GRAMMAR OF FACH LANGUAGE

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INTRODUCTION

Fach language is a group of somewhat divergent dialects spoken by Fach people on the Archipelago. They used to occupy much of the island of *Hjektsur* (Alavan: [j̊ekt͡sur̥]), but later migration of Alavan people pushed them to far north of the island where they lived in rocky coastal and mountainous areas, as well as smaller island away from the coast. It is unknown how many dialects or even languages of this branch were spoken on this large island before the colonisation, but remaining northern dialects only started diverging quite recently suggesting that language used to be uniform in the northern areas at the very least.

More recently, Alavan peoples have pushed even more towards the extreme north of the island and have established villages and towns on coast thus eliminating coastal dialects.

Currently, only inhospitable mountains and small, unimportant islands are home to Fach people and their language split into three main dialect groups: Northern Mountain Dialect Group (NMDG), Southern Mountain Dialect Group (SMDG) and Island Dialect Group (IDG). They remain mutually intelligible with minor phonological and grammatical differences, but the vocabulary of IDG has received influence from neighbouring Itian language, while Mountain dialects have more Alavan borrowings (which are to lesser extent present on islands, too).

Up to 70% of modern language's vocabulary is made of loanwords, mostly from Alavan. This includes most lexical words, except of the most basic ones, and some grammatical forms. Its grammar is also under huge Alavan influence, but it is still visibly a language of Island language family. Its exact placement in the family is disputable, but it likely makes up its own branch.

This grammar will attempt to showcase all the dialectal differences, but the examples will be in Mountain dialects as they have more speakers (combined and on their own when compared to IDG) unless otherwise specified.

PHONOLOGY

Fach-language has a phonological system under big influence from Alavan language, but its consonant and vowel inventories still have some idiosyncrasies. Here, consonants, vowels, stress and phonotactical rules and morphonological alternations will all be described in respect to all dialects.

CONSONANTS

Consonants are arranged into a table:

	Bilabial	Palatalised bilabial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m	mʲ	n	ɲ	ŋ	

Plosive	b p	pʲ	(d) t		(g) k	ʔ
Affricate			ts dz	t͡ʃ~t͡ɕ~c		
Fricative	f		θ θʲ s	j̊ ʃ~ɕ~ç	x	h
Approximant	w		l	j		
Vibrant			r		ɰ~ʁ	

There are some points that need to be further explained.

Palatalised bilabial sounds are true palatalised bilabials [mʲ pʲ] as phonotactical constraints do not allow for clusters /m.j p.j/, and they are disallowed from appearing at the end of a word as all other palatals are.

They are the only remnants of an earlier system of contrast between palatalised and plain consonants in the both MDG, but IDG also has /θʲ/, as well as non-palatal /θ/ which have been replaced with /f/ for plain and /j̊/ for palatal form in MDG.

The sound /f/ only appears in front of back vowels unless it derives from /θ/ in MDG or is loaned.

Sounds /ts dz l/ only occur in loanwords from Alavan (the affricates are also present in Itian loanwords), and /ŋ/ can only appear word-finally in native vocabulary.

Palatals range from postalveolars to palatoalveolars to palatals. Postalveolar pronounciation is more common in IDG, palatal in MDG.

In IDG, /s/ can be non-sibilant under Itian influence, the same holds true for the affricates.

The sound /j̊/ comes from palatalisation of now lost *h and is usually pronounced as "weak" /ç/ or "strong" voiceless /j/, that is raised voiceless palatal approximant. It can range from a true voiceless approximant to a voiceless palatal fricative (usually in IDG when /ʃ~ɕ~ç/ is [ʃ]).

Vibrants and voiced plosives form an allophonic system, at least in IDG. Vibrants [r ɰ~ʁ] appear everywhere except word-initially and after nasals when they surface as [d g]. In MDG voiced plosives do contrast after nasals and in all dialects they appear in Alavan loanwords which make so much of the vocabulary that the alternation in the native vocabulary is the exception rather than a rule broken by loanwords.

MDG: khandë   [handu]   'wind'

        śínrë   [çinru]   'to dream'

IDG: khandë   [xanda]   'wind'

        śínrë   [ʃinda]   'to dream'

It can therefore be said that voiced plosives are true phonemes in MDG, but allophones in IDG. However, in all three dialect groups they have the system of initial allophony with [r ɰ~ʁ].

It should be noted that [ɰ~ʁ] tends to be [ʁ] in younger speakers in SMDG, but is otherwise [ɰ] in NMDG. In IDG it is often not pronounced at all by younger speakers.

Young speakers of SMDG also tend to pronounce /g/ as [ɢ] in front of /a/.
Similarly, the sound /b/ is [b] only word-initially (and in Alavan borrowings), otherwise it becomes a cluster /mb/ between vowels.
More details about the alternation and the other rules regarding vibrants are given in the morphonology section.
Finally, IDG still preserves /ʔ h/, but they have been completely lost in MDG except that [ʔ] appears word-initially as an allophone in front of vowels. Because of this, many MDG speakers pronounce /x/ as [h].

VOWELS

Vowel inventory doesn't differ that much between dialects, but sound correspondances are lesser.

	Front	Back
Close	i	u
Near-close	ɪ	ɨ
Close-mid	e	o
Open-mid	ɛ	ɔ
Open	a	

This table represents phonemic conception of vowels, their actual pronounciation is however quite different.
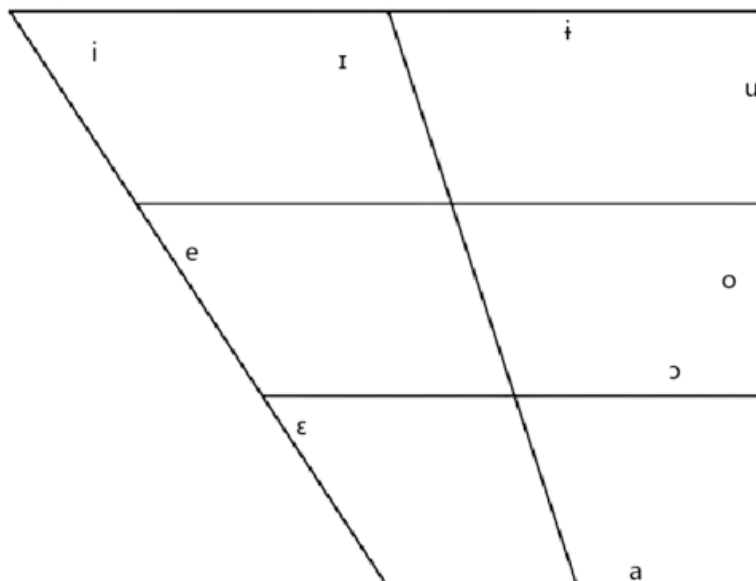
This vowel diagram demonstrates average pronunciation of vowels for SMDG. NMDG tends to have similar values, but their /ɔ/ and /o/ are usually pronounced

further apart. IDG is slowly merging close-mid vowels with open-mid ones and so they tend to be pronounced closer to mid [e̞ o̞].

In MDG, Alavan loanwords tend to have /e o/ in stressed, and /ɛ ɔ/ in unstressed syllables, a distribution sometimes mirrored into native vocabulary as well.

Vowels /ɪ ɨ/ differ the most between dialects. The vowel /ɪ/ is best described as [ɪ̱], that is retracted and raised, but the exact extent of both depends on a dialect: some have it quite back, for some it is almost as front as /i/. Some raise it to canonical [ɨ], some lower it to canonical [ɪ].

The vowel /ɨ/ tends to be more back, almost [ɯ], especially in MDG under Alavan influence.

Both vowels go through some allophonic changes. In IDG they merge with /i, u/ word-initially, and in SMDG they are [ji u] under stress. (Note that /ɪ/ is [ji], not [i], so it doesn't merge with /i/ instead palatalising a consonant in front of it[1], but /ɨ/ does merge with /u/.) In NMDG, only /ɪ/ is changed under stress to [i] thus merging with /i/, but only if there is a consonant in front of it.

