lel–\ʃȷıμɔ–ᴅı ȷcl lel–ᴅı ȷcl ȷeᵓʃle–\μcᵊᴅılɔ

Middle Rymakonian, the language of *Rymako*

uruwi

ɑʰɔᵉ.ɔnᵠ–ᴅebc–delbeᵓ ʃlelcᵊ

A complete grammar

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Dedicated to Gufferdk.

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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 = ∅]	
$C_1[+fr] \rightarrow C_1[+v]$	$(V_1 ♦ V_2)$	
ɹ → z	$(V_1 ♦ V_2)$	
{y̬, u̬} → ʉ̬		
$V_1[+r] \rightarrow V_1[-r]$		
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	ɨ̟	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.
9. Rod A is raised besides one's head, while Rod B is extended toward the side of the dominant hand. This rod signal does not exist alone, but rather as a transition to the seventh or eighth rod signal.

In addition, the fourth rod signal has a "halfway" form where Rod A is retracted away from the nondominant arm.

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.

Rod signs are represented by the hacm digits ⟨1 ɹ ʔ ɱ ɸ ʕ ɥ ð⟩ attached to the end of the verbs they encompass. Halfway rod signals are represented by a subscript digit: ⟨ɱ⟩. Transitions from the ninth rod signal are written ⟨Lᵠ Lᐞ⟩. 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 ⟨lˡ lˈ⟩, for instance.

1.3 | Phonotactics

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

These are converted into *actual categories* as follows:

Table 1.3: The consonants of Middle Rymakonian.

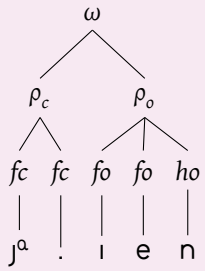
	Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	ɒ		n	nʏ	nᵠ	
Plosive	d b		ɾ ɑ	ɾʏ ɑʏ	ɭ ɸ	.
Fricative	ɑ u	jᵅ zᵘ	ɟ z	l s	ɭˡ ɸˢ	
(coärticulated)	ɑʰ uʰ	jʰ zʰ		ɑˡ uˢ		
(whistled)			jᵒ zᵒ			
Affricate			ɾʃ	ɾᵗ		
Lateral fricative			lˡ sˡ			
Approximant			ɥ	ʏ	o	
Lateral approximant			l			
Tap			ɾ			

Table 1.4: The vowels of Middle Rymakonian.

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

- 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:

Table 1.5: Categories of phonemes.

Category	Phonemes
Full-open	ɪ e c ɔ ə u zᵘ z zᵒ s ɸˢ sˡ ɥ o ɬ ʕ
Half-open	ɜ ɻ l ɒ n nʰ nᵠ ɋ Lᑫ
Neutral	ɹ jᵒ lˡ uʰ zʰ uˢ ɪ ɻ
Half-closed	ɑ l ɳˡ ɗ Δ Lᐞ
Full-closed	jᵅ ɑʰ jʰ ɑˡ d b ɾ ɑ ɾʰ ɑʰ ɳ ɸ ɾ ɾˡ . ʔ ɱ ɱ

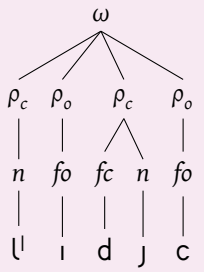
$$
\begin{aligned}
X_1[do]X_2[dc]R[do] &\to X_2X_1R \\
X_1[dc]X_2[do]R[dc] &\to X_2X_1R \\
X_1[dc]X_2[do]ʔX_3[do] &\to X_1ʔX_2X_3 \\
X_1[do]ʔX_2[do]X_3[dc] &\to X_1X_2ʔX_3 \\
X_1[op \geq 0]X_2[dc]X_3[do]X_4[op \leq 0] &\to X_1X_3X_2X_4 \quad [X_1.op + X_3.op - X_2.op - X_4.op \geq 6] \\
X_1[op \leq 0]X_2[do]X_3[dc]X_4[op \geq 0] &\to X_1X_3X_2X_4 \quad [X_2.op + X_4.op - X_1.op - X_3.op \geq 6] \\
X_1[do]X_2[dc]X_3[do] &\to X_1X_3X_2 \quad \text{for ever} \\
X_1[dc]X_2[do]X_3[dc] &\to X_2X_1X_3 \quad \text{for ever}
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $op < 0$. (The same rule can occur multiple times within a word, although such invocations may not intersect each other.)

