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LATVIAN GRAMMAR

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Introduction

“Latvian Grammar” was written to make information about the Latvian language and its grammatical system more easily available not only within Latvia, but also beyond its borders. Language is one of the most important parts of culture, history, and everyday life. Language is used by everyone and as a result many people across all walks of life are deeply interested in it. A modern grammar of Latvian written in English is as important for native speakers of Latvian as for those who have learned Latvian as a second language and also is of great value for anyone interested in the culture and history of Latvia or the Latvian language itself.

The need for a reference grammar of Latvian written in English is especially important right now due to the existence of a large Latvian diaspora community abroad, particularly in English-speaking countries where children and young people are educated in the language of their home countries rather than in Latvian. For that reason, information about Latvia as well as Latvian language, literature, and culture is most often sought out in English or in some other language besides Latvian.

A Latvian grammar written in English will also be useful for those who are learning Latvian as a foreign language and wish to learn more about its grammatical system and unique features so that they are able to use Latvian more effectively and speak it more correctly. Likewise, “Latvian grammar” will be a useful reference and source for examples for teachers of Latvian – both those who teach it to speakers as a school or university subject and those who teach it as a foreign language.

There is also considerable demand among linguists abroad for a systematic and dependable description of Latvian written by native speakers of Latvian. Latvian is a rather unique combination of ancient as well as relatively new features, which are of interest to researchers abroad and are important for the typological, cognitive, pragmatic, functional, and contrastive analysis of language. Examples we can mention here include the debitive mood and verb conjugation system in general; how various aspectual meanings are expressed; constructions involving the dative, genitive, and nominative cases; sound changes in word formation and inflection.

Latvian belongs to the Baltic group of the Indo-European language family. This group also contains Lithuanian and the extinct Old Prussian language. Rudzīte (1993: 4) observes: “Modern-day Latvian...formed as a result of the merger of several languages spoken by Baltic tribes known to us from historical records:

the Latgalians or Latvians, Selonians, Semigallians as well as the Curonians who had their own language until the 16th century.” Much as in Lithuanian, Latvian also preserves various archaic lexical, phonetic, and grammatical features, which can be traced back to Proto-Indo-European and Proto-Baltic. From a language typology perspective, Latvian has a classic Indo-European (Baltic) system with diverse grammatical inflection and extensive word formation. However, due to areal and historical reasons, Latvian grammar also displays some features more like those found in the Finno-Ugric languages.

Latvian is the official language of the Republic of Latvia. When Latvia joined the European Union in 2004, Latvian also became an official language of the European Union. There are approximately 1.5 million native speakers of Latvian. Of these, 1.38 million live in Latvia, the rest live in the United States, Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, Germany, Lithuania, Estonia, Sweden, Russia, and other countries. Latvian is spoken as a second language by approximately 500,000 people of other ethnicities. (Latvian population statistics are available from the Latvian Language Agency at: <https://valoda.lv/valsts-valoda/>).

Latvian is divided into three dialects: The Central dialect (also Middle dialect), Livonic dialect (also Livonian dialect, Livonian influenced dialect, Livonianized dialect), and High Latvian dialect (Vanags 2018: 27, see also “Map of Latvian dialects”). The Central dialect is spoken in central Vidzeme (the Vidzeme Central subdialects), Zemgale (the Semigallic subdialects), and in southern Courland or Kurzeme (the Curonic subdialects). The Standard Latvian developed primarily based on the Vidzeme Central and Semigallic subdialects. The Livonic dialect is spoken in northwestern Vidzeme (the Vidzeme Livonic subdialects) and in northern Courland (the Kurzeme Livonic subdialects or the Tamian subdialects). A part of the Latvians living in these regions are descendants of the Finnic-speaking Livonians who preserved features of the Livonian language as they transitioned to speaking Latvian; as a result, a unique variety of Latvian developed over time – the Livonic dialect. The High Latvian dialect is spoken in eastern Vidzeme, Sēlija (also called Augšzeme in Latvian), and Latgale. It is divided into the Selonian subdialects (spoken in Sēlija and Vidzeme near Ērgļi, Koknese, Pļaviņas, and Madona) and Latgalic subdialects (spoken in Latgale and eastern Vidzeme) (Vanags op. cit.). Standard Latgalian – a historical variety of Latvian – has existed since the 18th century and is based on the subdialects spoken in southern Latgale (Leikuma, Andronovs 2018: 28–30).

The first written texts (primarily of a Christian religious nature – both Lutheran and Catholic) date to the 16th century. The language in these is based on the Latvian spoken in Riga and their spelling is based on the Middle Low German written tradition. The authors of these texts were ethnic German clergymen (Vanags 2018: 27). In subsequent centuries, the orthography used in Latvian texts continued to be improved and was based on the language varieties of the Central Dialect. Over time, the content of Latvian texts expanded from being exclusively religious and began to include material from other secular genres: dictionaries, grammars, literary and popular scientific works, practical texts, and so on

(Vanags op. cit.). The translation of the Bible into Latvian by Johann Ernst Glück (first published 1685–1694, published again in 1739) had a significant role in the development and standardization of the Latvian written language. Beginning in the mid-19th century, the number of texts written by ethnic Latvian authors on a wide variety of topics rapidly increased and this was especially evident in the writing of new works of fiction in Latvian. It should be noted that independent of the subjects they wrote about, all ethnic Latvian authors from this period paid special attention to the cultivation and standardization of written Latvian as well as the orthography they used for writing it. This tradition survives in a majority of genres up to the present day.

The orthography currently used to write Latvian (Latin script supplemented with diacritical marks indicating vowel length, palatalized consonants, and certain sibilants, see also “Letter-sound correspondence in Standard Latvian”) is based on the principles adopted in 1908 by the Orthography Commission of the Riga Latvian Society’s Knowledge Commission.

The history of Latvian grammars begins in the 17th century. The first Latvian grammar is “*Manuductio ad linguam Lettonicam facilis & certa... Riga 1644*” by Johann Georg Rehehusen. This grammar is followed by a string of others at the end of the 17th century and throughout the 18th century. The most significant and extensive of these is “*Lettische Grammatik*” (1783) by Gothard Friedrich Stender. The period defined by grammars written by German authors ends in the 1860s with the publication of “*Die Lettische Sprache nach ihren Lauten und Formen erklärend und vergleichend dargestellt*” (in two volumes; 1863–1864) by August Bielenstein. This grammar was the first scientific grammar of Latvian and utilized the linguistic analysis of that time. It is still considered one of the most important grammatical descriptions of Latvian ever published (for more on this see Kļaviņa 2008). Beginning in the second half of the 19th century and the early 20th century, a number of grammars and other grammatical descriptions of Latvian written by Latvian authors appeared in print. The most important of these include “*Latviešu valodas mācība*” by Andrejs Stērste (this was the first scientific grammar written in Latvian and was published as 3 volumes in 1879–1880), “*Teikums*” (1898) by Kārlis Mühlenbachs, and “*Latviešu gramatika*” and “*Latviešu valodas mācība*” (both published in 1907) by Jānis Endzelins and Kārlis Mühlenbachs.

Grammatical descriptions written in other languages during the 20th and 21st centuries are either quite old (e.g., “*Lettische Grammatik*” (1922) by Jānis Endzelins) or the authors of these materials are not native Latvian speakers and for a variety of reasons they only include a selection of topics in their descriptions of Latvian. (e.g., “*A Short Grammar of Latvian*” by Terje Mathiassen (1997), “*Latvian*” by Nicole Nau (1998), “*Lettische Grammatik*” by Jan Henrik Holst (2001)). A number of Latvian grammars are intended to be used as learning materials for non-Latvians who do not have much existing knowledge of Latvian language or culture (e.g., “*A Grammar of Modern Latvian*” by Trevor Fennell, Henry Gelsen (1980), “*Complete Latvian*” by Terēze Svilane Bartholomew (2011), “*Latvian. An Essential Grammar*”

by Dace Prauliņš (2012)). Several studies on various aspects of Latvian grammar are written from the perspective of Baltic, theoretical, typological, or areal linguistics (e.g., Holvoet 2001, 2007 as well as the article collections Nau, Ostrowski 2010; Holvoet, Nau 2014b, 2015, 2016; Arkadiev, Holvoet, Wiemer 2015).

The most recent reference grammar of Latvian to be written in Latvian, “Latviešu valodas gramatika” (Rīga: LU Akadēmiskais apgāds), was published in 2013 (republished in 2015) and edited by Daina Nitiņa and Juris Grigorjevs. It is a collection of studies whose authors represent various theoretical perspectives (the authors of the grammar include: Ilze Auziņa, Dace Markus, Juris Grigorjevs, Inese Indričāne, Anna Vulāne, Daina Nitiņa, Gunta Smiltnece, Ieva Brenķe, Baiba Saulīte, Linda Lauze, Andra Kalnača, and Ilze Lokmane). This grammar brings together the research experience of the late 20th and early 21st centuries and serves as a good foundation for further studies focusing on Latvian grammar and phonetics. The morphophonology and verb sections (except for the description of participles) in this grammar were written by Andra Kalnača, the section on simple sentence syntax – by Ilze Lokmane.

The next task was writing a reference grammar of Latvian in English. “Latvian Grammar”, written by Andra Kalnača and Ilze Lokmane, is a scientific study by both authors written in 2014–2018. In addition, this grammar has differences from “Latviešu valodas gramatika” published in 2013:

- 1) a Latvian grammar in English has a different target audience, which also means that its description of language features and its focus as well as its selected examples differ from those in a grammar written for a Latvian-speaking audience (the examples in a grammar written for English speakers are more oriented towards a precise illustration of the features and other information being described);
- 2) the description of the Latvian grammatical system has been written using modern grammatical terminology and according to the linguistic traditions of Western Europe and North America (see “Subject index”, which gives the corresponding Latvian grammatical concept in parentheses after each English-language term).

If there exists a difference of opinion in the linguistic literature regarding a particular aspect of Latvian grammar, then in individual cases these differing views are mentioned in “Latvian Grammar”; however, due to the limitations on space in this grammar and, especially, due to its stated aims, these views are not examined in detail. Still, the authors have endeavored to show, which view they adopt in this work and the reasons for their choice. Issues connected with the standardization of grammar are not examined in this volume; however, in individual cases the use of a form or construction in conversational language or where its use deviates from the literary language may be discussed along with the reasons for these uses.

Both authors of this grammar are professors at the University of Latvia Faculty of Humanities and have taught courses on grammar as well as on a wide range of other aspects of linguistics. They also are the authors of studies on Latvian morphology,

morphophonology, syntax, morphosyntax, and other synchronic and general linguistic topics. The scientific research of Andra Kalnača and Ilze Lokmane, as well as work with their students and supervision of their students' baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral work, has allowed the authors to accrue knowledge on grammatical systems and their fundamental characteristics as well as gain experience in examining issues relating to grammar.

"Latvian Grammar" is a descriptive and synchronic grammar of Standard Latvian (with a few exceptions in the morphophonology section describing sound changes in Latvian). It is based primarily on the Latvian linguistic traditions for describing the grammatical system of Latvian developed during the 20th and 21st centuries (e.g., Endzelins 1922, 1951; Ahero et al. 1959, 1962; Kārklīš 1974, 1976; Freimane 1985, 2008; Ceplītis, Rozenbergs, Valdmanis 1989; Gāters 1993; Kalme, Smiltņiece 2001; Nitiņa 2001; Paegle 2003; Beitīņa 2009; Soida 2009; Nitiņa, Grigorjevs 2013).

This grammar is divided into three sections: morphophonology, morphology, syntax. To explain various sound changes relating to word formation and inflection, their historical origins are also detailed in the morphophonology section. Word formation is not described in a separate chapter as has been the tradition in other Latvian grammars (see, for example, Ahero et al. 1959; Nitiņa, Grigorjevs 2013). Instead, information on word formation can be found in special sections at the end of the noun, adjective, verb, and other word class descriptions in the morphology section. The introductory portion of the morphology section (Section 2.0.2) includes not only a description of morphemics, inflectional principles, and word types, but also provides general information regarding word formation methods, means, and types. In the syntax section, attention is primarily given to a structural and partially a functional description of the simple sentence. The composite sentence is mainly seen as a combination of several predicative units (clauses) into a single communicative whole, therefore, attention is given to the unique structural features of the units (clauses) as well as their semantic relations.

The examples used in the grammar are also primarily synchronic. Sources used include examples from "Līdzsvarotais mūsdienu latviešu valodas tekstu korpuss 2018" (The Balanced Corpus of Modern Latvian 2018; available at <http://www.korpuss.lv/id/LVK2018>; examples marked with C) as well as from various mass media sources (print as well as online media), online discussion groups, Latvian literature (generally from the 1970s), and individual folklore and other examples. In some cases, the internet search engine *google.lv* was used as well as data from the "Latvian Web Corpus (lvTenTen) (Ten Ten Corpus Family)", available at <https://www.sketchengine.eu/lvtenten-latvian-corpus/>; examples marked with CW). Due to limitations on space and also to avoid including information which does not pertain to the particular features of Latvian being illustrated, examples are shortened or adapted as necessary (this is not noted in the body of the text in any particular way, with the exception of the section on the composite sentence where the omission of one or several units (clauses) is shown in the Latvian text with a double dot (..)). The analysis of these examples is not based on a frequency analysis of the features

they illustrate. Each feature being described is usually given in bold face; if additional emphasis is necessary then underlining is also used.

Glossing within examples is done according to “The Leipzig Glossing Rules” (available at: <https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>). However, due to limitations on space it was not possible to follow these principles fully for all parts of examples. In the Morphology section, if the example includes component sentences or several simple sentences, only the sentence or the part of the sentence containing the feature being described is glossed. In the composite sentence section, individual grammatical forms, lexemes, and predicative units (clauses) are glossed, as necessary. In noun, adjective, numeral, pronoun, and declinable participle glosses, only the plural is marked, while the singular is generally left unmarked – except in the pronouns *tu* ‘2SG’ and *jūs* ‘2PL’. Gender is also marked for the word classes, as in Latvian it is associated with agreement between different parts of the sentence. When glossing prepositions, particles, conjunctions, and interjections, it was not always possible to find a word from the corresponding word class in English to use as a gloss. Therefore, some words from these word classes are glossed using a general gloss referring to that word class (e.g., PREP – preposition, PTCL – particle, Q – interrogative particle, CONJ – conjunction, INT – interjection; see also “Abbreviations and Symbols”).

In the Morphophonology section, primarily in Section 1.2.2, “The International Phonetic Alphabet” (available at: <https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org/content/full-ipa-chart>) is used in the description of the link between the pronunciation of the vowel *e*, *ē* with word formation and inflection. The Latvian tonemes or syllable accents (stretched, falling, and broken) are not marked in the examples, as these are not directly related to the pronunciation of *e*, *ē*.

American English spelling conventions are used throughout this book.

Acknowledgements

“Latvian Grammar” came about as a result of financing from two different projects. These are (1) the State research program “Letonika – Latvijas vēsture, valodas, kultūra, vērtības” (Letonika – the history, languages, culture, values of Latvia) project No. 3 “Latviešu valodas pētījumi 21. gadsimta zinātnes kontekstā” (Latvian language studies in the context of 21st century science) sub-project “Latviešu gramatika” (Latvian Grammar) during 2014–2018 and (2) the University of Latvia research project “Mūsdienu latviešu gramatika (angļu valodā)” (Modern Latvian Grammar (in English)) in 2014, 2016, 2017. Andra Kalnača was the director of both projects and work for both was carried out at the University of Latvia Faculty of Humanities Department of Latvian and Baltic Studies. In addition to the authors of the grammar, Andra Kalnača and Ilze Lokmane, the translators involved in this project were Tatjana Pakalne (morphology), Zigrīda Vinčela (morphophonology with the exception of “The morphophonological functions of vowel alternations”), Vita Kalnbērziņa (the syntax of simple sentences with the exception of “The communicative structure of a simple sentence” and “Word order in simple sentences”), Dens Dimiņš (“The communicative structure of a simple sentence” and “Word order in simple sentences” as well as the syntax of composite sentences), and Uldis Balodis (the introduction, acknowledgements, and the morphophonology sub-section “The morphophonological functions of vowel alternations”). Anita Butāne (morphology) and Agita Kazakeviča (syntax) assisted Andra Kalnača and Ilze Lokmane in the selection of examples, while Lauma Šime, Karīna Avakjanca, and Zane Mūrniece glossed the examples in the morphology and syntax sections. During both projects, Ilze Rūmniece provided a number of valuable insights into various grammatical issues and their connection to the traditions of grammatical descriptions of Latin and Greek. Uldis Balodis edited and examined the entire text and offered a number of very valuable ideas and advice including developing new terms for Latvian dialects and subdialects used in this grammar. Our greatest thanks to all the project participants involved in the creation of this grammar! With joy and fondness, we recall the regular grammar project participant meetings every few months in 2014–2017 during which we would discuss the terms and concepts to be used in the grammar as well as the sections of the grammar that had already been written, their structure, the features of Latvian discussed in them and the examples used to illustrate them, and glossing principles.

We also wish to give a special thanks to Juris Grigorjevs who provided valuable suggestions with respect to the phonetic transcription used in the morpho-phonology section and to Ilze Auziņa who prepared “Letter-sound correspondence in Standard Latvian” as well as to Edmundas Trumpa who prepared the map of Latvian dialects.

We also wish to thank Helle Metslang, Bonifacas Stundžia, and Daiki Horiguchi whose insightful suggestions and adjustments were especially significant in the final stages of the writing of this grammar. Thank you also to all our colleagues at the University of Latvia who have supported the publication of this grammar!

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Rīga – Garciems – Lubāna
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Abbreviations and symbols

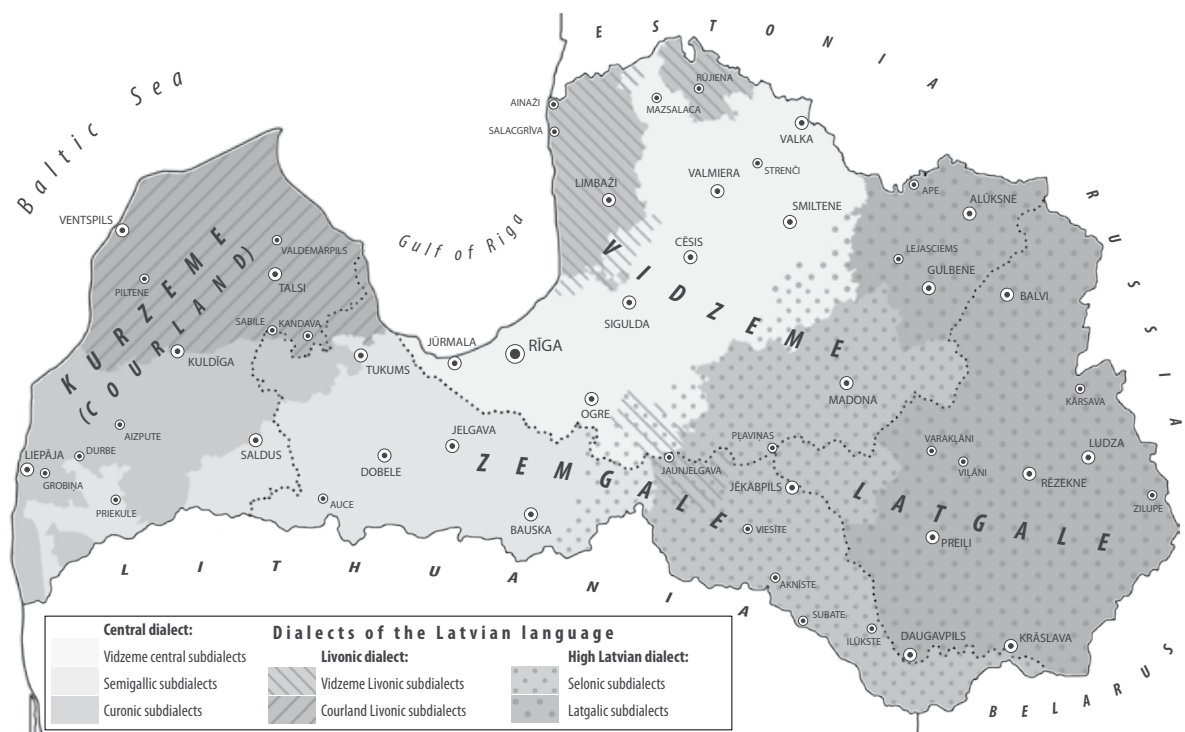
A	agent
ACC	accusative
ACT	active
ADJ	adjective
ADV	adverb
Amer.	American
ANIM	animate
AUX	auxiliary
B	beneficiary
Br.	British
C	<i>Līdzsvarotais mūsdienu latviešu valodas tekstu korpuss 2018</i>
CMP	comparative
COND	conditional mood
CONJ	conjunction
COP	copula
CW	<i>Latvian Web 2014 (lvTenTen14)</i>
DAT	dative
DEB	debitive
DECL	declinable
DEF	definite
dial.	dialectal item
DIM	diminutive
E	experiencer
EMPH	emphatic (particle, pronoun)
FIN	finite
FUT	future
GEN	genitive
F	feminine
I	indirect
IDECL	indeclinable
INDF	indefinite
IMP	imperative mood

IND	indicative mood
IPV	imperfective verb / aspect
INF	infinitive
INS	instrumental
INT	interjection
INTRANS	intransitive
iter.	iterative
LNT	<i>Latvijas Neatkarīgā Televīzija</i> (TV channel)
LOC	locative
M	masculine
MOD	modal
N	noun
NEG	negation
NFIN	non-finite
NOM	nominative
nom.	nominalization
NREFL	non-reflexive
NUM	numeral
O	object
obj.	object
OBL	oblique mood
P	patient
PASS	passive
PFV	perfective verb / aspect
PL	plural
POS	possessor
POST	postposition
PRS	present
PRED	predicate
PREF	prefix
PREP	preposition
PRF	perfect
PRON	pronoun
PTCL	particle
PTCP	participle
PST	past
Q	interrogative particle
QUANT	quantitative meaning
R	recipient
REFL	reflexive
S	subject
SEM.DECL	semi-declinable
SG	singular

smb.	somebody
smth.	something
SPL	superlative
SUB	subordinator
TRANS	transitive
V	verb
VOC	vocative
1, 2, 3	1st, 2nd, 3rd person
*	reconstructed item (morphophonology) / unacceptable construction (syntax)
→	derivation
{ }	morphophoneme
()	interfix
>	becomes
<	derives from
∅	zero morpheme
-	morpheme boundary

Map of Latvian dialects

(created by Edmundas Trumpa 2021)



Letter-sound correspondence in Standard Latvian

(adapted from Auziņa 2013a: 25–26)

The Latvian alphabet contains the following letters: *A, a, Ā, ā, B, b, C, c, Č, č, D, d, E, e, Ē, ē, F, f, G, g, Ģ, ģ, H, h, I, i, Ī, ī, J, j, K, k, Ķ, ķ, L, l, Ļ, ļ, M, m, N, n, Ņ, ņ, O, o, P, p, R, r, S, s, Š, š, T, t, U, u, Ū, ū, V, v, Z, z, Ž, ž*

Letters	IPA	Examples	
		Orthography	IPA
Vowels and diphthongs			
a	ɑ	sals ‘frost’	sals
ā	ɑ:	sāls ‘salt’	sa:ls
e	e	ezis ‘hedgehog’	ezis
	æ	ezers ‘lake’	æzærs
ē	e:	tētis ‘dad’	te:tis
	æ:	zēns ‘boy’	zæ:ns
i	i	divi ‘two’	divi
ī	i:	vīns ‘wine’	vi:ns
o	ɔ	omārs ‘lobster’	ɔma:rs
	ɔ:	opera ‘opera’	ɔ:pera
	uo	ola ‘egg’	uo:la
u	u	uguns ‘fire’	uguns
ū	u:	kūka ‘cake’	ku:ka
iu (iv)	iu	pliukšķēt ‘to flap’ divpadsmīt ‘twelve’	pliukʃce:t diupatsmit
ie	ie	ielā ‘street’	ielā
ai	ai	laiks ‘time’	lai:ks
au	au	augš ‘plant’	auks
ei (ej)	ei	meita ‘daughter’	meita
		zvejnieks ‘fisherman’	zveinieks

Letters	IPA	Examples	
		Orthography	IPA
ui (uj)	<u>ui</u>	<i>puika</i> ‘boy’ <i>šujmašina</i> ‘sewing machine’	<i>puika</i> <i>ʃuimaʃi:na</i>
eu (ev)	<u>eu</u>	<i>sev</i> ‘to oneself’	<i>seu</i>
ou	<u>ou</u>	<i>džouls</i> ‘joule’	<i>ɟʒuls</i>
oi	<u>oi</u>	<i>boikots</i> ‘boycott’	<i>bɔikɔts</i>
Consonants			
b	b	<i>bērn</i> ‘child’	<i>bæ:rn</i>
c	ts	<i>cits</i> ‘other’	<i>tsits</i>
č	tʃ	<i>četri</i> ‘four’	<i>tʃetri</i>
d	d	<i>daba</i> ‘nature’	<i>daba</i>
dz	ɖ	<i>dziesma</i> ‘song’	<i>ɖiesma</i>
dž	ɟʒ	<i>džems</i> ‘jam’	<i>ɟems</i>
f	f	<i>filma</i> ‘movie’	<i>filma</i>
g	g	<i>gals</i> ‘end’	<i>gals</i>
ġ	ʝ	<i>ġitāra</i> ‘guitar’	<i>ʝita:ra</i>
h	x	<i>halva</i> ‘halva’	<i>xalva</i>
j	j	<i>jūra</i> ‘sea’	<i>ju:ra</i>
k	k	<i>kāja</i> ‘leg’	<i>ka:ja</i>
ķ	c	<i>ķert</i> ‘to catch’	<i>cert</i>
l	l	<i>egle</i> ‘fir tree’	<i>egle</i>
ļ	ʎ	<i>ļoti</i> ‘very’	<i>ʎuoti</i>
m	m	<i>mans</i> ‘my’	<i>mans</i>
n	n	<i>nauda</i> ‘money’	<i>nauda</i>
	ŋ	<i>bungas</i> ‘drums’	<i>buŋgas</i>
ņ	ɲ	<i>ņemt</i> ‘to take’	<i>ɲemt</i>
p	p	<i>puse</i> ‘half’	<i>pus:e</i>
r	r	<i>Rīga</i>	<i>ri:ga</i>
s	s	<i>sens</i> ‘ancient’	<i>sæns</i>
š	ʃ	<i>šalle</i> ‘scarf’	<i>ʃal:e</i>
t	t	<i>tur</i> ‘there’	<i>tur</i>
v	v	<i>valsts</i> ‘country’	<i>valsts</i>
z	z	<i>ziema</i> ‘winter’	<i>ziema</i>
ž	ʒ	<i>žagata</i> ‘magpie’	<i>ʒagata</i>

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ANDRA KALNAČA

1. MORPHOPHONOLOGY

1.0 Introductory remarks

Morphophonology in Latvian describes historical and positional sound changes that manifest themselves in particular morphemes due to word formation and inflection. Word formation and inflection in Latvian is also connected with such suprasegmental phenomena as tonemes (or syllable accents) and word stress; however, due to its limited scope, these are not more closely examined in this volume (for further discussion see Kalnača 2004: 102–108; 2013b: 183–189).

1.0.1 Allomorphs, their structure, and functions

The notion of an *allomorph* is vital in morphophonology (and in morphemics). Allomorphs are the variant forms of a given morpheme that originate when morphemes are combined because of word formation or inflection. Thus, allomorphs predominantly are side-effects of affixation (Spencer 2000: 118). All allomorphs of a morpheme have similar phonetic features, and these are related to the source morpheme, which also is an invariant, e.g., the allomorphs of the root *ēd-* ‘eat’ in Latvian are as follows:

(1.1) **invariant**

ēd- [æ:d] *ēd-u* PRS ‘(I) eat’

allomorphs

ēs- *ēs-t* ‘to eat’

ē- *ē-šan-a* ‘eating’

ēd- [e:d] *ēd-u* PST ‘(I) ate’

Most morphophonological phenomena in Latvian relate to the combination of morphemes and their mutual adaptation in word formation and inflection (see Sections 1.1, 1.2). However, there are also allomorphs in Latvian that are conditioned

by phonetic processes within the boundaries of a morpheme or suprasegmental units (see in detail Kalnača 2013b: 183–189). Root allomorphs are an example of these:

(1.2) *šķel-t* ‘to split’, *šķēl-e* ‘slice’, *šķil-a* ‘chip’

and

skal-s ‘kindling’, *skal-d-ī-t* ‘to split’

Allomorphs beginning with *šķ-* originated under the influence of front vowels, i.e., due to the adaptation of phonemes within a morpheme.

Root as well as affix morphemes can have allomorphs:

(1.3) the root *rok-* and its allomorphs

rok-a* – *roc-iņ-a*, *roķ-el-e ‘hand – hand (DIM)’

(1.4) suffixes and their allomorphs

a. **inflection**

NOM SG – GEN SG

-īt-* / *-īš- *sun-īt-is* – *sun-īš-a* ‘dog (DIM)’

-ul-* / *-uļ- *mīl-ul-is* – *mīl-uļ-a* ‘darling’

b. **word formation**

diminutives

-iņ-* / *-tiņ- *māj-iņ-a* ‘house’, *ziv-tiņ-a* ‘fish’

c. **word formation**

deverbal nouns

-on-* / *-oņ- *darb-on-is* ‘activist’, *rīb-oņ-a* ‘rumble’

(1.5) allomorphs of endings (inflection)

NOM SG M (declension 1)

-s* / *-š *tēv-s* ‘father’, *ceļ-š* ‘way’

Allomorphs can differ from the invariant morpheme in two ways:

1. Phonetically, but without any changes in the structure of a morpheme:

These are cases of, e.g., apophony (example (1.6a)) and metaphony (example (1.6b)), fronting (of velar consonants) (1.6c), and consonant *t* and *d* alternation (1.6d).

These are also examples of the alternation of the consonant *n* (1.6e) and cases of palatalization resulting from allomorphs containing the fusion of two morphemes (root and suffix) (1.6f).

(1.6) a. apophony

zelt – *zaļš* – *zāle* – *zils* ‘to become green – green – grass – blue’

b. metaphony

nesu [næs:ũ] PRS 1SG – *nesu* [nes:ũ] PST 1SG ‘(I) carry – (I) carried’

c. fronting (of velar consonants)

jak-a – *jaciņa*, *jākele* ‘cardigan – cardigan (DIM)’

zīrg-s – *zirdziņš*, *zirgelis* ‘horse – horse (DIM)’

d. alternation of the consonants *t* and *d*

sīt-u – *sis-t* ‘(I) beat – to beat’

- ēd-u – ēs-t* ‘(I) eat – to eat’
sīt-u – siz-dams ‘(I) beat – beating’
ēd-u – ēz-dams ‘(I) eat – eating’
- e. vowel change determined by the following consonant *n*
 INF – PRS
līp-t – līp-u < **linp-u* ‘to stick – (I) stick’
klup-t – klūp-u < **klunp-u* ‘to stumble – (I) stumble’
plak-t – plok-u [pluokū] < **plank-u* ‘to collapse – (I) collapse’
- f. palatalization
 NOM SG – GEN SG
zīrn-is – zīrṇ-a ‘pea’
las-is – laš-a ‘salmon’

2. Structurally:

- a) an allomorph is smaller than a morpheme

Such allomorphs have originated in Latvian due to the deletion of the consonants *s*, *z*, *t*, *d* (in detail see Section 1.1.3) and these are smaller than the invariant morpheme; e.g., the root *lūz-* allomorphs in word formation and inflection:

- (1.7) *lūz-t – lū-šan-a* ‘to break – breaking (N)’
lūz-t – lū-st ‘to break – it breaks’

- b) an allomorph is larger than a morpheme

Such allomorphs can be the consequence of the merging of two or more morphemes (Urbutis 2009: 256–259). The cause of merging often is syncope (vowel reduction) in one of the morphemes, but it usually results in a borderline shift for the morphemes. This is not the case for fusion, because the elements of each initial morpheme are preserved. For example, there is no fusion in the case of the palatalization caused by *j* if a root ends in *p*, *b*, *m*, *v*, because it is possible to trace each initial morpheme. As in the synchronic analysis of the language, *j* is not viewed as an inflectional suffix in either the formation of nouns or the verbs of conjugation class 1 (e.g., Kalme, Smiltņiece 2001: 104, 213; Paegle 2003: 48, 109; Kalnača 2013c: 545–548); however, it should be noted that allomorphs with extended roots occur in particular grammatical forms, for example, in the nouns of declension 2.

- | | | | |
|-------|------------------------|------------------|---------|
| (1.8) | invariant morph | allomorph | |
| | NOM SG | GEN SG | |
| | <i>krup-is</i> | <i>krupj-a</i> | ‘toad’ |
| | <i>gulb-is</i> | <i>gulbj-a</i> | ‘swan’ |
| | <i>kurm-is</i> | <i>kurmj-a</i> | ‘mole’ |
| | <i>šķīv-is</i> | <i>šķīvj-a</i> | ‘plate’ |

1.0.2 Units of morphophonology

Morphophonological units are viewed as *morphophonemes*, i.e., phonetically changing parts of a morph that regularly alternate within morphemes in word formation and inflection (Matthews 1997: 233; Crystal 2000: 250; Kalnača 2004: 48–51; Skujiņa 2007: 243), for example, the allomorphs of the consonant *t* alternation with morphophonemes.

(1.9) PRS 1SG – INF

{T}–{S} *met-u – mes-t* ‘(I) throw – to throw’

{D}–{S} *ved-u – ves-t* ‘(I) take – to take’

Morphophonemes are formed from sequences of phonemes that change under the influence of each other within the boundaries of a given morpheme (Kalnača 2013b: 154–155), e.g.:

(1.10) {I}–{E} *vilkt – velk-u* ‘to pull – (I) pull’

{L}–{L̥} *smelt – smel̥-u* ‘to ladle – (I) ladle’

{G}–{DZ} *augt – audz-e* ‘to grow – growth’

However, it must be noted that the alternating morphophonemes themselves do not provide grammatical or lexical meaning to a word or a word form; it can be deduced from the allomorph as a whole; in addition, a morphophoneme often is the consequence of morpheme adaptation. Morphophonemes do not occur in all allomorphs; they are found only in those allomorphs that phonetically differ from the source morpheme, which are as follows for Latvian:

1) allomorphs of the *t* alternation with relevant morphophonemes

(1.11) PRS – INF

{T}–{S} *sit-u – sis-t* ‘(I) beat – to beat’

{D}–{S} *ēd-u – ēs-t* ‘(I) eat – to eat’

2) allomorphs of the *d* alternation with relevant morphophonemes

(1.12) PST – PTC

{T}–{Z} *sit-u – siz-dam-s* ‘(I) beat – beating’

{D}–{Z} *ēd-u – ēz-dam-s* ‘(I) eat – eating’

3) allomorphs of the palatalization caused by the front vowels (fronting of velar consonants) with relevant morphophonemes

(1.13) {K}–{C}–{K̟} *mak-s – mac-iņ-š, maķ-el-is* ‘purse – purse (DIM)’

{G}–{DZ}–{G̟} *lug-a – ludz-iņ-a, luġ-el-e* ‘play – play (DIM)’

Morphophonemes also occur in the allomorphs that are formed due to the fusion of two morphemes. These are as follows:

1) palatalization allomorphs

(1.14) a. NOM SG – GEN SG

{L}–{L̥} *brāl-is – brāl̥-a* ‘brother’

{N}–{N̥} *zirn-is – zirn̥-a*, ‘pea’

{S}–{Š} *las-is* – *laš-a* ‘salmon’
 {Z}–{Ž} *vēz-is* – *vēž-a* ‘crab’
 {T}–{Š} *zut-is* – *zuš-a* ‘eel’
 {D}–{Ž} *bried-is* – *briež-a* ‘deer’
 {C}–{Č} *vec-is* – *več-a* ‘old man’
 {DZ}–{DŽ} *vadz-is* – *vadž-a* ‘peg’

b. INF – PRS

{K}–{C} *sauk-t* – *sauc-u* ‘to call – (I) call’
 {G}–{DZ} *klieg-t* – *kliedz-u* ‘to yell – (I) yell’

2) allomorphs of the consonant *n* alternation

(1.15) INF – PRS

{I}–{Ī} *kris-t* – *krit-u* ‘to fall – (I) fall’
 {U}–{Ū} *klup-t* – *klūp-u* ‘to stumble – (I) stumble’
 {A}–{UO} *plak-t* – *plok-u* [pluokū] ‘to collapse – (I) collapse’
 {E}–{IE} *tīk-t* < **tek-t* – *tiek-u* ‘to get – (I) get’

The consequences of palatalization (caused by the consonant *j* and front vowels) can also lead to alternation of consonant clusters; the following are examples of allomorphs with morphophoneme clusters:

1) in fronting (of velar consonants):

(1.16) {SK}–{ŠK} *skal-s* – *škel-t* ‘kindling – to split’

{ZG}–{ŽĢ} *mezg-l-s* – *mežģ-ī-t* ‘knot – to tangle’
 {NK}–{NĶ} *lenk-t* – *leņķ-is* ‘to chase – angle’
 {NG}–{NĢ} *rung-a* – *ruņģ-el-e* ‘club – club (DIM)’
 {LK}–{LĶ} *vilk-t* – *vilķ-is* ‘to pull – corkscrew’

2) in palatalization:

(1.17) NOM SG – GEN SG / PL

{SN}–{ŠN} *usn-e* – *ušņ-u* PL ‘thistle’
 {ZN}–{ŽN} *lauzn-is* – *laužņ-a* SG ‘crowbar’
 {LN}–{LŅ} *valn-is* – *vaļņ-a* SG ‘rampart’
 {SL}–{ŠL} *pūsl-is* – *pūšļ-a* SG ‘bladder’
 {ZL}–{ŽL} *zizl-is* – *zižļ-a* SG ‘wand’
 {ST}–{Š} *pākst-s* – *pākš-u* PL ‘pod’
 {ZD}–{Ž} dial. *bāzrd-a* – *bārž-u* PL ‘beard’
 {LL}–{LĻ} *krell-es* – *kreļļ-u* PL ‘beads’
 {NN}–{NŅ} *pinn-e* – *piņņ-u* PL ‘blackhead’

The allomorphs of Latvian word roots can display the alternation of several morphophonemes; in these cases, word roots and their morphophonological variants can display not only three but also four morphophoneme series. For example, note the consonant morphophonemes in the allomorphs of the following verb roots:

- (1.18) a. series of three morphophonemes
 {T}–{S}–{Z} *sit-u, sis-t, siz-dam-s* ‘(I) beat, to beat, beating’
 {D}–{S}–{Z} *ēd-u, ēs-t, ēz-dam-s* ‘(I) eat, to eat, eating’
- b. series of four morphophonemes
 {T}–{S}–{Š}–{Z} *pūt-u, pūs-t, pūš-u, pūz-dam-s*
 ‘I blew, to blow, I blow, blowing’
 {D}–{S}–{Ž}–{Z} *grūd-u, grūs-t, grūž-u, grūz-dam-s*
 ‘(I) pushed, to push, (I) push, pushing’

In Latvian, the allomorphs of root morphemes also have been conditioned by apophony, which can exhibit morphophonemes. In contrast to the cases of consonant alternation, vowel alternation exhibits a wide range of morphophoneme series within words or word forms of the same root, even if not all of the possible examples are found in modern Latvian:

- (1.19) a. **e-series**
 {E}–{Ē}–{A}–{Ā}–{UO}–{I}–{U}
ber-u, bēr-t, bar-s, bār-(st)-ī-t, bir-t ‘(I) strew, to strew, crowd, to strew, to fall’
vilk-t, velk-u, valk-ā-t ‘to put on, (I) put on, to wear’
dzer-t, dzēr-u, dzīr-(d)-inā-t ‘to drink, (I) drank, to give to drink’
smelk-n-e, smalk-s, smil(k)-t-s ‘ladle, exquisite, sand’
- b. **i-series**
 {EI}–{IE}–{EJ}–{AI}–{AJ}–{ĒJ}–{I}–{Ī}–{IJ}
lie-t, lej-u, lai-(st)-ī-t, lēj-u, lī-t, lij-a
 ‘to pour, (I) pour, to water, (I) poured, to rain, it rained’
steig-t, staig-ā-t, stig-a ‘to hurry, to walk, trail’
- c. **u-series**
 {JAU}–{AU}–{AV}–{ĀV}–{UO}–{U}–{Ū}–{UV}
grau-t, grav-a, grāv-a, grū-t, gruv-a ‘to destroy, ravine, it destroyed, to collapse, it collapsed’
jauk-t, jav-a, juk-t ‘to mix, cement, to fall to pieces’

1.1 Adaptation of morphemes

Adaptation of morphemes conditioned by the phonetic and phonological rules of a language is indispensable in word formation and inflection occurring in any language. Such phonetic processes as assimilation, dissimilation, and phoneme elision at the junctions of morphemes create allomorphs, i.e., various morphs that represent one morpheme (e.g., Matthews 1997: 14; Spencer 2000: 6), e.g., allomorphs *mes-t* ‘to throw’, *mez-dam-s* ‘throwing’, *me-šan-a* ‘throwing (N)’ of the morpheme *met-*.

Adaptation of morphemes can be caused by positional as well as historical phoneme changes. Even if both types of changes are common in Latvian (in detail see Auziņa 2013b), historical changes are more significant within the grammatical

system of Latvian, as they relate to the processes of word formation and inflection, both of which are the main causes for the origin of allomorphs.

Adaptation of morphemes, and hence allomorphy, occurs in the following combinations in Latvian (Kalnača 2004: 67; 2013b: 157):

- 1) root + ending
 - (1.20) *audz-e* < **aug-e* ‘growth’
plūs-t < **plūd-t* ‘to flow’
zaļ-š < **zaļ-s* ‘green’
- 2) root + suffix
 - (1.21) *roc-īņ-a* < **rok-īņ-a* ‘hand (DIM)’
ve-šan-a < **ved-šan-a* ‘taking (N)’
- 3) root + interfix
 - (1.22) *kos-t – ko-(šļ)-ā-t* < **kod-(šļ)-ā-t* ‘to bite – to chew’
grūs-t – grū-(st)-ī-t < **grūd-(st)-ī-t* ‘to push – to jostle’
- 4) root + infix
 - (1.23) *kris-t – krīt-u* < **kri-n-t-u* ‘to fall – (I) fall’
- 5) suffix + suffix
 - (1.24) *dzied-niec-isk-s* < **dzied-niek-isk-s* ‘healing (adj)’
brāl-it-is NOM SG – *brāl-īš-a* < **brāl-it-j-a* GEN SG ‘brother (DIM)’
- 6) suffix + ending
 - (1.25) *dārz-niec-e* < **dārz-niek-e* ‘gardener (F)’
cel-īņ-š < **cel-īņ-s* ‘footpath’

Four types of morph adaptation are distinguished in Latvian (Kalnača 2004: 67; 2013b: 158). These are as follows:

- 1) **phoneme alternation** – the end of a morph has phonetically adapted to the beginning of the following morph or vice versa, i.e., a morph has adapted to the end of the preceding morph;
- 2) **interference of morphs** – two morphs have merged into one;
- 3) **reduction of the word formation/inflection stem** during the processes of word formation and inflection;
- 4) **interfixation** – an interfix, a semantically empty element, has been inserted between two morphs at the junction of morphemes to avoid an inconvenient vowel or consonant cluster.

1.1.1 Phoneme alternation

Phoneme alternation is conditioned by grammatical positions, i.e., the combining of morphemes due to word formation or inflection. In Latvian, phoneme alternation caused by morphophonological processes at morpheme junctions relates to

the adaptation of a root and an affix (a suffix and an ending) and less frequently also with the adaptation of two affixes (a suffix and an ending). Such alternations of phonemes are not typical at the junction of a prefix and a root.

The following alternations of phonemes occur at morpheme junctions in Latvian:

- 1) fronting (of velar consonants): $k, g \rightarrow c, dz / \check{k}, \check{g}$ (regressive assimilation);
- 2) alternation of the consonant t : $t, d \rightarrow s$ (regressive assimilation);
- 3) alternation of the consonant d : $t, d \rightarrow z$ (regressive assimilation);
- 4) assimilation of the consonant s to the preceding palatal consonant, $s \rightarrow \check{s}$ (progressive assimilation).

Fronting of $k, g \rightarrow c, dz / \check{k}, \check{g}$ occurs if one morpheme ends in k, g , but the next starts with a front monophthong or diphthong. This alternation occurs in word formation as well as inflection.

Word formation

Root + suffix (root ends in k, g)

Fronting at the end of a root in the formation of nouns is caused by the suffixes *-el-* (1.26a), *-ien-* (1.26b), *-en-* (1.26c), *-ēn-* (1.26d), *-īn-* (1.26e), *-inieķ-/enieķ-* (1.26f), etc.

- (1.26) a. *rok-a – roķ-el-e* ‘hand – hand (DIM)’
tirģ-us – tirģ-el-is ‘market – market (DIM)’
 b. *teik-t – teic-ien-s* ‘to say – saying (N)’
spieg-t – spiedz-ien-s ‘to scream – scream’
 c. *vilk-s – vilc-en-e* ‘wolf – she-wolf’
seg-a – seg-en-e ‘blanket – wrap’
 d. *vilk-s – vilc-ēn-s* ‘wolf – wolf cub’
Piebalg-a – piebaldz-ēn-s ‘Piebalga – inhabitant of Piebalga’
 e. *tak-a – tac-īn-a* ‘footpath – footpath (DIM)’
rag-s – radz-īn-š ‘horn – horn (DIM)’
 f. *Rīg-a – rīdz-inieķ-s* ‘Rīga – inhabitant of Rīga’
Bausk-a – baušķ-enieķ-s ‘Bauska – inhabitant of Bauska’

Fronting in the formation of adjectives occurs if the following suffixes are used to form words: *-īg-* (1.27a), *-isk-* (1.27b):

- (1.27) a. *jok-s – joc-īg-s* ‘joke – funny’
deg-t – dedz-īg-s ‘to burn – eager’
 b. *puik-a – puic-isk-s* ‘boy – boyish’
zirg-s – zirdz-isk-s ‘horse – horsy’

Alternation of phonemes in the formation of verbs relates to the use of the suffixes *-ī-* (1.28a), *-ē-* (1.28b), *-inā-* (1.28c):

- (1.28) a. *brauk-t – brauc-ī-t* ‘to go – to rub’
 b. *plauk-t – plauc-ē-t* ‘to bud – to make flowers blossom’
aug-t – audz-ē-t ‘to grow – to grow (iter.)’

- c. *kauk-t* – *kauc-inā-t* ‘to howl – to make howl’
aug-t – *audz-inā-t* ‘to grow – to raise’

Suffix + suffix (the first suffix ends in *k*, *g*)

Fronting occurs if two suffixes are combined in the formation of a noun and adjective if the suffix *-niek-* (1.29a) or the suffix *-uk-* (1.29b) is followed by the suffixes *-iŋ-* (1.29a), *-īt-* (1.29b), *-el-* (1.29c), *-isk-* (1.29d), *-īb-* (1.29e):

- (1.29) a. *dzej-niek-s* – *dzej-niec-iŋ-š* ‘poet – poet (DIM)’
 b. *saim-niec-e* – *saim-niec-īt-e* ‘housekeeper (F) – housekeeper (F) (DIM)’
 c. *meit-uk-s* – *meit-uc-īt-is* ‘girl (DIM) – girl (DIM)’
 d. *dzej-niek-s* – *dzej-niek-el-is* ‘poet – poet (DIM)’
 e. *tēl-niek-s* – *tēl-niec-isk-s* ‘sculptor – sculpturelike’
 f. *strād-niek-s* – *strād-niec-īb-a* ‘worker – working class’

Root + ending (root ends in *k*, *g*)

Fronting of the final consonant of a root/stem in noun formation is caused by the endings *-e*, *-is*:

- (1.30) *atsauk-t* – *atsauc-e* ‘to recall – reference’
sprāg-t – *sprādz-e* ‘to explode – clip’
sarg-s – *sardz-e* ‘watchman – guard’
pelēk-s – *pelēc-is* ‘grey – grey animal’
pusaug-u – *pusaudz-is* ‘teenage – teenager’

Consonant cluster alternation occurs if the root of a word ends in two consonants, i.e., sequenced double regressive assimilation. The fronting refers to the last consonant of a root *ķ*, *ģ*, and then consequently these assimilate the preceding consonant (Laua 1997: 94–95; Auziņa 2013b: 95), for example, see the formation of the following nouns:

- (1.31) *nk* → *ņķ* *slink-s* – *sliņķ-is* ‘lazy – lazy person’
ng → *ņģ* *rung-a* – *ruņģ-el-e* ‘club – club (DIM)’
lk → *ļķ* *vilk-t* – *viļķ-is* ‘drag – corkscrew’

Suffix + ending (suffix ends in *k*, *g*)

Fronting of the final consonant of a suffix is conditioned by the endings *-e*, *-is* used in noun formation.

- (1.32) *gudr-s* – *gudr-iķ-is* ‘clever – clever clog’
skol-niek-s – *skol-niec-e* ‘schoolboy – schoolgirl’

Inflection

Root + ending (root ends in *k*, *g*)

Fronting occurs in the following forms of a verb:

- 1) the second person singular present tense form that possesses or has possessed the ending *-i*
- (1.33) INF – PRS 2SG
brauk-t – brauc < **brauc-i* ‘to go – (you) go’
klieg-t – klie dz < **kliedz-i* ‘to shout – (you) shout’
- 2) the second person singular past tense form
- (1.34) INF – PST 2SG
sauk-t – sauc-i ‘to call – (you) called’
lūg-t – lū dz-i ‘to ask – (you) asked’
- 3) the second person plural imperative mood form
- (1.35) INF – IMP 2PL
brauk-t – brauc-iet ‘to go – (you) go’
klieg-t – klie dz-iet ‘to shout – (you) shout’
- 4) the active voice past participle masculine gender singular nominative case form
- (1.36) INF – PST – PTCP NOM M SG
pirk-t – pirk-u – pirc-is ‘to buy – (I) bought – bought’
aug-t – aug-u – audz-is ‘to grow – (I) grew – grown’

Consonant *t* alternation

This alternation occurs only in the inflection of the infinitive of the simple verbs (without a prefix or a suffix) the stem of which ends in *t*, *d*. Alternation is caused by the infinitive endings *-t* and *-ties* as well as the conditional mood suffixes *-tu* and *-tos*.

Root + ending (root ends in *t*, *d*)

- (1.37) INF
sis-t < **sit-t* ‘to beat’
ves-t < **ved-t* ‘to bring’
kris-ties < **krit-ties* ‘to drop (REFL)’
mos-ties < **mod-ties* ‘to wake (REFL)’
- (1.38) COND
sis-tu < **sit-tu* ‘would beat’
ves-tu < **ved-tu* ‘would bring’
kris-tos < **krit-tos* ‘would drop (REFL)’
mos-tos < **mod-tos* ‘would wake (REFL)’

The same alternation occurs in past passive participle forms of verbs with roots ending in *t*, *d* in combination with the inflectional suffix *-t-*:

Root + suffix (root ends in *t, d*)

(1.39) PTCP

sis-t-s < **sit-t-s* ‘beaten’

ves-t-s < **ved-t-s* ‘brought’

Consonant *d* alternation

This alternation is observable only in inflection. It occurs at the junction of the root of conjugation 1 verbs (without a prefix or a suffix) and the suffix *-dam-* of the semi-declinable participle; the root of these verbs ends in *t, d*:

Root + suffix (root ends in *t, d*)

(1.40) PTCP

siz-dam-s < **sit-dam-s* ‘beating’

vez-dam-s < **ved-dam-s* ‘bringing’

Consonant *s* assimilation of the preceding palatal consonant

In this case, it is hardly possible to distinguish word formation and inflection because the ending *-s* relates to word formation, whereas assimilation occurs only in the masculine singular nominative form. Thus, the ending *-s* possesses the allomorph *-š* in Standard Latvian, which is a morphological and morphophonological indicator of declension 1 nouns (see Table 2.3) in the nominative case (and of adjectives and pronouns declined according to this pattern).

Root + ending (root ends in *j, ņ, l, (r)*)

The root should end in the palatal consonants *j, ņ, l*

(1.41) *vēj-š* < **vēj-s* ‘wind’

skal-š < **skal-s* ‘noisy’

viņ-š < **viņ-s* ‘he’

This group also contains the words in Standard Latvian with the ending *-š* indicating the earlier palatalization of the final consonant of the root *r* (Rudzīte 1993: 325–326), e.g.:

(1.42) *varš* < *var-š* < **var-s* ‘copper’

see also *karš* ‘war’, *garš* ‘tall, long’, *kurš* ‘who, which’

Suffix + ending (suffix ends in *ņ*):

This combination of morphemes occurs only in the masculine gender nouns (1.43a) and adjectives (1.43b) with the suffix *-iņ-*

(1.43) a. *dēl-iņ-š* < **dēl-iņ-s* ‘son (DIM)’

b. *maz-iņ-š* < **maz-iņ-s* ‘small (DIM)’

1.1.2 Interference of morphs

Morph interference is one of the morpheme adaptation types or morphophonological processes that result in the merging of morphs into one indivisible whole. The consequence of the process is the shift of morpheme boundaries and/or phonetic transformation of a morpheme, i.e., allomorphs. This results in the simplification of the morphemic structure of a word / word form (Kalnača 2004: 70). Linguists have termed this phenomenon *fusion* (or *coalescence*) (Matthews 1997: 140; Plungian 2000: 53–67, see also Skujiņa 2007: 341). Due to fusion, the borderline between particular phonemes disappears and a new morphological unit is formed (Anttila 1975: 18; Lessau 1994: 366). Thus, interference of morphs is connected with various cases of neighboring morphs merging.

There are three types of morph interference in Latvian:

- 1) the end of a morph merges with the beginning of the following morph or with the whole morph, e.g., the consonant *j* causing palatalization

(1.44) NOM SG – GEN SG

brāl-is – brāl-a < **brāl-j-a* ‘brother’

- 2) morphs merge within the borderlines of a morpheme, e.g., the consonant *n* alternation

(1.45) INF – PRS

kris-t – krīt-u < **kri-n-t-u* ‘to fall – (I) fall’

- 3) the beginning of a morph merges with the end of the preceding morph or with the whole morph

(1.46) a. V – N

apvīt – apīnis < **apvīnis* ‘to wind around – hop’

b. V – ADJ

apvelt – apaļš < **apvaļš* ‘to roll around – round’

Interference of a root and a suffix / two suffixes

The most frequently observable example of morph interference in Latvian is the palatalization that occurs only in inflection and is connected with the marking of the SG or PL genitive forms, plural paradigm, indirect cases, and the present tense of a verb. This *j* has historically been a nominal and verb inflection suffix (Endzelins 1981: 416–431, 488–494). Due to phoneme assimilation, the original suffix has merged with the end of a root morph and has caused consonant palatalization within the forms of declension 2 (M), 5, and 6 (both F) nouns as well as within the present tense forms of conjugation 1 and 3 verbs, see Table 1.1 (in detail see Sections 2.1.1 and 2.5.1):

Palatalization	Nouns (declension)			Verbs (conjugation)	
	NOM SG	GEN SG	GEN PL	INF	PRS 1SG
<i>nj > ŋ</i>	<i>zirnīs</i> (2) ‘pea’ <i>svainē</i> (5) ‘sister-in-law’	<i>zirnā</i>	<i>zirnū</i> <i>svaiņū</i>		
<i>lj > l̥</i>	<i>celis</i> (2) ‘knee’ <i>mēle</i> (5) ‘tongue’ <i>pils</i> (6) ‘castle’	<i>ceļa</i>	<i>ceļu</i> <i>mēļu</i> <i>pīļu</i>	<i>vel-t</i> (1) ‘to roll’ <i>gulēt</i> (3) ‘to lie’	<i>veļu</i> <i>guļu</i>
<i>sj > š</i>	<i>trusis</i> (2) ‘rabbit’ <i>lāse</i> (5) ‘drop’ <i>tāss</i> (6) ‘birch-bark’	<i>truša</i>	<i>trušu</i> <i>lāšu</i> <i>tāšu</i>	<i>plēst</i> (1) ‘to tear’	<i>plēšu</i>
<i>zj > ž</i>	<i>nazis</i> (2) ‘knife’ <i>vāze</i> (5) ‘vase’	<i>naža</i>	<i>nažu</i> <i>vāžu</i>	<i>gāzt</i> (1) ‘to knock down’	<i>gāžu</i>
<i>cj > č</i>	<i>runcis</i> (2) ‘tomcat’ <i>prece</i> (5) ‘product’	<i>runča</i>	<i>runču</i> <i>preču</i>		
<i>dzj > dž</i>	<i>vadzis</i> (2) ‘peg’ <i>palodze</i> (5) ‘windowsill’	<i>vadža</i>	<i>vadžu</i> <i>palodžu</i>		
<i>tj > š</i>	<i>zutis</i> (2) ‘eel’ <i>māte</i> (5) ‘mother’ <i>nots</i> (6) ‘note’	<i>zuša</i>	<i>zušu</i> <i>māšu</i> <i>nošu</i>	<i>pūst</i> < * <i>pūtt</i> (1) ‘to blow’	<i>pūšu</i>
<i>dj > ž</i>	<i>bridis</i> (2) ‘moment’ <i>piegāde</i> (5) ‘delivery’ <i>sirds</i> (6) ‘heart’	<i>brīža</i>	<i>brīžu</i> <i>piegāžu</i> <i>siržu</i>	<i>grūst</i> < * <i>grūdtt</i> (1) ‘to push’	<i>grūžu</i>
<i>kj > c</i>				<i>saukt</i> (1) ‘to call’ <i>mācīt</i> (3) ‘to teach’	<i>saucu</i> <i>mācu</i>
<i>gj > dz</i>				<i>lūgt</i> (1) ‘to ask’ <i>redzēt</i> (3) ‘to see’	<i>lūdzu</i> <i>redzu</i>

Table 1.1 Examples of palatalization in noun and verb forms

Thus, the two morphs are inseparable because they have merged into one morph creating allomorphs of root or suffix morphemes.

(1.47) a. NOM SG – GEN SG

bried-is – *briež-a* < **bried-j-a* ‘deer’

sun-īt-is – *sun-īš-a* < **sun-īt-j-a* ‘dog (DIM)’

b. INF – PRS

sauk-t – *sauc-u* < **sauk-j-u* ‘to call – (I) call’

Palatalization has also influenced the neighboring sounds within a word. The progressive assimilation of consonants (*ceļš* ‘way’, *maziņš* ‘small (DIM)’) has been previously analyzed (see Section 1.1.1). The regressive assimilation of consonants and morph interference have originated the allomorphs containing two morphophonemes that differ from the basic morpheme:

(1.48) *kaul-is* – *kaušl-a* < **kaul-a* < **kaul-j-a* ‘bully’

This is the palatalization of consonant clusters (*ln – lŋ, sn – šŋ, sl – šl, zl – žl, zn – žŋ, ll – ll̥, nn – n̥, st – š*) in the grammatical forms of the nouns of declensions 2, 5, and 6 (Laua 1997: 94–95), e.g.:

- (1.49) a. NOM SG – GEN SG (M)
cilnis – ciļņa ‘relief’
zibsnis – zibšņa ‘flash’
pūslis – pūšļa ‘bladder’
zizlis – zižļa ‘wand’
 b. NOM SG – GEN PL (F)
zvaigzne – zvaigžņu ‘star’
balle – baļļu ‘ball’
pinne – piņņu ‘blackhead’
pāksts – pākšu ‘pod’

Inflection

Root + suffix (root ends in *l, n, s, z, c, dz, t, d*)

Palatalization occurs in the following nouns as well as in some pronouns (for palatalization exceptions see Section 2.1.1):

- 1) singular genitive of declension 2 (examples see Table 1.1);
- 2) plural genitive of declension 5 (examples see Table 1.1);
- 3) plural genitive of declension 6 (the root of which ends in *t, d, l*) (examples see Table 1.1);
- 4) all plural cases of declension 2 (see also noun declension Table 2.3, Section 2.1.1):

(1.50) *lāc-is* ‘bear’ (M)

Case	PL
NOM	<i>lāč-i</i>
GEN	<i>lāč-u</i>
DAT	<i>lāč-iem</i>
ACC	<i>lāč-us</i>
INS	<i>(ar) lāč-iem</i>
LOC	<i>lāč-os</i>
VOC	<i>lāč-i!</i>

Table 1.2 The plural declension paradigm of *lācis* ‘bear’

- 5) for a portion of declension 1 and 4 nouns (also adjectives and pronouns declined according to these patterns) palatalization functions throughout the declension paradigm as a morphophonological indicator for this declension subtype; its distinctive feature is a final palatal soft stem consonant (see Section 2.1.1):

(1.51) a. declension 1 (M)

ceļ-š ‘way’

mež-s ‘forest’

zaļ-š ‘green’

b. declension 4 (F)

daļ-a ‘part’

viņ-a ‘she’

zaļ-a ‘green’

6) palatalization in the pronoun *pats* ‘self’ (declined according to the declension 1 pattern), *pati* ‘self (F)’ (declined according to the declension 4 pattern) marks only indirect case forms, whereas there is no alternation in the nominative (see Section 2.4.8):

(1.52) *pats* ‘self (M)’, *pati* ‘self (F)’

Case	SG	PL
NOM	<i>pat-s, pat-i</i>	<i>paš-i, paš-as</i>
GEN	<i>paš-a, paš-as</i>	<i>paš-u</i>
DAT	<i>paš-am, paš-ai</i>	<i>paš-iem, paš-ām</i>
ACC	<i>paš-u</i>	<i>paš-us, paš-as</i>
INS	<i>(ar) paš-u</i>	<i>(ar) paš-iem, (ar) paš-ām</i>
LOC	<i>paš-ā</i>	<i>paš-os, paš-ās</i>

Table 1.3 The declension paradigm of the pronouns *pats* ‘self (M)’, *pati* ‘self (F)’

Palatalization occurs in **verbs** of conjugation 1 subclass 2 (Table 1.4) as well as conjugation 3 subclass 2 (Table 1.5) forms of the simple present tense (with the exception of the second person singular form) (see Section 2.5.1).

(1.53) *lauz-t* ‘to break’

Person	PRS SG	PRS PL
1	<i>lauž-u</i>	<i>lauž-am</i>
2	<i>lauz</i>	<i>lauž-at</i>
3	<i>lauž</i>	

Table 1.4 Present tense paradigm of the verb *lauzt* ‘to break’

(1.54) *gul-ē-t* ‘to lie’

Person	PRS SG	PRS PL
1	<i>gul-u</i>	<i>gul-am</i>
2	<i>gul-i</i>	<i>gul-at</i>
3	<i>gul</i>	

Table 1.5 Present tense paradigm of the verb *gulēt* ‘to lie’

The verbs of conjugation 1 subclass 2, the root of which ends in *k*, *g*, show fronting in the second person singular, as in the verb *saukt* ‘call’ (see Section 2.5.1):

(1.55) *tu sauc* ‘you call (SG)’

Suffix + suffix (suffix ends in *l*, *n*, *t*, *d*, *s*, *z*, *k*, *g*)

Morph interference occurs in the following derived words:

- 1) nouns of declension 2 (M) with the suffixes *-iet-*, *-īt-*, *-ait-*, *-ul-*, *-el-*, *-ekl-/okl-*, *-on-*, etc. masculine nouns that are in the genitive singular and in the plural of all cases (Table 1.6, see also Table 2.3);
- 2) nouns of declension 5 (F) with the previously mentioned suffixes have allomorphs in the genitive plural (Table 1.6, see also Table 2.3):

Suffix	Declension 2			Declension 5	
	NOM SG	GEN SG	NOM PL	NOM SG	GEN PL
-iet-	<i>vīr-iet-is</i> ‘man’	<i>vīr-ieš-a</i>	<i>vīr-ieš-i</i>	<i>siev-iet-e</i> ‘woman’	<i>siev-ieš-u</i>
-īt-	<i>lāc-īt-is</i> ‘bear (DIM)’	<i>lāc-iš-a</i>	<i>lāc-iš-i</i>	<i>puķ-īt-e</i> ‘flower (DIM)’	<i>puķ-iš-u</i>
-ait-	<i>vīrs-ait-is</i> ‘chieftain’	<i>vīrs-aiš-a</i>	<i>vīrs-aiš-i</i>		
-ain-	<i>dūr-ain-is</i> ‘mitten’	<i>dūr-aīn-a</i>	<i>dūr-aīn-i</i>	<i>pried-ain-e</i> ‘pine grove’	<i>pried-aīn-u</i>
-el-	<i>nam-el-is</i> ‘house (DIM)’	<i>nam-eļ-a</i>	<i>nam-eļ-i</i>	<i>māj-el-e</i> ‘house (DIM)’	<i>māj-eļ-u</i>
-ekl-	<i>kar-ekl-is</i> ‘pendant’	<i>kar-ekļ-a</i>	<i>kar-ekļ-i</i>	<i>lut-ekl-e</i> ‘darling (F)’	<i>lut-ekļ-u</i>
-okl-	<i>dzīv-okl-is</i> ‘flat’	<i>dzīv-okļ-a</i>	<i>dzīv-okļ-i</i>		
-en-	<i>bār-en-is</i> ‘orphan’	<i>bār-eņ-a</i>	<i>bār-eņ-i</i>	<i>kaķ-en-e</i> ‘she-cat’	<i>kaķ-eņ-u</i>
-otn-				<i>lap-otn-e</i> ‘leafage’	<i>lap-otņ-u</i>
-ien-				<i>lāc-ien-e</i> ‘she-bear’	<i>lāc-ieņ-u</i>
-ul-	<i>mīl-ul-is</i> ‘darling (M)’	<i>mīl-uļ-a</i>	<i>mīl-uļ-i</i>	<i>mīl-ul-e</i> ‘darling (F)’	<i>mīl-uļ-u</i>
-on-	<i>māk-on-is</i> ‘cloud’	<i>māk-oņ-a</i>	<i>māk-oņ-i</i>	<i>dzied-on-e</i> ‘singer (F)’	<i>dzied-oņ-u</i>
-es-	<i>mēn-es-is</i> ‘month’	<i>mēn-eš-a</i>	<i>mēn-eš-i</i>		
-ez-	<i>gliem-ez-is</i> ‘snail’	<i>gliem-ež-a</i>	<i>gliem-ež-i</i>		

Table 1.6 Suffix allomorphs of declension 2 and 5 nouns

- 3) interference of suffix morphs occurs also in the forms of the past active participle; if masculine gender participles have the indefinite ending *-is*, then palatalization marks the indirect case forms (Table 1.7, see also Table 2.60):

(1.56) *kāp-t* (INF) – *kāp-is* (PTCP PST NOM M) ‘climb’

Case	SG
NOM	<i>kāp-is</i>
GEN	<i>kāp-uš-a</i>
DAT	<i>kāp-uš-am</i>
ACC	<i>kāp-uš-u</i>
INS	<i>(ar) kāp-uš-u</i>
LOC	<i>kāp-uš-ā</i>

Table 1.7 Declension paradigm of the past active participle singular forms (indefinite ending)

- 4) the nominative and indirect case forms (which show palatalization) of the feminine past active participle can take both definite (1.57a) and indefinite (1.57b) endings (full paradigm see in section 2.5.9, Table 2.61):

(1.57) a. indefinite ending

NOM SG F

aug-us-i

GEN SG

aug-uš-as

DAT SG

aug-uš-ai, etc.

b. definite ending

NOM SG F

aug-us-ī

GEN SG

aug-uš-ās

DAT SG

aug-uš-ajai, etc.

- 5) morph interference (palatalization) is also observable in the forms of the present active participle by merging the participle suffix and the former suffix *-j-* (in detail see Endzelins 1981: 521–522, see also Section 2.5.9, Tables 2.55 and 2.56), e.g.:

(1.58) a. NOM SG M

aug-oš-s ‘growing’

b. NOM SG F

aug-oš-a ‘growing’

Morph interference, however, is not observable in all examples of palatalization. If the root of declension 2, 5, and 6 nouns (1.59a) or conjugation 1 verbs (1.59b) ends in *m*, *v*, *p*, *b*, interference of morphs or fusion does not occur (see also Section 2.1.1):

(1.59) a. NOM SG – GEN SG (declension 2 (M))

kurmī – *kurmja* ‘mole’

Raivis – *Raivja* ‘male’s name’

skapis – *skapja* ‘wardrobe’

gulbis – *gulbja* ‘swan’

NOM SG – GEN PL (declensions 5, 6 (F))

kalme – *kalmju* ‘sweet flag’

padeve – *padevju* ‘feeding’

atkāpe – *atkāpju* ‘indentation’

piekabe – *piekabju* ‘trailer’

zivs – *zivju* ‘fish’

b. INF – PRS 1SG

lemt – *lemju* ‘to decide – (I) decide’

kāpt – *kāpju* ‘to climb – (I) climb’

glābt – *glābju* ‘to rescue – (I) rescue’

In this case there is neither complete consonant assimilation nor a phonetic allomorph. The result, however, is a different type of allomorphy: the expansion of a morph. This means that labials do not change under the influence of palatalization and that *j* is added to them. Even if *j* is historically a suffix, it is viewed as the expansion of a root morph in the synchronic description of Latvian (Kalme, Smiltnece 2001: 18), i.e., the allomorph of the morpheme *kurm-* is *kurmj-* including the submorph *j*.

Word formation

Palatalization is not widespread in word formation. Normally, it can be seen in those derivatives in which the word formation stem is a word form containing palatalization caused by *j*. For example, adjectives with the suffix *-ain-* are formed from the stem of a noun in the plural genitive (Soida 1970: 89; see also Table 2.6):

(1.60) NOM SG – GEN PL – ADJ

smilt-s – *smilš-u* – *smilš-ain-s* ‘sand – sandy’

akmen-s – *akmeņ-u* – *akmeņ-ain-s* ‘stone – stony’

pērl-e – *pērļ-u* – *pērļ-ain-s* ‘pearl – pearly’

alksn-is – *alkšņ-u* – *alkšņ-ain-s* ‘alder – area covered with alder trees’

Root + suffix (root ends in *l*, *n*, *t*, *d*, *s*, *z*)

Interference of morphs occurs in the previously mentioned words, example (1.51) (see Endzelins 1981: 389–390); these are viewed as simple words in Standard Latvian, e.g.:

- (1.61) *ceļ-š* < **ceļ-j-s* ‘way’
gaļ-a < **gaļ-j-a* ‘meat’
viņ-a < **viņ-j-a* ‘she’
mež-s < **mež-j-s* ‘forest’
plauš-a < **plaut-j-a* ‘lung’
snauž-a < **snaud-j-a* ‘drowsy head’

Suffix + suffix (the first suffix ends in *l, n, t, d, s, z*)

Interference of morphs occurs in the nouns and adjectives that are derived with the help of the suffixes *-oņ-, -iņ-, -aļ-, -už-*, etc., see also Table 2.6:

- (1.62) *kauk-t* – *kauk-oņ-a* < **kauk-on-j-a* ‘to howl – howl’
jaun-s – *jaun-iņ-š* < **jaun-in-j-s* ‘young – young (DIM)’
gald-s – *gald-iņ-š* ‘table – table (DIM)’
snaus-t – *snaud-aļ-a* < **snaud-al-j-a* ‘to doze – drowsy head’
mig-t – *mig-už-a* < **mig-uz-j-a* ‘to fall asleep – drowsy head’

Root and suffix interference involve inflection as well as word formation because the suffix *-j-* performs both functions simultaneously. The suffix *-j-* is a word formation tool, but, at the same time, all words are also marked as particular morphological paradigms that are the representatives of nominals and pronouns.

The interference of a root and an infix

An infix is a morpheme that is inserted within a root morpheme (Skujīņa 2007: 156; Kalnača 2004: 25; 2013b: 165), e.g., in Latvian:

- (1.63) *līp-t* – *līp-u* < **li-n-p-u* ‘to stick – (I) stick’
klup-t – *klūp-u* < **klu-n-p-u* ‘to stumble – (I) stumble’
ras-t – [*ruodū*] *rod-u* < **ra-n-d-u* ‘to find – (I) find’

Infixes are not viewed as independent morphemes in modern Latvian.

Inflection

Root + infix

Joining of morphs within the boundary of a morpheme, i.e., the interference of a root and infix *-n-* referred to in Latvian linguistics as the consonant *n* alternation (Laua 1997: 75–76), is observed to occur only in present tense verb forms (see also Section 2.5.1 and 2.5.3). The verbs formed by the infix *-n-* display the alternation of a root vowel *i – ī, u – ū, a – o* [uo] in the present tense and this alternation marks the present tense form of a verb in contrast to the infinitive and other forms, e.g.:

- (1.64) *kris-t* – *kri-t-u* < **kri-n-t-u* ‘to fall – (I) fall’
zus-t – *zūd-u* < **zu-n-d-u* ‘to disappear – (I) disappear’
plak-t – *plok-u* [pluokū] < **plank-u* ‘to collapse – (I) collapse’

This change is the result of the fusion of a root and an infix because the infix *-n-*, due to its tautosyllabic position, has merged with the morph of a root. This invariant of

the morph of a root is in infinitive and past tense forms, whereas the allomorph is in present tense forms.

Interference of a prefix and a root

Word formation

Prefix + root

There are only a few of such cases in Latvian because normally there occur positional phoneme alternations or positional allomorphs at the junction of a prefix and a root. However, morph interference is observable, for example, in such words as *apinis* ‘hop (a plant)’, *apaļš* ‘round’, which are the result of a prefix and root merging:

- (1.65) *ap-vī-t* – *apīn-is* < **ap-vī-n-is* ‘to wind around – hop’
ap-vel-t – *apaļ-š* < **ap-val-š* ‘to roll around – round’

This process has resulted in the creation of the roots *apīn-*, *apaļ-* that function as independent morphemes and serve as source morphemes for other derivatives (Soida 1970: 81–82; see also Kalnača 2004: 76), e.g.:

- (1.66) *apaļ-š* ‘round’ – *apaļ-īg-s*, *apaļ-um-s* ‘roundness’
apīn-i ‘hops’ – *apīn-ain-s* ‘covered with hops’

Similar interference of morphs can be seen in some verbs where the root has merged with the apocoped reduction *s-*, which initially had been the prepositional reflexive element **si-* (in dialects also *sa-*, *za-*) (Endzelins 1981: 517; Endzelins 1982: 454; Metuzāle-Kangere 1985: XXXIII–XXXIV; Rudzīte 1993: 357), e.g.:

- (1.67) *izsalkt* < *iz-s-alk-t* < **iz-si-alk-t* ‘to get hungry’
pieskarties < *pie-s-kar-ties* < **pie-si-kar-ties* ‘to touch’
noskaisties < *no-s-kais-ties* < **no-si-kais-ties* ‘to get angry’

New words have been abstracted from the verbs *salkt* ‘to get hungry’, *skart* ‘to touch’, *skaisties* ‘to chafe’ viz. the root morphemes *salk-*, *skar-*, *skais-* that are allomorphs of the morphemes *alk-*, *kar-*, *kais-* (Kalnača 2004: 76).

1.1.3 Reduction of the word formation/inflectional stem

Reduction of the word formation/inflectional stem is normally connected with affixation in word formation or inflectional processes. This is one of the morph adaptation types and it is opposite of interfixation (Kalnača 2004: 76). Stem reduction or apocope occurs so to avoid the violation of phonetic rules.

The goal of this reduction is:

- 1) the avoidance of consonant clusters at morpheme junctions, i.e., the historical deletion of the consonants *t*, *d*, *s*, *z* (Laua 1997: 96);
- 2) the avoidance of vowel clusters at morpheme junctions.

Avoidance of consonant clusters

The historical deletion of consonants affects the consonants *t, d, s, z*, if they precede the consonants *s, z* in word forms or derivatives (in detail see Rudzīte 1993: 351–352; Auziņa 2013b: 94).

Word formation

Formation of nouns with the help of the suffix *-šan-* from (usually conjugation class 1) verbs, the root of which end in *t, d, s, z*, resulting in the loss of the final phoneme of the root morph (see also Table 2.6):

- (1.68) *kris-t* < **krit-t* – *kri-šan-a* < **krit-šan-a* ‘to fall – falling’
plūs-t < **plūd-t* – *plū-šan-a* < **plūd-šan-a* ‘to flow – flowing’
aus-t – *au-šan-a* < **aus-šan-a* ‘to rise – rising’
lauz-t – *lau-šan-a* < **lauz-šan-a* ‘to break – breaking’

The word formation stem of the following verbs is reduced, which includes derivatives with the suffixes *-sm-* (1.69a), *-sl-* (1.69b), *-m-* (1.69c) (Rudzīte 1993: 351–352), e.g.:

- (1.69) a. *plūs-t* < **plūd-t* – *plū-sm-a* < **plūd-sm-a* ‘to flow – flow’
jaus-t < **jaut-t* – *jau-sm-a* < **jaut-sm-a* ‘to feel – presentiment’
b. *pūs-t* < **pūt-t* – *pū-sl-i* < **pūt-sl-i* ‘to blow – bladder’
mēz-t – *mē-sl-i* < **mēz-sl-i* ‘to sweep – dung’
c. *lais-t* < **laid-t* – *lai-m-e* < **laid-m-e* ‘to let – happiness’

Root + interfix (root ends in *t, d, s, z*)

If the root of a verb ends in the consonants *t, d, s, z*, then the interfixes *-šļ-*, *-šņ-*, *-st-*, *-žļ-*, *-žņ-* of these derived verbs cause the reduction of a root morph. (in detail see Kalnača 2002: 474–478 and 2004: 77, as well as Section 1.1.4), e.g.:

- (1.70) *kos-t* – *ko-(šļ)-ā-t* < **kod-(šļ)-ā-t* ‘to bite – to chew’
kas-t – *ka-(šņ)-ā-t* < **kas-(šņ)-ā-t* ‘to scratch’
grūs-t – *grū-(st)-ī-t* < **grūd-(st)-ī-t* ‘to push – to jostle’
zīs-t – *zī-(žļ)-ā-t* < **zīd-(žļ)-ā-t* ‘to suck’
līs-t – *lī-(žņ)-ā-t* < **līd-(žņ)-ā-t* ‘to crawl’

Inflection

Conjugation 1 verbs lose the final phoneme of their root morph if the root ends in *t, d, s, z* and the simple present tense is formed with the help of the suffix *-st-* (Rudzīte 1993: 351–352; Kalnača 2013c: 548, see also Table 2.25):

- (1.71) *kals-t* – *kal-st-u* < **kalt-st-u* ‘to dry – (I) dry’
plūs-t – *plū-st-u* < **plūd-st-u* ‘to flow – (I) flow’
aus-t – *au-st-u* < **aus-st-u* ‘to rise – (I) rise’
lūz-t – *lū-st-u* < **lūz-st-u* ‘to break – (I) break’

Avoidance of vowel clusters

Word formation

Suffix + ending (suffix ends in a long vowel or diphthong)

Forming nouns from verbs of conjugation 2 and 3 by linking the derivational endings *-e*, *-is* to the word formation stem, would result in a vowel cluster at the junction of morphemes. Such a cluster occurs because the infinitive stem of a verb has a vocalic suffix (*-ī-*, *-ē-*, *-ā-*, *-o-*) or a suffix that ends in a vowel (*-inā-*). To avoid this vowel cluster, the suffix of the infinitive stem or its part, is reduced (Soida 1977: 112; Kalnača 2013b: 166–167), e.g.:

- (1.72) *ap-skāt-ī-t* – *ap-skāt-e* < **ap-skāt-ī-e* ‘to view – examination’
ie-cer-ē-t – *ie-cer-e* < **ie-cer-ē-e* ‘to intend – intention’
pār-zin-ā-t – *pār-zin-is* < **pār-zin-ā-is* ‘to know – manager’
ap-kalp-o-t – *ap-kalp-e* < **ap-kalp-o-e* ‘to serve – crew’

Inflection

Suffix + ending (suffix ends in a long vowel)

In Latvian, avoidance of vowel clusters at the junction of morphemes through the reduction of a word stem occurs in the formation of present tense conjugation 3 verbs. Such inflection-caused stem reduction functions as a marker contrasting present tense and past tense forms (see also Soida 2009: 168). With this, conjugation 3 verbs in the simple present tense morphophonologically differ from the verbs of conjugation 2, as there are no differences between their forms in the infinitive or the past tense (see Section 2.5.1). The root of these verbs ends in a consonant with the word formation suffix being a long vowel or the suffix ending in a long vowel (*-ī-*, *-ē-*, *-ā-*, *-inā-*). Therefore, the creation of present tense forms by adding the relevant personal endings would result in a vowel cluster, which, however, is avoided by dropping the infinitive suffix or the final vowel of this suffix, as in the verbs *pētīt* ‘to study’ (Table 1.8) and *mēģināt* ‘to try’ (Table 1.9).

Person	PRS SG	PRS PL
1	<i>pēt-u</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-u</i>	<i>pēt-ām</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-ām</i>
2	<i>pēt-i</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-i</i>	<i>pēt-āt</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-āt</i>
3	<i>pēt-a</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-a</i>	

Table 1.8 The present tense forms of the verb *pētīt* ‘to study’

Person	PRS SG	PRS PL
1	<i>mēģ-in-u</i> < * <i>mēģ-inā-u</i>	<i>mēģ-in-ām</i> < * <i>mēģ-inā-ām</i>
2	<i>mēģ-in-i</i> < * <i>mēģ-inā-i</i>	<i>mēģ-in-āt</i> < * <i>mēģ-inā-āt</i>
3	<i>mēģ-in-a</i> < * <i>mēģ-inā-a</i>	

Table 1.9 The present tense forms of the verb *mēģināt* ‘to try’

1.1.4 Interfixation

Interfixation is one of the methods of morpheme adaptation in Latvian. However, in contrast to the word formation/inflection described in the previous section 1.1.3, stem reduction and vowel or consonant fusion at the junction of morphemes are avoided with the help of a specific affix – an interfix (Kalnača 2004: 78; Skujiņa 2007: 160; Kalnača 2013b: 167).

Avoidance of vowel clusters

Word formation

Root + suffix (root ends in a monophthong or diphthong; suffixes are vocalic)

In causative verbs and derived iterative verbs, the roots of which end in a monophthong or diphthong, the interfixes *-d-*, *-st-*, *-ŋ-* are documented (Soida 2009: 192–203). The function of an interfix is to prevent vowel fusion in derivatives that would occur if a vocalic word formation suffix (*-ā-*, *-ē-*, *-ī-*, *-o-*, *-inā-*) were added to the root of a verb (see Skujiņa 2007: 160; see also section 2.0.1), e.g.:

- (1.73) *lie-t* – *lie-(d)-ē-t* ‘to pour – to leave in the rain’
šū-t – *šū-(d)-inā-t* ‘to sew – to have a garment made’
lie-t – *lai-(st)-ī-t* ‘to pour – to water’
mī-t – *mī-(ŋ)-ā-t* ‘to tread – to trample’

One verb can have two kinds of interfixed derivatives, e.g.:

- (1.74) *mī-t* – *mī-(d)-ī-t*, *mī-(ŋ)-ā-t* ‘to tread – to trample’
tī-t – *tī-(st)-ī-t*, *tī-(ŋ)-ā-t* ‘to wrap – to wrap up’

Some interfixes in Latvian are inserted at the morpheme junction due to analogy, even if they are not required there. Apart from the previously mentioned interfixes, the following interfixes also can occur in this position *-šŋ-*, *-šļ-*, *-žŋ-*, *-žļ-*:

- (1.75) *gul-t* – *gul-(šŋ)-ā-t* ‘to lie – to lie around’
kos-t < **kod-t* – *ko-(šļ)-ā-t* < **kod-(šļ)-ā-t* ‘to bite – to chew’
lis-t < **līd-t* – *lī-(žŋ)-ā-t* < **līd-(žŋ)-ā-t* ‘to crawl – to creep’
zīs-t < **zīd-t* – *ži-(žļ)-ā-t* < **zīd-(žļ)-ā-t* ‘to suck – to suck’

If the root of a verb ends in a consonant, then an interfix is used due to analogy in such derived verbs. Perhaps this is to strengthen the causative / iterative meaning of the derivative in contrast to the source verb, e.g.:

- (1.76) *dīl-t* – *del-(d)-ē-t* ‘to wear out – to wear out (through use)’
bēr-t – *bār-(st)-ī-t* ‘to strew – to scatter’
grim-t – *grem-(d)-ē-t* ‘to sink – to cause to sink’

There can occur two kinds of iterative derivatives of one verb – one of them with and the other without an interfix.

- (1.77) *rak-t* – *rak-(ŋ)-ā-t*, *rak-ā-t* ‘to dig – to dig around’
gul-t – *gul-(šŋ)-ā-t*, *gul-ē-t* ‘to lie – to lie around’

In this case it is also relevant to consider the morphophonological function of an interfix.

In such cases the type of word formation can be determined by the quality of the final consonant of the root, i.e., either it is a sonorant or an obstruent. If a verb root ends in a sonorant, the derivative possesses either only an interfix (1.78a) or an interfix and apophony (1.78b).

(1.78) a. interfix

gul-t – gul-(šŋ)-ā-t ‘to lie – to lie around’

b. interfix + apophony

grim-t – grem-(d)-ē-t ‘to sink – to cause to sink’

vel-t – val-(st)-ī-t ‘to roll – to roll back and forth’

dzer-t – dzir-(d)-inā-t ‘to drink – to give to drink’

If the root ends in the consonants *d*, *t*, *s*, *z*, then the interfixes *-šl-*, *-šŋ-*, *-st-*, *-žl-*, *-žŋ-* cause the shortening of the root morph, i.e., the shortening of the derivational stem in the derived verbs:

(1.79) *os-t – o-(šŋ)-ā-t* < **od-(šŋ)-ā-t* ‘to smell – to sniff’

kas-t – ka-(šŋ)-āt < **kas-(šŋ)-ā-t* ‘to scratch – to scratch (iter.)’

grūs-t – grū-(st)-ī-t < **grūd-(st)-ī-t* ‘to push – to jostle’

See also examples (1.75) with the verbs *košļāt* ‘to chew’, *ližņāt* ‘to crawl’, *zižļāt* ‘to suck’.

Opinions differ regarding interfixes in such derived verbs as well as their division into morphemes. For example, Soida (2009: 193) considers that in verbs such as *košļāt* ‘to chew’, *ošņāt* ‘to sniff’, *zižļāt* ‘to suck’, *ližņāt* ‘to crawl’, etc. there are interfixes *-l-*, *-ŋ-* that have caused the alternation of the final consonant of the source verb stem. Vulāne (1997: 291) is of a similar opinion about, for example, the division of the verb *košļāt* ‘to chew’ into morphemes: *koš*+*(l)*+*ā-t*. Metuzāle-Kangere (1985: 132) also proposes a similar division for the verb *košļāt* ‘to chew’ into morphemes, *koš-l-ā-t*, but, she considers *-l-* to be a causative suffix. However, in relation to these derived verbs the historical deletion of the consonants *t*, *d*, *s*, *z* has been underestimated if, in grammatical forms or during word formation processes, they occur in front of the morphemes that start with *s*, *š* (Endzelīns 1981: 373–374; Rudzīte 1993: 350–352; Laua 1997: 96). In theory, the same alternation might occur in front of morphs starting with *z*, *ž*. Therefore, in relation to such verbs, it would be more relevant to consider the interfixes *-šl-*, *-šŋ-*, *-žl-*, *-žŋ-* and the shortening of word formation/inflectional stems (Kalnača 2004: 79; Kalnača 2013b: 166, 168).

If a verb stem ends in a consonant, then two morphophonological processes occur in the derived word that both relate to the phonetic structure of the end of the verb stem:

- 1) if the stem of a verb ends in a sonorant, then the morphophonological process during word formation involves either only an interfix or the vocalic alternation of the stem together with an interfix (see examples (1.78));

- 2) if the stem of a verb ends in an obstruent, then the morphophonological process during word formation involves the loss of the final consonant of the stem together with an interfix (see examples (1.79)).

Inflection

Suffix + ending (the suffix is a long vowel or diphthong; the ending starts with a vowel)

The interfix *-j-* is used in the formation of the person forms in the simple present and past of conjugation 2 verbs in order to avoid vowel clusters at the junction of the suffix and ending (Table 1.10; see also Section 2.5.1).

Person	PRS SG	PRS PL
1	<i>vēr-o-(j)-u</i> < * <i>vēr-o-u</i>	<i>vēr-o-(j)-am</i> < * <i>vēr-o-am</i>
2	<i>vēr-o-∅-∅</i> < * <i>vēr-o-(j)-i</i> < * <i>vēr-o-i</i>	<i>vēr-o-(j)-at</i> < * <i>vēr-o-at</i>
3	<i>vēr-o-∅-∅</i> < * <i>vēr-o-(j)-a</i> < * <i>vēr-o-a</i>	
	PST SG	PST PL
1	<i>vēr-o-(j)-u</i> < * <i>vēr-o-u</i>	<i>vēr-o-(j)-ām</i> < * <i>vēr-o-ām</i>
2	<i>vēr-o-(j)-i</i> < * <i>vēr-o-i</i>	<i>vēr-o-(j)-āt</i> < * <i>vēr-o-āt</i>
3	<i>vēr-o-(j)-a</i> < * <i>vēr-o-a</i>	

Table 1.10 The verb *vērot* ‘to watch’ person forms in the present and past

The interfix *-j-* occurs in the past tense forms of conjugation 3 verbs: see the verb *pētīt* ‘to study’ (Table 1.11; see also Section 2.5.1).

Person	PST SG	PST PL
1	<i>pēt-ī-(j)-u</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-u</i>	<i>pēt-ī-(j)-ām</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-ām</i>
2	<i>pēt-ī-(j)-i</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-i</i>	<i>pēt-ī-(j)-āt</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-āt</i>
3	<i>pēt-ī-(j)-a</i> < * <i>pēt-ī-a</i>	

Table 1.11 The verb *pētīt* ‘to study’ person forms in the past

The description of the linguistic feature *-j-* is approached differently in Latvian linguistics. In Latvian synchronic morphology, *-j-* is described as a suffix and is also viewed as such in the present grammar book (Kalme, Smiltņiece 2001: 214; Paegle 2003: 98–99; Kalnača 2014: 79).

Avoidance of consonant clusters with the help of an interfix occurs only in **inflection** in Latvian.

Root + suffix (root ends in consonants *s*, *z*, *t*, *d*)

Verbs (conjugation 1), the stems of which end in *s*, *z*, *t*, *d*, have the interfix *-ī-* in their future tense form. It is inserted at the junction of morphemes to avoid the formation of a consonant cluster (Paegle 2003: 100; Kalnača 2013b: 169, see also Section 2.5.3):

(1.80) INF – FUT 2SG

plēs-t – plēs-(ī)-s-i ‘to tear – (you) will tear’

grauz-t – grauž-(ī)-s-i ‘to gnaw – (you) will gnaw’

jus-t – jut-(ī)-s-i ‘to feel – (you) will feel’

spries-t – spried-(ī)-s-i ‘to judge – (you) will judge’

1.2 The morphophonological functions of vowel alternations

In Latvian, the morphophonological functions of vowel alternations are associated with two different processes:

1) apophony (or *ablaut*) (1.81a);

2) metaphony (or *umlaut*) involving the vowels *e*, *ē* (1.81b)

(1.81) a. *vilkt – velku* ‘to pull – (I) pull’

b. *nesu* [næs:ũ] – *nesu* [nes:ũ] ‘(I) carry – (I) carried’

These alternations occur at morpheme boundaries and are not to be associated with phenomena resulting from morphological junction: phoneme alternation at a morph boundary, interference of morphs, interfixation, or reduction of the stem.

Though the umlaut involving *e*, *ē* is positionally conditioned, the way in which it manifests in Latvian has a direct connection with the morphophonological functions seen in word formation and inflection (Kalnača 2004: 82). The umlaut involving the vowels *e*, *ē* is an example of regressive assimilation at a distance.

Consonant *n* alternation can also be analyzed as a morphophonological vowel alternation. In modern Latvian, this alternation appears in verbs as *i – ī*, *u – ū*, *a – o* [uo]:

(1.82) *krist – kritu* ‘to fall – (I) fall’

just – jūtu ‘to feel – (I) feel’

rak-t – [ruokũ] roku ‘to dig – (I) dig’

As the source of this alternation is morph interference, i.e., the merger of a root and infix, it is discussed in Section 1.1.2.

1.2.1 Apophony

Apophony (also *ablaut*) is a morphophonological vowel alternation inherited from Proto-Indo-European, which manifests itself in word formation and inflection (e.g., Matthews 1997: 2; Crystal 2000: 173; Skujiņa 2007: 226).

In Latvian, apophony can be divided into two categories according to the way in which it manifests and its function:

1) quantitative apophony;

2) qualitative apophony.

