A Reference Grammar of the Iridian Language

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PREFACE

ABBREVIATIONS

1	first person
2	second person
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ABL	abilitative mood
ADE	adessive
AGT	agent
ANIM	animate
ATT	attributive
BEN	benefactive focus
CAUS	causative
COMP	comparative
COND	conditional
CTPV	contemplative aspect
CV	converb
DEM	demonstrative
DIST	distal
EXCL	exclusive
EXPL	expletive
G	generic number
GEN	genitive
GER	gerund
HORT	hortative mood
INAN	inanimate
INCL	inclusive

INCP	inceptive
INF	infinitive
INST	instrumental case
IPF	imperfective aspect
IV	instrumental focus
LOC	locative
LV	locative focus
MED	medial
NEG	negative
NZ	nominalizer
OPT	optative mood
PAT	patient
PERM	permissive mood
PF	perfective aspect
PL	plural
PROSP	prospective aspect
PROH	prohibitive mood
PROX	proximal
PV	patientive focus
Q	question particle
QUOT	quotative mood
REF	reflexive focus
RET	retrospective aspect
RZ	relativizer
S	singular
SBJ	subjunctive mood
STR	strong form
SUP	supine
WK	weak form

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AN OVERVIEW OF IRIDIAN

1.1 Word Classes

Traditional Iridian grammar classifies words into three types: **lóihnelý** (verbs), **zesztelý** (nouns), and **múisztelý** (function words)

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PHONOLOGY

2.1 Vowels

2.1.1 Oral Vowels

Iridian has six pairs of corresponding long and short vowels. With the exception of /a aː/ and /u uː/, long vowels are tenser than their short counterparts. In addition standard Iridian also features the high central vowel [ɨ] as an allophone of [ɛ] and [ɪ] and the low central [ɐ] as an allophone of [a], in unstressed positions.

Table 2.1: Vowel inventory of standard Iridian.

	FRONT		CENTRAL	BACK
	Unrounded	Rounded		
Close	ɪ iː	ʏ yː	(ɨ)	u uː
Mid	ɛ eː			ɔ oː
Open			(ɐ) a aː	

Phonetic realization is generally consistent with orthography as seen in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Orthographic representation of vowels.

	Short	Long		Short	Long
/a/	a	á	/o/	o	ó
/e/	e	é	/u/	u	ú
/i/	i	í	/y/	y, ÿ	ý

Note that since *y* is used to represent palatalization of a consonant in coda position, word-final short /y/ sound is written as *ÿ*. Both /ʏ/ and /y/ are

diphthongized to [ʏɐ̯] and [yːɐ̯] respectively at the end of a word.

(1) *mÿ*, 'grandmother'
[mʏɐ̯]

(2) *némÿ*, 'grandfather'
[ˈneːmʏɐ̯]

(3) *ahlý*, 'juice'
[ˈʔaxlyːɐ̯]

2.1.2 Diphthongs

Iridian has three phonemic oral diphthongs: *au* [aʊ̯], *ei* [eɪ̯], *ou* [oʊ̯]. In addition, the diphthongs *oi* [ɔɪ̯] and *ui* [uɪ̯] also occur phonemically, but their occurence is marginal, normally appearing only in fixed expressions such as interjections and expletives.

(4) *Avui!* 'Damn it!'
[ˈʔɐvuɪ̯ʔ]

(5) *pšehui*, 'annoying'
[ˈpɕɐxuɪ̯ʔ]

(6) *Oi!* 'Hey!'
[ʔɔɪ̯ʔ]

In most dialects however the diphthong [eɪ̯] has almost completely merged with *é* [eː], although some divergent dialects in the south may realize the diphthong as [iː].

(7) *neite*, 'word'
[ˈneɪ̯tɛ] or [ˈneːtɛ]

2.1.3 Nasal and Nasalized Vowels

Iridian has three nasal vowels: *ą* [ɐ̃w̃], *ę* [ɛ̃w̃] and *ǫ* [ɔ̃] (rarely [ɔ̃w̃]). Nasal vowels are not disinguished for length. In addition, nasal consonants in coda position are normally deleted, and the preceding vowel becomes phonemically nasal. In cases of nasal coda deletion, *a* [ɐ] and *e* [ɛ] are also dipthongized to [ɐ̃w̃] and [ɛ̃w̃]. Unstressed [ɛ̃w̃] is further reduced to [ə̃w̃]. This brings the inventory of nasal and nasalized consonants in Iridian to the following: /ɐ̃w̃ ɛ̃w̃ ə̃w̃ ĩ ɔ̃ ũ/

(8) *bięc*, 'cat'
[bʲɛ̃w̃t͡s]

(9) *nąš*, ‘castle’
[nɐ̃ʷɐ̃ʷɕ]

2.1.4 Vowel Length

Vowel length is phonemic in Iridian. Length is represented by an acute accent over the long vowel. The short-long vowel pairs differ in quality as well as length, with the short vowels being more and the long vowels being tenser in addition to being longer. Diphthongs are phonetically considered as long vowels.

Table 2.3: Vowel length and quality.

ARCHIPHONEME	LAX/SHORT	TENSE/LONG
/a/	[a]	[aː]
/e/	[ɛ]	[eː]
/i/	[ɪ]	[iː]
/o/	[ɔ]	[oː]
/u/	[u]	[uː]
/y/	[ʏ]	[yː]

2.1.5 Vowel Reduction

The short vowels /ɛ/ and /ɪ/ are reduced to [ɨ] in unstressed positions. In less careful speech, this could even the elision of the vowel and the formation of consonant clusters or the realization of the preceding consonant as syllabic (especially if it is a liquid). Final /ɛ/ is not reduced in a word-final position if preceding a pause.

(10) a. *pálet*, ‘paint’
[ˈpaːlɨt] or [paːɬt]

b. but *páletka*, ‘painter’
[paːˈlɛtkɐ]

(11) *hope*, ‘shoes’
[ˈxɔpɛ]

(12) *etapa*, ‘stage’
[ɨˈtapɐ]

Short /a/ is realized as [ɐ] in unstressed positions.

(13) *kóma*, ‘cup’
[ˈk͡xoːmɐ]

(14) *mašinist*, ‘engineer’
[mɐˈɕmɨst]

2.2 Consonants

Table 2.4 shows a complete list of consonant phonemes in Standard Iridian, with the allophones appearing in parentheses. In total, Iridian has 19 consonant phonemes but with 21 additional allophonic variants.

Table 2.4: Full consonant inventory of standard Iridian.

	Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plosive	p b	t d	(c ɟ)	k g
Nasal	m (ɱ)	n	(ɲ)	(ŋ)
Liquid		r (ʁ) l	(ʎ)	
Sib. Fric.		s z	ɕ ʑ	
Non-Sib. Fricative	v		(ç)	x (ɣ)
Sib. Affricate		t͡s (d͡z)	t͡ɕ (d͡ʑ)	
Non-Sib. Aff.		(t̪͡θ d̪͡ð)	(c͡ç ɟ͡ʝ)	(k͡x g͡ɣ)
Approximant	(β̞)	(ð̞)	j	(ʍ w)

2.2.1 Plosives

Initial stops are affricated when following a pause, so that the velar pair /k g/ are realized as [k͡x g͡ɣ], the palatal pair [c ɟ] as [c͡ç ɟ͡ʝ][1] and the dental pair /t d/ as [t̪͡θ d̪͡ð] (the last pair is written without the diacritics in the examples). This sound change can be traced to the initial aspirated stops **k*^{h}, **g*^{h}, **t*^{h} and **d*^{h} in Old Iridian weakening to affricates. The labial stops /p b/ are unaffected by this process as most instances of **p*^{h} and **b*^{h} have merged to [b] or [v] in modern Iridian.

(15)

gulag	[ˈg͡ɣʊlɐx]	‘gulag’
kašt	[k͡xaɕt]	‘blood’
tom	[t̪͡θõ]	‘powder’
dúm	[d̪͡ðũ]	‘house’
tieho	[ˈc͡çɛxɔ]	‘god’

[1] Though phonotactically permitted, [ɟ͡ʝ] has not been attested.

The velar stops /k ɡ/ are lenited to the velar fricatives [x ɣ] intervocalically, before a voiceless stop, after a vocalized l if followed by another vowel or a voiceless stop, or before the nasal consonants /n/ or /m/ if following a vowel immediately. This lenition also occurs word-finally unless followed by a voiced obstruent, in which case, subject to word-final devoicing, they merge to [x].

(16)

seg	[sɛx]	‘flower’
jeko	[ˈjɛxɔ]	‘bed’
naga	[ˈnaɣɐ]	‘friend’
agnošce	[ʔɐɣˈnɔc͡tɕɛ]	‘agnostic’
akta	[ˈʔaxtɐ]	‘show’
šelk	[ɕɛwx]	‘beginning’

This lenition can also be observed with the voiced stops /b/ and /d/ which become the approximants /β̞/ and /ð̞/ (written without the diacritic hereafter) intervocalically or between a vocalized /l/ and another vowel.

(17)

nada	[ˈnɐðɐ]	‘box’
lobač	[ˈlɔβɐc͡tɕ]	‘earthquake’
álba	[ˈaːwβɐ]	‘hands’

The first stop in a stop cluster is normally unreleased or fricated.

(18)

doktor	[ˈd͡ðɔxtɔɣ̟]	‘doctor’
aptá	[ˈʔɐpˈtaː] or [ˈʔɐɸtaː]	‘to polish’

The glottal stop [ʔ] is often not regarded as a separate phoneme. It can occur in three cases: (1) before an onset vowel when following a pause, e.g., *avt* [ʔa̯ʊ̯t] ‘car’; (2) between two vowels that do not form a diphthong, e.g., *naomešá* [nɐʔɔˈmɛʃaː], ‘to whisper’; or (3) emphatically, especially in interjections, e.g., *Oi!* [ʔɔɪ̯ʔ], ‘Hey!’, *Káp!* [k͡xaːpʔ], ‘Look out! (*lit.*, danger)’.

2.2.2 Nasals

Iridian has two nasal consonants /m n/. /n/ cannot appear before bilabials and similarly /m/ cannot appear before velars. The palatal /ɲ/ is an allophone of /n/ in environments affected by **niehockvo**. Both m and n cause a preceding short vowel to be nasalized, with the consonant itself subsequently dropped.

(19)

niho	[nɪxɔ]	‘nothing’
tramvek	[ˈtrɐ̃wvɛx]	‘tramway’
sinvóní	[sɪ̃ˈvoːniː]	‘symphony’
bankišt	[ˈbɐ̃wkɪɕt]	‘banker’

The velar [ŋ] is not native in Iridian but can sometimes be observed, especially in loanwords, where it can be realized as nasalization of the preceding

vowel when in the syllable coda or as [ŋ] intervocalically, although [ŋg] or [ŋk] is also common.

(20) *aktung*, 'signage' (from Ger. Achtung, caution)
[ˈʔaxtũ] or [ˈʔaxtuŋ] or [ˈʔaxtuŋk]

(21) *anglevní*, 'English language'
[ʔɐŋˈlɛwniː] or [ʔɐŋgˈlɛwniː]

2.2.3 Liquids

Iridian has two liquids: the rhotic /r/ and the lateral /l/.

The rhotic /r/ is realized in one of three ways. Word-initially it is pronounced as the uvular fricative [ʁ] (or as the uvular trill fricative [ʀ], depending on the speaker, but both transcribed here simply as [ʁ]). The realization as [ʁ] is also often used when pronouncing words emphatically. When in the coda position and before a pause [r] is realized as /ʐ/. This pronunciation was originally that of a voiceless alveolar trill [r̥] but this has simplified to [r̝] and finally to [ʐ] in Standard Iridian. The [r̥] or [r̝] pronunciation may nevertheless persist in some southern dialects, primarily due to Czech influence. Note that [ʐ] is not affected by word-final devoicing. Elsewhere /r/ is realized as the flap [ɾ]. Palatal /rʲ/ is in general more stable, realized simply as [rʲ], although when in the coda position and if not followed by a vowel, it is realized as [ʐ].

The lateral /l/ is actually the velarized alveolar lateral approximant [ɬ]. Nonetheless the sound has been transcribed throughout as /l/. In the coda position /l/ is completely vocalized and is transcribed here as [w]. The palatalized /lʲ/ is the palatal lateral approximant [ʎ] and is transcribed as such.

(22)

lievout	[ˈʎɛvo̯ut]	'pregnant'
mielko	[ˈmʲɛwxɔ]	'sugar'
ór	[oːʐ]	'hour'
gitáry	[ˈg͡ɣɪtaːʐ]	'guitar'
rád	[ʁaːt]	'building'

2.2.4 Fricatives and Affricates

The palatal sibilants /ɕ ʑ/ can be realized as either the palatal [ɕ ʑ] or the post-alveolar [ʃ ʒ] with the former being more common. The same is true with the palatal affricates /t͡ɕ d͡ʑ/, realized as other [t͡ɕ d͡ʑ] or [t͡ʃ d͡ʒ], with the former also being more prevalent. The voiced affricated /d͡ʑ/, normally written *dž*, is marginal, and most loanwords originally containing [d͡ʑ] or [d͡ʒ] are assimilated as [ʐ]. The sequence /t͡sɪ/ and /t͡siː/ are realized as /t͡ɕɪ/ and /t͡ɕiː/ respectively.

(23) *žurnál*, 'magazine'
[ˈʑurnaːw]

(24) *cigra*, 'tiger'
[ˈt͡ɕɪɣrɐ]

The voiceless labial fricative /f/ is not a native phoneme in Iridian and most loanwords containing /f/ are assimilated to [v]. Most recent borrowings however tend to keep the marginal /f/.

(25)	**vóto**	[ˈvoːtɔ]	'photograph'
	kávémašt	[k͡xaːˈveːmɐɕt]	'coffeeshop'
	Vranca	[ˈvrɐ̃w̃t͡sɐ]	'France'
	Feizbuk	[ˈfeːzbux]	'Facebook'

/v/ is realized as the approximant /w/ in syllable coda or before a stop. The sequence *kv* and *gv* is further lenited to the labialized velar fricatives /xʷ ɣʷ/. The voiceless /xʷ/ (from both **kv** and **hv**) is in free variation with /ʍ/, with the latter being the more common pronunciation, especially among younger speakers.For simplicity both /xʷ/ and /ʍ/ will be transcribed as /ʍ/.

	kvártir	[ˈʍaːrcɪʑ]	'apartment'
(26)	**szvięce**	[ʃviɛ̃w̃t͡sɛ]	'candle, light'
	gvorž	[ɣʷɔrɕ]	'speech'

Modern Iridian has lost the distinction between /h/ and /x/, with both ⟨ch⟩ and ⟨h⟩,[2] historically representing /x/ and /h/, respectively, merging to the velar fricative /x/. This becomes /ç/ before voiceless stops word-initially or when following a front vowel, or before the front vowels /i/ and /ɪ/. The palatal /ç/ is the prepalatal [ç̟], intermediate between /ç/ and /ɕ/. The sequence ⟨hl⟩ and ⟨kl⟩ are realized as /t͡ɬ/.

	hluvek	[t͡ˈɬ uvɛx]	'apartment'
	hrona	[ˈxrɔnɐ]	'three'
(27)	**hteny**	[çtɛɲ]	'person'
	neiht	[neːçt]	'color'
	klube	[ˈt͡ɬuβɛ]	'club'

Voicing

Iridian consonants are generally affected by two systems of phonological opposition: a primary distinction between voice and unvoiced consonants, and a secondary distinction between hard and soft consonants (i.e., normal and palatalized consonants).

2 Most instances of ⟨ch⟩ have been replaced with ⟨h⟩ following various spelling reforms.

Consonant voicing is phonemic. Voiced consonants are called muddy or dark (**mrknie**) while unvoiced consonants are called clear (**hocke**). Iridian has a strong tendency to devoice consonants, a process called **niehockvo** (clearing, lightening).

Voiced consonants are devoiced when followed by a voiceless obstruent, or in word-final position, unless followed by a vowel or a voiced obstruent. Conversely, voiceless obstruents become voiced when followed by another voiced obstruent.

avt	[ʔɐft]	'car'
szkad	[ʃkɐt]	'serious'
kdavidy	[ˈgdɐvʲɪc]	'clean'
ryz	[rɪs]	'rice'

2.3 Phonotactics

2.3.1 Syllable structure

Ignoring the possible complexity of the onset, nucleus or coda, the basic structure of an Iridian syllable is CV(C), with C representing a consonant and V a vowel. Iridian has relatively few phonotactic constraints, allowing, at a maximum, syllables of the form $(C)^2CV(C)^3$. Nevertheless, most syllables fall in either of the four groups CV, CVC, CCV and CVCC

Table 2.5: Blevin's criteria as they apply to Iridian.

	PARAMETER
Obligatory onset	Yes
Coda	No
Complex onset	Yes
Complex nucleus	Yes*
Complex coda	Yes
Edge effect	

2.3.2 Onset

Iridian does not allow a null onset (vowel in the syllable onset), i.e., the most basic Iridian syllable should be of the form CV. Words that superficially appear as having a null onset syllable in the initial position are actually preceded by a glottal stop. An epenthetic glottal stop is also added between vowels in a sequence that do not otherwise form dipthongs, or before a vowel in a word-initial position in loanwords.