A sound correspondence having to do with these vowels is that they had become *ə word-finally. This sound became /a/ in IDG, but /u/ in MDG unless after palatal(ised) consonants when it turned into /i/.

SMDG: thumpë   [fumpu]   'murderer'

NMDG: thumpë   [fɨmpu]   'murderer'

IDG: thumpë   [θɨmpa]   'murderer'

Vowel /a/ is somewhat back for most speakers in all dialects.

Vowels don't have inherit length, but loss of /ʔ h/ in MDG caused vowels to often form hiatus. If two vowels of the same kind form hiatus, they are pronounced as a long vowel as a sequence of two identical vowels is disallowed.

Fach language also has some diphthongs.

Dvoglasi
ɔi̯, ɔu̯
ai̯, au̯
eu̯

Vowel /a/ tends to be [æ] in /ai̯/ and [ɑ] in /au̯/.

STRESS & PHONOTACTICS

Phonotactical constraints differ quite drastically between native and borrowed words. Native words allow syllables to have a form of (C)V(N), where N stands for homorganic nasal, except in front of /j w/ where it is always /n/. At the end of a word,

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[1] This creates an allophonic series of palatalised consonants, but does not influence phonemicity of /mʲ pʲ/ as a separate phenomenon.

syllables come as (C)V(G), where G stands for all consonants except of palatals (however, /ʃ/ is allowed). MDG disallow /m/ word-finally.

In Alavan loanwords, phonotactics follow usual Alavan syllable structure of (C)V(D), where D stands for /m, n, t, d, s, r, ɲ, t͡ʃ, ʃ, j̊, k, g/. However, if the next consonant is a nasal, syllables have a shape (C)V(E) with E being /p, t, d, t͡s, d͡z, s, r, k, g/.

Also, word-final syllables come as (C)A(F) where A is /a, ɛ, e, i, u, ɨ/ and F is /n, t, s, r, h/.

Finally, words in Alavan can begin in /kr gr/ which is allowed in MDG, but usually reduced to /k g/ in IDG.

Original stress position which is usually based on syllable count in Island language family has been reshaped in accordance with Alavan stress assignment rules to be mora-based.

Open syllables make one mora, and closed ones, as well as those containing diphthongs, make two. In native vocabulary, syllables are counted from the end of a word to the second mora where stress is placed. In Alavan vocabulary, it is the fourth mora that receives stress.

There is, however, an exception. If a syllable following three morae is closed, it would make the stressed syllable five morae. To avoid that, stress is placed on the third mora.

Word:	peśtesypu		'to be able to'	
Syllabification:	peś	te	sy	pu
Syllable weight:	2	1	1	1
Mora count:	5	3	2	1

*ˈpɛçtesɨpu

pɛçˈtesɨpu

MORPHONOLOGY

There are six changes that are active in the modern language. They happen during grammatical or derivational affixation.

PALATALISATION

Palatalisation is triggered by various affixes, and usually causes following changes:

m, p, n, {t,k}, {s,x}, h, θ > mʲ, pʲ, ɲ, t͡ʃ, ʃ, j̊, θʲ

In MDG, the results are somewhat different:

m, p, n, {t,k}, {s,x}, f > mʲ, pʲ, ɲ, t͡ʃ, ʃ, j̊

All other consonants are unaffected by it.

çin + -jɪ > çiɲi[2]

'god' > 'god-ACC'

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[2] All examples in this chapter are in MDG

VELARISATION & VOWEL DELETION

Sometimes, /t͡ʃ, ʃ/ and /t, s/ turn into /k, x/ in front of back vowels.

>   eu̯çi + -ɨ > eu̯ç-ɨ > eu̯xɨ > eu̯x
>   'piece' > 'piece-DAT'

As can be seen from the example, once there isn't a palatal in front of /ɪ, ɨ/, they disappear.

However, the change does not happen in all words:

>   ɛsɛç + -ɨ > ɛsɛçi
>   'water' > 'water-DAT'

UMLAUT

A relatively new sound change that causes /a/ to become /ɛ/ if the next syllable is stressed and contains a front vowel.

It mostly happens with prefixes na- and sa- on verbs.

>   bɪɯi + sa- > sɛbɪɯi
>   'sail' > 'sail alone'

An exception is front /i/ that originated from *ɨ.

>   çinri + sa- > saçinri
>   'dream' > 'REFL-dream'

NASAL INSERTION

Some words beginning in vowel add /n/ when a prefix is added.

>   ɔta + ɛ- > ɛnɔta
>   'strain' > 'PASS-strain'

RESONANT REDUCTION RULE

Fach language allows only one resonant per morpheme and per word. That means that only one [r] or [ɯ] can appear inside a single word. However, their plosive allophones are allowed as they are not pronounced as vibrants or approximants, so the rule only blocks sequences of either [r…ɯ] or [ɯ…r] turning them into [j…ɯ] and [w…r], that is transforming them into semivowels.

>   pʲera + -r > pʲerar > pʲejar
>   'wall' > 'wall.PL.LOC'

ROMANISATION

Romanisation of Fach language is somewhat counter-intuitive as it needs to take into consideration all the dialect groups. Tables of consonants and vowels with their romanised forms in the brackets are provided below.

	Bilabial	Palatalised bilabial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Glottal

Nasal	m (m)	mʲ (ḿ)	n (n)	ɲ (ń)	ŋ (g)	
Plosive	b p (b p)	pʲ (ṕ)	d t (d t)		g k (g k)	ʔ (')
Affricate			ts dz (ts dz)	t͡ʃ (ć)		
Fricative	f (f)		θ θʲ s (th tḣ s)	j̊ ʃ (ḣ ś)	x (kh)	h (h)
Approximant	w (w)		l (l)	j (j)		
Vibrant			r (r)		ɰ~ʁ (y)	

Some additional comments: since /ŋ/ only appears word-finally and /g/ cannot appear there, they are both marked as <g>. Rare cases where /ŋ/ appears in some other position are marked as <ň> (since /ŋg/ is a valid sequence).
From the point of MDG, difference in writing <th> and <f>, that is <tḣ> and <ḣ> is random, but it accounts for distribution of those phonemes in IDG. Similarly, <'> and <h> are not pronounced in MDG.

	Front	Back
Close	i (í)	u (ú)
Near-close	ɪ (i)	ɨ (u)
Close-mid	e (é)	o (ó)
Open-mid	ɛ (e)	ɔ (o)
Open	a (a)	

While in native vocabulary vowels with acute symbol are phonoligically marked compared to the ones without it, in loanwords that is not the case, however this is not reflected in orthography.
There is an additional symbol <ë> used to mark old schwa which is to be pronounced as /u/ or /i/ in MDG and as /a/ in IDG.

NOUNS

Fach nouns have been drastically changed under Alavan influence. While most other Island languages have reduced or completely lost their case system, Fach expended on it creating a system quite similar to the Alavan one.
It also lacks a very sharp distinction between animate and inanimate nouns that exists in most Island languages, but it is still quite important when it comes to behaviour of nouns.
It also developed and borrowed various mirativity suffixes and forms.

ANIMACY & NUMBER

Nouns are split in animate and inanimate nouns.

Humans, gods, animals, moveable and external body parts and some natural phaenomena (*ańë* 'fire', *neutha* 'nwita plant', *eut* 'cloud', *bamba* 'thunder', *bambauńë* 'lightning', *tan* 'thought', *sé* 'sea' and *krakka* 'wave') are all animate.

Inanimate nouns include everything else, as well as the noun *krakka* in its secondary meaning of 'seawater'.

Nouns do not usually distinguish between definite and indefinite forms, but only definite inanimate nouns have number distinction.

There are three numbers in Fach: singular, plural and collective.