In Latvian, apophony is typically a segmental phenomenon. Therefore, all morphemes where apophony is possible are allomorphs. Apophony occurs most often

in root morphemes, less often in suffixes. This grammar examines apophony in root morphemes, as examples of apophony in suffixes are found more often in dialects rather than in Standard Latvian (for more see Kalnača 2004: 83).

There are situations where apophony in a root morpheme is supplemented with metatony (example (1.83)); however, due to the limitations in the scope of this grammar, these situations are not discussed here (for more see Kalnača 2004: 104, 2013b: 179).

(1.83) *smiet* [smie²t] – *smaidīt* [smai:di:t] ‘to laugh – to smile’

Word formation (qualitative as well as quantitative apophony)

V–N

(1.84) e-series

svēr-t – *svar-s*, *svir-a* ‘to weigh – weight, lever’
cel-t – *kal-n-s*, *cil-n-is* ‘to build – hill, small rise’
vel-t – *val-n-is*, *vil-n-is*, *vāl-s* ‘to roll – dam, wave, (fog) bank’
zel-t – *zāl-e* ‘to flourish – grass’
šķel-t – *skal-s*, *šķil-a* ‘to split – splinter, chip’

(1.85) i-series

mig-t – *mieg-s* ‘to fall asleep – sleep’
snig-t – *snieg-s* ‘to snow – snow’

(1.86) u-series

grau-t – *grav-a* ‘to erode, destroy – ravine’
krau-t – *krav-a* ‘to load – load’
jau-t – *jav-a* ‘to make dough – plaster’

V–ADJ

(1.87) e-series

zel-t – *zaļ-š*, *zil-s* ‘to flourish – green, blue’

(1.88) i-series

lip-t – *laip-n-s* ‘to stick to – friendly’
stīg-t – *staig-n-s* ‘to sink in – swampy’
mīg-t – *maig-s* ‘to fall asleep – gentle’

(1.89) u-series

juk-t – *jauk-s* ‘to become muddled – nice’

V–V

Intransitive verb – transitive verb

The only means for word formation is apophony:

(1.90) e-series

bir-t – *bēr-t* ‘to fall – to pour’
mīrk-t – *mērk-t* ‘to become wet – to soak’
šķil-t – *šķel-t* ‘to spark – to split’

(1.91) **i-series**

lī-t – lie-t ‘to flow – to pour’
līk-t – liek-t ‘to bend – to (cause to) bend’
šķīs-t – šķies-t ‘to dissolve – to squander’

(1.92) **u-series**

žū-t – žau-t ‘to dry – to (cause to) dry’
grū-t – grau-t ‘to collapse – to erode, destroy’
juk-t – jauk-t ‘to become muddled – to muddle’
ruk-t – rauk-t ‘to shrink, dwindle – to reduce meshes (when knitting)’

Non-causative verb – causative verb

The means for word formation are apophony and suffixation:

(1.93) **e-series**

dil-t – del-(d)-ē-t ‘to wear out – to wear out (through use)’

(1.94) **i-series**

dīg-t – diedz-ē-t ‘to sprout – to (cause to) sprout’
dzī-t – dzie-(d)-ē-t ‘to heal – to (cause to) heal, cure’

(1.95) **u-series**

kus-t – kaus-ē-t ‘to melt – to (cause to) melt’
pluk-t – plauc-ē-t ‘to hurt from scalding – to scald’

Semelfactive verb – iterative verb

The means for word-formation to express the contrast between non-frequentative and frequentative verbs are:

1) apophony and suffixation:

(1.96) **e-series**

nes-t – nēs-ā-t ‘to carry – to carry around’
vilk-t – valk-ā-t ‘to put on – to wear’

(1.97) **i-series**

steig-t – staig-ā-t ‘to rush – to walk’
klieg-t – klaig-ā-t ‘to shout – to clamor’

(1.98) **u-series**

žau-t – žāv-ē-t ‘to dry – to dry, smoke (e.g., fish)’
rau-t – rav-ē-t ‘to yank – to weed’

2) apophony, suffixation together with interfixation:

(1.99) **e-series**

vel-t – val-(st)-ī-t ‘to roll – to roll back and forth’
šķel-t – skal-(d)-ī-t ‘to split – to chop (e.g., firewood)’

(1.100) **i-series**

lie-t – lai-(st)-ī-t ‘to pour – to water (e.g., a garden)’
smie-t – smai-(d)-ī-t ‘to laugh – to smile’

ADJ-N

(1.101) e-series

smalk-s – smelk-n-e ‘fine – fine-textured material’

dzīl-š – dzīl-e, dzel-m-e ‘deep – depths, abyss’

In Latvian, apophony is only found in verb inflection. It does not occur in noun or adjective paradigms.

Verb forms

Qualitative as well as quantitative apophony are found in the tense forms of conjugation 1 verbs.

Qualitative apophony in present tense forms

INF – PRS

(1.102) e-series for a portion of conjugation 1 subclass 2 verbs

vīlk-t – vīlk-u ‘to pull – (I) pull’

krims-t – kremt-u ‘to gnaw – (I) gnaw’

pirk-t – pērk-u < **perk-u* ‘to buy – (I) buy’

cirs-t – cērt-u < **cert-u* ‘to chop – (I) chop’

(1.103) i-series

lik-t – liek-u ‘to put – (I) put’

stīg-t – stieg-u ‘to get stuck – (I) get stuck’

Quantitative apophony in past tense forms

INF – PST

(1.104) e-series

cel-t – cēl-ām ‘to build – (we) built’

dzer-t – dzēr-ām ‘to drink – (we) drank’

lem-t – lēm-ām ‘to decide – (we) decided’

šķir-t – šķir-ām ‘to separate – (we) separated’

vīl-t – vīl-ām ‘to deceive – (we) deceived’

(1.105) i-series

lie-t – lēj-ām ‘to pour – (we) poured’

smie-t – smēj-ām ‘to laugh – (we) laughed’

riet-t – rēj-ām ‘to bark – (we) barked’

(1.106) u-series

stum-t – stūm-ām ‘to push – (we) pushed’

krau-t – krāv-ām ‘to load – (we) loaded’

žau-t – žāv-ām ‘to dry – (we) dried’

1.2.2 Metaphony

Metaphony refers to progressive or regressive vowel assimilation within a word or word form (Skujiņa 2007: 230). In Latvian, metaphony can be seen in the umlaut which occurs for the vowels *e*, *ē* – an example of regressive vowel assimilation.

The quality – open [æ], [æ:] or close [e], [e:] – of *e*, *ē*, which is conditioned by their position, creates allomorphs because of word formation and inflection. Modern Latvian also has several exceptions for which position is no longer important; these are the so-called historical rules for the pronunciation of *e*, *ē*. These rules also reflect the connection between the pronunciation of *e*, *ē* and morphological paradigms. In general, it can be said that the quality of *e*, *ē* in Latvian depends on morphophonological principles – adjustments in the pronunciation of *e*, *ē* are conditioned by morpheme combination during word formation and inflection (Kalnača 2004: 85).

The pronunciation of *e*, *ē* in Latvian is associated with the following types of morpheme combination:

- 1) root + suffix;
- 2) root (also stem) + ending;
- 3) suffix + suffix;
- 4) suffix + ending;
- 5) root + root (also stem + stem).

In the case of metaphony, morphemes in Latvian have allomorphs containing morphophonemes (Kalnača 2004: 85):

- (1.107) a. {Æ}–{E} *meln-s* – *meln-is* ‘black – black horse’
b. {Æ:}–{E:} *lēn-s* – *lēn-īg-s* ‘slow – gentle’
c. {E}–{Æ} *cep-t* – *cep-um-s* ‘to bake – biscuit’
d. {E:}–{Æ:} *ēs-t* – *ēd-āj-s* ‘to eat – eater’

Word formation

Root + suffix

If the root of the base word contains [æ], [æ:], but the suffix contains a front vowel or diphthong, then the root allomorph contains [e], [e:]

- (1.108) a. *dēl-s* [dæ:ls] – *dēl-iņ-š* [de:liņš] ‘son – son (DIM)’
b. *veln-s* [vælns] – *veln-iņ-š* [velniņš] ‘devil – devil (DIM)’
c. *vēl-s* [væ:ls] – *vēl-iņ-s* [ve:li:ns] ‘late – belated’
d. *meln-s* [mælns] – *meln-ē-t* [melne:t] ‘black – to show black’
e. *lepn-s* [læpns] – *lepn-īg-s* [lepni:ks] ‘proud – arrogant’
f. *seg-a* [sægä] – *sedz-iņ-a* [sedziņä] ‘blanket – blanket (DIM)’

If the root of the base word contains [e], [e:], but the suffix contains a velar vowel or diphthong, then the root allomorph contains [æ], [æ:]

- (1.109) a. *teļ-š* [tæʎš] – *tel-ēn-s* [tælə:ns] / [telə:ns] ‘calf – calf (DIM)’
b. *pel-e* [pelě] – *pel-ēn-s* [pælə:ns] / [pelə:ns] ‘mouse – mouse (DIM)’
c. *cep-t* [tsept] – *cep-um-s* [cæpʊms] ‘to bake – biscuit’

- d. *ves-t* [vest] – *ved-um-s* [vædums] ‘to transport – transportation’
- e. *dzer-t* [dʒert] – *dzēr-āj-s* [dʒæ:ra:js] ‘to drink – drunkard’
- f. *ņem-t* [nemt] – *ņēm-āj-s* [næ:ma:js] ‘to take – taker, holder’
- g. *brēk-t* [bre:kt] – *brēk-ā-t* [bræ:ka:t] ‘to cry – to clamor repeatedly’
- h. *lēk-t* [le:kt] – *lēk-ā-t* [læ:ka:t] ‘to jump – to jump about’
- i. *redz-ē-t* [redʒe:t] – *redz-okl-is* [rædʒuoklɪs] ‘to see – pupil (of the eye)’

As noted by Laua (1997: 124), in Standard Latvian two different pronunciations are possible for *e*, *ē* – [e], [e:] or [æ], [æ:] – in forms derived with the suffixes *-ain-*, *-āj-*, *-ēn-*, see examples (1.109a-b).

Root (i.e., stem) + ending

If the root/stem of the base word contains [æ], [æ:], but the ending of the derived form contains a front vowel (i.e., the endings *-is*, *-e*), then the root allomorph contains [e], [e:]

- (1.110) *vec-s* [vætss] – *vec-is* [vets:ɪs] ‘old – old man’
- meln-s* [mælns] – *meln-is* [melnɪs] ‘black – black horse’

If the root/stem of the base word contains [e], [e:], but the ending of the derived form is *-s* < **-as*, *-a*, then the root allomorph contains [æ], [æ:]

- (1.111) *brēk-t* [bre:kt] – *brēk-a* [bræ:kă] ‘to cry – clamor’
- ie-tec-ē-t* [ietetse:t] – *ie-tek-a* [ietækă] ‘to flow into – mouth of a river’
- redz-ē-t* [redʒe:t] – *rēg-s* [ræ:ks] ‘to see – phantom’

Suffix + suffix

If the suffix of the base word contains [e], [e:], but the suffix of the derived form contains a velar vowel or diphthong, then the allomorph of the suffix of the base word contains [æ], [æ:]

- (1.112) *brūkl-en-e* [bru:kleně] – *brūkl-en-āj-s* [bru:klæna:js]/[bru:klɛna:js]
‘lingonberry – lingonberry bush’
- mell-en-e* [mel:eně] – *mell-en-āj-s* [mæl:æna:js]/[mel:ɛna:js] ‘bilberry – bilberry bush’
- kum-el-š* [kumeɻʃ] – *kum-el-ēn-s* [kumælæ:ns]/[kumelæ:ns] ‘colt – young colt’

If the suffix of the base word contains [æ], [æ:], but the subsequent suffix contains a palatal vowel or diphthong, then the allomorph of the suffix of the base word contains [e], [e:]

- (1.113) *putn-ēn-s* [putnæ:ns] – *putn-ēn-īn-š* [putne:nɪnʃ] ‘fledgling – fledgling (DIM)’
- veln-ēn-s* [vælnæ:ns]/[velnæ:ns] – *veln-ēn-īn-š* [velne:nɪnʃ] ‘imp – imp (DIM)’
- slep-en-s* [slæp:æns] – *slep-en-īb-a* [slep:eni:bă] ‘secret – secrecy’
- var-en-s* [varæns] – *var-en-īb-a* [vareni:bă] ‘mighty – might’

Suffix + ending

The form that allomorphs of nominal suffixes take in Latvian depends on the subsequent ending, for example, the variants of the suffix *-en-* [æɲ] and [ɛɲ], i.e., *-en-* + *-s* < **-as*, *-a* and *-en-* + *-is*, *-e*:

(1.114) adjectives

var-en-s [varæɲs] ‘mighty’

gar-en-a [garæɲä] ‘longish’

(1.115) nouns

tīt-en-is [ti:tenis] ‘twining plant’

lāc-en-e [la:tseně] ‘cloudberry’

Exceptions include the declension 2 nouns *akm-en-s* ‘stone’, *asm-en-s* ‘blade’, *rud-en-s* ‘autumn’, *mēn-es-s* ‘moon’, *zib-en-s* ‘lightning’, *ūd-en-s* ‘water’, the suffixes of which contain [ɛ], as earlier the nominative ending may have been **-is* following the example of declension 6, and the genitive **-es* [ɛs] < **-ēs* [ɛ:s] (Endzelins 1981: 429–430).

Inflection

Root (i.e., stem) + ending

Nouns

The pronunciation of *e*, *ē* also distinguishes declensions 1 and 6. The difference in the pronunciation of *e*, *ē* occurs in the nominative singular: [æ], [æ:] for declension 1 nouns, [ɛ], [ɛ:] for declension 6 nouns, these pronunciations are maintained across the entire paradigm. Earlier, each declension had a unique nominative ending whose vowel also determined the pronunciation of *e*, *ē* in the root: *-s* < **-as* for declension 1, *-s* < **-is* for declension 6. The difference in the pronunciation of *e*, *ē* is the only formal characteristic distinguishing these declensions, as otherwise the nominative is pronounced the same for both declensions, though every group of roots does have its own unique system of endings in the rest of the paradigm.

The quality (open or close) of *e*, *ē* in suffixes is also a distinctive feature distinguishing declension 1 and 2:

(1.116) **declension 1** (NOM *-s* < **-as*)

zob-en-s [zuobæɲs] ‘sword’

spilv-en-s [spilvæɲs] ‘pillow’

dib-en-s [dibæɲs] ‘backside, posterior’

(1.117) **declension 2** (NOM *-s* < **-is*, GEN *-s* < **-es* < **-ēs*, i.e., [ɛ:s])

ūd-en-s [u:ɛɲs] ‘water’

rud-en-s [ruɛɲs] ‘autumn’

zib-en-s [ziɛɲs] ‘lightning’

Some declension 6 nouns containing an open *e*, *ē* in the root (i.e., stem) have a marked plural genitive, which differs from the rest of the paradigm and contains a close *e*, *ē* (e.g., Laua 1997: 122–123; Markus 2013: 128):

(1.118)¹ *Cēs-is* [tse:sīs] – *Cēs-u* [tsæ:sũ] ‘Cēsis (city in Latvia) – Cēsis GEN PL’
debes-is [debesīs] – *debes-u* [dæbæ:sũ] ‘sky – sky GEN PL’

In Standard Latvian, the following pronunciations are also possible for the plural genitive forms of these words: [tse:sũ], [debesũ] (Laua *ibid.*; Markus *ibid.*).

Metaphony in **verbs** has the following functions:

- 1) distinguishing present and past tense stems for conjugation 1 subclass 1 verbs – open *e* has been generalized for the present tense, close *e* for the past tense (Table 1.12):

(1.119) *nes-t* ‘to carry’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>nes-u</i> [næs:ũ]	<i>nes-am</i> [næs'am]
2	<i>nes</i> [næs]	<i>nes-at</i> [næs'ăt]
3	<i>nes</i> [næs]	
	PST	
	SG	PL
1	<i>nes-u</i> [næs:ũ]	<i>nes-ām</i> [nesa:m]
2	<i>nes-i</i> [næs:i]	<i>nes-āt</i> [nesa:t]
3	<i>nes-a</i> [næs:ä]	

Table 1.12 The present and past tense forms of the verb *nest* ‘to carry’

- 2) marking the second person singular present tense form for conjugation 1 subclass 1 verbs such as *nest* ‘to carry’, *vest* ‘to transport’, *mest* ‘to throw’, *ēst* ‘to eat’, and others; open *e* is used across the entire paradigm with the exception of the second person singular form (see Table 1.12); much the same is the case for conjugation 3 subclass 2 verbs such as *cerēt* ‘to hope’, *derēt* ‘to fit’, *peldēt* ‘to swim’, *vēlēt* ‘to wish’, *pētīt* ‘to study’, *mērīt* ‘to measure’, and so on (Table 1.13):

(1.120) *cer-ē-t* ‘to hope’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>cer-u</i> [tsærũ]	<i>cer-am</i> [tsæram]
2	<i>cer-i</i> [tserĩ]	<i>cer-at</i> [tsærăt]
3	<i>cer</i> [tsær]	

Table 1.13 The present tense forms of the verb *cerēt* ‘to hope’

¹ *Cēsis* and *debesis* are pluralia tantum nouns in Latvian. Therefore, the only genitive form used for these nouns is the plural form.

- 3) marking the second person plural imperative mood form with close *e*, *ē* in conjugation 1 and 3 verbs distinguishing these from the second person plural indicative mood forms containing open *e*, *ē*:

(1.121) INF – IND 2PL – IMP 2PL

- a. *nes-t* ‘to carry’ – *nes-at* [næs:ăt] – *nes-iet* [nesiet]
- b. *redz-ē-t* ‘to see’ – *redz-at* [ræɖzăt] – *redz-iet* [ræɖziet]
- c. *pēt-ī-t* ‘to study’ – *pēt-āt* [pæ:ta:t] – *pēt-iet* [pe:tiet]

- 4) distinguishing the conditional mood with open *e*, *ē* in the root (i.e., stem) for verbs in all conjugations in contrast to the close *e*, *ē* in the infinitive, though both conditional mood forms are derived from the infinitive root:

(1.122) INF – COND

- a. *nes-t* ‘to carry’ [nest] – *nes-tu* [næstũ]
- b. *bēr-t* ‘to pour’ [be:rt] – *bēr-tu* [bæ:rtũ]
- c. *redz-ē-t* ‘to see’ [ræɖze:t] – *redz-ē-tu* [ræɖzæ:tũ]
- d. *mīl-ē-t* ‘to love’ [mi:le:t] – *mīl-ē-tu* [mi:læ:tũ]

ANDRA KALNAČA

2. MORPHOLOGY

2.0 Introductory remarks

The chapter on Morphology consists of eleven sections: Introductory remarks with subsections on morphemics, principles of word formation, inflection and word class (part-of-speech) classification, are followed by ten individual sections on word classes (one for each word class). Each opens with a definition of the word class followed by an overview of typical syntactic functions, semantics and, where possible, a summary of the main models of word formation. Sections dealing with declinable (inflected) word classes (nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, and verbs) also contain detailed descriptions of grammatical categories and grammatical forms.

In this grammar, the term ‘grammatical (i.e., morphological) category’ refers to a system of grammatical elements mutually contrasted in terms of one and the same feature and expressed by similar means (see Paulauskienė 1994: 24; Ambrazas 1997: 91). The term ‘grammatical (i.e., morphological) paradigm’ refers to a set of grammatical forms used to express certain grammatical meanings (Matthews 1997: 263; Skujiņa 2007: 241; Trask 2007: 202–203).

2.0.1 Morphemics

A morpheme is the smallest segmentable meaningful unit of a language (Kalnača 2004: 9; 2013a: 45, see also Haspelmath, Sims 2010: 14; Aronoff, Fudeman 2011: 2). Morphemes cannot be further divided into parts without loss of meaning; other than that, they function as syntactic objects or units (Embick 2015: 1) in the language system, combining with other morphemes in the processes of inflection and word formation. Morphemes are traditionally classified into lexical morphemes, i.e., roots, and grammatical morphemes, i.e., affixes.

Latvian has both monomorphemic (2.0.1) and polymorphemic (2.0.2) words and word forms.

- (2.0.1) a. *te* ‘here’, *uz* ‘to’, *tikai* ‘just’, *bet* ‘but’
 b. *māt!* ‘mother!’ (VOC SG F), *tēv!* ‘father!’ (VOC SG M), *nāc* ‘come’ (PRS 2SG), *dzied* ‘sings / sing’ (PRS 3)
- (2.0.2) a. *saul-e* ‘sun’, *dien-iņ-a* ‘day’, *at-nāk-t* ‘to come’, *māj-dzīv-niek-s* ‘house pet’
 b. *up-ē* ‘river’ (LOC SG F), *liel-āk-s* ‘larger’ (CMP NOM SG M), *dzied-ā-š-u* ‘will sing’ (FUT 1 SG), *iz-las-ī-j-us-i* ‘read’ (PTCP PST ACT NOM SG F)

Depending on their position relative to the root and other morphemes, affixes are divided into subcategories:

- 1) **prefixes** are affixes attached before a root
- (2.0.3) *ie-zaļ-š* ‘slightly green’, *uz-kāp-t* ‘to climb’
- 2) **postfixes** are affixes placed after a root;
 - 3) **interfixes** are affixes occurring either between two roots or between a root and a suffix, i.e., in between two morphemes; unlike other affixes, interfixes do not have semantic value and are only used as linking elements (see, for example, Soida 1970; Matthews 1997: 182; Spencer 2001: 226–227; Kalnača 2004: 20–23), e.g., internal inflection in compounds (2.0.4a), elements preventing unpronounceable sound clusters in verbal derivation (2.0.4b) and inflection (2.0.4c) (see Section 1.1.4).
- (2.0.4) a. *liel-(s)-kung-s* ‘lord’
liet-(us)-sarg-s ‘umbrella’
galv-(as)-seg-a ‘headgear’
 b. *kau-t* ‘to slaughter’ – *kau-(st)-ī-t* ‘to hit a few times’
lī-t ‘to rain’ – *lī-(ņ)-ā-t* ‘to drizzle (of rain)’
mī-t ‘to tread’ – *mī-(d)-ī-t* ‘to stamp, trample’
 c. *grauz-t* ‘to nibble’ – *grauz-(ī)-š-u* (FUT 1SG)
plēs-t ‘to rip, tear’ – *plēs-(ī)-š-u* (FUT 1SG)

Latvian has two kinds of postfixes:

- 1) **suffixes**, occurring after a root, sometimes in sequences
- (2.0.5) a. *gar-en-s* ‘elongated’
kur-tuv-e ‘furnace’
og-ul-āj-s ‘berry bush, berry field’
 b. *lab-āk-s* ‘better’
sie-š-u ‘will tie’ (FUT 1SG)
cel-t-s ‘built’ (PTCP PST PASS NOM SG M)
- 2) **endings** – word-final affixes, occurring after a root or other suffixes
- (2.0.6) a. *dien-a* ‘day’
nam-s ‘house’
klep-us ‘cough’
pried-īt-e ‘little pine tree’

- b. *up-ē* ‘river’ (LOC SG)
aug-at ‘grow’ (PRS 2PL)
pār-skat-ī-j-uš-ies ‘watched/ seen too many/much of smth / made
a mistake’ (PTCP PST ACT NOM PL M)

In Latvian morphology, a word (2.0.7a) or a word form (2.0.7b) minus the ending is called a **stem**:

- (2.0.7) a. *dien-a* ‘day’
vērt-īg-s ‘valuable’
ie-zil-gan-s ‘slightly bluish, with a bluish tint’
- b. *lab-ajam* ‘good’ (ADJ DEF DAT SG M)
gudr-āk-s ‘cleverer’
pār-baud-ī-s-im ‘will check’ (FUT 1PL)

Depending on the morphemic composition of a word (2.0.8a) or a word form (2.0.8b), stems may be

- 1) simple – identical to the root
- (2.0.8) a. *saul-e* ‘sun’
zaļ-š ‘green’
aug-t ‘to grow’
 - b. *nam-ā* ‘house’ (LOC SG)
lab-ajai ‘good’ (ADJ DEF DAT SG F)
nāk-am ‘come’ (PRS 1PL)
- 2) derivative – comprising a root and any number of inflectional or derivational affixes other than endings
- (2.0.9) a. *aiz-kar-s* ‘curtain’
mier-īg-s ‘calm’
pa-dzied-ā-t ‘to sing a little’
 - b. *lab-āk-s* ‘better’
vis-lab-āk-ais ‘best’
pār-dom-ā-š-u ‘will think it over, will change my mind’ (FUT 1SG)
- 3) compound – in words (2.0.10a) or word forms (2.0.10b) containing at least two roots
- (2.0.10) a. *dien-nakt-s* ‘twenty-four-hour period’
ait-kop-is ‘sheep-farmer’
zil-zaļ-š ‘blue-green’
 - b. *jān-og-ās* ‘currants’ (LOC PL)
mier-piln-ajai ‘peaceful’ (ADJ DEF DAT SG F)
zaļ-gan-pel-ēk-ajā ‘greenish grey’ (ADJ DEF LOC SG)

In addition, Latvian also has **circumfixes** – affixes made up of two separate parts enclosing the root without affecting its integrity (see, e.g., Malkiel 1978: 145; Kalnača 2004: 23–25; Aronoff, Fudeman 2011: 3–4; Bauer 2017: 127). The first part of

a circumfix usually attaches before the root or stem of a word, while the second part is placed at the end of a word or word form. Both elements act together to realize a certain grammatical or lexical meaning neither can have in isolation. For example, circumfixes consisting of a prefix and a reflexive ending are used to derive verbs referring to sudden, unexpected actions (2.0.11a) or actions done to excess (2.0.11b) (see Section 2.5.10):

- (2.0.11) a. *sāp-ē-t – ie-sāp-ē-ties* ‘to ache – to ache suddenly and briefly’
 klieg-t – ie-klieg-ties ‘to scream – to cry out’
 niez-ē-t – ie-niez-ē-ties ‘to itch – to begin to itch’
 b. *ēs-t – pār-ēs-ties* ‘to eat – to overeat’
 bris-t – no-bris-ties ‘to wander – to wander to exhaustion’
 gul-ē-t – aiz-gul-ē-ties ‘to sleep – to oversleep’

Circumfixes also occur in noun derivation where they are made up of a prefix and a declension-altering ending (Kalnača 2004: 23–25; see also Section 2.1.5 on preposition and noun compounding).

- (2.0.12) a. *gald-s – pa-gald-e* ‘table – space under a table’
 b. *durv-is – aiz-durv-e* ‘door – space behind a door’
 c. *vakar-s – no-vakar-e* ‘evening – late afternoon’
 d. *krast-s – pie-krast-e* ‘coast – coastal area’

Inflectional circumfixes are used in constructing the superlative forms of adjectives (Kalnača 2004: 25). In Latvian, adjective gradation is sequential (see Section 2.2.2 for details) – the comparative degree is formed by attaching the suffix *-āk-* to the positive stem, while the superlative degree is derived by adding the prefix *vis-* and the definite ending, i.e., a circumfix, to the comparative stem:

- (2.0.13) *ātr-s – ātr-āk-s – vis-ātr-āk-ais* ‘quick – quicker – quickest’

Finally, Latvian has inflectional **zero-morphs** – missing elements in inflectional paradigms or, in other words, missing overt markers of certain grammatical forms (Matthews 1997: 409). Depending on the type of inflectional elements that are missing, these are:

- 1) zero-endings – the most common type of zero-morphs in Latvian, occurring, e.g., in the present-tense second-person singular (2.0.14a) and third-person singular and plural (2.0.14b) of verbs (see Sections 2.5.1, 2.5.3 on the present-tense forms of verbs), as well as in the vocative case form of declension 1, 4, and 5 nouns (2.0.14c) (see Section 2.1.1 on the vocative case forms of nouns)
- (2.0.14) a. PRS 2SG *sit-∅* ‘hit’, *ar-∅* ‘plough’, *lej-∅* ‘pour’
 b. PRS 3 *sit-∅* ‘hits / hit’, *ar-∅* ‘ploughs / plough’, *lej-∅* ‘pours / pour’
 c. VOC SG *tēv-∅!* ‘father!’, *mās-∅!* ‘sister!’, *māt-∅!* ‘mother!’
- 2) zero-suffixes; e.g., in the second-person singular and third-person singular and plural of conjugation 2 verbs where the present-tense

marking suffix *-j-* and the ending *-i* (PRS 2SG) and *-a* (PRS 3) are substituted by zero-morphs

- (2.0.15) a. PRS 2SG *dej-o-∅-∅* ‘dance’
b. PRS 3 *dej-o-∅-∅* ‘dances / dance’

Another useful distinction is based on the functions of affixes in the language system:

1) derivational affixes are used to derive new words

- (2.0.16) a. prefixes
vec-s – ***pa-****vec-s* ‘old – oldish’
lī-t – ***sa-****lī-t* ‘to rain – to get wet in the rain’
b. suffixes
nes-t – *nes-****ēj-****s* ‘to carry – carrier’
zil-s– *zil-****gan-****s* ‘blue – bluish’
brauk-t – *brauk-****ā-****t* ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive – to go (in a vehicle), drive continuously, regularly; to drive around’
c. endings
aug-t – *aug-****s*** ‘to grow – plant (N)’
rag-s – *radz-****e*** ‘horn – spike’
meln-s – *meln-****is*** ‘black – black horse’

2) inflectional affixes are used for grammatical forms of existing lexemes

- (2.0.17) a. endings
māj-a ‘house’ – *māj-****ai*** (DAT SG), *māj-****ā*** (LOC SG), *māj-****ām*** (DAT PL)
b. suffixes
lab-s – *lab-****āk-****s* ‘good – better’
skrie-t – *skrie-****n-****u* ‘to run – (I) run’
nāk-t ‘to come’ – *nāk-****dam-****s* (semi-declinable PTCP NOM SG M)
c. prefixes
lab-s – *lab-****āk-****s* – ***vis-****lab-****āk-****ais* ‘good – better – best’

Both root and affix morphemes can have allomorphs – phonetically or structurally conditioned variants of morphemes (see Section 1.0.1 for a detailed discussion).

2.0.2 Word formation

Word formation is a process whereby new words are formed from existing words and stems, using the means, methods, and models of word formation available in a language (see, e.g., Skujiņa 2007: 429; Veisbergs 2013: 5).

The principal means of word formation in Latvian are affixes – prefixes, suffixes, and endings (2.0.18). In some cases, affixation is accompanied by apophony (2.0.19) (see also Section 1.2.1).

- (2.0.18) a. *sārt-s* – ***ie-****sārt-s* ‘rosy – slightly rosy’
ie-t – ***ie-****ie-t* ‘to go – to go in’

- b. *nam-s* – *nam-iņ-š* ‘house – house (DIM)’
aug-t – *audz-ē-t* ‘to grow (no object) – to grow (transitive)’ cultivate’
skrie-t – *skrie-šan-a* ‘to run – running (action noun)’
- c. *tums-t* – *tums-a* ‘to grow dark – darkness’
skāb-t – *skāb-e* ‘to turn sour – acid’

(2.0.19) *vēr-t* – *vār-t-i* ‘to open – gate’
klieg-t – *klaig-ā-t* ‘to shout – to clamor’
dzīl-š – *dzēl-m-e* ‘deep – abyss’

Syntactic relations between words in sentences play an important role in compounding and conversion.

- (2.0.20) a. *lietus sargs* – *lietussargs* ‘rain guard – umbrella’
b. *dzeramais ūdens* – *dzeramais* ‘drinking water – something to drink, a drink’

The methods and means of word formation are interdependent. There are three methods of word formation in Latvian (Skujiņa 2007: 432–433; Kalnača 2013a: 47–49):

- 1) morphological;
- 2) syntactic;
- 3) semantic.

Morphological descriptions of Latvian traditionally focus on the morphological and syntactic methods of word formation, as both are extensively represented in the language. The semantic method, which involves adding new meanings (polysemy) and contexts of usage to existing words (Skujiņa 2007: 350), is, as a rule, excluded from grammatical descriptions; the same approach is adopted here (but see, e.g., Veisbergs 2013: 70–94).

The **morphological method** of word formation, which includes affixation, sometimes occurring simultaneously with apophony (see examples (2.0.19)), and clipping, is prevalent in Latvian.

As a rule, **prefixation** does not change the word class (part of speech) of the base word:

- (2.0.21) a. ADJ – ADJ (see Table 2.14)
zem-s – *pa-zem-s* ‘low – fairly low’
zaļ-š – *ie-zaļ-š* ‘green – slightly green’
piln-s – *pār-piln-s* ‘full – overfilled’
- b. V – V (see Table 2.66)
nāk-t – *at-nāk-t* ‘to come – to come (perfective)’
dzied-ā-t – *no-dzied-ā-t* ‘to sing – to sing (perfective)’
las-ī-t – *pār-las-ī-t* ‘to read – to re-read’

Suffixation, on the other hand, may be equally well used to derive words of the same or a different word class (see Tables 2.6, 2.13, 2.65):

1) non-word-class-changing suffixation

(2.0.22) a. N – N

up-e – *up-īt-e* ‘river – small river’

kaķ-is – *kaķ-ēn-s* ‘cat – kitten’

pried-e – *pried-āj-s* ‘pine tree – pine forest, pine grove’

b. ADJ – ADJ

maz-s – *maz-iņ-š* ‘small, little – tiny’

sald-s – *sald-en-s* ‘sweet – sweetish’

agr-s – *agr-iņ-s* ‘early – early (also, ahead of the usual time), ripened early’

c. V – V

brauk-t – *brauk-ā-t* ‘to go (in a vehicle), drive – to go (in a vehicle), drive continuously, regularly; to drive around’

stiep-t – *staiņ-ī-t* ‘to drag, stretch – to drag, stretch continuously’

žau-t – *žāv-ē-t* ‘to hang out (to dry) – to dry; to cure, smoke’

aug-t – *audz-iņā-t* ‘to grow (no object) – to bring up, to raise’

2) word-class-changing suffixation

(2.0.23) a. N – V

klep-us – *klep-o-t* ‘cough – to cough’

dom-a – *dom-ā-t* ‘thought – to think’

zvan-s – *zvan-ī-t* ‘bell, bell-ringing – to ring’

b. N – ADJ

māj-a – *māj-īg-s* ‘house, home – homey’

māt-e – *māt-išķ-s* ‘mother – motherly’

saul-e – *saul-aiņ-s* ‘sun – sunny’

c. ADJ – V

tīr-s – *tīr-ī-t* ‘clean – to clean’

ciet-s – *ciet-ē-t* ‘hard, solid – to harden, solidify’

zaļ-š – *zaļ-o-t* ‘green – to grow (of green plants), to flourish’

d. ADJ – N

lab-s – *lab-um-s* ‘good – goodness, benefit’

tīr-s – *tīr-īb-a* ‘clean – cleanliness’

maz-s – *maz-ul-is* ‘small, little – baby’

e. V – N

brauk-t – *brauk-šan-a* ‘to go, drive – going, driving (action noun)’

sauk-t – *sauk-ien-s* ‘to call – call’

zag-t – *zag-l-is* ‘to thief, steal – thief’

f. V – ADJ

sal-t – *sal-īg-s* ‘to feel cold – sensitive to cold’

main-ī-t – *main-īg-s* ‘to change – changing, variable’

run-ā-t – *run-īg-s* ‘to talk – talkative’

The same is true of derivation by means of **endings** (see Table 2.7):

1) derivatives are of the same word class as the base word

(2.0.24) N – N

sargs – *sardz-e* ‘guard, guardsman – guard (a body of soldiers, guards)’

draug-s – *draudz-e* ‘friend – congregation’

rag-s – *radz-e* ‘horn – spike’

2) derivatives are of a different word class

(2.0.25) V – N

teik-t – *teik-a* ‘to tell – tale, legend’

tērp-t – *tērp-s* ‘to clothe – clothes’

gais-t – *gais-s* ‘to evaporate, dwindle – air’

ADJ – N

ciet-s – *ciet-e* ‘hard, solid – starch’

skumj-š – *skumj-as* ‘sad – sadness’

tāl-s – *tāl-e* ‘distant – distance’

As far as word formation is concerned, **sound alternation** in contemporary Latvian is almost always linked to affixation, namely, derivational uses of suffixes and endings, e.g., apophony (see Section 1.2.1):

(2.0.26) *stiept-t* – *staipt-i-t* ‘to drag, stretch – to drag, stretch continuously’

ves-t – *vad-ā-t* ‘to carry smth / smb somewhere – to carry, drive smth / smb around’

vēr-t – *vār-t-i* ‘to open – gate’

mig-t – *mieg-s* ‘to fall asleep – sleep’

dzer-t – *dzir-a* ‘to drink – beverage, alcohol’

Some conjugation 1 verbs containing no means of word formation other than apophony are a notable exception, e.g.:

(2.0.27) **INTRANS verb – TRANS verb**

bir-t – *bēr-t* ‘to pour (of dry substances) (no object) – to pour smth’

mirk-t – *mērk-t* ‘to soak (no object) – to soak smth’

lī-t – *lie-t* ‘to flow, to pour (of liquids) (no object) – to pour smth’

lik-t – *liek-t* ‘to bend (no object) – to bend smth’

lūz-t – *lauz-t* ‘to break (no object) – to break smth’

juk-t – *jauk-t* ‘to get mixed up – to mix smth’

Consonant alternation in derivatives is, in many cases, triggered by the combination of morphemes in the process of word formation (see Sections 1.1.1 and 1.1.2 for a detailed discussion), e.g.:

(2.0.28) *rok-a* – *roc-īn-a*, *roķ-el-e* ‘hand, arm – hand, arm (DIM)’

Sometimes, however, consonant alternation is part of the base, e.g., palatalization in the GEN PL form of some nouns (see Table 2.13):

(2.0.29) N – ADJ

smilt-s – *smilš-u* (GEN PL) – *smilš-ain-s* ‘sand – sandy’

akmen-s – *akmeņ-u* (GEN PL) – *akmeņ-ain-s* ‘stone – stony’

Word formation usually proceeds by adding one affix (other than an ending) to the base at a time.

- (2.0.30) *skrie-t* – *aiz-skrie-t* ‘to run – to run (perfective)’
griez-t – *griez-n-es* ‘to cut – scissors’
klieg-t – *klieg-šan-a* ‘to scream – screaming (action noun)’

There are three kinds of bases (or derivational stems):

1) simple

- (2.0.31) *māj-a* – *māj-īg-s* ‘house, home – homey’
aukl-e – *aukl-ē-t* ‘nanny – to take care of a small child’
zaļ-š – *ie-zaļ-š* ‘green – slightly green’

2) derivative

- (2.0.32) *māj-īg-s* – *māj-īg-um-s* ‘homey – hominess’
aukl-ē-t – *aukl-ē-šan-a* ‘to take care of a small child – taking care of a small child (action noun)’
zaļ-gan-s – *ie-zaļ-gan-s* ‘greenish – slightly greenish’

3) compound

- (2.0.33) *pil-sēt-a* – *pil-sēt-īn-a* ‘city, town – a small town (DIM)’
div-stāv-u – *div-stāv-īg-s* ‘two-storey (GEN) – two-storey (ADJ)’
caur-skat-ī-t – *caur-skat-ī-šan-a* ‘to peruse – perusal (action noun)’

Adding multiple affixes at a time, e.g., a derivational prefix and a suffix, is comparatively rare, though possible (see Table 2.67):

- (2.0.34) *akmen-s* – *pār-akmeņ-o-ties* ‘stone – to turn into stone, to fossilize’
kaul-s – *at-kaul-o-t* ‘bone – to debone’
sav-s – *pie-sav-inā-ties* ‘own – to appropriate, misappropriate’

Finally, morphological word formation in Latvian also includes clipping, i.e., creating derivatives by shortening existing words. Backslipping is used in regular word-formation models (e.g., Veisbergs 2013: 24–25; also see *back-formation* Aronoff, Fudeman 2011: 122–123). For example, certain types of nouns are derived from conjugation 2 and 3 verbs by removing the infinitive suffix and attaching a derivational ending directly to the verbal root:

(2.0.35) V – N

- ap-kalp-o-t* – *ap-kalp-e* ‘to attend, to serve – crew’
at-las-ī-t – *at-las-e* ‘to select – selection’
ie-tec-ē-t – *ie-tek-a* ‘to flow into (of a river) – mouth (of a river)’
iz-klaid-ē-t ‘to entertain’ – *iz-klaid-e* ‘entertainment’
no-run-ā-t – *no-run-a* ‘to arrange, make an appointment – arrangement, appointment’
pār-zin-ā-t – *pār-zin-is* ‘to manage, oversee – manager’
pie-gād-ā-t – *pie-gād-e* ‘to supply – supply’
sa-slauc-ī-t – *sa-slauc-as* ‘to sweep up, to wipe up – sweepings’
uz-lād-ē-t – *uz-lād-e* ‘to charge – charging’

The **syntactic method** of word formation is based on syntactic relations between words in phrases, coordinate structures, and sentences (Skujiņa 2007: 358). Syntactic relations are of direct relevance to word formation in two cases:

- 1) compounding;
- 2) conversion.

A **compound** is a word formed by joining two or more words or stems together that functions as a single lexical unit (Matthews 1997: 66; Skujiņa 2007: 338; Aronoff, Fudeman 2011: 261; for other opinions see, e.g., Lieber, Štekauer 2009; Veisbergs 2013: 30–31). In Latvian, compounds are usually written as one word and pronounced with stress on the first syllable. Compounds are found in all word classes.

- (2.0.36) a. N
up-mala ‘riverside’
b. ADJ
zil-zaļš ‘blue-green’
c. ADV
šo-dien ‘today’
d. NUM
div-desmit ‘twenty’
e. PRON
jeb-kas ‘anything’
f. V
caur-skatīt ‘to peruse, to look through’
g. PTCL
tā-tad ‘so, then’
h. CONJ
ne-vis ‘not, rather than’
i. PREP
augš-pus ‘atop, above’
j. INT
lab-dien! ‘good afternoon!’

In Latvian, all compounds based on content (lexical) words originate from phrases (such as noun phrases, verb phrases, etc.) or coordinate structures. It is, therefore, more accurate to say that they are formed by adjoining word forms rather than words. Spaced combinations of words are not recognized as compounds even if they express a single concept (see, e.g., Veisbergs 2013: 31–35).

- (2.0.37) a. PRON
dažs labs ‘some, a certain party’
viens otrs ‘some, one or the other person/thing’
kaut kāds ‘some kind of’
b. NUM
simt divi ‘one hundred two’
piecdesmit astoņi ‘fifty-eight’

- c. ADV
krustu šķērsu ‘crisscross, in all directions’
šurp turp ‘back and forth’
- d. PTCL
it kā ‘as if, as though, seemingly’
tā kā ‘as it were’
- e. INT
blīkš blāķš ‘bang’
čiv čiv ‘chirp’
aijā žūžū ‘rock-a-bye’

Depending on the underlying syntactic structure, Latvian compounds are divided into two classes: determinative and copulative compounds.

Determinative compounds are based on phrases (Skujiņa 2007: 86, see also Matthews 1997: 95), mostly, nominal, adjectival (2.0.38)-(2.0.40) or verbal (2.0.41) (see also Tables 2.9, 2.15, and Section 2.6.3), e.g.:

- (2.0.38) a. $N_{\text{GEN}} + N - N$
tējas kannā – tēj-kann-a ‘a pot of tea – teapot’
- b. $N_{\text{INS}} + N_{\text{INS}} - N$
melniem matiēm – meln-mat-is (M), *-e* (F) ‘with black hair – a dark-haired person’
- c. $ADJ + N - N$
liels ceļš – liel-ceļš ‘large way – motorway’
- (2.0.39) a. $N_{\text{GEN}} + ADJ - ADJ$
aveņu sarkans – aveņ-sarkan-s ‘the red of raspberries – raspberry-red’
- b. $ADV + ADJ - ADJ$
zaļgani brūns – zaļgan-brūn-s ‘greenish brown – greenish-brown’
- (2.0.40) a. $ADJ + N - ADV$
galveno kārtu – galveno-kārt ‘the main way – mainly’
- b. $PRON + N - ADV$
šo dienu – šo-dien ‘this day – today’
- c. $PTCP + N - ADV$
nākošo gadu – nākoš-gad ‘next year – next year’
- (2.0.41) a. $V + N_{\text{ACC}} - N$ (according to modern Latvian word order)
kalt zeltu – zelt-kal-is ‘to smith gold – goldsmith’
- b. $N + V_{\text{INF}} - N$
prieks lasīt – lasīt-priek-s ‘pleasure to read – reading pleasure’

In Latvian, determinative compounds are usually right-headed regardless of the headedness of the source phrase, e.g.:

- (2.0.42) source phrase – right-headed, compound – right-headed
- a. $N_{\text{GEN}} + N - N$
jūras mala – jūr-mal-a ‘sea side – seaside’

- b. $N_{INS} + N_{INS} - N$
sirmu galvu – **sirm-galv-is** (M), -e (F) ‘with white hair – a white-haired (elderly) person’
- c. $ADJ + N - N$
liels ceļš – **liel-ceļ-š** ‘large way – motorway’
- d. $NUM + N - N$
pieci gadi – **piec-gad-e** ‘five years – five-year period’

(2.0.43) source phrase – left-headed, compound – right-headed (according to modern Latvian word order)

- a. $V + N_{ACC} / ADJ_{ACC} - N$
kalt akmeņus – **akmeņ-kal-is** ‘to cut stones – stonecutter’
- b. $V + ADV - V$
skatīt cauri – **caur-skatī-t** ‘to look through – to look through, to peruse’
- c. $N + V_{INF} - N$
griba dziedāt – **dziedāt-griba** ‘will to sing – will to sing’
- d. $NUM + N_{GEN} - N$
simt gadu – **gad-simt-s** ‘hundred years – century’

Left-headed determinative compounds are possible, but scarce. Some of them probably originate from partitive noun phrases where a head noun specifying quantity (a share, part of a whole) is followed by a noun in the genitive case naming the object to which it applies (see Table 2.9):

- (2.0.44) $N + N_{GEN}$
puse dienas – **pus-dien-a** ‘half of a day – noon’
puse mājas – **pus-māj-a** ‘half of a house – half a house’
puse gada – **pus-gad-s** ‘half of a year – half a year, half-year’
desmit gadu – **desmit-gad-e** ‘ten years – decade’
simt gadu – **simt-gad-e** ‘hundred years – century’
tūkstoš gadu – **tūkstoš-gad-e** ‘thousand years – millennium’

Copulative compounds (also *dvandva* compounds, *co-compounds*) are based on coordinate structures (Wälhli 2009: 1; Skujiņa 2007: 195, see also Matthews 1997: 77), i.e., the coordinated parts of a sentence. It is possible to say that there are as many semantic heads as there are components in a copulative compound (in Latvian, usually two, sometimes three). Copulative compounds are relatively rare in Latvian (see Tables 2.9 and 2.15).

- (2.0.45) a. $N, N - N$
diena, nakts – **dien-nakt-s** ‘day, night – twenty-four-hour period’
sāls, maize – **sāls-maiz-e** ‘salt, bread – bread and salt’
tēvs, māmiņa – **tēvs-māmiņ-a** ‘father, mummy – parents (in folklore)’
- b. $ADJ, ADJ - ADJ$
melns, balts – **meln-balt-s** ‘black, white – black-and-white’
sarkans, balts, sarkans – **sarkan-balt-sarkan-s** ‘red, white, red – red-white-red (a reference to the colors of the Latvian flag)’

c. INT, INT – N

ṇigu ṇegu – *ṇigu-ṇeg-a* ‘hullabaloo – hullabaloo, fuss, commotion’

Finally, there are compounds originating from prepositional phrases (namely, combinations of a noun (2.0.46), (2.0.47a) (see Table 2.9), an adjective (also a numeral) (2.0.47b), or a pronoun (2.0.47c) with a preposition), as well as from adverb–particle combinations (2.0.48) (see Section 2.6.3), e.g.:

(2.0.46) a. PREP + N_{GEN} – N

aiz krāsns – *aiz-krāsn-e* ‘behind the stove – space behind the stove (in a house)’

uz gala – *uz-gal-is* ‘at the tip – tip, capping’

b. PREP + N_{ACC} – N

ap roku – *ap-roc-e* ‘around the arm – bracelet’

pār Gauju – *Pār-gauj-a* ‘over the Gauja River – area on the other side of the Gauja River’

(2.0.47) a. PREP + N_{GEN} – ADV

aiz vakara – *aiz-vakar* ‘after, beyond yesterday – the day before yesterday’

bez gala – *bez-gala* ‘without end – endlessly’

b. PREP + ADJ_{DAT} – ADV

pa retam – *pa-retam* ‘in rare (instances) – occasionally’

c. PRON_{GEN} + PREP – ADV

kā pēc – *kā-pēc* ‘for what – why’

tā pēc – *tā-pēc* ‘for that – therefore’

kā dēļ – *kā-dēļ* ‘due to what – why’

tā dēļ – *tā-dēļ* ‘due to that – therefore’

(2.0.48) a. PTCL + ADV – ADV

jeb-kad ‘ever’

jeb-kur ‘anywhere’

jeb-kā ‘in whatever way’

ne-kad ‘never’

ne-kur ‘nowhere’

ne-kā ‘in no way’

b. ADV + PTCL – ADV

tur-pat ‘right there’

te-pat, še-pat ‘right here’

tā-pat ‘in the same way’

Another classification is based on the semantic relationship between compounds and their constituents and includes two classes: endocentric and exocentric compounds (e.g., Booij 2005; Aikhenvald 2007; Bauer 2009; Benczes 2015). Endocentric compounds (also *tatpurusha* compounds) are hyponymous to their head constituent, while the non-head constituent is subordinate to, or modifies, the head (see, e.g., Matthews 1997: 114, also Wälhli 2009: 91):

- (2.0.49) a. *mežmala* ‘forest edge’ (*meža mala* ‘edge of a forest’)
saulesargs ‘sunshade, parasol’ (*saules sargs* ‘sun guard’)
liepziedi ‘linden blossom, lime blossom’ (*liepu ziedi* ‘blossoms of lime trees’)
- b. *lielceļš* ‘motorway’ (*liels ceļš* ‘large way’)
jaunlops ‘young livestock (a single animal)’ (*jauns lops* ‘young livestock (a single animal)’)
Vecrīga ‘Old Rīga’ (*vecā Rīga* ‘old Rīga’)
- c. *zeltkalis* ‘goldsmith’ (*kalt zeltu* ‘to smith gold’)
aldaris ‘(beer) brewer’ (*darīt alu* ‘to brew beer’)
auskars ‘earring’ (*kārt ausī* ‘to hang on an ear’)

Exocentric compounds (sometimes also called *bahuvrihi* compounds, *possessive compounds*), in contrast, are not hyponymous to either of their constituents. Instead, the constituents of an exocentric compound state some feature of the entity (often a living being, an object, etc.) denoted by the compound (see, e.g., Matthews 1997: 122):

- (2.0.50) a. *sīklapis* ‘a small-leaved plant’ (from *sīkām lapām* ‘having small leaves’)
b. *staltradzis* ‘red deer’ (from *staltiem ragiem* ‘having tall antlers’)
c. *brūnācis* ‘a brown-eyed person or animal’ (from *brūnām acīm* ‘having brown eyes’)
- (2.0.51) a. *debeszils* ‘sky-blue’ (from *debesu zils* ‘blue like the sky’), e.g., *debeszils audums* ‘sky-blue fabric’
b. *aveņsārts* ‘raspberry-red’ (from *aveņu sārts* ‘red like raspberries’), e.g., *aveņsārts tērps* ‘raspberry-red garment’
c. *citrondzeltens* ‘lemon-yellow’ (from *citrona dzeltens* ‘yellow like a lemon’), e.g., *citrondzeltenī ziedi* ‘lemon-yellow flowers’

In Latvian, the endocentric vs. exocentric semantic criterion works best for nominal and adjectival compounds.

Although for classificatory purposes, **blending** – the formation of new words from parts of two or more other words (e.g., Aronoff, Fudeman 2011: 119–120; Veisbergs 2013: 46) – may be subsumed under compounding; strictly speaking, it is a borderline type between morphological and syntactic word formation. While blends exist and are, from time to time, formed in Latvian, they do not constitute regular word-formation types. For example, some interjections (2.0.52) and particles (2.0.53) are blends of words originally used in speech in (imperative) sentences:

- (2.0.52) *paldies* ‘thank you’ < *Palidzi, Dievs!* ‘Help, God!’
āreče (an interjection used to draw smb’s attention to smth) < *Ā, redzi šē!* ‘A-ha, you see, here!’
- (2.0.53) *kazi* (a particle used to express uncertainty, indeterminateness) < *Kas zina!* ‘Who knows!’
diez (a particle used to express uncertainty, indeterminateness) < *Dievs zina!* ‘God knows!’

Conversion is a word-formation process whereby a new word is created by changing the word class of an existing word or word form in syntactic usage without overt derivational markers (Skujiņa 2007: 194; Haspelmath, Sims 2010: 39; Olsen 2017: 43–45; Valera 2017: 154–159).

(2.0.54) a. declinable participle to noun

<i>Mēs</i>	<i>gājām</i>	<i>iekšā</i>	<i>veikalā,</i>
we.NOM	go.PST.1PL	into	store.LOC.M
<i>jo</i>	<i>bija</i>	<i>jānopērk</i>	<i>ēdamais.</i>
because	be.AUX.PST.3	DEB.buy	eat.PTCP.NOM.M.DEF

‘We went into the store because we had to buy something to eat.’
(www.maminuklubs.lv)

b. indeclinable participle to adverb

<i>Vasara</i>	<i>beidzot</i>	<i>ir</i>	<i>klāt –</i>
summer.NOM.F	end.PTCP.IDECL	be.PRS.3	here
<i>šonedēļ</i>	<i>gaidāms</i>	<i>sauss</i>	<i>un</i>
this_week	expect.PTCP.NOM.M	dry.NOM.M	and
<i>saulains</i>	<i>laiks.</i>		
sunny.NOM.M	weather.NOM.M		

‘Summer is finally here – dry and sunny weather expected throughout the week.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

The most common types of conversion in Latvian include nominalization (an adjective or a declinable participle used as a noun) (example 2.0.55a-b), adverbialization (a case form of a noun or an adjective, and an indeclinable participle used as an adverb) (2.0.55c), and creation of interjections by conversion (a grammatical form of a word, a word combination or even a sentence used as an interjection) (2.0.55d). Adjectivization (a declinable participle used as an adjective) is less frequent and is, admittedly, controversial, since it is impossible to draw a distinction between the functions of a participial and an adjectival agreeing attribute (2.0.55e). Verbification does not occur in Latvian.

(2.0.55) a. *vecāki* ‘parents’, *nabags* ‘pauper’

b. *ēdamais* ‘something to eat, food’, *bijušais* ‘an ex’

c. *beidzot* ‘finally’, *laukā* ‘out, outside’

d. *lūdzu!* ‘please!’, *sasodīts!* ‘damn!’, *sveiks!* ‘hello!’

e. *apdāvināts* ‘gifted’, *rafinēts* ‘refined’

In Latvian, conversion does not entail paradigmatic change. For example, all word classes participating in nominalization and adjectivization have partially coinciding paradigms – nouns, indefinite forms of adjectives, and declinable participles. Definite forms of adjectives and declinable participles, which retain the definite-ending paradigm after nominalization, are an exception. Since adverbs and interjections are indeclinable, paradigmatic change is not relevant to either adverbialization or creation of interjections by conversion.

Derivational sequences, derivational families, and word-formation types

In terms of morphemic composition, words may be

- 1) primitive, or primary – containing only a root (2.0.56a) or a root and an ending (2.0.56b):

- (2.0.56) a. *aiz* ‘behind’, *ne* ‘not’, *te* ‘here’
b. *dien-a* ‘day’, *lab-s* ‘good’, *ves-t* ‘to carry’

- 2) derived, or secondary – containing a root and one (2.0.57a) or more suffixes and/or prefixes (2.0.57b)):

- (2.0.57) a. *dien-iņ-a* ‘day (DIM)’
ne-lab-s ‘bad’
aiz-ves-t ‘to take smb or smth somewhere’
b. *vad-ī-tāj-s* ‘head, leader, driver’
pa-māc-īb-a ‘(user) guide’
ap-zelt-ī-j-um-s ‘gilding’

- 3) compound – containing two or more stems:

- (2.0.58) *jūr-mal-a* ‘seaside’
sald-skāb-maiz-e ‘sourdough rye bread’
zil-gan-balt-s ‘bluish-white’

Primary words are semantically primitive, i.e., non-derived, while all secondary words stand in a derivational relationship to their **base word**, which means that they are semantically derived from, or motivated by, its meaning.

- (2.0.59) derivative – base word
jūrnīeks – *jūra* ‘seaman – sea’
iezaļš – *zaļš* ‘slightly green – green’
aizskriet – *skriet* ‘to run (perfective) – to run’
audzināt – *augt* ‘to bring up, to raise – to grow’

All derivatives are constructed from a base (i.e., a derivational stem) and **means of word formation**.

- (2.0.60) derivative – base + means of word formation
jūrnīeks ‘seaman’ – *jūr-* ‘sea’ + *-nīek-s*
iezaļš ‘slightly green’ – *ie-* + *zaļš* ‘green’
aizskriet ‘to run (perfective)’ – *aiz-* + *skrie-t* ‘run’
audzināt ‘to bring up, to raise’ – *aug-*, i.e., *audz-* ‘grow’ + *-inā-t*

Derivatives sharing a common root usually form derivational sequences, or series, based on sequential derivational relationships (sometimes also called derivational chains).

- (2.0.61) a. *art* → *arājs* → *arājīņš* ‘to plough – ploughman – ploughman (DIM)’
b. *zaļš* → *zaļgans* → *iezaļgans* → *iezaļganīgs* ‘green – greenish – slightly greenish – with just a hint of greenishness’
c. *labs* → *labot* → *labojums* ‘good – to correct – correction’

All derivational sequences built from a common root word are members of the same **derivational family** (also called *word family*), e.g., a fragment of the derivational family of the verb *saukt* ‘to call’:

(2.0.62)

saukt ‘to call’ → *saukšana* (action, process noun)
 → *saucējs* (agent noun) → *saucējiņš* (agent noun, DIM)
 → *sauciens* (action, event noun)
 → *sauklis* ‘slogan’
 → *sasaukt* ‘to call together’ → *sasaukšana* (action, process noun)
 → *sasaukums* (result, object noun)
 → *sasaukties* ‘to call to each other, to resonate with’
 → *sasauksme* ‘calling to one another’
 → *uzsaukt* ‘call out, call on’ → *uzsaukšana* (action, process noun)
 → *uzsaukums* (result noun)
 → *uzsauciens* (action, event noun)
 → *iesaukt* ‘to call in, to nickname’ → *iesaukšana* (action, process noun)
 → *iesaukums* (result, object noun)
 → *iesauka* ‘nickname’
 → *izsaukt* ‘to call (invite), to cause’ → *izsaukšana* (action, process noun)
 → *izsaukums* (result noun)
 → *izsaukties* ‘to exclaim, to call out’
 → *izsauciens* (action, event noun; exclamation)
 → *saukties* ‘to go by the name’ → *saukšanās* (action, process noun)

Another important concept in Latvian word formation is that of a word-formation type, which is defined by the word class (part of speech) of the base word, the method and means of word formation and a derivational meaning shared by all derivatives (Skujiņa 2007: 433). For example, nouns in (2.0.63) are *nomina agentis* derived from verbs by the morphological method, using the suffix *-tāj-* (see also Table 2.6).

(2.0.63) *diedāt* – *dziedātājs* ‘to sing – singer’

spēlēt – *spēlētājs* ‘to play – player’

lasīt – *lasītājs* ‘to read – reader’

ogot – *ogotājs* ‘to pick berry – berry-picker’

Word-formation types are characterized by formal and semantic regularity, as well as by productivity. For example, deverbals derived by means of the suffixes *-šan-* and *-um-* belong to productive word-formation types. The suffix *-šan-* can be attached to the infinitive stem (2.0.64a), and the suffix *-um-* to the past stem (2.0.64b) of any verb (see also Table 2.6).

(2.0.64) a. V_{INF} – N

ie-t – *ie-šan-a* ‘to go, to walk – going, walking’

kāp-t – *kāp-šan-a* ‘to climb – climbing’

las-ī-t – *las-ī-šan-a* ‘to read – reading’

- b. $V_{\text{PST}} - N$
gā-j-u – gā-j-um-s ‘(I) went – course’
kāp-u – kāp-um-s ‘(I) climbed – rise, increase’
las-ī-j-u – las-ī-j-um-s ‘(I) read – reading’

Derivatives with the suffix *-šan-* express actions as processes, while derivatives with the suffix *-um-* are, roughly, result nominals. In contrast, deverbal nouns derived by means of the suffix *-v-* belong to a much less productive word-formation model and are limited in number. The range of possible meanings includes the agent (2.0.65a), place (2.0.65b), and instrument (2.0.65c) of an action (see also Table 2.6).

- (2.0.65) $V_{\text{INF}} - N$
 a. *kal-t – kal-v-is* ‘to forge, smith – smith’
 bur-t – bur-v-is ‘to do magic – magician’
 b. *kal-t – kal-v-e* ‘to forge, smith – a forge, smithy’
 c. *cirs-t – cir-v-is* ‘to cut, chop – axe’

The description of Latvian word formation in this grammar is based on word-formation types and models and includes sections on noun (Section 2.1.5), adjective (Section 2.2.4), verb (Section 2.5.10), and adverb formation (Section 2.6.3). For the other word classes, which make limited use of word formation (or even none, e.g., numerals), a summary, rather than a dedicated section, is provided at the end of each subchapter. The productivity of word-formation types is not accounted for in this description, since the primary focus is on showing how the Latvian lexicon is structured from the point of view of derivational morphology. Furthermore, due to space limitations, some word-formation types involving affixation and compounding as well as hybrid (combining Latvian and Latin, Greek, etc. word parts) and neoclassical words, abbreviations, toponyms, etc. have been left out. Derivational synonymy, i.e., parallelism, is not addressed directly (i.e., as a separate issue) in this grammar.

The account of word-formation types (models) given in this grammar, to a great extent, builds on findings from Ahero et al. (1959), Metuzāle-Kangere (1985), Kalme, Smiltņiece (2001), Soida (2009), Vulāne (2013), Veisbergs (2013), Navickaitė-Klišauskienė (2014), while example selection is largely based on the inverse dictionary of Latvian by Soida, Kļaviņa (2000).

2.0.3 Inflection

In language, words function as word forms, i.e., grammatical forms. Therefore, the study of the rules, methods and means by which grammatical forms are built, i.e., inflection (Skujīņa 2007: 120–121, see also, among others, Aronoff, Fudeman 2011: 47), is as important in morphology as the study of the structure of words as lexical units, i.e., word formation. While word formation produces new lexical units, inflection creates their grammatical forms.

Inflectional devices, or means of inflection, are specific linguistic elements used for constructing grammatical forms (Skujiņa 2007: 122). In Latvian, these include:

- 1) affixes – endings, suffixes and prefixes
 - 2) stem-internal vowel (2.0.66) and consonant (2.0.67) alternation (see Morphophonology, Sections 1.1 and 1.2.1, as well as Sections 2.1 and 2.5 on verbal and nominal inflection)
- (2.0.66) a. INF – PRS
vīlkt – *velku* ‘to pull, to draw, to tow – (I) pull, draw, tow’
pīrkt – *pērku* ‘to buy – (I) buy’
- b. INF – PST
dzert – *dzēru* ‘to drink – (I) drank’
liet – *lēju* ‘to pour (with object) (of liquids) – (I) poured’
- (2.0.67) a. INF – PRS
kalt – *kaļu* ‘to forge, smith – (I) forge, smith’
lauzt – *laužu* ‘to break – (I) break’
- b. NOM – GEN SG/PL
brālis – *brāļa* ‘brother – brother (SG)’
egle – *egļu* ‘fir tree – fir tree (PL)’
- 3) auxiliary verbs in verbal inflection (2.0.68a-c) (see Sections 2.5.3, 2.5.4, 2.5.5), and the preposition *ar* ‘with’ for marking the instrumental case of nouns (2.0.68d) (see Section 2.1.1)
- (2.0.68) a. present perfect, active voice
esmu dziedājis ‘I have sung’
- b. present perfect, passive voice
ir dziedāts ‘has been sung’
- c. present indefinite, debitive mood
ir jādzied ‘must sing’
- d. *griezt maizi ar nazi* ‘to slice bread with a knife’
- 4) suppletion
- (2.0.69) a. tenses of the verb *iet* ‘to go’ PRS – PST
iet – *eju* – *gāju* ‘to go – (I) go – (I) went’
- b. forms of the pronoun *es* ‘I’
es ‘I’ – *manis* (GEN), *man* (DAT), *mani* (ACC), etc.

Affixation is the most widely used inflectional device in Latvian. Endings mark the grammatical forms of nouns, adjectives, numerals and pronouns as well as the person forms of verbs (see Sections 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5.2), while suffixes play an important role in constructing the tense forms (2.0.70a-c) and participial forms (2.0.70d-f) of verbs (Section 2.5).

- (2.0.70) a. INF – PRS
skrie-t – *skrie-n-u* ‘to run – (I) run’

- b. INF – PST
las-ī-t – las-ī-j-u ‘to read – (I) read’
- c. INF – FUT
skrie-t – skrie-š-u ‘to run – (I) will run’
- d. present active participle
aug-t – aug-oš-s ‘to grow (no object) – growing (NOM SG M)’
- e. past active participle
augt – augu – aug-us-i ‘to grow (no object) – (I) grew – grown (NOM SG F)’
- f. semi-declinable participle
augt – aug-dam-s ‘to grow (no object) – growing (NOM SG M)’

Prefixes are responsible for deriving the debitive form of verbs (2.0.71a) (see Section 2.5.4) and the superlative form of adjectives (2.0.71b) (see Section 2.2.2).

- (2.0.71) a. *likt – ir jā-liek* ‘to put – must put’
 b. *labs – lab-āk-s – vis-lab-āk-ais* ‘good – better – best’

Finally, the future-tense forms of some conjugation 1 verbs require the interfix *-i-* (see Section 1.1.4 on interfixes, Section 2.5.3 on future-tense forms of verbs).

- (2.0.72) *nest – nes-(ī)-š-u* ‘to carry – (I) will carry’
vest – ved-(ī)-š-u ‘to carry (in a vehicle) – (I) will carry’
mest – met-(ī)-š-u ‘to throw – (I) will throw’
lūzt – lūz-(ī)-š-u ‘to break (no object) – (I) will break’

The methods and means of inflection are interconnected. There are three methods of inflection in Latvian (Skujiņa 2007: 122; Kalnača 2013a: 51):

- 1) morphological, which corresponds to synthetic forms;
- 2) syntactic, which corresponds to analytical forms;
- 3) semantic, which corresponds to suppletive forms.

The **morphological method** of inflection involves the use of morphemes, more specifically, affixes (endings, suffixes, and prefixes) to construct grammatical forms, which are called *synthetic*, because all grammatical meanings are fused into a single word form. Affixation is sometimes accompanied by sound alternation (see examples (2.0.66)–(2.0.67), (2.0.70)) or interfixation (see examples (1.80) and (2.0.72)).

The **syntactic method** makes use of auxiliary words – the preposition *ar* ‘with’ for the instrumental case form of nouns and auxiliary verbs for the perfect tense, passive voice, and debitive forms of verbs (see examples (2.0.68)). Such grammatical forms consist of more than one word carrying grammatical meanings and are, therefore, called *analytical*.

The **semantic method** involves the use of two or more distinct roots for different grammatical forms in one paradigm (see examples (2.0.69)). In contemporary Latvian, the semantic method only occurs in isolated cases – in the case forms of the personal pronouns *es* ‘I’, *tu* ‘you (SG)’, *mēs* ‘we’, *jūs* ‘you (PL)’ (see Section 2.4.1) and the forms of the verbs *būt* ‘to be’ and *iet* ‘to go, walk’ (see Section 2.5.1). Forms based on

the semantic method are called *suppletive*, because differences in grammatical meanings are represented by different roots.

Inflectional sequences, i.e., sequences of consecutively derived (and motivated) grammatical forms, bear some similarity to derivational sequences. For example, the comparative degree form of adjectives is derived from the stem of the positive degree (*lab*- ‘good’), the comparative stem (*labāk*-) is then used to form the superlative degree (see Section 2.2.2).

(2.0.73) *lab*-s → *lab-āk*-s → *vis-lab-āk-ais* ‘good – better – best’

All grammatical forms have an **inflectional base** (Haspelmath, Sims 2010: 20). The inflectional base of nominal case forms is usually the NOM SG stem, the inflectional base of verbal tense forms is usually the infinitive stem (on base forms in Latvian see Paegle 2003: 13; Kalnača 2013c: 458–459; for a general discussion see Haspelmath, Sims 2010: 172–174). The systems of participial inflectional bases and the inflectional bases of verbal moods are slightly more complicated (see Sections 2.5.4, 2.5.9).

2.0.4 Word classes

Word classes are lexico-grammatical subsets of the vocabulary of a language defined in terms of the following properties shared by the members of each subset:

- 1) the semantic property, i.e., a shared generalized lexical meaning;
- 2) the morphological property, which includes the grammatical categories, the system of grammatical forms and word formational generalizations characteristic of a word class;
- 3) the syntactic property, i.e., syntactic distribution, viz. syntactic functions, typical of the members of a word class (Skujīņa 2007: 437; Trask 2008: 206–208).

In Latvian, all words are classified as being in one of the following ten word classes: nouns (see examples 2.0.74a), adjectives (2.0.74b), numerals (2.0.74c), pronouns (2.0.74d), verbs (2.0.74e), adverbs (2.0.74f), prepositions (2.0.74g), conjunctions (2.0.74h), particles (2.0.74i), and interjections (2.0.74j):

- (2.0.74) a. *saule* ‘sun’, *dziesma* ‘song’, *ceļojums* ‘trip’
b. *skaists* ‘beautiful’, *priecīgs* ‘cheerful’, *vējains* ‘windy’
c. *pieci* ‘five’, *vienpadsmit* ‘eleven’, *otrais* ‘second’
d. *es* ‘I’, *tu* ‘you’, *kurš* ‘who, which’
e. *būt* ‘to be’, *braukt* ‘to go in a vehicle’, *runāt* ‘to talk’
f. *tur* ‘there’, *skaļi* ‘loudly’, *tālu* ‘far away’
g. *aiz* ‘behind, beyond, after’, *ap* ‘around, about’, *gar* ‘along, by’
h. *bet* ‘but’, *lai* ‘in order, so as’, *ka* ‘that’
i. *it kā* ‘as if’, *ne* ‘not’, *pat* ‘even’
j. *au* ‘ouch!’, *re* ‘look!, there!’, *blīkš* ‘bang!’

Depending on the nature of their lexical meaning and their role in syntax, words are also categorized into three larger groups. Content (lexical) words, such as nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, verbs, and adverbs, have syntactic functions, i.e., they function as parts of sentences (e.g., subject, predicate, object, attribute, apposition, adverbial modifier). Function (grammatical) words, such as prepositions, conjunctions, and particles, on the contrary, do not carry such syntactic functions and primarily serve to link content words and larger parts of sentences or even texts together or give the contents of a sentence some sort of evaluation (e.g., positive or negative attitude, uncertainty). Finally, interjections are neither content words nor function words in that they do not combine with other words in a sentence or text but rather stand apart as special textual units.

According to their inflectional properties words are classed as either declinable or indeclinable. Only content words are declinable and, depending on the grammatical features for which they inflect, they can be subject to declension, i.e., inflect for or exhibit markers of gender, number, and case (nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns) or conjugation, i.e., inflect for person, tense, mood, and voice (verbs). Adverbs (which are content words), prepositions, conjunctions, particles (which are function words), and interjections are indeclinable.

There is, however, a small number of borrowed nouns (2.0.75a) and adjectives (2.0.75b) in modern Latvian that do not inflect; likewise, certain types of numerals are indeclinable (2.0.75c) (see Section 2.1.1, 2.2.1, and 2.3 for a detailed discussion):

- (2.0.75) a. *eiro* ‘euro’, *kino* ‘cinema, cinematography’, *radio* ‘radio’
 b. *rozā* ‘pink’, *lillā* ‘lilac’
 c. *desmit* ‘ten’, *simt* ‘hundred’, *tūkstoš* ‘thousand’

It should be noted that the word classes are not completely watertight and there are borderline cases between them both from the point of view of semantics and syntactic function. For example, some content words may operate as function words, while retaining their word class membership:

- 1) pronouns and adverbs may function as subordinating conjunctions that introduce subordinate clauses (see also Sections 2.6 and 3.5.2):
 a) pronouns *kas* ‘what, which’, *kurš* ‘who, which’, *kāds* ‘what kind’
 (2.0.76) a. *Mēs gribam saprast,*
 we.NOM want.PRS.1PL understand.INF
 kas tagad darāms.
 what.NOM now do.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘We want to understand what is to be done now.’
 b. *Operas izrāde, kuru redzēju svētdien,*
 opera.GEN.F production.NOM.F **which.ACC.F** see.PST.1SG Sunday
 bija lieliska.
 be.COP.PST.3 excellent.NOM.F
 ‘The opera production, which I saw on Sunday, was excellent.’

- c. *Vai tu zini,*
 Q you.NOM.SG know.PRS.2SG
kāds laiks būs rīt?
 what.NOM.M weather.NOM.M be.FUT.3 tomorrow
 ‘Do you know what the weather will be like tomorrow?’

b) adverbs *kad* ‘when’, *kur* ‘where’, *kā* ‘how’

- (2.0.77) a. *Es gaidu, kad beigs snigt.*
 I.NOM wait.PRS.1SG when stop.FUT.3 snow.INF
 ‘I am waiting for it to stop snowing.’
- b. *Upes krastā, kur tagad iekārtots*
 river.GEN.F bank.LOC.M where now locate.PTCP.NOM.M
parks, senāk bija pilsētas ganības.
 park.NOM.M formerly be.PST.3 town.GEN.F pasture.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The bank of the river, where the park is now located, was formerly used as the town’s pastureland.’
- c. *Mēs ilgi domājām, kā šķērsot*
 we.NOM long think.PST.1PL how cross.INF
pārplūdušu ielu.
 flow.PTCP.ACC.M street.ACC.F
 ‘It took us a while to figure out how to cross the flooded street.’

2) adverbs *pāri* ‘above’, *pretī* ‘across, in front of’, *cauri* ‘through’, *garām* ‘past, over’, *viršū* ‘on top, on, above’, etc. may function as prepositions (see Section 2.7):

- (2.0.78) a. *Nenovietojiet automašīnu pretī vārtiem!*
 not park.IMP.2PL car.ACC.F across gate.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Don’t park your car in front of the gate!’
- b. *Baloni pacēlās pāri mūsu galvām.*
 balloon.NOM.PL.M rise.PST.3 above we.GEN head.DAT.PL.F
 ‘The balloons rose above our heads.’

Sometimes, although, admittedly, less often, the direction is reversed and an interjection or a function word assumes the function of a content word in a sentence, for example, in (2.0.79a-b) the interjection *plunkš* ‘splash!’ and the particle *jā* ‘yes’ function as nouns:

- (2.0.79) a. *Un tad atskanēja īpaši skaļš plunkš,*
 and then sound.PST.3 exceptionally loud.NOM.M splash
un iestājās klusums.
 and begin.PST.3 silence.NOM.M
 ‘And then there was an exceptionally loud splash, and then silence.’
 (Diena)
- b. *Vienmēr saki jā un esi laimīgs!*
 always say.IMP.2SG yes and be.COP.IMP.2SG happy.NOM.M
 ‘Always say yes and be happy!’ (Diena)

The word class membership of some indeclinable words (adverbs, particles, conjunctions, interjections) cannot be identified reliably outside of context. It is only their syntactic behavior in a sentence that makes it possible to analyze them as belonging to a particular word class (Paegle 2003: 229):

(2.0.80) *ak* ‘oh, ah’

a. particle

Ak *tā gan!*

oh so really

‘Oh, I see.’

b. interjection

Ak, *cik karsts šogad bija jūlijs!*

oh how hot.NOM.M this_year be.COP.PST.3 July.NOM.M

‘Oh, July was so hot this year!’

(2.0.81) *tik* ‘so, as’

a. particle

Nāc tik iekšā!

come.IMP.2SG so in

‘Come on in.’

b. adverb

Es esmu izdarijsi tik, cik varējsi.

I.NOM be.AUX.PRS.1SG do.PTCP.NOM.F so how can.PTCP.NOM.F

‘I have done as much as I could.’

(2.0.82) *kaut* ‘although, I wish’

a. conjunction

Kaut *šorīt cēlos agri,*

although this_morning get_up.PST.1SG early

tomēr nepaspēju visu izdarīt.

still not_manage.PST.1SG everything.ACC.M do.INF

‘Although I got up early this morning, there still wasn’t enough time to get everything done.’

b. particle

Kaut *ātrāk būtu vasara!*

if_only soon be.COP.COND summer.NOM.F

‘If only summer would come already.’

2.1 NOUNS

2.1.0 Introductory remarks

The noun is a word class which comprises words expressing objectness and employing the categories of gender, number, and case. Syntactically, a noun can function as the subject of a clause (2.1.1a), an object (2.1.1b), an attribute (2.1.1c), a nominal predicate, or an apposition (both 2.1.1d) (Skujīņa 2007: 217).

- (2.1.1) a. *Vakar pūta stiprs vējš.*
yesterday blow.PST.3 strong.NOM.M **wind.NOM.M**
'A strong wind blew yesterday.'
- b. *Es rīt satikšu savu brāli.*
I.NOM tomorrow meet.FUT.1SG own.ACC.M **brother.ACC.M**
'Tomorrow I will meet my brother.'
- c. *Neviens negaidīja tik agru ziemas sākumu.*
nobody.NOM.M not_expect.PST.3 such early.ACC.M **winter.GEN.F**
onset.ACC.M
'Nobody expected such an early onset of winter.'
- d. *Tā ir mana māsa Līga.*
that.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 my.NOM.F **sister.NOM.F Līga.NOM.F**
'That is my sister Līga.'

Based on their meaning, nouns are usually classified as (also see Section 2.1.5):

- 1) **common nouns** denoting any of a class of objects (examples 2.1.2) and **proper nouns** denoting particular objects out of all the objects of the same class such as personal names, names of animals, geographical names, names of institutions and organizations, etc. (2.1.3):
 - (2.1.2) *puķe* 'flower', *koks* 'tree', *samtene* 'marigold', *priede* 'pine', *cilvēks* 'human', *meita* 'daughter', *dēls* 'son', *dzīvnieks* 'animal', *zirgs* 'horse', *govs* 'cow', *kalns* 'mountain', *upe* 'river', *saule* 'sun'
 - (2.1.3) *Līga* 'Līga (a female name)'
Valdis 'Valdis (a male name)'
Eiropa 'Europe'
Latvija 'Latvia'
Latvijas Nacionālā bibliotēka 'The National Library of Latvia'
- 2) concrete (2.1.4a) and abstract (2.1.4b) nouns, collective nouns (2.1.4c), names of substances (2.1.4d), etc.
 - (2.1.4) a. *karote* 'spoon', *šķivis* 'plate', *jūra* 'sea', *akmens* 'stone'
b. *prieks* 'joy', *cerība* 'hope', *atmiņas* 'memories', *skaistums* 'beauty'
c. *pūlis* 'crowd', *tauta* 'nation', *saimē* 'community', *bars* 'crowd'
d. *piens* 'milk', *ūdens* 'water', *ledus* 'ice', *sāls* 'salt'

2.1.1 Declension

Latvian nouns are customarily divided into six declensions. The distinct endings that nouns take relative to the paradigms of case, number, and gender play a major role in differentiating nouns into declensions (Paegle 2003: 45; Nau 2011; Smiltneiece 2013: 357–366; Kalnača 2014: 4–5).

Declensions 1–3 mostly contain masculine nouns, while declensions 4–6 mostly contain feminine nouns. However, declension 4 also includes the masculine noun *puika* ‘boy’, declension 6 contains the masculine plural-only noun *ļaudis* ‘people’, declension 3 contains some feminine surnames, and declensions 4 and 5 contain common gender nouns (see Section 2.1.2 for a detailed discussion).

The words *asmens* ‘blade’, *akmens* ‘stone’, *rudens* ‘autumn’, *ūdens* ‘water’, *zibens* ‘lightning’, *mēness* ‘moon’, *suns* ‘dog’ (all M), which have formed a separate declension (that of consonantal stem nouns) in the past, are nowadays referred to as declension 2 exceptions.

It is thus possible to propose the following system of case and number endings for nouns. Note that the endings preceded by palatalization have been displayed as separate exponents (see also Haspelmath 2002: 242; Nau 2011; Kalnača 2014: 7–9):

Singular

Declension 2 subdivides into two further groups: consonantal stem nouns (2b) and all other nouns (2a). Note that for declensions 4 and 5 the masculine dative singular endings *-am* and *-em* are listed along with the feminine endings (see examples (2.1.5)–(2.1.7)):

Case	Declension						
	1	3	6	2b	2a	4	5
NOM	-s, -š	-us	-s		-is	-a	-e
VOC	-ø, -s, -š, -u	-u			-i, -ø	-ø, -a, -u	-ø, -e
GEN	-a	-us			-’a	-as	-es
ACC	-u		-i			-u	-i
INS							
DAT	-am	-um, -ui	-ij	-im		-ai, -am	-ei, -em
LOC	-ā	-ū	-ī			-ā	-ē

Table 2.1 Singular case endings (adapted from Kalnača 2014: 8)

Plural

Here, declension 3 subdivides into two further groups: masculine nouns (3a) and feminine nouns (3b).

Case	Declension						
	2	1	3a	3b	4	5	6
NOM	-ī	-i		-us	-as	-es	-is
VOC							
GEN	-ū	-u				-ū, -u	
ACC	-ūs	-us			-as	-es	-is
INS	-īem	-iem		-ūm	-ām	-ēm	-īm
DAT							
LOC	-os	-os		-ūs	-ās	-ēs	-is

Table 2.2 Plural case endings (adapted from Kalnača 2014: 8)

The inflectional forms of nouns are illustrated in Table 2.3 with the words *tēvs* ‘father’, *ceļš* ‘road’, *brālis* ‘brother’, *akmens* ‘stone’, *lietus* ‘rain’, *māsa* ‘sister’, *puika* ‘boy’, *māte* ‘mother’, *zivs* ‘fish’, *ļaudis* ‘people’.

Case	1 (M)	2 (M)	3 (M)	4 (F)	5 (F)	6 (F)
SG						
NOM	<i>tēv-s,</i> <i>ceļ-š</i>	<i>brāl-is,</i> <i>akmen-s</i>	<i>liet-us</i>	<i>mās-a,</i> <i>puik-a (M)</i>	<i>māt-e</i>	<i>ziv-s</i>
GEN	<i>tēv-a,</i> <i>ceļ-a</i>	<i>brāl-a,</i> <i>akmen-s</i>	<i>liet-us</i>	<i>mās-as,</i> <i>puik-as</i>	<i>māt-es</i>	<i>ziv-s</i>
DAT	<i>tēv-am;</i> <i>ceļ-am</i>	<i>brāl-im,</i> <i>akmen-im</i>	<i>liet-um</i>	<i>mās-aī,</i> <i>puik-am</i>	<i>māt-ei</i>	<i>ziv-ij</i>
ACC	<i>tēv-u,</i> <i>ceļ-u</i>	<i>brāl-i,</i> <i>akmen-i</i>	<i>liet-u</i>	<i>mās-u,</i> <i>puik-u</i>	<i>māt-i</i>	<i>ziv-i</i>
INS	<i>(ar) tēv-u,</i> <i>(ar) ceļ-u</i>	<i>(ar) brāl-i,</i> <i>(ar) akmen-i</i>	<i>(ar) liet-u</i>	<i>(ar) mās-u,</i> <i>(ar) puik-u</i>	<i>(ar) māt-i</i>	<i>(ar) ziv-i</i>
LOC	<i>tēv-ā,</i> <i>ceļ-ā</i>	<i>brāl-i,</i> <i>akmen-ī</i>	<i>liet-ū</i>	<i>mās-ā,</i> <i>puik-ā</i>	<i>māt-ē</i>	<i>ziv-ī</i>
VOC	<i>tēv-ø!,</i> <i>tēv-s!</i> <i>ceļ-š!</i>	<i>brāl-i!,</i> <i>akmen-ø!,</i> <i>akmen-s!</i>	<i>liet-u!</i>	<i>mās-ø!,</i> <i>mās-a!,</i> <i>puik-a!</i>	<i>māt-ø!,</i> <i>māt-e!</i>	<i>ziv-s!</i>
PL						
NOM	<i>tēv-i,</i> <i>ceļ-i</i>	<i>brāl-i,</i> <i>akmeņ-i</i>	<i>liet-i</i>	<i>mās-as,</i> <i>puik-as</i>	<i>māt-es</i>	<i>ziv-is,</i> <i>ļaud-is (M)</i>
GEN	<i>tēv-u,</i> <i>ceļ-u</i>	<i>brāl-u,</i> <i>akmeņ-u</i>	<i>liet-u</i>	<i>mās-u,</i> <i>puik-u</i>	<i>māš-u</i>	<i>zivj-u,</i> <i>lauž-u</i>
DAT	<i>tēv-iem,</i> <i>ceļ-iem</i>	<i>brāl-iem,</i> <i>akmeņ-iem</i>	<i>liet-iem</i>	<i>mās-ām,</i> <i>puik-ām</i>	<i>māt-ēm</i>	<i>ziv-īm,</i> <i>ļaud-īm</i>

Case	1 (M)	2 (M)	3 (M)	4 (F)	5 (F)	6 (F)
ACC	<i>tēv-us,</i> <i>ceļ-us</i>	<i>brāl-us,</i> <i>akmeņ-us</i>	<i>liet-us</i>	<i>mās-as,</i> <i>puik-as</i>	<i>māt-es</i>	<i>ziv-is,</i> <i>ļaud-is</i>
INS	<i>(ar) tēv-iem,</i> <i>(ar) ceļ-iem</i>	<i>(ar) brāl-iem,</i> <i>(ar) akmeņ-iem</i>	<i>(ar) liet-iem</i>	<i>(ar) mās-ām,</i> <i>(ar) puik-ām</i>	<i>(ar) māt-ēm</i>	<i>(ar) ziv-īm,</i> <i>(ar) ļaud-īm</i>
LOC	<i>tēv-os,</i> <i>ceļ-os</i>	<i>brāl-os,</i> <i>akmeņ-os</i>	<i>liet-os</i>	<i>mās-ās,</i> <i>puik-ās</i>	<i>māt-ēs</i>	<i>zivīs,</i> <i>ļaud-īs</i>
VOC	<i>tēv-ī!,</i> <i>ceļ-ī!</i>	<i>brāl-ī!,</i> <i>akmeņ-ī!</i>	<i>liet-ī!</i>	<i>mās-as!,</i> <i>puik-as</i>	<i>māt-es!</i>	<i>ziv-is!,</i> <i>ļaud-is!</i>

Table 2.3 Noun declension (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 54–55; Kalnača 2014: 6)

As has already been pointed out, the declension 4 masculine noun *puika* ‘boy’ takes the masculine ending *-am* in DAT SG, cf. *māsa* ‘sister’ (F), also see Table 2.3:

(2.1.5) NOM SG

mās-a ‘sister’(F), *puik-a* ‘boy’(M)

DAT SG

mās-ai ‘for (a/the) sister’(F), *puik-am* ‘for (a/the) boy’(M)

Apart from feminine nouns, declensions 4 and 5 also include common gender nouns (examples (2.1.6), see Section 2.4.2 for a detailed discussion) and some surnames (examples (2.1.7)), which in Standard Latvian are overtly marked for gender in DAT SG (Paegle 2003: 32, 50):

(2.1.6) **common gender nouns**

a. **declension 4**

auš-a ‘feather brain’

auš-ai (F)

auš-am (M)

b. **declension 5**

bend-e ‘executioner’

bend-ei (F)

bend-em (M)

(2.1.7) **proper names (surnames)**

a. **declension 4**

NOM SG

Liep-a, Kļav-a, Jūr-a (F, M)

DAT SG

Liep-ai, Kļav-ai, Jūr-ai (F)

Liep-am, Kļav-am, Jūr-am (M)

b. **declension 5**

NOM SG

Egl-e, Pried-e, Niedr-e (F, M)

DAT SG

Egl-ei, Pried-ei, Niedr-ei (F)

Egl-em, Pried-em, Niedr-em (M)

Although declension 3 feminine common nouns are now obsolete, some surnames such as *Dejus*, *Čapus*, *Didžus*, *Markus*, *Bikšus*, *Balčus*, *Statkus*, *Snitkus*, *Ķerus* are still in use in Standard Latvian and inflect for both genders according to two distinct paradigms, see Table 2.4:

Case	SG		PL	
	M	F	M	F
NOM	<i>Jānis Dej-us</i>	<i>Ilze Dej-us</i>	<i>Jāņi Dej-i</i>	<i>Ilzes Dej-us</i>
GEN	<i>Jāņa Dej-us</i>	<i>Ilzes Dej-us</i>	<i>Jāņu Dej-u</i>	<i>Ilžu Dej-u</i>
DAT	<i>Jānim Dej-um</i>	<i>Ilzei Dej-ai</i>	<i>Jāņiem Dej-iem</i>	<i>Ilzēm Dej-ām</i>
ACC	<i>Jāni Dej-u</i>	<i>Ilzi Dej-u</i>	<i>Jāņus Dej-us</i>	<i>Ilzes Dej-us</i>
INS	<i>(ar) Jāni Dej-u</i>	<i>(ar) Ilzi Dej-u</i>	<i>(ar) Jāņiem Dej-iem</i>	<i>(ar) Ilzēm Dej-ām</i>
LOC	<i>Jānī Dej-ū</i>	<i>Ilzē Dej-ū</i>	<i>Jāņos Dej-os</i>	<i>Ilzēs Dej-ās</i>
VOC	<i>Jāni Dej-u!</i>	<i>Ilze Dej-u!</i>	<i>Jāņi Dej-i!</i>	<i>Ilzes Dej-us!</i>

Table 2.4 Case forms of declension 3 surnames in masculine and feminine (adapted from Smiltņiece 2013: 362)

In colloquial Latvian, common nouns denoting persons and personal names of declensions 1, 2, 4 and 5 exhibit several variants of the vocative singular (Table 2.1) (see also Kalme, Smiltņiece 2001: 102, 105, 108–110).

For feminine personal names of declensions 4 and 5, the vocative function is usually performed by nominative case forms, although, in colloquial speech, vocative case forms are also possible (mostly, with trisyllabic (NOM) personal names) (2.1.8a–b).

Personal names and common nouns signifying kinship, as well as different kinds of diminutives and some other nouns of declension 2, are quite frequently used without an ending *-i* in the vocative (note that personal names are often trisyllabic in the nominative) (Smiltņiece 2013: 360) (2.1.8b–c)–(2.1.10).

(2.1.8) a. VOC SG

declension 4

Aij-a!, *Rit-a!*, *Katrīn-a!*, *Līvij-a!* (female names)

and

Aij-ø!, *Katrīn-ø!*, *Līvij-ø!* (colloquial)

b. VOC SG

declension 5

Ilz-e!, *Lien-e!*, *Renāt-e!*, *Kristīn-e!* (female names)

and

Ilz-ø!, *Lien-ø!*, *Renāt-ø!*, *Kristīn-ø!* (colloquial)

c. NOM SG

brāl-is ‘brother’, *puis-is* ‘boy’, *tēt-is* ‘father’

Pēter-is, *Visvald-is*, *Laimon-is* (male names)

diminutives *Kārlīt-is*, *vecīt-is*, *eņģelīt-is* (derived from the words *Kārlis*, *vecis* ‘old man’, *eņģelis* ‘angel’)

- d. VOC SG
brāl-ø!, *puis-ø!*, *tēt-ø!* (Standard Latvian: *brāl-i!*, *puis-i!*, *tēt-i!*)
Pēter-ø!, *Visvald-ø!*, *Laimon-ø!* (Standard Latvian: *Pēter-i!*, *Visvald-i!*,
Laimon-i!)
Kārlit-ø!, *vecīt-ø!*, *eņģelīt-ø!* (Standard Latvian: *Kārlit-i!*, *vecīt-i!*, *eņģelīt-i!*)

- (2.1.9) a. *Viss* *vēl* *mainīsies*,
everything.NOM.M PTCL change.FUT.3
tu *redzēsi*, *brāl!*
you.NOM.SG see.FUT.2SG **brother.VOC.M**
‘Everything will change one day, you’ll see, brother!’ (C)
- b. ***Puis!***
chap.VOC.M
‘Chap!’ (C)
- c. ***Pēter***, *pasmaidi!*
Pēteris.VOC.M smile.IMP.2SG
‘Pēteris, do smile!’ (C)
- d. *Tu*, ***Kārl-īt***, *esi* *diezgan*
you.NOM.SG **Kārlis-DIM.VOC.M** be.COP.PRS.2SG quite
izklaidīgs.
absent_minded.NOM.M
‘You, Kārlītis, are quite absent-minded.’ (C)
- (2.1.10) a. *Mīlo* ***eņģel-īt***, *parūpējies*
dear.ACC.M **angel-DIM.VOC.M** take_care.IMP.2SG
par *manu* *draugu*,
about my.ACC.M friend.ACC.M
kuram *šodien* *ir* *vārda* *diena!*
who.DAT.M today be.COP.PRS.3 name.ACC.M day.NOM.F
‘Dear angel, please look after my friend whose name day is today!’
(www.draugiem.lv)
- b. *Mīlais* *Ziemassvētku* ***vec-īt***, *lūdzu*
dear.NOM.M Christmas.GEN.PL.M **old_man-DIM.VOC.M** please
paskubini *@latvijas_pasts* *darbinieces*,
urge.IMP.2SG @latvijas_pasts employee.ACC.PL.F
lai *strādā* *raitāk*.
that work.PRS.3 more_quickly
‘Dear Santa, please urge the employees at @latvijas_pasts to hurry up
with their work.’ (www.twitter.com)

In colloquial speech, declension 1 and 4 personal names often take the ending *-u* in the vocative; usually, however, these forms do not find their way into grammar books. It should be kept in mind that declension 1 personal names are mostly monosyllabic, sometimes disyllabic, while declension 4 personal names are predominantly disyllabic in the nominative (examples (partly) from Kalnača 2014: 26):

(2.1.11) a. **declension 1**

NOM SG

Ojār-s, Klāv-s, Ainar-s (male names)

VOC SG

Ojār-u!, Klāv-u!, Ainar-u!

b. **declension 4**

NOM SG

Aij-a, Iev-a, Laum-a (female names)

VOC SG

Aij-u!, Ievu!, Laum-u!

c. and very often

NOM SG

mamm-a ('mummy' in colloquial speech)

VOC SG

mamm-u!

