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The idea behind this grammar is the same as that behind its “twin”, *A Short Grammar of Lithuanian* (Slavica 1996).

The present volume has been written primarily for students of Latvian as a foreign language at university level, but it can also be used by others. It fulfills (and goes slightly beyond) the grammar requirements for the BA-degree in the UK and the USA, or the Foundation level (a one-year unit of study following an introductory course) in Scandinavia. It can also be used for foreign students studying Latvian in Latvia. Thus, the grammar presented here includes the fundamentals of phonology, morphology (with some short passages on word formation), and syntax in Latvian. Syntax is concentrated in the last chapters of the book, i.e. 8-10 (Case), 12 (The Sentence), 13 (Agreement) and 14 (Word Order). The syntax of adjectives, numerals and participles has, for practical reasons, for practical reasons has been incorporated and dealt with in the corresponding chapters: 3, 4 and 5.

This book is primarily a synchronic, prescriptive (normative), not a descriptive grammar. Notes on certain diachronic items as well as supplementary information are given in small type.

Where appropriate, short Latvian-English, Latvian-Scandinavian comparisons and similar remarks are provided.

The examples used to illustrate grammatical rules have been taken mainly from dictionaries and newspapers, or have been made up by the author and checked with informants.

Stress and intonation are given only for single words, not for sentences or word groups.

To facilitate lucidity and readability, the book is supplied with a relatively comprehensive table of contents at the beginning of the volume, as well as an index at the end, where a list of reference literature is also given. There should be no need for a table of abbreviations and symbols used, since they are either explained in the text or are likely to be immediately understandable. Thus, for example, C stands for ‘consonant’, V for ‘vowel’ and R for ‘resonant’. For designating length in phonetic transcription, two points after the vowel/consonant are used and for semi-length one point (somewhat raised above the line).

This grammar has been used in manuscript form by my students of Latvian at the University of Oslo. I am grateful to them for their positive
criticism. I am equally indebted to Jānis Štālbergs for having read the manuscript critically and for his corrections as well as good suggestions. Thanks also to Carolina D. Ramos for having checked my English carefully, to Knut Skrindo for technical assistance as well as to The Norwegian Academy of Sciences and Letters for its support and to Slavica Publishers for printing the manuscript.

Oslo, in December 1996

Terje Mathiassen
Chapter 0

INTRODUCTION

Latvian and Lithuanian (along with the extinct Old Prussian) to the Baltic language group which constitutes a branch of its own of the Indo-European (IE) family of languages. To IE also belong the Slavic languages — among them Russian, Byelorussian and Polish — as well as the Germanic languages, whose main members are English, German, Dutch and the Nordic languages. Thus, there is a remote link between English and Latvian. Within the Indo-European framework the Baltic languages are more closely related to the Slavic branch than to any other IE linguistic subdivision. The alleged similarities between Baltic and Slavic should, however, not be exaggerated. At any rate, there is obviously no mutual understanding between — let us say — a Russian and a Latvian when they speak their mother tongues, whereas a Russian and a Pole will (to a certain extent) be able to communicate.

During the Middle Ages, history, culture and religion separated Latvia from Lithuania because the latter entered the Polish sphere of influence, while the former experienced an impact above all from German language language and culture. Thus, the Teutonic and other orders invaded the territory corresponding to present-day Latvia and later on Germans (consisting of gentry, tradesmen and clergy) settled there. In terms of language, Latvian was also influenced by the now almost extinct Livonian, which along with Estonian, Finnish and some minor languages (Karelian, Vepsian, Votic) constitutes the Balto-Finnic branch of the Finno-Ugric language family.

In the vocabulary of Latvian several layers can be distinguished. First, there is a basic IE vocabulary — for instance, the word for ‘heart’, *sirds*, which has cognates in other IE languages. The same is true for the words for ‘mother’, ‘sun’, ‘moon’, ‘day’ etc: *māte*, *saule*, *mēness*, *diena*. Then, there is the Balto-Slavic stratum, containing words known exclusively within these two groups of IE; for instance, Latvian *galva*, Lithuanian *galva*, Russian *golova*, Polish *głowa*, meaning ‘head’ in all of the languages quoted. Another example is the word for ‘hand, arm’: Latvian *roka*, Lithuanian *ranka*, Russian *ruka* and Polish *ręka* (all from
earlier *rankā). A third layer may be discerned of words limited to the group of Baltic languages alone, e. g. Latvian kāja and Lithuanian koja, both meaning ‘foot, leg’. If we continue with the body, the word for ‘hair’ may serve as an example of where the Baltic languages are split from another: the Latvians say mati, the Lithuanians plaukai. This scheme of several layers should not be oversimplified and regarded as an automatic indicator in terms of chronology, but should be looked upon as a purely guiding and schematic principle. Finally, both Latvian and its sister language, Lithuanian, have through the centuries adopted a great number of borrowings and international words from different sources and languages, most frequently from or through (Old and Modern) Russian (e. g. grāmata book, dzinši jeans) and (Low) German (e. g. brokastis breakfast, slims ill, un and), but a Finno-Ugric (Livonian) impact (e. g. māja house, the interrogative particle vai) is also strongly felt. Today the impact of English on the vocabulary is (of course) considerable.

Latvian is spoken by roughly 1.5 million people in Latvia proper which means about 55% of the population (the bulk of the remaining inhabitants are Russian speaking). In addition, there are approximately two hundred thousand ethnic Latvians living abroad – above all in Germany, Great Britain and Sweden and overseas in America and Australia.

The Latvian language map can be split into a number of subdialects. The main division, however, is that between High Latvian (or Latgalian, in the east where we find such cities as Daugavpils and Rēzekne), and Low Latvian. Low Latvian is divided between the Central dialect (encompassing such centers as Riga and Jelgava) and the so-called Tamian dialect (found on both sides of the outer parts of the Riga Bay, as well as the area around the city of Ventspils). Although the standardization process took a relatively long time, the Modern Standard language came into use during the second half of the 19th century, on the basis of the Central dialect (Latv. vidus dialekt). Several factors favored this dialect to become the foundation of the Standard language; i. e., presence of important economic, commercial and cultural centers within the region where this dialect is spoken, as well as a lesser degree of influence from neighbouring foreign languages (Slavic and Finno-Ugric) than in High Latvian and the Tamian dialects.

The use of the Latvian language was hampered by German supremacy over the centuries. In this century, its use was limited during the Soviet regime (1945-1991), but today it has regained the dominant role it had achieved during the first period of independence (1920-1940). A manifestation of this is the Latvian Language Law of 1989 (with subsequent Amendments), according to which Latvian is given the status of the official State Language of Latvia.
INTRODUCTION

The oldest texts in Latvian are religious in content, and date back to the era of the Reformation; i.e., the sixteenth century (to be exact, the years of 1585, with the Catholic Catechism, and 1586, with the Lutheran Catechism).

The Latvian language has undergone many secondary developments, in contrast to Lithuanian, which has preserved many archaic features.
Chapter 1

PHONOLOGY

I Consonants

There are 26 consonant phonemes in Standard Latvian. As can be seen in the table below, the binary unvoiced : voiced opposition constitutes 9 pairs (i.e. /p/ vs. /b/, /t/ vs. /d/ etc.). Another, less comprehensive opposition is that between non-palatalized : palatalized which encompasses 4 pairs, e.g. /t/ vs. /ʈ/, /n/ vs. /ɳ/.

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>labial</th>
<th>dental</th>
<th>alveolar</th>
<th>palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
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<td>plosives</td>
<td>p b</td>
<td>t d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k g</td>
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<td>fricatives</td>
<td>f v</td>
<td>s z</td>
<td>j ʒ</td>
<td>j ʝ</td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>affricates</td>
<td>ţ dʒ</td>
<td>dʒ ʒ̆</td>
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<td>nasals</td>
<td>m n</td>
<td>n ɳ</td>
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<tr>
<td>vibrants</td>
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<td>l Ɂ</td>
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<td>laterals</td>
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<td>l Ɂ</td>
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Note: The above table takes into consideration only the so-called upper articulator (i.e. the upper lips, the upper teeth and the palate), neglecting the lower. However, in the comments on the pronunciation of the different consonants which follow the lower articulator is also referred to where appropriate, especially the tongue and its different zones, i.e. the apex (adj. apical) ‘tip of the tongue’, the corona (adj. coronal) ‘tongue blade’ and the dorsum (adj. dorsal) ‘back of the tongue’.

It should also be emphasized that the table is based on phonemic principles and further that palatalization is looked upon as an additional articulation which allows us to place palatalized phonemes in the same zones (denticals etc.) as their unpalatalized counterparts. It is vital to say this in order to prevent students from making false conclusions regarding the pronunciation of Latvian consonants. For guidelines on pronunciation the next paragraph should be consulted.
Phonetic Realization

Comments on pronunciation of the separate sounds will be limited to those which may cause the greatest difficulties to the student. In addition certain allophones will be commented upon.

First of all it should be stated that the Latvian unvoiced plosives $p$, $t$, $k$ are unaspirated.

[n] has an allophone [ŋ] which is encountered before [k] and [g], e. g. [ban'ka] (written banka, cf. below) 'bank', [buŋgas] (written bungas) 'drum'.

[l] and [d] (which are encountered mainly in borrowings) differ in their pronunciation from [t] and [d] in that they are palatalized, which means that they are pronounced with the (middle part of the) tongue raised in the direction of the zone of the hard palate, i. e. to the jli-position. The [j] and the consonant in question are pronounced simultaneously in such a way that the [j] is "absorbed" in the process and therefore not heard. Two more sounds, i.e. [ŋ] and [l] are palatalized.

Palatalization is regarded as an additional articulation superimposed on the corresponding non-palatalized consonant, which is regarded as basic and the point of departure for the palatalized variant, for example, [ŋ] vs. [n]. [j] is unique in that it is not palatalized, but an original palatal.

[v] is regarded as a fricative, not an approximant, in Latvian. It differs from [f] only with respect to the feature [+ voiced].

[z] is the voiced counterpart of [s] and is pronounced like the English -s- in please whereas the [z] is similar to the sound heard in vision or to the j in French jour. Of the affricates, [š] is pronounced like ts in hats, [dz] like dz in buds, [tʃ] like ch in church and [f] like g(e) in the English pronunciation of George.

The sound [x] is pronounced approximately like the ach-Laut of German. It has a soft (i. e. palatalized) variant [χ] which may still be heard before or after front vowels, e. g. [texn'ika] and [arxjeloks], in emigré milieus, but not usually in Latvia proper.

[r] has an apico-dental (or apico-alveolar) articulation which is pronounced with 2-3 vibrations. It used to have a palatalized counterpart [ɾ] which, however, is not spoken any more in the Standard language and has practically no support in the dialects.

Latvian [l] is difficult to pronounce correctly. It is an apico-alveolar and is realized as such also in the position before front vowels, e. g. in liels big. To a student familiar with Russian it may remind of the hard (i. e. non-palatalized) Russian l, but upon closer examination it is clearly distinct from it. The student should practice the Latvian l carefully in language laboratory exercises. As is seen in the above table, [l] has a palatalized counterpart which is close to the Russian palatalized [l].
Orthographic Representation

Except for the following deviations the consonants of Latvian are represented in the orthography in the same way as illustrated in the phonemic chart above:

The affricates /ts/, /dz/, /fʃ/ and /dʒ/ are written c, dz, č and dž respectively.

The fricative /x/ is expressed through h. Until the orthographic reform of 1957 the digraph ch was also used (it is still partly preserved in emigré press). Discussions on the orthographic representation(s) of [x] are frequently observed. Many Latvians react against such notations as, for example, Bahs against the earlier, traditional Bachs for the name of the famous composer.

The sounds [t] and [d] are written k and ģ respectively. To some readers our phonetic classification of them on a par with the dentals t and d (cf. the above table) may seem somewhat odd and radical. Nevertheless, this conception is in conformity with the phonetic reality behind them. One may in this connection remind about the Latvian way of treating the Gorbachovian word glasnost' which the Latvians wrote glasnosķ. Examples of ģ are kugis ship and gēnijs genius.

Until 1946 (and still in parts of the emigré press) one could find the grapheme ɹ to denote a palatal r. Thus, one would, for example, write kara – and not as now – kara in the genitive sg. of the word for ‘war’ karš. A trace of the former palatalization in this word form is the nominative marker -š, and not -s as, for example, in gars, gen. gara spirit.

Consonant Alternations

In the inflectional morphology the following alternations are encountered:

| p    | → | pj  |
| b    | → | bj  |
| f    | → | fj  |
| v    | → | vj  |
| m    | → | mj  |
| t    | → | šš  |
| s    | → | šš  |
| d    | → | žž  |
| c    | → | čč  |
\[\begin{align*}
dz & \rightarrow \ d\d\text{ž} \\
n & \rightarrow \ n \\
l & \rightarrow \ l \\
(r & \rightarrow \ r - \text{only in older writing and emigré press, cf. preceding paragraph})
\end{align*}\]

Note: The letters š, ž, č, ķ, ų (and r) along with the digraphs dz, pj, bj, fj, vj and mj represent historically and morphophonemically palatalized phonemes. All other consonants may be labeled unpalatalized.

In addition, the velars k and g alternate with c and dz respectively, but not within the nominal declension.

Also certain consonant clusters (i.e., s-/z-clusters) can undergo alternations. Thus, sl alternates with šl, sn with šn, zl with žl, zn with žn. The geminate ll alternates with ūl.

The consonants j and h never alternate. The same holds true for k and ţ (except for certain cases in derivational morphology).

Examples with consonant alternations:

skapis, gen. skapja locker, gulbis, gen. gulbja swan, kareivis, kareivja soldier, kurmis, gen. kurmja mole, menēsis, gen. menēša month, latvietis, gen. latvieša Latvian, nazis, gen. naža knife, briedis, gen. brieža deer, lācis, gen. lāča bear, pusaudzis, gen. pusaudža backfish, Jānis, gen. Jāna John, brālis, gen. braļa brother, troksnis, gen. trokšņa noise, rullis, gen. ruļļa roll, coil. (Alternations of the same kind are also encountered in other inflectional classes and parts of speech; this type was chosen only for the sake of simplicity.) Observe the absence of alternation in kuģis, gen. kuģa ship.

The historical basis for these alternations was clusters consisting of consonant + j (as opposed to the consonant in question not followed by j) which were originally assimilated to palatalized consonants (see p. 23 above), except in the case of labials, where the clusters were preserved. Consonants like š and ž have given up their palatalization and are palatalized only in a historical sense of the term (but the former palatalization has left a trace in morphology, whence the term ‘morphological palatalization’). The clusters *kj and *gj yielded c and dz respectively. The consonants c and dz may also derive from k and g before front vowels, as illustrated in the above examples. It should, however, be emphasized that not every -i triggers the change from k > c or g > dz, cf. pp. 31 and 44.
Clusters

1. Assimilation

A basic rule of consonant clusters in Latvian is that the (second or) last consonant in a sequence determines the character of the preceding one(s) (so-called regressive assimilation, although progressive assimilations do also occur, cf. p. 27). This is the case both with the s-/z-clusters mentioned in the preceding passage (in a historical perspective) and with clusters such as sd rendering zd or zt yielding st. The latter are illustrations of voicing and devoicing respectively, which consist of the following:

In the case of voicing, unvoiced consonants adopt the feature [+voiced] from an immediately following voiced consonant. Devoicing implements mutatis mutandis the same principle: a voiced consonant adopts the feature [-voiced] from an immediately following unvoiced consonant.

Examples:

a) Voicing:


b) Devoicing:

labs [laps] good, gads [gaĵs] year, derīgs [d'eriks] suitable, māzs [mas] little, izteikt [i'steikt] express, mežs [meʃ] forest (for the realization of źs as [ʃ-], see p. 27; the symbol . designates semilength, p. 38).

Note: Though phonetically voiced, the resonants r, l, m, n have no assimilating effect on neighbouring unvoiced consonants (nor are they themselves affected by other consonants). The same holds true for j and v. Examples: slepēns [slep'ens], not *[zlep'ens] secret, svaigs [svaiks], not *[zvaiks] fresh.

In rapid speech voicing/devoicing can also occur across word boundaries in certain cases.

Observe further that – unlike, for example, in German and Russian – voiced consonants in word final position are not devoiced in Latvian, e. g. kad [kad] when, gandrīz [gan'driːz] almost.

c) Other Assimilations

Assimilations with respect to place of articulation occur with the sibilants s, z, š and ź which undergo (partial or complete) assimilations
(word initially, i.e. on the boundary between prefix and root, and word finally, i.e. before the nom. s-marker) in the following environments:

\[ s\hat{c} > \hat{s}: \text{pus\c{c}etri} [\text{pu}\hat{u}\text{f\c{c}}\text{etri}] \text{ half past three (about the clock)} \]
\[ z\hat{e} > \hat{e}: \text{uz\c{k}irt} [\text{u}\hat{u}\text{f\c{t}}\text{irt}] \text{ open} \]
\[ z\hat{z} > \hat{e}: \text{iz\c{z}\acute{a}v\c{e}t} [\text{i\'z\c{a}v\c{e}\text{t}}] \text{ make dry} \]
\[ \hat{s} > \hat{e}: \text{gai\c{s}s} [\text{gai}\hat{a}\text{f\c{s}}] \text{ light, bright} \]
\[ \hat{z} > \hat{e}: \text{me\c{z}s} [\text{me}\hat{e}\text{f\c{s}}] \text{ forest} \]

1 for the (semi)long [f] and [3], see p. 38. A colon is used to symbolize length, a (raised) stop (point) for that of semi-length.

The first three are **regressive** assimilations in contrast to the last two which are **progressive**.

Note also assimilations of the type:

* *ljs > *l's > [lf] (in, for example, \text{cel\c{s}s} way, road vs. \text{cela}, cf. p. 42),
* *rjs > *r's > [rf] (in, for example, \text{kar\c{s}s} war, vs. gen. \text{kara}, cf. p. 42). The r subsequently lost its softening, see p. 24.

The last assimilation which should be mentioned is:

\[ nk > \eta k: \text{banka} [\text{ba\c{n}k\acute{a}}] \text{ bank} \]
\[ ng > \eta g: \text{bungas} [\text{guna\acute{g}}] \text{ drum} \]

(which means that the dental [n] is replaced by its velar allophone [ŋ] before a velar stop).

The same kind of assimilation is known in English. In Nordic languages the same phenomenon is observed in the case of nk. For ng it should be added that in many cases [ŋ] is spoken alone, without the subsequent [g], in Nordic.

2. **Dissimilation**

A dissimilation \*tt and \*dt to st takes place in Baltic, e.g. \text{mest} throw < \*\text{met-ti} (with present and preterite stem \text{met-}) and \text{astrap} find < \*\text{at-rad-ti} (with present stem \*\text{ra-n-d} and preterite stem \text{rad-}).

**II Vowels**

Standard Latvian has a symmetrical system of 6 short vowel phonemes and 6 long.
Short Vowels

The short vowels can be shown diagrammatically in a triangular system:

```
/ɪ/  /u/
---    ---
/ɛ/  /o/
---    ---
/æ/  /a/
```

One of the above phonemes, namely /o/, is marginal and attested only in words of foreign origin (for example, see below).

Short vowels are found both in stressed and unstressed position.

Orthographic Representation

In Latvian orthography the vowels are spelled as in the above chart, except for /æ/ and /o/ which are written as e and o respectively. This means that /ɛ/ and /æ/ are not distinguished in Latvian orthography.

One reason for the orthographic non-distinction between the two e-sounds could be that originally they were likely to have constituted a situation of complementary distribution whereby the open variant occurred before a back vowel in the next syllable, the closed one before a front vowel or before pausa (#). There are, however, certain deviations (see p. 31) from this original assimilative system (which could be regarded as a kind of vowel harmony), which from the point of view of Modern Standard Latvian forces us to speak of them not as variants of one and the same phoneme, but as two separate phonemes.

Over the centuries various attempts have been made to distinguish between the two e-sounds also in the orthography. From 1920 onward e has been written for both.

Examples of short vowels from the vocabulary of Latvian:


1For the long consonants, see p. 38 below.

Long Vowels

The long vowels can be shown diagrammatically in a scheme parallel to that of the short vowels:
As with short vowels, long vowels are found both in stressed and unstressed position.

**Orthographic Representation**

The long vowels of Latvian are spelt in the following way: /i:/ as ī, /e:/ and /æ:/ as ē, /a:/ as ā, /o:/ as o (sic). A comparison with the short vowels reveals that they are written in the same way, except for the macron (¨) which indicates length. In the case of o, however, there is no macron to indicate when o is long; the short and the long /o/ are written in the same way. This inconvenience of written Latvian is to some extent justified by the fact that short and the long /o/ are marginal phonemes, restricted to borrowings.

Examples of long vowels in the vocabulary of Latvian:

**Note on Pronunciation of Short and Long Vowels**

We find it unnecessary to make statements of the type: “vowel x is pronounced approximately as in the English word so and so” since we use (a variant of) the IPA system of transcription with which the readers of this grammar are expected to be familiar.

**Excursus: Distribution of Closed vs. Open e/ē**

As previously stated, see p. 28, the distribution between the closed e/ē and open æ/æ: sounds (both represented as e/ē in the orthography) is determined by assimilative processes, which implies a split into two (originally) positionally determined variants of one and the same phoneme. However, various secondary (morphophonological) developments have obscured this original situation, such that the distribution between the two sounds is no longer fully predictable. The
result has been an evolution from allophones into different phonemes. In
spite of the fact that the rules are rather complicated with numerous
exceptions (and partially unstable norms), it appears practical (and
possible) to give certain guidelines for conditions under which the
orthographic e/ē are pronounced as [e]/[e:] and when as [æ]/[æ:]. The
following survey can be presented:

Closed e/ē are spoken:
1 a) in all word-final syllables (without exception), for example,
upē, upes, upēm (different inflectional forms of the noun upē river);
infinitives in -ēt, e. g. gulēt lie.
    1 b) in some old monosyllabics:
    Examples:
es I, mēs we, te here, vēl still, yet, bet but, bez without, ne not,
nē no,
    2 a) when the immediately following syllable contains one of the
    front ("palatal") vowels i/i, e/ē or the diphthongs ie/ei.
    Examples:
gulēsim let's sleep/lie, pētīt investigate, drebēt tremble, sēdēt
    sit, esiet be!, ēdiet eat!, zemei (dat. sg. of zeme) earth.
    In polysyllabics such as mellēne blueberry we can conclude, first,
from 1 b) that the -e has a closed articulation, and second, that according
    to 2 a) the e of the internal syllable must be a closed e, and third, the
    articulation of this e in turn triggers the closed articulation of the e of the
    first syllable.
    2 b) when followed by a (synchronically or diachronically)
    palatalized or palatal consonant (cf. p. 25), i. e. ķ, ģ, ķ, ņ, š, ž, č, ĭ:
    sēžam we are sitting (: sēdēt sit), sēšas (fem. nom. of the nume-
    ral) six, dzeja poetry,
    So far the pronunciation of closed e/ē has been predictable accord-
    ing to phonetically definable environments.
    Definable on the basis of other criteria is the pronunciation of clo-
    sed e/ē in:
    3 a) the nouns of the sixth declension (p. 48), e. g. debess heaven,
    3 b) the simple present of verbs of the 1st conjugation (p. 94) with
    infinitives in -r-t, e. g. dzeru [dzeru] (: dzert drink).

The historical explanation for this is that the -r- in the present stems of this type
reflects an earlier soft (palatalized) ṭ (< *ṛ) which is now depalatalized, but has left a
trace in the closed articulation of the e/ē). In pre-war Latvian texts (as well as in some
present-day émigré publications) it was represented as ṭ in the orthography.
3 c) the simple past of verbs of the 1st conjugation, cf., for example, *nesu* ['nesu]... *nesa* ['nesa]... *nesāt* ['nesat] (: *nest* carry), *ņemū* ['ņe:mu]... *ņēma* ['ņe:ma]... *ņēmāt* ['ņe:mat] (: *ņemt* take).

This state of affairs seems also to have a historical motivation: common East Baltic must have possessed both an -ā and an -ē-preterite (this state is still preserved in Lithuanian). In Latvian the two types seem to have fused into one, the -ē-type (cf. *nes-a* (< *-ā*, see p. 35), *nes-ā-m*, *nes-ā-t*, *ņēm-a* (< *-ā*, see p. 35), *ņēm-ā-m*, *ņēm-ā-t*), but the former -ē-preterites have left a trace in the timbre of the stem vowel, namely a closed [ē] in contrast with the open [æ] of the present tense of these verbs, e. g. *nesu* ['næsu]... *nes* [næs]... *nesat* ['næsat], *ņemū* ['ņæmu]... *ņem* [ņæm]... *ņemāt* ['ņæmat].

3 d) words of foreign (i. e. non-Latvian) origin, irrespectively of the character of the vowel or consonant following it, e. g. *problēma* ['proble:ma] problem.

*Note:* contrary to the above combinatory rules, open *e/ē* [æ/æː] are spoken before:

- the adverb marker -i: *reti* ['ræti] rarely, *lēni* ['læni] slowly,

From a diachronic perspective, the pronunciation of open [æ/æː] in *reti, lēni, bērni, cilvēki* (not *cilvēci*) is due to the fact that certain i-sounds in end-syllables of Latvian have their origin in the diphthong -ai (reconstructed on the basis of Lithuanian data).

The rules for pronouncing open [æ]/[æː] can be roughly determined by stating that when conditions for pronouncing closed *e/ē* are absent (and care is taken for exceptions mentioned in note to point 3 c) above), the open sounds are spoken.

In positive terms, however, the main occurrences of open e-sounds can be summarized as follows:

1. In all cases and both numbers of nouns of the first declination (cf. p. 43 f.), e. g. *ezers* ['ezærz] lake (when not overruled by 2b) on p. 30),
2. In all cases, both numbers and both genders of adjectives, e. g. *pelēks* ['pelæks] grey (when not overruled by 2b) on p. 30),
3. In the 3rd p. of IIIrd conjugation verbs, e. g. *redz* [rædz] see(s), cf. p. 105 ff. (This violates the principle set forth in point 1 b) above.),
4. In adverbs in -i
5. In (some) borrowings before the sound r, e. g. *nervs* [nær-] nerve. (This is contrary to rule 3 d) above.)

The rules for the distribution of closed and open *e/ē* in compounds are too complicated to be presented in short.
Compensatory Vowel Lengthening

In Latvian compensatory vowel lengthening occurs where an \( n \) has been lost in the position between a vowel and a consonant. The \( n \) has left a trace in the lengthening of the preceding vowel. The process can be described according to the following formula:

\[
VnC > \bar{VC} \text{ or before #}
\]

where \( V \) can be \( i, u, e \) or \( a \) (and \( # \) means pausa).

It should be noticed that whereas the high vowels \( i \) and \( u \) yield \( \ddot{i} \) and \( \ddot{u} \) through simple lengthenings, in the case of \( e \) and \( a \) the result is \( ie \) and \( o \) [uo] respectively (cf. section on diphthongs p. 33). Since in terms of duration a diphthong counts as a long vowel (long monophthong), we prefer for the sake of simplification of the rule to speak of lengthening also in this case. Note that it is not important to distinguish between open and closed \( e \) in this process, since the result in both cases is \( ie \) (which is pronounced as [i\(\ddot{n}\)]). We are then left with the (short) monophthong \( o \), which occurs only in words of foreign origin and is not affected by the (historical) development in question.

Examples:

\( i \rightarrow \ddot{i} \) : mit to tread (vs. minu I tread); \( u \rightarrow \ddot{u} \) : jūtu (< *junt-, cf. Lith. juntu) I feel (vs. jutu I felt, Lith. jutau I felt); \( en \rightarrow ie \) : pieci (vs. Lithuanian penki) five; \( an \rightarrow o \) [uo]: roka ['ruoka] hand, arm.

Observe that the change operates only with the nasal \( n \), and not with \( m \). Cases such as, for instance, Latvian zobs [zuops] tooth vs. Lithuanian žambas and top [tuop] becomes vs. Lithuanian tampa can be explained by the assimilatory development of \( *n > m \) before labials.

For instances with preserved \( n \) in the environment \( VnC \), see the comment under (semi-)diphthongs (p. 35).

An example of loss of the sound \( n \) in word final position with subsequent lengthening would be the accusative singular of \( o \)-stems Baltic \( a \)-stems, cf. p. 42): \(*-om > -*am > -*an > [uo] in darbu (: darbs work).\n
In the same case and number of \( ā \)-stems (p. 43) we cannot tell whether the vowel was shortened before the -\( n \) was dropped. The result would in any case be [-uo], e.g. roku (< *rankān < *rankām).
Diphthongs

Diphthongs can be defined as a sequence of two vowels which constitute one (long) syllable. They represent one unitary phoneme.

1. Pure diphthongs:
   Latvian has a system of 10 diphthongs, namely:
   /ei/, /eu/, /ai/, /au/, /oi/, /ou/, /ui/, /iu/, /ie/, /uo/.

Examples:

The most common diphthongs in Latvian are the following five: /ei/, /ai/, /au/, /ie/ (phonetically [iø]) and /uo/ (phonetically [uo]). These spellings also reflect their orthographic representation with the exception of /uo/ which is written o.

This means that the grapheme o can represent three different phonemes (and sounds) in Latvian, namely in addition to the diphthong /uo/ also the short and long monophthongs /o/, /ø/. As mentioned on pp. 28 and 29, the latter are restricted to borrowings. Certain borrowings (as, for example roze) have been assimilated to the mainstream corpus and are pronounced [uo].

The remaining five diphthongs, /oi/, /ou/, /eu/, /ui/ and /iu/, are more or less marginal. Thus, the first two are found in borrowings only. Further, /eu/ is restricted either to special environments in Latvian words whereby it is written -ev- (see under point Vocalization, p. 35) or to rare borrowings (e. g. Seula Seoul). In most borrowings it is replaced by ei, cf., for example, Eiropa Europe, pseidonims pseudonym. As demonstrated in the above examples, the diphthongs /ui/ and /iu/ are encountered in autochthonic (indigenous) words, but are of rare occurrence.

It should not be necessary to say much about the pronunciation of diphthongs. Observe that the first component in [ei] is spoken semi-narrowly. It should further be noticed that sequences written aj, ej, oj, uj are spoken as diphthongs (i.e. with the second element realized as a semi-vowel): klajš (masc. sg. nom.) open, dzejnieks poet, birojs office, šujmašina sewing-machine.

The relative duration of the components of a diphthong will vary dependent on the intonational pattern, cf. p. 39.
2. Semi-diphthongs:

Besides the "pure diphthongs" referred to under point 1) above, sequences of a vowel (e, a, i or u) + one of the resonants r, l (palatalized/unpalatalized) or m (+ C) are also customarily regarded as diphthongs in the Latvian (and Baltic) linguistic tradition. They can be labeled "semi-diphthongs" or "mixed diphthongs".

Examples:

dzert drink, karsts hot, cirst cut, kurpe shoe, zelts gold, galva head, svilpe whistle, gulbis swan, vemt vomit, dzimt be born, jumts roof.

The main argument for letting such sequences count as diphthongs is that they are intonational units in the same way as the pure diphthongs (and long monophthongs), cf. p. 39.

In certain cases we find a long (or semi-long) vowel before r, e. g. vērt open, kārta layer, thus presenting us with a (semi-)long diphthong. A long vowel before a resonant + C is also encountered in cases like masc. sg. nom. rāms quiet, silent, where a diphthong has arisen as a result of vowel syncope (< *rāmVs, cf. fem. sg. nom. rāma (< *rāmā), see section on Word final position, p. 35 f.). A (semi-)long pure diphthong is found in tēvs [teːu̯s] father (<*tēvas, cf. the gen. sg. tēva (<*tēvā)), (see also section on Vocalization, p. 35).

In the environment vowel (e, a, i, u) + n + C the diphthongal status is eliminated in most Latvian dialects according to the compensatory lengthening rule described on p. Where a diphthong is found in this distribution in the Standard language, we have a borrowing either from the Tamian dialect (cf. p. 20), e. g. dzintars amber, or from a foreign (i. e. non Latvian) source (cf., for example, tinte ink from German).

Sequences of the type CVRC\(^1\) are labeled tautosyllabic (or real diphthongs), in contrast to heterosyllabic, quasi-diphthongal sequences CVRV. For example, dzert to drink vs. dzeru I drink, aut to put on (shoes, boots etc.) vs. āvu I put on (past tense); the form āvu also indicates via the consonantal v (instead of the semi-vowel u) that the diphthongal characteristic is absent.

\(^1\)where C stands for Consonant, V for Vowel and R for Resonant.
Vocalization

This phenomena refers to the transformation of /j/ and /v/ to [i] and [u] respectively in the environment j/v preceded by a short vowel in the same syllable. The development results in diphthongs of different kinds.

Examples:

a) j > i: klajš [klaiʃ] open, dzejnieks [dzeinieks] poet, šuj sews (: šūt),
   b) v > u: tavs [taus] your(s), tev [tēu] for you (dative), tēvs

In certain cases vacillation occurs, e. g. gatavs [ˈgat:aus] or

VOWEL ALTERNATIONS (ABLAUT)

Vowel alternations known as ablaut are inherited from Indo-
European. Some of the original ablaut pairs have been preserved in
Baltic. In addition, certain secondary vowel alternations have developed.

Ablaut is observed above all in Latvian verbs in whose primary
verbs (cf. p. 86 ff.) one will find alternations of the type e : ē, i : ie, a :
o [uo], i : ī, u : ū.

Illustrations:

ņemt : ņemu : nēmu take, likt : lieku (Lith. lieku, cf. p. 87) :
liku put, tikt : tieku (Lith. tenku, cf. p. 87) : tiku get, rakt : roku
(cf. p. 87) : raku dig, krist : kritu (cf. p. 87) : kritu fall, just : jūtu
(cf. p. 87) : jutu feel.

WORD FINAL POSITION

1) Consonants:

As previously stated (p. 26 above), voiced end-consonants preserve
the feature [+ voiced].

2) Vowels:

In Latvian, short vowels (except -i and -u) undergo syncope in
end-syllables, while long ones are shortened in the same environment.

Examples:

nesa (3 p. preterite verb form: nest carry) < *[nėsa:], cf. nesām
[ˈnėsa:m].
The following question then arises: why hasn’t the -ā in the end-syllable -ām been shortened to *-am? The answer is that this -ām did not originally occupy end-syllable position. This *-ām reflects an earlier *-āmV (with subsequent syncope of this short vowel symbolized as V), cf. Lith. -Vme.

Parallel examples can be given from other word classes, e. g. nouns, for example, nom. sg. meita (< *meitā) vs. dat. pl. meitām (< *meitāmV).

### III Suprasegmentals

We will deal here with the three prosodemes stress, quantity and tone (pitch). Only quantity is reflected in the orthography.

#### 1. Stress

(Uzsvars)

The basic rule for Latvian is initial stress (i.e. stress on the first syllable): dzīvotājs [ˈiedzi:vوتa:is] inhabitant, republika [ˈrepúlika] republic. The same rule is also observed in most compounds, e. g. nevaru [ˈnəvaɾu] (I) cannot, piedzīvot [ˈpiedzi:vvt] experience, jaunkundze [ˌjaunkundze] miss.

The most important exceptions to the general rule can be summarized as follows:


- **b)** superlatives with the prefix vis- of adjectives and adverbs, e. g. vislabākais [visˈlabakais] the very best, vislabāk [visˈlabak] in the very best way, vismaz [visˈmaz] at least,

- **c)** in compounds with jeb-: jebkāds [jepˈkaːts] whoever; whatever, jebkurš [jepˈkurʃ] whoever; whatever, jebkad [jepˈkad] whenever, jebkur [jepˈkur] wherever,


- **e)** in certain compounds with pus-, e. g. pusotra [pusˈuotra] one and a half, whereas for instance puslaiks half-time (in sports), pussala peninsula follow the mainstream tendency with the stress on the first syllable.

In addition, deviations from the general rule are found in a scattered number of cases, e. g. gandrīz [ganˈdriːz] almost, joprojām [juoˈpruojaːm] still, labdien ‘lab’dien] how do you do, labrit [labˈrıt]
good morning, nupat [nu'pat] just now, paretam [pa'rætæm] rarely, patlaban [pat'labæn] now, tāpat [ta'pat] in the same way, tikpat [tik'pat] as much/many as, turklāt [tur'klæ:t] in addition, turpat [tur'pat] just there; in the same place, turpretim [tur'pretim] on the other hand, varbūt [var'bu:t] perhaps, vienalga [vien'alga] all the same.

In all of these exceptions the stress has been on the second syllable. There also exist, however, words with the stress on the third syllable from the beginning of the word: nepavisam [nepa'visam] not at all; (in) no way, neparko [nepar'kuo] not for everything in the world.

The last set of exceptions is found among international words (IWs) of the type komunikē [komuni'ke:], ateljē [atel'je:], esperanto [esper'anto]. The first two have end-stress whereas the latter has penultimate stress.

Because of the dominating principle of first-syllable-stress in Latvian, stress is practically phonologically irrelevant. Among the few minimal pairs which can be established are: nekā ['neka:] than vs. nekā [ne'ka:] (genitive of nekas [ne'kas] nobody; nothing), pārlieku ['pa:rlieku] move vs. pārlieku [pa:rlieku] too much, viennādi ['vien:a:di] alike vs. viennādi [vien'a:di] always.

2. Quantity
(Kvantitāte)

A. Vowels
As evident from the exposition on p. 28 f. and above Latvian contrasts between short and long vowels.

The duration of the long vowels in Latvian is claimed to be twice that of the short ones.

Unlike stress, vowel quantity can have distinctive function in Latvian. Oppositions of this kind play a very important role. Thus, quantity can distinguish:

1) between different lexemes, e. g.
   ja if : jā yes; kara (gen. sg. of karš) war : kāra (fem. sg.) gready, desirous of; sals (3 p. fut. tense of salt) freeze : sāls salt (nom. sg.),

2) between morphosyntactic words:
   a) with respect to oppositions in tense: braucam (1 p. pl. pres. tense of braukt) : braucām (1 p. pl. past tense of the same verb),
   b) with respect to oppositions in case: Rīga (nom. sg.) : Rīgā (lok. sg.); valstis (nom. pl. of valsts) state : valstīs (loc. pl.),
   c) with respect to oppositions of indefiniteness vs. definiteness:
      liela (fem. sg. nom. indef.) big : lielā (fem. sg. nom. def.), lielas (fem. pl. nom. indef.) : lielās (fem. pl. nom. def.).
**PHONOLOGY**

*Minimal pairs* of these types (above all b) and c) are very numerous in Latvian.

**B. Consonants**

Latvian has both short, semi-long and long consonants, but – unlike in the case of vowels – differences with respect to consonant quantity are said to be phonologically irrelevant, since they are only of phonetic character. However, some minimal pairs can be found, e. g. *nule just ['nule] vs. nulle ['nul:e] zero, gals [gals] end vs. galls [gal:s] Gal, mana [mana] (fem. sg. nom. or m. sg. gen.) my vs. manna [man:a] manna.*

Rules for the occurrence of *long* consonants in Latvian:

a) *unvoiced* plosives, fricatives or affricates (i. e. *p, t, k, ģ; s, š; c, č*) are pronounced as long or semi-long in the position between a stressed short vowel and an unstressed vowel (in word forms with three or more syllables always as semi-long).

Examples:


Note: consonant length is in this case not reflected in the orthography in contrast to:

b) words like *balle ball, feast, dilemma dilemma* where *one long consonant* is pronounced, i. e. *[l:] and [m:]* respectively. Such gemination in orthography is not characteristic of Latvian, but is found in a number of borrowings (such as those just mentioned). In autochthonic (indigenous) words they are encountered only very rarely (e. g. *mellene ['meːl:ene] blueberry,*

c) two consonants in word final position are pronounced as one semi-long consonant. This pertains also to cases where two consonants in this environment become identical as the result of an assimilation (p. 26): *ass (masc. sg. nom.) sharp, balss (masc. sg. nom.) voice, pareīzs ['pareiːz] correct, meņs [meʃ] forest.*

d) a long (or semi-long) consonant is also pronounced where there is a prefix ending in the same consonant as the initial consonant of the word root, for example *attistiba ['at:i:sti:ba] development, pārraidit ['pa:r:aidi:t] broadcast.* The same holds true for instances like *atdot ['adːuot] return, give back.* Observe further *compounds* of the type *pus-sala ['pus:ala] peninsula, lappuse ['lap:use] page.*

In all other instances *short* consonants are spoken. It should be emphasized that quantity relations may differ from those found in most of the modern Germanic languages (English, German, Dutch, the Nordic languages), since Latvian can have short consonants between short
vowels, as for example in labi [ˈlabi] well, maza [ˈmaza] (fem. sg. nom.) small.

3. Tone
Tone in Latvian consists of different intonational patterns realized in long syllables (i.e. long vowels, diphthongs and semi-diphthongs, cf. above).

Depending on the dialect three different tones or intonations are discernable, namely the even tone (stieptā intonācija), written in linguistic texts with the symbol ‘, the falling tone (krītošā intonācija), written as `, and the broken tone (lauztā intonācija), written as ´.

The even and the falling tones do not need much comment: in the former case the vowel/diphthong is pronounced on a level tone throughout, in the latter, the tone starts more intensely and falls off towards the end. The broken tone is segmented into two parts in a way which reminds one of a weakened Danish stød (glottal catch). In most areas in Latvia, however, only two intonational patterns are contrasted. Thus, in some parts of the country the falling and even intonations have fused while, in others the falling and the broken have done so. The latter pattern is the one found (among other places) in Riga, where an even and a falling intonation are distinguished.

In Contemporary Standard Latvian there are only very few minimal pairs with oppositions consisting in tone alone. For example: zāle [ˈzāːle] grass vs. zāle [ˈzāːle] hall; loks [luoks] garlic vs. logs [luoks] window vs. loks [luoks] bow.

Tone may be said to be of much lesser importance than stress and quantity and can be more or less ignored by the student – the more so because of the variations in the system(s) mentioned above.
Chapter 2

THE NOUN
(Lietvārds)

Grammatical Categories

The grammatical categories of the Latvian noun are the same as those of the other nominal parts of speech (adjective, pronoun, numeral), namely gender, number and case. Some general remarks should be made about these categories:

1. Gender
(Dzimte)

There are only two genders, masculine and feminine, in Latvian. The masculine is the unmarked member of this binary opposition which is seen (among other things) in the fact that it is the masculine and not the feminine which has replaced the lost neuter in examples like ir skaidrs, ka it is clear that and others. To a certain extent, adverb forms ending in -i can be said to fill the gap after the loss of the neuter, in such constructions as viņai ir auksti she feels (lit. is) cold, vs. the unmarked masculine adjective form in sodien ir auksts today it is cold, cf. p. 207.

Nouns are said to have an inherent gender, expressed through agreement with modifiers (i.e. adjectives, participles, certain pronouns and numerals).

The rules for determination of gender in Latvian are simple, since there is a very high degree of harmony between form and gender. Thus, nouns ending in -s/-š, -is or -us (reflecting declensions 1-3, regarding which see below) are masculine, whereas the remainder, i.e. those ending in -a, -e or -s (i.e. declensions 4-6) are feminine. Exceptions are those very few nouns ending in -a which refer to male persons, where the gender is determined by the biological gender (sex), e.g. puika boy. Further, a few nouns ending in -a and -e can be of so-called common gender (Latvian kopdzimte), which means that they are of masculine gender if a male is referred to and feminine if a female is referred to, e.g. nejēga idiot, bende (usually masc.) hangman. First names and family names also comply with this rule.
Finally, it should be added that masculine nouns ending in -s/-š which denote occupations are regularly opposed to feminine nouns ending in -e (-a after -j), e.g. direktors director : direktore woman director, skolotājs teacher : skolotāja woman teacher. When sex is unmarked as, for example, in mūsu fabrikā tagad jauns direktors at our factory there is now a new director (our factory now has a new director) – the masculine form is used.

Observe finally oppositions such as Kalniņš Mr. K. : Kalniņa Mrs./Miss K., Lācis Mr. L. : Mrs./Miss L. in Latvian surnames.

2. Number
(Skaitījums)
Latvian distinguishes between two grammatical numbers, singular and plural. A peculiarity of Latvian – along with Lithuanian – is the richness in plural nouns (so-called pluralia tantum, see p. 51 f. below).

3. Case
(Locījums)
Traditionally, grammars of Latvian have worked with a system of seven cases: the nominative, the genitive, the dative, the instrumental, the accusative, the locative and the vocative.

