

# **A Reference Grammar of the Novegradian Language**

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**Довѣднике по граматикѣ  
Новеградескаево лизика**

Martin Posthumus



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# *Foreword*

## *Предъсловія*

Novegradian is an artificially constructed language, an experiment in language development and evolution set against an alternative historical timeline. In working on it, I sought to create something realistic, a language that could conceivably be seen as a modern-day sibling to the other Slavic languages of Eastern Europe. The contents of this grammar were not simply created out of thin air; it involved a great deal of research into the other Slavic languages, their development, and the historical linguistic background of the broader Slavic language family, as well as the Uralic languages that were traditionally spoken in the same territory as the real Old Novgorodian and my own Modern Novegradian. Most of the inherited vocabulary was hand-derived from reconstructed Common Slavic, believed to be the ancestor of all the modern-day Slavic languages. A great deal of thought and effort was put into literally every single word of this language. It has been a project of four years at the time of writing, and I hope that time is reflected in the quality of the product.

Although the Novegradian language is artificial, it does have some roots in reality. The idea for it originated when I first came across an article on the “Old Novgorodian Dialect” on Wikipedia, a real and attested dialect spoken in north-west Russia around the city of Veliky Novgorod and throughout its vast territory from roughly the 10<sup>th</sup> through 15<sup>th</sup> centuries. This discovery sparked a long-lasting interest in me regarding both the medieval state of Novgorod and its language, both of which were highly unusual given their place and time on the periphery of Slavic-speaking territory. The Old Novgorodian dialect had a number of very unique features, such as its apparent lack of the Second Palatalization seen in all of the other Slavic languages, its unusual *Ō*-stem nominative singular ending *-e*, the origin of which is still a matter of great controversy, and unique phonological phenomena such as *tsokanye* and *shokanye*, referring to the confusion of /ts ~ tʃ/ and /sʲ ~ ʃ , zʲ ~ ʒ/ respectively. As someone with a great interest in Slavic historical linguistics, I couldn’t pass up the chance to delve deeper (although I realize to someone without a background in Slavic linguistics, the previous statements probably wouldn’t appear nearly as intriguing as they were to myself). After some

searching, I was able to come across some very high-quality literature and research regarding this dialect in both English and Russian.

To some extent, that may make Novegradian more of a hybrid language, an attempt to see what this long-extinct dialect might look like had it survived to the modern day. Much of the early history of the language as discussed in this grammar is real; I simply took various trends to their full conclusion, developing the Old Novgorodian dialect into a distinct language (and for that matter, a completely separate branch of the Slavic languages, albeit with heavy East Slavic influences). However, as a creative work, I was also able to take a number of artistic liberties. I did rewrite a few aspects of early history of Old Novgorodian; if you have much familiarity with the dialect, you may notice how I have preserved the Common Slavic vowel \*ě at least in certain cases, while it seems that in reality Old Novgorodian was one of the first Slavic languages to have lost it, merging it with \*i. I was also able to fully side with various theories that in reality are debatable, and take phenomena that were inconsistent in reality and make them consistent. In no way should any part of this work be taken as a scholarly piece on the real Old Novgorodian, despite the many real elements incorporated into it.

I must also give credit to a number of individuals whose own research and publications on the Old Novgorodian dialect have been invaluable in helping me to learn about it and create this work. In particular, A. A. Zaliznjak's amazingly thorough tome *Древненовгородский диалект*<sup>1</sup> has been a wonderful source of information on virtually every aspect of the language, and to this day remains the most detailed work on the subject that I am aware of. Others include Willem Vermeer<sup>2</sup> and Henrik Birnbaum<sup>3</sup>; in particular, I have referenced in summary Vermeer's theory on the origins of the Novgorodian nominative *-e* in section 24.5.2 of this grammar.

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1       Зализняк, А. А. *Древненовгородский диалект*. 2nd Ed. Moscow: Издательство «Языки славянской культуры», 2004.

2       Vermeer, W. "On Explaining Why the Early North Russian Nominative Singular in *-e* Does Not Palatalize Stem-Final Velars". *Russian Linguistics*, vol. 18, No. 2 (Jul. 1994), pp. 145-157.

3       Birnbaum, H. "Reflections on the Language of Medieval Novgorod". *Russian Linguistics*, vol. 15, No. 3 (1991), pp. 195-215.



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## List of Abbreviations

1	First Person
2	Second Person
3	Third Person
Abs	Absolute Pronoun
Acc	Accusative
Act	Active Voice
Adj	Adjective
Adv	Adverb
Anim	Animate
Coll.	Colloquial(ly)
Comp	Comparative
Cond	Conditional
Count	Count Form
CS	(Late) Common Slavic
Dat Impers	Impersonal Dative
Dat/Ins	Dative/Instrumental (also “D/I”)
Def	Definite
Det	Determinate
Dimin	Diminutive
Dist	Distributive
Dl	Dual
Dur	Durative
Emph	Emphatic
Excess	Excessive Degree
Expl	Overt Expletive
F	Feminine
Fem	Feminine
Fut	Future
Gen	Genitive
IE	Indo-European
Imper	Imperative
Impf	Imperfective
Inan	Inanimate
Inch	Inchoative
Indef	Indefinite
Indet	Indeterminate
Inf	Infinitive
Intens	Intensive Degree
Intr	Intransitive
Iter	Iterative



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Lat	Lative
lit.	Literally
Loc	Locative
M	Masculine
Masc	Masculine
Mid	Middle Voice
N	Neuter
N	Intrusive 'N'
Neg	Negative
Neut	Neuter
Nom	Nominative
Nov	Novegradian
OCS	Old Church Slavonic
ON	Old Novegradian
Opt	Optative
Part	Partitive
Pass	Passive Voice
Pf	Perfective
PIE	Proto-Indo-European
Pl	Plural
Poet.	Poetic or Flowery Style
Poss	Possessive Adjective
Ptcp	Participle
Pres	Present
Q	Interrogative/Question Particle
Qual Rel	Qualitative Relative Pronoun
Reflx	Reflexive
Reflx Poss	Reflexive Possessive Adjective
Rel	Relative Pronoun
Sl.	Slang
Sg	Singular
Subj	Subjunctive
Sup	Supine
Super	Superlative
Tel	Telic
Top	Topical Marker
Tr	Transitive
Tri	Trial Superlative
V	Intrusive 'V'
Voc	Vocative



# 1 *Background*

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*Востубленьє*

## *1.1 Introduction*

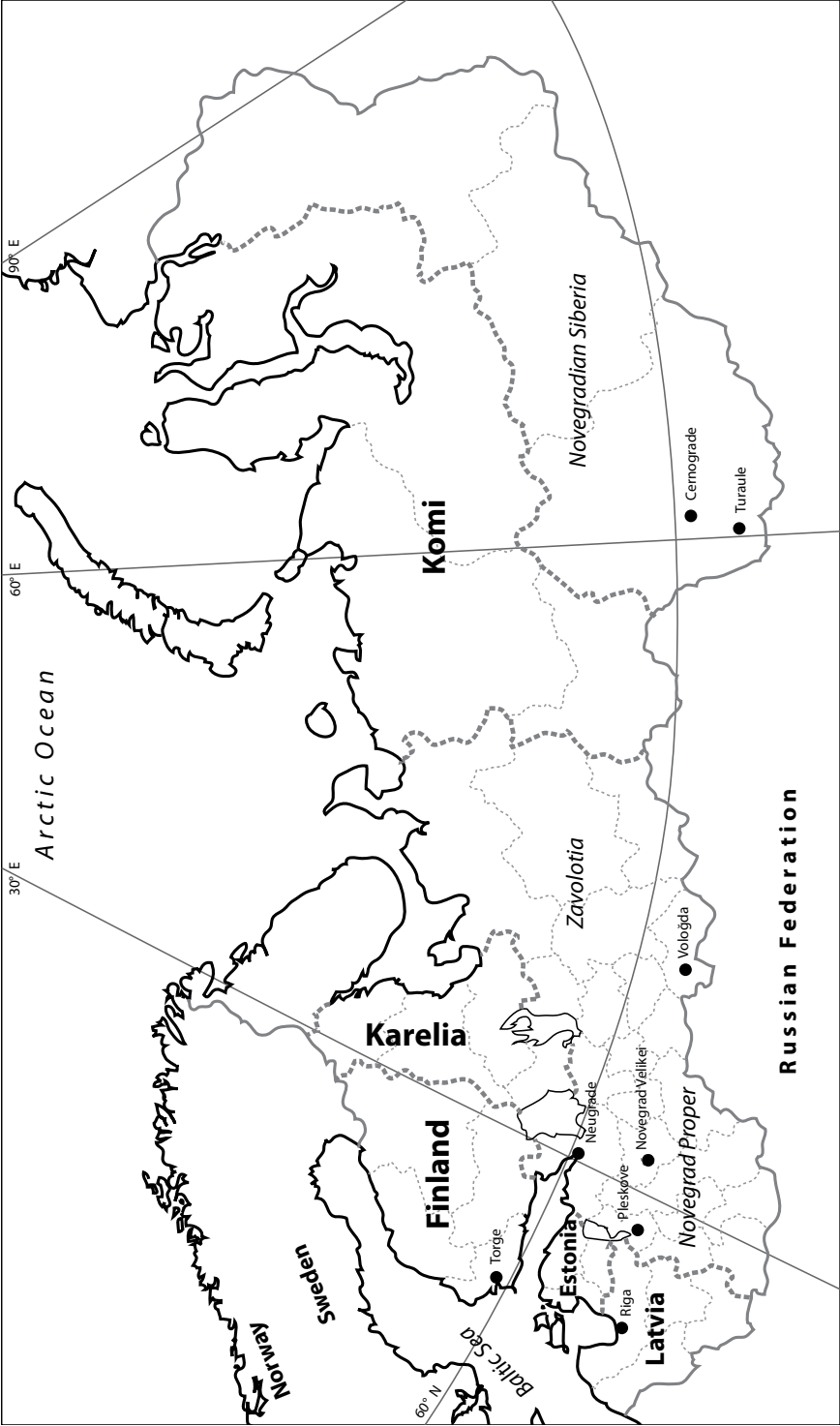
Novegradian (also called Novgorodian, from its name in Russian) is the official language of the Republic of Novegrad. With approximately 52 million native speakers, mostly in Novegrad and Russia, it ranks as the 23rd most widely-spoken language on Earth. It is the second most geographically widespread language of Europe, behind Russian, although it has very limited pickup as a second language outside of the Republic of Novegrad.

## *1.2 Novegrad*

The Republic of Novegrad (*Novegrádeskaia Respúblíka*, literally “Novegradian Republic”) spans much of northeastern Europe and the northwest of Asian Siberia, from the Baltic Sea to the Yenisei River. The cultural, economic, political, and historical center of the country is the area immediately around the capital city of Novegrad Velikei, one of the oldest cities of Eastern Europe.

Novegrad is a multiethnic nation, with five officially recognized nations aside from the Novegradians within its borders: the Finns, Estonians, Latvians, Karelians, and Komi. Within the territories of these peoples, local languages are spoken alongside Novegradian.

The rest of the country is typically divided into three main cultural and geographic regions. The westernmost area, up to roughly the Suda River, is often termed “Novegrad Proper” and is considered the heartland of the country. This is also the cradle of the Novegradian language. The rest of the European portion of Novegrad, up to the Ural Mountains, is known as the Zavolotia (*Zavlácija*), while the Asian portion is Novegradian Siberia (*Šibíre*). In these areas Novegradian was imposed as a colonial language, often supplanting local languages as the population of settlers grew and local peoples assimilated.



*Map of the Republic of Novegrad showing provinces and non-ethnic-Novegradian 'republics.'*

### *1.3 The Novegradian Language*

Novegradian is part of Slavic branch of the Indo-European language family. The Indo-European languages span much of Europe and south Asia, and includes such languages as English, German, French, Greek, Armenian, Farsi, and Hindi.

The hypothetical ancestor of all the Indo-European languages, known as Proto-Indo-European, is generally believed to have been spoken around 4000BC in the steppes of Ukraine and southwestern Russia between the Black and Caspian Seas, although both the date and location are subject to debate. As its speakers began to spread across Eurasia, the language began to disintegrate into a number of distinct dialects.

One of these daughter languages, known as pre-Proto-Slavic, is believed to have been spoken around the middle stretch of the Dnieper River by 1000BC at the latest. Due to the many similarities between Slavic and the Baltic languages (a family including modern Latvian and Lithuanian), it is commonly held that the Slavic and Baltic languages had a shared ancestor, termed Proto-Balto-Slavic. Others suggest these similarities are the result of centuries of close contact between the inland Slavs and the peoples of the Baltic littoral.

Over the next few hundred years the early Slavs came in frequent contact with speakers of Germanic and Iranian languages as the Scythians, Sarmatians, and various east Germanic tribes moved into the area dominated by Slavic speakers. These contacts have had a significant impact on the Slavic languages, as can be seen in the large number of loanwords that entered the common lexicon at this point in time.

The true “Proto-Slavic” period begins with the massive Slavic expansion beginning in the 4<sup>th</sup> century AD. Over the relatively short span of several hundred years, the range of the Slavs expanded from their ancestral homeland coinciding roughly with modern Belarus, Ukraine, and parts of Poland to take over most of Eastern Europe, from Novegrade Velikei in the north to Thessalonica in the south, and from the Oder in the west to the Don in the east. In the process Proto-Slavic displaced virtually all of the Celtic, Germanic, Balkan, and Finnic languages that had previously been spoken in this region.

The great expanse over which the language was now spoken, however, led to its own gradual disintegration into a number of dialects. There is evidence that as late as the 8<sup>th</sup> century virtually all of forms of Proto-Slavic were still mutually comprehensible, as the Old Church Slavonic translations of various Christian texts (based on the dialect of Thessalonica) was clearly understood by the Slavs of Bohemia and Moravia as well. The development of the four main groups of Slavic dialects marks the beginning of the period known as Common Slavic.

The four branches of Slavic languages that emerged out of the Common Slavic period are named for the four cardinal directions: North, South, East, and West Slavic.

The South Slavic languages were spoken throughout the Balkans, and would eventually give rise to modern Bulgarian, Macedonian, Serbo-Croatian (Serbian, Croatian, Bosnian, and Montenegrin), and Slovene. These were split off from the rest of the Slavic languages relatively early by the invading ‘barbarian’ nations of central Asia that settled around the Carpathians.

The West Slavic languages were spoken in central Europe, roughly from Bohemia to the Vistula. These would develop into modern Czech, Slovak, Polish, and Upper and Lower Sorbian.

The East Slavic languages were used throughout the easternmost territory of the Slavs and most of the territory of Kievan Rus’. Russian, Ukrainian, Belarusian, and Rusyn can trace their origins to Old East Slavic.

The old North Slavic dialect was spoken in the northern provinces of Kievan Rus’, in the regions of Novgorod (*Nóvegrade*) and Pskov (*Pleskóve*). This would eventually become modern Novegradian.

As an Indo-European language, Novegradian naturally maintains many linguistic features typical of other Indo-European languages. Verbs have a complex

The Major Slavic Languages

South	West	East	North
<u>East</u>	<u>Lechitic</u>	<u>Russian</u>	<u>Novegradian</u>
<i>Old Church Slavonic</i>	Polish	Russian	Novegradian
Bulgarian	Kashubian		
Macedonian	<i>Polabian</i>	<u>Ruthenian</u>	
	<u>Czech-Slovak</u>	Ukrainian	
<u>West</u>	Czech	Belarusian	
Slovene	Slovak	Rusyn	
Serbian	<u>Sorbian</u>		
Croatian	Upper Sorbian		
Bosnian	Lower Sorbian		
Montenegrin			

*Extinct languages marked in italics*

fusional morphology indicating a number of tenses, aspects, and moods. Nouns similarly have a complex declensional system which incorporates three grammatical genders. Indo-European ablaut (vowel changes for grammatical or derivational purposes) are present, though no longer fully productive. It has nominative-accusative alignment, a neutral word order of subject-verb-object (SVO), and is primarily prepositional.

Among the Slavic languages, Novegradian is quite exceptional in a number of respects, testifying to its relatively early exit from Common Slavic. It never underwent certain changes seen in all other Slavic languages, such as the second regressive palatalization, while at the same time undergoing a number of unique developments not seen anywhere else, such as its reorganization of the inherited Slavic declensional patterns. These issues will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter 24, “History Phonology and Morphology”.

Due to its northern location on the Slavic periphery, Novegradian also had extensive contact and influence from the Uralic languages, a non-Indo-European family spanning from Finland and Lapland to central Siberia. These contacts have had a profound impact on Novegradian morphology, syntax, and of course its lexicon.

## *1.4 History of Novegradian*

Originally Novegradian and Russian were considered the same language, being little more than regional variants spoken among the peasantry in the kingdom of Kievan Rus'. However, this was not necessarily an accurate characterization, as the two languages were already displaying very different features. As Kievan Rus' fractured, the Novegradians distanced themselves from the Russians of Kiev and later Moscow, and the Novegradian language began to develop its distinct identity.

The earliest attestations of a distinct Novegradian dialect date to the 11<sup>th</sup> century AD. It was most prominently displayed in the thousands of short letters and notes carved on birch bark dating from between the 11<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> centuries, which were reasonably well preserved due to the marshy, anoxic soil around much of Novegrad Velikei. Analysis of these and other documents suggests basic literacy in Novegradian cities at the time was surprisingly high and was present in virtually all classes of society. This was not, however, literacy in the way it is understood nowadays; these people seem to have known the Cyrillic alphabet quite well, but knowledge of formal Church Slavonic (the written standard throughout Rus') was much rarer. As a result, we have a large number of these birchbark documents written the only way these people knew how to write—exactly as they spoke.

The standard language of the educated throughout most of Rus' was Old Church Slavonic, a South Slavic language that spread alongside Orthodox Christianity among the elite. Its influence would be felt on Russian well into the 18<sup>th</sup> century, with Church Slavonic vocabulary composing a large portion of the lexicon. In Novegrad, however, the influence of Old Church Slavonic was much smaller and rather limited outside the realm of religious vocabulary; the few surviving texts from Novegrad composed in 'Old Church Slavonic' contain a large number of misspellings based on local pronunciations and local vocabulary absent from the Old Church Slavonic of the rest of Rus'.

Up through roughly the late 14<sup>th</sup> century the main external influences on Novegradian were Germanic and Finnic. At this point the gradually-expanding territory of Novegrad included a large number of Finnic peoples, most notably the Karelians, as well as Novegradians in close proximity. Early on many Novegradians and Karelians were bilingual in each other's languages, allowing many typically Finnic grammatical features and vocabulary to be incorporated into Novegradian. Most of the Karelians south of the Svir River were assimilated into Novegradian culture by the late 15<sup>th</sup> century.

During this same time period, extensive contact with a number of Germanic nations took place mostly through trade and warfare. Novegrad Velikei hosted one of the largest marketplaces of the Hanseatic League, a merchant organization based out of the German city of Lübeck (in Novegradian, *Liuwce*). The Novegradians had a less friendly relationship with the Swedes and Teutonic Knights, who they were frequently at war with. The Germanic influence was not nearly as direct as the Finnic influence, but nevertheless resulted in quite a few terms relating to trade, government, and warfare entering common usage.

The Mongol invasions and the time of the Tatar yoke in Rus', lasting from the mid 13<sup>th</sup> to the late 15<sup>th</sup> centuries, had much less of a linguistic impact on Novegradian as it did on Russian, although it was nevertheless felt. Novegrad managed to remain independent of the Mongols, though many terms related primarily to commerce and law filtered down via Russian.

The 15<sup>th</sup> through 17<sup>th</sup> centuries marked a new period of Uralic influence, this time primarily from the Permic languages, such as Komi. As the Novegradians expanded further and further into the Zavolotia and new trade routes developed to Europe through the White Sea and overland to the Middle East and China through Siberia, the population of the Novegradian East grew rapidly.

Western European influences began to appear starting in the 17<sup>th</sup> century and really took off in the 18<sup>th</sup> as contact between Eastern and Western Europe at last started to become reestablished after hundreds of years of separation. French became the language of the courts, German of the military, and Dutch of the mer-



chant marine. The Novegradian language was flooded with westernisms as French high culture became fashionable. However, during this same time, interest in actually codifying the Novegradian language first began to appear.

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, this trend underwent a sharp reversion. Novegradian nationalism and pan-Slavism swept through the country, and purists sought to purge the language of Western elements. Latinate vocabulary and ‘internationalisms’ were replaced by native coinages, many of which did succeed in becoming entrenched. Russian began to replace French as the language of prestige, aided of course by the temporary integration of Novegrad into the Russian Empire.

The new sense of Novegradian nationalism and shared identity also manifested itself in the development of the first attempts at complete grammars and dictionaries. One, Vladímire Sisóline’s Грамматика Новеградского Изыка *Grammatika Novegradeskago Iizyka*, would become the standard up until the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century with few changes other than spelling. It was, however, heavily influenced by Russian and poorly represented the actual state of spoken language.

Russian influence continued to grow well into the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when Novegrad, once again nominally independent, became a close associate of the Soviet Union and later a member of the Warsaw Pact. As the political regime swayed between nationalism and sovietization, Russian went through varying degrees of official promotion to the detriment of Novegradian; to the present day nearly all Novegradians over 50 years of age can speak Russian with varying degrees of proficiency. However, during this same period, the Novegradians once again became more receptive to ‘internationalisms’, especially with regards to technology.

The 1960s saw the first attempts at revising the traditional russified model of the Novegradian standard. For the previous two hundred years, Novegradian suffered a sort of identity crisis, with both the literary and political elite encouraging a much more “Slavic” (i.e., Russian) grammar while downplaying many of the more divergent aspects of the language. While still not fully representative of many Uralic influences, among other features, it represents a significant step towards establishing Novegradian as a language equally worthy of respect and prestige as Russian.

Since the fall of the Eastern bloc in 1991, the single greatest influence on Novegradian has been English, the new international language of technology and business. More and more Novegradians are learning English, and English loans have penetrated virtually every sphere of life. Reactions to this, however, have been mixed, with growing alarm at its sheer pervasiveness.

There continues to be a prominent diglossia in Novegrad between the standard language and the spoken language. However, the democratization of expression in recent years has led to an increase of awareness and acceptance of many aspects

of spoken Novegradian and of its regional dialects. In fact, today there exist *three* different standards for the formal spoken language: one used in Finland, one in Latvia, and one throughout the rest of Novegrad. These three standards only have minor differences, but hearken back to the formative days of the language when the Novegradians wrote as they spoke, not according to an imposed guideline.

## ***1.5 Introduction to this Grammar***

This reference grammar seeks to outline the basic principles of Standard Novegradian as is taught in schools in Novegrad Velikei and is expected to be used in semiformal and formal circumstances throughout the country. This will be followed by a discussion of other forms of Novegradian—aspects of the spoken language that are not codified in descriptions of the standard written language in Chapter 22, and both the standardized and non-standardized dialects of Novegradian in Chapter 23. However, references to the spoken language will be made throughout this text when appropriate.

This grammar begins with a description of the phonology and writing system of the language in order to provide a foundation for pronunciation and reading throughout the rest of the text. From here, morphology and word formation will be examined, with emphasis on structure rather than meaning. All of this information will then be combined in the chapters on syntax, which will detail the actual usage of all of these forms.

At the end of this grammar are a number of appendices explaining other features (mostly lexical) that did not fit anywhere else. Chapter 24 contains a detailed historical account of the development of modern Novegradian from a technical perspective, detailing the emergence of Novegradian phonology and morphology from Common Slavic.

Standard Novegradian orthography using the Cyrillic alphabet will be employed throughout this text. For ease and clarity, however, transliterations will always be provided in italics. English translations always appear in double quotation marks: *новеградескей лизике* *novegrádeskei lizíke* “the Novegradian language”. Details on the orthography and transliteration scheme are provided in Chapter 3.

Phonetic transcriptions will appear in [square brackets], while phonemic transcription appear in /forward slashes/, as per linguistic convention. All phonological transcriptions use the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

Once more of the morphology has been introduced and usage is being examined more in depth, interlinear glosses will be used alongside transcriptions and

translations. These provide a morpheme-by-morpheme breakdown of a given Novegradian word or phrase. Multiple morphemes are separated by hyphens, while a morpheme conveying multiple meanings at once will have those meanings separated by a period. Non-lexical morphemes appear in SM ALLCAP S. For instance, Novegradian uses a single morpheme to mark a noun as being in the accusative case and singular in number, so the accusative singular of the word “book” would be indicated *book-ACC.SG*. Null morphemes are indicated with  $\emptyset$ ; however, this is usually only done to draw attention to the fact that a particular morpheme has zero surface realization.

Hypothetical word forms, in particular reconstructed forms of a proto-language, will be preceded by a single \*asterisk. Non-existent forms, used for instance to indicate an exception to a pattern, will be preceded by \*\*two asterisks.



# 2

# Phonology

Ї

Вонольогя

## 2.1 Vowels

### 2.1.1 Phonemes

Novegradian has seven phonemic vowels, although only six natively, as shown in the table below.

	Front	Central	Back
High	i	(ɨ)	u
Mid	e		o
Low	æ		a

Note that /o/ and /u/ are obligatorily lip-rounded.

The low front vowel /æ/ represents the *yat*, a vowel lost in the standard forms of most other Slavic languages (although sometimes present in dialectal variants). Its actual realization in Novegradian is higher than the cardinal [æ], though still lower than /e/. The vowel /ɨ/ is only found in loanwords from Uralic languages or Russian, never in native words.

In addition to the above vowels, the following diphthongs in /j/ or /w/ are acceptable: /aj ej oj uj æj ij aw ew ow uw æw iw/.

### 2.1.2 Allophones

#### 2.1.2.1 Stressed Vowels

Stressed vowels show relatively little variation. There are, however, two positions in which slight changes may occur.

1. Word-finally, the mid-level vowels tend to lower slightly. /e/ becomes [ɛ] and /o/ becomes [ɔ]. In some dialects, /o/ may further lower to [ɒ].

2. Word-initially, /e/, /æ/, and /o/ may acquire glides, becoming [je], [jæ], and [wo] respectively. This is more prominent on /e/ and /æ/ than on /o/. Unlike in Russian, this also applies to foreign loans.

### 2.1.2.2 *Unstressed Vowels*

Unstressed vowels tend to be shorter than stressed vowels, and show a clear loss in quality.

- /i u/ - The high vowels change very little, although word-finally they centralize toward (though not all the way to) [ɪ] and [ʊ], respectively. This also occurs before nasal consonants.
- /i/ - Like the other high vowels, it generally changes very little. Word-finally or before nasals, it may either not reduce at all or centralize toward [ə]. Both are considered acceptable as long as the speaker is consistent, although the latter pronunciation is becoming increasingly rare.
- /a/ - Pronounced as schwa [ə] in all positions when unstressed.
- /o/ - Word-initially, it acquires a glide as it does when stressed, though it is much weaker than the stressed version. Elsewhere, there is little discernable reduction in the standard.
- /e/ - Word-initially, it acquires a glide as it does when stressed. It is pronounced [e] when word-final or before non-word-final /r l ʔ/, and as [ɛ] elsewhere.
- /æ/ - Pronounced [i~ɪ] when unstressed, merging completely with /i/ (although in initial position it retains the initial [j] glide).

The vocalic element of each of the diphthongs is subject to the same reductions when unstressed.

### 2.1.2.3 *Summary of Vowel Allophony*

	/a/	/e/	/i/	/æ/	/o/	/u/	/ɨ/
Initial Stressed	a	jɛ, je	i	jæ	wɔ	u	ɨ
Medial Stressed	a	ɛ, e	i	æ	o	u	ɨ
Final Stressed	a	ɛ	i	æ	ɔ	u	ɨ
Initial Unstressed	ə	jɛ, je	i, ɪ	ji, jɪ	ʊɔ	u, ʊ	ɨ
Medial Unstressed	ə	ɛ, e	i, ɪ	ɨ, ɪ	o	u, ʊ	ɨ
Final Unstressed	ə	e	ɪ	ɪ	o	ʊ	ɨ, ɐ

## 2.2 Consonants

### 2.2.1 Phoneme Summary

The Novegradian consonant inventory is summarized in the following table:

	Labial	Dental	Post-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plosive	p b	t d		c ɟ	k ɡ
Fricative	β	s z		ç ʝ	x ɣ
Pal. Fric.		sʲ zʲ			
Nasal	m	n		ɲ	
Affricate		ts dz	(tʃ)		
Other	w	r l ɫ		j	

### 2.2.2 Plosives

Novegradian has eight plosive consonants. These are spread over four points of articulation (labial, dental, palatal, and velar), each distinguishing a voiceless and voiced stop: /p b t d c ɟ k ɡ/. All plosives are pronounced unaspirated in all positions except word-finally, where they can acquire a slight aspiration. The voiced

stops /b d ʒ g/ all devoice to [p t c k] word-finally as well.

The dental and velar consonants /t d k g/ become palatalized to [tʲ dʲ kʲ gʲ] before stressed front vowels as well as before /j/. This can be accompanied by a weak friction (i.e., [tʲsʲ dʲzʲ kʲxʲ gʲʃʲ]), though full affricatization is non-standard and widely considered uneducated.

Before the rounded vowels /o u/, all plosives become slightly labialized.

The exact realization of the palatal consonants /c ʃ/ varies quite a bit. [c ʃ] are considered the most proper forms, although the palatalized velars [kʲ gʲ] are generally regarded as an acceptable variant, particularly in regions where Novegradian is still widely learned as a second language, as in parts of Estonia, Finland, Karelia, and Komi; in these areas /c ʃ/ therefore are not distinguished from /k g/ before stressed front vowels.

In regions where the [c ʃ] pronunciations are standard, there is often a slight affricatization occurring before any stressed vowel: [cʰ ʃʰ]. Word-finally, [c] is still the preferred realization, although it is very common for the preceding vowel to acquire a slight offglide: /ac aʃ/ [a(ɪ)c a(ɪ)c]. In [kʲ gʲ] regions, the palatalization is completely lost and the glide is mandatory: /ac aʃ/ [aɪk aɪkʲ].

## 2.2.3 Fricatives

Novegradian has a total of nine fricative consonants: /β s z sʲ zʲ x ɣ/. However, their distribution is asymmetric and many have a relatively complex system of allophones that overlap with other phonemes.

The dental fricatives /s z/ are the least problematic. Although frequently called “dental”, they are in fact laminal alveolar consonants; the traditional classification is mostly one of convenience, perhaps influenced by the fact that the tip of the tongue usually ends up pressed against the back of the *lower* teeth. Like other dental consonants, they palatalize to [sʲ zʲ] before stressed front vowels, and /z/ devoices to [s] word-finally.

However, confusingly, /sʲ zʲ/ are also considered phonemes in Novegradian. They are pronounced virtually identically to the palatalized allophones of /s z/, and so /s z/ and /sʲ zʲ/ naturally do not contrast before stressed front vowels. However, /sʲ zʲ/ remain palatalized in all cases, and can occur in unstressed syllables and word-finally as well. Without looking at the etymology of a word, the easiest way to tell whether a given [sʲ zʲ] before a stressed front vowel represents /s z/ or /sʲ zʲ/ is to look at other forms of the word where that vowel is either no longer front or the stress has shifted off of it; if the fricatives are still palatalized, then they represent /sʲ zʲ/.



Like other voiced/voiceless pairs, /z<sup>l</sup>/ devoices to [s̺<sup>l</sup>] word-finally.

Immediately before or after an oral plosive, /s<sup>j</sup> z<sup>j</sup>/ are pronounced as postalveolar fricatives [ʃ ʒ]. This also occurs before nasal consonants, but only word-initially, so long as the nasal itself is not palatalized due to a following stressed front vowel; for instance, /'s<sup>j</sup>na/ ['ʃna], but /'s<sup>j</sup>ne/ [s̺<sup>j</sup>n̺<sup>e</sup>].

The palatal fricatives /ç ʝ/, like the palatal plosives, have two different regional standards regarding their pronunciation. The most common is as true palatal fricatives [ç ʝ]; this one is universally regarded as correct. However, in the same areas where palatal plosives are realized as palatalized velar plosives, these two fricatives will typically be pronounced [x<sup>j</sup> ɣ<sup>j</sup>]; this is considered acceptable in the regions in which it occurs, but is frequently derided by those who pronounce these two consonants as true palatals.

As with the palatal plosives, [ç ʝ] dialects may insert a palatal glide beforehand when word-final, although this is much less frequent than with the plosives (to the point that some speakers view it as hypercorrection, especially from those who natively use [x<sup>j</sup> ɣ<sup>j</sup>]). In [x<sup>j</sup> ɣ<sup>j</sup>] dialects, however, the glide remains mandatory: /aç aʝ/ [aɾ aɾ]. In all dialects /j/ devoices when word-final, whatever its realization may be.

The velar fricatives /x ɣ/ may appear to be a typical voiceless/voiced pair at first glance, but their behavior suggests otherwise. As with the velar plosives, /x/ palatalizes to [x<sup>j</sup>] before stressed front vowels, but /ɣ/ lenites to little more than a palatal glide [j]. Word-finally, /ɣ/ also lenites to [j] rather than devoicing to [x]. On the other hand, in certain morphologically-induced environments that trigger allomorphic voicing (to be discussed later), /x/ *does* voice to /ɣ/. Perhaps, then, it could be said that /ɣ/ is the voiced counterpart of /x/, but [x] not the voiceless counterpart of /ɣ/.

The voiced bilabial fricative /β/ is the sole unpaired fricative, and with the possible exception of /ɣ/ it doesn't behave at all like any of the other fricatives. Whenever it comes in contact with another consonant (with the inconsistent exceptions of the liquids /r l/ and the glide /j/) it lenites to [w]; it does the same word-finally. In rapid speech it may become [w] in *all* positions except utterance-initially.

## 2.2.4 Nasals

There are three nasal consonants in Novegradian: /m n ɲ/. For the most part these consonants are consistent in their pronunciation. /n/, like other dental consonants, becomes palatalized [n<sup>j</sup>] before stressed front vowels. The palatal nasal /ɲ/ is pronounced [ɲ] in all dialects; the realization [n<sup>j</sup>] is not permitted by any

standard, although it nevertheless may occasionally be heard.

### 2.2.5 Affricates

Novegradian has two native affricates, /ts dz/, and one loan affricate, /tʃ/. All of these behave as though they were a single consonant; this can be emphasized by writing a tiebar above them in phonetic transcription, although for the sake of simplicity this will not be done here unless it is necessarily to contrast the affricates / $\widehat{\text{ts}} \widehat{\text{dz}}$ / from the sequences of discrete phonemes /ts dz/. The affricates / $\widehat{\text{ts}} \widehat{\text{dz}}$ / do in fact contrast with /ts dz/; in the former, the fricative serves as the plosive's release, while in the latter the plosive has a separate release that occurs before the fricative phoneme begins to be articulated. As with other paired phonemes, /dz/ also devoices to /ts/ when word-final.

Unlike the other dental consonants, /ts dz/ usually do not become palatalized before front vowels.

The postalveolar affricate /tʃ/ is only found in loanwords, particularly from Russian and various Western European languages, and is Novegradian's only postalveolar phoneme. It is fairly consistently pronounced [tʃ], although the alveolo-palatal pronunciation [tɕ] is common in southern dialects.

### 2.2.6 Liquids and Glides

Novegradian has three liquid consonants (two laterals and one rhotic) and two glides.

The two laterals are the plain dental /l/ (or “clear L”) and the velarized dental /ɫ/ (or “dark L”). The plain /l/ is often pronounced noticeably palatalized, as [lʲ], even when not in a front vowel environment. Before stressed front vowels, it tends to acquire a fricative release [lʲʰ] or even become a voiced alveolo-palatal fricative [ʒ].

The velarized lateral /ɫ/ has a fairly consistent realization; it is never weakened to [w] as it did in, e.g., Polish. In coda position it causes preceding vowels to centralize: /aɫ/ [ɐɫ].

Some linguists prefer to analyze Novegradian as having three laterals: /l lʲ L/, where the first two correspond to traditional /l/ and the last one to traditional /ɫ/. The division of /l/ into two phonemes is an attempt to account for the fact that there are some instances where traditional /l/ is always pronounced palatalized, while in other situations it is optional; this appears to be lexical, with the mandatory palatalization appearing primarily in Russian loanwords that originally contained /lʲ/: революция [rɛ.βo.ʲlʲu.tsjə] “revolution” vs non-Russian-loaned

биѡлогя [bi.jo.lʲo.gjə] “biology”. This three-way contrast is common amongst older speakers (many of whom learned Russian at a young age), but is rarely seen amongst younger speakers outside of the Southern dialect region along the Russian border.

The single rhotic is the dental trill /r/. It does not undergo any sort of palatalization, and in normal speech averages about two or three taps.

The two glides are the palatal glide /j/ and the labiovelar glide /w/, both of which are essential components of diphthongs. They show little allophonic variation.

## 2.3 Syllables

Syllables are usually divided immediately following the vowel whenever possible. This applies across word boundaries as well, meaning a word ending in a consonant is usually slurred together with the following word if it begins with a vowel.

## 2.4 Stress

Stress in Novegradian is primarily lexical; there is no rule that can derive the stressed syllable of a given word using purely phonological principles. The stress of every word must be memorized on an individual basis, and indeed is important for the morphology of the word. It is phonemic, meaning that there are many words and word forms that are distinguished only by their different stresses.

Novegradian stress is also dynamic, such that it can shift from one syllable to another in different forms or derivations of the same word. However, there *are* rules regarding this. Any given noun, verb, or adjective has an inherent stress pattern. Once this pattern is known for a particular word, it is possible to determine the stressed syllable for all forms of that word. For instance, many words are ‘stem-stressed’ (the stress remains on a single syllable in the stem in all forms) or ‘ending-stressed’ (the stress always falls on a grammatical suffix if one is present); many others have some sort of ‘mobile stress’, where the stressed syllable moves predictably between the stem and ending. These sorts of stress patterns will be discussed at a later point, along with morphology.

Acoustically, Novegradian stress is marked by a combination of amplitude and length. Stressed vowels are noticeably louder and more forceful than unstressed vowels, and tend to be articulated for about 50% longer than a pretonic unstressed vowel, and 70% longer than a posttonic unstressed vowel.

Words of three or fewer syllables may only have a single stressed syllable. Longer words, however, may also have one or more secondarily stressed syllables. For the most part, secondary stress can be determined regularly by identifying the primary stress, and then applying secondary stress to every other syllable in each direction from the primary stress.

Compound words may or may not have multiple primary stresses. For this to happen, both stems (not counting case endings or linking morphemes) must have at least two syllables each; otherwise one stem will dominate. If either stem consists of only a single syllable while the other has more, the stem containing a single syllable is certain to acquire primary stress.

## 2.5 *Phonotactics*

### 2.5.1 Distribution Restrictions

On a phonemic level, there are no restrictions on the distribution of non-clustered consonants or vowels. Any single consonant may appear in onset or coda position, word-initially, word-medially, or word-finally. Any vowel or diphthong may appear word-initially, word-medially, or word-finally.

On the surface, however, this is not the case. Most prominently, the word-final devoicing rule ensures that no voiced consonant that also has an unvoiced counterpart may appear at the end of a word without first undergoing devoicing (though see the discussion of interword sandhi below). In a similar vein, [β] cannot occur word-finally as well.

The main limitations on *phonemic* distribution, therefore, are to be found in the context of consonant clusters.

### 2.5.2 Clusters

Novegradian is quite lenient when it comes to word-internal clusters, where almost anything is permitted except for a consonant + another consonant having the same point of articulation and manner of articulation (e.g., -pm- and -pt- are acceptable, while -pp- and -pb- are not). While clusters of two oral stops are technically permitted, they are extremely rare and only occur in loan words, and even then usually optionally: Нептуне *Néptune* ['nʲɛp.tu.ne, 'nʲɛ.pɛ.tu.ne]. /β/ is generally not tolerated in word-internal clusters—never as the first consonant, and only as the second consonant in high-class speech. Word-initially most two-consonant

clusters are allowed, unless there is too great an upshift in sonority (eg, \*jd-, although js- can be seen).

Word-initially, clusters are limited to:

- A non-palatal plosive, fricative, affricate, or /m/ + /r l/: /pr br tr dr kr gr  
βr sr zr sʲr zʲr xr yr tsr dzr tʃr mr pl bl tl kl gl βl sl zl sʲl zʲl xl yl tsl dzl tʃl  
ml/
- /s z/ + a non-palatal plosive with the same voicing or a non-palatal nasal:  
/sp st sk sm sn zb zd zg zm zn/
- /sʲ zʲ/ + any plosive with the same voicing or any nasal: /sʲp sʲt sʲc sʲk sʲm  
sʲn sʲŋ zʲb zʲd zʲg zʲm zʲn zʲŋ/
- A bilabial or velar plosive + /s z sʲ zʲ/ with the same voicing: /ps ks bz gz  
psʲ ksʲ bzʲ gzʲ/
- A non-palatal plosive, fricative, affricate, or nasal + /j w/: /pj bj tj dj kj gj  
βj sj zj xj yj tsj dzj mj nj pw bw tw dw kw gw sw zw sʲw zʲw xw yw tsw  
dzw tʃw mw nw/ (with the exception of the non-existence of \* /sʲj zʲj tʃj  
βw/)
- /dzʲ/
- /spr spl str skr skl/
- /mn/

Of course, just because an initial cluster is possible doesn't mean it's common. In particular, any initial cluster with /zʲ/ as the second element is certain to be a loanword.

Three-consonant clusters in native words are limited to initial /spr spl str skr skl/ and internal /stw/. They can appear also in loanwords with much greater variety. However, no four-consonant clusters are ever permitted, and loaned clusters will be simplified: *иструкся istrúksia* “instructions” (not \*\**instruksia*).

Word-final clusters are not permitted in the formal language. They may appear in informal and semi-formal spoken Novegradian, however.

The sequence /sx/ is realized as [sk] in all environments. Within a single morpheme, it may often be simplest to treat these cases as /sk/ phonemically, as in *Пасха Pashá* [pə.'ska] “Easter, Pascha”. Between morphemes, this alternation appears allomorphically: *ходити hóditi* ['xo.di.tɪ] “go, walk” → *росходити roshóditi* [ro.'sko.di.tɪ] “part ways”.

### 2.5.3 Morpheme Boundaries

Morpheme boundaries generally have little effect on pronunciation. In com-

pounds, assimilation generally does not occur across morpheme boundaries unless the word has been long established. There is even a tendency to preserve allophonic traits in certain compounds (e.g., if the first part of a compound ends in a voiced consonant, it may be pronounced devoiced because that is how it is pronounced in isolation).

The one exception is that long consonants, which are allowed nowhere else, may appear if one morpheme ends in a consonant and the following begins with the same: *лун*- “moon” + *-н*- adjectival suffix → *лунне* *lúnne* “lunar” [ˈlunne].

Generally, Novegradian resolves illegal clusters at morpheme boundaries by inserting an epenthetic vowel, with a few common exceptions:

- /n/+n/ almost always results in a geminate /nn/
- /s z sʲ zʲ/ + /s/ usually results in a geminate /ss/
- /β/ + a suffix beginning with a plosive, fricative, affricate, or nasal usually results in the /β/ weakening to /w/
- Clusters of /st sk/ + /s n/ may result in the loss of the plosive
- The palatals /c ɟ n/ shift to /t d n/ before /n/; the palatals /ç ʝ/ shift to /x ɣ/
- If the two consonants have different voicing, the first consonant will acquire the voicing of the second; this only applies when both consonants have contrastive voicing.

If the two consonants have different voicing, the first consonant will acquire the voicing of the second; this only applies when both consonants have contrastive voicing: /sʲb/ [ʒb]. The same is true of palatalization: /ˈsne/ [ˈsʲnʲe].

Novegradian typically does not permit any sort of point-of-articulation assimilation other than those listed above. For instance, the word *банке* *bánke* is always pronounced [ˈban.ke], never \*[ˈban.ke].

## 2.5.4 Lexical Boundaries and Interword Sandhi

Consecutive words can often affect each other’s pronunciation. If the second word begins with a voiced consonant that also has an unvoiced counterpart and the first ends in an unvoiced consonant with a voiced counterpart, both are pronounced voiced due to assimilation, meaning the final devoicing in the first word has been cancelled out. Likewise, if the first consonant of the second word is palatalized, the last consonant of the first may be too, although to a much lesser extent.

### 2.5.5 Foreign Loans

Recent foreign loans that have not yet been “nativized” are exempt from several phonological rules. They generally will not have any palatalized consonants whatsoever. There was a time when many consonant clusters forbidden in native words would be preserved, but nowadays there is a much greater tendency to adapt these to fit the Novegradian phonology. Many modern-day loans have two spellings, one more accurately reflecting the original pronunciation and one more accurately representing the nativized pronunciation.

The rule of final devoicing still applies, however. Often the final consonant of a word may be ‘pre-devoiced’, such that it is always pronounced devoiced in all forms of a word. For example, final /g/ in a loan word will often be spelled as <κ> *k*.

## 2.6 *Morphophonemic Alternations*

Novegradian, like the other Slavic languages, exhibits a large number of morphophonemic alterations, whereby one consonant or vowel is replaced by another on an underlying phonemic level. These changes cannot be described purely in terms of the phonology of the modern language (even though they typically emerged through regular sound changes in earlier stages of the language), but rather by morphological principles.

Since they are governed by morphology, their usage will not be discussed in this section. The listing here simply provides an outline of the changes that do occur organized by time period of emergence. It is not exhaustive, but covers the vast majority of predictable morphophonemic alternations in modern standard Novegradian.

### 2.6.1 Proto-Indo-European Alternations

Most changes dating from the Proto-Indo-European period result from Indo-European ablaut, and are old enough that they are not immediately apparent; forms with and without a given alternation have diverged so far phonologically and semantically that their modern-day reflexes are no longer recognizable to most as representing the same original root. Compare the roots \*/gor/- “burn” and \*/zʰar/- “heat, bitterness” (from the PIE roots \*gor- and \*gēr- respectively).

However, a few alternations still have some semi-transparent functions:

- /o ~ e ~ Ø/:  
 /so.'b<sub>o</sub>.re/ “cathedral”  
 /so.be.'run/ “I will gather”  
 /so.'b<sub>r</sub>a.ti/ “to gather”
- /o ~ e/:  
 /'n<sub>o</sub>.s'i.ti/ “to carry (INDET)”  
 /'n<sub>e</sub>.sti/ “to carry (DET)”

### 2.6.2 Proto-Slavic Alternations

The Proto-Slavic alternations are old enough that they are present (or at least once were present) in all of the modern Slavic languages. Many have been at least partially undone by later developments, in particular analogy.

- /β ~ j/:  
 /βwi.da.'βa.ti/ “to give out”  
 /βwi.da.'jun/ “I give out”
- /k ~ ts/:  
 /'pla.kle/ “I cried”  
 /'pla.tsun/ “I cry”
- /g ~ z<sup>i</sup> ~ z/:  
 /'mo.gle/ “I could”  
 /'mu.zun/ “I can”
- /x ~ s<sup>i</sup>/:  
 /'ma.xa.ti/ “to wave”  
 /'ma.s<sup>i</sup>un/ “I wave”
- /Ø ~ i/:  
 /so.'b<sub>r</sub>a.ti/ “to gather (PF)”  
 /so.bi.'ra.ti/ “to gather (IMPF)”
- /o ~ u ~ a/:  
 /po.'m<sub>u</sub>.zun/ “I will help (PF)”  
 /po.m<sub>a</sub>.'gam/ “I help (IMPF)”
- /e ~ æ/:  
 /o.st<sub>e</sub>.'get/ “it will be supplied (PF)”  
 /o.st<sub>æ</sub>.'gas/ “it is being supplied (IMPF)”



- /d ~ s/:  
/'kra.dun/ “I steal”  
/'kra.sti/ “to steal”
- /β ~ Ø/:  
/z<sup>h</sup>i.βun/ “I live”  
/z<sup>h</sup>i.Øti/ “to live”

## 2.6.3 Common Slavic Alternations

Common Slavic alternations represent changes that began in the time period when Slavic dialects were first beginning to diverge from one another. As a result, the same consonants are affected by Common Slavic sound laws, but result in different reflexes in each of the different branches. These changes tend to still be highly productive.

- /t ~ c/:  
/'βra.ti.ti/ “to return”  
/'βra.cun/ “I return”
- /d ~ ʃ/:  
/'βi.dæ.ti/ “to see”  
/'βi.ʃun/ “I see”
- /s ~ ç/:  
/'te.sa.ti/ “to hew”  
/'te.çun/ “I hew”
- /z ~ j/:  
/'βe.za.ti/ “to tie”  
/'βe.jun/ “I tie”
- /sk, st ~ s<sup>h</sup>c/:  
/e.ska.ti/ “to seek”  
/e.s<sup>h</sup>cun/ “I seek”
- /zg, zd ~ z<sup>h</sup>ʃ/:  
/'æ.zdi.ti/ “to go [by vehicle]”  
/'æ.z<sup>h</sup>ʃun/ “I go [by vehicle]”
- /n ~ ɲ/:  
/xra.ɲi.ti/ “to keep”  
/xra.ɲun/ “I keep”

- /d ~ g/:  
/'da.da/ “they give”  
/'da.gli/ “they gave”
- /p, pj ~ pl/:  
/'ku.pi.ti/ “to store, amass”  
/'ku.plun/ “I store, amass”
- /b, bj ~ bl/:  
/lu.'bi.ti/ “to love”  
/lu.'blun/ “I love”
- /m, mj ~ ml/:  
/'z<sup>l</sup>e.mja/ “land (NOM SG)”  
/'z<sup>l</sup>em.lu/ “land (ACC SG)”
- /β, βj ~ wl, βl/:  
/a.'βi.ti/ “to reveal”  
/aw.'lun/ “I reveal”
- /k, g ~ jc/:  
/'mo.gle/ “I could”  
/'moj.ci/ “to be able”
- /o, e, i ~ Ø/:  
/ok.'no/ “window (NOM SG)”  
/o.'gon/ “windows (GEN PL)”
- /am, an ~ a/:  
/'dam.be/ “oak (NOM SG)”  
/'dab/ “oaks (GEN PL)”
- /a ~ u/:  
/'kra.ta/ “steep (NOM SG FEM INDEF)”  
/'kru.'da.ja/ “steep (NOM SG FEM DEF)”
- /e ~ i/:  
/'tez<sup>l</sup>.ka/ “heavy (NOM SG FEM INDEF)”  
/'tiz<sup>l</sup>.'ka.ja/ “heavy (NOM SG FEM DEF)”
- /i ~ j ~ ej/:  
/'pi.ti/ “to drink”  
/'pjun/ “I drink”  
/'pej/ “drink!”

## 2.6.4 Novegradian Alternations

These changes occurred after the complete breakup of the Slavic languages, and so were isolated to the Novegradian language and lack analogues in the other Slavic languages except by coincidence.

- /β(j) ~ l/:  
   /'kru.βa/ “roof (NOM SG)”  
   /'na krul/ “on the roof”
- /mj ~ n/:  
   /'z<sup>j</sup>e.mja/ “land (NOM SG)”  
   /'na z<sup>j</sup>ep/ “on the ground”
- /β ~ w/:  
   /zo.'βun/ “I call”  
   /'zwa.ti/ “to call”
- /o ~ a/:  
   /'k<sub>Q</sub>.s<sup>j</sup>a/ “cat”  
   /'ka.s<sup>j</sup>ka/ “cat (DIMIN)”

One additional change that developed during this stage complicates most of the others: a voicing of unclustered voiceless consonants before an historical stressed vowel. As a result, nearly every one of the alternations above that lists an unvoiced consonant could also involve its voiced equivalent. For example, the /s ~ ç/ change can also appear as /z ~ ç/, as in /pi.'za.ti/ “to write” ~ /'pi.çun/ “I write”, where *pizáti* comes from an earlier *pisáti*.



# 3 Writing



*Грамота*

## 3.1 The Alphabet

Novegradian uses a modified form of the Cyrillic alphabet with 35 letters, as shown in the following table. Due to many centuries of contact, the letters and spelling used are somewhat similar to Russian. Alongside each character are the letter's standard transliteration (as used in this document), primary phonetic value, and name.

Letter	IPA	Translit.	Name (IPA)	Name (Traslit.)
А а	a	a	a	<i>á</i>
Б б	b	b	bɛ	<i>bé</i>
В в	β, w	v	βɛ	<i>vé</i>
Г г	g	g	gʲɛ	<i>gé</i>
Гь гь	ɟ	gj	ɟa	<i>gjá</i>
Гг гг	ɣ	ǵ	jɛ	<i>ǵé</i>
Гь гь	ɟ	ǵj	ɟa	<i>ǵjá</i>
Д д	d	d	dʲɛ	<i>dé</i>
Е е	je, e	ie, e	jeje	<i>iéie</i>
Ё ё	jo	io	jo	<i>ió</i>
Ж ж	zʲ	ž	zʲa	<i>žá</i>
З з	z	z	zʲɛ	<i>zé</i>
С с	dz	dz	dze	<i>dzé</i>
И и	i	i	i	<i>í</i>
Й й	j	i, j	i krasko	<i>í krásko</i>
К к	k	k	ka	<i>ká</i>
Кь кь	c	kj	ca	<i>kjá</i>

Letter	IPA	Translit.	Name (IPA)	Name (Translit.)
Л л	l	l	lʲɛ	<i>lé</i>
Љ љ	ɭ	ɭ	ɭa	<i>lá</i>
М м	m	m	jɛm	<i>iém</i>
Н н	n	n	jɛn	<i>ién</i>
Њ њ	ɲ	ɲj	jɛɲ	<i>iénj</i>
О о	o	o	wo	<i>ó</i>
П п	p	p	pɛ	<i>pé</i>
Р р	r	r	ra	<i>rá</i>
С с	s	s	sʲɛ	<i>sé</i>
Т т	t	t	tʲɛ	<i>té</i>
У у	u	u	u	<i>ú</i>
Х х	x	h	xʲɛ	<i>hé</i>
Хь хь	ç	hj	ça	<i>hjá</i>
Ц ц	ts	c	tɕɛ	<i>cé</i>
Ш ш	sʲ	ś	sʲa	<i>śá</i>
Ђ ђ	æ	č	jatɛ	<i>iáte</i>
Ј ј	ju	iu	ju	<i>iú</i>
Ја ја	ja	ia	ja	<i>iá</i>

The digraphs гь, фь, кь, нь, and хь are considered single letters, and in dictionaries and other alphabetical listings are ordered after the non-palatal consonant they are based on. On vertical signs they are always grouped together, and in crosswords they fit into a single box. However, although they are single letters, they are composed of two distinct glyphs, meaning they have two majuscule forms: the ‘upper case’ Гь Фь Кь Нь Хь in all-capital texts or headlines, and ‘title case’ Гь Фь Кь Нь Хь when at the beginning of a word.

## 3.2 Extra Letters

In addition to the above, there are a number of extra letters not included in the alphabet, but often used to represent certain sounds in loanwords.

Letter	IPA	Translit.	Name (IPA)	Name (Translit.)
Ч ч	tʃ	č	tʃa	čá
Ї ї	i	y	iri	irý
È è	e	e	je twirɔ	ié tuírɔ
Ÿ ŷ	w	w	u krasko	ú krásko

The last, Ÿ, is a variant form of Y representing only the semivowel /w/. It is very rarely written unless sort of confusion could result (i.e., whether it is a diphthong or two syllables). It is also used in the very few word-initial clusters that begin with /w/. When the sequence /wu/ appears, *u krásko* is always used, as in *дүүдешитех dwudésiteh* “of twenty”.

È (whose name literally means “hard E” or “fixed E”) is a variant of E, though its function is mostly lexical. It appears on the end of indeclinable nouns that end in /e/ (mostly foreign loan words, such as *ковè kóve* “coffee”) to clearly differentiate them from fourth declension nouns and indicate that the /e/ is in fact part of the noun stem. In speech the final -e of fourth declension nouns frequently drops, while final -è can never be dropped under any circumstances. Compare cake *sáke* “bough” with *cakè sáke* “sake (alcohol)”. Note that while “E” is called “ee” *iéie* in Novegradian, È is always called “e туйрдо” *ie tuírɔ*, never *\*iéie tuírɔ*.

When ordering, Ч and Ї are placed at the end of the alphabet, after Я. Ÿ is mixed among Y and È among E, as they are considered variants forms.

### 3.3 Spelling

Novegradian has a fairly regular spelling system, where the one letter - one phoneme ideal is for the most part maintained. However, there are a number of spelling rules that must be noted.

Voicing assimilation at the edges of morphemes is rarely indicated; to this extent Novegradian orthography may be considered as following the ‘morphological principle’ rather than the ‘phonetic principle’. Similarly, word-final devoicing is usually not indicated: *ниг níg* “books (GEN PL)” [‘n’ik].

Й represents /j/ post-vocally and pre-consonantly. As such, it is generally only used to represent the sound as the second element of a diphthong (ай *ai*), or as the first element of a cluster (йсе *jse*). The only exception is the sequence йи, which is used to represent the sequence /ji/ word-initially, though this is very rare. When the /j/ is followed by another vowel, the ‘iotafied’ letters Я Ъ Е Ё Ю are

Аа	Бб	Вв	Гг	Гь гь	Гг	Гь гь	Дд	Дд	Ее	Ее	Жж	Зз	Зз
Ии	Йй	Кк	Кь кь	Лл	Ль ль	Мм	Нн	Нь нь	Оо	Оо	Пп	Рр	Рр
Тт	Уу	Хх	Хь хь	Цц	Шш	Щщ	Юю	Юю	Яя	Чч	Ыы	Ээ	Ээ

Standard Novegradian cursive handwriting. For the most part it shares much in common with Russian handwritings; however, there are a number of different forms, most noticeably with Г and Х. The former has a more rounded shape in Novegradian than in Russian, while the latter has an entirely different form. Since the letters X/Xb are much more frequent in Novegradian than in Russian, a simpler form was developed that does not require the pen to be lifted off the page.



used: ая *aia*.

The letters E and Ъ are always considered iotafied. At the beginning of a word and after another vowel they are pronounced [je jæ], and when stressed after a dental or velar consonant they palatalize the consonant as described earlier. Only after the non-palatalizable consonants, such as the labials, are the stressed forms just pronounced /e æ/ without any palatal element.

У is used to represent both the vowel /u/ and the semivowel /w/, including in diphthongs. Normally there is little confusion as to which pronunciation is intended, but if there is, the variant form Ў may be used to represent /w/. This is most common in clusters or before e or Ъ: ўсе *use*, усе *use*; ўе *we*, уе *uie*.

F at the end of a word is pronounced /j/, as though that were its unvoiced counterpart. However, there are a number of words where this /ʏ/ [j] is actually spelled <й> in unsuffixed forms. Which words use this alternation and which always use F must be memorized.

Ђ is pronounced [æ] when stressed and [i] when unstressed. While this letter is generally used to represent both, in many non-changing words, particularly prepositions, variant spellings with both Ђ and и may be seen if the vowel is unstressed, such as намѣстѣ/намѣсти “instead”. Generally the spellings with Ђ are more formal or archaic than those with и.

When the sequences /je/ or /jæ/ appear after a consonant, they are generally spelt ие/иѣ, not е/ѣ or ѣе/ѣѣ: обиеме *obiéme*. All other sequences of /j/ + vowel are written with just an iotafied vowel: шѣмя *šémiá*. For the purposes of romanization /j/ will generally be represented with “i”; “j” will only be used for word-initial /j/ before a consonant and for /j/ in the sequences /ij ji/ (e.g., црвение *cervénije*). The letter “j” in *kj, gj, hj, ġj, nj* represents the palatal series of consonants.

When an intervocalic voiced consonant occurs that was historically an unvoiced geminate, it is written using the unvoiced followed by the voiced form of the consonant: сутда *sutdá* “floor, storey” (originally /sut.'ta/, now /su.'da/). The one exception is /zʲ/, which is written шз: Рошзия *Rošzija* “Russia” (originally /ros.'sʲi.ja/, now /ro.'zʲi.ja/).

The foreign sequence /dʒ/ is typically represented as дч *dč*, not as дж as in Russian or other languages using Cyrillic. This can be seen in native words such as кудчом *kudčóm*, the genitive plural of кучма *kúčma* “fur hat”, or in foreign terms such as the English name Дчордче *Dčórdče* “George”.

In addition to the above there are many instances of spellings that are simply irregular. There are two main sources of these spellings. The first consists of native words that have since undergone reduction or assimilation, or foreign loans whose spellings were never changed to more accurately reflect the “Novegradianized” pronunciation. Examples of the former include наступне *nastúpne* “next,

following” (pronounced [nə.'stu.ne]) and *росхирати* *roshiráti* “expand” (pronounced [ro.ski.'ra.tɪ]). Examples of the latter include *активне* *abtvne* “active, working” (pronounced [əx.'tʲi.ne]) and *нводише* *nvodíše* “leader, commander” (pronounced [ʋo.'dʲi.sʲe]). Often two pronunciations exist for such words, one reflecting a more historically accurate pronunciation, and one reflecting the spelling: *иске* *iske* “lawsuit, legal action” can be pronounced [ʲis.ke], based on spelling, or [ʲjes.ke], the expected pronunciation given historical sound changes. The spelling of this particular word is actually an archaism, though *ескати* *ieskáti* “search for”, the word from which it was derived, has undergone the /i/ → /e/ shift.

Other words are spelt irregularly just because the Novegradian alphabet has no good way of spelling them regularly without resorting to measures considered ‘ugly’ by those that use it. An example is *калеиша* *káleíša* “fishery” [ʲkal.ji.sʲə] where *e* is used to represent /j/ for little reason other than to avoid the uglier \*\**калииша* or more repetitive \*\**калииша*. This may also be a carryover from the Old Novegradian habit of spelling /j/ as *e*, prior to the invention of the *й* glyph.

### 3.4 Foreign Loans

Most foreign loanwords entering Novegradian during or after the 20<sup>th</sup> century are spelt so as to more or less preserve the original pronunciation, although their pronunciation in Novegradian nevertheless may be vastly different.

Transcribing foreign phonemes into Novegradian tends to be more difficult, however. Foreign /f/ tends to become either /β/ (*инвормася* *invormásia* “information”) or /x/ (*вотограхя* *votográhia* “photograph”). It may also become /k/ when followed by /l/, the result of a later sound change /xl/ → /kl/: *клате* *klóte* “fleet” (German Flotte). /θ/ and /ð/ become /t/ and /d/ respectively (*теѣлогя* *teiológia* “theology”). Novegradian, generally not accepting of vowels in hiatus, will also add in semivowels where they did not originally exist (*геѣрахя* *geiográhia* “geography”). /h/ becomes /x/, or sometimes at the beginning of a word, nothing.

Most other sounds are transcribed using methods similar to Russian’s. For example, the front rounded vowels /y/ and /ø/ become /ju/ and /jo/. A variant of the Palladiy system is used to transcribe Chinese, the Polivanov system for Japanese, and the Kontsevich system for Korean. Of course, the average Novegradian speaker has about as much luck figuring out Palladiy as the average English speaker has with Pinyin.

When foreign names begin with /e/ (with no inserted [j] as is mandatory in Novegradian), standard procedure is to insert an apostrophe in the spelling:

’Единбург *’Edinbúrge* “Edinburgh”. Since [j]-insertion in Novegradian is allophonic, this apostrophe generally does not change most people’s pronunciations unless they are trying to mimic the more ‘proper’ foreign pronunciation. This apostrophe is more of an orthographic device meant to keep transliteration as close to one-to-one as possible.

When transliterating from languages using the Latin alphabet, silent letters are usually dropped: Ренè Декарте *René Dekárte* “René Descartes”. However, no formal rule exists for cases for double letters, where the Latin-script letter isn’t strictly silent; consequently variant spellings such as Сие́тлæ *Sijétle* and Сие́тлæ *Sijéttle* “Seattle” may exist in more or less free variation.

### 3.5 *Evolution of the Orthography*

The evolution of the Novegradian orthography can be broadly divided into four historical stages: Slavonic, Early, Russified, and Modern.

The Slavonic period lasted from roughly the 10<sup>th</sup> century until the 14<sup>th</sup> century. During this time the written standard of Novegradian was essentially Old Church Slavonic, introduced to Novegrad by the Orthodox Church and considered the language of educated speech throughout Kievan Rus’. The written language of Novegrad, at least among the more educated classes, was essentially Novegradian vocabulary combined with Old Church Slavonic spelling, which included a number of letters for sounds that had disappeared in Novegradian and for transcribing Greek loanwords. As a result, misspellings were quite frequent, especially amongst the less educated, as many sounds could be represented by multiple letters. A common example of this is the confusion of when to use **ч** and **ц**, whose sounds had merged in early Novegradian; many people avoided the issue by writing **ѣ** instead, halfway between the two characters! The Slavonic orthography also made heavy use of diacritics to indicate stress, palatalizations, and sometimes nothing at all, again the result of polytonic Greek orthography being imported wholesale into a language that had no need for it.

The Slavonic period did feature a few significant breaks from the Slavonic standard seen through the rest of Rus’, however. One curiosity is the almost complete interchangeability of the letters **о/ѡ** and **ѣ/ѧ** (with the exception of at the end of many masculine nouns in the nominative singular, where instead **ѣ/ѧ** were interchangeable).

The Early period lasted from roughly the 14<sup>th</sup> century until the 19<sup>th</sup>; its designation is therefore somewhat of a misnomer. In the 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> centuries, Novegrad, with its normal ties to the rest of Rus’ disturbed by the Mongols, began to

develop a native, more suitable version of the Cyrillic alphabet. Many of the more useless Slavonic letters, such as the nasal vowels **ѡ** and **ѧ**, fell out of use. The yers (see Historical Phonology) **ѣ** and **ѥ** dropped when silent or replaced with full vowels such as **и**, **е**, or **о**, depending on how they were actually pronounced. However, the Slavonic standard of never allowing a word to end in a consonant remained, with one of the yers being required if the word did not end in a vowel. On the other hand, the redundant Greek letters remained in use, and in some cases even gained wider usage (as seen in spellings such as **Ѡѧѡѧи** *psati* for modern **пизати** *pizáti* “write” in dialects that dropped the first vowel). All diacritics except for the stress marker, palatalization marker (used to indicate the modern consonants **къ**, **гь**, **нь**, **хь**, **фь**), and titlo (contraction marker) disappeared.

At the same time a number of quirky innovations began to appear as well. Novegradian continued to mark prevocalic /j/ using “iotation” (a ligature of an iota with the regular vowel, see chart below). However, where other languages using the Cyrillic alphabet adopted **и** (or **и** with the Greek “short” diacritic: **ѣ**), Novegradian adopted **ѣ** for postvocalic /j/. In addition, the letter **ѡ** appeared out of a ligature of **ѡ** and **ѡ**, one of the most common environments for the new phoneme /ʌ/ to appear.

For much of the early period, there were relatively few standards in place defining set rules for what spellings were correct or incorrect. However, by the 17<sup>th</sup> century, conventions began to emerge. Breaking from its Greek origins, the letter **ѡ** (omega) began to acquire a fixed use in the prefixes *ot-/os-* “from” and *o-* “at”. The sound /u/ could be conveyed in two different ways: by the digraph **ѡѡ** at the beginning of a word, or the ligature **ѡ** anywhere else.

In the Russified period, lasting from the 19<sup>th</sup> century to 1918, a number of Russian orthographic conventions were forced onto the Novegradian language. The Civil Script formally replaced the old Slavonic typeset (although the Civil Script had fairly wide usage in Novegradian prior to then as well). Almost all of the remaining Greek letters disappeared except for **Ѡ** (representing iota) and, in a very small set of words, **Ѥ** (upsilon, known in Novegradian as *iežíca*) and **Ѧ** (theta, or *títa*). All stress and palatalization diacritics were abolished, with **ѡ** now being used to indicate Novegradian palatal consonants. Novegradian iotated vowels were brought in line with Russian’s, so that **Ѡѡ**, for example, now represented /ju/ instead of /jo/ as it had in Novegradian up to this point. Most uses of **Ѡ** for indicating /j/ were replaced with **Ѡ**, with the one exception of the series /ji/, which to this day is written **ѠѠ**. The letter **Ѡ** was formally added to represent consonantal /w/.

The Modern period began in 1918 with a proclamation of orthographic reform by the unofficial Bolshevik government, but was not fully implemented for over a

decade. The foundations of the Russified orthography remained intact, the system having by then become firmly established. Several changes brought about by this reform parallel the reforms of Russian happening at the same time: the complete abandonment of Greek letters and silent yers. However, Ъ remained, as unlike in Russian it still represented a distinct sound. The Russian letter Ё was adopted for /jo/, which under the Russian system could only be represented with the awkward sequence йо. The letter F was introduced, for the first time distinguishing /ʏ/ from /g/ orthographically.

A few examples of various words in each spelling system are shown in the table below.

Slavonic	Early	Russified	Modern
пѣсѣти	ψάτι	пизати	пизати
пишѣ	πίχην	пихьюн	пихьун
-	нѣ-юрке	Ню-Йорке	Ню-Ёрке
богъ	боге	боге	боге
ночь	ноки	нокьи	нокьи
-	ѣѣѣтре	ѣеатре	теятре
лоубѣти	лѣбити	лубити	лубити
сѣлънице	сѣлънице	солнце	соунце
ѣзъ	ѣсѣ	ясъ	яс
ѣзеро	ѣжеро	ежеро	ежеро
ѣгѣлъ	вѣнге	вангле	вангле
пѣти	пѣти	пети	пети
мѣгѣкъ	мѣге	меге	меге



## 4

## Verbal

## Morphology

Морпология деянъ



## 4.1 Features

Novegradian is a highly fusional inflecting language, meaning information tends to be densely packed in a relatively small set of affixes. A single suffix -м *-m*, for instance, may mark a verb as being in the present tense and as having a subject that is both first person and singular.

Like other Indo-European languages, verbs are conjugated through adding various affixes to a verb stem. All stems have an inherent conjugation class, which is arbitrary, but determines the types of endings it receives (for instance, the 1<sup>st</sup> and athematic conjugations mark the 1SG Present/Future with -м *-m*, while the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> conjugations use -ун *-un*). Both prefixes (added before the stem) and suffixes (added after the stem) are used. Most verbs also have a theme vowel, which is largely connected to the conjugation class and appears immediately after the root in the present/future tense.

The stem consists of a root and zero or more derivational affixes. The root is the most basic unit providing semantic meaning to the verb. For many verbs, typically termed “primitive”, the stem and root are one and the same (e.g., \*pʰs- \*rědz- “say, read aloud”). Far more, however, include a derivational affix or *formative*, which slightly modifies the meaning of the root and therefore the stem as a whole (e.g., \*o-pʰs- \*o-rědz- “promise”); this type of stem is known as “derived”.

Many verbs actually have two stems, one known as the “infinitive stem” and the other as the “present/future stem”, and the two may have different theme vowels. All verb forms are predictably based on one of the two stems.

The majority of the verb forms to be described in this section are *finite*, meaning they convey tense/aspect/modality information. Such verbs conjugate in agreement with their grammatical subject, although the features marked vary across different verb forms; some forms agree with the subject’s person (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, or 3<sup>rd</sup>) and number (Singular, Dual, or Plural), while others agree in number and gender

(Masculine, Feminine, or Neuter).

Independently of their environment, finite verbs mark two tenses (Past and a combined Present/Future), two primary aspects<sup>1</sup> (Perfective and Imperfective), and three moods (Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative).

Non-finite verb forms lack tense and mood marking, although they maintain aspect. Two are pseudo-nominal (the Infinitive and the Supine), three are pseudo-adjectival (the three participles), and two are pseudo-adverbial (the two adverbial participles). The infinitive is considered the citation form of all Novegradian verbs; unless otherwise noted, verbs will be cited in their infinitive form throughout this text.

Stems are inherently transitive or intransitive. Change in valency typically involves a periphrastic construction, a derivational operation, or a change in voice, of which Novegradian has three: Active, Passive, and Middle. Some transitive verbs, however, allow for the direct object to simply be omitted or implied.

## 4.2 Verb Roots and Conjugations

Novegradian has four conjugations. Three of these are thematic—A, E, I—and one is athematic, although this last group only contains four verbs: *быти* *buti* “be”, *ѣсти* *iěsti* “eat”, *вѣсти* *věsti* “know”, and *дати* *dāti* “give”<sup>2</sup>.

Each verb only has a present/future and past tense formed through inflection, as well as several non-finite forms (the infinitive, supine, and participles). The perfective form of an imperfective verb is generally made by adding a prefix or using a suppletive verb.

A-Class verbs (first conjugation) tend to be quite regular, while I-class (second conjugation) and E-class (third conjugation) verbs are prone to consonant mutations in some forms.

Most native verb roots consist of only one syllable, sometimes two, or sometimes less than one. Individual verb stems can be stem-stressed, ending-stressed, or mobile-stressed. Stem-stressed verbs are usually accented on the same syllable in the stem, and ending-stressed verbs on the first syllable after the stem. Mobile-stressed verbs fall into many subcategories depending on the conjugation and form

1 There is also a secondary aspect distinction of determinate/indeterminate only seen among verbs of motion, as well as various tertiary distinctions seen across various individual verbs; this latter group is more typically considered derivational or lexical, due to its isolated, non-systemic presence.

2 The term “athematic” refers to the present/future stem. Many verbs have an athematic infinitive stem, but only these four have such in the present/future. The letters assigned to the three thematic conjugations refer to their theme vowel.



involved.

While the conjugation classes no longer have well-defined meanings, there are a few tendencies that can be observed, likely carryovers from Pre-Proto-Slavic or Proto-Indo-European:

- Almost all non-derived first conjugation verbs are imperfective, and the majority of imperfective verbs are first conjugation.
- Many verbs denoting sounds or derived from onomatopoeia are second conjugation and have -ѣ- as the infinitive theme vowel (or have an affricate or palatalized fricative + -a-, which historically comes from an earlier \*ĕ): крисати *kridzāti* “shout”, храпѣти *hrápěti* “snore”, шумѣти *šuměti* “be noisy”.
- The vast majority of second conjugation verbs with -ѣ- as the infinitive theme vowel are intransitive. Many have transitive historical counterparts with -и-, though sound changes predating Common Slavic have since obscured these pairs: горѣти *gorěti* “burn (INTR)”, жарити *žáriti* “make jealous”<sup>3</sup>; родѣти *roděti* “blush”<sup>4</sup>, рудити *ruditi* “embarrass”<sup>5</sup>.
- Third conjugation verbs that appear to have the infinitive theme vowel -ѣ- actually have the stative suffix -ѣй- *-ěi-*. These verbs are typically derived (fairly transparently) from nouns or adjectives and mean “be ADJ” or “have NOUN”: омѣти *oměti* “know how to” (from оме *óme* “intellect”). This subgroup was once far more common and productive, but it now consists only of a few relics.
- Third conjugation verbs with the suffix -н- (*-na-* in the infinitive) are always perfective. This suffix generally marks very abrupt actions or, when derived from adjectives, transformation. This suffix is sometimes called the “punctual”.

### 4.3 The Infinitive

The infinitive is formed from the verb stem using the suffix -ти *-ti*, or less commonly, -ѣкъи *-ikji*. This ending is never stressed.

However, there are a number of factors that make the infinitive more complex to form. Many, though not all verbs have a distinct ‘infinitive stem’, which differs slightly from the stem + thematic vowel used to form the present/future tense (the

3 Originally, “burn (TR)”

4 Originally, “reddden (INTR)”

5 Originally, “reddden (TR)”

present/future stem).

### 4.3.1 A-Conjugation Infinitive

The A-Conjugation infinitive is extremely regular, formed with the ending -ати *-ati* attached to the verb stem. This theme vowel may be either stressed or unstressed. In the very frequently-seen deperfective pattern ending in -ов-ати *ov-áti*, the theme vowel is always stressed.

- \*работ- → работати *rabótati* “to work” (stem stressed)
- \*дѣл- → дѣлати *dělati* “to make, do” (stem stressed)
- \*цид- → цидати *cidáti* “to read” (ending stressed)
- \*егр- → еграти *iegráti* “to play” (ending stressed)
- \*по-каз-ов- → показовати *pokazováti* “to show, demonstrate” (deperfective)
- \*со-цед-ов- → соцедовати *socedováti* “to consider” (deperfective)

### 4.3.2 I-Conjugation Infinitive

The I-Conjugation infinitive is formed fairly regularly using one of the endings -ити *-iti* or -ѣти *-ěti*. The -ити type is far more common, but any difference in meaning between the two endings was lost many centuries ago. This choice of endings can be particularly confounding due to the fact that, with the exception of ending-stressed verbs, the both are pronounced identically. The *ě*-type is sometimes referred to as the stative pattern, although this name is purely historical.

- \*мѣр- → мѣрити *měriti* “to measure” (stem stressed, i-type)
- \*вар- → варити *variti* “to boil” (stem stressed, i-type)
- \*рѣс- → рѣсити *rědzíti* “to say, read aloud” (ending stressed, i-type)
- \*люб- → любити *lubíti* “to love” (hysterodynamic, i-type)
- \*вид- → видѣти *viděti* “to see” (stem stressed, *ě*-type)
- \*бол- → болѣти *bolěti* “to hurt, ache” (ending stressed, *ě*-type)

The *ě*-type has a variant -ати *-ati*, which predictably occurs after stems ending in /sʲ zʲ ts dz j/, and unpredictably after consonants that historically were once one of these five.

- \*крис- → крисати *kridzáti* “to shout” (palatal stem, *ě*-type)
- \*держ- → держати *deržáti* “hold” (palatal stem, *ě*-type)
- \*стой- → стояти *stoiáti* “stand” (palatal stem, *ě*-type)

- \*слих- → слихати *slíhati* “hear” (palatal stem, ě-type)<sup>6</sup>

One other subtype with only a handful of verbs is known as the sonantic stem, where the stem historically ends in a sonant /r l n/. These stems historically had no theme vowel, just taking a bare suffix -ти -*ti*, but later this sonant underwent metathesis with the preceding vowel. These verbs thus appear to end in a variety of vowels in the infinitive, when the stem actually is consonantal.

- \*пер- → прети *préti* “to force” (sonantic stem)
- \*сни- → снити(ш) *sníti(š)* “to dream” (sonantic stem)
- \*довел- → доваѣти *dovlěti* “to suffice” (sonantic stem)

### 4.3.3 E-Conjugation Infinitive

The E-Conjugation infinitive is by far the most complex to form. It is typically formed with the suffix -ати -*ati* or just the themeless suffix -ти -*ti*, although this latter form tends to cause many stem alterations when it comes in contact with the bare stem.

When the suffix -ати is used, it is almost always stressed, no matter whether the stem is usually ending-stressed in other forms or not. This ending is predictably used whenever the stem contains the punctual suffix -н-.

- \*пиз- → пизати *pizáti* “to write” (stem stressed)
- \*еск- → ескати *ieskáti* “to look for” (stem stressed)
- \*рѣз- → рѣзати *rězáti* “to cut” (stem stressed)
- \*тег- → тегати *tegáti* “to weave” (ending stressed)
- \*наш-н- → нашнати *naśnáti* “to begin, start” (punctual)

Dental stems are stems ending in one of the dental consonants /t d s z/, which may come in direct contact with the infinitive suffix without a theme vowel. However, stem-final \*t and \*d will both lenite to /s/ in this position.

- \*нес- → нести *nésti* “to carry” (dental stem in \*s)
- \*гриз- → гризти *grízti* “to gnaw” (dental stem in \*z)
- \*мет- → мести *mésti* “to sweep” (dental stem in \*t)
- \*крад- → красти *krásti* “to steal” (dental stem in \*d)

Sonantic stems, much like in the I-Conjugation, end in one of the sonants /r l n/ and undergo metathesis in the infinitive. Historically the I-Conjugation so-

6 Old Novogradian слышати (cf. Russian слышать *slyšat*). The change /ʃ/ → /x/, known as depalatalization, was a later occurrence.

nantic stems were also E-Conjugation, but there has been a general trend towards conversion to the I-Conjugation.

- \*мол- → млети *mléti* “to grind” (sonantic stem)
- \*про-кол- → проклати *prokláti* “to stab” (sonantic stem)

In velar stems, which end in /k g/, the velar consonant and infinitive ending palatalize and merge into an unanalyzable suffix -кѣи *-kji*. In addition, the vowel immediately preceding gains a /j/ off-glide.

- \*пек- → пейкѣи *péikji* “to bake” (velar stem in \*k)
- \*плак- → плайкѣи *pláikji* “to cry” (velar stem in \*k)
- \*мог- → мойкѣи *móikji* “to be able” (velar stem in \*g)

The three semivocalic stem subtypes, ending in \*-uv, \*-ij, or \*-Cj (where C represents any other consonant), all vocalize when coming in contact with the infinitive ending.

- \*слув- → слугѣи *slúti* “to be known for” (semivocalic stem in \*uv)
- \*кри- → критѣи *kríti* “to cover” (semivocalic stem in \*ij)
- \*пй- → пйѣи *píti* “to drink” (semivocalic stem in \*Cj)
- \*рос-вй- → росуѣи *rosúti* “to unfurl, evolve” (semivocalic stem in \*Cj)

In all other themeless verbs, collectively known as fleeting stems, the stem-final consonant is close completely when it comes in direct contact with the infinitive ending.

- \*жив- → житѣи *žíti* “to live” (fleeting stem with stem stress)
- \*стан- → статѣи *státi* “to become” (fleeting stem with ending stress)
- \*стар-ѣй- → старѣти *starěti* “to age, grow old” (fleeting stem with ending stress)
- \*жен- → жетѣи *žéti* “to harvest” (fleeting stem with ending stress)

## 4.4 The Indicative Mood

### 4.4.1 The Formation of the Perfective

As in several other Slavic languages, two processes must be discussed when it comes to the formation of perfective/imperfective pairs: perfectivization and de-perfectivization.

Perfectivization is the process of deriving perfective verbs from primitive imper-

fectives. In Novegradian this is done overwhelmingly through the use of prefixes. The addition of a perfectivizing prefix may or may not change the meaning of the verb; in other words, prefixes serve both to form simple perfectives, and to derive new perfective verbs: пизати *pizáti* “write (IMPF)” → напизати *napizáti* “write (PF)”, опизати *opizáti* “describe (PF)”, препизати *prepizáti* “rewrite (PF)”, etc.

These prefixes are always derived from prepositions (although the prepositions they were derived from didn’t necessarily survive into modern Novegradian), usually ones that at one point had some sort of semantic connection with the root which has since been lost. Some of the more common prefixes include по- *po-* ‘confined to, along, by’, со- *so-* ‘with’, на- *na-* ‘on’, о- *o-* ‘at’, при- *pri-* ‘attached to’, за- *za-* ‘behind’, and про- *pro-* ‘through’. Examples, using some of the same roots as above:

- цидати *cidáti* → процидати *procidáti* “read”
- видѣти *viděti* → овидѣти *oviděti* “see”
- пизати *pizáti* → напизати *napizáti* “write”

Non-native verbs almost exclusively use по- and за- to form simple perfectives:

- гымати *gýmáti* → загымати *zagýmáti* “shout” (← Komi гым “thunder”)
- шецинити *šéciníti* → пошецинити *pošéciníti* “surrender” (← Komi шедӧдчыны “give oneself up”)
- сарнити *sarníti* → посарнити *posarníti* “ramble” (← Komi сӧрны “lie”)
- бомбардовати *bombardováti* → побомбардовати *pobombardováti* “bombard”

Simple perfectivization, without change of meaning, can also be achieved by switching from the first to the second conjugation, or with the punctual suffix -*n-*. Neither of these are productive, however.

- брозати *brozáti* → брошити *bróšiti* “throw”
- рѣжати *rězáti* → рѣжити *rěžíti* “decide”
- кажити *kažíti* → кажнати *kažnáti* “distort”
- лизати *lízati* → лизнати *liznáti* “lick”

Finally, a handful of perfectives are simply irregular or suppletive:

- наценати *nacenáti* → нашнати *našnáti* “begin, start”
- брати *bráti* → женти *žénti* “bring” (cf. Common Slavic \*brati, \*vъzeti)

In general, the pattern any given verb requires to form its perfective counterpart must be memorized. Even though prefixation is the most common method,

it is not readily predictable which prefix is required to form the simple perfective without deriving a verb with a new meaning.

In contrast, deperfectivization is the process by which a new imperfective form is created from a prefixed perfective verb, the result of the otherwise pairless derived perfectives that perfectivization creates. The vast majority of these forms, known as derived imperfectives, are formed with the suffix *-ов- -ov-*, which is always first conjugation. This is the regular, productive pattern:

- тулити *tulíti* “put away (IMPF)” → затулити *zatulíti* “close (PF)” → затуловати *zatulováti* “close (IMPF)”
- пизати *pizáti* “write (IMPF)” → препизати *prepizáti* “rewrite (PF)” → преписовати *prepisováti* “rewrite (IMPF)”
- концити *kónciti* “end (IMPF)” → оконцити *okónciti* “graduate (PF)” → оконцовати *okoncováti* “graduate (IMPF)”
- еграти *iegráti* “play (IMPF)” → вуийграти *vuijgráti* “win (PF)” → вуийгровати *vuijgrováti* “win (IMPF)”
- менѣти *meněti* “seem (IMPF)” → соменѣти *someněti* “mention (PF)” → соменовати *somenováti* “mention (IMPF)”

A less common pattern, which unproductively applies only to some second-conjugation verbs, is to palatalize the stem-final consonant and convert the verb to the first conjugation. Nowadays this pattern is rarely seen in verbs whose stems do not end in /v/; the preservation of this pattern may be due to a desire to avoid highly repetitive forms such as *\*pozgodovováti*.

- авити *avíti* “reveal (IMPF)” → оявити *oiavíti* “declare (PF)” → ояулати *oiáulati* “declare (IMPF)”
- годовити *godóviti* “prepare (IMPF)” → позгодовити *pozgodóviti* “train (PF)” → позгодоулати *pozgodóulati* “train (IMPF)”
- крѣпити *krěpiti* “make firm (IMPF)” → позкрѣпити *pozkrěpiti* “fortify (PF)” → позкрѣплати *pozkrěplati* “fortify (IMPF)”

Finally, a small closed set of stems form the deperfective stem via ablaut. These are the verbs that show Indo-European Ø/E or Ø/O grade ablaut, with the Ø grade in the infinitive and the E/O grade in the present tense, such as брати *bráti* “to bring” ~ берун *berún* “I bring” and звати *zuáti* “to call” ~ зовун *zovún* “I call”. In the deperfective stem, these verbs switch to the so-called neolengthened grade and acquire /i/ as the root vowel, while also switching to the first conjugation. While this is a nonproductive pattern, it is robust, with no evidence of regularization taking place even in colloquial usage.

- брати *bráti* “bring (IMPF)” → виібрати *vuibráti* “pick out (PF)” → виібирати *vuibiráti* “pick out (IMPF)”
- зуати *zuáti* “call (IMPF)” → призвати *prizuáti* “invite (PF)” → призивати *priziváti* “invite (IMPF)”

## 4.4.2 The Present-Future Tense

### 4.4.2.1 The Regular Present/Future Tense

The Present/Future tense inflects for person and number, with endings consisting of a theme vowel (in most cases) plus a suffix. The suffixes are broadly consistent across conjugations, with the exception of the first person singular, third person singular, and third person plural, which divide the set of endings into two broad subcategories: the M-Type (named for the 1SG ending in the first and athematic conjugations) and the UN-Type (named for the 1SG in the second and third conjugations). The table below shows the present/future endings for each conjugation:

	A Conjugation	I Conjugation	E Conjugation	Athematic Conjugation
1Sg	-а-м <i>-a-m</i>	-Ø-уи <i>-Ø-un</i>	-Ø-уи <i>-Ø-un</i>	-Ø-м <i>-Ø-m</i>
2Sg	-а-ш <i>-a-ś</i>	-и-ш <i>-i-ś</i>	-е-ш <i>-e-ś</i>	-Ø-жи <i>-Ø-ži</i>
3Sg	-а-ст <i>-a-st</i>	-и-т <i>-i-t</i>	-е-т <i>-e-t</i>	-Ø-ст <i>-Ø-st</i>
1Dl	-а-ва <i>-a-va</i>	-и-ва <i>-i-va</i>	-е-ва <i>-e-va</i>	-Ø-ва <i>-Ø-va</i>
2Dl	-а-ста <i>-a-sta</i>	-и-та <i>-i-ta</i>	-е-та <i>-e-ta</i>	-Ø-та <i>-Ø-ta</i>
3Dl	-а-ста <i>-a-sta</i>	-и-та <i>-i-ta</i>	-е-та <i>-e-ta</i>	-Ø-та <i>-Ø-ta</i>
1Pl	-а-ме <i>-a-me</i>	-и-м <i>-i-m</i>	-е-м <i>-e-m</i>	-Ø-ме <i>-Ø-me</i>
2Pl	-а-те <i>-a-te</i>	-и-те <i>-i-te</i>	-е-те <i>-e-te</i>	-Ø-те <i>-Ø-te</i>
3Pl	-а-ти <i>-a-ti</i>	Ø-ат <i>-Ø-at</i>	-Ø-ут <i>-Ø-ut</i>	-Ø-ит <i>-Ø-it</i>

Note that the M-type endings -ст (3SG) and -ати/-ит (3PL) are pronounced /s/ and /a/ respectively. The spellings reflect a much older pronunciation.

These endings may be attached to both perfective and imperfective verb stems. On perfective stems, they always indicate future action, while on imperfective stems they can indicate both present and future tenses depending on context; as with several other Slavic languages, aspect is a more fundamental distinction in Novogradian than tense.

Note that the 1SG ending in the I-Conjugation and all endings in the E-Conjugation will predictably trigger palatalization if they come in contact with certain consonants in the stem<sup>7</sup>. These changes are summarized below:

- т → къ (вратити *vrátiti* “return” → вракъун *vrákjun*)
- д → гъ (видѣти *viděti* “see” → вигъун *vígjun*)
- с, з, ш, ж → хъ (пизати *pizáti* “write” → пихъун *píhjun*)
- з, ж → ғъ (везати *vezáti* “tie, connect” → веғъун *véǵjun*)
- н → нь (хранити *braníti* “keep” → хранъун *branjún*)
- к → ц (плайкъи *pláikji* → плацун *plácun*)
- г → ж (бѣйкъи *běikji* “run” → бѣжун *běžun*)
- ст, ск → шкъ (ескати *ieskáti* “search for” → ешкъун *ieskjun*)
- зд, зг → жгъ (ѣздити *iězditi* “go by vehicle” → ѣжгъун *iěžgjun*)
- п → пл (купити *kúpiti* “store” → куплун *kúplun*)
- б → бл (лубити *lubíti* “love” → лублун *lublún*)
- в → ѣл (дивити *divíti* “surprise” → диѣлун *diwlún*)
- м → мл (омити *omíti* “teach how to” → омлун *omlún*)

The tables below demonstrates the regular patterns with each of the possible regular stress patterns.

In the A Conjugation, there are two regular stress patterns: stem stress and ending stress. With дѣлати *dělati* “make, do” (A Conjugation, regular stem stressed) and цидати *cidáti* “read” (A Conjugation, regular ending stressed):

<sup>7</sup> In the E Conjugation, this only applies for regular verbs (i.e., with infinitives ending in -ати -*ati*). Many irregular subtypes of the E Conjugation do not trigger palatalization. However, the palatalization of the 1SG in the I Conjugation applies across the board.



		дѣлати “make, do”	цидати “read”
1Sg	яс	дѣлаам <i>dělam</i>	цидаам <i>cidám</i>
2Sg	ти	дѣлаш <i>dělasʹ</i>	цидаш <i>cidásʹ</i>
3Sg	оне	дѣласт <i>dělast</i>	цидаст <i>cidást</i>
1Dl	надуа	дѣлава <i>dělava</i>	цидава <i>cidáva</i>
2Dl	вадуа	дѣласта <i>dělasta</i>	цидаста <i>cidásta</i>
3Dl	ондуа	дѣласта <i>dělasta</i>	цидаста <i>cidásta</i>
1Pl	муи	дѣламе <i>dělame</i>	цидаме <i>cidáme</i>
2Pl	вуи	дѣлате <i>dělate</i>	цидате <i>cidáte</i>
3Pl	они	дѣлати <i>dělati</i>	цидати <i>cidáti</i>

The I Conjugation has six regular stress patterns, the most of any conjugation:

1. stem stress: stress on the stem throughout, as in знацити *znáciti* “mean, signify”
2. ending stress: stress on the ending throughout, as in рѣсити *rědzíti* “say”
3. dynamic type 1: stem stress in the infinitive/past stem, ending stress in the present/future stem, as in муислити *muísliti* “think”
4. dynamic type 2: ending stress in the infinitive/past stem, stem stress in the present/future stem, as in бранити *braníti* “defend”
5. proterodynamic: stem stress throughout, except ending stress in the present/future first person singular, as in правити *práviti* “govern”
6. hysterodynamic: ending stress throughout, except stem stress in the present/future non-1sg, as in любити *lubíti* “love”

As the above list suggests, in the present tense these six classes collapse to four, with dynamic type 1 merging with ending stress and dynamic type 2 merging with stem stress.

	значити “mean”	рѣсати “say”	муислити “think”	бранити “defend”	правити “govern”	любити “love”
<b>1Sg</b>	знацун <i>znácun</i>	рѣсун <i>rědzún</i>	муислун <i>muislún</i>	бранѣун <i>bránjun</i>	праулун <i>práulun</i>	лублун <i>lublún</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	знациш <i>znáciš</i>	рѣсиш <i>rědziš</i>	муислиш <i>muislíš</i>	браниш <i>brániš</i>	правиш <i>práviš</i>	любиш <i>lúbíš</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	знацит <i>znácit</i>	рѣсит <i>rědzít</i>	муислит <i>muislít</i>	бранит <i>bránit</i>	правит <i>právit</i>	лубит <i>lúbit</i>
<b>1Dl</b>	знацива <i>znáciva</i>	рѣсива <i>rědzíva</i>	муислива <i>muislíva</i>	бранива <i>brániva</i>	правива <i>právida</i>	любива <i>lúbiva</i>
<b>2Dl</b>	знацита <i>znácita</i>	рѣсита <i>rědzíta</i>	муислита <i>muislíta</i>	бранита <i>bránita</i>	правита <i>právita</i>	лубита <i>lúbita</i>
<b>3Dl</b>	знацита <i>znácita</i>	рѣсита <i>rědzíta</i>	муислита <i>muislíta</i>	бранита <i>bránita</i>	правита <i>právita</i>	лубита <i>lúbita</i>
<b>1Pl</b>	значим <i>znácim</i>	рѣсим <i>rědzím</i>	муислим <i>muislím</i>	браним <i>bránim</i>	правим <i>právim</i>	любим <i>lúbim</i>
<b>2Pl</b>	знаците <i>znácite</i>	рѣсите <i>rědzíte</i>	муислите <i>muislíte</i>	браните <i>bránite</i>	правите <i>právide</i>	любите <i>lúbite</i>
<b>3Pl</b>	знацат <i>znácát</i>	рѣсат <i>rědzát</i>	муислат <i>muislát</i>	бранат <i>bránat</i>	прават <i>právat</i>	лубат <i>lúbat</i>

The regular E Conjugation only has two stress patterns: stem stress and ending stress. Demonstrated below with *пизати pizáti* “write” and *медати medáti* “throw, cast”:

		пизати “write”	медати “cast”
1Sg	яс	пихъун <i>píhjun</i>	мегъун <i>megjún</i>
2Sg	ти	пихъеш <i>píhješ</i>	мегъеш <i>megjés</i>
3Sg	оне	пихъет <i>píhjet</i>	мегъет <i>megjét</i>
1Dl	надуа	пихъева <i>píhjeva</i>	мегъева <i>megjéva</i>
2Dl	вадуа	пихъета <i>píhjeta</i>	мегъета <i>megjéta</i>
3Dl	ондуа	пихъета <i>píhjeta</i>	мегъета <i>megjéta</i>
1Pl	муи	пихъем <i>píhjem</i>	мегъем <i>megjém</i>
2Pl	вуи	пихъете <i>píhjete</i>	мегъете <i>megjéte</i>
3Pl	они	пихъут <i>píhjut</i>	мегъут <i>megjút</i>

The athematic conjugation will be discussed further down due to its highly aberrant nature.

#### 4.4.2.2 Irregularities in the A Conjugation

The A Conjugation is for the most part extremely regular. The only irregularity in the present-future tense is the small set of so called j-stems, which end in /uj/ in the present but /ov/ in the infinitive. Such verbs were historically part of the E Conjugation, but transitioned to the A Conjugation possibly under the influence of the huge quantity of deperfectives that contain an identical (but coincidentally so) suffix /ov/. An example is *ковати kóvati* “forge”; the *-ui-* syllable is always stressed.

ковати <i>kóvati</i> “forge” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	к-у-ям <i>kúiam</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	к-у-я-ва <i>kúiaa</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	к-у-я-ме <i>kúiaa</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	к-у-я-ш <i>kúiaś</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	к-у-я-ста <i>kúiaśta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	к-у-я-те <i>kúiate</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	к-у-я-ст <i>kúiaśt</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	к-у-я-ста <i>kúiaśta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	к-у-я-ти <i>kúiaśti</i>

The above pattern applies only to cases where the *-ov-/-ui-* is actually a component of the root, not a derivational or deperfective suffix as in кѣловати *kělováti* “kiss”, which has a regular ending stress pattern in the present: кѣловам *kělovám*, кѣловаш *kělováš*, etc. In old texts or in poetry these verbs may appear in the E Conjugation with this *-ui-* suffix, but this is no longer valid in modern usage:

кѣловати <i>kělováti</i> “kiss (arch.)” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	кѣл-у-юн <i>kěluúun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	кѣл-у-ева <i>kěluúieva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	кѣл-у-ем <i>kěluúiem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	кѣл-у-еш <i>kěluúieś</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	кѣл-у-ета <i>kěluúieta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	кѣл-у-ете <i>kěluúiete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	кѣл-у-ет <i>kěluúiet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	кѣл-у-ета <i>kěluúieta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	кѣл-у-ют <i>kěluúiut</i>

#### 4.4.2.3 Irregularities in the I Conjugation

Despite the large number of stress patterns, the I Conjugation present-future is also quite regular. Distinctions seen in the infinitive, such as the different theme vowels *i~ě~a*, are neutralized, with all forms showing /i/. With крисати *kridzáti* “shout”:

крисати <i>kridzáti</i> “shout” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	крис-ун <i>kridzún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	крис-ива <i>kridzíva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	крис-им <i>kridzím</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	крис-иш <i>kridzís</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	крис-ита <i>kridzíta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	крис-ите <i>kridzíte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	крис-ит <i>kridzít</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	крис-ита <i>kridzíta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	крис-ат <i>kridzát</i>

Sonantic stems do not display the metathesis seen in the infinitive; these forms

are therefore regular, but the relationship to the infinitive may not be immediately obvious. With прети *préti* “force, pressure”:

прети <i>préti</i> “force, pressure” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	пер-ун <i>perún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	пер-ива <i>períva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	пер-им <i>perím</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	пер-иш <i>perís</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	пер-ита <i>períta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	пер-ите <i>períte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	пер-ит <i>perít</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	пер-ита <i>períta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	пер-ат <i>perát</i>

Some I and E conjugation verbs with the stem vowels /e/ and /o/ in the infinitive undergo ablaut in the present tense, with these vowels becoming /æ/ and /u/ respectively. If the following consonant is /s<sup>j</sup>/ or /z<sup>j</sup>/, these will depalatalize to /s/ and /z/. This change is known as the neoacute ablaut, the result of a now-lost pitch accent that emerged in late Common Slavic due to stress shifts. In modern Novegradian it is not always possible to predict when this change will occur; however, it is almost guaranteed when the verb has a proterodynamic or hysterodynamic stress pattern (i.e., one in which the first person singular has a different stress pattern than the rest of the present-future tense). Demonstrated below with ношити *nóšiti* “carry”:

ношити <i>nóšiti</i> “carry” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	нуѣ-ун <i>nuǫjún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	нус-ива <i>núsiva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	нус-им <i>núsím</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	нус-иш <i>núsís</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	нус-ита <i>núsita</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	нус-ите <i>núsíte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	нус-ит <i>núsít</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	нус-ита <i>núsita</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	нус-ат <i>núsát</i>

#### 4.4.2.4 Irregularities in the E Conjugation

Most of the consonantal stems behave fairly regularly in the E Conjugation. Velar stems, such as плайкѣ *pláikji* “cry”, are regular, showing palatalization throughout:

плайкѣи <i>pláikji</i> “cry” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	плац-ун <i>plácun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	плац-ева <i>pláceva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	плац-ем <i>plácem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	плац-еш <i>pláceš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	плац-ета <i>pláceta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	плац-ете <i>plácete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	плац-ет <i>plácet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	плац-ета <i>pláceta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	плац-ут <i>plácut</i>

Dental stems (исти *ísti* “go, walk”), fleeting stems (жити *žíti* “live”), and sonantic stems (мерети *meréti* “die”) are regular except for the lack of stem palatalization throughout.

исти <i>ísti</i> “go, walk” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ид-ун <i>idún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ид-ева <i>idéva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ид-ем <i>idém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ид-еш <i>idéš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ид-ета <i>idéta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ид-ете <i>idéte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ид-ет <i>idét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ид-ета <i>idéta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ид-ут <i>idút</i>

жити <i>žíti</i> “live” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	жив-ун <i>živún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	жив-ева <i>živéva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	жив-ем <i>živém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	жив-еш <i>živéš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	жив-ета <i>živéta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	жив-ете <i>živéte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	жив-ет <i>živét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	жив-ета <i>živéta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	жив-ут <i>živút</i>

мерети <i>meréti</i> “die” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	мер-ун <i>merún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	мер-ева <i>meréva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	мер-ем <i>merém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	мер-еш <i>meréš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	мер-ета <i>živéta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	мер-ете <i>meréte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	мер-ет <i>merét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	мер-ета <i>meréta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	мер-ут <i>merút</i>

The three semivocalic stem types are regular from a phonemic perspective, though the \*Cj type has some more complex spelling changes due to the different representations of consonant + yod sequences, alternating between using ю for

/ju/ and *ie* for /je/. With *плати plúti* “swim” (\**uv* type), *крити kriti* “cover” (\**ij* type), and *пити píti* “drink” (\**Cj* type):

плати <i>plúti</i> “swim” (IMPF)					
1Sg	плав-ун <i>plúvun</i>	1Dl	плав-ева <i>plúveva</i>	1Pl	плав-ем <i>plúvem</i>
2Sg	плав-еш <i>plúveš</i>	2Dl	плав-ета <i>plúveta</i>	2Pl	плав-ете <i>plúvete</i>
3Sg	плав-ет <i>plúvet</i>	3Dl	плав-ета <i>plúveta</i>	3Pl	плав-ут <i>plúvut</i>

крити <i>kriti</i> “cover” (IMPF)					
1Sg	кри-юн <i>krijun</i>	1Dl	кри-ева <i>krijeva</i>	1Pl	кри-ем <i>krijem</i>
2Sg	кри-еш <i>kriješ</i>	2Dl	кри-ета <i>krijeta</i>	2Pl	кри-ете <i>krijete</i>
3Sg	кри-ет <i>krijet</i>	3Dl	кри-ета <i>krijeta</i>	3Pl	кри-ют <i>krijut</i>

пити <i>píti</i> “drink” (IMPF)					
1Sg	пи-юн <i>piún</i>	1Dl	пи-ева <i>piéva</i>	1Pl	пи-ем <i>piém</i>
2Sg	пи-еш <i>piéš</i>	2Dl	пи-ета <i>piéta</i>	2Pl	пи-ете <i>piéte</i>
3Sg	пи-ет <i>piét</i>	3Dl	пи-ета <i>piéta</i>	3Pl	пи-ют <i>piút</i>

The ablauting stem type shows /e/ as the root vowel in the present-future, combined with ending stress. With *брати bráti* “bring, take”

брати <i>bráti</i> “bring, take” (IMPF)					
1Sg	бер-ун <i>berún</i>	1Dl	бер-ева <i>beréva</i>	1Pl	бер-ем <i>berém</i>
2Sg	бер-еш <i>beréš</i>	2Dl	бер-ета <i>beréta</i>	2Pl	бер-ете <i>beréte</i>
3Sg	бер-ет <i>berét</i>	3Dl	бер-ета <i>beréta</i>	3Pl	бер-ут <i>berút</i>

Neoacute patterns can also occur in the E Conjugation. In *мойки móikji* “be

able to”, this causes the /g/ → /z<sup>1</sup>/ palatalization to then depalatalize to /z/:

мойкѣи <i>móikji</i> “be able” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	муз-ун <i>múzun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	муз-ева <i>múzeva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	муз-ем <i>múzem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	муз-еш <i>múzeš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	муз-ета <i>múzeta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	муз-ете <i>múzete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	муз-ет <i>múzet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	муз-ета <i>múzeta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	муз-ут <i>múzut</i>

Verbs containing the punctual suffix *-n* maintain it throughout the present-future. These verbs are almost always perfective and end-stressed, as with *нашнати* *našnáti* “begin”:

нашнати <i>našnáti</i> “begin” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	наш-н-ун <i>našnún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	наш-н-ева <i>našnéva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	наш-н-ем <i>našném</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	наш-н-еш <i>našnéš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	наш-н-ета <i>našnéta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	наш-н-ете <i>našnéte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	наш-н-ет <i>našnét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	наш-н-ета <i>našnéta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	наш-н-ут <i>našnút</i>

#### 4.4.2.5 Athematic Verbs in the Present-Future Tense

Only four verbs and their derivatives follow an athematic paradigm in modern Novegradian, continuing a general Slavic trend towards eliminating the class. For all practical purposes they may be considered to be irregular (and even show quite a bit of variability in formation across verbs), but nevertheless are grouped together due to the distinctive endings they take. Shown at right are the four base verbs (unprefixed forms) in the present tense.

The full verb stem is only visible in the 3PL form of each verb. Before /t/ root-final \*d weakens to /s/, and before /m s β/ it drops entirely. The root-final \*s of *буити* has fewer problems with other consonants, and in fact in the 1DL form it remains intact before the suffixed *-va* (which weakens to *-ua*).

Unlike most other Slavic languages, the 3PL form of *буити* is no longer completely irregular. As late as the 18th century it was still pronounced *car sāt*, but the prefixed *ie-* was added to bring it more in line with the other forms.



Athematic Verbs					
Verb		буити “be”	ѣсти “eat”	вѣсти “know”	дати “give”
Root		*ес-	*ѣд-	*вѣд-	*дад-
1Sg	яс	ес-м	ѣ-м	вѣ-м	да-м
		<i>iésm</i>	<i>iěm</i>	<i>věm</i>	<i>dám</i>
2Sg	ти	е-жи	ѣ-жи	вѣ-жи	да-жи
		<i>ieží</i>	<i>iěží</i>	<i>věží</i>	<i>daží</i>
3Sg	оне	е-ст	ѣ-ст	вѣ-ст	да-ст
		<i>iést</i>	<i>iěst</i>	<i>věst</i>	<i>dást</i>
1Dl	надуа	ес-уа	ѣ-ва	вѣ-ва	да-ва
		<i>iésua</i>	<i>iěva</i>	<i>věva</i>	<i>dáva</i>
2Dl	вадуа	ес-та	ѣ-та	вѣ-та	да-та
		<i>iésta</i>	<i>iěsta</i>	<i>věsta</i>	<i>dásta</i>
3Dl	ондуа	ес-та	ѣ-та	вѣ-та	да-та
		<i>iésta</i>	<i>iěsta</i>	<i>věsta</i>	<i>dásta</i>
1Pl	муи	ес-ме	ѣ-ме	вѣ-ме	да-ме
		<i>iésme</i>	<i>iěme</i>	<i>věme</i>	<i>dáme</i>
2Pl	вуи	ес-те	ѣ-те	вѣ-те	да-те
		<i>iéste</i>	<i>iěste</i>	<i>věste</i>	<i>dáste</i>
3Pl	они	ес-ат	ѣд-ит	вѣд-ит	дад-ит
		<i>iésat</i>	<i>iědit</i>	<i>vědit</i>	<i>dádit</i>

The spellings for a number of the athematic forms are outdated, reflecting older pronunciations. Есм *iésm* “I am” is usually pronounced есми [‘jɛ.smi] (formally) or ем [‘jɛm] (commonly). The forms ending in -ст are pronounced with just the /s/ (so ест *iést* “it is” is [‘jɛs], etc). The athematic 3PL ending -ит is pronounced [ə], the result of ecar’s ending being generalized to replace an ending that seemed too similar to third person singular of many thematic verbs: вѣдит *vědit* “they know” [‘βæ.də].

The present tense forms of буити are infrequently used in modern Novegradian except to add emphasis or improve prosody, although in written Novegradian the third person forms ест, еста, and есат are used more frequently. These forms are also still used (in speech as well) to indicate “there is/are”. The 3SG and 3PL forms also have shortened clitic variants, *ie* and *cy su*. The only time all of the present tense forms of буити must be used is in its special negative form, with a prefixed н-: несм, неси, нет, несуа, нета, нета, несме, несте, несат *něsm, něsi, nět, nėsua, nэта, nэта, něsme, něste, nėsat*. No other

verb has such negative forms. The /s/ has been lost in the 3SG and 3DL forms (and by analogy in the 2DL, which always uses the same form as the 3DL). Historically this elision resulted in compensatory lengthening of the previous vowel, giving the third person forms нѣт *nět* and нѣта *něta*, as well as нѣсат *něsat* by analogy; however, these forms are rarely used nowadays.

#### 4.4.2.6 Irregular Verbs

Although most ‘irregular’ verbs can fit into one of the previously mentioned subclasses, there are a few that do not, displaying a pattern unique to that verb root. These verbs are simply irregular, although they are typically minor and involve only an unexpected vowel or consonant change. Shown below are the verbs with irregular forms in the present-future; note that their prefixed variants use the same paradigm.

блєвати <i>blevāti</i> “vomit” (IMPF)					
1Sg	блѹ-юн <i>blúiuun</i>	1Dl	блѹ-єва <i>blúieva</i>	1Pl	блѹ-єм <i>blúiem</i>
2Sg	блѹ-єш <i>blúies</i>	2Dl	блѹ-єта <i>blúieta</i>	2Pl	блѹ-єте <i>blúiete</i>
3Sg	блѹ-єт <i>blúiet</i>	3Dl	блѹ-єта <i>blúieta</i>	3Pl	блѹ-ют <i>blúiuut</i>

Unexpected stem variation /blev/ (infinitive) ~ /bluj/ (present). This is historically a common pattern, perhaps preserved for its onomatopoeic value.

гонати <i>gonāti</i> “drive, chase, rush” (IMPF)					
1Sg	жєн-ун <i>ženún</i>	1Dl	жєн-єва <i>ženéva</i>	1Pl	жєн-єм <i>ženém</i>
2Sg	жєн-єш <i>ženés</i>	2Dl	жєн-єта <i>ženéta</i>	2Pl	жєн-єте <i>ženéte</i>
3Sg	жєн-єт <i>ženét</i>	3Dl	жєн-єта <i>ženéta</i>	3Pl	жєн-ют <i>ženút</i>

Unexpected stem variation /gon/ (infinitive) ~ /z'en/ (present). Historically this pattern is related to ablauting verbs like брати *brāti*, but with the /e/ of the present tense resulting in secondary palatalization.

данѣти <i>dánti</i> “blow” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ДОМ-УН <i>domún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ДОМ-ЕВА <i>doméva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ДОМ-ЕМ <i>domém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ДОМ-ЕШ <i>domés</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ДОМ-ЕТА <i>dométa</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ДОМ-ЕТЕ <i>dométe</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ДОМ-ЕТ <i>domét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ДОМ-ЕТА <i>dométa</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ДОМ-УТ <i>domút</i>

Unexpected stem variation /da(n)/ (infinitive) ~ /dom/ (present). Historically due to \*m lost before another consonant, cf. Proto-Slavic \*dumtei, \*dumun; Common Slavic \*dǫti, dǫmǫ).

жѣти <i>žéti</i> “take, bring” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ВОЖМ-УН <i>vožmún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕВА <i>vožméva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕМ <i>vožmém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕШ <i>vožmés</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕТА <i>vožméta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕТЕ <i>vožméte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕТ <i>vožmét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ВОЖМ-ЕТА <i>vožméta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ВОЖМ-УТ <i>vožmút</i>

Unexpected stem variation /z<sup>h</sup>e(n)/ (infinitive) ~ /βoz<sup>h</sup>m/ (present). A complex pattern combining a now-defunct prefix \*вож, a now-defunct verb \*e(н)и, and historical nasalization, cf. Common Slavic \*vǫzǫti, \*vǫzǫmǫ.

истити <i>istíti</i> “exist” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ИШКЪ-УН <i>ískjun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ИСТ-ЕВА <i>ísteva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ИСТ-ЕМ <i>ístem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ИСТ-ЕШ <i>ístes</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ИСТ-ЕТА <i>ísteta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ИСТ-ЕТЕ <i>ístete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ИСТ-ЕТ <i>ístet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ИСТ-ЕТА <i>ísteta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ИСТ-УТ <i>ístut</i>

Infinitive appears I Conjugation, present appears E Conjugation, but with palatalization only in the 1sg.

лити <i>liti</i> “deprive” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ЛИХЪ-УН <i>lihjun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИВА <i>lihjiva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИМ <i>lihjim</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИШ <i>lihjis</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИТА <i>lihjita</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИТЕ <i>lihjite</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИТ <i>lihjit</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ЛИХЪ-ИТА <i>lihjita</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ЛИХЪ-АТ <i>lihjat</i>

*Stem-final /ç/ visible in the present tense, but elides completely in the infinitive.*

мути <i>muti</i> “wash” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	МИ-ЮН <i>mijun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	МИ-ЕВА <i>mijeva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	МИ-ЕМ <i>mijem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	МИ-ЕШ <i>mijes</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	МИ-ЕТА <i>mijeta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	МИ-ЕТЕ <i>mijete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	МИ-ЕТ <i>mijet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	МИ-ЕТА <i>mijeta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	МИ-ЮТ <i>mijut</i>

*Unexpected stem variation /mwij/ (infinitive) ~ /mij/ (present). The infinitive preserves the old form, with the loss of /w/ possibly being dissimilatory and by analogy with the several other verbs with \*Cij stems.*

пошѣсти <i>pošesti</i> “wash” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ПО-ШЕД-УН <i>pošédun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕВА <i>pošédeva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕМ <i>pošédem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕШ <i>pošédes</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕТА <i>pošédeta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕТЕ <i>pošédete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕТ <i>pošédet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ПО-ШЕД-ЕТА <i>pošédeta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ПО-ШЕД-УТ <i>pošédut</i>

*Stem vowel variation with /æ/ in infinitive and /e/ in future. This is the sole Novegradian holdover of Proto-Indo-European nasal infixes in the present tense, cf. Proto-Slavic \*pošédtei, \*pošendun; Common Slavic \*pošesti, \*pošedq. Only appears prefixed.*

пюти <i>piúti</i> “spit” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	пљу-юн <i>plújun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	пљу-ева <i>plúieva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	пљу-ем <i>plúiem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	пљу-еш <i>plúies</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	пљу-ета <i>plúieta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	пљу-ете <i>plúiete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	пљу-ет <i>plúiet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	пљу-ета <i>plúieta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	пљу-ют <i>plúiiut</i>

*Irregular stem variation /pjuj/ (infinitive) ~ /pluj/ (present). The present form is expected; the emergence of /l/ in the infinitive may have been blocked to maintain distinction with нлѹму “swim”.*

сати <i>sáti</i> “suck” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	соз-ам <i>soz-ám</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	соз-ава <i>soz-áva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	соз-аме <i>soz-áme</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	соз-аш <i>soz-áš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	соз-акта <i>soz-ákta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	соз-ате <i>soz-áte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	соз-акт <i>soz-ákt</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	соз-акта <i>soz-ákta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	соз-ати <i>soz-áti</i>

*Stem-final /s~z/ visible in the present tense, but assimilates completely into the stem-initial /s/ in the infinitive.*

смѣятиш <i>smijátis</i> “laugh” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	смѣ-ю-ш <i>směiús</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	смѣ-ева-ш <i>směiévaš</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	смѣ-ем-ши <i>směiémši</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	смѣ-еш-ши <i>směiészši</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	смѣ-ета-ш <i>směiétaš</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	смѣ-ете-ш <i>směiéteš</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	смѣ-е-ци <i>směiéci</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	смѣ-ета-ш <i>směiétaš</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	смѣ-ю-ци <i>směiúci</i>

*Stem vowel variation with /i/ in infinitive and /æ/ in present-future. This variation is unexplained, but seen in several Slavic languages. Always appears with middle voice suffixes (see section on the middle voice later in this chapter).*

спати <i>spáti</i> “sleep” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	соп-у-н <i>soplún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	сп-ива <i>spíva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	сп-им <i>spím</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	сп-и-ш <i>spís</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	сп-ита <i>spíta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	сп-ите <i>spíte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	сп-ит <i>spít</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	сп-ита <i>spíta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	сп-ат <i>spát</i>

*Irregular 1sg preserving original vowel. This vowel was likely kept to prevent the emergence of an initial \*spl cluster.*

тлѣйкѣн <i>tléikji</i> “shove” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	то-ѣ-к-у-н <i>tolkún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-ва <i>tolkéva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-м <i>tolkém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-ш <i>tolkéš</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-та <i>tolkéta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-те <i>tolkéte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-т <i>tolkét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-та <i>tolkéta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	то-ѣ-к-с-т <i>tolkút</i>

*Infinitive stem \*tlek, present-future stem \*tolk. Metathesis occurred in the infinitive stem to prevent the emergence of a complex consonant cluster, which in turn resulted in differing vowel developments.*

хотѣти <i>hótěti</i> “want” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	хо-к-ъ-у-н <i>hókjun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-ва <i>hókjeva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-м <i>hókjem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-ш <i>hókješ</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-та <i>hókjeta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-те <i>hókjete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-т <i>hókjet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	хо-к-ъ-с-та <i>hókjeta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	хо-к-ъ-а-т <i>hókjat</i>

*Present 3pl takes I Conjugation ending while other vowels take E Conjugation endings. This remains unexplained, but is present in many Slavic languages.*

цейкы <i>céikji</i> “expect” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	kes-ун <i>kédzun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	kes-ева <i>kédzeva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	kes-ем <i>kédzem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	kes-еш <i>kédześ</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	kes-ета <i>kédzeta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	kes-ете <i>kédzete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	kes-ет <i>kédzet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	kes-ета <i>kédzeta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	kes-ут <i>kédzut</i>

*Unexpected dissimilatory depalatalization of stem-initial /ts/ → /k/ due to following /dz/.*

цисти <i>císti</i> “count” (PF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	цед-ун <i>cedún</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	цед-ева <i>cedéva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	цед-ем <i>cedém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	цед-еш <i>cedéś</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	цед-ета <i>cedéta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	цед-ете <i>cedéte</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	цед-ет <i>cedét</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	цед-ета <i>cedéta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	цед-ут <i>cedút</i>

*Stem vowel variation with /i/ in infinitive and /e/ in present-future.*

шияти <i>šijáti</i> “shine” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	шия-ям <i>šijáiam</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	шия-ява <i>šijáiaava</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	шия-яме <i>šijáiaime</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	шия-яш <i>šijáiaś</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	шия-яста <i>šijáiaasta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	шия-яте <i>šijáiaite</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	шия-яст <i>šijáiaast</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	шия-яста <i>šijáiaasta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	шия-яти <i>šijáiaati</i>

*Infinitive displays haplology while present-future shows full forms. This would not be unusual for the E Conjugation, but is in the A Conjugation.*

ѣхати <i>iěhati</i> “go by vehicle” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ѣд-ун <i>iědun</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	ѣд-ева <i>iědeva</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	ѣд-ем <i>iědem</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ѣд-еши <i>iědesi</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	ѣд-ета <i>iědeta</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	ѣд-ете <i>iědete</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ѣд-ет <i>iědet</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	ѣд-ета <i>iědeta</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	ѣд-ут <i>iědut</i>

*Irregular stem variation /jæx/ in infinitive and /jæd/ in present-future. This variation predates Common Slavic, with the /x/ perhaps related to an old sigmatic aorist form.*

### 4.4.3 The Past Tense

#### 4.4.3.1 The Regular Past Tense

The Novegradian past tense, for both perfective and imperfective verbs, derives from the Common Slavic L-participle, which has been reanalyzed as a verbal form rather than an adjective. Due to its origins, it displays agreement for gender in place of person. It is formed from the same stem as the infinitive (not the present/future tense), plus *-l-*, plus an ending. As such, the past form can oftentimes be created by dropping the *-ти* of the infinitive and replacing with *-l-*. As in the infinitive, the present/future or conjugation theme vowel is not indicated. Stress is generally on the same syllable as on the infinitive, which is not always the same as in the present/future. Generally speaking, if the sound immediately before the infinitive ending *-ти* is a vowel, the past tense form may be considered regular.

	Masc Sg	Fem Sg	Neut Sg (Type I)	Neut Sg (Type II)	Dl	Pl
<b>Past Tense</b>	-л-ѣ <i>-l-e</i>	-л-а <i>-l-a</i>	-л-о <i>-l-e</i>	-л-ѣ <i>-l-e</i>	-л-ѣ <i>-l-ě</i>	-л-и <i>-l-i</i>

As can be seen above, the gender contrast is neutralized in the dual and plural, much as with adjectives. The contrast between the dual and plural is purely orthographic, since the ending is never stressed and thus /æ/ and /i/ are both pronounced [ɪ].

There are two variants of the neuter. Type I (in /o/) is the usual form. Type II (in /e/, spelled *ě*) is a positional variant that only appears directly after neuter nouns ending in /e/ rather than the more common /o/. There is no semantic



difference between the two forms; Type II seems simply to be a case of “ending spreading”, where the /e/ ending of an adjacent noun spreads to the verb.

	A	I	E
	цидати “read”	рѣсѣти “say”	пизати “write”
<b>Masc Sg</b>	цида-л-ѣ <i>cidále</i>	рѣси-л-ѣ <i>rědzile</i>	пиза-л-ѣ <i>pizále</i>
<b>Fem Sg</b>	цида-л-а <i>cidála</i>	рѣси-л-а <i>rědzila</i>	пиза-л-а <i>pizála</i>
<b>Neut Sg (I)</b>	цида-л-о <i>cidálo</i>	рѣси-л-о <i>rědzilo</i>	пиза-л-о <i>pizálo</i>
<b>Neut Sg (II)</b>	цида-л-ѣ <i>cidále</i>	рѣси-л-ѣ <i>rědzile</i>	пиза-л-ѣ <i>pizále</i>
<b>DI</b>	цида-л-ѣ <i>cidálě</i>	рѣси-л-ѣ <i>rědzilě</i>	пиза-л-ѣ <i>pizálě</i>
<b>PI</b>	цида-л-и <i>cidáli</i>	рѣси-л-и <i>rědzili</i>	пиза-л-и <i>pizáli</i>

Stress for virtually all verbs in the past tense (even irregular ones) always remains on the same syllable, unless the stem is only one syllable long, in which case the stress will shift to the ending in the feminine singular form. This happens in both thematic and athematic verbs:

Stress-Shifting Verbs in the Past Tense		
	жити “live”	буити “be”
<b>Masc Sg</b>	жи-л-ѣ <i>žíle</i>	буи-л-ѣ <i>buíle</i>
<b>Fem Sg</b>	жи-л-а <i>žílá</i>	буи-л-а <i>builá</i>
<b>Neut Sg (I)</b>	жи-л-о <i>žílo</i>	буи-л-о <i>buílo</i>
<b>Neut Sg (II)</b>	жи-л-ѣ <i>žíle</i>	буи-л-ѣ <i>buíle</i>
<b>DI</b>	жи-л-ѣ <i>žílě</i>	буи-л-ѣ <i>buílě</i>
<b>PI</b>	жи-л-и <i>žíli</i>	буи-л-и <i>buíli</i>

### 4.4.3.2 Irregularities in the Past Tense

Because the past tense stem is the same as the infinitive stem, the many minor verb classes mentioned earlier in the present/future tense are of almost no concern. Except for verbs whose infinitives end in -сти, -зти, or -йкѝ, the past tense can be formed regularly from the infinitive.

Past Tense Forms					
Infinitive	кѣловати <i>kélováti</i>	ковати <i>kóvati</i>	медати <i>medáti</i>	прети <i>préti</i>	брати <i>bráti</i>
Past Stem	кѣловал- <i>kéloval-</i>	ковал- <i>kóval-</i>	медал- <i>medal-</i>	прел- <i>prel-</i>	брал- <i>bral-</i>

Past Tense Forms				
Infinitive	нашнати <i>našnáti</i>	жити <i>žíti</i>	пити <i>píti</i>	спати <i>spáti</i>
Past Stem	нашна- <i>našnal-</i>	жил- <i>žil-</i>	пил- <i>pil-</i>	спал- <i>spal-</i>

If the infinitive stem ends in /s z k g/ (i.e., the infinitive ends in -зти, -йкѝ, or occasionally -сти), the consonant is not dropped, and the past tense suffix -л- is added immediately after that consonant. The /j/ off-glide seen in the velar stems is dropped.

Past Tense Forms of Verbs with Stem-Final /s z k g/				
Infinitive	нести <i>něsti</i> “carry”	везти <i>vězti</i> “transport”	плайкѝ <i>pláikji</i> “cry”	мойкѝ <i>móikji</i> “be able”
Masc Sg	неслє <i>něsle</i>	вєзлє <i>vězle</i>	плаклє <i>plákle</i>	моглє <i>mógle</i>
Fem Sg	несла <i>neslá</i>	вєзла <i>vezlá</i>	плакла <i>plaklá</i>	могла <i>moglá</i>
Neut Sg (I)	несло <i>něslo</i>	вєзло <i>vězlo</i>	плакло <i>pláklo</i>	могло <i>móglo</i>
Neut Sg (II)	неслє <i>něsle</i>	вєзлє <i>vězle</i>	плаклє <i>plákle</i>	моглє <i>mógle</i>
DI	неслѣ <i>něslě</i>	вєзлѣ <i>vězlě</i>	плаклѣ <i>pláklě</i>	моглѣ <i>móglě</i>
PI	несли <i>něsli</i>	вєзли <i>vězli</i>	плакли <i>plákli</i>	могли <i>mógli</i>

When the infinitive stem ends in /t/ or /d/, both of which will always appear as *c s*, it is converted to /k/ or /g/ and then conjugated like the verbs above. Notably, three of the four athematic verbs follow this pattern. In speech it is common to pronounce this -r- as a fricative /ɣ/ in some or all forms. Older speakers only have this /ɣ/ when the syllable immediately before the -r- is stressed (e.g., да[ɣ]ае “I/you/he gave”, but да[ɡ]аа “I/you/she gave”). Younger speakers frequently have /ɣ/ in all forms.

