

EURASIAN

COMPLETE REFERENCE GRAMMAR

CHEKLOMINU LE NOIPAITO YETHABEO

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Cheklomino, alternatively Hapano, or anglicized as Eurasian, is an agglutinative, head-final, topic prominent, pro-drop constructed language with a nominative-accusative morphosyntactic alignment. The language, *a priori*, though it does adapt certain features of Asian and European languages, as well as completely unique features not found in either of those two language groups.

Cheklomino makes no lexical distinction between nouns, verbs and adjectives, instead they are all grouped into one 'noun' category, and any word in this category can be used as either an actual verb or an actual noun in a sentence or phrase, thus any 'noun' can inflect like a verb and be used as a verb, and the same for adjectives and nouns. Each word in this category is assigned a single gender, either masculine, feminine or neuter.

Nouns decline to indicate gender, case and formality/register. A noun takes a gender suffix to indicate its gender. There are six noun cases: Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Comitative and Vocative. All cases except the Nominative and Vocative may take postpositional particles, to indicate things such as position, motion, direction, etc. The case suffixes may change to indicate formality/register.

Verbs conjugate to indicate person, tense, mood, formality/register, and often gender of the subject. There are four tenses: Past, Past-Perfective Present/Imperfective, and Future. There are four persons, First Person, Second Person, Third Person Animate and Third Person Inanimate (indicated by a zero-suffix). Additionally, there is an impersonal or literary person ending. The two main moods are the Indicative Mood and the Conditional Mood, which may change form to indicate formality. Three other moods are the Subjunctive, Optative and Imperative, of which the Imperative has a variety of forms depending on the position of the speaker and listener.

Pronouns differ greatly than those used in Indo-European languages, in that they are classified as regular nouns, and that they may be omitted if they are not needed. There are pronouns for all three persons, across three numbers: Singular, Plural and Paucal. There are no third person inanimate pronouns. Different pronouns may be used depending on formality and the position of the speaker and listener, or may be omitted or not omitted for the same reasons.

The language lacks adjectives in the traditional sense, instead there are 'adjective nouns' or 'quality nouns', which are declined to the genitive case to modify, and may be used as a

verb (like all nouns). Adverbs may be formed from adjective nouns using circumfixes, though some adverbs are not formed from adjective nouns.

There are two main registers that serve as a distinction between formal and informal (or common) speech, referred to as the formal and informal registers respectively. Several other registers exist, such as medial registers in between the two main ones, and the literary or impersonal register, whose verb and noun forms are used in highly formal and informational text.

There are three voices: Active, Passive and Middle/Reflexive. The third is named for its usage in forming reflexive statements. Voice is indicated by a suffix to the verb's stem, or in the case of the Active voice, a zero-suffix. Voice suffixes are used to form participles, of which there are twelve (for three voices across four tenses). Verbs also have two causative forms, used in several different types of causative constructions.

Chapter 2

Phonology

2.1 Consonants

Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Alveolar	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m	n			ŋ	
Stop	p ^h b	t ^h d			k ^h g	
Affricate	ps ^h bz	ts ^h dz	tʃ ^h dʒ		ks ^h gʒ	
Fricative		s z	ʃ ʒ	(ç) λ _ɹ		h
Tap/Flap		r				
Approximant				j	w	

2.1.1 Notes

- Phonemes that appear in parenthesis are found exclusively as allophones.
- λ_ɹ is a lowered voiceless palatal lateral fricative. It can be formed by pronouncing ç while the tip of the tongue is placed on the alveolar ridge.

2.2 Vowels

/a e i o u/ a e i o u

2.3 Phonotactics

Below is the basic syllable structure.

(C)(A)V(C)

- C - Any stop, nasal, affricate or fricative
- A - Approximants (/j/ and /w/) and /r/
- V - Any vowel or diphthong

2.3.1 Phonological rules and constraints

- All consonants except approximants, palatal consonants and alveolo-palatal consonants may be used in sequence with /j/.
- All stops may be used in sequence with /r/.
- All consonants except approximants and flap/taps may be used in sequence with /w/ (labialized).
- No /h/, approximants or flap/taps in the syllable coda.
- A diphthong ending in /i/ may only be followed with an alveolar or alveolo-palatal stop, affricate or fricative.

2.4 Stress

Stress refers to the relative emphasis placed on a certain syllable of a word. In Eurasian, stress is important and can often be used to disambiguate words. The rules used to determine which of a word's syllable is stressed are rather complicated. Generally, stress should be placed on the first syllable of the last piece of lexical information of a word. In the below examples, the stressed syllable is capitalized.

MIke wood
zagzhasNUro factory
MJEkidamo it is running

Lexical information refers to the part of a word that carries the lexical or semantic meaning of the word, so this excludes all prefixes and suffixes. Additionally, if the lexical information begins with a vowel-onset syllable, then the next syllable is to be stressed.

oBAse nature
kruPARuko into the park

2.5 Orthography

Phoneme (IPA)	Romanization
m	m
n	n
ŋ	ng
p ^h	p
b	b
t ^h	t
d	d
k ^h	k
g	g
ps ^h	ps
bz	bz
ts ^h	ts
dz	dz
tʃ ^h	ch
dʒ	dzh
ks ^h	ks
gz	gz
s	s
z	z
ç	sh
ʒ	zh
λ _τ	l
h	h
r	r
j	y
j	j
w	w
a	a
ɛ	e
i	i
o	o
u	u

2.6 Allophony

- A stop, affricate or sibilant fricative in the consonant coda will assimilate to the phonation (voiced or unvoiced) of the onset consonant of the syllable that follows it. This is reflected in the orthography.
- /ɛ/ has its preceding consonant palatalized whenever its syllable is stressed, unless that consonant is already palatal.
- A palatalized /h/, /h/ used in sequence with /j/ or /h/ before /i/ becomes ç. This is not reflected in the orthography.
- Nasals in the syllable coda assimilate to the nasal consonant of the place of articulation of the onset consonant of the following syllable. So /n/ before /b/ is realized as /m/,

/m/ before /d/ is realized as /n/, /n/ before /k/ is realized as /ŋ/, etc. This is reflected in the orthography.

Chapter 3

The Noun

Eurasian nouns are an open class and must be marked to indicate gender and case, though outside of a sentence, these rules are much more flexible. Each noun is marked for its assigned gender, either masculine, feminine or neuter, and one of six cases: nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, comitative and vocative.

Lexically, the Eurasian noun category is much broader than the one of most languages. In addition to including traditional nouns, it also includes adjectives (or 'adjective nouns') and verbs (or 'action nouns'). This divides the noun category into three types.

3.1 Noun Types

- Regular Nouns (*pabro*) are the most common type. These are physical objects or abstract concepts or emotions. These nouns' gender is either masculine or feminine. Their copula is *tai*.
- Adjective Nouns (*yeido*) are less common. These describe qualities. Their gender is either masculine, feminine or neuter, though masculine and feminine are more common. Their copula is *ban*.
- Action Nouns (*gyosho*) describe actions. They are also non-finite verbs. Their gender is always neuter. Their copula is *pei*.

3.2 Root structures

Root words may be found in a variety of different phonological structures, ranging in rate of occurrence. When used as nouns, they also vary greatly in rules related to how they decline.

- C - Consonant
- A - Approximants (/j/ and /w/) and /r/
- V - Vowel or diphthong

CV and CAV This structure is relatively small compared to most others. They includes most the the languages units/measure words and abbreviated forms of longer roots. They should inflect using the declension pattern of their vowel, and thus do not inflect to indicate their gender, under normal circumstances, with a few exceptions.

<i>ka</i>	person
<i>da</i>	second
<i>so</i>	large objects, long objects
<i>ge</i>	bottle
<i>pyo</i>	year

CVC, VC and CAVC This structure is very large and contains most of the languages noun roots and verb roots. They should take a gender suffix that agrees with the word's gender

CVCV, CAVCV, CVCAV and CAVCAV These structure consists almost exclusively of adjective roots. They should inflect using the declension pattern of their final vowel, and thus do not inflect to indicate their gender under normal circumstances.

CVi and CAVi These structure, while similar to the first one listed, declines more like the second one. Here, 'V' refers exclusively to /a/, /e/, /u/ or /o/. Like the second one, it consists mainly of noun and verb roots. They should take a gender suffix that agrees with the words gender. Before taking the suffix, the final /i/ must be changed to a /j/.

<i>sui</i>	money
<i>hai</i>	eye
<i>lei</i>	eat

CVCCV and CAVVCV These structures consist exclusively of noun roots. The final vowel, which is more often than not /a/, should be dropped and replaced with the gender suffix that agrees with the root's gender.

3.3 Declension

Declension in Eurasian refers to the changing of a noun's form by adding a suffix in order to indicate grammatical gender and case. Inside a sentence, nouns are almost always required to decline to both gender and case. However, outside of a sentence, nouns usually do not decline for case, and on rare occasions do not decline for gender.

3.3.1 Gender Suffix

A noun may take one gender suffix to indicate its grammatical gender. It, of course, must agree with the noun's assigned gender. Masculine nouns take the suffix *-o*. Feminine nouns take the suffix *-e*. Neuter nouns take the suffix *-a*.

3.3.2 Case Suffix

The case suffix indicates the noun's grammatical case (it specifies the role of the noun in the sentence.) Nouns may decline to one of six cases: the nominative, the accusative, the genitive, the dative, the comitative and the vocative. Depending on the noun ending, the case

suffix might be a morpheme separate than the gender suffix (such as *-an*, neuter accusative) or it might be a suffix that deletes the gender suffix entirely (such as *-u*, masculine genitive.) There are many declension classes that are used depending on the vowel that precedes the case suffix. Since the case suffix usually follows the gender suffix, (either *-o*, *-e*, or *-a*) the O-E-A declension is vastly the most common. Other declensions may be used if the case suffix follows a different vowel or consonant. This might happen if other noun suffixes are used. It is also permitted that a noun does not decline to any case, in which case no case suffix or ending is added to the noun - only a gender suffix.

O-E-A Declension

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N	-i	-ei	-ai
A	-on	-en	-an
G	-u	-eo	-ae
D	-ots	-ets	-ats
C	-osa	-esa	-asa
V	-oya	-eya	-aya

I-Declension

N	-i
A	-in
G	-ao (m), -jo (f)
D	-its
C	-isa
V	-iya

U-Declension

N	-ui
A	-un
G	-ue
D	-uts
C	-usa
V	-uya

Consonant Declension

N	-i or zero
A	zero
G	-ia, -ie, -ja, or -je
D	-ats or zero
C	-sa
V	-ya

3.3.3 Formal Declension Classes

The Formal Register uses separate case suffixes than the common or informal register (shown above). Like the common suffixes, the O-E-A declension is still the most common.

Formal O-E-A Declension

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N	-um	-em	-im
A	-om	-im	-am
G	-om	-ia	-ia
D	-oi	-ei	-ai
C	-obu	-ebu	-abu
V	-ero	-ere	-era

Formal I-Declension

N	-im
A	-ie
G	-ie
D	-ai
C	-ibu
V	-ari

Formal U-Declension

N	-um
A	-um
G	-ue
D	-ui
C	-ubu
V	-eru

3.3.4 Honorific Declension

The honorific noun endings are used in honorifics to raise the position of the marked nouns.

3.3.5 Honorific O-E-A Declension

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N	-os	-es	-as
A	-osi	-esul	-asul
G	-ossu	-esul	-esul
D	-as	-is	-is
C	-uli	-esli	-isli
V	-arem	-erime	-arima

Honorific I-Declension

N	-is
A	-isi
G	-isu or -issu
D	-as
C	-ili
V	-irem

Honorific U-Declension

N	-us
A	-usi
G	-usul
D	-as
C	-uli
V	-uram

3.3.6 Extended dative cases

This group of four cases replaces the dative case in the literary register and other related registers. They are the physical dative case, the physical ablative case, the abstract dative case and the abstract ablative case.

P. dative	-oi	-ei	-ai
P. ablative	-ui	-ul	-ul
A. dative	-oye	-eye	-aye
A. ablative	-ua	-ue	-al

3.3.7 Strict topic marker

This suffix replaces the user of the vocative case in the literary register.

Topic Marker	-oyu	-eyu	-ayu
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3.4 Gender

Each noun (*nyamo*) in the language is assigned a grammatical gender, either masculine, feminine or neuter, including adjective nouns (*yeido*) and action nouns (*gyosho*). There is no pattern in gender assignment, other than that all action nouns are neuter, all adjective nouns are either masculine, feminine or neuter, and all regular nouns are either masculine or feminine (with a few exceptions, see below). Thus, for most regular nouns and adjective nouns, the gender must be memorized.

3.5 Case

3.5.1 The Nominative

The nominative case marks the sentence's subject, or the noun that does the action indicated by the verb. The nominative case may not take any postpositional particles, and is the only case other than the vocative that does this.

3.5.2 The Accusative

The accusative case marks the sentence's direct object, or noun that has the action indicated by the verb done to them, usually by the subject. It may also take other functions as obliques when used with certain postpositional particles.

<i>dang</i>	using, by means of, with
<i>dya</i>	with, beside, by
<i>hyu</i>	by (semantic agent)
<i>ran</i>	compared to, against, vs.
<i>sila</i>	like, similar to

3.5.3 The Genitive

The genitive case marks a noun as modifying another noun. There are two main ways that this is done. In Possession, the marked noun physically owns another noun. In Apposition, the marked noun is considered a 'type' or 'variant' of another noun. The genitive case may take the following postpositional particles.

<i>le</i>	masculine possessive particle
<i>te</i>	feminine possessive particle
<i>ta</i>	neuter possessive particle
<i>se</i>	masculine apposition particle
<i>sei</i>	feminine apposition particle
<i>som</i>	neuter apposition particle
<i>e</i>	composition particle

The possessive and apposition particles must agree with the gender of their noun, ie: the preceding noun.

- (1) satu le yato
 1S.M.GEN POS.M vehicle.M
 'My vehicle.'
- (2) tsikeo te yato
 2S.F.GEN POS.F vehicle.M
 'Your vehicle.'

Additionally, the genitive case may take any particles the dative case takes.

Genitive Constructions

The genitive case is used to form constructions where the noun marked in the genitive case in some way modifies the noun following it. These are called genitive constructions. In Cheklomino, the method and specifics of how the marked noun modifies another noun can be determined by a particle, or by context. This relation is usually either possessive or appositional, or in some cases, compositive.

Possessive Relations In possessive relations, the the noun marked by the genitive case owns the following noun, often physically. This is indicated by the possessive particles *le*, *te* and *ta*, for the masculine, feminine and neuter genders respectively. For example:

- (3) payu le lome
 city.M.GEN POS.M people.F
 'people of the city'

In this construction, the word *payo* (city) is declined to the masculine genitive case. The other noun *lome* (people) is modified by *payo*. It is indicated that the type of modification is possessive, because of the masculine possessive particle *le*.

Appositional Relations The other common type of modification done by the genitive case is appositional relations. In appositional relations, the noun being modified in some way identifies with or is otherwise related to the noun marked by the genitive case, by methods other than possession. Thus in these constructions, the modifying noun does not own the following noun. One way to simplify this is to translate these as 'type of', showing that the noun marked by the genitive case is a 'type of' the noun it modifies. This type of relation is indicated by the appositional particles *se*, *sei* and *som*, for the masculine, feminine and neuter genders respectively. Using the above example to show the differences between possessive and appositional relations:

- (4) *payu se lome*
 city.M.GEN APP.M people.F
 'city people'

In this example, it is not indicated that the city owns the people, like in the previous example. Instead, the noun marked by the genitive case 'payo' (city) modifies the following noun to indicate that the following noun identifies with or is otherwise related to the first noun. Thus, another accurate translation of this would be 'City type of people', showing that the people are 'of the city type'.

