lel–\ʃɹɪɹɔ–ᴅɪ ɹcl lel–ᴅɪ ɹcl ɹe^{ɔ}ʃle–\ɹc^{ə}ᴅɪlɔ

Middle Rymakonian, the language of *Rymako*

uruwi

ɑ^{h}ɔ^{e}.ɔn^{φ}–ᴅebc–delbe^{ɔ} ʃlelc^{ə}

A complete grammar

29 December 2017

Dedicated to Gufferdk.

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Branch: canon
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0.1 | Introduction

1 | Phonology and orthography

1.1 | Phoneme inventory

Middle Rymakonian underwent several sound changes from Lek-Tsaro, in the following order:

s → ʂ	(♦{w, j, u, y})	*NB this is a whistled sibiliant.*
ŋ → ɲn	(□♦)	
θx → θ	¬(♦□)[χ = ∅]	
C_1[+*fr*] → C_1[+*v*]	(V_1♦V_2[−*hi*])	
ɹ → z	(V_1♦V_2)	
{y̬, u̬} → ʉ̬		
V_1[+*r*] → V_1[−*r*]		
k → c	(♦i)	
t → tʃ	(♦i)	
r → ɾ		

Thus Middle Rymakonian has the following phoneme inventory:

Table 1.1: The consonants of Middle Rymakonian.

	Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m		n	ɲ	ŋ	
Plosive	p b		t d	c ɟ	k g	ʔ
Fricative	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	x ɣ	
(coärticulated)	fx vɣ	θx ðɣ		fʃ vʒ		
(whistled)			ʂ ʐ			
Affricate			ts	tʃ		
Lateral fricative			ɬ ɮ			
Approximant			ɹ	j	w	
Lateral approximant			l			
Tap			ɾ			

Table 1.2: The vowels of Middle Rymakonian.

	Front	Central	Back
High	i	ɨ̞	ɯ
Mid	ɛ		ʌ
Low		a	

In addition to consonants and vowels, Middle Rymakonian has rod signals, represented by numbers. Rod A is blue and held by one's dominant hand and B is red and held by one's non-dominant hand. Rod signals can occur only at the end of words.

1. Rod A is raised to one's chest, while B is pointed down.
2. Rods A and B are crossed in the front.
3. Rod B is raised upwards in front of the nondominant arm, while rod A is lowered.
4. Rod A is pointed sideways near one's nondominant arm, while rod B is lowered.
5. Rods A and B are extended to the sides.
6. Rods A and B are extended, facing forward.
7. Rod A is raised forward, while B is pointed to the side.
8. Rod B is raised forward, while A is pointed to the side.

Lowering both rods is interpreted as an absence of a rod signal.
If the use of rods are unavailable, the numerals of the positions may be pronounced.

1.2 | Hacmisation

As using IPA is quite wieldly, we shall use the following hacmisation, with superscript letters to indicate phonemes not found in Arka.

Table 1.3: The consonants of Middle Rymakonian.

	Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	ɒ		n	nʸ	nᵠ	
Plosive	d b		ʃ ɑ	ʃʸ ɑʸ	ʔ φ	.
Fricative	ɑ u	jᵅ zᵘ	ɹ z	l s	ʔˡ φˢ	
(coärticulated)	ɑʰ uʰ	jʰ zʰ		ɑˡ uˢ		
(whistled)			jᵒ zᵒ			
Affricate			ɸ	ʃˡ		
Lateral fricative			lˡ sˡ			
Approximant			ɥ	ʏ	o	
Lateral approximant			l			
Tap			ɾ			

Rod signs are represented by the hacm digits ⟨1 ɹ ʔ ɱ ɬ ʕ ɋ ð⟩ attached to the end of the verbs they encompass. Proper words are preceded by a backslash ⟨\⟩.

Note that the hacmisation is slightly different from Lek-Tsaro's use of hacm. Lek-Tsaro's ⟨h s⟩ are now written using ⟨ʔˡ lˡ⟩, for instance.

Table 1.4: The vowels of Middle Rymakonian.

	Front	Central	Back
High	ᴄ	ɜ	ə
Mid	e		ɔ
Low		ɪ	

1.3 | Phonotactics

As opposed to Lek-Tsaro, which uses syllables, Middle Rymakonian uses *phonoruns*. The following *defined categories* are used:

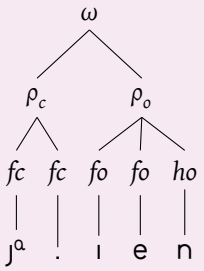
Table 1.5: Categories of phonemes.

Category	Phonemes
Full-open	ɪ e ᴄ ɔ ə ɻ u zᵘ z zᵒ s φˢ sˡ ɥ o ɬ ʕ
Half-open	ɜ ɻ l ɒ n nʰ nᵠ ʲˡ ɋ
Neutral	ʲ ʲᵒ l lˡ uʰ zʰ uˢ ɾ ɹ
Half-closed	ɑ l ɭˡ ɗ ɅΔ
Full-closed	ʲᵅ ɑʰ ʲʰ ɑˡ d b ɾ ɷ ʃʰ ɷʰ ɻ φ ɸ ʃˤ . ʔ ɱ

These are converted into *actual categories* as follows:

- Full-open and full-closed phonemes are always realised as open and closed, respectively.
- Half-open phonemes are open unless the previous phoneme is full-closed.
- Half-closed phonemes are closed unless the previous phoneme is full-open.
- Neutral phonemes that do not occur word-initially inherit the actual category of the phoneme before it.
- Neutral phonemes that occur word-initially are closed.

