

ΛEMVRIN EΙΔΕΡΙΑΛ

(last edited September 5th, 2006)

new stuff

- partitive construction;
- partitive and collective derivations;
- IPA instead of X-SAMPA.

I. Phonology

a. Phonemic inventory

1. Consonants

There are 19 distinct consonants (or 21 if one counts the semivowels).
(pronunciation key given in IPA, see <http://www.ling.hf.ntnu.no/ipa/full/> or <http://www.paulmeier.com/ipa/charts.html>)

p [p]

v [β], [b] after m.

t [t]

d [d]

c [k], may tend towards [c] before front vowels.

g [g], may tend towards [ɟ] before front vowels.

q [q]

č [tʃ]

even though some of the previous do not contrast in voicing, their voicing is never altered, not even allophonically. None of the stops are aspirated.

f [f]

ð [θ]

s [s]

ś [ʃ]

x [x] may tend towards [ç] before front vowels.

Fricatives are usually unvoiced. They are contrasted in length in most dialects (including the main one), which means **ff** [fː] is not the same as **f**. Other dialects however voice single fricatives intervocallically, and keep geminates unvoiced in such environments but do not lengthen them (or only slightly).

r [ʀ], also often [ʁ] or even [χ] in everyday speech.

l [l]

λ [λ] or [λj], or [j] in everyday speech.

m [m]

n [n], [ɲ] before or after palatals.

ŋ [ŋ], [ɳ] before the uvular stop **q**.

Nasals and liquids are also contrasted in length: **λλ** [λː] or [λj] is not the same as **λ**.

2. Vowels

All vowels have 2 allophones: Stressed and unstressed. Stressed vowels are lengthened to about 1.5 to 2 times the length of an unstressed vowel, depending on the speaker. Vowels are nasalised before a nasal.

There are 7 distinct vowels.

a [a: a], the unstressed version may tend towards [ə]

e [ε: ε], the unstressed version is often realised as [ə]

i [i: ɪ]

o [ɔ: ɔ]

u [u: ʊ]

y [y: ʏ]

ø [ø: ø], the unstressed version is often realised as [ə]

u and **i** also function as semivowels [w] and [j] respectively, when adjacent to another vowel.

b. Stress

Stress is on the penultimate syllable. However, stress in the root is often retained when suffixes are added (an exception is the ablative suffix, which pulls stress toward itself). To indicate the now irregular stress, the acute accent is used.

The acute accent is also used to indicate where *i* and *u* *do not* function as semivowels when they normally would, and to distinguish **íu** [iw] from **íú** [ju].

When an affix pulls stress toward itself, it is marked with a stress mark. In all other cases, stress is retained.

guís [gwi:s]

damýn [da'my:n]

c. Monophthongisation

When a root containing a rising diphthong (ending in *i* or *u*) receives an affix that pulls stress towards itself, the diphthong disappears:

daum -> **damýn**

meir -> **meramve**

but

meir -> **aiméir**

daum -> **dauma**

This does not occur in Andurian possessives:

rom + **meir** -> **rommeir**, even though stress is now on the first syllable.

When the compound loses stress to an affix however, the diphthong again monophthongises, even though it has already lost stress before:

rommeir -> **rommeramve**

d. Dissimilation

When two consecutive syllables start with the same consonant, the first one is very likely to change.

The following dissimilations often occur:

m + m -> **n + m** (*śegám + óm* -> *śeganóm*)

n + n -> **m + n**

ŋ + ŋ -> **n + ŋ**

l + l -> **r + l**

r + r -> **l + r** (*vør + yrve* -> *vólyrve*)

ś + ś -> **s + ś**

e. Rechain pronunciation

The main difference between the 'regular' and the rechain pronunciation of Lembrin is the monophthongisation of some diphthongs.

ei [e: e], or [e:j ej] when followed by a vowel

au [ɔ: ɔ], or [ɔ:w ɔw] when followed by a vowel

ou [o: o], or [o:w ow] when followed by a vowel

The r is never uvular, but always an alveolar tap or trill.

r [r]

rr [r]

The short velar fricative x turns glottal when it is syllable-final.

x [h] when syllable-final

xx [x], always!

Intervocalic non-geminated fricatives are voiced. Geminated fricatives are not lengthened.

f. Alternative romanised orthography

Since it is not always easy to type some characters used in the main romanisation of Lembrin, they are often replaced by digraphs. ć, ś, δ, λ, ŋ and ø are then replaced with ch, sh, th, lh, nh and w respectively. Optionally, doubled vowels can be used to indicate irregular stress instead of accute accents.

“ćain or neśá lan ar aŋ vøra erdis” becomes *“chain or neshaa lhan ar anh vwra erthis”*

II. Word Classes

a. The classes

There are 3 noun classes or grammatical genders (indicated with roman numerals).

b. Class I

Class I nouns describe **animate** things: humans, animals and some natural phenomena.

rom – human, man

mias – mouse

c. Class II

Class II nouns describe **inanimate** things: tools, plants, abstractions, etc.

vlande – plain

myl – wall

d. Class III

Class III nouns describe actions and states, which are described by verbs and adjectives in English.

This class is subdivided into **active (a)** and **stative (s)**. Active class III nouns would in most occasions be verbs in English. Stative class III nouns would usually be adjectives.

This isn't a very strict dichotomy, however.

dis – say – IIIa

vør – see – IIIa

gadu – happiness – IIIb

III. Cases

a. The different cases

There are 6 cases, the **nominative**, the **verbal**, the **dechticaetiative**, the **locative**, the **ablative** and the **instrumental**. The verbal is often divided into the **active verbal** and the **stative verbal**.

b. Morphology

1. Summary

	Class I	Class II	Class III
NOM			
VRB			-(i)a
DCH	-i	-u	-o or -u
LOC	-ir	-ir	-ir
ABL	-isse	-aste	-amve
INS	-ið	-yð or -ið	-ynt or -int

Only the ablative suffix pulls stress toward itself.

