GRAMMAR OF FĀRUM LANGUAGE

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INTRODUCTION

Fārum is a language of the city of Fār, as its name says, but also of this city-state's surroundings, especially of the nearby town of Ezermat. The countryside is today largely populated by Kuči people who speak unrelated Kuči language, while the population speaking Fārum is more and more limited to the city itself, and even there an increasing number of lower class people converse in Fārum less and less. The language is part of Mu group of Island languages, related to those spoken on Archipelage. Its classest relatives are therefore other members of Mu language.

The language is part of Mu group of Island languages, related to those spoken on Archipelago. Its closest relatives are therefore other members of Mu language subfamily, mostly also spoken in coastal city-states.

Fārum shares many characteristics of the group, namely somewhat agglutinative structure, verb-final word order and more complex consonant clusters than usually found on Archipelago.

As a language of a strong city-state on an important trade route, many different languages have influenced Fārum, but its influence on them is also strong.

PHONOLOGY

Fārum language is phonologically quite a typical member of Mu subfamily, with a moderate consonant inventory, but its vowel system more unique in this part of the world.

CONSONANTS

Consonantal phonemes of Farum are found in the following table.

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Guttural
Nasals	m	n			ŋ	
Plosives	bр	d t	(f)	С	k g	q
Fricatives	v f	z s	ſ	ç	х	
Vibrants		r				
Approximants		I		j	ς	•

There are some parts of this table that warrant additional comments.

Sound [p] is exclusively found in loanwords as a phoneme and as an allophone of /b/ in front of voiceless sounds.

Sounds /c, ç/ are barely phonemic: they are in complementary distribution with /k, x/. They appear in front of front vowels and after them in front of a consonant or a word end.

tuhib	[tuçib]
mik	[mic]

There are only some rare words where they appear at the end of a word or in front of a consonant without a front vowel.

ojk [oc]

Some consonants get voiced between vowels, but for /q/ this is solely allophonic.

āqu [ɑːɕu]

It is also voiced after /ŋ/ in which case /ŋ/ too changes to its uvular counterpart.

ohkenqa [oçcenga]

It should finally be noted that the sound /x/ has a very big allophonic range.

It is [h] or [ħ] at the start of a word.

hādaq [haːdaq~ħaːdaq]

It becomes [h] between vowels.

tohan [tohan]

It is otherwise [x] unless it is preceded by /o, a/ and followed by a consonant or word boundary or if it is simply followed by /g/.

 $\bar{a}h$ $[\alpha:\chi]$

All these allophones are replaced by [ç] in already discussed circumstances.

āhin [aːçin]

VOWELS

Fārum has a basic five-vowel system, but all vowels can be long, short or nasalised. These do not influence vowel quantity, at least not in the main dialects.

	Front	Back
Closed	i	u
Mid	ę	Q
Open		а

Vowel /a/ is truly back [a].

Vowels have some positional variants regardless of their length or presence of nasalisation.

All non-open vowels reduce next to /q/, that is /i, e/ become [e], and /u, e/ turn to [e] unless they are stressed. When stressed, mid vowels reduce in the same manner, but /i, u/ become [e].

[dcəːɪ] dupi

When next to Γ , all non-open vowels reduce as when stressed.

biγbi [bɪγbi]

Nasalisation carries with itself allophonic length, that is all long vowels are also longer for about 1,2 to 1,5 times length of a short vowel.

šũba [[ũːbɑ]

Long vowels are around 2 times length of short vowels when stressed, but reduce to around 1,5 when unstressed.

There is no vowel reduction based on stress, not even word finally.

PHONOTACTICS

Fārum generally only allows clusters of two consonants and no word-initial or word-final clusters, except of a set of finals which occur very rarely.

Basic syllable structure can be extrapolated as (C)V(P) at the start and the middle of a word. Here C marks all consonants, V all vowels, but P excludes /v, f, j, η , g/ which occur only in onsets. (Except that /j/ appears in suffix /ɑ:j/ and / η / also appears in / η k, η q/ and geminate, but they are still more restricted in their positions compared to other consonants.)

At the end of a word, syllable structure generally conforms to the formula (C)A(G). Here A marks all vowels except of long /e, ο/. G stands for all consonants included in P plus rare final clusters /nt, ηk, ηq, rb, rd, rt, rk, rq, lb, lt/.

Of final consonant clusters, the most common one is definitely /nt/ as it appears in a suffix -int, such as in *nēnt* 'to be wrong'.

ACCENT

Fārum is one of only Mu languages that preserve opposition between high and low tone, but in Fārum it has been reduced to a pitch accent system. Rules of this system are somewhat complex, but it tends to be predictable ones they are applied. In the following description, acute accent marks an intrinsic high tone in the first step. Every word is arranged into bisyllabic foots.

a:rísfi¢i a:rís | fi¢i

Each foot must have at least one high tone by nature. If there are only low tones in a foot, the first one will become a high tone unless Proto-Mu stress rules can cause the opposite to happen (which is very rare).

a:rís | fisi a:rís | físi

If the opposite were true, that is, if there were two high tones, the second one would become a low tone.

*[éːbé [éːbe

Once every foot has at least and at most one high tone, stress is assigned to the first syllable of a foot.

'aːrís | ˈfíʕi

If a foot is incomplete, that is, it has only one syllable, it will not receive stress.

'aːrís | feς¹

In practice, these rules should be applied to every word form once all other morphological and morphonological changes have already happened. High tones which might by nature be present on stems or suffixes will have different end results. For example, a monosyllabic verb with no base high tone is going to be suffixed with two different endings (-ta and -tá) to create different results:

u: + -ta 'ú:ta u: + -tá 'u:tá

¹ A different form of the same word.

The same suffixes on a stem with a high tone acts differently.

túm + -ta 'túmta

túm + -tá 'túmta

Finally, the exact pronounciation of these melodies should be considered.

Stressed syllables with a low tone are allophonically pronounced with a high tone, too. Thus, melody /'V.Ý/ is really ['Ý.Ý]. In speech, this sounds as if a foot has two consecutive stressed syllables. A sequence of a high tone followed by a low tone sounds a lot more like "normal" stress.

In monosyllabic words, original distinction between stressed high and low tones is still somewhat visible on long vowels which have a stable high tone if it is there by nature, and a falling tone if it is actually an allophonically raised low tone. Compare:

originally low tone: for [fô:]

originally high tone: notice n

The distinction is not present in all dialects or amongst all the speakers of those which do distinguish them.

An unstressed syllable outside a complete foot which still has a high tone has the high tone allophonically lowered to a mid tone. It is distinguished from a low tone in this position by a sharp fall of pitch that the latter one experiences, while the high-toned one appears to somewhat rise after a low tone, that is stagnate or fall a bit after a high tone.

Accent system is subject to a high degree of dialectal differentiation.

MORPHONOLOGY

Fārum does not preserve much morphonology from its ancestral language, but some changes it has developed are quite present in affixation.