Americe	/ʔɐmɛˈrʲɪt͡sɛ/	'America'
uide	/ʔʏðɛ/	'gong'
ekt	/ʔɛxt/	'forehead'

Table 2.6: Allowed word-initial CC clusters

	p	b	t	d	k	g	m	n	r	l	s	z	š	ž	v	č	dc	c	dz	h
p			+					+	+	+	+		+							
b									+	+										
t							+		+	+					+					
d							+	+	+	+					+					
k			+	+				+	+	+	+		+		+					
g								+	+	+					+					
m								+												
n										+										
r																				
l																				
s																				+
z		+		+			+	+	+	+					+					
š	+		+		+		+	+	+	+					+	+		+		+
ž																				
v			+	+	+			+	+	+	+		+					+		
č			+		+					+										
c			+		+			+	+	+										+
h			+						+	+					+					

\+ allowed cluster

The following CC clusters are allowed to be in onset position:

1. Stop followed by a liquid:
   (a) /pr/: *pragy* /prɐc/, 'sand'; *pramou* /prɐˈmoʊ̯/, 'petal'
   (b) /tr/: *trâ* /trɐ̃w̃/, 'bread'; *truig* /trʏx/, 'ball
   (c) /kr/: *krova* /ˈkrɔvɐ/, 'egg'; *kramy* /krɐmʲ/, 'toe'
   (d) /pl/: *plan* /plɐn/, 'plan'; *ploika*, /ˈpløxɐ/ 'knot'
   (e) /tl/:[3] *tlyk* /tɬɪx/, 'pig'; *tlum* /tɬʊm/
   (f) /kl/:[4] *klug* /t͡ɬʊx/, foot; *klúbe* /ˈt͡ɬuːbɛ/, 'club'
   (g) /br/: *brok* /brɔx/, 'female teenager'; *bremy* /brɛmʲ/, 'ugly'
   (h) /dr/: *drono* /drɔnɔ/, 'brother'; *drúi* /dryː/ 'enemy'
   (i) /gr/: *grec* /gr͡ɛts/, 'flag'; *gryny* /grɪɲ/ 'peace'
   (j) /bl/: *bloht* /blɔxt/, 'mud'; *bleu* /bløʏ̯/ 'neck'
   (k) /dl/[5]: *dleva* /ˈt͡ɬ ɛvɐ/, 'low'; *dlouhe* /t͡ɬoʊ̯xɛ/ 'duck'
   (l) /gl/: *gloibek* /ˈgløbɛx/

3 This is realized as /tɬ/ or even /ɬ/.

4 Realized as /t͡ɬ/ in Standard Iridian or as /kl̥/ in some dialects.

5 This has merged to *tl* in Standard Iridian.

2. Dental or velar stops followed by /v/: [6]
   (a) /tv/:
   (b) /dv/:
   (c) /kv/: *kvártir* /ˈʍɔrcɪr/, apartment; *kveno* /ˈʍɛnɔ/, 'kitten'
   (d) /gv/: *gvarusz* /ɣʷɐˈrʊʃ/, 'speech'; *gvecs* /ɣʷɛt͡ʃ/, 'dinner'
3. /k/ or /p/ followed by /t/ or its soft counterpart; /k/ followed by /d/ or its soft counterpart:
   (a) /kt/: *kto* /ktɔ/, 'smile'; *ktiesz* /kcɛʃ/, 'ache'
   (b) /pt/: *pteva* /ptɛvɐ/, 'leaf'; *ptiará* /pcɐrɐ/, 'count'
   (c) /kd/:[7]
4. /k/ or /p/ before /s/ or /ʃ/ or their soft counterparts:
   (a) /ps/:[8] *psyhologa* /psɪxɔlɔˈɣɐ/, 'psychologist';
   (b) /pʃ/: *pszehuj* /ˈpʃɛxuˌ̯/, 'annoyance'; *pszêcem* /ˈpʃɛ̃w̃t͡sɛm/, 'grain'
   (c) /ks/:[9]
   (d) /kʃ/: *kszêtva* /ˈkʃɛ̃w̃tvɐ/, 'chain'; *kszévet* /ˈkʃeːvɛt/, 'basket'
5. Dental stops followed by /m/:
   (a) /tm/: *tmeny* /tmɛɲ/, 'belt'; *tmou* /tmoˌ̯u/, 'waist'
   (b) /dm/:
6. /p/, /d/, /k/ or /g/ followed by /n/:
   (a) /pn/:
   (b) /dn/:
   (c) /kn/:
   (d) /gn/:[10] *gnasz* /knɐʃ/, 'school'; *gnuma* /knʊmɐ/, 'mattress'
7. /m/ followed by /n/ or /n/ followed by /l/:
   (a) /mn/: *mnucs* /mnʊt͡ʃ/, 'husband'; *mnouvaty* /ˈmnoˌ̯uvɐc/, 'hunchback'
   (b) /nl/:[11] *nlâsz* /nʌ̂w̃ʃ/, 'castle'; *nlúi* /nʌ̂ːi/, 'horse'
8. /ʃ/ followed by a voiceless stop:
   (a) /ʃp/:
   (b) /ʃt/
   (c) /ʃk/:
9. /ʑ/ before /b/ or /d/:
   (a) /zb/
   (b) /zd/:
10. /ʃ/ or /ʑ/ followed by a nasal, a liquid, or /v/:

6 /v/ is realized as /ʊ/ in this context. See section of stops for details on *kv* and *gv*.

7 This is always realized as /gd/.

8 This is a marginal cluster, occuring only in mostly Greek loanwords.

9 This is another marginal cluster, occuring only in mostly Greek loanwords.

10 Realized as /ɣn/ after a vowel-final word and /kn/ elsewhere.

11 This is realized as palatal /nʌ̂/.

(a) /ʃm/:
(b) /ʃn/:
(c) /ʃr/:
(d) /ʃl/:
(e) /ʃv/:
(f) /zm/:
(g) /zn/:
(h) /zr/:
(i) /zl/:
(j) /zv/:

11. /ʃ/ before the affricates /t͡s/ or /t͡ʃ/:
    (a) /ʃt͡s/:
    (b) /ʃt͡ʃ/
12. /ʃ/ or /s/ before the affricates /x/:
    (a) /ʃx/:
    (b) /sx/
13. /v/ before the affricates /s/ or /ʃ/, /n/, the stops /t/, /k/, or /d/, the liquids /r/ or /l/, or the affricate /t͡s/:
    (a) /vs/:
    (b) /vʃ/:
    (c) /vn/:
    (d) /vt/:
    (e) /vk/:
    (f) /vd/:
    (g) /vr/:
    (h) /vl/:
    (i) /vt͡s/:
14. /t͡ʃ/ before /k/, /t/, or /l/:[12]
    (a) /t͡ʃk/:
    (b) /t͡ʃt/:
    (c) /t͡ʃl/:
15. /t͡s/ before /k/, /t/, /l/, /r/ /n/ or /x/:
    (a) /t͡sk/:
    (b) /t͡st/:
    (c) /t͡sr/:
    (d) /t͡sl/:
    (e) /t͡sn/:
    (f) /t͡sx/:

12 CC clusters beginning with /t͡ʃ/ have all simplified to /ʃ/.

Table 2.7: Allowed CCC clusters.

	v	z	sz	p	b	k
pr			+			
pl			+			
br		+	+			
tr	+		+			
tl			+			
tv						
dr		+				
dv						
kr			+			
kl			+			
kv						
gr		+				
sh	+			+		+
szp						
szt						
szk						
szh	+			+		+
szr	+			+	+	+
szc	+			+	+	+
szcs	+			+	+	+

16. /x/ before /t/, /l/, /r/ or /v/:
    (a) /xt/:
    (b) /xl/:
    (c) /xr/:
    (d) /xv/:[13]

Three-consonant clusters are subject to more constraints.

1. /ʃ/-voiceless stop-liquid clusters
    (a) /ʃpr/:
    (b) /ʃtr/:
    (c) /ʃkr/:
    (d) /ʃpl/:
    (e) /ʃtl/:
    (f) /ʃkl/:
2. /ʃ/, followed by a stop, followed by /v/
    (a) /ʃkv/:
    (b) /ʃtv/:

[13] This is realized as /ʍ/.

   (c) /ʃdv/:
3. /ʑ/-voiced stop-/r/ clusters
   (a) /zbr/:
   (b) /zdr/:
   (c) /zgr/:
4. /v/ followed by a stop, followed by a liquid:
   (a) /vtr/:
   (b) /vdr/:
   (c) /vkr/:
5. /v/ followed by /ʃ/, followed by a liquid or a voiceless stop:
   (a) /vʃr/:
   (b) /vʃt/:
   (c) /vʃk/:
   (d) /vʃp/:
6. Stop followed by /ʃ/ followed by /t/, /t͡s/ or /t͡ʃ/:
   (a) /bʃt͡ʃ/:
   (b) /bʃt͡s/:
   (c) /bʃt/:
   (d) /pʃt͡ʃ/:
   (e) /pʃt͡ʃ/:
   (f) /pʃt/:
   (g) /kʃt͡ʃ/:
   (h) /kʃt͡ʃ/:
   (i) /kʃt/:

2.3.3 Nucleus

2.3.4 Coda

2.4 Consonant Alternations

A large part of consonant palatalization in Iridian is due to palatalization, with a coda consonant getting in contact with /j/, an unrounded front vowel, or a /j/-glide.

2.4.1 Simple palatalization

2.4.2 Palatalization

Iridian consonants can either be hard (**suhne**) or soft (**gem**). Consonants are hard by default but become soft when followed by the vowels **i** or **í**. The vowel **y** is normally used to indicate non-palatalizing /i/, although it is used to indicate palatalization word-finally or before **i**.

The use of *-y* is a remnant of word final short **i* from Old Iridian that has since disappeared. The same process has caused the shortening of long **i* to /ɪ/. This sound change did not distinguish between palatalizing and

non-palatalizing **i* so that **seni* 'tooth' and **seny* 'blanket' both merged to modern Iridian *seny* /sɛɲ/.

Softening involves palatal articulation of labial consonants (e.g., **be** [bɛ] vs **bie** [bʲɛ]) or the change to a palatal consonant for non-labials (e.g., **te** [tɛ] vs **tie** [cɛ]). Table 2.8 shows how non-labials are affected by palatalization in Iridian.

Table 2.8: Soft and Hard Consonants

SERIES	HARD		SOFT	
	Unvoiced	Voiced	Unvoiced	Voiced
***t** series*	**t** [t]	**d** [d]	**ty, ti** [c]	**dy, di** [ɟ]
***k** series*	**k** [k]	**g** [g]	**ky, ki** [c]	**gy, gi** [ɟ]
***s** series*	**s** [s]	**z** [z]	**sy, si** [ɕ]	**zy, zi** [ʑ]
***š** series*	**sz** [ʃ]	**zs** [ʒ]	**szy, -i** [ɕ]	**zsy, -i** [ʑ]
***c** series*	**c** [t͡s]	**dz** [d͡z]	**cy, ci** [tɕ]	**dzy, -i** [dʑ]
***č** series*	**cs** [t͡ʃ]	**dc** [d͡ʒ]	**csy, -i** [t͡ɕ]	**dcy, -i** [d͡ʑ]
***h** series*	**h** [x]	—	**hy, hi** [ç]	—
***n** series*	—	**n** [n]	—	**ny, ni** [ɲ]
***l** series*	—	**l** [l]	—	**ly, li** [ʎ]

Note how sounds produced using the same manner of articulation merge to the corresponding palatal consonant, keeping the voiced/voiceless distinction, such that both sibilant pairs *s-z* and *sz-zs* soften to /ɕ ʑ/, the plosive pairs *k-g* and *t-d* to /c-ɟ/, and the affricates *c-dz* and *cs-dc* to /t͡ɕ d͡ʑ/.[14] Some dialects, however may realize soft *cs-dc* as /c ɟ/.

2.4.3 Mutation of labials

2.4.4 Mutation of dentals and velars

(28) /k/ and /g/

k~c	*Marek* 'Marek'	*Marcie* 'Marek-GEN'
k~č		
g~ž		

14 This merger and word-final devoicing results, for example, to *-ety*, *-edy*, *-eky*, and *-egy* all being pronounced as /ɛc/

The sibilants *s*, *z*, *š* and *ž* and the sibilant affricates *c* and *č* assimilate when forming a cluster, whether in morpheme boundaries or morpheme-internally.

Table 2.9: Assimilation of sibilant clusters.

CLUSTER	EXAMPLES
s + š	[ɕ]
š + c or č	[ɕt͡ɕ]
	[ɕt]

2.5 Vowel Alternations

2.6 Other Phonological Processes

2.7 Phonological Processes

Vowel~zero alternations refer to an extensive series of morphophonological changes in Iridian causing certain vowels to disappear in certain contexts. Vowels that alternate with zero (i.e., that disappear in certain morphological contexts) are said to be *unstable* vowels.

Below is a comprehensive list of environments that trigger vowel zero alternations. Here C represents any phonologically permitted consonant or consonant cluster, V a short vowel and VV a long vowel or a diphthong,

_cvcvc stems

The final V is generally unstable in the following environments

1. Stem has the same vowels. Examples: *daman* → *damna* 'lips'; *ploit* → *poilte* 'pancake'; *poviasztak* → *poviesztkam* 'I ate'
2. V_2 is a short vowel. Examples: *zsedym* → *zsedme* 'beard'; *elaim* → *elme* 'fog'
3. Stressed vowels and most loanwords do not follow this rule. Examples *majoniez* → *majonieza* 'mayonaise' but *mobil* → *mubla* 'phone'

4. Where the deletion would cause the resulting consonant to be geminated or to be a voiced/unvoiced pair of the same consonant, the preceding vowel is lengthened. In the case of voiced/unvoiced pairs, only the voiced consonant is kept. Example: *uidet* → *úide*
5. The presence of a soft consonant in the last or the penultimate consonant position normally inhibit vowel~zero alternation.

Stem-final vowel~zero alternation

Suffix-initial vowel~zero alternation

1. _CVCVC or _CVVCVC stems. The final V is generally unstable in the below contexts
2.
3. Suffix-initial vowel~zero alternation

2.7.3 Vowel~vowel alternation

Vowel~vowel alternations form an integral part of Iridian morphophonology. These changes can be grouped into two broad categories: (1) pluralizing ablaut, which involves the raising or fronting of stem vowels to form the plural of most native nouns and (2) marginal apophony involving the vowels /ɛ/ and /ɔ/.

The first category is one of the most common processes in Iridian, used in the formation of marked plurals. In general, it involves the fronting of back vowels (e.g., o to oi), the raising of low front vowels (ai to oi) and the diphthongization of high front vowels. This change does not affect vowel length, so that long vowels remain long and short vowels remain short. This process is discussed in detail in the chapter on nouns.

The second category involves the short vowels /ɔ/ and /ɛ/, and in ome cases /ɐ/. This class of changes is normal observed in the following:

1. In _VC final words, where C is a soft consonant, if followed by a consonat final suffix, or if metathesis or vowel~zero alternation causes the deletion of the initial vowel of the suffix /ɐ ɛ ɔ/ become /ɛ ɪ ʊ/. The soft consonant remains as soft, although this is not reflected in the orthography

(29) a. +sztraty + ak → szovtretka (I) walked

2. Short /ɔ/ in a stable position alternates with /ʊ/ and short /ɛ/ is a stable position after a soft consonant with /ɪ/, when followed by a voiced plosive after the deletion of an unstable vowel.

(30) a. *lobek* 'apple' → *lubka* 'apple-PAT'

b. *hotel* 'hotel' → *hotela* 'hotel-PAT'

3. In _PaC final words, where C is a voiceless obstruent (either phonemically or because of assimilation) or a nasal, /ɐ/ becomes /ɛ/ and /ɛ/ becomes

/ɪ/ and the voiceless consonant is voiced when followed by a vowel-initial suffix.

(31) a. *szviad* 'star' → *szvieda* 'star-PAT'
b. *pian* 'fire' → *piena* 'fire-PAT'

(32) a. *miet* 'pot' → *mida* 'pot-PAT'
b. *máliek* 'bonfire' → *máliga* 'bonfire-PAT'

2.7.4 Reduplication

Reduplication is a process whereby the stem or a part of the stem of a word, or the word itself is repeated with little or no change.

Reduplication is only partially productive in Iridian. Most reduplicated noun forms, for example, have fossilized meanings.

(33) Initial reduplication (CV- prefix)
bórž 'thunder' → *bóbórž* 'rumbling sound'
maná 'to drop' → *mamaná* 'to splatter'

(34) Final reduplication (-CV and -CCV suffixes)
bórž 'thunder' → *bóbórž* 'rumbling sound'
maná 'to drop' → *mamaná* 'to splatter'

Full reduplication is more common than either initial or final-syllable reduplication, although it is limited (in general) to monosyllabic words with CV, VC or CVC structures.

A possibly grammatically meaningful usage of full reduplication is the repetition of words when answering yes-no questions. Iridian usually do not use the words for 'yes' or 'no' when responding to yes-no questions, instead repeating the verb.

2.7.5 Metathesis

slot a infixes

Slot A prefixes (grammatical voice and copulative form) metathesize the root when the onset is a cluster of two or more consonants subject to the below rules. In the examples we assume a affix of the type ʔ**VC**. The glottal stop is deleted when the infix is added. The subscripts *n* and *s* are used to for phonemes relating to the infix and the stem respectively.

1. Liquid-final clusters: $C_sLV_s + ʔV_nC_n \rightarrow C_sV_nLC_sV_n$
trápe 'cloud' → **turtápe** 'cloudy'
tresz 'write (ST)' → **torveszé**
szran 'drink (ST) → **szirnaná**
2. Nasal-final clusters: $C_sNV_s + ʔV_nC_n \rightarrow C_sV_nNC_sV_n$

dnoja ‘money’ → **duntoja** ‘rich’

2.8 Prosody

Stress is not phonemic and generally falls on the penultimate syllable of a word, whether the word is simple, derived or compound. For longer words, secondary stress may be placed on each even-numbered syllable counting backwards from the penultimate one.

