

# The Full Avdenio Study Guide

## English Edition

### Part 1: Introduction to Avdenio

Avdenio is an artificial auxiliary language composed by artist and amateur linguist Lucas Wright. Its outstanding features include:

1. **Diverse** ancestry of vocabulary.
2. **Simple** syntax and pronunciation.
3. **Aesthetic** sound system with a focus on euphony and ease.
4. **Flexible** grammar and phonetic forms.

It is largely informed by the advances and shortcomings of pioneering artificial languages such as Lojban, Esperanto, Ido, and Novial. Like its forerunners, it is designed to minimize the task of second language acquisition by adhering to simple, minimal rules of grammar. Its laws of spelling, pronunciation, and word structure are completely regular, sparing the learner of the inconsistency and complexity of a natural lingua franca.

In the spirit of inclusion, the vocabulary of Avdenio mainly takes origin in fifteen of the most widely spoken world languages, across nine families; Ethnologue statistics have been referenced for this purpose. This is a provision to create more mnemonic connections with the vocabulary of the speaker's native language, as well as any other languages they might have studied. Avdenio vocabulary is not only familiar and culturally neutral, but it also encourages multilingualism by fostering the study of its parent languages. Even the name 'Avdenio' is an example of the language's broad origins; it is a compound of the roots /avden/ "combination, hybrid" and /io/ "language", which draw respectively from Russian *ob"edinat'* and Mandarin *yǔ*.

Avdenio places a high value on not only reliability and simplicity, but also aesthetics. This is an area of language construction that is rarely addressed directly by the notable makers of auxlangs. It is arguable that a language of internationally projected scope would only happily be adopted if speakers found it pleasing to hear, speak or read. The designer of Avdenio has taken aesthetic prerogatives and artistic license; the language is put together according to admittedly arbitrary tastes. However as use of the language grows, new words will doubtlessly be introduced based on the backgrounds and preferences of real speakers. Influences on the style of Avdenio include languages like Swedish, Japanese, Finnish, Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and Hebrew. These sources have culminated in a form of speech resembling no modern language but referencing many. Pains have been taken to prevent the subordination of easy speech to euphonious vanity; worldwide access is the prime motivator in this project.

It should be noted by those interested in studying Avdenio that this is an expansile project, currently only in nucleic form. Avdenio should be thought of as an *open source language*, and by nature the project invites new learners and linguists from all parts of the world. Its grammatical, allophonic, and lexical schemes welcome the adjustment and manipulation of communities of speakers. But despite this inherent elbow room, it is intended that there will always be a standard register taught in initial tutorials and managed by a central body of linguists. There will be stewards of the

universal register (hereafter called the **common mode**), but not necessarily of the various dialects that will inevitably spring up (called **local modes**, or informally *dialects*). The common mode is somewhat influenced by English grammatical style, a concession made in the wake of the near universal adoption of English as a trade language. It is this form of Avdenio which will be used in these instructional articles. The **euphonic mode** is also available as a simplified pronunciation of the more naturalistic common mode.

Avdenio is in all these ways a progressive specimen of engineered speech, with many attractive and sensible traits. It eliminates irregular forms found in natural languages, and at the outset it is mnemonically familiar to fifteen divergent communities. It is pleasing to speak or hear, and allows for stylistic manipulation. Avdenio encourages the study of other languages, all the while allowing dialectic departure from its own central format. It does have a semi-standard register, but it is built to be flexible so that sentences can be arranged according to the grammatical trends of many unrelated languages. It is a system to share and to personalize; a project of inclusion, belonging to everybody.

This beginning course will deal primarily with the common mode of Avdenio. Let's get started.

## **Part 2: Pronunciation and Orthography**

The idea of ease is central to the Avdenio project. As such, the method of spelling and speaking is designed to be very practical. While Avdenio is acceptably written in the Roman alphabet, and potentially any other, it does have its own alphabetic system. The English-speaking course will use the Romanized Avdenio alphabet, with occasional Anglicized phonetic guides in parenthesis. The native alphabet of Avdenio is a hybrid of many world writing systems, and is explained in a separate course.

In the common mode the language uses 23 roman characters and three addition digraphs (single sounds written with two characters): **p b f v m t d s z j r l n k g h a e i u o è t j d j s j** (the last four can also be rendered **y q x c** respectively.) In the euphonic mode, each one of these letters represents a single unambiguous sound, with the digraphs representing fricative or affricate sound combinations. In more relaxed speech many letters and combinations can blend, but to be understood, speaking exactly as one reads is all that is required. The following is an explanation of standard pronunciation by letter, tailored towards English speaking students of Avdenio.

Avdenio letters and digraphs are clarified with English speaking pronunciation in parenthesis. Transliterations using the International Phonetic Alphabet or IPA will appear in brackets, the left most value being the recommended pronunciation in common mode.

### **Consonants**

**p, b, f, v, m, t, d, z, n, k, h** > As in the received pronunciation of 21st Century English, though preferably crisp and un-aspirated as per their value in the IPA.

**s** > [s] Always as in pass, never as in *misery*.

**g** > [g] Always hard as in *gain*, never as in *gene*.

**j** > (zh) [ʒ, ʒ̥, z̥, z] Soft and voiced, as in French *jour* or English *treasure*, but never as in *Jack* or *jet*.

**sj** > (sh) [ʃ, ʃ̥, s̥, s] As English 'sh' in *short*. Also acceptably written /c/.

**dj** > (j) [dʒ, dʒ̥, dʒ̥, dʒ] Always as English 'j' in *judge*. Also acceptably written /x/.

**tj** > (ch) [tʃ, tʃ̥, tʃ̥, tʃ] As English 'ch' in *change*. Also acceptably written /q/.

**l** > [l, ɫ] Pronounced with the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth; the pharyngeal 'dark l' is acceptable.

**r** > [r, r̥, ɾ, ɾ̥, ɽ, ɽ̥, ʀ, ʀ̥, ʁ, ʁ̥] Flicked or trilled in the common mode, as in Spanish and Italian, though acceptably pronounced as the approximate 'dark r' in North American English or the guttural trill of French, German, or Hebrew. When appearing before other consonants or word-finally, /r/ is also acceptable as the rhoticized vowel of Danish or British English.

## Vowels

**a** > (ah / uh) [a, ɑ, æ, ə] As Spanish *casa* or English *farm*. Non-standard variants such as the vowels of *bank* or *pawn* are available, as well as the unstressed 'schwa' of *sauna*.

**e** > (eh / ay) [ɛ, e] As English *met* or *vein*, never as in *meme* or *seem*.

**i** > (ee) [i, ɪ, ɪ̥, j] As Italian *vino* or English *tier*, never as in *sign* or *dime*. When appearing before or after another vowel, it is optionally pronounced as a semivowel, as in English *billiard* or the 'y' in *yacht*. Unstressed variants such as the vowel in *sit* are permitted but nonstandard.

**u** > (oo) [u, ʊ, y, ʊ, ʊ̥, w] As German *Buch* or English *soup*, never as *shut* or *use*. When appearing before or after another vowel, it is optionally pronounced as a semivowel, as in English *equal* or the 'w' in *was*. The iotacized realization of French *tu* or the reduced vowel of English *should* is accepted but nonstandard.

**o** > (oh / oa) [ɔ, o] As English *roam* or *cove*, never as *do*, *dot* or *done*.

**ê** > (eh, uh, ih) [ɛ̥, ɜ̥, ə̥, ɪ̥, ʏ̥, ɨ̥, ʉ̥] Any unstressed 'schwa' sound or central mid-close vowel, as in English *led*, *dug* or *edit*. This is the euphonic or 'linking' vowel that is used to connect word parts. It is commonly written and pronounced /e/, since its position usually differentiates it from the cardinal vowel /e/. Otherwise /y/, /ë/, /ě/, /ə/ are acceptable if the dotted /ê/ is unavailable but the distinction from /e/ is desired. The uses of this vowel are addressed in detail in a later section.

## Diphthongs

In its purest form, written Avdenio has a strict character-to-sound correspondence. That means that all Avdenio words can be spoken exactly as they are written, letter for letter. In many cases two or more vowels can appear in a row. Speakers are advised to pronounce each vowel individually, such as are the diphthongs found in Italian and Japanese. Common vowel combinations are explained below:

**ai** > (ah-ee / eye) [aɪ̥, aɪ̥, æɪ̥, əɪ̥, ai] As in *rhyme*, *vine* or *Shanghai*; never as *rain* or *renaissance*.

**ae** > (ah-eh / eye) [aɛ̄, aɛ̄, aɪ̄, ae] As the joint vowels in rawest, though acceptably pronounced the same as /ai/ above; never as in Gaelic or aesthetic.

**au** > (ah-oo / ow) [aʊ̄, ɔʊ̄, æʊ̄, əʊ̄, au] Most like Spanish auto and English owl, out or Audi; never as author or sauce.

**ao** > (ah-oh / ow) [aɔ̄, aɔ̄, aʊ̄, ao] As in Mandarin 好 hǎo or the combined vowels of English law-ordinance, though acceptably the same as /au/.

**ei** > (eh-ee / ay) [eɪ̄, ɛɪ̄, ei] As in gain, lane or day; never as German ein or English receive.

**eu** > (eh-oo / ehw) [ɛʊ̄, eʊ̄, eu] Similar to the vowels in the phrase may-use, or as the Spanish city Ceuta; never as in Eugene or re-use.

**eo** > (eh-oh / ay-oh) [ɛɔ̄, ɛɔ̄, ɛʊ̄, eo] Most like Italian teologica or the joint vowels of English day-old; acceptably realized the same as /eu/.

**ea** > (eh-ah / ay-ah) [ɛɑ̄, eɑ̄, eə̄, ea] As in both vowels of the phrases day-off or optionally stay-up; never as react or really.

**oi** > (oh-ee / oy) [ɔɪ̄, ɔɪ̄, oi] As in boy, coil or optionally coincidence.

**oe** > (oh-eh / oy) [ɔɛ̄, oɛ̄, oe] Most like coexist or low-end, with optional articulation as the prior diphthong /oe/; never pronounced as in canoe or Oedipus.

**ou** > (oh-uu / ohw) [ɔʊ̄, ɔʊ̄, ou] As in bow or though; never as in route, could or through.

**oa** > (oh-ah / ow-ah) [ɔɑ̄, oɑ̄, oə̄, oa] As in English coauthor, go-away or Spanish yo-abro; never as in boat or broad.

**ui** > (oo-ee / wee) [ʊɪ̄, ʊɪ̄, ui] As in Spanish cuidado and English suite, queen or to-eat; never as in quite or suit. A non-standard lax pronunciation, as in quit, is possible.

**ue** > (oo-eh / weh) [ʊɛ̄, ʊɛ̄, ue] As in quest, suede or Suez; never as query or hue.

**uo** > (oo-oh / woh) [ʊɔ̄, ʊɔ̄, uo] As in quote, won't, or the vowels of new-order.

**ua** > (oo-ah / wah) [ʊɑ̄, ʊə̄, ua] As in quarry, watt, or dual; never as equate or square.

**ie** > (ee-eh / yeh) [ɪɛ̄, ɪɛ̄, ie] As in Spanish siempre and English Yale, yesterday, or re-aim; never as tier, fried or diet.