However, the status of the alleged instrumental (which is identical in form with the accusative in the singular, the dative in the plural) in modern Latvian can be questioned, since it occurs only with the preposition ar with. As will be seen in the chapter on prepositions, all prepositions in Latvian take the dative case in the plural. Thus, it seems legitimate to assert that in modern Latvian there is no instrumental, and that the preposition ar governs the accusative (as does, for example, par about). However, departing from distributional criteria, it is problematic to claim that a given preposition governs one case (variably the accusative, genitive or dative) in the singular and another (invariably the dative) in the plural. A solution to the dilemma would be to assume two systems; i.e. one involving an accusative₁, genitive₁, etc. for non-prepositional use, and another for prepositional use involving an accusative₂, genitive₂ etc., but this conclusion would pose an obstacle to making simple generalizations. In this grammar we will agree with Fennell (1975, pp. 41-48), Lötzsch (1978, pp. 667-671) and others, who have denied the existence of a separate instrumental case in Latvian, whence we arrive at a system consisting of six cases. For certain adverbalized residual traces of the Indo-European instrumental, see chapter 8: Case.

Of the remaining dependent (oblique) cases, it should be noted that the Latvian locative never occurs after a preposition. This is due to the
fact that from a diachronic point of view, the locative in Latvian seems to originate in the old Indo-European locative, with superposition of an imbedded postpositional element with subsequent rearrangements. The vocative is, in virtue of its function as a case of address, somewhat apart, since (unlike the rest) it is not incorporated in the syntax of a sentence.

**Declensional Types**

The Latvian noun is usually grouped into 6 declensional classes, three masculine (1-3) and three feminine (4-6).

Thus, the Latvian noun inflection constitutes a symmetrical gender-determined system. The endings are vocalic in the nominative plural of the masculine declensions, consonantal in those of the feminine. In the nominative singular, the situation is almost the reverse, with consonantal endings in declensions 1-3, vocalic in 4 and 5.

In addition, the following generalizations should be mentioned:

All six declensions have the ending -u in the genitive plural. The dative(-instrumental) plural ends in Vowel + m, the accusative and the locative plural in short V + s and long V + s, respectively. The vocative plural is always identical with the nominative plural.

Furthermore, in declensions 1-3 the plural case endings are the same. Declensions 4-6 have a different set of essentially identical plural endings; only the vocalic constituent varies.

*Consonant alternations* (according to the principles set forth on p. 24-25) are encountered in declensions 2, 5 and 6.

The **first declension** is characterized by -s or -š in the nominative singular and -a in the genitive, e.g. vārds, gen. vārda word; name, ceļš, ceļa road, way.

From an Indo-European point of view nouns of this class are labeled o- and jo-stems (Baltic/Latvian alja-stems). The a-type is attested in vārds (< *wordas, cf. p. 34 f.), that of ja in ceļš (reflecting *keljas with palatalization of the l through the effect of the *j and subsequent progressive palatalization of *s > š, due to the l).

The **second declension** has the ending -is in the nominative singular: brālis brother.

From a historical perspective, nouns of this class form a subgroup of the 1st declension. They seem to reflect *-ijo-(Baltic/Latvian -ija-)stems.

The **third declension** is characterized by -us in the nominative singular: tirgus market.

From a historical point of view -us nouns are referred to as u-stems. The plural forms are due to analogy from the *o/-ijo and *-ijo-stems.
The fourth declension has -a in the nominative singular: māsa (hard variant) sister, velja (soft variant) linen.

Nouns of the fourth declension are, from a historical point of view, called ā- and jā-stems (= hard and soft variants respectively). As will be seen from the concrete paradigm presented on p. 46, this *ā has in many instances been shortened according to the principles mentioned on p. 35 f. The long vowel in the locative sg. – here as with other stems – is the result of a special treatment. The -u in the accusative singular reflects *-ān < -ām, cf. Phonology p. 32 and 35 f.

The fifth declension has the ending -e in the nominative singular: egle fir.

Nouns ending in -e are, in historical terms, referred to as ē-stems. Outside the Baltic subfamily they lack evident parallels. The principles for shortenings are the same as with ā-stems. In so far as they reflect *-ijā-stems, ē-stems may, from a diachronic perspective, be said to form a subgroup of the *-ā-stems (cf. 4th decl. above), thus paralleling *-oljo-stems (1st decl.) vs. *-ijo-stems (2nd decl.).

The sixth declension is characterized by -s, both in the nominative and genitive singular: zīvs fish.

From a diachronic point of view, the 6th declension represents a merger of i-stems and consonant stems. Positive evidence of the latter is observed in cases without a consonant shift in the gen. pl., cf. p. 48. Certain consonant stems have also merged with other stems.

**First Declension**

Example paradigms:
*tēvs father (subset a), cēļš road, way (subset b)*

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Comments on the Paradigm

As mentioned on p. 42, this declension shows a split into two subsets, one ("hard" = subset a) with a nom. sg. ending in -s, the other ("soft" or palatalized (cf. p. 24 f.) = subset b) (often) ending in -š.

Nouns with a stem in -j have -js if they contain one of the suffixes -ēj- or -(t)āj-, e.g. skolotājs teacher. In other cases it seems difficult to give clearcut rules for the distribution between -js and -jš, cf., for example, klājs deck vs. vējs wind.

Observe the situation with stems ending in -r, as illustrated through the contrast gars, gen. gara mind : karš, gen. kara war. For an explanation, see pp. 24 and 42 above.

Notice further that k and g do not undergo a shift to *c and *dz before the nom. pl. -i marker, e.g. cilvēki men, persons, karogi flags, banners.

elē-sounds have an open articulation if they occur in nouns of subset a, whereas they are spoken with a narrow elē in nouns belonging to subset b.

The Form of the Vocative

This form needs a special comment. As becomes apparent from the paradigm, it can either be identical with the nominative or end in -Ø (zero). The Ø-ending seems to be mandatory with the suffixes -nieks, -(t)ājs and -ējs, e.g. skolnieks, voc. skolniek pupil, skolotājs, voc. skolotāj teacher, pircējs, voc. pircēj customer.

For reflexive nouns, see p. 49 f..

Second Declension

Example paradigm:

brālis brother

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<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<td>G</td>
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<td>L</td>
<td>brāli</td>
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<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>brāl(i)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Consonant Alternations

As seen in the above paradigm, consonant alternations take place in all cases in the plural and in those cases which do not have the ending -i/-i in the singular. Since a full table with concrete examples of the consonant shifts encountered with 2nd declensional nouns has been given on p. 24-25, there is no need to repeat this material here. The historical motivation for the shift has already been mentioned. It was also stated that words with k/ŋ before the -is in the nom. sg. retain the k/ŋ in all forms of the paradigm. There is no shift *k > k, g > ŋ. The shift r : r is obsolete (cf. p. 25). It is encountered in older writings and can still be found in emigré publications.

The Form of the Vocative

As indicated in the brālis-paradigm, the vocative ends in -i or Ø (zero). The former alternative is the more frequent. With diminutives ending in -ītis it is practically an absolute rule: brālitis, voc. brālīti.

Irregularities in the 2nd Declension

1. The noun viēsis (gen. viēsa) guest does not have consonant alternation. The same applies to surnames ending in -skis (e.g. Brunovskis, gen. Brunovska), as well as to first names ending in -tis and -dis: Atis (gen. Ata), Valdis (gen. Valda). This rule, however, is not observed in compounds: Visvaldis, gen. Visvalža.

2. The noun suns dog follows the brālis-pattern except for the nom. sg., i.e. suns, suņa, sunim, suni, sunī; suņi, suņu, suņiem, suņus, suņos. The vocative is identical with the nominative.

3. The nouns akmens stone, asmens blade, mēness moon, rudens autumn, sāls salt, ūdens water and zibens lightning are declined like suns, except that the genitive is identical with the nominative. The same applies to the vocative. The rest of the paradigm is identical to that of brālis: akmens, akmens, akmeņam, akmenī, akmeni; akmeņi, akmeņu, akmeņiem, akmeņus, akmeņos.

The reason for the above irregularities is that the nouns in question were originally consonant stems, cf. note to the sixth declension pp. 43 and 48. The same can be said about viēsis (in point 1 above). This declension has become specialized to include feminines only.

Third Declension

This declension includes only a few nouns.
Example of paradigm:
tirgus market
### Fourth Declension

Example paradigm:

**māsa** sister

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<td>māsās</td>
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<td>V</td>
<td>māsas</td>
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There are no complications with respect to the declensional pattern of these feminine nouns, since hard and soft variants (p. 43), e.g. *māsa* and *veļa* (‘linen’), are treated in exactly the same way. Care should, however, be taken for nouns designating males. They are of masculine gender (cf. p. 40) and have the ending -am (not *-ai*) in the dative sg., e.g. *puika* : *puikam* boy, *Kabelka* : *Kabelkam* (family name).

*The Form of the Vocative*

There is a tendency towards dropping the -a in the vocative with a-nouns denoting persons (e.g. *Iev-Ø*, *mās-Ø*) as well as with nouns containing a suffix (*skolotāj-Ø*).

For reflexive nouns, cf. p. 49 f.
Fifth Declension

Example paradigm: māte mother

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<td>V māt(e)</td>
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There are a number of exceptions to this rule of consonant shift in the genitive plural, of which the following should be mentioned here: mute : mutu mouth, pajumte : pajumtu shelter, kase : kasu booking-office; cashbox, pase : pasu passport, kaste : kastu box. The consonants k and ģ remain unaltered, e.g. puķe : puķu flower, ģeoloģe : ģeoloģu geologist (female). The same applies, according to the existing standard to r (niere : nieru kidney).

The motivation for using an unchanged consonant in words such as mutu and pasu is claimed to be the wish to avoid homonymy, cf. mušu (inflected form from muša fly), pašu (inflected form from pats -self). In other instances the reason for an unchanged consonant may be phonotactical; thus, for instance, -st-clusters are, as a rule, left unchanged.

As was also the case in the fourth declension, nouns designating males follow the biological sex, and are consequently masculine. They further parallel masculine a-nouns in requiring the ending -em instead of -ei in the dative sg., e.g. bende : bendem hangman, Terje (Matiasens) : Terjem (Matiasenam).
The Form of the Vocative
The guidelines for formation of the vocative are the same as with nouns of the fourth declension.

Sixth Declension

Example paradigm:
*zivs* fish

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</tbody>
</table>

As in the case of *e*-nouns (5th declension), the nouns of this declension are also subject to the rule of consonant change in the genitive plural. In addition to the above *zivs* : *zivju*, *nakts* : *nakšu night*, *sirds* : *siržu heart*, *pils* : *pīļu castle* should also be mentioned as illustrations.

There are, however, a good number of examples without a consonant shift in the genitive plural: *acs* : *acu eye*, *auss* : *ausu ear*, *balss* : *balsu voice*, *debess* : *debesu sky*, *uts* : *utu louse*, *valsts* : *valstu state*, *zoss* : *zosu goose*.

The same holds true for the plural nouns (cf. p. 51 f.) brokastis breakfast and Cēsis (name of a town in Latvia), with genitive forms brokastu and Cēsu respectively.

The historical explanation for the presence vs. absence of consonant shift in the genitive plural of nouns of the sixth declension should be sought in the fact that *i*-stems and consonant stems have merged in this declension, cf. also note on p. 43. In the former a shift is expected, but not in the latter.

The **vocative** of this declension has the same form as the nominative.

**Vacillations between Declensions**
The following nouns have changed declensional type:
*strīde* dispute, quarrel from IV to I: *strīds*; *krogs* pub, tavern from III to I: *krogs*; *birze* grove from V to VI: *birzs*;
THE NOUN

For the obsolete pluralic feminine nouns (with special endings) dzirnus mill, pelus chuff and ragus sledge, see under Singular and Plural Nouns below.

Summing up of the Endings
The following table shows the endings of the six declensions:

**SINGULAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case/Decl.</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>-s, -š</td>
<td>-is, -s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>-(j)a, -s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-am</td>
<td>-im</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-u</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>-ā</td>
<td>-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>-Ø, -s, š</td>
<td>-Ø, -i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case/Decl.</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-(j)i</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-as</td>
<td>-es</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>-u</td>
<td>-(j)u</td>
<td>-u</td>
<td>-(j)u</td>
<td>-u</td>
<td>-(j)u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-iem</td>
<td>-(j)iem</td>
<td>-iem</td>
<td>-ām</td>
<td>-ēm</td>
<td>-īm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-us</td>
<td>-(j)us</td>
<td>-us</td>
<td>-as</td>
<td>-es</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>-os</td>
<td>-(j)os</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-ās</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>= N</td>
<td>= N</td>
<td>= N</td>
<td>= N</td>
<td>= N</td>
<td>= N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reflexive Nouns**

A peculiarity of Latvian is its possession of reflexive nouns. They are all derived from verbs. The most frequent types have the ending -šanās and -tājās (both feminine). The latter has a corresponding masculine form in -tājies. Forms in -umies (masc.) are rare. Thus, reflexive nouns are restricted to the patterns of nouns of the 1st and (most frequently) 4th declensions. Their inflection is characterized by syncretism and definiteness (in that dative and locative forms are lacking). Plural forms are possible, but rather rare.

Example of paradigms: velējumies desire (: vēlēties wish), piedališanās participation (: piedalītīes participate).
Compared to the non-reflexive nouns of the 4th and 1st declensions, the endings of the reflexive nouns can be accounted for by implementation of the same strategy mentioned in connection with the long form adjective (p. 59).

Observe the difference between the minimal pairs non-reflexive \textit{vēlēšanas} elections (: \textit{vēlēt} to elect): reflexive \textit{vēlēšanās} desire (: \textit{vēlēties} to wish). An example of a reflexive noun is provided by the greeting formula \textit{uz redzēsanos} (accusative) good-bye (: \textit{*redzēties} lit. see one another, meet).

**Indeclinable Nouns**

Words of this group are restricted to \textit{nouns of foreign origin} with a morphological shape which makes it difficult to incorporate them in the mainstream (i. e. declinable) corpus of Latvian. Thus, nouns ending in -\textit{ul/-ū} and -\textit{o} are not declined, e.g. \textit{Tartu, Baku, Peru, ragū; auto, kino, radio, Hugo, Oslo}. The same is the case with nouns ending in the long vowels -\textit{i}, ē and ā: \textit{Kirī Curie, pietā, Zolā; ateljē, foajē}. Nouns ending in -\textit{i} are also undeclined: \textit{Kapri, Deli}.

One might wonder why foreign words ending in -\textit{i} have not been made declinable by joining the group of plural nouns (p. 51 f.). An analysis of \textit{Kapr+i, Del+i} would, however, violate the very integrity of the foreign word. An exception is \textit{Helsinkī} which is treated like the plural noun \textit{Talsī} (name of a city in Latvia), i. e. \textit{Helsinkos in Helsinki}.
In a case like birojs office the integrity of the word has been preserved even though it has been made declinable. It has been adapted to Latvian inflection through stem expansion using -j-. A similar strategy is observed in ale-j-a avenue.

The gender of indeclinables ending in -i, -u, -o with inanimate reference is masculine (which according to p. 40 is the unmarked gender of Latvian). For deviations with so-called associative agreement, see chapter 13.

The gender is expressed through modifiers, e.g. garšīgs ragū a tasty ragout, cf. chapter 13.

The gender of animate indeclinables is determined by the biological gender (sex).

**Singular and Plural Nouns**

*Singulāria and pluralia tantum*

By this term are meant nouns which possess either only 1) singular or 2) plural forms.

Group 1 (the *singulāria tantum*) encompasses:

A. abstracts (like mīlestība love, sīrdsapziņa conscience),
B. collectives (e.g. jaunatne youth, intelīģences intelligentsia),
C. many designations of materials (dzelzs iron, sudrabs silver, zelts gold, elja oil, darva tar, koks wood, mērce sauce, speķis fat, krējums cream, piens milk, sula juice, ievārījums/džems jam),
D. names like Latvija, Rīga etc.

To group 2 (the *pluralia tantum*) belong:

A. designations of ceremonies, feasts and similar, like svētki holiday, Ziemsvētki Christmas, Lieldienas Easter, kāzas wedding, bēres funeral,

B. a good number of mass nouns like alimenti alimony, mīlts flour, graudi corn, grain, cereal(s), kvieši wheat, mieži barley, auzas oats, rudzi rye, riisi rice, garšvielas spice, dilles dill, pētersiļi parsley, pipari pepper, pīšļi ashes (pl. also in English), putekļi dust, tauki grease, kvēpi/sodrēji soot, mēšli manure, ziepes soap,

C. the directions of the compass: dienvidi south, austrumi east, rietumi west, ziemeļi north,

D. some geographical names like Alpi The Alps, Atēnas Athens, Balkāni The Balkans, Himalaji The Himalayas. Within Latvia itself there is a considerable amount of pluralic nouns designating cities, villages and suburbs, for example Cēsis (6th decl.), Talsi, Brocēni, Līvāni, Kēmeri, Baloži, Bulduri, Pumpuri, Jaunpļavas.
E. a group of more or less heterogeneous nouns like iesnas cold, bakas small-pox, masalas measles (pl. also in English), bikses trousers (pl. also in English), šorti shorts (pl. also in English), brokastis (6th decl.) breakfast, mēbeles furniture, vārti gate, durvis (6th decl.) door, laudis (6th decl.) people (= Leute), meli lie.

One is intrigued by the great number of plural nouns in Latvian, not least those referring to mass nouns (second group 2 B above). The reason for this development remains obscure. From a practical point of view, however, one should not take for granted that nouns within this semantic sphere are automatically pluralic. Regular nouns with both singular and plural forms are among others the designations of berries, fruits and vegetables.

Plural nouns in -i are declined in accordance with the masculine plural declension pattern, whereas those in -as, -es and -is follow the feminine declensions, i.e. the 4th, 5th and 6th respectively. Note that the three irregular feminine pluralic u-stem nouns dzirnus, pelus and ragus in contemporary Latvian (referred to on p. 48 above) have been replaced by the normalized dzirnavas, pelavas and ragavas respectively.

Word Formation of Nouns

Within word formation two main areas are distinguished: derivation and composition.

Suffixation is a derivational strategy (cf. I below), whereas prefixation is a compositional device (treated in II below). Some of the examples given in II are hybrids since a change in the suffix is also observed. In III non-prefixed compositions are discussed.

1. Suffixal Derivatives

A. Persons
a) deverbative:

-āj-s (masc.), -āj-a (fem.); -tāj-s (masc.), -tāj-a (fem.); -ēj-s (masc.), -ēj-a (fem.). With the help of these suffixes agentive nouns (nomina agentis) are derived from verbs. The derivational mechanism is regulated in such a way that -tāj- derives nouns from (the past stem of) verbs of conjugations II and III (see p. 104 f.), whereas -ēj- and its more rare variant -āj- derive nouns from (the past stem of) verbs of conjugation I. Examples: lidotājs/-āja pilot (: lidot (II) fly), lasītājs/-āja reader (: lasit (III) read), pircējs/-ēja customer (: pirk-u, pirk-t (I) buy – notice the automatic shift from k > c before the -ē- of the suffix), dzērājs/-āja drunkard (: dzēr-u, dzert (I) drink);
b) (mostly) denominal:

-niek-s/-niek-s (masc.), -niec-e/-niec-e (fem.). This suffix derives nouns designating occupation or origin from nouns; e.g., dārzniks/dārzniece gardener (: dārzs garden), skolnieks/skolniece pupil (: skola school), vēsturnieks/vēsturniece historian (: vēsture history), zinātnieks/zinātniece scientist, scholar (: zināte science), strādnieks/strādniece worker (: strādāt work), rīdzinieks/īdziniece inhabitant of Riga (: Rīga — observe the automatic shift of g > dz before the -i- of the suffix);

-iets (masc.), -iets (fem.). With the help of this suffix, nouns (most frequently designating nationality) are derived from nouns:

latviešu / latviešu Latvian (: Latvija Latvia), vācietis/vāciete German (: Vācija Germany). Notice that the masculine counterpart of -iets in many cases is not -iitis, but -is or -s, for example, amerikāņie te : amerikāņis American, angliete : anglis (: Anglija) English, igaunie te : igaunis (: Igaunija) Estonian, norvēģiete : norvēģis (: Norvēģija) Norwegian, krieviete : krievs (: Krievija) Russian, somie te : soms (: Somija) Finland, zviedriere : zviedrs (: Zviedrija) Swede.

B. Abstracts

-atne. This suffix derives nouns from adjectives: jaunatne youth (< jauns young);

-ib-ā. With the help of this suffix nouns are derived from nouns and, more frequently, from adjectives and verbs. Examples: tautila nationality (: tautta people); brīvība freedom (: brīvs free), slimība illness (: slims ill), veselība health (: vesels healthy); attīstība development (: attīstīt develop), cerība hope (: cerēt hope), palīdzība help (: palīdzēt help);

-um-s. This suffix derives nouns from adjectives and verbs. For example: aukstums coldness (: auksts cold) as well as skaitstums beauty (: skaists beautiful), vecums age (: vecs old), jautājums question (: jautāt ask), notikums event (: notikt happen), teikums sentence (: teikt say);

-šan-ā, refl. -šan-ās (cf. also the verbal noun, p. 158). This suffix derives nouns from (the infinitive stem of) any verb, e.g. krāšana collecting (: krā-t collect), lasisāna reading (: lasī-t read), piedalīšanās participation (: piedalī-ties participate).
C. Collective Nouns
The suffix -ība can have collective meaning; for example, labība crop (: labs good), biedrība association, Gesellschaf (: biedrs friend, comrade).

D. Instrument
The following suffixes derive nouns from nouns and verbs:
-ulis/-ule: zīmulis pencil (: zīmēt draw), klausule receiver (telephone) (: klausities listen);
-ējs: (radio)uztvērējs (radio)receiver (: uztvert catch);
-eklis: grābeklis rake (: grābt rake).

E. Location (Place)
a) deverbative:
-tava and -tuve: With the help of the help of the former of these suffixes, nouns are derived from (the infinitive stem of) verbs of conjugations II and III (p. 104 f.), whereas the latter derives nouns from (the infinitive stem of) verbs of the 1st conjugation. Examples: mazgātava laundry (: mazgāt (II) wash), frīzētava hairdresser’s saloon (: frīzē-t (II)), lasītava reading room (< lasī-t (III) read), virtuve kitchen (: (now obsolete) vir-t (I) cook);
b) (mostly) denominial:
The suffix -nīca derives nouns from (mostly) nouns and adjectives. For example: -nīca: vārdnīca dictionary (: vārds (noun) noun); viesnīca (noun) hotel (: vienis guest), vasarnīca summer house (: vasara (noun) summer); slimnīca hospital (: slims ill). Note ēdnīca cafeteria (: ēst (verb) eat).

F. Diminutives and Hypocorisms
Diminutives are abundantly present in Latvian. Here the suffixes -in and -it should be mentioned first. With the help of the former, derivatives from declensions 1 and 4 are made, whereas the latter produces derivatives from declensions 2 and 5: dēlinš (: dēls I son), māsiņa (: māsa IV sister), brālītis (: brālis II brother), upīte (: upe V river). Another important suffix in this group is -tiņ, e.g. akmentsnīš (: akmens stone), gredzentiņš (: gredzens ring).

Another diminutivizing suffix is -ēns (NB always pronounced with an open -ē-). Examples: dēlēns sonny, little boy (: dēls boy), pelēns young/little mouse (: pele mouse).
A sociolinguistically interesting feature of today’s Latvian is the seemingly strong tendency among female speakers to use diminutives. Moreover, diminutives are characteristic of certain literary genres, above all folksongs and traditions based on them.

2. Prefixal Derivatives
As will become apparent from the subsequent material, a rich variety of prefix or prefix-like formations is encountered:

aiz-: aizdegune nasopharynx
ap-: apkakle collar
apakš-: apakšzeme Hades; underground
ār-: ārzemes foreign countries
at-: atbalss echo
bez-: bezdarbība unemployment
caur-: caurskate radioscopy
ie-: ierosme initiative, impulse
iekš-: iekškabata inside pocket
līdz-: lidzjūtība compassion
no-: nodāja department
pa-: pāmāte stepmother
pakaļ-: pakaļdurvis backdoor
pār-: pārcilvēks superman
pēc-: pēctecis descendant, successor
pie-: piekraste coast
pret-: pretkalpojums service in return
priekš-: priekšvārds foreword, preface
starp-: starplaiks interval, break
uz-: uzplecis epaulette
virs-: virsraksts heading, title
zem-: zemapziņa subconsciousness
ne-: neuzmanība carelessness

In some cases (with prefixes in the form of a preposition), the compound noun occurs in a petrified oblique case, e.g. pirmskara pre-war, pēcoperācijas postoperative and is used in the function of an (undecorated) adjective (non-congruent attribute, cf. p. 201). Example: pirmskara gados during prewar years.

3. Non-Prefixal Compositions
Only a few examples need be given:
zeissvētki (noun in the genitive case in the first component) Christmas, lieldienas (adjective without connecting or stem vowel in the first component) Easter, pirmdiena (ordinal number without connecting
or stem vowel in the first component) *Monday, ēdamistaba* (participle without connecting or stem vowel in the first component) *dining room, stāvlampa* (verb stem in the first component) *floor lamp*.

In translating, for example, *bookshop* into Latvian, one may be in doubt as to whether a suffixal formation *grāmatnīca*, the compound *grāmatveikals* (without connecting vowel) or a two word genitive combination *grāmatu veikals* would be preferable. The latter strategy is very frequent in Latvian, cf. *priežu mežs* *pine forest, sudraba karote silver spoon, kafijas tasite coffee cup*, while German and the Nordic languages make much wider use of compounds (*Tannenwald, furuskog etc.*)
General Characteristics

The Latvian adjective appears in two variants: the short (or indefinite) and the long (or definite) respectively.

Both forms are declined in gender, number and case. In addition, many adjectives (i.e. the qualitative ones) are inflected according to degrees of comparison, whereby the comparative and the superlative are distinguished from the positive.

Two genders are distinguished: masculine and feminine.

In the field of syntax the Latvian adjective distinguishes between three functions:

1. attributive,
2. appositive, and
3. predicative.

In functions 1) and 2) there is agreement (see chapter 13) between the noun and the adjective in gender, number and case whereas in 3) there is agreement with the subject with respect to gender and number (chapter 13). For the special case of the predicate adjective in deitative constructions, again chapter 13 should be consulted.

The Short (Indefinite) Form

The masculine form is declined like the first declension of nouns, the feminine like nouns of the fourth declension. As with the corresponding noun declensions two subtypes, hard (e.g. liels) and soft (e.g. vājš weak, dzilš, see pp. 44 and 46), are distinguished.

Example of paradigm:
liels (hard variant) big, dzilš (soft variant) deep.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>liels</td>
<td>dzīļš</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dzīļa</td>
<td>lielas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielam</td>
<td>dzīļam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielu</td>
<td>dzīļu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>lielā</td>
<td>dzīļā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lieli</td>
<td>dzīļi</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielu</td>
<td>dzīļu</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielienm</td>
<td>dzīļiemen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielus</td>
<td>dzīļus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielos</td>
<td>dzīļos</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: the short form adjective does not have vocative function.

The Long (Definite) Form
Example of paradigm:
lielais (hard variant) big, dzīlais (soft variant) deep

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>lielais</td>
<td>dzīlais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dzīlā</td>
<td>lielās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielajam</td>
<td>dzīlajam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielo</td>
<td>dzīlo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielāja</td>
<td>dzīļajā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V1</td>
<td>= N/A¹</td>
<td>= N/A¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>lielie</td>
<td>dzīlie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielo</td>
<td>dzīlo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielaijim</td>
<td>dzīļaijem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielos</td>
<td>dzīlos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lielajos</td>
<td>dzīļajos</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹for the distribution between nominative and accusative forms, see p. 62, point 5 below.
The student will be able to derive correct long adjective forms from the corresponding short ones by applying one of the two following rules: 1) lengthening, 2) insertion of -aɪ- (before consonant), -aj- (before vowel). 1) consists of lengthening short vowels to a corresponding long monophthong (viz. a > ą) or to a diphthong (viz. u > o, i > ie). 2) is implemented in cases where the vowel is already long (monophthong or diphthong) or where there is no vowel at all (as in the masc. sg. nom.).

1) should be regarded only as a synchronic rule, which does not reflect diachronic data. From a diachronic point of view the process is rather the reverse: the short vowel and Ø-vowel endings of the short form adjectives (cf. p. 58 f.) are the result of shortenings and syncope. For a didactic and synchronic description, however, it is easier to move from the morphologically simpler forms represented by short form adjectives to the more complicated sets of endings found in the long form adjective paradigm. This approach to long form adjective inflection was introduced by T. G. Fennell (1980).

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

So far only forms of the positive degree have been given. In the following section the comparative and superlative degrees will be introduced.

1. The Comparative

The comparative is formed by adding the suffix -āk- to the positive stem. Both short (indefinite) and long (definite) forms are distinguished. The endings are the same as in the positive degree for all cases and both numbers and genders.

Examples of short form comparatives:
lab-s (masc.) → lab-āk-s, lab-a (fem.) → lab-āk-a better, dzil-š (masc.) → dzil-āk-s, dzil-a (fem.) → dzil-āk-a deeper.

Examples of long form comparatives:
lab-ais (masc.) → lab-āk-ais, lab-ā (fem.) → lab-āk-ā, dzil-ais (masc.) → dzil-āk-ais, dzil-ā (fem.) → dzil-āk-ā.

Note: for formal and/or semantic reasons comparative forms are not constructed from all types of adjectives. Thus, for example, many adjectives in -isk- do not form comparatives. However, when comparatives are found in Latvian, they are always of a synthetic type, e.g. demokrātiskāka kustība a more democratic movement. Analytic comparatives of the type *vairāk demokrātiska kustība are avoided.
2. The Superlative

The long form of the comparative can function also as a superlative.

Unambiguously superlative meaning is obtained by adding the prefix vis- all or the word pats (masc.)/pati (fem.) to (usually) the long form of the comparative:

vis-lab-āk-s/vis-lab-āk-ais (masc.), vis-lab-āk-a/vis-lab-āk-ā (fem.);

pats labākais/pati labākā best, the (very) best.

The stress is never on vis-, but will always rest on the immediately following syllable: vislabākais [vis’labā:kais], cf. p. 36 above. For the declension of pats/pati, see p. 73.

SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVES

1. The Short (Indefinite) Form

As already mentioned, the Latvian adjective has the following three functions: (1) attributive, (2) appositive, and (3) predicative. This holds true for all degrees of comparison, i.e. the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

Example of predicative function: istaba ir maza the room is small.

Note the use of the dative case in predicative function in general statements and when the logical subject is in the dative: nav ir viegli būt mazam (masc.)/mazai (fem.) it is not easy (for anyone) to be small, Jānim nav viegli būt mazam it is not easy for John to be small, ievai nav viegli būt mazai it is not easy for Eve to be small.

In functions (1) and (2) the short (indefinite) form is used in the environments where the long (definite) form (see p. 61 f.) is not used. Thus, the short form is encountered in the rhematic function (p. 221), i.e. it designates something which is new or unknown in the situation or context (“new information“): maza meitene a little girl (note the indefinite article in English).

In function 3) the short form is used, e.g. meitene ir maza the girl is small.

Equivalents of English than

In Latvian both the preposition par + the accusative and the conjunction nekā (most frequently followed by the nominative) can corre-
spond to English than: viņa ir jaunāka par mani/nekā es she is younger than me. In negative utterances nekā must be replaced by kā: viņa nav/nebija jaunāka kā es she is/was not younger than me.

In cases like Latvijā cenas ir zemākas nekā Norvēģijā prices in Latvia are lower than in Norway it is self-evident that only nekā is possible to the exclusion of the accusative governing preposition par.

The conjunction nekā is most frequently encountered in sentences of the type x is -er than y which explains its frequent affinity with the nominative. The etymological meaning of nekā is not as/like, cf. the above example viņa ir jaunāka nekā es (esmu) lit. she is younger:(and) not as/like I (am). The etymology of this conjunction also explains the use of kā and not *nekā in negative utterances.

Equivalents of English too

For this purpose the adverb pārāk is used, e.g. pārāk liels too big. An alternative is to put the prefix pār- before the adjective (cf. p. 161): pārliels too big.

Equivalents of English much, considerably + the Comparative

Whereas the positive degree is strengthened by loti very (e.g. loti interesanta filma a very interesting movie), the comparative is strengthened by daudz much or the more bookish ievērojamī considerably, cf., for example, viņa ir daudz jaunāka nekā viņš she is much older than he and Eiropā dzīves limenis ir ievērojamī augstāks nekā Āfrikā in Europe the standard of living is considerably higher than in Africa.

2. The Long (Definite) Form

The following guidelines should be given:

The long form of the adjective can be used only in the function of the attribute and the apposition, not in that of the predicative (except for the superlative, cf. p. 60 above).

Basically its function is thematic, i.e. it designates something which is known from the situation or context ("given information"): Mazā meitene raudāja the little girl was crying (note the definite article in English; in German, Dutch and the Nordic languages there is an additional lead in the form of the adjective das kleine Mädchen, het kleine meisje, den lille piken (Norwegian)).

In addition a set of formalized rules can be given. Thus, the use of the long (definite) form is obligatory:

1. after demonstrative pronouns: šis jaunais direktors this young director;
2. after possessive pronouns and possessors in the genitive case: 
mana/vinu/tēva jaunā automašīna my/theirlfather's new car;
3 a) after the pronoun viss: visi jaunie pilsoņi all new citizens;
3 b) after abi/abas: abas mazās māsas both the little sisters;
4. with proper nouns: Pēteris Lielais Peter the Great, mazā Mārta little Martha; Mēlnā jūra the Black Sea.
5. in address (vocative function): Miļie draugi dear friends. 
Observe that in the singular the nominative form of the adjective is used if the noun is also in the nominative case (e.g. miļā māmiņa dear mother); if the noun has a special vocative form, the adjective can either have the form of the nominative or the accusative, i.e. miļā māmiņ or miļo māmiņ; miļais tētis or miļo tētis dear father).
6. in the expression vien- no [...] one of: viens no ievērojamākajiem (comparative/superlative) latviešu rakstniekiem ir Kārlis Skalbe Karlis Skalbe is one of the greatest Latvian writers.
7. for the purpose of substantivization (see also below): kurlmēmais deaf-and-dumb, Balto armija The White Army (lit. "the army of the white").
8. in so-called generic use: melnā birža the black market, baltais lācis white/polar bear, Sarkanais krusts The Red Cross.

Note: Deviations from these rules can be found in fiction. In addition, it should be stated that the norm was less stable in older writings.

Observe finally that some few adjectives (e.g. galvenais chief, main; pēdējais last) are always long.

Substantivization

A certain amount of adjectives in Latvian can be substantivized (cf. also point 7 in the preceding paragraph). They are mostly in the definite (long) form.

Examples:

mazais the little one (boy), mazā the little one (girl), sarkanādainie (the) Indians (redskins; lit. red skinny), bagātie the rich (people); brivpratīgo armija an army of volunteers (voluntary); kas jauns? anything new? what new(s)?; kurināmais fuel (lit. sth. burnable), dzeramais (something) potable/to drink.

Notice the use of the (unmarked) masculine form (cf. p. 40) as a substitute for the (lost) neuter in the last three examples.

Although the last two examples quoted are participles (cf. p. 155) strictly speaking, nevertheless they have so much in common with adjectives that they can be included here.
Word Formation

For some general principles, see Nouns: Word Formation above.

1. Suffixal Derivatives

The most common suffixes are:

-ig-s/-a:
This suffix derives adjectives from nouns and other parts of speech, e.g. speīcis/-īga vigorous (: spēks force, strength) – notice the automatic shift of k > c before -ī-.

-isk-s/-a:
Adjectives with this suffix are derived from nouns, e.g. mutisks oral (: mute mouth), zinātnisks scientific (: zināte science). It is frequently encountered with words of foreign origin: demokrātisks democratic, elektrisks electric, ģeogrāfisks geographic, politisks political. To some extent adjectives with this suffix can also be derived from other adjectives, cf. lielisks remarkable, excellent (: liels big).

-ain-s/-a:
This is a desubstantival suffix which designates a large amount/quantity of the substance indicated by the noun, e.g. kālnains hilly, mountaneous (: kālns hill), miglains foggy (: migla fog), saulains sunny (: saule sun), putekļains dusty (: putekļi dust).

-en-s/-a:
With this suffix adjectives are derived from nouns (of the 4th declension), cf. vārens mighty (: vara power), slavens famous (: slava fame, glory). The -e- of the suffix has an open articulation (cf. rule 1 on p. 31 above).

-gan-s/a:
This is a deadjectival suffix with a modifying meaning, e.g. zilgans bluish (: zils blue).

-ad-s/-a:
This suffix derives adjectives from pronouns and numerals, e.g. savāds strange (: savs my, his, her, its, our, your, their), vienāds identical (: viens one).
-ēj-s/-a:
With this suffix adjectives can be derived from adverbs and nouns with reference (above all) to time and place: tagadējs of today, nowadays (: tagad now), vidējs middle (: vidus (noun) middle).

2. Prefixal Derivatives
Only some few examples should be given: bez-: bezjedzīgs meaningless; ne-: nemorāls immoral; pa-: pabāls somewhat pale; pār-: pārmērīgs too big; pret-: pretfašistisks antifascistic, starp-: starptautisks international.

Note: Latvian may also use international prefixes such as, for example, a- (amorāls) and anti- (antifašistisks).

3. Non-Prefixal Compound Adjectives
As in the case of nouns, compounds are constructed without any connecting vowel between the components. Examples: lietderīgs useful, garlaicīgs tiresome, boring.

Reduplication
Latvian adjectives can be strengthened by reduplication, cf., for example, gargars very long (gargara pasaka a very long fairy-tale), zilzils very blue, dzīļdzīļš very deep.
Chapter 4

THE PRONOUN

(Vietniekvārds)

The pronoun is a heterogeneous word class. The following description will be based on more or less traditional classificatory criteria.

Many pronouns are characterized by a special pronominal inflection, whereas others follow the pattern of adjectives.

In terms of syntax a distinction is often made between adjectival and non-adjectival (substantival) pronouns. Whereas the former are subordinated to a head noun in gender, number and case (attributive function), the latter can be used "independently" like a noun. Certain pronouns can be used in both the adjectival and substantival function.

1. Personal Pronouns
Paradigms:

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In the polite function the forms Jūs, Jūsu etc. are written with a capital letter. The same is often the case with Tu, Tevis etc. in written correspondence.

The reflexive personal pronoun has the following forms:

N  (lacking)
G  sevis
D  sev
A  sevi
L  sevi

The reflexive pronoun does not have a nominative form and is therefore incapable of being part of the subject syntagm. It always refers to the (nominative) subject.

Further, its use is not restricted to the 3rd person alone. It can refer to the 1st and 2nd persons as well, cf. the following example:

es redzu sevi spoguli I am looking at/seeing myself in the mirror.

2. Possessive Pronouns

A. Non-Reflexives

The pronouns of this class might also be labeled personal, along with the preceding ones. It has, however, become customary to group them under a separate heading as possessive pronouns, according to their specialized function. The group encompasses mans/-na my/mine, tavs/-va your(s), savs/-va one’s own (declined as short form adjectives, cf. p. 57-58) and viņa his, viņas her(s), mūsu our(s), jūsu your(s), and viņu their(s), which are all undecorated regardless of the gender, number and case of the word to which they refer.

The latter five are merely the genitive case of the corresponding personal pronouns (see point 1 above). The others (mans, tavs, savs) are declined like the short form of the adjective (type masc. labs, fem. laba).

Examples using possessive pronouns:

mans/mūsu brālis; mani/mūsu brāli; mana/mūsu māsa; manas /mūsu māsas / mana/mūsu grāmata; manas/mūsu grāmatas my / our brother / brothers / sister / sisters / book / books; par tavām grāmatātām about your books; ūši grāmata ir jūsu this book is yours, ūši ir viņas brālis here is her brother.
B. Reflexives

The reflexive possessive refers to the subject of the sentence regardless of the person and number expressed by the subject, i.e. es paņēmu savu grāmatu, tu paņēmi savu grāmatu, viņš/viņa paņēma savu grāmatu, mēs paņēmām savas grāmatas, jūs paņēmāt savas grāmatas, viņi/viņas paņēma savas grāmatas I took my book, you took your book, he took his book, she took her book, we took our books, you took your books, they took their books.

The sav-form, like its non-possessive counterpart - sevis, sevi etc. (p. 66), can never be part of the subject syntagm. Thus, a sentence such as *sava grāmata ir te is impossible. Only when the meaning is that of one's own, is sav-s/-a encountered in the function of a subject, e.g. ka-tram ir sava grāmata each one has his/her/their own book.

3. Reciprocal Pronouns

Latvian has two reciprocal pronouns, viens/viena otr- and cits/cita cit-, both meaning each other, one another. There is, however, a difference in use in that viens/viena otr- is applied with reference to two (or pairs) whereas cits/cita cit- refers to more than two.

The first element (viens/viena; cits/cita) is always in the nominative case and singular in number, whereas the case of the second (otr-, cit-) is determined by its syntactic position¹. Both elements are inflected according to gender.

Examples:

Viņi mil cits citu¹ they love each other (viņi either points to a group of males or a mixed group consisting of males and females – to designate a group of females alone, the form viņas must be used); Aina un Pēteris mil viens otru Aina and Peter love one another; viņi sēdēja viens blakus otram (i.e. viņi sēdēja: viens blakus otram) they were sitting next to each other; Aina un Anda sēdēja viena blakus otrai Aina and Anda were sitting next to one another. If one says mēs patikam viens otram we like each other, mēs (we) can imply more than two, but in that case it seems that one is referring to pairs of two and two.

¹ the construction can probably be understood in the light of historical syntax through a bifurcation into two sentences *Viņi mil and *Viens (nominative subject) (mil) otru They love. One (loves) the other. The two sentences were then combined into one unit: Viņi mil viens otru with deletion (omission) of the second mil.
4. Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns are the following:

šis/šī this
tas/tā that
šāds/šāda such (as this)
tāds/tāda such (as that)

šis/šī and tas/tā have the following inflection:

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šāds/šāda and tāds/tāda are declined in the same way as the short form of the adjective (type labs/labā).

5. The Anaphoric Pronoun of the 3rd Person

This pronoun is identical in form and inflection with the demonstrative pronoun tas/tā in section 4 and corresponds to English “it” (sg.), “they” (pl.). In grammars of Latvian this function is usually not found under a separate heading. The anaphoric pronoun refers to and agrees in gender and number with a noun (common noun or proper name) mentioned in the preceding sentence:

Riga ir Latvijas galvaspilsēta. Tājā ir aprēmām viens miljons iedzīvotāju
Riga is the capital of Latvia. It has (lit. in it (there) is/are) about one million inhabitants.

Govs ir labs dzīvnieks. Tā mums dod pienu
The cow is a good animal. It gives us milk.

As illustrated by the two examples just quoted, the tas/tā pronoun in anaphoric function is used with reference to non-persons (things and animals). If a person is referred to, the personal pronoun (viņš/viņa) is usually applied, e. g.

Pagalmā spēlējās daži bērni. Viņi bija latvieši
In the yard there were some children playing. They were Latvians.
The tas/tā anaphoric pronoun can also refer to animate beings, but primarily in an introductory function:
Istabā ienāca meitene. Tā bija Jāņa māsa
A girl entered the room. It was John’s sister.
If viņa is used instead of tā in the last sentence quoted, the translation would be as follows: She was John’s sister. As is seen from this example the personal pronoun (viņa) also has an anaphoric function.

6. Interrogative and Relative Pronouns

The following pronouns – all of them characterized by an initial k- – can have either an interrogative or a relative function:

kas who, what
kurš/kura who, which
kāds/kāda what (kind of)
The last is more or less restricted to the interrogative function

kas is declined like the masc. sg. of tas (see above). Note, however, that kas is not used in the locative. In that case it is replaced by the local adverb kur? where? or the locative of kurš (i.e. kurā).
kurš/kura and kāds/kāda are inflected in the same way as short form adjectives (type labs/labā).

Interrogative Function
Kas (nom.) tas ir? Who/what is that?
Ko (acc.) tu lasi? What are you reading?
Ar ko (acc.) jūs esat runājis? With whom did you speak?
Kam (dat.) jūs devāt rozes? To whom did you give the roses?

Kurš/kura is often accompanied by the preposition no to designate who in a certain group, e.g.
Kurš no brāliem atnāks? Who of the brothers will come?
Kura no māsām atnāks? Who of the sisters will come?

Kāds/kāda is used attributively (cf. pp. 60 and 201 f.):
Kāds šodien laiks? What kind of weather is there today?
Kādu grāmatu tu lasi? What kind of book do you read?
Notice the locution kas par + accusative: what kind of (German was für ein): kas (tas ir) par dzīvnieku? what kind of animal (is that)?

**Relative Function**

The relative pronoun agrees with its correlate in gender and number, whereas case is determined by its function (subject, object etc.) in the subordinate clause, e. g. te ir grāmata (fem. sg. nom.), kuru/ko (fem. sg. acc. = object) tu man devi here is the book (which) you gave me. Unlike in English (and some other languages, among them the Nordic languages), the relative pronoun can never be omitted in Latvian.