2. Class I nouns

The suffixes all start with an **i**. This **i** is never dropped, but when the noun already ends in **i**, only one is written.

3. Class II nouns

The **a** in the ablative suffix is dropped after a vowel. The default instrumental suffix is **yð**, but after a vowel it becomes **ið**. After an **i**, only a **ð** is added.

4. Class III nouns

This is the only class of nouns that can take the verbal case, to signify the action of the predicate. The default suffix is **-a**. **-ia** is used instead after a vowel that isn't **i** or **e**. The default dechticaetiative suffix is **-o**, but **-u** is used after a vowel that isn't **u** or **i**. The **a** in the ablative suffix is dropped after a vowel. The default instrumental suffix is **ynt**, but after a vowel it becomes **int**. After an **i**, only **nt** is added.

c. Use of the cases

1. The nominative

Semantically, one should see the patientive, agentive and vocative as 3 separate cases with the same ending, bundled under the name nominative.

The patientive is used in intransitive sentences when the subject is NOT in control of the action. The patientive is indicated by putting the patient before the verbal. It is also used in monotransitive sentences as what English speakers consider the direct object, and in ditransitive sentences as what English speakers consider the indirect object.

The agentive is used in intransitive sentences when the subject is in control of the action. The agentive is indicated by putting the agent after the verbal. It is also used in transitive sentences as what English speakers consider the subject.

rom gadua – NOM VRB – The man is happy (he is not in control).

da rom – VRB NOM – The man speaks (he is in control).

This example shows how the position of the nominative in intransitive sentences indicates whether the subject is in control or not.

mias segia rom – NOM VRB NOM – The man follows the mouse (mouse – follow – man). This ‘reversed’ order is the standard word order.

2. The verbal

The verbal turns a class III noun into the action of the sentence. It is used where English would use a verb. The difference is that a verbal is still considered a noun and functions like one.

segi – The following

segia – to follow, follows, follow

oi segia lis – you-PAT follow I-AGT – I follow you – This is an action, so the active verbal is used.

dis vana – the speaking good-VRB – Speaking is good. - This is a property/state, so the stative verbal is used.

da lis – speaking-VRB I-NOM – I speak. (da is an irregular form.)

3. The dechticaetiative

The dechticaetiative is used to indicate the theme of a ditransitive sentence, where one would use the patient or accusative in a dative language.

oi dauma lis λeruau – you-PAT giving-VRB I-AGT book-DCH

4. The locative

The locative is used primarily to indicate the location where an action takes place, but with prepositions it can be defined further, or even receive a temporal meaning.

rom da lis vlandeir – I talked to the man ‘in/at the plain’

5. The ablative

The ablative is used to indicate origin or creation, where English would use ‘from...’, ‘by...’.

meira rom vlandeste – The men come(go) from the plain.

6. The instrumental

The instrumental is used to indicate the instrument an action is performed with, where English would use ‘with...’, ‘using...’.
ða des deð eiminið – *We speak with our mouths.*

IV. Possessives and partitives

a. The possessive

The possessive is the opposite of the genitive: Instead of marking the possessor, the possessee is marked. The possessive is indicated by the prefix **Vi-** on any noun, where **V** is the stressed vowel of the possessor (eg, the antecedent).

The order of possessee and possessor decides which one is focused, and this is almost always the one which comes last.

rom oimiás gadua. – *The man’s mouse is happy.*

oimiás rom gadua. – *The man, who has the mouse, is happy.*

The possessive is not only used to indicate possession, but also for what we would consider adjectives.

aipént mias – *The mouse that possesses smallness* – *The small mouse*

b. Andurian possessive

The Andurian possessive is constructed simply by glueing the possessor and the possessee together in one word. An unstressed final vowel on the possessor may be dropped, or an epenthetic **e** may be inserted between large consonant clusters.

Assimilation may also occur (*šegám* + *tía* gives *šegántía*) It is the possessor that retains its stress, so there will almost always be a stress mark. The possessee automatically receives focus.

rómséiar – *the man’s knife*

miásgadu – *the mouse’s happiness*

lémvrinriana – *Lemurian Rianate*

šegántía - *birthday*

c. The partitive

The partitive is used to refer to the selection of a part or quantity out of a group or amount. The partitive is constructed through use of the partitive particle **yc**, which is **yg** before a voiced consonant and often shortened to **c** or **g**. The construction is *part/quantity yc group/amount*.

tive rista g entar – *two thirds of the world*

or i via aulo g mint – *the oldest of the group*

V. Derivations

a. Summary

There are quite a few nouns that are derived from others. These derivation processes are divided roughly in the following groups:

- verbal derivations;
- argument derivations;
- other.

The verbal derivations are: **incentive**, **cessative**, **iterative/augmentative**, **causative**, **reiterative**, **transitive** and **passive perfective**. They narrow down the meaning of a verb.

The argument derivations are **patientive**, **agentive**, **dechticaetiative**, **instrumental**, **ablative** and **locative**. As you can see, these correspond to the arguments a verbal can take.

There are two other derivations, the **essive** and the **potential**.

a. Incentive

1. Use

The incentive (or inchoative) can be applied to class III nouns. The meaning of the incentive is ‘beginning to...’, ‘starting to...’.

2. Morphology

The incentive is formed by using the auxiliary verbal ‘**pras**’, which also means to begin, to start.

*or li gadua η **prassa** - I begin to be happy (literally: That I am happy is beginning)*

b. Cessative

1. Use

The cessative be applied to class III nouns. The meaning of the cessative is ‘stopping to/with...’, ‘ending...’.