(35) a. *študent*, ‘student’
[ˈɕtuðɛnt]

b. *študenta*, ‘student’ (pat.)
[ɕtuˈðɛnta]

c. *študentrád*, ‘university dormitory’
[ɕtuˈðɛntraːt]

A primary exception includes a small class of interjections (most, but not all, of them onomatopoeic), where the stress is placed on the last syllable.

(36) a. *ahá*, [ɐˈxaː]

b. *kabúm*, [k͡xɐˈbuːm]

Loanwords whose stress pattern is different than this general rule are often (but not always) assimilated:

(37) a. *vizika*, ‘physics’
[vɨˈzɪxɐ]

b. *matématik*, ‘mathematics’
[mɐˌteːmɐˈtɪx]

In addition, the enclitic interrogative particle *no* and inclitic pronouns in general do not affect the location of the stress.

(38) a. *koma*, ‘good’
[ˈk͡xɔmɐ]

b. *Koma-no?*, ‘Is (it) good?’
[ˈk͡xɔmɐˌnɔ] instead of [k͡xɔˈmanɔ]

(39) a. *kvartir*, ‘apartment’
[ˈʍartɨɻ]

b. *kvartirem*, ‘my apartment’
[ˈʍartɨˌrɛ̃w̃] instead of [ʍarˈtɪrɛ̃w̃]

2.9 Orthographic representation

2.9.1 Alphabet

The Iridian language uses the Latin script with the following 29 letters: **a, b, c, č, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, š, t, u, v, w, x, y, z, ž**.

Table 2.10: The Iridian alphabet.

SYMBOL	NAME	IPA	SYMBOL	NAME	IPA
A a	á	/a/	**O o**	ó	/ɔ/
B b	bé	/b/	**P p**	pé	/p/
C c	cét	/t͡s/	**Q q**	kvé	–
Č č	ča	/t͡ɕ/	**R r**	er	/r/
D d	dé	/d/	**S s**	es	/s/
E e	é	/e/	**Š š**	éš	/ɕ/
F f	fí	–	**T t**	té	/t/
G g	gé	/g/	**U u**	ú	/u/
H h	há	/x/	**V v**	vé	/v/
I i	í	/i/	**W w**	vének	–
J j	jýt	/j/	**X x**	iks	–
K k	ká	/k/	**Y y**	ýpsýĺon	/y/
L l	el	/l/	**Z z**	zet	/ʑ/
M m	em	/m/	**Ž ž**	žes	/ʑ/
N n	en				

The language was originally written in its own script but after the Latin alphabet has been adapted and has been in use since the First Bohemian Union in the 14th century. Due to the historical ties with the Kingdom of Bohemia and its historical successors, Czech orthography has had a great influence on the orthography of Iridian.

The last major change in the orthography of the language was during the 1843 reform, when the spellings <h> and <ch>, historically representing the phonemes /h/ and /x/ have been merged to <h> (representing /x/), as the language lost the distinction between the two.

-ch still used at the end of a word

Iridian uses two types of diacritics, the acute accent (´), which is used to mark long vowels, and the circumflex accent (^) used to mark nasal vowels. Accented characters are not considered as separate letter.

Table 2.11: Supplementary characters used in Iridian.

SYMBOL	NAME	IPA	NAME IN IPA
Á á	nečko á	/aː/	[ˈnɛtɕ͡kɔʔaː]
Ą ą	á še možu	/ɐ̃w̃/	[aːʃɨˈmɔʑu]
É é	nečko é	/eː/	[ˈnɛtɕ͡kɔʔeː]
Ę ę	é še možu	/ɛ̃w̃/	[eːʃɨˈmɔʑu]
Í í	nečko í	/iː/	[ˈnɛtɕ͡kɔʔiː]
Ó ó	nečko ó	/oː/	[ˈnɛtɕ͡kɔʔoː]
Ǫ ǫ	ó še možu	/õ/	[oːʃɨˈmɔʑu]
Ú ú	nečko ú	/uː/	[ˈnɛtɕ͡kɔʔuː]
Ý ý	nečko ýpsílǫ	/yː/	[ˈnɛtɕ͡kɔʔːˈyːpsiːˌlõ]
Ÿ ÿ	ýpsílǫ še trému	/y/	[ˈyːpsiːˌlɔnɕɨˈtɾɛːmɐ]

3

VERBS

3.1 Introduction

Verbs in Iridian are heavily marked. There is a tendency to encode most of the information contained in the sentence on the verb leaving the noun or noun phrase unmarked if possible.

Finite verbs are marked for the following grammatical categories:

1. *Aspect*. Iridian has three primary aspects: perfective, imperfective and contemplative; and two secondary ones: retrospective and prospective.
2. *Voice*. Iridian has a strong tendency to leave the topic of the sentence unmarked, instead encoding the primary information on the verb. Due to this, voice must be explicitly marked on the verb. Iridian has the following grammatical voices: agentive, patientive, benefactive, instrumental, locative and reflexive.
3. *Mood*. Besides the unmarked indicative, Iridian has the following grammatical moods: subjunctive, conditional, hortative, optative, abilitative, permissive and non-volitive. In addition, secondary prefixes are used to express what would otherwise could be considered as moods: inceptive, causative and reciprocative.

Verbs are also marked for person, although this is done by the addition of clitic pronouns and not through a separate conjugation paradigm. In most cases, however, this is left out, especially if clear from the context. Iridian verbs are not marked for tense, gender, or number.

Iridian verbs have four classes of non-finite forms: the gerund, the converb, the supine and the generic nominal formed with **-ou**. The non-finite verb forms are derived from the uninflected verb stem except the generic nominal in **-ou** which can only be formed from a fully-inflected verb stem. A fifth class exists–the infinitive–but this form is largely defunct and is only used in certain compound constructions. Infinitives end in **-á** and is used as the citation form of a verb.

3.2 Verb stem and citation form

The citation form (or dictionary form) of a verb is the uninflected infinitive, a fossilized form rarely used outside of a very few periphrastic construction.

The infinitive ends with the vowel *-á*, and removing this ending will produce the verb stem. The final consonant of the stem determines the conjugation paradigm the verb follows.

In general the classification of the verb stems is based on how they behave in two phonemic environments: (1) before a phoneme that triggers palatalization such as *-e-*, *-é-*, *-i-* or *-í-* or a *jod*-glide; and (2) before a spirant or an affricate.

3.2.1 Type I conjugation (c/č)

Type I verbs include those whose stems end in *-t*, *-k*, *-c*, *-č*,

3.2.2 Type II conjugation (z/ž)

Type II verbs include those whose stems end in *-d*, *-g*, *-z*, *-ž*,

3.2.3 Type III conjugation (s/š)

Type II verbs include those whose stems end in *-d*, *-g*, *-z*, *-ž*,

3.2.4 Type IV conjugation

Type II verbs include those whose stems end in *-d*, *-g*, *-z*, *-ž*,

3.2.5 Type V conjugation

Type II verbs include those whose stems end in *-d*, *-g*, *-z*, *-ž*,

3.3 Voice

Iridian often prefers to encode information on the verb instead of through case marking on nouns. As such, all verbs must be explicitly marked for voice.

Table 3.1: Suffixes used to mark grammatical voice.

	ENDING
Agentive	-aš-
Patientive	-in-
Benefactive	-éb-
Locative	-á-
Instrumental	-
Reflexive	-
Reciprocal	

3.3.1 Agentive voice

The agentive voice is used if the subject of the verb is the agent of the action.

(1) *Sa piaščeк.*
already eat-AV-PF
'(I) already ate.'

The affix *-aš-* assimilates to the consonant ending the root, with the vowel /ɐ/ normally dropped, subject to the following rules:

- č: for roots ending with c, č, k, t
  - jelcá + -aš- → jelč-, 'to dance'
  - zdieká + -aš- → zdíč-, 'to blow'
  - piaštá + -aš- → piašč-, 'to eat'
- z: for roots ending with b, l, m, n, r[1]
- ž: for roots ending with d, g, z, ž
  - baž- + -aš- → báž-, 'to give'
  - stojá + -aš- → stóž-, 'to go'
- š: for all other endings[2]

Where the assimilation involves the deletion of the final consonant in the root, the preceding vowel is lengthened in compensation if the resulting root would then end in an open syllable.

(2) *Udúšek.*
(instead of **udušek*)
'(I) took a shower.'

(3) *Piašček.*
(not **piášček.*)
'(I) ate.'

If the remnant vowel is the i-glide *-ie-* or the diphthongs *-ei-* and *-ou-*, the remaining vowel would simplify to *í*, *í* and *ú*, respectively. Consider for example the verb *zdieká* 'to blow':

(4) *Lest zdičalí.*
wind blow-AV-PROG
'The wind is blowing.'

Nevertheless the vowel [ɐ] in the root resurfaces in the following cases:

- Verbs ending in -irná:
- Verb root ending in a consonant cluster with a final liquid, nasal, or v

1 This change does not involve the deletion of the final consonant in the root.

2 *-h* + *-aš-* , *-s* + *-aš-* and *-š* + *-aš-* both simplify to *-š-*, while the rest retain the final consonant.

3.3.2 Patientive focus

A verb in the patient focus (glossed PAT) indicates that the topic of the sentence is the patient of the verb.

(5) *Marek vindekem.*
Marek <PV>see-PF-1S
'I saw Marek.'

3.3.3 Benefactive focus

The benefactive focus (glossed BEN) is used when the subject of the sentence is the benefactor or director object of the verb. Verbs often change meaning when used in the benefactive focus.

(6) *Mač sega nazdébik.*
mother flower-PAT buy-BEN-PF
'(I) bought my mother flowers.'

(7) *Kova piaštébalí.*
cow eat-BEN-PROG
'(I am) feeding the cows.'

The benefactive is also used idiomatically with verbs of judgment including *novietá* 'to like'

(8) *Dá čehóvám zánovítébál.*
1S sports-AGT NEG-like-BEN-PROG
'I don't like sports.'

3.3.4 Locative Focus

(9) *Jé kopnažalíc.*
you laugh-LOC-PROG-3S.ANIM
'He is laughing at you.'

3.3.5 Instrumental Focus

3.3.6 Reflexive Voice

The reflexive voice (glossed REF) is used when the patient of the verb is also the agent of the action. Morphogically, the reflexive voice is not a separate voice but is derived from the agentive form of the verb and the addition of the prefix *u(d)-*.

(10) *Na šarta uvižkem.*
LOC mirror-PAT REF-see-AV-PF-1S
'I saw myself in the mirror.'

The use of the reflexive voice is more extensive in Iridian than in English, and is somehow similar to how the reflexive construction is used in Romance languages.

(11) *Uštižek.*
REF-take:a:bath-AV-PF
'(I) took a bath.'

(12) *Umúšalí.*
REF-comb-AV-PROG
'(I) am combing my hair.'

Below is a non-exhaustive list of verbs that are normally used in the reflexive voice:

dušá 'to take a shower'
mušá 'to comb'
šaštá 'to sit down'

Some verbs may change meaning when used in the reflexive voice.

The reflexive voice is also used to imply that an action happened accidentally or involuntary or that the agent of the action is unknown or unimportant.

The reflexive voice may also be used emphatically, especially in spoken Iridian, to express that the action has been performed for the benefit of the actor/agent of the verb.

(13) *Kávéa ušranzącem.*
coffee-PAT REF-drink-AV-CTPLV-1S
'I'll drink coffee.' (literally, I'll drink myself coffee)

(14) *Pulša uvošček.*
soup-PAT REF-cook-AV-PF
'(I) cooked (me) some soup.'

The differences

3.4 Grammatical Aspect

3.4.1 Perfective aspect

The perfective aspect (glossed PF) indicates an action that has been completed in some specific instance.

(15) *Bych na gnaža Marek vdinek.*
yesterday LOC school-PAT Marek see-PV-PF
'(I) saw Marek at school yesterday.'

Table 3.2: Aspect markers in the indicative mood.

ASPECT	AFFIX
Perfective	*-ek*
Retrospective	*-aní*
Imperfective	*-'al*
Progressive	*-alí*
Contemplative	*-ach/-ah*[3]
Prospective	*-il*

(16) *Vaško piaštnek.*
pastry eat-PV-PF
'(I) ate (the) cake.'

The vowel in the suffix is unstable and the ending would normally collapse to **-k** when followed by another vowel. Consider the above two sentences followed by the second person singular clitic pronoun **-aš/eš**.

(17) *Bych na gnazsa Marek vindekeš.*
yesterday LOC school-PAT Marek <PV>see-PV-PF-2S
'You saw Marek at school yesterday.'

(18) *Vaško piniaštkaš.*
pastry <PV>eat-PF-2S
'You ate (the) cake.'

When negated, the perfective indicates something that ought to be done but had not been done. To state that something simply did not happen, the negative of the retrospective is used instead.

(19) *Zátélévonirnašek.*
NEG-telephone-AV-PF
'(I) failed to call.'

(20) *Zátélévonirnašaní.*
NEG-telephone-AV-RET
'(I) didn't call.'

3.4.2 Retrospective aspect

The retrospective aspect (glossed RET) is used for a past action that has a continuing relevance in the presence. Consider, for example, the following sentences: (a) *I went to Amsterdam last week*; and (b) *I have been to France in my childhood*. Iridian would translate the verb in (a) using the perfective and the verb in (b) using the retrospective.

(21) *Hroná tímu na Budapešta možlašaním.*
three year-INST LOC Budapest-PAT live-AV-RET-1S
'I have been living in Budapest for three years.'

(22) *Páku šavolnaníc.*
before-INST hurt-PV-PF-3S.ANIM
'She has been hurt before.'

The retrospective is also often used to imply non-volition or the accidental/circumstantial nature of an action. Similarly the retrospective is used with verbs of emotion or state (e.g., *cezuštalá*, 'to become happy' from *zuštal* 'happy'). The perfective, on the other hand, is almost exclusively used with the causative in these cases.

(23) a. *Vdešek še neicezuštalašaním.*
see-2S-PF with INCEP-be.happy-AV-RET-1S
'I became happy when I saw you.'

b. *Do pacezuštalnikeš.*
1S.WK CAUS-be.happy-PV-PF-2S
'You made me happy.'

(24) *Váz noprizaní.*
vase break-REF-RET
'The vase broke (accidentally).'

3.4.3 Continuous and progressive aspects

Iridian uses the continuous and progressive aspects to denote actions that have not been completed yet and/or are in the process of happening/occuring. The continuous aspect (glossed CONT) is used to mark a state of being while the progressive aspect (glossed PROG) is used to mark a dynamic activity.

(25) *Nau urištnál.*
clothes REF-wear-PV-CONT
'(I'm) wearing clothes.'

(26) *Nau urištnalí.*
clothes REF-wear-PV-PROG
'(I'm) putting on clothes.'

The continuous aspect is also used to denote a habitual action.

(27) *Sholu de gnaža stožál.*
daily-INST ILL school-PAT go-AV-CONT
'(We) go to school everyday.'

(28) *Dá na Praha možlál.*
1s.STR LOC Prague-PAT live-CONT
'I live in Prague.'

To emphasize the habitual nature of an action, a nominalized construction is often used.

(29) *Nažem rącenálou.*
friend-1s smoke-CONT-NZ
'My friend is a smoker.'

3.4.4 Prospective aspect

The prospective aspect (glossed PROSP) is primarily used in secondary clauses to indicate actions that are about to be started in relation to another action. It can also be used in the main clause to indicate an action in the immediate future.

3.4.5 Cessative aspect

3.5 Secondary Verbal Prefixes

3.5.1 The reciprocative so-

The reciprocative prefix *so-* is used with the agentive voice to indicate that an action is performed by the agent and the patient on each other.

(30) *Karlu sodalšalím še Marek scenžek.*
Karel-INST REC-talk-AV-PROG-1s with Marek arrive-AV-PF
'Karel and I were talking when Marek arrived.'

(31) *Ože na konzerta-no sovyžek?*
3PL.ANIM.STR LOC concert-PAT=Q REC-see-AV-PF
'Did they see each other during the concert?'

The use of the reciprocative inherently implies plurality on the part of the subject (the agent-patient pair). Since Iridian does not often grammaticalize plurality, this means the reciprocative usually won't require additional consideration as to the agreement of the constituents of the sentence; it does, however, mean that this form cannot be used with the singular form of pronouns (since pronouns formally distinguishes between singular and plural) and that most countable nouns would require the use of the particle *nie* or an explicit quantifier.

(32) *To na hruma šebou sokonížek.*
DEM.PROX LOC church-PAT parents REC-wed-AV-PF
'My parents were married in this church.'

(33) *Nie senátor sožubalšalí to na televiza vyžčem.*
PL senator REC-shout-AV-PROG RZ LOC televiion-PAT see-AV-PF-1S
'I saw the senators shouting at each other on tv.'

Where the agent and the patient are syntactically distinct, the agent is usually presented as the topic of the sentence and the patient is marked in the comitative (i.e., *še* + instrumental). Since the action itself is reciprocal, which gets marked as the agent is purely a pragmatic choice. Where one of the members of the agent-patient pair is a pronoun, preference is given to marking the pronoun as the agent (in which case *še* is normally ommitted, but with the patient remaining in the instrumental case).

(34) *Mišek še Martinu sohévoržál.*
Mišek COM Martin-INST REC-know-AV-PROG
'Mišek and Martin know each other.'

(35) *Já Mišku sohévoržál.*
2S.STR Mišek-INST REC-talk-AV-PROG
'You and Mišek know each other.'

3.6 Valency

Valency (or valence) is the number of overt arguments a verb can take in a sentence. Tesnière (1965: 239), in one of the earliest description of the concept, likens valency by comparing it to bonds between atoms:

> The verb may therefore be compared to a sort of atom, susceptible to attracting a greater or lesser number of actants,[4] according to the number of bonds the verb has available to keep them as dependents. The number of bonds a verb has constitutes what we call the verb's valency.