The genitive of kas is used only after prepositions, e. g. to cilvēku, pie kā mēs bijām vakar, sauc Valdmanis the person with whom we were yesterday, is called Valdmanis.

In the non-prepositional function of whose? the genitive of kurš is used, i. e. kura for the masc. sg., kuras for the f. sg. and kuru for the plural (both genders): te ir puika, kura tēvs [...] here is the boy whose father [...], te ir meitene, kuras tēvs [...] here is the girl whose father [...], te ir bērni, kuru tēvs [...] here are the children whose father [...].

Irrespective of the fact that kas is formally singular, it can be used with reference to nouns in plural form as well, e. g.

**studenti, kas (or kuri) piedalijās ekskursijā [...] the students who participated in the excursion [...]**

Kas can be regarded as the main (and unmarked) relative pronoun. It should be replaced by kurš/kura only when the gender and number reference will be unclear.

### 7. Indefinite Pronouns

The most important indefinite pronouns in Latvian are:

- kāds/kāda somebody, anybody; some, any
- kas something, anything

For inflection, see preceding point (6).

- kaut kāds/kāda somebody
- kaut kas something
- kaut kurš/kura some

- jebkāds/jebkāda [je⁴p'kaːd-] anybody
- jebkas [je⁴p'kas] anything
dažs (labs) / daža (labā) some

More rarely used are:
diezin kāds/kāda anybody (lit. god knows who (< dievs zin))
diez(in) kas anything (lit. god knows what)
nez(in) kāds/kāda anybody
nez(in) kas anything

The elements kaut, jeb-, diez(in) and ne(zin) are not inflected. The elements kāds/kāda, kurš/kura and dažs/daža are declined as short form adjectives (type labs/labā). Kas is declined like the masc. sg. of tas (cf. paragraph 5 above).

Examples:
Dzirdu kādu runājam I hear somebody coming
Atnāca kāds cilvēks/kādi cilvēki There came a man/some men
Viņš paņēma kādu grāmatu He took a/some book (or other)
Ja kas, (tad) zvanī If there is something, (then) give me a call
Ja kas kaut notiek If something happens
Iedod man kaut ko padzerties! Give me something to drink!
Iedod man kaut ko dzerāmu! Give me something to drink!
Viņš palika bez jebkādiem lidzekliem He remained without any means (at all)
Viņš palika bez jebkā He remained without anything (at all)
Dažu vakaru tēvs atgriezās vēlu Some (one) evening father came back late
Pagalmā spēlējās daži bērni In the yard there were some children playing
Aizbraukt uz dažām dienām Go away (leave) for some days
Man ir dažas fotogrāfijas I have some photos
Dažs labs to domā Some think that (that way)

These examples illustrate which of the indefinite pronouns can be used independently and/or attributively. They also demonstrate the distribution between animate and inanimate reference.

The pronoun kāds in attributive function (pp. 57 and 60) can have a meaning close to that of an indefinite article in Germanic and Romance languages.

It may often be difficult to choose between kāds and dažs. They are not (always) interchangeable. Thus, it is impossible to replace daži by kādi, dažām by kādam or dažas by kādas in the last examples given above. Kāds seems to have preserved something of the quality-meaning (cf. tāds), whereas dažs is more neutral.
Moreover, the daž-pronoun can have a pejorative or ironic shade of meaning as, for example, in daži no mums vakar nebija skolā some of us were not at school yesterday.

Note: For rendering English ‘not any’, Nordic (Norwegian) ‘ikke noe(n)’ in Latvian a negative pronoun (see next point), not an indefinite one must be used.

8. Negative Pronouns

The negative pronouns in Latvian include the following:

neviens / neviena [neˈvien-] nobody
nekas [neˈkas] nothing

Observe that nekas cannot mean nobody, only nothing!

nekāds / nekāda [neˈkaːd-] no(ne)

neviens / neviena are declined as the masc. and fem. sg. short forms of the adjective (type labs / laba).
nekas is declined as the masc. sg. of tas (cf. paragraph 4 above)
nekāds / nekāda is – beside in gender – also declined in number (both singular and plural forms). Its declension is that of the short form adjectives (labs / laba).

Illustrations of use:

neviens nebija pie mums nobody has been with us
šādu pārtiku nevienā / nekādā veikelā šeit nav such products are not to be found in any shop here
viņš nekad ne par vienu nerunā he never talks about anybody
mums gandrīz nekā nav we have almost nothing

The examples show that 1) negative pronouns require an additional negation with the verb (so-called “double negation”), 2) negation + an indefinite pronoun in English (and the Nordic languages) must be rendered by a negative pronoun + negation in Latvian, 3) neviens can be used both in substantival (i. e. independently without accompanying noun) and adjectival (attributive) function, 4) neviens is split by prepositions (with the group written in three words).

Observe constructions of the type viņam nav ar ko runāt he has nobody to talk with.
9. Other Pronouns

abi/abas both
cits/cita another
otros/otra (the) other
katrs/katra each, every
ikviens [ik’viens] everybody
viss/visa all, (the) whole; everything
viens/viena no one of
pats/pati -self/-selves
tas pats / ta pati the (very) same

These pronouns are declined as short form adjectives with the exception of pats/pati which is declined as follows:

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Illustrations of use:
Pie mājas aug divi ozoli, abi tēva stādīti At the house two oak-trees are growing, both (of them) planted by my father
astrast citus draugus to find other friends
izlasīt grāmatu no viena gala līdz otram to read a book from one end to the other
To var izdarīt ikviens/katrs bērns Every child can do that (even a child can do that)
Ikviens te noder par palīgu Everybody will be able to help visu dienu (acc.) all day long, the whole day
Blaumanis ir viens no svarīgākajiem latviešu rakstniekiem Blaumanis is one of the most important Latvian writers
Viss (for the gender, see p. 40) ir kartibā Everything is okay
Ko dari, to dari pats! What you do, do (it) yourself
Pie paša mājas ir darzinš Close to the house there is a small garden
Es saku to pašu I say the same
Chapter 5

NUMERALS
(Skaitļa vārds)

Numerals are divided into cardinal and ordinal numbers, with fractions as a subgroup of the latter.

The inventory of both cardinal and ordinal numbers in Latvian are presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinal Numbers</th>
<th>Ordinal Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 nulle</td>
<td>nultais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 viens</td>
<td>pirmais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 divi</td>
<td>otrais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 trīs</td>
<td>trešais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 ķettri</td>
<td>ceturtais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 pieci</td>
<td>piektais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 seši</td>
<td>sestais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 septiņi</td>
<td>septītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 astoņi</td>
<td>astotais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 deviņi</td>
<td>devītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 desmit(s)</td>
<td>desmitais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 vienpadsmīt</td>
<td>vienpadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 divpadsmīt</td>
<td>divpadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 trīspadsmīt</td>
<td>trīspadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 ķetripadsmīt</td>
<td>ķetripadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 piecpadsmīt</td>
<td>piecpadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 sešpadsmīt</td>
<td>sešpadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 septiņpadsmīt</td>
<td>septiņpadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 astopadsmīt</td>
<td>astopadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 deviņpadsmīt</td>
<td>deviņpadsmītais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 divdesmit</td>
<td>divdesmitais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 divdesmit viens</td>
<td>divdesmit pirmais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 divdesmit divi</td>
<td>divdesmit otrai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 trīdesmit</td>
<td>trīdesmitais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Latvian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>četrdesmit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>piecdesmit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>sešdesmit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>septiņdesmit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>astoņdesmit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>deviņdesmit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>simt(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>divsimit/divi simt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>trīssimit/trīs simt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>četrsimit/četri simt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>piecsimit/pieci simt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>tūkstoš/tūkstotis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>divtūkstoš/divi tūkstoši</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>piecšītūkstoš/pieci tūkstoši</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>simtšītūkstoš/simt tūkstoši</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>miljons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>divi miljoni</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: In the chart the forms of the (declinable) cardinal numbers are given in the masculine. The ordinal numbers are given in the masc. sg. of the long form.

### 1. Cardinal Numbers

For inventory, see table above.

### A. Declension

The cardinal numbers in Latvian are partly *declinable*, partly *indeclinable*.

The *declinable* are all those with *flectional endings* (e.g. *viens/viena, divi/divas, deviņi/deviņas, simts, divi simti, tūkstotis*) whereas numbers without *flectional endings* (e.g. *desmit, vienpadsmit, divedesmit, simt, divsimit, tūkstoš*) are *indeclinable*.

* a) Declinable:
  
  **Null** is declined as a noun of the fifth declension.

  **Viens** (masc.)/**viena** (fem.) is treated like the singular of short form adjectives (cf. p. 57 f. – type *labs/labā*). Plural forms are also
possible, namely in connection with plural nouns (cf. p. 51 f. above and p. 218 below).

**Divi** (masc.)/divas (fem.) is declined like the plural of short form adjectives (type labi/labas). The same is the case with abī/abas both (which is not really a numeral, cf. p. 73), četri/četras, pieci/piecas, seši/sešas, septiņi/septiņas, astoņi/astoņas, and deviņi/deviņas. The same also holds true for

**Trīs**, but this paradigm shows a couple of alternative contracted forms and should be given separately:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>trīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>triju</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>tri(jie)m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>trīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>trijos/trīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Simts** and **miljons** are declined as nouns of the 1st declension whereas **tūkstotis** follows the pattern of nouns of the 2nd declension. Observe the t : š shift: **tūkstotis**, but gen. **tūkstoša**, dat. **tūkstotim** etc. according to the principle valid for second declensional nouns (p. 44 f.).

b) **Indecinable**

All other cardinal numbers are indeclinable.

**B. Syntax**

Declinable cardinal numbers (with the exception of **simts**, **tūkstotis**, **miljons**) have adjectival syntax, i.e. they agree in gender, number and case with an accompanying quantified noun: **man ir divi lati** / **divas grāmatas** I have two lats / two books, **es iedevu divus latus** / **divas grāmatas savam draugam** I gave two lats / two books to my friend, **viņš ir atbraucis uz Rīgu ar diviem latiem** / **divām grāmatām** he has come to Riga with two lats / two books.

Indecinable cardinal numbers as well as **simts**, **tūkstotis**, and **miljons** have substantival syntax, i.e. they behave like nouns by requiring the genitive (plural) of the accompanying noun, e.g. (**man ir**) desmit/vienpadsmit/divdesmit/simts/tūkstotis/miljons latu/grāmatu (I have) ten/eleven/twenty/hundred/thousand/one million lats/books.
NUMERALS

(like **celasoma latu/grāmatu** a suitcase of lats/books, cf. the partitive adnominal genitive, p. 169 below).

The claim that indeclinable numerals require a following genitive needs an important modification since

1) this rule is restricted to cases where the numeral – or to be more precise, the numeral + noun group – occupies a nominative or accusative position, i. e. as subject or object to a transitive verb (i. e. an accusative-governing verb) or in the function of an adverbial of time; in other oblique cases the following noun must be in the genitive, dative or locative, depending on the syntactic environment;

2) in nominative (and partly accusative) position the noun can also be in the nominative (or accusative with accusative representation).

Illustrations:

**subject function:**

ratāca desmit zēnu/meiteņu or zēni/
meitenes
ten boys / girls came

*Note:* the nominative construction is mandatory when a declinable attribute precedes the group, e. g. *visi desmit zēni/meitenes ratāca all ten boys/girls came.*

**object function:**

after transitive
everbs:

mēs sastapām desmit zēnu/meiteņu or
zēnus/meitenes
we met ten boys/girls

When preceded by a declinable attribute, the group must be in the accusative case: *mēs sastapām visus desmit zēnus / visas desmit mei-
tenes we met all ten boys / girls.*

**adverbial of
time:**

preferably
accusative

viņi bija / pavadija desmit dienas Rīgā
they were / spent ten days in Riga

**genitive function:**

desmit valstu okupācija
occupation of ten states
dative function:

viņš palīdzēja desmit zēniem / meitenēm
he helped ten boys/girls

locative function:

viņš atrada viņas fotogrāfiju desmit
grāmatās
he found her photograph in ten books

Note: The numerals 10-20 are declined only in connection with the hours of the day (the clock), e.g. viņa atnāca desmitos / ap desmitiem she came at ten / around ten (o’clock), cf. the question cikos viņa atnāca? at what time did she come? Thus, constructions of the type *ar desmitiem zēniem with ten boys, *desmitos dārzos in ten gardens are impossible. For further expressions of hours of the day (the clock), see chapter 10.

In cases with quantifiers like daudz much, maz little, vairāk more and similar (cf. p. 170) a grammatical conflict may arise. The following guidelines should be given: the genitive governing power is lost in the plural after prepositions, cf. ar daudz grāmatām with many books (alternative construction: ar daudzām grāmatām). In the singular one will find ar daudz naudas with much money, but ar daudz naudu can also be heard.

In compound numbers only the last unit is declined with respect to case: šī grupa sastāv no deviņi simti (or deviņsimt) piecdesmit sešiem cīlvekiem/no deviņsimt piecdesmit viena cīlveka this group consists of nine hundred and fifty-six/of nine hundred and fifty one people (persons).

Finally, mention should be made of the use of nominative forms in object position, cf., for example nopirkt divi kilogrami mitlu buy two kilogrammes of flour. Constructions of this type are somewhat archaic. The norm of contemporary Standard Latvian would prescribe: divus kilogramus. In a historical perspective the nominative in question is likely to reflect a (reinterpreted) dual form.

2. Ordinal Numbers

A. Declension

The ordinal numbers in Latvian are all declinable. They are inflected as long form (definite) adjectives, i.e. according to number, gender and case.
In a compound ordinal number only the last number is ordinal and is declined. The preceding numbers have the appearance of undeclined cardinal numbers, e. g. tūkstoš deviņsimt deviņdesmit piektais (gads) / tūkstoš deviņsimt deviņdesmit piektā (gada), lit. (the) one thousand nine hundred and ninety fifth (year).

B. Syntax

Ordinal numbers have adjectival syntax, i. e. they agree with the head noun in gender, number and case, e. g.

viņa jau desmitā klasē she is already in the tenth form

*Years and dates* are expressed by ordinal numbers.

To answer the question *when?* the *locative* case is used for the year: viņš ir dzimis tūkstoš deviņsimt deviņdesmit sestajā gada ķerēv 1996.

The *locative* is also used for answering the *when*-question for *dates*, e. g. viņš atbrauca piecpadsmitajā augustā ķerēv on August 15.

In the case of a *month-year combination* with a *when*-question, the *date* appears in the *locative* case whereas the year has the form of a preposited adnominal genitive (cf. p. 158 below): viņš ir dzimis tūkstoš deviņsimt deviņdesmit sestā gada piecpadsmitajā augustā ķerēv on August 15, 1996.

For translating a sentence like ‘today is August 15, 1996’ the *nominative*, not the locative, of the date expression must be used (because syntactically it occupies the function of a grammatical subject): šodien ir tūkstoš deviņsimt deviņdesmit sestā gada piecpadsmitais augusts.

In written exposition numerals are, of course, usually encountered instead of written-out number words.

3. Fractions

A. Non-decimal Fractions

Fractions in Latvian are formed with the *numerator* expressed by a cardinal number in the feminine gender and the *denominator* by an ordinal number also in the feminine gender (to agree with the noun daļa part), e. g. divas trešdaļas (or divas trešās daļas) two third(s).

The noun of which something is a fraction, is in the *genitive* (singular) irrespective of the case in which the fraction occurs, e. g. ar divām trešdaļām akcijas with two thirds of a share.
Certain fractions (esp. 1 1/2, 2 1/2) are frequently expressed through the combination of the noun *pus-* half + (the genitive) of the accented ordinal number *-otr*-, e.g. (*šeit ir / viņš izdzēra*) *pusotra* (litra (alus)) (here is / he drank) *one and a half* (liters (of beer)) for the masc., (*šeit ir / viņš izdzēra*) *pusotras* (pudeles) *one and a half* (bottles) for the fem. gender.

If the group represents another case than the nominative or the accusative syntactically, the element *-otr-* appears in the appropriate case, e.g. *ar pusotrām pudelem* (dat. pl.) alus (gen. sg.) *with one and a half bottles of beer*. The inflection is that of an adjective (type labs/labā).

**B. Decimal Fractions**

There is, of course, also another way of handling fractions, namely as decimal units, e.g. 15.03, which is read *piecpadsmit komats* (comma) *nulle tris*. 
Chapter 6

THE VERB
(Darbības vārds)

Grammatical Categories

The grammatical categories of the Latvian verb are as follows:

1) *number*, i.e. singular and plural.

2) *person*. Latvian distinguishes between three persons: the 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

   Note: a peculiarity of Latvian (as well as Lithuanian) is the lack of formal distinction between the 3rd p. sg. and pl.

3) *gender* which is marginal since it is relevant only for participle forms. Two genders are distinguished: *masculine* and *feminine*.

4) *tense*. The Latvian indicative has six tenses: three simple, the *present*, *past* and *future*; and three compound, the *present perfect*, *past perfect* and the *future perfect*.

5) *mood*. Beside the unmarked *indicative*, Latvian distinguishes the marked *imperative*, the *subjunctive*, the *relative* and the *debitive*.

6) *voice*: *active* and *passive*.

A seventh possible category in Latvian is that of *aspect*. Latvian has some evidence for establishing such a category (with an opposition between *perfective* and *imperfective* verb pairs). This question will be discussed below (p. 115 ff.).

Numbers 4-6 (7) are specific verbal categories whereas 1-3 were also encountered with nominal word classes.
Finite and Non-Finite Forms

The following forms — all present in Latvian — are labeled non-finite: infinitive, participles and gerunds, as well as the verbal noun. All other forms — including compound forms with participial constituents — are referred to as finite.

Verb Stems

To be able to form the inventory of the Latvian verb one must know:

1) the infinitive stem, 2) the present stem and 3) the past (preterite) stem.

On the basis of 1) the infinitive stem (which is found by dropping the -t/-ties of the infinitive) the following forms of the paradigm (in addition to the infinitive itself) are constructed:

- the simple future
- the (present) subjunctive
- the dam-gerund
- the past participle passive (t-participle)

From 2) the present stem (which is obtained through deletion of the stem suffix of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd conjugation respectively, see below) are formed:

- the simple present
- the imperative
- the debitive
- the present gerund in -Vm
- the present gerund (ot-gerund)
- the present participle active (oš-participle)
- the present participle passive (m-participle)

From 3) the preterite stem (which is obtained from the 3 p. preterite by dropping the -a) the following forms are constructed:

- the simple past
- the past gerund (-is/-usi-gerund)
- the past participle active (-is/-usi-participle)
It could be possible to work with two stems only, namely the present and infinitive, since the preterite stem is often identical with the infinitive stem or can be derived from it by relatively simple morphophonemic rules (i.e., such strategies as vowel lengthening and/or consonant change). Still, our experience has shown that most students seem to prefer a system with three stems.

The intervocalic -j causes a problem for the analysis of stems. Thus, one may, for example, speak of a present/preterite stem jāj- in opposition to the infinitive stem jā-ride, but it is equally possible to regard this j as an automatic glide for the purpose of avoiding “hiatus” (i.e., collision of two vowels not constituting a diphthong). A third possibility is to count it as part of the ending, e.g., jā-jōj/V, but this alternative should be rejected for structural reasons since there seems to be no clear evidence of jā-preterites.

**Morphophonemic Rules**

These rules are given in chapter 1 on phonology and will be referred to when necessary in the presentation below.

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**THE FINITE VERB**

**Introduction**

For generalities, see p. 81 f. above.

Our disposition will be as follows:

After the presentation of the conjugational types, the formation of the simple tenses are given with focus on the simple present and past tenses, which for practical and pedagogical purposes will be presented side by side. Then follows a description of the formation of the simple future.

The next step is the description of the formation of the compound tenses whereupon the categories aspect and tense (with emphasis on the use of the tenses), further the marked moods (i.e., the formation and use of moods other than the indicative). Finally, the formation and use of the category of voice are presented.

**Principal Forms**

The principal forms of the Latvian verb are the following:

- the infinitive
- the (3rd p.) simple present
- the (3rd p.) simple past
Conjugational Types

The Latvian verb is customarily divided into three conjugations, referred to as the ISt, IIInd and IIIrd respectively. The ISt conjugation may also be labeled the short conjugation, since the verbs of this conjugation are characterized through a monosyllabic stem in all principal forms, i.e. the infinitive, the present tense and the past tense, e.g. nāk-, nāk-, nāc- come.

The IIInd conjugation is recognized through the feature ‘more than one syllable’ in all principal forms: runā-t, runā-j-, runā- speak, whence this conjugation is also properly called the long conjugation.

The IIIrd (with two subdivisions, A and B respectively, cf. p. 105) conjugation constitutes a kind of compromise between the short and the long conjugations, and is consequently labeled the mixed conjugation, since it has the characteristics of the short in the present tense, but the long in the past tense and the infinitive, e.g. las- (pres.) vs. lasī-j-/lasī-t read.

Conjugations II and (partly) III are the only productive classes, in contrast to I, which (irrespective of the large number of verbs belonging to this conjugation) has ceased to be productive.

This approach to the Latvian conjugations as the short, long and mixed is optimal from a pedagogical point of view, since the system is logical and easy to remember for the student.

Predicatibility of Conjugational Type on the Basis of the Infinitive

As stated above all monosyllabics belong to the short conjugation. For examples, see above. Of the remaining verbs those ending in -ot belong (without exception) to the IIInd (= long) conjugation, e.g. inf. dzīvo-t, 3 p. pres. dzīvo, 3 p. pret. dzīvo-j-a. To this conjugation further belong the absolute majority of the verbs ending in -āt, e.g. runāt speak, cf. above. Observe, however, that all verbs ending in -ināt are IIIrd conjugational (= mixed), e.g. audzināt, pres. audzin-, pret. audzinā- bring up, educate. The same holds true for the following three -āt-verbs: dziedāt sing, raudāt cry, weep and zināt know. The verb sargāt guard vacillates between the mixed and the long conjugation, but now tends to follow the latter.

To the IIIrd (mixed) conjugation further belong most of the verbs ending in -īt, cf. lasīt read. There are some exceptions, as in the denominative cienīt respect, esteem (: cieņa respect, esteem), which follow the IIInd conjugation.

Many verbs ending in -ēt belong to the IIIrd conjugation, e.g. gribēt wish, but there are also numerous -ēt verbs which are inflected according to the IIInd conjugation, e.g. zimēt draw (: zime sign).
THE FORMATION OF THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE ACTIVE

Formation of the Simple Tenses
(Darbības vārda vienkaršo formu darišana)

Formation of the Present and the Preterite
As pointed out above, it appears practical to deal with these two formations jointly, in order to emphasize the contrast between them.

Desinences
Two sets of endings are encountered:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subset a)</th>
<th>Subset b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. -u</td>
<td>-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. -Ø/-i</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. -Ø</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. -am</td>
<td>-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. -at</td>
<td>-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. -Ø</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The functional distribution between the two subsets is as follows:
Subset b) is used in all preterite formations, as well as in the present tense of conjugation III B, whereas subset a) is encountered in the remaining cases. As is seen from the table, subset a) is split between zero ending and -i in the 2nd p. sg. For distributional rules on this point, see under the different types in the presentation below.

The zero endings in the 3 p. and the 2 p. sg. of subset a) are due to the loss of short -a and -i respectively, according to the rules given in the chapter on phonology p. 35 f.

The corresponding reflexive endings are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subset a)</th>
<th>Subset b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. -os</td>
<td>-os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. -ies</td>
<td>-ies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. -as</td>
<td>-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. -amies</td>
<td>-āmies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. -aties</td>
<td>-āties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. -as</td>
<td>-ās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note that in the reflexive subset a) has only one possible ending in the 2nd p. sg.

The endings of the reflexive can be derived from the non-reflexive through a set of lengthening rules (similar to those by which long adjectival forms are derived from short forms, cf. p. 59), viz. $u > uo$, $-i/\emptyset$, 2nd p.) $> ie$, $a/\emptyset$, 3rd p. sg.) $> \bar{a}$.

The present tense can be characterized by specific present tense markers such as the $j$-suffix, the $n$-suffix or infix and the $st$-suffix. Such markers are found in certain verbs of the 1st conjugation. Thus, the $j$-formative is encountered in subclasses 3 and 4. The $-n$-infix is reflected in subclass 2, subgroups A b and C whereas the $-n$ suffix is present in subclass 5 (with subgroups). Subclass 6 (with subgroups) is reserved for the $st$-marker. Due to diachronic changes the $j$ has merged with consonants other than labials. Also, the $n$-infix has become “disguised” through history as a result of the loss of the sound $n$ in the position between a vowel and consonant (cf. p. 32). However, the $-n$- has left a trace in the compensatory lengthening of the subsequent vowel (p. 32).

East Baltic, i.e. Latvian and Lithuanian, has known two different preterite formations, referred to as the $\bar{a}$- and $\tilde{e}$-preterite respectively. Both have survived in Lithuanian whereas in Latvian the two types have merged into one, the $-\bar{a}$-preterite (cf. the endings of the 1st and 2nd p. plural of the preterite, i.e. $-\bar{am}$, $-\bar{at}$, as well as the 3 p. $-a (< \ast-\bar{a})$. However, the the $\tilde{e}$-preterite has left certain traces in the timbre of the root vowel and the palatalization of $k > c$, $g > dz$ in certain verbs of the 1st conjugation. Such cases are referred to below.

THE FIRST (SHORT) CONJUGATION

Of the three conjugations this is the only really problematic one, since it can involve such strategies as vocalic alternations (ablaut) and consonantal shifts, which in certain cases (see below) imply redundant differentiation of the forms of the present and the past tenses in addition to that offered by the desinences, cf. the set of endings for these two tenses presented above (p. 85).

When the present tense shows a (historically) palatalized consonant (cf. p. 25), it is always due to a former $j$-cluster (cf. chapter 1: Phonology, p. 25), whereby non-labials have merged with the $j$ to form a single palatalized consonant. After labials the $j$ is preserved. In past tense forms the corresponding non-palatalized consonant is encountered. Examples are given below.

The only palatalized consonants possible in the past tense are $c$ and $dz$, which signalize that the corresponding consonants of the present tense and the infinitive are $-k$ or $-g$. For examples, see below.
In the presentation of the 1st conjugation one has to work with a number of subclasses. We have chosen a system of 6 subclasses (1-6) with subgroups under some of them.

In order to facilitate the reading a chart should be given before the more detailed analysis is presented:

Subclass 1: Unchanged Stem in all Principal Forms
   Subgroup A: Stems ending in Postvocalic -j
   Subgroup B: Stems ending in a Dental or Velar Stop
   Subgroup C: Stems ending in -cl/-dz, infinitives in -kt/-gt
   Subgroup D: Stems ending in -in
   Subgroup E: Stems with -e/-ē-

Subclass 2: Different Stems in the Present and Past Tenses
   Subgroup A: Vowels -e-, -ie- or -o- in the Present Tense vs. -i- or -a- in the Past Tense
   Subgroup B: Short Vowel in the Present Tense vs. Corresponding Long in the Past Tense
   Subgroup C: Long Vowel (-i- or -ū-) in the Present Tense vs. Short (-i- or -u-) in the Past Tense
   Subgroup D: Same Vowel, but Different Stem Final
   Consonant in the Present and Past Tenses

Subclass 3: Contrastive Palatalized Consonant in the Present Tense, Contrastive Long Vowel in the Past Tense

Subclass 4: Suffix -j in the Present Tense
   Subgroup A: Postconsonantal -j
   Subgroup B: Postvocalic -j

Subclass 5: Suffix -n in the Present Tense
   Subgroup A: The Verb aut
   Subgroup B: Verbs in -iet

Subclass 6: Verbs with -st-Suffix in the Present Tense
   Subgroup A: Verbs with unchanged Stem
   Subgroup B: Verbs with Preterites in -j
   Subgroup C: Verbs with Preterites in -v
   Subgroup D: Verbs with Preterites in -n
   Subgroup E: Verbs with -s in all Principal Forms
   Subgroup F: Verbs with -z- in the past Tense and the Infinitive
Subgroup G: Verbs with -st in the Present Tense and the Infinitive vs. Dental (-t/-d) in the Past Tense

The Irregular Verbs bűt, dot and iet

Note: The student should carefully observe which subclasses have preserved the -i in the 2nd p. of the present tense and which have not. The ending of the 3rd p. is always zero in the 1st conjugation.

Subclass 1: Unchanged Stem in all Principal Forms
The following subgroups should be distinguished:

Subgroup A: Stems ending in Postvocalic -j
The -j appears here automatically in order to prevent vowel cumulation ("hiatus").

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jät to ride</td>
<td>1 p. jā-j-u</td>
<td>jāj-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. jā-j-Ø</td>
<td>jā-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. jā-j-Ø</td>
<td>jā-j-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. jā-j-am</td>
<td>jā-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. ja-j-at</td>
<td>jā-j-at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. jā-j-Ø</td>
<td>jā-j-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples:
klät spread, set (table), cover, at-klät discover, krät collect, mät wave, rät scold, at-stät leave; dët (dë-j-Ø, dë-j-a) lay (eggs), spēt (spē-j-Ø, spēj-a) manage, be able.

Here we can also put the type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mīt to change</td>
<td>1 p. mīj-u</td>
<td>mīj-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. mīj-Ø</td>
<td>mīj-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. mīj-Ø</td>
<td>mīj-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. mīj-am</td>
<td>mīj-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. mīj-at</td>
<td>mīj-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. mīj-Ø</td>
<td>mīj-āt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

where the -i- of the infinitive is segmented into -ij- in both the present and past tenses (without any lengthening involved).
A parallel example is vīt wind.
For verbs in -iit with -in- in the present and past tenses, see 1 D below and for those with st-presents p. 101 ff.

**Subgroup B: Stems ending in a Dental or Velar Stop**

Examples of paradigms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dental stems:</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>sist</em> to beat</td>
<td>1 p. <em>sit-u</em></td>
<td>1 p. <em>sit-am</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. <em>sit-Ø</em></td>
<td>2 p. <em>sit-at</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. <em>sit-Ø</em></td>
<td>3 p. <em>sit-Ø</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Velar stems:</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sākt to begin</td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>1 p. <em>sāk-u</em></td>
<td>1 p. <em>sāk-am</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. <em>sāc-Ø</em></td>
<td>2 p. <em>sāk-at</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. <em>sāk-Ø</em></td>
<td>3 p. <em>sāk-Ø</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observe the homonymy of forms in the 1 p. sg. present and preterite. The forms of the 1st and 2nd person plural differentiate the present tense from the past through desinences only. Note the zero endings of the forms of the 2nd person sg. and 3rd person present. The palatalized *c* in the second person present appears as the automatic result of the palatalization of "k > c" before the underlying (formerly present) -i- ending of this form. The infinitive *sist* has -st < *-t-t* according to p. 27.

Examples of the same type as *sist* (only with an unchanged consonant) are *rist* (ris-u, preterite ris-u) to bind and *virt* (vir-u, vir-u) to boil. Inflected in the same way as *sākt* are (among others) *augt* grow.
**Subgroup C: Stems ending in -c/-dz, Infinitives in -kt \/-gt**

This class has a stem with one of the consonants -c/-dz in both the present and past tenses in opposition to the infinitive which is in -k-t \/-g-t.

Example of paradigm:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>braukt to travel</td>
<td>1 p. brauc-u</td>
<td>brauc-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. brauc-Ø</td>
<td>brauc-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. brauc-Ø</td>
<td>brauc-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. brauc-am</td>
<td>brauc-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. brauc-at</td>
<td>brauc-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. brauc-Ø</td>
<td>brauc-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here belong a good number of verbs, cf., for example, plūkt pick, pluck, teikt tell, say, veikt carry out, beigt (beidzu, beidz; beidzu, beidzi) finish, complete, slēgt (slēdzu, slēdz; slēdzu, slēdzi) close, lock, sniegūt (sniedzu, sniedzi; sniedzu, sniedzi) achieve, obtain, and others.

The change to c/dz in the present tense is motivated by a former j-cluster (*kj/gj*), the so-called j-present (on which see below). The appearance of c/dz in the forms of the preterite is due to an underlying ē-preterite, cf. pp. 31 and 91 below.

Example of a reflexive paradigm:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>beigties to end</td>
<td>beidz-a-s</td>
<td>beidz-ā-s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subgroup D: Stems ending in -in**

Pattern:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīt to tread</td>
<td>1 p. min-u</td>
<td>min-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. min-Ø</td>
<td>min-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. min-Ø</td>
<td>min-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. min-am</td>
<td>min-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. min-at</td>
<td>min-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. min-Ø</td>
<td>min-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In these verbs the infinitive ends in -į-t (and not *-in-t), in accordance with the automatic rule of compensatory loss of preconsonantal *n described in the chapter on phonology (p. 32).

Other examples are pīt plait, fit wind, wrap and trīt sharpen, grind. One might also expect to find verbs in *-un (*-ūt) following the same pattern, but the author has not been able to trace any example.

**Subgroup E: Stems with -e-/ē-**

This type is constituted by verbs with a vowel that is graphemically the same, but phonemically different in the present vs. the past tense, i.e. an open e/ē in the present tense is contrasted with a narrow e/ē in the past tense (and the infinitive).

Example of a paradigm:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 p. nes-u</td>
<td>nes-i</td>
<td>nes-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. nes-Ø</td>
<td>nes-Ø</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. nes-Ø</td>
<td>nes-Ø</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. nes-ám</td>
<td>nes-ám</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. nes-át</td>
<td>nes-át</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. nes-Ø</td>
<td>nes-Ø</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same occurs, for example, in vest (ved, vedā) lead, ēst (ēd, ēda) eat, degt (deg, dega) burn, bègt (bēg, bèga) run away, flee.

All forms of the present tense (except the second person singular, which has an underlying -i) are spoken with an open e. In the past tense a narrow e is pronounced in all instances – even in the 2nd p. sg. irrespective of the -i (which does not reflect *-i, but a diphthong). This distribution has become a rule in verbs of this type (structure CVC where the -C is represented by a stop or a sibilant). Note, however, that not every verb of this structure automatically follows the pattern of subclass 1E. Thus, for example, sēstīes sit down is inflected according to 2 D c.

For general rules for the distribution of open vs. narrow e/ē in the chapter on phonology p. 30 f. Note the homonymy between the 1 p. sg. present and past tenses.

The student would expect the endings of the preterite to trigger the pronunciation of an open e/ē in the root. The reason for the unexpected narrow e/ē-sounds seems to be a former ē-preterite, cf. p. 31 which has been substituted by ā-preterite forms, i.e. *nes-ē-m -> nes-ā-m. The ā-preterite has been generalized in Standard Latvian, but the ē-preterite has left a trace in the timbre of the root vowel. Indirect reflexes of a former ē-preterite are also observed in verbs of the type nākt, nāk, nāca, see below.
Subclass 2: Different Stems in the Present and Past Tenses

Subgroup A: Vowels -e-, -ie- or -o- in the Stem of the Present Tense vs. -i- or -a- in the Past Tense and the Infinitive

a) The Pattern -e- : -i-:

A good number of verbs with the structure CVR, where R is a resonant (l, m or r), show an alternation -i- in the infinitive and the past tense as opposed to (an open) -e- in the present tense. In the 2 p. sg. of the present tense the e has a narrow pronunciation (due to an underlying syncopized -i).

Illustration:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vilkt to pull</td>
<td>1 p. velk-u</td>
<td>vilk-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. velc-Ø</td>
<td>vilk-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. velk-Ø</td>
<td>vilk-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. velk-am</td>
<td>vilk-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples: krimst (kremt, krimta) gnaw. The -st of the infinitive has arisen from *t-t*, cf. the presence of the dental in the present and past tenses.

Verbs in which R = r follow the same pattern except that the e of the present is lengthened to ē (in tautosyllabic position):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pirkt to buy</td>
<td>1 p. pērk-u</td>
<td>pirk-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. pērc-Ø</td>
<td>pirk-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. pērk-Ø</td>
<td>pirk-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. pērk-am</td>
<td>pirk-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples:
cirpt (cērp, cirpa) shear, cirst (cērt, cirta) chop. For the -st of the infinitive, see comment to krimst above.

Basically the same pattern as in pirkt is observed in a case such as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likt to put</td>
<td>1 p. liek-u</td>
<td>lik-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. liec-Ø</td>
<td>lik-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. liek-Ø</td>
<td>lik-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PL

1 p. liek-am lik-äm etc.

It should be noted that there are no examples of an ablaut i : ei : i. Only the pattern i : ie : i is encountered. For the pronunciation of -ie-, see chapter on phonology (p. 33).

Due to the loss of a preconsonantal n (cf. p. 32 above) and subsequent compensatory lengthening of *enC > ieC, a verb like tikt get has merged with the likt-type: tikt (tieku, tiec, tiek; tiku, tiki, tika). The *n infix was a former present marker on a par with such present tense markers as the -j and -st suffixes (see below).

b) The Pattern -o- : -a-:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tapt to become</td>
<td>1 p. top-u</td>
<td>tap-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. top-i</td>
<td>tap-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. top-Ø</td>
<td>tap-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PL

1 p. top-am tap-äm etc.

This a : o : a alternation is not an inherited ablaut, but represents a secondary one according to the formula *-a-n-C with loss of a present tense n-marker with compensatory “lengthening” to o (p. 32).

Some analogous verbs: plakt (plok, plaka) decrease, rakt (rok, raka) dig, smakt (smok, smaka) choke, sastapt (sastop, sastapa) meet, zagt (zog, zaga) steal.

Observe that in verbs of the a : o : a-type the second person singular present is in -i, except in the verbs with infinitives in -kt/gt where k/g yield c/dz in the position before -i, which then undergoes a syncope. Thus, we have top-i, but roc-Ø, zodz-Ø.

**Subgroup B: Short Vowel (-a- or -e-) in the Present Tense vs. Corresponding Long in the Past Tense**

A frequent case is the alternation short vowel (-a- or -e-) in the infinitive and the present tense, vs. long vowel (-ä- or -ë-) in the preterite.

Illustrations:
a) of a : ä:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>skart to touch</td>
<td>1 p. skar-u</td>
<td>skär-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. skar-Ø</td>
<td>skär-i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE VERB: THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE ACTIVE

3 p. skar-Ø    skār-a

PL
1 p. skar-am    skār-ām etc.

b) of ē : ē:

\begin{tabular}{llll}
& Infinitive & Present tense & Past tense \\
\hline
SG & \textit{ṇemt} to take & 1 p. \textit{ṇem-u} & \textit{ṇēm-u} \\
& & 2 p. \textit{ṇem-Ø} & \textit{ṇēm-i} \\
& & 3 p. \textit{ṇem-Ø} & \textit{ṇēm-a} \\
PL & 1 p. \textit{ṇem-am} & \textit{ṇēm-ām} etc. \\
\end{tabular}

Here we have the same contrast open ē in all praesentic forms (but for the 2 p. sg. with an underlying \textit{-i}) vs. closed ē in all forms of the preterite which was encountered in the \textit{nest}-type mentioned above.

c) The \textit{dzert}-type should be especially mentioned here.
The paradigm is as follows:

\begin{tabular}{llll}
& Infinitive & Present tense & Past tense \\
\hline
SG & \textit{dzert} to drink & 1 p. \textit{dzer-u} & \textit{dzēr-u} \\
& & 1 p. \textit{dzer-Ø} & \textit{dzēr-i} \\
& & 2 p. \textit{dzer-Ø} & \textit{dzēr-a} \\
PL & 1 p. \textit{dzer-am} & \textit{dzēr-ām} etc. \\
\end{tabular}

One would expect the same contrast of open vs. closed \textit{elē} as in \textit{ṇemt}. However, this is not the case: the closed pronunciation is met with in all forms not only of the preterite, but also in the present tense. The reason for this is that the \textit{r} was originally palatalized (= \textit{r} \textless \textit{*rj}), cf. phonology p. 24 and p. 25. This pattern is followed in all verbs of the structure \textit{-ert}, e. g. \textit{kert} catch, seize, \textit{spert} kick, \textit{tvert} grasp, seize.

d) Verbs in \textit{-iet}.
The verbs in \textit{-iet} (cf. also below) form the present tense in \textit{-ej-}, whereas the preterite is characterized through lengthening: \textit{-ēj-}.

\begin{tabular}{llll}
& Infinitive & Present tense & Past tense \\
\hline
SG & \textit{smiet} to laugh & 1 p. \textit{smej-u} & \textit{smēj-u} \\
& & 2 p. \textit{smej-Ø} & \textit{smēj-i} \\
& & 3 p. \textit{smej-Ø} & \textit{smēj-a} \\
\end{tabular}
PL
1 p. smej-am smēj-ām etc.

Other examples: liet, lej, lēja pour, riet, rej, rēja bark.
In this type (as in the following), -ie- appears in preconsonantal
position, -ej/ēj- in prevocalic.

e) The verb lēkt to jump is inflected as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lēkt</td>
<td>1 p. lec-u</td>
<td>lēc-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. lec-Ø</td>
<td>lēc-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. lec-Ø</td>
<td>lēc-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. lec-am</td>
<td>lēc-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that a narrow e/ē is spoken in all forms of the preterite as
well as in the second p. sg. present. The c in the preterite forms has the
same explanation as with nāca whereas the c in the present tense is due
to a former *kj-cluster.

Subgroup C: Long Vowel (-ī- or -ū-) in the Present
Tense vs. Short Vowel (-i- or -u-) in the Past Tense
As pointed out (p. 32 the long vowel in the present tense is due to
the loss of an n in the position between a vowel and a consonant:

a) Alternation -ī- : -i-:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krist(^1)to fall</td>
<td>1 p. krīt-u</td>
<td>krit-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. krīt-Ø</td>
<td>krit-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. krīt-Ø</td>
<td>krit-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. krīt-am</td>
<td>krit-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\)krist reflects earlier *krit-t- (according to p. 27)

Other examples:
pa-tikt (pa-tik-Ø, pa-tik-a) like.

b) Alternation -ū- : -u-:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zust to disappear</td>
<td>1 p. zūd-u</td>
<td>zud-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. zūd-i</td>
<td>zud-i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 p. zūd-Ø zud-a

PL
1 p. zūd-am zud-ām etc.

Other examples:
just (jūt-Ø, jut-a) to feel.

Subgroup D: Same Vowel, but Different Stem Final Consonant in the Present and Past Tenses
a) the verb nākt to come.
This verb is unique in that a velar stop in the present tense and the infinitive, alternates with -c in the preterite (as well as in the 2nd p. sg. pres.).

The nākt-paradigm has the following appearance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nākt to come</td>
<td>1 p. nāk-u</td>
<td>nāc-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. nāc-Ø</td>
<td>nāc-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. nāk-Ø</td>
<td>nāc-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. nāk-am</td>
<td>nāc-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. nāk-at</td>
<td>nāc-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. nāk-Ø</td>
<td>nāc-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As in a previous section (1 E), an indirect reflex of a former ē-preterite is observed. The presence of the (historically) palatalized c in the forms of the past tense is motivated through a shift from k > c before a front vowel, viz. *ē. It seems legitimate to reconstruct a development of the type *nāk-ē-m → *nāc-ē-m → nāc-ām.

b) -š/-ž- in the Present Tense, -s/-z- in the Past Tense and the Infinitive

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plēst to tear</td>
<td>1 p. pleš-u</td>
<td>plēs-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. ples-Ø</td>
<td>plēs-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. pleš-Ø</td>
<td>plēs-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. pleš-am</td>
<td>plēš-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here again a narrow ei/ē is spoken in all forms of the paradigm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>griezt to turn</td>
<td>1 p. griež-u</td>
<td>griez-u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c) -ž-/ź- in the Present Tense, -t/-d- in the Past Tense and -s- in the Infinitive

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ciest₁ to suffer</td>
<td>1 p. cieš-u</td>
<td>ciet-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. ciet-Ø</td>
<td>ciet-i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. cieš-Ø</td>
<td>ciet-a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. cieš-am</td>
<td>ciet-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹with -st from *-tt (cf. p. 25)

A parallel example is pūst (pūš, pūta) blow.

The treatment of the voiced dental + j is illustrated in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kost₁ to bite</td>
<td>1 p. kož-u</td>
<td>kod-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. kod-Ø</td>
<td>kod-i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. kož-Ø</td>
<td>kod-a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. kož-am</td>
<td>kod-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹kost has to be reconstructed as *kandti (cf. p. 27 and 32)

An analogous example is represented by laist (laiž, laida) let.

A reflexive paradigm is reflected in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sēsties to sit down</td>
<td>1 p. sēž-os</td>
<td>sēd-os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. sēd-ies</td>
<td>sēd-ies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. sēž-as</td>
<td>sēd-ās</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PL

1 p. sēž-amies sēd-āmies etc.

The -š- and -ž- of the present tense in types b) and c) originate from clusters *s+j, t + j, z + j and d + j (cf. p. 25). Note that the -s- is retained in the 2nd p. pres. (due to the underlying ending -i whereby no j is involved).

