EUROPAIO:

A BRIEF GRAMMAR
OF THE
EUROPEAN LANGUAGE

Vol. 1

Writing System

Phonology

Morphology (1)

Dnghu   Carlos Quiles Casas

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Europaio: A Brief Grammar of the European Language, Vol. 1

By [Carlos Quiles](#)

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Europaio has been introduced as the answer to the present communication and cultural obstacles of today's Europe, and Dnghu's *Europaio: A Brief Grammar of the European Language* is the most thorough reference to this important modern (old) language.

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Preface

According to dutch sociologist Abram de Swaan, every language in the world fits into one of four categories according to the ways it enters into (what he calls) the *global language system*.

• **Central**: About a hundred languages in the world belong here, widely used and comprising about 95% of humankind.

• **Supercentral**: Each of these serves to connect speakers of central languages. There are only twelve supercentral languages, and they are **Arabic, Chinese, English, French, German, Hindi, Japanese, Malay, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish** and **Swahili**.

• **Hypercentral**: The lone hypercentral language at present is English. It not only connects central languages (which is why it is on the previous level) but serves to connect supercentral languages as well. Both Spanish and Russian are supercentral languages used by speakers of many languages, but when a Spaniard and a Russian want to communicate, they will usually do it in English.

• **Peripheral**: All the thousands of other languages on the globe occupy a peripheral position because they are hardly or not at all used to connect any other languages. In other words, they are mostly not perceived as useful in a multilingual situation and therefore not worth anyone's effort to learn.

De Swaan points out that the admission of new member states to the European Union brings with it the addition of more languages, making the polyglot identity of the EU ever more unwieldy and expensive. On the other hand, it is clearly politically impossible to settle on a single language for all the EU's institutions. It has proved easier for the EU to agree on a common currency than a common language.

Of the EU's current languages, at least 14 are what we might call a 'robust' language, whose speakers are hardly likely to surrender its rights. Five of them (English, French, German, Portuguese and Spanish) are supercentral languages that are already widely used in international communication, and the rest are all central.

In the ongoing activity of the EU's institutions, there are inevitably shortcuts taken - English, French and German are widely used as 'working languages' for informal discussions. But at the formal level all the EU's official languages (=the language of each member state) are declared equal.

Using all these languages is very expensive and highly inefficient. There are now 21 official languages: **Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish Gaelic, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish** and **Swedish**, and three *semiofficial* (?): **Catalan**, **Basque** and **Galician**. This means that all official documents must be translated into all the members' recognized languages, and representatives of each member state have a right to expect a speech in their language to be interpreted. And each member state has the right to hear ongoing proceedings interpreted into its own language.

Since each of the twenty one languages needs to be interpreted/translated into all the rest of the twenty, 21 x 20 (minus one, because a language doesn't need to be translated into itself) comes to a total of **420** combinations. So interpreters/translators have to be found for ALL combinations.

In the old Common Market days the costs of using the official languages Dutch/English/French/German could be borne and interpreters/translators could be readily found. But as each new member is admitted, the costs and practical difficulties are rapidly becoming intolerably burdensome.

The crucial point here is that each time a new language is added, the total number of combinations isn't additive but multiplies: 420 + one language is not 421 but 462, 22 x 21 since every language has to be translated/interpreted into all the others (except itself).

It is not hard to see that the celebration of linguistic diversity in the EU only lightly disguises the logistical nightmare that is developing. The EU is now preparing for more languages to come: **Romanian** and **Bulgarian**, with the incorporation of these two countries to the EU; **Albanian**, **Serbian**, **Bosnian** and **Croatian** (the three formerly known as Serbo-Croatian, but further differentiated after the Yugoslavian wars) if they are admitted to the EU; and many other regional languages, following the example of Irish Gaelic, and the three *semi-official* Spanish languages: **Alsatian**, **Breton**, **Corsican**

and **Welsh** are likely candidates to follow, as well as **Scottish Gaelic**, **Occitan**, **Alsatian**, **Low Saxon**, **Venetian**, **Padanian**, **Sardinian**, **Neapolitan**, **Asturian**, and many others, depending on the political pressure they can put on EU institutions. It will probably not be long before **Turkish** (and with it **Kurdish**, too) is another one of the official languages, and this could bring the number of EU languages over 40. The number of possible combinations are at best above 1000, which doesn't seem within the reach of any organization, no matter how well-meaning.

Many EU administrators feel that to a great extent this diversity can be canceled out by ever-increasing reliance on the computer translation that is already in heavy use. It is certainly true that if we couldn't count on computers to do a lot of the translation 'heavy lifting', even the most idealistic administrator would never even dream of saddling an organization with an enterprise that would quickly absorb a major part of its finances and energy. But no machine has yet been invented *or probably ever will be* that can produce a translation without at the very least final editing by a human translator.

The rapidly increasing profusion of languages in the EU is quickly becoming intolerably clumsy and prohibitively expensive. And this doesn't even count the additional expense caused by printing in the Greek alphabet and soon in the Cyrillic (Bulgarian and Serbian). Everyone agrees that all languages must have their 'place in the sun' and their diversity celebrated. But common sense suggests that the EU is going to be forced to settle on a very small number of working languages, perhaps only one, and the linguistic future of the EU has become the subject of intense debate.

Only in public numbers, the EU official translation/interpretation costs amount to near 10.000 M€, and it comes to more than 13% of today's administrative expenditure of the EU institutions. There are also indirect costs of linguistic programmes aimed at promoting the learning of three or more languages since the *Year of Languages* (2001), which also means hundreds of millions of euros, which haven't been counted in the EU's budget as linguistic expenditure, but are usually included in budget sections such as Cohesion or Citizenship. It is hard to imagine the huge amount of money (real or potential) lost by EU citizens and companies each day because of communication problems, not only because they *can't* speak a third party's language, but because they *won't* speak it, even if they can.

Preserving the strict equality is the EU's lifeblood, and it is a very disturbing thought that the strongest candidate for a *one-language EU* is the one with an established dominance in the world, **English**, which is actually only spoken by a minority within Europe. Latin and Artificial languages (as Esperanto, Ido or Interlingua) have been proposed as alternatives, but neither the first, because it is only related to romance languages, nor the second, because they are (too) artificial (invented by one person or a small group at best), solve the linguistic theoretical problems, not to talk about the practical ones.

The **Europaio** or European language that we present in this work, on the contrary, faces not only the addressed theoretical problems (mainly related to cultural heritage and social proud) but brings also a practical solution for the EU, without which there can be no real integration. European nations are not prepared to give up some of their powers to a greater political entity, unless they don't have to give up some fundamental rights; among them, the linguistic ones have thus proven harder to deal with than it was expected, as they are issues which raise very strong national or regional feelings.

Europaio is already the grandmother of most of the EU's languages - probably more than 97% of its population have an Indo-European language as their mother tongue, and the rest can generally speak at least one of them as second language. Adopting Europaio as the main official language for the EU will not mean giving up linguistic rights, but enhancing them, as every other official language will have then the same status, under their common ancestor; it won't mean loosing the own culture for the sake of unity, but recovering it altogether for the same purpose; and, above all, it will not mean choosing a *lingua franca* to communicate with foreigners within an international organization, but accepting a National Language to communicate with other nationals within the EU.

Bibliography:

Abram de Swaan, *Words of the World: The Global Language System*. Cambridge: Polity, 2001.

- The above information is mainly copied (literally, adjusted or modified) from two of Mr. William Z. Shetter *Language Miniatures*, which can be found in his web site:

http://home.bluemarble.net/~langmin/miniatures/Qvalue.htm

http://home.bluemarble.net/~langmin/miniatures/eulangs.htm

- EU official expenditure numbers can be consulted here:

http://europa.eu.int/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=MEMO/05/10&type=HTML&aged=0&language=EN&guiLanguage=en

http://europa.eu.int/comm/budget/library/publications/budget_in_fig/dep_eu_budg_2006_en.pdf

Official information about EU languages can be found at:

http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/lang/languages/index_en.html

http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/lang/languages/langmin/euromosaic/index_en.html

Who This Book Is for

This book is a reference grammar on the modern Europaio language system. It is not a textbook on Comparative Indo-European Linguistics, nor is it some kind of scholar publication. It is indeed not intended for IE scholars or students wanting to have a thorough approach to the Indo-European languages or to the Proto-Indo-European.

It is not *The* definite Grammar, either. In fact, this is the first volume to be published, and only deals with the Europaio Morphology, leaving Word Formation and Syntax issues for the second volume. If you want to follow (or participate in) the newest developments made by Dnghu and the other institutions conforming the Europaio consortium, they will be posted on Dnghu's and Europaio's web sites.

What's New in This Edition

This is *Europaio: A Brief Grammar of the European Language*, *vol. 1, First Edition*, with Europaio in *version 1.0*, already in Beta phase. The timetable of the next changes is still unclear, but news can be followed at Dnghu's and Europaio's web sites and official centres.

We have changed some features of good old Europaio 0.x (2004-2005), especially:

1. The old alphabet, which followed the traditional **c-k-q** distinction (and special characters for palato-velar and labio-velar *g*), is impossible to maintain after the decision not to differentiate the - traditionally written - palatal pronunciation of the velars. The *c* is then now used with its oldest phonetic value, g-like.

2. The laryngeals' (not supported by more traditional views) question has been solved, as the -later, northern- Third Stage selection avoids any further discussion. Those words for which a schwa-sound is reconstructed after the (supposed) laryngeal's time will be written with an *a*. So, version 0.x **phter** becomes version 1.0 **pater**, although the pronunciation remains the same, /pəter/.

3. The more phonetical writings of the Alpha phase, with **j** and **w** always written for consonantal *i*, *u*, has proven a very difficult and (surprisingly) too artificial way of representing the Europaio. The possibility of writing always and only **i**,**u** has been discarded altogether for the artificial (more *Latinized*) feeling it gives up, and the practical problems that arouse, especially when followed by sonants. They will be maintained, then, in certain cases, in which the use of **i** and **u** would be especially confusing or *artificial*.

4. The historically alternating cases *Oblique* / *Dative-Locative-Instrumental-Ablative*, shown on a declension-by-declension basis, was more difficult than a simple five-case system for all declensions and for singular and plural alike, like in the Northern Dialects. Wether an innovation or (more probably) an archaism, the five-case system is more clearly reconstructed, easier to use and more similar to modern languages, than the (mainly southern) eight-case system.

5. The Aorist has been eventually replaced, and its stem is now called (and used for the) Imperfect. The Northern dialects influence is again stronger than the general inclination towards looking for older, obscured, unitary formations.

6. The Dual reconstruction is abandoned, as it is a doubtful feature of the oldest IE, very difficult to reconstruct and indeed not too important for the modern language.

7. The use of loan words, such as *photo*, *fides* (*faith*) or *mille* (Latin *thousand*), has been reduced, as we have decided to translate every possible word to Europaio, as **bhawtos** or **bhidhes**, and even in cases where the reconstruction is not sure, as in **mli** (possibly derived from IE **smgheslo** > mghesli > mihili > mille in Latin) or in **seros**, *hero* (*heros* in Greek), because -s is the normal reconstruction of the initial -h in Greek dialects.

Comments and Questions

Please address comments and questions concerning this book or the main Europaio project to our provisional location:

Dnghu

Academia Biblos

Pl. Sta. Maria de la Cabeza, 3

Badajoz, 06004, Spain

(034) 924249383

There is a web page for this book, which lists corrections, errata, examples, new versions or any additional information. You can access this page at:

http://www.dnghu.org/en/grammar/

To comment or ask technical questions about this book, send email to:

grammar@dnghu.org

For more information about books, downloads, conferences, Resource Centers and the Dnghu Network, see the Dnghu and Europaio web sites at:

http://www.dnghu.org/ and http://www.europaio.org/

For new official developments in the Europaio language, please visit the Europaio consortium web site at http://www.europaiom.org/

Acknowledgments

To Mayte, my best friend, for her support and encouragement before I worked on this project, even before she knew what was it all about. For the support and encouragement while I worked on it. For the money and time spent in lunchtimes, books, web sites, servers and computers. For unending days of unending weeks and months with no tangible output. For helping me with databases, taking books from libraries and returning them, copying texts and doing everything alone for me, so that I could work more time on the main project. And for her excitement when talking about the changes that this work could bring for the world's future. THANK YOU.

To my parents, for understanding finally how important it was for me to have enough free time to write this.

To my good friends and the others, even to those who are not with me anymore, because every single one of them has given me something which eventually ends in this work.

Conventions Used in this Book

1. We use Europaio instead of *European*, because thus the terms *Indo-European*, and *European* (of Europe or of the EU), the *European Dialects* (i.e., the Northern IE Dialects, those developed within Europe) and the language system called *Europaio* are easily distinguished. In English, the suitable names for the language are *European language* and *Europaio*. It is similar to the pairs *Basque language* or *Euskera*, *Irish language* or *Gaelic, etc.,* in which the use of the English adjective alone could be confusing.

We don't use the correct form *Europaiom*, however, because it is an inflected form which means "the European" in Europaio.

In the beginning of the book, we talk about IE III and Europaio as different concepts, as the first is the language spoken in its prehistoric community, and the second the modern revived language. This distinction is not always made, however, the term Europaio being used constantly instead of IE III to refer to the old language, usually when talking about the features of the old language in the new system.

2. Accentuated vowels, semi-vowels or sonants are in **bold** type, while the long vowels and sonants are <u>underlined</u>. We avoid the use of accents and special phonetic characters to facilitate the printing of copies in different formats.

3. For zero-grade or zero-ending the symbol ø is sometimes used.

4. In phonetics (usually between slashes or brackets), a capital G is used for labio-velar g.

5. In Romance languages, *Theme* is used instead of *Stem*. Therefore, when *Theme Vowel* or *Thematic* is employed, it refers to the Stem endings, usually to the **e/o** endings. More on this can be read on the corresponding sections.

6. For the phonetic representation of sonants we put an apostrophe before it, and not (as it is usual in phonetic representations) a different character.

7. The following abbreviations apply:

IE   : Indo-European

PIE   : Proto-Indo-European

alb.   : Albanian

arm.   : Armenian

bal.   : Baltic

bsl.   : Baltoslavic

cel.   : Celtic

eng.   : English

ger.   : Germanic

got.   : Gothic

gr.   : Greek

i.-i.   : Indo-Iranian

lat.   : Latin

o.-u.   : Osco-Umbrian

ohg.   : Old High German

oi.   : Old Indian

osl.   : Old Slavic

toc.   : Tocharian

ved.   : Vedic Sanskrit

1. Introduction

1.1. The Indo-European

1. The Indo-European languages are a family of several hundred languages and dialects, including most of the major languages of Europe, as well as many in South Asia. Contemporary languages in this family include English, German, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Hindustani (i.e., mainly Hindi and Urdu) and Russian. It is the

Countries with IE languages majority in orange. In yellow, countries in which have official status. [© gfdl]

largest family of languages in the world today, being spoken by approximately half the world's population as their mother tongue, while most of the other half speak at least one of them.

2. The classification of modern IE dialects into languages and dialects is controversial, as it depends on many factors, such as the pure linguistic ones (most of the times being the least important of them), the social, economic, political and historical ones. However, there are certain common ancestors, some of them old, well-attested languages (or language systems), as Classic Latin for Romance languages (such as French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Rumanian or Catalan), Classic Sanskrit for the Indo-Aryan languages or Classic Greek for present-day Greek.

Furthermore, there are other, still older -some of them well known- dialects from which these old language systems were derived and later systematized, which are, following the above examples, Archaic Latin, Archaic Sanskrit and Archaic Greek, also attested in older compositions and inscriptions. And there are, finally, old related dialects which help develop a Proto-Language, as the Faliscan (and Osco-Umbrian for many scholars) for Latino-Faliscan (Italic for many), the Avestan for Indo-Iranian or the Mycenaean for Proto-Greek.

NOTE. Although the proto-language groupings for IE languages may vary depending on different criteria, they all have certainly the same common origin, and that it is generally easier to

reconstruct than the individual groupings. For example, if we had only texts of old French, old Spanish and old Portuguese, medieval Italian and modern Rumanian and Catalan; then Vulgar Latin (i.e., the features of the common dialects spoken by all of them, not the older, artificial, literary Classical Latin) could be *easily* [see Criticisms B.2] reconstructed, but the groupings of the derived dialects not. In fact, the actual groupings of the romance languages are controversial, even knowing well enough Archaic, Classic and Vulgar Latin...
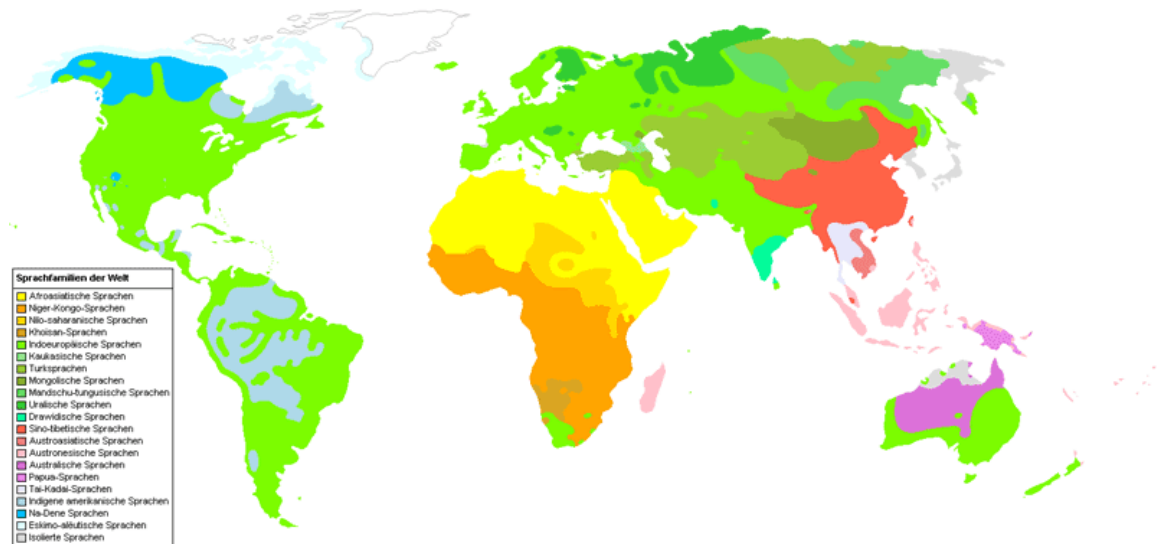
In **green**, majority of population speaking Indo-European languages. In **dark green**, Uralic language majority. In **light brown**, Turkic language majorities. [© gfdl]

1.2. European Languages

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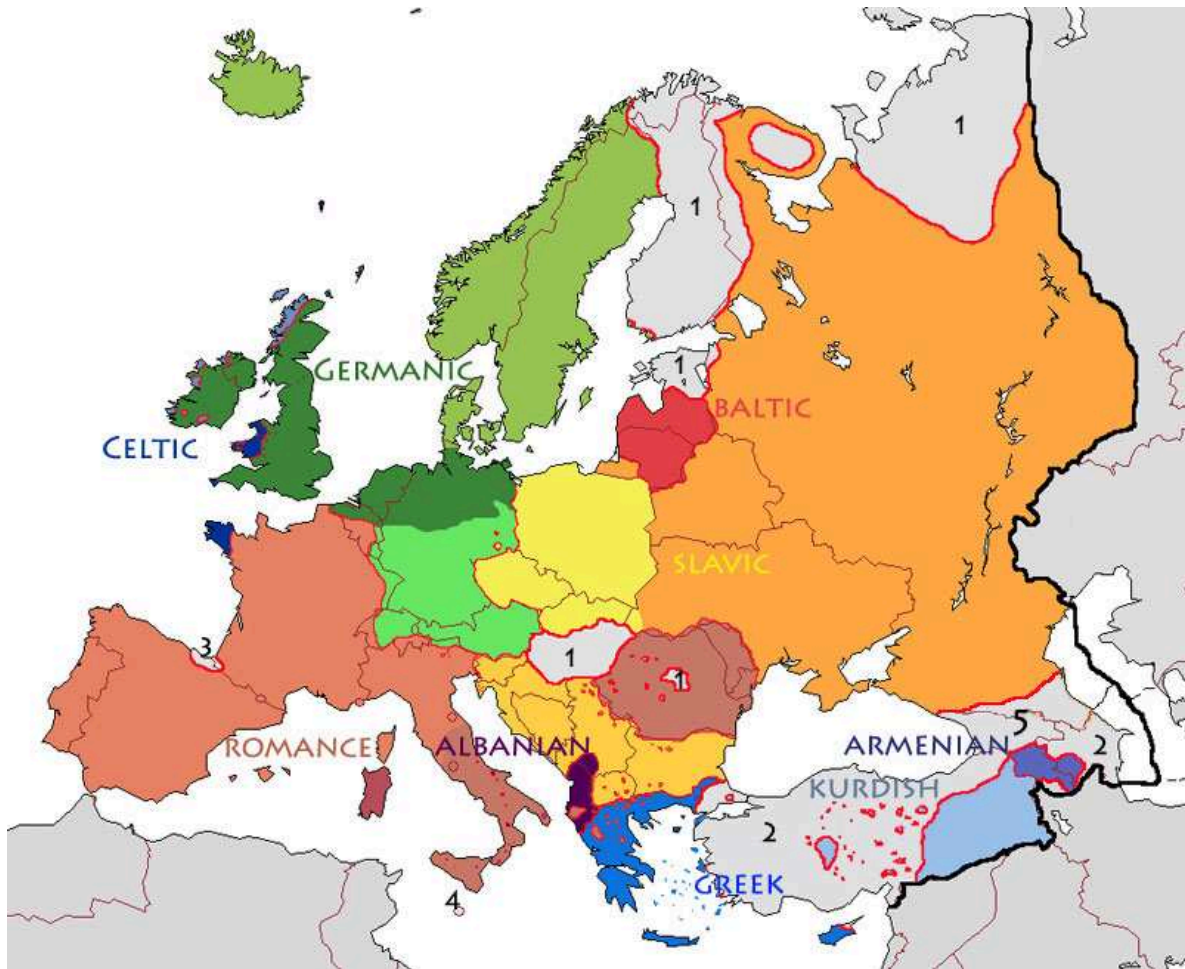
The black line divides the zones traditionally (or politically) considered inside the European subcontinent. In grey (inside Europe), non-IE languages: 1) Uralic languages; 2) Turkic languages; 3) Basque; 4) Maltese; 5) Caucasian languages.

NORTHERN IE DIALECTS

Germanic [w] [© gfdl]

The **Germanic languages** form one of the branches of the Indo-European (IE) language family. The largest Germanic languages are English and German, with ca. 340 and some 120 million native speakers, respectively.

Other significant languages include a number of Low Germanic languages (like Dutch) and the Scandinavian languages (Danish, Norwegian and Swedish).
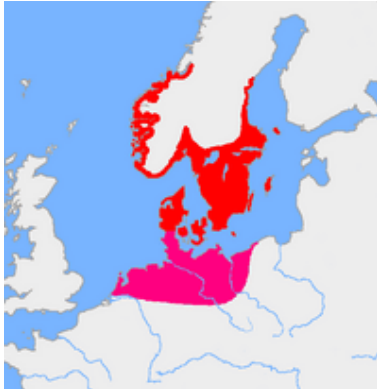
Pre-Roman Iron Age cultures associated with Proto-Germanic, ca 500 BC-50 BC. The area south of Scandinavia is the Jastorf culture [©]

Their common ancestor is Proto-Germanic, probably still spoken in the mid-1st millennium BC in Iron Age Northern Europe. Germanic, and all its descendants, is characterised by a number of unique linguistic features, most famously the consonant change known as Grimm's law. Early Germanic dialects enter history with the Germanic peoples who settled in northern Europe along the borders of the Roman Empire from the 2nd century

The earliest evidence of Germanic is from names, recorded in the 1st century by Tacitus, and in a single instance in the 2nd century BC, on the Negau helmet. From roughly the 2nd century AD, some speakers of early Germanic dialects developed the Elder Futhark. Early runic inscriptions are also largely limited to personal names, and difficult to interpret. The Gothic language was written in the Gothic alphabet developed by Bishop Ulfilas for his translation of the Bible in the 4th century. Later, Christian priests and monks who spoke and read Latin in addition to their native Germanic tongue began writing the Germanic languages with slightly modified Latin letters, but in Scandinavia, runic alphabets remained in common use throughout the Viking Age.

In addition to the standard Latin alphabet, various Germanic languages use a variety of accent marks and extra letters, including umlaut, the ß (*Eszett*), IJ, Æ, Å, Ð, and Þ, from

runes. Historic printed German is frequently set in blackletter typefaces (e.g. Fraktur or Schwabacher).
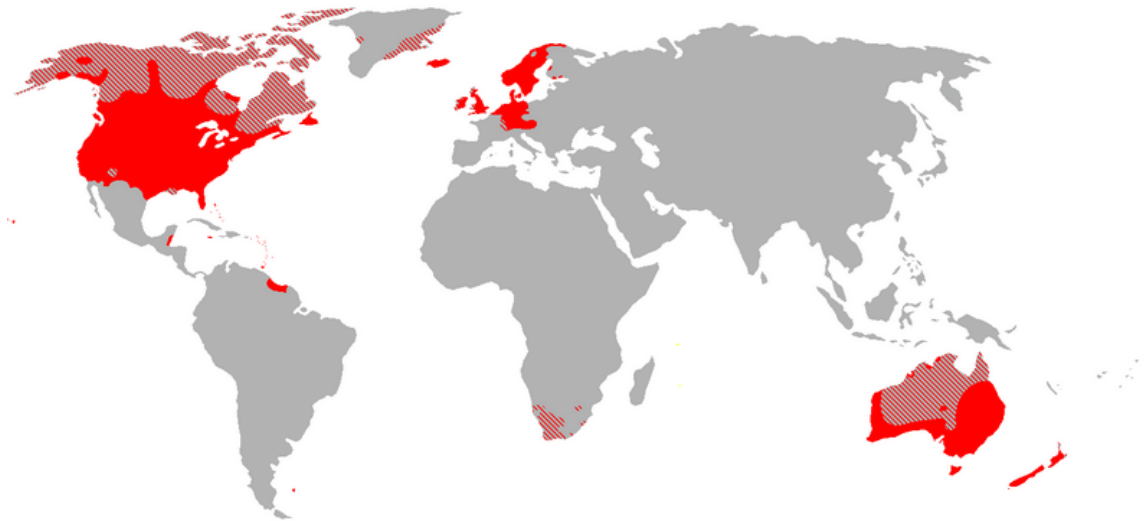
Spread of Germanic languages. Solid red indicates that a majority of inhabitants speaks a Germanic language. Striped red indicates that a sizeable minority (more than 10%) speaks a Germanic language. [© gfdl]

Romance [w] [© gfdl]

The **Romance languages**, a major branch of the IE, comprise all languages that descended from Latin, the language of the Roman Empire. The Romance languages have some 800 million native speakers worldwide, mainly in the Americas, Europe, and Africa; as well as in many smaller regions scattered through the world. The largest languages are Spanish and Portuguese, with about 400 and 200 million mother tongue speakers respectively, most of them outside Europe. Within Europe, French (with 80 million) and Italian (70 million) are the largest ones.

All Romance languages descend from Vulgar Latin, the language of soldiers, settlers, and slaves of the Roman Empire, which was substantially different from the Classical Latin of the Roman literati. Between 200 BC and 100 AD, the expansion of the Empire, coupled with administrative and educational policies of Rome, made Vulgar Latin the dominant native language over a wide area spanning from the Iberian Peninsula to the Western coast of the Black Sea. During the Empire's decadence and after its collapse and fragmentation in 5th century, Vulgar Latin evolve independently within each local area, and eventually diverged into dozens of distinct languages. The oversea empires

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established by Spain, Portugal and France after the 15th century then spread Romance to the other continents — to such an extent that about 2/3 of all Romance speakers are now outside Europe.

In spite of multiple influences from pre-Roman languages and from later invasions, the phonology, morphology, lexicon, and syntax of all Romance languages are predominantly derived from Vulgar Latin.
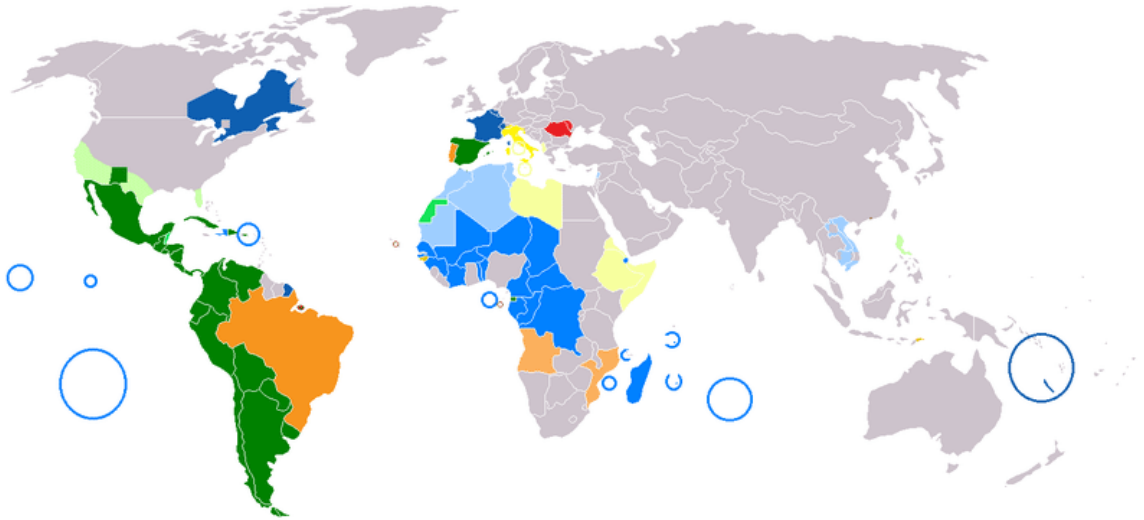
Romance languages in the World. **Green** - Spanish; **Orange** - Portuguese; **Blue** - French; **Yellow** - Italian; **Red** - Rumanian [©]

Slavic [w] [© gfdl]

The **Slavic languages** (also called Slavonic languages), a group of closely related languages of the Slavic peoples and a subgroup of IE languages, have speakers in most of Eastern Europe, in much of the Balkans, in parts of Central Europe, and in the northern part of Asia. The largest languages are Russian and Polish, with 165 and some 47 million speakers, respectively.

The oldest Slavic literary language was Old Church Slavonic, which later evolved into Church Slavonic.

Distribution of the Slavic languages in Europe, in the areas where it is either recognized as an official language, or spoken by a majority. Also, in stripes, areas where a language was spoken before it got extinct or, the regions where it is best represented even if not spoken by a majority [©]

Celtic [w] [© gfdl]

Distribution of the Celtic languages in Europe before Roman expansion. [© gfdl]

The **Celtic languages** are the languages descended from Proto-Celtic, or "Common Celtic", a branch of the greater IE language family. During the 1st millennium BC, they were spoken across Europe, from the southwest of the Iberian Peninsula and the North Sea, up the Rhine and down the Danube to the Black Sea and the Upper Balkan Peninsula, and into Asia Minor (Galatia), and even in Anatolia. Today, Celtic languages are now limited to a few enclaves in the British Isles and on the peninsula of Brittany in France.

The distinction of Celtic into different sub-families probably occurred about 1000 BC. The early Celts are commonly associated with the archaeological Urnfield culture, the La Tène culture, and the Hallstatt culture.

Baltic [w] [© gfdl]

The **Baltic languages** are a group of related languages belonging to the IE language family and spoken mainly in areas extending east and southeast of the Baltic Sea in Northern Europe. The language group is sometimes divided into two sub-groups: Western Baltic, containing only extinct languages as Prussian or Galindan, and Eastern Baltic, containing both extinct and the two living languages in the group: Lithuanian and Latvian (including literary Latvian and Latgalian). While related, the Lithuanian, the Latvian, and particularly the Old Prussian

Old Baltic dialects, modified from (apparently not copyrighted)
http://indoeuro.bizland.com/tree/balt/balt.html image

vocabularies differ substantially from each other and are not mutually intelligible. The now extinct Old Prussian language has been considered the most archaic of the Baltic languages.

Albanian [w] [© gfdl]

Albanian (gjuha shqipe) is a language spoken by over 8 million people primarily in Albania, Kosovo, and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, but also by smaller numbers of ethnic Albanians in other parts of the Balkans, along the eastern coast of Italy and in Sicily, as well other emigrant groups. The language forms its own distinct branch of the IE languages.

The Albanian language has no living close relatives among the IE languages. There is no scholarly consensus over its origin. Some scholars maintain that it derives from the Illyrian language, and others claim that it derives from Thracian. The former group doesn't exclude a relationship with Thracian.

SOUTHERN IE DIALECTS

Greek [w] [© gfdl]

Greek (Greek Ελληνικά, "Hellenic") is an IE language with a documented history of 3,500 years. Today, it is spoken by 15 million people in Greece, Cyprus, the former Yugoslavia, particularly the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Bulgaria, Albania and Turkey.

Distribution of old Greek dialects, ca. 400 BC, after Risch (1955) [© gfdl]

Greek has been written in the Greek alphabet, the first true alphabet, since the 9th century B.C. and before that, in Linear B and the Cypriot syllabaries.

Greek literature has a long and rich tradition.

Greek has been spoken in the Balkan Peninsula since the 2nd millennium BC. The earliest evidence of this is found in the Linear B tablets dating from 1500 BC. The later Greek alphabet is unrelated to Linear B, and was derived from the Phoenician alphabet; with minor modifications, it is still used today.

Armenian [w] [© gfdl]

Eastern Armenian language today (Courtesy of The General Libraries, The University of Texas at Austin)

Armenian is an IE language spoken by the Armenian people in the Armenian Republic and also used by the Armenian Diaspora. It constitutes an independent branch of the Indo-European language family.

Armenian is regarded as a close relative of Phrygian. From the modern languages Greek seems to be the most closely related to Armenian. Armenian shares major isoglosses with Greek, and some linguists propose that the linguistic ancestors of the Armenians and Greeks were either identical or in a close contact relation.

Armenian is written in the Armenian alphabet, created by Saint Mesrop Mashtots in 406 AD. This alphabet, with two additional letters, is still used today.

Literature written in Armenian appeared by the 5th century. The written language of that time, called classical Armenian or Grabar, remained the Armenian literary language, with various changes, until the 19th century.

Kurdish (IRANIAN) [w] [© gfdl]

The **Kurdish language** (*Kurdî* in Kurdish) is spoken in the region loosely called Kurdistan, including Kurdish populations in parts of Iran, Iraq, Syria and Turkey. Kurdish is an official language in Iraq while it is banned in Syria. Before August 2002, the Turkish government placed severe restrictions on the use of Kurdish, prohibiting the language in education and broadcast media. In Iran,

Kurdish speaking areas of the Middle East.*(Courtesy of The University of Texas at Austin)*

although it is used in the local media and newspapers, there are severe restrictions on its use in education. Teaching Kurmanji Kurdish is prohibited in Iranian schools.

The Kurdish language has its own historical development, continuity, grammatical system and rich living vocabularies in comparison to other members of the Iranian language family. The number of speakers in Turkey is deemed to be more than 15 million, but an exact census is not available.

Romany (INDO-ARYAN) [w] [© gfdl]

Romany (or Romani) is the term used for the IE languages of the European Roma and Sinti. These Indo-Aryan languages should not be confused with either Rumanian or Romansh, both of which are Romance languages.

The **Roma** people (singular *Rom*; sometimes *Rroma*, *Rrom*), often referred to as Gypsies, are an ethnic group who live primarily in Europe. They are believed to be descended from nomadic peoples from northwestern India and Pakistan who began a Diaspora from the eastern end of the Iranian plateau into Europe and north Africa about 1,000 years ago. **Sinte** or Sinti is the name some communities of the nomadic people usually called "Gypsies" in English prefer for themselves. This includes communities

known in German and Dutch as *Zigeuner* and in Italian as *Zingari*. They are closely related to, and are usually considered to be a subgroup of, the Roma people. Roma and Sinte do not form a majority in any state.

Today's dialects of Romany are differentiated by the vocabulary accumulated since their departure from Anatolia, as well as through divergent phonemic evolutions and grammatical features. Many Roma no longer speak the language or speak various new contact languages from the local language with the addition of Romany vocabulary.

1.3. Traditional Views

1. In the beginnings of the Indo-European or Indo-Germanic studies (already using the comparative grammar), the Indo-European (or IE) language was reconstructed as an unitary language; for Bopp (and the first Indo-European scholars), it was the search of *The* IE. It appeared, then, at one place (in Europe or Asia) and at one point in time (more or less at some point between ten thousand and two thousand years ago, depending on the individual theories), and spread thereafter in individual languages which in turn had different dialects and so on.

2. The *Stammbaumtheorie*, or Genealogical Tree theory, states that languages split up in other languages, each of them in turn split up in others, and so on, like the branches of a tree. For example, a well known old theory about IE is that, from *The* IE, two main group of dialects known as *Centum* and

Sample of a Genealogical Tree of the IE languages [© gfdl]

Satem (because of their pronunciation of the gutturals, like in the word **kmtom**, *hundred*) separated, and from them anothers split up, which would be the common ancestors of the present languages, like Proto-Germanic (or Germanic), Proto-Italic (or Italic), Proto-Celtic (or Celtic), and so on.

Classic, wrong, satem-centum dialect map [© gfdl]

NOTE. The division in Centum and Satem is one of the oldest known features of the IE languages, and is still in use by many (usually uninformed) to classify the languages in two groups, thus generally disregarding the huge knowledge acquired in the last hundred years by IE scholars; especially the general agreement in the lack of relevance of phonetic isoglosses as this one for a general classification into main groups of dialects.

3. The *Wellentheorie*, or Waves Theory, from J. Schmidt, states that one language is created from another by the spreading of innovations, like the waves of the water when a stone hits it: hence the name. The lines which define the extension of the innovations

are called isoglosses. The existence of different isoglosses over a common territory signals the existence of a new language or dialect. But there are transition zones, where languages or dialects and isoglosses do not coincide.

4. Every single theory of these old times supposed, then, that the objective was to obtain one IE, *The* IE, and every discovery of that or this feature of any language was then inserted into the main unitary Scheme, thus classifying them into innovations or archaisms of the old, native Proto-Language.

5. The Europaio is based mainly on *The* IE. Not because it upholds the traditional views, but because, even though we support the modern Three-Stage theory, we still look for the immediate common ancestor of the European languages, and this is still this old, unitary IE. Indeed, our vision is not that of the traditionalists, nor can our final output be theirs, as the assumption of the new theories imply a different approach to *The* IE; seen as a whole, though, our system is almost *The* IE, but for some due changes.

NOTE. In fact, most works on which the Europaio is based, especially those of the vocabulary, are in turn based on these old sources, although they have been revised by new scholars from the point of view of the new theories.

1.4. The Three Stages

1. Even the traditionalists had noted in their works the possibility of older origins of the IE, although they didn't dare to describe those possible older stages of the language.

Today, a general Three-Stage Theory describes how the IE history can be divided into three main layers or Stages (more or less artificial, as it tends to assume that there were no significant intermediate stages): one, the common (immediate) ancestor of the Indo-European proto-languages, that which had been searched for from the beginning, *The* IE, which now will be called **IE III** (also called *Late PIE*) and also Europaio in this Grammar. The second stage corresponds to the splitting of - at least - the Anatolian and IE III from their common source, **IE II** (*Middle PIE*). What is called IE I or Proto-Indo-European, **PIE** for short (*Early PIE*), is the ancestor of IE II; there is, however, no common position as to how it was like.

NOTE. It is impossible to trace back a single work that *reveals* the three stages, as the *Theory* developed from the very origins of the IE studies, and it was not until the Anatolian writings were discovered and read (already in this century) that this Theory could be rightly developed. We don't believe a single scholar to have made the whole *Theory*, but that multiple contributions have helped to achieve this (now) general *Assumption*.

