Légatva

grammar of a constructed language

Seth Thompson
a.k.a. kilenc

February 8, 2022

Contents

Part I

Introduction

Background 1

1.1 Origins

Légatva is an *a priori* artlang originally conceived to fulfill a speedlang challenge, then modified to handle a relay, then finally molded into its own project. Although I had no clear motivations in mind when beginning it, I found that the confluence of random decisions—the Gleb-generated inventory, challenge stipulations, the early translation choices—made the project into something I really enjoyed.

1.2 Goals

The overarching goal is to create something that is cool to me. The project is meant to be naturalistic, but when naturalism conflicts with aesthetic, aesthetic will be prioritized.

A primary way to grow this language and develop new ideas will be through translation of poetry and scientific journals. I hope that these will push the limits of my syntactical rules while also developing an interesting corpus. I'll also try to use 5moyds and hopefully at some point a journal to expand my ability to speak the language and get an intuitive sense for what constructions it prefers.

As I develop this conlang, my goals will be to explore analytic constructions and syntactic minutiae, write in-depth documentation of how information structure manifests in the language, and produce a robust dictionary and corpus.

1.3 Lore

Légatva is set in a worldbuilding project I create as a hobby. The language is an isolate spoken on the eastern coast of a peninsula, once the language of city-states and now a common language throughout a number of coastal countries. It is heavily influenced by East Cape, the *de jure* language of the peninsula, and other languages of trade. The world the speakers know is analogous to our 1930s.

Overview 2

2.1 Typology

Légatva is largely head-initial: verb phrases are broadly verb-object, noun phrases noun-modifier, and prepositional phrases preposition-complement. This pattern holds rather consistently throughout the language, but there are some exceptions, most notably a prominent focus-fronting system.

Focus fronting is discussed further in §11.1.

There are five total word classes in **Légatva**. Most content words are nouns and verbs, but there is a small, closed set of adjectives. Function words are prepositions and particles.

2.2 Syntax

A basic intransitive clause in **Légatva** is composed of a subject followed by a predicate.

(1) **Kanyi hec.**
Kanyi hec
Kanyi is there
"It's Kanyi."

(2) **Mavan tahęci.**
mavan tahęci
the cat stretches
"The cat's stretching."

In a neutral transitive clause, the object follows the verb. Any other dependents are also typically after the object, as in (4).

(3) **Nassoin kąsteci kagesan.**
nassoin kąsteci kagesan
the king leads the army
"The king leads the army."

(4) **Lalan kiraysi sapan h-tesan.**
lalan kiraysi sapan ah=tesan
auntie looks for the dog on=the beach
"Auntie's looking for the dog on the beach."

In some clauses that are more grammatically or informationally marked, other orders are found. Such orders are discussed further in §11.1.

2.3 Morphology

Nouns inflect for number and evidence. Although the generic singular is the citation form, the direct evidence form is the most common in spoken or written corpuses.

The pragmatics of nominal evidentiality are discussed in §7.1.

Table 2.1: Inflection of *metka* "bowl"

	Generic	Direct	Indirect
SG	*metka*	*metkan*	*matkó*
PL	*matkozr*	*matkoznr*	*metkazŕ*

Modifiers agree with their head nouns for evidence. This includes adjectives (like *ócaa*), appositive nouns (like *mulkas*), and pronouns (like *rat*).

(5) **mavá ocaá mulkás rát**

mavá *ocaá* *mulkás* *rát*
cat:UN tall:UN fur:UN me:UN

"my skinny fuzzy cat (I haven't met yet)"

Verbs inflect for person of subjects and objects. They also agree with the evidence of the subject.

The rules governing verbal marking are discussed in §8.1.1 and §8.1.3.

Table 2.2: Inflection of *kęstat* "lead"

	Generic	Proximal	Distal
1.AG	*kąstetr*	*kąstetri*	*kęstatŕ*
1.PT	*kąstetrs*	*kąstetrci*	*kąstetŕs*
2	*kąsteta*	*kęstatai*	*kęstatá*
3C	*kęstac*	*kąsteci*	*kęstatés*
3N	*kęstacz*	*kąsteczi*	*kęstatóz*
3N:1	*kąstetns*	*kęstatnsi*	*kęstatńs*
REFL	*kąstetak*	*kąstetki*	*kęstaták*

There are also two nonfinite verb forms, the bare infinitive and the participle. The infinitive is more noun-like, while the participle is more adverb-like.

Table 2.3: Nonfinite forms of *kęstat* "lead"

Bare	Participle
kęstat	*kąstettal*

Both nominal and verbal marking patterns are largely agglunative, but surface forms may not always resemble their lemma due to morphophonological processes.

Part II

Phonology

Segments 3

Légatva has 26 phonemic segments, comprising 18 consonants and 8 vowels. The segmental inventory is relatively small compared to the cross-linguistic median, but the ratio of consonants to vowel qualities is the same.

There are two major dialects of **Légatva**: the Port Standard dialect and the Frontier Standard dialect. Port Standard is more conservative, formed from the dialect region around the northern coastal cities, whereas Frontier Standard is more innovative, formed from the newer dialect region in the inland cities. The segmental representation of **Légatva** phonology is dialect-neutral, but dialectal realizations of phonemes are discussed when notable.

Discounting tense vowels, the C/VQ ratio in **Légatva** is 3.6; Maddieson (2013) gives the cross-linguistic median as 3.5.

3.1 Consonants

Légatva has 18 consonant phonemes. There are four distinguished places of articulation: *labial*, *plain alveolar*, *sibilant alveolar*, and *dorsal*, and four distinguished methods of articulation: *nasal*, *stop*, *fricative*, and *glide*. Stops can be further divided into tenuis and voiced, although the voiced counterparts are marginal.

Table 3.1: Consonants

	Labial		**Alveolar**		**Sibilant**		**Dorsal**	
Nasal	m	*m*	n	*n*	n͡z	*z*		
Stop	p	*p*	t	*t*	t͡s	*c*	k	*k*
	b	*b*	d	*d*	d͡z	*j*	g	*g*
Fricative	f	*f*	ɬ	*l*	s	*s*	x	*h*
Glide	w	*v*	ɹ	*r*			j	*y*

Nasal sibilant The nasal sibilant /n͡z/ is a typologically odd segment. The prototypical transcription of this sound is [z̃], a voiced fricative with simultaneous nasal release; however, phonetic research suggests that true fricatives cannot be fully nasalized. Thus, this segment's typical realization may be better represented as a slightly fricated approximant [ⁿz̞̃]. Speakers of Frontier Standard often realize it simply as [z], with inconsistent prenasalization. Nevertheless it patterns as a nasal sibilant in distribution and morphophonemic processes and is thus phonemically represented as /n͡z/.

See Ohala et al. (1998) for further discussion of nasal fricatives.

Labial fricative The fricative /f/ has a marginal distribution, mostly appearing in loan words, names, and onomatopoeia. Most instances of historical /f/ underwent debuccalization and were subsequently lost. Although /x/ also appears frequently in onomatopoeia, it has a more widespread distribution and is not considered marginal.