Subclass 3: Contrastive Palatalized Consonant in the Present Tense, Contrastive Long Vowel in the Past Tense

This is a complex type in that both the present tense and the past tense have contrastive markers, the former in the form of a palatalized consonant (vs. unpalatalized in the past tense) while the latter has a distinctive long vowel.

Paradigm pattern:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>celt to lift, build</td>
<td>1 p. cēl-u</td>
<td>cēl-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. cēl-Ø</td>
<td>cēl-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. cēl-Ø</td>
<td>cēl-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. cēl-am</td>
<td>cēl-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Treated in the same manner as celt are dzelt sting, bite, škelt split, (no)pelt criticize, smelt scoop, -zvelt hit,velt roll, zelt become green.

The /l/ is due to a former cluster *l + j which resulted in a palatalized single phoneme /l/. The situation was the same with verbs with stem final r (type kart, dzert above), but the r was subsequently hardened (cf. p. 24 and 25). For *n + j > n no relevant cases have been found.

The remaining three subclasses are characterized by a suffix, -j, n- and -st respectively, in the present tense.

Subclass 4: Suffix -j in the Present Tense

Subgroup A: Postconsonantal -j

Unlike other consonants, clusters of labials + j did not merge into a single palatalized phoneme, but were kept intact, such that one can speak of a j-suffix on a synchronic level.

For the verbs in 1 C, 2 B c) and e), 2 D b) and c) and in 3 we have a (postconsonantal) j-suffix in a diachronic perspective.
The Verb: The Tenses of the Indicative Active

a) \(-p/-b+j:\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glåbt to save</td>
<td>1 p. glåb-j-u</td>
<td>glåb-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. glåb-j-Ø</td>
<td>glåb-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. glåb-j-Ø</td>
<td>glåb-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. glåb-j-am</td>
<td>glåb-ám etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples:
slēpt (slēp-j-Ø, slēp-a) hide, kāpt (kāpj-Ø, kāp-a) climb.

b) verbs with \(m + j\) in the present tense have a lengthened vowel in the past tense, e. g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vemt to vomit</td>
<td>1 p. vem-j-u</td>
<td>vēm-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. vem-Ø</td>
<td>vēm-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. vem-j-Ø</td>
<td>vēm-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. vem-j-am</td>
<td>vēm-ám etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb lemt decide is inflected in the same way as vemt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jumt to roof</td>
<td>1 p. jum-j-u</td>
<td>jüm-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. jum-Ø</td>
<td>jüm-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. jum-j-Ø</td>
<td>jüm-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. jum-j-am</td>
<td>jüm-ám etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb stumpt push is treated similarly.

**Subgroup B: Postvocalic -j**

Here we find monosyllabics in a) \(-ūt\) and b) \(-aut\)

a) Verbs in \(-ūt\)

These verbs (with the exception of the irregular but, see p. 103, and dabūt, which follows the second (long) conjugation) have -ūj in the present tense and -uv in the past tense, i. e. -ū- is preserved before -j (= preconsonantal position), but is segmented into -uv before the vocalic desinences of the past tense.
Illustration:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong> skūt <em>to shave</em></td>
<td>1 p. skūj-u</td>
<td>skuv-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. skūj-Ø</td>
<td>skuv-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. skūj-Ø</td>
<td>skuv-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td>1 p. skūj-am</td>
<td>skuv-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other example: šūt *sew*.
For verbs in -ūt with the formative -st- in the forms of the present tense, cf. p. 102 f. below.

b) Verbs in -aut
These verbs show the following pattern:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong> kraut <em>to pile</em></td>
<td>1 p. krauj-u</td>
<td>krāv-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. krauj-Ø</td>
<td>krāv-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. krauj-Ø</td>
<td>krāv-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td>1 p. krauj-am</td>
<td>krāv-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples: blaut *shout*, graut *destroy*; thunder, jaut *knead*, kaut *kill*, maut *moo*, raut *pull*, pluck, skaut *embrace*, splaut *spit*.

As seen in the above paradigm, -au appears in preconsonantal position, whereas -au renders -av with concomitant lengthening to -āv in prevocalic position.

**Subclass 5: Suffix -n in the Present Tense**

**Subgroup A: The verb aut**
This verb is treated like the preceding verbs in -aut, except that it has -n instead of -j in the forms of the present tense:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong> aut <em>to put on</em></td>
<td>1 p. au-n-u</td>
<td>āv-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. au-n-Ø</td>
<td>āv-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. au-n-Ø</td>
<td>āv-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td>1 p. au-n-am</td>
<td>āv-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Subgroup B: Verbs in -iet**

Part of the verbs in -iet take an n-suffix in the present tense. As with the other verbs in -iet (cf. above) the preterite ends in -ēj.

**Illustration:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skriet to run</td>
<td>1 p. skrien-u</td>
<td>skrēj-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. skrien-Ø</td>
<td>skrēj-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. skrien-Ø</td>
<td>skrēj-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. skrien-am</td>
<td>skrēj-ām etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples: siet, sien, sēja bind, sliet, slien, slēja prop.

**Subclass 6: Verbs with st-Suffix in the Present Tense**

As pointed out (p. 86 above) -st is a present tense marker on a par with the -j-suffix and the n-infix/suffix. Observe that are dealing with an -st-verb only when this element is found in the present tense. Thus, lit, list, lija rain counts as a st-verb whereas, for example, nest, nes, nesa carry does not.

Several subgroups of st-verbs should be distinguished, viz.

**Subgroup A: Verbs with Unchanged Stem**

a) the numerous verbs of the alkt, alkst, alka (to long for)-pattern:

Here belong among others dzimt, dzimst, dzima be born, ģibt, ģibst, ģiba faint, ilgt, ilgst, ilga last, mirt, mirst, mira die, pampt, pumpst, pampa swell, plaukt, plaukst, plauka flourish, reibt, reibst, reiba become giddy, rimt, rimst, rima calm down, rūgt, rūgst, rūga ferment, salt, salst, sala get cold, skumt, skumst, skuma grieve, saslimt, saslimst, saslima become ill, sapikt, sapikst, sapika get annoyed, slāpt, slāpst, slāpa thirst, sprāgt, sprāgst, sprāga burst, svilt, svilst, svila get scorched, trūkt, trūkst, trūka be lacking, tūkt, tūkst, tūka swell, tvīkt, tvīkst, tvīka blush.

b) the small izesikt, izesikst, izesīka to (to become exhausted) -type:

This type has a long root vowel in all forms.
Subgroup B: Verbs with Preterites in -j
Pattern:
inf. lit, 3rd pres. list, 3rd pret. lija to rain. Another example of this type is dzit, dzist, dzija heal.

Subgroup C: Verbs with Preterites in -v
inf. klût, klüst, klüva to become. Other examples: güt, güsta, guva obtain, sa-grüt, sa-grüst, sa-gruva collapse, püt, püst, puva rot, žüt, žüst, žuva become dry.

In 6 B and C the long preconsonantal root vowel of the infinitive and the present tense (-i- and -u-) has been segmented into -ij- and -uv- respectively before the vocalic desinences of the preterite.

Subgroup D: Verbs with Preterites in -n
Pattern:
inf. pa-zit, 3rd pres. pa-zist, pa-zina to know, recognize. Other examples are at-zit acknowledge and tit wind, wrap.

The long -i- in the infinitive and present tense is due to the loss of -n- in preconsonantal position (cf. p. 32).

Subgroup E: Verbs with -s- in all Principal Forms
Pattern:
aiz-mirst, aiz-mirst, aiz-mirsā to forget.
Other examples: ap-klust, ap-klust, ap-klusa grow silent, aust, aust, ausa dawn, karst, karst, karsa grow hot.

In the aiz-mirst-type the root ends in an -s, to which is added -t in the infinitive, yielding -st. In the present tense one would expect *-s+st. This sequence has been simplified to -st.

Note the verb kust, kūst, kusa thaw with a distinctive long vowel in the present tense. This length must be due to secondary superposition of the -st suffix on a form with the n-infix, i.e. *ku-n-s- > *küs- + st, resulting in küst.

Subgroup F: Verbs with -z- in the Past Tense and the Infinitive
The two verbs in -zt, namely birzt to crumble and lūzt to break: pres. birst, lüst vs. birza, lūza, behave in the same way as -st-verbs.

Here the group *-z-st of the present tense has been simplified to -st.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that the second person singular of the present tense of -st-verbs always has the ending -i, as op-
posed to the zero ending of the 3rd person: pazīsti, ķlūsti : pazīst, ķlūst.

**Subgroup G: Verbs with -st in the Infinitive and the Present Tense vs. Dental (-t/-d) in the Past Tense**

Model:

vīst, vīst, vīta to fade  
svīst, svīst, svīda to sweat

This means that the clusters *-t-st/-d-st from the present tense have been simplified to -st. The -st in the infinitive originates from *-t/d-t.

**The Irregular Verbs būt, dot and iet**

Finally, the paradigms of the three irregular verbs būt be, dot give and iet go should be given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>būt to be</td>
<td>1 p. es-mu</td>
<td>bi-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. es-i</td>
<td>bi-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. ir</td>
<td>bi-j-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. es-am</td>
<td>bi-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. es-at</td>
<td>bi-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. ir (neg. form nav)</td>
<td>bi-j-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the suppletivism es- : ir : bi-j.

In colloquial speech as well as older writings the shortened form bij is frequently encountered in the 3rd person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iet to go</td>
<td>1 p. ej-u</td>
<td>gā-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. ej-Ø</td>
<td>gā-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. ie-t</td>
<td>gā-j-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. ej-am</td>
<td>gā-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. ej-at</td>
<td>gā-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. ie-t</td>
<td>gā-j-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observe the zero ending in the 2 p. pres. sg. as well as the alternation ej- (prevocalic position) : ie- (preconsonantal position) and the en-
ding -t in the 3 p. As in the case of but there is suppletivism between the present and past tenses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dot to give</td>
<td>1 p. dod-u</td>
<td>dev-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. dod-Ø</td>
<td>dev-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. dod-Ø</td>
<td>dev-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. dod-am</td>
<td>dev-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. dod-at</td>
<td>dev-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. dod-Ø</td>
<td>dev-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the zero ending of the 2 p. sg. pres. and the radical difference between the stems of the present and past tenses.

**THE SECOND (LONG) CONJUGATION**

As pointed out (p. 84 above) the infinitives of this conjugation end in -ot (dzivot live), -āt (runāt speak), (quite rarely) -ēt (zīmēt draw), -īt (ciienit respect) or -ūt (only one verb: dabūt get). Since these verbs are treated in the same way, only one paradigm, namely that of mazgāt wash will be given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mazgāt to wash</td>
<td>1 p. mazgā-j-u</td>
<td>mazgā-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. mazgā-Ø</td>
<td>mazgā-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. mazgā-Ø</td>
<td>mazgā-j-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>1 p. mazgā-j-am</td>
<td>mazgā-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. mazgā-j-at</td>
<td>mazgā-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. mazgā</td>
<td>mazgā-j-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the zero ending in the 2 p. sg. pres. as well as the total merger of the forms of the 1 p. sg. in the present and the past tenses. The same merger was observed also with certain verbs of the 1st conjugation (viz. subclass 1), cf. above.

The -j- appears automatically to prevent hiatus (i.e. combination of two vowels which do not constitute a diphthong). It can be analyzed either as a glide (which we prefer), as part of the stem or (less attractively) as part of the desinence.
Reflexive verbs of this conjugation end in -oties, -āties, -ēties and -īties. A sample of the paradigm ist that of mazgāties wash oneself:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mazgāties</td>
<td>1 p. mazgā-j-os</td>
<td>mazgā-j-os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. mazgā-j-ies</td>
<td>mazgā-j-ies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. mazgā-j-as</td>
<td>mazgā-j-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. mazgā-j-amies</td>
<td>mazgā-j-āmies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. mazgā-j-āties</td>
<td>mazgā-j-āties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. mazgā-j-as</td>
<td>mazgā-j-ās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**THE THIRD (MIXED) CONJUGATION**

Here two subclasses must be distinguished, since IIIrd conjugation verbs in -ēt follow one pattern (III A), and those in -ūt and -ināt another (III B). The verbs gribēt wish and lasīt read illustrate these paradigms:

**III A:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gribēt</td>
<td>1 p. grib-u</td>
<td>gribē-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to wish</td>
<td>2 p. grib-i</td>
<td>gribē-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. grib-Ø</td>
<td>gribē-j-āa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. grib-am</td>
<td>gribē-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. grib-āt</td>
<td>gribē-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. grib-Ø</td>
<td>gribē-j-āa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observe the depalatalized consonant (-k- of the verb mācēt know in all forms (including the 2nd p. sg.) of the present tense, i.e. māk-u, māk-i, māk-Ø, māk-ām, māk-āt (vs. mācēju, mācēji etc. in the past).

**III B:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lasīt</td>
<td>1 p. las-u</td>
<td>lasī-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to read</td>
<td>2 p. las-i</td>
<td>lasī-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. las-a</td>
<td>lasī-j-āa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. las-ām</td>
<td>lasī-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. las-āt</td>
<td>lasī-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. las-a</td>
<td>lasī-j-āa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Observe that both subclasses have the ending -i in the 2 p. sg. Note the contrast in the desinences of the present tense forms of III A (= -Ø, -am, -at) as compared to III B (= -a, -ām, -āt). The status of the -j- in forms of the past is the same as that commented upon in connection with the IIInd conjugation.

Note that the verb sacit say has a depalatalized consonant (-k-) in the present tense, i.e. sak-u, sak-i, sak-a, sak-am, sak-at (vs. saciju, saciji etc. in the past tense). The verb mācit(ies) learn, however, has -c- in all forms of the present tense, i.e. mācu, māci, māca etc. The reflexive paradigm is given below.

All verbs in -ināt are inflected according to the lasit-pattern.

Two verbs of the IIIrd conjugation must be treated separately, namely sēdēt sit and gulēt sleep; lie:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sēdēt to sit</td>
<td>1 p. sēž-u</td>
<td>sēdē-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. sēd-i</td>
<td>sēdē-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. sēž-Ø</td>
<td>sēdē-j-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. sēž-am</td>
<td>sēdē-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. sēž-at</td>
<td>sēdē-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. sēž-Ø</td>
<td>sēdē-j-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the principles set forth above (p. 29 ff.) a narrow ē is spoken in all forms of sēd-/sēž (both in the present and past tense forms).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gulēt to sleep</td>
<td>1 p. guļ-u</td>
<td>gulē-j-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. guļ-i</td>
<td>gulē-j-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. guļ</td>
<td>gulē-j-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. guļ-am</td>
<td>gulē-j-ām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. guļ-at</td>
<td>gulē-j-āt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. guļ</td>
<td>gulē-j-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the alternation between ē and e, and ī and i in the present tense, where the unpalatalized d and l are found in the position before -i, i.e. in the 2 p. sg.
The ț and the ʃ reflect *dj and *lj respectively. Such palatalizations (cf. chapter on phonology, p. 25) are otherwise restricted to the present tense of the 1st conjugation (see p. 86 ff.).

*Reflexive* paradigms have the following appearance (*vēlēties; mācīties*):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vēlēties to wish</em></td>
<td>1 p. vēl-os</td>
<td>vēlē-j-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. vēl-īes</td>
<td>vēlē-j-īes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. vēl-ās</td>
<td>vēlē-j-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. vēl-āmies</td>
<td>vēlē-j-āmies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. vēl-āties</td>
<td>vēlē-j-āties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. vēl-ās</td>
<td>vēlē-j-ās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>mācīties to learn</em></td>
<td>1 p. māc-os</td>
<td>mācī-j-ōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. māc-īes</td>
<td>mācī-j-īes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. māc-ās</td>
<td>mācī-j-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 p. māc-āmies</td>
<td>mācī-j-āmies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 p. māc-āties</td>
<td>mācī-j-āties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 p. māc-ās</td>
<td>mācī-j-ās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conjugations I-III: The Ending of the 2nd Person Sg.

Here rules must be given in order to regulate:

a) the choice between the endings -Ø (zero) and -i,
b) the quality of the consonant preceding the ending,
c) the timbre of the vowel -e- when it occurs in the present tense.

First it should be stated that the *past tense* is unproblematic: the ending is here always -i and the consonant is the same as in all other forms of the paradigm.

In the *present tense* the ending is -Ø (zero) in the II (long) conjugation (e. g. *runā you speak, dzīvo you live*). The ending is -i with unchanged consonant in all verbs of the IIIrd (mixed) conjugation (i. e. both subtype A): *gribi* (: *gribēti* you wish and subtype B) *lasī* (: *lasīt* ) you read. Thus, it is the 1st conjugation which poses difficulties. Here the ending is -Ø (zero) except in the verbs with the special present tense markers, the -st (= suffix) with variants (cf. p. 101 ff.) or the *-n* (nasal
infix). The st-element is present in the “surface structure”, e. g. klūsti (: klūt) you become, whereas the nasal infix has disappeared (p. 32), but has left a trace in the compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, whereby these present-tense forms show a distinctively lengthened vowel -ī-, -ū-, -o- as opposed to the (corresponding) short vowels -i-, -u-, -a- in the past tense and the infinitive, e. g. kritī you fall (vs. kritī you fell and the inf. krist fall), jūti you feel (vs. juti you felt and the inf. just feel) and protī you understand / topī you become (vs. prati you understood / tapi you became and the inf. prast understand / tapt become).

Verbs with roots / stems ending in -k or -g always shift these to -c and -dz in the 2nd p. of the present tense (but never in the past tense) and – irrespective of type – always have zero ending in the 2nd person of the present tense, e. g. roc you collect (: rok 3 p., raku I collected, raki you collected, inf. rakt collect), zodz you steal (: zog 3 p., zagi stole, zagi you stole, inf. zagt steal), sāc you begin (: sāk 3 p., sāku I began, sāki you began, sākt begin), liec you put, place (: liek 3 p., liku I put, placed, liki you put, placed, inf. likt put, place), pērc you buy (: pērk 3 p., pirkū I bought, pirkī you bought, inf. pirkīt buy), bēdz you flee (: bēg 3 p., bēgu I fled, bēgi you fled, bēgt flee).

With consonants other than -k and -g the following rule applies: the 2nd p. sg. of the present tense always has the same consonant as in the past tense, i. e. retains the unchanged (“unpalatalized”, see p. 25) consonant in cases where there is a consonant shift between the present and the past tense, cf., for example, glāb you save (: other forms of the present glābj-, past tense glāb-, inf. glābt), cel you lift, raise (: other forms of the present cel-, past tense cēl-, inf. celt), and finally griez you turn (: other forms of the present griež-, past tense griez-, inf. griez). In terms of closed vs. open -e- the 2nd p. sg. present is always pronounced with a closed -e-, e. g. tu dzen [dzen] you chase : dzen- [dzen] in the other forms of the present tense.

Finally, the reflexive ending of the 2nd p. sg. is always -ies. The rules determining the quality of a preceding consonant are the same as in a corresponding non-reflexive form – irrespective of whether this ending is -i or -Ø (zero).

The historical explanation for the exceptional position of the 2nd p. sg. in the paradigm of the present tense in Latvian is that an -i has been partly retained, partly lost. The present marker *-j- which is found in many verbs of conjugation I triggers “palatalization” of consonants (i. e. *zj > ž, l > l, b > bj etc.), but is lost before the *-i, which explains the unchanged (“unpalatalized”) consonant of the 2nd person present. “Palatalized” consonants in the 2nd sg. present are restricted to -c and -dz alone, which reflect *-ki and *-gi (as, for example in sāc ≤ *sāci ≤ *sāki/ vs. sāk- in the other forms of sākt begin) or *kji > *ki > c and *-gji > *-gi > -dz (e. g. nāc you come where the rest
of the paradigm also has -c- due to *-kj). The only case where -k and -g are encountered in the 2nd person present is in verbs of conjugation III, e.g. saki you say (: past tense stem sacij-, inf. sacit); this -i derives from a diphthong *-ai (-āi) which did not trigger a shift from a velar stop to an affricate. The -i in the 2nd sg. of the past tense also originates from *-ai (-āi).

Forms of the type runā you speak and dzīvo you live represent the earlier forms*runāji and dzīvoji (and the forms of the 3rd person *runāja and dzīvoja, respectively). The reason why the corresponding forms of the past tense runāji, runāja and dzīvoji, dzīvoja have retained -ji and -ja is that these endings reflect *-jāi and *-jā, respectively.

**Formation of the Future Tense**

The future tense is formed from the infinitive stem (cf. p. 81) which is arrived at by dropping the -t of the infinitive. To this stem is added an s-formative (with the allomorph -š- in the 1st p. sg.). The -s/š- is followed by the following endings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-reflexive</th>
<th>Reflexive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. -u</td>
<td>-os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. -i</td>
<td>-ies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. -Ø</td>
<td>-ies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p. -im</td>
<td>-imies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p. -i(e)t</td>
<td>-i(e)ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p. -Ø</td>
<td>-ies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The -š- allomorph originates from *-sj+u < *s-i-u, i.e. the *j reflects the same -i- which is encountered in other forms of the future paradigm.

In order to arrive at correct forms one has to distinguish between 1) vocalic stems, and 2) consonantal stems.

1. **Vocalic Stems**

Vocalic stems encompass all verbs of the IInd and IIIrd conjugations, plus some verbs of the 1st conjugation (type spē-t to be able to).

Examples of paradigms:

**IInd conjugation:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>infinitive</th>
<th>runā-t speak</th>
<th>dzīvo-t live</th>
<th>zīmē-t draw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p.</td>
<td>runā-š-u</td>
<td>dzīvo-š-u</td>
<td>zīmē-š-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p.</td>
<td>runā-s-i</td>
<td>dzīvo-s-i</td>
<td>zīmē-s-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p.</td>
<td>runā-s-Ø</td>
<td>dzīvo-s-Ø</td>
<td>zīmē-s-Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p.</td>
<td>runā-s-im</td>
<td>dzīvo-s-im</td>
<td>zīmē-s-im</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p.</td>
<td>runā-s-i(e)t</td>
<td>dzīvo-s-i(e)t</td>
<td>zīmē-s-i(e)t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 p. runā-s-Ø  dzīvo-s-Ø  zīmē-s-Ø

IIIrd conjugation:
infinitive gribe-t to wish  lasī-t to read

SG  
1 p. gribe-š-u  lasī-š-u
2 p. gribe-s-i  lasī-s-i
3 p. gribe-s-Ø  lasī-s-Ø

PL  
1 p. gribe-s-im  lasī-s-im
2 p. gribe-s-i(e)t  lasī-s-i(e)t
3 p. gribe-s-Ø  lasī-s-Ø

Ist conjugation:
infinitive spē-t to be able to

SG  
1 p. spē-š-u
2 p. spē-s-i
3 p. spē-s-Ø

PL  
1 p. spē-s-im
2 p. spē-s-i(e)t
3 p. spē-s-Ø

2. Consonantal Stems
A. Stems ending in Labials and Velars
Verb stems ending in labials and velars form future tense forms in the same way as vocalic stems, e.g.

infinitive vem-t vomit  glāb-t save teik-t say  bēg-t run away, flee

SG  
1 p. vem-š-u  glāb-š-u  teik-š-u  bēg-š-u
2 p. vem-s-i  glāb-s-i  teik-s-i  bēg-s-i
3 p. vem-s  glāb-s-Ø  teik-s-Ø  bēg-s-Ø

PL  
1 p. vem-s-im  glāb-s-im  teik-s-im  bēg-s-im
2 p. vem-s-i(e)t  glāb-s-i(e)t  teik-s-i(e)t  bēg-s-i(e)t
3 p. vem-s-Ø  glāb-s-Ø  teik-s-Ø  bēg-s-Ø

B. Sibilant Stems
Besides labials and velars, only the sibilants s and z can occur before the -t of the infinitive.
THE VERB: THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE ACTIVE

Infinitives ending in -st are ambiguous since they can reflect 1) -s-t (as, for example in nest carry, pres. 1 p. sg. nesu, pret. 1 p. sg. nesu), 2) *-t-t (cf. p. 25, for example, in mest throw, 1 p. sg. pres. metu, 1 p. sg. pret. metu), or 3) *d-t (like, for example, in vest lead, pres. 1 p. sg. vedu, pret. 1 p. sg. vedu). In these cases the vowel -i- is inserted between the original stem's final consonant (-s, -t or -d) and the ending (i.e. the s/š-formative + the desinences proper). In this way (normalized) vocalic stems are obtained, and assimilations and dissimilations which would have led to unclear forms are avoided.

Examples of paradigms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>infinitive</th>
<th>nes-t to carry</th>
<th>mes-t to throw</th>
<th>ves-t to lead</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p.</td>
<td>nes-i-š-u</td>
<td>met-i-š-u</td>
<td>ved-i-š-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p.</td>
<td>nes-i-s-i</td>
<td>met-i-s-i</td>
<td>ved-i-s-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p.</td>
<td>nes-i-s-Ø</td>
<td>met-i-s-Ø</td>
<td>ved-i-s-Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p.</td>
<td>nes-i-s-im</td>
<td>met-i-s-im</td>
<td>ved-i-s-im</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p.</td>
<td>nes-i-s-i(e)t</td>
<td>met-i-s-i(e)t</td>
<td>ved-i-s-i(e)t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p.</td>
<td>nes-i-s-Ø</td>
<td>met-i-s-Ø</td>
<td>ved-i-s-Ø</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same formational principle is followed in -zt-verbs, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>infinitive</th>
<th>lauzt break</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p.</td>
<td>lauz-i-š-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p.</td>
<td>lauz-i-s-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p.</td>
<td>lauz-i-s-Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p.</td>
<td>lauz-i-s-im</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 p.</td>
<td>lauz-i-s-i(e)t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 p.</td>
<td>lauz-i-s-Ø</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to be aware that the original stem is found by looking at the stem consonant in the past tense, and not the present, since this could lead to the formation of incorrect forms. Thus, the above verb lauzt has lauz- in the present tense, which would generate the incorrect form *lauž-i-s/š. The same complication exists in the case of verbs in -st, cf., for example, plēs-t tear which has plēš- in the present tense, as opposed to plēš- in the past. From the former an incorrect form *plēš-i-s/š- would be derived, and not the correct plēš-i-s/š-. 
Finally, it should be mentioned that the three irregular verbs bū-t, do-t and ie-t, (cf. p. 103-104), form the future tense in a regular way, i.e. bū-š-u, bū-s-i; do-š-u, do-s-i; ie-š-u, ie-s-i etc.

Examples of Reflexive Paradigms
In conclusion, a couple of reflexive paradigms should be given:

infinitive mazgaties to wash oneself cel-ties rise

SG
1 p. mazgā-š-os cel-š-os
2 p. mazgā-s-ies cel-s-ies
3 p. mazgā-s-ies cel-s-ies

PL
1 p. mazgā-s-imies cel-s-imies
2 p. mazgā-s-i(e)tis cel-s-i(e)tis
3 p. mazgā-s-ies cel-s-ies

Formation of the Compound Tenses
(Darbības vārda salikto formu darīšana)

As pointed out above (p. 81) the compound tenses in Latvian are the present perfect, the past perfect and the future perfect. (Alternative terms would be the compound present, the compound past and the compound future.)

These forms are constructed with the help of the simple present, past and future tenses of the auxiliary būt, followed by the nominative case of the past active participle in the appropriate gender and number. This participle (for more detailed formation of which, see p. 151 f.) is in -is and -uši for the masculine singular and plural respectively, while the corresponding forms of the feminine are in -usi and -ušas. For alternative forms in older writings, see p. 154.

The reflexive endings are as follows:
-ies (masc. sg.), -ušies (masc. pl.), -usies (fem. sg.) and -ušās (fem. pl.).

The Present Perfect
After the introduction just given to the compound tenses one example should be sufficient to illustrate the formation of the present perfect:
Non-reflexive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>es esmu / tu esi / viņš/viņa ir strādājis/strādājusi</td>
<td>mēs esam / jūs esat / viņi/viņas ir strādājuši / strādājušas¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I/ you have / he/she has worked
we/ you/they (masc. & fem.) have worked

Reflexive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>es esmu / tu esi / viņš/viņa ir cēlies/cēlusies</td>
<td>mēs esam / jūs esat / viņi/viņas ir cēlušies/cēlušas¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I/ you have / he/she has risen (gotten up)
we/ you/they (masc. & fem.) have risen (gotten up)

¹in polite form (to one person): jūs esat strādājis/strādājusi / cēlies/cēlusies

The Past Perfect

Non-reflexive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>es biju / tu biji / viņš : viņa bija strādājis / strādājusi</td>
<td>mēs bijām / jūs bijāt/ viņi : viņas bija strādājuši/ strādājušas¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I/ you have / he/she had worked
we/ you/they (masc. & fem.) had worked

Reflexive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>es biju / tu biji / viņš/viņa bija cēlies/cēlusies</td>
<td>mēs bijām / jūs bijāt / viņi/viņas bija cēlušies/cēlušās¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I/ you / he/she had risen (gotten up)
we/ you/they (masc. & fem.) had risen (gotten up)

¹in polite form (to one person): jūs bijāt strādājis/strādājusi / cēlies/cēlusies
The Future Perfect

Non-reflexive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>es būšu</strong> / <strong>tu būsi</strong> / viņš/viņa būs strādājis / strādājusi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I shall / you / he: she will have worked</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>mēs būsim</strong> / <strong>jūs būsi(e)t</strong> / viņi/viņas būs strādājuši/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>strādājušas</strong>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>we shall / you/they (masc. &amp; fem.) will have worked</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflexive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>es būšu</strong> / <strong>tu būsi</strong> / viņš/viņa būs cēlies/cēlusies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I shall / you / he/she will have risen (gotten up)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>mēs būsim</strong> / <strong>jūs būsi(e)t</strong> / viņi/viņas būs cēlusies/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>cēlušas</strong>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>we shall / you/they (masc. &amp; fem.) will have risen (gotten up)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1In polite form (to one person): ***jūs būsi(e)t strādājis/strādājusi / cēlies/cēlusies***
ASPECT AND TENSE
(Veids un laiks)

Introduction

The disposition will be as follows:

I Aspect (with the subsection Aktionsarten)
II Tense

It is natural to introduce aspect before the description of the use of the tenses since it appears practical to present tense with some view also to aspect. Although principally different, aspect and tense are intimately interwoven.

I Aspect

It is not easy to give a precise overall definition of the notion of aspect. It says something about how an action is performed according to two parameters labeled imperfective (nepabeigtais veids) and perfective (pabeigtais veids) respectively.

The perfective perspective implies that the action is looked upon as accomplished, or, to put in a more abstract way, is observed in its totality.

The imperfective perspective is that of an action in process, i. e. not accomplished, not viewed in its totality. This meaning is expressed in English by the so-called progressive with the auxiliary be + -ing-form of the main verb.

The participation of two members, perfective and imperfective, makes it possible to regard aspect as a binary (private) opposition whereby only one member of the opposition is defined in positive terms, in casu the perfective, which is said to be marked, i. e. has the feature [+ totality], in contrast to the imperfective which is unmarked with respect to this feature.

The following question arises: Can aspect be regarded as a grammatical category of Latvian?

Grammaticalization implies a mandatory formal (morphological) expression of some definite semantic function. The requirements of both a specific form and function are crucial to the question of grammaticalization.
Let us test the question of the existence of a grammaticalized aspect in Latvian by considering the following two verb forms: rakstīja was/were writing and uz-rakstīja wrote. From a functional-semantic point of view they are clearly distinct, cf. their translations into the English continuous (progressive) vs. non-continuous (non-progressive) respectively, which reflect an aspectual opposition. Formally they differ through the absence vs. presence of a prefix. So far the requirements for assuming grammaticalization of aspect in Latvian seem to be fulfilled.

Prefixation is a regular strategy in Latvian for deriving verbs with perfective meaning from unprefixed verbs. The latter are as a rule imperfective. The verb rakstīt can take several prefixes, but uz- is the only one which does not supply this verb with an essentially new meaning. With rakstīt uz- may be said to be an empty (or near to empty) prefix in contrast to, for example, pār- which in combination with the verb in question creates a new verb semantically distinct from the basic one: pār-rakstīt to rewrite. The verb pār-rakstīt must be regarded as neutral with respect to the opposition perfective : imperfective. It is biaspectual. In contrast to the situation in many Slavic languages (cf., for example, Russian pere-pisat’ : pere-pisyvat’ to rewrite) and to some extent also in Lithuanian (e. g. per-rašyti : per-rašinėti to rewrite), Latvian does not allow secondary imperfectives to be formed with the help of suffixation. On the other hand, however, Latvian has developed a system of formally distinguished aspectual pairs according to the formula prefixed verb (= prefactive) vs. unprefixed verb + adverb (= imperfective). This strategy, however, is limited to cases where the prefix shows a concrete (= local or directional) sense like for instance in:

iet to go  →  ie-iet to enter (prefix ie- in)  =  Russian vo-jti (pf.)
i et iekšā to enter (adverb iekšā in)  =  Russian v-chodit’ (ipf.)
braukt to go, travel  →  at-braukt to arrive (pf.)
braukt šurp to arrive (ipf.)
slēgt to lock  →  at-slēgt to unlock, open (pf.)
slēgt valā to unlock, open (ipf.)

Both pairs iet/ieiet, atbraukt/braukt šurp and atslēgt/slēgt valā have complete tense paradigms, i. e. simple as well as compound forms.

What kind of proof do we have in support of the tenet that the prefixed verbs of the above type are really perfective whereas the unprefixed verbs accompanied by an adverb are imperfective?

Let us examine the following example:
Viņš ieiet istabā, apsēžas pie galdas un paņem rokās grāmatu
He enters the room, sits down at the table and takes a book in his hands.

All three Latvian verbs (ieiet, apsēžas, pāņem) are in the present tense. If one accepts that pāņemt and apsēžas are perfective verbs according to the strategy described in connection with prefixation above, it seems legitimate to argue that also the remaining coordinate ieiet is perfective. My informants rejected the possibility of replacing ieiet in the above sentence with *iet iekšā which I take as an additional neat hint at the imperfective character of the latter. In the above example we have to do with the stylistic device which can be labeled praezens dramaticum (historicum), cf. the functions of the perfective present described on p. 119.

What we observe in oppositions like ieiet: iet iekšā and similar cases is an embryonic grammaticalized system of oppositions of perfective vs. imperfective forms restricted to specific prefixes and adverbs in combination with a lexically specific set of verbs. The combination of unprefixed verb + adverb may be regarded as a kind of periphrastic construction which can be included in the morphology. However, the conclusion about the status of the oppositions of the type ieiet vs. iet iekšā is complicated by the existence also of the combination ieiet iekšā.

The opposition prefixed verb vs. unprefixed verb + adverb may have originated from interference between the Finno-Ugric language Livonian and Latvian where the Indo-European language Latvian may have supplied Livonian with prefixation (unknown in Finno-Ugric) and Livonian in its turn Latvian with the adverb phrase which is known from Balto-Finnic (and other Finno-Ugric) languages. The result is a combination of the two strategies in both languages which seems to have led to an embryonic grammatical aspect opposition in Latvian. One could also think of influence from German, but the pattern eingeht vs. geht ein has a different distribution and is aspectually irrelevant.

Perfectivization

Perfectivization is as a rule expressed with the help of different prefixes. The commonest prefix for creating neutral perfectives, i. e. perfectives which do not obtain a radically new meaning in comparison with the corresponding unprefixed verb is no-, but also other prefixed (pa-, uz- etc.) are encountered in this function. The situation varies with the verb, cf. darīt : padarīt to do, rakstīt : uzrakstīt to write, beigts : nobeigts to end. The no- prefix is also used as a means of perfectivization with verbs of foreign origin, e.g. nofotografēt, norogule.
Imperfectivization

As pointed out above suffixation seems to be irrelevant as an aspect forming strategy in Latvian. Imperfectives are the bulk of unprefixed verbs (and in the case of verbs of motion: unprefixed verb + adverb).

Aktionsarten

(*Procedurals*)

In today’s linguistics a distinction is made between *aspect* and *aktionsart* (there is no commonly accepted term in English for the latter although “procedurals” has been suggested).

The notion of *aktionsarten* is somewhat loose, which means that a universally accepted definition has not yet been arrived at. Many investigators would, however, subscribe to the following concept: Like aspect, the term *aktionsarten* also says something about how an action is performed, but contrary to aspect, *aktionsarten* is conceived as a lexical, and not a grammatical category. The ‘aktionsart’ modifies the lexical meaning of the verb in question. Thus, a verb like, for instance, *pastāvēt* can hardly be conceived of as a neutral perfective to *stāvēt* *stand*, since *pa-* in this case is not felt to be semantically empty, but has the meaning ‘(for) a little (while) / some time’, whence *pastāvēt* is said to belong to the *limitative aktionsart*. The relationship between *pārrakstīt* and *rakstīt* can also be determined as one of *aktionsart* since *pār-* modifies the meaning of *rakstīt*. Thus, Latvian prefixes have a double function, namely 1) to derive neutral perfectives from unprefixed imperfectives and 2) to modify the lexical meaning of the basic verb.

Most investigators would probably hold that the situation in Latvian is more properly described as one dominated by lexicalized *aktionsarten* rather than grammaticalized aspect.

II Tense

As pointed out above (p. 81) there are six tenses in Standard Latvian, namely *three simple* (i.e. the present, past and future) and *three compound* (the present perfect, the past perfect and the future perfect). Thus, for the indicative active the following concrete paradigm for the verb *(uz)rakstīt* to write in the 3rd p. (masc. sg.) can be presented:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>IPF</strong></td>
<td>rakstīja</td>
<td>raksta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PF</strong></td>
<td>uzrakstīja</td>
<td>uzraksta</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Perfect** | **Present Perfect** | **Future Perfect**

| **IPF** | bija rakstījis | ir rakstījis | būs rakstījis |
| **PF**  | bija uzrakstījis | ir uzrakstījis | būs uzrakstījis |

The formation of the tenses has been dealt with above (p. 85-114). In the following the meaning and use of the tenses will be described.

**Simple Tenses**

1. **The Present Tense**
   *(Vienkāršā tagadne)*

   Consider the following sentence pairs:

   Viņš raksta vēstuli : Viņš uzraksta vēstuli

   The former corresponds to English ‘he is writing a letter (just now)’ whereas the latter should be extended with an adverbial like, for instance, katru dienu *every day* to sound natural. Thus, unlike Slavic, the perfective present of Latvian does not obtain future meaning, but retains a present tense meaning, however, in a more abstract or general sense than the *concrete hic et nunc* function of the imperfective present.

   It should be observed that Latvian can make use of the “inclusive” (imperfective) present in cases like viņš dzīvo šeit jau gadu *he has been living here for a year (already)*, i.e. it has the same solution as German, Slavic and Romance languages, cf. ich wohne hier seit einem Jahr, ja žīvu zdes † uže god and je demeure ici depuis une année, but it is also possible to say viņš ir (no)dzīvojīs šeit jau gadu, i.e. using the present prefect tense as English and (broadly speaking) the Nordic languages.

   The meaning of the present tense in Latvian (and many other languages) can be expressed through the formula:

   E simul S
which reads ‘E is simultaneous with S’ where E stands for ‘event’ and S for ‘moment of speech’.

2. The Past Tense
(Vienkāršā pagātne)

Compare the above presentation of the present tense and contrast the following sentence pairs:

Viņš rakstīja vēstuli : Viņš uzrakstīja vēstuli
*He was writing a letter* : *He wrote a letter*

The meaning of the Latvian past can be illustrated in the following way:

E before S

3. The Future Tense
(Vienkāršā nākotne)

Much of the same that has been said about the simple past above in terms of aspectuality can be repeated for the future tense.

Contrast the following sentence pair:

Viņš rakstīs vēstuli : Viņš uzrakstīs vēstuli
*He will be writing a letter* : *He will write a letter*

The basic meaning of the Latvian simple future can be diagrammed in this way:

E after S

Modal Uses of the Simple Future

Finally, mention should be made of the fact that the (simple) future (as in many other languages) can acquire modal nuances (see also section on mood), cf., for example iesim! *let us go!*

Compound Tenses

The compound tenses denote the result of a past event projected into the present, past or future respectively.

As a result of interference from Russian (with only one form to cover meanings related to the past) an increase in the use of simple forms instead (especially) of past forms has been observed among Latvian speaking people in Latvia in many cases where
compound forms would traditionally have been expected. Thus, comparisons which have been made between works of Soviet Latvian authors and of Latvian exile authors have revealed significant differences in this respect.

1. The Present Perfect
(Saliktā tagadne)
This tense denotes a past event seen from the perspective of the present (a kind of indefinite past).
The meaning of this form can be diagrammed in the following way:

(Ea before R) + (Es simul R)

where the symbol Ea refers to the verbal action (‘event action’), R to “reference point” and Es to a state resulting from that action (‘event’).

2. The Past Perfect
(Saliktā pagātne)
Let us start with the following autentical example:
Viņš bija nācis vakar, bet es nebiju mājās
The main clause of this compound sentence cannot be translated by the pluperfect into English:
*He had come yesterday, but I was not at home
Thus, it looks legitimate to call this tense the past perfect rather than the pluperfect in Latvian because it seems to differ from the English and Scandinavian pluperfect. However, in Ceplite & Ceplītis 1991, p. 70 the following definition of the compound past is given: “[it indicates that] an action has taken place prior to another action which has occurred in the past” (our translation). This definition which could be valid for English and the Nordic languages as well, is accompanied by the following example: es biju gājis kādu kilometru, kad apjautu savu klūdu I had gone some kilometer when I discovered my error. My Latvian informants okayed the insertion of jau already in this example, but claimed that this would not be necessary to express the meaning of a pluperfect in the English sense. Thus, one feels somewhat puzzled about the situation. It is possible that the Latvian compound past is more “flexible” than, say, the English and Scandinavian pluperfect and could be adequately described both according to a bipartite formula, namely E before R before S as in English and Scandinavian and a tripartite formula

(Ea before R) + (Es simul R) + (R before S)
where the symbols $E_a$ and $E_x$ are explained under point 1) above. The former may perhaps be regarded as basic, the latter as an additional characterization. At any rate, the compound past of Latvian is not used when a specific time reference is given. Thus, a sentence like *es esmu paņemis vēstuli vakar is incorrect as is its English counterpart: *I have received a letter yesterday.

3. The Future Perfect
(Saliktā nākotne)
As a typical example of the compound future in a main clause may serve:

Viņš būs uzrakstījis vēstuli (līdz 1. decembrim)
He will have finished the letter till (by) December 1.

The basic meaning of the Latvian compound future can probably be expressed by the following formula:

$$E \text{ before } R \text{ after } S$$

where $R$ denotes a 'reference point'. The reference point is the event expressed in the main clause.

If this description of the Latvian compound future is correct and the meaning of the simple future is adequately described as $E$ after $S$, one should expect the compound future to occur predominantly in compound sentences with sequential actions, whereas the simple future could be characterized as unmarked since it should be able to express both sequence and simultaneity (probably limited by aspect). This conception seems to hold true.

**Modal Uses of the Future Perfect**
Finally, it should be mentioned that, like the simple future, also the compound future can acquire modal nuances as shown by the following example:

Viņi laikam būs jau atbraukūši
They have possibly/presumably arrived.

**Limitations**
The above presentation has been confined to the active voice and the finite verb. For tense in the passive voice as well as in the non-finite verbal system, i.e., participles and gerunds, see sections on voice and the non-finite verb. For tenses in the marked moods, see section on mood.
MOOD

(Izteiksme)

Mood is an expression of the speaker's attitude towards the content of the verb (utterance).

As stated above (p. 81), Latvian has the following moods:

1. the indicative (īstenības izteiksme)
2. the imperative (pavēles izteiksme)
3. the subjunctive (vēlējuma izteiksme or kondicionālis)
4. the debitive (debiīvs or vajadzības izteiksme)
5. the relative mood (atstāstījuma izteiksme)

The indicative can be regarded as the unmarked mood in opposition to the rest which are labeled marked moods.

The rationale for considering the debitive and the relative as moods can be questioned on formal grounds (not least in view of the fact that they have almost as many tenses as the unmarked indicative).

1. The Indicative

The indicative has already been described from the point of view of its morphological characteristics in connection with the different tenses above (simple present, simple past, simple future, present perfect, past perfect, future perfect). For the use of these tenses, see section on tense. Functionally the indicative is in contrast with the other moods, in that it expresses something real which either has taken place, is taking place or undoubtedly will take place: Jānis studēja/ir studējis/studē/studēs filoloģiju Latvijas universitātē John studied/has studied/is studying will be studying philology at the University of Latvia.

2. The Imperative

As shown in the table on p. 82, the imperative is formed on the basis of the present stem.

The imperative proper is limited to one person, i. e. the 2nd (singular and plural).

