

# The pangalactic language

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## 1 Introduction

The pangalactic language is the auxiliary language used most generally for communication between people of biped type. The language is designed so as to be usable by as large a number of biped type species as possible. It is the working language of the Pangalactic Community and has been so since time immemorial.

It is unknown who invented the language. Artefacts of approximately a billion years old have been uncovered, with inscriptions in the pangalactic language. It seems like the language hardly underwent any change in all that time. Many proposals to set right real or perceived flaws have been made over the aeons, but it seems that none were ever implemented. What is sure, however, is that the language cannot have been based on any natural language, but that it has to have been constructed from whole cloth. The language comes too close to being the optimal language for interspecies communication to have more than negligible basis in any naturally evolved language.

The name of the language in the language itself is *Yésináne suKísu* or the Language of All. In other languages this name is often literally translated, but many other names exist, like Pangalactic Language (by far the most common way of referring to it — this name is often even used in the language itself: *Yésináne suKusikéla-Kísu*), the Aliens' Language (most common among species that have only recently established contact with the pangalactic community), or simply some adaptation of *suKísu* or *Kísu*.

## 2 General typology

The grammar is agglutinative, without any fusion at all. All morphological processes consist of adding prefixes to words, both in derivation as in inflection. As an example consider the following word:

*'e'aze'izákahíse'uya*

'e-'a-ze-'i-záka-híse-'uya

ACC-fact-CONT-do-use-technology-transport

the fact of currently using some motorized travelling method (accusative)

Syntax, just like the morphology, is mostly right-branching. The only exception is that subjects precede verbs.

### 3 Phonology

The language has been designed for species communicating orally using sounds. As these make up the majority of species in the universe, catering for them only already reduces the required amount of translation considerably. However, given the great diversity of speech organs, only a rather minimal set of phonemes can be allowed. For example, due to the non-negligible fraction of species having a tongue either too weak or too inflexible to pronounce clicks, such sounds do not occur in the language.

#### 3.1 Consonants

The following table lists the consonants used by the language. Mark that the prescribed points of articulation are rather vague. The transcription used here indicates what would be the preferred pronunciation for human mouths.

	front	back	glottal
nasal stop	n		
plosives	b t	g k	ʔ
fricative	z s		h
lateral	l		
approximants	w	y	

#### 3.2 Vowels

The language has four vowels: one is centered, one is open, and two are closed. The closed vowels are distinguished by being front and back, and it is advised to round the back vowel and not to round the front vowel, if the speech apparatus allows for this. They are transcribed here as ⟨e, a, i, u⟩.

#### 3.3 Suprasegmentals

Although tone is far from a universal feature among the universe's language, all species communicating orally are able to produce it and are able to distinguish different pitches. The language has one tone, a high tone, and all syllables not having this tone are low. It is not possible to have two consecutive high tones within one root. A high tone also cannot come on the last syllable of a root, such that there will never be two consecutive high tones across word boundaries either. In this document the high tone is transcribed with an acute accent.

Stress is not used, as it usually leads to involuntary vowel reduction, which would make the language evolve, and which would make speakers with strong stress accent less understandable. Furthermore it would unavoidable that many people would use only a weak stress accent, reducing comprehensability. People whose language has stress and who have a hard time to completely eliminate it, are advised to stress words on the last syllable, or on syllables with high tone. People speaking languages with stress typically correlating with low tone are advised to stress syllables following high tones.

#### 3.4 Phonotactics

Following the most prevalent pattern in the universe, the language has only CV syllables. Furthermore the combinations \*uyi and \*iwu are disallowed within roots, as they would be easily

confused with *wi* and *iyu* respectively.<sup>1</sup>

## 4 The noun phrase

The noun phrase has the following order:

(preposition) (number)-noun-(dependent word) – adjectives – numerals – determiner

The slot “dependent word” is present in compound words, which usually are head-first. An example is:

*zúhi kázazúlu kehe wuka wúyi*

*zúhi káza-zúlu kehe wuka wúyi*  
because friend-female kind three that

because of those three kind female friends

There exists the possibility to construct compounds consisting of equal parts, built as word + particle + word, as:

*núzeletígu*

*núze-le-tígu*  
parent-PART-sibling

close family

This process is less productive than normal head + modifier compounds, though.

Plural is formed by adding the prefix *la-*. This prefix is usually left out when a numeral is present.