**io** > (ee-oh / yoh) [ɪɔ̄, ɪɔ̄, io] As in Japanese Tokyo and English creole or yoke; never as lion or biology.

**iu** > (ee-oo / yoo) [ɪʊ̄, ɪʊ̄, iu] As in reunion, use, or yew.

**ia** > (ee-ah / yah) [ɪɑ̄, ɪə̄, ia] As in Spanish día and English Austria, yard or realign; never as dial.

## Stress

The grammatical system of Avdenio depends on a system of root words, as does syllabic stress. Excepting articles, all words are built on word roots containing one or two syllables, and at least two letters. Aside from proper nouns - names and places - no native roots have more than two core syllables, with the exception of an initial or final /è/ for ease of pronunciation. All roots end in the consonants /p, t, k, b, d, g, f, s, v, z, j, h, m, n, l, r/, digraphs /tj, dj, sj/ or vowels /e, o, u/. In any word or word combination, the stress always falls on the nucleic root noun; more specifically, it falls on the syllable before the last consonant of that root. While not necessary for everyday writing in Avdenio, this tutorial makes use of the acute accent (i.e. the signs á, é, í, ú, ó) to clarify primary stress and the grave accent (à, è, ì, ù, ò) to show secondary stress caused by

word compounds. At the same time the accents indicate where the roots of a given word form are. Below are a few examples of words and their stress:

- *kás* (**kahs**) “speech” > There are two consonants and one syllable, and so the stress is on the single vowel preceding the final /s/.
- *jé* (**zheh**) “it, he, her” > This is an example of a one-syllable root, a pronoun with no final consonant. Stress can only fall on the final /e/.
- *arvéis* (ahr-**veys**) “work” > The final consonant of the root is /s/, and it is preceded by the stressed vowels /ei/. This is true of the root when standing alone, or with any suffix (Example: *arvéisa* “to work”, *arvéisrun* “great work”, *arvéisfeos* “work tool”)
- *ákoi* (**ah-koy**) “wrong” > This root ends in two vowels, and the last consonant is /k/ and thus the stress is on the preceding /a/.
- *iuhán* (yoo-**hahn**) “travel” > Like the third example, this root has two syllables. The last consonant is /n/ and the stress is put on the preceding single /a/.
- *vérén* (**veh-rehn**) “our” > This word also ends in the consonant /n/, but this is a suffix and not part of the root word *ve* “me, I”. The stress is on a syllable of the root, not necessarily the last consonant of the entire word. Many words have suffixes and even prefixes, so the stress assists in clarifying the root core of a word, thus disambiguating the meaning.
- *Tjónguir* (**choan-gweer**) “the people of China” > There are two parts: the proper root /tjong/ “China” and the articles /u+ir/ meaning a collective or group of living things. If the first word stood alone, it would be stressed as *Tjóngé* before the last consonant cluster /ng/, and it is likewise stressed even when given a collective suffix.
- *mèosásjté* (meh-ohs-**ash-teh**) “highest regard, greatest notice, standing out” > This is actually a compound word made of more than one root. The parts comprising it are /meos/ “most, greatest” and /asjt(é)/ “notice”. In compounds of roots, the last root in the sequence in the head, and all those prefixed to it are modifiers. Thus it is before the final consonant of the final root that stress is always heard. In ambiguous situations, the secondary stress of the modifying root can be indicated with a grave accent - à, è, ì, ù, ò – exemplified in *kànpéndai* “flexible”. The hardest stress is on the head adjective, *péndai* “bending”, but a softer stress before the last consonant of the first root, *kan* “ability”.

It should be remembered that stress is only a peripheral aspect of Avdenio. If clearly pronounced, words don't necessarily need to exhibit stress to be understood, much as in Japanese. Other non-standard accent systems available to Avdenio speakers include placing a pitch accent over the first, penultimate, or last vowel of each entire word, regardless of the location of the root. This provision is offered to assist use with speakers of languages that do not use stress in the occidental fashion.

### **Part 3: Essentials of Grammar**

Clarity and consistency are vital to the aims of the Avdenio Project. While there is great diversity of origin among roots and articles, they are all treated the same under the rules of grammar.

## Word Order and Syntax

In the common mode, the standard order of words is **Subject-Verb-Object (SVO)**, both in statements and questions. For example, the phrase “a woman is passing the man” is translated as *ien péitra o iov*. The woman is the agent - the **object** - of the act, and so *ien* comes before the action, the present-tense **verb** *péitra*. The **subject** or patient of the verb, the man who is being passed, follows the verb to show its role in the sentence, and in this order no modifier or article is needed.

To facilitate flexibility, other word orders are made possible by the use of **articles, prepositions** and **suffixes** – related semi-words and word endings designed to clarify the interaction and meaning of roots. One ending already present in the phrase above is the **present tense article /-(é)ra, ra/** of *péitra*, indicating that the root /peit/ “a pass” is an action now being performed.

Two other markers are sometimes used with nouns, the **nominative article /-(é)s, és/** and **accusative article /-(é)m, ém/**, the markers of the subject and object respectively. Like many articles in Avdenio, these are only optionally used, and can be implied by the previously discussed word order of SVO. However if the speaker wishes to change the order, either for the sake of emphasis or to follow the style of their native language, the above articles can be used to make the word function clear. Thus the following sentences all have the same meaning, “a woman is asking the man”, but with different word order, stress and rhythm: *ien bídra o iov* > *iénés bídra o ióvém* > *bídra iénés o ióvém* > *o ióvém iénés bídra*.

In English, word order is how statements and questions - the 'indicative' and 'interrogative' moods - are differentiated. However, this is not necessary in Avdenio. To turn a statement into a question, the **interrogative conjunction /mae/** “is it so that...?” or words based on the **interrogative pronoun /he/** “what” are used. These words make it clear that the phrase is a question, and so again any word order is conceivable without making the meaning unclear. This is illustrated by the following examples:

- *Dítè mírda o hiléf*. “The child saw the bread”.
- *Mae o dítè mírda o hiléf?* “Did the child see the bread?”
- *Dítè mírda he?* “What did the child see?”
- *Heu mírda o hiléf?* “Who saw the bread?”

## Basic Parts of Speech

A recurring theme in the Avdenio language is the idea of building upon roots. Roots are not the only kind of basic word though; conjunctions and articles make up a large part of the available vocabulary. In fact many articles can be used much as roots when modified with suffixed articles. To begin with, it behooves the learner to be familiar with the basic forms and endings of most Avdenio words.

- **Root Nouns:** All words ending in consonants or the vowels /-e/, /-è/, /-o/, /-u/. Standing alone, roots always refer to a noun or pronoun; a person, being, place, thing, time, act, or quality. Example: *Rien* “human”, *dru* “pig”, *he* “what”, *álo* “daytime”, *ámbo* “happiness”, *táepé* “answer”, *hávéstis* “goodness”.
- **Animate Nouns:** All words ending in or suffixed with /-u/ refer to living things: People, animals and any other organic life, even if already deceased. Example: *Kavénu* “spouse”, *Áejou* “Asian (person/being)”, *áensu* “goose”.
- **Inanimate Nouns:** All words ending in /-(è)z/ refer to non-living objects. Example: *Láevaz* “laugh”, *biévtaz* “beverage”.
- **Verbs:** All words ending in /-a/ refer to actions and states, like English “to run” and “to relax”. When lacking this ending, roots referring to actions function as gerunds - verbal nouns such as English “running” or “relaxation”. Verbal endings that refer to tense, aspect and mood likewise end in /a/ and will be addressed more fully in subsequent sections. Example: *Óera* “hear”, *djúva* “cook”.
- **Adjectives:** All words ending with /-i/ refer to descriptions and qualities that modify adjacent roots; words in English like “small” and “clean”. Many roots are inherently adjectival, describing a trait or manner of being, but when the ending /-i/ is absent the word becomes a substantive adjective, such as English “smallness” or “severity”. Example: *Stékétai* “plugged up”, *sváoi* “flimsy”.
- **Adverbs:** All words suffixed with /-(è)sti/ function as adverbs. A subclass of adjectives, they modify or describe the qualities of verbs, and sometimes other adjectives. They share the descriptive /-i/ ending. These are words that describe how things are done, Example: *Fisiéntésti* “sufficiently”, *dúrestj* “at length”.
- **Participles:** All words suffixed with /-ai/ function to treat verbs as adjectives, either in the infinitive or other conjugations. In English such phrases as “the walking man” and the “the departed boats” exemplify participles, which describe words using actions or states. Example: *Áedrai* ‘aging’, *kânaléirai* ‘enjoyable’.
- **Conjunctions:** All words ending in or suffixed with /-ae/. The previous parts of speech are used to assemble words into a clause, but conjunctions are instrumental in linking clauses. They include English words like “moreover”, “then” and “meanwhile”. Example: *Fáejae* “surprisingly”, *téoskae* “furthermore”.
- **Compounds:** Two or more roots affixed to each other, with the modifying root being prefixed to the head – the final root word of the combination. Neologism and specifications of terms are often created using compounds. These broaden the scope of Avdenio vocabulary without adding more fundamental roots to its word stock.

## Euphonic /è/

This vowel is often used in the common mode before, between, and after roots and articles. /è/ is a linking vowel that is used to space apart consonant clusters and follow many hard final sounds that some speakers may find difficult to pronounce. The pronunciation of /è/ is covered in Part 2; its default sound in the common mode is the

same as /e/, or else more lax like the vowel in English “tug” or “landed”. In the common mode this sound never takes stress, and there are a few advised conventions regarding its use.

1. After roots ending in the voiceless plosive consonants /p, t, k/ or any consonant clusters. It is impartially allowed by the common mode that voiced plosives /b, d, g/ not be followed by /è/, but in the dictionary they are listed with a final linking vowel. Examples of the use of the euphonic vowel are roots /asjt/+/è/ > *ásjté* “notice”, /naek/+/è/ > *náeké* “deprivation”. It is suggested in particular that the above consonants and clusters containing /p, t, k/ should take the suffix /è/, but not necessarily those containing /b, d, g/ or any liquid consonants. In the common mode, the following root endings are acceptably euphonic without /è/: *liésj* “history” because /sj/ is really a single sound [ʃ] represented by a digraph, and *tals* “three” because both final consonants are soft non-plosives, or ‘liquids’. Nonetheless all final clusters are normally listed in the Avdenio lexicon with the final /è/.
2. Between word compounds and suffixed articles, mainly to divide the resultant consonant clusters which the speaker finds difficult to pronounce. The common mode holds that geminates (double consonants like /tt, gg, ss/) are allowable, being pronounced twice as long or otherwise emphatically, e.g. /mir+ra/ > *mírra* “seeing, sees”. Two-letter clusters are allowed if at least one is a liquid consonant, e.g. /hav+sul+i/ > *hàvsúli*, “good-sounding, euphonious”. Two consecutive plosives (p, t, k, b, d, g) are not recommended, e.g. /naek+(è)+tai/ > *náekétai* “being withheld” instead of *náektai*. Clusters of three consonants are not advised in the common mode (thus /pend+ra/ > *péndéra* “is bending” but in natural speech such clusters are conceivable if at least two are liquids, e.g. *péndra*).
3. In the **euphonic mode**, the purpose of which is to optionally eliminate all dense consonant clusters. In this mode, the euphonic /è/ can be prefixed or suffixed to all roots and articles, but the characters within roots should not be altered. Thus the roots /plen/ “plan” and /jeig+ra/ “building, builds” in the common mode are rendered *plènjéigra* “designing”, but in a more euphonic mode they could become *éplènéjéigéra*. A plausible hyper-euphonic rendering might even be *pélènéjéigéra*. Learners should note that it is not advised by the common mode to alter the roots themselves; this could obscure meaning or neglect brevity. It is the preference of the Avdenio project to encourage pronunciation as a skill, and this is why certain final consonants and consonant clusters are encouraged. Notwithstanding this, euphonic and hyper-euphonic renderings are offered for those learners whose mother tongues prefer more “consonant-vowel” syllable structure with limited final consonants, such as Japanese, Italian and Mandarin. Adding /è/ before a root starting in two consonants would likewise assist speakers of Spanish or Farsi, who might find such clusters difficult without an initial vowel.

