A Grammar of Úvjolíhu
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Version 13.2.3

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Chapter 1

Summary

1.1 Introduction

Üvjolıhu is an Aeð̣rhu language of the Uvyx subfamily, spoken primarily by the Üvjo peoples of Üjandörül. It was created as part of a large worldbuilding project and is related to several other languages.

Üvjolıhu, or lihu for short, exhibits a beautiful phonology and syllable structure with agglutinative elements. Üvjolıhu is always a work in progress, and thus this document may also be updated regularly. The version number can be seen at the top.

1.2 About this Grammar

This grammar is a full reference grammar of the language, and should be taken as a definitive source. [citation needed]
Chapter 2

Sentence Structure

2.1 Word Order and Structure

Úvjoľhu uses several word orders, based on context and format of the sentence. The most common word order is SOV, versions of which manifest in many areas.

2.1.1 Transitive Sentences

In transitive sentences, the word order is SOV, where the subject (Agent-like, A) is in the ergative case and the object (Patient-like, P) is in the absolutive case. Here is an example:

(2.1.1 #1)  
\[ Tālqhaudh riŋa tekhaɸô \] “The campfire boiled the water”:
Subject: Tālqha “campfire” (Ergative, suffixed -udh)
Object: riŋa “water (as a material)” (Absolutive)
Verb: tekhaɸô “to boil (past)”

(Section 2.2 will be useful here; it describes grammatical relations such as the Ergative case)

Objects are not marked in transitive sentences as subjects are, though there are markers for the absolutive case in other instances.

In longer sentences, and if the object is a pronoun, the word order is switched to OSV. The object pronoun can then receive the absolutive suffix -qô if it is not a (default) first person pronoun. This suffix also serves as an indicator of the alternate word order.

2.1.2 Intransitive Sentences

In intransitive sentences, the core argument (a subject) is usually labeled as absolutive, and receives the suffix -iţxe (gloss: PRM), which acts as a prominence-indicator article in intransitive sentences. VS order is used.

(2.1.2 #1)  
\[ Hevâlaughme phütxe tha. \]
anonymous-PRS-BSC 2p-PRM ~TONE
“You (singular) are unknown/not famous (neutral tone)”

If the core argument is considered to be intentionally partaking in the activity (such instances are usually not phrased to be intransitive), the core argument is in the ergative, suffixed
or infixed with -udh-, the word order is SOV, and the position of an object is filled with ai (gloss: [DOBJ]), a direct object placeholder. This ai is seen as an inactive patient (iP).

(2.1.2 #2) Phuudh ai hevâlaugh.
2p-ERG [DOBJ] anonymous-PRS
“You (singular) are intentionally anonymous”

2.1.3 Ditransitive Sentences

True ditransitive sentences are rare in Ūvjołohu, and are often phrased as an alternate-word-order transitive sentence with a simple agglutinated noun-verb phrase as the object.

Despite this, there is relatively standard grammar for ditransitivity, an artifact of the older language’s influence with the ditransitive-phrase-rich Aarnor Iiris. These sentences thus have a similar syntax to ditransitives in Aarnor Iiris.

Like in transitive sentences, the subject (Agent) is labeled with -udh- while the object (Active Patient) is unlabeled. The indirect object (such as the gift argument of the verb to give) is labeled with -qô, the same suffix used on object pronouns.

However, this suffix is subabsolutive (gloss: SAB), a relative of Aarnor Iiris’s -ko dative case, and causes the verb to agree with the direct object instead of the subject (because both objects are now promoted) with a suffix dealing with the object’s person:

1p: -ų̇e (gloss: DT1)
2p: -ob (gloss: DT2)
3p: -ekh (gloss: DT3)

The word order is fairly normal: SOOV, where the noun forms are A aP iP V, and the second object is indirect.

(2.1.3 #1) Mavudhu hurenhi uzāiqzhimagó evjónuekh.
mother-ERG child-IFP star-UNI-and-sky-SAB teach-DT3
“The mother taught her child about the stars and the sky”

Here, “child” is absolutive (but not marked for absolutivity), “stars and sky” is subabsolutive, “mother” is ergative, and the verb agrees in the third person.

The aforementioned “alternate-word-order transitive sentence with a simple agglutinated noun-verb phrase” is phrased as follows:

[verb][subject] “and” [indirect object (causative)][direct object][joiner]

or (somewhat archaically)
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[verb][direct object] “and” [indirect object (causative)][subject][joiner]

The last argument, containing both objects, acts as a single object for the sentence. The joiner (gloss: VPJ) is a simple ə, indicating a reference to the verb of the sentence. This particle is not reduced to [ə], even though it features a final ə, except in some idiolects.