Hiatus-breaking

There are two strategies for breaking vowel clusters: insertion and deletion.

Historically more present insertion means that between two vowels, /j/ or /v/ is added based on frontness, that is backness of the second vowel.

Insertion is generally applied in nouns.

Deletion means that one of the vowels gets deleted. Which one is a trickier question. If there is an affix beginning with a vowel, it usually causes deletion of the final vowel of a stem.

$$a:du + -i$$
 $a:di$

There is great variety in what happens once another vowel-initial suffix gets added, with suffix -í, it is the one that causes deletion of other vowels regardless if they are part of a stem or of a suffix.

a:di + -ax a:dix

Intervocalic Changes

Under the umbrella term "intervocalic changes" two changes are grouped: delabialisation and voicing.

Delabialisation is a rare change of word-intial /f/ to /x/.

Much more common sound change is voicing which affects following consonants:

Allophonically, /x, q/ also get voiced.

Vowel levelling

Vowel levelling is probably the most common sound change that can happen when a suffix is added (or removed). It generally operates by raising or lowering mid and closed vowels to harmonise with the vowel in the syllable directly after.

$$V[+close] > V[+mid]/_.V[+mid]$$

$$V[+mid] > V[+close]/ .V[+close]$$

This is further helped by some synchronically inactive changes (they are active in those forms where they have historically happened, but do not influence new words).

In practice, this just means that final vowel of a stem matches a vowel found in a suffix in its height.

Change is usually from mid to closed, and very rarely vice versa.

It often happens that the change is reversed by further addition of suffixes:

Vowel levelling happens after all other changes.

ROMANISATION

Tables of consonants and vowels with romanisations are given here:

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Guttural
Nasals	m	n			ň	
Plosives	bр	d t	č	k/jk	k g	q
Fricatives	v f	z s	š	h / jh	r	1
Vibrants		r				

Approximants	I		j	ς
--------------	---	--	---	---

	Front	Back
Closed	i	u
Mid	е	0
Open		а

Some additional comments are warranted.

Palatal plosive and fricative are romanised as $\{k, h\}$ as they almost never contrast with them. In those few situations where they do, they are marked as $\{jk, jh\}$. Vowels are spelled with a macron when long $(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{u}...)$, and with a tilde when nasalised $(\tilde{a}, \tilde{e}, \tilde{u}...)$.

Place of base high tones is marked with an underdot in dictionary forms of nouns and in base forms of suffixes. Here, they will only be marked in suffixes in order to reduce the number of diacritics.

WORD STRUCTURE

Fārum lexical words are structured in a way specific to Mu languages in general. Every noun or verb consists of a stem with derivation affixes, a conventional ending and a series of grammatical affixes (almost all of which are suffixes). For example,

danubdatelantin 'of the progress'

danub-dat-ela-n-tin

walk-manner-noun-GEN-DEF.INANIM.GEN

has a stem danub-, derivational suffix dat-, conventional nominal suffix ela- and some grammatical suffixes.

Conventional endings are a series of suffixes found on almost all nouns and verbs except of some loanwords and very common native words. They are to some extant derivational as they can change meanings and they determine if a word is a noun or a verb.

īnib	ēn-ib	'muscle'
īmbuč	ēn-buč	'dinner'
ēn	ēn-Ø	'meat'

All three of these words have the same stem, but different conventional endings which change their meanings. However, because they are extremely common, conventional endings do not only act as methods of derivation, but are almost integral to a noun or a verb, influencing their declension or conjugation. A word with no conventional endings is seen as having a zero-ending.

Following conventional endings, come grammatical suffixes which are somewhat agglutinative and follows certain order in both nouns and verbs:

STEM	convention	deminutive	case	article + case	clitics
(future)	STEM	passive	negative	tense	

In following chapters, grammatical affixes found in these word classes will be discussed.

NOUNS

Nouns in Fārum distinguish three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. Other than that, they are inflected for one of three cases (nominative, accusative and genitive), definitness and specificity. Various postpositions can be argued to expand the case system as will be shown in an appropriate chapter.

Nouns also have a distinct diminutive form and add various clitics.

GENDER

Gender system of Fārum is a continuation of the original system found in all Island languages with a split between inanimate and animate nouns. This is not the truest gender system as the distinction is only reflected in pronouns (where there was also a specific form for female humans), but contact with more heavily gendered Kuči language has influenced the system in Mu languages.

Fārum therefore has three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. They distribution is, however, semantically motivated.

Feminine gender is the most narrowly defined one. It includes female people and animals (base forms are generally masculine, but not always), names of all plants (except of some older monosyllabic nouns, which are neuter, and flowers, which are masculine) as well as fruits, crops and general edible plant products. Finally, this gender includes soil and earth, as well as all the waters. The last two categories are semantically the weakest and there are certain irregularities in that which nouns are included in the feminine gender, and which are neuter.

Masculine gender is also quiten restricted. It includes male people and all things classified as living that are not feminine. This is a remnant of its original function as a general animate gender.

Finally, neuter nouns cover all other semantic fields. It is the most general and the most open gender in the language.

Gender of nouns is visible in articles, pronouns and adjective inflection.

Very few nouns have multiple possible genders or can change their gender to reflect different meanings.

DECLENSIONS

Nouns have three cases: nominative, accusative and genitive.

Nominative is generally used to mark subjects of intransitive and agents of transitive verbs.

Accusative solely marks patients of transitive verbs, but it can also be used to mark time of an event with nouns showing periods of time.

Nominative and accusative are sometimes mixed in practice as their distinction is fading away in some dialects. Not to mention they are always conflated in plural. Genitive is an *oblique* case responsible for all other roles in a sentence. It is used with all postpositions, as well as patient of some verbs (frequently replaced by a postposition in this use). Its original role as a marker of possessors is today usually replaced by a postposition, but it is still used on its own for certain constructions (for example, it is often used with feelings, with descriptive possession or in subordinate clauses with infinitives) and with pronouns. Other than these rarer uses without a postposition, it is very much a postpositional form of nouns.

Nouns inflect for cases via suffixes. Nominative is formed with a disfix removing the final vowel of a stem. Accusative has no ending: it is the base form of a noun. Genitive is formed with a sufix -n, while plural cases use -r and -l.

Oftentimes, nominative form is quite disconnected from the base form as found in accusative. Usually, changes taking place are of the following shape:

NOM ...
$$C_1V_1C_2$$
 izir

ACC ... $C_1C_2V_2$ isri

Sometimes it just means addition of a vowel (mam, mama), but there can also be further sound changes (šunab, šūba).

Thankfully, one does not need to remember every noun's nominative and base form separately as most nouns have conventional suffixes which always change predictably.

NOM taklal dallal nēlal

ACC takla dalla nēla

Full declension table looks like this:

Sing	jular	Plu	ıral
Nominative	//	Nominative	
Accusative	-Ø	Accusative	-r
Genitive	-n	Genitive	-l

Here are some examples of nouns suffixed with different conventional endings or with zero suffix as a conventional ending.