2. Morphology

The cessative is formed by using the auxiliary verbal ‘**fian**’, which also means to begin, to start.

*or li gadua η **fiana** – I stop being happy (literally: That I am happy is ending).*

c. Iterative/Augmentative

1. Use

The iterative or augmentative can be applied to class III nouns. Its meaning roughly corresponds to the adverb ‘repeatedly’ or ‘intensively’. The resulting noun is in class III again. It indicates a repetition of the action, or a very intensive one.

2. Morphology

The iterative is formed with reduplication. The stressed syllable of the root, without the initial consonant(s), is reduplicated and put right after the original. The original retains its stress though. The reduplicated syllable will also be monophthongised.

***δíssissa** lis – I speak repeatedly, I keep speaking.*

d. Causative

1. Use

The causative be applied to class III nouns. It indicates that the agent causes the action/property.

2. Morphology

The causative is formed by suffixing **-ég** after the root (**-éc** in the nominative). The **e** is dropped after a vowel that isn't **i** or **u**. For intransitive verbs, the former agent/patient becomes the dechticaetiative.

gaduega lis – I cause hapiness.
gaduega lis gai – I cause him to be happy.

e. Reiterative

1. Use

The reiterative can be applied to class III nouns. It indicates that the action takes place again, much like the English prefix “re-”.

2. Morphology

The transitive is formed by suffixing **–yrve**. The **y** is dropped after a vowel. The **e** is dropped if an additional suffix starting with a vowel is added.

λe śegámyrva – She is reborn.

f. Transitive

1. Use

The transitive can be applied to class III nouns. It indicates transition to an action (often a state). The English translation would probably use “become”.

2. Morphology

The transitive is formed by suffixing **–áj**. The **a** is dropped after a vowel.

li gaduaŋa – I become happy.

g. Passive perfective

1. Use

The passive perfective turns a class III noun into another class III one. It means “having been ...-ed”, and it is almost exclusively used for possessives indicating a property. Its use corresponds roughly to that of the perfect passive participle in English.

2. Morphology

The passive perfective is formed by suffixing **–amme** on the noun. This affix pulls stress toward itself.

eifredðamme lues – The stone possessing the property of having been baked – the baked stones

Note: the meaning of the **present active participle** (fe. *baking*) is conveyed by simply using the standard form of the verbal noun:

oifréð rom – The baking man

h. Patientive

1. Use

The patientive argument derivation can be applied to class III nouns.. The resulting noun is of class I or II. It is similar to the English “-ee” ending (trainee, ...). Its meaning corresponds to the person/object/... undergoing the action.

2. Morphology

The patientive is formed by suffixing **-í** after the root.

gaduí da lis – I speak to the one who is happy.

i. Agentive

1. Use

The agentive argument derivation can be applied to class III nouns.. The resulting noun is of class I or II. It is similar to the English “-er” ending (trainer, ...). Its meaning corresponds to the person/object/... performing the action.

2. Morphology

The agentive is formed by suffixing **-óm** after the root.

da dissóm – The speaker speaks.

j. Dechticaetiative

1. Use

The dechticaetiative argument derivation can be applied to class III nouns.. The resulting noun is of class I or II. It derives the theme of an action from that action.

2. Morphology

The dechticaetiative is formed by suffixing **-ýn** after the root.

oi dauma lis damyni – I give you what is given.

k. Locative

1. Use

The locative argument derivation can be applied to class III nouns.. The resulting noun is a class I or II. It derives the place where an action usually takes place from that action.

2. Morphology

The locative is formed by suffixing **-riŋ** after the root.

oi da lis disriŋir – I speak to you at the speaking place.

l. Instrumental

1. Use

The instrumental argument derivation can be applied to class III nouns.. The resulting noun is a class I or II. It derives the instrument an action usually taken with.

2. Morphology

The instrumental is formed by suffixing **-anda** after the root.

oi dauma lis ou dáumandaið – I give it to you using the thing one usually gives with (presumably, a hand).

m. Ablative

1. Use

The ablative derivation can be applied to any noun, and means “that which is from...”, “that which derives from...”, ... The resulting noun is a class I or II. It derives the instrument an action usually taken with.

2. Morphology

The ablative is formed by suffixing **-ar** after the root.

ða vlánde^ar – He who is from the plains, speaks

n. Essive

1. Use

The essive can be applied to any noun. The resulting noun is a class III noun, meaning “to be ...”.

The essive derivation is always used for single nouns. If one wants to achieve the same meaning with a noun phrase, the essive clause is used instead.

2. Morphology

The essive is formed by suffixing **-ái** after the root. It has the irregular verbal **-éa**.

li romea – I-PAT man-ESS-VRB – I am a (hu)man.

o. Potential

1. Use

The potential can be applied to any noun. The resulting noun is a class III noun, meaning “to be capable of being a ...”. It is often combined with the argument derivations, yielding slightly irregular forms.

2. Morphology

The potential is formed by suffixing **-alt** after the root. The **a** is dropped after another vowel.

The potential of an agentive is **-ónt** instead of **-óm-alt**.

ne ðissonta lis – NEUTR speak-AGT-POT-VRB I-AGT man-ESS-VRB – I am capable of being a speaker – I can speak.

VI. Number

a. grammaticalisation

Number is not considered a 100% grammaticalised. It is optional, and not marked by inflection. Instead, particles are placed before the noun they define, much like the nonreferential article. Number particles are only used to remove ambiguity or when the number cannot be derived from the context.

b. particles

The following particles may be used, but any cardinal number may also be seen as a number particle.