All of the rules above move from right to left and do not occur across compound boundaries. The last two rules are executed in parallel 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 after what they modify (unless the antecedent is V), 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

In all questions, the intonation of the second word of the last clause is lowered considerably.

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:

ɾˈezcn ɥeɑɜjlˈı dɔθ
who-ACC speak-FAR.PAST-Q PR.FAR
Whom did you speak to?

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

ɥeɑɜjlˈı dɔ ɾˈel, ɣıɾ ɥɔ.
speak-FAR.PAST-Q PR.FAR who, see-NEAR.PAST PR.ANAPH_OBJ
I saw the person whom you talked to.

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 classes 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 Accusative	ᴅɪᴢɪ (ᴅɪᴢɪ) ᴅɪᴢɪɴ (ᴅɪᴢɪɴ)	ᴅɪᴢɪˈ (ᴅɪᴢɪˈ) ᴅɪᴢɪɴɪˈ (ᴅɪᴢɪɴɪˈ)
Sentient: ⟨xjᵠɪ.ᴇɴ⟩ “magician”		
Nominative Accusative	jᵠɪ.ᴇɴ (jᵠ.ɪᴇɴ) jᵠɪ.ᴇᴢᴄɴ (jᵠɪ.ᴇᴢᴄɴ)	jᵠɪ.ᴇˈ (jᵠ.ɪᴇˈ) jᵠɪ.ᴇɥᴄˈ (jᵠɪ.ᴇɥᴄˈ)
(Note that the final consonant is preserved only in the direct nominative form.)		
Non-sentient: ⟨xᴅɜɴᵠɔ⟩ “rabbit”		
Nominative Accusative	ᴅɜɴᵠɔ (ᴅɜɴᵠɔ) ᴅɜɴᵠɔᴅ (ᴅɜɴᵠɔᴅ)	ᴅɜɴᵠɔ.ə (ᴅɜɴᵠɔ.ə) ᴅɜɴᵠɔuə (ᴅɜɴᵠɔuə)
Non-sentient: ⟨x.ᴄᴅᴇɴ⟩ “house”		
Nominative Accusative	.ᴄᴅᴇɴ (.ᴄᴅᴇɴ) .ᴄᴅᴇᴢᴄᴅ (.ᴄᴅᴇᴢᴄᴅ)	.ᴄᴅᴇ.ᴄ (.ᴄᴅᴇᴄ.) .ᴄᴅᴇɥᴄuᴄ (.ᴄᴅᴇɥᴄuᴄ)

3.5.2 | Measurable and uncountable classes

Table 3.2: Declensions for measurable and uncountable nouns.

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

	Direct
Accusative	ɒezcn (ɒezcn)
Edible: ⟨xʃeɻ.c⟩ “beef”	
Nominative	ʃeɻ.c (ʃeɻc.)
Accusative	ʃeɻ.cn (ʃeɻc.n)
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 ⟨ʃˠ⟩ 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 six categories that 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 non-oblique argument of the clause.
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:

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

This construction is also used when compounding would otherwise be used, but the dependent is larger than a single noun or descriptor:

ɳɥɪzɪᴅɪ ɪ.ɭɭe ɑn ʃɪʝ
cat=GEN 4096 and two
4098 cats

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 ⟨–ɲ⟩ or ⟨–z⟩ 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 ⟨dɪl̀–⟩ "(S) eats (O)", before and after phonorun reduction.