Athematic Verbs in the Past Tense			
Infinitive	ѣсти <i>iěsti</i> “eat”	вѣсти <i>věsti</i> “know”	дати <i>dāti</i> “give”
Masc Sg	ѣглє <i>iěgle</i>	вѣглє <i>věgle</i>	даглє <i>dagle</i>
Fem Sg	ѣгла <i>iěglá</i>	вѣгла <i>věglá</i>	дагла <i>daglá</i>
Neut Sg (I)	ѣгло <i>iěglo</i>	вѣгло <i>věglo</i>	дагло <i>dáglo</i>
Neut Sg (II)	ѣглє <i>iěgle</i>	вѣглє <i>věgle</i>	даглє <i>dagle</i>
DI	ѣглѣ <i>iěglě</i>	вѣглѣ <i>věglě</i>	даглѣ <i>daglě</i>
PI	ѣгли <i>iěgli</i>	вѣгли <i>věgli</i>	дагли <i>dágli</i>

#### 4.4.3.3 Irregular Verbs in the Past Tense

A very small set of verbs have an irregular past tense, with a pattern not shared by any other verbs except for their own derivative forms. They are *исти* *ísti* “go, walk”, *пошѣсти* *pošěsti* “sit down”, *гейкъи* *gékji* “burn”, *данти* *dánti* “blow”, *женти* *žénti* “take”, and *тайти* *táiti* “conceal, harbor”.

The past tense of *исти* is suppletive, based on \*ш(ед)-, a root originally meaning something along the lines of “step”. The fact that the ending is always stressed on this stem means that *исти* and its derivatives are the only verbs that distinguish the dual and plural forms in speech.

The vowel change in *пошѣсти* is likely the result of contamination (since the vowels of this verb were already irregular in Common Slavic due to an additional nasal element inherited from PIE). The exact origin is not certain.

The *ɣ* found in the past tense of *гейкъи* is the result of dissimilation from the

following /g/. Due to palatalization rules, however, it is actually even more irregular than it appears. Only in the feminine singular is *г* pronounced [ɣ] (i.e., [ɣɛ.'gla]); in all other forms it is pronounced [j]: ['jɛ.gɫɛ], ['jɛ.gɫo], etc.

Irregular Past Tense Verbs			
Infinitive	исти “go, walk”	пошѣсти “sit down”	гейкъи “burn”
Masc Sg	шле <i>šlé</i>	пошале <i>pošále</i>	ґегле <i>ǵégle</i>
Fem Sg	шла <i>šlá</i>	пошала <i>pošalá</i>	ґегла <i>ǵeglá</i>
Neut Sg (I)	шло <i>šló</i>	пошало <i>pošálo</i>	ґегло <i>ǵéglo</i>
Neut Sg (II)	шлѐ <i>šlé</i>	пошалѐ <i>pošále</i>	ґеглѐ <i>ǵégle</i>
DI	шлѣ <i>šlě</i>	пошалѣ <i>pošálě</i>	ґеглѣ <i>ǵéglě</i>
PI	шли <i>šli</i>	пошали <i>pošáli</i>	ґегли <i>ǵégli</i>

Irregular Past Tense Verbs			
Infinitive	данѣти “blow”	жентѣи “take”	тайѣти “conceal”
Masc Sg	дале <i>dále</i>	желе <i>zéle</i>	тале <i>tále</i>
Fem Sg	дала <i>dála</i>	жела <i>zéla</i>	тайла <i>tailá</i>
Neut Sg (I)	дало <i>dálo</i>	жело <i>zélo</i>	тайло <i>tailo</i>
Neut Sg (II)	далѐ <i>dále</i>	желѐ <i>zéle</i>	тайлѐ <i>taille</i>
DI	далѣ <i>dálě</i>	желѣ <i>zélě</i>	тайлѣ <i>tailě</i>
PI	дали <i>dáli</i>	жели <i>zéli</i>	тайли <i>taili</i>

Both *данѣти* and *жентѣи* originally had nasal vowels in their infinitive and past tense stems (Common Slavic \*dǫľь, \*vъzǫľь), which uncoupled into /an en/ in the infinitive but not in the past tense. Note also that these verbs, de-

spite being one syllable long, do not display the stress shift in the feminine singular.

Тайти just sees the root-final /j/ lost in the masculine singular likely due to dialect contamination. The masculine singular ending was once very weak, and the lack of ending prompted loss of /j/ as /jI/ was illegal at the end of a word. It reappears in all other forms. This also makes it the only verb to distinguish the masculine singular from the type II neuter singular in speech: та̀ле *tále* ['ta.lɛ] vs та̀йлѐ *táile* ['taj.lɛ].

#### 4.4.4 The Analytic Future Tenses

The two analytic future tenses both require the use of the future tense of бу̀ити “be” as an auxiliary verb. Бу̀ити is the only verb in Novegradian with a true, distinct future tense. It is formed by adding the regular third conjugation present/future endings onto the stem \*бад- *\*bad-*.

The simple future, which only imperfective verbs can have, is formed using the future form of “be” followed by the infinitive. With ци́дати “read”:

ци́дати <i>cidáti</i> “read” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ба́дун ци́дати <i>bádun cidáti</i>	<b>1DI</b>	ба́дева ци́дати <i>bádeva cidáti</i>	<b>1PI</b>	ба́дем ци́дати <i>bádem cidáti</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ба́деш ци́дати <i>bádeš cidáti</i>	<b>2DI</b>	ба́дета ци́дати <i>bádetā cidáti</i>	<b>2PI</b>	ба́дете ци́дати <i>bádete cidáti</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ба́дет ци́дати <i>bádet cidáti</i>	<b>3DI</b>	ба́дета ци́дати <i>bádetā cidáti</i>	<b>3PI</b>	ба́дут ци́дати <i>bádut cidáti</i>

However, the simple future of “be” is always ба́дун, ба́деш, etc., never \*\*ба́дун бу̀ити.

The future tense form of “be” combined with a past tense verb, the L-form of either a perfective or imperfective verb, forms the future hypothetical tense. With рѣ̀сити “say, read aloud”:

рѣ̀сити <i>řědzíti</i> “say, read aloud” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	ба́дун рѣ̀силѐ <i>bádun řědzíle</i>	<b>1DI</b>	ба́дева рѣ̀силѐ <i>bádeva řědzíle</i>	<b>1PI</b>	ба́дем рѣ̀сили <i>bádem řědzíli</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	ба́деш рѣ̀силѐ <i>bádeš řědzíle</i>	<b>2DI</b>	ба́дета рѣ̀силѐ <i>bádetā řědzíle</i>	<b>2PI</b>	ба́дете рѣ̀сили <i>bádete řědzíli</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	ба́дет рѣ̀силѐ <i>bádet řědzíle</i>	<b>3DI</b>	ба́дета рѣ̀силѐ <i>bádetā řědzíle</i>	<b>3PI</b>	ба́дут рѣ̀сили <i>bádut řědzíli</i>

The singular forms will all conjugate to agree in gender, as in the past tense. Unlike in the simple future, the form *бадун буиле* is allowed.

#### 4.4.5 Verbs of Motion

Verbs of motion form a special class in Novegradian, like in other Slavic languages, as instead of a two-way distinction of perfective-imperfective, there is a three-way distinction where the imperfective is divided into determinate and indeterminate forms. Unlike the other Slavic languages, however, the perfective of verbs of motion is falling out of use. In modern Novegradian, it is almost never used in the past tense and only finds use to indicate the future. The perfective is always formed by adding the prefix *по-* *po-* to the determinate form. The indeterminate is formed from a separate root, though usually related somehow to the determinate root.

Such triplets include (DET ~ PF ~ INDET):

- исти *isti* ~ пойти *póisti* ~ ходити *hóditi* “go, walk”
- ѣхати *iěhati* ~ поѣхати *poiěhati* ~ ѣздити *iězditi* “go, travel, go by vehicle”
- бѣйкѣи *běikji* ~ побѣйкѣи *poběikji* ~ бѣгати *běgati* “run”
- ледѣти *leděti* ~ поледѣти *poleděti* ~ лидати *lidāti* “fly”
- плути *plúti* ~ поплути *poplúti* ~ плавити *pláviti* “swim, sail, float”
- нести *něsti* ~ понести *poněsti* ~ ношити *nóšiti* “carry”
- везти *vézti* ~ повезти *povézti* ~ возити *vóziti* “transport”
- лѣзти *lězti* ~ полѣзти *polězti* ~ лажити *láziti* “climb”
- тенкѣи *ténkji* ~ потенкѣи *poténkji* ~ ташкѣити *táškjiti* “pull, haul”
- брести *brěsti* ~ побрести *pobrěsti* ~ бродити *broditi* “walk on an unstable surface”

For conjugation and irregularity information, see the lexicon.

The last two examples, *тенкѣи* ~ *ташкѣити* and *брести* ~ *бродити*, were not inherited pairs, but rather ones that were reanalyzed and became ones in Novegradian (compare unpaired Russian *тянуть* ~ *тащить*, *брести* ~ *бродить*).

The use of the pairs *исти* ~ *ходити*, *ѣхати* ~ *ѣздити*, and *брести* ~ *бродити* is explained later, in Section 11.6.7.

Another interesting feature of the two imperfective forms of all verbs of motion is how easily they take locative and directional prefixes. Novegradian features a sort of ‘preposition agreement’: *войти во...* “to go into...” (literally ‘in-go in’). The most common locomotive prefixes are:

Prefix	Meaning	исти “go”	нести “carry”
в-, во- <i>v-, vo-</i>	“into”	войсти “go into”	вонести “carry in”
до- <i>do-</i>	“to, reaching”	дойсти “go to”	донести “carry to”
за- <i>za-</i>	“suddenly, quickly”	зайсти “visit, drop by”	занести “bring over”
о- <i>o-</i>	“out of, from”	ойсти “leave”	онести “carry away”
при- <i>pri-</i>	“toward”	прийти “arrive”	принести “fetch, bring”
про- <i>pro</i>	“through”	пройти “go via”	пронести “carry through”

## 4.5 The Subjunctive Mood

The Novegradian subjunctive is an analytic construction formed from the past tense L- form of a verb and a special form of *буити* “be”, a fossilized aorist. Only three aorist forms remain: the singular, dual, and plural. As with the past tense and future hypothetical, the L-form verb agrees in gender and number with its subject. With *цидати* “read” (and a masculine subject):

цидати <i>cidāti</i> “read” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	цидале би <i>cidále bi</i>	<b>1DI</b>	цидалѣ бис <i>cidále bis</i>	<b>1PI</b>	цидали бу <i>cidáli bu</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	цидале би <i>cidále bi</i>	<b>2DI</b>	цидалѣ бис <i>cidále bis</i>	<b>2PI</b>	цидали бу <i>cidáli bu</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	цидале би <i>cidále bi</i>	<b>3DI</b>	цидалѣ бис <i>cidále bis</i>	<b>3PI</b>	цидали бу <i>cidáli bu</i>

## 4.6 The Imperative Mood

There are five imperative forms (2SG, 2DL, 2PL, 1DL, 1PL) for both perfective and imperfective roots. Generally speaking, the 2SG is formed from the present/future stem by adding -ай -*ái* (first conjugation) or -и -*i* (second and third conjugations).

The 2DL is formed by adding -айта *-áita* (first), -ита *-íta* (second), or -ѣта *-ěta* (third). The 2PL is the same, but with the plural -те *-te* instead of the dual -та.

The first person imperatives add these same endings to the 1DL or 1PL present/future forms, dropping any final vowel if there is one (except for the third conjugation, which has -ѣта/-ѣмте instead of -еута/-емте). If the root undergoes a palatalization in all forms of the present/future tense, that palatalization will also appear in the imperatives. These suffixes are always stressed.

	2Sg	2DI	2PI	1 DI	PI
<b>A Conjugation</b>	-а-й <i>-á-i</i>	-а-йта <i>-á-ita</i>	-а-йте <i>-á-ite</i>	-а-ута <i>-á-uta</i>	-а-мте <i>-á-mte</i>
<b>I Conjugation</b>	-Ø-и <i>-Ø-i</i>	-и-та <i>-í-ta</i>	-и-те <i>-i-te</i>	-и-ўта <i>-i-wta</i>	-и-мте <i>-i-mte</i>
<b>E Conjugation</b>	-Ø-и <i>-Ø-i</i>	-ѣ-та <i>-ě-ta</i>	-ѣ-те <i>-ě-te</i>	-ѣ-ута <i>-ě-uta</i>	-ѣ-мте <i>-ě-mte</i>
<b>Athematic</b>	-Ø-Ø <i>-Ø-Ø</i>	-и-та <i>-í-ta</i>	-и-те <i>-i-te</i>	-и-ўта <i>-i-wta</i>	-и-мте <i>-i-mte</i>

Only third conjugation verbs show the vowel alteration /i~æ/ in their imperative forms. This predates Proto-Slavic, but has largely been levelled out in most Slavic languages other than Bulgarian and Czech.

Although the stress in the imperative form is always on the ending, even in otherwise stem-stressed verbs, this never results in the appearance of a voiced consonant that does not appear anywhere else in a particular verb's paradigm. Thus the 2SG imperative "write!" is пишѣ *pihji*, not expected \*\*пиѣѣ *piǰji* by the pretonic voicing sound law, because /j/ does not appear in any other form of писати.

The athematic verbs have irregular forms in the imperative. For ѣсти and вѣсти, these were inherited; буити acquired this pattern by analogy. Дати follows a pattern that looks much more like the A Conjugation, likely acquired due to the phonetic similarity of their respective infinitive stems.

There is only one third person imperative that has survived, the 3SG of буити: буди *budi* "let him/her/it be". The 3DL/PL form буден *budén* "let them be" is sometimes seen in older texts, though it is no longer used. Буди is generally used for third person subjects of any number and is fully productive in the literary register, though is limited to certain expressions in colloquial speech. All other third person imperatives are formed periphrastically.



Infinitive	Imperatives		
	цидати “read”	рѣсати “say”	пизати “write”
2 Sg	цид-ай! <i>cidái</i>	рѣс-и! <i>rědzi</i>	пихъ-и! <i>pihjǐ</i>
2 Dl	цид-ай-та! <i>cidáita</i>	рѣс-и-та! <i>rědzita</i>	пихъ-ѣ-та! <i>pihjěta</i>
2 Pl	цид-ай-те! <i>cidáite</i>	рѣс-и-те! <i>rědzíte</i>	пихъ-ѣ-те! <i>pihjěte</i>
1 Dl	цид-ау-та! <i>cidáuta</i>	рѣс-иѣ-та! <i>rědziwta</i>	пихъ-ѣу-та! <i>pihjěuta</i>
1 Pl	цид-ам-те! <i>cidámte</i>	рѣс-им-те! <i>rědzímtē</i>	пихъ-ѣм-те! <i>pihjěmtē</i>

Infinitive	Imperatives of Athematic Verbs			
	буити “be”	ѣсти “eat”	вѣсти “know”	дати “give”
2 Sg	багъ! <i>bágj</i>	ѣгъ! <i>iěgj</i>	вѣгъ! <i>věgj</i>	дай! <i>dái</i>
2 Dl	багыта! <i>bagjita</i>	ѣгыта! <i>iěgjita</i>	вѣгыта! <i>věgjita</i>	дайта! <i>dáita</i>
2 Pl	багыте! <i>bagjíte</i>	ѣгыте! <i>iěgjíte</i>	вѣгыте! <i>věgjíte</i>	дайте! <i>dáite</i>
1 Dl	багыѣта! <i>bagjǐwta</i>	ѣгыѣта! <i>iěgjǐwta</i>	вѣгыѣта! <i>věgjǐwta</i>	даута! <i>dáuta</i>
1 Pl	багымте! <i>bagjímte</i>	ѣгымте! <i>iěgjímte</i>	вѣгымте! <i>věgjímte</i>	дамте! <i>dámte</i>

A number of verb classes have irregular imperatives, particularly those where the present stem ends in /j/. E-Conjugation verbs of the \*-ij (e.g., крити) and \*-Cj (e.g., пити) types take the ending -ей -ei in the second person rather than -и- or -ѣ-. In the first person forms, the expected -ѣ- appears, but with a /j/ glide. Verbs with a /v ~ j/ alternation (e.g., ковати) form the imperative using the *infinitive* stem rather than the present-future to avoid the repetition of /j/, while verbs with the stative suffix \*-ѣi- (e.g., владѣти) lose it entirely in the imperative (so that, e.g., the 2SG imperative is влади! *vladi* “rule!” rather than \*\*владѣи \*\**vlaději*).

Irregular Imperatives				
Infinitive	крити “cover”	пити “drink”	ковати “forge”	владѣти “rule”
2 Sg	крей! <i>kréi</i>	пей! <i>péi</i>	ковай! <i>kovái</i>	влади! <i>vladí</i>
2 Dl	крейта! <i>kréita</i>	пейта! <i>péita</i>	ковайта! <i>kováita</i>	владѣта! <i>vladěita</i>
2 Pl	крейте! <i>kréita</i>	пейте! <i>péite</i>	ковайте! <i>kováite</i>	владѣте! <i>vladěte</i>
1 Dl	криѣута! <i>krijěuta</i>	пиѣута! <i>piěuta</i>	коваута! <i>kováuta</i>	владѣута! <i>vladěuta</i>
1 Pl	криѣмте! <i>krijěmte</i>	пиѣмте! <i>piěmte</i>	ковамте! <i>kovámte</i>	владѣмте! <i>vladěmte</i>

## 4.7 The Supine

The supine is a verbal noun that behaves much like the infinitive, but is used to indicate motion. It is used exclusively after verbs of motion, and in place of the infinitive in other situations if there is a clear movement being suggested. It is formed from the same stem as the infinitive. In fact, for almost all verbs, it can be formed by dropping the final -и of the infinitive.

The Supine					
Infinitive	цидати <i>cidáti</i> “read”	рѣсати <i>rědzíti</i> “say”	пизати <i>pizáti</i> “write”	буити <i>buiti</i> “be”	жити <i>žíti</i> “live”
Supine	цидат <i>cidát</i>	рѣсит <i>rědzít</i>	пизат <i>pizát</i>	буит <i>buit</i>	жит <i>ží</i>

The only exceptions are those with a consonant before the /t/ in the infinitive, or that end in -йкѣ. Most of the former end up losing the entire ending -ти. Данти and зенти, though, lose the /n/ instead. The latter group appear as a bare root, ending in a velar consonant.

Irregular Supines						
Infinitive	нести <i>něsti</i> “carry”	ѣсти <i>iěsti</i> “eat”	дати <i>dánti</i> “blow”	женти <i>žénti</i> “take”	плайкѣи <i>pláikji</i> “cry”	мойкѣи <i>móikji</i> “be able”
Supine	нес <i>nés</i>	ѣс <i>iěs</i>	дат <i>dát</i>	жет <i>žét</i>	плак <i>plák</i>	мог <i>móg</i>

The verb дати “give” has an irregular supine дас *dás* in place of the expected \*дат. This appears to be a carryover from a now-defunct infinitive variant дасти *dásti*, based on the dental stem \*дад and the other -сти-type athematic verbs.

Prefixed forms of исти “go” always have a full vowel /i/ present: ойти *óisti* “leave” → оис *ójis*, отѣйти *ótěisti* “go from” → отис *ótis*.

## 4.8 The Passive Voice

The morphological passive voice in Novegradian is formed by conjugating a verb normally, agreeing with the subject, and adding the passive suffix -шин *-šin*, in origin an old enclitic reflexive pronoun (Common Slavic \*se). The rest of the verb is not altered in any way, except that the 1sg ending -ун reduces to -у and any time the sequence -тш- would appear it is simplified to -ц-. Demonstrated with мотрѣти “watch” in the present tense only:

мотрѣтишин <i>mótrětišin</i> “be watched” (IMPF)					
1Sg	мутру-шин <i>mútrušin</i>	1DI	мутрива-шин <i>mútrivašin</i>	1PI	мутрим-шин <i>mútrimšin</i>
2Sg	мутриш-шин <i>mútrišin</i>	2DI	мутрита-шин <i>mútritašin</i>	2PI	мутрите-шин <i>mútritešin</i>
3Sg	мутри-цин <i>mútricin</i>	3DI	мутрита-шин <i>mútritašin</i>	3PI	мутра-цин <i>mútracin</i>

In constructions involving an auxiliary verb, the passive suffix goes onto the end of whichever verb comes last. Since Novegradian has free word order, бадет мотрѣтишин *bádet mótrětišin* and мотрѣти бадесцин *mótrěti bádecin* both mean the same thing, “he/she/it will be watched”.

The only irregular passive voice forms appear on the supine form of verbs. For all verbs whose infinitive ends in -ти *-ti*, the passive supine is formed by replacing

this with -цин *-cin*. This applies even to irregular supines such as женти “take”: пизацин *pizácín* “be written” (SUP пизат *pizát*), женцин *žéncín* “be taken” (SUP жет *žét*), вѣсцин *věšcín* “be known” (SUP вѣс *věš*). Velar-stem verbs (those whose infinitives end in -йкьи *-ikji*), however, just add -цин directly to the supine form: пекцин *pékcín* “be baked” (SUP пек *pék*). There are no instances of the passive clitic attaching to such a verb whose root ends in /g/; the only transitive /g/-final verb, прейкьи *préikji* “harness”, refuses the clitic in the supine, passing it to the other verb: прег идещин *prég idécín* “it is going to get harnessed”, never \*\*идет прегцин.

The addition of the passive suffix may cause the reemergence of certain sounds lost in the standard active-voice pronunciation, though maintained in spelling. Specifically, this applies to the third person singular ending -ст in the A and athematic conjugations and the third person plural suffix -ат/-ит in the athematic conjugation: цидаст *cidást* [tsi.'das] “(he/she/it) reads” → цидасцин *cidáscín* [tsi.'das.tsm] “(it) is read”, дадит *dádit* ['da.də] “(they) give” → дадицин *dádicín* ['da.di.tsm] “(they) are given”.

## 4.9 The Middle Voice

The Novegradian middle voice is still quite productive, although it tends to be found on older verbs much more often than on more recent ones. There is a set of suffixes, also derived from Common Slavic \*-sę, that are added to the end of a verb that is otherwise conjugated normally. These endings are more eroded than the passive voice ones, but at one point were one and the same.

After a consonant, the ending takes the form -ши *-śi*, and after a vowel, -ш *-ś*. The same ending and spelling reductions occur as in the passive voice. Demonstrated with вастатиш “meet (INTR)”, of Karelian or Veps origin:

вастатиш <i>vástatiś</i> “meet” (IMPF)					
<b>1Sg</b>	вастам-ши <i>vástamśi</i>	<b>1Dl</b>	вастава-ш <i>vástavaś</i>	<b>1Pl</b>	вастаме-ш <i>vástameś</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	вашташ-ши <i>vástashśi</i>	<b>2Dl</b>	вастаста-ш <i>vástastaś</i>	<b>2Pl</b>	вастате-ш <i>vástateś</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	вастас-ци <i>vástasci</i>	<b>3Dl</b>	вастаста-ш <i>vástastaś</i>	<b>3Pl</b>	вастатиш <i>vástatiś</i>

The rules for using the middle voice on supines are identical to those for the passive voice.

## 4.10 The Adverbial Participles

The adverbial participles are non-conjugated verbal forms that indicate the manner, reason, or intent of action in the main predicate verb. Since the aspectual distinction is maintained, there are two such adverbs: the perfective and imperfective.

The imperfective adverbial, derived ultimately from the Common Slavic present active participle, roughly means “while X-ing”. It is formed by taking the present/future stem and adding -аен *-aen* for first conjugation verbs, -ин *-in* for second conjugation, and an accented -и *-i* for the third and fourth/athematic conjugations. Any mutations that occur in all present/future forms occur here as well.

The perfective adverbial, derived from the old past active participle, means “having X-ed”. It is derived from the infinitive stem of the perfective form of the verb, where an unstressed -ве *-ve* is added for all verbs, or, if the stem ends in a consonant, -ове *-ove*.

Adverbial Participles					
Inf.	цидати “read”	рѣсати “say”	пизати “write”	дати “give”	жити “live”
Impf.	цид-аен <i>cidáien</i>	рѣс-ин <i>rědzín</i>	пихъ-и <i>pihjí</i>	дад-и <i>dadí</i>	жив-и <i>živí</i>
Perf.	процида-ве <i>procidáve</i>	сорѣси-ве <i>sorědzíve</i>	написа-ве <i>napízáve</i>	содад-ове <i>sodádove</i>	прожив-ове <i>proživove</i>

These endings will never cause voicing that does not occur elsewhere. Even though Novegradian has a tendency to voice consonants immediately preceding the stress, the imperfective adverbial of пизати is пихъи *pihjí* (instead of \*пиѣи) because nowhere in its conjugation does /j/ occur in that position.

If the imperfective form of a verb is derived from a perfective form by means of the suffix -ова-, this suffix is first dropped before forming the imperfective adverbials. That is, the same base will be used for both imperfective and perfective adverbials. For a verb pair such as сорѣзовати ~ сорѣзати (*sorězováti* ~ *sorězáti*) “cut off”, the adverbials are сорѣзаен and сорѣзаве. If the suffix -ова- is an integral part of the verb, however, it is not dropped: кѣловати ~ покѣловати (*kělováti* ~ *pokělováti*) become кѣловаен and покѣловаве.

The passive and middle voice suffixes may also be added to these participles. This will cause the loss of final /n/ in the imperfective adverbials that have it: цидасшин *cidáiesín* “while being read”.

There are two verbs with irregular adverbial participles worth noting:

Adverbial Participles		
<b>Inf.</b>	буити “be”	исти “go, walk”
<b>Impf.</b>	сукъи <i>sukji</i>	иди <i>idi</i>
<b>Perf.</b>	буиве <i>buive</i>	шедове <i>šédove</i>

## 4.11 The Participles

Modern Novegradian has three verbal participles: active imperfective, passive perfective, and passive imperfective. With a verb such as “write”, these are roughly equivalent to English “writing”, “written”, and “being written”, respectively. However, it is important to note that these participles are organized by aspect, not by tense.

The active imperfective participle is formed from the present/future stem. First and third conjugation verbs then add -акъ- *-akj-*, while second conjugation verbs add -екъ- *-ekj-*. If there is a palatalization in all forms of the present tense that originates in Common Slavic, it is also seen in the participle: пизати *pizáti* “write” → pres. \*пихъ- *\*pihj-* → пихъакъе *pihjákje* “writing”. However, if there is a palatalization that did not arise predictably from Common Slavic but by later analogy, it is not seen in the participle: мойкъи *móikji* “be able” → pres. \*мож- *\*mož-* → могакъе *mogákje* “able”. Palatalizations only in the 1sg form are not extended to the participle: лубити *lubíti* “love” → pres. \*луб(л)- *\*lub(l)-* → лубекъе *lubékje* “loving”.

The passive imperfective participle is formed from the present/future stem just as the active imperfective, with the same rules regarding palatalizations. First conjugation verbs then add -ам- *-am-*, second conjugation verbs add -им- *-im-*, and third conjugation verbs -ем- *-em-*. However, if the verb is third conjugation but there is no theme vowel in the infinitive (e.g., цисти *císti* “count”, pres. \*цед- *ced-*), the ending used is instead an unstressed -ом- *-om-*: цедоме *cédome* “being counted”.

The passive perfective participle is the most complicated to form. There are four possible suffixes. Regularly, it is formed from the perfective infinitive stem according to the following rule:

- -ен- *-en-* if the verb is second conjugation or third conjugation with no thematic vowel in the infinitive (e.g., цисти again). If the latter, final stem consonants are preserved intact, never dropped: поцидене *počidene*

“counted”. If the stem ends in a labial consonant, it will palatalize:  
 лубити *lubíti* “love” → лублене *lubléne* “loved”.

- -овин- *-ovin-* if the verb contains the punctual suffix -на- in the infinitive. The /n/ is kept: нашнати *našnáti* “begin” → нашновине *našnóvine* “begun”.
- -т- *-t-* if the infinitive stem ends in /j/: оскрити *oskríti* “open” (stem \**oskrij-*) → оскрите *oskríte* “opened”. There are, however, a few second conjugation verbs that have irregularly adopted this ending, most notably затулити *zatulíti* “close” → затулите *zatulíte* “closed”.
- -н- *-n-* for first conjugation verbs or third conjugation verbs with a thematic vowel: напизати *napizáti* “write” → напизане *napizáne*.

Like in the adverbial participles, if the imperfective form of a verb is formed from the perfective with the suffix *-(o)va-*, this suffix is dropped.

The following table demonstrates the three participles for a number of different types of verbs. The first infinitive given is the imperfective form, while the infinitive in parentheses is the perfective. The verb лубити “love”, being a stative verb, lacks a true perfective form, but nevertheless has a “perfective” participle functioning more like a past participle.

Infinitive	Act. Impf.	Pass. Impf.	Pass. Pf.
цидати (процидати) “read”	цид-а-кь-е <i>cidákje</i>	цид-а-м-е <i>cidáme</i>	про-цид-а-н-е <i>procidáne</i>
рѣсити (сорѣсити) “say”	рѣс-е-кь-е <i>rědzékje</i>	рѣс-и-м-е <i>rědzíme</i>	со-рѣс-е-н-е <i>sorědzéne</i>
пизати (напизати) “write”	пихь-а-кь-е <i>pihjákje</i>	пихь-е-м-е <i>pihjéme</i>	на-пиза-н-е <i>napizáne</i>
наценати (нашнати) “begin”	нацен-а-кь-е <i>nacenákje</i>	нацен-а-м-е <i>nacenáme</i>	наш-н-овин-е <i>našnóvine</i>
лубити (—) “love”	луб-е-кь-е <i>lubékje</i>	луб-и-м-е <i>lubíme</i>	лубл-е-н-е <i>lubléne</i>

Infinitive	Act. Impf.	Pass. Impf.	Pass. Pf.
оскривати (оскрити) “open”	оскри-я-къ-е <i>oskrijákje</i>	оскри-ѣ-м-е <i>oskrijome</i>	оскри-т-е <i>oskríte</i>
цисти (поцисти) “count”	цед-а-къ-е <i>cedákje</i>	цед-о-м-е <i>cédomе</i>	по-цид-е-н-е <i>počídene</i>

The athematic verbs have irregular participles:

Infinitive	Act. Impf.	Pass. Impf.	Pass. Pf.
буити (—) “be”	сакъе <i>sákje</i>	—	—
дати (содати) “give”	дадакъе <i>dadákje</i>	дадо́ме <i>dádome</i>	сода́не <i>sodáne</i>
ѣсти (сиѣсти) “eat”	ѣдакъе <i>iědákje</i>	ѣдо́ме <i>iědome</i>	сиѣ́дeнe <i>siědene</i>
вѣсти (—) “know”	вѣдакъе <i>vědákje</i>	вѣдо́ме <i>vědome</i>	вѣ́дeнe <i>vědene</i>

Due to Russian influence, the passive perfective form of дати may sometimes appear as дане *dáne* in older texts (since дать is considered perfective in Russian). This is rare in modern speech.

Passive and middle voice suffixes may be added regularly to the active voice participles.

## 4.12 Slavic Ablaut

The functional load of Proto-Indo-European ablaut has largely been eliminated, with only traces visible in opaque cognates such as горѣти *gorěti* “burn” and жарити *žáriti* “embitter” (from PIE \*gor- and \*gēr- respectively) or данти *dánti* “blow” and диме *díme* “smoke” (PIE \*dum- and \*dūm-). Only a few verbs still show productive use of ablaut: собрати *sobráti* “gather”, соберу́н *soberún* “I will



gather”, *соборе sobóre* “cathedral” (from PIE \*br-, \*ber-, and \*bor- respectively).

However, Proto-Slavic developed a new, albeit rather limited, system of ablaut that remains visible in Novegradian and most other Slavic languages. This so-called “Slavic ablaut” affects the derivation of imperfective verbs from perfective verbs.

When any prefix is added to a “basic” (unprefixed) verb such as *пизати pizáti* “write (IMPF)” or *звати zuáti* “call (IMPF)”, the resulting verb is perfective. One prefix for every verb loses its semantic component and becomes the perfective counterpart to the unprefixed verb: *напизати napizáti* “write (PF)” (originally “write down”), *позвати pozuáti* “call (PF)” (originally something along the lines of “call at”). All other prefixes have derivational functions: *позпизати pozpizáti* “describe (PF)”, *назувати nazuáti* “name (PF)”. These derivatives, however, now lack an imperfective counterpart. These must be back-formed from the perfective using a suffix, most commonly -ова-, and a shift to the first conjugation: *позпизовати pozpizováti* “sign (IMPF)”. However, a small set of verbs instead form the new imperfective by ablaut: *називати naziváti* “call (IMPF)”.

This ablaut only takes place if the perfective base is second or third conjugation, and only affects the last vowel of the root. There are three types of ablaut seen:

- Ø → i: *собрати sobráti* “gather (PF)” → *собирати sobiráti* “gather (IMPF)”
- o → a: *помойкѣ pomóikji* “help (PF)” → *помагати pomagáti* “help (IMPF)”
- e → ě: *остейкѣ ostéikji* “be supplied (PF)” → *остѣгати ostégáti* “be supplied (IMPF)”

-звати → -зивати falls into the first category, though it has been obscured by subsequent sound changes in Novegradian. The source of this change is more obvious in Medieval Novegradian, where the perfective base was -звати -zvati.



## 5

*Nominal*

ѐ

*Morphology**Морпология истекъ ѡмън**5.1 Definitions and Features*

The basic structure of the Novegradian noun is similar to the verb. A noun consists of a stem made up of a root and zero or more derivational affixes, plus declensional affixes.

Nouns are declined according to one of six regular declension classes, which will be discussed below. These declension classes provide a set series of endings and stress patterns for the nouns within them.

All nouns have an inherent gender, either masculine, feminine, or neuter. Gender cannot be predicted from a primitive stem, though many derived stems include suffixes with a predefined gender (e.g., the gerundive *-nj-* is always masculine). Gender is much easier to determine when examining a fully-declined noun, as there is a fairly high correspondence between gender and declension class, although this is far from universal.

In addition to gender, there is also a secondary system of noun classes occurring alongside: animacy, a feature present in varying extents in all of the Slavic languages. Masculine and feminine nouns may be either animate or inanimate; neuter nouns are always inanimate. Unlike gender, there is no correlation between animacy and declension class.

Novegradian nouns decline to indicate two non-inherent features: number and case. Most nouns have two numbers, a singular and a plural, although a small, closed set also have dual forms with limited usage. There are eight cases in the standard written language—nominative, genitive, accusative, dative/instrumental, partitive, locative, and lative—and nine in the spoken language, which includes a vocative<sup>1</sup>. Nouns also have a special count form that sits outside the case/number

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1 The standard written language also includes three vocatives, though they would better be described as loaned idioms from Old Church Slavonic rather than native retentions of the original Slavic vocative. See section 5.10.

matrix, but is used in certain expressions when quantified.

The citation form of all nouns is the nominative singular.

## 5.2 Declensions and Genders

Novegradian is considered as having six basic nominal declensions, in Indo-European terms derived from the *ā*, *jā*, *ū*, *jō*, and *ī* stems, as well as a sixth “consonantal” stem. The *jā* and consonantal declensions contain a relatively small set of nouns, so Novegradian is generally said to have four primary stems.

The six declensions may be referenced by either a number or a name. The names—A, Ja, O, E, I, or Consonant—derive from what is considered to be the most characteristic feature of that declension. For A- and Ja-stems, this is the nominative singular ending; for O- and E-stems, it is the vowel most prevalent throughout the declension; for I-stems, it is a combination of both; and for Consonant-stems, it is the a reference to the unique augmented stems seen in most declined forms.

The Novegradian A-stem, or First Declension, derives from the IE *ā*-stem and consists almost entirely of feminine nouns, with only a few masculine nouns, mostly archaic or foreign. Examples include *нига* *níga* “book” (F), *шестра* *šéstra* “sister” (F), *олака* *ólaka* “street, path” (F), *слуга* *slúga* “servant” (M).

The Ja-stem, or Second Declension, derives from the IE *jā*-stem (i.e., an *ā*-stem with a root-final /j/). In Proto-Slavic, this was just a variant of the above A-stem, though it has diverged significantly in Novegradian. All such nouns are feminine. Examples include *жемя* *žémia* “land” (F), *каля* *kália* “fish” (F), *дужа* *dužá* “person, soul” (F).

The O-stem, or Third Declension, derives from the IE *ū*-stem and neuter *ō*-stem. These nouns are mostly neuter with a smaller number of masculine nouns, and in the nominative singular generally ends in /o/ for neuter nouns and a consonant (i.e., zero ending) for masculine nouns. Examples include *дом* *dóm* “house” (M), *сад* *sád* “garden, orchard” (M), *астро* *ásto* “year” (N), *окно* *oknó* “window” (N).

The E-stem, or Fourth Declension, derives from the IE masculine *ō*- and *jō*-stems. Novegradian is unique amongst the Slavic languages for having merged the masculine *ō*-stem with the *jō*-stem; in all of the others the masculine *ō*- and *ū*-stems were merged. These nouns include a large number of both masculine and neuter nouns, all ending in /e/. Examples include *словѣке* *slověke* “Slav” (M), *возе* *vóze* “car” (M), *море* *móre* “sea” (N), *поле* *póle* “field” (N).

The I-stem, or Fifth Declension, derives from the IE *ī*-stem and can be either masculine or feminine. Examples include *панти* *pánti* “way” (M), *нокьи* *nókji*

“night” (F), рыши *ryśi* “cheese” (M), дождѣи *dožǵji* “rain” (M).

The Consonant-stem, or Sixth Declension, consists of nouns that acquire a suffix in all forms but the nominative singular. They may be of any gender. Many such nouns have reacquired this consonant in the nominative singular by analogy, but still take sixth declension endings. Examples include матери *máti* “mother” (-r-) (F), небесо *nébeso* “sky, heaven” (-s-) (N), ѿмѣно *jměno* “name” (-n-) (N). Former IE ū-stem nouns also have generally fallen into this class, with the consonantal suffix -v-: керкуа *kérkua* “church” (F).

### 5.3 Animacy

Nouns in Slavic languages display a curious property known as animacy, where nouns referring to humans or animals decline differently than other nouns in some forms. Novegradian in particular has made significant use of animacy, having given it wider usage than most other Slavic languages. The animacy of a noun must be known in order to properly decline the accusative case and to modify nouns with numerals.

Animate nouns refer to humans or animals. This includes personal names as well as professions. Body parts are not included, nor are living but inanimate forms of life such as plants. Microbes such as bacteria and viruses are all considered inanimate as well. Animacy is a fixed feature, so nouns may not switch between animate and inanimate declensions.

Some Slavic linguists prefer to group the system of animacy in with the system of gender, since this can be done relatively cleanly. In such an analysis, Novegradian has a total of five noun classes: masculine animate, masculine inanimate, feminine animate, feminine inanimate, and neuter.

### 5.4 The First (A) Declension

The citation form of first declension nouns, the nominative singular, always ends in -a. The endings are attached directly onto the root. The first half of the table represents the singular, and the second, the plural.

For the most part this declension is very straightforward, except for the genitive and accusative forms. If the stem of the noun ends in any sort of consonant cluster (in the table here, /jr/ and /str/), an /o/ is inserted immediately before the last consonant in the genitive plural. Also, as in other Slavic languages, a special animacy distinction appears in the accusative case: Any noun referring to a person or

animal, in this case “sister”, will use the genitive case form in place of the accusative case. The form \*\*шестр-у *šestru* is nonexistent.

Most of these forms derive directly from Common Slavic, although some comments can be made about the origins of certain forms. Both the accusative and lative singulars derive from the Common Slavic accusative \*-ŕ. In Old Novegradian this uncoupled and became -ун. Due to various phonological and speech-related factors, the /n/ wore away in many positions, leaving the modern accusative. The places where it remained were the lative functions of the old accusative, thereby splitting the case in two. Over time the range and use of the lative expanded. The lative plural continues the original accusative plural, and is distinct from the modern accusative plural only for animate nouns (as the genitive spreading of animate nouns did not at first affect nouns in this situation); for practical purposes, it could be said that the lative plural is identical in form to the nominative plural.

The dative and instrumental cases began to merge in the 1600s or 1700s, when their plural endings (-аме and -ами, respectively) began to conflate in speech. By the late 19<sup>th</sup> century the merger was complete, when the instrumental singular form began to take over the dative singular, although the original dative form still survives in some irregularly-declining nouns and in fixed expressions.

The origin of the partitive singular is not completely clear. It may have come from a Uralic language, or more likely it may have its origins in the same formation (a diminutive?) that created the Russian partitive nouns чайку “[some] tea” and кофейку “[some] coffee”. The partitive plural ending, on the other hand, certainly comes from the IE ū-stem genitive plural ending (CS \*-овъ), freed for use when the ū-stem merged with the neuter ō-stem to form the Novegradian O-stem.

The count form (whose usage will be explained in Section 13.8) is always formed with the suffix -ѣ -ě, identical to the genitive singular ending. However, it always has the same stress as the nominative plural.

There are four stress patterns that can appear on first declension nouns. They can be stem-stressed (like нига above), which are always stressed on the same syllable except in the partitive and lative plurals; they can be ending-stressed, which is rather rare, but which are always stressed on the first syllable after the stem; they can be mobile-stressed, like нора above, where stress moves around predictably; or they can be “double-consonant mobile”, like лейра and шестра, whose roots always end in a consonant cluster. The stress patterns are summarized below. “S” refers to stress on the stem, and “E” to stress on the ending, “G” refers to the special stress pattern unique to the genitive plural, where the last syllable is stressed, whether it is part of the stem or an epenthetic vowel.

First Declension Singular				
	нига “book”	лейра “camp”	шестра “sister”	нога “leg, foot”
<b>Nominative</b>	ниг-а <i>níga</i>	лейр-а <i>léira</i>	шестр-а <i>šéstra</i>	ног-а <i>nogá</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	ниг-ѣ <i>nígě</i>	лейр-ѣ <i>leirě</i>	шестр-ѣ <i>šestrě</i>	ног-ѣ <i>nogě</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	ниг-у <i>nígu</i>	лейр-у <i>leirú</i>	шестр-ѣ <i>šestrě</i>	ног-у <i>nógu</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	ниг-ой <i>nígoi</i>	лейр-ой <i>leirói</i>	шестр-ой <i>šestrói</i>	ног-ой <i>nogói</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	ниг-ок <i>nígok</i>	лейр-ок <i>leirók</i>	шестр-ок <i>šestrók</i>	ног-ок <i>nógok</i>
<b>Locative</b>	ниг-ѣ <i>nígě</i>	лейр-ѣ <i>leirě</i>	шестр-ѣ <i>šestrě</i>	ног-ѣ <i>nogě</i>
<b>Lative</b>	ниг-ун <i>nígun</i>	лейр-ун <i>leirún</i>	шестр-ун <i>šestrún</i>	ног-ун <i>nógun</i>

First Declension Plural				
<b>Nominative</b>	ниг-и <i>nígi</i>	лейр-и <i>léiri</i>	шестр-и <i>šéstri</i>	ног-и <i>nógi</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	ниг-Ø <i>níg</i>	лейр-Ø <i>leior</i>	шестор-Ø <i>šestór</i>	ног-Ø <i>nóg</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	ниг-и <i>nígi</i>	лейр-и <i>léiri</i>	шестор-Ø <i>šestór</i>	ног-и <i>nógi</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	ниг-ам <i>nígam</i>	лейр-ам <i>leirám</i>	шестр-ам <i>šestrám</i>	ног-ам <i>nogám</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	ниг-оу <i>nígou</i>	лейр-оу <i>leiróu</i>	шестр-оу <i>šestróu</i>	ног-оу <i>nogóu</i>
<b>Locative</b>	ниг-ах <i>nígah</i>	лейр-ах <i>leiráh</i>	шестр-ах <i>šestráh</i>	ног-ах <i>nogáh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	ниг-и <i>nígi</i>	лейр-и <i>léiri</i>	шестр-и <i>šéstri</i>	ног-и <i>nógi</i>

First Declension Quantified				
<b>Count</b>	ниг-ѣ <i>nígě</i>	лейр-ѣ <i>leirě</i>	шестр-ѣ <i>šestrě</i>	ног-ѣ <i>nogě</i>

First Declension Stress Patterns								
	Stem		Ending		Mobile		2C Mobile	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
<b>Nom.</b>	S	S	E	E	E	S	S	S
<b>Gen.</b>	S	G	E	G	E	G	E	G
<b>Acc.</b>	S	S/G	E	E/G	S/E	S/G	E	S/G
<b>D/I</b>	S	S	E	E	E	E	E	E
<b>Par.</b>	S	E	E	E	S	E	E	E
<b>Loc.</b>	S	S	E	E	E	E	E	E
<b>Lat.</b>	S	S	E	E	S	S	E	S

## 5.5 The Second (Ja) Declension

This declension is relatively small, but always listed after the A Declension because of its historical relationship to it. All of these nouns are feminine, and end in either -a or -я in their citation forms.

The /l/ sporadically appearing in the declension of *жемя* in place of /j/ is due to a change in Common Slavic that was only partially undone in Novegradian. The /l/ acquired after the labial consonants /p b β m/ drops whenever followed by a front vowel /i e æ/, and occasionally before /a/. This can be seen in the declension of any noun ending in -пя, -бя, -вя, or -мя in the nominative singular—the /l/ only appears before /o u a/ (except in the nominative singular). It is still present in the genitive plural, where the infix /e/ separates it from the consonants preceding it. Even non-native nouns ending in labial + я follow this pattern, which they gained through analogy: Шербя *Šérbia* “Serbia-NOM”, Шербля *Šérblu* “Serbia-ACC”.

The words *дужа* and *дакѡа* display another phenomenon found in all declensions. A single unclustered consonant becomes voiced immediately before the stressed syllable, leading to many such alternations in their declension. This does not work in reverse - if the consonant was originally voiced, it will always be voiced. *Дужа* in an earlier form of Novegradian was pronounced [du.'sʲa].

Nouns like *дужа* and *дакѡа* (with no /j/ element) that are found in this declension once did have /j/, but it merged with the preceding consonant during the Common Slavic period. In this instance, the original forms in Common Slavic were \*duxja and \*datja. Such nouns decline exactly the same way as nouns that still have the /j/ element, except in spelling iotafied consonants are not used (e.g., o where *каля* has ѣ, a where it has я, etc).



Second Declension Singular				
	жемя “land”	каля “fish”	дужа “person”	дакба “dacha”
<b>Nominative</b>	жем-я <i>žémia</i>	кал-я <i>kália</i>	дуж-а <i>dužá</i>	дакь-а <i>dákja</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	жем-ин <i>žémin</i>	кал-ин <i>kálin</i>	дуж-ин <i>dužín</i>	дакь-ин <i>dákjin</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	жемл-у <i>žémlu</i>	кал-ин <i>kálin</i>	дуж-ин <i>dužín</i>	дакь-у <i>dákju</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	жем-ей <i>žeměi</i>	кал-ей <i>kaléi</i>	дуж-ей <i>dužéi</i>	дагь-ей <i>dagjéi</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	жемл-ок <i>žemlók</i>	кал-ёк <i>kaliók</i>	дуж-ок <i>dužók</i>	дагь-ок <i>dagjók</i>
<b>Locative</b>	жем-и <i>žemí</i>	кал-и <i>kali</i>	душ-и <i>dúši</i>	дагь-и <i>dagjí</i>
<b>Lative</b>	жемл-ун <i>žemlún</i>	кал-юн <i>kaliún</i>	дуж-ун <i>dužún</i>	дагь-ун <i>dagjún</i>

Second Declension Plural				
<b>Nominative</b>	жем-ѣ <i>žémě</i>	кал-ѣ <i>kálě</i>	дуж-ѣ <i>dužě</i>	дакь-ѣ <i>dákjě</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	жемсл-и <i>žeměli</i>	кал-и <i>káli</i>	душ-и <i>dúši</i>	дакь-и <i>dákji</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	жем-ѣ <i>žémě</i>	кал-и <i>káli</i>	душ-и <i>dúši</i>	дакь-ѣ <i>dákjě</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	жемл-ам <i>žemlám</i>	кал-ям <i>kaliám</i>	дуж-ам <i>dúšam</i>	дагь-ам <i>dagjám</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	жемл-оу <i>žemlóu</i>	кал-ёу <i>kalióu</i>	дуж-оу <i>dužóu</i>	дагь-оу <i>dagjóu</i>
<b>Locative</b>	жемл-ах <i>žemláh</i>	кал-ях <i>kaliáh</i>	душ-ах <i>dúšah</i>	дагь-ах <i>dagjáh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	жем-ѣ <i>žémě</i>	кал-ѣ <i>kálě</i>	дуж-ѣ <i>dužě</i>	дакь-ѣ <i>dákjě</i>

Second Declension Quantified				
<b>Count</b>	жем-ѣ <i>žémě</i>	кал-ѣ <i>kálě</i>	дуж-ѣ <i>dužě</i>	дакь-ѣ <i>dákjě</i>

The lative plural, as in the first declension, is identical to the accusative plural inanimate nouns only; for animate nouns, it is identical to the nominative.

The count form is always identical to the nominative plural, in form and stress.

There are two stress patterns displayed in this declension, both mobile. The first is known as Stem-Nominative (like *жемя*, *каля*, and *дакѡа* above), where the stress in the nominative singular is on the stem. The second is Ending-Nominative (like *дужа* above), where the stress in the nominative singular is on the ending. Summarized below (where G again represents the special genitive plural stress pattern—stress on the last syllable before the ending):

Second Declension Stress Patterns				
	Stem		Ending	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
<b>Nom.</b>	S	S	E	E
<b>Gen.</b>	S	G	E	G
<b>Acc.</b>	S	S/G	E	E/G
<b>D/I</b>	E	E	E	S
<b>Par.</b>	E	E	E	E
<b>Loc.</b>	E	E	S	S
<b>Lat.</b>	S	S	E	E

## 5.6 The Third (O) Declension

The third declension consists of masculine and neuter nouns that end in /o/ or a consonant in their citation forms. Both masculine and neuter nouns decline identically in all numbers and case aside from nominative singular and inanimate accusative singular, where masculine nouns take *-Ø* and neuter nouns take *-o*.

The third declension is, by and large, very regular. Other than the two nominative singular endings, the only inflectional variation can occur in the partitive and genitive singulars. The usual partitive ending is *-ок -ok*, but if the root ends in /k/ or a cluster containing /k/, the genitive singular stands in instead to avoid cacophony. This also applies to the fourth declension. In addition, animate third declension nouns always take the genitive/accusative singular in *-a*, never in *-u*: *син* *sín* “son” → *сина* *sína*, *бовор* *bóvor* “beaver” → *бовора* *bóvora*. This is part of a strong language-wide tendency for masculine animate nouns to take the ending *-a* in the animate accusative singular, no matter the declension.

Third Declension Singular				
	дүм “house” (m)	асто “year” (n)	окно “window”(n)	яблоко “apple” (n)
<b>Nominative</b>	дүм-Ø <i>dúm</i>	аст-о <i>ásto</i>	окн-о <i>oknó</i>	яблок-о <i>iábloko</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	дүм-у <i>dúmu</i>	аст-у <i>ástu</i>	окн-у <i>óknu</i>	яблок-у <i>iábloku</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	дүм-Ø <i>dúm</i>	аст-о <i>ásto</i>	окн-о <i>oknó</i>	яблок-о <i>iábloko</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	дүм-ом <i>dúmom</i>	аст-ом <i>ástom</i>	окн-ом <i>oknóm</i>	яблок-ом <i>iáblokom</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	дүм-ок <i>dumók</i>	аст-ок <i>astók</i>	окн-у <i>óknu</i>	яблок-у <i>iábloku</i>
<b>Locative</b>	дүм-ѣ <i>dúmě</i>	аст-ѣ <i>ástě</i>	окн-ѣ <i>okně</i>	яблок-ѣ <i>iáblokě</i>
<b>Lative</b>	дүм-он <i>dumón</i>	аст-он <i>astón</i>	окн-он <i>oknón</i>	яблог-он <i>iablogón</i>

Third Declension Plural				
<b>Nominative</b>	дүм-а <i>dumá</i>	аст-а <i>astá</i>	окн-а <i>okná</i>	яблог-а <i>iablogá</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	дүм-Ø <i>dúm</i>	асот-Ø <i>ásot</i>	огон-Ø <i>ogón</i>	яблок-Ø <i>iáblok</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	дүм-а <i>dumá</i>	аст-а <i>astá</i>	окн-а <i>okná</i>	яблог-а <i>iablogá</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	дүм-ам <i>dumám</i>	аст-ам <i>astám</i>	окн-ам <i>oknám</i>	яблог-ам <i>iablogám</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	дүм-оу <i>dúmou</i>	аст-оу <i>ástou</i>	окн-оу <i>oknúu</i>	яблок-оу <i>iáblokou</i>
<b>Locative</b>	дүм-ѣх <i>duměh</i>	аст-ѣх <i>ástěh</i>	окн-ѣх <i>okněh</i>	яблог-ѣх <i>iablogěh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	дүм-и <i>dúmi</i>	аст-и <i>ásti</i>	окн-и <i>okní</i>	яблок-и <i>iábloki</i>

Third Declension Quantified				
<b>Count</b>	дүм-а <i>dúma</i>	аст-у <i>ástu</i>	окн-у <i>óknu</i>	яблок-у <i>iábloku</i>

Note that the lative plural is *always* distinct in the third declension. The ending *-i* is inherited for masculine nouns (CS ACC PL \*-y), but spread to neuter nouns by analogy (CS ACC PL \*-a).

The count form for neuter nouns is identical to the genitive singular. For masculine nouns, it is formed with the suffix *-a* instead.

There are only two stress patterns. The more common is stem-nominative, like дум, акто, and яблоко above, where the stress in the nominative singular is on the stem; this naturally includes all masculine nouns, as they have no ending in this form. The other is ending-nominative, like окно above, where the stress in the nominative singular is on the ending.

Third Declension Stress Patterns				
	Stem-Nom.		Ending-Nom.	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
Nom.	S	E	E	E
Gen.	S	S	S	G
Acc.	S	S/E	S/E	E/G
D/I	S	E	E	E
Par.	E	S	E	E
Loc.	S	E	E	E
Lat.	E	S	E	E

## 5.7 The Fourth (E) Declension

The fourth declension is the largest in the language. Such nouns, always ending in /e/ in their citation forms, are usually masculine or neuter.

The fourth declension is the most complex declension in Novegradian. In addition to the typical predictable deviations from the completely regular paradigm seen in other declensions, the fourth declension also has a number of variant forms that are harder to predict.

Certain irregularities are predictable and have already been discussed in the context of other declensions: animate nouns have the same accusative and genitive, the lative plural is identical to the accusative plural for inanimate nouns and the nominative plural for animate nouns, the genitive singular replaces the partitive to avoid /k/-/k/ cacophony, and if the stem ends in a cluster, an epenthetic vowel is inserted in the genitive plural. However, unlike in other declensions, the

Fourth Declension Singular				
	СЛОВѢКЕ “Slav” (m)	ВОЗЕ “car” (m)	МОРЕ “sea” (n)	ПОЛЕ “field” (n)
<b>Nominative</b>	СЛОВѢК-Е <i>slověke</i>	ВОЗ-Е <i>vóze</i>	МОР-Е <i>móre</i>	ПОЛ-Е <i>póle</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	СЛОВѢК-А <i>slověka</i>	ВОЗ-А <i>vóza</i>	МОР-А <i>móra</i>	ПОЛ-А <i>póla</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	СЛОВѢК-А <i>slověka</i>	ВОЗ-Ø <i>vóz</i>	МОР-Е <i>móre</i>	ПОЛ-Е <i>póle</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	СЛОВѢК-ЕМ <i>slověkem</i>	ВОЗ-ЕМ <i>vózem</i>	МОР-ЕМ <i>mórem</i>	ПОЛ-ЕМ <i>pólem</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	СЛОВѢК-А <i>slověka</i>	ВОЗ-ЕК <i>vozék</i>	МОР-ЕК <i>morek</i>	ПОЛ-ЕК <i>polék</i>
<b>Locative</b>	СЛОВѢК-Ѣ <i>slověkě</i>	ВОЗ-Ѣ <i>vózě</i>	МОР-Ѣ <i>móre</i>	ПОЛ-Ѣ <i>póle</i>
<b>Lative</b>	СЛОВѢК-ЕН <i>slověken</i>	ВОЗ-ЕН <i>vózen</i>	МОР-ЕН <i>morén</i>	ПОЛ-ЕН <i>polén</i>

Fourth Declension Plural				
<b>Nominative</b>	СЛОВѢЦ-И <i>slověci</i>	ВОЗ-И <i>vózi</i>	МОР-И <i>móri</i>	ПОЛ-И <i>póli</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	СЛОВѢЦ-Ø <i>slověc</i>	ВОЗ-Ø <i>vóz</i>	МОР-Ø <i>mór</i>	ПОЛ-Ø <i>pól</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	СЛОВѢЦ-Ø <i>slověc</i>	ВОЗ-И <i>vózi</i>	МОР-И <i>móri</i>	ПОЛ-И <i>póli</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	СЛОВѢС-АМ <i>slovědzám</i>	ВОЗ-АМ <i>vozám</i>	МОР-АМ <i>morám</i>	ПОЛ-АМ <i>polám</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	СЛОВѢЦ-ЕУ <i>slověceu</i>	ВОЗ-ЕУ <i>vózeu</i>	МОР-ЕУ <i>móreu</i>	ПОЛ-ЕУ <i>póleu</i>
<b>Locative</b>	СЛОВѢЦ-ѢХ <i>slověcěh</i>	ВОЗ-ѢХ <i>vózěh</i>	МОР-ѢХ <i>móreěh</i>	ПОЛ-ѢХ <i>póleěh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	СЛОВѢЦ-Ѣ <i>slověcě</i>	ВОЗ-Ѣ <i>vózě</i>	МОР-Ѣ <i>móre</i>	ПОЛ-Ѣ <i>póle</i>

Fourth Declension Quantified				
<b>Count</b>	СЛОВѢК-А <i>slověka</i>	ВОЗ-А <i>vóza</i>	МОР-А <i>móra</i>	ПОЛ-А <i>póla</i>

genitive epenthetic vowel here is always /e/: вѣтрѣ *větre* “wind” → вѣтер *věter* “of winds”.

Many fourth declension nouns referring to people, such as словѣкѣ above, undergo palatalization in the plural. This phenomenon is discussed later, in Section 5.13.2 below.

Unlike most other Slavic languages, the nominative and accusative singular of inanimate masculine nouns are distinguished, as the nominative takes the ending *-e* while the accusative singular takes nothing (unless a zero ending would cause an illegal cluster, in which case *-e* does appear in the accusative as well).

The productive lative plural ending is *-ě* for all fourth declension nouns, making it distinct from both the nominative and accusative plurals. However, there are two sorts of exceptions:

1. In certain frozen expressions, neuter nouns may take stressed *-á* in the lative plural: выййти на мора *vuijsti na morá* “put to sea, set sail”. However, this is not productive, and the normal lative plural of море remains морѣ *móre*.
2. A very small group of animate masculine nouns have lative forms (both singular and plural) that are identical to their genitive forms, and historically are in fact derived from the genitive rather than the accusative. This group consists nearly entirely of people who, at least in the 11<sup>th</sup>-16<sup>th</sup> centuries, were perceived as authority figures or, broadly, those at the top of the social hierarchy: царе *cáre* “tsar (NOM SG)” → цара *cára* “tsar (LAT SG)” (not \*\*царен), суетенике *suétenike* “priest (NOM SG)” → суетениц *suétenic* “priests (LAT PL)” (not \*\*суетеницѣ), etc. This group has steadily been shrinking with time, however, as more and more of the words in this class simply become obsolete, aided by the general infrequency of usage of the lative case with animate nouns. Nowadays this class is widely regarded as obsolescent in most genres outside of poetry and history<sup>2</sup>, and the regular lative endings are accepted.

There are two possible endings for the genitive singular in the fourth declension for masculine nouns, *-a* and *-u*. The former is by far the most common, at least in terms of the number of nouns to which it applies. The latter is used primarily in the following circumstances:

1. Mass nouns, including substances, materials, natural phenomena, and foods: клѣбу *klěbu* “of bread”, снѣгу *sněgu* “of snow”, воску *vósku* “of wax”.
2. Abstract nouns with no plural: оспѣху *óspěhu* “of success”, страху *stráhu*

<sup>2</sup> Due to the fact that historians will often have this entire class at their disposal, while in modern usage feudal terms like “lord” and “posadnik” simply have very limited use.

“of fear” (except nouns ending in -нѣ *-nje*: видѣнѣ *vidénja* “of sight”).

3. Names of rivers and countries/regions in eastern Europe: Новеграда *Novegrádu* “of Novegrad [country]” (cf. Новеграда *Novegráda* “of Novegrad Velikei [city]”), Дунаю *Dunáiu* “of the Danube”, Дону *Dónu* “of the Don”.

Loanwords that entered the language after about 1400<sup>AD</sup> always take the normal suffix *-a*. Abstract nouns and substances that can easily appear in the plural always take *-a* as well: надвида *nádvida* “of an opinion”. Neuter fourth declension nouns cannot take *-u* under any circumstances.

Finally, one last case ‘split’ occurs in the dative/instrumental. Personal names and the nouns маже *máže* “man” and друге *drúge* “friend” take the singular ending -ой *-oi*, while all other nouns take -ом *-om* as usual: другоѣ *drúgoi* “friend (DATINS SG)”, Николаѣй *Nikoláioi* “Nikolai (DATINS)”. The dative/instrumental plural is -ам *-am* for all nouns.

The count form is always formed with the suffix *-a*. For the majority of nouns, this makes it identical with the genitive singular.

A few other miscellaneous irregularities, many of which apply to the fourth declension, will be discussed in Sections 5.10 through 5.13.

For all this morphological variation, there are surprisingly only two stress patterns, one belonging to masculine (former *ō*-stem) nouns and one belonging to neuter (former *jō*-stem) nouns.

Fourth Declension Stress Patterns				
	Masculine		Neuter	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
Nom.	S	S	S	S
Gen.	S	S	S	S
Acc.	S	S	S	S
D/I	S	E	S	E
Par.	E	S	E	S
Loc.	S	S	S	E
Lat.	S	S	E	S

## 5.8 The Fifth (I) Declension

The fifth declension consists of both masculine and feminine nouns ending in -и. Many case forms have collapsed together, yet the fifth declension may have one of the most complicated paradigms due to several variant endings depending on gender and animacy. For this reason, it is typically divided into three subdeclensions: Va (consisting of animate nouns), Vb (consisting of feminine inanimate nouns), and Vc (consisting of a small group of masculine inanimate nouns).

Group Va, the animate nouns, was formed from a merger of animate *ĭ*-stems (all masculine) and animate masculine *jŏ*-stems, and so displays a few influences from *jŏ*-stem endings. Most significant is the genitive singular/animate accusative singular ending -я -*ia* rather than the usual -и -*i*. This is also part of a general trend in Novegradian to mark all singular masculine animate accusatives in -*a*, regardless of declension.

The most distinctive feature of Group Vb, the feminine nouns, is the dative/instrumental singular -юм -*ium*, deriving from the Common Slavic instrumental \*-ью. The /m/ instead of expected /n/ is by analogy with the dative/instrumental singular endings in other declensions.

Group Vc, the masculine nouns, is very small, since the majority of historically masculine *ĭ*-stems or *jŏ*-stems were either animate or assimilated into the fourth declension, and even in colloquial speech there remains a strong tendency to do the same to the remaining Vc nouns. These lack both of the distinctive features given above.

The lative plural is always distinct from both the nominative and accusative plurals. On the other hand, the ending is simply -и, which already is used by over half of the singular endings, at least among inanimate nouns.

The count form is always identical to the nominative plural.

Each of the three subdeclensions has its own stress pattern. In addition, a few Vc nouns such as дожгѣи *dožgji* “rain” with ending stress have their own particular pattern.



Fifth Declension Singular				
	ГОСТИ “guest” (Va)	НОКЪИ “night” (Vb)	КОСТИ “bone” (Vb)	ПАНТИ “way” (Vc)
<b>Nominative</b>	ГОСТ-И <i>gósti</i>	НОКЪ-И <i>nókji</i>	КОСТ-И <i>kósti</i>	ПАНТ-И <i>pánti</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	ГОСТ-Я <i>góstia</i>	НОГЪ-И <i>nogji</i>	КОСТ-И <i>kostí</i>	ПАНТ-И <i>pánti</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	ГОСТ-Я <i>góstia</i>	НОКЪ-И <i>nókji</i>	КОСТ-И <i>kósti</i>	ПАНТ-И <i>pánti</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	ГОСТ-ЕМ <i>góstém</i>	НОГЪ-ЮМ <i>nogjiúm</i>	КОСТЮМ <i>kostiúm</i>	ПАНТ-ЕМ <i>pantém</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	ГОСТ-ЕК <i>góstek</i>	НОКЪ-ЕК <i>nókjek</i>	КОСТ-ЕК <i>kóstek</i>	ПАНТ-ЕК <i>pántek</i>
<b>Locative</b>	ГОСТ-И <i>gostí</i>	НОГЪ-И <i>nogji</i>	КОСТ-И <i>kostí</i>	ПАНТ-И <i>pánti</i>
<b>Lative</b>	ГОСТ-ИН <i>góstin</i>	НОКЪ-ИН <i>nókjin</i>	КОСТ-ИН <i>kóstin</i>	ПАНТ-ИН <i>pántin</i>

Fifth Declension Plural				
<b>Nominative</b>	ГОСТ-ИЕ <i>góstie</i>	НОКЪ-ИЕ <i>nókjie</i>	КОСТ-ИЕ <i>kóstie</i>	ПАНТ-ИЕ <i>pántie</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	ГОСТ-ЕЙ <i>gostíei</i>	НОКЪ-ЕЙ <i>nókjei</i>	КОСТ-ЕЙ <i>kostíei</i>	ПАНТ-ЕЙ <i>pántiei</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	ГОСТ-ЕЙ <i>gostíei</i>	НОКЪ-ИЕ <i>nókjie</i>	КОСТ-ИЕ <i>kóstie</i>	ПАНТ-ИЕ <i>pántie</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	ГОСТ-ЯМ <i>gostíám</i>	НОГЪ-ЯМ <i>nogjiám</i>	КОСТЯМ <i>kostíám</i>	ПАНТ-ЯМ <i>pantiám</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	ГОСТ-ЕУ <i>gósteu</i>	НОКЪ-ЕУ <i>nókjeu</i>	КОСТ-ЕУ <i>kósteu</i>	ПАНТ-ЕУ <i>pánteu</i>
<b>Locative</b>	ГОСТ-ИХ <i>gostíh</i>	НОКЪ-ИХ <i>nókjih</i>	КОСТ-ИХ <i>kostíh</i>	ПАНТ-ИХ <i>pántih</i>
<b>Lative</b>	ГОСТ-И <i>gósti</i>	НОКЪ-И <i>nókji</i>	КОСТ-И <i>kósti</i>	ПАНТ-И <i>pánti</i>

Fifth Declension Quantified				
<b>Count</b>	ГОСТ-ИЕ <i>góstie</i>	НОКЪ-ИЕ <i>nókjie</i>	КОСТ-ИЕ <i>kóstie</i>	ПАНТ-ИЕ <i>pántie</i>

Fifth Declension Stress Patterns								
	Va		Vb		Vc		End-Stress	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
<b>Nom.</b>	S	S	S	S	S	S	E	S
<b>Gen.</b>	S	E	E	S	E	S	S	S
<b>Acc.</b>	S	E	S	S	S	S	E	S
<b>D/I</b>	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
<b>Par.</b>	S	S	S	S	S	S	E	S
<b>Loc.</b>	E	S	E	S	E	S	E	S
<b>Lat.</b>	S	S	S	S	S	S	E	S

## 5.9 The Sixth (Consonantal) Declension

The sixth declension consists of nouns of all genders that acquire a suffix in all forms other than the nominative singular (or inanimate accusative singular), or nouns that at some point did, but have since regularized the system. These suffixes were at one point part of the noun stem, but by Common Slavic they had dropped from the nominative singular by regular sound changes. The nouns below are *мати* *máti* “mother” (r-stem), *небесо* *nébeso* “sky, heaven” (s-stem, reattached), and *имѣно* *jměno* “name”<sup>3</sup> (n-stem, reattached). In addition, Proto-Slavic *ũ*-stem nouns such as *кѣрка* *kérkua* “church” have been reanalyzed as consonantal stems with *-v-*.

The extended root seen in sixth declension nouns is almost always of the form *-eC-*. The only exception is *имѣно* “name”, which has *-ěn-* rather than *-en-*, the result of the /e/ lengthening in Old Novegradian to compensate for the dropped vowel in the first syllable (now just the asyllabic root *\*jm-*).

The /β/ in the extended stem of nouns like *кѣрка* lenites to /w/ before another consonant or at the end of a word. The /nm/ in the dative/instrumental plural *имѣнми* *jměnmī* is frequently pronounced /nn/ in all but the most careful speech.

3 The initial *й* in *имѣно* is generally not pronounced except when the previous word ends in a vowel. In isolation *имѣно* is pronounced /*ˈmæ.no*/ with no trace of the /j/, although some speakers do exhibit a slight lengthening of the /m/ as though in compensation: [*ˈm:æ.no*].

Sixth Declension Singular				
	мати “mother”	небесо “sky”	ймѣно “name”	керкуа “church”
<b>Nominative</b>	мат-и <i>máti</i>	неб-ес-о <i>nébeso</i>	йм-ѣн-о <i>jměno</i>	керк-уа <i>kérkua</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	мат-ер-а <i>mátera</i>	неб-ес-а <i>nébesa</i>	йм-ѣн-а <i>jměna</i>	керк-ев-а <i>kérkeva</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	мат-ер-а <i>mátera</i>	неб-ес-о <i>nébeso</i>	йм-ѣн-о <i>jměno</i>	керк-уа <i>kérkua</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	мат-ер-ем <i>máterem</i>	неб-ес-ем <i>nébesem</i>	йм-ѣн-ем <i>jměnem</i>	керк-ев-ем <i>kérkevem</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	мат-ер-ек <i>materék</i>	неб-ез-ек <i>nebezék</i>	йм-ѣн-ек <i>jměnék</i>	керк-ев-ек <i>kerkevék</i>
<b>Locative</b>	мат-ер-е <i>mátere</i>	неб-ес-е <i>nébese</i>	йм-ѣн-е <i>jměne</i>	керк-ев-е <i>kérkeve</i>
<b>Lative</b>	мат-ер-ин <i>máterin</i>	неб-ес-ин <i>nébesin</i>	йм-ѣн-ин <i>jměnin</i>	керк-ев-ин <i>kérkevin</i>

Sixth Declension Plural				
<b>Nominative</b>	мат-ер-и <i>máteri</i>	неб-ес-и <i>nébesi</i>	йм-ѣн-и <i>jměni</i>	керк-ев-и <i>kérkevi</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	мад-ер-Ø <i>madér</i>	неб-ес-Ø <i>nebés</i>	йм-ѣн-Ø <i>jměň</i>	керк-еу-Ø <i>kerkéu</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	мад-ер-Ø <i>madér</i>	неб-ес-и <i>nébesi</i>	йм-ѣн-и <i>jměni</i>	керк-ев-и <i>kérkevi</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	мат-ер-ми <i>mátermi</i>	неб-ес-ми <i>nébesmi</i>	йм-ѣн-ми <i>jměňmi</i>	керк-еу-ми <i>kérkeumi</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	мат-ер-оу <i>máterou</i>	неб-ес-оу <i>nébesou</i>	йм-ѣн-оу <i>jměňou</i>	керк-ев-оу <i>kérkevou</i>
<b>Locative</b>	мат-ер-ѣх <i>máterěh</i>	неб-ес-ѣх <i>nébesěh</i>	йм-ѣн-ѣх <i>jměněh</i>	керк-ев-ѣх <i>kérkevěh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	мад-ер-и <i>madéri</i>	неб-ес-и <i>nebési</i>	йм-ѣн-и <i>jměni</i>	керк-ев-и <i>kerkévi</i>

Sixth Declension Quantified				
<b>Count</b>	мат-ер-а <i>mátera</i>	неб-ес-а <i>nébesa</i>	йм-ѣн-а <i>jměna</i>	керк-ев-а <i>kérkeva</i>

The lative plural of all sixth declension nouns is *-i*, following the common trend of matching the inanimate accusative, except it also features a stress shift.

The count form is always identical to the genitive singular.

There is a single stress pattern for such nouns, but it differs from those of other declensions because there are three syllables the stress can generally fall on: the primary stem (P), the initial part of the stem not including the consonantal suffix (such as \*мат-, \*неб-, \*йм-, \*керк- above); the secondary or vanishing stem (S), which contains the consonantal suffix (\*-ер-, \*-ес-, \*-ен-, \*-ев- above); and the case suffix ending (E). For nouns such as ймѣно, in which the primary stem has no vowel, stress intended for the primary stem falls on the secondary stem.

Sixth Declension Stress Patterns		
	Sg	Pl
Nom.	P	P
Gen.	P	S
Acc.	P	P/S
D/I	P	S
Par.	E	P
Loc.	P	P
Lat.	P	S

Although this declension contains the fewest nouns, it does include a number of fairly common words. Other sixth declension nouns include: (NOM PL in parentheses)

- бокуа *bókua* (бокеви *bókevi*) “barrel”
- вантуа *vántua* (вантеви *vántevi*) “duck”
- врѣмено *vrěmeno* (врѣмени *vrěmeni*) “time, season”
- докѣи *dókji* (докѣри *dókjeri*) “daughter”
- дрѣво *drěvo* (дрѣвеси *drěvesi*) “tree, wood”
- еле *iéle* (елени *iéleni*) “deer”
- каме *káme* (камени *kámeni*) “stone”
- ко̀ло *kólo* (ко̀леси *kólesi*) “wheel”
- моркуа *mórkuua* (моркеви *mórkevi*) “carrot”
- оху *óhu* (охеси *óhesi*) “ear”
- пламе *pláme* (пламени *plámeni*) “flame”
- реме *réme* (ремени *rěmeni*) “belt”
- слово *slóvo* (словеси *slóvesi*) “word”

- тѣло *tělo* (тѣлеси *tělesi*) “body”
- шѣме *šěme* (шѣмени *šěmeni*) “seed”

...as well as a handful of other terms. Not all of these nouns displayed vanishing consonants in Proto-Slavic. Some, such as елє “deer” and perhaps реме “belt” had already been regularized in Common Slavic, but Novegradian later returned them to the consonantal declension by analogy. On the other hand, a small set of nouns that were irregular in Common Slavic have been completely regularized in Novegradian and have been removed from the consonantal declension, such as степени *stěpenji* “extent” (originally “step”, now fifth declension), око *oko* “eye” (now third declension), and дене *děne* “day” (now fourth declension).

## 5.10 The Vocative Case

A very small set of nouns reflect the original Slavic vocative case, used when calling out the name of someone. The native vocative case has been completely lost in Novegradian; all of these words were borrowed from Church Slavonic, coming from the religious vocabulary of the language and preserved through the long-time usage of Church Slavonic in the Orthodox church.

There are three in common usage:

Nominative	Vocative	Meaning
бо҃ге <i>bóže</i>	бо҃же <i>bóže</i>	God
҃҃споди <i>ǫspodi</i>	҃҃споди <i>ǫspodǫ</i>	Lord
Иезусе Христос <i>Iezúse Hristós</i>	Иезусе Христе <i>Iezúse Hristé</i>	Jesus Christ

Even though vocative form of Иезусе *Iezúse* “Jesus” appears identical to the nominative, it is still considered to be distinct. In older texts with jers, they were spelled differently (ном Иисоуѣ vs. voc Иисоуѣ), and in the modern spoken language, where /e/ is usually dropped from the end of nominative forms, the vocative ending /e/ is preserved.

Although no longer functionally a vocative, the vocative form of Church Slavonic отец “father” is seen in the Novegradian name for the Lord’s Prayer, the отчєнаше *otčєnáše* (lit. “O Our Father”).

A modern vocative, unrelated to the historical one, has reemerged in the colloquial language from a contracted form of the possessive adjective мой *mói* “my”. This is discussed further in Section 22.4.4.

## 5.11 The Dual

Although the dual is no longer a productive force in the Novegradian nominal system, it still is used with a small set of nouns, the most commonly used of which are body parts that come in pairs.

The dual appears only in the first, third, fourth, fifth (Vb), and sixth declensions. It is demonstrated in the chart on the following page with пока *róka* “hand/arm”, око *óko* “eye”, плукъе *plúkje* “lung”, лохти *lóhti* “elbow”, and the irregular оху *óhu* “ear”.

Many cases have collapsed together in the dual. There are only three sets of endings, and partitive forms do not exist.

## 5.12 Zero-Ending Locative Case

Some monosyllabic nouns in the first, third, and fourth declensions take a zero-form ending in the locative singular in certain circumstances. This is the result of the stress in a prepositional phrase shifting off the noun and onto the preposition, weakening the locative ending to the point of it disappearing entirely. A more specific account of this phenomenon, along with a description of what nouns it can apply to, can be found in Section 16.6.

Since this phenomenon is the result of a stress shift to the preposition, it never occurs when the locative is used in isolation without a preposition or when any modifier appears between the noun and the preposition: на мор *ná mor* “at sea”, морѣ *móre* “at sea, in the sea”, на Варижескѣм морѣ *na Varižeskěm móre* “on the Baltic Sea”.

Due to the relative age of this change, voiced consonants that end up in final position as a result of this ending loss always unvoice or, in the case of /ʁ/ and /β/, lenite. However, this change is never indicated in spelling: о Бог *ó Boğ* “about God” [ˈwo.boj].

Monosyllabic second declension nouns may also be affected, but only if the roots end in /m/ or /β/. In such cases, /m/ becomes /ɲ/ and /β/ becomes /l/: на жень *ná ženj* “on the land” (жемя *žémia* “land”), на крул *ná krul* “on the roof” (крувя *krúva* “roof”).

	Dual				
	рока (I) “hand, arm” <i>rokǝ</i>	око (III) “eye” <i>oki</i>	пauкъе (IV) “lung” <i>plukjǝ</i>	лохти (V) “elbow” <i>lohti</i>	оу (VI) “ear” <i>ǝse</i>
<b>Nominative</b>	рок-ѣ <i>rokǝ</i>	ок-и <i>oki</i>	пauкъ-ѣ <i>plukjǝ</i>	лохт-и <i>lohti</i>	ох-ес-е <i>ǝse</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	рок-у <i>roku</i>	ок-у <i>oku</i>	пauкъ-у <i>plukju</i>	лохт-ю <i>lohtiu</i>	ох-ес-у <i>ǝseu</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	рок-ѣ <i>rokǝ</i>	ок-и <i>oki</i>	пauкъ-ѣ <i>plukjǝ</i>	лохт-и <i>lohti</i>	ох-ес-е <i>ǝse</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	рог-ома <i>rogóma</i>	ог-ома <i>ogóma</i>	пauтъ-ема <i>plugjéma</i>	лохт-има <i>lohtima</i>	о-ес-ма <i>oiésma</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Locative</b>	рок-у <i>roku</i>	ок-у <i>oku</i>	пauкъ-у <i>plukju</i>	лохт-ю <i>lohtiu</i>	ох-ес-у <i>ǝseu</i>
<b>Lative</b>	рок-ѣ <i>rokǝ</i>	ок-и <i>oki</i>	пauкъ-ѣ <i>plukjǝ</i>	лохт-и <i>lohti</i>	ох-ес-е <i>ǝse</i>

## 5.13 Irregular Nouns

### 5.13.1 Common Nominal Alterations

The most common nominal alteration is consonant voicing induced by stress. A regular phonetic change caused virtually all consonants to voice immediately before the stressed syllable, unless they 1) are at the beginning of a word or 2) are part of a consonant cluster. Although this sound change is no longer affecting new loans, analogy continues to be a very powerful force. These alterations can clearly be seen in the nouns previously demonstrated throughout this section.

Because this sound change is no longer active, confusion often arose as to when it “should” be analogically applied. In the original change, for example, clusters with /j/ could block the voicing process, yet a number of loans adopted after this period do show voicing after /j/ + a consonant cluster, because the /j/ was thought to be more of a vocalic element. As a result, later loans in all parts of speech, such as вайке *váike* “difficult, trying” from Finnish, show voiced forms (e.g., вайгейше *vaigéiše* “more difficult”) that are now considered standard.

Stress-induced voicing does not occur across morpheme boundaries. Analogy once again prevents this. It may only occur if for some reason the word in question becomes dissociated from whatever word was derived from, such as the preposition *поголом* *pogólom* “around, throughout”, historically related to *коло* *kólo* “wheel”.

Due to the lenition of /β/ word-finally or before another consonant, many words display a /β~w/ alternation. Word-finally, this is generally not reflected in spelling: *крѣв* *krév* “blood (NOM SG)” is [ˈkrɐw], while *крѣва* *kréva* “blood (GEN SG)” is [ˈkrɐ.βə].

When a historical /β/ occurs in a stem-final cluster, however, the situation is more interesting. In most forms of the word, it will be vocalized (generally in spelling as well): *насауте* *násaute* “loading” [ˈna.səw.te]. In the genitive plural, however, what should happen? Should a vowel be inserted, since there was originally was /βt/ cluster, or should nothing happen, because the original /β/ has vocalized? Many dialects revert to the original /β/, given *насавет* *násavet*. This is considered nonstandard, however. In the standard language, the /β/ does not revert: *насаут* *násaut*. However, the spelling hides that a vowel has still been inserted, with an apparently reanalysis of the original /β/ as /w/: [ˈna.səw.ɐt]. In the standard dialect, therefore, it is proper to not reflect the fact that there was ever a consonant there, but to insert a vowel in speech nonetheless.

Some masculine fourth-declension nouns whose stems end in vowel+/l/ elide this /l/ to /j/ in the nominative singular, accusative singular, and genitive plural.



This only applies to the oldest layer of vocabulary, consisting of words that entered the language prior to about 1300AD: *κλαγοε klagóie* “church bell (NOM SG)”, *κлаголи klagóli* “church bells (NOM PL)”; *анђеє ánjeie* “angel (NOM SG)”, *анђеля anjeliá* “angels (NOM PL)”. This does not, however, apply to the agentive suffix *-теле -tele*.

### 5.13.2 Collective Plurals

Many masculine terms referring to people (or epicene nouns that refer to people of either sex) in the plural take a suffix /j/, originally a collective suffix applied to kinship terms, which may cause consonant alterations. For example, the singular root for “friend” is *\*drug-* (NOM SG *друге drúge*), while the plural root is *\*drug-j-* → *\*druž-* (NOM PL *дружи drúži*); “son” is *\*sin-* in the singular (NOM SG *син sín*), while the plural is *\*sin-j-* → *\*sinj-* (NOM PL *синъа sinjá*); “brother” is *\*brat-* (NOM SG *брате bráte*) in the singular and *\*brat-j-* → *\*brakj-* (NOM PL *бракъи brákji*) in the plural. This has since spread to many other masculine nouns referring to people by analogy (e.g., *студенте studénte* “student” → *студенкъи studénkji*). The reflexes of this /j/ are visible in all plural forms in all cases, but absent in all singular forms.

Words that end in a consonant that does not easily palatalize (i.e., not /t d s z n k g x ɣ/) instead acquire a /j/ that only appears in the nominative plural: NOM SG *царе cáre* “tsar” → NOM PL *царя carjá*. Note that such nouns in the fourth declension take the third declension NOM PL ending *-a*. The lative plural of such nouns offers two possibilities, due to the fact that it is relatively uncommon to use the lative with animate nouns—either the form will be identical to the nominative plural (LAT PL *царя carjá*) or, more commonly, the regular ending *-и -i* is used (LAT PL *цари cári*). Both variants are acceptable.

Some nouns have an unexpected consonant appear in the collective plurals reflecting an older pronunciation. For example, *боге bóge* “god” has the plural form *божя božiá* because the /ɣ/ was /g/ at the time of this change. The /j/ here, however, is completely unexpected and probably was introduced at a later date.

### 5.13.3 Animals

Novegradian has a productive suffix *-ин -in* used to form animal diminutives, which refer to their young cubs/calves/foals/etc. Originally only usable on a small set of domesticated animals, in modern Novegradian it may be applied to any large mammal whose name has long been established in Novegradian (i.e., it can’t be applied to words that only entered the language in the last few hundred years).

Examples of some of the oldest forms include *кожлин kožlín* “young goat,

kid” (from *кожеле* *kožele* “goat”) and агнин *agnin* “lamb” (from Common Slavic \*agnъ, original root no longer present in Novegradian). Interestingly, дѣдин *dědin* “child” is often used alongside the original дѣтинко *dětinko* “child”, especially in the plural. A more recent example is левин *levin* “lion cub”, from леве *léve* “lion”.

While their formation is quite simple, their plurals are more complex. There are two possible forms.

One is made by dropping the suffix -ин in all forms but the nominative singular, and then declining the noun regularly in the fourth declension. However, this is rare for all nouns except those whose bases are no longer used in Novegradian, like агнин “lamb”. Otherwise the word would be very similar if not identical to the ‘adult’ form when declined.

The other method is to drop the suffix -ин in all forms other than the nominative singular, as above, and add the suffix -ет- *-ét-* in its place. It then conjugates as though it were a sixth declension noun. The only exception is that the nominative plural ending is -ет-е *-et-e* instead of the expected -ет-и *-et-i*. This pattern is used for most such nouns, although агнин and similar nouns may freely decline without the suffix as well.

Both declensions of агнин:

	Regular		Suffixial	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
<b>Nominative</b>	агн-ин <i>agnín</i>	агн-и <i>ágni</i>	агн-ин <i>agnín</i>	агн-ет-е <i>ágnete</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	агн-а <i>ágna</i>	агн-Ø <i>ágen</i>	агн-ет-а <i>ágneta</i>	агн-ет-Ø <i>agnét</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	агн-а <i>ágna</i>	агн-Ø <i>ágen</i>	агн-ет-а <i>ágneta</i>	агн-ет-Ø <i>agnét</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	агн-ем <i>ágnem</i>	агн-ам <i>agnám</i>	агн-ет-ем <i>ágnetem</i>	агн-ет-ми <i>ágnetmi</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	агн-ек <i>agnék</i>	агн-еу <i>agneu</i>	агн-ед-ек <i>agnedék</i>	агн-ет-оу <i>ágnetou</i>
<b>Locative</b>	агн-ѣ <i>ágně</i>	агн-ѣх <i>ágněh</i>	агн-ет-ѣ <i>ágnetě</i>	агн-ет-ѣх <i>ágnetěh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	агн-ен <i>ágnen</i>	агн-ѣ <i>ágně</i>	агн-ет-ин <i>ágnetin</i>	агн-ет-и <i>ágnéti</i>

### 5.13.4 Nationalities

Novegradian uses the suffix -ѣnine *-ěnine* on a place name to indicate people from there. Most commonly it is used with country and city names, but virtually any place name or toponym can be used. It declines as a normal fourth declension noun in the singular, but in the plural the suffix -ѣнин- *-ěnin-* collapses to -ѣнь- *-ěnj-*. In addition, the nominative plural ending is -е instead of the expected -и; the lative plural remains -ѣ.

The declension of новеграгѣnine *novegragjěnine* “Novegradian”:

	Sg	Pl
<b>Nominative</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-е <i>novegragjěnine</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-е <i>novegragjěnje</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-а <i>novegragjěnina</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-Ø <i>novegragjěnj</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-а <i>novegragjěnina</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-Ø <i>novegragjěnj</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-ем <i>novegragjěninem</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-ам <i>novegragjěnjám</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-ек <i>novegragjěninék</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-еу <i>novegragjěnjeu</i>
<b>Locative</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-ѣ <i>novegragjěnině</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-ѣх <i>novegragjěnjěh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	новеграгѣ-ѣн-ин-ен <i>novegragjěninen</i>	новеграгѣ-ѣнь-ѣ <i>novegragjěnjě</i>

### 5.13.5 Suppletion

There is only one true suppletive noun pair in Novegradian, where the declension of a noun involves two completely unrelated stems: дужа ~ люди (*dužá ~ lúdi*) “person ~ people”, where \*душ- is the stem in all the singular forms and \*луд- in all the plural forms. The use of \*луд- as a plural stem with a suppletive singular predates Common Slavic.

### 5.13.6 Христос

The name Христос *Hristós* “Christ” has an irregular declension. In all forms other than the nominative it takes regular third declension endings with the stem

\**Hrist-*, with the exception of using the fourth declension genitive/accusative *-a*. The nominative, however, bears the ending *-os* borrowed from Greek. As mentioned in Section 5.10 above, it also has a distinct vocative form. The ending is stressed in all cases.

<b>Nominative</b>	Христ-ос <i>Hristós</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	Христ-а <i>Hristá</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	Христ-а <i>Hristá</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	Христ-ом <i>Hristóm</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	Христ-ок <i>Hristók</i>
<b>Locative</b>	Христ-ѣ <i>Hristě</i>
<b>Lative</b>	Христ-он <i>Hristón</i>
<b>Vocative</b>	Христ-е <i>Hristé</i>

### 5.13.7 Other Irregularities

A number of nouns just have irregularities that few or no other nouns have, usually the result of sound changes.

The noun вѣтѹа *větua* “branch” switches declensions. In the singular, it is sixth declension, much like церкѹа “church”. In the plural, though, it switches to the fifth declension, its root becoming \*вѣтѹ- *\*větw-*. It derives from Common Slavic \*větvь, so had it developed regularly, it would be entirely fifth declension. However, its singular forms all underwent metathesis to aid in pronunciation, at which point it appeared much like a sixth declension noun containing the *-ev-* suffix. The plural forms never switched declensions because the fifth declension plural endings contain a /j/ in several forms (NOM PL вѣтѹиє *větuije* [ʔβæ.twi.je], GEN PL вѣтѹей *větwei* [ʔβæ.twej]), which was reminiscent of the collective suffix which was still largely productive at the time of this metathesis.

The noun мѹаука *mráuka* “ant” similarly switches declensions, though this is

the result of different suffixes being added to the root in the singular and plural. The Common Slavic singular was \*morvi. In the singular the stem is \*mrauk- (first declension), with a diminutive affix acting as a singulative. In the plural the stem is \*mravj- (fourth declension), with the collective suffix -j- (NOM PL мравя *mraviá*, GEN PL мравей *mrávei*).

A less extreme declension switch occurs in егла *iégla* “fir tree, spruce”, which declines as a regular first declension noun in all cases except for the genitive plural, where it switches to the fifth declension: еглей *iéglei* instead of expected \*\*ероа *iegól*.

The noun oxy *óhu* “ear” (from Common Slavic \*uxo) is a sixth declension s-stem noun. It is actually completely regular, but has an irregular spelling that more accurately reflects its pronunciation. Due to voicing rules, the /x/ regularly voices to /ɣ/ before the stress. However, since the following vowel is a stressed /e/, the /ɣ/ is lenited into [j], and is completely deleted in the written form. Therefore oxy (plural охеси *óhesi*) has a genitive plural оес *oiés*, because \*охес → \*оѣс → оес.

A very small set of nouns have a nasal consonant in all forms but the genitive plural, the result of an original nasal vowel that had uncoupled. For example, Common Slavic \*rǫbъ became Novegradian рамбе *rámbe* “hem, seam” in order to keep it more distinct from рабе *rábe* “serf” (an early Russian loan). This /m/ is found in all forms except the genitive plural, which is раб *ráb*. The reason for this is that there was a time when the pronunciation of all the forms of this word varied between [ramb-] and [rāb-]. When the epenthetic /o ~ e/ first started to be introduced (by analogy with the feminine nouns), the nasal was still at least somewhat vocalic, meaning there was no final cluster and no need for an epenthetic vowel. Later the nasal fully uncoupled in all forms except the genitive plural, because if it had, the result would have been \*рамб, a final cluster not allowed in Novegradian.

An even smaller set has a genitive plural epenthetic vowel /i/ instead of the usual /e/, such as сайме *sáime* “party, gathering, social event” (GEN PL сайм *sajím*). The reason for this becomes clear when the Common Slavic form, prior to yer-loss, is examined. In this case it was \*sǫ-jьmъ. The front yer ь was unstressed and lost in all forms except the genitive plural, where it was preserved by a stress shift.

Two nouns, both derived from nouns ending in \*-CCьko in Common Slavic, have a consonant reappear in the genitive plural that had been dropped in all other forms, the result of the epenthetic vowel breaking up what had been a more complex consonant cluster: соунце *sóunce* “sun (NOM SG)” → соаһец *solnéc* “of suns (GEN PL), шерце *śérce* “heart (NOM SG)” → шердѣц *śerdéc* “of hearts (GEN PL)”. Both of these also have irregular final stress in the genitive plural. A related phenomenon is the irregular шейре *śéute* “whisper (NOM SG)” → шебет *śébét* “of whispers

(GEN PL)”, derived from Common Slavic \*ърътъ; compare Old Novegradian NOM SG шепте and GEN PL шепеть.

Many nouns that through sound changes have developed an extremely reduced form (such as simply CV or CV+glide) add additional suffixes to keep the word more distinct. In some cases, however, this suffixation is incomplete. The noun *rae táie* “secret”, for example, has its original weak root \**tai-* in the singular, but the suffixed \**tain-* in the plural: тайни *táini* “secrets”, though no singular \*\*тайна exists.

There are very few instances of consonants other than /β/ lost through reduction that reappear in certain forms, as analogy usually eliminates such irregularities. However, a few still survive, as in the word *цка cká* “board, plank”, which is pronounced /ska/. There is only an /s/ in all forms, despite the spelling, except in the genitive plural, where the epenthetic vowel restores the original affricate: *sek dzék*.

The word *ки kí* “hammer” is notable for being the shortest noun in the Novegradian language. In all forms other than the nominative singular, accusative singular, and genitive plural the stem is \**kij-* (e.g., genitive singular *кию kiju*, dative/instrumental singular *киём kijom*). The genitive plural is spelt *кий kīj*, though is pronounced identically to the nominative/accusative form *ки kí*. This word is typically analyzed as having a single underlying stem \**kij-* in all forms that merely simplifies the /ij/ diphthong when it meets a word boundary.

### 5.13.8 Indeclinable Nouns

More recent loans that contain a very non-Novegradian-like ending (such as a stressed -и or -у, or any -ы) or contain a vowel that is integral to the root and would be awkward to drop when declined (such as *ковè kóve* “coffee” or *метро metró* “metro, subway”) tend to not decline at all, neither for case nor number. They rely on surrounding modifiers such as adjectives as well as context to imply the case and gender rather than to indicate it directly.

However, nouns that end in an unstressed /i/ almost never become indeclinable, even if the /i/ is considered integral, because the fourth declension endings almost all begin with /i/ anyways. Nouns like *такси táksi* “taxi” can therefore decline normally and almost never lose the /i/.

Indeclinable nouns tend to remain indeclinable only for a short time, generally no more than a few decades. After this point they have been a regular part of the language for long enough that they no longer feel “foreign” and speakers begin to lose the feeling that the final vowels are integral parts of the word. However, nouns that have a non-Novegradian ending, such as *кангупу kangurú* “kangaroo”, cannot

be nativized without actually modifying the root, since they do not fit into Novegradian declension patterns. In this particular case, the colloquial variant кангуре *kangüre* has almost completely replaced кангору in casual speech.

### 5.13.9 Pluralia Tantum

Pluralia tantum are nouns with no singular form. Novegradian has a large number of pluralia tantum in the fourth declension that are semantically singular, but grammatically plural; morphologically the singular and plural are not distinguished. Examples include крѣвностия *krěnostija* “fortress”, сцестия *scestija* “luck”, and брения *brénija* “dirt”. Also included are a number of geographical terms such as Повољжия *Povólžija* “region around the Volga River”. This *-ija* was originally a collective (and still is, to a certain degree) that has since also become a means to convert abstract nouns into concrete ones (such as крѣвности “firmness” → крѣвностия “fortress”). In Old Novegradian all such collectives adopted fourth declension endings, but with the suffix *-ij(a)* in all forms, sometimes replacing the usual suffix vowels; however, the lative plural is formed with *-и-и*, which spread analogically due to its near-universality across declensions and displaced the original accusative-derived *-и-я*.

Plurale Tantum Declension		
	сцестия “luck”	орадия “tool”
<b>Nominative</b>	сцест-и-я <i>scestijá</i>	орад-и-я <i>orádija</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	сцест-ий-Ø <i>scéstij</i>	орад-ий-Ø <i>orádij</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	сцест-и-я <i>scestijá</i>	орад-и-я <i>orádija</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	сцест-и-ям <i>scestijám</i>	орад-и-ям <i>orádijam</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	сцест-и-еу <i>scestijéu</i>	орад-и-еу <i>orádijeu</i>
<b>Locative</b>	сцест-и-ях <i>scestijáh</i>	орад-и-ях <i>orádijah</i>
<b>Lative</b>	сцест-и-и <i>scestijí</i>	орад-и-и <i>orádiji</i>

Outside of this class, pluralia tantum nouns are often not that different from

English, such as очки *óčki* “glasses” or ножики *nóžiki* “scissors”, while others may seem very strange, such as сутоки *sútoki* “astronomical day, day and night”. Such pluralia tantum almost always fall in the fourth declension.

On the other hand, Novegradian also has a number of singularia tantum with no plural form that seem unusual from an English perspective, such as љуке *łuke* “onion”, еђѝка *iěǵjika* “blackberry”, and рђмода *rěmoda* “cranberry”. This is common for many fruits and vegetables.

## 5.14 The Topicalization Marker

One interesting development in the Novegradian nominal system was the creation of the topicalization marker -то *-to*, derived from an older demonstrative. This same demonstrative became a definite article in South Slavic and gained quasi-topical function in Russian some of the time, but Novegradian has formed a true topic marker. It is an enclitic postfix added to the end of a noun after it has been fully declined. The marker itself has several different forms; which one is used depends on a sort of vowel harmony.

In the nominative case and inanimate accusative, it has the following forms:

Form	Number	Used...	Example
-от <i>-ot</i>	Sg	after a consonant	дум-от <i>dum-ót</i> “house”
-то <i>-to</i>	Sg	after a noun ending in /o/, or nouns not fitting in any other category	еутро-то <i>iéutro-to</i> “morning” мати-то <i>máti-to</i> “mother”
-та <i>-ta</i>	Sg	after a noun ending in /a/	коша-та <i>kóša-ta</i> “cat”
-те <i>-te</i>	Sg	after a noun ending in /e/	возе-те <i>vóze-te</i> “car” море-те <i>móre-te</i> “sea”
-ти <i>-ti</i>	Pl	when the plural ends in /i/ or /e/	ноќѝе-ти <i>nókjie-ti</i> “nights”
-та <i>-ta</i>	Pl	when the plural endings in /a/	дума-та <i>dumá-ta</i> “homes”

In all other cases, there are only two forms.



Form	Number	Used...	Example
-te <i>-te</i>	Sg/Pl	when the fully-declined form ends in a front vowel /æ e i/	морѣ-те <i>móřě-te</i> “at sea”
-to <i>-to</i>	Sg/Pl	when the fully-declined form ends in a back vowel /a o u i/ or a consonant	нигу-то <i>nígu-to</i> “book (ACC)” земљу-то <i>žemlǔn-to</i> “towards land”

Note that the form -от *-ót* is always stressed, while all of the other variants are always unstressed. Because of this, words ending in a single unvoiced consonant will voice before -от, although only in speech, never in writing: лѣс-от *lěs-ót* “forest” [li.'zot].

If the noun in the nominative singular ends in -я *-ua*, the /a/ is lost and the stem behaves as though it ended in a consonant: кѣрква *kérkua* “church” → кѣркѣ-от *kerkw-ót*, Москва *Moskuá* “Moscow” → Москѣ-от *Moskw-ót*.

There is only one spelling peculiarity associated with the topical clitic: When a word ends in /j/ or /je/ (which loses its /e/ before the topical clitic), the ending -от is respelt -ѣт *-iot*, essentially indicating the /j/ twice: Андреѣ *Andréie* “Andrei” → Андреѣ-ѣт *Andrei-iót*. This comes from a time when the dash was often stylistically omitted; in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, for instance, this would often have been written Андреѣт.

Nouns with roots that end in an /l/ that is dropped in the nominative case have it reappear when topicalized, and always take the suffix -от *-ot*: а́нѣѣ *ánjeie* “angel” → а́нѣѣл-от *anjel-ót*.

Indeclinable nouns always take the suffix -то, no matter what vowel they end in: метро-то *metró-to* “metro”, кафѣ-то *kavé-to* “café”. The same applies to all morphological duals.

There is one exception to the regular rules above, although it is limited to poetry and older texts (largely from the 18<sup>th</sup> century). Although the dative/instrumental plural ending ends in -ам today, in the 17<sup>th</sup> century and earlier it was -ами *-ami*. Also in the 17<sup>th</sup> century vowel harmony started to appear. As a result, -te was always used after the instrumental plural since it ended with a front vowel at this point, and this continued to be standard long after the vowel disappeared. At no point was it “officially” changed to -то *-to* (which is used after oblique consonantal endings), but -te had almost completely fallen out of use in this position by the early 19<sup>th</sup> century in most writing in favor of the more regular -то.



## 6

*Adjectival  
Morphology*

## §

*Морфология прилежних  
имен**6.1 Definitions and Features*

The Novegradian adjective is quite similar to the noun, and historically is closely related. Like nouns, they decline for gender and number, though unlike nouns they do so in order to agree with their head. They also decline for agreement in gender in the singular, though not in the plural (and adjectives do not inflect for the dual). Adjective endings are very similar, though not identical, to the endings of various nominal declensions—masculine singular like the masculine fourth declension singular, neuter singular like the neuter third declension singular, feminine singular like the first declension singular, and plural like the fourth declension plural.

Adjectives declension also features “definiteness”, a two-way distinction between “indefinite” (or “non-topical”) and “definite” (or “topical”) forms. The indefinite adjectives have the noun-like declension, while the definite adjectives have more of a pronoun-like declension, historically having originated from the indefinite forms plus the Proto-Slavic anaphoric pronoun \*j-.

Another uniquely adjectival quality is known as “degree”, which specifies the intensity of the meaning of the adjective. There are two primary degrees, known as “absolute” (the base form) and “comparative” (meaning ‘more X’); and four secondary degrees whose morphological marking is for the most part optional: superlative, intensive, excessive, and trial superlative.

*6.2 Regular Adjective Declension*

Novegradian adjectives must agree with the noun they modify in gender, num-

ber, and case. The same endings are used for all adjectives, as there aren't multiple declensions. The genders all coalesce in the plural<sup>1</sup>. Demonstrated with *цэ́рвене* "red" (singular on the left, plural on the right):

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
<b>Nominative</b>	цэ́рвен-е <i>cérvene</i>	цэ́рвен-о <i>cérveno</i>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-и <i>cérveni</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-Ø <i>cérven</i>
<b>Accusative (ANIM)</b>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-Ø <i>cérven</i>
<b>Accusative (INAN)</b>	цэ́рвен-Ø <i>cérven</i>	цэ́рвен-о <i>cérveno</i>	цэ́рвен-у <i>cérvenu</i>	цэ́рвен-и <i>cérveni</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	цэ́рвен-ом <i>cérvenom</i>	цэ́рвен-ой <i>cérvenoi</i>	цэ́рвен-ой <i>cérvenoi</i>	цэ́рвен-ами <i>cérvenami</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-оу <i>cérvenou</i>
<b>Locative</b>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳх <i>cérveněh</i>
<b>Lative</b>	цэ́рвен-ун <i>cérvenun</i>	цэ́рвен-ун <i>cérvenun</i>	цэ́рвен-ун <i>cérvenun</i>	цэ́рвен-и <i>cérveni</i>

As with nouns, there are also count forms, which are identical to the genitive singular series:

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
<b>Count</b>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-а <i>cérvena</i>	цэ́рвен-ѳ <i>cérveně</i>

The endings as a whole are very similar to the nominal endings, as they were in both Common Slavic and Proto-Indo-European (though note, for instance, the partitive singular in *-a*, not *-ok/-ek*). The stress also never shifts. If the adjective stem ends in a cluster, an epenthetic /o/ will be inserted in the GEN PL as in the

<sup>1</sup> Dual nouns take plural adjective agreement, with one exception: adjectives modifying a noun in the dative/instrumental dual take the ending *-ама -ama*, rather than the plural *-ами*. This is generally not considered to be a true dual declension, but rather simply a case of "ending spreading", as is also occasionally seen in the dative/instrumental of personal names. Both of these phenomena are discussed more in depth later in this grammar.

nominal declension. The w+consonant rule seen in nouns also applies here: NOM SG MASC глауѣ *gláune* “important” → GEN PL глауѣ *gláun* [ˈgla.won] (dialectal главоѣ).

If the noun an adjective modifies is animate and the direct object of a sentence, the genitive case form of the adjective must be used, since the noun will also be in the genitive.

As with the past tense of verbs (which is participial and therefore adjectival in origin), there also exists a Neuter II form in the nominative and accusative, whereby an adjective modifying a neuter noun in /e/ will take the ending -è -e rather than -o -o: црвєнè соунцє *cérvene sóunce* “a red sun”.

### 6.3 Definite Adjective Declension

The definite adjectives are derived from the Common Slavic definites, historically formed by attaching the declined anaphoric pronoun \*-j- to the end of the “indefinite” forms, those shown in the chart above. Since the anaphoric pronoun was in origin a demonstrative, it had the effect of strengthening the adjective and serving as a sort of ‘pointer’ to single a certain noun out of a group. The distinction between definite and indefinite adjectives was lost in most other Slavic languages, except in East Slavic, where both forms were preserved but with wholly different functions. The definite adjective still survives with something close to its original function in the Baltic languages and in North Slavic. In Novegradian, they have also become entwined with the topicalization system.

There are two stress patterns seen in definite adjectives. The first (and more common) is known as the antepenultimate system, like црвєнє in the following chart, where:

- In the masculine nominative singular and masculine inanimate accusative singular, the stress is on the same syllable as in its indefinite forms.
- In the genitive plural, it falls on the penult, as the ending *-iĭb* is a contraction of an earlier *-ijĭb*.
- In all other forms (including the genitive plural if the stem ends in a cluster), stress falls on the antepenultimate syllable.

The other system is ending-stress, where:

- In the masculine nominative singular and masculine inanimate accusative singular, the stress is on the same syllable as in its indefinite forms.
- In all other forms, the stress is on the first syllable of the ending.

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	црвен-ей <i>cérvenei</i>	црвен-ое <i>cervénoie</i>	црвен-ая <i>cervénaia</i>	црвен-ие <i>cervénije</i>
Genitive	црвен-аево <i>cervenáievo</i>		црвен-ѣе <i>cervéněie</i>	црвен-их <i>cervénih</i>
Accusative (ANIM)	црвен-аево <i>cervenáievo</i>		црвен-ѣе <i>cervéněie</i>	црвен-их <i>cervénih</i>
Accusative (INAN)	црвен-ий <i>cérvenij</i>	црвен-ое <i>cervénoie</i>	црвен-аю <i>cervénaïu</i>	црвен-ие <i>cervénije</i>
Dat./Instr.	црвен-ием <i>cervénijem</i>		црвен-оюн <i>cervénoiun</i>	црвен-иеми <i>cervénijemi</i>
Partitive		црвен-аево <i>cervenáievo</i>		црвен-овево <i>cervénóvevo</i>
Locative		црвен-ѣѣм <i>cervéněiēm</i>		црвен-иех <i>cervénijeh</i>
Lative		црвен-уюн <i>cervénuïun</i>		црвен-ѣѣ <i>cervéněiē</i>

Which adjectives use which stress pattern must be memorized. However, most adjectives that include the derivational suffix *-ck-* *-sk-* use ending-stress.

As the stress moves around, consonants may voice as they do with nouns: NOM SG MASC великей *velikei* “great”, GEN SG MASC велигаево *veligáievo*.

There is no Neuter II form as seen in the indefinite forms: Црвеное море *Cervénoie móre* “the Red Sea”

The shifting stress can sometimes cause vowel changes as well, for historical reasons. This is usually the result of a former nasal vowel. Adjectives with a vowel change in their definite forms are always ending-stressed. The normal vowel (as seen in the indefinite forms) is kept in the nominative and accusative singular masculine, but changes in all other definite forms. One of the most common examples is крате *kráte* “steep”. When declined in the nominative case as a definite adjective, the forms are: кратей *krátei*, крудая *kruđáia*, крудое *kruđóie*, крудие *kruđíje*.

Because there are so few adjectives with such a vowel change, there has been a tendency across the years to regularize them. In standard Novegradian the change in крате is required, but others, such as тежке *téžke* “heavy” → тижкая *tižkáia*, are now rarely seen outside of poetry and highly formal registers. The regularized тежкая *težkáia* has supplanted тижкая in the standard.

## 6.4 Comparatives

Novegradian, as with several other Slavic languages, only has a comparative degree of adjectives. A superlative can be formed, but it is generally not used unless the context cannot disambiguate the situation.

The comparative is typically formed with the suffix -ш- -ś- added immediately after the stem, plus a slight variant of the regular adjective endings (see below). This form has a variant -ейш- -eish- used when the stem ends a consonant cluster.<sup>2</sup>

- *црвене* *cérvene* “red” → *црвенше* *cervénše* “redder”
- *плоне* *plóne* “full” → *плонше* *plónše* “fuller”
- *приглубе* *priglúbe* “deep” → *приглубше* *priglúbše* “deeper”
- *интересне* *interesné* “interesting” → *интереснейше* *interesnéiše* “more interesting”
- *остре* *óstre* “sharp” → *острейше* *ostréiše* “sharper”

There are a few cases where -ейш- -eish- is used when the stem ends in a single consonant. This is common with monosyllabic roots ending in a labial or velar consonant:

- *нове* *nóve* “new” → *новейше* *novéiše* “newer”
- *праве* *práve* “correct, proper” → *правейше* *pravéiše* “more proper”
- *вайке* *váike* “difficult” → *вайгейше* *vaigéiše* “more difficult” (note the voicing)

Monosyllabic roots ending in /s z t d/ as well as native Slavic roots ending in /k g x/ usually undergo palatalization to /ç ĵ c sʲ/ and /sʲ zʲ tʲ dʲ/ respectively instead of taking a full ending. If the palatalized consonant is intervocalic, proper pronunciation calls for a geminate consonant, though a single consonant is more common in unrestricted speech. This gemination is the result of the fusion of the -ш- ending with the palatalized consonant (so that *вуйхье* *vuihje* “higher”, for instance, continues an earlier \*/βwiçsʲe/).

- *вуисе* *vuiše* “high” → *вуйхье* *vuihje* “higher” (pronounced /'βwiçːe/ or /'βwiçe/)
- *близе* *blíze* “close” → *бли҃ье* *bliǰje* “closer” (pronounced /'blijːe/ or /'blije/)
- *горде* *górde* “proud” → *гор҃ье* *górgje* “prouder” (pronounced /'gorʒe/)

2 There is a third form, -иш- -ish-, common in colloquial use but not considered standard. This form is elaborated upon in Section 22.5

- велике *velike* “great” → велише *velíše* “greater” (pronounced /βe'lisʲe/ or /βe'lisʲe/)
- драге *dráge* “expensive” → драже *dráze* “more expensive” (pronounced /'drazʲe/ or /'drazʲe/)

However, the suffix -к- seen with many adjectives inherited from Common Slavic drops in the comparative before the stem undergoes palatalization. If the consonant immediately before it is a fricative, it may convert back into a plosive before palatalizing, since the suffix that originally forced its lenition is now gone:

- вазке *vázke* (CS \*qz-ък-ъ) “narrow” → ваґе *váǵje* “narrower”
- глазке *glázke* (CS \*glad-ък-ъ) “smooth” → глаґе *gláǵje* “smoother”
- леґке *lěǵke* (CS \*leg-ък-ъ) “easy, light” → леґе *léǵje* “easier”
- меґке *měǵke* (CS \*meg-ък-ъ) “soft, mild” → меґе *méǵje* “softer”
- слазке *slázke* (CS \*slad-ък-ъ) “sweet” → слаґе *sláǵje* “sweeter”

Final -st- palatalizes to /sʲc/:

- исте *íste* “true, genuine” → ишкґе *ískje* “more genuine”
- просте *próste* “simple” → прошкґе *próškje* “simpler”
- пугте *púste* “empty” → пушкґе *púškje* “emptier”

Polysyllabic stems ending in /β/ transform it to /w/; this is typical with the derivational suffixes -ив- *-iv-* and -ов- *-ov-*:

- годове *godóve* “ready” → годоуше *godóuše* “more ready”
- лѣнive *lěníve* “lazy” → лѣниуше *lěníwše* “lazier”

Adjectives ending in /nne/ (i.e., a root ending in /n/ followed by the derivational affix -n-) generally lose one /n/ and then add -ш-, rather than taking -ейш-. However, the geminate remains in spelling:

- кѣнне *kěnnē* “valuable” → кѣннше *kěnnše* “more valuable”
- оединне *oiédinne* “lonely” → оединнше *oiedinnše* “lonelier”

The adjective пунтне *púntne* [ˈpun.ne] “exact, accurate” has the comparative form пунтше *púntše* [ˈpun.sʲe]. While irregular in spelling, in pronunciation it is regular according to the above rule.

And there are some adjectives that are simply irregular, shown in the following table:



Adjective	Meaning	Comparative
авине <i>ávine</i>	clear, obvious	аунше <i>áunše</i>
вале <i>vále</i>	big	болше <i>bólše</i>
всѣке <i>věke</i>	damp, humid	всѣже <i>věže</i>
ґодене <i>ǵódene</i>	worthy	ґоднейше <i>ǵodnéiše</i>
добре <i>dobre</i>	good	суѣше <i>suěše</i>
куризке <i>kurízke</i>	spicy	куришкѣ <i>kuríškje</i>
малене <i>málene</i>	small	менише <i>méniše</i>
ниске <i>niske</i>	low	нижне <i>nízne</i>
позне <i>pózne</i>	late	позше <i>pózše</i> ['posʲ.sʲe]
тежке <i>těžke</i>	heavy	теже <i>téže</i>
тоѣсте <i>tólstē</i>	fat, thick	тоѣшкѣ <i>tólskje</i> ['tow.ʃce]
туирде <i>tuírde</i>	hard, firm	туергѣ <i>tuérgje</i>
худе <i>húde</i>	bad	хуже <i>húže</i>

Comparative adjectives use the same endings as other adjectives, with one difference: any suffixes that begin with /o/ are changed to /e/, for both types of adjectives. The genitive epenthetic vowel also becomes /e/. Цервенше *cervénše*, therefore, declines like this:

Indefinite Declension			
	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Nom.	цервен-ш-е <i>cervénše</i>	цервен-ш-е <i>cervénše</i>	цервен-ш-а <i>cervénša</i>
Gen.	цервен-ш-а <i>cervénša</i>	цервен-ш-ѣ <i>cervénšě</i>	цервен-ш-и <i>cervénši</i>
Acc. (ANIM)	цервен-ш-а <i>cervénša</i>	цервен-ш-ѣ <i>cervénšě</i>	цервен-ш-и <i>cervénši</i>
Acc. (INAN)	цервен-ш-е <i>cervénše</i>	цервен-ш-е <i>cervénše</i>	цервен-ш-у <i>cervénšu</i>
Dat./ Instr.	цервен-ш-ем <i>cervénšem</i>	цервен-ш-ей <i>cervénšei</i>	цервен-ш-ами <i>cervénšami</i>
Par.	цервен-ш-а <i>cervénša</i>	цервен-ш-ѣ <i>cervénšě</i>	цервен-ш-и <i>cervénši</i>
Loc.	цервен-ш-ѣ <i>cervénšě</i>	цервен-ш-у <i>cervénšu</i>	цервен-ш-и <i>cervénši</i>
Lat.	цервен-ш-ѣ <i>cervénšě</i>	цервен-ш-у <i>cervénšu</i>	цервен-ш-и <i>cervénši</i>

Definite Declension				
	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nom.	цѣрвен-ш-ей <i>cervénšei</i>	цѣрвен-ш-ее <i>cervénšeie</i>	цѣрвен-ш-ая <i>cervénšaiia</i>	цѣрвен-ш-ие <i>cervénšije</i>
Gen.	цѣрвен-ш-аево <i>cervénšáievo</i>		цѣрвен-ш-ѣе <i>cervénšěie</i>	цѣрвен-ш-их <i>cervénših</i>
Acc. (ANIM)	цѣрвен-ш-аево <i>cervénšáievo</i>		цѣрвен-ш-ѣе <i>cervénšěie</i>	цѣрвен-ш-их <i>cervénših</i>
Acc. (INAN)	цѣрвен-ш-ий <i>cervénšij</i>	цѣрвен-ш-ее <i>cervénšeie</i>	цѣрвен-ш-аю <i>cervénšaiu</i>	цѣрвен-ш-ие <i>cervénšije</i>
Dat./ Instr.	цѣрвен-ш-ием <i>cervénšijem</i>		цѣрвен-ш-еюн <i>cervénšeiun</i>	цѣрвен-ш-иеми <i>cervénšijemi</i>
Par.	цѣрвен-ш-аево <i>cervénšáievo</i>			цѣрвен-ш-евево <i>cervénšévevo</i>
Loc.	цѣрвен-ш-ѣѣм <i>cervénšěiēm</i>			цѣрвен-ш-иех <i>cervénšijeh</i>
Lat.	цѣрвен-ш-уюн <i>cervénšuiun</i>			цѣрвен-ш-ѣѣ <i>cervénšěiē</i>

The suffix -ейш- *-eis-* is almost always stressed; the only exceptions are when it is followed by a trisyllabic ending that forces the stress rightwards as per regular rules. Forms with -ш- *-š-* are a little more unpredictable, sometimes retaining their original stress and sometimes shifting it right one syllable (although comparatives are always stem-stressed). Oftentimes these exist in free variation, with, for instance, both /'tser.βen.s'je/ and /tser.'βen.s'je/ being heard for цѣрвенше.

## 6.5 Superlatives

A superlative may be made by attaching the prefix най- *nai-* to the comparative form: *найвелише* *naivelše* “greatest”, *найболше* *naibólše* “largest”, *найхуже* *naibúže* “worst”. When an adjective begins with a vowel, that vowel takes its iotated form, though the й in the prefix is still redundantly written: *авине* “clear” → *найяунше* *naiiáunše*.

This prefix is not mandatory to express superlatives; typically a bare comparative is used. The superlative prefix is used for emphasis or disambiguation when it is not clear whether a comparative or superlative meaning is intended.

## 6.6 Other Degrees and Prefixes

In addition to the comparative and superlative, Novegradian adjectives can mark two other degrees—the intensive and the excessive. Like the superlative, these are both prefixial and optional. However, unlike the superlative, their use is encouraged, as overuse of adverbs to express the same concept is considered poor style.

The prefix *пре-* *pre-* means “very”, and intensifies the quality already expressed by the adjective. It is attached to the absolute degree of the adjective (i.e., the base definite or indefinite form, never a comparative base) and is generally unstressed. On a few adjectives, it is almost required in place of separate adverbials (e.g., *прекрасне* *prekrásne* “very beautiful”, almost never \*\**велем красне* *vělem krásne*).

The stressed prefix *во-* *vó-* means “too (much)”, and indicates excess. It is added to either the base form of an adjective or the comparative stem (but only if the comparative stem is formed by consonant mutation): *воблизе* *vóblize* / *воблигье* *vóbliǵje* “too close”.

If either prefix is added to an adjective beginning with a vowel, that vowel takes its iotafied form: *преявине* *preiávine* “very evident”. If they are added to an adjective that already has a lexical prefix with no functional load (e.g., *приглубе* *priglúbe* “deep”, since \*\**глубе* does not exist), the lexical prefix may drop in many cases: *воглубе* *vóglube* “too deep”, not \**воприглубе* \**vópriglube*.

There is one other adjective degree known as the “trial superlative”, formed by the prefix *тре-* *tre-*. It is frequently and productively used in literature and storytelling, but has very limited functionality elsewhere. In literature and liturgical contexts, it is used to indicate a superlative, though it also has connotations of great importance: *тресвете* *tresuěte* “thrice-holy, most holy”. It is also used hyperbolically, as in the common folkloric opening *На Тредевитиѣх Жемлах, на Тредежитѣм Царестѣх* *Na Tredevítijeh Žemláh, na Tredežítěičm Cárestuě* “In the Thrice-Nine Lands, in the Thrice-Ten Tsardom”, used to refer to a far away land.



7

# Numerals

3

*Цедакви ймъни*

## 7.1 Definitions and Features

Numerals form a separate class in Novegradian, demonstrating behavior somewhere in between nouns/pronouns and adjectives. Like adjectives, they are modifiers of nouns; however, agreement is limited to the digits one through four, and that agreement is limited to gender (1-4) and number (1 only), animacy for all numbers, and case for all numerals but only in a few specific circumstances. They also lack many other typical adjectival features, such as the definite/indefinite distinction, grades of comparison, and the ability to be used as a predicate.

On the other hand, they also frequently trigger agreement on the nouns they modify as well. Often the case of the entire noun phrase is marked on the numeral, with the noun instead having some other case forced on it in agreement. Numerals also often cause the distinction of number to be neutralized on the noun (since, after all, the numeral marks number even more specifically).

There are also a few derivative forms of numbers that will be discussed here which function as other parts of speech. These include ordinal numbers, which are true adjectives, and a variety of adverbial numerals.

## 7.2 Inanimate Numerals

The numerals used with inanimate nouns descend from the basic Common Slavic set of numerals. The numerals 1-10 are:

Number	Nominative Accusative	Genitive Locative	Dative Instrumental
1	едене <i>iédene</i> една <i>iédna</i> едно <i>iédno</i>		
2	дова <i>dóva</i> довѣ <i>dóvĕ</i>	довух <i>dóvuh</i>	довѣма <i>dóvĕma</i>
3	три <i>trí</i> трѣ <i>trĕ</i>	трех <i>tréh</i>	трѣм <i>trém</i>
4	цетири <i>cétiri</i>	цетирех <i>cétireh</i>	цетирѣм <i>cétirem</i>
5	пети <i>péti</i>	петех <i>péteh</i>	петѣм <i>pétem</i>
6	шести <i>šésti</i>	шестех <i>šésteĥ</i>	шестѣм <i>šéstem</i>
7	шенѣи <i>šénji</i>	шемех <i>šémeh</i>	шемѣм <i>šémem</i>
8	ошми <i>ósmi</i>	ошимех <i>ósmeh</i>	ошимѣм <i>ósmem</i>
9	девити <i>déviti</i>	девитех <i>déviteĥ</i>	девитѣм <i>dévitem</i>
10	дешити <i>désiti</i>	дешитех <i>désiteĥ</i>	дешитѣм <i>désitem</i>

Едене “one” is a true pronominal adjective, and declines regularly according to the inanimate adjective declension paradigm (although the central /e/ disappears in all forms other than the NOM/ACC masculine singular): една *iédna*, едно *iédno*, etc. Like most other pronominal adjectives, it lacks definite forms. The only quirky form is its genitive plural (and therefore animate accusative as well), which is едних *iednih*, not \*\*едон *\*iedón*.

Дова “two” has two forms in the nominative/accusative: дова *dóva* with masculine and neuter nouns, and довѣ *dóvĕ* with feminine. There are only two other forms for other cases: довух *dóvuh* (GEN/LOC) and довѣма *dóvĕma* (DAT/INS). In other cases, the NOM/ACC form is used, including gender agreement. Три/трѣ “three” declines similarly, only having gender agreement in the NOM/ACC.

Цетири “four” and higher decline similarly (see above), but without any gender agreement. Novegradian numeral declension, as can be seen above, has undergone a significant amount of analogical levelling; only two patterns remain, that used by “two” and that used by all other numerals.

The teens are created by taking the digit and adding -нацити *-náciti* (a contracted form of Old Novegradian **НА ДЕШАТЕ** “upon ten”; the *-i* is by analogy with дешити and the other numbers 5-9). The incorporated digit may undergo substantial reductions:

Number	Nominative Accusative	Genitive Locative	Dative Instrumental
11	единацѝти <i>iedináciti</i>	единацѝтех <i>iedináciteh</i>	единацѝтем <i>iedinácitem</i>
12	дуанацѝти <i>duanáciti</i>	дуанацѝтех <i>duanáciteh</i>	дуанацѝтем <i>duanácitem</i>
13	тринацѝти <i>trináciti</i>	тринацѝтех <i>trináciteh</i>	тринацѝтем <i>trinácitem</i>
14	цѝтрѝнацѝти <i>cetrenáciti</i>	цѝтрѝнацѝтех <i>cetrenáciteh</i>	цѝтрѝнацѝтем <i>cetrenácitem</i>
15	пиннацѝти <i>pinnáciti</i>	пиннацѝтех <i>pinnáciteh</i>	пиннацѝтем <i>pinnácitem</i>
16	шеснацѝти <i>šesnáciti</i>	шеснацѝтех <i>šesnáciteh</i>	шеснацѝтем <i>šesnácitem</i>
17	шеннацѝти <i>šennáciti</i>	шеннацѝтех <i>šennáciteh</i>	шеннацѝтем <i>šennácitem</i>
18	ошмѝнацѝти <i>ošmnáciti</i>	ошмѝнацѝтех <i>ošmnáciteh</i>	ошмѝнацѝтем <i>ošmnácitem</i>
19	деуѝнацѝти <i>deunáciti</i>	деуѝнацѝтех <i>deunáciteh</i>	деуѝнацѝтем <i>deunácitem</i>

The incorporated digit no longer shows any sort of case declension or gender agreement, so there are no forms like \*\*дуѝнацѝти or \*\*довуѝнацѝтех.

The decades 20-90 work by taking a unit and affixing -деѝшѝти to it (literally “two-tens”, “three-tens”, etc). When declined, both halves take affixes:

Number	Nominative Accusative	Genitive Locative	Dative Instrumental
20	дуадешити <i>duadēsiti</i>	дүүдешитех <i>dwudēsīteh</i>	дуѣдешитем <i>dučdēsītem</i>
30	тридешити <i>tridēsiti</i>	тредешитех <i>tredēsīteh</i>	тредешитем <i>tredēsītem</i>
40	цетирдешити <i>cetirdēsiti</i>	цетиредешитех <i>cetiredēsīteh</i>	цетиредешитем <i>cetiredēsītem</i>
50	пиздешити <i>pizdēsiti</i>	питедешитех <i>pitedēsīteh</i>	питедешитем <i>pitedēsītem</i>
60	шездешити <i>šezdēsiti</i>	шестедешитех <i>šestedēsīteh</i>	шестедешитем <i>šestedēsītem</i>
70	шендешити <i>šendēsiti</i>	шемедешитех <i>šemedēsīteh</i>	шемедешитем <i>šemedēsītem</i>
80	ошендешити <i>ošendēsiti</i>	ошмедешитех <i>ošmedēsīteh</i>	ошмедешитем <i>ošmedēsītem</i>
90	девидешити <i>devidēsiti</i>	девитедешитех <i>devitedēsīteh</i>	девитедешитем <i>devitedēsītem</i>

Any other whole numbers below 100 can be formed by placing a digit after a decade, and dropping the *-ти* *-ti* from the decade. Only the last digit declines: дуадеши шеньи *duadēši šenji* “twenty-seven”.

