TANOL
A Reference Grammar
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1 INTRODUCTION

Tanol is a naturalistic artlang\(^1\) I started working on at the end of 2020 and finished towards the end of 2021, containing numerous linguistic features that I love such as ergativity, converbs, consonant mutation, vowel harmony and rich dialectal variation.

1.1 DEVELOPMENT

The initial idea and name for Tanol are from as far back as mid-2018, stemming from the world-building project the language is ultimately a part of. The original plans share some features as the final version of the language, such as Celtic style initial consonant mutation and a Bulgarian and/or pseudo-Basque style verb system with a Persian inspired dual verb root system. Other ideas came to me later in the planning stage such as ATR vowel harmony\(^2\) and initially a lack of inflected verb agreement that was later changed.

Tanol was made, like all my conlangs, with the historical method. When I create any new naturalistic conlang I start with a proto-language (in the case of Tanol, Proto-Tarikhic) and evolve it forwards through time, applying sound and grammatical changes as I go. This means that what you see in this grammar is very much the tip of the iceberg of what went into making Tanol, but as I tend to write my grammars as though my conlangs were real world languages; therefore I cannot speak too much of its evolution from the point of view of a conlanger, but as a linguist who has encountered this language for the first time.

Tanol as a language was fairly swift in its development. Though one could argue I spent the better part of nearly two years roughly planning the language in my head, the planning period took place over September and October of 2020 and the bulk of the main development was only around five months, spanning the end of 2020 to the beginning of 2021, with some revisions made over the summer 2021 and this grammar was written over September-November. Tanol is probably one of my most well-planned conlangs, which contributed to its quick development, but I was also just very excited to make the language.

The biggest changes to the language throughout development happened to the phonological inventory. While I had a fairly good idea of how I wanted to the language to work grammatically, I did not have a particular phonaesthetic in mind while planning the language. I wanted a vaguely Celtic feel, but I was scared about being too derivative when I was already taking great influence from Celtic morphophonology. I settled on a rough middle ground between Russian, Welsh and Persian, though other influences eventually came about as I was enacting sound changes.

There were several sounds I was thinking about including but eventually decided against such as /q/, /ħ/, /ʒ/ and /ɮ/. However, I wanted to keep to a smaller consonant inventory as

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\(^1\) Artlangs are a subset of conlangs specifically developed for artistic purposes, as opposed to international communication like auxlangs/IALs (Esperanto, etc) or to test linguistic concepts and/or hypotheses like engelangs (I’d place Toki Pona and Ithkuil in this category but their creators might disagree).

\(^2\) The ATR vowel harmony I developed was originally going to be part of another language I was planning at the time but I changed my mind and used it in Tanol instead.
I was going to have at least two major morphophonological processes in the language and some of these sounds were already in Paghade, another conlang of mine. Tanol and Paghade are already related\(^3\) and I wanted to keep them as distinct as possible.

There were already some relatively rare sounds in Tanol and adding even rarer ones did not sit well with me. For example, /\h/ is not only cross-linguistically very rare, but adding it would have created a three way distinction between /x/, /\h/ and /h/; this distinction can and does exist in Arabic but including it felt not only derivative of Arabic but just wrong for what Tanol was becoming.

The development of the grammar was very smooth, the basic idea for the verb system had been forming in my head for years and the rest of the language came from that. The fluid-s ergative system came from some reading I was doing about Guaraní at the time, and the idea of converbs came later in development but seemed to fit the grammatical systems I had already created by that point.

Other elements came to me as I was doing the regular preparatory pre-conlanging reading of books such as *The Art of Language Invention* by David J. Peterson and *Advanced Language Construction* by Mark Rosenfelder. Another book I read before I started making the language was *African Languages An Introduction* edited by Bernd Heine and Derek Nurse. This is where the entire idea of ATR vowel harmony came to me, and for a while I was considering a tone system reminiscent of West African languages, though I shelved this idea and plan to use it in a future conlang instead.

Tanol turned out nearly exactly how I wanted it to, which as a conlanger who is very self-critical really excited me. Other conlangs I had developed, while I was happy with some parts of them, always felt amateurish\(^4\). Tanol was a huge step towards developing what I consider top tier naturalistic artlangs such as David J. Peterson’s Dothraki, Bibliaridion’s Nekâchtî and Mark Rosenfelder’s Kebreni.

1.2 Influences

I drew influence from a large variety of languages for Tanol, which are listed below:

- Akan | Ákán (Tano, Niger-Congo)
- Ancient Greek | Ελληνική *Hellēnikē* (Hellenic, Indo-European)
- Basque | Euskara (Isolate)
- Bulgarian | български *Bâlgarski* (South Slavic, Indo-European)
- Guaraní | Avañe’ê (Tupi-Guarani, Tupian)
- Khalkha Mongolian | Халха ялагуу⁵ *Khalkh ayalguu* (Central Mongolian, Mongolic)
- Korean | 한국어 *Hangugeo* (Koreanic, Isolate)
- Latin | Lingua Latina (Italic, Indo-European)
- Persian | فارسی *Fārsi* (Iranian, Indo-European)

\(^3\) Both are Tarikhic languages.

\(^4\) Especially the names, as I still stuck to -ese, -ian, -ic and -ish based names, Paghade was originally called “Pagadian” and when I first came up with the name, Tanol was “Tanolic”.

\(^5\) Word does not support the traditional Mongolian script.
When choosing influences for Tanol I wanted to go more Indo-European than I normally would when making a conlang. However, I dislike any conlang of mine to look or sound like any real-world language or language family, so at the same time I wanted to make sure that the language would not look too “European” or even “Indo-European”. This is where the grammatical influence of Guaraní, Korean and Basque entered the picture, Korean actually being a later influence but I think it really helped to make Tanol seem distinctive and not be too “European”.

Welsh and Akan had the greatest influence on phonology and morphophonology, and then for flair I looked into Khalkha Mongolian, Spanish (specifically Andalusian Spanish) and Russian which helped to create the (in my opinion) distinctive phonaesthetic of the language. I have heard Tanol described phonologically as similar to Polish, Armenian, Welsh, Hebrew and Arabic; one person described it as “West African with a bit of Latin and Russian in it”.

1.3 CONTEXT

Within the context of its fictional world, Tanol is a member of the Tarikhic language family, a language family that covers much of the Doromeran continent. The speakers of Tanol are the Ruhem, who live in a large area of Doromeran they simply call Anthes, which contains many independent city states (the largest being Tamaris) each with their own distinct dialect of Tanol. There exists also the svókasavéra tiveme (merchants’ dialect) which is based on the dialect of Tamiris and is often used as a kind of lingua franca between the different dialects and as the standard language of trade around the Doromeran.

In terms of its lexicon, Tanol was influenced by the Classical Hazari’i language, of the!Laqone Empire, especially when Proto-Tanolic was spoken (when the !Laqone Empire was at its peak). Select Tanol words relating to government, warfare, the arts and science were borrowed from or influenced by Classical Hazari’i.

While there are modern descendants of Classical Hazari’i spoken in the region south of Anthes, these languages have not had such an influence on Tanol as the other way around, as Tanol is now the prestige language of the area. Classical Hazari’i has had an impact on certain dialects of Tanol as I will explore in the dialects section of this grammar.