	Nonpast	Past
Near	dɪl̀ɪn (dɪl̀ɪn)	dɪl̀ɪʃ (dɪɪl̀ʃ)
Far	dɪl̀ɪn (dɪl̀ɪn)	dɪl̀ɜʝ (dɪl̀ɜʝ)
Other	dɪl̀ɪ (dɪɪl̀)	dɪl̀ɜ (dɪl̀ɜ)
Anaph. Sub.	dɪl̀e (dɪel̀)	dɪl̀el (dɪl̀el)
Anaph. Obj.	dɪl̀c.e (dɪl̀.ce)	dɪl̀c.el (dɪl̀.cel)
Generic	dɪl̀c (dɪcl̀)	dɪl̀c (dɪcl̀)

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)	nənɪʃ (nənɪl̀ʃ)
Far	nənɪn (nənɪn)	nənɜʝ (nənɜʝ)
Other	nənɪ (nənɪ)	nənɜ (nənɜ)
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.
- As an exception, the generic form of ⟨ɥ–⟩ is ⟨ɥə⟩.

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)	ɥeuʒ (ɥeuʒ)
Anaph. Sub.	ɥeue (ɥeue)	ɥeuel (ɥeuel)
Anaph. Obj.	ɥeuc.e (ɥeuc.e)	ɥeuc.el (ɥeuc.el)
Generic	ɥeuʒ (ɥeuʒ)	ɥeuʒ (ɥeuʒ)

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

	Positive	Negative	Interrogative
Telic	–˙	–ʃɥe / –lɔ	–lˈɪ
Atelic	–ɒc / –ɒə	–ɹɪ	–ɬʒ

Some examples:

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

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

ɒɪlɪn lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ, lɒɪe ɹɪſɒɪe.
ɒɪlɪn lˈɪɾde ɾˈɔzɔ, ɒɪle ɹɪſibe.
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.)

ɒɪlɪneʃɥ ɾˈɔɥɔ lˈɪɾde.
ɒɪlɪnʃɥe ɾˈɔɥɔ lˈɪɾde.
eat-NEAR.NONPAST-NEG flower fish
Flowers don't eat fish.

dɥcn nc lˈɥclˈɥcɑen, ɟenɪn ɾɪ ebɟ.
dɥcn nc lˈɥclˈɥcɑen, 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 lˈɥclˈɥcɑen, ɟenɪn ɾɪ ebɟ.
dɥcnlˈɪ nc lˈɥclˈɥcɑen, 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	–1	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	1cl1	An action that was interrupted.
Perfect	–J	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	1clʔ	A general truth or aphorism that the speaker considers to be false.
Deontic necessity	–ᗰ	An action that the speaker insists on happening.
Deontic recommendation	–ᗰ	An action that the speaker recommends that happens.
Epistemic necessity	ɭəᗡᗰ	An action that the speaker infers is happening. *(Situational necessitative and potential moods are grouped with their epistemic versions.)*
Deontic potential	–ᖵ	An action that the speaker permits to occur.
Epistemic potential	ɭəᗡᖵ	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	4c1	Indicates that the subject comprises not only of what is explicitly mentioned, but also other things.

Aspect name	Marking	Meaning
Nonexclusive object	cʃʯʔ	Indicates that the object comprises not only of what is explicitly mentioned, but also other things.
Nonexclusive argument	cʃʯʃ	Combination of both nonexclusive subject and nonexclusive object.
Temporal universal	–Lᑫ	The statement is always true (“never true” when negative).
Temporal non-universal	jᵒLᑫ	The statement is not always true (“sometimes true” when negative).
Spatial universal	–Lᐞ	The statement is true (false) everywhere.
Spatial non-universal	jᵒLᐞ	The statement is false (true) somewhere.