3.5.4 The Dative

The dative case marks the indirect object of a sentence. This includes all of the sentence's obliques not marked by the accusative case. The dative case is usually used to specify some sort of state, such as 'motion to', 'position at', 'motion from', etc. This state is specified by the dative case's several postpositional particles.

<i>me</i>	to
<i>dom</i>	from
<i>lai</i>	until
<i>chap</i>	at, in, on
<i>do</i>	when, during, at
<i>ten</i>	because
<i>ku</i>	at, in, on, about
<i>pre</i>	to, in order to, for

- (5) *kamai makets chap tai*
 3PL.N.NOM store.F.DAT at is.IND
 'They are at the store.'
- (6) *sjeikei keiyatots me patkusakesa*
 3S.F.NOM bus.M.DAT to walk.3.F.PST.POL
 'She walked to/onto the bus.'

When the dative case is used without a postpositional particle, it can either be implied from context or cause the sentence to be ambiguous. An ambiguous sentence, however, is not ungrammatical. It just means the speaker is choosing to be ambiguous and controlling how much information they are saying.

- (7) sati chokots chakayaton uetakesa
1S.M.NOM house.M.DAT car.M.ACC drive.1S.PST.POL
'I drove the car to/from the house.'
- (8) kamai makets tai
3PL.N.NOM store.F.DAT is.IND
'They are at the store.'

ku, ten and pre

The particles *ku*, *ten* and *pre* express position at, motion from and motion to respectively. However, they differ from *chap*, *dom* and *me*, which express physical motion/position, in that they express logical or abstract motion/position. This logical/abstract and physical distinction is made throughout the language. *ten* expresses abstract motion from, ie: cause and effect. *pre* expresses abstract motion to, so this often describes a translative relationship. *ku* expresses abstract position at, so it can often be translated as 'about', 'on' or 'on the subject of'.

- (9) utjelu noshtats ten hjelitsen obrokakesa
loud.M.GEN sound.N.DAT because ear.DU.F.ACC cover.1.M.PST.POL
'I covered my ears because of the loud sound.'
- (10) dorolantats pre mayutacheda
violent.behavior.N.DAT to change.FUT.IND
'It will all change to chaos.'

3.5.5 The Comitative

The comitative case expresses a relation of 'accompaniment' between two nouns. By itself, it means 'and' or 'with'. Unlike the similar genitive case, it is possible for a comitative noun to be a head noun. The comitative case takes the following postpositional particles.

<i>ga</i>	'and' (entire)
<i>in</i>	'and' (partially)
<i>dya</i>	'with'

ga and in

The particles *ga* and *in* are used to list nouns. They differ very slightly in that *ga* lists nouns entirely and *in* lists nouns partially, implying there are others not listed.

- (11) tsaikosa chukon tjessa
food.M.COM water.M.ACC is.SJV.PST
'There was food and water.'
- (12) tsaikosa ga chukon tjesake
food.M.COM and water.M.COM is.SJV.PST
'There was food water. (and nothing else of importance)'

- (13) tsaikosa in chukon tjesake
 food.M.COM and water.M.COM is.SJV.PST
 ‘There was food water. (amongst other things)’

dya

The particle *dya* means ‘with’ or ‘and’. It signifies a state of accompaniment, usually between animate things. Nouns marked with this particle may be used as the head noun.

- (14) satei honnapuli dya pakesaketas
 1S.F.NOM teacher.M.COM.HON with speak.1.F.PST.IND
 ‘I spoke with my teacher.’

- (15) satei hon’yenots idzhokesa pamesake
 1S.F.NOM school.M.DAT friend.F.COM go.1.F.PST
 ‘I went to school with my friend.’

3.5.6 The Vocative

The vocative case suffix is used to bring emphasis to what/who it is marking. It serves two main functions. The first is to draw emphasis to the marked noun, for whatever reason it may be required, such as to grab one’s attention in an interjection. The second is to mark a sentence’s topic in topic-comment constructions

3.5.7 Extended dative cases

In the literary register, the dative case is replaced by four similar cases: the physical dative, the physical ablative, the abstract dative and the abstract ablative. Like the normal dative case, the literary dative cases indicate location at or motion to. The ablative cases indicate motion from. Physical cases indicate physical and literal motion or position, while abstract cases indicate abstract or logical motion or position. This is often used to express things such as cause and effect and translative states.

Physical dative

The physical dative case shares many similarities with its common and formal register counterparts. One difference is that it cannot be used to express states of motion from, as that is what the ablative cases are for. ‘Physical’ indicates that it’s physical or literal motion or position, rather than logical or abstract motion or position. Because of the physical indication, physical motion to/position at particles (*chap*, *me*, etc.) must be used.

- (16) chokoi pamusida
 house.M.PDAT go.3.F.IND
 ‘She goes to the house.’

Physical ablative

The physical ablative case is similar to the dative case but instead of indicating motion to or position at, it indicates motion from. ‘Physical’ indicates that it’s physical or literal motion, rather than logical or abstract motion. Because of the physical indication, physical motion from particles (*dom*) must be used.

Abstract dative

The abstract dative case is identical to the physical dative case, except it indicates logical or abstract motion to or position at, rather than physical or literal motion to or position at. It is often used with nonfinite verbs to carry a meaning similar to ‘in order to’ or to give an order to several actions. This often is used to express changes in form or state, translative relationships. Because of the abstract indication, abstract/logical motion/position particles (*ku*, *pre*, etc.) must be used.

- (17) dorolyenaye mayutacheda
 violent.behavior.N.ADAT change.FUT.IND
 ‘It will all change to chaos’

Abstract ablative

The abstract ablative case indicates motion from, like the physical ablative case. However, it indicates abstract/logical motion from rather than physical or literal motion from. This often is used to express changes in form or state. Because of the abstract indication, abstract/logical motion from particles *ten* must be used.

- (18) yompjental yuto ten
 react.N.AABL this because
 ‘Because of this reaction’

3.5.8 Unmarked nouns

It is not required that a noun is declined to a case, it is permitted that a noun is declined to no case. This is often done outside of a sentence, and/or when case information is not necessary.

3.6 Topic Marking

Eurasian is a topic prominent language. Thus it is often important that the sentence’s topic is marked. Usually, the nominative case alone can determine if a sentence has a topic and what it is. In most constructions, the nominative case is sufficient enough to mark the topic. Though some constructions require that the topic is marked separately from the noun in the nominative case. Such constructions are have ‘two subjects’ and are said to be topic-comment constructions. This is done with the vocative case suffix ‘-o/-e/-aya’. An approximate translation of this is ‘as for ’ or ‘regarding ’. The following are examples of topic-comment constructions.

- (19) satoya prinei tsaikon linisa
 1S.M.VOC orange.F.NOM food.M.ACC favorite.IND
 ‘My favorite food is oranges.’
- (20) sjeikeya tenisi lonusitas
 3S.F.VOC tennis.M.NOM skilled.IND.POL
 ‘She is good at tennis.’

The topic-comment construction, which utilizes the vocative topic marker suffix, is often used to state personal things about oneself or other people, in this case, the speaker's favorite food and someone's skill level in tennis. Another usage for the topic marker is as a polite and honorific way to replace genitive constructions.

- (21) honnapazarem chokos garatas
 teacher.M.VOC.HON house.M.NOM.HON clean.IND.POL
 'My teacher's home is clean.'

3.7 Derivational morphology

In addition to the case and gender suffixes, nouns may take a variety of other prefixes and suffixes to form derived nouns. Naturally, suffixes may also be applied to titles, because these follow a personal name, even if a personal name is not present or omitted. Their position is usually after the noun stem and before the gender and case suffixes. Prefixes often consist only of one syllable, which is never stressed.

3.7.1 Intensifiers

Intensification suffixes are applied, often to adjective nouns, to enhance or give additional emotional or emphatic context to the word they modify. They correspond to words in English like 'very', 'really', 'too', etc. The primary stress of words that have an intensifier applied to them should fall on the syllable of the intensifier.

<i>-nuit/-anuit</i>	very
<i>-siet/-asiet</i>	too, too much
<i>-sakat/-akat</i>	very, extremely, really
<i>-zhot</i>	somewhat, decently

- (22) nobonuitu choko
 big.very.M.GEN house.M
 'very big house'
- (23) tsaiki parosiettas
 food.M.NOM hot.too.IND.POL
 'The food is too hot.'
- (24) wanei yumasierras
 temperature.F.NOM cold.too.IND.POL
 'The temperature is too cold.'

3.7.2 Name suffixes

Personal names may take a variety of suffixes to indicate intimacy, social position, politeness or honorifics. Most of these suffixes further decline with a gender suffix, followed by the case suffix. Of these, *-sengko/e/a* may be used independently of a name, they do not have to be used as a suffix.

<i>-azo/e/-mazo/e</i>
<i>-asota/-sota</i>
<i>-sengko/e/a</i>

-azo/e/-mazo/e The suffix *-azo/e/-mazo/e* is a very general honorific name suffix. It would be applied to the names of strangers or people one doesn't know very well. For example, two strangers speaking would likely use it to refer to each other, or a TV announcer to their audience.

-asota/-sota The suffix *-asota/-sota* is a colloquial name suffix applied to the names of one's close friends or acquaintances in an informal situation or setting. It is used by both sexes, but does not inflect to explicitly indicate gender. It should decline with the A-declension.

-sengko/e/a The suffix *-sengko/e/a* is used to refer to people of a high status in comparison to the speaker. It is highly formal and honorific.

3.7.3 Diminutives

Diminutive suffixes causes the noun to carry a feeling of smallness, pettiness, cuteness, silliness, insignificance, etc. Such suffixes are gender specific, and are placed either after the noun root and before the gender suffix, or after the gender suffix and before the case suffix (depending on which one is used).

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
-ndo/-ando	-nde/-ande	-nda/-anda
-tto/-atto	-tte/-atte	-tta/-atta
-osti	-esti	-asti

Diminutive verbs

Because of the nominal nature of Eurasian verbs, diminutive forms of verbs can also be formed. The most common way to do this is by declining the verb with a diminutive suffix, then the accusative case, followed by repeating the verb, using a similar verb, or in the instance of lack of volition, using the copula *pei*. The diminutive suffix *-o/-e/-asti* should almost always be used for verbs.

- (25) dantastin danat
 walk.N.DIM.ACC walk
 'to walk a little walk'

3.7.4 Augmentatives

Augmentatives are the opposite of diminutives - they carry a feeling of greatness, largeness, might, power and significance.

-zutki/-utki

Chapter 4

The Verb

The verb is likely the most complicated category of Eurasian grammar. Because of the languages lack of a lexical distinction between ‘verbs’, ‘nouns’ and ‘adjective’, any one of these categories may be used as a verb. Verbs inflect to indicate person, tense, mood, and several other minor categories, such as causation.

4.1 The Copula

The Eurasian copula is a very special type of verb that determines the relationship between a verb, its direct object, and its subject, of which there are three in the language. The copula *tai* means is or to be. It indicates an equative relationship between the subject and object, where the subject is the object. The copula *pei* means to do. It indicates a dynamic relationship between the subject and object, where the subject does the object. The copula *ban* means to have as a quality. It indicates an attributive relationship between the subject and object, where the subject has the object as a quality.

Copula verbs have several different forms to indicate tense, mood and to distinguish nominal forms of the copula. Other grammatical categories that can be indicated in normal verbs, such as person, cannot be indicated by copula forms. The following chart shows all of the different copula forms.

4.1.1 Finite (Verbal) Forms

Copula	Present/Imperfective	Past	Past Perfective	Future
Indicative Mood				
tai	tai	tasata	tashtu	tasatte
pei	pei	yasata	yashtu	yatte
ban	ban	kasala	kashka	kaote
Hypothetical Mood				
tai	tses	tsesha	tseshtu	tseshte
pei	yes	yeshha	yeshtu	yeshte
ban	koses	kosesa	kosektu	koseote
Conditional Mood				
tai	tats	tasets	tasien	tastse
pei	yuts	yusets	yusien	yasatse
ban	kats	kasats	kaname	kasatse
Subjunctive Mood				
tai	tes	tessa	teshtu	tenashte
pei	yus	yussa	yushtu	yunushte
ban	kas	kassu	kashtu	kanashtu
Optative Mood				
tai	tas	tassa	tasen	tanasite
pei	yan	yunsin	yangka	yanatka
ban	kiet	kiet'si	kongka	kotka

4.1.2 Non-finite (Nominal) Forms

The non-finite/nominal forms of the copulas can be formed by suffixing the neuter gender suffix *-a*. When this is done, any final vowel must be deleted.

4.1.3 The accusative object

A clauses accusative object is a general name for a word that gives some sort of information or tells of some sort of state with regard to the clauses subject. It is never a copula. It can be found as both a finite verb and a non-finite verb. It is name such because in the full copula form (see below), it is marked by the accusative case.

4.1.4 Syntactic arrangements with copulas

There are three possible syntactic arrangements that involve the copulas. Every predicate has a copula to determine the relationship between the verb and the direct object. The placement of that copula can come in three different forms:

1. Invisible copula (null copula form)
2. Copula in a compound with the verb (half copula form)
3. Copula taking the verb as a direct object (full copula form)

To aid one's understanding of the copula system, each form's description will have three examples, one for each copula (*tai*, *pei* and *ban*). Each example will be shown in all three copula forms for comparison.

Also provided are syntactic trees. In these trees:

- S refers to the sentence
- NP refers to a noun phrase, in this case, the subject
- VP refers to a verb phrase, in this case, the predicate
- AO refers to the accusative object, which may or may not be
- FV, which refers to a finite verb (a verb form that may take conjugation suffixes/is not nominal)

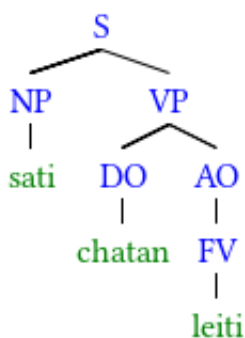
Null copula form

A verb is said to be in null copula form when the copula is completely omitted. In such a form, the predicate's verb is finite, and takes verbal suffix (conjugates). Any verb that takes finite verbal suffixes is in this form. Verbal predicates (verb in a clause that describes a dynamic relationship) and adjective predicates (verb in a clause that describes an attributive relationship) are almost always found in this form.

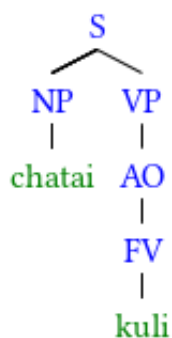
- (26) sati koni
 1S.M.NOM person.1.M
 'I am a person.'



- (27) sati chatan leiti
 1S.M.NOM this.N.ACC eat.1.M
 'I am eating this.'



- (28) chatai kuli
 this.N.NOM blue
 ‘This is blue.’



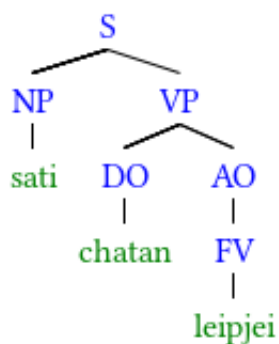
Half copula form

A verb is said to be in half copula form when the copula is visible, but used in a compound with the predicate. This form is much less commonly used, but is used to form some specific semantic constructions.

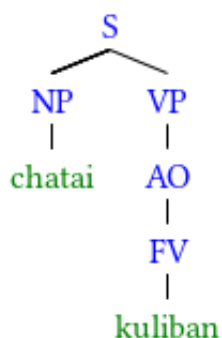
- (29) sati kantai
 1S.M.NOM person.is
 ‘I am a person.’