1.4 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to give a massive thanks to all those who listened to me prattle on in the last year about the process of making Tanol while I was actually making it, especially fellow conlanger Jonah Behring (AKA Käntwo) whose constant enthusiasm and feedback helped shape Tanol into the language it became. A big thanks to all my other friends who have put

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6 This grammar focuses primarily on svókasavéra tiveme and all tables, words and example sentences are in svókasavéra tiveme unless otherwise stated.
up with me and this very niche hobby of mine, both those in linguistics (especially Evelyn Parsons and Anneke Visser) and those who know nothing about it. I also owe thanks to my some of tutors, Heather Turner and Elliot Holmes, at the University of York whose guidance and feedback also informed many decisions made while making the language.

1.5 Final remarks
Tanol is not a finished conlang by any means and this grammar will be updated as certain aspects of the language are updated. There are large elements which have not yet been completed such as pragmatics and a writing system. Moreover, the lexicon is currently, while not insignificant, still rather small (several hundred words). Right now, this grammar serves as a current look at the main aspects of this conlang.

If you have read this grammar and want to know more about the language, want to ask me questions about it or simply want to get in touch, my email is harrycook81891@gmail.com. Depending on how busy I am I will try to get back to you as quickly as possible to respond to your question. If you are a conlanger who wants advice or to chat about this conlang or my other conlangs please feel free to contact me.

If you are a writer or worldbuilder in need of a conlang or conlangs, I am available for hire as language creator. In this way, please feel free to view Tanol as a kind of portfolio. Tell me what kind of language you want and how thorough you want it to be and I can give you a price as well as a rough deadline for completion.

Conlanging is a very niche and complex hobby which takes a lot of time, practice, creativity and talent. I am always so flattered when non-conlangers and even non-linguists show interest in my conlangs because it is such a strange hobby to have. Whenever people say that my languages “seem real” or they show interest in actually learning them I get a huge sense of validation.

Tanol feels like my best conlang so far, while I still have many more years of conlanging ahead of me, Tanol is a huge milestone in my conlangs and I look forward to seeing how I can develop further from this point because I think my next few projects will yield equally fascinating and well developed results as Tanol. I hope you enjoy reading about this conlang.

Harry Cook – 2021
2 Phonology

Tanol has quite an interesting phonology, with an average sized consonant inventory, a relatively large vowel inventory and some strict phonotactic rules.

2.1 Consonants

The consonants of Tanol are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phoneme</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative Voiced</td>
<td>θ (th)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>ꝙ (lh)</td>
<td>ꝡ (sh)</td>
<td>Ꝙ (kh)</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative Voiceless</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>j (y)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the romanisation differs from the IPA, the romanisation is written in brackets.

Voiceless stops are always pronounced without aspiration, as in spot, stot and scot in English. /n/ and /t/ are pronounced as laminal denti-alveolar [n] and [t], with the blade of the tongue on the alveolar ridge and teeth like in Italian, Spanish or Russian. /r/ is pronounced as a full trill at the beginning of an utterance or at the beginning of a word if the previous word ends in a consonant. It is more like a a tap or short trill intervocically and is usually devoiced to [r̥] word finally. /l/ is retracted to be post-alveolar [l̠] in coda position. /ʃ/ becomes [ɕ] before high vowels. /k/ is fronted and slightly fricated before high vowels and /x/ is more palatal [ç] before high front high vowels.

2.2 Vowels

As Tanol features ATR vowel harmony, the language has essentially two vowel inventories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowel Type</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+ATR High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ATR High</td>
<td>ɪ (i)</td>
<td>ʊ (u)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>ɛ (é)</td>
<td>ɔ (ó)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In vowel hiatus, between each vowel a glide is pronounced and there are no full diphthongs. Vowels in hiatus tend to move closer to each other in articulation. The exact pronunciations of vowels are shown on the chart on the next page.

Exact pronunciation of vowels is incredibly important not just because of the harmony system but also because there are grammatically distinct words which are distinguished only
by their ATR vowel quality. This is especially common for -ATR vowel-initial short form verbs, where the long form is made by making the vowels +ATR. For example:

Su rakh ézéún – I will sing
Su rakh ezeun – I have sung

2.3 PROSODY
Stress in Tanol categorically falls on the first syllable of a word:

Yazan (sun) – /ˈja.zan/
Leyokun (wine) – /ˈle jo.kun/
Púnvóray (chair) – /ˈpu nvó raj/

The only exception to this rule is some loan words, especially those coming from Classical Hazari’i. However, in words that are particularly common, the stress is moved to the first syllable.

Tanol is syllable timed isochronically, so every syllable takes up roughly the same amount of time and unstressed vowels maintain their quality. The lack of long vowels and geminates paired with syllable timing gives the language a very quick, “rapid fire” sound, especially in normal speech.

2.4 PHONOTACTICS
Tanol disallows geminates and word final clusters. Any sound may begin a word, but words can only end with:

- Nasals
- /v/, /θ/, /s/ and /x/
- Approximants

/i/ and /ɪ/ are also not permitted to end a word in most dialects.

A /v/ is permitted to follow any initial consonant in a word except /h/, in cases where there would be a /hv/ cluster, /h/ becomes /x/. Tanol is quite strict in how word internal consonant clusters may be formed. Here are the rules for clustering and hiatus:

- Any nasal followed by an obstruent (except /h/) – kînséî (to write)
- Any nasal followed by an obstruent (except /h/) followed by /v/ – antvo (capital city)
- Any two vowels of the same vowel harmony may be in hiatus – véizé (to be strong)
3 MORPHOPHONOLOGY

Tanol features three different morphophonological systems and some phonological irregularity in inflection and derivation.

3.1 VOWEL HARMONY

As previously mentioned, Tanol features an ATR (advanced tongue root) vowel harmony system, in which +ATR vowels (or tense vowels) may not occur in the same word as -ATR vowels (or lax vowels). /a/ is transparent to harmony and may occur with either set of vowels. This system means that any affix containing a vowel other than /a/ has two forms, one with a +ATR vowel and one with a -ATR vowel.

There are no major exceptions to vowel harmony, the only notable ones being some loan words, although many speakers will force these words to adhere to vowel harmony, usually decided upon by the quality of the vowel in the stressed syllable.

3.2 INITIAL CONSONANT MUTATION

Tanol features initial consonant mutation, where the first consonant of a root in an open word class will change depending on the word that comes before it. Tanol features four types of consonant mutation: palatal mutation, de-affricating (or de-af.) mutation, hard mutation and soft mutation. These mutations are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radical</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>De-af.</th>
<th>Hard</th>
<th>Soft</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/m/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/p/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/v/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>/γ/</td>
<td>/x/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>/z/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/x/</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/h/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/v/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/r/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/j/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mutations do not always affect every word beginning with a certain radical, and the same word can cause different mutations on the following word. For example, *eyo* causes IV mutation, this means that a word beginning with /t/ could become /s/ or /θ/ or just not change at all:

- *Törím* – to run (away)  *Eyo sórímé* – I ran away
- *Tiyüné* – to draw  *Su menva eyo thiyüné* – I drew a woman
- *Tus* – to hit  *Su eyo tus* – I hit him/her
While there are some rules that are universal across the mutations like all non-loan words beginning with /s/ and /x/ undergoing hard mutation and all words beginning with a sonorant undergoing soft mutation. Other than that, the exact mutation class must be memorised (especially words beginning with voiceless stops which are quite unpredictable).