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

An example:

ʃʰɪlnʃɒc1 ʃɪ nc, lcnc.elʕ dɜnᵠɪuə–ɲɪ.
ʃʰɪlnɪʃɒc1 ʃɪ nc, lcnc.elʕ dɜnᵠɪuə–ɲɪ.
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 nɐɲɑe1 ʃɪn \ɲɜze
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 ⟨dɲ⟩ (from Lek-Tsaro ⟨dɲcn⟩ *hold, carry*, which also begets ⟨ɲn⟩), but now we have nested obliques, which means we need to use ⟨ln⟩ as a postposition:

ɾɔuɔl̀ ɥn ɸɔzə l̀nɾ neɥɑel̀ ɾın \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 ⟨–ɾ⟩, and those that end with an open phonorun receive ⟨–z⟩.

The prefix ⟨ɾʰ–⟩ negates an adposition.

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 \ɾızɜl ɒıel̀ ɾeɥc..
\ɥɜze ɑn \ɾızɜl ɒıl̀e ɾeɥ.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 \ɾızɜl ɾeɥc. ɑn ˡıdjc ɒıel̀.
\ɥɜze ɑn \ɾızɜl ɾeɥ.c ɑn ˡıdjc ɒıl̀e.
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:

nɥızı ɑn–lʃəı ɒɜnᵠɔ
nɥızı ɑn–ləɾı ɒɜnᵠɔ
cat and-old rabbit
old cats and rabbits

4.3 | Connectors

(This section will refer to section 2.11 of \ɥbl ɒ ɑlɑ /ɾɑ'\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 ⟨–ſ⟩ or ⟨–ſ⟩ if the type ends with a closed phonorun, and ⟨–ı⟩ 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

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

Table 4.6: Connector types.

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

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

ɒıılſ ⌊ıɾde ſˈɔzɔ ıȷeı.
ɒıl̀ſ ⌊ıɾde ſˈɔzɔ ıȷeı.
eat-NEAR.PAST fish flower ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-0
The fish ate the flower.

ıȷeı ncɒcſ ſɾezc ſɔuɔl.
ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-0 dance-NEAR.PAST child tree
Then the child danced around the tree.

ıȷeı ɒıl̀el ⌊ı⌊ıɾdeɒ.
eat-ANAPH_SUB.PAST ORDINARY-⟨e⟩-0 DEF~fish-ACC
Then the child ate the fish.

ɒelcl̀ſ̀ ɸɟəᵑᵠ ıȷez dɔ.
ɒelſcſ̀ ɸɟəᵑᵠ ıȷez 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:

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

ɒɪlcl̩ɪ .ə–jᵃcn ʃʰɔzɔ, ɑɔzɪn l̩ɪɾde 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
$=$	ʃenᵠ
$\geq$	ʃɥɪl
$\leq$	ɒcɟ
$\neq$	.ɜɟ
$\approx$	ɥeɟ
$\gg$	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:

ɾiiɸɾ ɾi ɭˡɥcɭˡɥcɑɐen, nebel \ɥɜzen.
ɾiɸiɾ ɾi ɭˡɥcɭˡɥcɑɐen, 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–⟩:

ʃˤcɾdɾʃ ɑɸeɑɸenᶣe.
fall-NEAR.PAST DEF~coin
The coins fell.

ɾi cɸʃˤcɾdɜ ɑɸeɑɸenᶣe.
ɾi ɸcʃˤcɾdɜ ɑɸeɑɸenᶣe.
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 ⟨nᶣ⟩ 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, ⟨ʃˤcɾdcn⟩ 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:

ʃˤcɾdɾʃ ɑɸeɑɸenᶣe ɥiɾi.
fall-NEAR.PAST DEF~coin grass
The coins fell on the grass.

ɾi cɸʃˤcɾdɜ ɑɸeɑɸenᶣe, ʃˤcɾdel ɥiiɾbe.
ɾi ɸcʃˤcɾdɜ ɑɸeɑɸenᶣe, ʃˤcɾdel ɥiɾibe.
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 ⟨jcn⟩ in the dictionary form. (This precedes phonorun reduction but forms a compounding boundary.)