NOTE: the short forms are used when a pronounceable cluster is formed. If it is not pronounceable, the unshortened forms must be used.

sa, s	many (plural)
ar, r	a few (paucal)
pai	most
to, t	collective
ći, ć	every, each
me, m	none
gora, gor	a huge amount of
fli	most of
śel	many of (plural partitive)
ryl	a few of (paucal partitive)
ve, v	all
ixt	only a few, less than expected/wanted/hoped
palt	a lot, more than expected/wanted/hoped

the particles are always before the noun. Only nonreferential articles or demonstrative adjectives may go in between.

s myl – the walls

ar mias – a few mice

ći verys – every cat

VII. Tenses and moods

a. Summary

Tense and mood are always indicated by sentence-initial particles.

The tenses are relative, as opposed to the absolute tenses of English, and a lot of other languages. One cannot talk about past, present and future tenses. Instead, there are tenses having meanings like ‘before the previous action’, ‘after the previous action’, ‘at the same time’, and so on.

The tenses are: **neutral, momental, anterior, posterior, transcursive** and **reverse transcursive**. (These ‘tenses’ are sometimes closer to aspects, but they are considered of the same kind. Note that the use of the word tense in this document isn’t a 100% correct though.)

There are also 3 moods: **indicative, subjunctive** and **renarrative**.

b. The tenses

Tenses define the time an action happens relative to where the “time pointer” is. At the beginning of a text or a conversation, the time pointer is at the present. It can then be moved to any other location in time, by using either tenses or time definitions (temporal locatives).

1. neutral tense

The neutral tense is used when the time the action happens is not defined at all, or not relevant. It is most often used for things that are simply true.

2. momental tense

time pointer location: |-----|

the time of this action: |-----|

The momental tense is used when the time the action happens is the same as where the time pointer is. This time pointer location may also be defined in a temporal locative in the same sentence. The time and the duration of the action, and those of the previous time definition ought to be roughly the same.

3. anterior tense

time pointer location: |-----|
the time of this action: |-----|

The anterior tense is used when the time the action happens is before the previous time definition. The timeframes may not overlap.

4. posterior tense

time pointer location: |-----|
the time of this action: |-----|

The posterior tense is used when the time the action happens is after the previous time definition. The timeframes may not overlap.

5. transcursive tense

time pointer location: |-----|
the time of this action: |----|

The transcursive is used when the timeframe of the action is encompassed in the previously defined timeframe, and the duration is a lot shorter.

6. reverse transcursive tense

time pointer location: |----|
the time of this action: |-----|

The reverse transcursive is used when the previously defined timeframe is encompassed by the action's timeframe, and the latter's duration is much longer.

c. The moods

The 3 moods define how true the information is thought to be and can indicate a hope or a wish.

1. indicative

The indicative is the most commonly used. It is also the unmarked mood, and can be used in almost every occasion. It indicates generally that the statement is true.

2. subjunctive

The subjunctive is used to express a hope, a desire or a wish.

3. renarrative

The renarrative is used to indicate that the speaker received the information in the statement from someone else, and he is not completely convinced that it is true. It can also be used to express doubt (dubitative).

d. Morphology

The mood and tense of a sentence are indicated with an initial particle. This particle can also inflect to mark the topic of the sentence (see XV. Topic marking).

	indicative	subjunctive	renarrative
neutral			
	ne/n	onné	canné
AGT	nes	onnés	cannés
PAT	nei	onnéi	cannéi
VRB	na	onná	canná
DCH	nem	onném	canném
anterior			
	al/l	val	cal
AGT	als	vals	cals
PAT	lai	vlai	clai
VRB	la	vla/vl	cla/cl
DCH	lam	vlam	clam
momental			
		on/n	ca/c
AGT	es/s	ons	cas
PAT	i	noi	cai
VRB	a	na/n	caia
DCH	em/m	nom	cam
posterior			
	ir	vir	cair
AGT	irs	virs	cairs
PAT	ri	vri	cri
VRB	ra	vra	cra
DCH	rim	vrin	crim
transcursive			
	ma/m	ommá	camá
AGT	mas	ommás	camás

	indicative	subjunctive	renarrative
PAT	mai	ommái	camái
VRB	maia	ommaia	camaia
DCH	man	ommán	camán
reverse transcursive			
	še/ś	veś	caś
AGT	śes	veśés	caśés
PAT	śei	veśí	caśí
VRB	śa	veśá	caśá
DCH	śem	veśém	caśém

VIII. Subordinate, relative and essive clauses, resumptive pronouns

a. Relative clauses

1. Summary

Relative clauses are “opened” by a relative pronoun. They are optionally closed again with a termination particle. The relative pronoun agrees with the antecedent in case. Relative clauses are in most cases placed directly after their antecedent. Inside the relative clause, the antecedent is referred to by a resumptive pronoun, which agrees with the antecedent in gender.

2. Morphology

AGT	<i>ać, shortened to ć when a pronounceable cluster is formed.</i>
PAT/NOM	<i>ac, ag before a vowel. Shortened to c or g</i>
VRB	<i>ca, shortened to c</i>
DCH	<i>aq, shortened to q</i>
ABL	<i>aś, shortened to ś</i>
INS	<i>ax, shortened to x</i>
LOC	<i>cer</i>

The resumptive pronoun inflects like any noun, though it’s slightly irregular. There is one for each noun class.

	I	II	III
AGT	is	ias	mis
PAT/NOM	i	ia	im
VRB			ma
DCH	iu	iau	imu
ABL	isse	iaste	imve
INS	ið	iað	int

LOC	ir	iar	mir
-----	----	-----	-----

The termination particle is **añ**, which may be shortened to **ñ**.
It is very often omitted. When it is the last word of a sentence, it is always omitted.

ða rom é i vøra lis proćái. – the man whom I saw yesterday speaks.