A *phonorun*, then, is a maximal sequence of phonemes that are either all open or all closed within a word. For instance, take ⟨ʲᵅ.ɪen < xʲʰɪ.en⟩:



Note that two phonemes in the word were metathesised when it was derived from Lek-Tsaro. In general, a word with n spoken phonemes cannot have more than $\lceil n/2 \rceil$

phonoruns. Therefore, the following changes are executed in order until an application of one rule reduces the number of phonoruns to an acceptable number, after which the other rules are not executed:

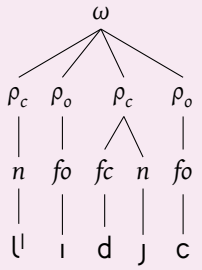
$$
\begin{aligned}
X_1[do]X_2[dc]R[do] &\to X_2X_1R \\
X_1[dc]X_2[do]R[dc] &\to X_2X_1R \\
X_1[dc]X_2[do]?X_3[do] &\to X_1?X_2X_3 \\
X_1[do]?X_2[do]X_3[dc] &\to X_1X_2?X_3 \\
X_1[op \geq 0]X_2[dc]X_3[do]X_4[op \leq 0] &\to X_1X_3X_2X_4 \quad [X_1.op + X_3.op - X_2.op - X_4.op \geq 6] \\
X_1[op \leq 0]X_2[do]X_3[dc]X_4[op \geq 0] &\to X_1X_3X_2X_4 \quad [X_2.op + X_4.op - X_1.op - X_3.op \geq 6] \\
X_1[do]X_2[dc]X_3[do] &\to X_1X_3X_2 \quad \text{for ever} \\
X_1[dc]X_2[do]X_3[dc] &\to X_2X_1X_3 \quad \text{for ever}
\end{aligned}
$$

where R means a rod signal, X represents a spoken phoneme and *op* stands for *openness* (full-open = 2, neutral = 0, full-closed = -2). *do* is short for $op > 0$, and *dc* is short for $op < 0$.

All of the rules above move from right to left and do not occur across compound boundaries. The last two rules are executed alternately in a loop until the number of phonoruns is reduced to an acceptable number or both rules converge to a fixed point. This process will hereafter be called *phonorun reduction.*

In the example above, ⟨xjᵅɪ.en⟩ had $4 > \lceil 5/2 \rceil$ phonoruns, so the third rule was applied. This changed the word into ⟨jᵅ.ɪen⟩, which has $2 \leq \lceil 5/2 \rceil$ phonoruns.

An example where phonorun reduction does not result in a word with few enough phonoruns is ⟨lˡɪdjc⟩ *soup*, which has the starting phonoruns



Obviously, the first four rules do not match anywhere in the word. The sixth rule seems promising because it matches the pattern at ⟨lˡɪdj–⟩, but the required sum is $0 + 2 + 2 + 0 < 6$, so this rule does not match. In addition, the last two rules do not match, and we encounter a fixed point. In such cases, the anomaly is allowed to pass.

The dictionary lists forms of roots *before* the phonorun reduction happens, because affixes can radically affect which phonemes are switched.

1.3.1 | Prosody

The time taken to utter a phonorun is given by the model:

$$t_o = K \cdot (1 + v \cdot \alpha + c \cdot \beta) \qquad \text{(phonorun is open)} \qquad (1.1)$$

$$t_c = K \cdot \eta \cdot (\gamma + v \cdot \alpha + c \cdot \beta) \qquad \text{(phonorun is closed)} \qquad (1.2)$$

where K is a constant varying from person to person, v is the number of vowels and c is the number of consonants in the run. α, β, γ and η are also constants such that $\beta < \alpha$, and both γ and η are less than 1. In other words:

- There is a fixed cost for starting a new phonorun. This cost is less for closed phonoruns than open.
- Closed phonoruns are faster to say than open runs with the same number of consonants and vowels.
- Closed phonoruns are also more length-dependent than open runs.
- It takes less time to utter consonants than vowels.

An estimate of the constants for the standard dialect would be $\alpha = 0.37, \beta = 0.46$, $\gamma = 0.82$ and $\eta = 0.61$.

1.4 | Vowel harmony

Middle Rymakonian inherits vowel harmony from Lek-Tsaro. Thus ⟨c e⟩ are front vowels, ⟨ə ɔ⟩ are back vowels and ⟨ɪ ɜ⟩ are neutral. Most roots with neither front nor back vowels act as if they had front vowels, though some might behave as if they had back vowels. Many affixes will change depending on which vowels are present.

If by some odd chance a word has both front and back vowels, then the rightmost vowel (before phonorun reduction) takes precedence.

2 | Syntax

2.1 | Basic word order

The basic word order is VSO. Descriptors follow what they modify.

However, unlike Lek-Tsaro, Middle Rymakonian has oblique arguments. As these were historically formed from a preclause, all obliques precede V. Likewise, any arguments with conjunctions also precede V. Such arguments that were formed from a clause will be called *historically clausal arguments* (HCAs).

Usually, oblique arguments are prepared by prepositions and fall before what they modify, but if an oblique argument is a conjunctional phrase or governs an HCA, it uses a postposition instead and precedes its antecedent.

2.2 | Questions

Binary questions have the interrogative polarity marker and no change to syntax.

In wh-questions, the wh-word is pulled to the front (i. e. before the verb). This requires case marking for the wh-word:

[TODO: example]

This applies only to questions, not interrogative-mood clauses that act as relative clauses:

[TODO: example]

2.3 | Multiple clauses

A sentence might have multiple clauses. Each clause in a sentence follows the basic VSO order, and clauses are separated with commas.

3 | Nouns

Nouns are declined for number, case and definiteness.

3.1 | Number

Countable nouns come in two numbers: *dual* and *non-dual*.