Singular is used for one instance of something, plural for multiple and collective has quite a specific meaning. It was originally solely used with inanimate nouns. There, it had a meaning of great quantity of liquid, powder or shards. It indicated numerousity, uncountability, big range and small size of individual inanimate objects. It still has this meaning today, but it can also be used as a diminutive unmarked for number.

thë'a	'the jug'	toćé	'the tree'
thë'	'the jugs'	toćér	'the trees'
thë'uth	'shards of the broken jug'	toćéth	'the little tree(s)'

On the other hand, indefinite inanimate nouns do not have any number marking.

thë'a	'a jug; some jugs'	toćé	'a tree; some trees'

Finally, animate nouns originally distinguished singular and plural, but modern dialects also use collective suffix on animate nouns, especially human one. Here it marks crowdedness, a huge amount of people and it often carries a pejorative sense. This sense is stronger in MDG where it is often used as a human pejorative regardless of number, but in IDG the general idea of a crowd is stronger.

búta	'a man; the man'	
bútar	'men; the men'	
bútuth	IDG	'many men, a crowd of men'
	MDG	'some guy (pejor.); some men (pejor.)'

Nouns therefore distinguish between zero and three different numbers.

	Inanimate indefinite	Animate	Inanimate definite
Numbers	None	Singular Plural (Collective)	Singular Plural Collective

It should finally be noted that most ethnics are formed with a suffix *-thunur* in plural and *-thunuṗe* in singular, that is, they add additional singular suffix *-ṗe*[3] to stem *-thunuj-*.

Alawan	'Alavan (language)'
Alawanthunur	'Alavan people'
Alawanthunuṗe	'Alavan person'

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[3] A productive *nomen agentis* suffix.

It is, however, absent in some ethnics, including the name of Fach people themselves.

Fakh   'Fach person'
Fakhë   'Fach people'[4]

The exact formation of plural forms will be discussed in the section about declensions.

DECLENSIONS

Fach has seven case endings.

Nominative is used to mark agents of transitive and subjects of intransitive verbs. It is also the default noun form and it is used with some postpositions.

A man died.
Búta thathaĺë.
man-NOM PERF~die-PAST

A man killed a bird.
Búta thuthunśeńë souće.
man-NOM PERF~kill-PAST bird-ACC

Accusative marks patients of transitive verbs. In IDG it frequently completely merges with nominative in form, except in pronouns.

Dative indicates indirect objects (today this usually also involves a serial verb construction), but is also used to mark subjects of some verbs of emotion and verbs showing effects of something on a body.

A boy is giving a bird some bread.
Fó tous sout koró.
boy-NOM give-PRES bird-DAT bread-ACC[5]

A woman is poisoned. (She feels sick due to poison.)
Pelau krówette.
woman-DAT be_poisoned

Locative and lative are two postpositional cases, locative is used with to show location, while lative marks movement.

Genitive is used to mark possession.

bird's house
math souteu
house bird-GEN

It is also sometimes replaced by a serial verb construction.

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[4] Also an example of irregular plural.

[5] All words in this sentence receive zero-marking, s. declensions further down for details. The sentence would more commonly use serial verb construction:
    Fó tous koró sout wea.
    boy-NOM give-PRES bread-ACC bird-NOM get-PRES

Finally, there is a vocative case in MDG usually used only with names and rarely with second person pronouns. It is more common in SMDG.

> Hey, Rúnón, use the man's wood!
>
> Aja, Rúnóní, aće makh réth́ë búteu!
>
> EXCL Runón-VOC 2.sg-ACC use-PRES wood-ACC man-GEN

Case marking itself is rather complicated. In the modern language, only lative, genitive and vocative have dedicated endings that always surface, other cases are quite low in iconicity.

The same endings are used in singular, plural and collective.

Nouns all use these endings, but the exact outcome of their suffixation varies greatly depending on the last sound of a noun.

	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	-//	-r(ë)	-uth
Accusative	-j(ë)	-r(ë)	-uth
Dative	-(ë)	-r(ë)	-uth
Locative	-V-n / -C	-r	-uth
Lative	-jo	-ro	-utho
Genitive	-eu	-reu	-utheu
(Vocative)	-í	-rí	-uthí

All cases can be considered separate on the basis of morphology as there are nouns where they all surface differently:

	Singular
Nominative	búta
Accusative	búćë
Dative	búk
Locative	bútan
Lative	búto
Genitive	búteu
(Vocative)	bútí

There are also many nouns where nominative, accusative, dative and locative all merge:

	Singular
Nominative	lépér
Accusative	lépér
Dative	lépér

Locative	lépér
Lative	lépéro
Genitive	lépéreu
(Vocative)	lépérí

In IDG, cases tend to be reduced with distinctions between nominative and accusative, and dative and locative routinely lost in form and function.

All endings other than locative remove the final vowel if it isn't a "strong" one (/e, o, i, u/), but in Alavan borrowing these also get removed. Diphthongs are never removed.

Accusative is formed by palatalisation of the final consonant. Suffix -ë is appended unless the consonant is unpalatalisable when no suffix is added.

Dative is usually formed by no suffix, but with velarisation. In case a word cannot end with its stem-final consonant, -ë is added. Some words ending in /h/ change it to /f/, but this isn't too common.

Locative adds suffix -n to nouns ending in vowels, but no ending to nouns ending in consonants.

Lative causes palatalisation if applicable and addition of -o. It doesn't palatalise /t, s/, and causes nouns ending in /t͡ʃ, ʃ/ to undergo velarisation. "Strong" vowels and diphthongs have -jo.

Genitive simply adds suffix -eu (-jeu for "strong" vowels and diphthongs), and vocative adds -í (-jí).

Plural is formed by suffix -r- in the deep structure, but it doesn't always surface as such. If a stem (without a final vowel) ends in a nasal, suffix is simply -r (with a change /mr, ŋr > nd, nr/), but if the stem ends in any other consonant, /r/ is simply left out thus almost always merging singular and plural forms. In case /r/ is the final consonant, suffix is -ar (with the change of stem /r/ to /j/). If a word ends in a "strong" vowel, -r is added.

Plural is still somewhat differentiated from singular by its "vowel-buffer" in nominative and by the fact that, if a word ends in a vowel, its locative singular will be of shape -CVn, but its plural form will be -C. Also, lative will not have palatalisation.

The "vowel-buffer" only surfaces in nominative, accusative, dative and locative after consonant clusters, so only after nasals.

Finally, collective is formed quite simply with a suffix -uth- which behaves regularly except in accusative plural which isn't the expected *-uthë, but identical to the nominative form and lative with the similar lack of palatalisation. Nouns ending in "strong" vowels and diphthongs change it to -th-.

Examples are given for nouns ending in non-palatal consonants with and without vowels, palatal consonants with vowels, "strong" vowels, /r/ and nasals with and without vowels.

non-pal. C + V	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	kharapa	kharap	kharaputh

Accusative	kharaṕë	kharap	kharaputh
Dative	kharap	kharap	kharaputh
Locative	kharapan	kharap	kharaputh
Lative	kharaṕo	kharapo	kharaputho
Genitive	kharapeu	kharapeu	kharaputheu
(Vocative)	kharapí	kharapí	kharaputhí

non-pal. C - V	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	math	math	mathuth
Accusative	matḧë	math	mathuth
Dative	math	math	mathuth
Locative	math	math	mathuth
Lative	matḧo	matho	mathutho
Genitive	matheu	matheu	mathutheu
(Vocative)	mathí	mathí	mathuthí

pal. C + V	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	ouśë	ouśë	ouśuth
Accusative	ouśë	ouśë	ouśuth
Dative	ouśë	ouśë	ouśuth
Locative	ouśën	ouśë	ouśuth
Lative	ouśo	ouśo	ouśutho
Genitive	ouśeu	ouśeu	ouśutheu
(Vocative)	ouśí	ouśí	ouśuthí

"strong" V	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	sé	sér	séth
Accusative	sé	sér	séth
Dative	sé	sér	séth
Locative	sén	sér	séth
Lative	séjo	séro	sétho
Genitive	séjeu	séreu	sétheu
(Vocative)	séjí	sérí	séthí

/r/	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	aur	aujar	auruth
Accusative	aur	aujar	auruth
Dative	aur	aujar	auruth
Locative	aur	aujar	auruth
Lative	auro	aujaro	aurutho
Genitive	aureu	aujareu	aurutheu
(Vocative)	aurí	aujarí	auruthí

N + V	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	énaune	énaunrë	énaunuth
Accusative	énauńë	énaunrë	énaunuth
Dative	énaun	énaunrë	énaunuth
Locative	énaunen	énaunrë	énaunuth
Lative	énauńo	énaunro	énaunutho
Genitive	énauneu	énaunreu	énaunutheu
(Vocative)	énauní	énaunrí	énaunuthí

N - V	Singular	Plural	Collective
Nominative	śín	śínrë	śínuth
Accusative	śíńë	śínrë	śínuth
Dative	śín	śínrë	śínuth
Locative	śín	śínrë	śínuth
Lative	śíńo	śínro	śínutho
Genitive	śíneu	śínreu	śínutheu
(Vocative)	śíní	śínrí	śínuthí

Some nouns have irregularities in declension (aforementioned nouns that change /h > f/, which don't go through velarisation, but also some unique irregularities). They are indicated in the dictionary.