(2.1.3 #2)  Sıleugh miźō imelıį z ikiųŋų roşodheli ə
give-PRS REL1 temple and 1p-PLU-CAU food offering VPJ
“yesterday (at this time) we left an offering of food at the temple”

Here the verb is “to give”, interpreted as “to leave”. Ikiųŋų roşodheli means “an offering of food caused (CAU) by us”, and is the last argument of the verb.

This form of sentence is often used when the subject, like “temple” here, is not directly meaning the thing receiving the action of the verb, or in informal speech describing a single event (where sometimes the whole phrase is interpreted as a causative for the preceding sentence).

2.1.4 Impersonal Sentences

2.2 Grammatical Relations

Üvįolų is an ergative-absolutive language. Those basic cases are marked as follows, depending on word order and transitivity.

2.2.1 Ergative Marking

The basic ergative case is marked with the affix -udh-, which usually is a suffix. The sound can change (as seen in example 2.1.1 #1 in the section above).

Often the affix -udh- will replace another similar sound. For example, the ergative form of Üvįolų is Üvįolidhu, with the close vowel ı an approximation of the correct u, and the h being replaced with an aspirated dh. However, some words use a variant form of the affix, closer to -it-. The major words that deviate in this way are shown below:

- *Tirine* “god”: *tirinite* “god (ergative)"
- *Kiilpeâ* “card”: *kiilpeât* “card (ergative)"
- *Ghošani* “double line”: *ghošantii* “double line (ergative)"
- *Xôalnazaur* “spite”: *xôalnazaurits* “spite (ergative)”

The -udh- affix is also replaced by a related -it- when the word belongs to either of the following (as well as the exceptions above):
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- All words ending with a “harsh” -q, -qh, -x, and sometimes -h
  ○ Examples: Sarafoax, İañq
- All words ending in a syllable whose consonant is a velar or uvular sound (q, qh, k, kh, g, gh, x, sometimes x, ƞ) and the vowel string ae (does not apply to k, g, kh, or gh), âe, or eâ
  ○ Examples: Umåegh, Aothigâe
  ○ Exceptions: Eåkh, Tiukıjaeg, Bhıraex

2.2.2 Other Grammatical Relations and Marking

2.2.3 Use of GRs

2.3 Extra Arguments

2.4 Discourse
Chapter 3

Basic Verb Systems

This chapter is about the systems of verbs and their arguments. Also, verbs are such headaches. Please, anything, anything but more verbs.

3.1 Tense

Uvjoļalu has more grammatical tenses than English, and in fact more syntactic complexity, unique features, and words to deal with time than it does for space. The following sections explain Uvjoļalu’s complex tense system.

Basic verbs are in the past tense (like in J’en), and the basic present tense (gloss: PRS) is indicated with a suffix -ugh. The future tense is indicated with the prefix da- and the suffix -qium for non-objective verbs.

Perfect forms are adverbial affixes, with the table below illustrating their forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of speech</th>
<th>Time of reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Action after FPRF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action before</td>
<td>Past tense, Future perfect: (V)-(mida)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action near</td>
<td>Present tense, Future perfect: (V)-(midaugh)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

General perfect
\(V\)-\(bhô\), replace final vowel of verb with i

Verb perfect forms are further indicated with subject affixing and alternate forms of the perfect affix. As an example, take the following complex sentence:
3.2 Complex Tense

Tense can be incredibly complicated. The example below shows one way multiple events can be connected in a complex way:

(3.2 #1) \[İỳadhu\ tʰiʔofɪraka \ ʂoɬaɬamidameki jù tɪka xonôveqô alvezı̂thahula.\]
1p-ERG perform. worry-FPRF-HAB VSA [SBJ] 3p:INAN-SAB-OR cancel-BCU-CES
“I had been worrying about the upcoming performance, until it was canceled.”

The construction of this sentence works like this:

\[İỳadhu\] is the second person singular animate pronoun “I”, and is in the ergative case (this is the subject). \[Tʰiʔofɪraka\] means “performance” and is the object.

\[Şoɬaɬa\] means “to worry”; it is in the past tense (the default) and occurs at a time before the object argument (the performance), which by default is the time of reference for perfects on temporal-causative verbs. Because of this, it takes the future perfect suffix \[-midi\] (gloss: FPRF). \[Şoɬaɬa\] also has the suffix \[-meki\] for finite habituation, turning it from “was worrying” to “had been (repeatedly) worrying”.