Mammu, *vai* *vēl* *ilgi?*

mum.VOC.F Q still long_time

'Mum, how much longer now?' (CW)

Mammu, *kur* *mums* *stāv* *putekļsūcējs?*

mum.VOC.F where we.DAT stand.PRS.3 vacuum_cleaner.NOM.M

'Mum, where do we keep the vacuum cleaner?' (Ieva)

Palatalization

As has been noted in Section 1.1.2, palatalization in Latvian is normally involved in, firstly, marking the genitive case of declension 2 (GEN SG) and declension 5, 6 (GEN PL) nouns, secondly, marking the plural of declension 2 nouns (see Table 2.3). There are certain exceptions, however, that do not demonstrate this shift:

- 1) disyllabic personal names in *-tis*, *-dis* (declension 2)

(2.1.12) NOM SG – GEN SG

Atis – Ata

Guntis – Gunta

Valdis – Valda

Aldis – Alda (male names)

- 2) common nouns in *-ris* (declension 2)

(2.1.13) NOM SG – GEN SG

pavasaris – pavasara 'spring'

tosteris – tosterā 'toaster'

- 3) the word *viesis* (declension 2)

(2.1.14) *viesis – viesā* 'guest'

4) some nouns in *-ste, -te, -se* (declension 5)

(2.1.15) NOM SG – GEN PL

kaste – kastu ‘box’

aste – astu ‘tail’

karaliste – karalistu ‘kingdom’

mute – mutu ‘mouth’

kase – kasu ‘cash desk, box office’

pase – pasu ‘passport’

5) nouns in *-re* (declension 5)

(2.1.16) NOM SG – GEN PL

cepure – cepuru ‘hat’

vāvere – vāveru ‘squirrel’

sēre – sēru ‘sandbank’

6) the following declension 6 nouns:

(2.1.17) common nouns

NOM SG – GEN PL

acs – acu ‘eye’

uzacs – uzacu ‘brow’

auss – ausu ‘ear’

balss – balsu ‘voice’

debess – debesu ‘sky, heaven’

valsts – valstu ‘country’

vēsts – vēstu ‘tidings, news’

(2.1.18) the proper noun *Cēsis – Cēsu* (a town name)

Reflexive nouns

Standing apart from the six declensions discussed above is another group of nouns, which is quite interesting in many respects: reflexive deverbal nouns formed by derivation from reflexive verbs. The most common type are feminine reflexive nouns with *-šanās* (suffix *-šan-* + reflexive ending *-ās*):

(2.1.19) *mazgā-ties – mazgā-šanās* ‘to wash (oneself) – washing (oneself)’

cel-ties – cel-šanās ‘to get up, to stand up – getting up, standing up’

smie-ties – smie-šanās ‘to laugh – laughing’

Reflexive nouns in *-šanās* can be derived from all reflexive verbs, borrowings included:

(2.1.20) *oksidē-ties – oksidē-šanās* ‘to oxidize (no object) – oxidizing, oxidization’

kondensē-ties – kondensē-šanās ‘to condense (no object) – condensing’

praktizē-ties – praktizē-šanās ‘to practice (no object) – practicing’

Other types of reflexive deverbal nouns such as masculine reflexive nouns ending in *-umies* (*vēlējumies* ‘wish’, *cēlumies* ‘getting up, standing up’), masculine and feminine reflexive nouns ending in *-tājies* (M) (*mazgātājies* ‘one who washes (himself)’), *-tājās* (F) (*peldētājās* ‘one who bathes, goes swimming’), *-ējies* (M) (*smējējies* ‘one who laughs’), *-ējās* (F) (*smējējās*) are found mainly in literary texts and are otherwise very rare in modern Latvian. Instead of reflexive verbs, their non-reflexive counterparts are now more commonly used as bases for the respective derivatives, e.g., *vēlējums*, *cēlums*, *mazgātājs*, *-a*, *peldētājs*, *-a*, *smējējs*, *-a*.

As regards meaning, reflexive deverbal nouns denote objectified actions as processes that generally exhibit the same kinds of meaning as reflexive verbs (see also Section 2.5.7):

- 1) actions where the agent is also the patient

(2.1.21) *mazgāties* – *mazgāšanās* ‘to wash (oneself) – washing (oneself)’
ģērbties – *ģērbšanās* ‘to dress (no object) – dressing’
slaucīties – *slaucīšanās* ‘to wipe (oneself) – wiping (oneself)’
- 2) reciprocal actions

(2.1.22) *vienoties* – *vienošanās* ‘to agree – agreement, also coming to an agreement’
sarunāties – *sarunāšanās* ‘to converse – conversing’
tīkties – *tīkšanās* ‘to meet – meeting’
- 3) actions occurring in and of themselves, without any active participation on the part of the possible agent

(2.1.23) *sārtoties* – *sārtošanās* ‘to grow red – growing red’
glabāties – *glabāšanās* ‘to be stored – being stored’
rādīties – *rādīšanās* ‘to appear, to seem – appearing, seeming’
- 4) sudden, unexpected or excessive actions

(2.1.24) *iesmīties* – *iesmiešanās* ‘to give a laugh – giving a laugh’
sakustēties – *sakustēšanās* ‘to make a (sudden) move – making a (sudden) move’
aizrunāties – *aizrunāšanās* ‘to talk for too long, to keep on about – talking for too long’
pārcepties – *pārcepšanās* ‘to get overbaked, overroasted – getting overbaked, overroasted’

Reflexive nouns are characterized by incomplete (defective) declension paradigms, having no dative or locative forms in either number and no instrumental plural. Moreover, as there are only two endings, *-ās* and *-os*, in the whole paradigm, the forms they are supposed to stand for are only determinable from the context (see Table 2.5 and examples (2.1.25)–(2.1.26)):

tikšanās ‘meeting’

Case	SG	PL
NOM	<i>tikšan-ās</i>	<i>tikšan-ās</i>
GEN	<i>tikšan-ās</i>	<i>tikšan-os</i>
DAT	–	–
ACC	<i>tikšan-os</i>	<i>tikšan-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) tikšan-os</i>	–
LOC	–	–
VOC	<i>tikšan-ās!</i>	<i>tikšan-ās!</i>

Table 2.5 Case forms of reflexive nouns (adapted from Kalnača 2014: 37)

(2.1.25) *mazgāšanās* ‘washing (oneself)’ SG

- a. *Pie kā noved bieža mazgāšanās?*
to what.GEN lead.PRS.3 frequent.NOM.F **washing.NOM.F**
‘What does frequent washing lead to?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Ļoti maigs mazgāšanās līdzeklis sausai ādai.*
very gentle.NOM.M **washing.GEN.F** tool.NOM.M dry.DAT.F
skin.DAT.F
‘A very gentle cleanser for dry skin.’ (www.draugiem.lv)
- c. *Mazgāšanos vannā vajadzētu noslēgt ar vēsu dušu.*
washing.ACC.F bath.LOC.F should.COND finish.INF with cool.INS.F
shower.INS.F
‘One should take a cool shower after having a bath.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- d. *Ar mazgāšanos nepārspīlējiet!*
with **washing.INS.F** not_overdo.IMP.2PL
‘Don’t overdo it with the washing!’ (www.apollo.lv)

(2.1.26) *tikšanās* ‘meeting’ PL

- a. *Notiek regulāras tikšanās ar bankas vadību.*
happen.PRS.3 regular.NOM.PL.F **meeting.NOM.PL.F** with
bank.GEN.F management.INS.F
‘Regular meetings with the bank’s management take place.’ (C)
- b. *Šie jautājumi apspriesti arī abu valstu valdību vadītāju divpusējo tikšanos laikā.*
this.NOM.PL.M issue.NOM.PL.M discuss.PTCP.NOM.M also both.GEN.F
country.GEN.PL.F government.GEN.PL.F head.GEN.PL.M
bilateral.GEN.PL.F **meeting.GEN.PL.F** time.LOC.M
‘These issues have also been discussed at bilateral summits between the two countries.’ (C)

- c. *Plānojiēt sev regulāras tikšanās*
 plan.IMP.2PL oneself.DAT regular.ACC.PL.F meeting.ACC.PL.F
ar draugiem vai kolēģiem!
 with friend.INS.PL.M or colleague.INS.PL.M
 'Plan for regular meetings with your friends and colleagues!' (C)

Some reflexive nouns can be considered defective also in terms of number in that they are predominantly used in the singular, e.g., *aizsapņošanās* 'daydreaming', *mazgāšanās* 'washing (oneself)', *pielāgošanās* 'conforming (no object)', *sakustēšanās* 'making a (sudden) move'. For this reason, Paegle (2003: 53), for example, provides only the singular form paradigm of reflexive nouns indicating that such nouns are not normally used in the plural. However, many reflexive nouns actually occur in both numbers:

(2.1.27) SG

- viena vēlēšanās* 'one wish'
viena tikšanās 'one meeting'
viena vienošanās 'one agreement'
 PL
trīs vēlēšanās 'three wishes'
desmit tikšanos 'ten meetings'
vairākas vienošanās 'several agreements'

Therefore, on the whole, reflexive nouns should not be classified as singular-only.

Indeclinable nouns

Still another group of nouns found in Latvian are indeclinable nouns. All indeclinable nouns are borrowed words, for example:

(2.1.28) common nouns

- eiro* 'euro', *kino* 'cinema', *radio* 'radio', *loto* 'lotto', *ragū* 'ragout'

(2.1.29) proper nouns – geographical names (2.1.29a), personal names (2.1.29b), etc.

- a. *Oslo* 'Oslo', *Katmandu* 'Kathmandu', *Monpeljē* 'Montpellier'
 b. *Kokto* 'Cocteau', *Kirī* 'Curie', *Delakruā* 'Delacroix'

The gender, number, and case of such nouns are only determinable in context where they are often signaled by the form of a concordant attribute (2.1.30) or a nominal predicate (2.1.31):

- (2.1.30) a. *Grāmata maksā piecus eiro.*
 book.NOM.F cost.PRS.3 five.ACC.M euro
 'The book costs five euros.'

- b. *Mūs Nepālā pārsteidza neparastā Katmandu.*
 we.ACC Nepal.LOC.F amaze.PST.3 unusual.PTCP.NOM.F Kathmandu
 'When in Nepal we were amazed by unusual Kathmandu.'

- (2.1.31) a. *Oslo ir salīdzinoši neliela, bet ļoti patīkama.*
 Oslo be.COP.PRS.3 relatively small.NOM.F but very pleasant.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘Oslo is relatively small but very pleasant.’
- b. *Kokto ir ievērojams rakstnieks.*
 Cocteau be.COP.PRS.3 noteworthy.PTCP.NOM.M writer.NOM.M
 ‘Cocteau is a noteworthy writer.’

In colloquial speech, indeclinable nouns are often made declinable by adding endings and sometimes also diminutive suffixes *-īt-*, *-iņ-*, *-uk-* (examples (2.1.32) from Kalnača 2014: 13):

- (2.1.32) *eiro* → *eir-is*, *eir-īt-is* ‘euro’
kino → *ķin-is*, *ķin-īt-is* ‘cinema’
radio → *rādž-iņ-š*, *rādž-uk-s* ‘radio’

In Standard Latvian, a number of indeclinable nouns have recently become declinable through the addition of endings (Kalme & Smiltneiece 2001: 113), examples (2.1.33)–(2.1.34) from Kalnača 2014: 13; however, this is not a regular or predictable process.

- (2.1.33) *baroko, čello, pianīno, mannā, sodā* →
baroks ‘baroque’, *čells* ‘cello’, *pianīns* ‘piano’ (all M), *manna* ‘manna’, *soda* ‘soda’ (both F)
- (2.1.34) *želē, filē, dražē, Tokio* →
želeja ‘jelly, gel’, *fileja* ‘fillet’, *dražeja* ‘dragée’, *Tokija* ‘Tokyo’ (all F)

Compound genitives (genitive-only compound nouns)

The group of indeclinable nouns also, in a sense, includes compound genitives (also *genitivelings* – see Nau 1998: 26; Berg-Olsen 2007). Compound genitives are a special group of Latvian compound nouns that have only one case form, the genitive, either in the singular (2.1.35) or, perhaps more commonly, in the plural (2.1.36). Syntactically, they usually function as non-agreeing attributes (Soida 1976; Kušķis 1976; Berg-Olsen 2007; Skujiņa 2007: 136):

- (2.1.35) SG
- a. *vien-zīl-b-es* *vārd-s*
 mono-syllabic-GEN.F word-NOM.M
 ‘monosyllabic word’
- b. *bez-maks-as* *pakalpojum-s*
 without-charge-GEN.F service-NOM.M
 ‘free service’
- c. *pirms-plān-a* *dokument-s*
 pre-plan-GEN.M document-NOM.M
 ‘preplanning document’

(2.1.36) PL

- a. *liel-zied-u* *ceriņ-i*
large-flower-GEN.PL.M lilac-NOM.PL.M
 ‘large-flowered lilac’
- b. *deviņ-stāv-u* *māj-a*
nine-storey-GEN.PL.M house-NOM.F
 ‘nine-storey house’
- c. *sīk-lap-u* *kļav-a*
small-leaf-GEN.PL.F maple-NOM.F
 ‘small-leaved maple’

The gender of compound genitives depends on the declension and gender of the head.

Compound genitives can also, although less commonly, function as nominal predicates (Kalnača, Lokmane 2016):

- (2.1.37) a. *Šis pakalpojums būs bezmaksas.*
 this.NOM.M service.NOM.M be.COP.FUT.3
without_charge.GEN.F
 ‘This service will be free.’ (www.kursors.lv)
- b. *Rakstā minēts, ka māja ir divstāvu.*
 article.LOC.M mention.PTCP.NOM.M that house.NOM.F
 be.COP.PRS.3 **two_story.GEN.PL.M**
 ‘The article mentions that this is a two-story house.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

Based on the word classes of their components, compound genitives can be grouped as follows (Ahero et al. 1959: 207–209, Soida 1976: 149; Kalnača, Lokmane 2016):

- 1) N_{GEN} + N (2.1.38a), ADJ + N (2.1.38b), NUM + N (2.1.38c), PRON + N (2.1.38d), ADV + N (2.1.38e)

- (2.1.38) a. *zelt-spārn-u*
 gold-wing-GEN.PL.M
 ‘golden-winged’
- b. *zem-papēž-u*
 low-heel-GEN.PL.M
 ‘low-heeled’
- c. *div-istab-u*
 two-room-GEN.PL.F
 ‘two-room’
- d. *šā-gad-a*
 this-year-GEN.M
 ‘this year’s’
- e. *daudz-gad-u*
 many-year-GEN.PL.M
 ‘multiyear’

2) PREP + N

- (2.1.39) a. *pirms-krīz-es*
before-crisis-GEN.PL.F
'pre-crisis'
b. *bez-vad-u*
without-wire-GEN.PL.M
'wireless'
c. *starp-zvaigžņ-u*
between-star-GEN.PL.F
'interstellar'

All compound genitives in Latvian originate from noun phrases (in detail see Section 2.1.5, Table 2.9).

Synonymous noun phrases and compound genitives can function in parallel, e.g.:

- (2.1.40) a. *Pasākumā, kas notiek brīvā*
event.LOC.M which.NOM take_place.PRS.3 free.LOC.F
dabā, augstu papēžu kurpes
nature.LOC.F high.GEN.PL.M heel.GEN.PL.M shoe.NOM.PL.F
nebūs piemērotas.
not_be.FUT.3 appropriate.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
'High-heeled shoes will not be appropriate for an outdoor event.'
(www.mia.lv)
b. *Kā augstpapēžu kurpes*
how high-heel.GEN.PL.M shoe.NOM.PL.F
ietekmē veselību?
affect.PRS.3 health.ACC.F
'How do high-heeled shoes affect one's health?' (www.delfi.lv)

In Latvian, compound genitives can be used as base words for forming new nouns and adjectives (see Section 2.1.5, Tables 2.7 and 2.9, and Section 2.2.4, Table 2.13).

2.1.2 Gender

The category of noun gender captures the ways in which objects are differentiated based on their sex or animacy, or else reflects the formal arrangement of objects into genders manifested in noun endings (Skujina 2007: 100). Gender is thus a lexico-grammatical category, being at least to some degree tied to real-world denotations, i.e., to the animacy and sex of the objects denoted (Corbett 2005). Latvian has two genders – masculine and feminine – with separate inflectional (case and number) paradigms (see Table 2.3).

An interesting feature of noun gender in Latvian is that it shows semantic and formal asymmetry. On the one hand, almost all nouns signifying human beings, domestic animals, fowl, and some wild animals encode sex by various means (Ahero et al. 1959: 379–381; Veisbergs 1999: 49–50; Paegle 2003: 31–32; Kalnača 2008: 28–29):

1) roots in terms denoting kinship

(2.1.41) M

tēvs ‘father’, *dēls* ‘son’, *suns* ‘dog’, *kuilis* ‘boar’, *gailis* ‘rooster’

F

māte ‘mother’, *meita* ‘daughter’, *kuce* ‘bitch’, *cūka* ‘pig’, *vista* ‘hen’

2) endings in terms denoting professions and persons in general

(2.1.42) *dejojātājs* (M), *dejojātāja* (F) ‘dancer’

kontrolieris (M), *kontroliere* (F) ‘inspector’

3) the words *mother*, *father*, *lady*, *he*, or *she* for ladies of the house, mothers, farmers, owners, fathers, and male as well as female animals and birds:

(2.1.43) *Novadnieku māte* (F) ‘proprietress of Novadnieki, lady of Novadnieki’

Novadnieku tēvs (M) ‘owner of Novadnieki, farmer from Novadnieki’

vilku māte (F) ‘she-wolf’

aļņu mātīte (F) ‘cow (female moose)’

piļtēviņš (M) ‘drake’

Sex (and animacy) can also be encoded derivationally:

1) noun suffixes denoting wives, progenitresses, proprietresses

(2.1.44) *kalējs* – *kalēj-ien-e*/*kalēj-en-e* ‘blacksmith – blacksmith’s wife’

Oļiņš – *Oļiņ-iet-e* (a personal name)

lācis – *lāc-ien-e*/*lāc-en-e* ‘bear – she-bear’

kaķis – *kaķ-en-e* ‘tomcat – queen (female cat)’

stārķis – *stārķ-ien-e*/*stārķ-en-e* ‘stork – female stork’

2) noun suffixes used to refer to living things in the masculine regardless of their actual sex

(2.1.45) *brāl-ēn-s* ‘male cousin’, *tel-ēn-s* ‘calf’, *pel-ēn-s* ‘little mouse, young mouse’,

suņ-uk-s ‘little dog’, *lāč-uk-s* ‘bear (DIM)’, *meit-uk-s* ‘daughter (DIM)’,

māš-uk-s ‘sister (DIM)’

3) noun suffixes + endings used to refer to living things in both genders

(2.1.46) *veikal-niec-e* (F), *veikal-niek-s* (M) ‘shopkeeper’

alūksn-iet-e, *alūksn-iet-is* ‘inhabitant of the town of Alūksne’

gāj-ēj-a, *gāj-ēj-s* ‘pedestrian’

runā-tāj-a, *runā-tāj-s* ‘speaker’

gudr-ik-e, *gudr-ik-is* ‘smart person’

4) common gender noun suffixes in words that may be equally well used of males and females

(2.1.47) *snaud-āl-a* ‘sleepyhead’, *gul-av-a* ‘(keen) sleeper’, *dauz-on-a* ‘rowdy person’

On the other hand, there are many nouns representing inanimate entities and many types of animals, birds, and insects whose grammatical gender is a formal feature. In

such cases, the gender-specific ending or suffix only serves to specify the declension type (Kalnača 2000: 179–180; Kalnača 2008: 29), for example:

(2.1.48) M

med-us ‘honey’, *liel-um-s* ‘size’, *zvirbul-is* ‘sparrow’, *zut-is* ‘eel’,
dundur-s ‘gadfly’

F

saul-e ‘sun’, *vēlm-e* ‘desire’, *gudrīb-a* ‘wisdom’, *caun-a* ‘marten’,
karūs-a ‘crucian carp’, *blakt-s* ‘bug (entom.)’

Unlike the nouns in examples (2.1.41)–(2.1.46), these kinds of nouns lack natural gender, which perhaps explains why their grammatical gender, although standardized in Standard Latvian, may fluctuate in speech. For example, while the nouns *seja* ‘face’, *kļava* ‘maple’ are feminine in Standard Latvian, they sometimes occur in the masculine in colloquial speech and subdialects (*sejs*, *kļavs*). The gender of the word *sāls* ‘salt’ in the sense of ‘kitchen salt’ is problematic even in Standard Latvian. The current norm, which has existed since the mid 1980s, classes it as a masculine declension 2 noun (example (2.1.49a)) after the word *akmens* ‘stone’ and the like. Nevertheless, the formerly traditional feminine declension 6 paradigm is still widely applied instead (example (2.1.49b)):

(2.1.49) a. M

vārāmais sāls ‘kitchen salt’, *smalkais sāls* ‘fine salt’, *rupjais sāls* ‘coarse salt’

b. F

vārāmā sāls, *smalkā sāls*, *rupjā sāls*

Paegle (2003: 33) states that the word *sāls* ‘salt’ in the sense of ‘kitchen salt’ can be used in either gender. It should be noted that in colloquial speech and subdialects, a similar gender variation is also possible for other declension 6 words. For example, the following nouns are sometimes inflected as masculine in the plural:

(2.1.50) *ači* ‘eyes’, *uzači* ‘brows’, *uguņi* ‘lights’, *dzelži* ‘hardware’

(Standard Latvian all F PL – *acis*, *uzacis*, *ugunis*, *dzelzis*)

Another case in point are several widely-used feminine nouns denoting females which function with masculine endings alongside the feminine forms in colloquial Latvian (Ahero et al. 1959: 380; Smiltņiece 2002: 39–40):

(2.1.51) *sieviet-e* ‘woman’, *meiten-e* ‘girl’, *skuķ-e* ‘girl’ (all with F endings)

and

sieviēt-is, *meiten-is*, *skuķ-is* (all with M endings)

The words *sievišķ-is* ‘woman’ and *meitiet-is* ‘girl’, which only occur with the masculine ending in modern Latvian, can be added to this group of transposed gender nouns. As Wierzbicka (1996: 398) notes, the replacement of basic natural gender signals the speaker’s expressive attitude. Usually, nouns of the sort mentioned above are used by male speakers to indicate a negative or pejorative attitude. However, there are examples in classical Latvian literature of words like *sieviētis* ‘woman’, *meitenis* ‘girl’, *skuķis* ‘girl’ being used by speakers of both sexes to convey a positive or neutral attitude.

Also quite common in colloquial Latvian are diminutives which denote females but have masculine endings, being derived from feminine nouns by means of the diminutive suffixes *-uk-* and *-ēn-*, which normally require masculine endings: *-uk-s* / *-uc-is*, *-ēn-s* (see Section 2.1.5, Table 2.7). Unlike the words just mentioned, these diminutives always communicate a positive and friendly attitude, for example:

- (2.1.52) *meita* ‘daughter’ – *meit-uk-s*, *meit-uc-is*, *meit-ēn-s*
mamma ‘mummy’ – *mamm-uk-s*, *mamm-uc-is*
Ieva (a female name) – *Iev-uk-s*, *Iev-uc-is*, *Iev-ēn-s*
Ilze (a female name) – *Ilž-uk-s*, *Ilž-ēn-s*

In Standard Latvian, a verbal distinction is consistently made between males and females in nouns indicating jobs, professions, and occupations, which means that all such words can be used in either gender depending on the sex of the person involved, for example (examples (2.1.53) from Kalnača 2013a):

- (2.1.53) *skolotāj-a* (F), *skolotāj-s* (M) ‘teacher’
tulkotāj-a (F), *tulkotāj-s* (M) ‘translator’
viesmīl-e (F), *viesmīl-is* (M) ‘waitress, waiter’
šofer-e (F), *šofer-is* (M) ‘driver’
advokāt-e (F), *advokāt-s* (M) ‘lawyer’
notār-e (F), *notār-s* (M) ‘notary’
ārst-e (F), *ārst-s* (M) ‘doctor’
stomatoloģ-e (F), *stomatolog-s* (M) ‘dentist’
kardioloģ-e (F), *kardiolog-s* (M) ‘cardiologist’
bibliotekār-e (F), *bibliotekār-s* (M) ‘librarian’
baletmeistar-e (F), *baletmeistar-s* (M) ‘ballet master’
profesor-e (F), *profesor-s* (M) ‘professor’
prezident-e (F), *prezident-s* (M) ‘president’

When referring to women, names of professions, occupations, etc. are always feminine, e.g.:

- (2.1.54) *zvērināt-a notār-e* (F) *Ilga Kociņa* (F) ‘notary public Ilga Kociņa’
dzejnīec-e (F) *Liene Paeglīte* (F) ‘poetess Liene Paeglīte’

The same holds true for surnames, which must be concordant with the sex of the referent:

- (2.1.55) *Iev-a Straut-a* (F) (≠ *Strauts*)
Jān-is Straut-s (M)
Ilz-e Vīlk-a (F) (≠ *Vīlks*)
Ivar-s Vīlk-s (M)
Aij-a Lāc-e (F) (≠ *Lācis*)
Ojār-s Lāc-is (M)

Indeclinable common nouns are normally masculine in Latvian:

- (2.1.56) *auto* ‘automobile’, *neto* ‘net (value etc.)’, *veto* ‘veto’, *protežē* ‘protégé’

The gender of indeclinable proper nouns, on the contrary, depends on the gender attributed to the object denoted and is determinable from context; rivers, cities, countries, islands are, therefore, feminine (2.1.57), while lakes, mountains and villages are masculine (2.1.58):

(2.1.57) F

Taho (upe) ‘Tajo (river)’, *Toledo (pilsēta)* ‘Toledo (city)’, *Kongo (valsts)* ‘Congo (country)’, *Kihnu (sala)* ‘Kihnu (island)’

(2.1.58) M

Ā (ezers) ‘Aasee (lake)’, *Kilimandžāro (kalns)* ‘Kilimanjaro (mountain)’, *Sanildefonso (ciems)* ‘San Ildefonso (town)’

The gender of indeclinable personal names depends on the sex of the person referred to and is usually made clear by a declinable name in case of indeclinable surnames (2.1.59) or vice versa (2.1.60):

(2.1.59) *Aino Kalniņ-a* (F) (indeclinable name, declinable surname)

Ivo Liepiņ-š (M)

(2.1.60) *Lien-e Megi* (F) (declinable name, indeclinable surname)

Kārl-is Megi (M)

Nouns of common gender (*substantiva communia*), while having feminine endings, can be applied to females and males alike and are usually used to point to certain qualities or perceived actions of the persons involved (Smiltnece 2013: 333–335), for example:

(2.1.61) *auša* ‘feather brain’, *tiepša* ‘stubborn person’, *plukata* ‘shabby person’, *nejēga* ‘halfwit’, *bezkauna* ‘impudent person’

More often than not common gender nouns express a greater or lesser degree of disdain, some even qualify as swear words (examples (2.1.62a)) and only a few are neutral (examples (2.1.62b)):

(2.1.62) a. *muldoņa* ‘twaddler’, *plikadīda* ‘pauper’, *aitasgalva* ‘blockhead’, *salašņa* ‘ragtag’

b. *paziņa* ‘acquaintance’, *persona* ‘person’, *slavenība* ‘celebrity’, *ekselence* ‘excellency’, *majestāte* ‘majesty’

The gender of common gender nouns thus depends on the sex of the person denoted and is determinable from context, which serves as the actual marker of gender in such cases instead of noun endings:

(2.1.63) M

a.	<i>Mans</i>	<i>divus</i>	<i>mēnešus</i>	<i>vecais</i>
	my.NOM.M	two.ACC.PL.M	month.ACC.PL.M	old.NOM.M
	<i>mazulis</i>	<i>ir</i>	<i>liels</i>	<i>gulava.</i>
	baby.NOM.M	be.COP.PRS.3	big.NOM.M	sleeper.NOM.M

‘My two months old baby is a keen sleeper.’ (www.mammamunteti.lv)

- b. *Mans* *labs* *paziņa* *nesen*
my.NOM.M **good.NOM.M** **acquaintance.NOM.M** recently
dabūja *darbu.*
 get.PST.3 job.ACC.M
 ‘A close acquaintance of mine just got a job.’ (Ir)

(2.1.64) F

- a. *Es* *esmu* *lielākā* *guļava*
 I.NOM be.COP.PRS.1 **big.CMP.NOM.F** **sleeper.NOM.F**
mūsu *mājās.*
 our.GEN.PL.F home.LOC.PL.F
 ‘I am the keenest sleeper in our home.’ (www.veseliba.lv)
- b. *Draudzene* (*drizāk* *laba* *paziņa*)
 friend.NOM.F (rather **good.NOM.F** **acquaintance.NOM.F**)
strādā *veikalā.*
 work.PRS.3 shop.LOC.M
 ‘A friend (or rather a close acquaintance) of mine works at a shop.’
 (www.delfi.lv)

There is another group of nouns in Latvian, the so-called false common gender nouns, which can be classed with common gender nouns proper. These words are feminine in their neutral primary meaning and denote natural phenomena, animals, objects, etc.:

- (2.1.65) a. *saule* ‘sun’, *zvaigzne* ‘star’, *galva* ‘head’
 b. *lupata* ‘rag’, *cūka* ‘pig, swine’, *maita* ‘bastard’

When applied to a person, however, they function as common gender nouns, which can be neutral (example (2.1.66)), colloquial, or even vulgar (examples (2.1.67)):

(2.1.66) *zvaigzne* ‘star’

- a. M
Futbola *zvaigzne,* *Madrides* “*Atletico*” *pussargs*
 football.GEN.M **star.NOM.M** Madrid.GEN.F Atlético midfielder.NOM.M
dusmās *met* *tiesnesim* *ar* *zābaku.*
 anger.LOC.PL.F throw.PRS.3 referee.DAT.M with boot.INS.M
 ‘A soccer star, Atlético Madrid’s midfielder, throws his boot at the referee in anger.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- b. F
Sportistus *trenē* *vācu* *kamaniņu*
 athlete.ACC.PL.M coach.PRS.3 German.GEN.PL.M luge.GEN.PL.F
sporta *zvaigzne* *un* *vairākkārtējā* *pasaules*
 sport.GEN.M **star.NOM.F** and repeat.NOM.F world.GEN.F
čempione.
 champion.NOM.F
 ‘The athletes are coached by a German luge star and repeat world champion.’ (www.delfi.lv)

(2.1.67) *cūka* ‘pig, swine’, *maita* ‘bastard’

a. M

Tavs draugs ir liels
your.NOM.SG.M friend.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.2 big.NOM.M

cūka!

swine.NOM.M

‘Your friend is a real swine!’ (www.draugiem.lv)

b. F

Kolēģes ir maitas un
colleague.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 **bastard.NOM.PL.F** and
vāditāja pamatīga cūka!

manager.NOM.F total.NOM.F **swine.NOM.F**

‘My colleagues are bastards and the manager is a total swine!’ (CW)

Hence, gender markers and their functions in language are in part a formal feature and in part directly depend on the animacy and the social position of the respective male or female. This duality of gender is described amply in grammar books, as it holds for the majority of languages (for example, Ahero et al. 1959: 379–381; Paegle 2003: 31–33; Corbett 2005).

2.1.3 Number

The category of number as applied to nouns is a lexico-grammatical category which expresses count or quantity distinctions between objects or else reflects a formal arrangement of objects manifested in noun endings. In modern Latvian, the category of number comprises two forms – the singular and the plural (Skujiņa 2007: 362), with separate paradigms for case and gender. Isolated examples of the dual can still be found in subdialects and imaginative literature (e.g., *abi roki* ‘both arms’).

The category of number is thus based on the opposition between *one* and *many*. Since the concept of *many* subsumes the concept of *two* in modern Latvian, a number of former dual-only nouns that denote bipartite objects have become plural-only (pluralia tantum), e.g.:

(2.1.68) *šķēres* ‘scissors’, *dzirnavas* ‘mill’, *kamanas* ‘sled’, *vārti* ‘gate’, *durvis* ‘door’

Although the category of number is closely linked with real-world denotations, the link is more abstract than in case of gender. Many objects are not readily classifiable based on the *one* vs. *many* criterion:

1) uncountable nouns which have forms corresponding to both numbers

(2.1.69) *asins* – *asinis* ‘blood’

debess – *debesis* ‘sky’

māls – *māli* ‘clay’

smilts – *smiltis* ‘sand’

- 2) nouns whose singular and plural forms in certain contexts may represent different lexemes:

- (2.1.70) *svars* – *svari* ‘weight – scale’
gods – *godī* ‘honor – feast’
laiks – *laiki* ‘time – age, times’
zāle – *zāles* ‘grass – medicine’

Nouns ending in *-ums* often denote a generalized quality in the singular and a concretized object in the plural:

- (2.1.71) a. *saldums* (*medus saldums*) – *saldumi*
‘sweetness (the sweetness of honey) – sweets’
b. *zaļums* (*zāles zaļums*) – *zaļumi*
‘greenness (the greenness of grass) – herbs and leaf vegetables (dill, spring onions, parsley, celery, etc.)’
- 3) The grammatical number of nouns which are normally used in just one of the numbers, provided that count and quantity are irrelevant to their lexical meaning, is determined as follows:
- a) singular-only nouns
- (2.1.72) a. **names of substances**
ledus ‘ice’, *stikls* ‘glass’, *žults* ‘bile’, *skābeklis* ‘oxygen’, *ūdeņradis* ‘hydrogen’, *cukurs* ‘sugar’, *piens* ‘milk’, *krējums* ‘(sour, double, etc.) cream’, *malka* ‘firewood’
b. **abstract concepts** (derivatives formed by means of various suffixes or endings)
-īb-a (*sirsība* ‘cordiality’, *veselība* ‘health’, *noteiktība* ‘definiteness, certainty’, *dzīvība* ‘life’)
-um-s (*lepnums* ‘pride’, *skaistums* ‘beauty’, *nogurums* ‘tiredness, fatigue’)
-šan-a (*gaidīšana* ‘waiting’, *raudāšana* ‘crying’, *veikšana* ‘carrying out, fulfilling’)
-oņ-a (*dunoņa* ‘droning’, *riboņa* ‘rumble’, *kaukoņa* ‘howling’)
-atn-e, *-otn-e*, *-tn-e* (*jaunatne* ‘youth’, *mazotne* ‘infancy’, *pagātne* ‘past’)
-a (*griba* ‘will’, *cieņa* ‘respect’, *sēja* ‘sowing’)
-e (*laime* ‘happiness’, *smeldze* ‘slight pain, yearning’, *kvēle* ‘glow, fervor’)
c. **aggregates of objects, phenomena, and beings**
cilvēce ‘mankind’, *kūla* ‘last year’s grass’, *zelmenis* ‘stand of grass’, *āboliņš* ‘clover’, *kukurūza* ‘corn’, *nauda* ‘money’
d. **proper nouns (including personal names)**
the four traditional regions of Latvia: *Kurzeme* ‘Kurzeme’, *Zemgale* ‘Zemgale’, *Vidzeme* ‘Vidzeme’, *Latgale* ‘Latgale’,
Latvija ‘Latvia’, *Lietuva* ‘Lithuania’, *Igaunija* ‘Estonia’, *Gauja* ‘Gauja (a river)’, *Daugava* ‘Daugava (a river)’
Ieva, *Ilze* (female names), *Viesturs*, *Kaspars* (male names)

e. **natural phenomena, celestial bodies**

tveice ‘heat’, *kvēle* ‘glow, fervor’, *lietus* ‘rain’, *sniegs* ‘snow’, *tumsa* ‘darkness’, *gaisma* ‘light’, *saule* ‘sun’, *mēness* ‘moon’, *Venēra* ‘Venus’, *Marss* ‘Mars’

b) plural-only nouns

(2.1.73) a. **old bipartites**

durvis ‘door’, *vārti* ‘gate’, *dzirnavas* ‘mill’, *ragavas* ‘sled’, *šķēres* ‘scissors’, *bikses* ‘trousers’, *smadzenes* ‘brain’

b. **objects, substances consisting of particles**

milti ‘flour’, *tauki* ‘fat, grease’, *putraimi* ‘cereal’, *dublī* ‘mud’, *gļotas* ‘mucus’, *putas* ‘foam’, *dūmi* ‘smoke’

c. **plants growing in tufts, shrubs, or bushes, grain**

ceriņi ‘lilac’, *virši* ‘heather’, *dilles* ‘dill’, *lini* ‘flax’, *rudzi* ‘rye’, *kvieši* ‘wheat’, *mieži* ‘barley’, *auzas* ‘oats’

d. **aggregates of persons**

ļaudis ‘people’, *vecāki* ‘parents’, *piederīgie* ‘relatives, members of an organization’, *tuvinieki* ‘close ones’, *jaunlaulātie* ‘newlyweds’

e. **abstract concepts**

šaubas ‘doubt’, *briesmas* ‘danger’, *bailes* ‘fear’, *beigas* ‘end’, *jūtas* ‘feelings’, *sāpes* ‘pain’

f. **meals and festivals**

brokastis ‘breakfast’, *pusdienas* ‘dinner (Br.), lunch (Amer.)’, *vakariņas* ‘supper (Br.), dinner (Amer.)’, *svētki* ‘holiday, festival’, *kāzas* ‘wedding’, *bēres* ‘funeral’, *kristības* ‘baptism’, *Jāņi* ‘Jāņi (Midsummer’s Day)’, *Mārtiņi* ‘Mārtiņi (similar to Martinmas)’

g. **diseases and physiological processes**

iesnas ‘cold (illness)’, *vējbakas* ‘chickenpox’, *masalas* ‘measles’, *žagas* ‘hiccup’, *šķavas* ‘sneeze’, *žāvas* ‘yawn’

h. **names of geographical locations**

Cēsis, *Talsi*, *Ainaži* (towns), *Pireneji* ‘Pyrenees’, *Helsinki* ‘Helsinki’

2.1.4 Case

Case is a grammatical category of nouns which expresses relations between objects, processes, and features (Skujiņa 2007: 222). Case forms reflect the semantic and syntactic functions that nouns perform in phrases and sentences. In Latvian, case is usually encoded by means of endings.

All Latvian cases, with the exception of the vocative case, can carry different meanings depending on context, the category of case is therefore a morphosyntactic phenomenon. The basic functions of the cases are listed below.

NOMINATIVE

- 1) semantic subject – the role of agent (2.1.74) or experiencer (2.1.75) aligned with the syntactic function of subject; statements of fact in nominal predicates (2.1.76)

(2.1.74) a. *Es rakstu vēstuli.*

I.NOM write.PRS.1SG letter.ACC.F

‘I am writing a letter.’

b. *Suns rej.*

dog.NOM.M bark.PRS.3

‘The dog is barking.’

c. *Es esmu noguris.*

I.NOM be.AUX.PRS.1SG tired.PTCP.NOM.M

‘I am tired.’

(2.1.75) a. *Bērns ir aizmidzis.*

child.NOM.M be.AUX.PRS.3 asleep.PTCP.NOM.M

‘The child is asleep.’

b. *Es esmu skolotājs.*

I.NOM be.COP.PRS.1SG teacher.NOM.M

‘I am a teacher.’

(2.1.76) a. *Tas ir mans divritenis.*

that.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 my.NOM.M **bicycle.NOM.M**

‘That is my bicycle.’

b. *Lieldienas ir pavasara svētki.*

Easter.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 spring.GEN.M **festival.NOM.PL.M**

‘Easter is a spring festival.’

- 2) semantic object – a patient or undergoer of an action (2.1.77)

(2.1.77) a. *Sienas tiek krāsotas.*

wall.NOM.PL.F get.AUX.PRS.3 paint.PTCP.NOM.F

‘The walls are being painted.’

b. *Sienas ir krāsotas.*

wall.NOM.PL.F be.AUX.PRS.3 paint.PTCP.NOM.F

‘The walls are painted.’

c. *Man ir jākrāso sienas.*

I.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.paint **walls.ACC.PL.F**

‘I have to paint the walls.’

d. *Man niez roka.*

I.DAT. itch.PRS.3 **arm.NOM.F**

‘My arm is itching.’

- 3) vocative function – when a noun in the nominative case is used as a vocative (some declension 1, 4 and 5 nouns in the singular (2.1.78a–c) and nouns of all declensions in the plural (2.1.78d–f))

- (2.1.78) a. *Nebaidies, bērns!*
not_fear.IMP.2SG **child.NOM.M**
'Don't be afraid, child!' (CW)
- b. *Anda, lūdzu, izbeidz!*
Anda.NOM.F please.PRS.1SG stop.IMP.2SG
'Anda, please, stop!' (CW)
- c. *Meitene, ak, meitene!*
girl.NOM.F oh **girl.NOM.F**
'Girl, oh, girl!' (C)
- d. *Nāciet šurp, bērniņi!*
come.IMP.2PL to_here **child.NOM.PL.M**
'Come here, kids!' (C)
- e. *Mīļās māmīņas! Jūs tiekat
laipni aicinātas uz Mātes dienai
veltišu koncertu!*
dear.NOM.PL.F **mummy.NOM.PL.F** you.NOM.PL.F get.AUX.PRS.2PL
kindly invite.PTCP.NOM.F to Mother.GEN.F day.DAT.F
dedicate.PTCP.ACC.M concert.ACC.M
'Dear mummies! You are cordially invited to the Mother's Day concert!'
(www.draugiem.lv)
- f. *Mīļās māmuliņas, jūsu bērns
vēl ir mazs!*
dear.NOM.PL.F **mummy.NOM.PL.F** your.GEN.PL.F child.NOM.M
still be.COP.PRS.3 small.NOM.M
'Dear mummies, your child is still small!' (www.delfi.lv)

GENITIVE

1. Syntactically dependent on a noun or adjective
 - 1) possession, attribution

- (2.1.79) a. *ēkas jumts*
building.GEN.F roof.NOM.M
'the roof of a building'
- b. *brāļa istaba*
brother.GEN.M room.NOM.F
'brother's room'
- c. *priežu zari*
pine.GEN.PL.F branch.NOM.PL.M
'pine branches'
- d. *pērkona lietus*
thunder.GEN.M rain.NOM.M
'thunder shower'

2) quality, feature

- (2.1.80) a. *prāta* *cilvēks*
 brain.GEN.M man.NOM.M
 ‘a man of reason’
- b. *rudens* *āboli*
 autumn.GEN.M apple.NOM.PL.M
 ‘autumn apples’
- c. *maza* *auguma* *meitene*
 small.GEN.M height.GEN.M girl.NOM.F
 ‘a girl small in height’
- d. *smalka* *vērpuma* *dzija*
 fine.GEN.M spin.GEN.M yarn.NOM.F
 ‘finely spun yarn’
- e. *naudas* *kārs*
 money.GEN.F hungry.NOM.M
 ‘hungry for money’
- f. *laimes* *pilns*
 happiness.GEN.F full.NOM.M
 ‘full of happiness’
- g. *medus* *salds*
 honey.GEN.M sweet.NOM.M
 ‘honey-sweet’

3) substance

- (2.1.81) a. *māla* *svečturis*
 clay.GEN.M candlestick.NOM.M
 ‘earthenware candlestick’
- b. *rudzu* *milti*
 rye.GEN.PL.M flour.NOM.PL.M
 ‘rye flour’
- c. *koka* *mēbeles*
 wood.GEN.M furniture.NOM.PL.F
 ‘wooden furniture’
- d. *zelta* *gredzens*
 gold.GEN.M ring.NOM.M
 ‘gold ring’

4) application, purpose or contents

- (2.1.82) a. *augļu* *trauks*
 fruit.GEN.PL.M bowl.NOM.M
 ‘fruit bowl’
- b. *tējas* *krūze*
 tea.GEN.PL.F mug.NOM.F
 ‘tea mug’

- c. *volejbola* *bumba*
volleyball.GEN.M ball.NOM.F
'volleyball (count.)'

5) subject genitive

- (2.1.83) a. *lietus* *šalkoņa*
rain.GEN.M patter.NOM.F
'the patter of rain'
- b. *putnu* *klaigas*
bird.GEN.PL.M cry.NOM.PL.F
'cries of birds'
- c. *mātes* *laime*
mother.GEN.F happiness.NOM.F
'mother's happiness'

6) object genitive

- (2.1.84) a. *grāmatas* *lasīšana*
book.GEN.F reading.NOM.F
'book reading'
- b. *zemes* *rakšana*
earth.GEN.F digging.NOM.F
'earth digging'
- c. *dārza* *laistītājs*
garden.GEN.M sprinkler.NOM.M
'garden sprinkler'

7) appositive genitive

- (2.1.85) a. *Novadnieku* *ģimene*
Novadnieki.GEN.PL.M family.NOM.F
'a family from Novadnieki'
- b. *Ratnieku* *mājas*
Ratnieki.GEN.PL.M house.NOM.PL.F
'Ratnieki house'
- c. *Mieriņa* *kungs*
Mieriņš.GEN.M gentleman.NOM.M
'Mr. Mieriņš'
- d. *Mieriņas* *kundze*
Mieriņš.GEN.F lady.NOM.F
'Mrs. Mieriņa'
- e. *Kronvalda* *Atis*
Kronvalds.GEN.M Atis.NOM.M
'Atis Kronvalds (a male name)'
- f. *Baumaņu* *Kārlis*
Baumanis.GEN.M Kārlis.NOM.M
'Kārlis Baumanis (a male name)'

8) partitive genitive, which can be syntactically dependent not only on nouns (2.1.86), but also on numerals (*desmit* ‘ten’, *simt* ‘hundred’, *tūkstoš* ‘thousand’, and other numerals denoting tens, hundreds, and thousands) (2.1.87) and adverbs (*daudz* ‘much, a lot’, *maz* ‘few, little’, *vairāk* ‘more’, *mazliet* ‘a little’, *nedaudz* ‘some’, *drusku* ‘a bit of’, etc.) (2.1.88):

- (2.1.86) a. *glāze sulas*
 glass.NOM.F juice.GEN.F
 ‘a glass of juice’
 b. *kaste ābolu*
 box.NOM.F apple.GEN.PL.M
 ‘a box of apples’
 c. *kilograms kartupeļu*
 kilogram.NOM.M potato.GEN.PL.M
 ‘a kilogram of potatoes’

- (2.1.87) a. *desmit dienu*
 ten day.GEN.PL.F
 ‘ten days’
 b. *simt gadu*
 hundred year.GEN.PL.M
 ‘a hundred years’
 c. *tūkstoš ļaužu*
 thousand people.GEN.PL.M
 ‘a thousand people’

- (2.1.88) a. *daudz sniega*
 much snow.GEN.M
 ‘a lot of snow’
 b. *maz naudas*
 little money.GEN.F
 ‘little money’
 c. *žēl vasaras*
 pity summer.GEN.F
 ‘expressing unwillingness to let the summer slip away or being sorry that the summer has ended’
 d. *gana labumu*
 enough benefit.GEN.PL.M
 ‘enough benefits’
 e. *vairāk līdzekļu*
 more fund.GEN.PL.M
 ‘more resources, funds’

Apart from the partitive genitive, it is unusual in Latvian for attributes to appear in the post-head position, i.e., following a head noun (more on this see Section 3.4 in

Syntax). Thus, there are both semantic and syntactic differences between the genitive of content (2.1.89) and partitive genitive (2.1.90) in Latvian:

- (2.1.89) a. *kafijas tase*
 coffee.GEN.F cup.NOM.F
 ‘coffee cup’
 b. *sulas glāze*
 juice.GEN.F glass NOM.F
 ‘juice glass’ (i.e., tableware used for certain types of liquid)
 c. *kartupeļu maiss*
 potato.GEN.PL.M sack.NOM.M
 ‘potato sack’ (a special type of sack made of a coarse fabric and used for storing potatoes)
- (2.1.90) a. *tase kafijas*
 cup.NOM.F coffee.GEN.F
 ‘cup of coffee’
 b. *glāze sulas*
 glass NOM.F juice.GEN.F
 ‘glass of juice’
 c. *maiss kartupeļu*
 sack.NOM.M potato.GEN.PL.M
 ‘sack of potatoes’ (i.e., a specific amount)

2. Syntactically dependent on a verb (see also Sections 3.2.6 and 3.2.7)

1) negative subject of a sentence

- (2.1.91) a. *nav laika*
 not_be.PRS.3 time.GEN.M
 ‘(there is) no time’
 b. *nav sniega*
 not_be.PRS.3 snow.GEN.M
 ‘(there is) no snow’
 c. *nav vēlēšanās*
 not_be.PRS.3 wish.GEN.F
 ‘(one has) no wish’

Also with certain verbs such as *trūkt* ‘to lack’, *pietikt* ‘to suffice, have/be enough’, *nepietikt* ‘to be short of’:

- (2.1.92) a. *trūkst laika*
 lack.PRS.3 time.GEN.M
 ‘(one) lacks time’
 b. *pietiek mēbeļu*
 be_enough.PRS.3 furniture.GEN.PL.F
 ‘(there is) enough furniture’
 c. *nepietiek naudas*
 not_be_enough.PRS.3 money.GEN.F
 ‘(one is) short of money’

2) direct object in verbal negation (2.1.93), although accusatives are more common in such cases in modern Latvian (2.1.94):

- (2.1.93) a. *nepazīt cilvēka*
 not_know.INF person.GEN.M
 ‘not to know the person’
 b. *nerakstīt vēstuli*
 not_write.INF letter.GEN.PL.F
 ‘not to write letters’
 c. *nezināt vārda*
 not_know.INF word.GEN.M
 ‘not to know the word / name’

- (2.1.94) a. *nepazīt cilvēku*
 not_know.INF person.ACC.M
 b. *nerakstīt vēstules*
 not_write.INF letter.ACC.PL.F
 c. *nezināt vārdu*
 not_know.INF word.ACC.M
 ‘not to know the word / name’

3) goal or objective with verbs like *lūgt* ‘to ask’, *alkt* ‘to desire’, *kārot* ‘to crave’, *ilgoties* ‘to long, yearn’, *vajadzēt* ‘to need’, etc. (2.1.95), although prepositional phrases with *pēc* ‘after, for’ (2.1.96) and accusatives (2.1.97) are more common in modern Latvian:

- (2.1.95) a. *kārot svaigu zivju*
 crave.INF fresh.GEN.PL.F fish.GEN.PL.F
 ‘to crave fresh fish’
 b. *lūgt padoma*
 ask.INF advice.GEN.M
 ‘to ask for advice’
 c. *ilgoties vasaras*
 long.INF summer.GEN.F
 ‘to long for summer’
 d. *vajadzēt naudas*
 need.INF money.GEN.F
 ‘to need money’

- (2.1.96) a. *kārot pēc svaigām zivīm*
 crave.INF for fresh.DAT.PL.F fish.DAT.PL.F
 ‘to crave fresh fish’
 b. *lūgt pēc padoma*
 ask.INF for advice.GEN.M
 ‘to ask for advice’
 c. *ilgoties pēc vasaras*
 long.INF for summer.GEN.F
 ‘to long for summer’

- (2.1.97) a. *kārot* *svaigas* *zivis*
 crave.INF fresh.ACC.PL.F fish.ACC.PL.F
 ‘to crave fresh fish’
- b. *lūgt* *padomu*
 ask.INF advice.ACC.M
 ‘to ask for advice’
- c. *vajadzēt* *naudu*
 need.INF money.ACC.F
 ‘to need money’

4) ablative meaning, i.e., the meaning of moving away from something, with certain verbs such as *bēgt* ‘to shun, flee’, *bīties* ‘to dread, try to avoid’, *baidīties* ‘to fear’, *sargāties* ‘to beware, watch out’, etc. (2.1.98); however, prepositional phrases with *no* ‘from, of’ are more common (2.1.99):

- (2.1.98) a. *sargies* *vilciena!*
 beware.IMP.SG.2 train.GEN.M
 ‘beware of the train!’
- b. *bēgt* *laimes*
 shun.INF happiness.GEN.F
 ‘to shun happiness’
- c. *bīties* *soda*
 dread.INF punishment.GEN.M
 ‘to dread punishment’
- (2.1.99) a. *sargies* **no** *vilciena!*
 beware.IMP.SG.2 **of** train.GEN.M
 ‘beware of the train!’
- b. *bēgt* **no** *laimes*
 shun.INF **from** happiness.GEN.F
 ‘to shun happiness’
- c. *bīties* **no** *soda*
 dread.INF **of** punishment.GEN.M
 ‘to dread punishment’

5) partitive meaning, i.e., indicating a certain part of the whole, with a number of verbs such as *gribēt* ‘to want’, *dzert* ‘to drink’, *ēst* ‘to eat’, etc. (2.1.100); however, accusatives (2.1.101) and also genitives preceded by adverbs of degree denoting small quantities, e.g., *mazliet* ‘a little’, *nedaudz* ‘some’, *drusku* ‘a bit of’ (2.1.102) are more common in modern Latvian.

- (2.1.100) a. *gribēt* *maizes*
 want.INF bread.GEN.F
 ‘to want some bread’ (a little, a certain amount)
- b. *dzert* *piena*
 drink.INF milk.GEN.M
 ‘to drink some milk’ (a certain amount)

- c. *ēst gaļas*
eat.INF meat.GEN.F
'to eat some meat' (a certain amount)
- (2.1.101) a. *gribēt maizi*
want.INF bread.ACC.F
'to want some bread' (a little, a certain amount)
- b. *dzert pienu*
drink.INF milk.ACC.M
'to drink some milk' (a certain amount)
- c. *ēst gaļu*
eat.INF meat.ACC.F
'to eat some meat' (a certain amount)
- (2.1.102) a. *gribēt mazliet maizes*
want.INF little bread GEN.F
'to want a little bread'
- b. *dzert nedaudz piena*
drink.INF little milk.GEN.M
'to drink a little milk'
- c. *ēst drusku gaļas*
eat.INF little meat.GEN.F
'to eat a bit of meat'

DATIVE (syntactically dependent on a verb)

- 1) semantic object – the recipient of an action (2.1.103); the goal or purpose of an action (2.1.104); the indirect object relative to a direct object in the accusative (2.1.105);
- (2.1.103) a. *jautāt tēvam*
ask.INF father.DAT.M
'to ask father'
- b. *palīdzēt kaimiņiem*
help.INF neighbor.DAT.PL.M
'to help the neighbors'
- (2.1.104) a. *kalpot dzimtenei*
serve.INF fatherland.DAT.F
'to serve one's country'
- b. *kaitēt zobiem*
be_bad.INF tooth.DAT.PL.M
'to be bad for one's teeth'
- (2.1.105) a. *dot grāmatu mātei*
give.INF book.ACC.F mother.DAT.F
'to give mother a book'

b. *pirkt pārtiku pusdienām*
 buy.INF food.ACC.F lunch.DAT.F
 ‘to buy food for lunch’

2) semantic subject – usually in the debitive mood

(2.1.106) a. *tev ir jāpērk jauns rakstāmgalds*
 you.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.buy new desk.NOM.M
 ‘you have to buy a new desk’

b. *mums ir jāiet uz operu*
 we.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.go to opera.ACC.F
 ‘we have to go to the opera’

3) possessor, owner of something

(2.1.107) a. *mums ir laiks*
 we.DAT be.PRS.3 time.NOM.M
 ‘we have time’

b. *mums nav laika*
 we.DAT not_be.PRS.3 time.GEN.M
 ‘we do not have (the) time’

c. *maniem radniekiem ir māja*
 my.DAT.PL.M relative.DAT.PL.M be.PRS.3 house.NOM.F
 ‘my relatives have a house’

4) experiencer

(2.1.108) a. *man ir karsti*
 I.DAT be.COP.PRS.3 hot
 ‘I feel hot’

b. *man salst*
 I.DAT freeze.PRS.3
 ‘I am cold’

c. *man smeldz zobi*
 I.DAT ache.PRS.3 tooth.NOM.PL.M
 ‘my teeth are aching’

Adnominal dative:

1) next to an adjective

(2.1.109) a. *līdzīgs tēvam*
 resembling.NOM.M father.DAT.M
 ‘resembling (one’s) father’

b. *lojāls bankai*
 loyal.NOM.M bank.DAT.F
 ‘loyal to the bank’

2) next to a noun (usually a denominal (2.1.110a-b) or deverbal (2.1.110c-d) one)

- (2.1.110) a. *līdzība* *tēvam*
 resemblance.NOM.F father.DAT.M
 ‘resemblance to (one’s) father’
- b. *lojalitāte* *bankai*
 loyalty.NOM.F bank.DAT.F
 ‘loyalty towards the bank’
- c. *jautājums* *ikvienam*
 question.NOM.M everyone.DAT.M
 ‘a question for everyone’
- d. *palīdzība* *jaunajām* *ģimenēm*
 help.NOM.F young.DAT.PL.F family.DAT.PL.F
 ‘help for young families’

ACCUSATIVE (syntactically dependent on a verb)

1) semantic object – direct object next to a verb

- (2.1.111) a. *gatavot* *brokastis*
 prepare.INF breakfast.ACC.PL.F
 ‘to prepare breakfast’
- b. *ravēt* *dārzū*
 weed.INF garden.ACC.M
 ‘to weed the garden’
- c. *krāsot* *sienu*
 paint.INF wall.ACC.F
 ‘to paint a wall’

2) time

- (2.1.112) a. *gaidīt* *divus* *mēnešus*
 wait.INF two.ACC.PL.M month.ACC.PL.M
 ‘to wait for two months’
- b. *negulēt* *nakti*
 not_sleep.INF night.ACC.F
 ‘to have a sleepless night’
- c. *strādāt* *visu* *dienu*
 work.INF all.ACC.F day.ACC.F
 ‘to work all day long’

3) location (direction)

- (2.1.113) a. *nākt* *tālu* *ceļu*
 come.INF long.ACC.M way.ACC.M
 ‘to come a long way’
- b. *staigāt* *senas* *takas*
 walk.INF ancient.ACC.PL.F path.ACC.PL.F
 ‘to walk ancient paths’

Adnominal accusative

- (2.1.114) a. *metru garš lasis*
 meter.ACC.M long.NOM.M salmon.NOM.M
 ‘a meter-long salmon’
 b. *nedēļu vecs kaķēns*
 week.ACC.F old.NOM.M kitten.NOM.M
 ‘a one-week old kitten’
 c. *pusgadu ilgs atvaļinājums*
 half-year.ACC.M long.NOM.M holidays.NOM.M
 ‘half-year long holidays’

Nouns in the accusative case can serve as terms of address when used in vocative function (declension 1 and 4 nouns in the singular, mainly in colloquial speech – examples (2.1.115)) and also appear in phrases of address and different kinds of exclamations (examples (2.1.116)–(2.1.117)):

- (2.1.115) a. *Klāvu!* (a male name), *Aiju!* (a female name), *mammu!* ‘mum!’
 b. *Mammu, kur mums stāv*
 mother.ACC.F where we.DAT stand.PRS.3
putekļsūcējs?
 vacuum_cleaner.NOM.M
 ‘Mum, where do we keep the vacuum cleaner?’ (Ieva)
 c. *Mammu, vai vēl ilgi?*
 mother.ACC.F Q still long
 ‘Mum, how much longer now?’ (CW)
- (2.1.116) a. *Tavu brīnumu!*
 your.ACC.M miracle.ACC.M
 ‘What a miracle!’
 b. *Tavu gudru cilvēku!*
 your.ACC.M smart.ACC.M person.ACC.M
 ‘There’s a smart person!’
 c. *Tavu laimi!*
 your.ACC.F luck.NOM.F
 ‘Such luck!’
- (2.1.117) a. *Vai manu dieniņu, vai manu mūžiņu!*
 oh my.ACC.F day.ACC.F oh my.ACC.F life.ACC.F
 ‘Dear me!’ (J. Janševskis)
 b. *Tavu miegu, kāds tam cilvēkam!*
 your.ACC.M sleep.ACC.M what_kind this.DAT.M man.DAT.M
 ‘That’s some sleep that this man has!’ (J. Janševskis)
 c. *Tavu stulbu cilvēku!*
 your.ACC.M silly.ACC.M person.ACC.M
 ‘What a silly person!’ (G. Janovskis)

INSTRUMENTAL (syntactically dependent on a verb)

In modern Latvian, the instrumental case often occurs in conjunction with the preposition *ar* ‘with’ (see examples (2.1.121c–e), (2.1.122c), (2.1.123b–c), (2.1.126)), especially when expressing means by or with which something is accomplished or when used with a comitative meaning.

The older synthetic form without the preposition is, however, also widespread:

- (2.1.118) a. *iet cepuri galvā, mētelī uz rokas*
go.INF hat.INS.F head.LOC.F coat.INS.M on arm.GEN.F
‘to walk with a hat on one’s head, a coat over one’s arm’
- b. *iet kājām*
go.INF foot.INS.PL.F
‘to go on foot’
- c. *zēns gaišiem matiem*
boy.NOM.M light.INS.PL.M hair.INS.PL.M
‘a fair-haired boy’
- eglēm apaudzis pagalmā*
fir.tree.INS.PL.F be_overgrown.PTCP.NOM.M yard.NOM.M
‘a yard overgrown with fir trees’

Here are some recent examples from news media and contemporary literary texts:

(2.1.119) INS SG

- a. *Mans pirmais [boksā] treneris bija azerbaidžānis, tāds iekarsīgu raksturu.*
my.NOM.M first.NOM.M [boxing] coach.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3
Azerbaijani.NOM.M such hot_tempered.INS.M character.INS.M
‘My first [boxing] coach was an Azerbaijani, somewhat hot-tempered.’
(Latvijas Avīze)
- b. *Rudzu lauka malā sastapu plāvējus, kas bija sasēduši ieturēt pusdienu. Tur bija pavekāks vīrs sirmu bārzdu un trīs sievietes.*
there be.COP.PST.3 elderly.NOM.M man.NOM.M grey.INS.M
beard.INS.M and three.NOM.F woman.NOM.PL.F
‘At the edge of the rye field I met some reapers, seated and having lunch. There was an elderly man with a grey beard and three women there.’ (P. Bankovskis)

(2.1.120) INS PL

- a. *Gājējiem dienām ilgi jābradā*
pedestrian.DAT.PL.M day.INS.PL.F long_time DEB. walk
pa sasistiem stikliem.
through broken.PTCP.DAT.PL.M glass.DAT.PL.M
‘Pedestrians are made to walk through broken glass for days.’ (Diena)

- b. *Purvains, krūmiem aizaudzis*
 boggy.NOM.M **shrub.INS.PL.M** be_overgrown.PTCP.NOM.M
klajums tagad pārvērsts bērnu
 field.NOM.M now turn_into.PTCP.NOM.M child.GEN.PL.M
rotaļu laukumā.
 play.GEN.PL.F ground.LOC.M
 ‘A boggy field overgrown with shrubs has been turned into a children’s playground.’ (Ir)
- c. *Visi dēli bija prātīgi,*
 all.NOM.PL.M son.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PST.3 sensible.NOM.PL.M
strādīgi, gaišām galvām.
 hard_working.NOM.PL.M **light.INS.PL.F** **head.INS.PL.F**
 ‘All of the sons were sensible, hard-working, clear-headed.’ (I. Ābele)

The preposition *ar* ‘with’ helps to distinguish between the instrumental and accusative singular and the instrumental and dative plural – forms that have, in the course of the historical development of Latvian, become homonymous (see Kalnača 2014: 18–25).

1) means or accompaniment (comitative meaning)

- (2.1.121) a. *iet mugursomu plecos*
 walk.INF **backpack.INS.F** shoulder.LOC.PL.M
 ‘to walk with a backpack on one’s shoulders’
- b. *staigāt basām kājām*
 walk.INF bare.INS.PL.F **foot.INS.PL.F**
 ‘to walk barefoot’
- c. *gatavot salātus ar olīveļļu*
 prepare.INF salad.ACC.PL.M with **olive_oil.INS.F**
 ‘to prepare a salad with olive oil’
- d. *mazgāt augļus ar aukstu ūdeni*
 wash.INF fruit.ACC.PL.M with cold.INS.M **water.INS.M**
 ‘to wash fruit with cold water’
- e. *sazvanīties ar vecākiem*
 call.INF with **parent.INS.PL.M**
 ‘to call one’s parents on the phone’

2) time

- (2.1.122) a. *remonts dzīvoklī iet nedēļām*
 refurbishment.NOM.M apartment.LOC.M go.PRS.3 **week.INS.PL.F**
 ‘the refurbishment of the apartment has been going on for weeks’
- b. *mēnešiem ilgi tika labota ietve*
month.INS.PL.M long get.AUX.PST.3
 repair.PTCP.NOM.F pavement.NOM.F
 ‘the pavement was repaired for months’

- c. *ar gadiem mēs labāk saprotam*
 with **year.INS.PL.M** we.NOM better understand.PRS.1PL
savus vecākus
 own.ACC.PL.M parent.ACC.PL.M
 ‘as the years go by we begin to understand our parents better’

3) manner

- (2.1.123) a. *skatīties pārsteigtām acīm*
 look.INF surprise.PTCP.INS.PL.F **eye.INS.PL.F**
 ‘to look at with surprise (surprised eyes)’
 b. *ar skumjām sagaidīt rudeni*
 with **sadness.INS.PL.F** anticipate.INF autumn.ACC.M
 ‘to anticipate the autumn with sadness’
 c. *ar spēku aizcirst durvis*
 with **force.INS.M** slam.INF door.NOM.PL.F
 ‘to forcefully slam the door’

4) measure

- (2.1.124) a. *ēst ābolus kilogramiem*
 eat.INF apple.ACC.PL.M **kilo.INS.PL.M**
 ‘to eat apples by the kilo’
 b. *pirkt maisiem kartupeļu*
 buy.INF **sack.INS.PL.M** potato.GEN.PL.M
 ‘to buy potatoes by the sack’
 c. *lasīt groziem sēņu*
 gather.INF **basket.INS.PL.M** mushroom.GEN.PL.F
 ‘to gather mushrooms by the basket’

The **adnominal instrumental** is used to describe the qualities or features of something:

(2.1.125) next to a noun

- a. *meitene gariem matiem*
 girl.NOM.F long.INS.PL.M **hair.INS.PL.M**
 ‘a girl with long hair’
 b. *trusis sarkanām acīm*
 rabbit.NOM.M red.INS.PL.F **eye.INS.PL.F**
 ‘a rabbit with red eyes’
 c. *glāzes zelta malu*
 tumbler.NOM.PL.F gold.GEN.M **rim.INS.F**
 ‘tumblers with a golden rim’

(2.1.126) next to an adjective

- a. *slavens ar labu virtuvi*
 famous.NOM.M with fine.INS.F **cuisine.INS.F**
 ‘famous for fine cuisine’

- b. *uzmanīgs* *ar* *uguni*
cautious.NOM.M with fire.INS.F
‘cautious with fire’
- c. *neredzīgs* *ar* *vienu* *aci*
blind.NOM.M with one.INS.F eye.INS.F
‘blind in one eye’

LOCATIVE (syntactically dependent on a verb)

1) location

- (2.1.127) a. *veikalā* *daudz* *pircēju*
shop.LOC.M many customer.GEN.PL.M
‘there are many customers in the shop’
- b. *pludmalē* *maz* *peldētāju*
beach.LOC.F few swimmer.GEN.PL.M
‘there are few swimmers on the beach’
- c. *mājās* *nav* *sveču*
home.LOC.PL.F not_be.PRS.3 candle.GEN.PL.F
‘there are no candles at home’

2) time

- (2.1.128) a. *šai* *ziemā* *maz* *snieg*
this.LOC.F winter.LOC.F little snow.PRS.3
‘it snows little this winter’
- b. *pēcpusdienā* *būs* *migla*
afternoon.LOC.F be.FUT.3 fog.NOM.F
‘there will be fog in the afternoon’

3) manner

- (2.1.129) a. *viss* *atvaļinājums* *pagāja* *ceļojumā*
whole.NOM.M holiday.NOM.M go.PST.3 travel.LOC.M
‘(we) spent the whole holiday travelling’,
- b. *ielas* *apavos* *nestaigāt*
outdoor.GEN.F footwear.LOC.PL.M not_walk.INF
‘no outdoor footwear’

4) purpose, intent

- (2.1.130) a. *iet* *viesos*
go.INF visitor.LOC.PL.M
‘to pay a visit’
- b. *iet* *raudzībās*
go.INF visit_to_see_a_new_baby.LOC.PL.F
‘to visit to see the new baby’

Adnominal locative (next to a noun)

- (2.1.131) a. *dienas* *vidus* *karstumā*
day.GEN.F middle.GEN.M heat.LOC.M
'in the heat of the noon'
- b. *visā* *mājas* *garumā*
whole.LOC.M house.GEN.F length.LOC.M
'along the whole house'
- c. *upes* *seklumā*
river.GEN.F shallows.LOC.SG.M
'in the shallows of the river'

VOCATIVE

The vocative case is used for direct address – *tēv!* 'father!', *brāli!* 'brother!', *māt!* 'mother!'.

Vocative forms proper are historically inherited and only exist in the singular, being manifested as follows: no ending for declension 1, 4 and 5 nouns, the ending *-i* for declension 2 nouns, and the ending *-u* for declension 3 nouns (see Tables 2.1–2.4). In addition, the nominative singular forms of certain declension 1, 4, and 5 nouns and, in colloquial speech, the accusative singular forms of declension 1 and 4 nouns are also used as vocatives. In the plural, nominative forms are used in vocative function for all declensions (Table 2.3).

Vocative forms are used to name persons and other living things such as pets and domestic animals being addressed (2.1.132). Vocatives can also, in principle, be applied to all kinds of inanimate objects for the sake of personification (2.1.133). Typologically, Latvian vocative forms do not differ much from the forms found in other languages (see, for example, Parrot 2010).

- (2.1.132) a. *Sveiks, mans mīlais dēliņ.*
hello my.NOM.M dear.NOM.M son.DIM.VOC.M
'Hello, my dear son.' (www.tvnet.lv)
- b. *Cienījamais kolēģi!*
esteem.PTCP.NOM.M colleague.VOC.M
'(My) esteemed colleague!' (C)
- c. *Papu, celies augšā!*
dad.VOC.M rise.IMP.2SG up
'Dad, get up!' (CW)
- d. *Saprotiet, Marij, man nav*
understand.IMP.2PL **Marija.VOC.F** I.DAT not_be.AUX.PRS.3
bijis savu māju.
be.PTCP.PST.NOM.M own.GEN.PL.F home.GEN.PL.F
'You see, Marija, I have never had a home of my own.' (C)
- e. *Saimniec, trīs naglas padodiet meistariem!*
mistress.VOC.F three.ACC.F nail.ACC.PL.F hand.IMP.2PL worker.DAT.PL.M
'Mistress, hand three nails to the workers!' (C)

- (2.1.133) a. *Partijas elektorāt!*
 party.GEN.F electorate.VOC.M
Kā Jūs spējat arvien ticēt politiķim, kas pat sīkumos melo tik bezdievīgi?
 ‘Supporters of the party! How can you still trust a politician, who lies
 so extremely even about small things?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Atā, atā, mīlais Zirga gad!*
 so_long so_long dear.NOM.M Horse.GEN.M year.VOC.M
 ‘So long, so long, dear Year of the Horse!’ (Ieva)
- c. *“Sveiks, draugs Kurmīti!”/ Sacīja Lapsa*
 hello friend.NOM.M Mole.DIM.VOC.M say.PST.3 Fox.NOM.F
 ‘Hello, my friend, Mole!’/ the Fox said’ (C)
- d. *Klepu, ej prom!*
 cough.VOC.M go.IMP.2SG away
 ‘Go away, cough!’ (www.twitter.com)
- e. *Grāmatiņ, stāsti, kas jauns!*
 book.DIM.VOC.F tell.IMP.2SG what.NOM new.NOM.M
 ‘Tell me what’s the news, book!’ (www.ilukste.lv)
- f. *Paliec sveika, saulīt!*
 stay.IMP.2SG safe.NOM.F sun.DIM.VOC.F
 ‘Farewell, sun!’ (Delfi)

Case alternation

A notable feature of the Latvian case system is case alternation where one syntactic function can be realized by two different cases with no discernible difference in meaning (see Kalnača 2014: 51–66 for a detailed discussion). This phenomenon probably has several causes, the polyfunctionality of the cases, especially the genitive case, and the resultant grammatical synonymy being the most obvious one. To some extent, case alternation may have also been facilitated by case syncretism.

The most typical occurrences of case alternation in Latvian are:

- 1) VOC–NOM in the function of address

- (2.1.134) a. *tēv! // tēvs!*
 ‘Father!’
 b. *māt! // māte!*
 ‘Mother!’
 c. *Kristīn! // Kristīne!*
 ‘Christine!’

- 2) NOM–ACC in debitive constructions (see also Section 2.5.4; Lokmane, Kalnača 2014)

- (2.1.135) a. *Tev ir jātīra māja // māju.*
 you.DAT.SG be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.clean house.NOM.F // ACC.F
 ‘You must clean the house.’

b. *Man ir jā sāk lasīt*
 I.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.start read.INF
grāmata // grāmatu.
book.NOM.F // ACC.F
 ‘I have to start reading the book.’

3) GEN–NOM

(2.1.136) a. when negating the subject

Mājās nav piena // piens.
 house.LOC.PL.F not_be.PRS.3 **milk.GEN.M // NOM.M**
 ‘There is no milk in the house.’

b. for partitive meanings with indeclinable numerals

Manai māsa ir divdesmit
 my.DAT.F sister.DAT.F be.PRS.3 twenty
gadu // gadi.
year.GEN.PL.M // NOM.PL.M
 ‘My sister is twenty years old.’

c. for adverbs of measure

Šoziem sniega // sniegs bija ļoti maz.
 this_winter **snow.GEN.M // NOM.M** be.PST.3 very little
 ‘There was very little snow this winter.’

4) GEN–DAT for meanings indicating purpose (2.1.137a) or content (2.1.137b)

(2.1.137) a. *sporta apavi // apavi sportam*
sport.GEN.M shoe.NOM.PL.M // shoe.NOM.PL.M sport.DAT.M
 ‘sports shoes // shoes for sports’

b. *augļu trauks // trauks augliem*
fruit.GEN.PL.M bowl.NOM.M // bowl.NOM.M fruit.DAT.PL.M
 ‘fruit bowl // bowl for fruit’

5) GEN–ACC as a direct object

(2.1.138) a. in negation

Neteikšu neviena vārda
 not_say.FUT.1SG **no_one.GEN.M word.GEN.M**
 // *nevienu vārdu.*
 // **no_one.ACC.M word.ACC.M**
 ‘I won’t say a word’

b. for partitive meanings

Bērns grib maizes // maizi.
 child.NOM.M want.PRS.3 **bread.GEN.F // ACC.F**
 ‘The child wants bread.’

c. indicating purpose

Iesim melleņu // mellenes lasīt!
 go.IMP.1PL **bilberry.GEN.PL.F // ACC.PL.F** pick.INF
 ‘Let’s go blueberry picking!’

6) GEN–LOC when expressing attributive meanings

(2.1.139) <i>Eiropas</i>	<i>basketbola</i>	<i>čempionāts</i>
Europe.GEN.F	basketball.GEN.M	championship.NOM.M
// <i>Eiropas</i>	<i>čempionāts</i>	<i>basketbolā</i>
// Europe.GEN.F	championship.NOM.M	basketball.LOC.M
'European Basketball Championship'		

The above mentioned examples suggest that the alternation of case forms and the development of their polysemic and synonymic systems are closely associated with the transformation of the polyfunctionality of the genitive and nominative, which declines as some of the primary meanings of the genitive are substituted or come to function in parallel with other cases. The adnominal genitive continues to function as an attribute, whereas the adverbial genitive is gradually replaced by the accusative in the function of an object and by the nominative in the function of a subject.

Although to a lesser extent, the polyfunctionality of the nominative seems to be changing as well: while the nominative has partly overtaken the functions of the vocative (2.1.134), it is facing competition from the accusative in debitive constructions (2.1.135).

From the point of view of language standardization, some instances of case alternation have been found less desirable than others. For example, the alternation of the accusative and the genitive is generally treated as acceptable (Ahero et al. 1959: 394, 398–399; Paegle 2003: 41), while the alternation of the nominative and the genitive in subject negation or the alternation of the nominative and the accusative in debitive constructions are considered a divergence from the norm in Standard Latvian (Ahero et al. 1959: 393–395, 482; Skujiņa 1999: 43; Paegle 2003: 40).

Case form alternation is not a new phenomenon in Latvian: it had already been attested in Latvian folklore texts, especially in the *dainas* (Gāters 1993). Endzelins and Milenbahs had discussed this topic in 1907a and 1907b. Alternation of the genitive and other cases and its possible causes have been analyzed in Kalnača (2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2007, 2014), as well as Novikova (2009). The functions of the dative and the genitive and their alternation with other cases have been described by Berg-Olsen (2005) and Holvoet (2011a), alternation of the dative and other cases (including the genitive) has been discussed by Lokmane (2014). The morphostylistic aspect of case alternation is studied in Rozenbergs (1983: 20–22) and Kalnača (2011a: 60–71). On balance, one has to conclude that case form alternation is neither the norm nor deviance in Standard Latvian – it is a continuous process of semantic and syntactic evolution.

2.1.5 Word formation

Suffixation

Derivation of nouns by means of suffixes is very widely represented in Latvian: there are nouns derived from all lexical (content) word classes – nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and adverbs. However, regular word-formation types producing the greatest number of derivatives mainly involve base words of just three word classes – nouns, adjectives, and verbs (see Table 2.6). While suffixes are carriers of derivative meanings, endings have an important function of their own: marking declension, as well as indicating animacy and gender options in nouns denoting persons and animals (see Section 2.1.1 on noun declension). Therefore, each derivational suffix in Table 2.6 is followed by a corresponding ending (or endings). For derivatives that can be used in both genders the masculine ending is indicated first, unless the feminine ending is more common.

