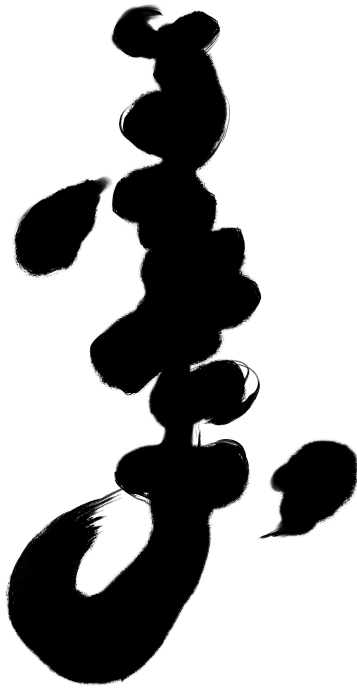


A CONSCIE FIELD
GRAMMAR
OF TECHPFO

A constructed language
of Infinite Plains of
Qehar

Filip Rosenqvist



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OF TECHPFO
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¹A disclaimer may regrettably be necessary here. Stockholm University has not been involved in this text in any way.
(Yet)

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1 | introduction

1.1 goal of this text

The goal of this text is to provide a thorough description of the invented language *Techpfo* (known since its earliest form back in 1998 as *Filianska*).

This language is in every way intended to be grammatically complete and speakable with the syntax and vocabulary to make that possible; a goal I am happy to inform, has been reached. To achieve this, though, it has had to come a long way from where it started out nearly one and a half decade ago.

1.2 background to this language

Techpfo started life as a secret language back in 1998 when I was 13 and wanted to write things that were for my eyes only, without having to take measures to actually hide the texts, but also, and maybe mainly even, to annoy those who would see the foreign-looking texts and be unable to understand them even while knowing which actual real-world languages I mastered. Subsequently though, the language grew in its purpose and became both a fantasy world language as well as my own private linguistic playground with a very decisive lack of attention-span, probably more the latter than the former. At this time the fantasy world in question was a collaboration among friends and I always imagined the language to be, in its essence, of another fictional origin and mainly placed it in the collaborate world because I saw no reason why not to. This was around 2001-2004. Some time after this the collaborate world reach some sort of permanence with less and less frequent updates but I continued to play with grammatical ideas and applied them to my language for testing. Anyway, 2004 ended and 5-6 more years passed by, and with many of the basic features (phonetics, grammatical relations, inflections/markings, alphabet/abugida and the like) slowly solidifying I started experiementing with syntactic theory and decided not to apply my earlier love, the Chompskyan binary tree structure model, to my language. Instead I gravitated toward predicate/ dependency grammar and ended up inventing a personal version, which I called the Theory of Flowing Relations, styled specifically for my language, now named *Techpfo*. [tetʃ] 'speak/speech' being one of a small number of remaining element from the earliest vocabulary dating back to the very beginnings in the late 1990s.

1.2.1 language aesthetics

Aesthetically the goal has been from the very beginning to design a language that is appealing to me personally, arbitrary as that might be, both in syntax, phonetics, writing and transliteration, to name just the most obvious aspects.

What I have tried to do, more specifically, is to create a language that does not sound like any of the languages I master, that is, Swedish, Spanish or English, nor any of the following: Japanese, Chinese, Hawaiian, Swahili; nor like: Hebrew, Arabic, Russian; not like: Quenya, Sindarin ¹, or Lojban ².

The reason for not wanting the sound of any language I speak can be summed up in the question: what would be the fun of that? I already speak one such-sounding language, and since *Techpfo* was always intended to be a purely fictional language, as opposed to for instance an alternative history real world language derivative, an international auxiliary language, or some such thing (fascinating and intriguing though those are!), there really was no other reason to do so either. I think all three of these are beautiful, though. As for Japanese, my language has always been more restrictive with consonant clusters than for example English and Swedish and has also tended to mark for case using case endings/clitics appearing last in any phrase (or whatever passes for a phrase in *Techpfo*). These things in combination has made many of my friends think it sounds just like Japanese (a very popular language at the moment), which has been annoying, or like Finnish, which I have not minded at all. Many of these case endings/clitics have turned out quite analytically independent in recent developments making *Techpfo* effectively Chinese-like in some grammatical ways. I wanted the similarities to stop there by having it sounding like something else. Hawaiian and Swahili both have a high vowel-to-consonant ratio which is, though very beautiful in many ways, rather boring to work with after a while. This is a personal opinion nothing else, I still find Matt Pearson's Okuna ³ very likeable. As for Hebrew (both modern and biblical) and Arabic (modern-diverse and qur'anic) I cannot express how much I love the sound of them. I had to think very hard about it but in the end decided not to bring their sounds into this language. I plan to study the real things instead. The same goes for Russian. Quenya, and to some extent Sindarin, is the very reason as to why I became a conlanger. I cannot express my gratitude towards the late professor Tolkien for that. Still, Quenya has to be one of the most famous of fictional invented languages, which is why I did not need my language to emulate it. I have studied the real things instead, along with some extended derivative versions, and then decided to make my language something else. That leaves Lojban. I do not think anybody wants their language to sound like Lojban and the reason I address it is because, as I have mentioned, *Techpfo* leans toward dependency grammar, just as Lojban is based very firmly on predicate grammar. But that is also where the similarities end.

So what did I want the language to sound like? I did have a check list. Firstly, I wanted it to sound interesting to Swedish, English and Spanish speakers, and secondly to have many voiceless stops (I really love them for some reason). Moreover I wanted to make something more interesting with the vowel system than having just /a, e i, u o/. These criteria together with the things mentioned above gave me some very nice limitations/frames to work with.

Syntactically I wanted something elegant (that is consistent) and I settled for head-last (left-branching), and then made it obnoxiously inflexibly so. After all, this is not a human language (not really) and it is not an everything-is-possible logical language either. As for the look of the words in isolation I wanted high flexibility, thus settling for a very English like any-word-can-look-like-anything mentality, but at the same breaking that flexibility on a clause context level by having each phrase (or whatever) obligatorily marked for case (or something case-like at least).

Finally I have strived to make *Techpfo* unique, but still 'normal' enough for someone other than myself to learn and to speak. Which also explains the rather high degree of regularness in the

¹for Quenya and Sindarin, see Ardalambion at <http://folk.uib.no/hnohf/>

²for Lojban, see Lojban, at <http://www.lojban.org/tiki/Lojban>

³for Okuna, see Okuna, at <http://pearson.conlang.org/>

language. I like Ancient Greek, Classic Latin, Georgian, Euskera, Xosa, and Cantonese, but once again, they already exist, and it is not like conlanging is a freakathon where I have anything to prove regarding insanely complex inflectional or phonetical systems. I might do that for fun though, but not this time.

So, did I succeed in achieving what I set out to achieve? In a way I might just leave that to you, the reader to decide, but then again it would drive me crazy if anybody did that to me, so yes, I do think I achieved what I set out to do. Now, I leave it to you to form your own opinion on the matter.

Also, as a constructed language *Techpfo* is, at least formally, entirely regular. As a comparison, Turkish is often referred to as the most regular natural language in the world, and even in Turkish the copula is irregular in some forms. The same can be said for *Techpfo*, with the added twist that it has no copula and thus, as a result, is entirely regular.

1.3 related fiction

Now, at the beginning of the 2010s *Techpfo* has grown a new pair of wings and acquired both what I have all intentions of making its final form, and, a unique fictional setting in my invented world of *Qehar*, a planet with only 40-45% oceans and the remaining part covered mostly by one extensive continent of vast tundras, plateaus, mountain ranges and plains. In this setting the language is spoken by a race of wandering humanoids who will be further described under the fictional background part of this text.

Information about this world and its inhabitants is presented through narratives set in *Qehar*, both illustrated stories and text-only short stories, as well as though *Qehar*-related artwork. All of this is posted on my blog (filiprojasart.wordpress.com) as it develops. Currently (Jan, 2013) 27 parts of a planned 44 part illustrated saga is up at this site. Pure information about the language and other *Qehar*-related things is presented on a page on the same site dealing with all information in non-story form. Currently this includes the Field Grammar of *Techpfo* in PDF-format, a concise document of some 100 pages which will continue to develop some bulk through 2013 as it is regularly fleshed out with more example texts. Also, a comprehensive lexicon is currently being compiled and my aspiration is being able to present it online in PDF-format sometime before the end of 2013.

1.4 how to use this language, derivative work

In conclusion, *Techpfo* is an invented language of some complexity and depth, and has reached a form that I intend to be final, since nothing is more irritating than trying to learn an invented language with a maker who keeps changing his mind. (I'm a huge fan Mr. Tolkien but yes I'm talking to you.)

So, if you find the language appealing and/or like the stories I make, please, feel free to use *Techpfo*, learn it, write it, speak it, invent new words and idioms, evolve new calligraphy styles, test the limits of the grammar, in short, do everything speakers and writers of language do. I only ask that if you do, please tell me, and sent me a copy of your work.

I am no fan of prescriptive grammars, which is why I call my PDF-text, in the form of a field-linguistic doctoral thesis, a field grammar, and nothing else. I will regard this, my own, description of *Techpfo* as, just that, a description, one based on fictional field-linguistic work carried out by fictional exo-linguists, and a representation of the best try to understand *Techpfo* to date. In that way it is canonical, but, as we all know, languages tend to exhibit irregularities and local variation,

which is to date not in any way fully covered in the field grammar.

1.5 licence

Any part of my grammar and/or (future) lexicon may be quoted, copied, and distributed freely and non-commercially as long as I am mentioned as the original creator (as opposed to potential future co-developers) and credited accordingly.

No part of these texts may be sold for payment of any sort. The artwork presented on my site belongs to me. Low-rez copies (longest side 1500 pixels) may be distributed non-commercially as long as I am credited as the creator. I humbly ask you not to change my art in any way, but to pour such creativity into making your own *Qehar*-related art (and/or stories), which I would like very much, in which case I only ask to be mentioned as *Qehar's* original creator alongside you as the artist.

I hope these conditions seem fair and reasonable to you, that has been my aim.

1.6 my thanks to the reader

I humbly thank you for your time in reading my texts and viewing my art. If anything, please leave a comment with an attached way of getting back to you ,or, mail to: filip (dot) rosenqvist (at) gmail (dot) com.

1.7 fictional background to this text

Filianska is a language native to the world of *Qehar*. It is spoken by somewhere between 12-14 thousand native speakers across the large continent named Infinite Plains. This study is the fruit of a decade of fieldwork carried out across Infinite Plains by a freelance group of xeno-linguists known as The Smiling, and is the first attempt to compile a more or less comprehensive grammatical description of filianska on a language not native to *Qehar*. The dialect represented in this work is that spoken in the north-eastern part of Infinite Plains, and which may be considered to be the main variety. The Smiling published a work in obscurity in Uppsala in 1996 under the rather odd title >> Cold teeth against the wind of Infinite Plains⁴ << which relates their journey around Infinite Plains in some detail, and with a rather longish appendix annexed containing the notes upon which this work is based.

The Smiling conducted the relevant studies during a time of approximately 10 years, somewhere prior to the 1990s, before which they gained access to *Qehar* by some means unknown to me.

Access to *Qehar* is usually granted by a limited number of means, which usually include some kind of portal or vessel. A portal might be a dimensional hole, in which case they are most commonly found in nature (although they appear only seldom, and in unpredictable locations.) A portal can also be induced though the means of a spacetime-folding machine, most commonly found on earth only in the far future. The same machine can also be used to travel to the far future, in the case that one already disposes of one to begin with of course. A vessel will most probably be a spaceship, also mostly found in the far future. A time machine will take you there, but chances are that any normal time machine will also travel through space, thus negating the need for a space ship in the first place.

As for *Qehar* the case is almost certainly different, as it is suspected that portals do not only appear somewhat more regularly (perhaps up to three times a century⁵), but also that they might be induced though certain varieties of high shamanism, even though these are weak suspicions at best, and might boil down to being nothing more than rumors founded on specicism.

In any case, The Smiling traveled to *Qehar* some way or another during the late 19th century to conduct their studies, and then subsequently published their above-mentioned work which I came across during a stay in Uppsala in 2010. I was fascinated and started working on sorting and organizing the information found in the appendix, which eventually became the work in your hand.

1.8 language name

Filianska is the name most often employed by earth linguists to refer to this language, and is a term borrowed from the swedish linguistic community, probably derived from the name of swedish adventurer Filip Rosenstierna, in spite of the language repeatedly being referred to as *Techpfo* in Rosenstierna's own publication >> Plainly on the Plains⁶, 1955 << which is in many ways a rather vulgar compilation of texts, but nevertheless the oldest travelogue of *Qehar* by far, which makes it important enough to mention, if not necessarily good literature.

In this work I will, for historical reasons, use the term filianska to refer to the language, and filian as its related adjective and noun.

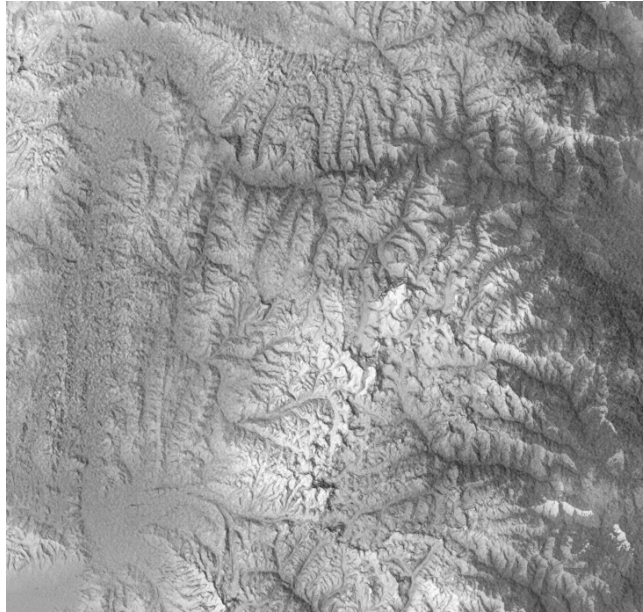
⁴>> Cold teeth against the wind of Infinite Plains << by The Smiling, Uppsala, 1986

⁵The *Qehar* year is similar in length to the earth year, but the world's surface area is greater, evening out the odds of finding portals to being rabidly insanely hard there as well.

⁶>> Plainly on the Plains<< , by Filip Rosenstierna & Ernst Schröder, Lund, 1955

1.9 the general setting

The Filian natives wander across the eastern parts of Infinite Plains.



1.9.1 when and by whom the language is spoken

Filianska is used for every-day conversation by 12-14 thousand inhabitants of Infinite Plains.

1.10 notes on the filians

The Filians are upright-walking humanoids of unknown life spans, native to the planet *Qehar*. They reportedly measure between 150 to 230 cm in height, with greyish skin, have 4-5 fingers on each hand, 4-5 toes on each foot, and dispose of at least three sexes (female, male, neuter/sexless?), though the nature of these sexes is largely a mystery. The Filians signal tribal affiliation through painted burnt-clay face masks and antlered head decorations. According to reports they possess a stamina for walking and running that far surpasses that of an Earth human. Filians do not ride.

1.10.1 language overview

Filianska is perhaps best analyzed as an analytic language, with left-branching tendencies. It often has the relative order of Time-Manner-Place, even if Time often stands apart from Manner and Place as it does not occupy the same basic clause slot. With this I mean that Time much more often occurs at the beginning, or towards the beginning, of clauses, whereas Manner and Place tend to come later, maybe even following the nucleus verb. We can analyze filianska as an Experiencer / Agent-Patient-Verb language with tendencies of constituent dropping and of leaning heavily on deixis and contextual referencing. If it had been that the x1 constituent marked as agent had been the only x1 to occur with transitive verbs and patients, then there would have been a clear three-way distinction such as it would have made it effectively possible to label the language as tripartite.

As it turns out, this is not quite the case, as not only agents, but also experiencers can occur in x1 position of transitive verbs. The choice between the two appears to depend on lexical issues as well as on the level of volition the speaker decides that the denotata of the x1 is exerting/capable of in the relevant situation.

Syntactically clause level is distinguished from word level, but no phrase level is acknowledged. Words are divided into five word classes: action verb, stative verbs, property verbs (nouns/adjectives), short-verbs (pronouns) and post-positions (and other flowing words). The word class corresponding to nouns and adjectives do not mark for number, gender or definitiveness, but third person pronouns mark for four genders: neuter, feminine, masculine and sexless (?). The classes analogous to verbs though mark for both tense, aspect and mood. Syllables tend to have an CVC-structure even if simpler forms are also allowed. There are 12 vowel phonemes of which four are diphthongs, and 22 consonant phonemes, of which 9 are plosives and 3 affricates. The prosody has been reported to be flat, whatever is meant by that.

1.10.2 notes to the reader

Filianska is a language of humanoids but not of humans, a distinction which is pertinent to bear in mind while reading this text. It may thus seem odd in its regularity and alien in the scarcity of its word classification system. One should not be fooled though, into thinking filianska a simplistic language of inferior beings by judging from appearances. Likewise, the filians present cultural, being in a state of low technological development, should not fool anyone into premature conclusions regarding their general intelligence. It should be noted that filianska exhibits a high degree of unpredictability in the outcome of combinations of its tense, aspect and mood markings as well as on a semantic level in the meanings of its compounds. I should also hasten to point out to the diligent reader that the examples presented in this work represent a humorous cross-section of Filianska and should not be taken as clues as to how this language is necessarily spoken in all areas of *Qehar* life, no more than the pervasive omission of contractions in the translations are indicative of actual spoken english. It is also true that filianska is quite rigidly case and tense marking. Nevertheless no rule exists that cannot be broken, confused, or both, and this very much is the case for filianska, as it is for any other, human, language.

2 | how this text is written

2.1 body text

A letter is written in upper or lower case between < > (chevrons) e.g. the letter <A> or <a>

A letter in *Tiniqtoha* will be written as it is, as they are quite distinct from the latin ones, and confusion should be minimal. Punctuation in TTH may be written chevrons because of their comparatively smaller size.

A phoneme is written in IPA between / / (slashes) e.g. the phoneme /a/ An allophone and other sounds that are not phonemes are written in IPA between [] (square brackets) e.g. the allophone [ɔ]

A target language word is written between typewriter single quotes e.g. 'word'

A source language word is written in italics e.g. *qehar*

An interlinear gloss is written separated from the body text by at least one empty row

A comment is written between () (parentheses)

A quotation is written between " " (typewriter double quotes)

An * (asterisk) indicates that a phrase is ungrammatical or that a word is unattested

An → or > (arrow) indicates a transition from left to right (and reversely with reversed arrow ← or <)

A published title is written between >> << (inward-facing double chevrons)

Also, names, places, languages, etc. that are traditionally capitalized might not be so in this text as the author finds the practice stupid ¹

¹This may be considered an eccentric quirk of personality, and an insult to no-one

2.2 interlinear glossing

- A (hyphen) separates morphemes

. A (period) separates multiple meta-linguistic elements which are represented by one source language element

= An (equal sign) marks a clitic boundary

< > A pair of (chevrons) indicate an infix

~ ~ A pair of (tildes) indicate reduplication

* An (asterisk) indicates that a phrase is ungrammatical or that a word is unattested

An → or > (arrow) indicates a transition from left to right (and reversely with reversed arrow ← or <)

' ' A pair of typewriter single quotes indicate a translation

2.3 tables

Tables do not necessarily conform to capitalization and punctuation paradigms expected of a body text.