Sing	jular	Plu	ıral
Nominative	būjab	Nominative	
			hūhar

būbar

Accusative	būba	Accusative	
Genitive	būban	Genitive	būbal

Singular		Plural	
Nominative	hūvīl	Nominative	
Accusative	hōvēla	Accusative	hōvēlar
Genitive	hōvēlan	Genitive	hōvēlal

Sing	jular	Plu	ıral
Nominative	šunab	Nominative	
Accusative	šũba	Accusative	šũbar
Genitive	šũban	Genitive	šũbal

There are some nouns with irregular case endings, usually only some additional changes to a stem even with conventional endings, but application of genitive singular and all plural endings is regular.

Nouns with an ending -ēs have irregular genitive plural.

Singular		Plural	
Nominative	mamēs	Nominative	
Accusative	mamīzi	Accusative	mamīzir
Genitive	mamīzin	Genitive	mamēzel

ARTICLES

Nouns in Fārum inflect with three different sets of articles. Definitness is expressed by a set of suffixes. It is not added to personal names or family members, but it does come with demonstratives and in possession (outside of family).

Indefinitness is, however, split between two sets of words.

On one hand, indefinite unspecific article is a verb niga 'to be any' which shortens to ni- when used attributively. Specific indefinite article is historically $t\bar{a}$ 'one' inflected with what is now the definite article. It can come on any side of a noun, but it is more and more often put at the end.

A house is on fire. (one of houses in our neighbourhood: specific)

Tāt mattan untob. / Mattan tāt untob.

SPEC.NEU.NOM house be_on_fire/

house SPEC.NEU.NOM be_on_fire

A house can catch fire. (any house in general: unspecific) Untobiq ō niča mattanîš.

be_on_fire-INF be be_any.NEU house-GEN.LOC Specific indefinite article is given here:

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Nominative			
Accusative	tā	tāt	tābā
Genitive	tān	tāntin	tābān

Definitness is marked on a noun itself with somewhat more complex article endings. Both noun and article are inflected for case, but generally only nouns change based on number, except with neuter forms.

Masculine	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-ā	-ā
Accusative	-ā	-ā
Genitive	-ān	-ān

Neuter	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-āt	-at
Accusative	-t	-at
Genitive	-tin	-tin

Feminine	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-bā	-bā
Accusative	-bā	-bā
Genitive	-bān	-bān

Masculine and neuter articles cause final vowel deletion or insertion of hiatus-breaking /j/ and /v/. Which one is going to happen is somewhat unpredictable. Masculine nominative causes insertion, but in accusative the stem vowel is deleted. Similarly, in neuter nominative usually causes insertion (for example, $g\bar{e} > g\bar{e}v\bar{a}t$ 'thing'), but rarely deletion is also present ($n\bar{o} > n\bar{o}t$ 'grass'). Nouns with conventional endings stick to these rules, but other nouns might break them.

Neuter accusative causes no vowel changes except that if a noun ends in $/\alpha$, it will lengthen.

Here are some examples:

Masculine	Singular	Plural
Nominative	āhā	āhirā
Accusative	āhā	āhirā

Genitive	āhinān	āhilān
----------	--------	--------

Neuter	Singular	Plural
Nominative	olčavāt	olčarat
Accusative	olčāt	olčarat
Genitive	olčantin	olčaltin

Feminine	Singular	Plural
Nominative	۲āsbā	۲āzirbā
Accusative	۲āzibā	۲āzirbā
Genitive	۲āzinbān	ςāzilbān

POSTPOSITIONS

Fārum has many postpositions all of which use the genitive case. Here, only those which cause changes to nouns will be discussed.

In general, line between postpositions and case markers is hard to draw, but it can be arbitrarily decided that case markers in Fārum cannot use another case marker as their base and cannot be stressed as an independent word. This excludes most postpositions as they all use genitive marker on nouns and can be emphasised by stress. However, some postpositions have ellided the genitive ending and rarely therefore distinguish between ellided form (which cannot receive independent stress) and an independent form (which does not ellide and which does take stress).

```
in (a) ship
      gobtanin šē
      ship-GEN inside(EMPH)
      in (a) ship
      gobtanĩš
      ship-GEN.LOC
These elliding postpositions are šē, buh, hō and fī.
Out of these, the most complex set of rules relates to šē:
      article ellision
             masculine: -ān šē > -ūš
             neuter: -tin šē > -tuš
             feminine: -bān šē > -būš
      pronoun ellision
             2nd person: uqun šē > võš
      general ellision
             -Vn šē > -V[+nasalised]š
                           kawin šē > kawīš
```

īqubun šē > īqubūš

General ellision also happens to all other pronouns regularly.

Postpositions buh and hō simply cause general ellision in all cases, but don't change their own shape.

Postposition fi also causes general ellision, but loses its own nasalisation to become simply fi.

No changes are present in plural, only singular.

OTHER FORMS & COMBINATIONS

There are two more forms important for nouns in general. These are diminutive ending and topic clitic. There are some other clitics in the language, but this is the only one that has a very prominent grammatical lore.

Diminutive is formed by the suffix -i coming after conventional suffixes. It does not inflect for case or number. Articles following it show case marking, however nominative and accusative articles are never added in singular.

It is used quite commonly with its base meaning, that is to indicate smallness, lack of danger, perhaps even in a pejorative sense. It is also used as a marker of closeness, practically required with names and titles of one's own family members and often used amongst friends and when talking to children.

'dear child'	Singular	Plural
Nominative	āhi	āhijā
Accusative	āhi	āhijā
Genitive	āhijān	āhijān

With masculine article, insertion is irregular using /j/ instead of /v/. The same goes for neuter nominative and plural forms.

Topic marker -mã is added to the end of a noun complex and is used to mark topic, that is a theme of a sentence.

As for my muscles, they are quite small.

Nen īniburat-mã gāva mikāj.

1st.SG.GEN muscle-PL-DEF.NEU.NOM=TOP very be_small-PRES It is very important in forming relative clauses.

PRONOUNS

Fārum splits its pronoun system into three major categories: personal, demonstrative and other pronouns. The main distinction between personal and other pronouns is their ability do cliticise. Demonstrative pronouns are the only one that can be used attributively.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

There is quite a complex system of personal pronouns. There is a politeness distinction in second person and clusivity distinction in first person.

All personal pronouns have an additional instrumental form. It is solely used to indicate agents in passive sentences.

The foolish man was silenced by (them) people.

Tēttob fovā šubnũč γοč qovab.

be_foolish man-DEF.NOM silence~PASS-PERF 3.pl.MASC.INSTR people Many plural pronouns derive from their singular counterparts by regular affixation, only real exceptions being first person plural exclusive and third person masculine forms.