Next comes the required arguments for said habituation. Because it is finite (it ends), it needs a time to end. The particle \[jù\] indicates a verb system argument, one required by the system of the verb but not necessarily directly pertaining to its participants (\[jù\] is also a valence changer).

The placeholder \[tɪka\] indicates that the upcoming clause acting as a verb system argument has no subject—the agent that canceled the performance is not specified—this particle can be used as a subject placeholder anywhere.

\[Xonôveqô\] is an inanimate third person singular pronoun marked for the accusative case with \[-qô\]. Because it has the \[xonô-\] prefix (gloss: AOR), it references the object of the main clause and is in the absolutive case in the relative clause. See section 5.1 for more on the pronoun usage here. The verb of this clause is \[alvezi\], “to cancel”.

Thus, the overall structure is a sentence whose verb requires an extra argument due to its tense and aspect. The extra argument is a relative clause with the object of the main clause as its object, indicated by a pronoun, and the verb of the clause is marked to indicate the clause’s role as an extra argument.

Verbs that require this type of argument in their basic form are rare, but the aspects and tenses described here use them a lot. They are also one rare example of a necessary verbal argument being placed after the verb in a sentence, although they could be considered their own clauses and thus separate.
3.2.1 Relative Clauses in Tense

3.2.2 Infinitely Variable Referential Tense

3.3 Aspect

3.4 Modality

3.5 Agreement

3.6 Connections

3.7 Objectivity

3.4.2 Verb and Phrase Objectivity Rules

Objective verbs are a dominant class of verbs in Uvijolhu, referring to verbs that describe actions that can be witnessed and then attested as true of not. Objective verbs are verbs such as speak, run, eat, and be, as opposed to verbs such as think, feel, want, and hurt. Objective verbs are not just for the purpose of debate; they serve a grammatical purpose as well and are often distinguished.

3.4.3 Circumventing Objectivity Rules

Sometimes the verb objectivity requirements can be avoided (although this can be seen as a fallacy of the “logical structure” of the language) by applying another phrase before uttering the one to be circumvented. This phrase is usually one of these two:

(3.4.3 #1)  
Maƚ xaƚm i t̪i ̥ aŋj̪i t̪xe va...  
wonder-BSC 1p-PRM that  
“I wonder if (lit. that)…”

(3.4.3 #2)  
Maƚ xaƚfûq n̪a i t̪i aŋ?  

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wonder-PRS that-1Q3P
“Do I know [if…]?”

The first phrase is commonly used for distinctly subjective verbs, ones that are not objective at all. The second is more commonly used for semi-objective verbs, whose truthfulness is dependent on the actions of the speaker as well as those of the performer. Take this example from the Úvjolıhu epic poem Vōajnereφi:

(3.4.3 #3) Dhijaxa: Phndh ija gehu thätirikinįmi _empresae q vanirough.
2p-ERG 1p-AMP army-CAU war can win-PRS
“Wealth with my army, you can win the war.”

Vōajnereφi: Maoxafugh vaiyęniį? Iįadh phųę phų q hārihiugh.
wonder-PRS that-1Q3P 1p-ERG 2p-CAU 2p can trust
“I don’t know if I can trust you.”
(lit. Do I know this?—that I can trust you.)

3.8 Other Verb Systems
Chapter 4

Clause Relation

This chapter is about the relation between clauses and how they can be described, as well as describing adjectives and other similar systems.

4.1 Negation

Negation is almost always done with $<m>$ (gloss: NEG). $M$ can be placed before a verb, before an adjective, or after a noun.

If it is seen as an affix (for phrase shortening), it will usually manifest as $ma$- and not be used on verbs.

4.2 Causality and Reference

4.3 Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are phrases (following the noun they relate to) whose verbs are prefixed with $er$- (Gloss: RCV). Relative clauses end with $ea$ (gloss: VTJ, related to the VPJ) and begin with a pronoun that agrees with the related noun in person, number, and ergativity.