5 | Descriptors

Descriptors act as adjectives or adverbs. They follow what they modify, and are inflected for the 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 ⟨–ɟ⟩ or ⟨–ʒ⟩ in a stem becomes whistled in the generic form.

6 | Tree mode

As mentioned in section ??, anaphoric referents in a linked-list sentence are sometimes insufficient for expressing complex sentence structures. While the easiest method of resolving this issue is using definite nouns, Middle Rymakonian also provides a mode where sentences are not linked lists of clauses, but rather (binary) trees.

6.1 | Activation

Tree mode is enabled automatically when the treeing particle 〈nʸıϥ〉 is used, and disabled at the end of a sentence.

6.2 | Branch-switching

The aforementioned particle 〈nʸıϥ〉 marks the beginning of the right branch of the tree. The right branch is ended by the particle 〈nʸıΔ〉, which causes the next clause to join the left and right branches.

(N. B. 〈nʸıϥ〉 and 〈nʸıΔ〉 can occur only between clauses. If the particles are represented by left and right brackets, respectively, then the brackets should match.)

6.3 | Anaphoric pronouns in joiner clauses

In clauses that join two branches, anaphoric pronouns require marking whether the antecedent occurs in the left predecessor 〈nʸıϥ〉 or the right predecessor 〈nʸıΔ〉. This is done by marking the pronoun with 〈–ϥ〉 or 〈–Δ〉.

Likewise, verbs can be modified with 〈–ϥ〉 or 〈–Δ〉 to indicate which branch the subject came from.

6.4 | Errors

The following are ungrammatical:

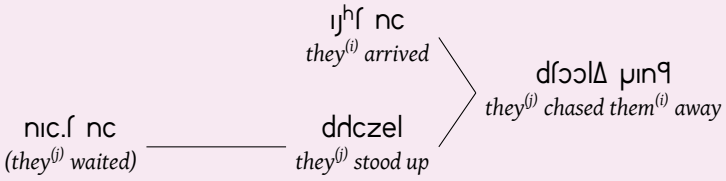
- Using the particle 〈nʸıΔ〉 or the branched anaphoric pronouns when tree mode is disabled
- Using the particle 〈nʸıΔ〉 other than to close a corresponding 〈nʸıϥ〉
- Using the unbranched anaphoric pronouns in clauses with two predecessors

- Using the branched anaphoric pronouns in clauses with one predecessor
- Starting a new branch with ⟨nʸıʔ⟩ when the current branch is empty

6.5 | Example

ıjʰʃ nc, nʸıʔ nıc.ʃ nc, dɾɗczel, nʸıʌ dʃɔɔlʌ ɲınʔ.
jʰıʃ nc, nʸıʔ nı.cʃ nc, dɾɗczel, nʸıʌ dɔʃɔlʌ ɲınʔ.
go-NEAR.PAST PR.OTHER, BRANCH wait-NEAR.PAST PR.OTHER, stand_up-ANAPH_SUB.PAST, JOIN chase-ANAPH_SUB.PAST-RIGHT PR.ANAPH_SUB.ACC-LEFT
When they$^{(i)}$ arrived, they$^{(j)}$ stood up and chased them$^{(i)}$ away.

The resulting tree is shown below:



7 | Numerals

Unlike Lek-Tsaro, which used a downright unusual numbering system, Middle Rymakonian uses base 16 consistently.

7.1 | Irregular numerals

Here are the numerals that do not follow the usual pattern, before phonorun reduction:

Table 7.1: Irregular numerals.