2. Another division has to be made, however, so that the *Europaio* concept is properly understood. The IE III language split up early into two main dialects, (probably) the *Northern* and *Southern* - as we will call them from now on when necessary-, both of them are called IE III as a whole. As far as we know, the Northern later split up (we cannot exactly know the how and when of each dialect) in at least Tocharian, Germanic, Celtic, Latin, Baltic and Slavic, the last two sometimes referred to as Baltoslavic, for their shared features. The Southern split mainly in Greek and Indo-Iranian.
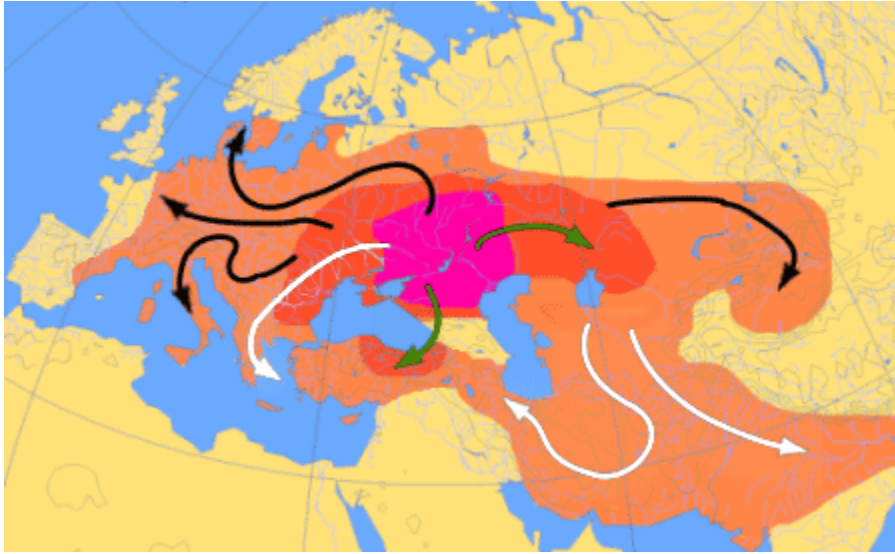
Sample Map of the IE languages expansion 4000-1000 BC, according to the Kurgan and Three-Stage hypothesis. In purple, the Yamna culture corresponding to PIE (4000-3500). In dark red and green arrows, expansion of **IE II** and **Anatolian** about 2500 BC. In lighter orange, spread of **IE III** dialects about 1000 BC, the black arrows signaling the Northern dialects expansion, the white ones that of the Southern dialects. [© gfdl]

NOTE. Albanian is usually included in the Northern dialects, while Armenian is sometimes included in the Southern ones.

The Northern dialects have some common features, as the five-case noun inflection or the -r endings (probably archaisms) against the eight cases of the Southern (an innovation, then).

NOTE. Modern Europaio is based on both, i.e., on the IE III group of dialects as a whole, as it is not sure to what extent the so called innovations of one weren't really already known to the other, before they split up. It is obvious, however, that we choose, when necessary, the formations of the Northern or European dialects over those of the Southern.

1.5. The Homeland

1. The search of the *Urheimat* or Homeland of those who first spoke PIE has developed along with the linguistic research, being the Archaeology the science which helps the most in looking for this hypothetical common prehistoric land.

2. The peoples who spoke IE III, already separated from IE II dialects (such as Anatolian) were probably located in the steppe north of the Caucasus, in the surroundings of the Volga river. This location combine the expansion of the Northern and Southern dialects, and agree also with the Kurgan hypothesis.
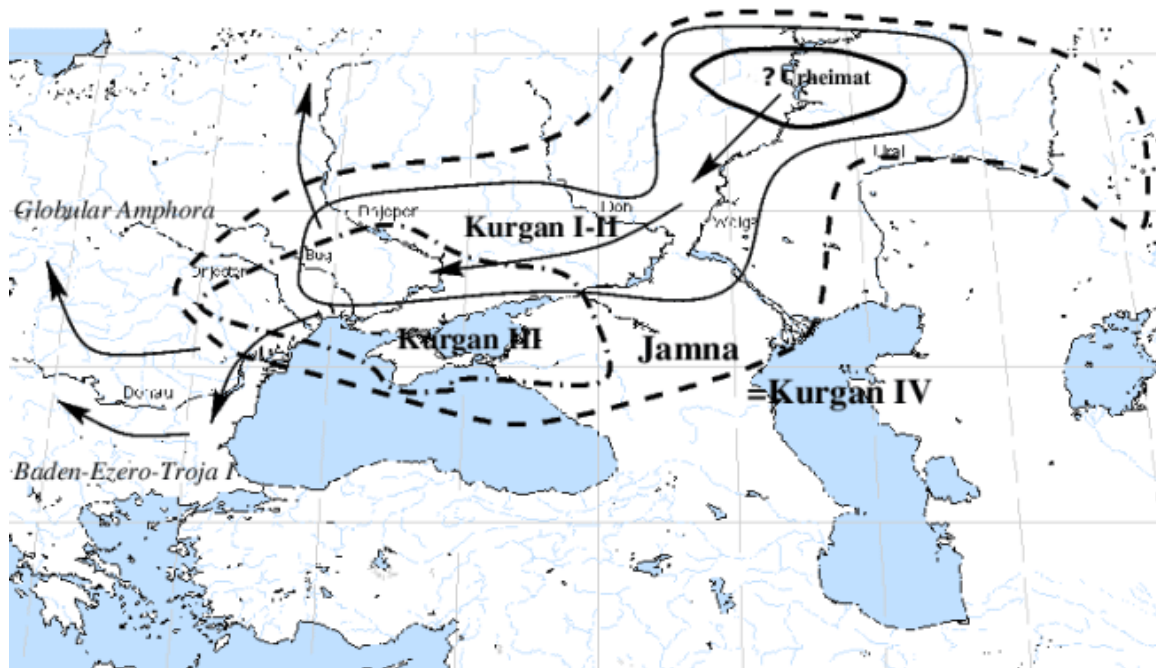
Map of the hypothetical Homeland or Urheimat of the **PIE** speakers, from 4500 BC. The Yamnaya or Jamna (Pit Grave) culture lasted from ca. 3600 till 2200. In this time the first wagons appeared. People were buried with their legs flexed, a position which remained typical for the Indo-Europeans for a long time. The burials were covered with a mound, a *kurgan*. During this period, from 3600 till 3000 the **IE II** split up into **IE III** and **Anatolian**. From the 3000 on, **IE III Dialects** began to differentiate and spread by 2500 westward (**Northern Dialects**) and to the southeast (**Greek** and possibly **Armenian**) and southwest (**Indo-Iranian**). By 2000 the Dialects' breach is complete. [© gfdl]

3. The European or Northern Dialects have developed in the European Subcontinent, but, because of the migrations, they have undergone different changes. Their original common location is usually traced back to some place to the East of the Rhine, to the North of the Alps and the Carpathian Mountains, to the South of Scandinavia and to the East of the Russian plain, not beyond Moscow. This linguistic theory is usually mixed with archaeological findings:
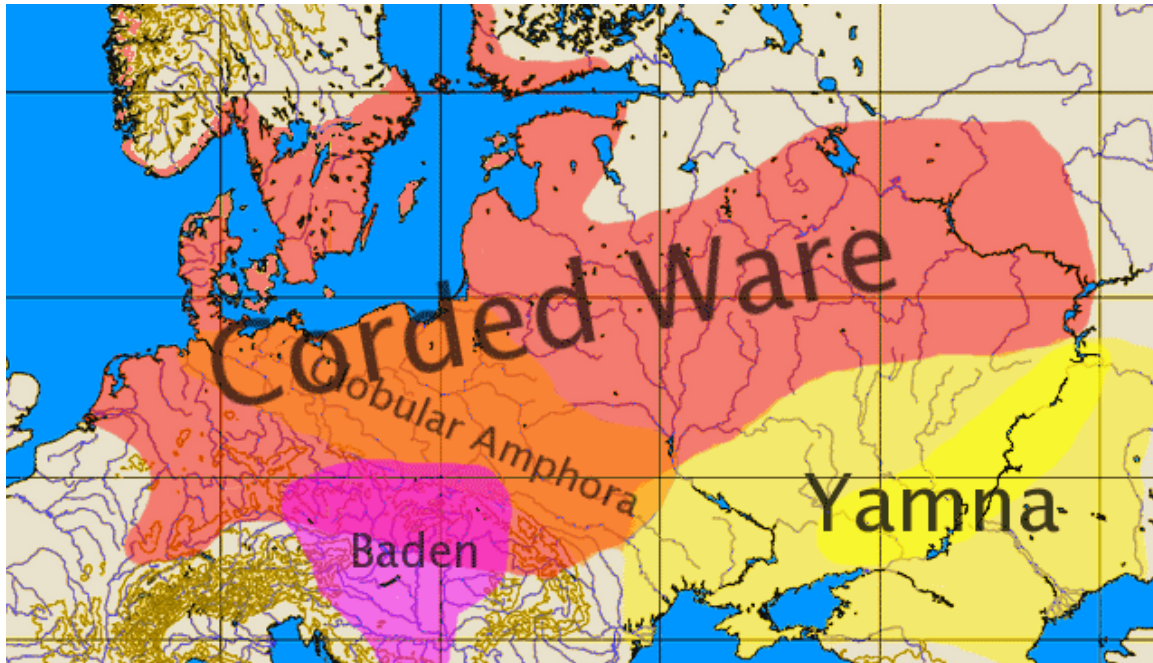
2000BC: The Corded Ware (in slight red) complex of cultures traditionally represents for many scholars the arrival of the first speakers of **Northern Dialects** in central Europe, coming from the Yamna culture (in yellow). The complex dates from about 3000-2000. The Globular Amphorae culture (in orange) may be slightly earlier, but the relation between these two cultures is unclear. Denmark and southern Scandinavia are supposed to have been the Germanic homeland, while the present-day West Germany would have been the Celtic (and possibly Italic) homeland; the east zone, then, corresponds to the Balto-Slavic homeland (their proto-languages certainly developed closely, if they weren't the same). [© gfdl]

4. These are the archaeological findings and the corresponding linguistic theories, put side by side for comparison.

ARCHAEOLOGY [w] [© gfdl] (Kurgan	LINGUISTICS (Three-Stage Theories)

Hypothesis)	
ca. 4500-4000: Sredny Stog, Dnieper-Donets and Sarama cultures, domestication of the horse.	The early Proto-Indo-European or PIE language.
ca. 4000-3500: The Yamna culture, the kurgan builders, emerges in the steppe, and the Maykop culture in northern Caucasus.	IE II. Two known dialects, Proto-Anatolian and Proto-IE III begin to differentiate.
ca. 3500-3000: The Yamna culture is at its peak, with stone idols, two-wheeled proto-chariots, animal husbandry, permanent settlements and hillforts, subsisting on agriculture and fishing, along rivers. Contact of the Yamna culture with late Neolithic Europe cultures results in kurganized Globular Amphora and Baden cultures. The Maykop culture shows the earliest evidence of the beginning Bronze Age, and bronze weapons and artefacts are introduced.	IE III and Anatolian have split up into two distinct languages. Anatolian is isolated south of the Caucasus, and have no more contacts with the IE III innovations.
3000-2500. The Yamna culture extends over the entire Pontic steppe. The Corded Ware culture extends from the Rhine to the Volga, corresponding to the latest phase of Indo-European unity. Different cultures disintegrate, still in loose contact, enabling the spread of technology.	IE III disintegrates into various dialects corresponding to different cultures. They remain still in contact, enabling the spread of phonetic and morphological innovations, as well as early loan words.
2500-2000. The Bronze Age reaches Central Europe with the Beaker culture of Northern Indo-Europeans. Indo-Iranians settle north of the Caspian in the Sintashta-Petrovka culture. Slavics and Baltics develop in north-eastern Europe.	The breakup of the southern IE dialects is complete. Proto-Greek is spoken in the Balkans and Proto-Indo-Iranian north of the Caspian. The Northern Dialects develop in Northern Europe, still in loose contact.
2000-1500: The chariot is invented, leading to the split and rapid spread of the Iranians and Indo-Aryans from the Andronovo culture and the Bactria-Margiana Archaeological Complex over much of Central Asia, Northern India, Iran and Eastern Anatolia. The pre-Celtics Unetice culture has an active metal industry.	Indo-Iranian splits up in two main dialects, Indo-Aryan and Iranian. In Europe, Germanic, Celtic (and maybe Italic or Proto-Latin), Baltic and Slavic differentiate from each other. Proto-Greek dialects are already written.
1500-1000: The Nordic Bronze Age sees the rise of the Germanic Urnfield cultures and the Celtic Hallstatt cultures in Central Europe, introducing the Iron Age. Italics move to the Italian Peninsula. Rigveda is composed. Mycenaean civilization in Greek Dark Ages. The Hittite Kingdoms flourish and decline.	Germanic, Celtic and Italic are already different languages, developing in turn different dialects.
1000-500BC: Northern Europe enters the Pre-Roman Iron Age. Early IE Kingdoms and Empires in the East. In the west, Classical Antiquity begins with the Greeks. Foundation of Rome.	Celtic dialects spread over Central and Western Europe. Osco-Umbrian and Latin-Faliscan are attested in the Italian Peninsula. Greek and Old Italic alphabets appear. The Anatolian languages become extinct.

1.6. Other Theories

1. A common development of new theories about IE has been to revise the Three-Stage assumption, what is actually not something new, but only the come back to more traditional views, by reinterpreting the new findings of the Hittite and trying to insert them into the old, static scheme.

2. The most known new alternative theory concerning PIE is the Glottalic theory, which assumes that PIE was pronounced more or less like Armenian (i.e., instead of **p**,**b**,**bh**, the pronunciation would have been *p',p,b*, and the same with the other two voiceless-voiced-voiced aspirated series of consonants). The Indo-European homeland would have been then the surroundings of the Lake Urmia, in northern Iran, near the present Azerbaijan.

3. Other alternative theories concerning PIE are as follows [w] [© gfdl]:

I. The European Homeland thesis maintain that the common origin of the European languages lies in Europe. These thesis have usually a nationalistic flavour, more or less driven by Archeological or Linguistic theories, such as the Old European theories.

a. The Old European Theory compares some old European vocabulary (especially that of river names), which would be older than the spread of the IE III through Europe. It points out the possibility of an older, Pre-IE III spread of IE, wether branches of IE II or PIE or even an earlier related language.

b. This is, in turn, related with the theories of a Neolithic revolution causing the peacefully spreading of an older IE language into Europe from Asia Minor from around 7000 BC, with the advance of farming. Accordingly, more or less all of Neolithic Europe would have been Indo-European speaking, and the Northern IE III Dialects would had replaced older IE dialects, wether from IE II or PIE.

c. There is also a Paleolithic Continuity Theory, which derives Indo-European from the European Paleolithic cultures.

II. Another hypothesis, contrary to the European ones, also mainly driven by a nationalistic view, traces back the origin of PIE to Vedic Sanskrit, postulating that it is very *pure*, and that the origin can thus be traced back to the Indus valley civilization of ca. 3000 BC.

III. Finally, the Black Sea deluge theory dates the origins of the IE dialects expansion in the genesis of the Sea of Azov, ca. 5600 BC, which in turn would be related to the Bible Noah's flood, as it would have remained in oral tales until its writing down in the Hebrew *Tanakh*. This date is generally considered as rather early for the PIE spread.

1.7. Europaio

1. Europaio is, thus, a language System, a group of standardized rules necessary for proper communication, unlike IE III, which was a group of dialects spoken only in its speakers' prehistoric community. It is necessary, as it was always necessary in the civilizations that followed the Europaio splits (as the Romans, the Greeks, the Persians, etc.), to systematize a common, national language. This was usually made by choosing the dialect of the majority, or that of the richest or most powerful, in any case that of the dominant part of the society. All of these conditions are met by the Northern Dialects of IE III, which has to become the standard of the spoken language for the new Europe.

2. The system is made partly based on the obvious underlying old system (of the common IE III), partly based on more modern innovations (mainly of the Northern dialects); and partly, as always, eliminating old (possibly) general rules which cannot be used by a modern language speaker, such as some old syntax rules, and - more rarely - artificially generalizing (possibly) non-general rules. We have also developed two new formations, based on modern European languages: the (dynamic) passive voice endings and the conditional.

3. The words to complete the reconstruction are to be found mainly in modern IE languages, while the general loan words, wether classical (from Greek and Latin, like *philosophy* or *hypothesis*) or modern (from English, like *software*, from Spanish, like *guerrilla*, from German, like *Kindergarten, etc.*), should be translated as well when possible, as they are all theoretically Europaio dialectal words whose original meaning could easily be seen if translated. For example, the Greek word *photo*, could appear in Europaio either as **photo** [p'oto] or [foto] (as an *own* loan word), or as **bhawto** [bhəwto] (as an own word), from the verb bh<u>a</u>, *to shine*, which in Greek gives for example *phosphorus* and *phot*. The second form is, then, preferred.

4. A comparison with Hebrew seems necessary, as it is the only successful precedent of an old, reconstructed language becoming the living language of a whole Nation:

HEBREW	EUROPAIO
ca. 3000 BC: Proto-Aramaic, Proto-Ugaritic, and other Canaanite languages spoken.	ca. 3000 BC: IE II dialects, such as proto-IE III and proto-Anatolian spoken.
ca. 1000 BC: The first written evidence of distinctive Hebrew, the Gezer calendar.	ca. 2000 BC Northern IE dialects develop in Europe. ca. 1600 BC: Hittite and Luwian tablets, both Anatolian dialects. ca. 1500 BC: Linear B tablets in Mycenaean Greek.
Orally transmitted Tanakh, composed between 1000 and 500 BC.	Orally transmitted Rigveda, in Vedic Sanskrit, (similar to older Indo-Iranian), composed in parts, from 1500 to 500 BC. Orally transmitted Zoroastrian works in Avestan (Iranian), from 1000 to 700 BC. Homeric works dated from ca. 700 BC. Italic inscriptions, 700-500 BC.
Destruction of Jerusalem by the Babylonians under Nebuchadnezzar II, in 586 BC. The Hebrew language is then replaced by Aramaic in Israel under the Persian Empire. Destruction of Jerusalem and Expulsion of Jews by the Romans in 70 AD.	Italics, Celtics, Germanics, Baltics and Slavics are organized mainly in tribes and clans. Expansion of the great Old Civilizations, such as the Persians, the Greeks and the Romans. Behistun Inscription in Avestan, Celtic inscriptions ca 500 BC; Negau Helmet in Germanic, ca. 200 BC.
70-1950 AD. Jews in the Diaspora develop different dialects with Hebrew influence, with basis on Indo-European or Semitic languages.	Expansion of the renowned Antique, Medieval and Modern Indo-European civilizations, such as the Byzantines, the Franks, the Spanish and Portuguese, the Polish and Lithuanians, the French, the Austro-Hungarians and Germans and the English among others.
1880 AD. Eliezer Ben-Yehuda begins the reconstruction of a modern Hebrew language for the future Land of Israel.	1820 AD. Rask and Bopp begin the reconstruction of the common ancestor of the Indo-European languages.
19th century. Jews speaking different Indo-European (Yiddish, Judeo-Spanish, etc.) and Semitic languages (Judeo-Aramaic, Judeo-Arab etc.) settle in Israel, at first using different *linguae francae* to communicate, such as Turkish, Arab, French or English.	1949-1992. European countries form an International European Community, the EEC. 1992-2005: A Supranational entity, the European Union, substitutes the EEC. There are more than 20 official languages*, 3 de facto, English, German and French.
1922 AD. Hebrew is named official language of Palestine, along with English and Arabic. From that moment on, modern Hebrew becomes more and more the official National language of the Israeli Nation. The settlers' native languages are still spoken within their communities and families.	1992-Present. New steps are made to develop a National entity, a confederation-like state. The EU's Constitution and linguistic policy are two of the most important issues to be solved before that common goal can be achieved.

*Although there are no exact statistics, probably about 97% of the EU population speaks a IE language as a mother tongue, and every European must learn at least one IE language at school.

5. The adjective and noun Europaios comes from *europaios*, the genitive (and adjective) of Old Greek *Europe̱* / *Europa̱*, both forms interchangeable already in the oldest Greek,

and both coming from the same ending, -**a** (see §) or (in laryngeals' theory) a still older -**eh**. The Greek ending -**ai-o**- (see § for more on this special genitive) turns into Latin -**ae-u**-, and so *Europaeus*. The forms **Europa** and **Europaios** are, then, the original and correct ones, and have been also the most widely used forms for millennia. Only modern Greek maintains the form *Europe* (modern Greek *Europi*) for the subcontinent; but even in this modern language the adjectives are *europaikos*, m., (with a newer IE ethnic ending -*ikos*) and *europaia*, f.

NOTE 1. *Europe* is a common evolution of Latin a-endings in French; as in *Amerique* for *America*, *Belgique* for *Belgica*, *Italie* for *Italia*, and so on. The English term *Europe* is thus a French loan word, as can be seen from the other continents' names: *Asia* (not **Asy*), *Africa* (not **Afrik*), *Australia* (not **Australy*), and *America* (not **Amerik*).

NOTE 2. In Latin there were still two forms for Europe: *Europa, Europaeus*, and lesser used *Europe, Europensis*. The last form is usually seen in scientific terms.

The genitive of the Europaio word *Europa* is *Europas*, though, following the third declension. The name of the language is *Europaiom*, inanimate, because in almost every IE language that has an independent name for languages, this is neuter.

1.8. Bibliography

This work is mainly a compilation of others' knowledge, the output of two centuries of thorough research.

NOTE. It is important, though, to point out that the copyright for this work will be held (be the licenses to distribute it Free or Open Source style or not), and that Trademarks related to it will be defended against illegal and illegitimate uses. Just as an encyclopaedia is a written compendium of others' knowledge, but is indeed copyrighted.

For this specific work we have used (among others, less important references) the following books:

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This a little list of those (renowned) dead researchers who have contributed to the Europaio reconstruction with their works until now:

- Friedrich Schlegel (1772-1829)
- Jakob Grimm (1785-1863)
- Rasmus Rask (1787-1832)
- Franz Bopp (1791-1867)
- August Friedrich Pott(1802-1887)
- Theodor Benfey (1809-1881)
- Rudolf von Raumer (1815-1876)
- Otto von Böthlingk (1815-1904)
- Georg Curtius (1820-1885)
- August Schleicher (1821-1868)
- Max Müller (1823-1900)
- William Dwight Whitney (1827-1894)
- August Fick (1833-1916)
- August Leskien (1840-1916)
- Franz Kielhorn (1840-1908)
- Wilhelm Scherer (1841-1886)
- Berthold Delbrück (1842-1922)
- Johannes Schmidt (1843-1901)
- Ernst Windisch (1844-1918)
- Karl Brugmann (1848-1919)
- K. A. Verner (1846-1896)
- Hermann Osthoff (1846-1909)
- Jakob Wackernagel (1853-1938)
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- Wilhelm August Streitberg (1864-1925)
- Hermann Hirt (1865-1936)
- Antoine Meillet (1866-1936)
- Eduard Schwyzer (1874-1943)
- Ferdinand Sommer (1875-1962)
- Manu Leumann (1889-1977)
- Jerzy Kuryłowicz (1895-1978)
- Ernst Risch (1911-1988)
- Oswald Szemerényi (1913-1996)
- Karl Hoffmann (1915-1996)
- Helmut Rix (1926-2004)
- Jochem Schindler (1944-1994)

If you feel that your name, work or works should have been mentioned, or that the mention is not correct or enough, please contact us.

2. Letters and Sounds

2.1. Alphabet

2.1.1. The next table shows the relationship between the letters of the Greek alphabet and its derivatives, the Latin alphabet and the (newer) Cyrillic alphabet.

GREEK	LATIN	CYRILLIC
A α Alpha	A a	A a
B β Beta	B b	Б б, B в
Γ γ Gamma	C c, G g	Г г
Δ δ Delta	D d	Д д
E ε Epsilon	E e	E e, Ё ё, Э э
Z ζ Zeta	Z z	Ж ж, З з
H η (H)Eta	H h	И и, Й й
Θ θ Theta		
I ι Iota	I i, J j	
K κ Kappa	K k	K к
Λ λ Lambda	L l	
M μ Mu	M m	M м
N ν Nu	N n	H н
Ξ ξ Xi		
O o Omicron	O o	O o
Π π Pi		П п
P ρ Rho	P p, R r	P p
Σ σ ς Sigma	S s	C c
T τ Tau	T t	T т
Y υ Upsilon	U u, Y y, W w	У y
Φ φ Phi		Ф ф
X χ Chi	X x	X x
Ψ ψ Psi		
Ω ω Omega		
F Digamma	F f	
Q Qoppa	Q q	

2.1.2. The Europaio Alphabet is similar to the English (which is in fact borrowed from the late Latin *abecedarium*), except that the **C** has a very different sound, similar to that of **G**. We also consider some digraphs part of the alphabet, as they represent original Europaio sounds, in contrast to those digraphs used mainly for transcriptions of loan words.

NOTE 1. The Latin alphabet was borrowed in very early times from a Greek alphabet and did not at first contain the letter **G**. The letters **Y** and **Z** were introduced still later, about 50 BC

NOTE 2. The Europaio names of the consonants are as follows - B, be (pronounced *bay*); Bh, bhe; C, ca (*Ga*); Ch, cha (*Gha*); D, de (*day*); Dh, dhe (*dhay*); F, ef; G, ge (*gay*); Gh, ghe (*ghay*); H, ha; K, ka; L, el; M, em; N, en; P, pe; Q, qu; R, er; S, es; T, te; V, ve; W, wa; X, xa (cha); Z, zet

2.1.3. The Latin character **C** originally meant **G** (probably due to Etruscan influence), a value always retained in the abbreviations *C.* (for *Gaius*) and *Cn.* (for *Gnaeus*).

NOTE. In early Latin **C** came also to be used for **K**, and K disappeared except before in a few words, as *Kal*. (Kalendae), *Karthago*. Thus there was no distinction in writing between the sounds [g] and [k]. This defect was later remedied by forming (from C) the new character **G**. **Y** and **Z** were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in loan words in Europaio.

2.1.4. The Latin [w] sound developed into Romance [v]; therefore V no longer adequately represented [w] and latin alphabet had to develop an alternative. Europaio uses **V** mainly for loan words, representing [v], while **W** is left for the consonantal sound of u, although not always.

NOTE. V originally denoted the vowel sound u (oo), and F stood for the sound of our consonant [w] (like in Greek digamma). When F acquired the value of our f, V came to be used for the sound [w] as well as for the vowel [u].

2.1.5. The consonant cluster /ks/ was in Ancient Greece written as Chi 'X' (Western Greek) or Xi 'Ξ' (Eastern Greek). In the end, Chi was standardized as [kh] ([x] in modern Greek), while Xi represented /ks/. In Europaio, the X stands for [x], as in the Greek and Cyrillic alphabets, and not as in English.

NOTE. The Etruscans took over X from older Western Greek, therefore, it stood for /ks/ in Etruscan and Latin, and in most of the languages which today use an alphabet derived from the Roman, including English.
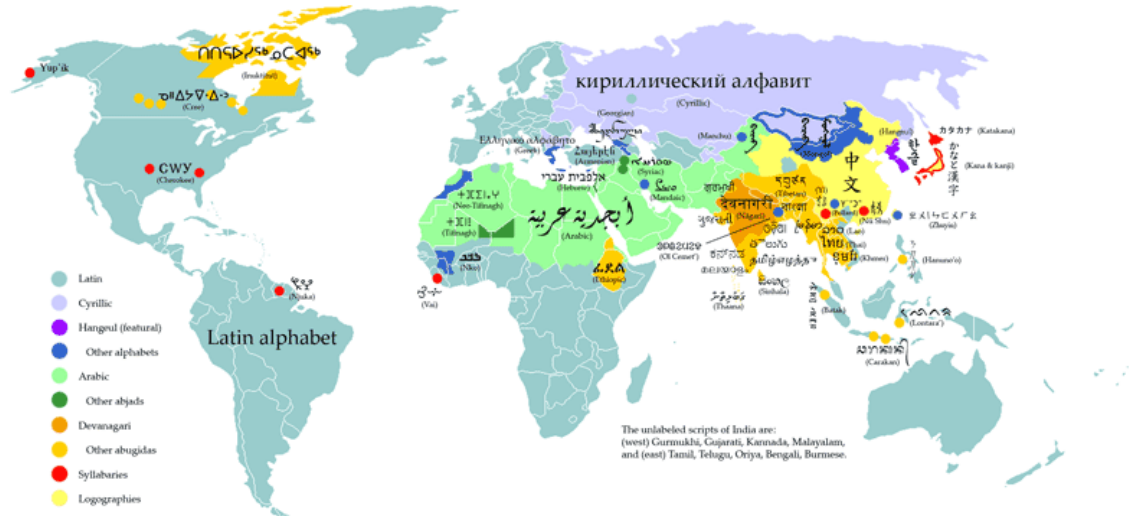
Map of the Writing systems of the world today. The Latin alphabet is clearly the most widely used in the World, as well as in IE languages, especially the European. [©]

2.2. Classification of Sounds

2.2.1. The Vowels are **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u** and **y**. The other letters are Consonants. The proper Europaio Diphthongs are **ei**, **oi**, **ai**, **eu**, **ou**, **au**. In this diphthongs both vowel sounds are heard, one following the other in the same syllable.

2.2.2. Consonants are either voiced (sonant) or voiceless (surd). Voiced consonants are pronounced with vocal cords vibration, as opposed to voiceless consonants, where the vocal cords are relaxed.

a. The voiced consonants are **b**, **bh**, **c**, **ch**, **d**, **dh**, **g**, **gh**, **l**, **r**, **m**, **n**, **z**, and **j**, **w**.

b. The voiceless consonants are **p**, **t**, **k**, **q**, **f**, **h**, **s**, **x**.

c. The digraphs **bh**, **dh**, **gh** and **ch** represent voiced aspirates, whereas **ph**, **th**, **kh** are voiceless aspirates. The last three are confined almost exclusively to words derived from Greek, and are equivalent to p+h, t+h, k+h, i.e. to the corresponding mutes with a following breath, as in English *loop-hole*, *hot-house*, *block-house*.

d. The phonemes **r**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **i/j** and **u/w** can function both as consonants and vowels, i.e. they can serve as syllabic border or center. There is a clear difference between the vocalic allophones of the semi-vowels and the others, though: the first - [i] and [u] - are very stable, while /r,l,m,n/ are not. They cannot be pronounced more opened, hence the big differences among IE dialects.

2.2.3. The Mutes are also classified as follows:

Labials	p, b, bh, and *ph*
Dentals	t, d, dh and *th*
Velars	c, ch, g, gh, k, q and *kh*

2.2.4. The Liquids are **l**,**r**. These sounds are voiced. The group **rh** represents the aspirated *r*, mainly in words of Greek origin. Other groups include **rr**, the alveolar trill, and its aspirated counterpart **rrh**. There is also **lj**, the palatal lateral approximant.

2.2.5. The Nasals are **m**,**n**. These are voiced. The pair **nj** represents the palatal nasal (similar to the /n/ sound in English *onion* or *canyon*)

2.2.6. The Fricatives are **s**, **h**. These are voiceless, but for the *s* before voiced consonants, where it is usually voiced. It is also possible to write - mainly for loan words - voiceless and voiced pairs: labiodentals, **f** and **v**; dentals, **th** and **dh**; post-alveolar **sh** and **zh**. And also the alveolar voiced **z**, and the dorsal voiceless **x**.

2.2.7. The Semivowels are **i/j** and **u/w**. These are voiced.

NOTE. The semivowels are usually written with i and u. Only Europaio roots and their derivatives have j and w; as in *wlqo*, *werdho*, *jugo* or *trejes*. When there is a consonantal sound before a sonant, it is also written j or w; as in newn [newən]. More on this in § [2.9.4.](2.9.4.)

2.2.8. There are also some other frequent compounds, such as **ks**, **ts**, **dz**, **tsh**, **dzh**, ...

2.2.9. The following table will indicate the relations of the consonantal sounds:

	Labials	Coronals	Palatovel.	Velars	Labiovel.
Voiceless	p	t	*k**	k	q
Aspirated	**ph**	**th**	***kh****	**kh**	
Voiced	b	d	*g**	g	c
Aspirated	bh	dh	*gh**	gh	ch
Nasals	m	n			
Fricatives	**f,v**	s,**z, th,dh,sh**, **zh**		**x**	
Liquids		r,l, **rr**, **lh**			
Aspirated		**rh, rrh**			
Approximant	w		j		

Note. Those in bold are not 'original' Europaio sounds. This does not mean that they weren't heard already in the early stages of the language, though; for example, *s* was pronounced *z* before voiced consonants (as in *nisdo*, nest); and *th* appears in the verb conjugation, possibly derived from old laryngeals.

*This sounds are usually represented in traditional transcriptions as independent letters. We believe that the opposition labiovelar/velar is constrained, either to an especial phonetic environment, either to the analogy of alternating phonetic forms. Therefore, they are in our system just different pronunciations of the same velar phonemes.

2.3. Sounds of the Letters

2.3.1 The following pronunciation is substantially that employed by the Indo-Europeans in what we call the III stage, at the time when the phonetic trends usually called satemization were probably beginning.

NOTE. This Europaio, as we already said, does not permit the phonetic splits among languages, because systematization, especially in the pronunciation basics, is needed, and satemization is deemed to have been only a logic phonetic trend. Thus, although we include features from dialects which are centuries younger, we need an older, more unitary pronunciation system.

2.3.2. Vowels:

a: as in *father*	**a** as in *idea*
e: as in *they*	**e** as in *met*
i: as in *meet*	**i** as in *chip*
o: as in *note*	**o** as in *pot*
u: as in *rude*	**u** as in *put*
ə as *a* in *about* *	**y** between *u* and *i*, like French *u*, German *ü* **

* Written **a** in Europaio

** Not an original Europaio sound

NOTE 1. Because there are at least so many ways to mark vowel length and accent as writing systems, we have chosen a more practical way of writing - although it may bring some extra difficulty in reading Europaio texts -, avoiding the marking of both of them. In this book, though, long vowels are normally underlined, and accented vowels are in **bold** type.

NOTE 2. The sonants can also be lengthened, especially in the conjugation of verbs, giving thus **m**,**n**,**r** and **l**. The semi-vowels **j** and **w** can also have a prolonged pronunciation, having thus allophones **iy** and **uw**. For more details on this see § 2.7.2.

2.3.3. Diphthongs:

ei as in *vein*	**eu** *e* (*met*) + *u* (*put*)
oi as in *oil*	**ou** as ow in *know*
ai as in *Cairo*	**au** as *ou* in *out*

NOTE. *je*, *jo*, *ja*, as well as *we*, *wo*, *wa* cannot be considered properly diphthongs, because *j-* and *w-* are properly consonants. Nevertheless, in **Eu**-**ro**-**pa**-**io** we consider *-io* a diphthong for syntax analysis.

2.3.4. Triphthongs:

There are no actual triphthongs, as a consequence of what was said in the preceding note. The formations usually called triphthongs are *jei*, *joi*, *jai*; *jeu*, *jou*, *jau*; or *wei*, *woi*, *wai*; *weu*, *wou* and *wau*; and none can be named strictly triphthong, as there is a consonantal sound (*j-* or *w-*) followed by a diphthong. The rest of possible formations are made up of a diphthong and a vowel.

NOTE. *Triphthong* can be employed for syntax analysis, though. But a semi-vowel surrounded by vowels is not one. Thus, in **Eu**-**ro**-**pa**-**iom**, /euro'pajom/ there aren't any triphthongs.

2.3.4. Consonants:

1. **b**, **d**, **h**, **k**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **p**, are pronounced as in English.

2. **n** can also be pronounced as guttural [ŋ] when it is followed by another guttural, as English *sing* or *bank*.

3. **t** is always a plain *t*, never with the sound of *sh*, as English *oration*.

4. **g** always as in *get*. It has two possible pronunciations, simple velar and palatovelar. Compare the initial consonants in *garlic* and *gear*, whispering the two words, and it will be observed that before *e* and *i* the *g* is sounded farther forward in the mouth than before *a* or *o*.

5. **c** is pronounced similar to [g] but with rounded lips. Compare the initial consonant in *good* with those of the preceding example to feel the different articulation. **q** has a similar (but voiceless) pronunciation, as *c* in *cool*.

6. **j** as the sound of *y* as in *yes*, **w** as *w* in *will*.

7. **r** was possibly slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue (as generally in Romance or Slavic languages), but other usual pronunciations of modern European languages have to be admitted in the revived language, as French or (Standard) German *r*.

8. **s** is voiceless as in *sin*, but there are situations in which it is voiced, depending on the surrounding phonemes. Like with *r*, differing modern languages will probably pronounce this phoneme differently, but this will not usually lead to misunderstandings, as there are no proper Europaio words with **z**, only loan words.

9. **bh**, **dh**, **gh**, **ch** are uncertain in sound, but the recommended pronunciation is that of the Hindustani's "voiced aspirated stops" *bh, dh, gh*, as they are examples of living voiced aspirates in an IE language which is derived from Sanskrit, the earliest attested IE III dialect.

NOTE. There are several ways to generate breathy-voiced sounds. One is to hold the vocal cords apart, so that they are lax as they are for [h], but to increase the volume of airflow so that they vibrate loosely. A second is to bring the vocal cords closer together along their entire length than in voiceless [h], but not as close as in modally voiced sounds such as vowels. This results in an airflow intermediate between [h] and vowels, and is the case with English intervocalic /h/. A third is to constrict the glottis, but separate the arytenoid cartilages that control one end. This results in the vocal cords being drawn together for voicing in the back, but separated to allow the passage of large volumes of air in the front. This is the situation with Hindustani.

10. **x** represents the [x], wether with ach-laut, such as *kh* in Russian *Khrushenko*, or with ich-laut, such as *ch* in German *Lichtenstein*; but never like *ks*, *gz* or *z*, as in English.

11. **z**, **v**, **f**, **sh**, are pronounced as in English.

12. **zh** is pronounced as in English *leisure*.

13. **tsh** corresponds to English *ch* in *chain* and **tzh** to *j* in *jump*

14. The aspirates **ph**, **kh**, **th** are pronounced very nearly like the English stressed *p*, *c*, *t*.

15. There is also another value for **th**, which corresponds to English *th* in *thing*, and for **dh**, which sounds as *th* in *this*.

16. **rh**, **rr** and **rrh** have no similar sounds in English, although there are examples of loan words, such as Spanish *guerrilla*, or Greek *rhotacism* or *Tyrrhenos*.

17. **nj** is similar to /nj/ in English *onion* or *canyon*; and **lj** to /lj/ in English *million*.

18. Doubled letters, like **ll**, **mm**, **tt**, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.

2.4. Syllables

2.4.1. In many modern languages, there are as many syllables in a word as there are separate vowels and diphthongs. This is not exactly so in Europaio. It follows, indeed, this rule too:

*Eu-ro-p**a**-ios*, *w**e**r-dhom*, *n**e**-was*, *j**u**-gom*

NOTE. The semivowels **w** and **j** are in general written **i** and **u**, as we already said, when they are used in the formation of new words, i.e., when they are not original roots or stems. That is why the adjective 'European' is written *Eu-ro-pa-i**os***, and so its derived nominalized inanimate form, 'Eu-ro-p**a**-iom' (the European language); and that is also why **Italia** is not written **Italja*; while **trejes**, *three*, or **newo**, *new*, for example, are written with *j* and *w*.

2.4.2. There are also (and very often) consonant-only syllables, though. It is possible to hear them in spoken English, for example in the word *Brighton /brai-t'n/*, where the final *n* can be considered vocalic. In these kind of syllables, it is one of the vocalic sonants, /r,l,m,n/, the one which functions as syllabic centre:

*bh**r**-ghu*, *w**l**-qos*, *d**e**-km*, *n**o**-mn*

NOTE 1. The words derived from these vocalic consonants differ greatly between modern IE dialects. For example, *d**n**-gh**u*** derived in Proto-Germanic *tungon*, and later in English *tongue*, while in archaic Latin it was pronounced *dingwa*, then the Classic Latin *lingua*, which forms the modern English loan word *linguistic*.

NOTE 2. We maintain the old, difficult and somehow unstable sounds in search for unity. As this phonetic system will not be easy for speakers of modern IE languages, the proposed alternative pronunciation is to add, when needed, an auxiliary schwa [ə] before or after the sound. The schwa we are referring to is an unstressed and toneless neutral vowel sound. Thus, **wlqos** can be pronounced */wəlqos/* (as in Proto-Germanic **wulfaz*) or */wləqos/* (as in Proto-Greek **lukos*), or */dekəm/* and */nomən/* for **dekm** and **nomn**.