More rigorous treatments[5] have of course been published in the years since but we should content ourselves with this definition in our present treatment of Iridian grammar. Instead our primary focus would e

[4] In his work Tesnière used the term *actants* to refer to what we would call here the verb's 'arguments.'

[5] Tesnière's (1959) definition of valency as 'nombre d'*actants* qu'un verbe est susceptible de régir' ('number of *actants* which a verb is capable of governing') essentially frames valency as a function of the verb. More recent definitions however consider valency not just as a property of verbs alone but of any lexical item (cf., e.g., Matthews 1997; Trask 1993). In addition, in his glossary, he has provided voice (Fr. *voix*) as a synonym for valency; these two terms however we consider as distinct items both in this work and in what I think is the usage of both terms in scholarly literature over the topic.

3.6.1 Avalent verbs

Avalent verbs are verbs that have zero core arguments. In Iridian they are limited to a small set of verbs that describe meteorological phenomena, often simply referred to as 'weather verbs.'.[6] When used this way they are marked in the agentive voice and essentially forms topicless sentences (cf. §7.4). Some common weather verbs in Iridian are listed below.

(36) *hravá*, 'to have the sun shine'
žužá, 'to snow'
pozbiešá, 'to rain'
néšá, 'to rain lightly, to drizzle'
boboržá, 'to have thunder'
kopriká, 'to have lightning'
dozbuhá, 'to have an earthquake'

3.6.2 Passive Constructions

3.6.3 Causative Constructions

A causative construction is formed by the prefix *(*ne-)

Causatives may either be lexical, analytical or morphological. Lexical causatives involve the encoding of the causation on the verb itself leading the causative form of the verb to be a different form altogether. An analytical causative, on the other hand uses a different verb (usually a verb like *to do* or *to make*) in conjunction with the main verb, to express the idea of causation (e.g., English 'make someone do something.') Finally, morphological causatives involve morphologically changing the main verb to express the notion of causation.

Due to this suppletive nature, lexical causatives imply a more direct causation, or a tighter link between cause and event[7], than analytical or morphological causatives (Velupillai 2012; Haiman 1983). Consider for example the three sentences in English below:

(37) a. Joseph *died*.
b. Joseph *killed* the man.
c. Joseph *made* the man *die.*

6 This term is misleading, as we see in example the example, as the class includes not just meteorological phenomena but more general natural phenomena as well.

7 Haiman (1983) offers a thorough discussion of how the linguistic distance exhibited by the forms of causative constructions existing in a language (e.g., *to cause to die* on one end of the spectrum versus *to kill* on the other) correspond to the conceptual distance between the action of the causer and the result of the action to the causee. In a purely synthetic construction like *kill*, for example, where the linguistic distance is the least, the conceptual distance between the action and the resulting state is also the smallest, with the opposite being true in purely analytical constructions like *to cause to die*.

Table 3.3: Causative forms of the verb *shradá*, 'to die.'

	CAUSATIVE	REGULAR MEANING	CAUSATIVE MEANING
unmarked	neshradá	to die, to be dead	*(defective)*
Agentive	*neshrážá*	to kill	to cause someone to kill
Patientive	*neshradiná*	to be killed	to be caused to be killed
Benefactive	*neshradébá*	to have someone die for oneself	to have someone be killed for oneself
Locative	*neshradouná*	to have someone related die	*(defective)*
Instrumental	*doneshradouná*	to be the reason for dying	to to be used for killing
Reflexive	*uneshražá*	to kill oneself	to cause one to commit suicide

The suppletive *kill* in example (37b) implies more agency on the part of the subject than the more indirect-sounding (37c). In (37b) the *death* of the patient ('the man') is the goal of the act while (37c) it might be inferred that the *dying* was an indirect consequence of an unmentioned second act.

Iridian does not employ lexical causatives as in English; instead causatives are formed morphologically by adding the prefix *ne-* (glossed as CAUS) to the verb stem. Although *ne-* is required to form the causative morphologically, some verbs, particularly stative verbs like *shradá*, 'to die, to be dead' in table 3.3 may already contain the notion of causation in some of its regular conjugated forms. This is because by default stative verbs are intransitive (i.e., the only argument required is the actor/agent) while some verbal voices like the patientive and benefactive inherently imply the existence of a second and a third argument of a verb respectively.

Of course Iridian's definition of which verbs are stative and which ones are dynamic does not neatly align with the definition those classes have in English (v. § XX). For instance the verbs *to stand* and *to eat* are both dynamic verbs in English, while in Iridian *zdavá*, 'to stand, to be standing' is stative and only *piaštá*, 'to eat' is dynamic. This is why as we see in example ([statdyn.1]) below, some forms of the verb *zdavá* already contain the notion of causation in some of its regular conjugated forms.

(38) a. *zdavá*, 'to be standing'
zdavá, 'to stand'
zdavná, 'to be made standing, to erect'
nezdavžá, 'to make so./sth. stand'

nezdavná, 'to be made to make so./sth. standing'

b. *piaštá*, 'to eat'
piaštiná, 'to be eaten'
nepiaščá, 'to make someone eat'

Since causative constructions in Iridian are purely morphological[8] the degree of agency of the causer can be implied from other incidental properties of the verb such as aspect or voice markings.

We pay particular attention first on the interaction of the causative prefix *ne-* with the patientive voice marker *-in* and the benefactive voice marker *-éb*. We begin with stative verbs, since as mentioned earlier and in § XX, most stative verbs will have a causative reading when used with the agentive or benefactive voice. Stative verbs encode the state of the subject and cannot therefore express the idea of an agent nor that of a patient. By conjugating stative verbs for voice, their stative nature is therefore lost; that is why a causative cannot be derived from the unmarked form of a stative verb: a causative construction precludes the existence of a causer and a causee, which at times may be different from the subject, while the unmarked stative only that of the subject itself.

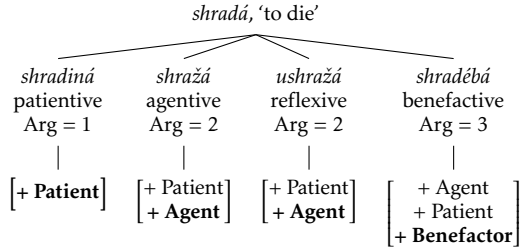


Figure 3.1: Voice markings as valence operations
in stative verbs. The number of elements includes all those required to create a well-formed sentence notwithstanding Iridian's tendency to drop elements that can be implied from context, with the element in bold representing whichever element is most likely to surface in speech.

We see in figure 3.1 that this causative reading of the patientive voice with stative verbs is due to properties of stative verbs and not of the patientive voice. We know this is true since this causative reading of the patientive does not exist with non-stative verbs, which are transitive by default in Iridian.

8 To contrast, consider Japanese which also forms causative constructions morphologically (using the suffix *-(sa)se*) but which in addition also has synthetic but not fully suppletive forms for some verbs (e.g., *agaru*, 'to rise' and *ageru*, 'to raise').

(39) a. **Mámka prehlavnik.*
mother buy-PV-PF
'*I bought my mother.'

b. *Mámka zuštalnik.*
mother happy-PV-PF
'I made my mother happy.'

The patientive voice only requires a patient as argument; however since this argument does not exist in stative constructions, the role of an agent must first be created for the subject of the stative construction to be able to occupy the role of the patient in the patientive voice. Essentially this means that conjugating a stative verb for the patientive voice is equivalent to creating a biclausal causative construction where the subject becomes the causee and the state the action brought about by the (optionally named) causer. This reading is not possible with dynamic verbs because the patientive voice would only shift the role of the patient to that of the topic without having to create a new role for an agent.

As could have been predicted from Haiman's (1983) theory, these indirect forms of the causative express a more direct link between the causer and the action. True morphological causatives, i.e., those formed using the prefix *ne-*, imply that the caused action was brought about by an intermediary.

(40) a. *Váz nopriznek.*
vase break-PV-PF
'I broke the vase.' (on purpose)

b. *Váz nenopriznek.*
vase CAUS-break-PV-PF
'I made someone break the vase.'

If the intermediary appears in the sentence it can be marked either in the genitive or in the patientive. Marking the causee in the genitive is the 'neutral' configuration; using the patientive case on the other hand forms what can be called a *coercive* causative (Shibatani 1990; Lehmann 2006), which in Iridian[9] could imply either of two things: (i) that the act was made without

[9] We can compare this to a similar distinction between a dative causative (formed with the clitic *ni*) and the accusative causative (formed with *o*) in Japanese. Lehmann (2006) calls the former a coercive causative construction while the latter a permissive causative construction. There are two main differences between the Japanese and Iridian systems however. First the coercive causative in Iridian also implies that the agent has effective control over the action or the causee or both, something not necessarily expressed by the Japanese *o*-form; and second, both the patientive and the genitive forms of the causative in Iridian allow 'permissive' readings, as we illustrate later in this section.

More importantly however the genitive form is considered the default or neutral form in

or against the consent of the causee or (ii) the causer had direct control over the action and/or the causee. Such distinction however is not possible if the main verb is in the agentive voice since the patientive marking is reserved for the patient of the verb (and thus marking the causee in the patientive will essentially produce a situation where both the agent and the patient of the verb is marked for the same role, which in this case is the patient.)

(41) a. *Váz Jancie nenopriznek.*
vase Janek-GEN CAUS-break-PV-PF
'(I) made John break the vase.'

b. *Váz Janka nenopriznek.*
vase Janek-PAT CAUS-break-PV-PF
'(I) made John break the vase.'

Nevertheless the degree of control exerted by the causer over the action itself may vary between these constructions.

A common way to formally mark the causer's control or lack thereof in Iridian is the opposition between the retrospective aspect and the perfective aspect. Consider for example the two sentences in Iridian below, both of which have the same general translation in English.

(42) a. *Martin nésta najevec shražek.*
Martin deer-PAT drive-CV die-AV-PF
'Martin ran over a deer.' (He did it on purpose)

b. *Martin nésta najevec shražaní.*
Martin deer-PAT drive-CV die-AV-RET
'Martin ran over a deer.' (It was an accident.)

3.6.4 Reflexive and Reciprocal Constructions

3.7 Grammatical Mood

3.7.1 Indicative

3.7.2 Imperative and Hortative Mood

To form commands and requests, the imperative (glossed IMP) and hortative (HORT) moods are used in Iridian.

The imperative is formed by replacing the infinitive ending *-á* with the voice marker and the imperative ending *-ím*. The imperative cannot be negated with the prefix *zá-*; instead, to form a negative command the prohibitive mood is used (glossed PROH), formed with the suffix *-éma* instead of *-ím*.

Iridian, with the patientive form considered as more 'marked.' The patientive is often used for emphasis, with the genitive construction replacing it where possible, especially in spoken Iridian, even in places where the use of the patientve would have been in better order.

Table 3.4: Conjugation of the verb *piaštá* in the imperative and probihibitive moods.

	IMPERATIVE	PROHIBITIVE
Agentive	*piaščím*	*piaščéma*
Patientive	*piaštním*	*piaštnéma*
Benefactive	*piaštébím*	*piaštébíma*
Locative	*piaštouním*	*piaštouněma*
Instrumental	*dopiaštouním*	*dopiaštounima*
Reflexive	*upiaščím*	*upiaščéma*

The imperative is used to issue a direct command and the prohibitive to "signal a prohibition" (SIL). Verbs in the imperative mood do not require an explicit referent, with the addressee or addressees assumed to be the recipient of the command or prohibition. When the addressee is included, it appears in the vocative case if appearing before the verb or unmarked otherwise.[10] Note that both the imperative and the prohibitive do not distinguish number; thus the same form of the verb will be used when giving a command to multiple addressees and to a single one.

(43) *To hrabním.*
DEM listen-PV-IMP
'Listen to this.'

(44) a. *To hrabním, Marek.*
DEM listen-PV-IMP Marek
'Listen to this, Marek.'

b. *Markó to hrabním.*
Marek-VOC DEM listen-PV-IMP
'Listen to this, Marek.'

(45) *Papír švirkouněma.*
paper write-LV-PROH
'Do not write anything on this sheet of paper.'

When used with verbal adjectives, the suffixes can attach directly to the root without any need for an explicit marker for voice and the addition of a voice marker will in fact change the meaning of the sentence. (The first two sentences below are rather unhelpful given how morphophonemic changes has rendered the imperative form with the voice marker and the

10 A comma is placed between the verb and the addressee if the addressee appears after the verb in the sentence but none if it appears before.

one without of the verb *slouhatá*, 'to be quiet' identical, but cases like this are common and merit attention.)

(46) a. *Nie byló slouháčím.*
PL= child be:quiet-IMP
'Keep quiet, children.'

b. *Nie byló uslouháčím.*
PL= child REF-be:quiet-AV-IMP
'Keep quiet, children.'

(47) a. *Pitár zuštalébím.*
Pitár be:happy-BEN-IMP
'Make Pitár happy!'

b. *Zuštalím.*
be:happy-IMP
'Be happy!'

Due to its directness, the use of the imperative or the prohibitive is considered impolite in most settings, and is often used only when speaking with friends, family or children. This distinction does not exist in the written language, where the imperative is used almost exclusively for these functions. However in signs that give orders or warnings (i.e., "Stop," "Do not enter") where English may sometimes use imperative constructions, Iridian uses modal constructions as they are not seen as direct commands or prohibitions.

(48) *Tak horčkouném a.*
here kill-LV-IMP
'Sign here.'

(49) *Tievnažéma.*
kill-AV-PROH
'Thou shalt not kill.'

3.7.3 Subjunctive

The subjunctive mood (glossed SBJ) is used for actions or events that are not or are not known to be true or factual. The subjunctive is formed using the suffix *-íl*

In addition, the copula has two subjunctive forms, the non-negative *niec* and the negative *vaše*.

Note that the Iridian subjunctive makes neither temporal nor aspectual distinction.

The following are some specific uses of the subjunctive mood in Iridian:

	IMPERATIVE	PROHIBITIVE
Agentive	*piaščka*	*piaščku*
Patientive	*piaštnika*	*piaštniku*
Benefactive	*piaštébka*	*piaštébku*
Locative	*piaštounka*	*piaštounku*
Instrumental	*dopiaštouním*	*dopiaštounima*
Reflexive	*upiaščím*	*upiaščéma*

Table 3.5: Conjugation of the verb *piaštá* in the imperative and probihibitive moods.

Table 3.6: Conjugation of the verb *piaštá* in the subjunctive.

	PERFECTIVE	IMPERFECTIVE
Agentive	piaščíla	piaščíl
Patientive	piaštníla	piaštníl
Benefactive	piaštebíla	piaštebíl
Locative	piaštouníla	piaštouníl
Instrumental	dopiaštebíla	dopiaštebíl
Reflexive	upiaščíla	upiaščíl

jussive/desiderative

The subjunctive is used in indirect constructions of verbs for issuing orders, commanding, exhorting, etc.

(50) *Martin na America žnožíl to čeznašálic.*
Martin LOC America-PAT study-AV-SBJ RZ want-AV-CONT-3S.ANIM
'He wants Martin to study in America.'

(51) *Beatles-že »Yesterday« Marką zášníl to Tunek dálek.*
Beatles-GEN "Yesterday" Marek-AGT sing-PV-SBJ RZ Tunek say-PF
'Tunek told Marek to sing.'

dubitative

The subjunctive is used with verbs expressing doubt, uncertainty or disbelief.

(52) *še*
Beatles-GEN
'Tunek told Marek to sing.'

with verbs expressing emotion

(53) *Marek zašníl to Tunek dálek.*
Marek sing-SBJ.IPF RZ Tunek say-PF
'Tunek told Marek to sing.'

with the conditional mood

The subjunctive is used in the main clause if the verb in the dependent clause is in the conditional *irrealis* mood.

(54) *Dá prezident jenem,*
a
a

expressing judgment

(55) *Zavnočilaš to tévét*
respond-AV-SBJ.IPF-2S RZ important
'It is important that you respond.'

irrealis

3.7.4 Conditional Mood

The conditional mood is used for conditional or hypothetical clauses. The table below shows the conjugation paradigm for the conditional mood for both regular verbs and the copula. The Iridian conditional mood is not a true conditional mood grammatically, since it is marked on the verb in the dependent clause (protasis), instead of the main clause.

Table 3.7: Conjugation paradigm in the conditional mood for regular verbs, the copula and the existential particle *ješ*.

	REGULAR VERBS	COPULA	EXISTENTIAL
Realis	*-ič*	víne	jako
Neg. *Realis*	*-čnie*	ve	neko
Irrealis	*-išče*	jenem	jenem
Neg. *Irrealis*	*-iščenie*	jet	nét

Conditional Realis

The conditional *realis* mood (glossed COND.RL) is used in two ways:

1. In sentences that express a factual implication rather than a hypothetical situation or a potential future event, e.g., 'If you heat water to 100 C, it will boil.'
2. In 'predictive' constructions, i.e., those that concern probable future events.

The conditional *realis* mood requires the verb in the main clause to be in the indicative.

(56) *Nebo 100 céntigrádu nékrasébič ustručnašál.*
water 100 Celcius-INST CAUS-heat-BEN-COND.RL REF-boil-AV-CONT
'If you heat water to 100 C, it will boil.'

(57) *To projekt hlupnič kurvem započnál.*
this project fail-PV-COND.RL job-1S lose-PV-CONT
'If we lose this project, I will lose my job.'

(58) *Nahte štanžič upíčál.*
too:much drink-AV-COND.RL REF-get:drunk-AV-CONT
'If you drink too much, you will get drunk.'