2.4 abbreviations

2.4.1 general abbreviations

IPA	International Phonetic Alphabet
MPI	Max Planck Institute
SRT	Standard Romanized Transcription
TTH	Tiniqtoha
ENG	English
FIL	Filianska
PF	Proto-Filianska
IE	Indo-European
WRN	Wrahn
FENG	Feng Ji
KAI	Kaimanem
SWE	Swedish

2.4.2 grammatical abbreviations

The following list of abbreviations is based on the list found at The Max Planck Institute's website, <http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>.

Not all of the listed terms apply to filianska. Some of them are pure filian grammar terms. Only some are used in this text, normally in uppercase letters.

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
a	agent-like argument of canonical transitive verb
ABL	ablative
ABS	absolutive
ACC	accusative
ADJ	adjective
ADV	adverb(ial)

AGR	agreement
ALL	allative
ANAP	anaphoric
ANTIP	antipassive
APP	apposition
APPL	applicative
ART	article
AUX	auxiliary
BEG	beginning
BEN	benefactive
CAUS	causative
CESS	cessative
CLF	classifier
COM	comitative
COMP	complementizer
COMPL	completive
COND	conditional
COP	copula
CVB	converb
DAT	dative
DECL	declarative
DEF	definite
DEM	demonstrative
DET	determiner
DIST	distal
DISTR	distributive
DU	dual
DUR	durative
END	end
ERG	ergative
EXCL	exclusive
EXC	exclamatory
E	experiencer
F	feminine
FOC	focus
FREQ	frequentative

FUT	future
GEN	genitive
IMP	imperative
INCEP	inceptive
INCH	inchoative
INCL	inclusive
IND	indicative
INDF	indefinite
INF	infinitive
INS	instrumental
INTR	intransitive
IPFV	imperfective
IRR	irrealis
LOC	locative
M	masculine
MN	manner
N	neuter
N-	non- (e.g. NSG nonsingular, NPST nonpast)
NEG	NEG negation, negative
NMLZ	nominalizer/nominalization
NOM	nominative
OBJ	object
OBL	oblique
P	patient-like argument of canonical transitive verb
PART	partitive
PRS	person
PASS	passive
PFV	perfective
PL	plural
POSS	possessive
PP	postposition or other flowing word
PRED	predicative
PRF	perfect
PROG	progressive
PROH	prohibitive
PROX	proximal/proximate

PRS	present
PST	past
PTCP	participle
PURP	purposive
Q	question particle/marker
QUOT	quotative
RSN	reason
RECP	reciprocal
REFL	reflexive
REL	relative
RES	resultative
S	single argument of canonical intransitive verb
SBJ	subject
SBJV	subjunctive
SG	singular
SL	sexless
TERM	terminative
TM	time
TOP	topic
TR	transitive
VOC	vocative
W	with
WO	without

2.5 transcription

The transcription system (SRT, Standard Romanized Transcription) used for filianska in this work (always occurring in italics, e.g. *qiq* has a one-to-one-or-two phoneme-to-letter correspondence, designed to make it easy to type on a standard english keyboard. This transcription system is quite sufficient for the aims and purposes of this work, but I should add that in the case of any serious student of filianska, I strongly recommend in-depth studies of its native scrip, the *tiniqtoha* (TTH), up to at least the point where the student is able to consult source texts in their original without having to resort to the cumbersome process of transcribing them letter for letter before gaining an overview of the broader content of the text in question. This should much facilitate the process of selecting which text to work with, by enabling the student to with just some quick browsing decide on categorization, and, the urgency for translation of the text at hand.

All filian phonemes are represented in the list below in IPA, SRT and TTH. Note that the native TTH will not be used further in this text, except in chapter 8 orthography. The following list should nonetheless prove invaluable to the serious student as a stepping stone to learning the *Tiniqtoha*.

list 2.1 (phonemes and transcription).

IPA	SRT	TTH
m	<i>m</i>	Ω
n	<i>n</i>	Ϝ
ŋ	<i>ng</i>	Ω
p	<i>p</i>	⌈
p ^h	<i>ph or b</i>	⌋
t	<i>t</i>	ƒ
t ^h	<i>th or d</i>	Ⓛ
c	<i>c</i>	ε
k	<i>k</i>	ϕ
k ^h	<i>kh or g</i>	ϑ
q	<i>q</i>	Ϙ
ʔ	<i>x</i>	ϙ
ϕ	<i>f</i>	ʔ
β	<i>v</i>	⌋
s	<i>s</i>	Ϙ
z	<i>z</i>	Λ
h	<i>h</i>	7
pϕ	<i>pf</i>	Ⓛ
ts	<i>ts</i>	Ⓛ
tʃ	<i>ch</i>	ε
r	<i>r</i>	Ⓛ
l	<i>l</i>	Ⓛ
i	<i>i</i>	°

ε	<i>e</i>	—
\ddot{o}	<i>ö</i>	o
a	<i>a</i>	ˆ
^j a	<i>ya</i>	ˆ
o	<i>o</i>	Q
^j o	<i>yo</i>	Q
æ	<i>é</i>	=
æ ^j	<i>éj</i>	=
u	<i>ó</i>	∞
u ^j	<i>ój</i>	∞
ɑ	<i>á</i>	ʌ

3 | phonology

3.1 phonemes

The phoneme inventory is best illustrated by this table:

table 3.1 (Inventory of all consonant and vowel phonemes (in IPA)).

	labial	coronal			dorsal			laryngeal
	bilabial	dental	alveolar	post-alv.	palatal	velar	uvular	glottal
nasal	m	n				ŋ		
plosive	p ^h , p	t ^h , t			c	k ^h , k	q	ʔ
fricative	ɸ, β	s, z						h
affricate	pɸ	ts		tʃ				
tap, flap			r					
lat. approx.		l						

	vowels		
	front	mid	back
high	i		u, u ^j [u:, u: ^j]
mid	e, ø æ, æ ^j [æ:, æ: ^j]		o, ^j o
low	a, ^j a		ɑ [ɑ:]

(The phonemes are also listed under chapter 8 orthography.)

Realization of the affricates. (My version of) the IPA lacks single letters for transcribing (these) affricates, and so does the SRT. It is therefore important to note that the phonemes / p̪ɸ, ts, tʃ/ [p̪ɸ, t̪s, t̪ʃ] <pf, ts, ch> (see following table for SRT transcription convention,) are single speech sounds, unseparable, and produced swiftly without pausation between the constituent sounds.

<i>pfat</i>	[p̪ɸat]	'near'
<i>pfipfi</i>	[p̪ɸi.p̪ɸi]	'cheak'
<i>tsya</i>	[t̪s̪a]	'neuter'
<i>tsaq</i>	[t̪saq]	'voice'
<i>chéngi</i>	[t̪ʃæ:.ŋi]	'white'
<i>chyo</i>	[t̪ʃo]	'family'

The palatal glides. The palatal glide [j] distinguishes the phonemes /^ja, ^jo, æ^j, u^j/ from the phonemes /a, o, æ, u/, but are not in themselves considered phonemes. Rather, the entirety of the palatalized vowels set them apart from their non-palatalized counterparts. This reflects reality in that [j] can only exist in certain locked positions (before /a, o/ and after /æ, u/ respectively), and is not productive in producing new diphthongs. There is also a historical reason for this view, which is discussed in 10, historical linguistics.

<i>khya</i>	[k ^h j̪a]	'young'
<i>la'ya</i>	[laʔ.j̪a]	'daughter'
<i>yope</i>	[j̪o.pe]	'cloud'
<i>tsyopho</i>	[t̪s̪j̪o.p ^h o]	'autumn'
<i>naéjq</i>	[naæ ^j q]	'gold'
<i>méj</i>	[mæ ^j]	'beautiful'
<i>lójq</i>	[lu ^j q]	'mother'
<i>cöryo</i>	[cø ^j o]	'morning'

Realization of /β/. The phoneme /β/ tends to realize labio-velarizedly as a bilabial [β^w].

<i>va'án</i>	[β ^w a.ʔa:n]	'fly'
<i>takivo</i>	[ta.ki.β ^w o]	'because of the snow'

Realization of /ϕ/. The phoneme /ϕ/ tends to realize labio-velarizedly as a bilabial [ϕ^w].

<i>fójhi</i>	[ϕ ^w u ^j .hi]	'steam'
<i>fi'o</i>	[ϕ ^w i.ho]	'detail'

Realization of /z/. The phoneme /z/ tends to realize with slight affricatization as [d̪z].

<i>éjzel</i>	[æ ^j .d̪zel]	'steam'
<i>zötsi</i>	[d̪zø.t̪si]	'detail'

Words ending in nasals There seems to be a trend among some speakers which discourages words ending in a consonant. Rather than deleting word-final consonants, though, schwa-sounds are added to the end of the word, which sometimes take on the quality of the vowel preceding it according to the same vowel paradigm that governs the infix vowels and which is described in list 4.1 and repeated below.

a > *a*
e > *e*
i > *i*
ö > *ö*
o > *o*
á > *a*
é > *e*
éj > *e*
ój > *o*
ó > *o*
ya > *a*
yo > *o*

This is illustrated below. Thus.

lól [lu:.lə] 'sleep'
pfat [pɸa.tə] 'be near'
án [a:.nə] 'lead'
tech [te.tʃə] 'say / speak'

table 3.2 (Inventory of all consonant and vowel phonemes (in SRT)).

	labial	coronal			dorsal			laryngeal
	bilabial	dental	alveolar	post-alv.	palatal	velar	uvular	glottal
nasal	m	n				ng		
plosive	ph, p	th, t			c	kh, k	q	'
fricative	f, v	s, z						h
affricate	pf	ts		ch				
tap, flap			r					
lat. approx.		l						

	vowels		
	front	mid	back
high	i		ó, ój
mid	e, ö é, éj		o, yo
low	a, ya		á

Transcriptions of long vowels, and diphthongs. The majority of the long vowels descend from a much larger inventory of long vowels in Proto-Filianska (PF). Beside these, some of the long vowels are products of historic compensatory lengthening of a short vowel, which took place where a short vowel lost its following consonant in a word-final syllable coda. These processes are described in more detail in 10, historical linguistics. Whichever the background, the modern long vowels differ from the short ones in quality as well as in length. Nevertheless, the historic connection between the two vowel types that are hinted at by the orthography is in many ways really there, in that in some ways an <á> is a long <a>, an <é> a long <e> and an <ó> a long <o> even if this is also a simplification. It does help explain the orthography though.

As for the diphthongs, the letters <y> and <j> have both been chosen to represent the sound [j]. This has been done for purely pragmatic reasons, to allow the reader to always be able to tell whether a glide belongs to the preceding or to the following vowel.

Addressing some transcription ambiguity. Where a coda /p, t, k/ precedes an onset /h/ ambiguity can ensue. This is one of the few cases where the SRT falls short of its goal to faithfully represent all filian phonemes uniquely. In the cases below one cannot tell from the transcription if the syllable boundary falls so that it breaks the /ph, th, kh/ combinations or not. The IPA transcription shows the boundaries.

<i>tsyopho</i>	[ts ^h o.p ^h o]	'autumn'
<i>hóthi</i>	[hu:t ^h i]	'detail'
<i>khokhon</i>	[k ^h o.k ^h on]	'hips'

3.1.1 allophones

3.1.1.1 free allophones

Varying realization of the plosives. The phonemes /p, t, k/ are sometimes realized as [b, d, g] by some speakers. Most oftenly (always?) in word-initial position.

<i>pizi</i>	[bi.zi]	'sky'
<i>taki</i>	[da.ki]	'snow'
<i>kax</i>	[gaʔ]	'rain'

Varying realization of the the alveolar tap. The phoneme /r/ is usually realized as a tap [ɾ]. However, between vowels and word-finally is often realized as a trill [r].

<i>rói</i>	[ru:.i]	'copper'
<i>mör'ík</i>	[møɾ.ʔik:]	'die'
<i>mörá</i>	[mø.rɑ:]	'is dying'
<i>phir</i>	[pʰir]	'knife'

Varying realizations of word-final non-palatalized long vowels. The Smiling report instances of nasalization of word-final long non-palatalized long vowels. We are not given much information about the subject, but it would appear to be a recent development, possibly an emerging speech feature among a group of the eastern nomadic tribes of Infinite Plains.

<i>qá́lá</i>	[qa:.lá:]	'does / do'
<i>eé</i>	[e.ɛ:]	'eye / s'
<i>leqó</i>	[le.qū:]	'mother'

3.1.1.2 complementary allophones

Devoicing of consonant clusters. Filiaska has a tendency to devoice voiced consonants preceding or following unvoiced consonants. This phenomenon is wide-spread and pervasive.

<i>sántse</i>	[sa:ŋ.tse]	'give birth'
<i>zimkih</i>	[d̥ziŋ.kih]	'tower'

Word-final plosives. In word-final position the phonemes /p, t, k/ and /pʰ, tʰ, kʰ/ are all realized as [p, t, k]. However, if one of the word-final de-aspirated phonemes /pʰ, tʰ, kʰ/ cease to be word-final, e.g. by becoming part of a compound or by receiving a grammatical ending, the aspiration will re-appear.

In some cases though, the de-aspiration of a historic aspirated sound has become lexicalized and the distinction lost. In such cases it is impossible to tell from the word alone what phoneme it used to be. The phoneme is then treated as an un-aspirated phoneme and appears in word lists as such.

<i>rok</i>	[rok]	'bear'
------------	-------	--------

ngar [ŋar] 'claw'
rokngar [rok^h.ŋar] 'bear claw'

3.2 phonotactics

3.2.1 syllable

The only obligatory part of a filian syllable is the nucleus, which can be both a short or a long vowel. This kind of syllable occurs, but is in no way as common as the onset-and-nucleus syllable, which is in turn less common than syllables with both onset and coda. These three are the permissible syllable types, which can be illustrated as follows:

table 3.3 (Permissible syllable structures).

C	CV	CVC
---	----	-----

The below table shows which phonemes are permissible where:

table 3.4 (Permissible phoneme distribution in syllable).

onset		nucleus		coda	
all C		all V		some C	
m	m	e	a	m	m
n	n	e	e	n	n
ŋ	ng	i	i	ŋ	ng
p ^h	ph	ø	ö	p ^h	ph
p	p	o	o	p	p
t ^h	th			t ^h	th
t	t	a	á	t	t
c	c	æ	é	c	c
k ^h	kh	æ ^j	é ^j	k ^h	kh
k	k	u	ó	k	k
q	q	u ^j	ó ^j	q	q
ʔ	'			ʔ	'
ϕ	f	^j a	ya	-	-
β	v	^j o	yo	-	-
s	s			-	-
z	z			-	-
h	h			h	h
pϕ	pf			pϕ	pf
ts	ts			ts	ts
tʃ	ch			-	-
r	r			r	r
l	l			l	l

3.2.2 consonant clusters

Permissible consonant clusters are those which can be defined as:

table 3.5 (Permissible consonant clusters).

coda-C + onset-C

3.2.2.1 epenthesis for consonant clusters

Epenthesis for illegal consonant clusters. If other clusters than those outlined in table 3.5 would appear, e.g. as a consequence of a loan, it may be broken up (or not) in speech (even though not necessarily in writing) by an intrusive schwa sound [ə] <'>.

(Note that some consonant phonemes, in IPA and SRT transcription, become digraphs. See section 3.1 phonemes)

niqqāl [ni.qə.qɑ:l] or [niq.qɑ:l] 'force to watch'

3.2.3 vowel clusters

Permissible vowel clusters are presented in the following tables.

list 3.1 (Permissible short vowel clusters).

aö
ao
eö
eö
eo
öa
öe
oa
oe
oö

table 3.6 (Other permissible vowel clusters).

long V	+ long V
short V	+ long V
long V	+ short V

This is a very general descripton. Some speakers would break up all clusters with a long vowel in speech with an intrusive [ʔ] <'>.

poápo [po.ʔɑ:po] 'shark'
naéjq [na.ʔæʔq] 'gold'

róí [ru:ʔi] 'copper'

3.2.3.1 epenthesis for vowel clusters

Epenthesis for illegal (short + short) vowel clusters. If any other vowel clusters would appear, it will be broken up in speech (and writing) by an intrusive [ʔ] <X>.

(Note that some vowel phonemes, in IPA and SRT transcription, become digraphs. See 3.1 phonemes)

ne [ne] 'ink'
apf [ap̆̆] 'pen'
ne'apf [ne.ʔap̆̆] 'ink pen'

3.3 prosody (stress)

3.3.1 word level

Typically all syllables in a word receive equal amounts of stress. That is, stress is not a phonemic feature but rather something that can be used to highlight certain properties of word, e.g. by stressing the tense-bearing morphemes of a verb.

In such cases the nucleus (vowel) of the stressed syllable is:

lengthened just a bit
 produced with a slight increase in volume

3.3.2 sentence level

Filianska is a prosodically flat language. To an english speaker (not to mention a swede or a chinese) it might sound as if the filian speaker is reciting poetry, or reading aloud from a solemn text, when s/he/it is in fact just making casual conversation.

In practice verbs often come last in a clause, with some relatively frequent exceptions being beneficiaries in ditransitive verb clauses and manner adverbials.

In theory, a patient may also follow the verb, but usually only does so when the patient itself is a subordinate clause containing its own verb. This means that the topic and its comment of a clause might not be obvious from syntax even though it ought to be easy enough to pick out from context. Both topic and comment may then receive some extra stress as described in the table above.

4 | word classes

Filianska distinguishes three main word classes: active verb, stative verb, and property verb. We may also call them transitive verb, intransitive verb, and noun/ adjective.

table 4.1 (The three main word classes).

active verbs	i.e.	transitive verb
stative verbs	i.e.	intransitive/transitive verb
property verbs	i.e.	noun/adjective

It also distinguishes two secondary word classes: short-verbs, and flowing words. We may call them pronouns and function words. The latter class includes all the words that do not fall into any other class, and is in that manner a catch-all term, not unlike the adverbials of more traditional grammars.

table 4.2 (The two secondary word classes).

short-verbs	i.e.	pronouns
flowing words	i.e.	postpositions and other function words

Each of these will be detailed below.

This is the traditional filian way to classify the three main word classes.

table 4.3 (The three main word classes according to the filians).

filian terminology	english terminology	x1 is	mark for mood
active verbs	transitive verb	agent	yes
stative verbs	intransitive verb	experiencer	yes
property verbs	noun/adjective	experiencer	no

The first two of the three main word classes may then be further divided into five subcategories, or verb types, as detailed below.

table 4.4 (The verb classes and valency).

verb class:	nr. of constituents:	x1,2,3 marked as:
active verbs		
(1 a)	2	agent, patient
(1 b)	3	agent, patient, other
stative verbs		
(2 a)	0	-
(2 b)	1	experiencer
(2 c)	2	experiencer, patient
property verbs		
(3)	1	experiencer

See also subsection [6.2.1](#) morphosyntactic alignment.

Henceforth, I will use a combination of both terminologies, as clarity demands.