The hundreds are compounds of units plus forms of the word сто *stó* “hundred”. In their forms, older dual and genitive cases may be seen. These numbers no longer decline for case and are invariable.

Number	Novegradian
100	сто <i>stó</i>
200	дуѣсти <i>dučsti</i>
300	триста <i>trísta</i>
400	цетреста <i>cétresta</i>
500	пицот <i>picót</i>
600	шестот <i>šestót</i>
700	шемсот <i>šemsót</i>
800	ошемсот <i>ošemsót</i>
900	девицот <i>devicót</i>



Higher numbers are made using the regular nouns тишикѡа *tíšikja* “thousand” (second declension), милѡне *milióne* “million”, билѡне *bilióne* “billion”, etc. If the number immediately before it is between 2 and 4, it takes its count form (e.g., 2000 = довѣ тишикѣѡ *dóvĕ tíšikjĕ*) and if it is between 5 and 9, the genitive plural (e.g., 7 million = шенѡи милѡн *šénji milión*). See Section 13.8.

2,840,527 would therefore be rendered дова милѡна, ошемсот четирдешити тишикѡи, пицот дуадеши шенѡи *dóva milióna, ošemsót cetirdéšiti tíšikji, picót duadéši šénji*. The commas are required in the written form, but there is no audible pause in pronunciation.

Since сто “hundred” no longer declines, сотока *sótoka* is used to represent “hundred” when used nominally: сотоки долареу *sótoki dólareu* “hundreds of dollars”. Since it is grammatically a noun and not a numeral, the following noun must be in the genitive or partitive plural.

There are two other “irregular” numeral forms: the non-declining полѡругаста *poltrugásta* “150” and полѡтрекѡаста *poltrekjásta* “250” (literally meaning “one and half hundred” and “two and a half hundred”; see Section 7.6 below). The form полѡругаста is required for 150; \*\*сто пиздешити is not allowed. Some variation between полѡтрецаста and дуѣсти пиздешити exists, the latter being more common in most circumstances, but the former being required before certain nouns, such as units of currency.

### 7.3 Animate Numerals

The modern Novegradian animate numerals come from the Common Slavic collective numerals, actually nouns denoting a group of something (e.g., доваин *dóvajin* “a group of two, pair”). There is no form for “one”.

Number	Nominative Accusative	Genitive Locative	Dative Instrumental
2	дoвaин <i>dóvajin</i>	дoвaex <i>dóvaieh</i>	дoвaем <i>dóvaieṃ</i>
3	тpoин <i>trójin</i>	тpoex <i>tróieh</i>	тpoем <i>tróieṃ</i>
4	цeтepo <i>cétero</i>	цeтepex <i>cétereh</i>	цeтepем <i>céterem</i>
5	пeнтepo <i>péntero</i>	пeнтepex <i>péntereh</i>	пeнтepем <i>pénterem</i>
6	шeстepo <i>śéstero</i>	шeстepex <i>śéstereh</i>	шeстepем <i>śésterem</i>
7	шeнтepo <i>śéntero</i>	шeнтepex <i>śéntereh</i>	шeнтepем <i>śénterem</i>
8	oжeнтepo <i>ožéntero</i>	oжeнтepex <i>ožéntereh</i>	oжeнтepем <i>ožénterem</i>
9	дeвeстepo <i>devéstero</i>	дeвeстepex <i>devéstereh</i>	дeвeстepем <i>devésterem</i>
10	дeжeстepo <i>dežéstero</i>	дeжeстepex <i>dežéstereh</i>	дeжeстepем <i>dežésterem</i>

Higher numbers consisting of a single word all take *-epo -ero* regularly: тридешитеро *tridéšitero* “thirty”, шеснацитеро *śesnácitero* “sixteen”. “Hundred”, “thousand”, and higher terms use the same forms as the inanimate.

Like the inanimate digits, these numerals also have a genitive/locative form and a dative/instrumental form. The GEN/LOC is formed by adding *-ex -eh* to the root, and the DAT/INS by adding *-em -em*. The roots for 4-10 can be found by dropping the /o/, and for 2-3 by dropping the /in/.

For any higher numbers, the forms are the same as the inanimate numerals, except that if the very last element is 2-9 (or a teen, or a multiple of 10 less than 100), it will be in its animate form rather than inanimate: 727 = шемсот дуадеши шентеро *śemsót duadéši śéntero*.

## 7.4 Ordinals

The digits 1-10 each have their own ordinal adjective. All are derived directly from the cardinal numeral except for “first” and “second”, which are suppletive

forms.

Ordinal	Novegradian
1 <sup>st</sup>	пирве <i>pírve</i>
2 <sup>nd</sup>	друге <i>drúge</i>
3 <sup>rd</sup>	трите <i>tríte</i>
4 <sup>th</sup>	цедирте <i>cedírte</i>
5 <sup>th</sup>	пете <i>péte</i>
6 <sup>th</sup>	шесте <i>śéste</i>
7 <sup>th</sup>	шенме <i>śénme</i>
8 <sup>th</sup>	ошме <i>óśme</i>
9 <sup>th</sup>	девете <i>dévetē</i>
10 <sup>th</sup>	дешете <i>déśete</i>

All higher numbers up to 100 that are one word (i.e., the teens and decades) can be converted to ordinals by simply adding -e (or other adjective endings) to the numeral: шендешите *śéndéšite* “seventieth”. The hundreds are formed the same way, although all the fossilized forms of сто just become -сот-: cоте *sóte* “hundredth”, дуџcоте *duǰsóte* “two hundredth”, etc. Higher numbers do the same, but with -н- inserted - тишитне *tíšitne* “thousandth”, милѐнне *miliónne* “millionth”.

Only the last portion of the number appears in its ordinal form, while the rest appears as a cardinal number. “1572<sup>nd</sup>” would be тишикџа пицот шендеши друге *tíšikja picót śéndéši drúge*.

## 7.5 Derivative Forms

The numerals from two to ten have nominalized forms, while two to seven have a number of adverbial forms.

The nominalized numerals function similarly to collectives. They indicate a small group, either animate or inanimate, that is viewed as a unit. The most common inanimate usage is in reference to playing cards: тройка *tróika* “three (card)”. The most common animate usage is in reference to groups of people: тройка “trio, group of three, triumvirate”. They are formed by affixing -(и)ка -(i)ka to the stem of the animate numeral. Note that for the numerals four through ten, the -er- suffix reduces to just -r-. “5” also loses its -n-.

The various adverbs exist only up to seven. They fall into three classes: adverbs

of comparison, adverbs of intensity, and adverbs of accompaniment.

The adverbs of comparison modify comparative adjectives, meaning “X times as much”: *драже надуоин dráže naduójin* “twice as expensive”. On its own, it can also mean “X-fold”: *овелицит надуоин ovelícit naduójin* “it will increase twofold”. For two and three, it is formed by prefixing *na-* “on” to the animate form of the numeral, although in the case of “two” some other alterations occur. For four through seven, they are formed by prefixing *na-* to the animate form, while reducing the ending *-ero* to *-ro*.

The adverbs of intensity modify other adjectives and adverbs, meaning “X as” as in *надуоци сло́жне naduóci slóžne* “twice as difficult, doubly difficult”, and verbs, meaning “for the Xth time”: *натројци natróci* “for the third time”. It is formed the same way as the nominalized numbers, except the prefix *na-* is seen in all forms and the suffix *-ka* is replaced with *-ci* (or in older texts or dialectically, *-ki*).

The adverbs of accompaniment clarify how many people are involved in a certain action, indicating accompaniment with verbs of motion and cooperative work with other verbs: *они шли троєм oní šli tróiem* “the three of them went”. For two and three, the forms are identical to the dative-instrumental form of the animate numeral. For four through seven, the ending *-rom* is added to the the animate stem, an historical variant of the instrumental.

These forms are all shown in the following table at right.

## 7.6 Fractions

Novegradian already has its own words for the numbers 0.5, 1.5, and 2.5, which are *пољ pól*, *пољтруга poltrugá*, and *пољтрекџа poltrekjá*, respectively. All other halves are formed as *пољ* + the genitive form of the number above: *пољ девитех pól déviteh* “8.5”, literally “half of nine”.

Other fractions are made using an ordinal followed by the feminine noun *цести césti* “portion”: *трита цести tríta césti* “one-third”, literally “the third portion”. A cardinal number before it changes the value: *довѣ тритѣ цести dówě trítě cestí* “two-thirds”, literally “two third portions” (the word “portion” must be put in the genitive case as per the rules of number agreement described later).

The noun *цести* may be omitted in exchange for making the ordinal definite. However, the case and gender must be the same: *довѣ тритѣ dówě trítěie*.

Novegradian does have distinct words for “third” and “quarter”, *трере tréte* and *цетуерте cetuéрте* respectively, but these are only used in practical physical contexts such as dividing a piece of land or foods like cakes. They never appear in more abstract mathematical contexts (e.g., the number  $1/4$  is always called *цедиртая cedír-*

Number	Nominalization	Adverb of Comparison	Adverb of Intensity	Adverb of Accompaniment
2	дуойка <i>duóika</i>	надуоин <i>naduójin</i>	надуойци <i>naduóici</i>	доваєм <i>dóvaïem</i>
3	тройка <i>tróika</i>	натроин <i>natrójin</i>	натройци <i>natróici</i>	троем <i>tróiem</i>
4	цетрика <i>cétrika</i>	нацетро <i>nacétro</i>	нацетрици <i>nacétrici</i>	цетром <i>cétrom</i>
5	петрика <i>pétrika</i>	напетро <i>napétro</i>	напетрици <i>napétrici</i>	петром <i>pétrom</i>
6	шестрика <i>šétrika</i>	нашестро <i>našéstro</i>	нашестрици <i>našétrici</i>	шестром <i>šéstrom</i>
7	шентрика <i>šéntrika</i>	нашентро <i>našéntro</i>	нашентрици <i>našéntrici</i>	шентром <i>šéntrom</i>
8	ожентрика <i>ožéntrika</i>			
9	девестрика <i>devétrika</i>			
10	дежестрика <i>dežétrika</i>			

*taia*, never цетуерте *cetuérte*) or when the object being quantified is not something that is physically divided and partitioned (e.g., цедиртая зе луд *cedírtaia ze lúd* “a fourth of the people”, never \*цетуерте зе луд).

When reading decimals, digits to the right of the decimal are read individually, not as a whole. The decimal mark itself (“,”) is called зарѣзе *zárěze*. Thus, 0,75 is read as ноље зарѣзе шеньи пети *nóle zárěze šénji pétì*.

## 7.7 The Singulative One

In addition to the regular numeral едене *íedene* for “one”, Novegradian also has the so-called “singulative one” пољ *pól*, identical in form but not in function with the word for “half”. It is used to emphasize that a given noun is one out of what is normally expected to be a group of more than one. Some nouns, such as “leg”, almost always take пољ instead of едене, since legs usually come in two or four: пољ ногѣ *pól nogě* “one leg”. For nouns that do not necessarily come in groups, there is a semantic difference between the use of едене and пољ. For example, едене вѣне

*iédene věne* means “one ship” being discussed on its own, while *пољ вѣна pól věna* may better be translated as “one of the ships”, with the implication that this ship is part of a fleet.

Not all instances of “one of the X” in English may be translated into Novegradian using *пољ*. This can only be done if there is some inherent connection between the one item and the rest of the group, such as the leg or ship in a fleet above. It cannot be used in a sentence such as “This is one of the cities I have visited”; this requires *едене* as the connection between “this [city]” and “cities I have visited” is too weak and entirely dependent on a single person, rather than being anything inherent.

“One boot” may be distinguished from “half of a boot” by the case of the noun after *пољ*: genitive for “one”, partitive for “half”: *пољ сабора pól sabóga* “one boot”, *пољ сабогек pól sabógek* “half of a boot”<sup>1</sup>.

## 7.8 Indefinite Numerals

Modern Novegradian has three standard indefinite numerals. *Сотоки sótoki* (first declension plural) means “hundreds (of)”, and is used much as in English, utilizing the nominalized form of the numeral *сто stó* “one hundred”. The noun *тема temá* (first declension singular; literally “darkness”) refers to an uncountable multitude, generally used like English “thousands of” or “tens of thousands of”. The phrase *тема-тем temá-tem* (first declension singular; as it literally means “darkness of darknesses”, only the first part declines) is stylistically marked and poetically refers to a seemingly infinite number of something. All of these require the following noun to be in the partitive plural: *тема-тем гуѣздоу temá-tem guězdóu* “a multitude (infinite number of) stars”.

There is no close equivalent to English “tens of” or “dozens of”. Any of a number of non-numerical nouns may be used: *грамада gramáda* “crowd”, *множестуо mnóžestuo* “multitude”, *ред réd* “row”, etc.

## 7.9 Use of Symbols

In Novegradian, the comma marks decimals and the full stop separates numerals. “Ten thousand point five” is therefore rendered 10.000,5.

Novegradian has an unusual system for positioning unit symbols. This includes

<sup>1</sup> Alternatively, “half of a boot” may also be expressed using the preposition *зе ze* “from” plus the genitive case: *пољ зе сабора pól ze sabóga*.

percents (%), currency symbols (\$, €, руб, МК, etc), and symbols for weights and measures (л, км, г, etc). In speech, the units may be placed either before or after the number, with slightly different meanings (described in a later section). In writing, the placement of these symbols mirrors their position in speech, so that all may be placed either before or after the number. This leads to unusual sights (by non-Novegradian standards) such as %90, 9.95\$, or км400.

## 7.10 Cyrillic Numerals

Much like Roman numerals in the West, Novegradian still uses the old Cyrillic numeral system (referred to as *стапей стиле* *stárei stíle* “old style”) in certain situations. It is common to see them on clocks, for writing dates, on lists, marking days of the week (where 1 is Monday and 7 is Sunday), occasionally as page numbers, and often on tombstones.

Derived from the Greek numeral system, the old Cyrillic system includes a number of letters no longer used in Novegradian, much less any Slavic language. For numeration, though, they continue to be used. Every unit from 1-9, ten from 10-90, and hundred from 100-900 are assigned a letter. These are then ordered, largest first, and their values added up. The letter assignments are:

Letter	Value	Letter	Value	Letter	Value
А	1	І	10	Р	100
В	2	К	20	С	200
Г	3	Л	30	Т	300
Д	4	М	40	У	400
Е	5	Н	50	Ф	500
С	6	Ѣ	60	Х	600
З	7	О	70	Ѳ	700
И	8	П	80	Ѵ	800
Θ	9	Ѡ	90	Ц	900

The one exception to the highest-value first rule is in the teens, where the “decimal І” always follows the unit instead of preceding it. Numbers in the thousands are formed using the symbol ꙗ, which multiplies the value of whatever letter follows it by 1000.

When adequate fonts are unavailable, a few substitutions are common: Θ becomes 8, Ѣ becomes Кс, Ѳ becomes Пс, and Ѵ becomes W from the Latin script.

Since most of these characters are not typed very frequently, it generally is not a problem.

Traditionally a *titlo*, a diacritic consisting of a short jagged line, was written over the next-to-last letter in a number. In modern times generally a single, long overline is drawn over an entire number.

Examples (with both modern and traditional styles in the 'Cyrillic' column):

Cyrillic		Western	Breakdown
ДІ	Ḑi	14	4+10
КГ	ḑr	23	20+3
РА	ṙa	101	100+1
ΨΟЗ	ψṑz	777	700+70+7
ѦАФПЕ	ѦафѦе	1585	(1000×1)+500+80+5
ѦАЦИІ	ѦацѦи	1918	(1000×1)+900+8+10
ѦВЗ	Ѧвз	2007	(1000×2)+7



# 8

# *Pronouns*



*Окагъакъи ймъни*

## *8.1 Definitions and Features*

Pronouns are a diverse class of wordforms that syntactically fill the same role as nouns (hence the term “pronoun”). They serve as standins for other nouns or noun phrases, known as antecedents, that have been previously mentioned or that can otherwise be determined from context.

Pronouns come in many different varieties. Among these are personal pronouns (standing in for a noun), demonstrative pronouns (indicating which noun is meant), interrogative pronouns (asking what noun is meant), and various others.

Included in this section are a number of other pro-forms such as possessive adjectives and interrogative adverbs, as well as miscellaneous determiners that follow a pronominal declension paradigm in Novegradian.

## *8.2 Personal Pronouns*

The personal pronouns stand in for other nouns, indicating that noun’s person, number, and case, as well as gender in the third person singular. There are three subdeclensions in the first and second persons—one used by the singulars and the reflexive, one by the duals, and one by the plurals. The third person pronouns form a separate class; each one has its own unique declension, mirroring fairly closely the endings of definite adjectives, which share a common origin.

### **8.2.1 First and Second Persons**

The first and second person pronouns are descended directly from the Common Slavic ones, with the exception of the nominative dual forms, which come from “we-two” and “you-two”.

	1Sg	1Dl	1Pl	2Sg	2Dl	2Pl
Nom	яс <i>iás</i>	надуа <i>naduá</i>	муи <i>muí</i>	ти <i>tí</i>	вадуа <i>vaduá</i>	вуй <i>vuí</i>
Gen	мене <i>mené</i>	наю <i>náiu</i>	насе <i>náse</i>	тебе <i>tebé</i>	ваю <i>váiu</i>	васе <i>váse</i>
Acc	мене <i>mené</i>	наю <i>náiu</i>	насе <i>náse</i>	тебе <i>tebé</i>	ваю <i>váiu</i>	васе <i>váse</i>
D/I	мнѣ <i>mně</i>	нама <i>náma</i>	наме <i>náme</i>	тибѣ <i>tibě</i>	вама <i>váma</i>	ваме <i>váme</i>
Par	мене <i>mené</i>	наю <i>náiu</i>	насе <i>náse</i>	тебе <i>tebé</i>	ваю <i>váiu</i>	васе <i>váse</i>
Loc	мнѣ <i>mně</i>	наю <i>náiu</i>	насе <i>náse</i>	тибѣ <i>tibě</i>	ваю <i>váiu</i>	васе <i>váse</i>
Lat	ме <i>mé</i>	на <i>ná</i>	ни <i>ní</i>	те <i>té</i>	ва <i>vá</i>	вуй <i>vuí</i>

When the genitive took over as the direct object of accusative sentences with animate nouns, the same thing happened in the pronouns—the original accusative form disappeared in favor of the genitive. Interestingly, it is the lative case that now uses the original accusative pronouns, because the lative arose as a variant of the accusative when not used as a direct object, meaning the genitive never replaced it anywhere. The partitive, whose functions were originally performed by the genitive, also shares the genitive pronouns.

The locative case is always syncretic, having the same form as another case, but which one depends on the pronoun. In the singular pronouns it is always identical with the dative/instrumental, while in the dual and plural pronouns it matches the genitive.

The reflexive pronoun \*\*ши conjugates exactly the same as ти—шебе, шибѣ, ше *šébé, šibě, šé*. The nominative form is of course hypothetical, as a reflexive form can never be used as the subject of a sentence.

The pronoun яс *iás* loses its final /s/, becoming /ja/, whenever the following word begins with a fricative consonant. This reduction is not indicated in writing, however.

## 8.2.2 Third Person

Common Slavic originally lacked third person pronouns, but later formed

them in oblique cases using the anaphoric pronoun \*j-. The relation between the forms of the Novegradian third person pronouns and the endings taken by definite adjectives can be seen clearly.

	3Sg (M/N)	3Sg (F)	3DI	3PI
<b>Nom</b>	оhe <i>óne</i>	оha <i>oná</i>	ондуа <i>onduá</i>	они <i>oní</i>
<b>Gen</b>	сво <i>ievó</i>	ѣ <i>iě'</i>	сю <i>íéiu</i>	их <i>ih</i>
<b>Acc</b>	сво <i>ievó</i>	ѣ <i>iě'</i>	сю <i>íéiu</i>	их <i>ih</i>
<b>D/I</b>	ему <i>iemú</i>	ей <i>iei</i>	ема <i>iemá</i>	име <i>ime</i>
<b>Par</b>	сво <i>ievó</i>	ѣ <i>iě'</i>	сю <i>íéiu</i>	их <i>ih</i>
<b>Loc</b>	ем <i>íém</i>	ей <i>iei</i>	сю <i>íéiu</i>	их <i>ih</i>
<b>Lat</b>	нси <i>néji</i>	нсю <i>néiu</i>	нся <i>néia</i>	неѣ <i>néie'</i>

The anaphoric pronoun was never allowed to stand on its own in its original nominative/accusative case form, so an old demonstrative pronoun он- with endings was used to stand in its place. This nominative form is to be avoided when at all possible.

The original accusative was replaced by the genitive, avoiding the problem of the lone anaphoric pronoun. In the lative form of the old accusative, however, an epenthetic /n/ was acquired to allow the nominative form to stand on its own, in a way. The /n/ likely came from the prepositions that usually preceded nouns in this case, several of which ended in an /n/ which was lost at a later point (e.g., Novegradian во “into” ← Common Slavic \*vъn, although this /n/ reemerges in certain situations).

There is also a second set of third person pronouns, this one derived from the former demonstrative \*to, the same that cliticizes to nouns to topicalize them. True to this function, however, this set cannot be used to refer to third person nouns that are not topicalized. Within the realm of topicalized nouns, however, to and оhe exist in free variation.

These forms do not mark gender, only case and optionally number. The singular forms may refer to plural antecedents (especially when in the nominative case,

since *ти tí* could potentially mean either “they” or “you”).

	Sg	Pl
Nom	ТО <i>tó</i>	ТИ <i>tí</i>
Gen	ТОВО <i>tovó</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
Acc	ТОВО <i>tovó</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
D/I	ТѢМ <i>těm</i>	ТѢМИ <i>těmi</i>
Par	ТОВО <i>tovó</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
Loc	ТОМ <i>tóm</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
Lat	ТО <i>tó</i>	ТИ <i>tí</i>

### 8.2.3 Possessives

Possession can be indicated in two ways in Novegradian—with the possessive adjectives inherited from Common Slavic, or using an analytic construction borrowed from the Finnic languages.

The inherited adjectives are мой *mói* (1SG), твой *tuói* (2SG), свой *súoi* (REFL), наш *nájin* (1DL), ваш *vájin* (2DL), наш *nás* (1PL), and ваш *vás* (2PL). The three singular adjectives decline the same way, the duals a different way, and the plurals according to a third pattern.

In the third person, the possessive pronouns are ево *ievó* (M/N SG), ѣ *iě'* (F SG), ею *iéiu* (DL), and ex *iěh* (PL) in all cases, derived from the anaphoric pronoun. They do not agree with the noun they modify in any way.

All of the above forms, however, are considered a little formal, though not extremely so, and in all but formal writing the analytic forms are dominant. They are formed using the preposition о о “at” with a pronoun in the genitive case: о мене *o mené* “my” (lit. “at me”). In the third person, /n/ is inserted in between, attached to the pronoun: о нево *o nevó* “his”. These forms are required to go after the possessed noun, never before. In much of the northern and eastern parts of the Republic of Novegrad, it is common to use the lative case instead of the genitive, giving о ме, о неи, etc, instead.

	мой/твой/свой				наин/ваин				наш/ваш			
	M	N	F	Pl	M	N	F	Pl	M	N	F	Pl
<b>Nom</b>	мой <i>mói</i>	мое <i>moé</i>	моя <i>moá</i>	мои <i>moj</i>	наин <i>nájn</i>	нае <i>naie</i>	ная <i>naia</i>	наи <i>náji</i>	наш <i>nás</i>	наше <i>náše</i>	наша <i>náša</i>	наши <i>nási</i>
<b>Gen</b>	моево <i>moévo</i>	моево <i>moévo</i>	моей <i>moéi</i>	моих <i>mojib</i>	насво <i>naévo</i>	наево <i>naévo</i>	наей <i>naiei</i>	наих <i>nájib</i>	нашево <i>náševo</i>	нашево <i>náševo</i>	нашѣ <i>nášě</i>	наших <i>násiib</i>
<b>Acc</b>	мой <i>mói</i>	мое <i>moé</i>	мою <i>moú</i>	мои <i>moj</i>	наин <i>nájn</i>	нае <i>naie</i>	наю <i>naú</i>	наи <i>náji</i>	наш <i>nás</i>	наше <i>náše</i>	нашу <i>nášu</i>	наши <i>nási</i>
<b>D/I</b>	моим <i>mojím</i>	моим <i>mojím</i>	моей <i>moéi</i>	моими <i>mojimi</i>	наим <i>nájím</i>	наим <i>nájím</i>	наей <i>naiei</i>	наими <i>nájimi</i>	нашим <i>násím</i>	нашим <i>násím</i>	нашѣ <i>nášě</i>	нашими <i>násiimi</i>
<b>Par</b>	моево <i>moévo</i>	моево <i>moévo</i>	моей <i>moéi</i>	моих <i>mojib</i>	насво <i>naévo</i>	наево <i>naévo</i>	наей <i>naiei</i>	наих <i>nájib</i>	нашево <i>náševo</i>	нашево <i>náševo</i>	нашѣ <i>nášě</i>	наших <i>násiib</i>
<b>Loc</b>	моем <i>moéim</i>	моем <i>moéim</i>	моей <i>moéi</i>	моих <i>mojib</i>	наем <i>naéim</i>	наем <i>naéim</i>	наей <i>naiei</i>	наих <i>nájib</i>	нашем <i>nášem</i>	нашем <i>nášem</i>	нашѣ <i>nášě</i>	наших <i>násiib</i>
<b>Lat</b>	мой <i>mói</i>	мое <i>moé</i>	мою <i>moú</i>	мои <i>moj</i>	наин <i>nájn</i>	нае <i>naie</i>	наю <i>naú</i>	наи <i>náji</i>	наш <i>nás</i>	наше <i>náše</i>	нашу <i>nášu</i>	наши <i>nási</i>

### 8.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

Novegradian has only one main demonstrative pronoun, *ше* *śé*, which can be translated as either “this” or “that”, depending on context. It originally meant just “this”, but its use increased as the other demonstratives were lost, and may have acquired wider usage due to influence from the Finnish pronoun/demonstrative *se* “it, that”. The adjective form declines using the same sorts of endings as the possessive adjectives.

	M	N	F	PL
<b>Nom</b>	ше <i>śé</i>	ше <i>śé</i>	ша <i>śá</i>	ши <i>śí</i>
<b>Gen</b>	шево <i>śevó</i>	шево <i>śevó</i>	шей <i>śéi</i>	ших <i>śíh</i>
<b>Acc</b>	ше <i>śé</i>	ше <i>śé</i>	шу <i>śú</i>	ши <i>śí</i>
<b>D/I</b>	шим <i>śím</i>	шим <i>śím</i>	шей <i>śéi</i>	шими <i>śími</i>
<b>Par</b>	шево <i>śevó</i>	шево <i>śevó</i>	шей <i>śéi</i>	ших <i>śíh</i>
<b>Loc</b>	шем <i>śém</i>	шем <i>śém</i>	шей <i>śéi</i>	ших <i>śíh</i>
<b>Lat</b>	ше <i>śé</i>	ше <i>śé</i>	шу <i>śú</i>	ши <i>śí</i>

When used on its own as a pronoun, the masculine/neuter form is used.

If distance (i.e., “that” as opposed to “this”) needs to be emphasized, the defective demonstrative *он-* *on-*, the same one forming the nominative third person pronouns, may be used. When used as adjectives (or perhaps just pronouns in apposition), only the forms *оне* *óne* (M/N), *она* *oná* (F), and *они* *oní* (PL) exist<sup>1</sup>.

### 8.4 Absolute Pronouns

The absolute pronouns are special pronominal forms used in isolation, when the verb and environment they should appear in is completely implied by context. In particular, they are used in response to questions such as “Who...?” and “Which...?”. The phenomenon is similar to the colloquial English habit of answering questions like “Who did this?” with “Me” in place of “I did”, or answering “Which do you want?” with “That one” in place of “I want that one”.

They were originally formed by adding the topical *-to* *-to* to the personal and demonstrative pronouns, but have since undergone their own phonological evolu-

<sup>1</sup> The distinct neuter singular form *оно* *onó* is sometimes seen in older texts, but is now considered archaic.

tion. There are two variant spellings, an older one more clearly preserving their origin, and a newer one more accurately reflecting colloquial speech. Both are seen frequently, although the newer spellings are becoming more common as fewer and fewer speakers use the older variants in speech<sup>2</sup>.

The absolute personal pronouns are as follows. They are shown alongside the topicalized personal pronouns for comparison.

	Old Spelling	New Spelling	Topicalized Pronoun
<b>1 Sg</b>	яс-ѣт <i>ias-iót</i>	язѣт <i>iazíót</i>	яс-от <i>ias-ót</i>
<b>2 Sg</b>	ти-те <i>tí-te</i>	тите <i>títe</i>	ти-то <i>tí-to</i>
<b>3 Sg M/N</b>	он-ѣт <i>on-iót</i>	нѣт <i>niót</i>	онс-то <i>óne-to</i>
<b>3 Sg F</b>	она-та <i>oná-ta</i>	ната <i>náta</i>	она-та <i>oná-ta</i>
<b>1 Dl</b>	надуа-та <i>naduá-ta</i>	надуата <i>naduáta</i>	надуа-то <i>naduá-to</i>
<b>2 Dl</b>	вадуа-та <i>vaduá-ta</i>	вадуата <i>vaduáta</i>	вадуа-то <i>vaduá-to</i>
<b>3 Dl</b>	ондуа-та <i>onduá-ta</i>	дуата <i>duáta</i>	ондуа-то <i>onduá-to</i>
<b>1 Pl</b>	муи-то <i>muí-to</i>	муито <i>muíto</i>	муи-то <i>muí-to</i>
<b>2 Pl</b>	вуи-то <i>vui-to</i>	вуйто <i>vuito</i>	вуи-то <i>vui-to</i>
<b>3 Pl</b>	они-те <i>oní-te</i>	ните <i>níte</i>	они-то <i>oní-to</i>

Note how the /o/ of the third person forms drops in the new spelling, more accurately reflecting speech. The /o/ is only preserved in the speech of older speakers.

The demonstrative pronoun *ме* similarly has absolute forms:

2 This is one of relatively few cases where a very colloquial feature gains currency in the written standard. Formal Novegradian, due to its historical ties with literary Russian, has long been reluctant to accept non-Slavic features such as a distinct class of pronouns that have evolved to a point where the older, etymological spelling is wholly out of date. The acceptance of the absolute pronouns has been aided by their strongly discourse-connected function; they are, therefore, rarely seen in formal writing, but extremely common in informal writing, which tends to much more closely reflect speech anyways. The rarity of their use in formal contexts and the gradual loss of the pronunciation reflected in the old spelling system has resulted in the effective takeover of the new forms.

	Old Spelling	New Spelling	Topicalized Pronoun
<b>Masc Sg</b>	ше-ѣт <i>še-iót</i>	шѣт <i>šiót</i>	ше-то <i>še-to</i>
<b>Neut Sg</b>	ше-то <i>še-to</i>	шето <i>šeto</i>	ше-то <i>še-to</i>
<b>Fem Sg</b>	ша-та <i>ša-ta</i>	шата <i>šata</i>	ша-та <i>ša-ta</i>
<b>Pl</b>	ши-те <i>ši-te</i>	шите <i>šite</i>	ши-то <i>ši-to</i>

## 8.5 Interrogative Pronouns

Novegradian has two interrogative pronouns that have a full pronominal declension, four with an adjectival declension, and several others that don't decline at all.

The two declining pronouns are цой *cói* “what?” and хой *hói* “who.” Being pronouns, they decline using the same sort of endings used by the anaphoric pronoun:

	цой “what?”	хой “who?”
<b>Nom</b>	цой <i>cói</i>	хой <i>hói</i>
<b>Gen</b>	цево <i>cevó</i>	ково <i>kovó</i>
<b>Acc</b>	цой <i>cói</i>	ково <i>kovó</i>
<b>D/I</b>	цему <i>cemú</i>	кому <i>komú</i>
<b>Par</b>	цево <i>cevó</i>	ково <i>kovó</i>
<b>Loc</b>	цем <i>cém</i>	кем <i>kém</i>
<b>Lat</b>	це <i>cé</i>	ке <i>ké</i>

The /j/ present in the nominative forms comes from the anaphoric pronoun \*j-, which was inserted to reinforce the otherwise highly reduced nominative forms.<sup>3</sup>

The interrogatives каде *kadé* “what kind of?”<sup>4</sup>, какове *kákové* “what kind of?” (in free variation with каде), and которе *kótre* “which?” decline as adjectives, because they directly modify a noun. They are all regular.

3 Despite their appearance, the nominative forms do descend from CS \*что and \*кто, the same source as Russian что and кто, rather than unsuffixed pronouns. Sound changes eventually caused the loss of the distinctive /t/ suffix: что → цто → цо → цой, кто → хто → хо → хой.

4 From Old Novegradian каре (cf. Russian какой), with /g/ → /d/ by dissimilation.



The word кей *kéi* is an emphatic interrogative, which can mean “what?”, “which?”, or “what kind of?” depending on the context. It is adjectival as well, but only declines using the definite endings (кей *kéi*, кая *káia*, кое *kóie*, кие *kíje*).

Other interrogatives, which do not decline, include:

- куда *kudé* “where?”
- куда *kudí* “to where?”
- откуда *oskúd* “from where?”
- койда *kóida* “when?”
- зачем *zácem* “why?”
- како *káko* “how?”
- колкѣ *kólké* “how much/many?”

Old Novegradian цей *céi* “whose?” is no longer used, having been replaced by о ково *o kovó* “at whom”.

## 8.6 Negative and Indefinite Pronouns

The indefinite and negative pronouns (“some-X, no-X”) are all formed by adding affixes to the interrogative pronouns. The indefinite pronouns are formed from some form of the suffix -ш -ś, a reduced form of an earlier demonstrative pronoun. The negatives are formed with the prefix не- *ne-*. The addition of these affixes can cause other changes to occur, as they would interfere with the original balance of stress and yer vowels.

The negative and indefinite forms of цой and хой have a complete declension:

	цеш “something”	кош “someone”	нецой “nothing”	нехой “no one”
<b>Nom</b>	цеш <i>cés</i>	кош <i>kós</i>	нецой <i>nécoi</i>	нехой <i>néhoi</i>
<b>Gen</b>	цевош <i>cevoś</i>	ковош <i>kovós</i>	нецево <i>necevo</i>	неково <i>nekovó</i>
<b>Acc</b>	цеш <i>cés</i>	ковош <i>kovós</i>	нецево <i>necevo</i>	неково <i>nekovó</i>
<b>D/I</b>	цемуш <i>cemús</i>	комуш <i>komús</i>	нецему <i>necemú</i>	некому <i>nekomú</i>
<b>Par</b>	цевош <i>cevoś</i>	ковош <i>kovós</i>	нецево <i>necevo</i>	неково <i>nekovó</i>
<b>Loc</b>	цемеш <i>cemes</i>	кемеш <i>kemes</i>	нецем <i>necem</i>	некем <i>nekem</i>
<b>Lat</b>	цеш <i>cés</i>	кош <i>kós</i>	нецой <i>nécoi</i>	нехой <i>néhoi</i>

The indefinite and negative adverbs are formed the same way, but do not decline.

	Indefinite	Negative
<b>куде</b> “where?”	кудеш <i>kudés</i> “somewhere”	некуде <i>nekude</i> “nowhere”
<b>куди</b> “to where?”	кудиш <i>kudiś</i> “to somewhere”	некуде <i>nekiudi</i> “to nowhere”
<b>оскуд</b> “from where?”	оскудаш <i>oskiudaś</i> “from somewhere”	невоскуд <i>nevoskiud</i> “from nowhere, not from anywhere”
<b>койда</b> “when?”	кодаш <i>kódaś</i> “at some time”	некойда <i>nekóida</i> “never”
<b>како</b> “how?”	какош <i>kákoś</i> “somehow”	некако <i>nekako</i> “by no means”

The negative adjective некаде *nekadé* “no kind of” is regular. The indefinite counterpart, каде-ш *kadé-ś* “some kind of”, is a little more complicated. The plain interrogative каде *kadé* is declined regularly, then the suffix *-(e)ш* *-(e)ś* is added to the end. Orthographically, it is separated from the adjective base with a hyphen. For example, the nominative indefinite and definite forms are:

	M	N	F	Pl
<b>Indefinite</b>	каде-ш <i>kadé-ś</i>	кадо-ш <i>kadó-ś</i>	када-ш <i>kadá-ś</i>	кади-ш <i>kadiś</i>
<b>Definite</b>	кадсѣ-еш <i>kaděi-eś</i>	кадое-ш <i>kadóie-ś</i>	кадая-ш <i>kadáia-ś</i>	кадие-ш <i>kadije-ś</i>

Какове *kákove* does not have indefinite or negative forms. Those of каде *kadé* are used instead.

## 8.7 Determiners

Common determiners in Novegradian include веке *véhe* “all”, многе *mnóge* “many, much”, кожде *kóžne* “each, every”, таде *tadé* “such”, видоре *vidóre* “other”, саме *sáme* “same”, and оба *oba* “both”.

Кожне, таде, видоре, and саме are all treated as normal adjectives. Многе, de-

spite how it looks, is not an adjective and does not decline (although the form *многие*, borrowed from Russian and declined like a plural definite adjective, is used to mean “many people”); there is an adjective *многе*, but it means “multiple”. *Оба* is declined exactly the same way as the numeral *два* “two”, including having a feminine form *обѣ* *óbě*. *Bexe* takes a pronominal declension like *ше* or *мой*, but with a very large number of irregularities:

	M	N	F	Pl
Nom	вехе <i>véhe</i>	оґо <i>oǵó</i>	оґа <i>oǵá</i>	вие <i>vijé</i>
Gen	виево <i>vihevó</i>	виево <i>vihevó</i>	вией <i>vijéi</i>	виех <i>vijéh</i>
Acc	вех <i>véh</i>	оґо <i>oǵó</i>	оґу <i>oǵú</i>	вие <i>vijé</i>
D/I	вехѣм <i>véxěm</i>	вехѣм <i>véxěm</i>	вией <i>vijéi</i>	виеми <i>vijěmi</i>
Par	виево <i>vihevó</i>	виево <i>vihevó</i>	вией <i>vijéi</i>	виех <i>vijéh</i>
Loc	вием <i>vijém</i>	вием <i>vijém</i>	вией <i>vijéi</i>	виех <i>vijéh</i>
Lat	вех <i>véh</i>	оґо <i>oǵó</i>	оґу <i>oǵú</i>	вие <i>vijé</i>

The first consonant varies between /β ~ Ø/, the root-internal vowel between /i ~ e ~ o/, and the second consonant between /x ~ ɣ ~ j/. The rules are basically as follows:

1. The vowel is /e/ when stressed, /i/ when unstressed and the following syllable contains a front vowel, and /o/ when unstressed and the following syllable contains a back vowel.
2. If the root-internal vowel is /o/, the first consonant is zero. If the vowel is anything else, the first consonant is /β/.
3. If the syllable immediately after the root is unstressed, the root-final consonant is /x/. If the syllable is stressed and contains a back vowel, the root-final consonant is /ɣ/. If it is stressed and contains a front vowel, the root-final consonant is /j/.

The neuter form, *oro* *oǵó*, can be used by itself as a pronoun to mean “everything”. The plural, *вие* *vijé*, can be used to mean “everyone”.

## 8.8 Correlatives Tables

The above information dealing with pro-forms and determiners, along with other minor classes of determiners, may be summarized in a series of correlatives tables.

### 8.8.1 Interrogative Forms

Determiner	Interrogative
	котре <i>kótre</i> “which?”
Quality	каде <i>kadé</i> “what kind?”
Person	хой <i>bói</i> “who?”
Thing	цой <i>cói</i> “what?”
Place	куде <i>kudé</i> “where?”
Direction	куди <i>kudí</i> “whither?”
Origin	оскуд <i>oskúd</i> “whence?”
Time	койда <i>kóida</i> “when?”
Amount	колкѣ <i>kólkě</i> “how much?”
Way	како <i>káko</i> “how?”
Reason	зацем <i>zácem</i> “why?”

The interrogative forms have mostly been discussed already. They are the bases upon which a number of other correlatives are based. Almost all of them have a stem containing /k/, while all the others are derived from stems that once contained \*k in Pre-Proto-Slavic. This -k-, therefore, is considered the primary marker of interrogatives, in much the same way most English interrogatives contain “wh” or Latin interrogatives contain “qu”. Various other suffixes were then added to this interrogative base to achieve the variety of meanings now expressed. While clear traces of many of these derivations remain clear in the modern language, they have long since lost any semblance of productivity.

## 8.8.2 Proximal Forms

	Proximal
<b>Determiner</b>	ше <i>śé</i> “this”
<b>Quality</b>	таде <i>tadé</i> “such”
<b>Person</b>	ше <i>śé</i> “this”
<b>Thing</b>	ше <i>śé</i> “this”
<b>Place</b>	суде <i>sudé</i> “here”
<b>Direction</b>	суди <i>sudí</i> “hither”
<b>Origin</b>	оцуда <i>ocúda</i> “hence”
<b>Time</b>	cosaca <i>sodzása</i> “now”
<b>Amount</b>	толкѣ <i>tólkě</i> “this much”
<b>Way</b>	тако <i>táko</i> “this way, thus”
<b>Reason</b>	

Proximal forms have the basic meaning of “this”; that is, referencing something in close proximity to the speaker.

A few familiar forms appear in the table to the left, along with a few patterns that are beginning to emerge. The demonstrative ше *śé* “this”, in addition to its usual function as a proximal determiner, may also be used as a pronoun standing in for a person or thing. However, depending on context, “this person” or “this thing” can just as easily be represented using person pronouns, in particular the third person forms.

Several of the proximal adverbs are derived from their interrogative counterparts by replacing /k/ with /s/, specifically the three locative adverbs “here”, “hither/to here”, and “hence/from here” (although this is obscured in this last one due to the merger of a final prefixial \*-t to a root-initial \*-s- in Common Slavic \*otъ-sqđ-, giving modern /ts/). A few others instead replace /k/ with /t/ (таде, толкѣ, тако); this is strictly speaking a marker of the distal, but has spread to a number of the proximal forms as well when

distinct proximal forms ceased to exist.

The word cosaca *sodzása* “now” originally meant “with the time/hour”, although the Russian calque месac *śedzás* (lit. “this hour”) exists in free variation.

No distinct form exists for “for this reason”; this must be expressed periphrastically, using an expression such as по шей призинѣ *po śei pridzíně* (lit. “because of this reason”) or за шей призиной *za śei pridzínnoi* (lit. “for this reason, for the goal of this reason”).

### 8.8.3 Distal Forms

	Distal
<b>Determiner</b>	ше <i>śé</i> “that”
<b>Quality</b>	таде <i>tadé</i> “that kind”
<b>Person</b>	ше <i>śé</i> “that”
<b>Thing</b>	ше <i>śé</i> “that”
<b>Place</b>	тамо <i>támo</i> “there”
<b>Direction</b>	туди <i>tudí</i> “thither”
<b>Origin</b>	остуда <i>ostúda</i> “thence”
<b>Time</b>	тойда <i>tóida</i> “then”
<b>Amount</b>	толкѣ <i>tólkě</i> “that much”
<b>Way</b>	тако <i>táko</i> “that way”
<b>Reason</b>	

The distal forms convey the basic meaning of “that”, referencing something located further away from the speaker, whether physically or metaphorically.

The dominant pattern seen here is the presence of /t/ where the interrogative forms had /k/. This sort of interrogative/proximal/distal K/S/T triplet is common in some form or another throughout the Indo-European family (cf. the English analogues *where/here/there*, *whence/hence/thence*, *when/Ø/then*, etc). While this pattern has been disrupted by sound change, it still does seem to have some analogical force<sup>5</sup>.

As before, the distal person and distal thing categories can also be represented using personal pronouns.

The distal place category breaks the otherwise strong K/S/T trend in locative adverbs. While the distal /t/ is present, it is attached to a different base than the others, an exception that seems to go back to Proto-Indo-European.

As before, the gap in the above table must be filled with a periphrastic expression such

as по шей присинѣ. The “reason” category does not distinguish proximal and distal forms except when great emphasis is needed (e.g., truly distal по она присинѣ *po oná pridzíně* “for that reason [discussed quite a while previously]”).

5 For instance, the word суде *sudé* “here” is a Novegradian innovation based on куде *kudé* “where?”, the K/S/T pattern, and influence from other words such as оцуда *ocúda* “hence/from here”. Had this word developed regularly from Common Slavic \*sъde, it would have appeared in Novegradian as \*\*шиде *śidé* (cf. Russian где “where?”, здесь “here”).

### 8.8.4 Indefinite Forms

Determiner	Indefinite
	нѣкотре <i>někotre</i> “some”
Quality	каде-ш <i>kadé-š</i> “some kind of”
Person	кош <i>kós</i> “someone”
Thing	цеш <i>cés</i> “something”
Place	кудеш <i>kudés</i> “somewhere”
Direction	кудиш <i>kudíš</i> “to somewhere”
Origin	оскудаш <i>oskúdaš</i> “from somewh.”
Time	кодаш <i>kódaš</i> “sometime”
Amount	нѣколкѣ <i>několké</i> “some amount”
Way	какош <i>kákoš</i> “somehow”
Reason	

The indefinite forms were for the most part discussed previously. Most of them are formed from the corresponding interrogative with the addition of -ш, which in the case of the “person”, “thing”, and “time” categories results in some minor alterations to the root, generally preserving an older form.<sup>6</sup>

The “determiner” and “amount” forms feature the prefix \*ně-, which in Common Slavic was a common marker of indefiniteness, but in Novegradian gradually fell out of use and is now limited to just these two words.

The difference in meaning between the adjective нѣкотре “some” and the quantifier нѣколкѣ “some amount (of)” is rather subtle and will be explained in Section 15.7. Very generally, the former represents a value that is determinate or fixed, but simply not mentioned, while the latter represents a value that is random or indeterminate.

The gap in the “reason” category can be filled using expressions such as по кадей-

еш присинѣ *po kadéi-eš pridzíně* “for some reason (lit. “for some sort of reason”).

6 In the case of цой “what?” and хой “who?”, no \*-to element was added in Common Slavic; the interrogative stems descend from CS \*что, \*кто, while the indefinite stems descend from CS \*чь-, \*къ- more directly. The yod in койда “when?” results from the lenition of ON \*коfда, and was lost in the indefinite form for prosodic reasons.

### 8.8.5 Negative Forms

Determiner	Negative
	не ше <i>ne še</i> “no”
Quality	некаде <i>nekadé</i> “no kind of”
Person	нехой <i>néhoi</i> “no one”
Thing	нецой <i>nécoi</i> “nothing”
Place	некуде <i>nekude</i> “nowhere”
Direction	некуди <i>nekúdi</i> “to nowhere”
Origin	невоскуд <i>nevoskúđ</i> “from nowhere”
Time	некойда <i>nekóida</i> “never”
Amount	
Way	некако <i>nekako</i> “no way”
Reason	

*nekadě pridztně* “for no reason”.

The negative forms, as previously discussed, are generally formed by adding *ne-* to the interrogative forms, sometimes causing shifts in stress toward the prefix. The “origin” form introduces an epenthetic /β/ to prevent hiatus.

The form *некойда nekóida* “never” is completely regular in the standard, though the form *некода nekoda* is a very widespread dialectal/poetic variant.

The negative determiner *не ше ne še* “no [noun]” is always written as two words, though phonetically it acts as one—the particle *не* (always pronounced [nə]) and the declining demonstrative adjective: *не ша дужа ne šá dužá* “no person, not one person”<sup>7</sup>. The original Common Slavic \*ni has been lost in Novegradian.

The negative amount gap can be filled with *некадо сколицестуо nekadó skolicestuo* “no [kind of] amount” or *не ше сколицестуо ne še skolicestuo* “no amount”. The negative reason gap can be filled with *по некадѣ присинѣ po*

<sup>7</sup> Due to the pronunciation, in informal writing imitating speech this construction is usually written as a single word and with the letter A: *наша дужа našá dužá*. This is little risk of confusion with the possessive adjective *наш* because the possessive adjectives in general are very rarely used in speech. Therefore, in the written standard, “no person” is *не ша дужа* while “our person” is *наша дужа*, while colloquially “no person” is *наша дужа* and “our person” is *дужа о нас* (semiformal) or *дужа онас* (informal).



## 8.8.6 Universal Forms

Determiner	Universal
	кожне <i>kóžne</i> “every”
Quality	веяде <i>veiáde</i> “every kind”
Person	вие <i>vijé</i> “everyone”
Thing	оґо <i>oǵó</i> “everything”
Place	веходе <i>vehodé</i> “everywhere”
Direction	
Origin	
Time	вехода <i>vehodá</i> “always”
Amount	
Way	
Reason	

The universal forms convey the basic sense of “all” or “every”—a totality.

The determiner category can be filled either by the adjective кожне *kóžne* “every” or the pronominal adjective вехе *véhe* “all”, depending on whether a distributive or total sense is needed.

The other single-word categories are filled by forms of вехе or derivatives of it. The “person” and “thing” categories use the plural and neuter declensions of вехе respectively. The forms веходе *vehodé* “everywhere” and вехода *vehodá* “always” come from вехе plus the base of the interrogative: вехода (CS form \*вѣхъ-гѣда ← \*вѣхъ + \*(кѣ)-гѣда, where the \*кѣ- is the same interrogative element found in most other interrogative words). The adjective of quality веяде *veiáde* “every kind” comes from “all” + (ка)де.

There is also the adverb веґаде *veǵáde* “everywhere, all over”, with a similar meaning to веходе. The former implies more of a scattering, while the later suggests complete coverage.

All other categories are periphrastic. One of the more interesting constructions is на вие ходѣ *na vijé hóde* “to everywhere, in all directions”, a reanalysis of веходе as вехе “all” + ходо “direction”. Of course, a variety of other alternatives exist as well. The most common forms for each category are: на вие ходѣ *na vijé hóde* “in all directions” (direction), од виех ход *od vijéh hód* “from all directions” (origin), вие сколицеуа *vijé skolicestuá* “all amounts [of]”, виґми позобам *vijěmí pozóbam* “by all means” (way), по виех присинѣх *po vijéh pridztneḥ* “for all reasons” (reason).

### 8.8.7 Indeterminate Forms

	Indeterminate
<b>Determiner</b>	котре <i>kótre</i> “any, whichever”
<b>Quality</b>	каде-ко <i>kadé-ko</i> “whatever kind”
<b>Person</b>	хой-ко <i>hói-ko</i> “whoever”
<b>Thing</b>	цой-ко <i>cói-ko</i> “whatever”
<b>Place</b>	куде-ко <i>kudé-ko</i> “wherever”
<b>Direction</b>	куди-ко <i>kudí-ko</i> “to wherever”
<b>Origin</b>	
<b>Time</b>	койда-ко <i>kóida-ko</i> “whenever”
<b>Amount</b>	колкѣ-ко <i>kólkě-ko</i> “however much”
<b>Way</b>	како-ко <i>káko-ko</i> “however”
<b>Reason</b>	

The indeterminate forms indicate, logically, the indeterminate nature of the item or quality in question, without regard to its exact identity or quantity. Its basic sense is like that of English “any”.

For most of the correlative categories, indeterminates are formed by suffixing -ко -*ko* to the interrogative form, in writing separated by a hyphen. In the case of declining forms like цой-ко, хой-ко, and каде-ко, the stem is fully declined first, and then the clitic is added, as was the case for the indefinite forms in -ш.

Colloquially, the clitic reduces to just -к, and the stress shifts to the vowel immediately before it: койда-к *koidá-k* “when-ever”, како-к *kakó-k* “however”, ково-к *kovó-k* “whomever (ACC)”. However, the nominative forms хой-ко and цой-ко tend to retain the /o/, as well as any other form ending in a consonant.

Disregarding the contradictory name, there is also an indeterminate determiner; it is the adjective котре *kótre* without any clitic, previously seen as the interrogative

“which?”.

The two gaps are most often filled by од котра мѣсту *od kótra městu* “from any place” and по кадѣ-ко присинѣ *po kadě-ko pridzíně* “for whatever kind of reason”.

### 8.8.8 Deficient Forms

Determiner	Deficient
	малокотре <i>malokótre</i> “few”
Quality	
Person	малохой <i>malohói</i> “few people”
Thing	малоцой <i>malocói</i> “few things”
Place	малокуде <i>malokudé</i> “in few places”
Direction	
Origin	
Time	малокойда <i>malokóida</i> “seldom”
Amount	
Way	
Reason	

The deficient forms suggest a lack of sufficient quantity, or more generally a small quantity, though not necessarily in a negative light.

All existing deficient correlatives are formed by prefixing *мало-* *malo-* to the interrogative stem. Otherwise they decline regularly.

Alternative phrasings are possible for all forms, most commonly using the adverb *немноге* *nemnóge* “not many, few” plus a noun: *немноге люд* *nemnóge lúd* “few people”. The gaps are almost always filled with *немноге* constructions: *немноге род* *nemnóge ród* “few kinds [of]”, *од немноге мѣсот* *od nemnóge měšot* “from few places”, etc.

### 8.8.9 Other Forms

A small number of other correlatives exist that do not fit neatly into the tables above, or else require a class all to themselves.

There is a single locative based on the stem *\*ien-* (← CS *\*in-* “other”): *енде* *iendé* “elsewhere, somewhere else”. This stem has a cognate adjective *ене* *iéne*, although it is no longer productive and is only found in the conjunction/preposition *ене неж* *iéne než* “different from, unlike”. A second cognate adjective, *енаке* *ienáke* “another”, is similarly unproductive and is only found in a few fixed expressions (although its adverbial form *енакѣ* *ienákě* “otherwise” is quite common).

The adjective of universal quality *веяде* *veiáde* “every kind of” has a notable dialectical variant *хаде* *hadé*. This form, common throughout the Novegradian north and east, actually shares a common origin with *веяде*; both ultimately derive from Old Novegradian *вѣхаде*. *Хаде* is not accepted in formal writing, but is very common in speech in these areas.

Novegradian also frequently makes use of rhyming compounds based on the

proximal and distal forms of various correlatives to indicate a sort of random universality or widespread distribution. These are more dependent on keeping up the S~T pattern than using actual correlatives, so such “compounds” make use of a number of nonce words: *суде-туда* *sudé-tudé* “here and there”, *суди-туди* *sudí-tudí* “hither and thither, back and forth”, *оцуда-остуда* *ocúda-ostúda* “hence and thence, from all over”, *сойда-тойда* *sóida-tóida* “now and then, occasionally”, and *солкѣ-толкѣ* *sólkě-tólkě* “a random amount, a jumble”. These are all acceptable in the standard language, though none of the nonce forms are allowed in isolation.

## 8.9 Relative Pronouns

There are two sorts of relative constructions in use in Novegradian.

When the relative clause is pegged to a noun, there are two relative adjectives that may be used: *корпе* *kótre* and *какове* *kákově*. The former links a relative clause specifically to the noun it modifies (e.g., “This is the book that I do not like”). The latter links the relative clause to a quality of the noun it modifies, or to the class it forms a part of (e.g., “This is the book, the type of which I do not like”/“This is the kind of book I don’t like”). Both decline as regular adjectives, agreeing in gender and number with the noun they modify, but in case with the noun’s position in the relative clause.

However, when there is no noun to subordinate the clause to (e.g., “I know that he’s coming tomorrow” or “Remember who helped you”), a different construction must be used. Here the relativizer consists of two parts: a form of *то* *tó*, declined according to its function in the main clause, and a relative pronoun (generally *цой* or *хой*), declined according to its function in the subclause. *То* declines using just the neuter and plural pronominal endings, identical to *то* when used as a personal pronoun, except with animacy distinguished in the accusative.

	Sg	Pl
<b>Nom</b>	ТО <i>tó</i>	ТИ <i>tí</i>
<b>Gen</b>	ТОВО <i>tovó</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
<b>Acc</b> (ANIM)	ТОВО <i>tovó</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
<b>Acc</b> (INAN)	ТО <i>tó</i>	ТИ <i>tí</i>
<b>D/I</b>	ТѢМ <i>těm</i>	ТѢМИ <i>těmi</i>
<b>Par</b>	ТОВО <i>tovó</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
<b>Loc</b>	ТОМ <i>tóm</i>	ТѢХ <i>těh</i>
<b>Lat</b>	ТО <i>tó</i>	ТИ <i>tí</i>

These are then followed immediately by a form of *цой/хой*. Note that if these pronouns are supposed to appear in the nominative (which they most frequently are), they appear as *це ce* or *ко ko*, respectively, because the (historical) *-to-* element in them drops. The two halves of the relativizer are written as one word, hyphenated: *ТѢХ-КО* *těh-ko* “those.GEN-who.NOM”.



# 9 Names



## Їмѣни

As in other Slavic cultures, an individual's name consists of three parts: a given name, a patronymic, and a family name.

### 9.1 Given Names

#### 9.1.1 Common Given Names

The given name (Novegradian ѥмѣно *jměno*) is given to a child at birth. Native Novegradian names are either of pre-Christian or Biblical origin.

Some common Biblical and Christian names include the following, along with their English cognate:

• Александре <i>Aleksandre</i>	♂	(Alexander)
• Ана <i>Ana</i>	♀	(Anna)
• Андрее <i>Andréie</i>	♂	(Andrew)
• Еване <i>Ieváne</i>	♂	(John)
• Екатерина <i>Iekaterína</i>	♀	(Catherine)
• Елена <i>Ieléna</i>	♀	(Helen)
• Ерина <i>Ierína</i>	♀	(Irene)
• Ёрие <i>Iórije</i>	♂	(George)
• Константине <i>Konstantíne</i>	♂	(Constantine)
• Маря <i>Mária</i>	♀	(Mary)
• Марке <i>Márke</i>	♂	(Mark)
• Михаиле <i>Mihajíle</i>	♂	(Michael)
• Надаля <i>Nadália</i>	♀	(Natalie)
• Николае <i>Nikoláie</i>	♂	(Nicholas)
• Павиле <i>Pávile</i>	♂	(Paul)
• Петре <i>Pétre</i>	♂	(Peter)

- Соя *Sóvia* ♀ (Sophia)
- Татьяна *Tatiana* ♀ (n/a)
- Сергей *Sérgie* ♂ (Serge)



Name	Diminutive	Name	Diminutive
Александре <i>Aleksándre</i>	Саша <i>Sáša</i>	Веховладе <i>Věhovlade</i>	Веша <i>Věša</i>
Ана <i>Ána</i>	Аня <i>Ánia</i>	Владимире <i>Vladímire</i>	Владя <i>Vládia</i>
Еване <i>Ieváne</i>	Ваня <i>Vánia</i>	Вѣра <i>Věra</i>	(none)
Екатерина <i>Iekaterína</i>	Катя <i>Kátia</i>	Крежимире <i>Krežítmire</i>	Креша <i>Krěša</i>
Елена <i>Ieléna</i>	Лена <i>Léna</i>	Мециславе <i>Mecisláve</i>	Меця <i>Mécia</i>
Ерина <i>Ierína</i>	Ера <i>Iéra</i>	Невида <i>Névida</i>	Нива <i>Níva</i>
Їрие <i>Iórije</i>	Оржа <i>Órža</i>	Нина <i>Nína</i>	Нинка <i>Nínka</i>
Константине <i>Konstantíne</i>	Костя <i>Kóstia</i>	Радя <i>Rádia</i>	Ражка <i>Rážka</i>
Маря <i>Mária</i>	Маша <i>Máša</i>	Ростиславе <i>Rostisláve</i>	Роша <i>Róša</i>
Марке <i>Márke</i>	Марике <i>Maríke</i>	Станимире <i>Stanimíre</i>	Станя <i>Stánia</i>
Михаиле <i>Mihajíle</i>	Миша <i>Míša</i>	Ярина <i>Iarína</i>	Рина <i>Rína</i>
Надаля <i>Nadália</i>	Надаша <i>Nadáša</i>	Ярославе <i>Iarosláve</i>	Яреша <i>Iaréša</i>
Николас <i>Nikoláie</i>	Коля <i>Kólia</i>		
Павиле <i>Pávile</i>	Паша <i>Páša</i>		
Петре <i>Pétre</i>	Петя <i>Pétia</i>		
Совя <i>Sóvia</i>	Соука <i>Sóuka</i>		
Татяна <i>Tatíana</i>	Таня <i>Tánia</i>		
Шергее <i>Šergéie</i>	Шержа <i>Šérža</i>		

Hypocoristic diminutives are generally used between people who have an intimate relationship, including a husband and wife, boyfriend and girlfriend, and parent and child. For male names, these are usually formed by adding *-ka*, *-ocka*, *-oska*, or *-oška* to the common diminutive form (or full given name if one does exist). For women, the most common suffixes are *-enka*, *-enocka*, *-enoska*, and *-enoška*, also added to the common diminutive or full given name, although if the common diminutive is formed by *-ka*, the full name must be used as a base: Нина *Nina* → Ниненка *Ninenka*, not \*Ninkenka. These processes are more productive, with intimate diminutives existing even for foreign names so long as they are in accordance with Novegradian phonotactics. Examples: Ванюшка *Vānoška* “Ieváne”, Надашенка *Nadāšenka* “Nadália”, Мецоска *Mécoska* “Mecisláve”, Раденошка *Radénoška* “Rádía”.

The endings *-ше -še* and *-иле -ile* (feminine *-ша -ša* and *-ила -ila*), generally added to a clipped form of the regular given name, fall somewhere in between the personal diminutives and hypocoristics. The latter suffix originated as a generalization of the perceived suffix *-иле* in many names of Greek origin (Михаиле *Mihajile*, Данииле *Danijile*, Кириле *Kirile*, Гаврииле *Gavrijile*, etc.). Examples: Еваше *Ieváše* “Ieváne”, Яроше *Iaróše* “Iarosláve”, Мециле *Mecile* “Mecisláve”, Марила *Marila* “Mária”, Татяша *Tatiáša* “Tatiána”, and so on.

The pejorative is the opposite of all the above, expressing some disdain and distance from a person. Pejoratives exist only for names viewed as Novegradian, or at least Slavic, and not for foreign names. The most common suffixes are *-ulia* and *-ubia*, added to the common diminutive base, or the full given name if there is no common diminutive or it ends in *-ka*. Examples: Вануля *Vanúlia* “Ieváne”, Петрухя *Petrúhia* “Pétre”, Тануля *Tanúlia* “Tatiána”, Радухя *Radúhia* “Rádía”.

### 9.1.3 Variants

Many of the Christian names have a number of common variant forms, generally of dialectal or Church Slavonic origin.

When many names of Greek Christian origin were introduced into Novegradian, a number of variations were introduced into common speech as people were first introduced to these new names. In particular, unstressed initial vowels are prone to loss or change. Sometimes they drop completely, as in Катерина *Katerína* from Екатерина *Iekaterína*. The initial vowels /a (j)е/ also frequently change to /o/: Ондрее *Ondréie* (from Андрее *Andréie*), Олександре *Oleksándre* (from Александре *Aleksándre*), Олена *Oléna* (from Елена *Ieléna*). There are also occasionally alternations between final *-ije* and *-eie*: Алексее *Alékseie* (from Алексие *Aléksiije*), Андрие *Andríje* (from Андрее *Andréie*).

Sometimes larger clusters of consonants are simplified: Костантине *Kostantíne* (from Константие *Konstantíne*; note the diminutive Костя *Kóstia*), Александре *Aleksánde* (from Александре *Aleksánde*).

Pre-Christian names ending in *-ve* may alternate with a diphthong in *-u*: Мецислау *Mecisláu* (from Мециславе *Mecisláve*), Ростислау *Rostisláu* (from Ростиславе *Rostisláve*).

Since the 16<sup>th</sup> century, many of the Church Slavonic forms of names have been reintroduced alongside older Novegradian pronunciations. Thus it is not uncommon to see Иване *Iváne* alongside Еване *Ieváne*, Наталя *Natália* alongside Надаля *Nadália*, and Юрие *Iúrije* (or rarely Гёргие *Giórgije*) alongside Ёрие *Iórije*.

Some Christian names ending in *-иле -íle* also exist in Novegradian without it, the result of its reanalysis as a diminutive suffix: Миха *Miha* (from Михаиле *Mihajíle*), Кире *Kíre* (from Кириле *Kiríle*), Дание *Dánije* (from Данииле *Danijíle*).

Most of the above variants are still widely used, though certain forms may be more common in some regions than in others. Only the simplifications of clusters as in *Kostantíne* and *Aleksánde* are undeniably dying out, increasingly being viewed as an uneducated pronunciation.

### 9.3 Patronymics

The Novegradian patronymic (оцино *ócino*) is derived from the name of one's father, and is frequently used in place of the last name when addressing someone. The suffix *-овице -óvice* is used for men, and *-оуна -óuna* for women. A man whose father's name was Петре *Pétre* therefore would have the patronymic Петровице *Petróvice*, and a woman would have the patronymic Петроуна *Petróuna*. In some parts of the country, especially in the north, the masculine patronymic ending is instead *-овуце -ovuce*, *-оуце -ouce*, or rarely, *-оце -oce*, and the feminine ending may occasionally be *-онна -onna* or rarely *-она -ona*. Variants of all these forms with /e/ in place of /o/ are not infrequent.

### 9.4 Surnames

Surnames (Novegradian *вамиля vamília*) in Novegradian are adjectives, and decline to agree with the person bearing the name. They are generally derived from names, places, qualities, or things by means of four main suffixes: *-оу*, *-ине*, *-аре*, and *-ей*.

-Ей *-ei* (feminine form *-ая -aia*) is only found on true adjectives, generally a physical characteristic or place name. These types of surnames date back from before all surnames were inherited, and were often used to distinguish two people in a small town who had the same given names. Examples include Новей *Nóvei* “New”, Старей *Stárei* “Elder”, Черней *Cérnei* “Dark”, Мудрей *Múdrei* “Wise”. When combined with the *-ск-* suffix, these can also be geographic references: Прусскей *Prússkei* “Prussian”, Сумескей *Súmeskei* “Finnish”, Сизолескей *Sizóleskei* “from the Sizóla (Sysola) River”. Despite the nominative case forms looking like definite adjectives, in all other cases they decline as indefinite.

-Оу *-ou* (feminine form *-ова -ova*) comes from the old genitive ending, and is probably the most common Novegradian surname suffix. It was originally used to indicate one’s origin or ancestry: Цахоу *Cáhou* “Czech”, Рысоу *Rúsou* “Russian”, Петроу *Pétrou* “[son of] Peter”, Московоу *Moskóvou* “Muscovite”. The ending *-слау -slau* “glory”, originally only for given names, may also be seen in surnames: Богеслау *Bógeslau* “glory of God”. When declined, the final /u/ becomes a /β/ in all oblique forms. The variant *-еу -eu* (feminine *-ева -eva*) is also very common.

-Ине *-ine* (feminine form *-ина -ina*) is the conflation of two different suffixes—the Slavic *-ине -ine* and the Finnish *-ен -en*. Both Slavic and Uralic roots will therefore often be seen with this suffix: Рѣкине *Rěkine* “[from the] River”, Лѣтине *Lětine* “[from the] South”, Маркунине *Markúnine* “[son of] Markus”.

-Аре *-are* (feminine form *-ара -ara*), sometimes seen in the iotated form *-яре/-яра*, was often used to indicate a profession: Каляре *Kaliáre* “Fisher”, Тегаре *Tegáre* “Weaver”, Сельаре *Seláre* “Farmer”.

Due to the great variety of cultures the Novegradians have historically been in contact with and the cultures currently within Novegrad, many names consist of a foreign root plus a Novegradian suffix. Naturally, it is often much harder to identify the origins of these sorts of names.

Surnames agree in gender with the person bearing the name. When a woman marries a man, she takes the feminine form of her husband’s name. Other than those names ending in *-ей/-ая*, these surnames are all declined as fourth declension (masculine) or first declension (feminine) nouns.

## 9.5 Foreign Names

Since native Novegradian surnames are adjectives, or at the very least possess strong adjectival qualities, all parts of a name must decline to the appropriate case in a given sentence: Яс повастале Лева Прококова *Iás povástale Léva Prokórova* “I met Léve Prokórou”.

By analogy with this pattern, foreign names must do the same, even though non-Novegradian last names are usually not adjectives: Яс повастале Ўинстона Чурчила *Iás povástale Wínstona Čúrčila* “I met Winston Churchill”. This only applies when the end of the name conforms to Novegradian morphology; otherwise it is indeclinable.



# Derivational Morphology

Словотворческая  
морфология

Derivational morphology is a very important class of word-formation dealing with the actual process of creating new lexical items. Whereas most of the morphology thus far discussed concerns taking existing words and modifying them by adding affixes to a stem, derivational morphology describes where these stems come from in the first place.

Throughout this section, affixes and other processes will be described as being either *productive* or *unproductive*. Productive processes are those which are still actively at work in the language, that could potentially be applied to many new roots and all speakers would immediately understand the novel meaning of the result. One of the most productive derivational affixes in modern English is -ness, which serves to nominalize an adjective. An unproductive process was likely once able to generate new words, but no longer can; it merely appears as a relic on a number of words, often with a somewhat unclear distribution across words and function. An English example might be -end, seen in words such as “reverend” and “dividend”, but which is virtually useless in terms of coining new expressions.

## 10.1 Sources of New Words

### 10.1.1 Creation

The most basic method of word creation is to create a new root from scratch. This is also one of the rarest methods, because new words are rarely made up without any prior base except for onomatopoeia: жиге *žíže* “buzz”, яве *iáve* “woof”. These can then be put through the same internal derivation processes any other roots can, yielding related forms such as жижати *žizáti* “buzz” and явати *iávati*

“yap, chatter”.

If the onomatopoeia happens to have an appropriate phonetic structure, part of the word can be reanalyzed as an ending, the most common examples being found in nursery words: *мама máma* “mother” and *тата táta* “father”, both of which have been reanalyzed as first declension nouns with the roots \**мам-* and \**тат-*.

### 10.1.2 Borrowing

As the speakers of Novegradian travelled and came in contact with speakers of other languages, they frequently borrowed commonly-used vocabulary, technical terminology, local names for unknown items and new inventions, and local idioms. Some of the primary sources for new loans include Russian, Finnish, Komi, Swedish, French, German, and English.

#### 10.1.2.1 Russian and Other Slavic Languages

Of all the Slavic languages, Novegradian has had the most contact with Russian, and Russian still has significant usage in some parts of the Republic of Novegrad. When couplets appear, the Russian one usually has become more specialized in meaning, although it is not necessarily any more or less formal than the Novegradian equivalent. Common patterns in Russian loans is the pattern *CoroC/ColoC/CereC/CeleC* (where C represents any consonant) where Novegradian has *CraC/ClaC/CreC/CleC*, the use of *Ě* and *E* where Novegradian has *E* and *Ě* respectively, and the presence of historical palatalized consonants where Novegradian has none.

Novegradian	Meaning	Russian Loan	Meaning
граде <i>gráde</i>	city	городе <i>górode</i>	downtown
куѣте <i>kuěte</i>	color	цете <i>cuéte</i>	tint, shade
гуѣзда <i>guězda</i>	star	зезда <i>zuezdá</i>	celebrity
плайкѣи <i>pláikji</i>	cry	плакати <i>plákati</i>	mourn
злате <i>zláte</i>	golden	золоте <i>zólote</i>	richly-decorated
брѣге <i>brěge</i>	beach	береге <i>bérege</i>	shore
кониге <i>kónige</i>	king	кенияжи <i>keniázi</i>	prince

Loans from other languages sometimes pass through Russian first. This is especially true of Church Slavonic, which Russian borrowed many religious terms from which were then in turn borrowed by Novegradian: воскресати *voskrezáti*



“resurrect”, соборе *sobóre* “cathedral”, Пасха *Pashá* “Pascha (Easter)”, вечерня *večérnia* “vespers”, иконостасе *ikonostáse* “ikonostasis”.

### 10.1.2.2 The Uralic and Baltic Languages

As the Republic expanded, many speakers of local languages came under the rule of Novegrad and began an exchange of vocabulary. The primary contributors to Novegradian vocabulary have been Finnish, Karelian, and Komi, with more limited influence from Nenets, Saami, Estonian, Lithuanian, and Latvian.

The types of words borrowed tend to vary widely. From Karelian and Komi came a number of terms relating to hunting, fishing, and high-latitude forces, as well as many terms for natural phenomena. From Finnish came some of the same, as well as many terms for animals, plants, and nautical terminology. The Baltic languages were the source of some terms dealing with trade. In more recent years Komi and Finnish have once again become major contributors to colloquial speech.

Komi Loans	
аття <i>attiá</i> “thanks”	баля <i>bália</i> “lamb”
вадя <i>vádía</i> “swamp”	сопе <i>dzóre</i> “crash, crackle”
куламе <i>kúlame</i> “net”	сортасе <i>sortáse</i> “kindling”
сутда <i>sutdá</i> “floor (of a house)”	травеше <i>travése</i> “useless labor”
це́ве <i>céve</i> “empty field, clearing”	ю́ва <i>iúva</i> “(drinking) water”
Finnish Loans	
вѣне <i>věne</i> “boat”	каля <i>kália</i> “fish”
коске <i>kóske</i> “rapids”	лейра <i>léira</i> “camp”
мурайшеке <i>muráíšeke</i> “cloudberry”	нѣда <i>něda</i> “marten”
пи́фоке <i>piǵóke</i> “sap”	са́рене <i>sárene</i> “shoal, sandbar”
ше́лга <i>śélga</i> “ridge”	ю́рке <i>iúrke</i> “vertical, plumb”

### 10.1.2.3 French, German, and Swedish

The majority of loans from Swedish, German, and French entered Novegradian after 1600AD, and largely consist of technical and scientific terminology, as well as other words for things common in the West. French functioned briefly as a prestige language among the nobility in Novegrad, but not as many loans entered everyday language as in Russian. However, other French and German loans did enter Novegradian by way of Russian, primarily in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries.

French Loans	
аваря <i>avária</i> “accident”	адресе <i>adrése</i> “address”
гараже <i>garáže</i> “garage”	демокрася <i>demokrásia</i> “democracy”
душе <i>dúše</i> “shower”	езампла <i>iezámpla</i> “example”
едаже <i>iedáže</i> “story (of a building)”	кавè <i>kavé</i> “café”
килограме <i>kilográme</i> “kilogram”	оранже <i>oránže</i> “orange (fruit)”
German Loans	
аутека <i>autéka</i> “pharmacy”	аутобусе <i>áutobuse</i> “bus”
генерале <i>generáte</i> “general”	идѣя <i>iděia</i> “idea”
милидаре <i>milidáre</i> “military”	ругзаке <i>rugzáke</i> “backpack”
солдате <i>sóldate</i> “soldier”	танцати <i>tancáti</i> “to dance”
турма <i>túrma</i> “tower”	универсидате <i>universidáte</i> “university”

### 10.1.2.4 English

English has been the primary source of loans in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, mostly having to do with technology, food, and modern conveniences.

English Loans	
вутбо̀ле <i>utbóle</i> “football”	еропорте <i>ieropórtē</i> “airport”
интѣрнете <i>intěrnéte</i> “internet”	ковѣ <i>kóve</i> “coffee”
командовати <i>komandováti</i> “to command”	компютре <i>kompíútře</i> “computer”
радиѣ <i>rádijo</i> “radio”	рекорде <i>rekórde</i> “record”
такси <i>táksi</i> “taxi”	телевоне <i>televóne</i> “telephone”

### 10.1.3 Calquing

Novegradians have long been proud of their language, and often have turned to calques or partial calques instead of loans when it is possible to decompose the foreign word. Many such cases have since become the only accepted forms and have outcompeted their original loaned counterparts, such as неборѣзе *neborěze* “skyscraper” or вуисопанти *vuisopánti* “highway”<sup>1</sup> (both English calques, where скайскрејпре *skaiskréipre* and хайвее *haivéie* have fallen into disuse). Others exist in free variation with the loan word, such as презуоне *prezuóne* “telephone” alongside телевоне *televóne*.

Doublets often form with terms of scientific studies, for example, where both a foreign and native word exist, although the latter does not necessarily have to be a calque of the first.

Native	Loaned	Meaning
лизиковѣдѣње <i>lizikověděnje</i>	лингвистике <i>linguístike</i>	linguistics
живовѣдѣње <i>živověděnje</i>	биѣлогия <i>bijológia</i>	biology
жемловѣдѣње <i>žemlověděnje</i>	геѣлогия <i>geiológia</i>	geology
вѣровѣдѣње <i>věrověděnje</i>	теѣлогия <i>teiológia</i>	theology

<sup>1</sup> Вуисопанти, in turn, is increasingly giving way to the fully native далица *dálnica*.

### 10.1.4 Internal Derivation

Finally, the last method of word creation involves using the complex derivational morphology present in Novegradian. This is the primary method of vocabulary expansion and the focus of the rest of this section.

## 10.2 Suffixial Derivation

### 10.2.1 Nominalization

#### 10.2.1.1 People from Nouns

Certain suffixes added to nouns indicate a person connected in some way to that noun, most often a resident (if a place) or a practitioner of a trade (if a noun connected to an occupation). These suffixes generally have both a masculine and feminine form, with the masculine one used for mixed or unknown groups.

The suffixes *-(e)це* *-(e)ce* (MASC) or *-(и)ца* *-(i)ca* (FEM) attached to a place name indicate someone from that place. This is most frequently used with city names and indefinite geographic terms, and less commonly with country and region names.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
Новеграде <i>Novegráde</i>	Novegrad (city)	→	новеградеце <i>novegrádece</i> новеградица <i>novegrádica</i>	Novegradian
Москва <i>Moskuá</i>	Moscow	→	москоуце <i>moskóuce</i> москоуца <i>moskóuca</i>	Muscovite
шѣвере <i>šěvere</i>	north	→	шѣверце <i>šěverce</i> шѣверца <i>šěverca</i>	northerner

With country and region names, the suffix *-ѣнине* *-ěnine* (with the irregular declension, as described earlier) is used. It is highly productive and causes mutation in the consonant before the suffix, if possible. If the stem ends in vowel + /j/,

however, the result can be unpredictable; sometimes another consonant will be inserted, and at other times the /j/ remains in place. All of these forms are epicene, meaning they can agree with either gender as appropriate without an overt morphological change.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
Новиграде <i>Novegráde</i>	Novegrad	→	новеграѓѣнине <i>novegragjěnine</i>	Novegradian
Норвугја <i>Noruégja</i>	Norway	→	норужѣнине <i>noruežěnine</i>	Norwegian
Англија <i>Ánglija</i>	England	→	англисѣнине <i>anglidzěnine</i>	English(man)

Adding -нике/-ника *-nike/-nika*, -аке/-ака *-ake/-aka*, -аре/-ара *-are/-ara*, or -цике/-цика *-cike/-cika* to a noun usually creates a practitioner of a trade related to the base.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
нига <i>níga</i>	book	→	нига̀ре/а <i>nigáre(a)</i>	bookkeeper
такси <i>táksi</i>	taxi	→	таксја̀ре/а <i>taksiáre(a)</i>	taxi driver
месо <i>méso</i>	meat	→	меснике/а <i>mésnike(a)</i>	butcher
политика <i>polítika</i>	politics	→	политнике/а <i>politnike(a)</i>	politician
море <i>móre</i>	sea	→	мора̀ке/а <i>moráke(a)</i>	sailor
трамва̀е <i>tramváie</i>	streetcar	→	трамва̀йцике/а <i>tramváicike(a)</i>	streetcar worker

The suffix -(е)це/-(и)ца *-(e)ce/-(i)ca* can also form professions from a tool.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
то̀боре <i>tobóre</i>	axe	→	то̀борце/а <i>tobórce(a)</i>	axeman
стрѣ̀ла <i>strělá</i>	arrow	→	стрѣ̀лце/а <i>strěľce(a)</i>	archer

A profession may be formed from a compound noun denoting some sort of field ending in the gerundive -нѣ *-nje* by simply dropping that ending. The feminine equivalent is formed by then adding -(и)ца.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
жѣмловѣдѣнѣ <i>žemlověděnje</i>	geology	→	жѣмловѣде <i>žemlověde</i> жѣмловѣдица <i>žemlovědica</i>	geologist
нигопизанѣ <i>nigopizanje</i>	bookwriting	→	нигописе <i>nigopise</i> нигописца <i>nigopisca</i>	bookwriter, author

The suffix -(и)ца *-(i)ca* may be used to form a feminine noun from a masculine noun with no feminine equivalent, usually foreign borrowings: ауторѣ *autóre* “author” → ауторца *autórca*.

Although not a native suffix, it should be noted that the agentive suffix -истѣ *-iste* forms its feminine counterpart with -иска *-iska*, the result of the simplification of an earlier \*ист-ка: артистѣ *artiste* “(male) artist” → артистка *artiska* “female artist”.

### 10.2.1.2 Nouns from Other Nouns

The suffixes -никѣ/-ника *-nike/-nika* can be used for inanimate objects as well, indicating something often used together with the base. -Никѣ is used when the base is masculine or neuter, and -ника if it is feminine.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
цаѣ <i>cáie</i>	tea	→	цайникѣ <i>cáinike</i>	teapot
соли <i>sóli</i>	salt	→	солника <i>sólnika</i>	salt shaker
гажѣта <i>gažéta</i>	newspaper	→	гажѣтника <i>gažétnika</i>	newspaper rack
бенжине <i>benžine</i>	gasoline	→	бенжинникѣ <i>benžínnike</i>	gas pump

The suffix -ина *-ina* has a singulative function, used to create singular nouns

from collective nouns or nouns that otherwise lack a singular. It is in origin the feminine counterpart to *-ине -ine*, as is seen in the *-ѣnine -ěnine* suffix denoting nationality described earlier. It is also used fairly productively to make singular nouns out of collectives with the *-ия -ija* suffix, though note the spelling.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
грахе <i>gráhe</i>	peas	→	грашина <i>grásina</i>	pea
луди <i>lúdi</i>	people	→	лудина <i>lúdina</i>	human being
грозне <i>grózne</i>	grapes	→	грозна <i>gróznina</i>	grape
бѣлия <i>bělijá</i>	sheets, linens	→	бѣлеина <i>běljina</i>	sheet, linen

The suffix *-(е)ство -(e)stvo* attached to a noun indicates “the state of being X” (cf. English *-hood*, *-ship*) or “the organization composed of X” (cf. *-dom*, *-ment*). If the noun ends in the agentive suffix *-ителе -ítele*, it is replaced by the suffix *-я -ia*. Mutations can occur.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
царе <i>cáre</i>	tsar	→	царство <i>cárestuo</i>	kingdom, tsar- dom
боѣ <i>bóže</i>	god	→	божество <i>bóžestuo</i>	godhood
правителе <i>pravítele</i>	ruler	→	правяство <i>práviastuo</i>	government

The suffixes *-ике -ike* (MASC), *-ка -ka* (FEM), and *-ко -ko* (NEUT) are in origin diminutives that have acquired a new, fixed meaning. They keep the gender of the noun they were derived from. Mutations frequently occur. In addition, with the feminine and neuter endings only, any /o/ in the preceding syllable shifts to /a/.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
граде <i>gráde</i>	city	→	градике <i>grádike</i>	town
велке <i>vélke</i>	wolf	→	велцике <i>vélcike</i>	wolf pup
гуѣзда <i>guězda</i>	star	→	гуѣжка <i>guěžka</i>	bright point of light
нига <i>níga</i>	book	→	нижка <i>nížka</i>	booklet
море <i>móre</i>	sea	→	марко <i>márko</i>	bay

Some nouns lack a true plural form, and instead form their “plurals” using the collective suffix *-ij-a*. In Old Novegradian these collectives were grammatically singular and neuter, though in modern Novegradian are plural. Small vowel alterations can be triggered due to stress changes, as in the case of *варле* “coal” below.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
листе <i>liste</i>	leaf	→	листя <i>listijá</i>	leaves, foliage
куѣте <i>kuěte</i>	flower, color	→	куѣтия <i>kuětijá</i>	flowers
дрѣво <i>drěvo</i>	tree, wood	→	дрѣвия <i>drěvijá</i>	timber, lumber
вагле <i>vágle</i>	[a] coal	→	вуглия <i>vuglijá</i>	coal
каме <i>káme</i>	stone	→	камния <i>kamnijá</i>	stones

Some nouns have both a true plural and a collective plural, with slightly different meanings. Compare, for instance, plural *листи* “pages, sheets of paper” and collective *листя* “leaves, foliage”.



Word	Meaning		Plural Sense	Collective Sense
листе <i>liste</i>	leaf	→	pages, sheets	leaves, foliage
куѣте <i>kuěte</i>	flower, color	→	colors	flowers
дрѣво <i>drěvo</i>	tree, wood	→	trees	timber, lumber
вагле <i>vágle</i>	[a] coal	→	[multiple] coals	coal
каме <i>káme</i>	stone	→	[multiple, count-able] stones	[uncountable] stones

The suffix *-iškja* added to fruits and vegetables mark a place where that fruit or vegetable is grown. It is limited to fruits well known in the Novegradian-speaking region for the last several hundred years; terms such as *ананасишкѣ* *ananásiškja* “pineapple plantation” tend to be ironic or playful. Seemingly irregular forms such as *яблонишкѣ* below actually derive from the name of the tree, rather than the name of the fruit (*яблонѣ* *iablónja* “apple tree”).

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
яблоко <i>iábloko</i>	apple	→	яблонишкѣ <i>iablóniškja</i>	apple orchard
грозне <i>grózne</i>	grapes	→	грознишкѣ <i>grózniškja</i>	vineyard
ягода <i>iágoda</i>	berry	→	ягодишкѣ <i>iágodiškja</i>	berry field

### 10.2.1.3 People from Adjectives

The suffixes *-(е)це* (MASC) and *-(и)ца* (FEM) are used to create words for people displaying the qualities of the base adjective.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
старе <i>stáre</i>	old	→	старце/а <i>stárce(a)</i>	old man/ woman
вайке <i>váike</i>	difficult, trying	→	вайкеце/ица <i>váikece(ica)</i>	difficult person
жолте <i>žólte</i>	yellow	→	жолтеце/ица <i>žóltece(ica)</i>	sickly person
вайгове <i>vaigóve</i>	strong	→	вайгоуце/а <i>vaigóuce(a)</i>	strong person

The pejorative suffixes *-oxe/-oxa -obe/-oha* and *-ухце/-уха -ubece/-uha* are frequently used instead on bases with a negative connotation.

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
старе <i>stáre</i>	old	→	старухце/уха <i>starúxce(uha)</i>	old coot
дурне <i>dúrne</i>	foolish	→	дурнохе/а <i>durnóxe(a)</i>	fool

#### 10.2.1.4 Nouns from Adjectives

There are a number of endings for deriving abstract nouns from adjectives, each relating in some way to what the adjective is describing. The ending *-ости/-ности -osti/-nosti* is default.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
бъле <i>běle</i>	white	→	бълости <i>bělosti</i>	whiteness
шилне <i>šílne</i>	strong-willed	→	шилности <i>šílnosti</i>	strength
красне <i>krásne</i>	beautiful	→	красности <i>krásnosti</i>	beauty

Note that when derived from an imperfective active participle, the participial ending *-къ-* becomes *-т-* (i.e., it depalatalizes) before the ending *-ности*: *самостоекъе samostoiěkje* “independent” (lit. “self-standing”) → *самостоетности samostoiétnosti* “independence”.

The suffix *-ота -ota* describes a physical aspect.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
вуисе <i>vuise</i>	high	→	вуизота <i>vuizóta</i>	height
(при)глубе <i>priglúbe</i>	deep	→	глубота <i>glubóta</i>	depth
преде <i>préme</i>	straight	→	примота <i>primóta</i>	straightness

The stressed ending -ия -*ijá* derives from an older collective form and means “a collection of things that are X” (or, less commonly, “thing that is X”, though it remains morphologically plural).

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
бѣле <i>běle</i>	white	→	бѣлия <i>bělijá</i>	whites, sheets
близе <i>blize</i>	close	→	близия <i>blizijá</i>	relatives
остре <i>óstre</i>	sharp	→	острия <i>ostrijá</i>	blade, cutting edge
страве <i>stráve</i>	healthy	→	стравия <i>stravijá</i>	health
богате <i>boǵáte</i>	wealthy	→	сбожия <i>sbožijá</i>	wealth

The last two of the above, страве and богате, use the collective suffix to form a simple nominalization. These are historically compounds, the former related to дръво “tree” and the latter to боге “God”.

The suffixes -(о)те -(*o*)*te* (MASC), -ата -*ata* (FEM), and -ото -*oto* (NEUTER) form nouns that display the quality of the adjective, both animate and inanimate. They are derived from the adjective modifying a declining form of the old demonstrative to “that” that have since been reanalyzed as regular nouns: красноте *krás-note* “handsome man”, красната *krásnata* “beautiful woman”.

### 10.2.1.5 People from Verbs

A person can be derived from a verb stem using the same sort of endings nouns use: -(е)це/-(и)ца and (less commonly) -апе/-ара, as well as the suffixes -теле/-делика -*tele/-délika* and the more colloquial -исе/-иска -*ise/-iska* (from Komi).

Word	Meaning		Person	Meaning
лeдѣти <i>leděti</i>	fly	→	лeдeцe/ицa <i>ledéce(ica)</i>	pilot
тopгaти <i>torgáti</i>	sell	→	тopгeцe/ицa <i>torgéce(ica)</i>	trader
кoвaти <i>kóvati</i>	forge	→	кoвaрe/a <i>kováre(a)</i>	blacksmith
oсити <i>odzíti</i>	teach	→	oситeлe/дeликa <i>odzítele(délika)</i>	teacher
пизaти <i>pizáti</i>	write	→	пизaтeлe/дeликa <i>pizátele(délika)</i>	writer
пити <i>píti</i>	drink	→	пивисe/кa <i>pivíse(ka)</i>	frequent drinker (sl.)

### 10.2.1.6 Nouns from Verbs

Using a verb stem alone, with no ending, creates a noun associated with the verb, although the sense of the nominalization varies dramatically from verb to verb. Both perfective and imperfective verbs may be used.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
вoхoдити <i>vohodíti</i>	go in, enter	→	вoхoдe <i>vóhode</i>	entrance
видѣти <i>viděti</i>	see	→	видe <i>vide</i>	view
овидѣти <i>oviděti</i>	see (PF)	→	овидe <i>óvide</i>	glance
вoжити <i>vožíti</i>	transport	→	вoзe <i>vóze</i>	automobile, car

There is a tendency, though not an absolute one, to stress any verbal prefixes, such as *o-* and *vo-* above.

Resultatives are generally formed the same way, although can only be formed from perfective verbs. The endings theme vowel + *-нъe -nje* or *-ни -ni* will sometimes be seen for collective resultatives, but are no longer productive.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
напизати <i>napizáti</i>	write (PF)	→	написе <i>nápise</i>	letter, note
поискати <i>poiskáti</i>	search (PF)	→	поиске <i>pójiske</i>	search
содати <i>sodáti</i>	give (PF)	→	содани <i>sódani</i>	tribute

A few nominalizations are simply irregular: любити *lubíti* “love” → любова *lubóva* “love”<sup>2</sup>, пѣти *pěti* → пѣшне *pěšne* “song”<sup>3</sup>, жити *žiti* “live” → житени *žiteni* “life”<sup>4</sup>.

There are many suffixes used for turning a verb into an abstract noun. The most common is the gerundive -нѣ *-nje* (formed identically to the perfective participle, but with -нѣ- instead of -н-). Less common are -а *-a* and -ба *-ba*.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
цидати <i>cidáti</i>	read	→	циданѣ <i>cidánje</i>	reading
рѣсати <i>rědzíti</i>	say, read aloud	→	рѣсенѣ <i>rědzénje</i>	[faculty of] speech
видѣти <i>viděti</i>	see	→	виденѣ <i>vidénje</i>	[sense of] vision
вѣсти <i>věsti</i>	know	→	вѣденѣ <i>vědénje</i>	knowledge
бѣгати <i>běgati</i>	run	→	бѣга <i>běgá</i>	running, flight
традити <i>tradíti</i>	lose	→	трада <i>tradá</i>	loss
служити <i>služíti</i>	serve	→	служба <i>slúžba</i>	service

2 CS \*ljuby, a ū-stem noun that for some reason underwent an irregular evolution in Novegradian

3 CS \*pěsnъ, consisting of a suffix \*-snъ that had already ceased to be productive before the Common Slavic period.

4 Unclear. CS forms \*žitъje and \*žiznъ are reconstructed; житени almost appears to be a cross between these two, but this is unlikely. The most common explanation is that this derives from an extended Pre-Old Novegradian form \*žizъnъ that underwent dissimilation, perhaps influenced by forms such as the previously-mentioned \*žitъje. If this is the case, then житени originally had the same derivational suffix as пѣшне above.

Verbs that form their perfective participles with -т- rather than -н- form gerundives with -къ- instead of -нь-: *накрити nakriti* “serve (a meal)” → *накрикъе nakrikje* “course (of a meal)”.

The suffix -ти -*ti* is a non-productive nominalizer historically related to the infinitive ending. Such nouns are often similar to or identical to the infinitives of the verbs from which they are derived. Verbs whose roots end in /k g/ take the suffix -къи -*kji* as in the infinitive, but without the preceding glide.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
вѣсти <i>věsti</i>	know	→	вѣсти <i>věsti</i>	piece of news
владѣти <i>vladěti</i>	own, control	→	власти <i>vlásti</i>	authority, rule
мерети <i>merěti</i>	die	→	сморти <i>smórti</i>	death
пейкъи <i>pěikji</i>	bake	→	пекъи <i>pékji</i>	oven
помойкъи <i>pomóikji</i>	help	→	помокъи <i>pómokji</i>	help, assistance

The endings -оке -*oke*, -гло -*glo*, and -ане -*áne* turn a verb into some sort of tool or instrument used to perform that action. -Ане -*áne* also frequently derives nouns from other nouns.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
рѣзати <i>rězáti</i>	cut	→	рѣзоке <i>rězóke</i>	saw, blade
правити <i>práviti</i>	govern, rule	→	правигло <i>práviglo</i>	rule
муити <i>muíti</i>	wash	→	муигло <i>muíglo</i>	soap
пити <i>píti</i>	drink	→	пиване <i>piváne</i>	drinking glass
юва <i>iúva</i>	drinking water	→	юване <i>iuváne</i>	water bottle

The endings -иша -*iša* and -ишкъе -*iškje* (NEUT) mark the location where something takes place. The latter is limited to open spaces, but less common and not

predictable.

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
класти <i>klásti</i>	bury	→	кладиша <i>kládiša</i>	cemetery, grave-yard
вуйслати <i>vuisláti</i>	send forth	→	вуйсланиша <i>vuislániša</i>	embassy
ледѣти <i>leděti</i>	fly	→	ледиша <i>lédiša</i>	airfield
еграти <i>iegráti</i>	play	→	егришкѣ <i>iegríškje</i>	playground

The suffix *-лнѣ* *-lnja*, added to the past-tense stem of a verb, is similar to the above, but most commonly derives names of rooms. If the past tense is irregular, generally this form will be irregular as well (cf. *ѣдалнѣ* below, past tense *ѣглѣ*).

Word	Meaning		Noun	Meaning
кубати <i>kubáti</i>	bathe	→	кубалнѣ <i>kubálnja</i>	bathroom
спати <i>spáti</i>	sleep	→	спалнѣ <i>spálnja</i>	bedroom
(за)цегати <i>zacegáti</i>	wait for	→	цегалнѣ <i>cegálnja</i>	waiting room
ѣсти <i>iěsti</i>	eat	→	ѣдалнѣ <i>iědálnja</i>	dining room

### 10.2.1.7 Nouns from Phrases

The suffix *-ка* *-ka* is sometimes used to turn common multi-word expressions into a single noun. Such nouns tend to appear in the plural. Sometimes they are also limited to set expressions, as in the case of the second example below.

Phrase	Meaning		Noun/Idiom	Meaning
не вѣм <i>ne věm</i>	I don't know	→	невѣмки <i>nevěmki</i>	I-don't-knows
о мене <i>o mené</i>	I have	→	нет в оменекѣх <i>nét v omeněkh</i>	not on some-one, not in someone's possession

### 10.2.1.8 Diminutives and Pejoratives

Diminutives in Novegradian, as in other Slavic languages, are used very frequently. However, their formation can be quite complicated.

The most basic suffixes are *-ике* (*-ike* (MASC)), *-ка* (*-ka* (FEM)), and *-ко* (*-ko* (NEUT)), preserving the original gender of the noun. These cause palatalization of the last consonant of the stem if it ends in a velar consonant, or lenition if it otherwise ends in a plosive. If the vowel preceding the feminine or neuter endings is /o/, it becomes /a/ in the diminutive.

However, there are many alternative forms, to the point that any word can have multiple diminutive forms, sometimes even five or more. Frequent variants include doubling (*-ишике*, *-ишка*, *-ишко* *-išike*, *-iška*, *-iško*) or ventripling (*-ишицке*, *-ишицка*, *-ишицко* *-išiceke*, *-išicka*, *-išicko*), an /n/ suffix (*-ене*, *-ена*, *-ено* *-ene*, *-ena*, *-eno*), an /sʲ/ (*-еше*, *-еша*, *-ешо* *-eše*, *-eša*, *-ešo*), other vowel variants (*-еке*, *-оке* *-eke*, *-oke*), and numerous combinations of the above.

Pejoratives are easier to form, though still are not entirely regular. They are created using the suffixes *-охе/-оха* *-ohe/-oha*, *-ахе/-аха* *-ahe/-aha*, and *-ухе/-уха* *-uhe/-uha*. The suffixes do not correspond to gender. When used with a noun that ends in *-(е)це/-(и)ца*, however, the pejorative must be placed before these agentive suffixes.

Note that these forms are distinct from those used for personal names, although there is some overlap.

### 10.2.1.9 Foreign Suffixes

A number of foreign suffixes from Western European languages have entered Novegradian starting from around the 18<sup>th</sup> century, and have gained varying levels of productivity.

The most productive foreign suffix is *-аця* *-acia* or *-ася* *-asia*, equivalent to English *-tion*. The former was the original form (borrowed from German or Polish) and the latter a later one (borrowed from Swedish and perhaps influenced by French), though colloquially more and more nouns in *-аця* are switching to *-ася*, which better fits Novegradian phonotactics. Along with *-аця* is *-изме* *-izme*, equivalent to English *-ism*.

Less common suffixes include the agentives *-исте* *-iste* (cf. English *-ist*), *-оре* *-ore* (cf. English *-or*), *-аре* *-are* (cf. English *-arian*), and *-аже* *-aže* (cf. English *-age*, from French).



Suffix	Example	Meaning
-ация <i>-acia</i>	станция <i>stácia</i>	station
-ация <i>-asia</i>	информация <i>invormásia</i>	information
-изме <i>-izme</i>	коммунизм <i>komunízme</i>	communism
-исте <i>-iste</i>	юрист <i>iuriste</i>	lawyer
-оре <i>-ore</i>	император <i>iempirátore</i>	emperor
-аре <i>-are</i>	ветеринар <i>veterináre</i>	veterinarian
-аже <i>-aže</i>	персонаж <i>personáže</i>	personage, character

## 10.2.2 Adjectivalization

### 10.2.2.1 Adjectives from Nouns

The two most common adjective types in Novegradian are those formed with the *-н*- *-n*- suffix and those formed with the *-ск*- *-sk*- suffix.

*H*-suffix forms are usually relative (non-comparable), but can frequently be qualitative (comparable) as well. They generally mean ‘possessing the qualities of *X*’. This and other suffixes are added to the noun stem, adding an epenthetic vowel if needed, and then declined with normal adjective endings. The last consonant of the root is prone to mutation if it is a velar consonant.

Word	Meaning		Adjective	Meaning
вѣлке <i>vélke</i>	wolf	→	вѣлцене <i>vélcene</i>	lupine
дрѣво <i>drěvo</i>	tree, wood	→	дрѣвне <i>drěvne</i>	wooden
бо҃ге <i>bóḡe</i>	god	→	бо҃жне <i>bóžne</i>	god(like)
граде <i>gráde</i>	city	→	градне <i>grádne</i>	urban
стаље <i>stále</i>	steel	→	стаљне <i>státne</i>	steel
ноќѣ <i>nókji</i>	night	→	ноќне <i>nókne</i>	night(time), nocturnal

The behavior of root-final /c/ before the adjectival -н- is somewhat complex. If it derives from an historical \*kt, it becomes /k/: ноќѣ *nókji* “night” (Common Slavic \*nokъ) → ноќне *nókne* “night(time)”. If it derives from an historical \*tj, it becomes /t/: тишиќѣ *tíšikja* “thousand” (Common Slavic \*tysętja) → тишитне *tíšitne* “thousandth”. Root-final /ʃ/ always becomes /d/ since it always falls into this second class. The palatal fricatives /ç/ and /j/ are unaffected, however.

Ск-suffix forms are almost always relative, and are used most often to turn a place name into an adjective. This is the most productive form of adjective derivation.

Word	Meaning		Adjective	Meaning
Новѣграде <i>Novegráde</i>	Novegrad	→	новеградеске <i>novegrádeske</i>	Novegradian
Германѣ <i>Germánia</i>	Germany	→	германеске <i>germánéske</i>	German
Кидае <i>Kidáie</i>	China	→	кидајске <i>kidáiske</i>	Chinese
Англиѣ <i>Ánglija</i>	England	→	англијске <i>anglijske</i>	English
Нева <i>Nevá</i>	Nevá (river)	→	неуске <i>néuske</i>	of the Nevá

The definite suffixes -ске/-skoie/-skaia are often used in place names.

It is not always predictable what will happen to the final consonant or vowel of

a noun when the *-ck-* suffix is added. This is highly dependent on both the ending of the noun and when the adjective form first appeared in the language.

For first declension nouns, there are two options. Most commonly, /e/ is inserted between the root and the suffix, with no palatalization: Во́лга *Vólga* “Volga” → во́лгеске *vólgeske*. Many other nouns, however, use the older suffix *-ine-*, again with no palatalization: Ви́шера *Višera* “Višera” → ви́шеринеске *višeríneske*. This form is most common for adjectivalizing local place names. For this reason, over-use of *-ine-* tends to sound “rustic”.

Second declension nouns, however, almost universally use *-ine-*: Ва́рґя *Vágria* “Hungary” → оґринеске *ogríneske*. Apparent exceptions, such as сумеске *súmeske* for “Finnish” when “Finland” is Сума́ *Súmia*, are usually not directly related. In this case, the example is derived from an older name for Finland, Суме́ *Súme*.

Third and fourth declension nouns can basically be divided into three phases, based on when the adjective first came into use. The oldest words (roughly prior to 1100AD) generally add /e/ to the root and show no palatalization: Но́вґраде *Novegráde* “Novegrad” → но́вґрадеске *novegrádeske*. Middle period nouns (roughly 1100 to 1800) use the /e/ suffix as well, but the root ends in /t d k g x/, they will generally palatalize: Ца́хя *Cábia* “Czech [Republic]” → ца́шеске *cášeske*. This is largely due to Russian and Church Slavonic influence. New period nouns (roughly post 1800) have returned to the original system of /e/ without palatalization: Ира́ке *Iráke* “Iraq” → ира́кеске *irákeske*.

Fifth declension nouns almost always use the /e/ suffix without palatalization: До́ни *Dóni* “Denmark” → до́неске *dóneske*. However, sometimes the connecting suffix is /i/, but this is rare and usually a regionalism.

There are no sixth declension nouns that take the *-ck-* suffix.

However, there are certain root-final consonants that trigger exceptions to the above rules, no matter the declension of the noun:

- /j/: Roots ending in /j/ have no connecting morpheme between the root and the *-ck-* suffix: Кида́е *Kidáie* “China” → кида́йске *kidáiske*.
- /ij/: Roots ending in /ij/ follow the same rule as above, but orthographic *-ий-* is usually just pronounced /i/ (or colloquially, /aj/): А́нґли́я *Ánglija* → а́нґли́йске *anglíjske*.
- /β/: Root-final /β/ almost always reduces to /w/ with no connecting morpheme: Не́ва *Nevá* → не́уске *néuske*.
- /s/: Roots ending in /s/ generally have no connecting morpheme. Orthographic *-cc-* is pronounced simply as /s/: Пру́ся *Prúsia* “Prussia” → прус́ске *prússke*. There is some variation here, however: second declension nouns whose roots end in /s/ sometimes may still take *-ine-* (and пружинеске *pruzíneske* for “Prussian” may be seen in a number of place

names).

A small set of nouns can take an adjective ending without any suffix (e.g., *злато* *zláto* “gold” → *злате* *zláte* “golden”), but this is relatively uncommon unless there is some sort of prefix involved as well.

The endings *-ов-* *-ov-* and *-оу-н-* *-oun-*, derived from the old genitive ending still seen in the partitive plural, form relative/non-comparable adjectives (cf. English *-ic*, *-al*). Note that fourth declension bases will generally take *-ев-* *-ev-* and *-еу-н-* *-eun-* instead.

*-ив-* *-iv-* forms qualitative adjectives, and carries roughly the same meaning as English *-ful*. *-аь-н-* *-aln-* (from English *-al*) is generally only found in loanwords. *-ице-ск-* *-icesk-* and the reduced form *-е-ск-* *-esk-* are used when the root ends in /s z ts dz/ derive from a combination of English *-ic* with the Slavic *-sk-*, but have since spread to almost any abstract noun ending in *-(и)я* by analogy, even if the English equivalent never had *-ic* (e.g., “information” below).

Word	Meaning		Adjective	Meaning
лизике <i>lizike</i>	language	→	лизикеве <i>lizikeve</i>	linguistic
небесо <i>nébeso</i>	sky	→	небезоуне <i>nebezóune</i>	celestial
вѣра <i>věra</i>	faith	→	вѣриве <i>věrive</i>	faithful
сцестия <i>scestijá</i>	luck	→	сцестиве <i>scéstive</i>	lucky
центре <i>céntré</i>	center	→	центраьне <i>centrátné</i>	central
хедерася <i>hederásia</i>	federation	→	хедераьне <i>hederátne</i>	federal
исторя <i>istória</i>	history	→	историцеске <i>istoríceske</i>	historical
инвормася <i>invormásia</i>	information	→	инвормасеске <i>invormáseske</i>	informational

The suffix *-ив-* *-iv-* is also used productively to derive adjectives from abstract nominals that end in *-ости*: *милости* *milosti* “mercy” → *милостиве* *milóstive* “merciful, gracious”.

The suffix *-ист-* *-íst-* means “full of”, but more literally than *-ив-*. It is somewhat literary, however, having been more or less completely replaced by the prefix

много- *mного-*, described later: *ropa góra* “mountain” → *гористе goríste* “mountainous”.

The suffixes *-at-* *-át-* and *-ovit-* *-ovít-* are a non-productive means of making adjectives out of concrete nominals. They are only found on a handful of words, such as *poro róge* “horn” → *porate rogáte* “horned”, or *плоде plóde* “fruit, offspring” → *плодовите plodovíte* “fruitful, currently producing a great quantity of fruit”.

The suffix *-оват-* *-ovát-* weakens an adjective, meaning “rather X” or “X-ish”: *шинье šínje* “blue” → *шиньовате šinjováte* “bluish”.

The suffix *-осн-* *-osn-*, of Komi origin, means “covered/coated/spattered with X”: *крев krév* “blood” → *кревосне krevósne* “blood-spattered”, *црвене cěrvene* “red” → *црвеносне cervenósne* “spotty red”.

The suffix *-ѣн-* *-ěn-* means “made of”, and is attached to bases of various materials: *лене léne* “flax” → *ленѣне léněne* “linen”, *мѣди mědi* “copper (NOUN)” → *мѣдѣне měděne* “copper (ADJ)”.

The suffix *-ушн-* *-ušn-* is a pejorative, forming adjectives with negative connotations from nouns. It is historically related to the nominal pejorative suffix *-yx-*, but can be applied to nouns that never take this suffix as well: *клапе klápe* “boy” → *клапушне klapúšne* “boyish”, *дѣвушка děvuška* “girl” → *дѣвушне děvúšne* “girlish”, *старце stárce* “old man” → *старушне starúšne* “senile”, *суинья suinja* “wild pig” → *суиньушне suinjúšne* “piggish”.

The prefix *бес-* *bes-* means “without”, much like the English suffix *-less*. Note that when it is added to adjectives with the *-n-* suffix, they generally tend to switch to the *-ov/-ev-* suffix: *соунце sounce* “sun” → *солнечне solnécne* “sunny” → *бессоунцеve bessounceve* “sunless”; *вѣтре větre* “wind” → *вѣтрене větrene* “windy” → *бесвѣтреве besvětreve* “windless”.

Many animals have two adjective forms, although their meanings are identical. The adjective endings are allowed to be added directly onto the root of the animal with a *-j-* intermediary (which is frequently absorbed by the consonant before it), so that both *j*-suffix and *n*-suffix animal terms will be seen. The former were originally descended from true possessive adjectives, which have largely been lost as a productive force in Novegradian. Quite a few have become extremely irregular, such as *тоце* “avian” below (from Common Slavic \*рѣтък-ј-ъ). The *j*-suffix forms are increasingly rare outside of technical fields such as taxonomy or biology.

Word	Meaning		Adjective	Meaning
вѣлке <i>vélke</i>	wolf	→	вѣлцене <i>vélcene</i> вѣлце <i>vélce</i>	lupine, wolf's
каля <i>kália</i>	fish	→	калиене <i>káliene</i> калие <i>kálie</i>	piscine, fish's
коша <i>kóša</i>	cat	→	кошне <i>kóšne</i> кошие <i>kóšie</i>	feline, cat's
поска <i>póska</i>	bird	→	посцене <i>póscene</i> тоце <i>tóce</i>	avian, bird's

Adjectivalization of foreign noun stems can often take multiple different forms, resulting in effective duplets depending on various ideosyncratic morphological and semantic criteria. For instance, the noun мангонка *mangónka* “mango” has two simple adjectival counterparts: мангове *mángove* and мангосове *mangósove* “of or relating to mangos”. The former represents the addition of the suffix *-ov* to the base *\*mang-*; the latter contains an epenthetic *-s-* inserted to preserve the stem-final vowel (i.e., *\*mango-* + *-ov-*), with the *-s-* perhaps being loaned from the English plural form “mangos”, or by analogy with other tropical plants such as кокосе *kókose* “coconut” and its adjectival form кокосове *kokósove*. In contrast, the noun метро *metró* “metro, subway” only has one adjectivalization, метрове *metróve*, as there is no closely associated word from which to draw an epenthetic consonant.

### 10.2.2.2 Adjectives from Verbs

Adjectives can be derived from verbs, but generally not without the help of some sort of adjectival prefix. The verb root is isolated, the prefix added, and then this stem is otherwise treated as though it were a noun, using the same sort of endings (*-ов-*, *-ив-*, *-н-*). See the “Noun and Adjective Prefixes” section below for more information. The three verbal participles are also used to modify nouns, and do not require any sort of additional prefixes.

There is one exception, however, known as the “necessitive participle”, though

despite the name it is generally not viewed as a true participle by Indo-European-ists. It is formed by adding the suffix *-телне* *-telne* to the infinitive stem. If the infinitive stem ends in /t d s z k g/ (i.e., the infinitive ends in *-сти* *-sti* or *-йкѝ* *-ikji*), then the suffix *-ителне* *-itelne* is used, with palatalization of /k g/ to /ts dz/. These adjectives have the meaning “that must be Xed” for transitive verbs and “that must X” for intransitive verbs:

- рѣсѝти *rědzíti* “say” → рѣсѝтелне *rědzítelne* “that must be said”
- видѣти *viděti* “see” → видѣтелне *vidětelne* “that must be seen”
- жити *žíti* “live” → жителне *žitelne* “that must live”
- плайкѝ *pláikji* “cry” → плацѝтелне *placítelne* “that must cry”
- класти *klásti* “bury” → кладѝтелне *kladítelne* “that must be buried”
- исти *ísti* “go” → идѝтелне *idítelne* “that must go”

When negated with the prefix *не-* *ne-*, the necessitive participle indicates improperness or impossibility:

- нерѣсѝтелне *nerědzítelne* “that must not be said”
- невидѣтелне *nevidětelne* “that must not be seen”
- нежителне *nežitelne* “that must not live”
- неплацѝтелне *neplacítelne* “that must not cry”
- некладѝтелне *nekladítelne* “that must not be buried”
- неидѝтелне *nejidítelne* “that must not go”

The passive imperfective participle also has one additional idiomatic function. It can indicate possibility, much like the English suffix *-able/-ible*: *видѝме* *vidíme* “visible”, *дадоме* *dádome* “givable”, etc.

### 10.2.2.3 Adjective Diminutives

Diminutive forms of adjectives also exist, which generally imply a sense of closeness or ‘cuteness’, and so are particularly common when speaking with children, or when modifying affectionately diminutive nouns. They are formed using the suffixes *-енк-* *-enk-*, *-инк-* *-ink-*, *-еник-* *-enik-*, and *-иник-* *-inik-* attached to an adjectival stem. These diminutives cannot be used with adjectives already containing the suffixes *-н-* or *-ск-*, but are otherwise quite productive. Sometimes other suffixes are dropped when diminutive endings are added, as in *слазке* below.

Some example diminutives:

Word	Meaning		Diminutive	Meaning
добре <i>dobre</i>	good	→	добренке <i>dobrenke</i>	good
слазке <i>slázke</i>	sweet	→	сладинке <i>sládinke</i>	sweet
толсте <i>tólste</i>	fat	→	толстинике <i>tolstinike</i>	chubby

#### 10.2.2.4 Complex Adjectives

Novegradian makes use of a small set of “complex adjectives”, two adjectives modifying a single noun that both decline, but are written as a single hyphenated word without any sort of conjunction, that take on new meanings separate from those of the two adjectives forming them. These include *стапе-младе stápe-mláde* “of all ages” (lit. “old-young”), *дילהне-краске diliáne-kráske* “of uneven length” (lit. “long-short”), *шинье-црвене šínje-cérvene* “multicolored, motley” (lit. “blue-red”). The two adjectives composing each complex adjective are opposites or near-opposites, and the new form represents a variation everywhere in between the two.

#### 10.2.3 Verbalization

Any part of speech can generally be converted into a verb by taking the root and treating that as a verbal root, then assigning it a conjugation class, theme vowel, etc. The first and second conjugations are used for most such derivations, although the third is occasionally seen as well. If the root is in the second or third conjugation and ends in a consonant prone to mutation, that consonant will likely mutate due to analogy with other verbs, even if the root is foreign. For this reason, many foreign roots end up in the non-mutating first conjugation.

Word	Meaning		Verb	Meaning
каля <i>kália</i>	fish	→	каляти <i>káliati</i>	to fish
душе <i>dúše</i>	shower	→	душитиш <i>dúšitiš</i>	to take a shower
крев <i>krév</i>	blood	→	кревити <i>krevíti</i>	to bleed
команда <i>kománda</i>	command	→	командовати <i>komandováti</i>	to command



Word	Meaning		Verb	Meaning
заутроке <i>zǎutroke</i>	breakfast	→	заутрогати <i>zautrogǎti</i>	to eat breakfast
црвене <i>cǎrvene</i>	red	→	црвенићи <i>cerveníti</i>	to redden
близе <i>blíze</i>	close, near	→	ближити <i>blizǐti</i>	to draw [smth] near
плоне <i>plóne</i>	full	→	плонити <i>ploníti</i>	to fill

Simple verbalization can only be done with a handful of nouns, but is productive with many adjectives, albeit only qualitative ones. Most other verbalization requires some sort of prefix, which will be discussed later. The suffix *-ov-* in the first conjugation, however, is extremely productive for converting nouns into verbs, as in командовати *komandovǎti* above.

The suffix *-изир-* *-izir-* (cf. English *-ize*) acts similarly to *-овати*, but always has a causative and transformative sense. It is only used with foreign roots. The ending *-изирати* is third declension.

Word	Meaning		Verb	Meaning
скандаље <i>skǎndale</i>	scandal	→	скандализирати <i>skandalizǐrati</i>	scandalize
Америка <i>Amérika</i>	America	→	американизирати <i>amerikanizǐrati</i>	americanize
оспидаље <i>ospidǎle</i>	hospital	→	оспидализирати <i>ospidalizǐrati</i>	hospitalize

There are a few general tendencies that can be noted regarding the conjugations that derived verbs are placed in. The second conjugation (with *-i-* as the infinitive thematic vowel), for example, tends to indicate some sort of transformation or causation (as in сухе *súhe* “dry” → сушити *súšiti* “dry, make dry”). The third conjugation ending *-нати* *-nati*, known as a ‘punctual’, marks a single instantaneous action, especially physical ones, such as крикнати *kriknǎti* “shout (PF)” and метнати *metnǎti* “hurl, strike (PF)”. Nearly all verbs ending in *-нати* are perfective, since after all a single instantaneous action can’t be progressive or prolonged.

There are also a few pairs of verbs affixes (namely *-и/-на-* and *-и/-ѐ-*) worth noting that no longer have productive force, but nevertheless are prominent.

A number of transitive second conjugation verbs (i.e., having the suffix *-и-* in

the infinitive) have intransitive counterparts with *-na-*: гашити *gášiti* “extinguish, put out [a flame, etc.]”, гаснати *gasnāti* “go out”; меражити *meráziti* “freeze (TR)”, морзнати *morznāti* “freeze (INTR), go numb”; миґцити *miǵčiti* “soften (TR)”, миґнати *miǵnāti* “soften (INTR), get soft”.

Several causative verbs in *-i-* also have stative counterparts in *-ě-* (third conjugation). This is especially common with adjective bases: шиньити *šinjiti* “make blue”, шиньѣти *šinjëti* “appear blue”, желенити *želeniti* “make green”, желенѣти *želeněti* “appear green, be envious”.

Although these patterns are no longer productive, they have had sporadic influence on other verbs as a result of analogy. For example, the former relationship has been applied to the verb омѣти *oměti* “know how to” to create the new verb омити *omiti* “teach how to”.

### 10.2.4 Adverbialization

Novegradian, unlike many other Slavic languages, has a distinct adverbial form, formed from adjectives by adding *-ѣ -ě* to the stem. Many nouns in the dative-instrumental case may also take on an adverbial function. When dealing with adjectives derived from place names, the prefixed prefix на- *na-* must be added, or н- *n-* if it begins with a vowel.

Word	Meaning		Adverb	Meaning
кладне <i>kládne</i>	cold	→	кладнѣ <i>kládneǫ</i>	coldly
добре <i>dobre</i>	good	→	добрѣ <i>dobreǫ</i>	well
руске <i>rússke</i>	Russian	→	нарусскѣ <i>narusské</i>	in the Russian way
английске <i>anglíjske</i>	English	→	нанглийскѣ <i>nanglíjské</i>	in the English way
зле <i>zlé</i>	angry	→	злѣ <i>zleǫ</i>	angrily
лѣтене <i>lětene</i>	summer	→	лѣтенем <i>lětenem</i>	during the summer
вечере <i>vécere</i>	evening	→	вечерем <i>vécerem</i>	during the evening

## 10.3 Prefixial Derivation

### 10.3.1 Noun and Adjective Prefixes

The following prefixes are attached directly onto a noun or adjective to change the meaning, in much the same way noun and adjective prefixes work in English. Many adjectivalizations require some sort of prefix related to the meaning—for example, *приглубе* *priglúbe* “deep” requires the prefix *при-*, meaning “touching” or “close to”, the intention here being “close to the bottom”; *\*глубе* alone has no meaning. Similarly, the prefixless *\*видеце* (from “see” and the agentive suffix) is meaningless, but with a prefix, *безвидеце* *bezvídece* becomes “blind man” (with-out-see-AGENT). All of these prefixes are highly productive.

It should be noted that there is a great deal of overlap between substantive and verbal prefixes, with many identical forms, although often different meanings. The distinction between the two is further confused by the ability of prefixed verbs to form derived nouns and adjectives that still bear a verbal prefix. For this reason, this section will avoid deverbal forms as much as possible.

#### 10.3.1.1 Без-

The most basic sense of *без-* is “without”, corresponding roughly with English *-less*. Before voiceless consonants, it takes the form *бес-* *bes-*. With adjectives, it generally forces the suffix *-ов-/ев-*. Abstract nouns will usually acquire the collective suffix *-ия* unless another abstract marker (e.g., *-ости*) is present.

It can be added to a small set of primitive nouns referring to body parts to form adjectives without need of a suffix, as in *безроке* below.

Examples:

- *безвидеце* *bezvídece* “blind man” (← *видѣти* *viděti* “see”)
- *безнадѣгове* *beznaděgove* “hopeless” (← *надѣга* *naděgja* “hope”)
- *бесшилия* *bessilijá* “weakness” (← *шила* *šila* “strength”)
- *бескараљности* *beskarálnosti* “impunity” (← *караљне* *karáľne* “punishable”)
- *безроке* *bezróke* “armless” (← *рока* *róka* “arm, hand”)

#### 10.3.1.2 Вмес-

The prefix *вмес-* means “between” or “among”, often corresponding to English

inter-.

Examples:

- **вмеснародне** *vmesnaródne* “international” (← **народе** *naróde* “nation”)
- **вмессужѣдне** *vmessužědne* “communal” (← **сужѣде** *sužěde* “neighbor”)
- **вмесоблостина** *vmesoblóstina* “interregional highway”  
(← **области** *óblasti* “region”)

### 10.3.1.3 Во-

The prefix **во-** means “in”, “into”, or “inside”, corresponding with certain functions of English **in-**, as well as most functions of **intra-**.

Examples:

- **воидрове** *vojidróve* “intranuclear” (← **идро** *idró* “nucleus”)
- **вовенне** *vovénne* “intravenous” (← **вена** *véna* “vein”)
- **вовозе** *vóvoze* “import” (← **вожити** *vóžiti* “transport”)

### 10.3.1.4 Вонѣ-

The basic sense of **вонѣ-** is “outside”, much like English “extra-”. Before stems beginning with a vowel, it reduces to **вон-** *von-*.

Examples:

- **вонѣклѣсцене** *voněklěscene* “extracellular” (← **клѣска** *klěška* “cell”)
- **вонѣкрайске** *voněkráiske* “foreign” (← **крае** *kráie* “boundary”)

### 10.3.1.5 До-

The prefix **до-** means “before” or “up to”, and corresponds to certain senses of English **pre-**. Formerly, it could only be used with adjectives, with **пред-** *pred-* filling in the same role for nouns; nowadays, however, **до-** is frequently used with both nouns and adjectives, and forms with **пред-** are gradually disappearing.

Examples:

- **доисторицеске** *dojistoríceske* “prehistoric” (← **история** *istória* “history”)
- **довоеенне** *dovoiénne* “prewar, antebellum” (← **война** *voiná* “war”)
- **доплоне** *doplóne* “full to the brim” (← **плоне** *plóne* “full”)
- **дожитенне** *dožítenne* “lifelong” (← **житени** *žítieni* “life”)

### 10.3.1.6 *3a-*

*3a-* means “after” or “beyond”/“behind”, in both spatial and temporal senses. This can be metaphorically extended to mean a sudden appearance, as though coming out from behind something. The first sense closely corresponds to English *post-*; the others do not have a clear equivalent.

Examples:

- *загорне zagórne* “beyond the mountains” (← *гора góra* “mountain”)
- *завоєнне zavoïénne* “postwar” (← *война voiná* “war”)
- *захоте záhote* “desire, craving” (← *хотѣти hótěti* “want”)

### 10.3.1.7 *Кољ-*

The prefix *кољ-* means “around” or “surrounding”, corresponding very closely to English *circum-* or *peri-*. For the most part it is not used in native coinages, but rather only in calques of scientific or technical terms from other languages, and only forms adjectives. It has the variant form *кол-* *kol-* before a stem beginning with a front vowel or /j/.

Examples:

- *кољжємне kolžémne* “circumterrestrial” (← *жемя žémia* “land”)
- *кољьунне kollúnne* “circumlunar” (← *луна luná* “moon”)
- *кољшердєцне kolšerdécne* “pericardial” (← *шерце šérce* “heart”)

### 10.3.1.8 *Много-*

The prefix *много-* fairly transparently means “many”; semantically, it is similar to English *poly-* or *multi-*, but is much more frequent. This is the closest productive equivalent to the *-ist-* adjective suffix seen in Russian and other Slavic languages, which is disappearing in Novegradian. Before stems beginning in /k/ or /g/, it contracts to *мно-* *mno-*.

Examples:

- *многорокове mnogorókove* “many-armed” (← *рока róka* “arm”)
- *многоорне mnogórne* “mountainous” (← *гора góra* “mountain”)
- *многоворне mnogovórne* “talkative” (← *говорити govoríti* “talk”)
- *многедажне mnogedážne* “multistory” (← *єдаже iedáže* “floor, story”)

### 10.3.1.9 На-

На- means “on top of”. It has no clear English equivalent.

Examples:

- навоцнике *navócnike* “contact lens” (← око *óko* “eye”)
- нанижника *nanižnika* “book cover” (← нига *níga* “book”)
- настољне *nastóľne* “desktop (ADJ)” (← стоље *stóľe* “table”)

### 10.3.1.10 Над-

The prefix над- means “over” or “above”, corresponding to the English prefixes super- and over-. When the stem begins with a plosive consonant, it lenites to наз- *naz-*.

However, this prefix does not have the sense of excess than English over- can have (e.g., “overstep”); nor the sense of “to a great degree” that super- can have (e.g., “superconductivity”), which is handled by the compound пренад-. It covers strictly a literal sense of “over”.

Examples:

- наджемне *nadžémne* “overhead, elevated” (← жемя *žémia* “land”)
- назкадовуше *nazkadóvuše* “overseer” (← кадовуше *kadóvuše* “guard”)
- назгуѣздене *nazgužždene* “heavely (poet.)” (← гуѣзда *gužžda* “star”)

### 10.3.1.11 Не-

The prefix не- performs simple negation, like English un-, non- or a-. With qualitative adjectives, however, it tends to be more of a mild negation, somewhat like English “good” and the mild negative “not good” as opposed to “bad”.

Examples:

- невидне *nevidne* “invisible” (← видѣти *viděti* “see”)
- невовисяљне *nevovisiálne* “unofficial” (← овисяљне *ovisiálne* “official”)
- недобре *nedóbre* “not good” (← добре *dóbre* “good”)

### 10.3.1.12 Па-

The prefix па- does not translate easily into English. When used in a spatial

sense, it means “right before” or “immediately by/along”. When used more abstractly, it indicates insufficiency (particularly in the sense of “failure to be sufficient” as opposed to “not yet sufficient”) or more broadly something that is an alternative or secondary, inferior version of the base stem (though not necessarily with negative connotations). It also often drags stress either onto or toward itself, though this isn’t a universal tendency.