(59) *Mém na prezna víne, dekání byróva stóžka.*
name LOC list-PAT COP.COND.RL dean-GEN office-PAT GO-AV-HORT
'If your name is on the list, please go to the dean's office.'

Conditional Irrealis

The conditional *irrealis* mood (glossed COND.IRR) is used with hypothetical, typically counterfactual, events. The *irrealis* mood requires the main clause to be in the subjunctive.

3.7.5 Hortative

The hortative mood is used for requests. Although Iridian has an imperative form (the unmarked form of the verb), the hortative is normally used in its place. The hortative marker should always appear at the end of the word.

(60) *Jêša mineška.*
door.PAT close-2S-HORT
'Close the door.' *literally*, 'May you close the door.'

To soften a command, the expression *am luhninka* (may someone be thanked for…) is normally used.

(61) *Jêša minkeš ceš am luhninka.*
door-PAT close-PF-2S RZ.ABL because thank-PV-HORT
'Please close the door.' *literally*, 'May (you) be thanked because you closed the door.'

The hortative is used with the reciprocative prefix **so-** to form the adhortative (similar to the English construction with 'Let's + VERB). This construction cannot be used with **am luhninka**.

(62) *sop*
door-PAT
'Please close the door.' *literally*, 'May (you) be thanked because you closed the door.'

3.7.6 Optative

The optative mood (glossed OPT) is used for expressing wishes. The optative mood requires two aspect marking, although the primary ending is marked if it is in the imperfective mood.

3.7.7 Quotative

The quotative mood (glossed QUOT) is used to express secondhand information, or when the speaker wishes to make explicit that s/he did not witness the event himself/herself. This section deals primarily with the morphological properties of the quotative mood. See § 8.5 for a discussion of the syntactical treatment of reported speech in Iridian.

The quotative mood is considered a *secondary* mood in traditional Iridian linguistics since it can only be used in conjunction with other other grammatical moods. The quotative is normally formed with the suffix *-e* in regular verbs, which suppletes the personal pronoun marking (if there are any) in the indicative mood, or word-finally with other moods, subject to the usual morphophonemic changes. Since it must appear as the final suffix at all times, clitic pronouns cannot be used with the quotative.

With the indicatve mood

Where the addition of the quotative suffix *-e* involves the suppletion of a clitic pronoun, the critic pronoun resurfaces elsewhere in the quoted clause, usually in its strong form. Nevertheless, given Iridian's pro-drop tendency, pronouns both in main clauses and in reported clauses are often left out to be inferred from context.

Quotative forms of the copula

Copula Indicative neví hvem Subj nehlí niec
Existential Indicative jeho nežní Subj houve hvaš

3.8 Modality

Iridian can express modality either through verbal morphology, using the affixes listed in table 3.9, or through a periphrastic construction. In general a periphrastic construction is preferred when the verb is non-dynamic, i.e., the sentence is merely descriptive or stative in nature (compare, for example

Table 3.8: Conjugation patterns

	SOUND CHANGE PATTERN	EXAMPLE
Perfective	*-ek → ice*	*piaščekpiaščice*
Retrospective	*-aní → ánie*	piaščaní → *piaščánie*
Imperfective	*-ál → ále*	piaščaní → *piaščánie*
Progressive	*-ál → ále*	piaščaní → *piaščánie*
Contemplative	*-ál → ále*	piaščaní → *piaščánie*
Prospective	*-ál → ále*	piaščaní → *piaščánie*

English 'Mary can sing' vs. 'Mary was able to finish baking the cake'), while the morphological method is used otherwise.

Table 3.9: Verbal affixes to express modality.

MODALITY	MARKING
Debitive	*-al*
Desiderative	*-án*
Potential	*-ét*

The affixes used to mark modality as listed in table 3.9 attach directly to the verb stem, subject to the usual morphophonemic rules.

(63) a. *piaštá*, 'to eat'

b. *piaštalá*, 'to need to eat'

c. *piaštáná*, 'to want to eat'

d. *piaštétá*, 'to be able to eat'

As in most languages, modal constructions in Iridian exhibit significant polysemy (i.e. a single construction can have one or more interpretation depending on the context). For example consider the Iridian sentence *Tomáš rušku zahvirétach*, 'Tomáš will be able to speak Russian,' which is marked in the potential mood. The following translations are all equally possible without any further contextual clues:

(64) a. ‘Tomáš will be able to speak Russian, if he will study it.’ (abilitative)

b. ‘Tomáš will be able to speak Russian because he will be allowed to do it.’ (permissive)

c. ‘Tomáš can speak Russian and he will probably speak it later.’ (true potential modality)

3.8.1 Potential modality

Potential modality (glossed as POT) is used when, in the speaker’s opinion, an event is possible to occur. This definition makes the potential mood in Iridian encompass both the expressions of ability and permissibility.

3.8.2 Periphrastic constructions

3.9 Non-Finite Verb Forms

3.9.1 Gerund

The gerund (glossed GER) refers to the non-finite verb form used as a noun. The gerundive prefix *po-* is always used with the nominalizing suffix *-ou*, both of which are added to the uninflected verb root.

(65) a. *Ščenek.*
forget-PF
‘He forgot (it).’

b. *Ščenekou Jan.*
forget-PF-NZ Jan
‘Jan (is) the one who forgot (it).’

c. *Poščenou nauhlý.*
GER-forget-NZ difficult
‘Forgetting is difficult.’

When nominalizing complex clauses, both the agent and the theme are marked in the genitive, with the agent aways appearing first.

(66) a. *Pášta Janą voštnek.*
pasta Jan-AGT cook-PV-PF
‘Jan cooked (some) pasta.’

b. *Janí páští povoštou*
Jan-GEN pasta-GEN GER-cook-NZ
‘Jan’s cooking of the pasta’

The suffix *-ál*, used to mark the continuous aspect, may be infixed to the gerund to indicate that the action is repetitive.

(67) a. *Jan nidek.*
Jan stand.up-PF
'Jan stood up.'

b. *Janí ponidálou buvec.*
Jan-GEN GER-stand.up-CONT-NZ annoying
'Jan's standing up again and again is annoying.'

3.9.2 Converbs

Converbs (glossed CV) are a non-finite verb form often used for adverbial constructions. There are two converb forms in Iridian: the imperfective *iec* (glossed CV.IPF) and the perfective *-e* (glossed CV.PF).

(68) *Tereza kravniec ce nóve palžek.*
Tereza cry-CV.IPF ABL room-GEN leave-AV-PF
'Tereza left the room crying.'

(69) *Ce nóve palze Tereza neikravnašek.*
ABL room-GEN leave-CV.PF Tereza INCHO-cry-PF
'Having left the room, Tereza started to cry.'

The syntax of converbial constructions and the specific uses of the perfective and imperfective converb form are discussed in detail in Section 8.4

3.9.3 Supine

The supine is a non-finite verb form formed used to indicate necessity or purpose. There are four forms as shown below:

Table 3.10: Endings used for the supine

	SUPINE OF PURPOSE	SUPINE OF NECESSITY
Nominal	*-ity*	*-áš*
Non-nominal	*-ice*	*-ášce*

(70) »*Ána Karenina*« *za gnazsa oštášce ko htoš.*
Anna Karenina for school-PAT read-SUP ATT book
'I have to read *Anna Karenina* for school.'

(71) *Htoš vstuninkem to oštice.*
book buy-mkpv-pf-1s RZ read-SUP
'I bought the book to read.'

The infinitive form of the supine of purpose *-icá* is used with adjectival adverbs:

(72) *Just zacepščsemem to nosiênicá.*
news CAUS-be.sad-1s RZ hear-SUP.INF
'I am sad to hear the news.'

3.10 Stative Verbs

Iridian lacks a distinct class of adjectives.[11] Instead, a special class of verbs called stative verbs are used to modify noun or noun-like classes. Unlike most verbs, however, stative verbs can only be marked for aspect, and optionally for voice. In addition to this base form (called the copulative), stative verbs also have an attributive form (used when the verb is preceding the noun or noun phrase) and nominative form (representing a concrete nominalization of the verb), both of which are absent in non-attributives verbs. Consider for example the verb *všihná* 'to be angry':

(73) a. *Maty všihnál.*
mother to:be:angry-CONT
'Mother is angry.'

b. *Všihní rám télévonirnašek.*
to:be:angry-ATT customer telephone-AV-PF
'An angry customer called.'

c. *Všihnou télévonirnašek.*
to:be:angry-NZ telephone-AV-PF
'An angry person called.'

3.10.1 Copulative Form

The copulative form of a stative verbum

3.10.2 Attributive Form

The attributive form is derived by replacing the infinitive marker *-á* with *-í*. Other than its conjugated comparative form ending in *-ení*, the attributive

(74) *Všihnou télévonirnašek.*
to:be:angry-NZ telephone-AV-PF
'An angry person called.'

11 There is however a small class of attributives, which includes deictics and quantifiers among others, which can function as modifiers. They are different in that these words cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence. They are discussed in detail on Chapter 5.

3.10.3 Nominal Form

The nominal form is derived by replacing the infinitive marker *-á* with the nominalizing suffix *-ou*.

The use of stative verbs in relative and comparative constructions is discussed in detail in Section 7.5

3.11 Derivational Morphology

3.11.1 External Derivation

Loanwords ending in **-ace** from the Latin change the final e to á:

administrace	→	**administracá**	'to administrate'
akuzace	→	**akuzacá**	'to accuse'
diferenzace	→	**diferenzacá**	'to differentiate'
separace	→	**separacá**	'to separate'

Some Latin loanwords are borrowed first from German. Loanwords ending in **-ieren** become **-irná**.

akzeptieren	→	**akceptirná**	'to accept'
konservieren	→	**koncervirná**	'to conserve'
produzieren	→	**producirná**	'to produce'
vandalieren	→	**vandalirná**	'to deface'

3.11.2 Internal Derivation

Table 3.11: Verbal Derivational Affixes

AFFIX	EXAMPLES
nie- + ADJ 'to cause something to become ADJ'	**loš** 'new' → **nielošá** 'to renew' **preseh** 'young' → **niepreshá** 'to rejuvenate' **avic** 'long' → **nieavicá** 'to lengthen' **gem** 'soft' → **niegemá** 'to soften' **vyne** 'dry' → **nievyneá** 'to dry'
ce-[12] + ADJ 'to cause oneself to become ADJ'	**kdavidy** 'clean' → **cekdavicá** 'to take a bath' **rum** 'old' → **cerumá** 'to grow old' **šeznom** 'big' → **cešeznomá** 'to grow up' **vyne** 'dry' → **cevyneá** 'to dry oneself'

continued on the next page

12 Verbs in **ce-** cannot be in the reflexive focus.

Table 3.11: Verbal derivational affixes *(continued)*

AFFIX	EXAMPLES
hó- + NOUN 'to use N in a particular way'	**tvem** 'tongue' → **hótvemá** 'to lick' **kov** 'hammer' → **hóková** 'to hammer' **šeznom** 'big' → **cešeznomá** 'to grow up' **vyne** 'dry' → **cevyneá** 'to dry oneself'
deš- + NOUN 'to act in the manner of N	**tvem** 'tongue' → **hótvemá** 'to lick' **rum** 'old' → **cerumá** 'to grow old' **šeznom** 'big' → **cešeznomá** 'to grow up' **vyne** 'dry' → **cevyneá** 'to dry oneself'
má-iv + NOUN 'to so something usually done in NOUN'	**mrc** 'market' → **mámrcivá** 'to shop' **gnazsa** 'school' → **mágnazsivá** 'to study in' **šeznom** 'big' → **cešeznomá** 'to grow up' **vyne** 'dry' → **cevyneá** 'to dry oneself'
sen-/sem- + VERB 'to VERB incorrectly'	**oštá** 'to read' → **senoštá** 'to misread' **rum** 'old' → **cerumá** 'to grow old' **šeznom** 'big' → **cešeznomá** 'to grow up' **vyne** 'dry' → **cevyneá** 'to dry oneself'

4

NOMINAL MORPHOLOGY

Nominal morphology in Iridian is relatively simpler compared to the corresponding process with verbs. Where possible, Iridian sentences are generally constructed to leave the noun or noun phrase unmarked.

4.1 Grammatical Categories

4.2 Number

Nouns in Iridian are not formally marked for number. Thus the word *byl*, for example, can mean either 'child' or 'children' depending on the context. The same form is used when the noun is preceded by a numeral.

(1) *hroná byl*
three child
'three children'

Nevertheless, Iridian can express semantic plurality by using quantifiers, numerals, pluralizing particles or even through context alone. One such particle is *nie*[1]. *Nie* is a proclitic and attaches to the left-most part of the noun phrase or the verb phrase it modifies.

(2) *nie ša zuštalí byl*
PL= DEM.PROX be:happy-ATT child
'these happy children'

Nie however could be understood to have three distinct uses. The first, as mentioned above, is to mark plurality. Alternatively, *nie* could also be use as an approximative (roughly equivalent to English 'about') when used with cardinal numbers or time expressions or as a honorific expletive to show politeness when used with proper names or with some nouns (mostly related to kinship terms). In its use for approximation, *nie* is interchangeable with *u*, 'about', although it is common in spoken speech to combine the two as an intensified construction. Preference is given to *nie*, however, if the noun being modified is the topic of the sentence and must therefore remain unmarked.

1 Cf. Schachter's treatment of Tagalog pluralizing particle *mga*.

(3) *Nie mlaz-no scenžek?*
HON= brother=Q arrive-AV-PF
'Was my brother the one who arrived?'

(4) *Nie mlaz-no scenžek?*
HON= brother=Q arrive-AV-PF
'Was my brother the one who arrived?'

(5) a. *Nie hroná byl*
APPROX= three child
'about three children'

b. *u hroná bylu*
about three child-INST
'about three children'

c. *u nie hroná bylu*
about APPROX= three child-INST
'about three children'

Note that when used with a cardinal number, *nie* can only be understood to signify approximation, i.e., (5a) can only mean 'about three children' and not 'three children', as the latter would only be translated as *hroná byl* without the clitic *nie*.

As has been earlier mentioned, *nie* is a proclitic and attaches to the left-most part of the noun phrase or verb phrase it modifies, including any modifier no matter how complex but excluding any proposition. In some cases, as can be seen in (b) and (c) below, the use of *nie* to pluralize a noun can imply definiteness.

(6) a. ***nie*** *za byla tóm*
PL= for child-PAT child
'books for children'

b. *za* ***nie*** *byla tóm*
for PL= child-PAT child
'a book for (these) children'

c. ***nie*** *za* ***nie*** *byla tóm*
PL= for PL= child-PAT child
'books for (these) children'

The use of *nie*, however, is largely optional and where plurality can be implied from context, this particle is seen as redundant and is therefore dropped.

(7) *Nie byl zapóček.*
PL child laugh-AV-PF
'The children jumped.'

Nie cannot be used with mass and uncountable nouns, as well as with abstract nouns.

(8) a. **Na duma nie ješ piaštou.*
LOC house PL EXST food
'There is food in the house.'

b. *Na duma tohle ješ piaštou.*
LOC house much EXST food
'There is a lot of food in the house.'

The particle *nie* always precedes the noun it modifies, except in existential clauses where it comes before the existential particle *ješ*[2]. *Nie* can obviously not be used with the negative particle *niho*.

(9) a. *nie bžę*
PL bee
'bees'

b. *Nie ješ bžę.*
PL EXST bee
'There are bees.'

c. **Nie niho bžę.*
PL EXST.NEG bee
'There are no bees.'

Nie cannot be used with a limited number of nouns, mostly referring to paired body parts and related objects, which in the base form is understood to refer to the pair itself and thus cannot be pluralized. If the speaker wishes to explicitly refer to one piece of the pair, the noun *noma* (an obsolete form of the word for one-half, now surviving only in this construction) and the genitive form of the body part.

(10) *Eg zaromnek.*
eyes close-PV-PF
'(He) closed (his) eyes.'

(11) *Pohár dévit.*
eyeglasses dirty
'(Your) eyeglasses are dirty.'

2 The sequence is pronounced as if written níješ [ˈniːjɛɕ]

(12) *Ohví noma utieščál.*
shoe-GEN half REF-lose-AV-CONT
'The other pair of (his) shoe is missing.'

The base form is also used in generic statements where English would normally use the plural.

When used with a proper noun *nie* can be translated with the English construction 'and others'. Note that this is different from the usage of *nie* as a honorific.

(13) *Nie Jancie gnaž uprubížice.*
PL= Janek-GEN school REF-burn-av-pf-quot
'I heard Janek's school burned down.'

(14) *Nie Marek zázdalšek..*
PL= Marek NEG-have:breakfast-av-pf
'Marek and the others did not eat breakfast.'

4.3 Definiteness

Iridian does not have definite or indefinite articles

4.4 Uninflected form

4.5 Agentive case

4.5.1 Agentive of comparison

(15) *Dá Marką tám stroja.*
1S.STR Marek-AGT COMP tall
'Marek is taller than me'

4.6 Patientive case

The patientive case (glossed PAT) is formed by appending the suffix *-a* to the root of the noun, subject to the following sound changes, notably affecting vowel-final roots for the most part:

- Roots ending in e and o replace the final vowel with *-a*: *pivo – piva* 'beer', *malno – malna* 'language', *šuze – šuza* 'judge'
- Roots ending in ó and ou replace the final vowel with *-óva*: *piaštou – piaštóva* 'food', *javó – javóva* 'lizard', *metró – metróva* 'subway'
- Roots ending in a lengthen the final vowel to *-á*: *cigra – cigrá* 'tiger', *husa – husá* 'street'
- Roots ending in á replace the final vowel with *ánie*: *komá – kománie* 'boat', *vietrá – vietránie* 'pants'
- Roots ending in é, ei and i replace the root with *-éna*: *kávé – kávéna* 'coffee', *matei – maténa* 'motorbike'

- Roots ending in í append *na*:
- Roots ending in u or ú append *-ša*:

4.6.1 Direct object

The patientive case is used to mark the direct object of a verb that is in the agentive voice. Note that this usage implies that the direct object is indefinite unless the noun is further qualified (except through a demonstrative).