Although, due to limited space, derivation of deverbal nouns by suffixation in Table 2.6 is mostly illustrated by non-prefixed base verbs, regular nouns with the suffixes *-šan-*, *-um-*, *-tāj-*, etc. can also be derived from all kinds of prefixed verbs.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-ain- + -e (F)	places abundant in or largely covered with plants of a certain kind or other things	<i>egl-e</i> ‘fir tree’ – <i>egl-ain-e</i> ‘fir forest’ <i>krūm-i</i> ‘bushes, shrubs’ – <i>krūm-ain-e</i> ‘bushes, shrubbery’ <i>pried-e</i> ‘pine’ – <i>pried-ain-e</i> ‘pine forest’ <i>smilt-s</i> ‘sand’ – <i>smilt-ain-e</i> ‘sands’
	-āj- + -s (M)	places abundant in or largely covered with plants of a certain kind or other things	<i>aven-e</i> ‘raspberry’ – <i>aven-āj-s</i> ‘raspberry field’ <i>zāl-e</i> ‘grass’ – <i>zāl-āj-s</i> ‘lawn, grassland’ <i>pried-e</i> ‘pine’ – <i>pried-āj-s</i> ‘pine forest’ <i>niedr-e</i> ‘reed’ – <i>niedr-āj-s</i> ‘reed bank’ <i>kaln-s</i> ‘mountain’ – <i>kaln-āj-s</i> ‘mountain range’ <i>led-us</i> ‘ice’ – <i>led-āj-s</i> ‘glacier’
	-ekl-/ -ukl- + -is (M)	names of animals, body parts, places, chemical elements, etc.	<i>zīrn-is</i> ‘pea’ – <i>zīrn-ekl-is</i> ‘spider’ <i>vid-us</i> ‘middle’ – <i>vid-ukl-is</i> ‘waist’ <i>sūn-a</i> ‘moss’ – <i>sūn-ekl-is</i> ‘place covered in moss’ <i>slān-is</i> ‘layer’ – <i>slān-ekl-is</i> ‘shale’ <i>ogl-e</i> ‘coal’ – <i>ogl-ekl-is</i> ‘carbon’
	-el-/ -tel- + -is (M), -e (F)	DIM (sometimes pejorative)	<i>putn-s</i> ‘bird’ – <i>putn-el-is</i> (DIM) <i>kāj-a</i> ‘leg’ – <i>kāj-el-e</i> (DIM) <i>degun-s</i> ‘nose’ – <i>degun-tel-is</i> (DIM) <i>acs</i> ‘eye’ – <i>ač-tel-e</i> (DIM)
		things	<i>ziem-a</i> ‘winter’ – <i>ziem-el-is</i> ‘northern wind’ <i>šķēp-s</i> ‘spear’ – <i>šķēp-el-e</i> ‘splinter, shard’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-en- + -e, -es (F), -is (M)	plants, berries, mushrooms	<i>pien-s</i> ‘milk’ – <i>pien-en-e</i> ‘dandelion’ <i>avs</i> ‘ewe’ – <i>av-en-e</i> ‘raspberry’, -es (PL) <i>alksnis</i> ‘alder’ – <i>alksn-en-e</i> ‘milkcap (Lactarius rufus)’
		things	<i>ac-s</i> ‘eye’ – <i>ac-en-es</i> ‘spectacles’ <i>nags</i> ‘nail, claw’ – <i>naġ-en-e/ nadzene</i> ‘cap’ <i>dūm-i</i> ‘smoke’ – <i>dūm-en-is</i> ‘chimney’ <i>stulm-s</i> ‘boot top’ – <i>stulm-en-is</i> ‘top boot’
		body parts	<i>bals-s</i> ‘voice’ – <i>bals-en-e</i> ‘larynx’ <i>tīkl-s</i> ‘net, network’ – <i>tīkl-en-e</i> ‘retina’ <i>rag-s</i> ‘horn’ – <i>radz-en-e</i> ‘cornea’
		scientific, technical terms	<i>mēl-e</i> ‘tongue’ – <i>mēl-en-is</i> ‘lingual consonant’ <i>nās-s</i> ‘nostril’ – <i>nās-en-is</i> ‘nasal consonant’ <i>gliem-is</i> ‘mollusc’ – <i>gliem-en-e</i> ‘bivalve mollusc, shellfish’
		female animals	<i>kaķ-is</i> ‘cat’ – <i>kaķ-en-e</i> ‘female cat’ <i>vīlk-s</i> ‘wolf’ – <i>vīlc-en-e</i> ‘she-wolf’ <i>stārķ-is</i> ‘stork’ – <i>stārķ-en-e</i> ‘female stork’
		feminine nouns denoting persons	<i>draug-s</i> ‘friend’ – <i>draudz-en-e</i> ‘female friend’ <i>biedr-s</i> ‘comrade, fellow’ – <i>biedr-en-e</i> ‘female comrade, etc.’ <i>verg-s</i> ‘slave’ – <i>verdž-en-e</i> ‘female slave’ also <i>meit-a</i> ‘daughter, maid’ – <i>meit-en-e</i> ‘girl’
		wives, proprietresses	<i>kalēj-s</i> ‘blacksmith’ – <i>kalēj-en-e</i> ‘blacksmith’s wife’ <i>Pēteris</i> (personal name, M) – <i>Pēter-en-e</i> (Pēteris’s wife) <i>Krūm-s</i> (surname, M) – <i>Krūm-en-e</i> (Krūms’s wife) <i>Upīt-es</i> (house name) – <i>Upīt-en-e</i> (proprietress of Upītes)
	-ēn-/-tēn-/ -lēn- + -s (M)	DIM of young animals	<i>kaķ-is</i> ‘cat’ – <i>kaķ-ēn-s</i> ‘kitten’ <i>lāc-is</i> ‘bear’ – <i>lāc-ēn-s</i> ‘bear cub’ <i>pīl-e</i> ‘duck’ – <i>pīl-ēn-s</i> ‘duckling’ <i>zos-s</i> ‘goose’ – <i>zos-lēn-s</i> ‘gosling’ <i>līdak-a</i> ‘pike’ – <i>līdac-ēn-s</i> ‘young pike’
		DIM of kinship terms and other nouns denoting persons	<i>dēl-s</i> ‘son’ – <i>dēl-ēn-s</i> (DIM) <i>puis-is</i> ‘boy’ – <i>puis-ēn-s</i> (DIM) <i>meit-a</i> ‘daughter, girl’ – <i>meit-ēn-s</i> ‘girl (DIM)’ <i>skuķ-is</i> ‘girl’ – <i>skuķ-ēn-s</i> (DIM)
		DIM of personal names	<i>Kārl-is</i> (M) – <i>Kārl-ēn-s</i> (DIM) <i>Jur-is</i> (M) – <i>Jur-ēn-s</i> (DIM) <i>Iev-a</i> (F) – <i>Iev-ēn-s</i> (DIM) <i>Ausm-a</i> (F) – <i>Ausm-ēn-s</i> (DIM)
		kinship terms, occupations, natives or inhabitants of a place	<i>brāl-is</i> ‘brother’ – <i>brāl-ēn-s</i> ‘cousin’ <i>Piebalg-a</i> (name of a region) – <i>piebaldz-ēn-s</i> ‘inhabitant or native of Piebalga’ <i>skol-a</i> ‘school’ – <i>skol-ēn-s</i> ‘pupil’ (PL is used to refer to pupils of both sexes collectively)
		DIM of things	<i>baļķ-is</i> ‘log’ – <i>baļķ-ēn-s</i> (DIM) <i>ābol-s</i> ‘apple’ – <i>ābol-tēn-s</i> (DIM)

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-iņ-/-tiņ-/-utiņ-/-sniņ- + -š (M), -a (F)	DIM of declension 1, 3, 4, 6 nouns	<i>dēl-s</i> ‘son’ – <i>dēl-iņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>degun-s</i> ‘nose’ – <i>degun-tiņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>ceļ-š</i> ‘road, way’ – <i>ceļ-iņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>Aivar-s</i> (personal name, M) – <i>Aivar-iņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>med-us</i> ‘honey’ – <i>med-utiņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>Mik-us</i> (personal name, M) – <i>Mik-iņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>mās-a</i> ‘sister’ – <i>mās-iņ-a</i> (DIM) <i>Iev-a</i> (personal name, F) – <i>Iev-iņ-a</i> (DIM) <i>ziv-s</i> ‘fish’ – <i>ziv-tiņ-a</i> (DIM) <i>sird-s</i> ‘heart’ – <i>sir-sniņ-a</i> (DIM)
		things (incl. scientific, technical terms)	<i>lok-s</i> ‘bow’ – <i>loc-iņ-š</i> ‘violin bow’ <i>rat-s</i> ‘wheel’ – <i>rat-iņ-š</i> ‘spinning wheel’
	-īb- + -a, -as (F)	properties, qualities of human beings, sometimes also of animals	<i>draug-s</i> ‘friend’ – <i>draudz-īb-a</i> ‘friendship’ <i>muļk-is</i> ‘fool’ – <i>muļk-ib-a</i> ‘foolishness’ <i>glēv-ul-is</i> ‘coward’ – <i>glēv-ul-ib-a</i> ‘cowardice’ <i>lab-dar-is</i> ‘benefactor’ – <i>lab-dar-ib-a</i> ‘charity’
		collective nouns, also social, public, economic, etc. relationships or groups	<i>brāl-is</i> ‘brother’ – <i>brāl-ib-a</i> ‘brotherhood’ <i>lop-kop-is</i> ‘livestock breeder’ – <i>lop-kop-ib-a</i> ‘livestock breeding’ <i>liet-ved-is</i> ‘clerk’ – <i>liet-ved-ib-a</i> ‘clerical work, record-keeping’ <i>priekš-niek-s</i> ‘senior officer, manager, etc.’ – <i>priekš-niec-ib-a</i> ‘the management’
		stages of life, human conditions	<i>bērn-s</i> ‘child’ – <i>bērn-ib-a</i> ‘childhood’ <i>zēn-s</i> ‘boy’ – <i>zēn-ib-a</i> ‘boyhood’ <i>vec-pui-is</i> ‘bachelor’ – <i>vec-puis-ib-a</i> ‘bachelorhood’ <i>vec-meit-a</i> ‘spinster’ – <i>vec-meit-ib-a</i> ‘spinsterhood’ <i>atrain-is,-e</i> ‘widow’ – <i>atrain-ib-a</i> ‘widowhood’
		inherent, intrinsic features	<i>aug-l-is</i> ‘fruit, fetus’ – <i>aug-l-ib-a</i> ‘fruitfulness, fertility’ <i>māj-a</i> ‘home’ – <i>māj-ib-a</i> ‘hominess’
	-īt- + -is (M), -e (F)	DIM of declension 2, 5 nouns	<i>brāl-is</i> ‘brother’ – <i>brāl-īt-is</i> (DIM) <i>Jān-is</i> (personal name, M) – <i>Jān-īt-is</i> (DIM) <i>egl-e</i> ‘fir tree’ – <i>egl-īt-e</i> (DIM) <i>Ilz-e</i> (personal name, F) – <i>Ilz-īt-e</i> (DIM)
		things, names of plants (incl. scientific, technical terms)	<i>kumelš</i> ‘young horse’ – <i>kumel-īt-e</i> ‘camomile’ <i>smail-e</i> ‘peak, point’ – <i>smail-īt-e</i> ‘canoe’ <i>spol-e</i> ‘reel, spool’ – <i>spol-īt-e</i> ‘spool (in yarn spinning)’
	-ien- + -a, -e (F), -is (M)	a place with a large amount of something (parallel variants include <i>ien-a</i> 4 F, <i>-ien-e</i> 5 F, <i>-ien-s</i> 1 M)	<i>skaid-a</i> ‘chip’ – <i>skaid-ien-a, -s</i> ‘place for chopping, sawing wood on a farm, etc.’ <i>mēsl-i</i> ‘manure’ – <i>mēsl-ien-a, -s</i> ‘a site for rubbish, a dump’ <i>egl-e</i> ‘fir tree’ – <i>egl-ien-a, -e, -s</i> ‘fir forest, fir grove’ <i>kārkl-s</i> ‘osier’ – <i>kārkl-ien-a ‘, -e, -s</i> osier-bed’ <i>kaln-s</i> ‘mountain’ – <i>kaln-ien-a, -e</i> ‘highland’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-ien- + -a, -e (F), -is (M)	a place referred to by specifying its geographical properties (usually, -ien-e)	<i>mal-a</i> ‘edge, border’ – <i>mal-ien-e</i> ‘borderland’ <i>vid-us</i> ‘middle’ – <i>vid-ien-e</i> ‘central region, upcountry’ <i>pal-i</i> ‘high water, flood’ – <i>pal-ien-e</i> ‘flooded land by a river’
		female animals (usually, -ien-e) (synonymous with -en-e)	<i>lāc-is</i> ‘bear’ – <i>lāc-ien-e</i> ‘she-bear’ <i>zaķ-is</i> ‘hare’ – <i>zaķ-ien-e</i> ‘female hare’ <i>ērgl-is</i> ‘eagle’ – <i>ērgl-ien-e</i> ‘female eagle’
		feminine nouns denoting persons (usually, -ien-e)	<i>kaimiņ-š</i> ‘neighbor’ – <i>kaimiņ-ien-e</i> ‘female neighbor’ <i>karal-is</i> ‘king’ – <i>karal-ien-e</i> ‘queen’ <i>svain-is</i> ‘brother-in-law’ – <i>svain-ien-e</i> ‘sister-in-law’
		wives, proprietresses (usually, -ien-e) (synonymous with -en-e)	<i>kalēj-s</i> ‘blacksmith’ – <i>kalēj-ien-e</i> ‘blacksmith’s wife’ <i>Pēteris</i> (personal name, M) – <i>Pēter-ien-e</i> ‘Pēteris’s wife’ <i>Kalniņ-š</i> (surname, M) – <i>Kalniņ-ien-e</i> (Kalniņš’s wife) <i>Upīt-es</i> (house name) – <i>Upīt-ien-e</i> (proprietress of Upītes)
	-iet- + is (M), -e (F)	natives or inhabitants of a certain place in Latvia (mostly, in Vidzeme, Latgale) or abroad	<i>Valmier-a</i> (town) – <i>valmier-iet-is</i> , -e ‘native or inhabitant of Valmiera’ <i>Rēzekn-e</i> (town) – <i>rēzekn-iet-is</i> , -e ‘native or inhabitant of Rēzekne’ <i>Pariz-e</i> ‘Paris’ – <i>pariz-iet-is</i> , -e ‘Parisian’ <i>Madrid-e</i> ‘Madrid’ – <i>madrid-iet-is</i> , -e ‘Madrilenian’ <i>Ņujork-a</i> ‘New York’ – <i>ņujork-iet-is</i> , -e ‘New Yorker’
		ethnic groups (nationalities), political nations, inhabitants of different parts of the world	<i>Eirop-a</i> ‘Europe’ – <i>eirop-iet-is</i> , -e ‘European’ <i>Austrālij-a</i> ‘Australia’ – <i>austrāl-iet-is</i> , -e ‘Australian’ <i>Indij-a</i> ‘India’ – <i>ind-iet-is</i> , -e ‘Indian’ <i>Ķīn-a</i> ‘China’ – <i>ķin-iet-is</i> , -e ‘Chinese’ <i>Vjetnam-a</i> ‘Vietnam’ – <i>vjetnam-iet-is</i> , -e ‘Vietnamese’
		ethnic groups (nationalities), political nations, inhabitants of different parts of the world in the feminine	<i>igaun-is</i> ‘Estonian, M’ – <i>igaun-iet-e</i> (F) <i>zviedr-s</i> ‘Swede, M’ – <i>zviedr-iet-e</i> (F) <i>īr-s</i> ‘Irishman’ – <i>īr-iet-e</i> ‘Irishwoman’ <i>spān-is</i> ‘Spaniard’ – <i>spān-iet-e</i> (F) <i>amerikān-is</i> ‘American’ – <i>amerikān-iet-e</i> (F)
		wives, proprietresses (synonymous with -en-e, -ien-e)	<i>Kalniņ-š</i> – <i>Kalniņ-iet-e</i> ‘Kalniņš’s wife’ <i>Zaļup-s</i> – <i>Zaļup-iet-e</i> ‘Zaļups’s wife’ <i>Lejiņas</i> (house name) – <i>Lejiņ-iet-e</i> ‘proprietress of Lejiņas’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-iet- + is (M), -e (F)	nouns denoting persons according to their sex	<i>vīr-s</i> ‘man, husband’ – <i>vīr-iet-is</i> ‘man’ <i>siev-a</i> ‘woman, wife’ – <i>siev-iet-e</i> ‘woman’ <i>dēl-s</i> ‘son’ – <i>dēl-iet-is</i> ‘young man’ <i>meit-a</i> ‘daughter, maid’ – <i>meit-iet-is</i> ‘woman, girl’ <i>puis-is</i> ‘boy’ – <i>puis-iet-is</i> ‘man, boy’
	-nīc- + -a (F)	places	<i>maiz-e</i> ‘bread’ – <i>maiz-nīc-a</i> ‘bakery’ <i>vies-is</i> ‘guest’ – <i>vies-nīc-a</i> ‘hotel’ <i>grāmat-a</i> ‘book’ – <i>grāmat-nīc-a</i> ‘bookshop’ <i>darb-s</i> ‘work’ – <i>darb-nīc-a</i> ‘workshop’
	-niek-/ -iniek-/ -eniek- + -s (M), -e, i.e., -ce (F)	natives or inhabitants of a particular place in Latvia (usually, in Kurzeme, Zemgale, also Vidzeme)	<i>Liepāj-a</i> (town) – <i>liepāj-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘native or inhabitant of Liepāja’ <i>Tals-i</i> (town) – <i>tals-eniek-s, -ce</i> ‘native or inhabitant of Talsi’ <i>Dobel-e</i> (town) – <i>dobel-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘native or inhabitant of Dobele’ <i>Cēs-is</i> (town) – <i>cēs-iniek-s, -ce</i> ‘native or inhabitant of Cēsis’ <i>Rīg-a</i> ‘Rīga’ – <i>rīdz-iniek-s, -ce</i> ‘native or inhabitant of Riga’
		persons by social standing	<i>saim-e</i> ‘community, family’ – <i>saim-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘owner, proprietor, master’ <i>muiž-a</i> ‘estate, manor’ – <i>muiž-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘landlord, squire’ <i>bez darba</i> ‘without employment’ – <i>bez-darb-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘unemployed (N)’
		persons by occupation, job, profession, membership in a certain group, etc.	<i>past-s</i> ‘post’ – <i>past-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘postman’ <i>sēt-a</i> ‘yard, fence’ – <i>sēt-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘caretaker, janitor’ <i>vēstur-e</i> ‘history’ – <i>vēstur-niek-s, -ce</i> ‘historian’ <i>kāz-as</i> ‘wedding’ – <i>kāz-iniek-s, -ce</i> ‘wedding guest’
	-on- [i.e., [uo]] + -is (M), -e (F)	nouns referring in a negative way to persons, animals	<i>mež-s</i> ‘forest’ – <i>mež-on-is, -e</i> ‘savage’ <i>tumsa</i> ‘darkness’ – <i>tums-on-is, -e</i> ‘uneducated person opposing progress’ <i>šausm-as</i> ‘horror’ – <i>šausm-on-is, -e</i> ‘monster’ <i>briesm-as</i> ‘danger, peril’ – <i>briesm-on-is, -e</i> ‘monster’
	-otn- [i.e., [uo]] + -e (F)	parts of plants, places	<i>gal-s</i> ‘end’ – <i>gal-otn-e</i> ‘top, tip, ending’ <i>sēkl-a</i> ‘seed’ – <i>sēkl-otn-e</i> ‘ovary (Botany)’ <i>lap-a</i> ‘leaf’ – <i>lap-otn-e</i> ‘leafage, crown’ <i>virš-a</i> ‘top, surface’ – <i>virš-otn-e</i> ‘top, peak, summit’
	-uk- + -s (M)	DIM (markedly positive connotation; sometimes with unmotivated palatalization (consonant <i>j</i> alternation)); usually, informal	<i>sun-s</i> ‘dog’ – <i>suņ-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>lāc-is</i> ‘bear’ – <i>lāč-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>pel-e</i> ‘mouse’ – <i>peļ-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>brāl-is</i> ‘brother’ – <i>brāļ-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>mās-a</i> ‘sister’ – <i>māš-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>meit-a</i> ‘daughter’ – <i>meit-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>Ār-is</i> (personal name, M) – <i>Ār-uk-s</i> (DIM) <i>lev-a</i> (personal name, F) – <i>lev-uk-s</i> (DIM)

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-ul- + -is (M), -e (F)	DIM	<i>ez-is</i> ‘hedgehog’ – <i>ež-ul-is</i> (DIM) <i>čūsk-a</i> ‘snake’ – <i>čūsk-ul-is</i> (DIM) <i>Ann-a</i> (personal name, F) – <i>Ann-ul-e, -is</i> (DIM) <i>Iev-a</i> (personal name, F) – <i>Iev-ul-e, -is</i> (DIM)
ADJ–N	-atn-/-otn- [i.e., [uo]] + -e (F)	abstract concepts concerned with aggregates and stages	<i>jaun-s</i> ‘young’ – <i>jaun-atn-e</i> ‘youth’ <i>sen-s</i> ‘old, ancient’ – <i>sen-atn-e</i> ‘ancient times, antiquity’ <i>maz-s</i> ‘little’ – <i>maz-otn-e</i> ‘early age, infancy’
	-av- + -a (F)	persons (F) possessing a certain quality	<i>jaun-s</i> ‘young’ – <i>jaun-av-a</i> ‘virgin’ <i>daiļ-š</i> ‘beautiful’ – <i>daiļ-av-a</i> ‘a beauty’
	-ekl- + -is (M)	persons, chemical elements, etc.	<i>jaun-s</i> ‘young’ – <i>jaun-ekl-is</i> ‘young man, youngster’ <i>skāb-s</i> ‘sour’ – <i>skāb-ekl-is</i> ‘oxygen’
	-el- + -is (M), -e (F)	persons possessing a certain quality (sometimes pejorative)	<i>gudr-s</i> ‘smart’ – <i>gudr-el-is, -e</i> ‘smarty’ <i>ne-krietn-s</i> ‘dishonest’ – <i>ne-krietn-el-is, -e</i> ‘scoundrel’
	-en- + -e, -es (F), -is (M)	plants and berries	<i>skāb-s</i> ‘sour’ – <i>skāb-en-e, -es</i> ‘sorrel’ <i>sārt-s</i> ‘rosy’ – <i>sārt-en-e</i> ‘cross-leaved heath’ <i>zīl-s</i> ‘blue’ – <i>zīl-en-e, -es</i> ‘bog bilberry, Vaccinium uliginosum’ <i>meln-s</i> ‘black’ – <i>mell-en-e, -es</i> (also <i>meln-en-e, -es</i>) ‘bilberry, Vaccinium myrtillus’
		persons, scientific names of animals, also meals	<i>stulb-s</i> ‘stupid, foolish’ – <i>stulb-en-is, -e</i> ‘fool’ <i>vec-s</i> ‘old’ – <i>vec-en-e</i> ‘hag (of a woman)’ <i>raib-s</i> ‘speckled, spotted’ – <i>raib-en-is</i> ‘Nymphalidae (family of butterflies)’ <i>balt-s</i> ‘white’ – <i>balt-en-is</i> ‘Pieridae (family of butterflies)’ <i>biez-s</i> ‘thick, dense’ – <i>biez-en-is</i> ‘puree, mash’
	-īb- + -a (F)	abstract concepts, also lasting states, inherent, intrinsic features	<i>tīr-s</i> ‘clean’ – <i>tīr-īb-a</i> ‘cleanliness’ <i>laipn-s</i> ‘polite’ – <i>laipn-īb-a</i> ‘politeness’ <i>jaun-s</i> ‘young’ – <i>jaun-īb-a</i> ‘youth, young age’ <i>slīm-s</i> ‘ill’ – <i>slīm-īb-a</i> ‘illness’ <i>var-en-s</i> ‘mighty’ – <i>var-en-īb-a</i> ‘mightiness’ <i>lok-an-s</i> ‘supple’ – <i>loka-n-īb-a</i> ‘suppleness’ <i>krās-ain-s</i> ‘colorful’ – <i>krās-ain-īb-a</i> ‘colorfulness’ <i>māt-išķs</i> ‘motherly’ – <i>māt-išķ-īb-a</i> ‘motherliness’
	-m- + -e, -a (F)	natural phenomena, abstract concepts	<i>valg-s</i> ‘dewy, moist’ – <i>valg-m-e</i> ‘moisture’ <i>vēs-s</i> ‘cool’ – <i>vēs-m-a</i> ‘breeze, rush of wind’ <i>spož-s</i> ‘brilliant’ – <i>spoz-m-e</i> ‘brilliance, splendor’
	-n- + -is (M), -e (F)	things, aggregates	<i>slīp-s</i> ‘inclined’ – <i>slīp-n-is</i> ‘inclined separator’ <i>lik-s</i> ‘curved’ – <i>lik-n-e</i> ‘curve’ <i>smalk-s</i> ‘fine’ – <i>smalk-n-e</i> ‘fines’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADJ–N	-niek-/iniek/-eniek- + -s (M), i.e. -ce (F)	persons	<i>bagāt-s</i> ‘rich’ – <i>bagāt-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘rich person’ <i>tuv-s</i> ‘near’ – <i>tuv-iniek-s</i> , -ce ‘near relation’ <i>tukš-s</i> ‘empty’ – <i>tukš-iniek-s</i> , -ce ‘poor person’ <i>gudr-s</i> ‘smart’ – <i>gudr-iniek-s</i> , -ce ‘smart person’
	-ul- + -is (M), -e (F)	persons, also names of animals	<i>skaist-s</i> ‘pretty’ – <i>skaist-ul-is</i> , -e ‘pretty person’ <i>skop-s</i> ‘miserly’ – <i>skop-ul-is</i> , -e ‘miser’ <i>vārg-s</i> ‘weak’ – <i>vārg-ul-is</i> , -e ‘weakling’ <i>maz-s</i> ‘little’ – <i>maz-ul-is</i> , -e ‘baby’
	-um- + -s (M)	abstract concepts	<i>lab-s</i> ‘good’ – <i>lab-um-s</i> ‘good (N), benefit, good things’ <i>vec-s</i> ‘old’ – <i>vec-um-s</i> ‘age’ <i>smarž-īg-s</i> ‘fragrant’ – <i>smarž-īg-um-s</i> ‘fragrance, aroma’ <i>krok-ain-s</i> ‘crinkly’ – <i>krok-ain-um-s</i> ‘crinkliness’
		concrete concepts	<i>balt-s</i> ‘white’ – (olas) <i>balt-um-s</i> ‘egg-white’ <i>caur-s</i> ‘having holes’ – <i>caur-um-s</i> ‘hole’ <i>mīkst-s</i> ‘soft’ – (maizes) <i>mīkst-um-s</i> ‘the soft part of a loaf of bread’
		places	<i>līdz-en-s</i> ‘plain (ADJ)’ – <i>līdz-en-um-s</i> ‘plain (N)’ <i>klaj-š</i> ‘open, flat’ – <i>klaj-um-s</i> ‘glade, clearing’ <i>tīr-s</i> ‘clean’ – <i>tīr-um-s</i> ‘field, tillage’
NUM–N	-atn-/otn- [i.e., [uo]] + -e (F)	number of living beings or their (organizational) mode of being	<i>vien-s</i> ‘one’ – <i>vien-atn-e</i> ‘one, solo, on one’s own,’ <i>div-i</i> ‘two’ – <i>div-atn-e</i> ‘two (a set of two people, etc.), duo, duet’ <i>trīs</i> ‘three’ – <i>trij-otn-e</i> ‘three, trio (a set of three)’ <i>četr-i</i> ‘four’ – <i>četr-otn-e</i> ‘four (a set of four)’
	-niek-/iniek/-eniek- + -s (M)	number of beings or things, banknote denominations, evaluation on a scale	<i>vien-s</i> ‘one’ – <i>vien-iniek-s</i> ‘one (number), a single person, a person acting alone’ <i>div-i</i> ‘two’ – <i>div-niek-s</i> ‘two (number), a set of two, dyad, duo’ <i>trīs</i> ‘three’ – <i>trij-niek-s</i> ‘three (number), a set of three, triad, trio’ <i>desmit-s</i> ‘ten’ – <i>desmit-niek-s</i> ‘ten (number), a set of ten, a tenner’ <i>simt-s</i> ‘one hundred’ – <i>simt-niek-s</i> ‘one hundred (number), a set of one hundred people or things’
V–N	-āj- + -s (M), -a (F); usually derived from the PST stem of conjugation 1 and irregular verbs	agents (<i>nomen agentis</i>) habitually and actively engaging in an activity; in modern Latvian, the semantic difference between the suffixes <i>-āj-</i> and <i>-ēj-</i> has largely disappeared	<i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>dzēr-a</i> PST 3 – <i>dzēr-āj-s</i> , -a ‘drunkard’ <i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>ēd-a</i> PST 3 – <i>ēd-āj-s</i> , -a ‘eater’ <i>pār-cel-t</i> ‘to convey’ – <i>pār-cēl-a</i> PST 3 – <i>pār-cēl-āj-s</i> , -a ‘ferryman’ <i>ar-t</i> ‘to plough’ – <i>ar-āj-s</i> , -a ‘ploughman’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – tools, devices	<i>pa-cel-t</i> ‘to lift’ – <i>pa-cēl-a</i> PST 3 – <i>pa-cēl-āj-s</i> ‘lift, elevator’ <i>uz-ķer-t</i> ‘to catch’ – <i>uz-ķēr-a</i> PST 3 – <i>uz-ķēr-āj-s</i> ‘(grease) extractor’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-ēj- + -s (M), -a (F); usually derived from the PST stem of conjugation 1 and irregular verbs	agents (<i>nomen agentis</i>) performing an activity for a certain time period or at a particular moment; in modern Latvian, the semantic difference between the suffixes -āj- and -ēj- has largely disappeared	<i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>dzēr-a</i> PST 3 – <i>dzēr-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘one who drinks’ <i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>ēd-a</i> PST 3 – <i>ēd-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘eater’ <i>ves-t</i> ‘to carry’ – <i>ved-a</i> PST 3 – <i>ved-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘carrier’ <i>ie-t</i> ‘to go, walk’ – <i>gāj-a</i> PST 3 – <i>gāj-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘walker’ <i>aiz-do-t</i> ‘to lend’ – <i>aiz-dev-a</i> PST 3 – <i>aiz-dev-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘lender, creditor’
		<i>nomina agentis</i> – job titles, professions	<i>kal-t</i> ‘to forge, smith’ – <i>kal-a</i> PST 3 – <i>kal-ēj-s</i> ‘smith, blacksmith’ <i>šū-t</i> ‘to sew’ – <i>šuv-a</i> PST 3 – <i>šuv-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘sewer, seamstress’ <i>pār-do-t</i> ‘to sell’ – <i>pār-dev-a</i> PST 3 – <i>pār-dev-ēj-s, -a</i> ‘seller, shop assistant’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – devices, machines	<i>dzi-t</i> ‘to drive, to propel’ – <i>dzin-a</i> PST 3 – <i>dzin-ēj-s</i> ‘engine’ <i>sūk-t</i> ‘to suck’ – <i>sūc-a</i> PST 3 – (putekļ <u>u</u>) <i>sūc-ēj-s</i> ‘vacuum cleaner’ <i>plāu-t</i> ‘to mow’ – <i>plāv-u</i> PST 1 – (zāles) <i>plāv-ēj-s</i> ‘lawn mower’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – diseases, symptoms	<i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>audz-ēj-s</i> ‘tumor, growth’ <i>dur-t</i> ‘to pierce’ – <i>dūr-a</i> PST 3 – <i>dūr-ēj-s</i> ‘piercing pain’ <i>spies-t</i> ‘to squeeze’ – <i>spied-a</i> PST 3 – <i>spied-ēj-s</i> ‘squeezer’
	-īb- + -a, -as (F)	<i>nomina actionis</i> – abstract or concrete concepts, places, processes; usually derived from the root of secondary verbs	<i>cer-ē-t</i> ‘to hope’ – <i>cer-īb-a</i> ‘hope’ <i>tic-ē-t</i> ‘to believe’ – <i>tic-īb-a</i> ‘faith, belief’ <i>māc-ī-t</i> ‘to teach’ – <i>māc-īb-a</i> ‘lesson, teaching’ <i>bar-o-t</i> ‘to feed’ – <i>bar-īb-a</i> ‘food, nourishment’ <i>ap-liec-inā-t</i> ‘to attest’ – <i>ap-liec-īb-a</i> ‘certificate’ <i>gan-ī-t</i> ‘to pasture’ – <i>gan-īb-as</i> ‘pasture’ <i>med-ī-t</i> ‘to hunt’ – <i>med-īb-as</i> ‘hunt, chase’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – abstracted features, lasting states, ability to participate in an activity; derived from the PRS PASS participle stem	<i>dal-ī-t</i> ‘to divide’ – <i>dal-ām-s</i> ‘divisible’ – <i>dalām-īb-a</i> ‘divisibility’ <i>vad-ī-t</i> ‘to steer, control’ – <i>vad-ām-s</i> ‘steerable, controllable’ – <i>vad-ām-īb-a</i> ‘steerability, controllability’ <i>ie-sp-ē-t</i> ‘to be able to’ – <i>ie-spēj-am-s</i> ‘possible’ – <i>ie-spēj-am-īb-a</i> ‘possibility’ <i>tic-ē-t</i> ‘to believe’ – <i>tic-am-s</i> ‘believable, credible’ – <i>ticam-īb-a</i> ‘credibility’ <i>dzird-ē-t</i> ‘to hear’ – <i>dzird-am-s</i> ‘audible’ – <i>dzird-am-īb-a</i> ‘audibility’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-īb- + -a, -as (F)	<i>nomina actionis</i> – abstracted features, results of actions, states; derived from the PST PASS participle stem	<i>vien-o-t</i> ‘to unite’ – <i>vieno-t-s</i> ‘united’ – <i>vieno-t-īb-a</i> ‘unity’ <i>sa-skaņ-o-t</i> ‘to coordinate’ – <i>sa-skaņo-t-s</i> ‘coordinated’ – <i>sa-skaņo-t-īb-a</i> ‘coordination (the state of being coordinated)’ <i>at-klā-t</i> ‘to open’ – <i>at-klā-t-s</i> ‘open’ – <i>at-klā-t-īb-a</i> ‘openness’ <i>no-māk-t</i> ‘to deject’ – <i>no-māk-t-s</i> ‘dejected’ – <i>no-māk-t-īb-a</i> ‘dejection’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> (pluralia tantum) – celebrations, ceremonies, and other festive events; derived from the PST stem of conjugation 1 verbs and the root of conjugation 2, 3 verbs	<i>ap-sē-t</i> ‘to sow’ – <i>ap-sēj-u</i> PST 1 – <i>ap-sēj-īb-as</i> ‘seed sowing festival’ <i>ap-kul-t</i> ‘to thresh’ – <i>ap-kūl-u</i> PST 1 – <i>ap-kūl-īb-as</i> ‘threshing festival’ <i>laul-ā-t</i> ‘to wed’ – <i>laul-īb-as</i> ‘wedding, marriage’ <i>prec-ē-t</i> ‘to marry’ – <i>prec-īb-as</i> ‘marriage, marrying’ <i>ie-svēt-ī-t</i> ‘to confirm’ – <i>ie-svēt-īb-as</i> ‘confirmation’ <i>krist-ī-t</i> ‘to baptize’ – <i>krist-īb-as</i> ‘baptism’
	-ien- + -s (M); usually derived from the PST stem of conjugation 1 and irregular verbs	<i>nomina actionis</i> – instantaneous single actions	<i>lēk-t</i> ‘to jump’ – <i>lēc-a</i> PST 3 – <i>lēc-ien-s</i> ‘jump’ <i>šau-t</i> ‘to shoot’ – <i>šāv-a</i> PST 3 – <i>šāv-ien-s</i> ‘a shot’ <i>klieg-t</i> ‘to scream’ – <i>kliedz-a</i> PST 3 – <i>kliedz-ien-s</i> ‘scream’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – single actions lasting for some time	<i>nāk-t</i> ‘to come’ – <i>nāc-a</i> PST 3 – <i>nāc-ien-s</i> ‘coming’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go, to drive’ – <i>brauc-a</i> PST 3 – <i>brauc-ien-s</i> ‘trip, journey, drive’ <i>ie-t</i> ‘to go, to walk’ – <i>gāj-a</i> PST 3 – <i>gāj-ien-s</i> ‘procession, walk’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – abstract or concrete things	<i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>dzēr-a</i> PST 3 – <i>dzēr-ien-s</i> ‘drink’ <i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>ēd-a</i> PST 3 – <i>ēd-ien-s</i> ‘meal, food’ <i>cel-t</i> ‘to raise’ – <i>cēl-a</i> PST 3 – <i>cēl-ien-s</i> ‘act (in a theatrical performance)’ <i>pa-ves-t</i> ‘to lead’ – <i>pa-ved-a</i> PST 3 – <i>pa-ved-ien-s</i> ‘lead, also thread’
	-kl-/ -ekl-/ -okl- [i.e., [uo]] + -s, -is (M), -a, -e (F); usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1, 2 verbs or the root of conjugation 3 verbs	tools, devices, etc.	<i>ar-t</i> ‘to plough’ – <i>ar-kl-s</i> ‘plough’ <i>tī-t</i> ‘to reel, to wind, to wrap’ – <i>tī-kl-s</i> ‘net’ <i>dur-t</i> ‘to stab’ – <i>dur-kl-is</i> ‘bayonet’ <i>grāb-t</i> ‘to rake up’ – <i>grāb-ekl-is</i> ‘rake’ <i>vad-ī-t</i> ‘to guide’ – <i>vad-ī-kl-a</i> ‘guide, control’ <i>tēm-ē-t</i> ‘to aim’ – <i>tēm-ē-kl-is</i> ‘gunsight’
		things	<i>ad-ī-t</i> ‘to knit’ – <i>ad-ī-kl-is</i> ‘knitting (material in the process of being knitted)’ <i>aus-t</i> ‘to weave’ – <i>aud-ekl-s</i> ‘woven fabric, usually linen, also canvas’ <i>sēd-ē-t</i> ‘to sit’ – <i>sēd-ekl-is</i> ‘seat’ <i>vīst-ī-t</i> ‘to wrap’ – <i>vīst-okl-is</i> ‘wrapped package’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-kl-/ekl-/okl- [i.e., [uo]] + -s, -is (M), -a, -e (F); usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1, 2 verbs or the root of conjugation 3 verbs	abstract concepts	<i>kav-ē-t</i> ‘to hinder’ – <i>kav-ē-kl-is</i> ‘hindrance’ <i>līdz-ē-t</i> ‘to assist’ – <i>līdz-ekl-is</i> ‘means’ <i>stāv-ē-t</i> ‘to stand’ – <i>stāv-okl-is</i> ‘state’
		places	<i>dzīv-o-t</i> ‘to live’ – <i>dzīv-o-kl-is</i> ‘apartment’ <i>māj-o-t</i> ‘to dwell’ – <i>māj-okl-is</i> ‘dwelling, home’ <i>gan-i-t</i> ‘to pasture’ – <i>gan-i-kl-a</i> ‘pasture, also herd’
		body parts, also parts of plants	<i>rī-t</i> ‘to swallow’ – <i>rī-kl-e</i> ‘throat’ <i>sē-t</i> ‘to sow’ – <i>sē-kl-a</i> ‘seed’ <i>redz-ē-t</i> ‘to see’ – <i>redz-okl-is</i> ‘pupil’ <i>taust-i-t</i> ‘to touch’ – <i>taust-ekl-is</i> ‘feeler, tentacle’
		<i>nomina patientis</i> – persons, also names of animals	<i>māc-i-t</i> ‘to teach, train’ – <i>māc-ekl-is, -e</i> ‘apprentice, trainee’ <i>ves-t</i> ‘to lead, guide’ – <i>ved-ekl-a</i> ‘daughter-in-law’ <i>lut-inā-t</i> ‘to pamper, to spoil’ – <i>lut-ekl-is, -e</i> ‘one who is being pampered’ <i>bar-o-t</i> ‘to feed’ – <i>bar-o-kl-is</i> ‘fatling’
	-l-/sl- + -is (M), -e, -a (F); usually derived from the root	<i>nomina agentis</i> – persons engaging in undesirable activities	<i>bēg-t</i> ‘to run away’ – <i>bēg-l-is, -e</i> ‘fugitive, refugee’ <i>zag-t</i> ‘to thief, steal’ – <i>zag-l-is, -e</i> ‘thief’ <i>kau-t</i> ‘to beat, to slaughter’ – <i>kau-sl-is, -e</i> ‘brawler, ruffian’
		things	<i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>aug-l-is</i> ‘fruit’ <i>dīg-t</i> ‘to germinate’ – <i>dīg-l-is</i> ‘germ, an initial stage of smth’ <i>skait-i-t</i> ‘to number, to count’ – <i>skait-l-is</i> ‘number’ <i>dzi-t</i> ‘to rush, drive’ – <i>dzi-sl-a</i> ‘blood vessel’ <i>kāp-t</i> ‘to climb’ – <i>kāp-sl-is</i> ‘footboard, stepladder’
	-m-/sm- + -a, -e (F); usually derived from the root	<i>nomina actionis</i> – concrete and abstract activities	<i>brāz-t</i> ‘to rush’ – <i>brāz-m-a</i> ‘rush, gust (of wind)’ <i>vēl-ē-ties</i> ‘to wish’ – <i>vēl-m-e</i> ‘wish’ <i>ros-i-ties</i> ‘to bustle’ – <i>ros-m-e</i> ‘bustle’ <i>teik-t</i> ‘to say, to tell’ – <i>teik-sm-a</i> ‘legend, tale’ <i>veik-t</i> ‘to accomplish’ – <i>veik-sm-e</i> ‘success, luck’ <i>sa-dur-ties</i> ‘to collide’ – <i>sa-dur-sm-e</i> ‘collision’
	-n-/tn-/sn- + -is (M), -e, -es (F); usually derived from the root	places	<i>slēp-t</i> ‘to hide, to conceal’ – <i>slēp-n-is</i> ‘a concealed position, ambush’ <i>tilp-t</i> ‘to contain, to hold’ – <i>tilp-n-e</i> ‘tank, hold’ <i>izlie-t</i> ‘to pour out’ – <i>izlie-tn-e</i> ‘sink’ <i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>aug-sn-e</i> ‘soil’ <i>slik-t</i> ‘to drown’ – <i>slik-sn-is</i> ‘bog, marsh’
		things (incl. tools and devices)	<i>lauz-t</i> ‘to break’ – <i>lauz-n-is</i> ‘crowbar’ <i>griez-t</i> ‘to cut’ – <i>griez-n-es</i> ‘scissors’ <i>cel-t</i> ‘to lift’ – <i>cel-tn-is</i> ‘crane’ <i>vel-t</i> ‘to roll’ – <i>vel-tn-is</i> ‘roller’ <i>ap-loc-i-t</i> ‘to envelop’ – <i>ap-lok-sn-e</i> ‘envelope’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – some derivatives are based on the PST stem	<i>pa-ie-t</i> ‘to pass’ – <i>pa-gā-j-u</i> PST 1 – <i>pa-gā-tn-e</i> ‘past’ <i>lūg-t</i> ‘to pray’ – <i>lūg-sn-a</i> ‘prayer’ <i>no-gul-t</i> ‘to sediment’ – <i>no-gul-sn-es</i> ‘sediment’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-niek- + -s (M), -e i.e., -ce (F); usually derived from the root	<i>nomina agentis</i> – persons by occupation, job, profession, mutual relationships, lifestyle, etc.	<i>rakst-ī-t</i> ‘to write’ – <i>rakst-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘writer’ <i>mēr-ī-t</i> ‘to measure’ – <i>mēr-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘surveyor’ <i>strād-ā-t</i> ‘to work’ – <i>strād-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘worker’ <i>vald-ī-t</i> ‘to rule’ – <i>vald-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘ruler’ <i>krāp-t</i> ‘to swindle’ – <i>krāp-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘swindler, fraud’ <i>strīd-ē-ties</i> ‘to quarrel’ – <i>strīd-niek-s</i> , -ce ‘quarreller’
		<i>nomina agentis</i> – names describing, characterizing persons and animals	<i>dzied-ā-t</i> ‘to sing’ – <i>dzied-on-is</i> , -e ‘singer, songbird’ <i>var-ē-t</i> ‘to be able’ – <i>var-on-is</i> , -e ‘hero’ <i>cens-ties</i> ‘to strive’ – <i>cens-on-is</i> , -e ‘striver’ <i>dauz-ī-t</i> ‘to beat, to batter’ – <i>dauz-on-is</i> , -e ‘brawler’ <i>lid-o-t</i> ‘to fly’ – <i>lid-on-is</i> , -e ‘a person or animal who flies’ <i>plēs-t</i> ‘to rip, to tear’ – <i>plēs-on-is</i> , -e ‘predator’
		things	<i>dzel-t</i> ‘to sting’ – <i>dzel-on-is</i> ‘prickle, thorn’ <i>vilk-t</i> ‘to pull, to tug’ – <i>velk-u</i> PRS 1 SG – <i>velk-on-is</i> ‘tugboat’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – diseases, symptoms	<i>dil-t</i> ‘to wear out, to dwindle’ – <i>dil-on-is</i> ‘pulmonary tuberculosis, consumption’ <i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>aug-on-is</i> ‘boil, abscess’ <i>reib-t</i> ‘to feel dizzy’ – <i>reib-on-is</i> ‘dizziness’ <i>ģīb-t</i> ‘to faint’ – <i>ģīb-on-is</i> ‘fainting fit’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – natural phenomena	<i>zied-ē-t</i> ‘to bloom’ – <i>zied-on-is</i> ‘springtime, one’s prime’ <i>māk-ties</i> ‘to get cloudy’ – <i>māk-on-is</i> ‘cloud’ <i>šķīs-t</i> ‘to melt, to dissolve’ – <i>šķīd-on-is</i> ‘slush’
	-oņ- [i.e., [uo]] + -a (F); usually derived from the root	<i>nomina actionis</i> – continuous, intensive activities or processes	<i>rūk-t</i> ‘to roar’ – <i>rūk-oņ-a</i> ‘roaring’ <i>šņāk-t</i> ‘to hiss’ – <i>šņāk-oņ-a</i> ‘hissing’ <i>dun-ē-t</i> ‘to drone’ – <i>dun-oņ-a</i> ‘droning’ <i>gaud-o-t</i> ‘to howl’ – <i>gaud-oņ-a</i> ‘howling’
		<i>nomina agentis</i> – persons and animals; common gender nouns; often, pejorative	<i>muld-ē-t</i> ‘to blabber’ – <i>muld-oņ-a</i> ‘blabber’ <i>snaus-t</i> ‘to take a nap’ – <i>snaud-oņ-a</i> ‘sleepy person’ <i>bland-ī-ties</i> ‘to roam’ – <i>bland-oņ-a</i> ‘roamer’ <i>plēs-t</i> ‘to rip, to tear’ – <i>plēs-oņ-a</i> ‘predator’
	-šan- + -a (F, NREFL), + -ās (F, REFL); derived from the infinitive stem	<i>nomina actionis</i> – actions as processes	<i>cel-t</i> ‘to lift’ – <i>cel-šan-a</i> ‘lifting’ <i>smie-ties</i> ‘to laugh’ – <i>smie-šan-ās</i> ‘laughing’ <i>dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think’ – <i>dom-ā-šan-a</i> ‘thinking’ <i>mazg-ā-ties</i> ‘to wash oneself’ – <i>mazg-ā-šan-ās</i> ‘washing oneself’ <i>las-ī-t</i> ‘to read’ – <i>las-ī-šan-a</i> ‘reading’ <i>audz-inā-t</i> ‘to raise, to bring up’ – <i>audz-inā-šan-a</i> ‘raising, bringing up’ <i>māc-ī-ties</i> ‘to study’ – <i>māc-ī-šan-ās</i> ‘studying’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-tav- + -a, -as / -tuv- + -e (F); usually derived from the infinitive stem (-tav- with conjugation 2, 3 verbs, -tuv- with conjugation 1 verbs)	locative nominalizations	<i>tīr-ī-t</i> ‘to clean’ – <i>tīr-ī-tav-a</i> ‘(dry) cleaner’s’ <i>mazg-ā-t</i> ‘to wash’ – <i>mazg-ātav-a</i> ‘laundry room’ <i>slid-o-t</i> ‘to skate’ – <i>slid-o-tav-a</i> ‘skating rink’ <i>peld-ē-t</i> ‘to swim’ – <i>peld-ē-tav-a</i> ‘place for swimming’ <i>glud-inā-t</i> ‘to iron’ – <i>glud-inā-tav-a</i> ‘ironing room’ <i>cep-t</i> ‘to bake’ – <i>cep-tuv-e</i> ‘bakery’ <i>mal-t</i> ‘to mill’ – <i>mal-tuv-e</i> ‘flour mill’ <i>kau-t</i> ‘to slaughter’ – <i>kau-tuv-e</i> ‘slaughterhouse’
		things, tools; derivatives with -tav- usually are <i>pluralia tantum</i>	<i>škil-t</i> ‘strike (fire)’ – <i>škil-tav-as</i> ‘lighter’ <i>tī-t</i> ‘to reel’ – <i>tī-tav-as</i> ‘reel’ <i>sē-t</i> ‘to sow’ – <i>sē-tuv-e</i> ‘sowing basket’ <i>spļau-t</i> ‘to spit’ – <i>spļau-tuv-e</i> ‘spittoon’
	-tāj- + -s (M), -a (F); usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 2, 3 verbs	<i>nomina agentis</i> – usually persons, sometimes also names of animals	<i>las-ī-t</i> ‘to read’ – <i>las-ī-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘reader’ <i>staig-ā-t</i> ‘to walk’ – <i>staig-ā-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘walker’ <i>peld-ē-t</i> ‘to swim’ – <i>peld-ē-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘swimmer’ <i>slēp-o-t</i> ‘to ski’ – <i>slēp-o-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘skier’
		<i>nomina agentis</i> – job titles, professions, occupations	<i>dzied-ā-t</i> ‘to sing’ – <i>dzied-ā-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘singer’ <i>skol-o-t</i> ‘to school’ – <i>skol-o-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘teacher’ <i>audz-inā-t</i> ‘to raise, educate’ – <i>audz-inā-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘preschool teacher, child-minder’ <i>māc-ī-t</i> ‘to teach’ – <i>māc-ī-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘priest’ <i>projekt-ē-t</i> ‘to design, plan’ – <i>projekt-ē-tāj-s, -a</i> ‘design engineer’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – devices, tools, machines	<i>mais-ī-t</i> ‘to mix’ – <i>mais-ī-tāj-s</i> ‘mixer’ <i>žāv-ē-t</i> ‘to dry’ – <i>žāv-ē-tāj-s</i> ‘dryer’ <i>līmeņ-o-t</i> ‘to level’ – <i>līmeņ-o-tāj-s</i> ‘leveling device’ <i>mod-inā-t</i> ‘to wake up (obj.)’ – <i>mod-inā-tāj-s</i> ‘alarm clock’ <i>pa-gar-inā-t</i> ‘to extend’ – <i>pa-gar-inā-tāj-s</i> ‘extension cable’
	-ul- + -is (M), -e (F); usually derived from the root	<i>nomina agentis</i> – usually, nouns with a pejorative meaning naming persons, also animals	<i>vārg-t</i> ‘to weaken (no obj.)’ – <i>vārg-ul-is, -e</i> ‘weakling’ <i>snaus-t</i> ‘to take a nap’ – <i>snaud-ul-is, -e</i> ‘sleepy head’ <i>raud-ā-t</i> ‘to cry, to whine’ – <i>raud-ul-is, -e</i> ‘whiner’ <i>grib-ē-t</i> ‘to desire’ – <i>grib-ul-is, -e</i> ‘sexual desire’ <i>ne-māc-ē-t</i> ‘not to know how’ – <i>ne-māk-ul-is, -e</i> ‘inept, unskilled person’
		various things	<i>zīm-ē-t</i> ‘to draw’ – <i>zīm-ul-is</i> ‘pencil’ <i>vēst-ī-t</i> ‘to make known, to relate’ – <i>vēst-ul-e</i> ‘letter’ <i>šūp-o-t</i> ‘to rock’ – <i>šūp-ul-is</i> ‘cradle (mounted on rockers)’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> – sensations	<i>drebē-t</i> ‘to tremble’ – <i>dreb-ul-is</i> , also PL <i>drebuļi</i> ‘trembling, the shivers’ <i>tīrp-t</i> ‘to grow numb’ – <i>tīrp-ul-i</i> ‘numbness, pins and needles’ <i>skurb-t</i> ‘to get tipsy, giddy’ – <i>skurb-ul-is</i> ‘tipsiness, giddiness’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-um- + -s (M); usually derived from the PST stem	<i>nomina actionis</i> – result nominalizations	<i>lēm-t</i> ‘to decide’ – <i>lēm-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>lēm-um-s</i> ‘decision’ <i>plāu-t</i> ‘to reap, to mow’ – <i>plāv-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>plāv-um-s</i> ‘reaping, (hay harvest)’ <i>vērt-ē-t</i> ‘to evaluate’ – <i>vērt-ē-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>vērt-ē-j-um-s</i> ‘evaluation’ <i>lab-o-t</i> ‘to correct’ – <i>lab-o-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>lab-o-j-um-s</i> ‘correction’ <i>las-i-t</i> ‘to read’ – <i>las-i-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>las-i-j-um-s</i> ‘reading’ <i>mēg-inā-t</i> ‘to attempt’ – <i>mēg-inā-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>mēg-inā-j-um-s</i> ‘attempt’ <i>dzied-ā-t</i> ‘to sing’ – <i>dzied-ā-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>dzied-ā-j-um-s</i> ‘singing, also chant, canto’
		abstract or concrete things	<i>lik-t</i> ‘to compel’ – <i>lik-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>lik-um-s</i> ‘law’ <i>uz-do-t</i> ‘to assign a task to’ – <i>uz-dev-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>uz-dev-um-s</i> ‘task’ <i>aus-t</i> ‘to weave’ – <i>aud-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>aud-um-s</i> ‘fabric’ <i>ie-vār-ī-t</i> ‘to preserve, to boil down’ – <i>ie-vār-ī-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>ie-vār-ī-j-um-s</i> ‘jam, preserves’ <i>sald-ē-t</i> ‘to freeze (obj.)’ – <i>sald-ē-j-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>sald-ē-j-um-s</i> ‘ice cream’
		places	<i>līs-t</i> ‘to clear (woodland)’ – <i>līd-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>līd-um-s</i> ‘clearing (of woodland for tillage)’ <i>iz-cīrs-t</i> ‘to cut, to fell’ – <i>iz-cīrt-u</i> PST 1 SG – <i>iz-cīrt-um-s</i> ‘felling site, clearing’

Table 2.6 Main noun formation types in Latvian: suffixation

Endings

Endings are another means of noun formation in Latvian. Endings are mostly attached to nominal, adjectival, and verbal bases. A special subtype are full-paradigm nouns derived from genitive-only nouns, i.e., compound nouns that have just one case form: the SG or PL (F/M) genitive (see Section 2.1.1 for a detailed discussion); full-paradigm nouns derived from genitive-only nouns and naming living beings, plants, sometimes also objects in a classifying way usually have both gender forms.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-e (F)	things, names of animals, groups of persons	<i>rag-s</i> ‘horn’ – <i>radze</i> ‘spike’ <i>snieg-s</i> ‘snow’ – <i>sniedz-e</i> ‘snow bird’ <i>draug-s</i> ‘friend’ – <i>draudz-e</i> ‘congregation’ <i>cilvēk-s</i> ‘human’ – <i>cilvēc-e</i> ‘humanity’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	-s, -š (M), -a, -as (F)	physical phenomena, abstract and concrete concepts, things	<i>bez-gais-a</i> ‘vacuum (premodifier)’ – <i>bez-gais-s</i> ‘vacuum’ <i>bez-svar-a</i> ‘zero-gravity (premodifier)’ – <i>bez-svar-s</i> ‘zero-gravity’ <i>bez-věj-a</i> ‘windless’ – <i>bez-věj-š</i> ‘windlessness, still air’ <i>ātr-gait-as</i> ‘high-speed (premodifier)’ – <i>ātr-gait-a</i> ‘high speed’ <i>pie-pil-sēt-as</i> ‘suburban’ – <i>pie-pil-sēt-a</i> ‘suburbs’ <i>mūs-dien-u</i> ‘contemporary’ – <i>mūs-dien-as</i> ‘present, current times’
	-is (M), -e (F)	things, abstract concepts, classificatory names of plants and living beings	<i>trij-stūr-u</i> ‘triangular’ – <i>trij-stūr-is</i> ‘triangle’ <i>simt-gad-u</i> ‘centenary (premodifier)’ – <i>simt-gad-e</i> ‘centenary, century’ <i>sīk-lap-u</i> ‘small-leaved’ – <i>sīk-lap-is, -e</i> ‘small-leaved plant’ <i>gar-ast-es</i> ‘long-tailed’ – <i>gar-ast-is, -e</i> ‘long-tailed animal’ <i>bez-sird-s</i> ‘heartless’ – <i>bez-sird-is, -e</i> ‘heartless person’ <i>brūn-ac-u</i> ‘brown-eyed’ – <i>brūn-ac-is, -e</i> ‘person or animal with brown eyes’ <i>zelt-mat-u</i> ‘golden-haired’ – <i>zelt-mat-is, -e</i> ‘golden-haired person’
ADJ–N	-is (M)	persons, names of animals (esp. specifying the color of horses, cows), things; some nouns have both gender forms	<i>meln-s</i> ‘black’ – <i>meln-is, -e</i> ‘black horse’ <i>resn-s</i> ‘fat’ – <i>resn-is, -e</i> ‘fat person, fatty’ <i>slink-s</i> ‘lazy’ – <i>sliņķ-is, -e</i> ‘lazy person, lazybones’ <i>ne-rātn-s</i> ‘mischievous, naughty’ – <i>ne-rātn-is, -e</i> ‘mischievous, naughty person’ <i>bārd-ain-s</i> ‘bearded’ – <i>bārd-ain-is</i> ‘bearded person, bearded’ <i>ūs-ain-s</i> ‘moustached’ – <i>ūs-ain-is</i> ‘moustached person’ <i>sprog-ain-s</i> ‘curly’ – <i>sprog-ain-is, -e</i> ‘animal or person with curly coat or hair’ <i>pirkst-ain-s</i> ‘having fingers’ – <i>pirkst-ain-is</i> ‘glove’ <i>dūr-ain-s</i> ‘with a clenched fist’ – <i>dūr-ain-is</i> ‘mitten’
	-a, -as (F)	abstract concepts, feelings; usually, <i>pluralia tantum</i>	<i>skumj-š</i> ‘sad’ – <i>skumj-as</i> ‘sadness’ <i>ilg-s</i> ‘long’ – <i>ilg-as</i> ‘longing’
	-e (F)	things, abstract concepts, places	<i>ciet-s</i> ‘hard, solid’ – <i>ciet-e</i> ‘starch’ <i>tāl-s</i> ‘distant’ – <i>tāl-e</i> ‘distance’ <i>kār-s</i> ‘eager, craving’ – <i>kār-e</i> ‘craving, desire’ <i>liksm-s</i> ‘joyful, joyous’ – <i>liksm-e</i> ‘joy’ <i>vīln-ain-s</i> ‘woolly’ – <i>vīln-ain-e</i> (i.e., <i>villaine</i>) ‘plaid shawl, woollen shawl’ <i>purv-ain-s</i> ‘boggy’ – <i>purv-ain-e</i> ‘boggy place’ <i>mēsl-ain-s</i> ‘full of rubbish’ – <i>mēsl-ain-e</i> ‘a site for rubbish, a dump’ <i>māl-ain-s</i> ‘clayey’ – <i>māl-ain-e</i> ‘place with clayey soil’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-s (M)	things; usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1 verbs	<i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>aug-s</i> ‘plant’ <i>tērp-t</i> ‘to clothe’ – <i>tērp-s</i> ‘clothes, garment’ <i>aiz-kār-t</i> (i.e., <i>aizkart</i>) ‘to curtain off’ – <i>aiz-kar-s</i> ‘curtain’ <i>ap-au-t</i> ‘to put on shoes’ – <i>ap-av-s</i> (i.e., <i>apavi</i> PL) ‘footwear, shoes’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> , <i>nomina agentis</i> ; usually derived from the root of conjugation 2, 3 verbs	<i>ap-rakst-ī-t</i> ‘to describe’ – <i>ap-raksts-s</i> ‘description’ <i>pa-dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think, to reflect’ – <i>pa-dom-s</i> ‘advice’ <i>ie-vad-ī-t</i> ‘introduce’ – <i>ie-vad-s</i> ‘introduction’ <i>pār-lūk-o-t</i> ‘to browse’ – <i>pār-lūk-s</i> ‘browser’ <i>pār-raudz-ī-t</i> ‘to supervise’ – <i>pār-raug-s</i> , <i>-dze</i> ‘supervisor’
	-is (M)	things, also names of animals; usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1 verbs	<i>urb-t</i> ‘to drill’ – <i>urb-is</i> ‘drill’ <i>slēg-t</i> ‘to switch’ – <i>slēdz-is</i> ‘switch’ <i>lenk-t</i> ‘to surround’ – <i>leņķ-is</i> ‘angle’ <i>vilk-t</i> ‘to pull’ – <i>viļķ-is</i> ‘(cork)screw’ <i>svilp-t</i> ‘to whistle’ – <i>svilp-is</i> ‘whistle’
		<i>nomina agentis</i> , usually derived from the root of conjugation 2, 3 verbs and have both gender forms	<i>mel-o-t</i> ‘to tell lies’ – <i>mel-is</i> , <i>-e</i> ‘liar’ <i>aiz-stāv-ē-t</i> ‘to defend’ – <i>aiz-stāv-is</i> , <i>-e</i> ‘defender’ <i>pār-zin-ā-t</i> ‘to look after, to curate’ – <i>pār-zin-is</i> , <i>-e</i> ‘keeper, curator’
	-a, -as (F)	things, abstract concepts, places; usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1 verbs	<i>teik-t</i> ‘to tell’ – <i>teik-a</i> ‘tale’ <i>steig-t</i> ‘to hurry’ – <i>steig-a</i> ‘hurry’ <i>mig-t</i> ‘to fall asleep’ – <i>mig-a</i> ‘den, lair’ <i>at-slēg-t</i> ‘to unlock’ – <i>at-slēg-a</i> ‘key’ <i>pār-tik-t</i> ‘to live on’ – <i>pār-tik-a</i> ‘provisions’
		<i>nomina actionis</i> ; usually derived from the root of conjugation 2, 3 verbs	<i>gaid-ī-t</i> ‘to wait’ – <i>gaid-as</i> ‘expectations, anticipation’ <i>ie-tec-ē-t</i> ‘to flow into (of a river)’ – <i>ie-tek-a</i> ‘mouth (of a river)’ <i>sa-run-ā-t</i> ‘to say a lot of things, to arrange, to agree’ – <i>sa-run-a</i> ‘talk, conversation’ <i>sa-slauc-ī-t</i> ‘to sweep up, to wipe up’ – <i>sa-slauk-as</i> ‘sweepings’
		pejorative ways of referring to persons; common gender nouns; derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1 verbs and from the root of conjugation 2, 3 verbs; derivatives may have root-final consonant- <i>j</i> alternation	<i>snaus-t</i> (i.e., <i>snaud-</i>) ‘to take a nap’ – <i>snauš-a</i> ‘sleepy person’ <i>ne-jēg-t</i> ‘not to understand’ – <i>ne-jēg-a</i> ‘halfwit, dullard’ <i>ne-pras-t</i> (i.e., <i>prat-</i>) ‘not to know how’ – <i>ne-praš-a</i> ‘unskilled, inept person’ <i>ne-viž-o-t</i> ‘not to care, not to take trouble’ – <i>ne-viž-a</i> ‘lazy, negligent person’ <i>glūn-ē-t</i> ‘to lurk’ – <i>glūn-a</i> ‘lurker’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–N	-e (F)	<i>nomina actionis</i> ; usually derived from the infinitive stem of conjugation 1 verbs	<i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>audz-e</i> ‘stand, a group of growing plants’ <i>ēs-t</i> (i.e., <i>ēd-</i>) ‘to eat’ – <i>ēd-e</i> ‘eczema’ <i>spies-t</i> (i.e., <i>spied-</i>) ‘to press, squeeze’ – <i>spied-e</i> ‘press, squeezer’ <i>at-lais-t</i> (i.e., <i>laid-</i>) ‘to release, to reduce’ – <i>at-laid-e</i> ‘discount’ <i>aiz-deg-t</i> ‘to ignite’ – <i>aiz-dedz-e</i> ‘ignition’
		things, abstract concepts, places; usually derived from the root of conjugation 2, 3 verbs	<i>kalt-ē-t</i> ‘to dry’ – <i>kalt-e</i> ‘drying room, drying house’ <i>ie-cer-ē-t</i> ‘to conceive, to intend’ – <i>ie-cer-e</i> ‘idea, intention’ <i>pār-vald-ī-t</i> ‘to manage, to govern, to administer’ – <i>pār-vald-e</i> ‘administration, governance’ <i>ap-kalp-o-t</i> ‘to attend, to serve’ – <i>ap-kalp-e</i> ‘crew’ <i>pie-gād-ā-t</i> ‘to supply’ – <i>pie-gād-e</i> ‘supply’

Table 2.7 Main noun formation types in Latvian: endings

Prefixation

Derivation of nouns by prefixation is controversial in Latvian: it is not clear that prefixes actually actively function as means of noun formation in the language. Traditionally, Latvian grammars have listed prefixes among affixes used for deriving new nouns – e.g., Ahero et al. (1959: 184–190) and Vulāne (2013: 212–220) provide comprehensive overviews.

This grammar departs from the traditional approach, recognizing that there is an essential difference between prefixed nouns, on the one hand, and prefixed verbs and adjectives, where prefixes are active means of word formation, on the other hand.

Firstly, a large part of nouns that contain prefixes are derived from prefixed verbs, e.g.:

- (2.1.140) a. *brauk-t* ‘to go (in a vehicle), drive’ – *aiz-brauk-t* (perfective) – *aiz-brauk-šan-a* (action, process nom.)
b. *sauk-t* ‘to call’ – *iz-sauk-t* ‘to call (invite), to cause’ (or *iz-sauk-ties*) – *iz-sauc-ien-s* ‘exclamation’
c. *vērt-ē-t* ‘to evaluate’ – *no-vērt-ē-t* (perfective) – *no-vērt-ēj-um-s* ‘evaluation’
d. *star-o-t* ‘to radiate, to beam’ – *at-star-o-t* ‘to reflect’ – *at-star-o-tāj-s* ‘reflector’
e. *vald-ī-t* ‘to rule, to reign, to dominate’ – *pār-vald-ī-t* ‘to manage, to govern, to administer’ – *pār-vald-e* ‘administration, governance’
f. *run-ā-t* ‘to talk’ – *sa-run-ā-t* ‘to say a lot of things, to arrange, to agree’ – *sa-run-a* ‘talk, conversation’
g. *sac-ī-t* ‘to say, to tell’ – *pa-sac-ī-t* (perfective) – *pa-sak-a* ‘fairytale’

None of the nouns in (2.1.140) are formed by prefixation. Formal and semantic derivational relationships in the derivational sequences indicate that the nouns are derived by attaching a suffix (2.1.140a–d) or an ending (2.1.140e–g) to a prefixed, rather than a non-prefixed, verb. Hence, prefixes here are means of verb, not noun, formation. This is also true of negatives with *ne-* – in nouns of verbal and adjectival origin, the prefix *ne-* is usually part of the verbal (2.1.141) or adjectival (2.1.142) base.

- (2.1.141) *cien-ī-t* ‘to respect’ – *ne-cien-ī-t* ‘to disrespect’ – *ne-cieņ-a* ‘disrespect’
zin-ā-t ‘to know’ – *ne-zin-ā-t* ‘to not know’ – *ne-zīņ-a* ‘not knowing, uncertainty’
nāk-t ‘to come’ – *ne-nāk-t* ‘to not come’ – *ne-nāk-šan-a* (action, process nom.)
- (2.1.142) *tīr-s* ‘clean’ – *ne-tīr-s* ‘unclean, dirty’ – *ne-tīr-um-s* or *ne-tīr-īb-a* ‘uncleanliness, dirt’, *ne-tīr-el-is*, *-e* ‘a dirty person’
krietn-s ‘honest’ – *ne-krietn-s* ‘dishonest’ – *ne-krietn-īb-a* ‘dishonesty’,
ne-krietn-el-is, *-e* ‘a dishonest person’

Only in cases where the prefix *ne-* attaches directly to a base noun is it possible to speak of prefixal word-formation types (Table 2.8).

Secondly, with regard to secondary nouns of the kind shown in (2.1.143) there is the essential question of how to interpret the word-initial morphemes – as prefixes (e.g., Ahero et al. 1959: 182; Vulāne 2013: 212–213, 246–248 on combined prefix–suffix affixation) or prepositions. Prepositional phrases that underlie such nouns (and are linked to them by mutual semantic motivation) suggest that these are actually compounds based on a preposition and a noun (see also Ahero et al. op.cit.). The fact that compounds often have a different ending than their source noun, points to concretization of meaning in new formations.

- (2.1.143) a. *ap-roc-e* ‘bracelet’ < *ap roku* ‘around the arm’
b. *aiz-krāsn-e* ‘space behind the stove (in a house)’ < *aiz krāsns* ‘behind a stove’
c. *no-mal-e* ‘outskirts’ < *no malas* ‘on the outside, from outside’
d. *pār-galv-is* ‘reckless person’ < *pār galvu* ‘over one’s head’
e. *pie-krast-e* ‘coastal area’ < *pie krasta* ‘by the coast’
f. *uz-gal-is* ‘tip, attachment’ < *uz gala* ‘at the tip’

From the point of view of semantics, nouns having the elements *at-* and *ie-* as their first component fit in with other members of this group:

- (2.1.144) a. *at-starp-e* ‘space’, *at-kāz-as* ‘a post-nuptial feast held one week after a wedding’, *at-vasar-a* ‘Indian summer’
b. *ie-roc-is* ‘weapon’, *ie-nadz-is* ‘cuticle’, *ie-mut-is* ‘mouthpiece’

The difficulty lies in the fact that there are no prepositions corresponding to these prefixes in contemporary Latvian, hence, there are also no corresponding prepositional phrases. Word-formation types similar to those illustrated in (2.1.143) are included in the subsection on compounds (see Table 2.9).

Thirdly, nouns beginning with *bez*, *pirms*, *priekš*, *pret*, *zem*, *apakš*, *caur*, *starp*, *virš*, etc., which can be formed from all kinds of bases – genitive-only nouns

(themselves compounds based on a prepositional phrase), noun–noun, adverb–noun, verb–adverb word combinations, etc., are also best viewed as compounds (see Ahero et al. 1959: 183–184, 190–196; Vulāne 2013: 212–220 for a discussion), see Table 2.9, since elements forming the first part of these nouns – prepositions, adverbs, and nouns – have not grammaticalized into prefixes in Latvian.

Finally, there is a small number of noun formation types that are best interpreted as cases of prefixation, see, e.g., derivatives with the prefixes *ne-* and *pa-* in Table 2.8.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N–N	ne-	negation, absence, opposites of things, phenomena, also the meaning ‘one that is bad’	<i>zāl-e</i> ‘grass’ – <i>ne-zāl-e</i> ‘weed’ <i>spēk-s</i> ‘strength’ – <i>ne-spēk-s</i> ‘absence of strength, weakness’ <i>ceļ-š</i> ‘road’ – <i>ne-ceļ-š</i> ‘bad road, dead end’ <i>prāt-s</i> ‘mind’ – <i>ne-prāt-s</i> ‘madness’ <i>zvēr-s</i> ‘beast, animal’ – <i>ne-zvēr-s</i> ‘monster’ <i>gal-s</i> ‘end’ – <i>ne-gal-s</i> ‘continuous trouble, bother’
	pa-	subordination, inclusiveness, similarity, also substitution	<i>sug-a</i> ‘species’ – <i>pa-sug-a</i> ‘subspecies’ <i>veid-s</i> ‘type’ – <i>pa-veid-s</i> ‘subtype’ <i>nātr-e</i> ‘nettle’ – <i>pa-nātr-e</i> ‘dead-nettle’ <i>māt-e</i> ‘mother’ – <i>pa-māt-e</i> ‘stepmother’ <i>tēv-s</i> ‘father’ – <i>pa-tēv-s</i> ‘stepfather’ <i>meit-a</i> ‘daughter’ – <i>pa-meit-a</i> ‘stepdaughter’ <i>dēl-s</i> ‘son’ – <i>pa-dēl-s</i> ‘stepson’

Table 2.8 Derivation of nouns by prefixation

Compounds

The greatest variety of compounds in Latvian is found among nouns. Semantically endocentric determinative right-headed compounds based on phrases (i.e., subordinate structures) are predominant; other types include determinative left-headed compounds, semantically exocentric compounds as well as compounds based on preposition / adverb–noun word combinations. There is also a small number of copulative compound nouns.

The description of compound nouns in this grammar is based on the types (and subtypes) of syntactic structures underlying compound formation. Syntactic relations between words in each particular source structure enable the process of separate words merging into larger compounds and are thus the principal means of compound formation in Latvian. Compound formation is also usually linked to prosody in the sense that while each component of a compound normally has its own first-syllable word stress, compounds only have one.

As a rule, right-headed compounds inherit the ending and, accordingly, the declension of the head-word (at the same time, left-headed compounds with *pus-* as their first element have the same ending as the dependent). However, forming certain

types of compounds, namely, compounds based on instrumental or prepositional phrases, as well as verb-headed compounds (based on modern Latvian word order), involves adding the ending *-is* (M) or *-e* (F). For compounds having the same ending as the head-word of the source structure (incl. genitive-only nouns) the ending is not listed under *Word-formation means*; in all other cases, endings are included as means of word formation. The head-word of the source structure in each example, if identifiable, is highlighted in bold.

Source structure – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N + N – N 1) $N_{\text{GEN}} + N - N$		persons and other living beings, things, abstract concepts, places, etc.	<i>telp-as</i> aug-s ‘house plant’ – <i>telp-aug-s</i> ‘houseplant’ <i>up-es</i> mal-a ‘bank of a river’ – <i>up-mal-a</i> ‘riverbank’ <i>nam-a</i> māt-e ‘mistress of the house’ – <i>nam-(a)-māt-e</i> ‘mistress of the house’ <i>vid-us</i> laik-i ‘middle ages’ – <i>vid-(us)-laik-i</i> ‘Middle Ages’
		places, spatial oppositions	<i>priekš-as</i> kāj-a ‘front leg’ – <i>priekš-kāj-a</i> ‘foreleg’ <i>pakaļ-as</i> kāj-a ‘back leg’ – <i>pakaļ-kāj-a</i> ‘hind leg’ <i>augš-as</i> stilb-s ‘upper shank’ – <i>augš-stilb-s</i> ‘thigh’ <i>apakš-as</i> stilb-s ‘lower shank’ – <i>apakš-stilb-s</i> ‘shank, shin’ <i>iekš-as</i> pus-e ‘inner side’ – <i>iekš-pus-e</i> ‘inside’ <i>ār-a</i> pus-e ‘outer side’ – <i>ār-pus-e</i> ‘outside’ <i>virš-as</i> daļ-a ‘top part’ – <i>virš-daļ-a</i> ‘top, surface’
2) $N + N_{\text{GEN}} - N$		the head-word is the word <i>puse</i> ‘half’; compounds express parts of a whole, middle points of time periods, partial similarity, etc.	<i>pus-e</i> gad-a ‘one half of a year’ – <i>pus-gad-s</i> ‘half-year’ <i>pus-e</i> nakt-s ‘middle of the night’ – <i>pus-nakt-s</i> ‘midnight’ <i>pus-e</i> viln-as ‘half wool’ – <i>pus-viln-a</i> ‘wool blend’
3) $N_{\text{GEN}} + N_{\text{GEN}} - N_{\text{GEN}}$		the head-word is the GEN word <i>veida</i> ‘-like, -shaped’; compounds express similarity to something else in form or substance as a feature	<i>pakava</i> veida ‘in the shape of a horseshoe’ – <i>pakav-veid-a</i> ‘horseshoe (as modifier), U-shaped’ <i>sird-s</i> veida ‘in the shape of the heart’ – <i>sird-(s)-veid-a</i> ‘heart-shaped’ <i>ol-as</i> veid-a ‘in the shape of an egg’ – <i>ol-veid-a</i> ‘egg-shaped’ <i>gāz-es</i> veid-a ‘in the form of a gas’ – <i>gāz-veid-a</i> ‘gaseous, gasiform’

Source structure – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
$N + V_{INF} - N$		<i>nomina actionis</i> ; the head-word is usually a deverbial noun	<i>grib-a</i> <i>ēs-t</i> ‘wanting to eat’ – <i>ēs-t-grib-a</i> ‘appetite’ <i>prasm-e</i> <i>dej-o-t</i> ‘skills for dancing’ – <i>dejot-prasm-e</i> ‘dancing skills’ <i>spēj-a</i> <i>cel-t</i> ‘capacity for lifting’ – <i>celt-spēj-a</i> ‘lifting capacity’
$N + ADV - N$		direction	<i>ceļ-š</i> <i>mājup</i> ‘way home’ – <i>mājup-ceļš</i> ‘homeward journey’ <i>ceļ-š</i> <i>turp</i> ‘way there’ – <i>turp-ceļ-š</i> ‘outbound journey’ <i>gait-a</i> <i>atpakaļ</i> ‘backward movement’ – <i>atpakaļ-gait-a</i> ‘reverse (gear)’ <i>vēj-š</i> <i>cauri</i> ‘wind (blowing) through’ – <i>caur-vēj-š</i> ‘draft’
$ADJ + N - N$ 1) $ADJ_{NOM} + N_{NOM} - N$		kinship terms, concrete and abstract things or concepts, food products, etc.	<i>vec-ā</i> <i>māt-e</i> ‘old mother’ – <i>vec-(ā)-māt-e</i> ‘grandmother’ <i>maz-s</i> <i>dēl-s</i> ‘little son’ – <i>maz-dēl-s</i> ‘grandson’ <i>liel-s</i> <i>ceļ-š</i> ‘large way’ – <i>liel-ceļ-š</i> ‘motorway’ <i>sīk-a</i> <i>datn-e</i> ‘small file’ – <i>sīk-datn-e</i> ‘cookie’ <i>biez-š</i> <i>pien-s</i> ‘thick milk’ – <i>biez-pien-s</i> ‘curds’ <i>balt-a</i> <i>maiz-e</i> ‘white bread’ – <i>balt-maiz-e</i> ‘white bread’
2) $ADJ_{GEN} + N_{GEN} - N_{GEN}$		features	<i>gar-a</i> <i>kāt-a</i> ‘having a long handle’ – <i>gar-kāt-a</i> ‘long-handled’ <i>ātr-as</i> <i>gait-as</i> ‘of high speed’ – <i>ātr-gait-as</i> ‘high-speed’ <i>vec-u</i> <i>laik-u</i> ‘of old times’ – <i>vec-laik-u</i> ‘old-time’ <i>sīku</i> <i>lap-u</i> ‘having small leaves’ – <i>sīk-lap-u</i> ‘small-leaved’
3) $ADJ_{INS} + N_{INS} - N$	-is (M), -e (F)	nouns describing, characterizing persons and other living beings, also plants	<i>sīrmu</i> <i>galvu</i> ‘with white hair’ – <i>sīrm-galv-is, -e</i> ‘a white-haired (elderly) person’ <i>gaišiem</i> <i>matiem</i> ‘with fair hair’ – <i>gaiš-mat-is, -e</i> ‘a fair-haired person’ <i>brūn-ām</i> <i>ac-īm</i> ‘with brown eyes’ – <i>brūn-ac-is, -e</i> ‘a brown-eyed person’
$PRON_{GEN} + N_{GEN} - N_{GEN}$		features	<i>mūs-u</i> <i>dien-u</i> ‘of our days’ – <i>mūs-dien-u</i> ‘contemporary’ <i>cīt-u</i> <i>taut-u</i> ‘of other nations’ – <i>cīt-taut-u</i> ‘foreign’ <i>paš-u</i> <i>māj-u</i> ‘(produced etc.) at home’ – <i>paš-māj-u</i> ‘domestic’
$ADV + N_{GEN} - N_{GEN}$		the head-word is the adverb <i>daudz</i> ‘much’; compounds express features	<i>daudz</i> <i>dien-u</i> ‘many days’ – <i>daudz-dien-u</i> ‘lasting many days, multi-day’ <i>daudz</i> <i>krās-u</i> ‘many colors’ – <i>daudz-krās-u</i> ‘multicolored’ <i>daudz</i> <i>bērn-u</i> ‘many children’ – <i>daudz-bērn-u</i> ‘having many children’

Source structure – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
NUM + N – N 1) NUM _{NOM} + + N _{NOM} – N _{NOM}		ordinal numerals as the first element – fractions, days of the week; with the ordinal numeral <i>pirmais</i> ‘first’, also first-time events, something initial, etc.	<i>trešā daļa</i> ‘the third part’ – <i>treš-daļ-a</i> ‘one-third’ <i>desmit-ā daļ-a</i> ‘the tenth part’ – <i>desmit-daļ-a</i> ‘one-tenth’ <i>pirm-ā diena</i> ‘the first day’ – <i>pirm-dien-a</i> ‘Monday’ <i>otrā dien-a</i> ‘the second day’ – <i>otr-dien-a</i> ‘Tuesday’ <i>piekt-ā dien-a</i> ‘the fifth day’ – <i>piekt-dien-a</i> ‘Friday’ <i>pirm-ais izdevum-s</i> ‘the first edition’ – <i>pirm-izdevum-s</i> ‘first edition’ <i>pirm-ā dzimten-e</i> ‘the first native country’ – <i>pirm-dzimten-e</i> ‘country of origin’
2) NUM _{GEN} + + N _{GEN} – N _{GEN}		features	<i>vien-as istab-as</i> ‘of one room’ – <i>vien-istab-as</i> ‘one-room’ <i>div-u māj-u</i> ‘of two homes’ – <i>div-māj-u</i> ‘dioecious’ <i>trīs krās-u</i> ‘of three colors’ – <i>trīs-krās-u</i> ‘three-color’ <i>tūkstoš gad-u</i> ‘of a thousand years’ – <i>tūkstoš-gad-u</i> ‘thousand-year, millennial’
3) NUM _{INS} + + N _{INS} – N	-is (M)	things, names of animals	<i>vien-u rag-u</i> ‘with one horn’ – <i>vien-radz-is</i> ‘unicorn’ <i>div-iem riteņ-iem</i> ‘with two wheels’ – <i>div-riten-is</i> ‘bicycle’ <i>trij-u stūr-u</i> ‘with three angles’ – <i>trij-stūr-u</i> ‘triangular’ <i>simt kāj-ām</i> ‘with one hundred legs’ – <i>simt-kāj-is</i> ‘centipede’
V + N – N 1) V i.e., PTCP + + N – N		with PRS PASS PTCP as a dependent, these compounds express objective, instrumental, or locative meanings	<i>gan-ām-s pulks</i> ‘herd to be pastured’ – <i>ganām-pulk-s</i> ‘herd, flock’ <i>las-ām-a grāmata</i> ‘book for reading’ – <i>lasām-grāmat-a</i> ‘reader (type of book)’ <i>ad-ām-a adata</i> ‘needle for knitting’ – <i>adām-adat-a</i> ‘knitting needle’ <i>ēd-am-ais gald-s</i> ‘table for eating’ – <i>ēdam-gald-s</i> ‘dinner table’ <i>guļ-am-ā istab-a</i> ‘room for sleeping’ – <i>guļam-istab-a</i> ‘bedroom’
		objective, instrumental, or locative meanings; the first element is the root (or, for conjugation 1 verbs, the present-tense stem) of a verb; these compounds do not translate into corresponding phrases with PRS PASS PTCP as a dependent	<i>plauj-mašin-a</i> ‘mower’ <i>kuļ-mašin-a</i> ‘thresher’ <i>lid-mašin-a</i> ‘airplane’ <i>pild-spelv-a</i> ‘pen’ <i>raid-lug-a</i> ‘radio play’ <i>sēd-viet-a</i> ‘seat, place’

Source structure – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
2) V + + NOM _{ACC} – – N	-is (M), -e (F)	<i>nomina agentis</i> – jobs, professions, other ways of referring to persons, also names of animals	<i>kalt zelt-u</i> ‘to smith gold’ – <i>zelt-kalis</i> , -e ‘goldsmith’ <i>kopt lopus</i> ‘to breed livestock’ – <i>lop-kopis</i> , -e ‘livestock breeder’ <i>darīt al-u</i> ‘to brew beer’ – <i>al-daris</i> , -e ‘(beer) brewer’ <i>nest ziņu</i> ‘to carry a message’ – <i>ziņ-nes-is</i> , -e ‘messenger’ <i>vest baru</i> ‘to lead a crowd’ – <i>bar-ved-is</i> , -e ‘leader, central figure of a group of people’ <i>grauz-t miz-u</i> ‘to eat bark’ – <i>miz-grauz-is</i> ‘bark beetle’
	-is (M)	<i>nomina actionis</i> – things, tools, devices	<i>rādī-t cen-u</i> ‘to show a price’ – <i>cen-rād-is</i> ‘pricelist’ <i>griez-t skrūv-i</i> ‘to turn a screw’ – <i>skrūv-griez-is</i> ‘screwdriver’ <i>mes-t starus</i> ‘to throw beams’ – <i>star-met-is</i> ‘searchlight, spotlight’
V + ADJ _{ACC} – N	-is (M), -e (F)	<i>nomina agentis</i> – persons possessing certain qualities	<i>darīt labu</i> ‘to do good’ – <i>lab-daris</i> , -e ‘benefactor’ <i>vēlēt labu</i> ‘to wish well’ – <i>lab-vēl-is</i> , -e ‘well-wisher’ <i>ēst lieku</i> ‘to eat for no purpose’ – <i>liek-ēd-is</i> , -e ‘parasite, idler’
V + ADV – N	-is (M), -e (F)	<i>nomina actionis</i> – things, devices, processes, etc.	<i>run-ā-t skaļi</i> ‘to speak loudly’ – <i>skaļ-run-is</i> ‘loudspeaker’ <i>run-ā-t tālu</i> ‘to speak remotely’ – <i>tāl-run-is</i> ‘telephone’ <i>spies-t augstu</i> ‘to press that which is raised’ – <i>augst-spied-e</i> ‘relief printing’ <i>nes-t pāri</i> ‘to carry over’ – <i>pār-nes-e</i> ‘transfer’
PREP + N – N 1) PREP + + N _{GEN} – N	-e (F), -is (M)	places, time, things, clothes	<i>aiz mugur-as</i> ‘behind one’s back’ – <i>aiz-mugur-e</i> ‘rear, back, backing’ <i>no mal-as</i> ‘from (the) outside’ – <i>no-mal-e</i> ‘outskirts’ <i>no stūr-a</i> ‘from/of a corner’ – <i>no-stūr-is</i> ‘corner, remote, secluded place’ <i>pie kāj-as</i> ‘by one’s foot’ – <i>pie-kāj-e</i> ‘foot (of a mountain, etc.)’ <i>pie vakar-a</i> ‘close to the evening’ – <i>pie-vakar-e</i> ‘late afternoon’ <i>uz gal-a</i> ‘at the tip’ – <i>uz-gal-is</i> ‘tip, attachment’ <i>uz rok-as</i> ‘on one’s arm’ – <i>uz-roc-is</i> ‘oversleeve’ <i>virš svārk-a</i> ‘over a jacket’ – <i>virš-svārc-is</i> ‘overalls’

Source structure – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
2) PREP + + N _{GEN} – N _{GEN}		types, kinds, places, time	<i>bez svar-a</i> ‘without weight’ – <i>bez-svar-a</i> ‘zero-gravity (premodifier)’ <i>pēc kara</i> ‘after a war’ – <i>pēc-kar-a</i> ‘post-war (premodifier)’ <i>pie māj-as</i> ‘by a house’ – <i>pie-māj-as</i> ‘adjoining (garden, plot, etc.)’ <i>pirms krīzes</i> ‘before a crisis’ – <i>pirms-krīz-es</i> ‘pre-crisis’ <i>priekš vēlēšan-u</i> ‘before an election’ – <i>priekš-vēlēšan-u</i> ‘pre-election’ <i>starp valst-u</i> ‘between countries, governments’ – <i>starp-valst-u</i> ‘intergovernmental, international’ <i>virs zem-es</i> ‘above the ground’ – <i>virs-zem-es</i> ‘above-ground, surface (premodifier)’ <i>zem grīdas</i> ‘under the floor’ – <i>zem-grīd-as</i> ‘underfloor’
3) PREP + + N _{ACC} – N	-e, -a (F), -is (M)	places, things	<i>pa kāj-ai</i> ‘at the foot’ – <i>pa-kāj-e</i> ‘bottom, foot (of a mountain, etc.)’ <i>pa krast-am</i> ‘at the coast’ – <i>pa-krast-e</i> ‘nearshore area under water, also coastal slope’ <i>pa galvai</i> ‘at the head’ – <i>pa-galv-is</i> ‘headrest’ <i>pa sakn-ei</i> ‘at the root’ – <i>pa-sakn-is</i> ‘counterfoil’
		places, also persons	<i>ap kakt-u</i> ‘around one’s neck’ – <i>ap-kakt-e</i> ‘collar’ <i>ap mal-u</i> ‘around the edge’ – <i>ap-mal-e</i> ‘edging, border’ <i>pār Daugav-u</i> ‘across the Daugava’ – <i>Pār-daugav-a</i> ‘the part of Rīga on the left bank of the Daugava’ <i>pār Gauj-u</i> ‘across the Gauja’ – <i>Pār-gauj-a</i> ‘area on the other side of the Gauja’ <i>pār galv-u</i> ‘over one’s head’ – <i>pār-galv-is, -e</i> ‘reckless person’
4) PREP + + N _{ACC} – N _{GEN}		types, kinds	<i>pret rūs-u</i> ‘against rust, corrosion’ – <i>pret-rūs-as</i> ‘anti-corrosive’ <i>pret gais-u</i> ‘against the air’ – <i>pret-gais-a</i> ‘anti-aircraft (defence)’ <i>pret alerģij-u</i> ‘against an allergy’ – <i>pret-alerģij-as</i> ‘non-allergenic, anti-allergenic’
N, N – N		time periods, abstract concepts, etc.	<i>dien-a</i> ‘day’, <i>nakt-s</i> ‘night’ – <i>dien-nakt-s</i> ‘twenty-four-hour period’ <i>sāl-s, maiz-e</i> ‘salt, bread’ – <i>sāl-(s)-maiz-e</i> ‘bread and salt’ <i>gaism-ēn-a</i> ‘light and shade’

Table 2.9 Main compound noun formation types in Latvian

2.2 ADJECTIVES

2.2.0 Introductory remarks

Adjectives form a class in Latvian comprised of words describing the properties of objects and are marked for gender, number, case, degree of comparison, and definiteness (Skujiņa 2007: 165). Adjectival gender, number, and case are contextual in the sense that adjectives agree in gender, number, and case with the noun to which they are syntactically linked:

- (2.2.1) a. *Abi* *sēņotāji*
both.NOM.PL.M mushroom_picker.NOM.PL.M
apmaldījās *biezajā* *mežā.*
get_lost.PST.3 dense.LOC.M.DEF forest.LOC.M
'Both mushroom picker got lost in the dense forest.' (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Dzelteno* *rožu* *saulainā* *krāsa*
yellow.GEN.PL.F.DEF rose.GEN.PL.F sunny.NOM.F.DEF color.NOM.F
rada *laimes* *sajūtu.*
create.PRS.3 happiness.GEN.F feeling.ACC.F
'The sunny color of yellow roses creates a feeling of happiness.'
(www.draugiem.lv)

The majority of adjectives in Latvian can have three main syntactic functions; they can be attributive (2.2.2), nominal predicative (2.2.3), or used as secondary predicates expressing a resultative meaning (2.2.4):

- (2.2.2) a. *Šodien* *spīd* *spoža* *saule.*
today shine.PRS.3 bright.NOM.F.INDF sun.NOM.F
'A bright sun shines today.'
- b. *Viņam* *negaršo* *zaļā* *tēja.*
he.DAT not_find_tasty.PRS.3 green.NOM.F.DEF tea.NOM.F
'He dislikes green tea.'
- (2.2.3) a. *Rīts* *ir* *vēss.*
morning.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 chilly.NOM.M.INDF
'The morning is chilly.'
- b. *Pusdienas* *ir* *garšīgas.*
dinner.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 tasty.NOM.PL.F.INDF
'The dinner is tasty.'
- (2.2.4) a. *Ezera* *virsmā* *jau* *krāsojās*
lake.GEN.M surface.NOM.F already take_on_color.PST.3
sārta.
pink.NOM.F.INDF
'The surface of the lake had already started turning pink.' (C)

- b. *Jaunlopa karbonāde ātri izcepas mīksta.*
 young_veal.GEN.M cutlet.NOM.F quickly fry.PRS.3 soft.NOM.F.INDF
 ‘A cutlet made from young veal only needs a bit of frying to get soft.’
 (www.draugiem.lv)

2.2.1 Declension

Indefinite and definite endings form the two major adjectival declension types in Latvian:

- 1) The indefinite type mirrors the inflectional endings of declension 1 nouns in masculine forms (*mazs* ‘small’ (M), *skaļš* ‘loud’ (M)) and declension 4 nouns in feminine forms (*maza* (F), *skaļa* (F)) (see Table 2.10).

Case	SG		PL	
	M	F	M	F
NOM	<i>maz-s, skaļ-š</i>	<i>maz-a, skaļ-a</i>	<i>maz-i, skaļ-i</i>	<i>maz-as, skaļ-as</i>
GEN	<i>maz-a, skaļ-a</i>	<i>maz-as, skaļ-as</i>	<i>maz-u, skaļ-u</i>	<i>maz-u, skaļ-u</i>
DAT	<i>maz-am, skaļ-am</i>	<i>maz-ai, skaļ-ai</i>	<i>maz-iem, skaļ-iem</i>	<i>maz-ām, skaļ-ām</i>
ACC	<i>maz-u, skaļ-u</i>	<i>maz-u, skaļ-u</i>	<i>maz-us, skaļ-us</i>	<i>maz-as, skaļ-as</i>
INS	<i>(ar) maz-u, skaļ-u</i>	<i>(ar) maz-u, skaļ-u</i>	<i>(ar) maz-iem, skaļ-iem</i>	<i>(ar) maz-ām, skaļ-ām</i>
LOC	<i>maz-ā, skaļ-ā</i>	<i>maz-ā, skaļ-ā</i>	<i>maz-os, skaļ-os</i>	<i>maz-ās, skaļ-ās</i>
VOC	<i>maz-s!, skaļ-š!</i>	<i>maz-a!, skaļ-a!</i>	<i>maz-i!, skaļ-i!</i>	<i>maz-as!, skaļ-as!</i>

Table 2.10 Declension of indefinite adjectives in Latvian (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 62)

- 3) The definite type has a unique paradigm for each gender (*mazais* ‘small (DEF)’ (M), *skaļais* ‘loud (DEF)’ (M); *mazā* (F), *skaļā* (F)) (see Table 2.11).

Case	SG		PL	
	M	F	M	F
NOM	<i>maz-ais, skaļ-ais</i>	<i>maz-ā, skaļ-ā</i>	<i>maz-ie, skaļ-ie</i>	<i>maz-ās, skaļ-ās</i>
GEN	<i>maz-ā, skaļ-ā</i>	<i>maz-ās, skaļ-ās</i>	<i>maz-o, skaļ-o</i>	<i>maz-o, skaļ-o</i>
DAT	<i>maz-ajam, skaļ-ajam</i>	<i>maz-ajai, skaļ-ajai</i>	<i>maz-ajiem, skaļ-ajiem</i>	<i>maz-ajām, skaļ-ajām</i>
ACC	<i>maz-o, skaļ-o</i>	<i>maz-o, skaļ-o</i>	<i>maz-os, skaļ-os</i>	<i>maz-ās, skaļ-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) maz-o, skaļ-o</i>	<i>(ar) maz-o, skaļ-o</i>	<i>(ar) maz-ajiem, skaļ-ajiem</i>	<i>(ar) maz-ajām, skaļ-ajām</i>
LOC	<i>maz-ajā, skaļ-ajā</i>	<i>maz-ajā, skaļ-ajā</i>	<i>maz-ajos, skaļ-ajos</i>	<i>maz-ajās, skaļ-ajās</i>
VOC	<i>maz-ais!, skaļ-ais!/ maz-o!, skaļ-o!</i>	<i>maz-ā!, skaļ-ā!/ maz-o!, skaļ-o!</i>	<i>maz-ie!, skaļ-ie!</i>	<i>maz-ās!, skaļ-ās!</i>

Table 2.11 Declension of definite adjectives in Latvian (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 62)

Adjectives do not have specific forms for the vocative case in Latvian. Corresponding nominative and, in the definite singular, also accusative forms are used with a vocative meaning. While definite adjectives are more common in the vocative function (whenever a person or a personified object is addressed he or she is thereby also specified) indefinite adjectives also do occur occasionally as vocatives, for example, in folklore texts:

- (2.2.5) a. *Mana mīla māmuliņa,*
 my.NOM.F **dear.NOM.F.INDF** mum.DIM.NOM.F
Kā tu zini, tā tu dari!
 how you.NOM.SG know.PRS.2SG so you.NOM.SG do.IMP.2SG
 ‘My dear mummy,
 Do as you see fit!’ (<http://latviandainas.lib.virginia.edu>)
- b. *Mācī, mācī, sveša māte,*
 teach.IMP.2SG teach.IMP.2SG **foreign.NOM.F.INDF** mother.NOM.F
Vai mācīt nedrīkstēji?
 Q teach.INF not_allow.PST.2SG
 ‘Teach me, teach me, another’s mother,’
 Or were you not allowed to teach?’ (<http://latviandainas.lib.virginia.edu>)

A peculiar kind of adjective-noun agreement is found in expressions of direct address containing definite adjectives (see also Holvoet 2012; Nitiņa 2013a: 391–392; Kalnača 2017a). A noun in the vocative proper permits both nominative (2.2.6) and accusative (2.2.7) adjectives:

- (2.2.6) $ADJ_{NOM} + N_{VOC}$
- a. *Atvaino, jaunais cilvēk!*
 forgive.IMP.2SG **young.NOM.M.DEF** **person.VOC.M**
 ‘Excuse me, young man!’ (C)
- b. *Mīlais tēti, tu paliec*
dear.NOM.M.DEF **dad.VOC.M** you.NOM.SG stay.IMP.2SG
mājās, mēs ar mammu iesim uz
 home.LOC.PL.F we.NOM with mum.INS.F go.FUT.1PL to
koncertu.
 concert.LOC.M
 ‘Dear daddy, stay at home, mummy and I are going to the concert.’
 (www.draugiem.lv)
- c. *Ak, māti, mīlā māt!*
 oh mother.VOC.F **dear.NOM.F.DEF** **mother.VOC.F**
 ‘Oh, mother, dear mother!’ (C)
- (2.2.7) $ADJ_{ACC} + N_{VOC}$
- a. *Manu mazo bērniņ, viss*
 my.ACC.M **little.ACC.M.DEF** **child.DIM.VOC.M** everything.NOM.M
ir kārtībā!
 be.COP.PRS.3 order.LOC.F
 ‘My little child, everything is all right!’ (C)

- b. *Manu mīlo eņģelīti, tu man*
 my.ACC.M dear.ACC.M.DEF angel.DIM.VOC.M you.NOM.SG I.DAT
iemācīji priecāties!
 teach.PST.2SG rejoice.INF
 ‘My dear angel, you taught me to feel joy!’ (www.maminuklubs.lv)
- c. *Tik par tevi ir šis stāsts,*
 only about you.ACC.SG be.PRS.3 this.NOM.M story.NOM.M
manu mīlo māti.
 my.ACC.F dear.ACC.F.DEF mother.VOC.F
 ‘This story is only about you, my dear mother.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

By contrast, a nominative noun used with a vocative function (declensions 1, 4, 5) only permits a nominative adjective within the same expression used for direct address, i.e., there is morphological adjective-noun agreement (2.2.8). This same type of morphological agreement occurs when a noun is in the accusative (declensions 1, 4) (2.2.9).

(2.2.8) ADJ_{NOM} + N_{NOM}

- a. *Stāvi, slinkais zirgs!*
 stop.IMP.2SG lazy.NOM.M.DEF horse.NOM.M
 ‘Stop, you lazy horse!’ (CW)
- b. *Mīlā māte daba, vienreiz*
 dear.NOM.F.DEF mother.NOM.F nature.NOM.F once
izlem – sniegs vai lietus!
 decide.IMP.2SG snow.NOM.M or rain.NOM.M
 ‘Dear mother nature, decide for once – snow or rain!’ (www.twitter.com)

(2.2.9) ADJ_{ACC} + N_{ACC}

- Mīlo mammu, es, tavs dēls,*
 dear.ACC.F.DEF mum.ACC.F I.NOM your.NOM.SG.M son.NOM.M
vairs nedzīvošu te.
 anymore not_live.FUT.1SG here
 ‘Dear mummy, I, your son, will not live here any longer.’ (CW)

Adjectives derived by means of the suffix *-ēj-* (*pēdējais-ā* ‘last (DEF)’ (M, F), *priekšējais-ā* ‘front (DEF)’ (M, F), *malējais-ā* ‘side (DEF)’ (M, F), *labējais-ā* ‘right, right-wing (DEF)’ (M, F), *vakarējais-ā* ‘yesterday’s (DEF)’ (M, F), *viršējais-ā* ‘upper (DEF)’ (M, F), etc.) have a mixed paradigm of definite endings in Standard Latvian: definite dative and locative endings for both numbers and definite instrumental plural endings are substituted with corresponding indefinite endings to prevent consecutive similar sound clusters from occurring (haplology) (see also Paegle 2003: 57–58; Nitiņa 2013a: 392–393; Kalnača 2014: 2–3):

Case	SG		PL	
	M	F	M	F
NOM	<i>malēj-ais</i>	<i>malēj-ā</i>	<i>malēj-ie</i>	<i>malēj-ās</i>
GEN	<i>malēj-ā</i>	<i>malēj-ās</i>	<i>malēj-o</i>	<i>malēj-o</i>
DAT	<i>malēj-am</i>	<i>malēj-ai</i>	<i>malēj-iem</i>	<i>malēj-ām</i>
ACC	<i>malēj-o</i>	<i>malēj-o</i>	<i>malēj-os</i>	<i>malēj-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) malēj-o</i>	<i>(ar) malēj-o</i>	<i>(ar) malēj-iem</i>	<i>(ar) malēj-ām</i>
LOC	<i>malēj-ā</i>	<i>malēj-ā</i>	<i>malēj-os</i>	<i>malēj-ās</i>
VOC	<i>malēj-ais! /malēj-o!</i>	<i>malēj-ā! /malēj-o!</i>	<i>malēj-ie!</i>	<i>malēj-ās!</i>

Table 2.12 Declension of adjectives containing the suffix *-ēj-* (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 63)

As was noted in the introductory remarks on word classes (Section 2.0.4), there exists a small group of indeclinable adjectives in Latvian. This group consists of borrowed color words: *rozā* ‘pink’, *lillā* ‘lilac’, *haki* ‘khaki’, *bordo* ‘bordeaux (color)’, *indigo* ‘indigo’:

- (2.2.10) a. *Salasījos žurnālus un man ievajadzējās*
 read.PST.1SG magazine.ACC.PL.M and I.DAT need.PST.3
rozā kvarcu.
pink quartz.ACC.M
 ‘Having read through the magazines I now need a pink quartz.’
 (www.delfi.lv)

- b. *Šoruden man noderētu soma haki vai*
 this_autumn I.DAT be_useful.COND bag.NOM.M **khaki** or
lillā krāsā.
lilac color.LOC.F
 ‘A khaki or lilac handbag would come in useful this autumn.’ (Diena)

There are also several adjectives that have lost their full case paradigms and nowadays only seem to appear in set expressions in just one case form, for example:

- (2.2.11) INS SG, PL *augu gadu* ‘all year long’, *augu nakti* ‘all night long’, *augām dienām* ‘for days on end’, used to refer to prolonged periods of time:

- a. *Puravs augu gadu saglabā kuplu*
 leek.NOM.M **all.INS.M** **year.INS.M** retain.PRS.3 rich.ACC.F
vitamīnu buķeti.
 vitamin.GEN.PL.M bouquet.ACC.F
 ‘Leek retains its rich vitamin bouquet throughout the year.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- b. *Pilsētā augām dienām uzņem*
 city.LOC.F **all.INS.PL.F** **day.INS.PL.F** receive.PRS.3
augstus viesus.
 high.ACC.PL.M guest.ACC.PL.M
 ‘Distinguished guests arrive in the city for days on end.’ (www.lsm.lv)

From the point of view of semantics two broad groups of adjectives are distinguished:

- 1) Qualitative adjectives, which describe the qualities that an object may possess to a greater or lesser degree (2.2.12) (Skujiņa 2007: 177). Consequently, qualitative adjectives are, in general, gradable and can form degrees of comparison (2.2.13)–(2.2.15).