Sibilant affricate Although the phone [t͡s] appears commonly in the corpus, its underlying form is not always the phoneme /t͡s/. The underlying phoneme is usually elucidated by inflection. For example, both *tsekla* "steering wheel" and *cekla* "great uncle" share the same surface form, [ˈt͡sɛkɬə]. However, when inflected for the plural, the former becomes [ˌtasəkˈɬaʒɹ] and the latter [t͡səkˈɬaʒɹ]. As such *tsekla* is analyzed as /tasɛkɬa/, whereas *cekla* is analyzed as /t͡sɛkɬa/.

Affrication of stop-fricative clusters and schwa deletion are common processes that yield [t͡s], discussed further in §5.1.2 and §5.2.2.

Voiced stops Voiced stops are often the result of nasal clusters. They are often realized with slight prenasalization, especially in stressed onsets.

Voicing is discussed further in §5.1.1.

Lateral fricative Canonically represented by /ɬ/, the lateral fricative is rather diverse in its crossdialectal realizations. Historically, **l* became fricated when it dissimilated away from **r*. In Port Standard, /ɬ/ is still realized as [l] except in stressed onsets.

3.2 Vowels

Légatva has 8 vowel phonemes, 2 high and 6 low. Low vowels are additionally split into tense and lax vowels.

	Front		Mid		Back	
High	i	*i*			u	*u*
Low	eː	*ę*	aː	*ą*	oː	*ǫ*
	ɛ	*e*	a	*a*	ɔ	*o*

Table 3.2: Vowels

Vowel neutralization Low vowels are reduced to schwa in unstressed syllables. Schwa is not phonemic, but neutralization is common, so it appears frequently throughout the corpus. In speech, the underlying vowel becomes evident when stress is shifted due to morphological processes.

Neutralization is discussed further in §5.2.1.

Tense vowels Low tense vowels historically derive from nasalized segments, and are still realized with nasalization in the Port Standard dialect. On the other hand, the Frontier Standard dialect typically breaks these vowels, realizing them as falling diphthongs. Because of the disparity of cross-dialect pronunciations, the primary distinguishing feature is tenseness.

Many of the nonstandard frontier dialects further merge /aː/ and /oː/.

Tense vowels are mostly found in open syllables. Lax vowels are usually found in closed syllables.

4 Supersegments

4.1 Stress

Stress typically falls on the penultimate syllable of a word. Atypical vowel stress, most common in loan words and compounds, is marked with an acute.

For example, *kemu* “fruit slice” is predictable and unmarked, but *meatrę́* “limb” has atypical final stress and is thus marked.

Stress is lexically productive. Words phonemically distinguished only by stress often have further differences in realization caused by reduction. For example, although *rasrę́* “netting” and *resrą* “owl” have the same segments, /rɛsreː/, the stress pattern obscures that.

Stress is also morphologically productive, distinguishing between unmarked and direct evidence in nouns. Affixation, compounding, and other stress-shifting processes often cause stress-based minimal pairs to become homophones.

Stressed vowels have three phonetic differences from unstressed vowels. First, they typically have a rising pitch. Second, they are typically longer than unstressed vowels. Third, onsets before long vowels have a longer VOT than other onsets, a manifestation of slight aspiration or breathiness.

Secondary stress falls on alternating syllables starting from primary stress and spreading left. For example, *kagęsa* “army” has regular stress on the penultimate syllable, but when inflected in plural form, it surfaces as *kegąsazr* [ˌkɛ.gəːˈsaː.z̃ɹ]. Secondary stress prevents the reduction of /e a o/ to [ə], but, unlike primary stress, does not cause length or VOT increase.

Morphophonology 5

5.1 Consonants

5.1.1 Voicing

Across morpheme boundaries, clusters composed of a nasal and stop are realized as voiced stops, occasionally prenasalized. Clusters where the nasal is the onset of a syllable, not a coda, do not assimilate, so /‖pn‖/ is still realized /pn/.

These clusters assimilate in place to the stop, so /‖np‖/ surfaces as /b/, not /d/.

The assimilation process is the source of all native words with voiced plosives, so the phonemes have a limited and predictable distribution. Foreign words with voiced plosives are often loaned with epenthetic vowels that break up clusters, making the words more closely match native phonotactics.

As such, voiced stops are only marginally phonemic.

Some conjugations of *m*-stem verbs are spelled with a word-final voiced plosive, but the stop is still typically realized as a medial cluster. For example, *seg* "tell themselves" is underlying /‖sɛm+k‖/ and realized as [sɛ$^{(n)}$g^{ə}].

Some younger speakers always elide the final schwa, especially in the south.

5.1.2 Affrication and assibilation

Across morpheme boundaries, clusters of /t/ and a fricative are realized as a sibilant affricate. Clusters of /‖t+s‖/, /‖t+f‖/, /‖t+ɬ‖/ and /‖t+x‖/ all neutralize to /t͡s/, romanized as *c*.

Clusters of /t/ and the other sibilant phonemes also affricate, but instead of neutralizing to /t͡s/, they have other realizations. Clusters of /‖t+n͡z‖/ are realized as [t͡ʂ], romanized as *cz*. Clusters of /‖t+ts‖/ are realized as [t͡sː], romanized as *cc*. In practice, however, these realizations are rare, even when speaking the standardized dialect; most speakers simply render both clusters as [t͡s].

[t͡ʂ] is notoriously hard for non-native speakers to pronounce and is often used as a shibboleth.

Similar to the affrication process, clusters of sibilants and non-sibilant fricative clusters also neutralize. Unvoiced sibilants /‖t͡s s‖/ clustering with /‖s f x ɬ‖/ become /s/, romanized as *cc* or *ss* depending on the underlying phoneme. The voiced sibilant /‖n͡z‖/ becomes /n͡z/ instead, romanized as *zz*.

Sporadically realized as a long [sː] or [ʐ̟ː].

5.2 Vowels

5.2.1 Low vowel neutralization

Low vowels are reduced to [ə] in unstressed syllables. For tense vowels, the schwa is metrically longer [əː]. Primary or secondary stress can prevent reduction. The high vowels /i u/ never reduce to schwa.

5.2.2 Schwa deletion

The reduced vowel [ə] is often deleted between consonants, especially between plosives and sibilants. For example, *ksarat* /kɔsaɹat/ is usually [ksaɹət], and spelled accordingly. When clustering in this way, both /͡ts/ and /s/ become /s/. The elision process results in word-final or word-initial [s] or [z̃] being the only common syllable-internal clusters. However, these clusters are not consistently realized, and occasionally have an epenthetic schwa, especially word-finally.

Tense schwa [əː] rarely undergoes deletion as it is typically longer than [ə].

6 Phonotactics

6.1 Roots

Modern native lemma derive from CV or CV(C)CV roots. Some roots have null initials, but they are comparatively rare. Roots allow CC clusters that aren't allowed across morpheme boundaries.

Roots are nominal by default, and in the corpus many roots appear in bare form as nouns. Stems reflect reduced derivational morphemes that transformed roots into verbs or other nouns.

Stem endings can often be reconstructed with vague meanings.

The most prominent verb stem is *-t*, forming both transitive and intransitive verbs with a variety of meanings. Another common stem is *-m*, which also derives stems of either valency class and has a vaguely frequentative connotation. The other rarer verb stems are the intransitive *-k* and the transitive *-l* and *-y*, which encoded some kind of telicity distinction.