The words that trigger mutation are mostly function words like copulae, demonstratives, prepositions and some high frequency adjectives and adverbs.

Mutations are not always treated the same way across different dialects, for example some dialects ignore de-af. and/or palatal mutation. This is discussed further in the dialects chapter.

There is also an irregular paradigm, whereby random words beginning with /v/ with gain /x/ word initially in hard mutation, and other words beginning with a vowel will gain an initial /h/:

- Vón – night  Ésé khvón – tonight
- Eme – to breath in  Eyo heme – S/he breathed in

### 3.3 A-MUTATION

A-mutation is the next of the major morphosyntactic processes in Tanol. A small, but relatively prominent, set of suffixes in the language cause the final vowel of the stem to lower. These include the plural suffix for C-class nouns as well as some derivational affixes.

- Írvór – Pale ale  Írvórú ékhóth – The pale ale is tasty
- Írvarav – Pale ales  Írvaravú ékhóth – The pale ales are tasty
- Kvózín – To forge  Kvózéya – Blacksmith

### 3.4 PHONOLOGICAL IRREGULARITIES IN INFLECTION

There is also a large number of words which undergo consonant mutation when inflected, or sometimes sounds just appear, seemingly at random. These irregularities are a result of sound changes dating back to the proto-language and must be memorised.

- Svóka – Merchant  Kó khemer svóka tér – The merchant is in the room
  Kó khemer svókasav tír – The merchants are in the room
  Svókasú rveke mere – The merchant loves money
- Mere – To love  Svókasú mere – The merchant loves him/her
  Svókasú mería – The merchant loves you
- Kvózín – To forge  Su yóvósé eyo khvózin – I will forge a sword
  Su yóvósav eyo khvóziyír – I will forge some swords
4 **Morphology and Syntax**

Tanol morphology is unusual to say the least, typologically it shows elements of synthesis and also arguably analysis. There are several parts of Tanol morphology which really make the language quite awkward to learn and on top of this the language is far from regular.

4.1 **Verbs**

On the face of things, verbs in Tanol might appear very simple:

- Verbs only have two forms: a short form and a long form which are often etymologically related to each other.
- Verbs are only marked for one argument.
- Lexical verbs are not marked for tense, aspect, or mood.
- There are only four auxiliary verbs which are used to create different tense-aspect-mood meanings.

However, each of these facts have several caveats attached to them; in fact verbs in Tanol are quite complicated.

Verbs are marked for only one argument, but this argument is neither exactly for the subject or the object, it is either for one of them or neither depending on the case marking and transitivity in the sentence. There is set of suffixes which mark the absolutive argument in a sentence, rather than the solely the subject or the object. This suffix always goes on the lexical verb, not the auxiliary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual*</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td></td>
<td>-ē/ē</td>
<td>-ay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>-os/ós</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
<td>-ir/ir</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-ur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-im/im</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Some verbs retain the dual conjugation -as*

These endings are suffixed directly onto the stem, regardless of whether it ends in a vowel or consonant. However, if the final vowel of the stem is the same as the first and second person singular markers when conjugating for those persons or if the stem ends with two vowels, then an epenthetic -s- is infixed:

*Rakh pémpasa* – You have gone
AUXI.IMP go.PERF-2.SG

*Rakh pémpay* – We have gone
AUXI.IMP go.PERF-1.PL

*Rakh téósa* – You will go
AUXI.IMP go.IMP-2.SG
Rakh téósay – We will go
AUXI.IMP go.IMP-1.PL

In an intransitive sentence with a volitional verb, the suffix marks the subject:
Tórímé – I am running
run.IMP-1.SG

In an intransitive sentence with a non-volitional verb, the suffix is omitted as there is no absolutive argument:
Su lémis(-Ø) – I am sleeping
1.SG.ERG sleep.IMP

In a transitive sentence, the suffix marks the object:
Su meri – I love you
1.SG.ERG love.IMP-2.SG

This point of grammar is particularly alien for speakers of many other languages and is a constant thorn in the side of learners of the language. This is also the beginning of the many awkward elements of Tanol verbal morphology.

The reflexive can be added to any transitive verb to create a reflexive meaning, like the -self suffix after a pronoun in English:
Vu véólúr – We see ourselves
1.PL.ERG see.IMP-REFL

It can be reduplicated to create a reciprocal meaning:
Vu véóluzúr⁷ - We see each other
1.PL.ERG see.IMP-REFL.REFL

The indefinite suffix can be used when the object of a sentence is unknown:
Kharathu véólím – The man sees someone/thing
man-ERG see.IMP-INDEF

This can be used to create a passive meaning by promoting the subject to the absolutive:
Kharath véólím – The man is seen
man.ABS see.IMP-INDEF

Literally: Someone/thing sees the man

The agent may not be restated in a passive construction in Tanol.

The indefinite can also be used to create the anti-passive by promoting the original ergative argument to an absolutive one and what would have been the absolutive argument (the object) to a prepositional phrase with vúyé:
Kharath vúyé lhúthéú véólím – The man sees the dog
man.ABS for dog-ERG see.IMP-INDEF

⁷ The /r/ of the original suffix becomes /z/ due to the dissimilative rule whereby an intervocalic /r/ becomes /z/ when bordering another syllable containing /r/.
The anti-passive is most often utilised when the speaker wishes to use an S/P pivot and delete the subject of the second clause:

*Kharath* eyo mizu *kharathu lúthé vévéólés* – The man arrived and then the man saw the dog

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Man.ABS</th>
<th>AUXII.PERF arrive.IMP</th>
<th>man-ERG</th>
<th>dog.ABS</th>
<th>see.PERF-SEQU.CONV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kharath</td>
<td>eyo mizu</td>
<td>kharathu</td>
<td>lúthé</td>
<td>vévéólés</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Lúthé eyo mizu kharathu vévéólés* – The dog arrived and then the man saw the dog

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dog.ABS</th>
<th>AUXII.PERF arrive.IMP</th>
<th>man-ERG</th>
<th>see.PERF-SEQU.CONV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lúthé</td>
<td>eyo mizu</td>
<td>kharathu</td>
<td>vévéólés</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Kharath eyo mizu vúyé lhúthéú vévéólímés* – The man arrived and then saw the dog

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Man.ABS</th>
<th>AUXII.PERF arrive.IMP</th>
<th>for dog-ERG see.PERF-INDEF-SEQU.CONV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kharath</td>
<td>eyo mizu</td>
<td>vúyé lhúthéú vévéólímés</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a non-third person anti-passive construction, the speaker could leave in the person suffix after the indefinite marker if they wish, but it may be (and often is) deleted as the person is more often than not clear from context:

*Eyo mizu vúyé lhúthéú vévéólímés* – I arrived and then saw the dog

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUXII.PERF arrive.IMP-1.SG for dog-ERG see.PERF-INDEF-1.SG-SEQU.CONV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eyo mizu vúyé lhúthéú vévéólímés</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs in Tanol have two forms, a short form and a long form which are used to create a wide array of tense, aspect and modal meanings when combined with the four auxiliary verbs in the language. These short and long forms come from an old reduplication paradigm in the proto-language. In the gloss, the short form is shown as .IMP and the long as .PERF; this is to do with etymology as the verbal meanings have drifted beyond the old imperfective-perfective distinction of Proto-Tarikhic.