2.4.3. In the division of words into syllables, these rules apply:

1. A single consonant is joined to the following vowel or diphthong; as ***ne-wo***, ***me-dhjo***,...

2. Combinations of two or more consonants (other than the vocalic ones) are regularly separated, and the first consonant of the combination is joined with the preceding vowel; as **om-bhro**, **ok-t̲o̲**, **pen-qe**, etc. but **s-qa-los**.

3. In compounds, the parts are usually separated; as **Fin-lendh-om**, **Dhan-merg**, etc.

2.5. Quantity

2.5.1. Syllables are distinguished according to the length of time required for their pronunciation. Two degrees of Quantity are recognized, *long* and *short*.

NOTE. In syllables, quantity is measured from the beginning of the vowel or diphthong to the end of the syllable.

2.5.3. A syllable is long usually,

a. if it contains a long vowel; as, *m<u>a</u>-t<u>e</u>r*, *dn-gh<u>u</u>*

b. if it contains a diphthong; as, *Eu-ro-p<u>a</u>*, *mn-io*

c. if it contains any two non-syllabic consonants (except a mute with *l* or *r*)

2.5.4. A syllable is short usually

a. if it contains a short vowel followed by a vowel or by a single consonant; as, *cei*

b. if it contains a vocalic sonant; as, /ˈrt-kos/, /no-mˌn/, /de-kˌm/

2.5.5. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, viz. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with **l** or **r**, i.e. by **pl**, **kl**, **tl**; **pr**, **kr**, **tr**, etc.; as, *agri* . Such syllables are called *common*. In prose they are regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

NOTE. These distinctions of long and short are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as *ng*, is long, because such a syllable requires more time for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes less time to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes scarcely more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (*<u>ag</u>-ri*) the poets are able to use such syllables as long.

2.6. Accent

2.6.1. There are stressed as well as unstressed words. The last could indicate words that are always enclitic, i.e., they are always bound to the accent of the preceding word, like *qe* or *we;* while another can be proclitics, like prepositions. The accent position can thus help to distinguish words.

2.6.2. In Europaio, each non-clitic word has one and only one accent. The possibility of secondary accents depends on the pronunciation.

2.6.3. The accent is free, but that does not mean anarchy. On the contrary, it means that each word has an accent, and one has to know -usually by way of practice- where it goes.

2.6.4. Usually, adjectives are accentuated on the ending; as in *Europaios*, *Angliskos*, while nouns aren't; as in *Europaios*, *Angliskos*. There are some other rules to be followed in the declension of nouns and in the conjugation of verbs, which will be later studied.

2.7. Vowel Change

2.7.1. Syllable creation is the most common of the various phonetic changes that the modern European languages have undergone all along these millennia of continuous separation. Anaptyxis is a type of phonetic epenthesis, involving insertion of a vowel to ease pronunciation. Examples in English are *ath-e-lete*, *mischiev-i-ous*, or *wint-e-ry*. It usually happens by adding first a *supporting vowel* or *transition sound* (glide, Gleitlaut). After this, in a second stage, the added vowel acquires a fix tone, becoming a full vowel.

2.7.2. The sonants form unstable syllables, and thus vowel epenthesis is very common. For example, **dn-gh<u>u</u>** becomes, as we have seen, *tongue* in English and *dingua* in archaic Latin, while **wl-qos** becomes *wolf* in English and *lykos* (probably from **wluqos*) in Greek (λύκος). In modern Europaio a possibly easier, although not recommended, pronunciation is obtained by adding an auxiliary schwa, either before or after the sonant.

The semi-vowels **y**, **w** are more stable than the sonants when they are centre of syllable (being then vowels, i or u). But they have also some alternating pronunciations. When they are pronounced *lento* they can be heard as **iy** or **uw**, what actually doesn't mean a vowel epenthesis, but an extended pronunciation. Thus, the alternating forms **medhijos** (which gives the latin *medius*) and **medhjos** (which gives the Old Indian *mádhyas* or the Greek *messos*) coexisted probably somehow freely in IE III times.

NOTE. With the creation of zero-grade stems, vocalization appears, as the original radical vowels disappear and new ones are added. So, for example, in **bhr**- (to carry, cognate of to bear), which can be reconstructed from modern languages as bher-, bhor- or bhr-. The same can be said of the semi-vowels *j* and *w* when they are syllable edges, being syllable centres - **u** and **i** - in zero-grades.

2.7.3. The laryngeals were a probable feature of the proto-language, in which there were possibly three aspirated phonemes. In this limited grammar there is no place for explaining these theories related to PIE (or, for some, to IE II), or even how these laryngeals (and which of them) influenced the vowel changes we encounter in IE III times. Let's only say here that the Hittite, which is the other known dialect of the second stage of the language, had laryngeal remains, while IE III only had some vowel changes of what could easily be a proof of a previous laryngeal-stage.

2.7.4. There are also some other possible vocalizations. Thus, in some phonetic environments, like two occlusives in zero-grade: **skp**, impossible to pronounce without adding a vowel, derives in lat. *scabo* or got. *skaban*. Although the solution to this consonantal groups is not generalized, as with sonants, we can find some general timbres, like **a**, **i** (especially in Greek and Baltoslavic, with following dental), or **u** (also considered general, like *a*, but probably influenced by the context, possibly when in contact with labial, guttural or labiovelar, as in **quqlos**, *circle*).

2.7.5. Vocalic prothesis (from Greek *pro-thesis*, *pre-putting*), is the appending of a vowel in front of a word, usually to facilitate the pronunciation. This kind of prothesis differ, not only among Europaio-derived languages, but also and frequently into the same language or linguistic group. Especially before **r**, but also before **l**,**m**,**n**,**w**, more or less systematically, a vowel is added to ease pronunciations. The timbre of the added vowel is neither related to a linguistic group or modern language, or even to the phonetic or morphological environment. It is therefore not a good practice in Europaio to add vowels.

2.7.6. Syllable losses are often observed in Europaio dialects, but has actually no relevance to the revived language. Syncope refers to the loss of an inner vowel, as with *brief vowels* in Gothic: *gasts* instead of *ghostis*; or after *w*, *long vowel*, *diphthong* or *sonant* in Latin: *prudens* instead of *prowidens*, *corolla* instead of *coronala*, or *ullus* instead of *oinolos*. Haplology, which consists of the loss of a whole syllable when two consecutive identical or similar syllables occur, as in Latin *fastidium* instead of *fastitidium*, or in Mycenic *aporeu* instead of *apiporeu*. Apheresis and Apocope haven't almost relevance for the Europaio studies.

2.8. Consonant Change

2.8.1. 1. The so called *mobile s* refers to the phenomenon of alternating word pairs, with and without **s** before initial consonants, in stems with identical meaning. Some examples are

(**s**)**ten**- *thunder*, *strong noise* - lat. *tonare*, ohg. *donar*, osl. *stenjo*.

(**s**)**pek**- *look carefully*, *spy* - lat. *spectus*, ohg. *spehon*, alb. *pashë*

(**s**)**ker**- *cut* - lat. *caro*,

(**s**)**qalos**- *big fish* - lat. *squalus*, ohg. *whale*

*(**s**)**teros**- *bull* - gr. lat. *tauros* (from a cognate word), ger. *steer*.

NOTE. Some think it was a prefix in PIE (which would have had a causative value), while others maintain that it is probably caused by assimilations of similar stems (some of them beginning with an *s*-, and some of them without it). It is possible, however, that the original stem actually had an initial **s**, and because of phonetic changes (due probably to some word compounds, where the last -*s* of the first word assimilates with the first *s*- of the second word) it was lost by analogy in other situations. This would explain why in some languages both stems are recorded, and why there seems to be no pattern in the losing of initial *s*-, as each word would have had its own history in each language.

2. Before a voiced or aspirated voiced consonant, **s** was articulated as voiced, by way of assimilation. So in **nisdo**, *nest*, or **misdho**, *salary*. When *s* forms a group with sonants there is usually assimilation, but this trend is sometimes reversed by adding a consonant (as in lat. *cerebrum*, from /*kerəsrom*/).

3. The **s** between vowels is the most unstable, with different outputs depending on the dialects. Example of this is **snusos**, *daughter-in-law* (lat. *nurus*, ohg. *snur*), but the most common ones are roots endings -*s* with a declension beginning with a vowel, as in osl. *nebesa* (gr. *nefeos*), *cloud*, lat. *generis* (gr. *geneos*), *lineage*, or got. *riqizis* (gr. *erebeos*), *darkness*.

NOTE. In Germanic, as in Latin, the intervocalic -**s**- becomes voiced, and then it is pronounced as the trilled consonant, what is known with the name of rhotacism.

2.8.2. A sequence of two dentals is usually eliminated in all Europaio modern languages, but the process of this suppression differs among languages. It is supposed that this trend had already begun at the time of the IE II, and so Europaio probably had already some phonetic changes in these consonant groups - possibly still common to all dialects. As we have said before, in phonetics we prefer to sacrifice the search for purity for the sake of unity, and so in this case we look at the earliest situation possible. So, in forms such as **ed-tos** (lat. *esus*), **weid-tis** (lat *visus*) or **sed-tos** (lat. *sessus*), we won't usually represent any phonetic change, unless we take the word as a derivative loan word.

2.8.3. The manner of articulation of an occlusive or sibilant usually depends on the next phoneme, wether it is voiced or voiceless. So, for example, the voiced **ag**- *carry* gives voiceless gr. *aktos*, or lat. *actus*; the same happens with voiced aspirate, as in **legh**-, gr. *lektron*, lat. *lectus*, ohg. *lehter*; voiceless *p*- becomes -*b* for example in zero grade **pod**-, *foot*, which appears as -**bd**-, as in gr. *hepibda*.

2.9. Peculiarities of Orthography

2.9.1. Many words have a variable orthography.

2.9.2. In many words the orthography varies because of alternating forms, and so there are different derivatives; as in **domos**, *house*, but **demspotes**, *despot*, both from **dem**-/**dom**-, *house.*

2.9.3. In other situations, the meaning is different, while the words are written alike; as, **gher**, *grasp*, and **gher**, *like*

Sometimes, even the pronunciation is different; as, **gna**, which can be /*g'na̱*/, *woman*, or /*g'nə*/, to *know*

2.9.4. In some cases, however, it's the way we chose to write Europaio which affects how it is written. For example, the word **Italia** could have been written **Italja*, but we chose to maintain the letter -**i** when possible. We only write **j** or **w** in some specific cases:

1. In roots and its derivatives; as, **trejes**, **jugom**, **sawel**, **newos**, etc.; and also when the original root has different pronunciations; as, **neu**, *shout*, but **nowentos** (and not **nouentos*), *shouting*

2. In lengthened stems; as in **ser**, *protect*, and **serwa̱**, *preserve*; and also in metathesized forms; as **nerwos** (from ***neuro***-), *sinew*.

3. When there is a consonantal sound before or after a sonant; as, **newn**, *nine*; **stajr**, *fat*.

4. In endings (written generally with -**i** or -**u**), when the semivowel -***i***- is followed or preceded by another ***i***, or the semivowel -***u***- is followed or preceded by another ***u***; as in **sunuwom**, *of the sons*, or **bolijos**, *big*.

2.9.5. The old schwa is written with an **a**; as, **pate̱r**, *father*; **bhatis**, *appearance*.

2.9.6. The forms with the copulative -**qe** are usually written by adding it to the preceding word, as in Latin -*que*, without dash.

2.9.7. The capital letters are used at the beginning of the following kind of words:

a. the names of days, months, seasons and public holidays

b. the names of people and places, including stars and planets

c. people's titles, such as *Professor*, *Colonel* or *Director*.

d. with North, South, East and West and its derivatives, in official or well-established place names.

2.10. Kindred Forms

Some of the most obvious correspondences in consonants between Europaio and Proto-Germanic may be seen in the following table, where Latin stays for comparison, and English for cognate words:

Europaio	Gothic	Latin	English
bh: bhr<u>a</u>t<u>e</u>r, bher	**b**: brodhar, bairan	**f**: frater, fero	brother (fraternal), to b (infer)
c: c<u>a</u>, cei	**q**: qiman, qius	**gu/u**: venio, vivus	to come (venue), quick (vivacity)
ch: lech, cher	**hw/g/w**: leihts, warmjan	**f/gu/u**: levis, formus	light (levity), warm (forceps)
d: dekm, ed	**t**: taihun, itan	**d**: decem, edo	ten (decimal), to eat (edible)
dh: dh<u>e</u>, dhers	**d**: du-, dear	**f/d/b**: feci, festus	to do (factor), to dare (manifest)
g: aug, gn<u>o</u>	**k**: aukan, kunnan	**g**: augeo, gnosco	augment, to know (ignorant)
gh: ghostis, delegh	**g**: gasts, laggs	**h/g**:hostis, longus	guest (hostile), length (longitude)
k: leuk, kerd	**h/g**: liuhadh, hairto	**g**: lux, cor(d)	light (lucid), heart (core)
p: pat<u>e</u>r, septm	**f/b**: fadar, sibun	**p**: pater, septem	father (paternal), seven (September)
q: leiq, qi/qo	**hw/g/w**: leihwan, hwas	**qu**: linquo, quis	leave (relinquish), what (quote)
t: wert, treies	**dh/d**: wairdhan, dhreis	**t**: uerto, tres	(to)ward (versus), three (trinity)

3. Words and their Forms

3.1. The Parts of Speech

3.1.1. Words are divided into eight Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives (including Participles), Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

3.1.2. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing or idea: as, **Anglendh**, *England*; **werdhom**, *verb*; **wlqos**, *wolf*.

Names of particular persons and places are called Proper Nouns; other nouns are called Common.

NOTE. An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality or idea. A Collective Noun is the name of a group, class or the like.

3.1.3. An Adjective is a word that attributes a quality; as, **patrios**, *parental*; **Angliskos**, *English*.

NOTE 1. A Participle is a word that attributes quality like an adjective, but, being derived from a verb, retains in some degree the power of the verb to assert.

NOTE 2. Etymologically there is no difference between a noun and an adjective both being formed alike. So, too, all names originally attribute quality, and any common name can still be so used. Thus, **Ceni Elizabeth II** distinguishes this Elizabeth from other *Elizabeths*, by the attribute expressed in the name *queen*.

3.1.4. A Pronoun is a word used to distinguish a person, place, thing or idea without either naming or describing it: as, **eg**, *I*; **twos**, *my* (sth. m.); **we**, *we*.

Nouns and pronouns are often called Substantives.

3.1.5. A Verb is a word which is capable of asserting something: as, **bher**, *carry, bear*; **bha̲**, *shine*.

NOTE. In English the verb is usually the only word that asserts anything, and a verb is therefore supposed to be necessary to complete an assertion. Strictly, however, any adjective or noun

may, by attributing a quality or giving a name, make a complete assertion. In the infancy of language there could have been no other means of asserting, as the verb is of comparatively late development.

3.1.6. An Adverb is a word used to express the time, place, or manner of an assertion or attribute: as, **per**, *in front;* **anti**, *opposite*

NOTE. These same functions are often performed by cases of nouns, pronouns and adjectives, and by phrases or sentences.

3.1.7. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word or words in the same sentence; as, **ad**, *at, to*; **al**, *beyond*.

3.1.8. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, or groups of words, without affecting their grammatical relations: as, **qe**, *and*; **we**, *or*.

3.1.9. Interjections are mere exclamations and are not strictly to be classed as parts of speech; as, **hej, haj, ahoj** (greeting), **holla**, **hallo**, (on the telephone); **o** (vocative); **oh** (surprise); etc.

NOTE. Interjections sometimes express an emotion which affects a person or thing mentioned, and so have a grammatical connection like other words.

3.2. Inflection

3.2.1. Europaio is an inflected language. Inflection is a change made in the form of a word to show its grammatical relations.

3.2.2. Inflectional changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination:

owis, *the*, *a sheep*; **owios**, *of the sheep*; **bhero**, I carry; **bhreti**, you carried.

3.2.3. Terminations of inflection had possibly originally independent meanings which are now obscured. They probably corresponded nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries and personal pronouns in English.

Thus, in **wlqos**, the termination is equivalent to *this* or *the*; in **bhret** (Indicative) and **bhret** (Subjunctive), the change of vowel grade signifies a change in the mood.

3.2.4. Inflectional changes in the body of a verb usually denote relations of tense or mood, and often correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English:

bheresi *you (thou) carry* or *are carrying*; **bhresi** *you (thou) carried* or *have carried*, etc.

3.2.5. The inflection of Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns and Participles to denote gender, number and case is called Declension, and these parts of speech are said to be *declined*.

The inflection of Verbs to denote voice, mood, tense, number and person is called Conjugation, and the verb is said to be conjugated.

NOTE. Adjectives are often said to have inflections of comparison. These are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivations.

3.2.6. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections are not inflected and are usually called Particles.

3.3. Root, Stem and Base

3.3.1. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the Stem. The Stem contains the idea of the word without relations; but, except in the first part of a compound (like **Ndher-lendhoms**, the *Low Lands or Netherlands*), it cannot ordinarily be used without some termination to express them.

Thus the stem **owi**- denotes sheep; adding an-**s** it becomes **owis**, *a sheep* or *the sheep*, as the subject or agent of an action; with -*os* it becomes **owios**, and signifies *of a sheep* or *of the sheep*.

NOTE. The word *Europaio* is used in English, but in Europaio itself the language name is **Europaiom**, *the Europaio* (n.). Europaio is only the Stem, not declined.

3.3.2. A Root is the simplest form attainable by analysis of a word into its component parts. Such a form contains the main idea of the word in a very general sense, and is common also to other words either in the same language or in kindred languages.

Thus the root of the stem **bhanio**, *show*, is **bha**, which does not necessary mean *to show*, or *I show*, or *showing*, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of showing, and possibly cannot be used as a part of speech without terminations. With -**ti** it becomes **bherti**, *he/she/it carries*.

NOTE 1. The Europaio is a very old language, and this has an obvious consequence on the general assertion that roots don't mean anything. In fact, many Europaio roots mean something, even without adding a single ending. So, for example, the English word *special* has a root **spec* (also root of words like *speculate* or *species*) which expresses vaguely the idea of *looking*. In Europaio, the word *spekialis*, *special*, coexists with its root **spek**, *to observe*. The lack of roots' meaning is due to language evolution, which blurs the original meanings. Many roots had probably ceased to be recognized as such before IE III - although less as in the derived, modern languages. Consequently, many of the forms which are logical Europaio roots never really existed independently in IE III, but represent forms used earlier.

NOTE 2. In inflected languages as Europaio, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time were possibly used alone to express ideas (for some this happened already in PIE, for others in an older ancestor). Roots are then modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become fully formed words. The process by which roots are modified, in the various forms of derivatives

and compounds, is called stem-building. The whole of this process is originally one of composition, by which significant endings are added one after another to forms capable of pronunciation and conveying a meaning.

3.3.3. The Stem may be the same as the root; as, **wlqo!**, *wolf!* (vocative), **bher**, *to carry* (infinitive); but it is more frequently formed from the root.

1. By changing or lengthening its vowel: **bhr-e-t**, *he carried*.

2. By the addition of a simple suffix: **dem-s-pot** *despot.*

3. By two or more of this methods: **wr-dho-m**, *word*.

4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language, which we will see in the corresponding chapters.

3.3.4. The Base is that part of a word which is unchanged in inflection: as, **wlq**- in **wlqos**; **wrdh**- in **wrdhom**, etc.

a. The Base and the Stem are often identical, as in many consonant stems of nouns (as **ag**- in **ag-o**). If, however, the stem ends in a vowel, the latter does not appear in the base, but is variously combined with the inflectional termination. Thus the stem of **wlqos** is **wlqo**-; that of **wrdhos**, **wrdho**-;

3.3.5. Inflectional terminations are modified differently by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, and the various forms of Declension and Conjugation are so developed.

3.4. Gender

3.4.1. The Genders distinguished in Europaio are three: Masculine, Feminine (both are referred to as Animate) and Neuter or Inanimate.

3.4.2. The gender of Europaio nouns is either *natural* or *grammatical*.

a. Natural Gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: **pat̲er** (m.), *father* ; **cen̲a** (f.), *woman* ; **wlqos** (m.), *wolf* ; **swesor** (f.), *sister*.

NOTE 1. Many nouns have both a masculine and a feminine form to distinguish sex: as, **ekwos**, **ekw̲a**, *horse*;

NOTE 2. Names of classes or collections of persons may be of any gender: as, **armat̲a** (f.), army;

b. Grammatical Gender is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It is shown in the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as **magnos wlqos** (m.), *a great wolf*; **m̲a dngh̲u** (f.), *my language* (*tongue*). The gender of the adjective is thus simply a gender of concordance: it indicates to which noun of a concrete gender the adjective refers to.

3.4.3. The neuter or inanimate gender differs from the other two in inflection, not in the theme vowel. The gender of the animates, on the contrary, is usually marked by the theme vowel, and sometimes by the declension, vocalism and accents.

3.4.4. The neuter does not refer to the lack of sex, but to the lack of liveliness or life. Sometimes, however, animates can be sometimes designated as inanimates.

While the distinction between masculine and feminine is usually straightforward, sometimes the attribution of sex is arbitrary: thus, **n̲aus**, *ship*, *nave,* is feminine, while **p̲ods**, *foot*, is masculine.

NOTE. The masculine functions as the negative term in the opposition. This is a purely grammatical utility, one that is only relevant for concordance, and which has to do with the evolution of the IE and its inflection system.

3.4.5. The animate nouns can have:

a. An oppositive gender, marked:

I. by the lexicon, as in *pat<u>e</u>r-m<u>a</u>t<u>e</u>r*, *bhr<u>a</u>ter-sw<u>e</u>s<u>o</u>r*;

II. by the theme vowel, as in **ekwos-ekw<u>a</u>**, *wlqos-wlqia*;

III. by both at the same time, as in *w<u>i</u>ros-cn<u>a</u>* [G'**n**a:].

b. An autonomous gender, that does not oppose itself to others, as in the aforementioned **n<u>au</u>s** and **p<u>o</u>ds**.

c. A common gender, in nouns that are masculine or feminine depending on the context.

d. An epicene gender, which, although being masculine or feminine, designates both sexes: as the feminine **s<u>u</u>s** (cf. *swine*), *pig*.

3.4.6. The gender of a noun can thus be marked by the theme vowel (or sometimes by the inflection), or has to be learnt: it is a feature of a word like any other. In its context, concordance is a new gender mark: a masculine noun has a masculine adjective, and a feminine noun a feminine adjective. However, not all adjectives differentiate between masculine and feminine, a lot of them (those in -*i-s*, -*u-s*, -*<u>e</u>s*, -*<u>o</u>n*, and many thematic in -*os*) are masculine-feminine: only the context, i.e. the noun with which they agree, helps to disambiguate them. This happens also in nouns of the c-type.

3.4.7. So, most of the endings do not indicate gender, as in **pater** and **m<u>a</u>ter**. Only by knowing the roots in many cases, or by the context in others is it possible to determine it. Some of the suffixes determine, though, totally or partially if they are masculine or feminine. These are the following:

1. -**os** marks masculine when it is opposed to a feminine in -*<u>a</u>* or -*ia*, as in **ekwos**, **wlqos**. This happens also in adjectives in the same situation, as in **newos**-**new<u>a</u>**. In isolated nouns, -**os** is generally masculine, but some traces of the old indistinctness of gender still remains in this third stage of the language; as in the names of trees (among others). In adjective endings -**os** which are not opposed to feminine, only concordance decides.

2. -**a** marks the feminine in oppositions of nouns and adjectives. It is usually also feminine in isolated nouns, in the third declension. But there are also traces of masculines in -*a*, as, lat. *auriga*, *charioteer*, *driver*; or *nauta*, *sailor*, and osl. *sluga*, *server*.

3. -**ia**, is systematically feminine. It is used in nouns, and often in adjectives.

4. Finally, the theme vowels -**i** and -**u** are feminines.

3.5. General Rules of Gender

3.5.1. Names of Male beings, and of Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains are masculine:

pater, *father*; **Karlos**, *Charles*; **Rhein**, *the Rhine*; **Auster**, *south wind*; **Magjos**, *May*; **Urales**, *the Urals*.

NOTE. Names of Months are properly adjectives, the masculine noun **mens**, *month*, being understood: as, *Januarios*, January.

a. A few names of Rivers ending in -**a** (as, *Volga*), and many Greek names ending in -*e* (which usually corresponds to Europaio -**a**), are feminine; others are variable or uncertain.

b. Some names of Mountains are feminines or neuter: as, **Alpes** (f.), *the Alps*

3.5.2. Names of Female beings, of Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine:

mater, *mother*; **Julia**, *Julia*; **Roma**, *Rome*; **pinu**, *pine*; **sapphiros**, *sapphire*; **weraos**, *true* (cf. *very*);

a. Some names of Towns and Countries are masculine: as, **Swereghe**, Sweden; or neuter, as, **Anglendhom**, *England*; **Illyrikom**, *Illyria.*

b A few names of Plants and Gems follow the gender of their termination; as, **kentaureom** (n.), *centaury*; **akanthos** (m.), *bearsfot*; **opalos** (m.), *opal*.

NOTE. The gender of most of the above may also be recognized by the terminations, according to the rules given under the different declensions.

3.5.3. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, terms or phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their form, are neuter:

wrdh, *right*; **nehilum**, *nothing* ; **gummi**, *gum*;

3.5.4. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, **eksaliom**, *exile*; **cous**, *ox* or *cow*; **parent**, *parent*.

NOTE. Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called epicene. Thus, **wlqos**, *wolf*, is always masculine, and **wlpes**, *fox*, is always feminine.

3.5.5. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives and Participles are declined in two Numbers, singular and plural; and in five Cases, nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive and oblique - which is in some dialects was further subdivided into combinations of dative, locative, instrumental and ablative.

NOTE 1. The Northern dialects usually had five cases, while the southern ones had eight, although the situation has evolved differently due to migrations and linguistic contacts. The traditional theories maintain that the Oblique case is a relic of the original, more complex system of eight noun cases from the common PIE language. On the contrary, the five-case system is for other, more modern scholars, the older situation, later changed by some languages (especially the southern) by way of merging or splitting the five original cases. It would have been, then, an innovation of the individual dialects (hence the difficulty in reconstructing four unitary oblique cases), just as the phonetic satemization. Both trends influenced then the Baltoslavic dialects, possibly in close contact with the Indo-Iranian dialects before (and even after) the great migrations. It is thus a general opinion that in IE III both dialectal trends related to inflection coexisted. In this Grammar we follow the general Northern trend, i.e. the five-case inflection, and disregard the other four cases altogether.

NOTE 2. In the number we use singular and plural, and not dual, not only because of its doubtful existence in IE III times and the difficulties with its reconstruction, but because it is also more practical in terms of modern European languages.

I. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.

II. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.

III. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb. It is used also with many of the prepositions.

IV. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition *of*.

V. The Oblique may be translated as:

a. The case of the Indirect Object. It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition *to* or *for*.

b. The place *where*.

c. The thing *with*.

d. The Objective with *from*, *by*, *with*, *in* or *at*. It is often given with prepositions.

NOTE . The oblique case appears in the English pronoun set; these pronouns are often called objective pronouns; as in *she loves* **me** (accusative), *give it to* **me** (dative) or *that dirt wasn't wiped with* **me** (instrumental), where **me** is not inflected differently in any of these uses; it is used for all grammatical relationships except the genitive case of possession and a non-disjunctive nominative case as the subject.

3.6. Vowel Grade

1. The vowel grade or Ablaut is normally the alternation between full, zero or lengthened grade vocalism. The different vowel grades are an important feature of the Europaio verbal system, and they usually alternate in nouns depending on the endings.

NOTE. Ablaut comes from German *Abstufung der Laute*, *vowel alternation*.

2. Some examples of vowel grades possible in Europaio are the following:

	Full (F)	Zero (∅)	Lengthened (L)
e/o - ∅ - e/o	ped, dem	pd, dm	p<u>e</u>d, d<u>e</u>m
ie/o - i - i<u>e</u>/<u>o</u>	djeus	diw-/dju-	dj<u>e</u>-
ue/o - u - ue/o	kwon	kun-	kw<u>o</u>n
e/oi - u/i - <u>e</u>/<u>oi</u>	bheid	bhid	bh<u>ei</u>d
e/ou - u/i - <u>e</u>/<u>ou</u>	bheud, ous	bhud, us	bh<u>eu</u>d, <u>ou</u>s
<u>e</u>/<u>a</u>/<u>o</u> - a - <u>e</u>/<u>a</u>/<u>o</u>	bhl<u>e</u>, bh<u>a</u>, <u>o</u>ku	bhla, bha, aku	bhl<u>e</u>, bh<u>a</u>, <u>o</u>ku
au/ai - u/i - <u>au</u>/<u>ai</u>	bhau, aik	bh<u>u</u> (bhəu), <u>i</u>k (əik)	bh<u>au</u>, <u>ai</u>k
<u>e</u>/<u>oi</u> - <u>u</u>/<u>i</u> - <u>e</u>/<u>oi</u>	po(i)	pi	poi
etc.			

3. There are also some other possible vowel grade changes, as:

a. o-grade and e-grade: **dem**/**dom**, **ped**/**pod**, etc.

b. Other lesser used possibilities include *a-grade*, *i-grade* and *u-grade*, which usually come from old root endings, rather than from systematized phonetic changes.

NOTE. The alternation **e/ø** was apparently in the old stages of IE dependent on the accent. Compare kl**e**uos/klut**o**s, **e**imi/im**e**s, p**a**term/patr**o**s, etc. An unaccented morpheme thus lost its vowel. This happens only in old formations, though, as IE III lost this (possibly) older pattern and froze the old alternations.

4. Nouns

4.1. Declension of Nouns

4.1.1. Declension is made by adding terminations to different stem endings, vowel or consonant. The various phonetic changes in the language have given rise to the several declensions. Most of the case-endings, as given in Europaio, contain also the final letter of the stem.

Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them; but they have some peculiarities of inflection.

4.1.2. Nouns are inflected in four Declensions, distinguished by the final phonemes, characteristic of the Stem, and by the opposition of different forms in irregular nouns.

Decl.	Stem ending	Nom.	Genitive
1	-i, -u, -i̯, -u̯ and Diphthongs	-s, -ø	-e/ois, ios ; -e/ous, -uos
2	Sonants and Consonants	-s, -ø	-e/os, -s
3	-a̱, -ia /-i̱ / -i̱a̱, -e̱, -o̱	-ø	-s
4	-e/o (thematic)	-s	-os, -osio, -oso, -i̱
(5)	*Variable Nouns*		

The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.

4.1.3. The following are General Rules of Declension:

a. The Nominative singular for animates ends in -**s** when the stem endings are *-i*, *i̯*, *u*, *u̱*, *diphthong*, *occlusive* and *thematic* (-**os**), or -ø in -a̱, -a, *sonant* and -s; while in the plural -**es** is general, -**s** for those in -a̱, and -**os** for the *thematic* ones.

b. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in -**m**; the Accusative plural in -**ms**.

c. The Vocative singular for animates is always -ø, and in the plural it is identical to the Nominative.

d. The Genitive singular is common to animates and inanimates, it is formed with -**s**: -**s**, -**es**, -**os**. A very old possibility is -**osio**. The Genitive plural is formed in -**<u>om</u>** and -**<u>em</u>**, and also in -**<u>am</u>** in *a-stems*.

e. The Obliques singular end usually in -**i**: it can be -**i**, -**ei**, -**<u>ei</u>**, -**oi**, -**<u>oi</u>** or -**<u>ai</u>**. In the plural, there are two series of declensions, with -**bh** (general) and -**m** (only ger. and sla.), generally -**bhi**, -**bhis**, -**bhios**, -**mis**, -**mos**, and also some forms in -**si** (plural mark -**s-** plus oblique mark -**i**), mainly in the southern dialects.

f. Inanimates have a syncretic form for N.-Ac.-V. in -*ø* in *athematic*, or -**m** in *thematic*. The plural forms end in -**a** or -**<u>a</u>**.

g. All Animates have the same form in the plural for Nom.-Voc., in -**es**.

4.1.4. The *Oblique* cases, opposed to the *Straight* cases (Nom.-Acc.-Voc) are Genitive and Oblique.

4.2. First Declension

4.2.1. First Declension Paradigm

1. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in -**i**, -**u**, -**i̱**, -**u̱** and **diphthong**. The Nominative ending is -*s*.

2. Europaio nouns of the First Declension are thus generally declined:

	Animate	Inanimate
NOM.	-s	
ACC.	-m	-∅
VOC.	-∅	
GEN.	- (e/o)s	
OBL.	-ei / -i	

3. The animates in -**i** and -**u** are masculine or feminine (indifferent to the distinction in adjectives); those in -**i̱** and -**u̱**, always feminine.

4. The -s can indicate Nominative and Genitive: the distinction is obtained through the full-grade of the vowel before the declension (Gen. -*ei-s* for -**i**, -*ou-s* for -**u**).

Another problem is that of the indistinctness between the Vocative of the animates and the Nom.-Acc.-Voc. of the inanimates. But in this case, distinction is guaranteed in the noun because they have different stem vowels. The problem comes in the adjective, where a Vocative singular animate -*i* can be an homophone with Nom.-Acc.-Voc. singular neuter -*i* (like in lat. *suaue, -i*). This is, though, a rare case, in which the context is generally enough for disambiguation.

4.2.2. In -i,-u

1. Nominative Singular Animate in -**s**; as in **o**wis, n**o**qtis, gh**o**stis, s**u**nus,

2. Accusative Singular Animate in -**m**; as in **o**wim, n**o**qtim, gh**o**stim, s**u**num

3. Vocative Singular Animate in -**ei** or -**i**, -**eu** or -**u**; as in **o**wei/**o**wi, s**u**neu-s**u**nou/s**u**nu.

4. The Nom.-Acc.-Voc. Singular Inanimate in -**i**, -**u**; as in p**e**ku, m**e**dhu, sw**a**d**u**

5. Genitive Singular in -**eis** (-**ois**) or -**ios**, -**eus** (-**ous**), -**uos**; as in egn**e**is, s**u**nous, p**e**kwos, adj. sw**a**d**e**us

6. Oblique Singular in -**ei**, -**ou**, also with long vowel, -**ei**, -**ou**, and also in ø-grade, -**i**, -**u**: egn**e**i, s**u**nu, ow**e**i.

SINGULAR

	f. neqti	*m. sunu*	*f. owi*	*n. peku*
NOM.	n**e**qtis	s**u**nus	**o**wis	p**e**ku
ACC.	n**e**qtim	s**u**num	**o**wim	p**e**ku
VOC.	n**e**qti	s**u**nu	**o**wi	p**e**ku
GEN.	n**e**qteis	s**u**nous	**o**wios	p**e**kwos
OBL.	n**e**qtei	s**u**nou	**o**wei	p**e**kou

4.2.3. In -i,-u

1. Its inflection is similar to that of -**i**, -**u**, but they have no alternating vowels before the declension, and the -**i** and -**u** are substituted before vowel by -*ij*, -*uw*.

2. They are always feminine, and they cannot be inanimates nor adjectives.

3. These themes are most of the times roots.

4. Examples of this are:

SINGULAR

	f. br̲u̲	*f. dngh̲u̲*
NOM.	br̲u̲-s	dngh̲u̲-s
ACC.	br̲u̲-m	dngh̲u̲-m
VOC.	br̲u̲	dngh̲u̲
GEN.	bruw-**es**	dnghuw-**os**
OBL.	bruw-**ei** / bruw-**i**	dnghuw-**ou**

4.2.4. In Diphthong

1. There are long diphthongs -**au**, -**eu**, -**ou**, -**ei**, which sometimes present short vowels, as well as other endings without diphthong, i.e., -**a**, -**e**, -**o**.

NOTE. The last are probably remains of older diphthongs, from IE II. So, although from the point of view of the Europaio there are only stems with variants -**au**, -**eu**, -**a**, etc, these can all be classified as Diphthong endings, because the original stems were formed as diphthongs in the language history. This kind of irregularities is usual in today's languages, as it was already five millennia ago.

In zero grade, in Genitive, there are forms with -**i**- or -**ij**- or with -**u**- or -**uw**-, depending on the diphthongs.

SINGULAR

	m. c_ou	**m. dj_eu**
NOM.	c_ous	dj_eus
ACC.	c_om	dj_em, dij_em
VOC.	c_ou	dj_eu
GEN.	c_ous	diu_os, dj_eues
OBL.	c_owi	dj_euei

2. These are root words, but there is a secondary formation of words, especially that of Greek origin, in -**eus**, -**euos**, as in Avestic *baz_aus*, arm, or gr. *Basileus*, which are also so declined.

4.2.5. The Plural in the First Declension

1. The following table depicts the general system, common to the First and Second Declension.

	Animate	Inanimate
NOM.	-es	-a, -a̱
ACC.	-ms	
VOC.	-es	
GEN.	-o̱m, -e̱m	
OBL.	-bhis, -bhos; -mis, -mos; -si	

NOTE. The inanimate plural forms, -**a** and -**a̱**, correspond possibly to an older theme vowel of an earlier stage of the language, *-**h** and *-**eh** after the Laryngeals' Theory.

2. Unlike in the Singular, in which only some Nominatives have an -**s**, in Nom.-Voc. Plural the -**s** is general, and there is always one fix-grade vowel, **e**. So, the opposition Singular-Plural in -**s**/-**es** is actually a **ø**/**e** distinction. This opposition has also sometimes another mark, that of the vowel before the ending (see § [4.7](#)).

3. The Nom.-Voc. Plural Animate is normally in -**es**; as in c**o**wes

There are forms in -**eies** for -**i** themes, as in ow**e**ies; in -**eues** for -**u** themes, as in su̱n**e**ues; in **ijes**, -**uwes** for -**i̱**, -**u̱**; as in bhr**u**wes;

4. The Accusative Plural Animate is in -**ms**: **o**wims, s**u̱**nums, coms/c**o**ums

NOTE. Many scholars reconstruct for IE III the accusative plural ending -**ns**, because most of the attested proto-languages show either -**ns** (as some endings in Sanskrit or Germanic) or long vowel, sometimes with -**s**. Most of them also admit an original, older -**ms** form (a logical accusative singular -**m** plus the plural mark -**s**), but they prefer to reconstruct the attested -**ns**, thus (implicitly) suggesting an intermediate phase (IE II -**ms**> **IE III** *-**ns**> proto-languages -**ns**/-_**s**), common to all proto-languages. We don't know if this intermediate phase happened, and if it was common to all languages, or even if it was common to those languages which present in some declensions -**ns**, and in other declensions another endings. What we do know is that the

form -**ms** is older than any other, and that it existed already in the IE II dialects, as the Anatolian shows.

5. Nom.-Voc. Acc. Plural Inanimate in -**a**

6. Genitive Plural Animate in -**om**/-**om** and -**em**: **o**wi-om, n**o**qti-om, s**u**n**u**w-em/s**u**n**u**w-om, cow-om

NOTE. The -**m** of the Acc. sg. An., Nom.-Acc.-Voc. sg. Inan. and this case could sometimes be equivocal. It is disambiguated with the vocalic grade, full or lengthened, which the Genitive takes - as the singular is always ø.

7. The Obliques are generally divided into two groups, that of the i.-i., gr., arm., lat., and cel. in -**bh**-; and another of the ger. and bsl. in -**m**-. There are, thus, -**bhis**, -**bhos**, -**bhios**, -**bhi**, and -**mis**, -**mos**: s**u**n**u**bhis / s**u**n**u**bhos / s**u**n**u**bhios / s**u**n**u**mis / s**u**n**u**mos.

There is also another possible ending, mostly (southern) dialectal, in -**si**: s**u**n**u**si

NOTE. This has probably an origin in the plural mark -**s**-, to which the local case ending -**i** is added. This is a general oblique ending in the thematic declension.

	f. owi	*m. sunu*	*f. bhru*	*m. cou*
NOM.	ow**e**ies	s**u**n**e**ues	bhr**u**wes	c**o**wes
ACC.	**o**wims	s**u**nums	bhr**u**ms	c**o**ums
VOC.	ow**e**ies	s**u**n**e**ues	bhr**u**wes	c**o**wes
GEN.	**o**wiom	s**u**n**u**w**e**m	bhr**u**w**o**m	c**o**wom
OBL.	ow**e**bhos	s**u**n**u**bhis	bhr**u**mis	c**o**um**o**s

4.3. Second Declension

4.3.1. Second Declension Paradigm

1. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in sonant and consonant, that is: -**n**, -**r**, (rarely -**l**, -**m**), -**s** and occlusive (especially -**t**). The flexion of the animates is substantially the same as that of the First Declension.