OTHER NOMINAL FORMS

Nouns come with some other suffixes, too. Most of these modify the meaning of a noun making it diminutive, augmentative or honorific. They somewhat replace

adjectives of similar meaning, but they do not have that strong of a meaning and cannot come in copulative sentences like real adjectives.

The forms are diminutive, augmentative, admirative, pejorative, bellulitive, offensive and honorative. Not all of them are present in all dialects and they often differ quite a lot between them as they are very expressive and are often changed to make them even more so.

Diminutive shows that an object is of smaller size compared to other objects of the same kind. In Fach, it is usually not associated with admirability, cuteness or child-like features and it comes mostly only with inanimate objects.

suppéyo   'boat'

SDG, NMDG:

suppéyúśë   'small boat'

SMDG:

suppeyodsúre   'small boat'

Suffix is *-úśë* with final vowel deletion, but in SMDG it is usually *-dsúre* without deletion. The original suffix is only preserved in irregular diminutive of a noun *ouśë* 'child': *ouśínúśë* 'baby' found in all dialects.

Augmentative marks large objects, it is also mostly used neutrally with inanimate objects. When used on humans, it usually indicated that a person is obese and it is used negatively.

nathakh   'hill'

nathakhat   'large hill'

It uses a suffix *-net* after vowels and *-at* after consonants.

Admirative indicates admiration and closeness; it is associated with love and familiar or friendly bond. Oftentimes, it is used with names and nicknames. It does not necessarily indicate smallness as diminutive does.

ouśë   'child'

SDG:

ouśëkam   'my dear child'

NMDG:

ouśëkanka   'my dear child'

SMDG:

ouśëkanka   'my dear child'
ouśattú   'my dear child.VOC'

In SMDG it a practice to use normal ending *-kanka* when a noun is declined, but to use *-attú* in vocative. However, *-attú* can just be use as a standard ending in all cases.

Pejorative is used to insult humans and animals. It indicates speaker's disdain for the referee, but it isn't as strong of an offence as offensive. It is rarely used when directly talking to humans, only animals. When it is used with humans, pejorative is mostly directed towards misbehaving children.

fó   'boy'

fóre   'stupid boy'

Bellulitive is very emotionally marked suffix with both diminutive and admirative meaning thus indicating something a speakers finds both small and lovely, corresponding roughly to the English adjective 'cute'.
Its strong emotional charge means its form is often changed to be more expressive. The basic suffix used to be *-mú*, but it is often reduplicated into *-múmú* or *-múm* or appended by admirative suffix to form *-múkam*, *-múka*, *-kammú* and so on. Alavan suffix *-dsúre* is also sometimes combined with these.

sout   'bird'

soumú / soumúmú / soumúm / soumúkam /
soumúka / soukammú / soumúdsure   'cute birdy'

Offensive is a stronger pejorative. Its most appropriate translation would be 'fucking' and it is usually only used when addressing someone in a fight or while being angry at someone. It too comes in various forms and can be formed quite freely. Sometimes, augmentative, pejorative and offensive can all be stacked onto each other to achieve almost comedic level of insult.

búta   'man'

bútahún   'you fucking man'

The basic suffix in MDG is *-hún*, in IDG it is not used as often and usually the suffix is *-kanka* which can cause confusion when in a conversation with MDG speakers who use it as an augmentative.
Finally, when addressing someone with respect, usually elderly or strangers in more formal contexts such as meetings, suffix *-(l)ús* is appended to human names and titles.
The suffixes are arranged in this table somewhat simplified for convenience.

	IDG	SMDG	NMDG
Diminutive	-úśë	-dsúre	-úśë
Augmentative	-V-net / -C-at		
Admirative	-kam	-kanka / -attú	-kanka
Pejorative	-ere		
Belulitive	-mú		
Offensive	(-kanka)	-hún	
Honorative	-V-lús / -C-ús		

PRONOUNS

Fach distinguishes personal, demonstrative, reflexive, reciprocal and various other pronominal forms.

They act as nouns inflecting for case and number, albeit usually irregularly. The main distinction between pronouns and nouns is that pronouns also distinguish gender (inanimate vs masculine vs feminine) in third person forms.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Personal pronouns distinguish first, second and third person with two numbers (collective is possible in third person inanimate only) and three genders. Animate is further subdivided into masculine and feminine with specific forms in singular, but a general animate pronoun in plural.

First person pronouns also distinguish inclusive and exclusive forms, but in MDG it is increasingly common to use the exclusive form in both contexts.

Singular	1st	2nd	3rd m.	3rd f.	3rd inanim.
Nominative	ńe	akh	ya	ḿe	o
Accusative	ńé	aćë	ye	ḿé	ó
Dative	ńeu	akh	yau	ḿeu	ú
Locative	ńen	akhan	yan	ḿen	on
Lative	ńéjo	aćo	yejo	ḿéjo	ójo
Genitive	euńë	eukh	euy	euḿë	euw(o)

Plural	1st incl.	1st excl.	2nd	3rd anim.	3rd inanim.
Nominative	ńer	ćë'ë / ćë	a	yo	em
Accusative	ńer	ćí	e	yó	eḿë
Dative	ńen / ńer	këjë / ćëjë	au	yú	em
Locative	ńet / ńer	ćín	an	yon	eman
Lative	ńero	ćíjo	ejo	yójo	eḿo
Genitive	euńer	eućë	euja	euy	eum

Declension of personal pronouns holds many archaisms. An interesting observation is that the genitive suffix is actually a prefix on personal pronouns.

Those pronouns ending in vowels generally follow a somewhat regular trend.

	Form
Nominative	CV
Accusative	CV́

Dative	CVu
Locative	CVn
Lative	CV́jo
Genitive	euC(V)

Pronouns ending in consonants are irregular. Second person singular and third person plural inanimate follow usual declension patterns, but *akh* has an unusual palatalisation into *ać-* rather than **aś-*. Similarly, *em* has unusual locative *eman* instead of regular **em*.

First person inclusive pronoun declines as a plural noun, but with archaic dative and locative which are sometimes regularised, especially in IDG.

First person exclusive is completely irregular. Its nominative form tends to be *ćë'ë* in IDG, but simply *ćë* in MDG (that is, it's /t͡ɕi/ and rarely /t͡ɕiː/). Regularised *ćëjë* in dative is also more common in IDG.

Collective is commonly used with the inanimate pronoun (*emuth-*) and can also, albeit less commonly, be used with the animate form (*yóth- / yúth- / yoth-*) with their usual meanings.

The reflexive pronoun uses the same declension pattern as personal pronouns ending in a vowel. With plural pronouns it, too, can be plural (regular *jar-*) and it can even be collectiv*e routh-*, but singular form can freely be used with any number of the agent.

The reciprocal pronoun is interesting as it traditionally completely lacks any case marking, but in MDG it usually gets locative, lative and genitive endings nowadays.