- (30) sati chatan leipjei
 1S.M.NOM this.N.ACC eat.do
 ‘I am eating this.’



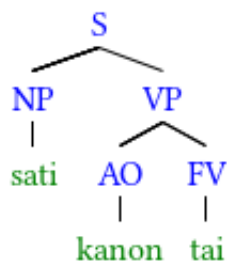
- (31) chatai kuliban
 this.N.NOM blue.have
 'This is blue.'



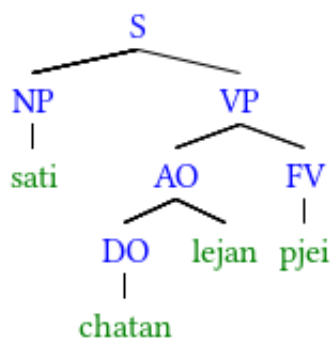
Full copula form

A verb is said to be in full copula form when the copula is not only visible, but separated from the predicate. In such a form, the predicate is declined to the accusative case, and is the direct object of the copula. If the verb that is in null copula form is a verbal root, then all of its objects and constituents become part of an embedded/subordinate clause.

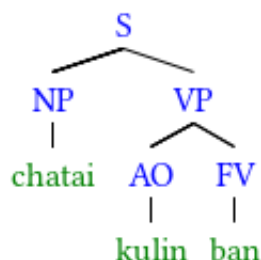
- (32) sati kanon tai
 1S.M.NOM person.M.ACC is
 'I am a person.'



- (33) sati chatan lejan pjei
 1S.M.NOM this.N.ACC eat.N.ACC do
 'I am eating this.'



- (34) chatai kulin ban
 this.N.NOM blue.M.ACC have
 ‘This is blue.’



4.2 Conjugation

4.2.1 Stem formation

Root words may be found in a variety of different phonological structures. In order to take verbal suffixes, some must slightly change, and there are slightly different rules that may effect both the roots and verbal suffixes.

- C - Consonant
- A - Approximants (/j/ and /w/) and /r/
- V - Vowel or diphthong

CV This structure must take conjugation II person suffixes. When taking a tense suffix without any person suffix, the tense suffixes initial /a/ is dropped.

CVC and CAVC These structures do not change at all in order to take verbal suffixes, nor do they trigger any kind of alterations to verbal suffixes

CVCVC, CAVCVC, CVCAVC and CAVCAVC These structures (so called ‘triconsonantal’ structures) must have their second vowel dropped, as well as their second approximant (if there is one) dropped before taking any kind of verbal suffix, unless that second vowel is /u/ or a diphthong containing /u/, or the resulting stem would be prohibited by the phonotactics.

Any root ending in -urat, -uyat or -uwat These structures have everything except the approximant (/r/, /y/ or /w/) dropped. The consonant preceding this root ending is used in sequence with the approximant. The stem must take person suffixes from person conjugation III.

Root	Stem	1st person masculine
<i>loturat</i> (show)	<i>lotr-</i>	<i>lotros</i>
<i>manuyat</i> (wake up)	<i>many-</i>	<i>manyos</i>
<i>zaituwat</i> (make effort, try)	<i>zaitw-</i>	<i>zaitwos</i>

4.2.2 Verb Template

The following template should be used when affixing verbs. Each slot contains one or two grammatical categories whose suffixes are placed in the order indicated by the template. No one slot may have two of its categories' suffixes used in the same verb.

I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Stem	Voice Causative	Subjunctive Optative	Tense	Indicative Conditional	Imperative Interrogative	Ending Particle	

4.2.3 Person

4.2.4 Tense

4.2.5 Mood

Indicative

Politeness	Common	Formal	Literary
Polite	-sa/-isa	-damo/-idamo	-da/-ida
Nonpolite	-	-tas/-itas	

Hypothetical

Politeness	Common	Formal	Literary
Polite	-se/-e	-sesmo/-esmo	-seda/-eda
Nonpolite	-se/-e	-ses/-es	

Imperative

Politeness	Common	Superior
Polite	-nikte/-anikte/-niktemo/-aniktemo	-nde/-inde/-ndemo/-indemo
Neutral	-ni/-ani	-nikte/-anikte
Nonpolite	-ei	-o

Conditional

Common	-ts/-ats
Formal	-dats/-adats
Literary	-die/-adie

Subjunctive

Common	-nas/-anas
Formal	-sukas/-asukas
Literary	-dassu/-adassu

Copula Subjunctive				
Copula	Present/Imperfective	Past	Past Perfective	Future
tai	tes	tessa	teshtu	tenashte
pei	yus	yussa	yushtu	yunushte
ban	kas	kassu	kashtu	kanashtu

Optative

Common	-rus/-arus
Formal	-koras/-akoras
Literary	-kosa/-akosa

Copula Optative				
Copula	Present/Imperfective	Past	Past Perfective	Future
tai	tas	tassa	tasen	tanasite
pei	yan	yunsin	yangka	yanatka
ban	kiet	kiet'si	kongka	kotka

4.2.6 Voice

Active	-
Passive	-ara
Medial	-azhi

4.2.7 Causation/Valency**4.2.8 Reflexive/Reciprocal**

Reflexive	-dets/-odets
Reciprocal	-prak/-aparak

4.3 Person

Person refers to the conjugation of verbs to indicate who or what did them. Eurasian is very rich in person. There are five persons: first, second, third animate, third inanimate and zero. The first person refers to the speaker, and would indicate that the speaker does the verb's action. The second person refers to the listener, and would indicate that the listener does the verb's action. The third person animate refers to an animate third party, or person not in the conversation, and would indicate that they did the verb's action. The third person inanimate is the same as the third person animate, except that it instead refers to an inanimate third party. The zero person refers to an impersonal animate subject. It is similar to the English 'one', in 'one should watch their step here'. The person suffixes must also agree with the gender of their referent.

First Conjugation

The first conjugation is used when the person suffix is preceded by a consonant.

Informal/Common			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-i	-in	-u
Feminine	-es	-esin	-us
Neuter	-ad	-adin	-adu
Formal			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-iya	-iyon	-iyat
Feminine	-etya	-etyon	-etyat
Neuter	-adya	-adyon	-adyat
Honorific			
Gender	Second		Third
Masculine	-iz		-izyoto
Feminine	-izet		-izyate
Neuter	-inad		-initte

Second Conjugation

The second conjugation is used when the person suffix is preceded by a vowel.

Informal/Common			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-ti	-tin	-tu
Feminine	-mes	-mesin	-mu
Neuter	-de	-den	-du
Formal			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-tyo	-tyos	-tyot
Feminine	-myo	-myas	-myat
Neuter	-dyo	-dyas	-dyat
Honorific			
Gender	Second		Third
Masculine	-z		-zyoto
Feminine	-zet		-zyate
Neuter	-nad		-nitte

Third Conjugation

The third conjugation is used when the verb stem's final consonant has an approximant (/j/ or /w/) or a flap/tap (/r/).

Informal/Common			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-os	-osin	-oi
Feminine	-as	-asin	-ai
Neuter	-uin	-uit	-usui
Formal			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-onas	-onis	-onat
Feminine	-atya	-atyai	-atyat
Neuter	-onues	-onuis	-onuuet
Honorific			
Gender	Second		Third
Masculine	-az		-azyoto
Feminine	-azan		-azyate
Neuter	-anad		-anatte

When person suffixes are applied to the verb, personal pronouns as the sentence's subject may be dropped. However, this is considered colloquial and informal.

4.4 Tense

Grammatical tense indicates when an action takes place relative to the time of speaking. Morphologically, Eurasian has three tenses, the present imperfective, the preterite (past tense) and the future tense. The present tense is a verb's default form. It is indicated by the lack of a tense suffix. The present tense encodes imperfective aspect, meaning that the action described by the verb is ongoing and incomplete, similar to the '-ing' suffix in English. The preterite refers to events completed in this past. The future tense indicates an event will happen or is expected to happen. It is used with a variety of modal verbs to specify with how much certainty an event will happen.

The tense suffix is placed after any personal suffix. If the verb lacks a personal suffix, then it is suffixed directly to the verb stem.

Present/Imperfective	-
Preterite	-sh/-ash
Future	-rte/-arte

	dok	dokish	dokinash	dokush
		dokesash	dokesinash	dokusash
		dokadash	dokadinash	dokadush
	dok	dokirte	dokinarte	dokurte
		dokesarte	dokesinarte	dokusarte
		dokadarte	dokadinarte	dokadurte
Preterite and future suffix	konat	kontish	kontinash	kontush
		kontesash	kontesinash	kontusash
		kontadash	kontadinash	kontadush
	konat	kontirte	kontinarte	konturte
		kontesarte	kontesinarte	kontusarte
		kontadarte	kontadinarte	kontadurte

4.4.1 Non-morphological tenses

A number of other tenses may be indicated by the use of certain constructions.

Past imperfective The past imperfective tense, like the present imperfective tense, encodes imperfective aspect. However, the time the event takes place is in the past. The past imperfective is formed by using the main verb as the direct object of the nonfinite present imperfective copula *yasa*, either as separate words or as compound words. This is then used as the direct object of the copula *yas* conjugated in the preterite, always as two separate words. *yas* may be replaced with *tai* if its subject is animate to indicate lack of volition.

	dok	dok'yasan yasish	dok'yasan yasinash	dok'yasan yasush
		dok'yasan yasesash	dok'yasan yasesinash	dok'yasan yasusash
		dok'yasan yasadash	dok'yasan yasadinash	dok'yasan yasadush
konat	kontas'yasan yasish	kontas'yasan yasinash	kontas'yasan yasush	
	kontas'yasan yasesash	kontas'yasan yasesinash	kontas'yasan yasusash	
	kontas'yasan yasadash	kontas'yasan yasadinash	kontas'yasan yasadush	
dok	dokan yasan yasish	dokan yasan yasinash	dokan yasan yasush	
	dokan yasan yasesash	dokan yasan yasesinash	dokan yasan yasusash	
	dokan yasan yasadash	dokan yasan yasadinash	dokan yasan yasadush	
konat	kontan yasan yasish	kontan yasan yasinash	kontan yasan yasush	
	kontan yasan yasesash	kontan yasan yasesinash	kontan yasan yasusash	
	kontan yasan yasadash	kontan yasan yasadinash	kontan yasan yasadush	

- (35) momatots do kontas'yasan sati yasish - singka
 yesterday.M.DAT at wait.do.N.ACC 1S.M.NOM do.1M.PST - however
 djelan tsiki salinashtas
 arrive.N.ACC 2S.M.NOM not.2M.PST.IND-POL
 'I waited (was waiting) for you yesterday, but you never arrived.'

Pluperfect The pluperfect indicates that an action was completed at some point in time in the past. It is also may encode perfect aspect. It is formed in the same way as the past imperfective, but with *yashta*, the preterite nonfinite copula, used instead.

	dok	dok'yashtan yasish	dok'yashtan yasinash	dok'yashtan yasush
		dok'yashtan yasesash	dok'yashtan yasesinash	dok'yashtan yasusash
		dok'yashtan yasadash	dok'yashtan yasadinash	dok'yashtan yasadush
konat	kontas'yashtan yasish	kontas'yashtan yasinash	kontas'yashtan yasush	
	kontas'yashtan yasesash	kontas'yashtan yasesinash	kontas'yashtan yasusash	
	kontas'yashtan yasadash	kontas'yashtan yasadinash	kontas'yashtan yasadush	
dok	dokan yashtan yasish	dokan yashtan yasinash	dokan yashtan yasush	
	dokan yashtan yasesash	dokan yashtan yasesinash	dokan yashtan yasusash	
	dokan yashtan yasadash	dokan yashtan yasadinash	dokan yashtan yasadush	
konat	kontan yashtan yasish	kontan yashtan yasinash	kontan yashtan yasush	
	kontan yashtan yasesash	kontan yashtan yasesinash	kontan yashtan yasusash	
	kontan yashtan yasadash	kontan yashtan yasadinash	kontan yashtan yasadush	

- (36) gadots do kontas'yashtan sati yashtats ga
 hour.M.DAT at wait.do-PST.N.ACC 1S.M.NOM do-PST.N.DAT and
 chuntish
 sleep.1M.PST

‘I had waited for hours and (then) fell asleep.’

- (37) gadoi do kontas'yasoshtam satum yasoshtai ga
 hour.M.DAT at wait.do-PST.N.ACC 1S.M.NOM do-PST.N.DAT and
 chuntiyazhdamo
 sleep.1M.PST.IND-POL
 ‘I had waited for hours and (then) fell asleep.’

Future imperfective The future imperfective combines imperfective aspect with the future tense. It is formed by using the main verb as the direct object of the present imperfective nonfinite copula *yasa*, either as two separate words or a compound word. This is then used as the direct object of the future tense copula *yasarte*.

	dok	dok'yasan yasirte	dok'yasan yasinarte	dok'yasan yasurte
		dok'yasan yasesarte	dok'yasan yasesinarte	dok'yasan yasusarte
		dok'yasan yasadarte	dok'yasan yasadinarte	dok'yasan yasadurte
konat		kontas'yasan yasirte	kontas'yasan yasinarte	kontas'yasan yasurte
		kontas'yasan yasesarte	kontas'yasan yasesinarte	kontas'yasan yasusarte
		kontas'yasan yasadarte	kontas'yasan yasadinarte	kontas'yasan yasadurte
dok		dokan yasan yasirte	dokan yasan yasinarte	dokan yasan yasurte
		dokan yasan yasesarte	dokan yasan yasesinarte	dokan yasan yasusarte
		dokan yasan yasadarte	dokan yasan yasadinarte	dokan yasan yasadurte
konat		kontan yasan yasirte	kontan yasan yasinarte	kontan yasan yasurte
		kontan yasan yasesarte	kontan yasan yasesinarte	kontan yasan yasusarte
		kontan yasan yasadarte	kontan yasan yasadinarte	kontan yasan yasadurte

Future perfective The future perfective combines the perfective aspect with the future tense. It is formed in the same way as the future imperfective except the nonfinite preterite copula (*yashta*) is used instead.

	dok	dok'yashtan yasirte	dok'yashtan yasinarte	dok'yashtan yasurte
		dok'yashtan yasesarte	dok'yashtan yasesinarte	dok'yashtan yasusarte
		dok'yashtan yasadarte	dok'yashtan yasadinarte	dok'yashtan yasadurte
konat		kontas'yashtan yasirte	kontas'yashtan yasinarte	kontas'yashtan yasurte
		kontas'yashtan yasesarte	kontas'yashtan yasesinarte	kontas'yashtan yasusarte
		kontas'yashtan yasadarte	kontas'yashtan yasadinarte	kontas'yashtan yasadurte
dok		dokan yashtan yasirte	dokan yashtan yasinarte	dokan yashtan yasurte
		dokan yashtan yasesarte	dokan yashtan yasesinarte	dokan yashtan yasusarte
		dokan yashtan yasadarte	dokan yashtan yasadinarte	dokan yashtan yasadurte
konat		kontan yashtan yasirte	kontan yashtan yasinarte	kontan yashtan yasurte
		kontan yashtan yasesarte	kontan yashtan yasesinarte	kontan yashtan yasusarte
		kontan yashtan yasadarte	kontan yashtan yasadinarte	kontan yashtan yasadurte

4.5 Mood

Grammatical mood deals with subjects such as truth, evidentiality, probability, possibility and permissiveness. Most verbs may inflect to indicate six moods: the indicative, the hypothetical, the imperative, the conditional, the subjunctive, and the optative. The first three (indicative, hypothetical and imperative) are generally grouped in Mood I because their suffix is placed after the person suffix, and is not nominalizable. The latter three (conditional,

subjunctive and optative) are generally group in Mood II because their suffix is placed before the person suffix, and is nominalizable.