The Nominative ending is -**s** (with occlusive, and -**m**, -**l**), but there is also a Nominative singular with pure stem vowel (declension -ø and lengthened ending vowel), so that the full-grade Vocative is differentiated. And there is no confusion in Nom./Gen., as -**s** has a different vowel grade (Nom. -**s**, Gen. -**es** or -**os**)

2. Europaio nouns of the Second Declension have thus two models:

ANIMATES

	Occlusive, -m, -l	*-r, -n, -s*
NOM.	-s	-ø (long vowel)
ACC.	-m ['m]	-m ['m]
VOC.	-ø	-ø (full grade)
GEN.	-e/os	
OBL.	-i, -ei	

3. Inanimates have pure vowel stems with different vocalic grades. In nouns there can be no confusion at all, as they are different words, but the neuter adjectives could be mistaken in Nominative or Vocative Animate. Distinction is thus obtained with vocalism, so in animate -**on** / inanimate -**on**, animate -**es** / inanimate -**es** (neuter nouns with -**s** theme are in -**os**).

4.3.2. In Occlusive, -m, -l

1. Nominative Singular Animate in -**s**; as in p**o**ds/p**e**ds, bh**r**ghs [bh'**r**ghs], d**o**nts/d**e**nts

2. Accusative Singular Animate in -*[']m*; as in p**o**dm [p**o:**d'm] / p**e**dm [p**e**d'm], bh**r**ghm [bh'**r**gh'm], d**o**ntm [d**o:**nt'm] / d**e**ntm [d**e**nt'm]

3. Vocative Singular Animate in -*ø*; a sin p**o**d/p**e**d, bhrgh, d**o**nt/dent

5. The Nom.-Acc.-Voc. Singular Inanimate in -*ø*, with various vocalisms; as in krd [k'rd]

4. Genitive Singular in -*e*/*os*; as in p**o**dos/p**o**d**o**s, p**e**des/p**e**d**e**s, d**o**ntos/d**o**nt**o**s, d**e**ntes/d**e**nt**e**s, bh**r**ghos

6. Oblique Singular in -*i*, -*ei*: p**o**di, d**o**nti

SINGULAR

	m. ped	*m. d**o**nt*	*n. krd*
NOM.	peds	d**o**nts	krd
ACC.	pedm	d**o**ntm	krd
VOC.	p**e**d	d**o**nt	krd
GEN.	p**e**des	d**o**ntos	k**r**dos
OBL.	p**e**di	d**o**nti	k**r**di

4.3.3. In -r, -n, -s

1. Nominative Singular Animate in -*ø* (with lengthened vowel); as in m*a*t*e*r, kw*o*n.

Stems in -**s**, ndher-gen*e*s (*degenerate*); lat. p**u**b*e*s, h*o*n*o*s, *honor*

2. Accusative Singular Animate in -*[']m*; as in m*a*term [m**a:**ter'm], kw*o*nm [kw*o*n'm], ndheregen*e*sm [ndhergen*e*s'm]; lat. hon*o*sm

3. Vocative Singular Animate in -*ø* (with full vowel); as in m*a*ter, k**u**on

5. The Nom.-Acc.-Voc. Singular Inanimate in -*ø*; as in n*o*mn [n*o*m'n], g*e*n*e*s.

The adjectives in -**s** have the neuter in -*es*: eugen*e*s

4. Genitive Singular in -*e/os*; as in m*a*t*r*es/m*a*t*r*os, kun*e*s/kun*o*s, nomn*e*s [nom'n*e*s] / nomn*o*s [nom'n*o*s]

Nouns and adjectives in -**s** have an **e**, not an **o**, as the final stem vowel: geneses, eugen*e*os

6. Oblique Singular in -*ei*, -*i*: m*a*teri, kw*o*ni

	m. kwon	*f. mater*	*n. genes*	*n. nomn*
NOM.	kw*o*n	m*a*ter	gen*e*s	n*o*mn
ACC.	kw*o*nm	m*a*term	gen*e*s	n*o*mn
VOC.	kw*o*n	m*a*ter	gen*e*s	n*o*mn
GEN.	kuno/es	m*a*tre/os	geneses	nomne/os
OBL.	kw*o*ni	m*a*teri	genesi	n*o*mni

	adj. m. ndhergen-
NOM.	ndhergen*e*s
ACC.	ndhergen*e*sm
VOC.	ndhergen*e*s
GEN.	ndhergen*e*ses
OBL.	ndhergen*e*si

4.3.4. The Plural in the Second Declension

1. This is the general plural system:

	Animate	Inanimate
NOM.	-es	
ACC.	-ms ['ms]	-a, -a̲
VOC.	-es	
GEN.	-o̲m, -e̲m	
OBL.	-bhis, -bhos; -mis, -mos; -si	

Note. For more information on the general Plural system, see § 4.2.5.

	f. ma̲te̲r	**m. do̲nt**	***n. gene̲s***	***n. nomn***
NOM.	ma̲teres	do̲ntes	genesa	nomna
ACC.	ma̲ter[']ms*	do̲nt[']ms	genesa	nomna
VOC.	ma̲teres	do̲ntes	genesa	nomna
GEN.	matro̲m	do̲ntom	geneso̲m	nomno̲m
OBL.	ma̲terbhos	do̲ntsu	genesmis	nomnbhis

* ma̲terms or ma̲terms

4.4. Third Declension

4.4.1. Third Declension Paradigm

1. They are usually Animate nouns and end in -**a**, -**ia** [iə] / **i** / **ia**, -**e**, -**o**. Those in -**a** are very common, generally feminine in nouns and always in adjectives. Those in -**ia**/ **i**/ -**ia** are always feminine and are used to make feminines in the adjectival *motion*. Those in -**o** and -**e** are feminine only in lesser used words. Those in -**a** are etymologically identical to the Neuter plural in Nom.-Acc.-Voc.

Note. The entire stem could have been reduced to -**a**, because this is the origin of the whole stem system before IE III, even before the II stage of the language. We sacrifice clarity for a thorough approach, but that doesn't mean that the Third Declension cannot be named *a-Declension*, just as the Second is the *Consonant Declension*, or the Fourth is the *Thematic Declension.*

2. Europaio nouns of the Third Declension have thus the following model, with the exception of the -**e**, -**o** stems:

	Animate	Inanimate
NOM.	-Ø	
ACC.	-m	-Ø
VOC.	-Ø	
GEN.	-s	
OBL.	-ai, ei; -a	

NOTE. Some argue (because of the obvious analogy with the other declensions) that the -**ai** in the Oblique could correspond to an older -**aei** or even -**aei** declension. This controversial issue is irrelevant for our system, though, as the situation we represent here is not that of the earlier stages of the language.

3. It is therefore identical to those in -**r**, -**n**, -**s** of the Second Declension, but for some details in vocalism: the Gen. has an -**s** and not -**e/os**; the difference between Nom. and Voc. is that of -**a** and -**a**. The ø-grade of the Nom.-Acc.-Voc. in the -**ia**/-**i** themes is different from the Gen. in -**ia**.

4.4.2. Third Declension in Examples

1. Nominative Singular in ø; as, e**kwa**, se**na**.

Examples of -**ia**/-**i** stems are p**o**tnia/p**o**tni

Those in themes -**e**, -**o**, which aren't found very often, can present an -**s** as well; as in bh**i**dh**e**s (lat. fides)

Those in -**a** can also rarely present forms in -**a**; as in gr. lesb. Dika

2. Accusative Singular in -**m**; as, e**kwa**m, p**o**tniam/p**o**tn**i**m, bh**i**dh**e**m

3. Vocative Singular in -ø. It is normally identical to the Nominative, but disambiguation could happen with distinct vowel grades.

4. Genitive Singular in -**s**; as, e**kwa**s, se**na**s

The theme in -**ia**/-**i**/-**ia** produces a Genitive Singular in -**as**; as, potni**as**

5. Oblique Singular in -**ai**, -**a**

There is also a form -**ei** for themes in -**e** and in -**ia**.

	m. ekwa	*m. potnia/i*	*m. bhidhe-*
NOM.	e**kwa**	p**o**tnia/i	bh**i**dh**e**s
ACC.	e**kwa**m	p**o**tnia/i-m	bh**i**dh**e**m
VOC.	e**kwa**	p**o**tnia/i	bh**i**dh**e**
GEN.	e**kwa**s	p**o**tnia/i-s	bh**i**dhes
OBL.	e**kwa**i	p**o**tn**a**i	bh**i**dei

	adj. f. sen-
NOM.	se**na**
ACC.	se**na**m
VOC.	se**na**
GEN.	se**na**s
OBL.	se**na**i

4.4.3. The Plural in the Third Declension

1. The following table presents the plural paradigm of the *a-Declension*, all of them animates.

	Animate
NOM.	-s
ACC.	-ms
VOC.	-s
GEN.	-m
OBL.	-bhis, -bhos; -mis, -mos; -si;

2. The Nominative-Vocative Plural in -*s*: **e**kw**a**-s.

This form could obviously be confused with the Genitive Singular. In equivocal contexts we change preferably the accent (ekw**a**-s, ekw**a**-ms, ekw**a**-m).

3. The Accusative Plural in -*ms*: **e**kw**a**-ms

4. The Genitive Plural in -*m*: **e**kw**a**-m

5. The Obliques Plural in -*bhis*, -*bhos*, -*bhios*, -*mis*, -*mos* and -*si*: **e**kw**a**-bhis, **e**kw**a**-bhos, **e**kw**a**-mis, **e**kw**a**-mos, **e**kw**a**-si, **e**kw**a**-su

The Obliques have also special forms in Greek, -*aisi*, -*ais*, and Latin -*ais*: as in lat. *ros**i**s<*rosais*.

	*m. ekw**a***	*m. potnia/**i***
NOM.	ekw**a**s	potni**a**s
ACC.	ekw**a**ms	potni**a**ms
VOC.	ekw**a**s	potni**a**s
GEN.	ekw**a**m	p**o**tni**a**som
OBL.	ekw**a**bhis	potni**a**mos

4.5. Fourth Declension

4.5.1. Fourth Declension Paradigm

1. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in -**e**/**o**, i.e. they are thematic. They can be animates and inanimates, as well as adjectives. The inanimates have an ending -**m** only in Nom.-Acc.-Voc. The animates, with a Nominative -**s**, are generally masculine in nouns and adjectives, but there are also feminine nouns and animate adjectives in -**os**, as remains of the old indistinctness of declension.

2. The **e**/**o** stems are declined:

	Animate	Inanimate
NOM.	-os	
ACC.	-om	-om
VOC.	-e	
GEN.	-os, -osio, -oso, -i̱	
OBL.	-o̱i, -oi, -ei; -o̱, -e̱	

NOTE. It is obvious that this model could have been written without the initial vowel -**o**-, given that the probable origin of this vowel is the theme vowel of some thematic stems, while other, primitive athematic stems were reinterpreted thereafter and this vowel was added to them by way of analogy. So, for thematic stems, like **wlqo**-, this system should be read Nom. -**s**, Acc. -**m**, Voc. -**e**, Gen. -**s**, -**sio**, -**so**, -**i**.

3. There is obviously a possible confusion between the Nominative and the Genitive in -**os**. This can only be solved with lengthenings, as in -**os-io** or **os-o**.

4.5.2. Fourth Declension in Examples

1. Nominative Singular Animate in -*os*; as in wlqos

2. Accusative Singular Animate in -*om*; as in wlqom

3. Vocative Singular Animate in -*e*; as in wlqe

5. The Nom.-Acc.-Voc. Singular Inanimate in -*om*; as in jug**o**m, n**e**wom

4. Genitive Singular in -*os*, -*osio*, -*e*/*oso*, or -*i̯*; as in wlqosio / wlq**e**so / wlq**i̯**,

NOTE. The original form -*os* is rare, as the Genitive has to be distinguished from the Nominative. This disambiguation happens, as already said, by alternatively lengthening the ending or changing it altogether. This Declension is probably recent in IE III - even though it happened already in IE II - and that's why it is homogeneous, without variations in vocalism nor in accent; the major problem is the distinction between Genitive and Nominative.

6. Oblique Singular in -*o̯i*, -*oi*, -*o̯* : wl**q**oi, n**e**w**o̯**i

SINGULAR

	m. wlqo	*n. jugo*
NOM.	wlqos	jug**o**m
ACC.	wlqom	jug**o**m
VOC.	wlqe	jug**o**m
GEN.	wlqosio	jug**o**s
OBL.	wlqoi	jug**o̯**i

4.5.3. The Plural in the Fourth Declension

1. The table of the Thematic Plural system is this:

	Animate	Inanimate
NOM.	-os, -oi	
ACC.	-oms	
VOC.	-os, -oi	-a, -a
GEN.	-om/-om, -em	
OBL.	-ois, -oisi; -ois, -oisi	

NOTE. The plural, -**es**, if compared with the other declensions, could indicate that the original form was *-*o-es*>-**os**. This discussion is not relevant for our system, though, as the situation we look for is that of the third stage and not the etymology of every single case.

2. The Nominative-Vocative Animate Plural in -**os**: wlqos/wlqoi, wiros

3. The Accusative Animate Plural in -**oms**: wlqoms

4. The Nom.-Voc.-Acc. Inanimate Plural in -**a**, -**a**: juga/juga

NOTE. Even though this ending is similar to other declensions, please notice that it has no theme vowel. This happens probably because, as we said in the general model section, the inanimate ending is an independent older form of an earlier stage, later modified. The possible *-**h** and *-**eh**, therefore, changed the themes altogether, by changing the vowels.

5. The Genitive Plural in -**om**/-**om**, -**em**: wlqom/wlqem

6. 5. The Obliques Plural in -**ois**, -**oisi**; -**ois**, -**oisi**, and also, as in the other Declensions, -**bhis**, -**bhos**, -**bhios**, -**mis**, -**mos** and -**si**: wlqois/ wlqoisi

	m. wlqo	*n. jugo*
NOM.	wlqos	juga
ACC.	wlqoms	juga
VOC.	wlqos	juga
GEN.	wlqom	juga
OBL.	wlqois	jugois

4.6. Variable Nouns

4.6.1. Many nouns vary in Declension, and they are called *Heteroclites*.

Note. i.e., "nouns of different inflections" (*ετερος*, *another*, *κλινω*, *to inflect*))

4.6.2. These forms are isolated and archaic, given only in Inanimates, as remains of an older system. They normally consist of one form to mark the Nom.-Acc.-Voc, and another to mark the Oblique cases.

4.6.3. Examples of these forms are:

a. Opposition -*ø* / -*n*: d**e**ru /drun**o**s, *tree*; jus / jus**o**nos, *soup*

b. Opposition -*r* / -*n*: ai. **a**gor, **a**gnos, *day*. dh**e**mor / dh**e**mnis, *thigh*

4.6.4. The Heteroclites follow the form of the Genitive Singular when forming the Oblique cases. That is so in the lengthening before declension, vocalism and in the accent, too.

4.7. Vocalism before the Declension

4.7.1. The Predeclensional vowel is that which precedes the ending, even the **ø** ending; i.e., we say that p**at**er has a long predeclensional vowel; that the Vocative p**a**ter has a full one, and that m**e**dhu has it ø. Examples of the three are **p**o**d-s**, **pod-os** or **owi-os**.

NOTE. The vocalic changes in timbre and grade aren't meaningful by themselves, they are multifunctional: they can only have meaning in a specific declension, and it is not necessarily always the same. They are thus disambiguating elements, which help distinguish homophones (i.e., words that sound alike).

4.7.2. Two kinds of nominal inflection have no alternating vowel: that in -**i** or -**u**, and that of the **reduplicate** participles.

4.7.3. Stems in -**r** and -**n** have two possibilities, both with a Nominative singular in **ø** and lengthened vowel.

1. Nom. with lengthened vowel, Acc. and Voc. with full vowel, and Gen. ø. The timbre can be **e** or **o**, depending on the words.

a. In -**r**, as in Nom. m**at**er, Acc. m**a**term [m**a:**ter'm], Voc. m**a**ter, Gen. m**a**tr**o**s.

b. In -**n**, in root stems, as in *dog*: Nom. kw**o**n/kuw**o**n, Acc. kw**o**nm [kw**o**n'm] / kuw**o**nm [kuw**o**n'm], Voc. k**u**on/k**u**won, Gen. kun**o**s.

2. Sometimes, the Genitive has a full grade as the Accusative and the Vocative. This grade is redundant, not necessary for the disambiguation of the Genitive from the Nominative. There are, as above, different timbres **e** and **o**, sometimes **o** in Nom.-Acc.-Voc and **e** in Gen., sometimes **o** in Acc.-Voc.-Gen. and **e** in Obl.

4.7.4. There is usually the same vocalism in nouns ending in **occlusive**.

An exception is that of the adjectives and participles in -**nt**, which presents long vowel in the Nominative, full vowel in Accusative and Vocative, and ø in the Genitive: bh**e**r**o**nt/bh**e**rontos or bh**e**r**e**nt/bherentos

NOTE. There are remains of what seems to be an older alternating vocalism in monosyllabics. The variants of *ped/pod* suggest that it comes from a paradigm Nom. p**o**d-s, Acc. p**o**d-m [p**o**d'm], Gen. ped-**o**s. This is, again, mostly irrelevant for modern Europaio, in which both alternating forms are given.

4.7.5. Stems in -**s** do not present a ø-grade. Animates, as already said, oppose a lengthened vowel Nominative to the other cases, which have full vowel; as in -*es* / -*es*, -*os* / -*os*

4.7.6. We know already what happens with stems in -**i**, -**u**, which have two general models:

1. Nom. -*i-s*, Acc. -*i-m*, Voc. -*ei* or -*i*, Gen. -*i-os* / Nom. -*u-s*, Acc. -*u-m*, Voc. -*ei* or -*i*, Gen. -*u-os*

2. Nom. -*i-s*, Acc. -*i-m*, Voc. -*eu* or -*u*, Gen. -*ei-s* / Nom. -*u-s*, Acc. -*u-m*, Voc. -*eu* or -*u*, Gen. -*eu-s*

NOTE. This is an inversion of the normal situation: the Nom.-Acc.-Voc. has ø grade (but for some Voc.), the Gen. ø or full. Distinction is obtained through alternating forms; as in Voc., in which the ending -*ei* distinguishes it from Neuters in -*i*; or with changes of **e**/**o**.

4.7.7. Those in **long diphthong** alternate the diphthong (or long vowel) with *j* or *w*, which represent the ø grade; as in dj**e**us, dj**e**m, diw**o**s. Uniform vocalism (i.e., no vowel change) is generalized, though; as in n**a**us, n**a**w-**o**s.

NOTE. These diphthongs reflect a possible older situation of a vowel plus a laryngeal (as *-*eh*) and they are probably related to nouns in -**a** and also to those in -**e** and -**o**. It is a matter of speculation, though, as we can only know with some certainty the IE III.

4.7.8. Stems in -**a** usually maintain an uniform vocalism: Nom.-Voc. -**a**, Acc. -**am**, Gen. -**as**. But those in -**ia**/-**i**/-**ia** can alternate Nom.-Voc. -**ia**/-**i** / Gen. -**ias**.

There are also remains of -**a** in Voc. (and even Nom.), as well as -**ai**, cf. gr. gúnai (and derived forms in -**ai** in Old Indian and other dialects). The -**e** and -**o** endings have also traces of alternating phonetic changes.

NOTE. In gr. *Europe* / *Europa*, the Genitive is *Europ-ai-os*, which gives also the adjective (and hence the Europaio nominalized form *Europaios*/*m*). In lat. this *-ai-o-* is *-ae-u-*, and so *Europae-us*, *-a*, *-um*. See § <u>1.7.5.</u>

4.7.9. Finally, the **neuter** stems distinguish the Nom.-Acc.-Voc. forms by having a predeclensional vowel normally ø (the ending is also ø, but for the thematic), as we have seen in nouns ending in -**i**, -**u**, -**r**, -**n** and occlusive; like in m**a**dhu, n**o**mn, k**r**d. There are exceptions, though:

1. Nouns with lengthened or full vowel; as, gr. **u**d**o**r and oi. **a**har.

2. Nouns in -**s** cannot have ø, they have **o** in nouns, **e** in adjectives; as in g**e**nos, *race*; eugen**e**s, *of good race*.

3. Finals -**e**/**o** have a uniform predeclensional vowel, normally **o**, plus the ending -**m** of Nom.-Acc.-Voc.

NOTE 1. In the Oblique cases, neuters are declined like the animates.

NOTE 2. There are no neuters in -**a**, but for those which became plural.

4.8. Vocalism in the Plural

4.8.1. Vocalism in the Plural is generally the same as in the Singular. In Nominative-Vocative and Accusative, the straight cases, the full vowel grade is general (there is no Nominative with lengthened vowel), and in the Genitive the zero-grade is general. But there are also some special situations:

1. In the Nom.-Voc. there examples of full vowel: stems in -*ei-es* and -*eu-es* (-**i**, -**u** stems), in -*er-es*, -*or-es*, -*en-es*, -*on-es*, -*es-es*, also in words like p**o**d-es.

2. Sometimes, the vowel timbre varies; as, **a**kmen/k**a**men, (*sharp*) *stone*, which gives lit. *akmuö / akmenes*, osl. *kamy / kamene*.

3. There are also some cases of ø-grade vowel: cf gr. *oies*. Also some analogical forms gr. *kunes*, lat. *carnes*.

4.8.2. The ø-grade, an exception in the Nom.-Voc., is usual in Accusative Plural in -**i**, -**u** stems; as in derivatives with forms -*i-ns*, -*u-ns*.

Apart from this stems, it has generally a full vowel: **akmenes**, m**a**teres.

4.8.3. The stems in -**s** in the Nom.-Acc.-Voc. Plural Inanimate present -*es-a*, -*e-s-a*: they follow the vowel timbre in the whole inflection, but for the Nom.-Acc.-Voc. sg. in -*os*. The rest are in -*ø*.

4.8.4. The general vocalism of the Genitive Plural is ø. But the full grade is sometimes found, too; as in **akmenom**. The most common stems in which the full grade can be found are -**n** and sometimes -**r**; as in m**a**tr**o**m, which could also be m**a**t**e**r**o**m.

To sum up, Nominative Plural is usually opposed to Nominative Singular, while Genitive and Accusative tend to assimilate Singular and Plural. When the last are the same, full vowel is found in the Accusative, and ø in the Genitive.

4.8.5. In the Obliques, where there is a distinction, the form is that of the Nominative Singular Animate or Nom.-Acc.-Voc. Singular Inanimate; and when, in any of them, there is a distinction between full- and ø-grade, they take the last. An example of Animates is

pod, which gives: Nom. p**o**ds, Gen. p**o**d**o**s, Obl. Plural p**o**dbh**i**s. In Inanimates it happens with -**s** stems which have -**os** in Nom.-Acc. and -**es** in the other cases; as in g**e**nesi, gen**e**sibhos. And in Heteroclites that oppose an -**n** in the cases that are not Nom.-Acc.-Voc. with -**r**, -**s** or -ø.

The zero-grade in the predeclensional syllable is very common, wether it has the Genitive vocalism or the full one; as, kwon/ kuns**i**. This ø-grade is also found in -**r** stems, as in patr**o**si/ p**a**tromos, p**a**trobhos. And so in -**i** and -**u** stems, too, in Nom. and Acc. sg., while **e** is otherwise found (in Nom. pl., and sometimes in Gen. sg. and pl.). The Obliques Plural have ø; as, egn**i**bhios/ egn**i**si/ egn**i**bhis; ghost**i**mis,

4.9. Accent in Declension

4.9.1. Just like vocalic grades, the accent is used, usually redundantly, to oppose the *Straight* cases (Nom.-Acc.-Voc.) to the *Obliques*.

NOTE. This is one of the worst reconstructed parts of the Europaio, as each language has developed its own accent system. Only Vedic Sanskrit, Greek and Baltoslavic dialects have more or less retained the old accent, and these have undergone different systematizations, which obscure still more the original situation.

4.9.2. In monosyllabics, the alternating system is clearly observed:

Nom. p**o**ds, Acc. p**o**dm [p**o**d'm], Gen. pod**o**s;

Nom. kw**o**n, Acc. kw**o**nm [kw**o**n'm], Gen. kun**o**s.

4.9.3. In polysyllabics there are some well-known Greek examples:

dhug**a**ter / dhugatr**o**s, (/dhugəter/, daughter)

cn**e** [G'na:] / cnai**o**s [G'nai**o**s] (cf. Eur**o**pe, Europai**o**s)

NOTE. The above forms in Europaio are cna (woman) and Europa. See § [1.6.5](#).

1. Stems in -**i** and -**u** had a probable root accent in Nom.-Acc., and Genitive with accent on declension, as in the rest of examples.

2. Those in -**a** are not clear, therefore the alternating system is maintained.

3. The Vocative could be distinguished with the accent. The general rule (observed in ved., gr. and osl.) is that it is unstressed, but for the beginning of a sentence; in this case, the accent goes in the first syllable, to differentiate it from the Nominative with accent on declension.

NOTE. The accent in the Vocative is also related to that of the intonation of the sentence.

4.9.4. In the Plural system no general accent pattern can be found. Each Europaio-derived language developed its own system to distinguish the homophones in Singular

and Plural. In the Obliques, however, the accent is that of the Genitive, when it is opposed to the Nom.-Acc; as in pat**ro**mos, m<u>a</u>tr**o**bhis, etc.

5. Adjectives

5.1. Inflection of Adjectives

5.1.1. In IE III, the noun could be determined in three different ways: with another noun, as in *stone wall*; with a noun in Genitive, as in *the father's house*; or with an adjective, as in *paternal love*. These are all possible in Europaio, but the adjective corresponds to the third way, i.e., to that kind of words, possibly derived from the Genitive, that are declined to make it agree in case, gender and number with the noun they define.

5.1.2. The adjective is from the older stages like a noun, and even today the Europaio-derived languages have the possibility to make an adjective a noun (as *English*), or a noun an adjective (*stone wall*). Furthermore, some words are nouns and adjectives as well: w**r**s**e**n, *male, man*, can be the subject of a verb (i.e., a noun) and can determine a noun.

Most of the stems are actually indifferent to the opposition noun/adjective, and even most of the suffixes. The inflection is common, too; any difference is normally secondary. This is the reason why we have already studied the adjective declensions; they are the same as the noun's.

5.1.3. However, since the older IE there were nouns different from adjectives, as w**l**qos, p**o**ds,.. and adjectives different from nouns, as rudhr**o**s, s**o**lwos, etc. Nouns could, in turn, be used as adjectives, and adjectives be nominalized.

NOTE. There were already in IE II times some trends of adjective specialization, with the use of suffixes, vocalism, accent and sometimes inflection which changed a noun to an adjective and vice versa.

5.2. The Motion

5.2.1. In accordance with their use, adjectives distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and agree with the nouns they define in gender, number and case. This is usually called the *Motion* of the Adjective.

5.2.2. We saw in § 3.4. that there are some rare cases of Motion in the noun. Sometimes the opposition is made between nouns, and this seems to be the older situation: p*at*e̱r / m*a̱t*er, bhr*a̱t*er / su**e**s*o̱*r.

But an adjective distinguishes between masculine / feminine / neuter or at least between animate / neuter (inanimate). This opposition is of two different kinds:

a. The animate is opposed to the inanimate by declension, vocalism and accent: *-os/-om*, *-is/-i*, *-nts/-nt*, *-e̱s/-es*

b. The masculine is opposed to the feminine, when it happens, by the theme vowel: *-os/-a̱*, *-nts/-ntia,-nti̱*, *-us/-ui̱*

The general system can be so depicted:

	Animates		Inanimates
	Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*
1.	-os	-a̱	-om
2.	-is	-is	-i
3.	-nts	-ntia / -nti̱	-nt
4.	-e̱s	-e̱s	-es
5.	-us	-ui̱	

NOTE. The masculine-feminine opposition is possibly new to Europaio, as IE II had probably only the animate-inanimate opposition. The existence of this kind of adjectives is very important for an easy communication as, for example, the adjectives in -a̱ are only feminine (unlike the nouns, which can also be masculines). An -o stem followed by an -s in Nom. sg. is animate or masculine, never feminine only, while there are still remains of feminine nouns in -os.

5.3. Adjective Specialization

5.3.1. The specialization of adjectives from nouns is not generally absolute, but a question of grade. Here are some examples:

1. Stems in -**nt** are usually adjectives, but sometimes they are assimilated to the verb system and become participles.

2. Words in -**ter** are nouns, and adjectives are derived usually in -*trios* and others.

3. Nouns in -**ti** have adjectives in -*tikos*, which usually has an ethnic meaning.

4. Sometimes the distinction is made with alternating vowels: neuters in -**os** and adjectives in -**e**s, -**e**s.

The accent is normally used to distinguish thematic nouns in -*os* with adjectives in -**os** (mainly -*tos*, -*nos*).

NOTE. There are sometimes secondary processes that displace the accent from an adjective to create a noun: gr. leuk**o**s, white / l**e**ukos, white spot. These correlations noun-adjective were often created, but from some point on the derivation of adjectives was made with suffixes like -***ment***, -***went***, -***jo***, -***to***, -***no***, -***iko***, etc. There are, however, abundant remains of the old identity between noun and adjective in IE III and hence in Europaio. An example of the accent shift is that of ***europai-o***-, which as an adjective is europai**o**s/europai**a**/europai**o**m, while as a noun it is Europ**a**iom.

5.4. Comparison of Adjectives

5.4.1. In Europaio, as in English, there are three degrees of comparison: the Positive, the Comparative and the Superlative.

NOTE. There were degrees neither in IE II nor in the Anatolian dialects. It is, therefore, an innovation of IE III, further developed by each dialect after the great migrations.

5.4.2. The Comparative is generally formed by adding -**ios**, which also has the variants -**ijos** and -**ison**; as in seni**o**ses, kak-i**o**s-es, mew-i**o**s-es, m**e**g-ios-a, etc.

5.4.3. The same suffix is the base for the Superlative -**isto** (from -**is-to**); as in b**e**gtistos, n**e**wistos,...

Other Superlative suffixes, not general, include: oi. and gr. -**tero**, gr. -**tatos**, oi. -**tamo**, ita. and cel. -**amo**, -**samo**, -**tamo**, and extended -**is**-**samo** -**upermo**, lat. *summus* < **sup-mos**; *ádhamas*, lat. *infimus* < **ndh-mos**; lat. *maximus* < **mag-s-mos**; lat. *intimus* (cf. *intus*)< **en-/n-t-mos**. These are all derivatives of the suffix -**mo** (i.e., -**mo** or -[']**mo**). The suffix is also present in other adjectives, but here it has taken the Superlative degree.

5.4.4. It is interesting to point out that both suffixes, -*ios* (and -*tero*) and -*isto*, had probably an original nominal meaning. Thus, the elongations in -*ios* had a meaning; as in Latin, where **junioses** and **senioses** were used for groups of age; or those in -*teros*, like in **matertera**, *aunt on the mother's side*, **ekwateros**, *mule*.

NOTE. In Latin (and Germanic), as already said, the intervocalic -*s*- becomes voiced, and then it is pronounced as the trilled consonant, what is known with the name of rhotacism. Hence lat. *iuniores* and *seniores*.

5.5. Numerals

5.5.1. Classification of Numerals

The Europaio Numerals may be classified as follows:

I. Numeral Adjectives:

1. Cardinal Numbers, answering the question *how many?* as, **oinos**, *one*; **dwo**, *two*, etc.

2. Ordinal Numbers, adjectives derived (in most cases) from the Cardinals, and answering the question *which in order?* as, **prwo**, *first*; **entero**, *second*, etc.

3. Distributive Numerals, answering the question how many at a time? as, **semni**, *one at a time*; **dwini**, *two by two*, etc.

II. Numeral Adverbs, answering the question how often? as, **smis**, *once*; **dwis**, *twice*, etc.

5.5.2. Cardinals and Ordinals

1. These two series are as follows:

Cardinal	Meaning	Ordinal	Meaning
1: **o**inos, **o**in<u>a</u>, **o**inom; sem-	one	p<u>r</u>w**o**	first
2: dwo, dw<u>a</u>, dw**oi**	two	enter**o** / elter**o**, dw**i**to*	second
3: tr**e**jes, tr**i**s(o)res, tr<u>i</u>	three	tri**o**, tr**i**to	third
4: q**e**twor	four	qtur**o**, qetw**r**to	fourth
5: p**e**nqe	five	pnq**o**, p**e**nqto	fifth
6: s(w)eks	six	s**e**ksto	sixth
7: s**e**ptm [s**e**pt'm]	seven	septm**o**	seventh
8: **o**kt<u>o</u>(u)	eight	okt<u>o</u>w**o**	eighth
9: n**e**wn [n**e**w'n]	nine	nown**o**, n**e**unto	ninth
10: d**e**km [d**e**k'm]	ten	dekm**o**, d**e**kmto	tenth

NOTE 1. The words for one are **oino**-, *one, only*; as well as **sem**-, *one, together, united*, which refers to the unity considered as a whole, and appears usually in word compounds, as in **seme**, *at once, at the same time*, **semel**, *one time*; **semle**, *formerly, once*, etc. The root **oi**- (which gives **oino**-) can also have its -rare- compounds, as in **oiuos**, *one alone, unique*.

NOTE 2. The forms for two alternate **dw<u>o</u>/d<u>o</u>**, with **duw**-/**du**-. Alternating forms of four are **qetwor**, **qtwor**, **qetur**, **qetr**, **qetwr**. The forms for six are **seks** (ger., lat., bsl.) or **sweks** (gr., cel.).

NOTE 3. The Ordinals are formed by means of the thematic suffix -**o**, which causes the syllable coming before the ending to have zero grade. This is the older form, which is combined with a newer suffix -**to**. For second, a word meaning *other* is used, although the Latin form **seqondhos** (see § 7.2.8, 3) could also be used for some expressions, as **seqondharios**; and also a logic reconstruction *dwito*. For seven and eight there is no zero grade, due probably to their old roots.

2. The forms from eleven to nineteen are formed (in i.-i., gr., lat., cel., ger. and arm.) by copulative compounds with the unit plus the number ten.

Cardinal	Ordinal
11: **o**indekm	oindekm**o**
12: dw**o**dekm	dwodekm**o**
13: tr**i**dekm	tridekm**o**
14: qetw**r**dekm	qeturdekm**o**
15: penq**e**dekm	penqedekm**o**
16: s**e**ksdekm	seksdekm**o**
17: sept**m**dekm	septmdekm**o**
18: okt**o**dekm	okt**o**dekm**o**
19: new**n**dekm	newndekm**o**

3. The tens are formed with the units with lengthened vowel or sonorant and the numeral ten.

Cardinal	Ordinal
20: (d)wi̱kmt	(d)wi̱kmto
30: tri̱komt	tri̱komto
40: qetwṟkomt	qetwṟkomto
50: penqe̱komt	penqe̱komto
60: s**e**kskomt	sekskomto
70: septm̱komt	septm̱komto
80: okt**o**komt	okt**o**komto
90: new**n**komt	newnkomto
100: kmt**o**m	kmtomto
1000: tus**n**ti̱, gh**e**slo	tusnti̱to

NOTE. The Europaio indeclinable form for thousand is *tusnti̱* [tus'nti:] (as in ger. and bsl.), while *gheslo*- (as in gr., oi., and possibly lat.) is a declinable adjective, as the one which probably forms *milliard*, *million*, *billion*, and so on.

4. The hundreds are made as compounds of two numerals, like the tens, but without lengthened vowel. The thousands are made of the numerals plus the indeclinable **tusnti**:

Cardinal	Ordinal
200: dwok**m**tom	dwokmtomto
300: trik**m**tom	trikmtomto
400: qetwrk**m**tom	qetwrkmtomto
500: penqek**m**tom	penqekmtomto
600: seksk**m**tom	sekskmtomto
700: septmk**m**tom	septmkmtomto
800: okto̱k**m**tom	okto̱kmtomto
900: newnk**m**tom	newnkmtomto
2000: dwo/dwei/dwo̱ tus**n**ti̱	dwo/dwei/dwo̱ tusnti̱to
3000: trejes/trisores/tri̱ tus**n**ti̱	trejes/trisores/tri̱ tusnti̱to

NOTE. In ger. the hundreds are compounds made of a substantive of hundred, but we have chosen this - for us more straightforward - form, given in lat., ita., bsl. and gr.

5. The compound numerals are made with the units in the second place, usually followed by the copulative **qe**:

wi̱kmt **o**inaqe / wi̱kmt **o**ina, *twenty (and) one [f.]*; tri̱komt qe̱tworqe / tri̱komt qe̱twor, *thirty (and) four*; etc.

NOTE. The forms with the unit in the first place are also permitted, but most of the European languages think about numeric compounds with the units at the end. So, **o**inoswi̱kmtqe, *qe̱twortri̱komtqe*, etc. are also possible in this system, always written as one word.

6. In compounds we find:

sm-, *one-;* **dwi**-, *two-;* **tri**-, *three-;* **qtur**-, *four-*

5.5.3. Declension of Cardinals and Ordinals

Of the Cardinals only **oinos**, **dwo**, **trejes**, the *hundreds* above one hundred, and **gheslo** when used as a noun, are declinable.

a. The declension of **oinos**,-**a**,-**om** often has the meaning of *same* or *only*. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, to agree with a plural noun of singular meaning. The plural occurs also in phrases like **oinoi alteroiqe**, *one party and the other* (*the ones and the others*).

b. The declension of **sem**-, *one*, is as follows:

	Sem
NOM.	s<u>o</u>m
ACC.	semm
GEN.	smos
OBL.	smei, s<u>e</u>mi

c. **Dwo**, *two*, and **trejes**, *three*, are thus declined:

	Dwo			*Trejes*		
	M.	**N.**	**F.**	**M.**	**F.**	**N.**
NOM.	dwo	dwoi	dw<u>a</u>	trejes		tr<u>i</u>
ACC.	dwom	dwoi	dw<u>a</u>m	trims		tr<u>i</u>
GEN.	dwosio		dwes<u>a</u>s	trijom		
OBL.	dwosmi		dwesi<u>a</u>ei, dwesi<u>a</u>i	trisu		

NOTE. **ambho**, both, is sometimes declined like **dwo**.

d. **Tusnt<u>i</u>** , *a thousand*, is an indeclinable adjective:

tus**n**t<u>i</u> m**o**d<u>i</u>, *in a thousand ways*.

kom tus**n**t<u>i</u> w<u>i</u>rois, *with a thousand men* (cf. *were*-, eng. *man*, in *werewolf*)

e. The ordinals are adjectives of the Fourth and Third Declensions, and are regularly declined.

6.3.2. Cardinals and Ordinals have the following uses:

a. In numbers below 100, if units precede tens, the number is generally written as one word: dw**o**w**i**kmtqe, *twenty one*; otherwise it is separated: w**i**kmt dw**o** or w**i**kmt dw**o**qe.

b. In numbers above 100 the highest denomination generally stands first, the next second, etc., as in English: tus**n**t**i** septmk**m**tom s**e**kskomt q**e**twor(qe), or tus**n**t**i** septmk**m**tom q**e**twors**e**kskomtqe,*1764*.

NOTE. Observe the following combinations of numerals with substantives:

w**i**kmt **o**inos w**i**rois, or w**i**kmt w**i**rois **o**inosqe, *21 men.*

dwo tus**n**ti penqek**m**tom w**i**rois, or dwo tus**n**ti w**i**rois penqek**m**tomqe, *2500 men*.

c. IE III had no special words for *million*, *billion*, *trillion*, etc., these numbers were expressed by multiplication. In Europaio they are formed with ***gheslo***; as **m**lion, dw**i**lion, tr**i**lion,... For the word *milliard*, *one thousand million*, **m**liardos can also be used.

NOTE. The Latin *mille*, older *m**i**(hi)l**i**, is probably derived from *(s)m**i**hel**i**, and this in turn from Europaio sm-, *one*, and gheslo-, *thousand*. Hence the Europaio (**s**)**m**(**ghes**)**lo**, with derivative **mli**- [m'li].

d. Fractions are expressed, as in English, by cardinals in the numerator and ordinals in the denominator. The feminine gender is used to agree with **parti**- expressed or understood: *two-sevenths*, dw**a** s**e**ptm**a** (sc. p**a**rtes); *three-eighths*, tr**e**jes okt**o**w**a** (sc. p**a**rtes).