## Articles (Suffixes & Prepositions)



This twofold grouping of words is responsible for relating all words within a clause or phrase. In their simplest form articles are made up of as few as one letter, such as the endings /-(è)s/ and /-(è)m/ as seen above. Articles take many forms, but over all they are directive or relative words; just as English prepositions “to”, “for”, “with”, or endings “-ing” and “-ly”. Each has two forms, and either is equally employable to the preference of the speaker.

The form of the **suffix** - an addition to the end of the root word - is sometimes seen with a euphonic /è/ preceding it for ease of pronunciation, in particular when the suffix follows a consonant.

It is also admissible within the grammar of Avdenio to use the same article as a **preposition**, also with the euphonic /è/ preceding in some cases. This is standard in the common mode for articles without an inherent vowel, such as /-(è)m/ and /-(è)s/. These endings can thus be used as separate words, resulting in the **nominative preposition /ès/** and **accusative preposition /ém/**. Example: *Mae kópva ém sio és o rien?* “Will the person buy a book?”

Like their suffix counterparts, these markers allow the word order to change, for example with the object /sio/ “book” coming before the subject /rien/ “person”. This suffix/preposition duality is applicable to virtually all articles; they can be had both as endings and precedent modifiers. They are interchangeable to the speaker’s preference. The common mode only advises that the speaker uses them somewhat consistently, though this is very open to interpretation.

There are only two articles, both optionally included in the common mode, which cannot be had as suffixes:

1. The **definite article /ol** “the”, used before nouns and adjectives to show that they have already been introduced in the discourse, or before referents of definite and unique identity. It is optionally but not usually used before names and places.
2. The **indefinite article /oel** “a, an, some”, used before nouns and adjectives that are new or unspecified within the context of the discourse.

These articles are not commonly used as endings because many roots already end in /o/ and /e/; ambiguity would result from such suffixes. In addition, double consonants are found in common Avdenio, but double vowels are not.

#### **Part 4: Verbs**

All roots, even those referring to actions, states and behaviors, are nouns in their unaffixed root form. Only when suffixed with or preceded by the **verbal article /a/** can the root function as an action or state. For example, the common mode recognizes that the phrase *te kásā vántji várér* means “you say five words”, whereas *te kas vántji várér* approximately means “you speech five words”. While /a/ is the basic article of a verb, many other endings based on this word-part fall within the class of verbal articles. They function to specify tense, mood, aspect, and other attributes of states and actions.

- **Indicative Mood:** /-a/ (prep. /a/) - Verbs being performed in reality, whether at an unspecified time, or a time that is already clear through context. The indicative is also used when modifying one verb with another through copula, as in the phrase *jer éka arvéisá* "we go to work" or *te kána óera* "you can hear". In this way the tense-less indicative doubles as an infinitive. This article can stand alone as the indicative verb /a/ "to be, is, exists" without marking person, number or tense.
- **Present Tense:** /-(è)ra/ (prep. /ra/) - Verbs being performed at the time of the discourse, i.e. "being, running, working". Standing alone /ra/ acts as the present tense verb "is, am, are, exists". Example: *O istúrias sángerá*. "The instructor is playing music."
- **Past Tense:** /-(è)da/ (prep. /da/) - Verbs being performed before the time of the discourse, i.e. "did, ran, worked". Standing alone /da/ acts as the past tense verb "was, were, existed". Example: *Imánien ven kuómđá*. "My sister ate."
- **Future Tense:** /-(è)va/ (prep. /va/) - Verbs being performed after the time of the discourse, i.e. "will do, will run, will work". Standing alone /va/ acts as the future tense verb "will be, shall exist". Example: *He bitánva?* "What will happen?"
- **Subjunctive Mood:** /-ea/ (prep. /ea/) - Verbs referring to actions and states of varying unreality; wishes, possibilities, suggestions, conditions, and hypothetical situations, e.g. "would do, could run, may work". Standing alone /ea/ acts as the present subjunctive verb "would be, may exist". Example: *Rein ea páska rástir ten*. "Rain would nourish your plants." As with all articles, the subjunctive can be matched with any other ending, but the following three articles are most common.
- **Present Subjunctive:** /-(è)rea/ (prep. /rea/) - Verbs being hypothetically performed at the time of the discourse, i.e. "would be existing, could be running, might be working". Standing alone /rea/ acts as the present subjunctive verb "would be, might now exist". Example: *Je ábreá an sje éslae je kánrea*. "He/she would be living here if he/she could."
- **Past Subjunctive:** /-(è)dea/ (prep. /dea/) - Verbs being hypothetically performed before the time of the discourse, i.e. "would have been, could have ran, might have worked". Standing alone /dea/ acts as the past subjunctive verb "would have been, could have existed". Example: *Sao deá hávi*. "Such would have been good."
- **Future Subjunctive:** /-(è)vea/ (prep. /vea/) - Verbs being hypothetically performed after the time of the discourse, i.e. "would be, could run, might later work". Standing alone /vea/ acts as the future subjunctive verb "would then be, may exist in the future". Example: *Márko kerveá súra jez hàodáej*. "Marco would want to do ittomorrow."
- **Habitual Mood:** /-(è)sa/ (prep. /sa/) Verbs regularly or ritually performed, either due to inherent nature or conscious repetition. English examples lie in the phrases "geese fly, humans live, the planet rotates". When alone, /sa/ stands for the habitual verb "generally is, habitually exists". Example: *Húkèr to filèr kátlésa*. "Dogs and cats (generally) fight." Tenses and other moods can be specified in habitual verbs, but alone the article does not have inherent tense. The common

mode prefers the prior markers in this list to come before the habitual, whether as endings or prepositions. This and following articles are usually suffixed to words in the order of this list, unless another style feels more natural to the speaker.

- **Passive Mood:** /-(è)ta/ (prep. /ta/) Actions that are being done to the subject, rather than being done by the subject. Thus the subject of the sentence becomes the patient of the verb, reversing the nominative/accusative roles that were previously discussed. An example is the English passive in “the young woman was met by a friend” contrasting with the active “the young woman met a friend”. Standing alone /ta/ means something like “is done to”. Example: *Ver da fánota*. “We were separated.”
- **Causative Mood:** /-(è)ja/ (prep. /ja/) - When one noun causes or compels another to act, that verb is marked by this article. In the English phrase “Uncle made his dog go outside”, the “made...go” construction is the causative verb. Standing on its own /ja/ signifies “causes to be”. Example: *O viaháduir daja kamiéla végo o arvéis*. “The company had me finish the work.”  
**Note:** Causative verbs have two agents; one that compels the action, and one that actually performs it. In transitive verbs there will also be a patient; that to which the act is done. While word order can sufficiently clarify all three roles (*je mirja ve o tso* “he/she makes me see the mistake”), it is also suggested for extra clarity to mark the compelled agent with the oblique /go/, and optionally the compelling agent with nominative /ès/ and the patient (if any) with the accusative /èm/. Thus the prior example could be clarified as *je mirja végo o tso*, or even *jes mirja végo o tsom*. These articles will be further explained in Part 5.
- **Optative Mood:** /-(è)tra/ (prep. /ètra/) Verbs that would be carried out in ideal or preferred scenarios. This article corresponds to English modal verbs like “should” and “ought to”. It has a significance similar to the subjunctive, usually speaking of hypothetical situations and actions that are preferred or desired. /ètra/ can stand alone to mean “ought to be, should exist”. Example: *Elís ékétra din mídré jen*. “Elise should go with her friend”
- **Imperative Mood:** /-ia/ (prep. /ia/) Verbs acting as commands and requests from the speaker to be carried out by the listener, as in English “mow the lawn!” or “please bring some water”. When used alone /ia/ has a meaning like “be!” or “exist!” Example: *Médae nae anféria*. “Don’t leave yet”.
- **Cohortative Mood:** /-(è)sja/ (prep. /sja/) Verbs acting as invitations; actions to be performed by the speaker and listener jointly. Examples include the phrases “let’s go for a walk” or “shall we get the paint?” When used on its own /sja/ is analogous to “Let’s be, let’s exist.” Example: *Ver sja kéda eo go kíalur*. “Let’s give one to each of them.”
- **Inceptive Aspect:** /-(è)kua/ (prep. /kua/) Verbs referring to actions as they begin, similar to English phrases “start doing”. /kua/ can stand alone as the verb “start being, begin existence”. Example: *Ueísjín dákuá djúva*. “Wěixīn started cooking.”
- **Progressive Aspect:** /-(è)ska/ (prep. /éska/) Verbs expressing actions as they progress, extend or remain incomplete, as in English “keep doing” and “continue to act”. It is similar to the imperfect aspect of Romance languages, though it can be combined with other besides the past. On its own /éska/ connotes “keep being,

continue existence”. Example: *Jeu vaska sínta árvonen*. “He/she will keep sitting under a tree.”

- **Terminative Aspect:** /-(è)nda/ (prep. /ènda/) Actions as they stop or end, whether they are completed or aborted, similar to English “quit doing” and “end action.” Standing alone /ènda/ is analogous to “stop being, quit existing.” Example: *Dítir sjei dójménda*. “This group of children stopped quarreling.”
- **Perfective Aspect:** /-(è)tja/ (prep. /tja/) Verbs signifying acts as they are finished, fulfilled or completed, e.g. English “have done”, “finish doing” and “complete act”. Alone /tja/ means “finish being, complete existence”. Example: *Maer ra kámtja*. “The tide has come in.”
- **Repetitive Aspect:** /-(è)vua/ (prep. /vua/) Verbs expressing repeating, redundant or frequent actions. English constructs such as “keep on doing” and “do over and over” are analogous, especially when /vua/ is used in conjunction with the durative /ska/. When alone, /vua/ means “to repeat” or “to carry on existing”. Example: *Sabíre ravua kása ten ésmé*. “Sabirah keeps saying your name.”
- **Momentane Aspect:** /-(è)sta/ (prep. /èsta/) Verbs signifying acts of short, sudden or punctuated duration - as in English “act suddenly” or “do momentarily”. /èsta/ can stand alone as a verb to mean “to suddenly/briefly be”. Example: *O isán tóedésta*. “The horse jumps all of a sudden.”
- **Transitive Verb:** /-(è)za/ (prep. /za/) Verbs that take a patient or object, whether stated or implied. When alone, /za/ approximately means “to do something to something/something”. Example: *O iúnien káedza o tjákré*. “The young girl rolls the wheel.”
- **Intransitive Verb:** /-(è)na/ (prep. /na/) Verbs that do not take a patient or object, excepting a reflexive subject like /sam/ “self”. When alone, /na/ approximately means “to do something (to oneself or to nothing)”. Example: *O iúnien káedna*. “The young girl rolls.” This implies that she is rolling herself, perhaps down a hill.  
**Note:** Transitivity is usually implied in the meaning of a verb or by the number of nouns in its argument. Therefore the articles /za/ and /na/ are seldom needed. They exist, like all others, as optional refiners of meaning.

## Part 5: Nouns and Pronouns

As discussed in Part 3, all roots act as nouns when unmodified. The **nominal roots** in their core form contain one or two syllables, and end in /e/, /o/, /u/, or any consonant. The exception to the two-syllable rule is the proper noun (names, places, etc.); this will be discussed in Part 12. Of the nouns, the first that should be examined are the pronouns. A characteristic of this part of speech is a root ending in /e/.