In the singular it is identical in form with the 2nd p. sg. of the present tense. Since the 2nd sg. present shows certain irregularities, the guidelines formulated on p. 107 ff. should be consulted.
Examples:
non-reflexives:
runā! speak!
lasī! read!
sāki! say!
nes! carry!
piedod! forgive!
nāc! come!
bēdz! run away, flee!
esī! be!
jūtī! feel!

Reflexives:
mazgājies! wash yourself!
celies! rise (get up)!

To form the plural, the ending -iet (non-reflexive) or -ieties (reflexive) are added to the form of the second sg. imperative:
runā-j-iet!
lasīet!
sākiet!
nes-iet!
piedodiet!
nāc-iet!
bēdz-iet!
es-iet!
jūt-iet!

mazgā-j-ieties!
celieties!

Note that an automatic j-glide is inserted before the ending -iet(ies) when the 2nd sg. imperative ends in a vowel (-ā, -ē or -o).

It should further be emphasized that the 2nd p.plural imperative always has the consonant of the 2nd p. sg. present and not that of the 2nd plural present. This is to prevent the student from constructing incorrect imperative forms like, for example, *nākiet instead of the correct nāciet.

Finally, it should be emphasized that with imperatives with an -e/-ē- in the root (e. g. esī! esiet! bēdz! bēdziet!) a narrow -e/-ē is spoken (as should be expected according to the rules, cf. p. 29 ff.).
The *use* and *meaning* of the imperative has been sufficiently illustrated through the examples given.

Besides the second person forms of the imperative, there is also a form called *adhortative*, which is identical in form with the 1st person indicative of the future tense:

- *runāsim!* *let us speak!*
- *nesīsim!* *let us carry!*

With the same meaning also the 1 p. pl. indicative of the present tense is used:

- *runājam!* *let us speak!*, *nesam!* *let us carry!*

An imperative-like function is also encountered in the 3 p. This function is expressed through the particle *lai* (cf. *laist* to *let*) + the nominative sg. of the personal pronoun + the 3 p. of the indicative present tense:

- *lai viņš/viņa/viņš/viņas nāk!* *may he/she/they (masc. & fem.) come!*
- *lai dzīvo Latvija/karalis! long live Latvia! the king!*
- *svētīts lai top tavs vārds hallowed be Thy name.*

### 3. The Subjunctive

#### A. Formation

Latvian distinguishes between a present and a past subjunctive, the latter being a compound formation.

1) The *present* subjunctive is formed on the basis of the infinitive stem, to which is added the ending *-tu* (non-reflexive), *-tos* (reflexive), irrespective of the person or number referred to.

Examples:

- non-reflexives:
  - *runā-t speak → runā-tu*
  - *gribē-t wish → gribē-tu*
  - *pirk-t buy → pirk-tu*
  - *brauk-t go, travel → brauk-tu*
  - *bū-t be → bū-tu*

- reflexives:
  - *mazgā-ties wash oneself → mazgā-tos*
  - *cel-ties rise (get up) → cel-tos*

Illustration of a paradigm:

- *es/tu/viņš/viņa/mēs/jūs/viņš/viņas runātu/celtos*

In accordance with the general rules (p. 29 ff.), an *-el-ē* before *-tul-tos* has the open pronunciation (in contrast to the infinitive, where a narrow *-el-ē* is spoken).

2) The *past* subjunctive is formed by combining the past active participle (in the appropriate form masc./fem.; sg./pl., cf. p. 153 below)
with the present subjunctive of būt be in the function of an auxiliary, e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG būtu runājis/runājusi / cēlies/cēlusi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. būtu runājuši/runājušas / cēlušies/cēlušās</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The difference in meaning between the present and the past subjunctive may be illustrated through the following example:

Ja man būtu nauda (pašlaik), es brauktu uz Rīgu (pašlaik)
If I had money (now), I would go to Riga (now)
vs.

Ja man būtu bijusi nauda (tai laikā/tad), es būtu braucis uz Rīgu (tai laikā)
If I had had money (then / at that time), I would have gone to Riga (then / at that time)

There is also a subjunctive passive, which is formed with the help of one of the auxiliaries taptu/būtu + the t-participle, see section on voice as well as non-finite verb forms (passive participles). One example will suffice here for illustration:

Ja šīs velosipēds būtu nopirkts pagājušajā gadā, jis būtu bijis lētāks, nekā tagad
If this bicycle had been bought last year, it would have been cheaper than now.

B. Some Major Functions
The subjunctive is encountered in main clauses, in main and subordinate clauses or in subordinate clauses alone.

a) The Subjunctive in Main Clauses
• To express a wish:
  Kaut arī mums būtu tik daudz naudas! If even we had that much money!
• In polite request:
  Vai tu varētu man palīdzēt? Could you help me?
  Vai jūs man lūdzu atslēgtu šīs durvis? Could you please shut/close this door?
• Es gribētu nopirkt [...] I would like to buy [...] (Compare also the corresponding subjunctive formula in German ich möchte (gern) [...], in French je voudrais (bien) [...], in Russian ja chotel(a) by [...]...
b) *The Subjunctive both in the Main and the Subordinate Clauses*
   - This subjunctive is used in *conditional clauses* if the content is hypothetical:
     Ja mums būtu bijis daudz naudas, mēs būtu braukuši uz Ameriku
     *If we had had a lot of money, we would have gone to America*
     NB. In conditional clauses of a non-hypothetical nature, the indicative must be used:
     Ja sestdien būs skaidrs laiks, mēs brauksim uz Jūrmalu
     *If there will be nice weather on Saturday, we will go to Jurmala*

c) *The Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses*
   - In order to express *purpose*, the conjunction *lai* + the subjunctive is used, e.g.
     Lai drusku atpūstos, mēs nedēļas nogalē aizbrauksim uz Jūrmalu
     *In order to rest a little, we shall go to Jurmala at the end of the week*
     Note: Foreigners frequently make mistakes by using an infinitive construction in this function, which is not tolerated in this function in Latvian, cf. pp. 145 and 210.
     - A *wish* (after the verb form vēlos *I wish*, the verb + noun combination izsacīt vēlēšanos *express the wish*) is expressed by *lai* + the subjunctive:
     Es vēlos, lai darbība tiktu īstenota
     *I wish that the action shall be carried out*
     Darbības vārds vēlējuma izteiksmē izsaka vēlēšanos, lai darbība tiktu īstenota, vai arī norāda, ka darbība ir iespējama
     *The verb in the subjunctive mood expresses the wish that the action shall be carried out, or it can show that the action is possible*
     Note the shift between conjunctions *lai* and *ka* (on which see immediately below) in this example.
   - Close to the function of the subjunctive described in the preceding point is the following:
     Ir svarīgi, lai tu nāktu
     *It is important that you come*
     Vajag (present tense from the verb vajadzēt *must, need*), lai tu nāktu
     *It is necessary that you come*
   - After verbs or expressions implying a *command*, the construction *lai* + the subjunctive is also used:
Viņš sačīja, lai es tulīt nāktu
He said (so) (in order that) that I should come at once

Note: The construction with lai + the subjunctive after a *verbum dicendi* (verb of saying) implies, however, only a vague command whence the relative mood (on which see below) is preferred instead:

*Viņš sačīja, lai es tulīt nākot*
*He said that I should come at once*

Observe that two constructions in Latvian correspond to the English *that*: either *ka + the indicative/relative mood* or: *lai + the subjunctive/the relative mood* (on which, see below). The choice between the two constructions depends on the character of the utterance. Thus, contrast the following two constructions:

*Viņš sačīja, ka ir/esot skaidrs laiks*
*He said that the weather was nice*
and

*Viņš sačīja, lai es tulīt nāktu/nākot*

The fundamental difference between the *ka- and lai*-constructions after *verba dicendi* is that in the former a *description* (state) is expressed, while in the latter the verb of saying implies a *wish* or a *command*. In direct speech the wish/command is expressed with the help of an imperative phrase:

*Viņš sačīja: “Nāc tulīt!”*
*He said: “Come at once!”*

whereas the construction

*Viņš sačīja, ka ir/esot skaidrs laiks*

corresponds to an indicative construction in direct speech:

*Viņš sačīja: “Laiks ir skaidrs”*
*He said: “The weather is nice”.*

• The subjunctive is also used in concessive subordinate clauses with a *hypothetical* meaning, e.g.

*Lai kur es dzivotu, es nekad neaizmiršu savu dzimto pusi*
*Wherever I would be living, I shall never forget my native place*

• Its use is also obligatory in hypothetical comparisons, e.g.

*Mežā bija tik klusu, it kā vāja nemaz nebūtu*
*It was so quiet (silent) in the forest as if there were no wind at all*

• A subtle area is the use of the subjunctive in certain relative clauses after a *negated* main clause:

*Visā manā valstī nav cilvēka, kas mani mīlētu*
*In all my country there is not a person who would love me*

The *hypothetical* character of this sentence is clearly felt.

The same is the case in:

• *Ari man kādreiz gribas drauga, par ko es būtu drošs*
I, too, at times (some time) (would like) like (to have) a friend whom I could trust.

Observe the generalizing adverb kādreiz which eliminates the possibility that the utterance refers to a single concrete event which would require the use of the indicative.

A similar case with a generalizing meaning is encountered in:

- Es nekad neesmu dzirdējis, ka viņa tā dziedātu
  I have never heard that she has sung like this (heard her singing like this)

- After verbs and expressions which express fear lest something should happen, a construction with the subjunctive (with a mandatory pleonastic'superfluous') ne) can be used, e.g.

  Vecāki baidījās, kaut bērns nesaslimtu
  The parents feared that the child would fall ill

  A construction with ka + the indicative (without the negational particle ne) can be used with the same meaning:

  Vecāki baidījās, ka bērns saslims

  For the student the latter construction is preferable in active use, but he/she must know the alternative construction in order to be able to interpret it correctly when encountered in texts.

The pleonastic ne in the subjunctive construction is motivated in historical syntax (through the development from parataxis (coordination) to hypotaxis (subordination), cf. Lai bērns nesaslimtu! Vecāki baidījās May the child not fall ill! The parents feared/they were afraid → Vecāki baidījās, kaut bērns nesaslimtu. Cf. similar constructions in Romance, Slavic and other languages, e.g. French je crains, qu'il ne vienne ‘I am afraid that he will come’, Russian ja bojus’, čtoby on ne prišel ‘I am afraid that he will come’. Here again we find the pleonastic ne + the subjunctive.

Observe that the construction with the subjunctive in expressions of fear cannot be used if the main clause is negated. Thus, for instance after (es) nebaidījos I am not afraid only the indicative is possible.

4. The Deitative

A. Formation

The deitative is a specific formation of Latvian alone. It is formed with the help of the proclitic particle jā- (of obscure origin) + the 3rd p. of the present tense indicative, e.g. jārunā (< runāt to speak) / jāsāk (< sākt to begin).

An exception is the verb būt, where the deitative is formed on the basis of the infinitive: jābūt.

The deitative distinguishes all six tenses of the indicative, cf. the following paradigm:
simple present: (ir) jārunā
simple past: bija jārunā
simple future: būs jārunā
present perfect: ir bijis jārunā
past perfect: bija bijis jārunā
future perfect: būs bijis jārunā

The deative has two sub-moods, namely those of the subjunctive and the relative mood, cf.

the subjunctive in:
man būtu (pres.) / būtu bijis (past) jārunā
I should have / have had to speak

and the relative mood in:
man esot (pres,) / būsot (pret.) jārunā
I (am said) to have to be saying

The status of the deative as a marked mood could be questioned on the following grounds: first, it has as many tenses as the indicative, whereas a marked mood is characterized through a poorer inventory of tenses (for example, the imperative with only one tense, or the subjunctive with two); second, it distinguishes sub-moods which again could be taken as an argument against its status as a marked mood or a mood at all.

B. Syntax
The (logical) subject of the deative is in the dative case, e.g.
Man (ir) jārunā I must/have to speak.

Note also that in sentences with an adjective in the function of a predicative, the adjective must be in agreement with the dative subject and therefore appear in the dative case, e.g.
Studentiem jābūt uzmanīgiem
The students have to be attentive

Moreover, the object of a transitive verb appears in the nominative, and not the accusative case, e.g.
man jālasa avīze I have to read the newspaper

Note: The accusative should, however, be used in two contexts, namely after a transitive infinitive or if the object is a pronoun of the 1st or 2nd person, cf.
Man jāsāk lasīt avīzi I have to begin to read the newspaper
Ojāram būs mūs jāapmeklē Ojars will have to look for us

Observe that when the dative subject is deleted, a general meaning (English “one”. German/Nordic “man”, French “on”) is obtained:
Kad ūdens smēlas mutē, jāmācās peldēt (Latvian proverb)
When the water is streaming into the mouth, one has to learn to swim.

C. Alternative Constructions
The debitive meaning can also be rendered in other ways, namely by:

a) the impersonal verb (cf. p. 206) vajadžēt (pres. vajag, pret. vajadžēja), e.g. viņam vajag strādāt he must work, šo uzdevumu vajag padarīt this task has to be done (observe the accusative šo uzdevumu due to its object function dependent on (vajag) padarīt – in contrast to the example quoted under c) where šis uzdevums is in the position of a grammatical subject and therefore appears in the nominative case),

b) the impersonal verb nākties (pres. nākas, pret. nācās): mums nākas aizbraukt we have to leave (go),

c) the passive m-participle: šis uzdevums ir padarāms this task has to be done.

Whereas the debitive construction implies objective necessity, the vajadžēt-construction designates obligation or moral necessity (English shall/should). Classical contrastive illustrations are jums jādzer tēja you have to drink tea (because there is no coffee) and jums vajag dzerti tēju you have to (= should) drink tea (because it is healthy/good for you). The nākties-construction as a rule expresses inevitability (like the impersonal verb prichodīt'sya in Russian).

5. The Relative Mood

A. Formation
The so-called relative mood, i. e. a mood which expresses second-hand information, is – as in Lithuanian – formed with the help of (most frequently active) petrified participle forms (present -ot, refl. -oties, future -šot, refl. -šoties) in the function of a finite verb. (For the formation of these participles/gerunds, see p. 148)

The relative mood in Latvian distinguishes four tenses, namely two simple (viz. the present and the future), e.g. lasot (read) and lasīšot respectively, and two compound (viz. the present perfect and the future perfect), e.g. esot lasījis/lasījusi/lasījuši/lasījušas and būšot lasījis/lasījusi/lasījuši /lasījušas. As can be seen from the examples, the compound tenses are constructed with the help of the auxiliary būt in the (undeclinable) relative mood plus the main verb in the form of the nominative (masc., fem., sg. and pl.) of the past active participle.

In comparison with the indicative mood the inventory of the past tenses in the relative mood are reduced to the present perfect alone, and the simple past and the past
perfect are lacking. Still, the relative mood is characterized through a relatively rich system of tenses, which could put into question the status of the relative mood as an independent mood, cf. our comments in connection with the debitive above.

B. Use

The relative mood is used when the speaker/writer wishes to make explicit that he/she has not witnessed the message himself/herself.

This implies two areas of usage:

a) indirect speech
b) rendering of rumours and unsure claims

The relative mood is used after verba dicendi (verbs of saying) and similar.

It seems legitimate to distinguish between the present and future meanings on the one side, and that of the past on the other.

Illustrations of the present and future tenses of the relative mood:

Anda teica, ka drīz došoties brīvdienās uz Latviju aпciemo-šot draugus. Mēnesi vēlāk viņa braukšot atpakal uz Norvēģiju

Anda said that she would go to Latvia during the holidays and see friends. A month later she would return to Norway.

Observe the logical time reference in Latvian (in opposition to the automatic principle of the so-called consecutio temporum in English). Note also that the relative mood can be found in whole passages (as in the above example) and thus go beyond the subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction ka (that) after the verbum dicendi.

Observe further that the relative mood seems to have developed a kind of sub-mood, namely that of the imperative (or rather subjunctive), cf., for example:

Viņš sacīja, lai es tulit nākot
He said that I should come at once.

In direct speech this corresponds to a construction with the imperative, i.e.:

Viņš sacīja: "Nāc tulīt!"
He said: "Come here at once!"

Cf. under the subjunctive above.
Illustration of the *past tense of the relative mood*:
Here it seems possible to distinguish between three functions, namely:

1. the “narrative”, whereby the past participle of the main verb alone is used without the būt-auxiliary in the form of the relative mood, e.g. This strategy covers function a) above.

   **Anda devusies brīvdienās uz Latviju un apciemojusi draugus. Mēnesi vēlāk viņa atbraukusi uz Norvēģiju**

   *Anda is said to have gone for Latvia during her vacations to see friends. After a month she is said to have returned to Norway.*

   In negated form nav + the past active participle is used, e.g.

   **Anda nav devusies [...].**

2. the “dubitative” which implies the use of the būt-auxiliary + the past participle of the main verb:

   **Anda esot devusies brīvdienās uz Latviju un [esot] apciemojusi draugus. Mēnesi vēlāk viņa esot atbraukusi uz Norvēģiju.**

   In negated form ne- (not nav) is used, i.e. neesot devusies etc.

   The dubitative is used in function b), cf. the table above.

3. the “folkloristic narrative” which involves the same technique as in 1, except that in negated form ne is used (as in 2 and not nav as in 1). The following illustration is taken from a tale / legend:


   *On the Lielberze estate not far from Dobele grain was being threshed. One morning the workers went to thresh grain. They saw that the Devil was sitting at the edge of a pit and sewing a pair of boots. His trousers were hanging on the end of a stackstand. The workers took the beaters and started chasing the Devil away. The Devil wouldn’t go. At that moment the cock crowed. The Devil seized the stackstand with the trousers and ran into the marsh. There he drowned. Only the end of the stackstand stuck out. This marsh is called the Devil’s Bay up to the present day.*

The relative mood has been claimed to be in a state of decline since World War II, which has been ascribed to interference from Russian, where this mood is lacking. However, the relative mood is
flourishing in today's press in Latvia. If the alleged decline of the deitive is correct, it now seems to experience a period of renaissance, at least in the language of the press, cf. the following example:

**LR vēstniecība Briselē ziņo, ka V.Birkavs iespējotinājis S. Balančino ar iekšpolitisko situāciju Latvijā un raksturojis ieceres valsts aizsardzības nostiprināšanā, kurās paredzēts realizēt ar Partenerattiecību mieram starpniecību.**

V.Birkavs esot apmeklējis arī Latvijas vēstniecības vajadzībām iegadāto ēku Briselē, kurā Arlietu ministrija drīzumā plānojot uzsākt remontdarbus [...].

The embassy of the Republic of Latvia in Brussels reports that V.Birkavs informed S.Balancino about the political situation within Latvia and has presented plans for strengthening of the national defense, which are supposed to be realized with Partnership for peace as an intermediary.

V. Birkavs has also (reportedly) visited the building acquired for the Latvian embassy in Brussels, where the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is (reportedly) planning to start restoration work in the near future.

In many (but far from all cases, cf. the examples just quoted) the relative mood can be rendered in English by 'is said to' (or 'reportedly'), in Norwegian by 'skal være' (or 'angivelig'), in Swedish by 'lär vara' e.g. **vīns esot slims** he is said to be ill / **han skal være syk** / **han lär vara sjuk**. See also examples above.

In Slavic the relative mood of Baltic has a kind of parallel in the Bulgarian renarrated mood (formally equally expressed through an active participle) as well as the so-called **Referatkonjunktiv** in German (type: Hans sagt, dass er krank sei). The relative mood is also encountered in Balto-Finnic languages (Estonian).
VOICE
(Darbības vārda kārta)

Latvian distinguishes between the active and the passive. This voice section will deal with both the morphology and use of voice with special emphasis on the passive.

Definitions

From a semantic point of view, a passive construction can be defined as an utterance in which the grammatical subject refers to the patient (literally 'the suffering'), i.e. the one against whom the action is directed. For example, in 'I was bullied (by him)', in contrast to an active, where the grammatical subject ('he') refers to the agent, i.e. the performer of the action: 'he bullied me'. (An alternative is to define the passive in positive terms and the active in negative by stating that all constructions which are not passive, are active.)

In the active sentence quoted above, the agent is expressed by the grammatical subject he, the patient by the object me. In the passive it is the other way around: the patient is expressed by the subject I whereas the (optional) agent is reflected in the complement by him.

The examples just quoted demonstrate that in English the verb is morphologically different in the active voice than in the passive. The same is also the case in Latvian.

Morphology of the Active Voice

The morphological make-up of active verb forms has been illustrated on pp. 85-114 above.

Use of the Active Voice

The active voice is encountered far more frequently than the passive, and it must be used when the conditions for using a passive construction are not present, cf. p. 139 f. below.
Morphology of the Passive Voice

1. Expression of the Passive Voice in Latvian

   A. The Indicative

   For expression of the passive voice, Latvian has at its disposal two auxiliaries: tikt (or more rarely tapt or klūt) to become and būt to be, which are combined with the t-participle of the main verb (for the formation of this participle, see p. 155). This formational strategy will be referred to as the formal passive.

   To some extent, the formal passive in Latvian can also be expressed through reflexive verbs (as is true in the Nordic, Slavic and Romance languages); see p. 141 f.

   As in the active, in the passive six tenses are distinguished, namely, the present, the past, the future, the present perfect, the past perfect and the future perfect. The tikt (or tapt/klūt) auxiliary is used to form the the first three, whereas būt is reserved for the perfect tenses.

   We will avoid using the terms “simple” vs. “compound” forms (tenses) in connection with the passive, since all forms must necessarily be compound. Other grammars of Latvian, however, often use these terms with the present, past and future referred to as simple forms, and the present, past and future perfect as compound. The full forms of the present, past and future perfect would be esmu/biju/būšu tīcis/tikusi mazgāts/mazgāta / esam/bijām/būsim tikuši/tikušas mazgāti/mazgātas. The forms tīcis/tikusi/tikuši/ti-kušas, however, are as a rule omitted (deleted). The (underlying) fuller forms in practice are the reason for considering the forms of the present, past and future perfect (more) compound than the forms of the present, past and future.

   The distributional criteria for tikt and būt as auxiliaries in the passive have now been given. There remains, however, one more parameter to be considered (besides that between “simple” and “compound”), namely that between passive participles with a verbal function, and passive participles which function as adjectives. In the former case tikt is used, in the latter būt; for example, kareivis tiek ievainots the soldier is (being) wounded vs. kareivis ir ievainots the soldier is wounded. What we see here is an opposition of action (so-called “Handlungspassiv”) vs. state (= “Zustandspassiv”).

   The Latvian passive reminds one of the German and the Nordic passive, in that two auxiliaries (with the meanings “become” vs. “be”) are used in combination with the past passive participle, cf. German wird gewaschen vs. ist gewaschen, Norwegian bli vasket vs. være vasket, and further in the possibility of deletion of the werden / bli auxiliary in the present, past and future perfect; e.g., German ist gewaschen (worden), Norwegian er (blitt) vasket. In German and the Nordic languages an opposition between “Handlungs-” and “Zustandspassiv” is also present.
Sample of a passive paradigm in the indicative mood:

**Infinitive:** tik/tűt mazgātam (note: dative!) **to be washed**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG 1 tieku mazgāts</td>
<td>tiku mazgāts</td>
<td>tikšu mazgāts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am being washed</td>
<td>I was being washed</td>
<td>I am going to be washed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 tiec mazgāts</td>
<td>tiki mazgāts</td>
<td>tiksi mazgāts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 tiek mazgāts</td>
<td>tika mazgāts</td>
<td>tiks mazgāts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL 1 tiekam mazgāti</td>
<td>tikām mazgāti</td>
<td>tiksīm mazgāti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 tiekat mazgāti</td>
<td>tikāt mazgāti</td>
<td>tiksit mazgāti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 tiek mazgāti</td>
<td>tika mazgāti</td>
<td>tiks mazgāti</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect</th>
<th>Past Perfect</th>
<th>Future Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG 1 esmu mazgāts</td>
<td>biju mazgāts</td>
<td>büšu mazgāts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been washed</td>
<td>I had been washed</td>
<td>I will have been washed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 esi mazgāts</td>
<td>biji mazgāts</td>
<td>büši mazgāts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ir mazgāts</td>
<td>bija mazgāts</td>
<td>büš mazgāts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL 1 esam mazgāti</td>
<td>bijām mazgāti</td>
<td>büšim mazgāti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 esat mazgāti</td>
<td>bijāt mazgāti</td>
<td>büši(e)t mazgāti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ir mazgāti</td>
<td>bija mazgāti</td>
<td>büš mazgāti</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the sake of convenience, the participle is given only in the masculine (sg. and pl.) in the table above. The complete paradigm reads: tieku/tiku/tikšu/esmu/biju/büšu mazgāts (masc.) / mazgāta (fem.) etc., tiekam/tikām/tiksīm mazgāti (masc.) / mazgātas (fem.) etc.

The reason for the appearance of the participle in the dative case in the infinitive is to be found in the section on syntax, p. 146.

For the choice of aspect, i.e. the prefixed (perfective) form of the participle vs. the unprefixsed (imperfective) form, see the general principles set forth in the section on Aspect (and Tense), p. 115 ff.

**B. Other Moods than the Indicative (Marked Moods)**

Beyond in the indicative mood, the passive can also be expressed in the subjunctive, the relative, the imperative (rarely) and (extremely rarely) the debitive.
Examples of paradigms of the subjunctive and relative passive

The same formational principle which was demonstrated in connection with the indicative passive is encountered here as well, namely the combination of the auxiliaries tiktu/būtu (in the proper form) with the t-participle in the masculine/feminine, singular/plural, as appropriate.

### The Subjunctive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG 1</strong></td>
<td>mazgāts/-ta</td>
<td>mazgāts/-ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>tiktu</td>
<td>būtu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL 1</strong></td>
<td>mazgāti/-tas</td>
<td>mazgāti/-tas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As in the active voice, two tenses of the subjunctive are distinguished in the passive. For the forms of the auxiliaries tiktu and būtu which are the same in all three persons and both numbers, see section on (the formation of) the subjunctive, p. 125.

### The Relative Mood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG 1</strong></td>
<td>mazgāts/-ta</td>
<td>mazgāts/-ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>tiekot</td>
<td>tikšot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL 1</strong></td>
<td>mazgāti/-tas</td>
<td>mazgāti/-tas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Past (Present Perfect)  Future Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG 1</strong></td>
<td>mazgāts/-ta</td>
<td>mazgāts/-ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>esot</td>
<td>būšot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL 1</strong></td>
<td>mazgāti/-tas</td>
<td>mazgāti/-tas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is seen in the table above, the number of tenses in the relative passive is the same as in the relative active, namely four. In comparison
with the indicative system (both active and passive), the number of tenses with a time reference in the past have been reduced from three to one.

For the forms of the auxiliaries tiekot/tikšot and esot/būšot, see the section on formation of the relative mood, p. 131 and p. 148.

2. Expression of the Passive Voice in English

In the interest of a contrastive perspective, a couple of words should also be said about the formation of the passive in English.

In English the passive voice is expressed through the combination of one auxiliary (be) with one participle (i.e. the past passive participle, see the English translations in the above paradigms.

The Romance languages and (most of) the Slavic also have a passive morphology of the same type as English.

The morphological make-up of the German and the Nordic passive has already been dealt with on p. 136.

Motivations for choosing Passive Constructions. General Considerations

Generally speaking, there are two important motivations for choosing a passive construction over an active:

1. Passive constructions have a different functional sentence perspective (FSP) than the corresponding active, called "theme-rheme" structure.

2. Passive constructions admit deletion (omission) of the agent.

1. Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP)

The following two sentences have differing functional sentence perspectives:

(1) The workmen are building a house
(2) The house is being built by workmen

In (1) 'the workmen' belongs to the theme (i.e. is part of the given information) whereas 'a house' is rhematic (i.e. brings new information). In (2) the situation is the reverse: 'the house' is thematic, 'workmen' rhematic.

In context-bound, non-emphatic sentences, the theme appears at the beginning of the utterance, the rheme at the end. This theme-before-rheme order should be considered as a general rule. Furthermore, in
article languages (English, Nordic, Romance) a thematic noun will appear with a definite article whereas a rhematic noun is usually accompanied by an indefinite article. In non-article languages (such as Latvian), the criterion for recognition of the theme is in fact its initial position; see p. 221. The same is observed in English with proper names, cf. Peter (thematic) beat Paul (thematic) vs. Paul (thematic) was beaten by Peter (rhematic).

2. Agent Deletion
Agent deletion occurs under the following circumstances:

a) when the agent is self-evident, of little relevance or difficult to express; for example, ‘the glue should be applied carefully’ (by whom? the owner/purchaser / user of the tube?); ‘a person who has committed a crime, will be sentenced to x days in prison’ (by the judge/court/community/state?),

b) when the agent is avoided on purpose (so-called “agent-hiding”): ‘Major heavily attacked yesterday’ (by one MP / a few MPs / the entire Opposition / all MPs?).

In such cases, languages with an active:passive opposition (Latvian, English etc.) will use a passive (or passive-equivalent) construction; see below.

The Equivalents of English Passives in Latvian

Constructions with an Agent
The previously mentioned active sentence the workmen are building a house (with the word order subject-verb-object, or SVO) could be translated into Lithuanian by an equally active SVO construction: Darbinieki cel māju.

The passive SVO-sentence ‘the house is being built by workmen’ should be expected to be rendered by the passive SVO construction *māja tiek celta darbinieku / darbinieku celta. However, formally passive sentences with an explicitly expressed agent are extremely rare in Latvian, and should be avoided. A formally active sentence with the word order object-verb-subject (OVS) is used instead: māju cel darbinieki (an exception to this rule is noun phrases, cf. pp. 169 and 227. The sentence māju cel darbinieki has the same theme-rheme structure as the English passive sentence ‘the house is being built by workmen’. The same holds true for Pavilu sita Pēteris in relation to Paul was beaten by Peter.

OVS-structures are far more common in case languages than in caseless ones, since in the former sentence members in initial position are
identified as either object or subject by virtue of their grammatical form, while in the latter where the initial position is earmarked for the function of the subject, both in active and passive sentences.

Constructions without an Agent

As mentioned above, agentless passive sentences in English can be translated by formally passive constructions in Latvian. Thus, the sentence ‘he is bullied every day’ corresponds to Latvian viņš tiek apcelts katru dienu (where the participle agrees in gender, number and case [nominative] with the subject viņš). However, it is also possible to use a formally active one-part sentence (cf. p. 205 ff.) with the structure OV: viņu apceļ katru dienu with a formally active OV-structure. Both solutions have the patient (viņš/viņu) in the thematic initial position.

Verb in the 3rd Person Active without an explicitly expressed Subject

A quite analogous example is biļetes tiek pārdotas kasē tickets are (being) sold at the cashier’s desk, i.e. a formally passive construction which can be replaced by the isofunctional active solution biļetes pārdod kasē. In the latter case the 3rd p. of the verb is used without an explicitly expressed subject, corresponding to man-sentences in German or Nordic (cf. German man verkauft Karten in der Kasse) or to a formally passive construction: Karten werden in der Kasse verkauft, tickets are sold in the cash-box.

Constructions of the Type ‘it is/was confirmed that [...]’

The standard way of rendering such cases in Latvian is to use the above mentioned construction, i.e. 3rd p. active of the verb without a subject: apstiprināja, ka [...] it was confirmed that [...]. A parallel example is: šo jautājumu apspriež (or: šis jautājums tiek apspriests) this issue is being discussed.

Reflexive Passives

As mentioned above (p. 136), Latvian admits formal reflexive passives, but only within considerable constraints. Thus, reflexive passives are not used where the role of an agent is important, e.g. in *biļetes pārdodas kasē or *plāns izpildās veiksmīgi. This use of the reflexive in the function of a passive is felt to be a “Russianism” and is avoided. In the former example one would have to choose one of the two constructions mentioned above (i.e. biļetes tiek pārdotas kasē or biļetes pārdod kasē). The same holds true for the latter, i.e. plāns tiek izpildīts veiksmīgi or plānu izpilda veiksmīgi (‘the plan is carried out successfully’).
The reflexive passive construction is possible in cases such as grāmatas glabājas bibliotēkā books are kept in the library and nazīs pilnīgi nolietojies the knife is totally worn out (both cases quoted from Ceplēte & Ceplītis 1991).

**Formal Passives with Intransitive Verbs**

In a caseless language like English, passive participles are formed from transitive verbs, i.e. verbs with an object. In case languages the formation of passive participles is as a rule equally limited to transitive verbs, but the definition of transitivity is different, since here transitive verbs are understood to be verbs with an object in the accusative case. A peculiarity of Latvian, however, is that formally “passive” constructions are also possible with intransitive verbs.

Thus, “passive” constructions of this type are frequently encountered in Latvian. They must be in the form of a one-part impersonal sentence (cf. p. 206) with the participle in the (unmarked) masculine (singular) form (see p. 40). A much quoted example in grammars of Latvian is diezgan jau ir staigāts lit. it has been walked quite a lot already. A parallel example would be visu nakti bija dejots, lit. it was danced all night long. Note the correspondence with English constructions with a formal (semantically empty subject) it.

These were examples of intransitive (or intransitively used) verbs. A verb such as threaten is transitive in English. Its Latvian correspondence draudēt is intransitive, since it requires a dative, not accusative, object. To translate a sentence like he was threatened into Latvian, one would prefer to say viņam draudēja, i.e. use a formally active construction with the verb in the 3rd p. and no subject.
REFLEXIVE AND NON-REFLEXIVE VERBS

(Atgriezeniskie und tiešie darbības vārdi)

In this section the functions and meanings of the reflexive verbs in contrast with non-reflexive verbs will be described. For the formal expression of reflexives and non-reflexives, see pp. 85-114 above.

The reflexive verbs of Latvian show a variety of functions.

1. In the first place there is a small group of reflexiva tantum, i. e. reflexives without any non-reflexive counterpart, like, for example, brinīties wonder, be surprised, dusmoties be angry, atcerēties remember, ilgoties long (for), kavēties be delayed, pateikties kādam (dat.) thank sby, rotalāties play, spēlēties ar lēlēm play with dolls (vs. spēlēt futbolu, mūzikas instrumentu play football/an instrument), smieties laugh (vs. non-reflexive smaidīt smile!), steigties hurry, censties endeavour, try.

2. All remaining reflexives (prefixed and non-prefixed) have non-reflexive (transitive) counterparts:

   a) the reflexives proper, i. e. cases like celties rise, get up (after sleep) : celt ko (acc.) lift, raise sby / sth., mazgāties wash oneself : mazgāt ko (acc.) wash sby / sth. ģerbties dress oneself : ģerbt ko (acc.) dress sby / sth., skūties shave oneself : skūt ko shave sby, gativoties prepare oneself : gatavot ko (acc.) prepare sth., sauloties sun-bathe, macities study (learn oneself) : macit kādam (dat.) ko (acc.) teach sby sth. Here can also be mentioned cases like baidīties fear, be afraid, nobīties get frightened vs. baidīt ko (acc.) frighten sby.

   Note: In certain cases a reflexive verb can be combined with an accusative object, e. g. pirkties ko by oneself sth. As is seen from this example, however, the reflexive indicates that the action is taking place within the subject’s own sphere of interest. Moreover, in a non-reflexive situation aative (of the addressee, cf. p. 177) would have taken the place of the reflexive: pirkt ko draugam buy sth. to a friend.

   b) the passive reflexives. Here belong cases like those mentioned in the section on voice (p. 141 above), e. g. glabāties be kept/preserved. Between such verbs and the reflexives in a) are cases of the type atvērties open / be opened vs. the transitive atvērt, slēgties close, be closed vs. the transitive slēgt close, apstātītes stop vs. the transitive apstādināt stop, sākties begin, start : sākt ko (acc.) start sth., turpināties continue : turpināt ko (acc.) continue sth., beigties stop / finish : beigt ko (acc.) stop/finish sth.

Illustrations:

   durvis slēdzas doors close : viņš slēdz durvis he is closing the doors, automašīna apstājās the car stopped : policists apstādināja
automašinu the policeman stopped the car, stunda sakās (turpinājās, beidzās) the lesson started (continued, finished): skolotājs sāka (turpināja, beidza) stundu the teacher started (continued, finished) the lesson.

c) this group is constituted by reciprocal verbs. Some examples: iepazīties become acquainted: iepazīstināt ko ar ko make sby acquainted with sby, satikties/sastapties meet (each other / one another): satikt/sastapt ko meet sby, redzēties see (each other / one another): redzēt ko (acc.) see sby / sth., sarakstīties (ar kādu) to correspond (with sby), sarunāties (ar kādu) talk/speak (with sby), skupstīties kiss: skupstīt ko kiss sby, kauties fight (each other / one another).

d) impersonal (for definition, see p. 206) reflexives: man liekas I think / it seems to me, man gribas I wish. Kā Jums klājas? How are you getting along?
THE NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB

As mentioned on p. 81, the non-finite forms of the verb are the infinitive, the gerunds and participles and the verbal noun.

I The Infinitive
(Nenoteiksme)

Formal Characteristics
A. Active
The infinitive is formed from the infinitive stem with the infinitive marker -t, or -ties for the relative verbs: runāt to speak, dzīvot to live, zimēt to draw, lasīt to read, nākt to come, iet to go, sarakstīties to correspond, celties to rise, get up (from the bed), smieties to laugh.

With 1st conjugational verbs with roots ending in -t or -d, the infinitive is in -st (according to p. 27), e.g. sist (root sit-) to beat, vest (root ved-) to lead.

The infinitive is not declined.

It can appear both in imperfective and perfective forms, e.g. darīt: padarīt do.

B. Passive
The passive infinitive is normally given in the form of the passive t-participle (see p. 155) preceded by the infinitive būt to be or tikt to become, e.g. būt apceļtam to be mobbed (be made fun of), cf. below.

Syntax
The Latvian infinitive can be 1) grammatically independent or 2) dependent, cf. p. 207.

1) is found in the dative + infinitive construction, which can be used in (modal) questions (both direct and indirect):
Ko mums (pa)darīt? What can we do? (lit. what for us to do?); Viņa jautāja, ko viņai (pa)darīt She asked what she should do.

2) is found after various types of finite verbs:
a) phasal verbs, i.e. verbs with the meaning of beginning, continuation and stopping: viņš sāka/turpināja/beidza dziedāt he began/continued/stopped singing.
b) certain auxiliary modal verbs like varēt be able, vēlēt wish,
c) a good number of other verbs; for example, solīt promise, pa-tikļt like, mēģināt try, censties endeavour, try, gatavoties prepare: viņi
soliļa atbrauktu šodien they promised to come today, man patīk runāt latviski I like to speak Latvian.

The infinitive can also be used after certain “adjectival adverbs”, such as: grūti difficult, viegli easy, žēl sad, e.g. man grūti runāt latviski it is difficult for me to speak Latvian, man žēl šo dzirdēt I feel sad to hear this.

Note that the English construction in order to + infinitive is not rendered with an infinitival construction in Latvian, only with lai + the subjunctive, see p. 127 f.

The participle component of the passive infinitive is in the dative case if a logical subject in the dative case is referred to. The same holds true for general statements (with omission of the dative subject).

Examples:
Skolniekiem nav labi būt aptelīm
It is not good for schoolchildren to be mobbed (made fun of);
Nav labi būt aptelīm
It is not good (for anyone) to be mobbed.

With reference to a nominative subject, i.e. grammatical subject, however, the participle must also appear in the nominative case, e.g.
Skolnieki negrib būt aptelti
Schoolchildren don’t like to be mobbed.
The rules for the choice of aspect are the same as with finite forms, cf. p. 115 ff.

II Gerunds and Participles
(Nelokamie un lokamie divdabji)

Latvian has a rich inventory of gerunds and participles. In tabular form the system can be presented in the following way:
1 a) Indeclinable gerunds:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voice / Stem</th>
<th>Present stem</th>
<th>Infinitive stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>-ot</td>
<td>-šot(^1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Vm(^2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) although derived from the infinitive stem this gerund has a future reference (cf. below; it will be recalled, see p. 82, that also finite future tense forms are derived from the infinitive stem). Observe that reflexive forms are not included in the table, and that the indeclinable gerunds are all active in meaning.

\(^2\) V symbolizes a vowel (-a- or -ā-, depending upon the class)
b) Partly declinable gerunds:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voice / Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive stem</th>
<th>Past stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>-dam-s/-dam-a/-dam-i/-dam-as(^1)</td>
<td>-is/-usi/-uši/-ušas(^1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Reflexive forms are not included in the table.

2) The participles form a symmetrical system with the following inventory:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voice / Stem</th>
<th>Present stem</th>
<th>Past stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>-oš-</td>
<td>-us/-uš-(^1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>-m-</td>
<td>-t-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) The masc. sg. nom. ends in -is. In the active voice reflexive forms can also be encountered. Such forms are not included in the table above.

By virtue of their functions, the indeclinable and partly declinable participles may be labeled gerunds.

1. THE GERUNDS

As mentioned above (p. 146), two indeclinable gerunds are discerned, namely:

a) the gerund in -Vm, refl. -Vmies,
b) the gerund ending in -ot, reflexive -oties

There exists also a third indeclinable gerund with the -šot/-šoties ending, which is often omitted in grammars of Latvian because its use is very specialized (see p. 150).

Formation

A. Indeclinable Gerunds

a) The gerund ending in -Vm, refl. -Vmies is formed from the stem of the present tense (cf. p. 76) where V = ā with the -it(ies) and -ināt(ies) verbs of the IIfrd (mixed) conjugation and = a with all others.

Examples:
runāj-u → runāj-am (: runāt speak), glāb-u → glāb-jam (: glābt save, rescue), gatavoj-os → gatavoj-amies (: gatavoties prepare oneself), māc-u → māc-ām (: mācit teach), māc-os → māc-amies (mācities learn, study)
b) The -ot, refl.-oties gerund is in accordance with the table given on p. 76, formed on the basis of the present tense stem.

Examples:
runāj-u → runāj-ot (: runāt speak), glābj-u → glābj-ot (: glābt save, rescue), gatavoj-os → gatavoj-oties (gatavoties prepare oneself).

Historically the gerund ending in -ot/-oties reflects a petrified form (derived from the dative case of the masc. sg.) of the present active participle, whereas the gerund ending in -Vm/-vmites represents a petrified form (originating in the accusative sg.) of the present participle, which is likely to have been originally indifferent with respect to voice.

c) The above-mentioned gerund ending in -šot/-šoties is in fact – as indicated by the š-formative – a future tense gerund. Accordingly, it is formed on the basis of the infinitive stem.

Examples:
stāvē-t → stāvē-šot (: stāvēt stand), bū-t → bū-šot (: būt be);
beig-t → beig-šoties (: beigties end).

B. Partly Declinable Gerunds

Here it is customary to include only the -dam-formation. However, it appears practical also to add an -us-formation, which can have gerundival function.

Thus, two formations are arrived at, namely

a) the dam-gerund,
b) the us/uš-gerund

a) The dam-gerund is formed from the infinitive stem (cf. p. 82). It is declined in gender and number as an adjective, e.g. from lasīt read the forms lasī-dams (masc. sg.), lasī-dama (fem. sg.), lasī-dami (masc. pl.), lasī-damas (fem. pl.) are obtained.

Reflexive forms end in -damies for the masc. sg., in -damās for the fem. sg., in -damies for the masc. pl. and -damās for the fem. pl., cf., for example, cel-damies, cel-dama, cel-damies, cel-damās (: celties rise, get up).

Note: With infinitives ending in -st (cf. p. 27), the -s- is written -z- before -dam- if the original consonant (which is preserved in the past tense) is -t or -d, e.g. siz-dam- (: preterite sit-, inf. sist to beat), atraz-dam- (: preterite atrad-, inf. atrastr to find). If the original consonant is -s, an -s- is written, cf., for example nes-dam (but according
to the voicing rule (p. 26), of course, spoken as -z-) due to the preterite nes- (= inf. nest carry).

b) The -ust- uš- gerund is – as illustrated in the table on p. 82 – formed on the basis of the past stem. Like the dam-gerund, it is declined in gender and number. Thus, the following forms are encountered: -usi for the fem.sg., -ušas for the fem. pl., -uši for the masc. pl. The masc. sg. has a deviating form, -is. The corresponding reflexive forms are: -usies, -ušás, -ušies and -ies. For further comments on the morphological make-up of these forms, see under the past active participle, p. 153 f.

A concrete example is the verb atnākt come, arrive: atnācis (masc. sg.), atnākusi (fem. sg.), atnākuši (masc. pl.), atnākušās (fem. pl.). This verb has been chosen for illustration for two reasons: first, it shows the alternation between c and k with stems ending in k (paralleled by that of dz and g with g-stems, e.g. no/beidzis vs. no/beigusi : no/beigt finish), second, because of the tendency (NB not absolute rule!) to form partly declinable past stem gerunds from perfective verbs (cf. section on aspect, p. 115 ff.), while those from the present stem are formed from imperfective verbs (cf. the imperfective lāsīt above). This opposition is utilized in a tense-aspect perspective (see under next point).