Examples:

- павобѣдоке *pavóbědoke* “brunch, morning snack” (← обѣде *óběde* “lunch”)
- паетерия *paiézerija* “lakeshore” (← езеро *iézero* “lake”)
- павецере *pavécere* “twilight” (← вецере *vécere* “evening”)
- пажемка *pažémka* “strawberry” (← жемя *žémia* “land”)
- пакусе *pákuse* “aftertaste” (← (во)кусе *(vó)kuse* “taste”)
- павука *pávuka* “pseudoscience” (← (на)вука *(na)vúka* “science”)

### 10.3.1.13 По-

The prefix по-, though very common with verbs and deverbals, is not very common with other nouns and adjectives. It most commonly is used to mean “along” various geographical features. It also has very limited use in the temporal/benefactive sense “for the occasion of”/“upon”.

Examples:

- побрѣжне *pobrěžne* “coastal” (← брѣге *brěge* “beach”)
- Поневия *Ponevijá* “region around the Nevá River” (← Нева *Nevá* “Nevá River”)
- посмортене *posmórtene* “upon one’s death”<sup>5</sup> (← сморти *smórti* “death”)

### 10.3.1.14 Под-

The prefix под- means “under”, both physically and metaphorically. It also often indicates some sort of alternate to the base stem. Before stems beginning with a plosive, it lenites to поз- *poz-*.

Examples:

- подводне *podvóдне* “underwater” (← вода *vóda* “water”)
- подюданъеве *podiudánjeve* “below freezing” (← юданъе *iudánje* “freezing”)
- подходе *pódhode* “back entrance” (← ходити *hóditī* “go, walk”)
- подиѣзде *pódiězde* “back route” (← ѣздити *iězditi* “go by vehicle”)

### 10.3.1.15 Пра-

The prefix пра- means “preceeding” or “ancestral”, and corresponds very closely to English proto- or, in the context of people, great-. Other than this last sense, it is generally a technical term. The prefix also tends to be stressed equally or nearly equally as much as the stem; for this reason, it was for a long time written hyphenated, though doing so is generally considered dated nowadays.

Examples:

- прагуѣзда *práguězda* “proto-star” (← гуѣзда *guězda* “star”)
- прагерманеске *prágermánéske* “proto-Germanic”  
(← германеске *germánéske* “German”)
- праѣда *práděda* “great grandfather” (← дѣда *děda* “grandfather”)

### 10.3.1.16 Пре-

With noun and adjective bases, пре- means “across”. This corresponds most closely with English trans-.

Examples:

- прешибиреске *prešibíreske* “trans-Siberian” (← Шибире *Šibire* “Siberia”)
- преатлантицеске *preiatlánticeske* “trans-Atlantic”  
(← атлантицеске *atlánticeske* “Atlantic”)

### 10.3.1.17 Пред-

The prefix пред- means “before” when forming nouns. It is falling out of use (except on deverbals) as nouns formed with до- have been gaining acceptance. For example, the only acceptable form for “prehistory” was once предистория *predistória*, but now the form доистория *dojistória* is far more common.



### 10.3.1.18 При-

The prefix *при-* means, roughly, “adjoining”, “close”, or “toward”. It does not have a close English equivalent, although *ad-* approximates the first sense. However, *при-* is much more productive in Novegradian than *ad-* is in English.

Examples:

- примореске *primóreske* “maritime” (← море *móre* “sea”)
- притоке *prítóke* “tributary [river]” (← токе *tóke* “flow”)
- притољке *prítółke* “aftershock” (← тољке *tólke* “tremor”)

### 10.3.1.19 Проти-

The prefix *проти-* means “against”, and behaves much like English *anti-* or sometimes *counter-*. Before stems beginning with a vowel, it becomes *против-* *protiv-*.

Examples:

- противирусне *protivírusne* “antiviral” (← вирусе *víruse* “virus”)
- протирѣсия *protirědzija* “contradiction” (← рѣсити *rědzíti* “say”)
- противоздушне *protivozdúšne* “anti-aircraft” (← воздушне *vozdušne* “aerial”)

### 10.3.1.20 Со-

The prefix *со-* means “with” or “together”, corresponding to English *co-* or *con-*.

Examples:

- соврѣменне *sovvrěmenne* “modern” (← врѣмено *vrěmeno* “time”)
- согуѣздя *soguědzija* “constellation” (← гуѣзда *guězda* “star”)
- сотоке *sótoke* “confluence” (← токе *tóke* “flow”)

### 10.3.1.21 Compound Prefixes

Novegradian also employs three compound substantive prefixes, formed from two of the previously-discussed unary prefixes: *пrenaд-* *prenad-*, *недо-* *nedo-*, and *напроти-* *naproti-*.

Пренад- corresponds strongly to English super- when used in the sense of “to a great extent”: преназпроводимости *prenazprovodímosti* “superconductivity” (← проводимости *provodímosti* “conductivity”).

Недо- marks insufficiency like на-; however, while на- suggests failure to be sufficient, недо- is more neutral, often signifying that something simply is not yet sufficient. Compare, for instance, паросуйе *párosuije* “underdevelopment” (suggesting mismanagement) versus недоросуйе *nedorosuije* “underdevelopment” (suggesting the process of development has only just begun).

Напроти- denotes opposition or rivalry, and is often used to calque English counter-: напротиреволюця *náprotirevolúcia* “counterrevolution” (← революця *revolúcia* “revolution”).

### 10.3.1.21 Notes on Formation

Whenever a prefix that must end in a vowel is added to a base that begins with a vowel, a prothetic consonant must be added to prevent hiatus. This is entirely dependent on the second vowel. If it is /a e i æ/, the consonant is /j/. If it is /o u ɨ/, the consonant is /β/. In the case of /e i æ u/, there is no visible orthographic change.

When a prefix is added to a root that has undergone the historical TorT or TolT sound change (thus having a modern Novegradian form CraC or ClaC, where “C” represents any consonant), the /a/ is shifted to /o/: граде *gráde* “city” → пригороде *prígrode* “suburb”.

There are two other prefixes that appear in many common nouns, though are no longer productive: cy-/ca- *su-/sa-* and o-/ob- *o-/ob-*. The former derives from Proto-Slavic \*sq-, so the vowel depends on the dominant stress pattern. It generally indicates some sort of connection, close relationship, or accompaniment: камраке *sámrake* “twilight” (from мраке *mráke* “darkness, gloom”), сурва *survá* “blizzard” (from ровати *rováti* “tear up”), сутма *sutmá* “shadow” (from тема *temá* “darkness”), сужѣде *sužěde* “neighbor” (from шѣдѣти *šěděti* “sit”). The latter (basically \*ob-, but frequently reducing to just \*o-) means “around”. When it is prefixed to a word beginning in /β/, the /β/ always drops: власти *vlásti* “authority, rule” → области *óblasti* “region, province”. All of these words have largely been dissociated from their original bases.

When a numeral is prefixed to a noun or adjective, it appears in its genitive form minus any final consonants: довуногате *dovunogáte* “bipedal, two-legged”. If the numeral does not decline, it is simply added as-is: столѣття *stolětijá* “century, centennial”<sup>6</sup>. The numeral “one” always prefixes as an adjective with a neutral *o-*

‘linking morpheme’ (i.e., as *одно- iedno-*). The same rules apply to the numeral *полъ pól* “half”, which prefixed as the genitive *полу- polu-*.

### 10.3.2 Place Names

There are five prefixes commonly used to form region names, all based on a more specific geographic term. All region names formed this way must take the collective suffix *-ija*, which triggers palatalization of velar consonants only.

The prefix *по-* *po-* with a place name means “region along”. It is particularly common with river names, but can also be used with other generic geographic features that are linear, such as “road” or “railroad”. The prefix *на-* *pa-* is similar, but expresses a greater immediacy.

Word	Meaning		Region Name	Meaning
Во́лга <i>Vólga</i>	Volga River	→	Пово́лжия <i>Povólžija</i> Паво́лжия <i>Pávólžija</i>	Volga region Volga riverside
Нева́ <i>Nevá</i>	Nevá River	→	Поне́вия <i>Ponévija</i> Пане́вия <i>Pánevija</i>	Nevá region Nevá riverside
да́лница <i>dálnica</i>	highway	→	па́далница <i>pádalnicija</i>	highway shoulder, roadside

The prefix *при-* *pri-* does the same, but marks the area along a coastline.

Word	Meaning		Region Name	Meaning
ба́лтицеске <i>bálticeske</i>	Baltic (sea) <sup>7</sup>	→	Приба́лтия <i>Pribáltija</i>	Baltic states
е́зеро Ладо́жское <i>iézero</i> <i>Ladožeskóie</i>	Lake Ladoga	→	Приладо́жия <i>priladóžija</i>	Ladoga region

<sup>7</sup> The Baltic Sea itself is known in Novegradian as *Варижеское море Varižeskóie móre* “Varangian Sea”, but the adjective *балтицеске* has been loaned for most other purposes.

Под- *pod-* (or поз- *poz-* before plosive consonants) marks the region around a city.

Word	Meaning		Region Name	Meaning
Новеграде <i>Novegráde</i>	Novegrad	→	Подновеградия <i>Podnovegrádija</i>	Novegrad region
Москва <i>Moskuá</i>	Moscow	→	Подмоскевия <i>Podmoskéviya</i>	Moscow region
Лондоне <i>Lóndone</i>	London	→	Подлондония <i>Podlóndonija</i>	London region

За- *za-* is used with names of or terms referring to physical features, most often mountain ranges, to mean “land beyond”, much like *trans-* may be used in English.

Word	Meaning		Region Name	Meaning
Кауказе <i>Kaukáze</i>	Caucasus	→	Закауказия <i>Zakaukázija</i>	Transcaucasia
влаке <i>vláke</i>	portage	→	Завлация <i>Zavlácija</i>	Zavolotia (central Novegrad)

До- *do-* may occasionally be used to mean “land on this side of” (English *cis-*), but this is rare: Докауказия *Dokaukázija* “Ciscaucasia”.

### 10.3.3 Verb Prefixes

Verbs share many of the same prefixes nouns and adjectives use, although they function somewhat differently. Verbal prefixes in Novegradian are in many cases roughly equivalent to phrasal verbs in English, allowing a single verb root to spawn a wide variety of related verbs. These prefixes are highly productive, especially for verbs of motion.

The prefixes from which the perfective form of a verb is chosen are the same as the derivational prefixes. Where *по-* may turn one verb perfective, for another it may be solely derivational.

Note, though, that all verbs created through prefixial derivation are strictly speaking perfective. Most such verbs then back-derive an imperfective form using the suffix *-ов-/-ав- -ov-/-av-*: дати *dáti* (IMPF) → содати *sodáti* (PF); предати *predáti* (PF) → предавати *predaváti* (IMPF). Almost all back-derived imperfectives are first

conjugation; the one exception is -давати, which is third.

A smaller set of verbs, all second conjugation, derive imperfective forms by shifting directly to the first conjugation without the aid of an overt suffix. If the root-final consonant can undergo palatalization, it will; in other words, /s(ʎ) z(ʎ) t d n p b m β/ → /ç ʝ c ʝ ɲ pl bl ml wl/, with some allowances for stress-related voicing. Examples: вуишити *vuíšiti* “raise” → вуиґвати *vuiǵjati*, причинити *priciníti* “cause” → причинґвати *pricinjati*, справити *sopráviti* → сопраулати *sopráulati*. In speech, however, these types of imperfectives are becoming increasingly uncommon.

### 10.3.3.1 Без-

The prefix без- marks removal. Semantically, it is similar to English dis-, although in practice there is a rather low correspondence between the two. It becomes бес- *bes-* before voiceless consonants. While it does occasionally occur on its own, it is by far more common in the compound form обез- *obez-*, where the o- reinforces the transformative sense of без-. Most of the verbs that take plain без- take обез- in the perfective.

Examples:

- безвѣровати *bezvěrováti* “cause smby to lose faith in” (← вѣрити *věriti* “believe”)
- безоружити *bezoružíti* “disarm” (← оружия *orúžija* “weaponry”)
- бесстрашовати *besstrašováti* “insure” (← страшити *strásiti* “frighten”)

### 10.3.3.2 Во-

The prefix во- marks some sort of movement or action into something else, and is comparable to English in-. It becomes в- *v-* before stems beginning with a vowel, and occasionally in other situations as well (see Section 10.3.3.19).

Examples:

- вокражити *vokrážiti* “encircle” (← краре *kráre* “circle”)
- войсти *vóisti* “walk in[to]” (← исти *ísti* “go, walk”)
- влѣти *vlěti* “instil” (← лѣти *lěti* “pour”)

### 10.3.3.3 Вуи-

The basic meaning of the prefix вуи- is “out of”, and it is the opposite of во-.

However, metaphorical extensions of this meaning are very common; for example, *вуй-* may also refer to any sort of distribution from one source to many, revelations/sharing of information, or the fulfilment of a difficult action. This wide array of meanings makes it hard to compare to any English constructions; the closest analogy is probably to be found in phrasal verbs with “out”.

Examples:

- *вуйјсти* *vuījsti* “exit, walk out” (← *исти* *ísti* “go, walk”)
- *вуйжити* *vuížiti* “survive, live out” (← *жити* *žiti* “live”)
- *вуйкрисати* *vuikridzati* “shout out” (← *крисати* *kridzati* “shout”)
- *вуйдати* *vuidati* “issue, give out” (← *дати* *dati* “give”)
- *вуйлађти* *vuilěti* “pour out, empty” (← *лађти* *lěti* “pour”)
- *вуйпуидати* *vuipuidati* “demand” (← *пуидати* *puidati* “ask”)
- *вуйтуорити* *vuituóriti* “produce, manufacture” (← *туорити* *tuoriti* “create”)
- *вуйбрати* *vuibrati* “choose, pick out” (← *брати* *brati* “take, bring”)

### 10.3.3.4 До-

The prefix *до-* means “up to/reaching” or “additional”.

Examples:

- *доцидати* *docidati* “read up to” (← *цидати* *cidati* “read”)
- *дођхати* *doiěhati* “go up to/as far as [a place]” (← *ђхати* *iěhati* “go by vehicle”)
- *догрђти* *dogrěti* “heat up [to]” (← *грђти* *grěti* “heat”)
- *довђсти* *dověsti* “understand” (← *вђсти* *věsti* “know”)
- *додати* *dodati* “add, tack onto” (← *дати* *dati* “give”)

While the sense of “additional” is undeniably derivational, many believe the former sense of “up to/reaching” has become grammaticalized. For example, the prefix *до-* is virtually required on the verb whenever the preposition *до* “up to” is present in the same sentence, and this can be done freely with any verb. This function is sometimes known as the “telic prefix”, which will be discussed further in Section 11.15.

### 10.3.3.5 *За-*

The prefix *за-* is hard to describe. It covers a wide array of meanings that are often contradictory, and the exact role it plays in the historical derivation of many verbs is no longer clear. This is part of why *за-* has become one of the most common simple perfectivizing suffixes with no lexical content of its own. The four most common senses, however, are: inchoateness/beginning an action (and by extension causatives in general); movement or action behind something; some sort of exchange or action that occurs with clear benefit to the subject; and an action done quickly, often viewed as not being quite as thorough as the base action it was derived from. In addition, with verbs of motion, it indicates performing an action while in the process of doing something else (e.g., “stop by [while on the way to...]”, “drop off [while on the way to...]”, etc.).

Examples:

- *зайсти* *záisti* “stop by, drop by” (← *исти* *ísti* “go, walk”)
- *зашинати* *zašínáti* “fall asleep” (← *спати* *spáti* “sleep”)
- *затемнѣти* *zatemněti* “darken suddenly” (← *темнѣти* *temněti* “become dark”)
- *забоити* *zabójiti* “conquer, take in battle” (← *боє* *bóie* “battle”)
- *закрити* *zakríti* “veil, screen” (← *крити* *kříti* “cover”)
- *запизати* *zapízati* “note” (← *пизати* *pízati* “write”)
- *залежити* *zaležíti* “establish” (← *лежити* *ležiti* “lie [down]”)
- *забуити* *zabuíti* “forget” (← *буити* *buíti* “be”)

### 10.3.3.6 *На-*

The prefix *на-* generally indicates action on or onto something. When in the middle voice, it may indicate an action completed to exhaustion.

Examples:

- *найти* *náisti* “come upon, find” (← *исти* *ísti* “go, walk”)
- *наѣстиш* *naiěstíš* “eat one’s fill” (← *ѣсти* *iěsti* “eat”)
- *надумати* *nadúmati* “think over” (← *думати* *dúmati* “ponder”)
- *наработатиш* *narabótatíš* “have done a lot of work”  
(← *работати* *rabótati* “work”)
- *наступати* *nastubáti* “step on, tread on” (← *ступати* *stubáti* “step”)

### 10.3.3.7 *Над-*

The prefix *над-* means “over”. Before bases beginning with plosives, it lenites to *наз-* *naz-*.

Examples:

- *наздати nazdāti* “increase” (← *дати dāti* “give”)
- *назпизати nazpizāti* “write over, superscribe” (← *пизати pizāti* “write”)
- *надсуџдати nadsuǰdāti* “suggest as an alternative” (← *суџдати suǰdāti* “suggest”)
- *назтемнѣти naztemněti* “eclipse, overshadow” (← *темнѣти temněti* “become dark”)

### 10.3.3.8 *О-*

The prefix *о-* is the result of the merger of two older prefixes. One marked simple transformations, and so is very common with deadjectival and denominal bases, as well as “around” or “about”. The other suggests movement away from something.

Examples:

- *обрати obrāti* “take away” (← *брати brāti* “bring, take”)
- *одужити oduǰiti* “kill (poet.)” (← *духе dúhe* “breath”)
- *овелицити ovelíciti* “increase, enlarge” (← *велике velíke* “great”)
- *овратити ovrátiti* “turn, rotate” (← *вратити vrátiti* “return, turn back”)
- *ознати oznāti* “acknowledge” (← *знати znāti* “recognize”)
- *опизати opizāti* “describe” (← *пизати pizāti* “write”)
- *ойсти óisti* “leave” (← *исти ísti* “go, walk”)

### 10.3.3.9 *От-*

The prefix *от-*, which becomes *ос-* before bases beginning with a plosive, indicates movement away, much like *о-*. However, *о-* suggests movement out of sight, while *от-* suggests movement just a short distance away, while remaining in sight<sup>8</sup>. It also frequently indicates physical removal (and thus is more literal than *без-*), a mistake in performing an action, or the undoing or reciprocation of an action

<sup>8</sup> Compare, for instance, *ойсти óisti* “leave” and *отѣйти ótěisti* “walk away”, both from *исти ísti* “go, walk”.



performed by another party.

Examples:

- осдати *osdáti* “answer, respond” (← дати *dáti* “give”)
- отѣйграти *otěigráti* “win back” (← еграти *iegráti* “play”)
- осцидати *oscidáti* “misread” (← цидати *cidáti* “read”)
- отлежити *otležíti* “set aside” (← лежити *ležíti* “lie down”)
- отношити *otnósiti* “carry off, deliver” (← ношити *nósiti* “carry”)
- отрѣзати *otrězáti* “cut off [from]” (← рѣзати *rězáti* “cut”)

### 10.3.3.10 Па-

The prefix *па-* has a variety of different meanings. It originally spread to verbs via denominals; in early Common Slavic the nominal prefix *па-* was more or less considered a variant of *по-*. In these original verbs derived from nouns, the function of *па-* can be very opaque. However, over time it developed a sense of insufficiency or absence in nouns (see Section 10.3.1.12), and this sense spread to verbs. As a result, most productive use of the verbal prefix *па-* nowadays indicates insufficiency. There is a strong tendency to stress the prefix.

Examples:

- пагубити *págubiti* “ruin” (← губити *gubíti* “destroy”)
- пажити *pážiti* “pasture” (← жити *žíti* “live”)
- пакормити *pákormiti* “underfeed” (← кормити *kórmiti* “feed”)

### 10.3.3.11 По-

By far the most common meaning of *по-* is “for a while”; that is, it indicates durative aspect. This is a highly productive process, as it can be applied to virtually any verb. A secondary sense, far less common, is as an inchoative.

Examples:

- поговорити *pogovoríti* “talk for a bit” (← говорити *govoríti* “talk”)
- побуити *pobuíti* “stay for some time” (← буити *buíti* “be”)
- полубити *polubíti* “fall in love” (← любити *lubíti* “love”)

### 10.3.3.12 Под-

The basic meaning of под- is “under” or “from under”. However, it has acquired a number of metaphorical extensions of this original sense. It can indicate approach to another person (not an object), or it can weaken the sense of a verb. It can also be used as a generic prefix of politeness when attached to verbs of human interaction. Before bases beginning with a plosive, the prefix becomes поз- *poz-*.

Examples:

- позпизати *pozpizáti* “sign” (← пизати *pizáti* “write”)
- подмoтpѣти *podmótrěti* “spy on” (← мoтpѣти *mótrěti* “watch”)
- подѣскоцити *poděškóciti* “jump out” (← скоцити *škóciti* “jump”)
- подpѣсити *podrědzíti* “say [please]” (← pѣсити *rědzíti* “say”)
- подѣгрѣти *poděgrěti* “warm up a little bit” (← грѣти *grěti* “heat up”)
- подѣйсти *poděisti* “walk up to” (← исти *isti* “go, walk”)
- подсушити *podśúšiti* “dry a little” (← сушити *súšiti* “dry”)

### 10.3.3.13 Пре-

The prefix пре- has five primary senses. The original is physical action across something. It can also indicate repetition, thoroughness, reciprocation, and excess.

Examples:

- предумати *predúmati* “think over, ponder” (← думати *dúmati* “muse”)
- предати *predáti* “transmit, broadcast” (← дати *dáti* “give”)
- премирити *premiríti* “cease fire” (← мире *míre* “peace”)
- преговорити *pregovoríti* “hold talks” (← говорити *govoríti* “talk”)
- премoтpѣти *premótrěti* “revise, reconsider” (← мoтpѣти *mótrěti* “watch”)
- премѣстити *preměštíti* “relocate, move” (← мѣсто *město* “place”)
- препизати *prepizáti* “rewrite” (← пизати *pizáti* “write”)
- препизатиш *prepizátis* “correspond, write one another”  
(← пизати *pizáti* “write”)
- престубити *prestubíti* “infringe, violate” (← стубати *stubáti* “step” [i.e., overstep])
- прегрѣти *pregrěti* “overheat” (← грѣти *grěti* “heat up”)

### 10.3.3.14 Пред-

The prefix *пред-* means “before” or “in front”. It lenites to *през-* *prez-* before bases beginning with a plosive.

Examples:

- *предвидѣти* *predviděti* “foresee” (← *видѣти* *viděti* “see”)
- *предсудити* *predsuditi* “prejudge” (← *судити* *suditi* “judge”)
- *предрѣсити* *predrědziti* “foretell, predict” (← *рѣсити* *rědziti* “say”)

### 10.3.3.15 При-

The prefix *при-* conveys a variety of meanings all denoting some sort of closeness. It often indicates motion toward, arrival, preparation, invitation, appearance of emotions or ideas, and attentiveness.

Examples:

- *прийти* *prijsiti* “arrive, approach” (← *исти* *isti* “go, walk”)
- *применѣти* *primeněti* “remember, recall” (← *менѣти* *meněti* “seem, suppose”)
- *придумати* *pridúmati* “think up” (← *думати* *dúmati* “muse”)
- *привезати* *privezáti* “tie to” (← *везати* *vezáti* “tie”)
- *призуати* *prizuáti* “invite” (← *зуати* *zuáti* “call”)
- *припозобити* *pripozóbiti* “adjust for, adapt to” (← *позоба* *pozóba* “means, method”)
- *прислухѣти* *prislúhěti* “listen attentively” (← *слухѣти* *slúhěti* “listen”)
- *прииграти* *prijgráti* “join a game” (← *играти* *iegráti* “play”)

### 10.3.3.16 Про-

The prefix *про-* primarily indicates motion through or past something. In addition, it may indicate a somewhat haphazard or not entirely focused action, especially one that results in some sort of error or mistake.

Examples:

- *пройти* *próisti* “go through; go past” (← *исти* *isti* “go, walk”)
- *пропизати* *propizáti* “jot down” (← *пизати* *pizáti* “write”)
- *прослухѣти* *proslúhěti* “not catch someone’s words”

(← слухѣти *slúhěti* “listen”)

- прожити *prožíti* “live through” (← жити *žíti* “live”)
- пролѣти *prolēti* “spill” (← лѣти *lēti* “pour”)

### 10.3.3.17 Poz-

The prefix *poz-* indicates separation or distribution. It may also indicate an action is completely out of control. Before bases beginning with an unvoiced consonant, it becomes *ros-*.

Examples:

- роздати *rozdáti* “distribute” (← дати *dáti* “give”)
- розлѣти *rozlēti* “flood” (← лѣти *lēti* “pour”)
- розиѣсти *roziěsti* “erode, eat away at” (← ѣсти *iěsti* “eat”)
- розбрати *rozbráti* “take apart, examine” (← брати *bráti* “bring, take”)
- росуити *rosúiti* “unwind, evolve” (← вити *víti* “twist”)
- розѣйти *rózěisti* “part ways” (← ийти *ísti* “go, walk”)

### 10.3.3.18 Co-

The prefix *co-* indicates joining many things together (the opposite of *poz-*), getting off of or down from something (and occasionally removal), or an exhaustive action.

Examples:

- собрати *sobráti* “gather” (← брати *bráti* “bring, take”)
- сойти *sóisti* “get off” (← ийти *ísti* “go, walk”)
- снести *sněsti* “bring down” (← нести *něsti* “carry”)
- сократити *sokrátiiti* “cut short” (← кратити *krátiiti* “shorten”)
- сожитиш *sožítis* “get accustomed to” (← жити *žíti* “live”)
- совинити *sovíniti* “forgive, pardon” (← винити *viníti* “blame”)
- согорѣти *sogorěti* “burn out, go out” (← горѣти *gorěti* “burn, glow”)

### 10.3.3.19 Notes on Formation

The interaction of the prefixes *в(о)- v(o)-* and *с(о)- s(o)-* with the verb root can be somewhat complex at times. Generally, the preferred prefixes are the vocalic forms *во-* and *со-*. However, before /l/ (and usually before /m n/, and irregularly

before /r/), the vowel will drop: во + ливати → вливати *vliváti* “pour in, instil”. Before /β/, the realization depends on stress. If the first syllable of the verb root is unstressed, then the vocalic prefixes are used: со + винити → совинити *sovíniti* “pardon”. If the first syllable of the verb root is stressed, then the vowel is dropped and the /β/ elides to /w/: со + вити → суити *súiti* “twist”.

However, when deverbalized, the vowel may reappear even though it is absent in the verb: вложити *vlóžiti* “invest” → вологе *vóloge* “investment”. Sometimes both vowelless and vowelled derivatives exist with different semantics.

With the exception of в(o)- and с(o)-, the standard epenthetic vowel used with verbal prefixes is -ѣ-. This occurs, for instance, when a prefix ending with a consonant is applied to a base that begins with a consonant cluster. There are also certain verb stems beginning with /i/ or /j(j)e/ that reduce to /j/ when any prefix is added, which will then require this additional -ѣ-: исти *ísti* “go, walk” → подѣйти *póděisti* “walk up to”.

## 10.4 Compounds

Novegradian has two kinds of compounds—linked and unlinked, referring to whether or not there is a ‘linking morpheme’. Both are very common, although the ‘linked’ form is used more often in recent constructs.

### 10.4.1 Unlinked Compounds

Unlinked compounds for the most part are limited to adverbs and conjunctions. Nouns and adjectives are rarely formed with unlinked compounds, with the exception of compounds incorporating a numeral as the first element.

Taking a number in its genitive form and attaching it to an adjective or noun is a common method of substantive creation: довуногате *dòvunogáte* “bipedal”, дешитанлико *děšitángliko* “decagon”, полувѣке *pòluvéke* “half-century”.

Many modern adverbs come from historical compounds, where what was originally a phrase became fused into a single unit:

- вноу *vnóu* “again” ← во “in” + нов(е) “new”
- воврехѣ *vovréhě* “[located] above” ← во “in” + врехѣ “top (LOC)”
- вонизѣ *vonízě* “[located] below” ← во “in” + низѣ “bottom (LOC)”
- слѣва *slěva* “from the left” ← со “from” + лѣва “left (GEN)”
- коправом *koprávom* “toward the right” ← ко “toward” + правом “right (DATINS)”

- хоиж *hójiž* “who (EMPH)” ← хой “who” + же (an emphatic particle)
- шеден *šedén* “today” ← ше “this” + ден “day” (ACC)
- занок *zánok* ← за “behind” + нокъи “night”
- вецераш *véceraš* “yesterday” ← вецера “evening (GEN)” + ш(ево) “this”

### 10.4.2 Linked Compounds

Linked compounds feature a fill vowel, most commonly /o/, separating the two components of the compound. If the second element begins with a vowel, the fill vowel may be dropped; this is optional, but generally preferred.

Word 1	Word 2		Compound
рока <i>róka</i> “hand”	пизанье <i>pizánje</i> “writing”	→	рокопизанье <i>ròkopizánje</i> “handwriting”
шѣверне <i>šěverne</i> “northern”	Америка <i>Amérika</i> “America”	→	Шѣверн(о)америка <i>Šěvern(o)amérika</i> “North America”

When the second element is a verb, but the compound itself is not, the verb will appear as just the root alone.

Word 1	Word 2		Compound
жемя <i>žémia</i> “land”	вѣсти <i>věsti</i> “know”	→	жемловѣде <i>žemlověde</i> “geologist”
вода <i>vóda</i> “water”	родити <i>rodíti</i> “bear”	→	водороде <i>vodoróde</i> “hydrogen”
вино <i>vinó</i> “wine”	лубити <i>lubíti</i> “love”	→	винолубе <i>vinolúbe</i> “wine connoisseur”

So far, there has been extensive discussion of the mechanics of Novegradian morphology, with only occasional references to principles of usage. All major aspects of word formation have now been covered. From this point on, the focus will be on Novegradian syntax—how the language assembles words into meaningful sentences. This description will begin with the use of the verb.

Novegradian verbs must agree in person and number (or in some situations, gender) with the grammatical subject of the sentence. Although a dual verbal form still exists, it is generally no longer marked on nouns. It must be used whenever the subject has an explicit dual quality (e.g., a dual pronoun or an anaphor such as “both”), is quantified with the numeral “two”, is known to be a pair or natural dual (e.g., “my parents”), or is a compound subject with two elements (e.g., “Nikoláie and Névida”). Otherwise, if there is more than one of the noun, the plural must be used, excepting mass nouns such as “water” or “rice” which require the singular.

## 11.1 The Copula *буити* “Be”

### 11.1.1 In the Present Tense

The actual present tense forms of *буити* are frequently dropped in normal situations. Simple equative clauses are almost always of the form [NOUN\_PHRASE Ø COMPLEMENT], with a zero-form copula. In written texts, this is indicated with an en-dash. The complement must be in the dative/instrumental case if it is a noun, or in the nominative case if it is an adjective.

- (1) Яс – лѣгарем.  
*Iás – lĕgárem.*  
 I.NOM Ø doctor-DATINS.SG  
*“I am a doctor.”*

- (2) IIIa нига – велем интересна.  
*Šá níga – vélem interésna.*  
 this-NOM.SG.FEM book-NOM.SG Ø very interesting-NOM.SG.FEM  
*“This book is very interesting.”*

The dash is often dropped if a word immediately before or after it has a topicalization marker attached (e.g., “IIIa нига-та велем интересна”).

The full present tense forms of ‘to be’ tend only to be used in the modern language for contrastive purposes or for emphasis. In addition, there is a regularly-used present tense in the negative formed by combining the negative particle *не* *ne* with the positive present tense forms whose usage is required and not optional in negated sentences.

- (3) Оне нет лѣгара-то, но есм яс.  
*Óne nèt lěgára-to, no iěsm iás.*  
 he.NOM be.3SG.NEG doctor-GEN.SG-TOP, but be.1SG I.NOM  
*“He isn’t a doctor, but I am.”*
- (4) Нет велем суде кладно.  
*Nèt vélem sudé kládno.*  
 be.3SG.NEG very here cold-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*“It’s not very cold here.”*

A pronoun with no copula or a copula with no pronoun are roughly equivalent in meaning. The use of a pronoun places slightly more emphasis on identity, while the verb places slightly more emphasis on the role or state. For this reason, sentences like 5 below have a slightly greater tendency to use a pronoun, while 6 is more likely to use a verb. However, the distinction is subtle enough that no mistake would be perceived if they were switched.

- (5) Яс германѣнинем.  
*Iás germanjěninem.*  
 I.NOM Ø German-DATINS.SG  
*“I am German.”*
- (6) Есм царем.  
*Iěsm cárem.*  
 be.1SG tsar-DATINS.SG  
*“I am tsar.”*



In the third person, the use of the copula when the subject is explicit is much less marked than in other persons, and so will often be seen with no particular emphatic force apparent. This is very common when the subject and complement are separated, as below, but it is not unusual to see sentences as simple as “Он ест...” *óne iést...* “he is...”

- (7) Дѣвушка напра́вѣ е́ст ми́ловою́ о мене́.  
*Děvuška naprávě iést mílovoiuŋ o mené.*  
 girl-NOM.SG on\_right be.3SG girlfriend-DATINS.SG.FEM at I.GEN  
 “The girl on the right is my girlfriend.”

The third person forms ест *iést* and есат *iésat* are frequently replaced by the clitic forms е *ie* and су *su*, especially in speech. The former may further reduce to just /j/ (orthographically “-и”) when immediately following a nominative case noun ending in a vowel, pronoun ending in a vowel, or the interrogative куда́ *kudé* “where?”. It can also appear after цой *cói* “what?” and хой *hói* “who?”, although the glide in the pronoun disappears orthographically: цо-и *có-i* “what is...?”, хо-и *hó-i* “who is...?”.<sup>1</sup> It is not permitted in other situations, including after a relative clause or after an adjective modifying a nominative-case noun.

- (8) Они су дру́жам о мене́.  
*Oní su družám o mené.*  
 they.NOM be.3PL.CLITIC friend-DATINS.PL at I.GEN  
 “They are friends of mine.”

- (9) Е интересно!  
*Ie interésno!*  
 be.3SG.CLITIC interesting-NOM.SG.NEUT  
 “It’s interesting!”

- (10) Она-и студенто́й в универсида́тѣ.  
*Oná-i studéntoi v universidátě.*  
 she.NOM-be.3SG.CLITIC student-FEM-DATINS.SG in university-LOC.SG  
 “She is a student at the university.”

1 There is a very slight difference in pronunciation between цой/хой and цо-и/хо-и. When the latter are followed by a word beginning with a vowel, the glide becomes long: /tsojjV xojjV/. When the following word begins with a consonant, however, there is absolutely no difference; in this case, the choice between цой/хой and цо-и/хо-и in writing has no significance in the sense of “what/who is...?”.

- (11) Куде-и о мене мобиле?  
*Kudé-i o mené móbile?*  
 where-be.3SG.CLITIC at I.GEN mobile\_phone-NOM.SG  
 “Where is my cell phone?”

There is one quirky use of the clitic “be” with verbs of motion that is discussed in section 11.17.6.1 below.

### 11.1.2 In the Past and Future

In the past and future, *буити* functions like any other verb, and always has a non-zero form. Technically, it is the only verb that has a distinct future tense, formed using the present/future endings with the root \*бад-. It is negated normally, using the separate particle *не ne* rather than a distinct verb form.

- (12) Вецераш ондуа буилѣ во Новеградѣ. Занок не бадета.  
*Věceraš onduá builě vo Novegrádě. Zánok ne bádeta.*  
 yesterday they.NOM.DL be-PAST-DL in Novegrad-LOC.SG.  
 Tomorrow NEG be.FUT-3DL  
 “Yesterday the two of them were in Novegrad. Tomorrow they won’t be.”

### 11.1.3 In Existential Clauses

The third person present and future forms of *буити*, both positive and negative, are regularly used in existential clauses. The verb must agree in number with the noun whose existence is being described, and in the past tense, in gender as well. When positive and in the present tense, the verb is generally non-zero if the existence of the subject has not been confirmed or is in question, and is zero-form if its existence is known. Clitic forms may not be used in an existential sense. When negative, the subject must be in the genitive case and the verb in the neuter singular or plural.

- (13) Многе нигоу есат во шем нижарѣ.  
*Mnóge nigóu iésat vo šém nižárě.*  
 many book-PART.PL be.3PL in this-LOC.SG.MASC bookstore-LOC.SG  
 “There are many books in this bookstore.”

- (14) Шеден не буило добрѣ предакъѣ по телевизей.  
*Šedén ne builo dóbrě predákjě po televizéi.*  
 today NEG be-PAST-NEUT good-GEN.SG.FEM program-GEN.SG on television-DATINS.SG  
*"There wasn't a good program on TV today."*
- (15) Гажета-та тамо на столѣ.  
*Gazéta-ta támo na stólě.*  
 newspaper-NOM.SG-TOP Ø there on table-LOC.SG  
*"The newspaper is over there on the table."*

These third person forms of *буити* are still used even if the object of existence is a first- or second-person pronoun, though it still agrees in number. In such sentences the existential *буити* tends to imply presence rather existence. The sentences *Ест яс Iést iás* and *Есат вуи Iésat vúi* mean roughly "I am here" and "You all are here" respectively; \**Есм яс* and \**Есте вуи* (with "proper" verbal agreement) may not be used as existentials. The negative existentials are identical in structure, although the pronoun appears in the genitive case instead: *мене нет mené nét* "I am not here", *васе несат vása nésat* "You all are not here".

This existential copula can be used with an adverb of condition, weather, or time as well. Such sentences may be completely impersonal, leading to sentences consisting solely of an adverb or impersonal adjective, as in sentence 16, or may include a noun in the dative-instrumental case to indicate feeling or perception, as in 17.

- (16) Кладно.  
*Kládno.*  
 cold-NOM.SG.NEUT Ø  
*"It's cold."*
- (17) Мнѣ хокѣкѣ.  
*Mně hókjakjo.*  
 I.DATINS Ø want-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*"I feel bored" (lit. "To me it is wanting [of something])"*

#### 11.1.4 In the Iterative

*Буити* also has an iterative or habitual counterpart, the first conjugation verb *буивати buiváti*. It is used whenever the act of being occurs repeatedly, although not necessarily regularly. *Буивати* acts more like a normal verb in that it lacks a fu-

ture tense and has a merged present-future, and no morphological negative form. When in the past tense, it is implied that the action no longer occurs.

- (18) Яс буйвале Москеве кожно асто.  
*Iás buivále Móskeve kóžno ásto.*  
 I.NOM be.ITER-PAST-MASC MOSCOW-LOC every-ACC.SG.NEUT year-ACC.SG  
*"I used to be in Moscow every year."*
- (19) Буиваст предакѡ интересна кожно соботу вецерем.  
*Buivást predákja interésna kóžnu sobótu vécerem.*  
 be.ITER-3SG program-NOM.SG interesting-NOM.SG.FEM every-ACC.SG.FEM  
 Saturday-ACC.SG evening-DATINS.SG  
*"There's an interesting show on every Saturday evening."*

### 11.1.5 As a Fill Verb

Although not technically a function of the copula, the verb буити is used as a generic filler verb when another verb has been dropped (much like "do" does in English).

- (20) Яс зацегале Михѡ со Натажей. Оне пришле, а-на не буила.  
*Iás zacegále Mihě so Natažei. Óne prišlé, a-ná ne builá.*  
 I.NOM wait-PAST-MASC Míha-GEN with Natása-DATINS. He-NOM arrive.  
 PF-PAST-MASC, whereas-she-NOM NEG be-PAST-FEM  
*"I was waiting for Miha and Natása. He came, but she didn't."*
- (21) Супе нет вокусне, а кура-та ест.  
*Súpe nét vókusne, a kúra-ta iést.*  
 soup-NOM.SG be.NEG.3SG tasty-NOM.SG.MASC, whereas chicken-NOM.SG-  
 TOP be-3SG  
*"The soup isn't very good, but the chicken is."*

## 11.2 The Imperfective

The imperfective is the default, unmarked form of the Novegradian verb. It represents an action not viewed as being complete or still in the process of happening, as well as habitual or ongoing actions.

### 11.2.1 In the Present/Future

The imperfective present/future tense is used for all actions happening at the present moment, or at the time of the statement, and habitual actions that continue into the present.

- (22) Яс живун в Елсинки.

*Iás živún v Ielsinkí.*

I.NOM live-1SG in Helsinki-LOC

*"I live in Helsinki."*

- (23) Муи ходим школуи кожне ден.

*Muí hódim škólui kózne dén.*

we.NOM go.INDET-1PL school-LAT.SG every-ACC.SG.MASC day-ACC.SG

*"We go to school every day."*

The same form indicates the imperfective future when there is any other sort of indication that the action takes place in the future, such as an adverb of time or just simple context. Use of this form (as opposed to the perfective future) makes no statement either way as to whether the action is to be viewed as 'completed' or not.

- (24) Занок егъе цидам ше магазин.

*Zánok iegjé cidám še magazin.*

tomorrow still read-1SG this-ACC.SG.MASC magazine-ACC.SG

*"Tomorrow I'll still be reading this magazine."*

- (25) Зав еужиной идем на брѣген.

*Zav iéužinoi idém na brěgen.*

behind-v dinner-DATINS.SG go.DET-1PL on beach-LAT.SG

*"After dinner we're going to the beach."*

### 11.2.2 In the Past

Imperfective verbs in the past tense represent actions done in the past and that are not viewed as being 'complete' actions, or no statement is made regarding completion.

- (26) Яс говориле со Николаѝй, койда пришла Таша.  
*Iás govorile so Nikoláioi, kóida prišlá Táša.*  
 I.NOM speak-PAST-MASC with Nikoláie-DATINS, when arrive.PF-PAST-FEM  
 Táša-NOM  
*"I was speaking with Nikolai when Táša came." (implying the conversation had not ended)*
- (27) Она мотрѣла кино-то, но ѝй интересно не буило.  
*Oná motrěla kinó-to, no iěi interésno ne builo.*  
 she.NOM watch-PAST-FEM movie-ACC.SG-TOP, but she.DATINS interesting-  
 NOM.SG.NEUT NEG be-PAST-NEUT  
*"She watched the movie, but didn't find it interesting." (implying the entire film was not seen when the judgment was made)*

Negated past actions are almost always imperfective, since actions that never occurred cannot be viewed as complete.

- (28) Яс не кренале овокь-то во марнатѣ.  
*Iás ne krenále óvokj-to vo marnátě.*  
 I.NOM NEG buy-PAST-MASC fruit-GEN.PL-TOP in store-LOC.SG  
*"I didn't buy the fruit in the store."*

### 11.2.3 In the Future

The periphrastic future, formed using the future tense of 'be' plus an infinitive, is used to express the future when it cannot be expressed properly in the present-future tense, or it would be too confusing to do so. Often it will also be used when it is clear that the action is in the future in order to further emphasize or clarify. It is most often seen in the negative.

- (29) Надуа со Вѣрой не бадева вастати Марка во кавѣ шеден вѣцерем.  
*Naduá so Věroi ne bádeva vástati Márka vo kavě šedén vécere.*  
 we.NOM.DL with Věra-DATINS NEG be.FUT-1DL meet-INF Márke-GEN in  
 café-LOC.SG today evening-DATINS.SG  
*"Věra and I won't be able to meet Márke in the café tonight."*

- (30) Владите́ле Ревела́ соса́а не ба́дет осдава́ти за пуида́м.  
*Vláditeľe Révela sodzása ne bádet osdaváti za puidám.*  
 governor-NOM.SG Tallinn-GEN now NEG be.FUT-3SG answer.IMPF-INF for  
 question-DATINS.PL  
*"The Governor of Tallinn is currently not answering questions." (lit. "will not answer now")*

The infinitive verb can never be perfective.

### 11.2.4 In the Future Hypothetical

The future hypothetical is an analytic construction formed from the future tense of 'be' plus the past tense form of another verb (which was originally a participle). The imperfective future hypothetical, which can only appear negated, indicates that an action is being presumed not to have taken place. It is most commonly found after the conjunction *анно* *ánno* "if". The term "future" is only used because of the presence of the future tense form of *буити*. Interestingly, the negative particle *не* may be placed either before *буити* (as is required in the future tense) or between *буити* and the main verb (which is never allowed in the future tense). The main verb still agrees with its subject in gender and number, as though it were fully independent.

- (31) Анно вуи рагѣ егѣ не ба́дете при́ймѣли, призуони́те мнѣ.  
*Ánno vuí ragě iegě ne bádete prijměli, prizuoníte mně.*  
 if you.NOM.PL money-GEN.SG still NEG be.FUT-2PL receive-PAST-PL, call-2PL.  
 IMPER I.DATINS  
*"If you haven't received the money yet, call me."*
- (32) Анно Ма́рке-те шево́ ба́дет не до́вѣгле, о ме́ тре́ба одзи́ти вно́у.  
*Ánno Márke-te ševó bádet ne dověgle, o mé tréba odzíti vnóu.*  
 if Márke-NOM-TOP this-GEN.SG be.FUT-3SG NEG understand-PAST-MASC, at  
 I.LAT Ø need-NOM.SG teach-INF again  
*"If Márke hasn't understood this [yet], I need to teach him again."*

## 11.3 The Perfective

The Novegradian perfective aspect (not to be confused with perfect aspect) marks actions that are viewed as complete and whole, and is the counterpart of the

imperfective aspect. More emphasis is also placed on the conditions surrounding the action, meaning some sort of nominal or adverbial element is always required, most often a direct object. That is, a sentence like *яс ѳгле ias iěgle* “I ate (IMPF)” is grammatical, but *\*\*яс сиѳгле ias siěgle* “I ate (PF)” is not, unless a direct object is provided or clearly implied; native speakers perceive it as a sentence fragment.

### 11.3.1 In the Future

The present/future forms, which could imply either tense for imperfective verbs, always indicate the future in perfective verbs (since an action cannot be completed at the present moment, or else it would already be complete). The perfective future indicates that the action is to be completed within a contextually-specified time.

- (33) Яс занок напихъун ше документе.  
*Iás zánok napihjun še dokuménte.*  
 I.NOM tomorrow write.PF-1SG this-ACC.SG.MASC document-ACC.SG  
*“I’ll write [and complete] this document tomorrow.”*

Several common verbs only have a perfective future, and no imperfective (i.e., analytic) future. The most common are *мойкѳ mójkji* “be able to” and *хотѳти hótěti* “want”, which become *сомойкѳ somójkji* and *захотѳти zahótěti*, respectively.

- (34) Оне соможет наценати проехте-те, койда приймѳет иструксю.  
*Óne somózet nacenáti proiěhte-te kóida prijměet istrúksiu.*  
 he.NOM be\_able.PF-3SG begin-INF project-NOM.SG-TOP when receive-3SG  
 instructions-ACC.SG  
*“He’ll be able to begin the project once he receives instructions.”*

The difference between the perfective and imperfective can best be explained using examples identical in all ways but for aspect. In example 35 below, the conjunction *койда* “when” changes its meaning predictably when the aspects of verbs around it are manipulated. In example 36, the adverb *cosaca sodzása* “now” modifies the verbs.



- (35) Они оѣхали, койда надуа егралѣ/пройгралѣ на шахмат.  
*Oní oiěhali, kóida naduá ieგრალѣ/proigrálѣ na šáhmat.*  
 they.NOM leave.PF-3PL when we.NOM.DL play-PAST-1DL/  
 play.PF-PAST-1DL on chess-ACC.SG  
 Imperfective: “*They left while we were playing chess.*”  
 Perfective: “*They left once we had finished our game of chess.*”
- (36) Яс cosaca миюн/омиюн суои одѣгѣѣ.  
*Iás sodzása mījun/omījun suojí oděgějě.*  
 I.NOM now wash-1SG/wash.PF-1SG REFLX\_POSS-ACC.PL clothing-ACC.PL  
 Imperfective: “*I’m washing my clothes now.*”  
 Perfective: “*I’m just about to finish washing my clothes.*”

### 11.3.2 In the Past

Perfective verbs are most often used in the past tense, where they indicate that an action was successfully “completed”.

- (37) Они вецераш законцили план-от, котрий подѣлали.  
*Oní véceraš zakóncili plan-ót, kótrij poděľali.*  
 they.NOM yesterday finish.PF-PAST-PL plan-ACC.SG-TOP, REL-ACC.SG.MASC.  
 DEF spend\_time\_on-PAST-PL  
 “*Yesterday they finished the plan they were making.*”
- (38) Ти кодаш ли цидала/процидала шу нигу?  
*Tí kódaš li cidála/procidála šú nígu?*  
 you.NOM sometime Q read-PAST-FEM/read.PF-PAST-FEM this-ACC.SG.FEM  
 book-ACC.SG  
 Imperfective: “*Have you ever read this book before?*”  
 Perfective: “*Did you ever finish this book?*”

### 11.3.3 In the Future Hypothetical

The perfective future hypothetical (formed using the future tense of “be” plus the past perfective form of the main verb) marks an action temporarily assumed to have happened, and is therefore the positive form of the imperfective future hypothetical.

- (39) Прощките мене-то анно цеш продиуно ва́ме бадун сорѣсиле.  
*Proškjíte mené-to áнно цés prodiuno vá́me bádun sorědzíle.*  
 forgive.PF-2PL.IMPER I.ACC-TOP if something.ACC offensive-ACC.SG.NEUT  
 you.PL.DATINS be.FUT-1SG say.PF-PAST-MASC  
*"Forgive me if I have said something offensive."*

## 11.4 Possession

### 11.4.1 Have

Possession in Novegradian is indicated using a periphrastic construction, literally meaning "at X there is Y". The construction likely originates from the Finnic languages, the native verb "have" having been lost centuries ago. The preposition *o* *o* is followed by the possessor in the genitive case, and then the possessed object in whichever case is most appropriate. If the subject (the possessed object) is definite, it will often appear with a topicalization marker. When negated, the non-possessed object must be in the genitive.

- (40) О мене доваин сина с едной докѣрем.  
*O mené dǫvajin sína s iednói dókjerem.*  
 at I.GEN Ø two.ANIM-NOM son-COUNT with one-DATINS.SG.FEM daughter-DATINS.SG  
*"I have two sons and a daughter."*
- (41) Новей возе-те на паркишѣ е ов Андре́я.  
*Nóvei vóze-te na párkíšě ie ov Andréia.*  
 new-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF car-NOM.SG-TOP on parking\_lot-LOC.SG be.3SG.  
 CLITIC at-V Andréie-GEN  
*"The new car in the lot is Andréie's."*

In other tenses the copula is non-zero and must agree in person, gender, and number (whichever are applicable) with the possessed noun, the grammatical subject. The iterative *буивати* may also be used.

- (42) О нею буиле велем вале дум близе Неуграда.  
*O néiu buile vélem vále dúm blíze Néugrada.*  
 at N-they.GEN.DL be-PAST.MASC very large-NOM.SG.MASC house-NOM.SG  
 near Néugrade-LOC  
*"The two of them used to have a very large house near Néugrade."*
- (43) О нѣ цазам буйвати проблемоу со суоим ланкъом.  
*O ně cazám buiváti problémou so suojím lankjóm.*  
 at N-she.GEN sometimes be.ITER-3PL problem-PART.PL with REFL\_POSS-  
 DATINS.SG.NEUT hip-DATINS.SG  
*"She has some problems with her hip from time to time."*

Expressions such as "I want to have a cat", normal in English, are illegal in Novegradian. They would be rendered with a single verb: Яс кошѣ хокъун *Iás kóšě hókjun*, literally "I want a cat".

The above constructions may only be used if the possessor is animate. If the possessor is inanimate, a construction such as "there is X in Y" must be used. "Ест ли" and "есат ли" reduce to е-ли *ié-li* "is there?" and су-ли *sú-li* "are there?" in questions, though "еста ли" does not reduce.

- (44) Е-ли универсидате во вашем градѣ?  
*Ié-li universidáte vo vašem grádě?*  
 be.3SG.CLITIC-Q university-NOM.SG in your.PL-LOC.SG.MASC city-LOC.SG  
*"Does your city have a university?" (lit. "Is there a university in your city?")*

Note, however, that the verb ношити *nóšiti* (literally "carry") is used to mean "have on one's person" when followed by the preposition ими *imí* "with":

- (45) Ношиш ли ими рагу зав обѣдем?  
*Nóšíš li imí rágu zav óbēdem?*  
 carry.INDET-2SG Q with money-ACC.SG for-V lunch-DATINS.SG  
*"Do you have money for lunch?"*

### 11.4.2 Need

Need is expressed using the same sort of construction, where the possessed noun is треба *tréba* "need, necessity". Unlike the normal possessive construction, however, the lative pronouns are generally used in place of the genitive, but if the possessor is not a pronoun, the genitive case is still used (see examples 46 and 47

below). If what is needed is a noun, it will appear in the genitive case after *треба*, literally meaning “need of X”.

- (46) О ме треба твоево насуѣта.  
*O mé tréba tuoievó násuěta.*  
 at I.LAT Ø need-NOM.SG your-GEN.SG.MASC advice-GEN.SG  
*“I need your advice.”*
- (47) О Крежимира нет требѣ болша воза.  
*O Krežímira nět trébě bólsa vóza.*  
 at Krežímire-GEN be.NEG.3SG need-GEN.SG large.COMP-GEN.MASC.SG car-GEN.SG  
*“Krežímire doesn’t need a bigger car.”*

If what is needed is an action, the verb is placed after *треба* in either the infinitive or supine form. The supine is used when there is physical movement involved, the infinitive otherwise.

- (48) О неи треба оситиш тѣм-како ше дѣлати бес помощи.  
*O něji tréba odzítis těm-kako sé dělati bes pomogji.*  
 at he.LAT Ø need-NOM.SG teach-INF-MID REL.DATINS.SG-how this-NOM.SG do-INF without help-GEN.SG  
*“He needs to learn how to do this without help.”*
- (49) О ме многе требок омуит наш песе.  
*O mé mnóge trébok omuit nás pése.*  
 at I.LAT Ø much need-PART.SG wash.PF-SUP out-NOM.SG.MASC dog-NOM.SG  
*“I really need to [go] wash our dog.”*

## 11.5 Using Two Verbs

When there are two verbs present in a single clause, the first conjugates in agreement with the grammatical subject, and the second remains in the infinitive or supine. The rules for which are the same as used with *треба* to express necessity: the infinitive if the action is seen as not involving movement, the supine if seen as involving movement. The tendencies for individual verbs vary among speakers, and closer to the Russian border, the infinitive may be used in all situations.

- (50) Яс радеюм еграт на вутбољ.  
*Iás radéiun iegrát na vutból.*  
 I.NOM enjoy-1SG play-SUP on football-ACC.SG  
*"I enjoy playing/going to play football."*
- (51) Муи нашнем работати трес три дена.  
*Mui našném rabótati tres trí déna.*  
 we.NOM begin.PF-1PL work-INF within three.ACC day-COUNT  
*"We'll start working in three days."*

The entire phrase is negated by negating the main verb.

- (52) Не хокъун ис.  
*Ne hókjun ís.*  
 NEG want-1SG go-SUP  
*"I don't want to go."*

If both verbs are negated, the action is perceived as involuntary.

- (53) Яс не могас не волубитиш во нею.  
*Iás ne mógle ne volubítiš vo něiu.*  
 I.NOM NEG be\_able-PAST-MASC NEG fall\_in\_love-INF-MID in  
 she.LAT  
*"I couldn't help but fall in love with her." (lit. "I couldn't not fall in love")*

If a verb fills the subject slot of a sentence rather than the direct object, that verb may only be in the infinitive and its own local direct objects must be placed before it. In such sentences *ше* *še* "this" or *ше-и* *še-i* "this is" are often used as resumptive pronouns.

- (54) Ниги цидати ше-и вешелом дѣлом.  
*Nigi cidáti še-i véšelom dělom.*  
 book-NOM.PL read-INF this-NOM.SG-be.3SG.CLITIC merry-DATINS.SG.NEUT  
 matter-DATINS.SG  
*"Reading books is fun." (lit. "To read books, this is a merry matter.")*
- (55) Мнѣ стоит ли ше кренати?  
*Mně stójit li še krenáti?*  
 I.DATINS be\_worth-3SG Q this.NOM.SG buy-INF  
*"Is it worth it for me to buy this?"*

If the infinitive verb is negated, however, then its direct object is free to move around and be placed either before or after it.

- (56) Не страшити позок ше-и бадет сложено.  
*Ne strášiti pozók še-i bádet slóženo.*  
 NEG frighten-INF bird-GEN.PL this.NOM.SG be.FUT-3SG difficult-NOM.  
 SG.NEUT  
*“Not frightening the birds will be difficult.”*

## 11.6 Verbs of Motion

Verbs of motion in Novegradian display a three-way contrast of imperfective determinate, imperfective indeterminate, and perfective, instead of the two-way distinction of perfective and imperfective found in other verbs. They also freely take directional prefixes.

### 11.6.1 Imperfective Determinate Verbs

Determinate verbs of motion refer to a single trip or action with a specific destination.

- (57) Яс cosaca ђаун думове: тамо бадун трес пиннацити минут.  
*Iás sodzása iědun dumóve: támo bádun tres pinnáciti minút.*  
 I.NOM now go\_by\_vehicle.DET-1SG homeward: there be.FUT-1SG within  
 fifteen-ACC minute-GEN.PL  
*“I’m going home now; I’ll be there in fifteen minutes.”*
- (58) О нею треба ис на работун занок.  
*O néiu tréba is na rabótun zánok.*  
 at she.LAT Ø need-NOM.SG go.DET-SUP on work-LAT.SG  
 tomorrow  
*“She has to go to work tomorrow.”*

It is also the default form used when talking about the action in general.

- (59) Она радѣет плут кожне лѣтен.  
*Oná radéiet plút kóžne lěten.*  
 she.NOM enjoy-3SG swim.DET-SUP every-ACC.SG.MASC summer-ACC.SG  
 “She loves to go swimming every summer.”

A determinate verb in the past tense implies a one-way trip; that is, the subject went somewhere, and as of the present, is still in that location.

Determinate verbs are also generally required when duration is specified, since the indefinite nature of indeterminate verbs means they generally cannot take a specific durational argument.

- (60) Муи ледѣли пети пор.  
*Mui leděli pěti pór.*  
 we.NOM fly.DET-PAST-PL five-ACC hour-GEN.PL  
 “We flew for five hours.”

The simple future (буити + infinitive) is never used with imperfective verbs of motion (though note 11.6.8 below). It can, however, be implied using the present-future tense and adverbs of time.

## 11.6.2 Imperfective Indeterminate Verbs

Indeterminate verbs of motion express three main concepts: multiple directions, uncertain direction, or multiple events.

“Multiple directions” most often refers to a round trip. These verbs will often be translated into English using the verb “to be”, and in this sense can only be found in the past tense.

- (61) Муи ѣздили Вранцюн во лутану.  
*Mui iězdili Vranciuń vo lútanu.*  
 we.NOM go\_by\_vehicle.INDET-PAST-PL France-LAT in February-ACC.SG  
 “We were in France in February.”
- (62) Надуа ходилѣ кинотеятрен зав еужиной.  
*Naduá hódilě kinoteiátren zav iéužinoi.*  
 we.NOM.DL go.INDET-PAST-DL movie\_theatre-LAT.SG behind-v dinner-DATINS.SG  
 “We went to the movie theatre after dinner [and later left].”

When the direction is uncertain, these verbs take on the meaning of “wander”.

- (63) Надуа со дѣвушкой о мене ходилѣ на паркѣ.  
*Naduá so děvuškoi o mené hódilě na párkě.*  
 we.NOM.DL with girl-DATINS.SG at I.GEN go.INDET-PAST-DL on park-LOC.SG  
*“My girlfriend and I were walking around the park.”*

Habitual actions also use the indeterminate form.

- (64) Яс лидам на США кожни дова асту.  
*Iás lidám na SŠA kóžni dóva ástu.*  
 I.NOM fly.INDET-1SG on USA-[LAT.PL] every-ACC.PL two-ACC.NEUT year-COUNT  
*“I fly to the US every two years.”*

Indeterminate verbs of motion cannot appear in the future tense, only in the past and present.

### 11.6.3 Perfective Verbs of Motion

Perfective verbs of motion are formed using the prefix *po-* and the determinate imperfective form. It refers directly to the setting off of an action. This type of perfective has limited use in Novegradian, however, and only ever appears in the future tense.

- (65) Она пойдѣт кренат клѣбек со млегом зе марната трес пору.  
*Oná poidét krenát klěbék so mlegóm ze marnáta tres póru.*  
 she.NOM go.PF-3SG buy-SUP bread-PART.SG with milk-DATINS.SG from store-GEN.SG within hour-ACC.SG  
*“She will go to buy some bread and milk from the store within an hour.”*
- (66) Самолѣде-те поледит во полѣ петѣе.  
*Samoléde-te poledít vo pólě pétěie.*  
 airplane-nom.sg-top fly.PF-3SG in half-ACC.SG fifth-GEN.SG.FEM.DEF  
*“The airplane leaves at 4:30.”*

### 11.6.4 Prefixed Verbs of Motion

Imperfective verbs of motion (both determinate and indeterminate) freely take



directional prefixes to further elaborate on the action. The prefixes *при-* *pri-* and *о-* *o-* are the most common, meaning “arrive” and “depart” respectively. Prefixed indeterminate verbs are effectively imperfective, and determinate verbs perfective.

- (67) Они занок ко наме приѣдут.  
*Oní zánok ko náme přijědūt.*  
 they.NOM tomorrow toward we.DATINS arrive\_by\_vehicle.PF-3PL  
*“They’ll arrive at our place tomorrow.”*
- (68) Анно ти страшиш позок, вие оледат.  
*Anno tí strášiš pozók, víje oledát.*  
 if you.NOM scare-2SG bird-ACC.PL, all-NOM.PL fly\_away.PF-3PL  
*“If you scare the birds, they’ll all fly off.”*

In other cases, a sort of ‘preposition agreement’ may be seen, where direction is marked both on the verb and on the preposition following it.

- (69) Оне вошле во библиѣдескун.  
*Óne vošlé vo biblijodékun.*  
 he.NOM in-go-PAST-MASC in library-LAT.SG  
*“He walked into the library.”*
- (70) Како доѣхати дов Онежеска?  
*Káko doiěhati dov Onězeska?*  
 how up\_to-go\_by\_vehicle.PF-INF up\_to-V Onězeske-GEN  
*“How do you get to Onězeske?”*

### 11.6.5 Verbs of Motion with Other Verbs

When verbs of motion are used in combination with other verbs in the same clause, the other verb must be in the supine form (since the verb of motion guarantees that there is movement involved).

- (71) Они идут калѣу ловит.  
*Oní idūt kalióu lóvit.*  
 they.NOM go.DET-3PL fish-PART.PL catch-SUP  
*“They’re going out to catch some fish.”*

(72) Иди пизат ей напише!

*Idí pizát iei nápise!*

go.DET-IMPER.2SG write-SUP she-DATINS letter-NOM.SG

*“Go write her a letter!”*

The construction *исти* + verb does not express the future tense as in English, but indicates that some sort of relocation is required before the action can be performed.

### 11.6.6 Complements of Verbs of Motion

The complement of some prefixed verbs of motion, typically representing destination, may appear either with or without a preposition. However, there is a strong tendency to include the preposition due to the phenomenon of “preposition agreement” mentioned earlier. Example 69 above, for example, could just as easily be written *Оне вошла библиједкун* *Óne vošlé biblijodékun*.

However, with simple unprefixes verbs of motion (that is, the basic determinate, indeterminate, or perfective forms), the rules are more complicated. There are four possible structures for the complement, and each has a slightly different meaning.

- If the complement is in the lative case and there is no preposition, simple allative motion is expressed: *исти Новеграден* “go to Novegrad”.
- If the complement is in the lative case and there is a preposition, either *во* or *на* as appropriate, specific motion into is expressed: *исти на Новеграден* “go into Novegrad”.
- If the complement is in the dative-instrumental case and there is no preposition, motion by way of is expressed: *исти Новеградем* “go by way of Novegrad”.
- If the complement is in the dative-instrumental case and there is a preposition (i.e., *ко* *ko*), motion towards the general area is expressed: *исти ко Новеградем* “go towards Novegrad, to into the neighborhood of Novegrad”. However, if the object of the preposition is a person, then it means simply “to” or “to the home of”: *исти ко Маркој* *ísti ko Márkoi* “go to Márke’s”.

### 11.6.7 *Исти/Ходити, Ћхати/Ћздити, Брести/Бродити*

The three verbs of motion *исти* ~ *ходити*, *ћхати* ~ *ћздити*, and *брести* ~

бродити deserve further examination in terms of when they are semantically appropriate.

The pair *исти/ходити* means “to go on foot”, and thus refers primarily to short distances.

- (73) Они шли ко сужѣгѣм.  
*Oní šli ko sužěgjam.*  
 they.NOM go.DET-PAST-PL toward neighbor-DATINS.PL  
*“They went to the neighbors’ house.”*

The pair *ѣхати/ѣздити* means “to go by vehicle”.

- (74) Муи ѣдем Осташковен на цетири дена.  
*Mui iǎdem Óstaškoven na cétiri déna.*  
 we.NOM go\_by\_vehicle.DET-1PL on four-ACC day-COUNT  
*“We’re going to Óstaškou for four days.”*

However, buses, trams, trains, and other forms of ground transportation that run on a schedule also use *исти/ходити* when the motion of the vehicle in question is being described. Cars, trucks, and other non-scheduled vehicles must use *ѣхати/ѣздити*.

- (75) Аутобусе сосаса пријдет.  
*Áutobuse sodzása prijdét.*  
 bus-NOM.SG now arrive.PF-3SG  
*“The bus will arrive in just a moment.”*

- (76) Вози вех ден па вех граден ѣздат.  
*Vózi véh dén pa véh gráden iǎzdat.*  
 car-NOM.PL all-ACC.SG.MASC day-ACC.SG along all-LAT.SG.MASC city-LAT.SG  
 go\_by\_vehicle.INDET-3PL  
*“Cars drive about the city all day long.”*

The pair *брести/бродити* is uniquely Novegradian, and means “walk on an unstable surface”. This primarily refers to mud, snow, or shallow water (i.e., that one can walk or wade through, but not swim). It competes with both *исти/ходити* and *ѣхати/ѣздити*, that is, it can be used to describe both walking proper and conveyance by ground vehicles.

- (77) Дѣдете вие бредут во школун во снѣгѣ за сурвой.  
*Dědete vijě bredūt vo škólun vo sněgě za survói.*  
 child-NOM.PL all-NOM.PL go\_over\_unstable\_surface.DET-3PL into school-LAT.SG in snow-LOC.SG after blizzard-DATINS.SG  
*"The children are walking to school in the snow after the blizzard."*
- (78) Не старайтеш брес ногам или возем по розлитѣх драгѣх.  
*Ne staráiteš brés nogám ili vózem po rozlítěh drágěh.*  
 NEG attempt-2PL.IMPER go\_over\_unstable\_surface-SUP foot-DATINS.PL or car-DATINS.SG along flood-PTCP.PASS.PF-LOC.PL road-LOC.PL  
*"Do not attempt to walk or drive on flooded roads." (lit. "go [бреду] by foot or by car")*

When used with the prepositions ими/со "with", it can also indicate hauling something across this surface. This prepositional phrase must immediately follow the verb, as it has become somewhat of a fixed expression.

- (79) Оне старасци пребродит со конѣм трес рѣгѣ.  
*Óne starásci prebrodit so konjém tres řěgě.*  
 he-NOM try-3SG-MID ford-SUP with horse-DATINS.SG across river-GEN.SG  
*"He is trying to get his horse across the river." (lit. "ford with the horse across the river")*

The original sense of the pair брести/бродити in Common Slavic was "ford (a river, etc.)", although this meaning too has drifted in many of the individual modern-day Slavic languages.

### 11.6.8 The Future of Unprefixed Imperfective Verbs of Motion

For the most part, the unprefixed imperfective verbs of motion lack a true future tense. Generally the perfective must be used, or if the time the event takes place is in the near future, the present determinate may be used as an implied future: яс пойду/иду трес три дена *Iás poidún/idún tres trí déna* "I will leave/am leaving in three days". The indeterminate present can never be used as an implied future.

However, there are times, albeit generally infrequently, when some specific quality of the imperfective verbs of motion is needed in the future tense. The perfective, for instance, cannot express duration (\*\*поѣду трѣ порѣ "I will drive for three hours") or iteration (\*\*пойду кожду шемицу "I will go every week"), since

perfective verbs by definition can refer only to a single moment in time. The determinate and indeterminate seemingly must be used in these cases. However, since approximately the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, the future tense forms of *буити* cannot be with unprefixated imperfective verbs of motion.

In place of the *буити* future, a quirky paraphrase is used that involves the Novegradian possessive construction. This future is formed with the standard *о* “at” + genitive possessive, followed by the active imperfective participle in the neuter singular, followed by the future tense forms of *буити* in either the third person singular, or matching whatever the logical subject of the sentence is. The participle must always be in the neuter singular, as it acts impersonally. The use of the third person singular future form of “be” is older and more formal, but the agreeing form is now widely accepted as well. The resulting construction is virtually impossible to translate literally; it is seemingly both impersonal and personal at the same time.

- (80) О насе трѣ порѣ ѣдакъо бадет/бадем Ригун.

*O náse trě pórě iědákjo bādet/bādem Rígun.*

at we.GEN three.ACC.FEM hour-COUNT go\_by\_vehicle.DET-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-  
NOM.SG.NEUT be.FUT-3SG/be.FUT-1PL Riga-LAT

*“We will drive for three hours to Riga.”*

- (81) Ов Анастасин ходекъо мужеѣ бадет кожне ден, койда бадет во Паришѣ.

*Ov Anastásin hodékjo mužéiě bādet kóžne dén, kóida bādet vo Parísě.*

at-v Anastásia-GEN go.INDET-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-NOM.SG.NEUT museum-LAT.PL  
be.FUT-3SG every-ACC.SG.MASC day-ACC.SG, when be.FUT-3SG in Paris-LOC

*“Anastásia will go to museums every day while she is in Paris.” (lit. “will be in Paris”)*

If the logical subject is a pronoun, the reflexive form *о шебе о шебе* may never be used, even if the *буити* is agreeing and encoding subject information as well. For example, in 80 above, *\*\*О шебе ѣдакъо бадем* is not grammatical.

This workaround may be avoided entirely if the verb of motion is not the direct complement of “to be”, such as in constructions of necessity. Sentence 82 below literally means “at me there will be need of going...”, so the noun “need” intervenes between the copula and the verb of motion. Saying *\*\*\*О ме треба бадет о мене ѣдекъо буит* for “I will have to go” is completely ungrammatical and sounds outright comical to native ears.

- (82) О ме треба бадет ѓздит Торген кожне мѣшици.  
*O mé tréba bádet iězdit Tórgen kózne měšici.*  
 at I.LAT need-NOM.SG be.FUT-3SG go\_by\_vehicle.INDET-SUP Tóрге-LAT  
 every-ACC.SG.MASC month-ACC.SG  
*"I will have to go to Tóрге every month."*

## 11.7 The Subjunctive in Simple Clauses

The subjunctive mood's primary functions are in hypothetical clauses, and therefore it usually requires more than one clause in a sentence. Such usage will be described later. However, it may appear in simple clauses in polite requests, most often in question form. The subjunctive particle itself generally appears as the second element in a sentence, meaning it will most often appear after the pronoun or verb.

- (83) Ти би со мнѣ шла?  
*Ti bi so mně slá?*  
 you.NOM SUBJ.SG with I.DATINS go.DET-PAST-FEM  
*"Would you like to come with me?"*
- (84) Вуи бу хотѣли шѣдѣци?  
*Vui bu hótěli šěděci?*  
 you.NOM.PL SUBJ.PL want-PAST-PL sit-SUP-MID  
*"Would you all like to sit down?"*

By following an interrogative pronoun with the subjunctive particle би, the interrogative is transformed into a hypothetical indefinite pronoun.

- (85) Куде бу они омѣстовалиш, найдем.  
*Kudé bu oni oměstováliš, naidém.*  
 where SUBJ.PL they.NOM locate-PAST-PL-MID, find.PF-1PL  
*"Wherever they may be, we will find them."*
- (86) Торгај ше тѣм о ково би буила велна рага.  
*Torgái še těm o kovó bi builá vélna rága.*  
 sell-2SG.IMPER this-ACC.SG REL.DATINS.SG at who-GEN SUBJ.SG be.PAST-FEM  
 enough-NOM.SG.FEM money-NOM.SG  
*"Sell it to whomever has enough money."*

When the subjunctive particle is placed at the beginning of the sentence and stressed, it usually translates as “if only”, expressing a wish. If the subject is singular, *би* *bi* is replaced by *буиле* *buile*, the /l/ added to reinforce this usually unstressed particle and eventually resulting in its “merger” with the past tense of *буити*. The dual and plural forms remain unchanged.

- (87) Бис ондуа приходилъ.  
*Bís onduá prihódilě.*  
 SUBJ.DL they.NOM.DL arrive-PAST-DL  
*“If only the two of them had come.”*

When the main verb is “be”, it usually is dropped to avoid repetition.

- (88) Буиле яс боґате!  
*Buile iás boǵáte!*  
 SUBJ.SG I.NOM rich-NOM.SG.MASC  
*“If only I were rich!” (Буиле яс буиле боґате is also acceptable, but uncommon)*

## 11.8 The Imperative

The primary function of five imperative forms is to express a command or request. The first person imperatives are equivalent to English “Let’s X” (the dual if there if one other person, the plural if more).

- (89) Затули дуери-ти койда ти ойдеш.  
*Zatulí duéri-ti kóida tí oidés.*  
 close.PF-IMPER.2SG door-NOM.SG-TOP when you.NOM  
 leave.PF-2SG  
*“Close the door when you leave.”*
- (90) Пойдѣмте вечерем ѓс во ресторанѢ „Олимпя”.  
*Poiděmte vécerem iěš vo restoráně “Olímpia”.*  
 go.PF-1PL-IMPER evening-DATINS.SG eat-SUP in restaurant-LOC.SG Olympia-  
 NOM.SG  
*“Let’s go eat at the Olympia restaurant tonight.”*

- (91) Воходите, прухъун.  
*Vohodíte, prúhjun.*  
 enter-2PL.IMPER ask-1SG  
 “Come in, please.”

Negative imperatives are formed with не and the regular imperative.

- (92) Не дѣлай шѣво!  
*Ne dělái ševo!*  
 NEG do-2SG.IMPER this-GEN.SG  
 “Don’t do that!”

A hortative mood (“Let X do Y”) is formed using the imperfective imperative form of дати *dáti* “give”, a noun or pronoun in the dative/instrumental case, and a perfective verb in the infinitive or supine.

- (93) Дай мнѣ оис!  
*Dái mně ójis!*  
 give-2SG.IMPER I.DATINS leave.PF-SUP  
 “Let me leave!”

While the subject pronoun is generally dropped in imperatives, they may be left in to create an informal request or urging. This can be made more rude by topicalizing the subject pronoun.

- (94) Ти иди!  
*Tí idí!*  
 you.SG go.DET-2SG.IMPER  
 “Why don’t you go?”

- (95) Ти-то иди!  
*Tí-to idí!*  
 you.SG-TOP go.DET-2SG.IMPER  
 “You there, go!”

The sole optative буди *budí*, historically a third person imperative, means “let X be”. It always appears at the beginning of the sentence and is immediately followed by a noun or pronoun in the nominative case. The noun can only be third person, but may be of any number.



- (96) Буди они страви!  
*Budí oní strávi!*  
 be.OPT they.NOM healthy-NOM.PL  
 “May they be healthy!”

Other optatives may be formed with the particles *ати áti* or *ат at* followed by a verb in the present or future tense.

- (97) Ати вѣцнѣ живет Великей Новеграде!  
*Áti věcně živét Velikei Novegráde!*  
 OPT eternal-ADV live-3SG Great-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF Novegrad-NOM  
 “Long live Great Novegrad!” (lit. “May Great Novegrad live eternally”)

## 11.9 Causatives

Many causative pairs in Novegradian exist as two distinct verbs. Some, such as *омирати omírati* “die” and *забитати zabitáti* “kill” (cause to die), bear no relation to one another. Verbs of position have derived causatives, elaborated upon in Section 11.17.6.4 below. Stative verbs are generally made causative with a prefix, generally *о-* *o-* or *за-* *za-*: *мољцати molcáti* “be silent” → *замољцати zamolcáti* “silence”. Adjectives are almost always verbalized and rarely appear unmodified in analytic causatives, either with a prefix: *нове nóve* “new” → *оновити onóviti* “renew, revitalize”; or without one: *сухе sùhe* “dry” → *сушити súšiti* “dry”.

Analytic causatives are more complex. Novegradian lacks a single causativizing verb; which verb to use is highly dependent on the nature of the action involved.

Firstly, if the causative can be rephrased using a more specific verb, it is. In example 1 below, “ask” is far more specific than a generic causative like English “have”, and so is greatly preferred.

- (98) Яс попрожиле ево тово-це оскриваст дуери.  
*Iás poprožíle ievó tovó-ce oskrivást duéri.*  
 I.NOM ask.PF-PAST-MASC he.ACC REL.GEN.SG-that.NOM open-3SG door-ACC.  
 SG  
 “I had him open the door.” (lit. “asked”)

The most common causative construction is *содавати/содати sodaváti/sodáti* “hand over” + supine, with the subject of the supine verb in the dative/instrumen-

tal. If this oblique ‘subject’ is absent, the supine verb must be middle voice.

- (99) Яс содагле Владимирой муит возе.  
*Iás sodágle Vladímiroi muít vóze.*  
 I.NOM hand\_over.PF-PAST-MASC Vladímire-DATINS wash-SUP car-NOM.SG  
 “I had Vladímire wash the car.”
- (100) Яс содагле воз муици.  
*Iás sodágle vóz muíci.*  
 I.NOM hand\_over.PF-PAST-MASC car-ACC.SG wash-SUP-MID  
 “I had the car washed.”

Note above how “car” appears as the object of the supine verb in sentence 2, but as the object of содати in sentence 3. This impacts how it receives case marking as the objects of non-negated non-finite verbs appear in the nominative case.

This same construction is used even if the object cannot logically be “handed over”.

- (101) Ти мене содаеш разѣис сон ума.  
*Tí mené sodaiés rázějis son úma.*  
 you.SG.NOM I.ACC hand\_over-2SG go\_apart.PF-SUP from-N mind-GEN.SG  
 “You’re driving me crazy.” (lit. “You are handing me over to part from the mind”)

The phrase “make somebody (into) something” is handled using the constructions превратити X во Y *prevrátiti X vo Y* “convert X into Y”, дѣлати Y зе X *dělati Y ze X* “make Y out of X”, or another more specific verb.

- (102) Содѣлали зе нево президента.  
*Sodělali ze nevó preziděnta.*  
 make.PF-PAST-PL from N-he.GEN president-ACC.SG  
 “They made him president.”

If the verb being made causative is normally intransitive, the construction used is остати *ostáti* “leave (as)” + active imperfective participle in the indefinite dative/instrumental case.

- (103) Яс остале ево плацакѡм.

*Iás ostále ievó plácakjom.*

I.NOM leave.PF-PAST-MASC he.ACC cry-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-DATINS.SG.MASC

*"I made him cry."*

## 11.10 The Passive Voice

There are two primary means of forming the passive voice in Novegradian. One, using participles, will be discussed later. The other form derives from the old reflexive pronoun \*sę, which has fused to the main verb in the form -шин -*šin*. The patient (grammatical subject) appears in the nominative case, and the passive verb conjugates in agreement.

- (104) Будове-те насалней Новеградескаево Сударестуонаево

Универсидата забудовалешин в асто 1695.

*Budóve-te nadzálnei Novegradeskáievo Sudarestuonáievo Universidáta zabudováleshin v ásto 1695.*

building-NOM.SG-TOP original-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF Novegrad-ADJ-GEN.

SG.MASC.DEF state-ADJ-GEN.SG.MASC.DEF University-GEN.SG build.PF-PAST-MASC-PASS in year-ACC.SG 1695

*"The original building of Novegrad State University was built in 1695."*

- (105) Многе лудеу забюцин анно бадет буила война.

*Mnóge lúdeu zabiúcin áнно bádet builá voiná.*

many.NOM people-PART.PL kill.PF-3PL-PASS if be.FUT-3SG be-PAST-FEM war-NOM.SG

*"Many people will be killed if there is a war."*

The negated form of the above, while allowed in the standard, is not allowed in some dialects near the Russian border. These dialects will instead use a negated passive participle.

If the agent is to be indicated, it appears in the dative/instrumental case after the preposition на *na* "on". This preposition was originally not necessary, but became so once the dative merged with the instrumental. Compare:

- (106) Сумя забоилашин на Царем Мециславой Б̄.  
*Súmia zabójilašin na Cárem Mecislávoi Drugǵjem.*  
 Finland-NOM conquer.PF-PAST-FEM-PASS on tsar-DATINS.SG Mecisláu-DATINS Second-DATINS.SG.MASC.DEF  
*"Finland was conquered by Tsar Mecisláu II."*
- (107) Ше подар покреналешин Яриной.  
*Šé pódar pokrenálešin Iarínoi.*  
 this-NOM.SG.MASC present-NOM.SG buy.PF-PAST-MASC-PASS Iarína-DATINS  
*"This present was bought for Iarína."*

Where English uses the construction adjective + infinitive, Novegradian uses passive + adverb.

- (108) Ша нига цидасцин легкѣ.  
*Šá níga cidáscin légkě.*  
 this-NOM.SG.FEM book-NOM.SG read-3SG-PASS easy-ADV  
*"This book is easy to read." (lit. "is read easily")*

When there are multiple verbs in the same clause, the passive suffix goes on whichever comes last, whether it be the auxiliary or primary.

- (109) Анно шеден оне-то видѣле не бадесцин, кудѣз то?  
*Ánno šedén óne-to víděle ne bádecín, kudéz to?*  
 if today he.NOM-TOP see-PAST-MASC NEG be.FUT-3SG-PASS, where-EMPH Ø  
 TOP  
*"If he hasn't been seen today, where could he be?"*

## 11.11 The Middle Voice

### 11.11.1 The Standard Middle Voice

The middle voice describes verbs that appear syntactically active but semantically passive. In Novegradian such verbs are almost always intransitive, and frequently have some sort of reflexive or reciprocal quality. However, a middle voice verb and a true reflexive construction with the pronoun *шебе* are rarely interchangeable.

- (110) О ме треба муитиш.  
*O mé tréba muitíš.*  
 at I.LAT need-NOM.SG wash-INF-MID  
*"I need to wash up."*
- (111) Они школа̑ осаци лизикем русскием с английским.  
*Oní škólě odzáci lizíkem rússkijem s anglijskijem.*  
 they.NOM school-LOC.SG learn-3PL-MID language-DATINS.SG Russian-DATINS.SG.MASC.DEF with English-DATINS.SG.MASC.DEF  
*"They're learning Russian and English in school."*

If the subject is plural, the middle voice is usually reciprocal.

- (112) Ондау спориташ о траганиях.  
*Onduá spóritáš o traǵánijeh.*  
 they.NOM.DL fight-3DL-MID about trivial-LOC.PL.DEF  
*"The two of them are fighting over nothing." (lit. "trivialities")*

Middle voice verbs like these are distinct from their active voice counterparts used with reflexive pronouns, though this usage will be discussed later. There are also a few verbs that require the middle voice and lack an active form, such as боятиш *boiátíš* "fear" and старатиш *starátíš* "try, attempt".

- (113) Яс боялеш тем̑, койда буиле младе.  
*Iás boiáles temě, kóida buile mláde.*  
 I.NOM fear-PAST-MASC-MID darkness-GEN.SG, when be-PAST-MASC young-NOM.SG.MASC  
*"I was afraid of the dark when I was young."*
- (114) Постарамши вуийгровати, но в̑м то-це Вехевладе велем добра̑ ерпаст.  
*Postarámsi vuijgrováti, no vēm tó-ce Vehevláde vélem dobře iegrást.*  
 try.PF-1SG-MID win-INF, but know-1SG REL.NOM.SG-that.NOM Vehevláde-NOM very good-ADV play-3SG  
*"I'll try to win, but I know that Vehevláde plays very well."*

Many verbs describing natural processes require the middle voice when intransitive, such as "melt", "blow", "cool", and "rain". In the case of "rain" and "snow", the middle voice form is only used when there is a true subject<sup>2</sup> (generally небесо

2 This, however, is rather uncommon.

“sky”) and the active voice is used if the verb is impersonal.

- (115) Койда леде тасци, станет водой.

*Kóida léde táieci, stánet vodói.*

when ice-NOM.SG melt-3SG-MID, become-3SG water-DATINS.SG

*“When ice melts, it becomes water.”*

- (116) Небесо занок надо би дожгъитиш.

*Nébeso zánok nádo bi dóžgjitíš.*

sky-NOM.SG tomorrow should SUBJ.SG rain-INF-MID

*“It’s supposed to rain tomorrow.” (but Занок надо би дожгъити.)*

The difference between the three voices can best be illustrated with verbs that can appear in all three. For example, мѣнѣаст *měnjást* (active) means “(he) changes (something)”, мѣнѣасцин *měnjáscin* (passive) means “(something) is changed”, and мѣнѣасци *měnjásci* (middle) means “(something) changes”.

### 11.11.2 The Dispositional Middle Voice

The dispositional middle voice refers to a special use of the middle voice to indicate one’s feelings toward the performance of an action. The verb is conjugated in the 3rd person singular (or neuter singular in the past) and the logical subject appears in the dative/instrumental. This structure is usually translated as “feel like” or “don’t feel like”.

- (117) Мнѣ плацци.

*Mně pláceci.*

I.DATINS cry-3SG-MID

*“I feel like crying.”*

- (118) Нама не хотѣлош нав еужинун шеден вецерем.

*Náma ne hótěloš nav ieúžinun šedén vécerem.*

we.DATINS.DL NEG want-PAST-NEUT-MID Ø on-v dinner-LAT.SG today  
evening-DATINS.SG

*“We didn’t feel like going to dinner tonight.” (or, more accurately, “didn’t feel like wanting [to go] to dinner”)*

“Feel like” is not always the best translation for this construction. Sometimes the dispositional middle voice implies more of a perceived (in)ability.

- (119) Ему не еграсци добръ.  
*Iemú ne iegrásci dóbrě.*  
 he.DATINS NEG play-3SG-MID good-ADV  
*"He can't seem to play well."*

### 11.11.3 The Middle Voice in Generic Commands

An infinitive in the middle voice (whether or not the active equivalent is transitive or not) may be used in generic commands that are addressed to the public at large, rather than any specific person or people. This will often be seen on signage, for example.

- (120) Не куритиш бли҃же 10 метер од вохода.  
*Ne kúritiš bližje 10 méter od vóhoda.*  
 NEG smoke-INF-MID near-COMP-NOM.SG.NEUT 10 meter-GEN.PL from  
 entrance-GEN.SG  
*"No Smoking Within 10 Meters of Entrance"*

## 11.12 The Adverbial Participles

### 11.12.1 As Adverbials

The adverbial participles are a means of indicating when or how an action was performed by relating it to another action. They mark that an action either is simultaneous with or just follows the action of the main verb, while also indicating that the former is in some sense subordinate to the latter. The imperfective participle is roughly equivalent to "while X-ing", and the perfective to "having X-ed" or "after X-ing". They may appear either at the beginning or at the end of a sentence, although if they come in the beginning, they must be offset from the main clause with a comma.

- (121) Оне цидале гажету заутрогаен.  
*Óne cidále gažétu zautrogáien.*  
 he.NOM read-PAST-MASC newspaper-ACC.SG eat\_breakfast-ADV.IMPF  
*"He was reading the newspaper while eating breakfast."*

More often than not, the adverb will be accompanied by some sort of modifier,

such as a direct object or prepositional phrase. The same punctuation rules apply.

- (122) Вуиходин зе думу, оне сорѣсиле „Погойна нокѣи”.  
*Vuihodín ze dǔmu, óne sorědzíle “Pogóina nókji”.*  
 leave-ADV.IMPF from house-GEN.SG, he.NOM say.PF-PAST-MASC “Peaceful-  
 NOM.SG.FEM night-NOM.SG”  
*“Leaving the house, he said ‘Good night.’”*
- (123) Содѣлаве суои ороки, Маша тобирво говорит со дружам пов  
 интѣрнетѣ.  
*Sodělave suojí oróki, Máša tobírvo govorít só družam pov intěrněť.*  
 do.PF-ADV.PF REFLX\_POSS-ACC.PL lesson-ACC.PL, Máša-NOM now speak-3SG  
 with friend-DATINS.PL on-V internet-LOC.SG  
*“Having finished her homework, Máša is now talking with her friends  
 online.”*

Verbal adverbs may also take passive or middle voice endings, as appropriate.

- (124) Она шебе спалила стараеш пригодовити субек.  
*Oná šebé spalíla staráies prigodóviti subék.*  
 she.NOM REFLX.ACC burn.PF-PAST-FEM try-ADV.IMPF-MID prepare.PF-INF  
 soup-PART.SG  
*“She burnt herself trying to prepare some soup.”*

They may also be freely negated, in which case the prefix не- *ne-* is attached directly to the adverb.

- (125) Она мнѣ оѣо сорѣсила, нетайнин нецево.  
*Oná mně oǣó sorědzíla, netainín necevó.*  
 she.NOM I.DATINS all.ACC.SG.NEUT say.PF-PAST-FEM, NEG-keep\_secret-ADV.  
 IMPF nothing.GEN  
*“She told me everything, hiding nothing.”*
- (126) Вуи говорите невѣди тово-це пробуиваст.  
*Vuí govoríte nevědí tovo-ce probuivást.*  
 you.NOM.PL speak-2PL NEG-know-ADV.IMPF REL.GEN.SG-that.NOM happen-  
 3SG  
*“You speak without knowing what is happening.”*



### 11.12.2 As Verbs

An imperfective adverbial participle may have a different subject than the main verb. The participle must be offset from the rest of the sentence no matter its location, and it must come first within its clause, before any other pronouns, etc. The conjunction койда *kóida* “when” must be used as well, placed in front of the participial clause. Such constructions indicate a possible reanalysis of these participles as finite verb forms, at least in some instances. The same may be done with perfective participles, although their use in this way is optional, as the past perfective may freely be used in their place.

- (127) Оне пришле ко мнѣ, койда мотрин яс телевизю.

*Óne prišlé ko mně, kóida motrín iás televíziu.*

he.NOM arrive.PF-PAST-MASC toward I.DATINS, when watch-ADV.IMPF I.NOM television-ACC.SG

*“He arrived at my place while I was watching television.”*

- (128) Койда законциве надуа говорити, яс навешале презуон.

*Kóida zakónциve naduá govoríti, iás navéšale prezuón.*

when finish.PF-ADV.PF we.NOM.DL speak-INF, I.NOM hang\_up.PF-PAST-MASC telephone-ACC.SG

*“Once we had finished talking, I hung up the telephone.”*

The adverbial participles can also function in place of sentence-level neuter participles (i.e., participles modifying a clause rather than a nominal phrase). No conjunction is needed in this case.

- (129) Новеграде-те витежиле Москуа во битѹ при Шелони в асто 1471, сохранаен суою самостоятности.

*Novegráde-te vítežile Moskuá vo bitvu pri Šelóni v asto 1471, sobranáien suoiú samostoiétnosti.*

Novegrad-NOM-TOP defeat.PF-PAST-MASC Moscow-ACC in battle-ACC.SG at Šelóni-LOC in year-ACC.SG 1471, preserve-ADV.IMPF REFLX\_POSS-ACC.SG.FEM independence-ACC.SG

*“Novegrad defeated Muscovy in the Battle of Šelóni in 1471, preserving its independence.”*

### 11.13 The Participles

The other participles have three main functions: to modify a noun as an adjective, to subordinate a whole clause to a noun, or to serve as an independent verb form.

When used as simple adjectives, the participles will decline in exactly the same way other adjectives would. The active imperfective means “that is X-ing”, the passive perfective “that has been X-ed”, and the passive imperfective “that is being X-ed”. However, unlike most adjectives, it must be placed before the noun it modifies (unless it heads a subordinated clause, in which case it may come either before or after; or if the participle has lost its participial force and acts as a normal adjective). If the participle is used alone without an accompanying noun, it can generally be assumed to be “person” or “people”.

- (130) Яс вуиброхъун ше спалин клѣб.

*Iás vuibróhjun še spálin klěb.*

I.NOM throw\_out.PF-1SG this-ACC.SG.MASC burn.PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-ACC.

SG.MASC bread-ACC.SG

*“I’m going to throw out the burnt toast.”*

More often these participles are used to subordinate a clause. The participle must be placed after the noun it modifies (with a comma in between) if the clause follows the noun. If the subclause contains its own subject, it must be indicated the same way as in a passive sentence: на + dative/instrumental.

- (131) Нина – дѣвушкой, шѣдекъой на шем стулѣ.

*Nína – děvuskoi, šedekjoi na šém stúľě.*

Nína-NOM Ø girl-DATINS.SG, sit-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-DATINS.SG.FEM on that-LOC.

SG.MASC chair-LOC.SG

*“Nína’s the girl who’s sitting on that chair.”*

- (132) Ша курта – покреновина во Римѣ.

*Šá kúrta – pokrenóvina vo Rímě.*

this-NOM.SG.FEM coat-NOM.SG Ø buy.PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.SG.FEM in Rome-LOC

*“This coat was bought in Rome.”*

- (133) Ниги, цидами шеґод школаѣ, нови есат.

*Nígi, cidámi šeḡód skólě, nóvi iésat.*

book-NOM.PL, read-PTCP.PASS.IMPF-NOM.PL this\_year school-LOC.SG, new-NOM.PL be-3PL

*"The books being read at school this year are new."*

If the clause is not too long, it may also be placed before the noun it is subordinated to. This generally emphasizes the clause.

- (134) Напизан на ней напис яс шеден приймѣле.

*Napizán na néi nápis iás šedén prijměle.*

write-PTCP.PASS.PF-ACC.SG.MASC on N-she.DATINS letter-ACC.SG I.NOM  
today receive-PAST-MASC

*"I received the letter she had written today."*

When a participle modifies an entire clause rather than a nominal phrase, it must be in its neuter singular indefinite form. Using the same example as the equivalent construction involving adverbial participles:

- (135) Новеграде-те витежиле Москуа во битѹу при Шелони в асто 1471, сохранакѹо союу самостоетности.

*Novegráde-te vítežile Moskuá vo bitwu pri Šelóni v asto 1471, sohranákjo suoiú samostoiétnosti.*

Novegrad-NOM-TOP defeat.PF-PAST-MASC Moscow-ACC in battle-ACC.SG  
at Šelóni-LOC in year-ACC.SG 1471, preserve-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-NOM.SG.NEUT  
REFLX\_POSS-ACC.SG.FEM independence-ACC.SG

*"Novegrad defeated Muscovy in the Battle of Šelóni in 1471, preserving its independence."*

When a noun is modified with an active imperfective participle across a copula, it indicates the subject's like or dislike of participating in that activity. The construction is identical to the progressive in English, but never has a progressive sense.

- (136) Она нет танцакѹа.

*Oná nét tancákja.*

she.NOM be.3SG.NEG dance-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-NOM.SG.FEM

*"She doesn't particularly enjoy dancing."*

(137) Несм пѣкъе.

*Něsm piákje.*

be.1SG.NEG drink-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-NOM.SG.MASC

*"I don't drink."*

The two passive participles can also act as pseudo-verbs (technically *буити* + the participle). Such constructions have the same meaning as the morphological passive formed with the clitic *-шин*, although the rules for when they are used differ. The passive participles will be used in passive sentences:

- when the verb comes before the subject, if marked:

(138) Рогъене яс Германи.

*Rógjene iás Germaní.*

bear-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.SG.MASC Ø I.NOM Germany-LOC

*"I was born in Germany."*

- when the passive and reflexive meanings of the verb are very different. Keeping in mind that the passive enclitic *-шин* was originally reflexive, there are many verbs for which the semantic drift of reflexive to passive never could occur. An example is *видѣти* *viděti* "see", which means "see oneself" when reflexive and "be seen" when passive, and as such, the passive form *\*\*видѣтишин* never came into being. There is no way to objectively predict which verbs failed to acquire a morphological passive.<sup>3</sup>

(139) Оне буиле овидѣне вецераш на шестрой моеѣ.

*Óne buile oviděne véceras̄ na šestrói moiéi.*

he.NOM be-PAST-MASC see.PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.SG.MASC on sister-DATINS.SG  
my-DATINS.SG.FEM

*"He was seen by my sister yesterday."*

- when there needs to be added emphasis or topicalization on the verb. The participles are viewed as being 'stronger' in meaning than the morphological passive.

3 Interestingly, the form *видѣтишин* does exist, but it can only be used in one situation—modifying a noun with an adverb: *видицин лѣгкѣ* *vidicin lěgkě* "[it] is easily seen".

## 11.14 The Conditional

The conditional is a defunct verb form in modern Novegradian. It frequently appeared in “if” and future “when” clauses in medieval Novegradian up until around the 16<sup>th</sup> century, though was already beginning to disappear by the 14<sup>th</sup>. Nowadays the few remnants have been completely lexicalized and survive only in a few idioms.

The conditional was identical to the present-future in all forms except the third person singular. A-conjugation verbs form the 3SG by dropping the final -cr -st of the present-future and replacing it with -e -ie. E-conjugation verbs simply drop the final -т -t of the present-future. I-conjugation verbs lack a distinct conditional conjugation, being identical to the present-future. Athematic verbs drop the final -cr -st and add nothing.

- (140) АННО ОГОДЕНО БАДЕ БОГЕМ.

*Ánno oğódeno báde Bógem.*

if pleasing-NOM.SG.NEUT be-3SG.COND God-DATINS.SG

“If God wills.” (lit. “If it is pleasing to God”)

- (141) АННО СЛѢПЕЙ СЛѢБАЕВО ВЕДЕ, И ОБА ПАДЕТА.

*Ánno slěpei slěbaievo vedé, i óba pádeta.*

if blind-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF blind-GEN.SG.MASC.DEF lead-3SG.COND, and

both.NOM.MASC fall.PF-3DL

“If a blind man leads a blind man, both will fall.”

- (142) АННО СОУНЦЕ НЕ ЗАХУДИТ ДОВ ЕУТРЕНА ДЕНА.

*Ánno sóunce ne zahúdit dov iéutrena déna.*

if sun-NOM.SG NEG set-3SG.(COND) until-v morning-ADJ-GEN.SG.MASC day-GEN.SG

“If the sun doesn’t set til tomorrow.” (English equivalent: “There’s no time to lose”)

- (143) КОЙДА ВЕЛКЕ ЗАШИНАЕ.

*Kóida vélke zashináie.*

when wolf-NOM.SG fall\_asleep-3SG.COND

“When the wolf falls asleep!” (English equivalent: “It’s too dangerous”)

- (144) Койда денe потемнѣе.  
*Kóida déne potemněje.*  
 when day-NOM.SG darken.PF-3SG.COND  
 “When the day darkens.” (English equivalent: “Not anytime soon”)

### 11.15 Non-Derivational Use of Verb Prefixes

Not all verb prefixes serve solely a derivational function. Several also serve important grammatical functions.<sup>4</sup>

The main prefixes with a strong grammatical and aspectual function in other verbs are до- *do-*, за- *za-*, по- *po-*, and под- *pod-*.

До- *do-* is a marker of telicity. It indicates that an action has been completed thoroughly, and therefore cannot take indefinite or partitive quantities as arguments. Notice how the telic sentence in 145a is grammatical, but the atelic one in 145b is nonsensical.

- (145a) Яс допиле дова литра ювок.  
*Iás dopile dóva litra iúvok.*  
 I.NOM TEL-drink-PAST-MASC two-ACC.MASC liter-COUNT water-PART.SG  
 “I drank two liters of water.”

- (145b) \*\*Яс допиле ювок.  
 \*\**Iás dopile iúvok.*  
 I.NOM TEL-drink-PAST-MASC water-PART.SG  
 “I drank some water.”

До- also has a stronger cessative connotation than the perfective form of a verb; it indicates that a process is being finished, with little regard to what has happened thus far. Compare the prefixed доцидати *docidáti* in 146a with the perfective процидати *procidáti* in 146b, both translated as “read”.

- (146a) Яс доцидам шу нигу занок.  
*Iás docidám šú nígu zánok.*  
 I.NOM TEL-read.PF-1SG this-ACC.SG.FEM book-ACC.SG tomorrow  
 “I will finish reading this book tomorrow.” (I have already started.)

<sup>4</sup> Prefix/preposition ‘agreement’ in verbs of motion was described earlier, in section 11.6.4.

(146b) Яс процидам шу нигу занок.

*Iás procidám šú nígu zánok.*

I.NOM read.PF-1SG this-ACC.SG.FEM book-ACC.SG tomorrow

*"I will finish reading this book tomorrow." (I will read the entire book tomorrow.)*

The prefix за- *za-*, on the other hand, has a strong inchoative connotation. It represents only the beginning of an action, carrying no information on what happens afterwards. It represents a single point in time, and cannot be drawn out, though it implies a process will take place. Compare the inchoative зазуюнити *zazuoníti* in 147a to the perfective поэуюнити *pozuoníti* in 147b, both meaning "ring". The perfective usage in this statement is ungrammatical because the perfective aspect does not allow for an open, continuing process such as this.

(147a) Оне зазуюниле клаголем, и клагол-от зуюниле пору.

*Óne zazuonile klagólem, i klagol-ót zuonile póru.*

he.NOM INCH-ring.PF-PAST-MASC church\_bell-DATINS.SG, and bell-NOM.

SG-TOP ring-PAST-MASC hour-ACC.SG

*"He rang the church bell, and it rang for an hour."*

(147b) \*\*Оне поэуюниле клаголем, и клагол-от зуюниле пору.

*\*\*Óne pozuonile klagólem, i klagol-ót zuonile póru.*

he.NOM ring.PF-PAST-MASC church\_bell-DATINS.SG, and bell-NOM.SG-TOP

ring-PAST-MASC hour-ACC.SG

*"He rang the church bell, and it rang for an hour."*

The prefix по- *po-* frequently indicates durative aspect, meaning an action is being performed for a period of time, definite or indefinite. When a time limit is placed on a stative action, the prefix often is required when the subject is human, and optional when the subject is anything else. Without a specified time period, the prefix can just mean "for some time".

(148a) Вецераш муи поговорили пору.

*Véceraš muí pogovoríli póru.*

yesterday we.NOM DUR-talk-PAST-PL hour-ACC.SG

*"Yesterday we talked for an hour."*

(148b)\*\*Вецераш муи говорили пору.

*\*\*Véceraš muí govoríli póru.*

yesterday we.NOM talk-PAST-PL hour-ACC.SG

*“Yesterday we talked for an hour.”*

(148c)Вецераш муи поговорили.

*Véceraš muí pogovoríli.*

yesterday we.NOM DUR-talk-PAST-PL

*“Yesterday we talked a little while.”*

The prefix под- *pod-*, literally “under” or “sub-”, often indicates a degree of deference or politeness on the part of the subject with verbs describing social interaction. Thus “Подрѣсите мнѣ, прусим...” (“Tell me, please, ...”) essentially means the same thing as “Сорѣсите мнѣ, прусим...”, but is far more common when speaking to someone one does not know well or who is of a higher rank.

These are not the only functions for these prefixes, however. For many verbs they are simply derivative, but their productive aspectual function for many stative verbs must also be understood.

## 11.16 Agreement with Non-Nominative Subjects

The subject of a sentence may appear in only three cases other than the nominative: the accusative, genitive, and partitive. When these cases may be used in such a way will be discussed in the section on nominal syntax. However, it is important to note that whenever the subject is not in the nominative case, verbs in the past tense take neuter agreement, no matter the gender of the actual noun. Plurality, however, is maintained—if the subject is plural, the verb preserves plural agreement.

(149) Суде буилѣ пару порцаскоу.

*Sudé builě páru porcaskóu.*

here be.PAST-DL pair-ACC.SG glove-PART.PL

*“There were a pair of gloves here.”*

(150) Луд собуивалиш шеньи.

*Lúd sobuivális šenji.*

people.GEN.PL remain-PAST-PL-MID seven-NOM

*“There were seven people left.”*



## 11.17 Impersonal Constructions

Impersonal constructions are those that lack an overt subject. These must be distinguished from instances of pronoun drop, as impersonals do not allow for the insertion of a true subject. They fall into a number of subclasses.

### 11.17.1 Natural Forces

As previously mentioned, many natural forces, particularly those relating to weather, as well as states such as being “cold” or “warm”, are constructed impersonally in Novegradian.

Verbs such as “rain”, “blow”, or “get dark” conjugate in the third person singular (or neuter singular in the past), with no apparent subject. Nouns or pronouns in the dative/instrumental case may be added to describe whom the process of the verb is affecting.

- (151) Дожгъило шемицу.

*Dóžgijilo šémicu.*

rain-PAST-NEUT week-ACC.SG

*“It rained for a week.”*

- (152) Тибѣ ли не домет?

*Tibě’li ne domét?*

you.DATINS.SG Q NEG blow-3SG?

*“Is the draft getting you?” (lit. “Is (it) blowing to you?”)*

- (153) Воунѣ темнѣет.

*Vóuně temněiet.*

outside darken-3SG

*“It’s getting dark outside.”*

Adjectives of condition appear in the neuter, with nouns in the dative/instrumental used to specify who is being described.

- (154) Анно тибѣ кладно бадет буило, яс содам суою курту.

*Ánno tibě’kládno bádet builo, iás sodám suoíu kúrtu.*

if you.DATINS.SG cold-NOM.SG.NEUT be.FUT-3SG be-PAST.NEUT, I.NOM give.

PF-1SG POSS\_REFLEX-ACC.SG.FEM jacket-ACC.SG

*“If you’re cold, I’ll give you my jacket.”*

### 11.17.2 Human Emotions, States, and Senses

Phrases describing human emotions, states, and senses operate on a similar principle.

- (155) Ему мерзито.  
*Iemú meražito.*  
 he.DATINS Ø sad-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*“He feels sad.”*

Some verbs may take an additional argument in the dative-instrumental case after the preposition на “on”. Formerly these required a simple instrumental case noun, but the preposition became mandatory once the dative and instrumental merged.

- (156) [Ей] пахнет на розам.  
*[Íei] pahnéť na rózam.*  
 [she.DATINS] smell-3SG on rose-DATINS.PL  
*“It smells like roses [to her].”*

The origin of a feeling may be described using оа *od* “from” + GEN.

- (157) Мнѣ вѣзно оа нево.  
*Mně vězno od nevó.*  
 I.DATINS happy-NOM.SG.NEUT from N-he.GEN  
*“He makes me feel happy.” (lit. “It is happy to me from him.”)*

Many conditions, such as pain and illness, are described impersonally.

- (158) Мнѣ болит во желудокѣ.  
*Mně bolit vo želúdokě.*  
 I.DATINS hurt-3SG in stomach-LOC.SG  
*“My stomach hurts.” (lit. “It hurts to me in the stomach”)*
- (159) Еваной затемнѣло в оку.  
*Ievanoi zatemnělo v óku.*  
 Ieváne-DATINS.SG darken\_suddenly-PAST-NEUT in eye-LOC.DL  
*“Ieváne passed out.” (lit. “To Ieváne it darkened in the eyes”)*

### 11.17.3 Generic Subjects

The generic subject construction has a similar function to the passive, and can be formed from any verb. It is formed by conjugating the verb into the third person plural and not indicating any subject. As such, it does not exist in the past tense or in derived tenses such as the subjunctive. Note that no explicit subject is allowed, not even the pronoun *они* *oní* “they”, which narrows the scope of the verb from generic to having a specific antecedent. Due to the lack of subject, any direct object must appear in the nominative case, unless it is a pronoun, in which case it retains the accusative case.

- (160) Оскривати марнате в ошмаю еутром.

*Oskriváti marnáte v óšmaiu iéutrom.*

open-3PL store-NOM.SG in eighth-ACC.SG.FEM.DEF morning-DATINS.SG

“*They open the store at 8AM.*”

- (161) На Вранци їдит слимаки.

*Na Vrancí iědit slimáki.*

on France-LOC eat-3PL snail-NOM.PL

“*They eat snails in France.*”

### 11.17.4 Subject Absorption

Subject absorption represents a variant of the -шин passive. Whereas in normal passives the -шин clitic (originally a reflexive pronoun) “absorbs” the accusative and forces the verb’s primary argument to take the nominative, in this particular construction it instead absorbs the nominative and forces its argument to take the accusative. It may be described as a cross between the generic subject as above and the passive. It is like the generic subject in that the subject is eliminated and the object remains (though it retains the accusative case), and is like the passive in that an agent may be specified in a prepositional phrase. This construction generally places greater topical emphasis on the object of the verb. Past tense verbs always take neuter agreement.

- (162) Нигу процидалошин за три дена.

*Nígu procídalošín za trí déna.*

book-ACC.SG read.PF-PAST-NEUT-PASS in three.ACC day-COUNT

“*They read the book in three days.*”

Compare the following three examples, using subject absorption (163), the passive (164), and the generic subject (165).

- (163) Школу забудо̀вало̀шин на строитѐлам.

*Škólu zabudoválošin na strójitelam.*

school-ACC.SG build.PF-PAST-NEUT-PASS on builder-DATINS.PL

*“The school was built by the workers.” (topical emphasis on “school”)*

- (164) Школа забудо̀вала̀шин на строитѐлам.

*Škóla zabudoválašín na strójitelam.*

school-NOM.SG build.PF-PAST-FEM-PASS on builder-DATINS.PL

*“The school was built by the workers.” (emphasis on process, that is, building)*

- (165) Школа бу̀до̀вати.

*Škóla budováti.*

school-NOM.SG build-3PL

*“They are building a school.”*

Nominative absorption is also used in generic sentences when the person or people speaking wish to include themselves within that generic subject, or to make it less ‘distant’ than how the normal 3PL generic subject can feel. The verb appears in the 3SG (nonpast) or neuter (past).

- (166) Пома̀гасцѝн бѣ̀днѝми.

*Pomagáscin bėdníjemi.*

help-3SG-PASS poor-DATINS.PL.DEF

*“One helps the poor.”*

- (167) Есцѝн су̀де вѐзно.

*Iėscin sudė vézno.*

be-3SG-PASS here happy-NOM.SG.NEUT

*“One is happy here.”*

### 11.17.5 Overt Expletives

Overt expletives are stand-in dummy pronouns that can take the place of the subject in impersonal sentences. In Novegradian these are *ото* *óto* and *вото* *vóto*, which must appear at the beginning of the sentence and are identical in meaning; their distribution is mostly dialectal. These particles may only appear for inherently impersonal verbs as described in sections 11.17.1 and 11.17.2 above, and

only when there is no dative/instrumental pronominal modifier present. Their use, however, is completely optional.

Sentences such as 151 and 153 in section 11.17.1 can also be used with the overt expletive:

- (168) Ото дожгъило шемицу.  
*Óto dóžgžilo šémicu.*  
 EXPL rain-PAST-NEUT week-ACC.SG  
*"It rained for a week."*

- (169) Ото воунѣ темнѣет.  
*Óto vóuně temněiet.*  
 EXPL outside darken-3SG  
*"It's getting dark outside."*

Sentence 156 in section 11.17.2 is grammatical with an overt expletive if the pronoun ей is removed, but not if it is kept: \*\*Ото ей пахнет на розам.

- (170) Ото пахнет на розам.  
*Óto pahnét na rózam.*  
 EXPL smell-3SG on rose-DATINS.PL  
*"It smells like roses."*

## 11.18 Use of Specific Verbs

Many individual verbs have certain quirks or usage notes that deserve further explanation. Some of these are covered here, others in the lexicon.

### 11.18.1 Исти and Ъхати 'to go'

The verb буити "to be" is dropped entirely when its presence can be inferred—when a phrase consists solely of two noun phrases, a noun phrase and a prepositional phrase, a noun phrase and an adjective, etc. In the same way, verbs such as исти and ѡхати may be dropped when their existence is implied, such as when a sentence consists of a noun and a directional phrase.

- (171) Ти би хотѣла со мнѣ?

*Tí bi hótěla so mně?*

you.NOM SUBJ.SG want-PAST-FEM Ø with I.DATINS

*“Do you want [to come] with me?”*

- (172) Яс во граден.

*Iás vo gráden.*

I.NOM Ø in city-LAT.SG

*“I’m off to the city.”*

After the interrogatives *куди kudi* “to where?” and *оскуд oskúd* “from where?”, the clitic form *ie* of the verb “to be” may appear if the subject of the sentence is singular and third person. This is becoming increasingly common. If the subject is in any other person or number, no clitic may appear, not even the plural clitic form *su*.

- (173) Куди е оне?

*Kudí ie óne?*

to\_where be.3SG.CLITIC he.NOM

*“Where is he going?”*

- (174) Оскуд они?

*Oskúd oní?*

from\_where they.NOM

*“Where did they come from?” (not \*\*Оскуд су они?)*

### 11.18.2 Надо би ‘should’

The particle *надо nádo* is equivalent to the English modals “should”, “must”, or “supposed to”. It is followed by a verb in its infinitive or supine form. *Надо* itself does not decline in any way, but it must be followed by a subjunctive particle that agrees with its subject in number (*би/бис/бу*). This was originally a single word, *надобѣ*, that was later reanalyzed as *надо* + *би* due to the phonetic reduction of *ѣ*. Like the subjunctive particle elsewhere, it generally appears in the second slot in a clause, although it is also attracted to the space immediately after *надо*. The sentence may be made impersonal (“it is supposed to”) by leaving out the subject entirely.

- (175) Яс би на́до ис до́мове пред не́ж насту́бит но́кѣи.  
*Iás bi nádo is domóve pred néž nastubít nókji.*  
 I.NOM SUBJ.SG should go-SUP homeward before than advance.PF-3SG  
 night-NOM.SG  
 “I should go home before night comes.”
- (176) Они на́до бу остава́ти насми́ятиш на́д Веле́сем.  
*Oní nádo bu ostaváti nasmijátis nad Véselem.*  
 they.NOM should SUBJ.PL stop.PF-INF taunt-INF-MID over Veles-DATINS  
 “They ought to stop taunting the devil.” (i.e., tempting fate)

### 11.18.3 Музеби ‘may/might’

The word музеби *muzebi* covers the role of “may/might” in Novegradian, and incorporates the subjunctive particle within itself. The subjunctive particle must agree in number with its subject, and following it may be a verb in any tense.

- (177) Онда́у музе́бис при́йдета́ нимза́нок.  
*Onduá muzebis prijdéta nimzánok.*  
 they.NOM.DL may-DL arrive-3DL day\_after\_tomorrow  
 “Maybe the two of them will arrive the day after tomorrow.”
- (178) Оне́ музе́би пра́ве.  
*Óne muzebi práve.*  
 he.NOM may-SG Ø correct-NOM.SG.MASC  
 “He might be right.”

### 11.18.4 Verbs of Position

Novegradian tends to be more specific than English when it comes to describing the position of something. Where English would use “be”, Novegradian will generally use ле́жити *ležíti* “lie” or сто́яти *stoiáti* “stand”, the former if the object is more horizontal than vertical, the latter if it’s more vertical than horizontal. If it is hanging, ви́жѣти *vižěti* is used. Ши́дѣти *šeděti* “sit” is used much as in English.

- (179) Мѣ́мѣсѣске сло́венике ле́жит на сту́л.  
*Méméceske slóvenike ležít ná stul.*  
 German-NOM.SG.MASC dictionary-NOM.SG lie-3SG on table-LOC.SG  
 “The German dictionary is on the table.”

(180) Монуменѣ стоѣт центрѣ Кремннаѣво парка.

*Monuménŋte stojít céntrĕ Kremennáŋievo páрка.*

monument-NOM.SG stand-3SG center-LOC.SG kremlin-ADJ-GEN.SG.MASC.

DEF park-GEN.SG

*"The monument is in the center of Krémennŋei Park."*

Each of these also has an active form meaning "come to be X": пошѣсти *pošĕšti* "sit up, sit down", полейкѣ *polĕikji* "lie down", постояти *postoiáti* "get up, stand" and повишѣти *povísĕti* "hang"; and a causative form meaning "make be X": садити *sadíti* "seat", ложити *lóžiti* "lay down", ставити *stáviti* "put, stand", and вешати *vĕšati* "hang up". The first four are all intransitive, the last four all transitive, and all of these eight verbs are considered perfective.

In addition, taking the base forms described earlier and adding the middle voice suffix to them causes them to act in the same way as their active counterparts, so that постояти and стоятиш both mean "stand up".

Compare:

- Оне лежиле в оспидальѣ.  
*Óne ležíle v ospidálĕ.*  
"He was in the hospital." (IMPF)
- Оне полежиле в оспидальѣ.  
*Óne poležíle v ospidálĕ.*  
"He had been in the hospital." (PF)
- Оне полегле в оспидальѣ.  
*Óne polégle v ospidálĕ.*  
"He was admitted to the hospital." (PF)
- Оне лежилеш в оспидальѣ.  
*Óne ležíleš v ospidálĕ.*  
"He was admitted to the hospital." (PF)
- Ложили єво в оспидальѣ.  
*Lóžili ievó v ospidálĕ.*  
"They put him in the hospital." (PF)

Note that the active and causative forms specify only coming into a certain position, not what position something is coming from. Therefore пошѣсти can mean both "sit down" and "sit up", depending on context.



### 11.18.5 Other Copulas

In addition to *буити*, Novegradian has four other primary copulas: *стати* *státi* (present-future stem \**стан-*), *казатиш* *kazátiš*, *шияти* *šijáti*, and *иститиш* *istítis*.

*Стати* *státi* is equivalent to “become”, and is the active counterpart of *буити*. It is used whenever a change of state occurred or is to occur, more or less as in English. Whenever English has a choice between “be” and “become”, however, *стати* should be used in Novegradian. Like *буити*, its complement should always be in the dative/instrumental case if it is a noun.

- (181) Яс хокъун стати лѣгарем.

*Iás hókjun státi lěgárem.*

I.NOM want-1SG become-INF doctor-DATINS.SG

*“I want to be a doctor.” (lit. “become”)*

*Казатиш* *kazátiš* (originally meaning “say” or “show”, but whose meaning drifted under Russian influence) means “seem”.

- (182) Каѣѣци тѣм-це яс не приѣхале познѣ.

*Káǵjeci těm-ce iás ne priǵǵhale pózně.*

seem-3SG-MID REL.DATINS.SG-that.NOM I.NOM NEG arrive.PF-PAST-MASC

late-ADV

*“It seems I didn’t arrive late.”*

- (183) Ех традицѣ ваме музут казатиш далоками.

*Iěh tradícě váme muzut kazátiš dalókami.*

their tradition-NOM.PL you.PL.DATINS be\_able-3PL seem-INF-MID strange-DATINS.PL

*“Their traditions may seem strange to you.”*

*Шияти* *šijáti* also means “seem” or “look” and is synonymous with *казатиш* in most circumstances, although it cannot be used impersonally as in example 182 above. Although both are considered standard, *шияти* is far more common colloquially. If the appearance is an emotion, the verb must be followed by *од* *od* “from” plus the genitive of the nominalized form of the adjective (184). If it is not an emotion, or if the emotion lacks a nominalized form, then *шияти* is followed a bare definite adjective in the dative/instrumental case, agreeing with the subject in gender and number (185).

- (184) Они велем шияти од частий.

*Oní vélem šijáti od částij.*

they.NOM very seem-3PL from happiness-GEN.PL

*“They seem very happy.”*

- (185) Ех традицѣ ваме музут шияти далогиemi.

*Iéh tradicě váme múzut šijáti dalogijemi.*

their tradition-NOM.PL you.PL.DATINS be\_able-3PL seem-INF strange-

DATINS.PL.DEF

*“Their traditions may seem strange to you.”*

Иститиш *istitiš* is usually translated simply as “be”. It differs from *буити* in that it stresses existence or identity, while *буити* simply equates. It is therefore sometimes glossed as “exists as” or “is defined as” (and in fact it is almost always used for defining words or names).

- (186) Луна-та истици самосуойном сукладником Жемин.

*Luná-ta istici samosuóinom sukladnikom Žémin.*

Moon-NOM.SG-TOP exist-3SG-MID natural-DATINS.SG.MASC satellite-DATINS.

SG Earth-GEN.SG

*“The Moon is a natural satellite of the Earth.”*

Note that unlike *буити*, when *стати*, *казатиш*, or *иститиш* are negated, their complements remain in the dative/instrumental case, never switching to the genitive.

### 11.18.6 Осити ‘teach’

The verb *осити* *odzíti* “teach” in Novegradian and in several other Slavic languages takes seemingly unusual arguments. All other ditransitive verbs, such as “give”, put the direct object in the accusative case and an indirect modifier (usually a person) in the dative/instrumental: I gave him.DATINS a book.ACC. One would expect a similar pattern for “teach”: \*\*I taught him.DATINS Novegradian.ACC. However, this is not the case. Instead, the direct object (the topic being taught) must be in the dative/instrumental, and the person being taught in the animate accusative, a seemingly backwards configuration.

- (187) Яс наусиле ево новеградескием лизикем.

*Iás naudzǐle ievó novegradeskǐjem lizíkem.*

I.NOM teach.PF-PAST.MASC he.ACC Novegradian-DATINS.SG.MASC.DEF  
language-DATINS.SG

*"I taught him Novegradian."*

The reasoning for this becomes clear when the verb's etymology is revealed. In some ancestor of the language (pre-Proto-Slavic or Proto-Balto-Slavic), this verb meant "make accustomed (to)", where the case marking makes more sense.

However, when the verb is made passive, there is apparently some confusion as to how the cases ought to be marked. The subject being taught may appear either in the dative/instrumental (as would be expected) or in the accusative (which semantically makes more sense).

- (188) Оне наусилешин новеградескием лизикем/новеградеский лизик.

*Óne naudzǐlešin novegradeskǐjem lizíkem/novegrádeskij lizík.*

he.NOM teach.PF-PAST-MASC-PASS Novegradian-DATINS.SG.MASC.DEF  
language-DATINS.SG/Novegradian-ACC.SG.MASC.DEF language-ACC.SG

*"He was taught Novegradian."*

When the verb is used in the middle voice with a dative/instrumental subject, it means "learn". Again, the reasoning becomes clear when the original meaning is examined, which would have been roughly "accustom oneself to something".

- (189) Яс наусилеш новеградескием лизикем.

*Iás naudzǐleš novegradeskǐjem lizíkem.*

I.NOM teach.PF-PAST-MASC-MID Novegradian-DATINS.SG.MASC.DEF lan-  
guage-DATINS.SG

*"I learned Novegradian."*

### 11.18.7 Хотѣти 'want'

Хотѣти *hótěti* "want" is unique in that it can be used with both infinitives and subordinated clauses as well as direct objects. Clauses may be used in any situation, although infinitives can only be used if the subject of "want" and the other verb are the same:

- (190) Яс хокъун работати.  
*Iás hókjun rabótati.*  
 I.NOM want-1SG work-INF  
 “I want to work.”

If the subject of “want” and the other verb are different, then the subclause must be in the subjunctive mood if it is intended as an indirect command. Without the subjunctive mood, хотѣти takes on the meaning “to wish”.

- (191) Яс хокъун то-це ти би работале.  
*Iás hókjun tó-ce tí bi rabótale.*  
 I.NOM want-1SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM you.SG.NOM SUBJ.SG work-PAST-MASC  
 “I want you to work.”

- (192) Она хокъет то-це надуа сомүзева вастатиш цешкѣ.  
*Oná hókjet tó-ce naduá somúzeva vástatis cěškě.*  
 she.NOM want-3SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM we.NOM.DL be\_able.PF-1DL meet-INF-MID often-COMP-ADV  
 “She wishes we could see each other more often.”

### 11.18.8 Мойкѣи and Омѣти ‘be able’

Novegradian has two words that mean “be able” or “can”: мойкѣи *móikji* and омѣти *oměti*. Мойкѣи indicates physical ability or permission, while омѣти refers to having the knowledge to do something.

- (193) Яс не омѣюн говорити нарусскѣ.  
*Iás ne oměiun govoríti narússkě.*  
 I.NOM NEG know\_how-1SG speak-INF on-Russian-ADV  
 “I can’t speak Russian (as I don’t know how).”

- (194) Яс не музун говорити нарусскѣ.  
*Iás ne múzun govoríti narússkě.*  
 I.NOM NEG be\_able-1SG speak-INF on-Russian-ADV  
 “I can’t speak Russian (as I am physically incapable or have been disallowed).”

### 11.18.9 Буиле + Past Tense Constructions

Although not considered a separate tense like the future hypothetical, there

is a special construction involving the past tense forms of *буити* followed by the past tense form of another verb, which takes on the meaning “was about to”. Both verbs are conjugated according to agreement in gender and/or number with their subject.

(195) Оне буиле вуискоциле, но острашилешин.

*Óne buile vuískocile, no ostrášilešin.*

he.NOM be-PAST-MASC leap.PF-PAST-MASC, but frighten.PF-PAST-MASC-PASS

*“He was about to jump, but got scared.”*

This construction cannot be negated. It may only be used with positive verbs.

### 11.18.10 Animals and Humans

Novegradian verbs tend to be specific in indicating whether various actions are performed by people or by animals. Generally they require entirely different verbs, and either the verbs cannot logically be interchanged or would take on a different meaning if switched. The most common such example is the concept of the verbs “to live” and “to reside”, which for human subjects is rendered with *жити* *žiti* and for animal subjects with *ходити* *hódit* (which also means “walk” or “go”, used even if the animal is not actually capable of walking).

(196) Яс живун во маленѣ градикѣ.

*Iás živún vo máleně grádikě.*

I.NOM live-1SG in small-LOC.SG.MASC city-DIMIN-LOC.SG

*“I live in a small city.”*

(197) Шем ежерѣ худат многе шкьюгоу.

*Šém iézerě húdat mnóge škjugóu.*

this.LOC.SG.NEUT lake-LOC.SG walk-3PL many.NOM pike-PART.PL

*“Many pike live in that lake.”*



### 12.1 The Nominative Case

The nominative case marks the subject of a sentence, as well as all adjectives modifying the subject, whether directly or across a copula. It has also served as a vocative since the original vocative was lost, calling out to or identifying specific persons or things.