Declensions of most pronouns are also quite uniform following these scheme:

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	CV:	CVr
Accusative	CV:	CVr
Genitive	CVn	CVI
Instrumental	CVč	CVč

Only exceptions are second person singular non-polite and first person plural exclusive forms.

It should also be noted that no pronouns distinguish nominative and accusative.

Singular	1st	2nd non-polite	2nd polite
Nominative			
Accusative	nē	oq	ā
Genitive	nen	uqun	ān / an
Instrumental	neč	uquč	āč / ač

Plural	1st inclusive	1st exclusive	2nd non-polite	2nd polite
Nominative				
Accusative	ner	kī	uqur	ar
Genitive	nel	kīn	uqul	al
Instrumental	neč	kīč	uquč	ač

Singular	3rd masc.	3rd fem.	3rd neu.
Nominative			
Accusative	۲ā	mē	gō

Genitive	ςan	men	gon
Instrumental	γač	meč	goč

Plural	3rd masc.	3rd fem.	3rd neu.
Nominative			
Accusative	ςō	mer	gor
Genitive	γon	mel	gol
Instrumental	γοč	meč	goč

Second person singular polite form sometimes analogically loses its long vowel in genitive and instrumental as in other pronouns.

Other than their full forms, pronouns also have special clitic forms, usually only in nominative and accusative, but some have a genitive form, too. These are used when they are not emphasised, but the exact rules will be discussed in sections about Syntax.

Singular	1st	2nd non-polite	2nd polite
Nominative	n	o / q	
Accusative	ne	o / ojk	а

Plural	1st exclusive	2nd non-polite
Nominative		Ø
Accusative	ki	uqr

Singular	3rd masc.	3rd fem.	3rd neu.
Nominative	ς	m	b
Accusative	ςa	me	vo

Plural	3rd masc.	3rd neu.
Nominative	ς	ē
Accusative	çο	ē/ẽ

Second person singular non-polite pronoun also has a special clitic genitiv *uqn*. These forms never come on their own; they are used after the first word of a sentence as clitics.

I told it to him many times.

Emaš-γa-vo-n gāva qūqur tatfīč.

and=3.sg.MASC.ACC=3.sg.NEU.ACC=1.sg.NOM many time-PL say-PERF

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Demonstrative pronouns are the only category of words used attributively that inflect for gender, case and number of governing nouns. That said, the way modern system arose is quite evident in their modern forms: feminine singular and plural derive from masculine forms with article endings. Similarly, masculine and neuter plural inflection is often emphasised by addition of article endings.

Proximal (anaphoric) forms are as follows:

Singular	masc.	neu.	fem.
Nominative			
Accusative	nā	not	nābā
Genitive	nān	nutin	nānbān
Plural	masc.	neu.	fem.
Nominative			
Accusative	nar / narā	nutir / nutirat	narbā
Genitive	nal / nalān	nutil / nutiltin	nalbān

Distal (and cataphoric) forms are given below:

Singular	masc.	neu.	fem.
Nominative			
Accusative	ā	āt	ābā
Genitive	ān	ātin	ānbān
Plural	masc.	neu.	fem.
Nominative			
Accusative	ar / arā	ātir / ātirat	arbā
Genitive	al / alān	ātil / ātiltin	albān

OTHER PRONOUNS

Finally, Fārum distinguishes two interrogative pronouns making a distinction between human (masculine concord) and non-human (neuter concord) pronouns.

	who	what
Nominative	eba	eʕal / ēl
Accusative	ebā	eʕala / eʕla / ēla
Genitive	ebān	eʕalan /

	eʕlan / ēlan
--	--------------

Non-human pronoun has two possible forms: $e \cap al$, whose accusative is either $e \cap al$ or $e \cap al$, whose accusative is always el.

There are also indefinite pronouns formed by a verb *niga* 'to be any' which is also used as an indefinite article.

I could eat whatever.

Niča eςla nabčiq ō neš.

be_any-NEU what-ACC eat-INF be 1.sg.GEN.LOC

Negative forms use a special word idā 'not one' used only as an attribute.

From the hill he saw no one.

Fîtqantin tuh idā ebā kōbiqo.

hill-GEN-DEF.NEU.GEN from not one who-ACC see-NEG-IMPRF

A reflexive pronoun should also be mentioned here with clitic forms in brackets.

	reflexive
Nominative	//
Accusative	fību (fī)
Genitive	fĭbun (fĭ)

NUMBERS

As all Mu languages, Fārum changed its original twelve-base system to a more common ten base. There are some remnants of this change in formation of more complex numbers.

Form	Numeral
tā	1
eς	2
nā	3
or	4
mat	5
ūl	6
ōlt	7
dā	8
ēq	9
ēqta	10
ān	11

ūdul	12
ēqta nā	13
ēqta vur	14
ēqta mat	15
ēqta ūl	16
ēqta ōlt	17
nāl	18
ēqta īq	19
īςi	20
īγi tā	21
najēqta	30
or ēqta	40
šukrun	100
šūl	1000

First twelve numbers have their own forms (with 'ten' seemingly deriving from 'nine + one'). Addition is achieved by putting a number on a right side of a bigger one (as is demonstrated by example between 10 and 20), multiplication by adding it to the left side (examples being 30, 40).

Number four becomes vur after other numbers, but its usual form is or. Similarly, number nine turns from $\bar{e}q$ to $\bar{i}q$. Exceptional forms are eleven $(\bar{a}n)$, twelve $(\bar{u}dul)$, eighteen $(n\bar{a}l)$, twenty $(\bar{i}\Omega)$ and thirty $(na)\bar{e}qta$.

Ordinal numbers use suffix -olan (with insertion to break hiatus).

This is a second time he will not come.

Dāzāč eγolan qūqu-mã γā emašbih.

already two-ORD time=TOP 3.sg.MASC.NOM come-NEG-FUT

VERBS

Fārum verbs are conjugated for tense, polarity, voice and infinitive forms.

As nouns, they also tende to end in conventional endings, albeit less often. These verbs often have unique inflection in certain categories.

It is important to note that, unlike nouns which always have one form in nominative and one in all other categories, in verbs the base form (corresponding to present tense) is also used with all suffixes beginning in a consonant with another stem used for vowel-initial suffixes.

Imperfect	tatfin-qo	hāv-qo	mataq-qo	ēzan-qo
Future	tatn-ah	hāvu-h	matq-ah	ēzn-ah

The two stems are referred to as present and non-present stem.

In infinitive, two stems change between nominative nad accusative, with non-present stem in nominative and present stem in all other forms.

Present	tatfin-	hāv-(āj)	mataq-(āj)	ēzan-
Nominative	tatn-iq	hāv(u)-iq	matq-iq	ēzn-iq
Accusative	tatfin-qa	hāv-qa	mataq-qa	ēzan-qa

Two verbs should be mentioned as exceptional: verb *Caqbāj* 'to combine, to bind, to tie' which uses non-present stem in present, and *duhfāj* 'to sleep' with special stem in present (duhf-), and a different one for all other forms (duhū-). There are a few of other verbs following this same pattern, but they are very rare.