One-half is dwim**e**dhj**a** p**a**rtis or dwim**e**dhjom.

NOTE. When the numerator is one, it can be omitted and partis must then be expressed: *one-third*, trit**a** partis; *one-fourth*, qetwrt**a** partis.

5.5.4. Distributives

1. Distributive Numerals are formed with the suffix -**no**.

NOTE. These answer to the interrogative **qoteni**?, *how many of each?* or *how many at a time?*

1: s**e**mni, *one by one*	**20**: w**i̯**kmtni
2: dw**i**ni, *two by two*	**21**: w**i̯**kmtni s**e**mniqe, etc.
3: tr**i**ni, *three by three*	**30**: tr**i̯**komtni
4: qt**u**rni	**40**: qetw**r**komtni
5: pnq**e**ni	**50**: penq**e**komtni
6: s**e**k(s)ni	**60**: s**e**kskomtni
7: sept**m**ni	**70**: sept**m**komtni
8: okt**o**ni	**80**: okt**o**komtni
9: new**n**ni	**90**: new**n**komtni
10: dek**m**ni	**100**: k**m**tomni
11: s**e**mni d**e**kmni	**200**: duk**m**tomni
12: dw**i**ni d**e**kmni	**1.000**: tus**n**t̯ini
13: tr**i**ni d**e**kmni	**2.000**: dw**i**ni tus**n**t̯ini
14: qt**u**rni d**e**kmni, etc.	**10.000**: d**e**kmni tus**n**t̯ini

NOTE. The word for *one by one* can also be **semgolo**, *one, individual, separate*, taken from Latin *singuli*, which uses the IE suffix -**go**-, and which gives words in English such as *single* and *singular*.

2. Distributives are used mainly in the sense of *so many apiece* or *on each side*, and also in multiplications.

5.5.5. Numeral Adverbs

The Numeral Adverbs answer the question *how many times? how often?*, and are usually formed with -**i** and sometimes a lengthening in **s**.

1: sm̥is, once	**20**: wı̥kmti
2: dwis, twice	**21**: wı̥kmti smisqe, etc.
3: tris, thrice	**30**: trı̥komti
4: qeturs, qetrus	**40**: qetwr̥komti
5: penqei	**50**: penqekomti
6: sek(s)i	**60**: sekskomti
7: septmi	**70**: septm̥komti
8: okto̱i	**80**: okto̱komti
9: newni	**90**: newn̥komti
10: dekmi	**100**: km̥tomi
11: oindekmi	**200**: dukm̥tomi
12: dwodekmi	**1.000**: tusn̩tis
13: tridekmi	**2.000**: dwis tusn̩tis
14: qeturdekmi, etc.	**10.000**: dekmi tusn̩tis

5.5.6. Other Numerals

1. The following adjectives are called Multiplicatives, formed usually with -**io**, and also with the derivatives of Latin compounds in -**plek**, *fold*:

semio/**oiniko**, *single*; **dwoio**/**dwipleko**, *double*, *twofold*; **treio**/**tripleko**, *triple, threefold;* **qeturio**/**qeturpleko**, ... **mltipleko**, *manifold*.

2. Other usual numerals (from Latin) are made as follows:

a. Temporals: **dwimos**, **trimos**, *of two or three years' age*; **dwiatnis**, **triatnis**, *lasting two or three years* (from **atnos**, *annus* in lat., *year*); **dwimenstris**, **trimenstris**, *of two or three months*; **dwiatniom**, *a period of two years* (from lat. *biennium*), **mlatniom**, *millenium*.

b. Partitives: **dwinarios**, **trinarios**, *of two or three parts*

c. Other possible derivatives are: **oinion**, *unity, union*; **dwinion**, *the two (of dice)*; **prwimanos**, *of the first legion*; **prwimarios**, *of the first rank*; **dwinos** (distributive), *double*, **dwinarios**, *of the second rank*, etc.

NOTE 1. English *onion* comes from Old French *oignon* (formerly also *oingnon*), from lat. *unionem* (nom. *uniō*), colloquial rustic Roman for a kind of onion; sense connection is the successive layers of an onion, in contrast with garlic or cloves.

NOTE 2. Most of these forms are taken from Latin, as it is this language which have influenced all other European languages for centuries, especially in numerals. These forms are neither the only ones, nor are they preferred to others in this Europaio system; they are mainly indications. To reconstruct every single detail is not the aim of this Grammar.

6. Pronouns

6.1. About the Pronouns

6.1.1. Pronouns are used as Nouns or as Adjectives. They are divided into the following seven classes:

1. Personal Pronouns: as, **eg**, *I*.

2. Reflexive Pronouns: as, **se**, *himself*.

3. Possessive Pronouns: as, **mos**, *my*.

4. Demonstrative Pronouns: as, **so**, *this*; **i**, *that*.

5. Relative Pronouns: as, **qi**, *who*.

6. Interrogative Pronouns: as, **qi?**, *who*?

7. Indefinite Pronouns: as, **aliqi**, *some one*.

6.1.2. Pronouns have a special declension.

6.2. Personal Pronouns

6.2.1. The Personal pronouns of the first person are **eg**, *I*, **we**, *we*; of the second person, **tu**, *thou* or *you*, **ju**, *you*. The personal pronouns of the third person - *he*, *she*, *it*, *they* - are wanting in Europaio, an anaphoric (or even a demonstrative) being used instead.

NOTE. IE III had no personal pronouns for the third person, like most of its early dialects. For that purpose, a demonstrative was used instead. It is this system the one used in Europaio; although no unitary form was chosen in IE III times, the general pattern (at least in the European or Northern dialects) is obvious.

6.2.3. The Personal Pronouns (Non-Reflexive) are declined as follows:

FIRST PERSON

	Singular eg-, me-	Plural we-, ns-
NOM.	eg, *I*	w**e**i, we; *we*
ACC.	me, *me*	nos, nsm**e**, *us*
GEN	m**e**ne, m**e**i, *of me*	**n**so, *of us*
OBL.	m**e**ghi, m**o**i	**n**smei, **n**smi

SECOND PERSON

	Singular tu-, te-	Plural ju-, ws-
NOM.	tu, *thou*	ju, *you*
ACC.	te, *thee*	wos, usm**e**, *you*
GEN	t**e**we, t**e**i, *of thee*	j**u**so, *of you*
OBL.	t**e**bhi, t**o**i	**u**smei, **u**smi

For the Personal Pronouns of the third person singular and plural the demonstrative **i** is used. See §6.5 for more details on its use and inflection.

a. The plural **we** is often used for the singular **eg**; the plural **ju** can also be so used for the singular **tu**. Both situations happen usually in formal contexts.

b. The forms **nso**, **juso**, etc., can be used partitively:

oinosqiqe **n**so, *each one of us*.

j**u**so **o**mniom, *of all of you*

c. The genitives **mei**, **tei**, **nso**, **juso**, are chiefly used objectively:

es mn**a**m<u>o</u>n **n**so, *be mindful of us*

6.3. Reflexive Pronouns

6.3.1. Reflexive Pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand: as, (i) se l**e**ubhet, *he loves himself*.

a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, eg me w**i**d<u>e</u>mi, *I see myself*; tu te pr**e**ti<u>a</u>s, *you praise yourself*; we nos persw**a**d<u>e</u>mos, *we persuade ourselves*.

b. The Reflexive pronoun of the third person has a special form used only in this sense, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined:

ACC.	s(w)e, *himself, herself, itself, themselves*
GEN.	s**e**we, *of himself, herself, itself, themselves*
OBL.	s**e**bhi, s**o**i, *to/in/with/by himself, herself, itself, themselves*

6.4. Possessive Pronouns

6.4.1. The modern Possessive pronouns are:

FIRST PERSON	**mos**, *my*	**nsos**, *our*
SECOND PERSON	**twos**, *thy*, *your*	**usos**, *your*
REFLEXIVE	**swos**, *his*, *her*, *its*	**swos**, *their*

These are really adjectives of the first type (-**os**, -**a**, -**om**), and are so declined.

NOTE 1. **swos** is used only as a reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, (i) swom p**a**term c**l**ioti, *(he) kills his [own] father*; but (i) paterm eso **c**lioti, *(he) kills his [somebody (m.) else's] father*.

NOTE 2. There are older Oblique singular forms which were assimilated to the thematic inflection by some Europaio-derived languages: *moi*, *toi*, *soi* (and its derivatives, with -*s*, -*os*, -*w*-, etc); they are, however, not generalized in our system.

NOTE 3. The modern forms with the adjective suffixes -*teros* and -*eros* are not systematized in this Europaio either, as they are not general to the IE III (but newer), although the forms are common to many European languages: *nseros*/*nsteros*, *useros*/*usteros*, etc.

6.4.3. Other forms are the following:

a. A possessive **qosos**, -**a**, -**om**, *whose*, is formed from the genitive singular of the relative or interrogative pronoun (**qi**/**qo**). It may be either interrogative or relative in force according to its derivation, but is usually the former.

b. The reciprocals *one another* and *each other* can be expressed by ***enter se*** or ***alteros...alterom***:

 ei d**e**ukont alt**e**ri̯ **a**utoms (ei d**e**ukont **o**inos alt**e**ri̯ automs), *they drive each other's cars* (*one... of the other*).

 ei l**e**ubhont **e**nter se (ei l**e**ubhont alt**e**ros alt**e**rom), *they love one another* (*they love among themselves*).

6.5. Anaphoric Pronouns

6.5.1. Anaphora is an instance of an expression referring to another, the weak part of the deixis. In general, an anaphoric is represented by a pro-form or some kind of deictic. They usually don't have adjectival use, and are only used as mere abbreviating substitutes of the noun.

NOTE. The old anaphorics are usually substituted in modern Europaio-derived languages by demonstratives.

They are usually integrated into the pronoun system with gender; only occasionally some of these anaphorics have been integrated into the Personal Pronouns system in the IE derived languages.

6.5.2. Europaio has a general anaphoric pronoun based on a root **i**. It can also be added to old **e** forms, hence **ei**.

NOTE. This root **i** is also the base for the relative **jo**.

6.5.3. The other demonstrative, **so**/**to**, also functions as anaphoric but tends to appear leading the sentence, being its origin probably the relative.

These forms are also used for the second term in comparisons.

NOTE. Modern IE languages have sometimes mixed both forms to create a single system, while others maintain the old differentiation.

6.6. Demonstrative Pronouns

6.6.1. The Demonstrative Pronouns are used to point out or designate a person or thing for special attention, either with nouns, as Adjectives, or alone, as Pronouns. They are: **so**, *this*, and **i**, *that*, and are thus declined:

so / **to** *this*

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	**N.**	**F.**	**M.**	**N.**	**F.**
NOM.	so	tod	s<u>a</u>	toi	t<u>a</u>	s<u>a</u>i
ACC.	tom	tod	t<u>a</u>m	toms	t<u>a</u>	t<u>a</u>ms
GEN.	tosio		tes<u>a</u>s	tesom		tesom
OBL.	tosm<u>o</u>i, tosmi		tesi<u>a</u>ei, tesi<u>a</u>i	toibhis, -mis, -si		tabhis, -mus, -si

i, *that*

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	**N.**	**F.**	**M.**	**N.**	**F.**
NOM.	i	id	i	ei	<u>i</u>	<u>i</u>es
ACC.	im	id	<u>i</u>m	ims	<u>i</u>	<u>i</u>ms
GEN.	eso		esas	esom		esom
OBL.	esmoi, esmi		esiaei, esiai	eibhis, -mis, -si		<u>i</u>bhis, -mis, -si

There are three particles/adverbs with which the meaning of the above pronouns can be further determined:

ko, **ki**, *here*.

en, **eno**, *there*.

awo, *away*, *again*.

6.7. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns

6.7.1. Introduction

1. There are two forms of the Interrogative-Indefinite Pronoun in Europaio, and each one corresponds to one different class in our system, **qi** to the Substantive, and **qo** to the Adjective pronouns.

SUBSTANTIVE	ADJECTIVE
qi bhereti?, *who carries?*	**qo wiros bhereti?**, *what man carries?*
qim wides?, *what/who do you see?*	**qom autom wides?**, *which car do you see?*

NOTE 1. In the origin, *qo* and *qi* were possibly nouns which meant *the unknown*, and its interrogative/indefinite sense depended on the individual sentences. It was not until the IE II that both became pronouns with gender, thus functioning as interrogatives (stressed) or as indefinites (unstressed).

NOTE 2. The form **qi** is probably the original independent form (hence our adjective-substantive choice for the system), for which the adjective form is the o-stem **qo**. Some Europaio-derived dialects have chosen the o-stem only, as the Germanic, while some others have mixed them together in one paradigm, as the Indo-Iranian, Baltoslavic or Italic dialects.

2. The Substantive Interrogative Pronoun **qi?** , *who?, what?*, is declined in the Singular as follows:

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	**F.**	**N.**	**M.**	**F.**	**N.**
NOM.	qi		qid	qei		qi
ACC.	qim			qims		
GEN.	qiso			qisom		
OBL.	qesmei, qesmi			qeibhis, -mis, -si		

3. The Adjective Interrogative Pronoun, **qo?**, *who (of them)? what kind of? what? which?* is declined throughout like the Relative:

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	**F.**	**N.**	**M.**	**F.**	**N.**
NOM.	qo	q<u>a</u>	qod	qoi	q<u>a</u>es	qa
ACC.	qom			qoms		
GEN.	qoso			qosom		
OBL.	qosm<u>oi</u>, qosmi			qoibhis, -mis, -si		

  Qoteros?, *who of two?* is derived from the stem **go** with the suffix -**tero**.

3. The Indefinite Pronouns **qi**/**qo**, *any one*, *any*, are declined like the corresponding Interrogatives.

SUBSTANTIVE	**qi**, *any one*; **qid**, *anything*
ADJECTIVE	**qo**, **q<u>a</u>**, **qod**, *any*

6.7.2. Compounds

1. The pronouns **qi** and **qo** appear in various combinations.

a. The forms can be repeated, as in substantive **qiqi**, **qidqid**, or adjective **qoqo**, **qaqa**, **qodqod**; with an usual meaning *whatever*, *whoever*, *whichever*, etc.

b. In some forms the copulative conjunction **qe** is added to form new pronouns (both as substantives and as adjectives), usually *universals*; as, **qiqe**, *every one*: **qoterqe**, *each of two*, or *both*. **Qiqe** is declined like the interrogative **qi**: substantive, **qiqe**, **qidqe**, adjective, **qoqe**, **qaqe**, **qodqe**

c. Other forms are those -more modern- with prefixes, like **aliqi** (substantive), *some one*, **aliqod** (adjective), *some*.

d. Forms with the numerals **oino**-, **sem**-, *one*, are also frequently pronouns; as in **oinos**, **sems**, (both adjective) *some*, *somebody*, *someone*.

oinosqiqe, *each one*

c. The negatives are usually composed with the simple (**ne**) or modal (**me**) negation particles. As in **neqi**, **neqo**, **meqi**, **n(e)oinos** (cf. eng. *none*, ger. *nein*), **noin(o)los** (lat. *nullus*).

In the compound **oinosqiqe**, *each one, every single one*, both parts are declined (genitive **oiniqisoqe**), and they are sometimes even separated by other words:

ne en **oino** q**i**qi q**o**qe, *not even in a single one*.

h. The relative and interrogative have a possessive adjective **qosos** (-**a**, -**om**), *whose*.

i. Other Latin forms are **qamtos**, *how great*, and **qalis**, *of what sort*, both derivative adjectives from the interrogative. They are either interrogative or relative, corresponding respectively to the demonstratives **tamtos**, **talis**. Indefinite compounds are **qamtoskomqe** and **qaliskomqe**.

6.7.3. Correlatives

1. Many Pronouns, Pronominal Adjectives and Adverbs have corresponding demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite forms. Such parallel forms are called Correlatives. Some of them (taken mainly from Latin and Germanic) are shown in the following table:

DEMONSTRATIVE	RELATIVE	INTERROG.	INDEF. REL.	INDEFINITE
i	**qi**	**qi?**	**qiqi**	**aliqi**
that	*who?, what?*	*who?, what?*	*whoever, whatever*	*some one, something*
tamtos	**qamtos**	**qamtos?**	**qamtoskomqe**	**aliqamtos**
so great	*how (as) great*	*how great?*	*however great*	*some*
talis (swo)	**qalis**	**qalis?**	**qaliskomqe**	**-**
such, so, this way	*as*	*of what sort?*	*of whatever kind*	*-*
toeno	**qien**	**qien?**	**eneno**	**aliqeno**
then ('this there')	*when*	*when?*	*whenever*	*at some time*
totero*	**qitero**	**qitero?**	**qiterqiter**	**aliqiter**
thither	*whither*	*whither?*	*whithersoever*	*(to) somewhere*
i	**qa**	**qa?**	**qaqa**	**aliqa**
that way	*which way*	*which way?*	*whithersoever*	*(to) anywhere*
toendes	**qiendes**	**qiendes?**	**qiendekomqe**	**aliqiende**
thence	*whence*	*whence?*	*whencesoever*	*from somewhere*
toko	**qiko**	**qiko?**	**qikoqiqe**	**aliqiko**
there ('this here')	*where*	*where?*	*wherever*	*somewhere*
tot	**qot**	**qot?**	**qotqot**	**aliqot**
so many	*as*	*how many?*	*however many*	*some, several*
totient	**qotient**	**qotient?**	**qotientkomqe**	**aliqotient**
so often	*as*	*how often?*	*however often*	*at several times*
so	**qo**	**qo**	**qoqo**	**aliqo**
this	*who?, which?*	*who?, which?*	*whoever, whichever*	*some (of them)*

6.8. Relative Pronouns

6.8.1. There are two general pronominal stems used as relative pronouns, one related to the anaphorics and one to the interrogative-indefinites.

6.8.2. Relative Pronoun **jo**-, the *o-stem* derived from **i**-. It is inflected like **so**, **to** and **qo**-

	Singular			Plural		
	M.	**N.**	**F.**	**M.**	**N.**	**F.**
NOM.	jo	jod	ja	joi	ja	sai
ACC.	jom	jod	jam	joms	ja	jams
GEN.	josio		jesas	jesom		jesom
OBL.	josmoi, josmi		jesiaei, jesiai	joibhis, -mis, -si		jabhis, -mis, -si

6.8.3. **qo**/**qi**, *who*, *which*, has its origin in the interrogative pronouns, and are thus declined alike.

6.9. Identity Pronouns

6.9.1. With Identity pronoun we are referring to the English *self* , which is formed differently in each Europaio-derived dialect. The different possibilities are:

1. Those which come from a Pronoun, which are only valid for the third person, formed basically by the anaphoric pronoun lengthened with another particle:

a. Greek **autos**, from **au**- (adverb), *newly*, and the anaphoric **to**.

b. Latin identity **idem** from **id** plus a common Europaio ending, -**em**.

2. Those formed from a Noun, with the sense *equal*, *same*, able to modify demonstrative or personal pronouns, and even having an autonomous pronominal use, with a pronoun declension:

The common Europaio form is derived from the adjective **somos**, *same*, *similar* (in turn derived from the root *sem/som/sm*) in zero-grade, which forms **smo**.

6.10. Oppositive Pronouns

6.10.1. There are two forms to express the opposition of two deictic or anaphoric pronouns.

6.10.2. The first type of opposition is made with the same word, meaning *what is different*. This is the same as the English *either...either* sentences.

6.10.3. Europaio has also terms itself oppositives, apart from the correlation sentences:

a. Derived from the oppositive suffix -**tero**:

semteros, *different*, from which the Greek *heteros*, *different*, from the Stem **sem**-.

quteros, *either (of two)*, as in Latin *uter*, with adverb **qu**- (from interrogative-indefinites **qi**, **qo**). It is also given in Latin *neuter*, from Europaio **nequteros**, *neither one nor the other*.

NOTE. The older interrogative form is **qoteros**?, *who of two?*, which appears also in other languages.

alteros, *another*

NOTE. Another form is that of the deictic **en**-/**eno**- and -**teros**, **enteros** (in ger. and bsl.), which in this system means usually *second*.

b. The Stem **al**-, **ali**- is very common in Europaio, the -**i** being a characteristic lengthening of the pronouns and not an adjectival one. Some usual forms are **alios**, **alibhi**, **aliqi**, etc.

7. Verbs

7.1. Introduction

7.1.1. Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number

1. The inflection of the Verb is called its Conjugation.

2. Through its conjugation the Verb expresses Voice, Mood, Tense, Person and Number.

3. The Voices are two: Active and Middle or Middle-Passive.

4. The Moods can be four: Indicative and Imperative are the oldest ones, while Subjunctive and Optative, which are newer, are not common to all Europaio-derived languages.

5. The General Tenses are three, viz.:

a. The Present

b. The Past or Preterite.

c. The Future.

6. The Aspects are two:

a. For continued, not completed action, the Present.

b. For completed action or the state derived from the action, the Perfect.

NOTE 1. The Aorist, meaning the completed action, is usually reconstructed as a third IE III aspect. We don't know, however, if the Aorist ever existed as a common aspect, or if it was only - more likely- a development of the Southern Dialects. The known fact is that there was a common past formation, with different uses in the different dialects.

NOTE 2. The IE stem usually known as 'Aorist' (Imperfect in this grammar) merged with the Imperfect in Baltoslavic, and further with the Perfect in Germanic, Latin, Italic, Celtic and

Tocharian. This means in practice that the 'Aorist Stem' functioned at least as Imperfect in the Northern Dialects (wether this is an innovation or not isn't relevant), and that the Aorist aspect is (and possibly was) unknown to them. For the correct systematization of the Europaio, we choose to avoid the controversy surrounding the Aorist and assign the traditional IE III 'Aorist Stem' to the Europaio Imperfect Stem, thus following tradition (maintaining that stem), following the Northern Dialects features (using it as an Imperfect) but also following a certainly old Present/Past-Stems distinction (the merging of stems being probably an innovation of the Northern Dialects), and trying to achieve unity by using the Present stem only for the Present, and the Past only for the Imperfect.

7. There are four Verbal Stems we will deal with in this grammar:

I. The Present, which gives the Present, with primary Endings.

II. The Imperfect, always Past, with secondary Endings and sometimes Addition (a mainly southern feature).

III. The Perfect, which can be Present and Past.

IV. The Future.

8. The Persons are three: First, Second, and Third.

9. The Numbers are two: Singular and Plural, and it is the only common class with the name. It is marked very differently, though.

NOTE. The Dual, as in nouns, wether an innovation or an archaism of some IE languages, is not systematized.

7.1.2. Noun and Adjective Forms

1. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Europaio Verb:

a. The Infinitive and Verbal Nouns exist in Europaio, but there are no original prototypes, as they were in older times nouns, which began to be inflected as verbs. The pure stems of the verb (usually thematic, but for thematic roots of the first declension) are used for the infinitives.

NOTE. It is common to most IE languages that a special case-form of the nouns (usually dative or accusative) froze, thus entering the verbal inflection and becoming infinitives. This system cannot be reproduced here, as no general pattern can be found, not even to a little group of Northern proto-languages.

b. The Participles are old adjectives which, as the infinitives, were then included in the verb inflection.

I. The oldest known is that of the Present, in -**nt**.

II. The Perfect, newer, has multiple endings, as -**ues**, -**uos**, -**uet**, -**uot**.

III. The Middle Participles, also new, end in -**meno**, -**m<u>o</u>no**, -**mno**; and also some in -**to**, -**no**, -**lo**, etc.

c. The Gerund and the Absolutive weren't general in IE III, as the infinitives. They indicate possibility or necessity, and were formed differently.

2. The Participles are used as follows:

a. The Present Participle has commonly the same meaning and use as the English participle in *-ing*: as **wok<u>a</u>nt**, *calling*; **legent**, *reading*.

b. The Perfect Participle has two uses:

I. It is sometimes equivalent to the English perfect passive participle: as, **tektos**, *sheltered*; **adkeptos**, *accepted*; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, **adkeptos**, *acceptable*.

II. It is used with the verb to be (**es**) to form the static passive: as (i) **e**sti wok**a**tos, *(he) is called*.

c. The Gerundive is often used as an adjective implying obligation, necessity, or propriety (*ought* or *must*): as, (i) audhi**e**ndhos **e**sti, *(he) must be heard*.

7.1.3. Voices

1. In grammar, Voice is the relationship between the action or state expressed by a verb and its arguments. When the subject is the agent or actor of the verb, the verb is said to be in the Active. When the subject is the patient or target of the action, it is said to be in the Passive.

2. The Active and Middle (or Middle-Passive) Voices in Europaio generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but

a. The Middle voice often has a reflexive meaning, it generally refers to an action whose object is the subject, or an action in which the subject has an interest or a special participation:

he turns (himself)

he puts on his (own) clothes.

b. The Middle-Passive (with Passive endings) is also used in dynamic or eventive passives, as

I became born on July 20.

Someone paints the wall or *the wall is being painted*.

NOTE 1. The dynamic passive usually means that an action is done, while the static or stative passive means that the action was done at a point in time, that it is already made. The last is obtained in Europaio (as normally in Germanic, Latin and Baltoslavic) with a periphrasis, including the verb **es**. Following the above examples:

I was born on July 20.

The wall is painted.

NOTE 2. The Passive Voice is an old Middle Voice, characteristic of Italic and Celtic. The concepts underlying the modern Passives are, though, general to the Northern dialects (although differently expressed), and therefore we have to be able to use it in modern Europaio. For the stative passive the use of the verb *to be* (**es** in Europaio) is general, but dynamic passives have

different forms in each language. Therefore, the middle was the best option keeping thus tradition and unity. See §§ 7.2.2.; 7.2.7,3.

c. Some verbs are active, as, **es**, *be*, **ed**, *eat* or **d<u>o</u>**, *give*

d. Many verbs are middle in form, but active or reflexive in meaning. These are called Deponents: as, **kei**, *lay*; **seq**, *follow*.

7.1.4. Moods

1. While IE II had possibly only Indicative and Imperative, a Subjunctive and an Optative were added in the third stage, both used in the four Tenses. Not all IE III dialects, however, developed the system with a subjunctive and an optative.

2. The Imperative is usually formed with a pure stem, adding sometimes adverbial or pronominal elements.

2. Some common Subjunctive marks are the stem endings -**a**, -**e**, and -**s**, but it is more usually formed with the opposition athematic / thematic or thematic / thematic-long vowel for Indicative/Subjunctive pairs.

NOTE. There were, however, no stems reserved for the Subjunctive, as the systematizations that are known to us happened after the great migrations, and until that time no general subjunctive mark existed. In some dialects the subjunctive was not systematized at all, as in Baltoslavic, but for the sake of unity a system has to be developed.

3. The Optative is different from the Subjunctive in that it has its own characteristic suffix, reserved for it: -**ie** / -**i**; in thematic Tenses it is -**oi**, which is the same suffix added to the theme vowel.

4. The Moods are used as follows:

a. The Indicative Mood is used for most direct assertions and interrogations.

b. The Subjunctive Mood has many idiomatic uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is often translated by the English Indicative; frequently by means of the auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *would*, *should*; sometimes by the (rare) Subjunctive; sometimes by the Infinitive; and often by the Imperative, especially in prohibitions.

c. The Imperative is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but the Subjunctive could be used instead:

d. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or complement of another verb. In special constructions it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood in English.

7.1.5. Tenses of the Finite Verb

1. The Tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English:

a. Of continued action,

I. Present: bh**er**o, *I bear*, *I am bearing*, *I do bear*.

II. Imperfect: bhr**o**m, *I bore*, *I was bearing*, *I did bear*.

III. Future: bhers**o**mi, *I shall bear*.

b. Of completed action or the state derived from the action,

IV. Perfect: bh**o**ra, *I have borne*, *I bore*.

V. Past Perfect: bh**o**rom, *I had borne*.

7.2. Forms of the Verb

7.2.1. The Verbal Stems

1. The Forms of the verb may be referred to four basic Stems, called (1) the Present, (2) the Imperfect, (3) the Perfect and (4) the Future.

NOTE. There are some forms characteristic of each stem, like the suffix -**n** or -**ske**/**o**, which give generally Present stems. But others give different stems depending on their opposition to other forms.

2. There are remains of monothematic verbs, like in the IE II; as in **es**, *to be*. And there are also some traces of recent or even nonexistent mood oppositions. To obtain this opposition there are not only reduplications, lengthenings and alternations, but also vowel changes and accent shifts.

3. There are also some other verbs, not derived from root words, the Denominatives and Deverbatives. The first are derived from nouns; as **stroweio**, *strew, sprinkle*, from **strou**, *structure*; the last are derived from verbs, as, **wedeio,** *inform*, from **weid**, *know, guard, look after*.

NOTE. It is not clear wether these Deverbatives (causatives, desideratives, intensives, iteratives, etc) are actually derived or are old independent verbs added to other verbs, the one regarded as basic.

5. Reduplication is another forming resort; it consists of the repetition of the root, complete or abbreviated; as in **quqlos**, *wheel*.

6. The Stem Vowel has no meaning in itself, but it helps to form different stems, wether thematic or semithematic (those which can be thematic and athematic), opposed to the thematic ones. Thus, It can be used to oppose indicative athematic to subjunctive thematic, present thematic to imperfect athematic, active to middle voice, etc. Sometimes an accent shift helps to create a distinctive meaning.

7. Stems are inflected, as in the declension of nouns, with the help of lengthenings and desinences.

7.2.2. Verb-Endings

1. Every form of the finite verb is made up of two parts:

I. The Stem. This is either the root or a modification or development of it.

II. The Ending or desinence, consisting of:

a. the signs of Mood and Tense

b. the personal ending

Thus in the verb **bher**-**se**-**ti**, *he will carry*, the root is **bher**-, modified into the future verb-stem **bherse/o**-, which by the addition of the personal (primary) ending -**ti** becomes **bherseti**; and this ending consists of the (probably) tense-sign **i** and the personal ending (-**t**) of the third person singular.

2. Verbal endings can thus define the verb Stem, Tense and Mood.

The primary series indicates present and future: -**mi**, -**si**, -**ti**, and plural -**nti** are the most obvious. The secondary indicates Past: -**m**, -**s**, -**t** and -**nt**. The subjunctive and optative are usually marked with the secondary endings, but in the subjunctive the primary desinences appear sometimes. The imperative has ø or special endings.

They can also mark the person: those above mark the first, second and third person singular and third plural. And also, with theme vowels, the voice: -**ti** active prim./ -**toi** middle prim./ -**tor** passive, and so on.

3. The Addition was used in the Southern dialects to mark the Past (or Preterite) Tense. It was placed before the Stem, and consisted generally of a stressed **e**-, although some variants exist, as **e**-. This is a southern dialectal feature (i.e., given mostly in i.-i., gr. and arm.)

NOTE. It is therefore not used in this (mainly northern-based) Europaio.

4. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are organized in five series.

| | | ACTIVE | | MIDDLE - PASSIVE | | |
		Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary	PASSIVE
SING.	1.	-mi	-m	-(m)ai	-ma	-(m)ar
	2.	-si	-s	-soi	-so	-sor
	3.	-ti	-t	-toi	-to	-tor
PLUR.	1.	-mes/os	-me/o	-mesdha	-medha	-mosr/mor
	2.	-the	-te	-dhe	-dhue	-dhuer
	3.	-(e/o)nti	-(e/o)nt	-(e/o)ntoi	-(e/o)nto	-(e/o)ntor

NOTE. The Middle is easily reconstructed for the singular and the third person plural of the secondary endings. For the primary endings there is no consensus in how they looked like. We know 1) that the Southern dialects and the Anatolian had Middle primary endings in -**i**, and second plural forms in *medha* [medhə], *mesdha* [mesdhə]; 2) that the Latin, Italic, Celtic and Tocharian (as well as in Indo-Iranian and Anatolian, coexisting with the other, general endings) had Middle primary endings in -**r**; 3) that therefore both endings coexisted already in the IE II; and 4) that the middle endings were used in the middle voice in Southern dialects, while in the Northern ones they were sometimes used for the Passive. We therefore reserve the forms in -**r** for the (dynamic) passive forms, and those in -**i** for the middle primary forms.

5. The Perfect endings are as follows:

		PERFECT
SING.	1.	-a
	2.	-tha
	3.	-e
PLUR.	1.	-m**e**
	2.	-t**e**
	3.	-(**e**)r

6. The Thematic and Athematic endings of Active, Middle and Passive are:

ACTIVE

		Athematic		Thematic	
		Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary
SING.	1.	-mi	-m	-o̱, -omi	-om
	2.	-si	-s	-esi	-es
	3.	-ti	-t	-eti	-et
PLUR.	1.	-mes	-me	-omos	-omo
	2.	-the	-te	-ethe	-ete
	3.	-(e)nti	-(e)nt	-onti	-ont

MIDDLE

		Athematic		Thematic	
		Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary
SING.	1.	-mai	-ma	-ai, -omai	-oma
	2.	-soi	-so	-esoi	-eso
	3.	-toi	-to	-etoi	-eto
PLUR.	1.	-mesdha	-medha	-omesdha	-omedha
	2.	-dhe	-dhue	-edhe	-edhue
	3.	-(e)ntoi	-(e)nto	-ontoi	-onto

PASSIVE

		Athematic	Thematic
SING.	1.	-mar	-ar, -omar
	2.	-sor	-esor
	3.	-tor	-etor
PLUR.	1.	-mosr/-mor	-omosr/-omor
	2.	-dhuer	-edhuer
	3.	-(e)ntor	-ontor

a. The secondary endings are actually a negative term opposed to the primaries. They can be opposed to the present or future of indicative. They can indicate indifference to Tense and be used even in Present.

NOTE 1. It is generally accepted that the Secondary appeared first, and then an -**i** (or -**r**) was added to them. By way of opposition, the older endings received a Preterite (or Past) value, and became then secondary.

NOTE 2. Forms with secondary endings (or without distinction of time), but used without the Past value, mainly with mood values, are called traditionally Injunctive, although this was never an independent mood, but only a possibility in the use of the endings.

b. The Middle/Active Opposition is not always straightforward, as there are only-active or only-middle verbs, or verbs with both voices in which there are no differences.

7.2.3. The Thematic Vowel

1. Stem vowels are, as with the noun, the vowel endings of the Stem, especially when they are derivatives. They are -**i**, -**u**, -**a**, -**e** (and also -**o** in Roots). But the most extended thematic vowel, that which is called theme or thematic vowel, that which exists since IE II and has overshadowed the (older) athematic stems is **e/o/e̱/o̱**. The thematization of stems, so to speak, has relegated the athematic forms especially to the past and to the perfect; most of the old athematics, even those in -**a**- and -**e**-, are usually extended with thematics -**ie**- or -**io**-.

NOTE. The old thematics were usually remade, but there are some which resisted this trend; as **bhero̱**, *I bear*, **do̱**, *I give*, or **i̱!**, *go!*

The theme vowel has sometimes a meaning, as with -**e**- and -**a**-, which can indicate state. There are also some old specializations of meanings, based on oppositions:

a. Thematic stem against athematic:

- An Indicative athematic is opposed to a thematic Subjunctive. The contrary is rare.

- A thematic Present is opposed to an athematic Imperfect, and vice versa.

- Sometimes, the first person singular and plural and the third person plural are thematic, and the rest are athematics.

- It can also be found in the Middle-Active voice opposition.

b. Thematic stem with variants:

- The first person, thematic in lengthened -**o̱**.

- Thematic **o** in the first person singular and plural and third person plural; **e** in second and third person singular and second plural. There is also an archaic third person plural in **e**, as in **sent**, *they are*.

c. Opposition of thematic stems.

This is obtained with different vowel grades of the root and by the accent position.

2. In the semithematic inflection the athematic forms alternate with thematic ones.

NOTE. The semithematic is for some an innovation of the late IE III which didn't reach some of the dialects; while for others it represents a situation in which the opposition thematic-athematic and the accent shifts of an older system has been forgotten, leaving only some remains.

7.2.4. Verb Creation

1. With Verb Creation we mean not only the way verbs are created from Nouns and Verbs by adding suffixes, but also to the reduplication of the stems.

2. There are generally two kinds of suffixes: Root and Derivative; they are so classified because they are primarily added to the Roots or to Derivatives of them. Almost every suffix we have seen (like -**u**, -**i**, -**n**, -**s**, etc.) is a root suffix.

Derivative suffixes can be:

a. Denominatives, which help to create new verbs from a noun; as -**ie**/-**io**.

b. Deverbatives, those which help to create new verbs from other verbs; -**ei**- (and root vocalism **o**), -**i**-, -**s**-, -**sk**-, -**a**-, -**e**- etc.

3. Reduplication is usual in many modern languages. It usually indicates intensity or repetition in nouns, but in the Europaio verb system it has two different meanings:

a. A Deverbative, opposed to root verbs, generally in the Present, especially in intensives; as, **bherbher** from **bher**, *bear*, or **galgal**, from **gal**, *call*; etc.

Note. It is doubtful wether these are remains of an old system based on the opposition Root/Deverbative, prior to the more complicated developments in suffixes and endings; or, on the contrary, it is the influence of the early noun derivations, in turn older than the verb system itself.

b. Essentially, though, reduplication has lost its old value and marks the different stems, wether Present, Imperfect or Perfect. There are some rules in reduplication:

- In the Present, it can be combined with roots and accent; as, **bhibher**, **gigno**, etc.

- In the Perfect, it appears with root vocalism and special endings; as, **bhebher-a**, **gegno-tha**, etc.

- Full reduplications (of intensives) are opposed to simple (of the Present, Imperfect and Perfect), formed with an initial consonant and an **i** in the Present, or an **e** in the Perfect - and sometimes the imperfect.

- In other cases, reduplicated stems can be opposed, for example, to the Imperfect to form Perfects or vice versa, or disambiguate other elements of the stem or ending.

7.2.5. The Four Stems

1. The Four Stems

1. The Stems of the Present can be:

a. Roots: especially thematic, but also athematic and semithematic.

b. Reduplicated roots: especially athematic.

c. Consonantal stems: all thematic. They can end in **occlusive**, or -**s** and its lengthenings (with or without morphological meaning), like -**ske/o**; as in **prk-sko**, *ask for*, *inquire*, from zero-grade **prek**, *ask*.

d. In vowel: thematic in -**i**-, -**u**-, and athematic in -**a̱**, -**e̱**.

e. In nasal: athematic (especially in -**neu** / -**nu**, -**na̱** / -**na**) and thematic.

2. The Stems of the Imperfect are opposed to the present with certain suffixes:

a. Athematic Roots: opposed to root- and reduplicated-Presents.

b. Thematic Roots: opposed to athematic Presents.

c. Reduplicated Roots: thematic, opposed to athematic reduplicate Presents.

d. With -**s** and its lengthenings: thematic and athematic.

e. With -**t** and -**k** are rare, as lat. *feci*.

f. With -**e̱**, -**a̱**, -**i**, -**u** and its lengthenings.

3. The Stems of the Perfect end usually in -**o** or -**o̱**, reduplication (not general) with root vowel *e* and some especial endings.

4. The Future Stems can be those of the Present, but the Europaio has created its own future, generally with -**s**, wether thematic or athematic.

NOTE. The future is thus also formed with the present in some situations, as in English *I go to the museum*, which can mean *I am going to the museum* or *I will go to the museum*. The Present is, thus, a simple way of creating (especially immediate) future sentences in most IE languages, as it was already in IE III times.

5. To sum up, there are four inflected Stems, but each one has in turn five inflected forms (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive, Optative and Participle), and one not inflected (Infinitive). This inflection is obtained with desinences (included **ø**) which indicate person, time and voice. The person is thus combined with the other two.

NOTE. An example of the four stems are, for **leiq**, *leave*: l**ei**qe/o- (or nasal lin**e**qe/o-) for the Present, liq**e/o** for the Imperfect, (l**e**)loiq for the Perfect, and leiqs**e/o** for the Future.

2. The Present Stem

I. Present Stem Formation Paradigm

1. Roots (Athematic, Semithematic and Thematic) are not very productive. They can have only one Stem, or have multiple Stems opposed to each other.

2. Reduplicated stems tend to be different after the Stems; those in **occlusive** and in -**u**- are extended Roots, used mainly in verbs. Those in -**s** and -**u** are rare, and are mainly used for other Stems.

3. The most productive ones are those with -**i**, -**e** and -**a**, closely related. Those in -**e** and -**a** have mostly Present uses, as those in -**sk**- (Thematic) and in -**n**- (Athematic or Thematic).