	Reflexive	Reciprocal
Nominative	ra	tëtë
Accusative	re	tëtë
Dative	rou	tëtë
Locative	ran	tëtë / tëtën
Lative	rejo	tëtë / tëto
Genitive	eur	tëtë / tëteu

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Demonstrative pronouns distinguish between proximal and distal deixis, and they, too, are inflected for gender. They have plural and collective inflection. Animate pronouns also have a specific form used for groups of beings of mixed gender.

Proximal	Masculine	Feminine	Inanimate	Plural mixed
Nominative	nambúta	namar	nath́ë	na

Accusative	nambúćë	namar	natʰë	ńe
Dative	nambúk	namar	nath	nou
Locative	nambútan	namar	natʰën	nan
Lative	nambúto	namaro	natʰo	ńejo
Genitive	nambúteu	namareu	natheu	eun

Distal	Masculine	Feminine	Inanimate	Plural mixed
Nominative	papa	paḿe	outʰë	pap / papo
Accusative	pape	pamé	outʰë	pap / papó
Dative	papau	paḿeu	outh	pap / papú
Locative	papan	paḿen	outʰën	pap / papon
Lative	papejo	paḿejo	outʰo	papo / papójo
Genitive	papeuy	papeuḿë	outheu	papeu / papeuy

Formation of these pronouns is usually compound in origin. Proximal animate pronouns derive from nouns *búta* 'man' and **mar* 'woman' with an original proximal pronoun na prefixed.[6] This pronoun is preserved as the mixed plural. The gendered forms make plurals regularly and can form collective. As an example, here is feminine plural.

Proximal	Feminine
Nominative	namajar
Accusative	namajar
Dative	namajar
Locative	namajar
Lative	namajaro
Genitive	namajareu

Proximal inanimate pronoun acts as a regular noun *nath-* (in plural and collective, too) with irregular nominative singular *natʰë*. The same goes for the distal inanimate pronoun *outʰë* with a stem *outh-*.

Animate distal pronouns don't distinguish gendered and mixed plural forms as they come from suffixation of personal pronouns onto a stem *pap-* originally meaning 'human', but today broadened to include all animate beings (archaically, perhaps not even understandable to modern speakers, *jek-* can be suffixed to indicate specifically

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[6] Regular change of búta > -mbúta; *mar is today lost.

animals, thus separating the animate gender not only into masculine and feminine, but also into human and non-human). Collective is *papóth-* / *papoth-* / *papúth-*. Plural without the personal pronoun (*pap-*) is today rarely to be seen especially in MDG.

In IDG, *ou-* (*ouya-*, *ouḿe-*, *ouyo-*) is sometimes used with suffixed personal pronouns instead of *pap-*, but this is somewhat archaic.

OTHER PRONOUNS

Fach also distinguishes interrogative and relative pronouns, quite uncommon for a Island language (which usually have question particles and do not use relative pronouns) and definitely an example of Alavan influence.

Proximal	Who	What
Nominative	pap	je
Accusative	paṕë	jé
Dative	pap	jeu
Locative	pap	jen
Lative	paṕo	jéjo
Genitive	papeu	jejeu

Here, the stem *pap-* is normally used, however in MDG it is also common to use *búta* 'man' and *pelau* 'woman' instead of it as 'who (of men)' and 'who (of women)'. The inanimate form declines as a personal pronoun ending in a vowel with regular genitive while the animate form has a declension of a regular noun.

Relative pronouns are the same in form, but usage of *búta* and *pelau* is more common and also to be found in IDG, although more rarely. They have regular number morphology: plural is *pap-* and *jér-*, collective *paputh-* and *jéth-*.

There are also indefinite pronouns with a proclitic *ńiće* and negative forms with *ńat*. MDG (specifically SMDG) sometimes use suffix *-bele* with nouns *pap*, *búta*, *pelau* and *je* to mean 'all, everyone', but there is a special noun *waw* with that meaning (not distinguishing gender).

NUMBERS

Fach number system is quite simple. Distinction between cardinal and ordinal numbers exist as ordinal numbers use a proclitic *tú* between a numeral and a noun. Also, cardinal numbers come in front of a noun, while ordinal numbers follow usual modifier placement after a noun.

three eyes	a third eye
na khajë	khajë tú na
three eye	eye ORD three

Nouns use singular morphology after cardinal numbers.

Form	Number (12)	Number (10)
të'	1	1
jekha	2	2
na	3	3
ar	4	4
math	5	5
ót	6	6
remekke	7	7
ta	8	8
ekh	9	9
eya	A	10
an	B	11
óthót	10	12
óthót të'	11	13
óthót ey	12	14
óthót na	13	15
óthót ar	14	16
óthót math	15	17
nout	16	18
óthót remekke	17	19
óthót ta	18	20
óthót ekh	19	21
óthót eya	1A	22
óthót an	1B	23
ey óthót	20	24

Fach uses a duodecimal base. Addition is achieved by putting a number on a right side of a bigger one, multiplication by adding it to the left side as is demonstrated by example between 10 and 20 (16 is exceptionally *nout*) Number two is usually *jekha*, but it becomes *ey* next to other numbers.

VERBS

It is common of Island languages to have relatively uninflected nouns and heavily inflected verbs, almost to polysynthetic degree. However, Alavan and languages

under its strong influence often follow a rather curious system where verbs are marked for aspect, and tense information is conveyed by adverbs. Another Island language, Hunu'i uses this system, but the two aspects have inherit tense information of past and non-past without adverbs. Similar system exists in Fach where verb forms without adverbs indicate tense, time and aspect information, but with addition of adverbs tense (and sometimes time) information is lost. Without adverbs, aspectual information is implicit, while through usage of adverbs it becomes explicit.

Other than that, verbs are not heavily inflected having only some older morphology. Derivational morphology is well developed, especially using prefixes on verbs of motion and location.

TENSE & ASPECT

Verbs in Fach have multiple forms which encode tense, time and aspect. When used without temporal adverbs, they have defined temporal and aspectual meaning.

The tenses are present, past and future. Present indicates actions that are happening in the same time period as speaking, future shows future actions and past marks actions that have already finished.

Other than that, all the forms also indicate time of the day of all the actions. Time information is diurnal or nocturnal. Their exact meanings depend on tense.

Diurnal indicates actions that are happening the whole day in present, but in future diurnal means 'until tomorrow' and with the past tense it means 'yesterday during the day'.

Nocturnal is 'until tonight' in present, 'this night, tonight' in future and 'last night' in past.

Time prefixes are somewhat limited in meaning as their tenses have very specific time frames when used on their own, but with temporal adverbs they mean simply 'during the day' and 'during the night'.

With no time prefixes, there are only three tenses: "normal" present (usually with temporal adverbs), perfective past used with short, finished actions in past (but not yesterday or last night) and "normal" past tense which is rarely used today instead being replaced by diurnal and nocturnal forms with adverbs.

All tenses without time prefixes are almost exclusively used with temporal adverbs.

Form	Meaning
au- + -jë	'yesterday'
au- + -//	'today (in daytime)'
au-	'until dawn'
ho- + -jë	'last night'
ho- + -//	'until tonight'
ho-	'tonight'

-jë	past tense
-//	present tense
reduplication + -jë	perfect past

Prefixes *au-* and *ho-* become *au'-* and *ho'-* before vowels.

Past suffix usually causes palatalisation or is simply lost.

Future suffix is actually a disfix deleting the final vowel if there is one. Otherwise, it is also unixpressed.

For example, a verb *yamb*ë 'to find' has all the forms merged:

auyambë	'found yesterday'
auyambë	'is finding today'
auyambë	'will be finding until dawn'

Reduplication means repetition of the first syllable.

makh > mamaśë

If a word begins with /b/ it becomes /mb/.

bem > bembeŕë

Rare verbs with /i/ as a vowel change it when reduplicated.

śínrë > śuśínrë

In SMDG, reduplication of /f/ is /p/ (of either origin).

than /fan/ > pathan /pafan/

Meanings with temporal adverbs will be discussed below.