### 4.1 Pronouns

Personal pronouns distinguish first, second, and third person. Other gradations in meaning are made by adding prefixes or modifying adjectives. The basic forms are *wanu* (first), *sili* (second), and *hebe* (third person). Plural is formed with the pluralizing prefix *la-* or by the collectivizing prefix *kusi-*. Furthermore it is quite common to link two of these pronouns to form compounds, as *sili-le-wanu* (“you and I”). There also exists a special set of collective pronouns usually used to denote entire species, which are formed in a portmanteau way from *kusi-* plus the pronoun: *kúnu*, *kúli*, and *kúbe*. Furthermore there exists a “neutral” pronoun *sa* (roughly corresponding to “it”). It is used to refer to objects (while *hebe* usually only denotes people or at most animates like animals) and forms its plural regularly as *lasa*. The demonstrative pronoun *níyi* is rather equivalent with *sa*, but is more stressed when referring to some object, takes no plural, and is usually used to refer to abstract concepts. It can take a demonstrative adjective to make it more specific, giving *níyi zeyi* (“this”) or *níyi wúyi* (“that”).

The reflexive pronoun is *wi* and refers back to the subject of the clause:

*Wanu hinuyúya yasili 'ebílu ke bakísu tunáne ha'u wi.*

*wanu hi-nu-yúya ya-sili 'e-bílu ke ba-kísu tu-náne ha'u wi*  
I FUT-CAUS-seeing DAT-you ACC-person CONJ TEMP-all have-speaking with self

I'll show you that person who always speaks with himself.

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<sup>1</sup>Mark that these combinations can and do occur over morpheme boundaries, as in *nuyíwe*, “to put to work”, composed of the causative *nu-* plus the root *yíwe*, “work”. Many times it has been proposed to get rid of the *yi* and *wu* syllables altogether to solve this, but the language has resisted all attempts to tinker with it so far.

The pronoun *wi* normally does not take the plural prefix. “Each other” is expressed as “one to other”:

*Sili-le-wanu hi'ináne si'i 'eheyi*

sili-le-wanu hi-'i-náne            si'i 'e-heyi  
 you-and-I    FUT-do-speaking one ACC-other

We'll speak with each other, you and I.

There does not exist any dummy pronoun. Impresonal verbs are either expressed without any subject at all:

*Yusane-zeyi ga gezizu.*

yu-sane-zeyi    ga gezizu  
 LOC-inside-here be hot

It's hot in here.

or else with some relevant nouns as subject:

*Witi beza zeyi, sebiwa ta'ituzíke-yezili galu beza.*

witi beza zeyi , sebiwa ta-'i-tuzíke-yezili            galu    beza  
 on day this , sky    PST-do-precipitation-water through day

It's been raining all day today. (literally: Today, the sky was raining all day.)

## 4.2 Proper nouns

As most names in the universe belong to languages with phonology incompatible with this language, and often even incompatible with what the speaker would be able to pronounce, names are often translated when possible, or fitted into the phonology of the auxiliary language otherwise. Very often this results in phrases that could be interpreted as noun phrases denoting objects or such. In order to leave no room for misunderstandings due to this, an article should be prefixed to any proper noun. There is one article for people's names, one for species, one for places/states and one for astronomical objects.

As an example, the human European name Alexander could be translated as “He-Who-Protects-The-People”, which gives *we-nuBibáhi-'eKusibílu*, while the Vietnamese name Nhị would become “Second”, or *we-Huzanéle*. Equivalently, when keeping the forms and adapting them to the phonology of the pangalactic language, they could become something like *we'Alekesánabele* and *weNi* respectively.

The other naming articles are used as follows: a person from the Tewánina planet would be a *ziTewánina*, the planet is called *buTewánina*, and the planet as a governmental entity is *haTewánina*.<sup>2</sup> Cities, countries, and all other entities that only arise from intelligent beings organising themselves always take the article *ha-*.

## 5 Verbs

All content verbs are derived from essentially nominal roots. A series of prefixes exists to construct verbs with, which are also occasionally used as independent verbs. The most common ones are *'i-* (“to do”), used for most action verbs, and *tu-* (“to have”), used generally for stative verbs. Passive verbs are formed with *ye-*, and causatives with *nu-*. There are three more independent verbs not containing any of these prefixes: the copulae *ga* (“to be”) and *bene* (“to become”) and the auxiliary *liyu* (“can, to be able to, to be allowed to”). These are occasionally used as prefixes to derive other verbs as well. Some examples are listed below:

<sup>2</sup>Often an astronomical object will coincide with the jurisdiction of some state-entity, in which cases the two possible articles *ha-* and *bu-* can be used, depending on where the stress is laid.