II. Present Root Stem

1. A Pure Root Stem, with or without theme vowel, can be used as a Present Stem, opposed to those of the Imperfect, Perfect and possibly Future. The Imperfect Stem can also be Root, and it is distinguished with vowel opposition, thematism/athematism or with secondary phonetic differentiations.

There are Present Root Stems Athematic, Semithematic and Thematic. The Athematics are, in Europaio, only the remains of a probably older system, and so are the Semithematics.

2. In Monosyllabic Roots with consonant or sonant ending, the inflection is usually in the Active voice Singular with root vowel **e** and root accent; in plural, active and middle voices, root vowel **ø** and accent on the ending. The most obvious example is that of **es**, *be*, which has a singular in **es**- and plural in **s**-. There are also some other monosyllabic verbs, as **chen**, *knok*, and **od**, *eat*. Other verbs, as **ei**, *go*, also follow this inflection type. The following table depicts the present paradigm of these verbs:

ACTIVE

		od, *to eat*	**chen**, *to knok*	**ei**, *to go*	**es**, *to be*
SING.	1.	**o**dmi	ch**e**nmi	**ei**mi	**e**smi
	2.	**o**dsi	ch**e**nsi	**ei**si	**e**ssi
	3.	**o**dti	ch**e**nti	**ei**ti	**e**sti
PLUR.	1.	dm**e**	chnm**es**	**i**mes	sm**e**
	2.	dth**e**	chnt**e**	**i**te	st**e**
	3.	d**e**nti	chn**o**nti	**j**enti	s**e**nti

3. There is also another rare verbal type, root athematic with full or long root vowel and fixed root accent (it is usually called Proterodynamic). It appears frequently in the Middle Voice.

4. Monosyllabic Roots with long vowel are inflected in singular with long vowel, and in plural and middle voice with -**a**. They are rare in Present, usually reserved for the

Imperfect. Some examples are **dhe̱** (also with **o̱**), *set*, *put*; **do̱/damen**, as in **do̱m, do̱s, do̱t, daent**.

5. Some Disyllabic Roots, those which preserve an athematic inflection, have the Present in full/ø vowel. Some forms are ø/full vowel, generally reserved for the Imperfect.

6. In the Semithematic Root Stem, the third person plural has often an ending preceded by **e/o**. That happens also in the first person singular, which often has -**o** or -**o**-**m**(**i**); and in the first person plural, which can be -**o**-**mos**, -**o**-**mo**.

NOTE. In an inflection like that of the verb **es**, **esmi/smes**, there can be a semithematic alternative; as in Latin, where there is **s**-**omi**, not **esmi**, **s**-**omes**, not **sme**, and **s**-**onti**, not **s**-**enti**. This inflection, although not limited to Latin, has had little success in the Europaio system. There are, however, many examples of semithematic inflection in non-root stems, what could mean that the semithematic existed in PIE, or, on the contrary, that old athematic forms were remade.

7. The thematic Root Stems have generally an -**e/o** added to the root before the endings. So, if in athematic stems this can be found in the third person plural, and in semithematics in the first person singular and plural, it appears always in thematics.

They have two general forms, with differences in the vowel timbre:

a. With root vowel **e** and root accent; as in bh**e**reti, *he carries* (cf. *bear*)

b. With root vowel **ø** and accent on the theme vowel, as in bhr**e**t, *I bore, I was bearing*

The b. form is preferred in the Imperfect and the a. in the Present, although both could appear in both of them. In fact, when both appear in the Present, the a-type is usually a durative, meaning an action not finished; while the b-type verbs are terminatives or punctuals, meaning the conclusion of the action. This semantic value is not general, though, and more often found in the southern dialects.

NOTE. The more modern inflection is, thus (in a singular/plural scheme), that of full/full vocalism for Present, ø/ø for Imperfect. The (mainly) root athematic - and semithematic - inflection in full/ø is therefore older. The thematic inflection probably overshadowed the athematic and semithematic ones in IE III and there are many examples of coexisting forms, some of this are opposed to the older in meaning. Some scholars postulate the older form as the *correct* one -

again, we don't look for *The original* (PIE or IE II) inflection, but for the real, rich system of the IE III.

III. Present Reduplicated Stem

1. Formally, Present Stems have a Reduplication either Full (sometimes maintained throughout the conjugation) or Simple, which normally consists of the initial consonant of the root followed by -*i*-.

In the Meaning, Reduplication can have an especial value (of iteration or intensity) or simply an opposed value; in every case, thus, it distinguishes the verb in its different forms.

2. The Form of Reduplication:

I. Full Reduplication, normally of the Present Stem, repeats the Root or at least the group *consonant/sonorant+vowel+consonant/sonorant*: **galgal**, *talk*, **bherbher**, *endure*, **mormor**, *whisper*, etc.

Full reduplication is also that which repeats a Root with *vowel+consonant/sonorant*; as, **ulul**, *cry aloud*.

II. Simple Reduplication is made:

a. With *consonant + i*. In athematic verbs; as, **si**-**sde** (*sit down*, *settle*, from zero-grade root **sed**, *sit*); in thematic verbs; as **gi**-**gno**, **bhi**-**bher**, etc.

NOTE. Reduplication is, as already stated, optional in IE III: **gignosko/gnosko**, **did<u>o</u>/d<u>o</u>**, **bibo/poi**, etc.

There are some intensives half full, half simple reduplicated stems, as in **dei**-**dik**, *teach*. There are other forms with -*w, -u*, as in **leu**-**luk**, *shine*. There are also some perfects.

b. With *consonant + e/<u>e</u>*. ai. **dedh<u>e</u>**, **ded<u>o</u>**.

Simple Reduplication in *e* is given mainly in the Perfect, while that in *i* is characteristic of the Present. Reduplication in *e* is also often found in intensives in Southern Dialects.

NOTE. As a matter of fact, reduplication doesn't affect the vowel in inflection: b**i**bherti / bibhrm**e**s, **i**st<u>a</u>mi / istam**e**s.

3. The Meaning of Reduplicated stems: It is mainly a southern feature (Indo-Iranian and Greek) the systematic opposition *Basic Verb / Deverbative Reduplicated* to obtain an Iterative-Intensive. There is another meaning, that of the Desideratives, which are reduplicated with -**i**- + Root + -**se/o**, e.g. **meno** /**mimnso**, *think*, the Reduplicates here are called Terminatives.

NOTE. Although the Iterative-Intensives, Desideratives and sometimes Terminatives were not generally extended to the Northern Dialects, we consider it an old resource of the IE II, older than that of the opposition Present-Perfect. We therefore include this dialectal feature in the global system as a possibility with already known vocabulary, although not as a general way to create new words from Basic Verbs.

IV. Present Consonant Stem

1. Europaio Roots can be lengthened with an occlusive to give a verb stem, general or Present-only. Present stems are made with the dentals, -**t**, -**d**, -**dh**; and gutturals, -**k**, -**g**, -**gh**; but not with labials or labiovelars. They are all thematic, and the lengthenings are added to the Root.

NOTE. The lengthening was probably optional in an earlier stage of the language.

2. Here are some examples:

- **t** : **plekto**, *weave*; **kanto**, *sing*; **klustio**, *hear*, *listen*, etc.

- **d** : **saldo**, *to salt*; **ekskeld**, *be eminent*, **pelde**, *beat*, etc.

- **dh** : **ghrdh**, *gird*; **gawidhe̲**, *rejoice*; **woldh**, *dominate*, etc.

- **k** : **pedka̲**, *stumble*; **pleuko**, *fly*; **gelkio**, freeze, etc.

- **g** : **tme̲go** from **temna**, *cut*, etc.

- **gh** : **sme̲gho** with ***sme̲n***, **ne̲gho** with ***ne***, **stenagho** with ***steno***, etc.

3. Imperfect Stems in -**s** and its derivatives, -**sk**- and -**st**-, are almost all thematic.

4. Those in -**s** are the only ones that have an especial general meaning, as they often mark the Imperfect and the Future (and sometimes the Subjunctive); they are not Thematic when they function as Imperfects.

The -**s** lengthening does not present a general opposition *Basic Verb / Deverbative Stem* in -**s**.

NOTE. There are, however, some different meanings of the verbal stems in -**s** opposed to those without it; as insistence or iteration; as, **weidso**, *visit*, with **wide**, *see*. There are also some causatives and especially desideratives (which could even form the future stem in the southern dialects). There is, then, no general meaning of the ending -**s**, only opposed pairs of meanings.

5. The Suffix -**ske**/-**sko** is added to Roots with ø-grade, especially in monosyllabics and disyllabics; as in **prk**-**sko**, *ask*, **cm**-**ske**, *go*, **gno**-**sko**, *know*, **di**-**dk**-**ske**, *teach*. It can also be added to Reduplicated stems and to lengthened Roots, especially in -**i**, -**u**, -**e**, -**a**. They don't usually have a special Meaning.

NOTE. Sometimes these Deverbatives can be inchoatives (especially in Latin), causatives or iteratives, and even *determinatives* or *terminatives*.

3. The suffix -**ste**/-**sto** has usually an expressive sense, meaning sounds most of the times; as, **breste**, tremble; **bhrsto**, break;

4. The Stems in -**n** are said to have a *nasal suffix* or *infix*. They can be athematic or thematic, and the most common forms are -**n**, -**neu**/-**nu**, -**na**: as in **str**-**neu** / **ster**-**nu**, *spread*; **li**-**n**-**eq** / **li**-**n**-**q**, *leave*; **ml**-**na** / **ml**-**na**, *tame*; **dhreng**, *drink*; **pung**, *prik*; **planta**, *plant*; etc. These verbs can be found also without the nasal, as in **streu**, **leiq**, **dma**/**dma**, **dhreg**, **peug**, **plat**.

There are other, less general forms in -**ne**/-**no**, -[']**ne**/-[']**no**; and possibly derived from the conjugations of -**neu** and -**nei**, the forms -**nue**/-**nuo**, -**nie**/-**nio**.

NOTE. These forms are very recent to the IE III.

Some examples of the above are **sperno**, **plno**. In Greek it is frequent the nasal suffix -**an**. -**nue**, -**nuo** and -**nie**, -**nio** appear often, too; as in gr. *phthínuo*, got. *winnan*; gr. *iaíno*, *phaínomai*, and verbs in oi. in -*niati*.

V. Present Vowel Stem

1. There are roots and derivatives (deverbatives and denominatives) which form the thematic verb stems with -**ie**/-**io**, and the semithematics in -**i**. There can be an -**a**-, -**e**- or -**e**- preceding the suffix, sometimes as part of the Root or Derivative, sometimes as part of the suffix. We have then **ie**, -**io**, -**aie**, -**aio**, -**eie**, -**eio**, and even -**aie**, -**aio**; in these cases, the Root grade is usually ∅; as, **bhudioti**, *he is waked up*; but the full grade is also possible, as in **spekio**, *look*.

NOTE 1. The meanings in the opposition *Basic Verb / Deverbatives*, general in the Northern Dialects, are usually that of state or status; and also sometimes causatives and iteratives. There are also, as with those in consonant, examples of derivatives with -**ie**/-**io** without meaning, purely derivatives.

NOTE 2. The thematic inflection of these verbs is regular, and usually accompanied by the semithematic in the Northern Dialects, but not in the Southern ones, which do not normally combine them with -**i**, -**e**, or -**a**.

2. The thematic root verbs in -**ie**/-**io** are old, but have coexisted with the semithematics -**ie**/-**io**/-**i**/-**i**. These verbs are sometimes deverbatives (iteratives or causatives) or denominatives. The deverbative inflection could have -**ie**/-**io**, or -**eie**/**eio**, or the semithematic variant.

NOTE. The state or status value of these verbs is a feature of the Baltoslavic, mainly, with verbs in -**e** and -**a**, in which the inflection is sometimes combined with -**ie**/-**io**.

3. The stems in -**u** are rarely found in the Present, but are often found in the Imperfect and Perfect stems.

NOTE. The stems in -**u** have, thus, an opposed behaviour to that of the -**i**, which is usually found in Present and rarely in Imperfect and Perfect.

4. In Present stems, -**u** is found in roots or as a suffix, wether thematic or athematic (not semithematic), giving a stem that can also be the general stem of the verb: it is therefore a part of the root or a stable lengthening of it.

NOTE. Exceptions of this are **gheu**-/**gho**-, **pleu**-/**plo**-, etc.

5. Roots or stems with -**e**, with an athematic inflection and also mixed with -**i**. Sometimes the -**e** is part of the Root, sometimes it is a suffix added or substituting the -**e** of the Stem. They can be verbs without special meaning or verbs of state; as, **albhe**, *be white*, with stative value. There are also iterative-causatives; the denominatives are clearly derived from adjectives in -**e**/**o**.

NOTE. These are probably related with those in -**i** (i.e., in -**eie**/-**eio**, as in **albheie**, *be white*; **moneio**, *remind, advise*; **seneio**, *be old*).

Athematic examples are **lubhe**, *be dear, pleasing*; **rudhe**, *to blush, redden*; **gale**, *to call* (not denominative). In some dialects they correspond to a thematic inflection in -**eo**.; as **rudheo**, *to blush, redden* (cel.) **kapeo**, *have* (ger., from **kap**, *grasp*).

6. Roots or stems with -**a**, athematic and mixed with -**i**. They are spread throughout the Verb system; as, **bha** (root), *draw*; **duka**, *drag, draw*; **ghedisa**, *guess*, etc. Also irregulars as lat. *amo*, possibly from -**aio**, but probably from -**a** without ending (like *amas, amat,...*).

About their Meaning, they are (specially in Latin) statives or duratives, and sometimes factitives opposed to statives in -**e** (*clarare/clarere*, *albare/albere*, *nigrare/nigrere*, *liquare/liquere*). But there are also many verbs without special value.

They form subjunctives, as well as preterites, and imperfectives. They are common Imperfects. To sum up, the tendency to make iteratives, statives and denominatives with -**a** is not so strong as with -**e**.

NOTE. There is, as with -**e**, a relation with -**i**, and there are also verbs in -**aie**/-**aio**.

3. The Imperfect Stems

I. Imperfect Stem Formation Paradigm

1. The Imperfect is, to put it simple, a Past opposed to the Present.

2. There are some possibilities for the opposition of Present and Imperfect stems:

a. The Present stem can be a reduplicated root and the Imperfect a basic root; as, **sista̱-mi**,/ **sta̱-m**.

b. The Present is a thematic root, while the Imperfect is athematic in -**s**; as, **leiq-o̱**, **le̠iq-s-m**.

c. Both are thematic roots, but with distinct vowel degrees; as, **leq-o̱**, **liq-om**.

NOTE. Every stem can usually be Present or Imperfect, provided that they are opposed to each other. And there can be more than one Present and Imperfect from the same Root.

3. There is a logical trend to specialize the roles, so that those Stems which are rare in Present are usual in Imperfects. For example, the thematic roots, as well as those in -**s**-. There is, in fact, only one real confusion problem when distinguishing stems, and that is when they end in -**e̱** or -**a̱**, as they are given in Presents and Imperfects alike. It is by way of oppositions and formal specializations that they can be distinguished.

II. Imperfect Root Stem

1. The athematic Imperfect Root stems, opposed to athematic Reduplicated Presents, are not the only possible athematic roots. There is no root ending in consonant, though.

2. In monosyllabic Roots we have an opposition of:

a. A Present in -**neu**; as, **klneu** / **kleu**, *to hear*; **qrneu** / **qer**, *to make, do*; etc.

b. A Reduplicated Present or with -**ske**/-**sko** or -**io**: **caske** / **ca̱**, *go*; **bhesko̱** / **bhes**, *breathe*; etc.

c. A Thematic Present: **ghewo** / **ghew**, *pour*; **bhawa** / **bhut**, *proclaim*, *ban*.

3. Disyllabic roots present similar behaviours: **gigno̱sko̱** / **gno̱** , **bhalio** / **bhle̱** , etc.

The theme vowel system is the usual: Present Singular Active with full vowel, and ø in the rest.

NOTE. Disyllabic Roots tended to generalize a unique form (as **gno̱**-, **bhle**-, etc).

4. The Thematic Imperfect Roots are also those of the Present, *bhere/o* and *bhre/o*, opposed to any Present.

a. It is the *bhre/o* form that which is found mostly in the Imperfect;

b. The *bhere/o* form is rarely found, but when it is found the Present has to be logically different.

III. Imperfect Reduplicated Stem

1. The Imperfect Reduplicated stems, thematic and athematic, are found mainly in the southern dialects, but also sporadically in the Northern (lat. *tetuli*, *teitigi* could be one example).

NOTE. In this case, the southern dialects have also, as in the Present, a specialized vowel in reduplication, but in this case it is unique to these languages, while the rest follow other schemes.

2. The Thematic Reduplicates have a general vowel **e** for Imperfects (opposed to the **i** of the Present), and the Root has a zero-grade, and sometimes accent before the ending; as, **chechene** from **chen**, *to hurt.*

In roots which begin with vowel, reduplication is of the type *vowel+consonant*.

NOTE. These resources seem not to have left the Southern Dialects, although the difference between the -**i** of Present and the -**e** of the Imperfect is generalized in IE III.

IV. Imperfect Consonant Stem

1. As we have seen, thematic stems in -**s**- are often Desideratives in the Present (and they sometimes function as immediate Futures); with secondary endings, they can form Imperfects.

NOTE. Forms in -**so** are often found in Slavic; as, *vedu / veso*, r*eco / reso*, etc.

The -**s**- is, so, added to a Root ending:

a. In consonant with long vowel, in contrast with the Present with full vowel.

b. In -**a**, -**e**, -**o** with the same stem as the Present or the noun from which the verb is derived. There is also a second Imperfect mark: an -**e** before the -**s**-, which is probably an older Imperfect, to which another Imperfect mark is added; as in **alko** / **alkeso**, *grow*; **mnio** / **mnso**, *be mad*; etc.; -**e** and -**a** must have ø root grade in the Imperfect stem.

NOTE. The thematic Imperfects are mostly used as Presents in the Southern Dialects, in Slavic, and, probably, in Latin.

2. The most spread athematic stems are in -**s**-. They were formerly added to the Root, wether monosyllabic or disyllabic, in consonant or vowel, opposed thus to the Present. Roots in -**i**, -**u**, -**a**, -**e**, -**o**, monosyllabic and disyllabic, have a fixed vowel (as most of the athematic Root Imperfects); as, the third person pl. **plaent** from **pipel**, *full* (ø / Full Grade), 3.pl. **pewisent** from **pona**, *purifie* (Full Grade / o).

The most frequent are monosyllabic roots ending in consonant or sonant. They have usually in the Southern Dialects lengthened vowel in the active voice and ø in the rest; as, **liq**-, *leave*, from which **leiq**-**s**-**m**; so from **qer**-, *make*, **qerso**; from **bher**-, *carry*, **bherso**, etc.

To sum up, the -**s**- has one main function in Europaio: to create stems different from that of the Present. It can be added to different stems, especially those lengthened with -**e**, -**a**.

NOTE. The Imperfect in -**s**- is then a modern feature of IE III, given in all its dialects (with the form of Aorists in the Southern ones), but for Germanic and Baltic; the derivatives in -**i**, -**e̱**, -**a̱** are more recent, though, and therefore not extended to all.

3. There are some other frequent, dialectal forms:

a. -**is** (lat., ai.), -**es** (gr.); as, **genist** from **gen**-, *beget*; **wersis** from **wers**-, *rain*; **amawis**, etc.

b. An addition in -**sa** in lat., toc., arm.

c. In -**se̱**, -**sie**/-**sio,** etc.

4. The stems in -**t** function usually as Preterites, especially in lat., ita., cel., and ger., opposed to the Present. In our system, they appear usually in the fourth declension.

NOTE. While the use of -**t** for persons is old, the use to form Stems is more recent, and mainly developed by the European dialects.

5. Imperfects or Pasts in -**k** are rare, but they can appear in every form of the verb.

V. Imperfect Vowel Stem

1. Imperfects in -**e**, -**a** appear usually in pure stems with athematic inflection or adding an -**u** in every form, which is normally an Past ending at least for some persons. Other endings can also be added to this stems.

NOTE. -**u** is rare in the Present and frequent in the Imperfect, and the contrary has to be said of -**i**.

Opposed to the Present, the stem in -**e** or -**a** is often a Past stem.

2. The basics of the Imperfect vowel stems are thus the opposition to Presents:

a. Present -**i** (thematic or semithematic), Imperfect -**e**; as, **mnio** / **mne**, *be mad*.

b. Present -**i**, Imperfect -**a**; as, **alkio** / **alka**, *be hungry*.

c. Present -**e**/-**o**, Imperfect -**e**; as, **lege** / **lege**, *collect, speak*.

d. Present -**e**/-**o**, Imperfect -**a**; as, **gnte** / **gntau**, *know*.

3. The use of the forms in -**u** is usually related to the Past (and sometimes the Perfect), as a suffix or ending. It can be -**u**, -**au**, -**eu**, -**eue**, -**aua**, -**eua**, -**aue**.

4. The -**i**/-**i** is scarcely used for Past stems; as, **audhio** / **audhiui**, hear. The stem is sometimes lengthened in -**e**/-**i**, often to help avoid the loss of consonants in the Imperfect in -**s**.

4. The Perfect Stem

The Perfect is opposed to the Present, and has -**o** or lengthened root vowel; it is often reduplicated, generally with vowel -**e**; and it has special endings, sg. -**a**, -**tha**, -**e**; third pl. -**r**. Not all of these conditions have to be met by every Perfect stem, but those which do not comply with them (but for reduplication) are not regular.

NOTE. The original Perfect does not have a Tense or Voice value, it is only when opposed to the Pluperfect (Past Perfect) that it is Present. It is probably an older stative, which eventually became the state derived from the action.

I. The Root vowel is usually -**o**/-**o̱**; as, **gigno** /**geg̱o̱na** (**gegn**-**me**), *know*; **bhindho** / **bhondh** (**bhndh**-**me**), *bind*; **bheudho** / **bhoudh** (**bhdh**-**me**), *offer* (cf. *bid*); **kano** / **kekona**, *sing*; etc.

There are also (dialectal) Perfects with long Root vowel; as, lat. **sedeo** / **se̱de**, *sit*; **edo** / **e̱de**, *eat*; **cemio** / **ce̱me**, *come*; **ago** / **a̱ge**, *act*; ger. **sleb** / **sesle̱b**, *sleep*; etc.

NOTE. After the laryngeals' theory, for some scholars, these lengthened vowels come from an older (wether IE II or PIE) vowel plus *-**h**.

II. The root vowel in the Perfect reduplication is generally **e**, but not always; Perfect reduplications in -**i** and -**u** are also possible.

NOTE. The Southern Dialects made reduplication obligatory, but the Northern didn't, what obviously means that it is not systematic in this Europaio. Verbs which are not reduplicated in the Perfect are not irregulars, but they have always reduplication when the Present is reduplicated, as in **bhibher** / **bhebher**.

III. The Endings of the Perfect are -**a**, -**tha**, -**e**, for the singular, and -m**e**, -t**e**, -(**e̱**)**r** for the plural.

5. Middle Perfect and Past Perfect

a. It is a common resource to oppose a new Perfect to the old one, generally with zero-grade of the Perfect stem and middle endings, so that the first becomes only Active and the second Middle. This is a general resource in Southern Dialects, but not in the European ones.

NOTE. We use it in our system, though, to distinguish the different Perfect forms more easily.

b. The Past Perfect or Pluperfect was also created to oppose it to the old Perfect, so that it became Present Perfect. It is formed with secondary endings added to the Perfect Stem.

6. The Future Stems

1. The most frequent Future stems are built from an -**s**- ending, although not all dialects show the same behaviour. They can be reduplicated or not, they can have -**se**/-**so** thematic, -**s** athematic, -**sie**/-**sio**, -**seie**/-**seio**.

NOTE. There are dialectal additions to the beginning of those endings, as -**is** (i.-i., lat.) or -**es** (gr., o.-u.).

The root vowel is mostly **e**.

NOTE 1. They come probably from the desiderative-causative Present stem in -**s** and its variants. All dialects tend to differentiate the Present from the Future.

NOTE 2. The Future stem is common to all Europaio-derived languages but for ger. and sla. In fact, i.-i., gr. and bal. have almost the same formations. This means that, while the different Future forms has the same original pattern, some dialects didn't use this innovation of the IE III. We keep it, though, as a common Future formation is obviously needed in a modern system.

2. In Europaio, the Future is made by adding thematic -**se**, -**so**, -**sie**, -**sio** (or even -**seie**, -**seio**) when the Imperfect stem is thematic, and -**s** if it is athematic.

3. The Conditional is made, as in most of the European languages, with the *past form of the Future*, and this is made in Europaio by adding secondary endings to the Future Stem.

NOTE. This is an innovation added to modern Europaio, as the Europaio-derived dialects don't show an old conditional form. It is a modern feature, whose forms are shared by many modern European languages, like English; as, *I will see*, opposed to the conditional *I would see* (formed with the past form of the future-forming auxiliary *will*). It will be used especially for unreal conditionals.

7. The Compound Past

A special Past or Preterite is that of the European dialects (i.e., the Northern and Greek), sometimes called *Future Past*, which is formed by two elements: a verbal stem followed by a vowel (-<u>e</u>, -<u>a</u>, -<u>i</u>, -<u>o</u>) and an auxiliary verb, with the meanings *to be* (**es**), *to become* (**bheu**) or *to make* (**dh<u>e</u>**, **d<u>o</u>**).

NOTE. Although each language has its own formations, they have a common origin, probably unstable at first.

The Compound Past is comprised of three parts: the forms of the first and second elements and the sense of the compounds.

1. The First Element can be

a. A Pure Root

b. A Pure Stem, with the same lengthening as the rest of the verb.

c. A Pure Stem lengthened but alternating with the Present: normally Present ø / Past with full vowel.

d. A Pure lengthened Stem, opposed to a thematic Present (and Imperfect).

NOTE. Originally, then, the Compound Pasts are derived from a root or a stem with vowel ending; wether that of the verb or that of the Past. They are, then, Pasts similar to the others, but, instead of receiving endings, they receive a second stem.

2. The second element is an auxiliary verb; **dh<u>e</u>** in gr. and ger., **bheu** in lat. and cel. and **d<u>o</u>**- in bsl.

3. They are, as said, Pasts as the others we have seen, and they could function differently according to the needs of the languages.

NOTE. These forms have not been systematized, as there is no unity, and no especial needs have been still found for them to be revived. We present this possibility, though, for any possible future use, to show that this formations (although not unitary) have the same pattern shared by the Northern Dialects.

7.2.6. Mood Stems

1. Indicative

The Indicative is the basic stem, that which we have presented when not saying otherwise. The Subjunctive is opposed to the Indicative this way:

a. Indicative Athematic / Subjunctive Thematic: **es**, **esei/esoi**.

b. Indicative Thematic / Subjunctive with long vowel: **bhere/o-**, **bher<u>e</u>/<u>o</u>-**

2. Imperative

The Imperative had probably in IE II the same basic stem of the Indicative, but without ending and in expressive-impressive function, of exclamation or order; they are the equivalent to the vocative in nouns. Some IE III dialects derived from this older scheme another, more complex Imperative system, with person, tense and even voice.

NOTE. In the third stage of the language, only the person distinctions were generalized, and we have included only these known forms.

It is also old, beside the use of the pure stem, the use of the Injunctive for the Imperative in the second person plural, as in **bhere** / **bherete**, **lege** / **legete**. The Injunctive is defined as a form with secondary endings without augment. It indicated therefore neither the Present nor the Past, thus easily indicating intention. It is this form which was generally used as the Imperative.

The pure stem for the second person singular Imperative is thus general; for the second person plural, it is the injunctive; and the third person sg. and pl. have special endings, those in -**tod**.

The main forms of the Imperative in our system are made with the Present stem and secondary endings, and are thus generally:

a. The old, athematic Imperatives; as in **ei**, *go*; **es**, *be*; etc.

		Athematic
SING.	2.	-ø
	3.	-tod
PLUR.	2.	-te
	3.	-entod

NOTE 1. In old root athematic verbs, the plural forms have ø vowel and the accent goes on the ending.

NOTE 2. Some scholars reconstruct, with the ø form, a dialectal ending -**dhi** for the second person singular athematic. It should also be noted that the forms in -**tod** were used in some dialects as Future Imperatives.

b. Thematic Imperatives; as **bhere!**, *carry!* **age!**, *do!, act!*; etc.

		Thematic
SING.	2.	-e
	3.	-etod
PLUR.	2.	-ete
	3.	-ontod

3. Subjunctive

The Subjunctive is normally athematic, usually in -**a**, -**e** and sometimes -**o**, always opposed to the Indicatives. There are also Subjunctives in -**s**, probably newer than those in -**e**, -**a**.

NOTE. It is a known archaism (for a few scholars an innovation) of the Baltoslavic that it doesn't have a subjunctive which would be then an innovation of IE III, not given in IE II.

There are, thus, two possibilities when forming the Subjunctive:

a. Indicative thematic / Subjunctive with lengthened vowel; as, **bhere**- / **bherē**-, **deike**- / **deikē**-, etc.

b. Indicative athematic / Subjunctive thematic.

4. Optative

The Optative mood is a volitive mood that signals wishing or hoping, as in English *I wish I might*, or *I wish you could*, etc.

The athematic Optative has an alternating suffix -**ie̱** / -**i̱** (zero-grade), while the Thematic has one regular -**oi**. Secondary endings are used to form the Optative.

NOTE. The thematic suffix is normally considered to be the athematic one added to the thematic vowel -**o**-.

7.2.7. The Voice

1. Active Voice

The characteristic Primary endings are -**mi**, -**si**, -**ti**, -(**e/o**)**nti**, while the secondary don't have the final -**i**.

NOTE. The innovation of the primary forms is a deictic -**i**, which probably indicated originally *here and now*.

These Desinences are used for every verb, wether athematic or thematic, as in **ei** or **es**. Where there are usually differences is in the first person singular, which has usually -**o** in thematics.

NOTE. These are probably remains of an older situation, in which an ending was (probably) not necessary to mark the first person singular (that of the speaker) and therefore - even though a desinence in -**m** became general - some irregular, older cases prevailed, in our system for the thematics only.

		ACTIVE	
		Primary	Secondary
SING.	1.	-mi	-m
	2.	-si	-s
	3.	-ti	-t
PLUR.	1.	-mes/os	-me/o
	2.	-the	-te
	3.	-(e/o)nti	-(e/o)nt

NOTE. The forms of the first person plural are not easily reconstructed (as every Europaio-derived dialect has developed its own endings) but they are all formed with -**me**-/-**mo**- + ø/Consonant (-**s**, -**n** or -**r**), and almost all forms are systematized in modern Europaio, assigning a function to each form.

This table can be further subdivided in the thematic and athematic paradigms:

		Athematic		Thematic	
		Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary
SING.	1.	-mi	-m	-o, -omi	-om
	2.	-si	-s	-esi	-es
	3.	-ti	-t	-eti	-et
PLUR.	1.	-mes	-me	-omos	-omo
	2.	-the	-te	-ethe	-ete
	3.	-(e)nti	-(e)nt	-onti	-ont

2. Middle Voice

The endings are generally those of the Active voice with a characteristic Middle voice -**o** (sometimes -**e**), in which the basic form is relegated to the secondary endings, while it becomes the Primary by adding an -**i**.

		MIDDLE	
		Primary	Secondary
SING.	1.	-(m)ai	-ma
	2.	-soi	-so
	3.	-toi	-to
PLUR.	1.	-mesdha	-medha
	2.	-dhe	-dhue
	3.	-(e/o)ntoi	-(e/o)nto

In the Moods, the endings are usually the same, but there are some exceptions. As in Indicative -**a**- / Subjunctive -**a̲**-, where sometimes the first singular Subjunctive is -**ai**. Generally, though, the adding of the Middle voice secondary endings is enough.

3. Passive Voice

The Passive is not a common old feature of the IE III dialects; it is nevertheless necessary to develop a common modern European grammatical feature based on old endings, like the Conditional.

The -**r** ending was usual in the Middle Voice, and it either had a special impersonal value or marked the Middle voice. There are thus two features to distinguish their uses: the form and the meaning.

a. The -**r** *after the stem* has usually in Europaio an impersonal value, and can be lengthened: -**ro**, -**roi**, -**renti**, -**ronti**, -**rontoi**, etc. They are used in the 3. person singular and plural, and the -**nt**- is added when needed to distinguish the plural; and when the Middle was needed, an -**o** was added. The primary -**i** was also added with this aim.

b. The -**r** *after the ending* was usual in forms related to the Middle Voice in Latin, Italic, Celtic, Tocharian (and even Germanic, Indo-Iranian and Anatolian). Especially in some European dialects, they replaced the primary Middle endings, and acquired a Middle-Passive value. There was, however, no opposition primary/secondary. In our Europaio system, we have chosen to assign this especially European (Northern) value to these endings, leaving the general forms in -**i** for the middle.

Note. The older meaning traceable (possibly that of IE II) of these endings are the same, though: impersonal subject or, at least, subject separated from the action.

		PASSIVE
SING.	1.	-(m)ar
	2.	-sor
	3.	-tor
PLUR.	1.	-mosr/mor
	2.	-dhuer
	3.	-(e/o)ntor

This scheme can be further subdivided in the thematic and athematic paradigms:

		Athematic	Thematic
SING.	1.	-mar	-ar, -omar
	2.	-sor	-esor
	3.	-tor	-etor
PLUR.	1.	-mosr/-mor	-omosr/-omor
	2.	-dhuer	-edhuer
	3.	-(e)ntor	-ontor

The passives formed with these endings are only the dynamic ones, though, not the statives, which are formed with the verb **es**, *to be*. See § 7.1.3. for more information on dynamic passives.

7.2.8. Noun and Adjective Forms

1. Infinitives

1. The Infinitives are indeclinable nouns with non-personal verbal functions, which can be as many as inflection, voice, aspect and even time.

NOTE. Infinitives are, thus, old nouns reinterpreted as verbs.

2. The older Infinitives are the Verbal Nouns, i.e., casual forms inflected as nouns, although sometimes included in the verbal inflection. A Verbal Noun is a declinable substantive, derived from the root of a verb.

NOTE. The difference in the syntax is important; the verbal noun is constructed as a substantive, thus - for example - with the *object* in the genitive: *the killing of a man*, as opposed to the accusative with an infinitive, *to kill a man*.

3. Verbal Nouns are, thus, the normal way to express the idea of a modern Infinitive in Europaio. Infinitives can be nevertheless formed in modern Europaio with the verbal stem (athematic or thematic), being indeclinable; as, **deik**, *to show (showing)*; **es**, *to be (being)*; **ed**, *to eat (eating)*; etc.

NOTE 1. The usual formal condition is that the Infinitive is not already a noun: as in **ag**, *to act*, which can only function as infinitive. When the root is already a noun, a thematic stem with -e/o shall form the Infinitive. When this is not possible, then a Verbal Noun has to be used.

NOTE 2. Although each Europaio dialect chose between some limited noun-cases (not presented here) for the Infinitive formation, they were not general in the IE III nor in the Northern Dialects or the languages that followed, and could be easily confused in our system with imperfects, futures and perfects, and with the normal noun inflection.

2. Participles

1. The Participles are adjectives which have been assimilated to the verb system, having thus verb inflection.

NOTE. The IE III shows an intense reliance on participles, and thus a certain number of participles played an important role in the language.

2. Those in -**nt** are the older ones, and are limited to the Active voice and to the Present, Imperfect and Future; as, **bheront/bherent**, *who carries*.

3. The Perfect active has a suffix -**ues**, -**uos** (ø grade -**us**), or -**uet**, -**uot**; as, **widwot**, **widwos**, **edwos**, etc.

NOTE. Both the Present and Perfect participles are indeed inflected following the second declension; as, Nom. -*w*o*s*, Acc. -*wosm*, Gen. -*usos*, Nom. pl. -*woses*

4. The middle Participles have a suffix -**meno**-, -**m**e**no**-, -**mno**- (originally probably adjectives) as; **alomnos**, *who feeds himself* (i.e., *alumnus*), **dhemn**a, *who suckle* (i.e., *woman*, cf. *femina*).

5. The Participles have been also developed as Passives in some languages, and are used in modern Europaio static passives. They are usually formed with the root or past stem with these suffixes:

a. -**to**: **altos**, *grown*; **dhetos**, *placed*; **kaptos**, *haved*; etc.

NOTE. The adjectives in -t**o** imply reference to a Noun. They have usually zero-grade root vowel; as **liqto**-, **pikto**-, etc.

b. -**no**: and variants; as, **bheidhnos**, *parted*, *bitten*; **wrgnos**, *worked*; **del**a**nos**, *made*.

NOTE. Compare with adjectives in -**n**, as in **plnos** (got. *fulls* or lat. *plenus*).

c. -**mo**: compare with adjective **prwimos** lat. *primos*, *first*.

d. -**lo**: see next section.

NOTE. These follow the first-type adjective declension, i.e. that of -**os**, -**a**, -**om**, and are usually accentuated on the ending.

3. Gerundives and Absolutives

1. Verbal Adjectives are those which are not assimilated to the verbal system of Tense and Voice. Those which indicate need or possibility are called Gerundives.

NOTE. Verbal Adjectives and Adjectives cannot be easily differentiated.

2. While the same suffixes as for the Passive Participles are found, -**to**-, -**no**-, -**mo**-, there are two forms especially identified with the Gerundive:

a. In -**lo** or -**li** are found in arm., toc., and lat. As in **bherelo**-, **ghabhili**- (cf. *able*, from lat. *habilis*), etc.

b. In -**io** (which is also a common lengthening to differentiate adjectives) is sometimes a gerundive of obligation, as well as -**tu**-, -**ti**-, -**ndho**; as, **dhrsio**, *visible*; **gnotinos**, *that has to be known*; **seqondhos**, *second*, *that has to follow*; **gnaskendhos**, *that has to be born*; etc.

3. There are also some adverbial, not inflected forms usually called Absolutives or Gerunds. They are usually derived from the Gerundive, and are therefore built in our system with the indeclinable Gerundive Stem.

NOTE. This is obviously an extension of our modern Infinitive system, in which we use a non-inflected verbal root or stem for the infinitive (when it is inflected, it is a verbal noun); in this case, we use as the Gerund an indeclinable verbal adjective, the stem of the Gerundive, the declinable verbal adjective.

They are verbal nouns, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -*ing*: as, **kaus̲a̲ werelo**, *for the sake of speaking*.

7.3. The Conjugations

7.3.1. Introduction

1. Conjugation is the traditional name of a group of verbs that share a similar conjugation pattern in a particular language, a Verb Class. This is the sense in which we say that Europaio has four conjugations of verbs; it means that any *regular* Europaio verb can be conjugated in any person, number, tense, mood and voice by knowing which of the four conjugation groups it belongs to, and its main stems.

NOTE. The meaning of Regular and Irregular becomes, thus, a matter of choice, although this is obviously not free. We could have divided the verbs into five conjugations, or three, or even two, and left the rest for the *Irregulars* group. We believe that our choice is in the middle between a too restrictive system, in which many forms would be irregular (and would need in turn subclasses), and one too extensive to be easily learnt. We also know that the way a language is systematized influences the language; it is, then, to avoid too much *artificial* influence that we try to offer the more natural combinations possible (those frequent in the old, IE III system), without becoming too flexible to create a defined and stable (and thus usable) system.

2. The Four Conjugations in which Europaio is divided are based on the Present stem:

I. The First or **Root** Conjugation is formed with the Root, thematic stem for Present and Imperfect alike, but the Present has **e** root vowel and root accent, while the Imperfect has **ø** root vowel and accent on the theme vowel.

The **Reduplicated** class of verbs is somehow an *extension* of the first conjugation. In it, the Imperfect is formed with the root, which is reduplicated in Present without accent shift.

NOTE. Verbs of the First Conjugation have thus in common that there is no verbal ending to mark the Imperfect: the Basic Root (wether thematic or athematic) is always used.

II. The Second or **Consonant** Conjugation has a Present with a consonant ending, always thematic. The consonants are usually -**t**-, -**d**-, -**dh**-, -**k**- (often -**sk**-), -**g**-, -**gh**-. Other possibilities are the nasal suffix/infix -**n**- or the (rare) -**s**-.

III. The Third or *i* Conjugation has a Present in -**i**-, almost always thematic. Usual forms are -**ie**, -**io** (and the ø degree, athematic -**i̯**), and its compounds: **a̯ie**, **a̯io**, **e̯ie**, **e̯io**, **sie**, **sio**, etc. Also sometimes -**u** (when added to the root) although they are generally Root ending vowels.