There are two different conceptualisations of the dual number. Some dialects use the dual number to refer to all cases with two objects (we say that they have the *unpaired dual*); others use it only to refer to objects in pairs (these lack the unpaired dual). In general, dialects without the unpaired dual are more prevalent in cities, as well as northern regions.

Each countable noun has *an inherent number*. A noun whose number agrees with its inherent number receives no marking; a mismatch causes the noun to receive a special affix.

3.2 | Case

In a clause with both the subject and object directly expressed in that order, both the subject and object are declined in the nominative case (and their roles are inferred through word order). In a clause where only one is present, or where both are expressed in the opposite order, the subject will receive the nominative case and the object will receive the accusative case.

3.3 | Noun classes

There are three overarching groups of noun classes.

1. Countable
    (a) Sentient – such as humans, AIs, deities.
    (b) Non-sentient – anything else.
2. Measurable
    (a) Measure – all measurable nouns, especially units of measurement.
3. Uncountable
    (a) Edible – edible (to humans).

(b) Inedible – inedible (to humans).

(c) Abstract – abstract ideas.

3.4 | Definiteness

The definite form of a noun is formed regularly by reduplicating the first syllable (without the coda): ⟨ᴅɪᴢɪ⟩ “a person” becomes ⟨ᴅɪᴅɪᴢɪ⟩ “the person”.

3.5 | Declension table

Here, the inflected forms of words are shown both before and after phonorun reduction to illustrate the pattern. The declension patterns for each class is shown, both for roots ending with consonants and those ending with vowels.

Note that noun declensions for countable respect vowel harmony. For nouns with back vowels, replace the front vowels with the back vowels of the same height and rounding, and vice versa. (Noun declensions for measurable and uncountable classes do not respect vowel harmony.)

3.5.1 | Countable classes

Table 3.1: Declensions for countable nouns.

	Direct #	Inverse #
Sentient: ⟨xᴅɪᴢɪ⟩ “person”		
Nominative	ᴅɪᴢɪ (ᴅɪᴢɪ)	ᴅɪᴢɪˈ (ᴅɪᴢɪˈ)
Accusative	ᴅɪᴢɪɴ (ᴅɪᴢɪɴ)	ᴅɪᴢɪɴɪˈ (ᴅɪᴢɪɴɪˈ)
Sentient: ⟨xjᵠɪ.eɴ⟩ “magician”		
Nominative	jᵠɪ.eɴ (jᵠ.ɪeɴ)	jᵠɪ.eˈ (jᵠ.ɪeˈ)
Accusative	jᵠɪ.ezcɴ (jᵠɪ.ezcɴ)	jᵠɪ.eɥcˈ (jᵠɪ.eɥcˈ)
(Note that the final consonant is preserved only in the direct nominative form.)		
Non-sentient: ⟨xᴅɜɴᵠɔ⟩ “rabbit”		
Nominative	ᴅɜɴᵠɔ (ᴅɜɴᵠɔ)	ᴅɜɴᵠɔ.ə (ᴅɜɴᵠɔ.ə)
Accusative	ᴅɜɴᵠɔᴅ (ᴅɜɴᵠɔᴅ)	ᴅɜɴᵠɔuə (ᴅɜɴᵠɔuə)
Non-sentient: ⟨x.cᴅeɴ⟩ “house”		
Nominative	.cᴅeɴ (.cᴅeɴ)	.cᴅe.c (.cᴅec.)
Accusative	.cᴅezcᴅ (.cᴅezcᴅ)	.cᴅeɥcuc (.cᴅeɥcuc)

3.5.2 | Measurable and uncountable classes

Table 3.2: Declensions for measurable and uncountable nouns.

	Direct
Measure: ⟨xɥɜᴅɜ⟩ “day (continuous)”	
Nominative	ɥɜᴅɜ (ɥɜᴅɜ)
Accusative	ɥɜᴅɜɴ (ɥɜᴅɜɴ)
Measure: ⟨xᴅeˈ⟩ “volume” (in expressions such as ⟨xᴅeˈ–ɥɜjɔ⟩ “cupful”)	
Nominative	ᴅeˈ (ᴅeˈ)

	Direct
Accusative	ɒezcn (ɒezcn)
Edible: ⟨xʃeɻ.c⟩ “beef”	
Nominative	ʃeɻ.c (ʃeɻc.)
Accusative	ʃeɻ.cn (ʃeɻcn.)
Edible: ⟨xɒɪn⟩ “rice”	
Nominative	ɒɪn (ɒɪn)
Accusative	ɒɪncn (ɒɪncn)
Inedible: ⟨xɻəʃɔ⟩ “gold”	
Nominative	ɻəʃɔ (ɻəɔʃ)
Accusative	ɻəʃɔbe (ɻəʃbɔe)
Inedible: ⟨xɭɪɾɪɻ⟩ “stone”	
Nominative	ɭɪɾɪɻ (ɭɪɾɪɻ)
Accusative	ɭɪɾɪɻde (ɭɪɾɪɻde)
Abstract: ⟨xɑʰəɒɔ⟩ “empathy”	
Nominative	ɑʰəɒɔ (ɑʰəɒɔ)
Accusative	ɑʰəɒɔnᵠ (ɑʰəɒɔnᵠ)
Abstract: ⟨xɸcɻ⟩ “[the number] five”	
Nominative	ɸcɻ (ɸcɻ)
Accusative	ɸczcnᵠ (ɸczcnᵠ)
Here, the final consonant is voiced if it is a fricative.	

(NB: be sure to change any ⟨ɭ⟩ and ⟨ʃ⟩ into ⟨ʃʯ⟩ and ⟨ʃˈ⟩ respectively before ⟨c⟩.)