- *káse* (leave) – *'ikáse* (to leave) – *yekáse* (to be abandoned) – *nukáse* (to send away)
- *zune* (question) – *'izune* (to ask) – *tuzune* (to have a question) – *yezune* (to be asked) – *nuzune* (to make someone ask)
- *wese* (belief, thought) – *'iwese* (to think) – *tuwese* (to believe) – *nuwese* (to make believe)
- *yéwa* (life) – *'iyéwa* (to live) – *tuyéwa* (to be alive) – *yeyéwa* (to go with the flow of life) – *nuyéwa* (to enliven)

When auxiliaries are present, it is the auxiliary which receives the tense and aspect prefixes. The main verb comes immediately after the auxiliary, often without its verbal prefix:

*Wanu tatuhéyu káse, zúhi tatuhéyu 'iyile gika búni.*

wanu ta-tu-héyu káse, zúhi ta-tu-héyu 'i-yile gika búni  
I PST-have-obligation leaving, because PST-have-obligation do-going to house

I had to leave, because I had to go home.

## 5.1 Conjugation

There exist several tense and aspect prefixes. Gnomic statements do not get any of these prefixes:

*Wanu tutuse weNuséya.*

wanu  $\emptyset$ -tu-tuse we-nu-séya  
I GNO-have-name ART-CAUS-upwards

My name is Raise.

The tense prefixes are also not used when tense is clear from contexts:

*Babezanale sili 'isahutése. Babezalíwa wanu 'i.*

ba-beza-nale sili  $\emptyset$ 'i-sahu-tése . ba-beza-líwa wanu  $\emptyset$ 'i  
TEMP-day-before you PST-do-make-food . TEMP-day-after I FUT-do

Yesterday you cooked. Tomorrow I will do it.

The past is marked with *ta-*, the future with *hi-*. These often indicate a relative tense, meaning that, in a past context, the past tense prefix will denote an anterior past, and the future prefix a past prospective.

*Bake sili 'ihini, wanu ta'ihúyu na hi'itése.*

ba-ke sili 'i-hini , wanu ta-'i-húyu na hi-'i-tése  
TEMP-CONJ you do-arrival , I PST-do-sleeping and FUT-do-food

When you arrived I had been sleeping and was about to eat.

The two pure aspect prefixes are the continuous *ze-* and the perfect *gu-*. These can be combined with the tense prefixes, in which case the tense prefix will come first:

*Wanu tagu'iyile gika buKa'ále banale.*

wanu ta-gu-'i-yile gika bu-Ka'ále ba-nale  
I PST-PERF-do-going to ART-Kaal TEMP-before

I had visited the Kaal system before.

Personal conjugations do not exist, and subject and object can be expressed by explicit noun phrases (or pronouns) only.

## 5.2 Verbal operations

Passives and causatives are expressed by using a different verb, usually built from the same roots as the original but with a different prefix. The passive then takes the verbal prefix *ye-*:

*Bílu néle gu'ibúna-'ehiwa 'ewanu. Wanu guyebúna-'ehiwa ki bílu néle.*

bílu néle gu-'i-búna-'ehiwa 'e-wanu . wanu gu-ye-búna-'ehiwa ki  
person two PERF-do-take-criminally ACC-I . I PERF-PASS-take-criminally by  
bílu néle  
person two

Two people robbed me. I've been robbed by two people.

As can be seen in this example, an eventual agent of the passive verbs is introduced by the preposition *ki*.

Causatives are formed with the prefix *nu-*. The patient becomes object of the causative verb if the original was intransitive:

*Hebe yezúga getika. Zakáyi nuzúga 'ehebe.*

hebe ye-zúga ge-tika . za-káyi nu-zúga 'e-hebe  
he PASS-death ESS-young . ABSTR-love CAUS-death ACC-he

He died young. Love killed him.

If the original was transitive, there are two possible structures. If the subject of the causative action is performing any action himself, the original object remains object and the patient receives the preposition *ya*:

*Núze-leza suwanu zenutése 'ewúkuta-basehi ya kusikayáwa.*

núze-leza su-wanu ze-nu-tése 'e-wúkuta-basehi ya kusi-kayáwa  
parent-masculine GEN-I CONT-CAUS-food ACC-grass-dry for COLL-animal

My father is feeding the animals straw.