TENSE & ASPECT

Tense and aspect are connected in Fārum. There are three tenses: present (indicating present actions or general truths), future (showing future actions) and past tense (relating to past happenings and states).

I love you.

Qātob-o-n.

love=2.sg.ACC=1.sg.NOM

I used to love you.

Qātobgo-o-n.

love-IMPRF=2.sg.ACC=1.sg.NOM

I will love you.

Qātobah-o-n.

love-FUT=2.sg.ACC=1.sg.NOM

Perfect and imperfect forms are distinguished in past tense, but these aspectual distinctions can also appear in future and present tense through compounding. Perfect past indicates a telic action in past. It can be an action that was stopped or done to completion, but due to presence of another aspectual distinction the implication of stopping or, simply, lack of completion is often seen. Length of the action is not of importance, but this aspect cannot be used with temporal markers that indicate duration.

It is formed by suffix -č to verbs whose stems end in vowels (with additional nasalisation), but on consonant-ending stems suffix is -eč unless that consonant is a

nasal, in which case it is lost with nasalisation of the preceding vowel. Despite its form, this suffix uses second, that is, non-present stem.

She ate it yesterday.

Dēnak-vo-m nabčeč.

yesterday=3.sg.INANIM.ACC=3.sg.FEM.NOM eat-PERF

On the other hand, imperfect marks actions that lasted for a longer period of time in past (often with temporal markers) or an atelic past action, perhaps a one that was happening as a background action of another action (for compound tense usually used in this situation see below) or simply an action a speaker desires to describe as lengthy, durative or stative (progressive meaning is generally covered by compounding).

Imperfect uses suffix -qo.

She was eating it yesterday.

Dēnak-vo-m nabučqo.

yesterday=3.sg.INANIM.ACC=3.sg.FEM.NOM eat-IMPERF

She used to dance a lot.

Ādeς šaršarvengo.

a lot dance-IMPRF

Furthermore, Fārum has two more aspects: inchoative and terminative. In their base form, inchoative describes actions that are just starting or are about to begin. Inchoative is formed with suffix -zat which causes nasalisation of the final vowel when suffixed to words ending in nasals.

I am about to combust, help me!

Ũvĩzat, baňīr!

be on fire-INC help-IMP

Terminative marks events that have just occurred. They can be expanded through compound tenses, even though the base terminative form is already a compound of a special terminative form and verb 'to be small'.

Where is he? I have just heard him talk.

E sũtqiš ō? Tatfinqa-n hāvuqād mik.

QUEST where be speak-INF-ACC=1.sg.NOM hear-TERM be_small Present and future in their base forms have no aspectual distinctions on their own.

Present uses no ending except that in almost all verbs without a conventional ending (and rarely in those which do have it) there is suffix -āj.

Future uses suffix -ah and in some common verbs there is also prefix uC- which changes its form based on the following sound:

Sounds	Final result	Example
t, s, š, č	kt	sũ > uhtūňah
k, h	hk	hūvtọb > uhkūvtobah
h	V	hādqāq > uvādqāqah

Ø	q	avūkin > aqavōkenah²
r, g, Ϛ, N	br, ňň, dʕ, d	γaqbā̞j > udγaqvah
N	dN	nabuč > udnabčah
b, d	bb, bd	dãd > ubdãdah
b	db	bintunāj > udbentonah

As one can see, there are many possible exceptions.

IMPERATIVE

Imperative is used to give commands, but it can also be used in lighter requests as it is not very strong in its meaning (it tends to be intensified by clitics).

It is formed via suffix -ta/-da for transitive verbs and no suffix for the intransitive ones.

Sit down and eat dinner!

Tavor ēš tāt īmbuči nabučta!

tavor-Ø ēš tā-t īmbuči-Ø nabuč-ta

sit down-IMP and SPEC.NEU.ACC dinner-ACC eat-IMP

Imperative of verbs with the suffix -āj is formed by removing it from the stem.

NEGATION

Fārum marks negation on the verb itself by different suffixes.

I don't like what you're saying.

Uqun tatfinqan e\al nen tanuqub aduda.

2.sg.GEN say-INF-GEN what.NOM 1.sg.GEN thought.in run-NEG.PRES Most forms use -i to negate, but present has its own negation -ta, as do imperfect (-danač) and imperative (-ki with nasalisation).

Form	Tense	Meaning
ūbih	future	I will not stand
ōbeda	present	I am not standing
ōbedanač	imperfect	I did not stand
ūbĩč	perfect	I did not stand up
		I am not about to stand
ōbizat	inchoative	up
ōbeqād mikta	terminative	I have not just stood up
ōbĩki	imperative	do not stand

² It also causes LH melody in the first foot.

Negation can be emphasised by proclitics such as $\bar{\imath}da$ 'not one' (for transitive verbs, put in front of the main verb, not to be confused with $id\bar{a}$ marking negative nouns and pronouns) or $\bar{\imath}da$ hafi $\bar{\imath}i$ 'not one step', $\bar{\imath}da$ emaši $\bar{\imath}i$ 'not one stroke' and similar constructions with verbs of human movement on land or in water. Similar constructions are used for other verbs of motion.

Don't you move one step! Īda hafi\(\text{i}\) babar\(\text{aki!}\) not one step-ACC move-NEG.IMP

VOICE

Fārum has two voices: active and passive expressed morphologically.

Passive is used to promote patients into the position of a subject while the agent of that sentence gets omitted or retrieved using instrumental case.

It is often used to form general truths and therefore rarely sees use outside of present, perfect (usually past frequentative construction) and imperfect.

Formation of passive is rather complicated. Basically, it includes copying the last vowel-consonant sequence, but if a verb ends in consonant-vowel sequence, then it is copied and the consonant is repeated. There is a certain degree of freedom in its formation as reduplication is sometimes changed *ad-hoc*.

It uses the present stem as a basis for reduplication, but the stem itself is reduced to non-present.

I was lied to.

Nēbnīč nē.

lie~PASS-PERF 1.sg.NOM

Let us consider the formation of the verb in the last sentence: nēbnīč is a form of the verb nēvin 'to lie'³. It is firstly reduplicated to *nēvinin, then the stem is replaced with the non-present one *nēbnin. Afterwards, suffix -č is added, but it causes nasalisation of the last vowel and loss of final /n/: nēbnīč. Compare this form with active perfect nēvīč.

Coincidentally, negative active perfect has the same form: $n\bar{e}bn\tilde{i}c$ ($n\bar{e}bn-i-c$, as opposed to $n\bar{e}bn\tilde{i}c$ < $n\bar{e}bn-i-c$), while negative passive is $n\bar{e}bni\tilde{i}c$ ($n\bar{e}bn-i-c$), but this rarely causes trouble in communication.