3.6 | Pronouns

Personal pronouns are not divided into first, second and third persons as in most languages. Instead, they fall into four categories which exhibit different behaviour depending on whether they occur as the first non-oblique noun in the clause or elsewhere (second noun, verb inflection, oblique):

Table 3.3: Pronoun persons and their functions.

Person	Role in first position	Role elsewhere
Near	The speaker.	The first argument of the sentence.
Far	The listener.	The person with which the first argument is conversing.
Other	A third entity.	An entity that is neither the speaker, the listener nor the first argument.
Generic	A generic entity (akin to “one”).	
Anaphoric Subject	The subject of the previous clause. Also used on the verb when an oblique or conjunction is present.	
Anaphoric Object	The object of the previous clause.	

In wh-questions, the wh-word assumes the second position and the other argument becomes the first.

If a clause has no explicit arguments, the first argument is understood to be the subject.

Table 3.4: Personal pronouns (before phonorun reduction).

	Nominative		Accusative	
	Non-dual	Dual	Non-dual	Dual
Near	ʃɪ	ɑczc	ʃɪn	ɑczen
Far	dɔ	bɲɪ	dɔn	bɲɪn
Other	nc	ɭɪzc	ncn	ɭɪzen
Anaph. Sub.	ɲɪ	nᶣcɲc	ɲɪn	nᶣcɲen
Anaph. Obj.	ɲɔ	nᶣəɲɔ	ɲɔn	nᶣəɲɔn
Generic	.ə		.ən	

3.6.1 | Last-clause pronouns

The anaphoric pronoun ⟨ebj⟩ (accusative: ⟨bezen⟩) is grammatically an other pronoun, and it refers to the previous clause said. Likewise, ⟨bdecj⟩ (accusative: ⟨bdecn⟩) refers to the clause before the previous one. All of these pronouns should undergo phonorun reduction inside a compound.

3.7 | Compounding

Nouns can be compounded together in a head-initial manner. When that happens, only the leftmost noun is the one to be declined.

ɒel–ɲɜjɔ–ɑˡɜɲə–ɸcj
volume-cup-water-five
five cupfuls of water

Note that pronouns can modify other nouns, in which personal possession is indicated:

ɒel–ɲɜjɔ–ɑˡɜɲə–ɸcj–ʃɪ
volume-cup-water-five-PR.NEAR.NONDUAL
(arg1)'s five cupfuls of water

Descriptors can also compound on nouns. Unlike in Lek-Tsaro, this is the only way to have descriptors modify nouns.

ɒɪzɪ–ɭʃəɪ
ɒɪzɪ–ɭəʃɪ
person-old
old people

3.8 | Possession

"X's Y" is translated as ⟨Y=ɒɪ X⟩ (plus phonorun reduction). The possessive construction is also used to create appositives. (Note the head-marking!)

Observe that possession marks the head, and ⟨–ᴅɪ⟩ is a clitic, not an affix, as in the following example:

ᴅ͡ʒᴅ͡ʒnˠɔ–ɑˈ͡ʒɻə–ᴅɪ ʝʰ.ɪen
ᴅ͡ʒᴅ͡ʒnˠɔ–ɑˈ͡ʒɻə–ᴅɪ ʝʰɪ.en
DEF~rabbit-water=GEN magician
the magician's water rabbit

4 | Verbs

Verbs are conjugated for person of the subject, tense, polarity and tellicity, in two paradigms. Conjugation respects vowel harmony. In addition, a final ⟨–ɟ⟩ or ⟨–ʒ⟩ in the stem of a first- or second-conjugation verb becomes whistled in the generic form.

The dictionary lists the stem of the verb and the conjugation scheme used.

Table 4.1: Person-tense conjugations for first-conjugation verbs, using ⟨ɒìl–⟩ "(S) eats (O)", before and after phonorun reduction.

	Nonpast	Past
Near	ɒìlɪn (ɒìlɪn)	ɒìlɪſ (ɒɪìlſ)
Far	ɒìlɪn (ɒìlɪn)	ɒìlʒɟ (ɒìlʒɟ)
Other	ɒìlɪ (lɒɪɪ)	ɒìlʒ (ɒìlʒ)
Anaph. Sub.	ɒìle (lɒɪe)	ɒìlel (lɒɪel)
Anaph. Obj.	ɒìlc.e (ɒìl.ce)	ɒìlc.el (ɒìl.cel)
Generic	ɒìlc (lɒɪc)	ɒìlc (lɒɪc)

Table 4.2: Person-tense conjugations for second-conjugation verbs, using ⟨nən–⟩ "(S) kills (O), (O) dies", before and after phonorun reduction.

	Nonpast	Past
Near	nənɪn (nənɪn)	nənɪſ (nənɪſ)
Far	nənɪn (nənɪn)	nənʒɟ (nənʒɟ)
Other	nənɪ (nənɪ)	nənʒ (nənʒ)
Anaph. Sub.	nənɔ (nənɔ)	nənel (nənɔl)
Anaph. Obj.	nənə.ɔ (nənə.ɔ)	nənə.ɔl (nənə.ɔl)
Generic	nənə (nənə)	nənə (nənə)

Notes:

- The polarity-tellicity suffix is added after the person-tense ending.
- "Negative atelic" means something akin to "unsuccessfully tried to avoid doing X".
- The interrogative polarity, in addition to marking questions, is used to mark clauses that may or may not be true but are referred to later in the sentence.

Table 4.3: Person-tense conjugations for third-conjugation verbs, using ⟨ɥeu–⟩ "(S) spreads (O)", before and after phonorun reduction.