- (1) Еване еужинаст.  
*Ieváne ieuzínást.*  
 Ieváne-NOM eat\_dinner-3SG  
*"Ieváne is eating dinner."*
- (2) Небесо – плаво.  
*Nébeso – plávo.*  
 sky-NOM.SG Ø light\_blue-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*"The sky is blue."*
- (3) Ташенка! Кудеж ти буила?  
*Tášenka! Kudéz tí builá?*  
 Táša-DIMIN-NOM.SG! Where-EMPH you.NOM be-PAST-FEM  
*"Táša! Where have you been?"*

The nominative is also the citation form of nouns and adjectives, meaning all words outside of a proper context within a sentence will appear in the nominative. This includes dictionary entries, signs, and various other expressions.

- (4) Добре дене, друге мой!  
*Dobre déne, drúge mói!*  
 good-NOM.SG.MASC day-NOM.SG, friend-NOM.SG my-NOM.SG.MASC  
*"Good afternoon, my friend!"*

- (5) На знакъ написано „Рошзийска Граница – 15 километер“.  
*Na znákě napizáno “Rošžíjska Graníca - 15 kilométer”.*  
 on sign-LOC.SG write.PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.SG.NEUT “Russian-NOM.SG.FEM  
 Border-NOM.SG – 15 kilometer-GEN.PL”  
*“The sign said, ‘Russian Border - 15 kilometers.’”*

The nominative case has one quirky usage, a Baltic areal feature. The direct object of a verb in the infinitive, supine, or imperative, as well as of any impersonal verbs lacking a true subject, takes the nominative case, not the accusative. This is frequently seen, for example, in the traditional opening line of Novegradian laws:

- (6) Дай наме Бо́ге проявити прауда новеградская.  
*Dái náme Bóǵe proiáviti práuda novegradeskáia.*  
 give-2SG.IMPER we.DATINS God-NOM.SG carry\_out.PF-INF truth-NOM.SG  
 Novegradian-NOM.SG.FEM.DEF  
*“May God help us to carry out the law of Novegrad.”*

However, this does not apply if the direct object is a pronoun, where the regular accusative forms will be used, or if the verb is negated, in which case the expected genitive forms are used.

## 12.2 The Genitive Case

### 12.2.1 Basic Functions

The genitive case has four primary functions in Novegradian: indicating possession, indicating absence, indicating animate direct objects, and marking the object of certain prepositions. It is also used after certain numbers, but that usage will be discussed later.

When there is a possessor-possessioned relationship in a clause, the possessor appears in the genitive case.

- (7) Киса-та Катин вехода набѣгаст на травун видорих.  
*Kidzá-ta Kátin vehodá naběgast na travún vidórih.*  
 small\_dog-NOM.SG-TOP Kátia-GEN always run\_on-3SG on grass-LAT.SG  
 other-GEN.PL.DEF  
*“Kátia’s dog always gets into other people’s lawns.”*



Novegradian does not generally allow for multiple nouns in the genitive case to be strung together; while *коша докѣра Ростислава* *kóša dókjera Rostisláva* for “Rostisláu’s daughter’s cat” is grammatical, it is very poor style and sounds forced. To express such ideas, Novegradian speakers prefer to use multiple periphrastic genitives and redundant possessive marking: *коша о Ростислава о докѣра ево* *kóša o Rostisláva o dókjera iévó* (lit. “the cat at Rostisláu at his daughter”). Notice the order of the possessors, and how the top level possessor always comes first.

The direct object of negated verbs appears in the genitive case rather than the accusative. The same is true of subjects of verbs of existence.

- (8) Яс некада написа не приймѣле.  
*Iás nekadá nápisa ne prijměle.*  
 I.NOM no kind-GEN.SG.MASC letter-GEN.SG NEG receive-PAST-MASC  
 “I didn’t receive any letters.”
- (9) Радин-то суде нет.  
*Rádin-to sudé nét.*  
 Rádia-GEN-TOP here be.3SG.NEG  
 “Rádia’s not here.”

When the direct object of a verb is animate (i.e., a person or animal), its accusative form is replaced by the genitive, even when positive. This same phenomenon is the reason why the genitive case pronouns replaced the original accusative case forms. When *хой* “who” appears as the direct object, it must be in the genitive as well since it always refers to an animate being, while *цой* “what” uses the accusative, since it usually refers to something inanimate. This is generally referred to as the “animate accusative”.

- (10) Она кѣловала Николая.  
*Oná kělovála Nikoláia.*  
 she-NOM kiss-PAST-FEM Nikoláie-ACC  
 “She kissed Nikoláie.”
- (11) Яс овидѣле медуѣда во лѣс.  
*Iás oviděle meduěda vó lěs.*  
 I.NOM see.PF-PAST-MASC bear-ACC.SG in forest-LOC.SG  
 “I saw a bear in the forest.”

And like most other cases, the genitive ‘governs’ certain prepositions, meaning their objects must appear in the genitive. These mostly deal with absence or move-

ment away, and include *бес* *bes* “without”, *близе* *blíze* “near”, *вон* *von* “far from”, *деля* *délia* “for”, *до* *do* “until, up to”, *за* *za* “because of”, *зе* *ze* “from”, *кроми* *krómi* “except for”, *од* *od* “away from”, *противе* *prótime* “against”, *со* *so* “from on; off of”, and so forth. Animate nouns must also use the genitive case form after prepositions that normally require the accusative case, as the genitive form has spread analogically to these prepositional phrases.

- (12) Вие идут спирањен-то кроми мене.  
*Vijé idút spiránjen-to krómi mené.*  
 all-NOM.PL go-3PL party-LAT.SG-TOP except I.GEN  
*“Everyone’s going to the party except for me.”*
- (13) Старая керкѣ-от забудована зе дрѣвеса.  
*Stáraia kerkw-ót zabudována ze drěvesa.*  
 old-NOM.SG.FEM.DEF church-NOM.SG-TOP Ø build.PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.  
 SG.FEM from wood-GEN.SG  
*“The old church was built out of wood.”*

When a noun phrase modifies an adjective modifying another noun phrase, the second noun phrase will often appear in the genitive.

- (14) Оне мнѣ желе стоған плон ювѣ.  
*Óne mně žéle stoǵán plón iúvě.*  
 he.NOM I.DATINS bring.PF-PAST-MASC glass-ACC.SG full-ACC.SG.MASC drink-  
 ing\_water-GEN.SG  
*“He brought me a glass full of water.”*

### 12.2.2 The Genitive of Negation

The genitive of negation is an important concept in Novegradian, and deserves a more detailed examination. The basic principle remains that the direct object of a negated verb appears in the genitive; however, the implementation of this is more complex.

Some verbs, such as *помагати* *pomagáti* “help”, take core arguments that are not in the accusative case when positive. In this particular case, the logical patient takes the dative/instrumental. When such verbs are negated, these arguments do not change their case. That is, only arguments that would be in the accusative when the verb is positive become genitive when the verb is negated.

- (15) Оне мнѣ не помагале.  
*Óne mně ne pomagále.*  
 he.NOM I.DATINS NEG help-PAST-MASC  
*"He did not help me."*

The negated complement of *буити* *buíti* "be" takes the genitive case.

- (16) Несм юриста.  
*Něsm iurista.*  
 be.NEG.1SG lawyer-GEN.SG  
*"I am not a lawyer."*

The logical subject of the negated existential *буити* "be" also appears in the genitive. This does not apply to the copular *буити* as in example 16 above, only the existential form. In the past tense, the verb shows neuter agreement.

- (17) Ђ не буило о Мартина.  
*Ĭ ne builo o Mártina.*  
 she.GEN NEG be-PAST-NEUT at Mártine-GEN  
*"She was not at Mártine's house."*

The subject of a negated verb in the passive or middle voice appears in the genitive as well, and the verb takes neuter agreement if in the past tense or a tense derived from the past such as the future hypothetical. In other tenses, verb agreement is normal.

- (18) Некадаево мераза-то мнѣ не прицувасцин.  
*Nekadáievo meráza-to mně ne pricúvascin.*  
 no\_kind-GEN.SG.MASC.DEF freeze-GEN.SG-TOP I.DATINS NEG feel-3SG-PASS  
*"It doesn't feel cold to me at all." (lit. "No freeze was felt to me")*

- (19) Николая не муилош пред неж пришло.  
*Nikoláia ne muiloš pred než prišlé.*  
 Nikoláie-GEN NEG wash-PAST-NEUT-MID before than arrive-PAST-MASC  
*"Nikoláie didn't wash before coming."*

However, if the passive or middle voice verb appears in the infinitive or supine, the subject remains in the nominative case and verb agreement is normal. This includes verbs carrying their own semantic load (such as "want to...") and verbs

with a solely grammatical function (such as the imperfective future with *буити*).

- (20) Она не хотѣла молитиш.  
*Oná ne hótěla molítiš.*  
 she.NOM NEG want-PAST-FEM pray-INF-MID  
*"She didn't want to pray."*

- (21) Не бадем тривожитиш вомножко.  
*Ne bádem trivóžitis vómnožko.*  
 NEG be.FUT-1PL worry-INF-MID too\_much  
*"We're not going to worry too much."*

The genitive object, however, persists in multi-verb constructions. This overrides the rule stating the direct object of an infinitive takes the nominative case, since the noun is still a direct object.

- (22) Наталья не лубит вѣдати суоево дена роденѣа.  
*Natália ne lúbit vědati suoievó děna rodénja.*  
 Natália-NOM NEG love-3SG celebrate-INF REFLEX\_POSS-GEN.SG.MASC day-GEN.SG birth-GEN.SG  
*"Natália doesn't like celebrating her birthday."*

Subordinators, such as the *то-це* construction, follow the same rule as nouns. If it would appear accusative when its parent verb is positive, it appears in the genitive when it is negated. If it would normally take an oblique case, then it keeps that oblique case. The genitive of negation does not persist into the subordinated clause.

- (23) Надуа не рѣсилѣ тово-це завратива шебе ко шестоюн.  
*Naduá ne řědzilě tovó-ce zavrátiva šebé ko šestóiuin.*  
 we.NOM.DL NEG say-PAST-DL REL.GEN.SG-that.NOM return.PF-1DL REFLEX.ACC toward sixth-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF  
*"We didn't say that we'd be back by six."*

- (24) Она нецево не бадет признавати тѣми-ково не соцедоваст вѣрогоденами.  
*Oná necevó ne bádet priznaváti těmi-kovó ne socédovast věroğódenami.*  
 she.NOM nothing.GEN NEG be.FUT-3SG admit-INF REL.DATINS.PL-who.GEN NEG consider-3SG trustworthy-DATINS.PL  
*"She won't admit anything to those who she doesn't consider trustworthy."*

The genitive of negation can persist to adverbial adjuncts formed from nouns, though this is not required. Generally, if the adjunct is genitive, it represents a partial negation; if the adjunct is accusative, it represents total negation (compare examples 26 and 27).

- (25) Ша каля килограма не вагасци.  
*Šá kália kilogrâma ne vâgasci.*  
 this.NOM.SG.fish-NOM.SG kilogram-GEN.SG NEG weigh-3SG-MID  
 “This fish does not weigh a kilogram.”
- (26) Оне не спале порѣ вецераш вецерем.  
*Ône ne spâle porě věceraš vēcerem.*  
 he.NOM NEG sleep-PAST-MASC hour-GEN.SG yesterday evening-DATINS.SG  
 “He didn’t sleep an hour last night.” (he slept for some other amount of time)
- (27) Оне не спале пору вецераш вецерем.  
*Ône ne spâle pôru vēceraš vēcerem.*  
 he.NOM NEG sleep-PAST-MASC hour-ACC.SG yesterday evening-DATINS.SG  
 “He didn’t sleep an hour last night.” (he didn’t sleep at all)

Adjuncts following the adverb *ни* “not (even)” always take the genitive.

- (28) О те нет требѣ пладити ни тенгѣ.  
*O té nēt trěbě pladīti ni tengě.*  
 at you.SG.LAT be.3SG.NEG need-GEN.SG pay-INF not\_even tenga-GEN.SG  
 “You don’t have to pay anything at all.” (lit. “...not even a tenga”)

### 12.2.3 Verbs Requiring the Genitive

A number of verbs require complements in the genitive case, instead of or in addition to a direct object in the accusative. While these must be memorized, they can be grouped into two broad categories:

- Verbs denoting striving or expectation: *жедати* *žedāti* “crave, hunger for, thirst for”, *зацегати* *zacegāti* “wait for”, *ескати* *ieskāti* “seek, look for”, *прожити* *prožīti* “ask [someone] for”, *цяяти* *cāiati* “expect, look forward to”, *цегати* *cegāti* “expect, foresee”.
- Verbs denoting deprivation: *боятиш* *boiātis* “be afraid of, fear”, *лити* *līti* “deprive of”, *плакати* *plākati* “mourn the loss of”, *стидитиш* *stīdītis* “be

ashamed of”.

The latter category once had many more verbs (including many with the prefix *ot-*), but these have been steadily giving way to other constructions, most often prepositional phrases with *od* “from”. Even the four listed above in speech (though not in writing) may be used with *od* + GEN instead of a simple genitive. The first category, however, still consistently requires the genitive without any prepositions.

- (29) Яс зацегам тово-койда ондуа прийде́та.  
*Iás zacegám tovó-kóida onduá prijdéta.*  
 I.NOM wait-1SG REL.GEN.SG-when they.NOM.DL arrive.PF-3DL  
*“I am waiting for the two of them to arrive.”*
- (30) Яс ъ попрожи́ла ра́гѣ.  
*Iás iě' poprožíla rágě.*  
 I.NOM she.ACC ask.PF-PAST-FEM money-GEN.SG  
*“I asked her for money.”*
- (31) Вуи не музете мене́ лити (од) прав моих.  
*Vuí ne múzete mené líti (od) práv mojích.*  
 you.NOM.PL NEG be\_able-2PL I.ACC deprive-INF (from) right-GEN.PL my-GEN.PL  
*“You cannot deprive me of my rights.”*

### 12.2.4 The Initial Topical Genitive

The initial topic genitive is a unique construction in the Slavic languages used to topicalize a quantified noun, generally stressing both the number involved and the identity of the quantified noun. The basic format of this construction is as follows: CATEGORICAL (GEN PL) + TOPIC MARKER + VERB (NEUT) + QUANTIFIER + NOUN.

The categorical is a noun that has a broad semantic domain that encompasses the quantified noun. For example, if the quantified noun is “week”, the categorical might be “time”. If it is “boy”, the categorical might be “people”. If it is “bottle”, the categorical might be “water”. How specific the categorical is depends on how specific the quantified noun is and what the speaker is trying to emphasize. This categorical always appears at the beginning of the sentence and in the genitive case. It is usually plural, unless the noun has no plural form, though refer to the comment alongside sentence 28 for an exception. The categorical also always appears with the topical clitic *-ro* attached.

The verb will always appear in the third person singular or in the neuter singular.

- (32) ЛУД-ТО БУИЛО ДЕЖЕСТЕРО ДУШИ.  
*Lúd-to builo dežéstero dúši.*  
 people-GEN.PL-TOP be-PAST-NEUT ten.ANIM-NOM soul-GEN.PL  
 “There were ten people.” (or, perhaps, “As for people, there were ten”)
- (33) ЮВѢ-ТО ВУИПИЛОШИН ТРѢ БУДЕСКѢ.  
*Iúvě-to vuipilosin trě buděskě.*  
 water-GEN.SG-TOP drink.PF-PAST-NEUT-PASS three.INAN.NOM.FEM bottle-GEN.SG  
 “Three bottles of water were drunk.” (or, “As for water, three bottles were drunk”)

However, the categorical noun will appear in the genitive singular even if it has a plural form if the plural has a connotation inappropriate to the meaning of the sentence. For example, in the following example sentence, *врѣмено* “time” does have a plural form, but that generally means “periods of time” or “seasons”, neither of which are appropriate for the intended meaning “Two weeks passed”. Two weeks do not represent seasons, nor are they two discreet periods of time, but two units of a single measure of time.

- (34) ВРѢМЕНА-ТО МИНАЛО ДОВѢ ШЕМИЦѢ.  
*Vrěmena-to minálo dově šemicě.*  
 time-GEN.SG-TOP pass.PF-PAST-NEUT two.INAM-NOM.FEM week-COUNT  
 “Two weeks passed.”

Alternatively, no quantified noun has to be given. The numeral may simply stand alone at the end of the sentence, in which case it must appear in its animate form, whether or not the implied quantified noun is animate. In such cases, the categorical is interpreted as the quantified noun. However, the numeral *едене* “one” may not be left alone this way, nor any number ending in it (21, 31, 101, etc); since it is a true adjective, it must quantify something.

Sentences like 35 below are often jokingly cited as an example of why Novegradian is so difficult to learn. Quite literally, nothing in the sentence is agreeing as it “should”: the subject is masculine and plural, but the verb is neuter and singular; the noun is inanimate, but the numeral is animate; the numeral is three, which calls for the genitive singular, but the noun is in the genitive plural.

- (35) Напис-то собувивалош троин.  
*Nápis-to sobuiváloš trójin.*  
 note-GEN.PL-TOP remain-PAST-NEUT-MID three.ANIM-NOM  
*"There were three notes left behind."*

Some other instances of the topical genitive are harder to classify. The following is a common usage that can only work with the numeral "one" (unless the name is omitted, in which case any number may be used).

- (36) Друж-то моих пришло една Наташа.  
*Druž-to mojih prišlo iédna Natása.*  
 friend-GEN.PL-TOP my-GEN.PL arrive.PF-PAST-NEUT one-NOM.SG.FEM  
 Natása-NOM  
*"Of my friends, only Natása came."*

### 12.2.5 The Qualitative Genitive

The qualitative genitive refers to the use of the definite genitive form of adjectives (i.e., adjectives being used as substantives) after the pronouns цой *cói* "what", нецой *nécoi* "nothing", and цеш *cés* "something". Note that this may only be done when the pronoun is in the nominative or accusative cases; otherwise the adjective must agree in case.

- (37) Они овидѣли цеш страшнаево.  
*Oní ovíděli cés strašnáievo.*  
 they.NOM see.PF-PAST-PL something-ACC scary-GEN.SG.NEUT.DEF  
*"They saw something frightening."*

The qualitative genitive may also be used when the verb "to be" is between the pronoun and adjective.

- (38) Цо-и новаево?  
*Có-i nováievo?*  
 what-NOM-BE.3SG.CLITIC new-GEN.SG.NEUT.DEF  
*"What's new?"*

The qualitative genitive may also be used after the genitive form of нецой—нецево *necevo*—but only when it is a negated direct object or a negated essential construction. This is distinguished from mere case agreement (when mandat-



ed by prepositions or possessive constructions) by the use of the definite adjective in the qualitative construction.

- (39) Оне не дѣласт нецево добраѣво.

*Óne ne dělast nécevo dobráievo.*

he-NOM NEG do-3SG nothing-GEN good-GEN.SG.NEUT.DEF

*“He doesn’t do anything good.” (Genitive of negation—definite adjective required)*

- (40) Оне старасци сокриватиш од цевош худа.

*Óne starásci sokrivátiš od cevóš húda.*

he-NOM try-3SG-MID hide-INF-MID from something-GEN bad-GEN.SG.NEUT

*“He is trying to avoid something bad.” (Preposition governs genitive—indefinite adjective required)*

## 12.3 The Accusative Case

The Novegradian accusative case has three primary functions: indicating an inanimate direct object in non-negative sentences, indicating time or duration, and marking the object of a small set of prepositions.

It marks the direct object of a finite verb as long as the verb is positive and the object refers to something that is not a person or animal. For neuter nouns and inanimate masculine O-stems and I-stems, the nominative and accusative are identical.

- (41) Ондау мотрита телевизю.

*Onduá mótrita televízii.*

they.NOM.DL watch-3DL television-ACC.SG

*“The two of them are watching television.”*

When some sort of unit of time appears in the accusative, it represents duration (example 2) when used with non-specific units of time (minute, hour, year) or when something is to be performed (example 43) when used with a specific time period (Tuesday, summer, November).

- (42) Оне буиле со суоими дружам огу нокьи.  
*Óne buile so suojími družám oĝú nókji.*  
 he.NOM be-PAST-MASC with REFLX\_POSS-DATINS.PL friend-DATINS.PL all-  
 ACC.SG.FEM night-ACC.SG  
*"He was with his friends all night."*
- (43) Зайдета ко наме дѣда со бабой во ледану за Рогѣстуом.  
*Zaidéta ko náme děda so báboi vo lédanu za Róĝestuom.*  
 visit-3DL toward we-DATINS grandfather-NOM.SG with grandmother-  
 DATINS.SG in January-ACC.SG behind Christmas-DATINS  
*"Grandfather and grandmother are coming to visit us in January for  
 Christmas."*

As shown in example 4, these time expressions may freely be preceded by the preposition *во vo* "in", although this is only common with units of time of a month or greater (*во ледану* "in January", *в асто 2001* "in the year 2001", *во вѣк дуадешитей* "in the 20<sup>th</sup> century", etc). However, it is required before the word *пора porá* "hour" when referring to a time of day, since *пора* means both "(for) one hour" and "one o'clock".

- (44) Яс вуийдун во пору.  
*Iás vuijdún vo póru.*  
 I.NOM go\_OUT.PF-1SG in hour-ACC.SG  
*"I'm going out at 1:00."*
- (45) Яс вуийдун пору.  
*Iás vuijdún póru.*  
 I.NOM go\_OUT.PF-1SG hour-ACC.SG  
*"I'm going out for an hour."*

When describing duration of time *after* an event occurs, the preposition *на na* must be used.

- (46) Оне посладешин ко Волоѣдой на шемицу.  
*Óne poslálešin ko Voloĝdói na šemicu.*  
 he.NOM send-PAST-MASC-PASS toward Voloĝda-DATINS on week-ACC.SG  
*"He was sent to Voloĝda for a week."*

When a modifier such as a numeral or *многе mnóge* "many" is used in front of a measure of time, the noun itself will appear in the genitive or partitive according

to rules described later. Technically it is the modifiers that are considered to be in the accusative case.

- (47) Она тамо работала дова асту.  
*Oná támo rabótala dóva ástu.*  
 she.NOM there work-PAST-FEM two-ACC.NEUT year-COUNT  
*"She worked there for two years."*

Duration before an action occurs is handled using *po*, or more formally, *tres*. However, *tres* is frequently used before *pora* "hour" in all circumstances to prevent syllable repetition.

- (48) Яс поѣдун Грециун по [tres] три дена.  
*Iás poiédun Grécium po [tres] trí déna.*  
 I.NOM leave-1SG Greece-LAT on three-ACC day-COUNT  
*"I leave for Greece in three days."*

- (49) Оне би надо мнѣ призуонити трес пору.  
*Óne bi nádo mně prizuoníti tres póru.*  
 he.NOM SUBJ.SG should I.DATINS call\_-toward-INF across hour-ACC.SG  
*"He should call me within an hour."*

The accusative case once could be used with many prepositions of direction and movement, but these are all handled by the lative in modern speech. The use of the accusative case in these instances may still be seen occasionally in highly formal language or in poetry.

The accusative has one quirky usage. If the subject of an existential verb such as *буити* *buíti* "be" is quantified, the quantifier appears in the accusative case. This stems from a general tendency to place quantified adjuncts in the accusative (as in time expressions) combined with the somewhat nebulous status of arguments of existential verbs in Novegradian. If in the past tense, the verb will always take neuter agreement.

- (50) Во шахуѣ буило пару сабогеу.  
*Vó šahuě builo páru sabógeu.*  
 in closet-LOC.SG be-PAST-NEUT pair-ACC.SG boot-PART.PL  
*"There were a pair of boots in the closet."*

## 12.4 The Dative-Instrumental Case

The dative-instrumental case represents two original cases that merged in form. However, the functions of each original case remain intact.

### 12.4.1 The Dative

The primary functions of the dative are in marking indirect objects and in impersonal constructions.

As the indirect object, the dative marks who benefits from an action or who it is done for. It can often be translated using “to” in English.

- (51) Яс показале име вотограхъ зе поезда суюево.  
*Iás pokazále ime votográhě ze póieżda suoievó.*  
 I.NOM show.PF-PAST-MASC they-DATINS photograph-ACC.PL from trip-GEN.  
 SG REFLX\_POSS-GEN.SG.MASC  
*“I showed them photos from my trip.”*
- (52) Яс сорѣзиле Михайлой то-це несм дума шу шемицу.  
*Iás sorědzíle Mihajíloi tó-ce nésťm dúma šú šemicu.*  
 I.NOM tell.PF-PAST-MASC Mihajíle-DATINS REL.NOM.SG-that.NOM be.NEG.1SG  
 at\_home this-ACC.SG.FEM week-ACC.SG  
*“I told Mihajile that I wouldn’t be home this week.”*

Impersonal constructions consist of an adverb/neuter adjective or middle voice verb, and have no true subject. Introducing a noun in the dative case creates a new semantic subject.

- (53) Мнѣ кладно.  
*Mně’kládno.*  
 I.DATINS cold-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*“I feel cold.”*
- (54) Мнѣ каѣѣци тѣм-це оне дуракem.  
*Mně’káġjeci těm-ce óne durákem.*  
 I.DATINS seem-3SG-MID REL.DATINS.SG-that.NOM he.NOM Ø idiot-DATINS.SG  
*“It seems to me that he’s an idiot.”*

When used with an infinitive, an inherent quality or unavailability is implied.

- (55) Виѣми омирати.  
*Vijěmi omiráti.*  
 all-DATINS.PL die-INF  
*"Everyone must [one day] die."*

The "dative subject" uses the same construction, with an infinitive plus a dative pronoun. It generally indicates a perceived obligation. This can only be done with dative pronouns; with dative nouns this construction is very archaic.

- (56) Куда мнѣ спати?  
*Kudé mně spáti?*  
 where I.DATINS sleep-INF  
*"Where should I sleep?"*

- (57) Ему тамо егѣ не работати.  
*Iemu támo iegjé ne rabótati.*  
 he.DATINS there more NEG work-INF  
*"He shouldn't work there anymore."*

- (58) Мнѣ оходити.  
*Mně ohóditi.*  
 I.DATINS leave-INF  
*"I ought to leave."*

With a noun and subjunctive marker, a wish (optative mood) may be indicated. This usage tends to be stylistically marked.

- (59) Мир со частиям бис тибѣ.  
*Mír so častijám bis tibě.*  
 peace-NOM.SG with happiness-DATINS.PL SUBJ.DL you.DATINS  
*"Peace and happiness be with you."*

The most common usage of the dative case alongside a noun is when telling age.

- (60) Вама ож ошмнацити азот. Лигѣ вама возити.  
*Váma ož ošmnáciti azót. Ligě váma vóziti.*  
 you.DATINS.DL already eighteen.NOM year-GEN.PL. Allowed you.DATINS.DL  
 drive-INF  
*"You two are eighteen years old. You're allowed to drive."*

A few prepositions require the dative, most commonly *ko* "to, toward". It

may also be seen with a number of verbal adverbs or participles functioning as pseudoprepositions.

- (61) Неможе́но приста́вати кино-то́ ко ни́гой.  
*Nemóženo pristaváti kinó-to ko nígoi.*  
 impossible-NOM.SG.NEUT compare-INF film-NOM.SG-TOP to book-DATINS.  
 SG  
*"You can't compare the film to the book."*
- (62) Наш прое́кт науре́ме зако́нчилешин дига́ен ехорте́м Ери́нѣ.  
*Náš proiěhte náureme zakóncilešin digáien iéhortem Ieríně.*  
 our-NOM.SG.MASC project-NOM.SG on\_time finish.PF-PAST-MASC-PASS  
 thank-ADV.IMPF effort-DATINS.SG Ierína-GEN  
*"Our project was finished on time thanks to Ierína's hard work."*

A number of adjectives capable of taking nominal complements require them to be in the dative case: *равене* *rávene* "equal (to)", *ґодене* *ǵódene* "worthy (of), deserving (of)", *овинене* *ovínene* "guilty (of)". However, these gradually are being replaced by prepositional phrases; *овинене* is falling out of use in favor of *виниве* *viníve*, which takes *во* *vo* "in" + LOC, and *равене* nowadays frequently takes its complement as *со* *so* "with" + DATINS.

- (63) Она-и ґодена нашѣ хуало́й.  
*Oná-i ǵódena nášě hualói.*  
 she-NOM-be.3SG.CLITIC worthy-NOM.SG.FEM our-DATINS.SG.FEM praise-DATINS.SG  
*"She is deserving of our praise."*

The so-called "inalienable dative" is a dative complement used with verbs whose direct object is a body part. It completely replaces any sort of possessive marker specifying whose body part is being discussed.

- (64) Ше та́мо песе́ мнѣ́ накуза́ле ро́ку.  
*Šé támo pése mně́ nakuzále róku.*  
 that-NOM.SG.MASC there dog-NOM.SG I.DATINS bite.PF-PAST-MASC hand-ACC.SG  
*"That dog bit my hand."*

- (65) Слезѣ закривали єѣ оки.  
*Slézi zakriváli iěi óki.*  
 tear-NOM.PL veil.IMPF-PAST-3PL she.DATINS eye-ACC.DL  
*"Tears clouded her eyes."*

This is frequently extended metaphorically to things closely associated with the body such as clothing or senses (66, 67) or to things towards which someone feels a strong personally attachment (68).

- (66) Ъ гласѣ рѣѣтъ мнѣ слух.  
*Iě gláse rěġjet mně slúh.*  
 her voice-NOM.SG cut-3SG I.DATINS hearing-ACC.SG  
*"Her voice is grating on my ears." (lit. "cuts at my hearing")*

- (67) Яс шибѣ зацѣрнила сукню вином.  
*Iás šibě zacerníla súkniu vinóm.*  
 I.NOM REFLX.DATINS soil-PAST-FEM dress-ACC.SG wine-DATINS.SG  
*"I spilt some wine on my dress."*

- (68) Заводне ексалате наме забредит воздух.  
*Závodne eksaláte náme zabredít vózduh.*  
 factory-ADJ-NOM.SG.MASC exhaust-NOM.SG we.DATINS pollute-3SG air-ACC.  
 SG  
*"Factory emissions are polluting our air."*

## 12.4.2 The Instrumental

The instrumental serves to mark the complement of a copular verb, the means by which an action was performed, and the object of certain prepositions.

The complement of a copular verb must appear in the instrumental case if nominal. If an adjective, the same case must be used as the subject.

- (69) Она оѣу житени хотѣла стати осиделикой.  
*Oná oġú žiteni hótěla státi odzidélíkoi.*  
 she.NOM all-ACC.SG.FEM life-ACC.SG want-PAST-FEM become-INF teacher-  
 FEM-DATINS.SG  
*"She wanted to be a teacher her entire life."*

- (70) Ши – дамниєми дру́жам-то моими.  
*Ši – damníjemi družám-to mojimi.*  
 this-NOM.PL Ø long\_time-DATINS.PL.DEF friend-DATINS.PL-TOP my-DATINS.  
 PL  
*“These are my old friends.”*

A noun in the instrumental case by itself, without any prepositions, indicates the means by which an action is performed. It is often translated as “with”.

- (71) Яс шлє думове ногам.  
*Iás šlě dumóve nogám.*  
 I.NOM go.PAST-MASC homeward foot-DATINS.PL  
*“I went home on foot.”*
- (72) Они жєли вотограхъ суоим вотапаратєм.  
*Oní žěli votogrǎhě suojím votaparátєm.*  
 they.NOM take.PF-PAST-PL photograph-ACC.PL REFLX\_POSS-DATINS.SG.MASC  
 camera-DATINS.SG  
*“They took photographs with their camera.”*

The most common prepositions the instrumental case is used with are all locative—зад *zad* “behind”, над *nad* “over”, под *pod* “under”, пред *pred* “in front of”, со *so* “with”, etc. The last is particularly important because it is used to connect nouns to make compound nominal phrases, similar to English “and” in certain circumstances.

The instrumental is also used to mark the agent in a passive sentence (after the preposition на *na*), the complement of certain verbs or other expressions of emotion or feeling (23, 24) and sometimes as adverbs of time when used with a specific period, such as “evening”, “summer”, “Tuesdays”, etc (25, 26). When used with a day of the week or a month, the meaning is always plural (“every Tuesday”, “every May”), even though the form itself is grammatically singular.

- (73) На́дуа вєлєм шебе гордива тибѣ.  
*Naduá vėlєm šebė gordíva tibě.*  
 we.NOM.DL very REFLX.ACC pride-1DL you.DATINS  
*“We’re very proud of you.” (lit. “We pride ourselves very much by you.”)*



- (74) Яс – дово́лне тѣм-це пробуивало.  
*Iás - dovólne těm-ce probuiválo.*  
 I.NOM Ø content-NOM.SG.MASC REL.DATINS.SG-that.NOM happen-PAST-NEUT  
*“I’m satisfied with what happened.”*
- (75) Веце́рем снѣ́ге на́до би настуби́ти.  
*Věcerem sně́ge nádo bi nastubíti.*  
 evening-DATINS.SG snow-NOM.SG should SUBJ.SG approach.PF-INF  
*“It’s supposed to start snowing this evening.”*
- (76) Го́де Пасха́ вѣ́дѣцин тра́ваной или ку́ѣтаной.  
*Góde Pashá vě́decin trávanoi ili kuětanoi.*  
 holiday-NOM.SG Pascha-NOM celebrate-3SG-PASS April-DATINS.SG or May-DATINS.SG  
*“Pascha is always observed in April or May.”*

## 12.5 The Partitive Case

The partitive case is primarily used to indicate some sort of partial quality of the noun it modifies, and is often equivalent to the English quantifier “some”. Nouns following non-negative non-numerical quantifiers such as *мно́ге mnóge* “many, much”, as well as less abstract ones such as *ки́ло kilo* “kilograms” (indeclinable) and *стожа́не stožáne* “a glass [of]”, must also be in the partitive. Partitive nouns may be the subject, object, or indirect object. The partitive case dominates over the nominative, accusative, and genitive (i.e., a subject, object, or possessor can be in the partitive instead of the nominative, accusative, or genitive), but if other cases are involved, a secondary modifier such as *не́мно́ге nemnóge* “a few, a little bit” must be used. Strictly it is the modifier that takes the necessary case (despite not declining to indicate it), allowing the following noun to use the partitive case. Note that the partitive cannot be used as the subject of a sentence by itself without the help of an adverb, but may appear alone as the direct object.

When used with a count noun, the partitive generally means “part/some of”. If it is a mass noun, it means “some”.

- (77) Многие лудеу не радеют спорта.  
*Mnóge lúdeu ne radéiut spórta.*  
 many.NOM people-PART.PL NEG enjoy-3PL sports-GEN.SG  
 “Many people do not like sports.”
- (78) Яс хокьун пити. Музеш ли принес мнѣ ювок?  
*Iás hókjun píti. Muzeš li prinés mně iúvok?*  
 I.NOM want-1SG drink-INF. Be\_able-2SG Q bring\_to.PF-SUP I.DATINS drink-  
 ing\_water-PART.SG  
 “I’m thirsty. Could you bring me some water?”
- (79) О тебе ли дружеу, вѣдакьоу то-како елехтроники репарати?  
*O tebé li drúzeu, vědákjou tó-kako ielehtróniki reparáti?*  
 at you.GEN Q friend-PART.PL, know-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-PART.PL REL.ACC.SG-how  
 electronic-NOM.PL repair-INF  
 “Do you have any friends who know how to repair electronics?”
- (80) Яс вехода пиун стоған комподек разом со заутрокем.  
*Iás vehodá piún stoğán kompodék rázom so záutrokem.*  
 I.NOM always drink-1SG glass-ACC.SG compote-PART.SG together with  
 breakfast-DATINS.SG  
 “I always drink a glass of compote with breakfast.”
- (81) Оне мене наусиле немноге английскоу словесоу.  
*Óne mené naudzîle nemnóge anglijskou slóvesou.*  
 he.NOM I.ACC teach.PF-PAST-MASC a\_few.DATINS English-PART.PL word-  
 PART.PL  
 “He taught me a few words in Russian.” (where *немноге* is treated as  
 though it were dative/instrumental)

The use of the partitive after another noun almost always specifies that noun as some sort of unit of measurement, while the genitive means the noun is literal. Compare:

- (82) Николае сиѣгле цашу субек.  
*Nikoláie siěgle cášu subék.*  
 Nikoláie-NOM eat.PF-PAST-MASC bowl-ACC.SG soup-PART.SG  
 “Nikoláie ate a bowl of soup.” (Partitive: He ate the soup)

- (83) Николае сиѣгле цашу супу.  
*Nikoláie siěgle cášu súpu.*  
 Nikoláie-NOM eat.PF-PAST-MASC bowl-ACC.SG soup-GEN.SG  
 “Nikoláie ate a bowl of soup.” (Genitive: He ate the bowl as well as the soup)

The partitive may not appear as the direct object of a negated sentence. Since the partitive indicates a partial or indefinite amount, it would be illogical to use it in such a situation, since the amount is certain: none. The genitive of negation therefore has no need to compete with the partitive in such environments.

When the direct object of a positive verb is a mass noun or some other sort of singular tantum (e.g., abstract nouns lacking a plural), it will almost always appear in the partitive case rather than in the accusative. It is, after all, illogical to ask for all water or all support.

- (84) Принези мнѣ ювок. (\*\*юву)  
*Prinezí mně iúvok.*  
 bring.PF-2SG.IMPER I.DATINS water-PART.SG  
 “Bring me some water.”
- (85) Яс ешкѣун позперок. (\*\*позперу)  
*Iás iěškjun pózperok.*  
 I.NOM seek-1SG support-PART.SG  
 “I am looking for some support.”
- (86) Муи преддержим вашѣ бесобасенностек. (\*\*бесобасенности)  
*Mui preddéržim vášě besobásennostek.*  
 we.NOM ensure-1PL your.PL-PART.SG.FEM safety-PART.SG  
 “We will guarantee your safety.”

The above descriptions apply only to the standard dialect, however. Since much of the Novegradian-speaking population is either bilingual in a Uralic language or come in frequent contact with one of them, the rules for the use of the partitive vary drastically. Common dialectal features include:

- Using the partitive singular and plural instead of the genitive with numerals.
- Using the partitive to mark the direct object of an imperfective verb in some circumstances (to emphasize incompleteness).
- Using the partitive singular to mark the direct object of a progressive atelic verb (present/future tense only) with no clear ending or result, such

as “love”, “think”, “enjoy”, and many other verbs not describing physical action.

While not considered standard, these uses are gaining increasing acceptance in written texts from areas where they are common in speech. Many newspapers published in Helsinki, for example, will occasionally include these features, while newspapers from Novegráde Velíkei never will.

## 12.6 The Locative Case

The locative case is used to indicate the location of an object or action, in either a literal or temporal sense. There are six prepositions it is commonly used with: *vo* “in”, *na* “on”, *o* “about”, *pa* “near”, *po* “along, upon”, and *pri* “at, in the presence/time of”.

- (87) Яс работам во школѣ.  
*Iás rabótam vo škólě.*  
 I.NOM work-1SG in school-LOC.SG  
*“I work in a school.”*

Unlike all other modern Slavic languages, Novegradian retains the ability to use locative case nouns on their own, without the aid of a preposition. This is only done with locative nouns when the implied preposition is obvious.

- (88) Новеградескей Парламенте стоит оликѣ Прусскѣѣм.  
*Novegrádeskei Parlaménte stojít ólikě Prusskéěm.*  
 Novegradian-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF Parliament-NOM.SG stand-3SG street-LOC.  
 SG Prussian-LOC.SG.FEM.DEF  
*“The Novegradian Parliament is located on Prusskáia Street.”*

When expressing a temporal meaning, prepositions usually are not dropped unless the expression refers to a single moment of time (89) or has become a fixed expression, such as with the seasons (90). Fixed time expressions such as *вѣцерѣ* “in the evening” may overlap with similar constructions made from other cases (e.g., dative/instrumental *вѣцерем* *vécere*m or accusative *во вѣцер* *vo vécer*), although there is no real difference in meaning.

- (89) Селебране нацинасци пољункях.  
*Selebránje nacinásci poľunkjáh.*  
 celebration-NOM.SG begin-3SG-MID midnight-LOC.PL  
*"The celebrations will begin at midnight."*
- (90) Жимѣ вехода буиваст многе снѣгек со ледем.  
*Žímě vehodá buivást mnóge sněgék so lédem.*  
 winter-LOC.SG always be.ITER-3SG much snow-PART.SG with ice-DATINS.SG  
*"There's always a lot of snow and ice in winter."*

## 12.7 The Lative Case

The lative case is used to mark the direction or destination of a verb of motion, or a verb implying motion. It may be used with any preposition of position ("in", "on", "behind", "under", etc), thereby giving them a directional meaning ("into", "onto", "to the back of", "to the underside of"). Like the locative case, any preposition may be dropped if it can be inferred, although in practice this only means *во* and *на*. Preposition loss is much more common when the noun is pushed forward or backward from its most unmarked position. A prepositionless lative also can frequently mean simply "to", while with *на* or *во* the more specific meanings "onto" and "into" are stressed.

- (91) Ёдун Зюрихен за бизнесем.  
*Iědun Ziúrihen za bíznesem.*  
 go\_by\_vehicle-1SG Zürich-LAT for business-DATINS.SG  
*"I'm going to Zürich on business."*
- (92) Повастамеш во кавѣ пред неж кинотеятрен пойдѣм.  
*Povástameš vo kavě pred než kinoteiátren poiděm.*  
 meet.PF-1PL-MID in café-LOC.SG before than movie\_theatre-LAT.SG go.PF-1PL  
*"We'll meet up at the coffee shop before going to the theater."*
- (93) Ана сокрила напис-от од нево под озианен.  
*Ána sokrila napis-ót od nevó pod oziánen.*  
 Ána-NOM hide.PF-PAST-FEM letter-ACC.SG-TOP from N-he.GEN under bed-LAT.SG  
*"Ána hid his letter under under her bed." (lit. "letter from him", since he is not in possession)*

## 12.8 The Use of the Dual Number

The dual number in Novegradian nouns has very limited functionality. It may only appear in two situations.

The most common is after the numeral *дoвa* “two” as well as the pronoun *oбa* “both”, where the dual must be used if the noun has a distinct dual. This is discussed further in Section 13.8. However, it generally may not occur in isolation. If the quantifier is removed, the noun must appear in the plural. Compare:

- (94) *Егpaст нa клавир oбђma cyoимa poгaмa.*  
*Iegrást na klavír óběma suojíma rogáma.*  
 play-3SG on piano-ACC.SG both-DATINS REFLX\_POSS-DATINS.DL hand-DATINS.DL  
*“He plays the piano with both of his hands.”*
- (95) *Егpaст нa клавир cyoими poкaм.*  
*Iegrást na klavír suojími rókam.*  
 play-3SG on piano-ACC.SG REFLX\_POSS-DATINS.PL hand-DATINS.PL  
*“He plays the piano with his hands.”*

Notice that dual nouns generally take plural agreement with adjectives, with the exception of the dative/instrumental dual, which takes *-ma -ma*; whether this is a holdover or simply a case of ending matching is debatable.<sup>1</sup>

However, there are a number of set expressions that call for dual forms even without a numeral. Some, such as *сами cyoи oки sámí suojí óki* “one’s own eyes”, can even decline.

- (96) *Јс ше-тo oвидѣлe самaмa cyoимa oгoмa!*  
*Iás šé-to oviděle sámama suojíma ogóma!*  
 I.NOM this-NOM.SG-TOP see-PAST-MASC same-DATINS.DL POSS\_REFLEX-DATINS.DL eye-DATINS.DL  
*“I saw it with my own two eyes!”*

## 12.9 Case Assignment of Deverbative Phrases

The case borne by a modifier of a deverbalized noun depends on the cases of the

<sup>1</sup> Traditionally, it is regarded as the latter. This issue is examined further in the section on adjectival syntax.

arguments of the original verb.

If the semantic patient (not necessarily the direct object) of the verb is in the accusative case, nouns modifying the deverbalized noun take the genitive.

Original Verb	Deverbal Noun Phrase
цидати <i>cidáti</i> “read”	циданье ниг <i>cidánje níg</i> “the reading of books”
видѣти <i>viděti</i> “see”	виде наступнаево <i>vide nastupnáievo</i> “a view of the future”
традити <i>traditi</i> “waste, lose”	трада рагѣ <i>tradá rágě</i> “a waste of money”
росуити <i>rosuiti</i> “develop”	росуие промуисли <i>rosuije promuisli</i> “the development of industry”

In such constructions, it is ambiguous whether the modifying noun is “agent-like” or “patient-like” relative to the deverbal; context must be used. For example, описе Марка *ópise Márka* can mean either “a description of Márke” (where “Márke” is acting more like the patient of the verb “describe”) or “a description that Márke made” (where “Márke” is acting more like the agent of “describe”).

If the primary patient of a verb does not use the accusative case, however, the agent-like and patient-like deverbatives are distinguished. A modifier is used in the genitive case if it is agent-like, and in the original case of the verbal patient if it is patient-like. The three verbs in the table below, for instance, mark their patients using the dative/instrumental case.

Original Verb	Agent-Like Deverbal	Patient-Like Deverbal
помойкѣ <i>pomóikji</i> “help”	помокѣ Михаила <i>pómokji Mihajíla</i> “help given by Mihajíle”	помокѣ Михаилой <i>pómokji Mihajíloi</i> “help for Mihajíle”
славити <i>sláviti</i> “glorify”	слава Бога <i>sláva Bóğa</i> “glory of God”	слава Богом <i>sláva Bóğem</i> “glory to God”
хуалити <i>hualíti</i> “praise”	хуала Совин <i>hualá Sóvin</i> “praise given by Sóvia”	хуала Совей <i>hualá Sovéi</i> “praise for Sóvia”

This distinction between agentive and patientive modifiers is also present in many nouns not directly related to a verb, but it more irregular and harder to predict. It is apparent in *примене Цара* *prímene Cára* “a monument made by the Tsar” versus *примене Царем* *prímene Cárem* “a monument to the Tsar”.

## 12.10 Assignment of Cases in Appositive Noun Phrases

Appositive noun phrases are phrases with two nouns placed side-by-side, with one serving to modify or define the other. In Novegradian, generally only the first element is declined, while the second appears in the nominative.

- (97) Оне живет во градѣ Арханъейске.  
*Óne živét vo grádě Arhánjeiske.*  
 he.NOM live-3SG in city-LOC.SG Arhánjeiske-NOM  
*“He lives in the city of Arhánjeiske.”*
- (98) Яс наусиле суоим другой Кеша нѣкотроу латѣйскоу словесоу.  
*Iás naudzile suojím drúgoi Kéša někotrou látwiskou slóvesou.*  
 I.NOM teach.PF-PAST-MASC REFLX\_POSS-DATINS.SG.MASC friend-DATINS.SG  
 Kéša-NOM several-PART.PL Latvian-PART.PL word-PART.PL  
*“I taught my friend Kéša some Latvian words.”*

This also applies to titles of films, books, newspapers, etc. If an appositive construction is present, the title appears in the nominative. Otherwise, it appears in whatever case is grammatically conditioned.

- (99) Яс процидале нигу Толстаево „Война со миром“.  
*Iás procidále nígu Tolstáievo “Voiná so mírom”.*  
 I.NOM read.PF-PAST-MASC book-ACC.SG Tolstoy-GEN “War-NOM.SG with  
 peace-DATINS.SG  
*“I read Tolstoy’s book ‘War and Peace.’”*
- (100) Яс процидале „Войну со мирем“ Толстаево.  
*Iás procidále “Voinú so mírem” Tolstáievo.*  
 I.NOM read.PF-PAST-MASC “War-ACC.SG with peace-DATINS.SG Tolstoy-  
 GEN”  
*“I read Tolstoy’s ‘War and Peace.’”*

The noun *рѣ́ра* *rěgá* “river” is more complicated as an appositive. It can either



occur before the river name, in which case it acts as a normal appositive construction, or can appear after, in which case both nouns decline identically. This only applies when the river name is nominal, never adjectival.

- (101) Оне владѣет дакъу по рѣрѣ Мосѣ (Мосѣ рѣрѣ).

*Óne vladěiet dákju po řěř Mostá (Mostě řěřě).*

he.NOM own-3SG dacha-ACC.SG along river-LOC.SG Mostá-NOM (Mostá-LOC river-LOC.SG)

*“He owns a dacha on the River Mostá (Mostá River).”*

Personal titles, however, act in the exact opposite way. If the title occurs before the name, then both decline identically. If the title occurs after the name, then the name declines, but the title appears in the nominative. Only a limited set of titles are allowed to appear after the name, however; these are mostly confined to political titles.

- (102) Яс пройшкѹн велигаево кеняжя Ярослава (Ярослава великей кеняжи).

*Iás próiškjun veligáievo keniázia Iarosláva (Iarosláva velikei keniáži).*

I.NOM research-1SG great-ACC.SG.MASC.DEF prince-ACC.SG Yaroslav-ACC (Yaroslav-ACC great-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF prince-NOM.SG)

*“I am researching Grand Prince Yaroslav (Yaroslav the Grand Prince).”*



# Adjectival and Adverbial Syntax

Синтаксе прилежумих  
со придѣѣсам

## 13.1 Types of Adjectives

Adjectives are any words that directly modify a noun and decline in agreement with it in gender, number, and case. This includes qualitative adjectives (describing a comparable quality—1), relative adjectives (describing non-comparable qualities—2), ordinals (describing location in a sequence—3), possessives (indicating possession, much like the genitive—4), and participles (adjectivalized verbs—5).

- (1) Стари будови Новеграда стали вокражени на вуисами неборѣзам соврѣмenna града.

*Stári budóvi Novegráda stáli vokráženi na vuísami neboréžám  
sovřěmenna gráda.*

old-NOM.PL building-NOM.PL Novegráde-GEN become-PAST-PL surround.  
PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.PL on high-DATINS.PL skyscraper-DATINS.PL modern-  
GEN.SG.MASC city-GEN.SG

*“The old<sub>(1)</sub> buildings of Novegrad have become surrounded<sub>(5)</sub> by the tall<sub>(1)</sub>  
skyscrapers of the modern<sub>(1)</sub> city.”*

- (2) Ярославвей Дуре на правѣ берегѣ рѣгѣ Воѣхове буиле мѣстом,  
куде стояле срѣдновѣгеве палаце.

*Yaroslávovej Dúre na právě béregě řěgě Voľhóve buíle městom, kudě stoiále  
srědnověgěve paláce.*

Yaroslav-ADJ-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF Courtyard-NOM.SG on right-LOC.SG.MASC  
shore-LOC.SG river-GEN.SG Volhóve-NOM be-PAST-MASC place-DATINS.SG,  
where stand-PAST-MASC medieval-NOM.SG.MASC palace-NOM.SG

*“The Yaroslav<sub>(4)</sub> Court on the right<sub>(2)</sub> bank of the Volhóve River was the site  
of a medieval<sub>(2)</sub> palace.”*

- (3) Класи концаци во другаю со дѣдешитем.  
*Klási kónčaci vo drugáiu so dwěděšitem.*  
 class-NOM.PL finish-3PL-MID in second-ACC.SG.FEM.DEF with twenty-DATINS  
*"Classes end at 2:20." (lit. "second<sub>(3)</sub> [hour] with twenty [minutes])"*

## 13.2 Agreement

### 13.2.1 Across a Copula

Across a copula, adjectives must still agree in gender, number, and case with their subject. Unlike nouns, an adjective functioning as the complement does not take the dative/instrumental case.

- (4) Мой лубиме куѣте: шинѣ.  
*Mói lubíme kuěte: šínje.*  
 my-NOM.SG.MASC favorite-NOM.SG.MASC color-NOM.SG Ø blue-NOM.SG.MASC  
*"My favorite color is blue."*
- (5) Немноге ших нигоу – велем староу.  
*Nemného ših nigóu – vélem stárou.*  
 few this-PART.PL book-PART.PL Ø very old-PART.PL  
*"Some of these books are very old."*

Any subjects modified by a numeral other than one take nominative plural agreement across a copula. This is because the adjective is modifying the numeral, strictly speaking, as the noun is subordinate to the numeral. The numeral "one", едене, on the other hand is a true adjective, subordinate to the noun it modifies.

- (6) Дова стоџана пивок – суѣши еден.  
*Dóva stožána pivók – suěši iéden.*  
 two-MASC glass-COUNT beer-PART.SG Ø better-NOM.PL one-ACC.SG.MASC  
*"Two glasses of beer are better than one."*

### 13.2.2 With Dual Nouns

Dual nouns and pronouns always take plural agreement from adjectives (with

the exception of the dative/instrumental dual, as described in Section 12.8).

- (7) О ме треба нов очок.  
*O mé tréba nóv očók.*  
 at I.LAT need-NOM.SG new-GEN.PL glasses.DL-GEN.PL  
*"I need new glasses."*

### 13.2.3 With Pluralia Tantum

All pluralia tantum nouns naturally take plural agreement. This includes those that are semantically singular, such as крѣуностия *krěunostijá* "fortress". However, since these nouns are semantically singular, they can take adjectives that plural nouns generally cannot, including the numeral едѣне *iédene* "one". This leads to somewhat unusual sights as едни крѣуностия *iédni krěunostijá* "one fortress", with a morphologically plural adjective "one".

### 13.2.4 With Compound Nominal Phrases

Novegradian forms compound nominal phrases such as "apples and oranges", where two different nouns together play a single semantic role such as the subject or direct object, using the preposition *so* "with", which requires the dative/instrumental case. This means that a compound subject will therefore consist of two nouns—one nominative and one dative/instrumental. This complicates adjective agreement significantly.

When both nouns are singular:

- If an adjective modifies only one noun, or two different adjectives modify the two nouns, each agrees with the noun it is modifying:

слазко яблоко со вокусном оранжем  
*slázko iábloko so vókusnom oránžem*  
*"a sweet apple and a tasty orange"*

- If an adjective modifies both nouns, it appears in the same case as the first noun, but plural, though is put after the second noun:

яблоко с оранжем вокусни  
*iábloko s oránžem vókusni*  
*"a sweet apple and orange"*

When both nouns are dual or plural:

- If an adjective modifies only one noun, or two different adjectives modify the two nouns, each agrees with the noun it is modifying:

слазкі яблага со вokusнамі оранжам

*slázki iablogá so vókusnami oranžám*

“sweet apples and tasty oranges”

- If an adjective modifies both nouns, there are multiple options. Either a single plural adjective agreeing with the first noun is placed either before the first noun or after the second, or a plural definite adjective agreeing with the first noun is placed after the second noun. All of these cases can be ambiguous at times, so context is important to determine the intended meaning:

слазкі яблага с оранжам

*slázki iablogá s oranžám*

“sweet apples and oranges”

яблага с оранжам слазкі

*iablogá s oranžám slázki*

“sweet apples and oranges”

яблага с оранжам слазкіе

*iablogá s oranžám slázkiye*

“sweet apples and oranges”

When one noun is singular and the other plural:

- If an adjective modifies only one noun, or two different adjectives modify the two nouns, each agrees with the noun it is modifying:

слазкі яблага со вokusном оранжэм

*slázki iablogá so vókusnom oranžem*

“sweet apples and a tasty orange”

- If an adjective modifies both nouns, then a plural adjective agreeing in case with the first noun must be placed either before the first noun or after the second:

слазки яблага с оранжем

*slázki iáblogá s oránžem*

“sweet apples and a [sweet] orange”

яблага с оранжем слазки

*iáblogá s oránžem slázki*

“sweet apples and a [sweet] orange”

The rules differ slightly when dealing with a participle that is subordinating a clause to a compound nominal phrase. In such circumstances, the participle agrees in case, gender, and number with the first noun, but also must be definite.

- (8) Яс нашле яблоко с оранжем, стауленое на стуль.

*Iás našlé iábloko s oránžem, staulénoie ná stul.*

I.NOM find.PF-PAST-MASC apple-ACC.SG with orange-DATINS.SG, place.PF-PTCP.PASS.PF-ACC.SG.NEUT.DEF on table-LOC.SG

“I found an apple and orange placed on the table.”

## 13.3 Degrees of Adjectives

### 13.3.1 Comparative

Comparative adjectives are used to compare two nouns in terms of a given qualitative adjective. Once the comparative suffix is added, agreement must still be made with the noun being directly modified using the comparative series of adjective endings. Infinitive verbs may also be used in place of nouns, but with neuter agreement.

- (9) Ша егра – интереснейша.

*Šá iegrá – interesnéiša.*

this-NOM.SG.FEM game-NOM.SG Ø interesting-COMP-NOM.SG.FEM

“This game is more interesting.”

A comparison to another noun is accomplished with *неже néže* “than” followed by the accusative case, which often shortens to *неж než*. A comma must immediately precede *неж(e)*. If the things being compared are two nouns, *неж(e)* be dropped completely, and no comma is needed.

- (10) *Ша суде егра – интереснейша(, неж) шу тамо егру.*  
*Šá sudé iegrá – interesnéjša(, než) šú támo iegrú.*  
 this-NOM.SG.FEM here game-NOM.SG Ø interesting-COMP-NOM.SG.FEM (,  
 than) this-ACC.SG.FEM there game-ACC.SG  
*“This game is more interesting than that game.”*
- (11) *Вожити маленей возе-те леже, неж валий.*  
*Vóžiti málenei vóze-te léže, než válij.*  
 drive-INF small-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF car-NOM.SG-TOP Ø easy-COMP-NOM.  
 SG.NEUT, than Ø large-ACC.SG.MASC.DEF  
*“Driving a small car is easier than driving a large one.” (неж cannot be  
 dropped here because two verbs are being compared)*

The comparative adjectives *болше* *bólše* “bigger” and *менише* *méníše* “smaller” can also be used quantitatively, where they mean “more” and “fewer” respectively. These comparative adjectives must be in their definite forms.

- (12) *Суде болшие дешити воз.*  
*Sudé bólsije déšiti vóz.*  
 here Ø big-COMP-NOM.PL.DEF ten-ACC car-GEN.PL  
*“There are more than ten cars here.”*

The definite form must be used in the example above because the noun *вози* “cars” is being dropped to avoid a redundant-sounding phrase. If fully expanded, the above sentence is equivalent to *Суде есат болши вози, неже дешити воз*, literally “Here there are more cars than ten cars”.

The preposition *на* *na* and the accusative case are used to qualify the difference between the two things being compared.

- (13) *Она кракѣ мене на шеньи сантиметер.*  
*Oná krákja mené na šénji sentiméter.*  
 she.NOM short-COMP-NOM.SG.FEM I.ACC on seven-ACC centimeter-GEN.PL  
*“She’s shorter than me by seven centimeters.”*

A comparison of equality (“as... as”) is made using *так* *tako* (же)... *како* *tako* (*že*)... *kako*. Note the use of the nominative case after *како* in the example below, as this could be considered a clipped form of “He as is smart as Einstein [is]”.



- (14) Оне тако же онме, како 'Ейнштейне.  
*Óne táko že ómne, kako Einšteíne.*  
 he.NOM thus EMPH intelligent-NOM.SG.MASC, as Einstein-NOM  
*"He's as smart as Einstein."*

The invariable forms *векъе неж* *vékje než* "more than" and *менише неж* *méniše než* "less than" are used to compare finite verbal phrases. One of the verbs may be dropped if they are the same and have the same subject.

- (15) Јас лублун црвено вино векъе неж (лублун) бѣлоє.  
*Iás lublún cérveno vinó vékje než (lublún) běloie.*  
 I.NOM love-1SG red-ACC.SG.NEUT wine-ACC.SG more than (love-1SG)  
 white-ACC.SG.NEUT.DEF  
*"I like red wine more than (I like) white wine."*

*Векъе* is also used to form comparatives out of participles, which generally are incapable of taking regular comparative endings. It may be found in the Novegradian equivalent of the "more of an X than a Y" construction as well, which may be more accurately translated as "it is not a Y, so much as [it is] an X".

- (16) Ше нет отуѣта, тѣм векъе неж пуитем.  
*Še nét otuěta, těm vékje než puítem.*  
 this-NOM.SG be.NEG.3SG answer-GEN.SG, that.DATINS.SG more than  
 question-DATINS.SG  
*"This is more of a question than an answer."*

The adverb *егъе* *iegjé*, when put before a comparative adjective, means "even [more]" and strengthens it further: *егъе болше* *iegjé bólsé* "even bigger".

### 13.3.2 Superlative

Superlative adjectives mark the greatest degree of some quality. For the most part, they share their forms with the comparative and rely on context to distinguish the two. In 17 below, for example, only the superlative makes sense; "the bigger mountain in the world" is nonsensical.

- (17) 'Евересте – вуихъей горой во вием мирѣ.  
*Everéste – vuilhjei góroi vo vijém mírě.*  
 Everest-NOM Ø high-COMP-DATINS.SG.FEM mountain-DATINS.SG in all.LOC.  
 SG.MASC world-LOC.SG  
*"Mt Everest is the highest mountain in the world."*

If confusion might arise, the prefix най- *nai-* added to the comparative form forces it to be interpreted as a superlative. This should not be used unless absolutely necessary, as its overuse sounds very uneducated.

- (18) Новеграде-те градем со многе „firsts“. Буиле о тово пирве кремене на виѣй Ружи, старши властерни драги на срѣдновѣгевѣ Еуроѣ, и една зе найранеш систем градоун канал, значин виѣ то-це буиле едене зе найцишекѣ град Еуроѣ при шем епохѣ.  
*Novegráde-te grádem so mnóge "firsts". Buile o tovo pírvе krémene na vijěi Ruží, stárši vlásterňi drági na srědňověgěvě Ieurópe, i iédna ze nairáneš sis-tém gradóun kanál, značín vijě tó-ce buíle iédene ze naicítsekj grad Ieurópe pri šém iépohě.*  
 Novegráde-NOM-TOP Ø city-DATINS.SG with many.DATINS "firsts".  
 Be-PAST-MASC at TOP.GEN.SG first-NOM.SG.MASC kremlin-NOM.SG on all.  
 LOC.SG.FEM Rus'-LOC, old-COMP-NOM.PL paved-NOM.PL road-NOM.PL on  
 medieval-LOC.SG.FEM Europe-LOC and one-NOM.FEM from SUPER-early-  
 COMP-GEN.PL system-GEN.PL urban-GEN.PL channel-GEN.PL, mean-ADV.  
 IMPF all.NOM.PL REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM be-PAST-MASC one-NOM.SG.MASC  
 from SUPER-clean-COMP-GEN.PL city-GEN.PL Europe-LOC during this-LOC.  
 SG.MASC epoch-LOC.SG  
*"Novegráde is a city of many firsts—it had the first kremlin in all of Rus', the oldest paved roads in Medieval Europe, and one of the earliest city sewers, making it one of the cleanest cities in Europe at the time."*

Expressions such as "second-largest", "third-largest", etc (combinations of comparative and ordinals) are formed periphrastically using the explicit superlative forms. The expression "second-largest X" is literally rendered as "second from the largest X". This is one situation where the най- prefix is required.

- (19) Нейграде – друге зе најболеш град Републикѣ.  
*Néugrade – drúge ze naibóleš grád Respúblikě.*  
 Néugrade-NOM Ø second-NOM.SG.MASC from SUPER-large-COMP-GEN.PL  
 city-GEN.PL Republic-GEN.SG  
*“Néugrade is the second largest city of the Republic.”*

### 13.3.3 Intensive

The intensive prefix прѣ- *prě-* is more or less equivalent in meaning with the adverb велем *vělem* “very”. While it can be used with any comparable adjective, many speakers hesitate with applying it to recent loans.

- (20) Она мнѣ содагла прѣинтересну нигу.  
*Oná mně sodaglá přějinterésnu nígu.*  
 she.NOM give.PF-PAST-FEM INTENS-interesting-ACC.SG.FEM book-ACC.SG  
*“She gave me a very interesting book.”*

It is also commonly used in certain fixed descriptions of historical and religious figures: Мария Прѣцистая *Maríja Prěcistaia* “the Most-Pure Virgin Mary”, Ярослав Прѣмудрей *Iarosláu Prěmúdrej* “Yaroslav the Wise”.

After каде *kadé* “what a...”, the prefix is very frequently used for emphasis. Here it would generally not be translated.

- (21) Каде прѣкрасне ше дене!  
*Kadé překrásne šé déne!*  
 what\_kind-NOM.SG.MASC INTENS-beautiful-NOM.SG.MASC this.NOM.  
 SG.MASC day-NOM.SG Ø  
*“What a beautiful day!”*

The intensive prefix is most commonly used attributively. When the intensified adjective appears in the predicate, then the adverb велем *vělem* is usually preferred.

### 13.3.4 Excessive

The stressed prefix во- *vó-* indicates excessiveness, much like the English adverb “too (much)”. It is equivalent to and may be accompanied by the adverb намног *namnóg* “by far”, which generally follows the adjective it modifies. Excessive-degree adjectives may either directly modify a noun or employ copulas.

- (22) Ша драга – водияна!  
*Šá drága – vódiliana!*  
 this.NOM.SG.FEM road-NOM.SG Ø EXCESS-long-NOM.SG.FEM  
*“This road is too long!”*
- (23) Оне мене направи́ле по драгѣ водиянѣ́ намно́г!  
*Óne mené napravíle po drágě vódilianě namnóg!*  
 he.NOM I.ACC direct.PF-PAST-MASC along road-LOC.SG EXCESS-long-LOC.  
 SG.FEM by\_far  
*“He led me down too long of a road!”*

If some modifying clause is subordinated to an excessive-degree adjective, the adverb *намног* must appear as well.

- (24) Ша ленина-та вовала́ намно́г со тѣм-це одѣ́валеш би́ яс тѣм.  
*Šá lénina-ta vóvala namnóg so těm-ce oděváleš bi iás těm.*  
 this.NOM.SG.FEM shirt-NOM.SG-TOP EXCESS-big-NOM.SG.FEM by\_far with  
 REL.DATINS.SG-that.NOM dress-PAST-MASC-MID SUBJ.SG I.NOM TOP.DATINS.SG  
*“This shirt is too big for me to wear.”*

Not all adjectives beginning with a stressed *во-* are excessive. Some are just coincidence, such as *вокусне* *vókusne* “tasty”.

“Too many/much” and “too few/little” are expressed using the adverbs *вомно́ге* *vómnoge* (or *вомно́же* *vómnóže*) and *вомало́* *vómalo* (or *вомале́* *vómale*), respectively, with the following noun in the partitive case.

### 13.3.5 Trial Superlative

The trial superlative *тре-* *tre-* is no longer productive in its original function as a superlative. The most common domain where it is found remains in religious terminology.

However, in common usage it has gained a new function as a marker of sarcasm or hyperbole, a usage perhaps comparable to “scare quotes” in English. This is a colloquial phenomenon and should never appear in more formal contexts.

- (25) Тако-и, оне рѣсиле то-це екзамене-те тревайкей ест.  
*Táko-i, óne řédzîle tó-ce iegzámene-te treváikei iést.*  
 thus-be.3SG.CLITIC, he.NOM say-PAST-MASC REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM test-NOM.  
 SG-TOP TRI-difficult-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF be.3SG  
*"Yeah, he said the test was 'really difficult.'"*
- (26) Трекласная Катя натлеклаш со дуерюм.  
*Treklásnaia Kátia natlekláš so dueriúm.*  
 TRI-classy-NOM.SG.FEM.DEF Kátia-NOM collide.PF-PAST-FEM-MID with door-  
 DATINS.SG  
*"Oh-so-smooth Kátia walked into a door."*

## 13.4 Definite Adjectives

Definite adjectives have three functions: nominalization, marking specificity, and topicalization agreement. This last usage is discussed later.

### 13.4.1 Definite Adjectives Marking Nominalization

When not modifying nouns directly, definite adjectives by themselves often indicate the ellipsis of the noun being modified, often "person" or "people": осание [луди] *odzánije [lúdi]* "learned [people]" (by extention, "scientists"), ванная [комната] *vánnaia [kómnata]* "bath [room]" ("bathroom"), русская [жена] *rúss-kaia [žená]* "Russian [woman]", etc. Each of the above can act as full nouns, albeit with adjectival declension; the full forms including the dropped noun are rarely seen except for emphasis.

This is particularly common with dropped topics. This usage is considered different than that described above because it is context-dependent. The meaning of ванная will be understood the same way in any situation, while добрей "good" would not.

- (27) „Котрий кажик-от тортек хокъеш?“ „Содай мнѣ болшей.“  
*"Kótrij kažik-ót torték hókjes?" "Sodái mně bółsei."*  
 "which-ACC.SG.MASC.DEF piece-DIMIN-ACC.SG-TOP cake-PART.SG want-  
 2SG?" "give.PF-2SG.IMPER I.DATINS large.COMP-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF  
*"Which piece of cake do you want?" "Give me the bigger [one]."*

In general, a lone definite adjective not modifying any noun can be interpreted

as “the X one”, unless it is a set expression such as ванная.

### 13.4.2 Definite Adjectives Marking Specificity

One of the most common uses for the definite adjectives is marking the specificity of a noun. Specificity, a distinction made in Novegradian that tends to give non-natives quite a bit of trouble, is similar to definiteness in that it singles out a single noun from all others. However, unlike definiteness, it tends to specify more of a “the one and only” sort of quality, meaning specificity is more or less independent of context, while definiteness is strongly linked to it. This distinction may best be explained through examples.

The phrase “Новеградеска(я) граница” *Novegrádeska(ia) granica* means “Novegradian border”. The definite form, Новеградеская граница, refers to the entire borders of the Republic of Novegrad. A question such as “Where is the Novegradian-DEF border?” would be used, for example, to ask someone to identify the nation’s border on a map. The indefinite form, Новеградеска граница, refers to “any” Novegradian border, or more properly, any sections of it. A question such as “Where is the Novegradian-INDEF border?” would be used in asking someone for directions to the border. Notice how specificity is independent of definiteness—the “indefinite” (or perhaps more accurately, “non-specific”) phrase новеградеска граница is translated as “the Novegradian border”. Using the wrong specificity in a certain context will frequently cause unexpected results. If someone wanted directions but asks for the location of the (definite) Novegradian border, the reply will be something along the lines of “It starts at the Arctic Ocean, runs along Sweden into the Baltic Sea...” (or perhaps more likely a strange look from someone wondering why anyone would pull over to ask such a strange question).

Another example is the phrase “Новеградеске(й) университате” *Novegrádeske(i) universidáte*, “Novegradian university”. The definite/specific form Новеградескей университате refers to Novegrad State University (in full Новеградескей Сударестуенней Универсидате), located in Novegráde Velíkei. The indefinite/non-specific form новеградеске университате refers to any university in Novegrad, or to an ethnically Novegradian university. Again, these terms are independent of definiteness in the English sense. A question such as Куда новеградеске университате? by itself would be translated as “Where is a Novegradian university?”, but in the context of a conversation about a Novegradian university and a Finnish university, it would be translated as “Where is the Novegradian university (as opposed to the Finnish)?” The specific form “Куда Новеградескей Универсидате?” will always result in the reply “In Novegráde Velíkei”.

Any adjective, not just national ones, can display specificity: Цервенеј дуре *Cérveneĭ dúre* “Red Square (Moscow)”, црвене дуре *cérvene dúre* “a red square or plaza”.

Definite adjectives, as shown in several of the above examples, often form part of place names or specific locations, such as “Novograd University” and “Red Square”. The tendency to use definite adjectives with place names is so strong that they will be used even when an indefinite meaning is impossible, such as Варижеское море *Varížeskóie móre* “the Baltic Sea”. Even though there are no other ‘baltic seas’ in existence, the Baltic Sea must take the definite form.

Adjectives modifying nouns that already have definite adjectives must also be definite:

- (28) Старовѣгевей Ярославовой Дуре сохудит со заложенъа Велигаево  
Новеграда.  
*Starověgevei Iaroslávovei Dúre sobúdit so založenja Veligáievo Novegráda.*  
ancient-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF Yaroslav-ADJ-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF courtyard-NOM.  
SG come\_from-3SG from foundation-GEN.SG Great-GEN.SG.MASC.DEF  
Novegráde-GEN  
“The ancient Yaroslav Court dates to the foundation of Novegráde Velikei.”

However, when a definite adjective modifies a noun phrase already including an adjective, there can be specificity disagreement.

In the example below, the definite adjective is modifying the phrase водне панти “waterway”, not just панти “way, route”, which allows there to be specificity disagreement. However, if another adjective were added to the phrase (e.g., “long”), it would have to be definite because it would now be modifying the entire phrase Воьго-Варижескей водне панти, which is definite.

- (29) Воьго-Варижескей водне панти розрѣжаст то-це вѣни музут  
преплавит вмести мора Цернаево со Каспийским и мора  
Варижескаево.  
*Vólgo-Varížeskei vódne pánti rozrěžást tó-ce věni múzut preplávit vměsti  
móra Cernáievo so Kaspíjskijem i móra Varížeskáievo.*  
Volga-Baltic-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF water-ADJ-NOM.SG.MASC way-NOM.SG  
allow-3SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM ship-NOM.PL be\_able-3PL sail\_between-  
SUP between sea-GEN.SG Black-GEN.SG.NEUT.DEF with Caspian-DATINS.  
SG.NEUT.DEF and sea-GEN.SG Baltic-GEN.SG.NEUT.DEF  
“The Volga-Baltic waterway allows ships to sail between the Black and Cas-  
pian Seas and the Baltic Sea.”

### 13.5 Possessive Adjectives

Common Slavic frequently formed possessive constructions by converting the possessor into an adjective. This process is no longer productive in Novegradian, but it has left behind many traces.

There were two main classes of possessive adjectives. In earlier forms of Novegradian (and still in the northern dialects of the language), the first was formed by adding the suffixes *-ине* *-ine* to first, second, and sixth declension stems, *-ове* *-ove* to third declension stems, and *-еве* *-eve* to fourth and fifth declension stems, identical in origin to the derivational suffixes that are still used today. These would decline as regular adjectives.<sup>1</sup> These are the original source of many surnames ending in *-ou* or *-ine*, but which now decline as regular nouns.

On the other hand, many names of towns and other locations in Novegrad end in *-ово* *-ovo* or *-ино* *-ino*, the neuter form of the original adjectives. Such place names generally do still decline as neuter adjectives, though this does vary; some towns advocate adjectival declension while others advocate nominal declension.

Other instances of originally possessive adjectives have since adopted new meanings: *братево* *bráteve* “fraternal” (originally, “brother’s”), *материне* *máterine* “maternal”, etc.

The other form of possessive adjective was formed with the suffix *\*-j-*, which frequently resulted in consonant mutations. These types of possessives have almost all adopted a new fixed meaning and are no longer viewed as possessives; the suffix itself ceased to be productive no later than the 14<sup>th</sup> century. However, many animal names have both a regularly-derived adjective form and a possessive form, such as *кошене* *kóšene* “feline” versus *кошие* *kóšie* “cat’s”. Both forms are now identical in meaning and are fully interchangeable. However, certain disciplines may prefer one or the other form; zoological and taxonomical fields prefer the *-j-* forms whenever available, for example.

Only two truly possessive adjectives remain in common usage in the standard language, *Боже* *Bóže* “God’s” and *Христове* *Hristóve* “Christ’s”, both of which were preserved due to Church Slavonic influence. While they do not have to, they typically follow the possessed noun. In the written language they should always be capitalized.

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1 In Old Novegradian, these possessive adjectives were always indefinite. However, as they began to lose their productivity, their declension was brought more in line with other adjectives, and since most surviving possessive adjectives were found in place names, they naturally became definite. Modern Novegradian dialects that still have productive possessive adjectives vary in their usage; some maintain the older pattern of always declining as indefinite adjectives, while others may freely switch between definite and indefinite just as any other adjective would.



- (30) Она кѣловала игону-то с образом Христовом.  
*Oná kělovála igónu-to s obrazem Hristóvom.*  
 she.NOM kiss-PAST-FEM ikon-ACC.SG-TOP with image-DATINS.SG Christ-  
 POSS-DATINS.SG.MASC  
*"She kissed an ikon with the image of Christ."*

While the genitive Христа *Hristá* could be substituted and the sentence would remain grammatical, most speakers find would find it rather awkward to do so.

## 13.6 Adjective Modifiers

There are a number of common adverbs and expressions used to modify the intensity of adjectives. Some of these include:

- велѣм *vělem* — "very"
- воплонѣ *vóploně* — "quite, to a great degree". Not as strong as велѣм.
- во добрѣ степени *vo dobře stepenji*, домѣрнѣ *doměrně*, намѣрнѣ *naměrně*, мѣрнѣ *měrně* — "fairly, rather". Not as strong as воплонѣ. The first three have positive connotations, while мѣрнѣ has more of a negative connotation. Во добрѣ степени is somewhat bookish and more typical of higher registers, though its more colloquial variant во степени *vo stepenji* is more common in speech, but unacceptable in writing. Намѣрнѣ is limited to more casual registers.
- також *tákož* — "so". This form must be placed before the adjective being modified. Alternatively, тако *táko* may be placed before the adjective and же *že* after it: також интересне *tákož interésne*, тако интересне же *táko interésne že* "so interesting".
- вѣрнѣ *věrně*, попраудой *popráudoj* — "really". An intensive like велѣм, but also attempts to counter perceived disbelief on the part of the listener/reader.
- велнѣ *vělně*, достоенѣ *dostóieně* — "enough". Велнѣ is generally only used to modify adjectives modifying people, while достоенѣ can modify any adjective. The former must go before the adjective, while the latter can go either before or after. Достоенѣ also has the colloquial variant достай *dóstai*.
- маленѣ *máleně* — "a little bit". Must go before the adjective.

- *маломаленѣ malomáleně* — “a tiny bit”. Must go before the adjective.

All of the above modifiers may be placed either before or after the adjective unless otherwise specified.

There are also a number of comparative modifiers. Note that not all of them require the comparative form of an adjective, even though they have a comparative meaning:

- *COMP + многог namnóg* “much more” — *мокнейше многог mokeněše namnóg* “much more capable”
- *егѣ iegjé + COMP* — “even more”: *егѣ мокнейше iegjé mokeněše* “even more capable”
- *менишѣ ménišě + ADJ* — “less”: *менишѣ мокне ménišě mókne* “less capable”
- *менишѣ ménišě + ADJ + многог namnóg* — “much less”: *менишѣ мокне многог ménišě mókne namnóg* “much less capable”
- *егѣ менишѣ iegjé ménišě + ADJ* — “even less”: *егѣ менишѣ мокне iegjé ménišě mókne* “even less capable”
- *немногом nemnógom + COMP* — “a bit more”: *немногом мокнейше nemnógom mokeněše* “a bit more capable”
- *немногом менишѣ nemnógom ménišě + ADJ* — “a bit less”: *немногом менишѣ мокне nemnógom ménišě mókne* “a bit less capable”

The adverb *немногом nemnógom* may freely be replaced by its diminutive *немножом nemnóžkom*.

## 13.7 Secondary Predicate Adjectives

### 13.7.1 True Predicates

Secondary predicate adjectives are adjectives that describe the subject or object of the sentence during the performance of the verb (e.g., “Ieváne came home drunk”), as opposed to an intrinsic quality of the subject (“Drunk Ieváne came home”) or an adverb modifying the verb (“Ieváne drunkenly came home”). In Novegradian, secondary predicate adjectives appear after the primary predicate; they agree with their head in gender and number, but are always in the dative/instrumental case and indefinite, no matter the case and definiteness of the head

noun. When there is both a subject and direct object present in the sentence, it can be ambiguous which the adjective is modifying unless their genders are distinct.

- (31) Оне при́шле́ ду́мове́ п'яно́м.  
*Óne prišlé dumóve piánom.*  
 he.NOM arrive.PF-PAST-MASC homewards drunk-MASC.SG.DATINS  
 “He came home drunk.”
- (32) Яс ъ ови́дѣлє пла́цкѡй.  
*Iás iě'oviděle placákjoi.*  
 I.NOM she.ACC see.PF-PAST-MASC cry-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-DATINS.SG.FEM  
 “I saw her crying.”

### 13.7.2 Other Adjectival Adjuncts

Transitive verbs that can nevertheless take an adjectival argument also make it dative/instrumental and indefinite, agreeing in gender and number with whatever their logical head may be.

- (33) Яс соце́довам ъ краси́ной.  
*Iás socédovam iě'krásnoi.*  
 I.NOM consider-1SG she.ACC beautiful-DATINS.SG.FEM  
 “I consider her beautiful.”

Verbs that normally can take a predicate adjective in the nominative case instead use the dative/instrumental when the subject is eliminated. This can be seen, for example, in the adjectival and adverbial participles of *буити* “be” or *стати* “become”, which can take complements directly but not subjects. However, even when the adverbial participles are used as simultative verbs, the complement must remain in the dative/instrumental.

- (34) Бу́ивє за́стауленом вноу и вноу, о ни тре́ба рѣ́жатиш отру́жити ли престауле́ньє.  
*Buíve zastáulenom vnóu i vnóu, o ní tréba rěžátíš otružíti li prestaúlénje.*  
 be-ADV.PF delay-PTCP.PASS.PF-DATINS.SG.MASC again and again, at we.LAT  
 need-NOM.SG decide-INF-MID cancel.PF-INF whether performance-NOM.SG  
 “Having been delayed time after time, we need to decide whether to cancel the performance.”

This is also true of complements of *буити* or *стати* when the verb is impersonal. The adjective will always be neuter in such cases.

- (35) Добро ест буити младом.  
*Dóbro iést buiti mládom.*  
 good-nom.sg.neut be.3sg be-inf young-datins.sg.neut  
*"It's good to be young."*

### 13.7.3 Semi-Predicatives

The three adjectives *єдєне* *iédene* "alone", *самє* *sáme* "by oneself", and *раде* *ráde* (no English equivalent, see below) are known as semi-predicatives, since they act more like adverbs yet show case agreement. They may pattern either as regular adverbs or as secondary predicates, but generally appear in the nominative case, not the dative/instrumental.

- (36) Она ошла єдна.  
*Oná ošlá iédna.*  
 she.NOM leave.PF-PAST-FEM one-NOM.SG.FEM  
*"She left alone/by herself."*
- (37) Ше-то самє музун дѣлати!  
*Šé-to sáme múzun dělati!*  
 this.NOM.SG-TOP by\_oneself-NOM.SG.MASC be\_able-1SG do-INF  
*"I can do it myself!"*

Sentences with *раде* *ráde* are often translated into English using verbs such as "like" or "enjoy". It lacks an English adverbial equivalent, except in the future tense where it is similar to "gladly" or "with pleasure". It is frequently interchangeable with the verb *радєти* *raděti* "enjoy", except that *раде* cannot be negated to mean "do not enjoy".

- (38) Яс раде говорун сон єй.  
*Iás ráde govorún son iěi.*  
 I.NOM gladly-NOM.SG.MASC talk-1SG with-N she.DATINS  
*"I enjoy talking with her."*

- (39) Яс раде прийдун ко ваме во наступну снѣжену.  
*Iás ráde prijdún ko váme vo nastúpnu sněženu.*  
 I.NOM gladly-NOM.SG.MASC arrive.PF-1SG towards you.DATINS.PL in next-  
 ACC.SG.FEM December-ACC.SG  
*"I will gladly visit you next December."*
- (40) Они ради не работати.  
*Oní rádi ne rabótati.*  
 they.NOM gladly-NOM.PL NEG work-3PL  
*"They enjoy not working."*

In impersonal sentences or in other situations where there is no true subject, the three semi-predicatives take a special ending: едну *iédnu*, саму *sámu*, раду *rádu*. This fossilized form originates from an old dative case ending that Novegradian has long since lost in other words, and is known as the "impersonal dative".

- (41) Мнѣ тривожно буити едну.  
*Mně trivóžno buíti iédnu.*  
 I.DATINS disquieting-NOM.SG.NEUT be-INF one-DAT\_IMPERS  
*"Being alone makes me feel uneasy."*
- (42) Раду танцасци!  
*Rádu tancásci!*  
 gladly-DAT\_IMPERS dance-3SG-MID  
*"Dancing is fun!"*

## 13.8 Numbers

### 13.8.1 Inanimate Numerals

In Novegradian, case is generally marked on the numeral while the noun is forced to agree with the numeral modifying it.

Едене (1) is a pronominal adjective, and declines in the same way as other pronouns such as *ше* "this". It always appears in the same case and number as the noun it modifies.

- (43) Една глава – добро, а доѡѡ – суѡше.  
*Iédna gláva – dóbro, a dóvě – suěše.*  
 one-NOM.SG.FEM head-NOM.SG Ø good-NOM.SG.NEUT, whereas two.FEM-  
 NOM Ø better-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*“One head is good, but two is better.”*

Other numbers observe a direct/indirect case distinction, with different behaviors depending on whether the noun phrase bears a direct case (nominative or accusative) or an indirect case (all others). In the direct cases, the numeral assumes the nominative or accusative case, and then assigns a particular form to the noun, often identical to the genitive case. In indirect cases, both the numeral and noun assume the same case, more akin to a typical adjectival relationship.

The numerals доѡа/доѡѡ (2), три/трѡ (3), and цетири (4) all typically force the noun they modify to take the special count form in direct cases. This form is identical to or close to the genitive singular for masculine and neuter nouns, and the nominative plural for feminine nouns; the exact formation rules are described in the relevant nominal and adjectival morphology sections. In indirect cases, the noun takes the same case as the numeral, and is plural.

However, for the handful of nouns with a distinct dual form, the rules for доѡа/доѡѡ (2) are slightly different. In this case, the quantified noun always takes the same case as the numeral in its dual forms.

The numerals 5 through 10 all require the genitive plural in direct cases, and match cases in all other situations.

The following tables summarize the forms taken by masculine, neuter, and feminine nouns with each subgroup of numeral in both a direct case (here, the nominative) and an indirect case (the dative-instrumental). The neuter noun, *oko* “eye”, has distinct dual forms.

All numerals in the subject position other than “one” take plural agreement on verbs and nominative plural agreement on adjectives across the copula (as in example 46 below). Since nouns in Novegradian are considered subordinated to the numerals, verbs must agree with the numeral (and thus be plural even if the noun is in the genitive singular) and trans-copular adjectives must agree with the numeral (and thus be plural and nominative, since the numeral is also nominative).

- (44) Зе доѡух зол вуиберѡте менишее.  
*Ze dóvuh zól vuiberěte menišie.*  
 from two.GEN evil-GEN.PL pick\_out-2PL.IMPER less-NOM.SG.NEUT.DEF  
*“From two evils, choose the lesser.”*

		Masculine Indefinite	Masculine Definite
Genitive	Sg	плавѣ дум <i>pláve dúm</i> “a blue house”	плавѣй дум <i>plávei dúm</i> “the blue house”
		плава думу <i>pláva dúmu</i>	плаваѣво думу <i>plaváievo dúmu</i>
	Pl	плав дум <i>pláv dúm</i>	плавих дум <i>pláviḥ dúm</i>
	1	ѣденѣ плавѣ дум <i>iédene pláve dúm</i>	ѣденѣ плавѣй дум <i>iédene plávei dúm</i>
Direct	2	дова плава дума <i>dóva pláva dúma</i>	дова плавая дума <i>dóva plávaia dúma</i>
	3-4	три плава дума <i>trí pláva dúma</i>	три плавая дума <i>trí plávaia dúma</i>
	5-10	пети плав дум <i>péti pláv dúm</i>	пети плавих дум <i>péti pláviḥ dúm</i>
	1	ѣдном плавом думом <i>iédnom plávom dúmom</i>	ѣдном плавием думом <i>iédnom plávijem dúmom</i>
Indirect	2	довѣма плавами думам <i>dóvěma plávami dumám</i>	довѣма плавиеми думам <i>dóvěma plavíjemi dumám</i>
	3-4	трѣм плавами думам <i>trém plávami dumám</i>	трѣм плавиеми думам <i>trém plavíjemi dumám</i>
	5-10	петѣм плавами думам <i>pétem plávami dumám</i>	петѣм плавиеми думам <i>pétem plavíjemi dumám</i>
	1	ѣдном плавом думом <i>iédnom plávom dúmom</i>	ѣдном плавием думом <i>iédnom plávijem dúmom</i>

- (45) Яс овидѣле дова оки-ти, горекыѣ во темѣ.

*Iás oviděle dóva óki-ti, gorékijje vo temě.*

I.NOM sec.PF-PAST-MASC two.NEUT-ACC eye-NOM.DL-TOP, shine-PTCP.ACT.  
IMPF-NOM.PL.DEF in darkness-LOC.SG

“I saw two eyes shining in the darkness.”

- (46) Цѣтири врѣмена асту суде – велѣм незóходни. Лѣтенѣм жарко, зимой кладно.

*Cétiri vrěmena ástu sudé – vélem nezóhodni. Lětenem žárko, žimói kládno.*

four-NOM time-COUNT year-GEN.SG here Ø very dissimilar-NOM.PL. Sum-  
mer-DATINS.SG hot-NOM.SG.NEUT, winter-DATINS.SG cold-NOM.SG.NEUT  
“The four seasons here are very different—summer is very hot, winter is  
very cold.”

		Neuter Indefinite	Neuter Definite
Genitive	Sg	плаво око <i>plávo okó</i> “a blue eye”	плавое око <i>plávoie óko</i> “the blue eye”
		плава оку <i>pláva óku</i>	плаваево оку <i>plaváievo óku</i>
	Pl	плав ок <i>pláv ók</i>	плавих ок <i>plávih ók</i>
	1	едно плаво око <i>iédno plávo óko</i>	едно плавое око <i>iédno plávoie óko</i>
Direct	2	дова плава оки <i>dóva pláva óki</i>	дова плавая оки <i>dóva plávaia óki</i>
	3-4	три плава оку <i>trí pláva óku</i>	три плавая оку <i>trí plávaia óku</i>
	5-10	пети плав ок <i>péti pláv ók</i>	пети плавих ок <i>péti plávih ók</i>
	1	едном плавом оком <i>iédnom plávom ókom</i>	едном плавием оком <i>iédnom plávijem ókom</i>
Indirect	2	довѣма плавама огома <i>dóvĕma plávama ogóma</i>	довѣма плавиема огома <i>dóvĕma plavijema ogóma</i>
	3-4	трем плавами огам <i>trém plávami ogám</i>	трем плавиеми огам <i>trém plavijemi ogám</i>
	5-10	петем плавами огам <i>pétem plávami ogám</i>	петем плавиеми огам <i>pétem plavijemi ogám</i>

(47) Ша кола кѣнит пети марек.

*Šá kóla kĕnit péti marék.*

this.NOM.SG.FEM cola-NOM.SG cost-3SG five-NOM mark-GEN.PL

“This cola costs five marks.”

As shown in the tables above, adjectives inside the numeral phrase follow the same rules as nouns. However, the same is not true of adjectives modifying the entire numeral phrase. If the adjective precedes the numeral phrase, it will always be plural and match the case of the numeral (excluding of course едене “one”, which as an adjective does not have atypical agreement rules).

The one more complicated situation is the numeral дова “two” in the dative-instrumental case. As previously discussed, adjectives have a special dative-instrumental dual ending<sup>2</sup> -ама -ама (definite -иема -ijema), the only distinctly dual

2 This ending is typically considered to be a case of “ending spreading” rather



		Feminine Indefinite	Feminine Definite
Genitive	Sg	плава нига <i>pláva níga</i> “a blue book”	плавая нига <i>plávaia níga</i> “the blue book”
		плавѣ нигѣ <i>plávě níge</i>	плавѣе нигѣ <i>plávěie níge</i>
	Pl	плав ниг <i>pláv níg</i>	плавих ниг <i>plávih níg</i>
		една плава нига <i>iédna pláva níga</i>	една плавая нига <i>iédna plávaia níga</i>
Direct	1	една плава нига <i>iédna pláva níga</i>	една плавая нига <i>iédna plávaia níga</i>
	2	довѣ плавѣ нигѣ <i>dóvě plávě níge</i>	довѣ плавѣе нигѣ <i>dóvě plávěie níge</i>
	3-4	трѣ плавѣ нигѣ <i>trě plávě níge</i>	трѣ плавѣе нигѣ <i>trě plávěie níge</i>
	5-10	пети плав ниг <i>pěti pláv níg</i>	пети плавих ниг <i>pěti plávih níg</i>
Indirect	1	едной плавой нигой <i>iédnoi plávoi nígoi</i>	едной плавоюн нигой <i>iédnoi plávoiun nígoi</i>
	2	довѣма плавами нигам <i>dóvěma plávami nigám</i>	довѣма плависема нигам <i>dóvěma plavíjema nigám</i>
	3-4	трѣм плавами нигам <i>trém plávami nigám</i>	трѣм плависѣми нигам <i>trém plavíjemi nigám</i>
	5-10	петѣм плавами нигам <i>pětem plávami nigám</i>	петѣм плависѣми нигам <i>pětem plavíjemi nigám</i>

adjective form. If the noun in the numeral phrase has a distinct dual, then a preposed adjective modifying the entire numeral phrase must appear in this dual form in the dative-instrumental case. If the noun does not have a distinct dual, both the dative-instrumental plural and dative-instrumental dual endings are acceptable.

- кожни дова асту  
*kóžni dóva ástu*  
every-NOM.PL two-NOM year-COUNT
- кожнама/кожными довѣма астам  
*kóžnama/kóžnami dóvěma astám*  
every-DATINS.DL/every-DATINS.PL two-DATINS year-DATINS.PL

than a true dual adjective declension, where the dual ending -ама spreads from the noun to the adjective, replacing the very similar adjectival plural -ами. However, it is never used when the noun lacks a distinct dual (and there is therefore nowhere for the ending to “spread” from).

- *кожни довѣ рокѣ*  
*kóžni dǫvě rókě*  
every-NOM.PL two-NOM hand-NOM.PL
- *кожнама/\*кожными довѣма рогома*  
*kóžnama/\*kóžnami dǫvěma rogóma*  
every-DATINS.DL/\*every-DATINS.PL two-DATINS hand-DATINS.DL

When the adjective follows the numeral phrase, the rules differ slightly. In indirect cases, the adjective is always plural (or optionally dual in the dative-instrumental) and matches the case of the numeral, much as adjectives inside the numeral phrase. In direct cases, the adjective may *either* agree with the numeral (and thus be nominative or accusative plural) *or* the noun (and thus appear the genitive plural or count forms). Typically, the preference is for the count form for 2-4 and the nominative/accusative plural for 5-10, though the nominative/accusative plural for 2-4 and genitive plural for 5-10 are possible<sup>3</sup>. The same rules apply for dual nouns; the lone adjectival dual ending *-ama* is not used in postposed position.

- *дова оки, котра/котри*  
*dǫva óki, kótra/kótri*  
two-NOM eye-NOM.DL, that-COUNT/that-NOM.PL
- *довух оку, котор*  
*dǫvuh óku, kótor*  
two-GEN eye-GEN.DL, that-GEN.PL
- *пети воз, котри/котор*  
*péti vóz, kótri/kótor*  
five-NOM car-GEN.PL, that-NOM.PL/that-GEN.PL
- *петех воз, котор*  
*péteh vóz, kótor*  
five-GEN car-GEN.PL, that-GEN.PL

For all higher numbers, the appropriate form of the quantified noun phrase depends on the last portion of the number. If it ends in 1 (such as 21, 91, 131), the same rules apply as for *єдене* (i.e., typical adjectival agreement). If it ends in 2 (22, 62, 282), the same rules apply as for 2 (count forms, dual forms). If it ends in 3 or 4 (24, 83, 644), the same rules apply as for 3 and 4 (count agreement). If it ends

3 In the National Corpus, the prevalence breakdown is roughly as follows:

- 2-4 with count form: 75%
- 2-4 with nom/acc pl: 25%
- 5-10 with nom/acc pl: 90%
- 5-10 with gen pl: 10%

in 5 through 9 or 0 (49, 20, 100), the same rules apply as for 5 through 10 (genitive plural agreement). The only exception are the teens 11 through 19, which all fall into the 5-10 group, since historically the -цѣти ending of these numbers is a contracted form of дѣшѣти “ten”.

Number words with values over 999, such as тишикъа *tíšikja* “thousand”, милѣне *milióne* “million”, and above are all technically nouns, and decline as nouns. The following noun must therefore be in the genitive plural as would normally be expected in a genitive relationship (тишикъа километер *tíšikja kilométer* “thousand kilometers”), although if the number continues afterwards, the rest of the number declines as an appositive phrase rather than a governed one, maintaining the same case (милѣне дова *milióne dóva* “1.000.002”, not \*милѣне довух *milióne dóvuh*, which would be interpreted as “a million twos”). If there is a modifier before these nouns, the noun/numeral must decline as a quantified noun: дова милѣна едене *dóva milióna iédene* “2.000.001”, дѣшѣти милѣн *désiti milión* “10.000.000”. However, the partitive singular and plural may freely be used in this situation as well, so дѣшѣти милѣнеу *désiti milióneu* is an acceptable variant for ten million.

By inverting the numeral and the noun being modified, the value of the numeral is blurred somewhat. For example, пиннацѣти километер *pinnáciti kilométer* means “fifteen kilometers”, while километер пиннацѣти *kilométer pinnáciti* means “approximately fifteen kilometers”. This meaning can be reinforced with the adverb оґо́ло *ogóto* “approximately”.

### 13.8.2 Animate Numerals

The animate numerals are variants of the normal numerals required when modifying animate nouns (humans or animals). The same rules apply as the inanimate numerals in regard to which case is required. Since “one” does not have an animate form, numerals such as 21, 101, and 571 will be identical for both animate and inanimate nouns.

- (48) Во шем класѣ есат дуадѣши шентеро студенекъ.

*Vo šém klásě iésat duaděši šéntero studénekj.*

in this.LOC.SG.MASC class-LOC.SG be.3PL twenty seven.ANIM-NOM student-GEN.PL

“There are twenty seven students in this class.”

Animate numerals also have two other functions not related to animacy. When an animate numeral is used to modify an inanimate noun, the meaning is blurred

slightly. This has exactly the same effect as inversion does with inanimate numerals, and is especially common in time expressions.

- (49) Дума бадун по пиннацитеро минут.  
*Dúma bádun po pinnácitero minút.*  
 at\_home be.FUT-1SG on fifteen.ANIM-ACC minute-GEN.PL  
*"I'll be home in about fifteen minutes."*

When used appositively in its nominative form after a noun, it can indicate a modifier that doesn't affect the plurality. This is common with house numbers, bus lines, and the like. The noun itself is free to be in any case, and does not need to agree with the numeral (which is indeclinable when used this way).

- (50) О те треба трамвая цетеро со тѣм-це дойдеш дов оспидала.  
*O té třeba tramváia cétero so těm-ce doidéš dov ospidála.*  
 at you.LAT need-NOM.SG streetcar-GEN.SG four.ANIM with REL.DATINS.SG-  
 that.NOM get\_to.PF-2SG up\_to-V hospital-GEN.SG  
*"You need to take streetcar number four to get to the hospital."*

### 13.8.3 Irregular Nouns with Numerals

Only one noun has a truly irregular, suppletive form when quantified by a numeral: "person/people". In all other circumstances, the singular is based on дужа *dužá* "person, soul" and the plural on луди *lúdi* "people", but when quantified most forms are based on the singulative noun лудина *lúdina* "person". Only numerals ending in едене "one" continue to be based on дужа. On the other hand, if the last element of the numeral ends in "thousand", "million", "billion", etc, then the genitive plural of луди is used (as these act more like nouns than numerals).

Some examples:

- една дужа *iédna dužá* "one person"
- довѣ лудинѣ *dóvě lúdině* "two people"
- пети лудин *pěti ludín* "five people"
- дуадешити лудин *duadéšiti ludín* "twenty people"
- дуадеши една дужа *duadéši iédna dužá* "twenty one people"
- сто лудин *stó ludín* "one hundred people"
- тишикѣ луд *tíšikja lúd* "one thousand people"
- тишикѣ една дужа *tíšikja édna dužá* "one thousand one people"
- довѣ тишикѣ луд *dóvě tíšikji lúd* "two thousand people"

- ДОВѢ ТИШИКЪИ ПИЦОТ ЛУДИН *dóvĕ tíšikji picót ludín* “two thousand five hundred people”

### 13.8.4 Quantified Pronouns

In most situations, the expression “the [numeral] of [pronoun]” (e.g., “the three of us”) is translated using the regularly-declined pronoun plus a numerical adverb of accompaniment (2-7) or an animate numeral in the dative/instrumental (8 or more). The numeral must always come after the pronoun.

- (51) Яс овидѣле их цетром на паркѣ.  
*Iás ovidĕle ih cétrom na párkĕ.*  
 I.NOM see.PF-PAST-MASC they.ACC foursome on park-LOC.SG  
*“I saw the four of them in the park.”*

The one exception is when the quantified pronoun is the subject of an existential construction. In this case, the nominative case animate numerals are used with the genitive case pronouns. These two elements may appear in any order.

- (52) Буили насе пентеро.  
*Buili náse péntero.*  
 be-PAST-PL we.GEN five.ANIM-NOM  
*“There were five of us.”*

This latter construction even applies for numerals ending in “one”, which takes a genitive plural ending: Буили их дуадеши едних *Buili ih duadéši iedníh* “There were twenty-one of them”.

## 13.9 Adverbs

### 13.9.1 From Adjectives

Most adverbs are derived from adjectives using the suffix -ѣ -ĕ. If the adjective contains the suffix -ск- -sk-, на- *na-* must be prefixed as well. The most unmarked position for such adverbs is immediately before the main verb.

- (53) Оне буистрѣ осбѣгле од мене.  
*Óne buistrě osběgle od mené.*  
 he.NOM fast-ADV run\_away.PF-PAST-MASC from I.GEN  
*"He quickly ran away from me."*
- (54) Они добрѣ говорат нарусскѣ, а худѣ нановеградскѣ.  
*Oní dobře govorát narússké, a húdě nanovegrádeské.*  
 they.NOM good-ADV speak-3PL on-Russian-ADV, whereas bad-ADV on-  
 Novegradian-ADV  
*"They speak Russian well, but Novegradian poorly."*

Adverbs in -ѣ must be distinguished from neuter impersonal adjectives in -о (as in sentences like мнѣ холодно "I am cold"). While neither have an antecedent, they are morphologically and syntactically distinct. Neuter adjectives are capable of having an antecedent without having to restructure the entire clause (although the meaning will change significantly); adverbs can never have antecedents.

### 13.9.2 From Numerals

The set of adverbs derived from numerals is limited, existing only for the numerals two through seven. However, other values may be expressed periphrastically.

The adverbs of comparison (*naduójin*, *natrójin*, *nacétro*, etc) may be placed after a comparative adjective as a multiplicative (using the conjunction *неж* *než* for comparison) or as an independent adverb meaning "X-fold". For numbers other than two through seven, the construction may be expressed periphrastically as *na* + accusative inanimate numeral + *крате* *kráte*, declined appropriately. The noun *крате* *kráte* has no real translation into English. It is only used in this type of multiplicative construction to mean "X times".

- (55) Ше порстени – драже натроин неж ше, котре овидѣла яс во видорѣ марнатѣ.  
*Šé pórsteni – dráže natrójin než še, kótre oviděla iás vo vidóre marnátě.*  
 this.NOM.SG.MASC ring-NOM.SG Ø expensive-COMP-NOM.SG.MASC three\_  
 times than this.ACC.SG.MASC, that-ACC.SG.MASC see.PF-PAST-FEM I.NOM in  
 other-LOC.SG.MASC store-LOC.SG  
*"This ring is three times as expensive as the one I saw in the other store."*

- (56) Обиеме вуитуорестѹу овелициле на дуадешити крат.  
*Obiéme vuítuórestwú ovelícile na duadéšiti krát.*  
 capacity-NOM.SG production-GEN.SG increase.PF-PAST-MASC on twenty.  
 ACC times-GEN.PL  
*"Production increated twentyfold."*

Kpare *kráte* may also be modified by other quantifiers and be followed by a comparative adverb to specify the nature of the multiplicative relationship.

- (57) Ше трене идет многе кратеу муднейшѹ.  
*Šé tréne idét mnóge krátéu mudnéišě.*  
 this.NOM.SG.MASC train-NOM.SG go.DET-3SG many times-PART.PL slow-  
 COMP-ADV  
*"This train is many times slower."*

The adverbs of intensity also serve as multiplicatives of adjectives, but only non-comparatives. It also can indicate how many times an action was performed if used as an independent adverb. Periphrastically, it may be expressed as *на na* + numeral + *разе ráze*, declined appropriately. *Разе* means "time" or "occurrence".

- (58) Оне надуойци виниве.  
*Óne naduóici viníve.*  
 he.NOM two\_times guilty-NOM.SG.MASC  
*"He is doubly to blame."*
- (59) Оне мене прожиле на дешити раз простеньа.  
*Óne mené prožile na déšiti ráz prosténja.*  
 he.NOM I.ACC ask-PAST-MASC on ten-ACC time-GEN.PL forgiveness-GEN.SG  
*"He's told me ten times that he's sorry." (lit. "asked for forgiveness ten times")*

The adverbs of accompaniment indicate how many people were involved in an action, but not as a core argument (that is, "they went as a pair" as opposed to "the pair went"). They could be considered equivalent to the English adverb "together", except that they mark number explicitly. For numbers beyond seven, they are formed using the simple dative/instrumental case, but this is uncommon; beyond seven it becomes rather unnecessary and awkward to specify exact numbers, so the generic *разом rázom* "together" may be used.

- (60) Муи ошли троєм.  
*Mui ošlǐ tróiem.*  
 we.NOM leave.PF-PAST-PL threesome  
 “The three of us left together.”

### 13.9.3 Of Position

Novegradian has a full set of adverbs that indicate location and direction to or from a given point. As with several other Slavic languages, these include distinct adverbs meaning “upstairs” and “downstairs”.

	Up	Down	Upstairs	Downstairs
At	воврехъ <i>vovrehě</i> “above”	вонизъ <i>vonizě</i> “below”	наврехъ <i>navrehě</i> “upstairs”	нанизъ <i>nanizě</i> “downstairs”
To	навер <i>náver</i> “upward”	нажень <i>náženj</i> “downward”	коврехом <i>kovrehom</i> “to upstairs”	конизем <i>konizem</i> “to downstairs”
From	суреху <i>surěhu</i> “from above”	сожень <i>sožénj</i> “from below”	суреху <i>surěhu</i> “from upstairs”	сожень <i>sožénj</i> “from down- stairs”

	Forward	Backward	Left	Right
At	вопредъ <i>vopredě</i> “ahead”	позадъ <i>pozádě</i> “behind”	налѣвъ <i>nalěvě</i> “on the left”	направъ <i>naprávě</i> “on the right”
To	копредем <i>koprédem</i> “foward”	козадем <i>kozádem</i> “backward”	колѣвом <i>kolěvom</i> “leftward”	коправом <i>koprávom</i> “rightward”
From	сопреда <i>sopréda</i> “from in front”	созада <i>sozáda</i> “from behind”	слѣва <i>slěva</i> “from the left”	соправа <i>sopráva</i> “from the right”

All of the locative adverbs also have more colloquial forms with initial stress and a zero-ending locative: воврех *vóvreh* “above”, вониз *vóniz* “below”, наврех *návreh* “upstairs”, наниз *nániz* “downstairs”, вопред *vópred* “ahead”, позад *pózad* “behind”, налѣ *nalě* “on the left”, напра *náprau* “on the right”. In speech, these are far more common than the full forms listed in the table.



There is no distinction between “from above/below” and “from upstairs/downstairs”.

- (61) Койда доѣдеш до прешѣка, повради шебе колѣвом.  
*Kóida doiědeš do přesěka, povradí šebé kolěvom.*  
 when go\_up\_to\_by\_vehicle.PF-2SG up\_to intersection-GEN.SG, turn.PF-  
 2SG.IMPER REFLX.ACC leftward  
*“When you reach the intersection, turn left.”*

### 13.9.4 Велем ‘Very’

The adverb велем *vělem* “very” may modify verbs as well as adjectives, unlike in English.

- (62) Велем хокбун ѣхат Суайсарюн.  
*Vělem hókjun iěhat Suaidzáriun.*  
 very want-1SG go\_by\_vehicle-SUP Switzerland-LAT  
*“I really want to visit Switzerland.”*

### 13.9.5 Думове ‘Homewards’

The semi-nominal adverb думове *dumóve* means “homewards”, originating from an old dative case form of дум “house” that is no longer used in Novegradian<sup>4</sup>. It can be used with any verb indicating movement toward.

- (63) Оне хокѣт ис думове.  
*Óne hókjet ís dumóve.*  
 he.NOM want-3SG go-SUP homewards  
*“He wants to go home.”*
- (64) Яс пришле думове.  
*Iás prišlé dumóve.*  
 I.NOM arrive.PF-PAST-MASC homewards  
*“I arrived at home.”*

Whose home may be specified using the preposition о о plus the genitive case.

<sup>4</sup> It is actually the same ending that the fourth declension dative/instrumental ending for humans, -ой -oi, is derived from, although думове underwent a different phonetic development due to its reanalysis as an adverb. The form думой *dumói* is seen in some dialects as well, but is nonstandard.

- (65) ИДУН думове о Надалин.  
*Idún dumóve o Nadálin.*  
 go-1SG homewards at Nadália-GEN  
*"I'm going to Nadália's house."*

With pronouns, however, the situation is more complex. The same *o* + genitive construction may be used for the first and second persons, but in the third person, the bare genitive is used. This is usually considered a relic of the adverb's original nominal origin.

- (66) ИДУН думове ъ.  
*Idún dumóve iě.*  
 go-1SG homewards she.GEN  
*"I'm going to her house."*

### 13.9.6 Стреми '-First'

The adverb *стреми* *strémi* is also a quasi-nominal in that it can take nominal arguments. It does not have a direct English analogue, but is much like the morpheme '-first' in expressions like "headfirst". It takes nominal complements in the dative/instrumental case.

- (67) Оне понурале стреми главой.  
*Óne ponurále strémi glávoi.*  
 he.NOM dive.PF-PAST-MASC first head-DATINS.SG  
*"He dove headfirst into the water."*

It is also used idiomatically in a number of ways that it cannot be in English.

- (68) Оне вехода худит стреми о мем.  
*Óne vehodá húdit strémi ómem.*  
 he.NOM always go.INDET-3SG first mind-DATINS.SG  
*"He always keeps a level head."*

In addition to conveying a sense of "preceding", *стреми* (which originally meant something along the lines of "steep[ly]") can also imply something is beneath something else. Compare the two senses in the following sentences.

- (69) Она лежила нав озянѣ стрѣми ногам.  
*Oná ležíla nav oziáně strémi nogám.*  
 she.NOM lie-PAST-FEM on-V bed-LOC.SG first leg-DATINS.PL  
 “She lay backwards on her bed.” (i.e., her head towards the foot of the bed)
- (70) Она лежила нав озянѣ стрѣми желудокѣм.  
*Oná ležíla nav oziáně strémi želudókem.*  
 she.NOM lie-PAST-FEM on-V bed-LOC.SG first stomach-DATINS.SG  
 “She lay on her stomach on her bed.”

### 13.9.7 Bare Adverbs

Bare adverbs and impersonal adjectives used as interjections must take the topical ending -то *-to*. This only applies to adverbs that are phonologically a single word (that is, having a single stress), which does not necessarily correspond to one written word.

- (71) Во концѣ-то!  
*Vo kóně-to!*  
 in end-LOC.SG-TOP  
 “Finally!”
- (72) Яро-то!  
*Iáro-to!*  
 fierce-NOM.SG.NEUT-TOP  
 “Cool!”

This persists so long as the adverb is being used as an interjection, even if there is a sentence providing context.

- (73) Во концѣ-то ти пришло!  
*Vo kóně-to tí prišlo!*  
 in end-LOC.SG-TOP you.NOM arrive.PF-PAST-MASC  
 “Finally you showed up!”

However, if the bare adverb is being used interrogatively, the *to* is replaced by *ли li*. This is written as a separate word.

- (74) Оне пришле во концѣ ли?  
*Óne prišlé vo kónce li?*  
he.NOM arrive.PF-PAST-MASC in end-LOC.SG Q?  
*“He finally showed up?”*

### 14.1 Topics

The topic of a sentence refers to what the sentence is about, which is not always necessarily the subject. In conversation, one topic may be used over many sentences, or just one. All languages have some way of marking the topic, often by fronting it to the beginning of the clause. Novegradian, on the other hand, has developed a distinct topic marker, *ro to*, which was originally a demonstrative. This older usage can be seen reflected in the formation of the subordinating conjunction *ro-це то-це*. As a clitic, it may attach itself to any noun or pronoun, although never to any other parts of speech<sup>1</sup>. A topicalized noun will generally (although not necessarily) move toward the front of the clause as well, dragging prepositions and some adverbs along with it. The definite form of adjectives used with topicalized nouns derives from the Proto-Slavic anaphoric pronoun \*-j-, which was also the source of the oblique forms of the third-person pronouns.

Topic marking is used frequently in Novegradian writing and discourse, but has been largely ignored in examples thus far because it means very little without context. Longer texts or transcripts of conversations are necessary to adequately demonstrate its usage. For this reason, in Section 14.5 at the end of this chapter there is a transcript of a brief conversation as well as an example of topicalization in formal writing.

### 14.2 Marking the Topic

The topic marker is attached to the end of the fully-declined noun, separated in writing with a hyphen. It undergoes a sort of vowel harmony where the vowel of the marker changes according to the last vowel of the word it was attached to.

1 The *-ro* clitic that can appear with adverbs is not a topicalization marker, although it has the same form and origin; in this particular case it serves as an emphatic particle.

In the nominative and inanimate accusative cases, there are six such forms. -от, with a metathesized vowel, is used after nouns ending in a consonant. -та is used after any singular noun ending in /a/, regardless of gender. -те is used after a noun ending in /e/. The plain -то is used in all other singular situations (neuter nouns in /o/, nouns in /i/, etc). -ти is used after all nominative/accusative plural nouns ending in either /i/ or /e/ and -та after all plural nouns ending in /a/.

In the oblique cases as well as the animate accusative, all of these forms collapse into just two. -те is used whenever the previous word ends in a front vowel /æ e i/ and -то when it ends in a back vowel /a o u i/ or consonant.

For pronouns, the rules are slightly different. A combination of phonological rules (first and second persons) and natural gender (third person) comes in play. First and second person pronouns in any case have only two forms, -то after forms ending a vowel and -от after forms ending in a consonant: яс-от *ias-ót* “I.NOM”, мене-то *mené-to* “I.ACC”. In the third person, -то is used for all masculine, neuter, dual, and plural pronouns regardless of case, and -та is used for all feminine pronouns: она-та *oná-ta* “she.NOM”, ъ-та *iě'-ta* “she.ACC”.

The same set of rules used with the third person (-та for feminine, -то for all others) apply to other pronouns such as ше, веке, едене, and others that display gender. Interrogative pronouns all take -от, and almost always appear in their ‘emphatic’ forms with the suffix -ж: коиж-от *cojiž-ót* “what...?”

- (1) Мариѡ-то овидѡле яс вецераш. Не со тѡм говориле оѡ многе астоу!  
*Marijě-to oviděle iás véceraš. Ne so těm govorile ož mnóge ástou!*  
 Marija-ACC-TOP see.PF-PAST-MASC I.NOM yesterday. NEG with TOP.DATINS.  
 SG speak-PAST-MASC already many year-PART.PL  
*“I saw Marija yesterday. I haven’t spoken with her in years!”*
- (2) Хоиж-от ко нама пришле цетуерге?  
*Hojiž-ót ko náma prišlé cetuérge?*  
 who-EMPH-TOP toward we.DL.DATINS arrive.PF-PAST-MASC Thursday-ACC.  
 SG  
*“Who came to our place on Thursday?”*

Adjectives modifying a topicalized noun directly must appear in their definite forms. Across a copula this is optional, although increasingly uncommon.

- (3) Яс црвеное вино-то лублун векѣ неж бѣлоє. Болше вокусе ест.  
*Iás cervénoie vinó-to lublún vékje než běloie. Bólše vókuse iést.*  
 I.NOM red-ACC.SG.NEUT.DEF wine-ACC.SG-TOP love-1SG more than white-  
 ACC.SG.NEUT.DEF. Big.COMP-NOM.SG.MASC taste-NOM.SG be.3SG  
*"I prefer red wine to white. It has a stronger flavor."*

If a compound nominal phrase is meant to be topicalized, the topical marker only attaches to the first word, though nevertheless applies to the whole phrase.

- Дрожгѣе-ти со томлам неслигание простанаѣш войнѣ  
 останауловати стан грамадѣ несношимом, шилат розгоркости о  
 них.  
*Dróžgjie-ti so tomlám nesliǵánije prostanákjěš voíně ostanaulováti stán*  
*gramádě nesnóšimom, šilat rozgórnosti o níh.*  
 horror-NOM.SG-TOP with misery-DATINS.PL unheard\_of-NOM.PL.DEF con-  
 tinue-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-GEN.SG.FEM-MID war-GEN.SG leave-3PL position-ACC.  
 SG masses-GEN.SG unbearable-DATINS.SG.MASC, reinforce-3PL bitterness-  
 ACC.SG at N-they.GEN  
*"The unprecedented horrors and miseries of the protracted war are making*  
*the people's position unbearable and increasing their anger."*

### 14.3 Referencing the Topic

Generally once a topic has been introduced and no new topic has yet taken its place, it does not need to be mentioned and can simply be dropped, whether it be the subject, object, or an oblique case, although the latter two are much less frequent than the first. The sole required exception is when the topic is supposed to be the object of a preposition, in which case the preposition cannot be left stranded. In such cases, some pronoun must be left behind in place of the dropped object. If third person, a declined form of *to* is often used.

If a noun is repeated in full for emphasis after it has been introduced, the topic marker often remains attached in these subsequent occurrences. However, if a pronoun representing the topic is repeated, the marker is rarely seen again.

## 14.4 Changing the Topic

The introduction of a new noun with the topic marker serves to replace the previous one with the new one from that point onward. A new noun bearing the topic marker appearing in a sentence also using the previous topic will appear toward the end of the clause, rather than the beginning, to avoid confusion. For example, in a discussion about Еване, a transition sentence may appear as И задѣм покренале новий воз-от “And then he bought that new car”), where the topic remains unchanged until the end of the sentence. Alternatively, the noun “car” could remain unmarked until the following sentence.

## 14.5 Examples

The following two examples consist of longer texts that allow topics to appear, be referenced, and be changed over the course of the prose. Due to the length of these samples, the glossing will be displayed in an interlinear format. The first line is the original Cyrillic, the second a transliteration, and the third an abbreviated gloss which shows far less information than the glosses used so far. Afterwards is a prose English translation.

### 14.5.1 A Conversation

- A) Таша -та! Страво! Тебе не видѣле довѣ шемицѣ. Како  
*Táša -ta! Strávo! Tebé ne viděle dōvě šemicě. Káko*  
 Tášá -TOP hello you.ACC NEG see-PAST two weeks how

живеш?

*živés?*

live-2SG

- B) Добрѣ живун, Марке. Дави приледѣла зев Идалин.  
*Dóbrě živún, Márke. Dávi prileděla zev Idálin.*  
 well live.1SG Márke just arrive-PAST from Italy-GEN

- A) Ах, да, праудаже. Како буиле поезде -те?  
*Áh, dá, práudaže. Káko buile póiezde -te?*  
 oh yes of course how be-PAST trip -TOP



- Б) Ой, велем красно буило нав Итали -те. Тако многе  
*Ói, vélem krásno buílo nav Idalí -te. Táko mnóge*  
 oh very beautiful be-PAST on Italy-LOC -TOP so much

исторѣк ест! Тамо гради старовѣгови, прѣкрасна  
*istoriok iést! Támo grádi starověgovi, překrásna*  
 history-PART be.3SG there cities ancient most beautiful

культура и їда вокуснейша. Егье тибѣ розкажун  
*kultúra i iědá vokusněiša. Iegjé tibě roskažún*  
 culture and food tasty-COMP more you.DATINS tell-1SG

спорой. А ти -то, цой пробуивало со тѣм?  
*sporói. A tí -to, cói probuiválo so těm?*  
 later and you -TOP what happen-PAST with TOP-DATINS

- А) Немноге. О мене многе интересновево не буило.  
*Nemnóge. O mené mnóge interesnóvevo ne buílo.*  
 not much at I.GEN much interesting-PART NEG be-PAST

Надѣюш скорѣ поѣхат на год кудеш -от,  
*Naděiúš skóre poiěhat ná god kudeš -ót,*  
 hope-1SG-MID soon PF-go-SUP on holiday somewhere-TOP

музеби Кидаем или Японей.  
*múzebi Kidáiem ili Iaponěi.*  
 maybe China-DATINS or Japan-DATINS

A) *Tása! Hello! I haven't seen you in two weeks! How have you been?*

B) *Well, Márke. I just returned from Italy.*

A) *Ah, yes, of course. How was the trip?*

B) *Oh, Italy is a beautiful country. There's so much history there! Ancient cities, beautiful culture, and amazing food. I'll tell you more later. And you, what have you been doing?*

A) *Not much. I haven't had much interesting happen. I hope that soon I'll be able to go on vacation somewhere, maybe to China or Japan.*

## 14.5.2 A Newspaper Article

Following is a summarized version of an article from the Novegradian newspaper Совѣшкѣи *Sověšskéji*.

Вецераш, дуадешѣ цедиртий врѣсанѣ, послалашин ко Каирем  
*Věceraš, duaděši cedirtij vrěsaně, poslalašin ko Kajřem*  
 yesterday twenty fourth in September was sent to Cairo

маленая група -та сокладиш со пентерем дипломакъам  
*malenáia grúpa -ta sokladíš so pénterem diplomakjám*  
 small group -TOP consisting with five diplomats

Организасин Сиединених Народ нав едну шемицу во шем  
*Organizásin Siedinénih Naród nav iédnu šemicu vo šém*  
 of Organization United Nations on one week in this

градѣ, напустенѣ войнам. Воклузасен вуисосен специалишекъ  
*grádě, napústeně voinám. Vokludzásen vuisodzén specialíšekj*  
 city wracked by wars including highly-trained specialists

зе Новеградескѣе Республикѣ, Англин, Сиединених Штат,  
*ze Novegradeskéie Respúblikě, Ánglin, Siedinénih Štát,*  
 from Novegradian Republic England United States

Германин, и Лигѣ Арабеских Народ, ше дипломадицеское  
*Germánin, i Lígě Arábeshih Naród, šé diplomadiceskóie*  
 Germany and League of Arab Nations this diplomatic group

бадет вастатиш со командирам протистанец во лѣтнѣ Каирѣ  
*bádet vástatiš so komandirám protistánec vo lětně Kajřě*  
 will meet with leaders of rebels in southern Cairo

со тѣм-це старатиш организати премирѣя. Каире -те, разом со  
*so těm-ce starátíš organizáti premirijá. Kajře -te, rázom so*  
 in order to attempt to organize ceasefire Cairo -TOP together with

валой цестюм западна Египета, буиле под протистанцеуном  
*váloi cestiúm západna Iegípeta, buile pod protistancéuonom*  
 large parts of western Egypt, was under rebel

властѹм	оѯ	со тово-це	нашнала	грагѣѣнеска	война.	Шена	-та
<i>vlastiŭm</i>	<i>oŭ</i>	<i>so tovo-ce</i>	<i>našnála</i>	<i>gragjěneska</i>	<i>voiná.</i>	<i>Šéna</i>	<i>-ta</i>
control	already	since	began	civil	war	scene	-TOP

буила	о	сорѣзанѣ	приглубѣ,	ейда	роspустин	спорадицески	рейди
<i>builá</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>sorěžánjě</i>	<i>priglúbě,</i>	<i>iěida</i>	<i>rospustín</i>	<i>sporadiceski</i>	<i>rěidi</i>
was	about	fighting	deep	when	launching	sporadic	raids

республиканески	крѣуностиа	поголом	града	на	бежѣди	мѣсти.
<i>respublikáneski</i>	<i>krěunostijá</i>	<i>pogótom</i>	<i>gráda</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>bežědi</i>	<i>městi.</i>
republican	strongholds	throughout	city	on	occupied	sites

На врѣмено,	стойкое	республиканеское	правястѹ	-то
<i>Na vrěmeno,</i>	<i>stoiékjoie</i>	<i>republikaneskóie</i>	<i>práviastuo</i>	<i>-to</i>
meanwhile	standing	republican	government	-TOP

премѣстилошин	на	граден	портовун	Ал-Искиндирея
<i>preměstilošin</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>gráden</i>	<i>pórtovun</i>	<i>Al-Iskindirěia</i>
was relocated	on	to city	port	Al-Iskindireya

(Алѣксандрия).	Нимо тово-це	многие	не	надѣѹци	нав	оспѣх
<i>(Alěksándrija).</i>	<i>Nímo tovo-ce</i>	<i>mnógije</i>	<i>ne</i>	<i>naděiuci</i>	<i>nav</i>	<i>óspěh</i>
Alexandria	Despite	many people	NEG	hope	on	success

шей	миссин,	английске	дипломате	Ричарде	Аллене	-те
<i>šei</i>	<i>míssin,</i>	<i>anglíjske</i>	<i>diplomáte</i>	<i>Ríčarde</i>	<i>Allene</i>	<i>-te</i>
of this	mission	English	diplomat	Richard	Allen	-TOP

сорѣсиле	то-це	„Надѣмши	на	то-це	ше	ест	шегом	ко
<i>sorědzile</i>	<i>tó-ce</i>	<i>“Naděmši</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>tó-ce</i>	<i>šé</i>	<i>iěst</i>	<i>šegom</i>	<i>ko</i>
said	that	we hope	on	that	this	is	step	towards

позидивием	деля	созданья	премирий”.
<i>pozidivijem</i>	<i>dělia</i>	<i>sózdanja</i>	<i>premírjij”.</i>
the positive	for	creation	truce

*“Yesterday, September 24<sup>th</sup>, a small group consisting of five United Nations diplomats was dispatched to Cairo for a week-long stay in the war-torn city. Including highly-trained specialists from the Republic of Novegrad, England, the United States, Germany, and the League of Arab Nations, the diplomatic dispatch will meet with rebel leaders in southern Cairo to try to organize a cease fire. Cairo, as well as a significant portion of western Egypt, has been in rebel control for the last three months since the civil war started. The city has been the scene of intense fighting as Republican strongholds scattered throughout the city have launched sporadic raids on occupied compounds. In the meantime, the acting Republican government has been relocated to the port of Al-Iskindireya (Alexandria). While many are not optimistic about the success of this mission, English diplomat and mission leader Richard Allen has stated that ‘we are hopeful that this is a step in the positive direction toward finally bringing about a truce.’”*

## 15.1 Personal Pronouns

Nominative case personal pronouns are frequently omitted if the verb makes it clear what the subject is. They are more frequently used with past tense verbs (which do not encode person) and non-declining verbal forms, such as adverbial participles. The third person nominative pronouns are avoided whenever possible, even in the past, and are generally only found for emphasis or contrast (and even when used for those reasons, they will often be replaced by the topical pronoun то). Pronouns in any other case are not optional unless they have been topicalized.

Яс *iás* “I” is pronounced /ja/ before fricative consonants (i.e., the /s/ is dropped), although this is not indicated in spelling. In highly-formal situations, this variant will often be pronounced [jah], with the original /s/ preserved only as a slight aspiration.