If the causative subject is causing the action by authority or force, the causative prefix is usually divorced from its verb, and is instead followed by the conjunction *ke* plus a subordinate sentence:

*Hebe tanu ke tekáyi suwi 'i 'ehiwa tasi.*

hebe ta-nu ke te-káyi su-wi 'i 'ehiwa tasi  
she PST-cause CONJ person-love GEN-self do crime awful

She made her lover commit horrible crimes.

## 6 Adjectives and the like

Adjectives are very often have a prefix *ge-* to distinguish them. This prefix can be dropped after the verb to be (*ga*) or when a noun-adjective pair functions more like a compound. In many adjectives — especially nonderived ones — this prefix is optional and is only used when the noun it belongs to is definite:

*Wanu geyúsa ta'iyétize 'e'abihi bazeyi.*

wanu ge-yúsa ta-'i-yétize 'e-'a-bihi ba-zeyi  
I ESS-happy PST-do-victory ACC-fact-playing TEMP-this

Happy me just won the game.

Determiners never take this prefix:

*yésináne zeyi*

yési-náne      zeyi  
manner-speech this

this language

All determiners come after the word they modify. This is also the case for adverbs and prepositional phrases:

*lanáwi búwu gi'a wúyi witi zigi*

la-náwi búwu gi'a niyi wúyi zigi  
PL-town big very those on planet

those very big towns on the planet

Adverbs modifying verbs are typically treated as freestanding parts of the clause:

*Hebe ta'ináne lise 'áse suwi tuyési yúsa gika lawanu.*

hebe ta-'i-náne      lise 'áse su-wi tu-yési      yúsa gika la-wanu  
he PST-do-speaking about family GEN-self have-manner happy for PL-I

He cheerfully told us about his family.

Reduplication is productive with adjectives, and it reinforces the meaning. From *búwu* (“large”) one gets *búwu-búwu* (“immense, huge”), and from *tasi* (“awful”) *tasi-tasi* (“bloodcurdlingly horrible”).

Comparatives and superlatives are formed by *tugi* and *wizu* respectively, coming after the adjective, and begin followed by an eventual standard:

*Sili ga búwu tugi wanu, lina 'uhu ga búwu wizu kúli.*

sili ga búwu tugi wanu , lina 'uhu ga búwu wizu kúli  
you be big more I , but not be big most your-species

You are taller than I am, but you are not the tallest of your species.

Demonstrative adjectives distinguish the proximal *zeyi* from the distal *wúyi*. Which adjective is used in the case of abstract concepts made definite is rather random.

## 6.1 The special case of numerals

There are two ways to treat numerals and other quantifiers. The normal — prescribed and most common — word order is with the numeral coming after the object counted:

*bílu gi'a*

bílu gi'a  
person many

many people

Another possible way to express the same is with the numeral or quantifier coming first, and the noun being counted following with the genitive preposition:

*gi'a su bílu*

gi'a su bílu  
many of person

many people

More proficient speakers of the language tend to use this second construction only when expressing the fact that the objects or people being counted are part of the larger group. In most cases, however, there is no difference between these two constructions, and the bulk of the speakers (who, being second language speakers, are not always as proficient) will not make any difference at all between these two possibilities.

The numeral system is duodecenary and simply additive:

*lá'aya nele kúhe basize na wá'e*

lá'aya nele kúhe basize na wá'e  
gross two twelve nine and six

402 ( $= 2 \times 12^2 + 9 \times 12 + 6$ )

The linking word *na* (“and”) is usually only used before the unit, but is occasionally also used to separate all different orders.

## 7 Prepositions and case prefixes

There are several basic prepositions (or prefixes, depending on the preferred analysis) indicating syntactic relationships. The subject is unmarked, and gets no prefix/preposition. Accusative is marked by the prefix *'e-*. Indirect objects are similarly marked by *ya*. The agent of a passive verb gets the preposition *ki*.

Furthermore there are several basic prepositions to indicate adverbial or adjectival relationships, such as the genitive *su*, the locative-temporal *witi*, and the instrumental *bala*. Many prepositions are, however, compounds, such as *yuyíla su* (“on top of”, literally: at-top of).

## 8 Syntax

The order of constituents in the clause is rather strict. The order is always SVO, with other elements of the clause normally coming after the verb (before or after the object). Adverbials are allowed to come in front of the object. Clauses can contain several finite verbs. The subject of secondary verbs is taken to be the last noun phrase having the accusative prefix *'e-*, or the very first subject if there are no instances of it.

*Wanu hi'inaha yalasili 'isahu 'ebúni suwi.*

wanu hi-'i-naha ya-la-sili 'i-sahu 'e-búni su-wi  
I FUT-do-helping DAT-PLUR-you do-building ACC-house GEN-self

I'll help you build your house.