	Nonpast	Past
Near	ɥeucn (ɥeucn)	ɥeucʃ (ɥeucʃ)
Far	ɥeuɪn (ɥeuɪn)	ɥeuʒj (ɥeuʒj)
Other	ɥeuɪ (ɥeuɪ)	ɥeuɜ (ɥeuɜ)
Anaph. Sub.	ɥeue (ɥeue)	ɥeel (ɥeuel)
Anaph. Obj.	ɥeuc.e (ɥeuc.e)	ɥeuc.el (ɥeuc.el)
Generic	ɥeuɜ	ɥeuɜ

Table 4.4: Polarity-tellicity suffixes for verbs (before phonorun reduction). The interrogative affix can also follow a negative affix.

	Positive	Negative	Interrogative
Telic	–˙	–ɭe / –ɭɔ	–ɭˈɪ
Atelic	–ɒc / –ɒə	–ɻɪ	–ɭɜ

Some examples:

ɒɪlɪn lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ.
eat-NEAR.NONPAST fish flower
Fish eat flowers.

ɒɪlɪn lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ, ɒɪlɪn ɳɥɪzɪ ɻɪ.
eat-NEAR.NONPAST fish flower, eat-NEAR.NONPAST cat PR.ANAPH_SUB
Fish eat flowers, and cats eat fish.

ɒɪlɪn lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ, ɭɒɪe ɻɪſɒɪe.
ɒɪlɪn lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ, ɒɪle ɻɪſɪbe.
eat-NEAR.NONPAST fish flower, eat-ANAPH_SUB.NONPAST grass-ACC
Fish eat flowers, and they eat grass.
(Grass is inedible to humans, but edible to fish.)

ɒɪlɪneɭ ɾˈɔɥɔ lˈɪɾde.
ɒɪlɪnɭe ɾˈɔɥɔ lˈɪɾde.
eat-NEAR.NONPAST-NEG flower fish
Flowers don't eat fish.

dɥcn nc ɭˈɥcɭˈɥcɑen, ɟenɪn ɾɪ ebɟ.
dɥcn nc ɭˈɥcɭˈɥcɑen, ɟenɪn ɾɪ ebɟ.
carry-NEAR.NONPAST PR.OTHER DEF~book, worry-NEAR.NONPAST PR.NEAR PR.LAST_CLAUSE
He has the book; that worries me.
or: That he has the book worries me.

dɥcnɪlˈ nc ɭˈɥcɭˈɥcɑen, ɟenɪn ɾɪ ebɟ.
dɥcnɭˈɪ nc ɭˈɥcɭˈɥcɑen, ɟenɪn ɾɪ ebɟ.

carry-NEAR.NONPAST-INTERROGATIVE PR.OTHER DEF~book, worry-NEAR.NONPAST PR.NEAR.INT PR.LAST_CLAUSE
He might have the book; that worries me.
or: That he might have the book worries me.

4.1 | Aspect

Verbs can also be marked for aspect, either using a rod sign directly on the verb, or a particle with a rod sign, placed anywhere between the verb it modifies and the next verb.

Table 4.5: Aspect markers. Those with hyphens are attached to verb. Those without hyphens are placed as separate particles anywhere after the verb.

Aspect name	Marking	Meaning
Imperfect	–ˀ	An action that is currently going on. Also used to distinguish static actions as opposed to dynamic (e. g. *wear* as opposed to *put on*).
Interrupted	ʃˈcˀ	An action that was interrupted.
Perfect	–ɹ	An action that has already finished. Changes present tense to immediate past. Also used to distinguish dynamic actions as opposed to static (e. g. *put on* as opposed to *wear*).
Gnomic	–ʔ	A general truth or aphorism, or an action done habitually.
Gnomic dubitative	ʃˈcʔ	A general truth or aphorism that the speaker considers to be false.
Deontic necessity	–ɱ	An action that the speaker insists on happening.
Epistemic necessity	Ɂəɒɱ	An action that the speaker infers is happening.
Deontic potential	–ɬ	An action that the speaker permits to occur.
Epistemic potential	Ɂəɒɬ	An action that the speaker infers that might happen.
Unexpected	–ʕ	An action that is unexpected (akin to using “but”).
Comparative	deʕ	Indicates an action of greater intensity than what was described in the previous clause.
Nonexclusive subject	ʃʯcˀ	Indicates that the subject comprises not only of what is explicitly mentioned, but also other things.
Nonexclusive object	cʃʯʔ	Indicates that the object comprises not only of what is explicitly mentioned, but also other things.
Nonexclusive argument	cʃʯɱ	Combination of both nonexclusive subject and nonexclusive object.

An attached rod signal reverts ⟨jᵃ zᵘ⟩ to ⟨jʰ zʰ⟩, respectively, and might affect phonorun reduction.

An example:

ʃˈɪlɪɲʃɒc1 ʃɪ nc, lcnc.elʕ dɜnᵠɪuə–ɥɪ.
ʃˈɪlɪɾʃɒc1 ʃɪ nc, lcnc.elʕ dɜnᵠɪuə–ɥɪ.
fight-NEAR.PAST-ATELIC-IMPERFECT PR.NEAR PR.OTHER, shoot-ANAPH_OBJ.PAST-UNEXPECTED knee-INV.ACC-PR.ANAPH_SUB
I tried to fight them, but they shot my knee.

4.2 | Historically clausal arguments

Historically clausal arguments (HCAs) are arguments of a sentence that are derived from clausal constructions. They include obliques and conjunctions. HCAs precede V.

An HCA that modifies a verb causes it to be conjugated in the anaphoric subject person.

4.2.1 | Obliques

An oblique expresses a relation between the verb of a sentence or some argument thereof.

An oblique phrase that modifies a verb falls before it. An oblique phrase that modifies either S or O pulls it before the verb as well.

If the argument of the oblique phrase is not an HCA, then it uses a preposition and follows its antecedent (unless it is the main verb). If the argument is an HCA, then the phrase uses a postposition and precedes its antecedent.