The oblique third person pronouns have a peculiarity not seen elsewhere. Forms beginning with a vowel or /j/ acquire an epenthetic /n/ when following a preposition: о нево *o nevo* “at him”. When the preposition has both a vowelled and an unvowelled form (co, во, ко), the /n/ will instead be added to the preposition: сон емы *son iemú* “with him”.

## 15.2 Possessive Adjectives

The Novegradian possessive adjectives perform both adjectival (“my”, “your”, “our”, etc) and pronominal (“mine”, “yours”, “ours”) functions. They must agree in gender, number, and case with the noun they modify. Possessive adjectives must precede any adjectives modifying the same noun, unless they are on the opposite side of that noun (мой старе возе, мой возе старе, возе мой старе, and also старе

возе мой “my old car”, but never \*\*стапе мой возе). They have no distinct topicalized form.

The third person possessive adjectives, although identical to some of the oblique forms of the third person pronouns, do not undergo the same alternations. They never acquire an epenthetic /n/ (о ево провезора *o ievó provezóra* “at his professor”), but still cause an /n/ to appear on the prepositions во, со, and ко (сон ево провезорем *son ievó provezórem* “with his professor”).

Normally the rules for the placement of possessive adjectives are quite fluid, but in one situation their position is fixed. When modifying a kinship term (outlined in the appendix) or the word дpyтe *drúge* “friend”, they must be placed after the noun: тата мой “my father”, never \*мой тата.

On the whole, possessive adjectives are not used as frequently as in English and other languages. If it is clear who the possessor is, than there is no need to indicate it.

- (1) Прошкѣите то-це яс приѣхале познѣ, но рухнике воза мирале.  
*Próskjite tó-ce iás prijěhale pózně, no rúhnikе vóza mirále.*  
 forgive-2PL.IMPER REL.NOM.SG-that.NOM I.NOM arrive\_by\_vehicle.PF-PAST-  
 MASC late-ADV, but engine-NOM.SG car-GEN.SG stop\_working-PAST-MASC  
*“Forgive me for arriving late, but my car’s engine quit.”*

In less formal language (that is to say, outside of business, government, and news media), possessive pronouns are less frequently used<sup>1</sup>. In their place are the phrases о мене *o mené*, о тебе *o tebé*, etc, the same as used for indicating possession in place of a verb “to have” (at + genitive case). These phrases are positioned after the noun: возе о мене *vóze o mené* “my car”. This is most common for nouns in the nominative case, though not exclusively so, relagating the former possessive adjectives to largely oblique cases. This is common in informal and semiformal writing, including in many modern non-academic books.

For the most part the possessive adjectives and the о мене construction are fully interchangeable; however, the о мене construction cannot be used to describe “upward” family relationships, while “downward” or “equal” relationships may use either. That is, \*\*мати о мене *máti o mené* “my mother” is unacceptable, while докѣи о мене *dókji o mené* “my daughter” is fine.

In English, a plural possessive with plural possessed noun has an ambiguous meaning. For example, “their cars” could mean that each person has one car (and is thus equivalent to “his car + her car + ...”), that each has multiple cars (equivalent to “his cars + her cars + ...”), or that several people share several common cars

1 Though note the possessive forms described in Section 22.

(equivalent to “their car + their car + ...”). There are therefore four combinations of a plural possessor and any noun with distinct meanings:

1. their car (multiple people share a single common car)
2. their cars (multiple people share several common cars)
3. their cars (each person has one car)
4. their cars (each person has multiple cars)

Standard Novegradian, however, groups senses 1 and 3 together, and 2 and 4 together. 1 and 3 (where each possessor or collective possessor has a single instance of the possessed item) are expressed with a singular noun, while 2 and 4 (where each possessor or collective possessor has multiple items) use a plural noun.

1. ex возе *iěh vóze* (multiple people share a single common car)
2. ex вози *iěh vózi* (multiple people share several common cars)
3. ex возе *iěh vóze* (each person has one car)
4. ex вози *iěh vózi* (each person has multiple cars)

This ambiguity is removed entirely in the colloquial language, where the distributive senses (3 and 4) require the distributive particle *po*: ex по возе/и *iěh po vóze/i*.

### 15.3 Reflexive Pronouns

Novegradian has a single reflexive pronoun and reflexive possessive adjective used to refer back to the subject of a sentence. They are used in all persons.

- (2) Яс напизале шибѣ ноту.

*Iás napizále šibě' nótu.*

I.NOM write.PF-PAST-MASC REFLX.DATINS note-ACC.SG

*“I wrote myself a note.”*

- (3) Мнѣ кладно за тово-це сосаса срѣда жимѣ, на жень поѣ метра  
снѣгек, и суою курту забуиле.  
*Mně kládno za tovó-ce sodzása srěda žimě, ná ženj pót métra sněgék, i  
suoiuú kúrtu zabuile.*  
I.DATINS cold-NOM.SG.NEUT for REL.GEN.SG-that.NOM now Ø middle-NOM.  
SG winter-GEN.SG, on ground-LOC.SG Ø half-NOM.SG meter-GEN.SG snow-  
PART.SG, and REFLX\_POSS-ACC.SG.FEM coat-ACC.SG forget-PAST-MASC  
“I’m cold because it’s the middle of winter, there’s half a meter of snow on  
the ground, and I forgot my coat.”

Whereas English can repeat a possessive adjective so that a sentence contains multiple explicit references to the subject (e.g., “I am reading *my* book”), Novegradian requires the use of the reflexive pronoun or adjective whenever the subject is referenced: Яс цидам суою нигу *Iás cidám suoiuú nígu*. This also has the effect of creating a fourth person in certain contexts:

Оне цидаст суою нигу. *Óne cidást suoiuú nígu.*

“He is reading his [own] book” (reflexive adjective points back to subject)

Оне цидаст ево нигу. *Óne cidást ievó nígu.*

“He is reading his [someone else’s] book” (non-reflexive adjective cannot refer to subject, another participant is inferred)

Again, in non-formal situations, о шебе *o šebé* can be used, but this is less common.

The reflexive possessive adjectives can, in certain sentences, be used to refer to a noun that is not technically the subject, but is viewed as being the logical agent. This is especially common in possessive constructions.

- (4) О ме треба їсти суоя еужина пред неж охогѣун.  
*O mé tréba iěsti suoia iéužina pred než ohógjun.*  
at I.LAT need-NOM.SG eat-INF REFLX\_POSS-NOM.SG.FEM dinner-NOM.SG  
before than leave.IMPF-1SG  
“I need to eat my dinner before leaving.” (lit. “There is need at me...”, where  
“need” is the grammatical subject)



- (5) Ево залубленье шибѣ ест ево хужем акостуом.  
*Ievó zalublénje šibě íest ievó húžem ákostuom.*  
 his infatuation-NOM.SG REFLX.DATINS be.3SG his worse-DATINS.SG.NEUT  
 quality-DATINS.SG  
*"His infatuation with himself is his worst quality." (Notice how evo was  
 required in all positions without a reflexive sense)*

## 15.4 Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative adjective *ше* *sé* functions in much the same way as the possessive adjectives, agreeing in gender, case, and number with the noun it modifies. When used as a pronoun instead of an adjective, the neuter form must be used if singular, and the plural if plural.

No distinction between "this" and "that" is formally made. If it is necessary to express one over the other and context is not sufficient, an adverbial modifier may be used: *ша суде нига* *śá sudé níga* "this book [here]", *ша тамо нига* *śá támo níga* "that book [there]". Alternatively, the distal can be expressed using the base \*он-: *она нига* *oná níga* "that book". Both methods are frequently seen.

The adjective came *sáme* "same" generally calls for a demonstrative adjective ("that same X"). While not a requirement, it has become so common that many sentences may seem awkward without it.

- (6) Яс родене во шем градѣ-те самѣѣм, како она.  
*Iás rodéne vo šém grádě-te sáměiēm, kako oná.*  
 I.NOM Ø bear-PTCP.PASS.PF-NOM.SG.MASC in this-LOC.SG.MASC city-LOC.SG-  
 TOP same-LOC.SG.MASC.DEF, as she.NOM Ø  
*"I was born in the same city as she was."*

The same may be said of the expression *ше* *суой* *śé suói*, meaning "one's own":

- (7) О кожних – по шим суоими дѣлам.  
*O kóžnih – po śím suojimi dělám.*  
 at each-GEN.PL.DEF Ø DIST this.DATINS.PL REFLX\_POSS-DATINS.PL matter-  
 DATINS.PL  
*"To each his own."*

The topicalized demonstratives *ше-то* *śé-to* and *оно-то* *onó-to* (a fossilized neu-

ter form of the pronoun он-) are used to mean “the latter” and “the former” respectively. Ше-to declines just like ше “this” with -to tacked onto the end of every form, while оно-to declines like онe “he” with the exception of this nominative form and the inanimate accusative, and the fact that it does not acquire n- after prepositions. Unlike in English, the standard order is “the latter” followed by “the former”.

- (8) Ти музеш туди ѓздит или тренем или самолeдем. На шeм-to буистрейше, а на eм-to интереснейше.  
*Tí múžeš tudi iězdit ili tréneṃ ili samolédeṃ. Na šeṃ-to buistréiše, a na iém-to interesnéiše.*  
 you.SG.NOM be\_able-2SG thence go\_by\_vehicle-SUP either train-DATINS.  
 SG or airplane-DATINS.SG. On latter.LOC fast-COMP-NOM.SG.NEUT, whereas  
 on former.LOC interesting-COMP-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*“You can take either the train or a plane. The latter is quicker, but the former is more interesting.”*

## 15.5 Absolute Pronouns

The absolute pronouns are used whenever personal or demonstrative pronouns appear in isolation, the verb that they are the subject of having been dropped.

- (9) „Хой ше содѣлале?“ „Язѣт.“  
*“Hói še soděľale?” “Iaziót.”*  
 “who.NOM this-ACC.SG do.PF-PAST-MASC” “I.ABS”  
*“Who did this?” “Me.”*
- (10) „Котрий хокъеш?“ „Шѣт.“  
*“Kótrij hókješ?” “Šiót.”*  
 “which-ACC.SG.MASC.DEF want-2SG” “this.MASC.SG.ABS”  
*“Which one do you want?” “This one.”*

## 15.6 Interrogative Pronouns

### 15.6.1 Pronominal Interrogatives

Novegradian has two pronominally-declining interrogative pronouns: *цой* *cói* and *хой* *hói*, meaning “what” and “who” respectively. The former is used to substitute for inanimate nouns, and the latter for animate nouns. There is no gender or number distinction, and they are generally placed toward the beginning of the sentence.

- (11) Со кем ти поговорила?  
*So kém tí pogovorila?*  
 with who.DATINS you.NOM talk\_a\_bit-PAST-FEM  
*“Who were you talking with?”*

Хой calls for masculine singular agreement. Цой requires neuter singular agreement.

- (12) Цоиж суде пробуивало?  
*Cójjž súde probuiválo?*  
 what.NOM-EMPH here happen-PAST-NEUT  
*“What happened here?”*

However, if the speaker expects a plural answer, both may optionally be replaced by *котрие* *kótrije* “which ones?”.

- (13) Со котриями ти поговорила?  
*So kotrijemi tí pogovorila?*  
 with which-DATINS.PL.DEF you.NOM talk\_a\_bit-PAST-FEM  
*“Who all were you talking with?”*

Multiple questions are always placed together, unlike in English, and tend to be fronted.

- (14) Хой куди койда идет?  
*Hói kudi kóida idét?*  
 who.NOM to\_where when go-3SG  
*“Who’s going where when?”*

The suffix -ж -ž (or -иж -iž after /j/, or -же -že after another consonant) is attached to a pronoun to emphasize it (compare English “what?” and “what in the world?”, or less polite variants). It is most commonly seen on хой and цой, which become хойж *hójiž* and цойж *cójiž*.

### 15.6.2 Adjectival Interrogatives

Novegradian has four adjectival interrogatives, which decline as adjectives and must agree with the noun they modify.

Котре *kótre* means “which”, and has both indefinite and definite forms. It is used to select a single noun out of a group. Note that it is also equivalent to English “what” immediately followed by a noun.

- (15) Со котрѣ странѣ ти?  
*So kótrě straně tí?*  
 from which-GEN.SG.FEM country-GEN.SG Ø you.NOM  
*“What country are you from?”*

Каде *kadé* means “what kind”, and also has both indefinite and definite forms. It also has a non-interrogative exclamatory function, equivalent to English “What a...!”

- (16) Кадоє шедєн поврѣме-те?  
*Kadóie šedén póvrěme-te?*  
 what\_kind-NOM.SG.NEUT.DEF today weather-NOM.SG-TOP Ø  
*“How’s the weather today?” (lit. “What kind of weather is there today?”)*

- (17) Кадеј красней дум-от!  
*Kadéi krásnei dum-ót!*  
 what\_kind-NOM.SG.NEUT.DEF beautiful-NOM.SG.NEUT.DEF house-NOM.  
 SG-TOP  
*“What a beautiful house!”*

Какове *kákovе* also means “what kind”, and is largely interchangeable with каде. However, it cannot be used exclamatorily, so Каковое шедєн поврѣме? is grammatical, but \*\*Каковей красней дум-от is not. Both каде and какове are in common use.

Кей *kéi* is a generic emphatic interrogative, which can be translated many ways in English, but often as “what”. It is always definite (кей *kéi*, кая *káia*, кое *kóie*, кие *kije*, etc), although the noun it modifies does not need to be topicalized. It is simi-

lar to the emphatic цоиж, although it tends to have a more menacing, demeaning, or sarcastic connotation. For example, Цоиж суде пробуивало? *Cójiž sudé probuiválo?* means “What happened here?” and is more of an expression of shock, while Кое ше? *Kóie šé?* “What is this?” tends to sound angrier.

- (18) Кая керда?

*Káia kérda?*

Q.EMPH-NOM.SG.FEM.DEF chance-NOM.SG

“What are the odds?”

### 15.6.3 Non-Declining Interrogatives

Non-declining interrogatives include adverbial interrogatives (which do not affect nouns around them) and an interrogative determiner (which modifies a noun, but forces it to agree with itself).

Adverbial interrogatives include куде *kudé* “where”, куди *kudí* “to where”, оскуд *oskúd* “from where”, койда *kóida* “when”, зацем *zácem* “why”, and како *káko* “how”.

The sole interrogative determiner in Novegradian is колкѣ *kólké* “how many, how much”. The noun that follows it must always be in the partitive case. Verbs agree with whatever the number of the noun is.

- (19) Колкѣ лудеу есат во шей комнатѣ?

*Kólkě lúdeu iésat vo šei kómnatě?*

how\_many people-PART.PL be.3PL in this.LOC.SG.FEM room-LOC.SG

“How many people are in that room?”

Како *káko* may be followed by an indefinite adjective to indicate “how X is...?”

- (20) Како дилиана е ша драга?

*Káko diliána ié ša drága?*

how long-NOM.SG.FEM be.3SG.CLITIC that-NOM.SG.FEM road-NOM.SG

“How long is that road?”

## 15.7 Indefinite and Negative Pronouns

The indefinite and negative pronouns are formed fairly regularly from the inter-

rogative pronouns or adjectives. Indefinite pronouns (“some-*X*”) involve the suffix -ш (related to the demonstrative *ше*) and negative pronouns (“no-*X*”) involve the prefix не-. All have neuter singular agreement, except for *кош* *kós* “someone” and *неке* *néke* “no one”, which have masculine singular agreement. Novegradian has phrasal polarity agreement, so if negative pronouns are present, the verb must also be negated.

- (21) Яс неково не видѣле.

*Iás nekovó ne viděle.*

I.NOM no\_one.GEN NEG see-PAST-MASC

“I didn’t see anyone.” (lit. “I didn’t see no one”)

The interrogative pronouns by themselves, without any affixes, can be used to represent a wider degree of indefinite pronouns (“any-*X*”). Хой and цой decline as normal, and indeclinable pronouns naturally do not decline.

- (22) Хой суде музет мнѣ помагати?

*Hói sudé múzet mně pomagáti?*

who.NOM here be\_able-3SG I.DATINS help-INF

“Can anyone here help me?” (identical in form to “Who here can help me?”)

- (23) О ме треба куди ис.

*O mé tréba kudi ís.*

at I.LAT need-NOM.SG to\_where go-SUP

“I need a place to go to.”

However, negative verbs are not needed if the negated element is non-nominative, as in example 24 below.

- (24) Нецем пизати.

*Nécem pizáti.*

nothing-DATINS write-INF

“There is nothing to write with.”

The exception to the above rule is that if the negated element is the object of a prepositional phrase, the negative copula is needed as the pronoun cannot be negated directly.

- (25) Нет со кем говорити.  
*Nét so kém govoríti.*  
 be.3SG.NEG with who-DATINS talk-INF  
*"There is no one to talk to."*

The negated neuter form of кей, некое *nékoie*, is used as an emphatic way of saying "nothing". The genitive form нечаево *negáievo* exists in free variation.

- Яс шле ко престауленьем, како ти присуѣдале, но некое (нечаево) не  
 довѣдале.  
*Iás slé ko prestaúlénjem, káko tí prisuědale, no nékoie (negáievo) ne*  
*dovědale.*  
 I.NOM go.DET.PAST-MASC to presentation-DATINS.SG, as you.NOM advise.PF-  
 PAST-MASC, but no\_sort-ACC.SG.NEUT.DEF (no\_sort-GEN.SG.NEUT.DEF) NEG  
 understand.IMPf-PAST-MASC  
*"I went to the presentation like you suggested, but I didn't understand a*  
*thing."*

There are two indefinite forms that mean "some, a bit, a few, several" (quantitatively) when modifying a noun. Нѣколкѣ *několke* indicates an indefinite number whose true value is to some degree up to chance. For example, if you ask someone to bring "a few" bottles of water, you have no way of knowing at that moment how many will actually be brought, because there is no set value. The noun following нѣколкѣ must be in the partitive plural, no matter its function in the sentence. Нѣколкѣ, like многе "many", is indeclinable, but is considered as being the bearer of the (invisible) case markings. Only count nouns may be used, never mass nouns (which would just use the partitive alone).

- (27) Принези мнѣ нѣколкѣ юванѣу.  
*Prinezi mně několke iuváneu.*  
 carry\_to.PF-2SG.IMPf I.DATINS several water\_bottle-PART.PL  
*"Bring me a few bottles of water."*

The adjective нѣкотре *někotre* also means "some", but is used when either the actual quantity is known to the speaker but is not being mentioned (as in example 28) or is unknown to be the speaker, but is still a set value (as in example 29). If they are the subject or direct object, both the adjective and the noun it modifies will be in the partitive plural (as in 28 and 29). If in any other position (including after a preposition requiring the accusative case), the adjective will be definite,

singular, and in whatever case the situation would normally call for, and the noun will be in the partitive plural (as in example 30).

- (28) Хокъун то-це ти содѣлаале би нѣкотроу вѣкъеу дея мене.  
*Hókjun tó-ce ti soděľale bi někotrou věķjeu dělia mené.*  
 want-1SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM you.NOM do.PF-PAST-MASC SUBJ.SG several-  
 PART.PL thing-PART.PL for I.GEN  
*"I want you to do a few things for me."*
- (29) Есат нѣкотроу доброу отеу дея иностранец городѣ Торга.  
*Iésat někotrou dóbrou oteľeu dělia inostránec górodě Tórġa.*  
 be.3PL several-PART.PL good-PART.PL hotel-PART.PL for foreigner-GEN.PL  
 downtown-LOC.SG Tórġe-GEN  
*"There are a few good hotels for foreigners in downtown Tórġe."*
- (30) Оне написале суой план на нѣкотрѣѣм листеу папиерек, но толкѣ  
 едене музун найсти.  
*Óne napizále suói plán na někotrěěm listeu papierék, no tólķé iédene*  
*múzun náisti.*  
 he.NOM write.PF-PAST-MASC POSS\_REFLEX-NOM.SG.MASC plan-ACC.SG on  
 several-LOC.SG.MASC.DEF sheet-PART.PL paper-PART.SG, but only one-NOM.  
 SG.MASC be\_able-1SG find.PF-INF  
*"He wrote his plan down on several sheets of paper, but I can only find one."*

Where English requires an indefinite article and a broad categorical term, Novegradian frequently uses the adjective каде-ш *kadé-š* "some sort of". This stresses that a member of the class is intended, not the entire class:

- (31) Яс хокъун то-це вѣм каде-ш романеске лизик.  
*Iás hókjun tó-ce věm kadé-š románeske lizík.*  
 I.NOM want-1SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM know-1SG some\_kind\_of-ACC.  
 SG.MASC Romance-ACC.SG.MASC language-ACC.SG  
*"I wish I knew a Romance language."*

## 15.8 Relative Pronouns

Novegradian has three primary relative pronoun constructions: *котре kótre*, *какове kákově*, and *то-це/то-ко tó-ce/tó-ko*.



### 15.8.1 Котпе

Котпе is used to tie a relative clause to a noun, much like English “that”, “which”, or “who(m)”. It is placed immediately after the noun being modified, and agrees with it in gender, number, and topicalization/definiteness only. The case it takes derives not from the noun it is modifying, but rather from its function in the relative clause. In writing, a comma is placed between the main clause and the relative clause containing котпе.

- (32) Она-и дѣвушкой-то, котрѣ овидѣле яс вѣцераш.  
*Oná-i děvuškoj-to, kótrěie oviděle iás věceraš.*  
 she.NOM-be.3SG.CLITIC girl-DATINS.SG-TOP, REL-ACC.SG.FEM.DEF see.PF-PAST-MASC I.NOM yesterday  
*“She’s the girl I saw yesterday.”*

This sort of usage can frequently be replaced by a participle, as both participles and котпе are frequently used for subordination. However, there are some situations where a participle could not be used properly. This includes situations where a perfective active participle would be needed, which Novegradian lacks:

- (33) Ше-и мажой-то, котрей поговорила со мнѣ во треневи сташи.  
*Šé-i mážoi-to, kótrei pogovorila so mně vo trénevě stadzí.*  
 this.NOM.SG-be.3SG.CLITIC man-DATINS.SG-TOP, REL-NOM.SG.MASC.DEF talk\_for\_a\_while-PAST-MASC with I.DATINS in train-ADJ-LOC.SG.FEM station-LOC.SG  
*“This is the man who talked a bit with me in the train station.”*

If the noun is the object of a preposition in the relative clause, котпе also must be used. The preposition will be moved in front of котпе, and since котпе is now separated from the noun it modifies by a preposition, it must appear in its definite form.

- (34) Она-и дѣвушкой-то, со котрою поговорила яс.  
*Oná-i děvuškoj-to, so kótroiun pogovorila iás.*  
 she.NOM-be.3SG.CLITIC girl-DATINS.SG-TOP, with REL-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF talk\_for\_a\_while-PAST-MASC I.NOM  
*“She’s the girl with whom I was talking yesterday.”*

### 15.8.2 Какове

Какове, known as the qualitative relative pronoun, is similar to *котпе* in its function, but quite different in its meaning. While *котпе* links a clause to a noun, *какове* links a clause to a class of noun, of which the noun being modified is an example. See examples 35 and 36 below to see how it works.

- (35) Ше – нигой, какову не радеюн.  
*Šé - nígoi, kákovu ne radéiun.*  
 this.NOM.SG.NEUT Ø book-DATINS.SG, QUAL\_REL-ACC.SG.FEM NEG enjoy-1SG  
*"This is the kind of book that I don't like."*
- (36) Оне – дужей, со каковоюун неможено работати.  
*Óne – dužéi, so kakóvoiun nemóženo rabótati.*  
 he.NOM Ø person-DATINS.SG, with QUAL\_REL-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF not\_possible work-INF  
*"He's the kind of person who's impossible to work with."*

These sorts of phrases can easily be reworded using *котпе* and a noun such as *класе* *kláse* "class" or *роде* *róde* "kind, sort", but doing so is substandard style, and generally a mark of non-native speakers.

### 15.8.3 Relative Pronouns Filling Multiple Gaps

If the clause subordinated by *котпе* or *какове* has multiple verbs, a single relative pronoun may serve as an argument of both verbs if the case called for by both verbs is the same. If the cases are different, the pronoun must be repeated.

- (37) Дѣвушка, котра воходила и шала  
*děvuška, kótra vohódila i šála*  
 girl-NOM.SG, REL-NOM.SG.FEM enter.IMPF-PAST-FEM and sit-PAST-FEM  
*"the girl who<sub>NOM</sub> walked in and [she]<sub>NOM</sub> sat down"*
- (38) Дѣвушка, котрѣ яс овидѣле и познале  
*děvuška, kótrě iás oviděle i poznále*  
 girl-NOM.SG, REL-ACC.SG.FEM I.NOM see.PF-PAST-MASC and recognize.PF-PAST-MASC  
*"the girl whom<sub>ACC</sub> I saw and recognized [her]<sub>ACC</sub>"*

- (39) дѣвушка, котрѣ яс познале и котроюн яс подигале  
*děvuška, kótrě iás poznále i kótroiun iás podigále*  
 girl-NOM.SG, REL-ACC.SG.FEM I.NOM recognize.PF-PAST-MASC and REL-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF I.NOM thank-PAST-MASC  
*“the girl whom<sub>ACC</sub> I recognized and thanked [her]<sub>DATINS</sub>”*

If the prepositions are not identical, the pronoun must be repeated as well, even if the cases are the same.

- (40) дѣвушка, котрой яс помогле и со котроюн яс поговориле  
*děvuška, kótroi iás pomógle i so kótroiun iás pogovorile*  
 girl-NOM.SG, REL-DATINS.SG.FEM I.NOM help.PF-PAST-MASC and with REL-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF I.NOM talk\_for\_a\_time.PF-PAST-MASC  
*“the girl whom<sub>DATINS</sub> I helped and spoke with [her]<sub>DATINS</sub>”*

If the required cases are different, but the surface form of the pronoun is identical for each, a single pronoun generally may be used.

- (41) дѣвушки, котор яс зацегале и овидѣле  
*děvuški, kótor iás zacegále i oviděle*  
 girl-nom.pl, REL-GEN.PL/ACC.ANIM.PL I.NOM wait-PAST-MASC and see.PF-PAST-MASC  
*“the girls who<sub>GEN</sub> I waited for and saw [them]<sub>ACC</sub>”*

However, there is one important exception. Even if the cases are identical and there are no prepositions involved, if one is semantically “agent-like” and the other “patient-like”, a single pronoun may not be used. In example 11 below, for example, the “girl” is a patient-like argument relative to “give”, but an agent-like argument relative to “be cold”.

- (42) дѣвушка, котрой яс дариле подар и котроюн буило кладно  
*děvuška, kótroi iás dárile pódar i kótroiun builo kládno*  
 girl-NOM.SG, REL-DATINS.SG.FEM I.NOM gift.PF-PAST-MASC gift-ACC.SG and REL-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF be-PAST-NEUT-SG cold-NOM.SG.NEUT  
*“the girl whom<sub>DATINS</sub> I gave a gift and [she]<sub>DATINS</sub> was cold”*

#### 15.8.4 То-це/То-ко

The last kind of relativizer in Novegradian is a phrase consisting of the relative

pronoun *то* (considered part of the main clause) and an interrogative form (often *че* or *ко*, part of the subordinate clause), brought together as a single hyphenated word. This method is used whenever there is no noun present to attach a relative clause to, such as *Вѣм то-че прийде́т* *Věm to-ce prijdét* “I know that he will come”. In this sentence, the first half, *то*, appears in the accusative singular as the object of *вѣсти* “know”, and the second half in the nominative singular. The same construction is used to express phrases such as “that which”, “those who”. The second half only declines when the concept represented by *то* functions as something other than the subject of the subject in the subordinate clause: *ти-ково оне не ви́дѣе* “those whom he did not see”.

Sometimes the meaning can be somewhat ambiguous, generally the result of the nominative and accusative case forms of *че* being identical:

- *Вѣм то-че оне дума́т.* *Věm to-ce óne dúmast.*  
“I know that he is thinking”, structured as [I know it][that he is thinking]. Here *то* is in the accusative case and *че* is in the nominative.
- *Вѣм то-че оне дума́т* *Věm to-ce óne dúmast.*  
“I know what he is thinking” or “I know that which he is thinking”, structured as [I know][that which][he is thinking]. Here both *то* and *че* are in the accusative case (since “that which” is the object of the thinking), but the form is identical because *че* is identical in both the nominative and accusative cases.

The difference between the two examples above is established through context and differing intonation. In the first example, emphasis is on the fact that he is thinking, so *дума́т* will have a stronger sentence-level stress on it. In the latter, emphasis is on whatever he is thinking about, so *то-че* will receive a stronger sentence stress.

The two halves can only be separated by a preposition modifying the second half: *ти со кем оне говори́л* *tí so kém óne govoríle* “those with whom he was speaking”.

Other interrogative elements may be used in the second half, although they are much less common: *не вѣ́ст то-како ше дѣ́лати* *ne věst to-káko še dělati* “He doesn’t know how to do this”. In this situation, *како* by itself may work just as well.

## 15.9 ‘Each Other’

There are two ways of expressing “each other”: verbally or pronominally.

Many middle-voice verbs with a plural subject inherently mean “each other”: Ондау препизовасташ *Onduá prepizovástaš* “The two of them are writing each other, corresponding”. This is not true of all verbs, though: Ондау миеташ *Onduá mǐjetaš* “The two of them are washing [themselves]”.

More commonly, the two-part reciprocal pronoun друх друга *drúh drúga* is used. The first part is unchanging, and represents a subject. The second part declines (fourth declension animate singular) to whatever case the other individual (who is not the subject) would be in. Prepositions may be placed in between the two halves, but the second half will have to be in whatever case that preposition requires.

- (43) Ондау видѣлѣ друх друга.  
*Onduá viděľě drúh drúga.*  
 they.NOM.DL see-PAST-DL one\_another-NOM one\_another-ACC  
 “The two of them saw one another.”
- (44) Они осбѣгали друх од друга.  
*Onǐ osběgǎli drúh od drúga.*  
 they.NOM run\_away-PAST-PL one\_another-NOM from one\_another-GEN  
 “They ran away from one another” (lit. “They ran away one from another”)
- (45) Ондау вехода думаста друх о другѣ.  
*Onduá vebodá dǔmasta drúh o drúgě.*  
 they.NOM.DL always think-3DL one\_another-NOM about one\_another-LOC  
 “The two of them always think about each other” (lit. “The two of them always think one about another”)

## 15.10 Redundant Pronouns

When the subject of a sentence is a third person dual or plural pronoun, whether implicit or explicit, it is common to further specify the relationship between the individuals being referred to using the construction NOUN.NOM WITH NOUN.DATINS. The first noun is always singular, while the second may be singular or plural. The two nouns are almost always closely associated semantically. This construction is frequently used even if the relationship is already clearly established contextually,

and tends to be located after the verb.

- (46) Ондау ож ошлѣ тата со мамой.  
*Onduá ož ošlě táta so mámoi.*  
 they.NOM.DL already leave.PF-PAST-DL father-NOM.SG with mother-DATINS.  
 SG  
 “They have already gone (dad and mom, that is).”
- (47) Они вие шли на спирањен друге со дружам.  
*Oní vijě šli na spiránjen drúge so družám.*  
 they.NOM all.NOM.PL go.DET.PAST-PL on party-LAT.SG friend-NOM.SG with  
 friend-DATINS.PL  
 “They all went to the party (and they’re all friends).”
- (48) Ондау шѣдита воунѣ миловей со миловоиун.  
*Onduá šědita vóuně mílovei so milóvoiun.*  
 they.NOM.DL sit-3DL outside boyfriend-NOM.SG with girlfriend-DATINS.SG  
 “They’re sitting outside (and they’re boyfriend and girlfriend).”

Novegradian also makes frequent use of resumptive pronouns. When a compound phrase with two or more independent clauses is relativized, resumptive pronouns are often, though not necessarily, left in the place of the displaced relative pronoun for all verbs after the first. If the antecedent is topicalized, the form *tó* is used; if it is not topicalized, regular personal pronouns are used.

- (49) Оне провезорем-то, котраево Радя лубит а Наталя ненавигъит тово.  
*Óne provezórem-to, kotráievo Rádia lúbit a Natália nenavígjit tovo.*  
 he.NOM professor-DATINS.SG-TOP, REL-ACC.SG.MASC.DEF Rádia-NOM love-  
 3SG whereas Natália-NOM hate-3SG TOP-ACC  
 “He’s the professor who Rádia loves but Natália hates [him].”
- (50) Оне – едене зе провезор, котор Радя лубит а Наталя ненавигъит их.  
*Óne – iédene ze provezór, kótor Rádia lúbit a Natália nenavígjit íh.*  
 he.NOM Ø one-NOM.SG.MASC from professor-GEN.PL, REL-GEN.PL Rádia-  
 NOM love-3SG whereas Natália-NOM hate-3SG they.ACC  
 “He’s one of the professors who Rádia loves but Natália hates [them].”

### 15.11 Еноке/Енка

The gendered quasi-pronouns еноке *ienoke* (masculine singular), енка *ienka* (feminine singular), and енки *ienki* (plural) do not translate directly into English. The closest equivalent is “the other one[s]” or “the rest [of us/you/them]”, when there is a specific person or people in mind. They decline as regular first (енка) or fourth (еноке/енки) declension animate nouns.

These pronouns are used far more frequently than “the others” is in English, and is pretty much the standard way of referring to other people within a particular defined group.

- (51) Муи егъе не охудим. Егъе зацегаме доваех енок.  
*Mui iegjé ne ohúdim. Iegjé zacegáme dóvaieh ienók.*  
 we.NOM still NEG leave.IMPF-1PL. still wait-1PL two.ANIM-GEN other\_people-GEN.PL  
*“We can’t leave yet. We’re still waiting for two other people.”*
- (52) Муи соглаѣамеш со тибѣ, но енки тако не муислат.  
*Mui soglaǵjámeš so tibě, no iénki táko ne muislát.*  
 we.NOM agree-1PL-MID with you.SG-DATINS, but other\_people-NOM.PL thus NEG think-3PL  
*“We agree with you, but the others do not.”*
- (53) Ото и есат Надаля, Елена и Суѣтлана. Ну и куде-и енка?  
*Óto i iésat Nadália, Ieléna i Suětlána. Nu i kudé-i iénka?*  
 EXPL EMPH be-3PL Nadália-NOM, Ieléna-NOM and Suětlána-NOM. so EMPH where-BE.3SG.CLITIC other\_female\_person-NOM.SG  
*“Here’s Nadália, Ieléna, and Suětlána. So where’s the other girl?” (not nearly as rude-sounding as in English)*

The definite adjective видорей/видоря/видорие *vidórei/vidóraia/vidórije* “[the] other[s]” cannot be substituted without a change in meaning. Еноке and its variants refer to a closed group of people, while видорей refer to an open, indefinite set. If видорих were substituted in example sentence 51 above, it would mean “We are waiting for two more people”, that is, any two people rather than two specific people. If видорие were substituted in sentence 52, it would mean “We agree with you, but other people do not”—again with a more indefinite sense. Видоря in sentence 53 would be nonsensical, perhaps like asking “Where is someone?”.





## *16.1 Morphology of Prepositions*

Novegradian prepositions exhibit a number of sandhi-related phenomena, changes to the form of the preposition or its object as a result of the phonological shape of the object. This is to be distinguished from case governance, described in detail starting with Section 16.2, which is the phenomenon of prepositions forcing certain cases onto their objects. One example has already been discussed, the stress shift seen sometimes with the locative prepositions во *vo* “in” and на *na* “on”.<sup>1</sup>

From a morphological/sandhi-based perspective, Novegradian prepositions can be divided into three subcategories, known as “three-form prepositions”, “two-form prepositions”, and “invariable prepositions”.

### **16.1.1 Three-Form Prepositions**

Three prepositions in Novegradian have three forms: vowelled, unvowelled, and extended. These are в(о) *υ(o)* “in”, с(о) *s(o)* “with”, and к(о) *k(o)* “toward”. The unvowelled forms are used before words beginning in a vowel or /j/ plus a vowel, and the fully-vowelled form in all other cases. A third form with /n/ (вон *von*, сон *son*, кон *kon*) is used with third person pronouns, as mentioned earlier, though it also appears before certain nouns beginning with /o/ or /e/.<sup>2</sup>

These prepositions also have a fourth, more archaic form, no longer used in speech, but still seen in poetry. If the following word begins with /j/ (unless it is a third person pronoun), the vowel of the prepositions becomes /e/: ве *ve*, се *se*, ке *ke*. This is the result of a sound change in the early language known as the vocalization of tense yers. These forms can still be seen in the modern language only in a few set phrases, such as ве ймѣно *ve jměno* “in the name [of]” and ве йстинѣ *vé jstině* “in truth, truthfully”. Note the spelling: initial /i/ is always respelt as Ъ in

1 Section 5.12

2 See Section 16.1.4

these expressions.

### 16.1.2 Two-Form Prepositions

All other unanalyzable prepositions that end in a vowel are two-form prepositions, a uniquely Novegradian innovation. Before nouns beginning with a vowel, they gain a final /β/ to prevent vowel hiatus: до войнѣ *do voine* “before the war”, дов атакѣ *dov atákě* “before the attack”.

The form with /β/ is used whenever the following word begins with a vowel, whether it is a noun or adjective. It even appears before vowels that force an allophonic glide, such as initial /e/ [je]; the glide remains in place. The only exception is with the third person pronouns, where the form without /β/ is always used: деля ево *délia ievó* “for him”, never \*\*деляв ево *déliav ievó*.

The preposition противе *prótime* “against, in comparison with” historically always had the /β/ in its stem, but acquired its current quirky forms through partial analogy with these other two form prepositions. Unlike the others, it loses its final /e/ before words beginning with a vowel: против окну *prótiβ óknu* “in comparison with the window”.

### 16.1.3 Invariable Prepositions

Invariable prepositions are prepositions that end in a consonant, or are still transparently analyzable. These do not show any significant allophony other than predictable phenomena such as voicing assimilation, which is never indicated in writing.

### 16.1.4 Sandhi in the Prepositional Object

When a three-form or two-form preposition is placed before certain nouns beginning with /e/ or /o/, the sandhi becomes much more involved. This only applies to nouns that in Old Novegradian began with /i/ or /u/, which later lowered to /e/ and /o/. Nouns that historically began with /e/ or /o/ are not affected.

In this situation, both three-form and two-form prepositions take their expanded forms, with -/n/ and -/β/ respectively. The first vowel of the object is then raised from /e/ to /i/ or from /o/ to /u/. These extended prepositions blocked the vowel lowering from ever occurring: oxy óhu “ear” → вон ухесе *von úhesē* “in the ear”; Еване *Ieváne* “Ieváne” → ов Ивана *ov Ivána* “at Ieváne[’s house]”; острѣ *óstu* “lip” → нав устрѣх *nav ustěh* “on the lips”, etc.

No change occurs if there is an adjective or other modifier between the preposi-

tion and noun, nor does it affect adjectives and other modifiers that themselves underwent this historical lowering.

## 16.2 Locative Prepositions

Locative prepositions in Novegradian have traditionally been divided into three classes, known as primary, secondary, and tertiary.

Primary locative prepositions include only *во* “in”, *на* “on”, *по* “along, by”, and *па* “by, in the immediate vicinity of”. They all require the locative case and can also be used as directionals (see following section). *Во* and *на* are not used in exactly the same way as in English. *На* “on” is generally used whenever an open, unenclosed space is involved (*на паркѣ* “in the park”, *на Рошзиѣ* “in Russia”) and *во* “in” when the space is enclosed or in reference to a city (*во школѣ* “in the school”, *во Паришѣ* “in Paris”).

Secondary prepositions are those describing location relative to a single object, as the primary ones do, but which cannot also serve as directionals. Each instead has a directional equivalent. These are used with the genitive or dative/instrumental cases.<sup>3</sup>

<i>близе</i> <i>blize</i> + GEN “near to”	<i>вои</i> <i>von</i> + GEN “far from”
<i>вонутри</i> <i>vonutri</i> + GEN “inside”	<i>воунѣ</i> <i>vouně</i> + GEN “outside”
<i>зад</i> <i>zad</i> + DATINS “behind”	<i>над</i> <i>nad</i> + DATINS “over, above”
<i>налѣвѣ</i> <i>nalěvě</i> + GEN “to the left of”	<i>направѣ</i> <i>naprǎvě</i> + GEN “to the right of”
<i>о</i> <i>o</i> + GEN “at, next to”	<i>под</i> <i>pod</i> + DATINS “under”
<i>пакрай</i> <i>pákrǎi</i> + GEN “at the edge of”	<i>пред</i> <i>pred</i> + DATINS “in front of”

Tertiary locative prepositions represent all others, most of which require the

<sup>3</sup> The prepositions *над* *nad* “over”, *под* *pod* “under”, *пред* *pred* “in front of”, and *зад* *zad* “behind” are sometimes considered primary and sometimes secondary. They can be made directional by switching to the lative case like other primary prepositions, but they can never take the locative case. Ultimately, however, this is little more than a matter of classification and bears little real significance.

genitive. These do not have directional equivalents. They include *вмести* *vmésti* “between”, *около* *ogólo* “around”, and *при* *pri* “amid, among, during”.

*Вмести* often takes two arguments (“between X and Y”), so a note should be made about how to separate them. The conjunction *и* *i* “and” must be used to separate the two arguments, while *со* *so* is used to make compound argument. Therefore a phrase such as “between [X and Y] and [Z]” is rendered “*вмести* X.GEN *со* Y.DATINS *и* Z.GEN”.

*Около* has been mentioned earlier; when used with numbers, it means “approximately”. However, its usage here is adverbial, and so the number does not need to take the genitive case. When used in the spatial sense of “around”, it is prepositional, and requires the genitive case: *около* *дому* *ogólo dúmu* “around the house”.

### 16.3 Directional Prepositions

The directional prepositions indicate movement toward or away from a place. The primary locative prepositions can be made directional by simply changing their object from the locative case to the lative: *во* “into”, *на* “onto”, *по* “after” (in order, not time), *па* “into the vicinity of”.

For secondary locative prepositions, there are two options. For the nominal or “noun-like” prepositions, the case of the nominal element of the preposition is changed. For the unanalyzable ones, there is either no change (other than requiring the lative or dative/instrumental case for the object) or a distinct preposition is used.

ВОН <i>von</i> + LAT “to the outside of”	ДО <i>do</i> + GEN “up to”
ЗАД <i>zad</i> + LAT “to the back of”	КО <i>ko</i> + DATINS “to, toward”
КОЛѢВОМ <i>kolěvom</i> + GEN “to the left of”	КОПРАВОМ <i>koprávom</i> + GEN “to the right of”
НАД <i>nad</i> + LAT “over”	НИМО <i>nímo</i> + GEN “past”
НУТРИН <i>nutrín</i> + GEN “to the inside of”	ПАКРАЕН <i>pákraien</i> + GEN “to the edge of”
ПОД <i>pod</i> + LAT “under”	ПРЕД <i>pred</i> + LAT “to the front of”
ТРЕС <i>trés</i> + GEN “across”	

Movement away is handled with the three prepositions *ze ze* “from”, *co so* “from [on top of]”, and *od od* “away from”, which are the counterparts of *во*, *на*, and *по/па/о*, respectively. The -d form prepositions take a prefixed *ze-*: *зезад zezád* “from behind”, *зенад zenád* “from over”, *зебод zebód* “from under”. \*\*Зепред is not used. *Вон* and *нутрин* become *суон suon* “from outside” and *снутри snutrí* “from inside”, based on *co* rather than *ze*. Other noun-like prepositions require periphrastic constructions, although “left” and “right” may use the prepositionalized adverbs used for the locative and other directional forms (*слѣва/соправа*). All of the above require the genitive case.

## 16.4 Temporal Prepositions

Novegradian recycles spatial prepositions for temporal functions. The most commonly used temporal prepositions are *до do* + GEN “until”, *за za* + DATINS “after”, *пред pred* + DATINS “before”, *трес tres* + ACC “within” (note the form *за* instead of *зад*). Less common ones include:

- *во vo* + ACC “in, during” (when referring to a specific event occurring within a long period of time; for example, “X happened during the war”)
- *за za* + ACC “over, in”
- *ко ko* + DATINS “by”
- *по po* + DATINS “during” (when referring to a specific event occurring within a short period of time; for example, “X happened during the flight”)
- *по po* + LOC “upon” (e.g., “upon completion”)
- *при pri* + LOC “in, during, throughout” (when referring to a span of time; for example, “during his rule the country entered a time of prosperity”)

*При pri* + LOC can also be “during the time of”, an expression particularly common in describing rulers: *при Петрѣ пирвѣм pri Pétrě Pírvěim* “during the reign of Peter I”.

Most other concepts require periphrastic constructions, such as *со ших врѣмен so ših vrěmén* + GEN “since”, literally “from the times of”, or the more formal variant *со тада врѣмена so tadá vrěmena* + GEN “from such a time of”.

See Section 12.3 “The Accusative Case” for more information and examples of the use of the accusative case in time expressions.

## 16.5 The Distributive По

The preposition *по* *po* is also used in distributive expressions, a construction common in each of the Slavic languages in some form or another. In Novegradian, the *по* distributive is difficult to classify; it is a prepositional phrase that acts as a noun and displays some unusual internal agreement.

The basic meaning of this construction is “each”, indicating that the noun within it is to be multiplied rather than divided among multiple groups. For example, a sentence such as “The ten students received 50 marks” in Novegradian would mean that the 50 marks were divided among the ten students, whereas “The ten students received ‘по’ 50 marks” indicates that each received 50.

The construction is formed by placing the noun to be distributed in the dative/instrumental case after the preposition *по*. However, if the noun is quantified by any number other than “one” (or 21, 31, 41, 101, etc), the numeral instead must be in the accusative case and the noun regularly in the count form or genitive.

The distributive *по* phrase may act as either the subject or the direct object of a verb. As the direct object, it indicates that each subject is acting on that amount of objects. If the subject of a transitive verb is modified by the adjective *кожне* *kóžne* “each, every”, the direct object will almost always be a *по* distributive.

- (1) Кожне студенте приймѣле по пиннацити марек.  
*Kóžne studente prijměle po pinnáciti márek.*  
 each-NOM.SG.MASC student-NOM.SG receive-PAST-MASC DIST fifty-ACC  
 mark-GEN.PL  
*“Each student received 50 marks.”*
- (2) О ва треба цидати по три нигѣ трес лѣтена.  
*O vá tréba cidáti po trí nígě tres lětena.*  
 at you.LAT.PL need-NOM.SG read-INF DIST three.ACC book-COUNT across  
 summer-GEN.SG  
*“You each need to read three books over the summer.”*

When acting as a subject, the *по* phrase is forced after the verb; it may not appear sentence-initially. The verb always shows neuter, third person singular agreement.

- (3) Со кожна дрѣвеса пагло по яблоком.  
*So kózna drěvesa páglo po iáblokom.*  
 from each-GEN.SG.NEUT tree-GEN.SG fall.PF-PAST-NEUT DIST apple-DATINS.  
 SG  
*"An apple fell from each tree."*
- (4) О кожна думу бадет по башзейнем.  
*O kózna dúmu bádet po bašzéinem.*  
 at each-GEN.SG.MASC house-GEN.SG be.FUT-3SG DIST swimming\_pool-  
 DATINS.SG  
*"There will be a swimming pool at each house."*

The expression по колкѣ? *po kólkě?* is the interrogative form for "how many each?". Note that this expression can come sentence-initially.

- (5) По колкѣ яс име надо би пладити?  
*Po kólkě iás íme nádo bi pladíti?*  
 DIST how\_much I.NOM they.DATINS should SUBJ.SG pay-INF  
*"How much am I supposed to pay them each?"*

## 16.6 Stress Shifts in Prepositional Phrases

In Novegradian prepositions are generally unstressed, merging into the stress system of whatever word follows it. However, for certain nouns, stress in a prepositional phrase actually shifts off the noun and onto the preposition: на стољен *ná stolen* "onto the table", со дружам *só družam* "with friends", etc.

For this shift to take place, the following conditions must be true:

1. The preposition must be monosyllabic and end in a vowel (на, ко, со, во, про, до, зе, etc)
2. The noun stem must be monosyllabic
3. The noun stem cannot end in a consonant cluster (so на картѣ *na kártě* "on a map", since the stem is \*kart-)
4. The noun cannot be a recent loan; it must be well established
5. The noun cannot begin in a vowel, /j/, or /w/ (i.e., anything that would cause prepositions such as во "in" to reduce to в or expand with -n or -v)
6. The noun cannot be second, fifth, or sixth declension

This shift only occurs when the noun immediately follows the preposition. Any

intervening adjective, modifier, or quantifier will prevent the stress shift, leaving the preposition unstressed.

In the locative case, the stress shift will cause the locative case ending to drop entirely: во дум *vó dum* “in a house”.

## 16.7 “For”

There are three Novegradian equivalents of “for” not yet discussed. The dative/instrumental case alone and temporal senses of “for” were discussed earlier. The remaining constructions are *деля* *délia* + GEN, *за* *za* + ACC, and *за* *za* + DATINS.

*Деля* *délia* marks whom an action benefits, and is the most frequently used of these three.

- (6) Она написала ше репорте *деля* мене.  
*Oná napizála še repórte délia mené.*  
 she.NOM write.PF-PAST-FEM this.ACC.SG.MASC report-ACC.SG for I.GEN  
*“She wrote this report for me.”*

*За* *za* with the accusative case marks an exchange of some sort.

- (7) Яс покренале суою нову лодю *за* 70.000 марек.  
*Iás pokrenále suoiú nóvu lódiu za 70.000 márek.*  
 I.NOM buy.PF-PAST-MASC REFLX\_POSS-ACC.SG.FEM new-ACC.SG.FEM boat-ACC.SG for 70,000 mark-GEN.PL  
*“I bought my new boat for 70 000 marks.”*
- (8) Аття *за* помокѣи, котре ти мнѣ содагле.  
*Attiá za pómokji, kótre tí mně sodágle.*  
 thanks for help-ACC.SG, REL-ACC.SG.MASC you.NOM I.DATINS give.PF-PAST-MASC  
*“Thanks for the help you’ve given me.”*

“For” in the sense of “to get” (i.e., purpose or end) is expressed using *за* *za* and the dative/instrumental case. This can also be used when “for” is functioning as a mild sort of “because of”.



- (9) Оне вуиѣхале за бензи́нем.  
*Óne vuijěhale za benzínem.*  
 he.NOM go\_out\_by\_vehicle.PF-PAST-MASC for gasoline-DATINS.SG  
*"He went out for gasoline."*
- (10) Оне-и во Моске́ве за заше́днемъ.  
*Óne-i vo Móskeve za zasědnemъ.*  
 he.NOM-be.3SG.CLITIC in Moscow-LOC for meeting-DATINS.SG  
*"He is in Moscow for a meeting."*

## 16.8 "Along"

There are three constructions that can be used to mean "along".

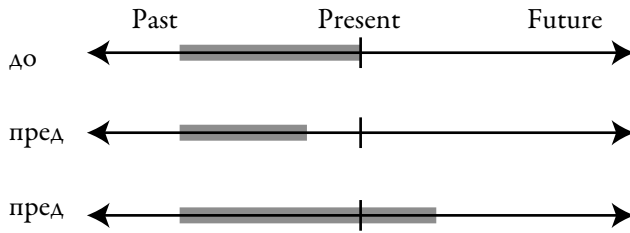
По *po* + LOC and при *pri* + LOC are used in the same way as the derivational equivalents<sup>4</sup>. По is used to mean along some sort of linear path, such as a road, pathway, or river. При is used to mean along a coastline. Note, however, that you say на бере́гъ *na béregě* "along the coast" (with "on"), but прив е́жегъ *priv iězerě* "along the lake[shore]". In other words, the preposition при is only used when its object is an actual body of water.

По *po* + DATINS is used to mean "along" (in the temporal sense) or "during" when its object is some sort of reference to travelling: по панте́м *po pantém* "along the way", по полете́м *po póletem* "along the flight".

## 16.9 "Before" and "After"

The prepositions пре́д *pred* + DATINS and до́ *do* + GEN both translate as "before". However, до́ refers to a period of time stretching from some moment in the past to (but not including) the reference point, while пре́д can refer to any period of time before the reference point. In addition, до́ emphasizes that the action does not continue after the reference point, while пре́д makes no statement regarding this. For example, given a sentence such as "There were many protests before the war", with пре́д this means there were a number of protests that took place at some point before the war began and they may or may not have continued after the war began; with до́, this means there was a period of protesting that ended when the war began.

The distinction may be diagrammed as follows:



Due to the strong implication of lack of continuation that *до* gives, it is almost always used to mean “before” when something is being contrasted to what happens after, e.g., *до войнѣ do voině* “before the war [as opposed to after it]”.

The prepositions *за za* + DATINS and *цѣнайсо cěnáiso* + DATINS both mean “after”, the distinction being the same as between *перед* and *до*. *Цѣнайсо* refers to a period beginning at the reference point and stretching into the future, while *за* simply refers to any period of time after the reference point (and may even include events taking place before the reference point).

## 16.10 Various Uses of *во*

The preposition *во vo* + LOC, in addition to its basic meaning “in”, has a number of more idiomatic meanings as well.

This construction may broadly mean “covered in”. It is impossible to provide an all-encompassing gloss as this often is translated into English using a variety of different constructions.

- (11) Ево дум-от в огни!  
*Ievó dum-ót v ogní!*  
 his house-NOM.SG-TOP in fire-LOC.SG  
 “His house is on fire!”
- (12) Рѣга-та во лед.  
*Rěgá-ta vó led.*  
 river-NOM.SG-TOP in ice-LOC.SG  
 “The river is frozen over.” (lit. “in ice”)

- (13) Носе ему буиле во креве за сосорой.

*Nóse iemú buile vo kréve za sósoroi.*

nose-NOM.SG he-DATINS be-PAST-MASC in blood-LOC.SG after fight-DATINS.

SG

*“His nose was bloody after the fight.” (lit. “in blood”)*

The expression во шем *vo šém* “in this/that” can also mean “because of that” (referring to a previous statement) as well as “responsible/accountable for that”. These idioms cannot take other nominal arguments, though the conjunction во том-це *vo tóm-ce* “responsible for ensuring that” can be used to elaborate on what one is responsible for.

- (14) Во шем яс занок не идун на работун.

*Vo šém iás zánok ne idún na rabótun.*

in this-LOC.SG I.NOM NEG go.DET-1SG on work-LAT.SG

*“Because of that I’m not going to go to work tomorrow.”*

- (15) Не тривожиш про созддой. Яс во шем.

*Ne trivožíš pro sózdoi. Iás vo šém.*

NEG alarm-2SG.IMPER-MID because\_of past\_event-DATINS.SG. I.NOM Ø in this-LOC.SG.

*“Don’t worry about what happened. I’m responsible for it.”*

- (16) Муи во том-це вие ђснѣ и вуиношекѣ работати.

*Muí vo tóm-ce vijé iěsně i vuinóšekjě rabótati.*

we.NOM Ø in REL.LOC.SG-that.NOM all.NOM.PL accurate-ADV and efficient-ADV work-3PL

*“We’re responsible for ensuring that everyone works accurately and efficiently.”*

## 16.11 Alienable and Inalienable “With” and “Without”

Novegradian has two words that translate as “with”, со *so* + DATINS and ими *imi* + ACC, and two as “without”, бес *bes* + GEN and ними *nimi* + GEN. The difference has to do with the nature of the possession involved.

Ими *imi* “with” and ними *nimi* “without” represent alienable possession, that is, possession of a temporary nature that generally involves physically carrying an

item. The possessor and possessed item are viewed as strongly distinct and somewhat distanced from one another. For this reason, *ими* is frequently translated as “[while] taking along” and *ними* as “[while] not taking”. *Ними* can also mean “despite not having”.

- (17) Надаляшла саймен ими торте.

*Nadália šlá sáimen imí tórtē.*

Nadália-NOM go.DET-PAST-FEM party-LAT.SG with cake-ACC.SG

“Nadália went to the party with (bringing along) a cake.”

- (18) Оне ошле ними куртъ.

*Óne ošlé nimí kúrtě.*

he.NOM leave.PF-PAST-MASC without jacket-GEN.SG

“He left without a jacket.”

- (19) Оне ше забудовале ними кия.

*Óne šé zabudovále nimí kija.*

he.NOM this.ACC.SG build.PF-PAST-MASC without hammer-GEN.SG

“He built this despite not having a hammer.”

*Ими* also has the additional function of indicating the reason for an action when that reason is an abstract noun, such as *ими бланде imí blánde* “by mistake” or *ими глупости imí glúposti* “out of stupidity”.

Со *so* “with” and без *bes* “without” indicate inalienable possession, when the possessor and possessed item are inseparable or closely associated. They also indicate accompaniment, and thus are required whenever their objects are animate.

- (20) Надаляшла саймен со дружам.

*Nadália šlá sáimen só družam.*

Nadália-NOM.SG go.DET-PAST-FEM party-LAT.SG with friend-DATINS.PL

“Nadália went to the party with friends.”

- (21) Оне на вие ходѣ худит сон у мем.

*Óne na vijé hódě húdit son úmem.*

he.NOM on all.LAT.PL path-LAT.PL go.INDET-3SG with-N mind-DATINS.SG

“He always keeps a level head.” (lit. “He goes everywhere with his mind”)

- (22) Оне забудовале ше дум бес кровин!

*Óne zabudovále šé dúm bes króvin!*

he.NOM build.PF-PAST-MASC this.ACC.SG.MASC house-ACC.SG without roof-  
GEN.SG

*“He built this house without a roof!”*

Co with the dative-instrumental case also have a number of other functions, such as indicating compound noun phrases, but these are not relevant here.

## 16.12 При

При *pri* is perhaps the most difficult preposition to explain for speakers of English. It has a number of different meanings, all broadly signifying “connected to”.

- by, near, at, along:  
при сотокъ рѣк *pri sótokě řek*  
“at the confluence of the rivers”
- of (in the names of battles and certain other events):  
битуа при Шелони *bítua pri Šeloní*  
“battle of Šeloní”  
договоре при Паришѣ *dogovóre pri Paríšě*  
“Treaty of Paris”
- under (organizations):  
консле при МНД *kónsle pri MND*  
“department under the Ministry of Internal Affairs”
- in the presence of:  
при нем *pri ném*  
“in his presence”  
при сугѣи *pri súgji*  
“before the judge”
- in the time of, under:  
при царѣ Мециславѣ *pri cárě Mecislávě*  
“under Tsar Mecislau”  
при вѣкѣ Римескѣе емпирин *pri věķě Rimesķěie iempírin*  
“in the time of the Roman Empire”

- at (some level):  
при тихъ теплотъ *pri tihě teplótě*  
“at room temperature”  
прив уравеньи мора *priv uravenjĭ móra*  
“at sea level”
- at (an event as a specific point in time):  
при россуѣтъ *pri róssuěťě*  
“at sunrise”  
при пирвѣ снѣгѣ *pri pírvě sněgě*  
“at the first snow”
- with, for (an abstract quality):  
при ево стравияхъ *pri ievó stravijáh*  
“with his health (...he should be more careful)”  
при таѣ вѣдѣньѣ *pri tadě věděnjě*  
“for such knowledge (...he couldn’t answer easy questions)”

При may also be used with the lative case when the verb is indicating connecting two things together:

- (23) Постави ше забато ко́ло при видору́юн.  
*Postavĭ šé zabáto kólo pri vidóruiun.*  
fit.PF-2SG.IMPER this-NOM.SG.NEUT toothed-NOM.SG.NEUT wheel-NOM.SG by  
other-LAT.SG.NEUT.DEF  
“Connect this cogwheel to the other one.” (lit. “Fit this cogwheel by the other”)
- (24) Приве́ѣи ша верви при ду́ерин.  
*Priveǵjĭ šá vérvĭ pri dúerin.*  
tie.PF-2SG.IMPER this-NOM.SG.FEM string-NOM.SG by door-LAT.SG  
“Tie this string to the door.”

## 16.13 Table of Prepositions

Following is a comprehensive table of Novegradian prepositions.

Preposition	Meaning	Case	Additional Notes
бес <i>bes</i>	without, empty of	GEN	
близе <i>blize</i>	near to, close to	GEN	
вместі <i>vměsti</i>	between	GEN	
во <i>vo</i>	in, during	ACC	Three forms: во, в, вон, (ве). Refers to something occurring within a long period of time, such as “during the war”
во <i>vo</i>	in, at	LOC	Three forms: во, в, вон, (ве).
во <i>vo</i>	into	LAT	Three forms: во, в, вон, (ве).
вовігду <i>vovíglu</i>	on the eve of, on the day before	GEN	
возаутру <i>vozáutru</i>	on the day after	GEN	
вокруги <i>vókragi</i>	around, surrounding	GEN	
вон <i>von</i>	far from	GEN	
вон <i>von</i>	to the outside of	LAT	
вонутрі <i>vonutrí</i>	inside, inside of	GEN	
воунѣ <i>vóuně</i>	outside of	GEN	
для <i>dělia</i>	for, for the sake of	GEN	
до <i>do</i>	1) up to 2) before, up to 3) until	GEN	Both spatial and temporal senses.
єне неж <i>iené než</i>	unlike, different from	ACC	First adjectival portion declines in nominative case: єне <i>iené</i> , єна <i>iená</i> , єно <i>ienó</i> , єни <i>iení</i> .

Preposition	Meaning	Case	Additional Notes
за <i>za</i>	1) for, in exchange for 2) in, over	ACC	Sense 2 is temporal.
за <i>za</i>	1) after 2) for, in order to get	DATINS	Sense 1 is temporal. Sense 2 is as in “He went out for milk”.
зад <i>zad</i>	behind, beyond	DATINS	
зад <i>zad</i>	to the back of, to beyond	LAT	
зе <i>ze</i>	from	GEN	The counterpart of locative во, i.e., from an enclosed area or city
зѣбод <i>zebód</i>	from under	GEN	
зѣзад <i>zezád</i>	from behind	GEN	
зенад <i>zenád</i>	from over, from above	GEN	
ими <i>imí</i>	1) with 2) out of, because of	ACC	Sense 1 is used with inanimate nouns to indicate alienable possession. Sense 2 used to give a reason for an action, such as “by mistake” or “out of stupidity”.
ко <i>ko</i>	1) to, towards 2) by	DATINS	Three forms: ко, к, кон, (ке). Sense 2 is temporal, e.g., “by next week”.
колѣвом <i>kolěvom</i>	towards the left of	GEN	
коправом <i>koprávom</i>	towards the right of	GEN	
кроми <i>krómi</i>	1) except for, excluding 2) in addition to	GEN	
мегъу <i>mégju</i>	during, in the course of	DATINS	



Preposition	Meaning	Case	Additional Notes
на <i>na</i>	for	ACC	Refers to time after an action takes place, as in “he was sent there for a week”.
на <i>na</i>	on, at, in, on top of	LOC	Refers to open, unenclosed spaces (including such words as “park” or “Europe”).
на <i>na</i>	onto, into	LAT	Refers to open, unenclosed spaces (including such words as “park” or “Europe”).
над <i>nad</i>	over, above	DATINS	
над <i>nad</i>	to over, to above	LAT	
налево <i>nalěve</i>	to the left of	GEN	
наместе <i>naměsti</i>	instead of	GEN	
направо <i>naprávě</i>	to the right of	GEN	
напроти <i>napróti</i>	opposite, across from	GEN	
непозшъ <i>nepózšě</i>	no than than, as soon as	ACC	
ними <i>nimí</i>	without	GEN	Used with inanimate nouns to indicate alienable lack of possession.
нимо <i>nímo</i>	1) despite 2) past, by	GEN	
нутрин <i>nutrín</i>	to the inside of	GEN	
о <i>o</i>	at, next to, at someone’s house	GEN	
о <i>o</i>	about, concerning	LOC	
о <i>o</i>	against	LAT	Refers to something directed against a physical object, such as in “beat against”.

Preposition	Meaning	Case	Additional Notes
ого́ло <i>ogóto</i>	around	GEN	
о́д <i>od</i>	from, away from	GEN	The counterpart of locative по/ па/o, i.e., from near, from the vicinity of.
па <i>pa</i>	by, in the imme- diate vicinity of	LOC	
па <i>pa</i>	into the immedi- ately vicinity of	LAT	
па вех <i>pa véh</i>	throughout, to all parts of	LAT	
пакраен <i>pákraien</i>	to the edge of	GEN	
пакрай <i>pákrai</i>	at the edge of	GEN	
по <i>po</i>	1) as far as, up to 2) within	ACC	Sense 1 refers vertical distance, as in “snow up to one’s knees”. Sense 2 is temporal, as in “within ten minutes”.
по <i>po</i>	along, during, during the course of	DATINS	Refers to something during an event occurring over a short period of time, such as “during the flight”
по <i>po</i>	1) along 2) upon 3) according to	LOC	Sense 1 is locative, along a linear path such as road or river. Sense 2 is temporal, as in “upon completion”.
по <i>po</i>	after	LAT	After in order, not time.
пого́лом <i>pogótom</i>	around, across, all over, throughout	GEN	
по́д <i>pod</i>	under, beneath	DATINS	
по́д <i>pod</i>	to under	LAT	
послѣ <i>póslě</i>	since	GEN	

Preposition	Meaning	Case	Additional Notes
посрѣди <i>posrědi</i>	by means of, by	GEN	
пред <i>pred</i>	1) in front of 2) before	DATINS	
пред <i>pred</i>	to the front of	LAT	
при <i>pri</i>	1) along 2) amid, amongst 3) at the time of, in the presence of	LOC	Sense 1 refers to coastlines.
при <i>pri</i>	to next to	LAT	
при помощи <i>pri pomogji</i>	via, through, with the help of, by means of	GEN	
про <i>pro</i>	because of	DATINS	
противе <i>protive</i>	1) against, counter 2) in comparison with	GEN	
ради <i>rádi</i>	for the sake of	GEN	
разом со <i>razom so</i>	together with, alongside	DATINS	
скож <i>skóž</i>	across, stradling, on both sides of	GEN	
снутри <i>snutri</i>	from inside of	GEN	
со <i>so</i>	from, off of	GEN	Three forms: со, с, соң, (се). The counterpart of locative на, i.e., from an unenclosed space.
со <i>so</i>	with	DATINS	Three forms: со, с, соң, (се).
слѣва <i>slěva</i>	from the left of	GEN	

Preposition	Meaning	Case	Additional Notes
соправа <i>sopráva</i>	from the right of	GEN	
суон <i>suón</i>	from outside	GEN	
супроди <i>suprodí</i>	1) contrary to 2) opposed to, anti	GEN	
тастранѣ <i>tástraně</i>	across from, on the opposite side of	GEN	
трес <i>tres</i>	1) across 2) through	GEN	
трес <i>tres</i>	within	ACC	Temporally, as in “within an hour”.
ценайсо <i>cenáiso</i>	after	DATINS	Temporal sense only.

## 17.1 Coordinating Conjunctions

Novegradian has four coordinating conjunctions: и *i*, или *ili*, а *a*, and но *no*.

И *i* corresponds to English “and”, and is used to join together two or more clauses or more than two adjectives or nouns.

- (1) Они вецераш пришли и занок ойдут.  
*Oní véceras̄ prišli i zánok oidút.*  
 they.NOM yesterday arrive.PF.PAST-PL and tomorrow leave.PF-3PL  
*“They came yesterday and leave tomorrow.”*
- (2) Бракѣи мои Мѣха, Влăдя и Вăня вѣс оѣ суѣдаци дѣвушкам.  
*Brákji mojı́ Miha, Vlădia i Vănia víjé ož suídaci děvuškam.*  
 brother-NOM.PL my.NOM.PL Mihajile.DIMIN-NOM, Vladímire.DIMIN-NOM  
 and Ieváne.DIMIN-NOM all.NOM.PL already date-3PL-MID girl-DATINS.PL  
*“My brothers Miha, Vlădia, and Vănia are all already dating.”*

When dealing with just two nouns or adjectives, the preposition со *so* “with” must be used instead. When the subject of a verb, dual agreement is still used despite the fact that only one noun is in the nominative case.

- (3) Тата со мамой еѣжинаста ресторăнѣ „Каукăзе”.  
*Tăta so mámoi ieužínasta restorăně “Kaukăze”.*  
 father-NOM.SG with mother-DATINS.SG eat\_dinner-3DL restaurant-LOC.SG  
 “Caucasus-NOM”  
*“Father and mother are eating at the Kaukăze restaurant.”*

The expression и со *i so* can be used in any situation where conjunctive со *so*

can, and indicates a greater dissociation comparable to English “as well as”.

- (4) Маша и со браќам ѝ прихуѓат.  
*Máša i só brakjam iě prihúdat.*  
 Máša-NOM and with brother-DATINS.PL her come.IMPV-3PL  
*“Máša, as well as her brothers, is coming.”*

Where English uses a singular pronoun in expressions such as “Maria and I”, Novegradian uses the dual—Надуа со Маријѝ *Naduá so Marijoi* (lit. “the two of us with Marija”). The intent here is that the pronoun надуа is the true subject, with со Маријѝ serving as a modifier. Novegradian can make the “inclusive we” versus “exclusive we” distinction this way: надуа со тибѝ *naduá so tibě* “you and I” versus надуа сон ему *naduá son iemú* “he and I”.

When dealing with two adjectives, и may be used instead of со only when the two adjectives describe the same object instead of describing two different ones. This allows a distinction to be made simply where English requires a longer construction. When со is used, the second adjective must be definite since it is representing a separate noun.

- (5) Принези мнѝ тарѣлки шинѝ и бѣли.  
*Prinezí mně tarělki šinji i běli.*  
 carry\_to.PF-2SG.IMPV I.DATINS plate-NOM.PL blue-NOM.PL and white-NOM.  
 PL  
*“Bring me the blue and white plates.” (the plates that are both blue and white)*
- (6) Принези мнѝ тарѣлки шинѝ со бѣлиѝ.  
*Prinezí mně tarělki šinji so bělijemi.*  
 carry\_to.PF-2SG.IMPV I.DATINS plate-NOM.PL blue-NOM.PL with white-  
 DATINS.PL.DEF  
*“Bring me the blue plates and the white plates.”*

Ho *no* is the equivalent of “but”, emphasizing contrast between two clauses.

- (7) Јас велѝм хотѣла ис концертен, но ими несѝстѝја не моѓла.  
*Iás vélem hótěla ís koncérten, no ímí nesestíjǎ ne mǒglǎ.*  
 I.NOM very want-PAST-FEM go.DET-SUP concert-LAT.SG, but with disfor-  
 tune-ACC.PL NEG be\_able-PAST-FEM  
*“I really wanted to go to the concert, but unfortunately I couldn’t.”*

The conjunction *a* expresses a mild contrast, a state comparable to but not the same as the first clause. It functions much like “whereas” or “but rather”, although is often translated as “and” or “but”.

- (8) Мой самолёт поледит во 7.00, а ъ во 9.30.  
*Mói samoléde poledít vo 7.00, a iě'vo 9.30.*  
 my.NOM.SG.MASC airplane-NOM.SG PF-fly-3SG in 7.00, whereas her in 9.30  
*“My airplane leaves at 7:00, and hers at 9:30.”*
- (9) Не пѣнѣюн, а станун товаришном.  
*Ne pianěiun, a stánun továřišnom.*  
 NEG become\_drunk-1SG, rather become-1SG sociable-DATINS.SG.MASC  
*“I’m not getting drunk, I’m just becoming sociable.”*

Или *ili* is Novegradian’s disjunction, meaning “or”.

- (10) Ти хокѣш брѣген шу шемицу или наступнаю?  
*Tí hókješ brěgen šú šemicu ili nastúpnaiu?*  
 you.NOM want-2SG beach-LAT.SG this.ACC.SG.FEM week-ACC.SG or next-  
 ACC.SG.FEM.DEF  
*“Do you want to go to the beach this week or next?”*

The third person nominative pronouns *оне óne*, *она oná*, *ондуа onduá*, and *они oní* lose their first vowel when immediately preceded by the conjunctions *и* or *a*. They are written as a single hyphenated word: *и-не i-ne* “and he”, *а-на a-ná* “whereas she”, *и-нддуа i-nduá* “and the two of them”, *а-ни a-ní* “whereas they”.

In addition, *a* + *яс* contract into *ас as* “whereas I”, though *и яс* “and I” never contracts. Curiously, *ас* now frequently shows up before all *a* + pronoun constructions, having lost its original meaning: *ас а ти as a tí* “whereas you”, *ас а-на as a-ná* “whereas she”. However, “whereas I” remains simply *ас as*. This phenomenon will be elaborated in Section 22.

## 17.2 Subordinating Conjunctions

Novegradian only has a few distinct forms for subordinating conjunctions, *анно* and *ли* being the most common. The majority of conjunctions are either other parts of speech (such as an adverbial participle) or a phrase, often involving the *то-це* construction.

Анно *ánno* means “if”, and is only used in indicative-mood conditionals (e.g., “if you came”, “if you’re coming”, “if you came”). The subjunctive forms елиб *íelib* and бадеб *bádeb* are used in nonfuture and future hypothetical subjunctive-mood-conditionals respectively (“if you were to have come”/“if you were coming”, “if you were to come”). In hypothetical conditionals, both halves of the sentence must be in the subjunctive mood.

- (11) Занок бадун на зашѣденьѣ-те анно музеш мене осбрати со деневаево.  
*Zánok báduŋ na zašěděnjě-te áнно múzeš mené osbráti so deneváievo.*  
 tomorrow be.FUT-1SG on meeting-LOC.SG-TOP if be\_able-2SG I.ACC  
 bring\_from-INF from today’s-GEN.SG.MASC.DEF  
*“I’ll come to the meeting tomorrow if you can get me out of it today.”*
- (12) Елиб вѣгла яс то-це прийдеш, пекала би яс торте.  
*Iélib věglá iás tó-ce prijděš, peklá bi iás tórtē.*  
 if.NONFUT.SUBJ know-PAST-FEM I.NOM REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM arrive-2SG,  
 bake-PAST-FEM SUBJ.SG I.NOM cake-ACC.SG  
*“If I had known you were coming, I would’ve baked a cake.”*
- (13) Бадеб ти прише, пекала би яс торте.  
*Bádeb tí prišlě, peklá bi iás tórtē.*  
 if.FUT.SUBJ you.NOM arrive.PAST-MASC, bake-PAST-FEM SUBJ.SG I.NOM cake-ACC.SG  
*“If you were to come, I would bake a cake.”*

Ли *li* means “whether”, and usually appears after the first stressed word within a clause. Its presence prevents pro-drop in the subordinate clause.

- (14) Яс не вѣм, она ли вегетаряницей.  
*Iás ne věm, oná li vegetariánicoi.*  
 I.NOM NEG know-1SG, she.NOM whether Ø vegetarian-FEM-DATINS.SG  
*“I don’t know whether she’s a vegetarian.”*
- (15) Не применѣун, пойдѣт ли оне.  
*Ne primenjún, poidět li óne.*  
 NEG remember-1SG, PF-go-3SG whether he.NOM  
*“I don’t remember whether he’s going to go.”*

If both options are shown, или takes the place of ли (since it incorporates both the elements “and” and “whether”). Alternatively, it is sometimes possible to place



ли after both options and use a *a* as the conjunction.

- (16) Ђме или гладаме, ше навижит од оруѓају.  
*Iěme ili gladáme, še navizít od orúgjaiu.*  
 eat-1PL or starve-1PL, this.NOM.SG depend-3SG from harvest-GEN.SG  
*"Whether we eat or starve depends on the harvest."*
- (17) Млади ли а стари ли, вие смиялиш.  
*Mládi li a stári li, vijé smijáliš.*  
 young-NOM.PL whether whereas old-NOM.PL whether, all-NOM.PL laugh-  
 PAST-PL-MID  
*"Whether young or old, everyone was laughing."*

The conjunctions "what" and "who" are expressed using the *то-це/то-ко* construction. "Where" and "to where" can either use the same construction (*то-куде to-kudé*, *то-куди to-kudí*) or use the pronouns themselves (*куде kudé*, *куди kudi*). For "when", only the form *којда kóida* may be used, although *ејда iěida* is often used in formal language (by analogy with Old Church Slavonic **ѡгда** via Russian).

Most other conjunctions are phrasal, and include but are not limited to:

- абно *ábno* "as soon as"
- ако *áko* "as"
- акоби *ákobi* "as if, as though, even if"
- акоби не *ákobi ne* "lest, or else" (or less often, *какоби не*)
- акоже *ákože* "such as"
- анно не *ánno ne* "unless" (with real condition)
- бадеб не *bádeb ne* "unless" (with a hypothetical future condition)
- во том-це *vo tóm-ce* "reponsible for ensuring that"
- дати *dáti* "in order that, so that"
- до тово-це *do tovó-ce* "until"
- елиб не *iělib ne* "unless" (with a hypothetical non-future condition)
- елин *iělin* "while"
- зандо *zándo* "because"
- за неж(е) *za néž(e)* "after"
- за тово-це *za tovó-ce* "because"
- за то-це *za tó-ce* "to, for the purpose of"
- зе тово-це *ze tovó-ce* "on the grounds that"
- како *káko* "as" (in free variation with *ако*)
- колиж(е) *kóliž(e)* "although, even though"

- *кроми тово-це* *krómi tovó-ce* “unless”
- *намѣсти тово-це* *naměsti tovó-ce* “instead of”
- *на то-це* *ná to-ce* “since, seeing as” (note the stress)
- *на то-це* *na tó-ce* “as, at the same time as” (note the stress)
- *на тѣм-це* *na těm-ce* “with regards to”
- *по тѣм-це* *po těm-ce* “as far as”
- *пред неж(е)* *pred něž(e)* “before”
- *со тово-це* *so tovó-ce* “since”
- *со тѣм-це* *so těm-ce* “in order that, so that”
- *то-койда* *to-kóida* “as soon as” (never \*\*то-ейда)
- *то-како* *tó-kako* “such that” (less commonly т-ако *t-áko*)
- *требаж(е)* *trébaž(e)* “even though, despite”
- *штоби* *štóbi* “in order that, so that” (dialectical, sometimes considered low style)

Most of these conjunctions call for the indicative mood in the following clause. When the situation is hypothetical, there is often a choice between the subjunctive mood or the indicative (perhaps an indication of the gradual loss of the subjunctive in Novegradian).

However, the clause following indirect commands (“want someone to...”, “ask someone to...”, “order someone to...”, etc) must always be subjunctive:

- (18) Хокъун то-це ти ходиле би туди.

*Hókjun tó-ce tí hódile bi tudí.*

want-1SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM you.NOM go.INDET-PAST-MASC SUBJ.SG

to\_there

*“I want you to go there.”*

The variant form *то-ж-це* *tó-ž-ce* (pronounced as *тошче* [ˈtoʃ.tʃe]) may be used in place of *то-це* with commands to imply a sense of warning that there will be consequences if the action is not carried out. This form is almost required after verbs such as “forbid” and “prohibit”.

- (19) Сорѣдзи име то-ж-це не приходили бу познѣ!

*Sorédzǐ íme tó-ž-ce ne prihódili bu pózně!*

say.PF-2SG.IMPER they.DATINS REL.ACC.SG-EMPH-that.NOM NEG arrive-PAST-PL SUBJ.PL late-ADV

*“Tell them to not be late!”*

### 17.3 Reduplicated Conjunctions

Several conjunctions may be reduplicated to acquire a new meaning, originally emphatic.

The reduplication “и X и Y” *i X i Y* means “both X and Y”. It also has the negative form “ни X ни Y” *ni X ni Y*, meaning “neither X nor Y”. The latter (which generally requires the genitive case) is especially common in the expression ни шево, ни видораево *ni ševó, ni vidoráievo* “neither [of two]”, literally “neither this, nor the other”.

- (20) И ов Англин и ов Испанин буилѣ по кѣломировой емпирей, но ни шей, ни видорѣе доходилѣ до стоекѣ дена.  
*I ov Ánglin i ov Ispánin builě po kělomiróvoi iempiréi, no ni séi, ni vidórěie dohódilě do stoiékja déna.*  
 and at-v England-GEN and at-v Spain-GEN be-PAST-DL DIST worldwide-DATINS.SG.FEM empire-DATINS.SG, but neither this.GEN.SG.FEM, neither other-GEN.SG.FEM.DEF go\_up\_to.IMPF-PAST-DL until stand-PTCP.ACT.IMPF-GEN.SG.MASC day-GEN.SG  
*“Both England and Spain had worldwide empires, but neither lasted to the present day.”*

Conversely, “или X или Y” *ili X ili Y* means “either X or Y”.

- (21) Она или ей призуонила или сон ей говорила зад спиной моей.  
*Oná ili iei prizuoníla ili son iei govoríla zad spinói moiéi.*  
 she.NOM or she.DATINS call\_to-PAST-FEM or with-N she-DATINS talk-PAST-FEM behind back-DATINS.SG my.DATINS.SG.FEM  
*“She either called her or talked to her behind my back.”*

Perhaps in this same class is “хой... хой...” *hói... hói...*, meaning “some... while others...”

- (22) Хой пиво лубит, хой – вино.  
*Hói pívo lúbit, hói – vinó.*  
 who.NOM beer-ACC.SG love-3SG, who.NOM Ø wine-ACC.SG  
*“Some love beer, some love wine.”*

Though not a reduplicated conjunction, the complex expression не толкѣ... шенаким... *ne tólkě... šenákim...* “not only... but also...” uses the same format.



# 18

## Questions

ЙИ

Пуити

### 18.1 Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are specifically discussed in Section 15.6.

### 18.2 Yes/No Questions

Yes/No questions do not require any special syntax to distinguish them from non-interrogative sentences. A sentence may be made into a yes/no question simply by changing the intonation, with a falling pitch toward the end of the clause.

Although not a requirement, the interrogative particle *ли* *li* frequently appears in yes/no sentences. It is generally found after the first stressed word, although certain adverbs such as *ож* *ož* “already” and *егъе* *iegjé* “still” may instead occupy this second position and force the interrogative particle to the third position in the sentence. It may be argued that these have become merged interrogative adverbs, *ожли* and *егъели*.

- (1) Наталя-та ож ли дума?  
*Natália-ta ož li dúma?*  
 Natália-NOM-TOP already Q at\_home Ø  
 “Is Natália home yet?”

It is not uncommon for both the affirmative and negative options to be present in a single sentence with no conjunction, especially when what is being questioned is a personal state or mood. In such sentences the interrogative particle *ли* is never present.

- (2) Хокъеш не хокъеш ѳсти?  
*Hókješ ne hókješ iěsti?*  
 want-2SG NEG want-2SG eat-INF  
*"Do you want to eat or not?"*

Surrounding a noun or pronoun by the negative не *ne* in front and interrogative ли *li* in back has the same effect as cleft questions in English, focusing whatever element is surrounded. Note that no actual cleft appears in Novegradian.

- (3) Не мене-то ли ти овидѣла?  
*Ne mené-to li tí oviděla?*  
 NEG I.ACC Q you.NOM see.PF-PAST-FEM  
*"Wasn't it me whom you saw?"*

The existential questions "Is there?" and "Are there?" are expressed using the reduced forms е-ли *iě-li* and су-ли *sú-li* for singular and plural, respectively. The dual does not reduce: еста ли *iěsta li*.

- (4) Е-ли треба их зацегати?  
*Iě-li trěba ih zacegáti?*  
 be.3SG.CLITIC-Q need-NOM.SG they.GEN wait-INF  
*"Do we need to wait for them?"*

## 18.3 Echo Questions

Echo questions are questions about questions, asking for clarification of something someone else has just asked.

### 18.3.1 Echo Questions in Response to a Statement

Consider the statement Яс идун во школун "I am going to school". This may be echoed using either an interrogative pronoun or a yes/no question.

Interrogative pronouns are used when a specific part of the statement is being questioned. Certain information may simply be dropped.

- (5) A: Яс идун во школун. *Iás idún vo skólun.*  
 B: Ти куди идеш? / Ти куди? / Куди? *Tí kudí idés? / Tí kudí? / Kudí?*  
 A: Во школун. *Vo skólun.*
- (6) A: Яс идун во школун. *Iás idún vo skólun.*  
 B: Хой идет во школун? / Хой идет? / Хой? *Hói idét vo skólun? / Hói idét? / Hói?*  
 A: Язёт. *Iaziót.*

Yes/No echo questions are used to confirm that a statement is correctly understood. They may similarly drop non-vital elements that are understood; the more elements that are dropped, the more specific the request for clarification is. Frequently the interrogative particle *ли* is included, though note that in echo questions, it is always attracted to the end of the sentence.

- (7) A: Яс идун во школун. *Iás idún vo skólun.*  
 B: Идеш во школун ли? / Ти во школун ли? / Во школун ли? / Ти ли? *Idés vo skólun li? / Tí vo skólun li? / Vo skólun li? / Tí li?*  
 A: Да. *Da.*

### 18.3.2 Echo Questions in Response to a Question

In response to a question, echo questions may serve a variety of functions. In addition to clarification, they may also indicate emphasis, doubt that the asker doesn't already know the answer to the question, or simply to give the speaker a moment to formulate a response.

Whether an interrogative pronoun or a yes/no question is used depends on the original question, as the two forms must logically match. Understood elements may freely be dropped. In these sorts of yes/no of echo questions, *ли* is once again attracted to its usual second place in the clause.

- (8) A: Куди ти идеш? *Kudí tí idés?*  
 B: Куди яс? Во школун. *Kudí iás? Vo skólun.*
- (9) A: Идеш ли во школун? *Idés li vo skólun?*  
 B: Идун ли яс во школун? Да. *Idún li iás vo skólun? Da.*

## 18.4 Extraction

The rules regarding the use of interrogative pronouns are more complicated when the pronoun refers to a noun in a subordinate clause. Since Novegradian tends to place interrogative pronouns at the beginning of a sentence, they must be extracted from the subordinate clause. However, not all nouns may be extracted. Whereas English allows both the subordinate subject (“Who does Vladímire want to buy lunch?”) and the subordinate object (“What does Vladímire want Nikoláie to buy?”), Novegradian only permits object extraction. If the subject is being questioned, it must remain in its original position within the subordinate clause. Notice in example 2 below that the pronoun *хой* is not even permitted to move to a fronted position within its own clause, much less the entire sentence.

- (10) Цой Владимире хокъет то-це Николае би кренале?  
*Cói Vladímire hókjet tó-ce Nikoláie bi krenále?*  
 what.ACC Vladímire-NOM want-3SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM Nikoláie-NOM  
 SUBJ.SG buy-PAST-MASC  
*“What does Vladímire want Nikoláie to buy?”*
- (11) Владимире хокъет то-це кренале би хой обѣд?  
*Vladímire hókjet tó-ce krenále bi hói oběd?*  
 Vladímire-NOM want-3SG REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM buy-PAST-MASC SUBJ.SG  
 who.NOM lunch-ACC.SG  
*“Who does Vladímire want to buy lunch?”*

However, both subjects and objects may freely be extracted from a subordinate clause if forced out by an interrogative quantifier, such as *колкѣ* “how many?”. In such cases it is the amount being questioned, not the noun. However, a redundant resumptive pronoun must be left in the noun’s original place in the subordinate clause.

- (12) Колкѣ лудеу Еване думаѣт то-це они прийдут?  
*Kólkě lúdeu Ieváne dúmast tó-ce oní prijdút?*  
 how\_many.NOM people-PART.PL Ieváne-NOM think-3SG REL.ACC.SG-that.  
 NOM they.NOM arrive.PF-3SG  
*“How many people does Ieváne think will come?”*



# 19

## Reported Speech

*Косе рѣсенье*

### 19.1 Statements

The main clause and the reported statement must be connected by *то-це*. The tense of the reported statement should be the same as it would have been when it was said.

- (1) Оне сорѣсиле то-це работаст в акостиѣ юриста.  
*Óne sorědzíle tó-ce rabótast v ákostuě iurísta.*  
he.NOM say.PF-PAST-MASC REL.ACC.SG-that.NOM work-3SG in quality-LOC.  
SG lawyer-GEN.SG  
“He said that he works as a lawyer.”

### 19.2 Commands, Requests, Desires

Commands and requests are connected using the conjunction *то-це*, with the second clause appearing in the subjunctive.

- (2) Она попрожила мене (сорѣсила мнѣ) то-це ошле би.  
*Oná poprožíla mené (sorědzíla mně) tó-ce ošlé bi.*  
she.NOM ask.PF-PAST-FEM I.GEN (say.PF-PAST-FEM I.DATINS) REL.ACC.SG-that.  
NOM leave.PF-PAST-MASC SUBJ.SG  
“She asked (told) me to leave.”

With verbs of desire, the subject must be stated in the subjunctive clause because it is not mentioned in the primary—Она хотѣла то-це яс би ошле *Oná hótěla tó-ce iás bi ošlé* “She wanted me to leave.”

### 19.3 Questions

Questions may be repeated unaltered, although with adjustments made for person. A comma must always be inserted between the two clauses if *то-це* is not used.

- (3) Она сопуйдала мене, куде работам.  
*Oná sopuidála mené, kudé rabótam.*  
 she.NOM asked.PF-PAST-FEM I.ACC, where work-1SG  
*"She asked me where I work."*
- (4) Она сопуйдала мене, хокъун ли ис сон ей на городен.  
*Oná sopuidála mené, hókjun li is son iei na góroden.*  
 she.NOM asked.PF-PAST-FEM I.ACC, want-1SG Q go.DET-SUP with-N she.  
 DATINS on downtown-LAT.SG  
*"She asked me if I wanted to go with her downtown."*

### ***20.1 Introduction***

Discourse markers include a wide variety of particles that operate at or above the sentence level, and are responsible for expressing numerous qualities regarding the course of the discussion and the speaker's attitude and assumptions about what is being said. Their meaning is therefore highly dependent on context, so all of the definitions given below are approximate.

The following list is hardly exhaustive, and only contains a few of the most common forms.

### ***20.2 Basic Conversation***

**да** *dá*

Usage: More or less the same as English "yes"

Etymology: From Common Slavic \*da "may [it be]"

Example: Да, ти праве.

"Yes, you are correct."

**иа** *ia*

Usage: Same as да, though more colloquial

Etymology: Probably Baltic origin, ultimately from German ja

Example: Иа, ше музем дѣлати.

"Yes, we can do this."

**нет** *nét*

Usage: More or less the same as English “no”

Etymology: From нет “it is not”, a contraction of не ест

Example: Нет, шево некойда не розрѣжун!

“No, I will never allow this!”

**прусим** *prúsim*

Usage: More or less the same as English “please”

Etymology: 1PL form of прожити “ask, beg (of)”, now a frozen form used even by singular referents

Example: Прусим, ти пригодовиле би мнѣ чашк?

“Please, could you make me a bit of tea?”

**аття** *attia*

Usage: More or less the same as English “thank you”

Etymology: From Коми аттӧ “thank you”

Example: Аття за помокы.

“Thanks for the help.”

## 20.3 Questions

**ли** *li*

Usage: An interrogative particle seen in yes/no questions. Almost always appears in the second position within the clause, most often after the verb (although it can occasionally appear elsewhere for various reasons related to stress conflict and sentence intonation)

Etymology: From ли “whether”

Example: Заснали ли дѣкы?

“Have the children fallen asleep?”

**нели** *néli*

Usage: A tag question, inserted at the end of a statement to prompt the listener for agreement. Comparable to English “no?” or “isn’t that right?”

Etymology: From (такo) нет ли? “is it not so?”

Example: Ти рѣсила то-це ти зе США, нели?

“You said you were from the US, didn’t you?”

## 20.4 Possibility or Doubt

### **музеби** *múzebi*

Usage: Indicates possibility, like English “maybe”. While it does not require the subjunctive, the subjunctive particle within it (the *-bi*) must agree in number with its subject, if it has one.

Etymology: From музет буити “it may be”

Example: Музеби оне занок прийде.

“Maybe he’ll come tomorrow.”

### **молин** *mólin*

Usage: Indicates the speaker’s desire for something to be true or to happen. Similar in meaning to “hopefully”, except in Novegradian it does not pattern as an adverb.

Etymology: Imperfective adverbial participle of молити “beseech, pray”

Example: Оѳо бадет молин добро.

“Hopefully everything will turn out okay.”

### **ати** *áti* or **ат** *at*

Usage: Expresses wishes. It is always clause-initial. Similar to “may”

Etymology: From Common Slavic \*a “whereas” + clitic -ti (see below)

Example: Ати вѣцнѣ живет Великей Новеграде!

“Long live Great Novegrad!”

### **но** *nó*

Usage: Expresses hesitation or concern on the part of the speaker.

Etymology: From но “but”

Example: Но, несм тако же ците, како ти.

“Well, I’m not as sure as you.”

## 20.5 Time

### ож *óž*

Usage: An emphatic particle that serves to contrast a state to a previous time (present to past, future to present, or future to past).

Etymology: From ож “already”

Example: Мнѣ ож дуадесяти азот.

“I’m twenty years old.”

Example: Яс ож занок нашнун.

“I’ll begin tomorrow.” (especially in response to a question like

“Why haven’t you started yet?”)

## 20.6 Emphasis and Focus

### же *že*

Usage: A generic emphatic that stresses the preceding word, which can be of any part of speech. Depending on intonation, it may be interpreted anywhere from a simple stress that wouldn’t be translated in English to a rude accusation or sarcasm. It often cliticized to interrogative pronouns as -ж.

Etymology: From Common Slavic \*že

Example: Шеден же – юбилеем наим дуадеши петем.

“Today is the day of our twenty-fifth anniversary.”

Example: Цоиж мнѣ дѣлати?

“What am I to do?”

### праудаже *práudaže*

Usage: Similar to English “certainly”, “for certain”, or “in truth”

Etymology: From прауда “truth” + же emphatic particle

Example: Праудаже оне-и омне, но ше не знацит тово-це вѣст цой дѣлати.

“Sure he’s smart, but that doesn’t mean that he knows what to do.”

**ОТО** *óto* or **ВОТО** *vóto*

Usage: An emphatic particle, generally stressing a more physical nature than *же*, or stressing existence. It is placed sentence-initially and must always be followed by a noun or pronoun.

Etymology: From Common Slavic \*o (a reduced form of \*je, the neuter nominative anaphoric pronoun) + \*to neuter demonstrative.

Variant with *в-* from Russian influence.

Example: Вото оне идет.

“Here he comes.”

Example: Ото ше-то ест треба видѣти!

“Now this you have to see!”

**ВѢ** *vě*

Usage: Serves to emphasize a piece of information that the listener should already know, or to remind them of it. It is comparable to English “after all” or at times to the colloquial “y’know”.

Etymology: From Common Slavic \*vědě, a vestigial form of the verb \*věsti “to know” in the IE middle voice, which was lost before Proto-Slavic

Example: Зацем нет? Наме вѢ лигѢ.

“Why not? After all, we’re allowed to.”

Example: Она вѢ другоме моей.

“She’s my friend, after all.”

Example: Но оне-и вѢ праве.

“But he’s right, y’know.”

Example: Ше-и вѢ яс!

“But that was me!”

**И** *i*

Usage: Appears at the end of a list to indicate it is incomplete. Also always follows “universal” correlatives (like “everyone”, “everywhere”, “always”, etc) when they appear within a list.

Etymology: From *и* “and”.

Example: Во саймѢ видѣле яс Маркуса, Совин, и АнѢ и.

“At the party I saw Márkuse, Sónia, and Ána [and others]”

Example: СнѢге буиле над моим думом, нав оликѢ, и веходе и.

“There was snow all over my house, the street, and everywhere”

**a... -to a... -to**

Usage: Beginning a sentence with the conjunction *a* followed by a topicalized noun serves as a strong form of topicalization.

Etymology: *A*, already being a contrastive conjunction, emphasizes the topicalization of the following noun.

Example: *A ша проблема-та, како вуи муислите, цо-и присиной?*  
 “As for this problem, what do you think the cause is?”

## 20.7 Corrections and Clarifications

**кахто *káhto***

Usage: Used to correct or clarify the preceding statement. Similar to English “I mean” or “I should say”.

Etymology: From *како то* “how is it”

Example: *Оне работаст вуисланишѣ на Югослави, кахто, Црногориях.*  
 “He works at the embassy in Yugoslavia, I mean, Montenegro.”

**рѣсици *rědzíci***

Usage: Used to clarify a phrase. Similar to English “which means” or “that is to say”.

Etymology: middle voice 3SG form of *рѣсита* “say”

Example: *Оне ошле ими достоинестуо, рѣсици, вуибѣгале плаци вон.*  
 “He walked out with dignity; that is to say, he ran outside crying.”

**да каѣѣт *da káġjet***

Usage: Used to clarify a phrase. Exists in free variation with *рѣсици* in speech, though is the only one found in more formal writing.

Etymology: “may it say” in a more archaic form of Novegradian.

Example: *Да каѣѣт, ойди.*  
 “In other words, leave.”



**ВИХЕВО** *vihevó*

Usage: Introduces an explanation of an underlying assumption relating to an earlier explicit or implied statement. Similar to English “after all”.

Etymology: Genitive singular neuter form of *вехе* “all”

Example: О на нет требъ тривожитиш. Вихево цой музут дѣлати?  
“We don’t need to worry. After all, what can they do?”

## 20.8 Evidentiality

**ДѢИ** *děi*

Usage: An evidential particle indicating hearsay. It generally goes in the second position within a clause, often drawing either a topicalized noun or verb into the first position. It indicates that speaker has not actually seen the event occur, but heard about it from other sources.

Etymology: From Common Slavic \**dějěť* “he says”, in a reduced form

Example: Оне дѣи не вѣгле то-це пробуивало.

“He didn’t know what happened, it seems.”

**СИТ** *dzít*

Usage: An evidential particle indicating hearsay. Like *дѣи*, it tends to go into the second position within a clause and draws topicalized nouns or verbs forward. It indicates that speaker has not actually seen the event occur, but heard about it from other sources.

Etymology: From *рѣсит* “he says”, in a reduced form; more colloquial than *дѣи*

Example: Оне сит некойда тамо не буиле.

“He has never been there before, it seems.”

## 20.9 Continuation

### добро *dóbro*

Usage: An all-purpose continuation marker, much like English “well” or “okay”. It is also a common space filler.

Etymology: From добро “good (nominative singular neuter)”

Example: Добро, цой тобирво ест треба дѣлати?  
“Okay, what has to be done now?”

### вудицин *vúdicin*

Usage: Used to redirect the course of a discussion. Similar meaningwise to “Let’s move on”, though much more commonly used than its English counterpart. It can also be used to redirect a topic that has gone off course, such as “anyways” or “back on topic”.

Etymology: From вудицин “it is led”

Example: Вудицин, есат други дѣла, котри ест треба прешунити.  
“Anyways, there are other matters we need to discuss.”

### егъе *iegjé*

Usage: Moves the discussion from one point to another, not unlike “next” in English.

Etymology: From еше “more, still”

Example: Егъе наме рѣжити куди идем.  
“Next we have to decide where we’re going to go.”

## 20.10 Miscellaneous

### ну *nú*

Usage: Urges a response from the listener, either in words or in action. Often indicates a degree of agitation or impatience on the part of the speaker.

Etymology: Unclear, though common to all Slavic languages.

Example: Ну? Простаниш.  
“Well? Go on.”

**СТАВВ** *stávuv*

Usage: Indicates the speaker is satisfied with what someone else is saying and is a polite way of cutting them off.

Etymology: From ставв “enough”, from Komi став “all”, perhaps crossed with Novegradian оставати “stop”. The double вв indicates that the final /β/ should be pronounced as such, and not reduced to [w].

Example: Ставв, довѣм.

“That’s enough, I understand.”

**ВЕХЕ** *véhe*

Usage: Indicates that the speaker is agitated by what someone else is saying, or that they have gone on too long. It is a ruder way of cutting them off.

Etymology: From вехе “all”

Example: Вехе, ше ож вошунемо!

“Enough, you’ve talked enough about this already!”

**-ТИ** *-ti*

Usage: Attaches to an imperative verb or occasionally other discourse particles (especially ну above) to indicate a gentle urging. It is best comparable to English “c’mon”, “just”, or “will you?”.

Etymology: From Common Slavic \*ti, the clitic dative form of \*ty “you”

Example: Ну-ти иди!

“C’mon, get moving already!”

Example: Затули-ти дуери! Кладно!

“Close the door, will you? It’s cold!”



## 21

*Emphasis*

ѣа

*and Word Order**Емваза со поредиям словес**21.1 The Particle же*

The particle же *že* has two functions: simple emphasis and contrastive emphasis.

When preceded by an interrogative, as has previously been mentioned, же strengthens the force of the question. It is usually written cliticized to the interrogative. If the interrogative ends in a vowel, it reduces to simply -ж -ž; if it ends in /j/, it becomes -иж -iž.

- (1) Какож оне тако буистрѣ суди приходиле?

*Kákož óne táko buistrě sudí prihódile?*

how-EMPH he.NOM so fast-ADV to\_here arrive.IMPV-PAST-MASC

*“How the heck did he get here so quickly?”*

After any other part of speech, же serves a contrastive function. In such a role it is always written as a separate word, even though it is phonetically unstressed and tends to cliticize to the preceding word. This form does not reduce to ж.

It most commonly appears after nouns and adjectives. It indicates that only the preceding group specified by the previous word is involved, and not any other. Both are demonstrated below:

- (2) Яс повастале обух друж твоих, но Рая же мнѣ каѣбѣци  
симпатнейшей.

*Iás povástale óbuh druž tuojih, no Ráia že mně kážjeci simpatnéisei.*

I.NOM meet.PF-PAST-MASC both-GEN friend-GEN.PL you.SG-GEN.PL, but

Ráia-NOM EMPH I.DATINS seem-3SG-MID nice-COMP-DATINS.SG.FEM

*“I’ve met both of your friends, but Ráia seems nicer to me.”*

- (3) Принези плави же тарѣлки со шкавѣ, прусим.  
*Prinezí plávi že tarěľki so škávě, prusim.*  
 bring\_over.PF-2SG.IMPER light\_blue-NOM.PL.MASC EMPH plate-NOM.PL  
 from\_off cabinet-GEN.SG, please  
*"Grab the blue plates from the cabinet, please. (and not any of the others)"*

If же and the topical marker *to* fall on the same word, they merge into a single invariable form *-че ѓе*, attached to the word by a dash. In older texts this may also be written *-тже -тѓе* or *-тше -тѓе*. If the word would normally take the inverted topical marker *-or*, the combined emphatic/topical marker is spelt *-оче -оѓе*.

- (4) Оѓо ѓм, но паѓта-че моеѓ прѓлубимой ѓдой.  
*OǓo iǓm, no pásta-če moiěi prělubímoi iědói.*  
 all.ACC.SG.NEUT eat-1SG, but pasta-NOM.SG-TOP.EMPH my-DATINS.SG.FEM  
 INTENS-beloved-DATINS.SG.FEM food-DATINS.SG  
*"I'll eat anything, but pasta I love the most."*

## 21.2 The Particle *и*

The particle *и i* is a verbal emphatic (as in example 5 below), which is placed before the verb to be emphasized, though phonetically it cliticizes to the previous word. It can also be used to emphasize adverbs modifying the verb. However, this is a long-distance effect; the emphatic is still placed before the verb, as in example 6.

- (5) Тако и баѓет.  
*Táko i bádet.*  
 thus EMPH be.FUT-3SG  
*"It will be so."*

If the noun preceding it is a masculine singular fourth-declension noun ending in *-e* or a nominative fifth declension noun, in either the nominative or inanimate accusative case, the case ending elides.

- (6) Суде кенѓз и жиле.  
*Sudé keniáz i žile.*  
 here prince-NOM.SG(CLIPPED) EMPH live-PAST-MASC  
*"The prince lived here."*

## 21.3 Word Order

Novegradian has free word order, meaning the main elements of a sentence can be rearranged with few restrictions. However, each possible ordering carries its own subtle meanings. To fully explain the subtleties of each may be impossible, but the following should provide a rough idea. The simple sentence Яс лублун тебе “I love you”, with only a subject, object, and verb, will serve as an example.

SVO: Neutral word order, with primary emphasis placed on the object: Яс лублун тебе “I love *you*”

SOV: Neutral word order, with primary emphasis placed on the verb: Яс тебе лублун “I *love* you”

VSO: Strong emphasis on the verb and the subject’s connection to that verb: Лублун яс тебе “I *do* love you”

OSV: Strong emphasis on the uniqueness of the object and its relation to the subject: Тебе яс лублун “*You* I love (and no one else)”

VOS: Strong emphasis on the quality of the verb and the object’s relation to the subject: Лублун тебе яс “I *definitely* love you”

OVS: Strong emphasis on the identity of the object and its relation to the subject: Тебе лублун яс “*You* I truly love”

Note, however, that the presence of any additional elements complicates the meanings. When a topical marker is present, there is a tendency for it to go on the most strongly emphasized word, but by no means an absolute one. This is highly context-dependent.





## 22

*Spoken*

КВ

*Novegradian**Розговорней новеградескей  
лизике***22.1 Introduction**

Novegradian in its standard written form is quite clearly a Slavic language with numerous Slavic features. Even innovative formations in the Novegradian standard almost always have direct analogues in other Slavic languages. This was further reinforced over the many centuries of Russian domination and influence in the region; even after Novegradian was universally recognized as a distinct language, Russian was still viewed as prestigious, and the formal standard was developed to be more similar to Russian.

In the Soviet period this began to change, a process still continuing in the present day. From 1917 the Novegradian standard began to develop more along its own path and came closer into line with the spoken form of the language around the city of Novegráde Velíkei. A great deal of vocabulary of Uralic origin that had long been in use in speech became standardized at this point.

Although the vocabulary was updated, the grammar in many respects was not. The many years of contact with speakers of Uralic and Baltic languages, in particular Finnish, Karelian, Komi, Estonian, and Latvian, have left a great impact on the language. While the written standard and the higher registers of spoken Novegradian are still clearly Slavic, most registers of the spoken language actually display a strong Uralic quality blended in with the Slavic, resulting in something uniquely Novegradian.

Most of the features described in this section are not limited to casual speech, but are even seen in semiformal speech as well. Only in the formal spoken language are these colloquial features completely absent. When reading in non-formal environments, many speakers will adopt a middle ground, with many aspects of colloquial pronunciation present, but naturally keeping the grammar and vocabulary of the written text.

## 22.2 Pronunciation

### 22.2.1 Vowels

The Novegradian vowel system has remained relatively stable. However, there are a few trends to be noted.

The loan-vowel /i/ has stabilized. In the standard, it has a tendency to centralize in certain positions (see Phonology section), but in the colloquial language, the vowel has stabilized a little forward of cardinal [ɨ].

The sequence /ij/ when word-final or before a consonant centralized to [əj], which was then reanalyzed as /aj/ in many speakers' speech. Therefore words such as английске *anglijske* "English" are pronounced англайске *angláiske*. There is at least one manifestation of this change in the standard language: индайка *indái-ka* "turkey (bird)", derived from Индия *Índija* "India", rather than the expected \*\*индийка.

The word-final sequence /ow/ (especially common in the partitive plural ending, though not exclusively) has undergone metathesis, becoming /wo/: нигуо *níguo* "book-PART.PL".

### 22.2.2 Consonants

Consonant changes can be grouped into two main categories—systematic changes and reductions.

The most significant change affecting the sound of the language is the fricativization of /l/ in palatalizing environments. In the standard, /l/ is palatalized to [lʲ] before stressed [e æ i]. In the spoken language, this palatalization turned into the [l] first into a lateral fricative, and then into a full fricative [ʒ]: затулите *zatulite* "closed" → затужжите *zatužíte*. This change does not occur when the /l/ is part of a cluster (as in *anglijske* above) or when word-initial (standard листе *liste* "leaf, sheet" → coll. лист *list*). Novegradians have taken to using жж to represent the sound [ʒ] from earlier /l/ in speech-imitating writing, since by standard spelling rules ж would almost always be pronounced [ʒʲ] in the positions the new [ʒ] appears in.

Word-initial /e/ [je] appears to be simplifying to [e] after prepositions that end in a consonant: в еропортѣ *v ieropórtě* "in the airport" is pronounced [βje.ro.'port.ɨ] in the standard, but [βe.ro.'port.ɨ] colloquially.

Although Novegradian has never been very tolerant of large internal clusters, the process of simplification continues. Clusters involving /ts/ are particularly vulnerable, where the /ts/ weakens to [s] or [z]: традиця

*tradicia* “tradition” → *традися tradisia*. The more complex the cluster, the greater the simplification: *вункся vúnksia* “function” → *вунся vúnsia*.

On the other hand, the rules forbidding final clusters seem to be laxing. Due to the loss of the nominative singular ending on many nouns (discussed later), *листе liste* “leaf, sheet” is now pronounced *лист list*. This same sort of ending deletion now allows word-final voiced consonants: *граде gráde* “city” → *град grád* [ˈgrad]; as well as word-final /β/: *будове budóve* “building” → *будов budóv* [buˈdoβ].

Other than the above, there are few other changes that can be discussed in this section. Cluster simplifications tend to be irregular and occur on a case-by-case basis, and other changes are more closely connected with a word’s morphology, and so will be discussed in the appropriate section below.

## 22.3 Verbs

The verbal system has been fairly stable outside of the past tense. The four main changes to be discussed here are minor changes to inflectional endings, the rise of evidentiality, negative marking, and inanimate agreement in the past tense.

### 22.3.1 Changes in Verbs

Minor phonetic changes to verbal forms include:

- The sequence *-ee-* *-eie-* in the present tense of any third conjugation verb is simplified to *-e-*: *радети radéti* “enjoy” → *радеюн, радеш, радет, радева, радета, радета, радем, радете, радеют radéiun, radés, radét, radéva, radéta, radéta, radém, radéte, radéiut* (standard *радеюн, радееш, радеет, радеева, радееета, радееем, радееете, радеют radéiun, radéies, radéiet, radéieva, radéieta, radéiem, radéiete, radéiut*).
- The final *-и* *-i* found in any middle voice forms is lost, generally resulting in a consonant cluster. Note, however, that in the 2sg of the present/future tense, which is *-шши -śši* in the standard (pronounced [sʰi]), becomes *-шц -śc* or even *-шт -št* in colloquial speech, pronounced [ʃts ~ ʃt]: *сожитиш sožítis* “get accustomed to” → *соживуш, соживешц/соживешт, соживец, соживеваш, соживеташ, соживеташ, соживемш, соживетеш, соживуц sožívúś, soživéśc/soživéšt, soživéc, soživévaś, soživétaś, soživétaś, soživémś, soživéteś, soživúc* (standard *соживуш, соживешши, соживеци, соживеваш, соживеташ, соживемши, соживетеш, соживеци sožívúś, soživéśši, soživéci, soživévaś, soživétaś, soživémši, soživéteś, soživúci*).

Informal spellings such as *цидас* *cidás* “he/she reads” (standard *цидаст* *cidást*), *цида* *cidá* “they read” (standard *цидати* *cidáti*) and *ес* *ies* “there is” (standard *ест* *iest*) are purely orthographic changes. The simplifications they represent have occurred in the standard language as well; the standard simply mandates the more conservative spellings.

The subjunctive mood is also beginning to fall out of use. In colloquial speech it is only required in conditional sentences (“would”), in polite requests, and after verbs such as “want” and “ask” indicating indirect commands. In all other places it has more or less been completely lost, generally having been replaced by the present or future tenses.

A number of irregular verbs have also undergone a degree of regularization. This is most visible with *-давати* *-daváti*, the imperfective stem for derivatives of *дати* “give”, which now conjugates as a regular first conjugation verb: *давам*, *даваш*, *давас* *davám*, *davás*, *davás*, etc instead of the standard *даюн*, *даеш*, *даєт* *daiún*, *daiés*, *daiét*.

Verbs with a mutation in the first person singular present show a strong tendency to generalize that mutation across the present tense, resulting in forms such as *вигиш* *vígijis* “you see” (standard *видиш* *vidis*) and *любим* *lúblim* “we love” (standard *любим* *lúbim*).

In addition, the zero-ending imperfective (formed by taking a second conjugation perfective verb and switching it to the first declension and palatalizing the root-final consonant) is falling out of use in favor of the suffixial imperfective *-овати*. Therefore derived imperfective forms such as *позгодоулати* *pozgodóulati* “train” and *помагати* *pomagáti* “help” are being replaced by *позгодововати* *pozgodóvováti* and *помоговати* *potógováti*.

The verb *исти* *ísti* “go” has acquired a prefixed *i-* in all of its past tense forms by analogy with its infinitive and present/future forms: *ишле* *íslé*, *ишла* *íslá*, *ишло* *ísló*, etc. This is also seen in derived forms, albeit with /j/ instead of /i/: *войшле* *voiślé*, *войшла* *voiślá*, etc.<sup>1</sup>

While standard Novegradian has long allowed the adverb *велем* *vélem* “very” to modify verbs directly to intensify the action described, colloquial Novegradian also allows the adjectival superlative prefix *най-* *nai-* to be prefixed to verbs for an even stronger intensification: *он ше найлублит* *ón sé nailúblit* “he loves this more than anything”.

1 Compare the standard infinitive or present/future forms *войсти* *vóisti* “to enter”, *войдун* *voidún* “I will enter”, and so on. This /j/ has always been present in these tenses in the standard; now it is spreading to the past as well.

### 22.3.2 Evidentiality

Spoken Novegradian has developed a two-way evidential system, distinguishing between the “directive” and “indirective”. This distinction is only made in the past tense; other tenses are unmarked for evidentiality.

The directive is the default unmarked form. It indicates that either some sort of direct evidence exists regarding the truth of a statement, or makes no statement regarding whether or not there is evidence. This ‘evidence’ can be anything directly experienced by the speaker, most often meaning they actually saw it happen.

The indirective must be explicitly marked. It indicates that there is no direct evidence behind the statement, generally meaning the speaker heard about it from other sources. The indirective is formed by one of two clitics that attach to the end of the past-tense verb. Demonstrated with *пизати* *pizáti* “write”:

Form	Type 1	Type 2
<b>Masc Sg</b>	пизале <sub>дѣ</sub> <i>pizáledě</i>	пизале-сит <i>pizále-dzit</i>
<b>Fem Sg</b>	пизала <sub>дѣ</sub> <i>pizáladě</i>	пизала-сит <i>pizála-dzit</i>
<b>Inan Sg</b>	пизало <sub>дѣ</sub> <i>pizálodě</i>	пизало-сит <i>pizálo-dzit</i>
<b>DI</b>	пизалѣ <sub>дѣ</sub> <i>pizálědě</i>	пизалѣ-сит <i>pizálě-dzit</i>
<b>PI</b>	пизали <sub>дѣ</sub> <i>pizálidě</i>	пизали-сит <i>pizáli-dzit</i>

The same clitics are applied regularly to middle voice or passive verbs.

-<sub>дѣ</sub> *-dě* is much more commonly seen than -сит *-dzit*, and for that reason is generally written without a hyphen.

Examples:

- Он прайшле. *Ōn praišlé.*  
“He came [and I know this]”—the speaker saw him come.
- Он прайшле<sub>дѣ</sub>. *Ōn praišlědě.*  
“He came [as far I know]”—someone else told the speaker he came; the speaker himself did not witness this.

In the standard both of these sentences would be rendered Онe пришле *Ōne*

*prislé.*

The language has not yet reached the point where this sort of evidentiality marking is obligatory. That is, a form such as *прайшле praislé* is strictly speaking unmarked for evidentiality, while *прайшледѣ praislédě* is marked for the indirective. However, some dialects (especially the Siberian dialects) have reached the point where this marking is almost obligatory, meaning that *прайшле* is usually interpreted as directive.

### 22.3.3 Negation

The tendency to reduce the negative particle *не ne* to simply *нѣ nj-* before verbs beginning with a vowel can be traced to the 17<sup>th</sup> century; the palatal element comes from the partial occlusion of the older /e/ before another vowel. However, since the 1940s or so this *нѣ* has been reanalyzed as an integral part of the verb when negated, and the regular negative particle *не* has been reinstated, resulting in a double marking of negation on such verbs. This prefixed *нѣ-* is in fact treated as an actual inflection, so pronouns and adverbs can be placed in between the regular negative particle *не* and this negatively-marked verb:

- он авиле *ón ávile* “he revealed”<sup>2</sup>
- он не нѣавиле *ón ne njáville* “he did not reveal”<sup>3</sup>
- он мей авиле *ón mei ávile* “he revealed to me”<sup>4</sup>
- он не мей нѣавиле *ón ne mei njáville* “he did not reveal to me”<sup>5</sup>

Verbs which do not begin with a vowel are negated regularly. They display no distinct negative form.

### 22.3.4 Inanimate Agreement in the Past Tense

In colloquial Novegradian, gender agreement for inanimate (non-human non-animal) nouns has been lost in the past tense. The loss of the neuter gender (see below) has freed up the past tense ending *-ло -lo*, now used for all singular inanimate nouns. Singular animate nouns continue to make the masculine (*-ле -le*) versus feminine (*-ла -la*) distinction. In the dual and plural, animate and inanimate nouns continue to share the same endings.

- 
- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 2 | Standard онѣ авиле <i>óne ávile.</i>               |
| 3 | Standard онѣ не авиле <i>óne ne ávile.</i>         |
| 4 | Standard онѣ мнѣ авиле <i>óne mně ávile.</i>       |
| 5 | Standard онѣ не мнѣ авиле <i>óne ne mně ávile.</i> |

- буиле маж *buile máz* “there was a man” (MASC ANIM)
- буила жена *builá žená* “there was a woman” (FEM ANIM)
- буило езеро *builo iézero* “there was a lake” (MASC INAN)
- буило рѣга *builo rěgá* “there was a river” (FEM INAN) <sup>6</sup>

### 22.3.5 Emphatic Middle Voice

Colloquially, the middle voice suffix -ш(и) -ś(i) may be attached to the imperative of certain verbs to create an emphatic request, typically indicating a pressing need request or frustration. This is allowed whenever the verb itself is intransitive, or when the direct object is the topic, but unexpressed:

- Стумайши! *Stumáiši* “Just make up your mind!”
- Слухитеш! *Sluhíteś* “Listen up!”
- Сорѣшиш! *Sorědzíš* “Just say (it) already!”

### 22.3.6 The Clitic ‘Be’

The clitic forms of буити has been gaining ground in colloquial Novegradian. In the standard, where the third person pronouns frequently took an enclitic form (оне-и *óne-i* “he is...”), colloquially this has actually been extended to most subject pronouns, even those for which this form (in origin third person singular) is etymologically inappropriate. Following is a comparison of the standard and colloquial means of expressing a single copular sentence for all personal pronouns. Note that -и has spread to all forms except the third person plural, though it dissimilates to /je/ after another /i/.

Standard	Colloquial	Meaning
Яс вежне. <i>Iás véžne.</i>	Ясе-и вежне. <i>Iasé-i véžne.</i>	I am happy.
Ти вежне. <i>Ti véžne.</i>	Ти-е вежне. <i>Ti-je véžne.</i>	You are happy.
Оне-и вежне. <i>Oné-i véžne.</i>	Оне-и вежне. <i>Oné-i véžne.</i>	He is happy.
Она-и вежна. <i>Oná-i véžna.</i>	Она-и вежна. <i>Oná-i véžna.</i>	She is happy.
Надуа вежни. <i>Naduá véžni.</i>	Надуа-и вежни. <i>Naduá-i véžni.</i>	The two of us are happy.

<sup>6</sup> Standard буила рѣга *builá rěgá*.

Вадуа вежни. <i>Vaduá véžni.</i>	Вадуа-и вежни. <i>Vaduá-i véžni.</i>	You two are happy.
Ондуа вежни. <i>Onduá véžni.</i>	Ондуа-и вежни. <i>Onduá-i véžni.</i>	They two of them are happy.
Муи вежни. <i>Mui véžni.</i>	Муи-е вежни. <i>Mui-je véžni.</i>	We are happy.
Вуи вежни. <i>Vui véžni.</i>	Вуи-е вежни. <i>Vui-je véžni.</i>	You are all happy.
Они су вежни. <i>Oni su véžni.</i>	Они су вежни. <i>Oni su véžni.</i>	They are happy.

These clitic forms are almost always used for NOUN + BE + ADJECTIVE sentences and frequently though by no means always in NOUN + BE + NOUN sentences, and only in the present tense. However, the clitics are never used if the complement is placed before the subject: Вежне яс *Věžne iás* “I am happy”.

### 22.3.7 Stress Patterns

The highly complex system of verbal stress patterns in standard Novegradian, consisting of six patterns for regular verbs and many more for irregular ones, shows considerable analogical levelling in colloquial speech. These colloquial patterns often infect even educated or formal speech, suggesting that in modern usage the traditional stress patterns are largely an artificial construct supported by formal education.

Amongst I and E conjugation verbs, stress patterns are reorganizing along lines of aspect. Imperfective verbs gravitate towards stem stress, while perfective verbs gravitate towards ending or hysterodynamic (ending with the exception of the non-1SG present) patterns.

- муислити, муислун, муислат *muísliti, muíslun, muíslat* “think (IMPF)” (standard *muísliti, muíslún, muíslát* with dynamic stress)
- рѣсѣти, рѣсун, рѣсат *rědziti, rědzun, rědzat* “say (IMPF)” (standard *rědziti, rědzún, rědzát* with ending stress)
- жити, живун, живут *žíti, živun, živut* “live (IMPF)” (standard *žíti, živún, živút* with ending stress)
- дарити, дарун, дарат *daríti, darún, darát* “give, gift (PF)” (standard *daríti, dárun, dárat* with stem stress)
- брошити, брохун, брошат *brošíti, brohún, brósat* “throw (PF)” (standard *brošíti, bróhjun, brósat* with stem stress)



This appears to inconsistently apply to prefixed I or E conjugation verbs. Amongst some verbs it is not unusual to see a stem-stressed unprefixed verb acquire ending or hysterodynamic stress when a prefix is added, but the majority of verbs retain the stress pattern of the unprefixed form regardless of aspect. There is quite a bit of regional variation.

- ВИДѢТИ *viděti* “see (IMPF)” → ОВИДѢТИ *oviděti* “see (PF)”
- РѢСИТИ *řědziti* “say (IMPF)” → ОРѢСИТИ *orědzíti* “promise (PF)”

In the A conjugation, ending stress tends to dominate across all verbs, regardless of aspect (although there are very few unprefixed A-conjugation perfectives).

- ВАГАТИ, ВАГАМ, ВАГА *vagāti, vagám, vagá* “weigh (IMPF)” (standard *vágati, vágam, vágati*)
- НАХАТИ, НАХАМ, НАХА *nahāti, nahám, nahá* “smell (IMPF)” (standard *náhati, náham, náhati*)
- НАДУМАТИ, НАДУМАМ, НАДУМА *nadumāti, nadumám, nadumá* “consider (PF)” (standard *nadúmati, nadúmam, nadúmati*)

## 22.4 Nouns

The nominal system has probably seen the most changes in colloquial speech. These can be grouped into five main areas—changes in case endings, the rise of possessive endings, the restructuring of the partitive, the appearance of a new case form, and the loss of the neuter.

### 22.4.1 Changes in Case Endings

A number of phonetic changes have affected the declension system of nouns. There have been no major overall changes to its structure, only changes to the endings.

The nominative ending -e for fourth declension masculine nouns and -и for all fifth declension nouns has been more or less completely eliminated. Note that any word-final clusters or voiced consonants caused by this drop remain as such, i.e., the clusters do not simplify and the voiced consonants do not devoice. However, if too difficult a cluster would result, the ending remains in an ultrashort reduced form, usually close to [ə] (a short schwa). In the chart below this will be marked using ъ, but note that in normative orthography imitating speech no vowel is written at all.

Examples:

Standard	Colloquial	Meaning
Новеграде <i>Novegráde</i>	Новеград <i>Novegrád</i>	Novegrad
боґе <i>bóǵe</i>	боґ <i>bóǵ</i>	god
ѣзде <i>iězde</i>	ѣзд <i>iězd</i>	trip, journey
дүери <i>duéri</i>	дүер <i>duér</i>	door
огни <i>ógni</i>	огнь <i>ógn(ə)</i>	fire
снѣге <i>sněge</i>	снѣг <i>sněg</i>	snow
куѣте <i>kuěte</i>	куѣт <i>kuět</i>	color, flower
вагле <i>vágle</i>	ваглъ <i>vágl(ə)</i>	coal
нокъи <i>nókji</i>	нокъ <i>nókj</i>	night
дожгы <i>dožgi</i>	дожгъ <i>dóžgj</i>	rain

The loss of these endings means that it is no longer possible to tell whether a given noun ending in a consonant belongs to the third, fourth or fifth declension. While there have been no recorded instances of nouns shifting declensions for a large group of people as of yet, this opens the possibility of declension changes in the coming years.

Even some foreign loans have been affected: такси *táksi* “taxi” → такс *táks*. Indclinable nouns, though, do not change: кове́ *kóve* “coffee”.

The situation for neuter nouns ending in /e/ (as opposed to /o/) is more confined. Many speakers still preserve the original -e ending, but an increasing number of people are beginning to drop these as well: море́ *móre* “sea” → мор *mór*. The old neuter ending -o and the first declension ending -a are unaffected.

For neuter fourth declension nouns, which have identical nominative and accusative cases, the above changes also apply to the accusative.

Both the partitive singular and partitive plural endings have undergone some

changes as well. The singular ending -ок/-ёк/-ек has lenited to -ох/-ёх/-ех -*oh/-ioh/-eh*. The variant ending -y -*u* seen in the third and fourth declensions has disappeared in favor of -ох/-ех. The plural ending -oy -*ou*, as mentioned earlier, has undergone metathesis to -yo -*uo*. The second declension ending -ёy, however, has not changed.

The final -и in the nominative singular form of a few sixth declension nouns (such as мати *máti* “mother” and докѣи *dókji* “daughter”) is dropped as well: мат *mát*, докѣ *dókj*. The few sixth declension nouns that end in /e/ in the nominative singular generally change it to /jo/: шѣме *šěme* “seed” → шѣмѣ *šěmio*.

There has been a tendency to regularize nouns that have a strange “non-Novegradian” ending in their nominative singular form, most commonly /u/. These are generally changed to /o/: оху *óhu* “car” → ох *óho*.

Finally, there has also been a desire to regularize indeclinable nouns that have been in the language for a while, especially those that refer to everyday sights. There are three primary means of doing so:

- Many nouns already have the right ‘shape’ to be declined, and the only reason they hadn’t up to this point was because they were still viewed as foreign. An example is метро *metró* “metro, subway”, which in the standard is indeclinable, but in colloquial speech is a regular third declension noun.
- When the noun has been prevented from declining due to an unusual final vowel, that vowel is often changed or deleted entirely in speech: кангуру *kangurú* “kangaroo” (indeclinable) → кангур *kangúr* (regular fourth declension masculine).
- Other nouns may acquire a Novegradian suffix so that the ‘non-native’ ending is no longer an ending: кове *kóve* “coffee” (indeclinable) → ковѣйка *kovéika* (regular first declension feminine).