Here’s an example relative clause (in parentheses; modifying noun underlined):

(4.3 #1) \[ Qharaxiugh \textit{igmåsxu} (va \textit{erhazijo m Laŋareledhu ea}) \textit{Sidanidh qipi!} \]
look-PRS person 3p work-RCV NEG conlang relay VTJ Sidney-ERG !TONE
“Sidney’s that person who didn’t work on the conlang relay!”

Here, $igmåsxu$ “person” is followed by $va \textit{erhazijo m Laŋareledhu}$ “they didn’t work on the conlang relay”, with the verb $hazijo$ indicated to be part of a relative clause with the prefix $er$-. That along with use of $ea$ and the pronoun should indicate that the phrase is a relative clause.

4.4 Evidentials

Full-verb phrases can optionally have evidential marking. Evidentials initially manifested as separate phrases occurring after the phrase they modify, but eventually became more similar to syntactically complex adjectives.
Most evidential particles, unless noted otherwise below, are marked after the verb in any sentence, unless the verb is not after the last agent or patient argument, in which case it comes before the verb.

The list of all evidential particles is hard to put in one place; most evidentials are only used in specific ways due to their old separate-phrase form. However, the main evidentials are listed in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Morphology</th>
<th>Position and Use</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>ižamišā</em></td>
<td>[iɰ.a.mi.ɕæ]</td>
<td>I believe (as an opinion)</td>
<td><em>ija</em> “I” + <em>miša</em> “think”</td>
<td>Everywhere, normal position</td>
<td>eBEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ižakhemi</em></td>
<td>[iɰ.a.kʰɛ.mi]</td>
<td>I hope</td>
<td><em>ija</em> “I” + <em>kheke</em> “hope” + <em>miša</em> “think”</td>
<td>Only on objective verbs, normal position</td>
<td>eHOP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ižakhexojo</em></td>
<td>[iɰ.a.kʰɛ.xo.jɔ]</td>
<td>I know (through research or expertise)</td>
<td><em>ija</em> “I” + <em>kheke</em> “true” + <em>xojo</em> “know”</td>
<td>Only on objective verbs, normal position</td>
<td>eKNO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evidentials can be prefixed with pronouns to indicate a user other than the speaker performing them (e.g. someone else believing a statement to be true).

### 4.5 Existentials and Predicate Nominal Constructions

Existentials are constructed in strange ways in Úvjolihu. A simple existential might look like this:

(4.5 #1) \( \text{Ve ve.} \)
\( 3p: \text{INAN} 3p: \text{INAN} \)
“It exists.” (lit.: “it it”)

In this example, an object (“it”) is referenced, and then a valid pronoun is used to assert its existence. A more adaptive example might look like this:

(4.5 #2) \( \text{Mavu ĥureni va.} \)
mother child-IFP 3p
“The mother has a child.” (lit.: “the mother’s child they”)

Here, the mother’s child exists because it is referenced by a pronoun va.
Those among you who have been taking notes (as you should be) will have noticed that
the words Ve and Mavü here are not in the ergative case, even though they would be in a normal
sentence. This is because existentials do not function like verbs in most respects.

4.5.1 Possessive Predicate Nominals
Possessive predicate nominals are no different from nouns in the genitive cases followed
by the aforementioned existential pronoun (see example 4.5 #2 above).

4.5.2 Adjectival Predicate Nominals
Adjectives can, of course, be applied to nouns in a predicate nominal format, but the
result is not always useful:

(4.5.2 #1) Ųolôdha sikâveaŋ avıx?
apple-ERG color-QE form:PRS
“What color is the apple?”

Khe ųolôtha ve.
red apple 3p:INAN
 “[A] red apple exists.”

Because of this inability to specify which apple is being referenced (and the normal
systems to do so don’t work here), Ůviolîhu speakers formed a grammatically strange but
universally-recognised way to indicate a property of an object in a predicate nominal
construction:

(4.5.2 #2) Ųolôdha sikâveaŋ avıx?
apple-ERG color-QE form:PRS
“What color is the apple?”

Ųolôtha ve ae khe.
apple 3p:INAN VTJ red
“[The] apple is red.” (lit.: apple exists like red)

By placing the adjective after the “verb” pronoun, with a VTJ joiner ae acting as
morphological glue, an aspect of definiteness is expressed.
Emphasis (intonation) is usually placed on the adjective, and, more so, on the VTJ joiner when such constructions are used.