Syntax and Semantics of the Gerunds

The meaning of the gerunds is illustrated through their English translations in examples under points A and B below.

The -am(ies)-gerund expresses simultaneity with the action (state) described by the finite verb. 

The -šot(ies)-gerund refers to an event taking place in the future. From the functional point of view, these gerunds (with dependent members) are equivalent to adverbial clauses (most frequently time clauses).

The -ot(ies)-gerund is neutral with respect to the parameters simultaneousness and anteriority and can cover both meanings.

The -dam(ies) gerund (usually in imperfective, i. e. unprefixed form) expresses actions which occur simultaneously with those of the verb in the main clause, while the -us/-uš-formation (usually in perfective, i. e. prefixed form) denotes an action which is not simultaneous, but anterior to that of the verb in the main clause. To express an action which is posterior to the action expressed by the verb in the main clause, the alternative construction with a subordinate clause must be used.
A. Indeclinable Gerunds

a) -Vm, refl. -Vmies:
This gerund is used with an accompanying accusative object after verbs of perception (verba sentiendi) and similar:

Dzirdēju Almu atbraucam uz Stokholmu
I have heard that Alma has come to Stockholm (lit. I (have) heard Alma coming to Stockholm).

The construction is parallel to the one indicated in the word-for-word translation into English. In Old Latvian, the participle was declinable and occurred in the accusative case in the construction in question, since syntactically it occupied the function of an apposition (cf. p. 202) which was in agreement with the object (Almu in the above example). The construction corresponds to the so-called “accusativos cum infinitivo”-construction in Latin, German, Nordic and certain other languages: audīvi eum venire, Ich hörte ihn kommen, Norwegian jeg hørte ham komme, expressed in English by I heard him coming.

Note! the -Vm(ies)-gerund cannot be replaced by the -oš-participle (on which see below), but a subordinate ka-clause (ihat-clause) can be used instead:

Dzirdēju, ka Alma esot atbraukusi uz Stokholmu
I have heard that Alma has come to Stockholm

b) -šot, refl. -šoties
This gerund seems to be restricted to the relative mood, cf. example on p. 132.

c) -ot, refl. -oties
The function (so-called “absolute function”) of this gerund is to replace adverbial clauses (see p. 211 ff.) if the grammatical subject of the adverbial and the main clauses are not identical/not co-referential (contrast with B below). The logical subject of the participle construction (clause) is in the dative case, e.g.

Tuvojoties dienesta laikam, Grīnis (viņš) atgriezās Latvijā
(quoted from A. Eiche 1983)
When the time for military service drew nearer, Grīnis (he) returned to Latvia.

From a diachronic perspective, both the noun (or the pronoun) and the gerund (which represents a petrified participle form) will have been in the dative case. Such a construction, labeled “the absolute dative” or “double dative” construction, is found also in Lithuanian and has a parallel in Slavic. In other Indo European languages cases other than the dative may be used to form gerundival clauses functionally equivalent to sub-
ordinate clauses. Thus, in Latin the (double) ablative is used, in Greek the (double) genitive and in Sanskrit the (double) locative.

The participle construction can be replaced by a subordinate clause with a finite verb:

**Kad dienesta laiks tuvojās, Grēnis [...]**

If the dative aspect is absent, a general meaning ("one") is assumed:

**Vertējot konstrukcijas ar datīvu, vajadzētu ķemt vērā vismaz divus faktus**

When evaluating constructions with the dative, one has to consider at least two facts (... at least two facts have to be considered).

Outside this "absolute" function, the -ot(ies)-gerund can alternate with the dam(ies)-gerund, on which see below. Observe that these gerunds – irrespective of aspect – always express simultaneity (not anteriority or posteriority), in relation to the finite verb of the main clause, as illustrated by the following example with a perfective (cf. p. 115 f.) gerund: **Jānim uzrakstot vēstuli, Sarma atnāca** which cannot be translated as *when John had written (had finished writing) the letter, Sarma came*, but only as *when John was finishing writing the letter, Sarma came*. Thus, Latvian has a gap in the system on this point. In order to translate *when John had written the letter, Sarma came*, a subordinate clause must be used:

**Kad Jānis norakstija vēstuli, Sarma atnāca.**

**B. Partly Declinable Gerunds**

The partly declinable gerunds can replace adverbial clauses, the grammatical subject of which is identical to (co-referential with) that of the main clause. Thus, the -dam(ies)-gerund is used to express simultaneity with the action of the verb in the main clause, whereas the -us(ies)-gerund is used to denote an action which is anterior to that of the verb in the main clause. In order to express posteriority the alternative construction with a subordinate clause of time must be chosen. Thus, the relationship between these two gerunds is one of complementary distribution.

This is in contrast to the indeclinable -ot(ies) gerund in function A 3 above, which has no counterpart to express [non-simultaneity].

Examples:

-dam-:

**Gerda nopietni skatijās, mēginādama saprast** (quoted from A. Eiche 1983)

*Gerda looked at him seriously, trying to understand*
As mentioned on p. 151 the -dam-gerund can be replaced by the
-oτ-gerund (provided that the logical subjects of both the participle
construction and the main clause are identical, as in the above case):

Gerda nopietni skatijas, mēginot saprast.

-us/-uš-:
Aizgājusi mājās, Edīte pārvilka sausas drēbes (quoted from A.
Eiche 1983)
When Edīte came home, she changed into dry clothes.

2. THE PARTICIPLES

The inventory of Latvian participles has been given in the table on
p. 147. As shown in this table, there are two active (present and past) and
two passive (also present and past) participles. Only the formatives of
these participles are indicated in the table.

Formation

A. Active Participles

a) The present participle

This participle (see the table on p. 82) is formed on the basis of the
present stem by adding the formative -oš-. The declension is that of an
adjective (cf. p. 57 f.). As in the case of adjectives both short (inde-
finite) and long (definite) forms are distinguished:

Paradigm from ziedoš- blossoming (: ziedēt to blossom):

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Short forms</th>
<th>Long forms</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>masculine</td>
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<td><strong>SG N</strong></td>
<td>zied-oš-s</td>
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<td>G</td>
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<td>L</td>
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</table>
Vocative forms are used only with the long forms. The formational rules are the same as those given under the adjective (p. 62, point 5). For the rules for deriving long forms from the corresponding short, see p. 59.

Reflexive forms of the present active participle seem to be rare. The paradigm is defective. Only the following forms are encountered:

**SINGULAR**

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**PLURAL**

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<td>A</td>
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</table>

The rules for deriving reflexive forms from the corresponding non-reflexive are given on p. 86 above. Note that reflexive forms can be constructed only from short forms, not long.

The -oš- participle of Latvian reflects *-ont-j-* (cf. pp. 25 and 32) and is thus cognate with with the -nt-participles in other IE languages (Slavic, Germanic, Latin, Romance, Greek and so on).

**b) The past participle**

This participle is formed on the basis of the preterite stem (cf. p. 82) by adding the ending -is for the masc. nom. sg., and the formative -us/-ā- + adjectival endings for the remaining forms of the paradigm:

**Paradigm from pieaugt to grow up**

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<th>Short forms</th>
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**Comments on the paradigm:**

Observe that the ending -is of the masc. sg. triggers the \( k > c \) (e.g. plaucis (: plaukt blossom) vs. nom. fem. sg. plauk-us-i) and \( g > dz \) shift (cf. p. 25). Note further that the nom. sg. masc. long form is based not on the deviating form of the nom. masc. sg., but on the normalized (generalized) formative -uš- + the common ending -ais. It should also be observed that the fem. sg. has the formative -us- (not -uš-), accompanied by an unusual ending -i (also found in certain pronouns) in the nom. The corresponding long form ends in -us-ī or normalized -uš-ā. The rules for deriving long forms from short forms are given on p. 59.

In older writings (Blaumanis and others) forms ending in -use in the fem. sg. are encountered, e.g. snieguse, bijuse, piegājuse, darįjuse, refl. apdomājusės.

The reflexive paradigm (restricted to short forms only) is defective, with (roughly) the same cases missing as with the present active participle, cf. p. 153.

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The forms are easily deductible from the model presented under the present active participle.

This participle has also cognates in other IE languages (Slavic etc.). The -is (= -ės in Lithuanian, cf. pp. 32 and 35) of the masc. sg., however, lacks evident parallels outside Baltic and may be the result of an internal arrangement within this branch. The -š in -uš- originates from *s+j. The s is preserved in the nom. sg. fem. The paradigm of the fem. reflects an old *iijā-declension (subtype of the ā-declension) whereas the masc. paradigm represents the *-jos-type. Both are well attested in IE languages.
B. Passive Participles

a) The present participle:
This participle (see the table p. 82) is formed from the present tense stem with the formative suffix -ām- (for IIIrd conjugational verbs in -īt and -ināt), or -am- for all others + the adjectival endings, as in the case of the active participles dealt with above.
Here again both short and long forms are distinguished.

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<td>SG N</td>
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b) The past participle:
The basis for the formation of this participle is the infinitive stem (cf. p. 82). The formative suffix is -t-, to which are added adjectival endings. Both short and long forms are distinguished.

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Syntax

Participle forms used in *adverbial function(s)* have been treated as gerunds. Thus, this function has already been described (p. 150 ff.). Participle forms are further used as *parts of the verbal predicate* in compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive active and passive. For these functions, see pp. 112 ff., 120 ff., 126 and 137 f.

We are then left with two functions of the participles, namely 1) the *attributive* and – its close cognate – (2) the *appositive*, which coincide with functions also found under the adjective, cf. pp. 57 and 60 above. Like the adjective, the participle agrees with the head noun in gender, number and case. All fully declinable participles – both active and passive – are used in these functions.

A. Active Participles

a) *Attributive function*

Examples:

-ōss:

Es iedomājos Solvītu [...] briēnam pa ziedošu pļavu [...] (quoted from A. Eiche 1983)

*I imagined Solvīta [...] wading through a flowering meadow[...]*

-is (-us/-uš-):

Vajadzēs [...] iet uz pirti nomazgāt sasvīdušo seju [...] (quoted from A. Eiche 1983)

*She will have [...] to go to the bath-house to wash her sweaty face*

In both examples there is *agreement in gender, number and case between the participle modifier* (i.e. *ziedošu* and *sasvīdušo* respectively) and the *head noun* (*pļavu* and *seju*)

b) *Appositive function*

An apposition (p. 202) is close in function to the attribute. In this function, too, full agreement (i.e. in gender, number and case) between the participle and the governing noun has to be observed. The apposition is separated from the head noun through a pause in speech or a comma or dash in written texts, cf. examples below.

Examples:

-ōss:

Nāk tramvajs – zils un spīdošs kā zviņaina lidaka (quoted from A. Eiche 1983) *here comes a tram – blue and shining like a scaly pike*
-is (-us/-uš-):
To vakaru viņi ilgi nosēdēja salauzti, izmisuši
(quoted from A. Eiche 1983)
That evening they sat for a long while, broken with despair

B. Passive Participles
In the same way as with the attributively and appositively used active participles, agreement with respect to gender, number and case between the participle modifier and the head noun must be observed.

a) Attributive function
Examples:
-Vm-:
Dzilnu pārņēma [...] neciešama sajūta [...] (quoted from A. Eiche 1983)
Dzilna was overwhelmed [...] by an insufferable feeling
-t-:
Senāk pat bija pircis vācu ilustrētos žurnālus [...] (quoted from A. Eiche 1983)
Formerly he had even bought German illustrated magazines
Note that the -Vm-participle denotes either possibility (e. g. dzeramais ūdens potable water) or necessity (e. g. mazgajāmi šķīvji plates to be washed). Purely passive meanings are rare in contemporary Latvian.

b) Appositive function
-Vm-:
Akā bija ūdens, dzeramais and garšīgs
In the well there was water, potable and tasty
-t-:
Bet kūvite kliedz par šo pašu vienīgo (= ligzdu), izpostīto
(quoted from A. Eiche 1983)
But the peewit cries about the heron’s nest which has been des troyed;
Gaismas pievilkts, mušas riņķoja ap lampu Attracted by the light, the flies were circling around the lamp.
In the last example the apposition is pre-posited.

Concluding Remarks on Participles
Like the adjectives, the attributively and appositively used participles can be encountered in indefinite (short) or definite (long) form. Long forms of reflexives are avoided.
The distribution between perfective and imperfective participles follows the principles set forth in the section on aspect (p. 107 ff.).

**Participles in the Function of other Word Classes**

Participles in the function of substantives were exemplified on p. 59 (under adjectives). Furthermore, they can function as adverbs (p. 154 ff.), cf., for example, iznicinošī (: iznicināt to destroy) in the sentence 20. gadsimts uz liviem ir iedarbojies iznicinošī the 20th century has had a destructive effect on the Livonians.

### III. The Verbal Noun

The candidate par excellence for this function is the noun in -šana, refl. -šanās which can be formed on the basis of the infinitive of any verb in Latvian, e.g.

lasi-t to read → lasi-šana,
brauk-t to travel, go → brauk-šana
satik-ties to meet (each other) → satik-šanās etc.

Note that with infinitives ending in -st and -zt, the -s- and -z- are dropped before the -š- in -šana, e.g.

kris-t to fall → kri-šana,
bāz-t to thrust, shove → bā-šana.

The meaning of the nouns ending in -šana/-šanās is that of a no-
men actionis, i. e. (the act of) reading, travelling, meeting (each other), falling, shoving etc.

The -šana/-šanās nouns are declined according to the fourth declension (cf. p. 46). The paradigm of the reflexive noun is defective, in that dative and locative forms are lacking (cf. p. 50 f.). Plural reflexive forms are rare, but can be encountered.
THE VERB: WORD FORMATION

Suffixation

Common suffixes are: -ā (inf. -āt), -ē (inf. -ēt), -ī (inf. -īt), -o (inf. -ot) and -inā (inf. -ināt). In addition, there are also -alē (inf. -alēt), -elē (inf. -elēt) and a couple of other l-extensions.

With the help of the suffix -ināt transitive verbs with factitive (causative) meaning can be derived from intransitives, cf., for example augt grow (intrans.): audzināt grow, bring up, degt burn (intrans.): dedzināt burn (trans.), mosties (st < *d-t, cf. p. 27) wake (intrans.): modināt wake (trans.).

This suffix derives factitives not only from verbs, but also from adjectives and to some extent also from nouns: asināt sharpen (: ass sharp), mazināt reduce (: mazs small), stiprināt strengthen (: stips strong), mierināt comfort (: miers peace).

The suffixes -ā, -o, -ē and -ī were covered under the presentation of the conjugations. In the paragraph on predictability of conjugal class from the infinitive (p. 84) derivational mechanisms were also commented upon. It should be added that the suffixes -ā, -ī and -alē can have iterative meaning, e.g. braukāt (: braukt go, travel), skraidit/skraidelēt (: skriet run).

Prefixation. Verb Prefixes

Latvian distinguishes the following 11 verb prefixes: aiz-, ap-, at-, ie-, iz-, no, pa-, pār-, pie-, sa- and uz-. Out of these, 7 have corresponding prepositions (viz. aiz, ap, no, pa, pār, pie and uz).

With verbs of motion these prefixes obtain a perfectivizing function and correspond with adverbs + unprefixed verb in imperfective (ipf) function, cf. section on aspect, p. 115 ff.

Under the presentation of aspect, the double function of Latvian prefixes was mentioned (p. 118), namely 1) that of modifying the meaning of the corresponding unprefixed verb (as in English, German, Scandinavian etc.) and 2) that of forming perfective counterparts to imperfective simple verbs (without affecting the lexical meaning).

1. The prefix aiz- denotes a) away, off: aizbraukt drive off, aizzieta go away, aiznest carry away, aizslaucit sweep away, b) obstruction, coverage: aizaugt become overgrown, aizklāt cover over, aizslēgt lock, aizverēt close.
It corresponds with the adverbs pro(jā)m away and cieti firmly, e.g. aiziet (pf.) : iet pro(jā)m (ipf.) go away, aizvērt (pf.) : vērt cieti (ipf.) lock.

2. ap- means a) around: apiet go around (e.g. apiet ap birzi go around the grove), apjāt ride around, apstāt surround (zēni apstāja skolotāju the boys surrounded the teacher).

The corresponding adverb in imperfectivizing function is apkārt, cf. apskriet (pf.) : skriet apkārt (ipf.) run around;

3. at- has the following meanings: a) (motion) towards: atbraukt arrive, atnākt come, arrive, b) away (the opposite meaning of a) in some instances: atiet depart (e.g. autobuss/vilciens/kuģis atiet pulksten divpadsmitos the bus/train/ship departs at twelve o'clock), atņemt take away, atvadīties bid farewell, c) repetition: atkārtot repeat; d) returning to former state: atspirgt feel better.

It corresponds with the adverbs šurp here, hither (cf. atnākt pf. : nākt šurp ipf come here), nost away, off (cf. atraut pf. : raut nost ipf. tear away), atpakāļ back (cf. atdot pf. : dot atpakāļ give back, return) and valā open (untranslatable, cf. atslēgt valā unlock).

4. ie- corresponds to English in: ienākt come in (ienākt istabā come into the room, for the use of the locative, see p. 180), ieskriet run in, iebērt pour in, ieelpot inhale. Moreover, this prefix can signalize the beginning of an action: iemīgt fall asleep, iemīlēt become fond of. Finally, with some reflexive verbs it can designate a sudden action, e.g. iekliegties shout out, iesmieties burst out laughing.

Corresponding adverb: iekša inside (cf. iiet iekša go in).

5. iz- out (of) is very frequently the opposite of ie-. Examples: iznākt come out, izskriet run out, izbērt pour out. Further, opposite to ie-, it can denote the (full) completion of an action: izēst eat up (to the end), izsmēķēt smoke (to the end).

Corresponding adverb: ārā outside (e.g. skriet ārā run out).

6. no- in most cases correspond to English a) down: nokāpt climb down, nodegt burn down, but it can also mean b) off (noaut take off (shoes), nogriezt cut off, nolauzt break off and c) completion (nolietot wear out).

The most frequently corresponding adverb is nost away, off (e.g. nokāpt nost climb down).

7. pa- can have a (pure) perfectivizing sense (like the preceding no: padarīt do), but it can also denote an attenuating aktionsart (cf. p. 118), i.e. a little: pagulēt sleep a little/for a while, parunātīes chat a little/for a while. This preposition lacks corresponding adverb(s).

8. pār- has a variety of meanings. It frequently corresponds to a) over (in the meaning too much) : pāraugt overgrow, pārplūst overflow, pārstrādātīes overwork, pārlidot fly over, b) doing a sth. over again
(possibly in another way): pārrakstīt rewrite, pārģerbīties change one’s clothes, pārveidot reform, c) transformation: pārmainīt change, pārtulkot translate, d) through: pārdzīvot live through, pārziemot hibernate, e) movement homewards: pāriet go home, pārnākt come home, pārbraukt drive home, f) mis- (wrong): pārprast misunderstand, pārrakstīties make an error (in writing).

Corresponding adverbs are pāri over (e. g. lidot pāri fly over) and mājās home (e. g. iet mājās go home).

9. pie- expresses a) approaching (piebraukt drive up to, pieiet go up to; it is accompanied by the preposition pie, e.g. pienākt pie, cf. vilciens pienāca pie perrona the train came up to the platform), b) adding or putting together (piespraudst pie pin to, piešūt pie sew on, cf. piešūt mētelim pogas sew buttons on the coat (NB dative without preposition).

Corresponding adverb: klāt near (e. g. nākt klāt approach).

10. sa- denotes a) (motion) together, coalescence: saaugt grow together, sasaukt call together, b) collapse into pieces: sabirzt fall to pieces, sagriezt cut to pieces.

Corresponding adverb: kopā together (e. g. nest kopā carry together).

11. uz- often corresponds to English (up)on: uzsplaut spit up-(on), uzziest smear on (cf. uzziest sviestu uz maizes smear butter on the bread), uzgriezt switch on (electricity).

Corresponding adverb: augšā upstairs (celties augšā (no krēsła) get up (from a chair).
Chapter 7

THE ADVERB

(Apstākļa vārds)

The adverb is a rather heterogeneous word class. Except for possible degrees of comparison, the adverb is indeclinable.

The bulk of adverbs in Latvian end in -i (see below), but there are many also ending in -u (cf. below), -aml/-ām (e. g. tiešām really), as well as other types.

There are a good number of adverbs which can be said to be formed on the basis of adjectives (e. g. labi well vs. labs/laba good) and participles (e. g. draudoši threateningly), whereas others have common roots with pronouns – the so-called pronominal adverbs, for example: k-ur where, cf. k-as who, what.

Degrees of Comparison

Many adverbs ending in -i and -u allow the formation of comparative and superlative forms. The former take the suffix -āk, whereas the superlative forms are constituted by the comparative supplied with a prefix vis- (all).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>positive degree</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>supelative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lab-i well</td>
<td>lab-āk better</td>
<td>vis-lab-āk best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vēl-u late</td>
<td>vēl-āk later</td>
<td>vis-vēl-āk latest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparatives and superlatives are also formed from a number of adverbs with zero ending in the positive degree, e.g.

| dēz sooner      | dēz-āk sooner     | vis-dēz-āk soonest|
| maz little      | maz-āk less       | vis-maz-āk least  |
The antonym of maz little, daudz much, makes use of suppletive forms in the comparative and superlative: vairāk more and visvairāk most.

Syntax and Semantics

From a semantic point of view adverbs can be divided into:
- of manner (ātri fast, patikami pleasantly),
- of place (e. g. te here, kur where),
- of time (vienmēr always, ieprieks before),
- of cause and purpose (tādēl therefore).
- interrogative (cik? how much/many?, kur?where?, kad? when?)
- indefinite (kaut kad sometime, kaut kur somewhere)
- negative (nekad never, nekur nowhere)

Syntactically, adverbs can serve as modifiers of a verb (iet ātri walk fast), another adverb (/iet/ ļoti ātri walk very fast) or an adjective (ļoti garšīgas pusdienas a very tasty dinner).

Illustrations of the use of the comparative and the superlative: Pēteris skrien ātri, Ojārs ātrāk, bet Jānis visātrāk Peter runs fast, Ojārs faster, but John fastest (of all).

The formal appearance of an adverb also has the the i-form in adjectival function, found in cases like: man bija auksti I felt (lit. was) cold : man bija aukstāk I felt colder, cf. p. 179 and 208.

While the adverb in the positive can be strengthened by ļoti very, in the comparative daudz much must be used. Compare: ļoti labi very well : daudz labāk much better. More bookish synonyms for daudz before a comparative are krietni and ievērojamī, both of which may be translated into English by considerably.

The Latvian equivalent of English “than” in comparisons is in most cases nekā (kā after a negated verb), e.g. Jānis skrien ātrāk nekā Pēteris John runs faster than Peter, Jānis neskrien ātrāk kā Pēteris John does not run faster than Peter.

The syntax of indefinite and negative adverbs is parallel to that described under indefinite and negative pronouns, see p. 70 ff. Observe constructions of the type man nav kur iet I have nowhere to go vs. es nekur neej I don’t go anywhere, I go nowhere.
The Negation

The Latvian negation is *ne* which in most cases is written together with the word which is negated, most frequently a verb, e.g. *viņš nerunā latviski* he doesn't speak Latvian. The negated counterpart of *ir* is, *are* is *nav*, cf. *Latvijā nav lauvi* (for the genitive, see p. 171f.) in Latvia there are no (are not any) lions (positive statement: *Afrikā ir lauvas* in Africa there are lions), *viņa nav studente* she is not a student (positive statement: *viņa ir studente* she is a student). Note the mandatory nominative *studente*, since *nav* in this example has the function of a copulative verb and not that of an existential one as in *Latvijā nav lauvi* where a genitive construction is required because of the existential verb *nav*.

Beside verbs the negation can also accompany other parts of speech, e.g. adjectives (*negudrs unwise, silly*), participles (*nepazīstams unknown, negaidīts unexpected*) and adverbs (*nelabi not well, bad(ly)*).

The negational element *ne*- is further encountered with negative pronouns (p. 72) and adverbs (see above), e.g. *neviens nobody, nekas nothing, nekur nowhere*. In this case it has to be repeated by another *ne*- before a verb, so-called double negation, e.g. *neviens no jums nezina none of you knows.*

English *neither nor* is rendered in Latvian by *ne ne* or *nedz nedz*. Illustrations: *ne šā, ne tā neither this way nor that way, to nezina ne viņš, ne tu neither he nor you will know that* (notice the double negation in the latter example).
Chapter 8

CASE

(Locījums)

Introduction

A chapter on case should include both prepositional and non-prepositional use. However, certain considerations – both practical and theoretical – have led the author to treat prepositional functions in a separate chapter under the heading “Prepositions”.

The syntactic functions of the oblique cases in Latvian, i.e. all cases except the nominative and the vocative, can be of three kinds:

1) adnominal (= governed by a nominal word class, i.e. a noun, an adjective, a pronoun or a numeral),
2) adverbal (= governed by a verb),
3) adverbial (= with the same function as an adverb)

We consider this disposition a practical and adequate one despite the fact that 3) is not parallel with 1) and 2), since adverbial does not mean governed by an adverb, but functioning as an adverb. An alternative and in a way more consistent solution would have been to work with the notions ‘government’ (Latv. pārvaldījums, see p. 200) and ‘juxtaposition’ (or ‘adjunction’, Latv. pieklāums, cf. p. 200), but in that case we would have had to put under the government heading that which is dealt with both under 1) and (the bulk of) 2) above, which in our view would have meant a less transparent and practical disposition. Furthermore, the notion of primykanie (“juxtaposition”) – well known in Russian and Latvian (and other East European) grammatical traditions, but less in the West – would be unfamiliar to many readers.

A second alternative, namely to follow a scheme object vs. adverbial relations would not have paid due attention to point 1).

We will proceed below according to the scheme 1 - 3 and describe the functions of the cases in the following order: the genitive, the accusative, the dative and the locative. The description will also include a small typed note on the instrumental, for the status of which, see p. 41. Finally, the functions of the two non-oblique cases, the nominative and the vocative, will be dealt with.
THE GENITIVE

This is a widely used case in Latvian, which is encountered both with and without prepositions (for prepositional use, see chapter 9: "Prepositions").

The genitive has adnominal and adverbal functions, while the adverbal seems to be absent.

Under both the adnominal and adverbal types a partitive and non-partitive function should be distinguished. The partitive genitive expresses a part of a certain quantity, as for example in tasite tējas a cup of tea (adnominal type) and ēst sēnu to eat mushrooms (adverbal type).

I Adnominal Function

1. Non-Partitive Genitive

The governing word can here be a noun or an adjective.

A. The governing Word is a Noun

In this case the genitive is in pre-position. The following functional types should be distinguished:

a) The Possessive Genitive

The meanings of this genitive are those of possession and belonging:

māsas grāmata sister’s book, koka zari the branches of the tree.

It is worth noting that where an adjective would appear in languages like Slavic, Germanic and Romance, Latvian will often use a noun in the genitive case, e.g. latviešu valoda the Latvian language (lit. ‘the language of the Latvians’).

b) The Subjective and c) the Objective Genitive

The governing words are here exclusively verbal nouns. Examples of the subjective genitive:

skolnieka atbilde the pu-pil’s answer, armijas aplenkums the siege of the army, Kolumba atklājums Columbus’ discovery, cf. the corresponding verb phrases skolnieks atbild the pupil answers, armija aplenc the army is besieging and Kolumbs atklāja Columbus disco-
vered with skolnieks and Kolumbs in the function of subjects. As is seen from the illustrations, the subjective genitive is found with verbal nouns derived both from intransitive and transitive verbs.

An example of the objective genitive is Amerikas atklāšana the discovery of America, cf. atklāt Ameriku to discover America with Amerika as object. Observe that only verbal nouns which correspond with transitive (i.e. non-prepositional accusative governing) verbs can be construed with the objective genitive. Other examples: bērnus audzīšana upbringing of children (:audzināt bērnu), armijas aplekšana the siege of the army, i.e. the army is besieged (: armija ir aplekta).

The subjective and objective genitive can be combined in Latvian, although many Latvians will find such constructions rather clumsy, cf. for example Kolumba Amerikas atklāšana Columbus' discovery of America / the discovery of America by Columbus.

The combination of these two genitives does not seem to be possible in Slavic; thus, the Russians must replace the subjective genitive by the instrumental case, and the Poles by the preposition przez which is parallel to the German solution with durch (die Entdeckung Amerikas durch Kolumbus).

For the grammarians the question arises whether the genitive Kolumba in the locution Kolumba Amerikas atklāšana represents the subjective genitive or the agentive (since the performer of actions in the passive voice in Latvian is in the genitive, see p. 168f. below). What we envisage here is the neutralization between two functions.

d) The Descriptive Genitive

This genitive is illustrated by examples like goda vīrs a man of honour, pienākuma cilvēks a man of duty (dutiful man), pirmās klasēs viesnīca a first class hotel, labākās markas vīns wine of the best quality.

Instead of the genitive an adjective may sometimes be used: pirmklasīga viesnīca.

e) genitivus definitivus (explicativus)

As illustrated in the following examples, this type of genitive is more widely used in Latvian than in many other languages:

Daugavas upe the river Daugava, Rīgas pilīša the city of Riga, latviešu tauta the Latvian people, Kalniņa kungs Mr. Kalniņš, Kalniņa kundze Mrs Kalniņš, profesora kungs Herr Professor (lit. 'Mr. Professor'), profesores kundze Frau Professor (observe, however: profesors Ošīņš, profesore Šīļna with appositional agreement between the two components, cf. pp. 202 and 219).
This genitive is labeled “definitivus” because the above noun phrases can be transformed into verb phrases of the following defining character: Daugava ir upe Daugava is a river, latvieši ir tauta the Latvians are a people, Kalniņš ir kungs Kalnins ist ein Herr (lit. Kalnins is a mister) etc. It follows from this test that a word group like Latvijas universitāte The university of Latvia does not belong to group e), but can only be interpreted as a).

f) The Genitive of Material

This genitive denotes the material which something consists of: zelta grēdzens a gold(en) ring/ring of gold. Alternative constructions are possible, cf. grēdzens no zelta (prepositional solution) and zeltains grēdzens (adjectival solution).

g) The Genitive of Purpose

Here belong examples of the type tējas tāšite a tea cup (i. e. a cup intended for tea). Observe the contrast tējas tāšite a cup of tea : tāšite tējas a cup of tea (partitive function, for which see below).

h) The Genitive of Reinforcement (Emphasis)

Examples:

gadu gadiem (adverbialized) for years and years, kēniņu kēniņš
King of Kings.

B. The governing Word is an Adjective

Here belong the adjectives cienīgs worthy (of), kārs greedy (of), vērts worth.

Examples:

uzmanības cienīgs deserving attention, naudas kārs greedy of money, labs padoms ir zelta vērts a good piece of advice is worth its weight in gold.

C. The Agentive

This function may be said to be on the borderline between the adnominal, the adverbial and adverbial functions. For matters of convenience we have placed it here after the adjective, since it is conditioned by a participle, which syntactically has much in common with the adjective, cf. p. 156.
The agentive (or agent) which is the performer of the action in formally passive constructions, is expressed in Latvian by the genitive: direktora parakstīta vēstule a / the letter written by the director (ein /der vom Direktor geschriebene Brief). Observe that the agentive is limited almost exclusively to noun phrases of the above type. It is very rarely encountered in sentences, since formal passives with an explicit agent are as a rule avoided in Latvian, cf. section on voice, p. 140. Note also the obligatory word order (1. agent, 2. attributive participle, 3. head noun) in the noun phrase just quoted, in contrast with parakstīta direktora vēstule, which would mean “a/the written letter belonging to the director” (with direktora in the function of a possessive genitive, cf. p. 166 above and chapter 14 on word order, p. 227 below).

2. Partitive Genitive
(Dalāmais ģenitīvs)
The partitive adnominal genitive can be governed by a noun, an adjective, a numeral and certain other quantifiers.
With non-countable objects the genitive singular is used, with countable the plural.

A. The governing Word is a Noun
Unlike the non-partitive genitive after a noun, the partitive is postposited.
Contrast the partitive tasīte tējas a cup of tea with the non-partitive tējas tasīte tea-cup (cf. 1 A g above).
Other examples with the partitive genitive after a noun:
litrs piena a liter of milk, metrs zīda a meter of silk, gabals maizes a piece of bread, vairākums studentu the majority of students. As illustrated through these examples the singular is used with non-countable nouns, the plural with countable.

B. The governing Word is an Adjective
The adjectives pilns full and bagāts rich in / abundantly supplied with require a partitive genitive: sniega pilna iela a street full of snow, bagāts zivju ezers a lake rich in fish.
Contrast these adjectives with the genitive requiring adjectives in non-partitive function on p. 168 above.
Besides the genitive construction, the construction with ar (+ the accusative/dative) is also possible: pilna ar sniegu iela, bagāts ar zīvīm ezers. With bagāts the alternative ar-construction seems to be preferable.
C. The governing Word is a Numeral

The following cardinal numbers require the genitive (plural): 1) the numerals 11-19, 2) all “decades”, i.e. desmit, divpadsmit etc., 3) the “centades”, i.e. simt(s), divi simti etc., 4) the thousands (“millades”): tūkstoš / tūkstotis, divtūkstoš etc., 5) miljons, divi miljoni, miljards / triljons etc.

Examples: desmit / deviņpadsmit / simts/pieci simti / tūkstoš / miljons / miljards latu ten / nineteen / hundred / five hundred / thousand / one million / one billion lats.

Note: all remaining (cardinal) numbers (as well as all ordinal numbers) show agreement (cf. p. 215 ff.) between the numeral and the counted entity, i.e. the noun. See also chapter on numerals, syntax section.

In the case of compound numbers, the syntax is determined by the last unit, as illustrated by the following contrasting example:

pieci simti deviņdesmit latu vs. pieci simti deviņdesmit divi lati five hundred and ninety lats : five hundred ninety two lats

See also chapter 5: “Numerals”, p. 74 ff.

D. The governing Word is a Quantifier other than a Numeral

The partitive genitive is also mandatory after quantifiers (occasionally also referred to as “undetermined numerals”) like daudz much, pār daudz too much, tik daudz so much, vairāk more, maz little, few, pār maz too little / few, tik maz so little / few, mazāk less, cik? how much / how many?

Examples:

cik Jums ir gadu? how old are you? daudz/maz/vairāk viņa much/little/ more wine; daudz/maz/vairāk draugu many/much/ more friends.

The above examples illustrate that the singular is used with non-countable nouns, the plural with countable.

II Adverbal Function

As pointed out above (p. 166), the adverbal genitive can be either partitive or non-partitive.

1. Non-Partitive

A. Genitive-governing Verbs

A considerable number of Latvian verbs (reflexive and non-reflexive) govern or can govern the genitive. They belong mainly to such semantic fields as a) “striving for/towards” and b) “avoidance of”:
Genitive-governing verbs with similar meanings are also found in a number of other Indo-European languages.

Under a) should be mentioned: alkt thirst/crave for, ilgoties long for, släpt thirst for; gaidīt wait for, gribēt wish, lūgt ask for, meklēt search / look for, prasīt ask for/demand.

With the verbs appearing before the semi-colon an alternative construction with pēc (after) + the genitive is admissible, e.g. alkt laimes : alkt pēc laimes thirst for fortune, whereas with the remainder a construction with the accusative is possible (and in modern Latvian even preferable): e.g. gaidīt vilcienu (vilciena) wait for the train, lūgt padomu (padoma) ask for advice, prasīt palīdzību (palīdzības) ask for help.

Under b) are to be mentioned: baidīties fear/be afraid (of), bēgt run away / flee (from), bities fear/be afraid (of), kaunēties be ashamed (of), kautrēties feel shy (for), sargāties protect oneself (from), vairīties avoid, e.g. baidīties suņa be afraid of a/the dog, vairīties briesmu (plural noun) avoid danger.

Besides the non-prepositional genitive construction, an alternative construction with the preposition no + the genitive is possible with these verbs.

Note the transitive : intransitive opposition in a case like baidīt ko (+ acc.) frighten sby : baidīties (+ gen.) be frightened = fear / be afraid.

For genitive-governing verbs with meanings ‘to be lacking’ and ‘to be sufficient’, see next paragraph.

B. Negative Constructions

a) Whereas in positive statements the direct object of transitive verbs is in the accusative case, in the corresponding negated sentences the object can be in the genitive, especially in the case of a double negation (ne + ne), e.g. neredzēt neviena mākoņa not see a single cloud, nelasīt avīzu not read papers.

In today’s Latvian there is a tendency to use the accusative rather than the genitive in such cases, e.g. nelasīt avīzes rather than nelasīt avīzu.

The origin of this genitive of negation, which is also found in Slavic, with parallels in Balto-Finnic languages, remains obscure. Some scholars hold it to be of an ablative (deprivative) nature (cf. the b-verb sphere in the preceding paragraph), while others tend to connect it with the partitive.

b) The (logical) subject (= grammatical object) of negated existential and related constructions is always in the genitive in Latvian, for
example: zooologiskajā darzā nebija lauvu in the zoo there were no lions, tēva pašlaik nav mājās father is not at home at present.

In the corresponding positive statements, the genitive must be replaced by the nominative (in the role of a grammatical subject): zooologiskajā darzā bija lauvas; tēvs pašlaik ir mājās.

The genitive is further used with the verbs netrūkt not be lacking (be sufficient), nepietikt not be sufficient (be lacking), e.g. nepietiek spēka there is not sufficient strength/force.

Note: The genitive is mandatory with these two verbs, even when they are not accompanied by a negation: trūkst līdzekļu there is a lack of means, pietiek līdzekļu there is enough/sufficient means. With these verbs a nuance of partitiveness is felt, cf. next section.

2. Partitive

a) A partitive function is encountered after some otherwise transitive verbs (i.e. verbs requiring a direct object in the accusative case), such as (no)pirkt in (no)pirkt piena/puķu buy (some) milk/flowers.

The genitive is here contrasted with the accusative, cf. (no)pirkt pienu/puķes buy (all) the milk/the flowers. Other examples: ēst siera eat cheese, gribēties augļu want fruit.

Thus, an important opposition is apparent between the genitive – expressing a part (hence the notion partitive) of the object encompassed by the verbal action, and the accusative – implying command of the whole object. However, in contemporary Latvian it seems possible also to use the accusative instead of the genitive without any real difference in meaning: ēst sieru, gribēties augļus.

The genitive:accusative case opposition often corresponds to the indefinite: definite opposition in languages which have developed a system of articles, such as English, German and the Nordic languages.

In Standard Russian the partitive function is restricted roughly to verbs in the perfective aspect (compare for example kupit' (pf.) xleba (gen.) ‘to buy (some) bread’ : kupit' xleb (acc.) ‘to buy (all) the bread’, but always pokupat' (ipf.) xleb (acc.) ‘buy (the) bread’. This principle is not observed in Latvian, cf. the imperfective pirkt buy above.

III Adverbial Function

The adverbial function of the Latvian genitive is very marginal. One can even question if it exists at all. The only possible candidate seems to be the genitive of time, in cases like ik (pār)dienas every (second) day, ik (pār)nedēļas every (second) week, ik (pār)naktis
every (second) night, ik reizēs every time. The endings -as / -es / -is are (at least in a diachronic perspective) most probably to be analyzed as genitive singular forms, and not as accusatives plural (irrespective of cases like ik gadus, on which see below). The question arises as to whether the genitive is not ultimately determined by ik, in which case we could be dealing with a partitive genitive after a quantifier of the cik-type, cf. p. 162. The etymology and grammatical status of ik, however, remains obscure. Equally puzzling is the fact that in a number of cases, the accusative (not the genitive) is used after ik, e.g. ik brīdi every moment (minute), ik minūti every minute, ik stundu every hour, ik vakaru (beside the accusative plural vakarus) every evening, ik mēnesi every month, ik gadu (beside the accusative plural gadus) every year. From a synchronic point of view, both the genitive-like forms and the accusative forms have been adverbialized. Instead of the ik-construction, one can use the pronoun katra- every: katra dienu, katra gadu etc. (i.e. with an adverbial accusative, cf. p. 174).

The Genitive in Exclamations

An example of this is the locution: tava mulka prāta you fool.

THE ACCUSATIVE

The accusative in Latvian may to some extent be said to be in a state of complementary distribution with the genitive, as far as its adverbial functions are concerned (cf. the non-partitive direct object in positive statements, in contrast to the partitive genitive object and to the genitive object after transitive verbs in negative constructions). Furthermore, the adverbial function is the only one which the accusative and the genitive have in common, since the accusative lacks the adnominal function and the genitive the adverbial, which – alongside the adverbial – is of such vital importance with the accusative.

The accusative falls into two categories, the adverbal and the adverbial, whereas the adnominal is lacking (for the possibility of speaking of an adnominal type in connection with certain adjectives of quantity, see under the adverbial accusative below).

I Adverbal Accusative

Latvian verbs can govern different oblique cases, the genitive, the accusative, the dative and the locative. The absolute majority of the
verbs, however, require the accusative (as a direct object) and are called transitive, e.g. lasīt vēstuli to read a letter, uzbuņēt māju to build a house.

A basic feature of verbs with the accusative is that they can be transferred from active to passive forms, cf. lasīt vēstuli / uzbuņēt māju to read a letter / to build a house: lasāma vēstule / uzbuņēta māja, cf. p. 157.

A special type of accusative object, so-called “inner object” is encountered in cases like domāt domu lit. to think a thought, dziedāt dziesmu to sing a song, dejot deju to dance a dance.

In opposition to the Slavic languages, where reflexive verbs are more or less incapable of governing the accusative case, this restriction is not observed to the same extent in Baltic, where an accusative object can also be governed by a reflexive verb: for example, nopirktsies jaunu velosipēdu to buy a new bicycle, mācīties matemātiku to learn (study) mathematics, izgaidīties vilcienu to wait for the train, atcerēties pasaku to recall a fairy-tale. The meaning of the reflexive is here “in one’s own interest” (cf. p. 143 under reflexive and non-reflexive verbs).

Since the number of verbs governing other cases than the accusative is rather limited, it is customary to present lists of verbs governing the other oblique cases, not the accusative, because such a list would be very long and therefore impossible in a grammar. It belongs naturally in the dictionary.

Also more than one object may occur. Thus, the combination dative + accusative is frequent (see also under the dative case p. 177), with the indirect object (denoting a person) in the dative, and the direct (denoting a thing) in the accusative, e.g. dot/suņit kādam (dative) ko (accusative) to give/send sby sth.

Finally, the accusative in the function of an object predicative in cases like the following should be mentioned:

mēs viņu pazistam kā labu ārsti we know her as a good physi-

II Adverbial Accusative

As in a number of other Indo-European case languages, the accusative covers the adverbial functions of:

1. time
2. measure, price and weight

Common to both a) and b) is the feature [+ quantity].
1. can be divided into two subdivisions:
   A. duration (answering the question how long?): viņi bija nedēļu / divus gadus Rīgā they spent a week / two years in Rīgā,
   B. frequency (answering the question how often?): viņi dejoja katru dienu they danced every day.

2. answers the questions how much/far? mēs jau gājām divas stundas we have already walked (for) two hours, šis žurnāls maksā (vienu) latu this journal costs one lat, grāmata sver (vienu) kilogrammu the book weighs one kilogram.

   Certain cases of the accusative of quantity can be accompanied by adjectives of quantity, like vecs old (e. g. bērns ir divus gadus vecs the child is two years old), augsts high (e. g. divus stāvus augsta māja a house two stories high), plats wide (e. g. laukums ir kilometru plats the square is one kilometer wide), dzīļs deep (upe ir tikai divus metrus dzīja the river is only two meters deep), garš long (e. g. divus kilometrus gara iela a street two kilometers long), biežs thick (e. g. vienu metru biežs ledus one meter thick ice). It would have been possible here to speak of an adnominate accusative, but because of the constraint to certain adjectives alone we have – for matters of economy – abstained from establishing an adnominate section in connection with the accusative.

The Accusative in Exclamations

Finally and separately, mention should be made of the accusative in exclamations, e.g. tavu muļķi! you fool!

For the use of the possessive pronoun, cf. also Nordic din idiot ‘you fool’ which may represent a genitive form of the personal pronoun reinterpreted as a possessive. If this interpretation is correct, we would in a historical perspective be dealing with a genitivus definitivus, cf. p. 167f. Could the Latvian construction with an unambiguous possessive pronoun be explained through Swedish intermediary? Besides this construction, Latvian also has at its disposal an alternative construction with the personal pronoun which is known from a number of European languages: tu muļķi.

A Contrastive View of the Genitive and the Accusative

As pointed out (p. 173) these two cases are (to a considerable extent) in a state of complementary distribution. This relationship can be summarized in the following chart:
### THE INSTRUMENTAL

As pointed out (p. 41), we do not recognize the existence of the instrumental as an independent case in contemporary Latvian. From a diachronic perspective, however, certain adverbialized forms are likely to be identified, e.g. *vietām/vietumīs* (function of place), *laikiem/reizēm* (function of time), *iet/nākt bariem, iet sojiem, iet/braukt riksiem/uleksīem, visiēm spēkiem* (function of manner). Note also the locution *būt vienīs prātīs (ar kādu)* be of the same opinion as sby.