Consider the preposition ⟨ln⟩ *in, on, at (location)* (from Lek-Tsaro ⟨lɪn⟩ *(S) is at (O)*). The sentence *Ryze is hiding from me in the tree* would be translated as:

ln ʃɔuɔl nɐɥɑɐ1 ʃɪn \ɥɜze
in tree hide-ANAPH_SUB.NONPAST-IMPERFECT PR.NEAR.ACC Ryze

Now say that we want to translate *Ryze is hiding from me in the tree with fruit. With* would be translated as ⟨dɥ⟩ (from Lek-Tsaro ⟨dɥcn⟩ *hold, carry*, which also begets ⟨ɥn⟩), but now we have nested obliques, which means we need to use ⟨ln⟩ as a postposition:

ʃɔuɔl ɥn ᵖɔzə lnʃ nɐɥɑɐ1 ʃɪn \ɥɜze
tree with fruit in-POST hide-ANAPH_SUB.NONPAST-IMPERFECT PR.NEAR.ACC Ryze

Deriving a postposition from a preposition is done *after* phonorun reduction. Prepositions that end with a closed phonorun receive ⟨–ʃ⟩, and those that end with an open phonorun receive ⟨–z⟩.

4.2.2 | Conjunctions

Conjunctions are derived from verbs as well; for instance, ⟨ɑn⟩ *and* is derived from Lek-Tsaro ⟨ɑcn⟩ *join*. However, in Middle Rymakonian, conjunctions are infixed:

\ɥɜze ɑn \ʃɪzɜl lɔɪe ʃɐɥc..

\ɥɜze ɑn \ʃɪzɜl ɒɪle ʃeɥ.c.
Ryze and Tazyl eat-ANAPH_SUB.NONPAST beef

(Note that as long as S still precedes O, no case marking is needed.)

Unlike Lek-Tsaro's approach, this approach works well with more complex sentences:

\ɥɜze ɑn \ʃɪzɜl ʃeɥc. ɑn \ˡɪdjc ɭɒɪe.
\ɥɜze ɑn \ʃɪzɜl ʃeɥ.c ɑn \ˡɪdjc ɒɪle.
Ryze and Tazyl beef and soup eat-ANAPH_SUB.NONPAST

An entire conjunctional phrase can be modified by treating the conjunction as a nominal antecedent:

nɥɪzɪ ɑn–ɭʃəɪ ɒɜnᵠɔ
nɥɪzɪ ɑn–ɭəʃɪ ɒɜnᵠɔ
cat and-old rabbit
old cats and rabbits

4.3 | Connectors

(This section will refer to section 2.11 of \ɥbl ɒ ɷlɷ /ʃɷ'\nnᵠln extensively.)

Middle Rymakonian uses connectors to express relationships between clauses. In Middle Rymakonian, connectors do not occupy an indexed position in the clause; however, they tend to be placed near items that should receive less emphasis than others. Two connectors cannot occur consecutively unless the number of connectors is more than one plus the number of other words.

A connector is composed of three parts:

- The *type* (see table 4.6) specifies the semantic role of the connector.
- The *sequence identifier* (hereafter *seqid*) disambiguates the use of multiple connectors of the same type within a sentence. This is an arbitrary continuation of the last phonorun of the type.
- The *parity* allows the reuse of seqids within a type. This is ⟨–ʃ⟩ or ⟨–l⟩ if the type ends with a closed phonorun, and ⟨–ɪ⟩ or ⟨–z⟩ if it ends with an open phonorun.

Unlike most parts of speech, a complete connector, composed of the three parts above, does not undergo phonorun reduction.

Connectors x and y are part of the same *set* S iff all of the following conditions hold:

- x and y are identical (i. e. all three parts are the same between x and y)
- they belong to clauses α and β, respectively (NB: it is possible that $\alpha = \beta$)
- there are no clauses between α and β that has a connector with the same type and seqid but a different parity from x or y

Table 4.6: Connector types.

Name	Arity	Middle Rymakonian	Explanation
Ordinary	*n*	ɪj–	Covers both the sequential and parallel connectors of Jbl.
Analogous	2	ɪd–	"For the same reason α is true, β is also true." Also used as an "and" without stating any order.
Subversive	2	ɪɷ–	"α but β."
Augmentative	*n*	ɔɸˢ–	Later statements apply to a greater extent than earlier statements.
Explanatory	*n*	cɒ–	"θ_1 causes θ_2 causes θ_3 etc."
Conditional	2	cj–	"If α, then β."

Note that "belonging to the same connector set" is an equivalence relation.

Clauses of a connector set are joined by the relation of the connector used therein:

ɒɪɪlɾ lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ ɪjeɪ.
ɒɪlɪɾ lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ ɪjeɪ.
eat-NEAR.PAST fish flower ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-0
The fish ate the flower.

ɪjeɪ ncɒcɾ ɾɾezc ɾɔuɔl.
ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-0 dance-NEAR.PAST child tree
Then the child danced around the tree.

ɪjeɪ lɒɪel lˈɪlˈɪɾɒɒ.
ɪjeɪ ɒɪlel lˈɪlˈɪɾɒɒ.
eat-ANAPH_SUB.PAST ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-0 DEF~fish-ACC
Then the child ate the fish.

ɒelcll ɸɻəɳᵠ ɪjez dɔ.
ɒellcll ɸɻəɳᵠ ɪjez dɔ.
imitate-NEAR.PAST-IMP frog ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-1 PR.FAR
At another time, a frog was imitating me. (...)

4.4 | Comparatives

The comparative is a function $\mathrm{cmp} : A \times A \times (A \to \mathbb{R}) \times (A \times A \to \{0,1\}) \to \{0,1\}$, where $\mathrm{cmp}(a, b, f, \sqsupset) = f(a) \sqsupset f(b)$.