See also subsection [6.2.3.1](#) valency expansion and reduction.

Word class recognition. None of the five word classes can be distinguished by surface appearance alone (when un-marked), as will become obvious by the definitions listed for each class under its related section.

Function as nucleus. Also, all word classes have the innate ability to act as nucleus of clauses, which will most oftenly be considered their main function (,which is a syntactical function.) Other functions will be listed under the relevant sections.

Openness. The three main word classes are open classes, as opposed to the two secondary which are almost entirely closed over short time spans and are susceptible to additions and changes only over longer spans of time.

4.1 verbs (active verbs, and stative verbs of state)

The heron leaves its resting spot and sets down on another one without walking the distance between them, but disturbing the dust as it does so. It is with verbs as it is with the heron.

-Wild, the bent
On Rivers

Syntactic theory. The filian grammarians favor the "syntactic theory of flowing relations"¹, with which they mean something akin to dependency grammar (and which you can read about in chapter 6 syntax). In the light of that tradition we should not be surprised to learn that the verb is the most appreciated word class in the filian language. It is in no way required in every clause to fulfill some vague notion of correctness or fullness, it is just the most beloved class and considered the most beautiful, not to mention, the least boring.²

Uses of the verb. The main role of the verb is to act as clause nucleus, in which case it needs to take at least one ending, see below. Besides this verbs can act as qualifiers.

Verb as qualifier. Filian non-lexical compounds are structurally simple, and semantically somewhat more complex structures. Structurally a compound consists of two consecutive stems. When a compound acts as clause nucleus only the last stem is marked, which is also the stem that carries the main meaning semantically, the preceding stem acting as qualifier. See 3, dependency structures, and 6.2, compounds.

Defining the verb. As semantic definitions of any traditional word class (on earth) tend to be fuzzy at best this text will ignore any attempt to do so and instead head straight for the syntactic definitions. Thus, a verb can be described as any word belonging to any of the the filian classes active verbs, stative verbs. These definitions depend on, in their turn, the ability to mark for mood through infixation, something the property verbs, i.e. nouns and adjectives, cannot.

Tense, aspect, and mood markings. Verbs in filianska can be marked for: intensity, tense, aspect, and mood. For a verb to function as the nucleus of a clause at least one tense marking is mandatory, and that marking is always a tense-and-aspect ending. For a chart of these markings, see below under verb paradigm.

What verbs can look like.

<i>lól</i>	'sleep'	<i>tsa</i>	'be at'
<i>soa'</i>	'be awake'	<i>qó</i>	'stand'
<i>sán</i>	'live'	<i>pfot</i>	'burn'

¹p. 75, >>Cold teeth against the wind of Infinite Plains<<, by The Smiling, Uppsala, 1986

²p. 78, >>Cold teeth against the wind of Infinite Plains<<, by The Smiling, Uppsala, 1986

4.1.1 verb paradigm, and verb template

The difference between transitive and intransitive verbs is both semantical and syntactical. The best way to distinguish them is to learn the grammatical role of the verbs first constituent (see 2, word classes, and, 4, syntax.) For transitive verbs it marks for agent, and for intransitive, experiencer. Both verb types share the same template and the same markings for tense, aspect and mood.

The filian full verb template is as follows:

table 4.5 (Full verb template).

intensity-<mood>root / stem-aspect-tense.aspect

4.1.1.1 tenses

Even though filianska is rather highly analytic some of its morphemes are fusional in nature. They are the tense-and-aspect verb endings. These endings are (by tense):

table 4.6 (The tense-and-aspect endings).

	tense:	aspect:	aspect (abbreviations):
<i>é</i>	past	imperfective	(PST.IPFV)
<i>lö</i>	past	perfective	(PST.PFV)
<i>á</i>	present	imperfective	(PRS.IPFV)
<i>na</i>	present	perfective	(PRS.PFV)
<i>nge</i>	future	imperfective	(FUT.IPFV)
<i>pi</i>	future	perfective	(FUT.PFV)

qó é 'was standing'
qó lö 'stood'
qó á 'is standing'
qó na 'stands'
qó nge 'will be standing'
qó pi 'will stand'

More about aspects below under 4.1.1.2 aspects. For a semantic analysis of tense, see chapter ?? semantics. This is advisable. After all, the morphemes listed in table 4.6 are just endings, conveying a limited amount of semantic information beyond which many further distinction regarding time may be made, by using clause modifiers (adverbials) for instance, some of which may even override the time expressed by the tense endings.

4.1.1.2 aspects

Filian verbs use 2 + 4 aspect endings to express a number of grammatical aspects.

These combine to express an even larger number of grammatical aspects.

The first 2 aspects are expressed through endings that also express tense, i.e. fusional endings.

One of these endings has to be present for a verb to serve as nucleus of a clause.

The aspect-ending table is the same as table 4.6, repeated below.

	tense:	aspect:	aspect (abbreviations):
<i>é</i>	past	imperfective	(PST.IPFV)
<i>lö</i>	past	perfective	(PST.PFV)
<i>á</i>	present	imperfective	(PRS.IPFV)
<i>na</i>	present	perfective	(PRS.PFV)
<i>nge</i>	future	imperfective	(FUT.IPFV)
<i>pi</i>	future	perfective	(FUT.PFV)

Making the imperfective/perfective distinction is paramount. These are the pure core aspects of the filian language. As aspects they convey the distinctions a filian speaker may make in their representation of temporal structure.

By using the perfective an event is described as a single whole, lacking any internal structure. The imperfective means the opposite. By using it the speaker wishes to convey a sense of internal temporal structure, and to give the event referred to a sense of extendedness through time.

The remaining 4 endings are shown below.

table 4.7 (The aspect endings).

	aspect:	aspect (abbreviations):
<i>'ik</i>	(inceptive and/or inchoative)	(INCEP/INCH)
<i>ts(e)</i>	(causative + inceptive or inchoative)	(CAUS, INCEP/INCH)
<i>ól</i>	(terminative)	(TERM)
<i>phor</i>	((causative) + cessative)	((CAUS), CESS)

As seen above these 4 endings cover a broad spectrum of grammatical aspects and can combine with the imperfective/perfective endings to form even more. In interlinear glossing each morpheme will be described as context demands with one or several of the above abbreviations.

(You might also have noted the absence of an ending for general transitivity. If such a morpheme once existed it does so no longer. Often *ts(e)* is used for this purpose. Also, the verb *qál* 'to do' may be used. More on this under chapter ?? semantics.)

As we have seen above the endings *'ik* and *ts(e)* are defined as carrying the meanings of both the inceptive and the inchoative. This distinction is purely semantic and are not formally distinguished in any way in the language. For glossing purposes though I will list the definitions of the two concepts below.

In this text the inceptive and inchoative aspects are defined as follows.

table 4.8 (The inceptive and inchoative).

inceptive	beginning of a new state
inchoative	beginning of a new action

Since these definitions readily apply both to *'ik* and to *ts(e)* it becomes necessary to make another distinction, that between causative, and non-causative. Thus the true difference between *'ik* and *ts(e)* lies in what is addressed below.

table 4.9 (The causative).

causative	purposeful beginning of state/ action, influenced by an agent
non-causative	(natural) beginning of a new state/ action

- (4.1) *Khoho á.* > *Khoho 'ik lö.*
 Warm PRS.IPFV. > Warm INCEP PST.PFV.
 '(It) is warm.' > '(It) warmed up.'
- (4.2) *Khoho á.* > *Khoho tse lö.*
 Warm PRS.IPFV. > Warm CAUS.INCEP PST.PFV.
 '(It) is warm.' > '(I) warmed (it) up.'
- (4.3) *Thoq á.* > *Cöryo nahi thoq 'ik lö.*
 Hunt PRS.PFV. > Morning TM hunt INCH PST.PFV.
 '(I) am hunting.' > '(I) began hunting in the morning.'
- (4.4) *'e thoq á.* > *'e i thoq tse lö.*
 3p.M:E hunt PRS.PFV. > 3p.M P hunt CAUS.INCH PST.PFV.
 'He is hunting.' > '(I) made him hunt.' or 'I made him come along hunting.'

And these are the definitions for the cessative and terminative aspects.

table 4.10 (The cessative and terminative).

cessative	premature cessation of a state/ action, influenced by an agent
terminative	natural and completed termination of a state/ action

In the full tense and aspect combination table 4.11 the ending *phor* will be listed as CAUS, CESS, thereafter, however, only CESS will be used in the glossings. The reason for this is of course that the definition off the cessative as I have made it above already contains notions of an agent.

- (4.5) *Nga tsoqats theong á.* > *Nga theong ól é.*
 3p.F:E very brave PRS.IPFV. > 3p.F:E brave TERM PST.IPFV.
 'She is very brave.' > 'She was losing courage.'
- (4.6) *Nga leqó i tech é.* > *Mek tho lójq ahán lö lo*
 3p.F:E father P talk PST.IPFV. > House LOC mother:E enter PST.PFV COMP
nahi, tech ól lö.
 TM talk CESS PST.PFV.
 'She was talking to her father.' > 'When her mother entered the house, she fell silent.'

The above example is interesting. As I have tried to define the endings and describe their properties above I have listed cessative as [+ agentive] [- completion], contrasting with the terminative [- agentive] [+ completion]. In example 4.6 though, the natural interpretation is not that she promptly stopped talking at her mother's entry but rather that her mother upon entering the house caused her to trail off and fall silent. So here circumstances have overridden the inherent [+ completion] of the terminative.

- (4.7) *Pfot é 'ákó . > Tolnoryope ó 'ákó i pfot phor*
 Burn PST.IPFV. fire:E > Tolnoryope A fire P burn CESS PST.PFV
lö toha fa .
 hands INS .
 'A fire was burning.' > 'Tolnoryope put out the fire with his hands.'

- (4.8) *Tsic mits é. > Qopmo tsic i mits phor lö.*
 Bundle:E open PST.IPFV. > Qopmo:A bundle P open CESS PST.PFV.
 'The bundle was open.' > 'Qopmo closed the bundle.'

These last 4 endings can be combined with the first 2 tense/aspect endings. Thus.

table 4.11 (Full tense and aspect combination table).

		aspect-tense.aspect (abbreviation):
<i>'ik é</i>	was starting	(INCEP/INCH-PST.IPFV)
<i>'ik lö</i>	started to	(INCEP/INCH-PST.PFV)
<i>'ik á</i>	starting to	(INCEP/INCH-PRS.IPFV)
<i>'ik na</i>	starts to	(INCEP/INCH-PRS.PFV)
<i>'ik nge</i>	will be starting to	(INCEP/INCH-FUT.IPFV)
<i>'ik pi</i>	will start to	(INCEP/INCH-FUT.PFV)
<i>ts é</i>	was causing X to start to	(CAUS.INCEP/INCH-PST.IPFV)
<i>ts(e) lö</i>	caused X to start to	(CAUS.INCEP/INCH-PST.PFV)
<i>ts á</i>	is causing X to start to	(CAUS.INCEP/INCH-PRS.IPFV)
<i>ts(e) na</i>	causes X to start to	(CAUS.INCEP/INCH-PRS.PFV)
<i>ts(e) nge</i>	will be causing X to start to	(CAUS.INCEP/INCH-FUT.IPFV)
<i>ts(e) pi</i>	will cause X to start to	(CAUS.INCEP/INCH-FUT.PFV)
<i>ól é</i>	*was stopping doing	(TERM-PST.IPFV)
<i>ól lö</i>	stopped doing	(TERM-PST.PFV)
<i>ól á</i>	*is stopping doing	(TERM-PRS.IPFV)
<i>ól na</i>	stops doing	(TERM-PRS.PFV)
<i>ól nge</i>	*will be stopping doing	(TERM-FUT.IPFV)
<i>ól pi</i>	will stop doing	(TERM-FUT.PFV)
<i>phor é</i>	was causing X to stop doing	(CAUS.CESS-PST.IPFV)
<i>phor lö</i>	caused X to stop doing	(CAUS.CESS-PST.PFV)
<i>phor á</i>	is causing X to stop doing	(CAUS.CESS-PRS.IPFV)
<i>phor na</i>	causes X to stop doing	(CAUS.CESS-PRS.PFV)
<i>phor nge</i>	will be causing X to stop doing	(CAUS.CESS-FUT.IPFV)
<i>phor pi</i>	will cause X to stop doing	(CAUS.CESS-FUT.PFV)

The above list seeks to capture the general nature of the filian verb endings and the tenses and/or aspects they represent, on their own or in combination. Nevertheless it offers only a crude expla-

nation of the semantics of these endings. For a more elaborate analysis, see chapter ?? semantics.)

A note on the phonotactics of *ts(e)*. Filianska has fairly simple phonotactics and allophony (see subsection 3.1.1 allophones). This makes suffixation so much easier and most often the ending simply attaches itself on the relevant verb stem. The only allomorphic ending of those that have been covered in this subsection (the 2 + 4) is *ts(e)*, for which the following is true.

1. Preceding *é, á, ts(e)* takes the form *ts*.
2. Word-finally, *ts(e)* takes the form *ts* when following a vowel and the form *tse* when following a consonant.
3. preceding *lō, na, pi* or *nge*, *ts(e)* takes the form *ts* when following a vowel and the form *tse* when following a consonant.

Thus.

table 4.12 (Phonotactics of *ts(e)*).

<i>sanga</i>	+ <i>ts(e)</i> + <i>é</i>	>	<i>sanga ts é</i>
be.sitting.down			sit.down CAUS PST.IPFV
<i>sanga</i>	+ <i>ts(e)</i>	>	<i>sanga ts</i>
be.sitting.down			sit.down CAUS
<i>sanga</i>	+ <i>ts(e)</i> + <i>nge</i>	>	<i>sanga ts nge</i>
be.sitting.down			sit.down CAUS FUT.IPFV

<i>lól</i>	+ <i>ts(e)</i> + <i>é</i>	>	<i>lól ts é</i>
be.sleeping			sleep CAUS PST.IPFV
<i>lól</i>	+ <i>ts(e)</i>	>	<i>lól tse</i>
be.sleeping			sleep-CAUS
<i>lól</i>	+ <i>ts(e)</i> + <i>nge</i>	>	<i>lól tse nge</i>
be.sleeping			sleep-CAUS-FUT.IPFV

4.1.1.3 telicity

There is one further distinction to be made between the 2 and the 4. The 2, i.e. the imperfective/perfective endings *é, én, á, an, nge*, and *pi* carry, as mentioned (4.1.1.2), besides tense, pure aspect. This is to be contrasted with the 4, *'ik, ts(e), ól*, and *phor*, which do not. Where the 2 are all about how to represent a situations in the real world, the 4 change the core meaning of the verb. It does so by creating a new concept involving transition (either beginning or ending), which is by

nature a passing event with a natural end point, beyond which it cannot continue. In this text I will refer to this phenomenon as telicity³. The conceptualization of a situation may be either telic or atelic, depending on the verb and clause qualifiers (adverbials) involved in describing it. Thus, a verb affixed with one of the 4 will always be telic in its core meaning, whether or not the speaker chooses to talk about the situation it refers to in the imperfective or perfective, and also, whether or not this innate telicity is overridden by some other clause element. Because of the telic nature of the 4, example 4.4 should be understood as 'I made him hunt' in the sense that 'I made him come along hunting', that is, brought about the initiation of the action, although not the prolonged continuation of it.

4.1.1.4 causative, *ts(e)* and *phor*, animacy, agentivity, and volition.

Of the 4, 2 endings carry the meaning of the causative, namely *ts(e)* and *phor*, as we have seen in table 4.11 above. A verb marked with the causative requires an animate, agentive causer capable of volition. As a contrast, a class 1a verb (see table 4.4 above), ex. *mörtse* 'kill' (derived using *ts(e)* but now lexicalized), in its basic form, only requires the killer to be animate and agentive, whereas *mörtsets* 'cause someone else to kill' requires that the causer be animate, agentive and have volition, but the killer needs only be animate and agentive.

Another class 1a verb marked for causative, *thoqtse* 'cause to hunt', works the same way. With constituent omission and only a single agent referred to within the clause (that is, not counting what is being hunted) the causer and the hunter is understood as being the same entity, with the causative feature applied to the agent itself, creating a causer/causee which has to have both animacy, agentivity, and volition. This verb then will only make sense insofar it is understood to mean 'set out to hunt (purposefully)'. The same is true for *thoqphor* 'break of hunting'.

Constituent promotion and demotion Furthermore, *ts(e)* and *phor* will promote a verb class 2 experiencer to agent. Reversely, the non-causative endings *'ik* and *ól* will demote a class 1 agent to experiencer. They are to be marked accordingly. See table 4.20 thematic relations.

On the other hand, if the class 1a verb retains the original agent while it marks for causative, this agent, now marked as beneficiary, if animate, agentive, and of volition (and depending on context), might be understood as bearing the role of embedded (covert, or recursive) agent, whose own (original) patient will still be marked as patient.

Also, any verb describing an atelic action with the patient marked with the partitive will cease to do so when *ól* affixes to it. When that happens the partitive promotes to patient.

(4.9) *Qopmo ó rok anhi thoq é.*
 Qopmo A bear PART hunt PST.IPFV.
 'Qopmo was hunting for bear.'

(4.10) *Qopmo ó rok anhi thoq tse lö.*
 Qopmo A bear PART hunt CAUS PST.PFV.
 'Qopmo set out to hunt for bear.'

(4.11) *Qopmo ó rok anhi thoq phor lö.*
 Qopmo A bear PART hunt CESS PST.PFV.
 'Qopmo broke of the hunt for bear.'

(4.12) *Qopmo rok i thoq ól ar mörtse lö.*
 Qopmo:E bear P hunt CESS and kill PST.PFV.

³DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN THE ASPECTUAL CATEGORIES '(A)TELIC', '(IM)PERFECTIVE' AND '(NON)BOUNDED', Renaat Declerck, 2007

'Qopmo hunted down the bear and killed it.'

In the above example, when the action finally happens, Qopmo is nevertheless demoted to patient under the influence of *ól*. One might ponder how the hunter actively was hunting, set out, and broke of hunting, only to finally get to experience success.

- (4.13) *Qopmo ó Ne'apf po rok i mörtse tse lö.*
 Qopmo A Ne'apf BEN bear P kill CAUS PST.PFV.
 'Qopmo made Ne'apf kill the bear.'

Reversely from 4.12, a verb of class 2a with valency expansion or one of class 2b, either with an experiencer as main constituent, may promote that experiencer to agent using a causative ending, giving a hint of animacy and volition to an otherwise thus lacking agent.

- (4.14) *Méq pfof é.*
 Tree:E burn PST.IPFV.
 'The tree was burning.'

- (4.15) *Méq ó pfof tse lö.*
 Tree A burn CAUS.INCEP PST.PFV.
 'The tree lit itself on fire.'

4.1.1.5 moods

Filian verbs use 4 separate mood forms to express a large number grammatical moods. These forms are created through morpheme infixation into the verb stem.

Typically (always?) the infix is placed directly following the first consonant of the first root of the verb stem.