Verbs are always cited in their both their short and long forms as while very often these forms are etymologically related, there are often seemingly unpredictable changes that happen to the short form to create the long form. This usually involves infixing, vowel mutation or, more rarely, suppletion. Without knowing a verb’s exact etymology and the sound changes that it has undergone, there is no way to know for sure how the long form will appear.

*Tas*  *Tathas* – to say

*Lémís*  *Léyamis* – to sleep

*Éyén*  *Ayen* – to say

*Amer*  *Athamer* – to fight

*Téó*  *Némpa* – to go

The bare short form is used for the present tense and the bare long form is the nominalised form of the verb (which is frequently used to form nouns from verbs, especially those with a more abstract meaning).

The four auxiliary verbs derive from copulae in the Proto-Tarikhic. The verbs are now called auxiliary I and auxiliary II (AUXI and AUXII in the gloss).
These each have their own short and long forms and create the following verbal meanings when combined with a lexical verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Verb Form</th>
<th>Auxiliary I</th>
<th>Auxiliary II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Short</td>
<td>Long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short</td>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
<td>Imperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long</td>
<td>Inferential</td>
<td>Renarrative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tanol makes a distinction between three aorist evidential aspects:

The simple aorist:
_Eyo ekav_ – S/He spoke
AUXII.PERF speak.IMP-3.SG

The inferential:
_Te ekav_ – It is evident that s/he spoke
AUXI.IMP speak.PERF-3.SG

The renarrative:
_Vóm ekav_ – It is said/I have been told that s/he spoke
AUXI.PERF speak.PERF-3.SG

The subjunctive is used to describe any hypothetical situation:
_Véy ranim te pizuay véy kókóyétal_ – If we leave now we can arrive sooner
now leave.PERF-COND.CONV more quickly AUX.IMP arrive.IMP-1.PL

The imperative is used for orders:
_Vóm amera!_ – Fight!
AUXI.PERF fight.IMP-2.SG

Some verbs, like _amer_, retain the old second person dual conjugation (especially in the imperative):
_Vóm ameras!_ – (You two) fight!
AUXI.PERF fight.IMP-2.DL

Tanol distinguishes between three base past tenses in a similar way that English does:

Aorist (equivalent to the English simple past):
_Vu eyo ameros_ – We fought you
1.PL.ERG AUXII.PERF fight.IMP-2.PL

Perfect:
_Vu rakh athameros_ – We have fought you
1.PL.ERG AUXII.IMP fight.PERF-2.PL

Pluperfect:
_Vu eyo athameros_ – We had fought you
1.PL.ERG AUXII.PERF fight.PERF-2.PL
And finally, Tanol has a distinct future tense:
*Su rakh lémis* – I will sleep
1.SG.ERG AUXII.IMP sleep.IMP

Tanol has a copula *tér, ézóth* “to be” which is used roughly how English speakers would expect it to be used. The subject of the copula never takes the ergative case and because of this person marking on the copula always refers to the subject.

Due to its frequent use, the copula has special forms for the different conjugations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tér</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>té</td>
<td>tay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>tós</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>tér</td>
<td>tír</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ézóth</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ézé</td>
<td>ézay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>éza</td>
<td>ézós</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ézó/ézóth</td>
<td>ézír</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The copula may also be dropped in the present tense in situations where it is clear from context, although this is generally associated with very colloquial speech:

*Sere hényó Inarin tér*  
*Sere hényó Inarin* – My name is Inarin
1.SG.GEN name.ABS Inarin.ABS be.IMP  
1.SG.GEN name.ABS Inarin.ABS

### 4.2 Negation and Interrogation

Verbs in Tanol may take with negative and interrogative prefixes. They can also be stacked, in which case either prefix may come first depending on the meaning the speaker wishes to imply.

The prefixes are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>k(e)/k(é)-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative</td>
<td>ath(i)/ath(i)-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some example sentences:

*Alu kévéólay* – You do not see us
2.SG.ERG NEG-see.IMP-1.PL

*Alu athívéólay* – Do you see us?
2.SG.ERG INTER-see.IMP-1.PL

*Alu athikévéólay* – Do you not see us?
2.SG.ERG INTER-NEG-see.IMP-1.PL

*Alu kathívéólay* – Do you not see us?
2.SG.ERG NEG-INTER-see.IMP-1.PL

The prefixes also block the stem being mutated. The negative *k(é)*- prefix takes palatal and soft mutation, the interrogative doesn’t take any mutation.
For example:

*Alu te yévévéólay* – It is evident you did not see us
2.SG.ERG AUXI.IMP NEG-see.PERF-1.PL

*Alu eyo khévévéólay* – You had not seen us
2.SG.ERG AUXII.PERF NEG-see.PERF-1.PL

*Alu te athívévéólay* – Is it the case that it is evident that you saw us?
2.SG.ERG AUXI.IMP INTER-see.PERF-1.PL

*Alu eyo athívévéólay* – Had you seen us?
2.SG.ERG AUXII.PERF INTER-see.PERF-1.PL

### 4.3 Converbs

The only other major morphological marking that verbs take is a suffix rendering them as a converb. These converbs are recent innovations in Tanol grammar, evolving in Proto-Tanolic from suffixing prepositions onto nominalised verb forms. These converbs are used in clause chaining, derivation and for creating periphrastic verbal constructions.

Clauses containing a converb tend to come before the main clause but can come after if the speaker wants to front the main clause. They are assumed to have the same verb agreement as the lexical verb unless otherwise specified. This means that if the lexical verb is transitive with a third person object, the converb, regardless of transitivity is assumed to have this as its absolutive argument. This seems confusing but can be understood through some examples.

If we take a transitive verb like *natev* (to stab):

*Su eyo natev* – I stabbed him/her
1.SG.ERG AUXII.PERF stab.IMP-3.SG

In this sentence, the verb is unmarked because it is transitive and has a third person singular absolutive argument. If we add a converb to this sentence, it is assumed to take the same absolutive argument as the lexical verb, which in this case is a third person one:

*Ethakavum su eyo natev* – After s/he spoke I stabbed him/her
speak.PERF-PERF.CONV 1.SG.ERG AUX.II.PERF stab.IMP

*Ethakavetum su eyo natev* – After I spoke I stabbed him/her
speak.PERF-1.SG-PERF.CONV 1.SG.ERG AUX.II.PERF stab.IMP

Despite each main clause having the same subject, only the first converb remains unmarked, because it has the same absolutive argument as the lexical verb. If we were to use create a similar construction but with a typically non-volitional intransitive verb:

*Ku léyamísúm su eyo natev* – After s/he slept I stabbed him/her
3.SG.ERG sleep.PERF-PERF.CONV 1.SG.ERG AUX.II.PERF stab.IMP

*Léyamísúm su eyo natev* – After s/he slept *(by choice)* I stabbed him/her
sleep.PERF-PERF.CONV 1.SG.ERG AUX.II.PERF stab.IMP

*Su léyamísúm su eyo natev* – After I slept I stabbed him/her
1.SG.ERG sleep.PERF-PERF.CONV 1.SG.ERG AUX.II.PERF stab.IMP
Léyamízúm su eyo natev – After I slept (by choice) I stabbed him/her

Alternatively, an anti-passive construction could be used:

Su léyamísmú vúyé ku eyo natevime⁸ – After I slept I stabbed him/her

Léyamísmú vúyé ku eyo natevime⁹ – After I slept (by choice) I stabbed him/her

Any one of these constructions may be used by the speaker depending on the exact meaning the speaker wishes to imply, or what information they wish to front.