ADVERBS

Verbs usually go with adverbs in five forms: present diurnal, present nocturnal, present and perfect past tense. Here, they are used mostly as aspectual markers rather than markers of their tense.

Present diurnal either marks actions happening during the daytime or simply durative or progressive actions. Diurnality can be emphasised by an adverb *espeńis* 'by day'.

Nocturnal form of present tense shows actions in the night time.

Unmarker present tense usually only comes with habitual markers to indicate gnomicity, as well as with markers of stories to set a scene.

Perfect past tense marks perfect, short-lived actions.

Oblik	Značenje
e'ańíkh	'right now'
per	future
re	past
wa	present
ṕiṕi	present habitual
reṕë	past habitual

woikh (woikh)	far-away past
tesnún	beginning of a story
núnus	an old story, myth

The adverb *e'ańíkh* is only used with the present tenses.

Next three adverbs usually come with diurnal and nocturnal present tenses and perfect past tense to form all the future, present or past forms that do not exist in the plain form. For example, other than specific meanings of 'until down' and 'tonight', future tense has no simple form. Similarly, as past and present tenses also have very limited meanings on their own, adverbs expand them.

They rarely come with perfect past to form present perfect, future perfect and pluperfect (there is already a separate adverb for that one).

Habitual adverbs always use present tenses with habitual meaning, perfect past indicates frequentative.

The adverb *woikh* is used to indicate actions that happened before some other action in past.

Final two adverbs are very limited in scope, *tesnún* begins a story and is usually replaced by past tenses of any kind after the first sentence establishing the setting.

Similarly, *núnus* shows a very old story, not from a speaker's personal knowledge or of experience of somebody they know, it is usually used with very old stories and myths.

When speaking, it is common to only use adverbs with the first verb and using just the plain verb form for the rest of a discourse until the tense changes.

Adverbials come anywhere in a sentence, usually between subjects and verbs if not emphasised.

Here are example sentences with all the tenses, simple or adverbial. With temporal adverbs, all present forms can also come with diurnal and nocturnal prefixes with no change in meaning other than specification of the time of the day, but in habitual forms addition of these prefixes indicates they were indeed habitual and not gnomic.

Ńe authaśë kaṗë. Ńe authakh kaṗë.
I dug a mountain yesterday. I am digging a mountain the whole day.

Ńe authakh kaṗë.
I will dig a mountain until dawn.

Ńe hothaśë kaṗë. Ńe authakh kaṗë.
I dug a mountain last night. I am digging a mountain until the
night.

Ńe authakh kaṗë.
I will dig a mountain tonight.

Ńe thaśë kaṗë. Ńe thakh kaṗë.

I dug a mountain (for a long time).   I am digging / dig a mountain.

Ńe thathaśë kapë.
I dug a mountain.

Ńe e'ańíkh thakh kapë.
I am digging right now.

Ńe per thathaśë kapë.   Ńe per thakh kapë.
I will have dug a mountain.   I will dig a mountain.

Ńe re thathaśë kapë.   Ńe re thakh kapë.
I had dug a mountain.   I dug a mountain.

Ńe wa thathaśë kapë.   Ńe wa thakh kapë.
I have just dug a mountain.   I dig a mountain.

Ńe ṗiṗi thathaśë kapë.   Ńe ṗiṗi thakh kapë.
I dig a mountain (e.g. every day). I dig a mountain (e.g. all the time).

Ńe reṗë thathaśë kapë.   Ńe reṗë thakh kapë.
I used to dig a mountain   I used to dig a mountain
(e.g. every day).   (e.g. all the time).

Ńe woikh (woikh) thathaśë kapë.
I had already dug a mountain.

Ńe tesnún thathaśë kapë.   Ńe tesnún thakh kapë.
And there was I, having   And there was I,
dug a mountain.   digging a mountain.

Ńe núnus thathaśë kapë.   Ńe núnus thakh kapë.
Once upon a time,   Once upon a time,
I dug a mountain.   I was digging a mountain.

VOICE

There are four verbal moods in Fach. Active is the unmarked form of a verb.
Reflexive and reciprocal are today primarily expressed by pronouns, but modal
prefixes are still required as a vestige of an earlier modal system.
Exception is the usage of the reflexive in intransitive verbs where it means 'alone'. In
MDG this usage is extended to transitive sentences as well.
The only mood still marked solely by prefixation is passive which turns agents into
subjects of a now intransitive verb.

Passive is today rarely used in MDG where changing word order and case marking have a more important role, but in IDG it is of increasing importance as the case system is getting more and more reduced in form and usage.

Form	Mood
//-	active
na-	reciprocal
sa-	reflexive
e-	passive

Prefixes *na-* and *sa-* become *ne-* and *se-* when a verb's first vowel is front.
All prefixes become *n-*, *s-* and *e'-* in front of vowels in IDG, but *na'-*, *sa'-* and *e'-* in MDG (pronounced without the glottal stop, just hiatus).

    Ńe wa khoi aćë
    1.sg.NOM PRES love 2.sg.ACC
    I love you.

    Ńer wa sakhoi tëtë.
    1.pl.incl.NOM PRES RECP-love RECP.ACC
    We love each other.

    Ńe wa sakhoi re.
    1.sg.NOM PRES REFL-love REFL.ACC
    I love myself.

    Akh wa ekhoi.
    2.sg.NOM PRES PASS-love
    You are loved.

PREPOSITIONAL VERBS

Prepositional verbs are intransitive verbs expressing motion or location of their subject. Their require prefixes showing that position.
Nouns can express exact location using the postposition of the same origin or a different one. They usually use locative to mark location and lative to mark motion, but *mu* uses nominative, and *ḿe* uses nominative instead of locative only.
A postposition *khí* can only use lative.

    in a house   into a house
    math ḿe   matḿo ḿe

Archaically, locative is to be used for motion, too, with a special form of postpositions indicating motion. Today this can only be seen in some expressions.

    into a problem
    nahetten ḿé

Prepositions are basically required with every verb of motion or location.

Postposition	Case	Prefix	Meaning
mu	NOM	mís-	towards
h́e	NOM / LAT	h́e-	in(to)
noim	LOC / LAT	noim-	on(to)
khú / hú	LOC / LAT	khú- / hú-	above
ou	LOC / LAT	ou-	under
khí	LAT	khí-C / kh-V	away, of, out
aćë	LOC / LAT	aće-C / ać-V	around, about
wathakh	LOC / LAT	wekh-	through

There is also a postposition *nath* meaning 'with, together with' and *inath* / *jath* 'without' using nominative, but they do not have a prefixal version.

The postposition *khú* can also be *hú* in IDG, but MDG only know *khú* (that is /hu/).

All postpositions without a specific form depending on an initial sound of a verb add a glottal stop if they end in a vowel and the verb starts with it or they delete the final consonant if they end in a consonant and the verb begins with one.

> He is walking aimlessly the whole day.
> Ya aćautanwë.
> 3.sg.m.NOM around-DIU-walk

> You ran into under the house (a basement or a hole under a house).
> Akh re h́epë'ë math́o ou.
> 2.sg.NOM PAST in-run house-LAT under

MOOD

Fach shares a system of moods indicating subordinate and relative clauses with Alavan. They are all marked by either a particle or syntactical changes.

Indicative is a base mood showing real actions. It uses no marking.

Irrealis doesn't have much use outside of clauses, but it can mark unreal actions in conditional sentences and be used with future markers to show improbable future events.

Optative marks wishes, it is usually used for requests, expression of one's personal needs and to mark things that need to be done.

Necessitative is today, similarly to irrealis, limited to clauses as it's primary meaning has mostly been taken by optative. It can still mark actions that ought to be done, perhaps with a greater emphasis on external rules that require it to happen rather than speaker's personal wish. It is also used epistemically in combination with irrealis (remnant of its earlier meaning).

> She should be sleeping.