base 10	base 16	word
0	0	μɜᴅ
1	1	ɑɜl
2	⌋	ſɪȷ
3	ʔ	ɷᶣɔn
4	ɱ	ɑˡɪμ
5	ɫ	φcȷ
6	ʕ	ᴅɥe
7	ɋ	ſᶴcȷ
8	Δ	dən
9	L	ʅˡed
10	F	bɜnᵠ
11	7	nə
12	£	ɭe
13	♯	ȷᵅcd
14	A	ɥɪn
15	∀	ſᶣel
16	10	.ɪμ
17	11	ɭˡel
18	1⌋	ɭˡelɑɜl
19	1ʔ	ɭˡelſɪȷ
33	⌋1	ɑᴅɪℷ
34	⌋⌋	ᴅɪl
119	ɋɋ	ᴅɪſᶴ
256	100	ſᶣɭˡɑɔ
323	1ɱʔ	ʅˡɪzɪſɪn

base 10	base 16	word
4199	1069	ʅ.ɔlə

Note that digits above 9 use capital hacm letters.

7.2 | Double-digit numerals

Numerals of the form $x \cdot 16$ with $1 \leq x < 16$ are formed by concatenating ⟨.ıμ⟩ x. For instance, $128 = 80_{16}$ is written ⟨.ıμdən⟩ → ⟨.ıμədn⟩.

Numerals for integers of the form $x \cdot 16 + y$ with both x and y between 1 and 15, inclusive, and not listed in table 7.1, are formed by concatenating x ⟨μ⟩ y ⟨μ⟩ (before PR). For instance, $89 = 59_{16}$ is written ⟨φcɻμʅˡedμ⟩ → ⟨φcɻμʅˡdeμ⟩.

7.3 | Numerals up to 4096

Numerals for integers of the form $x \cdot 256 + y$ with $0 \leq x < 16$ and $0 \leq y < 256$, and not listen in table 7.1, are formed by concatenating y ⟨ʃʏlˡɑɔ⟩ x. This is done after phonorun reduction. For instance, $2018 = 7E2_{16}$ is written ⟨ʏınpʃıɻpʃʏlˡɑɔcβɻ⟩.

Note that there is no special case for $y = 0$; $512 = 200_{16}$ is written ⟨pɜɒʃʏlˡɑɔʃıɻ⟩.

7.4 | Larger numerals

Multiples of 4096 (up to 65536) are written by concatenating ⟨.lel⟩ x before phonorun reduction: $8192 = 2000_{16}$ is written ⟨.lelʃıɻ⟩. The exception is 4096 itself, which is ⟨ı.lle⟩.

Then other numerals up to 65536 are written as a conjunctional phrase: $10000 = 2710_{16}$ is written ⟨.lelʃıɻ ɑn .ıpʃʏlˡɑɔcβɻ⟩ – $2 \cdot 4096 + 16 + 7 \cdot 256$.

8 | Derivational morphology

The following methods are used to derive related terms from existing ones.

8.1 | Abstraction

Abstraction is a derivation that takes a non-abstract noun and returns the abstract noun representing the concept of the argument. Before pronoun reduction, this formation appends ⟨–ne⟩ or ⟨–nɔ⟩ to the noun. In addition, any final fricatives or lateral fricatives after a vowel are voiced, and a final ⟨ɥ⟩ after a vowel is changed to ⟨z⟩.

Examples:

- ⟨lˡɥcɷenˀ⟩ *book* → ⟨lˡɥcɷeneˀ⟩ *literature*
- ⟨lˡɔlɪˀ⟩ *cart* → ⟨lˡɔlɪnɔˀ⟩ (→ ⟨lˡlɔɪnɔˀ⟩) *transportation*
- ⟨ɒcɥˀ⟩ *hand* → ⟨ɒczneˀ⟩ *technique*

8.2 | Dematuration

Dematuration is a derivation that takes a noun and returns a noun of the same class that represents an immature form of the argument (not necessarily a diminuitive). ⟨ɾˡc–⟩ or ⟨ɾə–⟩ are prepended to nouns that begin in ⟨j⟩, ⟨lˀ⟩ or ⟨jˤ⟩, or ⟨jc–⟩ or ⟨jə–⟩ otherwise. In addition, an initial fricative or lateral fricative before a vowel is voiced, and an initial ⟨ɥ⟩ before a vowel is changed to ⟨z⟩.