The infixes are:

table 4.13 (Infixes).

		mood:	mood (abbreviations):
\emptyset	do	indicative	(IND)
(V)s	want to/intent to/shall do	desiderative	(DESI)
o	(you) do!	imperative	(IMP)
(V)r	(you) may do	permissive	(PERMI)

The null-infix. The indicative null-infix \emptyset might be controversial to some, but it is traditionally considered to be present in all filian indicative verb stems. The main argument for this seems to be considerations of symmetry and elegance, which is in any case one of the most pervasive features not only of filian linguistics, but also of the philosophy and art of infinite plains.

On imperative and volition As we have seen in paragraph 4.1.1.4 causative, the endings *ts(e)* and *phor* typically require an agent capable of volition, i.e. either something animate with higher brain functions or something domesticated or otherwise closely related to such a creature. This is also true for the imperative, which is why the imperative works splendidly together with *ts(e)* and *phor* but somewhat more awkwardly with *'ik* and *ól*.

(4.16) *Toech phor na!*
 <IMP>talk CESS PRS.PFV!
 'Stop talking!'

(4.17) *Te tech ól pi?*
 You talk TERM FUT.PFV?
 'Will you finish talking (soon)?'

Example 4.16 is a pure imperative and suggests that the speaker stop talking before necessarily finishing the conversation and be done with it. Example 4.17 on the other hand is not an explicit imperative. (Neither does it employ the question word *chó* but rather the interrogativeness of the clause is conveyed by context, and in speech, intonation.) Nevertheless it still expresses a covert demand, although a demand allowing for the speaker to wrap up the conversation.

A note on the phonotactics of the infixes. Inserting a consonant directly following another, word-initial, consonant will always break the filian phonotactical rules for onsets (1.2, phonotactics).

The desiderative and permissive infixes (*(V)s* and *(V)r*) handle this by inserting a vowel in front of themselves. This vowel depends on the original first vowel of the word, and follows these rules:

list 4.1 (Vowel paradigm of *(V)s* and *(V)r*, value of *(V)* depending on following *V*).

<i>a</i>	>	<i>a</i>
<i>e</i>	>	<i>e</i>
<i>i</i>	>	<i>i</i>
<i>ö</i>	>	<i>ö</i>
<i>o</i>	>	<i>o</i>
<i>á</i>	>	<i>a</i>
<i>é</i>	>	<i>e</i>
<i>éj</i>	>	<i>e</i>
<i>ój</i>	>	<i>o</i>
<i>ó</i>	>	<i>o</i>
<i>ya</i>	>	<i>a</i>
<i>yo</i>	>	<i>o</i>

This is all simple enough. So for example:

(4.18) *Niq á.* > *Nisiq á.*
 See PRS.IPFV. > <DESI>see PRS.IPFV.
 '(I) see' > '(I) want to see'

As for the imperative infix *o* the normal vowel cluster phonotactics rules apply (1.2, phonotactics.) Illegal vowel clusters are broken up with <X>. Thus:

Producing the illegal vowel cluster /oi/ > [oʔi] <OXI>.

(4.19) *Niq na.* > *No'iq na!*
 See PRS.PFV. > <IMP>see PRS.PFV.
 '(I) am seeing' > '(you) let (me) see!'

We can compare this to the permissible cluster /œ/.

- (4.20) *Tséng na.* > *Tsoéng na!*
 Move PRS:PFV. > <IMP>move PRS:PFV.
 '(I am moving' > '(you) move!'

4.1.1.6 intensity of verbs

Curiously, there is another formal aspect-like feature to the filian verbs, the one called intensity (INTS).

This feature is the verbal analogue to the adjectival intensity, which is used among other things for comparisons (see section 4.3 adjectives.)

Intensity is obtained by stem reduplication and can be understood semantically as carrying the frequentative (FREQ) aspect. Formally though, the stem reduplication adds morpheme/s before the original verb stem, and thus the new morpheme/s do/es not occupy the verb slot allotted to aspects, why it is traditionally held to be of a different kind.

Formally the reduplication process copies entire syllables, onset, nucleus and coda. The number of syllables copied may be as many as two, but never as many as three, with one copied syllable appearing to be the norm.

- (4.21) *Ló miti mör'ik lö.*
 All flower die PST.PFV.
 'All the flowers died.'
- (4.22) *Ló miti mörmör'ik é.*
 All flower INTS:die PST.IPFV.
 '(One by one,) all the flowers died.'

Note how the intensity triggers imperfective aspect in the second example. This is not always the case though.

- (4.23) *Lóqiq techtechól é.*
 Everybody INTS:fall.silent PST.IPFV.
 '(One by one,) everybody was falling silent.'
- (4.24) *Lóqiq techtechól lö.*
 Everybody INTS:fall.silent PST.PFV.
 'Everybody fell silent (though not in unison).'
- (4.25) *Lóqiq techól lö.*
 Everybody fall.silent PST.PFV.
 'Everybody fell silent (as if on command).'

Contrast the three examples above with example 4.6 where the natural feature [+ completed] of *ól* is overridden by our contextual understanding of the filian matriarchal family structure and knowledge of the behavioural dynamics of a daughter living in the shadow of an authoritarian mother.

In examples 4.23, 4.24, and 4.25 though, we might decide (even out of context) that the people talking probably did finish, although perhaps somewhat hurriedly.

4.1.1.7 transitive verbs and reciprocal reduplication

Filian transitive verbs, that is, verbs belonging to classes 1a, 1b and 2c, mark for reciprocity by a stem reduplication process similar but distinct from intensity.

Whereas the intensity reduplication process copies entire syllables, adding them before the original root, the reciprocal reduplication process copies nucleus and coda only, adding its new V(V)C structure syllables after the original one.

- (4.26) Ol z, mörörtse pi!
 Ol z, mör~ör-tse pi!
 Oh no, kill:RECP FUT.PFV.
 'Oh no, (they) are going to kill each other!'

Note that the reduplication affect the root morpheme *mör* of the lexicalized item *mörtse* 'kill' from *mör* 'be dead', thus inserting itself between the root and the adjacent following causative morpheme *ts(e)*.

4.1.2 verb participle / adjectival verb

There is one verb participle, called the perfective participle. The perfective participle is not one of the five big word classes, and does not share the same main purpose as they.

Uses of participle. The main role of the participle is to qualify verbs, nouns, and adjectives. It can also act as the nucleus of a clause.

Participles qualifying verbs/nouns/adjectives, or, non-lexical compounding. Filian non-lexical compounds are structurally simple, and semantically somewhat more complex structures. Structurally a compound consists of two consecutive stems, orthographically connected by a hyphen. When a compound acts as clause nucleus only the last stem is marked, which is also the stem that carries the main meaning semantically, the preceding stem acting as qualifier. (see 6.2, compounds.)

Definition of participle. As opposed to the five big word classes, the participle can indeed be distinguished by its surface appearance, as long as one is familiar with the verb stem from which it derives. Because of this it is fairly easy defining what words are participles, and being directly derived from a verb they appear in this text as a subcategory of verbs, and it is very tempting to leave it at that. At close inspection though the participle appears not to be able to mark for mood though infixation, making it fulfill the formal criteria for nouns and adjectives. Comparative pragmatics, that is to say, classifying it as what its English correspondent (fuzzy as that is,) is, would classify it as a subcategory of adjective. I have not been able to determine any conclusive classification, and perhaps, none exists. Also, participles do not seem to be capable of stem reduplication, complicating an already complicated issue, even more.

4.1.2.1 perfective participle

table 4.14 (The form of the perfective participle).

i-naked verb stem + noun

The above verb form is a form exclusive to the perfective participle which makes it easy to spot

whithout confusion.

(4.27) *imörtse* *pfó*
 i-mörtse *pfó*
 PST.PTCP-kill *tiger*
 'a killed tiger'

(4.28) *imel* *la'ya*
 i-mel *la'ya*
 PST.PTCP-love *daughter*
 'beloved daughter'

(The meaning of the perfective participle in relation to the meaning of the original verb is discussed in 6.1, word derivation.)

4.1.3 verb as mood auxiliary for noun/ adjective

Nouns and adjectives differ from verbs in that they cannot mark for mood (even though intensity, aspect and tense-and-aspect are no problem.) (See 2, word classes.)

The main way of applying a mood to a noun or verb is by linking it to a verb auxiliary. Technically this may be considered a form of non-lexical compounding that leans on pragmatics rather than lexicalization in order to choose the appropriate auxiliary verb.

Below is a list of common auxiliaries:

table 4.15 (List of mood auxiliary verbs).

<i>pfihhi</i>	'experience'
<i>tša</i>	'exist; be at location'
<i>qó</i>	'stand at location'
<i>sanga</i>	'sit down at location'
<i>mönel</i>	'lie down at location'
<i>tséng</i>	'move'
<i>lahya</i>	'make'

Examples with *pfihhi*

(4.29) *Tšitsi éryaq pfisihhi é.*
 Kitten:E lion <DESI>experience PST.IPFV.
 Kitten lion wanted-to-experience.
 'The kitten wanted to be a lion.'

Note the different between the above construction where lion is a verb dependent, and the one below, where "drink nectar" is a verb constituent.

(4.30) *Ko cocí i pala lo i pfisihhi á.*
 1p:E nectar P drink COMP P <DESI>experience PRS.IPFV.
 I nectar to-drink want-to-experience.
 'I want to experience drinking nectar.'

Coci can even be made a qualifier of the complementized verb.

- (4.31) *Ko coci pala lo i p̄fisihi á.*
 1p:E nectar drink COMP P <DESI>experience PST.IPFV.
 I nectar to-drink want-to-experience.
 'I want to experience nectar drinking.'

Because of this difference the following sentence also comes to mean something quite different from the first example.

- (4.32) *Tsitsi éryaq i p̄fisihi é.*
 Kitten:E lion P <DESI>experience PST.IPFV.
 Kitten lion wanted-to-experience.
 'The kitten wanted to experience (meeting) a lion.'

Tsa, qó, sanga, mönel and tséng. There is no general to.be-auxiliary. In order to express wanting to have a quality (such as usually expressed through an adjective in English) one must choose from the five auxiliaries expressing existence.

EXAMPLE tsa

- (4.33) *Nga nga ra lójq po theong qosó é.*
 3p.F:E 3p.F GEN mother BEN brave <DESI>stand PST.IPFV.
 She her mother-for brave wanted-to-stand.
 'She wanted to be brave for her mother.'

- (4.34) *'e oange ngohi tseséng é.*
 3p.M:E wind swift <DESI>move PST.IPFV.
 He wind swift wanted-to-move.
 'He wanted to be as swift as the wind.'

Lahya and causatives.

- (4.35) *Kifa hi chéngi lasahya á.*
 Jar P white <DESI>make:PRS.IPFV.
 Jar white want-to-make.
 '(I) want to make the jar white.'

This might be said if one does not wish to explicitly say, for instance, paint the jar white. Maybe one has not yet decided on exactly how to make the jar white but still wishes to convey the general concept.

Without the desiderative infix though, a general causative construction can be used.

- (4.36) *Péjr ó qehar i chéngi ts á.*
 Winter A world P white CAUS.INCEP PRS.IPFV.
 Winter world white-makes.
 'The winter is turning the world white.'

4.2 nouns (noun-like stative verbs, or, property verbs)

Uses of noun. Nouns do not do much the filians say. Their function, besides acting as nucleus of clause, is to fill verb valency slots (act as constituent). Besides this, they act as qualifiers.

Noun as clause nucleus. When acting as nuclei of clauses, nouns simply adopt the same endings as the verbs take (copycats!), though not the mood infixes (which does not better their over-all score). See subsection 4.1.3 verb as mood auxiliary for noun/adjective. The verb endings have been covered under section 4.1 verbs.

Noun as constituent. See chapter 6 syntax, and 5 words and their dependency structures.

Noun as qualifier, or, non-lexical compounding. Filian non-lexical compounds are structurally simple, and semantically somewhat more complex structures. Structurally a compound consists of two consecutive stems. When a compound acts as clause nucleus only the last stem is marked, which is also the stem that carries the main meaning semantically, the preceding stem acting as qualifier. See 5, dependency structures, and 7.2 compounds.

Definition of noun. As mentioned under section 4.1 verbs, semantic definitions of any traditional word class (on earth) are discouraged in this text in favor of syntactic definitions. Thus, in a way, a noun can be described as any word belonging to the filian class property verbs. This definition depends on, in its turn, the inability to mark for mood through infixation. The drawback (from an English point of view) of this definition is that nouns are defined exactly in the same way as adjectives, going back to the traditional filian grammar's failing to separate nouns and adjectives in any meaningful way. So in this text, in defining nouns as something separate from adjectives, I will rely on comparative pragmatics. This is to say, a word will be classified as a noun when its English correspondent (,fuzzy as that is,) is a noun.

Grammatical marking. Filian nouns lack morphology in that they do not change in any way to express either number, gender, or case, features so common among Indo-European languages. They are marked for grammatical roles (case, in a way,) though. This is achieved by the means of postpositions which attach themselves to the noun. Orthographically these postpositions may be written as a part of the preceding word, or separated from it by a space. See 4.5.1 morphosyntactic markers (cases).

Comparisons. Filian verbs (of all kinds) manage comparisons through intensity marking by stem reduplication. See 4.3.1 intensity of adjectives (comparisons).

4.2.1 nouns that look like verbs

As we know by now, filian word classes do not look in any way at all. The clause nucleus word is required to mark for tense, but the root/stem of that word may look like whatever it wants to, within the phonotactic parameters of course. The same is true for the constituents and clause qualifiers (adverbials). As long as they take the appropriate marking all is well.

Nouns that look like verbs are in a way verbs with a derived noun-like lexical meaning. Just like as a noun serving as clause nucleus acquires the verb-like meaning or *be.noun*, a verb serving as constituent acquires a noun-like meaning of *verb.abstraction*.

For example.

<i>mel</i>	'to love'	>	'love'
<i>niq</i>	'to see'	>	'sight'
<i>tech</i>	'to speak'	>	'speech'
<i>lól</i>	'to sleep'	>	'sleep'
<i>sán</i>	'to live'	>	'life'
<i>tiniq</i>	'to write'	>	'writing'

A verb acquires this abstract noun meaning by acting as a noun, and without any superficial changes in appearance.

It should be noted though that there are ways to derive abstract nouns other than this, which are both more exact and less crude. Thus.

<i>mel</i>	'to love'	>	<i>melor</i>	'love'
<i>tiniq</i>	'to write'	>	<i>tiniqtoha</i>	'writing'

These forms differ in that when an unchanged abstract noun returns to a clause nucleus position it begins working like a verb again, loosing its abstract meaning, and regains its ability to take mood infixation. The more formally derived forms though, do not.

Note that *pala* 'drink' abstracts to mean 'water', not 'drinking.'

4.2.2 plurality

Unlike in english, there is no formal plurality marker in *Techpfo*. Rather, there seems to be an understanding among native speakers as to the default number category things belong to in the absence of explicit number qualifiers or determiners.

The categories are the following.

list 4.2 (Number categories list).

singular	one object
dual	two objects
plural	many objects

For instance, many body parts that naturally occur in pairs belong in the dual group, while specific

celestial bodies or unique topological features belong in the singular group. Things normally occurring in larger numbers than two belong in the plural group, here we find things as disparate as grains of sand, stars, and hairs.

Specifying number. To explicitly mark for plurality one can use the determiner *khal* 'many'. It is then placed before the constituent in the determiner slot, or joined to it by the apposition indicator *to*.

(4.37) *khal méq*
 many tree
 'many trees.'

means the same thing as.

(4.38) *khal to méq*
 many APP tree
 'many trees.'

4.2.3 countability, and masses

In *Techpfo*, as in many other languages, we may distinguish between words with high, versus words with low countability. David Gil puts it like this in chapter 55 of WALS ⁴

...nouns may vary with respect to the property of countability. Nouns of high countability such as woman, dog and pencil denote objects which are conceptualized in terms of highly individuated units typically associated with a characteristic shape. In contrast, nouns of low countability such as water, sand and smoke denote objects which are conceptualized in terms of masses without unitary structure or characteristic shape.

Countability bears a number of grammatical consequences, one of which is the way in which nouns may occur in construction with numerals. Nouns of high countability generally occur in direct construction with numerals, for example one woman, two dogs, three pencils. In contrast, nouns of low countability typically do not occur in direct construction with numerals; instead, an additional item must be present, for example one glass of water, two pounds of sand, three plumes of smoke. Such additional items are sometimes referred to as mensural numeral classifiers, since they provide nouns of low countability with a unit of measure by means of which they may then be counted.

What constitutes a mass word is of course to some degree specific to any given language even if many similarities can be found. Thus I do not expect an English speaker to express much surprise over the general guidelines we can draw up for *techpfo* as they largely if not completely conform to the generalizations formulated by David Gil, above.

Countability is, of course, not an invariable characteristic of a word. This is clearly seen when we ponder that many words can be thought of as either countable or not, depending on context. In other words, a single word can occupy a range of slots on the countability continuum simultaneously, with its actual countability value determined by its use in a given situation.

A list of filian mensural numeral classifiers is given below.

table 4.16 (List of mensural numeral classifiers).

⁴Gil, David. 2011. Numeral Classifiers. In: Dryer, Matthew S. & Haspelmath, Martin (eds.) The World Atlas of Language Structures Online. Munich: Max Planck Digital Library, chapter 1. Available online at <http://wals.info/chapter/1> Accessed on 2013-02-24.

? '?'
 ? '?'
 ? '?'
 ? '?'

Mass words without mensural numeral classifiers. In English when a word of low countability is used as if it were a discrete entity it is often understood as denoting a kind, or a class that that word belongs to. In *tehpfo* such a usage of a word far down the countability spectrum would be interpreted as several pieces, or a considerable quantity of the thing the word refers to.

4.2.4 proper names

Proper names are nouns and work as such syntactically. They do have some specific features worth highlighting though. To begin with, proper names often consist of two to four words from the main word classes but may be only one word, and sometimes five or more, though this is uncommon. There are no titles or honorifics to set words apart on surface appearance only, but they are most often easy to pick out from context.

table 4.17 (Some observed names).

<i>Qopmo</i>	'Building-gesture'
<i>Tolnoryope</i>	'Storm-cloud'
<i>Ne'apf</i>	'Ink-pen'
<i>Tsotsihihi</i>	'Summer-grass'
<i>Toha</i>	'Hands'
<i>Nenzalé</i>	???

There is no discernible difference in choice of name for the different sexes. It has been proposed that all filians are born the same sex and subsequently undergo at least one change during their lifetime. This would indeed explain the homogeneous naming paradigm, but has yet to be confirmed.

4.2.4.1 intensity of proper names, vocative

Stem reduplication in proper names is often used as a vocative construction.

(4.39) *Nene'apf!*
 Ne~ne'apf!
 INTS~ne'apf!
 'Hey Ne'apf'

4.2.4.2 nicknames

There is no grammatical way to derive a nickname, either through clipping or affixation. Nicknames are often wholly other names given to a person by peers.

4.3 adjectives (adjective-like stative verbs, or property verbs)

For all but the definition, see section 4.2 nouns.

Definition of adjective. As described in 4.2 nouns, a noun as well as an adjective can be described as any word belonging to the filian class property verbs, and that this definition depends on, in its turn, the inability to mark for mood through infixation. The drawback of this definition is that nouns are defined exactly in the same way as adjectives are defined. This of course goes back to the traditional filian grammar failing to separate nouns and adjectives in any meaningful way.