The converb suffix is added after any verb morphology if present. The converb is always assumed to have the same tense-aspect-mood as the lexical verb, if this is not the case, a converb cannot be used.

There are seven converb suffixes in Tanol which are shown on the next page:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Ending</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperfective</td>
<td>While</td>
<td>-(k)o/(k)ó**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfective</td>
<td>After</td>
<td>-(t)um/(t)úm**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>In order to</td>
<td>-(v)oy/(v)óy*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
<td>Because</td>
<td>-(v)oth/(v)óth**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>If</td>
<td>-(t)al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequential</td>
<td>And (then)</td>
<td>-(r)es/(r)és*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>With</td>
<td>-(n)e/(n)é</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Causes Soft Mutation **Causes IV Mutation

The meaning of these converbs is shown in the middle column but these meanings can be context dependent.

The imperfective converb when used in clause chaining creates the meaning of “while” or “in the process of”:

* Athamero kharath eyo yiral – The man stood while fighting/and fought

fight.PERF-IMP.CONV man-SG.ABS AUXII.PERF stand.IMP

The perfective converb when used in clause chaining creates the meaning of “after” or “having completed/finished”:

* Khvóhamóv vévéólúm eyo sórímé – After I saw the snakes I ran away

snake-PL.ABS see.PERF-PERF.CONV AUXII.perf run.IMP-1.SG

---

⁸ Here the first person singular verb ending must be used because the verb arguments in the two clauses do not match; first person ergative vs first person singular

⁹ Here, the person would not be clear from context if the ending were omitted; the sentence would be assumed to have a third person subject – After s/he slept (by choice) s/he stabbed him/her
The purposive converb has the meaning of “in order to” or often more simply just “to”. While it is used in clause chaining it is most often used to write phrases with an infinitive verb in English or modal constructions:

*Léyamízévóy su khomonokh eyo sójúr* – In order to sleep I read a book

read.PERF-1.SG-PURP.CONV book-SG.ABS AUXII.PERF read.IMP-3.SG

The causal converb has the meaning of “because”, “as”, “due to the fact (that)” or any similar connective in English:

*Léyamísóth khomonokh ethakavoy eyo yimay* – He stopped reading the book because he fell asleep

sleep.PERF-CAUS.CONV the book.ABS read.PERF-PURP.CONV AUXII.PERF stop.IMP-3.SG

The conditional creates a condition which the main clause fulfils. The verb in the main clause will be marked with the subjunctive:

*Nénthatal su Tanol te senku* – If I wanted (to) I would learn Tanol

want.PERF-COND 1.SG.ERG the Tanol.ABS AUXI.IMP learn.IMP

The sequential converb lists events as taking place after each other, unlike other converbs, the sequential converb tends to come after the lexical verb:

*Alu eyo amere tórím* – You fought me (and) then ran away

2.SG.ERG 1.SG.ABS AUXII.PERF fight.IMP run.PERF-SEQU.CONV

The instrumental converb creates the meaning of “by means of” or more simply “by” when used in clause chaining:

*Athamere eyo lirihóné* – I had won by fighting

fight.PERF-INST.CONV 3.SG.ABS AUXII.PERF win.PERF

A recent development in many southern dialects is the use of the instrumental in deriving new verbs, in which case it comes before the main verb phrase.

*Ethakave amer* – To argue (literally “to fight by means of speaking”)

*Ethakave lihón* – To achieve victory peacefully, to settle a discussion (literally “to win by means of speaking”)

---

10 The reason why this seemingly non-volitional verb is marked with the absolutive is discussed in the next section.
4.4 **Fluid-S Ergative Split**

Tanol is an ergative-absolutive language which features a fluid-s split. This means that the marking on the subject of an intransitive verb will change between the ergative and absolutive cases depending on whether the verb implies volition or not.

For example, speaking is a volitional act and so in Tanol, so the subject of the verb *ekav* (to speak) is marked in the absolutive:

*Ekave* – I am speaking
*speaking-1.SG*

On the other hand, sleeping is a non-volitional act, generally one doesn’t choose to fall asleep, so in Tanol the subject of *lémís* (to sleep) is marked in the ergative:

*Su lémís* – S/He is sleeping
*1.SG.ERG sleep*

Please note that unlike active-s alignment, this system is purely semantic, and so the same verb can trigger either alignment depending on context.

The verb *néúkh* can mean either to slip or to slide depending on the marking on the subject, as to slip has essentially the same meaning as to slide just without volition:

*Eyo yéúkh* – S/He slid
*AUXII.PERF slide.IMP-3.SG*

*Ku eyo yéúkh* – S/He slipped
*3.SG.ERG AUXII.PERD slide.IMP-3.SG*

When extra marking or context is added to an intransitive verb this can also change the marking on the subject. So *lémís* is ordinarily a non-volitional verb but if one adds the adds the verb *néth* (to want) to the sentence:

*Léyamísóy vóm nénthaír* – Apparently they wanted to sleep
*sleep.PERF-PURP.CONV AUXI.PERF want.PERF-3.PL*

Similarly, the future tense generally causes non-volitional verbs to become volitional but this is highly dependent on the semantic environment:

*Su ésé khvónú rakh lémís* – I will sleep tonight
*1.SG.ERG by night-ERG AUXII.IMP sleep.IMP*

Here sleeping is interpreted as being non-volitional as it is like a habitual action that the speaker does not choose to do. It can be read as “tonight I will fall asleep like I normally do”:

*Su khomonokh sózóyúrúm, rakh lémízé* – Having read the book, I will sleep
*1.SG.ERG book read.PERF-PERF.CONV AUXII.IMP sleep.IMP*

Here sleeping is interpreted as being volitional as it is implied to be a planned action by the speaker, that is the speaker wants or plans to carry out the action, thus implying volition. It can be read as “after I have finished reading the book I plan to read, I will carry out the sleeping I have also planned”.

17
The difference in meaning to an English speaker may seem inconsequential or even non-existent but to Tanol speakers it is an intuitive part of the language, though equally an infuriating part for learners.

Mastering this very fine point of Tanol grammar is one of the hardest aspects of the language for learners. Indeed, different dialects disagree in what context typically volitional or non-volitional intransitive verbs change.

4.5 Nouns

Nouns in Tanol take marking for case and number. Nouns fall into two declensions; V declension, where a the nominal suffix is added directly to the root or a vowel based on the phonologically history of the word is added before the nominal suffix and C declension where a different vowel is added.

There are three grammatical numbers:

1. Singular – Exactly one of something
   *Kharath* – The man
2. Dual – Exactly two of something
   *Kharatheno* – The two men
3. Plural – Three or more
   *Kharathév* – The men

There are three cases:

1. Absolutive
   a. The subject of intransitive verbs of volition
      *Kharath ekav* – The man is speaking
   b. The direct object of transitive verbs
      *Menvau kharath mere* – The woman loves the man
2. Ergative
   a. The subject of intransitive verbs of non-volition
      *Kharathu lémís* – The man is sleeping
   b. The subject of transitive verbs
      *Kharathu menva tíyúné* – The woman is drawing the woman
3. Genitive
   The possessor of a noun phrase
   *Kharathere lhūthé*\(^{11}\) – The man’s dog

\(^{11}\) Note that a noun in the genitive precedes the noun it describes and causes the following word to undergo soft mutation
The declension for nouns is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>V Declension</th>
<th>C Declension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Dual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolutive</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>-Vu/Vuó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergative</td>
<td>-u/ú</td>
<td>-Vnu/Vnú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>-ere/érë</td>
<td>-Vner/Vneré</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(V) stands for the vowel that is inserted.*

Nouns are written in dictionaries in their citation form, the bare stem of the noun without any marking and in the case of V declension words ending with a consonant, the theme vowel will be given in brackets.