Examples:

- ⟨ɒɪzɪˀ⟩ *person* → ⟨jcɒɪzɪˀ⟩ *child*
- ⟨ɸɔzəˀ⟩ *fruit* → ⟨jəɸɔzəˀ⟩ (→ ⟨jɸəɔzəˀ⟩) *unripe fruit*
- ⟨jɐɾlɭcnˀ⟩ *essay* → ⟨ɾˡczeɾlɭcnˀ⟩ *draft*

8.3 | Verb-to-noun conversions

To derive a noun from a verb, an affix is added to the verb stem:

Table 8.1: Conversion affixes.

Name	Affix
Agent	–enᵠ / –ɔnᵠ
Patient	–ed / –ɔd
Location	–eɥ / –ɔɥ
Instrument	–ɪʃ

Then the resulting word is declined as an abstract noun, and phonorun reduction happens. After phonorun reductions, the order of phonoruns is reversed, such that the last phonorun becomes the first, for instance. Finally, the final phonorun is continued by appending ⟨–c⟩ or ⟨–ʃ⟩.

The following words are derived from ⟨nəb–⟩ (v2) *to steal*:

- Agent: ⟨nəbɔnᵠ⟩ → ⟨ɔnᵠbnəc⟩ *thief*
- Patient: ⟨nəbɔd⟩ → ⟨nəɔbd⟩ → ⟨bdnəɔc⟩ *stolen goods*
- Location: ⟨nəbɔɥ⟩ → ⟨ɔɥbnəc⟩ *site of theft*
- Instrument: ⟨nəbɪʃ⟩ → ⟨nəɪbʃ⟩ → ⟨bʃnəɪc⟩ *tools used for theft*

Occasionally, a word derived by this method might become lexicalised. In that case, it moves to the noun class of best semantic fit and its declension is regularised (based on the nominative 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			c	č		
Lateral fricative			ś 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. Halfway rod signals are represented by subscript digits ⟨₄⟩. Transitions from the ninth rod signal are written ⟨L· L·⟩. 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:
ɒìl– *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.

| .

.cʃɟɥ– *desc* new, next

.cɒɐn *nnonsent* house

ɾ

ɾɳɐzc *nsent* child (young person)
ɾɹɪnᵠ *nnonsent* cloud
ɾɪᵠ– *v1* lose an object
ɾɔuɔl *nnonsent* tree
ɾɔɒɪβɪ *nnonsent* bed
ɾɔɒɔɻ *nnonsent* bedroom
ɾɔlə *nedib* ice
ɾɔləɾˤ *nedib* frost
ɾɐɻ.c *nedib* beef

ɾˤ

ɾˤɪzcʝ *nnonsent* river
ɾˤɪll– *v1* (s) fights (o)
ɾˤcɾɳ– *v3* (s) falls on (o)
ɾˤcɻd– *v3* (o) breaks (s)
ɾˤɔzɔ *nnonsent* flower
ɾˤel *nsent* who?

β

βlɔɻ– *desc* handsome, beautiful
βcjʰ– *v1* (s) follows (o)
βɔzə *nnonsent* fruit

l

lʃɪɒ *nnonsent* window
ln *pp* in, on, at (location)
lnl– *v1* (s) lives in (o)
lɻɪl *nnonsent* stairs
lɪn *nmeas* 1/23 of a tidal day
lɪɑc *nnonsent* moon
lɪɾɪj *nined* stone
lɔn– *desc* entire, complete
ləɾ– *desc* old

lˤ

lˤɻcɑɐn *nnonsent* book
lˤɔlɪ *nnonsent* cart

ɭ

ɭcn– *v1* (s) shoots an arrow to (o)

ɭˡ

ɭˡɪdjc *nedib* soup
ɭˡɪɾe *nnonsent* fish

ʝ

ʝ– *v3* copula
ʝɔɒenɾe *nabst* dawn, wee hours
ʝeɾˤe *nnonsent* land, country
ʝen– *v1* (s) is worried by (o)
ʝeɾlɭcn *nsent* essay

ʝᵅ

ʝᵅɪ.en *nsent* magician
ʝᵅɪz– *v3* (s) creates, makes (o)
ʝᵅcn *nabst* how many?