So in this text, in defining adjectives as something separate from nouns, I will rely on comparative pragmatics. This is to say, a word will be classified as an adjective when its English correspondent (,fuzzy as that is,) is an adjective.

4.3.1 intensity of adjectives (comparison)

Intensity (INTS) is obtained through stem reduplication, and semantically intensifies the meaning of the adjective. The stem reduplications appear before the original stem, and the word is thus analyzed thus:

- (4.40) *ngohi ngohingohi ngohingohingohi*
ngohi ngohi~ngohi ngohi~ngohi~ngohi
 fast' INTS~fast INTS~INTS~fast
 'fast' 'very fast' 'very very fast'

Two seems to be the maximum number of reduplication ever used.

The scope of the stem reduplication seems to be three syllables at the most. A word which in its basic form has four or more syllables will only get the first three syllables reduplicated when subjected to stem reduplication. Even so, this covers most of the basic word stems, which only seldom exceed three syllables. Compounds may be longer of course, in which case the above three-syllable rule applies.

Intensity is the means by which adjectival comparison is made.

- (4.41) *Te ra mek ér á. Ko ra mek ér~ér á.*
 You GEN house big PRS.IPFV I GEN house INTS big PRS.IPFV.
 'My house is bigger than yours.' (lit.) 'Your house is big. My house is very big.'

Since the intensity spectrum only goes as high as very very, once that has been reached, further comparison becomes impossible so long as a devaluation is not made of one of the things being compared. For instance, if we elaborate on the above example.

- (4.42) *Te ra mek ér á. Ko ra mek ér~ér á. Nga ra mek*
 You GEN house big PRS.IPFV I GEN house INTS~big PRS.IPFV. She GEN house
ér~ér~ér á.
 INTS~INTS~big PRS.IPFV.
 'My house is bigger than yours, but hers is the biggest.' (lit.) 'Your house is big. My house is very big. Her house is very very very big.'

In the above sentence the adjectives can be understood as:

table 4.18 (Adjective intensity).

<i>ér á</i>	'is big'
<i>éér á</i>	'is bigger'
<i>ééér á</i>	'is the biggest'

Now, imagine another speaker entering who knows of an even bigger house than the ones already under discussion. For this speaker there is simply no (easy) way of boosting the adjective even more without redefining the sizes of the original houses. This sounds cumbersome, and it is, and most oftenly filians avoid entering this kind of escalating comparisons to begin with.

Generally though, to express comparisons in the comparative, but without engaging in escalating competitiveness, one consigns an adjective, with no or some level of intensity, to something and then the same adjective with another level of intensity to something else.

- (4.43) *Ko ra tsoqö ngahingahi Toha sa pö'ó lo i me ngingi á.*
 1p GEN child.N:E INTS fast Toha with run COMP P NEG like PRS:IPFV.
Tsoqö ngahi á.
 Child:N fast PRS:IPFV.

'My neuter child doesn't like running with Toha who is faster than it is'

To express superlative comparisons, one may use the word (determiner) *cálo* 'the.only', using it as a qualifier to the word one wishes to put in the superlative.

- (4.44) *Söh, ta'a me cálo qehar ra tsantsantsan loraq á.*
 Stupid, that NEG the.only world GEN INTS~INTS~high mountain PRS:IPFV.
 Bah, that not the.only of the world high.high.high mountain.is.
 'Bah, that is in no way the highest mountain in the world'

4.4 pronouns (short-verbs)

4.4.1 persons and unknowns

Pronouns appear in one form only. Grammatical relations in a clause are marked by post-positions.

table 4.19 (Pronouns).

persons		translation:
1p	<i>ko</i>	I, we
2p	<i>te</i>	you, you-all
3p.N, 3p.F, 3p.M, 3p.SL	<i>'oh, nga, 'e, ho</i>	it (neuter), she, he, it (sexless)
anaphorics/ reflexives/ reciprocals		
1p	<i>co</i>	I, we, myself, ourselves
2p	<i>haha</i>	you, you-all, yourselves
3p	<i>tha</i>	she, he, it (neuter, sexless), her /him /it-self
exophoric		
3p	<i>ta'a</i>	this/that
unknowns		
3p	<i>ngó</i>	who?, what.thing?, what.abstract?
3p	<i>tangaq</i>	someone, something, some.abstract
3p	?	everybody
3p	?	everything
3p	?	nobody
3p	?	nothing

Notes on the anaphorics. The anaphorics refer to something that has or will be mentioned, and may mean 'it', but can also be used like a reflexive or reciprocal pronoun.

- (4.45) *Tha i kyo' lo 'áp, nohor tho ahán lö.*
 3p.ANAP P protect COMP PURP, cave LOC enter PST.PFV.
 Themselves protect this in.order.to, cave in (they)
 'They entered the cave to protect themselves'

- (4.46) *Thopa fa Ko co i niq á.*
Lake INS I 1p.ANAP P see PRS.IPFV.
'I (can) see myself in the lake'

4.5 post-positions, and other flowing words

Drop a stone in a pond and watch the circles form. The stone is the verb. The circles are the constituents. The others, the small words, are the drops that make up the water. These words flow between the stones and the rings and bind them together.

-Wild, the bent
On Rivers

4.5.1 morphosyntactic and adverbial-like markers

table 4.20 (The post-positions corresponding to the thematic relations, and grammatical relations).

thematic relation:	grammatical relation:	postposition:	Abbreviations:
agent, causer	agent	<i>ó</i>	(A)
experiencer	experiencer	\emptyset	(E)
patient	patient	<i>li/hi/i</i>	(P)
	partitive	<i>an(hi)</i>	(PART)
recipient/beneficiary	beneficiary	<i>po</i>	(BEN)
negative beneficiary	neg. beneficiary	<i>pet</i>	(NEG.BEN)
topic/theme	topic	<i>pfa</i>	(TOP)
reason/cause/	cause	<i>vo</i>	(RSN)
purpose	(for) purpose	<i>'áp</i>	(PURP)
source/beginning	beginning	<i>cé</i>	(BEG)
goal/end	end	<i>ngo</i>	(END)
time	time	<i>nahi</i>	(TM)
place	place	<i>tho</i>	(LOC)
manner	manner	<i>Vt/Cit</i>	(MN)
tool/instrument	tool	<i>fa</i>	(INS)
(together) with	?	<i>saha</i>	(W)
without	?	<i>se</i>	(WO)

(Note that *li/hi/i* are free-variation allomorphs, although *i* is by far the most common.)

- (4.47) *Pong pfa tha hihi li me phatha á.*
 Squirrel TOP ANAP:E grass P NEG eat PRS.IPFV.
 'You know squirrels, they do not eat grass.'

Notes on nahi and tho. Nahi and tho are placed after any word used to specify time or place no matter which word class the preceding word belongs to, creating constructions more akin to 'in the morning' than 'tomorrow' where morning in english is an adverbial containing a noun and tomorrow is an adverb.

When *nahi* and *tho* follow another adverbial-like word though, it might be dropped in informal speech. Thus *nón tho* 'above LOC' means the same as only *nón* 'above'.

4.5.2 genitive and possessive constructions

The genitive construction plays the role of qualifier to a constituent.

table 4.21 (Genitive template).

owner	's	something owned
<i>word</i>	<i>ra</i>	<i>word</i>

- (4.48) *Óhó Tóap ra tsi mothi tsitsi na!*
 Look Tóap GEN two head kitten PRS.PFV!
 'Look it is Tóap's two-headed kitten!'

(For the record *tóap* means idiot. Poor little two-headed cat...)

A dependent marking genitive. Like its english counterpart (with 's, s', the so called Saxon genitive), the filian genitive construction is dependent marking, with the word *ra* following the possessor.

Obligatory marking? Whether the genitive word *ra* is to be considered obligatory for possessive expressions is a tricky question. It is true that is very often seems to be so, but there are some indications that it may be dropped if the preceding word (i.e. the possessor) is a short-verb (pronoun). Semantically/syntactically this may be due to a weaker tendency among pronouns to form non-lexical compounds (with preceding or following words) that that of for instance, nouns. This is only a theory though, and it might be that true reason lies elsewhere, for instance in animacy.

Inalienable possession. Strictly speaking, *ra* can be defined as marking for alienable~inalienable possession, whereas the reduplicated word *rara* marks for inalienable possession only.

Obviously, this distinction is lost when the particle is dropped. Interesting though, is that *rara* is dropped much less frequently than *ra*.

I have chosen to describe the possession type of *ra* as alienable~inalienable since marking for the distinction does not appear to be obligatory. This works only one-way though, with *rara* always marking for inalienable possession but never for alienable.

What is considered inalienable is mostly predetermined by language history which allows for list-making. The list below should be read as an approximatory and non-exhaustive such.

table 4.22 (Inalienable possession classes).

kinship

body parts

topological features

4.5.3 exclamatories (discourse words)

Exclamatories syntactically appear as the first words of an utterance, which may include several clauses linked by coordination or dependency.

table 4.23 (Placement of exclamatories).

exclamatory
dependent clause + PP
nucleus clause
coordinator
nucleus clause

table 4.24 (Exclamatories).

<i>ololo</i>	'hey!'
<i>óhó</i>	'look!'
<i>méh</i>	'listen!'
<i>saqéh</i>	'taste!'
<i>só</i>	'smell!'
<i>hamáhá</i>	'feel!'
<i>tsóngóng</i>	'experience!'
<i>oe</i>	'yes'
<i>z⁵</i>	'no'
<i>ol, z...</i>	'oh no...'
<i>oeoeoeoe!</i>	'oh yes!'
<i>phohi</i>	'anyway / whatever,'
<i>soso'i</i>	'I doubt it, but,'
<i>na</i>	'you have my interest,'
<i>qaq</i>	'make it short,'
<i>rar</i>	'lastly / at last,'
<i>co</i>	'I am being patient,'
<i>söh</i>	'that is stupid,'

- (4.49) *Óhó tsi mothi tsitsi na!*
 Look two head kitten PRS.PFV!
 'Look it is a two-headed kitten!'

⁵z violates normal filian phonotactics, but is nevertheless the word for 'no'.

4.5.4 numbers

The filian number system, much to the great joy of this author, is based on powers of ten. This fact is somewhat curious considering the filians reportedly having four or five fingers per hand, including thumb. The reason as to why this has happened is discussed under 7.3, numeral theory. Unique words exist for powers of ten up till one million.

4.5.4.1 cardinals and ordinals

table 4.25 (Cardinal and ordinal numbers).

cardinals			ordinals	
0	<i>zi</i>		?	?
1	<i>ót</i>		<i>ót ra</i>	1st
2	<i>tsi</i>		<i>tsi ra</i>	2nd
3	<i>öx</i>		<i>öx ra</i>	3rd
4	<i>peh</i>		<i>peh ra</i>	4th
5	<i>qa</i>		<i>qa ra</i>	5th
6	<i>ec</i>		<i>ec ra</i>	6th
7	<i>pha</i>		<i>pha ra</i>	7th
8	<i>myo</i>		<i>myo ra</i>	8th
9	<i>ki</i>		<i>ki ra</i>	9th
10	<i>pa</i>		<i>pa ra</i>	10th
20	<i>tsipa</i>	~ + (space) <i>ra</i>	<i>tsipa ra</i>	20th
30	<i>öxpä</i>		<i>öxpä ra</i>	30th
40	<i>pehpa</i>		<i>pehpa ra</i>	40th
50	<i>qäpa</i>		<i>qäpa ra</i>	50th
60	<i>ecpä</i>		<i>ecpä ra</i>	60th
70	<i>phäpa</i>		<i>phäpa ra</i>	70th
80	<i>myöpa</i>		<i>myöpa ra</i>	80th
90	<i>kipä</i>		<i>kipä ra</i>	90th
100	<i>kit</i>		<i>kit ra</i>	100th
1000	<i>zó</i>		<i>zó ra</i>	1000th
10000	<i>pfar</i>		<i>pfar ra</i>	10000th
100000	<i>chyö</i>		<i>chyö ra</i>	100000th
1000000	<i>ngi</i>		<i>ngi ra</i>	1000000th

A number acting as a qualifier to a noun, adjective or participle, appears in the slot indicated below.

table 4.26 (Numbers on word level).

demonstrative, number / determiner
verb / noun / adj / participle / genitive / pronoun / dependent clause + PP
verb / noun / adjective / participle (=the nucleus)
post-position

(4.50) *ta'a qa asfa pónpong na.*
 These five animals blood squirrel PRS.PFV.
 'These five animals are blood squirrels.'

(4.51) *Ol, z... qa ra asfa ó tangaq i mörtse lö...*
 Oh no ... fifth animal A someone P kill PST.PFV..
 'Oh no...the fifth animal has killed someone...'

4.5.4.2 fractions, powers, and determiners

table 4.27 (Cardinals, fractions, and powers).

cardinals			fractions			powers	
0	<i>zi</i>		?	?		<i>matzi</i>	n^0
1	<i>ót</i>		<i>óttö</i>	1/1		<i>matót</i>	n^1
2	<i>tsi</i>		<i>tsitö</i>	1/2		<i>mattsi</i>	n^2
3	<i>öx</i>		<i>öxtö</i>	1/3		<i>matöx</i>	n^3
4	<i>peh</i>		<i>pehtö</i>	1/4		<i>matpeh</i>	n^4
5	<i>qa</i>		<i>qatö</i>	1/5		<i>matqa</i>	n^5
6	<i>ec</i>		<i>ectö</i>	1/6		<i>matec</i>	n^6
7	<i>pha</i>		<i>phatö</i>	1/7		<i>matpha</i>	n^7
8	<i>myo</i>		<i>myotö</i>	1/8		<i>matmyo</i>	n^8
9	<i>ki</i>		<i>kitö</i>	1/9		<i>matki</i>	n^9
10	<i>pa</i>		<i>patö</i>	1/10		<i>matpa</i>	n^{10}
20	<i>tsipa</i>	+ <i>tö</i>	<i>tsipatö</i>	1/20	<i>mat +</i>	<i>mattsi</i>	n^{20}
30	<i>öxpa</i>		<i>öxpatö</i>	1/30		<i>matöxpa</i>	n^{30}
40	<i>pehpa</i>		<i>pehpatö</i>	1/40		<i>matpehpa</i>	n^{40}
50	<i>qapa</i>		<i>qapatö</i>	1/50		<i>matqapa</i>	n^{50}
60	<i>ecpa</i>		<i>ecpatö</i>	1/60		<i>matmyopa</i>	n^{60}
70	<i>phapa</i>		<i>phapatö</i>	1/70		<i>matphapa</i>	n^{70}
80	<i>myopa</i>		<i>myopatö</i>	1/80		<i>matmyopa</i>	n^{80}
90	<i>kipa</i>		<i>kipatö</i>	1/90		<i>matkipa</i>	n^{90}
100	<i>kit</i>		<i>kittö</i>	1/100		<i>matkit</i>	n^{100}
1000	<i>zó</i>		<i>zótö</i>	1/1000		<i>matzó</i>	n^{1000}
10000	<i>pfar</i>		<i>pfartö</i>	1/10000		<i>matphar</i>	n^{10000}
100000	<i>chyö</i>		<i>chyotö</i>	1/100000		<i>matchyö</i>	n^{100000}
1000000	<i>ngi</i>		<i>ngitö</i>	1/1000000		<i>matngi</i>	$n^{1000000}$

(Note, both fractions and exponentials are written before the number they modify separated from it by a space.)

list 4.3 (Determiners list).

<i>ló</i>	all/every/each
<i>phot</i>	no/none/nothing
<i>cálo</i>	the only

<i>khal</i>	many
<i>phit</i>	few
<i>faha</i>	some (a small number)

(A determiner acting as a qualifier to a noun, adjective or participle, appears in the determiner slot, which is the same as the demonstrative and number slot.) See table 4.26

- (4.52) *Ta'a nohor tho faha qiq i roko ó mörtse lö.*
 DEM cave LOC some person P bear A kill PST.PFV.
 'Some people were killed by a bear in that cave.'

4.5.5 demonstratives

The filian demonstratives do not convey any information about distance, nor relative to the speaker, nor the listener. This is somewhat odd, by english standards, yes, but also by earth standards generally.

list 4.4 (Demonstratives list).

<i>ta'a</i>	this/that/yon(der)
-------------	--------------------

A demonstrative acting as a qualifier to a noun, adjective or participle, appears in the slot indicated below. This table is identical to table 4.26.

table 4.28 (Demonstratives on word level).

demonstrative, number, determiner
verb/ noun/ adj/ participle/ genitive/ pronoun/ dependent clause + PP
noun/ adj/ ptcp (=the nucleus)
post-position

- (4.53) *Ta'a ri nohor lö..!*
 This/that EMP cave PST.PFV..!
 'It was that cave..!'

The demonstrative *ta'a* can also function nominally, that is, both as a qualifier and as a short-verb (pronoun).

4.5.6 coordinators and clause level qualifiers (adverbials)

4.5.6.1 coordinators

table 4.29 (Coordinators and clause level qualifiers).

coordinators:	
<i>ar</i>	'and (also)'
<i>arri</i>	'also'
<i>to</i>	follows an apposition-type qualifier
?	'but'
<i>ka</i>	'or, (and / or)'
<i>théc</i>	'or, (either or)'
<i>narhi...narha</i>	'neither...nor'
unknown	'if a, b'
unknown	'a, if b'

The coordinators are independent words and constitute the single marking strategy for coordination in *Techpfo*.

Ar is the single basic conjunction, its meaning akin to both 'and' and 'also' in English, but leaning towards 'and' in its normal use, with which I mean that simple sentence conjunctions should be understood as meaning X and Y rather than X also Y in normal conversation, and that these instances of simple conjunction occur more often than their less simple counterpart X also Y which has a rather different semantic flavor.

is In combination with the emphasis particle *ri* the resulting multiple-word conjunction *ar ri* or *arri* acquires a meaning more close to 'also'.

In other words, whereas *arri* should always be understood as 'also', *ar* should be understood as a simple 'and' only most often, but may sometimes be used where a good English translation would normally use 'also'.

Nominal and verbal coordination. Normally, no distinction is made between nominal and verbal coordinators. If one wishes to be pedantically clear about what one is coordinating though, a coordinator word may combine with the augmentative morpheme *toq*, taking it as a suffix, with a resulting word that will only coordinate sentence nucleus verbs.

And/or, either/or. Unlike in English, where the multiple-word conjunction and/or has the character of something somewhat overly pedantic, the filian speaker must in all such situations choose between on the one hand *ka* 'and/or' and on the other hand *théc* 'either/or'. Hence there is no way for the speaker to be vague about their generosity when asking a recipient about their choice between several presented objects, like for instance, items of food.

table 4.30 (Events).

inclusion, exclusion of events	
<i>naci</i>	'also'
<i>me ... naci</i>	'not/ neither ... nor'
<i>me naci</i>	'not...too'
<i>khari</i>	'only/just'
<i>me khari</i>	'not only'

If the distinction between *ar* and *arri* in certain situations is muddy at best, so is the distinction between *arri* and *naci*. Both reportedly meaning 'also', I suspect that further future studies in filian pragmatics will be needed to sort out possible differences in use and meaning. At present the phrase *me naci*, translating to 'not...too' seems to lack a counterpart construction using *arri*, but this could just be a gap in our information, and it is still in every way my opinion that further studies are needed here.