For example:

- **Ayeth(i)** – Face
  - *Ayethino* – Two faces
  - *Ayethinu* – Two faces (erg)
- **Kharath(e)** – Man
  - *Kharathev* – Men
  - *Kharathevere* – Men’s
- **Kékan(ú)** – Morning
  - *Kékanúv* – Mornings
  - *Kékanúvú* – Mornings (erg)
- **Yúrév(ó)** – Fruit
  - *Yúrévónó* – Two pieces of fruit
  - *Yúrévónéré* – Two pieces of fruits’
- **Téy(a)** – Leaf
  - *Téyav* – Leaves
  - *Téyavú* – Leaves (erg)

V declension nouns which end with a vowel are given in their normal form.

For example:

- **Tirose** – Ear
  - *Tiroseno* – Two ears
  - *Tirosenu* – Two ears (erg)
- **Yóvósé** – Fang/sword
  - *Yóvósév* – Fangs/swords
  - *Yóvósévéré* – Fangs’/Swords’
- **Kónsé** – Horse
  - *Kónsénó* – Two horses
  - *Kónsénú*

C declension nouns can either end with a consonant or a hidden consonant that only appears when the word is declined. If the noun ends with a hidden consonant, it will be given in brackets after the word. The hidden consonants can change depending on if the suffix is a number or a case suffix, as was discussed in section 3.4. Another note is that the plural suffix for C declension nouns causes the final vowel of the root to lower, except for /a/.

For example:

- **Tivem** – Tongue
  - *Tivamav* – Tongues
  - *Tivamovere* – Tongues’
- **Svóka(z/s)** – Merchant
  - *Svókazénó* – Two merchants
  - *Svókasú* – Merchant (erg)
- **Emvokh(/v)** – Foot
  - *Emvovenó* – Two feet
  - *Emvovere* – Foot’s

Beyond this single ending for case and gender, nouns take no other morphological marking, though as I discuss in the derivation section, there are several derivational affixes present in Tanol.

### 4.6 Modifiers

Adjectives in Tanol do not exist as such, instead there is a group of stative verbs that serve the role of adjectives.
When used predicatively they function in exactly the same way as verbs:

**Kharathu pěyín** – The man is tall
man-ERG be.tall.IMP

When used attributively, the verb is placed before the noun:

**Pěyín kharath** – The tall man
be.tall.IMP man.ABS

A non-stative verb like sóyúr “to read” can be made into an adjective by turning it into an imperfective converb then placing it before the noun:

**Sózóyúró menva** – The reading woman
the read.PERF-CONV.IMP woman.ABS

Adjectives have no inflected superlative, comparative or any other form, these meanings are created with the word *lekh* “more” (which also triggers IV mutation). When used with a stative verb it creates a comparative meaning, when used in conjunction with *é* it creates a superlative meaning. The compared element in a comparative construction precedes the noun and adjective and is used with the preposition *tal* “on, pertaining to”.

**Ku lekh zayev** – It is further away
3.SG.ERG more be.far.away.IMP

**Lekh věyín kharath** – The taller man
more be.tall.IMP man.ABS

**É khu lekh zayev** – It is furthest away
DET 3.SG.ERG more be.tall.IMP

**É lhekh věyín kharath** – The tallest man
DET more be.tall.IMP man.ABS

**Tal menvau kharath lekh věyín** - The man is taller than the woman
on woman.ERG man.ABS more be.tall.IMP

To create an equative meaning a sentence something like “the X is at/by the Y's Zness” is used, where the long form of the adjective is used:

**Kharath éšé menvaere věvayín (téř)**12 – The man is as tall as the woman
man.ABS by woman-GEN be.tall.PERF (be.IMP)

In Tanol there is only one determiner, *é* (which becomes *ét* when the following word begins with a vowel). This particle serves as both a proximate and distal determiner (meaning Tanol does not distinguish between “this” and “that”). It takes no case nor number marking and causes the following word to under soft mutation. When a noun is preceded by a preposition *é* is never used.

Adverbs of time or place tend to come at the beginning of a sentence, whereas those of manner come immediately before the verb phrase. Non-lexical adverbs are created from the short form of the stative verb or the absolutive form a noun with the suffix *-im/im*:

---

12 To be may be omitted in this context.
Véy naye ranim Tanolim ekav – Right now the child is speaking Tanol quickly
now child.ABS be.fast.IMP-ADV Tanol.ABS-ADV speak.IMP

4.7 Numbers
Tanol features a base-12 number system, meaning in terms of base-10, Tanol speakers count up to 12 before starting the next set of numbers. Numbers, like all modifiers, precede the noun they modify, and nouns modified by numbers do not take number marking:
*Tun menva* – Four women
four woman.ABS

Here is the Tanol number system up to base-12 1000 (1728 in base-10):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base 12</th>
<th>In base 10</th>
<th>Tanol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>tas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ór</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>veku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>svól</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>tun</td>
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<td>lith</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>úkhay</td>
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<td>khis</td>
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<td>énóm</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>nev</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>éné</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ε</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
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<td>kem</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>aram ór</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>aram veku</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>aram svól</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>24</td>
<td>vakam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>vakam ór</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>vakam veku</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>vakam svól</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>saram</td>
</tr>
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<td>48</td>
<td>tvónam</td>
</tr>
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<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>letham</td>
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<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>úkhéyam</td>
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<td>84</td>
<td>khézam</td>
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<td>108</td>
<td>napam</td>
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<td>120</td>
<td>énazam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ε0</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>lenvam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>léné</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1,728</td>
<td>lénkha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.8 Pronouns

Personal pronouns in Tanol decline for case and number in a similar way to nouns and other pronouns don’t behave in a particularly outlandish way.

Personal pronouns are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolutive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Ergative** |
| Person | Number |
| 1st | Su | Vu |
| 2nd | Alu | Khasu | Pósú |
| 3rd | Ku | Hirú |

| **Genitive** |
| Person | Number |
| 1st | Sere | Vere |
| 2nd | Alere | PéRé |
| 3rd | Kere | Héré |

Genitive pronouns precede the noun they describe and cause the following word to undergo soft mutation.

The relative pronoun as such does not really exist in Tanol. To create a relative clause, a converb of some description is typically used (see section 4.2). If the two clauses are different in tense and aspect, then sentences are just placed adjacent to each other. In this case, the relative clause tends to be placed before the main clause, but it can be placed afterwards.

*Sózóyürúm su mënva eyo véól* – I saw the woman who was reading

**read.PERF-PERF.CONV 1.SG.ERG woman.ABS AUXII.PERF see.IMP**

*Kéhanúé khasu tivamav ekavir* – You two are speaking languages that I don’t know

**NEG-know.IMP-1.SG 2.DL.ERG dialect.ABS speak.IMP 1.SG.ABS not know.IMP**

Literally: You two are speaking languages (that) I don’t know
4.9 **Prepositions**

As Tanol lacks local case marking, prepositions are the primary way to mark location and locational adjuncts, among other things. Most prepositions also trigger some kind of consonant mutation. Nouns in prepositional phrases always take the ergative case.