ʝʰ

ʝʰ *pp* toward
ʝʰ– *v1* (s) goes toward (o)
ʝʰz *pp* written by

n

n.l *pp* in, on, at (time)
n.ɻ *pp* through
nɥɪzɪ *nnonsent* cat
nɪ.– *v3* (s) waits for/until (o), temporal verb, if
nɪ.ez– *v3* (s) covers, spans (o)
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
nəb– *v2* steal

nᵸ

nᵸɔz– *v1(ŋ)* (s) thinks, ponders about (o)

ɑ

ɑɥenᶣe *nnonsent* coin
ɑc.cꞁ *nabst* centre, origin
ɑcɹn *pp* according to
ɑcze *nabst* light
ɑczeꞁiɑc *nabst* moonlight
ɑeo– *v3* jump

ɑˡ

ɑˡ– *v3* do what?
ɑˡɜɥə *nedib* potable water

ɑʰ

ɑʰədɔ *nabst* empathy

ɒ

ɒꞁ *pp* far away from
ɒɜnᵠɔ *nnonsent* rabbit
ɒzɪdɥ *nsent* nobleman, gentleman
ɒiꞁ– *v1* (S) eats (O)
ɒin *nedib* rice
ɒizɪ *nsent* person
ɒcꞁɪ *desc* far
ɒcɥ *ndnonsent* hand
ɒczne *nabst* technique
ɒɔɾ– *v2* (S) produces, makes (O)
ɒɔnᵠ *nnonsent* head
ɒeꞁin *nmeas* hour
ɒenɾ– *v1* begin, start
ɒed– *v3* err, miss
ɒebɥ– *v1* (S) resembles (O)
ɒel *nmeas* volume
ɒelꞁ– *v3* (S) imitates (O)
ɒəꞁɔnᵠ *nsent* servant

ɑ

ɑcʳ– *v1* (S) hits, strikes (O)
ɑɔz– *v2* comparative verb
ɑeɒ– *v1* (S) sleeps
ɑeɒ– *v1* (S) sleeps
ɑəzɔ *nnonsent* pathway, street, road

ᵠ

ᵠʳcɾ– *v3* (S) lowers their own (O)
ᵠɥiꞁ– *v1* (S) raises their own (O)
ᵠɥənᵠ *nnonsent* frog

ɖ

ɖɜnᵠɪ *ndnonsent(b)* knee
ɖɾiɾjɥinᵠ *nnonsent* mist, fog
ɖɾiᵽɪ *nabst* ground, floor
ɖɾcz– *v1* stand, get up
ɖɥ *pp* with (comitative)
ɖɥ– *v3* hold, carry, instrumental verb
ɖɥeɒe *nnonsent* city
ɖiɾɥ– *v1* (S) sits at (O)
ɖɔɾ– *v2* (S) chases away (O), (O) flees from (S)

ɥ

ɥ– *v1* (S) sees (O), because, (S) illuminates (O)

ɥ

ɥꞁd *pp* with (colour) hair
ɥɜꞁɔ *nabst* nighttime
ɥɜɹɔ *nnonsent* cup
ɥn *pp* with (instrumental)
ɥu *pp* in front of
ɥɜɒɜ *nmeas* day (continuous)
ɥiɾɪ *nined* grass
ɥiꞁ– *v1* (S) climbs, rises in (O)
ɥiꞁdɔ *nnonsent* hair
ɥeu– *v3* (S) spreads (O)
ɥeɑ– *v3* (S) speaks to (O), (S) asks (O)
ɥelꞁɪ *nnonsent* place
ɥelꞁiuc.cꞁ *nnonsent* hometown, home village, (figurative) Rymako
ɥəɾɔ *nined* gold