The construction *me...naci* used to coordinate non-verbal constituents gives at least some insight into how *me* interact with non-verbal elements, though data on this are still rather scarce.

- (4.54) *Co, z... cechip me ócip naci cimi lö...*
 PTCP, no... root NEG sweet neither.nor orange PST.PFV.
 'Errh, no... the root was not sweet, nor orange...'

Note that the tense-and-aspect ending *lö* occurs only on the last word of the composite nucleus *ócip naci cimi lö*.

table 4.31 (negation and emphasis).

<i>me</i>	'not'
<i>ri</i>	emphasis

Me is the single basic verb negator. Clause level modifiers carrying meanings of negativeness, such as words akin to 'never' and 'nowhere' are not considered here, neither are short-verb-like words (pronouns) akin to 'noone' and 'nothing'. These words belong to different formal categories and behave differently both from each other and from the verb negator.

It is still a matter under some investigation as to what extent *me* can be used to negate non-verbal constituents, that is, constituents that are not in effect complementized subordinate clauses, in which case the negator would occur inside said relative clause anyway.

Whatever formal class the words involved belong to though, the filian language does not endorse double or triple negation constructs for the purpose of expressing simple negation. A double negation construct will be interpreted as negating itself, thus producing a clause that differs from a declarative only stylistically.

4.5.6.2 space and time adverbials

Unlike in English and many other languages, filian adverbials for expressing time do not derive from adverbials expressing similar concepts in space.

table 4.32 (Space).

space	
<i>nana</i>	'here'
<i>pfi</i>	'to (place)'
<i>nanapfi</i>	'to here'
<i>héhé</i>	'from (place)'
<i>nanahéhé</i>	'from here'
?	'before'
?	'after'
<i>soti</i>	'near'
<i>lóm</i>	'far away'
<i>sotipfi</i>	'nearer'
<i>lómphi</i>	'away'

table 4.33 (Time).

time	
<i>ti</i>	'now'
<i>titi</i>	'just now'
<i>lao</i>	'soon/ near future'
<i>phéj</i>	'later/ far future'
<i>thao</i>	'recently/ near past'
<i>hòa</i>	'long time ago/ far past'
<i>a'a, aka</i>	'before/ earlier in time/ before'
<i>tsé</i>	'later/ later in time/ after'
<i>sál</i>	'early'
<i>qóo</i>	'late'
<i>kéo sál</i>	'too early'
<i>kéo qóo</i>	'too late'
?	'at last/ finally'

<i>'epeo</i>	'during'
<i>ceng</i>	'already'
<i>ceng...me</i>	'not yet / still not'
<i>pie...me</i>	'no longer / not any more'

table 4.34 (Time elements).

time elements	
<i>hohoto</i>	'yesterday'
<i>thyato</i>	'today'
<i>nyaqto</i>	'tomorrow'
?	'all the time'

4.5.6.3 aspect adverbials

table 4.35 (Aspect).

aspect	
<i>áhá</i>	'still'
?	'again'
?	'repetitively'

table 4.36 (Frequency).

frequency	
<i>khao</i>	'always'
<i>hitsi</i>	'often'
<i>qóji</i>	'sometimes / sporadically'
?	'seldom'
<i>qyots</i>	'never'

table 4.37 (Frequency based on numbers).

	cardinals		~ times
0	<i>zi</i>		<i>zit</i> 0 times
1	<i>ót</i>		<i>ótit</i> once
2	<i>tsi</i>		<i>tsit</i> twice
3	<i>öx</i>		<i>öxit</i> thrice
4	<i>peh</i>		<i>pehit</i> 4 times
5	<i>qa</i>		<i>qat</i> 5 times
6	<i>ec</i>		<i>ecit</i> 6 times
7	<i>pha</i>		<i>phat</i> 7 times
8	<i>myo</i>		<i>myot</i> 8 times
9	<i>ki</i>		<i>kit</i> 9 times
10	<i>pa</i>		<i>pat</i> 10 times
20	<i>tsipa</i>	~ + <i>i/t</i>	<i>tsipat</i> 20 times
30	<i>öxpa</i>		<i>öxpat</i> 30 times
40	<i>pehpa</i>		<i>pehpat</i> 40 times
50	<i>qapa</i>		<i>qapat</i> 50 times
60	<i>ecpa</i>		<i>ecpat</i> 60 times
70	<i>phapa</i>		<i>phapat</i> 70 times
80	<i>myopa</i>		<i>myopat</i> 80 times
90	<i>kipa</i>		<i>kipat</i> 90 times
100	<i>kit</i>		<i>kitit</i> 100 times
1000	<i>zó</i>		<i>zót</i> 1000 times
10000	<i>pfar</i>		<i>pfarit</i> 10000 times
100000	<i>chyó</i>		<i>chyot</i> 100000 times
1000000	<i>ngi</i>		<i>ngit</i> 1000000 times

4.5.6.4 manner adverbials

table 4.38 (Manner).

manner	
<i>hót</i>	'slowly'
<i>ngakat</i>	'swiftly'
?	'well'
?	'good enough'
?	'badly'

4.5.6.5 degree and attitude adverbials

table 4.39 (Degree, attitude).

degree	
<i>qih</i>	'very'
?	'not...enough'
?	'enough'
?	'just right/just...enough'
<i>kéo</i>	'too/excessively'
attitude	
?	'fortunately / luckily'
<i>nôthoö</i>	'unfortunately'
?	'happily'
?	'sadly'

4.5.6.6 causality and purpose adverbials

table 4.40 (Causality, purpose).

purpose	
?	'for a logical reason'
?	'for some illogical/stupid reason'
cause	
?	'because of a logical cause'
?	'because of some illogical/stupid cause'

4.5.6.7 evidentiality and vagueness adverbials

table 4.41 (Evidentiality, modality, vanguardness).

evidentiality	
?	'evidence'
?	'inferential evidence'
?	'hearsay'
vagueness	
?	'certainly'
?	'maybe'
?	'...I think'

4.5.6.8 level of privacy adverbials

table 4.42 (Privacy).

level of privacy	
<i>kifé</i>	'on one's own/alone'
?	'alone but not competitively'
?	'cooperatively'
?	'together'

4.5.7 adpositional post-position construction

An adpositional post-position construction is a way of limiting the scope of an adverbial-like structure to qualifying a constituent.

This is achieved by placing such a structure in a constituent qualifier slot and connecting it to the constituent with the genitive word *ra*.

- (4.55) *ticha lójl tho ra ka'*
orchid hair LOC GEN woman
a woman with an orchid in her hair

5 | words and their dependency structure

*A sipa-bird sets down on a mountain top,
disturbing a small grain of ice. The grain rolls
down and gathers an avalanche of great force.
The sipa-bird is the verb, all else follows.*

-Wild, the bent
On Rivers

For the student of the syntax of filianska it is prudent to gain at least a cursory understanding of the filian syntactic theory of flowing relations. This chapter explores that theory on a word level, for it does not use phrase as a syntactic unit.

The tables and trees below show the qualifiers each nucleus can take. (Qualifier + word is often seen as a form of non-lexical compound, see [7.2](#) compounds.)

Two levels are identified: clause, word. The first level will be addressed under chapter [6](#) syntax.

5.1 the nucleus verb

The verb is the flame, around which the moths circle, drawn to it by its ardent allure.

-Wild, the bent
On Rivers

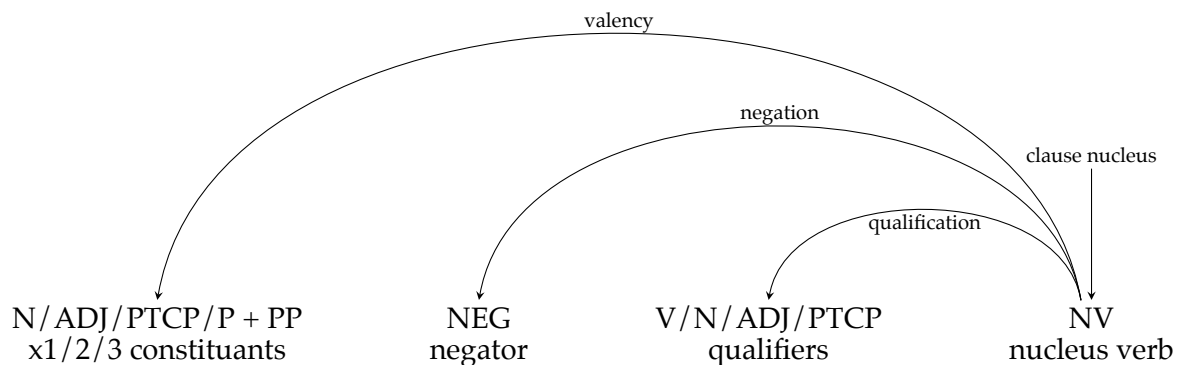
The tables 5.1 and 5.1 show the full dependency template for a verb acting as clause nucleus. First come the constituent, the moths so eloquently described by Wild, above. Their roles are described in depth under 4, syntax. Then come the qualifier slot, which can be filled by either a verb, a noun, an adjective, or a participle. This section investigates these qualifiers and how they modify the nucleus verb.

As I mentioned above, this following table and tree illustrate the dependency structure of the nucleus verb.

table 5.1 (Word level — nucleus verb template).

x1, x2, x3 (noun/adj/participle/pronoun) + PP
negator
verb/noun/adj/participle
nucleus verb

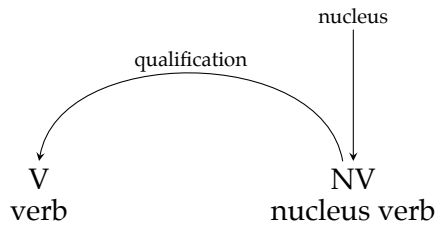
dependency tree 5.1 (Word level — nucleus verb dependency tree).



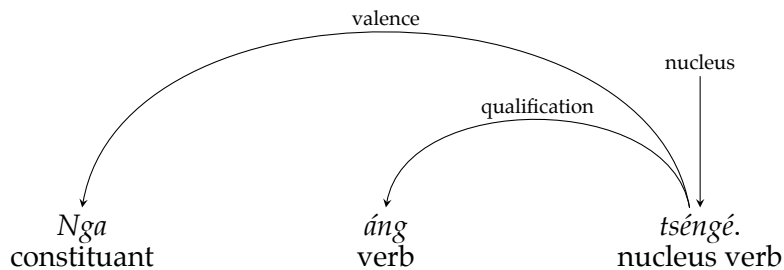
5.1.1 qualifiers

5.1.1.1 verb qualifier

dependency tree 5.2 (Verb qualifies verb).



- (5.1) *Nga áng tséng é.*
 She lead move PST.IPFV.
 She leadingly moved.
 'She led the way.'



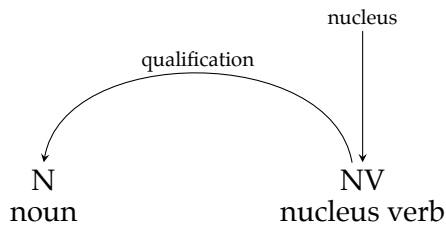
Some more examples.

- (5.2) *Nga ó éryaq i mörtse pfiki lö.*
 She A lion P kill shoot PST.PFV.
 'She shot the lion dead.'

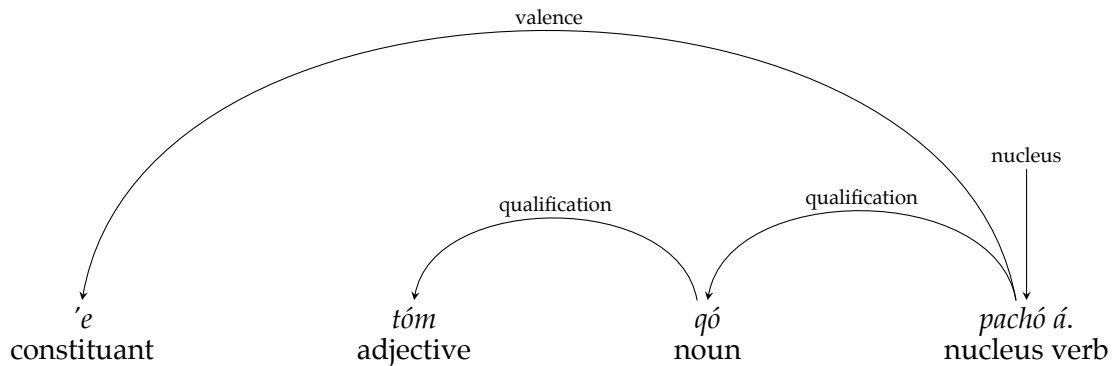
As we can see, the verb-qualifies-verb construction can be used for sentences where English would use a predicative expression, more exactly a predicative referring to the patient. See also subsection 5.2.3 for constructions corresponding to the English predicative expression referring to the agent/experiencer.

5.1.1.2 noun qualifier

dependency tree 5.3 (Noun qualifies verb).



- (5.3) *'e tó m qó pachó á.*
 He old man walk PRS.IPFV.
 He old -manly walks.
 'He walks like an old man.'



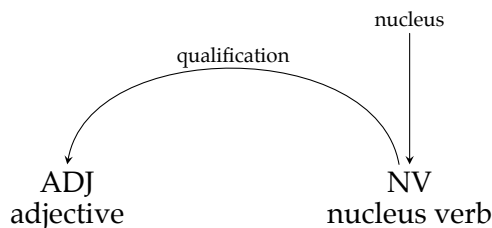
Note that *qó* 'man' has its own qualifier, *tóm* 'old', and that the above sentence is not overly idiomatic and would sound unusual (but not wrong) to native filians.

- (5.4) *Óhó ngó ri nanapfi tséng á? Ngaötlnor á!*
 Look what EMP this way move PRS.IPFV? Hail storm PRS:IPFV!
 'Look what is it that is coming this way? It is a hail storm!'
- (5.5) *Phirngaö á! Poö'ó na!*
 Knife hail PRS.IPFV! <IMP>run PRS:PFV!
 'It is knife hail! Run!!'

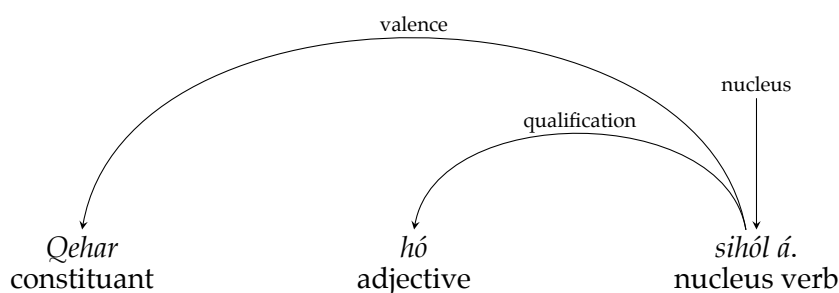
As example 5.4 and 5.5 show, noun qualifiers readily apply to all types of nucleus verbs, even those we normally consider nouns, or adjectives.

5.1.1.3 adjective qualifier

dependency tree 5.4 (Adjective qualifies verb).



- (5.6) *Qechar hó sihól á.*
 World slow turn PRS.IPFV.
 World slowly turns.
 'The world turns slowly.'



Qechar hó sihól á. is actually a filian proverb traditionally ascribed to legendary scribe *Takifafa* ('Snow-bird') who lived millennia back, in historic times. An earth close equivalent would be "Nihil novi sub sole", nothing new under the sun, from the latin vulgate bible, ecclesiastes 1:9.

A filian translation of the latin proverb might read.

- (5.7) *Phot khya áròn ón tho.*
 Nothing new sun under LOC.
 'Nothing new under the sun.'

Note that the filian translation omits the verb just as the original latin version.

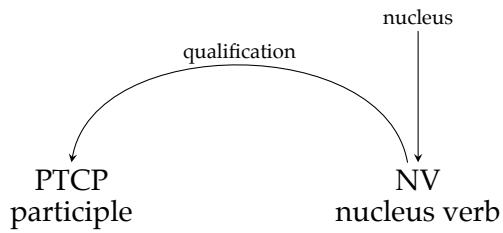
This proverb, although of earth origin, would probably appeal to the filian natives, who wander beneath a harsh and unforgiving cold sun. Ernst Schröder describes them as a

"sardonic folk, slow to judgement, but then again, equally slow to praise." ¹, 1955

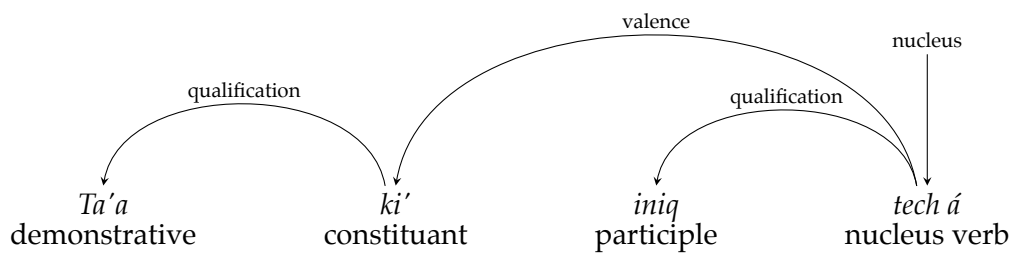
¹>> Plainly on the Plains<< , by Filip Rosenstierna & Ernst Schröder, Lund, 1955

5.1.1.4 participle qualifier

dependency tree 5.5 (Participle qualifies verb).



- (5.8) *ta'a ki' iniq tech á.*
 That woman:E observed talk PRS.IPFV.
 That woman observedly talks.
 'That woman talks like she is being observed.'



Note that the above sentence is not overly idiomatic and would sound unusual (although not wrong) to native filians. Though a more natural way to express the same thing would be as below.

- (5.9) *ta'a ki' iniq qiq fa tech á.*
 That woman:E observed person INS talk PRS.IPFV.
 That woman observed person.like talks.
 'That woman talks like someone being observed.'

A more natural example is.

- (5.10) *Ngekö pfi tho isöni pach lö.*
 Home to LOC injured walk:PST:PFV.
 Home to injuredly walked.
 'I walked home injuredly.'

Note the difference in nuance between the above sentence and the following.

- (5.11) *Ngekö pfi tho isöni to pach lö.*
 Home to LOC injured APP walk PST:PFV.
 Home to injured (and) walked.
 'I walked home injured.' or 'Injured, I walked home.'

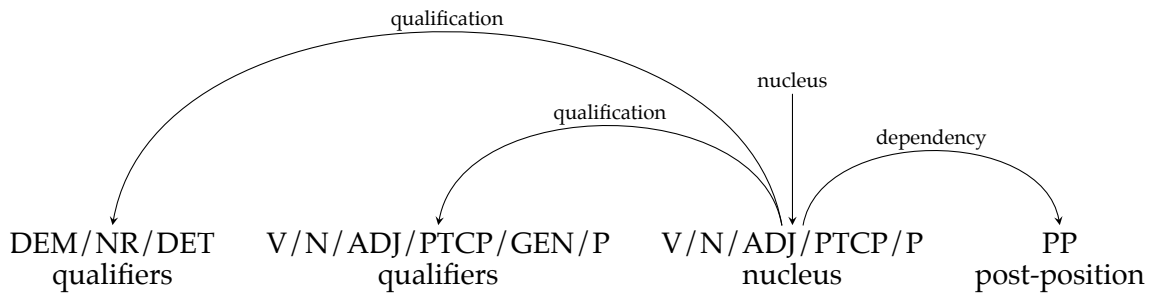
See also subsection 5.2.3 coordination and apposition.