Ḿe san aće taħë.
3.sg.f.NOM NECC IRR sleep

She must be sleeping.
Ḿe san taħë.
3.sg.f.NOM NECC sleep

Imperative marks commands, but it is not considered to be very strong in expression as it can be used even in more polite settings.

Moods have their particles usually at the start of a sentence or following subjects (temporal adverbs come before them).

Particle	Mood
//	indicative
aće	irrealis
írís	optative
san	necessitative

If the subject of a particle doesn't match the one of verb, the verbal one is added afterwards in accusative.

I want to go away.
Ńe írís khítanwë.
1.sg.NOM OPT away-go

I want them to go away.
Ńe írís e khítanwë.
1.sg.NOM OPT 2.pl.ACC away-go

Imperative is formed without a particle. Instead, second person pronouns or names are simply put in accusative.

Go away!
E khítanwë!
2.pl.ACC away-go

Verb can be used on its own to form imperative. This formation is more common in IDG than in MDG. It can be considered a bit ruder, especially in MDG.

Go away!
Khítanwë!
away-go

Indicative, irrealis and necessitative are also used in subordinate and relative clauses. There, indicative markes actions that are really happening, irrealis actions that couldn't be happening, and necessitative actions that should be happening, but speakers isn't completely sure.

Irrealis is, therefore, a negative form, necessitative a "maybe" form, and indicative a positive form of a verb in a clause.

I see a man eating.

Ńe wa an búćë pap wa píthë turóyë.
1.sg.NOM PRES see man-ACC who.NOM PRES eat food-ACC

I see a man who is probably eating. (I cannot really see.)
Ńe wa an búćë pap wa san píthë turóyë.
1.sg.NOM PRES see man-ACC who.NOM PRES NECC eat food-ACC

I see a man who is (probably) not eating.
Ńe wa an búćë pap wa aćë píthë turóyë.
1.sg.NOM PRES see man-ACC who.NOM PRES IRR eat food-ACC

In conditional sentences, irrealis is actually irrealis, necessitative marks possibility and indicative realis.

If I drink, I will urinate.
Sér ńe wa ug, surek.
if 1.sg.NOM PRES drink urinate

If I drink, I might urinate.
Sér ńe wa ug, san surek.
if 1.sg.NOM PRES drink NECC urinate

If I drank, I would urinate.
Sér ńe wa ug, aćë surek.
if 1.sg.NOM PRES drink IRR urinate

If I had drunk, I would have urinated.
Sér ńe re ug, aćë surek.
if 1.sg.NOM PAST drink IRR urinate

NEGATION

There are multiple negation tactics in Fach.
Nominals are negated by a particle *ńat*. It can also be used with verbs in a specific construction 'without doing x'. This word is also used as a particle 'no'.

A woman ate a fish without removing its skin.
Pelau re hopíthë enou ńat kha enaufaśë.
woman-NOM PAST NOCT-eat fish-ACC without remove fish_skin-ACC

In clauses, irrealis marker is usually used as negation, but it has a certain degree of uncertainty associated with it so it can be replaced by Alavan *pe'i* (MDG) or *pé* (IDG)[7] to indicate that not only does the speaker think it is not possible for an action to occur, they are fully sure of it and have witnessed it.

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[7] IDG also uses *é* in this context.

Usually verbs are negated by *é* placed in front of a verb. It can be reinforced by *pe'í* / *pé*.[8]

> I'm not talking to you right now.
> Ńe e'aníkh é (pe'í) authath akh nath.
> 1.sg.NOM right_now NEG (NEG) DIU-talk 2.sg.NOM with

Finally, imperative always uses *pe'í* / *pé*, but there is a specific imperative negation *thum*, a verb meaning 'to hit', but originally meaning 'to kill'. It is used as a rude way to tell someone to stop doing something or to warn someone to not do an action under any circumstances.

> Stop talking! / Don't you dare talking!
> Aćë thum jethath!
> 2.sg.ACC hit talk

Negation *pe'í* / *pé* is sometimes also used in serialisation without *é*, more commonly in MDG.

ADJECTIVES

Fach adjectives are actually stative verbs which come after their nouns. They are usually inflected for tense as normal verbs when used predicativelly, and they can come in one of three forms when used attributively:

Tense	Form
Present	-//
Future	-
Past	-jë

This inflection is only sometimes used to indicate features that have been lost (in past) or will come (in future). They are then combined with *per* / *re* / *wa*.

> A fish is small. / Fish are small.
> Enou (ṗiṗi) ṁíćë.
> fish (HAB) be_small

> A small fish is swimming this whole night.
> Enou ṁíćë e'aníkh ho'ú.
> fish be_small right_now NOC-swim

> A grown-up fish is swimming this whole night.
> Enou re ṁíćë e'aníkh ho'ú.
> fish PAST be_small right_now NOC-swim

Combining an adjective *ṁíćë* with a noun produces meanings 'which used to be x' or 'soon-to-be x'

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[8] Again, IDG can also use *é ap* or *ép* instead of *é pé*.

My soon-to-be wife is happily walking by me and talking to me.
Pelau per ńićë euńë e'ańíkh at howetanwë hothath ńe nath.
wife FUT be GEN-1.sg right_now be_happy NOC-through-walk NOC-talk
1.sg.NOM with

AFFIX ORDER

Despite not having much morphology, it is important to know the order of Fach
prefixes on verbs.

PREPOSITION	TIME	VOICE	STEM	TENSE
mís-	au-	sa-	yambë	-//
Ńer per mísausayambë tëtë.				
1.pl.incl.NOM FUT toward-DIU-RECP-find RECP.ACC				
We are going to meet tomorrow.				

SYNTAX

Fach is a head-initial language with some head-final elements remaining from its
much more stereotypically head-final proto-language.
Generally, heads come at the beginning of a syntagm, but cardinal numerals
precede their nouns, and the language uses postpositions instead of prepositions.

NOMINAL SYNTAGMS

Modifiers follow nouns they come with.
    a patient face
    núrbauw gejemur
    face be_patient

    a face of your fiancé
    núrbauw rékkeneu eukh
    face fiancé-GEN GEN-2.sg
Genitive personal pronouns can come before nouns they modify.
    a face of your fiancé
    núrbauw eukh rékkeneu
    face GEN-2.sg fiancé-GEN
Similarly, cardinal numbers always precede nouns.
    three capes
    na tít

three cape

Fach uses postpositions rather than prepositions.

On my plants there is a strange powder.

euńë nahun noim eyambë euśuth ewaus.

GEN-1.sg plant-LOC on PASS-find piece-COLL be_strange

Newer adpositions are, however, prepositional and always use genitive.

after dawn

mítínoim kekkeu

behind dawn-GEN

Syntax of nominals rarely changes, but it is possible to alter it to achieve a poetic effect or simply add emphasis.

SIMPLE SENTENCES

A simple sentence is constructed as subject - verb - object.

We will observe him tonight.

Ćë hośekh ye.

1.pl.excl.NOM NOC-observe-FUT 3.sg.m.ACC

Modal and temporal adverbs are added in following order:

subject - temporal adverb - modal adverb - verb - object

They can be fronted to emphasises them.

Usually, we eat outside, but today we will eat inside.

Ṕiṕi ćë píth́ë turóyë ńimba, athuw ńer hopúth turóyë sarusba.

HAB 1.pl.excl.NOM eat food-ACC outside today 1.pl.incl.NOM

NOC-eat/FUT food-ACC inside

Fach generally uses fronting to mark emphasis.

A child loves dirt.

Ouśë píṕi khoi nathaśë.

child-NOM HAB love dirt-ACC

Dirt is what a child likes.

Nathaśë ouśë píṕi khoi.   /   Nathaśë píṕi khoi ouśë.

dirt-ACC child-NOM HAB love   /   dirt-ACC HAB love child-NOM

It is common to use VS order in intransitive sentences with no other elements, but only if a subject is a noun, not a pronoun.

A killer is lying.

E'ańíkh aukhathan thumpë.

right_now DIU-lie killer

The word order tends to be free and SPO structure isn't respected even when no elements are emphasises.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

A very common method of joining multiple predicates in Fach is serialisation. The language practically lacks conjunctions even though some words can be used in similar fashion.