Outside of bare roots, *-s* stem is the most common for nouns. There are also *-c* stems and *-z* stems, which likely derived collective and agentive nouns, respectively. All nouns belonging to the sibilant stems are neuter gender. The non-sibilant *-r* stem can form nouns of either gender.

Function words A smaller set of phonemic segments are allowed in functional morphemes. Neither the labials /p f m w/ nor the high vowel /u/ appear in affixes, particles, or prepositions. In the fossilized partial reduplication process, the reflexes of labial consonants are either /k/ (← /p f/) or /n/ (← /m w/). The high vowel /u/ lowers to /o/, often simply realized as [ə].

Because /u/ and /w/ pattern similarly, some phonemic analyses conflate them.

Part III

Morphosyntax

Nouns 7

The **Légatva** noun phrase is largely analytic, but nouns do inflect for evidence and number.

7.1 Evidence

Nominal evidence marks the kind of knowledge the speaker has about the referent. Verbs and adjectives exhibit agreement for this evidence. There are three evidential categories: *generic*, *direct*, and *indirect*.

Although diachronically related to distal demonstratives, evidential forms are primarily indicators of non-propositional evidentiality, *i.e.* the speaker's evidence of a nominal referent. Evidence in this sense is either *direct* or *indirect*. Direct evidence is a firsthand account, which is typically by sight but can be some other sense. Indirect evidence is largely hearsay or inference. The non-propositional evidentiality system in **Légatva** is based on the speaker's knowledge at or prior to speech time, not the event time.

I had this idea, then found out that, as usual, a natural language had it first. Read Huijsmans, Reisinger, and Matthewson (2020) for more about the Salishan languages.

Bhadra (2020) terms this a Type I system.

7.1.1 Direct

Direct evidence signals that the speaker has personal, firsthand experience with the referent. Usually, it means the speaker has met the person, or sensed the object, being referred to. It encodes many senses, including sight, hearing, and touch.

(6) **Nassoin miyin kąstec-i Katva z-dahęs t-hakra.**

nassoi-n *miyi-n* *kąstec-i* *Katva ez=dahęs* *tę=hakra*
king-KN brave-KN leads-KN Katva peoples into=battle

"The heroic king (I've met) led our people into battle."

Direct evidence is marked with the suffix *-n*. This suffix attaches before derivational suffixes like *-s* or *-r*.

7.1.2 Indirect

Indirect evidence signals that the speaker has heard of the referent, or can make an educated guess about it. Inference is fairly broad; in practice, it's used for most things the speaker hasn't sensed.

(7) **egi Matkó aczé samés t-het.**

egi matkó aczé sem-és tę=het
just basket:UN two:UN will-3.UN to=be at

"There'll be just two baskets (I've heard)." (5MOYD #1314)

Indirect evidence is marked by shifting stress to the final syllable of the word.

7.1.3 Generic

The generic form of the noun is morphologically least marked and used as the citation form. However, in practice its meaning is more semantically restricted than either direct or indirect forms.

The generic form is most often used for gnomic statements.

(8) **Kęsa esyi oc.**

kęsa esyi oc
hero good is

"Heroes are good."

The generic is also use for non-specific referents. In (9), the use of *vącizr* conveys that there's not any particular group being referenced.

(9) **Nassoin semsi vącizr t-kęstat.**

nassoin semsi vącizr t=kęstat
the king may mercenary:PL to=hire

"The king may hire mercenaries."

If direct or indirect evidence exists, it's infelicitous to use the generic form.

7.2 Number

Nouns inflect morphologically for an additive plural, but there is also a periphrastic construction used to form associative plurals, and other constructions to convey semantic plurality.

The unmarked form of a noun encodes expected number and thus must be modified by a numeral or appositive to convey some other sense, such as a singular or dual.

For example, *parsa* "eyes" defaults to a pair and needs some specifier to be singular.

(a) *matkozr* **(b)** *ezzu metka*

Figure 7.1: Additive vs. associative plurals

The primary difference in the two plurals is the composition of the set: additive plurals refer to largely homogenous referents, whereas associative plurals refer to largely heterogenous referents.

7.2.1 Additive plurals

Additive plurals are used for a set of homogenous referents and never heterogenous referents; *e.g.* *matkozr* is "a set of the same (or similar) vase" and never "a set of diverse vases."

The second meaning would use the associative plural.

Additive plurality is indicated through the suffix *-zr*. Morphonologically, this suffix can be thought to precede evidence marking; it circumfixes the direct evidence marker, and bears the final stress of the indirect evidence marker.

(10) a. **matkozr** basket-PL b. **matkoznr** basket-PL.KN c. **metkazŕ** basket-PL.UN

However, marking is optional: a noun can be inferred additively plural from context. It's especially common to not mark plurals for small, discreetly countable sets or when a referent has been established plural in prior conversation.

Mandatory plural marking is stylistically preferred in formal contexts.

Because of this the plural suffix can be considered partly derivational, and there are other alternative strategies to form plurals.

7.2.2 Periphrastic plurality

Numerals and modifiers are the primary alternate plural strategies. They don't require plural marking on the noun. If the plural is used, it typically conveys a set.

(11) a. **cǫhi ocza**
cǫhi ocza
dress two
"two dresses"

b. **cąhizr ocza**
cąhi-zr ocza
dress-PL two
"two sets of dresses"

The noun *tevi* "many" is the most common appositive modifier to use for the plural. It can also be used to mean "each," especially when used with pronouns.

See §...

(12) a. **vęci tevi**
"some mercenaries"

b. **rat tevi**
"each of us"

Some nouns have collocative modifiers to specify their plurals, which are noted in the dictionary.

7.2.3 Associative plurals

The associative plural is used for a set of heterogenous referents. For animate (especially human) referents, the meaning is canonically "a person and their associates," as in (13). The focal referent (*i.e.* most important) is the marked noun.

The focal referent is the main member of the group; see Daniel and Moravcsik (2007).

(13) **Sayanaltal oci ezzu Kanyi z-lanr.**
sayenaltal oci ezzu Kanyi ez=lanr
being ignorant be ASSC NAME in=this
"For this, Kanyi and his friends won't be much help."

However, the associative can also have a number of idiomatic, context-specific meanings, usually referring to diverse groups.

(14) **ezzu Mazziznr segi s-yiat saska hakra.**
ezzu mazzinzr segi su=yiat saska hakra
ASSC ballers want:REFL to=steal comeback
"The entire league wants to pull off the upset."

The associative plural is marked with the preposition *ezzu*. Like other *su*-derived prepositions, it's commonly stranded.

See §...

7.3 Gender

Although nouns traditionally distinguish *common* and *neuter* gender, this has largely become a prescriptive convention. Most neuter words are either loan words or end in *-s*.

The gender distinction is more common in literature or academia.

Some words only distinguish gender for certain uses or contexts, so dictionaries typically denote if a given usage is expected to require neuter gender.

7.4 Adjectives and Apposition

Adjectives and appositive nouns used as modifiers have similar morphological and syntactic distributions. Adjectives in **Légatva** are essentially a subset of nouns that cannot head a noun phrase.