4.5.1 The Indicative

The indicative mood that a statement is true, or true as far as the speaker or source of the proposition is aware. There are five different suffixes that indicate the indicative mood: common polite, common nonpolite, formal polite, formal nonpolite and literary.

Common Polite The common polite indicative suffix *-sa/-isa* carries politeness though not formality. It would be used to show politeness outside of a formal location, situation or setting. For example, when speaking with a superior outside of a formal setting. It would never be used when speaking to a stranger or somebody whom you don't know very well, and thus should be avoided when speaking on television or another kind of broadcast.

Common Nonpolite The common nonpolite indicative is indicated by a null suffix and is used in the informal register. In contrast to the common polite suffix *-sa/-isa*, it is not considered more polite. The verb form is good to use in informal situations. For example, when speaking with close friends or family members.

Formal Polite The formal polite indicative suffix *-damo/-idamo* is one of the most commonly used verb endings in the formal register. It carries a very high level of politeness. It is good to use in formal situations, locations or settings.

Formal Nonpolite The formal nonpolite indicative suffix *-tas/-itas* is a less commonly used verb ending in the full formal register, and is more commonly used in a formal-informal hybrid register. While it is used in formal settings, it does not carry the politeness that *-damo/-idamo* does. This verb ending would be used, for example, by close friends speaking amongst each other in a somewhat formal location or setting.

Literary/Impersonal The literary/impersonal indicative suffix *-da/-ida* is used only in the literary register, recitation thereof, or hybrid registers of the literary. For this reason, it is commonly found in written language, especially informational text. The literary indicative is used to very neutrally and impersonally state a truth. Thus it would be used in things such as newspapers, reports, etc.

4.5.2 The Hypothetical

The hypothetical mood is used to indicate that a statement is not true, but rather a hypothetical or possible situation. Thus, it is used to describe hypothetical events or situations. It is commonly used in conjunction with the conditional mood. Like the indicative, there are five different suffixes that indicate the hypothetical mood. Their usage with regard to formality and politeness is identical to those of the indicative mood.

(38) di maskon nataratsi tsiki ratan yutesato
 1S.M.NOM mask.M.ACC off.pull.COND.1.M 2S.M.NOM die.N.ACC do.HYP.Q
 'If I pulled that off, would you die?'

(39) nutsanuitine
 hurt.extremely.2.M.HYP
 'It would be extremely painful.'

The past tense hypothetical is similar to ‘could have’ in English.

- (40) tsiki nutsinashe
 2S.M.NOM hurt.2.M.PST.HYP
 ‘You could have hurt yourself!’
- (41) kucho kagan hjedratsin tsiki nutsinashe
 sharp.F.GEN thing.N.ACC touch.COND.2.M 2S.M.NOM hurt.2.M.PST.HYP
 ‘If you had touched the sharp thing, you could have hurt yourself!’

4.5.3 The Conditional

The conditional mood is used to mark a statement as being a condition of another statement. It is similar to the word ‘if’ in English. Unlike the indicative, subjunctive and imperative moods, the conditional mood suffix is placed before the person suffix.

The formal conditional often has the suffix *-mo* added to the end of the word, after any other suffix that may follow the conditional.

4.5.4 The Subjunctive

The subjunctive mood deals with various states such as possibility, probability and permissiveness. It is commonly used with specific modal verbs.

Subjunctive copula forms

The subjunctive forms of the copulas (*test*, *yus* and *kas*) are used to form existential (‘there is’) statements.

- (42) kanon tai
 person.M.ACC is.IND
 ‘It is a person.’
- (43) kanon tjes
 person.M.ACC is.SJV
 ‘There is a person.’

Above, the first example uses the indicative copula and the second example uses its subjunctive form.

Usage in finite verbs

The subjunctive verb suffix is found on occasion attached to finite verbs, especially in the higher registers, and in the lower registers, much less commonly. This is in contrast to the optative mood, which is used in finite verbs across all registers. Finite formal verbs that take the subjunctive suffix often also take the politeness suffix *-mo* following any person suffixes.

Usage in nonfinite verbs

The use of the subjunctive mood in nonfinite verbs, unlike its usage in finite verbs, is common across all registers. It is used when on verbs that are the direct object of other verbs. This class of verbs that take nonfinite verbs as direct objects in their subjunctive form is relatively small, but it is required that these verbs, which generally only take verbs as their direct object, take the subjunctive verbs in their subjunctive form. Exceptions may be made in lower registers or fast speech. Many of these verbs, in English, are used with the relative pronoun 'that', for example 'It is guaranteed that ...'.

<i>sulot</i>	promise, guarantee
<i>plot</i>	believe, think
<i>syem</i>	require
<i>pebag</i>	see to it that ... happens
<i>alit</i>	predict, expect
<i>zhit</i>	find, discover

- (44) *sati chainasan suoti*
 1S.M.NOM will.SJV.N.ACC promise.1.M
 'I promise that I will.'

- (45) *rjeken yet kodzdoganasan*
 problem.F.ACC this.F resolve.CAUS.SJV.N.ACC
pjebgodetsaratas
 see-to-it-that.REFL.PAS.IND.POL
 'It will be seen to that this problem is solved.'

4.5.5 The Optative

The optative mood is used to express wishes, desires, suggestions and intentions. In the second and third person, it closely means 'may', as in 'may you be healthy'.

- (46) *pwontan sabarusin*
 stay.N.ACC enjoy.OPT.2.M
 'Enjoy your stay.'

The formal optative often has the suffix *-mo* added to the end of the word, after any other suffix that may follow the optative.

- (47) *pwontam sabakorasimmo*
 stay.N.ACC enjoy.OPT.2.M.FORM
 'Enjoy your stay.'

When the speaker uses the optative mood, they are wishing something onto another person or thing. When used in the first person, it indicates obligation on the speakers end, usually when the speaker feels something is required of them by another party, likely a superior.

- (48) *bodarusi*
 stop.OPT.1.M
 'I should stop'

Optative mood constructions

Depending on tense, person and whether or not an optative copula is used, several different constructions can be made using the optative mood, with varying meanings.

A verb conjugated with the optative mood in the second or third person is used indicates that the speaker wishes something onto another person.

- (49) pwontan sabarusin
 stay.N.ACC enjoy.OPT.2.M
 ‘Enjoy your stay.’

In the first person, the speaker states something that they should do or that should happen to them, usually for personal reasons.

- (50) bodarusi
 stop.OPT.1.M
 ‘I should stop’

- (51) bodakorasimo
 stop.OPT.1.M.FORM
 ‘I should stop’

A verb conjugated with the optative mood, in the second or third person and used with an optative copula in the future tense indicates that the speaker strongly recommends, or asserts obligation, to the addressee. The fact that the copula is used indicates that the addressee is under such an obligation because of reasons not related to them personally, often a second or third party (or the speaker).

- (52) tsikei ketsona paman yanatka
 2S.F.NOM quickly go.N.ACC do.OPT.FUT
 ‘You ought to go quickly (because of/for a second or third party/because you have to)’

When the same construction is formed without the use of a copula, it indicates that the addressee is not under any kind of obligation, but the speaker strongly recommends they do something, usually for reasons directly related to the addressee (health, safety, etc.).

- (53) tsikei ketsona pamarusesinarte
 2S.F.NOM quickly go.OPT.2.F.FUT
 ‘You ought to go quickly. (for yourself/it would be in your best interests)’

- (54) tsikem ketsona pamarusesinartemo
 2S.F.NOM quickly go.OPT.2.F.FUT.POL
 ‘You ought to go quickly. (for yourself/it would be in your best interests)’

A verb conjugated with the optative mood in the first person and used with an optative copula in the future tense is used, often in monologue, to indicate that the speaker is under some kind of obligation. The use of the copula indicates that the speaker is under such an obligation because of a second or third person, such as a superior, and not because of reasons related to them personally.

- (55) sati ketsona paman yanatka
 1S.M.NOM quickly go.N.ACC do.OPT.FUT
 ‘I ought to go quickly. (because of/for a second or third party/because I have to)’

When the same construction is formed without the use of a copula, it indicates that the speaker is not under any kind of obligation, but still feels strongly that they ought to do something. The lack of a copula indicates that the speaker feels such an obligation for reasons unrelated to second or third parties, but for reasons directly related to the speaker personally (health, safety, etc.)

- (56) sati ketsona pamarusarte
 1S.M.NOM quickly go.OPT.1.M.FUT
 ‘I ought to go quickly. (for myself/it would be in my best interests)’
- (57) satum ketsona pamarusartemo
 1S.M.NOM quickly go.OPT.1.M.FUT.FORM
 ‘I ought to go quickly. (for myself/it would be in my best interests)’

4.5.6 The Imperative

The imperative mood is used when the speaker is giving commands. It can also be used in requests in its polite forms. The superior imperative suffixes are used by superiors when commanding their subordinates.

4.6 Aspect

Grammatical aspect has to do with the internal temporal structure of a verb. For example: is the verb currently be done, already done, completed? Eurasian has no inflectional indication of grammatical aspect, other than the past-perfective tense, which encodes perfective aspect. Perfective aspect views the temporal structure of a verb in its entirety and indicates that said verb is complete.

- (58) momatots do makets uetesash
 yesterday.M.DAT at store.F.DAT drive.1.F.PST
 ‘Yesterday I drove to a store.’
- (59) di kagan ksatogashte
 1S.M.NOM item.N.ACC fall.CAUS.PPFV
 ‘I dropped an item.’

The present tense encodes aspect as well. Depending on the verb, it can either encode imperfective aspect or stative aspect. Imperfective aspect indicates an action is ongoing and incomplete, like the ‘-ing’ suffix in English. Stative aspect indicates an action’s state is constant and unchanging. In the present tense, verbs lexically encode one of these aspects. Verbs that encode imperfective aspect are verbs that indicate dynamic action, like *pam* (go), *nad* (do/make), *mek* (run), etc. Verbs that encode stative aspect are verbs that indicate static or generally unchanging actions, like *tai* (be), *pom* (love), *kuli* (be blue). This category also includes all adjective verbs.

(60) sati mjeki
 1S.M.NOM run.1.M
 ‘I am running.’

(61) chatai kuli
 this.N.NOM blue
 ‘This is blue.’

4.6.1 Gnomic Aspect

Gnomic aspect indicates an action is a general truth or general thing that happens, with disregard to the internal temporal structure of the verb. The gnomic aspect is formed by applying the copula *ban* (to have as a quality or attribute) to the verb, either as a compound or separately.

(62) hjenei bonutan ban
 bird.F.NOM fly.N.ACC have
 ‘Birds fly.’

Using the past tense form of *ban* indicates that an action used to happen regularly, but now does not.

(63) hjenei chenats bonutan kasala
 bird.F.NOM here.N.DAT fly.N.ACC have.PST
 ‘Birds used to fly here.’

4.6.2 Verbs and constructions that indicate aspect

There are a small number of other verbs and constructions used to indicate various other aspects.

Inchoative and cessative

The verbs *han* and *bod* are used in a compound with another verb to indicate inchoative and cessative aspect respectively. Inchoative aspect indicates an action is started or begun, while cessative aspect indicates an action is ended, stopped, finished or completed. In a compound, *han* and *bod* should be the final verb. Another option is to nominalize the main verb, decline it to the accusative case and make it the direct object of *han* or *bod*.

(64) sati mekhani
 1S.M.NOM run.start.1.M
 ‘I begin to run.’

(65) sati mjekan hani
 1S.M.NOM run.N.ACC start.1.M
 ‘I begin to run.’

(66) sati megbodish
 1S.M.NOM run.finish.PST
 ‘I finished running.’

(67) sati mjekan bodish
 1S.M.NOM run.N.ACC finish.PST
 ‘I finished running.’

Quick or brief event**Durative aspect**

The durative aspect indicates an action is done for a certain amount of time or a while. It is formed by reduplication of the verb, and the two identical verbs used in a compound.

- (68) satei chuntaschuntesash
 1S.M.NOM sleep.sleep.1.F.PST
 ‘I slept for a while.’

4.7 Nominalization

Nominalization refers to the changing of a verb’s form and function from a finite (verbal) form to a non-finite (nominal) form. Because all Eurasian verbs are technically nouns, one need only suffix a verb with the neuter gender suffix *-a* to indicate that the verb is being used as a noun. The neuter suffix is used because all ‘verbs’ are of the neuter gender. A nominalized verb is equivalent to all three English non-finite forms: the infinitive, the gerund and the participle.

- (69) dok
 buy
 ‘to buy’

- (70) doka
 buy.N
 ‘Buying’

In the above examples, the verb *dok* (buy) is nominalized, and thus now means ‘buying’, or ‘to buy’. However, nominalized verbs may only inflect to indicate voice (active, passive and medial) and some moods (subjunctive and optative).

A nominalized verb may be used as the direct object of another verb. This is the equivalent of using the English infinitive (‘to ...’) verb form. It is used with all of the languages auxiliary and modal verbs.

A nominalized verb used as the direct object of another verb

4.7.1 Indicating other categories

Despite these limitations of the nominalized verb, there are other ways to indicate the categories a plain nominalized verb cannot. To indicate tense, the nominal past tense form of a copula may be used in a compound with the main verb. Make sure the main verb’s type agrees with the copula.

- (71) dok’yasata
 buy.do.N
 ‘having bought’

4.7.2 Forming participles

The participial form of a verb can be formed by declining the nominalized verb to the genitive case. To indicate tense, the nominal forms of the copulas must be used in a compound with the verb. Participles are used to form relative clauses.

(72) dokae kano
 buy.do.N.GEN person.M
 ‘The man who buys/is buying’

(73) dok’yasatae kano
 buy.do.N.GEN person.M
 ‘The man who bought’

The passive participles can be formed by using the passive suffix *-ara* before nominalization and applying the genitive suffix.

(74) dokarae kaga
 buy.do.PAS.N.GEN thing.N
 ‘The item that is bought/being bought.’

(75) dok’yasatarae kaga
 buy.do.PAS.N.GEN thing.N
 ‘The item that was bought.’

4.7.3 Relative clauses

Relative clauses give information about a noun in the form of a sentence or verb. For example in English: ‘The man who drove a car’. Here the subject ‘man’ is relativeized by the relative pronoun ‘who’ and further information about him is given. In Eurasian, relative pronouns are not used. Instead, one must simply use a participle.

(76) chakayaton uetayasatae kano
 car.M.ACC drive.do.PST.N.GEN person.M
 ‘The man who drove a car’

If one wanted to indicate that the sentence’s subject was the object of the relative clause, rather than it’s subject, then a passive participle is used. In this example, the past participle is used to modify *tsaik*.

(77) leiyasatarae tsaike
 eat.do.PST.PAS.N.GEN food.M
 ‘The food that was eaten’

To indicate that the noun being relativized is the indirect object of a sentence, the middle voice is used.

(78) pam’yasatazhae me guka
 go.do.MID.N.GEN to place.N
 ‘The place that was gone to’

Like all indirect objects, a participle can be used to determine 'to', 'from', etc. In this example, the particle 'me' was used.

4.7.4 Apposition particles with participles

Participial genitive constructions often use the neuter apposition particle *som* to add formality. The neuter particle is used because all verbs are neuter.

- (79) chakayaton uetayasatae som kano
 car.M.ACC drive.do.PST.N.GEN APP.N person.M
 'The man who drove a car'

The apposition particle may still be used even if a postpositional particle is used. In these cases, two particles are used, and the apposition particle is always last.