### 22.4.2 Possessive Endings

A common feature in many Uralic languages is that possession can be indicated by a series of possessive affixes instead of using separate possessive adjectives or pronouns. Likely under the influence of these languages, Novegradian has developed a set of possessive affixes that can be used (and actually are required) on a small set of nouns.

These affixes developed from the possessive adjectives, and likely have existed in spoken Novegradian for quite a while. Since the early 18<sup>th</sup> century possessive pronouns were almost exclusively written after kinship terms, whereas they could be

freely written before or after other nouns. Fused forms more like those in modern Novegradian have been attested since the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

Once possessive adjectives were made to follow kinship terms, the next step they took was to lose the ability to agree with the noun they were modifying, having lost their inflectional endings. They then lost their primary stress, cliticizing to the noun they followed. This cliticization then resulted in the deletion of the final vowel (the nominative singular ending) of the noun if it was unstressed, turning the clitic into a true ending. They continued to undergo phonetic reductions, leaving the modern forms of today.

In Novegradian these endings may only be used on kinship terms (see the list in the appendix) as well as the noun *дрѹге* “friend”. The basic endings are as follows:

	Singular		Dual		Plural	
1st	-мо	- <i>mo</i>	-най	- <i>nai</i>	-на -наш	- <i>na</i> - <i>naś</i>
2nd	-тво	- <i>tuo</i>	-уай -вай	- <i>uai</i> - <i>vai</i>	-ya -уаш -ва -ваш	- <i>ua</i> - <i>uaś</i> - <i>va</i> - <i>vaś</i>
3rd	-иево -во -иѣ	- <i>ievo</i> - <i>vo</i> - <i>iě</i>	-ю	- <i>iu</i>	-ex	- <i>eh</i>

The 1<sup>PL</sup> “our” and 2<sup>PL</sup> “you all’s” forms have two variants that exist in free variation, one preserving the final /sʲ/ and one dropping it. Older speakers tend to preserve the /sʲ/ more than drop it, but many younger speakers preserve it as well.

The 2<sup>DL</sup> and 2<sup>PL</sup> also have variants with /w/ and /β/. The /w/ form is used when the endings are being added to a base ending in a consonant and the /β/ form when being added to a base ending in a vowel.

The ending -иѣ -*iě* means “her”. The two variants for “he” follow the same rules as above: -иево -*ievo* is used after consonants and -во -*vo* after vowels.

The singular possessive forms of a noun are formed by dropping the final vowel of the nominative singular form (unless the final vowel is stressed, as in жена *žená* “wife”, or there is a consonant cluster before that vowel, as in шестра *šestra*), and then adding the appropriate endings. Using *дрѹге* “friend”, *мама* *máma* “mother/mom”, and *шестра* *šestra* “sister”:

	апуте	Meaning	мама	Meaning	шестра	Meaning
<b>1SG</b>	апутмо <i>drúgmo</i>	my friend	мамо <i>mámmo</i>	my mother	шестрамо <i>šétramo</i>	my sister
<b>2SG</b>	апутуо <i>drúgtuo</i>	your friend	мамуо <i>mámtuo</i>	your mother	шестрауо <i>šétratuo</i>	your sister
<b>3SG MASC</b>	апутисво <i>drúgievo</i>	his friend	мамиево <i>mámievo</i>	his mother	шестраво <i>šétravo</i>	his sister
<b>3SG FEM</b>	апутиѣ <i>drúgiě</i>	her friend	мамиѣ <i>mámiě</i>	her mother	шестраѣ <i>šétraiě</i>	her sister
<b>1DL</b>	апутнай <i>drúgnai</i>	us two's friend	мамнай <i>mámmai</i>	us two's mother	шестранай <i>šétranai</i>	us two's sister
<b>2DL</b>	апугай <i>drúgai</i>	you two's friend	мамуай <i>mámuai</i>	you two's mother	шестравай <i>šétravai</i>	you two's sister
<b>2DL</b>	апутю <i>drúgiu</i>	them two's friend	мамо <i>mámiu</i>	them two's mother	шестраю <i>šétraiu</i>	them two's sister
<b>1PL</b>	апуна(ш) <i>drúgna(š)</i>	our friend	мамна(ш) <i>mámnna(š)</i>	our mother	шестрана(ш) <i>šétrana(š)</i>	our sister
<b>2PL</b>	апуа(ш) <i>drúgua(š)</i>	you all's friend	мамуа(ш) <i>mámuua(š)</i>	you all's mother	шестрава(ш) <i>šétrava(š)</i>	you all's sister
<b>3PL</b>	апутех <i>drúgeb</i>	their friend	мамех <i>mámeh</i>	their mother	шестраех <i>šétraiex</i>	their sister

Doubled consonants, such as -мм- in маммо *mámmo* “my mother”, are pronounced geminate: /mam.mo/.

The plural forms are formed by taking the nominative plural forms of the noun and adding the same endings. The only difference is that the final -ш is always dropped from the 1PL and 2PL endings when the noun is plural. With дружи *drúži* “friends” and шестри *šéstri* “sisters”:

	дружи	Meaning	шестри	Meaning
<b>1SG</b>	дружимо <i>drúžimo</i>	my friends	шестримо <i>šétriimo</i>	my sisters
<b>2SG</b>	дружитую <i>drúžituo</i>	your friends	шестритуо <i>šéstrituo</i>	your sisters
<b>3SG</b> <b>MASC</b>	друживо <i>drúživo</i>	his friends	шестриво <i>šéstrivo</i>	his sisters
<b>3SG</b> <b>FEM</b>	дружиѣ <i>drúžijě</i>	her friends	шестриѣ <i>šéstrijě</i>	her sisters
<b>1DL</b>	дружинай <i>drúžinai</i>	us two’s friends	шестринай <i>šéstrinai</i>	us two’s sisters
<b>2DL</b>	друживай <i>drúživai</i>	you two’s friends	шестривай <i>šéstrivai</i>	you two’s sisters
<b>3DL</b>	дружию <i>drúžiju</i>	them two’s friends	шестрию <i>šéstriju</i>	them two’s sisters
<b>1PL</b>	дружина <i>drúžina</i>	our friends	шестрина <i>šéstrina</i>	our sisters
<b>2PL</b>	дружива <i>drúživa</i>	you all’s friends	шестрива <i>šéstriva</i>	you all’s sisters
<b>3PL</b>	дружих <i>drúžijeh</i>	their friends	шестриех <i>šéstrijeh</i>	their sisters

The sixth declension nouns мати *máti* “mother” and докѣи *dókji* “daughter” are also regular, the singular forms being based on the “short” nominative singular and the plural on the “extended” nominative plural: докъмо *dókjmo* “my daughter”, докъеримо *dókjerimo* “my daughters”.

Forms such as the above, with possessive suffixes, do not decline for case. These suffixed forms may be used in place of the nominative or animate accusative cases (i.e., as the subject or object of a sentence), or in place of the dative/instrumental when acting as the complement of a copula (e.g., ше-и маммо *šé-i mámmo* “This is my mother”). However, it may not substitute for the accusative case as the object

of a preposition or for the dative/instrumental case in any other function. Outside of the subject, direct object, or complement of a sentence, the full expression NOUN + AT + PRONOUN must be used: Она содагла ше мамой омне *Oná sodaglá šé mámoi omné* “She gave this to my mother” (lit. “She gave this to the mother at me”).

In areas with a high level of bilingualism with a Uralic language, particularly Finnish and Komi, it is not unusual to find speakers mixing endings from Novegradian and the local language in conversation. It is therefore not uncommon to hear expressions such as талотуо *talotuo* for “your house” in Finnish (properly талоси *talosi*) or ёртъясна *jortjasna* “our friends” in Komi (properly ёртъясным *jortjasnym*), or vice versa, hearing expressions in Novegradian such as друтни *drúgni* “my friend” in Finland or татыс *tátys* “his father” in Komi. Such language mixtures are discouraged, but hard to control in casual conversation.

There are, however, a few quirky and idiomatic uses of possessive suffixes on nouns not denoting kinship. A common such example is the phrase В окмо не багъ! *V ókmo ne bágj!* “Get out of my sight!” (lit. “Don’t be in my eye[s]!”). This particular expression extends to other forms as well: В окнай не багъ! *V óknai ne bágj!* “Get out of our (DL) sight!”.

### 22.4.3 Possessive Constructions

In colloquial Novegradian, the two possessive structures (o + genitive and plain genitive) have each acquired exclusive uses. The former is used only with animate possessors, the latter with inanimate possessors. Both constructions may either precede or follow the possessed noun.

Animate:

- о Ростислава нига *o Rostisláva niga* “Rostisláu’s book”
- нига о Ростислава *niga o Rostisláva* “Rostisláu’s book”

Inanimate:

- будова дуерие *budóva duérije* “the building’s doors”
- дуерие будова *duérije budóva* “the building’s doors”

If the possessed object is also animate and is capable of taking possessive suffixes, the possession is redundantly marked:

- о Ростислава татиево *o Rostisláva tátievo* “Rostisláu’s father” (lit. “at Rostisláu his father”)
- татиево о Ростислава *tátievo o Rostisláva* “Rostisláu’s father”

This pattern is preserved when the possessor is a pronoun. In the first and second person (which must always be animate), declined forms of the preposition *o* are used (see Section 22.9.2). In the third person, declined forms of *o* are used if the possessor is animate, while the regular third person possessives as used in the standard language are used if the possessor is inanimate. As with other possessive phrases, the possessor may come either before or after the possessed.

- *омне нига omné níga* “my book”
- *нига омне níga omné* “my book”
- *онво нига onvó níga* “his book”
- *нига онво níga onvó* “his book”
- *ево дурие ievó duérije* “its doors”
- *дурие ево duérije ievó* “its doors”

Spoken Novegradian allows for the object of a plural possessor to be distributive. If there is no distributive particle it is assumed that possession is shared.

- *они воз oní vóz* “their car” (it is shared by all of them)
- *они по воз oní po vóz* “their cars” (each has one car)
- *они вози oní vózi* “their cars” (they are shared by all of them collectively)
- *они по вози oní po vózi* “their cars” (each has multiple cars)

The possessor may appear either before or after the possessed, as before, so long as the distributive particle remains before the possessed item; *oní po vóz* and *po vóz oní* are identical in meaning. The distributive particle also no longer requires its object to be in the dative/instrumental case; it acts more like a true particle than a preposition.

While the *o* + genitive form of possession is becoming more and more widespread in Novegradian and is replacing possessive adjectives genitive modifiers, these forms do not allow for standalone genitives, as seen in sentences such as “Ours is better” or “Andréie’s are better”.

If the standalone possessor is a simple pronoun, the declined preposition is converted directly into a definite adjective using the suffix *-н- -n-*, which can then decline for case and number: *омненей omnénei* “mine (SG MASC)”, *онасна onásnia* “ours (SG FEM)”, *ониней onínji* “their (PL)”. Speakers are inconsistent with the inherited third person forms; some use *евоней ievónei*, *ѣней iěnei*, *ехней iěhnei*, etc, while others continue to use *ево ievó*, *ѣ iě*, *ех iěh*, etc. Since these new adjectives can only be used as standalone genitives and can never directly modify a noun, they have no indefinite forms.

Curiously, this same rule extends to more complicated possessors as well, creating a few more monstrous adjectives such as *овандреиней ovandréinei* “An-



dréie’s (MASC SG)”, онаташня *onatásnia* “Natása’s (FEM SG)”, опетрапетровицней *opétrapetróvicnji* “Pétre Petróvice’s (PL)”, оцарамецислававидораевней *ocára-mecislávavidoráievñji* “Tsar Mécislau II’s (PL)”, although this last example is borderline acceptable. Essentially entire genitive phrases are adjectivalized (о Цара Мецислава Видораево *o Cára Mecisláva Vidoráievo*); if the phrase ends in a vowel, it is dropped or, if an illegal cluster would form, replaced by an epenthetic /e/.

This “adjective” that embeds an entire phrase is limited to the actual possessor noun, appositives hierarchically equal to it (such as titles), and sometimes adjectives. More complex hierarchies, such as additional possessives, are not allowed, so embedding “Kíre’s brother’s” as \*\*обратаокірней *obrátakírnei* or something of the sort is impossible. Such a construction would require rephrasing.

Compare the following sentences:

- (1) Идѣя ов Ивана Николаевица – интересна.  
*Iděia ov Ivána Nikoláievica – interésna.*  
 idea-NOM.SG at-v Ieváne-GEN Nikoláievica-GEN Ø interesting-NOM.SG.FEM  
*“Ieváne Nikoláievica’s idea is interesting.”*
- (2) Обаин з идѣй ех – интересни, но овивананиколаевицня шияяс  
 суѣшеюн.  
*Obájin z iděi iěh – interésni, no ovivánonikoláievicnia šijáias suěšeiun.*  
 both-NOM from idea-GEN.PL their Ø interesting-NOM.PL, but at-v-Ieváne-  
 Nikoláievica-ADJ-NOM.SG.FEM seem-3sg better-DATINS.SG.FEM.DEF  
*“Both of their ideas are interesting, but Ieváne Nikoláievica’s [idea] seems better.”*

#### 22.4.4 The Vocative Case

Although the above possessive suffixes are limited to kinship terms for the most part, one form has become generalized to all nouns. The 1sg possessive ending -мо *-mo* has created a new vocative case in Novegradian, used when calling out to someone.

- (3) Татмо!  
*Tátmo!*  
 father-VOC.SG  
*“Father!”*

- (4) Добре еутро, студенкѣймо!  
*Dobre iéutro, studénkjimo!*  
 good-NOM.SG.MASC morning-NOM.SG, student-VOC.PL  
*“Good morning, class!” (lit. “students”)*

The vocative is most commonly seen with names.

- (5) Еринмо! Ото ти!  
*Ierínmo! Óto tí!*  
 Ierína-VOC! EXPL you.NOM Ø!  
*“Ierína! There you are!”*

### 22.4.5 The Restructuring of the Partitive

In colloquial spoken Novegradian the partitive has acquired a much more restrictive use, but perhaps a more stable one. It can only be used for the subject or direct object of a sentence.

In the standard, the partitive could be used after non-declining determiners such as *многе* “many” in oblique cases, or after declining ones such as *нѣкотре* “several” as long as the adjective appeared definite. Colloquially, the partitive may not appear in oblique cases.

- (6) Colloquial: Он ме наусиле немногами англајскамаи словесми.  
*Ōn me naudzîle nemnógami angláiskami slóvesmi.*

Standard: Оне мене наусиле немноге англајскоу словесоу.  
*Ōne mené naudzîle nemnóge anglijskou slóvesou.*

*“He taught me a few English words.”*

Instead, the partitive can only be used as the subject of a sentence if preceded by an appropriate determiner, or as the direct object of a sentence with or (more commonly) without a determiner.

Additionally, the inanimate direct object of positive future imperfective verbs (formed with *буити* + infinitive) tends to take the partitive case in all circumstances, whether the meaning is partitive or not. With animate direct objects, however, the animate accusative continues to be used.

- (7) Colloquial: Бадун цидати шей нигох.  
*Bádun cidáti šei nígox.*

Standard: Бадун цидати шу нигу.  
*Bádun cidáti šú nígu.*

*“I’m going to read this book.”*

### 22.4.6 Loss of the Neuter

In colloquial Novegradian the neuter gender has ceased to exist, having merged fully with the masculine. Even in the standard language the difference in agreement is minimal; the two are distinguished only in the singular past tense of verbs and nominative/animate accusative singular of adjectives. The spoken language has completed the process, with masculine agreement taking over in adjectives and “inanimate” agreement in verbs. Formerly neuter nouns now only constitute a subparadigm within the third and fourth declensions that have a distinct nominative/accusative form from their masculine counterparts.

The former neuter agreement endings have acquired new functions with the demise of the gender as an independent category. The verbal neuter has been reassigned to all inanimates as mentioned earlier, while the indefinite adjectival neuter continues to be used for impersonal adjectives (as in *Кладно Kládno* “It is cold”). The definite adjectival neuter has been lost.

### 22.4.7 Example Declensions

To demonstrate the declension of nouns in modern spoken Novegradian, in the chart on the opposite page are nouns from each of the six declensions.

### 22.4.8 Singularia Tantum

Standard Novegradian, like several of the other Slavic languages, has a sizable number of nouns referring to fruits and vegetables that are singularia tantum, that is, they exist only in the singular and are treated as mass nouns. The colloquial language has continued to generalize this pattern, so that most common fruits and vegetables now act as singularia tantum.

Singular						
	нига “book”	жемя “land”	дом “house”	мор “sea”	ночь “night”	мат “mother”
Nom	нига <i>níga</i>	жемя <i>žémia</i>	дом <i>dóm</i>	мор <i>mór</i>	ночь <i>nókj</i>	мат <i>mát</i>
Gen	нигѣ <i>nígě</i>	жемин <i>žémín</i>	дому <i>dómu</i>	мора <i>móra</i>	ногѣи <i>nogjí</i>	матера <i>mátěra</i>
Acc	нигу <i>nígu</i>	жемлу <i>žémľu</i>	дом <i>dóm</i>	мор <i>mór</i>	ночь <i>nókj</i>	матера <i>mátěra</i>
D/I	нигой <i>nígoi</i>	жемей <i>žetěi</i>	домом <i>dómom</i>	морем <i>mórem</i>	ногѣом <i>nogjióm</i>	матерем <i>mátěrem</i>
Part	нигох <i>nígob</i>	жемлох <i>žemľob</i>	домох <i>dómob</i>	морех <i>morěb</i>	ночьех <i>nókjeb</i>	матерех <i>mátěrb</i>
Loc	нигѣ <i>nígě</i>	жеми <i>žemí</i>	домѣ <i>dómě</i>	морѣ <i>morě</i>	ногѣи <i>nogjí</i>	матере <i>mátěre</i>
Lat	нигун <i>nígún</i>	жемлун <i>žemľún</i>	домон <i>dómón</i>	морен <i>morén</i>	нокъин <i>nókjin</i>	материн <i>mátěrin</i>
Voc	нигмо <i>nígmo</i>	жемямо <i>žetiamto</i>	доммо <i>dómto</i>	мормо <i>mómmo</i>	ночьмо <i>nókjmo</i>	матмо <i>mátmo</i>
Plural						
Nom	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемѣ <i>žetě</i>	дома <i>domá</i>	мори <i>móri</i>	ночьѣе <i>nókjeje</i>	матери <i>mátěri</i>
Gen	ниг <i>níg</i>	жемели <i>žetěli</i>	дом <i>dóm</i>	мор <i>mór</i>	ночьей <i>nókjei</i>	матер <i>mátěr</i>
Acc	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемѣ <i>žetě</i>	дома <i>domá</i>	мори <i>móri</i>	ночьѣе <i>nókjeje</i>	матер <i>mátěr</i>
D/I	нигам <i>nígat</i>	жемлам <i>žetľam</i>	домам <i>domám</i>	морам <i>morám</i>	ногѣам <i>nogjiám</i>	матерми <i>mátěrmí</i>
Part	нигуо <i>níguo</i>	жемлоу <i>žemľou</i>	домуо <i>dómuo</i>	мореу <i>móreu</i>	ночьеу <i>nókjeu</i>	матеруо <i>mátěruo</i>
Loc	нигах <i>nígab</i>	жемлах <i>žetľab</i>	домѣх <i>doměb</i>	морѣх <i>morěb</i>	ночьих <i>nókjib</i>	матерѣх <i>mátěrb</i>
Lat	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемѣ <i>žetě</i>	доми <i>dómi</i>	морѣ <i>morě</i>	ночьи <i>nókjei</i>	матери <i>mátěri</i>
Voc	нигимо <i>nígimo</i>	жемѣмо <i>žetěmo</i>	домамо <i>domámo</i>	моримо <i>mórimo</i>	ночьѣемо <i>nókjejeto</i>	материмо <i>mátěrimo</i>

## 22.5 Adjectives

The function and declension of adjectives have changed very little. A few endings have changed to reflect changes in the nominal system, but other than these, the adjectival system is largely unchanged from the standard.

- The partitive singular ending is *-ox -oh* for indefinite adjectives and *-охево -óhevo* for definite adjectives.
- The partitive plural ending is *-yo -uo* for indefinite adjectives, but the definite is still *-овево -óvevo*.
- The masculine singular nominative indefinite ending is still *-e*, that is, it has not been lost.

Several of the nominative definite endings have reduced slightly, having lost the first vowel in the ending. The nominative endings now look like this:

Masculine	Feminine	(Neuter)	Plural
-ей <i>-ei</i>	-я <i>-ia</i>	(-ие <i>-ie</i> )	-чи <i>-ji</i>

The neuter form only exists in one specific context—reading from a text that is written in the standard and contains productive neuters in *-ое -oie*. Otherwise, it has no use in spontaneous speech. The reduced ending has no spelling in Novegradian because it never appears in informal speech-imitating writing.

The nominative definite forms for an adjective like *црвене* *cérvene* “red” are therefore: *црвенеј* *cérveneј*, *црвеня* *cervénia*, *црвенеи* *cervénji*, and in informal contexts the neuter *црвеное* *cervénoie* would be pronounced *cervénie* when being read from a text.

More significant, however, is that several formally-indeclinable determiners have been converted into normal adjectives, in particular *многе* *mnóge* and *нѣколко* *několke* “several”. These follow the same rules that older adjective-determiners such as *нѣкотре* follow in colloquial speech, in that they may be partitive only when indicating the subject or direct object of a verb.

- (8) Я вигъун многуо лудеу.  
*Iá vígjun mnóguo lúdeu.*  
 I.NOM see-1SG many-PART.PL people-PART.PL  
*“I see many people.” (with partitive)*

- (9) Яс говорун о многѣх людѣх.  
*Iás govorún o mnógěh lúděh.*  
 I.NOM talk-1SG about many-LOC.PL people-LOC.PL  
 “I talk about many people.” (without partitive)

## 22.6 Numerals

### 22.6.1 Cardinal Numbers

The two most interesting changes to the numeral system are the loss of gender agreement in the inanimate numerals “two” (which has become *дов* *dóv* or *дов* *dóv* for all genders) and “three” (which has become *три* *tri*) and the formation of an animate numeral “one”, *еден* *iedén*, which does not decline.

Most numerals undergo some reduction in speech:

	Inanimate	Animate
1	едне <i>íedne</i>	еден <i>iedén</i>
2	дов <i>dóv</i>	дуаин <i>duájin</i>
3	три <i>tri</i>	троин <i>trójin</i>
4	цетри <i>cétri</i>	цетро <i>cétro</i>
5	пет <i>pét</i>	пентро <i>péntro</i>
6	шес <i>šés</i>	шестро <i>šéstro</i>
7	шень <i>šénj</i>	шентро <i>šéntro</i>
8	ошн <i>ósn</i>	(о)жентро <i>(o)žéntro</i>
9	девит <i>dévit</i>	дуестро <i>duéstro</i>
10	дешит <i>déšit</i>	сестро <i>dzéstro</i>

The /j/ seen in the nominative form of the inanimate numeral seven has spread to all inanimate forms: шень *šénj*, шеньех *šénjeh*, шеньем *šénjem*.

The standard numeral *пиздешити* *pizdésiti* “fifty” has been almost completely replaced by *пољста* *pólsta* (lit. “half of a hundred”). However, 51, 52, 53, etc. continue to be based on *пиздешити*, never *пољста*. The animate form of 50 remains *пиздешит(е)ро* *pizdésit(e)ro*.

In addition, colloquially the concept of “at least X” can be expressed by placing a stressed *со* *só* immediately after the numerical expression: *дешит лудин со* *déšit ludín só* “at least ten people”. This is related to the preposition *со* “with”, which in

this context has acquired a wholly adverbial function.

## 22.6.2 Ordinal Numbers

The system of ordinal numbers remains largely unchanged except in one aspect. The numbers “one” and “two” have developed regularized ordinals еденне *iedénne* and дуојне *duóine* that appear in the ordinal forms of complex numerals only. That is, “first” is still пирве *pírve* and “second” is still друк *drúge*, but “twenty-first” is дуадеси еденне *duadési iedénne* and “twenty-second” is дуадеси дуојне *duadési duóine*.

## 22.7 Pronouns

### 22.7.1 Personal Pronouns

The newest addition to the pronominal system is a series of unstressed clitic pronouns for the accusative and dative/instrumental cases. They have largely supplanted the full forms, which are now used mainly for emphasis. However, these clitic pronouns can never be used after a preposition.

The accusative clitic pronouns:

	Sg	Dl	Pl
1st	ме <i>me</i>	нај <i>nai</i>	нас <i>nas</i>
2nd	те <i>te</i>	вай <i>vai</i>	вас <i>vas</i>
3rd	во <i>vo</i> вѣ <i>vě</i>	ю <i>iu</i>	их <i>ih</i>
Reflexive	ше <i>še</i>		

The dative-instrumental clitic pronouns:

	Sg	Dl	Pl
1st	меј <i>mei</i>	на <i>na</i>	нам <i>nam</i>
2nd	теј <i>tei</i>	ва <i>va</i>	вам <i>vam</i>
3rd	му <i>mu</i> еј <i>iei</i>	ма <i>ma</i>	им <i>im</i>
Reflexive	шеј <i>sei</i>		

The two forms listed under as third person singular are masculine and feminine respectively.

The pronoun оба/обѣ “both” has collapsed into a single genderless form as with дова, although it has also acquired a suffix by analogy with the numeral доваин “two” and the former possessive adjectives наин/ваин “us two’s, you two’s”: обаин *obájin*.

## 22.7.2 Personal Pronouns and Conjunctions

In colloquial Novegradian, the generalization of ac *ás* “whereas I” to all persons as some sort of pre-conjunction has become mandatory, whereas in the standard it is optional. The whole array of coordinating conjunction + pronoun combinations in colloquial Novegradian is complex enough to warrant a table. Note in particular the stress shifts in some of the third person forms.

Pronoun	И “And”	А “Whereas”
я <i>iás</i>	и яс <i>i iás</i>	ас <i>ás</i>
ти <i>tí</i>	и ти <i>i tí</i>	ас а ти <i>as a tí</i>
он <i>ón</i>	ин <i>ín</i>	ас ан <i>as án</i>
она <i>oná</i>	ина <i>iná</i>	ас ана <i>as ána</i>
надуа <i>naduá</i>	и надуа <i>i naduá</i>	ас а надуа <i>as a naduá</i>
вадуа <i>vaduá</i>	и вадуа <i>i vaduá</i>	ас а вадуа <i>as a vaduá</i>
ондуа <i>onduá</i>	индуа <i>induá</i>	ас андуа <i>as ándua</i>
муи <i>muí</i>	и муи <i>i muí</i>	ас а муи <i>as a muí</i>
вуи <i>vuí</i>	и вуи <i>i vuí</i>	ас а вуи <i>as a vuí</i>
они <i>oní</i>	ини <i>iní</i>	ас ани <i>as áni</i>

Despite the spread of ac *as* amongst all the personal pronouns, the conjunction remains simply a *a* before any other part of speech as well as before other types of



pronouns. For this reason the highly unique forms in the table above are sometimes termed “conjunctive pronouns”.

### 22.7.3 Interrogative Pronouns

Spoken Novegradian has seen some reshuffling in its interrogative pronoun system.

Зацем *zácem* “why?” has largely been replaced by just цем *cém*, the locative form of цой *cói* “what?”. Зацем remains in use, however, when referring to “why?” in the sense of “for what goal?”: Зацем ти ишле марнатең? / За млегом “Why do you go to the store? / For milk”. Similarly, кем *kém*, the locative form of хой *hói* “who?”, has taken on a meaning of “for whose sake? because of whom?”, as in Кем ти зайшле саймен? “Because of whom did you drop by the party? Who did you drop by the party to see?”.

Two additional interrogatives that have developed in the colloquial language are оацем *odcém* [ot.'tsem] “from what, how?” and оакем *odkém* [o.'k'ɛm] “from whom, how?”. The formal language uses the pronoun оскуд *oskúd* “whence?” for all questions of origin, whether the origin is a place, person, or thing. Colloquial Novegradian, however, distinguishes all three sources:

- Оскуд ти брала шу нигу-то? *Oskúd tí bralá sú nígu-to?*  
“Where did you get that book from?” (same in standard)
- Оакем ти вѣжи? *Odkém tí vѣži?*  
“Who told you?” (lit. ‘From whom do you know?’) (standard Оскуд ти вѣжи? “From where do you know?”)
- Оацем ти муйслиш ше-то? *Odcém tí muislís še-to?*  
“What are you basing this on? (lit. ‘From what are you thinking this?’)”  
(standard Оскуд ти ше придумоваш? “From where are you thinking this up?”)

Оацем, as seen above, typically refers to more abstract sources than either оскуд or оакем.

The interrogative колкѣ *kólké* “how many?” has acquired a variant form used only with animate nouns and pluralia tantum, колкеро *kólkero*, by analogy with animate numerals. Thus where standard Novegradian required the wordier колкѣ пароу штон? *kólké paróu štón?* “how many pairs of pants?”, colloquial Novegradian allows simply колкеро штонеу? *kólkero štóneu?*

## 22.8 Topicalization

The exact role topicalization plays seems to vary from generation to generation. Nowadays people tend to use it very laxly, often enough that it may appear at a cursory glance to be a definite article. And truly, it has acquired a number of aspects typical of articles. Speakers have become somewhat hesitant to attach the topicalization marker to any indefinite noun, preferring to use it in the following sentence once it is semantically definite.

However, the topical nature of the marker *-to* is still quite strong. Two main properties make this clear:

- It is not applied to all definite nouns, nor to all definite nouns excluding proper nouns; there is no rule that accurately explains its use using only the rules of a definite article.
- It cannot be used multiple times within a single clause. Even if it contains two definite elements, the marker will always fall on the more strongly topicalized of the two.

## 22.9 Prepositions

Three main trends have been observed in the colloquial use of prepositions—phonetic simplification of prepositions, the merger of certain prepositions with following pronouns, and the generalization of the three-form preposition system.

### 22.9.1 Phonetic Simplification of Prepositions

Colloquial Novegradian has eliminated all polysyllabic unanalyzable pronouns by simplifying their pronunciation. Originally slurred, these simplified forms can now be seen in more careful speech as well. Such changes include:

Standard	Colloquial	Meaning
дѣля <i>délia</i>	дѣ <i>diá</i>	for
нимо <i>nímo</i>	ним <i>ním</i>	past
огольо <i>ogóto</i>	голь <i>gót</i>	around

These types of dramatic reductions have not yet affected prepositions whose etymology is transparent; analogy prevents it from occurring.

The vowel in the prepositions во *vo* “in”, со *so* “with”, and ко *ko* “toward” is

often unrounded and lowered, becoming [ʌ].

Before a word beginning in /k/ or /g/, *ko* “to, toward” lenites to *xo* *ho*: *xo kërkevem* *ho kërkevem* “towards the church”.

### 22.9.2 Preposition ‘Declension’

Another Uralic feature that has entered Novegradian is the beginning of system of prepositional declension, where when certain prepositions are followed by a personal pronoun, the two merge to form a single unit: Standard Novegradian *во мнѣ vo mně* “in me”, colloquial *вами vamí*. A similar phenomenon is seen in Slovenian.

Historically these developed from the reduced ‘clitic’ pronouns (see Section 22.7 above), which once were allowed to follow certain prepositions. Clitic pronouns are not allowed anymore because all previously-allowed forms have merged to form these declining prepositions.

For prepositions that can be used with multiple cases, only the most common case is seen in merged forms. For example, *во* can be used with the accusative, locative, and lative cases, but the locative meaning is by far the most common. For that reason all merged forms of *во* carry the locative sense “in”.

There are two basic sets of endings declining prepositions use. One set is derived from the dative/instrumental clitic pronouns, which were used with prepositions that either took the dative/instrumental case or a case very similar to it in terms of pronouns, such as the locative. The other set comes from the accusative clitic pronouns, which similarly were used with prepositions requiring the accusative case or a similar one, particularly the genitive.

These merged forms only developed for a small set of prepositions that were phonetically weak, all of which ended in a vowel. Sometimes vowel changes occur when a preposition takes pronoun endings (such as *во vo* → *вами vamí* above), but the reason for such changes are clear; in this case, it was a reanalysis of the [βʌ] pronunciation often seen in the independent preposition.

The following prepositions are allowed to decline: *во vo* “in”, *ко ko* “to(ward)”, *о o* “at”, *со so* “with”, and *дя dia* “for”.

Other meanings of the above prepositions must be written out in full: *омне* “at me”, but *о мнѣ* “about me”.

The declined forms of *о o* have replaced possessive adjectives in modern spoken Novegradian: *нига омне niga omné* “my book”. They may also be used with a noun with a possessive ending for further emphasis: *татмо омне tátmo omné* “my father”.

	во <i>vo</i> 'in'	ко <i>ko</i> 'toward'	со <i>so</i> 'with'	о <i>o</i> 'at'	дя <i>dia</i> 'for'
<b>1Sg</b>	вами <i>vamí</i>	ками <i>kamí</i>	сами <i>samí</i>	омне <i>omné</i>	дяме <i>diamé</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	вати <i>vatí</i>	кати <i>katí</i>	сати <i>satí</i>	оте <i>oté</i>	дяте <i>diaté</i>
<b>3SgM</b>	ванму <i>vanmú</i>	канму <i>kanmú</i>	санму <i>sanmú</i>	онво <i>onvó</i>	дянво <i>dianvó</i>
<b>3SgF</b>	ваней <i>vanéi</i>	каней <i>kanéi</i>	саней <i>sanéi</i>	онвѣ <i>onvě</i>	дянвѣ <i>dianvě</i>
<b>1Dl</b>	вана <i>vaná</i>	кана <i>kaná</i>	сана <i>saná</i>	онай <i>onái</i>	дянай <i>dianái</i>
<b>2Dl</b>	вава <i>vavá</i>	кава <i>kavá</i>	сава <i>savá</i>	овай <i>ovái</i>	дявай <i>diavái</i>
<b>3Dl</b>	вама <i>vamá</i>	кама <i>kamá</i>	сама <i>samá</i>	оню <i>oniú</i>	дяню <i>dianiú</i>
<b>1Pl</b>	ванам <i>vanám</i>	канам <i>kanám</i>	санам <i>sanám</i>	онас <i>onás</i>	дянас <i>dianás</i>
<b>2Pl</b>	вавам <i>vavám</i>	кавам <i>kavám</i>	савам <i>savám</i>	овас <i>ovás</i>	дявас <i>diavás</i>
<b>3Pl</b>	ваним <i>vaním</i>	каним <i>kaním</i>	саним <i>saním</i>	они <i>oní</i>	дяни <i>dianí</i>
<b>Reflex</b>	ваши <i>vaší</i>	каши <i>kaší</i>	саши <i>saší</i>	оше <i>ośé</i>	дяше <i>diaśé</i>

### 22.9.3 The Three-Form Preposition

Standard Novegradian has three prepositions that each have three forms: во, со, and ко. Before a word beginning with a vowel or /j/, the vowel would drop: в, с, к. Before a third person pronoun, they would acquire a final /n/: вон, сон, кон.

This pattern has spread analogically to a number of other prepositions. Once these prepositions acquired a vowelless form before words beginning with a vowel, analogy soon provided them with the *-n* suffix as well.

The following prepositions have three forms in colloquial speech:

Preposition	Vowelless	Extended	Meaning
во <i>vo</i>	в <i>v</i>	вои <i>von</i>	in
до <i>do</i>	д <i>d</i>	дои <i>don</i>	up to, until
зе <i>ze</i>	з <i>z</i>	зеи <i>zen</i>	from
ко/хо <i>ko/ho</i>	к <i>k</i>	кои <i>kon</i>	to, toward
про <i>pro</i>	пр <i>pr</i>	прон <i>pron</i>	because of
со <i>so</i>	с <i>s</i>	сои <i>son</i>	with

The three new three-form prepositions above have lost their older two-form variant with -в -*v*. Other prepositions that are two-form in the standard but that do not appear on the above list continue to act as two-form prepositions.

In spoken Novegradian, initial /e/ [je] (in the standard) is always pronounced [e] after a preposition: в езерѣ [ˈβe.ze.rɪ] “in the lake”.

#### 22.9.4 Distributive По

The distributive particle *no po* in the colloquial language has completely broken with its origin as a preposition. It no longer forces its “object” to take any case, and is now invariable (i.e., it lacks the form *пов pov* before words beginning with vowels). It simply acts as a modifying particle that always appears before the noun it modifies. If the distributive noun is the subject of a sentence, then the verb can show proper gender and number agreement as well.



# 23

## *Dialects*

ЌГ

*Мовли*

### ***23.1 Major Novegradian Dialects***

Novegradian has five major dialect zones, as shown in the map on the following page. These groups are typically identified as “Central” (including standard Novegradian), “Southern”, “Zavolotian”, “Northern”, and “Siberian”. Each of these can then in turn be divided into a number of subdialects.

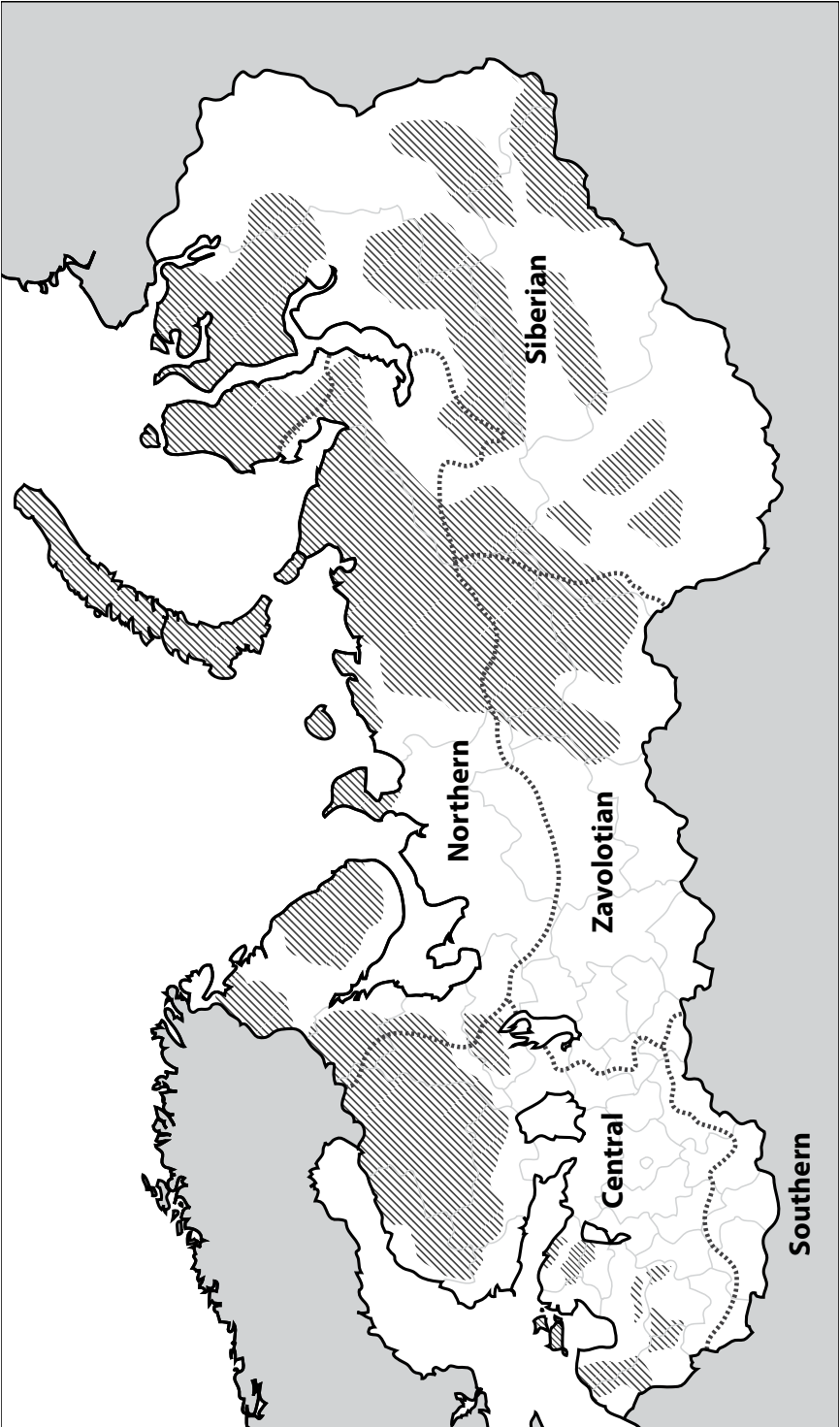
It should be noted that the following discussion is purely about *spoken* dialects (as very little written variation exists). When comparing them to standard Novegradian, therefore, it is best to compare them to the spoken form of the language as described in the previous section rather than the written standard. Unless otherwise noted, most of the changes described in Section 22 are also present in the various dialects, such as nominative ending loss, possessive endings, and the vocative case.

### ***23.2 The Central Dialects***

The Central Dialects are the Novegradian dialects spoken in the oldest part of the country, centered around the cities of Novegráde Velíkei, Pleskóve, and Néu-grade. It is also spoken in the Baltics and much of Finland and southern Karelia, where it was introduced after these territories were annexed between the late 17<sup>th</sup> and mid 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. The standard language is based on the Velikonovegrádeskei subdialect.

#### **23.2.1 Geographic Distribution**

The standard dialects are centered in the Novegradian heartland around Novegráde Velíkei itself. As the standard variety, this dialect was also spread into the Republic’s newest territories, those annexed after the language was largely standardized. There are also smaller groups of central dialect speakers scattered





throughout the nation, particularly in recently-founded far-northern cities such as Murmáne and Suťtlogóreske, which were settled in the 20<sup>th</sup> century and whose populations were largely transplanted to these locations during the Soviet period. Many people in major cities throughout the country speak a central dialect due to increasing mobility in recent years, although in many smaller cities and the countryside the local dialects may still be dominant.

### 23.2.2 History

The city of Novegráde Velíkei has always been the capital and cultural center of the Novegradian state, and as such its dialect has always been the most prestigious form of Novegradian.

### 23.2.3 Status

The standard dialects are viewed as the most neutral form of the language. It is the most commonly heard speech variety on television and radio, and is generally preferred in business and political contexts. The written form of Novegradian is based on these dialects as well.

However, locally there is some variation in what is viewed as standard speech. Although the written standard is common across the entire nation, the Lětnosúmeskei (Southern Finland) subdialect, which features some differences in pronunciation from the standard Velikonovegrádeskei subdialect, is viewed as the more or less official spoken dialect within the Republic of Finland. Most people, including Finnish politicians and newscasters, will follow this pronunciation standard even in more formal contexts. Primary schools will often teach the official Novegradian pronunciation, but put little emphasis on it and then continue on in using Lětnosúmeskei pronunciation. Similar situations may be seen in Latvia and, to a lesser extent, Estonia and Komi.

*The map at left shows the geographic distribution of the five major dialect groups, represented by the large dashed lines. This, however, is largely based on traditional usage, and does not indicate the widespread use of central dialects closer to Standard Novegradian in major cities throughout the country.*

*Shaded regions represent areas where the first language of most of the population is not Novegradian, so that the majority of speakers learn Novegradian at a later age.*

### 23.2.4 Phonology

The pronunciation of standard Novegradian as well as more its colloquial counterpart has been discussed earlier in this grammar. However, the subdialects spoken in Finland and Latvia deserve mention since they will be heard throughout these regions.

Some Finnish features include:

- Unstressed /æ/ generally is not merged with /i/.
- /sʲ/ becomes /s/ when part of a cluster: *пoстa* *pósta* “mail” (standard *пoштa* *póšta*); similarly, /zʲ/ becomes /z/.
- /t/ is pronounced as /l/, often with a /u/~/w/ inserted before or after: *coулдaт* *souldát* “solder” (standard *coльдaтe* *soldáte*), *лyовити* *luóviti* “catch” (standard *лoвити* *lówiti*).
- The palatals /c ʃ ç j/ are pronounced [kʲ gʲ xʲ ɟʲ], except in coda position, where they merge with the velar series as [k g x ɣ], albeit with a [ɪ] on-glide. Standard *но́чь* *nókʲi* “night”, for example, will be pronounced [ˈno.kʲɪ] in formal contexts or [ˈnoɣk] informally.
- A glottal stop is inserted between a prefix and a root beginning with a vowel, instead of /j/ in the standard: *oавити* *óáviti* “declare” (standard *oявити* *oiáviti*).
- More sporadically, the stressed front vowels /æ e i/ sometimes diphthongize to /æi ei ie/ in open syllables.
- Final /in/ lowers to /en/.
- Final /e/ in the lative or accusative clitic pronouns becomes /jæ/: *миѣ*, *тиѣ*, etc.

Some Latvian features include:

- Final vowels in definite ending endings tend to drop: *цeрвeнaй* *cervénai* “red (NOM SG FEM)” (standard *цeрвeнaя* *cervénaia*).
- Unstressed vowels in nominal endings followed by a consonant tend to drop or weaken greatly: *мopм* *mórm* “sea (DATINS SG)” (standard *мopем* *mórem*).
- /i/ pronounced as /ə/: *гымaти* [ˈgə.mə.tɪ] (standard [ˈgi.mə.tɪ]) “shout”.
- /n/ before a stressed front vowel is realized as a fully palatal [ɲ] instead of palatalized [nʲ]: *нъeт* *ɲét* “no” (standard *нeт* *net*).
- /b/ in oblique forms of 2SG and reflexive pronouns pronounced /β/: *шeвe* *ševé* “oneself (ACC)” (standard *шeбe* *šebé*).

### 23.2.5 Grammar

Once again, the grammar of standard Novegradian has been previously discussed.

The most defining feature of the grammar of the semi-standard Finnish dialect is its use of the partitive case. It uses the partitive after numerals instead of the genitive or count forms: *ДОВѢ НИГОХ* *dóvě nígox* “two books” (standard *ДОВѢ НИГѢ* *dóvě nígě*). It also uses the partitive case instead of the accusative to mark the direct object of positive stative verbs: *Яс лублун Маркех* *Iás lublún Markéh* “I love Mark” (standard *Яс лублун Марка* *Iás lublún Márka*). It is not uncommon to hear the partitive singular ending *-ox -oh* (already reduced from standard *-ok -ok*) simplify to just *-o -o* in casual speech.

The grammar of the Latvian dialects does not vary significantly from standard Novegradian. The most noticeable difference is the tendency to place adverbs clause-finally, instead of in front of the verb, which often sounds quite strange to other Novegradian speakers. The reduction of a number of nominative and genitive case definite adjective endings is also a distinctive feature, and is different from the reductions seen in colloquial speech of other dialects:

	Latvian Formal/Spoken	Standard Formal	Standard Spoken
<b>Nom Sg M</b>	цervней <i>cérveneī</i>	цervней <i>cérveneī</i>	цervней <i>cérveneī</i>
<b>Nom Sg N</b>	цervеной <i>cervénoi</i>	цervеное <i>cervénoie</i>	(цervение <i>cervénie</i> )
<b>Nom Sg F</b>	цervенай <i>cervénai</i>	цervеная <i>cervénaia</i>	цervеня <i>cervénia</i>
<b>Nom Pl</b>	цervений <i>cervénij</i>	цervение <i>cervénije</i>	цervеней <i>cervénji</i>
<b>Gen Sg M/N</b>	цervенайв <i>cervenáiv</i>	цervенаево <i>cervenáievo</i>	цervенайво <i>cervenáivo</i>
<b>Gen Sg F</b>	цervенѣй <i>cervéněi</i>	цervенѣе <i>cervéněie</i>	цervенѣе <i>cervéněie</i>

## ***23.3 The Southern Dialects***

### **23.3.1 Geographic Distribution**

The Southern dialects cover the smallest area geographically out of all the major Novegradian dialect groups, but include several large population centers. They form a narrow belt hugging the southwestern Novegradian border along Russia and Belarus. It is spoken in the southern halves of Lovotiskáia, Reževeskáia, and Moložeskáia oblosts, the western half of Mostegradeskáia oblost, and most of Videbeskáia and Poloteskáia oblosts.

### **23.3.2 History**

These dialects have had a large amount of influence from East Slavic languages, particularly Russian and Belarussian. Lying on the edge of Novegradian-speaking territory, these people have historically lived with and had frequent contact with Russians and Belarussians. In fact, many speakers of southern dialects, particularly in the westernmost parts of the region, are of Russian descent, most of whom have since been assimilated. When Russia and Novegrad were unified from the 19<sup>th</sup> century until 1917, this more Russified dialect spread further northward as it gained more prestige, but after 1917 and the reassertion of Novegradian nationalism began once again to retreat to the border region.

### **23.3.3 Status**

Once a somewhat prestigious dialect, it is now somewhat stigmatized. Due to rising Novegradian nationalism in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century and particularly since the 1970s, there has been a greater desire to remove many perceived Russianisms from the language.

The southern dialects have no official support, and exist principally on a colloquial level. In formal situations speakers are expected to use Standard Novegradian (or if they live within the borders of the Latvian Republic, the standardized Latvian dialect of Novegradian).

### **23.3.4 Phonology**

The following describes the Vidébeskei subdialect.

### 23.3.4.1 The Vowel System

Three features stand out in the vocalic system. The first is the presence of *akanye* (аканье *ákanje*), common in East Slavic languages but nonexistent in most varieties of Novegradian. In these dialects, unstressed /o/ merges completely with /a/: гавариты *gavarítý* “talk” (standard говорити *govoríti*). This can sometimes lead to gender confusion, as an unstressed final /o/ will merge with unstressed final /a/: яблака *iáblaka* “apple” (standard яблоко *iábloko*). Note that this means colloquially many neuter third declension nouns are merging with the feminine in the South, whereas in other dialects all neuter nouns are merging with the masculine.

Second is the loss of the yat /æ/. When stressed it becomes /ja/, and when unstressed /e/: вяра *viára* “faith” (standard вѣра *věra*), наляве *naliáve* “on the left” (standard налѣвъ *nalěvě*).

Third is the phoneme /i/, which appears natively. It is pronounced slightly further forward than standard Novegradian /i/. It has three main sources: from foreign loans, as in the standard: гыматы *gymátý* “shout” (standard гымати *gymáti*); from Common Slavic \*y, which is usually /i/ or /wi/ in the standard: быты *býty* “be” (standard буити *buíti*); and from unstressed /i/ when word-finally or before a nasal consonant (i.e., where the standard has [ɪ]): пяты *piátý* “sing” (standard пѣти *pěti*).

Additionally, many places where /e/ [je] appears at the beginning of a word in standard Novegradian that derives directly from Common Slavic, southern dialects will instead have /o/ (which can be realized as /a/, as per above, or /βo/, as per another rule described below): водене *vódene* “one” (standard едене *iédene*), вожеpa *vóžera* “lake” (standard езеро *iéžero*). The presence of /o/ for standard initial /e/ is highly inconsistent across subdialects, suggesting dialect borrowing may be a contributing factor.

### 23.3.4.2 Vowel Alterations

/o/ is not allowed to appear word-initially in native words, as /β/ must be added before. This often leads to a stressed /βo/ versus unstressed /a/ alteration: NOM SG акно *aknó* “window”, GEN SG вокну *vóknu* (standard окно *oknó*, окну *óknu*). Standard Novegradian has a similar feature, where [w] is added before an initial stressed /o/, though this does not appear in writing.

Many nouns with an unstressed /e/ in the singular that undergo a stress shift to that vowel in the plural will see an /e/ → /o/ shift when stressed. This is another feature very common in East Slavic languages: вожеpa *vóžera* “sea”, ажоры *ážóry* “seas” (standard езеро *iéžero*, ежеpa *iežerá*).

### 23.3.4.3 Consonants

The consonant system of southern dialects is actually quite similar to the standard.

The most noticeable difference is the sporadic application of the Second Slavic Palatalization, which most forms of Novegradian skipped. This results in \*/k g x kv gv xv/ becoming /ts z s tsw zw sw/ before front vowels in these dialects: зўязда *zwiazdá* “star” (standard гуѣзда *guězda*). Веше *véše* “all” (standard вехе *véhe*), an instance of the progressive palatalization not seen in standard Novegradian, is also commonly heard.

Another feature is chokanye (чоканье *čokanje*), the confusion of /tʃ/ and /ts/. Standard Novegradian went through this stage, but ultimately converted all original instances of both /ts/ and /tʃ/ to /ts/. In southern dialects, the two forms now exist in allophonic variation, with [tʃ] before front vowels and /j/ and [ts] elsewhere: чидаты *čidáty* “read” (standard цидати *cidáti*), чай *cái* “tea” (standard цае *cáie*).

Standard Novegradian /t/ has merged with /w/, and /ɲ/ is generally pronounced as a geminate /nn/: жоуте *žoute* “yellow” (standard жоѡте *žólte*), веденне *vedénne* “knowledge” (standard вѣденье *věděnje*).

### 23.3.5 Grammar

Southern dialects have all the same nominal and adjectival declensional forms as the standard, although their pronunciation is often different. The total number of declensions has dropped, however, due to the loss of the third declension O-stems.

The two biggest changes that cannot simply be explained by sound changes are the loss of the nominative plural ending *-a* for neuter nouns (now *-y* for all nouns), and the singular forms of sixth-declension nouns. Such nouns display their suffixed forms only in the plural. In the singular, мат *mát* “mother” and докъ *dókj* “daughter” behave as fifth declension nouns, while all others take the suffix *-ие -ie* and conjugate as fourth declension nouns. Additionally, the dative/instrumental ending for sixth declension nouns is often *-u* instead of *-em*, derived from the historical dative form instead of the instrumental as in the standard.

Indefinite adjectives decline much like nouns. However, some of the definite forms are more reduced than in the standard. The neuter forms are shown in the following adjective table, but are increasingly rare in speech. Shown are червенай *červenai* “red” (an antepenultimate-stress adjective in the standard) and другой *drugói* “second” (an ending-stress adjective in the standard, which here has ending stress even in its NOM SG MASC form).

Singular						
	нига "book"	жемаа "land"	вожера "lake"	мор "sea"	ночь "night"	имие "name"
<b>Nom</b>	нига <i>níga</i>	жемаа <i>žémła</i>	вожера <i>vóžera</i>	мор <i>mór</i>	ночь <i>nókj</i>	имие <i>ímie</i>
<b>Gen</b>	ните <i>níge</i>	жемле <i>žémle</i>	вожере <i>vóžere</i>	мора <i>móra</i>	нагьи <i>naǵjǐ</i>	имя <i>ímia</i>
<b>Acc</b>	нигу <i>nígu</i>	жемлу <i>žémļu</i>	вожеру <i>vóžeru</i>	мор <i>mór</i>	ночь <i>nókj</i>	имие <i>ímie</i>
<b>D/I</b>	нигой <i>nígoi</i>	жемай <i>žémłei</i>	вожерой <i>vóžeroi</i>	морем <i>mórem</i>	нагьем <i>naǵjǐm</i>	имю <i>ímü</i>
<b>Part</b>	нигох <i>nígob</i>	жемаох <i>žémlob</i>	вожерох <i>vóžerob</i>	морех <i>moréb</i>	ночьех <i>nókjeb</i>	имиех <i>ímieb</i>
<b>Loc</b>	ните <i>níge</i>	жемле <i>žémle</i>	вожере <i>vóžere</i>	море <i>móre</i>	нагьи <i>naǵjǐ</i>	имие <i>ímie</i>
<b>Lat</b>	нигун <i>nígún</i>	жемлун <i>žémłún</i>	вожерун <i>vóžerún</i>	морен <i>morén</i>	ночьын <i>nókjǐn</i>	имиеи <i>ímieni</i>
<b>Voc</b>	нигма <i>nígma</i>	жемалама <i>žémłama</i>	вожерма <i>vóžerma</i>	морма <i>mórma</i>	ночьма <i>nókjma</i>	имиема <i>ímiema</i>
Plural						
<b>Nom</b>	нигы <i>nígy</i>	жемле <i>žémle</i>	ажоры <i>ažóry</i>	моры <i>móry</i>	ночькие <i>nókjje</i>	ымоны <i>ymóny</i>
<b>Gen</b>	ниг <i>níg</i>	жемел <i>žémél</i>	ажор <i>ažór</i>	мор <i>mór</i>	ночьей <i>nókjei</i>	ымон <i>ymón</i>
<b>Acc</b>	нигы <i>nígy</i>	жемле <i>žémle</i>	ажоры <i>ažóry</i>	моры <i>móry</i>	ночькие <i>nókjje</i>	ымоны <i>ymóny</i>
<b>D/I</b>	нигам <i>nígam</i>	жемаам <i>žémłám</i>	ажорам <i>ažóram</i>	морам <i>morám</i>	нагьям <i>naǵjám</i>	ымонам <i>ymónam</i>
<b>Part</b>	нигуо <i>níguo</i>	жемаоу <i>žémłóu</i>	ажеруо <i>ažeruó</i>	мореу <i>móreu</i>	ночьеу <i>nókjeu</i>	ыменуо <i>ymenuó</i>
<b>Loc</b>	нигах <i>nígab</i>	жемаох <i>žémłáb</i>	ажорах <i>ažórah</i>	морях <i>moríáb</i>	ночьих <i>nókjib</i>	ымонех <i>ymoneb</i>
<b>Lat</b>	нигы <i>nígy</i>	жемле <i>žémle</i>	ажоры <i>ažóry</i>	море <i>móre</i>	ночьы <i>nókjy</i>	ымоны <i>ymóny</i>
<b>Voc</b>	нигыма <i>nígyma</i>	жемалма <i>žémłema</i>	ажорыма <i>ažóryma</i>	морыма <i>móryma</i>	ночьисма <i>nókjiesma</i>	ымоныма <i>ymónyma</i>

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
<b>Nominative</b>	червеный <i>červénai</i>	червенае <i>červénaie</i>	червеная <i>červénaia</i>	червеные <i>červényie</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	червенага <i>červénaga</i>		червеньяй <i>červéniai</i>	червеных <i>červényih</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	червеный <i>červénai</i>	червенае <i>červénaie</i>	червенаю <i>červénaiu</i>	червеные <i>červényie</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	червенаму <i>červénamu</i>		червенаюн <i>červénaiun</i>	червеными <i>červényumu</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	червенага <i>červénaga</i>			череновага <i>červenóvaga</i>
<b>Locative</b>	червеньям <i>červéniaim</i>			червеньях <i>červéniaih</i>
<b>Lative</b>	червенуюн <i>červénuiun</i>			червенее <i>červéneie</i>

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
<b>Nominative</b>	другой <i>drugói</i>	другое <i>drugóie</i>	другая <i>drugáia</i>	другие <i>drugíje</i>
<b>Genitive</b>	другога <i>drugóga</i>		другяй <i>drugíai</i>	других <i>drugíh</i>
<b>Accusative</b>	другой <i>drugói</i>	другое <i>drugóie</i>	другаю <i>drugáiu</i>	другие <i>drugíje</i>
<b>Dat./Instr.</b>	другому <i>drugómu</i>		другоюн <i>drugóiun</i>	другими <i>drugýmu</i>
<b>Partitive</b>	другога <i>drugóga</i>			друговага <i>drugóvaga</i>
<b>Locative</b>	другяйм <i>drugíaim</i>			другяйх <i>drugíaih</i>
<b>Lative</b>	другуюн <i>drugíiun</i>			другее <i>drugéie</i>

Most southern dialects preserve the original /g/ in the genitive ending, which became /β/ in standard Russian and Novegradian. This is seen in pronouns as well, such as the third person masculine accusative pronoun *ero iegó* (occasionally *boro vogó*), versus standard *evo ievó*.

These definite adjectives may function as nouns by themselves, as in standard Novegradian, but in order to do so the demonstrative *ro tó* “that” must be declined to the appropriate gender, case, and number and cliticize to the end of the ad-



jective. In southern dialects, to still has a full declension paradigm: червѣные-ты *červényie-ty* “the red ones (NOM PL)”, аругога-таго *drugóga-tagó* “of the other one (GEN SG M/N)”.

The personal pronouns and possessive adjectives are largely the same as in the standard, although they include the features mentioned above. However, possessive adjectives are used more frequently in southern dialects than in the standard, where they are being replaced by the preposition о “at”. The second person singular and the reflexive possessive adjectives have a unique form in the nominative singular masculine: тавой *tavói* and савой *savói* (standard твоей *tuói* and своей *suói*), which both have gained an epenthetic vowel.

## 23.4 The Zavolotian Dialects

### 23.4.1 Geographic Distribution

The Zavolotian dialects are dominant throughout much of the eastern portion of European Novegrad (Zavolotia), on the west side of the Ural Mountains, and in some communities on the eastern slopes of the Urals. It is spoken throughout most of the non-Arctic-littoral oblosts, although it is seen in the southern half of Bržéuskaia and Pečarouskaia oblosts.

### 23.4.2 History

These regions are historically the first areas penetrated by Novegradian traders, explorers, and settlers beyond the core of the original Novegradian state. It has had somewhat less Russian influence than the standard, but a great deal more from indigenous languages, particularly Komi. And while the more western parts of the country have historically looked westward, the settlers of this territory turned eastward for growth, focusing on trade with the East and expansion into the vast, sparsely-populated yet rich territories toward and beyond the Urals. Due to the region’s important historical trading centers, the Zavolotian dialects have borrowed vocabulary from a number of Turkic and Central Asian languages as well, some of which then entered the speech of western Novegradians.

### 23.4.3 Status

While it has no official support (except perhaps in the Komi Republic), the Zavolotian dialects are nevertheless considered a respectable manner of speech,

although a particularly thick accent may be seen as somewhat rustic in major cities of western Novegrad. People are expected to use standard Novegradian in formal situations.

### 23.4.4 Phonology

The following is based on the Volóğdeskei subdialect.

#### 23.4.4.1 Vowels

The Zavolotian dialects have undergone a number of vowel changes and small shifts, one of the most distinctive features of this group of dialects. There appears to be general trend toward closing vowels. Vowel changes can be divided into the following categories:

**Denasalization:** Zavolotian dialects handled the Proto-Slavic nasal vowels slightly differently than the standard. Proto-Slavic \*ǫ become /u/ word-finally: говору *govorú* “I talk” (standard говорун *govorún*); and /o/ elsewhere: круг *króg* “circle” (standard краре *kráre*, but note рока *róka* “hand”). Proto-Slavic \*ę, on the other hand, becomes /e/ in all positions: агне *agné* “lamb” (standard агнин *agnín*), пете *péte* “five” (standard пети *péti*).

**Yat’ Loss:** When stressed, yat’ /æ/ became /je/: век *viék* “century” (standard вѣке *věke*). When unstressed, it becomes just /e/: видите *videte* “see” (standard видѣти *viděti*).

**Diphthongal Shifts:** The diphthongs /au/ and /eu/ (including those involving a former /β/) both simplify into /o/ in all positions: отобус *otóbus* “bus” (standard аутобусе *áutobuse*), Ёропа *Iorópa* “Europe” (standard Еуропа *Ieurópa*). /oj/ is raised to /uj/ in all positions: вуйна *vuiná* “war” (standard война *voiná*). Both /aj/ and /ij/ merge into /ej/: чай *čéi* “tea” (standard чае *cháie*), Рошзея *Rośzéia* “Russia” (standard Рошзия *Rośzíja*).

**Initial Epenthesis:** Word-initial /o/ and /u/ both acquired an epenthetic /β/ early on: воко *vóko* “eye” (standard око *óko*), вудчите *vudčíte* “teach” (standard осити *odzíti*). This change does not affect later loan words or words that latter gained an initial /o/ or /u/ by other changes, but rather only words with these vowels inherited directly from Common Slavic. Note, however, that Zavolotian dialects lost the [j] before word-initial /e/ seen in the standard. And like the Southern dialects, a number of words beginning with /e/ in the standard begin with /βo/ in these dialects: вожеро *vóžero* “lake” (standard ежеро *iéžero*).

**/w/-Induced Shifts:** C+/w/ clusters (again, many of which once were C+/β/) caused shifts in the following vowel, drawing them back.

C+/wæ/ sequences all became C+/wa/: *сват suát* “light” (standard *сѡѡте suěte*). C+/we/ sequences all became C+/wo/, though the /w/ later dropped: *доре dóre* “door” (standard *дѡѡри duéri*). The loss of /w/ before /o/ affected original \*/o/ as well: *туй túi* “your” (earlier form *той tói*; standard *тѡѡй tuói*).

**Stressed Closed Syllable Shifts:** In closed syllables, stressed /a/ is raised to /e/ and /o/ is raised to /u/: *гред gréd* “city” (standard *граде gráde* “city”), *вѡз vúz* “car” (standard *возе vóze*).

**Other Closed Syllable Shifts:** The vowel /o/ before /n/ in a closed syllable always becomes /i/, overriding the rule above: *вин vín* “he” (standard *оне óne*).

**Final Vowel Changes:** Final /e/ has been universally lost in the nominative singular masculine (though not neuter) endings, creating many of the closed syllables seen above. A later change, however, then shifted all final /i/ to /e/: *пѡте póte* “way” (standard *панѡти pánti*). Final /ja/ (when after a consonant) metathesizes to /aj/, probably via \*/jaj/: *жемај žemái* “land” (standard *жемя žémia*).

**VjV Simplification:** There is a tendency to drop intervocal /j/ when the first V is unstressed, resulting in the second vowel dominating: *дѡбре dobré* “good (NOM SG NEUT DEF)” (standard *дѡбрѡе dóbroie*). /eja/ appears to be resistant in endings, however: *Англея Ángleia* “England” (standard *Англия Ánglija*). If the vowels on both sides of the /j/ were the same, they will collapse into one, no matter the stress: *пает radzét* “(he) enjoys” (standard *падеет radéiet*). If the first vowel is stressed, the second vowel tends to drop: *дѡѡѡй drugói* “second (NOM SG NEUT DEF)” (standard *дѡѡѡе drugóie*).

**/xo/-Shift:** The sequence /xo/ shifted to /xe/ in all circumstances: *хедите hédite* “go” (standard *хѡдите hóditi*).

### 23.4.4.2 Consonants

The Zavolotian dialects developed their early consonant system in much the same way as the standard did. Most consonant divergences are relatively recent, having occurred only within the last 200 years or so. Again, these can be grouped into a number of categories:

**Palatalization:** Before stressed front vowels or /j/, the consonants /t d l/ undergo a full palatalization, merging with other phonemes. /t/ and /d/ both become hard (non-palatalized) affricates: *че čé* “you” (standard *ти tí*), *севете dzéve* “nine” (standard *девити déviti*). /l/ in the same environment virtually disappears, becoming /j/: *иете iéte* “pour” (standard *лѡти lěti*). Note that these changes happened before the /a/ → /e/ shift above, so words such as *дам dém* “I give” (standard *дам dám*) remain unaffected.

**Depalatalization:** In the standard dialects, the consonants /s z n k

g x/ become palatalized before a stressed front vowel. In central dialects no such palatalization occurs: нига *níga* ['ni.gə] “book” (standard ['nʲi.gə]). The actual phonemes /sʲ zʲ/, however, still remain and no longer overlap with /s z/ + front vowel.

Further Depalatalization: /s/ and /sʲ/ sporadically convert to /x/ before another consonant. Some of these can be attributed to analogy (such as страхне *stráhne* “frightening” from страхе “fright”; standard страшне *strásne*), but others are much less obvious: вуихла *vuíhla* “(she) exited” (standard вуишла *vuišlá*).

Assimilation: The clusters /dn/ and /tn/ both become /nn/: кланно *klánno* “cold” (standard кладно *kládno*).

Chokanye: Zavolotian dialects, like southern dialects, completely merged /tʃ/ and /ts/, yet have both [tʃ] and [ts] appear as surface realizations of this new merged phoneme—as [tʃ] immediately before a stressed vowel and as [ts] in all other positions. Many words will show an alternation as stress shifts: червен *červen* “red (NOM SG MASC)” (standard црвене *cérvene*), црвен *cervén* “red (GEN PL)” (standard црвени *cervén*).

Loss of /ɲ/: The phoneme /ɲ/ uncouples, becoming /jn/. This occurred before the diphthongal changes mentioned earlier occurred, so this frequently causes vowel mutations: висан *vidzán* “vision, sight” (via earlier виśѣне; standard видѣње *viděnje*), єйней *éinei* “angel” (via earlier айнее; standard ањеє *ánjeie*).

Loss of /ʈ/: The phoneme /ʈ/ disappears word-initially and pre-consonantly: содат *sodát* “soldier” (standard соѡдате *soldáte*). If the /ʈ/ is word-initial before /o/ or /u/, the standard epenthetic /β/ will take its place: вовите *vóvite* “catch” (standard ѡвити *lóviti*).

Loss of /ɣ/: The phoneme /ɣ/ becomes a glottal stop [ʔ] in all positions. However, this change occurred after /ɣ/ palatalized to /j/ before front vowels: бо’ *bó* “God” (standard боре *bóge*).

Complete /dl/ → /gl/: The Zavolotian dialects converted old Novegradian /dl/ to /gl/ in all positions, even word initially, whereas the standard preserved it word initially. As a result, the Zavolotian dialects have forms such as глане *gláne* “palm” and глѣтиш *glítis* “span” (standard длани *dláni* and длѣтиш *dlítis*).

### 23.4.5 Grammar

In the Volóğdeskei subdialect, the dual ending -a -a seen in the present/future tense was changed to -ай -ai (by analogy with the /aj/ diphthong seen in a number of other dual words in the dialect, including the dual possessive adjectives, the numeral “two”, and the pronoun “both”), though this later changed to /ej/ by regular changes. The closed syllable vowel changes also clearly took place before the loss of

final /t/ in the third person plural endings.

Note the generalization of the 2sg ending -ш -š to the athematic verbs, replacing standard stressed -жи -ží. The third (E) conjugation has also merged the 1sg and 3pl forms.

The Volóždeskei dialect has distinct passive and middle voice clitics, -шен -šen and -ше -še respectively. The passive form is borrowed from the standard, as it never developed locally. In some of the easternmost Zavolotian dialects, however, neither -шен nor any other equivalent passive form came into being. -ше is used exclusively for the middle voice, while the passive voice is expressed using participles.

	цидате “read”	говорите “talk”	жите “live”	даде “give”
<b>1Sg</b>	цидем <i>cidém</i>	говору <i>govorú</i>	живу <i>živú</i>	дем <i>dém</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	цидеш <i>cidés</i>	говориш <i>govorís</i>	живеш <i>živés</i>	деш <i>dés</i>
<b>3Sg</b>	цидес <i>cidés</i>	говорит <i>govorít</i>	живет <i>živét</i>	дес <i>dés</i>
<b>1Dl</b>	цидавей <i>cidávei</i>	говоривей <i>govorívei</i>	живевей <i>živévei</i>	давей <i>dávei</i>
<b>2Dl</b>	цидастей <i>cidástēi</i>	говоритей <i>govorítei</i>	живетей <i>živétei</i>	дастей <i>dástēi</i>
<b>3Dl</b>	цидастей <i>cidástēi</i>	говоритей <i>govorítei</i>	живетей <i>živétei</i>	дастей <i>dástēi</i>
<b>1Pl</b>	цидаме <i>cidáme</i>	говорим <i>govorím</i>	живем <i>živém</i>	даме <i>dáme</i>
<b>2Pl</b>	цидате <i>cidáte</i>	говорите <i>govoríte</i>	живете <i>živéte</i>	дасте <i>dáste</i>
<b>3Pl</b>	циде <i>cidé</i>	говоре <i>govoré</i>	живу <i>živú</i>	дада <i>dáda</i>

Negation is generally expressed with на *na* (phonetically [nə]; standard не *ne*). However, when stressed, this negative particle reverts back to не *né*.

The nominal system has been relatively stable, and most changes to it can be explained by regular sound changes. Very distinctive is the use of -e -e to indicate the nominative plural for all nouns, instead of the usual -и -i. Second declension nouns like жемай *žemái* “land” have a strange form in the nominative singular, but in all other cases the stem is \*žemj-, lacking /l/ in all forms: жемю *žémiu* “land (acc

sg)” (standard жемлы *žémlu*). The neuter gender remains strong, unlike all other Novegradian dialect groups.

Due to the VjV simplification sound changes, the definite adjective declension is very different compared to the standard, particularly for antepenultimate-stress adjectives like червен *červen* “red”. Ending-stress adjectives such as друг *drúg* “second” only differ in the nominative case: другей *drugéi* (M), другуй *drugúi* (N), другей *drugéi* (F), другие *drugíje* (PL).

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nominative	червей <i>červei</i>	црвене <i>cervené</i>	црвена <i>cervená</i>	црвене <i>cervené</i>
Genitive	црвенејво <i>cervenéivo</i>		црвене <i>cervené</i>	црвених <i>cervenih</i>
Accusative	червей <i>červei</i>	црвене <i>cervené</i>	црвену <i>cervení</i>	црвене <i>cervené</i>
Dat./Instr.	црвеном <i>cerveném</i>		црвенуй <i>cervénui</i>	црвениме <i>cerveníme</i>
Partitive	црвенејво <i>cervenéivo</i>			црвеноуо <i>cervenóvuo</i>
Locative	црвением <i>cerveniém</i>			црвених <i>cervenih</i>
Lative	црвенун <i>cervénún</i>			црвение <i>cerveníé</i>

The definite adjective suffixes have all undergone a significant amount of merger and analogy. Ending stress is universal throughout (except in the NOM/ACC SG); the two historical stress patterns still seen in the standard have evolved into two adjectival declensions instead, with some nouns (for example) taking the NOM SG NEUT ending *-e* and others *-y* *-ui*.

Personal pronouns function in much the same way as spoken standard dialects (including the use of clitics). However, their forms are significantly different. Below are their nominative case forms.

	Sg	Pl	Pl
1st	я <i>iá</i>	надуа <i>nádua</i>	ме <i>mé</i>
2nd	че <i>čé</i>	вадуа <i>vádua</i>	ве <i>vé</i>
3rd	вин <i>vín</i> на <i>ná</i>	вида <i>vidá</i>	не <i>né</i>

The changes to several of the prepositions made them homophonous with other common words. To eliminate this confusion, the preposition на *ná* “on” became ней *néi* (derived from a variant Proto-Slavic form \**naj*, seen for instance in the superlative prefix). The reduction of the negative particle was discussed above, though it can also be reinforced using the phrase ни виегъе *ni viegje* “not a thing”: Я на сосиелал шево ни виегъе *Iá na sodziélal ševó ni viegje* “I didn’t do this.” In connected speech this can reduce to нивгъе *nivgje* or нигъе *nigje*.

Sounds changes also created vowel alterations in the possessive adjectives. Shown below are the nominative case forms.

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
<b>1Sg</b>	муѣ <i>múi</i>	мие <i>mié</i>	мя <i>miá</i>	мие <i>mié</i>
<b>2Sg</b>	туѣ <i>túi</i>	тие <i>tié</i>	тя <i>tiá</i>	тие <i>tié</i>
<b>1Dl</b>	нейн <i>néin</i>	ней <i>néi</i>	ня <i>niá</i>	ние <i>nié</i>
<b>2Dl</b>	вейн <i>véin</i>	вей <i>véi</i>	вя <i>viá</i>	ние <i>vié</i>
<b>1Pl</b>	неш <i>nés</i>	наше <i>náše</i>	наша <i>náša</i>	наше <i>náše</i>
<b>2Pl</b>	веш <i>vés</i>	ваше <i>váše</i>	ваша <i>váša</i>	ваше <i>váše</i>
<b>Reflex.</b>	суѣ <i>súi</i>	сие <i>sié</i>	ся <i>siá</i>	сие <i>sié</i>

The third person forms are ево *ievó* “his”, ие *ié* “her”, ѿ *ió* “them two’s”, and еѿ *iéh* “their” in all forms.

As in the standard, however, a prepositional form is becoming more common in speech:

	Sg	Dl	Pl
<b>1st</b>	вумне <i>vúmne</i>	воней <i>vonéi</i>	вонес <i>vonés</i>
<b>2nd</b>	воче <i>vočé</i>	вовей <i>vonvéi</i>	вовес <i>vonvés</i>
<b>3rd</b>	вунуо <i>vúnuo</i> вуние <i>vúnie</i>	вуню <i>vuniú</i>	вуне <i>vúne</i>
<b>Reflex.</b>		воше <i>vošé</i>	

The standard method of indicating approximations of numbers by inverting the numeral and the quantified noun (e.g., дешити минут *désiti minút* “ten minutes” vs. минут дешити *minút désiti* “about ten minutes”) is not used in most Zavolotian dialects. Both orderings may be used, but the only difference is which element is emphasized. Instead, approximations are formed by prefixing не- *ne-* onto the numeral: несешете минут *nedzésете minút* “about ten minutes”. This is also seen in the Northern and Siberian dialects.

## 23.5 *The Northern Dialects*

### 23.5.1 Geographic Distribution

The Northern dialects are the dominant spoken form of Novegradian along the Arctic littoral, from the Kola Peninsula to the Ob Gulf.

### 23.5.2 History

The Northern dialects originate with the dialect of the Pomors (or *kodzári*), the first Novegradian settlers along the coast of the White Sea. As they explored the Arctic coastline, they spread their dialect along with them. With the founding of major port cities such as Arhánjeiske, the northern dialects became the standard among Novegradian shipping and trading circles. The *kodzári* being the first colonial settlers of the Ob valley and from there into Siberia, a dialect continuum exists in northern Siberia, with more typical Northern dialectical features towards the north and Siberian dialectical features towards the south.

Due to its use as an historical trading language, it has borrowed vocabulary from many different languages, not only local languages such as Komi, Nenets, and Saami, but also regional shipping languages such as Norwegian, Dutch, and English.

### 23.5.3 Status

Though the dialect has no official support, its usage remains strong. Its use is a matter of pride to many northerners, so it will often be seen on shop signs and other locations in cities. However, people are expected to use the standard grammar and pronunciation in formal situations.

### 23.5.4 Phonology

The following is based on the Arhánjeiskei dialect.

Northern dialects have not diverged significantly from the standard form, phonologically speaking. Changes can be grouped into the following categories.

Loss of Nominative /e/: As in most dialects, the final /e/ seen in the nominative/accusative singular of masculine nouns and adjectives is lost, though the consonant before does not lose its voicing. As in the central dialects, the fourth declension nominative ending *-i* then shifted to *-e*.

Cluster Simplification in the Nominative: Most final clusters were simplified,



usually by deleting an element or by inserting an epenthetic vowel, generally /i/ or /e/: мус *mús* “bridge” (standard мосте *móste*), верех *véreh* “top” (standard врех *vréh*, from Common Slavic \*врхъ). Note that these clusters often return when the noun is declined and an ending is added, as is seen in their plural forms: моста *mostá*, верха *verhá*. Other changes are harder to predict, such as the form дожде *dóžže* “rain” (pronounced [dɔʒ.ʒɐ]; standard дожди *dožgi*), which has the stem \*дожгъ- *\*dožgj-* in all other cases.

**Other Cluster Simplification:** Other cluster simplifications occur in all forms of a word, such as the simplification of /tn dn/ → /nn/ and /pm bm/ → /mm/.

**Lenition of /v/:** The northern dialects have shifted the pronunciation of standard /β/ to the labiodental [v]. It also behaves as a normal fricative, meaning it is not weakened to /w/ preconsonantly or word-finally. Word-finally or before unvoiced consonants it becomes /f/, indicated orthographically with the Russian letter ф.

**Realization of \*y:** Proto-Slavic \*y becomes /u/ in all positions except finally. In the standard it varies between /i/ and /wi/: пудати *pudáti* “ask” (standard пуйдати *puidáti*).

**Realization of Yat’:** The yat’ /æ/ becomes /i/ in all positions: ида *idá* “food” (standard ѣда *iědá*).

**Realization of \*jъ:** Where Proto-Slavic \*jъ became /j/ or /ji/ in the standard, it becomes /i/ in the northern dialects: име *ime* “name” (standard ѣмѣно *jměno*; compare archaic variant ѣмѣ *jme*).

**Yer-Raising:** The front yer \*ь may sporadically be raised to /i/ when stressed: дин *dín* “day” (standard дене *déne*), вих *vih* “all” (standard веке *véke*).

**Lenition of /g/:** The phoneme /g/ (including what is /ɣ/ in the standard) lenites to /x/ word-finally: бох *bóh* “God” (standard боре *bóře*).

**Loss of Intervocalic /j/:** Intervocalic /j/ is lost in the nominative definite adjective endings and in verb endings.

**Vowel Changes:** There are several other miscellaneous vowel shifts seen in northern dialects. First is the unconditional change /ja/ → /je/: еблоко *iěbloko* “apple” (standard яблоко *iábloko*). Second is the change /o/ → /u/ in stressed closed syllables, as seen in мус “bridge” above. Last is the change /e/ → /a/ after the consonants /sʲ zʲ ts dz tʃ/ (and after /s z/ only if the /e/ is unstressed): шастра *šastrá* “sister” (standard шестра *šéstra*). In addition, the sequence /xo/ consistently fronted to /xe/: хедите *hédite* “go” (standard ходити *hódi*ti).

**Handling of Yer Dropping:** The Proto-Slavic ultrashort vowels /ъ/ and /ь/ were generally lost when unstressed and kept when stressed. However, in standard Novegradian, they were also kept whenever dropping them would create an awk-

ward cluster. The northern dialects went ahead and dropped all unstressed yers in the initial syllable of a word, inserting an epenthetic /i/ at the beginning of the word. This means many words gain a prefix as well as a suffix when they are conjugated or declined: *рот* *rót* “mouth”, plural *ирта* *irtá* (standard *поте* *róte*, *роти* *róti*, though compare Russian plural *рты* *rty*). The same occurs even when the cluster would be no trouble to pronounce, as long as it was created by yer dropping: *сон* *són* “dream”, plural *исна* *isná* (standard *соне* *sóne*, *сони* *sóni*). If too awkward of a cluster would occur anyway if the yer were dropped, conflicting forms appear. Some dialects regularize the noun, as in *верех* *véreh* “top” → *верха* *verhá* as shown above (instead of \*\**иврха* *ivrha*). Others regularize the noun but still add the prefix, giving the plural *иверха* *iverhá*.

### 23.5.5 Grammar

The Northern dialects are perhaps more notable for their grammatical divergences from standard Novegradian than for their phonological ones.

#### 23.5.5.1 Verbs

Verbs are much the same as the standard, with the following significant divergences:

**Double Vowel Simplification:** Due to /j/-dropping, any sequence of a vowel twice in a row is reduced to one: *радет* *radét* “(he) enjoys” (standard *радеет* *ra-déiet*).

**Stress in the Dual and Second Person Plural:** In verbs that are ending stressed, the stress in the present/future tense is always placed on the last syllable, not on the first syllable of the ending. This gives forms such as *цидава* *cidavá* “the two of us read” (standard *cidáva*), *цидаста* *cidastá* “you two/them two read” (standard *cidásta*), and *цидате* *cidaté* “you all read” (standard *cidáte*). The 3PL form of the first conjugation does not do this, as the final /ti/ has been dropped: *цида* *cidá* “they read” (standard *цидати* *cidáti*).

**3PL Forms:** The 3PL suffix in the present/future forms of all conjugations has been lost: *цида* *cidá* “they read”, *луба* *lúba* “they love”, *пихъа* *píhja* “they write”. The 3PL ending for athematic verbs is *-a*: *еца* *iésa* “they are”, *дада* *dáda* “they give”, etc. Note how the ending *-a* has been generalized to all conjugations.

**Synharmony:** The process of syllabic synharmony, which affected all of the Slavic languages from the Proto-Slavic period up through the Middle Ages (see the Historical Phonology), has continued in the Northern dialects where it had stopped in the standard. This is particularly visible in the 1SG present tense form

of many verbs. Like in medieval Czech, the vowel /i/ appears instead of /u/ whenever the preceding consonant has undergone morphological palatalization (i.e., is different from the consonant in the infinitive): я пихъин *iá pihjin* “I am writing” (standard яс пихъун *iás pihjun*), but я будун *iá búdun* “I will be” (standard яс бадун *iás bádun*). This is also always seen for all second conjugation verbs: я говорин *iá govorín* (standard яс говорун *iás govorún*), since this ending comes from an older \*-jǫ.

**Future Tense:** The future tense of imperfective verbs is not marked using be+infinitive, but rather with the present-future form and the non-declining particle хекъ *hékj* or хе *hé* (derived from the verb хотѣти *hótěti* “want”), which can appear either immediately before or after the verb. The form буге *búte* “be” + infinitive is generally used as a variant of the future hypothetical form буге + past. The future tense of “be” may be marked either by the future tense forms of буге alone (e.g., будун *búdun* “I will be”), or the future tense forms combined with one of these particles (e.g., хе будун *hé búdun*).

**Infinitives of Roots Ending in Velar Consonants:** Standard Novegradian forms marks the infinitive of verb roots ending in /k g/ with -йкъи *-ikji*. Northern dialects generally reinsert the dropped consonant and use the regular -t- ending: могте *mógte* “to be able to” (standard мойкъи *móikji*), плакте *plákte* “cry” (standard плайкъи *pláikji*).

One unique verb form seen in some Northern dialects is the phrasal past perfective, which exists in free variation with the analytic perfective past form, though only when the subject is a pronoun. The subject is expressed as a declined form of the preposition о *o* “at” followed by a non-declining verb form identical to the neuter indefinite perfective passive participle. The word “identical” is used because here and here only a “passive participle” exists even for intransitive verbs: омни ойдено *omní óideno* “I have left” (standard яс ошле *iás ošlě*).

Past tense verbs formed using the l-participle conjugate slightly differently than in the standard. While singular verbs continue to agree with their subject in gender (masculine, feminine, or inanimate-formerly-neuter), if the subject is third person, an additional -й *-i* gets suffixed: я цидале *iá cidále* “I (MASC) read”, он цидалей *on cidálei* “he read”; я цидала *iá cidála* “I (FEM) read”, она цидалай *oná cidálai* “she read”. This does not occur in the dual or plural. This is derived from the 3SG clitic form of “be”. In Old Novegradian the present tense of “be” always had to be used in conjunction with the past tense. In the standard, this “be” fell out of use, but left this one trace in the North. This process does not extend to the future hypothetical (which also uses l-participles) in the Arhánjeiskei dialect, but has spread analogically in some others.

Another distinctive feature of Northern dialect verbs is the reshuffling of sev-

eral directional prefixes used with verbs of motion to better align with the prepositional system. For instance, the standard prefix *до-* *do-*, indicating motion up to a destination, has been replaced by *ко-* *ko-*<sup>1</sup>, which does not exist as a prefix in other dialects: *койте* *kóiste* “go/walk up to”. The prefix *до-*, in turn, has replaced standard *под-* *pod-* in the sense of “up to [a person]”: *дойте до ковуш* *dóiste do kovúš* “walk up to someone”.

### 23.5.5.2 Nouns

The nominal system features a number of unusual endings, forms that have fallen out of use in standard Novegradian. It has also regularized some forms where multiple endings exist in the standard.

The neuter nominative singular ending has been generalized to *-o* in all cases. Neuter nouns that used to have *-e* *-e* now have *-ë* *-io*: *морë* *mório* “sea” (standard *море* *móre*), which now declines as a third declension noun. The nominative plural ending has also been generalized to an accented *-á* for all fourth declension nouns.

The locative case has been lost completely except in frozen adverbs, having been replaced by the accusative: *по дърѣ* *po drágu* “along the road” (standard *по дърѣ* *po drágě*).

The only fourth declension genitive singular ending is *-y* *-u* as in the third declension.

The dative/instrumental plural is *-ама* *-ama* for all nouns. This form is identical to the Common Slavic dual, though why this form has been kept and the plural *-ам* lost is unknown.

Sixth declension nouns with the suffix *-en-* appear with the suffix *-ми* *-mi* in the nominative singular: *ими* *ími* “name” (standard *имѣно* *jměno*). This is equivalent to the Old Novegradian ending *-мѣ* *-mě*, which is no longer used.

The most unique feature is the prefixed */i/* many nouns gain due to a fallen yer in the first syllable. This prefix appears in all forms other than the nominative singular, accusative singular, and genitive plural. Without knowledge of the history of the language, however, it is not possible to predict where the prefix is needed. This prefix also appears in other parts of speech in some dialects, but in such cases it will appear in all forms (e.g., verbs such as *изуати* *izuáti* “call”, cf. standard *звати* *zuáti*). Note that if the yer has fallen and there is no stress alteration at all (i.e., it never resurfaces as */o/* or */e/*), no prefix is used: *пейн* *pjín* “I drink” (not *\*\*ипеин* *ipjín*).

The second (ja) declension also has a very different appearance due to synharmony, which resulted in the fronting of most endings with back vowels.

Singular						
	нига “book”	жемие “land”	ежеро “lake”	рот “mouth”	нокъе “night”	ими “name”
Nom	нига <i>níga</i>	жемие <i>žémie</i>	ежеро <i>iéžero</i>	рот <i>rót</i>	нокъе <i>nókje</i>	ими <i>ími</i>
Gen	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемси <i>žémji</i>	ежеру <i>iéžeru</i>	ирту <i>irtú</i>	ногъи <i>nogji</i>	имену <i>ímenu</i>
A/L	нигу <i>nígu</i>	жемси <i>žémji</i>	ежеро <i>iéžero</i>	рот <i>rót</i>	нокъе <i>nókje</i>	ими <i>ími</i>
D/I	нигой <i>nígoi</i>	жемсий <i>žémiči</i>	ежером <i>iéžerom</i>	иртем <i>irtém</i>	ногъом <i>nogjiúm</i>	именем <i>ímenem</i>
Part	нигох <i>nígob</i>	жемиех <i>žémiech</i>	ежерох <i>iéžeroh</i>	иртех <i>irtéx</i>	нокъех <i>nókjex</i>	именех <i>ímenex</i>
Lat	нигун <i>nígún</i>	жемеин <i>žémjin</i>	ежерон <i>iéžeron</i>	иртен <i>irtén</i>	нокъин <i>nókjin</i>	именин <i>ímenin</i>
Voc	нигамо <i>nígamo</i>	жемямо <i>žémiamto</i>	ежеромо <i>iéžeromto</i>	ротмо <i>rótmto</i>	нокъмо <i>nókjmtto</i>	имимо <i>ímimto</i>
Plural						
Nom	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемси <i>žémji</i>	ежера <i>ižerá</i>	ирга <i>irtá</i>	нокъие <i>nókjie</i>	имена <i>ímená</i>
Gen	ниг <i>níg</i>	жем <i>žem</i>	ежер <i>iéžer</i>	рот <i>rót</i>	нокъей <i>nókjei</i>	имен <i>ímen</i>
A/L	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемси <i>žémji</i>	ежера <i>ižerá</i>	ирга <i>irtá</i>	нокъие <i>nókjie</i>	имена <i>ímená</i>
D/I	нигама <i>nígama</i>	жемиема <i>žémiema</i>	ежерама <i>iéžerama</i>	иртама <i>irtáma</i>	ногъама <i>nogjáma</i>	именама <i>ímenama</i>
Part	нигоф <i>nígox</i>	жемиеф <i>žémief</i>	ежероф <i>iéžerof</i>	иртеф <i>irtéf</i>	нокъеф <i>nókjef</i>	именф <i>ímenef</i>
Lat	ниги <i>nígi</i>	жемси <i>žémji</i>	ежери <i>iéžeri</i>	ирти <i>irti</i>	нокъи <i>nókji</i>	имени <i>ímeni</i>
Voc	нитимо <i>nígimo</i>	жемсимо <i>žémjimo</i>	ежерамо <i>iéžerámo</i>	иртамо <i>irtámo</i>	нокъисмо <i>nókjiesmo</i>	именамо <i>ímenámo</i>

In most spoken dialects, the possessive forms of kinship terms can appear as the complement of the verb “to be”, which normally requires the dative/instrumental case. In the Northern dialects, a trace of that instrumental is preserved by the insertion of *на na* “on” before the kinship term, since it cannot properly take the instrumental: Ше-и на другомо *Šé-i na drúgmo* “This is my friend”. Other sentences function as normal: Ше-и другом о Михи *Šé-i drúgem o Mihi* “This is Miha’s friend”. Compare this to the use of *на* before a noun in the instrumental in passive constructions in the standard.

### 23.5.5.3 Adjectives

Indefinite adjectives are more or less the same as in the standard, except that they may simplify in the nominative singular masculine and genitive plural when no ending is attached (НОМ SG MASC НОВЕГРАДЕС *novegrádes* “Novegradian”, НОМ SG FEM НОВЕГРАДЕСКА *novegrádeska*). The dative/instrumental also has the plural ending -име *-ime*, contrasted with the -ама *-ama* of nouns.

Definite adjectives simplify in the nominative case, and the НОМ SG MASC form has the ending -ой *-oi* instead of the usual -ей *-ei*: царвеной *cárvenoi* “red (MASC SG)”, царвена *carvená*, (царвене *carvené*), царвени *carvení*.

Northern dialects also make frequent use of adjectival possession, rarely seen in modern standard Novegradian. Adjectival possession is means of indicating possessive relationships, if the possessor is a person, by turning the possessor into an adjective. This is accomplished using the ending -оф *-of* (which becomes -ов- *-ov-* when another ending is added) for masculine nouns or names and -ин *-in* for feminine ones. This possessive adjective then takes indefinite endings agreeing with the noun being modified: тароф вуз *tátrof vúz* “(my) father’s car”, Еванова жана *Ievánova žaná* “Ieváne’s wife”.

The ending -и is seen in the nominative case for all animate numerals: доваи *dováji* “two”, цетери *céteri* “four”, etc (standard доваин *dóvajin*, цетеро *cétero*). Modifiers such as numerals, determiners such as “all” or “both”, and all other ‘pronominal adjectives’ (adjectives following a more noun-like declension pattern) all use the dative/instrumental plural ending -ама.

### 23.5.5.4 Other Parts of Speech

The third person pronouns do not take the prefixed /n/ when following prepositions. Similarly, all prepositions like во *vo* “in” have lost their form containing /n/: на ево *na ievó* “on him/it” (standard на нем *na ném*). However, the /n/ is still seen in the third person forms of declining prepositions: ванму *vanmú* “in him/

it". The final /v/ added to some prepositions to break up hiatus has also been lost.

The conjunction *да da* is used instead of *co so* to connect multiple nouns in a single phrase. The nouns on both sides are in the same case: *я да ти iá da tí* "you and me". Between clauses, on the other hand, it replaces the disjunction *но no* "but": *ойшал, да не дойшал oiśál, da ne doiśál* "(He) left, but did not reach his destination" (standard *ошле, но не дошле oślé, no ne doślé*).

Northern dialects distinguish between unanalyzable and analyzable (phrasal) prepositions in that the latter may freely be postposed as well, and come after the noun they modify: *вмести ме да те vmésti mé da té* or *ме да те вмести mé da té vmésti* "between you and me". However, this cannot be done with simple prepositions such as *на* "on", *пред* "in front of", or even compounded ones such as *зенад* "from above", as these have no nominal component.

## 23.6 The Siberian Dialects

### 23.6.1 Geographic Distribution

The Siberian dialects are the dominant spoken language in the trans-Ural portion of Novegrad, except in the far northwest around the lower portion of Ob River (Northern) and in various pockets along the Ural Mountains (Zavolotian). In many newer cities, as well as some of the largest Siberian cities, a dialect closer to the standard will be frequently heard.

### 23.6.2 History

The Siberian dialects are descended from an earlier form of the northern ones, spread by the Pomors who first penetrated the territory and explored the region's great river systems. These first settlers were largely self-sufficient and isolated, giving them plenty of space and isolation for their dialect to develop.

After about one to two centuries, depending on the region, a new wave of settlers began moving into the territory from the west, especially once the major cities were connected by rail. These new settlers brought with them the more standardized language, though the first generations after them turned to a more mixed style of speech, which became the modern Siberian dialects.

### 23.6.3 Status

The Siberian dialects receive no official support, but are very important to the

local Siberian Novegradian population, who tend to have a strong connection with their territory rather than the ‘European’ western half of Novegrad. It is often seen on shop signs and similar informal contexts, but in formal situations, everyone is expected to use the standard manner of speech.

### 23.6.4 Phonology

Phonologically, the Siberian dialects are very similar to the northern ones, except in the following respects:

**Preservation of the Yat’:** The yat’ /æ/ is preserved in stressed positions, just as in the standard.

**Absence of /f/:** The phoneme /f/ is not present in the Siberian dialects, as the standard influence has reinstituted /β/. However, unlike in the standard, /β/ is frequently seen word-finally and does not lenite to [w]. This has led to numerous incidents of hypercorrection, where /w/ derived from a former /u/ or /l/ have been hypercorrected to /β/. This is most noticeable in the past tense endings.

**Stressed /o/ after /g/:** The sequence /'go/ in the standard dialect becomes /kuo/ in Siberia: *кyopa kuóra* “mountain” (standard *ropa góra*), *кyopora kuórod* “city center” (standard *ropora górode*).

**Initial stress:** Though far from universal, Siberian dialects show a much stronger tendency to stress the first syllable of a word, giving them a very distinctive rhythm. This also has the effect of making /wo/ and /o/ contrastive at the beginning of a word. Originally, [w] was inserted before initial stressed /o/. However, when the stress shift began in Siberian dialects, words that formerly began with unstressed /o/ that now had become stressed did not gain this on-glide. Note that derivational prefixes are usually unstressed.

### 23.6.5 Grammar

#### 23.6.5.1 Verbs

Verbs are largely the same as in northern dialects, except that the future tense is marked by the particle *бyд* *búd* (from *бyти* “be”) instead of *хекъ* *hékj*, or the standard *бyти* + infinitive method is used. The northern past perfective construction has become limited to rural speech, though the 3rd person agreement in the past tense remains widespread.

In the past tense the suffixes used all contain /β/ instead of /l/. This originates from the original Siberian lenition of the old /l/ to /w/, which then became /β/ by hypercorrection. The dual past tense form has also been lost: *цидав* *cídav*, *цидава*



*cidava*, *цидаво cidavo*, *цидави cidavi*. The loss of the dual ending (even when it was stressed) may be due to the reanalysis of the past tense forms as participles, which they had been in Proto-Slavic (see below).

Siberian dialects make extensive use of the suffix -ив- *-iv-* to form transformatives from adjective stems. This descends from an old iterative suffix that has lost productivity in most other dialects of Novegradian, but survives in a few fixed forms in the standard (e.g., the iterative *буивати buiváti* from *бути búti* “be”). Verbs with this suffix are A-conjugation in the imperative and I-conjugation in the perfective, and have the meaning “make X” in the active voice or “become X” in the middle voice:

- темней *témnei* “dark” →  
 темнівати, темнівити *témnivati, témniviti* “darken, make dark”,  
 темніватиш, темнівитиш *témnivatiš, témnivitiš* “darken, become twilight”
- ширей *šrei* “wide” →  
 ширівати, ширівити *šriváti, šriviti* “widen”,  
 ширіватиш, ширівитиш *šrivatiš, šrivitiš* “spread out, cover territory”
- близей *blizei* “close” →  
 близівати, близівити *blizivati, bliziviti* “cause to approach, bring about”,  
 близівватиш, близівитиш *blizivatiš, blizivitiš* “approach (said of time, events, or weather)”

These forms often supplant existing causatives of the *i-* and *ě-* types common in standard Novegradian, such as standard *темнѣти temněti* for Siberian *темніватиш témnivatiš* “become dark”.

### 23.6.5.2 Nouns and Adjectives

The unusual genitive ending *-u* for fourth declension nouns has been replaced by the standard form *-a*, with sporadic application of *-u* following the same rules as in the standard. The one major exception is nouns which take the prefix *и-*, which seem to have become a new declension paradigm that always take their genitive in *-u*: *ежепа iéžera* “of the lake”, but *идну idnú* “of the day”. The dative/instrumental plural *-ама -ama* remains, however, as does the merger of the accusative and locative cases. The nominative plural ending *-и -i* has been reintroduced for masculine and neuter nouns in most dialects, though not all (although a few go the other route and make *-и* the only allowable plural ending, never *-a*).

The sixth declension nominative ending, -ми *-mi* in the northern dialects, has become -ме *-me* in Siberia: име *ime* “name”.

Nouns that underwent a vowel shift regularize, generally with whatever vowel was in the nominative singular being generalized to all forms: мус *mús* “bridge”, мусты *músti* “bridges”.

The circumfix ending *i*-stem-*a* has actually gained more use in the Siberian dialects, having spread to a number of other one-syllable nouns, even if they never lose a vowel: вус *vúz* “car”, plural ивуза *ivuzá*. This prefixed *i*- is seen in all forms but the nominative and accusative singular, and genitive plural. Exactly which nouns have acquired this prefix in their declension varies from region to region.

Adjectives have regained something closer to the standard, unreduced Novegradian endings: царвеней *cárveneí*, царвеная *cárvenaia*, (царвеное *cárvenoié*), царвении *cárveniji*. However, interestingly, the Siberian dialects have filled the gap in the Novegradian participle system by creating an active perfective participle, through reanalysis of the past tense forms: Ше-и дужой-то, овидивой ме вецераш *Šé-i dužói-to, ovidivoi mé véceras* “That’s the person who saw me yesterday.” (standard Ше-и дужей-то, котрей мене овидѣле вецераш *Šé-i dužéi-to, kótrei mené oviděle véceras*).

The indefinite forms of adjectives are far more commonly used than in the standard, with the definite forms being relegated almost entirely to nominal and predicative roles. However, the masculine singular nominative ending -ей *-ei*, masculine singular accusative ending -ий *-ij*, and genitive plural ending -их *-ih* have displaced their indefinite counterparts, such that no adjectives ever take a zero ending.

### 23.6.5.3 Other Parts of Speech

These aspects remain largely the same as in Northern speech. However, the standard но *no* “but” has retaken its role from да *da*, though да is still used to link multiple nouns.

# *Historical Phonology and Morphology*

*Воноѡгя со морноѡгегей  
историцески*

“Common Slavic” represents the period in the latter half of the first millennium when the unified Proto-Slavic language began to break up into a number of distinct, though mutually-intelligible dialects. These dialects appear to still have been unified enough that they underwent very similar phonological developments, but diverse enough that these developments often yielded different results. An example is the resolution of CorC sequences, which yielded CraC in South Slavic and Czech/Slovak, CoroC in East Slavic, and CroC in West and North Slavic (although in North Slavic this subsequently became CraC as well).

The focus of this section, therefore, will be on the northern dialects of Common Slavic that were the ancestors of Novegradian. Where these dialects differ significantly from other varieties of Common Slavic, these differences will be pointed out for the sake of comparison.

## *24.1 The Phonology of Common Slavic*

Common Slavic had 11 vowels. Following are the traditional transcription for each sound as used in Slavic studies, followed by an approximate pronunciation in IPA in brackets.

	Front	Central	Back
High	i [i:]	y [ɨ:]	u [u:]
Mid-High	ɪ [ɪ]		ʊ [ʊ]
Mid-Low	e [e]		o [o]
	ɛ [ɛ̃]		ɔ [õ]
Low	ě [æ:]	a [e:]	

The vowels ɪ and ʊ, together known as the “yers”, represent ultrashort vowels whose exact realizations are unknown. ɪ is often referred to as the “back yer” and ɪ as the “front yer”.

The vowels ɛ and ɔ are both nasal vowels. Their exact realization seems to have been highly variable across the geographical extent of Common Slavic.

Eighteen consonants are reconstructed:

	Labial	Dental	Palatal	Velar
Plosive	p [p]	t [t]		k [k]
	b [b]	d [d]		g [g]
Fricative	v [β ~ w]	s [s]	š [ʃ]	x [x]
		z [z]	ž [ʒ]	
Affricate			č [tʃ]	
Nasal	m [m]	n [n]		
Other		r [r]		
		l [l]	j [j]	

The most dramatic difference between this consonant system and that of other dialects of Common Slavic is the lack of the phonemes \*c, \*č, and \*ś (reconstructed as /ts dz ʦ<sup>(2)</sup>/ respectively) which emerged from the Second Regressive Palatalization of the velars, which either failed to occur in these Common Slavic dialects, or were effectively undone by later changes. Where other Slavic dialects had \*c, \*č, and \*ś, Proto-Novegradian appears to have had \*k, \*g, and \*x respectively.

A major trend in the in the Common Slavic period of the language was the move toward open syllables, such that every syllable had increasing sonority from beginning to end; this “Law of Open Syllables” resulted in the deletion of many Proto-Slavic final consonants, the simplification of diphthongs and clusters, and the insertion of epenthetic yers. Most of these changes occurred early in the Common Slavic period, and so needn’t be discussed here due to their commonality amongst all Slavic languages. However, the later stages of the Law of Open Syllables and the changes that it brought about would have significant impacts on the

development of each of the later Slavic dialects.

24.2 Development of Vowels

24.2.1 CoRC and CeRC Shifts

The sequences CoRC and CeRC (where R represents /r/ or /l/) developed in different ways in different dialects of Common Slavic, and appears to have been one of the later changes resulting from the Law of Open Syllables. This suggests that /r/ and /l/ in coda positions may still have patterned more like diphthongs as they did in many early Indo-European languages well into Common Slavic.

Novegradian developed CoRC into CRaC, likely via CoRoC → CRōC. This makes it similar to South Slavic, as well as Czech and Slovak, although it appears to have taken a different route to the same end result. Forms such as *рроде* *grode* “city” (CS \*gordъ) are attested in early Novegradian birchbark texts, lending credence to this proposed series.

*gordъ	→	граде	['gra.de]	city
*zolto	→	злато	['zla.to]	gold
*korva	→	крава	['kra.βə]	cow

CeRC developed into CReC, likely via CeReC.

*melko	→	млеко	['mlʲe.go]	milk
*teltji	→	тлейкѣи	['tlʲej.ci]	shove, smite
*čelnъ	→	шлене	['sʲlʲe.ne]	member

A few cases of CeRC became CRĕC irregularly. This is likely due to influence from Church Slavonic, a form of a South Slavic language that was used as the official written language in Novegrad up until the 16<sup>th</sup>-17<sup>th</sup> centuries.

*bergъ	→	брѣ	['bræ.ge]	beach
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The \*čeRC sequence developed irregularly, however, due to the formation of the initial clusters [tsl]- and [tsr]-<sup>1</sup>. The sequence \*čelC resolved itself as *šleC*, with the affricate simplifying to /s/ and the palatalizing effect of the /e/ spreading re-

1 For [ts] instead of [tʃ], see 24.3.5.

gressively. The sequence \*čerC resolved into *treC*, with the complete loss of the fricative release of the affricate.

*čelnъ	→	шлене	[ˈslʲe.ne]	member
*čersъ	→	трес	[ˈtrɛs]	across
*červo	→	трево	[ˈtrɛ.βo]	womb

If a stressed prefix is added to a stem that underwent the CoRC shift, the metathesis still occurs, but the vowel remains /o/ rather than shifting to /a/. This is because the stress shift causes the long [o:] in the stem (as described above) to shorten.

*pri-gordъ	→	пригороде	[ˈpri.gro.de]	suburb
*podъ-golvъnika	→	позглоуника	[poz.ˈglow.ni.kə]	headrest

### 24.2.2 CъRC and CьRC Shifts

In the sequences CъRC and CьRC, no metathesis occurred, but the yers were strengthened in very irregular ways. The two yers apparently merged in this position early in Novegradian, perhaps as syllabic CṛC and CḷC, as they both have identical outcomes depending on their environments.

The basic outcome was /o/. However, this becomes /e/ after all fricatives other than \*š \*ž, as well as after affricates.

*тъгъ	→	торге	[ˈtor.ge]	marketplace
*дълъ	→	долге	[ˈdoɫ.ge]	lengthy
*вълкъ	→	велке	[ˈβel.ke]	wolf
*жълтъ	→	жолте	[ˈzʲoɫ.te]	yellow
*сьг(х)нъ	→	церне	[ˈtser.ne]	black

There is one exception: CS \*ръгъ → Nov пирве [ˈpir.βe] “first”.

For comparison, in South Slavic languages, Czech, and Slovak, these sequences generally resulted in syllabic consonants. In West and East Slavic, the yers developed normally.

### 24.2.3 #oRC Shifts

The sequence oRC, when appearing word-initially, underwent metathesis to

remove the /o/ from its initial position. The /o/ shifted to /a/ as in the CoRC changes above. No reliable examples of Common Slavic \*#eRC exist.

*orvъnъ	→	рамне	['ram.ne]	flat, level
*orsti	→	расти	['ra.sti]	grow
*ordlo	→	рагло	['ra.glo]	plow

However, if the initial /o/ had a circumflex accent (and was therefore short), only metathesis occurred. The vowel remained /o/ (unlike South Slavic):

*orstъ	→	росте	['ro.ste]	growth
*orzъ-	→	роз-	['roz]	apart (prefix)
*olni	→	лъони	[lɔ.'nʲi]	last year

## 24.2.4 Consonantal Prothesis

The process of prothesis (adding initial consonants to words beginning with vowels) began as a result of the move to CV syllable structure in Common Slavic. Any initial vowels would create hiatus when it comes in contact with the final vowel of the word before it, so an additional consonant was inserted to prevent this from happening.

Word-initial /e/ acquired a prothetic /j/ (except possibly in the southern dialects, which converted this to /wo/ or /βo/ as in East Slavic):

*ezero	→	ежеро	['jɛ.zʲe.ro]	lake
*edъnъ	→	едене	['jɛ.dɛ.ne]	one
*estъ	→	ест	['jɛs]	he/she/it is

Initial /æ/ also gained /j/:

*ěsti	→	ѣсти	['jæ.sti]	eat
*ěda	→	ѣда	[ji.'da]	food

Word-initial /o/ acquired a prothetic /w/. This was later lost in unstressed syllables in Novegradian, however.

*og(ъ)нь	→	онги	['wog.nɪ]	fire
*oko	→	око	['wo.ko]	eye
*olovo	→	олово	['wo.ɫo.βo]	lead (metal)

The /w/ and /j/ rules above later became productive allophonic patterns, still seen in modern Novegradian, that continued to affect new words entering the language: *овисе* ['wo.βi.se] “office”, *эропорте* [je.ro.'por.te] “airport”, as well as new initial /e/, /æ/, and /o/ gained through sound change.

Initial /a/ gained a prothetic /j/. However, this is no longer a productive rule in Novegradian, having ceased to be productive even before the written record.

*azъ	→	яс	['ja(s)]	I
*ablъko	→	яблоко	['ja.blo.ko]	apple
*aje-ke	→	яеце	['ja.jɛ.tse]	egg

Some words later lost this particular /j/, though it may still be seen in derivative forms: *авити* [ə.'βi.tɪ] (CS \*aviti) “reveal”, but prefixed *оявити* [o.jə.'βi.tɪ] “declare”, which still has /j/.

Initial /i/ and /u/ did not gain any prothetic glides. Since these sounds are frequently seen in Late Common Slavic as the final elements of diphthongs, they did not cause any problem in hiatus position.

### 24.2.5 Neo-Acute Retraction

At some point in Late Common Slavic, final yers lost the ability to hold stress. This resulted in the retraction of stress in such words to the previous syllable, creating a new rising pitch accent known as the neo-acute and lengthening the previous vowel; this is traditionally notated using a tilde. In Novegradian, the pitch accent was eventually lost, as was the vowel length for non-mid vowels. However, neo-acute \*ē and \*ō remained distinct for their short counterparts \*e and \*o. In Old Novegradian they diphthongized to something along the lines of \*ie and \*uo, and then ultimately merged with /æ/ and /u/. Before this merger, any following palatalized consonants underwent depalatalization. With many nouns, this neo-acute form (which typically occurred in the nominative singular) was generalized to all other forms; with fifth declension nouns, the depalatalization often resulted in a switch to the third declension.



*domǐ	→	дум	['dum]	house
*nožǐ	→	нузе	['nu.ze]	knife
*dvorǐ	→	дуре	['du.re]	courtyard

This change also affected many E- and I- conjugation verbs in the present tense that were ending-stressed. This pattern was then generalized to other forms such as the 1SG and 2PL that did not have a word-final yer.

*možetǐ	→	музет	['mu.zet]	he/she can
*nosišǐ	→	нусаиш	['nu.sisʲ]	you carry

Somewhat more mysteriously, neoacute retraction also takes place in many JA-stem nouns, which subsequently switched to A-stem. In standard Novegradian this occurs in nouns containing the derivational suffix *-(ǐ)j-*, often used for forming collectives and deverbatives. It has been suggested that at some point the yer in this suffix came to be stressed, thus creating the proper environment for retraction.

*volǐja	→	вула	['vu.lə]	desire
*nosǐja	→	нуха	['nu.xə]	purse

This retraction took place in many more words than those that display the ablaut in modern Novegradian. With nouns and verbs like above, the vowel change occurred in the most frequent forms (the nominative singular or most of the present tense), and thus was easily generalized throughout the conjugation. In other words, such as the possessive adjectives мой/твой/свой (Common Slavic \*mojǐ/\*tvojǐ/\*svojǐ), where the change only took place in the masculine singular nominative, the pressure of the many other forms with the original /o/ sound undid the vowel change; compare the feminine singular forms моя/твоя/соя, which still preserve the original final stress.

## 24.2.6 Denasalization

The two nasal vowels ǫ and ǣ began to disappear in Novegradian around the 14<sup>th</sup> century. However, these two vowels likely developed their fairly extreme stressed/unstressed allophony fairly early on.

Word-finally, they uncoupled—ǫ became /un/ and ǣ became /in/:

*govorjɔ	→	говорун	[go.βo.'run]	I speak
*kozьlɛ	→	кожлин	[ko.'zʲlʲin]	young goat, kid

When stressed, generally ɔ became /a/ and ɛ became /e/:

*krɔgъ	→	краге	['kra.ge]	circle
*pɛть	→	пети	['pɛ.tɪ]	five

Initial stressed ɔ becomes /βa/:

*ɔzьkъ	→	вазке	['βa.ske]	narrow
*ɔgrɪja	→	Варя	['βa.grɪə]	Hungary

In a few words, stressed ɔ instead became /o/: пока ['ro.kə] “hand, arm” (CS \*rɔka). What triggered this change is uncertain. Dialect borrowing has been suggested.

Unstressed ɔ became /u/ and unstressed ɛ became /i/:

*pɔxuhъ	→	пуғири	[pu.'ji.ri]	bladder
*kьnɛgъ	→	кони́ге	['ko.nɪ.ge]	king

Occasionally nasal vowels would uncouple within a word. While this is hard to predict, it almost always happens before a plosive consonant, and is often employed as a means of preventing the word with a nasal vowel from merging with another word (as was the case with рамбе “hem” below, which could have merged with рабе “peasant”).

*rɔbъ	→	рамбе	['ram.be]	hem, border
*dɔbъ	→	дамбе	['dam.be]	oak
*ɔgьlъ	→	вангле	['βan.gle]	angle

Nouns such as рамбе and дамбе above, with the nasal consonant as the second-to-last consonant, have an irregular genitive plural form where the nasal disappears completely instead of becoming \*\*рамеб and \*\*дамеб. This is due to Novegradian’s restrictions against word-final clusters—the nasal would never uncouple if it would create an illegal cluster, but uncoupling and adding an epenthetic vowel all at once would be too great a step; [rāb] → [rap] is simpler than [rāb] → \*\*[raməp].

ВАНГѢ is regular in the genitive plural, since the nasal is the third-to-last: ВАНГѢ [ˈβan.ɡɐl].

Words with a stress shift on and off of a nasal vowel generally adopted one form throughout: ПАНТИ [ˈpan.tɪ] (CS \*рѣть) “way, path (НОМ SG)”, ПАНТИ [pən.ˈtʲi] “of a way, of a path (ГЕН SG)”. Some exceptions do exist, however, mostly in the adjectival system.

### 24.2.7 Loss of \*y

Proto-Slavic \*y generally merged with \*i in all positions as the palatalized~unpalatalized contrast began to disappear in early Novegradian.

*tyky	→	тикуа	[ˈtʲi.kwə]	pumpkin
*lyсь	→	льсе	[ˈlʲi.se]	bald
*syгь	→	сире	[ˈsʲi.re]	moist, raw

However, after the labials /p b β m/ it became /wi/.

*pytati	→	пуйдати	[pwi.ˈda.tɪ]	ask
*bystrь	→	буистре	[ˈbwi.stre]	quick
*mydlo	→	муигло	[ˈmwi.glo]	soap

### 24.2.8 The Fall of the Yers

The yers, being the shortest vowels in the language, were particularly prone to dropping entirely in unstressed positions. Different Slavic languages grouped the yers differently, in terms of which were ‘strong’ (and became full-length vowels) and which were ‘weak’ (and dropped entirely). The Novegradian rules are as follows:

- A stressed yer is strong.
- A yer in a syllable immediately adjacent to a stressed syllable is weak.
- A yer adjacent to a weak syllable is strong (forming a weak-strong-weak-strong pattern, centered on the stressed syllable).
- A yer whose loss would create an impermissible cluster is strong.
- A yer in a single-consonant prefix is always strong. However, subsequent unstressed vowel dropping sometimes removed these vowels anyways.
- A final ъ is always strong, except after /j/. A final ѣ is always weak (though

see next point).

- A final yer in a one-syllable preposition is strong, unless the following word begins with a vowel, in which case it is weak.
- A tense back yer (a back yer followed by /j/) is always strong. A tense front yer is always weak.

Some cases of yer drop are nevertheless hard to predict, however. For instance, while it is true that yers whose loss would create an impermissible cluster are kept, that cluster could just as easily simplify instead, resulting in the loss of that yer.

Weak yers always drop:

*kъniga	→	нига	['nʲi.gə]	book
*ǫgъlъ	→	вангле	['βan.gle]	angle, corner
*sъlati	→	слати	['sla.tɪ]	send

Strong yers become one of a number of different vowels. Word-finally, ь became /i/. There are no cases of strong final ь.

*mēsękъ	→	мѣшици	['mæ.sʲi.tsɪ]	moon, month
*pęť	→	пети	['pɛ.tɪ]	five

However, final yers in one-syllable prepositions become /o/: въ → во [βo] “in”. These prepositions were phonologically part of the following word, so these yers behaved as those they were word-internal.

The back yer ь elsewhere becomes /o/, unless it is after /j/, in which case it becomes /e/:

*гътъ	→	ротe	['ro.te]	mouth
*domъ	→	дум	['dum]	house
*въ-kǫsъ	→	вокусе	['βo.ku.se]	taste
*vъz-ъmq	→	возмун	[βozʲ.'mun]	I bring
*jъgo	→	его	['jɛ.go]	yoke

The realization of the front yer ь word-internally is more complex. It generally becomes /e/, but before /l/ and /r/ it becomes /i/. In the sequence jъ, it drops entirely unless it absolutely cannot, in which case it becomes /i/ (stressed) or /e/ (unstressed):

*lъgъkъ	→	легке	['l'ex.ke]	easy, light
*dъnpъ <sup>2</sup>	→	дене	['d'e.ne]	day
*tvъrdъ	→	туирде	['twir.de]	solid, firm
*jъstъ	→	исте	['i.ste]	true
*jъgrati	→	еграти	[jɛ.'gra.tɪ]	play

When in a tense position (i.e., before /j/), the back yer becomes /e/. The front yer drops entirely.

*cъrvenъ-jъ	→	црвеной	['tser.βɛ.nej]	red, red one
*pъjɔ	→	пюн	['pjun]	I drink
*bratъji	→	бракьи	['bra.ci]	brothers

Note that these changes affected prepositions such as \*vъ “in” as well, which up until the 18<sup>th</sup> century was pronounced вѣ [βe] when the following word began with /j/: вѣ яблокѣ *ve iáblokě* “in an apple”. This is never seen anymore in the modern language, but can be seen in poetry. There are also set phrases which preserve the /e/: вѣ ѿмѣно “in the name [of]”. Initial /i/ < \*jъ- may revert to /j/: вѣ ѿстинѣ “truthfully”.

Analogy often obscures some of the above changes. Unlike the other Slavic languages, Novegradian eliminated ‘fleeting vowels’ created by stress shifting on and off a yer in nouns (vowels present in one form but lost in another). However, they remain in a small set of verbs and in the adjective едене “one”. Later stress changes can also obscure yer loss.

Yer loss sometimes caused compensatory lengthening in the previous vowel. This length was later lost in standard Novegradian, but not before /o:/ shifted to /a/. This is particularly visible with diminutive endings.

*morъko	→	марко	['mar.ko]	bay
*košъ-ka	→	кашка	['ka.ʃkə]	cat

Tangentially related to the fall of the yers is the process known as the Hardening of Final Labials, whereby final /ъ/ became /ь/ after a labial consonant (i.e., /p b m v/). The most significant result of this was the transference of many i-stem nouns to e-stem, as with ромъбе *gótube* “dove” from Common Slavic \*golъbъ. This also caused the loss of final \*ъ in many endings, since final \*ъ is not preserved.

2 This word ends in a front yer in other Slavic dialects: \*dъnpъ.

## 24.2.9 Initial Vowel Lowering

Around the late 16<sup>th</sup> century the high vowels /i/ and /u/ were lowered to [je] and [wo] word-initially. If the following syllable contained /e/ or /o/, they may be raised in dissimilation.

*učiti	→	осити	[o.'dzi.ti]	teach, learn
*ухо	→	оху	['wo.xu]	ear
*јьgrati	→	еграти	[jε.'gra.ti]	play

The application of this change to words with initial \*jъ- seems to be irregular. It occurred in \*јьgrati “play” as shown above, but did not in \*јьsti “go, walk” (Novegradian *исти* *isti*).

This vowel lowering was blocked by the prepositions во, ко, and со (Common Slavic \*вън, \*кън, \*сън), which phonetically form a single unit with the following word and share its stress. As a result, the initial /i u/ were no longer at the “beginning” of the word.

Stressed initial /ju/ became /jew/. This is one of the last manifestations in standard Novegradian of the historical Slavic process known as Syllabic Synharmony, where syllables containing palatal consonants would also have palatal (i.e., front) vowels. The palatal consonant /j/ and back vowel /u/ were incompatible, so an intermediate /e/ appeared to separate the two.

*južina	→	еужина	['jew.zʲi.nə]	dinner
*jutro	→	еутро	['jew.tro]	morning

### 24.2.10 Loss of Unstressed /æ/

Starting from the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, unstressed /æ/ began to merge with /i/, probably via a weakened form such as [jɪ]. In some dialects, /æ/ was completely eliminated (merging with /i/ or /e/), though in the standard it still has a distinct pronunciation when stressed.

*nyně	→	нинѣ	['nʲi.ni]	nowadays
*rěka	→	рѣга	[ri.'ga]	river
*stěna	→	стѣна	[sti.'na]	wall

This change is still viewed as allophonic, so it is normal for words with shifting

stress to have [æ] in some forms and [i] in others.

## 24.3 Development of Consonants

### 24.3.1 J-Induced Palatalization

The sequence Cj frequently resulted in the palatalization of the consonant and then the dropping the /j/. This change is responsible for most consonant mutations in verbs, as well as many other changes.

The dental consonants clusters /tj dj sj zj stj skj zdj zgj/ all resulted in palatal consonants (in the strict sense, i.e., with dorsal articulation), rather unique for the Slavic languages. This has been attributed to possible Uralic influence. /tj dj/ became the palatal plosives /c ɟ/.

*vētje	→	вѣкъе	['βæ.ce]	veche
*nudja	→	нугъа	['nu.ɟə]	need
*na-dědja	→	надѣгъа	[nə.'dʲæ.ɟə]	hope

/sj/ and /zj/ became the palatal fricatives [ç] and [ʝ].

*pisjɔ	→	пихъун	['pi.çun]	I write
*vъzjɔ	→	веѣъун	['βe.ʝun]	I tie

The clusters /stj/ and /skj/ both resulted in [ʃc], and the rarer /zdj/ and /zgj/ both gave [ʒɟ].

*iskjɔ	→	ешкъун	['je.ʃcun]	I seek
*krъstjɔ	→	крешкъун	[kre.'ʃcun]	I baptize
*dozdjъ	→	дожгъи	[doʒ.'ɟi]	rain

The cluster /kt/ became /tj/ early on before a front vowel, which then developed regularly into /c/.

*noktъ	→	нокъи	['no.ci]	night
*doktъ	→	докъи	['do.ci]	daughter

The velar clusters /kʲ/, /gʲ/, and /xʲ/ became [tʃ], [dʒ], and [ʃ]. The first two later simplified to [ts] and [ʒ]. [ʒ] then became [zʲ] through the process of *śókanje*.

*plakjǫ	→	плацун	['pla.tsun]	I cry
*mogjǫ	→	музун	['mu.zun]	I can
*duxja	→	ду́жа	[du.'zʲa]	soul, person

/nj/ merged into a single sound, [ɲ].

*viš(ь)nja	→	вишньа	['βis.ɲə]	cherry
*mǣnjati	→	мѣнѣти	[mɪ.'ɲa.ti]	change

/lj/ simplified into plain /l/. /rj/ generally stayed as such, except in the 1SG form of verbs, where it simplified to /r/.

*burja	→	буря	['bur.jə]	tempest
*govorjǫ	→	говорун	[go.βo.'run]	I talk
*voljiti	→	волити	[βo.'ʎi.ti]	prefer

The labial sequences /pj bj vj mj/ were a little different. The palatalization resulted in an /l/ being added into the cluster: [plj blj vlj mlj]. Before front vowels (as well as before *-a* when in the nominative case of a noun), this /l/ is later dropped. Elsewhere the [j] dropped. This frequently lead to labial and labial+l alternations in words.

*zemja	→	жемя	['zʲem.jə]	land (NOM SG)
*zemjǫ	→	жемлу	['zʲem.lu]	land (ACC SG)
*ljubjǫ	→	лублун	[lu.'blun]	I love
*avjǫ	→	аудун	[əw.'lun]	I reveal

If /mj vj/ ended up at the end of a word due to yer loss or contractions in speech, /mj/ became /ɲ/ and /vj/ became /l/. /pj/ and /bj/ simply lost their palatal element. If this happened in the nominative form of a noun, the ending may be reintroduced by morphological pressure (as in *Iároslali* below).

*na zemjъ	→	на жень	['na zʲɛɲ]	on the ground
*Jaroslavjъ	→	Ярослали	['ja.ro.slə.lɪ]	Yaroslavl (city)



All of these clusters involving /j/ would later be reintroduced into Novegradian from a number of sources, such as the so-called “collective plurals”.

### 24.3.2 Progressive Palatalization of Velars

The progressive palatalization of the velars (whereby PS /k g x/ became /ts ʒ s/ after i or ѣ), sometimes called the Third Palatalization although many now believe it to have occurred before the First Palatalization was even complete, was present in the territory which is now Novegrad. It was however extremely inconsistent, and as in the other Slavic languages, no rule can be found to explain which words were affected without leaving numerous exceptions.

The exact nature of the progressive palatalization in Novegradian is unclear. There are two primary theories today. Some believe that it began to take force in Novegradian before the First Regressive Palatalization was complete, a possible explanation for the appearance of *cókanje* (see below). Others believe that it never occurred in Novegradian, and that all apparent instances of it were borrowed from Old East Slavic or Old Church Slavonic. These would have entered Novegradian before the First Palatalization had finished, in time to be affected by *cókanje*.