7.4.1 Adjectives

Adjectives agree with their head noun for evidence (but not number) and syntactically appear before other modifiers like appositives or prepositionals.

(15) **tseklan sovan**

tsekla-n *sova-n*
wheel-KN new-KN

"new vehicle"

Adjectives form a small, closed class; there are approximately 20 adjectives. Most adjectives are color words or broadly describe physical states.

7.4.2 Apposition

Apposition is common due to the small adjective class present in **Légatva**. Like adjectives, appositive nouns show agreement with the noun they modify.

(16) **tseklan ahkan**

tsekla-n *akha-n*
wheel-KN wise-KN

"trusty vehicle"

Apposition is used in a number of collocative constructions, but is distinct from compounding largely because of stress patterns and morphophonological processes.

Compounds shift stress and show cross-morpheme sound changes.

7.4.3 Inalienable possession

Apposition is also used for inalienable possession.

(17) a. **hora kęsa**
"soldier's wrist"

b. **hora im-kęsa**
"soldier's skill"

Inalienable possession is typical for body parts and relatives. As in (17b), more metaphorical senses of these nouns have regular possession marking.

7.5 Pronouns

Like adjectives, pronouns are morphologically and syntactically similar to other nouns.

Légatva has four personal pronouns. Personal pronouns are usually anaphoric, referring to some earlier referent in discourse. Although verbs agree with person, they are rarely omitted except in rapid speech like commands.

1ST	*rat*
2ND	*a*
CMN	*sec*
NTR	*moc*

Table 7.1: Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns can inflect for plurality, but it's not common; typically the inflection is reserved for clarity or emphasis. They almost never inflect for evidence, except to agree with head nouns in appositive constructions.

Unlike nouns, personal pronouns can be used appositively for both alienable and inalienable possession. Constructions with *im* are more emphatic.

(18) a. **Iamaj ratn pici.**
iamaj rat-n pici
net:KN 1:KN be:KN
"It's my net."

b. **Iamaj m-rat pici.**
iamaj im=rat pici
net:KN of=1 be:KN
"The net is *mine*."

Furthermore, clauses can be intensified with a reduplicated *im* construction.

(19) **rat m-rat satr lanr.**

rat *im=rat* *satr* *lanr*
1 of=1 do this
"I myself did this."

There are also two impersonal pronouns. Their meanings are similar to "something" and "somebody," respectively. The most common use for them is as dummy arguments of verbs.

NTR	*lar*
CMN	*mans*

Table 7.2: Impersonal pronouns

7.6 Phrasal syntax

Noun phrases are predominantly head-initial. Generally speaking, syntactically simpler constituents occur before more syntactically complex ones.

(20) head → adjective → number → appositive → prepositional

8 Verbs

Like the noun phrase, the **Légatva** verb phrase is mostly analytic, and inflection is largely reserved for agreement. Other parts of the verb complex are handled by periphrastic constructions, notably valency operations and TAM.

8.1 Agreement

Verbs display agreement along two axes: *evidence* and *person*. Evidence agreement is only with the subject of the clause, but person agreement is with both subject and the object, if the verb is transitive. Only the sole finite verb of a clause bears agreement; verbs demoted to adjuncts or arguments are always uninflected.

Despite person agreement, **Légatva** rarely allows PRO-drop.

8.1.1 Person

In old **Légatva**, verbal person agreement was transparently derived from cliticized pronouns. However, sound change reduced agreement endings, leading to synchronic forms that are often actually patient agreement.

If there's a neuter argument in a transitive clause, the verb will agree with that and ignore other arguments. If there's also a first-person argument, that form is used; otherwise the generic neuter is used.

1:N	*-ns*
1.AG	*-rc*
1.PT	*-r*
NTR	*-z*
CMN	*-s*

Table 8.1: Transitive person agreement

(21) **Kęsan ikuczi retus.**

kęsa-n *ikut-z-i* *retus*
soldier.CMN-KN buy-NTR-KN blade.NTR

"The soldier bought a sword."

If there's not a neuter argument in a transitive clause, agreement is determined by person. If a first-person argument is present, agreement is selected by its role subject or object. Otherwise the generic common is used.

1	*-r*
2	*-a*
NTR	*-z*
CMN	*-s*

Table 8.2: Intransitive person agreement

(22) **hes a Ąks lattan.**

hes *a* *ąk-s* *latta-n*
Q 2 eat-CMN paella.CMN-KN

"You ate a paella?"

Importantly, second-person agreement, *-a*, only appears on intransitive verbs; for transitive verbs, the appropriate agreement with the other argument is used instead.

Gender Gender agreement is the only manifestation of gender in the language, but it's often ignored in most casual speech. It's primarily a feature of the written or formal register. Thus the agreement patterns of a verb are often more straightforward in spoken **Légatva**.

Phonological processes The agreement suffixes follow morphophonological rules as expected. For example, word-final /+rt͡s/ is rendered as /rs/, and /t+s/ sequences yield /t͡s/.

8.1.2 Reflexive

The reflexive takes the place of person agreement. The reflexive is the same regardless of the person of the subject.

Since it reduces a verb's valency by one argument slot, the reflexive is only valid for transitive verbs. Intransitive verbs cannot be inflected for the reflexive.

REFL	*-k*

Table 8.3: Reflexive marking

8.1.3 Evidence

Verbs agree with the evidence of their subject. Generic noun forms do not have agreement morphemes, but marked evidences do. Direct evidence is marked with the suffix *-i*, and indirect evidence is marked by shifting stress to the final syllable of the word. These suffixes occur after person marking suffixes.

Due to historical stress rules, the indirect evidence agreement suffix is more fusional for some select verb forms. Although the vowel was lost from the common and neuter agreement suffixes in other forms, it remains in the indirect form.

Speech participants First-person and second-person subjects don't require any evidence agreement suffix; they're left unmarked. However, if the verb is marked for the reflexive, these persons will use direct evidence agreement.

Generic	Indirect
-s	*-és*
-z	*-óz*

Table 8.4: Deictic forms of agreement

Propositional evidentiality Evidence agreement is simply indexing; it doesn't make any assertion about the evidence of the verb or clause itself.

(23) **Lalan haramsi mensapŕ.**

lala-n *haram-s-i* *mensapŕ*
auntie-KN make-CMN-KN jacket:UN

"Auntie (who I know) bought a jacket (and I may or may not have witnessed her do it)"

A cleft construction is typically used to focus the evidence of the verb itself, as in (24).

(24) **Manás oci haradal; solr: lalan saci mensapŕ.**

manás *ot-és* *haradal* *solr* *lala-n* *sac-i* *mensapŕ*
DMY:UN be-UN making and aunti-KN did-KN jacket:UN

"I heard that Auntie bought a jacket."

The cleft makes uses of two clauses; the first is marked for the evidence of the proposition, and the second clarifies the referent.

8.2 Transitivity

Transitivity is lexically set, and verbs are strict about the number of arguments they can have. There are three valency classes a verb can fall into: *transitive*, *intransitive*, and *pseudo-transitive*. Transitive verbs always have two arguments and intransitive verbs always have one. Pseudo-transitive verbs also take more than one argument, but are morphologically intransitive, and as such their additional argument is a prepositional phrase that cannot be omitted.