### 4.5.3 Other Existential Forms

Existential particles and constructions are often a smaller piece of a larger construction, as seen in English and other languages. Üvjolihu doesn’t have the useless *do* particle that English uses, but the word *išli* “is” can be used for some constructions. *Išli* can also be a prefix indicating truth or state of being (almost like a perfective). It can be used in conjunction with the reflexive verb suffix -*ke* to indicate a complex meaning, essentially “because of their (the agent’s/subject’s) own existence”. This is also a valence reducing operation (because it’s reflexive)! Wow! The circumfix *išli*-*V*-*ke* does it all!

The best example is probably this (affixes underlined):

(4.5.3 #1)  *Igniādhxuphe iroj z the iqasu ve āofξi z dhihe ea iširōniluke.*

human-ERG-COL dignity and rights as free and equal VTJ is:born-REF-PST

“All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights (because of their own existence)”

Or maybe this:

(4.5.3 #2)  *Lūdhu lū veqō išibaqhiimke.*

1p-ERG 1p 3p:INAN-SAB is:give-REF

“I gave it [a gift] to myself (because I wanted/deserved it)”

In example #2, the idea “because I wanted it” is implied by the affixes. In example #1, the word *Igniādhxuphe* “all human beings” is in the ergative case, even though they are not the ones *giving birth* in the sentence—and the reflexive -*ke* also implies that they are giving birth to themselves. While this system is obviously imperfect, it works to communicate meaning.
Chapter 5
Morphology and Derivation

This chapter is about the derivation of words and morphology in a sentence and how various systems are constructed with morphology.

5.1 Pronouns

This is the pronoun table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>1p</th>
<th>2p</th>
<th>3p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>Identity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergative</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>iūadhu</td>
<td>lūdu</td>
<td>dhuphi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ikiūadhu</td>
<td>iklūdu</td>
<td>ikdhuphi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolutive</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>īja</td>
<td>lū</td>
<td>phi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ikiūja</td>
<td>iklū</td>
<td>ikphi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pronouns are assumed to be animate. Inanimate versions, which only exist in the third person, are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>3p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ergative</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>vedha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ikvedhu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolutive</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>ve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ikve</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An inanimate pronoun may be used as an insult, while speaking about the subject in a passive or indirect way.
5.2 Genitives

The genitive case in Ûvjiolhu distinguishes, like some other languages, between alienable and inalienable possession. For the layperson, alienable possessions are ones that can be (practically) taken away (e.g. food, money, etc.), as opposed to inalienable possessions, which can not be taken away (e.g. family, body parts, etc.).

In Ûvjiolhu, specific distinction is made between nouns that can be alienably or inalienably possessed, and this distinction also takes one of several forms depending on the method of possession. Below is a list of the forms:

Genitives can be in any order, with either the possessor or the possessee coming first, but they must be adjacent to one another.

5.2.1 Alienable Item Possession

Alienable item possession (Gloss: AIP) is for inanimate, small possessions in singular or small numbers. Examples include knife, fruits, drum, and arrows.

AIP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee.

5.2.2 Alienable Range Possession

Alienable range possession (Gloss: ARP) is for possessions possessed by connection or as “territory”. Examples include land, home, domain, and space.

ARP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and kanū after the possessor.

5.2.3 Alienable Mass Possession

Alienable mass possession (Gloss: AMP) is for inanimate, small possessions in large amounts where the number does not matter. Examples include bricks, rice, and money.

AMP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and gahû after the possessor.

5.2.4 Alienable Nonphysical Possession

Alienable nonphysical possession (Gloss: ANP) is for any alienable possession without physical manifestation (or one “technically” owned in the legal sense). Examples include idea, thought, design, and art.

ANP possession is indicated with -dala suffixed to the possessee or the possessee followed by mtala.

5.2.5 Alienable Former Possession

Alienable former possession (Gloss: AFP) is for any alienable possession no longer owned by the grammatical possessor. AFP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and the possessor followed by tâjo.
5.2.6 Inalienable Bodily Possession
Inalienable bodily possession (Gloss: IBP) is for external body parts in singular or small numbers. Examples include head, hands, and ear, as well as tongue and tooth. Eye and hair are not included, using IVP and AMP possession, respectively.
IBP possession is indicated with -mı suffixed to the possessee and neų́e- prefixed to the possessor.

5.2.7 Inalienable Vital Possession
Inalienable vital possession (Gloss: IVP) is for internal organs and body parts usually in small or singular numbers. Examples include heart, veins, liver, and cells, as well as eye, and bones.
IVP possession is indicated with -mıjav suffixed to the possessee and neų́e- prefixed to the possessor.