### Personal Pronouns

These roots act in the place of things and entities. English examples of pronouns are “he, she, I, we, it, one”. The Avdenio personal pronouns in the singular are *ve* “I/me”, *te* “you/thou”, *je* “he/she/it”, and in the plural *ver* “we/us”, *ter* “you (all)”, *jer* “they/them”. While inherently neutral in gender, animacy and other specifications, any pronoun can

take these attributes by the use of article suffixes. Gender for instance is marked using the masculine and feminine articles /iov/ and /ien/. This is most common in the third person pronoun /je/, which can be rendered *jiov* / *jéiov* “he, him” and *jien* / *jéien* “she, her”. The table below shows the most common forms of the personal pronouns. Where words appear in pairs around a slash bar, the first is common but either are accepted as per the speaker’s preference:

	<b>1<sup>st</sup> P. Singular “I/me”</b>	<b>2<sup>nd</sup> P. Singular “you”</b>	<b>3<sup>rd</sup> Person Singular “he/she/ him/her/it”</b>	<b>1<sup>st</sup> Person Plural “we/us”</b>	<b>2<sup>nd</sup> Person Plural “you (all)”</b>	<b>3<sup>rd</sup> Person Plural “they/them ”</b>	<b>Indefinite Person “one/some”</b>
<b>Common</b>	<b>ve</b>	<b>te</b>	<b>je</b>	<b>ver</b>	<b>ter</b>	<b>jer</b>	<b>oe</b>
<b>Genitive / Possessive</b>	<i>ven</i> “my/mine”	<i>ten</i> “your/yours”	<i>jen</i> “his/her/ hers/its”	<i>vérén</i> “our/ours”	<i>térén</i> “your/yours”	<i>jérén</i> “their/theirs”	<i>oen</i> “someone’s/ something’s”
<b>Oblique / Dative</b>	<i>végo</i> “to/for me”	<i>tégo</i> “to/for you”	<i>jégo</i> “to/for him/her/it”	<i>vérgo</i> “to/for us”	<i>térgo</i> “to/for you (all)”	<i>jérgo</i> “to/for them”	<i>óego</i> “to/for someone/ something”
<b>Masculine</b>	<i>viov</i> / <i>véiov</i> “I/me” (male)	<i>tiov</i> / <i>téiov</i> “you” (male)	<i>jiov</i> / <i>jéiov</i> “he/him”	<i>vériov</i> “we” (males)	<i>tériov</i> “you (all)” (males)	<i>jériov</i> “they/them” (males)	<i>óeiov</i> “someone/ something” (male)
<b>Feminine</b>	<i>vien</i> / <i>véien</i> “I/me” (female)	<i>tien</i> / <i>téien</i> “you” (female)	<i>jien</i> / <i>jéien</i> “her”	<i>vérien</i> “we” (females)	<i>térien</i> “you (all)” (females)	<i>jérien</i> “they/them” (females)	<i>óeien</i> “someone/ something” (female)
<b>Animate</b>	<i>veu</i> “I/me” (being)	<i>teu</i> “you” (being)	<i>jeu</i> “he/him/her/ them”	<i>véru</i> / <i>veur</i> “we/us” (beings)	<i>téru</i> / <i>teur</i> “you (all)” (beings)	<i>jéru</i> / <i>jeur</i> “they/them” (beings)	<i>óeu</i> “someone/ some being”
<b>Inanimate</b>	<i>vez</i> “I/me” (thing)	<i>tez</i> “you” (thing)	<i>jez</i> “it”	<i>vérez</i> / <i>vézér</i> “we/us” (things)	<i>térez</i> / <i>tézér</i> “you (all)” (beings)	<i>jérez</i> / <i>jézér</i> “they/them” (things)	<i>óez</i> “something”
<b>Nominative / Agent</b>	<i>ves</i> “I”	<i>tes</i> “you” (subject)	<i>jes</i> “he/she/it”	<i>vérés</i> “we”	<i>térés</i> “you (all)” (subject)	<i>jérés</i> “they”	<i>óes</i> “someone/ thing” (subject)
<b>Accusative / Patent</b>	<i>vem</i> “me”	<i>tem</i> “you” (object)	<i>jem</i> “him/her/it”	<i>vérem</i> “us”	<i>térem</i> “you (all)” (object)	<i>jérem</i> “them”	<i>óem</i> “someone/ thing” (object)

## Correlatives Pronouns

The following table illustrates how pronouns and articles can be combined to form a well rounded and consistent table of so-called correlatives. The articles seen here will be discussed later in this section. The interrogative /he/ corresponds to English “what” and its derivatives. The relative pronoun /se/ acts like “that” in the phrase “the shirt that he wants”. It acts to use a phrase to describe a precedent word. There are two demonstrative pronouns, meaning the same as the English “this” and “that” in the phrase “this bag is cheaper than that”, i.e. something near the speaker and something

distant thereto. Finally the inclusive, in contrast with the indefinite and negative, connotes “all” or “every”, dealing with sums and totals of nouns. Below is a comprehensive table of the most common pronouns:

	<b>Article</b>	<b>Interrogative</b>	<b>Relative</b>	<b>Demonstrative</b> ( <i>this - that</i> )	<b>Indefinite</b>	<b>Inclusive</b>	<b>Negative</b>
<b>Pronoun</b>		<i>he</i> “what”	<i>se</i> “that/ which ~”	<i>sje - de</i> “this (thing/being)” - “that (thing/being)”	<i>oe</i> “some (thing/bein g)”	<i>éle</i> “all (things/ beings)”	<i>nae</i> “no (thing/ being)”
<b>Adjective</b>	<i>i</i> “~ kind/ quality”	<i>hei</i> “what (kind of) ~”	<i>sei</i> “(a kind) which ~”	<i>sjei - dei</i> “this/these ~” - “that/those ~”	<i>oei</i> “some (kind of) ~”	<i>élei</i> “all (kinds of) ~”	<i>naei</i> “no (kind of) ~”
<b>Adverb</b>	<i>ésti</i> “as ~”	<i>hésti</i> “how / in what way”	<i>sésti</i> “as / in a way that ~”	<i>sjésti - désti</i> “thus / this way” - “so / that way”	<i>óesti</i> “somehow ”	<i>élesti</i> “in all ways / totally”	<i>náesti</i> “in no way / no how”
<b>Time</b>	<i>van</i> “at ~ time”	<i>hévan</i> “when / at what time”	<i>sévan</i> “when / at which time ~”	<i>sjévan - dévan</i> “this time” - “that time”	<i>óevan</i> “some time”	<i>élevan</i> “always / all the time”	<i>náevan</i> “never”
<b>Place</b>	<i>an</i> “at / in ~ place”	<i>hean</i> “where”	<i>sean</i> “where / at which place~”	<i>sjean - dean</i> “here” - “there”	<i>óean</i> “somewhe re”	<i>élean</i> “everywhe re”	<i>náean</i> “nowhere”
<b>Possessi on</b>	<i>én</i> “of ~ / ~'s”	<i>hen</i> “of what (thing/bein g) / whose”	<i>sen</i> “of which / whose ~”	<i>sjen - den</i> “of this (thing/being)” - “of that (thing/being)”	<i>oen</i> “of something / someone' s”	<i>élen</i> “of everything / everyone' s”	<i>naen</i> “of nothing / nobody's”
<b>Amount</b>	<i>val</i> “~ amount t”	<i>héval</i> “how much/man y”	<i>séval</i> “the amount of which ~”	<i>sjéval - déval</i> “this much/many” - “that much/many”	<i>óeval</i> “some amount”	<i>éleval</i> “all / every / the whole amount”	<i>náeval</i> “none / no amount”
<b>Reason</b>	<i>bar</i> “for / becaus e of ~”	<i>hébar</i> “why / for what (thing/bein g/ reason)”	<i>sébar</i> “because of / for which ~”	<i>sjébar - débar</i> “for/because of this” - “for/because of that”	<i>óebar</i> “for some reason/thi ng/being”	<i>élebar</i> “for all reasons/ things/bei ngs”	<i>náebar</i> “for no reason/ thing/bein g”
<b>Animacy</b>	<i>u</i> “living ~”	<i>heu</i> “what being / who”	<i>seu</i> “that / who ~”	<i>sjeu - deu</i> “this being/person” - “that being/person”	<i>óeu</i> “some being/ somebody ”	<i>éleu</i> “all beings / everybody ”	<i>náeu</i> “no being / nobody”
<b>Inanimac y</b>	<i>éz</i> “non- living ~”	<i>hez</i> “what thing”	<i>sez</i> “that / which ~”	<i>sjez - dez</i> “this thing” - “that thing”	<i>oez</i> “somethin g”	<i>élez</i> “everythin g”	<i>náez</i> “nothing”

## Nominal Articles

In order to show various attributes such as gender, number, size, and function in a sentence, nouns can take on one or several articles, either as suffixes, prepositions or both. The common mode recommends that when more than one suffix is added to a noun, they should be arranged in the order of the following list, unless the speaker's natural tendency decides otherwise. Here are the major articles governing Avdenio nouns:

- **Singular:** /-eo/ (prep. /eo/) - Nouns referring to an individual; one thing or being. Any numeral could conceivably be suffixed as a numeric article, but /eo/ is offered as a compliment to the more often used plural. Thus Avdenio roots are innately neither singular nor plural, the number marker being wholly optional. Example: *Te láesta tóra kúkeo, nae meor.* "You may have one cookie, no more." Standing alone the article /eo/ becomes the corresponding noun root, which is discussed in Article 9.
- **Plural:** /-(è)r/ (prep. /èr/) - Nouns referring to more than one thing or being, as in the English ending "-s" in "schools". /èrsóe/ or /èr/ can mean "several/many things". Example: *Áorér fásda.* "Hours passed."
- **Collective:** /-ir/ (prep. /ir/) - Nouns referring to collections or total groups of persons, places or things; used somewhat like the "-ity" of the English "humanity". /irsóe/ and /ir/ can stand alone to mean "group, collective". Example: *Húnir dei* "that flock of chickens", *o láonir* "(all of) the colors" or "the color spectrum."  
**Note:** The animate suffix /u/ is often used with the collective suffix /ir/ to refer to populations, cultures and nationalities (rendered either /uir/ or /iru/). In this case it is used to mean "the people of ~", Example: *Álbeuir* "the Scots", *Tamíjuir* "the Tamil people". Other animate collectives can have these endings as well, especially when a final /u/ is inherent in a root, e.g. *drúir* "group of pigs" from /dru/ "pig".
- **Masculine:** /-iov/ (prep. /iov/) - Nouns referring to things and beings with male sex, character or identity. /iovsóe/, /ióvu/ and /iov/ can mean "male" or "man" when standing alone or bearing another article; the first option is more syntactically clear. Example: *Báeriov ven ésma lakóv.* "My father (lit. male parent) is named Ya'akov."
- **Feminine:** /-ien/ (prep. /ien/) - Nouns referring to things and beings with female sex, character, or identity. /iensóe/, /iénu/ and /ien/ can mean "female" or "woman" when standing alone or bearing an article. Example: *Je sa o ríkien.* "She is the queen."
- **Majuscule:** /-(è)run/ (prep. /run/) - Nouns referring to things and beings of large size, extent, volume, or notoriety. /runsóe/ and /run/ can mean "large thing/being" when standing alone or bearing an article. Example: *Da hatósrún ner sjéan.* "There was a big accident near here."