All valency classes allow a number of optional but often collocated adjuncts, introduced as prepositional phrases or converbs.

8.2.1 Reducing valency

There are few methods to decrease a verb's valency, which is usually done to allow certain focal constructions or when an argument is sufficiently clear from context.

Passives and antipassives The most common method of reducing a verb's valency is through a periphrastic construction using a copula.

(25) a. **Piran yiaci kemu.**

piran *yiaci* *kemu*
kid:KN steal fruit slice

"The kid stole some fruit slices."

b. **Piran oci yiattal.**

piran *oci* *yiattal*
kid:KN is stealing

"The kid stole."

c. **Kemu hec yiattal.**

kemu *hec* *yiattal*
fruit slice is stealing

"Some fruit slices were stolen."

These constructions use the participle because nonfinite verb forms can omit arguments. See §8.3.3.

The antipassive in (25b) uses *ot* and the participle; the object is removed. The passive in (25c) uses *het* and the participle; the subject is removed and the former object is promoted.

Dummy arguments Many verbs can also be made semantically intransitive with dummy arguments. The specific dummy arguments allowed depend on the verb, but in informal registers it's common to use generic ones instead.

Some verbs have multiple collocations for different senses.

(26) a. **a Sems sapa.**

a *sems* *sapa*
2 say:3 dog

"You're talking about dogs."

b. **a Sems lar.**

a *sems* *lar*
2 say:3 DMY

"You're talking."

c. **Lar sems sapa.**

lar *sems* *sapa*
DMY say:3 dog

"There's talk about dogs."

In informal registers, these verbs are often treated as syntactically intransitive. In such cases, the dummy noun is also phonologically eroded, a sign of increasing grammaticalization.

(27) **a Sémalr.**

a sem-a-lr
2 say-2-DMY

"You're talkin'."

Bleached reflexive A small number of verbs can be made intransitive via the reflexive.

(28) **a Segi.**

a segi
2 say:REFL

"You're talking."

The reflexive as a devalency operation is only felicitous for a handful of verbs like *sem* and *sat*.

8.3 Nonfinite forms

Verbs have two nonfinite forms, an *infinitive* and a *participle*. The main difference is that infinitives are more noun-like, while participles are more adverb-like.

8.3.1 Infinitives

The infinitive is the unmarked citation form of the verb. It's commonly used in periphrastic constructions as the complement of a preposition.

(29) **ezzu sec Semsi rat m-ossat.**

ezzu sec semsi rat im=ossat
ASSC 3 want 1 to=grow

"They want me to grow up."

Although they are noun-like, infinitives cannot be arguments of verbs, only arguments of prepositions.

8.3.2 Participle

The participle form of a verb is used primarily as an adverb. The subordinated participle is an action that occurs simultaneously with the main clause. This is often used to mark manner of motion.

(30) **rat Satrs paltan lạittal.**

rat satrs paltan lạittal
1 go to the house running

"I ran to the house."

The participle is marked with the suffix *-tal*.

Like the infinitive, the participle is common in periphrastic constructions, especially for reflexive verbs.

8.3.3 Argument omission

Both types of nonfinite verbs do not have fixed valence and can omit all arguments. In some periphrastic constructions, those arguments are still required by the new finite verb. However, other constructions, and general adjectival or adverbial use, often appear without overt arguments.

8.4 Negation

Negation can be handled in multiple ways. The typical method is a periphrastic construction with the verb *rek*.

8.5 Aspect and mood

Aspect and mood are conveyed through periphrastic constructions or content words like certain adverbs.

8.5.1 Irrealis

The irrealis construction uses *sem* "say, want," demoting the semantic verb to adjunct with the preposition *tę*. The irrealis can be used in any time frame, although by default it does have future-time connotation.

(31) **Rappahan semsi ecmalǫya sova t-portam.**

rappahan	*semsi*	*ecmalǫya*	*sova*	*tę=portam*
the minister	should	pants	new	to=try

"The minister should try on some new pants."

The irrealis is used for all events that the speaker supposes should occur. Typically the expectation is deontic, although it can be epistemtic. The construction is very general, and has broad semantic meaning—including conditional, jussive, and optative senses.

Deontic expectations come from morals, ideals, and desires, while epistemic expectations come from observations and inference.

9 Adpositions

Adpositions are syntactically bound morphemes that express some relationship, often spacial, between constituents.

Adpositions are a closed class, composed of only six members; finer distinctions can be made with *compound adpositions*, such as *t-kams im* "after", literally "from the back of." Although many such constructions are common enough to be lexically set, they are not nearly as ubiquitous as lone prepositions.

9.1 True prepositions

There are five true prepositions in **Légatva**. These prepositions exclusively appear as verbal adjuncts or as modifiers of a noun phrase.

9.1.1 im

The adposition *im* indicates alienable possession. It can also indicate origin.

(32) a. **retus m-kęsa**
retus im=kęsa
blade of=soldier
"soldier's sword"

b. **kęsa m-Natra**
kęsa im=Natra
soldier of=Natra
"soldier from Natra"

Im is also a common complementizer.

9.1.2 ez

The adposition *ez* conveys location inside an object or large body. It can also be used for composition of manmade objects.

(33) a. **gelaǫ́ z-hels**
fort ez=hels
fort in=mountain
"fort in mountains"

b. **hąna z-iama**
hąna ez=iama
coil in=knot
"woven cord"

9.1.3 tę

The adposition *tę* conveys motion relative to a location, either towards or away from.

It's commonly used as an adjunct that conveys the goal of the verb, as in (34).

(34) **rat Łąitr t-kiray rapręn acoan.**

rat łąitr tę-kiray rapręn acoan
1 run to=find bus
"I had to run to catch the bus."

9.1.4 ah

The adposition *ah* conveys location on the surface of another object. It can also be used for general location.

9.1.5 u

The adposition *u* conveys association alongside, or is used as a conjunction between two noun phrases.

(35) a. **taspa u-tesa**

taspa u=tesa
sea and=shore
"sea and shore"

b. **lanr u-lár**

lanr u=lár
this and=that
"this and that"

U is more limited in semantic scope than other adpositions and is rarely used in compound prepositions to gain further nuance.

9.2 Stranded prepositions

Stranded prepositions have a similar syntactic distribution to the true prepositions, but have some key differences. Notably, they do not need to have a verbal or nominal head. In this sense they function somewhat like articles, appearing before nouns with some extra meaning or connotation.

9.2.1 su

The prototypical stranded preposition is *su*, which has a similar meaning to *u*.

Like other prepositions, *su* can be used to modify a noun phrase. However, it often appears without any nominal or verbal head. This can be used for emphasis.

(36) **s-kagęsa s-kagę́stapa**

su=kagęsa su=kagę́stapa
and=army and=navy

"both army and navy"

However, the more common use for *su* is simply linking two or more phrases. It's much more flexible than *u* in this regard; for example, it can take prepositional phrases as complements.

(37) **hąna su z-iama z-ecma**

hąna su ez=iama ez=ecma
coil and in=knot in=wool

"cord made from wool and fiber"

9.2.2 Others

Some compound prepositions are formed with *su*. The most common are *ezzu*, used for associative plurals, and *occu*, used for some quotative constructions.