The termination particle is obsolete here because the sentence ends where the subordinate clause ends.

b. Subordinate clauses

1. Summary

All other subordinate clauses are in essence treated as relative clauses without antecedents. The noun with the –ac suffix is replaced by a set of subordinate clause pronouns. Resumptives are obviously obsolete. The subclause pronoun is inflected for the function of the clause in the sentence. A subordinate clause is thus composed of a subclause pronoun, the clause itself and again an optional termination particle.

2. Morphology

The subordinate clause pronouns are:

AGT	res
PAT/NOM	or
VRB	ra
DCH	oru
ABL	orre
INS	oð
LOC	oir
TMP LOC (ueñ)	uño
reason (fer)	veð

The termination particle is again **añ**.

ga vøra lis uño ða gas. – I see him while he speaks. (note: the present tense is not implied. This may just as well mean ‘I saw him while he spoke.’)

3. Interpretation

It is sometimes beneficial to interpret the subordinate clause as an internally headed relative clause (IHRC) with the verb as antecedent; this is most frequently the case for patientive subordinate clauses where the verb of the main clause is an auxiliary (modal or otherwise).

meir ag ma lis añ va lis – I want the going[I do it] – relative clause

or meira lis va lis – I want that I go – subordinate clause or also

or meira lis va lis – I want that I go – can be reinterpreted as an IHRC, equivalent to the first example

Note that in practice, these examples would probably read *meir ag ma lis va* and *or meira lis va*.

c. Essive clauses

1. Summary

Essive clauses fulfill roughly the same function as the essive derivation, except for noun phrases instead of single nouns.

2. Morphology & syntax

The essive clause fulfills the function of the verbal. It is 'opened' with the pseudo-verbal particle **mea** (**mei** before a vowel) and terminated with the default termination particle **aj**. In between there is a noun phrase in the nominative. This noun phrase often includes a nonreferential article to distinguish nonreferential equational clauses from referential ones.

li **romea** – I am a man / I am the man (no referentiality distinction)

li **mei** oigadu rom – I am the happy man (referential)

li **mei** oigadu **n** rom – I am a happy man (nonreferential article **n** is present)

IX. Demonstrative pronouns and preantecedental demonstratives

a. Demonstrative pronouns

There are 3 degrees in the demonstrative pronouns: near visible, far visible and invisible. Some pronouns differ depending on the word class of the noun they refer to.

The full table:

		NEAR VISIBLE	FAR VISIBLE	INVISIBLE
I	DCH	oi	ai	ɲi
	ABL	oisse	aisse	ɲisse
	INS	oδ	aδ	ɲiδ
II	DCH	ou	au	ɲu
	ABL	oste	aste	ɲaste
	INS	oiδ	aiδ	ɲyδ
III	VRB	ossa	aua	ɲa
	DCH	osso	auo	ɲa
	ABL	omve	amve	ɲamve
	INS	oint	aint	ɲynt
all genders	AGT	os	as	ins
	PAT	o	au	iɲ
	LOC	or	ar	ɲir
	TMP	our	aur	ɲur

These pronouns are always used instead of personal pronouns if the noun they refer to is not in class I (animate).

b. Preantecedental demonstrative pronouns

There is also a set of preantecedental demonstratives. Preantecedentials have an 'antecedent' that is mentioned afterwards; in other words, the demonstrative comes **before** (pre-) the noun it refers to (this actually means that the antecedent should be called postcedent, but for the sake of conformity the term antecedent will be used for whatever a pronoun refers to).

Some languages allow the use of the main set of demonstratives for this, but there is a separate set of them in Lembrin.

In practice, preantecedentials can be used to ‘postpone’ a certain argument of a sentence. They are also used where quotation marks would be used in English:

Preantecedentials do not agree in gender with what they refer to (probably because they are rarer than the postantecedental, ‘standard’ demonstratives).

Preantecedental pronouns are also called cataphoric pronouns.

AGT	NOM/PAT	VRB	DCH	LOC	ABL	INS
tas	tac	taga	tau	tagir	tasse	tagyð

*al ða es **tau**, li vøra es – ANTERIOR saying-VRB he-AGT Preant.-DCH, I-PAT seeing-VRB he-AGT – **that** is what he said, “I saw you”*

X. Personal pronouns

a. Use

Personal pronouns are used to refer to animate nouns only. Otherwise, the demonstrative pronouns are used.

There is a plurality distinction in pronouns. For the 2nd person singular, there is a honorific form. the 3rd person singular has an utrum, a male and a female form. The 1st person plural has an inclusive (you included) and an exclusive form (you not included).

There is also a set of reflexive pronouns to refer back to the subject. This is also why there isn’t an agentive form for it. The same goes for the reciprocal pronouns, which translate as “eachother”.

Note that, especially with verbs of motion, there are often remnants of a reflexive voice. In this case it is better to use the reflexive voice rather than a reflexive pronoun:

nem – lower

nemman – go down, lower oneself

b. Morphology

	AGT	PAT	DCH	ABL	INS	LOC
1s	lis	lí	le	lisse	líð	lir
2s	ois	oi	oie	oisse	oið	oir
2s honorific	erðis	erði	erðe	erðisse	erðið	erðir
3s	es	e	ei	esse	eð	er
3s male	gas	ga	gai	gasse	gað	gar
3s female	les	le	lei	lesse	leð	ler
1p inclusive	uns	um	umi	usse	uð	unir
1p exclusive	des	dem	demi	desse	deð	denir
2p	ras	ra	rai	rasse	rað	rar
3p	mis	mir	miri	misse	mirð	mir
reflexive		uí	uíe	uísse	uíð	uír
reciprocal		tamin	támini	tamisse	táminið	táminir

XI. Nonreferential article & demonstrative adjectives

a. Morphology

The nonreferential article agrees with the noun it defines in case.