- **Minuscule:** /-(è)rin/ (prep. /rin/) - Contrasting with the majuscule, nouns of small size or nature take this ending. /rinsue/ and /rin/ can stand alone to mean “small thing/being”. Example: *Dítér átsa tjésrin*. “Children generally have small hands.”
- **Genitive:** /-(è)n/ (prep. /èn/) - Nouns belonging to, associating with, or subordinating to other nouns, acting much as English “of” or the possessive suffix in “Mike's”. /énsóe/ and /èn/ can mean “possession” or “relation”. Example: *Báer o íjén*. “The child's parent.”
- **Locative:** /-an/ (prep. /an/) - Nouns referring to places of existence or residence for other nouns; as in English “at”, “in”, “on”, and “by”. /ansóe/ and /an/ can signify “place” or “location”. Example: *Mae Takanóbu ábra an Dóitjé?* “Is Takanobu living in Germany?”
- **Lative:** /-(è)nan/ (prep. /nan/) - Nouns referring to destinations or targets of actions, corresponding to “towards”, “to”, “at” and “for”. /nansóe/ and /nan/ standing alone can mean “goal” and “destination”. Example: *Bídae kámia nan gámléndé*. “Please come to the stage”.
- **Ablative:** /-(è)dan/ (prep. /dan/) - Nouns referring to origins and points of departure, acting as the words “from” and “away”. /dansóe/ and /dan/ signify “origin” and “leaving point”. Example: *O iúnien sa dan o deirám*. “The young girl is from the coast.”
- **Temporal:** /-(è)van/ (prep. /van/) - Nouns referring to points or periods of time when events occur. English “at” in the phrase “at noon” functions similarly. /van/ and /vansóe/ can stand as nouns to mean “point in time” or “period”. Example: *Páivan djúvsa Djónatan*. “Jonathan cooks in the morning.”
- **Instrumental:** /-(è)feo/ (prep. /feo/) - Nouns referring to paths, means or instruments of actions, as in “by”, “through”, “via” and “using”. /feosóe/ and /feo/ take the meaning “instrument” or “means” when alone. Example: *Ve iuhánva feo traen*. “I will travel by train.”
- **Causal:** /-(è)bar/ (prep. /bar/) - Nouns marked as reasons, causes or beneficiaries of actions, as in English “for”, “because of”, and “for the purpose/benefit of”. /bar/ and /barsóe/ mean “reason” or “purpose” when used alone. Example: *Te kànarvéisa bar kor jáedi*. “You can work for a new car.”
- **Quantitative:** /-(è)val/ (prep. /val/) - Nouns describing amounts, values and quantities of other nouns; generally this article answers the English questions “how much” and “how many”. As nouns /val/ and /valsóe/ take the significance “quantity” or “amount”. Example: *Jez ra nen ákvé val métreo*. “It's under water by one meter.”
- **Resumptive:** /-(è)reo/ (prep. /reo/) - Nouns returning to or resuming a state, location or condition, like the English prefix “re-” in “re-try” and “revision”; also “over” in “start over” and “again” in “try again”. /reo/ and /reosóe/ can stand alone to signify “return to a state/place/condition”. Example: *Radjanie da reo istúrias*. “Rajani returned to being a teacher.” *Giàmáej a sámvéreo*. “It's cold again today.”
- **Revertive:** /-(è)deo/ (prep. /deo/) - Nouns returning or reverting from a state, location or condition, as in the English prefixes “de-” in “defrost”, “dis-” in “disengage”, or “un-” in “unwrap”. /deo/ and /deosóe/ can stand alone to mean something like “return from a state/place”. Example: *O másto da tiéndeo*. “The



space came out of shadow (lit. was 'de-shadowed')." *Abináv kámda deo Óklandé.* "Abhinav came back from Oakland."

**Note:** /reo/ and /deo/ are often used as prefixes in verbs, since their meanings reference a verbal change to and from a state respectively. Example: *Reokóulia dei meon.* "Re-open that door." *Heu deorágna o fil?* "Who releases (lit. de-confines) the cat?"

- **Nominative:** /-(è)s/ (prep. /ès/) - Nouns referring to the agent or subject of a verb, either transitive or intransitive; that which does the act. In the phrase "a girl folds paper" the agent is the girl. When alone /ès/ and /èssóe/ can signify "agent", "actor" or "doer". Example: *Mètárvé áedienés átra.* "It's great riches the old woman has."
- **Accusative:** /-(è)m/ (prep. /èm/) - Nouns referring to the patient or object of a transitive verb; that to which the act is done, or which receives or withstands the act. In the phrase "a girl folds paper" the paper is the patient that is undergoing the verb. When alone /èm/ and /èmsóe/ can signify "patient", "object of action" or "effected thing/being". Example: *Ían ém nóel jáedí abréna.* "Ian learns a new song."

**Note:** In phrases where the verb bears the passive article /ta/, the nominative/accusative roles are reversed; i.e. the nominative is the patient, and the accusative is the agent. Thus the active phrase *póesa Lúkes tiérlém* "Luca owns a piece of land" is rendered in the passive as *póesta tiérlés Lúkem* "a plot of land is owned by Luca". However, the /ès/ and /èm/ articles are not necessary when a phrase is in the default *subject-verb-object* word order, e.g. *Lúke póesa tiérel > tiérel póesta Lúke.*

- **Generic:** /-(è)go/ (prep. /go/) - This marker has a versatility and breadth of meaning that allows its application in many cases. It can act in the stead of virtually any case, temporal or spatial article except the plural, collective, nominative, and accusative. It is most often seen marking the recipient of a statement (*Ksénie va kása go te* "Ksenia will tell you"), a transference (*jien kédda érko vérgo* "she gave information to us"), or an object of comparison (*ra kíónori go dei roem* "its bigger than that house"). If context is clear enough, /go/ could conceivably be used in the place of any nominal article.
- **Instantive:** /-az/ (prep. /az/) - Nouns indicating an actual period, episode or execution of a verbal act. /az/ and /azsóe/ can be used as nouns to mean "event" or "instance of action". Example: *Arvéisaz* "job, task, period of labor".
- **Habitual Agent:** /-as/ (prep. /as/) - Nouns referring to things or beings that commonly or naturally perform an act. English equivalents include the endings "-er" as in "heater" or "ruler". /as/ and /assóe/ can act as nouns to mean "doer" or "habitual performer". Example: *Nasiájas* "weaver".
- **Professional Agent:** /-ias/ (prep. /ias/) - Nouns marking beings who are practitioners, experts, or otherwise professionally disposed to an action. Compare English "-ist" in "chemist" and "-or" in "actor". Standing alone, /ias/ and /iassóe/ mean "worker" or "practitioner". Example: *Djilájias* "explorer", *istúrias* "teacher, professor".
- **Tool of Agency:** /-(è)feos/ (prep. /feos/) - Nouns signifying tools or devices used for a specific action. /feos/ and /feossóe/ can act alone to mean "tool". Example: *Sújfeos* "calculator", from *súja* "to count".

- **Resultative:** /-(è)taz/ (prep. /taz/) - Nouns referring to the product of an action, as “ice” is to “freeze” or “meal” is to “cook”. /taz/ and /tazsóe/ can stand as nouns to mean “product/outcome of an act”. Example: *Féhotaz* “a burn” from *féhoa* “to burn”.
- **Patient of Verb:** /-(è)tas/ (prep. /tas/) - Nouns referring to the patient of a verbal action. This marker is similar to the “-ee” in “employee”, i.e. one who is employed. When used alone, /tas/ and /tassóe/ can mean “patient of an act”. Example: *Kiudóntas* “thing/being which is blamed” from *kiudóna* “to blame”.
- **Substantive Noun:** /-(è)stis/ (prep. /éstis/) - Nouns derived from adjectives which describe their quality in the abstract. English examples include the “-ness” in “coldness” or the “-ity” in “unity”. /éstis/ and /éstissóe/ are analogous to English “quality” or “attribute”. Example: *Dórestis* “farness, distance” from *dóri* “far, distant”.
- **Gerund:** /-(è)stas/ (prep. /éostas/) - Nouns derived from verbs which describe their action or state in the abstract. Similar English terms are the “-tion” in “action” and the “-ing” in “jogging”. When contrasting with the root form of a verb (*ker* “a want” < *kéra* “to want”) the article /éostas/ denotes more of a general or abstracted connotation, versus the concrete or actual implication of the root noun of the verb. When standing alone /éostas/ and /éostassóe/ mean something like “act” or “state”. Example: *Biévéostas* “drinking, libation” from *biéva* “to drink”.
- **Fractional:** /-(è)l/ (prep. /èl/) - Nouns referring to parts, portions or divisions of a root noun, much like the English constructs “piece of ~” and “part of ~”. /èl/ and /èlsóe/ can function alone to mean “part” or “fraction”. Example: *Váisé* “wheat grain” from *vais* “wheat”.  
**Note:** The fractional article is also used with numbers to express mathematical fractions. See Part 9 for a detailed explanation.
- **Inclusive:** /-(è)to/ (prep. /to/) - Nouns, adjectives and verbs being added to or included with other such roots, much as English “and”, “including”, or “also”. When used alone /to/ and /tosóe/ mean “inclusion”. Example: *Jído én hav to áko*. “Knowledge of good and evil.”
- **Comitative:** /-(è)din/ (prep. /din/) - Nouns accompanying or co-existing with other nouns. The English “with”, “together” and “alongside” are analogous. /din/ and /dinsóe/ can be used as nouns to mean something like “accompaniment” or “jointness”. Example: *ledjún éka din lúnseo*. “Yejun goes with Yunseo.”
- **Exclusive:** /-(è)saem/ (prep. /saem/) - Nouns, adjectives or verbs being excluded or lacked by other such words, much like English “without” or the suffix “-less”. /saem/ and /saemsóe/ can take the meaning “lack” when used alone. Example: *Oe kándor súfosaem*. “Some sheep without wool.”
- **Alternative:** /-ao/ (prep. /ao/) - Nouns, adjectives and verbs standing as alternate choices or possibilities, similar to English “or” and “otherwise”. When used as nouns /ao/ and /aosóe/ signify “alternative”. Example: *Sjez ao dez?* “This thing or that?”
- **Vocative:** /-(è)jeo/ (prep. /jeo/) - Nouns being directly addressed by other nouns. In the English statement “Jean, you’re right”, the name Jean would be considered in the vocative. When standing alone /jeo/ and /jeosóe/ mean something like “addressee”. Example: *Te séutea ver jeo Amír?* “Would you help us, Amir?”

- **Proper Noun:** /-(è)veo/ (prep. /veo/) - Nouns acting as names of people, places, things, animals, and time periods. In the English phrase “he is called Alejandro”, the word “called” is somewhat like this article. /veo/ and /veosóe/ mean “name” or “title” when used as nouns. Example: *Ven íjien a veo Líse.* “My daughter is named Lisa.” *O sien veo Djiáosjie.* “The city of Jiāoxī.”
- **Language Marker:** /-io/ (prep. /io/) - Nouns referring to languages or dialects, whether spoken, written or signed. The “-ese” in “Chinese” or the “-ish” in “Spanish” are comparable. /io/ and /iosóe/ can act as nouns to mean “language”. Example: *Kásia kómdaz feo Fránsjo.* “Tell a joke in French.”
- **National Marker:** /-us/ (prep. /us/) - Nouns referring to sovereign political states. The nearest translation in English would be “the nation of ~”. /us/ and /ussóe/ can stand alone to signify “country” or “nation”. Example: *Senegálus sa an Efríké.* “The nation of Senegal is in Africa.”
- **Regional Marker:** /-is/ (prep. /is/) - Nouns representing homologous regions and areas, be they geographic, cultural or biological. Using /is/ and /issóe/ would connote the meaning “territory” or “area”. Example: *Kaskéidís mésti sjána.* “The Cascades region is very beautiful.”
- **Facility Marker:** /-(è)rie/ (prep. /rie/) - Nouns associated with centers and sites, especially with a particular purpose, use or function. The English endings “-ary,-ery” in words such as “aviary” and “bakery” are comparable. /rie/ and /riesóe/ can stand alone to mean “facility”. Example: *Sja éka nan siórie.* “Let's go to a library (lit. book-center).”
- **Comparative Article:** /-or/ (prep. /or/) - Nouns describing qualities and states in comparison to other nouns. English ending “-er” in “faster” is analogous, as well as the words “more” and “less”. When used alone, /or/ and /orsóe/ mean “comparison”. Example: *Laon éorti ra kéntorj go dúséti.* “The first color is brighter than the second.”
- **Superlative Article:** /-os/ (prep. /os/) - Nouns describing qualities and states in excess of all other comparable nouns. “Most” and “least”, as well as the “-est” in “clearest”, are all comparable. /os/ and /ossóe/ can act as nouns with the meaning “superlative comparison”. Example: *Páulo ra i mèsúlos.* “Paulo is being the noisiest (one).”