Reflexive used to be a special form in Mu-languages, but today they usually use reflexive pronouns.

I wash myself, he stinks, I do not!

Fībun tuh nē mumaš, Sā čučunt, nē īda čučunta!

REFL-GEN out 1.sg.NOM wash 3.sg.MASC.NOM stink 1.sg.NOM not_one stink-NEG.PRES

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³ In Fārum, this is a transitive verb.

INFINITIVES

Infinitives are going to be described in terms of their function in the section about syntax. Here, only their formation is going to be considered.

There are three infinitives marking actions that happen in the same time as a verb in a main clause or are generally true (present infinitive), action that happen before (past infinitive) or after (future infinitive).

Present infinitive uses suffix -iq (and non-present) in nominative, but -qa- (and the present stem) in other cases.

I heard him talk to you.

γan-mã-o-n tatfinqa hāvũč.

3.sg.MASC.NOM=TOP=2.sg.ACC=1.sg.NOM talk-INF-ACC hear-PERF Past infinitive adds suffix -zač (-zača-) to present stem. It causes loss of final nasals and nasalisation of preceding vowels.

It's the man who ate my bird meat!

Nen tāt sālbuča fō-mã kabnād ēzāzačā ō Çā!

1.sg.GEN SPEC.NEU.ACC bird_meat-ACC man=TOP steal

take-INF.PST-ACC-DEF.MASC-ACC be 3.sg.MASC.NOM

Future infinitive is made by putting the main verb into a special future infinitive form ending in -qafī or, in a shortened form, -qaf and using an auxiliary verb 'to be' in its present infinitive after it.

I dreamt we'll meet.

Nel-fî-n kōbeqafī ōqa šunureč.

1.pl.incl.NOM=REFL.ACC=1.sg.NOM see-FUT.INF be-INF-ACC dream-PERF Future infinitive is formed the same as the present infinitive, just with the future prefix on verbs that usually form future in such a manner.

Negative infinitives are made with a special construction shown in the section about compound tenses.

COMPOUND TENSES

Fārum array of compound tenses is quite big. They tend to be formed using verbs 'to be', 'to stand' and a form $n\bar{e}q$.

For these purposes, here is the completely irregular conjugation of the verb 'to be'.

Positive	Negative	Tense
goh	ovih / gotah	future
ō	ōta	present
ōqo	ōdanač	imperfect
ōvač	ovizač	perfect
ōzat	ovizat	inchoative
ōqād mik	oviqād mik	terminative

ō	õki	imperative
ūq, ōqa-	ōqan nēq	infinitive present
ōzač, ōzača-	ōzačan nēq	infinitive past
ūqafī ūq / ūqaf ūq	ūqafī ōqan nēq	infinitive future

Negative future can be formed regularly or irregularly.

Firstly, terminative is formed from a special form of a verb with auxiliary verb 'to be small'. It distinguishes all tenses.

Form	Tense	Meaning
taqbeqād mikah	future	I will have just hunted
taqbeqād mik	present	I have just hunted
taqbeqād mikqo	imperfect	I was finishing hunting
taqbeqād mikeč	perfect	I had just hunted
taqbeqād miksat	inchoative	I am about to stop hunting
taqbeqād mikqād mik	terminative	I stopped hunting

Terminative terminative present (the last form) is used relatively often despite its form. Inchoative terminative has all possible compound forms as will be demonstrated below.

Inchoative uses infinitives with inchoative form of the verb 'to be'.

Form	Tense	Meaning
taqbeqaf ōzat	future	I will start hunting, I will be about to hunt
taqbiq ōzat	present	I am starting to hunt, I am going to hunt
taqbezač ōzat	past	I was about to hunt
taqbeqād mikqaf ōzat	terminative future	I will be about to stop hunting
taqbeqād mikiq ōzat	terminative present	I am now going to finish hunting
taqbeqād miksač ōzat	terminative past	I was about to stop hunting

Forms of infinitive present can be combined with different forms of the verb 'to be' to achieve different meanings. In present, this forms progressive. The same is true for imperfect, but here the progressive form is generally used for background actions,

that is actions that are used to introduce another action that is actually in focus. Finally, it can be combined with perfect to form past frequentative.

Future progressive can be formed, but it is generally replaced by plain future tense.

Form	Tense	Meaning
taqbiq goh	future	I will be hunting
taqbiq ō	present	I am hunting right now
taqbiq ōqo	imperfect	As I was hunting
taqbiq ōvač	perfect	I used to hunt

Finally, negative infinitives don't use the usual negative suffix -i, but instead a special negative verb neq (accusative neqa-) which causes the original verb to go into genitive form of its infinitive (in whichever tense).

Form	Tense	Meaning
taqbeqaf ūqan nēq	future	me going to hunt
taqbeqan nēq	present	me hunting
taqbezačan nēq	past	me having hunted

ADJECTIVES

All adjectives are verbs. Technically, all verbs in Fārum can be used attributively, but non-stative ones are rarely used so. Most adjective-like verbs have conventional endings -tob and -int, but not all of them.

As all adjectives are verbs, they can be used predicativelly with all usual verbal morphology or attributively with adjectival morphology (really, this is also verbal morphology). In this position, they inflect for gender and number of nouns that follow them and use their non-present forms.

Gender	Singular	Plural
masculine	-Ø	-(r)
neuter	-ča	-čar
feminine	-m(i)	-mir

In masculine plural, -r only surfaces after vowels, otherwise its unmarked. Feminine singular is -m after vowels and -mi after consonants.

I see a warm sea.

Obdoqča tāt sā-mã kōbe.

be warm-NEU SPEC.NEU.ACC sea-ACC=TOP see

I see a woman who is running.

Ādum tābā mari-mã kōbe.

run-FEM SPEC.FEM.ACC woman-ACC=TOP see

To form future and past tenses in attributive position, infinitives are used with attributive forms of the verb 'to be'.

I see the woman who ran a lot yesterday.

Dēnak āde f āduza č ōm maribā-mã kōbe.

yesterday a_lot run-INF.PST be-FEM woman-ACC-DEF.FEM.ACC=TOP see Future usually simply uses present infinitive and not future infinitive plus another copula.

SYNTAX

As most languages in the Mu-branch, Fārum is a consistently head-final language where nominal attributes precede nouns, postpositions follow them and verbs generally end a sentence.