(16) a. *Vaška piaščem.*
cake-PAT eat-AV-PF-1S
'I ate cake.'

b. *Jedá vaška piaščem.*
that cake-PAT eat-AV-PF-1S
'I ate from that cake.'

c. *Vaško piaštnikem.*
cake eat-PV-PF-1S
'I ate the cake.'

d. *Jedá vaško piaštnikem.*
that cake eat-PV-PF-1S
'I ate that cake.'

e. *Hroná vaške vatá piaščem.*
three cake-GEN slice-PAT eat-PV-PF-1S
'I ate three slices of cake.'

The patientive is also used to mark the direct object when the verb is in the benefactive voice.

(17) *Ša vitamina piaštebik.*
3S.ANIM vitamin-PAT eat-BEN-PF
'(She) made him take (his) vitamins.'

4.6.2 Locative

The patientive is used with the particle *na* to form a compound locative case, which is itself used to indicate a general location.

(18) *Tomáš na byra.*
Tomáš LOC office-PAT
'Tomáš is at the office.'

4.6.3 Patientive of purpose

The patientive is used with the particle *za* to indicate

4.6.4 Lative

The lative is a compound case indicating movement into or to the direction of something. It is formed using the particle *de* and a noun or noun phrase in the patientive case.

4.6.5 Adessive

The adessive is formed when the particle *u* is used with the patientive. This compound case indicates that the noun being modified by the noun in the adessive is near or in the vicinity of the noun in the adessive. The adessive case behaves synactically in the same manner as the locative case with na in all cases.

(19) *Tomáš u byra.*
Tomáš ADE office-PAT
'Tomáš is somewhere near the office.'

The adessive case is also used to approximate time.

(20) *Ovaž u 19 óra.*
dinner ADE 19 hour-PAT
'Dinner is around seven.'

4.7 Genitive case

The genitive (glossed GEN) is formed by appending the suffix -í to the root of a noun.

Due the palatalizing nature of the suffix, the following sound changes must be noted:

- Roots ending in k, h, and t change the final consonant to c and append the glide *-ie* instead: *Marek – Marcie* 'Marek', *avt – avcie* 'car', *duh – ducie* 'head'
- Roots ending in d and g change the final consonant to ž and append the suffix *-e* instead: *vod – vože* 'sister', *seg – sože* 'flower'
- Roots ending in the sibilants s, z, š, ž and the sibilant affricates c and č append *e* as well:
- Roots ending with a palatalized consonant lose the final y (there only for orthographic reasons in any case) before appending the *-í*: *kraštoly – kraštolí*
- Roots ending in a or o replace the vowel with e, while those ending in á and ó replace the root with í
- Roots ending in au, ou, or u replace the vowel with -óví: *dnou – dnóví* 'front'
- Roots ending in áu, or ú replace the vowel with -óvie
- Roots ending in e, i or ÿ replace the vowel with -eví
- Roots ending in é, ei, í or ý replace the vowel with -évi

4.7.1 Possession

The simplest use of the genitive case is to indicate ownership or possession.

(21) *Marcie* *dum*
Marek-GEN house
'Marek's house'

(22) *vože* *ohnou*
sister-GEN pen
'(my) sister's pen'

4.7.2 Genitive of material

(23) *kuní* *prosc*
silverGEN spoon
'silver spoon'

4.7.3 Genitive of the whole

The genitive can also be used to indicate

(24) *na* *kraštolí* *dnóva*
LOC train:station-GEN front
'in front of the train station'

Note that the patientive and not the genitive case is used when quantifying a part of the whole.

(25) a. **žnohoušce* *hroná*
student-GEN three
'three of the students'

b. *na* *žnohoušca* *hroná*
LOC student-GEN three
'three of the students'

Nevertheless when quantifying a noun per se, and not in relation to a whole, the uninflected form of the quantifier is used (mostly using indefinite quantifiers such as 'many', 'a lot', etc.). If however, the quantification involves a countable unit or division of the noun, the genitive is used, but such unit or division must be further quantified by a numeral or an indefinite quantifier.

(26) a. *Na kroumašta po zma ješ pivo.*
LOC refrigerator-PAT still few EXST beer
'There's still some beer left in the refrigerator.'

b. *Ona pive štava unarížčem.*
one beer-GEN mug-PAT REF-order-AV-PV-1S
'I ordered a mug of beer.'

4.7.4 Genitive of movement

The genitive is also used to indicate movement away from somewhere.

(27) a. *Dumí palžek.*
house-GEN leave-AV-PF
'I left the house.'

b. *Dum palzinek.*
house leave-PV-PF
'I left the *house*.'

4.8 Instrumental case

The instrumental case (glossed INST)

4.8.1 With some prepositions

The following prepositions take the instrumental case: *še* 'with'

(28) *Za bolta še Janu stóžąc.*
for party-PAT with Jan-INST go-AV-CTPV
'(I am) coming to the party with Jan.'

4.8.2 With expressions of time and duration

4.9 Vocative Case

4.10 Unmarked Form

4.11 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are a special class of nouns used to refer and/or replace other nouns or noun phrases. Personal pronouns are marked for person, number and case, and partially for animacy, although third-person forms are more properly analyzed as demonstratives. In addition, personal pronouns have three forms: (1) an invariable strong form, used when the pronoun is the topic of the sentence; (2) a weak form; and (3) a clitic form.

4.11.1 Grammatical person

Iridian pronouns

Table 4.1: Personal pronouns in Iridian

PERSON	STRONG	WEAK	CLITIC
1s	dá	do	-em
2s	já	je	-eš
3s.anim	ša	še	-ic
3s.inan	to	cej	-as
4gen	á	dien	-uč
1pl.inc	mé	chce	-uh
1pl.exc	tová	kiec	-ak
2pl	tévit	la	-elý
3pl.anim	ože	dcá	-ac
3pl.inan	íma	oce	-et

Table 4.2: Demonstrative pronouns in Iridian.

	ANIMATE	INANIMATE	LOCATIVE
Proximal	ša	to	tak
Medial	ón	ján	jení
Distal	dní	jón	joní

4.11.2 Strong form

The strong form of a personal pronoun (glossed str) is used when the pronoun is used as the topic of the sentence. The strong form is indeclinable.

4.11.3 Weak form

4.11.4 Clitic form

4.11.5 Third-Person Pronouns and Demonstratives

4.11.6 Ellipsis

Iridian is an extremely pro-drop language, with pronouns supplied only if not inferrable from context.

4.12 Demonstratives

Iridian does not have a separate class of third-person pronouns. Instead it uses a set of demonstrative pronouns, whose deictic function is both spatial

and anaphoric. Iridian makes a three-way distinction among demonstratives, similar to French or Portuguese for example, distinguishing between proximal (near the speaker), medial (near the addressee) and distal (far from both speaker and addressee) forms. In addition, Iridian makes an animacy distinction with demonstratives, with one set of demonstratives used with human referents and another with non-human referents, as seen in Table 4.2, but are unmarked for either number or gender.

Demonstratives can be used adnominally, to modify a noun phrase, or pronominally, to replace one.

(29) a. *ša* *byl*
DEM.PROX.ANIM child
'this child'

b. *ša* *bylem*
DEM.PROX.ANIM child-1s
'this child of mine'

c. *Ša* *bylem.*
DEM.PROX.ANIM child-1s
'This (person) is my child.'

d. **To* *bylem*
DEM.PROX.INAN child-1s
'This (thing) is my child.'

Unlike true personal pronouns, demonstratives do not have a separate strong form and clitic form. They are fully declined however, with the declined forms being highly irregular, as can be seen in Table 4.3.

(30) a. *ci mlaz a dní maty*
'this person's brother and that person's mother'

b. *Dá je svou je dnu zaprál.*
'I am as old as either this person or that person.'

The three-way distinction between demonstratives allows Iridian to disambiguate between an obviative third person and a proximate third person, using the distal and the proximal demonstrative respectively. Consider for example the two examples in English below:

(31) a. He saw his dog.

b. He saw his own dog.

The *his* in the first sentence is ambiguous, as it can refer to either the subject or an implied fourth person. That the second *his* refers back to the subject can be made unequivocal by the addition of the word *own*, as in the second sentence. Compare this with the following sentences in Czech:

Table 4.3: Declension of demonstratives.

	ša	ón	dní	to	ján	jón
Agentive	šem	nám	dniem	etom	ján	jón
Patientive	šá	ona	dná	toha	jina	jinóva
Genitive	ci	oní	dní	cie	nie	nohe
Instrumental	svou	nu	dnu	etu	nu	nohu

(32) a. *Viděl jeho pes.*
'He saw his dog.'

b. *Viděl své pes.*
'He saw his own dog.'

Although the English translation of the first sentence may still appear ambiguous, we can see that Czech does away with the ambiguity by using the third person pronoun *jeho* exclusively to signify that the referent is different from the subject, and requiring the use of a separate pronominal form (in this case the reflexive) when the referent and the subject are the same. Iridian, on the other hand, treats this in a diametrically opposite way, i.e., the same pronoun form is used when the subject and the referent are the same, with the obviative form being used otherwise. The sentences in Czech above will therefore be translated in Iridian as follows:

(33) a. *Dní* *jec* *vdinek.*
DEM.DIST.ANIM.GEN dog see-PV-PF
'He saw his (other person's) dog.'

b. *Ci* *jec* *vdinek*
DEM.DIST.INAN.GEN dog see-PV-PF
'He saw his own dog.'

Perhaps we can better understand the distinction between obviative and proximate forms by re-examining example (30b) above. The previous examples in Czech remained unambiguous because there are at most two unique arguments in the sentence. In example (30b), however, the subject of the sentence is distinct from either the proximate referent or the distal referent.

(30b) *Dá je svou je dnu zaprál.*
'I am as old as either this person or that person.'

The translation in the gloss demonstrates how idiomatic English uses periphrastic forms to eliminate this ambiguity, although in the spoken

language the purely deictic 'I am as old as either him or him' is equally acceptable, with the blanks filled in most likely by non-verbal cues. In Iridian, however, this distinction is not optional, and the following sentence, for example, would be considered ungrammatical:

(34) **Dá je svou je svou zaprál.*
'I am as old as either him or him.'

4.13 Use of Personal Pronouns

4.13.1 T-V Distinction

Iridian has three forms of address: the informal, the polite, and the formal.

The second person singular pronoun *já* is used to address friends, relatives or children. When addressing a stranger or an acquaintance with whom you want to maintain social distance or be polite without being too formal, the second person plural pronoun *tévit* is used. The polite form is also used when addressing God/gods. In more formal settings, the third-person plural pronoun *ože* is used.

4.14 Possessive Pronouns

4.14.1 The reflexive *mám*

4.15 Demonstratives

Iridian has a three-way distinction between demonstratives, unlike English but similar to Spanish or Japanese: *proximal* demonstratives are used when referring to objects or people that are near the speaker, *medial* demonstratives when referring to those near the listener, and *distal* demonstratives when referring to those that are far from either the listener or speaker.

Table 4.4: Conjugation of Iridian demonstrative pronouns.

	ANIMATE	INANIMATE
Proximal	ša	to
Medial		ján
Distal		jón

For information about demonstrative adjectives/determiners, see section 5.4.

Table 4.5: Interrogative pronouns in Iridian.

	ENGLISH		ENGLISH
jede	who	**jach**	which
ježe	what	**zajehu**	why
jehát	whom	**jiká**	how many
jehu	how	**jišká**	how much
jemí	when	**jenie**	to where
jena	where	**jení**	from where

4.16 Indefinite pronouns and quantifiers

4.17 Interrogative pronouns

4.18 Negative and Universal Pronouns

Negative pronouns are historically formed by attaching the prefix *že* before interrogative pronouns, and universal pronouns by attaching the prefix *ní-*

Table 4.6: Correspondence of interrogative, negative and universal pronouns.

INTERROGATIVE		NEGATIVE		UNIVERSAL	
jede	who	**neiže**	no one	**niet**	everyone
ježe	what	**niho**	nothing	**níže**	everything
jehu	how	**žehu**	by no means	**néhu**	by all means
jemí	when	**žemie**	never	**nimie**	always
jena	where	**žena**	nowhere	**nina**	everywhere
jach	which	**žé**	not one	**nách**	each

4.19 Derivational Morphology

4.19.1 -mašt

4.19.2 -ou

The nominalizing suffix *-ou* is a non-productive affix used to form nouns from certain verbs.

Table 4.7: Nominal derivation using *-mašt*

ROOT			DERIVED NOUN	
kávé	'coffee'	→	*kávémašt*	'café'
krou	'cold'	→	*kroumašt*	'refrigerator'
piaštou	'food'	→	*piaštoumašt*	'restaurant'

Table 4.8: Nominal derivation using *-ou*

VERB ROOT			DERIVED NOUN	
milovaná	'to learn'	→	*milovanou*	'lesson'
palzá	'to leave'	→	*palzou*	'departure'
piaštá	'to eat'	→	*piaštou*	'food'
scená	'to arrive'	→	*scenou*	'arrival'
nieká	'to open'	→	*niekou*	'entrance'

4.19.3 -oušc

The suffix *-ošt* /oːʃt/, or in some dialects as *-oušt* [oʊ̯ʃt]) is used to form a noun indicating someone or something associated to a certain thing or performing a certain action.

Table 4.9: Nominal derivation using *-ošc*

VERB ROOT			DERIVED NOUN	
jorká	'to travel'	→	*jorkošc*	'traveller'
možlá	'to live'	→	*možlošc*	'resident'
umielá	'to get drunk'	→	*umílošc*	'drunkard'
virká	'to write'	→	*virkošc*	'writer'
zdievá	'to fool (sm.)'	→	*zdívošc*	'swindler'

5

MINOR WORD CLASSES

5.1 Conjunctions

5.2 Prepositions

5.2.1 na

5.2.2 še

5.2.3 *vo*

Vo can be translated as 'because of' or 'due to.' This preposition takes the agentive case.

(1) *Vo* *transitám* *lienu* *záscenzčem.*
because traffic-AGT on:time-INST NEG-arrive-AV-PF-1S
'I didn't arrive on time because of the traffic.'

5.2.4 za

5.3 Adjectives

Iridian lacks a true class of adjectives. Instead to modify a noun or a noun phrase, Iridian often uses nominal or verbal constructions.

(2) a. *morc*
black:thing
'black thing'

b. *Kverš* *morc.*
raven black:thing
'Ravens are black.' *Literally,* '(A) raven is (a) black thing.'

c. *morcie* *kverš.*
black:thing-GEN raven
'black raven'

(3) a. *naštá*
fly
'to fly'

b. *Kverš naščalí.*
raven fly-AV-PROG
'(The) raven is flying'

c. *naščalí ko kverš.*
fly-AV-PROG ATT raven
'flying raven'

5.4 Demonstratives

5.5 Quantifiers

Iridian has a wide variety of non-numerical/indefinite quantifiers. Most are actually nouns that used in adjectival or adverbial constructions.

- *ošč* 'many' (countable)

(4) *Marka ješ naže ošč.*
Marek-PAT EXST friend-GEN many
'Marek has many friends.'

(5) *Za kursa mén ješ ošč oudinášce ko vilm.*
for class-PAT 1PL.INC.WK EXST many watch-SUP ATT film.
'We have a lot of movies we need to watch for our class.'

- *nave* 'too many' (countable)

(6) *Marka ješ naže ošš.*
Marek-PAT EXST friend-GEN many
'Marek has many friends.'

- *tohle* 'many' (uncountable)
- *nahte* 'too many, too much' (uncountable)

(7) *Do ješ nahte kurváš*
1S.WK EXST too:much work-SUP.NOM
'I have so much work to do.'

5.6 Interjections

An interjection is a word or an expression used to express a spontaneous reaction or feeling. We will use the term 'interjection' to refer both to the part of speech and to the utterance type that has the same pragmatic function as this part of speech (cf. Ameka 1992).

Interjections can be classifed into two main categories: *primary* interjections, which refer to a word or an utterance that can only be used as an

interjection and *secondary* interjections, which refer to forms belonging a different word class but which through its usage, has acquired a new meaning as an interjection.

Although interjections can function as exclamations, not all exclamatory utterances can be considered as interjectons by themselves. As Jovanović (2004) notes, any word in a language can theoretically become an exclamation. Consider for example this conversation:

(8) (adapted from Jovanović 2004).

— Martin mlaza boulešik.
— Martinám?

'I heard Martin killed his brother.'
'Martin?!'

5.7 Numerals

Iridian has a vigesimal number system. Table 5.1 shows Iridian numerals from 1 to 20. Numbers from 1 to 10 are given their own name while numbers from 11 to 19 are formed by appending the numbers from one to nine to the clitic *-niem* with the preposition *še* (with). The clitic *-niem* is derived from the word for number 10, *nau*, which itself comes from the Old Iridian **nagu*, 'half.'

Table 5.1: Iridian numerals from 1 to 20.

NUMBER	IRIDIAN	NUMBER	IRIDIAN
1	ona	11	onšeniem
2	mÿ	12	muišeniem
3	hroná	13	hronašeniem
4	dró	14	dróšeniem
5	jed	15	jeceniem
6	vú	16	vúšeniem
7	ščę	17	ščęceniem
8	pieš	18	pięceniem
9	cam	19	camzeniem
10	déch	20	tydná

For numbers 11 to 19, the words are formed by appending the numbers from one to nine to the suffix *-niem* with the preposition *še* (with).