5.2.7 Inalienable Familial Possession
Inalienable familial possession (Gloss: IFP) is for living family members (also: friends, other loved ones, pets) of the possessor. Examples include mother, siblings, and child.
IFP possession is indicated with -mı́ró suffixed to the possessee and haaų́- prefixed to the possessor or -ni suffixed to the possessee.

Both alienable and inalienable possessions are differentiated from attributional possessions, which are similar to adjectives but act more as “fields” that can be inhabited by adjectives. These possessions are the “fields” themselves, not their values—in Ûvjolhu, one can grammatically “have” age, but not an age of 15 years. That 15 years instead acts as the object of a full-verb phrase, where the subject is age as a “field”, and the verb is the genitive itself (another version of to have)

5.3 Sentence Particles

5.4 Conjunctions
Chapter 6

Nominal Properties

This chapter is about the properties of nouns: number, case, person, and the like, as well as how nouns can relate to one another in a sentence or clause.

6.1 Number

Úvijolhu’s grammatical number system is simple, but then it also uses six different prefixes for the basic plural form. Simple.

6.1.1 Singular Number

Singular number, the basic form for most nouns, is not normally marked. On nouns that are not normally singular, ghūtu- can be applied as a singulative.

6.1.2 Plural Number

Plural number is the next most common, indicating any number other than one. The plural gloss is PLU. It is marked with:

- i- (most nouns)
- e(n)- (some nouns)
- o(m)- (few nouns)
- el- (some vowel-initial nouns)
- ek- (some vowel-initial nouns)
- ik- (pronouns)

6.1.3 Paucal Number

Paucal number, meaning “several” or “some” (in Úvijolhu, a range from 2 to 4) is marked with i- and -athô on most nouns, and uo- and -athô on pronouns and some nouns. Its gloss is PAU.

6.1.4 Unitary Number

Unitary number, rarely different from singular and only used on mass nouns, is marked with ū- or uo(k)-, and means “one of” or “a unit of”. Its gloss is UNI.

6.1.5 Collective Number
Collective number is marked with -phe and sometimes also i(k)-. It means “all of” and its gloss is COL.

### 6.1.6 Specific Number

### 6.1.7 Other Number Systems

### 6.2 Case

#### 6.2.1 Locative Cases

Locatives are applied like adjectives, in relative clause form. Other similar cases (comitative, benefactive, distributive, adjectives themselves, &c.) are encoded similarly. The locatives are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Suffix or Postposition</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locative</td>
<td>X-huli</td>
<td>at/on/in X</td>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>Only used when another case won’t work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antilocative</td>
<td>X-quli</td>
<td>far from X</td>
<td>ALC</td>
<td>Quli can be used on its own (sometimes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superessive</td>
<td>X-xilo</td>
<td>above X</td>
<td>SUP</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Subessive</td>
<td>X-xela</td>
<td>below X</td>
<td>SUB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adessive/Adjacent</td>
<td>X-hu thivâ</td>
<td>in/at X</td>
<td>ADJ</td>
<td>Usually “in” as opposed to “at”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>X-įomihe</td>
<td>away from X</td>
<td>ABL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allative</td>
<td>X-jarixa</td>
<td>to the X, towards X</td>
<td>ALL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prolative</td>
<td>X-quù qhùšù</td>
<td>via X</td>
<td>PRO</td>
<td>Considered poetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perlative</td>
<td>X-qizeiziį</td>
<td>across X, over X</td>
<td>PER</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Type</td>
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<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pertingent</td>
<td>Xₚᵢjo</td>
<td>around X, surrounding X, touching X</td>
<td>PRT</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comitative</td>
<td>Xᵈʰᵉⁱˡqᵃ</td>
<td>accompanied by X</td>
<td>COM</td>
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<td>Benefactive</td>
<td>Xᵏʰᵃⁿᵘ</td>
<td>for X, to X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>X⁻^ótoŋ</td>
<td>with X, using X</td>
<td>INST</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**6.3 Person**

**6.4 Speaker’s Role**
Chapter 7

Phonology

7.1 Inventory

Uvjołuhu has a relatively large phonological inventory with several strange sounds. The entire inventory, in IPA and a romanization, is shown below.