- (80) pam'yasatazhae me som guka
 go.do.MID.N.GEN to APP.N place.N
 'The place that was gone to'

4.8 Causative verb form

The causative verb form indicates that the subject causes or makes someone or something else do an action. There are two main causative verb forms: *-oro/-toro* and *-oga/-noga*.

-oro/-toro In a general causative construction, the causee, or person who is caused to do the action, is marked by the nominative case, and the causer is marked by the accusative case, along with the postpositional particle *dang*, which is normally used to indicate how or by what means an action is done, but takes a special function in causative constructions.

- (81) gekgjekai saton dang tjepen dyutorashitas
 children.N.NOM 1S.M.ACC using book.F.ACC read.CAUS.PST.IND.POL
 'I made the children read books.'

The above is a very standard causative construction. It indicates that the causer was directly involved in causing the causee to do the action, and that there was little volition (choice) on the causee's end.

Another causative construction indicates that the causer's causing the causee to do an action was very natural, required little force or effort on the causer's end, and that the causer is likely in inanimate or impersonal force, like weather. Like the previous construction, the causee has little volition. In this construction, the causer is marked by the vocative case.

-oga/-noga This causative verb form differs from the previous in that it is only used on intransitive verbs, the causee is marked by the nominative case and the use of the vocative case is not employed. This verb form is used to manipulate valency (the number of arguments a verb takes) and volition (whether the arguments intended an action or not). When the suffix is applied to intransitive verbs, their valency increases and they become transitive.

Intransitive verbs take only one argument, a subject, declined to the nominative case. This type of construction indicates the subject has full volition over the action. Since only animate objects may have volition, in some cases, an inanimate object used as the subject of an intransitive verb is ungrammatical. Whether or not a verb can take an inanimate subject varies.

4.9 Polite suffix *-mo*

The suffix *-mo* carries general politeness, and is often used as part of other, longer suffixes, such as *-damo/-idamo*, *-sesmo/-esmo*, *-niktemo/-aniktemo*, etc. It is always placed as the last suffix in a verb, so it often follows the mood suffixes. For mood suffixes that precede the person suffix, *-mo* may be found following the person suffix. This is common in conditional statements.

4.10 Affectionate suffixes *-po* and *-poi*

The suffixes *-po* and *poi* follow the same placement rules as *-mo*, but the two cannot be used in sequence. They indicate a friendly or affectionate relationship between the speaker and listener. *-poi* is generally considered more strong than *-po*. They are considered the opposite of *-mo*, which indicates politeness and social distance, as they indicate friendliness, intimacy, camaraderie, familiarity and social closeness.

4.11 Valency

Valency refers to the number of arguments a verb may take. Intransitive verbs take only one argument: a subject. Transitive verbs take two arguments: a subject and an object. More uncommon ditransitive verbs take three arguments: a subject, a direct object and an indirect object.

4.11.1 Intransitive

Intransitive verbs take only one argument: a subject. Eurasian has a nominative-accusative morphosyntactic alignment, so the subject of an intransitive verb is marked by the nominative case. Some intransitive verbs like *pam* (go), *nai* (come) and other verbs of motion commonly take an indirect object as an oblique constituent. All verbal forms of *yeido* (adjective nouns) and *pabro* (regular nouns) are intransitive.

<i>pam</i>	to go
<i>nai</i>	to come
<i>kon</i>	to be a (male) person
<i>kuli</i>	to be blue
<i>gabon</i>	to jump

An intransitive verb found without a subject means that the subject can be implied from context or verbal inflections, or it means that the subject is something ambiguous, unspecified or unstated. An intransitive verb found taking a direct object is ungrammatical.

4.11.2 Transitive

Transitive verbs take two arguments: a subject and a direct object. Because of the nominative-accusative morphosyntactic alignment, like intransitive verbs, the subject is marked by the nominative case, and the direct object is marked by the accusative case. Only the verbal forms of *gyosho* (action nouns) may be transitive, though not all *gyosho* are transitive.

<i>nad</i>	to do/make
<i>tai</i>	to be
<i>lei</i>	to eat
<i>lek</i>	to drink

Transitive verbs are not required to take both a subject and an object. If a transitive verb is found taking only a subject, then the object is implied to be something ambiguous, omitted, unstated, unspecified or something that can be discerned from context or verbal inflections. If a transitive verb is found taking only a direct object, then such is true of the subject instead. If a transitive verb is found taking not a subject nor an object, then such is true of both the subject and object.

4.11.3 Ditransitive

Ditransitive verbs take three arguments: a subject, a direct object and an indirect object. Like before, the subject is marked by the nominative case, and the direct object by the accusative case. The third argument, the indirect object, is marked by the dative case.

<i>gul</i>	give
<i>yai</i>	say
<i>zon</i>	tell, inform
<i>ngo</i>	explain, teach

4.11.4 Changing valency

There are several ways to increase a verb's valency. One way is attaching the causative suffix *-oga/-noga* to an intransitive verb (see previous section). Doing so causes the intransitive verb to become transitive. Another common way is to compound (or serialize) an intransitive verb with a transitive one. The resulting verb is transitive, and this can be used to create a wide variety of verbs with different meanings. In the following examples, *doban* (to win) is an intransitive verb and *kud* (to receive) is a transitive verb.

- (82) di dobnashte
1S.M.NOM win.PPFV
'I've won.'
- (83) di kudashte
1S.M.NOM receive.PPFV
'I've received (something).'
- (84) di praizon dobnaskudashte
1S.M.NOM prize.M.ACC win.receive.PPFV
'I've won a prize.' (lit. 'I've won received a prize')

- (85) di pyaton dobnas'yappashte
 1S.M.NOM win.defeat.PPFV
 'I've won the game.' (lit. 'I've won defeated the game.')
- (86) maken pam'yomi
 store.F.ACC go.pass.1.M
 'I go past the store.'

4.12 Volition

Volition refers to whether or not an action was intended, or the amount of control that the subject had over an action. To indicate that an action is done without any volition or control on the subject's end, the full copula form with the copula *pei* is used. Thus, the verb should be declined to the accusative case and used as the direct object of *pei*.

- (87) sati kagan ksatan yasata
 1S.M.NOM item.N.ACC drop.N.ACC do.PST
 'I dropped the item.' (accidentally)

4.13 Reflexive and reciprocal verb forms

The reflexive (marked by the suffix *-dets/-odets*) and reciprocal (marked by the suffix *-prak/-aparak*) are two very related verb forms. In the lower, informal registers, especially in fast speech in those registers, *-dets/-odets* is often shortened and realized as *-ts/-ots* and *-prak/-aparak* as *-pr/-apr*.

4.13.1 Reflexive verb form

A reflexive verb can indicate several things including: 1. that the subject of a verb does the verb to themselves (strict/pure reflexive), 2. that the subject undergoes a change of state with relation to the object (autocausative) or 3. (when the reflexive form is combined with the passive voice) that the subject has the verb done to them, with an unstated, ambiguous, unknown or impersonal semantic agent, similar to the use of the English pronoun 'they', as in 'they released a new book'

- (88) nietsodetsi
 wash.1.M.REFL.1.M
 'I'm washing myself.'
- (89) sati etsondetsi
 1S.M.NOM fast.REFL.1.M
 'I became fast/sped up.'

When the reflexive verb form of an adjective root is nominalized, it can be used in certain constructions to indicate that an action resulted in the object becoming that adjective.

- (90) sati yu chatai kulidetson kakashitas
 1S.M.NOM separator this.N.NOM blue.REFL.M.ACC paint.PST.POL
 'I'm painting this blue.'

4.13.2 Reciprocal verb form

A reciprocal verb indicates that two subjects (who are almost always animate) do the verb to themselves, indicated in English by the reciprocal pronoun ‘each other’. It is also often used as a pseudo-plural verb form, as it indicates that an action is done mutually by two or more subjects. Because of this, it is often used when the subject head noun is accompanied with another noun, marked by the comitative case and often with the postpositional particle *dya* (with or together).

(91) kamai pomprakad
3P.N.NOM love.RECP.3.N
‘They love each other.’

(92) satesa idzhokei hon’yenots dantapresash
1S.F.COM friend.F.NOM school.M.DAT walk.RECP.1.F.PST
‘I walked to school with my friend.’

4.14 Verb serialization

A serial verb construction is formed when usually two verbs are used in coordination to indicate concurrent or related events. This is very commonly done with verbs of motion, like in English “go do ...” or “come do ...”. To form verb serializations in Eurasian, the two verbs being serialized must be used in coordination. This is done by either placing both verbs in direct sequence with each other (placing them one after another, forming two independent clauses) or by combining the two verbs into a single word, separated by the coordination infix *-i-*.

4.14.1 Serializing verbs of motion

Verbs of motion may be serialized to form a structure similar to the English “go do ...” or “come do ...”. Unlike English, any verb of motion may be used, not just ‘go’ and ‘come’. In these constructions, the verb of motion should always come first.

(93) satei prinen pamidokesash
1S.F.NOM orange.F.ACC go.buy.1.F.PST
‘I went to buy oranges.’

4.14.2 Verb serialization with *han* and *bod*

The verbs *han* and *bod* mean ‘start/begin’ and ‘stop/end/finish’ respectively. When they are serialized as the initial verb in a compound, they carry the meaning that the action indicated by the other verb in the compound was either the first/initial (for *han*) or last/final (for *bod*) in a sequence of other actions. Note that *han* and *bod* are both intransitive, so it cannot be indicated what was started or stopped with them alone.

(94) di hanimanyosash
1S.M.NOM begin.wake-up.1.M.PST
‘I began by waking up.’

4.15 Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are used to express grammatical modality, such as desire, obligation, suggestions, possibility, permissiveness, etc.

<i>len</i>	want, desire to do an action
<i>pret</i>	need, obligated to do an action
<i>kyei</i>	can, be able to do
<i>keu</i>	like, enjoy
<i>brat</i>	want/desire to have/own
<i>gon</i>	need/obligated to have/own
<i>chai</i>	will/shall/intend
<i>mun</i>	must, will
<i>ukoi</i>	plan, intend
<i>mudurat</i>	must, should (deductive)

- (95) *cheklominots mi pakkyeisitas*
 eurasian.M.DAT in speak.can.1.F.IND.POL
 ‘I can speak Eurasian.’

4.15.1 Impersonal indications of modality

A way to use the modal verbs impersonally or in a literary style is to nominalize them and make them the direct object of the subjunctive copula *tjes*.

- (96) *cheklominots mi pakkyejan tjes*
 eurasian.M.DAT in speak.can.N.ACC is.SJV
 ‘There is my ability to speak Eurasian.’

4.16 Semi-morphological suffixes

The semi-morphological suffixes are a group of verbal suffixes that are morphological suffixes based off of lexical verbs. Thus, their meaning lies within the lexical entry for the verb they are based off of. Because they are suffixes, they should not take any stress, despite still technically carrying the last piece of lexical information. Their usage is equivalent semantically to using the full verb (which is usually triconsonantal) in combination with another verb or taking another verb as a direct object. Compare the following.

<i>dokutsek</i> (suffix: <i>-utsek</i> , from <i>sutsek</i> (perfect aspect))	have bought
<i>dokan sutsek</i>	have bought

The use of these types of suffixes has many parallels with the use of auxiliary verb, such as modal verbs. Some suffixes are semantically identical to some auxiliary verbs. They differ, however, in their usage. The semi-morphological suffixes are more commonly used in the lower registers, especially in their shorter forms. In contrast, the auxiliary verbs are more commonly used in the formal register (where they commonly take other verbs as direct objects) and the literary register (where they are commonly used in combinations with other verbs). Compare this sentence in these three registers.

- (97) sjeiki konggets me pamaptu
 3S.M.NOM market.F.DAT to go.want.3.M
 ‘He wants to go to the market.’
- (98) sjeikum konggei me pamam leniyattas
 3S.M.NOM market.F.DAT to go.N.ACC want.3.M.IND
 ‘He wants to go to the market.’
- (99) sjeiki konggets me pamlenuda
 3S.M.NOM market.F.DAT to go.want.3.M.IND
 ‘He wants to go to the market.’

If a semi-morphological suffix is based off of a triconsonantal verb, then it still must have its second vowel dropped.

- (100) pamaptu
 go.want.3.M
 ‘He wants to go to the market.’ (-*aptu* from *sapot* (want))
- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| - <i>apot</i> (from <i>sapot</i>) | want, desire |
| - <i>esit</i> (from <i>kesit</i>) | may, can (permission) |
| - <i>utsek</i> (from <i>sutsek</i>) | perfect aspect |
| - <i>okot</i> (from <i>sokot</i>) | can, may, has the ability to (potential) |

4.17 Contracting

Contracting in verbs refers to the process of shortening verb endings by removing vowels. Eurasian is an agglutinative language, meaning multiple suffixes are piled onto the end of the verb with each serving usually only one grammatical function. Thus it is often helpful to shorten the length of verb endings, as many of them can become very long when many suffixes are used. Contracting should be done whenever possible, regardless of formality or whether they are written or spoken. Contracting may only occur on the border of affixes.

There are often very specific criteria that must be met in order to form contractions. The following are general rules.

A vowel may be removed if:

- it's preceding consonant is / t d / and its succeeding consonant is / t d m n /
- it's preceding consonant is / n / and its succeeding consonant is / t d /
- it's preceding consonant is / m / and its succeeding consonant is / p b /
- it is surrounded on both sides by the same consonant, unless the vowel is / u /

Chapter 5

The Pronoun

5.1 Personal pronouns

5.1.1 General

The general personal pronouns make a distinction between singular, plural and paucal, as well as inclusive and exclusive. They are used in both common and formal speech.

Number	1	2	3
Singular	sat	tsik	seik
Plural	saya, nam (inclusive)	myen	kam
Paucal	wal	besk	trep
Mass	okra		

- (101) tsiki byemen yemolistinashisa
2S.M.NOM clothes.F.ACC dry.make.CAU.2.M.PST.POL
'You dried the clothes.'

Mass pronouns are used to refer to large groups or crowds.

- (102) okrai myeitawei
everyone.N.NOM quiet.become.IMP
'Everybody be quiet.'

5.1.2 Honorific

The honorific personal pronouns are used to refer to somebody or a group of people of a higher status than the speaker. This group lacks first person pronouns because one should never refer to themselves with an honorific of any kind.

Number	2	3
Singular	ok	om
Plural	okat	omat
Paucal	uspsak	
Mass	dyelam	

5.1.3 Humiliative

The humiliative pronouns are used to refer to oneself in a low and humble fashion. They are often used when speaking to superiors.

Gender	Singular	Plural	Paucal
Masculine	chwen		chats
Feminine	kyam	tsaid	ksan
Neuter	N/A		tenam

5.1.4 Colloquial pronouns

These pronouns would only be used in the low, colloquial/informal registers.

<i>di</i>		1S masculine
<i>mui</i>		1S feminine
<i>mai</i>		1S feminine
<i>non</i>		2S both sexes
<i>man</i>		2S feminine
<i>tsok</i>	proximal nonfirst	both sexes
<i>tsak</i>	medial nonfirst	both sexes
<i>tsuk</i>	distal nonfirst	both sexes

5.2 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are some of the few *pabro* whose gender is neuter. Their gender is always neuter, regardless of the gender of their referent. Proximal refers to objects near the speaker or first, equivalent to 'this' and 'here' in English. Medial refers to objects near the listener or second person, equivalent to 'that' and 'there' in English. Distal refers to objects distant to both the speaker and listener, or near a third person, also equivalent to 'that' and 'there' in English.

	Item	Location
Proximal	chat	chen
Medial	nat	nen
Distal	nol	nak
abstract/logical		nek

- (103) chatai kulu se kagitas
 this.N.NOM blue.M.GEN APP thing.IND.POL
 'This is a blue thing.'