Numbers from 21 to 99 are first expressed as multiples of 20. Thenceforth, the number system has largely become decimal, due primarily to the

inflyence of surrounding Indo-European languages. Old Iridian, however, had a vigesimal system up to the number 8000.

Table 5.3 shows multiples of 10 from 30 to 100. The numbers are formed by the numeral followed by *tydná*. For bases that are not multiples of 20, the word *nau* 'ten' is added first, followed by the conjunction *še* 'with'.

Table 5.2: Iridian numerals from 30 to 100.

NUMBER	IRIDIAN	NUMBER	IRIDIAN
30	naušetydná	70	naušehronutydná
40	muitydná	80	drohutydná
50	naušemuitydná	90	naušedrohutydná
60	hronutydná	100	miesy

Iridian counting starts from the smallest component of the number to the largest. Each component can be simply appended with the conjunction *še*. Only the numerals in Tables 5.1 and 5.3, and the first ten numbers after 100, 500, 1000, etc. appear as single words. Below are some illustrations:

(9) a. *jecemiesy*
'five with hundred'
105

b. *cam še drohutydná*
'nine with four twenties'
89

5.7.1 Ordinal numbers

5.7.2 Fractions and decimals

5.7.3 Use of numerals

Table 5.3: Iridian numerals from 200 to one billion.

NUMBER	IRIDIAN
200	moig
300, 400, etc.	hronumiesy, drohumiesy. etc.
1000	nitak
2000, 3000, etc.	muiniec, hronuniec, etc.
10.000	ohle
20.000, etc.	tydnuniec, etc.
100.000	dunie
200.000 etc	meguiniec, hronuniec, etc.
1.000.000	myliâ
1.000.000.000	myliár
1.000.000.000.000	byliâ

6

LEXICON AND DERIVATION

7

SYNTAX OF SIMPLE CLAUSES

7.1 Introduction

The constituent word order of Iridian sentences is SOV, but the agglutinative nature of the language and the presence of case-marking on nouns makes word order typically flexible, with the only universal rule being that the main verb should appear at the end of a sentence.

7.2 Topic-Predicate Constructions

The Iridian sentence can be divided primarily into a topic part and a predicate or comment part. The topic is what the sentence is about, while the predicate or comment represents the information presented in the sentence about the topic. While both the topic and the predicate are pragmatic constructs, the topic-predicate construction is important as it determines how the rest of the sentence is structured.

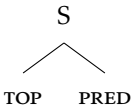


Figure 7.1: Nuclear structure of sentences

The topic of the sentence does not necessarily coincide with the subject of the sentence. This is true as well in English, as we see in example (7.2); although where English allows the topic to appear anywhere in the sentence, as long as the subject is placed first, Iridian, typical of topic-prominent languages. requires the topic to always be introduced first, leaving the rest of the information afterwards.

(1) a. Martha saw John.

b. A dog bit **Martha**.

c. It is raining **today**,

(2) a. *[Janek]*$_{\text{Top}}$ *[mlaza boulešik.]*$_{\text{Pred}}$
'As for Janek, he killed his brother'.

b. *[Tereza]*$_{\text{Top}}$ *[jecám naléčnik.]*$_{\text{Pred}}$
'As for Tereza, she was bitten by a dog'

c. *[Shléd]*$_{\text{Top}}$ *[zniepšalí.]*$_{\text{Pred}}$
'As for today, it is raining.'

As Kiss (2004: 9) notes:

> We tend to describe eventsfrom a human perspective, as statements about theirhuman participants – and subjects are more often [+human] than objects are. Inthe case of verbs with a [–human] subject and a [+human] accusative or obliquecomplement, the most common permutation is that in which the accusative oroblique complement occupies the topic position (3a,b). When the possessor is theonly human involved in an action or state, the possessor is usually topicalized(3c).

7.3 The Noun Phrase

Iridian is a strongly head-final language.

7.3.1 Nuclear constructions

7.3.2 With adjectival clauses

7.3.3 Wsith prepositional phrases

7.3.4 With relative clauses

7.4 Topicless Sentences

7.5 Relative and Comparative Constructions

The clitic *tám* is used to form simple comparative and relative constructions. *Tám* is often ommitted however where the comparison can be implied from context. In this construction, the standard of comparison (the noun preceded by 'than' in English) is unmarked and the noun being compared marked in the agentive if it is a positive/negative comparison, or in the instrumental if it is a correlation.

(3) a. *Janek-tám Markám nestačál.*
Janek=COMP Marek-AGT tall-CONT
'Marek is taller than Janek.'

b. *Janek Markám nestačál.*
Janek Marek-AGT tall-CONT
'Marek is taller than Janek.'

(4) a. *Janek-tám Marku nestačál.*
Janek=COMP Marek-INST tall-CONT
'Marek is as tall as Janek.'

b. *Janek Marku nestačál.*
Janek Marek-INST tall-CONT
'Marek is as tall as Janek.'

Note that *tám* can only be used with the copulative form of the stative verb, as the attributive and nominal forms have separate conjugated comparative forms. When using these forms, however, the standard of comparison is marked in the genitive. In relative constructions, the instrumental is also replaced with the genitive, but the modifier *zní*, 'same' is added before the stative verb.

(5) a. *Jancie nestačení hloc mlazem.*
Janek-GEN tall-COMP-ATT boy brother-1s
'The boy who is taller than Janek is my brother' (*Lit.*, 'The taller-than-Janek boy is my brother.')

b. *Jancie zní nestačení hloc mlazem.*
Janek-GEN same tall-COMP-ATT boy brother-1s
'The boy who is as tall as Janek is my brother.'

Tám can be relativized by appending the clitic *to*. When used with *tám-to* the standard of comparison is marked in the patientive case. The use of tám-to in relative clauses is discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

(6) *Viktor na shlopa tám-to nestáček.*
Viktor LOC siblings-PAT COMP=RZ= to:be:tall-AV-PF
'Among the siblings, Viktor grew up to be the tallest.'

(7) *Jankám Marka tám-to zuštalébik ko Tereza*
Janek-AGT Marek-PAT COMP=RZ= to:be:happy-BEN-PF ATT Tereza
'Tereza, whom Janek made happier than Marek'

(8) *Marka tám-tóví zuštalébik ko oblašc*
Marek-PAT COMP=RZ-GEN= to:be:happy-BEN-PF ATT pet
'the pet [of the person who was made happier than Marek]'

Iridian does not have a morphologically distinct superlative construction. For example, *pizdení* (from *pizdá*, 'to be big') can either mean 'bigger' or 'biggest' depending on context. Where the meaning cannot be easily implied from context, the word *ohnu* (derived from the word *ohna*, 'first' in the instrumental case) is often used as quantifier.

(9) a. *Univerzitet na razmeka pizdenou.*
university LOC city-PAT to:be:big-COMP-NZ
'(This) university is the biggest in the city.'

b. *Univerzitet na razmeka ohnu pizdenou.*
university LOC city-PAT first-INST to:be:big-COMP-NZ
'(This) university is the biggest in the city.'

When using an adverbial construction with the instrumental case to modify or quantify the comparison, the adverbial phrase must immediately precede the stative verb if in the attributive or nominal form, or the particle *tám* otherwise. The same is true with invariable modifiers like *nahte*, 'too much', *dnu*, 'a bit', etc.

(10) *To bagáž jánám u 10 kilográmu tám prékvál.*
DEM.PROX baggage DEM.MED around 10 kilogram-INST COMP= heavy-CONT
'This baggage is heavier by about 10 kilograms than that one.'

(11) *u 10 kilográmu prékvení bagáž*
around 10 kilogram-INST heavy-COMP-ATT baggage
'the baggage, which is heavier by about 10 kilograms'

(12) *Nahte pizdenou zmažnikóveš.*
too:much big-COMP-NZ make-PV-PF-NZ-2S
'The much bigger one is the one you made.'

7.6 Questions

7.6.1 Yes-no questions

A declarative sentence can be made into a question by a simple rise in intonation at the end of the phrase:

(13) a. *Janek sa uzdravšek.*
Janek already REF-sleep-AV-PF
'Janek has fallen asleep.'

b. *Janek sa uzdravšek?*
Janek already REF-sleep-AV-PF
'Has Janek fallen asleep yet?'

Alternatively the interrogative particle *no* may be used. When used this way, the base sentence will still feature a clause-final rise in intonation, followed by a falling intonation at the location of the question particle, similar to the intonation structure of tag questions in English. In the written language, the particle *no* may also surface as a clitic, prefixing itself to the verb, which this usage requires to be in the negative.

(14) *Janek sa uzdravšek no?*
Janek already REF-sleep-AV-PF Q
'Has Janek fallen asleep yet?'

(15) *Janek sa nozáduzdravšek?*
Janek already Q-NEG-REF-sleep-AV-PF
'Has Janek fallen asleep yet?'

The choice between using a simple rise in intonation or the question particle *no* is a personal one, and a speaker may use the one or the other in different situations or shift between them seemingly at random. Both methods in free variation and offer no differences in meaning, formality, etc.

Tag questions are formed similar to the German use of *'nicht war?'*:

(16) *Ivána niegu scenžach, zájuda (no)?*
Ivána later-INST arrive-AV-CTPV NEG-truth Q
'Ivána is coming later, isn't she?'

Again the tag *zájuda* ('untrue, not the truth') can appear with or without the question particle *no*, although here the form without *no* is more common in colloquial speech. Other common ways of forming tag questions include appending (1) the word *juda* 'truth' or (2) the particle *záne*, formed from the negative prefix *zá* and the expletive *ne*.

(17) a. *Scenžach, juda?*
arrive-AV-CTPV truth
'(She) is coming, isn't she?'

b. *Scenžach, záne?*
arrive-AV-CTPV EXPL
'(She) is coming, isn't she?'

Although the particle *no* would normally appear after the verb, it can follow other parts of the sentence (except pure function words), but with the effect of changing the emphasis or the nature of the question. When used in this manner, the particle is treated as a clitic and is separated from the word it modifies by a dash. Furthermore, there is a tendency especially in the spoken language to move the cliticized noun to the start of the sentence.

(18) a. *Ivána-no niegu scenžach?*
Ivána=Q later-INST arrive-AV-CTPV
'Is it Ivána who is coming later?'

b. *Ivána niegu-no scenžach?*
Ivána later-INST=Q arrive-AV-CTPV
'Will it be later that Ivana is coming?'

c. *Niegu-no Ivána scenžach?*
later-INST=Q Ivána arrive-AV-CTPV
'Will it be later that Ivana is coming?'

To make an existential sentence a yes-no question, it is first transformed to the negative and the particle *no* is then cliticized to the word *niho*. If however, the theme of the sentence is quantified, the word *ješ* is kept (but shifted to the front of the quantifier), and *no* is attached to the quantifier. The form *ješ-no* is ungrammatical.

(19) *Marka niho-no oblašc?*
Marek-PAT NEG.EXST=Q pet
'Does Marek have a pet?'

(20) a. *Co bibliotécie Marka hroná ješ kupéninkou tóm?*
ABL library-GEN Marek-PAT three EXST borrow-PV-PF-NZ book
'Marek borrowed three books from the library.'

b. *Co bibliotécie Marka ješ hroná-no kupéninkou tóm?*
ABL library-GEN Marek-PAT EXST three=Q borrow-PV-PF-NZ book
'Did Marek borrow three books from the library.'

The clitic *no* can of course be moved around, with subtle changes in meaning.

(21) a. *Neutral form:*
Co bibliotécie Marka ješ hroná-no kupéninkou tóm?
'Did he borrow *three* books, etc?'

b. *Emphasis on* Marek:
Co bibliotécie Marka-no hroná ješ kupéninkou tóm?
'Did *Marek* borrow them, etc?'

c. *Emphasis on* library:
Co bibliotécie-no Marka hroná ješ kupéninkou tóm?
'Did he borrow them from the *library*, etc?'

Note that in more complex existential constructions, as the one above which includes a nominalized determiner, the sentence may have to be reconstructed as a non-existential construction if it is the theme (i.e., the object being possessed or whose existence is described) that is in question.

(22) a. *Co bibliotécie Marek hroná tóma kupénžek?*
ABL library-GEN Marek three book-PAT borrow-AV-PF
'Did Marek *borrow* three books from the library.'

b. *Co bibliotécie Marek hroná tóma-no kupénžek?*
ABL library-GEN Marek three book-PAT=Q borrow-AV-PF
'Did Marek borrow three *books* from the library.'

Note that the first example above is not the neutral word order, given Iridian's preference to use existential constructions in sentences like the ones above. In this case, it would be akin to asking 'Did he borrow them, or did he acquire it by some other means?'

To change a copular sentence into a question, the clitic *-no* is added to whichever element is in question. Removing *no* would indicate disbelief on the part of the speaker and would imply that the answer 'No' is expected.

(23) a. *Tereza študent-no?*
Tereza student=Q
'Is Tereza a student?'

b. *Tereza-no študent?*
Tereza=Q student
'Is Tereza the student?'

c. *Tereza študent?*
Tereza student
'Is Tereza a student? (I don't think so)'

7.6.2 Wh- questions

In wh- questions, the interrogative pronoun typically appears after the topic or at the beginning of a sentence if the sentence does not have a topic, and is immediately followed by the clitic *no*.

(24) *Karel jena-no možlašál?*
Karel where=Q live-AV-CONT
'Where does Karel live?'

(25) *Bych zajehu-no kravnašalí?*
yesterday why=Q cry-AV-PROG
'Why was he crying yesterday?'

7.6.3 Indirect questions

Indirect questions are constructed in the subjunctive, with the addition of the particle *aš*.

(26) *Nú aš hošezíla.*
tomorrow Q.IND rainAV-SBJ.IPF.
'I wonder if it's gonna rain tomorrow.'

7.6.4 Answering questions

Answering yes-no questions

The most common way to answer a yes-no question is to repeat the main verb in the original question (known formally as an echo response), adding

the prefix *zá-* if the answer is in the negative.

(27) *—Na kinotéka stožek? —Stožek.*
LOC cinema-PAT go-AV-PF go-AV-PF
'"Did you go to the movies?" "Yes, I did."'

In questions based on copular sentences, this would mean the repetition of the word or phrase where *no* is attached to. In those based on existential constructions, the existential particle is repeated as appropriate (or the word where *no* is attached to, if emphasis has been shifted otherwise).

(28) a. *—Marek-no doktor? —Marek.*
Marek=Q doctor Marek
'"Is *Marek* a doctor?" "Yes, he is."'

b. *—Marek doktor-no? —Doktor.*
Marek doctor=Q doctor
'"Is Marek a *doctor*?" "Yes, he is."'

(29) *—Tak ješ hévornál? —Niho.*
here EXST know-PV-CONT EXST.NEG
'"Do you know anyone here?" "No, I don't."'

Iridian does has separate words for 'yes' and 'no': *dé* (affirmative 'yes'), *če* (contrastive 'yes') and *omá* ('no'). They are, however, rarely used by themselves alone, but would often be added to the echo response as an intensifier.

(30) *—Na kinotéka stožek? —Stožek dé.*
LOC cinema-PAT go-AV-PF go-AV-PF yes
'"Did you go to the movies?" "Yes, I did."'

The contrastive *če* is used if the question has been framed in the negative and the answer 'yes' is an affirmation not of the question but of the statement originally negated. Further emphasis may be added by introducing the answer with the word *ano* ('but'). *Če* is also used contrasively to answer questions based on copular constructions that do not contain the clitic *no*, as such would imply that the answer expective is in the negative.

(31) *—Studnikóvem zádoštnik? —Ano oštnik če.*
send-PV-PF-NZ-1S NEG-read-PV-PF but read-PV-PF yes
'"Didn't you read the message I sent?" "But I did."'

(32) *—Marek doktor? —Doktor če.*
Marek doctor doctor yes
'"*(Dismissively)* Marek is a doctor?" "But he is!"'

Če is also required when answering questions that use the proclitic *no-* construction (often found in literary registers), even though the answer does

not possess any contrasive meaning.

(33) *—Janek sa nozáduzdravšek? Uzdravšek če.*
Janek already Q-NEG-REF-sleep-AV-PF REF-sleep-AV-PF yes
'"Has Janek fallen asleep yet?" "Yes, he has."'

To negate an existential question, the negative copula is used. An alternative may also be presented instead to contradict a question more emphatically. Both techniques would often used together in the spoken language.

(34) a. *—Tereza študent? —Študent česná.*
Tereza student student COP.NEG
'"Is Tereza a student?" "No, she isn't.''

b. *—Tereza študent? —Ódiloušc.*
Tereza student professor
'"Is Tereza a student?" "No, she is a professor.''

c. *—Tereza študent? —Študent česná, ódiloušc.*
Tereza student student COP.NEG professor
'"Is Tereza a student?" "No, she isn't. She's a professor''

Emphatic answers can also be made using *éšte* ('of course') and *éšte omá/niho/česná* ('of course not'). *Éšte* may also be used with an echo response.

(35) a. *—Tóm oštnik? —Éšte.*
book read-PV-PF of:course
'"Did you read the book?" "Of course I did."'

b. *—Tóm oštnik? —Éšte zádoštnik.*
book read-PV-PF of:course NEG-read-PV-PF
'"Did you read the book?" "Of course I didn't."'

7.7 Negation

In Iridian sentences, negation is performed by the particle *zám*, which attaches to the beginning of the word or phrase it negates. The default position of the negative particle is usually before the main verb where it surfaces as *z-* before vowels, *ž-* before *i*-glides, and *zá-* elswehere.