NOM	VRB	DCH	LOC	ABL	INS
en/n	an	um	tin	ynt	riŋ

The same goes for the demonstrative adjectives. They have 3 degrees, near visible, far visible and invisible, like the demonstrative pronouns have.

	NOM	VRB	DCH	LOC	ABL	INS
near	co	ca	com	cor	cosse	coð
far	cau	caua	cam	car	casse	cað
invisible	ciŋ	ŋa	cim	ŋir	ŋisse	ŋið

b. Syntax

The articles and adjectives can be placed before any noun (including a verbal, possessive, ...). They have to agree in case and are always right before the noun.

c. Use

The nonreferential article is used to indicate that the noun is generalised, it refers to no particular instance of it.

verys gadua - *The cat is happy.*

en verys gadua - *Cats are happy (in general, they usually are).*

co verys gadua - *This cat here is happy.*

Demonstrative adjectives are used to clarify which instance one is referring to in particular. This is also why the nonreferential article can never be combined with a demonstrative adjective.

XII. Prepositions

a. Summary

Prepositions can take a variety of cases, but most take the locative. They can be divided roughly in 3 classes: locatives, temporals and others.

b. Temporals

Temporals take the locative.

after: **aur**

before: **pre**

during, while: **ueŋ**

until: **isca**

since: **doś**

śa lis or doś oir li vōra es – *being.at-VRB I-AGT this-LOC since that-LOC I-PAT seeing-VRB he-AGT* – *I've been here since he saw me.*

c. Locatives

Locatives add a specific meaning to a place definition.

to(wards) *allative*: **am**

under(neath), below *subessive*: **neð**

above *superessive*: **suć**

in *inessive*: **na**

behind: **pus**

through: **xas**
before: **ande**
opposite (of): **xura**
between: **andír**
near: **clos**
upon, on: **so**
over: **ein**

ša es pus or – being.at-VRB he-AGT behind this-LOC – He’s behind it.

d. Other prepositions

The other prepositions take either the instrumental, except for the causative which takes the ablative.

with *comitative*: **me** +instrumental
without *anticomitative*: **ami** +instrumental
with *manner*: **ašt** +instrumental
except (for), but: **søl** +instrumental
besides, next to: **iŋga** +instrumental
for *benefactive*: **ias** +instrumental
on, about: **øm** +instrumental
for, to (reason): **fer** +instrumental
despite: **ŋaus** +instrumental
instead of: **pyr** +instrumental
causative: **tur** + ablative

meira es me lis – go-VRB he-AGT with I-AGT – He goes with me.

al lerua øm riŋ miassið vøra lis – ANTERIOR book-NOM about NONREFERENTIAL-INS mouse-INS seeing-VRB I-NOM - I saw a book about mice.

li segia es ŋaus oð al e vøra lis – I-PAT following-VRB he-AGT despite that-INS ANTERIOR he-PAT seeing-VRB I-AGT – Despite the fact that I had seen him, he followed me.

XIII. Comparatives & superlatives

a. Syntax

Comparatives, superlatives and equitives are formed with a special set of verbals.

Comparatives are formed with the verbal “rea”: AGT is DCH-er than PAT

oi rea lis pento – I’m smaller than you

Superlatives are formed with the verbal “via”: AGT/PAT is DCH-est

li via pento – I’m the smallest

Equitives are formed with the verbal “cua”: AGT is as DCH as PAT

oi cua lis pento – I’m as small as you

XIV. Word order

a. The sentence

The 4 core arguments of a sentence (verbal, agent, patient and dechticaetive) have a fixed order:

PAT – VRB – AGT – DCH

This order is very rarely deviated from. Note that the patientive comes first, and not the agentive.

Oblique arguments usually come after this core part of the sentence in no particular order, though they can be placed before to mark them as topic.

The tense/mood indicator is always the first word in the sentence, preceded only by a structural particle if there is one.

b. The noun phrase

Since sentences consist pretty much entirely of noun phrases, the internal order of these phrases is very important. Note that, through using possessives, nominal predicates may be nested.

aipént mias – ‘pent’ is a nominal predicate on itself, as is ‘aipént mias’.

The default order is:

ADJ. POSSESSIVES - NONREF. ART/DMSTR ADJ. - NOUN - REL CLAUSE

ηιδ eisraηynt pendynt ax da lis imu – with this sad smallness that I speak about.

on either side of this structure, possessives (nominal predicates themselves) may be added. Note that the last noun is always the core argument.

XV. Topic marking

a. Use

A part of a sentence can be marked as topic if one wants to emphasise it. For reference, in English, one would use the passive voice to emphasise the direct object.

b. Morphology and syntax

If one wants to mark the agentive, patientive, dechticaetiative or verbal of a sentence, one can inflect the initial particle for the case of the topic. See VII.d for the various forms of the particles.

nei oi cúiana lis – NEUTRAL-PATIENT you-PAT know I-AGT – I know you

If one wants to mark any oblique argument in the sentence as topic, it is simply fronted (eg placed before the core PAT-VRB-AGT-DCH part of the sentence).

lémvrinir ga śa – Lemuria-LOC he-PAT be.at – He's in Lemuria

XVI. Numbers

Lembrin uses a **duodecimal** system. Numbers can be used as number particles.