The most common instance of the progressive palatalization in Novegradian is in the agentive suffixes *-ce* and *-ica*, as in *стрѣце* ['stræɫ.tse] (CS \*strěl-ькъ) “archer”. Unpalatalized instances of the form *стрѣке* are attested alongside palatalized forms such as *стрѣце* as late as the 12<sup>th</sup> century, long after the third palatalization was complete in other Slavic-speaking areas. Some dialects to date still use *-ика* as the feminine form of most nouns describing people, reserving *-ица* only for use as the feminine counterpart of *-це*.

Similar, though unrelated, is the palatalization of /kt/ and /gt/ before front vowels, where they became /tj/. This is the origin of the velar infinitive suffix *-йкѣ*: *пейкѣ* ['pej.ci] (CS \*pektь → \*petjъ) “bake”. The additional /ɪ/ is thought to be a “coloring” of the vowel caused by the [c] that eventually strengthened to a full glide, but why this occurred only in infinitives is unclear, especially given the development of nouns with the exact same protoform: CS \*pektь → Nov. *пекѣ* ['pe.ci] “oven”.

### 24.3.3 Lack of the Second Palatalization

The Second Progressive Palatalization, involving the shift of \*k \*g \*x to \*c \*ʒ \*s before front vowels and seen in all other Slavic languages, appears not to have occurred in Novegradian. This is, however, a matter of contention, with some suggesting it did take place, but was largely undone by later changes. The fairly limited

corpus of texts in Old Novegradian, combined with the admixture of learned Slavonic forms in these texts, makes it hard to prove conclusively.

*květъ	→	куѣте	['kwæ.te]	flower, color
*xęgъ	→	хѣре	['xʲæ.re]	grey
*kěna	→	кѣна	['kʲæ.nə]	cost
*gvězda	→	гуѣзда	['gwæ.zdə]	star

For comparison, the Russian cognates of these four words are цвет *cvet*, серый *seryj*, цена *cena*, and звезда *zvezda*.

### 24.3.4 Cluster Simplification

The earliest regular instances of cluster simplification are the changes of /tl dl/ to /kl gl/ to ease pronunciation. In most of the East and South Slavic languages these both simplified to just /l/, while in West Slavic they were preserved.

*mydlo	→	муигло	['mwi.glo]	soap
*gъrdlo	→	горгло	['gor.glo]	throat
*тъlo	→	кло	['klo]	background
*ordlo	→	рагло	['ra.glo]	plow

Other changes are less predictable, although cluster-simplifying changes have occurred throughout the history of the language, especially to new loan words. Novegradian has been far less tolerant of consonant clusters than any of the other Slavic languages.

### 24.3.5 Cókanje

Cókanje refers to the confusion of /ts/ and /tʃ/ in Novegradian from a period roughly during the First Progressive Palatalization up until the fourteenth or fifteenth centuries (depending on the region). Speakers would frequently use the wrong phoneme from an etymological point of view, and which words ended up being pronounced with which consonant often varied from region to region. For example, the “correct” pronunciation [ʲtʃer.ne] for “black” was common in the area to the south and west of Novegráde Velíkei while the “incorrect” [ʲtser.ne] was seen to the north and west. At the same time, the “correct” [ʲkon.tse] “end” was seen only in Novegráde Velíkei and to the west, while the

“incorrect” [ˈkon.tʃe] was seen to the south, east, and north.

According to one of the more widely-accepted theories, *cókanje* is believed to have been caused by conflicting influences in the early Novegradian-speaking area. The First Palatalization began late in Novegradian, occurring after the Second and Third had finished in the rest of the Slavic-speaking world. One of the changes happening in Novegradian during the First Palatalization was *k* → *tʃ* before front vowels. At the same time, however, Church Slavonic was becoming an influential language in the region. As a South Slavic language, it had already undergone the Third Palatalization, which, among other changes, caused *k* → *ts* after front vowels in certain circumstances. So at the same time that many former instances of /*k*/ were being converted to /*tʃ*/, Novegradian was also being flooded by /*ts*/ (equivalent to older /*k*/) from Church Slavonic loans. Speakers quickly lost the ability to keep track of which former /*k*/ is supposed to be pronounced [tʃ] and which [ts], causing the two phonemes to become confused.

The issue was eventually resolved by converting all instances of both phonemes to /*ts*/ in the standard language. /*tʃ*/ was later reintroduced through loan words, though long after the original /*tʃ*/ was lost.

* <i>цѣр(х)ъ</i> OCS <i>цѣръ</i>	→	церне	[ˈtser.ne]	black
* <i>копѣкъ</i> OCS <i>копѣсь</i>	→	конце	[ˈkon.tse]	end

24.3.6 *Śókanje*

*Śókanje* refers to the merger of Old Novegradian /*f*/ and /*ʒ*/ with /*s*/ and /*z*/ before front vowels. Much like how /*tʃ*/ was pulled forward to [ts] through *cókanje*, /*f*/ and /*ʒ*/ were pulled forward to [*sʲ*] and [*zʲ*] in all positions except before a plosive consonant. Concurrently with this change, /*s*/ and /*z*/ acquired a slight palatalization before all front vowels, also becoming [*sʲ*] and [*zʲ*].

Later, all [*sʲ*] and [*zʲ*] that were non-paradigmatic (not present throughout the entire paradigm of a word) reverted to plain [*s*] and [*z*] when not before a stressed vowel, thus creating four distinct phonemes: /*s z sʲ zʲ*/. The new /*sʲ zʲ*/ therefore come from former /*f ʒ*/ as well as /*s z*/ that were present before a front vowel throughout their entire paradigm.

Which [*sʲ zʲ*] are considered /*sʲ zʲ*/ and which are considered /*s z*/ continues to be a subject of debate in the modern language, but the most common analysis is used here: If the consonant is palatalized in all forms of a word, it is /*sʲ zʲ*/. If not, it is /*s z*/. The former correspond orthographically with *ш ж*, the latter with *с з*.

*sila	→	шила	[ʰsʲi.lə]	strength
*šestь	→	шести	[ʰsʲe.sti]	six
*gȑsь	→	гаши	[ʰga.sʲi]	goose
*žiti	→	жити	[ʰzʲi.ti]	live

Contrast the above with, for example, Common Slavic \*lisa, lisi “fox, foxes”, Old Novegradian [ʰli.sa, ʰli.sʲi], Modern Novegradian [ʰli.sə, ʰli.si], where the palatalization was later lost because it only occurred before unstressed vowels. Also with various modern forms of the word for “car” (originally, “wagon”): GEN SG [ʰbo.zə], DATINS SG [ʰbo.zem], PART SG [bo.zʲek]; since there are forms where palatalization could never have appeared (GEN SG -a), this phoneme was never reanalyzed as /zʲ/, so palatalization was later lost when before an unstressed front vowel as well. It only remains allophonically before stressed front vowels.

A few complicating factors helped to make /sʲ zʲ/ more clearly distinct from /s z/. First of all, sókanje occurred before the merger of \*y (patterning as a back vowel) with \*i (a front vowel). /s z/ before \*y, then, never palatalized, but remained [s z]. Only after all \*y became [i] did these consonants begin to palatalize, but only when this new [i] was stressed. Thus these are considered /s z/ in the modern language, since the palatalized consonant is not present in all forms.

*syra	→	сира	[ʰsʲi.rə]	moist, raw (NOM SG FEM INDEF)
*syra-ja	→	сирая	[si.ʰra.jə]	moist, raw (NOM SG FEM DEF)

Another complicating factor is the front yer, /ь/. This would always palatalize any preceding /s z/. If it later dropped, the [sʲ zʲ] formed by it would remain. Since their original conditioning environment had disappeared, these can be considered distinctly /sʲ zʲ/.

*въз-ьмѣ	→	вожмун	[bozʲi.ʰmun]	I bring
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The motivation for the fronting of [ʃ ʒ] to [sʲ zʲ] may be found in Russian. In Russian, the distinction between /ts/ and /tʃ/ was reinforced by palatalizing (“softening”) one and leaving the other unpalatalized (“hard”), resulting in modern Russian [ts tɕ]. A similar phenomenon likely happened in Novegradian, only this time it served to maximize the distinction between [tʃ] and [ʃ], before the former began to be confused with [ts]. [tʃ] (as well as [ts]) remained “hard”, while [ʃ]

and its voiced partner [ʒ] became “soft” [sʲ zʲ]. The fronting from a postalveolar to a dental articulation likely parallels the eventual total shift of [tʃ] to [ts] resulting from *cókanje*.

### 24.3.7 Lenition of /β/

Early on in Novegradian, /β/ became intolerant of being in a coda position, or being the second element of a cluster. In such positions, it lenites to /w/.

*вѣ-повѣ	→	вноу	['βnow]	again
*главѣнѣ	→	глауне	['glaw.ne]	main, important
*правѣда	→	прауда	['praw.də]	truth
*дворѣ	→	дуре	['du.re]	courtyard, square
*твоѣѣ	→	туой	['twoj]	your

There is one type of exceptional development—the sequence /βn/ intervocally became /mn/, as the /β/ assimilated to the nasality of the following /n/ before this lenition process took place. This change is visible in words such as *рамне* ['ram.ne] “flat, even” (← \*огвѣнѣ) and *дамне* ['dam.ne] “distant (in time)” (← \*давѣнѣ). This change was prevented in *глауне* above by analogy with *глава* “head” from which it was derived, whereas these other two lack sufficiently transparent related words that did not also undergo this change.

This prohibition of coda /β/ and /β/ after less sonorous consonants continues into the present day. The only violations of this rule are in interjections, which often do not need to follow a language’s normal phonological rules in the first place.

In a few irregular cases, unstressed \*вѣ- and \*вѣ- may result in /u/ when word-initial, which then lowered to /o/. This is most noticeable in some forms of *вѣче* “all”: *о҃во* [o.'ʏo] “everything” ← CS \*вѣхо. This is also seen in many dialectal forms like *о҃ноу* [o.'now] for *вноу* “again” above.

### 24.3.8 Pretonic Voicing

In the 11<sup>th</sup> century, and then again in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries unclustered intervocal consonants tended to voice before stressed vowels. Although no longer productive, this rule still sporadically affects new words through analogy. Affricates such as /ts/ are also affected.

This change introduced the new phoneme /ɣ/, which later appeared in loan words as well.

*gotovъ	→	Годовс	[go.'do.βe]	ready
*въхо	→	оґо	[o.'ɣo]	everything
Universität (German)	→	университе	[u.ni.βer.si.'da.te]	university

### 24.3.9 Word-Final Devoicing

When at the end of a word, all voiced consonants that have an unvoiced counterpart must devoice. This change applies primarily to first, third, and fourth declension nouns in the genitive plural and masculine fourth declension nouns in the accusative. This rule is no longer productive, so it does not affect consonants that become final due to colloquial /e/ or /i/ dropping, but its effects from when it was productive are still clearly seen.

возс (Novegradian)	→	воз	['βos]	car (GEN PL)
garage (French)	→	гараж	[gə.'rasʲ]	garage (GEN PL)
видс (Novegradian)	→	вид	['βit]	view (ACC SG)

### 24.3.10 Velarization of /l/

The phoneme /l/ velarized to /ɭ/ in the presence of certain back vowels, as long as it is not the last element in a cluster. This change occurred to an /l/ with either of /o u/ on each side (as long as the second vowel is unstressed), to initial /l/ when followed by /o u/, to final /l/ after /a o u/, or to preconsonantal /l/ preceded by /a o u/. A number of other changes are a little more difficult to explain. This change did not effect /l/ ← CS \*/lj/.

*loviti	→	љовити	['ɭo.βi.tɪ]	catch
*golqбъ	→	гољубе	[go.'ɭu.be]	dove
*žылтъ	→	жольте	['zʲɔɭ.te]	yellow
kanal (Swedish)	→	канаље	[kə.'na.le]	canal

Initial /l/ before \*y (before it merged with /i/) also became velarized. The result here is /ɭ/ before stressed front vowels as well.

*lʏsъ	→	лъисе	[ˈli.se]	bald
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### 24.3.11 Lenition in Plosive Clusters

In plosive+plosive clusters, the first always lenites into a fricative. This applies even to modern-day loans. The labials /p b/ both lenite to /w/. The nasal consonants do not cause this, although there are a few instances of lenition before a nasal consonant as the result of dialect borrowing.

*męgъкъ	→	меґке	[ˈmɛx.ke]	soft
*krępъкъ	→	крґуке	[ˈkræw.ke]	firm, strong
aktiv (German)	→	ахтивне	[əx.ˈtʲi.ne]	active, working

### 24.3.12 Strengthening of /xl/

The cluster /xl/ strengthens to /kl/ in all positions. Since this took place at a relatively late date, this change affects inherited \*xl, /xl/ from earlier \*xolC- sequences, and many older loanwords, including /xl/ from foreign /fl/.

*xlěbъ	→	клѣбе	[ˈklæ.be]	bread
*xold-ъnъ	→	кладне	[ˈklad.ne]	cold
Flotte (German)	→	клотe	[ˈklo.te]	fleet

### 24.3.13 Allophonic Palatalization

In the modern language the dental phonemes (excluding /r/) and the velar phonemes all allophonically palatalize immediately before stressed front vowels. This has been discussed before and will not be again, although there are two more extreme cases worth mentioning.

The voiced velar fricative /ɣ/ becomes [j] when palatalized. When root-final, this can lead to very irregular declension patterns. Since this change began to occur roughly in the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century, it is reflected in writing in a number of forms.

*vъхе	→	вие	[βi.ˈjɛ]	everyone
*uxese	→	оес	[o.ˈjɛs]	ear (GEN PL)
*anъgelъ	→	анґее	[ˈa.ne.je]	angel

The last of the above is a more extreme example where the [j] created from a palatalized /ɣ/ merged with a preceding /n/ to form /ɲ/. (This word frequently had penultimate stress until the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, explaining the palatalization).

Although speakers generally do not view this [j] as a variant of /ɣ/, it can nevertheless be regularly derived from /ɣ/, and is classified as allophonic by those studying the language. Cases such as *аньєе* above are exceptional.

The other more extreme instance of palatalization is the colloquial pronunciation of certain [l'] as a fricative [ʐ], a phenomenon that speakers of other Slavic languages generally find utterly baffling. Examples include pronouncing *велике* (standard [βɛ.'l'i.ke]) “great” as *вежжике* [βɛ.'ʐi.ke], or *полиция* [pɔ.'l'iʦ.jə] “police” as *пожжися* [pɔ.'ʐis.jə].

## 24.4 *The Morphology of Common Slavic*

Following is a very cursory overview of the different distinctions and features that Common Slavic indicated morphologically.

**Case:** CS had seven cases—nominative, genitive, accusative, dative, instrumental, locative, and vocative. The vocative was not marked on adjectives.

**Number:** CS distinguished three numbers—the singular, dual, and plural—on nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs. However, the dual was already losing ground, seeing the seven distinct cases of the dual and plural reduced to just three—the NOM/ACC/VOC, the GEN/LOC, and the DAT/INS.

**Gender:** Every noun was inherently masculine, feminine, or neuter. Masculine nouns also distinguished animacy in the accusative case. Verbs involving the l-participle, adjectives, and the numerals 1-4 agreed in gender.

**Declension:** CS had a number of different declensions. Which a noun took depends on its form in the Proto-Indo-European language. There were eight vocalic stems (-ā, -jā, masculine -ō, neuter -ō, -jō, -ī, -ū, -ū) and four consonantal stems (-n, -s, -r, -nt). These terms refer to their PIE form, not their form in Common Slavic.

**Adjectives:** Adjectives had definite and indefinite forms, and had three levels of gradation—absolute, comparative, and superlative.

**Tense:** CS had six tenses—the present, aorist, and imperfect marked morphologically, and the future, perfect, and pluperfect marked using auxiliary verbs with either an infinitive or a L-form active participle.

**Mood:** CS had the indicative, conditional, and imperative moods. The conditional was analytical in form.

**Aspect:** Verbs could be either imperfective or perfective. Verbs of motion had a



three way contrast between perfective, imperfective determinate, and imperfective indeterminate.

Voice: CS distinguished the active, reflexive, and passive voices. The Reflexive was formed using pronouns, and the passive with participles.

Person: Verbs had three persons—the first, second, and third.

A chart demonstrating Common Slavic inflectional paradigms is available in the appendix.

## *24.5 Development of Nouns and Adjectives*

### **24.5.1 Declension Merger**

Common Slavic had a staggering eleven declensions, not counting any irregular forms. All Slavic languages simplified this to some degree. Although modern Novegradian officially has only six declensions, every one of the original twelve left has at least left behind a trace.

The Common Slavic *Ā*-Stem is the direct predecessor of the Novegradian first declension, and has undergone little alteration, although the nasal vowel at the end of the instrumental singular ending *\*-ojꝥ* was lost. If the nominal root ends in a consonant cluster, a stressed epenthetic vowel was added in the genitive plural (seen in many other Slavic languages as well). The Common Slavic dialect that would give rise to Novegradian curiously marked the genitive singular with *\*-ě*, rather than *\*-y* as seen in most other Slavic languages.

The *JĀ*-Stem, similarly, became the second declension with few changes. However, the nasal vowels in the instrumental singular and in the nominative and accusative plural were eliminated in favor of *\*-ě*, another uniquely North Slavic feature.

The *Ů*-Stem, which gave rise to the partitive plural ending *\*-Vv* in all declensions, developed into the Novegradian third declension. The northern dialects of Novegradian also generalized some of its forms, such as the genitive singular *\*-u*, to many other nouns.

There were two varieties of the *Ŏ*-Stem, a masculine one (NOM SG ending *\*-ъ*, NOM PL *\*-i*) and a neuter one (NOM SG ending *\*-o*, NOM PL *\*-a*). The masculine *Ŏ*-Stem nouns developed into the modern fourth declension, while the neuter ones merged with the *Ů*-Stem nouns of the third declension.

The *JŎ*-Stem is to the *Ŏ*-Stem as the *JĀ*-Stem is to the *Ā*-Stem, a variant caused by the presence of an earlier /j/. In Early Common Slavic, this /j/ caused the vowels in certain endings to front, particularly /o/ → /e/ and /ъ/ → /ь/. In Novegra-

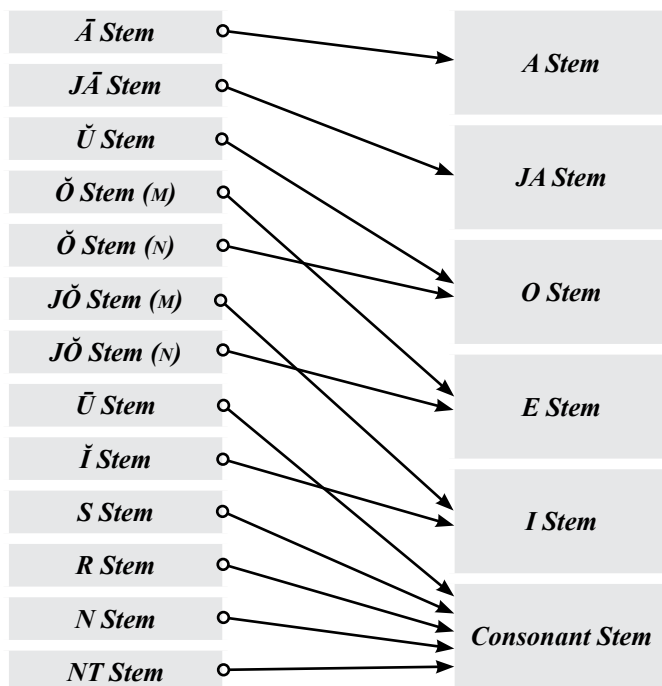
dian, this /j/ was later lost and its endings merged with the Ō-Stem when neuter (thereby joining the fourth declension) or the Ī stem when masculine (thereby joining the fifth declension).

The Ū-Stem consisted of a small set of feminine nouns ending in \*-y in the nominative singular and featured the suffix \*-ъv- in a number of forms. This suffix became regularized as \*-ev-, and the Ū-Stem nouns began to be treated in the same way as other “consonantal” declension nouns.

The Ī-Stem survived in Novegradian, becoming the fifth declension. The three “subdeclensions” all had antecedents in Common Slavic.

Common Slavic also had four consonantal stems, which gained a suffix in oblique forms—the S-Stem (suffix \*-es-, relatively common), the R-Stem (suffix \*-er-, seen only in the words “mother” and “daughter”), the N-Stem (suffix \*-en-, relatively common), and the NT-Stem (suffix \*-et-, marks animal diminutives). In Common Slavic, these all declined similarly though not identically. In Novegradian, their endings were merged, so that while they each take their own individual suffixes, they have a common set of endings—the modern sixth declension.

Over the years a number of nouns have unpredictably switched declensions, especially as some older declensions were beginning to fall out of use. This was particularly common as a number of nouns removed themselves from the conso-



nantal declensions and joined the Third and Fourth Declensions, such as \*dělo “matter, dealing” (original S-Stem) and \*dънь “day” (original N-Stem).

It should be noted that the development of the IE Ō and Ū stems in Novegradian is highly unusual for the Slavic languages. In Novegradian, the Ū and neuter Ō stems merged, whereas in all other Slavic languages the Ū stems merged with the masculine Ō stems. Thus where other Slavic languages had relatively distinct masculine and neuter classes (from the masculine Ō/Ū and neuter Ō/JŌ stems respectively), Novegradian ended up with two declensions that encompassed both masculine and neuter nouns (the third declension from neuter Ō and masculine Ū stems, and the fourth declension from masculine Ō and neuter JŌ stems). It has been suggested that this failure to clearly distinguish between masculine and neuter paradigms has contributed to Novegradian being the only Slavic language to have lost the neuter gender, at least in its colloquial spoken form.

### 24.5.2 Development of Specific Case Endings

Several case endings have more complex origins that call for more specific discussion. These are the sixth declension V-Stem nominative singular *-ua*, the third/fifth declension animate accusative singular *-a*, the fourth declension nominative singular *-e*, the fourth declension genitive singular *-u/-a*, and the fourth declension dative/instrumental singular *-em/-oi*.

The sixth declension nominative singular ending *-ua* for V-stem nouns is clearly not a regular development from Common Slavic *\*-y*. It is generally believed that the suffix *-ъv-* seen in all non-nominative forms was generalized to the nominative as well. However, this resulted in a number of feminine nouns with the highly unusual ending *-ъvъ* in the nominative. This discrepancy was later corrected by generalizing the first declension nominative ending *-a*, as *\*-ъva* is a much more acceptable feminine ending. Over time this simplified to *-va* (with the Fall of the Yers), then *-ua* (with the lenition of /β/). A noun like Common Slavic *\*къркы* “church”, therefore, would have evolved roughly like so: *\*къркы* → *\*къркъvъ* → *къркъva* → *kerkva* → *kerkua*.

In the fourth declension, the use of the genitive in place of the regular accusative ending was long standard for animate nouns. This eventually led, in Novegradian as well as several other Slavic languages, to the generalization of *-a* as the animate accusative ending, even in declensions where the genitive was not marked by *-a*. The result was the formation of animate “subdeclensions” in the third and fifth declensions. Animate third declension nouns began to take *-a* in the genitive and accusative singular rather than the regular *-u*, and animate fifth declension

nouns began to take *-ia* rather than *-i*.

The issue of the nominative singular ending *-e* in the fourth declension is far more problematic. For neuter nouns (formerly JŮ-Stem), with the ending *-e* in both the nominative and accusative singular, this ending is inherited. However, masculine nouns (formerly Ů-Stem) have *-e* in the NOM SG and zero in the ACC SG. The Common Slavic ending for both was *-ъ*, which would regularly yield only a zero ending. This leaves the question of where the NOM SG ending *-e* came from. There is still no consensus, but the most widely-held theory suggests it is the result of influence from the Uralic languages. The early Novegradians had constant contact with Finnic peoples; in fact, the city of Novegráde Velíkei is believed to have originated as a confederation of three older settlements, one Slavic, one Finnic, and one Baltic. Bilingualism was likely very high, and as Novegradian influence expanded, a larger and larger proportion of the Novegradian-speaking population consisted of Finnic peoples who acquired Novegradian as a second language.

Meanwhile, these early Finnic speakers of the Proto-Novegradian dialect of Common Slavic were facing an issue all Common Slavic speakers ran into: while the accusative singular of masculine Ů-stems and neuter JŮ-stems were distinguished (*\*-ъ* and *\*-o*, respectively), the nominative forms of both were *\*-o*. As Common Slavic was a language in the process of shifting towards more gender differentiation, this potential confusion was intolerable; there were a very large number of both masculine and neuter Ů-stems, but no way to distinguish them in the nominative case. There were two obvious options for replacing the masculine nominative ending: *\*-ъ* from the Ů-stems, or *\*-e* from the JŮ-stems. Most Slavic languages opted for the former, leading to syncretism of the Ů-stem nominative and accusative and further encouraging the merger of the masculine Ů- and JŮ-stems.

Proto-Novegradian was alone in opting for *\*-e*, which led to the Novegradian masculine Ů-stem having distinct nominative and accusative singulars, and pushing the masculine Ů- and JŮ-stems closer together. However, it resulted in the frequent merger of the masculine Ů-stem nominative and vocative, which was historically marked with *\*-e*. The choice of *\*-e* was likely aided by the Finnic background of many speakers. The Finnic languages make a strong distinction between nominative and accusative, but the nominative/vocative distinction is alien to them. Therefore, choosing an option that would create new nominative/accusative syncretism was out of the question. The choice of *\*-e*, on the other hand, manages to preserve the nominative/accusative distinction, while by and large eliminating the alien nominative/vocative contrast. The JŮ-stems already had *\*-e* for both the

nominative and vocative.<sup>3</sup>

This masculine *\*-e* eventually spread to adjectives, pronouns, and the I-participle of verbs, although the motivation for doing so has yet to be adequately explained. It is possible that this ending simply came to be associated with the masculine gender in general, since it now appeared as a nominative marker on the vast majority of masculine nouns. However, this *\*-e* did *not* spread to the masculine O-stem nouns (IE *Ů*-stem); the O-stem never had any issues of confusion between the masculine and neuter in the Proto-Novegradian stage, so there was little pressure to restructure the system.

It is also interesting to note that in Old and Middle Novegradian up until around the 16<sup>th</sup> century, fourth declension nouns of Church Slavonic origin and other ecclesiastical terminology influenced by Church Slavonic did *not* use the *-e* ending, preserving the “learned” Slavonic ending *-ъ*, such as ON богъ *bogъ* “god” (modern боре *bóře*). These eventually adopted the *-e* ending under sheer analogical pressure.

Most Slavic languages show some degree of mixing of *Ů*-stem and *Ů*-stem endings. In most other languages, this could be explained as a consequence of the merger of these two declensions. With Novegradian, the spread and specialization of certain *Ů*-stem endings to the fourth declension is harder to explain. All that can definitively be said is that the characteristics of this spread are very similar to the same phenomena in other Slavic languages. For instance, the *Ů*-stem genitive singular *\*-u* has displaced the *Ů*-stem genitive *\*-a* for a subset dominated by mass nouns, as well as a few others, much like what happened in Ukrainian or early Russian. The *Ů*-stem dative *\*-ovi*, meanwhile, has taken over the fourth declension dative/instrumental (in the form *-oi*) for personal names and a small set of nouns referring to people, much like the “personal dative” seen in several West Slavic languages.

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3 Later developments in both Novegradian and other Slavic languages are worth noting, although they are less directly relevant. Outside of Novegradian, the nominative/vocative contrast appears to have been crucial enough that the J*Ů*-stem nouns eventually broke their inherited nominative/vocative syncretism by adopting the *Ů*-stem vocative *\*-u*. Later on, both in Novegradian and elsewhere, the masculine J*Ů*-stems merged with the *Ů*-stems. It would ultimately be the masculine *Ů*- and *neuter* J*Ů*-stems that would become the Novegradian fourth declension, in an apparently reversal of the early Common Slavic trend of maximizing gender distinctions that created these chain shifts of declensions in the first place.

### 24.5.3 Case Loss and Merger

Looking at Common Slavic declension, it is clear that the dative and instrumental cases were already quite similar. In the dual, they had already merged, and for many plural nouns, the endings were quite similar. Only in the singular were they completely distinct, but note forms in certain declensions such as instrumental singular \*gordomъ “with the city” and dative plural \*gordomъ “to the cities”. The plural endings for the two cases had merged for all nouns by the 15<sup>th</sup> century (although they continued to be maintained in writing until the orthographic yers ѣ/ь were removed from the spelling system in 1917; the spelling -амъ was generally used for the dative plural and -амъ for the instrumental plural). The singular forms were completely merged by the 17<sup>th</sup> century at the latest, and were not distinguished in writing.

The vocative was no longer in use by the 16<sup>th</sup> century. However, as in Russian, a few archaic vocatives loaned from Church Slavonic still remain, such as *боже!* *bóže!* “O God!”. The vocative has reappeared in the colloquial language as the suffix *-mo*, which interestingly can be combined with the few surviving original vocatives: *божемо!* *bóžemo!* “O God!”.

The locative case lost some of its function, but not nearly as much as some other Slavic languages. The Novegradian locative no longer marks the direct object of verbs of contact (such as “touch”), as it did in Old Church Slavonic, but unlike other Slavic languages the locative may still be used on its own without a preposition.

### 24.5.4 Loss of the Dual

The dual form of nouns and adjectives was already on its way out in Common Slavic. It had completely disappeared in Novegradian by the 14<sup>th</sup> century at the latest, with the exception of a few common natural duals.

In addition to these natural duals that retain of their original declension, the original dual has also left behind some traces in the numeral system seen in the hundreds, from 100 to 900. In modern Novegradian these are fused forms, but in Proto-Slavic they were phrasal—“two hundreds”, “three hundreds”, etc. “One hundred” was \*sъto (modern *сто stó*), an O-stem nominative singular noun. “Two hundred” was \*dъvѣ-sъtѣ (modern *двести duésti*), with the nominative dual. “Three hundred” was \*tri-sъta (modern *триста trístá*), with the genitive singular. “Five hundred” was \*přetъ-sъtъ (modern *пидот picót*), with the genitive plural.

### 24.5.5 New Cases

Novegradian has developed two new cases since Common Slavic (three, if the new vocative is considered)—the partitive and the lative.

The partitive function was originally handled by the genitive case, though Novegradian has developed distinct forms that have taken over this function. The main singular ending is *-ok/-ek*, which is generally considered to have originally been a diminutive ending; this is perhaps because a diminutive was once used as a measure of a noun (e.g., a “*medóke*” may have referred to a certain amount of honey or container of it), or possibly a logical extension of the “smallness” quality diminutives provide.

In the formal language, the genitive may substitute for *-ok/-ek* if using the later would result in a cacophonous sequence; this is a survival of the original function of the genitive, and can also be seen in adjective declension. The partitive plural ending for all nouns is /ow ~ ew/, descending from the Ů-stem genitive plural ending *-ovъ*. This ending took over partitive functions when the zero-ending genitive plural spread out from the first and fourth declensions.

The lative case ending *-un/-on/-en/-in* comes from a split in the Common Slavic accusative case. In Common Slavic, the accusative marked the object of lative prepositions (“into”, “onto”, etc) as well as the direct object of many verbs. The *Ā*- and *JĀ*-stem nouns marked the accusative with the ending *\*-ŏ*, which became /un/ regularly in Novegradian. Since direct objects are used so much in speech, however, the /n/ quickly wore off. Lative phrases, however, were not nearly as common, and as a result, the /n/ never elided, effectively splitting the accusative case. The ending *-n* then spread to other nouns by analogy, each declension changing the vowel to whichever is most appropriate for that declension. The lative plural endings generally derive from the accusative plural, albeit with a few exceptions. There seems to be a trend towards adopting *-ě* or *-i* in all declensions, which is gradually resulting in the increasing differentiation of the accusative and lative plurals.

### 24.5.6 Animacy in Nouns and Pronouns

Already in Common Slavic, an animacy distinction had begun to develop. The masculine animate nouns (referring to people or animals) could frequently take the genitive case instead of the accusative when the acting as the direct object of a verb. This soon became mandatory. This same phenomenon then led to the loss of the original accusative case personal pronouns (although they were preserved in the new lative case); since personal pronouns generally refer to people, the genitive pronouns replaced the accusative ones.

Novegradian later extended this by analogy to feminine animate nouns as well.

The animate numerals came from the Common Slavic collective numerals, which represented a group of something, much like English words such as “pair” and “trio”, and so were quite naturally used with animate nouns. Over time the collective numerals functioned less and less like pronouns and more like normal numerals, as they are seen today.

### 24.5.7 Adjectives

The Novegradian system of indefinite adjectives was inherited from Common Slavic’s with relatively few changes in form, although all of the dual forms were lost and the gender distinction was neutralized in the plural. The indefinite forms for the new cases are borrowed directly from the nouns (since indefinite adjectives have a declension almost identical to nouns as it is).

The definite forms similarly come from the Common Slavic definite adjectives, which were formed by declining the anaphoric pronoun \*jь and attaching it to the proper indefinite adjective form, although contractions occurred in some forms. Originally this was only done for nominalization (“the red one”, etc), but Novegradian generalized its usage to encompass more definite functions.

The Common Slavic comparative degree was formed by taking the adjective stem, adding \*-(ě)jьš-, and then adding regular adjective endings (except with fronted vowels, such as /o/ → /e/ and /ь/ → /ѣ/). In the nominative singular the /f/ was lost. Novegradian simplified this to -(ei)ś-, though still employing fronted endings.

When the Common Slavic ending \*-jьš- (without the extra ě) came in contact with the final consonant of an adjective stem, it palatalized according to the normal rules. This is the source of most of Novegradian’s irregular comparatives, where regular Common Slavic forms such as \*vys-jь-jь “highest” underwent palatalization, becoming modern Novegradian *vuīhje*.

However, the comparative of former Slavic Ū-stem adjectives was formed irregularly in proto-Novegradian (or regularly, depending on perspective). As all of Common Slavic was undergoing a process of adjectival declension collapse, Ū-stem adjectives were switched to the Ō-stem (which was coming to take over masculine adjective agreement) by means of the suffix \*-ьк-. This suffix is seen in all of the absolute forms of former Ū-stem adjectives in modern Novegradian; however, the comparative stem in Novegradian was almost always formed from unsuffixed adjective bases. For instance, the Proto-Slavic adjective \*söld-ŭ-s “sweet” became \*sold-ьк-ь in Common Slavic and слазке *slázke* in Novegradian, while the comparative became \*sold-jь-jь (NOM SG MASC) / \*sold-jьš-a (NOM SG FEM) in the



Novegradian dialect of Common Slavic, where the NOM SG MASC form was eventually generalized to yield the modern comparative *сла҃гѣ* *slágje*. Had the \*-ѣк- suffix been present in the comparative stem as well, the modern form would have been \*\*сла҃зце *slázce* or \*\*сла҃зше *slázše*.

The palatalization of stem-final /k/ (not resulting from \*-ѣк-) to /sʲ/ rather than /ts/ in comparatives appears to be an irregular change that spread by analogy: *велике* *velike* → *велише* *velíše*, rather than expected \*\**велице* *velíce*. This is likely a combination of the general Novegradian trend of converting various instances of /ts/ to /s/ or /sʲ/, encouraged by the already common usage of -s- as a comparative suffix.

The Common Slavic superlative was generally just the definite form of the comparative, and if necessary, the prefix \*naj- could be added. Novegradian preserves this formation.

The intensive and excessive degrees of Novegradian are both more recent innovations, although the intensive is seen in Old Church Slavonic as well (and likely entered Novegradian from OCS). They were both formed by prefixed prepositions which then became generalized.

## 24.5.8 Numerals

With the exception of the animate numeral forms, Common Slavic numerals changed very little in Novegradian. The most significant changes are that 4 stopped agreeing with the noun they modified in gender, and that the numeral 2 now called for the count form (like 3 and 4) instead of the nominative dual, so long as no distinct dual exists. However, in Common Slavic neuter nouns took the same form of “two”, \*dъvѣ (modern *dóvĕ*), as feminine nouns; in modern Novegradian they take the same form as masculine nouns, *dóva*. The two forms of “three” in Novegradian, *tri* (MASC/NEUT) and *trě* (FEM), appear not to derive directly from Common Slavic \*trъje (MASC) and \*tri (FEM/NEUT). Instead, it appears that the CS feminine/neuter form took over, but a new feminine form was then created based on the feminine form of “two”, *dóvĕ*.

On the other hand, the behavior of numerals has changed significantly. In Common Slavic, the numerals 1 through 4 all behaved adjectivally, agreeing in number, gender, and case with the noun they modified, while the numerals 5 through 10 behaved as nominal quantifiers, showing no agreement and forcing the noun they modified into the genitive plural (so that “five stones” and “a pile of stones” were homologous constructions). This naturally meant that a noun quantified by 1 would appear in the singular, by 2 in the dual, and by 3 or 4 in the plural. However, already by Late Common Slavic the numerals 2 through 4 were

beginning to lose their adjectival properties and beginning to fall more in line with other numerals, resulting in a confused agreement situation compounded by the loss of the dual. This confusion was resolved in many ways across the Slavic family, with Novegradian developing a new class of count forms to be used alongside these numerals in the nominative and accusative cases.

Early on, Novegradian patterned much like the East Slavic languages in generalizing the dual endings to the numerals 3 and 4. In East Slavic, these eventually came to be conflated (to varying degrees of completeness) with the genitive singular for masculine and neuter nouns and the nominative plural for feminine nouns<sup>4</sup>. In Novegradian, this new count form came to be strongly conflated with the genitive singular in endings, while preserving the stress of the nominative plural (and thus preserving the overall prosody of the noun phrase), although in the smaller second and fifth declension the count form remains formally identical to the nominative plural. Note, however, the tendency to generalize the ending *-a* for all masculine nouns in the third and fourth declensions, even if the genitive is typically in *-u*.

## 24.6 Development of Verbs

### 24.6.1 Verb Form Loss

Although they have gone through a number of changes, Novegradian verbs are not that fundamentally different from Common Slavic ones. A number of forms, however, were lost:

**The Aorist Tense:** Common Slavic had an additional tense, lost in all Slavic languages except several in the Southern branch, known as the aorist. The aorist marked a simple past action that occurred once and was completed. It was frequently used in narration to convey a sequence of events. There were two sets of aorist endings, known as the sigmatic and asigmatic, depending on the verbal root. This form was almost completely lost in Novegradian, half-surviving only in the verb “be” in the subjunctive mood.

**The Imperfect Tense:** The imperfect tense was another Common Slavic form with a distinct set of endings, likewise lost in most Slavic languages. It marked a

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<sup>4</sup> In Russian, this would later become the genitive singular throughout, as the nominative plural for most feminine nouns was identical in form, though not necessarily in stress, to the genitive singular. Nevertheless, the Russian count form is not entirely syncretic with the genitive singular, as it can vary in stress for some nouns and takes genitive plural adjective agreement, not genitive singular.

continuous or habitual action in the past. It was completely replaced by the imperfective past in Novegradian.

**The Pluperfect Tense:** The pluperfect tense was an analytic construction formed with the imperfect/aorist forms of “be” followed by an L-form (resultative) participle. With the loss of the aorist and imperfect, the pluperfect disappeared as well.

**The Perfect Tense:** The Common Slavic perfect tense was formed with the present tense of “be” followed by the L-form participle. As the verb “be” became less and less common in the present tense, the participle was used by itself more frequently to indicate the past. By the 19<sup>th</sup> century it had become completely ungrammatical to use the present tense of “be” with an L-form participle throughout all Novegradian dialects, creating the modern past tense.

**The Conditional Mood:** The conditional was formed using a special set of conditional forms of “be”, forms no other verb in the language had, with the L-form participle. In Late Common Slavic the conditional and aorist forms of “be” began to get confused, so speakers would often use the aorist in place of the conditional. In modern Novegradian only three of these conditional/aorist forms survive, a singular, dual, and plural, and this construction has become the Novegradian subjunctive.

### 24.6.2 Verb Form Gain

**The Future Hypothetical:** When the perfect forms were still in use, some Common Slavic dialects developed an analogous future perfect formed with the future tense of “be” and the L-form participle. Generally this form was shortlived, but it survived in Novegradian as the future hypothetical.

**The Simulative:** A number of Slavic languages developed verbal adverbs from older participle forms, and Novegradian was no exception. However, it was unique in that it eventually allowed these adverbs to become finite verb forms that can take their own subject.

### 24.6.3 Athematic Verbs

Common Slavic had only five athematic verbs, which had no thematic vowel and took a unique set of endings. Novegradian kept four of these, having eliminated the verb \**jeŕi* “have” in favor of a periphrastic construction (“at X there is Y”).

### 24.6.4 First Conjugation Endings

First conjugation verbs now conjugate according to a pattern quite similar to the athematic, but in Common Slavic the vast majority of these verbs followed one of two very different paradigms.

Originally, many first conjugation verbs took the same endings as in the third conjugation, but with an added infix \*-aj- in the present/future. For example, “he reads” was originally \*čъtajetъ (modern *čítast*). The /je/ portion was lost early on, becoming \*čidat, etc. The athematic endings first began to spread to verbs which looked similar to one of the athematic verbs in the infinitive by analogy (compare Novegradian *čidāti* “to read” and *dāti* “to give”). From here the endings spread by analogy to other verbs with the -a- ending in the present tense.

Verbs whose infinitive and past forms include the suffix -ova- (including a very large number of imperfectives) were also originally third conjugation, taking the suffix -ui- in the present tense where verbs like “read” had -ai-. This present tense form gradually fell out of common use in favor of regularizing the -ova- in all forms, thereby shifting them to the new first conjugation. This -ui- suffix can still sometimes be seen in poetry, however. In addition, a small set of verbs are still required to take /u/ in the present tense. Such verbs generally have a root consisting of a single consonant, so the -ui- ending seemed more integral to the verb’s conjugation. An example is ковати *kóvati* “forge”, whose 1SG form is куям *kúiam*, which interestingly has become first conjugation, yet kept the -ui-.

### 24.6.5 The Middle and Passive Voices

Novegradian developed synthetic middle and passive voices from the enclitic reflexive pronoun \*sę, an accusative case form that survived as a verbal clitic after the other accusative personal pronouns disappeared. This clitic later split into a middle and passive form, much as the accusative case split into a true accusative and a lative. The origin of these constructions has been dealt with previously.

## 25

## Appendices

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Додание

## 25.1 Colors

Novegradian has nine basic color terms, compared to the eleven of English. A basic color term is the highest level of color terminology in a language, a term that cannot be encompassed by another larger term. For example, in English “crimson” is not a basic color term because the term “red” includes “crimson” as well as many other shades.

What constitutes each color varies significantly from the Latinate pattern used throughout much of Europe, the result of the many years of relative isolation the language experienced until around the 17<sup>th</sup> century, although there has been influence as well from the Uralic languages.

- Цервене *cérvene*, often translated as “red”, encompasses the range from dark reds to medium-strength oranges. Some colors that might be considered very dark purple in English are also included.
- Жоѡте *žótte*, or “yellow”, includes the yellows, golds, and lighter oranges. Oranges (the fruit) would be considered to be жоѡте.
- Желене *želéne*, or “green”, includes the yellow-greens, greens, and some turquoise.
- Плаве *pláve*, or “light blue”, covers some blue-greens and goes to the medium blues.
- Шинье *šinje*, or “dark blue”, includes the darker shades of blue as well as most purples.
- Руде *rúde*, or “brown”, covers the range of browns as well as dull reds.
- Церне *cérne* means “black”.
- Бѣле *běle* means “white”.
- All intermediate shades between black and white are referred to as хѣре *hěre* “grey”.

Two other colors, розове *rózove* “pink” and оранжеве *oránževe* “orange”, are

gaining increasing usage due to Western European influence. However, they are generally not viewed as “basic” terms at present.

## 25.2 Time and Date

### 25.2.1 Months and Weekdays

The days of the week for the most part have transparent meanings related to their position within the week. As in the rest of Europe, the week begins on Monday.

- Monday — понеџанике *ponedělnike* “the one after the day of rest”
- Tuesday — торнике *tórnikе* “the second one, the other one”
- Wednesday — срџда *sřěda* “the middle”
- Thursday — четуре *cetuérge* “the fourth one”
- Friday — петекe *péteke* “the fifth one”
- Saturday — собота *sobóta* “the Sabbath”
- Sunday — неџла *neděla* “day of no working, rest”

In colloquial speech amongst all generations, the pronunciation [ˈspa.tə] is almost universal for собота in the sense of “Saturday”, while “Sabbath” universally retains the older pronunciation [so.ˈbo.tə]. The “спара” pronunciation originated as a hypercorrection, an attempt to remove a supposedly Russified pronunciation from the language (as the native Novegradian cognates of many Russian words with the  $C_1oC_2oC_3$  structure have a  $C_1C_2aC_3$  form, although properly they also require  $C_2$  to be either /l/ or /r/). It has been further strengthened by the perceived connection with спати “sleep, rest”, which is actually completely unrelated. The [so.ˈbo.tə] pronunciation remains in use for all meanings in formal registers.

The month names are less transparent, deriving from older Slavic names and describing nature.

- January — ледана *lédana*, from леде *léde* “ice”
- February — лутана *lútana*, from луте *lúte* “severe, fierce [frost]”
- March — сокана *sókana*, from соке *sóke* “tree sap”
- April — травана *trávana*, from трава *travá* “grass”
- May — куџтана *kuětana*, from куџте *kuěte* “flower, color”
- June — цервена *cérvena*, from цервене *cérvene* “red”
- July — липена *lípena*, from липа *lípa* “lime (linden) tree”

- August — шерпана *šérpana*, from шерпе *šérpe* “sickle”
- September — врѣсана *vrěsana*, from врѣсе *vrěse* “heather”
- October — румѣна *ruměna*, from румѣне *ruměne* “dark red”
- November — листопаде *listopade*, from листе *liste* “leaf” and падати *pádati* “fall”
- December — снѣжена *sněžena*, from снѣге *sněge* “snow”

### 25.2.2 Adverbs and Other Time Terminology

Novegradian has three words that can be translated as “now” in English:

- cosaca *sodžása* or месак *sedžás* — These two terms both mean “now, at this very moment”. They are identical in meaning; the first is native, the second is a Russian calque.
- тобирво *tobirvo* — This means “now” when something at present is being contrasted to something in the past. It is similar, though not identical to, the expression “and now” in English, in that it contrasts present and past.
- нинѣ *niné* — This is a much less focused equivalent of cosaca or тобирво, meaning “nowadays” or “at present”. While cosaca points to a specific moment in time, нинѣ points to a span of time encompassing the present moment.

Cosaca is a distortion of Common Slavic \*съ-časomъ “with the hour”, or possibly съ-časъ “this hour”. Similar in origin are шеден *šedén* “today” and шегод *šegód* “this year”.

Similar adverbs, except derived from the distal demonstrative \*онъ, are ономедни *onomédni* “on that day” and ономегоди *onoměgodi* “in that year”, derived from Common Slavic \*ономъ-дъне and \*ономъ-godě, respectively. These may be used to refer to specific dates in the past or the future.

The adjective прошле *próšle* is used to mean “last” or previous”: прошлое асто *próšloie ásto* “last year”. The adjective наступне *nastúpne* (pronounced [nə.'stu.ne]) is used to mean “next” or “following”: наступное асто *nastúpnoie ásto* “next year”. There is one adverb, љони *loní*, meaning “last year”, but its usage is somewhat marked.

“Tomorrow” is занок *zánok*, literally “behind the night”. “The day after tomorrow” is нимзанок *nimzánok*, literally “past tomorrow”.

“Yesterday” is вецераш *véceraš*, literally “[of/before] this [last] evening”. “The day before yesterday” is нимецераш *niméceraš*, literally “past yesterday”.

Although not frequently used, денеш *denés* also means “today”, generally in

more poetic or archaic contexts. Similar is the adverb *ногъеш nogjés*, meaning “to-night”.

The adjectives “today’s”, “tomorrow’s”, and “yesterday’s” are *денеуне denéune*, *еутрене iéutrene*, and *вечерне vécerne* respectively. These words are also the adjectival forms of “day”, “morning”, and “evening” respectively; that is, *денеуне* means both “today’s” as well as “diurnal”.

Novogradian has two words for “day”. *Дене déne* refers to the period of daylight, or to a day on the calendar. *Сутоки sútoki* (which is always plural) refers to an astronomical day, including both day and night, or to a 24-hour period in general (e.g., 18.00-18.00 is considered one period of *сутоки*).

There are also distinct words for “the day before/eve of” and “the day after”: *вигла vígla* and *заутра záutra* respectively. The phrases “on the day before/eve of” and “on the day after” are written as a single word: *вовиглу vóviglu*, *возаутру vozáutru*. Unlike English “eve”, these are fully productive and are not limited to certain holidays: *яс пришле думове возаутру сурвѣ iás prišlé dumóve vozáutru survě* “I arrived home the day after the blizzard”. These prepositions may also be used alone as adverbs, where they can serve the useful function of distinguishing the narrative and absolute senses of “yesterday” and tomorrow”. As adverbs, both are stressed on the first syllable: *vóviglu* and *vózautru*.

- Оне рѣсиле то-це оне приѣздиле вецераш.

*Óne řědzíle tó-ce óne prijězdile véceráš.*

“He said that he arrived yesterday.” (that is, he arrived the day before the present moment)

- Оне рѣсиле то-це оне приѣздиле вовиглу.

*Óne řědzíle tó-ce óne prijězdile vóviglu.*

“He said that he arrived yesterday.” (that is, he literally said “I arrived yesterday”, meaning he arrived the day before he originally made this statement; this could perhaps more accurately be translated as “He said that he arrived the day before” as well)

### 25.2.3 Telling Time and Giving the Date

Whole hours are expressed using feminine ordinals in their definite form (due to the dropped word *попа porá* “hour”). One o’clock, however, is expressed as just *попа* rather than an ordinal. They will generally appear in the accusative case when describing when something happens, although the nominative case is used when just reading off time.



- (1) Cosaca pora / другая / дежета.  
*Sodzása porá / drugáia / dežétaia.*  
 now Ø hour-NOM.SG / second-NOM.SG.FEM.DEF / tenth-NOM.SG.FEM.DEF  
*"It's 1.00 / 2.00 / 10.00."*

Minutes are shown after the preposition *co so* “with” in the dative/instrumental case: 6.20 шестая со дүүдешитех *šestaia so dwudéšiteh*, literally “the sixth with twenty”. The minutes show feminine agreement, if needed, because of минута *minúta*.

Two special words for fractions of hours also exist—пољ *pól* “half” and цетуерте *cetuérte* “quarter”. The latter may be placed after an hour much like the other minutes: тритей со цетуертем *trítei so cetuértem* “3.15”. When either form is placed before the hour, the hour is put in the genitive case and the time is subtractive: пољ тритѣ *pól tritéie* “2.30”, lit. “half of the third [hour]”. Пољ is always used subtractively like this. When a specific amount of minutes are used subtractively, the preposition *co* (this time meaning “from”) is required, the hour again being in the genitive: дуадешити со шенмѣ *duadéšiti so šénměie* “6.40”, lit. “twenty [minutes] from the seventh [hour]”. In general, the additive method is used for minutes between 01 and 29, and the subtractive method for minutes between 30 and 59.

This system is the most commonly used nowadays. It replaces an older system (still seen amongst the older generations or in rural areas) where times were based entirely on the following hour: тритѣ дешити *tritéie déšiti* “2.10” (lit. “of the third [hour] ten [minutes]”, that is, ten minutes into the third hour of the day). This has become increasingly uncommon since the advent of digital clocks since the modern system allows for an almost literal and linear reading of the numbers off the display, rather than requiring mentally adding one to the hour number displayed. However, a few remnants remain in the common lexicon, particularly the expression of “half” as just discussed.

There are no real equivalents for “AM” and “PM” as used in English. Instead, an adverb of time may be employed. Еутром *iéutrom* “in the morning” is used roughly from 5AM to noon, денем *dénem* “in the daytime” from noon to 5PM, вечерем *vécereim* “in the evening” from 5PM until 11PM, and ногъюм *nogjiúm* “at night” from 11PM until 5AM. Equivalent adverbs (e.g., using the locative case instead) are also allowed. Alternatively, and perhaps more commonly, speakers may also give time according to a 24-hour clock.

The terms for “noon” and “midnight” are пољудна *poludná* “noon” and пољункъи *pólunkji*, respectively. Both of these, however, are somewhat quirky in their declension. “Noon” is first declension in the singular and fourth declension in the plural. “Midnight” is always plural.

Dates are given using the genitive singular masculine definite form of an ordinal number (for ден *dén* “days”) followed by the genitive singular of the month: дуадеси пирваево румѣнѣ *duadési pirváievo ruměně* “October 21<sup>st</sup>” (lit. “of the twenty-first [day] of October”).

## 25.3 Dual Nouns

A small set of nouns in Novegradian retain a distinct and functional dual form. As described in sections 12.8 and 13.8, outside of frozen expressions the dual forms are only used after the numeral “two” or the modifier “both”. Such nouns mostly describe paired body parts and clothing related to them. These twenty duals are shown in the table below, alongside with their nominative plural and genitive singular form for comparison. The three forms listed under “Dual Forms” are the NOM/ACC/LAT, GEN/LOC, and DAT/INSTR, respectively.

Nom. Sg.	Meaning	Dual Forms	Nom. Pl.	Gen. Sg.
брев <i>brév</i>	eyebrow	брене <i>bréve</i> бреву <i>brévu</i> бреума <i>bréuma</i>	бреви <i>brévi</i>	брева <i>bréva</i>
гранди <i>grándi</i>	breast	гранди <i>grándi</i> грандю <i>grándiu</i> грандима <i>grándima</i>	грандие <i>grándie</i>	гранди <i>grándi</i>
колѣно <i>kolěno</i>	knee	колѣни <i>kolěni</i> колѣну <i>kolěnu</i> колѣнома <i>kolěnóma</i>	колѣна <i>kolěná</i>	колѣну <i>kolěnu</i>
кригло <i>krigló</i>	wing	кригли <i>krigli</i> криглу <i>kriglu</i> криглома <i>kriglóma</i>	кригла <i>kliglá</i>	криглу <i>kriglu</i>
ланкѣо <i>lankjó</i>	hip	ланкѣи <i>lánkji</i> ланкѣу <i>lánkju</i> ланкѣома <i>lankjóma</i>	ланкѣа <i>lankjá</i>	ланкѣу <i>lánkju</i>
лохти <i>lóhti</i>	elbow	лохти <i>lóhti</i> лохтю <i>lóhtiu</i> лохтима <i>lóhtima</i>	лохтиє <i>lóhtie</i>	лохти <i>lohtí</i>
нерка <i>nerka</i>	kidney	неркѣ <i>nerké</i> нерку <i>nerku</i> неркома <i>nerkóma</i>	нерки <i>nerki</i>	неркѣ <i>nerké</i>

Nom. Sg.	Meaning	Dual Forms	Nom. Pl.	Gen. Sg.
нога <i>nogá</i>	foot, leg	ногѣ <i>nogě'</i> ногу <i>nogú</i> ногома <i>nógoma</i>	ноги <i>nógi</i>	ногѣ <i>nogě'</i>
око <i>óko</i>	eye	оки <i>óki</i> оку <i>óku</i> огома <i>ogóma</i>	ога <i>ogá</i>	оку <i>óku</i>
оху <i>óhu</i>	ear	охесе <i>óhese</i> охесу <i>óhesu</i> оесма <i>oiésma</i>	охеси <i>óhesi</i>	охеса <i>óhesa</i>
осту <i>óstu</i>	lip	ости <i>ósti</i> осту <i>óstu</i> остома <i>ostóma</i>	оста <i>ostá</i>	осту <i>óstu</i>
плегѣо <i>plegjó</i>	shoulder	плекѣи <i>plékji</i> плекѣу <i>plékju</i> плегѣома <i>plegjóma</i>	плегѣа <i>plegjá</i>	плекѣу <i>plékju</i>
плукѣе <i>plúkje</i>	lung	плукѣѣ <i>plúkję</i> плукѣу <i>plúkju</i> плугѣема <i>plugjéma</i>	плукѣи <i>plúkji</i>	плукѣа <i>plúkja</i>
понога <i>pónoga</i>	sock	поногѣ <i>pónogě</i> поногу <i>pónogu</i> поногома <i>ponógoma</i>	поноги <i>pónogi</i>	поногѣ <i>pónogě</i>
порцаска <i>porcáska</i>	winter glove	порцаскѣ <i>porcáské</i> порцаску <i>porcásku</i> порцаскома <i>porcaskóma</i>	порцаски <i>porcáski</i>	порцаскѣ <i>porcáské</i>
роге <i>róge</i>	horn	рогѣ <i>rógě</i> рогу <i>rógu</i> рогема <i>rogéma</i>	роги <i>rógi</i>	рога <i>róga</i>
рока <i>róka</i>	hand, arm	рокѣ <i>rókě</i> року <i>róku</i> рогома <i>rogóma</i>	роки <i>róki</i>	рокѣ <i>rókě</i>
ругавица <i>rugávica</i>	work glove	ругавицѣ <i>rugávice'</i> ругавицу <i>rugávicu</i> ругависома <i>rugavidzóma</i>	ругавици <i>rugávici</i>	ругавицѣ <i>rugávice'</i>
сабоге <i>sabóge</i>	boot	сабогѣ <i>sabógě</i> сабогу <i>sabógu</i> сабогема <i>sabogéma</i>	сабоги <i>sabógi</i>	сабога <i>sabóga</i>
ягодица <i>iágodica</i>	cheek	ягодицѣ <i>iágodicě</i> ягодицу <i>iágodicu</i> ягодисомо <i>iagodidzóma</i>	ягодици <i>iágodici</i>	ягодицѣ <i>iágodicě</i>

## 25.4 Kinship

Following are the standard Novegradian kinship terms. It maintains a very complicated system of kinship by European standards, although certain terms are much more common than others. In the formal language possessive pronouns are required to follow these nouns, and in the spoken language they all take possessive suffixes.

### 25.4.1 Nuclear Family

Noun	Plural	1Sg Poss.	Meaning
родители <i>rodítele</i>	родители <i>rodíteli</i>	родителемо <i>rodítelmo</i>	parent
тата <i>táta</i>	тати <i>táti</i>	татмо <i>tátmo</i>	father
мати <i>máti</i>	матери <i>máteri</i>	матмо <i>mátmo</i>	mother
мама <i>máma</i>	мами <i>mámi</i>	маммо <i>mámmo</i>	mother <sup>1</sup>
маже <i>máže</i>	мажя <i>mažíá</i>	мажмо <i>mážmo</i>	husband
жена <i>žená</i>	жени <i>žéni</i>	женамо <i>ženámo</i>	wife
дѣтинко <i>dětinko</i>	дѣдете <i>dědete</i>	дѣдинмо <i>dědínmo</i>	child <sup>2</sup>
дѣдин <i>dědín</i>	дѣдете <i>dědete</i>	дѣдинмо <i>dědínmo</i>	child <sup>3</sup>
син <i>sín</i>	синья <i>sinjá</i>	синмо <i>sínmo</i>	son
докъи <i>dókji</i>	докъери <i>dókjeri</i>	докъмо <i>dókjmo</i>	daughter
brate <i>bráte</i>	бракъи <i>brákji</i>	братмо <i>brátmo</i>	brother
шестра <i>šestra</i>	шестри <i>šestri</i>	шестрамо <i>šestramo</i>	sister

1 A less formal variant of *мати*

2 Borrows the singular possessive forms (as well as plurals) from *дѣдин*

3 Same meaning as *дѣтинко*

## 25.4.2 Older Extended Family

Noun	Plural	1Sg Poss.	Meaning
дѣда <i>děda</i>	дѣгы <i>děgji</i>	дѣдмо <i>dědmo</i>	grandfather
прадѣда <i>praděda</i>	прадѣгы <i>praděgji</i>	прадѣдмо <i>pradědmo</i>	great grandfather
баба <i>bába</i>	баби <i>bábi</i>	бабмо <i>bábmo</i>	grandmother
прабаба <i>prabába</i>	прабаби <i>prabábi</i>	прабабмо <i>prabábmo</i>	great grand- mother
стриеце <i>strijece</i>	стриеци <i>strijéci</i>	страецмо <i>straiécmo</i>	paternal uncle
оце <i>óiece</i>	оeci <i>óieci</i>	оецмо <i>óiecmo</i>	maternal uncle
дядя <i>diádia</i>	дядѣ <i>diádě</i>	дядмо <i>diádmo</i>	uncle <sup>4</sup>
стрийка <i>strijka</i>	стрийки <i>strijki</i>	страйкамо <i>stráikamo</i>	paternal aunt
тета <i>téta</i>	тети <i>téti</i>	тетмо <i>tétmo</i>	paternal aunt <sup>5</sup>
ойка <i>óika</i>	ойки <i>óiki</i>	ойкамо <i>óikamo</i>	maternal aunt
наня <i>nánia</i>	нанѣ <i>náně</i>	нанмо <i>nánmo</i>	maternal aunt <sup>6</sup>
брадане <i>bradáne</i>	браданьи <i>bradánji</i>	браданмо <i>bradánmo</i>	male first cousin
шестрѣна <i>šestrěna</i>	шестрѣњи <i>šestrěnji</i>	шестрѣнмо <i>šestrěňmo</i>	female first cousin

4 Informal; substitutes for both стриеце and оце

5 Informal

6 Informal

### 25.4.3 Younger Extended Family

Noun	Plural	1Sg Poss.	Meaning
brateve sin <i>brateve sin</i>	bratevi sinja <i>bratevi sinjá</i>	sinmo bratevej <i>sinmo brátevei</i>	nephew <sup>7</sup>
šestrina dokji <i>šestrina dókji</i>	šestрини докъери <i>šestрини dókjeri</i>	докъмо шестриная <i>dókjmo šestrinaia</i>	niece <sup>7</sup>
внуке <i>vnúke</i>	внуци <i>vnúci</i>	внукмо <i>vnúkmo</i>	grandson
праунуке <i>práunuke</i>	праунуци <i>práunuci</i>	праунукмо <i>práunukmo</i>	great-grandson
внуцка <i>vnúcka</i>	внуцки <i>vnúcki</i>	внуцкамо <i>vnúckamo</i>	granddaughter
праунуцка <i>práunucka</i>	праунуцки <i>práunucki</i>	праунуцкамо <i>práunuckamo</i>	great-grand-daughter

### 25.4.4 Step-Family

Noun	Plural	1Sg Poss.	Meaning
отсime <i>otdzíme</i>	отсими <i>otdzími</i>	отсиммо <i>otdzímмо</i>	stepfather
матерша <i>máterša</i>	матерши <i>máterši</i>	матершамо <i>máteršamo</i>	stepmother
акосин <i>akosín</i>	акосинъа <i>akosínjá</i>	акосинмо <i>akosínmo</i>	stepson
акодокъерша <i>akodókjerša</i>	акодокъерши <i>akodókjerši</i>	акодокъершамо <i>akodókjeršamo</i>	stepdaughter

<sup>7</sup> The adjective mirrors the gender of the sibling. Therefore, братеве син means the son of a brother, and шестрин син is the son of a sister, while братева докji means the daughter of a brother and шестрина докji is the daughter of a sister.

### 25.4.5 Family-in-Law

Noun	Plural	1Sg Poss.	Meaning
сукре <i>suékre</i>	сукри <i>suékri</i>	сукремо <i>suékremo</i>	husband's father
тести <i>tésti</i>	тестие <i>téstie</i>	тестимо <i>téstimo</i>	wife's father
сукруа <i>suékrua</i>	сукреви <i>suékrevi</i>	сукрамо <i>suékramo</i>	husband's mother
тешкѡ <i>téskja</i>	тешкѡ <i>téskjě</i>	тешкѡмо <i>téskjamo</i>	wife's mother
жети <i>žéti</i>	жетие <i>žétie</i>	жетмо <i>žétmo</i>	husband's sister's husband
шурине <i>šúrine</i>	шурѡ <i>šuriá</i>	шуринмо <i>šúrinmo</i>	wife's brother
суате <i>suáte</i>	суакѡ <i>suákji</i>	суатмо <i>suátmo</i>	wife's sister's husband
дѣвери <i>děveri</i>	дѣверие <i>děverie</i>	дѣвермо <i>děvermo</i>	husband's brother
етруа <i>iétrua</i>	етреви <i>iétrevi</i>	етрамо <i>iétramo</i>	husband's brother's wife
невѣста <i>nevěsta</i>	невѣсти <i>nevěsti</i>	невѣстамо <i>nevěstamo</i>	wife's brother's wife
золуа <i>zólua</i>	золеви <i>zólevi</i>	золуамо <i>zóluamo</i>	husband's sister
суѣсти <i>suěsti</i>	суѣстие <i>suěstie</i>	суѣстимо <i>suěstimo</i>	wife's sister

All of these terms are in use, though some are relatively infrequent in unrestricted speech. The terms for parents-in-law show no signs of loss, and the terms for siblings-in-law are still quite frequent, although they may be replaced with phrases. However, the terms for the siblings-in-law of spouses are often replaced by phrases colloquially, though this is frowned upon in formal usage: суатмо *suátmo* → маже суѣста омне *máže suěstia omné*.

### 25.4.6 Other Terms

In addition, the following terms, though not representing familial relations, also take possessive suffixes:

Noun	Plural	1Sg Poss.	Meaning
юнце <i>iúnce</i>	юнци <i>iúnci</i>	юнцемо <i>iúncemo</i>	fiancé
юница <i>iúnica</i>	юници <i>iúnici</i>	юницмо <i>iúnicmo</i>	fiancée
друге <i>drúge</i>	дружи <i>drúži</i>	другмо <i>drúgmo</i>	friend

## 25.5 Punctuation

Novegradian uses mostly the same punctuation as English, although the rules governing their use differ slightly.

1. Full stop (.) — The full stop is used:
  - a. To mark the end of a sentence making a statement.
  - b. To mark the end of a sentence containing an indirect question.
  - c. To mark abbreviations that are not serving as units of measurement (e.g., r. for граде “city”, or ст. for страница “page”)
  - d. To separate units when giving time: 12.30
  - e. To group non-decimal numbers: 2.000.000 “two million”.
2. Comma (,) — The comma is used:
  - a. To represent a short pause in speech.
  - b. To separate items in a list including more than two (and must be before the и ‘and’), or to separate clauses in a sentence consisting of more than two coordinated together.
  - c. In parenthetical expressions, although very short ones often do not need the comma.
  - d. To separate phrases in apposition, unless they are very short.
  - e. To separate subordinate clauses from the primary clause (unless joined using то-це).
  - f. To separate non-restrictive relative clauses.



- g. Before contrasting conjunctions such as *но* and *а*.
  - h. To separate decimal numbers from non-decimal numbers: 1,5 “one and a half”.
3. Exclamation Mark (!) — The exclamation mark is used:
- a. At the end of a command, interjection, or emphatic statement.
  - b. At the end of questions with extreme emotion. “?!” , which is used in English, may not be used in Novegradian, so “What?! ” would be rendered “Цой!”.
4. Question Mark (?) — The question mark is used:
- a. At the end of a sentence expressing a question (other than indirect questions).
  - b. At the end of a sentence containing a tag question (e.g., ..., нет правда ли?” “isn’t that true?”).
5. Colon (:) — The colon is used:
- a. Before a list introduced by an independent clause.
  - b. Before a quotation introduced by an independent clause.
  - c. Between two closely-related but non-coordinated independent clauses (much like the semicolon in English).
6. Semicolon (;) — Although uncommon, the semicolon may be used:
- a. To separate items in a large list, or a long series of coordinated phrases or clauses.
7. Hyphen (-) — The hyphen is used:
- a. To separate two elements of a compound that is not entirely viewed as a single word (e.g., новеградеско-английске слоунике “Novegradian-English dictionary”).
  - b. To join two adjectives together into a single word (e.g., соцялно-економическе “socio-economic”).
  - c. To separate a prefix or inflection from a numeral or a word it may not be recognized on, especially foreign names (e.g., 123-ом “123<sup>rd</sup> [dative/instrumental case]”).
  - d. To separate the topicalization marker *то* from the word it modifies.

8. En-Dash (–) — The en-dash is used:
  - a. To substitute for a zero-form copula, although it may be dropped if there is no ambiguity.
  - b. To substitute for another verb lost by ellipsis, although this too is optional (e.g., Едене покренале подар деља друж, а еноке – нецево “One bought gifts for his friends, the other – nothing”).
9. Em-Dash (—) — The em-dash is used:
  - a. To separate long appositives from the rest of the sentence, in which case it must be used on both sides of the clause.
  - b. To introduce quotations and separate quotations from prose in dialogue. Unlike in English, Novegradian quotation marks cannot be used to start a new paragraph.
10. Parentheses () — The parentheses are used:
  - a. In parenthetical expressions.

Any punctuation appearing within the parentheses must be part of the parenthetical expression, not part of the main sentence, and vice versa.

11. Quotation Marks („“) — The quotation marks are used:
  - a. To mark quotations.
  - b. To single out certain words or expressions.
  - c. To name a noun (e.g., гажета „Совѣшкѣи“ “The newspaper ‘Sověšnji’”). This is not used for people or places, however.

Novegradian uses „ (left-facing, on bottom) to begin a quote and “ (right-facing, on top) to end it. If there are not available, the guillemets « » may be used. Using “ ”, as in English, is considered improper. Punctuation rules within quotations are the same as with parentheses—any punctuation within the quote must be part of the quote. Single quotation marks are never used.

12. Number Sign (№) — The number sign is used:
  - a. Before a number qualifying something, but not counting it (e.g., дом № 846 “House number 846”). This corresponds to the use of animate numerals when not counting animate nouns.

## 25.6 *Common Slavic Morphology*

The following tables outline Common Slavic inflectional morphology as it is currently understood. These charts reflect the Common Slavic dialect from which Novegradian evolved.

### 25.6.1 Nominal Morphology

The example nouns used in the chart to the right are \*noga “foot, leg” (Ā-Stem), \*zemja “land” (JĀ-Stem), \*gorde “city, fortress” (Masculine Ō-Stem), \*město “place” (Neuter Ō-Stem), \*more “sea” (JŌ-Stem), \*synъ “son” (Ů-Stem), \*kъrky “church” (Ů-Stem), \*pъtъ “path” (Ĭ-Stem), \*slovo “word” (S-Stem), \*mati “mother” (R-Stem), \*kamy “stone” (N-Stem), and \*agnę “lamb” (NT-Stem).

	Singular									
	Ā	JĀ	Ō (M)	Ō (N)	JŌ	Ū	Ū	Ī	S	NT
<b>Nom.</b>	noga	zemja	gorde	město	morje	synp	kyrky	poť	slovo	kamy
<b>Gen.</b>	nogě	zemjē	gorđa	měšta	morja	synu	kyrkъve	poťi	slovese	kamene
<b>Acc.</b>	nogo	zemjō	gordъ	město	morje	synp	kyrky	poť	slovo	kamy
<b>Dat.</b>	nogě	zemji	gordu	městu	morju	synovi	kyrkъvi	poťi	slovesi	kameni
<b>Instr.</b>	nogojo	zemjējō	gordomъ	městomъ	morjemъ	synъmъ	kyrkъvъjō	poťmъ	slovesъmъ	kamenъmъ
<b>Loc.</b>	nogě	zemji	gordě	městě	morji	synu	kyrkъve	poťi	slovese	kamene
<b>Voc.</b>	nogo	zemje	gorde	měste	morju	synu	kyrky	poťi	slovo	kamy
	Dual									
	Ā	JĀ	Ō (M)	Ō (N)	JŌ	Ū	Ū	Ī	S	NT
<b>N/A/V</b>	nogě	zemji	gorđa	městě	morji	synu	kyrkъvi	poťi	slovesě	kameni
<b>G/L</b>	nogu	zemju	gordu	městu	morju	synovu	kyrkъvu	poťju	slovesu	kamenu
<b>D/I</b>	nogama	zemijama	gordoma	městoma	morjema	synъma	kyrkъvama	poťma	slovesъma	kamenъma
	Plural									
	Ā	JĀ	Ō (M)	Ō (N)	JŌ	Ū	Ū	Ī	S	NT
<b>Nom.</b>	nogy	zemjē	gordi	měšta	morja	synove	kyrkъvi	poťje	slovesa	kamene
<b>Gen.</b>	nogъ	zemjъ	gordъ	městъ	morjъ	synovъ	kyrkъvъ	poťjъ	slovesъ	kamene
<b>Acc.</b>	nogy	zemjē	gordy	měšta	morja	synu	kyrkъvi	poťi	slovesa	kameni
<b>Dat.</b>	nogamъ	zemjajamъ	gordomъ	městomъ	morjemъ	synъmъ	kyrkъvamъ	poťmъ	slovesъmъ	kamenъmъ
<b>Instr.</b>	nogami	zemjami	gordy	městy	morji	synъmi	kyrkъvami	poťmi	slovesy	kamenъmi
<b>Loc.</b>	nogaxъ	zemjaxъ	gorděxъ	městěxъ	morjixъ	synъxъ	kyrkъvaxъ	poťxъ	slovesъxъ	kamenъxъ
<b>Voc.</b>	nogy	zemjē	gordi	měšta	morja	synove	kyrkъvi	poťje	slovesa	kamene

25.6.2 Adjectival Morphology

The following tables demonstrate the adjectival morphology of Common Slavic. Below are the indefinite forms (left) and definite (right). On the following page are the short form comparative (left) and long form comparative (right). The example used here is \*dobrъ “good, kind”, except for the short comparative, where \*vysъ “high” is used.

Singular			
	M	N	F
Nom	dobre	dobro	dobra
Gen	dobra	dobra	dobrě
Acc	dobrъ	dobro	dobrѡ
Dat	dobru	dobru	dobrě
Instr	dobromъ	dobromъ	dobrojo
Loc	dobrě	dobrě	dobrě
Voc	dobre	dobro	dobra
Dual			
	M	N	F
N/A/V	dobra	dobrě	dobrě
G/L	dobru	dobru	dobru
D/I	dobroma	dobroma	drobama
Plural			
	M	N	F
Nom	dobri	dobra	dobry
Gen	dobrъ	dobrъ	dobrъ
Acc	dobry	dobra	dobry
Dat	dobromъ	dobromъ	dobramъ
Instr	dobromi	dobromi	dobrami
Loc	dobrěxъ	dobrěxъ	dobrěxъ
Voc	dobri	dobra	dobry

Singular			
	M	N	F
Nom	dobrѣjъ	dobroje	dobraja
Gen	dobrajego	dobrajego	dobrěje
Acc	dobrѣjъ	dobroje	dobrѡje
Dat	dobrujemu	dobrujemu	dobrěji
Instr	dobryjemъ	dobryjemъ	dobrѡje
Loc	dobrějemъ	dobrějemъ	dobrěji
Voc	dobrѣjъ	dobroje	dobraja
Dual			
	M	N	F
N/A/V	dobraja	dobrěji	dobrěji
G/L	dobruju	dobruju	dobruju
D/I	dobryjima	dobryjima	dobryjima
Plural			
	M	N	F
Nom	dobriji	dobraja	dobryje
Gen	dobrѣjixъ	dobrѣjixъ	dobrѣjixъ
Acc	dobryje	dobraja	dobryje
Dat	dobryjimъ	dobryjimъ	dobryjimъ
Instr	dobryjimi	dobryjimi	dobryjimi
Loc	dobryjimi	dobryjimi	dobryjixъ
Voc	dobriji	dobraja	dobryje

	Singular		
	M	N	F
<b>Nom</b>	vysjъjъ	vysjъše	vysjъša
<b>Gen</b>	vysjъša	vysjъša	vysjъšē
<b>Acc</b>	vysjъjъ	vysjъše	vysjъšq
<b>Dat</b>	vysjъšu	vysjъšu	vysjъšē
<b>Instr</b>	vysjъšemъ	vysjъšemъ	vysjъšejq
<b>Loc</b>	vysjъšē	vysjъšē	vysjъšē
<b>Voc</b>	vysjъjъ	vysjъše	vysjъša
	Dual		
	M	N	F
<b>N/A/V</b>	vysjъša	vysjъšē	vysjъšē
<b>G/L</b>	vysjъšu	vysjъšu	vysjъšu
<b>D/I</b>	vysjъšema	vysjъšema	vysjъšama
	Plural		
	M	N	F
<b>Nom</b>	vysjъši	vysjъša	vysjъšē
<b>Gen</b>	vysjъšъ	vysjъšъ	vysjъšъ
<b>Acc</b>	vysjъšē	vysjъša	vysjъšē
<b>Dat</b>	vysjъšemъ	vysjъšemъ	vysjъšamъ
<b>Instr</b>	vysjъšemi	vysjъšemi	vysjъšami
<b>Loc</b>	vysjъšēхъ	vysjъšēхъ	vysjъšaxъ
<b>Voc</b>	vysjъši	vysjъša	vysjъšē

	Singular		
	M	N	F
<b>Nom</b>	dobrějъ	dobrějъše	dobrějъša
<b>Gen</b>	dobrějъša	dobrějъša	dobrějъšē
<b>Acc</b>	dobrějъ	dobrějъše	dobrějъšq
<b>Dat</b>	dobrějъšu	dobrějъšu	dobrějъšē
<b>Instr</b>	dobrějъšemъ	dobrějъšemъ	dobrějъšejq
<b>Loc</b>	dobrějъšē	dobrějъšē	dobrějъšē
<b>Voc</b>	dobrějъ	dobrějъše	dobrějъša
	Dual		
	M	N	F
<b>N/A/V</b>	dobrějъša	dobrějъšē	dobrějъšē
<b>G/L</b>	dobrějъšu	dobrějъšu	dobrějъšu
<b>D/I</b>	dobrějъšema	dobrějъšema	dobrějъšema
	Plural		
	M	N	F
<b>Nom</b>	dobrějъši	dobrějъša	dobrějъšē
<b>Gen</b>	dobrějъšъ	dobrějъšъ	dobrějъšъ
<b>Acc</b>	dobrějъši	dobrějъša	dobrějъšē
<b>Dat</b>	dobrějъšemъ	dobrějъšemъ	dobrějъšamъ
<b>Instr</b>	dobrějъšemi	dobrějъšemi	dobrějъšami
<b>Loc</b>	dobrějъšēхъ	dobrějъšēхъ	dobrějъšēхъ
<b>Voc</b>	dobrějъši	dobrějъša	dobrějъšē

The superlative was formed with a prefixed \*naj- added to the comparative forms.

### 25.6.3 Verbal Morphology

Common Slavic verbs may be grouped in five primary classes. The first conjugation includes verbs that take -e- in the present tense, and is demonstrated with \*nesti “carry” below. The second conjugation consists of verbs that gain the suffix -n-, demonstrated with \*dvignŋti “move”. The third conjugation includes verbs that gain the suffix -je- in the present tense, demonstrated with \*znati “know” (with a vocalic stem) and \*pъsati “write” (with a consonantal stem). The fourth conjugation features -i-, demonstrated with \*ljubiti “love”. The fifth conjugation includes the five athematic verbs, demonstrated with \*dati “give” below.

Non-Finite Forms						
	I	II	III	III	IV	V
<b>Inf</b>	nesti	dvignq̇ti	znati	ɾ̃sati	ljubiti	dati
<b>Sup</b>	nest̃	dvignq̇t̃	znat̃	ɾ̃sat̃	ljubit̃	dat̃
Present Tense						
	I	II	III	III	IV	V
<b>1Sg</b>	nesq̇	dvignq̇	znajq̇	ɾ̃sjq̇	ljubq̇	dam̃
<b>2Sg</b>	neseš̃	dvigneš̃	znaješ̃	ɾ̃sješ̃	ljubiš̃	dasi
<b>3Sg</b>	neset̃	dvignet̃	znajet̃	ɾ̃sjet̃	ljubit̃	dast̃
<b>1DI</b>	neseva	dvigneva	znajeva	ɾ̃sjeva	ljubiva	dava
<b>2DI</b>	neseta	dvigneta	znajeta	ɾ̃sjeta	ljubita	dasta
<b>3DI</b>	neseta	dvigneta	znajeta	ɾ̃sjeta	ljubita	dasta
<b>1PI</b>	nesem̃	dvignem̃	znajem̃	ɾ̃sjem̃	ljubim̃	damo
<b>2PI</b>	nesete	dvignete	znajete	ɾ̃sjete	ljubite	daste
<b>3PI</b>	nesq̇t̃	dvignq̇t̃	znajq̇t̃	ɾ̃sjq̇t̃	ljubq̇t̃	dadq̇t̃
Imperfect Tense						
	I	II	III	III	IV	V
<b>1Sg</b>	nesēax̃	dvignēax̃	znaax̃	ɾ̃saax̃	ljubjaax̃	dadēax̃
<b>2Sg</b>	nesēaše	dvignēaše	znaaše	ɾ̃saaše	ljubjaaše	dadēaše
<b>3Sg</b>	nesēaše	dvignēaše	znaaše	ɾ̃saaše	ljubjaaše	dadēaše
<b>1DI</b>	nesēaxova	dvignēaxova	znaaxova	ɾ̃saaxova	ljubjaaxova	dadēaxova
<b>2DI</b>	nesēašeta	dvignēašeta	znaašeta	ɾ̃saašeta	ljubjaašeta	dadēašeta
<b>3DI</b>	nesēašeta	dvignēašeta	znaašeta	ɾ̃saašeta	ljubjaašeta	dadēašeta
<b>1PI</b>	nesēaxom̃	dvignēaxom̃	znaaxom̃	ɾ̃saaxom̃	ljubjaaxom̃	dadēaxom̃
<b>2PI</b>	nesēašete	dvignēašete	znaašete	ɾ̃saašete	ljubjaašete	dadēašete
<b>3PI</b>	nesēaxq̇	dvignēaxq̇	znaaxq̇	ɾ̃saaxq̇	ljubjaaxq̇	dadēaxq̇

Aorist Tense						
	I	II	III	III	IV	V
<b>1Sg</b>	nesoxъ	dvigoxъ	znaxъ	ръсахъ	ljubixъ	daxъ
<b>2Sg</b>	nese	dvige	zna	ръsa	ljubi	da
<b>3Sg</b>	nese	dvige	zna	ръsa	ljubi	da
<b>1Dl</b>	nesoxova	dvigoxova	znaxova	ръsaxova	ljubixova	daxova
<b>2Dl</b>	nesosta	dvigosta	znasta	ръsasta	ljubista	dasta
<b>3Dl</b>	nesosta	dvigosta	znasta	ръsasta	ljubista	dasta
<b>1Pl</b>	nesoxomъ	dvigoxomъ	znaxomъ	ръsaxomъ	ljubixomъ	daxomъ
<b>2Pl</b>	nesoste	dvigoste	znaste	ръsaste	ljubiste	daste
<b>3Pl</b>	nosoŝe	dvigoŝe	znaŝe	ръsaxo	ljubixo	daŝo
Imperative Mood						
	I	II	III	III	IV	V
<b>2Sg</b>	nesi	dvigni	znaji	ръsjj	ljubi	dadjъ
<b>3Sg</b>	nesi	dvigni	znaji	ръsjj	ljubi	dadjъ
<b>1Dl</b>	nesěva	dvigněva	znajiva	ръsjjiva	ljubiva	dadiva
<b>2Dl</b>	nesěta	dvigněta	znajita	ръsjjita	ljubita	dadita
<b>1Pl</b>	nesěmъ	dvigněmъ	znajimъ	ръsjjimъ	ljubimъ	dadimъ
<b>2Pl</b>	nesěte	dvigněte	znajite	ръsjjite	ljubite	dadite

The above represents the forms used among the North and East Slavs, that is, the forms that Novegradian originated from. There existed considerable dialectical variation, however. In the present tense 2SG, the ending could also be \*-ši in addition to \*-šъ. The final yer in the 3SG and 3PL of the present could be front or back. The 1DL ending in all tenses could be \*-vě in addition to \*-va. The 3DL could be identical to the 2PL instead of the 2DL. The vowels seen in the imperfect and aorist tenses also tended to be somewhat variable.

It should also be noted that a number of forms have been greatly simplified for this particular table. In particular, only the Slavic neo-aorist is shown; older forms of Common Slavic clearly showed three distinct aorist paradigms.

The verb \*byti “be” has two tenses no other verb has, a future and a conditional. The conditional, however, was frequently contaminated by aorist forms (shown in the third column for comparison).



Anomolous Tenses of *byti “be”			
	Future	Conditional	Aorist
<b>1Sg</b>	bȋdȋ	bimъ	byxъ
<b>2Sg</b>	bȋdešъ	bi	by
<b>3Sg</b>	bȋdetъ	bi	by
<b>1Dl</b>	bȋdeva	biva	byxova
<b>2Dl</b>	bȋdeta	bista	bysta
<b>3Dl</b>	bȋdeta	bista	bysta
<b>1Pl</b>	bȋdemъ	bimъ	byxomъ
<b>2Pl</b>	bȋdete	bite	byste
<b>3Pl</b>	bȋdōtъ	bȋ	byšę

## 25.7 Vocabulary Comparison

The following list compares 100 Novegradian words (the Swadesh List) against seven other Slavic languages: Russian, Ukrainian, Polish, Upper Sorbian, Czech, Serbo-Croatian, and Bulgarian. Forms that are not cognate with the Novegradian word are in gray. A grayed-out word does not necessarily mean that language does not have any cognate for the Novegradian word in question or vice versa; it simply means that the language does not use a cognate word with the same meaning. The final column gives the etymology of the Novegradian form.

Of these, Russian and Ukrainian have the most similar vocabulary. Many centuries of close contact between Novegradian and the East Slavic languages have resulted in significant lexical influence; however, this is ultimately far more apparent in higher registers than in the very core vocabulary of the Swadesh List. Ukrainian tends to have more conservative vocabulary than Russian, which has loaned heavily from Church Slavonic.

Polish, Upper Sorbian, and Czech are all West Slavic languages, the next closest group. Old Novegradian and Old Polish in particular seem to have had a particular strong lexical affinity, enough that some very early historical linguistic analyses of the Slavic languages classified Old Novegradian as a relexified divergent dialect of Old East Slavic. These languages have a much stronger German influence and less of a Church Slavonic influence.

Serbo-Croatian and Bulgarian are both South Slavic languages, the furthest removed from Novegradian. They have a significant layer of Turkish vocabulary. The Serbo-Croatian forms shown below are ekavian (standard Serbian). The Bulgarian verbs are given in the first person singular, since Bulgarian has lost the infinitive.

1.	<b>‘I’</b>	Novegradian:	яс	<i>ias</i>
		Russian:	я	<i>já</i>
		Ukrainian:	я	<i>já</i>
		Polish:	ja	
		Sorbian:	ja	
		Czech:	já	
		Serbian:	ja	<i>jâ</i>
		Bulgarian:	аз	<i>az</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*azъ ‘I’*

2.	<b>‘you’</b>	Novegradian:	ти	<i>tí</i>
		Russian:	ты	<i>tý</i>
		Ukrainian:	ти	<i>tý</i>
		Polish:	ty	
		Sorbian:	ty	
		Czech:	ty	
		Serbian:	ти	<i>tî</i>
		Bulgarian:	ти	<i>ti</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*ty ‘you’*

3.	<b>‘we’</b>	Novegradian:	муи	<i>muí</i>
		Russian:	мы	<i>mý</i>
		Ukrainian:	ми	<i>mý</i>
		Polish:	my	
		Sorbian:	my	
		Czech:	my	
		Serbian:	ми	<i>mî</i>
		Bulgarian:	ние	<i>nie</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*my ‘we’*

4.	<b>‘this’</b>	Novegradian:	ше	<i>śé</i>
		Russian:	это	<i>éto</i>
		Ukrainian:	це	<i>cé</i>
		Polish:	to	
		Sorbian:	to	
		Czech:	toto	
		Serbian:	ово	<i>óvō</i>
		Bulgarian:	това	<i>tova</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*sъ ‘this’*

5.	<b>‘that’</b>	Novegradian:	ме	śé
		Russian:	то	tó
		Ukrainian:	те	té
		Polish:	tamto	
		Sorbian:	to	
		Czech:	tamto	
		Serbian:	оно	ónō
		Bulgarian:	онова	onova

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*sъ ‘this’*

6.	<b>‘who?’</b>	Novegradian:	хой	hói
		Russian:	кто	któ
		Ukrainian:	хто	xtó
		Polish:	kto	
		Sorbian:	štó	
		Czech:	kdo	
		Serbian:	ко	kō
		Bulgarian:	кой	koj

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*kъ-to ‘who?’*

7.	<b>‘what?’</b>	Novegradian:	цой	cói
		Russian:	что	čtó
		Ukrainian:	що	ščó
		Polish:	co	
		Sorbian:	što	
		Czech:	co	
		Serbian:	шта	štă
		Bulgarian:	какво	kakvo

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*čъ-to ‘what?’*

8.	<b>‘not’</b>	Novegradian:	не	ne
		Russian:	не	ne
		Ukrainian:	не	ne
		Polish:	nie	
		Sorbian:	ne	
		Czech:	ne	
		Serbian:	не	ne
		Bulgarian:	не	ne

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*ne ‘not’*

9.	<b>‘all’</b>	Novegradian:	вѣхе	<i>véhe</i>
		Russian:	весь	<i>vés’</i>
		Ukrainian:	весь	<i>vés’</i>
		Polish:	wszyscy	
		Sorbian:	wšitcy	
		Czech:	vše	
		Serbian:	све	<i>svě</i>
		Bulgarian:	всички	<i>vsički</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*vъxъ ‘all’*

10.	<b>‘many’</b>	Novegradian:	многе	<i>mnóge</i>
		Russian:	много	<i>mnógo</i>
		Ukrainian:	багато	<i>baháto</i>
		Polish:	dużo	
		Sorbian:	wjele	
		Czech:	mnoho	
		Serbian:	много	<i>mnǝgo</i>
		Bulgarian:	много	<i>mnogo</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*mъnogъ ‘many’*

11.	<b>‘one’</b>	Novegradian:	ѣдене	<i>iédene</i>
		Russian:	один	<i>odín</i>
		Ukrainian:	один	<i>odýn</i>
		Polish:	jeden	
		Sorbian:	jedyn	
		Czech:	jeden	
		Serbian:	један	<i>jèdan</i>
		Bulgarian:	един	<i>edin</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*edъnъ ‘one’*

12.	<b>‘two’</b>	Novegradian:	дова	<i>dóva</i>
		Russian:	два	<i>dvá</i>
		Ukrainian:	два	<i>dvá</i>
		Polish:	dwa	
		Sorbian:	dwa	
		Czech:	dva	
		Serbian:	два	<i>dvâ</i>
		Bulgarian:	две	<i>dve</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*dъva ‘two’*

- |     |                |  |           |                  |
|-----|----------------|--|-----------|------------------|
| 13. | <b>‘big’</b>   | Novegradian:                                       | вале      | <i>vále</i>      |
|     |                | Russian:   | большой   | <i>bol'sój</i>   |
|     |                | Ukrainian:   | великий   | <i>velykyyj</i>  |
|     |                | Polish:  | wielki    |                  |
|     |                | Sorbian:   | wulki     |                  |
|     |                | Czech:   | velký     |                  |
|     |                | Serbian:   | велик     | <i>vèlik</i>     |
|     |                | Bulgarian:   | голям     | <i>goljam</i>    |
|     |                | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *valǫ ‘wave’</i>       |           |                  |
|     |                |  |           |                  |
| 14. | <b>‘long’</b>  | Novegradian:                                       | диляне    | <i>diliáne</i>   |
|     |                | Russian:   | длинный   | <i>dlinnyj</i>   |
|     |                | Ukrainian:   | довгий    | <i>dóvhyj</i>    |
|     |                | Polish:  | długi     |                  |
|     |                | Sorbian:   | dołhi     |                  |
|     |                | Czech:   | dlouhý    |                  |
|     |                | Serbian:   | дуг       | <i>düg</i>       |
|     |                | Bulgarian:   | дълъг     | <i>däläg</i>     |
|     |                | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *dolъja ‘distance’</i> |           |                  |
|     |                |  |           |                  |
| 15. | <b>‘small’</b> | Novegradian:                                       | малене    | <i>málene</i>    |
|     |                | Russian:   | маленький | <i>málen'kij</i> |
|     |                | Ukrainian:   | малий     | <i>malýj</i>     |
|     |                | Polish:  | mały      |                  |
|     |                | Sorbian:   | mały      |                  |
|     |                | Czech:   | malý      |                  |
|     |                | Serbian:   | мали      | <i>mâlî</i>      |
|     |                | Bulgarian:   | малък     | <i>maläk</i>     |
|     |                | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *malǫ ‘small’</i>      |           |                  |
|     |                |  |           |                  |
| 16. | <b>‘woman’</b> | Novegradian:                                       | жена      | <i>žená</i>      |
|     |                | Russian:   | женщина   | <i>žénščina</i>  |
|     |                | Ukrainian:   | жінка     | <i>žínka</i>     |
|     |                | Polish:  | kobieta   |                  |
|     |                | Sorbian:   | žona      |                  |
|     |                | Czech:   | žena      |                  |
|     |                | Serbian:   | жена      | <i>žèna</i>      |
|     |                | Bulgarian:   | жена      | <i>žena</i>      |
|     |                | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *žena ‘woman’</i>      |           |                  |

17. <b>‘man’</b>	Novegradian:	маже	<i>máže</i>
	Russian:	мужчина	<i>mužčína</i>
	Ukrainian:	чоловік	<i>čolovík</i>
	Polish:	mężczyzna	
	Sorbian:	muž	
	Czech:	muž	
	Serbian:	мушкарац	<i>muškárac</i>
	Bulgarian:	мъж	<i>máž</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*mъžь ‘man’*

18. <b>‘person’</b>	Novegradian:	дужа	<i>dužá</i>
	Russian:	человек	<i>čelovék</i>
	Ukrainian:	людина	<i>ljudýna</i>
	Polish:	człowiek	
	Sorbian:	čłowjek	
	Czech:	člověk	
	Serbian:	човек	<i>čovek</i>
	Bulgarian:	човек	<i>čovek</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*duxja ‘soul’*

19. <b>‘fish’</b>	Novegradian:	каля	<i>kália</i>
	Russian:	рыба	<i>rýba</i>
	Ukrainian:	риба	<i>ryba</i>
	Polish:	ryba	
	Sorbian:	ryba	
	Czech:	ryba	
	Serbian:	риба	<i>rība</i>
	Bulgarian:	риба	<i>riba</i>

*Etymology: Karelian kala ‘fish’*

20. <b>‘bird’</b>	Novegradian:	поска	<i>póska</i>
	Russian:	птица	<i>ptíca</i>
	Ukrainian:	птаx	<i>ptáx</i>
	Polish:	ptak	
	Sorbian:	ptačk	
	Czech:	pták	
	Serbian:	птица	<i>ptīca</i>
	Bulgarian:	птица	<i>ptica</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*pъtьka ‘bird’*

21. 'dog'	Novegradian:	песе	<i>pése</i>
	Russian:	собака	<i>sobáka</i>
	Ukrainian:	собака	<i>sobáka</i>
	Polish:	pies	
	Sorbian:	pos	
	Czech:	pes	
	Serbian:	пас	<i>päs</i>
	Bulgarian:	куче	<i>kuče</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*pъsъ 'dog'*

22. 'louse'	Novegradian:	воши	<i>vóši</i>
	Russian:	вошь	<i>vóš'</i>
	Ukrainian:	воша	<i>vóša</i>
	Polish:	wesz	
	Sorbian:	weš	
	Czech:	veš	
	Serbian:	уш	<i>ûš</i>
	Bulgarian:	въшка	<i>váška</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*lъšъ 'louse'*

23. 'tree'	Novegradian:	дрѣво	<i>drěvo</i>
	Russian:	дерево	<i>dérevo</i>
	Ukrainian:	дерево	<i>dérevo</i>
	Polish:	drzewo	
	Sorbian:	štom	
	Czech:	strom	
	Serbian:	дрво	<i>dřvo</i>
	Bulgarian:	дърво	<i>dărvo</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*dervo 'tree'*

24. 'seed'	Novegradian:	шѣме	<i>šěme</i>
	Russian:	семя	<i>sémja</i>
	Ukrainian:	сім'я	<i>sim'ja</i>
	Polish:	ziarno	
	Sorbian:	semje	
	Czech:	semeno	
	Serbian:	семе	<i>sěme</i>
	Bulgarian:	семе	<i>seme</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*sěmę 'seed'*

25. 'leaf'	Novegradian:	листе	<i>liste</i>
	Russian:	лист	<i>list</i>
	Ukrainian:	листок	<i>listók</i>
	Polish:	liść	
	Sorbian:	łopjeno	
	Czech:	list	
	Serbian:	лист	<i>list</i>
	Bulgarian:	лист	<i>list</i>
<i>Etymology: Common Slavic *listъ 'leaf'</i>			
26. 'root'	Novegradian:	корене	<i>kórene</i>
	Russian:	корень	<i>kóren'</i>
	Ukrainian:	корінь	<i>kórin'</i>
	Polish:	korzeń	
	Sorbian:	korjeń	
	Czech:	kořen	
	Serbian:	корен	<i>körēn</i>
	Bulgarian:	корен	<i>koren</i>
<i>Etymology: Common Slavic *kory 'root'</i>			
27. 'bark'	Novegradian:	кора	<i>kóra</i>
	Russian:	кора	<i>korá</i>
	Ukrainian:	кора	<i>korá</i>
	Polish:	kora	
	Sorbian:	škóga	
	Czech:	kůra	
	Serbian:	кора	<i>kōra</i>
	Bulgarian:	кора	<i>kora</i>
<i>Etymology: Common Slavic *kora 'bark'</i>			
28. 'skin'	Novegradian:	плоти	<i>plóti</i>
	Russian:	кожа	<i>kóža</i>
	Ukrainian:	шкіра	<i>škíra</i>
	Polish:	skóra	
	Sorbian:	koža	
	Czech:	kůže	
	Serbian:	кожа	<i>kōža</i>
	Bulgarian:	кожа	<i>koža</i>
<i>Etymology: Common Slavic *pǫltъ 'skin'</i>			



29. <b>‘meat’</b>	Novegradian:	месо	<i>měso</i>
	Russian:	мясо	<i>mjáso</i>
	Ukrainian:	м’ясо	<i>m’jáso</i>
	Polish:	mięso	
	Sorbian:	mjaso	
	Czech:	maso	
	Serbian:	месо	<i>měso</i>
	Bulgarian:	месо	<i>meso</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*męso ‘meat’*

30. <b>‘blood’</b>	Novegradian:	крев	<i>krév</i>
	Russian:	кровь	<i>króv’</i>
	Ukrainian:	кров	<i>króv</i>
	Polish:	krewn	
	Sorbian:	krej	
	Czech:	krév	
	Serbian:	крв	<i>křv</i>
	Bulgarian:	кръв	<i>krăv</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*kry ‘blood’*

31. <b>‘bone’</b>	Novegradian:	кости	<i>kósti</i>
	Russian:	кость	<i>kóst’</i>
	Ukrainian:	кістка	<i>kístka</i>
	Polish:	kość	
	Sorbian:	kosć	
	Czech:	kost	
	Serbian:	кост	<i>kôst</i>
	Bulgarian:	кост	<i>kost</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*kostъ ‘bone’*

32. <b>‘grease’</b>	Novegradian:	туке	<i>túke</i>
	Russian:	жир	<i>žír</i>
	Ukrainian:	смалець	<i>smálec’</i>
	Polish:	tłuszcz	
	Sorbian:	tuk	
	Czech:	tuk	
	Serbian:	маст	<i>mâst</i>
	Bulgarian:	мазнина	<i>maznina</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*tukъ ‘fat’*

33. 'egg'	Novegradian:	яєце	<i>idiece</i>
	Russian:	яйцо	<i>jajcǫ</i>
	Ukrainian:	яйце	<i>jajcé</i>
	Polish:	jajko	
	Sorbian:	jejo	
	Czech:	vejce	
	Serbian:	jaje	<i>jáje</i>
	Bulgarian:	яйце	<i>jajce</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*aje 'egg'*

34. 'horn'	Novegradian:	porc	<i>róge</i>
	Russian:	por	<i>róg</i>
	Ukrainian:	pir	<i>rih</i>
	Polish:	róg	
	Sorbian:	róh	
	Czech:	roh	
	Serbian:	por	<i>rôg</i>
	Bulgarian:	por	<i>rog</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*rogъ 'horn'*

35. 'tail'	Novegradian:	пυхе	<i>púhe</i>
	Russian:	хвост	<i>xvóst</i>
	Ukrainian:	хвіст	<i>xvist</i>
	Polish:	ogon	
	Sorbian:	wogon	
	Czech:	ocas	
	Serbian:	rep	<i>rêp</i>
	Bulgarian:	опашка	<i>opaška</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*pyxъ 'down'*

36. 'feather'	Novegradian:	перко	<i>pérko</i>
	Russian:	перо	<i>peró</i>
	Ukrainian:	перо	<i>peró</i>
	Polish:	pióro	
	Sorbian:	pjero	
	Czech:	pero	
	Serbian:	pero	<i>pèro</i>
	Bulgarian:	перо	<i>pero</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*pero 'feather'*

37. **‘hair’**      Novegradian:    вѡаце      *vláse*  
                          Russian:        вѡлѡс      *vólos*  
                          Ukrainian:    вѡлѡс      *vólos*  
                          Polish:          włosy  
                          Sorbian:        włosa  
                          Czech:          vlasy  
                          Serbian:        кѡса      *kòsa*  
                          Bulgarian:      кѡса      *kosa*  
                          *Etymology: Common Slavic \*volsъ ‘hair’*
38. **‘head’**      Novegradian:    глава      *gláva*  
                          Russian:        голова      *golová*  
                          Ukrainian:    голова      *holová*  
                          Polish:          głowa  
                          Sorbian:        hlowa  
                          Czech:          hlava  
                          Serbian:        глава      *gláva*  
                          Bulgarian:      глава      *glava*  
                          *Etymology: Common Slavic \*golva ‘head’*
39. **‘ear’**      Novegradian:    оху      *óxu*  
                          Russian:        уха      *úxo*  
                          Ukrainian:    уха      *vúxo*  
                          Polish:          ucho  
                          Sorbian:        wucho  
                          Czech:          ucho  
                          Serbian:        уво      *ÿvo*  
                          Bulgarian:      уха      *uxo*  
                          *Etymology: Common Slavic \*uxo ‘ear’*
40. **‘eye’**      Novegradian:    око      *óko*  
                          Russian:        глаз      *gláz*  
                          Ukrainian:    око      *vúxo*  
                          Polish:          oko  
                          Sorbian:        woko  
                          Czech:          oko  
                          Serbian:        око      *òko*  
                          Bulgarian:      око      *oko*  
                          *Etymology: Common Slavic \*oko ‘eye’*

41. 'nose'	Novegradian:	носе	<i>nóse</i>
	Russian:	нос	<i>nós</i>
	Ukrainian:	ніс	<i>nís</i>
	Polish:	nos	
	Sorbian:	nós	
	Czech:	nos	
	Serbian:	нос	<i>nôs</i>
	Bulgarian:	нос	<i>nos</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*nosъ 'nose'*

42. 'mouth'	Novegradian:	поте	<i>róte</i>
	Russian:	рот	<i>rót</i>
	Ukrainian:	рот	<i>rót</i>
	Polish:	usta	
	Sorbian:	huba	
	Czech:	ústa	
	Serbian:	уста	<i>ústa</i>
	Bulgarian:	уста	<i>usta</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*rŏtъ 'mouth'*

43. 'tooth'	Novegradian:	забе	<i>zábe</i>
	Russian:	зуб	<i>zúb</i>
	Ukrainian:	зуб	<i>zúb</i>
	Polish:	ząb	
	Sorbian:	zub	
	Czech:	zub	
	Serbian:	зуб	<i>zûb</i>
	Bulgarian:	зъб	<i>zǎb</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*zŏbъ 'tooth'*

44. 'tongue'	Novegradian:	лизике	<i>lizike</i>
	Russian:	язык	<i>jazyk</i>
	Ukrainian:	язик	<i>jazik</i>
	Polish:	język	
	Sorbian:	jazyk	
	Czech:	jazyk	
	Serbian:	језик	<i>jèzik</i>
	Bulgarian:	език	<i>ezik</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*językъ 'tongue'*

45. **‘fingernail’** Novegradian: ноготи *nógoti*  
 Russian: ноготь *nógot’*  
 Ukrainian: ніготь *níhot’*  
 Polish: paznokieć  
 Sorbian: nohč  
 Czech: nehet  
 Serbian: нокат *nòkat*  
 Bulgarian: нокът *nokăt*

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*nogŭto ‘nail’*

46. **‘foot’** Novegradian: нога *nogá*  
 Russian: нога *nogá*  
 Ukrainian: нога *nohá*  
 Polish: stopa  
 Sorbian: stopa  
 Czech: noha  
 Serbian: стопало *stòpalo*  
 Bulgarian: стъпало *stăpalo*

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*noga ‘leg, foot’*

47. **‘knee’** Novegradian: колѣно *kolěno*  
 Russian: колено *koléno*  
 Ukrainian: коліно *kolíno*  
 Polish: kolano  
 Sorbian: koleno  
 Czech: koleno  
 Serbian: колено *kòleno*  
 Bulgarian: коляно *koljano*

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*kolěno ‘knee’*

48. **‘hand’** Novegradian: рока *róka*  
 Russian: рука *ruká*  
 Ukrainian: рука *ruká*  
 Polish: ręka  
 Sorbian: ruka  
 Czech: ruka  
 Serbian: рука *rúka*  
 Bulgarian: ръка *răka*

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*rŭka ‘hand’*

49. <b>‘belly’</b>	Novegradian:	желудоке	<i>želudóke</i>
	Russian:	живот	<i>živót</i>
	Ukrainian:	живіт	<i>žyvít</i>
	Polish:	żołądek	
	Sorbian:	brjuch	
	Czech:	břícho	
	Serbian:	стомак	<i>stōmāk</i>
	Bulgarian:	корем	<i>korem</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*želǫdǫkǫ ‘stomach’*

50. <b>‘neck’</b>	Novegradian:	шия	<i>šija</i>
	Russian:	шея	<i>šēja</i>
	Ukrainian:	шия	<i>šyja</i>
	Polish:	szyja	
	Sorbian:	š ija	
	Czech:	krk	
	Serbian:	врат	<i>vrāt</i>
	Bulgarian:	врат	<i>vrat</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*šija ‘neck’*

51. <b>‘breast’</b>	Novegradian:	гранди	<i>grāndi</i>
	Russian:	грудь	<i>grūd’</i>
	Ukrainian:	груди	<i>hrudi</i>
	Polish:	piers	
	Sorbian:	hrudź	
	Czech:	prs	
	Serbian:	груди	<i>grūdi</i>
	Bulgarian:	грѣд	<i>grād</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*grǫdъ ‘breast’*

52. <b>‘heart’</b>	Novegradian:	шерце	<i>šérce</i>
	Russian:	сердце	<i>sérdce</i>
	Ukrainian:	серце	<i>sérce</i>
	Polish:	serce	
	Sorbian:	wutroba	
	Czech:	srdce	
	Serbian:	срце	<i>sřce</i>
	Bulgarian:	сърце	<i>sărce</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*sъrdьko ‘heart’*

53. 'liver'	Novegradian:	етро	<i>iětro</i>
	Russian:	печень	<i>pěčen'</i>
	Ukrainian:	печінка	<i>pečínka</i>
	Polish:	wątroba	
	Sorbian:	jatra	
	Czech:	játra	
	Serbian:	jetра	<i>jětra</i>
	Bulgarian:	черен дроб	<i>čeren drob</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*jětro 'liver, organ'*

54. 'drink (v)'	Novegradian:	пити	<i>píti</i>
	Russian:	пить	<i>pít'</i>
	Ukrainian:	пити	<i>pýty</i>
	Polish:	pić	
	Sorbian:	pić	
	Czech:	pít	
	Serbian:	пити	<i>pìti</i>
	Bulgarian:	пия	<i>pija</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*piti 'drink'*

55. 'eat'	Novegradian:	ѣсти	<i>iěsti</i>
	Russian:	есть	<i>jést'</i>
	Ukrainian:	їсти	<i>jísty</i>
	Polish:	jeść	
	Sorbian:	jěść	
	Czech:	jíst	
	Serbian:	јести	<i>jěsti</i>
	Bulgarian:	ям	<i>jám</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*ěsti 'eat'*

56. 'bite'	Novegradian:	кузати	<i>kuzáti</i>
	Russian:	кусать	<i>kusát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	кусати	<i>kusáty</i>
	Polish:	gryść	
	Sorbian:	kusać	
	Czech:	kousat	
	Serbian:	ујести	<i>ùjesti</i>
	Bulgarian:	хапя	<i>hapja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*kqsъ 'bite, morsel'*

57. 'see'	Novegradian:	видѣти	<i>viděti</i>
	Russian:	видеть	<i>videt'</i>
	Ukrainian:	бачити	<i>báčyty</i>
	Polish:	widzieć	
	Sorbian:	widžec	
	Czech:	vidět	
	Serbian:	видети	<i>videti</i>
	Bulgarian:	виждам	<i>viždam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*viděti 'see'*

58. 'hear'	Novegradian:	слихати	<i>slihati</i>
	Russian:	слышать	<i>slýšat'</i>
	Ukrainian:	чути	<i>čuty</i>
	Polish:	słyszeć	
	Sorbian:	slyšeć	
	Czech:	slyšet	
	Serbian:	чути	<i>čūti</i>
	Bulgarian:	чувам	<i>čuvam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*slyšati 'hear'*

59. 'know'	Novegradian:	вѣсти	<i>věsti</i>
	Russian:	знать	<i>znát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	знати	<i>znáti</i>
	Polish:	wiedzieć	
	Sorbian:	znać	
	Czech:	vědět	
	Serbian:	знати	<i>znāti</i>
	Bulgarian:	зная	<i>znaja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*věsti 'know'*

60. 'sleep'	Novegradian:	спати	<i>spāti</i>
	Russian:	спать	<i>spát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	спати	<i>spáty</i>
	Polish:	spać	
	Sorbian:	spać	
	Czech:	spát	
	Serbian:	спавати	<i>spávati</i>
	Bulgarian:	спя	<i>spja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*sǫpati 'sleep'*



61. 'die'	Novegradian:	омирати	<i>omirāti</i>
	Russian:	умирать	<i>umirát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	умирати	<i>umyráty</i>
	Polish:	umierać	
	Sorbian:	wuměrać	
	Czech:	umírat	
	Serbian:	умрети	<i>ùmrěti</i>
	Bulgarian:	умирам	<i>umiram</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*merti 'die'*

62. 'kill'	Novegradian:	забитати	<i>zabitāti</i>
	Russian:	убивать	<i>ubivát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	убивати	<i>ubyváty</i>
	Polish:	zabijać	
	Sorbian:	moćić	
	Czech:	zabít	
	Serbian:	убити	<i>ùbiti</i>
	Bulgarian:	убивам	<i>ubivam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*biti 'beat, maul'*

63. 'swim'	Novegradian:	плаути	<i>plúti</i>
	Russian:	плыть	<i>plýt'</i>
	Ukrainian:	пливти	<i>plyvtý</i>
	Polish:	pływać	
	Sorbian:	pluwać	
	Czech:	plavat	
	Serbian:	пливати	<i>plīvati</i>
	Bulgarian:	плувам	<i>pluvam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*pluti 'swim'*

64. 'fly (v)'	Novegradian:	ледѣти	<i>leděti</i>
	Russian:	лететь	<i>letét'</i>
	Ukrainian:	літати	<i>litáty</i>
	Polish:	latać	
	Sorbian:	lećeć	
	Czech:	letět	
	Serbian:	летети	<i>lèteti</i>
	Bulgarian:	летя	<i>letja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*letěti 'fly'*

65. 'walk'	Novegradian:	ходити	<i>hóđiti</i>
	Russian:	ходить	<i>xodít'</i>
	Ukrainian:	ходити	<i>xodyty</i>
	Polish:	chodzić	
	Sorbian:	chodźić	
	Czech:	jít	
	Serbian:	ходати	<i>hóđati</i>
	Bulgarian:	ходя	<i>xodja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*xoditi 'walk'*

66. 'come'	Novegradian:	исти	<i>ísti</i>
	Russian:	идти	<i>idťi</i>
	Ukrainian:	іти	<i>itý</i>
	Polish:	przyjść	
	Sorbian:	přinc	
	Czech:	přijít	
	Serbian:	доћи	<i>dôći</i>
	Bulgarian:	идвам	<i>idvam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*jъti 'go'*

67. 'lie, recline'	Novegradian:	лежити	<i>ležíti</i>
	Russian:	лежать	<i>ležát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	лежати	<i>ležáty</i>
	Polish:	leżeć	
	Sorbian:	ležeć	
	Czech:	ležet	
	Serbian:	лежати	<i>ležati</i>
	Bulgarian:	лежа	<i>leža</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*ležati 'lie'*

68. 'sit'	Novegradian:	шѣдѣти	<i>šéděti</i>
	Russian:	сидеть	<i>sidét'</i>
	Ukrainian:	сидіти	<i>sydity</i>
	Polish:	siadać	
	Sorbian:	sedźeć	
	Czech:	sedět	
	Serbian:	седети	<i>sèdeti</i>
	Bulgarian:	седя	<i>sedja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*šéděti 'sit'*

69. 'stand'	Novegradian:	стояти	<i>stoiáti</i>
	Russian:	стоять	<i>stoját'</i>
	Ukrainian:	стојати	<i>stojáty</i>
	Polish:	stać	
	Sorbian:	stać	
	Czech:	stát	
	Serbian:	стајати	<i>stǎjati</i>
	Bulgarian:	стоя	<i>stoja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*stojati 'stand'*

70. 'give'	Novegradian:	дати	<i>dáti</i>
	Russian:	давать	<i>davát'</i>
	Ukrainian:	давати	<i>daváty</i>
	Polish:	dawać	
	Sorbian:	dać	
	Czech:	dát	
	Serbian:	дати	<i>dǎti</i>
	Bulgarian:	давам	<i>davam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*dati 'give'*

71. 'say'	Novegradian:	рѣсѣти	<i>rědzíti</i>
	Russian:	говорить	<i>govorít'</i>
	Ukrainian:	говорити	<i>hovorýty</i>
	Polish:	mówić	
	Sorbian:	rjec	
	Czech:	říkat	
	Serbian:	рећи	<i>rěči</i>
	Bulgarian:	казвам	<i>kazvam</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*rekti 'tell'*

72. 'sun'	Novegradian:	соунце	<i>sóunce</i>
	Russian:	солнце	<i>sólnce</i>
	Ukrainian:	сонце	<i>sónce</i>
	Polish:	słońce	
	Sorbian:	slónco	
	Czech:	slunce	
	Serbian:	сунце	<i>sûnce</i>
	Bulgarian:	слънце	<i>slǎnce</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*sólnьko 'sun'*

73.	<b>‘moon’</b>	Novegradian:	луна	<i>luná</i>
		Russian:	луна	<i>luná</i>
		Ukrainian:	місяць	<i>mísjac’</i>
		Polish:	księżyc	
		Sorbian:	měšačk	
		Czech:	luna	
		Serbian:	месец	<i>měsēc</i>
		Bulgarian:	луна	<i>luna</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*luna ‘moon’*

74.	<b>‘star’</b>	Novegradian:	гуѣзда	<i>guězda</i>
		Russian:	звезда	<i>zvezdá</i>
		Ukrainian:	зоря	<i>zorjá</i>
		Polish:	gwiazda	
		Sorbian:	hwězda	
		Czech:	hvězda	
		Serbian:	звезда	<i>zvėzda</i>
		Bulgarian:	звезда	<i>zvezda</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*gvězda ‘star’*

75.	<b>‘water’</b>	Novegradian:	вода	<i>vóda</i>
		Russian:	вода	<i>vodá</i>
		Ukrainian:	вода	<i>vodá</i>
		Polish:	woda	
		Sorbian:	woda	
		Czech:	voda	
		Serbian:	вода	<i>vòda</i>
		Bulgarian:	вода	<i>voda</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*voda ‘water’*

76.	<b>‘rain (n)’</b>	Novegradian:	дожгѣи	<i>dožgji</i>
		Russian:	дождь	<i>dožd’</i>
		Ukrainian:	дощ	<i>dóšč</i>
		Polish:	deszcz	
		Sorbian:	dešč	
		Czech:	děšť	
		Serbian:	киша	<i>kīša</i>
		Bulgarian:	дъжд	<i>dăžd</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*dōdjь ‘rain’*

77. 'stone'	Novegradian:	каме	<i>káme</i>
	Russian:	камень	<i>kámen'</i>
	Ukrainian:	камінь	<i>kámin'</i>
	Polish:	kamień	
	Sorbian:	kamjeń	
	Czech:	kámen	
	Serbian:	камен	<i>kāmēn</i>
	Bulgarian:	камък	<i>kamāk</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*kamy 'stone'*

78. 'sand'	Novegradian:	хета	<i>héta</i>
	Russian:	песок	<i>pesók</i>
	Ukrainian:	пісок	<i>pisók</i>
	Polish:	piasek	
	Sorbian:	pěsk	
	Czech:	písek	
	Serbian:	песак	<i>pésak</i>
	Bulgarian:	пясък	<i>pjasāk</i>

*Etymology: Old Finnish heeta 'sand'*

79. 'soil, earth'	Novegradian:	жемя	<i>žémia</i>
	Russian:	земля	<i>zemljá</i>
	Ukrainian:	земля	<i>zemljá</i>
	Polish:	ziemia	
	Sorbian:	zemja	
	Czech:	země	
	Serbian:	зємља	<i>zèmlja</i>
	Bulgarian:	земя	<i>zemja</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*zemja 'land, earth'*

80. 'cloud'	Novegradian:	облоко	<i>óbloko</i>
	Russian:	облако	<i>óblako</i>
	Ukrainian:	хмара	<i>xmára</i>
	Polish:	chmura	
	Sorbian:	mróčel	
	Czech:	oblak	
	Serbian:	облак	<i>öblāk</i>
	Bulgarian:	облак	<i>oblak</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*ob-volkō 'cloud'*

- |     |                      |  |           |                |
|-----|----------------------|--|-----------|----------------|
| 81. | <b>‘smoke’</b>       | Novegradian:                                     | диме      | <i>díme</i>    |
|     |                      | Russian:   | дым       | <i>dým</i>     |
|     |                      | Ukrainian:                                       | дим       | <i>dým</i>     |
|     |                      | Polish:  | dym       |                |
|     |                      | Sorbian:   | kur       |                |
|     |                      | Czech:   | dým       |                |
|     |                      | Serbian:   | дим       | <i>dim</i>     |
|     |                      | Bulgarian:                                       | дим       | <i>dim</i>     |
|     |                      | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *dymъ ‘smoke’</i>    |           |                |
|     |                      |  |           |                |
| 82. | <b>‘fire’</b>        | Novegradian:                                     | огни      | <i>ógni</i>    |
|     |                      | Russian:   | огонь     | <i>ogón’</i>   |
|     |                      | Ukrainian:                                       | вогонь    | <i>vohón’</i>  |
|     |                      | Polish:  | ogień     |                |
|     |                      | Sorbian:   | woheń     |                |
|     |                      | Czech:   | ohěň      |                |
|     |                      | Serbian:   | ватра     | <i>vătra</i>   |
|     |                      | Bulgarian:                                       | огън      | <i>ogăn</i>    |
|     |                      | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *ognъ ‘fire’</i>     |           |                |
|     |                      |  |           |                |
| 83. | <b>‘ash’</b>         | Novegradian:                                     | певле     | <i>pévle</i>   |
|     |                      | Russian:   | пепел     | <i>pépel</i>   |
|     |                      | Ukrainian:                                       | попіл     | <i>pópil</i>   |
|     |                      | Polish:  | popiół    |                |
|     |                      | Sorbian:   | popjeł    |                |
|     |                      | Czech:   | popel     |                |
|     |                      | Serbian:   | пепео     | <i>pěpeo</i>   |
|     |                      | Bulgarian:                                       | пепел     | <i>pepel</i>   |
|     |                      | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *perьbъ ‘ash’</i>    |           |                |
|     |                      |  |           |                |
| 84. | <b>‘burn (intr)’</b> | Novegradian:                                     | гейкѣиш   | <i>géikjís</i> |
|     |                      | Russian:   | гореть    | <i>gorét’</i>  |
|     |                      | Ukrainian:                                       | горіти    | <i>horítı</i>  |
|     |                      | Polish:  | palić się |                |
|     |                      | Sorbian:   | so palić  |                |
|     |                      | Czech:   | hořet     |                |
|     |                      | Serbian:   | горети    | <i>gòreti</i>  |
|     |                      | Bulgarian:                                       | горя      | <i>gorja</i>   |
|     |                      | <i>Etymology: Common Slavic *gegti sę ‘burn’</i> |           |                |

85. 'path'	Novegradian:	панти	<i>pánti</i>
	Russian:	путь	<i>pút'</i>
	Ukrainian:	доріжка	<i>dorižka</i>
	Polish:	droga	
	Sorbian:	puć	
	Czech:	silnice	
	Serbian:	пут	<i>pūt</i>
	Bulgarian:	път	<i>păt</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*pъtъ 'path'*

86. 'mountain'	Novegradian:	гора	<i>góra</i>
	Russian:	гора	<i>gorá</i>
	Ukrainian:	гора	<i>horá</i>
	Polish:	góra	
	Sorbian:	hora	
	Czech:	hora	
	Serbian:	планина	<i>planìna</i>
	Bulgarian:	планина	<i>planina</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*gora 'mountain'*

87. 'red'	Novegradian:	црвене	<i>cérvene</i>
	Russian:	красный	<i>krásnyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	червоний	<i>červónyj</i>
	Polish:	czerwony	
	Sorbian:	čerwjeny	
	Czech:	červený	
	Serbian:	црвен	<i>cr̂ven</i>
	Bulgarian:	червен	<i>červen</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*čъrvjenъ 'red'*

88. 'green'	Novegradian:	зелене	<i>želéne</i>
	Russian:	зелёный	<i>zeljónyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	зелений	<i>zelénij</i>
	Polish:	zielony	
	Sorbian:	zeleny	
	Czech:	zelený	
	Serbian:	зелен	<i>zèlen</i>
	Bulgarian:	зелен	<i>zelen</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*zelenъ 'green'*

89. 'yellow'	Novegradian:	жоѡте	<i>žólte</i>
	Russian:	жёлтый	<i>žóltyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	жовтий	<i>žóvtyj</i>
	Polish:	żółty	
	Sorbian:	žolty	
	Czech:	žlutý	
	Serbian:	жут	<i>žūt</i>
	Bulgarian:	жълт	<i>žālt</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*žьltъ 'yellow'*

90. 'white'	Novegradian:	бѣле	<i>běle</i>
	Russian:	белый	<i>bělyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	білий	<i>bilyj</i>
	Polish:	biały	
	Sorbian:	běly	
	Czech:	bílý	
	Serbian:	бео	<i>běo</i>
	Bulgarian:	бял	<i>bjal</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*bělъ 'white'*

91. 'black'	Novegradian:	цѣрне	<i>cérne</i>
	Russian:	чёрный	<i>čórnyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	чорний	<i>čórnyj</i>
	Polish:	czarny	
	Sorbian:	čornu	
	Czech:	černý	
	Serbian:	црн	<i>cŕn</i>
	Bulgarian:	черен	<i>čeren</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*čьrxnъ 'black'*

92. 'night'	Novegradian:	нокъи	<i>nókji</i>
	Russian:	ночь	<i>nóc'</i>
	Ukrainian:	ніч	<i>níč</i>
	Polish:	noc	
	Sorbian:	nóc	
	Czech:	noc	
	Serbian:	ноћ	<i>nôć</i>
	Bulgarian:	нощ	<i>nošt</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*nokъ 'night'*



93. 'hot'	Novegradian:	горекѣ	<i>gorékje</i>
	Russian:	горячий	<i>gorjáčij</i>
	Ukrainian:	гарячий	<i>harjáčyj</i>
	Polish:	gorący	
	Sorbian:	horcy	
	Czech:	horký	
	Serbian:	врућ	<i>vrûć</i>
	Bulgarian:	горещ	<i>gorešt</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*goręťь 'burning'*

94. 'cold'	Novegradian:	кладне	<i>kládne</i>
	Russian:	холодный	<i>xolódnyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	холодний	<i>xolódnyj</i>
	Polish:	zimny	
	Sorbian:	zymny	
	Czech:	chladný	
	Serbian:	хладан	<i>hládan</i>
	Bulgarian:	хладен	<i>xladen</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*xoldъnъ 'cold'*

95. 'full'	Novegradian:	плоне	<i>plóne</i>
	Russian:	полный	<i>pólnyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	повний	<i>póvnyj</i>
	Polish:	pełny	
	Sorbian:	połny	
	Czech:	plný	
	Serbian:	пун	<i>pün</i>
	Bulgarian:	пълнен	<i>pälen</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*plъnъ 'full'*

96. 'new'	Novegradian:	нове	<i>nóve</i>
	Russian:	новый	<i>nóvyj</i>
	Ukrainian:	новий	<i>novýj</i>
	Polish:	nowy	
	Sorbian:	nowy	
	Czech:	nový	
	Serbian:	нов	<i>növ</i>
	Bulgarian:	нов	<i>nov</i>

*Etymology: Common Slavic \*novъ 'new'*

97. **‘good’** Novegradian: добре *dóbre*  
 Russian: хороший *xoróšij*  
 Ukrainian: добрий *dóbryj*  
 Polish: dobry  
 Sorbian: dobry  
 Czech: dobrý  
 Serbian: добар *dōbar*  
 Bulgarian: добър *dobăr*  
*Etymology: Common Slavic \*dobrǝ ‘good’*
98. **‘round’** Novegradian: обле *óble*  
 Russian: круглый *krúglyj*  
 Ukrainian: круглий *krúhlyj*  
 Polish: okrągły  
 Sorbian: kulojty  
 Czech: kulatý  
 Serbian: обао *ōbao*  
 Bulgarian: кръгъл *krăgāl*  
*Etymology: Common Slavic \*obъlǝ ‘round’*
99. **‘dry’** Novegradian: сухе *súbe*  
 Russian: сухой *suxój*  
 Ukrainian: сухий *suxýj*  
 Polish: suchy  
 Sorbian: suchi  
 Czech: suchý  
 Serbian: сух *sûb*  
 Bulgarian: сух *sux*  
*Etymology: Common Slavic \*suxǝ ‘dry’*
100. **‘name’** Novegradian: ѡмѣно *jměno*  
 Russian: имя *ímja*  
 Ukrainian: ім’я *im’já*  
 Polish: imię  
 Sorbian: mjeno  
 Czech: jméno  
 Serbian: име *ìme*  
 Bulgarian: име *ime*  
*Etymology: Common Slavic \*jъmę ‘name’*