(36) a. *Janek Martina Markám **z**oplazébik.*
Janek Martin-PAT Marek-AGT NEG=know-BEN-PF
'Marek did not introduce Janek to Martin.'

b. ***Zám** Janek Martina Markám zoplazébik.*
NEG= Janek Martin-PAT Marek-AGT NEG=know-BEN-PF
'It was not Janek whom Marek introduced to Martin.'

c. *Janek* ***zám*** *Martina Markám zoplazébik.*
Janek NEG= Martin-PAT Marek-AGT NEG=know-BEN-PF
'It was not Martin whom Marek introduced Janek to.'

d. *Janek Martina* ***zám*** *Markám zoplazébik.*
Janek Martin-PAT NEG= Marek-AGT NEG=know-BEN-PF
'It was not Marek who introduced Janek to Martin.'

7.8 Existential Constructions

An existential sentence is a specialized construction used to express the existence or presence of someone or something. The particle *ješ* and its inverse *niho* are used to form existential sentences.

(37) *Tak ješ zarno.*
here EXST people
'There are people here.'

(38) *Tak niho zarno.*
here EXST.NEG people
'There is no one here.'

Statements expressing location use a copular construction, although an existential construction is used in the negative.

(39) *Dá na duma.*
1S.STR LOC house-PAT
'I'm at home.'

(40) *Na duma niho dá.*
LOC house-PAT EXST.NEG 1S.STR
'I'm not at home.'

The particles *ješ* and *niho* must always precede the noun whose presence or existence is being expressed.

(41) *Na ránema ona ješ htoš.*
LOC desk-1S-PAT one EXST book
'There is one book on my desk.'

(42) *Mÿ ješ mulaž.*
two EXST door
'There are two doors.'

7.8.1 Possession

Existential constructions are also used to indicate possession, with the possessor marked in the patientive case.

(43) *Marka ješ oblašc.*
Marek-PAT EXST pet
'Marek has a pet.'

(44) *Tomáša niho mlaz.*
Tomáš-PAT EXST brother
'Tomáš does not have a brother.'

7.8.2 Impersonal constructions

(45) *Martina ješ trešnikou na tropa.*
Martin-PAT EXST write-PV-PF-NZ LOC wall-PAT
'Martin wrote something on the wall.'

(46) *Voštnikouva sa ješ piaščkou?*
cook-PV-PF-NZ-PAT already EXST eat-AV-PF-NZ
'Did somebody eat what (I) cooked?'

7.9 Copular Constructions

7.9.1 Null copula

Copular sentences are a minor sentence type where the predicate is not a verb. For the purposes of this grammar, we narrow down our definition of copular constructions to the following:

(47) a. *Equative:* Marek is the doctor (we are talking about).
b. *Inclusive:* Marek is a doctor.
c. *Attributive:* Marek is tall.
d. *Locative:* Marek is in the hospital.

Iridian does not make a distinction between equative, inclusive and attributive clauses. Locative clauses on the other hand, may be expressed using a copular or an existential construction, as will be discussed in this section.

Iridian is a superficially a zero-copula language and the most common way to form copular sentences is mere juxtaposition.

(48) *Marek doktor.*
Marek doctor
'Marek (is a/the) doctor.'

The above example could either be taken to mean (1) Marek is a doctor (inclusive), or (2) Marek is the doctor (equative). Generally, though, Iridian uses word order to distinguish between equative and inclusive clauses.

(49) a. *Inclusive:* {item in class}$_{N}$ ∅ {class}$_{P}$

b. *Equative:* {class}$_{N}$ ∅ {item class}$_{P}$

To avoid ambiguity, Example 48 can be reformulated to either of the following sentences:

(50) a. *Marek doktor.*
Marek doctor
'Marek is a doctor.'

b. *Doktor Marek.*
doctor Marek
'Marek is the doctor.'

The inversion of word order is not strongly grammaticalized with NP-NP sentences, i.e., both sentences in Example 50 can still be used interchangeably without a change in meaning and preference is given on the one over the other when there is an ambiguity. This is not the case with attributive clauses, i.e., sentences with adjective or adjective phrase predicates. Consider for example the sentence below:

(51) *Marek rázym.*
Marek tall
'Marek is tall.'

Inverting the word order of the sentence above would change the adjective to a substantive since modifiers cannot occupy the topic position.

(52) *Rázym Marek.*
tall Marek
'The tall one is Marek.'

Iridian also distinguishes between attributive clauses expressing permanent conditions and clauses expressing temporary conditions, with the latter being expressed using existential constructions in certain adjectives.

(53) **Marek morec.*
Marek hungry
'Marek is hungry'

(54) *Marka ješ morec.*
Marek-PAT EXST hunger
'Marek is hungry'

A full list of adjectives/modifiers that use the existential construction can be found in the section 7.8.

The copula, however, cannot be ommitted in grammatical moods other than the indicative.

7.9.2 Negative copula

Iridian has the negative copula *česná*.

(55) *Marek doktor česná.*
Marek doctor COP.NEG
'Marek is not (a/the) doctor.'

The inversion of word order may also be used when one wants to avoid ambiguity:

(56) *Doktor Marek česná.*
doctor Marek COP.NEG
'Marek is not the doctor.'

7.9.3 Conjugation paradigm

8

COMPLEX SENTENCES

8.1 Coordination

Iridian has [number here] coordinating conjunctions: *a*, 'and',

When coordinating simple noun pairs, however, the particle *še*, 'with' is mostly used where English would have used 'and'. The derived construction *a še* is also common and has a similar meaning to the English 'and also'.

(1) *Mámka* ***še*** *pápku* *na* *Prahá* *spaníček.*
mother-DIM COM father-DIM-INST LOC Prague-PAT vacation-AV-PF
'Mom and Dad went to Prague for vacation.'

(2) *Janek* ***a*** ***še*** *Marku* *kurs* *hlupinžice.*
Janek and COM Marek-INST class fail-AV-PF-QUOT
'Janek as well as Marek failed the class.'

In constructions with *še* where one of the nouns coordinated is a pronoun or a deictic, the pronoun or deictic is presented first followed by the other noun in the instrumental case.

(3) *Dá* ***še*** *Ivanu* *sohladoušce.*
1S.STR COM Ivan-INST classmate
'Ivan and I are classmates.'

In a few cases, *a* is used instead of *še* where the latter can be interpreted as having an attributive meaning. Where the noun is marked, however, only *a* can be used.

(4) a. *trava* ***še*** *lépu*
bread COM cheese-INST
'bread with cheese' i.e., 'cheese sandwich'

b. *trava* ***a*** *lép*
bread and cheese
'bread and cheese'

(5) *To kurs-te Jankám* ***a*** *Markám hlupienince.*
this class-FOC Janek-AGT and Marek-AGT class
'It was this class that Marek and Janek failed.'

The bisyndetic coordination (Velupillai 2012) *a* Y *a* Y is also with similar emphatic meaning as *a še*.

(6) ***a*** *plocem* ***a*** *ploceš.*
and family-1s and family-2s
'both my family and yours'

(7) ***a*** *častu* ***a*** *še zmenu zoviec hloubižalí.*
and suffering- and COM happiness-INST remain-CV love-AV-PROG
'Til death do us part.' *Lit.*, 'I will love you through both suffering and joy.'

With multiple nouns or noun phrases, especially in serial lists, the coordinating conjunction is often simply dropped.

(8) *Ivan, Jarek, Elena na meza.*
Ivan Jarek Elena LOC room-PAT
'Ivan, Jarek, and Elena are in the room.'

(9) *Morkve, hlepost, ruk, molec ža hladnižál.*
carrot asparagus broccoli cabbage 1S.PAT to:notplease-AV-CONT
'I don't like carrots, asparagus, broccoli or cabbage.'

8.1.1 Expletive *a*

Sentences of the type

(10) It is [ADJECTIVE] that[SUBORDINATE CLAUSE].

are normally translated in Iridian using an expletive-*a* construction, with the adjective in the attributive form at the start of the phrase, followed by *a*, and then by the rest of the main clause. Normally this construction is used for sentences that pass judgment to the action or state described in the main clause, although in some cases the adjective is simply used for description.

(11) a. *Interezní a téknik znohouštiná prádelnik.*
interesting-ATT and engineering study-PV-INF choose-PV-PF
'It is interesting that you chose to study engineering.'

(12) a. *Komí a já ščenžek.*
good-ATT and 2S.STR arrive-AV-PF
'Good you're here now!'

Another common use of the expletive *a* is with the word *shlac*, 'now' (pronounce [sxlat] instead of the more intuitive [sxlat͡s]) to form the phrase

schlac a[1], which is used to introduce a subordinate clause, similar to 'now that' in English.

(13) a. *Komí a provísor ščenžek, kurs šelčinach.*
good-ATT and professor arrive-AV-PF class begin-PV-CTPV
'Now that the professor is here, we will begin our class.'

8.2 Apposition

Appositive constructions in Iridian involve the juxtaposition of two or more noun phrases that have a single referent. An apposition can be non-restrictive if the appositive can be removed freely without changing the meaning of a sentence, or restrictive otherwise.

Formally both non-restrictive and restrictive appositives are treated as modifier phrases but only the latter is grammaticalized. The restrictive appositive must always precede the noun phrase it modifies, linked together by the particle *ko*. Non-restrictive appositives on the other hand are simply juxtaposed together, although a comma is often inserted around the appositive if it consists of more than one word.

(14) a. *Óto mlažka na Mnihá znohouščál.*
Óto brother-DIM LOC Munich-PAT study-AV-CONT
'My brother Otto is studying in Munich.'

b. *Óto* ***ko*** *mlažka na Mnihá znohouščál.*
Óto LNK brother-DIM LOC Munich-PAT study-AV-CONT
'My brother Otto is studying in Munich.'

Examples(14a) and (14b) shows two different translations of the English phrase 'My brother Óto is studying in Munich.' Example (14a) is non-restrictive and can be interpreted as 'I have a brother named Óto who is studying in Munich' while (14b) being restrictive can be translated more on the lines of 'Among my brothers, it is Óto who is studying in Munich.' The restrictive appositive implies specificity and by extension the existence of a group where this specificity holds true; in (14b) this is taken to mean that a set of brothers exists and Óto is a member of this set.

8.3 Clause-linking with *še*

8.4 Converbial Constructions

8.4.1 The imperfective in *-iec*

8.4.2 The perfective in *-e*

The perfective *-iêce* is often used in clause linking.

[1] This is therefore pronounced ['sxlatɐ].

(15) *Oštiêce krazkem.*
read-CV.PF understand-PF-1S
'I read and understood.'

Clauses expressing reason is usually expressed by a converbial construction.

(16) *Za eksama názhaziêce, Martin órek.*
for exam-PAT NEG-study-CV.PF Martin fail-PF
'Martin failed the exam because he didn't study.'

8.5 Reported Speech

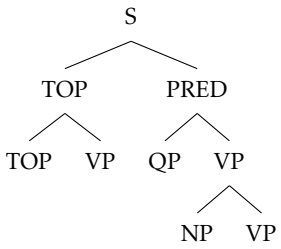
The reported statement and the main clause are separated by the quotative particle *to-že*[2].

(17) *Maša advokát neví to-že zíček.*
Maša lawyer COP.QUOT QP say-AV-PF
'(He) said that Maša is a lawyer'

The reported part is treated as a subordinate clause and must appear before the main clause. In general reported speech takes the form

(18) $\Big[\Big[\Big[\,[\text{TOP*}]\,[\text{PRED in quotative mood}]\,\Big] + \big[\textit{to-že*}\big]\Big]\Big] + \Big[\text{verbum dicendi*}\Big]$,

(19)



where the elements followed by an asterisk (*) are optional.

The *verbum dicendi* (Latin for verb of speech/speaking) is the verb in the main clause that signals that the subordinate clause is a quoted clause and that its main clause should therefore appear in the quotative mood. Examples of *verba dicendi* in Iridian include *zieká*, 'to say'; *vadá*, 'to think'; *kvuštá*, 'to hear'; *vidá*, 'to see'; *hloupá*, 'to ask'; *ohletá*, 'to remember'; *shová*, 'to recount, to tell a story'. Note that although they are called verbs "of speaking" they do not necessarily introduce speech as much as function

[2] This particle will simply be glossed as QP even though it actually consist of two parts: the relativizing particle *to* and the cliticized quotative particle *že*.

as grammaticalized tags marking the quotative, which is more properly analyzed to mark not just speech but inferentiality and evidentiality as well.

More complex *verba dicendi* can be formed by using an imperfect converbial construction (the converb form in *-iec*) with a canonical *verbum dicendi*. To understand this consider the following sentences in English:

(20) a. She said no.

b. She whispered no.

c. She said no in a whisper.

d. ?She said **in a whisper** no.

e. ??She said **whisperingly** no.

We see that both *said* (20a) and *whispered* (20b) are *verba dicendi* in English. Nonetheless it's also obvious how 20b is simply a function of (20a), i.e., we can express (20b) in terms of (20a), in this case using an adverbial construction ('in a whisper') as we see in 20c or the more affected 20d. Finally using a simple adverbial is theoretically allowed in English (20e), although as we see the resulting construction is rather unwieldy or unnatural-sounding.

In Iridian, however, constructions like (20b) are not permitted, with preference given to adverbial (or more correctly, converbial) constructions. Thus we translate (20b) as:

(21) *Ne to-že mišlec ziček.*
no QP whisper-CV say-AV-PF
'(She) whispered no.'

This converbial construction is not limited to what is essentially describing how the verbum dicendi was Other more idiomatic treatments include

It should be noted as well how the verb *vadá*, 'to think' and its derived forms, due to their inherent meanings, require the subjunctive to be used in the reported clause. This is true whether or not the subjunctive would have been used had the reported clause been a regular dependent clause.

(22) a. *Já mnou.*
you correct
'You're right.'

b. *Já mnou neví.*
you correct COP.QUOT
'(I heard) you're right'

c. *Já mnou nehlí to-že Martin spouviec vážál.*
you correct COP.QUOT.SBJ QP Martin agree-CV think-AV-CONT
'Martin agrees that you are right.'

We see from (18) that when it comes to reported speech and similar constructions in Iridian, the *verbum dicendi* is not necessary to create a well-formed sentence. The same is true with the quotative particle *to-že*. Both can be omitted without making the sentence grammatically incorrect since the quotative particle is enough to identify the reported clause..

In most instances, however, removing either the main verb or the main verb and the quotative particle can cause the resulting sentence to acquire a new meaning. This is especially true when the quotative mood is used not to report speech but to imply a certain unsureness on the part of the speaker about the information being presented, or for the speaker to distance themself by implying through the use of the quotative that the information is secondhand and not theirs.

Generally *to-že* is kept when the speaker is quoting themself, to repeat or emphasize what they have said, or expletively, to express their frustration or affirmation.[3]

(23) *Mnou neví to-že!*
correct COP.QUOT QP
'I've been telling you) it is right.'

(24) *Dá roctymút to!*
1s dance-ABL-QUOT.IPF RZ
'(But) I can dance.'

Interestingly, commands and requests are not treated as reported speech but as regular subordinate clauses governed by *to* and not by *to-že*.

When the quoted clause is a question, whether a direct one or not, the quoted clause is preceded by the particle *a*, 'and' and the word *ane*, 'whether' is used instead of *to-že*. The word *ane* is also used for verba dicendi that are interrogative in nature, such as *préhoustá*, 'to ask',

(25) *A Janek zdalšice ane préhousček.*
and Janek have:breakfast-AV-PF-QUOT whether ask-AV-PF
'(He) asked (me) whether Janek has had breakfast yet.'

(26) *A tóm to mládu hodinaže ane, nie svad postupál.*
and book this year-INST finish-PV-CTPV-QUOT whether PL fan be:excited-CONT
'His fans are excited to know if he'll finish his book this year. '

3 When used this way the pronunciation of *to-že* is closer to an emphatic [ˈtou̯ʒɛ] or even [ˈtou̯ːʒɛʔ]

9

SEMANTICS AND USAGE

Appendices

A

THE DIALECTS OF IRIDIAN

B

LEXICON

B.1 Kinship Terms

B.1.1 Nuclear Family

The diminutive form of the nouns relating to the nuclear family are presented here as well since, as discussed in § XX, it is common to use the diminutive instead of the regular form of nouns when to referring to one's own family or that of a socially close one (e.g., a friend's).

Table B.1: Kinship terms, nuclear family.

NOUN	DIMINUTIVE	TRANSLATION
ploc	*pluška*	family
hor	*horka*	parents
maty	*mámka*	mother
táty	*pápka*	father
hrešt	*hrištka*	sibling
mlaz	*mlažka*	brother
vod	*vodka*	sister
proud	*prudka*	oldest sibling/child
zneibo	*zníbka*	youngest sibling/child
rohoš	*ruzka*	son
jaja	*jájka*	daughter
vremou	*vremóvka*	child

C

SAMPLE TEXTS

C.1 The *Pater Noster*

C.2 Milan Kundera, 'A Kidnapped West or the Tragedy of Central Europe'

The translation is based on the French text of Kundera's essay 'Un Occident kidnappé: ou la tragédie de l'Europe centrale' first published in *Le Débat* in 1983. The full text is available online at various websites, with the link I used in the references. Due to copyright considerations, a translation has not been provided, although interlineal glosses and explanatory notes have been added where I believe they are needed, in addition to the lexicon at the end. The text itself contains its own footnotes however and to distinguish Kundera's notes from those I have added, I have included included his name at their end.

1.

En 1956, au mois de septembre, le directeur de líagence de presse de Hongrie, quelques minutes avantque son bureau fÈcrasÈ par líartillerie, envoya par tÈlex dans le monde entier un message dÈsespÈrÈsur líoffensive russe, dÈclenchÈe le matin contre Budapest. La dÈpÍche finit par ces motsNous mour-rons pour la Hongrie et pour líEurope

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