NOMINAL SYNTAGMS

Generally, nouns are preceded by articles, demonstrative pronouns and numbers.

a house

tāt mattan

INDEF.SPEC.NEU.NOM house

that house

āt mattanāt

DIS.NEU.NOM house-DEF.NEU.NOM

the three houses

nā mattanirat

three house-PL-DEF.NEU.NOM

Adjectives, that is attributively-used verbs, come before nouns.

the silent animals

šubtončar tohāqurat

be silent-NEU-PL animal-PL-DEF.NEU.NOM

However, if there is also an article or a pronoun coming before a noun, it can either be preceded or followed by adjectives.

a silent house

šubtonča niča mattan / niča šubtonča mattan

be_silent-NEU be_any-NEU house / be_any-NEU be_silent-NEU house

Possessors expressed by genitive or postposition buh also precede nouns.

my father's birthhouse

nen čečban āhīmattanāt

1.sg.GEN father-GEN child-GEN-house-DEF.NEU.NOM

They are separated by nouns attributes.

my father's birthhouse on the top of the hill nen čečban fĩtqantin dῖςqãš āhĩmattanāt 1.sg.GEN father-GEN hill-GEN-DEF.NEU.GEN top-GEN.LOC child-GEN-house-DEF.NEU.NOM

SIMPLE SENTENCES

Fārum usually follows subject - object - verb word order, however a more appropriate way of thinking about it is topic - comment order, that is, topic of a sentence is always fronted except when its the verb itself, in which case topicalisation is only achieved by intonation.

The cow saw a mouse. (The cow was the one who saw a mouse.) γāsbā-mã niča nibqu kōbẽč. cow.DEF.FEM.NOM=TOP be any.NEU mouse-ACC see-PERF

The cow saw a mouse. (It was a mouse that the cow saw.) Niča nibqu-mã γāsbā kōbẽč.

be_any.NEU mouse-ACC=TOP cow-DEF.FEM.NOM see-PERF
In general, even though any topic can be fronted, SOV order is rarely broken despite
presence of case marking and other signifiers of grammatical roles within a sentence.

The cow saw a mouse. (It was a mouse that the cow saw).

ςāsbā niča nibqu-mã kōbẽč.

cow-DEF.FEM.NOM be_any.NEU mouse-ACC=TOP see-PERF
It is a common practice to put adverbial phrases after a subject or, alternatively, at the end of a sentence. Adverbial phrases are commonly fronted when in focus.

She lives in a house.

Tāntin mattanīš-mā-m tohāq.

INDEF.SPEC.NEU.GEN house-GEN.LOC=TOP=3.sg.FEM.NOM live It is very common practice to direct objects after verbs when they are completely deemphasised (usually only inanimate nouns). In this type of a sentence, adding personal pronouns is also common despite the object still being present.

I ate the bird, but then he wanted more of it. I gave it to him, the bird that is. Sālčit nabčeč, babrān ςãš gādini šējiq ōqa ōzat. Dāzaleč-ςa-vo-n sālčit. bird_meat-ACC-DEF.NEU.ACC eat-PERF suddenly 3.sg.MASC.GEN.LOC more.NEU-ACC wish be-INF-ACC be-INCH give-PERF=3.sg.MASC.ACC=3.sg.NEU.ACC=1.sg.NOM bird_meat-ACC-DEF.NEU.ACC

Questions are marked by intonation more than any specific word order, but adding topic clitic to the verb itself is sometimes used.

A very characteristic formulation is found in more colloquial and lower-class speech where yes-no questions are formed by repeating a verb in so-called "simple" negative form, that is negative without a tense suffix.

Will you be guarding the rock? (Or not?)

Tūdqāt eqbeq goh ovi?

stone-ACC-DEF.NEU.ACC guard-INF be.FUT be-NEG

It is increasingly common to always use *ovi* at the end regardless of a real verb in the sentence.

Question particles fill the gaps in a sentence.

What were you doing on my island?

Nen nadaqīzintuš e\la ňājqo?

1.sg.GEN island-GEN-DEF.NEU.GEN.LOC what-ACC do-IMPRF

CLITICS

Fārum conforms to Wackernagel's rule that all clitics must follow the first stressed word of a sentence. This means that clitics often break off established syntagms.

My long-lost shadows appear and disappear (don't you know).

Nen-diς ādeς niktunčar mahālelar tohniq nikniq ō.

1.sg.GEN=QUEST a_lot disappear-NEU-PL shadow-INDEF.PL appear-PRES.INF.NOM disappear-PRES.INF.NOM be.PRES

Clitics come in an established order which is as follows in simple sentences:

WORD -- indirect object -- direct object -- subject -- sentence clitics After each of these, topic clitic can come.

It was to me that he sent them.

Dātkēč-ne-mã-ē-ς.

send-PERF=1.sg.ACC=TOP=3.pl.NEU.ACC=3.sg.MASC.NOM

This differs from emphasis in which case a clitic pronoun is replaced by a full form.

I was the one who he sent them to.

Dātkēč-ē-ς nē-fĩ-mã.

sent-PERF=3.pl.NEU.ACC=3.sg.MASC.NOM 1.sg.GEN=toward=TOP

Subject pronoun can only be added if the last clitic ends in a vowel, otherwise either the subject pronoun's full form is used, or it is completely omitted. It is, however, against the rules to omit it if it can be added as a clitic.

Second person singular always adds subject clitic (unless it's emphasised) since it has a form ending in a vowel.

He sent it.

Dātkēč-vo-mã-ς.

send-PERF=3.sg.NEU.ACC=TOP=3.sg.MASC.NOM

He sent a letter.

Dātkēč (ςā) tāt istiškus-mã.

send-PERF 3.sg.MASC.NOM INDEF.SPEC.NEU.ACC letter=TOP

He was sending a letter.

Dātkengo-ς tāt istiškus-mã.

send-IMPERF=3.sg.MASC.NOM INDEF.SPEC.NEU.ACC letter=TOP

As will be discussed in a section about relative clauses, subject is expressed by genitive case there and it comes before the subject of the entire sentence in that case.

I will eat the one (man) you love, too.
Nat-γa-mã-uqn-āh nē qātobiqā udnabčah.
and=3.sg.MASC.ACC=TOP=2.sg.GEN=even 1.sg.NOM love-INF.PRES-DEF.NEU.ACC FUT>eat<FUT

It common speech, it is very common to start a discourse with words ēš 'and' and eς 'or, but, however' with all the clitics following to avoid breaking syntagms.

It was to me that he sent them.

Ēš-ne-mã-ē-ς dātkēč.

and=3.sg.NEU.ACC=TOP=3.sg.MASC.NOM send-PERF

MOODS

Fārum uses nouns to show relations that are usually indicated by modal verbs in English. These nouns are usually abstract in nature and many of them are only used in these constructions.

Nouns are usually in locative or some special form while agents are put into genitive in front of them. Most of these use copula combined with either a noun in nominative or a pronoun *what* in nominative with a relative clause in genitive (a construction archaic outside of this use).

I want what you own.

Ugun oktebdināgigan eγal nen aliγiš ō.

2.sg.GEN own-INF.PRES-GEN what-NOM 1.sg.GEN wish-GEN.LOC be An interesting construction is 'to like' using a special noun form *tanūqub* 'in a thought' and a verb *ādu* 'to run'.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

Relative clauses in Fārum come in many different forms.

Attributive clauses have already been explained in the verb section: verb simply receives gender inflection and is put in front of a noun. This form has no marking for aspect, but can receive rudimentary tense marking.