10 Particles

Particles are a small but open class of discourse markers that can appear at the beginning of a clause. They appear before other constituents of a clause, including even fronted arguments or adjuncts.

Multiple particles Only one particle can appear in a clause. If multiple particles are required, a cleft construction is used.

(38) **yiz: Otr. vi: Mans pesayrs rat, vi: Mans kirayrs rat?**

yiz *ot-r* *vi* *mans* *pesay-rc* *rat* *vi* *mans* *kiray-rc* *rat*
then be-1 Q who marry-1.AG 1 Q who find-1.AG 1

"Now then—who do I marry, who do I find?" (5MOYD #1518)

Although most particles have discourse or conversational implications, some serve more grammatical function. The two most common types of grammatical particles are *clause flaggers* and *conjunctions*.

10.1 Clause flaggers

Clause-flagging particles mark that the clause that follows is not a declarative sentence in some way.

10.1.1 hes

The particle *hes* marks polar questions.

10.1.2 vi

The particle *vi* marks content questions.

10.1.3 ǫm

The particle *ǫm* marks imperatives.

10.2 Conjunctions

Conjuction particles mark that the clause that follows is somehow subordinate to the clause that precedes it.

10.2.1 kai

The particle *kai* marks quoted speech. The preceding clause is typically a speech verb.

10.2.2 tęlr

The particle *tęlr* marks a clause that is the result of the clause that precedes it.

10.2.3 yiz

The particle *yiz* marks a clause that occurs despite the clause that precedes it.

10.2.4 solr

The particle *solr* coordinates two clauses.

Clauses 11

The base-generated word order in **Légatva** is SVO. Adjuncts, including demoted verbal constructions, typically come after the core arguments of the verb.

11.1 Fronting

Légatva allows frequent focus fronting. The most proximal, most newsworthy information is placed in the front of an utterance in first position. Both arguments and adjuncts can be fronted, moving other arguments and adjuncts to after the verb.

(39) a. **rat Mansatrs paltan t-ąk.**

rat mansatrs paltan tę=ąk
1 leave.for house:KN to=eat

"I'm going home to eat."

b. **t-Ąk mansatrs paltan rat.**

tę=ąk mansatrs paltan rat
to=eat leave.for home 1

"I'm going home *to eat*."

The most likely phrases to be fronted are referents marked for indirect evidence . Occasionally, referents marked for direct evidence will be fronted, typically to establish them as the topic. Generic noun phrases are rarely fronted except in fixed constructions.

Indirect evidence correlates with the conversational focus.

Clefting If a subject needs to be fronted, then a cleft construction is used. The most common verb to use is *ot*, but sometimes others are used, especially in literature.

(40) **rat Otr. rat Mansatrs paltan t-ąk.**

rat otr rat mansatrs paltan tę=ąk
1 be 1 leave.for house:KN to=eat

"It's me, *I'm* going home to eat."

The clefting construction is also common for non-subjects to particularly convey contrastive focus.

11.2 Subordination

Subordination in **Légatva** can be complicated because verbs can't take other verbs as arguments. Strategies typically include asyndeton or prepositions.

11.2.1 Complementation

The two most common types of complementation are *im*-complements and *su*-complements.

im-complements The *im*-complement is an object raising construction, used only for transitive verbs. The complement clause's subject is raised to the object of the matrix clause, and the complement predicated attaches to the raised subject as a prepositional phrase with *im*.

The raised object satisfies the valency requirement of the verb.

(41) **Amassaiznr semsi nassoin m-kęstat vęci**

amassaiznr semsi nassoin im=kęstat vęci
bureaucracy wants king to=lead mercenaries

"The cabinet wants the king to hire mercenary forces."

Other prepositions can take complements, too, but those are typically lexically determined by the verb.

su-complements The *su*-complement is a somewhat more flexible than the *im*-complement. *Su* simply introduces the complement clause.

(42) **egi Lalan oci semnal s-ossat rat.**

egi lalan oci semnal su=ossat rat
just auntie is wanting to=1 grow

"Auntie just wants me to keep growing up."

As a stranded preposition, *su* can essentially act like a verbal argument. However, it cannot actually fill the valency slot, so the verb must be intransitive or made intransitive through some passive, antipassive, or other means.

Unlike *im*-complements, *su*-complements allow equideletion.

(43) **Kipiran oci semnal s-tahąt z-ista.**

kipiran oci semnal su=tahąt ez=ista
teen be wanting to=pray to=grace
"The teen wants to bless the food."

11.2.2 Speech reporting

Directly reporting speech with an exact quote is accomplished through particles and other typical complementation strategies, while indirect speech reporting used a participle.

Quoting The quotative particle *kai* is the most common way of quoting speech.

(44) **sec Oci. kai: Yiazin rat otr.**

sec oci kai yiazin rat otr
3 be QT thief 1 be
"He said, 'I am the thief."'

The speech verb can take an adjunct with *tę*. The adjunct specifies who's being spoken to.

(45) **sec Oci t-kęsa. kai: Yiazin rat otr.**

sec oci tę=kęsa kai yiazin rat otr
3 be to=soldier QT thief 1 be
"He said to the soldier, 'I am the thief."'

Informally, a construction with the particle *occu* is used.

(46) **sec Pici occu yiazin rat otr.**

sec pici occu yiazin rat otr
3 be QT thief 1 be
"He was like, 'I am the thief."'

Reporting Participle complements are used for indirect speech reporting. The participle complement is the reported speech.

(47) **Kęsan segi hetnal paknalác z-Natra.**

kęsan	*segi*	*hetnal*	*paknalác*	*z=Natra*
hero	says	being.at	inn	in=Natra

"The hero says there's an inn at Natra."

This construction is typically used only with the verb *sem*.

Part IV

Appendix

Lexicon A

A **Légatva**-to-English dictionary is provided below.

How to use

Entries for lexical items are listed by their spelling in generic form, ignoring morphophonological alterations. Derived words are listed as separate entries, but their source word is given. On the other hand, idiomatic or fixed expressions are given under the lexical item.

Each sense of a word has three basic parts: a quick, single-word translation for ease-of-use; a more detailed explanation of the concept; and an example sentence. The sentences are usually designed to help the reader figure the word's meaning out from context, particularly for **Légatva** speakers and learners.

Pronunciations are given dictionary-style in a phonetic alphabet more intuitive to native **Légatva** speakers. See §3 for more about the sounds of **Légatva** and their transcriptions.