Tanol does not have a huge amount of core prepositions, most of them having multiple meanings depending on context:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No Mutation</th>
<th>IV Mutation</th>
<th>Soft Mutation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tal</td>
<td>on, on top of, pertaining to</td>
<td>kó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>with, along with, using</td>
<td>um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sein</td>
<td>under, underneath, below</td>
<td>éssé</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ekh</td>
<td>because of, due to, on behalf of</td>
<td>yvóth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tum</td>
<td>after, behind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many of these prepositions are used roughly how an English speaker might expect.

For example:

*Ekh khvóhamónú eyo rúmaé* – Because of the two snakes I ran (away)

*Kó urulu eyo rúmaé* – I walked on the mountain(s)

*Résé lhéthvónú eyo rúmaé* – I walked (away) from the house

In the second sentence, where an English speaker might want to use a word like *tal* when talking about walking *on* a mountain, Tanol speakers simply use *kó* to describe any kind of spatial relation.

If one wanted to say “I walked inside the mountain” (maybe some kind of subterranean cavern):

*Kó urulere lhvasvau eyo rúmaé* – I walked inside the mountain

Similarly, “I sat on a chair” one would use *kó* instead of *tal*:

*Kó vúnvórayú eyo púnvóé* – I sat on the chair

The second sentence implies the speaker is sitting on the top of the chair, maybe implying they are sitting on the top of the back of the chair rather than the seat itself.
4.10 Syntax
As previously mentioned, Tanol is predominantly head-final, SOV language. For the most part, modifiers precede their heads.

Nouns are always the last element in a noun phrase:
Ésé zere lékhím khúyél menvau insie – I am standing next to my beautiful wife near 1.SG.GEN very be.beautiful.IMP woman-ERG stand.IMP-1.SG

In this sentence, the noun *menvau* is preceded by the adposition, genitive pronoun, adverb, and adjective.

Verbs are similarly the last element in a verb phrase:
Yvóth léthvóyú lékhím ranim eyo théosay – We very quickly went home
to house-ERG very fast.IMP-ADV AUXII.PERF

Here we see the verb follow an two adverbs and auxiliary verb.

In both of these examples we see an adverb (*lékhím* “very”) precede both an adjective and another adverb.

Tanol word order is essentially restricted to SOV order. Prepositional phrases tend to come first in a sentence and adverbs of manner tend to come before the verb or auxiliary verb. The auxiliary verb and lexical verb may not be separated by other words.

*Su kónsé véól* – I see the horse
1.SG.ERG horse.ABS see.IMP
Subject-object-verb

*Yvóth menvau su yóvósé rakh kél* – I will give the woman a sword
to woman.ERG 1.SG.ERG sword.ABS AUXI.IMP give.IMP
Indirect object-subject-object-verb

Wh-questions are formed using the standard SOV structure:
*Alu athe eyo véól?* – Who/what did you see?
2.SG.ERG what AUXII.PERF see.PERF
5 Derivation

Tanol mostly prefers to derive new words from native sources rather than borrowing from other languages, although this happens occasionally. It features some productive suffixes as well as some less productive ones, the latter mostly originating from Proto-Tarikhic, in which case there has been significant semantic shifts in many cases from the original meanings.

5.1 Nominal Derivation

Many nouns are derived from verbs, and most derivational affixes attach to verbs. Some of these affixes are much more productive and others are fossils left over from Proto-Tarikhic or late Proto-Tarikhic derivational morphology.

Older suffixes tend to lead to some phonological changes to the root whereas newer suffixes tend to attach to the root with no changes. Similarly, there is sometimes some semantic extension from the meaning of the root in older suffixes whereas newer suffixes tend to stay close to the original root.

For example, the old diminutive in Tanol is -e/é, coming from Proto-Tarikhic *-es. The new, productive diminutive is -ay:

- Insvor – Stone + -e  Insvore – Bone
- Insvor – Stone + -ay  Insvoray – Pebble
- Kemer – Room + -ay  Kemeray – Small room, closet, cupboard

The old and new human agentive suffixes, -a and -is respectively, are similar in this regard:

- Ruzu – To farm + -a  Rvóza – Person
- Ruzu – To farm + -is  Ruzuis – Farmer

In many cases, such as ruzu to rvóza speakers no longer see the old derivational suffix as such. This does not mean there are no examples of more transparent relationships in old derivational suffixes:

- Nie – Branch + -e  Nieze – Stick

There are a couple of older suffixes which are still productive, but they often trigger some phonological mutation similar to nominal inflectional morphology. Such a suffix would be the locative suffix -ar which causes A-mutation like the C declension plural:

- Lémís – To sleep + -ar  Lémisar – Bedroom
- Ruzu – To farm + -ar  Rvózar – Habituated area, population centre

As you may be able to guess from the example of ruzu, sometimes the semantic shift has affected the root as well as the derived form. Ruzu comes from the Proto-Tarikhic word *rūsū (to settle, begin to dwell, cultivate), which then drifted to the modern Tanol word ruzu (to farm). So, the original meaning of rvóza (or *rūsas as the Proto-Tarikhic form was) was something like “one who settles” or “one who dwells”, and rvózar (*rūsare in Proto-Tarikhic) was “a place that is settled”, which then shifted to mean a place that is populated. Ruzuis
first saw usage in Proto-Tanolic, where *ruzu had started to mean to farm. Thus, with two different agentive suffixes, the verb yields two nouns with different meanings.

There are other examples of semantic shifts causing interesting derivational histories. For example, the word for wolf in Tanol is *lúthésír. This word is made of *lúthé (dog) + iř (augmentative), so literally a “big dog”. The word *lúthé comes from Proto-Tarikhic *lyut (wolf) and *-es (diminutive), so a “small wolf”. Thus, etymologically *lúthésír literally means something like a “a small big wolf”. Proto-Tarikhic *lyut was lost in the Tanolic subbranch but was retained in other Tarikhic languages.

5.2 VERBAL DERIVATION

Verbal derivation is quite similar to nominal derivation, although there are fewer verbal derivational suffixes. Some inflectional suffixes can be used derivationally, for example the reflexive suffix:

*Séríkh – To empty + ur Séríkúr – To vomit (literally to empty oneself)

The reflexive can also be used to create intransitive verbs from intransitive ones, in the case of verbs which imply that the subject is both an agent and patient (almost as a kind of mediopassive):

*Alu léthvón eyo khúzókha – You burnt the house (down)
2.SG.ERG house.ABS AUXII.PERF burn.IMP
Léthvónú kúzókhaúr – The house is burning (down)
house-ERG burn.IMP-REFL (literally: the house is burning itself)

Some nominal derivational suffixes, the augmentative and diminutive, can be used on verbal roots:

*Mékún – To cut, pierce + -ir Mékúnír – To dig
*Túmvó – To tie + -e Túmé – To sew
Túmvó – To tie + -ir Túmvóír – To moor

A very productive suffix left over from Proto-Tarikhic is the causative -akh:

*Nél – To die + -akh Nayakh – To kill
*Kérú – To be empty + -akh Karakh – To wipe

The original meaning of *kérú was “to be dry”, so karakh originally meant “to make dry”. Overtime, both words shifted in meaning away from each other and the original meaning.