(2.2.12) a. *skaista* *diena*
 beautiful.NOM.F.INDF day.NOM.F
 ‘a beautiful day’

b. *skaļa* *balss*
 loud.NOM.F.INDF voice.NOM.F
 ‘a loud voice’

c. *vecs* *nams*
 old.NOM.M.INDF house.NOM.M
 ‘an old house’

(2.2.13) a. *skaist-āk-a* *diena*
 beautiful-CMP-NOM.F.INDF day.NOM.F
 ‘a more beautiful day’

b. *vis-skaist-āk-ā* *diena*
 SPL-beautiful-CMP-NOM.F.DEF day.NOM.F
 ‘the most beautiful day’

(2.2.14) a. *skaļ-āk-a* *balss*
 loud-CMP-NOM.F.INDF voice.NOM.F
 ‘a louder voice’

b. *vis-skaļ-āk-ā* *balss*
 SPL-loud-CMP-NOM.F.DEF voice.NOM.F
 ‘the loudest voice’

(2.2.15) a. *vec-āk-s* *nams*
 old-CMP-NOM.M.INDF house.NOM.M
 ‘an older house’

b. *vis-vec-āk-ais* *nams*
 SPL-old-CMP-NOM.M.DEF house.NOM.M
 ‘the oldest house’

- 2) Relational adjectives, which describe the fixed, unvarying properties of an object. The lexical meaning of relational adjectives, as a rule, does not naturally lend itself to gradation, therefore, the majority of such adjectives lack degrees of comparison (Skujiņa 2007: 56).

(2.2.16) a. *vispārēja* *atzinība*
 universal.NOM.F.INDF recognition.NOM.F
 ‘universal recognition’

b. *pērnais* *rudens*
 last_year.NOM.M.DEF autumn.NOM.M
 ‘last year’s autumn’

- c. *malējais* *krēsls*
outermost.NOM.M.DEF chair.NOM.M
'the outermost chair'
- d. *galvenais* *notikums*
main.NOM.N.DEF event.NOM.M
'the main event'
- e. *piecgadīgs* *bērns*
five_years_old.NOM.M.INDF child.NOM.M
'a five-year-old child'
- f. *baložpelēks* *audums*
dove_grey.NOM.M.INDF fabric.NOM.M
'dove grey fabric'

This distinction, however, is not clear-cut and degrees of comparison for relational adjectives are formed quite often in actual language use (Paegle 2003: 55-56; Nītiņa 2013a: 373). Admittedly, it is impossible to propose a precise set of criteria for differentiating between qualitative and relational adjectives in Latvian, although certain clues can be gleaned from derivational morphology. Patterns of adjectival derivation show that derived adjectives tend to denote very concrete, non-variable properties (see Nītiņa 2013a: 373). Relational adjectives are, for the most part, complex words (2.2.17a), while qualitative adjectives are (at least synchronically) simplex (2.2.17b).

- (2.2.17) a. *stiklains* 'glassy', *malējais* 'outermost', *iebrūns* 'brownish', *iezilgans* 'blueish', *vīnsarkans* 'wine red', *divzīlbīgs* 'disyllabic', *brūnacains* 'brown-eyed'
- b. *jauns* 'new, young', *vecs* 'old', *slinks* 'lazy', *tievs* 'thin', *balts* 'white', *zils* 'blue', *liels* 'large', *labs* 'good'

Whereas gradable compound adjectives are extremely rare, derived adjectives, even though their lexical meaning is usually very concrete, are much more readily used in comparative and superlative forms, as the examples in (2.2.18) illustrate. It must be pointed out, however, that some of these are not considered acceptable in Standard Latvian. The adjective *galvenais* 'main (DEF)', which already has 'the highest degree' as part of its lexical meaning, is a case in point:

- (2.2.18) a. *Neviens* *ceļš* *nav*
none.NOM.M road.NOM.M be.NEG.COP.PRS.3
galven-āk-s *par* *otru*
important-CMP-NOM.M.INDF than another.ACC.M
'No road is more important than another.' (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Vīnš* *ir* *otrs* ***galven-āk-ais***
he.NOM be.COP.PRS.3 second.NOM.M **important-CMP-NOM.M.DEF**
[basketbola] *treneris* *Ventspilī*.
[basketball] coach.NOM.M Ventspils.LOC.F
'He is the second top [basketball] coach in Ventspils.' (www.tvnet.lv)

- c. *Sacensības faktors [baleta konkursā] ir*
 competition.GEN.F factor.NOM.M [ballet contest] be.COP.PRS.3
vis-galvenākais.
SPL-important.NOM.M.DEF
 ‘The competition factor is the main thing [in a ballet contest].’
 (www.lsm.lv)

Likewise, as denominal derivatives usually describe very concrete properties, adjectives with the suffix *-ain-* should be classified as relational, for example:

- (2.2.19) *zarains* ‘branchy’, ‘having branches’
mālains ‘clayey’, ‘containing clay or being composed of clay’
miltains ‘mealy’, ‘being in some respect like meal’
likumains ‘curvy’, ‘having curves, bends (e.g., of a road)’

At the same time, unlike most relational adjectives they are used quite freely in the comparative (2.2.20), while the superlative form is, again, very rare (2.2.21):

- (2.2.20) a. *Jo augstāks un zarain-āk-s ir*
 CONJ high.CMP.NOM.M.INDF and **branchy-CMP-NOM.M.INDF** be.PRS.3
koks, jo tā kopšana ir
 tree.NOM.M CONJ it.GEN.M tending.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3
dārgāka.
 expensive.CMP.NOM.F.INDF
 ‘The taller and branchier a tree, the more expensive it is to maintain.’
 (Diena)
- b. *Kartupeļu raža cietusi tur, kur*
 potato.GEN.PL.M crop.NOM.F suffer.PTCP.NOM.F there where
mālain-āk-a augsne.
clayey-CMP-NOM.F.INDF soil.NOM.F
 ‘The potato crop has suffered where the soil is more clayey.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *Pašu audzētā arbūza mīkstums*
 self.GEN.PL.M grow.PTCP.GEN.M watermelon.GEN.M pulp.NOM.M
ir miltain-āk-s, garša
 be.COP.PRS.3 **mealy-CMP-NOM.M.INDF** taste.NOM.F
saldāka.
 sweet.CMP.NOM.F.INDF
 ‘The pulp of home-grown watermelons is mealier, the taste is sweeter.’
 (Diena)
- (2.2.21) a. *Kartupelis bija vis-miltainākais produkts,*
 potato.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 **SPL-mealy.NOM.M.DEF** product.NOM.M
ko dot zīdaiņim.
 that.ACC give.INF infant.DAT.M
 ‘Potatoes were the mealier product to be given to the infant.’ (CW)
- b. *Te ir vis-likumainākais ceļš.*
 here be.COP.PRS.3 **SPL-curvy.NOM.M.DEF** road.NOM.N
 ‘Here is the curviest road.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

2.2.2 Comparison

Degrees of comparison are a grammatical category of qualitative adjectives which establishes a comparison among objects according to the degree to which they possess a particular property. Latvian has three degrees of comparison (Skujiņa 2007: 336).

- 1) The **positive** form is the basic form of the comparison system and denotes a quality or property without qualification. The positive form is unmarked, i.e., it is formed without the use of specialized grammatical formatives and its meaning is expressed by the stem of the adjective, for example:

(2.2.22) *maz-s* ‘small’, *skaist-s* ‘beautiful’, *raib-s* ‘speckled’

- a. *Bija dzestra augusta nakts.*
be.COP.PRS.3 **cool.NOM.F.INDF** August.GEN.M night.NOM.F
‘It was a cool August night.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- b. *Viņš gleznoja brūnu krūzi.*
he.NOM paint.PST.3 **brown.ACC.F.INDF** mug.ACC.F
‘He was painting a brown mug.’ (A. Eglītis)

The **comparative** is a form indicating that the degree to which an object possesses a quality or property is greater than that expressed by the positive form. In Latvian, the comparative is grammatically marked by means of the **suffix -āk-**, which attaches to the adjectival stem of the positive form, for example:

(2.2.23) *maz-āk-s* ‘smaller’, *skaist-āk-s* ‘more beautiful’, *raib-āk-s* ‘more speckled’

- a. *Lidojumu biļetēm kļūstot arvien lēt-āk-ām,*
flight.GEN.PL.M ticket.DAT.PL.F become.PTCP ever
cheap-CMP-DAT.PL.F.DEF
arī attiecības ar citiem ceļotājiem
also relationship.NOM.PL.F with other.INS.PL.M traveller.INS.PL.M
ir krietni mainījušās.
be.AUX.PRS.3 considerably change.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
‘With flight tickets becoming increasingly cheaper, relationships with other travellers have changed considerably, too.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- b. *Viņš ticēja mediķiem kā augst-āk-ai*
he.NOM believe.PST.3 doctor.DAT.PL.M as **high-CMP-DAT.F.INDF**
cilvēku sugai.
man.GEN.PL.M species.DAT.F
‘He believed in medical professionals as if they were a higher species of man.’ (A. Eglītis)

The **superlative** is a form indicating that an object possesses a quality or property to the highest degree. The superlative is formed by means of the **prefix vis-** placed before the stem of the comparative degree, for example:

(2.2.24) *vis-mazāk-ais* ‘the smallest’, *vis-skaistāk-ais* ‘the most beautiful’, *vis-raibāk-ais* ‘the most speckled’

- a. *Šādos gadījumos vis-niecīgākā*
 such.LOC.PL.M event.LOC.PL.M **SPL-trivial.NOM.M.DEF**
nejaušība var izrādīties liktenīga.
 happenstance.NOM.F be_able.PRS.3 prove.INF fatal.NOM.F.INDF
 ‘In cases like this even the slightest happenstance may turn out to be fatal.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- b. *Viņa aizbrauc [no pilsētas] vis-tuvākajā*
 she.NOM leave.PRS.3 [from city] **SPL-close.LOC.F.DEF**
nākotnē.
 future.LOC.F
 ‘She is leaving [the city] in the near future.’ (A. Eglītis)

Although in modern Latvian the superlative form is normally used with the definite ending (2.2.25), indefinite superlatives do occur from time to time in colloquial speech, mass media, and even contemporary literary prose (2.2.26)–(2.2.27) (see also Nītiņa 2013a: 410):

- (2.2.25) a. *vis-mazāk-ais, vis-mazāk-ā*
 SPL-small-NOM.M.DEF SPL-small-NOM.F.DEF
 ‘the smallest’
- b. *vis-mazāk-ie, vis-mazāk-ās*
 SPL-small-NOM.PL.M.DEF SPL-small-NOM.PL.F.DEF
 ‘the smallest’
- (2.2.26) a. *vis-labāk-s*
 SPL-good-NOM.M.INDF
 ‘best’
- b. *vis-gudrāk-s*
 SPL-smart-NOM.M.INDF
 ‘smartest’
- c. *vis-skaistāk-s*
 SPL-beautiful-NOM.M.INDF
 ‘most beautiful’
- (2.2.27) a. *Kāpēc tieši ASV [izglītības modelis] vis-labāk-s?*
 why exactly USA [education model]
SPL-good-NOM.M.INDF
 ‘Why exactly is the USA’s [model of education] the best?’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- b. *Cilvēks vis-gudrāk-s jūtas klusējot.*
 person.NOM.M **SPL-smart-NOM.M.INDF** feel.PRS.3 be_quiet.PTCP
 ‘One feels the smartest when one is silent.’ (www.pietiek.com)

- c. *Uz atvadām tēvs manā*
 on parting.DAT.PL.F father.NOM.M my.LOC.M
mantu maišēli sabēra visādus
 belonging.GEN.PL.M bag.DIM.LOC.M pour_in.PST.3 various.NOM.PL.M
ābolus – arī tos tumši sarkanos
 apple.NOM.PL.M also that.ACC.PL.M dark red.ACC.PL.M
ar baltu mīkstumu, kas man
 with white.INS.M.INDF flesh.INS.M.INDF that I.DAT
vis-mīļāk-i kopš bērnības.
SPF-favorite-NOM.PL.M.INDF since childhood.GEN.F
 ‘Upon parting, father put all sorts of apples into the bag containing my things – including the dark red ones with white flesh that had been my favorite since childhood.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- d. *Dievs pasarg, ja viņa*
 God.NOM.M protect.IMP.2SG if she.NOM
pati iedrošinātos nopirkt mētelī!
 self.NOM.F dare.COND buy.INF coat.ACC.M
Tas būtu vis-aplamāk-ā
 it.NOM.M be.COND **SPL-inappropriate-LOC.F.INDF**
krāsā
 color.LOC.F
 ‘God forbid that she should dare buy a coat on her own! It would be in a most inappropriate color.’ (A. Eglītis)

In certain varieties of Latvian, superlatives are also formed by placing the prefix *vis-* before the stem of the positive form. Such superlatives are used with either an indefinite (2.2.28) or definite (2.2.29) ending:

- (2.2.28) a. *Starp citu, kāpēc jūs tāds*
 between other.ACC.M why you.NOM.PL such.NOM.M
vis-gudr-s neejat politikā?
SPL-wise-NOM.M.INDF not_go.PRS.2PL politics.LOC.F
 ‘By the way, why, as all-knowing as you are, do you not go into politics?’ (Diena)
- b. *Citi tic, ka pasauli*
 other.NOM.PL.M believe.PRS.3 that world.ACC.F
ir radījusi vis-varen-a
 be.AUX.PST.3 create.PTCP.NOM.F **SPL-mighty-NOM.F.INDF**
būtnē.
 being.NOM.F
 ‘Others believe that the world was created by an almighty being.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *Mīlestība ir vis-spēcīg-a.*
 love.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 **SPL-powerful-NOM.F.INDF**
 ‘Love is all-powerful.’ (www.draugiem.lv)

- (2.2.29) a. *Man Laimiņa taupījusi*
 I.DAT. Laima.DIM.NOM.F save.PTCP.NOM.F
vis-daiļ-o *tēva dēlu.*
SPL-handsome-ACC.M.DEF father.GEN.M son.ACC.M
 ‘Laimiņa [the ancient Latvian goddess of fate] has saved for me
 a father’s handsomest son.’ (www.latviandainas.lib.virginia.edu)
- b. *Uz bērēm bija ieradusies*
 to funeral.DAT.PL.M be.AUX.PST.3 arrive.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
savulaik vis-spēcīg-ā [kriminālā]
 once **SPL-powerful-GEN.M.DEF** [criminal]
grupējuma pārstāvj.
 organization.GEN.M member.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The funeral was attended by members of what was once the most
 powerful [criminal] organization.’ (www.pietiek.com)
- c. *Viņi paļaujas uz Vis-augst-o [Dievu].*
 they.NOM.M rely.PRS.3 on **SPL-high-ACC.M.DEF** [God]
 ‘They rely on the Most High [God].’ (www.delfi.lv)

In addition to the method discussed above, there are also other means for expressing the superlative degree in Standard Latvian:

- 1) The construction **the definite pronoun *pats, pati* ‘self’ + the definite comparative form** is a grammatical variant of the superlative degree.

- (2.2.30) a. *pat-s labāk-ais*
self-NOM.M good-NOM.M.DEF
- b. *pat-i labāk-ā*
self-NOM.F good-NOM.F.DEF
 ‘the best’
- (2.2.31) a. *Tas ir pat-s labāk-ais,*
 it.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 **self-NOM.M** **good-NOM.M.DEF**
kas ar mani noticis.
 that.NOM with I.INS happen.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It’s the best thing that has ever happened to me.’ (Kas Jauns)
- b. *Sveiciens paš-ai gudrāk-ajai meitenei*
 greeting.NOM.M **self-DAT.F** **smart-DAT.F.DEF** girl.DAT.F
 ‘Greetings to the smartest girl!’ (www.draugiem.lv)
- c. *Paš-us vecāk-os [Rīgas] pils*
self-ACC.PL.M **old-ACC.PL.M.DEF** [Rīga] castle.GEN.F
mūrus apdzīvo trīs muzeji
 wall.ACC.PL.M inhabit.PRS.3 three museum.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The oldest walls of the [Rīga] castle house three museums.’ (Diena)
- 2) The definite comparative form functioning as the superlative is a grammatical synonym of the latter.

- (2.2.32) a. *Šis bija lepn-āk-ās*
 this.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PST.3 **lavish-COMP-NOM.PL.F.DEF**
vakariņas, kādas biju
 dinner.NOM.PL.F what.NOM.PL.F be.AUX.PST.1
baudījis
 enjoy.PTCP.NOM.M
pēdējo mēnešu laikā.
 last.GEN.PL.M.DEF month.GEN.PL.M time.LOC.M
 ‘This was the most lavish dinner I had eaten for months.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- b. *Kāds ir jūsu*
 what.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 your.ACC.PL
mīļ-āk-ais ēdiens?
favorite-COMP-NOM.M.DEF food.NOM.M
 ‘What is your favorite food?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- c. *Līdz šim par vec-āk-o Latvijas*
 until this.DAT.M as **old-COMP-ACC.M.DEF** Latvia.GEN.F
pilsētu ir uzskatīta Ludza
 town.ACC.F be.AUX.PRS.3 consider.PTCP.NOM.F Ludza.NOM.F
 ‘Ludza has hitherto been considered the oldest town in Latvia.’ (Diena)

On balance, adjectival degrees of comparison form a grammatical category primarily characteristic of qualitative adjectives.

2.2.3 Definiteness

Definiteness is a grammatical category marked for adjectives. It indicates whether an object is identifiable and also expresses the speaker’s evaluation as to whether a noun is *unfamiliar* – *familiar* or *mentioned in the text for the first time* – *previously mentioned*.

In Latvian, definiteness is marked inflectionally by means of adjectival endings, which can be either indefinite or definite (due to their attributive function, definiteness is also marked for ordinal numerals and declinable participles):

- 1) The **indefinite ending** indicates that an object is unfamiliar or has not yet been mentioned in the text, for example:

- (2.2.34) *Vienā [mēteļa] kabatā bija*
 one.LOC.F [coat] pocket.LOC.F be.PST.3
kaut kas stūrainš un ciets.
 something.NOM angular.NOM.M.INDF and firm.NOM.M.INDF
Tas bija grumbuļain-s ādas
 it.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 **uneven-NOM.M.INDF** leather.GEN.F
maks. Bet tajā – meln-s fotoaparāts.
 purse.NOM.M but it.LOC.M **black-NOM.M.INDF** camera.NOM.M
 ‘There was something angular and firm in one pocket [of the coat]. It was a pebbled-leather purse with a black camera inside of it.’ (P. Bankovskis)

- 2) The **definite ending** indicates that the object to which the adjective refers is known to the speaker or has already been mentioned in the text, for example:

(2.2.35) *Vēl viena it kā pazīstama vieta.*
 more one.NOM.F as_if familiar.NOM.F.INDF place.NOM.F
Tam vajadzētu būt liel-ajam ozolam
 it.DAT.M need.COND.PRS be.INF **big-DAT.M.DEF** oak.DAT.M
pagalmā. Taču [tam] cieši klāt uzbūvēta
 yard.LOC.M but [it] tightly beside built.PTCP.NOM.F
tāda kā mājiņa. uz četriem pāļiem.
 such.NOM.F as house.DIM.NOM.F on four.DAT.PL.M pile.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Another seemingly familiar place. That should be the big oak tree in the yard, but something like a little house on four piles has been built right beside [it].’ (P. Bankovskis)

In addition to the uses shown above, certain general semantic and grammatical principles governing the use of indefinite and definite endings can be identified in Latvian (Paegle 2003: 58–59).

- 1) The **indefinite ending** is typically used for stating facts:

- a) in nominal adjective predicates (2.2.36a) and nominal noun predicates where the noun is modified by an adjective (2.2.36b):

(2.2.36) a. *Attēls ir gandrīz melnbalt-s.*
 image.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 almost **monochrome-NOM.M.INDF**
 ‘The image is almost black and white.’ (P. Bankovskis)

- b. *Viņai bija pievilcīg-a seja.*
 she.DAT be.COP.PST.3 **attractive-NOM.F.INDF** face.NOM.F
 ‘She had an attractive face.’ (A. Eglītis)

- b) in adjectival secondary predicates:

(2.2.37) a. *Stacijas laukums pletās pilnīgi tukš-s.*
 station.GEN.F square.NOM.M stretch.PST.3 completely
empty-NOM.M.INDF
 ‘The station square stretched ahead completely empty.’ (A. Eglītis)

- b. *Parkets spīdēja tik zeltain-s.*
 parquet.NOM.M shine.PST.3 so **golden-NOM.M.INDF**
 ‘The parquet [flooring] shone so golden.’ (A. Eglītis)

- c) in adjectival detached attributes:

(2.2.38) a. *Jāņu diena, silt-a un*
 Midsummer.GEN.PL.F day.NOM.F **warm-NOM.F.INDF** and
mīlīg-a kā tikko dzimuša
sweet-NOM.F.INDF as just born.PTCP.GEN.M
bērņa smarža.
 baby.GEN.M scent.NOM.F
 ‘Midsummer’s Day, warm and sweet like the scent of a newborn baby.’ (C)

- b. *Vācu* *aitu* *suns*,
German.GEN.PL.M.INDF sheep.GEN.PL.F dog.NOM.M
pieticīg-s *un jūtīg-s*
modest-NOM.M.INDF and **sensitive-NOM.M.INDF**
saskarsmē ar cilvēkiem.
interaction.LOC.F with person.INS.PL.M
‘The German sheepdog, modest and sensitive in interacting with people.’ (C)

2) The **definite ending** is typically used for specifying and concretizing facts:

a) in terminological phrases and names of different objects and phenomena:

- (2.2.39) a. *balt-ais* *āboliņš*
white-NOM.M.DEF clover.NOM.M
‘white clover’
b. *elektronisk-ais* *paraksts*
electronic-NOM.M.DEF signature.NOM.M
‘electronic signature’
c. *globāl-ais* *tīmeklis*
global-NOM.M.DEF network.NOM.M
‘World Wide Web’
d. *iekšēj-ais* *tirgus*
internal-NOM.M.DEF market.NOM.M
‘internal market’
e. *mobīl-ais* *tālrunis*
mobile-NOM.M.DEF phone.NOM.M
‘mobile phone’
f. *zaļ-ais* *tūrisms*
green-NOM.M.DEF tourism.NOM.M
‘green tourism’

b) in geographical names:

- (2.2.40) a. *Maz-ā* *Jugla*
little-NOM.F.DEF Jugla
‘the Little Jugla’
b. *Liel-ā* *Jugla*
great-NOM.F.DEF Jugla
‘the Great Jugla’
c. *Liel-ais* *Sālsēzers*
great-NOM.M.DEF Salt_Lake.NOM.M
‘the Great Salt Lake’
d. *Klus-ais* *okeāns*
Pacific-NOM.M.DEF ocean.NOM.M
‘the Pacific Ocean’
e. *Tuv-ie* *Austrumi*
near-NOM.PL.M.DEF east.NOM.PL.M
‘the Near East’

c) in substantivizations of adjectives and participles:

- (2.2.41) a. 30 *pazīmes*, *kas* *atšķir*
 30 characteristic.NOM.PL.F that.NOM distinguish.PRS.3
bagāt-os *no* *nabag-ajiem*.
 rich-ACC.PL.M.DEF from poor-DAT.PL.M.DEF
 ‘30 characteristics that distinguish the rich from the poor.’
 (www.apollo.lv)
- b. *Uz festivālu jābrauc ar autobusu, līdzī*
 to festival.ACC.M DEB.go with bus.INS.M along
jāņem ēdam-ais.
 DEB.take eat.PTCP-NOM.M.DEF
 ‘One must go to the festival by bus and bring along something to eat.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *Pagājušajā vasarā izšķīros, un*
 go.PTCP.LOC.F summer.LOC.F divorce.PST.1SG and
bijuš-ais apprecējās ar citu.
 be-PTCP.NOM.M.DEF marry.PST.3 with other.INS.F
 ‘I divorced last year and my ex has remarried.’ (www.delfi.lv)

d) in superlatives (see examples (2.2.24) above).

However, these principles do not always apply consistently in actual language use (for a more detailed discussion see Nītiņa 2013a: 397-402; Holvoet 2014; see also Section 2.2.1 on variants of the superlative). For example, there are quite a lot of terminological phrases with an attributive indefinite adjective (or participle):

- (2.2.42) a. *brīv-a* *preču* *aprīte*
 free-NOM.F.INDF goods.GEN.PL.F movement.NOM.F
 ‘free movement of goods’
- b. *fizisk-a* *persona*
 natural-NOM.F.INDF person.NOM.F
 ‘natural person’
- c. *ilgtspējīg-a* *izaugsme*
 sustainable-NOM.F.INDF growth.NOM.F
 ‘sustainable growth’
- d. *salikt-a* *viela*
 assemble.PTCP-NOM.F.INDF substance.NOM.F
 ‘compound substance’
- e. *sinhron-a* *darbība*
 synchronous-NOM.F.INDF operation.NOM.F
 ‘synchronous operation’
- f. *jaukt-s* *mežs*
 mix.PTCP-NOM.M.INDF forest.NOM.M
 ‘mixed forest’

Some of these have parallel terminological variants with definite adjectives (or participles):

(2.2.43) *fiziskā persona, saliktā viela, sinhronā darbība*

Likewise, indefinite endings are common in names of dishes where one could reasonably expect to find definite adjectives (or participles), due to the specifying, concretizing character of such phrases:

- (2.2.44) a. *sālīt-as* *sēnes*
pickle.PTCP-NOM.PL.F.INDF mushroom.NOM.PL.F
 ‘pickled mushrooms’
 b. *marinēt-i* *gurķi*
marinate.PTCP-NOM.PL.M.INDF cucumber.NOM.PL.M
 ‘marinated cucumbers’
 c. *cept-i* *kartupeļi*
fry.PTCP-NOM.PL.M.INDF potato.NOM.PL.M
 ‘fried potatoes’
 d. *tvaicēt-i* *dārzeņi*
steam.PTCP-NOM.PL.M.INDF vegetable.NOM.PL.M
 ‘steamed vegetables’
 e. *diedzēt-i* *graudi*
sprout.PTCP-NOM.PL.M.INDF grain.NOM.PL.M
 ‘sprouted grain’

- (2.2.45) a. *Man piešķīra trīslitru burku ar*
 I.DAT award.PST.3 three_liter.GEN.PL.F jar.ACC.F with
sālīt-ām sēnēm.
pickle.PTCP-INS.PL.F.INDF mushroom.INS.PL.F
 ‘I was awarded a three-liter jar of pickled mushrooms.’
 (www.delfi.lv)
 b. *Vai jums jau ir apnikuši*
 Q you.DAT.PL already be.AUX.PRS.3 fed_up.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
marinēt-i gurķi ziemā?
marinate.PTCP-NOM.PL.M.INDF cucumber.NOM.PL.M winter.LOC.F
 ‘Are you already fed up with eating marinated cucumbers during the winter?’ (www.maminuklubs.lv)
 c. *Cept-i kartupeļi ar ķiplokiem*
fry.PTCP-NOM.PL.M.INDF potato.NOM.PL.M with garlic.INS.PL.M
un Parmas sieru.
 and Parmesan.GEN.F cheese.INS.M
 ‘Fried potatoes with garlic and Parmesan.’ (Kas Jauns)

Finally, there are indefinite superlatives, which usually occur as part of nominal predicates:

- (2.2.46) a. *Šis siers vis-gardāk-s*
 this.NOM.M cheese.NOM.M SPL-delicious-NOM.M.INDF
ir uz maizītes.
 be.COP.PRS.3 on bread.DIM.GEN.F
 ‘This cheese is at its most delicious when served on bread.’
 (www.twitter.com)
- b. *Rundāle vis-skaistāk-a ir pavasarī.*
 Rundāle.NOM.F SPL-beautiful-NOM.F.INDF be.COP.PRS.3 spring.LOC.M
 ‘Rundāle is at its most beautiful in spring.’ (www.epadomi.lv)
- c. *Piens ir vis-garšīgāk-s, kad vēl pasilts.*
 milk.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 SPL-tasty.NOM.M.INDF when still
 little_warm.NOM.M.INDF
 ‘Milk is at its tastiest when still a little warm.’ (A. Upīts)

2.2.4 Word formation

Although examples illustrating adjective formation types below are listed with the masculine ending, all adjectives can also be used with the feminine ending (see Section 2.2.1 on adjective declension). Endings are not included under *Word-formation means*, as they are the same for all word-formation types – *-s* (M), *-a* (F), with the diminutive suffix *-īn-*, also *-š* (M).

Suffixation

Suffixation as a means of adjective formation shows a great deal of variety in Latvian. Adjectives can be formed from other adjectives, nouns, verbs, numerals, and pronouns. Derived adjectives usually name properties and subtle distinctions between properties (which are often attenuative, i.e., reducing the force, extent of a property or an attribute, or else indicate the permanent, constant character of a property) and also characterize something as having a certain attribute, or express a resemblance, likeness.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADJ-ADJ	-an- / -gan-	attenuation	<i>slāb-s</i> ‘weak, feeble’ – <i>slāb-an-s</i> ‘weakish, feeblish’ <i>valg-s</i> ‘dewy, moist’ – <i>valg-an-s</i> ‘moistish’ <i>zaļ-š</i> ‘green’ – <i>zaļ-gan-s</i> ‘greenish’ <i>bāl-s</i> ‘pale’ – <i>bāl-gan-s</i> ‘palish’ <i>meln-s</i> ‘black’ – <i>meln-gan-s</i> ‘blackish’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADJ–ADJ	-ād-	difference in kind, otherness	<i>sveš-s</i> ‘foreign’ – <i>sveš-ād-s</i> ‘strange, unfamiliar, alien’ <i>ab-ěj-s</i> ‘both’ – <i>ab-ěj-ād-s</i> ‘of both kinds’ <i>div-ěj-i</i> ‘two, two different’ – <i>div-ěj-ād-s</i> ‘of two kinds’ <i>četr-ěj-i</i> ‘four, four different’ – <i>četr-ěj-ād-s</i> ‘of four kinds’
	-en-	attenuation	<i>sald-s</i> ‘sweet’ – <i>sald-en-s</i> ‘sweetish’ <i>gar-š</i> ‘long’ – <i>gar-en-s</i> ‘elongated’ <i>gurd-s</i> ‘languid, unenergetic’ – <i>gurd-en-s</i> ‘rather languid, unenergetic’ <i>sārt-s</i> ‘pink, rosy’ – <i>sārt-en-s</i> ‘pinkish’
	-ěj-	attenuation	<i>īpat-n-s</i> ‘distinctive, one of a kind, singular’ – <i>īpat-n-ěj-s</i> ‘peculiar’ <i>kals-n-s</i> ‘bony, scrawny’ – <i>kals-n-ěj-s</i> ‘rather bony’ <i>zaļ-oks-n-s</i> ‘verdant, robust, vigorous’ – <i>zaļ-oks-n-ěj-s</i> ‘rather verdant, robust, vigorous’
	-īņ-	attenuation, DIM	<i>maz-s</i> ‘little’ – <i>maz-īņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>tiev-s</i> ‘thin’ – <i>tiev-īņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>viegl-s</i> ‘light’ – <i>viegl-īņ-š</i> (DIM) <i>sīk-s</i> ‘tiny’ – <i>sīc-īņ-š</i> (DIM)
	-isk-	qualitative characterization	<i>liels</i> ‘large’ – <i>lielsiks</i> ‘excellent, great’ <i>maz-s</i> ‘little’ – <i>maz-isk-s</i> ‘petty, paltry’ <i>zem-s</i> ‘low’ – <i>zem-isk-s</i> ‘base, low, mean’ <i>lab-s</i> ‘right, good’ – <i>lab-isk-s</i> ‘of the knit side (as opposed to the purl side)’ <i>gar-en-s</i> ‘elongated’ – <i>gar-en-isk-s</i> ‘lengthwise, longitudinal’
	-īg-	attenuation	<i>tīr-s</i> ‘clean’ – <i>tīr-īg-s</i> ‘cleanly, tidy’ <i>vesel-s</i> ‘healthy (of a person)’ – <i>vesel-īg-s</i> ‘healthful, robust, wholesome’ <i>vec-s</i> ‘old, elderly’ – <i>vec-īg-s</i> ‘old-mannish’ <i>mīl-š</i> ‘dear, beloved, sweet’ – <i>mīl-īg-s</i> ‘affectionate, sweet, lovable’ <i>apaļ-š</i> ‘round’ – <i>apaļ-īg-s</i> ‘roundish, plump’ <i>lēn-s</i> ‘slow’ – <i>lēn-īg-s</i> ‘slow, also meek, even-tempered’
		permanent, constant properties	<i>māt-išk-s</i> ‘maternal, motherly’ – <i>māt-išk-īg-s</i> ‘motherly’ <i>tēv-išk-s</i> ‘paternal, fatherly’ – <i>tēv-išk-īg-s</i> ‘fatherly’ <i>diev-išk-s</i> ‘divine’ – <i>diev-išk-īg-s</i> ‘divine, godlike’
	-īn-	attenuation	<i>tuv-s</i> ‘close’ – <i>tuv-īn-s</i> ‘closish’ <i>tāl-s</i> ‘distant’ – <i>tāl-in-s</i> ‘remotish’ <i>agr-s</i> ‘early’ – <i>agr-in-s</i> ‘early (also, ahead of usual time), ripened early’ <i>vēl-s</i> ‘late’ – <i>vēl-in-s</i> ‘late (also, belated), late-bearing’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N-ADJ	-ain- with declension 2, 5, or 6 bases, usually attaches to the GEN PL stem	having a lot of, being covered with, also having a lot, being covered with, also having (as opposed to not having) or having the quality of something	<i>zar-s</i> ‘branch’ – <i>zar-ain-s</i> ‘branchy’ <i>māl-s</i> ‘clay’ – <i>māl-ain-s</i> ‘clayey’ <i>akmen-s</i> ‘stone’ – <i>akmeņ-u</i> (GEN PL) – <i>akmeņ-ain-s</i> ‘stony’ <i>zem-e</i> ‘soil, earth’ – <i>zemj-u</i> (GEN PL) – <i>zemj-ain-s</i> ‘muddy’ <i>smilt-s</i> ‘sand’ – <i>smilš-u</i> (GEN PL) – <i>smilš-ain-s</i> ‘sandy’ <i>rag-s</i> ‘horn’ – <i>rag-ain-s</i> ‘horned’ <i>bārda</i> ‘beard’ – <i>bārd-ain-s</i> ‘bearded’ <i>sprog-a</i> ‘curl’ – <i>sprog-ain-s</i> ‘curly’ <i>kok-s</i> ‘tree’ – <i>kok-ain-s</i> ‘wooden, stiff, stilted’ <i>brīn-um-s</i> ‘miracle’ – <i>brīn-um-ain-s</i> ‘miraculous’
		qualitative characterization, absence or presence of an attribute	<i>trīs-krās-u</i> ‘three-color (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>trīs-krās-ain-s</i> ‘three-colored’ <i>brūn-ac-u</i> ‘brown-eyed (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>brūn-ac-ain-s</i> ‘brown-eyed (ADJ)’ <i>četr-stūr-u</i> ‘four-angle (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>četr-stūr-ain-s</i> ‘quadrangular, square’ <i>bez-zob-u</i> ‘without teeth (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>bez-zob-ain-s</i> ‘toothless’ <i>bez-krās-as</i> ‘without color (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>bez-krās-ain-s</i> ‘colorless’
	-en-	attributes named by or following from the base noun	<i>galv-a</i> ‘head’ – <i>galv-en-ais</i> ‘main’ <i>slav-a</i> ‘fame’ – <i>slav-en-s</i> ‘famous’ <i>mēr-s</i> ‘measure, extent’ – <i>mēr-en-s</i> ‘moderate’
	-ēj-	places – spatial oppositions	<i>ār-s</i> ‘outside (N)’ – <i>ār-ēj-s</i> ‘outer, external’ <i>iekš-a</i> ‘inside (N)’ – <i>iekš-ēj-s</i> ‘inner, internal’ <i>vid-us</i> ‘middle (N)’ – <i>vid-ēj-s</i> ‘middle (ADJ), also average’ <i>augš-a</i> ‘top (N)’ – <i>augš-ēj-s</i> ‘upper, top (ADJ)’ <i>apakš-a</i> ‘lower part’ – <i>apakš-ēj-s</i> ‘lower, bottom (ADJ)’ <i>priekš-a</i> ‘front (N)’ – <i>priekš-ēj-s</i> ‘front’ <i>pakaļ-a</i> ‘rear part’ – <i>pakaļ-ēj-s</i> ‘back, rear, hind’
	-isk-	correspondence, resemblance, appropriateness	<i>taut-a</i> ‘nation’ – <i>taut-isk-s</i> ‘folk (ADJ)’ <i>dab-a</i> ‘nature’ – <i>dab-isk-s</i> ‘natural’ <i>zēn-s</i> ‘boy’ – <i>zēn-isk-s</i> ‘boyish’ <i>igaun-is</i> ‘Estonian (of a person, M)’ – <i>igaun-isk-s</i> ‘Estonian (ADJ)’ <i>pēt-niek-s</i> ‘researcher’ – <i>pēt-niec-isk-s</i> ‘research (modifier)’ <i>rietum-niek-s</i> ‘westerner’ – <i>rietum-niec-isk-s</i> ‘characteristic of westerners’ <i>sa-tur-s</i> ‘contents’ – <i>sa-tur-isk-s</i> ‘related to contents’
	-išķ-	attributes following from the base noun	<i>māt-e</i> ‘mother’ – <i>māt-išķ-s</i> ‘maternal, motherly’ <i>tēv-s</i> ‘father’ – <i>tēv-išķ-s</i> ‘paternal, fatherly’ <i>diev-s</i> ‘god’ – <i>diev-išķ-s</i> ‘divine’ <i>liet-a</i> ‘business’ – <i>liet-išķ-s</i> ‘businesslike, applied’ <i>ik-dien-a</i> ‘everyday life’ – <i>ik-dien-išķ-s</i> ‘everyday (ADJ)’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N-ADJ	-īg-	attributes following from the base noun	<i>sul-a</i> ‘juice’ – <i>sul-īg-s</i> ‘juicy’ <i>priek-s</i> ‘joy’ – <i>priec-īg-s</i> ‘joyful’ <i>māj-a</i> ‘home’ – <i>māj-īg-s</i> ‘homey’ <i>vilt-us</i> ‘cunning (N)’ – <i>vilt-īg-s</i> ‘cunning (ADJ)’ <i>ac-s</i> ‘eye’ – <i>acig-s</i> ‘sharp-eyed, observant’ <i>vien-zilb-es</i> ‘one-syllable (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>vien-zilb-īg-s</i> ‘monosyllabic’ <i>tris-bals-u</i> ‘three-part (in music) (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>tris-bals-īg-s</i> ‘three-part (ADJ)’ <i>bez-gal-a</i> ‘without end (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>bez-gal-īg-s</i> ‘endless’ <i>bez-mērķ-a</i> ‘without aim (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>bez-mērķ-īg-s</i> ‘aimless’ <i>lod-veid-a</i> ‘globe-shaped (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>lod-veid-īg-s</i> ‘globular’ <i>gāz-veid-a</i> ‘in the form of a gas (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>gāz-veid-īg-s</i> ‘gaseous, gasiform’ <i>plān-veid-a</i> ‘according to a plan (GEN, modifier)’ – <i>plān-veid-īg-s</i> ‘planned, systematic’
	-ot-	attributes following from the base noun	<i>zābak-s</i> ‘boot’ – <i>zābak-ot-s</i> ‘booted’ <i>snieg-s</i> ‘snow’ – <i>snieg-ot-s</i> ‘snow-covered’ <i>cimd-s</i> ‘glove’ – <i>cimd-ot-s</i> ‘gloved’ <i>puķ-e</i> ‘flower’ – <i>puķ-ot-s</i> ‘floral, flower-patterned, flowery’
NUM-ADJ	-ād-	qualitative characterization	<i>vien-s</i> ‘one’ – <i>vien-ād-s</i> ‘equal, equivalent’ <i>trej-i</i> ‘three’ – <i>trej-ād-s</i> ‘of three kinds’ <i>otr-s</i> ‘another, second’ – <i>otr-ād-s</i> ‘converse, inverse’
	-ēj-	quantity; <i>pluralia tantum</i>	<i>div-i</i> ‘two’ – <i>div-ēj-i</i> ‘two, two different’ <i>četr-i</i> ‘four’ – <i>četr-ēj-i</i> ‘four, four different’
PRON-ADJ	-ād-	qualitative characterization	<i>cit-s</i> ‘other’ – <i>cit-ād-s</i> ‘different, of another kind’ <i>sav-s</i> ‘one’s, own’ – <i>sav-ād-s</i> ‘strange, unusual’ <i>daž-s</i> ‘some’ – <i>daž-ād-s</i> ‘various, diverse’ <i>vis-s</i> ‘all, everything’ – <i>vis-ād-s</i> ‘of all kinds’
V-ADJ	-an- usually attaches to a verbal root	attributes following from the action denoted by the base verb	<i>drup-t</i> ‘to crumble’ – <i>drup-an-s</i> ‘crumbly’ <i>alk-t</i> ‘to crave’ – <i>alk-an-s</i> ‘voracious, insatiable’ <i>līg-t</i> ‘lean, bend’ – <i>līg-an-s</i> ‘jaunty, springy, also unsteady’ <i>loc-ī-t</i> ‘to fold, to bend (with object)’ – <i>lok-u</i> PRS 1 SG – <i>lok-an-s</i> ‘lithe, supple, pliable’
	-īg- usually attaches to a verbal root	attributes following from the action denoted by the base verb	<i>deg-t</i> ‘to burn’ – <i>dedz-īg-s</i> ‘burning, ardent, fervent’ <i>der-ē-t</i> ‘to suit, to fit’ – <i>der-īg-s</i> ‘valid, suitable’ <i>cer-ē-t</i> ‘to hope’ – <i>cer-īg-s</i> ‘hopeful’ <i>tic-ē-t</i> ‘to believe, to have faith’ – <i>tic-īg-s</i> ‘religious’ <i>pa-stāv-ē-t</i> ‘to exist, also to last’ – <i>pa-stāv-īg-s</i> ‘constant, permanent’ <i>kait-ē-t</i> ‘to harm’ – <i>kait-īg-s</i> ‘harmful’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADV-ADJ	-ēj-	place, quantity, kind, time, etc.	<i>preti</i> ‘opposite, across’ – <i>pret-ēj-s</i> ‘opposite’ <i>pāri</i> ‘above, beyond, over’ – <i>pār-ēj-ais</i> ‘the rest’ <i>kopā</i> ‘jointly, together’ – <i>kop-ēj-s</i> ‘common, joint, also total’ <i>div-kārt</i> ‘twofold, two times’ – <i>div-kārt-ēj-s</i> ‘two-time, double’ <i>vis-pār</i> ‘in general’ – <i>vis-pār-ēj-s</i> ‘general, universal’ <i>vien-reiz</i> ‘once’ – <i>vienreiz-ēj-s</i> ‘single, happening only once’ <i>var-būt</i> ‘possibly, maybe’ – <i>var-būt-ēj-s</i> ‘possible, prospective’ <i>vakar</i> ‘yesterday’ – <i>vakar-ēj-s</i> ‘yesterday’s’ <i>šo-dien</i> ‘today’ – <i>šo-dien-ēj-s</i> ‘today’s’
	-īg-	type, permanent, constant properties	<i>preti</i> ‘opposite, across’ – <i>pret-īg-s</i> ‘disgusting’ <i>vien-alga</i> ‘all the same, of no consequence’ – <i>vien-aldz-īg-s</i> ‘indifferent’ <i>vis-pār</i> ‘in general’ – <i>vis-pār-īg-s</i> ‘overall, general, broad’ <i>vien-reiz</i> ‘once’ – <i>vien-reiz-īg-s</i> ‘unique, singular’ <i>vien-mēr</i> ‘always, invariably’ – <i>vien-mēr-īg-s</i> ‘even, uniform, steady’ <i>daudz-kārt</i> ‘many times, repeatedly’ – <i>daudz-kārt-īg-s</i> ‘multiple, also manyfold’

Table 2.13 Main adjective formation types in Latvian: suffixation

Prefixation

Prefixal adjective formation in Latvian is basically either attenuative or augmentative; it involves three prefixes – *ie-*, *pa-*, and *pār-*. The negative *ne-* is semantically different in that it generally indicates the lack of a property or an attribute. In some cases, however, it can be attenuative.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADJ-ADJ	ie-	attenuation	<i>zil-s</i> ‘blue’ – <i>ie-zil-s</i> ‘somewhat blue’ <i>zaļ-š</i> ‘green’ – <i>ie-zaļ-š</i> ‘somewhat green’ <i>sārt-en-s</i> ‘pinkish’ – <i>ie-sārt-en-s</i> ‘somewhat pinkish’ <i>brūn-gan-s</i> ‘brownish’ – <i>ie-brūn-gan-s</i> ‘somewhat brownish’ <i>sāl-š</i> ‘salty’ – <i>ie-sāl-š</i> ‘slightly salty’ <i>apaļ-š</i> ‘round’ – <i>ie-apaļ-š</i> ‘somewhat rounded, curved’ <i>gar-en-s</i> ‘elongated’ – <i>ie-gar-en-s</i> ‘slightly elongated’
	pa-	attenuation (depending on context, also ‘to a rather high degree’)	<i>jaun-s</i> ‘new, young’ – <i>pa-jaun-s</i> ‘relatively / fairly new, young’ <i>tukš-s</i> ‘empty’ – <i>pa-tukš-s</i> ‘relatively / fairly empty’ <i>bāl-s</i> ‘pale’ – <i>pa-bāl-s</i> ‘somewhat pale’ <i>sald-s</i> ‘sweet’ – <i>pa-sald-s</i> ‘relatively sweet’ <i>sald-en-s</i> ‘sweetish’ – <i>pa-sald-en-s</i> ‘rather sweetish’ <i>draudz-īg-s</i> ‘friendly’ – <i>pa-draudz-īg-s</i> ‘rather friendly’ <i>smilš-ain-s</i> ‘sandy’ – <i>pa-smilšain-s</i> ‘rather sandy’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADJ–ADJ	pār-	‘extreme, excessive’, also generalized properties	<i>piln-s</i> ‘full’ – <i>pār-piln-s</i> ‘filled, overfull, overcrowded’ <i>gudr-s</i> ‘wise, smart’ – <i>pār-gudr-s</i> ‘smart-alecky’ <i>bagāt-s</i> ‘rich’ – <i>pār-bagāt-s</i> ‘abundant’ <i>dab-isk-s</i> ‘natural’ – <i>pār-dab-isk-s</i> ‘supernatural’ <i>cilvēc-īg-s</i> ‘humane’ – <i>pār-cilvēc-īg-s</i> ‘superhuman, extraordinary’
	ne-	lack of a property or an attribute	<i>lab-s</i> ‘good’ – <i>ne-lab-s</i> ‘bad’ <i>glīt-s</i> ‘pretty’ – <i>ne-glīt-s</i> ‘ugly’ <i>spodr-s</i> ‘clean, shiny’ – <i>ne-spodr-s</i> ‘dull, lusterless’ <i>līdz-en-s</i> ‘even’ – <i>ne-līdz-en-s</i> ‘uneven’ <i>uz-man-īg-s</i> ‘attentive’ – <i>ne-uz-man-īg-s</i> ‘inattentive’
		attenuation	<i>tāl-s</i> ‘distant’ – <i>ne-tāl-s</i> ‘nearby’ <i>liel-s</i> ‘large’ – <i>ne-liel-s</i> ‘rather small’ <i>sen-s</i> ‘old, ancient’ – <i>ne-sen-s</i> ‘recent’

Table 2.14 Main adjective formation types in Latvian: prefixes

Compounds

The formation of compound adjectives in Latvian is represented, for the most part, by semantically exocentric determinative right-headed compounds based on phrases (i.e., subordinate structures). There is, however, one determinative left-headed compound formation type with the noun *puse* ‘half’, i.e., *pus-*, as the first component, and two copulative compound formation types.

The description of compound adjectives in this grammar is based on the types (and subtypes) of syntactic structures underlying compound formation.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
N + ADJ – ADJ 1) N _{GEN} + ADJ – ADJ		specifying a property by relating it to an object	<i>priek-a piln-s</i> ‘full of joy’ – <i>priek-piln-s</i> ‘joyful’ <i>dom-u piln-s</i> ‘full of thoughts’ – <i>dom-piln-s</i> ‘pensive’ <i>ziņ-u kār-īg-s</i> ‘eager for information’ – <i>ziņ-kār-īg-s</i> ‘curious’ <i>mant-as kār-s</i> ‘greedy for wealth’ – <i>mant-kār-s</i> ‘acquisitive, money-oriented’ <i>ugun-s droš-s</i> ‘safe against fire’ – <i>ugun-(s)-droš-s</i> ‘fireproof’ <i>karst-um-a iz-tur-īg-s</i> ‘resistant against heat’ – <i>karst-um-iz-tur-īg-s</i> ‘heat-resistant’
		specifying a property by setting a standard of comparison (esp. when naming particular shades of color)	<i>rož-u sār-t-s</i> ‘pink as a rose’ – <i>rož-sār-t-s</i> ‘rose-pink’ <i>jūr-as zil-s</i> ‘blue as the sea’ – <i>jūr-(as)-zil-s</i> ‘sea-blue’ <i>sūn-u zaļ-š</i> ‘green as moss’ – <i>sūn-(u)-zaļ-š</i> , also <i>sūnzaļš</i> ‘moss-green’ <i>snieg-a balt-s</i> ‘white as snow’ – <i>snieg-balt-s</i> ‘snow-white’ <i>led-us aukst-s</i> ‘cold as ice’ – <i>led-(us)-aukst-s</i> ‘ice-cold’ <i>med-us sald-s</i> ‘sweet as honey’ – <i>med-(us)-sald-s</i> ‘honey-sweet’ <i>pērkon-a skaļ-š</i> ‘loud as thunder’ – <i>pērkon-skaļ-š</i> ‘thunderous’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
2) N _{INS} + ADJ – ADJ		intensifying a property, sometimes through repetition	<i>brīn-um-u jauk-s</i> ‘so lovely as to cause wonder’ – <i>brīn-um-jauk-s</i> ‘wonderfully lovely’ <i>liel-um-u liels</i> ‘of great size’ – <i>liel-um- liel-s</i> ‘very large’ <i>vec-um-u vec-s</i> ‘of great age’ – <i>vec-um-vec-s</i> ‘very old’
3) N + ADJ _{GEN} – ADJ		compounds headed by the word <i>puse</i> ‘half’ – reducing the force of a property, indicating its limitedness; source constructions of the type ‘ <i>puse</i> ADJ _{GEN} ’ are now obsolete	* <i>pus-e tumš-a</i> – <i>pus-tumš-s</i> ‘semi-dark’ <i>pus-gatav-s</i> ‘half-done, half-ready’ <i>pus-jēl-s</i> ‘half-raw, underdone’ <i>pus-sald-s</i> ‘semi-sweet’ <i>pus-gar-š</i> ‘medium-length, half-length’ <i>pus-tukš-s</i> ‘half-empty’
ADV + ADJ – ADJ		nuanced properties – usually, shades of color, taste, flavor, etc.	<i>gaiši zaļ-š</i> ‘lightly green’ – <i>gaiš-zaļ-š</i> ‘light-green’ <i>tumši zil-s</i> ‘darkly blue’ – <i>tumš-zil-s</i> ‘dark-blue’ <i>zaļ-gan-i brūn-s</i> ‘greenishly brown’ – <i>zaļ-gan-brūn-s</i> ‘greenish-brown’ <i>saldi skāb-s</i> ‘sweetly sour’ – <i>sald-skāb-s</i> ‘sweet-and-sour’ <i>sald-en-i rūgt-s</i> ‘sweetishly bitter’ – <i>sald-en-rūgt-s</i> ‘bittersweet’
ADJ, ADJ – ADJ		two different properties of a thing, living being, etc.	<i>melns, balts</i> ‘black, white’ – <i>meln-balt-s</i> ‘black-and-white’ <i>sarkan-s, balt-s, sarkan-s</i> ‘red, white, red’ – <i>sarkan-balt-sarkans</i> ‘red-white-red (a reference to the colors of the Latvian flag)’ <i>zīl-s, zaļ-š</i> ‘blue, green’ – <i>zīl-zaļ-š</i> ‘blue-green’ <i>zīl-s, raib-s</i> ‘blue, speckled’ – <i>zīl-raib-s</i> ‘speckled blue’ <i>kurl-s, mēm-s</i> ‘deaf, mute’ – <i>kurl-mēm-s</i> ‘deaf-mute’ <i>liel-s, bagāt-s</i> ‘big / great, rich’ – <i>liel-bagāt-s</i> ‘very rich, great and rich’
		intensifying a property through repetition	<i>tāl-s, tāl-s</i> ‘distant, distant’ – <i>tāl-tāl-s</i> ‘very distant’ <i>sen-s, sen-s</i> ‘old, old’ – <i>sen-sen-s</i> ‘very old’ <i>gar-š, gar-š</i> ‘long, long’ – <i>gar-gar-š</i> ‘very long’

Table 2.15 Main compound adjective formation types in Latvian

2.3 NUMERALS

Numerals form a class of words expressing the number or order of objects (*viena māja* ‘one house’, *divas mājas* ‘two houses’, *trīs mājas* ‘three houses’, *pirmā māja* ‘the first house’, *otrā māja* ‘the second house’, *trešā māja* ‘the third house’) (Skujiņa 2007: 363).

As a word class, numerals are peculiar in that they consist of a relatively small repertoire of lexemes that can be combined in an unlimited number of ways to denote any quantity or position in a sequence.

In writing, numerals can be represented as words or figures depending on the type of text and subject matter, for example, *desmit* ‘ten’ and *10*, *piecdesmit divi* ‘fifty-two’ and *52*.

Within the class of numerals, a distinction is made between **cardinal numerals**, which denote numbers (*viens* ‘one’, *divi* ‘two’, *trīs* ‘three’, *četri* ‘four’, *pieci* ‘five’, *seši* ‘six’, *septiņi* ‘seven’, *astoņi* ‘eight’, *deviņi* ‘nine’, *desmit* / *desmits* ‘ten’, *vienpadsmit* ‘eleven’, *divpadsmit* ‘twelve’, *trīspadsmit* ‘thirteen’, *četrpadsmit* ‘fourteen’, *piecpadsmit* ‘fifteen’, *sešpadsmit* ‘sixteen’, *septiņpadsmit* ‘seventeen’, *astoņpadsmit* ‘eighteen’, *deviņpadsmit* ‘nineteen’, *divdesmit* ‘twenty’, *simt* / *simts* ‘hundred’, *tūkstoš* / *tūkstotis* ‘thousand’, *miljons* ‘million’, *miljards* ‘billion’) and **ordinal numerals**, which define the position of something in a sequence (*pirmais*, -ā ‘the first’, *otrais*, -ā ‘the second’, *trešais*, -ā ‘the third’, *ceturtais*, -ā ‘the fourth’, *piektais*, -ā ‘the fifth’, *sestais*, -ā ‘the sixth’, *septītais*, -ā ‘the seventh’, *astotais*, -ā ‘the eighth’, *devītais*, -ā ‘the ninth’, *desmitais*, -ā ‘the tenth’, *vienpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the eleventh’, *divpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the twelfth’, *trīspadsmitais*, -ā ‘the thirteenth’, *četrpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the fourteenth’, *piecpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the fifteenth’, *sešpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the sixteenth’, *septiņpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the seventeenth’, *astoņpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the eighteenth’, *deviņpadsmitais*, -ā ‘the nineteenth’, *divdesmitais*, -ā ‘the twentieth’, *simtais*, -ā ‘the hundredth’, *tūkstošais*, -ā ‘the thousandth’, *miljonais*, -ā ‘the millionth’, *miljardais*, -ā ‘the billionth’).

Although ordinal numerals typically take the definite ending in modern Latvian, indefinite ordinals are sometimes still used in colloquial speech, dialects, and literary prose, for example:

- (2.3.1) *otr-s* ‘second’, *treš-s* ‘third’, *cetur-t-s* ‘fourth’, *piekt-s* ‘fifth’
Ekonomikas ministrija atradusi otr-u
 economics.GEN.F ministry.NOM.F find.PTCP.NOM.F **second-ACC.M**
cilvēku darbam aģentūras valdē.
 person.ACC.M job.DAT.M agency.GEN.F board_of_directors.LOC.F
 ‘The Ministry of Economics has found a second person to work on
 the agency’s board of directors.’ (www.lsm.lv)

Syntactically, numerals can function as attributes (2.3.2), (rarely) nominal predicates (2.3.3), subjects (2.3.4), and objects (2.3.5):

- (2.3.2) a. *Aktrise apprecējusies piecas dienas*
 actress.NOM.F marry.PTCP.NOM.F **five.NOM.PL.F** day.NOM.PL.F
pirms pirmizrādes.
 before premiere.GEN.F
 ‘The actress got married five days before the premiere.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

- b. *Pirms četriem gadiem bobsleja*
 before **four.DAT.PL.M** year.DAT.PL.M bobsleigh.GEN.M
pilots gulēja gultā ar smadzeņu
 pilot.NOM.M sleep.PST.3 bed.LOC.F with brain.GEN.PL.F
satricinājumu.
 concussion.INS.M
 ‘Four years ago the bobsleigh pilot lay in bed with a concussion.’
 (www.delfi.lv)

- (2.3.3) a. *Skatītāju bija vesels tūkstotis.*
 spectator.GEN.PL.M be.COP.PST.3 whole.NOM.M **thousand.NOM.M**
 ‘The number of spectators amounted to a full thousand.’
 b. *Grāmatas ir četras.*
 book.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 **four.NOM.PL.F**
 ‘The books are four in number.’

- (2.3.4) *Kur divi labi, tur trešais*
 where **two.NOM.PL.M** good.NOM.PL.M there third.NOM.M
lieks?
 unnecessary.NOM.M
 ‘Where two are fine, the third one is the odd one out?’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- (2.3.5) *Skatītāju skaits nepārsniedz divus*
 spectator.GEN.PL.M number.NOM.M not_exceed.PRS.3 two.ACC.PL.M
tūkstošus.
thousand.ACC.PL.M
 ‘The number of spectators does not exceed two thousand.’
 (www.sportacentrs.lv)

While, in general, attributive numerals precede the word they modify (2.3.6), they can also be used postpositively when expressing approximate values (2.3.7):

- (2.3.6) a. *sešas dienas*
six.NOM.PL.F day.NOM.PL.F
 ‘six days’
 b. *vienpadsmit mēnešu*
eleven month.GEN.PL.M
 ‘eleven months’
 c. *simt gadu*
hundred year.GEN.PL.M
 ‘a hundred years’

- (2.3.7) a. *Puika, gadus četrus vecs, bradā*
 boy.NOM.M **year.ACC.PL.M** **four.ACC.PL.M** old.NOM.M wade.PRS.3
gar krastu.
 along shore.ACC.M
 ‘A boy, some four years of age, is wading along the shore.’
 (G. Janovskis)

- b. *Cik ilgi viņš nav*
 how_many long_time he.NOM not_be.AUX.PRS.3
baudījis stiprākas lāsītes.
 enjoy.PTCP.NOM.M strong.CMP.GEN.F drop.DIM.GEN.F
Būs mēneši trīs.
 be.COP.FUT.3 month.NOM.PL.M three
 ‘It hasn’t been all that long since he last tasted a drop of something stronger. It will be some three months.’ (G. Janovskis)
- c. *Tā bilde tur jau kādus*
 that.NOM.F picture.NOM.F there already some.ACC.PL.M
gadus piecdesmit stāv pie sienas.
 year.ACC.PL.M fifty stand.PRS.3 against wall.GEN.F
 ‘That picture has been on the wall there for some fifty years.’ (G. Janovskis)

Approximate values can be expressed by means of two successive numerals, which define the range of possible values:

- (2.3.8) a. *Ja tev trīs četrus mēnešus*
 if you.DAT.SG three four.ACC.PL.M month.ACC.PL.M
nemaksā algu, rokas nolaižas.
 not_pay.PRS.3 wage.ACC.F hand.NOM.PL.F come_down.PRS.3
 ‘When your wages have not been paid to you for three or four months you lose heart.’ (www.apollo.lv)
- b. *Krūmiem izveidojušās četrus piecus*
 bush.DAT.PL.M develop.PTCP.NOM.PL.F four.ACC.PL.M five.ACC.PL.M
metrus dziļas saknes.
 meter.ACC.PL.M deep.NOM.PL.F root.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The bushes have developed four to five meter deep roots.’ (www.delfi.lv)

The numerals *desmits* ‘ten’ (DECL), *desmit* ‘ten’ (IDECL), *simts* ‘a hundred’ (DECL), *simt* ‘a hundred’ (IDECL), *tūkstotis* ‘a thousand’ (DECL), *tūkstoš* ‘a thousand’ (IDECL), *miljons* ‘a million’, *miljards* ‘a billion’, as well as 11–19, traditionally take a noun in the genitive case, for example:

- (2.3.9) a. *desmit dienu*
 ten day.GEN.PL.F
 ‘ten days’
- b. *simts rožu*
 hundred.NOM.M rose.GEN.PL.F
 ‘a hundred roses’
- c. *tūkstotis skolu*
 thousand.NOM.F school.GEN.PL.F
 ‘a thousand schools’
- d. *miljons gadu*
 million.NOM.M year.GEN.PL.M
 ‘a million years’

- e. *divpadsmi grāmatu*
divpadsmi book.GEN.PL.F
'twelve books'
- (2.3.10) a. *Režisors jau prezentējis jaunās*
director.NOM.M already present.PTCP.NOM.M new.GEN.F
sezonas repertuāru, kurā būs 10
season.GEN.F repertoire.ACC.M which.LOC.M be.FUT.3 10
jauniestudējumu
new_production.GEN.PL.M
'The director has already announced the repertoire for the upcoming season, which will include 10 new productions.' (Diena)
- b. *Tur bija 500 mēru no visām*
there be.PST.3 500 mayor.GEN.PL.M from all.DAT.PL.F
Eiropas Savienības valstīm
Europe.GEN.F Union.GEN.F country.DAT.PL.F
'There were 500 mayors there from all of the countries of the European Union.' (Privātā Dzīve)
- c. *Valstī ir gandrīz 10 000 sociālā riska*
country.LOC.F be.PRS.3 almost 10 000 social.GEN.M risk.GEN.M
ģimeņu, kurās aug 18 000
family.GEN.PL.M which.LOC.PL.F grow.PRS.3 18 000
bērnu
child.GEN.PL.M
'There are almost 10 000 families at social risk in the country, bringing up 18 000 children.' (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

In modern Latvian, however, these numerals also occur with nouns in the nominative, which seems to compete with the more classic use of the genitive in written texts as well as colloquial speech (see also Section 2.1.4), for example:

- (2.3.11) a. *[Drošības padomē] darbojas 10 valstis.*
[security council] work.PRS.3 10 country.NOM.PL.F
'There are ten countries [on the Security Council].' (Diena)
- b. *Lai privātpašnieki, kuriem Dienvidu*
SUB private_owner.NOM.PL.M which.DAT.PL.M south.GEN.PL.M
tilta teritorijā pieder aptuveni 30
bridge.GEN.M area.LOC.F own.PRS.3 about 30
hektāri zemes, zinātu
hectare.NOM.PL.M land.GEN.F know.COND
“spēles noteikumus”.
game.GEN.F rule.ACC.PL.M
'So that the private owners who own approximately 30 hectares of land at the site of the Southern Bridge know the rules of the game.'
(Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

Numerals used attributively can be expected to agree in gender, number, and case with the noun they modify, just like adjectives do. However, the nominal grammatical categories of gender, number, and case do not apply to all numerals to the same extent. Ordinal numerals always display numeral–noun agreement for gender, number, and case, for example:

- (2.3.12) *ceturt-ais gad-s* ‘the fourth year’ (NOM M), *ceturt-ajam gad-am* (DAT M),
ceturt-ā klas-e ‘the fourth grade’ (NOM F), *ceturt-ajā klas-ē* (LOC F)

By contrast, cardinal numerals alongside regular numeral–noun agreement also show some asymmetry of grammatical forms, which manifests itself in several ways in modern Latvian.

- 1) Some cardinal numerals are indeclinable, i.e., they do not inflect for any of these features, for example:

- (2.3.13) a. 11–19
vienpadsmit ‘eleven’, *divpadsmit* ‘twelve’, *piecpadsmit* ‘fifteen’,
 b. 10–90
desmit ‘ten’, *divdesmit* ‘twenty’, *piecdesmit* ‘fifty’,
 c. 100–900
simt ‘one hundred’, *divsimt* ‘two hundred’, *piecsimt* ‘five hundred’,
 d. 1000–9000
tūkstoš ‘one thousand’, *divtūkstoš* ‘two thousand’, *piektūkstoš* ‘five thousand’

A few numerals have both a declinable and an indeclinable variant:

- (2.3.14) *trīs* ‘three’
desmits – *desmit* ‘ten’
simts – *simt* ‘a hundred’
tūkstotis – *tūkstoš* ‘a thousand’

- 2) Some cardinal numerals take only masculine (*desmits* ‘ten’, *simts* ‘a hundred’, *tūkstotis* ‘a thousand’, *miljons* ‘a million’, *miljards* ‘a billion’) or only feminine endings (*nulle* ‘zero’). The numeral *trīs* ‘three’, while having both gender paradigms (see Table 2.13) can also be gender-neutral, i.e., it can be used as an indeclinable word (*trīs brāļi* ‘three brothers’, *trīs māsas* ‘three sisters’).
- 3) In terms of number, cardinal numerals subdivide into singular-only (*viens* ‘one’, *divdesmit viens* ‘twenty-one’, but *vieni prieki* ‘nothing but delights’) and plural-only words (2–9 and all corresponding phrasal numerals).

Cardinal and ordinal numerals follow different patterns of inflection.

- 1) **Cardinal numerals**, much like indefinite adjectives, mirror the endings of declension 1 (1–9, *desmits* ‘ten’, *simts* ‘a hundred’, *miljons* ‘a million’, *miljards* ‘a billion’) and declension 2 nouns (*tūkstotis* ‘a thousand’) for masculine gender and declension 4 (1–9) and declension 5 (*nulle* ‘zero’) nouns for feminine gender (see Table 2.3). The numeral *trīs* ‘three’ exhibits a distinct inflectional pattern:

Case	M	F
NOM	<i>trīs gadi</i> ‘three years’	<i>trīs dienas</i> ‘three days’
GEN	<i>triju gadu</i>	<i>triju dienu</i>
DAT	<i>trim</i> // <i>trijiem gadiem</i>	<i>trim</i> // <i>trijām dienām</i>
ACC	<i>trīs gadus</i>	<i>trīs dienas</i>
INS	(ar) <i>trim</i> // <i>trijiem gadiem</i>	(ar) <i>trim</i> // <i>trijām dienām</i>
LOC	<i>trīs</i> // <i>trijos gados</i>	<i>trīs</i> // <i>trijās dienās</i>
VOC	<i>trīs gadi!</i>	<i>trīs dienas!</i>

Table 2.16 Declension of the numeral *trīs* ‘three’ (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 66)

- 2) **Ordinal numerals** follow the inflectional pattern of definite adjectives (see Section 2.2.1 and Table 2.11 above).

In terms of morphological structure, a distinction is made between simplex, compound, and phrasal numerals.

- 1) Simplex numerals consist of a root or a root and an ending, for example:

- (2.3.15) a. *desmit* ‘ten’ (IDECL), *simt* ‘a hundred’ (IDECL), *tūkstoš* ‘a thousand’ (IDECL)
 b. *vien-s* ‘one’ (M NOM SG), *vien-a* (F NOM SG),
div-i ‘two’ (M NOM PL), *div-as* (F NOM PL), *četr-i* ‘four’ (M NOM PL),
četr-as (F NOM PL), *desmit-s* ‘ten’ (DECL), *simt-s* ‘a hundred’ (DECL).

- 2) Compound numerals are composed of more than one root, for example:

- (2.3.16) a. 11–19 (*vienpadsmit* ‘eleven’ < *vienu pa desmit* ‘one by ten’, *divpadsmit* ‘twelve’ < *divi pa desmit* ‘two by ten’, *piecpadsmit* ‘fifteen’ < *pieci pa desmit* ‘five by ten’)
 b. 20–90 (*divdesmit* ‘twenty’, *trīsdesmit* ‘thirty’, *piecdesmit* ‘fifty’)
 c. 200–900 (*divsimt* ‘two hundred’, *trīssimt* ‘three hundred’, *piecsimt* ‘five hundred’)
 d. 2000–9000 (*divtūkstoš* ‘two thousand’, *trīstūkstoš* ‘three thousand’, *piektūkstoš* ‘five thousand’)

- 3) Phrasal numerals are formed by combining several simplex or compound numerals to denote a single concept – a number or quantity, for example:

- (2.3.17) a. 21–99
divdesmit viens ‘twenty-one’, *trīsdesmit deviņi* ‘thirty-nine’,
deviņdesmit divi ‘ninety-two’
 b. 101–999
simtu viens ‘one hundred one’, *divsimt divdesmit astoņi* ‘two hundred twenty-eight’, *deviņsimt piecdesmit trīs* ‘nine hundred fifty-three’
 c. 1001–9999
tūkstoš viens ‘one thousand one’, *divtūkstoš trīssimt četrdesmit pieci* ‘two thousand, three hundred forty-five’, *astoņtūkstoš piecsimt divdesmit pieci* ‘eight thousand, five hundred twenty-five’

Phrasal numerals are also used to express simple (2.3.18) and decimal fractions (2.3.19):

- (2.3.18) a. *viena* *ceturtdaļa*
 one.NOM.F quarter.NOM.F
 ‘one-quarter’
- b. *divas* *piektdaļas*
 two.NOM.PL.F fifth.NOM.PL.F
 ‘two-fifths’
- c. *viens* *vesels* *un* *trīs* *ceturtdaļas*
 one.NOM.M whole.NOM.M and three quarter.NOM.PL.F
 ‘one and three-quarters’
- (2.3.19) a. *četri,* *komats,* *pieci*
 four.NOM.PL.M comma.NOM.M five.NOM.PL.M
 ‘four point five’
- b. *desmit,* *komats,* *divi*
 ten.NOM.M comma.NOM.M two.NOM.PL.M
 ‘ten point two’

Some numerals have parallel compound and phrasal implementations:

- (2.3.20) a. *divdesmit* // *divi* *desmiti*
 twenty two.NOM.PL.M ten.NOM.PL.M
 ‘twenty’
- b. *divsimt* // *divi* *simti*
 two_hundred two.NOM.PL.M hundred.NOM.PL.M
 ‘two hundred’
- c. *piektūkstoš* // *pieci* *tūkstoši*
 five_thousand five.NOM.PL.M thousand.NOM.PL.M
 ‘five thousand’

2.4 PRONOUNS

2.4.0 Introductory remarks

The class of pronouns comprises words that point to living beings, things, and properties without directly naming them and usually substitute for nouns, adjectives, and numerals in a sentence (Skujiņa 2007: 451).

Similarly to nouns, adjectives, and numerals, a pronoun can function as the subject of a sentence (2.4.1a), an attribute (2.4.1b), an object (2.4.1c), or a nominal predicate (2.4.1d):

- (2.4.1) a. **Viņš** *gribēja* *būt* *tautas* *mīlēts*
he.NOM want.PST.3 be.INF people.GEN.F love.PTCP.NOM.M
dzejnieks.
poet.NOM.M
'He wanted to be a poet beloved by the people.' (Jaunā Gaita)
- b. **Visi** *mani* *dokumenti* *bija*
all.NOM.PL.M **my.GEN.PL.M** document.NOM.PL.M be.PST.3
kārtībā.
order.LOC.F
'All my documents were in order.' (A. Eglītis)
- c. *Pa laiku* *Elzai* **tos** *[fotogrāfiju*
now_and_then Elza.DAT.F **they.ACC.M** [photo
albūmus] *patīk* *pāršķirstīt.*
album] like.PRS.3 browse_through.INF
'Elsa likes browsing through them [photo albums] every now and then.'
(A. Žigūre)
- d. *Sīkstas* *likstas* *nav*
tough.NOM.PL.F hardship.NOM.PL.F not_be.COP.PRS.3
nekas.
nothing.NOM
'Tough hardships are nothing.' (www.lsm.lv)

The number of pronouns in Latvian is fixed, that is to say, no new pronouns enter the language either through word formation or borrowing. Nevertheless, these are among the most frequently used words in the language, because, in any text, they help to ensure its semantic wholeness and links with other texts, while also implementing the language economy principle by eliminating the need to repeat what has already been stated or is known and pointing to further information.

Based on their meanings and functions, Latvian pronouns are usually grouped as follows (Paegle 2003: 73–75; Kalnača 2013a: 67):

1) personal pronouns

- (2.4.2) *es* 'I', *tu* 'you (SG)', *mēs* 'we', *jūs* 'you (PL)', *viņš* 'he', *viņa* 'she', *viņi* 'they (M)', *viņas* (F)

- 2) the reflexive pronoun
- (2.4.3) *sevis* ‘(-)self’
- 3) possessive pronouns
- (2.4.4) *mans* ‘my (M SG)’, *mana* (F SG), *mani* (M PL), *manas* (F PL), *tavs* ‘your (SG) (M SG)’, *tava* (F SG), *tavi* (M PL), *tavas* (F PL), *savs* ‘own, reflexive possessive meaning (M SG)’, *sava* (F SG), *savi* (M PL), *savas* (F PL)
- 4) demonstrative pronouns
- (2.4.5) *tas* ‘that, it (M)’, *tā* (F), *tie* ‘those, they (M)’, *tās* (F), *tāds* ‘such, that kind (M SG)’, *tāda* (F SG), *tādi* (M PL), *tādas* (F PL), *šis* ‘this (M)’, *ši* (F), *šie* ‘these (M)’, *šis* (F), *šāds* ‘such, this kind (M SG)’, *šāda* (F SG), *šādi* (M PL), *šādas* (F PL), *viņš* ‘that (most distant) (M SG)’, *viņa* (F SG), *viņi* (M PL), *viņas* (F PL)
- 5) interrogative pronouns
- (2.4.6) *kas* ‘who, what’, *kurš* ‘who, which (M SG)’, *kura* (F SG), *kuri* (M PL), *kuras* (F PL), *kāds* ‘what, what kind (M SG)’, *kāda* (F SG), *kādi* (M PL), *kādas* (F PL)
- 6) relative pronouns
- (2.4.7) *kas* ‘who, what, which, that’, *kurš* ‘who, which, that (M SG)’, *kura* (F SG), *kuri* (M PL), *kuras* (F PL), *kāds* ‘which, what kind (M SG)’, *kāda* (F SG), *kādi* (M PL), *kādas* (F PL)
- 7) indefinite pronouns
- (2.4.8) *kas* ‘something, somebody’, *kurš* ‘who, which, whoever, whichever (M SG)’, *kura* (F SG), *kuri* (M PL), *kuras* (F PL), *kāds* ‘some, some kind, someone (M, SG)’, *kāda* (F SG), *kādi* (M PL), *kādas* (F PL), *dažs* ‘some (M SG)’, *daža* (F SG), *daži* (M PL), *dažas* (F PL), *cits* ‘other, someone else (M SG)’, *cita* (F SG), *citi* (M PL), *citas* (F PL), *kaut kas* ‘something’, *kaut kāds* ‘some, some kind of (M SG)’, *kaut kāda* (F SG), *kaut kādi* (M PL), *kaut kādas* (F PL), *kaut kurš* ‘some, somebody (M SG)’, *kaut kura* (F SG), *kaut kuri* (M PL), *kaut kuras* (F PL), *dažs labs* ‘some, someone, a certain one (M SG)’, *daža laba* (F SG), *viens otrs* ‘someone, an occasional one (M SG)’, *viena otra* (F SG), *diez(in) kas* (*diez(in)*, *nez(in)*) and *sazin* when combined with *kas*, *kurš*, *kāds* reinforce the meaning of indefiniteness, adding different shades of meaning depending on the context), *diez(in) kurš*, *diez(in) kura*, *diez(in) kuri*, *diez(in) kuras*, *diez(in) kāds*, *diez(in) kāda*, *diez(in) kādi*, *diez(in) kādas*, *nez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kurš*, *nez(in) kura*, *nez(in) kuri*, *nez(in) kuras*, *nez(in) kāds*, *nez(in) kāda*, *nez(in) kādi*, *nez(in) kādas*, *sazin kas*, *sazin kurš*, *sazin kura*, *sazin kuri*, *sazin kuras*, *sazin kāds*, *sazin kāda*, *sazin kādi*, *sazin kādas*, *jebkas* ‘anything’, *jebkurš* ‘any, anyone (M SG)’, *jebkura* (F SG), *jebkuri* (M PL), *jebkuras* (F PL), *jebkāds* ‘any, any kind of (M SG)’, *jebkāda* (F SG), *jebkādi* (M PL), *jebkādas* (F PL)

8) definite pronouns

- (2.4.9) *abi* ‘both (M)’, *abas* (F), *viss* ‘all, everything, everybody (M SG)’, *visa* (F SG), *visi* (M PL), *visas* (F PL), *pats* ‘reflexive emphatic meaning (M SG)’, *pati* (F SG), *paši* (M PL), *pašas* (F PL), *katrs* ‘every, each, everyone (M SG)’, *katra* (F SG), *katri* (M PL), *katras* (F PL), *ikkatrs* ‘every, each, everyone, all (M SG)’, *ikkatra* (F SG), *ikviens* ‘every, each, everyone, all (M SG)’, *ikviena* (F SG), *ikkurš* ‘every, everyone (M SG)’, *ikkura* (F SG)

9) negative pronouns

- (2.4.10) *nekas* ‘nothing’, *nekāds* ‘no, none, not any kind (M SG)’, *nekāda* (F SG), *nekādi* (M PL), *nekādas* (F PL), *neviens* ‘no, nobody, no one (M SG)’, *neviens* (F SG)

Needless to say, the above classification should not be seen as absolute: one and the same pronoun can have different functions, depending on the context and communicative situation. Thus, personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns, as well as personal and demonstrative pronouns, are partly bordering on one another in terms of their meanings and functions.

The pronouns *kas*, *kurš*, *kura*, *kuri*, *kuras*, *kāds*, *kāda*, *kādi*, *kādas*, depending on how they are used in a specific text, may belong to any of the following three groups: interrogative, relative, or indefinite pronouns (for more details see Section 2.4.5–2.4.7).

Semantically the pronoun *sevis* seems to fit in with the group of personal pronouns. However, due to its defective paradigm and functional distinctness of pointing back to the agent in a sentence (i.e., to an action which goes back to the agent), it is singled out into a separate group: the reflexive pronouns. Similar reflexive semantics is also expressed by the pronominal combinations *viens otru*, *viena otru*, *cits citu*, *cita citu* (for more details see Section 2.4.7) as well as the pronouns *pats*, *pati*, *paši*, *pašas* (see Section 2.4.8).

The pronouns *viņš*, *viņa*, *viņi*, *viņas* may act as either personal or demonstrative pronouns (for more details see Section 2.4.4). Admittedly though, the pronouns *viņš*, *viņa*, *viņi*, *viņas* only rarely function as demonstrative pronouns in contemporary Latvian. What can be observed, however, is functional parallelism between 3rd person pronouns and the demonstrative pronouns *tas*, *tā*, *tie*, *tās* (also, *šis*, *ši*, *šie*, *šās*) (see, e.g., Sections 2.4.1, 2.4.4).

The variety of uses to which Latvian pronouns lend themselves has been the topic of many discussions in Latvian linguistics (in detail see Paegle 2003: 73–76). As a result, several alternative classification principles have been suggested (Endzelīns, Milenbachs 1907a, 1907b; Ahero et al. 1959: 503; Nitiņa 2001: 52–61). Nitiņa (2013b: 435–455) distinguishes between just three groups: 1) personal and demonstrative pronouns, 2) general pronouns, 3) indefinite pronouns.

The current grammar retains Paegle’s (2003) classification (see also Kalme, Smiltņiece 2001: 171), which consists of 9 groups, while also highlighting functional

similarities between and diversity within those groups. At the same time, one must agree with Bhat (2004) that functionally and morphosyntactically all pronouns can also be divided into two types: personal pronouns (1st and 2nd person pronouns related to the dialogue personae *the author of the text* and *the addressee of the text* or to the author or addressee of the text together with other persons) and *pro-forms* (all other pronouns, which can be used as substitutes for all kinds of nouns, adjectives, and numerals in a text: possessive, reflexive, interrogative, relative, indefinite, definite, and negative pronouns). In this sense, 3rd person pronouns are a transitional type as they include the functions of personal as well as demonstrative pronouns (*pro-forms*), which cannot always be neatly distinguished from one another in a language system. Bhat's classification is consistent with the functions that, as in other languages, pronouns have in Latvian:

- 1) the exophoric (also *deictic*) function (Crystal 1997: 143), which is characteristic of direct communication and, although more typical of 1st and 2nd person pronouns, is also possible for 3rd person personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns;
- 2) the endophoric function where a pronoun points to antecedent (anaphora) or postcedent (cataphora) information within the same text (Crystal 1997: 136), which is typical of all *pro-forms* as well as 3rd person personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns.

Although overall, pronouns have the same grammatical categories as nominals – gender, number, case – the manner in which these categories manifest themselves is different:

- 1) the personal pronouns *es*, *tu*, *mēs*, *jūs*, the reflexive pronoun *sevis*, and the pronouns *kas*, *kaut kas*, *diez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kas*, *sazin kas*, *jebkas*, *nekas* lack the category of gender;
- 2) the pronoun, as a word class, does not have the vocative case; rather than directly naming things and properties, pronouns only point to them (for this reason the vocative is excluded from pronominal case paradigms);
- 3) the pronoun *sevis* (no nominative) and the pronouns *kas*, *kaut kas*, *diez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kas*, *sazin kas*, *jebkas*, *nekas* (no locative) have incomplete case paradigms;
- 4) the pronouns *es*, *tu*, *mēs*, *jūs*, *sevis*, *tas*, *tā*, *šis*, *ši* historically have suppletive case forms with distinct roots in the nominative and the oblique cases (see pronoun declension paradigms Tables 2.16–2.18); the pronouns *kas*, *kaut kas*, *diez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kas*, *sazin kas*, *jebkas*, *nekas* display a similarly peculiar declension pattern (Table 2.19); the aforementioned pronouns cannot be segmented into morphemes both because of the suppletive forms and the fact that the root and ending have merged into a single entity in Latvian;
- 5) some pronouns exhibit an incomplete number paradigm; the pronouns *es*, *tu* are singular only, the pronouns *mēs*, *jūs*, *abi*, *abas* are plural only, while the pronouns *sevis*, *kas*, *kaut kas*, *diez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kas*, *sazin kas*, *jebkas*,

nekas lack this kind of juxtaposition altogether, as they can refer to both singular and plural referents.

Another notion, which has, albeit limited, relevance to pronouns in Latvian, is animacy. Personal pronouns and the possessive pronouns *mans* (*mana*, *mani*, *manas*) and *tavs* (*tava*, *tavi*, *tavas*) only refer to humans, while all other pronouns can apply to living beings as well as objects, i.e., their use is not restricted as to animacy. Unlike other languages (for example, English and German) Latvian does not have dedicated pronouns for inanimate objects: the pronoun *tas* (*tā*, *tie*, *tās*) is used for this purpose (for more details see Section 2.7.4) when necessary.

In contrast to other declinable word classes, pronouns do not show evidence of a well-developed word formation system. For the most part, pronouns in contemporary Latvian are words consisting of either just a root (2.4.11a) or a root and an ending (2.4.11b).

- (2.4.11) a. *es* ‘I’, *tu* ‘you (SG)’, *mēs* ‘we’, *jūs* ‘you (PL)’, *šī* ‘this (F)’, *tā* ‘that (F)’
b. *kur-š* ‘who, which (interrogative pronoun) (M SG)’
kād-s ‘what, what kind (interrogative pronoun) (M SG)’
tād-s ‘such, that kind (M SG)’
vis-s ‘all, everything, everybody (M SG)’
pat-s ‘reflexive emphatic meaning (M SG)’
man-s ‘my (M SG)’
ab-i ‘both (M)’

There are a number of compounds with a particle in the leftmost part of the word:

- (2.4.12) *ik-katrs*, *ik-viens* ‘every, each, everyone’
jeb-kas ‘anything’, *jeb-kāds* ‘any, any kind of’
ne-kas ‘nothing’, *ne-viens* ‘no one, nobody’

Some pronouns are combinations of a particle and a pronoun (2.4.13a) or a pronoun and an adjective / numeral (2.4.13b):

- (2.4.13) a. *kaut kas* ‘something’, *diez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kas*, *sazin kas* ‘something, somebody, who knows what, who knows who’ with *diez(in)*, *nez(in)*, and *sazin* reinforcing the meaning of indefiniteness and adding different shades of meaning depending on the context
b. *dažs labs* ‘some, someone, a certain one (M SG)’, *viens otrs* ‘someone, an occasional one (M SG)’

2.4.1 Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns name a person who either takes part or is made reference to in a speech situation (Skujina 2007: 295–296). Personal pronouns are closely linked to dialogue and its personae. In a dialogue, the pronoun *es* ‘I’ refers to the author of the text (2.4.14a), *tu* ‘you (SG)’ – to the addressee (2.4.14b), *mēs* ‘we’ – to the author of the text together with other persons (2.4.14c), *jūs* ‘you (PL)’ – to the addressee of the text together with other persons or to several addressees simultaneously (2.4.14d),

whereas the pronouns *viņš* ‘he’, *viņa* ‘she’, *viņi* ‘they (M)’, *viņas* ‘they (F)’ name persons who do not participate in the dialogue but are talked about (2.4.15a–d):

- (2.4.14) a. *Es varēju sēdēt mājās un lasīt grāmatas.*
I.NOM be_able.PST.1SG sit.INF home.LOC.PL.F and read.INF
 book.ACC.PL.F
 ‘I could sit at home and read books.’ (J. Joņevs)
- b. *Kāpēc tu smaidi?*
 why **you.NOM.SG** smile.PRS.2SG
 ‘Why are you smiling?’ (C)
- c. *Mēs atgriežamies lidostā.*
we.NOM return.PRS.1PL airport.LOC.F
 ‘We are going back to the airport.’ (C)
- d. *Vai jūs saista kopīgas intereses?*
 Q **you.NOM.PL** bind.PRS.3 shared.NOM.PL.F interest.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Are you bound together by shared interests?’ (C)
- (2.4.15) a. *Viņa uzvārdu es aizmirsu.*
he.GEN surname.ACC.M I.NOM forget.PST.1SG
 ‘I forgot his surname.’ (C)
- b. *Vēl tagad atceros viņas acu mirdzumu.*
 still now remember.PRS.1SG **she.GEN** eye.GEN.PL.F radiance.ACC.F
 ‘Even now, I remember the radiance of her eyes.’ (C)
- c. *Ar viņiem sarunāties bijis ļoti viegli.*
with they.INS.M talk.INF be.PTCP.NOM.M very easy
 ‘Talking to them has been very easy.’ (C)
- d. *Viņas nejūtas vainīgas.*
they.NOM.F not_feel.PRS.3 guilty.NOM.PL.F
 ‘They (F) do not feel guilty.’ (C)

As can be seen from the examples above, pronouns correspond to the system of persons found in Latvian verbs: the pronouns *es* ‘I’, *tu* ‘you (SG)’, *mēs* ‘we’, *jūs* ‘you (PL)’ map onto 1st and 2nd person singular and plural, respectively, the pronouns *viņš* ‘he’, *viņa* ‘she’, *viņi* ‘they (M)’, *viņas* ‘they (F)’ onto 3rd person singular and plural.

The pronouns *es*, *tu*, *mēs*, *jūs* have the following declension paradigms:

	SG		PL	
NOM	<i>es</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>mēs</i>	<i>jūs</i>
GEN	<i>manis</i>	<i>tevīs</i>	<i>mūsu</i>	<i>jūsu</i>
DAT	<i>man</i>	<i>tev</i>	<i>mums</i>	<i>jums</i>
ACC	<i>mani</i>	<i>tevi</i>	<i>mūs</i>	<i>jūs</i>
INS	<i>(ar) mani</i>	<i>(ar) tevi</i>	<i>(ar) mums</i>	<i>(ar) jums</i>
LOC	<i>manī</i>	<i>tevī</i>	<i>mūsos</i>	<i>jūsos</i>

Table 2.17 Declension of the personal pronouns *es*, *tu*, *mēs*, *jūs*

The pronouns *viņš*, *viņa*, *viņi*, *viņas* inflect as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine (see Table 2.3).

Personal pronouns are closely linked to the concept of animacy. The pronouns *es*, *tu*, *mēs*, *jūs* always relate to actions carried out by humans (see examples (2.4.14), with the exception of personification (2.4.16)).

- (2.4.16) a. *Kur tu esi, vasara?*
 where **you.NOM.SG** be.PRS.2SG summer.NOM.F
 ‘Where are you, summer?’ (www.twitter.com)
- b. *Maiga vai barga. Kāda tu būsi, ziema 2015?*
 mild.NOM.F or harsh.NOM.F which.NOM.F **you.NOM.SG**
 be.FUT.2SG winter.NOM.F 2015
 ‘Mild or harsh. Which one will you be, winter of 2015?’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In Latvian, especially in colloquial speech, the meaning of the pronouns *mēs* ‘we’ and *jūs* ‘you (PL)’ is often further specified by naming one or several additional participants of the action in the instrumental case – the so-called *inclusive plural pronouns* function (Prauliņš 2012: 53).

- (2.4.17) a. *Mēs ar māsu [bērnībā] netikām īpaši lutinātas.*
we.NOM **with** **sister.INS.F** [childhood] not_get.PST.1PL
 particularly pamper.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
 ‘My sister and I weren’t pampered too much [when we were kids].’
 (www.maminuklubs.lv)
- b. *Vai jūs ar sievu apspriežat viens otra profesionālo darbību?*
 Q **you.NOM.PL** **with** **wife.INS.F** discuss.PRS.2PL one.NOM.M
 other.GEN.M professional.ACC.F activity.ACC.F
 ‘Do you and your wife discuss each other’s professional activities?’
 (www.apollo.lv)
- c. *Uz pastāvīgu dzīvi šeit [Talsos] mēs ar vīru un bērniem pārcēlāmies pirms diviem gadiem.*
 for permanent.ACC.F life.ACC.F here [in Talsi]
we.NOM **with** **husband.INS.M** and **child.INS.PL.M**
 move.PST.1PL before two.DAT.PL.F year.DAT.PL.M
 ‘My husband, children, and I moved to live here [in Talsi] two years ago.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In colloquial speech, the pronouns *mēs* ‘we’ and *jūs* ‘you (PL)’ are sometimes used to refer to a person together with that person’s pet, usually a dog:

- (2.4.18) a. *Kādu dienu mēs ar suni pastaigājāmies.*
 some.ACC.F day.ACC.F **we.PL** with dog.INS.M walk.PST.1PL
 ‘One day I went for a walk with the dog.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- b. *Cik ilgi jūs staigājat ar suni pa āru?*
 how long **you.NOM.PL** walk.PRS.2.PL with dog.INS.M PREP
 outdoors.ACC.M
 ‘How long do you walk outdoors with your dog?’ (www.draugiem.lv)

In Standard Latvian, the 3rd person pronouns *viņš* ‘he’, *viņa* ‘she’, *viņi* ‘they (M)’, *viņas* ‘they (F)’ only apply to humans (again, with the exception of personification) (see examples (2.4.15)). When referring to animals (2.4.19) or inanimate objects (2.4.20) the (demonstrative) pronouns *tas* ‘that, it (M)’, *tā* (F), *tie* ‘those, they (M)’, *tās* (F) are expected to be used.