IV. The Fourth or ***Athematic*** Conjugation has a Present in -**a̯**, -**e̯**.

Conjugation	Present		Imperfect	
1 (ROOT)	Root, e vowel, root accent	THEM	Root, long vowel, des. acce.	ATHE
[REDUPLICATED]	Reduplicated + i	ATHE	Root	ATHE
2 (CONSONANT)	Consonant	THEM	(-e)-s-, -a̯-/-e̯- (-u-)	ATHE
3 (i, u)	-i-, -u- (-ie, -io, -ue, -uo)	THEM	(-e)-s-	ATHE
	-i̯, -u̯	ATHE	-te/o	THEM
4 (ATHEMATIC)	-e̯, -a̯	ATHE	-te/o	THEM
IRREGULARS				

7.3.2. First Conjugation

1. Verbs of the First Conjugation are formed directly from Root stems, and maintain this form throughout the entire Conjugation.

NOTE. They are probably the remains of the oldest type of verb conjugation, in which there were neither suffixes nor endings to combine, but only the accent and the vowel degrees to differentiate between tenses, aspects and moods.

2. The Present is formed with root vowel **e** and root accent, as in le**i**qe/o or l**e**iqe/o, while the Imperfect is formed with root vowel ø and accent on the theme vowel, as in liqe/liq**o**, when that is possible.

Verb: **bhero̱**, *carry* (cf. eng. *bear*)

Present Stem	Imperfect Stem	Perfect Stem	Future Stem
bh**e**re/o-	bhr**e**/**o**-	(bh**e**)bhore/o	bhers**e**/**o**-

NOTE. Europaio verbs should be referred to by the first person singular Present and its conjugation type, so that it can be known wether they are thematic or not, and how they should be conjugated. If they are irregular verbs, however, they should be referred to with the first person singular Present, Imperfect, Perfect and Future.

3. The Present is formed with the Present stem and primary endings. The Subjunctive, with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present		
Sg.	**1.**	bh**e**ro̱	bh**e**ro̱m	bh**e**roim
	2.	bh**e**resi	bh**e**re̱s	bh**e**rois
	3.	bh**e**reti	bh**e**re̱t	bh**e**roit
Pl.	**1.**	bh**e**romos	bh**e**ro̱mo	bh**e**roime
	2.	bh**e**rethe	bh**e**re̱te	bh**e**roite
	3.	bh**e**ronti	bh**e**ro̱nt	bh**e**roient

4. The Imperfect is made with the Imperfect stem (i.e., ø root vowel and accentuated theme vowel) and secondary endings. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Imperfect		
Sg.	**1.**	bhr**o**m	bhr**o**m	bhr**o**im
	2.	bhr**e**s	bhr**e**s	bhr**o**is
	3.	bhr**e**t	bhr**e**t	bhr**o**it
Pl.	**1.**	bhr**o**mo	bhr**o**mo	bhr**o**ime
	2.	bhr**e**te	bhr**e**te	bhr**o**ite
	3.	bhr**o**nt	bhr**o**nt	bhr**o**ient

NOTE 1. These forms are read [bh'r**o**m], [bh'r**e**s], etc., from the ø grade form **bhr** [bh'r]

NOTE 2. An accentuated initial **e**- is added to the past forms in the Southern Dialects, although modern Europaio Imperfect stems corresponds normally to their Aorist formations.

5. The Perfect is obtained with root vowel ***o*/ø** in singular/plural, and the Perfect endings. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	(bhe)bh**o**ra	(bhe)bh**o**r**o**m	(bhe)bh**o**roim
	2.	(bhe)bh**o**retha	(bhe)bh**o**r**e**s	(bhe)bh**o**rois
	3.	(bhe)bh**o**re	(bhe)bh**o**r**e**t	(bhe)bh**o**roit
Pl.	**1.**	(bhe)bhrom**e**	(bhe)bhr**o**m**e**	(bhe)bhroim**e**
	2.	(bhe)bhret**e**	(bhe)bhr**e**t**e**	(bhe)bhroit**e**
	3.	(bhe)bhr**e**r	(bhe)bhr**o**nt	(bhe)bhro**i**ent

NOTE. Reduplication, if given, must be simple and with -**e**; full reduplication has a general intensive meaning (see § 7.2.5.,2.III). Full reduplication of **bher** would be **bherbher** (or dialectal *bheribher*). **Bhibher** (Present reduplication, with -**i**) is a Present stem of another verb, usually meaning the same as the original root.

6. The Past Perfect is made with the Perfect stem, adding secondary endings. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Past Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	(bhe)bh**o**rom	(bhe)bh**o**r**o**m	(bhe)bh**o**roim
	2.	(bhe)bh**o**res	(bhe)bh**o**r**e**s	(bhe)bh**o**rois
	3.	(bhe)bh**o**ret	(bhe)bh**o**r**e**t	(bhe)bh**o**roit
Pl.	**1.**	(bhe)bhrom**o**	(bhe)bhr**o**m**o**	(bhe)bhroim**e**
	2.	(bhe)bhret**e**	(bhe)bhr**e**t**e**	(bhe)bhroit**e**
	3.	(bhe)bhr**o**nt	(bhe)bhr**o**nt	(bhe)bhroi**e**nt

7. The Future is made generally with the root in **e** and an -**s**, and primary endings. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Future		
Sg.	**1.**	bhers**o**	bhers**o**m	bhers**oi**m
	2.	bhers**e**si	bhers**e**s	bhers**oi**s
	3.	bhers**e**ti	bhers**e**t	bhers**oi**t
Pl.	**1.**	bhers**o**mos	bhers**o**mo	bhers**oi**me
	2.	bhers**e**the	bhers**e**te	bhers**oi**te
	3.	bhers**o**nti	bhers**o**nt	bhers**oi**ent

8. The Conditional is formed with the Future stem and secondary endings. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Conditional		
Sg.	**1.**	bhers**o**m	bhers**o**m	bhers**oi**m
	2.	bhers**e**s	bhers**e**s	bhers**oi**s
	3.	bhers**e**t	bhers**e**t	bhers**oi**t
Pl.	**1.**	bhers**o**mo	bhers**o**mo	bhers**oi**me
	2.	bhers**e**te	bhers**e**te	bhers**oi**te
	3.	bhers**o**nt	bhers**o**nt	bhers**oi**ent

NOTE. The Conditional is new to modern Europaio, and its correctness and practical use is still to be proven.

The **Middle Voice** is made as follows:

9. The Present Middle is formed with the Present stem and Middle primary endings. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bherai	bheroma	bheroima
	2.	bheresoi	bhereso	bheroiso
	3.	bheretoi	bhereto	bheroito
Pl.	**1.**	bheromesdha	bheromedha	bheroimedha
	2.	bheredhe	bherodhue	bheroidhue
	3.	bherontoi	bheronto	bheroiento

10. The Imperfect Middle is made with the Imperfect stem (i.e., ø root vowel and accent on the theme vowel) and Middle secondary endings.

		Imperfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhroma	bhroma	bhroima
	2.	bhreso	bhreso	bhroiso
	3.	bhreto	bhreto	bhroito
Pl.	**1.**	bhromedha	bhromedha	bhroimedha
	2.	bhredhue	bhredhue	bhroidhue
	3.	bhronto	bhronto	bhroiento

NOTE. These forms are read [bh'roma], [bh'reso], etc., from the ø grade form **bhr** [bh'r]

11. The Perfect Middle is formed with root vowel ø and Middle secondary desinences.

		Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	(bhe)bh**r**oma	(bhe)bh**r**oma	(bhe)bh**r**oima
	2.	(bhe)bh**r**eso	(bhe)bh**r**eso	(bhe)bh**r**oiso
	3.	(bhe)bh**r**eto	(bhe)bh**r**eto	(bhe)bh**r**oito
Pl.	**1.**	(bhe)bhro**m**edha	(bhe)bhr**o**medha	(bhe)bhroi**m**edha
	2.	(bhe)bhredhu**e**	(bhe)bhr**e**dhue	(bhe)bhroidhu**e**
	3.	(bhe)bhr**o**nto	(bhe)bhr**o**nto	(bhe)bhroi**e**nto

NOTE. These forms are read [bh'**r**omo] or [bhebh'**r**omo], etc., from the ø grade form **bhr** [bh'r]

12. The Past Perfect Middle is made with the Perfect stem adding Middle secondary desinences.

		Past Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	(bhe)bh**or**oma	(bhe)bh**or**oma	(bhe)bh**o**roima
	2.	(bhe)bh**or**eso	(bhe)bh**or**eso	(bhe)bh**o**roiso
	3.	(bhe)bh**or**eto	(bhe)bh**or**eto	(bhe)bh**o**roito
Pl.	**1.**	(bhe)bhro**m**edha	(bhe)bhr**o**medha	(bhe)bhroi**m**edha
	2.	(bhe)bhredhu**e**	(bhe)bhr**e**dhue	(bhe)bhroidhu**e**
	3.	(bhe)bhr**o**nto	(bhe)bhr**o**nto	(bhe)bhroi**e**nto

13. The Future Middle is formed with the Future stem and Middle primary endings.

		Future Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhers**ai**	bhers**o**ma	bhers**o**ima
	2.	bhers**e**soi	bhers**e**so	bhers**o**iso
	3.	bhers**e**toi	bhers**e**to	bhers**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	bhers**o**mesdha	bhers**o**medha	bhers**o**imedha
	2.	bhers**e**dhe	bhers**e**dhue	bhers**o**idhue
	3.	bhers**o**ntoi	bhers**o**nto	bhers**o**iento

14. The Conditional Middle is made with the Future stem and Middle secondary endings.

		Conditional Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhers**o**ma	bhers**o**ma	bhers**o**ima
	2.	bhers**e**so	bhers**e**so	bhers**o**iso
	3.	bhers**e**to	bhers**e**to	bhers**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	bhers**o**medha	bhers**o**medha	bhers**o**imedha
	2.	bhers**e**dhue	bhers**e**dhue	bhers**o**idhue
	3.	bhers**o**nto	bhers**o**nto	bhers**o**iento

15. The **Passive Voice** is made like the Middle, but with Passive endings:

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bh**e**rar	bh**e**r**o**mar	bh**e**roimar
	2.	bh**e**resor	bh**e**r**e**sor	bh**e**roisor
	3.	bh**e**retor	bh**e**r**e**tor	bh**e**roitor
Pl.	**1.**	bh**e**romosr	bh**e**r**o**mosr	bh**e**roimosr
	2.	bh**e**redhuer	bh**e**r**o**dhuer	bh**e**roidhuer
	3.	bh**e**rontor	bh**e**r**o**ntor	bh**e**roientor

		Imperfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhr**o**mar	bhr**o**mar	bhr**o**imar
	2.	bhr**e**sor	bhr**e**sor	bhr**o**isor
	3.	bhr**e**tor	bhr**e**tor	bhr**o**itor
Pl.	**1.**	bhr**o**mor	bhr**o**mor	bhr**o**imor
	2.	bhr**e**dhuer	bhr**e**dhuer	bhr**o**idhuer
	3.	bhr**o**ntor	bhr**o**ntor	bhr**o**ientor

		Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	(bhe)bh**ro**mar	(bhe)bhr**o**mar	(bhe)bh**ro**imar
	2.	(bhe)bh**re**sor	(bhe)bhr**e**sor	(bhe)bh**ro**isor
	3.	(bhe)bh**re**tor	(bhe)bhr**e**tor	(bhe)bh**ro**itor
Pl.	**1.**	(bhe)bhrom**or**	(bhe)bhr**o**m**or**	(bhe)bhroim**or**
	2.	(bhe)bhredhu**er**	(bhe)bhr**e**dhu**er**	(bhe)bhroidhu**er**
	3.	(bhe)bhront**or**	(bhe)bhr**o**nt**or**	(bhe)bhroient**or**

		Past Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	(bhe)bh**o**romar	(bhe)bh**o**r**o**mar	(bhe)bh**o**roimar
	2.	(bhe)bh**o**resor	(bhe)bh**o**r**e**sor	(bhe)bh**o**roisor
	3.	(bhe)bh**o**retor	(bhe)bh**o**r**e**tor	(bhe)bh**o**roitor
Pl.	**1.**	(bhe)bhrom**or**	(bhe)bhr**o**m**or**	(bhe)bhroim**or**
	2.	(bhe)bhredhu**er**	(bhe)bhr**e**dhu**er**	(bhe)bhroidhu**er**
	3.	(bhe)bhront**or**	(bhe)bhr**o**nt**or**	(bhe)bhroient**or**

		Future Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhers**a**r	bhers**o**mar	bhers**o**imar
	2.	bhers**e**sor	bhers**e**sor	bhers**o**isor
	3.	bhers**e**tor	bhers**e**tor	bhers**o**itor
Pl.	**1.**	bhers**o**mor	bhers**o**mor	bhers**o**imor
	2.	bhers**e**dhuer	bhers**e**dhuer	bhers**o**idhuer
	3.	bhers**o**ntor	bhers**o**ntor	bhers**o**ientor

		Conditional Passive		
Sg.	1.	bhers**o**mar	bhers**o**mar	bhers**oi**mar
	2.	bhers**e**sor	bhers**e**sor	bhers**oi**sor
	3.	bhers**e**tor	bhers**e**tor	bhers**oi**tor
Pl.	1.	bhers**o**mor	bhers**o**mor	bhers**oi**mor
	2.	bhers**e**dhuer	bhers**e**dhuer	bhers**oi**dhuer
	3.	bhers**o**ntor	bhers**o**ntor	bhers**oi**entor

16. The Imperative is formed as follows:

		Imperative
SING.	2.	bh**e**re
	3.	bh**e**ret**od**
PLUR.	2.	bh**e**rete
	3.	bh**e**ront**od**

17. Other possible forms are shown in the next table:

	Europaio	English
Infinitive	bher	to carry
Verbal Noun	bh**e**ro-	the carrying
Present Participle	bher**o**nt	who carries, who carried, carrying
Perfect Participle	bheru**es**	carried
Middle Participle	bheremn**o**-	who carries himself,...
Passive Participle	bherest**o**-	(been) carried
Gerundive	bherel**o**-	who has to be carried
Absolutive/Gerund	bh**e**relo	of carrying, to the carrying,...

7.3.3. Reduplicated Verbs of the First Conjugation

1. Reduplicated Presents are usually verbs of the First Conjugation, when formed with consonant + **i**.

NOTE. These reduplicated stems have usually an intensive meaning.

2. In reduplicated stems where the Present is formed with simple reduplication + **i**, the Imperfect is formed with the root, without accent shift, and the Perfect is also formed with the reduplicated form, but with **e**.

NOTE. The three stems are always athematic, so there can be no confusion between reduplicated and non-reduplicated verbs, in Root and Reduplicated conjugation, in the case that full and simple reduplication give the same stem.

Verb: **bhibhermi**, *bear, endure* (cf. eng. *bear*)

Present Stem	*Imperfect Stem*	*Perfect Stem*	*Future Stem*
bhibher-	bher-	bhebher-	bhibhers-

3. The Present is made with the Present stem and primary endings. The Subjunctive is thematic.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
			Present	
Sg.	**1.**	bhibhermi	bhibherom	bhibheriem
	2.	bhibhersi	bhibheres	bhibheries
	3.	bhibherti	bhibheret	bhibheriet
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrmes	bhibhromo	bhibhrime
	2.	bhibhrthe	bhibhrete	bhibhrite
	3.	bhibhrenti	bhibhront	bhibhrint

NOTE. The older, root athematic inflection (see § 7.2.5, 2.II) is made full/ø vowel in a singular/plural scheme, with accent on the ending. For more on this, see § 7.2.5, 2.III.

4. The Imperfect is formed with the Imperfect stem (i.e., the root, not reduplicated) and secondary endings.

		Imperfect		
Sg.	**1.**	bherm	bherom	bheriem
	2.	bhers	bheres	bheries
	3.	bhert	bheret	bheriet
Pl.	**1.**	bhrme	bhromo	bhrime
	2.	bhrte	bhrete	bhrite
	3.	bhrent	bhront	bhrint

NOTE. An accentuated initial **e**- is added to the past forms in the Southern Dialects, although Modern Europaio Imperfect stems corresponds normally to their Aorist formations.

5. The Perfect is made with the Root (possibly reduplicated) in o/ø or lengthened vowel, and the Perfect endings. The Subjunctive (thematic) is formed with secondary endings.

		Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	bhebhora	bhebhorom	bhebhoriem
	2.	bhebhortha	bhebhores	bhebhories
	3.	bhebhore	bhebhoret	bhebhoriet
Pl.	**1.**	bhebhrme	bhebhromo	bhebhrime
	2.	bhebhrte	bhebhrete	bhebhrite
	3.	bhebhrer	bhebhront	bhebhrint

6. The Past Perfect is formed with the Perfect stem, adding secondary endings. The Subjunctive is thematic with secondary endings.

		Past Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	bhebhorm	bhebhorom	bhebhoriem
	2.	bhebhors	bhebhores	bhebhories
	3.	bhebhort	bhebhoret	bhebhoriet
Pl.	**1.**	bhebhrme	bhebhromo	bhebhrime
	2.	bhebhrte	bhebhrete	bhebhrite
	3.	bhebhrent	bhebhront	bhebhrint

7. The Future is formed generally with the root in e and adding an -s, and with primary endings.

		Future		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibhersmi	bhibhersem	bhibhersiem
	2.	bhibherssi	bhibherses	bhibhersies
	3.	bhibhersti	bhibherset	bhibhersiet
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrsmes	bhibhrsomo	bhibhrsime
	2.	bhibhrsthe	bhibhrsete	bhibhrsite
	3.	bhibhrsenti	bhibhrsont	bhibhrsint

NOTE. The stem is athematic, always like the Present stem.

8. The Conditional is obtained with the Future stem and secondary endings.

		Conditional		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibhersm	bhibhersem	bhibhersiem
	2.	bhibherss	bhibherses	bhibhersies
	3.	bhibherst	bhibherset	bhibhersiet
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrsme	bhibhrsomo	bhibhrsime
	2.	bhibhrste	bhibhrsete	bhibhrsite
	3.	bhibhrsent	bhibhrsont	bhibhrsint

The **Middle Voice** is made as follows:

9. The Present Middle is formed with the Present stem and Middle primary endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibhermai	bhibheroma	bhibheriema
	2.	bhibhersoi	bhibhereso	bhibherieso
	3.	bhibhertoi	bhibhereto	bhibherieto
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrmesdha	bhibhromedha	bhibhrimedha
	2.	bhibhrdhe	bhibhrodhue	bhibhridhue
	3.	bhibhrentoi	bhibhronto	bhibhrinto

10. The Imperfect Middle is made with the Imperfect stem (i.e., the root, not reduplicated) and Middle secondary endings, with accent on the theme vowel.

		Imperfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bherma	bheroma	bheriema
	2.	bherso	bhereso	bherieso
	3.	bherto	bhereto	bherieto
Pl.	**1.**	bhrmedha	bhromedha	bhrimedha
	2.	bhrdhe	bhredhue	bhridhue
	3.	bhrento	bhronto	bhrinto

11. The Perfect Middle is formed with root vowel ø and Middle secondary endings.

		Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhebhrma	bhebhroma	bhebhriema
	2.	bhebhrso	bhebhreso	bhebhrieso
	3.	bhebhrto	bhebhreto	bhebhrieto
Pl.	**1.**	bhebhrmedha	bhebhromedha	bhebhrimedha
	2.	bhebhrdhe	bhebhredhue	bhebhridhue
	3.	bhebhrento	bhebhronto	bhebhrinto

12. The Past Perfect Middle is formed with the Perfect stem and Middle secondary endings.

		Past Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhebhorma	bhebhoroma	bhebhoriema
	2.	bhebhorso	bhebhoreso	bhebhorieso
	3.	bhebhorto	bhebhoreto	bhebhorieto
Pl.	**1.**	bhebhrmedha	bhebhromedha	bhebhrimedha
	2.	bhebhrdhe	bhebhredhue	bhebhridhue
	3.	bhebhrento	bhebhronto	bhebhrinto

13. The Future Middle is made with the Future stem, adding Middle endings.

		Future Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibh**e**rsmai	bhibhers**o**ma	bhibh**e**rsi**e**ma
	2.	bhibh**e**rssoi	bhibhers**e**so	bhibh**e**rsi**e**so
	3.	bhibh**e**rstoi	bhibhers**e**to	bhibh**e**rsi**e**to
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrsm**e**sdha	bhibhrsom**e**dha	bhibhrsim**e**dha
	2.	bhibhrsdh**e**	bhibhrsedhu**e**	bhibhrsidhu**e**
	3.	bhibhrs**e**ntoi	bhibhrs**o**nto	bhibh**rs**into

14. The Conditional Middle is formed with the Future stem, adding Middle secondary endings.

		Conditional Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibh**e**rsma	bhibhers**o**ma	bhibh**e**rsi**e**ma
	2.	bhibh**e**rsso	bhibhers**e**so	bhibh**e**rsi**e**so
	3.	bhibh**e**rsto	bhibhers**e**to	bhibh**e**rsi**e**to
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrsm**e**dha	bhibhrsom**e**dha	bhibhrsim**e**dha
	2.	bhibhrsdhu**e**	bhibhrsedhu**e**	bhibhrsidhu**e**
	3.	bhibhrs**e**nto	bhibhrs**o**nto	bhibh**rs**into

15. The **Passive Voice** is made like the Middle, but with Passive endings:

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bh**i**bhermar	bh**i**bheromar	bh**i**bheri**e**mar
	2.	bh**i**bhersor	bh**i**bheresor	bh**i**bheri**e**sor
	3.	bh**i**bhertor	bh**i**bheretor	bh**i**bheri**e**tor
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrm**o**r	bhibhrom**o**r	bhibhr**i**m**o**r
	2.	bhibhrdhu**er**	bhibhrodhu**er**	bhibhr**i**dhu**er**
	3.	bhibhr**e**ntor	bhibhr**o**ntor	bhibhr**i**ntor

		Imperfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhermar	bheromar	bheriemar
	2.	bhersor	bheresor	bheriesor
	3.	bhertor	bheretor	bherietor
Pl.	**1.**	bhrmor	bhromor	bhrimor
	2.	bhrdhuer	bhredhuer	bhridhuer
	3.	bhrentor	bhrontor	bhrintor

		Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhebhrmar	bhebhromar	bhebhriemar
	2.	bhebhrsor	bhebhresor	bhebhriesor
	3.	bhebhrtor	bhebhretor	bhebhrietor
Pl.	**1.**	bhebhrmor	bhebhromor	bhebhrimor
	2.	bhebhrdhuer	bhebhredhuer	bhebhridhuer
	3.	bhebhrentor	bhebhrontor	bhebhrintor

		Past Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhebhormar	bhebhoromar	bhebhoriemar
	2.	bhebhorsor	bhebhoresor	bhebhoriesor
	3.	bhebhortor	bhebhoretor	bhebhorietor
Pl.	**1.**	bhebhrmor	bhebhromor	bhebhrimor
	2.	bhebhrdhuer	bhebhredhuer	bhebhridhuer
	3.	bhebhrentor	bhebhrontor	bhebhrintor

		Future Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibh**e**rs**m**ar	bhibhers**o**mar	bhibh**e**rsi**e**mar
	2.	bhibh**e**rssor	bhibhers**e**sor	bhibh**e**rsi**e**sor
	3.	bhibh**e**rstor	bhibhers**e**tor	bhibh**e**rsi**e**tor
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrs**m**or	bhibhrsom**o**r	bhibhrsi**m**or
	2.	bhibhrsdhu**e**r	bhibhrsedhu**e**r	bhibhrsi**d**hu**e**r
	3.	bhibhrs**e**ntor	bhibhrs**o**ntor	bhibh**rs**intor

		Conditional Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	bhibh**e**rsmar	bhibhers**o**mar	bhibh**e**rsi**e**mar
	2.	bhibh**e**rssor	bhibhers**e**sor	bhibh**e**rsi**e**sor
	3.	bhibh**e**rstor	bhibhers**e**tor	bhibh**e**rsi**e**tor
Pl.	**1.**	bhibhrs**m**or	bhibhrsom**o**r	bhibhrsi**m**or
	2.	bhibhrsdhu**e**r	bhibhrsedhu**e**r	bhibhrsi**d**hu**e**r
	3.	bhibhrs**e**ntor	bhibhrs**o**ntor	bhibh**rs**intor

16. The Imperative is formed as follows:

		Imperative
SING.	**2.**	bh**i**bher
	3.	bh**i**bhert**o**d
PLUR.	**2.**	bhibhr**t**e
	3.	bhibhr**e**nt**o**d

17. Other possible forms are shown in the next table:

	Europaio	*English*
Infinitive	bh**i**bhero	to bear
Verbal Noun	bh**i**bhero-	the bearing
Present Participle	bhibher**nt**	who bears, who bore, bearing
Perfect Participle	bhibher**ues**	borne
Middle Participle	bhibhermn**o**-	who bears himself
Passive Participle	bhibherst**o**-	been borne
Gerundive	bhibher**lo**-	who has to be borne
Absolutive/Gerund	bh**i**bherlo	of bearing, to the bearing,...

7.3.4. Second Conjugation

1. Verbs of the Second Conjugation have a consonant ending and are always thematic. The consonants are usually -**t**-, -**d**-, -**dh**-, -**k**- (often -**sk**-), -**g**-, -**gh**- and even -**s**-; they can also have the suffix or infix -**n**-.

2. The Present is thematic, while the Imperfect is athematic, generally in -**s**-.

Verb: m**e**nsk*o* [from **men**, *to think*], *think, remember* (cf. *eng. reminiscent*, borrowed from lat.)

Present Stem	*Imperfect Stem*	*Perfect Stem*	*Future Stem*
m**e**nske/o-	mnsk**e**s-	(me)m**o**nske/o-	menskis**e**/**o**-

3. The Present is formed with the Present stem and primary endings. The Subjunctive, thematic, with lengthened vowel.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
			Present	
Sg.	**1.**	m**e**nsk*o*	m**e**nsk*o*m	m**e**nskoim
	2.	m**e**nskesi	m**e**nsk*e*s	m**e**nskois
	3.	m**e**nsketi	m**e**nsk*e*t	m**e**nskoit
Pl.	**1.**	m**e**nskomos	m**e**nsk*o*mo	m**e**nskoime
	2.	m**e**nskethe	m**e**nsk*e*te	m**e**nskoite
	3.	m**e**nskonti	m**e**nsk*o*nt	m**e**nskoient

4. The Imperfect is obtained with the Imperfect stem, i.e., athematic in -(e)-s, and secondary endings, with accent on the theme vowel. When the Indicative is athematic, the Subjunctive is thematic.

		Imperfect		
Sg.	1.	mnsk**e**sm	mnske**o**m	mnsk**e**si̱em
	2.	mnsk**e**ss	mnske**s**es	mnsk**e**si̱es
	3.	mnsk**e**st	mnske**s**et	mnsk**e**si̱et
Pl.	1.	mnsk**e**sme	mnske**o**mo	mnsk**e**sime
	2.	mnsk**e**ste	mnske**s**ete	mnsk**e**si̱te
	3.	mnsk**e**sent	mnske**o**nt	mnsk**e**si̱nt

NOTE. An accentuated initial **e**- is added to the past forms in the Southern Dialects, although Modern Europaio Imperfect stems corresponds normally to their Aorist formations.

5. The Perfect is formed with root vowel **o/ø**, and Perfect endings. The Subjunctive is formed with secondary endings and lengthened theme vowel.

		Perfect		
Sg.	1.	(me)m**o**nska	(me)m**o**nsk**o̱**m	(me)m**o**nskoim
	2.	(me)m**o**nsketha	(me)m**o**nsk**e̱**s	(me)m**o**nskois
	3.	(me)m**o**nske	(me)m**o**nsk**e̱**t	(me)m**o**nskoit
Pl.	1.	(me)mnskom**e**	(me)mnsk**o̱**m**o**	(me)mnskoim**e**
	2.	(me)mnsket**e**	(me)mnsk**e̱**t**e**	(me)mnskoit**e**
	3.	(me)mnsk**e̱**r	(me)mnsk**o̱**nt	(me)mnskoi**e**nt

6. The Past Perfect is made with the perfect stem, adding secondary desinences. The Subjunctive is formed with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Past Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	(me)monskom	(me)monsk<u>o</u>m	(me)monskoim
	2.	(me)monskes	(me)monsk<u>e</u>s	(me)monskois
	3.	(me)monsket	(me)monsk<u>e</u>t	(me)monskoit
Pl.	**1.**	(me)mnskom**o**	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>m**o**	(me)mnskoim**e**
	2.	(me)mnsket**e**	(me)mnsk<u>e</u>t**e**	(me)mnskoit**e**
	3.	(me)mnsk**o**nt	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>nt	(me)mnskoi**e**nt

7. The Future is formed generally with root vowel **e** and an -*s*- ending, and adding primary endings.

		Future		
Sg.	**1.**	menskis<u>o</u>	menskis<u>o</u>m	menskis**o**im
	2.	menskis**e**si	menskis**e**s	menskis**o**is
	3.	menskis**e**ti	menskis<u>e</u>t	menskis**o**it
Pl.	**1.**	menskis**o**mos	menskis<u>o</u>mo	menskis**o**ime
	2.	menskis**e**the	menskis<u>e</u>te	menskis**o**ite
	3.	menskis**o**nti	menskis<u>o</u>nt	menskis**o**ient

NOTE. -*i-s*- is a typical lat. and i.-i. addition before the ending. We use it in the conjugation of this particular verb, partly because it comes from Latin, but mainly because the pronunciation is thus easier as without the initial -**i**.

8. The Conditional is made with the Future stem and secondary endings.

		Conditional		
Sg.	**1.**	menskis**o**m	menskis**o**m	menskis**oi**m
	2.	menskis**e**s	menskis**e**s	menskis**oi**s
	3.	menskis**e**t	menskis**e**t	menskis**oi**t
Pl.	**1.**	menskis**o**mo	menskis**o**mo	menskis**oi**me
	2.	menskis**e**te	menskis**e**te	menskis**oi**te
	3.	menskis**o**nt	menskis**o**nt	menskis**oi**ent

The **Middle Voice** is made as follows:

9. The Present Middle is made with the Present stem and Middle primary endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	m**e**nskai	m**e**nsk**o**ma	m**e**nskoima
	2.	m**e**nskesoi	m**e**nsk**e**so	m**e**nskoiso
	3.	m**e**nsketoi	m**e**nsk**e**to	m**e**nskoito
Pl.	**1.**	m**e**nskomesdha	m**e**nsk**o**medha	m**e**nskoimedha
	2.	m**e**nskedhe	m**e**nsk**e**dhue	m**e**nskoidhue
	3.	m**e**nskontoi	m**e**nsk**o**nto	m**e**nskoiento

10. The Imperfect Middle is formed with the Imperfect stem and Middle secondary endings. The Subjunctive is thematic when the Indicative is athematic.

		Imperfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	mnsk**e**sma	mnskes**o**ma	mnsk**e**s<u>i</u>ema
	2.	mnsk**e**sso	mnskes**e**so	mnsk**e**s<u>i</u>eso
	3.	mnsk**e**sto	mnskes**e**to	mnsk**e**s<u>i</u>eto
Pl.	**1.**	mnsk**e**smedha	mnskes**o**medha	mnsk**e**s<u>i</u>medha
	2.	mnsk**e**sdhue	mnskes**e**dhue	mnsk**e**s<u>i</u>dhue
	3.	mnsk**e**sento	mnskes**o**nto	mnsk**e**s<u>i</u>nto

11. The Perfect Middle is made with root vowel ø and Middle secondary endings.

		Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	(me)m**n**sk<u>o</u>ma	(me)m**n**sk<u>o</u>ma	(me)m**n**skoima
	2.	(me)m**n**sk<u>e</u>so	(me)m**n**sk<u>e</u>so	(me)m**n**skoiso
	3.	(me)m**n**sk<u>e</u>to	(me)m**n**sk<u>e</u>to	(me)m**n**skoito
Pl.	**1.**	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>m**e**dha	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>m**e**dha	(me)mnskoim**e**dha
	2.	(me)mnsk<u>e</u>dhu**e**	(me)mnsk<u>e</u>dhu**e**	(me)mnskoidhu**e**
	3.	(me)mnsk**o**nto	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>nto	(me)mnskoi**e**nto

12. The Past Perfect Middle is formed with the Perfect stem, and Middle secondary endings.

		Past Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	(me)m**o**nsk<u>o</u>ma	(me)m**o**nsk<u>o</u>ma	(me)m**o**nskoima
	2.	(me)m**o**nsk<u>e</u>so	(me)m**o**nsk<u>e</u>so	(me)m**o**nskoiso
	3.	(me)m**o**nsk<u>e</u>to	(me)m**o**nsk<u>e</u>to	(me)m**o**nskoito
Pl.	**1.**	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>m**e**dha	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>m**e**dha	(me)mnskoim**e**dha
	2.	(me)mnsk<u>e</u>dhu**e**	(me)mnsk<u>e</u>dhue	(me)mnskoidhu**e**
	3.	(me)mnsk**o**nto	(me)mnsk<u>o</u>nto	(me)mnskoi**e**nto

13. The Future Middle is formed with the Future stem and Middle primary endings.

		Future Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	menskis**ai**	menskis**o**ma	menskis**o**ima
	2.	menskis**e**soi	menskis**e**so	menskis**o**iso
	3.	menskis**e**toi	menskis**e**to	menskis**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	menskis**o**mesdha	menskis**o**medha	menskis**o**imedha
	2.	menskis**e**dhe	menskis**e**dhue	menskis**o**idhue
	3.	menskis**o**ntoi	menskis**o**nto	menskis**o**iento

14. The Conditional is made with the Future stem and Middle secondary desinences.

		Conditional Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	menskis**o**ma	menskis**o**ma	menskis**o**ima
	2.	menskis**e**so	menskis**e**so	menskis**o**iso
	3.	menskis**e**to	menskis**e**to	menskis**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	menskis**o**medha	menskis**o**medha	menskis**o**imedha
	2.	menskis**e**dhue	menskis**e**dhue	menskis**o**idhue
	3.	menskis**o**nto	menskis**o**nto	menskis**o**iento

15. The **Passive Voice** is made like the Middle but with passive endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	m**e**nskar	m**e**nsk**o**mar	m**e**nskoimar
	2.	m**e**nskesor	m**e**nsk**e**sor	m**e**nskoisor
	3.	m**e**nsketor	m**e**nsk**e**tor	m**e**nskoitor
Pl.	**1.**	m**e**nskomor	m**e**nsk**o**mor	m**e**nskoimor
	2.	m**e**nskedhuer	m**e**nsk**e**dhuer	m**e**nskoidhuer
	3.	m**e**nskontor	m**e**nsk**o**ntor	m**e**nskoientor

		Imperfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	mnsk**es**mar	mnskes**o**mar	mnsk**e**si**e**mar
	2.	mnsk**es**sor	mnskes**e**sor	mnsk**e**si**e**sor
	3.	mnsk**es**tor	mnskes**e**tor	mnsk**e**si**e**tor
Pl.	**1.**	mnsk**es**mor	mnskes**o**mor	mnsk**e**simor
	2.	mnsk**es**dhuer	mnskes**e**dhuer	mnsk**e**sidhuer
	3.	mnsk**e**sentor	mnskes**o**ntor	mnsk**e**sintor

		Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	(me)m**n**sk**o**mar	(me)m**n**sk**o**mar	(me)m**n**skoimar
	2.	(me)m**n**sk**e**sor	(me)m**n**sk**e**sor	(me)m**n**skoisor
	3.	(me)m**n**sk**e**tor	(me)m**n**sk**e**tor	(me)m**n**skoitor
Pl.	**1.**	(me)mnskom**o**r	(me)mnskom**o**r	(me)mnskoim**o**r
	2.	(me)mnsk**e**dhu**e**r	(me)mnsk**e**dhu**e**r	(me)mnskoidhu**e**r
	3.	(me)mnsk**o**ntor	(me)mnsk**o**ntor	(me)mnskoi**e**ntor

		Past Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	(me)m**o**nsk**o**mar	(me)m**o**nsk**o**mar	(me)m**o**nskoimar
	2.	(me)m**o**nsk**e**sor	(me)m**o**nsk**e**sor	(me)m**o**nskoisor
	3.	(me)m**o**nsk**e**tor	(me)m**o**nsk**e**tor	(me)m**o**nskoitor
Pl.	**1.**	(me)mnskom**o**r	(me)mnskom**o**r	(me)mnskoim**o**r
	2.	(me)mnsk**e**dhu**e**r	(me)mnsk**e**dhu**e**r	(me)mnskoidhu**e**r
	3.	(me)mnsk**o**ntor	(me)mnsk**o**ntor	(me)mnskoi**e**ntor

		Future Passive		
Sg.	1.	menskis**a**r	menskis**o**mar	menskis**o**imar
	2.	menskis**e**sor	menskis**e**sor	menskis**o**isor
	3.	menskis**e**tor	menskis**e**tor	menskis**o**itor
Pl.	1.	menskis**o**mor	menskis**o**mor	menskis**o**imor
	2.	menskis**e**dhuer	menskis**e**dhuer	menskis**o**idhuer
	3.	menskis**o**ntor	menskis**o**ntor	menskis**o**ientor

		Conditional Passive		
Sg.	1.	menskis**o**mar	menskis**o**mar	menskis**o**imar
	2.	menskis**e**sor	menskis**e**sor	menskis**o**isor
	3.	menskis**e**tor	menskis**e**tor	menskis**o**itor
Pl.	1.	menskis**o**mor	menskis**o**mor	menskis**o**imor
	2.	menskis**e**dhuer	menskis**e**dhuer	menskis**o**idhuer
	3.	menskis**o**ntor	menskis**o**ntor	menskis**o**ientor

16. The Imperative is formed as follows:

		Imperative
SING.	2.	m**e**nske
	3.	m**e**nsket**o**d
PLUR.	2.	m**e**nskete
	3.	m**e**nskont**o**d

17. Other possible formations are shown in the next table:

	Europaio	*English*
Infinitive	m**e**nsko	to inquire
Verbal Noun	m**e**nsko-	the inquiring
Present Participle	mensk**o**nt	who inquires, who inquired, inquiring
Perfect Participle	mensku**es**	inquired
Middle Participle	menskemn**o**-	who inquires himself
Passive Participle	mensket**o**-	(been) inquired
Gerundive	menskel**o**-	who has to be inquired
Absolutive/Gerund	m**e**nskelo	of inquiring, to the inquiring,...

7.3.5. Third Conjugation

1. Verbs of the Third Conjugation usually end in -**i**- and are almost always thematic.

2. The Present is thematic, while the Imperfect is athematic in -**s**-.

Verb: tr**u**di̯o [from **treud**, *squeeze*], *compress* (cf. eng. *thrust*)

Present Stem	Imperfect Stem	Perfect Stem	Future Stem
tr**u**die/o-	tr**u**dies-	(tr**e**)tr**o**die/o-	tr**e**dise/**o**-

3. The Present is formed with the Present stem and primary endings. The Subjunctive, thematic, with lengthened vowel.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
			Present	
Sg.	**1.**	tr**u**di̯o	tr**u**di̯om	tr**u**di̯oim
	2.	tr**u**diesi	tr**u**di̯es	tr**u**di̯ois
	3.	tr**u**dieti	tr**u**di̯et	tr**u**di̯oit
Pl.	**1.**	tr**u**di̯omos	tr**u**di̯omo	tr**u**di̯oime
	2.	tr**u**diethe	tr**u**di̯ete	tr**u**di̯oite
	3.	tr**u**di̯onti	tr**u**di̯ont	tr**u**di̯oient

4. The Imperfect is formed with the Imperfect stem, i.e., athematic in -(**e**)-**s** and secondary desinences. When the Indicative is athematic, the Subjunctive is thematic.

		Imperfect		
Sg.	**1.**	tr**u**di**e**sm	tr**u**di**e**s**om**	tr**u**di**e**si̯em
	2.	tr**u**di**e**ss	tr**u**di**e**ses	tr**u**di**e**si̯es
	3.	tr**u**di**e**st	tr**u**di**e**set	tr**u**di**e**si̯et
Pl.	**1.**	tr**u**di**e**sme	tr**u**di**e**s**om**o	tr**u**di**e**si̯me
	2.	tr**u**di**e**ste	tr**u**di**e**sete	tr**u**di**e**si̯te
	3.	tr**u**di**e**sent	tr**u**di**e**s**on**t	tr**u**di**e**si̯nt

5. The Perfect is made with root vowel **o/ø**, and Perfect endings. The Subjunctive is formed with secondary endings and lengthened theme vowel.

		Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	(tre)tr**o**dia	(tre)tr**o**di**o**m	(tre)tr**o**dioim
	2.	(tre)tr**o**dietha	(tre)tr**o**di**e**s	(tre)tr**o**diois
	3.	(tre)tr**o**die	(tre)tr**o**di**e**t	(tre)tr**o**dioit
Pl.	**1.**	(tre)trudiom**e**	(tre)trudi**o**m**o**	(tre)trudioim**e**
	2.	(tre)trudiet**e**	(tre)trudi**e**t**e**	(tre)trudioit**e**
	3.	(tre)trudi**e**r	(tre)trudi**o**nt	(tre)trudio**ie**nt

6. The Past Perfect is formed with the Perfect stem, adding secondary desinences. The Subjunctive, with lengthened theme vowel and secondary endings.

		Past Perfect		
Sg.	**1.**	(tre)tr**o**diom	(tre)tr**o**di**o**m	(tre)tr**o**dioim
	2.	(tre)tr**o**dies	(tre)tr**o**di**e**s	(tre)tr**o**diois
	3.	(tre)tr**o**diet	(tre)tr**o**di**e**t	(tre)tr**o**dioit
Pl.	**1.**	(tre)trudiom**o**	(tre)trudi**o**m**o**	(tre)trudioim**e**
	2.	(tre)trudiet**e**	(tre)trudi**e**t**e**	(tre)trudioit**e**
	3.	(tre)trudi**o**nt	(tre)trudi**o**nt	(tre)trudio**ie**nt

7. The Future is formed generally with root vowel **e** and an -**s**- ending, and primary desinences.

		Future		
Sg.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**	tr**e**dis**o**m	tr**e**dis**o**im
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**si	tr**e**dis**e**s	tr**e**disois
	3.	tr**e**dis**e**ti	tr**e**dis**e**t	tr**e**dis**o**it
Pl.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**mos	tr**e**dis**o**mo	tr**e**dis**o**ime
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**the	tr**e**dis**e**te	tr**e**dis**o**ite
	3.	tr**e**dis**o**nti	tr**e**dis**o**nt	tr**e**dis**o**ient

8. The Conditional is made with the Future stem and secondary endings.

		Conditional		
Sg.	**1.**	tredisom	tredisom	tredisoim
	2.	tredises	tredises	tredisois
	3.	trediset	trediset	tredisoit
Pl.	**1.**	tredisomo	tredisomo	tredisoime
	2.	tredisete	tredisete	tredisoite
	3.	tredisont	tredisont	tredisoient

The **Middle Voice** is made as follows:

9. The Present Middle is formed with the Present stem and Middle primary endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	trudiai	trudioma	trudioima
	2.	trudiesoi	trudieso	trudioiso
	3.	trudietoi	trudieto	trudioito
Pl.	**1.**	trudiomesdha	trudiomedha	trudioimedha
	2.	trudiedhe	trudiodhue	trudioidhue
	3.	trudiontoi	trudionto	trudioiento

10. The Imperfect Middle is formed with the Imperfect stem and Middle secondary endings, with accent on the theme vowel. The Subjunctive is thematic when the Indicative is athematic.

		Imperfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	tru̱die**s**oma	tru̱die**s**oma	tru̱die**s**i̱ema
	2.	tru̱die**s**so	tru̱die**s**eso	tru̱die**s**i̱eso
	3.	tru̱die**s**to	tru̱die**s**eto	tru̱die**s**i̱eto
Pl.	**1.**	tru̱die**s**medha	tru̱die**s**omedha	tru̱die**s**i̱medha
	2.	tru̱die**s**dhue	tru̱die**s**edhue	tru̱die**s**i̱dhue
	3.	tru̱die**s**nto	tru̱die**s**onto	tru̱die**s**i̱nto

11. The Perfect Middle is made with root vowel ø and the Middle secondary endings.

		Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	(tre)tr**u**di̱oma	(tre)tr**u**di̱oma	(tre)tr**u**dioima
	2.	(tre)tr**u**dieso	(tre)tr**u**di̱eso	(tre)tr**u**dioiso
	3.	(tre)tr**u**dieto	(tre)tr**u**di̱eto	(tre)tr**u**dioito
Pl.	**1.**	(tre)trudiom**e**dha	(tre)trudi̱om**e**dha	(tre)trudioim**e**dha
	2.	(tre)trudiedhu**e**	(tre)trudi̱edhu**e**	(tre)trudioidhu**e**
	3.	(tre)trudi**o**nto	(tre)trudi̱**o**nto	(tre)trudioi**e**nto

12. The Past Perfect Middle is formed with the Perfect stem and Middle secondary endings.

		Past Perfect Middle *		
Sg.	**1.**	(tre)tr**o**di**o**ma	(tre)tr**o**di**o**ma	(tre)tr**o**di**o**ima
	2.	(tre)tr**o**di**e**so	(tre)tr**o**di**e**so	(tre)tr**o**di**o**iso
	3.	(tre)tr**o**di**e**to	(tre)tr**o**di**e**to	(tre)tr**o**di**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	(tre)trudi**o**m**e**dha	(tre)trudi**o**m**e**dha	(tre)trudi**o**im**e**dha
	2.	(tre)trudi**e**dhu**e**	(tre)trudi**e**dhu**e**	(tre)trudi**o**idhu**e**
	3.	(tre)trudi**o**nto	(tre)trudi**o**nto	(tre)trudi**o**i**e**nto

13. The Future Middle is formed with the Future stem and Middle primary endings.

		Future Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**ai**	tr**e**dis**o**ma	tr**e**dis**o**ima
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**soi	tr**e**dis**e**so	tr**e**dis**o**iso
	3.	tr**e**dis**e**toi	tr**e**dis**e**to	tr**e**dis**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**mesdha	tr**e**dis**o**medha	tr**e**dis**o**imedha
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**dhe	tr**e**dis**e**dhue	tr**e**dis**o**idhue
	3.	tr**e**dis**o**ntoi	tr**e**dis**o**nto	tr**e**dis**o**iento

14. The Conditional Middle is made with the Future stem and Middle secondary endings.

		Conditional Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**ma	tr**e**dis**o**ma	tr**e**dis**o**ima
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**so	tr**e**dis**e**so	tr**e**dis**o**iso
	3.	tr**e**dis**e**to	tr**e**dis**e**to	tr**e**dis**o**ito
Pl.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**medha	tr**e**dis**o**medha	tr**e**dis**o**imedha
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**dhue	tr**e**dis**e**dhue	tr**e**dis**o**idhue
	3.	tr**e**dis**o**nto	tr**e**dis**o**nto	tr**e**dis**o**iento

15. The **Passive Voice** is formed like the Middle but with Passive endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	trudiar	trudiomar	trudioimar
	2.	trudiesor	trudiesor	trudioisor
	3.	trudietor	trudietor	trudioitor
Pl.	**1.**	trudiomor	trudiomor	trudioimor
	2.	trudiedhuer	trudiodhuer	trudioidhuer
	3.	trudiontor	trudiontor	trudioientor

		Imperfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	trudiesmar	trudiesomar	trudiesiemar
	2.	trudiessor	trudiesesor	trudiesiesor
	3.	trudiestor	trudiesetor	trudiesietor
Pl.	**1.**	trudiesmor	trudiesomor	trudiesimor
	2.	trudiesdhuer	trudiesedhuer	trudiesidhuer
	3.	trudiesntor	trudiesontor	trudiesintor

		Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	(tre)trudiomar	(tre)trudiomar	(tre)trudioimar
	2.	(tre)trudiesor	(tre)trudiesor	(tre)trudioisor
	3.	(tre)trudietor	(tre)trudietor	(tre)trudioitor
Pl.	**1.**	(tre)trudiomor	(tre)trudiomor	(tre)trudioimor
	2.	(tre)trudiedhuer	(tre)trudiedhuer	(tre)trudioidhuer
	3.	(tre)trudiontor	(tre)trudiontor	(tre)trudioientor

		Past Perfect Passive*		
Sg.	**1.**	(tre)tr**o**diomar	(tre)tr**o**di**o**mar	(tre)tr**o**dioimar
	2.	(tre)tr**o**diesor	(tre)tr**o**di**e**sor	(tre)tr**o**dioisor
	3.	(tre)tr**o**dietor	(tre)tr**o**di**e**to	(tre)tr**o**dioitor
Pl.	**1.**	(tre)trudi**o**m**or**	(tre)trudi**o**mor	(tre)trudioim**or**
	2.	(tre)trudi**e**dhu**er**	(tre)trudi**e**dhu**er**	(tre)trudioidhu**er**
	3.	(tre)trudi**o**ntor	(tre)trudi**o**ntor	(tre)trudio**i**entor

		Future Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**a**r	tr**e**dis**o**mar	tr**e**dis**o**imar
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**sor	tr**e**dis**e**sor	tr**e**dis**o**isor
	3.	tr**e**dis**e**tor	tr**e**dis**e**tor	tr**e**dis**o**itor
Pl.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**mor	tr**e**dis**o**mor	tr**e**dis**o**imor
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**dhuer	tr**e**dis**e**dhuer	tr**e**dis**o**idhuer
	3.	tr**e**dis**o**ntor	tr**e**dis**o**ntor	tr**e**dis**o**ientor

		Conditional Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**mar	tr**e**dis**o**mar	tr**e**dis**o**imar
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**sor	tr**e**dis**e**sor	tr**e**dis**o**isor
	3.	tr**e**dis**e**tor	tr**e**dis**e**tor	tr**e**dis**o**itor
Pl.	**1.**	tr**e**dis**o**mor	tr**e**dis**o**mor	tr**e**dis**o**imor
	2.	tr**e**dis**e**dhuer	tr**e**dis**e**dhuer	tr**e**dis**o**idhuer
	3.	tr**e**dis**o**ntor	tr**e**dis**o**ntor	tr**e**dis**o**ientor

16. The Imperative is made as follows:

		Present
		Present
SING.	2.	tr**u**die
	3.	tr**u**diet**o**d
PLUR.	2.	tr**u**diete
	3.	tr**u**diont**o**d

17. The rest of the possible formations are shown in the next table:

	Europaio	*English*
Infinitive	tr**u**dio	to compress
Verbal Noun	tr**u**dio-	the compressing
Present Participle	tr**u**di**o**nt	who compresses, who compressed, ...
Perfect Participle	tr**u**diu**o**s	compressed
Middle Participle	tr**u**diemn**o**-	who compresses himself
Passive Participle	tr**u**diet**o**-	(been) compressed
Gerundive	tr**u**diel**o**-	who has to be compressed
Absolutive/Gerund	tr**u**dielo	of compressing, to the compressing,...

7.3.6. Fourth Conjugation

1. Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation end in -**e**, -**a**, and are always athematic.

2. The Present is athematic, while the Imperfect is thematic in -**s**-.

Verb: kl**u**sin**a** [from **kleu**, *hear*], *listen*

Present Stem	Imperfect Stem	Perfect Stem	Future Stem
kl**u**sin**a**-	klusin**a**t**e/o**-	(ke)kl**o**sin**a**-	klesin**a**s-

3. The Present is formed with the Present stem and primary endings. The Subjunctive, with lengthened vowel, also thematic.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present		
Sg.	**1.**	kl**u**sin**a**mi	kl**u**sin**a**em	kl**u**sin**a**iem
	2.	kl**u**sin**a**si	kl**u**sin**a**es	kl**u**sin**a**ies
	3.	kl**u**sin**a**ti	kl**u**sin**a**et	kl**u**sin**a**iet
Pl.	**1.**	klusin**a**mes	klusin**a**omo	klusin**a**ime
	2.	kl**u**sin**a**the	kl**u**sin**a**ete	kl**u**sin**a**ite
	3.	kl**u**sin**a**nti	kl**u**sin**a**ont	kl**u**sin**a**int

4. The Imperfect is formed with the Imperfect stem (i.e., thematic in -*t*) and secondary endings, with accent on the theme vowel. When the Indicative is thematic, the Subjunctive has a lengthened theme vowel.

		Imperfect		
Sg.	1.	klusin<u>at</u>**om**	klusin<u>at</u>**om**	klusin<u>at</u>**oim**
	2.	klusin<u>at</u>**es**	klusin<u>at</u>**es**	klusin<u>at</u>**ois**
	3.	klusin<u>at</u>**et**	klusin<u>at</u>**et**	klusin<u>at</u>**oit**
Pl.	1.	klusin<u>at</u>**omo**	klusin<u>at</u>**omo**	klusin<u>at</u>**oime**
	2.	klusin<u>at</u>**ete**	klusin<u>at</u>**ete**	klusin<u>at</u>**oite**
	3.	klusin<u>at</u>**ont**	klusin<u>at</u>**ont**	klusin<u>at</u>**oient**

5. The Perfect is made with root vowel in **o**/ø, and Perfect endings. The Subjunctive, thematic, with secondary endings.

		Perfect		
Sg.	1.	kl**o**sin<u>a</u>*	kl**o**sin<u>a</u>**om**	kl**o**sin<u>ai</u>**em**
	2.	kl**o**sin<u>a</u>**tha**	kl**o**sin<u>a</u>**es**	kl**o**sin<u>ai</u>**es**
	3.	kl**o**sin<u>a</u>**e**	kl**o**sin<u>a</u>**et**	kl**o**sin<u>ai</u>**et**
Pl.	1.	klsin<u>a</u>**me**	klsin<u>a</u>**omo**	klsin<u>ai</u>**me**
	2.	klsin<u>a</u>**te**	klsin<u>a</u>**ete**	klsin<u>ai</u>**te**
	3.	klsin<u>a</u>**er**	klsin<u>a</u>**ont**	klsin<u>ai</u>**nt**

Note. The form **klosin<u>a</u>** is a contracted form of ***klosin<u>aa</u>**. Otherwise, it could be confused with an added schwa sound (also written **a**), which wouldn't be contracted.

6. The Past Perfect is obtained with the Perfect stem, adding secondary desinences. The Subjunctive, thematic and secondary endings.

		Past Perfect		
Sg.	1.	klosinam	klosinaom	klosinaiem
	2.	klosinas	klosinaes	klosinaies
	3.	klosinat	klosinaet	klosinaiet
Pl.	1.	klsiname	klsinaomo	klsinaime
	2.	klsinate	klsinaete	klsinaite
	3.	klsinant	klsinaont	klsinaint

7. The Future is formed usually with root vowel **e** and an -**s**- addition, and primary endings. It is athematic, as the Present.

		Future		
Sg.	1.	klesinasmi	klesinasom	klesinasiem
	2.	klesinassi	klesinases	klesinasies
	3.	klesinasti	klesinaset	klesinasiet
Pl.	1.	klesinasmes	klesinasomo	klesinasime
	2.	klesinasthe	klesinasete	klesinasite
	3.	klesinasenti	klesinasont	klesinasint

8. The Conditional is formed with the Future stem and secondary endings.

		Conditional		
Sg.	1.	klesinasm	klesinasom	klesinasiem
	2.	klesinass	klesinases	klesinasies
	3.	klesinast	klesinaset	klesinasiet
Pl.	1.	klesinasme	klesinasomo	klesinasime
	2.	klesinaste	klesinasete	klesinasite
	3.	klesinasent	klesinasont	klesinasint

The **Middle Voice Paradigm** is as follows:

9. The Present Middle is formed with the Present stem and Middle primary endings.

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	klusinamai	klusinaoma	klusinaiema
	2.	klusinasoi	klusinaeso	klusinaieso
	3.	klusinatoi	klusinaeto	klusinaieto
Pl.	**1.**	klusinamesdha	klusinaomedha	klusinaimedha
	2.	klusinadhe	klusinaodhue	klusinaidhue
	3.	klusinantoi	klusinaonto	klusinainto

10. The Imperfect Middle is made with the Imperfect stem and Middle secondary endings, with accent on the theme vowel. The Subjunctive has lengthened vowel and is also thematic.

		Imperfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	klusinatoma	klusinatoma	klusinatoima
	2.	klusinateso	klusinateso	klusinatoiso
	3.	klusinateto	klusinateto	klusinatoito
Pl.	**1.**	klusinatomedha	klusinatomedha	klusinatoimedha
	2.	klusinatedhue	klusinatedhue	klusinatoidhue
	3.	klusinatonto	klusinatonto	klusinatoiento

11. The Perfect Middle is formed with root vowel ø and Middle secondary endings.

		Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	k**I**sin**a**ma	k**I**sin**a**oma	k**I**sin**ai**ema
	2.	k**I**sin**a**so	k**I**sin**a**eso	k**I**sin**ai**eso
	3.	k**I**sin**a**to	k**I**sin**a**eto	k**I**sin**ai**eto
Pl.	**1.**	klsin**a**m**e**dha	klsin**a**om**e**dha	klsin**ai**m**e**dha
	2.	klsin**a**dhu**e**	klsin**a**edhu**e**	klsin**ai**dhu**e**
	3.	klsin**a**nto	klsin**a**onto	klsin**ai**nto

12. The Past Perfect Middle is obtained with the Perfect stem and Middle secondary endings.

		Past Perfect Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	kl**o**sin**a**ma	kl**o**sin**a**oma	kl**o**sin**ai**ema
	2.	kl**o**sin**a**so	kl**o**sin**a**eso	kl**o**sin**ai**eso
	3.	kl**o**sin**a**to	kl**o**sin**a**eto	kl**o**sin**ai**eto
Pl.	**1.**	klsin**a**m**e**dha	klsin**a**om**e**dha	klsin**ai**m**e**dha
	2.	klsin**a**dhu**e**	klsin**a**edhu**e**	klsin**ai**dhu**e**
	3.	klsin**a**nto	klsin**a**onto	klsin**ai**nto

13. The Future Middle is formed with the Future stem and primary endings.

		Future Middle		
Sg.	**1.**	klesin**a**smai	klesin**a**soma	klesin**a**si**e**ma
	2.	klesin**a**ssoi	klesin**a**seso	klesin**a**si**e**so
	3.	klesin**a**stoi	klesin**a**seto	klesin**a**si**e**to
Pl.	**1.**	klesin**a**smesdha	klesin**a**somedha	klesin**a**simedha
	2.	klesin**a**sdhe	klesin**a**sedhue	klesin**a**sidhue
	3.	klesin**a**sentoi	klesin**a**sonto	klesin**a**sinto

14. The Conditional Middle is made with the Future stem and secondary endings.

		Conditional Middle		
Sg.	1.	klesinasma	klesinasoma	klesinasiema
	2.	klesinasso	klesinaseso	klesinasieso
	3.	klesinasto	klesinaseto	klesinasieto
Pl.	1.	klesinasmedha	klesinasomedha	klesinasimedha
	2.	klesinasdhue	klesinasedhue	klesinasidhue
	3.	klesinasento	klesinasonto	klesinasinto

15. The **Passive Voice** is obtained from the Middle forms with Passive endings:

		Indicative	Subjunctive	Optative
		Present Passive		
Sg.	1.	klusinamar	klusinaomar	klusinaiemar
	2.	klusinasor	klusinaesor	klusinaiesor
	3.	klusinator	klusinaetor	klusinaieto
Pl.	1.	klusinamor	klusinaomor	klusinaimor
	2.	klusinadhuer	klusinaodhuer	klusinaidhuer
	3.	klusinantor	klusinaontor	klusinaintor

		Imperfect Passive		
Sg.	1.	klusinatomar	klusinatomar	klusinatoimar
	2.	klusinatesor	klusinatesor	klusinatoisor
	3.	klusinatetor	klusinatetor	klusinatoitor
Pl.	1.	klusinatomor	klusinatomor	klusinatoimor
	2.	klusinatedhuer	klusinatedhuer	klusinatoidhuer
	3.	klusinatontor	klusinatontor	klusinatoientor

		Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	k**I**sin**a**mar	k**I**sin**a**omar	k**I**sin**aie**mar
	2.	k**I**sin**a**sor	k**I**sin**a**esor	k**I**sin**aie**sor
	3.	k**I**sin**a**tor	k**I**sin**a**etor	k**I**sin**aie**tor
Pl.	**1.**	kIsin**a**m**o**r	kIsin**a**om**o**r	kIsin**ai**m**o**r
	2.	kIsin**a**dhu**e**r	kIsin**a**edhu**e**r	kIsin**ai**dhu**e**r
	3.	kIsin**a**ntor	kIsin**a**ontor	kIsin**ai**ntor

		Past Perfect Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	kl**o**sin**a**mar	kl**o**sin**a**omar	kl**o**sin**aie**mar
	2.	kl**o**sin**a**sor	kl**o**sin**a**esor	kl**o**sin**aie**sor
	3.	kl**o**sin**a**tor	kl**o**sin**a**etor	kl**o**sin**aie**tor
Pl.	**1.**	klsin**a**m**o**r	klsin**a**om**o**r	klsin**ai**m**o**r
	2.	klsin**a**dhu**e**r	klsin**a**edhu**e**r	klsin**ai**dhu**e**r
	3.	klsin**a**ntor	klsin**a**ontor	klsin**ai**ntor

		Future Passive		
Sg.	**1.**	klesin**a**smar	klesin**a**s**o**mar	klesin**a**si**e**mar
	2.	klesin**a**ssor	klesin**a**sesor	klesin**a**si**e**sor
	3.	klesin**a**stor	klesin**a**setor	klesin**a**si**e**tor
Pl.	**1.**	klesin**a**smor	klesin**a**s**o**mor	klesin**a**si**mor
	2.	klesin**a**sdhuer	klesin**a**sedhuer	klesin**a**si**dhuer
	3.	klesin**a**sentor	klesin**a**s**o**ntor	klesin**a**si**ntor

		Conditional Passive		
Sg.	1.	klesinasmar	klesinasomar	klesinasiemar
	2.	klesinassor	klesinasesor	klesinasiesor
	3.	klesinastor	klesinasetor	klesinasietor
Pl.	1.	klesinasmor	klesinasomor	klesinasimor
	2.	klesinasdhuer	klesinasedhuer	klesinasidhuer
	3.	klesinasentor	klesinasontor	klesinasintor

16. The Imperative is formed as follows:

		Imperative
SING.	2.	klusina
	3.	klusinatod
PLUR.	2.	klusinate
	3.	klusinatod

16. Other possible forms are:

	Europaio	English
Infinitive	klusina	to listen
Verbal Noun	klusina-	the listen ing
Present Participle	klusinant	who listens, who listened, listening
Perfect Participle	klusinaues	listened
Middle Participle	klusinamno-	who listens to himself
Passive Participle	klusinato-	(been) listened
Gerundive	klusinalo-	who has to be listened
Absolutive/Gerund	klusinalo	of listening, to the listening,...

8. Particles

8.1. Particles

8.1.1. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections are called Particles. They cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions.

8.1.2. In a more strict definition, however, Particles are usually defined as autonomous elements, usually clitics, which make modifications in the verb or sentence, but which don't have a precise meaning, and which are neither adverbs nor preverbs nor conjunctions.

8.1.3. Europaio has some particles (in the strictest sense) which mark certain syntax categories:

a. Emphatics or Generalizers: they usually affect the sentence or a single word, generally a pronoun, but also a noun or verb. The particle **ge/gi**, **ghe/ghi** usually strengthens the negation, and emphasizes different pronouns.

NOTE. The origin of this particle is probably to be found in PIE -*qe*, acquiring its coordinate value from an older use as word-connector, from which the intensive/emphatic use is derived.

b. Verb Modifiers:

I. The old (and probably unused in IE III) **ti** have a middle sense value, reflexive.

II. The modal -**man**, associated with the Indicative, expresses potentiality (with the Present) and Irreality (with the Past).

NOTE. It is probably the same as the conjunction **man**, *if*, and related to **ma**, *but*.

III. The negative particle **me̱**, originally associated with the Indicative or forms indifferent to the moods.

c. Sentence categorizers: these particles indicate the class of sentence, wether negative or interrogative.

I. The absolute interrogatives were introduced in European dialects by special particles, **n** being the most general of them.

NOTE. The origin could be the *non-declarative* sense of the sentence, so that it comes from the negative **ne** /**n**.

II. Negation has usually two particles, etymologically related:

- Simple negation is made by the particle **ne**, lengthened in some dialects with -*i*, -*n*, -*d*, etc.

- Mood negation or prohibitive is the particle **me̱**.

d. Sentence Connectives: they introduce independent sentences or connect different sentences, or even mark the principal sentence among subordinates.

I. **so** and **to**, which are in the origin of the anaphoric pronoun we studied in § 6.5.

II. **nu**, which has an adverbial, temporal-consecutive meaning.

III. An introductory or connective **r**, which is possibly the origin of some coordinate conjunctions.

8.2. Adverbs

8.2.1. There is a class of invariable words, able to modify nouns and verbs, adding a specific meaning, wether semantical or deictic. They can be independent words (Adverbs); prefixes of verbal stems (Preverbs), originally independent but usually united with it; and also a nexus between a noun and a verb (Appositions), expressing a non-grammatical relationship, normally put behind, but sometimes coming before the word.

NOTE. As usual, in the oldest IE the three categories were probably only different uses of the same word class, but they were eventually assigned to one function and meaning. In fact, Adverbs are generally distinguished from the other two categories, so that they change due to innovation, while Preverbs and Appositions remain the same and normally freeze in their old positions.

8.2.2. Adverbs come usually from old particles which have obtained a specific deictic meaning. Traditionally, Adverbs are deemed to be the result of old oblique cases which have frozen in modern languages, loosing inflection. However, this is not the origin of the oldest types (a lot of them being found in modern Europaio), which are not related to older nouns, but to old (possibly general noun-verb) roots.

8.3. Derivation of Adverbs

8.3.1. Adverbs are regularly formed from Nouns, Pronouns and Adjectives as follows:

A. From Pronouns:

I. With a nasal lengthening, added systematically to zero-grade forms, which gives adverbs in -**am**; as, **tam**, **qam**, **peram** (from lat.)

II. An -**s** lengthening, added to the adverb and not to the basic form, giving sometimes alternating adverbs; as, **ab**/**abs**, **ek**/**eks**, **ambhi**/**ambhis**, etc.

III. An -**r** lengthening; as, **qor**, **qir**, etc. which is added also to other derived adverbs. It is less usual than the other two.

Some older adverbs, derived as the above, have specialized as suffixes for adverb derivation, forming compound adverbs from two pronoun stems:

i. From the pronoun **de**, the nasalized **d<u>e</u>m** gives adverbs in -**dem**, -**dam**; as, **idem**, **qidam**, etc.

ii. From root **dhe** there are two adverbs which give suffixes with local meaning, from stems of pronouns, nouns, adverbs and prepositions:

a. an adverb in -**m**, **dhem**/**dhm**; as, **endhem**, **prosdhm**, etc.

b. an adverb in -**i**, **dhi**, as in **podhi**, **autodhi**, etc.

iii. From the root **te** there are also some adverbial suffixes with mood sense (also temporal, derived from it). So **ti**; as, **iti** or **itidem**, **ut**(**i**), **proti**, **auti**, etc; and **t**-(**e**)**m**, **utm**, **item**, **eitm**, etc.

B. From nouns and adjectives (usually neuter accusatives), frozen as adverbs already in IE III. The older endings to form Adverbs are the same as those above, i.e. -**i**, -**u** and -(**e**)**m**, which are thus original Adverbs, and not only secondary forms. These Adverbs have normally precise, local meaning, not only abstract or deictic, and derive then

usually in temporal meanings. The endings -**i**, -**u**, -**r**, as well as nasal -**n** and also -**s**, as in the pronoun formations, are also given.

NOTE 1. It is not uncommon to find adverbs derived from noun stems which never had inflection, thus (probably) early frozen as adverbs in its pure stem.

NOTE 2. From these adverbs derived conjunctions with temporal-consecutive meaning (*then*, *so*) or contrastive (*on the contrary*, *instead*).

Some examples of known adverbs are:

ambhi, mbhi, *on both sides*, *around*

ana, *on, over, above;*

andh-/endh-/ndher, *down*

anti, *opposite, in front*

apo, po, *out*, *from*

au/wo, *out, far*

en(i) / n, *in*

epi, opi, pi: *towards here*, *around*, *circa*

et(**i**), **oti**; *beyond, past; over, on the other side;*

per, **pr**: *in front*, *opposite*, *around*

qu, from interrogative-indefinites *qi/qo*

upo, *under, down*; **uper**(**i**), *up*.

8.4. Prepositions

8.4.1. Prepositions were not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but have become specialized in use. They developed comparatively late in the history of language. In the early stages of the IE language the cases alone were probably sufficient to indicate the sense, but, as the force of the case-endings weakened, adverbs were used for greater precision. These adverbs, from their habitual association with particular cases, became Prepositions; but many retained also their independent function as adverbs.

Most prepositions are true case-forms: as the comparatives **ekstero** (cf. *external*), **ndhero** (cf. *inferior*), **supero**, and the accusatives **kirkom**, **koram**, etc.

8.4.2. Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Oblique.

8.5. Conjunctions

8.5.1. Conjunctions, like prepositions, are closely related to adverbs, and are either petrified cases of nouns, pronouns and adjectives, or obscured phrases: as, **qod**, an old accusative. Most conjunctions are connected with pronominal adverbs, which cannot always be referred to their original case-forms.

8.5.2. Conjunctions connect words, phrases or sentences. They are divided in two main classes, Coordinate and Subordinate:

a. Coordinates are the oldest ones, which connect coordinated or similar constructions. All of them are put behind and are normally used as independent words. They are:

I. Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or separation of thought as well as of words: as, **qe**, *and*; **we**, *or*; **neqe**, *nor*.

II. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, **ma**, *but*.

III. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, **nam**, *for*.

IV. Illative, denoting an inference: as, **igitur**, *therefore*.

NOTE. Newer particles usually come before, and some of them are general, as the copulative **eti**, *and* (*et* in lat., probably with nasal infix in ger.), and illative **od**, *certainly*, or **odqe** in lat. Others are not so generalized.

b. Subordinates connect a subordinate or independent clause with that on which it depends. They are:

I. **jo**, which has general subordinate value (relative, final, conditional), and it is possibly related to the relative pronoun.

II. Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, **man**, *if*; **neman**, *unless*.

III. Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, **man**, *as if*.

IV. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, **qamqam**, *although* (lit. *however much it may be true that*, etc.).

V. Temporal: as, **postqam**, *after*.

VI. Consecutive, expressing result: as, **ut**(**i**), *so that*.

VII. Final, expressing purpose: as, **ut**(**i**), *in order that*; **ne**, *that not*.

VIII. Causal, expressing cause: as, **qia**, *because*.

Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Europaio than in English.

Criticisms

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We have included this section to facilitate the work for those who will want to criticize the Europaio option, so that they can think about new original arguments.

A. These are the most frequently encountered alternatives to *Europaio as the official language for Europe*, from more to less important:

1. One natural, living language: English or German. It is clearly the best option in practice after Europaio, as it imposes one language, wether that known by the majority of the International Community as second language, English, or the language which have more speakers than the others in the EU, German. I personally prefer German, but this option is clearly out of question, since the French and the English would probably never accept it. English should, then, be the one.

FOR: English and (to some extent) German are already known by many, and there is a huge number of English and German translators which should keep their jobs.

AGAINST: This option imposes the language of a minority to the whole, and it will always be a strange language for all but for the present speakers, never more than a *lingua franca*.

EUROPAIO: It is already the grandmother tongue of the larger part of Europe (those who speak modern IE dialects), and it would become the national language of the Europeans - not merely their *lingua franca* -, coexisting with present-day national and regional languages.

2. More than one natural, living language. This is the present situation, and is obviously the most respectful of the bad options the EU had before the revival of Europaio, but possibly not sustainable in the long term. There are lots of initiatives being currently held, such as the one which states that every European should speak at least three European (wether official or not) languages, apart from their official and co-official ones. Multilingualism seems thus to be the aim of the new Europe, at least in theory, because there are more than twenty official languages which can theoretically be spoken at the

EU Institutions, but only three are the *de facto* official (euphemistically called 'working') languages: English, German and French.

FOR: It respects (theoretically) the linguistic diversity, keeping each language (those officially recognized not to be only *dialects*) alive. Many translators will work thanks to Europeans' needs of understanding each other.

AGAINST: That all Europeans will be able to use their official mother tongues in all European Institutions is a known utopia, just as the assertion that Europeans will speak three official languages apart from their own/s. And, if more than one is to be official, why not just two languages? English and German are obvious selections, but, French? what about Spanish, which is the world's third most-spoken language? and if there should be four official languages, why not Polish and Italian, too, which have a number of speakers similar to Spanish in Europe? and why not Portuguese nor Dutch? and...? It is, then, above all, an unstable system, in which every speaker of a non-official language has a reason to protest against it, and an incentive to look for more spending in their national or regional language.

EUROPAIO: No single European language will be officially (or officiously) classified as better than the others, there is no discrimination of speakers. The budget for translations/interpretations will be minimized. There are no multiple *linguae francae*, but one national language. It is a stable system, where no single speaker has an incentive to ask for anything else. Even those who speak non-IE languages won't have an incentive to choose other options, as the whole Union takes advantage of the new linguistic unity, being thus able to concentrate their educational efforts on their own cultures.

3. One natural, dead language: Latin. The common assertion is that Latin has been the *lingua franca* in Europe for centuries, and that many European countries still teach it, so that it would not be very difficult to use it.

FOR: Latin is a known example of an old European language, used in the Roman Empire and later as lingua franca until the 18th century, and it is more or less still used, as Greek, for Academia and Science purposes.

AGAINST: Latin is only the ancestor of the Romance languages, and is thus an Indo-European dialect, such as Germanic or Old Greek. It is also the historical language of the Catholic Church, and Protestants and Orthodox (not to talk about Muslims) wouldn't consider it the best choice. It was a lingua franca in the past, as it is now English, and there is no reason to come back to a dead lingua franca, when we have a living accepted one.

EUROPAIO: It is the ancestor of all Indo-European languages, not only of the Romance ones. And the concept of Europaio is that of a living language (now living dialects) of a Union, not a *lingua franca* between nations.

4. One artificial language. Some - surprisingly not few - have proposed that known artificial languages, such as Volapük, Esperanto, Ido, Interlingua or Interlingue be used as lingua franca in the EU. Again, as in Latin, we have already a living and used *lingua franca*, i.e. English. And if we had to choose another, not living language, Latin would be the one. And, by the way, if we had to choose one of those invented by one man, why not Lojban, or Idiom Neutral, or Glosa, or Novial, etc.? and why not even Quenya, Klingon, or Ewokese?

B. The most frequently encountered criticisms about the *theoretical assumptions of Europaio* are the following, again from more to less important:

I. Some argue that IE III was spoken by a prehistoric society, and that no genuine sample texts are available. It was observed fifty years ago that comparative linguistics was not in the position to reconstruct a single well-formed sentence of IE III.

That is partly true, as it is said about IE III, and we cannot know how it was spoken. However, we are not looking for IE III, the prehistoric language, but for Europaio, a reconstructed system based on the old language, as Hebrew is a modern system based on an old language, from which there are no original written remains. In fact, we know very well how to reconstruct a language that is mother of most of the present-day spoken languages in the world; that was not so easy to do with old, dead Hebrew, as almost the whole system had to be reinvented from texts written centuries after its death, to adapt it to modern needs. To put it simple, while with Europaio we just have to eliminate the thousands of innovations of modern derived languages, with Hebrew one had to reinvent it almost altogether - and they did it well!.

What is true, however, is that Europe lacks today a social or political movement similar to that of Zionism one hundred years ago. We have, however, very strong political and economical reasons, with the EU in the edge of becoming a real National entity; as well as new media (such as the Internet and the Television) to make this task still better and at a quicker pace than the Israelis a hundred years ago.

II. Related to the above criticism, there are some assertions about the impossibility of achieving an accurate Europaio from the old languages, as it would be from the romance

languages to derive Vulgar Latin (the spoken Latin, not the artificial and highly stylized, mainly literary, Classic Latin).

This is true. As it is true that there was no accurate Vulgar Latin, but only dialects. Even when Rome was only made of some provinces under a Classic Latin system, different dialects were already spoken, and they split up into dialects, and so on until today. What we could do without having written Latin texts is to reconstruct a language based on the common features of the written remains of old romance languages and the spoken modern languages. The output language would certainly not resemble Classic Latin, but it would reflect better than it the old, common spoken dialectal system. We could then create a language system based on the most successful living dialects: wouldn't it be more natural and easier to learn for speakers of Romance languages than Classic Latin?

Furthermore, compared with Latin (and with any other known language ancestor), we have a huge amount of evidence of lots of IE dialects, dead and alive. We think that, even if we had written tablets of IE III (as with the Anatolian dialects), the choice would have had to be made between a) to reconstruct an IE III based on the known sample texts, or b) to make this same Europaio, based on the information of living and dead languages that we have, so that a more natural, living Europaio could be obtained.

III. Others dislike our approach to the Europaio, as they have their own theories about how the common ancestor should look like.

We firmly believe we include (and will keep including) almost every single reasonable view - wether from scholars or not- about the forms reconstructed, we even try to give alternating possibilities; but we have to take decisions to keep working. Sometimes consensus is just impossible.

IV. A few argue about the possibility of obtaining an earlier Europaio, before the third stage, and make a modern Europaio based on IE II or even on PIE.

Although possible, it would not give any advantage but for a supposed rather simpler system, and it would on the other hand bring a lot of difficulties in the reconstruction. Furthermore, the pretended simplicity of the system could also become a great disadvantage, as many expressions now possible with modern languages would need to be remade by way of lots of figures of speech.

V. Finally, some (generally old) Classical Languages scholars (of Latin and Greek mainly) argue the very existence of the Indo-European language, assuming that strictly a Language is only that which is written and renowned. Thus, for example, for some Spanish Latin scholars, two thousand years ago only Greek and Latin existed in Europe; to talk about other languages is then to speculate. Some also try to find a broader agreement by softening these theories, including other criteria for their individual *lists of real languages*; for example, some include late Germanic and Celtic dialects, because of some stone inscriptions. Similar *lists* are sustained by scholars of different languages, indeed always including the languages more renowned than their own, so that the one they study appears in the *real group* of their *real/speculated languages scheme*.

These are opinions based on a fruitless discussion about what should be considered language, and what not. We think that, if the Europaio becomes the written, national, renowned language of Europe, this criticism will logically disappear altogether, just as the strong initial opposition of some to the revived modern Hebrew is nowadays muted by its success.

Colophon

This work is the result of others' work as well as our own experience, and of feedback from various channels. Distinctive covers complement our distinctive approach to the Indo-European reconstruction topics, breathing personality and life into this potentially dry subject.

It is not the aim of this book to be an entertainment, though. For some years I have been studying regional dialects and languages, and I know that especially linguistic unity is destructive with a great cultural heritage as is the linguistic diversity.

This Europaio was initially thought to protect the minority languages and dialects. It is impossible to maintain this diversity if one has to learn three or more official languages (those which have a country supporting them) to be a valuable citizen of the European Union. This goal, which begun more or less accidentally (certainly with good intentions) with the European Year of Languages in 2001, seems to be a growing demand, as some politicians still insist on this goal for the future. In this environment of cruel linguistic competition, some minority language communities have been struggling for more popularity, even trying to obtain official status for them before the EU Institutions, while other communities (those which don't have enough population or wealth to be important at an European scale) have chosen not to compete, and either ignore its cultural diversity - thus competing for their national languages-, or directly oppose further European integration as their way of fighting cultural destruction. While the aim of the EU's measures has been the defense of all European languages, it is clearly undermined by the actual policy of giving an extra-official linguistic hierarchy based on the political relevance of its speakers' community.

I cannot imagine a better linguistic future for Europe than this one: a Europe which respects the multiple regional languages, dialects and speeches; which also gives a special official value to the present official languages, as they are important for external relations and commerce (European languages are spoken mainly outside Europe), and for national communication, and they are an important cultural common heritage; and, above all, an Europe where one language, Europaio, is used by all as a right and as a duty; where modernity means unity under one country and one language; where everybody can travel everywhere inside the European borders without having to use

third-parties' languages, being able to communicate everything in the own language, feeling thus at home everywhere.

Linguistic diversity of Western Europe: it includes regional languages, dialects and speeches (the abbreviations used are those of the original language or dialect name). Copyleft © 2006 Dnghu, © 2006 Carlos Quiles [© dgoal]

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