**Note:** The comparative and superlative articles fall into the noun category, but are often used as adjectives when additionally suffixed or preceded with the article /i/. For example, in the sentence *kádé sjei a jatélos* “this way is the most complicated”, the word *jatélos* is a noun meaning “most complicated (thing/being)”. However in the sentence *sje a kádé jatélosi* “this is the most complicated way”, the word *jatélosi* is an adjective modifying *kádé*. Refer to the next section for more details on adjectives.

## **Part 6: Adjectives and Adverbs**

The marker for words that function to describe other words is the **adjectival article /i/**. This is true of adjectives and adverbs, which qualify nouns and verbs respectively. This article follows the example of several natural languages; the [i] sound is

characteristic of adjectives in Japanese, Russian, English, Arabic, and others. The common mode allows adverbs and adjectives to come either before or after the words they modify. The only guideline offered is that placing the descriptor before would emphasize the significance of its description, especially if this were only done occasionally. This is not held as a rule though; the speaker can follow whatever tendency is natural. Consistency throughout ones speech and writing is nonetheless recommended.

- **Adjective:** /-i/ (prep. /i/) - Roots used to describe or qualify nouns and pronouns. This is similar to the common English ending “-y” in “blurry” and “pointy”. When standing alone /i/ and /isóe/ mean something like “description” or “quality”. Example: *Sánae séimda grásj*. “Sanaa appeared graceful.”
- **Adverb:** /-(é)sti/ (prep. /èsti/) - Roots used to describe or qualify verbs and adjectives. English prepositions like “as” and the ending “-ly” in “quickly” are analogous in meaning. /èsti/ and /èstisóe/ signify “manner” or “description of action”. Example: *Jiov vea kéda ámbostj*. “He would give happily.”
- **Participle:** /-ai/ (prep. /ai/) - Verbs that act as adjectives, qualifying nouns with their state or activity. The English present tense ending “-ing” in “the reading man” functions similarly, though the Avdenio participle offers much more flexibility of time and function. When used alone as nouns, /ai/ and /aisóe/ carry the meaning “description as action/state”. Its inherent sense is indicative and tense-less, but can take on any tense, aspect or mood the speaker desires by simply adding an /-i/ to the associated verbal article, e.g. *piéstaj jiv* “a printing page” > *piéstédaj jiv* “a page that printed” > *piéstévaj jiv* “a page that will print” > *piéstejaj jiv* “a page that would print”.

## Derivatives

While articles standing on their own or with an /o/ or /oe/ preceding can also function as nouns, there are four classes of suffixes that can explicitly mark roots to function as other parts of speech. These are useful if the speaker prefers clarity over brevity.

- **Article-Derived Noun:** /-(é)sóe/ - This pseudo-article can be suffixed to other articles in order that they may act nouns. Notice that this ending, when so used, is considered the stress core of the resultant word. Thus the article /luan/ “against” would be rendered *luansóe* “opposition” with the emphasis on the second syllable instead of the first. Other nominal articles can be added to such a construction to specify number, case etc., such as *luansóer* “oppositions”, *luansóefeos* “tool of opposition”.
- **Article-Derived Verb:** /-(é)sóa/ - Similar to the noun suffix /sóe/, this ending acts to convert articles into verbs. The ending /luan/ “against” for example would be written /luansóa/ “to oppose”. Further verbal endings can replace the final /-a/ in order to express tense, mood and aspect, e.g. *luansóra* “opposing”, *luansóva* “will oppose”, *luansósja* “let's oppose”.

- **Article-Derived Adjective:** /-(è)sói/ - This ending allows articles to act as adjectives, as /luan/ “against” is converted into *luansói* “opposite, contrary”. Other adjectival endings can replace the final /-i/ to create adverbs, particles, etc. Thus *luansósti* “contrarily”, *luansóai* “opposing”.
- **Nominal Article:** /-ue/ - New prepositional articles can be created by suffixing nominal roots with this ending. Using this semi-article as a preposition is conceivable, though not recommended by the common mode. Note that if a nominal article is marked for stress, the grave accent (à) is recommended instead of the acute (á) to distinguish it from nouns, verbs and adjectives. Examples include *jùtue* “about/concerning” from the root /jut/ “topic”, and *ràonue* “bordering on” from /raon/ “border”

### **Part 7: Conjunctions**

This part of speech works to join two sentences or phrases by providing a relationship, or else to cast a meaning or mood over an entire clause. Conjunctions are most often seen at the beginning of a sentence, but are often near verbs or adjectives as though to function as adverbs. Some conjunctions work to respond to previous statements, and others to link an independent clause to a dependant one, as in the English “if ~ then ~”. The list below shows the most common conjunctions, though many more are possible by suffixing roots with /-ae/.

- **Affirmative:** /hae/ - Equivalent to English affirmations like “yes” and “indeed”, which serve to assert the correctness, actuality or veracity of a statement. Example: *Hae jien módora dan o sien*. “Yes, she is returning from the city.”
- **Negative:** /nae/ - Contrasts with /hae/ by denying or negating a prior statement. English equivalents are “no” and “not so”. Example: *Nae kaván dei ra leo o gáedé*. “No, that bag isn’t in the room.” /nae/ is also used to negate verbs, and so it is often found before or after an action. Example: *Ve nae ra anmíra*. “I am not looking.” The third function of /nae/ is as a pronoun “nothing, none” as seen in the previous section. Example: *Kaván ten zóva naem*. “Your bag contains nothing.”
- **Interrogative:** /mae/ - Used in polar ‘yes/no’ questions, meaning something similar to English “whether” or “is it so that”. Non-polar questions such as “who? what? where?” etc. are expressed using the interrogative pronoun /he/ rather than the conjunction /mae/. /hae/ and /nae/ are the most frequent answers to the interrogative conjunction. Example: *Mae Déivid ajóga kólsésti?* “Does David swim skillfully?”
- **Excessive:** /tae/ - Used in situations to express extreme or excessive actions and conditions. Its sense is similar to the English phrase “too much” or even the interjection “whoa!” Example: *Jien sa tae kalmi go dei arvéis*. “She is too experienced for that job.”
- **Interjective:** /ae/ - Used in general occasions of surprise, exclamation or distress. Some similar English interjections are “ah!”, “wow!” or “hey!” Example: *Ae de ásto!* “Yow, that’s hot!”

- **Narrative:** /lae/ - Used between events in a sequence, narration or story, much as English “and then” or “next”. Example: *Forbáerien va àemkáma, lae dóuma van làváo.* “Grandmother will come home, and then go to bed at eight o’clock.”
- **Contrastive:** /kelnae/ - Used to show that one phrase contrasts with or is contrary to another, such as English “however”, “yet”, “but”, and “although”. Example: *Ve nésa sjáksé, kélnae biévsa nae kaf.* “I need energy, though I don’t drink coffee.”
- **Additive:** /teoskae/ - Used when a statement stands in support or augmentation of the statement before it. English speakers can compare the terms “moreover”, “to boot”, and “in addition”. Example: *O ankósias fordéra ídér, téoskae kérva risól dan jer.* “The director demands ideas, and moreover he’ll want results from them.”
- **Subtractive:** /seingae/ - Contrasts with the additive by causing one statement to detract from or defy another. English constructs like “despite that” and “nonetheless” are similar. Example: *Káneá hádri, séingae te dèvistáma.* “It could be risky, nonetheless you must go on”.
- **Conditional:** /eslae/ - Used to show that the reality of one statement is dependent on another, such as in English “if ~ then ~” statements. While the condition is marked with /eslae/, the result is often marked with the narrative /lae/. In order to emphasize the hypothetical nature of the condition, the verb is often marked with the subjunctive /ea/. This is no prescription however; the conditional already implies that the clause is at least somewhat theoretical. The simple indicative /a/ is also acceptable in lieu of the subjunctive. Example: *Ésllae Píros vea líra pórtóir, lae míra seu da ótas.* “If Pyrrhos would read the news reports, then he will see who the winner was.”

### **Part 8: Time, Place and Direction**

As with the various parts of speech, the temporal and spatial systems of Avdenio are flexible and practical. In many cases only the word representing the time and place of an event is needed, like in the English phrases “I go home” or “tomorrow it will rain”, but for more exact contours of movement and duration there are articles and article combinations, much like the prepositions “at”, “inside” and “since”. Speakers can say as much or as little regarding time, direction or location as they want, since very much can be clarified by context.

#### **Inherent Location and Destination**

If roots themselves refer to a place, then articles can often be omitted, much like the English phrase “I’m going home” (rather than “...to home”). Location is so expressed in the phrase *démosja o javél* “let’s meet at the mountain”. Since /javel/ “mountain” is an inherently locative noun (i.e. a word referring to a place), the locative marker /an/ is unnecessary. It is conceivable that the above phrase could be taken to mean “let’s meet the mountain” with /javel/ as the object of the verb, but such a translation would make little sense in any normal context. If the speaker wishes to be clear, the article /an/ can be used to explicitly mark the location.

If a sentence contains a verb of motion, e.g. /eka/ "to go", /kama/ "to come", then an unmarked locative noun can stand as the destination of movement without the lative article /nan/. In the phrase *Piótre da oséilta o raon* "Pyotr was pushed to the edge", the noun /raon/ "edge" is taken as the destination of /oseilta/ "to be pushed". It can be more clearly marked *nan o raon*, but context is enough to make this distinction.

## Spatial Articles

For more refined expressions of place and movement, the table of articles below can be employed. Note how the combined articles are all regular in their arrangement, while their English equivalents are decidedly irregular and asymmetrical.

	<b>General</b>	<b>Surface</b>	<b>Adjacency</b>	<b>Interior</b>	<b>Exterior</b>
<b>Locative</b>	<i>an</i> "at/in"	<i>djo</i> "on/upon"	<i>ner</i> "by/near"	<i>leo</i> "in/inside/within"	<i>keo</i> "out/outside"
<b>Lative</b>	<i>nan</i> "to/toward"	<i>djonan</i> "onto"	<i>nernan</i> "to near"	<i>leonan</i> "into"	<i>keonan</i> "to the outside of"
<b>Ablative</b>	<i>dan</i> "from/away"	<i>djodan</i> "off of"	<i>nerdan</i> "from near"	<i>leodan</i> "from within"	<i>keodan</i> "from outside of"
<b>Prolative</b>	<i>ton</i> "through/along"	<i>djoton</i> "along (the surface of)"	<i>nerton</i> "along by"	<i>leoton</i> "through (the inside of)"	<i>keoton</i> "along the outside of"
<b>Superior</b>	<i>sov</i> "on/above"	<i>djosov</i> "upon/on top of"	<i>nersov</i> "near the top of"	<i>leosov</i> "in the top of"	<i>keosov</i> "outside the top of"
<b>Inferior</b>	<i>nen</i> "under/below"	<i>djonen</i> "below/on the bottom of"	<i>nernen</i> "near the bottom of"	<i>leonen</i> "in the bottom of"	<i>keonen</i> "outside the bottom of"
<b>Lateral</b>	<i>pas</i> "beside/next to"	<i>djopas</i> "on the side of"	<i>nerpas</i> "near the side of"	<i>leopas</i> "in the side of"	<i>keopas</i> "outside the side of"
<b>Anterior</b>	<i>for</i> "in front of/ before"	<i>djofor</i> "on the front of"	<i>nerfor</i> "near the front of"	<i>leofor</i> "inside the front of"	<i>keofor</i> "outside the front of"
<b>Posterior</b>	<i>hin</i> "in rear of/ behind"	<i>djohin</i> "on the rear of"	<i>nerhin</i> "near the rear of"	<i>leohin</i> "inside the rear of"	<i>keohin</i> "outside the back of"

Other spatial articles can likewise be combined with those just listed, or they can be used alone. They can function as prepositions or suffixes. Here are a few of the most common:

- **Between, Inter-:** /-(è)ntir/ (prep. /èntir/) - Example: *Jeir va djávoska dei kómontir*. "They will be walking between those buildings."
- **Middle:** /-(è)djoun/ (prep. /djoun/); also /-(è)n djounan/ - Example: *Kao sa djoun álko / álkoén djóunan*. "The nose is in the middle of the face."
- **Left:** /-(è)kousj/ (prep. /kousj/); also /-(è)n kousjan/ - Example: *Síntia kousj ve / ven kóusjan*. "Sit to the left of me / to my left."