A

a • *prn.* • **1** second-person pronoun

adahęs • *noun* • **1** sand **2** (idiom) citizens **3** **(z-adahęs)** public, people

ah • *prep.* • **1** at

ahka • *noun* • **1** pair of feet **2** **(ahka mei)** foot **3** wisdom **4** (adj., of people) wise **5** (adj., of things) trusty, reliable **6** **(ahka esyi)** aphorism

ahkam • *verb in.* ⟵ *ahka* + -m • **1** journey to *tę*

akral • *verb tr.* ⟵ *husal* + *-eks* • **1** give **2** (refl.) hold, own **3** leads to, correlates with

akva • *noun* • /akvo/ • **1** valley

almani • *noun* • **1** wave **2** current, riptide

as • *noun* • **1** foreigner

atlar • *noun* • **1** ceremonial cord **2** police **3** police officer

attąl • *verb tr.* • /áttęl/ • **1** sift, sort through: *sec attęssi siazr t-makra m-mas t-kiray nahó séc* "he combed the sand for an hour trying to find his ring" **2** collect, pile together: *sec attęssi nahazŕ t-hels m-het* "he collected the rings together into a mountain"

azyam • *verb tr.* • **1** (of crops) plant, sow **2** (idiom, of people) give birth to

Ą

ąk • *verb tr.* • **1** eat

ąs • *adj.* • **1** wet

B

bęssat • *verb tr.* • **1** perform a dance with *u* someone: *sec bąsseci yésacza u-mans husalaks* "he's performed the two step with famous people"

C

cira • *noun* • /círě/ • **1** salad: *rat otr partedal s-ąk cira, tęlr rat ócaa hetr* "I'm thinking of eating salads to get thin"

cǫhi • *noun* • **1** undershirt, underwear **2** dress

cozza • *noun* • /cózzě/ • **1** pole **2** (adj., of people) sober **3** (adj., of things) rigid, firm

cunna • *noun* • **1** medium sized seawater fish **2** **(cunna retus)** river fish **3** **(cunna lǫya)** small fish **4** **(cunna ócaa)** eel, oarfish **5** **(cunna sapa)** shark

E

ecma • *noun* • **1** wool, linen

ecmalǫya • *noun* • **1** pants **2** shoes

egi • *ptcl.* • **1** just, only

emassoi • *noun* • **1** boss **2** coach, manager **3** **(emassoi kąstezi)** on-field coach **4** **(emassoi ǫkas)** general manager

ems • *noun* • /émăs/ • **1** (ntr.) plot of land

ens • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) in, inner **2** (adj.) inner

ensat • *verb tr.* ⟵ *ens* + *sat* • **1** approach

ensel • *verb tr.* • **1** help with *im*

esyi • *adj.* • **1** good **2** correct, appropriate

ez • *prep.* • **1** among, in **2** made of

ezzu • *prep.* • **1** associates of

G

gelaǫ • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) fort **2** college, university

gerraós • *noun* • **1** a man's given name

H

hakra • *noun* • **1** battle, skirmish **2** (pl.) military campaign **3** (pl., of school) semester

halia • *noun* • /hělíŏ/ • **1** body part **2** (**halia ąs**) internal organ

halma • *noun* • **1** (of distance) far

hąna • *noun* • /hąně/ • **1** coil **2** length of rope or wire **3** (adj., of people) drunk: *emassoin m-rat ikuci retą s-ot hąna rat* "our boss bought shots and I got drunk"

hariamazi • *noun* • /hŏriamázi/ • **1** weaver, embroider, seamstress **2** (**hariamazi men**) tailor

hassusal • *verb tr.* • /hŏssúsăl/ • **1** exalt, praise **2** (refl.) boast about *tę* **3** root for, cheer for

hels • *noun* • /hélas/ • **1** (ntr.) mountain

hemza • *noun* • **1** big cat

het • *verb in.* • **1** be at: *sec h-tesa heci* "he's at the beach"

hora • *noun* • **1** wrist **2** (idiom) craftmanship, handiness: *hakra sec pici* "he's talented"

hóråks • *noun* • /hórǫ̆kăs/ • **1** mathematics

horiama • *noun* • **1** weaving, embroidery

husal • *verb tr.* • **1** shout at

husaleks • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) fame **2** (adj.) famous

I

iama • *noun* • **1** knot **2** (adj.) woven

iamac • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) webbing, netting **2** displeasing pattern **3** chaos: *paknan oci t-iamac h-makra m-piran* "the kids turned the chose into chaos"

ikut • *verb tr.* • **1** buy

im • *prep.* • **1** of **2** from

ista • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) decaffenated tea **2** (adj., of coffee) decaf **3** (adj., of alcohol) virgin **4** (religious) grace, a quite prayer for blessing food or travel

isyus • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) shield **2** special forces

K

kagęsa • *noun* • /kĕgę́să/ • **1** army **2** (of sports) team, club

kai • *ptcl.* • **1** says, saying

kams • *noun* • **1** back, the part of the body opposite the face below the neck and above the thigh, including the buttocks **2** (**t-kams im**) after

kemu • *noun* • **1** fruit slice

kęsa • *noun* • **1** soldier **2** (of literature) protagonist, hero

kęsamen • *noun* • **1** fashion police

kęstat • *verb tr.* • /kęstĕt/ • **1** lead towards *tę* a goal **2** command: *nassoin kateci s-kągęsa s-kagęstaspa* "the king commands both army and navy" **3** train in *tę* a skill: *t-horam iama kąstetri rat lala* "auntie's teaching me to sew" **4** formally school in *ez* a discipline: *rappahan pici kąstettal z-latya* "the minister was brought up in the faith"

kęstatvassa • *noun* • **1** pioneer, trendsetter

kipira • *noun* • **1** teenager

kiray • *verb tr.* • **1** search for **2** find

kotassoi • *noun* • /kotŏssói/ • **1** (of people) body, self

kotus • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) divinity **2** (adj.) divine

L

laczi • *noun* • **1** faith

lala • *noun* • **1** auntie

lar • *noun* • **1** something, anything

latta • *noun* • **1** paella, a seafood dish served over grains

layac • *noun* • **1** religious ministry **2** college, university

lǫit • *verb in.* • **1** run

lǫya • *noun* • **1** shin, the part of the body above the foot and below the thigh, including the knee and upper ankle

M

makra • *noun* • **1** shoulder **2** responsibility, duty **3** (adj., of people) mature, responsible **4** **(h-makra im)** because of, due to **5** **(sat makra)** resolve, become decisive **6** **(ems makra)** leader, person in charge **7** **(hels makra)** foundation

mana • *noun* • **1** coffee

mans • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) somebody, anybody

mas • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) hour

mazzi • *noun* • **1** ballplayer

meatrę • *noun* • **1** (ntr., medical) body part, limb: *sec rakés meatrę aczá h-makra m-kęsa m-ot* "he lost two limbs as a soldier" **2** (**meatrę ens**, ntr., medical) internal organ

men • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) over, outer **2** (adj.) outer **3** jacket, shirt **4** clothing

ménhakra • *noun* • **1** gear, equipment: *kąsazr het sedal t-kęstat t-uthet ménhakra sec* "soldiers must be trained to clean their equipment" **2** (fashion) accessory **3** **(ménhakra secya)** hat, visor, hood

meniama • *noun* • **1** shirt

ménisyus • *noun* • **1** body armor **2** (adj.) armored, fortified: *yiazin parseci tasaklá menisyús* "the thief stole the armored truck"

ménsapr • *noun* • **1** coat, jacket

mensat • *verb tr.* • **1** leave

meva • *noun* • **1** house cat

miyi • *noun* • **1** nose **2** bravery **3** (adj., of people) heroic: *nassoin miyin kąsteci Katva z-dahęs t-hakra* "the heroic king lead the Katva people into battle"

moc • *prn.* • **1** third-person pronoun for neuter gender

mosat • *verb tr.* • /mósĕt/ • **1** (of things) to lose, to cede, to have taken from

mulkas • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) fur, pelt **2** (ntr., of people) body hair