5.3 Time pronouns

<i>chak</i>		now
<i>tswat</i>	then (past)	
<i>tyet</i>	then (future)	

5.4 Relative pronouns

Eurasian uses extremely generic terms as relative pronouns, such as ‘what’, ‘who’, ‘when’, etc. in English. All reflexive pronouns are neuter, except for those that refer to animate objects, in which case they must agree with the natural gender of said animate objects.

<i>kag</i>	what, lit. ‘thing, item’
<i>guk</i>	where, lit ‘place, location’
<i>kait</i>	when, lit ‘time’
<i>kan</i>	who, lit ‘person’

5.5 Reflexive pronouns

Eurasian does not have reflexive pronouns like ‘himself, themselves, etc.’ in English. Instead, reflexive verb forms are used instead.

5.6 Interrogative pronouns

The interrogative pronouns are used to forms questions. Like the demonstrative pronouns, their gender is always neuter. Unlike English, the interrogative pronouns should be used as the subject in equative statements.

<i>tel</i>	what
<i>nin</i>	where
<i>tak</i>	who
<i>tiedi</i>	when (adverb)
<i>tad</i>	when (noun)
<i>nangka</i>	why (adverb)
<i>psat</i>	why (noun)
<i>lieli</i>	how (adverb)
<i>lien</i>	how (noun)
<i>sez</i>	how much
<i>krat</i>	to what extent

(104) nolai tjelan taito
 this.N.NOM what.N.ACC is.INT
 ‘What is that?’

(105) sabruyati ninats yatsyatto
 train.M.NOM where.N.DAT travel.INT
 ‘Where is the train going?’

(106) takas tjesadei
 who.N.NOM.HON is.SJV.INT.POL
 ‘Who is it?’ (answering telephone/door)

(107) kani tiedi djelashitas
 man.M.NOM when arrive.PST.IND.POL
 ‘When did the man arrive?’

(108) kani tadats do djelashitas
man.M.NOM when.N.DAT at arrive.PST.IND.POL
'When did the man arrive?'

(109) ga, di nangka kaman leni
and 1S.M.NOM why 3P.N.ACC want.1.M
'And, why would I want them?'

5.7 Other pro-words

had (n) a previously stated proposition

Chapter 6

The Adjective

Eurasian lacks adjectives in the traditional sense. Instead, *yeido* (adjective nouns, quality/attributive nouns) are used. *yeido* in their plain form can be thought of like ‘adjective+ness’ in English.

6.1 Attributive statements

The copula *ban* is used to form attributive statements, where a clause's subject has the object as a quality or attribute.

- (110) chatai kulin ban
 this.N.NOM blueness.M.ACC have
 ‘This is blue.’ (lit. ‘has blueness’)

Of course, the copula can be omitted and the object is conjugated as a verb.

- (111) chatai kulitas
 this.N.NOM blueness.IND.POL
 ‘This is blue.’

6.2 Modification

yeido must be declined to the genitive case in order to modify other nouns. Optionally, the apposition particles *se*, *sei* and *som* (for masculine, feminine and neuter genders respectively) may be used. The apposition particle must agree with the gender of the adjective.

- (112) kulao chuko
 blueness.M.GEN water.M
 ‘Blue water’
- (113) kulao se chuko
 blueness.M.GEN apposition.M water.M
 ‘Blue water’

6.3 Position

Most commonly, a modifier is placed before the noun that it modifies. However, it is grammatical to place it after the noun it modifies, so long as it does not cause ambiguity or other problems.

6.4 Suffixes

Adjectives may take a variety of suffixes.

The suffixes used here are specific to adjectives, and aren't found used with other words.

-d like, -ish
-m like, -ish
-yod seemingly, appears to be

(114) *kulidu* *kaga*
 blueness.like.M.GEN thing.N
 ‘Blue-ish thing’

(115) *kuliyodu* *kaga*
 blueness.seemingly.M.GEN thing.N
 ‘Seemingly blue thing’

These suffixes may be found used with words other than adjectives.

-nuit/-anuit very, really
-siet/-osiet too much, too

6.5 Compound adjectives

Like any other *nyamo*, the adjectives may be compounded to form compound adjectives. A compound adjective often combines the meanings of the two or more of the adjectives it consists of.

6.5.1 Compounding adjectives with verbs

Adjectives may also be compounded with verbs. In such a construction, the adjective usually precedes the verb. These compounds involve the adjective modifying the manner in which the verb is done, similar to the use of adjective-derived adverbs.

Chapter 7

The Adverb

Eurasian has two types of adverbs (*tyemalo*). The first type are formed from *nyamo* (nouns/adjectives/verbs). These are adverbs like *komara* (beautifully) and *sopyaira* (fearfully/cautiously). The second type are not formed from or based off of other words. They are adverbs like *lum* (suddenly) and *dal* (first).

7.1 Position

Adverbs are generally placed after the sentence's subject. Another common place is right before the verb it describes. When they are placed before the sentence's main clause, they are conjunctions.

(116) satei ketsona mjekes
1S.F.NOM quickly run.1.F
'I run quickly.'

(117) satei yaton ketsona uetes
1S.F.NOM vehicle.M.ACC quickly drive.1.F
'I drive the vehicle quickly.'

(118) ketsona, sati yaton uetes
quickly 1S.F.NOM vehicles.M.ACC drive.1.F
'Quickly, I drive the vehicle.'

Like other words, their function is emphasized when placed at the end of a sentence after the verb.

(119) sati yaton uetes ketsona
1S.F.NOM vehicles.M.ACC drive.1.F quickly
'I drive the vehicle *quickly*.'

7.2 *nyamo*-based adverbs

Any *nyamo* (noun/adjective/verb) can be turned into an adverb. This is done using a circumfix. The circumfix *ko-a* is used for masculine and feminine words. The circumfix *so-a* is used for neuter words.

<i>mare</i> (beauty)	<i>komara</i> (beautifully)
<i>etson</i> (quickness)	<i>ketsona</i> (quickly)
<i>mejtmai</i> (darkness)	<i>komjetma</i> (in a dark fashion)
<i>pyairo</i> (fear)	<i>sopyaira</i> (fearfully)
<i>djepa</i> (foolishness)	<i>sodjepa</i> (foolishly)

- (120) sabruyatu sodaga missyatai muntashisa
 train.M.GEN late arrive.N.NOM annoy.PST.IND.POL
 ‘The train’s arriving late was annoying.’

7.3 Not based off other words

The second type of adverbs usually have no way of identification with nouns. ie: they are not formed from inflecting nouns like the first group of adverbs is. This group of adverbs does not inflect in any way.

Chapter 8

The Numeral

8.1 Digits

The language has ten digits, 0-9.

0	<i>gan</i>
1	<i>ki</i>
2	<i>tup</i>
3	<i>yak</i>
4	<i>tal</i>
5	<i>tsa</i>
6	<i>bo</i>
7	<i>wan</i>
8	<i>tsei</i>
9	<i>pul</i>

Representation of numbers larger than nine is done using suffixes to indicate place value.

ten	<i>-im</i>
hundred	<i>-onre</i>
thousand	<i>-tsware</i>
ten thousand	<i>-meite</i>
hundred thousand	<i>-napare</i>
million	<i>-chiare</i>

More specific place values are formed by having a lower place value number directly follow a higher one.

<i>kingki</i>	eleven
<i>tupimbo</i>	twenty-six
<i>kichiaretsanapare</i>	1.5 million

8.2 Cardinal Numbers

Cardinal numbers are used to count. No changes are made to the numbers in order for them to be used in counting.

8.3 Multipliers

8.4 Nominal Numbers

Each numeral is grammatically neuter. Thus to form the nominal form of a number, the neuter gender suffix *-a* is used. If a number ends in a vowel, then that vowel must be deleted. The irregular number *tsei* does not follow this rule and becomes *tseña* in its nominal form. A number in its nominal form may now decline like any other noun.

(121) ka
1.N
'Number one'

(122) tupa
2.N
'Number two'

In order for a number to modify something, so that that thing can be represented as there being a certain number of it, the nominal form of the number must be declined to the genitive case, and the compositive particle *e* may optionally be used.

(123) tsae sjepso
5.N.GEN dog.M
'Five dogs'

(124) tsjenae e kana
8.N.GEN composition person.N
'Eight people'

8.5 Ordinal Numbers

The ordinal numbers are words like 'first', 'second', etc. They are formed by adding the suffix *-ami* (after consonants) or *-mi* (after vowels) to the number. The ordinal numbers are nominal, but they must decline using the *i*-declension. The irregular number *tsei* has its final *i* dropped before the suffix is added.

zeroth	<i>ganami</i>
first	<i>kimi</i>
second	<i>tupami</i>
third	<i>yakami</i>
fourth	<i>talami</i>
fifth	<i>tsami</i>
sixth	<i>bomi</i>
seventh	<i>wanami</i>
eighth	<i>tsemi</i>
ninth	<i>pulami</i>

(125) pulamia kano
9-ordinal.GEN person.M
'Ninth person'

8.6 Iterative Numbers

The iterative number form is used to express iterations or 'times'. It is often used with verbs to indicate how many times a verb is completed. It may be used with nouns if the nouns being quantified are extremely similar if not identical. The iterative is formed by adding the suffix *-aru* (after consonants) or *-saru* (after vowels). Iterative numbers are nominal, but they must decline using the u-declension. The irregular number *tsei* has its final *i* dropped before the suffix is added.

zero times	<i>ganaru</i>
one time	<i>kisaru</i>
two times	<i>tuparu</i>
three times	<i>yakaru</i>
four times	<i>talaru</i>
five times	<i>tsasaru</i>
six times	<i>bosaru</i>
seven times	<i>wanaru</i>
eight times	<i>tsesaru</i>
nine times	<i>pularu</i>

- (126) *tsasaruts do ksatnusashisa*
 5-iterative.DAT at succeed.3.F.PST.POL
 'On the fifth time, she succeeded.'

The iterative numbers should only modify nominal verbs, or nouns that are extremely similar, if not identical.

- (127) *tuparue e doka*
 2-iterative.GEN composition buy.N
 'Two buyings/buying two times'

The adverbial form of the iterative numbers can be formed by adding the prefix *u-*. This is an irregular adverb inflection.

- (128) *utuparu dokusa*
 ADV.2-iterative buy.3.M.POL
 'He buys two times.'

8.7 Units

Units are special nouns that may be prefixed with numerals, including the ordinal and iterative numerals. This category includes various measurements, such as distance, time, weight, etc. The unit words that do not contain a syllable coda should not decline for their gender, but they should decline to case. This should be done using the declension class of the unit's vowel. The unit words that do contain a syllable coda should decline for case and gender normally. It should be noted that these nouns and these nouns alone may take a numeral as a prefix.

8.7.1 SI Prefixes

Eurasian borrows the SI prefixes from English.

<i>mili-</i>	milli-
<i>sent-</i>	centi-
<i>desi-</i>	deci-
<i>deka-</i>	deca-
<i>hekto-</i>	hecto-
<i>kilo-</i>	kilo-

8.7.2 Time

<i>da</i> (f)	second
<i>po</i> (m)	minute
<i>gad</i> (m)	hour
<i>mat</i> (m)	day
<i>ket</i> (f)	week
<i>god</i> (f)	month
<i>pyo</i> (m)	year

8.7.3 Weights and measurements

<i>chas</i> (m)	meter
<i>grad</i> (f)	gram
<i>san</i> (m)	liter
<i>sam</i> (f)	degree (temperature)

8.7.4 Other unit words

These unit words act similar to classifiers in Chinese and other languages. However, they are used to refer to things very generally, and numbers do not require that they are attached in order to modify things. They are commonly used by themselves without modifying anything at all.

<i>ko/ke/ka</i> (m/f/n)	person
<i>pen</i> (m)	piece, small item
<i>kot</i> (m)	floor of a building/structure
<i>gun</i> (f)	glass, cup, bowl
<i>sha</i> (f)	vehicles
<i>so</i> (m)	large objects, long things
<i>gi</i> (f)	abstract things/concepts
<i>sai</i> (m)	chapter, section
<i>zai</i> (f)	book, article, magazine, newspaper
<i>al</i> (m)	piece/sheet of paper
<i>nan</i> (m)	row
<i>pad</i> (m)	room
<i>dun</i> (f)	dose (of medicine, etc.)
<i>la</i> (m)	machine, computer
<i>ge</i> (f)	bottle
<i>ye</i> (f)	can

Chapter 9

Particles

Particles (*chakasjepe*) are usually short words that serve some grammatical function. They almost never inflect and are almost never stressed. The language has two major types of particles: modal and postpositional particles. Modal particles usually follow a verb and indicate some modal or emotional information. They are also commonly used as interjections. Postpositional particles are Eurasian's equivalent of English prepositions. They are placed after a noun to indicate various states, such as position, motion, etc.

9.1 Modal and general discourse particles

Modal particles carry some sort of modal or emotional information. They are commonly placed after verbs, though outside of full sentences, their position is much more free. They are also used as interjections.

<i>min</i>	uncertainty, request for confirmation
<i>so</i>	strong assertion of details, emphasis
<i>ba</i>	satisfaction, fulfillment, positivity
<i>lom</i>	uncertainty, lack of confidence, humility
<i>song</i>	regret, negativity
<i>sao</i>	excitement, surprise, anticipation
<i>dzha</i>	propositive ("Let's ...")
<i>dzhaten</i>	soft propositive ("How about...")
<i>nei</i>	similar to <i>so</i> , assertive, emphasis
<i>neižo</i>	combination of <i>nei</i> and <i>o/žo</i> , masculine sounding
<i>ko/go</i>	equivalent to <i>min</i> , <i>so</i> , <i>ba</i> and <i>sao</i> , feminine sounding
<i>kue</i>	general feminine sounding particle
<i>kui</i>	feminine sounding propositive
<i>ni</i>	provides an explanation, reason or source

9.2 Postpositional particles

Postpositional particles follow nouns and carry information on some sort of state related to the noun. This state is often position, motion, etc. Postpositional particles may follow nouns in every case except the nominative and vocative.

9.2.1 Postpositions of the dative case

The dative case takes the largest number of postpositions. Its usages with postpositions often indicate states of motion and position. It may take the following postpositions.

<i>chap</i>	at, in, on
<i>me</i>	to, towards
<i>dom</i>	from, away
<i>nat</i>	(motion) against, opposite, across, parallel
<i>lai</i>	up to, until (distance, direction, location)
<i>kad</i>	(motion) above, over
<i>dza</i>	(motion) below, beneath, under
<i>do</i>	(time) at, during, while
<i>mi</i>	in, with, at (limited usage, see below)

- (129) kamai kadzots chap
 3P.N.NOM forest.M.DAT at
 ‘They are at/in the forest’

- (130) kadzots me pamusashitas
 forest.M.DAT to go.3.F.PST.IND.POL
 ‘She went to the forest.’

mi

The postpositional particle *mi* is used to determine a select few relationships.

... *mi pak* speak in ...

9.2.2 Postpositions of the accusative case

The accusative’s usages with postpositions often indicates manner and function. It also takes some postpositions of the dative case, but their usage with the accusative slightly changes their meaning.

<i>ma</i>	as, instead of, in place of
<i>dang</i>	with, using
<i>dya</i>	with, beside, by
<i>hyu</i>	by (semantic agent)
<i>chap</i>	onto, into a general area
<i>me</i>	into
<i>dom</i>	out of, out from
<i>nat</i>	(position) against, opposite, across, parallel
<i>lai</i>	up to/down to (height, depth)
<i>kad</i>	(position) above, higher than, over
<i>dza</i>	(position) below, beneath, under
<i>meru</i>	around, in a circle

9.2.3 Postpositions of the comitative case

The comitative’s usage with postpositions often indicates accompaniment and manner.