- (2.4.19) a. *Pundurcūciņu dzīvnieku patversmē nogādāja no kāda dzīvokļa Rīgā.*
Iepriekšējie saimnieki to bija iegādājušies emociju vadītī.
 previous.NOM.PL.M owner.NOM.PL.M **it.ACC.F** be.AUX.PST.3
 buy.PTCP.NOM.PL.M feeling.GEN.PL.F guide.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The miniature pig was brought to the animal shelter from some apartment in Rīga. The previous owners had bought it on impulse.’
 (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Cilvēki dzīvniekus bieži iegādājas, neapzinoties, ka par tiem būs jā rūpējas.*
 person.NOM.PL.M animal.ACC.PL.M often buy.PRS.3
 not_be_aware.PTCP that for **they.ACC.M** be.AUX.FUT.3 DEB.care
 ‘People often buy animals without realizing that they will have to take care of them.’ (www.delfi.lv)
- (2.4.20) a. *Šīm fotogrāfijām ir lieliska kvalitāte, jo tās nav jāpalielina.*
 this.DAT.PL.F photo.DAT.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 excellent.NOM.F
 quality.NOM.F because **it.NOM.PL.F** not_be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.enlarge
 ‘These photographs are of excellent quality, because they don’t need to be enlarged.’ (C)
- b. *Šo mežu bioloģisko daudzveidību ir grūtāk novērtēt.*
Tajos ir maz tādu **they.LOC.M** be.COP.PRS.3 few that_kind.GEN.PL.F
reto sugu,
 rare.GEN.PL.F species.GEN.PL.F
kuras viegli konstatēt.
 that.NOM.PL.F easily find.INF
 ‘The biological diversity of these forests is more difficult to assess. There aren’t many rare species in them which are easily observed.’ (C)

However, in colloquial speech and not infrequently also in the press (especially on Internet news sites) the pronouns *viņš*, *viņa*, *viņi*, *viņas* are used to refer to animals (2.4.21) and inanimate objects (2.4.22), which is not desirable in Standard Latvian:

- (2.4.21) a. *Alnis tuvojas apmeklētājiem, kaut arī kopēja dzīvnieku vēl ne reizi nav saukusi.*
“Viņš dzird, ka runā,” kopēja apstiprina.
he.NOM hear.PRS.3 that talk.PRS.3 handler.NOM.F confirm.PRS.3
 ‘The moose is moving towards the visitors, although the attendant hasn’t called the animal yet, not even once. “He hears the talking”, the attendant confirms.’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Trusim pašam jāļauj izvēlēties, kurā būrā stūrī viņš gulēs.*
 which.LOC.M cage.GEN.M corner.LOC.M **he.NOM** sleep.FUT.3
 ‘The rabbit should be allowed to choose in which corner of the cage he will sleep.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- c. *Nesper sunītim, viņam sāp.*
 not_kick.IMP.2SG doggy.DAT.M **he.DAT** hurt.PRS.3
 ‘Don’t kick the doggy, you’re hurting him.’ (C)
- (2.4.22) a. *Manam mazulim niez smaganas.*
Viņas niez tāpēc, ka aug pirmie
they.NOM.F itch.PRS.3 because that grow.PRS.3 first.NOM.PL.M
 zobi?
 tooth.NOM.PL.M
 ‘My baby’s gums are itching. Are they itching because of teething?’
 (www.maminuklubs.lv)
- b. *Mans dators ļoti ruc.*
 Kas jāmaina, lai viņš būtu
 what DEB.change SUB **he.NOM** be.COP.COND
 nedzirdams?
 inaudible.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘My computer whirs very loudly. What has to be changed to make it quiet?’ (www.draugiem.lv)

In contrast to the pronouns *viņš, viņa, viņi, viņas* the use of the pronouns *tas, tā, tie, tās* is not restricted with respect to animacy – these are applied to living beings (2.4.23) and objects (2.4.24) alike, irrespective of whether the referent is a human being (2.4.23a) or an animal (2.4.23b).

- (2.4.23) a. *Kā tikt galā ar tiem,*
 how get.INF end.LOC.M with **they.INS.M**
kas nekad neko nezina?
 ‘How to deal with those who never know anything?’ (C)
- b. *Savvaļā šinšillas dzīvo apmēram desmit gadus,*
 bet nebrīvē to dzīves ilgums
 but captivity.LOC.F **it.GEN.PL.F** life.GEN.F length.NOM.M
 var būt 15 gadu.
 be_able.PRS.3 be.INF 15 year.GEN.PL.M
 ‘Chinchillas live for about ten years in the wild whereas in captivity their lifespan may reach 15 years.’ (www.eDruva.lv)

- (2.4.24) a. *Ejot gar ezera krastu, šķiet,*
ka tā ir jūra.
 that it.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 sea.NOM.F
 ‘Walking along the shore of the lake it seems like a sea.’ (N. Ikstena)
- b. *Ziņojumu es sarakstīšu,*
pēc pāra dienām
 after couple.GEN.M day.DAT.PL.F
tas būs tev galdā.
 it.NOM.M be.FUT.3 you.DAT table.LOC.M
 ‘I will write up the report, in a couple of days it will be on your desk.’
 (O. Zebris)

In phrases of politeness, when talking to a person who is older, has a higher standing, with whom one is in a formal relationship, or with whom one just is not on familiar terms, the pronoun *jūs* ‘you (PL)’ is used and the predicate is usually concordant, taking the 2nd person plural form (2.4.25). In letters, invitations, and other similar texts the pronoun is capitalized (2.4.26).

- (2.4.25) a. – *Māri, stāsta, ka jūs par Mocartu*
Māris.VOC.M tell.PRS.3 that you.NOM.PL about Mozart.ACC.M
zināt vairāk nekā par saviem
know.PRS.2PL more than about own.DAT.PL.M
laikabiedriem.
contemporary.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Māris, word has it that you (PL) know more about Mozart than about your contemporaries.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- b. *Kā jūs sākāt organizēt [arhitektūras]*
 how you.NOM.PL begin.PST.3 organize.INF [architecture]
konkursu?
competition.ACC.M
 ‘How did you (PL) begin organizing the [architecture] competition?’ (Ir)
- (2.4.26) a. *Arī Jūs mūsu kāzās būsiet mīļi*
 also you.NOM.PL we.GEN wedding.LOC.PL.F be.COP.FUT.3 fondly
gaidīts viesis!
wait.PTCP.NOM.M guest.NOM.M
 ‘You (PL) will also be a welcome guest at our wedding!’ (www.precos.lv)
- b. *Informējam Jūs, ka 8. un 9. janvārī*
 inform.PRS.1PL you.ACC.PL that 8th and 9th January.LOC.M
bibliotēka būs slēgta.
 library.NOM.F be.AUX.FUT.3 close.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘We would like to inform you (PL) that the library will be closed on the 8th and 9th of January.’ (www.twitter.com)

2.4.2 The reflexive pronoun

The reflexive pronoun *sevis* ‘(-)self’ is used to indicate that an action is directed back at the agent irrespective of the (grammatical) person of the latter (Skujiņa 2007: 53). The grammatical person is normally defined by contextual use. Importantly, other pronouns, personal pronouns included, are never used in this function in Latvian:

(2.4.27) a. **1SG**

Barselonā [es] sāku noticēt sev kā
 Barcelona.LOC.F [I] begin.PST.1SG believe.INF **oneself.DAT** as
māksliniecei.
 artist.DAT.F

‘In Barcelona [I] began to believe in myself as an artist.’ (Kas Jauns)

b. **2SG**

[Tu] Runā ar sevi!
 you talk.IMP.2SG with **oneself.INS**
 ‘[You] Talk to yourself!’ (www.draugiem.lv)

c. **3SG**

Gadās, ka cilvēks neieklausās sevī.
 occur.PRS.3 that **person.NOM.M** not_listen.PRS.3 **oneself.LOC**
 ‘Sometimes one doesn’t listen to oneself.’ (www.apollo.lv)

d. **1PL**

Kad mēs sevi mīlam,
 when **we.NOM** **oneself.ACC** love.PRS.1PL
mūsos veidojas enerģijas lādiņš.
 ‘When we love ourselves we get an energy boost.’ (www.delfi.lv)

e. **2PL**

Vai jums ir bijis tā,
ka jūs sev nopērkat ko nederīgu?
 that **you.NOM.PL** **oneself.DAT** buy.PRS.2PL what.ACC useless.ACC.M
 ‘Has it ever happened to you that you buy yourself something useless?’
 (www.cosmo.lv)

f. **3PL**

Vikingi sevi nedēvēja par vikingiem.
Viking.NOM.PL.M **oneself.ACC** not_call.PST.3 of Viking.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The Vikings didn’t call themselves Vikings.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

Thus, in terms of syntax the reflexive pronoun *sevis* can act as a *subject controller*, as it always points to the agent in a sentence. Consequently, in sentences containing several agents the pronoun *sevis* may be ambiguous, in which case it can be disambiguated by introducing the definite pronoun *katrs* ‘every, each, everyone (M SG)’, *katra* (F SG), *katri* (M PL), *katras* (F PL) or by replacing the reflexive pronoun with a combination of the definite pronoun *katrs* (*katra*, *katri*, *katras*) and the possessive pronoun *savs* ‘own, reflexive possessive meaning (M SG)’ (*sava*, *savi*, *savas*):

- (2.4.28) *Profesors ieteica studentiem nopirkt*
 professor.NOM.M recommend.PST.3 student.DAT.PL.M buy.INF
sev mācību grāmatu.
oneself.DAT course.GEN.PL.F book.ACC.F
 ‘The professor recommended that the students should buy [themselves]
 the course book (in the Latvian version it is unclear whether the reflexive
 pronoun *sev* refers to the professor or the students).’
 →
Profesors ieteica studentiem nopirkt katram sev/katram savu kursa mācību
grāmatu.
 ‘The professor recommended that the students should each buy their own
 copy of the course book.’

The reflexive pronoun *sevis* has the following declension paradigm:

NOM	–
GEN	<i>sevis</i>
DAT	<i>sev</i>
ACC	<i>sevi</i>
INS	(<i>ar</i>) <i>sevi</i>
LOC	<i>sevī</i>

Table 2.18 Declension of the pronoun *sevis*

Although it is more common to use the pronoun *sevis* for animate agents (humans (2.4.27) or animals (2.4.29)), sometimes it is also applied to inanimate objects (2.4.30):

- (2.4.29) a. *Kāpēc kaķi sev plēš aiz*
 why cat.NOM.PL.M oneself.DAT claw.PRS.3 behind
auss?
 ear.GEN.F
 ‘Why do cats claw [themselves] at their ears?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Lieli suņi rada pret*
 large.NOM.PL.M dog.NOM.PL.M create.PRS.3 against
sevi cieņu.
oneself.ACC respect.ACC.F
 ‘Large dogs command respect [for themselves].’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *Lācene sevi nodevusi,*
she-bear.NOM.F **oneself.ACC** give_away.PTCP.NOM.F
kad tuvējās mājās mīlojusies ar āboliem.
 ‘The she-bear gave herself away when she feasted on apples on a nearby
 property.’ (Diena)

- (2.4.30) a. *Es skatos,*
kā koks pēc koka plēš
 how tree.NOM.M after tree.GEN.M tear.PRS.3
sev lapas nost.
 oneself.DAT leaf.ACC.PL.F off
 ‘I am looking at how one tree after another tears its leaves off [itself].’ (C)
- b. *Audzināšanas sistēma ietver sevi arī*
 education.GEN.F system.NOM.F include.PRS.3 oneself.LOC also
nacionālās audzināšanas komponentu.
 national.GEN.F education.GEN.F component.ACC.M
 ‘The education system also includes [in itself] a national awareness component.’ (Jaunā gaita)
- c. *Nepareizs sakodiens nes sev līdzi*
 wrong.NOM.M occlusion.NOM.M bring.PRS.3 oneself.DAT along
arī galvassāpes, stājas problēmas.
 also headache.ACC.PL.F posture.GEN.F problem.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Malocclusion also brings about [with itself] headaches, posture problems.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

2.4.3 Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns indicate possession by a certain person (Skujiņa 2007, 297). The possessive pronouns *mans* ‘my (M SG)’, *mana* (F SG), *mani* (M PL), *manas* (F PL) attribute possession to 1st person singular (2.4.31), the pronouns *tavs* ‘your (SG) (M SG)’, *tava* (F SG), *tavi* (M PL), *tavas* (F PL) – to 2nd person singular (2.4.32):

- (2.4.31) a. *Jūs kaut ko zināt par manu*
 you.NOM.PL something.ACC know.PRS.2PL about my.ACC.M
tēvu?
 father.ACC.M
 ‘Do you know anything about my father?’ (C)
- b. *Manā dzīvē ir sācies jauns*
 my.LOC.F life.LOC.F be.AUX.PRS.3 begin.PTCP.NOM.M new.NOM.M
posms.
 stage.NOM.M
 ‘A new stage has begun in my life.’ (C)
- c. *Blakussēdētāji izrādās mani*
 person_sitting_next.NOM.PL.M turn_out.PRS.3 my.NOM.PL.M
tautieši.
 compatriot.NOM.PL.M
 ‘It turns out that the people sitting next to me are my compatriots.’
 (P. Bankovskis)

- (2.4.32) a. *Cik tavam bērniņam gadu?*
 how_many **your.DAT.SG.M** child.DAT.M year.GEN.PL.M
 ‘How old is your child?’ (C)
- b. *Saņēmu tavu ziņu.*
 receive.PST.1SG **your.ACC.SG.F** message.ACC.F
 ‘I’ve received your message.’ (C)
- c. *Ko stāsta tavas acis?*
 what.ACC tell.PRS.3 **your.NOM.PL.F** eye.NOM.PL.F
 ‘What do your eyes say?’ (www.delfi.lv)

The pronouns *savs* ‘own, reflexive possessive meaning (M SG)’, *sava* (F SG), *savi* (M PL), *savas* (F PL) are not tied to any particular (grammatical) person. Depending on the specific contextual use, these pronouns can be used to attribute possession to any grammatical person and number. Therefore, just like the reflexive pronoun *sevis* the pronoun *savs* can be used in syntax as a *subject controller* pointing to the subject:

- (2.4.33) a. **1 SG**
Es lepojos ar savu skolu.
 I.NOM take_pride.PRS.1SG with **own.INS.F** school.INS.F
 ‘I take pride in my school.’ (C)
- b. **2 SG**
[Tu] Saudzē dabu un mīli savu zemi!
 you conserve.IMP.2SG nature.ACC.F and love.IMP.2SG **own.ACC.F**
 country.ACC.F
 ‘[You] Conserve nature and love your country!’ (www.twitter.com)
- c. **3 SG**
Katram orķestrim ir savs skanējums.
 each.DAT.M orchestra.DAT.M be.COP.PRS.3 **own.NOM.M**
 sound.NOM.M
 ‘Each orchestra has its own [distinctive] sound.’ (C)
- d. **1 PL**
Mums ir sava māja.
 we.DAT be.PRS.3 **own.NOM.F** house.NOM.F
 ‘We have our own house.’ (www.delfi.lv)
- 2 PL**
[Jūs] Izvēlieties savam monitoram visatbilstošāko izšķirtspēju.
 [you (PL)] choose.IMP.2PL **own.DAT.M** monitor.DAT.M
 most_suitable.ACC.F resolution.ACC.F
 ‘[You] Choose the best resolution for your monitor.’ (C)

e. **3 PL**

levārijumos ogas daudz zaudē no savas
jam.LOC.PL.M berry.NOM.PL.F much lose.PRS.3 of **own.GEN.F**
uzturvērtības.
nutritional_value.GEN.F

‘In jams, berries lose much of their nutritional value.’ (C)

To avoid confusion, in sentences where possession can, in principle, be attributed to more than one person it is best to use the pronouns *mans* (*mana*, *mani*, *manas*) or *tavs* (*tava*, *tavi*, *tavas*), which apply to specific grammatical persons, instead of *sava* (*sava*, *savi*, *savas*), which does not:

- (2.4.34) *Vai tu man ļautu satikties*
Q you.NOM.SG I.DAT allow.COND meet.INF
ar savu māsu?
with **own.INS.F** sister.INS.F
‘Would you let me meet ‘reflexive possessive meaning’ sister?’
→
Vai tu man ļautu satikties ar tavu māsu?
‘Would you let me meet **your** sister?’
/ *Vai tu man ļautu satikties ar manu māsu?*
‘Would you let me meet **my** sister?’

The possessive pronouns *mans*, *mana*, *tavs*, *tava*, *savs*, *sava* inflect like adjectives with an indefinite ending (i.e., as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine, see Section 2.11, Table 2.3).

In Latvian, in order to indicate possession by someone corresponding to 3rd person singular and plural or 1st and 2nd person plural, one has to use the appropriate personal pronouns in the genitive: *viņa* ‘his’, *viņas* ‘her’, *viņu* ‘their’ (one form for both genders), *mūsu* ‘our’, *jūsu* ‘your (PL)’:

- (2.4.35) a. *Kopā ar muižnieku pie viņa*
together with landlord.INS.M by **he.GEN**
kamīna tumšajos vakaros
fireplace.GEN.M dark.LOC.PL.M evening.LOC.PL.M
tika izdzerta ne viena vien
get.AUX.PST.3 drink.PTCP.NOM.SG.F not one.NOM.F only
glāzīte.
glass.NOM.F
‘Many a glass was drained together with the landlord by his fireplace during the dark winter evenings.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- b. *Pirmo reizi es redzu viņas [sievietes]*
first.ACC.F time.ACC.F I.NOM see.PRS.1SG **she.GEN** [woman]
acis.
eye.ACC.PL.F
‘For the first time I see her [the woman’s] eyes.’ (I. Gaile)

- c. *Labklājības valsts bija viņu*
welfare.GEN.F state.NOM.F be.PST.3SG **they.GEN.M**
[iedzīvotāju] atalgojums.
[inhabitants'] reward.NOM.M
'A welfare state was their [the inhabitants'] reward.' (Ir)
- d. *Mūsu gadījumā vēsture neatkārtojas.*
we.GEN case.LOC.M history.NOM.F not_repeat.PRS.3
'In our case, history does not repeat itself.' (O. Zebris)
- e. *Jums ir tiesības aizrādīt jebkuram,*
kurš jūsu tuvumā smēķē.
who.NOM.M **you.GEN.PL** proximity.LOC.M smoke.PRS.3
'You have the right to reproach anyone who is smoking near you.'
(Latvijas Avīze)

As far as animacy is concerned, the pronouns *mans* (*mana*, *mani*, *manas*), *tavs* (*tava*, *tavi*, *tavas*) are always associated with an animate agent, namely, a human being (see examples (2.4.31) and (2.4.32)), as are the genitives of the personal pronouns used to indicate possession: *mūsu*, *jūsu*, *viņa* (*viņas*, *viņu*) (examples (2.4.35)). The pronoun *savs* (*sava*, *savi*, *savas*) relates to animate agents, i.e., human beings, if it is applied to 1st or 2nd person singular or plural (see examples (2.4.33a-b) and (2.4.33d-e)), otherwise, i.e., in the 3rd person, animacy depends on that of the antecedent, cf. (2.4.36a) with an animate agent and (2.4.36b) where the antecedent is an inanimate object:

- (2.4.36) a. *Viņš ar savu īpašumu rīkojas, kā grib.*
he.NOM with **own.INS.M** property.INS.M act.PRS.3 as want.PRS.3
'He does as he pleases with his property.' (C)
- b. *Valsts pārvalde savā darbībā*
state.GEN.F government.NOM.F **own.LOC.F** work.LOC.F
ievēro cilvēktiesības.
respect.PRS.3 human_rights.ACC.PL.F
'The authorities respect human rights in their work.' (C)

Latvian also has standalone possessive pronouns derived by means of the suffix *-ēj-*: *manējais* 'mine (M SG)' (*manējā* (F SG), *manējie* (M PL), *manējās* (F PL)), *tavējais* 'yours (SG) (M SG)' (*tavējā* (F SG), *tavējie* (M PL), *tavējās* (F PL)), *viņējais* 'theirs (M SG)' (*viņējā* (F SG), *viņējie* (M PL), *viņējās* (F PL)), *savējais* 'own, reflexive possessive meaning (M SG)' (*savējā* (F SG), *savējie* (M PL), *savējās* (F PL)), *mūsējais* 'ours (M SG)' (*mūsējā* (F SG), *mūsējie* (M PL), *mūsējās* (F PL)), *jūsējais* 'yours (PL) (M SG)' (*jūsējā* (F SG), *jūsējie* (M PL), *jūsējās* (F PL)). These pronouns follow the inflection patterns of definite adjectives and agree with the antecedent, i.e., the word they stand for:

- (2.4.37) a. *Šis sporta veids*
this.NOM.M sport.GEN.M manner.NOM.M
nav manējais.
not_be.COP.PRS.SG3 **mine.NOM.M**
'This sport is not for me.' (www.delfi.lv)

- b. *Tev patīk [kāds mākslas darbs] – paņem*
 you.DAT.SG like.PRS.2SG [some art work] – take.IMP.PRS.2SG
[un nopērc], tas [ir] tavējais!
 [and buy] it.NOM.M [is] yours.NOM.SG.M
 ‘If you like [a work of art] – take it [and buy it], it [is] yours!’ (Diena)
- c. *Sporta žurnālisti teiks, ka Miķelis*
 sport.GEN.M journalist.NOM.PL.M say.FUT.3PL that Miķelis.NOM.M
ir viņējais.
 be.COP.PRS.2 theirs.NOM.M
 ‘Sports journalists will say that Miķelis is one of them.’ (www.lsm.lv)
- d. *Nepiederu nevienam stilam, man ir*
 not_belong.PRS.1SG none.DAT.M style.DAT.M I.DAT be.COP.PRS.3
savējais.
 own.NOM.M
 ‘I don’t belong to any style, I have my own.’ (www.draugiem.lv)
- e. *Atceros daudzu lielo izbrīnu –*
 remember.PRS.SG1 many.GEN.PL.M large.ACC.M surprise.ACC.M
bokseris no Latvijas? Tas taču
 boxer.NOM.M from Latvia.GEN.F he.NOM however
[ir] mūsējais!
 be ours.NOM.M
 ‘I remember how surprised many were – a boxer from Latvia? But he is one of ours!’ (Kas Jauns)
- f. *Dviņu māmiņas piedzīvojumi ar ratiem.*
Kādi ir jūsējie?
 what_kind.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 yours.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The pram adventures of a mother of twins. What are yours?’
 (www.maminuklubs.lv)

In colloquial speech and written texts that incorporate some of the elements of colloquial speech (such as online comments, blog postings, etc.) these derivatives are often used in the function of the possessive pronouns *mans (mana, mani, manas)*, *tavs (tava, tavi, tavas)*, *savs (sava, savs, savi, savas)*, and the personal pronouns *mūsu, jūsu, viņa, viņas, viņu*, i.e., as attributes showing grammatical agreement with the noun they modify or as substantivizations substituting for words like *vīrs* ‘husband’, *sieva* ‘wife’, *dzīvesbiedrs* ‘spouse (M)’, *dzīvesbiedre* ‘spouse (F)’, etc. This usage is considered non-standard.

- (2.4.38) a. *Lombardā saka,*
ka tas nav
 that this.NOM.M not_be.COP.PRS.3
manējais ritenis.
 mine.NOM.M bicycle.NOM.M
 ‘The pawnshop says that this is not my (‘mine’) bicycle.’ (www.lsm.lv)
 (Correct: *mans ritenis* ‘my bicycle’)

- b. *Tavējie bērni vakaros nekur*
yours.NOM.PL.M child.NOM.PL.M evening.LOC.PL.M nowhere
neiet?
 not_go.PRS.3
 ‘Don’t your (‘yours’) kids go anywhere in the evenings?’ (www.tvnet.lv)
 (Correct: *tavi bērni* ‘your kids’)
- c. *Viņš pateica savējo vārdu.*
 he.NOM say.PST.3 **own.ACC.M** word.ACC.M
 ‘He has said his (reflexive possessive meaning; ‘of his’) word.’ (C)
 (Correct: *savu vārdu* ‘his (reflexive possessive meaning) word’)
- d. *Viņš [deputāts] tagad gaida, lai*
tauta nostājas viņējā pusē.
 people.NOM.F stand.PRS.3 **theirs.LOC.F** side.LOC.F
 ‘Now he [the MP] expects that the people will be on his (‘of his’) side.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
 (Correct: *viņa pusē* ‘his side’)
- (2.4.39) a. *Manējais labi gatavo, nav slinks.*
mine.NOM.M well prepare.PRS.3 not_be.COP.PRS.3 lazy.NOM.M
 ‘Mine cooks well, isn’t lazy.’ (www.cosmo.lv)
 (Correct: *mans vīrs* ‘my husband’ / *dzīvesbiedrs* ‘my spouse’)
- b. *Kad tavējā ir augstprātīga.*
 when **yours.NOM.F** be.COP.PRS.3 haughty.NOM.F
 ‘When yours begins to put on airs.’ (www.delfi.lv)
 (Correct: *tava sieva* ‘your wife’ / *dzīvesbiedre* ‘your spouse’)

The word class membership of these derivatives is still a matter of some controversy in Latvian grammar and they have been classified both as pronouns (Praulīņš 2012: 55–56; Vulāne 2013: 276) and adjectives (for more details and a discussion of the descriptive history and problems see Paegle 2003: 80–81). On the one hand, their semantics and functions correspond to those of possessive pronouns, which is confirmed by the fact that they are used in similar ways. On the other hand, the derivative type that they exhibit seems to fit in with the adjectival word formation system. In addition, the definite / indefinite ending opposition, although it is weaker in contemporary Latvian than it once was and rarely manifests itself in language use, is also, in principle, possible for these derivatives:

- (2.4.40) *manējs* ‘mine (INDF)’ – *manējais* (DEF)
tavējs ‘yours (SG) (INDF)’ – *tavējais* (DEF)
savējs ‘own, reflexive possessive meaning (INDF)’ – *savējais* (DEF)
viņējs ‘theirs (INDF)’ – *viņējais* (DEF)
mūsējs ‘ours (INDF)’ – *mūsējais* (DEF)
jūsējs ‘yours (PL) (INDF)’ – *jūsējais* (DEF)

Admittedly though, there is no difference in meaning between the members of the opposition in contemporary Latvian and, on the whole, the definite ending prevails. The use of indefinite endings has become stylistically marked and is strongly associated with colloquial speech:

- (2.4.41) a. **Manējs** [dēls] tik basīti dzenā.
mine.NOM.M [son] just basketball.DIM.ACC.M play.PRS.3
 ‘Mine [son] just keeps on playing basketball.’ (www.musturs.lv)
- b. **Tavējs** [vīrs] vēl slēpo?
yours.NOM.M [husband] still ski.PRS.3
 ‘Does yours [husband] still ski?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- c. *Es domāju, ka visai drīz viņēji*
 I.NOM. think.PRS.1SG that very soon **theirs.NOM.PL.M**
aizmirsīs par pussalu.
 forgot.FUT.3 about peninsula.ACC.F
 ‘I think that very soon they (‘theirs’) will forget about the peninsula.’
 (Diena)

2.4.4 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns point to specific living beings, objects, and features that are recognizable within a given speech situation or to information mentioned elsewhere in the text (Skujiņa 2007: 258).

As has already been mentioned in the introductory remarks of this chapter, Latvian demonstrative pronouns have two functions:

- 1) an exophoric function, i.e., pointing to that which is nearby or farther away in space or time;
- 2) an endophoric function, i.e., pointing to antecedent (anaphora) or postcedent (cataphora) information within the same text; as a result of the increased availability of information and also due to written communication being nowadays widely used in all kinds of situations, the endophoric function of demonstrative pronouns is dominant in contemporary language.

The pronouns *šis* ‘this (M)’, *ši* (F), *šie* ‘these (M)’, *šīs* (F), *šāds* ‘such, this kind (M SG)’, *šāda* (F SG), *šādi* (M PL), *šādas* (F PL) point to spatially or temporally close objects or features (2.4.42), the pronouns *tas* ‘that, it (M)’, *tā* (F), *tie* ‘those, they (M)’, *tās* (F), *tāds* ‘such, that kind (M SG)’, *tāda* (F SG), *tādi* (M PL), *tādas* (F PL) point to objects that are farther away (2.4.43), while the pronouns *viņš* ‘that (M SG)’, *viņa* (F SG), *viņi* (M PL), *viņas* (F PL) point to very distant objects and features (2.4.44):

- (2.4.42) a. **Šai** *stāvā* **šīs** *bija*
this.LOC.M floor.LOC.M **this.NOM.M** be.COP.PST.3
vienīgais apdzīvotais dzīvoklis.
 only.NOM.M inhabit.PTCP.NOM.M apartment.NOM.M
 ‘This was the only inhabited apartment on this floor.’ (J. Jonevs)

- b. *Pūces nebija vienīgie šajā*
 owl.NOM.PL.F not_be.COP.PST.3 only.NOM.PL.M **this.LOC.F**
naktī dzirdamie putni.
 night.LOC.F hear.PTCP.NOM.PL.M bird.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Owls weren’t the only birds that could be heard during this night.’ (C)
- c. *Šādas viesu telpas*
this_kind.NOM.PL.F guest.GEN.PL.M premises.NOM.PL.F
patiks arī ciemiņiem!
 like.FUT.3 too visitor.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Visitors will find guest premises like these agreeable, too.’ (Ievas Māja)
- d. *Šādās dienās, kad ārā ir tik*
this_kind.LOC.PL.F day.LOC.PL.F when outside be.COP.PRS.3 so
auksts, jāsāk domāt par ziemu.
 cold.NOM.M DEB.start think.INF about winter.ACC.F
 ‘On days like these when it is so cold outside one has to start thinking of winter’ (www.draugiem.lv)

- (2.4.43) a. *Man [dārzā] patik skatīties un atcerēties,*
ka šis koks ir no brāļa,
 that this.NOM.M tree.NOM.M be.PRS.3 from brother.GEN.M
bet tas – no draudzenes Siguldā.
 but **that.NOM.M** from friend.GEN.F Sigulda.LOC.F
 ‘[In the garden] I enjoy looking and remembering that this tree is from my brother, but that one – from my friend (F) in Sigulda.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- b. *Tā gada janvārī sniegs bija*
that.GEN.M year.GEN.M January.LOC.M snow.NOM.M be.PST.3
tikai mēneša sākumā.
 only month.GEN.M beginning.LOC.M
 ‘In January of that year, there was snow only at the beginning of the month.’ (C)
- c. *[privāta meža] Teritorijai jābūt norobežotai, ja nav,*
tad tādā mežā neviens
 then **that_kind.LOC.M** forest.LOC.M nobody.NOM.M
nedrīkst aizliegt būt.
 not_be_allowed.PRS.3 prohibit.INF be.INF
 ‘The territory [of a private forest] must be fenced in, if it isn’t, no one may prohibit anyone from being in such a forest.’ (www.draugiem.lv)
- d. *Gatavošanās kāzām –*
nāk skumjas par tādu
 come.PRS.3 sadness.NOM.PL.F about **that_kind.ACC.M**
laiku.
 time.ACC.M
 ‘Preparing for a wedding – this kind of weather makes one feel sad.’
 (www.delfi.lv)

- (2.4.44) a. *Pļavas* **viņā** *stūrī,*
 meadow.GEN.F **yonder.LOC.M** corner.LOC.M
lielu egļu ieskaudas, vidēja mājas.
 ‘In the farthest part of the meadow, surrounded by large fir trees,
 the house loomed ahead.’ (C)
- b. **Viņu** *dienu* *Delila* *pēkšņi* *atkal*
yonder.ACC.F day.ACC.F Delilah.NOM.F suddenly again
atradās sporta nama zālē.
 be_located.PST.3 sports.GEN.M building.GEN.M hall.LOC.F
 ‘That day Delilah suddenly found herself in the hall of the sports center
 again.’ (C)
- c. **Viņā** *dienā* *kreisi* *mērenais*
yonder.LOC.F day.LOC.F left moderate.NOM.M
politiķis ieradās ostā,
 politician.NOM.M arrive.PST.3 port.LOC.F
lai papriecātos par pavasara saulīti.
 ‘That day the moderately leftist politician arrived at the port to enjoy
 the spring sun.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In modern Latvian, the demonstrative pronouns *viņš*, *viņa*, *viņi*, *viņas* are perceived as stylistically marked. They are mostly found in works of literature, somewhat less frequently in mass media texts (see, e.g., a fragment of a feuilleton (2.4.44c)) and never in business or scientific writing. Therefore, it is safe to say that the tripartite opposition *close* – *farther away* – *very distant* shows a tendency towards turning into the bipartite opposition *close* – *distant* where the contrast is expressed by the pronouns *šis* (*ši, šie, šās*), *šāds* (*šāda, šādi, šādas*), on the one hand, and the pronouns *tas* (*tā, tie, tās*), *tāds* (*tāda, tādi, tādas*), on the other hand.

The pronouns *tas*, *tā*, *tie*, *tās* are used to express general statements and make concretizing references:

- (2.4.45) Gints. *Man bija jūrnieka dzīvesveids. Atbraucu mājās un tad atkal mēnesi prom [darbā].*

‘Gints. I lived the life of a sailor. I would come home and then go away again for a month [at work].’

Agnese. **Tas** *bija* *grūti.*

Agnese. **that.NOM.M** be.COP.PST.3 hard

Bērni slimoja. Vīrs vienmēr prom.

‘Agnese. That was hard. The children were often ill. My husband was always away.’ (Ievas Stāsti)

- (2.4.46) *Uz galda bija kāda zēna fotogrāfija.*

Tas *bija* *Kārlis,*

that.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 Kārlis.NOM.M

tikai daudz jaunāks.

‘There was a photograph of a boy on the table. That was Kārlis, just much younger.’ (I. Gaile)

The pronouns *šis, šī, šie, šās, tas, tā, tie, tās* (also *šāds, šāda, šādi, šādas, tāds, tāda, tādi, tādas*) are usually used to refer to antecedent or postcedent information in the same text, i.e., anaphorically (2.4.47) or cataphorically (2.4.48):

- (2.4.47) a. *Ar latviešu simfoniskās mūzikas atskaņošanu varam parādīt, kas mēs esam.*
Šajā mūzikā ir gan latviskais, gan
this.LOC.F music.LOC.F be.PRS.3 CONJ Latvian.NOM.M CONJ
pasaulīgais.
 universal.NOM.M
 ‘By performing Latvian symphonic music we can show who we are. This music embodies that which is Latvian and also universal.’ (Jaunā Gaita)
- b. *Daudzās valstīs mums ir problēmas,*
bet mēs tās pārvaram
 but we.NOM **they.ACC.F** overcome.PRS.1PL
un noskaidrojam faktus.
 and establish.PRS.1PL fact.ACC.PL.M
 ‘We have problems in many countries but we overcome them and establish [what are] the facts.’ (Ir)
- c. *Nacionālā Botāniskā dārza oranžērijā uzplaukuši agaves ziedi.*
Šāds notikums pie mums gadās reti.
this_kind.NOM.M event.NOM.M by we.DAT happen.PRS.3 rarely
 ‘In the greenhouse of the National Botanical Garden, the agave is in bloom. Such an event is rare around here.’ (C)
- d. *Visām senajām ēkām bija niedru jumti,*
un tādi tie ir arī tagad.
 and **that_kind.NOM.PL.M** they.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 also now
 ‘All ancient buildings had reed roofs and they are still like that today.’
 (Ievas Māja)
- (2.4.48) a. *Šī summa – aptuveni 300 000 EUR –*
this.NOM.F sum.NOM.F approximately 300 000 EUR
paredzēta Rīgas cirka parādsaistību segšanai.
 ‘These funds – approximately 300 000 EUR – are reserved for covering the outstanding debts of the Rīga Circus.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- b. *Tas bija gandrīz komiski,*
it.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 almost comical
kā viņš turējās pie savas vecās somas.
 ‘It was almost comical how he was clinging to that old bag of his.’
 (N. Ikstena)
- c. *Pagaidām dzīve iekārtojusies šāda –*
 for_now life.NOM.F settle_in.PTCP.NOM.F **this_kind.NOM.F**
divreiz gadā gatavoju aksesuāru [rotaslietu] kolekciju.
 ‘For the time being, life has settled down like this – twice a year I develop a collection of accessories [jewelry].’ (www.delfi.lv)

- d. *Te apkārtņē nav nekā tāda,*
 here surroundings.LOC.F not_be.PRS.3 nothing.GEN **that_kind.GEN.M**
kas liecinātu, ka viņa ir tūkstošiem kilometru prom no mājām.
 ‘There is nothing around here to indicate that she is thousands of
 kilometers away from home.’ (N. Ikstena)

Another noteworthy phenomenon regarding Latvian demonstrative pronouns is the neutralization of the endophoric function, which manifests itself in a number of ways (each being non-standard, although very widespread in colloquial speech):

- 1) the pronouns *tas, tā, tie, tās*, less frequently also *šis, šī, šie, šīs* functioning as definite articles and used to highlight pieces of information considered important – usually in colloquial speech and published or broadcast interviews; in written language such usage is superfluous and demonstrative pronouns can be omitted without affecting meaning;
- (2.4.49) a. *Tā pagale ar to lielo*
that.NOM.F log.NOM.F with **that.INS.M** large.INS.M
zaru [krāsni] nelidīs.
 branch.INS.M [into the stove] fit_in.FUT.3
 ‘That log with that big branch will not fit [into the stove].’ (C)
- b. *Daudzi brīnījās, kāpēc man joprojām nav ģimenes, kāpēc es dzīvoju viena.*
Bet tad atnāca Jānis...
un tad sākās šī ģimenes dzīve,
 and then begin.PST.3 **this.NOM.F** family.GEN.F life.NOM.F
šī īstā dzīve.
this.NOM.F real.NOM.F life.NOM.F
 ‘Many were wondering why I still didn’t have a family, why I lived alone. But then Jānis came along... And then this family life began, this real life.’ (NRA)
- 2) the pronouns *tas, tā, tie, tās* in front of the comparative form of adjectives used to express the superlative degree;
- (2.4.50) a. *Vasara ir tas skaistākais*
 summer.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 **that.NOM.M** beautiful.CMP.NOM.M
 (= **visskaistākais**) *kāzu laiks.*
 (= **most beautiful**) wedding.GEN.PL.F time.NOM.M
 ‘Summer is the most beautiful season for a wedding.’ (C)
- b. *Vecie cilvēki vienmēr tie*
 old.NOM.PL.M person.NOM.PL.M always **that.NOM.PL.M**
gudrākie (= **visgudrākie**).
clever.SPL.CMP.PL.M (= **most clever**)
 ‘Old people are always the cleverest ones.’ (www.draugiem.lv)
- 3) the pronouns *šis, šī, šie, šīs* functioning as the personal pronouns *viņš, viņa, viņi, viņas*; this kind of usage usually occurs in Internet comments where

readers of news sites actively discuss the actions and attitudes of particular individuals, announcements of political parties, etc.; this usage, which is stylistically marked in contemporary Latvian as it accentuates the negative stance taken by the author, was once stylistically neutral (for more details see Ahero et al. 1959: 517; Barbare 2002: 353; Kalnača 2011b).

- (2.4.51) a. *Ar ko šīs (= viņš)*
 with what.INS **this.NOM.M (= he)**
sliktāks par bijušo mēru?
 bad.CMP.NOM.M than previous.ACC.M mayor.ACC.M
Tak jau cienijams un turīgs vīrs.
 ‘How is this one (= he) worse than the previous mayor? Surely, [he’s] a respected and wealthy man.’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Ko tādu šī (= viņa) izdarija?*
 what.ACC that_kind.ACC.M **this.NOM.F (= she)** accomplish.PST.3
 ‘What exactly has this one (= she) accomplished?’ (www.tvnet.lv)

The demonstrative pronouns *šis*, *ši*, *tas*, *tā* have the following declension paradigms:

	M				F			
	SG		PL		SG		PL	
NOM	<i>šis</i>	<i>tas</i>	<i>šie</i>	<i>tie</i>	<i>ši</i>	<i>tā</i>	<i>šīs</i>	<i>tās</i>
GEN	<i>šā // šī</i>	<i>tā</i>	<i>šo</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>šās // šīs</i>	<i>tās</i>	<i>šo</i>	<i>to</i>
DAT	<i>šim</i>	<i>tam</i>	<i>šiem</i>	<i>tiem</i>	<i>šai</i>	<i>tai</i>	<i>šīm</i>	<i>tām</i>
ACC	<i>šo</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>šos</i>	<i>tos</i>	<i>šo</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>šīs</i>	<i>tās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) šo</i>	<i>(ar) to</i>	<i>(ar) šiem</i>	<i>(ar) tiem</i>	<i>(ar) šo</i>	<i>(ar) to</i>	<i>(ar) šīm</i>	<i>(ar) tām</i>
LOC	<i>šajā // šai // šinī</i>	<i>tajā // tai // tanī</i>	<i>šajos // šais // šinīs</i>	<i>tajos // tais // tanīs</i>	<i>šajā // šai // šinī</i>	<i>tajā // tai // tanī</i>	<i>šajās // šais // šinīs</i>	<i>tajās // tais // tanīs</i>

Table 2.19 Declension of the demonstrative pronouns *šis*, *ši*, *tas*, *tā* (adapted from Kalnača 2013: 71); all parallel forms in the genitive and locative are standard

The pronouns *šāds*, *šāda*, *tāds*, *tāda*, *viņš*, *viņa* inflect like indefinite adjectives (i.e., as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine).

The combinations of demonstrative pronouns *šis tas* ‘this and that’ (also *šis un tas*), *šāds tāds* ‘some, certain, some kind’ (*šāda tāda* (F SG), *šādi tādi* (M PL), *šādas tādas* (F PL)), also *šāds un tāds* mirror the meaning of the indefinite pronouns *kaut kas* ‘something’, *kaut kāds* ‘some kind, someone, something’:

- (2.4.52) a. *Sakarā ar pārvākšanos šo to*
 relation.LOC.M with moving.INS.F **this.ACC that.ACC**
pārdodu.
 sell.PRS.1SG
 ‘Because we’re moving, I’m selling this and that.’ (www.cosmo.lv)

- b. *Pārdodu šādas tādas mazuļus*
 sell.PRS.1SG **this_kind.ACC.PL.F** **that_kind.ACC.PL.F** baby.GEN.PL.M
lietas.
 thing.ACC.PL.F
 ‘I’m selling some baby things.’ (www.delfi.lv)

The non-standard demonstrative pronouns *šitas* ‘this (M SG)’ (*šitā* (F SG), *šitie* (M PL), *šitās* (F PL)), also *šitais* (*šitā*, *šitie*, *šitās*), *šitāds* ‘such, this kind (M SG)’ (*šitāda* (F SG), *šitādi* (M PL), *šitādas* (F PL)), *šams* ‘this, this one (M SG)’ (*šama* (F SG), *šami* (M PL), *šamas* (F PL)), also *šamais* (*šamā*, *šamie*, *šamās*), *šamējais* (*šamējā*, *šamējie*, *šamējās*) etc., which are functionally identical to their standard language equivalents *šis* ‘this’, *šāds* ‘such, this kind’, mostly occur in colloquial speech, social network communities, less often also as a stylistic device in mass media or literary texts:

- (2.4.53) a. *Un kam šitas stress bija vajadzīgs?*
 and who.DAT **this.NOM.M** stress.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 needed.NOM.M
 ‘And who needed this stress?’ (www.maminuklubs.lv)
- b. *Viņš prata savaldīt šitādus zvērus.*
 he.NOM know.PST.3 tame.INF **this_kind.ACC.PL.M**
 beast.ACC.PL.M
 ‘He knew how to tame such beasts.’ (C)
- c. *Ko oriģinālu lai uzdāvinu šamajam?*
 what.ACC original.ACC.M PTCL gift.PRS.1SG **this_one.DAT.M**
 ‘What original gift should I give to this one?’ (CW)
- d. *Šamējā kaķene meklē mājas.*
this.NOM.F she-cat.NOM.F search.PRS.3 home.ACC.PL.F
 ‘This she-cat is looking for a home.’ (www.draugiem.lv)

2.4.5 Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used to introduce interrogative sentences (Skujiņa 2007: 175):

- (2.4.54) **kas** ‘who, what’

- a. *Kas tas par troksni?*
what.NOM that.NOM.M for noise.ACC.M
 ‘What’s that noise?’ (C)
- b. *Kam tas vajadzīgs?*
who.DAT that.NOM.M needed.NOM.M
 ‘Who needs that?’/ ‘What’s that for?’ (Ir)

- (2.4.55) **kurš**, ‘who, which (M SG)’, **kura** (F SG), **kuri** (M PL), **kuras** (F PL)

- a. *Kurš apgalvojums ir pareizs?*
which.NOM.M statement.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 correct.NOM.M
 ‘Which statement is correct?’ (C)

- b. **Kuros** [pārtikas] produktos ir
which.LOC.PL.M [food] product.LOC.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3
 visvairāk dzelzs?
 most iron.GEN.F
 ‘Which foods contain the most iron?’ (Ir)

(2.4.56) **kāds** ‘what, what kind’ (M SG), **kāda** (F SG), **kādi** (M PL), **kādas** (F PL)

- a. **Kāda** nozīme ir orhidejas
what_kind.NOM.F meaning.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 orchid.GEN.F
 krāsai?
 color.DAT.F
 ‘What meaning does an orchid’s color have?’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- b. **Kādus** darbus mākat darīt?
what_kind.ACC.PL.M work.ACC.PL.M know.PRS.2PL do.INF
 ‘What kind of work can you do?’ (C)

Questions concerning the identity of the agent, i.e., the doer, or a previously unknown fact are introduced by means of the pronoun *kas*:

- (2.4.57) a. **Kas** jūs esat?
who.NOM you.NOM.PL be.COP.PRS.2PL
 ‘Who are you?’ (J. Joņevs)
- b. **Ko** tas nozīmē?
what.ACC it.NOM.M mean.PRS.3
 ‘What does it mean?’ (C)
- c. **Kam** jāuzņemas atbildība?
who.DAT DEB.take_on responsibility.NOM.F
 ‘Who should take responsibility?’ (C)

In order to ask for information specifying a living being or an object from a known set of possible answers, the pronouns *kurš*, *kura*, *kuri*, *kuras* are used:

- (2.4.58) a. **Kura** māsa izaugusi skaistāka?
which.NOM.F sister.NOM.F grow_up.PTCP.NOM.F beautiful.CMP.NOM.F
 ‘Which sister grew up to be more beautiful?’ (Dienas Bizness)
- b. **Kurā** klasē tu mācies?
which.LOC.F grade.LOC.F you.NOM.SG study.PRS.2SG
 ‘What grade are you in?’ (C)
- c. **Kuri** ir īpaši vērtīgie
which.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 particularly valuable.NOM.PL.M
 meži?
 forest.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Which forests are particularly valuable?’ (C)

The pronouns *kāds*, *kāda*, *kādi*, *kādas* are used to ask about a feature or a property:

- (2.4.59) a. **Kādai** jābūt labai skolotājai?
what_kind.DAT.F DEB.be.COP good.DAT.F teacher.DAT.F
 ‘What must a good teacher (F) be like?’ (Lauku Avīze)

- b. *Kāds jums bijis šis*
what_kind.NOM.M you.DAT.PL be.COP.PTCP.NOM.M this.NOM.M
gads?
 year.NOM.M
 ‘What was this year like for you?’ (C)
- c. *Kādas redzi tuvākās*
what_kind.NOM.PL.F see.PRS.2SG close.ACC.PL.F
sezonas teātrī?
 season.ACC.PL.F theater.LOC.M
 ‘How do you see the next few seasons at the theater?’ (Ir)

It is not recommended to use the pronouns *kāds* (*kāda*, *kādi*, *kādas*) ‘what, what kind’ in the sense of the pronouns *kurš* (*kura*, *kuri*, *kuras*) ‘who, which’, e.g.:

- (2.4.60) *Kāda (= kura) tēja ir visveselīgākā –*
what.NOM.F (= which) tea.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 SPL.healthy.NOM.F
melnā, zaļā vai baltā?
 black.NOM.F green.NOM.F or white.NOM.F
 ‘What (= which) tea is the healthiest – black, green, or white?’ (CW)

The pronoun *kas* ‘who, what’ has the following declension paradigm:

NOM	<i>kas</i>
GEN	<i>kā</i>
DAT	<i>kam</i>
ACC	<i>ko</i>
INS	(<i>ar</i>) <i>ko</i>
LOC	–

Table 2.20 Declension of the pronoun *kas* (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 72)

The pronouns *kurš*, *kura*, *kuri*, *kuras*, *kāds*, *kāda*, *kādi*, *kādas* inflect like indefinite adjectives (i.e., as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine).

2.4.6 Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to introduce subordinate clauses and define relations between the clauses of a complex sentence (Skujiņa 2007: 56):

- (2.4.61) *kas* ‘who, what, which, that’
- a. *Viļņi sitas gar akmens molu,*
kas aizved līdz mazai bākai.
which.NOM lead.PRS.3 to small.DAT.F lighthouse.DAT.F
 ‘Waves crash against the stone pier, which leads to a small white lighthouse.’ (N. Ikstena)

- b. *Es nezinu,*
kam *tas* [*divritenis*] *pieder.*
who.DAT that.NOM.M [bicycle] belong.PRS.3
 ‘I don’t know to whom this [bicycle] belongs.’ (C)

(2.4.62) **kurš** ‘who, which, that (M SG)’, **kura** (F SG), **kuri** (M PL), **kuras** (F PL)

- a. *Kad biju mazs, nekādi nevarēju atcerēties,*
kura *no* *upēm* *ir* *Driksa*
which.NOM.F from river.GEN.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 Driksa.NOM.F
un kura *Lielupe.*
 and **which.NOM.F** Lielupe.NOM.F
 ‘When I was little I never could remember which river was Driksa and which one was Lielupe.’ (J. Joņevs)

- b. *Tas ir standarts,*
kuru *izmantojam*
which.ACC.M use.PRS.1PL
visos *savos* *projektos.*
 all.LOC.PL.M own.LOC.PL.M project.LOC.PL.M
 ‘This is the standard used in all our projects.’ (C)

(2.4.63) **kāds** ‘which, what kind (M SG)’, **kāda** (F SG), **kādi** (M PL), **kādas** (F PL)

- a. *Skolēni zina,*
kādi *drošības* *noteikumi* *jāievēro.*
what_kind.NOM.PL.M safety.GEN.F rule.NOM.PL.M DEB.observe
 ‘The pupils know which safety rules must be observed.’ (C)

- b. *Ministru kabinets nosaka kārtību,*
kādā *piešķiramas* *valsts*
which.LOC.F assign.PTCP.NOM.PL.F state.GEN.F
mērķdotācijās.
 earmarked_subsidy.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The Cabinet establishes the procedure for assigning state earmarked subsidies.’ (C)

When due to its broad applicability the pronoun *kas* can give rise to ambiguity, it is best to use the pronoun *kurš* instead, e.g.:

(2.4.64) *Dārzā auga upenāji un ābeles,*

- kas** (= **kuras**) *pašlaik* *krāšņi* *ziedēja.*
which.NOM (**which**) now gorgeously bloom.PST.3
 ‘The garden contained blackcurrants and apple trees, which were blooming gorgeously at the time.’

Here, the pronoun *kas*, which introduces a subordinate clause, refers to both blackcurrants and apple trees, only the latter, however, bloom gorgeously, therefore the pronoun *kuras* (F PL), which refers specifically to the word *ābeles* ‘apple trees (F PL)’, is preferable in this case.

Likewise, when it is required that a relative pronoun introducing a subordinate clause be in the locative (2.4.65a) or the genitive case (2.4.65b) or when there is

a need to combine it with a preposition, (2.4.65c-d) the pronouns *kurš*, *kura*, *kuri*, *kuras* are used rather than *kas* (Paegle 2003: 84):

- (2.4.65) a. *Latvijā ir dārzs,*
kurā *vīnogas*
which.LOC.M *grape.NOM.PL.F*
lieliski sadzīvo ar dzērvenēm.
 splendidly coexist.PRS.3 with cranberry.INS.PL.F
 ‘There is a garden in Latvia where grapes and cranberries coexist splendidly.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- b. *Lētākas kļuvušas dažas preces,*
kuru *īpatsvars ir neievērojams.*
which.GEN.PL.F *share.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 not_notice.PTCP.NOM.M*
 ‘A few goods whose share is insignificant have become cheaper.’ (C)
- c. *Bruņurupucim nav zobu, bet ir knābis,*
ar kuru *smalcina barību.*
with which.INS.M *cut.PRS.3 food.ACC.F*
 ‘Tortoises don’t have teeth but a beak with which they cut their food.’ (C)
- d. *Tie ir tie apsvērumi,*
kuru dēļ *es balsošu “pret”.*
which.GEN.PL.M **because_of** *I.NOM vote.FUT.1SG against*
 ‘These are the considerations that are behind my decision to vote “against”.’ (C)

For the declension patterns of relative pronouns see the section on interrogative pronouns.

2.4.7 Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are used to refer to unknown or unspecified living beings, objects, and features (Skujiņa 2007: 252):

- (2.4.66) ***kas*** ‘something, somebody’
Bet tagad klausies ko jautru.
 but now listen.IMP.2SG **something.ACC** funny.ACC
 ‘And now listen to something funny.’ (N. Ikstena)
- (2.4.67) ***kurš*** ‘who, which, whoever, whichever (M SG)’, ***kura*** (F SG), ***kuri*** (M PL), ***kuras*** (F PL)
Dalībnieku skaits ir neierobežots:
kurš *piesakās, tas piedalās*
who.NOM.M *apply.PRS.3 that.NOM.M participate.PRS.3*
sacensībās.
 competition.LOC.PL.F
 ‘The number of participants is not limited: whoever applies gets to participate in the competition.’ (C)

- (2.4.68) *kāds* ‘some, some kind, someone (M, SG)’, *kāda* (F SG), *kādi* (M PL), *kādas* (F PL)
Var *viņam* *iedot* *kādas*
 be_able.PRS.3 he.DAT give.INF some_kind.ACC.PL.F
nomierinošas zāles.
 calm.PTCP.ACC.PL.F drug.ACC.PL.F
 ‘He can also be given some sort of sedative.’ (C)
- (2.4.69) *dažs* ‘some (M SG)’, *daža* (F SG), *daži* (M PL), *dažas* (F PL)
Dažiem *vairs* *nebija* *miera.*
 some.DAT.PL.M anymore not_be.COP.PST.3 peace.GEN.M
 ‘Some could not find peace anymore.’ (J. Joņevs)
- (2.4.70) *cits* ‘other, someone else (M SG)’, *cita* (F SG), *citi* (M PL), *citas* (F PL)
Mana *istaba* *izīrēta* *citam.*
 my.NOM.F room.NOM.F rent.PTCP.NOM.F other.DAT.M
 ‘My room has been rented to someone else.’ (C)
- (2.4.71) *kaut kas* ‘something’
Kaut kas *bija* *jāsaka.*
 something.NOM be.AUX.PST.3 DEB.say
 ‘Something had to be said.’ (J. Joņevs)
- (2.4.72) *kaut kāds* ‘some, some kind (M SG)’, *kaut kāda* (F SG), *kaut kādi* (M PL), *kaut kādas* (F PL)
Ir *jābūt* *kaut kādai* *iespējai.*
 be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.be some_kind.DAT.F possibility.DAT.F
 ‘There must be some kind of possibility.’ (C)
- (2.4.73) *kaut kurš* ‘some, somebody (M SG)’, *kaut kura* (F SG), *kaut kuri* (M PL), *kaut kuras* (F PL)
Kaut kuras *darbdienas* *naktī* *[televīzijā]*
 some.GEN.F weekday.GEN.F night.LOC.F [television]
gāja *tāds* *seriāls.*
 go.PST.3 that_kind.NOM.M serial.NOM.M
 ‘There was such a TV series [on television] on some weekday night.’ (CW)
- (2.4.74) *dažs labs* ‘some, someone, a certain one (M SG)’, *daža laba* (F SG)
Dažam labam *nācās* *gaidīt* *ilgu* *laiku.*
 some.DAT.M be_obliged.PST.3 wait.INF long.ACC.M time.ACC.M
 ‘Some had to wait for a long time.’ (C)
- (2.4.75) *viens otrs* ‘someone, an occasional one (M SG)’, *viena otra* (F SG)
Viens otrs *varbūt* *neatminas*
 someone.NOM.M maybe not_remember.PRS.3
tādu *aktieri.*
 that_kind.ACC.M actor.ACC.M
 ‘Probably there are some who don’t remember such an actor.’ (C)

The pronouns **diez(in)**, **nez(in)** and **sazin** when combined with **kas**, **kurš**, **kāds** reinforce the meaning of indefiniteness, adding different shades of meaning depending on the context:

(2.4.76) **diez(in) kas**

Tev vajadzētu ķerties pie īsta darba,
 you.DAT.SG need.COND tackle at real.GEN.M job.GEN.M
lai tu nedomātu diezīn ko!
 SUB you.NOM.SG not_think.COND **God_knows_what.ACC**
 ‘You should take on a real job so that you don’t think goodness knows what! (C)

(2.4.77) **diez(in) kurš** (M SG), **diez(in) kura** (F SG), **diez(in) kuri** (M PL),
diez(in) kuras (F PL)

Diezin kurš būs hokeja komandas
God_knows_who.NOM.M be.COP.FUT.3 hockey.GEN.M team.GEN.F
vārtsargs?
 goalkeeper.NOM.M
 ‘Who will be the goalkeeper of the hockey team, I wonder?’
 (www.sportacentrs.com)

(2.4.78) **diez(in) kāds** (M SG), **diez(in) kāda** (F SG), **diez(in) kādi** (M PL),
diez(in) kādas (F PL)

Mūslaikos tu nevari izvēlēties
 nowadays.LOC.PL.M you.NOM.SG not_be_able.PRS.2SG choose.INF
diezin kādu dzīvokli ..
God_knows_what_kind.ACC.M apartment.ACC.M
 ‘Nowadays you can’t expect to get a decent apartment ..’ (C)

(2.4.79) **nez(in) kas**

Acis veras spoguļī,
it kā nezīn ko tur ieraudzījušas
 as_if **not_know_what.ACC** there perceive.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Eyes looking into the mirror as if they are seeing who knows what in there.’ (C)

(2.4.80) **nez(in) kurš**, **nez(in) kura**, **nez(in) kuri**, **nez(in) kuras**

Viņa nezīn kurā paaudzē esot
 she.NOM **not_know_which.LOC.F** generation.LOC.F be.AUX.OBL
cēlusies no vecticībniekiem.
 descend.PTCP.NOM.F from Old_Believers.DAT.PL.M
 ‘She is descended from Old Believers in I don’t know which generation.’ (C)

(2.4.81) **nez(in) kāds**, **nez(in) kāda**, **nez(in) kādi**, **nez(in) kādas**

Negribu, lai mani uztver kā
 not_want.PRS.1SG SUB I.ACC perceive.INF as
nez kādu mākslinieci ..
some_kind.ACC.F artist.ACC.F
 ‘I don’t want to be perceived as some kind of [great] artist ..’ (C)

(2.4.82) **sazin kas**

Tas [lakats] no mammas.

Un pirms viņas vēl sazin kam
and before she.GEN additionally who_knows_who.DAT.M
piederējis.
belong.PTCP.NOM.M.

‘This [neckerchief] is my mother’s. And before that it belonged to God knows whom else.’ (C)

(2.4.83) **sazin kurš, sazin kura, sazin kuri, sazin kuras**

Viņš rakstīja savam draugam [vēstuli]
he.NOM write.PST.3 own.DAT.M friend.DAT.M [letter]
sazin kurā pasaules malā.
who_knows_which.LOC.F world.GEN.F side.LOC.F

‘He was writing [a letter] to his friend in who knows which end of the world.’ (C)

(2.4.84) **sazin kāds, sazin kāda, sazin kādi, sazin kādas**

Tas krējums ir
that.NOM.M cream.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3
sazin kādas izcelsmes.
who_knows_what_kind.GEN.F origin.GEN.F
‘Who knows where that cream comes from.’ (C)

(2.4.85) **jebkas** ‘anything’

Un kamēr es mīlu,
varu piedot jebko.
be_able.PRS.1SG forgive.INF anything.ACC
‘And as long as I feel love, I can forgive anything.’ (C)

(2.4.86) **jebkurš** ‘any, anyone (M SG)’, **jebkura** (F SG), **jebkuri** (M PL), **jebkuras** (F PL)

Jebkuri panākumi ir kā
any.NOM.PL.M achievement.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 like
spārni.
wings.NOM.PL.M
‘Any achievements are like wings.’ (C)

(2.4.87) **jebkāds** ‘any, any kind (M SG)’, **jebkāda** (F SG), **jebkādi** (M PL), **jebkādas** (F PL)

Futbolistam piedāvāta jebkāda naudas
footballer.DAT.M offer.PTCP.NOM.F any.NOM.F money.GEN.F
summa pēc paša vēlēšanās.
amount.NOM.F after own.GEN.M discretion.GEN.F
‘The footballer was offered any amount of money he wanted.’ (C)

It is important to ensure the correct spelling of indefinite pronouns. Pronouns containing *kaut*, *diez(in)*, *nez(in)*, or *sazin* as their leftmost element are written separately (*kaut kas*, *kaut kāds*, *kaut kurš*, *dažs labs*, *viens otrs*, *diez(in) kas*, *diez(in) kurš*, *diez(in) kāds*, *nez(in) kas*, *nez(in) kurš*, *nez(in) kāds*, *sazin kas*, *sazin kurš*, *sazin kāds*), while those beginning with *jeb* are written as one word (*jebkas*, *jebkurš*, *jebkāds*).

Some of the meanings of the indefinite pronoun *kāds* ‘some, some kind, someone, any, whatever (M, SG)’, *kāda* (F SG) can also be expressed by means of the numeral *viens* ‘one (M SG)’, *viena* (F SG) (Paegle 2003: 86):

- (2.4.88) a. **Vienu (= kādu) dienu satiku Sandi**
one (= some).ACC.F day.ACC.F meet.PST.1SG Sandis.ACC.M
Vecrīgā.
 Old_Rīga.LOC.F
 ‘One (= some) day I met Sandis in Old Rīga.’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. **Vienā (= kādā) vecā mājā bija**
one (= some).LOC.F old.LOC.F house.LOC.F be.PST.3
tāds pats vannas istabas platums.
 same_kind.NOM.M bath.GEN.F room.GEN.F width.NOM.M
 ‘One (= some) old house had a bathroom of the same width.’
 (www.draugiem.lv)

The combinations of pronouns *viens otru* ‘each other (M ACC)’, *viena otru* (F ACC), *viens otram* (M DAT), *viena otrai* (F DAT), *viens otrā* (M LOC), *viena otrā* (F LOC), *cits citu* ‘one another (M NOM)’, *cita citu* (F NOM), *cits citam* (M DAT), *cita citai* (F DAT), *cits citā* (M LOC), *cita citā* (F LOC) express reciprocal meaning (Paegle 2003: 85–86):

- (2.4.89) a. **Suņi rēja un dzenāja**
 dog.NOM.PL.M bark.PST.3 and chase.PST.3
viens otru.
one.NOM.M other.ACC.M.
 ‘The dogs were barking and chasing each other.’ (C)
- b. **Bīdi mēs skatījāmies**
 moment.ACC.M we.NOM look.PST.1PL
viens otram acīs.
one.NOM.M other.DAT.M eyes.LOC.PL.F
 ‘For a moment, we were looking into each other’s eyes.’ (C)
- c. **Bīdi viņas lūkojas**
 moment.ACC.M they.NOM.PL.F look.PRS.3
viena otrā.
one.NOM.F other.LOC.F
 ‘For a moment, they were looking at each other (F).’ (C)
- (2.4.90) a. **Cilvēki cits citu atdarina.**
 person.NOM.PL.M other.NOM.M other.ACC.M imitate.PRS.3
 ‘People imitate one another.’ (C)

- b. *Instrumentu kļuva arvien vairāk,*
 [mūzikas] variācijas sekoja
 [of music] variations.NOM.PL.F follow.PST.3
cita citai.
other.NOM.F other.DAT.F
 ‘The number of instruments increased, [musical] variations followed one after another.’ (C)
- c. *Kā jau tādās reizēs,*
 visi saspringti skatījās
 everybody.NOM.PL.M anxiously look.PST.3
cits citā.
other.NOM.M other.LOC.M
 ‘As always happens in such cases, everybody was looking anxiously at one another.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

Indefinite pronouns are declined in the same way as adjectives with the indefinite ending (i.e., as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine), with the exception of the pronoun *kas* and word combinations and compounds ending in *kas*; the declension of the pronoun *kas* is described in the section on interrogative pronouns.

2.4.8 Definite pronouns

Definite pronouns are used to refer to known, identifiable living beings, objects, or generalized features (Skujiņa 2007: 262).

- (2.4.91) **abi** ‘both (M)’, **abas** (F)

Abas spēles sāksies sešos
both.NOM.PL.F game.NOM.PL.F begin.FUT.3 six.NOM.PL.M
vakarā.
 evening.LOC.M
 ‘Both games will begin at six p.m.’ (C)

- (2.4.92) **viss** ‘all, everything, everybody (M SG)’, **visa** (F SG), **visi** (M PL), **visas** (F PL)

Viss ir sajucis –
everything.NOM.M be.AUX.PRS.3 get_mixed_up.PTCP.NOM.M
dienas un nakts.
 day.NOM.PL.F and night.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Everything is mixed up – days and nights.’ (N. Ikstena)

- (2.4.93) **katrs** ‘every, each, everyone (M SG)’, **katra** (F SG), **katri** (M PL), **katras** (F PL)

Katrs tic, kam vēlas.
everyone.NOM.M believe.PRS.3 what.DAT want.PRS.3
 ‘Everyone believes what they want to believe.’ (C)

(2.4.94) *īkkatrs* ‘every, each, everyone, all (M SG)’, *īkkatra* (F SG)

īkkatrā *cilvēka* *šūnā* *ir* *ģēni*,
each.LOC.F human.GEN.M cell.LOC.F be.PRS.3 genes.NOM.PL.M
kas atbild par tās izdzīvošanu.

‘Each human cell contains genes responsible for its survival.’ (C)

(2.4.95) *īkviens* ‘every, each, everyone, all (M SG)’, *īkviena* (F SG)

īkvienas *studiju* *programmas* *īstenošanai*
every.GEN.F studies.GEN.PL.F program.GEN.F implementation.DAT.F
jāsaņem *licence.*
 DEB.receive license.NOM.F

‘The implementation of any program of studies requires a license.’ (C)

(2.4.96) *īkkurš* ‘every, everyone (M SG)’, *īkkura* (F SG)

Literatūra *ir* *dabiska* *īkkuras*
 literature.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 natural.NOM.F **every.GEN.F**
valodas *blakne.*
 language.GEN.F by_product.NOM.F

‘Literature is a natural by-product of any language.’ (C)

The definite pronouns *pats* ‘reflexive emphatic meaning (M SG)’, *pati* (F SG), *paši* (M PL), *pašas* (F PL) are used in Latvian with the so-called emphatic function – to stress the autonomy, detachedness of an agent (2.4.97) or significance of some fact (2.4.98):

(2.4.97) a. *Viņa bija mazliet īsāka par mani,*

kaut *es* *pati* *nemaz*
 although I.NOM **self.NOM.F** not_at_all
nebiju *no* *garākajām.*
 not_be.COP.PST.1SG from tall.DAT.PL.F

‘She was a bit shorter than me, although I myself wasn’t very tall either.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

b. *Kolēģis* *pats* *nevarēja* *piedalīties.*
 colleague.NOM.M **self.NOM.M** not_be_able.PST.3 participate.INF
 ‘The colleague could not personally participate.’ (C)

c. *Direktore* *stāsta* *par* *pašas*
 director.NOM.F talk.PRS.3 about **self.GEN.F**
rakstītajiem *projektiem.*
 write.PTCP.DAT.PL.M project.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The director is talking about projects she herself has written.’ (C)

(2.4.98) a. *Gar* *pašu* *ezeru* *malu* *aizlikumoja*
 along **EMPH.ACC.F** lake.GEN.M edge.ACC.F meander.PST.3
šaura *taka.*
 narrow.NOM.F path.NOM.F

‘A narrow path meandered along the very edge of the lake.’ (C)

- b. *Viņa iestājās rindas galā,*
kas bija jau pašās durvīs.
 which.NOM be.PST.3 already **EMPH.LOC.PL.F** door.LOC.PL.F
 ‘She stood at the end of the queue, which stretched to the door.’ (C)

The significance of a fact can also be emphasized by means of the demonstrative–definite pronoun combination *tas pats* ‘the very same, selfsame (M SG)’, *tā pati* (F SG), *tie paši* (M PL), *tās pašas* (F PL) (examples 2.4.99), also *tāds pats* ‘the same, same kind (M SG)’, *tāda pati* (F SG), *tādi paši* (M PL), *tādas pašas* (F PL) (examples 2.4.100):

- (2.4.99) a. *Tajā pašā acumirkļi viņi viens*
very_same.LOC.M instant.LOC.M they.NOM.PL.M one.NOM.M
otru pazina.
 other.ACC.M recognize.PST.3

‘At the very same instant they recognized each other’ (C)

- b. *Viņa tajā pašā dienā pārdeva*
 she.NOM **very_same.LOC.F** day.LOC.F sell.PST.3
īpašumu citam.
 property.ACC.M another.DAT.M
 ‘That same day she sold the property to someone else.’ (C)

- (2.4.100) a. *Viss vienmēr tāds pats un*
 everything.NOM.M always **very_same.NOM.M** and
tajās pašās vietās.
very_same.LOC.PL.F place.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Everything is always the same and in the same places.’ (C)

- b. *Īrnieka ģimenes loceklis ir*
 tenant.GEN.M family.GEN.F member.DAT.M be.PRS.3
tādas pašas tiesības un pienākumi
very_same.NOM.PL.F right.NOM.PL.F and responsibility.NOM.PL.F
kā īrniekam.
 as tenant.DAT.M
 ‘The tenant’s family members have the same rights and responsibilities as the tenant.’ (CW)

The emphatic function of the pronouns *pats*, *pati*, *paši*, *pašas* also manifests itself in connection with verb reflexivity; in such cases the pronouns occur in conjunction with the reflexive pronoun *sevis*, reinforcing its meaning and drawing attention to the fact that the action is oriented towards the sphere of the subject (examples (2.4.101)). The use of such emphatic pronouns for expressing reflexivity, however, is not obligatory in Latvian.

- (2.4.101) a. *Cilvēks pats sevi spoguļi*
 person.NOM.M **self.NOM.M** own.ACC.M mirror.LOC.M
redz skaistāku,
 see.PRS.3 beautiful.CMP.ACC.M
nekā patiesībā viņu redz citi.

‘One sees oneself in the mirror as more beautiful than actually seen by others.’ (www.cosmo.lv)

- b. *Es pazīstu pati sevi,*
 I.NOM know.PRS.1SG self.NOM.F own.ACC.F
esmu strādīga.
 ‘I know myself, I am hard-working.’ (CW)
- c. *Viņš teica pats sev to,*
 he.NOM tell.PST.3 self.NOM.M own.DAT.M that.ACC.M
ko gribēja dzirdēt.
 what.ACC want.PST.3 hear.INF
 ‘He told himself what he wanted to hear.’ (www.satori.lv)

In addition, the definite pronouns *pats*, *pati*, *paši*, *pašas* can be used to form the superlative forms of adjectives (see Section 2.2.2).

The pronouns *pats*, *pati* have the following declension paradigm:

Case	M		F	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
NOM	<i>pat-s</i>	<i>paš-i</i>	<i>pat-i</i>	<i>paš-as</i>
GEN	<i>paš-a</i>	<i>paš-u</i>	<i>paš-as</i>	<i>paš-u</i>
DAT	<i>paš-am</i>	<i>paš-iem</i>	<i>paš-ai</i>	<i>paš-ām</i>
ACC	<i>paš-u</i>	<i>paš-us</i>	<i>paš-u</i>	<i>paš-as</i>
INS	<i>(ar) paš-u</i>	<i>(ar) paš-iem</i>	<i>(ar) paš-u</i>	<i>(ar) paš-ām</i>
LOC	<i>paš-ā</i>	<i>paš-os</i>	<i>paš-ā</i>	<i>paš-ās</i>

Table 2.21 Declension of the pronouns *pats*, *pati*, *paši*, *pašas* (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 73)

All definite pronouns inflect like adjectives with the indefinite ending (i.e., as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine).

2.4.9 Negative pronouns

Negative pronouns are used to negate or indicate the absence of living beings, objects, or features (Skujiņa 2007: 255):

(2.4.102) *nekas* ‘nothing’

- a. *Taču nekas nav mūžīgs.*
 however nothing.NOM not_be.COP.PRS.3 eternal.NOM.M
 ‘Nothing lasts forever though.’ (C)
- b. *Vai tev ir bijusi tā sajūta –*
nekā nav bijis un
 nothing.GEN not_be.AUX.PRS.3 be.PTCP.NOM.M and
nekā nebūs,
 nothing.GEN not_be.FUT.3
tikai šis brīdis?
 ‘Have you ever had that feeling – there never has been and never will be anything, just this moment?’ (N. Ikstena)

- (2.4.103) **nekāds** ‘no, none, not any kind (M SG)’, **nekāda** (F SG), **nekādi** (M PL), **nekādas** (F PL)

- (2.4.104) *neviens* ‘no, nobody, no one (M SG)’, *neviēna* (F SG), *neviēni* (M PL), *neviēnas* (F PL)

The absence of persons, i.e., humans, is usually indicated by means of the pronoun *neviens* 'no one':

If a sentence contains a negative pronoun, the finite form of the verb, i.e., the predicate, is usually also negative:

- b. *Nekādas* *atrunas* *nav*
 not_any_kind.NOM.PL.F excuses.NOM.PL.M not_be.COP.PRS.3
iespējamas.
 possible.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
 'No excuses are possible.' (C)
- c. *Ģimenē* *neviens* *nesmēķē.*
 family.LOC.F no_one.NOM.M not_smoke.PRS.3
 'No one smokes in the family.' (C)

The negative pronouns *neviens*, *neviēna*, *nekāds*, *nekāda* are declined in the same way as adjectives with an indefinite ending (i.e., as declension 1 nouns in the masculine and declension 4 nouns in the feminine).

2.5 VERBS

2.5.0 Introductory remarks

The verb is a word class which comprises words expressing actions, states, and relations, and has, in Latvian, the grammatical categories of person, tense, mood, and voice (Skujiņa 2007: 76). In addition, declinable participles are marked for the categories of gender, number, and case.

Verbs are also connected to transitivity (Section 2.5.6) and expression of different reflexive (Section 2.5.7) and aspectual meanings (see Section 2.5.8).

Semantically, verbs can be subdivided into various groups or classes, for example:

- 1) verbs of speaking
(2.5.1) *runāt* ‘to talk, speak’, *teikt* ‘to tell’, *sacīt* ‘to say’, *stāstīt* ‘to tell, narrate’
- 2) verbs of motion
(2.5.2) *iet* ‘to walk, go’, *skriet* ‘to run’, *lēkt* ‘to jump’, *kāpt* ‘to climb, ascend’
- 3) verbs of sound
(2.5.3) *rūkt* ‘to roar, rumble’, *svīlpt* ‘to whistle’, *klabēt* ‘to clack’, *ribēt* ‘to rumble, thunder’
- 4) verbs of senses and perception
(2.5.4) *just* ‘to sense, feel’, *redzēt* ‘to see’, *dzirdēt* ‘to hear’, *skatīties* ‘to look’
- 5) modal verbs
(2.5.5) *spēt* ‘to be capable of’, *varēt* ‘to be able’, *gribēt* ‘to want’, *vajadzēt* ‘to need’
- 6) aspectual verbs
(2.5.6) *sākt* ‘to begin’, *beigt* ‘to end’, *turpināt* ‘to continue’

In sentences, verbs characteristically function as predicates:

- (2.5.7) a. *Pagāja dažas dienas.*
pass.PST.3 few.NOM.PL.F day.NOM.PL.F
 ‘A few days passed.’ (A. Eglitis)
- b. *Būtu es to toreiz zinājis!*
be.AUX.COND I.NOM that.ACC then
know.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘If only I’d known it then!’ (J. Jonevs)
- c. *Uzzini, kāpēc sviests tomēr ir jāēd.*
 find_out.IMP.2SG why butter.NOM.M still **be.AUX.PRS.3**
DEB.eat
 ‘Find out why you should eat butter after all.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In addition, infinitives can be used as clause subjects (2.5.8a), parts of complex predicates (2.5.8b), and secondary predicates (2.5.8c):

- (2.5.8) a. *Domāt ir māksla.*
think.INF be.COP.PRS.3 art.NOM.F
 ‘Thinking is an art.’ (Ir)
- b. *Pirms 70 gadiem Daugavpilī sāka kursēt pirmie tramvaji.*
 before 70 year.DAT.PL.M Daugavpils.LOC.F
start.PST.3 **run.INF** first.NOM.PL.M tram.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The first trams started running in Daugavpils 70 years ago.’ (Diena)
- c. *Nesāc sarunu ar uzbrūkošiem vārdiem, lai otram nerastos vēlme aizstāvēties.*
 SUB another.DAT.M not_originate.COND urge.NOM.F
defend_oneself.INF
 ‘Do not start a conversation with an attack so as not to put your interlocutor on the defensive.’ (www.delfi.lv)

Verb forms are classified as either finite or non-finite depending on whether they are marked for person:

- 1) finite verb forms are marked for person and usually function as predicates with tense, mood, and voice (see Section 3.1.2);
- 2) non-finite verb forms – the infinitive and participles – are not marked for person and do not normally function as predicates (see Sections 3.2.3, 3.2.6, 3.2.9 on the use of the infinitive, see Sections 2.5.9, 3.2.3, 3.2.4, 3.2.9 on participles).

Latvian uses the following means for deriving the grammatical forms of verbs:

1) endings, e.g., for person forms

(2.5.9) PRS

- 1SG *es rakst-u* ‘I write’
 2SG *tu rakst-i* ‘you (SG) write’
 3SG/PL *viņš, viņi rakst-a* ‘he/she writes, they write’
 1PL *mēs rakst-ām* ‘we write’
 2PL *jūs rakst-āt* ‘you (PL) write’

2) suffixes, e.g., for tense forms

(2.5.10) a. PRS

- sē-t – sē-j-u* ‘to sow – (I) sow’
skrie-t – skrie-n-u ‘to run – (I) run’
nir-t – nir-st-u ‘to dive – (I) dive’

b. FUT 1SG, 1PL

- sē-t – sē-š-u, sē-s-im* ‘to sow – (I) will sow, (we) will sow’
skriet – skrie-š-u, skrie-s-im ‘to run – (I) will run, (we) will run’
nir-t – nir-š-u, nir-s-im ‘to dive – (I) will dive, (we) will dive’

3) combining an auxiliary verb with a declinable participle

(2.5.11) a. in perfect tense forms

- esmu lasījis, biju lasījis, būšu lasījis* ‘I have read, I had read, I will have read’

b. in passive voice forms

- tiek lasīts, tika lasīts, tiks lasīts* ‘is read, was read, will be read’

4) suppletion, i.e., using different roots in one paradigm when forming the person and tense forms of the verbs *būt* ‘to be’ and *iet* ‘to walk, go’

(2.5.12) a. *esmu, esi, ir, biju, būšu* ‘am, are, is, was, will be’

b. *eju, gāju* ‘(I) go, (I) went’

In addition, Latvian verbal inflection involves different types of sound alternations (these usually occur in synthetic forms) – palatalization, consonant *n* alternation (for both see Section 1.1.2), fronting (see Section 1.1.1), consonant loss (see Section 1.1.3), and apophony (see Section 1.2.1 for detail).

The base of the inflectional forms of verbs in Latvian is the infinitive stem (Kalnača 2013b, 458–459). All simple tense forms – the present, past, future indefinite – are constructed from the infinitive stem with the help of different morphophonological (sound alternation) and morphological (suffixes) operations:

INF	PRS 1SG	PST 1SG	FUT 1SG
<i>sie-t</i> ‘to tie’	<i>sie-n-u</i> ‘(I) tie’	<i>sēj-u</i> ‘(I) tied’	<i>sie-š-u</i> ‘(I) will tie’
<i>domā-t</i> ‘to think’	<i>domā-j-u</i> ‘(I) think’	<i>domāj-u</i> ‘(I) thought’	<i>domā-š-u</i> ‘(I) will think’
<i>cel-t</i> ‘to raise’	<i>ceļ-u</i> ‘(I) raise’	<i>cēl-u</i> ‘(I) raised’	<i>cel-š-u</i> ‘(I) will raise’
<i>lasī-t</i> ‘to read’	<i>las-u</i> ‘(I) read’	<i>lasī-j-u</i> ‘(I) read’	<i>lasī-š-u</i> ‘(I) will read’

Table 2.22 The infinitive, present, past, and future stems of verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2014: 78)

The infinitive stem and all indefinite (simple) tense stems can be used as bases for constructing further inflectional forms of verbs:

1) *the infinitive stem:*

- a) the present indefinite conditional form

(2.5.13) INF – COND

sie-t – sie-tu ‘to tie – would tie’

domā-t – domā-tu ‘to think – would think’

lasī-t – lasī-tu ‘to read – would read’

- b) the past passive participle forms

(2.5.14) INF – PTCP.PST.PASS

sie-t – sie-t-s ‘to tie – tied’

domā-t – domā-t-s ‘to think – thought’

lasī-t – lasī-t-s ‘to read – read’

- c) the semi-declinable participle forms

(2.5.15) INF – PTCP.SEM.DECL

sie-t – sie-dam-s ‘to tie – (while) tying’

domā-t – domā-dam-s ‘to think – (while) thinking’

lasī-t – lasī-dam-s ‘to read – (while) reading’

2) *the present stem:*

- a) the present indefinite oblique form

(2.5.16) PRS – OBL.PRS

sien-u – sien-ot ‘(I) tie – reportedly tie’

domāj-u – domāj-ot ‘(I) think – reportedly think’

las-u – las-ot ‘(I) read – reportedly read’

- b) the debitive form

(2.5.17) PRS – DEB

sien-u – jā-sien ‘(I) tie – must tie’

domāj-u – jā-domā ‘(I) think – must think’

las-u – jā-lasa ‘(I) read – must read’

- c) the present active participle form

(2.5.18) PRS – PTCP.PRS.ACT

sien-u – sien-oš-s ‘(I) tie – tying’

domāj-u – domāj-oš-s ‘(I) think – thinking’

las-u – las-oš-s ‘(I) read – reading’

- d) the present passive participle form

(2.5.19) PRS – PTCP.PRS.PASS

sien-u – sien-am-s ‘(I) tie – (should / can be) tied, tieable’

domāj-u – domāj-am-s ‘(I) think – (should / can be) thought’

las-u – las-ām-s ‘(I) read – (should / can be) read, readable’

e) indeclinable participle forms

(2.5.20) PRS – PTCP.IDECL

sien-u – sien-ot, sien-am ‘(I) tie – tying’

domāj-u – domāj-ot, domāj-am ‘(I) think – thinking’

las-u – las-ot, las-ām ‘(I) read – reading’

3) *the past stem* – the past active participle forms

(2.5.21) PST – PTCP.PST.ACT

sēj-u – sēj-is (M), sēj-us-i (F) ‘(I) tied – (have / has / had) tied’

domāj-u – domāj-is (M), domāj-us-i (F) ‘(I) thought – (have / has / had) thought’

lasīj-u – lasīj-is (M), lasīj-us-i (F) ‘(I) read – (have / has / had) read’

4) *the future stem* – the future indefinite oblique form

(2.5.22) FUT – OBL.FUT

sieš-u – sieš-ot ‘(I) will tie – reportedly will tie’

domāš-u – domāš-ot ‘(I) will think – reportedly will think’

lasīš-u – lasīš-ot ‘(I) will read – reportedly will read’

2.5.1 Conjugation

Contemporary Latvian has three verb conjugation classes, which are distinguished based on the morphemic composition of the infinitive and certain specifics of present tense forming operations (Paegle 2003: 104–105; Kalnača 2013a: 75, 2013c: 545).

Prefixes and reflexive endings are not considered significant in determining conjugation classes even when they make the verbs that contain them semantically distinct from their non-prefixed or non-reflexive counterparts (2.5.23a) or when such counterparts do not exist in contemporary Latvian (2.5.23b and 2.5.23c):

(2.5.23) a. *dot* ‘to give’ and *pār-dot* ‘to sell’, *nes-t* ‘to carry’ and *nes-ties* ‘to rush’

b. *pa-zīt* ‘to know, recognize’, *aiz-mirst* ‘to forget’

c. *mosties* ‘to wake up’, *kļūdīties* ‘to be wrong, err’ (note that *most* and *kļūdīt* do not exist)

The verbs *iet* ‘to go, walk’, *dot* ‘to give’, *būt* ‘to be’ do not fit into any of the classes and are classified as irregular, because they have suppletive stems and non-systemic person forms.

Conjugation class 1 verbs can be identified based on the infinitive form, which, unlike the infinitive form of other verbs, contains just a root and an ending:

(2.5.24) *nes-t* ‘to carry’, *aug-t* ‘to grow’, *kris-t* ‘to fall’, *kus-t* ‘to melt’, *cel-t* ‘to lift, to build’, *lauz-t* ‘to break’, *kāp-t* ‘to climb, ascend’, *sil-t* ‘to get warm’, *aus-t* ‘to dawn’, *plūs-t* ‘to flow’

Conjugation class 2 (2.5.25a) and 3 (2.5.25b) verbs cannot be mutually differentiated in the infinitive as both can contain the same set of suffixes between the root and the ending:

- (2.5.25) a. *med-ī-t* ‘to hunt’, *dom-ā-t* ‘to think’, *tēr-ē-t* ‘to spend (money)’
 b. *rakst-ī-t* ‘to write’, *dzied-ā-t* ‘to sing’, *redz-ē-t* ‘to see’

Therefore, the conjugation class membership of such verbs has to be established based on their present tense forms.

It should be noted that the suffix *-inā-* occurs only in the infinitive form of conjugation class 3 verbs:

- (2.5.26) *audz-inā-t* ‘to bring up’, *smīd-inā-t* ‘to make laugh’, *midz-inā-t* ‘to put to sleep’

Conjugation class 1 verbs use a number of different devices to form present tense forms and are therefore grouped into three subclasses.

The present tense forms of **conjugation class 1 subclass 1** verbs are constructed without the help of either suffixes or sound alternation operations (*augt* ‘to grow’, *nest* ‘to carry’, *degt* ‘to burn’). The group also includes words that have undergone phonetic change in the infinitive but not in present tense forms (consonant *t* alternation (2.5.27a), tautosyllabic *in – ī* alternation (2.5.27b)), as well as verbs having *ī – ij* (2.5.27c), *ei – ej* (2.5.27d) alternations at the root and present tense person ending junction to prevent vowel clustering.

(2.5.27) INF – PRS 1SG

- a. *mest – metu* ‘to throw – (I) throw’, *vest – vedu* ‘to drive, carry – (I) drive, carry’
 b. *mīt – minu* ‘to tread – (I) tread’, *pīt – pinu* ‘to braid, weave – (I) braid, weave’
 c. *rīt – riju* ‘to gobble, swallow – (I) gobble, swallow’, *vīt – viju* ‘to weave, wind, twine – (I) weave, wind, twine’
 d. *liet – leju* ‘to pour – (I) pour’, *smiet – smeju* ‘to laugh – (I) laugh’

aug-t ‘to grow’, *mes-t* ‘to throw’, *pī-t* ‘to braid, weave’, *rī-t* ‘to gobble, swallow’, *smie-ties* ‘to laugh’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>aug-u, met-u, pin-u, rij-u, sme-j-os</i>	<i>aug-am, met-am, pin-am, rij-am, sme-j-amies</i>
2	<i>audz-ø, met-ø, pin-ø, rij-ø, sme-j-as</i>	<i>aug-at, met-at, pin-at, rij-at, sme-j-aties</i>
3	<i>aug-ø, met-ø, pin-ø, rij-ø, sme-j-as</i>	

Table 2.23 The present indefinite forms of conjugation class 1 subclass 1 verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 76)

The formation of present tense forms of **conjugation class 1 subclass 2** verbs involves apophony (2.5.28a), consonant *n* alternation (2.5.28b), and palatalization (2.5.28c).

(2.5.28) INF – PRS 1SG

- a. *vilk-t* ‘to draw’, *pirk-t* ‘to buy’, *migt* ‘to fall asleep’, *likt* ‘to put’ – *velku* ‘(I) draw’, *pērku* ‘(I) buy’, *miegu* ‘(I) fall asleep’, *lieku* ‘(I) put’
- b. *krist* ‘to fall’, *just* ‘to feel’, *prast* ‘to know how’ – *krītu* ‘(I) fall’, *jūtu* ‘(I) feel’, *protu* ‘(I) know how’
- c. *celt* ‘to lift’, *plēst* ‘to rip, tear’, *griezt* ‘to cut’, *pūst* ‘to blow’, *grūst* ‘to push’, *braukt* ‘to drive, go (to)’, *lūgt* ‘to ask’, *kāpt* ‘to climb, ascend’, *glābt* ‘to save’, *lemt* ‘to decide’ – *ceļu* ‘(I) lift’, *plēšu* ‘(I) rip, tear’, *griežu* ‘(I) cut’, *pūšu* ‘(I) blow’, *grūžu* ‘(I) push’, *braucu* ‘(I) drive, go (to)’, *lūdzu* ‘(I) ask’, *kāpju* ‘(I) climb, ascend’, *glābju* ‘(I) save’, *lemju* ‘(I) decide’

The group also includes verbs that once had *r* – *ŗ* palatalization (2.5.29) in the present tense forms. Although still considered standard, this type of palatalization nowadays survives almost exclusively in the speech of elderly people and in subdialects.

(2.5.29) INF – PRS 1SG

- dzert* ‘to drink’, *bērt* ‘to pour’, *vērt* ‘to open’, *pērt* ‘to whip’, *svērt* ‘to weigh’, *art* ‘to plough’, *šķirt* ‘to separate, distinguish (between)’ – *dzeru* ‘(I) drink’, *beŗu* ‘(I) pour’, *veŗu* ‘(I) open’, *peŗu* ‘(I) whip’, *sveŗu* ‘(I) weigh’, *aŗu* ‘(I) plough’, *šķiŗu* ‘(I) separate, distinguish (between)’

vilk-t ‘to draw’, *mig-t* ‘to fall asleep’, *ras-ties* ‘to appear’, *plēs-t* ‘to rip, tear’,
lem-t ‘to decide’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>velk-u, mieg-u, rod-os, plēš-u, lem-j-u</i>	<i>velk-am, mieg-am, rod-amies, plēš-am, lem-j-am</i>
2	<i>velc-ø, miedz-ø, rod-ies, plēs-ø, lem-ø</i>	<i>velk-at, mieg-at, rod-aties, plēš-at, lem-j-at</i>
3	<i>velk-ø, mieg-ø, rod-as, plēš-ø, lem-j-ø</i>	

Table 2.24 The present indefinite forms of conjugation class 1 subclass 2 verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 76)

The present tense forms of **conjugation class 1 subclass 3** verbs are constructed by means of the suffixes *-n-* (2.5.30a), *-j-* (2.5.30b), *-st-* (2.5.30c).

(2.5.30) INF – PRS 1SG

- a. *siet* ‘to tie’, *skriet* ‘to run’ – *sienu* ‘(I) tie’, *skrienu* ‘(I) run’
- b. *sēt* ‘to sow’, *rāt* ‘to rebuke’, *plaut* ‘to mow’ – *sēju* ‘(I) sow’, *rāju* ‘(I) rebuke’, *plauju* ‘(I) mow’
- c. *birt* ‘to drop (no object), spatter’, *mīrkt* ‘to soak’, *dzimt* ‘to be born’ – *birstu* ‘(I) drop (no object), spatter’, *mīrkstu* ‘(I) soak’, *dzimstu* ‘(I) am born’

When the suffix *-st-* is used in verbs whose roots end in *s*, *z*, *t*, or *d* a reduction of the inflectional stem (i.e., loss of the root-final consonant) occurs to avoid consonant clustering at the root and present tense suffix junction (2.5.31) (see Section 1.1.3).

(2.5.31) INF – PRS 1SG

aizmirs-t, *lūz-t*, *klīs-t*, *mos-ties* – *aizmir-st-u*, *lū-st-u*, *klī-st-u*, *mo-st-os* ‘to forget, break (no object), wander, wake up – (I) forget, break (no object), wander, wake up’

skrie-t ‘to run’, *kau-ties* ‘to fight’, *dil-t* ‘to wear out’, *lūz-t* ‘to break (no object)’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>skrie-n-u</i> , <i>kau-j-os</i> , <i>dil-st-u</i> , <i>lū-st-u</i>	<i>skrie-n-am</i> , <i>kau-j-amies</i> , <i>dil-st-am</i> , <i>lū-st-am</i>
2	<i>skrie-n-ø</i> , <i>kau-j-ies</i> , <i>dil-st-i</i> , <i>lū-st-i</i>	<i>skrie-n-at</i> , <i>kau-j-aties</i> , <i>dil-st-at</i> , <i>lū-st-at</i>
3	<i>skrie-n-ø</i> , <i>kau-j-as</i> , <i>dil-st-ø</i> , <i>lū-st-ø</i>	

Table 2.25 The present indefinite forms of conjugation class 1 subclass 3 verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 76)

Conjugation class 1 verbs *skriet* ‘to run’ (2.5.32a), *gulties* ‘to lie down’ (2.5.32b), and *sēsties* ‘to sit down’ (2.5.32c) permit parallel sets of present indefinite tense forms.