5.2 the constituents

table 5.2 (Word level — constituent template).

demonstrative, number / determiner
verb / noun / adj / participle / genitive / pronoun
verb / noun / adjective / participle / pronoun
post-position

dependency tree 5.6 (Word level — constituent dependency tree).



Some examples.

(5.12) *myo pasot ko ra hahó*
 5 white I GEN feaher
 'my five white feathers'

(5.13) *ko ra myo pasot hahó*
 I GEN 5 white feaher
 'my five white feathers'

Example 5.12 shows the normal place to but a genitive construction. This does not make example 5.13 wrong.

(5.14) *tsoqats öhö qiq*
 very.much dim person
 'a very dim person'

(5.15) *ikaön khelenao*
 adored warrior
 'an adored warrior'

5.2.1 complementized clauses

Lo and complementization. Clauses need to be complementized to function as constituents. The complementizer is the postposition *lo*. See also section 6.5 dependent clauses.

declarative content clauses

The main type of complementized clause is a type of content clause that corresponds to a declarative clause. The other type of content clause is the one that corresponds to an interrogative clause, that is, what is often called an indirect question, see 6.3.2.4 indirect questions.

(5.16) *Ko thoq lo i ngingi á.*
 I-E hunt COMP P enjoy PRS.IPFV.
 'I like to hunt.' or 'I like hunting.'

(5.17) *Ko te thoq é lo i niq lö.*
 I-E you-E hunt PST.IPFV COMP P see PRS.PFV.
 'I saw you hunting.' or 'I saw that you were hunting.'

In informal speech, the complementizer is often dropped. It is possible to analyze the resulting construction as being marked by an invisible complementizer, since syntactically, the omission of the particle does not change the status of its preceding construction, which remains complementized.

5.2.1.1 reported speech, utterance complement clauses

A sub-type of complementized clause is the reported speech clause.

(5.18) *Lao patha pi lo i nga tech lö.*
 Soon eat FUT.PFV. COMP P 3p.F say PST.PFV.
 'I will eat soon she said.' or 'She said she would eat soon.'

Reported speech can vary in its directness. Example 5.18 displays the highest form of directness, an exact quotation. To report without quoting, that is, to summarize the content of someone else's speech, the complementizer *lo* has to be followed either by the particle *pfa* or *anhi*.

(5.19) *Lao patha pi lo pfa nga tech lö.*
 Soon eat FUT.PFV. COMP TOP 3p.F say PST.PFV.
 'She said she would eat soon.'

Note that the reported speech clause remains the same. Nevertheless, the particle *pfa* now forces the preceding clause to be understood as being indirectly reported.

5.2.2 relative clauses

It is possible for a constituent to take a clause as its qualifier. This is what is called a relative clause.

Unlike English relative clauses the filian equivalents do not use relativizers (which, that, who, whose, etc.). Instead the recursive sentence takes the form of another full-fledged, non-reduced clause. In other words, they are internally-headed relative clauses. Often there is also an anaphoric pronoun present which provides the link between the relative clause main word and the outer main sentence. When such a pronoun is present, the relative clause is not really embedded at all, but

rather exists outside the main clause altogether. Technically this changes when said pronoun is omitted, so that this relatively small change on the surface makes a rather big difference syntactically.

In the below example the pronoun *'oh* is used to refer back to the priest, but the sentence nevertheless remains somewhat ambiguous. *'oh* is a neuter pronoun and could very well refer to Tsotsihihi as well as to the priest. In spite of this the interpretation of this example should be relatively clear. Examples 5.20 and 5.21 differ in the role the head of the relative clause (or its representative pronoun) plays in the main clause

- (5.20) *A'a Tsotsihihi má i niq lö ta'a yoólé nahi ko 'oh i tech*
 Earlier Tsotsihihi:E priest P see PST:PFV this evening TM 1p:E 3p.N P talk
lö.
 PST:PFV.

'I talked to the priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier, this evening.' or 'This evening I talked to the priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier.'

- (5.21) *A'a Tsotsihihi má i niq lö ta'a yoólé nahi 'oh ko i tech*
 Earlier Tsotsihihi:E priest P see PST:PFV this evening TM 3p.N:E 1p P talk
lö.
 PST:PFV.

'The priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier talked to me this evening.'

As we see in examples 5.20 and 5.21 a pronoun is used outside of the relative clause as a link to the main clause. This pronoun is, as it turns out, elidable.

- (5.22) *A'a Tsotsihihi má i niq lö ta'a yoólé nahi ko tech lö.*
 Earlier Tsotsihihi:E priest P see PST:PFV this evening TM 1p:E talk PST:PFV.

'I talked to the priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier, this evening.' or 'This evening I talked to the priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier.'

- (5.23) *A'a Tsotsihihi má i niq lö ta'a yoólé nahi ko i tech lö.*
 Earlier Tsotsihihi:E priest P see PST:PFV this evening TM 1p P talk PST:PFV.

'The priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier talked to me this evening.'

This opens up for the possibility to place the relative clause somewhere else than at the beginning of (or preceding) the main clause.

- (5.24) *Ko i a'a Tsotsihihi má i niq lö ta'a yoólé nahi tech lö.*
 1p P eEarlier Tsotsihihi:E priest P see PST:PFV this evening TM talk PST:PFV.

'The priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier talked to me this evening.' or 'To me, the priest whom Tsotsihihi saw earlier, talked this evening'

As we know the filian language lacks a word directly corresponding to the english verb 'to be'. This is of course because they do not need one since any noun, adjective, or pronoun can be put in clause nucleus position, in essence they are a kind of verbs.

Postulate now that we wanted to say something like 'Qopmo's mother is the woman whom I saw earlier.' Now the relative clause is in nucleus verb position, or would be if we tried to translation this directly into filianska, which, as we would then find, is impossible. What we can say though is this. (Note the use of the inalienable possession genitive word *rara* in the sentence below.)

- (5.25) *A'a ko ki' i niq lö. Qopmo rara lójq é.*
 Earlier 1p:E woman P see PST:PFV. Qopmo GEN mother PST:IPFV.

'I saw a woman earlier. (She) was Qopmo's mother.'

Which is of course not a relative clause in any way. Nevertheless it does the job, and it is how a filian would put it.

Relatedly, let us ponder the following sentence. 'It was a priest of the white mountains that I saw earlier.' In this sentence the relative clause is used as a part of a construction with a quite distinct purpose, that of adding extra emphasis, which is handled in quite a different way.

- (5.26) *A'a chéngi loraq má i ri niq lö.*
 Earlier white mountain priest P EMP see PST:PFV.
 'It was a priest of the white mountains that I saw earlier.'

The emphasis part is handles through the emphasis post-position *ri* without any need for relative clauses. Of course, it would still be possible and normal enough to front the emphasized part.

- (5.27) *Chéngi loraq má i ri a'a niq lö.*
 White mountain priest P EMP before see PST:PFV.
 'It was a priest of the white mountains that I saw earlier.'

Both example 5.26 and 5.27 omitt the first person pronoun as the speaker is inferred from context.

Related to the relative clauses are the adpositional post-position constructions 4.5.7.

5.2.3 coordination of words, and apposition

It is possible for two or several coordinated words to work together to fill the same valency slot of a nucleus verb, or the qualifier slot of any word. The table below borrows information from table 4.29.

table 5.3 (Coordinators, apposition particle, and the negator).

<i>ar</i>	and
<i>ka</i>	'or, (and/or)'
<i>théc</i>	or, (either or)
<i>narhi...narha</i>	neither...nor
<i>to</i>	follows an apposition-type qualifier

(5.28) *ko ar höya to Nenzalé*
 I and princess PRT Nenzalé
 'me and Nenzalé, the princess'

(5.29) *Chesa théc thicha é...*
 Potato either or orchid PST.IPFV...
 'It was either a potato or an orchid...'

As we have already seen in example 5.10 and 5.11 *to* can be used for grammatical quirks where English would use a predicative expression referring to the agent/experiencer (actually to the x1 of the verb valency structure.) This is another example.

(5.30) *Nga lir to tséng lö.*
 She happy APP move PST:PFV.
 'Happy, she came (walking).'

Which contrasts with.

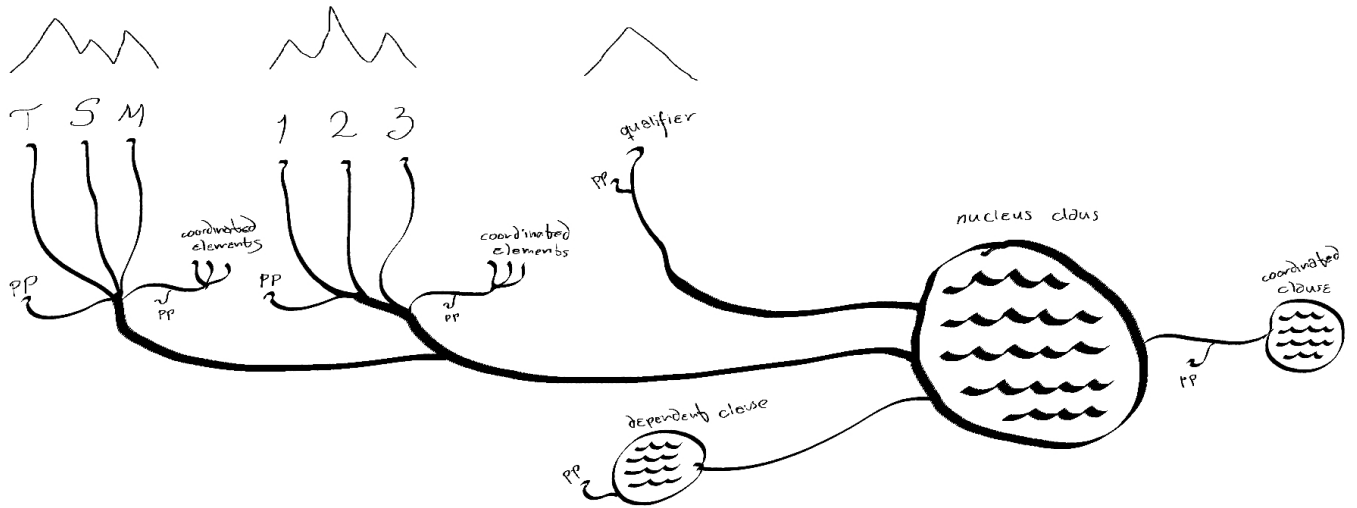
(5.31) *Nga lir tséng lö.*
 She happy move PST:PFV.
 'Happily, she came (walking).'

6 | syntax, and the dependency structure of clauses

For the student of the syntax of filianska it is prudent to gain at least a cursory understanding of the filian syntactic theory of flowing relations. This chapter explores that theory on a clause level.

The drawing below shows dependencies and coordinations of clauses and words, but does not define which word classes can fill the various slots.

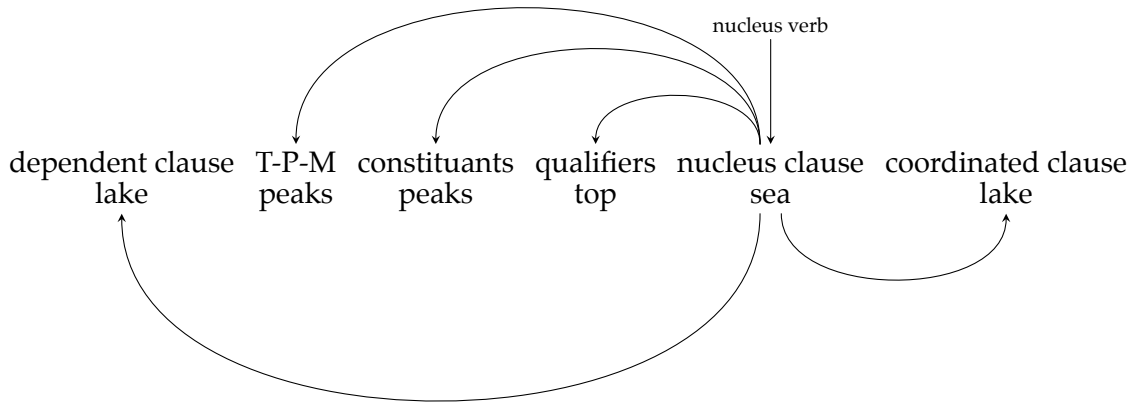
picture 6.1 (Theory of flowing relations drawing).



Even though the drawing might seem crude in its execution, the information represented is sophisticated. Dependencies flow from the left, coordinations from the right. The lakes are clauses, the rivers qualifier types, the streams specifications or postpositions. The length of the rivers indicate not only word order but also a level of qualification strenght. (Note: S stands where we would normally expect to find place, and with high probability stands for space.)

We can represent the same basic ideas with a dependency tree.

dependency tree 6.1 (Word level — constituent dependency tree).



6.1 branching

As mentioned in the introduction (1.10.1 *Techpfo* has tendencies toward being nucleus-last (left-branching). It means that generally nothing follows the nucleus verb of a clause which is not in its case the dependent of another clause. There are however some very common exceptions to that rule. The beneficiary of a ditransitive verb often follows the nucleus verb, as do manner adverbials with some frequency. Even patients of a monotransitive verb sometimes follow the verb, even though almost exclusively if said patient itself is a subordinate clause followed by a complementizer.

These are as mentioned fairly regular occurrences, but will nonetheless be treated as exceptions in this section, where I will assume standard clauses to be verb-last.

Below I will repeat the nucleus verb and constituent template tables to illustrate this. The tables are identical to table 5.1 and 5.2.

table 6.1 (Word level — nucleus verb template).

x1, x2, x3 (noun/adj/participle/pronoun) + PP
verb/noun/adj/participle
negator
nucleus verb

table 6.2 (Word level — constituent template).

demonstrative, number/determiner
verb/noun/adj/participle/genitive/pronoun
verb/noun/adjective/participle/pronoun
post-position

The left-branching tendencies of the filian language should also be apparent from the dependency trees used so far in this text, as well as from the subsequent ones.

- 5.1 nucleus verb
- 5.2 verb-verb
- 5.3 noun-verb
- 5.4 adjective-verb
- 5.5 participle-verb
- 5.6 constituent
- 6.1 flowing relations
- 6.2 declarative
- 6.3 yes-no
- 6.4 is-it-true

6.2 syntax, and semantics, and linguistic typology

6.2.1 morphosyntactic alignment (quantitative linguistic typology)

As mentioned in the introduction (1.10.1) we can analyze *Techpfo* as an Experiencer / Agent-Patient-Verb language.

If it had been that the x1 constituent marked as agent had been the only x1 to occur with transitive verbs and patients, then there would have been a clear three-way distinction such as it would have made it effectively possible to label the language as tripartite. As it turns out, this is not quite the case, as not only agents, but also experiencers can occur in x1 position of transitive verbs. The choice between the two appears to depend on lexical issues as well as on the level of volition the speaker decides that the denotata of the x1 is exerting / capable of in the relevant situation.

table 6.3 (The verb classes and valency).

verb class:	nr. of constituents:	x1,2,3 marked as:
active verbs		
(1 a)	2	agent, patient
(1 b)	3	agent, patient, other
stative verbs		
(2 a)	0	-
(2 b)	1	experiencer
(2 c)	2	experiencer, patient
property verbs		
(3)	1	experiencer

As we can see, the agent of an active verb, the experiencer of a stative verb and the patient of either verb class are marked differently, with the exception of class 2c verbs where experiencers occur together with patients.

What term than shall we use? So far, no consensus has been reached on this issue.

6.2.2 thematic relations (deep semantics)

These are the thematic relations identified by filian grammarians, with corresponding grammatical relations and their post-positions. This table is identical to table 4.20.

table 6.4 (Thematic relations, and corresponding grammatical relations and post-positions).

thematic relation:	grammatical relation:	postposition:	Abbreviations:
agent, causer	agent	<i>ó</i>	(A)
experiencer	experiencer	\emptyset	(E)
patient	patient	<i>li/hi/i</i>	(P)
	partitive	<i>an(hi)</i>	(PART)
recipient/beneficiary	beneficiary	<i>po</i>	(BEN)
negative beneficiary	neg. beneficiary	<i>pet</i>	(NEG.BEN)
topic/theme	topic	<i>pfa</i>	(TOP)
reason/cause/	cause	<i>vo</i>	(RSN)
purpose	(for) purpose	<i>xáp</i>	(PURP)
source/beginning	beginning	<i>cé</i>	(BEG)
goal/end	end	<i>ngo</i>	(END)
time	time	<i>nahi/nayo</i>	(TM)
place	place	<i>tho/thyo</i>	(LOC)
manner	manner	<i>Vt/Cit</i>	(MN)
tool/instrument	tool	<i>fa</i>	(INS)
(together) with	?	<i>saha/sayo</i>	(W)
without	?	<i>se</i>	(WO)

6.2.3 grammatical relations, and valency (surface syntax)

In the list below we can see the grammatical relations that filian words can be marked for in a sentence. They appear alongside the thematic relations they are based upon, and closely correlate with, as well as the endings that represent them. This table is identical to table 4.20 and 6.4.

table 6.5 (Grammatical relations, and corresponding thematic relations and post-positions).

thematic relation:	grammatical relation:	postposition:	Abbreviations:
agent, causer	agent	<i>ó</i>	(A)
experiencer	experiencer	\emptyset	(E)
patient	patient	<i>li/hi/i</i>	(P)
	partitive	<i>an(hi)</i>	(PART)
recipient/beneficiary	beneficiary	<i>po</i>	(BEN)
negative beneficiary	neg. beneficiary	<i>pet</i>	(NEG.BEN)
topic/theme	topic	<i>pfa</i>	(TOP)
reason/cause/	cause	<i>vo</i>	(RSN)
purpose	(for) purpose	<i>xáp</i>	(PURP)
source/beginning	beginning	<i>cé</i>	(BEG)
goal/end	end	<i>ngo</i>	(END)
time	time	<i>nahi</i>	(TM)
place	place	<i>tho</i>	(LOC)
manner	manner	<i>Vt/Cit</i>	(MN)
tool/instrument	tool	<i>fa</i>	(INS)
(together) with	?	<i>saha</i>	(W)
without	?	<i>se</i>	(WO)

6.2.3.1 valency expansion and reduction

Every word belong to one of the main three word classes, and pronouns, has a default valency number, which is a part of its lexical properties. This number, though considered the median number of the verb, can be expanded or reduced.

The causative endings. As seen in subsection 4.1.1.4 causative, the causative endings *ts(e)* and *phor* introduce a new player to the game, namely, the causer. Thus.

- (6.1) *Toha ó la' i niq á.*
 Toha A ant P watch PRS:IPFV.
 'Toha is watching an ant.'

Becomes in the causative.