*Wanu hi'iyile gika kusikéla buKasane 'inaha 'ekusibagíwe.*

wanu hi-'i-yile gika kusi-kéla bu-Kasane 'i-naha 'e-kusi-bagíwe  
I FUT-do-moving to COLL-star ART-Kasane do-help ACC-COLL-struggle

I'm going to the Kasane galaxy to help with the war.

Existential sentences have no subject (except for some eventual place complement that could eventually be interpreted as such), and consist of the verb *tu* (“to have, to possess”) plus the noun being introduced:



*Tu kusiginasi gi'a witi nísalu wúyi.*

tu kusi-ginasi gi'a witi nísalu wúyi  
have COLL-writing many on piece\_of\_furniture that

There are many books on that table.

## 8.1 Sentence-level

Negation is indicated by the negative adverb *'uhu* placed right in front of the verb:

*Kúnu 'uhu 'ihini getu 'atúhu gezesíga.*

kúnu 'uhu 'i-hini ge-tu 'a-túhu ge-zesíga  
we not do-arrival ESS-have fact-wanting ESS-peace

We do not come in peace.

In order to ask yes-no questions, the particle *ka'uzu* (a portmanteau of *kawa-'uzu-zuhe*, meaning “yes-no-which?”) is prepended to the sentence or to the part of the clause it refers to. It is also allowed to add it after the sentence, as a clause on its own. Many speakers are used to only modifying the end of their sentences in order to make questions, and will thus often forget to add it at the beginning. More proficient speakers tend to use this particle at the end only as a question tag:

*Ka'uzu sili ga zúhi buTagihe? Sili tutuse weTinibikahi, ka'uzu?*

ka'uzu sili ga zúhi bu-tagihe ? sili tu-tuse we-tini-bikahi , ka'uzu ?  
Q you are from ART-seven ? you have-name ART-unit-laughter , Q ?

Are you from planet Seven? Your name is Smile, isn't it?

Other questions are asked with the question word in-situ:

*Wanu ze 'iyile gika yuzuhe?*

wanu ze-'i-yile gika yu-zuhe ?  
you CONT-do-going to LOC-which ?

Where are you going?

Ordinary imperatives are formed by simply leaving out the (second person) subject of the sentence:

*'Isínu 'eyezili síyu yawanu.*

'i-sínu 'e-yezili síyu ya-wanu  
do-bringing ACC-water some DAT-me

Bring me some water.

Other imperatives can be formed in a variety of ways. Politer imperatives, for example can be formed as follows:

*'Itétuwe 'esili 'iyilesane.*

'i-tétuwe 'e-sili 'i-yile-sane  
do-invitation ACC-you do-going-inside

Do come in. (literally: (I) invite you to enter.)

*Sili 'i 'esa yawanu, káte ka'uzu?*

sili 'i 'e-sa ya-wanu , káte ka'uzu ?  
you do ACC-it DAT-I , okay Q ?

Could you do this for me? (literally: You do this for me, okay?)

This last structure can be used to form first person imperatives as well:

*Lawanu 'isahu 'eweligáhe, káte ka'uzu!*

la-wanu 'i-sahu 'e-weli-gáhe , káte ka'uzu !  
PLUR-I do-making ACC-event-partying , okay Q !

Let's throw a party!

## 8.2 Subordinate clauses

The particle *ke* is the universal conjunction. Often it will receive some prefix depending on the specifics of the subordination. If some explicit antecedent is present, *ke* stands on its own right after the antecedent, followed by the subordinate clause:

*BuTewániláte ga kéla-le-kusizigi ke banale nunebu-búni 'ehaKusibílu.*

bu-Tewániláte ga kéla-le-kusi-zigi ke ba-nale nu-nebu-búni  
ART-Tewániláte be star-and-COLL-planet CONJ TEMP-before CAUS-receiving-house  
'e-ha-kusi-bílu  
ACC-ART-COLL-person

Tewániláte is the star system which hosted the Community before.

If the antecedent is anything more advanced than subject of the subordinate clause, it will be repeated with a pronoun:

*Niyi ga kayáwa ke wanu 'igibéka 'esa babezanale.*

niyi ga kayáwa ke wanu 'i-gibéka 'e-sa ba-beza-nale  
that be animal CONJ I do-noticing ACC-it TEMP-day-before

This is the animal I noticed yesterday.