For expression of the meaning of instrument, see chapter on prepositions (s. v. ar).

### THE DATIVE

The dative is most frequently used with persons, to a lesser degree with things. It often has the meaning of a logical subject. In a number of cases the dative is not necessary to obtain a correct grammatical construction, but its absence would modify the meaning.

### I Adnominal Dative

1. **The governing Word is a Noun**

   The dative case may be accompanied by certain nouns derived from adjectives and verbs which require the dative case (see below), e.g. *pateicība kam* gratitude to sby (*: pateicīgs kam* grateful to sby), *kaitīgums veselībai* harm (destructiveness) to health (*: kaitīgs kam harmful to sby/sth., kaitēt kam* harm sby/sth.) *atbilde kam* answer to sby (*: atbildēt kam* answer sby), *palīdzība kam* help to sby (*: palīdzēt kam* help sby), *pārmetums kam* reproach to sby (*: pārmest kam* sby reproach sby).

2. **The governing Word is an Adjective**

   The adjective *lidzīgs alike, similar* is construed with the dative, e.g. *vinš ir lidzīgs tēvam* he is like his father, *šis trijstūris ir lidzīgs otram trijstūrim* this triangle is similar to another/the other triangle. Another dative governing adjective is *derīgs useful, e.g. gramatīka ir*
derīga studentiem grammar is useful to the students. In this case, the use of the dative is easy to grasp, in opposition to līdzigs. Adjectives with the meaning of similarity are, however, often construed with the dative case in Indo-European languages: for example, German gleich (mir), Lithuanian lygus kam ‘alike sby/sth.’, Russian ravno (čemu) ‘(a)like (sth.)’.

Note that the adjectives vienlīdzigs equal and proporcionāls proportional are not construed with the dative case, but with the preposition ar (+ the accusative).

For the dative with numerous adjective-like predicatives, see p. 179 below.

3. The Dative of Age
Finally, mention should be made of the dative of age: Cik Jums gadu? Man ir piecidesmit gadu. How old are you? I am fifty years old.

II Adverbal Dative

1. Dative + Nominative
See the have- and debitive-constructions under points 4 and 6 below.

2. Dative + Accusative
The dative is used in the function of an indirect object, referring to the person or addressee, with transitive verbs also accompanied by a direct accusative object, for example: dot/rakstīt/teikt/sūtīt etc. kam (dative) ko (accusative) to give/write/say/send sby. sth., cf. also the well known German formula einem etwas geben etc. Reference should also be made to the accusative above.

3. Dative as the only Object
A group of intransitive verbs known in grammatical terminology as verba commodi et in commodi, i.e. verbs denoting ‘to somebody’s benefit or disadvantage’, require a dative object as the only object. The following list of verbs can be given:

A. Verba commodi:
aplaudēt to applaud, atbilst to satisfy, derēt to suit, fit, glaimot to flatter, imponēt to impress, kalpot to serve, palīdzēt to help, pateikties to thank, simpatizēt to sympathize with, uzticēties to trust.
Examples:
atbilst visām prasībām to satisfy all demands, viņš neuzticas draugiem he doesn’t trust his friends.

B. Verba incommodi:

apnikt, atrībet kādam ko/par ko, draudēt to threaten, kaitēt to hurt, pretoties, traucēt disturb.

Examples:
zēnam neapnika skatīties the boy didn’t get bored by looking, mitrais gaiss kaitēja veselībai the moisty air did harm to the health

Further mention should be made of some additional dative-governing verbs which are not so easy to incorporate in the framework of the verba commodi et incommodi. Here belong verbs like atbildēt kam answyer sby, piederēt kam belong to sby, pārnest sby reproach sby, gatavoties kam prepare for sth.

Under this heading, one should also mention dative + nominative-constructions (with the latter in the role of grammatical subject), e.g. man (ne)garšo gāja I (don’t) like meat, man (ne)patik šīta filma I (don’t) like this film, cf. point 5 below.

4. Dative + ir/bija/būs etc. as Equivalents to have-Constructions in English

In opposition to have-languages, such as English, German, the Nordic languages and Romance, Latvian (like Russian, Balto-Finnic languages and many others) is a be-language, e.g. man ir (bija, būs, ir bijis, bija bijis, būs bijis) velosipēds I have (had, shall have, have had, had had, will have had) a bicycle (lit. for me is/was etc. bicycle). The grammatical subject, which understandably must be in the form of the nominative, is velosipēds. See also under the nominative case on p. 181 below. The corresponding question would be kas man ir/bija (etc.)? what do I have (etc.)?

The negated counterpart to the sentence just quoted is man nav (nebija, nebūs, nav bijis, nebija bijis, nebūs bijis) velosipēda I don’t have (didn’t have, shall not have, have not had, had not had, shall not have had) with a logical subject (= velosipēda) in the genitive case, cf. p. 171f.

Here one may also mention the verb of belonging piederēt which is construed in a similar way, e.g. man pieder velosipēds I have a bicycle (lit. to me belongs bicycle), again with velosipēds in the function of a grammatical subject, whence the nominative is required. When ‘belong to’ has the meaning of ‘belonging to a category / class’ and not ‘as property’, the prepositional construction piederēt pie must be used, e.g. lauva pieder pie zvēriem the lion belongs to the wild animals, cf.
a parallel distinction for instance in German and Russian between
gehören/prinadležat' + the dative and gehören zu / prinadležat' k.

5. Dative in Impersonal Constructions
   A. Verbal:
   Also important is the dative with certain verbs in a number of impersonal constructions (for definition, see p. 198 below), e.g. man liekas (, ka) (inf. likties) I think (it seems to me (that)), man šķiet (, ka) (inf. šķist) I think (it seems to me (that)), man slāpst (inf. slāpt) I am thirsty / I want to drink, man nākas (inf. nakties) I have to, man salst (inf. salt) I feel cold, man trūkst kā (inf. trūkt) I am lacking sth., man vajag ko (inf. vajadzēt) I need sth.
   Constructionss like man ir velosipēds I have a bicycle (cf. preceding paragraph) are per definition not considered impersonal, since they have a grammatical (nominative-case) subject. For the same reason, constructions like man garšo šokolāde I like chocolate, man patik filma I like the film (cf. German: der Film gefällt mir) or man sāp galva I have headache should not treated under this point, but rather under point 3 above.
   B. Nominal:
   Equally important is the dative with numerous predicatives (cf. also p. 169), e.g. man ir labi/patikami/bēdigi/slikti/auksti/karstī/žēl I feel well/bad/cold/warm/sorry (lit. to me it is...).

6. Dative in the Debitive Construction
   For the function of the dative as logical subject in the debitive construction, see p. 130.
   For the dative as part of the nominal predicative in debitive constructions, cf. p. 130.

7. Dative with the Infinitive Passive
   Example:
   Nav labi tikt ievainotam it is not good to be accused
   For explanation of the dative ievainotam, see p. 146.

8. Dative + Infinitive Constructions
   For this function, see p. 145.

Dative with Gerunds (The Absolute Dative)

For this so-called absolute dative, see p. 150f.
III Adverbial Function

The only possible candidate for this function is the dative of purpose (dativus finalis): vilna cimdiem wool for gloves, papīrs rakstišana paper for writing, āda kožokam a pelt for a fur coat.

Other adverbially used datives in Latvian have been fully adverbialized, e.g. apmēram approximately, piemēram for example.

THE LOCATIVE

As stated on p. 184, the Latvian locative can never be governed by a preposition. The historical reason for this is that the locative marker reflects the merger of a regular case ending with a postposition (cf. p. 41).

The locative in Latvian has adnominal, adverbal and adverbial functions, with the latter as the overwhelmingly dominant one.

As examples of the adnominal and adverbal functions respectively may serve: piedališanās (refl. verbal noun) kā participate in sth. and piedalities kā participate in sth. (e.g. konferencē a conference), klausīties kā listen to sth. (e.g. koncertā a concert).

Note especially the transitional case between the adverbal and adverbial functions. As adverbal function may be regarded the locative after verbs expressing motion with the prefix ies- in(to), e.g. iegiet istabā go into / enter the room. This use of the locative is surprising to students familiar with German or Slavic case languages, where this is a typical accusative sphere. The situation is parallel to that after verbs expressing motion, in cases like vilkt mugurā take on (about clothes), lit. pull on the back, likkt galvā mici put the cap on one’s head, aut kājās lit. take / put on the feet (about shoes and similar). Note finally sasalt ledū freeze (in)to ice, as well as the adnominal type kālnā kāpējs “alpinist” (lit. climber onto the hill).

Typical adverbial functions of the Latvian locative are:

1. the locative of place (answering the question where / in which place?): strādāt lasītavā work in the reading-room, sēdēt istabā sit in the room,

2. the locative of time (answering the question when? about time units such as hour, day, night, days of the week, week, month, year and similar): atbraukt divos vakarā / naktī / sestdienā(s) / šajā nedēļā / jūlījā / pagājušajā gadā / jaunībā arrive at two o’clock / in the evening / at night / on Saturday(s) / this week / in July / last year / in one’s youth.

3. the locative of manner: runāt skaļā balsi speak in / with a loud voice. (A construction with the preposition ar + the accusative is
also possible, but is ambiguous in meaning: with the help of one’s own voice or with another voice.)

4. the locative of reason: samelot bailēs to lie out of fear, apstāties izbrinā to stop of / by / in surprise.

5. the locative of reference: spēcīgs matemātikā strong / clever in (with respect to) mathematics

6. the locative of purpose: iet ogās / sēnēs go for / collect berries / mushrooms, iet viesos (< viesis guest) go for a visit, braukt medībās go hunting.

THE NOMINATIVE

The nominative case has four main functions in Latvian:

1) as grammatical subject in two part sentences (see p. 205) which can be in the active or passive voice (p. 135 ff.), e.g. bērns zimē (sunī) the child is drawing (a dog) and māja tiek celta the house is being built. Observe also the type man ir velosipēds (p. 178).

2) as the only principal member (galvenais locēklis) in so-called nominative one part sentences (p. 207), e.g. vakars (it is) evening, and

3) as part of the nominal predicate (p. 198), i.e. in the form of a nominal word class (i.e. a noun, adjective or pronoun) after a copulative verb (i.e. verbs with the meaning of be in a non-existential sense and become, cf. also p. 198), e.g. viņš (ir) bērns he is a child, vinš (ir) jauns he is young. Note the use of the nominative, not the genitive case in the corresponding negative statement viņš nav (copulative verb) bērns/jauns he is not a child/ young in opposition to, for example, te nav bērnu there are no children here with an automatic genitive after the existential verb nav.

Observe also formula saukt ko kas: viņu sauc Jānis his name is Janis (lit. ‘they call him John’) as well as the construction kļūt par (+ the accusative) to become in the sense of German werden zu: kļūt par ārstu to become a physician.

In connection with 3) one may also mention the nominative after kā as in constructions of the type viņa ir zināma kā ķoti interesanta dzejniece she is known as a very interesting poet.

4) as object in deitative constructions (cf. p. 130), e.g. man jāraksta vēstule I have to write a letter. If the deitative predicate consists of a phasal auxiliary plus an infinitive, either the nominative or the case required by the infinitive can be used: man jasāk rakstīt vēstule (nom.)/vēstuli (acc.) I must begin writing the letter. The nominative object is avoided with pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person: man tevi (not *tu) jāredz I have to see you (but: man viņš jāredz I have to see
him). Observe that the *logical subject* of the debitive construction is always in the *dative* case (cf. p. 130).

5) A last, but marginal function of the nominative is encountered in certain *appositions* (see p. 219), e.g. *romānā “Mērnieku laiki”* in the novel “The Times of the Landsurveyors”.

**THE VOCATIVE**

The vocative is the case of *address*.

For examples, see chapter on adjective (p. 62), where information about the form of both an attributive adjective and the noun is given.
This is a natural continuation of the immediately preceding chapter on Case, which we found convenient to reserve almost exclusively for non-prepositional use, even though a full description of case should include prepositions as well. The purpose of this chapter on prepositions is to give a brief survey of the prepositions most commonly encountered in modern Standard Latvian and information on the case(s) required after them, their meanings presented in simple, illustrative examples. A less practically oriented grammar should in addition have paid attention to a number of theoretical, semantic and grammatical aspects concerning prepositions and case grammar.

**Preposition vs. Prefix**

In a number of cases prepositions and prefixes (see 159 ff.) show the same form, namely aiz, ap, no, pa, par, pār, pie and uz.

**Preposition vs. Adverb. Semi-Prepositions**

There is also a formal overlapping between certain prepositions and adverbs, e.g. priekšā in front (of).

Moreover, Latvian has a set of prepositions which may be said to be primarily adverbs. They can be referred to as semi-prepositions or prepositional adverbs. Some examples: cauri right through (cf. the preposition caur below), garām (cf. the preposition gar) along, pāri across (cf. the preposition pār), pretī (cf. preposition pret) against. Illustration of use: mēs gājam garām we went past (function as adverb) : mēs gājam gara m upēi we went (were going) along the river (function as preposition). Contrast further cases like pāriet pār ielu : iet pāri ielai to cross the street where the preposition pār is used with the perfective verb, whereas the imperfective partner is accompanied by the semi-preposition/adverb pāri. For oppositions of this type, section on aspect in chapter 6 should be consulted. These adverb-prepositions posit a problem, in that they can be either preposited or postposited to the
noun, according to somewhat obscure rules. Thus, for example, iet pāri + noun seems to be preferred to (the equally possible) sequence iet + noun + pāri. With cauri, however, the tendency seems to be the opposite, i.e. noun + cauri rather than cauri + noun (cf. for example šķersliem cauri through obstacles). However, as a rule of thumb preposition/postposition is optional.

As pointed out on several occasions in this grammar, Latvian is very interesting in a typological perspective, i.e. in a transitional stage between Indo-European and Finno-Ugric. With respect to prepositions Latvian can be said to offer a compromise between the two groups of languages in that it has developed a set of adverbs (Finno-Ugric type) alongside prepositions (Indo-European type). The former have partly adopted prepositional (or rather postpositional) properties.

Preposition vs. Noun

Prepositions ending in -pus (e.g. ārpus outside, otrpus on the other side) represent petrified nouns (cf. puse side), which explains why these prepositions govern the genitive (from a historical point of view this is an adnominal genitive, see the preceding chapter). In the case of laikā (< laiks time) during (with the genitive, e.g. kara laikā during the war) the “preposition” has the appearance of a petrified case (locative), cf. pp. 188 and 193 (point 14 D). A similar case is that of vidū (< vidus middle) in the middle of.

Preposition vs. Postposition

Except for the ambiguous (i.e. in terms of linear order) semi-prepositions, the majority of Latvian prepositions really are preposited; only two (dēl because of, for the sake of and labad on behalf of, for the sake of) are postposited, and hence strictly speaking postpositions, even though they are treated under the same heading as the prepositions.

Case Government

The genitive, accusative and marginally the dative can be governed by prepositions in Latvian, whereas the locative — and, of course, the nominative and the vocative — cannot. Genetically speaking, the locative has an “imbedded” postposition. As mentioned (p. 41 above) we do not see the necessity of working with an instrumental case in Latvian because of the merger of this case with the accusative in the singular, the dative in the plural.

Only two prepositions govern more than one case, namely pa (accusative and dative) and uz (accusative and genitive). When governed by the accusative, pa has the following meanings: along, on; through; during/in; by; with the dative it has a “distributive” meaning, cf. below.
The preposition *uz* takes the accusative in the sense of *to*. When combined with the genitive it corresponds to English *on* (and rarely *in*).

One preposition (*līdz until*) governs the dative case. *It should, however, be emphasized that all semi-prepositions/adverbs* (cf. above) *also require the dative case*. Notice also that accusative- and genitive-governing prepositions in certain idiomatic expressions combine with the dative when followed by the demonstrative pronoun *tas*: *bez tam besides; pie tam moreover* (but *bez tā without that, pie tam at* (near) that). Observe also the conjunction *pēc tam kad after* (when).

Eight prepositions govern the accusative case. They will be mentioned in alphabetical order and should be learned by heart by the student: *ap around, ar with, caur through, gar along, par about* (concerning), *pār across, pret against, towards and starp between, among.*

All remaining prepositions govern the genitive which consequently is the case most frequently encountered after prepositions in Latvian. The two postpositions *dēl and labad* (together with *laikā*) also require the genitive case (adnominal genitive, cf. p. 166 ff.), since they originally represent petrified noun forms. The genitive governing prepositions are the following (in alphabetical order):

*aiz behind; across; after; because of* (for), *ārupus outside, bez without; except (but), dēj because of; for (the sake of); kopš since, labad for the sake of, no from; out of, otrpus on the other side, pēc after; for, pie at; with; to, pirms before; ago, priekš before, virs over; above, zem under; beneath.*

Finally, under this point a peculiarity of Latvian (which has also attracted the interest of linguists in general) and an extremely important feature in the grammar of Latvian prepositions should be noticed: *in the plural all Latvian prepositions govern the dative – irrespective of the case (or cases) they require in the singular, e.g. pa ielu (acc.sg.) along the street: pa ielām (dat.pl.) along the streets, bez drauga (gen.sg.) without a friend: bez draugiem (dat.pl.) without friends.* The two postpositions, *dēl and labad*, however, retain their genitive government also in the plural, e.g. *grūtību dēl due to difficulties, bērnu labad to the benefit of the children.*

Note: all prepositional adverbs (cf. p. 183) govern the dative case in both numbers.

**Subsequent Disposition**

There are several ways of presenting prepositions in a grammar of Latvian. One strategy would be to group them according to the case they govern in the singular. Another possibility would simply be to deal with each one of them in alphabetical order. Here, however, a third strategy
will be followed, namely grouping according to their functions (meanings). Thus, prepositions 1) of place, 2) of time, 3) of instrument, 4) purpose, 5) comparison, 6) cause whereas subgroup 7) is reserved for remaining cases.

1. Prepositions of Place

A distinction can be drawn between directional and non-directional (locational) prepositions. Here, however, it should be borne in mind that one preposition, e.g. uz, can have both functions (provided that one is willing to accept that it is one preposition and not two homonyms). Further, a preposition like virs above, over can refer to position, but also movement above (over) a place. A similar duality is also seen with other prepositions, for example, in starp between which can express location, but also passage between two objects. In addition we are faced with the fact that in Latvian, unlike Lithuanian, Slavic, German and many other case languages movement into is expressed not by a preposition + the accusative, but usually with the locative, which in Slavic (and its substitute, the dative, in German) is reserved for location in, not movement into.

A. Accusative-governing Prepositions

ap around: sēdēt ap galdu sit around the table (location in the vicinity of sby/sth.); apiet ap māju (notice the repetition of the preposition in the verbal prefix) walk around the house (movement around);

caur through; via: jāt caur mežu ride through the forest, saule iespīdeja caur logu the sun shone through the window; smaidit caur asarām smile through tears (movement through sth.); braukt caur Kopenhāgenu go via Copenhagen.

Note: the preposition caur in the meaning through is used when some kind of physical obstacle is involved. Otherwise the preposition pa is used, see below.

Observe also the semi-preposition cauri (with the dative) mentioned above. Illustration: cauri sienai right through the wall.

gar along: staigāt gar krastu walk along the bank. Here again a parallel semi-preposition, viz. garām (with the dative) should be noticed: garām upei along the river.

pa along (about, in); through: staigāt pa istabu/ielu/mežu/sniegu walk about (in) the room/in (along) the street/in the forest/in the snow (movement along a surface); skatīties pa logu look through the window (cf. under caur above); iziet pa vārtiem go out through the gate; pa labi/pa kreisi on (to) the right/left;
pār across, over: (pār)peldēt pār upī to swim across the river (movement to a place across sth; note the repetition of the preposition in the verbal prefix); Pār laukiem spīd saule the sun is shining over the fields (location);

Note also the parallel semi-preposition pārī (with the dative) mentioned above. Example: braukt pārī upei go across the river. For absence of verbal prefix, see chapter on aspect (p. 115 ff.);

pret against, towards: peldēt pret straumi swim against the stream, jāt pret kalnu ride uphill;

starp between; among: cēš ir vidū starp mežu un ezeru the road is in the middle between the wood and the lake; starp visiem kandidātiem viņš ir vispiemērotākais among (of) all candidates he is the most suitable one;

B. Genitive-governing Prepositions

aiz behind: māja ir aiz ezerā the house is behind the lake (location); ūdens aiztecējā aiz apkakles (observe the repetition of the preposition in the verbal prefix) the water flowed behind the collar (movement to a place behind sby/sth.); viņi gāja cits aiz cita they were marching one after another (sequence);

no from; out of: atbraukt no Rīgas to arrive from Riga, jāt no kalna ride (down) from the hill; krist no jumta fall from the roof, saņemt vēstuli no drauga get a letter from a friend, aizņemties no ko borrow from sby, izkāpt no vagona get out of the carriage; izņemt no kabatas take out from/ of the pocket. In all these examples the sense of movement is felt, in opposition to the following two, which denote location and origin: tas ir netālu no šeijenes that is not far from here; viņa ir no Piebalgas she is from Piebalga.

The combination from – to is rendered by no (+ genitive) – līdz (+ dative), e.g. no Rīgas līdz Kopenhāgenai from Riga to Copenhagen.

pie at; near; with (at the house of); to: sēdēt pie galda sit at the table, pie mājas ir puķu dobe at (near) the house there is a flower bed; dzīvot pie tēva live (stay) with the father (location in the vicinity of); braukt/iet pie tēva/zobārsta go to one’s father/the dentist (movement to animate beings); iet pie skapja go to the cupboard/ wardrobe (with inanimate objects the preposition pie denotes limited movement as opposed to uz, on which see below);

virs above, over: bilde karājas virs gultas the picture is hanging above the bed; putns lidoja virs koku galotnēm the bird was flying over the tops of the trees;

zem under: sēdēt zem koka sit under a tree; būt zem spiediena be under pressure (figurative sense);
vidū (genitive) in the middle of: istabas vidū in the middle of the room. Observe the postposition of vidū.

priekšā (+ genitive) before, in front of: garāžas priekšā in front of the garage. Note the postposition of priekšā.

C. Dative-governing Prepositions
There is only one, namely

lidz to (the terminal point for the movement): lidz jūrai to the sea

D. Prepositions governing more than one Case
uz (accusative) to, towards: braukt uz Rigu go to Riga, steigties uz staciju hurry to the station (movement / direction towards);
Note: movement into is expressed in Latvian by the prefix ie- + verb of motion + the locative, cf. pp. 180 above.

uz (genitive) on, on to: uz galda guļ grāmata on the table there is a book (location on a surface); likt cepuri uz plaukta put the hat on(to) the shelf, uzlēkt / uzkāpt uz jumta jump onto the roof (limited movement);

2. Prepositions of Time
A. Accusative-governing:
ap around: ap pulksten vienu around one o’clock
uz for: uz bridi for a moment

B. Dative- governing:
lidz till, until, to; by: lidz rītam till the morning; lidz rītdienai by to-morrow

C. Genitive- governing:
kopš since: Viņi ir draugi kopš bērnības they have been friends since childhood;
no from: no bērnības from childhood
Note the combination no – lidz from – till: no rīta lidz vakaram from morning till night (evening), no pieciem lidz septiņiem from five to seven (o’clock)
pēc after; in: pēc kara after the war; viņš atgriezīsies pēc nedēļas he will be back (return) in a week. Observe the construction pēc tam after that, afterwards, thereupon with the dative.
pirms before; ago: pirms kara before the war, pirms gada alone year ago;
laikā during: brīvdienas laikā during the holiday (notice the mandatory postposition of laikā).

3. Prepositions designating the Instrument
There is one preposition in this function, namely:

ar (+ accusative): rakstīt ar zimuli write with a pencil, braukt ar vilcienu go by train

This function corresponds to the non-prepositional instrumental case in Slavic case languages (and Lithuanian).

4. Prepositions of Purpose

par (+ accusative) for: mirt par brīvibu die for freedom, maksāt par kaut ko pay for sth. (as repayment for), nopirkt grāmatu par latu buy the book for alone lats;
pēc (+ genitive) for/after: iet pēc ūdens go for (to fetch/bring) water

5. Prepositions of Comparison

par (+ accusative): viņš ir jaunāks par mani he is younger than me. An alternative construction is that with the conjunction nekā + the nominative (cf. also p. 57): viņš ir jaunāks nekā es (i. e. es esmu) he is younger than I (am).

6. Prepositions of Cause

aiz (+genitive) from, by: aiz pārsteiguma from / by surprise, aiz bailēm from fear;
ar (+ accusative) of: mirt ar vēzi die of cancer;
no (+ genitive) of, from: smaidīt no priekā smile from joy;

Finally, mention should be made of the postposition dēļ (+ genitive) because of: slimības dēļ due to illness.

7. Prepositions of other Meanings

The prepositions in question are listed in alphabetical order:
ar (+ accusative) with, in the company of: runāt ar kolēģi speak with a colleague; manner: gaidīt ar nepacietību wait with impatience
bez (+ genitive) without; except: bez izņēmuma without exception;
bez manis, arī mani draugi bija klāt besides me, also my friends were present.

Observe the construction bez tam in addition with the dative.

pa (+ dative) in distributive function: Jums jāpaņemt pa tabletei trīs reizes dienā you have to take a pill three times a (per) day
par (+ accusative) about; as / in the capacity of: sarunāties par kaut ko to speak about sth.; strādāt par skolotāju work as a teacher. Observe further: kļūt par become, e.g. kļūt par skolotāju become a teacher

pēc (+ genitive) according to: pēc likuma/ziņām according to the law/the news;

pie (+ genitive) by: paņemt pie rokas take by the hand;

pret (+ accusative) against: pret manu gribu against my will, cīnīties pret ienaīdnieku struggle against the enemy, zāles pret gripu medicine against influenza. Observe the parallel semi-preposition pretī(m) (with the dative) mentioned above: viņa sēdēja pretī man she was sitting just opposite me.

Finally, combinations of adverb + preposition should be observed, e.g. kopā ar together with, prom no away from.
Chapter 10
TIME EXPRESSIONS

Some expressions of time have been included in the two preceding chapters. Some relevant expressions are mentioned also in the chapter on numerals. It seems, however, practical to concentrate such expressions in one place with the advantage of allowing a more detailed and lucid presentation.

1. The 24 Hours Cycle
   in the morning/in the evening  no rīta/vakarā
   in the morning/evenings       rītos/vakaros
   during the day                dienā
   during the night              naktī
   during (in) the nights        naktīs
   yesterday morning             vakar no rīta
   this morning/evening          šorīt/šovakar
   today/tonight                 šodien/šovakar
   tomorrow                      rīt
   tomorrow morning/night        rīt no rīta (rītnorīt)/rītvakar
   the day before yesterday      aizvakar
   two days before yesterday     aizaizvakar
   the day after to-morrow       parīt
   in (after) two days           aizparīt
   early in the morning          agri no rīta
   late in the evening           vēlu vakarā
   in (during) the night from—
   to                           naktī no – uz pirmdienu

2. Hours
   what time is it?              cik pulksten(i)s?
   it is 1 (2, 5) o’clock        pulksten(i)s ir viens (divi, pieci)
   it is ten to two             pulksten(i)s ir bez desmit
   it is ten past eight          divi (desmit pirms diviem)
                                   pulksten(i)s ir desmit pāri (pēc)
                                   astoņiem
it is a quarter past eight
it is half past eight

at what time?
(arrive) at 1 (2, 5) o’clock
(arrive) at half past eight

cikos?
(atbraukt) vienos (divos, piecos)
(atbraukt) pusdeviņos (pusē de viņos)

3. The Days of the Week
on Monday etc.
on Mondays
in (during) this week
next week
last week

pirmdien(ā)
pirmdienās
šonedēļ
nākamnedēļ; jaunnedēļ
pagājušajā nedēļā

janvārī

4. The Month(s)
in January etc.

5. The Seasons of the Year
during (in) the spring
during (in) the summer
during (in) the winter

pavasarī
šopavasar/pagājušajā pavasarī/
nākamajā pavasarī
vasarā
ziemā

6. The Year
in this year/last year/next year

šogad/pagājušajā gada (or: pērn)/nākamgad
divdesmitajos gados

in the twenties

7. The Century
in this century

šai gadsimtā

8. Dates
today is August 18, 1996

deviņdesmit sestā gada astopadsmitais augusts
Note the nominative case of the date/month combination (because of the function as grammatical subject of the sentence).

on August 18, 1996

tūkstoš deviņdesmit sestā gada
astopadsmitajā augustā

Notice the locative case of the date/month combination in the adverbal function.
9. Undetermined Time Expressions
locative:
in childhood/ youth/old age     bērnība/jaunība/vecumā
(vecumdiennās)

10. How long? How often?
Accusative without preposition:
twice a week               divreiz nedēļā

11. For how long?
for how long?               uz cik ilgi? / uz cik ilgu laiku?

12. Before/after
A. before: pirms (+ genitive):
   before the war            pirms kara
B. after: pēc (+ genitive)
   after the war             pēc kara
   after (in) two days       pēc divām dienām

13. From - to (till):
   from spring till winter  no pavasara līdz ziemai
   from morning till night  no rīta līdz naktīj (vakaram)

14. During
   A. see under 1 above
   B. during the early hours of
      Sunday morning           svētdien(a) agri
   C. during (in) the years 1945-
      1991                    no tūkstoš deviņšimt četrdesmit
   piektā līdz tūkstoš deviņšimt deviņdesmit pirmjam gadam
   D. during (= in the period/reign of):
      under Ulmanis           Ulmaņa laikā

15. In (after):
in five days              pēc piecām dienām

16. Towards
   towards the evening      pret vakaru

17. Ago:
   many years ago          pirms daudziem gadiem
Chapter 11

CONJUNCTIONS
(Saiklis)

In this chapter we will just list the most important conjunctions of Standard Latvian and their English equivalents. Some of the (coordinate) conjunctions are capable only of uniting words (or word groups), not sentences, whereas others can do both.

For the use of conjunctions, see chapter 12 on compound sentences (p. 208 ff.).

It is customary to distinguish between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

1. Coordinate

Coordinate conjunctions are divided into the following groups:
A. copulative, B. adversative and C. disjunctive:

A. Copulative:
un and (plus others, see p. 208)

B. Adversative:
bet but

C. Disjunctive:
vai or
jeb or (= "alias", or in other words)
vai nu - vai (arī) either - or

2. Subordinate

Subordinate conjunctions can be classified according to the following two main groups:
CONJUNCTIONS

A. Explicative:

ka that
vai if

B. Adverbial

This group has numerous subclasses. The most important are: conjunctions of time, of purpose, of result, of reason, and conditional, concessive and comparative conjunctions:

a) Conjunctions of time

kad when
kamër while
tikmër as long as
tikko / lidzko / kolidz / tiklidz as soon as
kopš since
lidz until
pëc tam ka(d) after (when)

b) Conjunctions of purpose

lai (+ the subjunctive) in order to, in order that

c) Conjunctions of result

tâ ka so that

d) Conjunctions of reason

tâpëc ka / tâdël ka because, since
tâ - ka so - that

e) Conditional

ja if

f) Concessive

kaut gan / kaut lai / kaut arî / lai gan / lai arî although

g) Comparative

kâ as; like
it(in) kâ as if
nekâ than
tâpat kâ / kâ kad / tâ - kâ / tâ - it(in) kâ / tâpat ka / tikpat kâ
(similarly) as, like

jo - jo the - the
Chapter 12

THE SENTENCE
*(Teikums)*

**Definition**

A sentence can be defined as a *prosodically complete speech unit of a specific structure, expressing a relatively complete thought*. This is only one of many possible definitions of the notion “sentence”. It is binary, in the de Saussurian sense that it focuses both on the *formal* side and that of the *content*.

**THE MEMBERS OF THE SENTENCE**

The Latvian sentence can have the following members: the *subject* (priekšmets), the *only principal member* (galvenais locekls) and the *predicate* (izteicējs), which are labeled the *principal* members of the sentence, in contrast to the *object* (papildinātājs) and the *adverbial* (apstāklis), which constitute the *dependent* members of the sentence. Latvian (and other) grammarians also often include the *attribute* (apzīmētājs) and the *apposition* (pielikums) in the class of (dependent) sentence members.

Furthermore, in Latvian tradition *dubultlocekls* (lit. “double member”) and *ierobežājs* (lit. “limitator”) are encountered. The former refers to the subject or the object and at the same time to the predicate, and may be regarded as a special kind of attribute (“predicative attribute”), whereas the latter is functionally close to the object or the adverbial and can be attributed to one of them.
The Principal Members

The Subject
(Priekšmets)

Here we have in mind the grammatical subject, which is most frequently expressed by a noun or a pronoun in the nominative case. It can also be expressed by a nominal form of the verb, i.e. the infinitive. For examples, see under predicate below. In one-part sentences (for definition, see next chapter / section) there is no grammatical subject.

Omission of Subject Pronoun
In Latvian deletion (omission) of a personal pronoun in the function of a subject may take place in compound sentences, p. 208 ff. (including participle constructions) in instances of the following kind:
Mēs apgājām tam apkārt, un tas nozīmē, ka esam kļuviši drusku svētaki
We went around it (i.e. the hill), and that means that we have become more sacred;
Kad iepazīnos ar Plasido, viņš teica, ka gribot man palīdzēt
When I had become acquainted with Placido (Domingo), he said that he wanted to help me.
Viņa teica, ka nevarot She said that she couldn’t
Note also the following example from a dialogue:
Un jums roks nepatīk? - Patīk - tad, kad vadu mašīnu vai mazgāju traukus And you don’t like rock music? Oh, yes, I like it when I am driving (my car) or am doing the dishes.

The Only Principal Member
(Galvenais loceklis)
The galvenais loceklis is the name of the only principal member in one-part sentences (for the term, see p. 205 ff.). Although (often) identical in form with either the subject or the predicate, it cannot be functionally identified with either of these.
Examples: Vakars (it is) evening; tumst (it is) growing dark (darkens); klusu (it is) quiet/silent.
The Predicate
(Izteicējs)

The predicate may be of two kinds: verbal or nominal. This holds true both for two-part and one-part sentences (on which terms, see p. 205).

1) a verbal predicate is expressed by a finite form (definition on p. 82) of a non-copulative verb (see below). It can be simple (e.g. studenti raksta the students are writing; satumst it is getting dark) or compound (e.g. viņš sāka rakstīt he began writing, viņš grib rakstīt he wants to write; sāka satumst it began getting dark). As illustrated through these examples, a compound predicate consists of a verb auxiliary (phasal or modal) in a finite form plus an infinitive.

2) a nominal predicate consists of a copulative verb (i.e. verbs with the meaning of be (in a non-existent sense) or become) + a nominal part which may be either a noun, an adjective or a pronoun: es esmu skolotājs I am a teacher, viņš ir skolotājs he is a teacher, viņa ir jauna she is young, viņi bija vieni they were alone, vakars (it is) evening.

Omission of Copulative Verb
The form ir is; are can be omitted where an adjective constitutes the nominal part of the predicate as, for example, in Anda jauna Anda is young, but as a rule it is not omitted in this environment.

Note: if both the subject and the nominal part of the predicate are expressed by nouns, ir cannot be omitted: Jānis ir skolotājs John is a teacher.

Moreover, ir is frequently omitted in constructions with a logical subject in the dative case, e.g. cik tev gadu? how old are you? along with cik tev ir gadu?

The form ir is usually omitted in the present tense of the debitive mood (p. 130 f.), e.g. man jāstrādā I have to work (instead of the less frequent construction man ir jāstrādā).

The negative nav can never be omitted.

Copulative verb forms others than ir (i.e. esmu, esi, esam, esat) are very rarely omitted. Furthermore, omissions are restricted to the present tense.

Where the copulative verb is omitted before a past participle, we are more likely to have a form of the relative mood (p. 131 ff.) rather than a compound past form of the indicative. Thus, the form dzimis in the sentence Rudolfs Blaumanis dzimis Vidzemē Rudolf Blaumanis is (was) born in Vidzeme represents the relative mood (and can be encountered in an encyclopaedic entry) while the construction ir dzimis is a plain indicative.
The Syntactic Relationship between Subject and Predicate

The syntactic relationship between the subject and the predicate as main members of the sentence, is one not of dependency, but of interdependency.

The predicate may be conceived as the central member of the sentence 1) since in one-part sentences (see p. 205 ff.) the principal sentence member may (often) be identified as a predicate, and 2) since the dependent sentence members (objects and adverbials) are immediately dependent on the predicate (and not on the subject).

The Dependent Members

As demonstrated through examples under the principal members of the sentence above (as well as in the table on basic sentence patterns, p. 204), complete sentences can consist only of a subject and a predicate in two-part sentences (p. 205) and in one-part sentences (p. 205 ff.) of a predicate alone. However, both two-part and one-part sentences can be extended by dependent members, namely the object and the adverbial.

The Object

(Papildinātājs)

Like the subject, the object is usually expressed through one of the nominal word classes, noun or pronoun, but – unlike the subject – it must be in a dependent, i.e. non-nominative case (except for the nominative object in deitative constructions, see p. 130 above). Like the subject, the object can also be in the form of an infinitive. Examples: Aina lasa grāmatu Aina is reading a book; Aina to lasa Aina is reading it (i.e. the book); bērns ie mācās lasīt the child is learning to read.

A distinction is made between the direct object in the accusative case after transitive verbs and the indirect with intransitive verbs, i.e. verbs requiring dependent cases other than the accusative. Example of an indirect object: palīdzēt mammai to help (the) mother.

The question as to whether the genitive of negation or the partitive genitive in connection with transitive verbs should be labeled a direct or indirect object seems to be a kind of grammatical grey zone. For examples, see chapter 8 on case.

Depending on the case, one can speak of accusative, genitive, dative and locative objects, e.g. lasīt grāmatu to read a book; kaunēties dēla to be ashamed of the son; palīdzēt mātei to help the mother; piezīmēt sacīkstēs to participate in the competition.
An object (in the accusative, genitive or dative) expressed through a prepositional phrase is called a prepositional object. An example illustrating a prepositional object: Šī grāmata pieder pie autora labākajiem darbiem this book belongs to the best works of the author.

Finally, it should be emphasized that some predicates can or must be combined with more than one object, whereby a frequent combination is that of an indirect (dative) object denoting a person and a direct (accusative) object for the thing: Viņš nopirka viņai dārgu gredzenu he bought her an expensive ring.

The type of subordination with objects is government.

Government (Latvian pārvaldījums) is (together with agreement (cf. p. 215) and adjunction (cf. under adverbial below)) one of the three ways of expressing subordination in Latvian. The formal means for expressing subordination are inflection and inflection combined with preposition. Government implies that one morpheme x presupposes another y in the utterance (sentence), but not the other way round (i.e. y does not presuppose x). Thus, books in read books / they read books offers an example of government. The governing word (head) is most frequently a verb, but can also be a preposition, a noun, an adjective, a numeral or another quantifier.

The Adverbial
(Apstākls)

The adverbial can be expressed by an adverb or – like the object – by a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase. Examples: Viņi ilgi/ilgu laiku dzīvoja ārzemēs they lived abroad for (a) long (time), viņa uzrakstīja vēstuli vienas stundas laikā she wrote the letter in one hour.

As in the case of adverbs (p. 163), several types of adverbials are distinguished: temporal (cf. examples just quoted), local (e.g. atgriezīties no pilsētas return from the city), of manner (viņš iet ātri he walks fast), of purpose (riet senēs un ogās go to gather mushrooms and berries), of reason (drebēt no aukstuma tremble from cold) and others.

Forms of subordination here are government and adjunction.

For government, cf. above. Adjunction (or “juxtaposition”, Latvian pieklāvums) may be defined negatively as the way of subordination which cannot adequately be described as agreement or government. Typical cases of adjunction are encountered with indeclinable words like adverbs, gerunds or infinitives. Some examples: ātri (adverb) in iet ātri walk fast, loti (adverb) in loti ātri very fast, steigdamies (gerund) in iet steigdamies walk hastily (hurrying) and vēlēšanās atpūtīties wish (desire) to rest. When adverbials are expressed by a noun phrase as, for example, ilgu laiku (instead of the adverb ilgi) in dzīvot ilgu laiku ārzemēs (cf. example quoted above) one can equally speak of adjunction (or by way of alternative ‘weak government’).
Latvian grammatical tradition also makes use of a term *ierobežotājs*, lit. “limitator”, cf., for example, *viņš ir spēcīgs matemātikā* he is strong in math. The *ierobežotājs*, which is most frequently expressed by a noun in the locative case, has the limiting sense of ‘with respect to’. In chapter 8 on case we held this to be an adverbial function of the locative.

**Difficulties in distinguishing Objects from Adverbials**

It is often difficult to distinguish between an object and an adverbial. In the case of prepositional phrases it is crucial whether there is only one possible and obligatory preposition required by the verb or whether more (non-verb) determined prepositions can be applied. The former situation is an indication of an object: *piederēt pie grupas* belong to a group, the latter of an adverbial, e.g. *braukt no Rigas* go from Riga, *braukt uz Rigu* go to Riga.

A practical test often used is that *adverbials* answer questions with an *adverb*, in contrast to the object, which is determined by a question with a *pronoun*. Thus, in the sentence *laukos viņa man katrī dienā atnes no dārza ābolu* in the countryside she brings me an apple from the garden every day the dependent members *man* and *ābolu* answer the pronominal questions *kam?* for whom? and *ko?* what? whereas *katrī dienā* and *laukos* answer questions with the adverbs *kad?* / *cik bieži?* when? / how often? and *kur?* where? respectively. For determining the character of *no dārza*, however, both the question with an adverb (*no kuriennes?* from where?) and that with a pronoun (*no ka?* from what?) seems possible. The conclusion is that the test is not applicable in every case. This means that additional criteria must be used. By comparing *no dārza* in the above sentence with, for example, *no dārza in muizā sastāv no dārza un lielas mājas* the estate consists of a garden and a big house one feels the much closer connection with the verb in the latter case which allows us to speak of a prepositional object as opposed to an adverbial in the former, i.e. in [...] *atnes no dārza abolu*.

**The Attribute**

(*Apzīmētājs*)

The attribute is expressed by an adjective, an adjectival pronoun, a participle or a numeral. It can be *congruent* (i.e. subordinated to a noun through agreement, cf. p. 215 below) or *incongruent* (in which case it is subordinated through government, cf. p.200). As examples of congruent attributes may serve *jauna* in the noun phrase *jauna māja* a new house, *mana māja* my house, *cita* in *cita māja* another house, *pieminētā māja* the house mentioned, *trešā* in *trešā māja* the third house, *piecas* in *piecas mājas* five houses and of incongruent *mūsu* in *mūsu māja* our house, *tēva* in *tēva māja* father’s house (and from a logical point of view *desmit in desmit māju* ten houses).

As indicated in the introduction to this chapter, it is dubious as to whether the attribute should strictly speaking be regarded as a member of the sentence, since it is subordinate either to the subject, the object or the adverbial and – to the extent that it is a sentence member at all – can therefore count only as an indirect one of low (tertiary) rank in the sentence hierarchy.
A special case of *apzīmētājs* is the so-called *dubultloceklīs* (lit. ‘double member’). The ratio for this term is the double reference, namely both to the subject / object and the verb, e.g. *viņa nāca viena* she came alone; *mēs atradām viņu vienu* we found her alone where *viiena* and *vienu* are labeled *dubultloceklī* in Latvian grammatical tradition.

**The Apposition**
*(Pielikums)*

Attributes in the form of nouns which are subordinated to other nouns by means of agreement (p. 215) or adjunction (p. 200) are regarded as appositions. Examples: the title in the noun phrase *profesore Rudzīte*, Gen. *profesores Rudzītes* etc. *Professor Rudzīte* and the proper noun in *netālu no rūpnīcas* “Riga” not far from the factory “Riga”.

That which was said about the status of the attribute as a member of the sentence also holds true for appositions.

**Classification of the Sentence**

There are many ways of classifying a sentence:

1. From the point of view of modality it can be classified either as A. *declarative*, B. *hortatory* (imperative) or C. *interrogative*.

Examples of types A-C:

A. *Pēteris lasa grāmatu* Peter is reading the book,

B. *Lasi grāmatu, Pēteri!* read the book, Peter!

C. *Vai Pēteris lasa grāmatu?* is Peter reading the book?

Moreover, a sentence can be *affirmative* (*Pēteris lasa grāmatu* Peter is reading the book / *viņš ir liels* he is big) or negated (*Pēteris nelasa grāmatu* Peter is not reading the book / *viņš nav liels* he is not big).

Point 1 will not be further elaborated in this chapter, but types A-C will be described in detail in chapter 14 on word order.