Consider the following sentences:

Fish eat flowers more than cats.
More fish eat flowers than cats.

Semantically, they can be translated to:

$$\mathrm{cmp}(\text{fish}, \text{cats}, a \mapsto (\#\text{ of flowers eaten by } a), >) \tag{4.1}$$
$$\mathrm{cmp}(\text{fish}, \text{cats}, a \mapsto (\#\text{ of } a \text{ that eat flowers}), >) \tag{4.2}$$

The heart of comparatives in Middle Rymakonian is the quadrivalent verb ⟨ɑɔzɪn *a b f* ⊐⟩. Thus:

ɒɪlcˈˡɪ ˡˈɔzɔɒ–jᵃcn, ɑɔzɪn ˡˈɪɾde nɥɪzɪ ɥɔ neſ.
eat-GENERIC-Q flower-ACC-how_many, CMP-NEAR fish cat PR.ANAPH_OBJ >
Fish eat more flowers than cats.

ɒɪlcˈˡɪ .ə–jᵃcn ˡˈɔzɔ, ɑɔzɪn ˡˈɪɾde nɥɪzɪ ɥɪ neſ.
eat-GENERIC-Q PR.GENERIC-how_many flower, CMP-NEAR fish cat PR.ANAPH_SUB >
More fish eat flowers than cats.

Note that we place a clause whose argument is the generic pronoun before the comparative clause. From the dozan-clause, we refer to the function using the anaphoric pronoun referring to the position of the return value.

Table 4.7: Comparators in Middle Rymakonian.

⊐	Comparator
$>$	neſ
$<$	ɑɔl
$=$	ſenᵠ
$\geq$	ſɣıl
$\leq$	ɒcJ
$\neq$	.ɜJ
$\approx$	ɥeJ
$\gg$	ɑʰe
$\ll$	ɑɪn

4.5 | Ditransitive-like constructions

In English, some verbs such as *give* take two objects: the item being given and the recipient of the item. Because of Middle Rymakonian's heritage, this is translated into a compound statement:

ɾɪɪɸſ ɾɪ lˈɥclˈɥcɑen, nebel \ɥɜzen.
ɾɪɸɪſ ɾɪ lˈɥclˈɥcɑen, nebel \ɥɜzen.
lose-NEAR.PAST PR.NEAR DEF~book, give_to-ANAPH_SUB.PAST Ryze-ACC
I gave the book to Ryze.

4.6 | Transitivisation

Verbs that are used intransitively (i. e. have no object passed at this time) can be turned into a causative form with the prefix ⟨ɸc–⟩:

ʃcɾlcʃ ɑɥeɑɥenʸe.
fall-NEAR.PAST DEF~coin
The coins fell.

ʃi cɸʃcɾlɜ ɑɥeɑɥenʸe.
ʃi ɸcʃcɾlɜ ɑɥeɑɥenʸe.
PR.NEAR TRANS-fall-OTHER.PAST DEF~coin
I dropped the coins.

Due to historical sound changes:

- An initial fricative or lateral fricative followed by a vowel is voiced.
- An initial ⟨ɥ⟩ followed by a vowel turns into ⟨z⟩.
- A word that started with ⟨nᵠ⟩ in Lek-Tsaro but ⟨nʸ⟩ in Middle Rymakonian has the initial consonant revert to ⟨nᵠ⟩.

Note that the word order changes to SVO. (In this case, HCAs fall before S.) In addition, the verb is conjugated for its object, rather than the subject as expected. If the following clause uses an anaphoric subject, it refers to the object of the current clause.

Moreover, the verb does not need to be one that can never take an object. In the above example, ⟨ʃcɾlcn⟩ means "(S) falls on (O)". However, if the verb in question is taking an object, it cannot be transitivised directly and a more roundabout way is required:

ʃcɾlcʃ ɑɥeɑɥenʸe ɥiʃi.
fall-NEAR.PAST DEF~coin grass
The coins fell on the grass.

ʃi cɸʃcɾlɜ ɑɥeɑɥenʸe, ʃcɾlel ɥiiʃbe.
ʃi ɸcʃcɾlɜ ɑɥeɑɥenʸe, ʃcɾlel ɥiʃibe.
PR.NEAR TRANS-fall-OTHER.PAST DEF~coin, fall-ANAPH_SUB.PAST grass-ACC
I dropped the coins; they fell on grass.
or: I dropped the coins on grass.

4.7 | The copula

The copula ⟨ɟ–⟩ (v3) can take a noun as an object, in which case it can mean identity or membership. (Location is expressed with ⟨l–⟩ (v1) "be at".) With no object at all, it is used to denote existence.

It can also accept a descriptor, in which case the descriptor is attached before ⟨ɟcn⟩ in the dictionary form. (This forms a compounding boundary.)

5 | Descriptors

Descriptors act as adjectives or adverbs. They follow what they modify, and are inflected for the noun class or verbal person of their antecedents.

Modifying nouns is done through compounding, but there are special forms for modifying verbs. These are separate words.

Table 5.1: Descriptor declensions, using the descriptors ⟨ɭˡɛɒɾ–⟩ “large” and ⟨ɭəɾ–⟩ “old”.