7.1.1 Consonants

This is a table of the consonants of Uvjołuhu, including archaic ones not heard for hundreds of years. A list of notes explaining the asterisks and daggers is below the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Uvular</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>Aspirated</td>
<td>bʰ &lt;bh&gt; ‡</td>
<td>dʰ &lt;dh&gt;</td>
<td>gʰ &lt;gh&gt;</td>
<td>qʰ &lt;qh&gt;</td>
<td>? &lt;’&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Aspirated</td>
<td>b &lt;b&gt;</td>
<td>d &lt;d&gt;</td>
<td>g &lt;g&gt;</td>
<td>q &lt;q&gt;</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m &lt;m&gt;</td>
<td>n &lt;n&gt;</td>
<td>η &lt;ŋη&gt;</td>
<td>η &lt;ŋη&gt;</td>
<td>n &lt;ŋη&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Sibilant</td>
<td>z &lt;z&gt;</td>
<td>z &lt;ź&gt;</td>
<td>x &lt;x&gt;</td>
<td>h &lt;h&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non Sibilant</td>
<td>f &lt;f&gt;</td>
<td>ç &lt;ç&gt; *</td>
<td>x &lt;x&gt; *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Whistled</td>
<td>z &lt;z&gt;</td>
<td>ç &lt;ç&gt; *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>l &lt;l&gt;</td>
<td>ł &lt;ł&gt;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Trill</td>
<td>r &lt;r&gt; ‡*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Glide</td>
<td>Labial</td>
<td>q &lt;q&gt;</td>
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<td>Not Labial</td>
<td>j &lt;j&gt;</td>
<td>w &lt;w&gt;</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:

A - Not Alveolar
B - Aspirated

* - Whistled
A Grammar of Ċuvjolihu

*  Non-distinguished
⁑  Non-distinguished in writing system
†  Only after another consonant
‡  Rare in non-loanwords
ᴬ  Archaic
ᴮ  Only before an uvular

7.1.2 Vowels

Here is the vowel table of all dialects of Ċuvjolihu:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Front-Central</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back-Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>i &lt;ɪ&gt;</td>
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<td>u  &lt;ʊ&gt;</td>
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<td>i &lt;ɪ&gt;ᴬ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Near-Close</td>
<td>ɪ &lt;ɪ&gt;</td>
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<td>o &lt;u&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Close-Mid</td>
<td>e &lt;e&gt;ᴮ*</td>
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<td></td>
<td>o  &lt;ɒ&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
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<td>o &lt;ɑ&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Open-Mid</td>
<td>e &lt;e&gt;</td>
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<td>c  &lt;ɔ&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Near-Open</td>
<td>æ &lt;â&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>a &lt;a&gt;</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*  Non-distinguished
ᴬ  Archaic
ᴮ  Word-final
ᶜ  Informal

7.2 Syllable Rules and Names

Čuvjolihu lacks CVC syllables, but unlike other languages with this property, its reliance on the CV alternation comes across as a strong rhythm that keeps consistency across words.

Čuvjolihu has several kinds of non-CVC syllables, listed below in increasing order of rarity:

CV—make up the bulk of words and retain the aforementioned rhythm.
VC—slightly rarer, and create incidental diphthongs and double consonants.
V—break up the difficult consonants of long words and create diphthongs.
Sidney Welsh

C—only found in isolated words, such as \( m, z, \) and \( q \).

Of course, not every syllable or syllable group is possible, even with the rules above. You’ll never find a word like \( oohi\text{\textmd{asx\textmd{\textmd{as}}}}\text{\textmd{up\textmd{\textmd{phi}}}} \), for reasons both obvious and less so. I’ve created a table of all the possible consonants in "Uvjdolu" (reference this to decide if a compound word is valid!).

Here each column is divided into columns for CV and VC order.

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## A Grammar of Úvjolihu

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### 7.3 Stress

### 7.4 Intonation

### 7.5 Historical Change
Chapter 8

Regularity and Variation

8.1 Noun Variation

8.2 Verb Variation

8.3 Other Variation

8.4 Systematic Change
Chapter 9

Complex Systems
Chapter 10

Evolution
Chapter 11

The Gitiidhnâe Writing System

This chapter is about Gitiidhnâe, an abugida writing system used by Úvjolihu speakers. It was created in about 780 AE and has evolved in the years since.

11.1 Basic Letters and Syllable Formation

Below is a table of the phonetic glyphs of Gitiidhnâe:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Glyph</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td><img src="image" alt="g" /></td>
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11.2 Complex Writing Rules

11.3 Writing, Punctuation, and Format

11.4 Spelling