There is an archaic way of forming relative clauses where a head is not also a subject or an agent of the clause. This is achieved by putting the infinitive of a verb in genitive.

a house I bought

đũlēl nen ēzãzačan tāt mattan

money.INSTR 1.sg.GEN buy-INF.PRES-GEN INDEF.SPEC.NEU.NOM house Today it is a more common strategy to simply use nominative with a resumptive pronoun.

a house I bought đũlēl-vo nen ēzãzač tāt mattan money.INSTR=3.sg.NEU.ACC 1.sg.GEN buy-INF.PRES INDEF.SPEC.NEU.NOM house

This strategy is used very often today and can form a clause with a noun filling any role in the main clause.

I found great sorrow in words which you spoke to me with.

Ādeς kĩnĩč uqun-ne gol ād tatfīzač tatēlaltin ād.

very become_sad-PERF 2.sg.GEN=1.sg.ACC 3.pl.NEU.GEN because say-INF.PAST word-PL-DEF.NEU.GEN because

The word in the main clause usually, but not necessarily, uses a topic clitic.

My man (husband) who I lied to is very angry.

Nen nevîzač fova-mã ontob.

1.sg.GEN lie-INF.PAST man-DEF.NOM=TOP be angry

However, with nouns acting as subjects or direct objects in the main clause, it is equally common to use internally headed relative clauses. These constructions have a further restriction that the noun they are used with must be specific indefinite.

The nouns is put into the case as the relative clause dictates with a topic clitic, and the infinitive receives definite suffix and nominative or accusative marking.

Cows used to enjoy grass that grew on this field.

Çāzir nānbān taglanbuš nōbā-mã melalig ōzača altobgo.

cow-PL this.FEM.GEN field-GEN-DEF.FEM.GEN.LOC

grass-DEF.FEM.NOM=TOP grow-INF grow-INF.PAST-ACC be_happy-IMPRF Infinitives in accusative case are also used with verbs that would take conjunction that in English.

I said you should go away now.

Noquš ugun dālāš āduga tatfīč.

now 2.sg.GEN road-GEN.LOC run-INF.PRES-ACC say-PERF

Finally, other types of subordinate clauses are usually formed by adding conjunctions after fully inflected sentences.

When you left me, she found me.

Bimqũč-ne-q āqu γabeč-ne-m.

leave-PERF=1.sg.ACC=2.sg.NOM time find-PERF=1.sg.ACC=3.sg.FEM.NOM

VOCABULARY

Fārum mostly uses suffixation to derive new vocabulary. Usually, conventional endings are removed before further derivational affixes are added, but it is not necessarily so if the ending is somewhat obscured by today.

maqvin (maq-vin) + -dan > maqdan

ūvin (ū-vin) + -dan > ūvindan

Most commonly, words have only one derivational and one conventional ending (unless some of them are obscured), but it is possible for multiple derivational suffixes to be added if they form different word classes.

dāt(ed) 'road; way' > dāt-ken 'to send' > dāt-ken-dat(ū) 'sending; package'

Prefixes are very rare, but there are some productive valency-changing prefixes.

 $d\bar{\imath}\varsigma$ 'to hit, to mark' + e- -an > $id\bar{\imath}\varsigma$ an 'to be marked > to be special' There are also some very old derivational prefixes none of which are productive anymore.

tat-fin 'to say' ā-dat (< *ā-tat) 'language'

Vocabulary can also be borrowed, mostly from nearby Kuči languages or from some languages spoken on the Archipelago. They are most commonly wanderworts of unknown source found in many languages in the socially and culturally very complex area of coastal cities.

nuītu < Itian *nwýty* 'nwita plant' bakki < Atoko *pakkiD* 'high sun' čun < Kuči *đun* 'money'

DIALECTS

There are four main dialects that need to be discussed. Speech of the main city of Fār, speech of the town of Ezermat and dialects of rural areas. The last one exists on a continuum with dialects in Ezermat and work class dialects in Fār, which is the fourth main dialect.

Work class speech of Fār and rural dialects share a sound change $\{\tilde{\imath},\tilde{e}\}$, $\{\tilde{u},\tilde{o},\tilde{a}\} > \tilde{\epsilon}$;, that is they merge all nasal vowels into one front and one back. A distinction between these two is mostly in vocabulary (as rural dialects have more Kuči borrowings).

Ezermat has a distinct pronounciation of vowels, their /e o/ are often [ε ɔ] with their long versions being [eː oː]. The long /ɑː/ is distinctly [ɒː].

High class people in Fār use many Itian loanwords, as well as loanwords from other languages important in trade. They tend to pronounce dental and alveolar fricatives as non-sibilants and to merge palatals with postalveolars.

There are not many differences in grammar other than certain differences in endings or different uses of some compound tenses. Internally headed relative clauses are more common in Far and Ezermat despite them being under stronger foreign influence (of languages which do not use such constructions).

The most notable difference lies in accent whose exact pronunciation in terms of phonetic realisation. Ezermat speakers also tend to fully pronounce extrametrical high tones as actually high and in high-class speech in Fār the opposition can be ignored. Opposition in monosyllabic words with a long vowel is also pronounced quite differently between dialects.

SAMPLE 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."
- Dāzqun gāba tatfiniq nen dādīš ō: "Ne tēttobda ītāt."
- confession-GEN one_more-ACC say-INF.PRES 1.sg.GEN road-GEN.LOC be 1.sg.NOM be fool-NEG.PRES at all
- There is my way to say another confession: "I am not naive at all".
- #592
- "She doesn't like to swim in the sea during the winter."
- Mē bahqũ-hō sāntuš ūvingan tanūgũ-buh āduda.
- 3.sg.FEM.NOM winter-GEN=during sea-GEN-DEF.NEU.GEN.LOC swim-INF.PRES-GEN though-GEN=around run-NEG.PRES
- She doesn't run into a thought of swimming in winter.
- #846
- "Who was Bill seen by in his house?"
- Bill fan mattanintuš gebe eban fag kobebeč denak?
- BIII 3.sg.MASC.GEN house-GEN-DEF.NEU.GEN.LOC COM> who-GEN <COM see~PASS-PERF yesterday
- Bill was seen in his house in company of whom yesterday?
- #918
- "Sione eats a lot of fish, doesn't he?"
- Sione-dif ādef ūnar nabuč?
- Sione=QUEST a lot fish-PL.ACC eat
- Sione many fish, right?
- #1725
- "Then Anansi had to ask for forgiveness, lest they put him in prison."
- Niča ebonqan fi bimqūqih do kēmqu ēzaniq Anansi dādīš ogo.
- be_any-NEU prison-GEN into leave~PASS-NEG-FUT in_order_to forgiveness-ACC take-INF.PRES Anansi(.GEN) road-GEN.LOC be-IMPRF
- To not be left into a prison in order to, there was Anansi's way to take forgiveness.