- **Right:** /-(è)kuil/ (prep. /kuil/); also /-(è)n kuilan/ - Example: *Ékia jiénkuil / jiénén kuílan.* "Go to the right of her / to her right."
- **Around, About, Circum-:** /-(è)tron/ (prep. /ètron/) - Example: *Ális úndjosa étron Etiénén félté.* "Alice drives around Etienne's field."
- **By, Past:** /-(è)mem/ (prep. /mem/) - Example: *O suárti kor ra bísta mem o aspáriz.* "The black car is speeding by the yellow one."
- **Alongside, Parallel to:** /-(è)sto/ (prep. /èsto/) - Example: *Tákia vésto sévan ve hiása nan o róem.* "Ride alongside me when I go on horseback to the house."
- **Across, Intersecting, Trans-:** /-(è)guen/ (prep. /guen/) - Example: *Hébar o hun ékéda guen o louv?* "Why did the chicken cross (lit. go across) the road?"  
**Note:** /guen/ usually refers to the intersection of two paths or a path and some object, in the sense of two lines crossing. It can also be used in instances where a noun is crossing over some flat or expansive environment, e.g. "over a lake" or "across a public square". To specify this meaning further, the combined article /djoguen/ "across the surface of" is also available. Example: *Riénir mèodími da nasjóra djoguen o álmé.* "Ancient peoples spread across the face of the world."
- **Away, Off of, Ex-:** /-(è)veij/ (prep. /veij/) – Example: *Máitrie oséilda sétio veij ve.* "Maitri pushed a note away from me."

## Inherent Time and Duration

As with those words referring to location, many roots are inherently temporal in meaning. English words like "now", "evening", and "tomorrow" are of this class. While the previously discussed article /van/ "at, when" is offered to mark points in time, it can be omitted when such temporal roots are used. Example: *Ratíhe módoa dan diánrie súdré.* "Ratih returns from school in the afternoon."

## Temporal Articles

When the speaker wishes to specify a point in or movement through time, one of a list of temporal articles can be used:

- **Before, Prior to, Pre-:** /-(è)tjin/ (prep. /tjin/) - Example: *Ra dúsi daej tjin umèirdáej ten.* "It's two days before your birthday."
- **After, Subsequent to, Post-:** /-(è)hao/ (prep. /hao/) - Example: *Jiov da gértó hao asjépe.* "He frowned after tripping."
- **Until:** /-(è)vis/ (prep. /vis/) - Example: *Sja mádza vis paj, lae érkoa jer.* "Let's wait until morning, and then let them know."
- **Since:** /-(è)zaes/ (prep. /zaes/) - Example: *Dei árvo daska dean zaes iúnéstis ven.* "That tree had been there since my youth."
- **During, While, Throughout:** /-(è)dran/ (prep. /èdran/) - Example: *Ve lírva sédran te súra dez.* "I will read while you do that."

## Part 9: Numbers, the Clock and the Calendar



Counting in Avdenio is simple and regular, involving numeral roots that can act as several parts of speech. In their root form numerals stand for the cardinal numbers, acting both as nouns and as quantifiers of other nouns; e.g. *lav* means both "the number eight" and "eight (of something)". Numeral articles can also be used to specify other forms of numbers.

## Cardinal Numbers

The cardinals are root nouns in essence. All numbers are built on these fourteen numerals, which are listed below.

<b>0</b> - /ziro/	<b>7</b> - /seun/
<b>1</b> - /eo/	<b>8</b> - /lav/
<b>2</b> - /dus/	<b>9</b> - /tondè/
<b>3</b> - /talsè/	<b>10</b> - /sef/
<b>4</b> - /ion/	<b>100</b> - /mio/
<b>5</b> - /vantjè/	<b>1,000</b> - /ajar/
<b>6</b> - /sjestè/	<b>1,000,000</b> - /mil/

To form all other numbers, these can be combined much as the numerals of Mandarin, e.g. compounded in decimal fashion.

<b>11</b> - sèféo	<b>20</b> - dùsséf
<b>12</b> - sèfdús	<b>21</b> - dùsséféo
<b>13</b> - sèftálsé	<b>30</b> - tàlsséf (or tàlséséf)
<b>14</b> - sèfión	<b>40</b> - iònséf
<b>15</b> - sèfvántjè	<b>50</b> - vântjéséf
<b>16</b> - sèfsjésté	<b>60</b> - sjéstéséf
<b>17</b> - sèfséun	<b>70</b> - sèunséf
<b>18</b> - sèfláv	<b>80</b> - làvséf
<b>19</b> - sèftóndé	<b>90</b> - tòndéséf
<b>101</b> - miòéo	<b>2,000</b> - dùsajár
<b>110</b> - miòséf	<b>3,000</b> - tàlsajár
<b>115</b> - miòsèfvántjè	<b>5,000</b> - vântjajár
<b>120</b> - miòdùsséf	<b>9,876</b> - tòndajàrlàvmiòsèunsèfsjésté
<b>130</b> - miòtálsséf (or miòtàlséséf)	<b>10,000</b> - sèfajár
<b>200</b> - dùsmiò	<b>75,000</b> - sèunsèfvántjajár
<b>300</b> - tàlsémió	<b>100,000</b> - miòajár
<b>500</b> - vântjémió	<b>900,000</b> - tòndémiòajár
<b>999</b> - tòndémiòtòndésèftóndé	<b>987,654</b> –
<b>1,001</b> - ajàréo	tòndémiòlàvsèfsèunajàrsjéstémiòvântjés
<b>1,234</b> - ajàrdùsmiòtàlssèfión (or ajàrdùsmiòtàlsèsèfión)	èfión
<b>1,000,001</b> - miléo	
<b>2,500,095</b> - dùsmilvântjémiòtòndésèfvántjè	

**3,000,000** - *tàlsémíl*

**5,000,000** - *vàntjémíl*

**10,000,000** - *sèfmíl*

**100,000,000** - *miòmíl*

**1,000,000,000** - *ajàirmíl* (lit. "a thousand times a million")

**1,000,000,000,000** - *mìlirmíl* (lit. "a million times a million")

When long numbers are written out as above, the speaker may want to hyphenate or space apart their orders of magnitude for the sake of clarity. Thus the numeral 987,654 is acceptably written as *tòndémió làvsèfsèunajár sjèstémió v àntjésèfión*.

## Quantifiers

While the above cardinals can act to count other roots (e.g. *húkér dus* "two dogs"), the speaker can make this function more explicit by the addition of the article /i/, essentially marking the numeral as an adjective (e.g. *húkér dúsi*).

Notice that in their conventional form some of the above numbers end in /è/, which compensates for final consonant clusters in their roots. When one of these is suffixed with an article starting in a vowel like /i/, the /è/ can be dropped. Thus *tálsé* "number three" drops the final vowel when adding /i/, as in *tálsi ésjtor* "three extras."

When a root is modified by a numeral higher than one, it is not necessary to mark that root with the plural article /ér/; plurality is already implicit in such numerals. Quantifiers act like adjectives in that they can follow or precede the roots they count. They can even be suffixed to roots like articles, as was previously discussed in this course. For the sake of preserving clarity, this is not recommended with numbers higher than ten.

## Ordinal Numbers

While the cardinals work primarily to count other nouns, the **ordinal article /-(è)rti, érti/** assigns a numerical order or hierarchy to them. English equivalents are the "-th" endings of "fourth, fifth, sixth". Ordinals are inherently adjectives owing to the final /i/, but can act as nouns with the optional inclusion of nominal articles like the animate /u/ and inanimate /èz/. Thus the explicit phrase *o séunérti rien* "the seventh person" can be more indirectly written *o séunértiu* "the seventh (being)".

## Basic Arithmetic

Addition is expressed by the verb /*adova*/ "to add" and the article /*din*/ "with, plus". Subtraction uses the verb /(*è*)*traeha*/ "to subtract" and the article /*saem*/ "without, minus". Multiplication is signified by the verb /*dorava*/ "to multiply" and the article /*ir*/ "groups of, times". Division is connoted by /*tifroa*/ "to divide" and the article /*feo*/ "through, divided by". The result of an equation is expressed by /*suja*/ "to count, sum, equal" and the article /*val*/ "amounting to".

## Fractions

Numerals expressed as portions or fractions are formed through the construct A é/ B or A B-(é)l, basically meaning "A parts of B". 'A' represents the denominator and 'B' the numerator, as in the fractions *dúsi tálsél* "two thirds", *vántji él sjésté* "five sixths", *éo (to) tòndèsèftòndi mio!* "one (and) ninety-nine hundredths".

## Time of Day

Calendar and clock time is expressed much as in natural languages, though without irregularities and cultural bias. The basic terms and units of time are as follows:

- **Time:** /daem/ - Example: *Hei daem ra giam?* "What time is it now?"
- **Second:** /seko/ - Example: *Tàlsséf séko astávai!* "Thirty seconds remaining!"
- **Minute:** /mino/ - Example: *Je va kárda hao míno vántji.* "They'll wake up in five minutes."
- **Hour:** /aor/ - Example: *Aor séima kórti go ve.* "An hour seems short to me."
- **Quarter Hour:** /tjadvaor, ionlaor/ - Example: *Djúvia jez adávi tjàdváor/iònláor.* "Cook it for another quarter hour."
- **Half Hour:** /honaor, duslaor/ - Example: *Sjei sàtrétséo kámsa kiáli hònáor/dùsláor.* "This public bus comes every half hour."
- **Daytime:** /alo/ - Example: *Jéivo tuoi nae sértésa kuómtaz álodran.* "Many creatures do not search for food during the day."
- **Nighttime:** /vam/ - Example: *Ándur sólèsti dóuma vam.* "Others only sleep at night."
- **24-Hour Day:** /dae/ - Example: *Éoi daej fásdatja tjin báerien fénda jéz.* "One day had passed before mother found it."

## Clock Time

The time of day is told by prefixing numerals to hours, minutes or seconds. For example, 1:00 is *éoáor*, and 2:30 is *dùsáor (to) hon* "half of two" or *dùsáor tàlssèfmíno* "two thirty". Hours can also be expressed using the ordinal article /èrti/, e.g. *lávèrti (aor)* "8:00", literally "the eighth (hour)".

A.M. is expressed as *tjin hòn(álo)* "before mid(day)" and P.M. as *hao hòn(álo)* "after mid(day)". They can be written and spoken as the acronyms *T.H.* and *H.H.* (pronounced *Té-Hé* and *Hé-Hé* respectively), and are placed before or after the clock time.

## Longer Measures of Time

- **Yesterday:** /tjindae/ (lit. "past-day") - *Hae, tjindáej Mánasie datja jez.* "Yes, Mānasī got it done yesterday."
- **Today:** /giamdae/ (lit. "present-day") - *Mae te dèvarvéisa giàmáej?* "Do you have to work today?"