<i>ga</i>	and (entirety)
<i>in</i>	and (partially)
<i>dya</i>	with, together with

9.2.4 Postpositions of the genitive case

The genitive case's particles are used to show relationships of possession or modification. Many of this case's particles agree with the gender of the noun they follow.

<i>le</i>	masculine possessive particle
<i>te</i>	feminine possessive particle
<i>ta</i>	neuter possessive particle
<i>se</i>	masculine adjective particle
<i>sei</i>	feminine adjective particle
<i>som</i>	neuter adjective particle
<i>e</i>	composition

9.2.5 Universal postpositional particles

This group of particles may be used with words of any case, including words unmarked for case. It also contains most of the language's determiners. If one of these particles must be used with another case-specific particle, it should be placed after such particle. Some particles must agree with the gender of the noun they are attached to. Such particles are notated as m/f/n in the list below.

<i>ben</i>	only
<i>ho/he/ha</i>	all, every
<i>hosal/hesal/hasal</i>	none
<i>it</i>	some
<i>mui</i>	any, some
<i>tro</i>	a few
<i>chai</i>	very few, none
<i>yot/yet/yat</i>	this (proximal)
<i>not/net/nat</i>	that (medial)
<i>sot/set/sat</i>	that (distal)
<i>rai</i>	things like
<i>su</i>	some, any
<i>use</i>	some kind of
<i>zo/ze/za</i>	any, all
<i>telo/tele/tela</i>	what
<i>dalo/dale/dala</i>	which
<i>tolen/telen/talen</i>	what kind of
<i>dolin/delin/dalin</i>	which kind of
<i>yepta</i>	such, such a
<i>yoten/yeten/yaten</i>	this kind of (proximal)
<i>noten/neten/naten</i>	that kind of (medial)
<i>soten/seten/saten</i>	that kind of (distal)
<i>sa</i>	no, none (negative)
<i>gai</i>	said, such
<i>kai</i>	such, previously referred to

- (131) tjepei yet lapetas
 book.F.NOM this heavy.IND.POL
 ‘This book is heavy.’
- (132) tjepei he lapetas
 book.F.NOM all heavy.IND.POL
 ‘All of the books are heavy.’
- (133) tjepei deli lapetas
 book.F.NOM which heavy.IND.POL
 ‘Which book is heavy?’
- (134) tjepei tro lapetas
 book.F.NOM few heavy.IND.POL
 ‘A few books are heavy.’

Additionally modal particles may be attached to nouns to associate that noun with an emotion.

- (135) sjeiki sao tjessa
 3S.M.NOM surprise is.SJV.PST
 ‘There was HIM. (of all people!’)
- (136) sjeiki lom tjessa
 3S.M.NOM uncertainty is.SJV.PST
 ‘There was him. (I think)’

9.3 Miscellaneous particles

9.3.1 Quotation particle

The particle *su* is the spoken form of quotation marks. Two *su* particles are used, one to mark the beginning of a quotation and one to mark the end. Everything inside the *su* particles is quoted text or speech and is thus grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence (ie: it doesn’t trigger any agreement). The final *su* particle should decline for case using the U-declension. *su* is the only particle that inflects.

- (137) miskat’salera chuntam dang su bodaintas sum
 to.more.not.N.VOC sleep.N.ACC with quotation end.1.N.IND.POL quotation.ACC
 yatta
 say.N
 ‘No more; and by a sleep, to say we end’

9.3.2 Coordination particle

The coordination particle *ye* indicates that two or more phrases or constituents are equal, and do not modify each other, but rather they both modify something else. It is commonly used in noun phrases with two or more nouns modifying the head noun. Such nouns would be separated by the coordination particle to indicate that they both modify the head noun, rather than the first one modifying the second one. Notice in the next two examples how the use of the coordination particle completely changes the meaning of a noun phrase.

- (138) tasao kanu le maso
important.M.GEN person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M
'The important man's building' (the man is important, the building is not)
- (139) tasao ye kanu le maso
important.M.GEN coordination person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M
'The important and man's building.' (the building is important, the man is not)

Chapter 10

Interjections

Interjections (*ispuete*) are single word phrases usually used outside of a sentence.

<i>cho</i>	yes
<i>dye</i>	no
<i>waa</i>	wow
<i>o</i>	oh
<i>e</i>	uh
<i>da</i>	go on/I'm listening
<i>a</i>	yes (informal)
<i>sa/sal</i>	no (informal)
<i>an</i>	yes sir (response to a command)
<i>syo</i>	hey (used to get attention)

In addition, any modal verb ending particle may be used as an interjection.

Some English interjections may correspond to entire phrases in Eurasian.

<i>nutsi/nutses (f)/nutsashte (PPFV)/nutsesashte</i>	Ouch, Ow (lit. 'I'm hurt/hurting/been hurt')
<i>myeidei/myeidinei/myeidesinei</i>	Shh (lit. 'Become quiet.')

Chapter 11

Syntax

11.1 Sentence word order

Because Eurasian nouns are marked for case, and such a marking determines a nouns grammatical role in a sentence, the word order of a sentence is not rigid like that of English. Generally, however, sentences use a subject-object-verb (SOV) ordering, with oblique noun phrases and adverbs coming before the object.

- (140) sati prinen leiti
1S.M.NOM orange.F.ACC eat.1.M
'I eat the orange.'

This order may be altered for a variety of functions. When a subject, object, oblique or adverb is moved to the end of a sentence, past the verb, it has emphasis drawn to it.

- (141) sati leiti prinen
1S.M.NOM eat.1.M orange.F.ACC
'I eat the *orange*. (instead of some other food)'

- (142) prinen leiti sati
orange.F.ACC eat.1.M 1S.M.NOM
'*I* (instead of some other person) eat the orange.'

Placing the verb at the beginning of a sentence sounds poetic, and is thus often used in poetry, songs and literature.

- (143) leiti sati prinen
eat.1.M 1S.M.NOM orange.F.ACC
'I eat the orange.'

11.2 Noun phrases

In a noun phrase, things that modify (adjectives, other nouns, etc.) the head noun generally come before it. However, like the word order, this is not a rigid rule, especially outside of sentences. It is also not uncommon, often in titles or place names, for noun phrases with more than one modifier to place some before the noun phrase and some after it.

11.3 Yes-no question sentences

In questions that are meant to be replied with either *cho* (yes) or *dye* (no), or other phrases to confirm or deny the sentence's proposition, the sentence's verb is suffixed with the interrogative verb form.

11.4 Coordination

Coordination of clauses, phrases, and adverbs, while done commonly in English, is much less common in Eurasian. Whenever it is done, the coordination particle *ye*, including other coordination particles, are used. The coordination particle is often not needed. However, in some noun, adjective and verb phrases, it is required as to not cause ambiguity. It is never required for verbs and adverbs, so it is rarely, if ever, used in these cases.

11.4.1 Clauses

Coordination of clauses is almost never done. It is most commonly employed in conditional statements, where one clause is marked with the conditional mood suffix and the other marked with some other mood, often the hypothetical. However, when it is done, it indicates that the two or more actions are completed or done one right after another, or otherwise close in time. In order for the verbs to be in coordination, they both must be in verbal/finite forms. A general rule regarding which moods the verbs are conjugated to is that if both verbs are in the same mood, then only the final verb should take a mood suffix. The same rule also applies to tense, however, all verbs should retain their person markings.

- (144) satei mjekes sagbesitas
 1S.F.NOM run.1.F jump.1.F.POL
 'I run and then jump.'

Coordination of conditional statements

Coordination is most commonly done in conditional statements. In this type of construction, the "condition" is marked by the conditional mood suffix, and the other clause is marked with some other mood suffix, commonly the hypothetical mood.

- (145) satei mjekesake ye sagbesashitas
 1S.F.NOM run.1.F.PST coordination jump.1.F.PST.POL
 'I ran and (afterwards) jumped.'

11.4.2 Noun, adjective and nominal verb phrases

Coordination of noun, adjective and nominal verb phrases is often necessary, whenever the use of the comitative case is either not sufficient, or causes ambiguity. Thus it is often done in genitive constructions, to indicate two things equally modify the head noun. The following examples are examples of coordinated and not coordinated noun phrases, the difference in meaning between the two and how the coordinated phrase requires the coordination particle.

- (146) tasao kanu le maso
 important.M.GEN person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M
 'The important man's building' (the man is important, the building is not)

- (147) tasao ye kanu le maso
important.M.GEN coordination person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M
'The important and man's building.' (the building is important, the man is not)

11.4.3 Adverbs

Adverbs, unlike clauses and phrases, can only be coordinated. This is done by placing the adverbs next to each other - no coordination particle is needed.

11.5 Subordination

Unlike coordination, in Eurasian, subordination of clauses or phrases is much more commonly done.

11.5.1 Clauses

11.5.2 Nouns, adjectives and nominal verb phrases

11.6 Particles

Chapter 12

Conjunctions and conjunctive constructions

This chapter uses some abbreviations to stand in for different clauses:

FIN	finite clause (contains a finite verb)
COM	nonfinite clause declined to the comitative case
DAT	nonfinite clause declined to the dative case
ACC	nonfinite clause declined to the accusative case
GEN	nonfinite clause declined to the genitive case

12.1 Coordinating constructions

Coordinating conjunctions and conjunctive constructions link two independent (finite) clauses. Coordination of clauses is uncommon in Eurasian, but it is sometimes done. Coordination of phrases without the use of any kind of coordination particle indicates two actions are done one after another, or otherwise close in time.

When the coordination particle *ye* is used to link the clauses, it indicates that the two actions are done at different times, and in a certain order, but the constraints on the time of the actions is gone, so they could have been done much farther away in time. Use of coordination this way is often used to recount or describe past events.

12.2 Coordination in conditional statements

While coordination is general is rare in the language, it is very often employed in conditional statements. In a conditional statement, the condition is marked by the conditional mood, and coordinated with another clause, either in the indicative or hypothetical mood. The indicative mood should be used if the action that will be done if the condition is met is obvious or dictated by logic, while the hypothetical mood should be used if that action is less obvious or unexpected, completely speculative or hypothetical.

12.3 Subordinating constructions

Subordinating conjunctions and conjunctive constructions link a dependent (nonfinite) clause to an independent (finite) clause or link two dependent. Dependent clauses are generally placed before the main clause.

12.3.1 ‘and’ constructions

DAT <i>ga</i> FIN	DAT and FIN
DAT <i>in</i> FIN	DAT and FIN (partial)
DAT <i>pa</i> FIN	DAT while (contrast) FIN
DAT <i>ga</i> DAT <i>ga</i>	both DAT and DAT
COM <i>ga</i> FIN	COM and FIN (at the same time)
COM <i>in</i> FIN	COM and FIN (at the same time and partial)
COM <i>pa</i> FIN	COM while (contrast) FIN (at the same time)
DAT <i>ga</i> DAT <i>ga</i>	both DAT and DAT (at the same time)
COM FIN	COM and FIN
COM <i>dya</i> FIN	COM with FIN

12.3.2 ‘or’ constructions

COM <i>sen</i> FIN	COM or FIN
COM <i>sen</i> COM <i>sen</i>	either COM or COM
COM <i>drat</i> FIN	COM whereas FIN

12.3.3 ‘because’ constructions

DAT <i>ten</i> FIN	FIN because DAT
GEN (<i>som</i>) <i>tsanats ten</i> FIN	FIN because GEN (formal/literary)

12.3.4 ‘in order to’ constructions

DAT <i>pre</i> FIN	FIN in order to DAT
GEN (<i>som</i>) <i>zuanats pre</i> FIN	FIN in order to GEN (formal/literary)

12.3.5 Time constructions

DAT <i>do</i> FIN	During/while DAT, FIN
GEN <i>kaitats do</i> FIN	During/while DAT, FIN (formal/literary)
GEN <i>mokaitats do</i> FIN	Before GEN, FIN
GEN <i>meikaitats do</i> FIN	After GEN, FIN
<i>mo</i> DAT* <i>do</i> FIN	Before DAT, FIN (colloquial)
<i>mei</i> DAT* <i>do</i> FIN	After DAT, FIN (colloquial)

* the verb of the dependent clause should be prefix with *mo/mei*.

12.3.6 ‘but’ constructions

COM <i>suma</i> FIN	FIN, but COM
ACC <i>suma</i> FIN	FIN, but COM
DAT <i>suma</i> FIN	FIN, but DAT
ACC <i>tagod</i> FIN	ACC, but FIN
DAT <i>tagod</i> FIN	DAT, but FIN

12.4 Conjunctive adverbial phrases

These are equivalent to English words like ‘however’, ‘therefore’, ‘still’, etc. Theoretically, any adverb or adverbial phrase can be used as a conjunctive adverbial phrase. Like English, they are commonly placed at the beginning of a sentence, but may also be placed before a verb, like other adverbial phrases.

<i>singka</i>		however
<i>mashe</i>		although
<i>sedznai</i>		therefore
<i>njeikats ten</i>		therefore
<i>njeikae zuanats ten</i>	therefore (formal/literary)	
<i>donda</i>		still
<i>njeikae kyeno</i>		despite that
<i>nung</i>	furthermore, additionally	
<i>damibodu</i>	generally, originally	
<i>yepa</i>		however, but
<i>dal</i>		first, initially
<i>moti</i>		then, next
<i>yuang</i>	also, additionally	
<i>kyenosa pa</i>	despite that, however	

Chapter 13

Specific semantic functions and constructions

13.1 Source

Indicating the source of information or a proposition should be done with the dative case and the particle *dom* (from).

13.2 Instrumental

The instrumental particle *dang* is used with the accusative case to indicate what an event is done using. *dang* can thus be translated as 'using' or 'with'.

- (148) udabon dang dasen tari
key.M.ACC INS door.F.ACC open.1.M
'I open/am opening the door using a key.'

13.3 Comitative

Eurasian has a specific case to express a comitative relationship or accompaniment. By itself, this case can either mean 'and' or 'with', depending on context.

13.4 Composition

The particle *e* is used with the genitive case to express a compositive relationship. In such a relationship, the modified noun consists or is made of the modifying noun.

- (149) mikeo e djesko
wood.F.GEN composition desk.M
'Wooden desk/desk made out of wood.'

13.5 Purpose

13.6 Cause

To express cause or reason for an action, like the English word 'because', the postpositional particle *ten* is used. *ten* expresses abstract motion from, i.e. cause and effect. To use it with

verbs, the reason or cause is nominalized and declined to the dative case, followed by the particle.

- (150) *nulei ksakats ten anumen puttashitas*
 rain.F.NOM fall.N.DAT cause event.F.ACC cancel.PST.IND
 ‘The event was canceled because of the rain falling.’

It can also be used on nouns other than action nouns. Like the previous construction, the dative case is used. This is the equivalent of ‘because of’ in English.

- (151) *nulets ten anumen puttashitas*
 rain.F.DAT cause event.F.ACC canceled.PST.IND
 ‘The event was canceled because of the rain.’

13.7 Function

13.8 Benefactive

In a benefactive statement, an action is done for the benefit of someone. This is marked in English with the word ‘for’. In Eurasian, the action done for the benefit of someone must be nominalized, declined to the accusative case and made the direct object of the verb *gul* (give). *gul* must be prefixed with either *zao-* (up) or *li-* (down). *zao-* is used if the person the action is done for the benefit of is of a higher or equal status to the subject. *li-* is used if the person the action is done for the benefit of is of a lower status to the subject. It is thus often used to indicate an undertaking by a superior. Finally, the person the action is done for the benefit of is marked by the dative case and made the indirect object of *ligul/zaogul*.