N

naha • *noun* • **1** hoop, ring

nahozzi • *noun* • **1** hooper, *táhątnaha* player

nassoi • *noun* • **1** king

O

ócaa • *adj.* • /ócoa/ • **1** deep **2** (of people) tall and wiry

ocza • *noun* • **1** two

orra • *adj.* • /orra/ • **1** dry **2** (of food) stale **3** (of people) feeble, frail **4** (of things) subpar, fragile

ossat • *verb in.* • **1** grow **2** (of people) develop emotionally

ot •

ot • *verb in.* • **1** be: *kęsa sec oci* "he's a soldier" **2** **(ot tę)** become

Q

ǫks • *noun* • /ǫ́kăs/ • **1** (ntr.) payment

P

pakna • *noun* • **1** house

páknalac • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) inn, motel, short-term lodgings for a traveller between urban areas

palac • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) dinner

parsa • *noun* • **1** eyes

parsiamac • *noun* ⟵ *parsa* + *iamac* • **1** hallucination

patla • *noun* • **1** cold **2** **(z-patla het)** be cold **3** **(patla yat)** it's cold

pava • *noun* • **1** family

pira • *noun* • **1** child

pit • *verb in.* • **1** have: *meniaman sec pici* "it's his shirt"

porsat • *verb tr.* • **1** (of high value items) rob, steal

portam • *verb tr.* • /pórtĕm/ • **1** dance with: *kipiran partemsi mans tevi z-layac* "that guy danced with almost everybody at the college" **2** try on, try out: *rappahan partemsi ménsapr sova* "the minister's trying out a new coat" **3** taste: *rat semr t-portam latczŕ husaléks* "I might try the renowned paella" **4** consider: *rat portag s-kęstat lala* "I'm thinking of hiring a nanny" **5** (science) conduct an experiment: *sec portamés mens ocaa m-akral sonza m-táhątnaha* "I've heard they're studying how height correlates to tag talent"

purrés • *noun* • **1** a woman's given name

R

rappaha • *noun* • **1** minister

raprą • *noun* • /ráprę/ • **1** ore, raw metal

raprę • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) car, truck **2** **(raprę ócaa**, ntr.) bus: *atlar kęstac rapręzr ócaa z-kams m-ǫkas esyi* "the police operate buses at a fair price" **3** **(raprę hemza** ntr.) motorbike **4** **(raprę meva** ntr.) moped

rasrę • *noun* • /rĕsrę́/ • **1** (ntr.) webbing, netting **2** pleasing pattern **3** (music) harmonious

rat • *prn.* • **1** first-person pronoun

ratosat • *verb tr.* • /retosat/ ⟵ *reta* "sharp" + -t • **1** cut, slice **2** cross through

retą • *noun* • /retǫ̆/ • **1** punch, hit **2** shot of alcohol or tea

rǫssat • *verb tr.* • **1** meet **2** (school) begin to learn, start to learn

ruhum • *verb in.* • **1** (of animals) bark, yelp

S

sapatesa • *noun* • **1** change of opinion **2** **(sat sapatesa**, informal) do a 180 on *tę* something: *nassoin saci sapatesa t-kęstat vącizr* "the king changed his mind on hiring mercenary bands"

sapa • *noun* • **1** hunt **2** dog

sapr • *noun* • **1** fur

sat • *verb tr.* • **1** go to **2** do

sąttis • *noun* • **1** leafy green

sayenar • *verb in.* • **1** be ignorant about *ez*

sec • *prn.* • **1** third-person pronoun for common gender

secya • *noun* • **1** celestial object, sun, moon, star **2** **t-secya** today

sem • *verb tr.* • **1** say to, talk to **2** talk to about *ez* **3** speak on, discuss **4** **(sem véaja)** preach about *ez* **5** (refl.) say **6** want someone to *im* do **7** want to *su* do **8** **(sem tę)** should, ought to, hopefully will **9** **(segi te)** let's do, let's go to **10** (of words) signify, mean, be defined as **11** (of titles) enable, allow to **12** (informal) looks like

sia • *noun* • **1** sand

solr • *ptcl.* • **1** and

sonza • *noun* • **1** tree branch **2** skill, natural talent

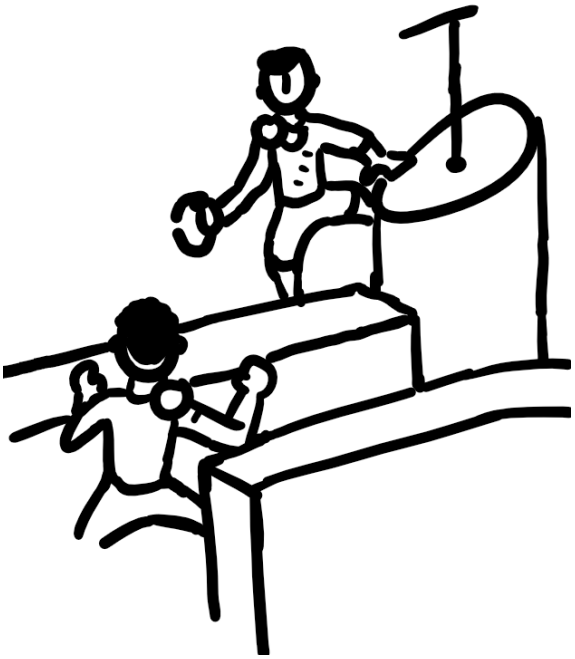
sova • *adj.* • **1** new

su • *prep.* • **1** and

T

tahąt • *verb in.* • /táhęt/ • **1** (of people) stretch **2** reach for *tę* **3** pray about *ez*

táhątnaha • *noun* • **1** tag, a parkour game played on an obstalce cours between two teams trying to grab rings to score



tasisya • *noun* • /tĕsísyŏ/ ← *tesa* + *isyo* • **1** city **2** port

taspa • *noun* • **1** sea **2** country

tę • *prep.* • **1** to **2** from

tęlr • *ptcl.* • **1** thus, therefore **2** (discourse) anyways...

tesa • *noun* • **1** shore, beach

tsekla • *noun* • /tăsékla/ • **1** rein **2** steering wheel **3** (informal) truck, car

U

u • *prep.* • **1** with **2** and

uthet • *verb tr.* • **1** clean

V

vassa • *noun* • **1** tide **2** (idiom) important moment

vęci • *noun* • **1** mercenary

vekkar • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) set, collection **2** (adj., of things) complete, whole **3** (adj., of people) organized

vezam • *verb in.* • /vézŏm/ • **1** accept, agree to *ez*

Y

yar • *noun* • **1** (ntr.) year

yat • *verb in.* • **1** (of weather) occur, happen

yésacza • *noun* • **1** two step, a very basic line dance easily learned

yesi • *noun* • **1** foot step

yiat • *verb tr.* • **1** (of low value items) steal, nab,

yiatyar • *noun* • **1** timesink

yiazi • *noun* • **1** thief

yira • *noun* • **1** a type of flower that grows on the river bed **2** (name) a male given name

Z

zalmi • *noun* • **1** the sun **2** (**t-zalmi**) tomorrow

zązta • *noun* • **1** vine nut