0	seir				
1	ram	11	lerá	21	ćerá
2	tive	12	lestive	22	ćestive
3	ris	13	lerís	23	ćerís
4	cøi	14	lescøi	24	ćescøi
5	tem	15	lestém	25	ćestém

6	sið	16	lessíð	26	cessíð
7	śue	17	leśśue		
8	qar	18	lesqár		
9	vei	19	lestivéi		
A	díe	1A	lestíe		
B	sari	1B	lessari		
10	lest (le)	20	cest (ce)		
30	ris lest	31	ris lerá	9B	vei le sari
40	tive cest	32	ris lestive	100	elca
50	tem lest	33	ris le ris	123	elca éerís
60	ris cest	34	ris le cøi	1A2	elca díe lestive
70	śue lest	200	tivelca
80	qar lest	41	tive éerá	279	tivelca śue le vei
90	vei lest	42	tive cestive	300	ris elca
A0	díe lest	43	tive ce ris	400	cøi elca
B0	sari lest	800	qar elca

ris ramu – Three ramus

lest rom – Twelve men

tem elca ris ce díe verys – 56A cats – 802 cats

When a number comes after the noun phrase, it is considered an ordinal:

śeirdai lestive – Sheirdai the fourteenth

Two kinds of class III nouns can be derived from numbers: The cardinal and the ordinal. The cardinal is formed by suffixing **-ens** to the particle form of the number. The **e** is dropped after a vowel that isn't **i** or **u**. Stress is retained. It is best translated as “being X in number”. A few numbers have irregular ordinals:

0	sens	1	rans	3	rins
---	------	---	------	---	------

dem **qárensa** – we-PAT eight-CRD-VRB – We are eight in number, there's eight of us.

ilescøiens mint – POS-sixteen-CRD group – A group of sixteen

To a lesser extent, this derivation can also be applied to number particles, but the process is highly irregular. The cardinal of **sa** is **śes**. The cardinal of **ar** is **rens**.

The ordinal is formed by suffixing **-as** to the particle form of the number. The **a** is dropped after a vowel that isn't **i** or **u**. Stress is retained. It is best translated as “being the Xth”. A few numbers have irregular ordinals:

0	ses	1	raus
---	-----	---	------

rausa lis – I'm the first

qarasí – eight-ORD-PAT – The eighth

Note that when forming these derivations with large numbers, the constituents are strung together, and the last part receives stress:

tem elca ris ce díe -> **temelcariscedíens**

Two kinds of class II nouns can be derived from numbers: the collective and the partitive. The collective is formed by suffixing **-aft**. The a is dropped after a vowel that isn't **i** or **u**. The result is a noun meaning "a group of X". A few numbers have irregular collectives:

0	seft	1	raft	3	rifft
---	------	---	------	---	-------

coift – a group of four

The partitive is formed by suffixing **-da**, or **-ta** after a voiceless consonant. Final nasals become alveolar. The result is a noun meaning "an Xth part". A few numbers have irregular partitives:

0	serta	2	tinda	10	λesta	20	ćesta
---	-------	---	-------	----	-------	----	-------

note that the partitive of 12 is **λestiveda**, not **λestinda**!

tive rista - two thirds

Collectives and partitives are often used in the partitive construction (See IV. Possessives and partitives).

XVII. Negation

Negation can only be applied to single nouns (any noun in any form, actually). To negate an entire sentence, the verbal is often negated.

A word is negated by prefixing **ne-**. The e is dropped before a vowel that isn't **i** or **u**. Stress is always retained.

noipént rom – a man that doesn't possess smallness – a man that isn't small
oinepént rom – a man that possesses non-smallness – a man that isn't small
 notice the subtle difference. For this particular example it isn't very significant, though. The former is preferred.

e nependea – he isn't small, or he is not-small.
 In this case, it can't be seen what derivation was applied first.

XVIII. "Thing"

The word "thing" is actually just an ordinary noun with different versions for each class. It refers to a random object/abstraction/being/action.

	I	II	III
NOM	cas	cas	cas
VRB			ca
DCH	cai	cau	cau
LOC	cair	cair	cair
ABL	caisse	caste	camve
INS	caið	caið	caint

XIX. Structural particles

Structural particles are words that structure text or speech beyond sentences. "But" and "if" for example are considered structural particles. If a structural particle is used, it is always the first word of the sentence.

but: **éain**
if: **tei**
then: **tam**

(In conditional structures, both a ‘tei’ and a ‘tam’ have to be present. Their order is of no importance though.)

XX. Questions

a. Polar questions

A polar question (or yes/no question) is usually in the subjunctive. To clarify which part of the statement is questioned, one can mark it as topic (see XV. Topic marking). There is no change in word order, only intonation.

If one wants to indicate that “no” is the expected answer, one can use the renarrative instead of the subjunctive. If one wants to indicate that “yes” is expected, one can use the renarrative and negate the verb.

śa ʎes or proćái – be.at-VRB she-AGT this-LOC tomorrow - She'll be here tomorrow
on śa ʎes or proćái? – will she be here tomorrow? (on indicates the subjunctive)
ons śa ʎes or proćái? - will *she* be here tomorrow? (ons marks the agent as topic)
n or śa ʎes proćái? - will she be *here* tomorrow? (*here* is fronted to mark it as topic)
ca neśá ʎes or proćái? - She'll be here tomorrow, won't she? (ca marks the renarrative)
ca śa ʎes or proćái? - She won't be here tomorrow, will she?

b. Content questions

Questions that can't be answered with yes or no are usually in the subjunctive. There is no change in word order, only in intonation. There are no interrogative pronouns, instead the invisible demonstratives are used. Optionally it can also be marked as topic. The question is usually terminated by the particle **in**, but it's not uncommon to omit this, especially in speech.

For a selective question (a question with *which*) one can use the invisible demonstrative adjectives.

on śa ʎes **ɲir** proćái **in**? - Where will she be tomorrow?
on ɲir śa ʎes proćái **in**? - Where will she be tomorrow? - with topic marking.
onné ciɲ sa δerial ređða ois **in**? - Which languages do you speak?