Serialisation is used with modal verbs.

> I can leave you at sea.
> Ńe tanwë kha aćë sén aćë.
> 1.sg.NOM be_able leave 2.sg.ACC sea-LOC around

If subjects of the two predicates differ, they are added in front of their respective predicates.

> I want you to die a horrible death.
> Ńe éppet akh thah nońath nońath.
> 1.sg.NOM want 2.sg.NOM die be_bad be_bad

Adverbs are also expressed through serialisation as can be seen in the last example.

Multiple actions happening in the same time are also expressed using serialisation.

> I was cleaning my boat yesterday listening to their argument.
> Suppéyë auseṕṕë ńe auśejë yo augújë.
> boat-ACC DIU-clean-PAST 1.sg.NOM DIU-hear-PAST 3.pl.NOM DIU-argue-PAST

All verbs other than the first one could also be used in their base form.

> I was cleaning my boat yesterday listening to their argument.
> Suppéyë auseṕṕë ńe śe yo gújë.
> boat-ACC DIU-clean-PAST 1.sg.NOM hear 3.pl.NOM argue

Serialisation is required with verbs of speaking, perception and so on.

> Gods think you are blinded by anger.
> Śínrë jethan akh ímisak kanabba sahathathańë.
> god-PL think 2.sg.NOM be_blind cause PERF>be_angry-PAST

It is also used to indicate cause with a noun kanabba as in the last example, or to show motivation with hośńis.

> They killed their parents in sleep to be able to be together.
> Yo re hothunśen euy sarrendel hośńis peśtésypu nahath.
> 3.pl.anim.NOM PAST NOC-kill GEN-3.pl.anim. parent<PL.ACC order be_able be_together

Subordination is usually achieved by special conjunctions and use of clausal moods. Conjunctions come at the start or the end of a clause where adverbs would usually go.

> When I still loved you, it was pure.
> Ńe reṕë khoi aćë jey oikhú, sepponⁿë.
> 1.sg.NOM PAST.HAB love 2.sg.ACC still when be_simple-PAST

> Even though sailors lost their catch, they must have still had hope.
> Éndeśe biyíṕë woikh i'i' énauⁿë, re san sende jey.
> even_though sailor<PL PLUPERF PERF>lose catch-ACC PAST

NECC be_hopeful still

Relative clauses are formed by relative pronouns which take case and postpositional marking appropriate to their theta-role in a relative clause. Only subjects, agents and direct objects can be replaced by a relative clause.

> A man who you supposedly gave a poison to is walking around alive!
>
> Búta pap wea akh aćë autouśë króweććë e'aníkh aćetanwë a'!
>
> man who get 2.sg.NOM IRR DIU-give-PAST poison-ACC right_now around-walk be_alive

Fach uses serialisation and separated sentences more often than subordinate or relative clauses which earns it a reputation of being "simpler" than their Alavan neighbours.

VOCABULARY

Lexically, Fach is far removed from its other Island siblings. It only preserves a small part of its inherited vocabulary with around 70% of it coming from Alavan.

Today, most common methods of forming new vocabulary items is through affixation. There are many important productive affixes, some can even be applied automatically.

| than | 'to think' | > | thamṕe | 'thinker' |
| krówette | 'to poison' | > | krówetteṕe | 'poisoner' |

These mostly change meanings of verbs or nouns, but they very rarely change their word class. This is usually achieved by simple affix-less transformation. Every verb can also be a noun indicating abstract concept of the verb or some item.

| gújë | 'to argue' | > | gújë | 'argument' |
| ćiṕë | 'to smell' | > | ćiṕë | 'smell; smelling' |

Nouns meaning people can transform into adjectives.

| fó | 'boy' | > | fó | 'to be a boy; as a boy' |
| nu' | 'island' | > | nu' | 'to be an island; to live on an island' |

Transformations can also affect other parts of speech.

| sarusba | 'inside of' | > | sarusba | 'the inside' |

Compounding isn't very common, usually collocations are used instead.

ADAPTATION OF BORROWINGS

Alavan loanwords change their phonological shape to fit Fach phonology. This usually means replacing Alavan /ẹ, ọ/ with either /e, o/ or /ɛ, ɔ/, replacing /ʊ/ with /w/ and removing hiatus (in older borrowings before in MDG hiatus became common after the loss of glottal consonants).

A more interesting part of adaptation is semantical. Oftentimes, borrowed vocabulary changes meaning or crashes with the existing one.

As an example, a group of lexemes related to 'situation; problem' will be examined.

The earliest word having to do with this idea is *ewakhen* which originally meant problem, but its meaning has weakened to mean just 'state, situation', usually it is used to describe a situation as a result of some happening, quite neutral in meaning. There is also a word *krikuňë* meaning simply 'event' in the most neutral way, but with a connotation of something short in duration.

Two words of foreign origin have taken much of the meaning: *naha* and *nahette*. Both come from Alavan, and *nahette* is derived from *naha* with suffix *-ette* often associated with negative states.

The word *naha* means 'case, situation', but more in a sense of an unusual happening or a situation a person found themselves in which has to be dealt with. It has a connotation of weirdness and uncommon events.

Similar word without such a strong connotation of mystery is a somewhat rare word *krikne* originally meaning 'story', but today mostly meaning 'case'.

On the other hand, *nahette* means simply 'problem, conundrum': a negative situation.

Two other words can also be added to this family: *éndet* and its suffixed form *éndetette*.

The word *éndet* is very wide in its meaning. It covers everything from a death in a family to a famine. Its base meaning is of something terrible happening and causing a miserable situation. The emphasis is on misery it creates, thus it can be extended to mean simply 'misery' or 'poverty'.

Its derivative *éndetette* is used to indicate bigger mishappenings. It can mean 'accident, extinction, end of the world', but is usually restricted to smaller unfortunate events which are more active than those marked by *éndet*: an accident, a battle, a murder…

All these words cover very specific meaning on a spectrum of 'state'. The abondance of synonyms comes from borrowing, but also from assignment of meanings once words have already entered the language.

As can be seen from the examples, Alavan derivational morphology is also borrowed with words and can sometimes be productive in Fach.

For example, *khawette* 'doubt' is derived from *khou* 'to doubt' using suffix *-ette* even though these words do not exist in Alavan and the root is Fach in origin.

EXAMPLE SENTENCES

Here are five sample sentences taken from "Just Used 5 Minutes of Your Day":

- **#292**
- **"I've got another confession to make: I'm no fool."**
- **Ńe san a' jethath waw të' apë: ńe é pe'í sempur.**
- 1.sg.NOM NECC must say more one truth-ACC 1.sg.NOM NEG NEG be_stupid
- I must say another truth: I am not stupid.

- **#592**
- **"She doesn't like to swim in the sea during the winter."**
- **Ḿe ṕiṕi é eyambë rékke h́e ú nath oikh h́e tókeu.**
- 3.sg.f.NOM HAB PASS-find love-NOM in swim with time-NOM in winter-GEN
- She isn't found in love with swimming in time of winter.

- **#846**
- **"Who was Bill seen by in his house?"**
- **Bilë euy math h́e pap au'ańë?**
- Bill-ACC GEN-3.sg.m house-NOM in who DIU-see-PAST
- Who saw Bill in his house yesterday?

- **#918**
- **"Sione eats a lot of fish, doesn't he?"**
- **Sione ṕiṕi ṕíth́ë waw waw enou, apa ńat apa?**
- **Sione HAB eat lot lot fish-ACC truth NEG truth**
- Sione usually eats a lot a lot of fish, truth or not truth?

- **#1725**
- **"Then Anansi had to ask for forgiveness, lest they put him in prison."**
- **Anansi re san kasbe ganeńë jahë sende pe'í esaruspekkaus.[9]**
- Anansi PAST NECC beg liberation-ACC then hope NEG PASS-lock_in_prison
- Anansi had to beg for liberation then hoping he won't be put in prison.