- **Tomorrow:** /haodaej/ (lit. "future-day") - *Nae vis hàodáejèn vam.* "Not until tomorrow night."
- **Week:** /neldé/ - Example: *Sjei néldé hávor ea.* "This week would be better."
- **Month:** /mulen/ - Example: *Muhámad da hádva flénta hao mulén íoni.* "Muhammad intended to sow seeds after four months."
- **Last Week / Month:** *tjinnéldé / tjìnmulén*
- **This Week / Month:** *giànnéldé / giàmmulén*
- **Next Week / Month:** *hàonéldé / hàomulén*
- **Year:** /neon/ - Example: *He neon te àbnára Djohánesburg?* "What year did you move to Johannesburg?"
- **Decade:** /sefneon/ - Example: *Sèfnéon a dúri mádzo.* "A decade is a long wait."
- **Century:** /mioneon/ - Example: *Európeur hàlfénda Ameríkeis van mionéon séférti.* "Europeans discovered the Americas in the tenth century."
- **Millennium:** /ajarneon/ - Example: *Síenir Sjumérén áeda val sjésti ajárnéon ao meor.* "Sumerian cities are six millennia old or more."

## The Calendar

Unlike the Western calendar, the Avdenio days of the week and months of the year are denominated by number much as in Mandarin. However they are often capitalized as proper nouns, a more occidental prescription. They are as follows:

### Days of the Week:

1. **Monday** - Èodáej (lit. "day one")
2. **Tuesday** - Dùsdáej
3. **Wednesday** - Tàlsédáej
4. **Thursday** - Iòndáej
5. **Friday** - Vàntjédáej
6. **Saturday** - Sjèstédáej
7. **Sunday** - Sèundáej

### Months of the Year:

1. **January** - Èomulén / Éon (lit. "month one")
2. **February** - Dùsmulén / Dúsén
3. **March** - Tàlsémulén / Tàlsén
4. **April** - Iònmulén / Iónén
5. **May** - Vàntjémulén / Vántjèn
6. **June** - Sjèstémulén / Sjéstèn
7. **July** - Sèunmulén / Séunén
8. **August** - Làvmulén / Lávén
9. **September** - Tòndémulén / Tóndèn
10. **October** - Sèfmulén / Séfèn
11. **November** - Sèfèomulén / Sèféon
12. **December** - Sèfdùsmulén / Sèfdúsén

## Dates and Epochs

Days of the month are expressed using the ordinal articles; numerals with the ordinal /érti/ or inanimate ordinal /értiz/. They are usually found near the month in which they fall, though if the context is clear the ordinal dates can stand alone, optionally with the definite article /o/. Examples below are given with the clearest form followed by a more compact rendering.

- The 1st (day) of May > *éorti (daej én) Vàntjémulén / o éortiz Vántjén*
- The 23rd (day) of December > *dùssèftálsérti (daej én) Sèfdùsmulén / o dùssèftálsértiz Sèfdùsén*
- The 31st (day) of August > *tàlssèféorti (daej) Làvmulén(én) / o tàlssèféortiz Lávén*

The Gregorian calendar is used in Avdenio for the designation of years. This is not meant as an affiliation with western or Christian conventions; it is simply an alignment with world trends of time measurement in the absence of a more culturally neutral date for “year one”.

Similar to monthly dates, years are expressed by adding the ordinal article /èrti/ with the word /neon/ “year”. Thus “the year 2005” is expressed as *dùsajàrvántjérti neon*. Four-digit years can optionally be spoken as two hyphenated pairs of two-digit numbers, and /neon/ can be dropped if the context is clear (thus “1984” can be read as *sèftóndé-làvsèfión* “nineteen-eighty-four”). This option favors brevity, but is decidedly less clear. The epochal markers are as follows:

- **BCE / BC:** *Tjin o Sàtrémáso (T.S.)* “before the common era”
- **CE / AD:** *o Sàtrémáso (S.M.)* “the common era”

## **Part 10: Names and Nomenclature**

As a proposed international language, Avdenio is open to assimilating names from all other languages, whether they refer to beings, things, places, or points in time. This English course makes use of the Roman alphabet, and so conventions of nomenclature will be explained in that writing system. Spelling of names in the native Avdenio script will be considered in a different paper.

Personal names can be written in a few different ways. They can be left in their original orthography, assuming they are already familiar to the speaker or reader. If a new name is introduced in writing using its original spelling, it is suggested that a phonetic version in parentheses (either Avdenio or IPA transcription) is included to show the approximate pronunciation and stress. Example: *Claire Martineaux (Kler Martinó)*.

For those names which are not natively written in the Roman alphabet, they can be either Romanized using the most common international conventions, or directly Avdenicized. For instance the Arabic name *محمد* is transliterated *Maḥmūd*, and can be written in Avdenio as such if all special characters are available, or in other common Romanized forms (*Mahmud, Mehmud, Mahmoud*). It can even be written based on pronunciation (*Mahmúd, Mehmúd*). If the speaker wishes the name to be easy to pronounce, it can be further adapted to conform to the trends and guidelines of Avdenio roots. Thus *Maḥmūd* can be euphonicly rendered *Mamúdé* or *Mahémúdé*, reducing or splitting the cluster /ḥm/ and following the final /d/ with /é/. This is generally the practice for names used in this course, as well as geographical names found in the lexicon and dictionary. All of these choices regarding orthography and euphonic renderings are up to Avdenio speakers, usually based on the audience and context of their discourse.

## Avdenicizing Names

As previously explained, many sounds and sound combinations in one language might pose great difficulty for speakers of some others. For instance, words and names in Mandarin generally end with either a vowel or one of a small selection of consonants: /-n, -ng, -r/. Similarly, Spanish regularly adds /e-/ to roots starting in some disallowed clusters (e.g. *escuela*, *Español*). English on the other hand can have clusters of consonants in many positions; initially, medially or finally. For this reason English words like “strict” and names like “Brianna” or “Ajax” are often more difficult to sound out for speakers of languages such as Spanish and Mandarin. Avdenio offers a set of guidelines to Avdenicize names from major languages, making them more comprehensible within the mean of world phonetics. These rules also adjust names so that they function in Avdenio grammar as proper roots.

- **Consonant Clusters:** Break up using /è/ as a medial vowel, or simply omit or absorb one consonant. The common mode allows clusters of two consonants if one is not an aspirate or plosive, i.e. /p, t, k, b, d, g, h/. Clusters involving /h/ are generally not encouraged for the sake of clarity, nor are clusters of three or more consonants. Root-initial clusters are common in Avdenio, but can be prefixed or even split apart with /è/ for euphonic ease. Root-final clusters, (along with the aforementioned consonants in final position), are often followed by /è/ or some other vowel, and will appear as such in dictionaries. Double consonants are allowed medially, though they do not necessarily need to be distinguished from single consonants in speech. Example: Александр *Aleksandr* > *Aleksándér*; Σταύρος *Stávros* > *Éstávros*; Siegfried > *Zígefíridè*, *Zígfèrid*.
- **Final Vowels:** /-a/ is the verbal ending in Avdenio, so names ending in that vowel often change it to /-e, -o, -ae/. Names from languages that mark femininity with /-a/ can also exchange it for the article /-ien/. The same is true of the masculine /-iov/. Final /-i/ (along with English /-y, -ey/) resembles the adjectival ending in Avdenio, so in names it often changes to /-ie, -e, -iu/ or in feminine names /-ien/. Example: *Laura* > *Láure*, *Lórae*, *Lárien*; *Kelly* > *Kelie*, *Kele*, *Kélien*.
- **Non-Avdenic Consonants:** Switch with the closest equivalent, if one exists. Some non-native fricatives (English /th/ in "three, thus", German /ch/ in "Buch") could be transcribed using a consonant followed by /h/, though this might be mistaken as an aspirated form of that sound. Sounds like /th/ can acceptably be rendered /t, d, s, z, ts, dz, th, dh/, and German's /ch/ as /h, k, kh/. In concord with earlier advice against clusters with /h/, such spellings do not need to be pronounced distinctly from their unaspirated counterparts. Palatal constants in Russian and Irish can be written by accompanying a sound with /i/, while glottals in Arabic could use /a/ and labials in Korean and Swahili might be shown with /u/. Retroflex sounds of Tamil and Swedish have the option of being written next to /r/.
- **Non-Avdenic Vowels:** Rounded or 'umlaut' sounds like French /u/ and Danish /ø/ are transcribed as their closest pure vowel, or as diphthongs like /eu, eo/. Open or long vowels like Hindi /au/, Japanese /ō/ and Portuguese /é/ can be written as diphthongs /ao, ou, ae/ or simply /o, e/. Central or 'schwa' vowels can be written /è, e, a/. Nasals, such as in French and some Indic languages are

written with /n, m/ following the vowel. Names with vocalic consonants (e.g. in Russian or Sanskrit) should supplement the sound with /è/ or some vowel. Tonal vowels, such as in Cantonese and Mandarin, are transcribed as plain vowels.

### ***Native Avdenic Names***

Any root can potentially be used to form a name in Avdenio. Names can express a quality, action, habit, or any other attribute that a speaker desires. Such constructions can be translations of natural name meanings. For example, *Hannah* is a Hebrew name meaning "graceful", and so an Avdenio rendering might be *Gras*, the adjective *Grásj*, or the feminine *Grásien*. All of these carry essentially the same meaning as *Hannah*. Avdenio names can also be invented from scratch, either as roots or with prefixes and suffixes to specify meaning. For instance, /kent/ can produce names like *Kénté* "light", *Kéntiu* "bright one", *Kéntas* "one who glows", *Kéntiov* "bright boy/man", and *Kéntien* "bright girl/woman". One recommendation made by the common mode is that names have an appropriate ending to function as nouns. When following this guideline, one would avoid the adjective suffix /i/ or else follow it with the animate /u/ like the above example *Kéntiu*. Similarly, endings in the verbal /a/ would be avoided or replaced with /as/ or /au/. This is not a rule however, since names can usually be taken as such through context, and by capitalization in writing. When inventing names in Avdenio, the speaker is free to be creative and expressive. Avdenio is an artistic project, as well as a practical one.

Examples of Avdenio names include:

*Kénou* - Possible  
*Ráehiov* - Stone (masc. cf. Peter)  
*Séutas* - Helper  
*Sjáksien* - Energetic (fem.)  
*Tian / Tiániu* - Sweet  
*Daniáv* - Gratitude  
*Demosjín* - Meeting Heart  
*Ensjín / Enssjínu* - Full-Hearted  
*Mejído* - Great Knowledge  
*Kéitas* - Pleasing  
*Aedálme* - Old Soul  
*Pájien* - Morning (fem.)  
*Riensáovas* - Defender of People (cf. Alexander)  
*Sílvu* - Artistic  
*Daev* - Gold  
*Gániov* - Strong (masc.)  
*Siánse* - Trust  
*Brénde* - Leniency  
*Bístiu* - Quick  
*Damrimáto* - Moral Obedience  
*Hadáer* - Cleverness

*Ínvien* - Limitless (fem.)  
*Jatelzién* - Complex Mind  
*Kédiov* - Gift (masc.)  
*Maelám* - Twilight  
*Dáju* - Merciful  
*Luésien* - Verdant (fem.)  
*Nilofál* - Blue Flower  
*Fésta* - Steadfast  
*Raj* - Beam  
*Avdárjas* - Uplifter  
*Ambír* - Offering  
*Ivriél* - Truthful Lips  
*Rastahés* - Senses Plants  
*Aruén* - Violet  
*Jénsiov* - Kind (masc.)  
*Artáju* - Reflective  
*Sálme* - Peace