*Náwi ke haGéle 'uhu ga búwu tugi sa, ga zuhe?*

náwi ke ha-Géle 'uhu ga búwu tugi sa , ga zuhe ?  
city CONJ ART-Gël not be big more it , be which ?

Which is the city Gël does not second in size?

Complement clauses are treated the same way, with a dummy antecedent prefixed to the conjunction:

*Wanu ga yuzeyi bake sili 'ihini.*

wanu ga yu-zeyi ba-ke sili 'i-hini  
I be LOC-this TEMP-CONJ you do-arriving

I'll be here when you arrive.

Conditional clauses take the conjunction *hutu*, and are usually followed by *'uba*:

*Hutu sili 'iyile gika yuzeyi, 'uba wanu ga yúsa.*

hutu sili 'i-yile gika yu-zeyi , 'uba wanu ga yúsa  
if you do-going to LOC-this , well I be happy

If you come, I will be happy.

*Hutu wanu ga witi yéta susili, wanu 'uhu 'i 'eniya.*

hutu wanu ga witi yéta su-sili , wanu 'uhu 'i 'e-niyi  
if I be at place GEN-you , I not do ACC-that

If I were you, I wouldn't do that.

Other subordinate clauses are formed as questions:

*Wanu 'uhu tubuwa ka'uzu wi liyu 'iyile-wena 'elasili.*

wanu 'uhu tu-buwa ka'uzu wi liyu 'i-yile-wena 'e-la-sili  
I not have-knowledge Q self can do-go-meet ACC-PLUR-you

I don't know whether I can visit you.

*Hebe tuyúya tezuhe ze'ihini.*

hebe tu-yúya te-zuhe ze-'i-hini  
she have-sight person-which CONT-do-arrival

She sees who's coming.

Other clauses that are object of verbs like to say, to know, or to like often simply come after the verb without any overt marking, although *ke* is often inserted as well:

*Hebe ta'ináne (ke) wi ze'iyile gika yuzeyi.*

hebe ta-'i-náne (ke) wi ze-'i-yile gika yu-zeyi  
he PST-do-speaking (CONJ) self CONT-do-moving to LOC-this

He said he was one his way here.

*Wanu 'uhu tukáyi (ke) sili 'ikáse 'ekusiwanu.*

wanu 'uhu tu-káyi (ke) sili 'i-káse 'e-kusi-wanu  
I not have-liking (CONJ) you do-leaving ACC-COLL-I

I don't like your leaving us.

If a similar clause is subject of the sentence, it will be treated as a topic, and followed by *'uba* plus the rest of the sentence, eventually with the subject repeated in the form of a pronoun:

*Ligi'ukusi gu'i 'e'agíwi-híse 'uba ga básu-básu.*

ligi'u-kusi gu-'i 'e-'a-gíwi-híse 'uba ga básu-básu  
state-collective PERF-do ACC-fact-trying-science well is bad-REDUP

The empire having performed these experiments is evil.

Many sentences that would contain a dependent clause or infinite verb in English would be expressed in similar ways: often with two main clauses linked with *'uba*, or with some dependent clause in a different place.

### 8.3 Topics

A topic can be offset from the rest of the sentence by placing it at the beginning and using *'uba* to separate it from the rest. The same word *'uba* is used to indicate a change in topic:

*'Uba sili, tulaléyi, ka'uzu? Wanu 'uba tulaléyi.*

*'uba sili* , *tu-laléyi* , *ka'uzu ? wanu 'uba tu-laléyi*  
and you , have-health , Q ? I well have-health

And you, are you fine? Me, I'm fine.

## 9 Style

Due to sometimes considerable cultural differences long-winded speech with many circumlocutions is always preferred to terse and concise language.

Although all wordbuilding affixes are fully productive, it is advised not to abuse this and make up new words as one goes. Making up a new word should only be done if the word in question will be used a lot, at least in the context of the conversation. Otherwise circumlocution is preferred.

It is advised against to use idioms or metaphor. One should refrain from writing poetry.

## 10 When to deviate from the rules

Of course there is no pangalactic language police controlling everybody's speech, and as such one may deviate from the rules when one is sure it will not lead to misunderstanding. One example is in a military setting, where commands sometimes have to be transferred quickly. Due to the minimalism in the language's phonemes combined with the need to articulate clearly such as to overcome interspecies differences in speech organs, simple messages sometimes take a long time to pronounce. Therefore a military jargon has been developed, containing among others abbreviated codes for the most-used commands. When being used to such a language, one should of course watch out to use the full version of the language when communicating with people who have not specifically studied this jargon.