5.3 BORROWINGS AND LOANWORDS

Tanol tends not to take on many loan words, preferring to derive words from native sources, but there are couple of loanwords, especially in more specialist fields. Tanol has taken on words from the languages around itn, especially Sañ-pýmo and Hazari’i.

The speakers of Sañ-pýmo, the Mýnó, trade a lot with the city states of Anthes, especially those in the east, which border the territory of the Mýnó. This trade is mostly made up of spices, herbs, and other foods which grow in the island archipelagos stretching south-east of
the Doromeran continent. Hence the borrowings from Sān-pyōmo tend to be words related to these things.

Some examples of words taken from Sān-pyōmo:

Señ-her /seŋʰeŋər/ – Tea  Senir

Señ-šose – /seŋˈʃose/ – Coriander  Sensose

Ósa /ʔoˈsə/ – Cumin  Osa

Qýs /qɨs/ – Cloves  Kís

There are many of these examples, but these are some of the most common ones.

Borrowings from Hazari’i, specifically Classical Hazari’i tend to be related to things like science, art, music, literature, and other elements of high society.\textsuperscript{14}

\textsuperscript{13} Many sounds foreign to the Proto-Tanolic speakers who borrowed these words were either changed to more familiar sounds or in the case of “weak” sounds like /h/ (which was present in Sān-pyōmo at this time but not Proto-Tanolic; when /h/ shifted to /ħ/, the /i/ also lowered to /e/) were ignored.

\textsuperscript{14} Work on Classical Hazari’i and its daughter languages is very much in its infancy, so the grammar for Tanol will be updated when the vocabulary for Tanol to borrow exists in Hazari’i.
6 DIALECTS

Tanol has many millions of speakers spread across a very large geographical area, this means the language is rich in dialectal variation. These dialects are grouped into five large dialect groups based on common linguistic, especially phonetic, features. These groups are northern, western, central, eastern and southern; standard Tanol belonging to the latter group. The dialects of Tanol start with Proto-Tanolic, when the Ruhem people started to spread out more across Anthes new sound changes happened in some areas that didn’t in others.

6.1 SOUTHERN TANOL

The southern dialect of Tanol is the one which has been discussed in this grammar so far, as the svókazavéra tiveme is based on the southern dialect of the language. Like all dialect groups there are specific dialects within this group such as the Tamiris dialect, but a discussion of every major dialect could constitute its own book, probably one spanning multiple volumes. Many younger speakers of the southern dialect are adopting a feature very common to many western and northern dialects, where /ɛ/ is pronounced as /ɪ/.

6.2 WESTERN TANOL

Western Tanol features the aforementioned shift of /ɛ/ to /ɪ/. It also features a shift whereby back vowels raise before nasals. Like a lot of western and northern dialects, the rhotic is always pronounced as a trill, and normally a retracted trill /tʃ/. /ʃ/ is normally pronounced as /ɕ/ too.

6.3 CENTRAL TANOL

In central Tanol, if in vowel hiatus the second vowel is higher than the first, the first vowel will become long and the second vowel will be deleted, /ɔ/ is also frequently pronounced as /ɑ/. /h/ is pronounced as pharyngeal /h/ due to the influence of nearby Sān-pyōmo, and whereas in many other dialects, /h/ became /x/ at the end of a word, it was lost in central Tanol. This means the word foot in central Tanol is pronounced as /emvo/ instead of /emvox/. /r/ is retracted in central Tanol too and the Proto-Tanolic voiceless trill /r/ did not become /h/ and stayed as a voiceless trill and it is normally retracted like its voiced counterpart. /ʃ/ is realised as /w/ at the end of a word, and unlike in other Tanol dialects Proto-Tanolic /ʃ/ did not become /h/ but instead /tʃ/. /ʃ/ is also usually pronounced as /ɕ/ and something unique to central Tanol is that Proto-Tanolic /w/ became /xʷ/.

6.4 EASTERN TANOL

Eastern Tanol was phonologically influenced a lot by Classical Hazari’i and still is by its daughter languages and sounds very different to the other dialects a lot because of this. /r/ is usually a uvular trill /ʁ/ and the voiceless trill of Proto-Tanolic became /ʁ/ in this dialect and then later /χ/. The lamino-dental consonants are pronounced as alveolar consonants, and /θ/ is realised as /ʤ/. Proto-Tanolic /ɣ/ became /x/ rather than /h/ like in many other
dialects. But like in central Tanol /l/ became /ɬ/. /ɛ/ is normally realised as /a/ and back vowels centralise to the schwa in hiatus with front vowels. Some words ending with mid front vowels in other dialects end with high front vowels in eastern Tanol.

6.5 Northern Tanol
The northern dialect has a lot in common with the central and western dialects. /ɬ/ is realised as /tɬ/, /ɛ/ is realised as /ɪ/, /a/ is pronounced as /ɛ/ and /ɔ/ and /ʊ/ are both pronounced as /ɔ/. Like in eastern Tanol, there are some words that end in /i/ that end with /e/ in the north, and on top of this /s/ was not lost word finally in northern Tanol. The voiceless trill didn’t become /h/ either and mid and low vowels are pronounced as a schwa in vowel hiatus. And like central Tanol, /l/ is usually pronounced as /w/ word finally and many younger speakers pronounce /l/ as /w/ in all environments. And finally, /w/ did not merge with /v/ in the north like it did in other dialects.

6.6 Comparison of the Dialects
Here is the same sentence in the five different dialects for comparison:
Énsú kó réthvónú su é lhúthé eyo véól. Résé pvókhanú tósórimé eyo khóyé. – I saw that dog in the house yesterday. It left by running out the door.
yesterday in house-ERG 1.SG.ERG DET dog.ABS AUXII.PERF see.IMP. from door-ERG run.PERF-INSTR(CONV AUXII.PERF leave.IMP.

Southern:
/ɛnsu ko reθvɔnʊ su e tuθe ejo veci rεse pɯɛxɑnɔŋu tɔsɔrimɛ ejo xɔje/

Western:
/ɪnsu ko rɪθvɔnʊ su ɪ tuθi ejo ɪnci rɛs pɯɛxɑnɔŋu tɔsɔrimɛ ejo xɔci/

Central:
/ɛnsu ko reθvɔnʊ su e ɬuθe ejo veci rɛs pɯɛxɑnɔŋu tɔsɔrimɛ ejo xɔje/

Eastern:
/ansu ko rəθvɔnʊ su e ɬəθe ejo veʃə ləsə pɯɛxɑnɔŋu tɔsɔrimɛ ejo xɔjɛ/

Northern:
/ɪnsɔ ko rθvɔnʊ su ɪ eθəθe ejo ɪnci lɛsə pɯɛxɑnɔŋu tɔsɔrimɛ ejo xɔjɛ/

6.7 Other Dialect Features
Dialects also differ in other ways. For example, there are certain words which are different across the different dialects, and dialects have their own colloquial terms and expressions. While grammar remains mostly consistent, dialects can differ on when they consider certain intransitive verbs to be volitional or non-volitional. An interesting shift currently taking place in the northern and some central dialects is that of the loss of the de-af, and in some dialects, the palatal mutations. Essentially, the IV mutations are starting to be crushed down into just the hard mutation.