- (2.5.32) a. *skrie-n-u* and *skrej-u* ‘(I) run’
b. *gul-st-os* and *guļ-os* ‘(I) lie down’
c. *sē-st-os* and *sēž-os* ‘(I) sit down’

Generally, the present tense form of **conjugation class 2** verbs (containing the suffixes *-ā-*, *-ē-*, *-ī-*, *-o-* [uo] in the infinitive) is derived by attaching the suffix *-j-* and a person ending to the infinitive stem. In the second-person singular and third-person singular and plural, however, there is neither a person ending nor a present tense suffix. As all conjugation class 2 verbs form their present tense forms in the same way they are not classified into further subclasses. The verb *dabūt* ‘to get’ is also included in this conjugation class, as an exception.

valk-ā-t ‘to wear’, *tēr-ē-ties* ‘to spend (money)’, *med-ī-t* ‘to hunt’, *slēp-o-t* ‘to ski’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>valk-ā-j-u</i> , <i>tēr-ē-j-os</i> , <i>med-ī-j-u</i> , <i>slēp-o-j-u</i>	<i>valk-ā-j-am</i> , <i>tēr-ē-j-amies</i> , <i>med-ī-j-am</i> , <i>slēp-o-j-am</i>
2	<i>valk-ā-ø-ø</i> , <i>tēr-ē-j-ies</i> , <i>med-ī-ø-ø</i> , <i>slēp-o-ø-ø</i>	<i>valk-ā-j-at</i> , <i>tēr-ē-j-aties</i> , <i>med-ī-j-at</i> , <i>slēp-o-j-at</i>
3	<i>valk-ā-ø-ø</i> , <i>tēr-ē-j-as</i> , <i>med-ī-ø-ø</i> , <i>slēp-o-ø-ø</i>	

Table 2.26 The present indefinite forms of conjugation class 2 verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 77)

The present tense form of **conjugation class 3** verbs (having the suffixes *-ā-*, *-ē-*, *-ī-*, *-inā-* in the infinitive) involves modifying the infinitive stem by either shortening or discarding the infinitive suffix, and then adding a person ending to the result. Conjugation class 3 verbs are further classified into two subclasses depending on the present tense person ending paradigm that they follow.

Conjugation class 3 subclass 1 verbs have a full paradigm of person endings and a long vowel *ā* in the first-person and second-person plural. As far as Standard Latvian is concerned, this subclass includes the verb *zināt* (note that in colloquial speech it is also used as a conjugation class 3 subclass 2 verb).

rakst-ī-t ‘to write’, *loc-ī-ties* ‘to bow, twist’, *liec-inā-t* ‘to testify’, *zin-ā-t* ‘to know’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>rakst-u, lok-os, liec-in-u, zin-u</i>	<i>rakst-ām, lok-āmies, liec-in-ām, zin-ām</i>
2	<i>rakst-i, lok-ies, liec-in-i, zin-i</i>	<i>rakst-āt, lok-āties, liec-in-āt, zin-āt</i>
3	<i>rakst-a, lok-ās, liec-in-a, zin-a</i>	

Table 2.27 The present indefinite forms of conjugation class 3 subclass 1 verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 77)

Conjugation class 3 subclass 2 verbs lack third-person endings and take a short *a* in the first-person and second-person plural. The subclass permits words requiring palatalization in the present tense form.

gul-ē-t ‘to sleep’, *dzied-ā-t* ‘to sing’

Person	PRS	
	SG	PL
1	<i>gul-u, dzied-u</i>	<i>gul-am, dzied-am</i>
2	<i>gul-i, dzied-i</i>	<i>gul-at, dzied-at</i>
3	<i>gul-ø, dzied-ø</i>	

Table 2.28 The present indefinite forms of conjugation class 3 subclass 2 verbs (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 77)

Some verbs, such as *pētīt* ‘to research’, *mērīt* ‘to measure’, *vēlēt* ‘to elect, vote’, *cerēt* ‘to hope’, *sargāt* ‘to guard’, can inflect either as conjugation class 2 or conjugation class 3 verbs. In language practice, though, it is recommended not to use forms belonging to different conjugation classes within one formal paradigm.

The irregular verbs *iet* ‘to walk, go’, *dot* ‘to give’, *būt* ‘to be’ have, in part, suppletive person and tense forms and, in part, non-systemic person forms. Non-systemicity is only found in the present and past tense forms, the future tense forms being regular (see Section 2.5.3 on forming future tense forms).

bū-t ‘to be’, *ne-bū-t* ‘not to be’

Person	PRS		PST	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
1	<i>es-mu, ne-es-mu</i>	<i>es-am, ne-es-am</i>	<i>bij-u, ne-bij-u</i>	<i>bij-ām, ne-bij-ām</i>
2	<i>esi, ne-esi</i>	<i>es-at, ne-es-at</i>	<i>bij-i, ne-bij-i</i>	<i>bij-āt, ne-bij-āt</i>
3	<i>ir, nav</i>		<i>bij-a, ne-bij-a</i>	

Table 2.29 The present and past indefinite forms of the verbs *būt* ‘to be’ and *nebūt* ‘not to be’ (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 78)

ie-t ‘to walk, go’

Person	PRS		PST	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
1	<i>ej-u</i>	<i>ej-am</i>	<i>gā-j-u</i>	<i>gā-j-ām</i>
2	<i>ej-ø</i>	<i>ej-at</i>	<i>gā-j-i</i>	<i>gā-j-āt</i>
3	<i>ie-t</i>		<i>gā-j-a</i>	

Table 2.30 The present and past indefinite forms of the verb *iet* ‘to walk, go’ (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 78)

do-t ‘to give’

Person	PRS		PST	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
1	<i>dod-u</i>	<i>dod-am</i>	<i>dev-u</i>	<i>dev-ām</i>
2	<i>dod-ø</i>	<i>dod-at</i>	<i>dev-i</i>	<i>dev-āt</i>
3	<i>dod-ø</i>		<i>dev-a</i>	

Table 2.31 The present and past indefinite forms of the verb *dot* ‘to give’ (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 78)

2.5.2 Person

In Latvian, the verbal category of person comprises three singular and three plural persons (e.g., Kalnača 2013a: 78).

Because linguistic communication, or a dialogue, is only possible between human beings the first- and second-person forms always express human actions (2.5.33a-b), with the exception of personifications (2.5.33c).

- (2.5.33) a. *es ēdu, runāju, priecājos* ‘I eat, talk, rejoice’
 b. *tu ēd, runā, priecājies* ‘you eat, talk, rejoice’
 c. *Sniedzīņ, uzklausi mani!*
 snow.DIM.VOC.M hear.IMP.2SG I.ACC
 ‘Dear snow, hear me out!’ (www.mammamunteti.lv)

No such semantic restrictions apply to third-person forms, which can refer to literally any concrete or imagined actions performed by living things (humans, animals) and inanimate objects (such as natural phenomena, plants, abstract concepts, etc.) alike.

- (2.5.34) a. *Mans* *brālis* *ir*
 my.NOM.M brother.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3
skolotājs *un* *lauksaimnieks.*
 teacher.NOM.M and farmer.NOM.M
 'My brother is a teacher and a farmer.' (Ieva)
- b. *Dzeņi* *apdzīvo*
 woodpecker.NOM.PL.M inhabit.PRS.3
dažādus *mežus.*
 different.ACC.PL.M forest.ACC.PL.M
 'Woodpeckers inhabit different forests.' (www.lsm.lv)
- c. *Rudens* *grima* *tendences*
 autumn.GEN.M makeup. GEN.M trend.NOM.PL.F
demonstrē *sistēmas* *ignoranci.*
 demonstrate.PRS.3 system.GEN.F ignoring.ACC.F
 'Autumn makeup trends are all about ignoring the system.' (Santa)

Latvian uses three different means for expressing verbal person:

- 1) **person endings** – in synthetic verb forms, this includes the so-called zero endings;
- 2) finite forms of **auxiliary verbs** – in analytical (periphrastic) verb forms (see Sections 2.5.3, 2.5.4);
- 3) **personal pronouns**, nouns or other words used as nouns – in contexts where verb forms lack person endings, usually, in the conditional, oblique, or debitive moods (see Section 2.5.4).

The synthetic forms of the Latvian verb have two main types of person endings:

- 1) non-reflexive endings;
- 2) reflexive endings.

A possible representation of the system of verbal person and number endings is shown in Tables 2.32–2.33 (non-reflexive verbs) and Tables 2.34–2.35 (reflexive verbs) (endings preceded by palatalization are displayed as separate exponents).

Tables 2.32–2.35 contain person endings of all conjugation classes, except for the irregular verbs *būt* 'to be', *iet* 'to walk, go', *dot* 'to give'. The symbols used in the tables have the following meaning:

- 1 – conjugation class 1, subdivided into two subclasses:
 - 1a – all conjugation class 1 verbs, excluding subclass 1b verbs, which take the ending *-i* in the second-person singular
- 2 – conjugation class 2
- 3 – conjugation class 3, subdivided into two further subclasses:
 - 3a – conjugation class 3 subclass 1, 3b – all other conjugation class 3 verbs, i.e., conjugation class 3 subclass 2 verbs.

In Standard Latvian, the future indefinite second-person plural form permits two endings: *-it* (the original, older ending) and *-iet* for non-reflexive and *-ities* and *-ieties* for reflexive verbs, both being equally acceptable (see for example, Veidemane 2002: 414–415; Paegle 2003: 93; Kalnača 2013c: 520). Ozola (2005) points out that because

school grammars were promoting the use of the forms with *-iet*, *-ieties* in the second half of the 20th century these are more frequent in modern day speech. The paradigm of person endings presented below does not treat *-it/-iet* or *-ities/-ieties* as separate exponents.

Non-reflexive

SG

Person	PRS					PST	FUT
	Conjugation						
	2	1a	3b	1b	3a	all	all
1	-u	-ʼu, -u		-u			
2	-ø-ø	-ø	-i				
3		-ʼø, -ø		-ø	-a		-ø

Table 2.32 The person endings of the singular non-reflexive paradigm

PL

Person	PRS			PST	FUT
	Conjugation				
	2	1, 3b	3a	all	all
1	-am	-'am, -am		-ām	-im
2	-at	-'at, -at		-āt	-it / -iet
3	-ø-ø	-'ø, -ø		-a	-ø

Table 2.33 The person endings of the plural non-reflexive paradigm

Apart from third-person SG/PL syncretism, the non-reflexive paradigm also shows syncretic forms in the present tense second-person and third-person singular for conjugation class 1 (partly) and conjugation class 2 verbs. In addition, the present tense second-person and third-person forms of conjugation class 2 verbs have a zero morph in place of an ending and the present tense suffix *-j-*. This results in the 1SG, 1PL, 2PL forms *domāju* 'I think', *domājam* 'we think', *domājat* 'you think', and the 2SG, 3SG/PL syncretic form *domā* 'he/she thinks, they think'.

Reflexive

SG

Person	PRS		PST	FUT
	Conjugation			
	1, 2	3	all	all
1	-’os, -os	-os		
2	-ies			
3	-’as, -as	-ās		

Table 2.34 The person endings of the singular reflexive paradigm

PL

Person	PRS	PST	FUT
	Conjugation		
	1, 2, 3b	3a	all
1	-’amies, -amies	-āmies	-imies
2	-’aties, -aties	-āties	-ities/ -ieties
3	-’as, -as	-ās	-ies

Table 2.35 The person endings of the plural reflexive paradigm

Reflexive verbs not only have a syncretic third-person SG/PL in all tenses, but also future tense 2SG and 3SG/PL forms ending in *-ies*.

The use of verb person depends on animacy and is based on the opposition *animate / inanimate*, which also underlies the division of verbs into *three-person* and *single-person* words. It is usually the case that all three persons are possible for verbs expressing actions performed by living beings – humans or (less frequently) animals.

(2.5.35) *skriet* ‘to run’, *ēst* ‘to eat’, *smaidīt* ‘to smile’, *nirt* ‘to dive’, *domāt* ‘to think’,
runāt ‘to speak’, *audzināt* ‘to bring up (e.g., children)’, *laimēt* ‘to win’

Actions by inanimate objects (in the broadest sense – including natural phenomena and abstract concepts), on the contrary, are almost invariably expressed in the third person, i.e., by *single-person* verbs.

(2.5.36) *birt* ‘to drop (no object), spatter’, *mirkst* ‘to soak’, *plukt* ‘to lose color’, *plīst*
‘to break (no object), *diģt* ‘to sprout’, *līt* ‘to pour (no object), *snigt* ‘to snow’,
tumst ‘to grow dark’

Graudi **bīrst** *apcirkņos*.
grain.NOM.PL.M **pour.PRS.3** grain_tank.LOC.PL.M
‘Grain pours into grain tanks.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

Actions involving human beings as experiencers are also mostly third-person.

(2.5.37) *sāpēt* ‘to ache’, *smelgt* ‘to nag, to smart’, *kniest* ‘to tickle (no object)’, *niezēt*
‘to itch’, *laimēties* ‘to have luck’, *gribēties* ‘to want’, *veikties* ‘to succeed’

Cauruma *nav*, *zobs* **sāp!**
cavity.GEN.M not_be.PRS.3 tooth.NOM.M **ache.PRS.3**
‘There is no cavity but the tooth is aching!’ (www.tvnet.lv)

Very rarely single-person verbs are used in the first or second person – mainly to create or enhance poetic imagery in poetry and prose.

(2.5.38) *jūs* *man* **sāpat**
you.NOM.PL I.DAT **ache.PRS.2PL**
tāpat *kā* *smieklī*
same as laughter.NOM.PL.M
‘You pain me
the same as laughter’ (Viks)

Likewise, actions characteristic of animals but not humans are usually in the third person.

(2.5.39) *riet* ‘to bark’, *naudēt* ‘to meow’, *blēt* ‘to bleat’, *maut* ‘to moo’, *lakt* ‘to lap’,
zviegt ‘to neigh’, *pikstēt* ‘to cheep’, *ņurdēt* ‘to growl’

Such verbs are sometimes figuratively applied to humans, but this type of usage tends to be stylistically restricted to colloquial speech or slang (cf. examples (2.5.40) a and b).

(2.5.40) a. *Zirgs* **zvedz** *ar* *augsti* *paceltu* *galvu*.
horse.NOM.M **neigh.PRS.3** with highly elevate.INS.F head.INS.F
‘The horse neighs with its head held high.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

b. *Par* *aktieru* *ākstīšanos* **zvedz**
about actor.GEN.PL.M tomfoolery.ACC.F **neigh.PRS.3**
lielākā *daļa* *skatītāju*.
major.CMP.NOM.F part.NOM.F audience.GEN.PL.M
‘The majority of the audience laughs at the actors making fools of themselves.’ (Diena)

2.5.3 Tense

The verbal category of tense refers to the unfolding of actions in time. In Latvian, the verbal category of tense comprises six tense forms – three indefinite or simple tenses (present indefinite, past indefinite, future indefinite) and three perfect or complex tenses (present perfect, past perfect, future perfect) (Skujiņa 2007: 203).

Indefinite and perfect tense forms differ as to their internal structure. Indefinite tenses are synthetic, formed by means of suffixes and various kinds of morphophonological operations (for the most part, sound alternations).

The internal makeup of **present indefinite** forms is discussed in the description of conjugation classes and subclasses above.

Past indefinite forms are also, to a degree, sensitive to conjugation classes. The past indefinite forms of irregular verbs are provided in the description of conjugation classes above. The past forms of **conjugation class 2 and 3** verbs are constructed by attaching the suffix *-j-* and a person ending to the infinitive stem.

tēr-ē-t ‘to spend (money)’ (conjugation class 2), *las-ī-t* ‘to read’, *māc-ī-ties* ‘to learn, study’ (conjugation class 3)

Person	PST	
	SG	PL
1	<i>tēr-ē-j-u, las-ī-j-u, māc-ī-j-os</i>	<i>tēr-ē-j-ām, las-ī-j-ām, māc-ī-j-āmies</i>
2	<i>tēr-ē-j-i, las-ī-j-i, māc-ī-j-ies</i>	<i>tēr-ē-j-āt, las-ī-j-āt, māc-ī-j-āties</i>
3	<i>tēr-ē-j-a, las-ī-j-a, māc-ī-j-ās</i>	

Table 2.36 The past indefinite forms of conjugation class 2 and 3 verbs

Constructing the past form of **conjugation class 1** verbs may consist of attaching a person ending to an unmodified infinitive stem (2.5.41a) or it may additionally involve apophony (2.5.41b) or fronting (2.5.41c).

(2.5.41) INF – PST 1SG

- a. *augt* ‘to grow’, *mest* ‘to throw’, *vest* ‘to drive, carry’, *vilk-t* ‘to draw’, *pirkt* ‘to buy’, *kāpt* ‘to climb, ascend’, *glābt* ‘to save’, *tīt* ‘to wrap’, *pīt* ‘to braid, weave’ – *augu* ‘(I) grew’, *metu* ‘(I) threw’, *vedu* ‘(I) drove, carried’, *vilku* ‘(I) drew’, *pirku* ‘(I) bought’, *kāpu* ‘(I) climbed, ascended’, *glābu* ‘(I) saved’, *tinu* ‘(I) wrapped’, *pinu* ‘(I) braided, weaved’
- b. *dzert* ‘to drink’, *svērt* ‘to weigh’, *liet* ‘to pour’, *smiet* ‘to laugh’, *kraut* ‘to load’, *pļaut* ‘to mow’ – *dzēru* ‘(I) drank’, *svēru* ‘(I) weighed’, *lēju* ‘(I) poured’, *smēju* ‘(I) laughed’, *krāvu* ‘(I) loaded’, *rāvu* ‘(I) pulled’
- c. *saukt* ‘to call’, *braukt* ‘to drive, go (to)’, *lūgt* ‘to ask’, *kliegt* ‘to scream’ – *saucu* ‘(I) called’, *braucu* ‘(I) drove, went (to)’, *lūdzu* ‘(I) asked’, *kliedzu* ‘(I) screamed’

Some verbs, such as *vīt* ‘to weave, wind, twine’, *rīt* ‘to gobble, swallow’, *mīt* ‘to exchange’, etc., take a root-internal *ī – ij* alternation to prevent vowel clustering at the root and ending junction.

(2.5.42) INF – PST 1SG

- vīt* ‘to weave, wind, twine’, *rīt* ‘to gobble, swallow’, *mīt* ‘to exchange’ – *viju* ‘(I) weaved, wound, twined’, *riju* ‘(I) gobbled, swallowed’, *miju* ‘(I) exchanged’

In addition, a number of verbs take the suffix *-j-* in past tense forms.

(2.5.43) INF – PST 1SG

- klāt* ‘to cover’, *rāt* ‘to rebuke’, *plāt* ‘to flatten, thin’ – *klāju* ‘(I) covered’, *rāju* ‘(I) rebuked’, *plāju* ‘(I) flattened, thinned’

vilk-t ‘to draw’, *tī-t* ‘to wrap’, *smie-ties* ‘to laugh’, *pļau-t* ‘to mow’, *sauk-t* ‘to call’, *klā-t* ‘to cover’

Person	PST	
	SG	PL
1	<i>vilk-u, tin-u, smēj-os, pļāv-u, sauc-u, klā-j-u</i>	<i>vilk-ām, tin-ām, smēj-āmies, pļāv-ām, sauc-ām, klā-j-ām</i>
2	<i>vilk-i, tin-i, smēj-ies, pļāv-i, sauc-i, klā-j-i</i>	<i>vilk-āt, tin-āt, smēj-āties, pļāv-āt, sauc-āt, klā-j-āt</i>
3	<i>vilk-a, tin-a, smēj-ās, pļāv-a, sauc-a, klā-j-a</i>	

Table 2.37 The past indefinite forms of conjugation class 1 verbs

The verbs *gulties* ‘to lie down’ (2.5.44a) and *plest* ‘to spread’ (2.5.44b) permit two parallel sets of past tense forms. It is not recommended to fuse the parallel paradigms together in language use.

- (2.5.44) a. *gul-ās* and *gūl-ās* ‘lay down’
 b. *plet-a* and *plēt-a* ‘spread’

The **future indefinite** of all verbs is derived in the same manner – by attaching the future tense suffix *-š-* in 1SG and *-s-* in all other persons and numbers to an unmodified infinitive stem. In Standard Latvian, the future indefinite second-person plural permits two alternative endings: *-it* and *-iet* (see Section 2.5.2 for details).

smie-ties ‘to laugh’ (conjugation class 1), *tēr-ē-t* ‘to spend (money)’ (conjugation class 2), *las-ī-t* ‘to read’ (conjugation class 3)

Person	FUT	
	SG	PL
1	<i>smie-š-os, tēr-ē-š-u, las-ī-š-u</i>	<i>smie-s-imies, tēr-ē-s-im, las-ī-s-im</i>
2	<i>smie-s-ies, tēr-ē-s-i, las-ī-s-i</i>	<i>smie-s-ities/-ieties, tēr-ē-s-it/-iet, las-ī-s-it/-iet</i>
3	<i>smie-s-ies, tēr-ē-s-ø, las-ī-s-ø</i>	

Table 2.38 The future indefinite forms of all conjugation classes

Conjugation class 1 verbs with a root-final *t*, *d*, *s*, or *z* take the interfix *-ī-* between the root and the future tense suffix to avoid unpronounceable consonant clusters (see section 1.1.3).

(2.5.45) INF – FUT 1SG, 1PL

- a. *vērs-t* – *vērt-(ī)-š-u, vērt-(ī)-s-im* ‘to direct, turn – (I) will direct, turn, (we) will direct, turn’
 b. *aus-t* – *aud-(ī)-š-u, aud-(ī)-s-im* ‘to weave – (I) will weave, (we) will weave’
 c. *nes-t* – *nes-(ī)-š-u, nes-(ī)-s-im* ‘to carry – (I) will carry, (we) will carry’
 d. *lauz-t* – *lauz-(ī)-š-u, lauz-(ī)-s-im* ‘to break – (I) will break, (we) will break’

Perfect tense forms are analytical, conjugation class-independent, and consist of the auxiliary verb *būt* ‘to be’ in a finite form and a declinable past active participle inflected for number and gender.

dziedāt ‘to sing’, *smieties* ‘to laugh’

Person	SG				PL			
	PRS	PST	FUT	<i>dziedāj-is</i> (M), <i>-usi</i> (F) ‘sung’; <i>smēj-ies</i> (M), <i>-usies</i> (F) ‘laughed’	PRS	PST	FUT	<i>dziedāj-uši</i> (M), <i>-ušas</i> (F) ‘sung’; <i>smēj-ušies</i> (M), <i>-ušās</i> (F) ‘laughed’
1	<i>esmu</i> ‘have’	<i>biju</i> ‘had’	<i>būšu</i> ‘will have’		<i>esam</i> ‘have’	<i>bijām</i> ‘had’	<i>būsim</i> ‘will have’	
2	<i>esi</i>	<i>biji</i>	<i>būsi</i>		<i>esat</i>	<i>bijāt</i>	<i>būsit/-iet</i>	
3	<i>ir</i>	<i>bija</i>	<i>būs</i>		<i>ir</i>	<i>bija</i>	<i>būs</i>	

Table 2.39 The paradigm of perfect tense forms (the indicative mood)

In addition, Latvian also has a special kind of past perfect indicative (used, for the most part, in colloquial speech, and sometimes in literary and mass media texts) composed of the past tense form of the auxiliary verb *tikt* ‘to get’ (in all persons) and a declinable past active participle (Kalnača 2013c: 479–480):

- (2.5.46) a. *Par visu to es tiku*
 about all.ACC that.ACC I.NOM **get.AUX.PST.1SG**
jau rakstījis 2013. gada novembrī.
 already write.PTCP.NOM.M 2013 year.GEN.M November.LOC.M
 ‘I had already written about all this in November 2013.’ (www.satori.lv)
- b. *Savus gadus viņa nekad netika*
 own.ACC.PL.M year.ACC.PL.M she.NOM never **not_get.AUX.PST.3**
slēpusi.
hide.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘She had never made a secret of her age.’ (R. Ezera)
- c. *Iepriekšējā gadā liktenis atkal stilisti*
 previous.LOC.M year.LOC.M fate.NOM.M again stylist.ACC.F
netika saudzējis.
not_get.AUX.PST.3 spare.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Last year, again, fate had not been kind to the stylist.’ (Kas Jauns)
- d. *Pa visiem tiem gadiem, kopš viņi dzīvo mūsu mājā,*
ne reizes netikām Armīnu šeit
 NEG.PTCL time.GEN.F **not_get.AUX.PST.1PL** Armīns.ACC.M here
redzējušas...
see.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
 ‘In all these years that they have been living in our house we hadn’t seen Armīns here, not once.’ (G. Priede)

dziedāt ‘to sing’, *smieties* ‘to laugh’

Person	SG		PL	
1	<i>tiku</i> ‘(I) had’	<i>dziedāj-is</i> (M), -uši (F) ‘sung’; <i>smēj-ies</i> (M), -usies (F) ‘laughed’	<i>tikām</i> ‘(we) had’	<i>dziedāj-uši</i> (M), -ušas (F) ‘sung’; <i>smēj-ušies</i> (M), -ušās (F) ‘laughed’
2	<i>tiki</i> ‘(you) had’		<i>tikāt</i> ‘(you) had’	
3	<i>tika</i> ‘(he/she/it) had’		<i>tika</i> ‘(they) had’	

Table 2.40 Past perfect indicative with the auxiliary verb *tikt* ‘to get’

The above forms express the so-called dynamic perfect as opposed to the static perfect of the basic present and past perfect. The difference in meaning springs from the auxiliary *tikt* ‘to get’, which stands for processes as distinct from the verb *būt* ‘to be’, which represents states. Although, in Latvian, these forms have no counterparts

in other tenses and moods, similar variability of perfect forms and meanings based on the lexical meaning of auxiliaries exists in the passive voice (see Section 2.5.5).

The meaning of any tense form can vary depending on contextual use. Latvian draws a basic distinction between indefinite (simple) and perfect (complex) tense forms. The former characterize an action relative to the moment of speaking or another action but do not provide an evaluation of its resultativeness. The characteristic common feature of the latter, on the contrary, is that they express resultativeness, i.e., an evaluation of the consequences of a previously performed action relative to the present moment (present perfect) or a moment in the past (past perfect) or future (future perfect) (Skujiņa 2007: 336). A perfect tense form always expresses a completed action irrespective of whether there is a verbal prefix (see Section 2.5.8 on verbal prefixes and aspect).

The basic meanings of tense forms in Latvian can be summarized as follows:

THE PRESENT INDEFINITE

1. The **primary meaning** – an action taking place at the moment of speaking.

(2.5.47) *Divas sievietes sēž uz soliņa un nerunā.*
 two.NOM.PL.F woman.NOM.PL.F sit.PRS.3 on bench.GEN.M and
not_speak.PRS.3
 ‘Two women are sitting on the bench and are not talking (to each other).’
 (N. Ikstena)

2. Generalized time

(2.5.48) *Laukos jau tā ir: visi kopā strādā, un visi kopā iet ēst.*
 countryside.LOC.PL.M PTCL so be.PRS.3 all.NOM.PL.M together
work.PRS.3 and all.NOM.PL.M together **go.PRS.3 eat.INF**
 ‘That’s the way things are in the countryside: everyone works together and then everyone goes and eats together.’ (Ieva)

3. Future time

(2.5.49) *Uz Gruziju pēc nedēļas dodamies pirmo reizi mūžā.*
 to Georgia.ACC.F after week.GEN.F leave_for.PRS.1PL first.ACC.F
 time.ACC.F lifetime.LOC.M
 ‘We are going to Georgia in a week’s time for the first time in our lives.’
 (Diena)

4. Narrative present (*praesens historicum*), an entire text or a segment of a narrative being expressed in the present indefinite (in fiction, fairy tales, tales, business texts, etc.)

(2.5.50) *Vienu dienu viņš brauc maksšķerēt uz ezeru. Maksšķerētājs apsēžas uz strupa, plata liellaivu piestājamā steķa, izņem no brezenta somas tārpu bundžu un grāmatu. Viņš liek tārpu uz āķa, met maksšķeri ūdenī un pats iegrimst grāmatā. Zivis kustina pludiņu. Ja kāda rauda pieķeras, jāmet atpakaļ ezerā. Tad viņš izvelk vienu asari, otru.*

‘One day he goes fishing on the lake. The fisherman sits down on a stumpy, broad barge mooring bollard, gets a can of worms and a book out of a canvas bag. He baits a worm, casts the fishing rod, and immerses himself in reading. Fish pull the bobber. If a roach gets caught he has to throw it back into the lake. Then he lands one perch, another.’ (Dz. Sodums)

5. Present perfect meaning

(2.5.51) *Bet cienītā kundze, vai jūs nepadomājat*
 but dear.NOM.F madam.NOM.F Q you.NOM.PL not_think.PRS.2PL
 (= *neesat padomājusi*),
 (= not_be.AUX.PRS.2PL think.PTCP.NOM.F),

ka cilvēks uzzinot rēķinu, kas Jums jāmaksā, uztrauksies vēl vairāk?

‘But, dear Madam, hasn’t it occurred to you that when that person finds out the amount you have to pay they will worry even more?’ (www.apollo.lv)

6. Adjusting to the contextual meaning of surrounding tense forms (usually in subordinate clauses).

(2.5.52) *Viņš vairākkārt redzēja sapnī,*

kā viņa stāv mēnesnīcā
 how she.NOM stand.PRS.3 moonlight.LOC.F
ar paceltu roku,
 with elevate.INS.F hand.INS.F

bet pamodies nekad neatcerējās.

‘Several times he saw in a dream how she’d stand in the moonlight with one hand lifted, but when he’d wake up he’d never remember it.’ (R. Ezera)

THE PAST INDEFINITE

1. The primary meaning – an action that took place prior to the moment of speaking.

(2.5.53) *Visi klātesošie dziedāja [mūziķiem] līdzi.*
 all.NOM.PL.M attendant.NOM.PL.M sing.PST.3 [musician] along
 ‘Everybody sang along [with the musicians].’ (J. Jonevs)

2. Generalized time

(2.5.54) *Zirgs ar vilku tiesājās, tikai aste ar*
 horse.NOM.M with wolf.INS.M litigate.PST.3 only tail.NOM.F with
krēpēm atlikās.
 mane.INS.PL.F remain.PST.3

‘When the horse took the wolf to court, the tail and mane were all that remained.’ (a Latvian proverb)

3. Narrative past, an entire text or a segment of a narrative being set in the past indefinite

(2.5.55) *Teātra primadonnas laulības ar desmit gadus jaunāku aktieri, kas pabāli spēlēja otrā un trešā plāna lomiņas, izvērtās par sensāciju, protams, īslaicīgu. Viņam glaimoja sievas slava un izcilie tituli. Savukārt viņa jaunā vīra klātbūtnē kļuva vēl spožāka, lai gan viņas spožumam arī līdz šim trūka robežu. Pasaulē nebija lomas, ko viņa nespētu nospēlēt.*

‘The marriage of the leading actress to an undistinguished supporting actor ten years her junior caused a sensation – short-lived, of course. He was flattered by his wife’s fame and distinguished titles. She became even more brilliant with a young husband by her side, not that her brilliance had been limited in any way before. There wasn’t a role in the whole world she couldn’t play.’ (R. Ezera)

4. Present perfect meaning

(2.5.56) *Pētot dokumentus, Latvijas valsts mežu speciālisti noskaidrojuši,*
ka kādreiz te bija (= ir bijušas)
 that once here be.PST.3 (= be.AUX.PRS.3 be.PTCP.NOM.PL.F)
parkveida pļavas ar ozoliem.
 park_type.GEN.M meadow.NOM.PL.F with oak_tree.INS.PL.M
 ‘When studying the documents, the specialists from Latvia’s State Forests found out that the area was once occupied by park-like meadows with oak trees.’ (www.delfi.lv)

5. Past perfect meaning

(2.5.57) *Kad apprecējāmies (= bijām apprecējušies),*
 when marry.PST.1PL (= be.AUX.PST.1PL marry.PTCP.NOM.PL.M)
sākām dzīvot Rūjienā.
 ‘When we got married we started living in Rūjiena.’ (Ieva)

THE FUTURE INDEFINITE

1. The **primary meaning** – an action that will take place after the moment of speaking.

(2.5.58) *Nav pat skaidrības,*
vai jēkad viņi viens otru vēl redzēs.
 if ever they.NOM.PL.M one.NOM.M another.ACC.M again see.FUT.3
 ‘It’s not even clear that they will see each other ever again.’ (N. Ikstena)

2. Generalized time

(2.5.59) *Lēnāk brauksi, tālāk tiks.*
 slow go.FUT.2SG farther get.FUT.2SG
 ‘Travel slower, get farther.’ (a Latvian proverb equivalent to “Slow and steady wins the race.”)

3. Narrative future, an entire text or a segment of a narrative being set in the future indefinite

(2.5.60) “*Tā. Tūlīt jūs dosities klasē. Es iešu līdz un stādīšu jūs priekšā. Cerēsim, ka viss noritēs labi.*”

“‘So. In a moment, you will enter the classroom. I will accompany you and present you. Let’s hope all will go well.’” (A. Eglītis)

4. Modal function, expressing doubt (in the present), also in polite expressions, apologies, etc.

(2.5.61) a. *Vakars* *it kā jauks,* *bet laikam*
 evening.NOM.M as if fine.NOM.M but probably
būšu (= *esmu*) *slima.*
 be.COP.FUT.1SG (= be.COP.PRS.1SG) ill.NOM.F
 ‘It’s a fine evening, so it would seem, but I think I’m going to be ill.’
 (www.twitter.com)

b. *Neko tuvāk laikam nevarēšu*
 nothing.ACC closer probably not_be_able.FUT.1SG
jums paskaidrot.
 you.DAT.PL explain.INF
 ‘I think I will be unable to explain anything further to you.’ (G. Priede)

5. Expressing a categorical command or a threat (predominantly, in colloquial speech in conjunction with a personal pronoun in the dative case, i.e., *ethical dative*).

(2.5.62) *Tu man to Ernestu neprecēsi!*
 you.NOM.SG I.EMPH that.ACC.M Ernests.ACC.M not_marry.FUT.2SG
 ‘I won’t allow you to marry that Ernests!’ (V. Belševica)

6. Future perfect meaning

(2.5.63) *Mēs arī tā darīsim,*
tiklīdz atpūtišos (= būšu atpūties)
 as_soon_as rest.FUT.1SG (= be.AUX.FUT.1SG rest.PTCP.NOM.M)
no saviem pēdējiem darbiem.
 from own.DAT.PL.M last.DAT.PL.M job.DAT.PL.M
 ‘We will do the same as soon as I recover (= will have recovered) from my last jobs.’ (C)

THE PRESENT PERFECT

1. The **primary meaning** – pointing to the consequences of a previously completed action in the present, expressing an action state.

(2.5.64) a. *Aktīvā satiksme [pilsētā] liecina,*
ka darba diena ir sākusies.
 that work.GEN.M day.NOM.F be.AUX.PRS.3 begin.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘Busy traffic [in the city] shows that the work day has begun.’ (Ieva)

- b. *Esmu* *noguris,* *gribētos* *visu*
be.AUX.PRS.1SG **tired.PTCP.NOM.M** wish.COND all.ACC.M
aizmirst.
 forget.INF
 ‘I’m tired, I’d like to forget everything.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

2. Generalized time

- (2.5.65) *Rakstniekam* *nekad* *mūžā* *nav*
 writer.DAT.M never lifetime.LOC.M **not_be.AUX.PRS.3**
bijis *sava* *dzīvokļa.*
be.PTCP.NOM.M own.GEN.M apartment.GEN.M
 ‘The writer has never had an apartment of his own during his life.’
 (L. Volkova)

3. Narrative tense, an entire text or a segment of a narrative being set in the present perfect

- (2.5.66) *Jāmaksā... Domās kaut kā gluži nejauši ir uzniris šis vārds. Jāmaksā... Ar ko un kā? Kur un kad esmu to lasījis? Un kādā sakarībā? Jā, viņš ir maksājis augstu cenu. Noguris maksādams. Sapinies parādu verdzībā. Un tālāk – šitā pat vēl divdesmit gadus – līdz pensijai?*
 ‘Have to pay... The words sprang to mind as if out of nowhere. Have to pay... With what and how? Where and when did I read them? And in what connection? Yes, he has paid dearly. Got tired paying. Became immersed in debt servitude. And what’s next – another twenty years of the same – up until retirement?’ (R. Ezera)

THE PAST PERFECT

1. The **primary meaning** – evaluating the consequences of a completed action at a point in the past.

- (2.5.67) *Šo tekstu es izlasīju brīdī,*
kad jau biju uzrakstījusi
 when already **be.AUX.PST.1SG** **write.PTCP.NOM.F**
par visām režisora izrādēm.
 about all.DAT.PL.F director.GEN.M staging.DAT.PL.F
 ‘When I read this text I had already written about all the director’s productions.’ (I. Zole)

2. Generalized time

- (2.5.68) *Dzīvojot Amerikā, mums vienmēr bija*
 live.PTCP.IDECL America.LOC.F we.DAT always **be.COP.PST.3**
bijusi svarīga Latvija.
be.PTCP.NOM.F important.NOM.F Latvia.NOM.F
 ‘Living in America, Latvia had always been important to us.’
 (Latvijas Avīze)

3. Narrative tense (small fragments of a text)

(2.5.69) *Viņas skatienam, viņas balsij nebija nekādas varas pār Askolda izjūtām. Viņa bija izcīnījusi uzvaru un ieguvusi tiesības uz šo cilvēku. Viņa bija to karsti vēlējusies un gribējusi par katru cenu, lūgusies un pazemojusies, pieprasījusi un uzstājusi.*

‘Her glance, her voice had no power over Askolds’ feelings. She had won a victory and gained the right to this man. She had wished it ardently and wanted it at all costs, she had begged and humiliated herself, demanded and insisted.’ (R. Ezera)

THE FUTURE PERFECT

1. The **primary meaning** – evaluating the consequences of a completed action at a point in the future.

(2.5.70) *Kad iznāks žurnāls,*

<i>aktrise</i>	<i>jau</i>	<i>būs</i>	<i>nospēlējusi</i>
actress.NOM.F	already	be.AUX.FUT.3	perform.PTCP.NOM.F

<i>galveno</i>	<i>lomu</i>
main.ACC.F	role.ACC.F

ļoti sarežģītā pirmizrādē.

very difficult.LOC.F premiere.LOC.F

‘When the magazine comes out, the actress will have already played the lead role in a very difficult premiere.’ (Santa)

2. Modal function (present perfect meaning), also in polite expressions, apologies, etc.

(2.5.71) a. *Par pozitīvo kalcija un D vitamīna*
 about positive.ACC.F calcium.GEN.M and D vitamin.GEN.M
ietekmi uz organismu reti kurš
 effect.ACC.F on body.ACC.M rarely who.NOM.M
nebūs dzirdējis vai lasījis.
 not_be.AUX.FUT.3 hear.PTCP.NOM.M or read.PTCP.NOM.M

‘There won’t be many who will not have heard or read about the positive effects of calcium and Vitamin D on the human body.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

b. *Vai es būšu ko sajaucis?*
 Q I.NOM be.AUX.FUT.1SG what.ACC mix_up.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Have I gotten something wrong?’ (G. Priede)

In the grammatical system of Latvian, tense relations find their clearest reflection in the active indicative – as a totality, or a complex, of symmetrical indefinite and perfect tense forms in the present, past, and future with diverse contextual uses (Paegle 2003: 97). This complex of tense forms, then, can be viewed as the center of the functional system of verbal tense forms (Paulauskienė 1994: 326). Non-indicative (oblique, conditional, and debitive mood) tense forms, passive voice tense forms

as well as participial forms of the verb are, in this sense, peripheral. Their basic function is to convey modal, voice, and sequence meanings rather than to encode tense relations.

Tenses expressed by verb forms in the oblique, debitive, and conditional moods are usually construed relative to contextual indicative mood tense forms in terms of simultaneity, anteriority, and posteriority (see Section 2.5.4). Likewise, verb participles can express either simultaneity (present participles, partly declinable and indeclinable participles) or anteriority (past participles).

The active and passive voices both have six tense forms in the indicative mood and similar systems of tense forms in the oblique and conditional moods (see Section 2.5.5). The meanings and uses of corresponding active and passive voice tense forms are also much the same. Since the principal function of passive voice forms is to name actions whose agent is unspecified or unimportant expressing tense meanings should be considered peripheral to such forms.

2.5.4 Mood

The category of mood expresses modality as well as the speaker's attitude towards the contents of an utterance or the reality of an action (Skujina 2007: 173). In Latvian, the verbal category of mood comprises five moods: the indicative, oblique, conditional, debitive, and imperative moods. With regard to the reality or non-reality of actions the moods are classified as follows (Paegle 2003: 113):

Realis	Irrealis
<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Oblique</i>
	<i>Conditional</i>
	<i>Debitive</i>
	<i>Imperative</i>

In Latvian, the **indicative mood** is grammatically unmarked, actions considered to be realis are expressed by means of the indefinite and perfect indicative tense forms (see the description of the category of tense in Section 2.5.3). Irrealis moods, on the contrary, are grammatically marked: the suffix *-ot, -oties* is used to form the oblique, the suffix *-tu, -tos* – the conditional, the prefix *jā-* – the debitive, and the ending *-iet* – the imperative mood.

Oblique mood

The oblique mood is used to renarrate information originating from another source (2.5.72a-b) or indicate that the speaker is unsure as to whether it is actually true (2.5.72c-d) (Skujina 2007: 55). Oblique sentences often contain a *verbum dicendi* (construed literally or figuratively) signaling that the text is being renarrated, i.e., that it involves second-hand information.

- (2.5.72) a. *Sieviete noprasīja, kurš no bērnības*
 woman.NOM.F ask.PST.3 who.NOM.M from childhood.GEN.F
atceroties kādu skaitāmpantiņu.
 remember.OBL.PRS some.ACC.M nursery_rhyme.ACC.M
 ‘The woman asked who could remember a nursery rhyme from their
 childhood.’ (C)
- b. *Viņa atteicās [...] starpgadījumu komentēt, sakot,*
ka vispirms konsultēšoties ar juristu.
 that at_first consult.OBL.FUT with lawyer.INS.M
 ‘She refused [...] to comment on the incident, saying that she would
 consult her lawyer first.’ (C)
- c. *Alma pati stāstīja,*
ka viņai esot jūras zilās
 that she.DAT be.COP.OBL.PRS sea.GEN.F blue.NOM.PL.F
acis.
 eye.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Alma said so herself, that she had sea blue eyes.’ (I. Ābele)
- d. *Šogad būsot ļoti silta*
 this_year be.COP.OBL.FUT very warm.NOM.F
vasara, prognozē sinoptiķi.
 summer.NOM.F forecast.PRS.3 meteorologist.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The meteorologists are forecasting a very warm summer this year.’
 (Kas Jauns)

In addition, the oblique mood is sometimes used to show that the speaker feels surprised at something while also being ironic or disapproving about it (i.e., mirativity, see DeLancey 1997, 2012; Aikhenvald 2004, 2012; Kalviša 2018 for detail).

- (2.5.73) a. *Un tās esot draudzenes!*
 and that.NOM.PL.F be.COP.OBL.PRS friend.NOM.PL.F
 ‘And they’re supposed to be friends!’ (G. Priede)
- b. *Un grīda!*
Tas esot parkets!
 that.NOM.M be.COP.OBL.PRS parquet_floor.NOM.M
Melns kā darva!
 ‘And the floor! That’s supposed to be parquet! It’s pitch black!’
 (A. Eglītis)

The quotative semantics of oblique forms is often considered an obstacle to viewing the oblique as a verb mood (see, e.g., Holvoet 2007: 87). However, since Latvian oblique forms are also used to express doubt about the truth of what is said (e.g., examples (2.5.73)), which is a typical modal meaning, and, in addition, it is not uncommon for both meanings (referencing second-hand information and conveying modality) to co-occur in one sentence (see examples (2.5.72c–d)), the oblique can be classified as a verb mood without causing any inconsistencies as to the use of forms in the language.

The oblique forms are derived by attaching the suffix *-ot*, *-oties* to the present or future stem of a verb.

(2.5.74) a. INF – PRS – OBL PRS

dari-t – dar-u – dar-ot ‘to do – (I) do – reportedly do(es)’

cel-ties – ceļ-os – ceļ-oties ‘to rise – (I) rise – reportedly rise(s)’

b. INF – FUT – OBL FUT

dari-t – dariš-u – dari-š-ot ‘to do – (I) will do – will reportedly do’

cel-ties – celš-os – celš-oties ‘to rise – (I) will rise – will reportedly rise’

The perfect oblique forms involve the auxiliary verb *esot* ‘reportedly am / is / are’ (PRS) or *būšot* ‘will reportedly be’ (FUT) and a declinable past active participle.

(2.5.75) a. *Visi sacīja –*

tas

esot

bijis

that.NOM.M

be.COP.OBL.PRS

be.PTCP.NOM.M

prātiģi

no

vecās

dāmas

puses.

prudent

of

old.GEN.F

lady.GEN.F

side.GEN.F

‘Everyone said – it was prudent on the part of the old lady.’ (C)

b. *Viņš samaksāšot parādu pēc tam,*

kad

būšot

saņēmis

plānoto

when

be.AUX.OBL.FUT

receive.PTCP.NOM.M

plan.PTCP.ACC.F

naudu.

money.ACC.F

‘He says he will repay the debt when, as he says, he will have received the expected amount of money.’ (C)

Since the oblique mood lacks person forms, person meanings are derived from clause subjects.

(2.5.76) a. *es darot, tu darot* ‘I reportedly do, you reportedly do’

b. *mēs darišot, viņi darišot* ‘we will reportedly do, they will reportedly do’

c. *es esot gājis, tu esot gājis* ‘I have reportedly gone, you have reportedly gone’

d. *mēs būšot gājuši, viņi būšot gājuši* ‘we will reportedly have gone, they will reportedly have gone’

The oblique mood has the following paradigm of forms:

dar-ī-t ‘to do’, *cel-ties* ‘to rise’

Tense	Indefinite	Perfect		
			SG	PL
PRS	<i>dar-ot</i> ‘reportedly do(es)’, <i>ceļ-oties</i> ‘reportedly rise(s)’	<i>es-ot</i> ‘have / has reportedly’	<i>darij-is</i> (M), <i>darij-usi</i> (F) ‘done’	<i>darij-uši</i> (M), <i>darij-ušas</i> (F) ‘done’
FUT	<i>dariš-ot</i> ‘will reportedly do’, <i>ceļš-oties</i> ‘will reportedly rise’	<i>būš-ot</i> ‘will have reportedly’	<i>cēl-ies</i> (M), <i>-usies</i> (F) ‘risen’	<i>cēl-ušies</i> (M), <i>-ušās</i> (F) ‘risen’

Table 2.41 The paradigm of oblique forms

The auxiliary verb *esot* ‘reportedly am / is / are’ is often omitted in the present perfect oblique, especially in longer stretches of text, in tales, fairy tales, etc.

(2.5.77) *Par deviņpadsmito gadu vectēvam daudz bija stāstījis viņa tēvs, kas lielinieku laiku kopā ar Morbergu bija pārlaidis namā iepretim Bastejkalnam. Kādu nakti pie durvīm pavēloši [esot] **klauvēts**. Morbergs [esot] **uzvilcis** un atkal [esot] **novilcis** ziemas mēteli ar lapsādas odiri un [esot] **atdevis** Ulstem. Jaunās varas mērķis tomēr [esot] **izrādījies** cits – Morberga dzīvokļa un mantas atsavināšana. Paglābtais mētelis Morbergam vēlāk [esot] labi **noderējis**.*

‘Grandfather had heard a lot about the year 1919 from his father, who had spent the Bolshevik period together with Morbergs in a house opposite Bastejkalns. One night they heard someone knocking commandingly on the door. Morbergs put on his winter coat with the fox-fur collar, then took it off again and gave it to Ulste. It turned out though that the new government had other intentions – confiscation of Morbergs’ apartment and belongings. The rescued coat proved useful to Morbergs later on.’ (Z. Skujiņš)

In colloquial speech and literary texts, the present perfect oblique negative is sometimes formed by merging the auxiliary verb *neesot* ‘reportedly have / has not’ with a declinable past active participle into one combined form.

(2.5.78) *neesot teicis* (M)/-usi (F) ‘reportedly have / has not told’, *neesot rakstījis* (M)/-usi (F) ‘reportedly have / has not written’, *neesot devis* (M)/-usi (F) ‘reportedly have / has not given’

→

neteicis (M)/-kusi (F) ‘having not told / without telling’, *nerakstījis* (M)/-usi (F) ‘having not written / without writing’, *nedevis* (M)/-usi (F) ‘having not given / without giving’

(2.5.79) a. *Kad mājas saimnieks teicis,*

<i>lai</i>	<i>[kaimiņi]</i>	<i>savācot</i>	<i>[izbērtās]</i>
SUB	[neighbor]	clear.OBL.PRS	[scatter
<i>smiltis],</i>	<i>[tie esot]</i>		<i>teikuši:</i>
sand]	[they be.AUX.OBL.PRS]		say.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
<i>jā, bet</i>	<i>nevākuši</i>		(= neesot
yes but	not_clear.PTCP.NOM.PL.M		(= not_be.AUX.OBL.PRS
	<i>vākuši).</i>		

clear.PTCP.NOM.PL.M)

‘When the house owner told [the neighbors] to clear [the scattered sand] away, [they reportedly] said: yes, but didn’t.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

b. *Lai gan ekspedīcija kopumā noritējusi veiksmīgi,*

<i>neizticis</i>	(= neesot
not_be_without.PTCP.NOM.M	(= not_be.AUX.OBL.PRS
<i>izticis)</i>	<i>arī bez starpgadījumiem.</i>
be_without.PTCP.NOM.M	also without incident.GEN.PL.M

‘Although, on the whole, the expedition has gone well, it has not been without incidents.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In relation to indicative tense forms appearing in the same context, the present indefinite oblique expresses simultaneity, the future indefinite oblique – posteriority, the present perfect oblique – resultativeness of a previously completed action at the time of the main event of the clause, and the future perfect oblique – resultativeness of a completed action at a point prior to another future event.

Conditional mood

The conditional mood is used to name a desirable or an imaginary, unreal action (Skujiņa 2007: 440).

- (2.5.80) a. *Vecākiem bija ļoti svarīgi,*
lai mēs ar māsu mācītos tālāk.
 SUB we.NOM with sister.INS.F **study.COND** further
 ‘It was very important to our parents that I and my sister continue our education.’ (Ieva)
- b. *Filipam likās, itin kā viņu kāds*
 Philip.DAT.M seem.PST as_if he.ACC someone.NOM.M
novērotu.
watch.COND
 ‘Philip felt as if someone was watching him.’ (A. Eglītis)

The conditional mood is also used in different kinds of exclamations conveying wishes (2.5.81) and in polite expressions, including polite requests (2.5.82) and (2.5.83).

- (2.5.81) a. *Kaut Anete būtu šeit līdzās!*
 PTCL Anete.NOM.F **be.COND** here by_side
 ‘I wish Anete was here by my side!’ (C)
- b. *Būtu es to toreiz zinājis!*
be.AUX.COND I.NOM it.ACC then **know.PTCP.NOM.M**
 ‘If only I knew it then!’ (J. Joņevs)
- (2.5.82) a. *Labdien, vai Dairis būtu jau mājās?*
 good_afternoon Q Dairis.NOM.M **be.COND** already home.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Good afternoon, is Dairis home yet?’ (G. Priede)
- b. *Būtu labāk, ja jūs ietu prom.*
be.COND better if you.NOM.PL **go.COND** away
 ‘It would be better if you left.’ (Dz. Sodums)

Requests phrased as negative conditionals are perceived as less direct and particularly polite.

- (2.5.83) a. *Vai tu nevarētu palīdzēt*
 Q you.NOM **not_be_able.COND** help.INF
žurnālistiem vadīt sporta raidījumu?
 journalist.DAT.PL.M anchor.INF sport.GEN.M program.ACC.M
 ‘You couldn’t help the journalists anchor the sports program, could you?’ (www.sportacentrs.lv)

- b. *Dairīt, vai tu neuznāktu pabeigt*
 Dairis.DIM.VOC Q you.NOM.SG **not_come.COND** finish.INF
[krāsot] to grīdu?
[paint.INF] that.ACC.F floor.ACC.F
 ‘Dairis, I don’t suppose you could come upstairs and finish [painting]
 that floor, could you?’ (G. Priede)

The conditional tense forms are constructed by attaching the suffix *-tu*, *-tos* to the infinitive stem of a verb.

(2.5.84) INF – COND

darī-t – darī-tu ‘to do – would do’,
cel-ties – cel-tos ‘to rise – would rise’

The present perfect conditional tense is formed by combining the auxiliary verb *būtu* ‘would be’ with a declinable past active participle.

- (2.5.85) *Ja mūs nebūtu mācījis tik labs*
 if we.ACC **not_be.AUX.COND** teach.PTCP.NOM.M such good.NOM.M
režisors,
 director.NOM.M
mēs nebūtu tik labs [aktieru] kurss.
 ‘If we hadn’t been trained by such a good director we wouldn’t have
 become such a good class [of actors].’ (Santa)

Just as the oblique forms, the conditional tense forms are not marked for person and person meanings are therefore derived from clause subjects.

- (2.5.86) a. *es darītu* ‘I would do’
 b. *tu darītu* ‘you would do’
 c. *mēs būtu darījuši* ‘we would have done’
 d. *jūs būtu cēlušies* ‘you (PL) would have risen’

The conditional mood has the following paradigm of forms:

dar-ī-t ‘to do’, *cel-ties* ‘to rise’

Tense	Indefinite	Perfect		
			SG	PL
PRS	<i>darī-tu</i> ‘would do’, <i>cel-tos</i> ‘would rise’	<i>bū-tu</i> ‘would have’	<i>darīj-is</i> (M), <i>darīj-usi</i> (F) ‘done’ <i>cēl-ies</i> (M), <i>-usies</i> (F) ‘risen’	<i>darīj-uši</i> (M), <i>darīj-ušas</i> (F) ‘done’ <i>cēl-ušies</i> (M), <i>-ušās</i> (F) ‘risen’

Table 2.42 The paradigm of conditional forms

In the present perfect conditional negative, just as in the present perfect oblique negative, the auxiliary verb *nebūtu* ‘would not have’ and the past active participle are sometimes fused into one combined form, mostly in colloquial speech and literary texts.

(2.5.87) *nebūtu aizgājuši* ‘wouldn’t have gone’, *nebūtu sācis* ‘wouldn’t have started’ → *neaizgājuši* ‘having not gone / without going’, *nesācis* ‘having not started / without starting’

Mēs būtu sadraudzējušies,

ja neaizgājuši (= *nebūtu*

if **not_go.PTCP.PL.M** (= **not_be.AUX.COND**

aizgājuši) *katrs uz savu fakultāti* [*studēt*].

go.PTCP.PL.M) each to own.ACC.F faculty.ACC.F [study]

‘We would have become friends if we hadn’t each gone to our own faculty [to study].’ (G. Priede)

Relative to indicative tense forms present in the same context, the present indefinite conditional may indicate either simultaneity or posteriority. The present perfect conditional, on the other hand, is used to express resultativeness.

Debitive mood

The debitive mood is used to name a necessary, obligatory action, i.e., an action that must be performed (Skujiņa 2007: 416).

(2.5.88) a. *Es zinu, ka man ir jāmaksā,*
I.NOM know.PRS.1SG that I.DAT **be.AUX.PRS.3** **DEB.pay**
un es maksāšu.

‘I know I must pay and I will.’ (C)

b. *Man bija jāatgūst miers.*
I.DAT **be.AUX.PST.3** **DEB.recover** peace.NOM.M

‘I had to recover peace of mind.’ (C)

c. *Būs jāaiziet pie ārsta,*
be.AUX.FUT.3 **DEB.go** to doctor.GEN.M
zāles beidzas.

‘I will have to go to the doctor, I am running out of pills.’ (C)

The debitive forms are analytical and consist of a tense form of the auxiliary verb *būt* ‘to be’ and the debitive form of a lexical verb derived by attaching the prefix *jā-* to the third-person present indefinite of the verb.

(2.5.89) INF – PRS – DEB

dar-ī-t – dar-a – ir jā-dar-a ‘to do – (he / she / it / they) do – must do’

cel-t-ies – cel-as – ir jācel-as. ‘to rise – (he / she / it / they) rise – must rise’

The verb *būt* ‘to be’ is an exception in this respect: its debitive form is constructed by attaching the prefix *jā-* to the infinitive.

(2.5.90) INF – DEB

bū-t – ir jā-bū-t ‘to be – must be’

The debitive forms are not marked for person; person is usually expressed by a dative clause subject.

- (2.5.91) a. *man ir jādara darbs*
 I.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.do job.NOM.M
 ‘I must do my job’
- b. *tev ir jāceļas augšā*
 you.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.get_up up
 ‘You have to get up’
- c. *mums bija jādara darbs*
 we.DAT be.AUX.PST.3 DEB.do job.NOM.M
 ‘We had to do our job’
- d. *jums būs jāceļas augšā*
 you.DAT.PL be.AUX.FUT.3 DEB.get_up up
 ‘You will have to get up’

The auxiliary verb *ir* ‘is / are’ is often omitted in the present indefinite debitive.

- (2.5.92) a. *Bet kāpēc māksla vispār [ir] jāsaprot?*
 but why art.NOM.F at_all [be.AUX.PRS.3] **DEB.understand**
 ‘But why does art need to be understood at all?’ (A. Eglitis)
- b. *Tur [ir] jābūt tādām ugunsdzēsēju kāpnītēm.*
 there [be.AUX.PRS.3] **DEB.be** such.DAT.PL.M fireman.GEN.PL.M
 ladder.DAT.PL.F
 ‘There should be one of those little fire escape ladders.’ (G. Priede)

Forming the debitive involves changes to sentence structure (see also Section 3.2.3).

- (2.5.93) *Es (S_{NOM}) daru darbu (O_{ACC})*
 I.NOM do.PRS.1 job.ACC.M
 ‘I do my job’
 →
Man (S_{DAT}) ir jādara darbs (O_{NOM}).
 I.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.do job.NOM.M
 ‘I must do my job’

Verbs in the debitive mood usually take a nominative object (2.5.94), with the exception of first- and second-person objects and the reflexive pronoun, which remain in the accusative (2.5.95).

- (2.5.94) a. **Viedokļi** ir jāsasakaņo.
opinion.NOM.PL.M be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.reconcile
 ‘Opinions must be reconciled.’ (C)
- b. *Jāmācās viss bija atkal no sākuma.*
 DEB.learn **everything.NOM.M** be.AUX.PST.3 again from
 beginning.GEN.M
 ‘Everything had to be learned all over again.’ (C)

- (2.5.95) a. *Man beidzot jāsatiek tevi un jāatdod grāmata.*
 I.DAT finally DEB.meet **you.ACC.SG** and DEB.give_back
 book.NOM.F
 ‘I must finally meet you and give you back the book.’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Ir reizes, kad man ir jāpiespiež sevi piecēties agrāk.*
 when I.DAT be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.force **self.ACC**
 wake_up.INF earlier
 ‘There are times when I have to force myself to wake up earlier.’
 (Kas Jauns)

In contemporary Latvian, when a verb in the debitive mood takes an infinitive, an object can be either in the nominative (2.5.96a) or the accusative (2.5.96b) (e.g., Paegle 2003: 119; Kalnača 2013c: 487).

- (2.5.96) a. *Kad suns pieradis pie saimnieka, tas jāsāk audzināt un mācīt.*
it.NOM.M DEB.begin raise.INF and teach.INF
 ‘As soon as a dog gets used to its master, it’s time to start training it and make it learn new things.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- b. *Ministram jāmēģina lauzt stereotipus.*
 minister.DAT.M DEB.try break.INF **stereotype.ACC.PL.M**
 ‘The minister must try to break stereotypes.’ (Diena)

The aforementioned fact that the debitive causes changes to sentence structure has given rise to a certain amount of discussion as to the status of these forms – are they best viewed as a verb mood, passive voice forms with a modal meaning or, perhaps, a group of special modal forms (Kalnača 2013c: 481, 2014: 115, Lokmane, Kalnača 2014, for details about the debate; also see Holvoet, Grzybowska 2014)? In Latvian, the debitive has passive voice forms just as other moods (see Section 2.5.5), in addition, constructions of the type *Man ir jālasa grāmata* ‘I must read a book’ express an action of a non-canonical subject in the active voice, making it impossible, on the whole, to view all debitive forms as a subtype of the passive voice. Another fact in favor of the mood interpretation is that the debitive is characterized by very homogeneous, regular semantics – expressing necessity, and debitive forms exist for all Latvian verbs.

Perfective actions are expressed by combining two auxiliary verbs: *būt* ‘to be’ in a finite form (i.e., *ir* ‘is, are’, *bija* ‘was, were’, *būs* ‘will be’) and *būt* ‘to be’ in the past active participle form *bijis*.

- (2.5.97) a. *Apgrozījums ir bijis jākāpina par apmēram 200 %.*
 turnover.NOM.M **be.AUX.PRS.3** **be.AUX.PTCP.NOM.M** **DEB.increase**
 by about 200 %
 ‘[We] have had to increase the turnover by approximately 200%.’ (C)

- b. *Šāds notikums vēl nebija*
 this.kind.NOM.M event.NOM.M yet not_be.AUX.PST.3
bijis jāpiedzīvo.
 be.AUX.PTCP.NOM.M DEB.experience
 ‘[I] had never had to experience such an event [before].’ (C)
- c. *Diez vai motoram būs bijis*
 PTCL PTCL engine.DAT.M be.AUX.FUT.3 be.AUX.PTCP.NOM.M
jāstrādā ekstrēmos apstākļos.
 DEB.work extreme.LOC.PL.M condition.LOC.PL.M
 ‘The engine will hardly have had to run under extreme conditions.’ (C)

The debitive mood has the following paradigm of forms:

dar-ī-t ‘to do’, *cel-ties* ‘to rise’

Tense	Indefinite		Perfect		
PRS	<i>ir</i> ‘have, has’	<i>jā-dara</i> ‘to do’, <i>jā-ceļas</i> ‘to rise’	<i>ir</i> ‘have, has’	<i>bijis</i> ‘had’	<i>jā-dara</i> ‘to do’, <i>jā-ceļas</i> ‘to rise’
PST	<i>bija</i> ‘had’		<i>bija</i> ‘had’		
FUT	<i>būs</i> ‘will have’		<i>būs</i> ‘will have’		

Table 2.43 The paradigm of debitive forms

In relation to indicative tense forms appearing in the same context, the debitive tense forms can express anteriority, simultaneity, or posteriority.

The debitive mood has two subtypes – the oblique debitive and the conditional debitive. The **oblique subtype** incorporates both debitive and oblique semantics and is used to renarrate another person’s necessity to perform an action (Skujiņa 2007: 416–417).

- (2.5.98) a. *Līdz Ankorvata templim esot jābrauc*
 to Angkor_Wat.GEN.M temple.DAT.M be.AUX.OBL.PRS DEB.drive
 30–40 minūtes.
 30–40 minute.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Apparently it’s a 30–40-minute drive to the Angkor Wat temple.’
 (www.delfi)
- b. *Tev, piemēram, būsot jāsāk strādāt,*
 you.DAT.SG for_example be.AUX.OBL.FUT DEB.begin work.INF
jāmācās, jāatmet dzeršana...
 DEB.study DEB.give_up drinking.NOM.F
 ‘You, for example, will apparently have to start working, will have to study, give up drinking...’ (G. Priede)

The oblique debitive forms are constructed by combining the debitive form of a lexical verb with an auxiliary verb in an oblique-mood form.

- (2.5.99) a. *esot jādara* ‘reportedly must do’, *būsot jādara* ‘reportedly will have to do’
 b. *esot jāceļas* ‘reportedly must rise’, *būsot jāceļas* ‘reportedly will have to rise’

The present indefinite oblique debitive has parallel formal variants – *ir jā-dar-ot, esot jā-dar-ot*, which mostly occur in colloquial speech and sometimes also in mass media and literary texts and are not considered acceptable in Standard Latvian.

(2.5.100) *Partijas vadītājs teica,*

ka premjeram esot jāzinot,
that prime_minister.DAT.M be.AUX.OBL.PRS DEB.know.OBL
ko viņš runā.

‘The head of the party said that the prime minister should know what he is talking about.’ (www.delfi.lv)

The oblique subtype of the debitive mood has the following paradigm of forms:

dar-ī-t ‘to do’, **cel-ties** ‘to rise’

Tense	Indefinite		Perfect		
PRS	<i>esot</i> ‘reportedly have / has’	<i>jā-dara</i> ‘to do’, <i>jā-ceļas</i> ‘to rise’	<i>esot</i> ‘reportedly have / has’	<i>bijis</i> ‘had’	<i>jā-dara</i> ‘to do’, <i>jā-ceļas</i> ‘to rise’
FUT	<i>būšot</i> ‘reportedly will have’		<i>būšot</i> ‘reportedly will have’		

Table 2.44 The paradigm of oblique debitive forms

The **conditional subtype** of the debitive mood combines debitive and conditional semantics and is used to name a possible or desirable action, which would have to be performed if conditions allowed (Skujiņa 2007: 417).

(2.5.101) a. *Un kāpēc taisni šeit tev būtu jāstrādā?*
and why exactly here you.DAT.SG be.AUX.COND DEB.work
‘And why would you have to work here of all places?’ (G. Priede)

b. *Man šķiet, nevienam nebūtu jāapšaubā dzejas antoloģijas nepieciešamība.*
nobody.DAT not_be.AUX.COND DEB.question poetry.GEN.F
anthology.GEN.F need.NOM.F
‘I think nobody should question the need for a poetry anthology.’
(V. Rūmnieks, A. Migla)

The conditional subtype of the debitive mood has the following paradigm of forms:

dar-ī-t ‘to do’, **cel-ties** ‘to rise’

Tense	Indefinite		Perfect		
PRS	<i>būtu</i> ‘would have’	<i>jā-dara</i> ‘to do’, <i>jā-ceļas</i> ‘to rise’	<i>būtu</i> ‘would have’	<i>bijis</i> ‘had’	<i>jā-dara</i> ‘to do’, <i>jā-ceļas</i> ‘to rise’

Table 2.45 The paradigm of conditional debitive forms

Alongside the debitive forms, Latvian also has a number of constructions for expressing necessity, all of which can be rephrased by means of the debitive. Such constructions are similar to the debitive mood in that, when there is a formally expressed subject, it is in the dative case.

The construction with the verb *vajadzēt* ‘to need, require’ + infinitive is widely used in colloquial speech and mass media texts.

- (2.5.102) a. *Šo [mūzikas] albūmu nevajag klausīties*
 this.ACC.M [music] album.ACC.M **not_need.PRS.3** **listen.INF**
cilvēkiem ar depresīvām nosliecēm.
 people.DAT.PL.M with depressive.INS.PL.F disposition.INS.PL.F
 ‘People who are prone to depression should not listen to this [music] album.’ (J. Joņevs)

- b. *Pienāca Jāņu vakars.*

Vajadzēja sagatavot
need.PST.3 **prepare.INF**

vietu svinēšanai.

place.ACC.F celebration.DAT.F

‘Midsummer’s Eve was upon us. We had to prepare a place for celebration.’ (I. Ābele)

- c. *Antidopinga komitejai no sākuma*
 anti-doping.GEN.M committee.DAT.F from beginning.GEN.M

vajadzēs izlasīt un izanalizēt
need.FUT.3 **read.INF** and analyze.INF

atklāto pierādījumu kopumu.

available.PTCP.GEN.PL.M evidence.GEN.PL.M body.ACC.M

‘First, the Anti-doping committee will have to read and analyze the available body of evidence.’ (www.lsm.lv)

Aside from the indicative, the above construction can also be used in the oblique and conditional mood.

- (2.5.103) a. *Viena meitene rakstīja,*

ka matus ābolu

that hair.ACC.PL.M apple.GEN.PL.M

etiķi vajagot skalot.

vinegar.LOC.M **need.OBL.PRS** **rinse.INF**

‘One girl wrote that apparently one has to rinse one’s hair in apple cider vinegar.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

- b. *10 lietas, ko Tev vajadzētu zināt,*
 10 thing.NOM.PL.F that you.DAT.SG **need.COND** **know.INF**
ja tiešām pazīsti savu vīru.

‘10 things you should know if you really know your husband.’ (www.delfi.lv)

Another similar construction consists of the verb *nākties* ‘to be obliged, have to’ + infinitive, and it is mostly used in official communications, mass media, and literary texts.

- (2.5.104) *Resno [bērza] stumbru ar mazo*
 thick.ACC.M [birch] trunk.ACC.M with small.INS.M
cirvīti nācās pārcirst
 hatchet.INS.M have.PST.3 chop.INF
pat divās vietās,
 even two.LOC.PL.F place.LOC.PL.F
un tikai tad koku izdevās novākt no ceļa.
 ‘The thick trunk [of the birch-tree] had to be chopped in three with the small hatchet, only then did we manage to clear the tree from the road.’ (P. Bankovskis)

Like the previous one, this construction can be used in the oblique and conditional mood.

- (2.5.105) a. *Viņam esot nācies*
 he.DAT be.AUX.OBL.PRS have.PTCP.NOM.M
dzīvi atsākt pilnīgi no nulles.
 life.ACC.F restart.INF absolutely from zero.GEN.F
 ‘He purportedly had to start a new life from nothing.’ (Kas Jauns)
 b. *Ja iebraucējiem būtu nācies*
 if newcomer.DAT.PL.M be.AUX.COND have.PTCP.NOM.M
iziet cauri tam visam,
 go.INF through that.DAT.M all.DAT.M
ko pārcietuši šejienes iedzīvotāji, tad viņu šeit vairs nebūtu.
 ‘If the newcomers had to go through everything that the locals had endured they wouldn’t be here any more.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In addition, there is a construction made up of the past or future indefinite form of the verb *būt* ‘to be’ + infinitive. It occurs predominantly in literary texts and colloquial speech.

- (2.5.106) a. *Par ko gan šeit bija uztraukties*
 about what.ACC PTCL here be.COP.PST.3 worry.INF
turīgajiem?
 wealthy.DAT.PL.M
 ‘What was even there for the wealthy to worry about?’ (www.delfi.lv)
 b. *Kas nepiedalās [pašvaldību] vēlēšanās,*
 tam nebūs
 that.DAT.M not.be.COP.FUT.3
[to rezultātus] kritizēt.
 [it outcome] criticize.INF
 ‘Those who don’t vote in the [local] elections shall not criticize [the outcome]. (Diena)

Finally, in all varieties of Latvian, necessity can be expressed by means of the present passive participle combined with a copula functioning as a predicate.

- (2.5.107) a. *Drāma ir daudz ilgāk rakstāma*
 drama.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 much longer write.PTCP.NOM.F
nekā cita veida teksti.
 than other.GEN.M type.GEN.M text.NOM.PL.M
 ‘A drama takes much longer to write than other types of text.’ (C)
- b. *Partijas pārstāvētajās ministrijās*
 party.GEN.F represent.PTCP.LOC.PL.F ministry.LOC.PL.F
vēl daudz esot paveicams.
 still much be.COP.OBL.PRS do.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Apparently, much still remains to be done in the ministries represented by the party.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- c. *Nevienam nav tiesību norādīt,*
kas šai valstij
 what.NOM this.DAT.F country.DAT.F
būtu darāms.
 be.COP.COND do.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘No one has a right to tell this country what to do.’ (www.lsm.lv)

Imperative mood

The imperative mood is used to express the speaker’s will with respect to a particular action; it can be an encouragement (2.5.108a), order (2.5.108b-c), request (2.5.108d-e), invitation (2.5.108f-g), or prohibition (2.5.108h) (Skujiņa 2007: 292).

- (2.5.108) a. *Apsēdies.*
 sit.IMP.2SG
Kurā klasē iet tavs vecākais zēns?
 ‘Sit down. Which form is your oldest boy in?’ (Dz. Sodums)
- b. *Kāp iekšā,*
 get.IMP.2SG in
uzsauca šoferis.
 ‘Get in, the driver called out.’ (R. Ezera)
- c. *Sēdiet klusu!*
 sit.IMP.2PL still
 ‘Sit still!’ (C)
- d. *Mirkli, jel apstājies!*
 moment.VOC.M PTCL stop.IMP.2SG
 ‘Stay, fleeting moment!’ (R. Ezera)
- e. *Atcerieties –*
 remember.IMP.2PL
ja atrodat ūpja mazuli zemē pie koka, tad tam tur arī jābūt un jāpaliek!
 ‘Remember, if you find a baby eagle owl on the ground under a tree, it’s where it should be and it should remain there!’ (Diena)

- f. *Lai dzīvo karalis!*
let live.IMP.3SG king.NOM.M
 ‘Long live the king!’ (C)
- g. *Iesim uz veikalu!*
go.IMP.1PL to shop.ACC.M
 ‘Let’s go to the shop!’ (J. Joņevs)
- h. *Neskatieties uz mani tā!*
not_look.IMP.2PL at I.ACC that
 ‘Don’t look at me like that!’ (C)

In Latvian, proper imperative forms only exist in the second-person singular and plural. The second-person singular form is the same as the second-person singular present indicative; the second-person plural is derived by attaching the ending *-iet*, *-ieties* to the present tense stem of a verb.

(2.5.109) INF – PRS – IMP 2PL

dārī-t – dar-u – dar-iet ‘to do – (I) do – do!’
cel-ties – cel-os – cel-ieties ‘to rise – (I) rise – rise!’

It should be observed that the consonant preceding the ending of the second-person plural imperative is the same as the root-final consonant of the second-person singular, e.g., *nāc – nāc-iet!* ‘come!’, *audz – audz-iet!* ‘grow!’, *cel – cel-iet!* ‘build!’, *kāp – kāp-iet!* ‘climb!’, *gulī – gul-iet!* ‘sleep!’, *sēdi – sēd-iet!* ‘sit!’ (Kalme, Smiltneiece 2001: 241).

The personal pronouns *tu* ‘you (SG)’, *jūs* ‘you (PL)’, *mēs* ‘we’ do not normally appear with imperatives (Ahero et al. 1959: 606; Nitiņa 2001: 75), see examples (2.5.108a–c, e, h). It is only in emotionally highly loaded exclamations that a second-person pronoun may be used to show the speaker’s anger or express a negative attitude and disdain towards the addressee.

- (2.5.110) a. *Tu tur nemuldi tik daudz!*
you.NOM.SG there not_babble.IMP.2SG so
daudz!
 much
 ‘You there! Stop babbling so much!’ (Diena)
- b. *Tu te, sīkais, neizrunājies!*
you.NOM.SG there kid.NOM.M not_babble.IMP.2SG
 ‘You, kid, don’t babble!’ (www.draugiem.lv)

The third-person singular and plural forms used in conjunction with the particle *lai* ‘let’ (*lai dara!* ‘let (him / her / them) do!’; *lai cēļ!* ‘let (him / her / them) build!’) (2.5.111) and the first-person plural (*darīsim!* ‘let’s do!’; *celsimies!* ‘let’s rise!’) (2.5.112) are actually third-person present and first-person future indefinite indicative forms that function as imperatives in specific contexts and speech situations.

- (2.5.111) a. *Lai [viņš] atnāk,*
let [he] come.IMP.3
es ar viņu parunāšu!
 ‘Let [him] come, I’ll talk to him!’ (C)

- b. *Lai parādās tagad Sibilla Švirkste!*
let appear.IMP.3 now Sibilla.NOM.F Švirkste.NOM.F
 ‘Let Sibilla Švirkste appear now!’ (G. Priede)

- (2.5.112) a. *Lūdzu, cienīsim cits citu!*
 please **respect.IMP.1PL** other.NOM.M other.ACC.M
 ‘Please, let’s respect one another!’ (C)

- b. *Mēģināsim noskaidrot,*
try.IMP.1PL establish.INF
kas viņš tāds ir un ko pārstāv!
 ‘Let’s try to establish who he is and what he represents!’ (G. Priede)

In contrast to other verb moods, the imperative lacks tense forms but has person forms, with the exception of the first-person singular:

dar-i-t ‘to do’, *cel-ties* ‘to rise’

Person	SG	PL
1	–	<i>daris-im!</i> ‘let’s do!’, <i>cels-imies!</i> ‘let’s rise!’
2	<i>dar-i!</i> ‘do!’, <i>cel-ies!</i> ‘rise!’	<i>dar-iet!</i> ‘do!’, <i>cel-ieties!</i> ‘rise!’
3	<i>lai dar-a!</i> ‘let him / her / them do!’, <i>lai cel-as!</i> ‘let him / her / them rise!’	

Table 2.46 The paradigm of imperative forms (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 87)

In colloquial speech (and its literary renderings), the first-person plural present indefinite indicative is widely used as the first-person plural imperative – *darām!* ‘let’s do!’, *ceļamies!* ‘let’s rise!’, *ejam!* ‘let’s go!’, *braucam!* ‘let’s drive!’

- (2.5.113) a. *Ejam sēnēs!*
go.PRS.1PL mushroom.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Let’s go picking mushrooms!’ (Kas Jauns)
- b. *Pietiks izklaidēties,*
braucam mājās!
go.PRS.1PL home.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Enough hanging out, let’s go home!’ (www.delfi.lv)
- c. *Kāpjam lejā pie manis*
go.PRS.1PL downstairs to I.GEN
[uz manu dzīvokli]!
 ‘Let’s go downstairs [to my apartment]!’ (G. Priede)

Finally, in polite expressions and colloquial speech, the second-person plural imperative is sometimes expressed by means of the second-person plural future indefinite indicative.

- (2.5.114) a. *Ģenerāļa kungs, atļausiet ziņot!*
 general.GEN.M sir.NOM.M **permit.FUT.2PL** speak.INF
 ‘General, permission to speak!’ (I. Ābele)

- b. *Jūs* *tūlīt pat* *iesiet* *lejā*
 you.NOM.PL at_once go.FUT.2PL downstairs.LOC.F
savākt *to* *visu*
 pick_up.INF it.ACC all.ACC.F
[pa dzīvokļa logu izmestas krāsu kārbas]!
 ‘You will go downstairs and pick all this up at once [paint cans thrown out the apartment window]!’ (G. Priede)

Relative to indicative tense forms appearing in the same context, the imperative forms express posteriority, i.e., actions that must take place after the speech moment.

Modality and evidentiality

In Latvian, verb moods can express both deontic and epistemic modality, as well as evidential meanings. Modal meanings are also present in some uses of the infinitive.

Deontic modality indicates how the state of the world ought to be according to the speaker (usually in the form of an order, prohibition, recommendation) (Palmer 2001: 9,10; Skujiņa 2007: 499). In Latvian, deontic modality is mainly manifested in the imperative mood, which is used to express the speaker’s assessment of an action in such a way so as to influence the addressee to fulfil the speaker’s intention – to make sure that the action is performed, see examples (2.5.108).

Deontic modality can also be communicated by means of the debitive mood, see examples (2.5.88). In that case, however, an addressee is not addressed directly. Since the subject is in the dative case, the speaker can only describe an action as being obligatory for himself or others.

Moreover, in specific contextual uses, deontic modality can be conveyed by the indicative mood, namely, when indicative forms function as imperatives:

- 1) the present indefinite indicative expressing invitations

(2.5.115) *Nākamgad* *tiekamies* *pie* *mums* *Latgalē!*
 next_year meet.PRS.1PL by we.DAT Latgale.LOC.F
 ‘Let’s meet at our place in Latgale next year!’ (C)
- 2) the future indefinite indicative
 - a) expressing polite requests

(2.5.116) “*Kundzīt,* *jūs* *ar* *to* *grozu,*
 lady.VOC.F you.NOM.PL with that.INS.M basket.INS.M
panāksit *tuvāk!”*
come.FUT.2PL closer
Salutāurs uzsauc.
 “‘Dear lady, you with that basket, will you come closer!’ Salutāurs called out.’ (A. Eglītis)
 - b) demanding something categorically; such sentences usually contain the so-called ethical dative – a pronoun in the dative case referring to the speaker

(2.5.117) *Tādā apģērbā tu man nekur*
 such.LOC.M clothing.LOC.M you.NOM.SG I.DAT nowhere
neiesi!

not_go.FUT.2SG

‘I won’t let you go anywhere in clothes like that!’ (www.delfi.lv)

Deontic modality is clearly manifested in the predicative uses of the infinitive in imperative sentences – exclamations (2.5.118), instructions (2.5.119), and prohibitions (2.5.120).

(2.5.118) a. *Kaut ātrāk tikt atvaļinājumā!*
 PTCL sooner **get.INF** vacation.LOC.M
 ‘If only I could be on vacation sooner!’ (www.apollo.lv)

b. *Cilvēki, jums mani vairs ne*
 person.NOM.PL.M you.DAT.PL I.ACC anymore not
ar ko nepārsteigt.
 with anything.INS **not_surprise.INF**
 ‘People, you can’t surprise me with anything anymore.’
 (www.twitter.com)

(2.5.119) a. *Dokumentus iesniegt dekanātā.*
 document.ACC.PL.M **submit.INF** dean’s_office.LOC.M
 ‘Documents are to be submitted to the dean’s office.’ (www.lu.lv)

b. *Tad atskanēja komanda:*
 – *Mierā! Pacelt karogu!*
 attention **raise.INF** flag.ACC.M
 ‘Then they heard a command: Attention! Raise the flag!’ (I. Ābele)

(2.5.120) a. *Pa sliežu ceļiem nestaigāt!*
 on rail.GEN.PL.F track.ACC.PL.M **not_walk.INF**
 ‘Do not walk on the railway tracks!’ (a warning on a railway track)

b. *Neienākt virsdrēbēs un neienest*
not_enter.INF street_clothes.LOC.PL.M and **not_carry.INF**
bibliotēkā pārtikas produktus.
 library.LOC.F food.GEN.F products.ACC.PL.M
 ‘Do not enter in street clothes, do not take food products into the library.’
 (a warning displayed at a public library)

Epistemic modality concerns the speaker’s attitude towards or evaluation of the information contained in an utterance (a judgment, assertion), for example, certainty, possibility, probability, or disbelief (Palmer 2001: 8,9; Skujiņa 2007: 107). In Latvian, it is usually associated with the conditional mood, as its semantics naturally accommodate references to possible, uncertain, future-oriented actions, see examples (2.5.80)–(2.5.83). In addition, in certain contexts epistemic modality can be expressed by means of the indicative (2.5.121) and oblique (2.5.122) mood (often with the help of a particle, adverb, etc.).

(2.5.121) a. FUT Indefinite

Uz sēdi aicinātais aizturētā cilvēka advokāts nespēja paskaidrot, kā un kāpēc nelikumības notikušas.

*“To es šobrīd **nemācēšu** teikt,*
that.ACC.M I.NOM now **not_know.FUT.1SG** say.INF

jo es aizturētā ģimeni pārstāvu tikai apmēram gadu un par iepriekšējiem notikumiem man nav informācijas.”

‘The lawyer of the arrested man invited to the hearing was unable to explain how and why the offences took place.

“I won’t be able to tell you this, as I have been representing the family of the defendant for only a year and do not have information about earlier occurrences.” (Kas Jauns)

b. FUT Perfect

Un es vēl savā naivumā domāju, ka maz būs to, kas balsos par šo [deputāta] kandidātu.

*Laikam **būšu** **kļūdījusies**.*

probably **be.AUX.FUT.1SG** **mistaken.PTCP.NOM.F**

‘And I was naïve enough to believe that hardly anybody would vote for this [parliamentary] candidate. It appears, I was mistaken.’

(www.cosmo.lv)

(2.5.122) a. – *Varbūt [Rīgā] nemaz nav tādas koncertu vietas?*

*– It kā laikam noteikti **esot**.*

as if probably definitely **be.OBL.PRS**

‘Maybe, there just isn’t a concert venue like that [in Rīga]?’

I’ve heard that there must be.’ (J. Joņevs)

b. *Uzņēmējs tiesājas ar kluba līdzīpašniekiem,*

jo viņi

because they.NOM.M

esot** **pārskaitījuši

be.AUX.OBL.PRS **transfer.PTCP.NOM.PL.M**

miljoniem mārciņu uz citām

million.INS.PL.M pound.GEN.PL.F to other.DAT.PL.F

sev piederošām kompānijām.

self.DAT own.PTCP.DAT.PL.F company.DAT.PL.F

‘The businessman has sued the co-owners of the club, because they have allegedly transferred millions of pounds to other companies they own.’ (www.delfi.lv)

Evidentiality is a semantic category, which is concerned with the means that a language has for indicating the source of information included in an utterance and for providing an evaluation of the nature of such information (Wiemer 2007a: 198, 2007b; also see Holvoet 2001: 111). In Latvian, evidentiality, i.e., an indication that the speaker is not the source of information, is usually expressed by means of the oblique mood (Holvoet 2007: 80–105), see examples (2.5.72).

Evidential-type information, i.e., a renarrated necessity, is also inherent in the oblique subtype of the debitive mood, which is widely used in spoken language, see examples (2.5.98).

In addition, evidential semantics typically occur in indicatives functioning as obliques – usually, in composite sentences containing a *verbum dicendi* in one of the clauses.

(2.5.123) a. *Māsa lūdza,*

lai es satieku (= satiekot)
SUB I.NOM meet.PRS.1SG (= meet.OBL.PRS)

to sieviete,
that.ACC.F woman.ACC.F

kas koordinējusi bērnu adopciju.

‘Sister asked me to meet the woman who had coordinated the children’s adoption.’ (Ieva)

b. *Vecomāt, jums nupat zvanīja no radio un teica,*

ka dzejoli ir (= esot)
that poem.ACC.M be.AUX.PRS.3 (= be.OBL.PRS)

sacerējis pavisam cits rakstnieks.

write.PTCP.NOM.M completely other.NOM.M writer.NOM.M

‘Grandmother, you just got a call from the radio, they said the poem was written by a completely different writer.’ (G. Priede)

2.5.5 Voice

Voice is a lexico-grammatical category of verbs encoding the relationship between an action and its subject and object (Skujiņa 2007: 179). Depending on whether the speaker, in the process of communication, views the subject of a clause as being important with regard to a particular instance or manifestation of a process, a clause may be in the active (2.5.124a) or passive voice (2.5.124b), without affecting the logic of the judgment contained in it.

(2.5.124) a. active voice

Viņš savā dārzā
he.NOM own.LOC.M garden.LOC.M
ir sastādījis spargēļus.
be.AUX.PRS.3 plant.PTCP.NOM.M asparagus.ACC.PL.M
‘He has planted asparagus in his garden.’ (A. Žigure)

b. passive voice

Mākslinieces darbos bieži ir
artist.GEN.F work.LOC.PL.M often **be.AUX.PRS.3**
gleznoti putni.
paint.PTCP.NOM.PL.M bird.NOM.PL.M
‘Birds are often painted in the artist’s works.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

Overall, Latvian verbs have two voices – the active and the passive voice. This opposition, however, is only found in a lexically and grammatically limited range of verbs – mostly, transitive non-reflexive verbs taking an accusative object (see Section 2.5.6). In contemporary Latvian, reflexive verbs fall outside the category of voice and form a distinct lexico-grammatical group (see Section 2.5.7).

The active voice is grammatically unmarked, it is expressed by the indefinite and perfect tense forms of the indicative and other moods (see Tables 2.47–2.54). The passive voice forms are analytical. The indefinite passive tense forms are derived by means of the auxiliary verb *tikt* ‘to get’ in a finite form + past passive participle (Table 2.47), while the perfect passive tense forms use the auxiliary verb *būt* ‘to be’ in a finite form + past passive participle (Table 2.48).

slavināt ‘to praise’

Person	SG				PL			
	PRS	PST	FUT		PRS	PST	FUT	
1	<i>tieku</i> ‘am’	<i>tiku</i> ‘was’	<i>tikšu</i> ‘will be’	<i>slavināt-s</i> (M), -a (F) ‘praised’	<i>tiekam</i> ‘are’	<i>tikām</i> ‘were’	<i>tiksim</i> ‘will be’	<i>slavināt-i</i> (M), -as (F) ‘praised’
2	<i>tiec</i> ‘are’	<i>tiki</i> ‘were’	<i>tiksi</i> ‘will be’		<i>tiekat</i> ‘are’	<i>tikāt</i> ‘were’	<i>tiksīt/-iet</i> ‘will be’	
3	<i>tiek</i> ‘is’	<i>tika</i> ‘was’	<i>tiks</i> ‘will be’		<i>tiek</i> ‘are’	<i>tika</i> ‘were’	<i>tiks</i> ‘will be’	

Table 2.47 Passive voice, indefinite tenses, indicative mood

Person	SG				PL			
	PRS	PST	FUT		PRS	PST	FUT	
1	<i>esmu</i> ‘have been’	<i>biju</i> ‘had been’	<i>būšu</i> ‘will have been’	<i>slavināt-s</i> (M), -a (F) ‘praised’	<i>esam</i> ‘have been’	<i>bijām</i> ‘had been’	<i>būsim</i> ‘will have been’	<i>slavināt-i</i> (M), -as (F) ‘praised’
2	<i>esi</i> ‘have been’	<i>biji</i> ‘had been’	<i>būsi</i> ‘will have been’		<i>esat</i> ‘have been’	<i>bijāt</i> ‘had been’	<i>būsīt/-iet</i> ‘will have been’	
3	<i>ir</i> ‘has been’	<i>bija</i> ‘had been’	<i>būs</i> ‘will have been’		<i>ir</i> ‘have been’	<i>bija</i> ‘had been’	<i>būs</i> ‘will have been’	

Table 2.48 Passive voice, perfect tenses, indicative mood

The formation of passive voice forms is linked to changes in sentence structure: the agent in passive clauses is usually omitted, while the accusative object of the active voice transforms into a nominative object.

(2.5.125) *Es* (S_{NOM}) ***daru*** *darbu* (O_{ACC})
 I.NOM **do.PRS.1SG** work.ACC.M
 ‘I am doing work.’

→

Darbs (O_{NOM}) ***tiek*** *darīts.*
 work.NOM.M **get.AUX.PRS.3** **do.PTCP.NOM.M**
 ‘Work is being done.’

Present perfect (2.5.127a) (also past (2.5.127b) and future perfect (2.5.127c)) passive clauses may contain a genitive agent forming a nominal phrase with the past passive participle.

(2.5.126) *Es* (S_{NOM}) ***esmu*** *darījis* *darbu* (O_{ACC})
 I.NOM **be.aux.PRS.1SG** **do.PTCP.NOM.M** work.ACC.M
 ‘I have done work.’

→

Darbs (O_{NOM}) ***ir*** *manis* (S_{GEN}) *darīts.*
 work.NOM.M **be.AUX.PRS.3** I.GEN **do.PTCP.NOM.M**
 ‘The work has been done by me.’

(2.5.127) a. *Dzīvoklis* *ir* *mūsu* *abu*
 apartment.NOM.M be.AUX.PRS.3 we.GEN both.GEN.PL
pirkts *uzreiz* *pēc* *kāzām.*
 buy.PTCP.NOM.M shortly after wedding.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The apartment was bought by both of us shortly after the wedding.’
 (www.cosmo.lv)

b. *Kandavas* *kultūras* *nama* *lielā*
 Kandava.GEN.F culture.GEN.F house.GEN.M grand.NOM.F
zāle *bija* *skatītāju*
 hall.NOM.F be.AUX.PST.3 spectator.GEN.PL.M
pārpildīta.
 overcrowd.PTCP.NOM.F

‘The grand hall of the Kandava community center was overcrowded (with spectators).’ (www.kandava.lv)

c. *Mazi* *šokolādes* *cepumiņi* – *kārumi,*
 little.NOM.PL.M chocolate.GEN.F cookie.NOM.PL.M treat.NOM.M
kas *noteikti* *būs* *bērnu*
 that.NOM definitely be.AUX.FUT.3 child.GEN.PL.M
ieciens.
 appreciate.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Little chocolate cookies – a treat that will definitely be appreciated by children.’ (www.draugiem.lv)

Passive voice forms are also possible for verbs taking an indirect – usually, a dative (2.5.128a) or a prepositional (2.5.128b) – object. In that case, the grammatical form of the object remains unchanged.

- (2.5.128) a. *Dēls* (*S_{NOM}*) *stāsta* *vecākiem* (*O_{DAT}*)
 son.NOM.M **tell.PRS.3** parent.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The son is telling his parents’

→

Vecākiem (*O_{DAT}*) *tiek* *stāstīts*
 parent.DAT.PL.M **get.AUX.PRS.3** **tell.PTCP.NOM.M**
 ‘Parents are being told’

- b. *Es* (*S_{NOM}*) *runāju* *ar* *māsu* (*O_{PREP}*)
 I.NOM **talk.PST.1SG** with sister.INS.F
 ‘I talked to my sister’

→

Ar *māsu* (*O_{PREP}*) *tiek* *runāts*
 with sister.INS.F **get.AUX.PRS.3** **talk.PTCP.NOM.M**
 ‘My sister is being spoken to’

- (2.5.129) a. *Ja* [*Saeimas*] *deputātam* *patiešām*
 if [*Saeima*] member_of_parliament.DAT.M really
ir *uzbrukts* *viņa* *pildāmo*
be.AUX.PRS.3 **attack.PTCP.NOM.M** he.GEN officiate.PTCP.GEN.PL.M
pienākumu *dēļ,*
 duty.GEN.PL.M because_of
tad tas ir nopietni.

‘If it’s really the case that the MP has been attacked because of his official duties then it’s serious.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

- b. *Par* *vecvecākiem* [*ģimenē*] *netika* *daudz*
 about grandparent.DAT.PL.M [family] **not_get.AUX.PST.3** much
runāts.
talk.PTCP.NOM.M

‘The grandparents were not talked about much [in the family].’ (Ieva)

In some cases, Latvian also permits passive voice forms of intransitive non-reflexive verbs.