2. Departing from the structure the sentence can be classified either as A. *two-part* (divkopu teikums) or B. *one-part* (vienkopas teikums). An obligatory requirement of the former is the presence of the two principal members of the sentence, i.e. a grammatical subject (*priekšmets*) in the nominative case + a predicate (*izteicējs*), which agrees with the subject, as opposed to one-part sentences, which are in the possession of only one principal member, in Latvian labeled *(galvenais loceklis, lit. the (only) principal member* (p. 197), a term unmistakably inspired by Russian grammatical tradition.

Examples of A. two-part sentences are: *Pēteris lasa Peter is reading / Pēteris ir jauns Peter is young*
and of

B. one-part: satumst it is getting dark / (ir) auksts it is cold.

One-part sentences should not be confused with incomplete sentences since one-part sentences are considered to be structurally complete. An example of an incomplete sentence is: Pēteris (instead of the complete lasa Pēteris) as an answer to the question kas lasa? who is reading?

Point 2 will be dealt with in more detail below.

3. Sentences containing other sentence members than the principal members, i.e. dependent members, are called extended (or expanded) sentences (p. 199). Both two-part and one-part sentences can be extended.

4. Finally, a distinction must be made between simple (vienkārši) and compound (salikti) sentences (teikumi). The simple sentence will be defined and described in the immediately following passage. For the compound sentence, see p. 208 ff.

Subsequent Disposition

The distinction between the simple and the compound sentence will have the highest hierarchical rank in the subsequent disposition. The simple sentence will be divided into two main sections, according to the two parameters two-part and one-part sentences respectively, presented in point 2 above. This bifurcation will not be implemented in the case of the compound sentence, since it cannot be applied to the compound sentence as a whole, only to its constituents, which are in fact identical in structure with simple sentences. For the same reason, the term basic sentence patterns, which will be introduced in the following, is reserved for the simple sentence.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

(Vienkāršs teikums)

The simple sentence may be defined as a sentence containing one single predicative center. A simple sentence is classified as either two-part or one-part, cf. p. 205 f. The basic sentence patterns valid for Latvian are:
### Two-part sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I: Nom_{subst/pron} + V_{fin}</th>
<th>viņi strāda / cel they are working / building</th>
<th>I: V_{fin3pers}</th>
<th>salst it is cold strādā one is / they are building</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II a) Nom_{subst/pron} + Cop_{fin} + Adj</td>
<td>viņi ir jauni they are young</td>
<td>II a): Cop_{fin3pers} + Adj</td>
<td>(ir) auksts it is cold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIb) Nom_{pron} + Cop_{fin} + Adv</td>
<td>tas ir interesanti that is interesting</td>
<td>II b): Cop_{fin3pers} + Adv</td>
<td>(ir) klusi it is silent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III: Nom_{subst/pron} + Cop_{fin} + Nom</td>
<td>viņa ir studente she is a student</td>
<td>III: Nom_{subst}</td>
<td>vasara it is summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV: Dat_{subst/pron} + V_{fin/esse} + Nom_{subj/pron}</td>
<td>viņam ir grāmata he has a book</td>
<td>IV: Dat + infinitive</td>
<td>tev sēdēt! you will have to sit!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The symbols used in the diagram should be almost self-explanatory. V esse stands for finite (fin) form of the verb būt in non-cop(ulative) function (cf. p. 198). The scheme has a certain resemblance with that presented in Valdmanis 1987, 76-77, but does not contain all his types. Further, our concepts deviate in some respects because our theoretical basis is somewhat different.

The basic sentence types given in the diagram can be extended by dependent members (for the term, cf. p. 191). Thus, an object or an adverbial (as well as attributes etc.) can be added: for example, viņi cel māju they are building a house, ir klusi mežā it is silent in the wood, viņi strādā dārzā they are working in the garden, salst ārā it is cold outside, viņa ir (jauna) studente Rīgā she is a (new) student in Riga.

A problem arises in connection with the valence of verbs. It seems unnatural or impossible to say, for example, es devu / gave without adding a direct and even an indirect object as well: es (ie)devu viņai rozi / gave her a rose. The inclusion of objects appears to be obligatory with the verb dot give. From such considerations one may ask whether sentences containing objects (and possibly also adverbials - other than the predicative ones found in the above diagram) should also be regarded as basic, but their inclusion is also problematic since not every object (or adverbial) is an obligatory member of the sentence. Thus, for example, in es nopirku viņai rozi I bought her a rose the indirect object viņai is
optional (in the sense that a grammatically correct sentence can be con-
strued without it), whereas the inclusion of the direct object (rozi) in this
case seems obligatory, in contrast to māju in e.g. viņi cel. It is, how-
ever, possible to work with structures of the type Nom subst/pron + Vfin
+ Objdir and Noms subst/pron + Vfin + Objindir + Objdir among basic
sentences. One the other hand, the above diagram is attractive in terms of
linguistic economy.

Two-Part Sentences
(Divkopus teikumi)

Two-part sentences must contain a grammatical (i.e. nominative)
subject + a predicate which agrees (p. 215) with the subject, cf. the
table of sentence patterns quoted above. In addition, they can have
dependent sentence members (object, adverbial), see comments to table
just referred to.

Two-part sentences in Latvian do not deviate considerably from
those known from Germanic and other languages, and will therefore not
be described in detail here.

The main types are given in the survey of sentence patterns above.
For further examples, see chapter 14 on word order which also gives an
overview of the different positions which can be occupied by the mem-
bers of the sentence.

One-Part Sentences
(Vienkopas teikumi)

One-part sentences should be examined in more detail than two-
part, since they show structures which are either absent or very rarely en-
countered in many other languages. Students with knowledge of a Slavic
language will be familiar with such structures, whereas many others will
have to study them very carefully.

In contrast to two-part sentences, one-part sentences can never
contain a grammatical (i.e. nominative) subject in agreement with a
predicate. The obligatory component of a one-part sentence is the galve-
nais loceklis (the only principal member), cf. p. 197.

Depending on the form of this member, a distinction is drawn
between verbal one-part sentences (with the subgroup infinitival sen-
tences) and nominal one-part sentences.
The term *impersonal sentence* is often encountered in grammatical expositions. As far as Latvian is concerned, it can in most cases be said to be identical with one-part sentences.

**Verbal One-Part Sentences**

Verbal one-part sentences can be defined as one-part sentences with a *verbal principal member* (for the term, see p. 198). This member is usually in the 3rd person.

1) The simplest structure is represented by sentences consisting of the principal member only. Here belongs a group of verbs incapable of taking an object, for instance, the “meteorological” *aust* become light / dawn, *tumst* become dark, *lit* rain, *smidzināt* drizzle, *snīgt* snow, *zi-benot* flash (of lightning), *salt* freeze.

Examples: *tumsa* it was becoming dark, *salst* it is freezing, *snīga* it was snowing. With some of the verbs a tautological noun in the nominative case may be added, thus changing the structure into a personal (automatically two-part) sentence: *list* or *list lietus* it is raining (lit. ‘the rain is raining’).

After *phasal auxiliaries* the above verbs will be in the form of an infinitive, e.g. *beidza* lit it stopped raining. The combination *sāka* lit can be referred to as a compound verbal principal member (p. 198).

In this place mention should also be made of the Latvian equivalents of the man-sentences of German and the Nordic languages: *raksta* one writes/is writing (man schreibt), *meklē* one searches/is searching (man sucht), *runā / teic / saka* (ka ...) one says/it is said (that ...), *man sagt*, (dass ...) etc. Such sentences are one-part, but personal. Also here the infinitive must be used after phasal auxiliaries, e.g. *sāka rakstīt* one began writing (man fing an zu schreiben).

2) Adverbial extensions (on extension, see p. 199) are possible, e.g. *vakar visu dienu nepārtraukti lija* yesterday it was raining uninterruptedly all day long; *par to rakstīja avīzēs* one writes about that in the papers / it is being written about that in the newspapers. The adverbials used here are optional, in the sense that they are not required by the valence of the verb.

3) One part-sentences with a verbal principal member can have an obligatory object in the accusative, genitive or dative.

A. An accusative object is found in cases like *kuģi šūpo* the ship is rocking (lit. ‘it is rocking the ship’).

B. The genitive object is typical of *negative existential constructions*: *nav sniega* there is no snow. Grammatically *sniega* has to be classified as an object, even though from a logical point of view it can be conceived as a subject. Here belong also constructions with *trūkt* be
lacking, e.g. trukst sniega snow is lacking (and, of course, netrūkst not be lacking: sniega netrūkst).

C. The function of a grammatical object, but logical subject is also observed in the dative in sentences of the type viņai veicas (infinitive veikties) she is lucky.

Here on may also mention deitive constructions: man ļastrādā I have to work, cf. p. 129 ff.

Infinitive Sentences

Infinitive sentences can be regarded as a special kind of verbal one-part sentences, with an infinitive in the function of the “galvenais loceklis” (cf. p. 197) alone, e.g. ko mums darit? what shall we do? Here the infinitive is grammatically independent (with ko and mums as sentence members dependent on the infinitive), as opposed to cases like, sāka list it began raining or viņš sāka strādāt he began working, where the infinitives are dependent on the phasal verb auxiliary. Thus, the latter type are not infinitive sentences according to the definition just given.

Infinitive sentences in Latvian express different modal shades of meaning (thus, besides questions like those in the above example also wish, command and others): koku nocirst! the tree must be cut down!

Here one can also mention constructions of the type man nav ar ko runāt I have nobody to speak with; man nav kur sēdēt I have nowhere to sit (cf. pp. 72 and 155 above).

Nominal One-Part Sentences

A nominal one-part sentence is a one part sentence with a nominal galvenais loceklis (for the term, see p. 198).

Two different types should be distinguished, cf. table of basic sentence patterns above, namely

1) sentences in which the galvenais loceklis is expressed by a passive participle or adjective / adverb + a copulative verb,

and

2) sentences in which the galvenais loceklis is in the form of a noun in the nominative case.

The latter type is often referred to as a nominative sentence.

Examples of 1): ir auksts it is cold, būs saulains it will be sunny, bija kluss it was quiet., kļuva siltāks it became warmer.

In extended constructions (see p. 199), the above adjectives, which are in the unmarked masculine gender (cf. p. 40), adopt the form of an adverb-adjective ending in -i (cf. p. 162), e.g. man ir aukstī / feel cold, vakar šeit bija klusi yesterday it was quiet here.
The following examples may serve as illustrations of 2): *zibens* (it /there is) lightning, *putenis* (it / there is) snow-storm.

In cases like *bija zibens* there was a lightning, *būs putenis* there will be a snow-storm, *ir bijis zibens* there has been a lightning, it can be argued that we are dealing with two-part constructions, since there is a subject noun in the nominative accompanied by/in agreement with a predicate verb. It would also be possible to regard cases like *zibens* and *putenis* as sentences with a deleted (omitted) verb in the (unmarked) present tense and thus as a potential candidate for a two-part construction.

**THE COMPOUND SENTENCE**

(*Salikts teikums*)

A compound sentence contains more than one predicative centre. The predicative centers can be linked together through syndetism or asyndetism. The former device involves the implementation of conjunctions (see chapter 11) or conjunctive words (= relative pronouns and adverbs, see chapters 4 and 7).

Conjunctions are either coordinating or subordinating, whence also the distinction between coordinate and subordinate clauses. In the following exposition syndetism will have our main attention, but a note on asyndetism will be given at the end of the chapter.

**Coordination**

(*Teikuma sakārtojums*)

The most important coordinating conjunctions were listed in above chapter 11 on conjunctions. In addition, there are a good number of others which may be said to have the functions of coordinate conjunctions, for which more comprehensive grammars of Latvian and dictionaries should be consulted.

Examples:

**un:**

*Es rakstu un tu raksti*

*I am writing and you are writing*

*ir ... ir:*

*Nāca jaunie, ir vecie*

*Both young and old came*

*kā ... tā (ari):*

*Kā es rakstu, tā tu arī (raksti)*

*Both I (am writing) and you are writing*
gan ... gan:
Rēni gan spēlēja bumbu, gan peldējās
The children now both played ball, now (and took a bath
bet:
Es rakstu, bet tu lasi
I am writing, but (whereas) you are reading
vai:
(Vai) man vai tev būs jādara šis darbs
(Either) I or you have to do this work
ne ... ne; ne ... nedz; nedz ... nedz:
Ne vilnītis šalc, ne lapa kokā kust (Rainis)
Not (neither) a wave is roaring, not (nor) a leaf is moving in the
tree;
To nezina nedz viņš, nedz tu
Neither he nor you know that
Ne viņš var, nedz grib ko darīt
He is neither able nor willing to do anything

Subordination
(Teikuma pakārtojums)

As the heading implies, this classification is made on the basis of the subordinate clause. There are different kinds of subordinate clauses and several ways of classifying them. Here the following scheme will be followed:

1) explicative
2) determinative
3) adverbial clauses

The most important subordinate conjunctions are listed in the chapter on conjunctions.

1. Explicative Clauses

The verb in the main clause belongs to the semantic sphere of saying, asking, seeing, feeling and the like, and the subordinate conjunction will correspond to English that (Latvian ka or lai, for distribution, see below) or if (Latvian vai). These conjunctions are typical of indirect discourse (in a broad sense). The vai/if-clause is used in indirect questions. Indirect questions not introduced by vai/if, but by an interrogative pronoun or adverb, will also be treated in this section.

Examples:
A. Non-interrogative:
   a) Viņa teica, ka šodien (ir) skaists laiks
      She said that today the weather was fine
   b) Viņa teica, lai es tulīt atnākot
      She said that I should come at once

In b) lai has to be used to the exclusion of ka, since teica here has
the meaning of a command or request (she demanded that). The con-
junction lai requires the relative mood (or the subjunctive), cf. pp. 127 f.
and 132. Also in a) the relative mood could have been used (instead of
the indicative), but with a somewhat different shade of meaning, see p.
132.

B. Interrogative:
   a) yes/no-questions: Viņa jautāja, vai laiks (ir) skaists / vai es
      atnākšu
      She asked if the weather was fine / whether/if I would come
   b) wh-questions: Viņa jautāja, kas atnāca / kā un kad viņš
      atnāca
      She asked who had come / how and when he came;
      Viņa jautāja, cik grāmatu jāpierkt
      She asked how many books it was necessary to / she should buy

In examples of the above type, a discrepancy in the use of tenses
will often be observed between Latvian and English etc. This is because
in indirect speech Baltic (as well as Slavic) retains the tense of the
direct speech, whereas English (and the Nordic languages) has
developed a mechanism called “consecutio temporum”, which means
that the tense of the verb of the dependent clause repeats that of the verb
in the main clause, cf. Viņa teica: “Šodien (ir) skaists laiks → Viņa
teica, ka šodien (ir) skaists laiks and she said: “Today the weather is
nice” → She said that today the weather was nice.

2. Determinative Clauses

There are two kinds of determinative clauses:
   A. noun determinative and B. pronoun determinative.

Type A is illustrated in: Tie studenti, kas vakar atnāca uz Rigu,
bija [...] those students who yesterday arrived in Riga, were [...],
where the noun studenti is said to be determined by the clause introdu-
ced with kas. In the following sentence: Riga, kur viņš atnāca vakar,
ir [...] Riga, where they arrived yesterday, is [...] the noun Rīga is
determined by a clause starting with kur.
Type B is exemplified in: Visi, kas vakar atnāca uz Rigu, bija [...] all who arrived in Riga, were [...] Here the pronoun visi is determined by kas.

As demonstrated through the examples in both types, the conjunctive word is either a relative pronoun or an adverb. For further examples, see under relative pronouns and adverbs (pp. and above).

As a subtype of B one might mention cases such as kas nestrādā, tas neēd the one who doesn't work, doesn't eat.

3. Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses form a large group with many subdivisions, such as adverbial clauses of time, purpose, reason and others. They are labeled adverbial because the subordinate clause may be said to be syntactically equivalent to an adverbial extension of the main clause, just like an adverb or adverbial: for example, kad es atnāca, viņas tur nebija when I came, she was not there and tai laikā viņas tur nebija then/at that time she was not there.

For “semi-clauses” expressed by gerunds, see p. ff. 150 ff.

The examples quoted under 1) the explicative type could have been labeled object clauses (p. 209 f.) since the dependent clause here functions as an object, cf. viņa teica to (object) she said that: viņa teica, kad [...] (object) she said that [...].

A. Clauses of Time

The conjunction most commonly used here is kad when. Other important conjunctions of time are kamēr while; till, until, pirms before, pēc tam kad after (when), kopš since, tiklīdz / līdzko / tikko as soon as.

Examples:

Zēns ienāca, kad stunda jau bija sākusies the boy came in when the lesson had already begun; iešu tad, kad mani saukš (note the correspondence tad – kad), I’ll go (then) when they will call for me; viņš lasīja grāmatu, kamēr bērni rotālājas he was reading a book while the children were playing; gaidīšu, kamēr atnāks tēvs I’ll wait until father comes; neatdošu grāmatu, pirms to nebūšu izlasījis I’ll not give the book back until I have read it through (observe the use of the compound future in the dependent clause (lit. until I shall have ...) and compare with the simple future in the same sense in the preceding example); pagājis jau mēnesis, kopš viņš aizbrauca a month has already passed since he left; tiklīdz viņu ieraudzīju, tūlīt pazinu as soon as I caught sight of him/her, I recognized him/her.
Note the lack of symmetry between *pēc tam kad* and *pirms* (*tam kad*) in that the latter can be used without the addition of *tam kad: izdari to tagad, pirms* (*tam kad*) *neesī aizmirsīs* do it now before you forget (lit. have forgotten) it.

**B. Clauses of Purpose**

Clauses of purpose and intent have the conjunction *lai in order that, (in order) to*. It is followed by the subjunctive mood (cf. p. 127):

*Viņš aizbrauca, lai viņa sieva atpūstos* he went away in order that his wife should have a rest; *viņš aizbrauca, lai atpūstos* he went away (in order) to rest. Observe that when the subjects of the main and the subordinate clause of purpose are identical (as in the second example), many languages (among them English) choose a construction with the infinitive rather than using a subordinate clause. This, however, is not possible in Latvian, where a subordinate clause with the subjunctive is obligatory, regardless of the reference indicated by the subject.

The same strategy is found in cases with a general, not explicitly expressed subject: *lai varētu labāk pārredzēt apkārtni, bija jāuzkāpj torni in order that one (they) might better see across the surroundings, one (they) had to climb onto the tower; lai labāk pārredzētu apkārtni, [...] in order to see better across the surroundings [...].*

**C. Clauses of Result**

Such clauses are characterized by the conjunctions *tā, ka so that* plus the indicative: *Viņš runāja tā, kā visi viņu saprata* he spoke so (in such a way) that everybody understood him, which can be contrasted with the adverbial clause of purpose with the subjunctive (cf. B): *Viņš runāja tā, lai visi viņu saprastu* he spoke so (in such a way) in order that everybody (should) understand him.

**D. Clauses of Reason**

For this function Latvian has at its disposal *tāpēc ka / tādēļ ka* (cf. Swedish *därför att*) because, since: *Durvis bija ciet tāpēc, ka visi bija aizgājuši* the door was locked because everybody had gone away/out.
E. Clauses of Condition

Such clauses are introduced with ja if (in the event that), which should not be confused with the explicative conjunction if = vai, see p. 209 above: Ja laiks būs labs, iešu uz mājām kājām if the weather will be nice, I’ll walk home on foot. The verb of the ja-clause is in the indicative mood if the condition is not an unreal, hypothetical one, in which case it would appear in the subjunctive mood, both in the main and the subordinate clause (for examples, see section on mood, p. 127).

F. Clauses of Concession

The conjunctions in question are kaut (gan/arī), lai (gan/arī) although, even though.

Examples:
Kaut gan lija, laiks bija silts although it was raining, it was warm; lai arī ziema bija auksta, auglu koki nebija nosaluši even though the winter was cold, the fruit trees did not freeze.

G. Clauses of Comparison

Adverbial clauses of comparison are formed with the help of the conjunctions kā as, like, it kā as if: Viņš izturas, kā neviens pirms tam nebija izturējies he behaves in such a way as nobody had behaved before that; mežā bija tik klusu, it kā vēja nemaz nebūtu it was so quiet in the forest as if there were no wind at all.

As can be concluded from the examples, kā implies a real comparison or one imagined to be real and is therefore followed by the indicative, as opposed to it kā which is used in connection with assumptions or hypothetical comparisons, and consequently combines with the subjunctive. In many cases the clause introduced by a comparison is incomplete (with the verb deleted), cf. viņš ēd kā vilks he eats like a wolf.

Equivalents of English “than” and “the – the”

Under point G constructions with nekā than (cf. p. 60 f. and 195) and jo – jo the - the (p. 195) can also be mentioned.

Examples:
Šogad mēs dzīvojam labāk, nekā (mums bija) pagājušajā gadā this year we are having a better life than (we were having) last year, jo ātrāk, jo labāk the sooner, the better; jo tūvāk pavasarim, jo gaišākas dienas the closer to spring, the lighter the days.
H. Clauses of Manner

Here one finds among others, the correlative type with gradual meaning: viņa bija tik skaista, ka man apžilba acis she was so beautiful that my eyes were dazzled.

Final Remarks

It should be mentioned that most descriptions of adverbial clauses also include clauses of place, but they can easily be formed with the help of adverbs of place (kur), e.g. kur esat/ejat? where are you/are you going?

In the above exposition combinations of two clauses have only been commented upon, but, of course, sentences of a more complex, structure are also encountered. Such sentences can be labeled complex in contrast to the compound ones demonstrated above.

Asyndetism

Asyndetism (for definition, see p. 208) can have the functions of both coordination and subordination. Which of these two main functions is present in each concrete case, becomes evident through the context. Thus, a sentence like dod man to smirdošo ābolu – es viņu apēdišu can be interpreted either as give that stinking apple to me, and I will eat it or if you give [...], I [...].
Chapter 13

AGREEMENT
(Saskanjojums)

Agreement is one of the three ways of expressing subordination in Latvian (cf. p. 200) and can be defined as a morphological repetition (through desinences) of one and the same grammatical category within certain syntactic relations.

Relevant grammatical categories are: 1. gender, 2. number, 3. person and 4. case, and the relevant syntactic relations are:

A. that between attribute and governing word, cf., for example, jauna māja : jaunas mājas : jaunu māju a new house : of a new house : of new houses where the attributive adjective agrees in gender, number and case with the head noun,

B. that between the subject and predicate, e.g. māja ir jauna : mājas ir jaunas the house is new : the houses are new (agreement in gender, number (and case) between the subject and the nominal part of the nominal predicate), and

C. that between the antecedent and the anaphoric pronoun (including the relative) as, for instance, in: kādā parkā sēdēja vīrietis. Ar viņu runāja sieviete there was a man sitting in a park. A woman was speaking with him; [...] vīrietis, ar ko runāja sieviete [...] a man with whom a woman was speaking.

For convenience, relation A. is generally referred to as attributive agreement and B. as predicate agreement. Relation C. will only be marginally commented upon.

There are two kinds of agreement: formal (or grammatical), and logical (semantic). The explanation above relates only to the former type. To cover logical agreement, the definition should be modified as follows: systematic covariation between a formal or semantic property of one element and a formal property of another. An example of logical agreement would be: jau ir atnākuši liels daudzums gāju putnu a large number of birds of passage have already arrived, whereas formal agreement would be jau ir atnācis liels daudzums gāju putnu a large number of birds of passage has arrived with the participle atnācis in agreement with (liels) daudzums in gender, number and case (nominative). The English translation illustrates logical vs.
formal agreement with respect to number. From a normative point of view, the use of formal agreement seems to be preferable for the case in question, as far as Latvian is concerned.

Agreement can be regarded from two different angles:
I that of the grammatical categories (i.e. 1-4)
II that of the syntactic relations (i.e. A-C).

The exposition below will follow I. It should also be pointed out that emphasis will be put on special cases which may cause trouble for the student, rather than uncomplicated ones like those already quoted in the above illustrations.

1. Special Cases of Agreement in Gender
For generalities on gender, see p. 40 f. above.

A. Common Gender Nouns in -a and -e
Latvian has a quite limited group of nouns ending in -a and -e denoting human beings (so-called hybrids or kopdzimtes lietvārdi in Latvian), which are masc. when they refer to males, but fem. if females are referred to, cf., for example, plāpa chatterbox, slepkava murderer, bende hangman, and also some family names like Liepa and Priede.

Examples:
Relation 1):
bistams (male) / bīstama (female) slepkava a dangerous murderer
Relation 2):
Slepkava ir bistams (male) / bistama (female) The murderer is dangerous
Relation 3):
Atnāca slepkava a murderer came. Viņš bija bistams He was dangerous / Viņa bija bistama She was dangerous

Nouns denoting professions do not show the same ambiguity with respect to gender in Latvian as the above cases, since they obligatorily form pairs of the type pedagogs (male) : pedagoģe (female) pedagogue, profesors (male) : profesore (female) professor, skolotājs (male) : skolotāja (female) teacher, ārsts (male) : ārste (female) physician. Consequently, they do not entail complications with respect to agreement. It should, however, be emphasized that masc. is the unmarked gender (cf. p. 40). Thus, a general introductory statement like mūsu ciemā ir jauns ārsts in our village there is a new physician does not exclude the possibility that the new doctor is a woman.
B. Personal Pronouns of the 1st and 2nd Person
The personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons (es I, mēs we, tu you (thou), jūs you) are also gender differentiating: for example, es esmu dzirdējis (male) vs. dzirdējusi (female) I have heard, jūs esat dzirdējuši (male) vs. dzirdējusas (female) you have heard. If mēs and jūs refer to a group including both males and females, the unmarked masc. gender has to be used.
For kas who, see section B, point g).

C. Indeclinable Nouns
This point is devoted to indeclinable nouns. When the gender rules given on p. 51 are observed, these nouns do not cause much trouble in terms of agreement, e.g. jauns auto a new car (agreement with the unmarked masc. gender). Observe, however, the case of proper names (geographical designations), e.g. garā Missisipi the long Mississippi (river) where the noun is feminine through association with the feminine common noun upe river. If the state of Mississipi is meant, masc. agreement is encountered (due to the association with štāts state). Cities show feminine agreement, e.g. Oslo ir skaista (pilsēta) Oslo is a beautiful city.

D. Abbreviations
For abbreviations the guiding principle is agreement with the grammatical head noun of the abbreviation, cf., for example: MLLVV (= Mūsdienu Latviešu Literārās Valodas Gramatika) ir diezgan liela the MLLVG-grammar is rather big.

In some cases associative (or near to associative) agreement (cf. point c) is also found. Thus, for instance, the name of the British Broadcasting Corporation, BBC, can be associated with korporācija and take feminine agreement.

E. Noun Combinations
Noun combinations of the type frequently found in Slavic (Russian etc.) are rare in Latvian. One example would be izstāde-pardošana sales exhibition, but this particular case would not cause any trouble in terms of agreement.

F. Interjections
This point is reserved for interjections. Such words, deprived of gender attributing indications, – like the bulk of indeclinable nouns – show masculine agreement, since masc. is the unmarked gender in Latvian (cf. p. 40): skājš br-br-br a loud br-br-br. 
2. Special Cases of Agreement in Number

A. Plural Nouns
Such nouns (cf. 51 f.) require modifiers in the plural:
Sacīkstes bija interesantas the competition was / the competitions were interesting; interesantas sacīkstes an interesting competition / interesting competitions; Čēsis ir lielas C. is big (but also the alternative Čēsis ir liela – through association with pilsēta city – was accepted by my informant).

B. Collective Nouns
For nouns of this type (see p. 53), the norm requires modifiers in the singular: modernā jaunatne modern youth, Latviešu jaunatne – kur tā (not *tās/tie) iet? the Latvian youth - where is it going?

C. Indeclinable Nouns
Indeclinable nouns (p. 50 f.) require singular or plural agreement dependent on the reference to the extra-linguistic situation. Thus, jauns auto means new car whereas jauni auto must be translated as new cars, cf. point c under agreement in gender above

D. Abbreviations
This point pertains to abbreviations. Under 1 D above it was stated that agreement in this case basically follows the form of the head noun. This rule also holds with respect to agreement in number, e.g. ASV (= Amerikas Savienotās Valstis) tika dibinātas 1776. gadā The USA was founded in 1776.

E. Two (or More) Coordinate Nouns Qualified by One and the Same Adjective
When two (or more) coordinate nouns are qualified by one and the same adjective(s), the adjective(s) can be put in the plural to avoid ambiguity: lieli brālis un māsa/ lieli māsa un brālis the little sister and brother (i.e. both of them are small), but such solutions are found to be somewhat strange and are usually avoided (by repeating the adjective).

F. The Polite Form of the 2nd P. Pl. Pronoun
Further, the polite form of the personal pronoun Jūs you requires singular agreement with adjectives and participles when one person is referred to; a finite form of the verb, however, must be in the plural: Vai Jūs esat (pl.) vesels/vesela / noguris/nogurusi? are you healthy / tired?
G. The interrogative Pronoun kas
The pronoun kas? who? is used with singular agreement, irrespective of the number of persons or objects referred to: Kas ir atnācis – Jānis un Pēteris, vai tikai Jānis? who has come – John and Peter or just (only) John? (It should further be noted that in the Standard language kas shows only masculine agreement, not feminine.)

H. Group Subjects
Finally, mention should be made of group subjects with quantifiers in the role of grammatical head, accompanied by a noun or pronoun in the genitive plural: jau ir atnācis daudz jaužu lit. much people has already arrived. In such cases – according to the norm – agreement should be used.

3. Special Cases of Agreement in Person

Generally it can be stated that the 1st person dominates the 2nd, and the 2nd takes precedence over the 3rd person, e.g. tu un es (= mēš) ejam you and I (we) go; tu un viņš/viņa (= jūs) ejat you and he/she go; mēš un viņi/viņas ejam we and they go; jūs un viņi/viņas ejat you and they go.

The relative pronoun kas or kurš/kura in the function of subject is expected to show agreement with the 3rd person. However, when the relative pronoun points to another person than the 3rd person, the verb of the relative clause will usually be in the 1st or 2nd person: es, kas/kurš/kura te dzīvoju I who am living here, tu, kas/kurš/kura dzīvo te you who are living here.

4. Special Cases of Agreement in Case

Here mention should be made of combinations of common noun + proper name where the latter appears in quotation marks as, for example, in book titles etc. In such cases the proper name will remain undelined independent of the case of the common noun, e.g. romānā “Karš un miers” in the novel “War and Peace”. However, if the common noun is deleted, the title must be declined (provided that it is declinable): “Karā un mierā” in “War and Peace”.

With titles of professions + personal names, however, the title and the proper name harmonize with respect to case, e.g. attiekties uz profesori Rudziti to apply to Professor Rudzīte, cf. also p. 168 and 202.
Constructions with kā ‘as’ and similar

The item appearing after kā as may be regarded as an apposition in a broader sense. The corresponding items on either side of kā must appear in the same case. When the apposition refers to the grammatical subject (which, by definition, is in the nominative case), the second member may be characterized as a kind of subject predicative, e.g.:

viņš ēd kā vilks he eats as (like) a wolf; suns kauc kā vilks the dog is howling like a wolf.

With transitive verbs, the direct object is in the accusative, as is its reference, which may be labeled object predicative (or so-called double accusative): viņš raksturoja to (accusative object) kā skandālu (object predicative) he characterized it as a scandal.

Note: contrast the following two examples: es viņu pazīstu kā draugu : es viņu pazīstu kā draugs, both meaning I know him as a friend. The former utterance expresses that he is a friend (of somebody, also of me), whereas in the latter, draugs refers to the subject, i. e. es, būdams viņa draugs, [...] I, being a friend of his [...].

The same-case-on-either-side of kā principle also holds true for intransitive verbs, e.g. viņš balstījās uz generatīvas gramatikas (genitive) kā labas teorijas (genitive) he based himself upon generative grammar as a good theory. Exceptions to the rule are found in instances such as tādās pilsetās kā Rīga, Viļņa un Tallīna in such cities as Riga, Vilnius and Tallinn. Neither in Latvian nor English is it natural to say *tādās pilsetās kā Rīga, Viļņa un Tallīna *in such cities as in Riga, Vilnius and Tallinn. Observe also the following example: nekad neatradīsi tādu meiteni kā Sarma (i. e. [...] kā ir Sarma) you will never find such a girl as Sarma (is).

Finally, a reference should be made to pp. 60, 130, 137 and 146 for the dative of the predicative adjective or participle (when it is co-referential with a logical (either overtly expressed or implicit) subject in the dative case).
Chapter 14

WORD ORDER

(Vārdu secība)

Introductory Remarks

The introduction of a bipartite communicative analysis of the utterance, in theme (i.e. given or known information) and rheme (= new information), by Czech linguists (Mathesius, and further elaborated by Daneš and others) signified no less than a revolution with respect to our knowledge about the mechanisms and principles that govern word order.

In prosodically neutral declarative sentences, the position of the theme is initial, while the rheme occupies sentence final position. The theme-rheme segmentation seems to be important in all languages, but is of special importance in a non-article language like Latvian. In Germanic and Romance languages the articles are of great help in identifying the theme and the rheme, since the former usually adopts a definite form in opposition to the latter, which normally shows either indefinite or zero article, cf. the following example from English: – Yesterday I met an old man (rheme). The man/he (theme) was sitting outside a little, red house (rheme). The house/it (theme) had small windows (rheme). The notions theme and rheme make sense only within a context which is built up by theme-rheme chains as illustrated in the above example.

A context must necessarily start at some point, whence the introductory part will usually be context non-dependent and consequently themeless. For examples, see p. 223.

Languages without a case system, such as English and the Nordic languages, do not offer the same possibilities for variations in word order as do case languages. In the former type of languages word order has a grammatical function. Thus, in sentences containing the three constituents subject (S), verb (V) and object (O), the subject must occupy the initial position in caseless languages whereas this is not obligatory in a language like Latvian where the subject can be distinguished from the object through the case ending, whereby their place in the sentence is not so vital. Thus, in Latvian it is possible to say Pēteris sita Povilu (SVO)
or Povilu sita Pēteris (OVS). The former sentence is translated into English as Peter hit Paul while for the second we have to choose a passive construction Paul was hit by Peter to satisfy both the grammatical need for reserving the initial position for the subject and the communicative need of preserving the theme-rheme structure of the Latvian sentence. From the two sentence variants in Latvian it can be concluded 1) that they are not identical from a communicative point of view since their theme-rheme structures are different and 2) that an active OVS sentence in Latvian often corresponds to a passive construction in English (see also section on voice, p. 140 ff.).

Generally, it should be emphasized that the variations in word order are fewer in non-fictional prose than in fiction and above all in colloquial speech (as well as in poetry). The presentation below is more or less restricted to the sphere of non-fictional prose. Further, our description concentrates on simple sentences (p. 203) since very little has been done in the field of word order in compound sentences (p. 208), especially large text units. A further complication is that there are few works on word order in Latvian (Ceplīte and Ceplītis 1991 contains a short section devoted to this subject as does Rūke-Draviņa 1977).

Finally, one must distinguish between changeable and non-changeable word order. The latter category includes the structurally determined obligatory sentence initial position of the interrogative particle vai (vai Jūs esat Kalniņa kungs? are you Mr. Kalnins?), as well as the position of the negation immediately before the word which is negated: for example, viņš neraksta he doesn’t write: viņš raksta ne tikai stāstus, bet arī dzēju he writes not only short stories, but also poetry. Moreover, among constructions with unchangeable word order could probably be included a good number with a dative in the function of a logical subject (debitive constructions with synonyms and others, see p. 130 f.

It should be observed that changeable word order is not synonymous with free word order. Even though word order in Latvian is changeable to a considerable degree, it is not free in the sense that variation in word order is of no importance. This is because a change in word order will normally imply another communicative structure and thus alter the content of the utterance. A change in word order can also alter the style.

The disposition below will be proceed according to the following scheme:

I The position of the members of the sentence
II The position of the members of the noun phrase
I THE POSITION OF THE MEMBERS OF THE SENTENCE

The analysis will start with sentences containing the sentence members subject (S) and verb (V) only. From such structures we will proceed to extended structures (p. 199) including an object (O), i.e. SVO-, OVS-structures etc. and also the somewhat looser structures with adverbials (SVAdv/AdvVS etc.).

Many grammarians would prefer the opposite approach by starting from and regarding the SVO-structure as basic and deduce other structures, including the simpler SV/VS-structures from it.

Our analysis will concentrate on sentences with a verbal predicate (see p. 198), almost to the exclusion of sentences containing a nominal predicate (p. 198). This is because the latter has to a considerable degree been dealt with elsewhere (in connection with the adjective p. 60 ff. and the participles p. 156 ff.), and also because sentences of this type show less variation in word order.

Here declarative sentences will be dealt with first. A description of word order in interrogative sentences of different types follows.

1. Declarative Sentences

Let us start our short survey of word order in Latvian by commenting on:

A. Non-Extended Sentences

Such sentences consist of subject and verb only, whereby the usual (and unmarked) word order is SV: Jānis lasa John is reading.

In themeless sentences, i.e. introductory, existential and similar ones, however, the unmarked word order is VS: [reiz sensenos laikos] dzivoja tēvs [...] [once upon a time] there was/lived a father [...] ; bija vakars it was evening; atnāca skolotājs a/the teacher came. In such cases the verb typically belongs to the spheres of existence and appearance.

According to V. Rūķe-Draviņa (1977, 121) the word order VS is more frequently used in recent years. She quotes the example iet strādnieks un domā: [...] there goes a worker and thinks: [...] . It is not clear to me whether this tendency – if Rūķe-Draviņa’s observation is correct – is due to influence from Russian or not.
In sentences after direct speech, both the SV and VS are found in more or less free variation: - Nē, - atbildēja zēns. / - Nē, - zēns atbildēja "No", the boy answered. If in such cases the subject is expressed by a pronoun, the order SV seems to be preferred: - Nē, - viņš atbildēja "No", he answered.

B. Extended Sentences

a) Adverbial Extensions

Adverbial modifiers can simply be placed before the V in VS type sentences: istabā iegāja meitene into the room a girl entered; uz sienas karājas glezna on the wall a painting is hanging. These AdvVS structures with thematic adverbial + rhematic subject are in contrast to SVAdv-constructions with thematic subject + rhematic adverbial: meitene iegāja istabā the girl entered the room, glezna karājas uz sienas the painting is hanging on the wall.

The structure AdvSV is also encountered, e.g. svētdienās avīzes neiznāca on Sundays newspapers were not published.

b) Object Extensions

One Object

Such sentences have to some extent already been commented upon, in the examples quoted above, namely SVO (Pēteris sita Povīlu) vs. OVS (Povīlu sita Pēteris), under introductory remarks (p. 221 f.). For that illustration a transitive verb (sist) was chosen. The definition of transitivity in caseless languages, however, differs from that which is valid for case languages. In the former group, a verb can be defined as transitive without any constraint as to the nature of the object by which it is accompanied, whereas in the latter (as a rule), only verbs which govern the accusative (without involvement of prepositions) can be transitive, i. e. can be “transformed” from active to passive or vice versa. Thus, a sentence like the boy was helped should be rendered in Latvian by zēnam palīdzēja and not *zēns tīka palīdzēts since the verb palīdzēt to help requires the dative case and is consequently intransitive.

The unmarked (or neutral) word order of Latvian is probably SVO. This order is obligatory in cases where the object cannot formally be distinguished from the subject, e.g.: mātes mil meitas mothers love daughters.

Two Objects

As in the case of adverbial modifiers, there may be more than one object in the sentence. A frequent case is that with an indirect (dative)
object denoting a person + a direct accusative object referring to a thing, e.g. meitene deva zēnam grāmatu the girl gave the boy a book. A neutral reading of this sentence with no particular emphasis on any sentence member implies that the dative object is thematic, the accusative object rhematic. This SVOindOdir order will probably be the commonest (and consequently “neutral”) word order pattern for sentences containing both a dative and an accusative object. If the order of the dative and the accusative object is reversed, the latter will take over the thematic role whereas the former will turn into a rhematic object: meitene deva grāmatu zēnam the girl gave the book to a/the boy. In both cases the objects both occur in postverbal position.

In the case of pronominalization the pronoun (be it the indirect or direct object) will usually precede the noun object, e.g. meitene deva viņam grāmatu (or, may be, even more commonly: meitene viņam deva grāmatu), meitene deva to zēnam the girl gave it, i.e. the apple, to a (the) boy.

If both the indirect and the direct object are pronominalized, the normal word order will be preverbal position for both, with the indirect object preceding the direct one: meitene viņam viņu deva the girl gave it to him. Pronominalization of this kind naturally signalizes thematicization. If the situation is clear, one of the pronominal objects can be deleted, e.g. meitene iznēma grāmatu no somas un viņam deva the girl took a book out of the bag and gave (it) to him.

2. Interrogative Sentences

So far some basic patterns of word order in simple declarative sentences have been examined. For the sake of economy, our treatment of interrogative sentences will be quite restricted. Two types of interrogative sentences should be distinguished:

1) those containing an interrogative pronoun or adverb (so-called wh-questions in English, k-questions in Latvian)

and

2) those not possessing an interrogative pronoun or adverb, but possibly the particle vai (yes/no-questions).

Illustrations of type 1) questions:
SV: Kas spēlē? Who is playing? Answer (V)S: Spēlē Anda Anda (is playing);

OVS: Ko ķarija Anda? (or OSV: Ko Anda ķarija?) What did Anda do? Answer: (S)V/(S)VO: (Viņa) spēlēja / (Viņa) spēlēja klavieres She played / She played piano;

AdvSVAdv: Kad Anda/viņa griezās no restorāna? When did Anda/she return from the restaurant?

Type 2) questions can be with or without the interrogative particle vai. It was also emphasized that this particle is only encountered in sentence initial position: Vai studenti/viņi lasa grāmatas? Do (the) students/they read books? If the vai particle is omitted, the remaining word order can be preserved: Studenti/viņi lasa grāmatas? In speech, however, this variant must be pronounced with a specific interrogative intonation, in order to separate it from a declarative sentence with the same word order: studenti/viņi lasa grāmatas students read books.

The variants vai lasa studenti grāmatas? (VSO) and vai lasa grāmatas studenti? (VOS) are stylistically marked and were felt to be strange by my informant.

II THE POSITION OF THE MEMBERS OF THE NOUN PHRASE

A noun phrase can be defined as a word group (vārdkopā) consisting of a combination of two or more words of a nominal class, constituting a semantic unit. One word (a noun) in the group occupies the role of grammatical head, under which the other constituent/s is/are subordinated (through agreement, government or juxtaposition, see pp. 200 and 215).

Non-Participle Attributes

Examples: jauna māja (a) new house (agreement), tēva māja father’s house (government). These are simple word groups in opposition to complex: jaunā tēva māja father’s new house.

A typical example of “juxtaposition” (p. 200) could be the combination of a verb and an adverb (e. g. iet ātri to walk fast), but verbal word groups of this kind have practically already been dealt with under I above.

The neutral position of attributes, both congruent (expressed by adjectives, adjectival pronouns and numerals) and non-congruent (expressed by nouns and certain pronouns), is before the governing noun, i. e. jauna māja (māja jauna would be understood as the house is new), tēva māja (but: viņa jaunā māja his new house), alus pudele a new house, father’s house, a beer bottle. Exceptions to this rule are rare, but can be found in poetry (e. g. no mālāja smagā from the heavy
clayey soil, no kātiņa trauslā from the fragile shaft (of a leaf) (V. Belševica)).

Note the opposition between piecas stundas / desmit kilometru five hours / ten kilometers and stundas piecas / kilometru desmit some/around five hours / somelaround ten kilometers. The order noun + numeral (inversion) implies approximate number.

With the adnominal partitive genitive postposition is the normal (and mandatory) order: pudele alus a bottle of beer.

Further, the congruent attributive is normally placed before the non-congruent, i.e. jauna tēva māja father’s new house, rather than *tēva jauna māja.

In sequences of the type all these my beautiful flowers the order of words is determinative pronoun + demonstrative + possessive + adjective: visas šītas manas skaistās pūces.

Observe finally the order of words in “genitive strings”, e.g. Latvijas Universitātēs Filoloģijas Fakultātes Angļu valodas nodalās pirma kursa studenti students of the first year (course) of (at) the Department of English language of (at) the Faculty of Philology of (at) the University of Latvia: Contrary to English, German, the Nordic languages etc., in Latvian the broadest concept occupies the leftmost position, the narrowest the rightmost.

Participle Attributes

Such attributes, as a rule precede, the word governed by them: for example, gulēdama uz galda grāmata a/the book lying on the table, das auf dem Tisch liegende Buch rather than uz galda gulēdama grāmata, but both types are found. Observe that the genitive agentive (p. 168 f.) must follow the participle, not precede it (to distinguish it from the possessive function), e.g. parakstīta profesora vēstule the letter signed by the professor (vs. profesora parakstīta vēstule the professor’s signed letter).
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