- (152) *sati idzhokots nantsaikon dokan zaogulashitas*
 1S.M.NOM friend.M.DAT breakfast.M.ACC buy.N.ACC up.give.PST.IND.POL
 ‘I bought breakfast for my friend.’

In fast or informal speech, the main verb and *gul* may be serialized. Since *zao-* and *li-* are prefixes, they should be placed before the resulting compound (before the main verb), and not in the middle (before *gul*).

- (153) *sati idzhokots nantsaikon zaodoggulashitas*
 1S.M.NOM friend.M.DAT breakfast.M.ACC up.buy.give.PST.IND.POL
 ‘I bought breakfast for my friend.’

13.9 Essive

The essive particle *ma* is used with the accusative case to express an essive relationship. It translates to ‘as’, ‘in place of’ or ‘instead of’.

- (154) *gjekon ma*
 child.M.ACC essive
 ‘as a child’

13.10 Translative

A translative relationship describes a change from one state to another. This can usually be done with the particle *pre*.

13.11 Value

One way to express the value of an object is using the verb *henak* (worth or valued at).

- (155) tjepei yot kindolan hjengkitas
 book.F.NOM this ten.dollar.ACC worth.IND.POL
 ‘This book costs/is worth ten dollars.’

henak and some value can be nominalized and declined to the genitive case to modify a certain item and indicate that it is worth that amount.

- (156) nolai kindolan hjengkae som tjepen tai
 that.N.NOM ten.dollar.ACC worth.N.GEN apposition book.F.ACC is
 ‘That is a ten dollar book.’

In colloquial language, the verb may be omitted, and the value declined to the genitive case instead.

- (157) nolai kindolae som tjepen tai
 that.N.NOM ten.dollar.GEN apposition book.F.ACC is
 ‘That is a ten dollar book.’

13.12 Concessive

13.13 Distance/Extent

13.14 Inclusion

‘Including’ or ‘excluding’ can be done using the verb *rod* (to include/join). In such a construction, the noun being included is declined to either the accusative or the genitive case. To form an adverbial from this, the verb is either declined to the accusative case with the particle *dya* or the comitative case, optionally with the particle *dya*.

- (158) satu rodasa dya
 1S.M.GEN include.N.COM with
 ‘including me’ (lit. ‘with my inclusion’)

To negate the construction, the verb is negated with the auxiliary verb *sal* (is/does/has not).

- (159) satu rot’salasa dya
 1S.M.GEN include.negative.N.COM with
 ‘excluding me’ (lit. ‘with my exclusion’)

13.15 Mathematical operations

13.16 Time

13.16.1 Punctual time

Punctual time indicates after what amount of time will an action occur. A punctual construction can be formed by specifying the amount of time, the unit of time, applying the prefix *mei* (after) or *mo* (before), declining this to the dative case and applying the postpositional particle *do*, which marks time. The construction's verb may either be in the past or future tense.

(160) meikimpots do onaimesarTE
 after.ten.minute.M.DAT at come.1.F.FUT
 'I will come in ten minutes.'

(161) mokimpots do onaimesaKE
 before.ten.minute.M.DAT at come.1.F.PST
 'I came ten minutes ago.'

13.16.2 Duration

Duration indicates for how long an action is done or lasts. A durative construction can be formed by specifying the amount of time, the unit of time, declining this to the dative case and applying the postpositional particle *do*, which marks time.

(162) sati tsapots do mjekish
 1S.M.NOM five.minute.M.DAT at run.PST
 'I ran for five minutes.'

13.16.3 Point in period

Chapter 14

Register

Register (*zute* - ‘style’ or *pag’zute* - ‘speaking style’) in Eurasian has to do with the style of speaking chosen by the speaker depending on social status, situation or setting, as well as that of their listeners. It may effect things such as pronouns, noun declensions, verb conjugations and entire words.

The registers vary greatly in formality and politeness. Below it is shown the hierarchy of registers, from most formal to least formal, and each register’s native name. The literary register (*genteb’zute*), however, is not shown below in the hierarchy, because it indicates impersonal or informational language, rather than formal language.

- Formal (*swatopaka*) and Spoken literary (*pakaragenteb’zute*)
- Informal-formal mix or Common Formal (*dage’swatopaka*)
- Absolute neutral (*yoigenzute* or *genzute*)
- Informal (*dagezute*)

14.1 Informal

The formal register is used in informal or casual situations.

14.2 Formal

The formal register is used in formal situations or settings. Often casual conversations will start in the formal register and decay to a lower register over time. This register makes use of the formal case suffixes and verb endings.

14.3 Literary

The literary or impersonal register is the most neutral register. It is rarely used in spoken language, hence the name. It is highly formal, yet fast and informational. This register is used in informational texts, such as textbooks or newspapers. The literary register uses the common case suffixes, including the extended dative cases. It also uses the same verb endings as the informal register, except for the mood endings, which have special literary forms.

14.4 Medial/hybrid registers

A speaker does not have to use inflections or features of only a single register. They are permitted to use features of two or even three different registers. Doing this forms medial or hybrid registers.

14.4.1 Informal-formal mix

This register is commonly found during the decay of a conversation from the formal register to the informal register. In this register, the common noun endings are used while the formal verb endings are used. Often a formal choice of vocabulary is maintained.

14.4.2 Absolute neutral

This register uses common endings for both nouns and verbs, except for indicative and conditional suffixes. It is the most neutral register and can be used in almost any situation, thus making it useful to the novice speaker. For the indicative mood, the suffix *-tas/-itas* is almost always used. The use of formal pronouns should be maintained.

14.4.3 Spoken literary

This register, a combination of the literary and formal registers, is the most similar to a spoken form of the literary register, with the exception of direct recitation of it. It is most commonly used for information to be conveyed in a one-way, uninterrupted stream, such as speeches, lectures and journalistic things such as newscasts. As for written forms of it, a general rule is that if something informational is written with the intention of it being spoken as a primary means of transmitting the information (such as a speech, lecture, etc.), then this register should be used.

Because it is to be actually spoken, the formal register's case suffixes and verb conjugations (with the exception of mood) are used, often with honorifics. The literary register's mood suffixes should be used. Choice of words should lean towards the literary side, however, and, like the literary register, the extended dative cases should be used, and the vocative is replaced with a strict topic marker.

14.5 Colloquial language

14.6 Quick speech

While speakers are permitted in any register to speak as fast as they wish, the lower registers employ several techniques to allow faster speech.

Chapter 15

Word formation

15.1 Nominal derivational morphology

These affixes are attached to nouns. Many of them are also found attached to verbs and adjectives.

15.1.1 Prefixes

ni- and *me-*

The suffixes *ni-* and *me-* indicates that the marked noun in some way relates to a second or third person. It is not possessive and should not be used as such. It indicates that something is specific of or related to a second or third person. *ni-* is used when such a referent is male, and *me-* when they are female.

- (163) *nidhznam* *maddei*
you.health.M.NOM good.Q
'How are you?' (lit. 'Is your health good?')

so- and *si-*

These two prefixes are placed before nouns to indicate that they are specific of or otherwise related to someone of a higher status. They are the honorific forms of *ni-* and *me-*. Depending on the context, they could mean either 'your', 'his', 'her' or 'their'. *so-* is used with a male referent and *si-* is used with a female referent.

- (164) *sodzhanos* *madizidei*
you.HON.health.M.NOM good.N1.M.HON.Q
'How are you?' (said to a superior, lit. 'Is your health good?')

na-

The prefix *na-* indicates motion out from or away from. Because it indicates motion from, it is commonly used with *dom* or *ten* attached as postpositional particles.

- (165) *napayots* *dom*
out.city.M.DAT from
'Out from the city'

kru-

The prefix *kru-* indicates motion onto or into. It is thus commonly used with *me* or *pre* (or *chap* in the accusative case) attached as postpositional particles.

- (166) *krupayots me*
 into.city.M.DAT to
 ‘Into the city’

nai-

The prefix *nai-* means ‘each’, ‘every’ or ‘all’.

- mat* (day) + *nai-* *naimat* (everyday, daily)
po (second) + *nai-* *naipo* (every second, by the second)

15.1.2 Suffixes**15.2 Verbal derivational morphology**

These affixes are attached to verbs. Many of them are also found attached to nouns and adjectives.

15.2.1 Prefixes***o-***

The prefix *o-* indicates that an action is intended in the direction of the listener or addressee. It can sometimes be used in place of an oblique indicating direction.

- (167) *sati onaiti*
 1S.M.NOM you.come.1.M
 ‘I come. (to you)’

- (168) *odaptes*
 you.indebt.1.F
 ‘Thank you.’ (lit. ‘I’m in debt to you.’)

ga-

The prefix *ga-* indicates an action is done thoroughly, intensely or deeply.

- hat* (see) + *ga-* *gahat* - stare, glare, inspect

When used with *yeido*, it can act as an intensifier and greatly increase the degree of the adjective.

- (169) *kagai gakulitas*
 thing.N.NOM intense.blue.IND.POL
 ‘The items are an intense shade of blue.’

shu-

The prefix *shu-* indicates an action happens for a very long time and is very intense

be-

The prefix *be-* indicates an action happens for a while; a medium to long amount of time.

na-

The prefix *na-* indicates an action is done in an outwards or ‘away from’ direction.

<i>syat</i> (travel by rail) + <i>na-</i>	<i>nasyat</i> - depart by rail
<i>ton</i> (send) + <i>na-</i>	<i>naton</i> - send out, message, communicate with
<i>tar</i> (pull, grab, take) + <i>na-</i>	<i>natar</i> - pull out, take out, remove

zhai-

The prefix *zhai-* indicates an action is done completely to an object.

yo-

The prefix *yo-* indicates an action is done past, beside, bypassing or around something.

do-

The prefix *do-* indicates decay to a lower, broken, smaller or devastated state.

no-

The prefix *no-* indicates the undoing, cessation, etc. of an action. It is similar to ‘dis’ or ‘un’ in English.

bai-

The prefix *bai-* indicates motion inwards, encircling, contracting or shrinking or a state of simplification.

tra-

The prefix *tra-* indicates a repeated or reoccurring action, or an action that is either completed, tried or failed multiple times.

kyo-

The prefix *kyo-* indicates an action is redone or done over, but not retried, as in the retrying of an action that previously was tried and failed.

nad (do/make) + *kyo-* *kyonad* (redo/remake)

15.2.2 Suffixes

-ke

The suffix *-ke* carries grammatical aspect related to differentiation between actions completed once and actions done ongoing after the first action has been completed. It is used to form a large number of derived verbs.

<i>len</i> (learn) + <i>-ke</i>	<i>lengke</i> (know)
<i>dok</i> (buy) + <i>-ke</i>	<i>dokke</i> (own)
<i>men</i> (meet) + <i>-ke</i>	<i>mengke</i> (know a person)

15.3 Adjectival derivational morphology

These affixes are attached to adjectives.

15.3.1 Prefixes

15.3.2 Suffixes

-awa/-tawa

The suffix *-awa/-tawa* when attached to adjectives turn the adjective into a verb that means to become or be that adjective.

Chapter 16

Usage

16.1 Phrases

Note that many phrases have different forms depending on the gender of the speaking. Such will be listed with two entries, separated by a slash. The first entry is the masculine form and the second entry the feminine form.

16.1.1 Greetings

<i>kantiyadamo/kantetyadamo</i>	Hello - general, formal (lit. 'I greet')
<i>kanti/kantes</i>	Hi - short, informal
<i>sanukantiyadamo/sanukantetyadamo</i>	Hello - honorific (lit. 'I greet with reverence')
<i>nidzhanum maddei/medzhanum maddei</i>	How are you? - general, formal (lit. 'Is your health good?')
<i>nidzhani maddo/medzhani maddo</i>	How are you? - short, informal
<i>sodzhanos madizidei/sidzhanos madizidei</i>	How are you? - honorific

16.1.2 Farewells

16.1.3 Gratitude

<i>odaptiyadamo/odaptetyadamo</i>	Thank you - general, formal (lit. 'I'm in debt to you.')
<i>odapti/odaptes</i>	Thanks - short, informal
<i>otasidaptiyadamo/otasidaptetyadamo</i>	Thank you very much - general, formal
<i>otasidapti/otasidaptes</i>	Thank you very much - short, informal
<i>onobodaptiyadamo/onobodaptetyadamo</i>	Thank you very much - general, formal
<i>onobodapti/onobodaptes</i>	Thank you very much - short, informal
<i>genzutets mi pakprjetan saonas</i>	You're too kind/polite. (lit. 'No need to speak in <i>genzute</i> ')

16.1.4 Blessings

16.1.5 Regret/sorry

16.2 Commands

16.3 Requests

The verb *kesit* is used to issue formal requests. In these, the verb is conjugated with a conditional suffix, and the condition that determines the validity of a statement or proposition is determined by the will, intent, desire or permissiveness of the listener. A simple request construction can be formed by coordinating a conditional clause with another clause.

‘This fucking guy (lit. ”This absolutely revered and adored guy (who is socially superior to me)”’

16.9 Idioms

Chapter 17

Selected Lexicon

17.1 Kinship terms

<i>pajengko</i>	father
<i>haengke</i>	mother
<i>beipajengko</i>	grandfather
<i>beihaengke</i>	grandmother
<i>baba/papa</i>	father, dad
<i>haha/mama</i>	mother, mom
<i>sotengko</i>	older brother
<i>sotko</i>	younger brother
<i>nyetengke</i>	older sister
<i>nyetke</i>	younger sister

17.2 People/groups

<i>hapako/hapake</i>	Eurasian/Hapa person
<i>yurashieko/yurashieke</i>	Eurasian/Hapa person
<i>pabiko/pabike</i>	White/European person
<i>yuroko/yuroke</i>	White/European person
<i>ashieko/ashieke</i>	Asian person
<i>yurobaiashiehaeko/e</i>	WMAF Hapa
<i>yurobaihapako/e</i>	WMAF Hapa
<i>ashiebaiyurohaeko/e</i>	AMWF Hapa
<i>ashiebaihapako/e</i>	AMWF Hapa
<i>hapabaihapahajiko/e</i>	HMHF Hapa
<i>hapabajihapako/e</i>	HMHF Hapa
<i>yoniko/yonike</i>	Black person
<i>latino/latine</i>	Hispanic

17.3 Time words

<i>meimat/naimat</i>	yesterday
<i>momat/deomat</i>	tomorrow

17.4 Countries/regions

<i>amerikawake/amjerike</i>	America (United States)
<i>pozhdas'wake</i>	United States
<i>amerikapozhdas'wake</i>	United States of America
<i>kanadawake/kanade</i>	Canada
<i>yuropa</i>	Europe
<i>pozhdaskaiwake</i>	United Kingdom
<i>enggodoje</i>	England
<i>doidzhdoje</i>	Germany
<i>astrie</i>	Austria
<i>demmake</i>	Denmark
<i>pranse/prans'wake</i>	France
<i>swerige/swerigekaiwake</i>	Sweden
<i>italie/italiwake</i>	Italy
<i>ruse/rus'wake</i>	Russia
<i>saobie</i>	Serbia
<i>supeine</i>	Spain
<i>ashie</i>	Asia
<i>dzhong'wake</i>	China (mainland)
<i>taiwane</i>	Taiwan
<i>hanguke/hanguk'wake</i>	Korea (south)
<i>nihone/nihon'wake</i>	Japan
<i>taidoje</i>	Thailand
<i>malaidoje/malaiwake</i>	Malaysia
<i>indonisyje/indonisyewake</i>	Indonesia
<i>pilipine/pilipin'wake</i>	Philippines
<i>singapore</i>	Singapore
<i>hongkonge</i>	Hong Kong
<i>astralie</i>	Australia