- (6.2) *Qopmo ó Toha po la' i niq ts á.*
 Qopmo A Toha BEN ant P watch CAUS PRS:IPFV.
 'Qopmo is causing Toha to watch an ant.' or 'Qopmo is showing Toha an ant.'

Now, *niq* is a class 2c verb, i.e. its default marking for its x1 is experiencer, besides which it takes an x2 marked as patient. However, the causative endings are not limited to specific verb classes but can apply to any of them.

Class 1a. Two default constituents, agent and patient. A verb that meets these criteria is *qóp* 'to build'.

(6.3) *Nga ó mek i qóp á.*
 3p.F A house P build PRS:IPFV.
 'She is building a house.'

(6.4) *Nga ó ko po mek i qóp á.*
 3p.F A 1p BEN house P build PRS:IPFV.
 'She is making me build a house.'

Class 1b. Three default constituents, agent, patient, and other (which is usually a beneficiary.)

(6.5) *Toha ó chil i lójq po kesá lö.*
 Toha A hide P mother BEN give PST.PFV.
 'Toha gave a hide to (her/his, etc.?) mother.'

(6.6) *Toha ó Qopmo po chil i lójq po kesá lö.*
 Toha A Qopmo BEN hide P mother BEN give PST.PFV.
 'Toha made Qopmo give a hide to her/his/their mother.'

Since the causer takes over the agent marking the agent demotes to being marked as beneficiary. In the example above this leads to both Qopmo and mother being marked as beneficiaries and only context to work out who is the real recipient of the action. Most oftenly this is more than good enough. To avoid confusion, though, there is always the possibility to mark the causee as instrument.

(6.7) *Toha ó Qopmo fa chil i lójq po kesá lö.*
 Toha A Qopmo INS hide P mother BEN give PST.PFV.
 'Toha made Qopmo give a hide to her/his/their mother.' or 'Toha gave a hide to her/his/their mother through Qopmo.'

Class 2a. Zero default constituents. *Kaxqál* 'to rain' is such a verb.

(6.8) *Kaxqál á.*
 Rain PRS:IPFV.
 'It is raining.'

(6.9) *Oangeqiq ó kaxqál tse lö.*
 Shaman A rain CAUS PST.PFV.
 'The shaman made it rain.'

Class 2b. One default constituent, the experiencer.

(6.10) *Nenzalé pachó á.*
 Nenzalé:E walk PRS:IPFV.
 'Nenzalé is walking.'

- (6.11) *Nenzalé ó Toha i pachó tse lö.*
 Nenzalé A Toha P walk CAUS PST:PFV.
 'Nenzalé made Toha come along for the walk.'

Class 2c Two default constituents, experiencer, and patient.

- (6.12) *Nenzalé cocí i ngingi á.*
 Nenzalé:E nectar P like PRS:IPFV.
 'Nenzalé likes nectar.'

- (6.13) *Nenzalé ó ko po cocí i ngingi tse lö.*
 Nenzalé A 1p BEN nectar P like CAUS PST:PFV.
 'Nenzalé made me like nectar.' or 'Nenzalé taught me to like nectar.'

Not to forget, class 3, the property verbs.

- (6.14) *Ta'a mek á.*
 That house PRS:IPFV.
 'That is a house.'

- (6.15) *Tsotsihihi ó mek ts á.*
 Tsotsihihi A house CAUS PRS:IPFV.
 'Tsotsihihi is building a house.'

Constituent omission Any verb with a default patient x2 constituent may remove the x1. Let us revisit example 6.3

- (6.16) *Nga ó mek i qóp á.*
 3p.F A house P build PRS:IPFV.
 'She is building a house.'

- (6.17) *Mek i qóp lö.*
 House P build PST:PFV.
 'The house was built (by someone.)'

Example 6.17 with the agent omitted is translated with an english passive construction. But what if it was the agent that was omitted?

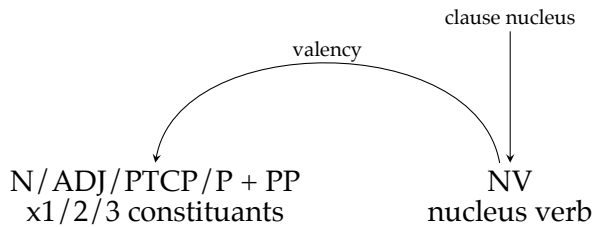
- (6.18) *Nga ó qóp é.*
 3p.F A build PST:IPFV.
 'She was building (something.)'

6.3 clause types

6.3.1 declarative

The declarative clause template is considered to be the basic one.

dependency tree 6.2 (Declarative clause template tree).



In its essence, a declarative clause makes a statement about something, it tells something. Like.

- (6.19) *Nenzalé khere pfi tho pachó tséng lö.*
 Nenzalé forest to LOC walk move PST.PFV.
 'Nenzalé went walking to the forest.'

This is a part of a filian childrens' tale. As such it naturally contains many declarative clauses. The example below comes from the same tale.

- (6.20) *Ló naq nahi Nenzalé ó phir i changats á.*
 Every night TM Nenzalé A knife P sharpen PRS:IPFV.
 'Nenzalé sharpens her knives every night.'

And so does this line.

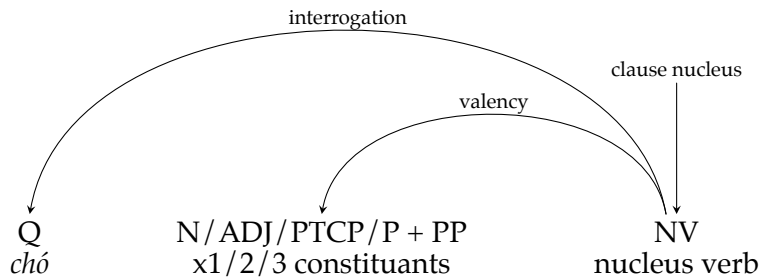
- (6.21) *Khere tho khal kyong sán á ló Nenzalé i tótó*
 Forest LOC many predator.animal:E live PRS:IPFV all:E Nenzalé P fear
á.
 PRS:IPFV.
 'All the predators of the woods fear Nenzalé.'

6.3.2 interrogative

6.3.2.1 yes-no questions (polar question)

To form an interrogative clause the question word *chó* 'true?' is placed before the utterance, which otherwise follows basic clause template.

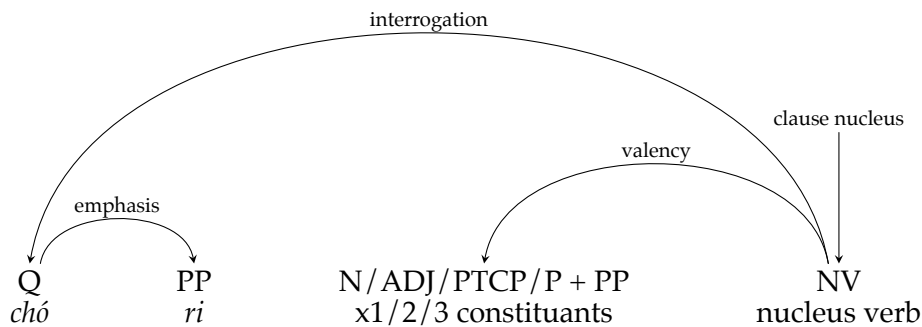
dependency tree 6.3 (Yes-no questions clause template tree).



6.3.2.2 is-it-true-that questions

The interrogative *chó* can be combined with the emphasis word *ri*.

dependency tree 6.4 (Is-it-true-that questions clause template tree).



6.3.2.3 *ngó*-questions. (wh-questions or content questions)

Ngó is a pronoun and a qualifier and fills the according slots.

(6.22) *Te ngó á?*
 You:E Q PRS.IPFV?
 'Who/what are you?'

(6.23) *Ngó tho qó á?*
 Q LOC stand PRS:IPFV?
 'Where are (you) standing?'

(6.24) *Ngó 'áp tha i qál lö?*
 Q PURP that P do PST:PFV.
 'Why did (you) do that?'

6.3.2.4 indirect questions, interrogative content clauses

Interrogative content clause. An indirect question is a common name for what is also known as an interrogative content clause.

Semantically it is somewhat akin to the declarative content clause 5.2.1, and the reported speech clause. Structurally though, the filian interrogative content clause mostly resembles a relative clause (subsection 5.2.2.)

(6.25) *Ngó cé te pfat'ik á ko laréq á.*
 Q BEG you:E come PRS.IPFV I:E know PRS.IPFV.
 'I know where you come from.'

(6.26) *Ngó ta'a má á ko laréq á.*
 Q:E that priest:PRS.IPFV I:E know PRS.IPFV.
 'I know who that priest is.'

6.3.2.5 which-is-it-questions

Which-is-it-interrogative clauses follow the basic clause template, with the question word *ngóchó* 'which.is.true?' preceding the utterance. Also, the word *théc* 'either/or' coordinates the concerned constituents.

(6.27) *Ngóchó te hó théc öhö á?*
Ngóchó te hó théc öhö á?
 Q you:E slow either/or dim PRS.IPFV?
 'Are you being slow or dim?'

6.3.2.6 tag questions

Semantically, tag questions are separate clauses, following the main clause and linked to it by stacking, i.e. coordination with omitted coordinator.

table 6.6 (Tag-question expressions).

<i>mi?</i>	yes?
<i>ze?</i>	no?

Note that these words are different from the normal words for 'yes' *oe* and 'no' *z*.

6.3.3 imperative

The imperative clause deviates from the basic clause template in that the x1 constituent is omitted more frequently. In addition, the nucleus verb marked for the imperative mood through infixation See 4.1.1.5 moods.

- (6.28) *Loóm* *'ik na!*
 <IMP>Be.far.away INCH PRS.PFV!
 <order>Be.far.away start right.now!
 'Go away!'

6.3.3.1 hortative

If a 1:st person pronoun marked for vocative is combined with an imperative, the order in understood to be reflected to the speaker or the speaker's group.

- (6.29) *Koko loóm* *'ik na!*
 INTS~I <IMP>Be.far.away INCH PRS.PFV!
 Us! <order>Be.far.away start right.now!
 'Let's go away!' or 'Let's leave!'

6.3.4 exclamatory

The exclamatory clause follows the basic clause template, with the addition of an exclamatory word placed first in the utterance. See subsection 4.5.3 exclamatories, for list of exclamatories.

- (6.30) *Óhó, Nenzalé khere pfi loeng pö'ó á!*
 Look, Nenzale:E forest to again run PRS:IPFV!
 'Look, Nenzale is running to the woods again!'

6.3.5 negative

As opposed to english, *techpfo* has a symmetric standard negation pattern. In fact, this symmetry goes beyond negative main clauses and extends to interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, complementized and subordinated clauses, in effect, all clauses.

A clause is negated when the nucleus verb is negated. This is done by placing the negator *me* in the negator slot, indicated below in table 6.8 which is identical to table 5.1.

table 6.7 (The negator).

<i>me</i> the negator

table 6.8 (Word level — nucleus verb template).

x1, x2, x3 (noun/adj/participle/pronoun) + PP
negator
verb/noun/adj/participle
nucleus verb

- (6.31) *Söh, kih me la' á..!*
 Stupid, spider NEG ant PRS:IPFV!
 'Gah, the spider is not an ant..!'

6.3.6 verbal possessive constructions

In our world there are two major ways languages use to express possession through a verbal construction.

Techpfo use both of these constructions.

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Etiam dictum tempus pellentesque. Vivamus dictum risus sit amet neque egestas porttitor. Mauris a tortor nunc, eget congue nisl. Nulla et est massa. Sed a lacus ipsum. In at purus libero. Quisque sit amet erat orci, nec volutpat odio. Fusce viverra lectus tempus dui consequat dictum. Nam sem enim, tincidunt at sollicitudin at, viverra nec dolor. Phasellus faucibus consequat purus, ut gravida tortor imperdiet at. Sed elementum, turpis in pellentesque tincidunt, augue metus volutpat lectus, quis vulputate diam turpis eu neque. Sed ullamcorper vestibulum nunc eget rutrum. Fusce faucibus ipsum ut nunc sagittis laoreet.

6.4 time and place and manner

Time-place-manner is the default order for temporal, spacial and manner adverbials in the filian language. In english the general order is (allegedly) place-manner-time.

The manner adverbials generally follow the nucleus verb, whereas the time and space adverbials precede it, with the time adverbials often preceding even the constituents.

- (6.32) *Hohoto, ko ó méq i thopa soti nya lö te ra chéja fa .*
 Yesterday, 1p A tree P lake near cut PST:PFV 2p GEN axe INST.
 'I cut down the tree by the lake with your axe yesterday.'

6.5 dependent/subordinate clauses

It is possible for a clause to use another clause as a constituent. Such a qualifier is said to be a dependent clause or complementized clause. To turn a clause into a dependent clause the post-position *lo* is placed after the nucleus verb. Thus.

- (6.33) *ko sipa te ra mekyaha no sán á lo i niq lö.*
 1p:E sipa.bird:E 2p GEN house.roof below live PRS:IPFV COMP P see PST:PFV.
 I saw that a sipa bird lives underneath the roof of your house.'

The post-position *lo* is important. It turns the entire phrase *sipa te ra mekyaha no sán á* into a constituent which can then be marked as patient. Without it, the word bird, will instead be interpreted as the nucleus of a relative clause.

- (6.34) *ko sipa te ra mekyaha no sán á niq lö.*
 I:E sipa.bird:E you GEN house.roof below live PRS:IPFV see PST:PFV.
 I saw the sipa bird that lives underneath the roof of your house.'

The last sentence could also be written as below, with the main clause following the relative clause, without any change in meaning.

- (6.35) *Sipa te ra mekyaha no sán á ko niq lö.*
Sipa.bird:E 2p GEN house.roof below live PRS.IPFV 1p:E see PST.PFV.
I saw the sipa bird that lives underneath the roof of your house.'

See also subsection [5.2.1](#) complementized clauses.

6.6 coordination of clauses

It is possible to string together two or several clauses to work together as parts of the same utterance. Each of these clauses are considered nucleus clauses of equal status.

Coordination is made possible by the coordinators. The table below is borrowed from [4.5.6.1 coordinators](#).

table 6.9 (Coordinators and clause level qualifiers).

coordinators:	
<i>ar</i>	'and'
<i>to</i>	follows an apposition-type qualifier
<i>ka</i>	'or, (and/or)'
<i>théc</i>	'or, (either or)'
<i>narhi...narha</i>	'neither...nor'
unknown	'if a, b'
unknown	'a, if b'

7 | lexical issues

7.1 word derivation

New lexical items may be formed through derivational compounding. Below is a list of common derivational morphemes. Note that these are all free morphemes adapted for derivational purposes. There is almost always some shift in the meaning that a word has when functioning as a free morpheme to the meaning that it acquires when it assumes the role of bound derivational morpheme. Below the free morpheme meaning is listed within square brackets. A question mark indicated that the original meaning is unknown.

table 7.1 (Word derivation).

----- abstractors -----	
<i>me</i>	[?] innate abilities, capacities and qualities
<i>pfo</i>	[?] systems, complexities, structures, contrivances, machines, abilities
<i>or</i>	[?] sensation, experience, emotion, imagination
<i>toha</i>	[hand] art, education, acquired knowledge, performance
?	[count/measure] measurement, linearities, masses, extents, volumes, currency
?	[?] hyperonym, result, theme
?	[?] hyponym
<i>qiq</i>	["human"] person
<i>ao</i>	[emmissary] person
<i>fõnga</i>	[?] companion, friend, co- -er
<i>sepsö, haok</i>	[student] student, practitioner, professional
<i>ná</i>	[pond] room, place, area, site
?	[?] ground, fields, territory, natural site with boundaries, geographical area
<i>höpi</i>	[tidal wind] season, period, time

?	[empty] -less, without, nothing, no, lacks
?	[?] has , exists , includes
<i>toq</i>	[?] augmented, increased, big, grand
<i>tim</i>	[?] diminuted, reduced, small
?	[?] pejored, belittled, unliked
?	[?] extraction, essence of, part of whole
?	[?] shape, appearance, resemblance

lov = 'dance'

khelen = 'war, conflict'

khel = 'to fight, war, battle'

7.2 compounds

7.2.1 lexical compounds

7.2.2 non-lexical compounds

7.3 loans

8 | orthography

The native alphabet *Tiniqtoha*, abbreviated in this text as (TTH), is normally recounted as follows.

In TTH:

Ω, ς, ϙ, τ, λ, ρ, φ, β, ε, δ, ζ, θ, ϑ, ϗ, λ, ρ, τ, κ, β, ε, λ, η, °, ¯, ο, μ, ν, α, β, =, =, ∞, ∞, ∞

And transcribed as follows, in Standard Romanized Transcription (SRT):

m, n, ng, p, ph, t, th, c, k, kh, q, ' , f, v, s, z, h, pf, ts, ch, r, l, i, e, ö, a, ya, o, yo, é, éj, ó, ój, á

The TTH makes no distinction between upper- or lower case letters.

A sentence ends in either a period . or exclamation mark †, or question mark ‡. In-text a comma , or hyphen ¯ or long hyphen – may be used.

For a letter-by-letter correspondence table between IPA, SRT and TTH, see section 2.5 transcription.

8.1 standard script

The filian standard script, *tiniqtoha*, consists of independent phonemic letters which are written from left to right.

ω m	ρ f	⌋ e
ϣ n	ϑ v	ο ö
Ω ng	ϱ s	Ⓜ a
	λ z	Ⓜ ya
7 p	7 h	ϣ o
∟ ph	Ⓡ pf	ϣ yo
ρ t	Ⓡ ts	
Ⓡ th	Ⓡ ch	z é
Ⓡ c	ρ r	z éj
ϣ k	Ⓜ l	Ⓜ ó
Ⓡ kh		Ⓜ ój
Ⓡ q	· i	Ⓜ á
Ⓡ x		

There is also the vertical script, written top to bottom with a calligraphy stylus.

𐌆	m	𐌆	𐌆	f	𐌆	𐌆	e
𐌇	n	𐌇	𐌇	v	𐌇	𐌇	ö
𐌈	ng	𐌈	𐌈	s	𐌈	𐌈	a
		𐌉	𐌉	z	𐌉	𐌉	ya
𐌊	p	𐌊	𐌊	h	𐌊	𐌊	o
𐌋	ph	𐌋	𐌋	pf	𐌋	𐌋	yo
𐌌	t	𐌌	𐌌	ts			
𐌍	th	𐌍	𐌍	ch	𐌍	𐌍	é
𐌎	c	𐌎	𐌎	r	𐌎	𐌎	éj
𐌏	k	𐌏	𐌏	l	𐌏	𐌏	ó
𐌐	kh				𐌐	𐌐	ój
𐌑	q	𐌑	𐌑	i	𐌑	𐌑	á
𐌒	x						

8.2 historical scripts

Both the horizontal and the vertical scripts have developed out of an even older runic alphabet.

N m	↗ f	— e
↘ n	↓ v	/ ö
Q ng	^ s	// a
	Δ z	↘↘ ya
7 p	l h	l·l o
L ph	↘ pf	l·l yo
↘ t	↘ ts	
↘ th	E ch	= é
E c	↑ r	↘ éj
⊖ k	∇ l	l·l ó
∩ kh		l·l·l ój
σ q	· i	↘ á
X x		