Sample texts

a. First article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

1. English original version

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

2. Lembrin version

ne ve rom ývera, mir ivarrinamme t s imecýn gema doś mir ísegamir.
al mir dauma lánisso te vraisu, itém mir vrexta oru ne mir ísadri
aiqáun cua ins ac tamin ma mis aɲ vano.

3. Word-for-word translation

All men are free and their respectedness and rights are equal, since their birth.
They are given reason and conscience, and they that act are forced to [make sure]
that the treating of eachother by them is as good as that of their brothers.

4. Detailed analysis

ne: neutral tense

ve: number particle, **all**

rom: nominative (patientive), **man**

yver-a: from *yver*, **free**; *-a* indicates the verbal

ve rom yvera: **all men are free**

mir: 3rd person plural pronoun, patientive

i-varrin-amme: from *varrin*, **respect**; *-amme* indicates the passive perfect participle, *i-* indicates the possessive with *mir* as antecedent; **respectedness**

t: from *te*, **and**

s: from *sa*, number particle indicating the plural

i-mec-y'n: from *mec*, **allow**; *-y'n* indicates the dechticaetiative verbal derivation, *i-* indicates the possessive with *mir* as antecedent; **right**

mir ivarrinamme t s imecyn: **their respectedness and rights**

gem-a: from *gem*, **equal**; *-a* indicates the verbal

dos: **since**, preposition that takes the locative

mir: 3rd person plural pronoun, locative

i-segam-ir: from *segam*, **bear**; *-ir* indicates the locative, *i-* indicates the possessive with *mir* as antecedent.

dos mir isegamir: **since their birth**

All men are free and their respectedness and rights are equal, since their birth.

al: anterior tense

mir: 3rd person plural pronoun, patientive

daum-a: from *daum*, **give**; *-a* indicates the verbal

laniss-o: from *lanis*, **think, reason**; *-o* indicates the dechticaetiative

te: **and**

vrais-u: from *vrais*, **conscience**; *-u* indicates the dechticaetiative

they are given reason and conscience

i-tem: from *tem*, **do**; *i-* indicates the possessive with *mir* as antecedent

mir: 3rd person plural pronoun, patientive

vrex-a: from *vrex*, **force**; *-a* indicates the verbal

oru: subordinate clause opener, dechticaetiative

ne: neutral tense

mir: 3rd person plural pronoun, patientive

i-sadri: from *sadri*, **sibling**; patientive, *i-* indicates the possessive with *mir* as antecedent

ai-qáun: from *qaun*, **use, treat**, patientive; *ai-* indicates the possessive with *isadri* as antecedent

mir isadri aiqáun: **the treating of their siblings**

cua: from *cu*, equitive verb; *-a* indicates the verbal; used for **A is as B as C**

ins: invisible agentive demonstrative pronoun

ac: agentive; indicates a relative subclause, with *ins* as antecedent

tamin: reciprocal pronoun, patientive, referring to *mis*, **eachother**

ma: resumptive pronoun, verbal, referring to *ins*

mis: 3rd person plural pronoun, agentive

aj: termination particle

van-o: dechticaetiative, **good**

they that act are forced to [make sure] that the treating of each other by them is as good as that of their brothers.

b. Preamble of the Lemurian constitution

1. English original version

We, the Ramus of Réixavin, Rechain and Táixxarin, resolved to reunite the ancient Lemurian nation and to thus end our age old conflict, do ordain and proclaim this Constitution of the Confederate Rianates of Lemuria.

2. Lembrin version

eivár sa lémvrinriana eiléc guíssa t érrea des, réixavin, reáin te táixxarin eiramu, veð tac aigøra va des, or eiyste lemvrin eigendis eimeina iffa ins, t øiaulaul dem eicør fiana ñamve.

c. The Tower of Babel

1. English original version

- 1. Now the whole world had one language and a common speech.*
- 2. As men moved eastward, they found a plain in Shinar and settled there.*
- 3. They said to each other, "Come, let's make bricks and bake them thoroughly." They used brick instead of stone, and tar for mortar.*
- 4. Then they said, "Come, let us build ourselves a city, with a tower that reaches to the heavens, so that we may make a name for ourselves and not be scattered over the face of the whole earth."*
- 5. But the Lord came down to see the city and the tower that the men were building.*
- 6. The Lord said, "If as one people speaking the same language they have begun to do this, then nothing they plan to do will be impossible for them.*
- 7. "Come, let us go down and confuse their language so they will not understand each other."*
- 8. So the Lord scattered them from there over all the earth, and they stopped building the city.*
- 9. That is why it was called Babel -- because there the Lord confused the language of the whole world. From there the Lord scattered them over the face of the whole earth.*

2. Lembrin version

- 1. I eiráns ðerial t inda ðis ía éntarir.*
- 2. vlande férrana s rom íínarir uño meira am gassair, or ðíivesa ñir prassa.*
- 3. ir tamin ða mis tau, on gor lues vaia t eivana freðða uns. ir eifreððamme lues qauna mis te scani ferua tørra.*

4. ir δa mis tau, tenés edíffera uns ias uíd, te turin ac fenát tiŋga ias veð ir um cúiana é rom t um neprina λan so eiemvair éntarir eisuvlanir.
5. éain némma λan veð tenés te turin ac s ia edíffera rom vøra.
6. δa λan tau, tei l iŋ ivái prassa mis ást oð mea eimeina gendis ac eínda δerial reðða is, tam ne éi cas g ia aivái méndaia mis η aivái mégala.
7. on némma uns te mir iδerial láxxiona veð tamin aiðís nereðða mis.
8. ir mir prina λan ηaste so eiemvair éntarir, tenés eiediffer fianna mis.
9. ir iŋ dauma vávelu ailinu veð eiemvai entar eiδerial láxxiona λan ηir. mir prina λan ηaste so eiemvair éntarir eisuvlanir.