Person	Declined form	
Nouns	ɭˡɛɒɾɪ (ɭˡɛɒɪɾ)	ɭəɾɪ (ɭɾəɪ)
Near	ɭˡɛɒɾɪɻ (ɭˡɛɒɪɻɾ)	ɭəɾɪɻ (ɭɾəɪɻ)
Far	ɭˡɛɒɾɪɻ (ɭˡɛɒɪɻɾ)	ɭəɾɪɻ (ɭɾəɪɻ)
Other	ɭˡɛɒɾɐɻ (ɭˡɛɒɐɻɾ)	ɭəɾɔɻ (ɭɾəɔɻ)
Anaph. Sub.	ɭˡɛɒɾɪɻ (ɭˡɛɒɪɻɾ)	ɭəɾɪɻ (ɭɾəɪɻ)
Anaph. Obj.	ɭˡɛɒɾɐɻ (ɭˡɛɒɐɻɾ)	ɭəɾɔɻ (ɭɾəɔɻ)
Generic	ɭˡɛɒɾcɻ (ɭˡɛɒcɻɾ)	ɭəɾəɻ (ɭɾəəɻ)

Note that a final ⟨–ɻ⟩ or ⟨–z⟩ in a stem becomes whistled in the generic form.

Romanisation

In this text, the romanisation is used only to transcribe names into English. Whenever possible, the hacmisation should be used.

Table 2: The consonants of Middle Rymakonian.

	Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m		n	ñ	ŋ	
Plosive	p b		t d	ť ď	k g	.
Fricative	f v	þ ð	s z	š ž	h ħ	
(coärticulated)	fh vħ	þh ðħ		fš vž		
(whistled)			ŝ ẑ			
Affricate			ts	tš		
Lateral fricative			ṡ ż			
Approximant			r	j	w	
Lateral approximant			l			
Tap			ř			

Table 3: The vowels of Middle Rymakonian.

	Front	Central	Back
High	i	y	u
Mid	e		o
Low		a	

The digraphs ⟨fh vħ þh ðħ fš vž ts tš⟩ correspond to coärticulated consonants and affricates. An apostrophe can be placed between the two letters if this is not desired.

Rod signs are represented by the Arabic digits ⟨1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8⟩ attached to the end of the verbs they encompass. Proper words are preceded by a backslash ⟨\⟩.

⟨ŋ⟩ should be capitalised as ⟨Ŋ⟩ only if one can depend on the majuscule glyph appearing like an N with a hook. Otherwise, it should be spelled ⟨Ng⟩.

A | Dictionary

An entry looks like this:
ɒìʟ– *v1* (S) eats (O)
From left to right:

1. The entry – the Middle Rymakonian term listed.
2. The part of speech of the corresponding entry:
    - *n* – a noun
        - *-d-* – inherently dual
        - *-sent* – sentient noun
        - *-nonsent* – nonsentient noun
        - *-meas* – measure noun
        - *-edib* – edible noun
        - *-ined* – inedible noun
        - *-abst* – abstract noun
    - *v1*, *v2*, *v3* – first-, second- and third- conjugation verbs
    - *desc* – a descriptor
    - *pp* – a preposition
    - *-(b)* – this entry has only neutral vowels but acts as if it had back vowels
    - *-(ŋ)* – this entry came from a word that started with ⟨nᵠ–⟩ and thus certain prefixes will revert it back
3. The definition – the gloss for the corresponding entry.
    - (S) – subject
    - (O) – direct object
4. If applicable, any special grammatical or semantic notes for this term.
5. Optionally, examples of usage.

| .

.ᴄᴅᴇɴ *nnonsent* house

ɾ

ɾɳɛzc *nsent* child (young person)
ɾɪɸ– *v1* lose an object
ɾɔuɔl *nnonsent* tree
ɾɐɻ.c *nedib* beef

ɾˡ

ɾˡɪlɬ– *v1* (S) fights (O)
ɾˡcɾɗ– *v3* (S) falls on (O)
ɾˡɔzɔ *nnonsent* flower

ɾʲ

ɾʲɔzə *nnonsent* fruit

l

ln *pp* in, on, at (location)
lɪɾdlj *nined* stone
ləɾ– *desc* old

lˡ

lˡɻcɑɐn *nnonsent* book

ɭ

ɭcn– *v1* (S) shoots an arrow to (O)

ɭˡ

ɭˡɪdjc *nedib* soup
ɭˡɪɳɛ *nnonsent* fish

j

j– *v3* copula
jɛɾˡe *nnonsent* land, country
jɛn– *v1* (S) is worried by (O)

jᵅ

jᵅɪ.ɛn *nsent* magician
jᵅɪz– *v3* (S) creates, makes (O)
jᵅcn *nabst* how many?

jʰ

jʰz *pp* written by

n

nɥlzɪ *nnonsent* cat
ncɒ– *v3* (S) dances around (O)
neb– *v1* (S) gives something to (O)
neɻɑ– *v3* (S) hides from (O)
nən– *v2* (S) kills (O), (O) dies

ɑ

ɑɻɛnᶣe *nnonsent* coin
ɑcjn *pp* according to

ɑˡ

ɑˡɜɻə *nedib* potable water

ɑʰ

ɑʰəɒɔ *nabst* empathy

ɒ

ɒɜnᵠɔ *nnonsent* rabbit
ɒlɬ– *v1* (S) eats (O)
ɒɪn *nedib* rice
ɒɪzɪ *nsent* person
ɒɔɾ– *v2* (S) produces, makes (O)
ɒɛl *nmeas* volume
ɒɛlɬ– *v3* (S) imitates (O)

ɷ

ɷɔz– *v2* comparative verb

ɸ

ɸɻənᵠ *nnonsent* frog

d

dɜnᵠɪ *ndnonsent(b)* knee

dɥ *pp* with (comitative)

dɥ– *v3* hold, carry, instrumental verb

ɥ

ɥɜɟɔ *nnonsent* cup
ɥn *pp* with (instrumental)
ɥɜɒɜ *nmeas* day (continuous)
ɥɪſɪ *nined* grass
ɥeu– *v3* (S) spreads (O)
ɥəſɔ *nined* gold