- (2.5.130) a. *Mati* *pirmie* *reaģē,* *ja* *uzturā*
 hair.NOM.PL.M first.NOM.PL.M react.PRS.3 if diet.LOC.M
trūkst *vitamīnu* *vai* *ilgi* [*ir*]
 lack.PRS.3 vitamin.GEN.PL.M or long [is]
slimots.

be_ill.PTCP.NOM.M

‘Hair is the first to react to a lack of vitamins in the diet or a long illness.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- b. *Simt* *gadu* *te* *nav*
 hundred year.GEN.PL.M here **not_be.AUX.PRS.3**
būts.

be.PTCP.NOM.M

‘It’s been ages since [I] was last here.’ (www.cosmo.lv)

- c. *Kāvies* *dažreiz* *esmu,* *pa*
fight.PTCP.NOM.M sometimes be.AUX.PRS.1SG through
logu *arī* *kāpts* *ir* *iekšā.*
window.ACC.M also climb.PTCP.NOM.M be.AUX.PRS.3 inside
‘I have been known to get into fights and climb through windows.’
(www.tvnet.lv)

Usually, such sentences are used to express generalized, regular or habitual actions, or for impersonal statements of fact. In addition, passive voice forms are only possible for three-person intransitive verbs denoting actions performed by human beings or (less frequently) animals. Single-person intransitive verbs do not occur in the passive voice in Latvian.

The active and passive voices function in parallel in all moods. In the passive voice, mood is marked on the auxiliary verb *tikt* ‘to get’ in indefinite tenses and on the auxiliary verb *būt* ‘to be’ in perfect tenses, see Tables 2.48–2.54 (the forms are exemplified by the verb *slavināt* ‘to praise’):

Oblique mood

Tense	Indefinite	Perfect	SG	PL
PRS	<i>tiekot</i> ‘reportedly is’	<i>esot</i> ‘reportedly has been’	<i>slavināt-s</i> (M), -a (F) ‘praised’	<i>slavināt-i</i> (M), -as (F) ‘praised’
FUT	<i>tikšot</i> ‘reportedly will be’	<i>būšot</i> ‘reportedly will have been’		

Table 2.49 Passive voice, oblique mood

- (2.5.131) a. *Ja nekas netiekot prasīts, tad*
if nothing.NOM not_get.AUX.OBL.PRS require.PTCP.NOM.M then
nekas arī netiekot darīts.
nothing.NOM also not_get.AUX.OBL.PRS do.PTCP.NOM.M
‘They said, if nothing was required, nothing was done.’ (C)
- b. *Konkursa rezultāti netikšot*
competition.GEN.M result.NOM.PL.M not_get.AUX.OBL.FUT
pārskatīti.
review.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
‘Apparently, the results of the competition will not be reviewed.’ (C)
- c. *Viņš palika pie saviem meliem.*
Mana informācija esot
my.NOM.F information.NOM.F be.AUX.OBL.PRS
safantazēta...
make_up.PTCP.NOM.F
‘He stuck to his lies. According to him, my information is invented.’
(G. Priede)

- d. Zoodārza pārstāve piebilst,
 ka Mežaparks esot lapsu plaši
 that Mežaparks.NOM.M be.AUX.OBL.PRS fox.GEN.PL.F widely
apdzīvots.
inhabit.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘The zoo’s spokesperson adds that Mežaparks is widely inhabited by
 foxes.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- e. Mūzikas skolas apkārtnē šajā
 music.GEN.F school.GEN.F vicinity.NOM.F this.LOC.M
 mācību gadā vakaros būsot
 studies.GEN.PL.M year.LOC.M evening.LOC.PL.M be.AUX.OBL.FUT
apgaismota.
light_up.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘Apparently, this academic year there will be street lighting in
 the vicinity of the music school in the evenings.’ (C)

Conditional mood

Tense	Indefinite	Perfect	SG	PL
PRS	<i>tiktu</i> ‘would be’	<i>būtu</i> ‘would have been’	<i>slavināt-s</i> (M), -a (F) ‘praised’	<i>slavināt-i</i> (M), -as (F) ‘praised’

Table 2.50 Passive voice, conditional mood

- (2.5.132) a. Demokrātijas principi tiktu pilnībā
 democracy.GEN.F principle.NOM.PL.M get.AUX.COND fully.LOC.F
ievēroti.
observe.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The principles of democracy would be fully observed.’ (C)
- b. Ugunsgrēks būtu pamanīts ātrāk,
 fire.NOM.M be.AUX.COND detect.PTCP.NOM.M sooner
 ja cilvēki dzīvokļos ierīkotu dūmu detektorus.
 ‘The fire would have been detected sooner if people had installed
 smoke detectors in their apartments.’ (C)

Debitive mood

Tense	Indefinite	Perfect	SG	PL
PRS	<i>ir</i> ‘has to’	<i>jābūt</i> ‘have been’	<i>slavināt-am</i> (M), -ai (F) ‘praised’	<i>slavināt-iem</i> (M), -ām (F) ‘praised’
PST	<i>bija</i> ‘had to’			
FUT	<i>būs</i> ‘will have to’			

Table 2.51 Passive voice, debitive mood

In the debitive mood, the passive construction differs from the active construction in that the former requires the passive participle to be in the dative case, as it agrees in gender, number and case with the semantic object, i.e., the patient (Kalnača 2013c: 554–556).

- (2.5.133) a. *Šim likumprojektam ir jātiek*
 this.DAT.M bill.DAT.M be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.get.AUX
izstrādātam Tieslietu ministrijā.
 draft.PTCP.DAT.M Justice.GEN.PL.F Ministry.LOC.F
 ‘This bill has to be drafted in the Ministry of Justice.’ (C)
- b. *Viņa pavēlei bija jātiek*
 he.GEN order.DAT.F be.AUX.PST.3 DEB.get.AUX
izpildītai.
 follow.PTCP.DAT.F
 ‘His order had to be followed.’ (C)
- (2.5.134) a. *Datoram ir jābūt saslēgtam*
 computer.DAT.M be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.be.AUX connect.PTCP.DAT.M
ar drukāšanas iekārtu.
 with printing.GEN.F device.INS.F
 ‘The computer has to have a connection to a printing device.’ (C)
- b. *Līdz Lieldienām visiem dzīvokļa logiem bija jābūt nomazgātiem.*
 by Easter.DAT.PL.F all.DAT.PL.M apartment.GEN.M
 window.DAT.PL.M be.AUX.PST.3 DEB.be.AUX
 clean.PTCP.DAT.PL.M
 ‘All windows in the apartment had to be cleaned by Easter.’ (C)

As shown in examples (2.5.133)–(2.5.134) and Tables 2.51–2.53, the hallmark of the passive debitive is a combination of two auxiliaries – the auxiliary verb *būt* ‘to be’ in a finite form and the auxiliary *tikt* ‘to get’ or *būt* ‘to be’ in the debitive form, signaling, respectively, the dynamic or static meaning of the passive debitive, i.e., *jātiek* (indefinite forms) or *jābūt* (perfect forms).

Debitive mood, oblique subtype

Tense		Indefinite	Perfect	SG	PL
PRS	<i>esot</i> ‘reportedly has to’	<i>jātiek</i> ‘be’	<i>jābūt</i> ‘have been’	<i>slavināt-am</i> (M), -ai (F) ‘praised’	<i>slavināt-iem</i> (M), -ām (F) ‘praised’
FUT	<i>būšot</i> ‘reportedly will have to’				

Table 2.52 Passive voice, debitive mood, oblique subtype

- (2.5.135) a. *Mītam, ka sviests ir neveselīgs,*
 myth.DAT.M that butter.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 unhealthy.NOM.M
esot jātiek pamatotam.
 be.AUX.OBL.PRS DEB.get.AUX validate.PTCP.DAT.M
 ‘It seems, the myth that butter is unhealthy needs to be validated.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)
- b. *Ierobežojumiem esot jābūt noteiktiem ar likumu.*
 restriction.DAT.PL.M be.AUX.OBL.PRS DEB.be.AUX
 specify.PTCP.DAT.PL.M by law.INS.M
 ‘Apparently, restrictions have to be specified by the law.’ (C)

Debitive mood, conditional subtype

Tense		Indefinite	Perfect	SG	PL
PRS	<i>būtu</i> ‘would’	<i>jātiek</i> ‘have to be’	<i>jābūt</i> ‘have to have been’	<i>slavināt-am</i> (M), -ai (F) ‘praised’	<i>slavināt-iem</i> (M), -ām (F) ‘praised’

Table 2.53 Passive voice, debitive mood, conditional subtype

- (2.5.136) a. *Šiem likumu grozījumiem būtu jātiek iesniegtiem jau līdz 27. novembrim.*
 this.DAT.PL.M law.GEN.PL.M amendment.DAT.PL.M be.AUX.COND
 DEB.get.AUX submit.PTCP.DAT.PL.M already by 27
 November.DAT.M
 ‘These amendments to the law would have to be submitted by
 November 27.’ (C)
- b. *Tam [dokumentam] būtu jābūt apliecinātam ar parakstu.*
 it.DAT.M [document] be.AUX.COND DEB.be.AUX
 certify.PTCP.DAT.M with signature.INS.M
 ‘It [the document] would have to have been certified with a signature.’ (C)

Imperative mood

Person	SG	PL
2	<i>esi slavināts</i> (M), -a (F)! ‘be praised!’	<i>esiet slavināti</i> (M), -as (F)! ‘be praised!’
3	<i>lai slavināts</i> (M), -a (F)! ‘(let) be praised!’	<i>lai slavināti</i> (M), -as (F)! ‘(let) be praised!’

Table 2.54 Passive voice, imperative mood

- (2.5.137) a. *Esi sveicināta Holivudā!*
 be.AUX.IMP.2SG welcome.PTCP.NOM.F Hollywood.LOC.F
 ‘Welcome to Hollywood!’ (Ieva)

- b. *Mīliet un esiet mīlēti!!!*
 love.AUX.IMP.2PL and be.AUX.IMP.2.PL love.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Love and be loved!!!’ (C)
- c. *Lai [ir] slavēta vienlīdzība!*
 let [is] praise.PTCP.NOM.F equality.NOM.F
 ‘Equality be praised!’ (www.apollo.lv)

In mass media, literary, and certain other types of text, passive perfect tense forms sometimes contain a combination of two auxiliaries – *būt* ‘to be’ in a finite form and *būt* or *tikt* ‘to get’ in the past active participle (on active past tense forms with *tikt* see Section 2.5.3):

- 1) *ticis* ‘got (M, SG)’, *tikusi* ‘got (F, SG)’, *tikuši* ‘got (M, PL)’, *tikušas* ‘got (F, PL)’
- (2.5.138) *Ķīmiskās vielas tvaika noplūdes*
 chemical.GEN.F substance.GEN.F fume.GEN.M leakage.GEN.M
dēļ trešdien Rīgā [ir]
 because_of Wednesday.LOC.F Riga.LOC.F [is]
tikuši evakuēti
 get.AUX.PTCP.NOM.PL.M evacuate.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
 32 cilvēki,
 32 person.NOM.PL.M
norādīja Valsts ugunsdzēsības un glābšanas dienests.
 ‘Due to leakage of chemical fumes in Rīga on Wednesday, 32 people got evacuated, the State Fire and Rescue Service of Latvia reported.’
 (www.apollo.lv)

- 2) *bijis* ‘been (M, SG)’, *bijusi* ‘been (F, SG)’, *bijuši* ‘been (M, PL)’, *bijušas* ‘been (F, PL)’
- (2.5.139) *Trešais bērns ģimenē ir*
 third.NOM.M child.NOM.M family.LOC.F be.AUX.PRS.3
bijis ļoti gaidīts.
 be.AUX.PTCP.NOM.M very wait.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘The third child in the family was very much looked forward to.’
 (Latvijas Avīze)

Apart from the indicative, such forms also occur in the oblique (2.5.140), conditional (2.5.141), and debitive (2.5.142) passive.

- (2.5.140) a. *Par ministrijas plāniem reorganizēt universitāti*
 about ministry.GEN.F plan.DAT.PL.M reorganize.INF university.ACC.F
tās rektore iepriekš neesot
 it.GEN.F rector.NOM.F in_advance not_be.AUX.OBL.PRS
tikusi informēta.
 get.AUX.PTCP.NOM.F inform.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘The rector said she hadn’t been informed in advance about the ministry’s plans to reorganize the university.’ (www.delfi.lv)

b. *Viņš esot bijis aicināts*
 he.NOM be.OBL.PRS be.AUX.PTCP.NOM.M invite.PTCP.NOM.M
liecināt tiesā.
 testify.INF court.LOC.F
 ‘Reportedly, he had been called to testify in court.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

(2.5.141) *Ja es būtu ticis pieņemts*
 if I.NOM be.AUX.COND get.AUX.PTCP.NOM.M accept.PTCP.NOM.M
bērnu ansamblī,
 child.GEN.PL.M ensemble.LOC.M
mans muzikālais ceļš izskatītos citāds.
 ‘If I had gotten accepted into the children’s ensemble, my musical path
 would have been different.’ (www.parmuziku.lv)

Consequently, there exist passive debitive forms containing a combination of three auxiliaries:

(2.5.142) a. *Ar šo kārtību*
 with this.INS.F procedure.INS.F
ir jābūt tikušam
 be.AUX.PRS DEB.be.AUX get.AUX.PTCP.DAT.M
iepazīstinātam arī iestādes vadītājam.
 inform.PTCP.DAT.M also organization.GEN.F head.DAT.M
 ‘The head of the organization has to have been informed of the procedure
 as well.’ (www.pietiek.com)

b. *Lai saņemtu nekustamā īpašuma nodokļa atlaidi,*
ārvalstniekam ir jābūt bijušam
 foreigner.DAT.M be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.be.AUX be.AUX.PTCP.DAT.M
deklarētam
 declare.PTCP.DAT.M
Latvijā pirms taksācijas gada 1. janvāra.
 Latvia.LOC.F before taxation.GEN.F year.GEN.M first January.GEN.M
 ‘In order to be eligible for a real estate tax discount, a foreigner has to
 have had a residence registration in Latvia before January 1 of
 the taxation year.’ (www.info.riga.lv)

c. *Katrs cilvēks apzinās lietas,*
 every.NOM.M person.NOM.M realize.PRS.3 thing.ACC.PL.F
kurām būtu bijis
 which.DAT.PL.F be.AUX.COND be.AUX.PTCP.NOM.
jābūt izdarītām tā un ne savādāk.
 DEB.be.AUX do.PTCP.DAT.PL.F thus and no other_way
 ‘Everyone is aware of things, which should have been done in one way
 and not another.’ (Ir)

Examples of language use indicate that Latvian perfect passive forms with the above auxiliaries are akin to the distinction between the dynamic and static passive found

in many other languages, especially considering that indefinite passive tense forms with *tikt* ‘to get’ typically have a processual meaning, while perfect tense forms with *būt* ‘to be’ express states and, at the same time, resultativeness. However, in Latvian, this kind of distinction between the forms and meanings of perfect tense forms (both in the active and passive voice) has never fully grammaticalized and is not consistently realized throughout the system of verbal forms, it only becomes relevant in specific cases when it is particularly significant in terms of content for the speaker. Due to inconsistent form usage and semantic non-obligatoriness, Latvian grammars have tended to exclude the distinction between the static and dynamic perfect of both voices from descriptions of the verb, leaving it outside the paradigm despite it being present in language use (Ahero et al. 1959: 552–553; Kalnača 2013c: 505–506; also see Nītiņa 2001: 81; Holvoet 2001: 164).

2.5.6 Transitivity

Transitivity is a property of verbs that refers to whether a verb can take a prepositionless accusative object (Skujiņa 2007: 284–285). Based on this ability, all verbs can be classified as either transitive or intransitive.

Transitivity or intransitivity depends on the lexical meaning of a verb and is expressed through syntactic relations in phrases or clauses, where a transitive verb takes an accusative object (2.5.143) while an intransitive verb does not (2.5.144).

(2.5.143) a. *vilkt mēteļi* ‘to put on a coat’, *ravēt dārzu* ‘to weed the garden’, *nest somu* ‘to carry a bag’, *pirkt pārtiku* ‘to buy food’

b. *Viesmīlis ienesa kafiju.*
waiter.NOM.M **bring_in.PST.3** **coffee.ACC.F**
‘The waiter brought in the coffee.’ (A. Eglītis)

c. *No dārznieka advokāts ik gadu*
from gardener.GEN.M lawyer.NOM.M every year.ACC.M
pērk jaunus [rožu] stādus ar
buy.PRS.3 new.ACC.PL.M [rose] **plant.ACC.PL.M** with
skaistiem nosaukumiem.
beautiful.INS.PL.M name.INS.PL.M
‘Every year, the lawyer buys young [rose] plants with beautiful names from the gardener.’ (A. Žigūre)

(2.5.144) a. *salt* ‘to be cold’, *krist* ‘to fall’, *zust* ‘to disappear’, *snigt* ‘to snow’, *tumst* ‘to grow dark’, *jukt* ‘to fall to pieces’, *gulēt* ‘to sleep’, *sēņot* ‘to pick mushrooms’, *ziedēt* ‘to bloom’

b. *Pukudobēs zied smaržīgās*
flower_bed.LOC.PL.F **bloom.PRS.3** fragrant.NOM.PL.F
lefkijas.
gillyflower.NOM.PL.F

‘Fragrant gillyflowers are blooming in the flower beds.’ (A. Žigūre)

- c. *O, kā es salstu!*
 oh how I.NOM **be_cold.PRS.1SG**
 ‘Oh, am I cold!’ (C)

In Latvian, verbs can also take prepositionless genitive objects. Although genitive objects mainly occur in literary prose, subdialects and in the speech of elderly people, they are also used in mass media texts for poetic effect – usually, with a negated predicate or verbs like *pietikt* ‘to be enough’, *vajadzēt* ‘to need’, *gribēt* ‘to want’, *kārot* ‘to crave’, *bīties* ‘to be afraid of’, *dot* ‘to give’, etc. (on adverbial genitive see Section 2.1.4)

- (2.5.145) a. *Cilvēkiem darba pietiek.*
 person.DAT.PL.M **work.GEN.M** be_enough.PRS.3
 ‘People have enough work.’ (I. Ābele)
- b. *Es negribu teikt par jums nekā sliktā.*
 I.NOM not_want.PRS.1SG say.INF about you.DAT.PL
anything.GEN **bad.GEN.M**
 ‘I don’t want to say anything bad about you.’ (A. Eglītis)
- c. *Dārgakmeņu un kažoka man nevajag.*
jewel.GEN.PL.M and **fur_coat.GEN.M** I.DAT not_need.PRS.3
 ‘I don’t need jewels or a fur coat.’ (Ir)

The syntactic relations that transitive verbs typically enter into are not limited to taking a direct accusative (or genitive) object. For example, object clauses (2.5.146) or direct speech if it stands in an object relation to the introductory verb (2.5.147) can both be viewed as analogues of a direct object.

- (2.5.146) *Elza cenšas izdomāt, kāds ir viņas dzīves uzdevums.*
 Elza.NOM.F try.PRS.3 figure_out.INF what.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3
 she.GEN life.GEN.F mission.NOM.M
 ‘Elza tries hard to figure out what her mission in life is.’ (A. Žigūre)
- (2.5.147) *Māte saka: “Tu būsi dzejnieks, / Bet dzejniekam grūts mūžs.”*
 mother.NOM.F say.PRS.3 you.NOM.SG be.COP.FUT.2SG poet.NOM.M
 but poet.DAT.M hard.NOM.M life.NOM.M
 ‘Mother says: “You will be a poet, / But life is hard for a poet.”’ (L. Tauns)

An object presupposed by the lexical meaning of a transitive verb is not always obligatory in a sentence. For example, an object may not be explicitly stated if it follows from the context or when expressing a generalized action; in that case, context and verbal lexical meaning provide sufficient semantic compensation.

- (2.5.148) a. *Ja tu runā pārāk ātri*
 if you.NOM.SG **speak.PRS.2SG** too fast
 – *ievelc elpu un turpini nesteidzoties.*
 ‘If you’re speaking too fast – take a breath and then go on at an easier pace.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- b. *Nesen esi sācis spēlēt oboju Nacionālās operas orķestrī. Kādēļ tev to vajag?*
Nespēlēju orķestrī ne naudas, ne
not_play.PRS.1SG orchestra.LOC.M not money.GEN.F not
slavas dēļ.
 glory.GEN.F because_of
 ‘Recently, you started playing the oboe in the National Opera Orchestra.
 Why do you need that? I don’t play in the orchestra for money or glory.’
 (Santa)
- c. *Senāk arī es kalu un metināju*
 earlier also I.NOM **forge.PST.1SG** and **weld.PST.1SG**
[tēlniecības darbus].
[sculpture work]
Bet tad es atklāju mākslīgā koka masu. Tā pārveidoja visu manu dzīvi.
 ‘There was a time when I also forged and welded [sculptures]. And
 then I discovered artificial wood mass. It changed my whole life.’
 (A. Eglitis)

Although, as a rule, transitive verbs are non-reflexive, Latvian has a number of transitive reflexive verbs (Ahero et al. 1959: 557; Kalnača 2013c: 508; see also Section 2.5.7), which fall under one of the following types:

1) verbs with a concrete meaning (indirect-reflexive verbs)

- (2.5.149) a. *iegādāties (iegādāt sev) apģērbu* ‘to purchase clothes (for oneself)’
uzlikties (uzlikt sev) cepuri ‘to put on (on oneself) a hat’
apsieties (apsiet sev) priekšautu ‘to tie an apron (around oneself), etc.
- b. *Kad vecāki iegādājās dārzu,*
 when parent.NOM.PL.M **buy.PST.3.REFL** **garden.ACC.M**
man lika zemi rakt.
 ‘When my parents bought a garden plot I was told to dig.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *Vēlāk Lapiņš devās pie sava dienas darba – grāmatas siet,*
 arī Birznieks **apsējās** **priekšautu,**
 also Birznieks.NOM.M **tie.PST.3.REFL** **apron.ACC.M**
lai dotos Lapiņam palīgā.
 ‘Later on Lapiņš went to do his daily work, which was binding books,
 Birznieks put an apron on, too, intending to help.’ (C)

2) verbs with abstract semantics related to memory, thinking and perception

- (2.5.150) a. *klausīties* ‘to listen’, *atcerēties* ‘to remember’, *iedomāties* ‘to imagine’,
mācīties ‘to learn’, *noskatīties* ‘to watch (a film, etc.), look’
- b. *Dažreiz Elza atceras*
 sometimes Elza.NOM.F **remember.PRS.3.REFL**
kādu skumju dziesmu.
 some.ACC.F sad.ACC.F **song.ACC.F**
 ‘Sometimes Elza remembers some sad song.’ (A. Žigūre)

- c. *Vairāki pedagogi gaidīja,*
 ka mācīšos klasisko dziedāšanu.
 that study.FUT.1SG.REFL classical.ACC.F singing.ACC.F
 ‘Several teachers expected me to study classical singing.’ (Santa)

Transitive reflexive verbs do not have passive voice forms and, therefore, like the rest of reflexive verbs, are not part of the active/passive voice opposition.

2.5.7 Reflexive verbs

Reflexive verbs form a distinct lexico-grammatical group of verbs based on at least one shared formal feature – a reflexive ending with a final formative *-s* in all persons, tenses, and moods. In terms of meaning and distribution, however, reflexive verbs are quite diverse and have been given different interpretations in Latvian grammars – as representing the middle voice in a ternary *active – middle – passive voice* opposition (Ahero et al. 1959: 548, 554–561; Holvoet 2001: 188–189; Holvoet, Grzybowska, Rembiałkowska 2015) as a special lexico-grammatical category of verbs (Paegle 2003: 128–130), or as part of the binary derivative opposition *non-reflexive verbs – reflexive verbs*, i.e., part of the system of word formation (Soida 2009: 218–219). In the Grammar of Latvian published in 2013, reflexive verbs are treated as a special lexico-grammatical group having links, in part, with the verbal category of voice and, in part, with verbal word formation (Kalnača 2013c: 457, 511–515); the same descriptive principle is used here with an additional focus on relations between semantics and distribution. This approach is based on the fact that reflexive verbs, as a whole, can neither all be placed under the category of voice (although some reflexive verbs express middle voice meanings), nor exhaustively analyzed as derivatives of non-reflexive verbs (although some of them are related to certain word-formation models). The fact of the matter is that Latvian reflexive verbs are a heterogeneous group having both inflectional and derivational features.

It should also be emphasized that there does not exist a symmetrical system of non-reflexive/reflexive verbs in Latvian. Thus, intransitive non-reflexive verbs, for the most part, do not have reflexive counterparts.

- (2.5.151) *būt* ‘to be’, *tapt* ‘to become, to get’, *nirt* ‘to dive’, *silt* ‘to grow warm’, *mirkt* ‘to soak’, *dilt* ‘to wear out’, *kalst* ‘to wither’, *snigt* ‘to snow’

Likewise, in some cases there is only a reflexive verb (2.5.152).

- (2.5.152) *kļūditie-s* ‘to err’, *atcerēties* ‘to remember’, *gadītie-s* ‘to happen’, *pūlēties* ‘to try hard’, *mostie-s* ‘to wake up (no obj.)’ (from **kļūdīt*, **atcerēt*, **gadīt*, **pūlēt*, **most*)

Quite frequently, non-reflexive/reflexive pairs break up into separate lexemes. More often than not it happens as a result of metonymic changes in the original middle voice meaning (Gerritsen 1990; Kalnača 2014).

- (2.5.153) a. *dot* ‘to give smb. (smth.)’ – *dotie-s* ‘to go away, move away’
 b. *salikt* ‘to put together, to put in’ – *saliktie-s* ‘colloq. to get ready’
 c. *prasīt* ‘to ask’ – *prasītie-s* ‘colloq. to want’

Usually, the non-reflexive verb in such pairs is neutral, while the semantically different reflexive verb is a colloquialism, as shown in (2.5.153b-c). For instance, the reflexive verbs *prasīties* ‘to want’ and *bremzēties* ‘to slow down’ clearly add a sense of colloquiality to the text in the examples below:

- (2.5.154) a. *Ja prasās apēst ko ļoti treknu,*
 if **crave.PRS.3.REFL** eat.INF something.ACC very fat-rich.ACC.M
organismam nepieciešams kalcījs.
 ‘If one craves fat-rich food it means that the body needs calcium.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- b. *Mazumtirdzniecības izaugsme lēnām*
 retail_sector.GEN.F growth.NOM.F gradually
bremzēsies.
slow_down.FUT.3.REFL
 ‘Growth in the retail sector will gradually slow down.’ (Kas Jauns)

Given the functional heterogeneity of reflexive verbs and their strong links to the semantic and grammatical structure of sentences, they are best grouped according to how they stand in relation to the prototypical reflexive meaning. Prototypical reflexive verbs are verbs whose subject and object refer to one and the same entity, i.e., whose agent and patient coincide (e.g., *ietīties* ‘to wrap oneself’, *atjaunoties* ‘to recover (no obj.)’, *mainīties* ‘to change (no obj.)’) (among others, Wierzbicka 1996; Enger, Nessel 1999; Haspelmath 2002). In Latvian, reflexive verbs have trifurcated into the following semantically and functionally distinct branches (Kalnača, Lokmane 2012; Kalnača 2013c: 512):

- 1) subject reflexive verbs, which come the closest to the prototypical meaning and are related to the middle voice meaning;
- 2) object reflexive verbs;
- 3) impersonal reflexive verbs.

Functionally and semantically, object reflexive and impersonal reflexive verbs are the farthest from the prototypical meaning. In terms of the semantico-syntactic sentence structure this means that either there is no agent or it is replaced with an experiencer or a beneficiary in the dative case (see also Section 3.2.3). In addition, reflexive verbs of all semantic groups also involve different kinds of modal and aspectual meanings, most of which arise due to changes in the agent’s status or its absence (i.e., zero form).

Subject reflexive verbs

Actions expressed by subject reflexive verbs are subject-oriented: the agent functions as a syntactic subject and at the same time the subject and object fully or partially coincide (Klaiman 1991: 4; Kemmer 1993: 2–5).

- (2.5.155) a. *Vai tas ir normāli,*
 ka kaķis tik ilgi mazgājas?
 that cat.NOM.M so long_time wash.PRS.3. REFL
 ‘Is it normal that a cat washes itself for so long?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Šorīt agri cēlos,*
 this_morning early get_up.PST.1SG.REFL
 lai piedalītos TV raidījumā.
 ‘I got up early today to participate in a television program.’
 (www.twitter.com)
- c. *Pārsvārā pēc dušas slaukos ātri.*
 mostly after shower.GEN.F dry_oneself.PRS.1SG.REFL quickly
 ‘Mostly, I dry myself with a towel right after a shower.’ (www.cosmo.lv)

Thus, for example, the subject and object of the verbs *celties* (*no gultas*) ‘to get up (from bed)’, *slaucīties* (*pēc peldes*) ‘to dry oneself with a towel (after swimming)’, *mazgāties* (*vannā*) ‘to have a bath’ are entirely the same, while the subject and object of the verb *ķemmēties* ‘to comb (one’s hair)’ only partially overlap, since it is usually one’s hair and not the whole body that one combs.

In functional and derivational terms, there are two kinds of subject reflexive verbs – with an implied reflexive pronoun in the accusative (2.5.156) or the dative case (2.5.157) (Endzelins, Mülenbachs 1907a, 1907b).

- (2.5.156) *mazgāties* ‘to wash oneself’
 celties ‘to get (oneself) up’
 liekties ‘to bend (oneself)’
- (2.5.157) *sapīrkties* ‘to buy (for oneself)’
 apsieties ‘to tie (around oneself)’
 apauties ‘to put on shoes (on oneself)’

While accusative reflexive verbs can have fully or partially coinciding subjects and objects, only a partial overlap is often possible for dative reflexive verbs (*apsieties priekšautu* ‘to tie an apron (around oneself)’ means to tie it around the waist or neck, i.e., around a certain part of the body rather than the whole body).

Subject reflexive verbs can be classified into the following semantic groups:

1. **Verbs expressing everyday activities / grooming verbs** – the patient is the same as the agent or agent’s body part (*mazgāties* ‘to wash (oneself)’, *ģērbties* ‘to dress (oneself)’, *skūties* ‘to shave (oneself)’, *slaucīties* ‘to dry oneself with a towel’, *ķemmēties* ‘to comb one’s hair’, etc.).

- (2.5.158) a. *Līga [maza meitene] jau mēģina pati*
 Liga.NOM.F [little girl] already try.PRS.3 self
 ķemmēties.
 comb.INF.REFL
 ‘Līga [a little girl] already is trying to comb her hair.’
 (www.maminuklubs.lv)

- b. *Kā arī aukstā laikā ģērbties*
 how even cold.LOC.M weather.LOC.M **dress.INF.REFL**
moderni?
 fashionably
 ‘How to dress fashionably even in cold weather?’ (www.delfi.lv)

2. **Autocausative verbs** – the patient is the agent’s physical body, which changes its location, position, etc.:

- a) an animate agent

(2.5.159) a. *Ja jāved suns ārā,*

tad ceļos no gultas jau
 then **get_up.PRS.1SG.REFL** from bed.GEN.F already
piecos [no rītā].
 five.LOC.M [in morning]

‘When I have to walk the dog I get up as early as five o’clock [in the morning].’ (www.cosmo.lv)

- b. *Bille un Ausma paslējās pirkstgalos.*
 Bille.NOM.F and Ausma.NOM.F **raise.PST.3.REFL** tiptoe.LOC.PL.M
 ‘Bille and Ausma raised themselves up on their tiptoes.’ (V. Belševica)

- b) an inanimate agent; although an action takes place on its own, without human agency, it is described with the help of personification as though it were brought about by an agent. Reflexive verbs of this type can alternatively be interpreted as object verbs, i.e., passive verbs, since they lack an active agent (see, e.g., Paegle 2003: 130)

(2.5.160) a. *Vasara nebeidzas:*

sārtojas zemenes,
ripen.PRS.3.REFL strawberry.NOM.PL.F
zied puķes.

‘The summer is not nearing its end yet: strawberries are ripening, flowers are blooming.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

- b. *Daugavā ceļas ūdens līmenis.*
 Daugava.LOC.F **rise.PRS.3.REFL** water.GEN.M level.NOM.M
 ‘The water level is rising in the Daugava.’ (www.lsm.lv)

3. **Reciprocal verbs** – an action is exchanged between several (at least two) agent–patients acting upon each other (Ahero et al. 1959: 558; Skujiņa 2007: 344).

(2.5.161) a. *[Futbolistam Lionelam] Mesi nākot no rezervistu soliņa,*

“Barcelona” cīnās neizšķirti ar
 Barcelona.NOM.F **fight.PRS.3.REFL** in_a_draw with
“Juventus”.
 Juventus.INS.M

‘As [the football player Lionel] Messi returns from the bench the points are even between Barcelona and Juventus.’ (Diena)

- b. *Liekas,*
ka viņi sarunājas spāniski.
 that they.NOM.M speak.PRS.3.REFL Spanish
 ‘It seems, they are speaking in Spanish.’ (A. Eglītis)

4. **Indirect-reflexive verbs** – the agent is also the beneficiary (*sapirkties* ‘to buy for oneself’, *sagrābties* ‘to grab, seize for oneself’, *apsieties* ‘to tie around/onto oneself’, *apvilkties* ‘to wrap oneself in smth.’, *uzlikties* ‘to place on oneself’, *uzvilkties* ‘to put on oneself’).

- (2.5.162) a. *Sapirkos lētas drēbes.*
buy.PST.1SG.REFL cheap.ACC.PL.F clothes.ACC.PL.F
 ‘I have bought a lot of cheap clothes.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- b. *Apvilcīes esmu savas labākās*
dress.PTCP.NOM.M.REFL. be.AUX.PRS.1SG my.ACC.PL.F best.ACC.PL.F
drānas.
 clothes.ACC.PL.F
 ‘I have dressed myself up in my best attire.’
 (www.lauksaimnieks.wordpress.com)

- c. *Viņš gribēs šē naudas sagrābties!*
 he.NOM want.FUT.3 here money.GEN.PL.F **grab.INF.REFL**
 ‘He will want to lay his hands on some money here.’ (C)

5. **Reflexive verbs with a modal or aspectual meaning** – subject reflexive verbs expressing aspectuality and (in certain contexts involving a positive or negative attitude) also modality:

- a) an action with a focus on its extent or quantity with or without negative evaluation on the part of the speaker, expressed derivationally by means of circumfixation (prefix + reflexive ending) *pie-* ... -s; *sa-* ... -s, *pa-* ... -s, *pār-* ... -s, *aiz-* ... -s, *no-* ... -s, etc.

- a₁) an action carried out in full

- (2.5.163) a. *Viņš nezaudē cerības aizbraukt uz*
 he.NOM not_lose.PRS.3 hope.ACC.PL.F go.INF to
laukiem pie vecāsmātes, tur kārtīgi
 country.DAT.PL.M to grandmother.GEN.F there a_lot
sadzerties pienu.
drink.INF.REFL milk.ACC.M

‘He still hopes to go to the country, to his grandmother’s, and drink all the milk he wants.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

- b. *Dundagā pamatīgi pieēdāmies kādā*
 Dundaga.LOC.F thoroughly **eat.PST.1PL.REFL** some.LOC.F
ēstuvē.
 restaurant.LOC.F
 ‘We ate our fill at some restaurant in Dundaga.’ (C)

b.) an action done to excess

(2.5.164) a. *Nekad nav laika,*

vienmēr aizguļos.

always **oversleep.PRS.1SG.REFL**

‘I never have time, I always oversleep.’ (C)

b. *Ja bail pārdzerties kafiju,*

if afraid **drink_too_much.INF.REFL** coffee.ACC.F

to vienmēr var aizstāt ar kakao.

‘If you’re afraid of drinking too much coffee you can always replace it with cocoa.’ (C)

b) an action with an inchoative focus, referring to the beginning of a sudden, unexpected, brief action, expressed derivationally by means of the circumfixes *pie-* ... -s; *ie-* ... -s; *sa-* ... -s, *pa-* ... -s, *pār-* ... -s, *aiz-* ... -s, *no-* ... -s, etc.:

(2.5.165) a. *Ja cilvēkam kaut kas iesāpas nakts*
if person.DAT.M something **hurt.PRS.3.REFL** night.GEN.F
vidū,
middle.LOC.M

viņš neies pie ģimenes ārsta.

‘If one just feels a brief sting of pain at night one doesn’t rush to the GP.’ (C)

b. *Es patiešām satrūkos,*
I.NOM really **jump.PST.1SG.REFL**

kad ieraudziju, kādi tenisisti ir “Top 100”.

‘It really made me jump when I saw which tennis players are included in the “Top 100”’. (www.sportacentrs.com)

c) an iterative action not having an end

(2.5.166) a. *Diemžēl nekur nav iespēju*
unfortunately nowhere not_be.PRS.3 possibility.GEN.PL.F
kārtīgi pabraukāties [ar automašīnu],
normally **drive.INF.REFL** [with car]
policija tūlīt noķer.

‘Unfortunately, there is no place where you can drive to your heart’s content, the police will catch you at once.’ (Ieva)

b. – *Vai tu tomēr nevarētu apsēsties, taisni neeerti [ka stāvi kājās].*

– *Esmu diezgan izsēdējies.*

be.AUX.1SG enough **sit.PTCP.NOM.M.REFL**

‘“Still, can’t you sit down, it feels awkward [that you are standing].”

“I have sat enough.”’ (Z. Skujiņš)

Object reflexive verbs

Object reflexive verbs express object-oriented actions with the patient usually functioning as a syntactic subject.

- (2.5.167) *Gredzens* **atradās,**
ring.NOM.M **find.PST.3.REFL**
kad visi sāka celties, lai ietu mājās, – tas gulēja uz maza galdiņa istabas otrajā pusē.
‘The ring was found when everybody started to leave – it lay on the small table at the opposite end of the room.’ (Z. Skujiņš)

Since the agent of an object reflexive verb is either generalized, as shown in example (2.5.168), or transformed into a dative experiencer, it cannot be identical to the patient.

- (2.5.168) *Man* **aizmirsās** *maks* *airBaltic*
I.DAT **forget.PST.3.REFL** purse.NOM.M airBaltic
lidmašīnā.
plane.LOC.F
‘My purse got left on an airBaltic plane.’ (www.twitter.com)

Object reflexive verbs can be classified into the following semantic groups:

1. **Anticausative verbs** refer to unexpected events occurring independently of human will or actions; the agent is absent or expressed as a dative experiencer, while the patient functions as a nominative syntactic subject; some of these verbs, with the help of personification, can be alternatively interpreted as autocausatives.

- (2.5.169) a. *Pagraba stāvā vērās [dzīvokļa] durvis. Izplūda svaigi ceptas maizes smarža.*
Tad durvis **aizcirtās.**
then door.NOM.PL.F **slam.PST.3.REFL**
‘A[n] [apartment] door opened in the basement. The smell of freshly baked bread flowed out. Then the door slammed shut.’ (Jaunā Gaita)
- b. *Draugam vienubrīd atsējās*
friend.DAT.M at_some_point **untie.PST.3.REFL**
kurpes aukla,
shoe.GEN.F lace.NOM.F
un viņš noliecās to aizsiet.
‘At some point, my friend’s shoelace came undone and he stooped to tie it.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

2. **Reflexive verbs with a modal or aspectual meaning** – reflexive verbs used with the so-called false passive meaning; although an action expressed in this way may not be agentless the speaker may choose to focus attention on the action itself and the fact that it is not always performed deliberately and actively, hence, the agent may be omitted or transformed into a dative experiencer, while the patient functions as a nominative syntactic subject.

- a) imperfective reflexive verbs with no agent or with a dative experiencer are usually related to a positive or negative evaluation of the action expressed; in many cases, this kind of usage is considered non-standard

(2.5.170) a. *Patērētājam ir ļoti svarīgi zināt,*
kādā veidā [adījums] valkāties vai
 which.LOC.M way.LOC.M [knitting] wear.FUT.3.REFL or
lietosies.

use.FUT.3.REFL

‘It’s very important for a consumer to know how [the fabric] will withstand wear or use.’ (C)

b. *Šis veļas pulveris tīri*
 this.NOM.M washing.GEN.F powder.NOM.M clean
mazgā, labi izskalojas.

wash.PRS.3 well **rinse.PRS.REFL**

‘This washing powder cleans and rinses well.’

(www.mammamunteti.lv)

b) perfective reflexive verbs often accompanied by a dative experiencer are used to express a sudden, unexpected action, likely to have negative consequences, and to shift responsibility from the doer – usually in colloquial or children’s speech (Holvoet 2001: 184–189; Kalnača 2006; Kalnača, Lokmane 2012).

(2.5.171) a. *Un tad man aizmirsās atlikt to*
 and then I.DAT forget.PST.1SG.REFL put_back.INF it.ACC.M
[nazi] atpakaļ.

[knife] back

‘And then I somehow forgot to put that [knife] back.’ (www.delfi.lv)

b. *Man apēdās dažas sliktas*
 I.DAT eat.PST.3.REFL some.NOM.PL.F bad.NOM.PL.F
lietas.

thing.NOM.PL.F

‘It so happened that I ate some bad things.’ (C)

3. **Reflexive verbs with a passive meaning** are used as passive voice verbs; the agent is left unexpressed and the subject position is filled by the patient in the nominative case; this kind of usage, however, is not encouraged in Standard Latvian:

(2.5.172) a. *Izstāde atvērsies 3. maijā.*
 exhibition.NOM.F open.FUT.3.REFL 3 May.LOC.F
 ‘The exhibition will open on the 3rd of May.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

b. *Vārdi ar vienu nozīmi bieži*
 word.NOM.PL.M with one.INS.F meaning.INS.F often
rakstās un lasās katram no
write.PRS.3.REFL and **read.PST.3.REFL** each.DAT.M of
šiem grieķu valodas
 this.GEN.PL.M Greek.GEN.PL.M language.GEN.F
veidiem citādi.

variety.DAT.PL.M differently

‘Words with the same meaning are often written and pronounced differently in each of these varieties of Greek.’ (C)

Impersonal reflexive verbs

Impersonal reflexive verbs do not allow for a syntactic subject and, hence, are either agentless or take an agent in the form of a dative experiencer.

- (2.5.173) a. *Sestdien būs apmācies*
 Saturday be.AUX.FUT.3 **be_cloudy.PTCP.NOM.M.REFL**
un līs.
 and rain.FUT.3
 ‘It will be cloudy and rainy on Saturday.’ (www.lsm.lv)
- b. *Pa ceļam uz Grieķiju man laimējās*
 on way.DAT.M to Greece.ACC.F I.DAT **be_lucky.PST.3.REFL**
apmeklēt seno baznīcu.
 visit.INF ancient.ACC.F church.ACC.F
 ‘On my way to Greece, I was lucky to be able to visit this ancient church.’ (www.apollo.lv)

Impersonal reflexive verbs can be classified into the following semantic groups:

1. **Agent-downgrading verbs with a modal meaning** – the agent is downgraded to an experiencer in the dative case:

- a) in questions and expressions of good wishes, mostly in colloquial speech and mass media texts, although the usage is considered non-standard.

- (2.5.174) a. *Kā tev vispār tagad dzīvojas?*
 how you.DAT.SG generally now **live.PRS.3.REFL**
 ‘How is life these days?’
Tā arī dzīvojas, kā redzi.
 so also **live.PRS.3.REFL** as see.PRS.2SG
 ‘It’s going just like it seems.’
- b. *Lai labi rokas kartupeļi!*
 let well **dig.PST.3.REFL** potato.NOM.PL.M
 ‘May your potato digging go well!’ (Kas Jauns)

- b) when expressing an accidental, unintentional or spontaneous action that is not always anticipated or probable.

- (2.5.175) a. *Dzīvē gadās visādi.*
 life.LOC.F **happen.PST.3.REFL** variously
 ‘Things happen.’ (Ir)
- b. *Viņam negribējās tūdaļ celties un*
 he.DAT **not_want.PST.3.REFL** immediately get_up.INF and
doties laukā [no restorānā]
 go.INF outside [from restaurant]
dedzinošajā saulē.
 scorching.LOC.F sun.LOC.F
 ‘He didn’t want to get up and head right out into the scorching sunlight [from the restaurant].’ (A. Eglītis)

2. **Verbs with an inchoative meaning** express a sudden, unexpected action, focusing on its outset or starting point, and usually take a dative experiencer without either an agent or a patient; verbs of this type are derived by means of the circumfix *ie-* ... *-s*.

- (2.5.176) a. *Man iedūrās krūtīs,*
 I.DAT **pierce.PST.3.REFL** chest.LOC.PL.F
likās, ka nevaru līdz galam ieelpot.
 ‘I felt a piercing sensation in my chest, I couldn’t seem to breathe in fully.’ (NRA)
- b. *Jā, mums iesāpas sirdī,*
 yes we.DAT **hurt.PRS.3.REFL** heart.LOC.F
ieduras smeldze.
pierce.PRS.3.REFL ache.NOM.F
 ‘Yes, we feel a twinge of pain in our hearts, pierced by an ache.’ (C)

2.5.8 Aspect

Aspect refers primarily to the way grammar marks the duration or type of a temporal activity denoted by a verb (Crystal 1997: 29). In other words, aspect characterizes an action in terms of results (an incomplete, complete, initiated action, an action performed in part, to excess, etc.), quantity (a single or iterative action), duration (a brief or prolonged action) and other properties (Skujina 2007: 439).

In much the same way as verb reflexivity, verbal aspect in Latvian has both derivational and inflectional features. Consequently, some grammarians view verbal aspect as part of word formation, while others attribute it to verbal inflection and, accordingly, it is seen either as a phenomenon emerging from derivation or as a grammatical category of the verb. Endzelins (1971: 307–655) and Soida (2009: 219–265) treat verbal aspect as a derivational phenomenon and do not postulate a category of aspect due to there not being sufficient grammatical abstraction (for a similar opinion see, e.g., Mathiassen 1997; Holvoet 2001; Kalnača 2013c: 531–545). On the other hand, e.g., Staltmane (1958), Ahero et al. (1959: 564–582), Nītiņa (2001: 90–93), Paegle (2003: 130–138) propose to treat verbal aspect as a verbal grammatical category while also recognizing, as a compromise, its links to word formation.

It should be emphasized that, in Latvian, aspectual meanings are not grammaticalized and rest on the lexical meaning of verbs as well as prefix and suffix semantics, while their realization is contingent on the opposition of indefinite/perfect tense forms and context. These are the main reasons why aspect cannot really be seen as a grammatical category. In fact, aspectual meanings in Latvian are a matter of pragmatics and as such are not a proper object of analysis for morphology or grammar.

In Latvian, aspectual opposition occurs in two kinds of cases (also see Section 2.5.10 on verbal derivation):

- 1) between *imperfective/perfective* actions where unprefixated verbs express imperfective actions, while verbs containing the verbal prefixes *aiz-*, *ap-*, *at-*, *ie-*, *iz-*, *no-*, *pa-*, *pār-*, *sa-*, *uz-* are perfective:

(2.5.177) *nest* ‘to carry’ – *aiz-nest* ‘to carry (to a destination)’
krist ‘to fall’ – *ap-krist* ‘to fall (around smth.)’
vērt ‘to open’ – *at-vērt* ‘to open (completely)’
brauk-t ‘to drive’ – *ie-braukt* ‘to drive into, enter (by car)’
nākt ‘to come’ – *iz-nākt* ‘to come out’
kāpt ‘to climb’ – *no-kāpt* ‘to climb down’
lasīt ‘to read’ – *pa-lasīt* ‘to read for some time’
lēkt ‘to jump’ – *pār-lēkt* ‘to jump over’
mest ‘to throw’ – *sa-mest* ‘to throw together, in one heap’
likt ‘to put’ – *uz-likt* ‘to put onto’

- 2) between *semelfactive/iterative* actions where primitive verbs express semelfactive actions, while verbs derived by means of the suffixes *-ā-*, *-ē-*, *-ī-*, *-inā-* (2.5.178) or *-alē-*, *-aļā-*, *-elē-*, *-uļo-*, for atelic, chaotic iterative activities (2.5.179), are iterative:

(2.5.178) *lēk-t* ‘to jump’ – *lēk-ā-t* ‘to jump iteratively’
mērk-t ‘to soak’ – *mērc-ē-t* ‘to soak for some time’
stiep-t ‘to pull, drag’ – *staip-ī-t* ‘to pull, drag on several occasions’
vēr-t ‘to open’ – *vir-inā-t* ‘to open iteratively’
(2.5.179) *brauk-t* ‘to drive’ – *brauk-alē-t* ‘to drive around’
kāp-t ‘to climb’ – *kāp-aļā-t*, *kāp-elē-t* ‘to climb around’
šņāk-t ‘to hiss, puff’ – *šņāk-uļo-t* ‘to hiss, puff repeatedly’

The semelfactive/iterative aspect and the imperfective/perfective aspect are not segregated from each other and can be combined. For example, an iterative verb can be turned into a perfective iterative verb by means of prefixation.

(2.5.180) a. *nest* ‘to carry’ – *nēs-ā-t* ‘to carry around’ – *pa-nēsāt* ‘to carry around a little’, *iz-nēsāt* ‘to carry (a child)’, *sa-nēsāt* ‘to carry to one spot iteratively’
b. *vilkt* ‘to put on’ – *valk-ā-t* ‘to wear’ – *pa-valkāt* ‘to wear a little’, *no-valkāt* ‘to wear out’, *iz-valkāt*, *ie-valkāt* ‘to wear in (shoes)’, *sa-valkāt* ‘to wear too long, until untidy’
c. *kāpt* ‘to climb’ – *kāpēlēt* ‘to climb around’ – *pa-kāpelēt* ‘to climb around a little’, *iz-kāpelēt* ‘to climb, walk throughout’
d. *braukt* ‘to drive’ – *braukalēt* ‘to drive around’ – *pa-braukalēt* ‘to drive around a little’

Unlike inflectional (person, tense, mood) verbal formatives, aspectual prefixes and suffixes are present in the infinitive and all other grammatical forms of a verb (see Section 2.5.1, 2.5.3, 2.5.4 on tense and mood forms).

Apart from expressing perfectivity, verbal prefixes usually also add additional, e.g., spatial (2.5.181a), quantitative (2.5.181b-c), aspectual, etc. information to the lexical meaning of a verb (see Section 2.5.10 on verbal derivation).

- (2.5.181) a. *skriet* ‘to run’ – *aiz-skriet* ‘to run away’, *at-skriet* ‘to come running’,
ie-skriet ‘to run in, into’, *iz-skriet* ‘to run out’, *ap-skriet* ‘to run around’,
uz-skriet ‘to run up’, *no-skriet* ‘to run down, to run a certain distance’,
sa-skriet ‘to come together running’, *pār-skriet* ‘to run over’, *pa-skriet*
‘to run a little’
- b. *kost* ‘to bite’ – *aiz-kost* ‘take a bite (e.g., of an apple)’, *ie-kost* ‘to bite
(once)’, *sa-kost* ‘to bite all over’, *no-kost* ‘to bite off’, *pār-kost* ‘to bite
in two’
- c. *kurt* ‘to make a fire’ – *aiz-kurt*, *ie-kurt* ‘to make a fire’, *sa-kurt* ‘to heat well’

Imperfectivity/perfectivity in Latvian is neither symmetrical nor universal in that it does not apply to all verbs:

- 1) some prefixed verbs do not have an unprefixed counterpart, e.g.:
- (2.5.182) *atzīt* ‘to acknowledge’, *pazīt* ‘to know, recognize’, *aizmirst* ‘to forget’,
apnikt ‘to bore’, *atgādināt* ‘to remind’, *ietekmēt* ‘to influence’, *pielāgot*
‘to adjust’, *sastapt* ‘to meet’
- 2) the lexical meanings of certain unprefixed and prefixed verbs are so dissimilar that they cannot possibly form an imperfective/perfective opposition, e.g.:
- (2.5.183) a. *dzīvot* ‘to live’ – ***uz-dzīvot*** ‘to carouse’
b. *mantot* ‘to inherit’ – ***iz-mantot*** ‘to use’
c. *stāvēt* ‘to stand’ – ***pie-stāvēt*** ‘to suit (smb.)’
d. *rast* ‘to find’ – ***ap-rast*** ‘to get used to’
e. *vēlēt* ‘to vote (in an election)’ – ***pa-vēlēt*** ‘to order, to command’

However, such source verbs usually enter into an opposition with other prefixed derivatives having more similar semantics (e.g., *dzīvot* ‘to live’ – *pa-dzīvot* ‘to live for some time’, *sa-dzīvot* ‘to live with’, *pie-dzīvot* ‘to live to, to live over’, etc.).

- 3) some verbs (mostly, borrowed) do not readily combine with prefixes, e.g.:
- (2.5.184) *adaptēt* ‘to adapt’, *legalizēt* ‘to legalize’, *reabilitēt* ‘to vindicate’, *kanonizēt*
‘to canonize’, *konsolidēt* ‘to consolidate’, *pasterizēt* ‘to pasteurize’, *karbonizēt*
‘to carbonize’, *jonizēt* ‘to ionize’

Taken out of context, the above verbs can be said to be biaspectual. Their aspectual meaning is context-dependent and may be closely linked to the semantics of the subject or object of a clause, also an attribute or an adverbial modifier, e.g.:

(2.5.185) **imperfective aspect**

- a. *Man šķita,*
ka tikko satiktos latviešus
that just meet.PTCP.PL.M Latvian.ACC.PL.M
pazīstu jau gadiem ilgi.
know.PRS.1SG already year.INS.PL.M long
‘I felt as though I had known the Latvians I had just met for years.’
(www.kurzemnieks.lv)

- b. *Ūdeni pēc diennakts nostādināšanas vienmēr*
 water.ACC.M after day_and_night.GEN.F let_settle.GEN.F always
izmantoju puķu laistīšanai.
 use.PRS.1SG flower.GEN.PL.F watering.DAT.F
 ‘I always use the water for flowers, after letting it settle for
 a twenty-four-hour period.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- c. *[ekonomiskās] Krīzes laikā mēs*
 [economic] crisis.GEN.F time.LOC.M we.NOM
konsolidējām visu pēc kārtas,
 consolidate.PST.1PL everything.ACC.M after row.GEN.F
neiedziļinoties – ir attiecīgā nozare stratēģiski svarīga vai nav.
 ‘Throughout the [economic] crisis we consolidated anything and
 everything, never considering the strategic importance of each industry.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

(2.5.186) **perfective aspect**

- a. *Katrā mākslinieka akvarelī uzreiz*
 each.LOC.M artist.GEN.M painting.LOC.M instantly
pazīstu Latgali.
 recognize.PRS.1SG Latgale.ACC.F
 ‘I instantly recognize Latgale in every watercolor painting by that
 artist.’ (www.rezeknesbiblioteka.lv)
- b. *Mēs nepērkam lielveikalā pārtiku*
 we.NOM not_buy.PRS.1PL supermarket.LOC.M food.ACC.F
lielā daudzumā un visu [noprirkto]
 large.LOC.M quantity.LOC.M and all.ACC.M [bought]
ļoti ekonomiski izmantojam.
 very economically use.PRS.1PL
 ‘We don’t buy much food at supermarkets and we use all of it very
 sparingly.’ (www.lsm.lv)
- c. *Ekonomiskās krīzes laikā visas*
 economic.GEN.F crisis.GEN.F time.LOC.M all.NOM.PL.F
dalībvalstis konsolidēja
 member_state.NOM.PL.F consolidate.PST.3
savu budžetu.
 own.ACC.M budget.ACC.M
 ‘During the economic crisis all member states consolidated their
 budgets.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

In example (2.5.185), imperfectivity is signaled by the adverbial modifiers *gadiem ilgi* ‘for years’ (2.5.185a), *vienmēr* ‘always’ (2.5.185b), *krīzes laikā* ‘throughout the crisis’ (2.5.185c) and the object *visu pēc kārtas* ‘anything and everything’ (2.5.185c). By contrast, the adverbial modifier *uzreiz* ‘instantly’ in (2.5.186a), the object *visu* ‘all of it’ in (2.5.186b) and the clause subject with an attribute *visas dalībvalstis* ‘all member

states' in (2.5.186c) indicate perfectivity. Importantly, the opposition that biaspectual verbs seem to show in context is between *general* and *specific* actions rather than the *imperfective* and *perfective* aspect. According to Plungian (2011: 398–400), this type of aspectual opposition is secondary in that it is the result of a context-driven transformation of the imperfective aspect into a general action and the perfective aspect into a concrete action, in which the absence or presence of a verbal prefix becomes insignificant (also see Horiguči 2011: 102).

In Latvian, the realization of aspectual meanings within the imperfective/perfective opposition is tied to the parallel uses of indefinite and perfect tense forms (see Section 2.5.3 on perfect tenses and aspect), while the semelfactive/iterative aspect is not directly related to the paradigm of tense forms or their contextual uses.

Thus, an action occurring prior to another action in the present, past, or future can be expressed, interchangeably, either by indefinite or perfect tense forms, cf. examples (2.5.187) and (2.5.188) (Kalnača 2013c: 544–555). This becomes obvious in complex sentences containing relative temporal relations between clauses and subordinate relations between finite verb forms.

(2.5.187) a. PRS Indefinite // PRS Perfect

Jūs aizmirstat (// esat aizmirsis),
you.NOM.PL forget.PRS.2PL (// have forgotten)
kur atrodaties.

'You forget (have forgotten) where you are.' (M. Zīverts)

b. PST Indefinite // PRS Perfect

Kad viesi beidzot pamodās
when guest.NOM.PL.M finally awake.PST.3
(// ir pamodušies),
(// have awakened)

tēvs lepni izrāda [dārzā] padarīto.

'When the guests finally wake up (have finally woken up) father proudly shows them what has been accomplished [in the garden].' (A. Žigure)

c. PST Indefinite // PST Perfect

Kad iebraucām (// bijām iebraukuši) [Amerikā],
when come.PST.1PL (// had come) [to America]
pirmajos gados es taisījos pieņemt kādu vienkāršu darbu, bet Jolanta neļāva.
'When we first came (had come) [to America] I wanted to take an unskilled job but Jolanta would not let me.' (A. Eglītis)

d. FUT Indefinite // FUT Perfect

Kad pēc pusgada debesīs atkal
when after half_year.GEN.M sky.LOC.PL.F again
atgriezīsies (// būs atgriezies) saule,
return.FUT.3 (// will have returned) sun.NOM.F
preti šalkos klūgu jaunās lapiņas.

'When, in half a year, the sun will return (will have returned) to the sky it will be greeted by the rustle of young osier leaves.' (I. Ābele)

(2.5.188) a. PRS Perfect // PRS Indefinite

Ap tevi aplīp ziedputekšņu spieti,

..

Ko saules klajos [ir]
what.ACC sun.GEN.F space.LOC.PL.M [having been]

pacēlis (// *paceļ*)

bring_up.PTCP.NOM.M (// *bring*)

tavs dārzs.

your.NOM.M garden.NOM.M

‘The clouds of pollen cling to you,

..

Brought up (having been brought up) into the sunlit spaces by your garden.’ (L. Tauns)

b. PRS Perfect // PST Indefinite

Laikam sporta ziņu portāls

probably sports.GEN.M news.GEN.PL.F portal.NOM.M

[ir] aizmīrsis (// *aizmīrsa*),

[has] forget.PTCP.NOM.M (// *forgot*)

ka pašlaik notiek hokeja spēle!

‘It seems, the sports news portal has forgotten (forgot) that there’s a hockey game going on!’ (www.sportacentrs.com)

c. PST Perfect // PST Indefinite

Kamēr Filips spēja sevi atcerēties,

viņš bija visiem paticis

he.NOM be.AUX.PST.3 everybody.DAT.PL.M like.PTCP.NOM.M

(// *patika*).

(// *liked*)

Īpaši meitenēm.

‘As long as Philip could remember everybody had always liked (liked) him. Especially, girls.’ (A. Eglītis)

d. FUT Perfect // FUT Indefinite

Izlasot šo grāmatu,

būsīm izgājuši (// *iziesim*) *cauri*

be.AUX.FUT.1PL go.PTCP.NOM.PL.M (// *go*) *through*

vairāk nekā pieciem gadu desmitiem.

more than five.DAT.PL.M year.GEN.PL.M ten.DAT.PL.M

‘Having read this book, we will have gone through (go through) more than five decades.’ (www.kurzemesvards.lv)

It follows that, perfectivity can be expressed syntactically, i.e., making use of the properties of complex sentences. Interestingly, despite the fact that indefinite tense forms are shorter and easier to use, on the whole, there is no sign that they tend to supplant perfect forms in complex sentences. This shows that the tense forms

the speaker chooses to use to indicate that an action in one clause ends sooner than an action in another clause depends on the communicative situation.

The expression of imperfectivity/perfectivity can be linked to the lexical meaning, namely, the telicity of a verb. This is clearly manifested in the so-called *telic constructions* – couplings of an unprefixing/prefixing, i.e., an imperfective/perfective verb of motion with a spatial adverb:

- (2.5.189) a. *skriet prom* – *aizskriet prom* ‘to run away’
 b. *skriet šurp* – *atskriet šurp* ‘to run hither’
 c. *kāpt augšā* – *uzkāpt augšā* ‘to go up, climb up’
 d. *kāpt lejā* – *nokāpt lejā* ‘to go down, climb down’

(2.5.190) **unprefixing verb + adverb**

- a. *Pa kārtai viņi smel ārā ūdeni*
 one_by_one they.NOM.M scoop.PRS.3 out water.ACC.M
[no laivas].
[from boat]
 ‘They are scooping water [from the boat] one by one.’ (N. Ikstena)
- b. *Viņš gāja lejā pa kāpnēm.*
 he.NOM go.PST.3 down by stair.DAT.F
 ‘He was going down the stairs.’ (Joņevs)
- c. *Mamma grib mest laukā*
 mummy.NOM.F want.PRS.3 throw.INF out
[Ķīnas rozi],
[Chinese hibiscus]
jo zemes baktērijas var būt kaitīgas veselībai.
 ‘Mummy wants to throw [the Chinese hibiscus] away, because soil bacteria can be bad for one’s health.’ (N. Ikstena)

(2.5.191) **prefixing verb + adverb**

- a. *Viņš pa-skatījās apkārt.*
 he.NOM PREF-look.PST.3 around
 ‘He looked around.’ (Joņevs)
- b. *Cerams, ka viņi aku aiz-vēra*
 hopefully that they.NOM.M well.ACC.F PREF-close.PST.3
ciet.
closed
 ‘Hopefully, they closed that well.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *Ilze nav ie-nesusi iekšā somu.*
 Ilze.NOM.F not_be.AUX.PRS.3 PREF-bring.PTCP in bag.ACC.F
 ‘Ilze hasn’t brought in the bag.’ (I. Gaile)

In such constructions, a prefix indicates perfectivity and an adverb specifies the direction or purpose of motion but is not in itself a perfectivizing element and when used in a sentence is classified as an adverbial modifier (see examples (2.5.190)–(2.5.191)).

In colloquial speech, adverbial modifiers are sometimes used with telic verbs denoting non-physical actions and mental activities, however, such usage is usually evaluative and stylistically marked (Kalnača 2013c: 537; Kalnača 2014: 100):

- (2.5.192) a. *[viņi] Saņem savu vai bērnu*
 [they] get.PRS.3 own.ACC.M or child.GEN.PL.M
pabalstu un tik dzīvo nost.
 benefit.ACC.M and just live.PRS.3 away
Parazitē uz bērnu rēķina.
 ‘[They] get their welfare benefits or child care allowance and just live it up. Leeching off their children.’ (Kas Jauns)
- b. *Ātrāk gribējās tik laukumā [pēc traumas].*
Nīku ārā no bezdarbības.
 wither.PST.1SG out from idleness.GEN.F
 ‘I wanted to get back on the field as soon as possible [after the injury]. I was withering away from idleness.’ (Ieva)

Latvian linguistics has traditionally recognized the *unprefixed verb* + *adverb* type of telic constructions as marginal means of expressing aspectuality, and there have always been different opinions as to whether it applies to the imperfective (Paegle 2003; Soida 2009; Kalnača 2013c, 2014) or the perfective aspect (see Ahero et al. 1959; Kalme, Smiltnece 2001).

On the one hand, there is a tendency to use the construction *unprefixed verb* + *adverb* to emphasize a prolonged, continuous action (2.5.193) or whenever a perfectivity signaling prefix is undesirable, e.g., with the primary meaning of the present indefinite tense – an action taking place at the moment of speaking (2.5.194).

- (2.5.193) a. *Mēs kāpām ārā [no mašīnas].*
 we.NOM get.PST.1PL out [of car]
 ‘We were getting out [of the car].’ (J. Joņevs)
- b. *Norunāsim, bērns, tā:*
kad ciemiņš ies projām,
 when guest.NOM.M go.FUT.3 away
es piezvanīšu.
 ‘Let’s agree, child, that I will call you the moment the guest will be leaving.’ (G. Priede)
- (2.5.194) *Nu ko viņi tur tik ilgi dara,*
joprojām kumodi lauž vaļā?
 still bureau.ACC.F break.PRS.3 open
 ‘What’s taking them so long, are they still breaking open that chest of drawers?’ (G. Priede)

On the other hand, the construction *unprefixed verb* + *adverb* can also express perfective actions (see Horiguchi 2016; Kalnača 2017b for a detailed discussion), as in this example:

(2.5.195) *Vai obligāti jāstrādā mēnesis,*

ja eju prom no darba?
if go.PST.1SG away from job.GEN.M

‘Do I have to work for the [notice] month if I am quitting my job?’

(www.delfi.lv)

In sum, the so-called telic constructions do not, in themselves, express aspectuality in Latvian, and, while, on the whole, verbal prefixes are the principal markers of perfectivity, in some cases perfectivity is contextual.

2.5.9 Participles

A **participle** is a non-finite form of a verb used to express an action, process, or state as an attribute and combining the inherent characteristics of a verb and an adjective or a verb and an adverb. Based on their inflectional properties, participles are classified into declinable, indeclinable, and semi-declinable participles (Skujiņa 2007: 94–95). Active participles have non-reflexive and reflexive endings.

Declinable participles make use of the verbal categories of voice, tense, and aspect and the adjectival categories of gender, number, case and, in part, also definiteness and gradation (Skujiņa 2007: 223) (see Section 2.2.2 and 2.2.3 for a detailed discussion on gradation and definiteness). Syntactically, declinable participles function either as attributes (2.5.196) or secondary predicates (2.6.197) (see 3.2.9 and 3.2.11).

(2.5.196) a. *Skrejoši ļaudis piesēduši*
run.PTCP.NOM.PL.M people.NOM.PL.M sit_down.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
saulītē ar kafijas turziņām.
sun.LOC.F with coffee.GEN.F cup.INS.PL.F
‘Hurrying people were sitting in the sun with paper coffee cups.’
(N. Ikstena)

b. *Uz skatuves uznāk vasarīgi*
on stage.GEN.F come_on.PRS.3 summery
ģērbies dirigents.
be_dressed.PTCP.NOM.M conductor.NOM.M
‘The conductor dressed in summery clothes comes on the stage.’
(A. Žigurs)

c. *Jolanta apēda sviestmaizi ar redzamu*
Jolanta.NOM.F eat.PST.3 sandwich.ACC.F with see.PTCP.INS.F
apetīti.
appetite.INS.F
‘Jolanta ate the sandwich with a visible appetite.’ (A. Eglītis)

d. *Viņai rokās ir atplēsta*
she.DAT hand.LOC.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 open.PTCP.NOM.F
aploksne.
envelope.NOM.F
‘She is holding an opened envelope in her hands.’ (N. Ikstena)

- (2.6.197) a. *Dārzs* *mani* *sagaidīja,* *piebīris*
 garden.NOM.M I.ACC greet.PST.3 **get_filled.PTCP.NOM.M**
dzeltenām *lapām.*
 yellow.INS.PL.F leaf.INS.PL.F
 'The garden greeted me, strewn with yellow leaves.' (N. Ikstena)
- b. *Tikai* *vairākkārt* *mudināta,* *viņa*
 only several_times **prompt.PTCP.NOM.F** she.NOM
piecēlās *un* *devās* *uz* *virtuvi.*
 get_up.PST.3 and go.PST.3 to kitchen.ACC.F
 'Only after being prompted several times did she get up and go to the kitchen.' (A. Eglītis)

Depending on the voice meanings they express, declinable participles can be active or passive. Active voice participles are used to refer to active, subject-oriented actions.

- (2.5.198) a. *smejoša meitene* 'a laughing girl'
šalcoša jūra 'a sougning sea'
 b. *aizmidzis bērns* 'a child fallen asleep'
sarūdzis piens 'milk turned sour'

Passive voice participles, on the other hand, denote passive, object-centered actions.

- (2.5.199) a. *ravējams dārzs* 'a garden to be weeded'
pārstādāma roze 'a rose to be replanted'
 b. *uzkopts dzīvoklis* 'a cleaned apartment'
pārcelta brīvdiena 'a non-working day transferred to another date'

The formation of participles is, to a degree, linked to verb transitivity. For instance, declinable present active participles derived from intransitive verbs (2.5.200) are more common than those based on transitive verbs (2.5.201).

- (2.5.200) *ziedēt – ziedošs* 'to flower – flowering'
plaukt – plaukstošs 'to flourish, blossom – flourishing, blossoming'
krist – krītošs 'to fall – falling'
- (2.5.201) *zināt – zinošs* 'to know – knowing'
lasīt – lasošs 'to read – reading'
nest – nesošs 'to carry – carrying'

Passive participles, conversely, are usually formed from transitive verbs (2.5.202); past passive participles from intransitive verbs are, in principle, possible (2.5.203) but only as part of passive voice constructions expressing generalized actions (2.5.204).

- (2.5.202) *nest – nesams, nests* 'to carry – to be carried, carried PTCP'
rakstīt – rakstāms, rakstīts 'to write – to be written, written PTCP'
domāt – domājams, domāts 'to think – to be thought, thought PTCP'
- (2.5.203) *mīrkt – mīrkts* 'to soak – soaked PTCP'
augt – augts 'to grow – grown PTCP'
būt – būts 'to be – been PTCP'

(2.5.204) a. *Kad ilgi nav būs*
 when long **not_be.AUX.PRS.3** **be.PTCP.NOM.M**
Rīgā, man ir tāds kā
 Rīga.LOC.F I.DAT be.PRS.3 a_sort_of
nemiers.
 uneasiness.NOM.M
 ‘If I haven’t been to Rīga for a while I start feeling somewhat uneasy.’
 (www.kurzemesvards.lv)

b. *Labs rīts!*
Šonakt [ir] slikti gulēts,
 tonight [have] poorly **sleep.PTCP.NOM.M**
jāmēģina celties.
 DEB.try get_up.INF
 ‘Good morning! Having not slept well, [I] must try and get up.’
 (www.blogi.oho.lv)

Latvian makes a formal distinction between present and past tense declinable participles. **Present participles** are used to refer to actions taking place simultaneously with the main action of a clause (Skujiņa 2007: 386).

(2.5.205) a. *Viņa no skrejošiem mākoņiem*
 she.NOM from **run.PTCP.DAT.PL.M** cloud.DAT.PL.M
vairās.
 shy_away.PRS.3

‘She shies away from running clouds.’ (L. Tauns)

b. *Debesis austrumos jau blāzmoja*
 sky.NOM.PL.F east.LOC.PL.M already glow.PST.3
mostošās saules pirmajos staros.
wake_up.PTCP.GEN.F sun.GEN.F first.LOC.PL.M beam.LOC.PL.M
 ‘The eastern sky glowed brightly in the first beams of the morning sun.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

c. *Kūstošā sniega dēļ [rīt]*
melt.PTCP.GEN.M snow.GEN.M because_of [tomorrow]
veidosies lielas lāmas.
 form.FUT.3 large.NOM.PL.F puddle.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The melting snow [tomorrow] will result in large puddles.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

(2.5.206) a. *Tās [dainas] ir viegli*
 that.NOM.PL.F [dainas] be.COP.PRS.3 easily
dziedamas, viegli iegaumējas,
sing.PTCP.NOM.PL.F easily **memorize.PTCP.NOM.PL.F**
pateicoties savam ritmam un uzbūvei.
 thank.PTCP.IND own.DAT.M rhythm.DAT.M and structure.DAT.F
 ‘They [the dainas] are easy to sing, easy to remember, thanks to their rhythm and structure.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- b. *Mums bija ļoti daudz darāmu*
 we.DAT be.PST.3 very much do.PTCP.ACC.PL.M
darbu.
 work.GEN.PL.M
 ‘We had quite a lot to do.’ (Diena)
- c. *Viņš savā blogā publicējis savas*
 he.NOM own.LOC.M blog.LOC.M publish.PTCP.NOM.M own.ACC.PL.F
jaunākās prognozes, kāda būs
 newest.ACC.PL.F forecast.ACC.PL.F what_kind.NOM.F be.FUT.3
gaidāmā ziema.
 await.PTCP.NOM.F winter.NOM.F
 ‘He has published his latest forecasts for the coming winter in his blog.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

The present active and passive participles are formed by attaching the suffix *-oš-* or *am-/ām-* (the suffix *-ām-* is reserved for conjugation class 3 subclass 1 verbs), respectively, to the present tense stem of a verb.

- (2.5.207) a. *aug-t – aug-u – aug-oš-s, aug-oš-a* ‘to grow – (I) grow – growing PTCP (M), (F)’
smie-ties – smej-os – smej-oš-ies, smej-oš-ās ‘to laugh – (I) laugh – laughing PTCP (M), (F)’
 b. *nes-t – nes-u – nes-am-s, nes-am-a* ‘to carry: (I) carry – to be carried (M), (F)’
rakst-ī-t – rakst-u – rakst-ām-s, rakst-ām-a ‘to write – (I) write – to be written (M), (F)’

The **declinable present active participle** inflects according to the following paradigm:

M – *aug-t – aug-u – aug-oš-s, aug-oš-ais* ‘to grow – (I) grow – growing (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>aug-oš-s</i>	<i>aug-oš-ais</i>	<i>aug-oš-i</i>	<i>aug-oš-ie</i>
GEN	<i>aug-oš-a</i>	<i>aug-oš-ā</i>	<i>aug-oš-u</i>	<i>aug-oš-o</i>
DAT	<i>aug-oš-am</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajam</i>	<i>aug-oš-iem</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajiem</i>
ACC	<i>aug-oš-u</i>	<i>aug-oš-o</i>	<i>aug-oš-us</i>	<i>aug-oš-os</i>
INS	<i>(ar) aug-oš-u</i>	<i>(ar) aug-oš-o</i>	<i>(ar) aug-oš-iem</i>	<i>(ar) aug-oš-ajiem</i>
LOC	<i>aug-oš-ā</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajā</i>	<i>aug-oš-os</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajos</i>
VOC	<i>aug-oš-s!</i>	<i>aug-oš-ais!, aug-oš-o!</i>	<i>aug-oš-i!</i>	<i>aug-oš-ie!</i>

Table 2.55 Inflection of the declinable present active participle, in the masculine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 93)

F – *aug-t* – *aug-u* – *aug-oš-a*, *aug-oš-ā* ‘to grow – (I) grow – growing (INDF), (DEF)

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>aug-oš-a</i>	<i>aug-oš-ā</i>	<i>aug-oš-as</i>	<i>aug-oš-ās</i>
GEN	<i>aug-oš-as</i>	<i>aug-oš-ās</i>	<i>aug-oš-u</i>	<i>aug-oš-o</i>
DAT	<i>aug-oš-ai</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajai</i>	<i>aug-oš-ām</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajām</i>
ACC	<i>aug-oš-u</i>	<i>aug-oš-o</i>	<i>aug-oš-as</i>	<i>aug-oš-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) aug-oš-u</i>	<i>(ar) aug-oš-o</i>	<i>(ar) aug-oš-ām</i>	<i>(ar) aug-oš-ajām</i>
LOC	<i>aug-oš-ā</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajā</i>	<i>aug-oš-ās</i>	<i>aug-oš-ajās</i>
VOC	<i>aug-oš-a!</i>	<i>aug-oš-ā!, aug-oš-o!</i>	<i>aug-oš-as!</i>	<i>aug-oš-ās!</i>

Table 2.56 Inflection of the declinable present active participle, in the feminine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 93)

The paradigm of reflexive present active participle forms is defective in both genders: *mos-ties* – *mo-st-os* – *mos-st-oš-ies*, *mos-st-oš-ās* ‘to wake up – (I) wake up – waking up PTCP (M), (F)’:

Case	SG		PL	
	M	F	M	F
NOM	–	–	<i>mo-st-oš-ies</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-ās</i>
GEN	–	<i>mo-st-oš-ās</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-os</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-os</i>
DAT	–	–	–	–
ACC	<i>mo-st-oš-os</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-os</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-os</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) mo-st-oš-os</i>	<i>(ar) mo-st-oš-os</i>	–	–
LOC	–	–	–	–
VOC	–	–	<i>mo-st-oš-ies!</i>	<i>mo-st-oš-ās!</i>

Table 2.57 Inflection of reflexive declinable present active participles (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 93)

The **declinable present passive participle** inflects according to the following paradigm:

M – *sveik-t* – *sveic-u* – *sveic-am-s*, *sveic-am-ais* ‘to greet – (I) greet – to be greeted (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>sveic-am-s</i>	<i>sveic-am-ais</i>	<i>sveic-am-i</i>	<i>sveic-am-ie</i>
GEN	<i>sveic-am-a</i>	<i>sveic-am-ā</i>	<i>sveic-am-u</i>	<i>sveic-am-o</i>
DAT	<i>sveic-am-am</i>	<i>sveic-am-ajam</i>	<i>sveic-am-iem</i>	<i>sveic-am-ajiem</i>
ACC	<i>sveic-am-u</i>	<i>sveic-am-o</i>	<i>sveic-am-us</i>	<i>sveic-am-os</i>
INS	<i>(ar) sveic-am-u</i>	<i>(ar) sveic-am-o</i>	<i>(ar) sveic-am-iem</i>	<i>(ar) sveic-am-ajiem</i>
LOC	<i>sveic-am-ā</i>	<i>sveic-am-aj-ā</i>	<i>sveic-am-os</i>	<i>sveic-am-ajos</i>
VOC	<i>sveic-am-s!</i>	<i>sveic-am-ais!, sveic-am-o!</i>	<i>sveic-am-i!</i>	<i>sveic-am-ie!</i>

Table 2.58 Inflection of the declinable present passive participle, in the masculine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 94)

F – *sveik-t – sveic-u – sveic-am-a, sveic-am-ā* ‘to greet – (I) greet – to be greeted (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>sveic-am-a</i>	<i>sveic-am-ā</i>	<i>sveic-am-as</i>	<i>sveic-am-ās</i>
GEN	<i>sveic-am-as</i>	<i>sveic-am-ās</i>	<i>sveic-am-u</i>	<i>sveic-am-o</i>
DAT	<i>sveic-am-ai</i>	<i>sveic-am-ajai</i>	<i>sveic-am-ām</i>	<i>sveic-am-ajām</i>
ACC	<i>sveic-am-u</i>	<i>sveic-am-o</i>	<i>sveic-am-as</i>	<i>sveic-am-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) sveic-am-u</i>	<i>(ar) sveic-am-o</i>	<i>(ar) sveic-am-ām</i>	<i>(ar) sveic-am-ajām</i>
LOC	<i>sveic-am-ā</i>	<i>sveic-am-aj-ā</i>	<i>sveic-am-ās</i>	<i>sveic-am-ajās</i>
VOC	<i>sveic-am-a!</i>	<i>sveic-am-ā!, sveic-am-o!</i>	<i>sveic-am-as!</i>	<i>sveic-am-ās!</i>

Table 2.59 Inflection of the declinable present passive participle, in the feminine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 94)

Past participles are used to refer to actions preceding the main action of a clause (Skujiņa 2007: 272–273).

- (2.5.208) a. *Rīta* *gaisma* *spīd* *cauri*
morning.GEN.M light.NOM.F shine.PRS.3 through
[dzelzceļa stacijas] *iedzelteni* ***noputējušajam***
[railway station] yellowish **become_dusty.PTCP.DAT.M**
stiklotajam *jumtam.*
put_in_glass.PTCP.DAT.M roof.DAT.M
‘The morning light shines through the yellowish dusty glass roof [of the railway station].’ (A. Žīgure)
- b. *Viņa* ***sagurusi*** *un* ***nobijusies***
she.NOM **get_tired.PTCP.NOM.F** and **get_frightened.PTCP.NOM.F**
skaidroja,
explain.PST.3
ka brauc pie sava drauga.
‘Tired and frightened, she explained that she was on her way to meet her friend.’ (N. Ikstena)
- c. *Rīt* *saglabāsies* *daļēji* ***apmācies***
tomorrow remain.FUT.3 partly **get_cloudy.PTCP.NOM.M**
laiks.
weather.NOM.M
‘Tomorrow, it will continue to be partly cloudy.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- (2.5.209) a. *Divas* *sievietes,* *izkāpušas* *no*
 two.NOM.PL.F woman.NOM.PL.F get_out.PTCP.NOM.PL.F from
īrētas *mašīnas,* *sēž* *uz* *solīņa* *un*
 rent.PTCP.GEN.F car.GEN.F sit.PRS.3 on bench.GEN.M and
nerunā.
 not_talk.PRS.3
 ‘The two women, having gotten out of the rented car, are sitting on the bench, not talking to each other.’ (N. Ikstena)
- b. *Mintauts* *salasīja* *izsvaidītos*
 Mintauts.NOM.M pick_up.PST.3 scatter.PTCP.ACC.PL.M
papīrus *un* *piezīmes.*
 paper.ACC.PL.M and note.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Mintauts picked up the scattered papers and notes.’ (A. Eglītis)
- c. *Jācer,*
ka *tas* *būs* *rūpīgi*
 that it.NOM.M be.AUX.FUT.3 carefully
pārdomāts *lēmums.*
 consider.PTCP.NOM.M decision.NOM.M
 ‘Hopefully, it will be a carefully considered decision.’ (Jurista Vārds)

In Latvian, past participles are formed by adding the ending *-is* / the suffix *-us-* (2.5.210a) to the past tense stem of a verb (to form the past active participle) or by attaching the suffix *-t-* to the infinitive stem of a verb (to form the past passive participle) (2.5.210b).

- (2.5.210) a. *vel-t – vēl-u – vēl-is, vēl-us-i* ‘to roll (obj.) – (I) rolled – rolled PTCP (M), (F)’
nobī-ties – nobij-os – nobij-ies, nobij-us-ies ‘to get frightened – (I) got frightened – frightened PTCP (M), (F)’
 b. *lik-t – lik-t-s, lik-t-a* ‘to put – put PTCP (M), (F)’
cien-ī-t – cien-ī-t-s, cien-ī-t-a ‘to respect – respected PTCP (M), (F)’

The **declinable past active participle** inflects according to the following paradigm: M – *cel-t – cēl-u – cēl-is, cēl-uš-ais* ‘to lift – (I) lifted – lifted PTCP (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>cēl-is</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ais</i>	<i>cēl-uš-i</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ie</i>
GEN	<i>cēl-uš-a</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ā</i>	<i>cēl-uš-u</i>	<i>cēl-uš-o</i>
DAT	<i>cēl-uš-am</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajam</i>	<i>cēl-uš-iem</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajiem</i>
ACC	<i>cēl-uš-u</i>	<i>cēl-uš-o</i>	<i>cēl-uš-us</i>	<i>cēl-uš-os</i>
INS	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-u</i>	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-o</i>	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-iem</i>	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-ajiem</i>
LOC	<i>cēl-uš-ā</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajā</i>	<i>cēl-uš-os</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajos</i>
VOC	<i>cēl-is!</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ais!, cēl-uš-o!</i>	<i>cēl-uš-i!</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ie!</i>

Table 2.60 Inflection of the declinable past active participle, in the masculine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 95)

F – *cel-t – cēl-u – cēl-us-ī, cēl-us-ī* ‘to lift – (I) lifted – lifted PTCP (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>cēl-us-ī</i>	<i>cēl-us-ī</i>	<i>cēl-uš-as</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ās</i>
GEN	<i>cēl-uš-as</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ās</i>	<i>cēl-uš-u</i>	<i>cēl-uš-o</i>
DAT	<i>cēl-uš-ai</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajai</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ām</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajām</i>
ACC	<i>cēl-uš-u</i>	<i>cēl-uš-o</i>	<i>cēl-uš-as</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-u</i>	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-o</i>	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-ām</i>	<i>(ar) cēl-uš-ajām</i>
LOC	<i>cēl-uš-ā</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajā</i>	<i>cēl-uš-os</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ajos</i>
VOC	<i>cēl-us-ī!</i>	<i>cēl-us-ī!, cēl-uš-o!</i>	<i>cēl-uš-as</i>	<i>cēl-uš-ās</i>

Table 2.61 Inflection of the declinable past active participle, in the feminine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 95)

The paradigm of reflexive past active participle forms is defective in both genders: *mos-ties – mod-os – mod-ies, mod-us-ies* ‘to wake up – (I) woke up – woken up PTCP (M), (F)’

Case	SG		PL	
	M	F	M	F
NOM	<i>mod-ies</i>	<i>mod-us-ies</i>	<i>mod-uš-ies</i>	<i>mod-uš-ās</i>
GEN	<i>mod-uš-ās</i>	<i>mod-uš-ās</i>	<i>mod-uš-os</i>	<i>mod-uš-os</i>
DAT	–	–	–	–
ACC	<i>mod-uš-os</i>	<i>mod-uš-os</i>	<i>mod-uš-os</i>	<i>mod-uš-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) mod-uš-os</i>	<i>(ar) mod-uš-os</i>	–	–
LOC	–	–	–	–
VOC	<i>mod-ies!</i>	<i>mod-us-ies!</i>	<i>mod-uš-ies!</i>	<i>mod-uš-ās!</i>

Table 2.62 Inflection of reflexive declinable past active participles (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 95)

The **declinable past passive participle** inflects according to the following paradigm: M – *cel-t – cel-t-s, cel-t-ais* ‘to lift – lifted PTCP (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>cel-t-s</i>	<i>cel-t-ais</i>	<i>cel-t-i</i>	<i>cel-t-ie</i>
GEN	<i>cel-t-a</i>	<i>cel-t-ā</i>	<i>cel-t-u</i>	<i>cel-t-o</i>
DAT	<i>cel-t-am</i>	<i>cel-t-ajam</i>	<i>cel-t-iem</i>	<i>cel-t-ajiem</i>
ACC	<i>cel-t-u</i>	<i>cel-t-o</i>	<i>cel-t-us</i>	<i>cel-t-os</i>
INS	<i>(ar) cel-t-u</i>	<i>(ar) cel-t-o</i>	<i>(ar) cel-t-iem</i>	<i>(ar) cel-t-ajiem</i>
LOC	<i>cel-t-ā</i>	<i>cel-t-ajā</i>	<i>cel-t-os</i>	<i>cel-t-ajos</i>
VOC	<i>cel-t-s!</i>	<i>cel-t-ais!, cel-t-o!</i>	<i>cel-t-i!</i>	<i>cel-t-ie!</i>

Table 2.63 Inflection of the declinable past passive participle, in the masculine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 96)

F – *cel-t – cel-t-a, cel-t-ā* ‘to lift – lifted PTCP (INDF), (DEF)’

Case	SG		PL	
	INDF	DEF	INDF	DEF
NOM	<i>cel-t-a</i>	<i>cel-t-ā</i>	<i>cel-t-as</i>	<i>cel-t-ās</i>
GEN	<i>cel-t-as</i>	<i>cel-t-ās</i>	<i>cel-t-u</i>	<i>cel-t-o</i>
DAT	<i>cel-t-ai</i>	<i>cel-t-ajai</i>	<i>cel-t-ām</i>	<i>cel-t-ajām</i>
ACC	<i>cel-t-u</i>	<i>cel-t-o</i>	<i>cel-t-as</i>	<i>cel-t-ās</i>
INS	<i>(ar) cel-t-u</i>	<i>(ar) cel-t-o</i>	<i>(ar) cel-t-ām</i>	<i>(ar) cel-t-ajām</i>
LOC	<i>cel-t-ā</i>	<i>cel-t-ajā</i>	<i>cel-t-ās</i>	<i>cel-t-ajās</i>
VOC	<i>cel-t-a!</i>	<i>cel-t-ā!, cel-t-o!</i>	<i>cel-t-as!</i>	<i>cel-t-ās!</i>

Table 2.64 Inflection of the declinable past passive participle, in the feminine (adapted from Kalnača 2013a: 96)

The **semi-declinable participle** is formed by attaching the suffix *-dam-* to the infinitive stem of a verb and its inflection is limited to gender and number in the nominative case.

- (2.5.211) a. *sauk-t* ‘to call’ – *sauk-dam-s* ‘(while) calling PTCP (M, SG, NOM)’,
sauk-dam-a (F, SG, NOM), *sauk-dam-i* (M, PL, NOM), *sauk-dam-as*
(F, PL, NOM),
b. *liek-ties* ‘to bend’ – *liek-dam-ies* ‘(while) bending PTCP (M)’, *liek-dam-ās* (F)

The semi-declinable participle is an active voice participle used to refer to actions occurring simultaneously with the main action of a clause; it therefore typically functions as a secondary predicate, agreeing in number and gender with the agent of the action, i.e., the clause subject (see also 3.2.9) (Skujiņa 2007: 74–75).

- (2.5.212) a. *Katru reizi, iedama katedrālē, viņa*
every time enter.PTCP.NOM.F cathedral.LOC.F she.NOM
vispirms nostājas pie durvīm,
at_first stand.PST.3 at door.DAT.PL.F
lai izjustu telpas garu.
‘Every time she enters the cathedral she first stops in the doorway to feel the spirit of the place.’ (A. Žīgure)
- b. *Viņš nolika somas priekšnamā un, juzdamies*
he.NOM put.PST.3 bag.ACC.PL.F hall.LOC.M and feel.PTCP.NOM.M
kā viesis, izstaigāja visas istabas.
like visitor.NOM.M walk.PST.3 all.ACC.F room.ACC.PL.F
‘He put down the bags in the hall and, feeling like a visitor, walked around every room.’ (A. Eglītis)
- c. *Lielākā daļa [cilvēku] klusēdami*
larger.NOM.F part.NOM.F [people] be_quiet.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
ies garām.
go.FUT.3 by
‘Most people will just silently pass by.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

In certain expressions mostly found in colloquial speech, the semi-declinable participle may function as a predicate.

- (2.5.213) a. *Vīrs* *painteresējās*: “*Kurp* *iedams?*”
 man.NOM.M take interest.PST.3 where to **go.PTCP.NOM.M**
 ‘The man asked: “Where do you think you are going?”’
 (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Iznāk daži jauni robežsargi,*
prasa *[man],* *uz* *kurieni* *[es]*
 ask.PRS.3 [I.DAT] to where [I.NOM]
braukdams.
go.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Several young border guards appear, ask [me] where I am going.’
 (www.draugiem.lv)

In colloquial speech, mass media and literary texts containing irony, as well as in subdialects the semi-declinable participle is sometimes used as an attribute (2.5.214).

- (2.5.214) *Ak, ļaunā pasaule!*
Nelabais *staigā* *kā* ***rūkdams*** *lauva*
 evil.NOM.M walk.PRS.3 like **roar.PTCP.NOM.M** lion.NOM.M
paparaci *izskatā.*
 paparazzo appearance.LOC.M
 ‘Oh, this wicked world! The evil one prowls around like a roaring lion disguised as a paparazzo.’ (Ir)

Indeclinable participles lack grammatical forms and are used to denote an attribute of an action or state (Skujiņa 2007: 251), which, as an action or state in itself, is understood to occur simultaneously with the main action of a clause, see examples (2.5.217)-(2.5.218).

Indeclinable participles are formed by adding the non-reflexive or reflexive formatives *-ot*, *-oties* (2.5.215); *-am/-ām*, *-amies/-āmies* (the suffix *-ām-* is reserved for conjugation class 3 subclass 1 verbs) (2.5.216), namely, to the present tense stem of a verb.

- (2.5.215) a. *liek-ties* – *liec-os* – *liec-oties* ‘to bend – (I) bend – bending PTCP’
 b. *dom-ā-t* – *dom-ā-j-u* – *dom-ā-j-ot* ‘to think – (I) think – thinking PTCP’
 c. *māc-ī-ties* – *māc-os* – *māc-oties* ‘to study – (I) study – studying PTCP’
- (2.5.216) a. *liek-ties* – *liec-os* – *liec-amies* ‘to bend – (I) bend – bending PTCP’
 b. *dom-ā-t* – *dom-ā-j-u* – *dom-ā-j-am* ‘to think – (I) think – thinking PTCP’
 c. *māc-ī-ties* – *māc-os* – *māc-āmies* ‘to study – (I) study – studying PTCP’

The indeclinable participles typically function as secondary predicates and may also occur in various kinds of raising and control constructions with either shared or distinct participle and matrix predicate agents (see also 3.2.9).

(2.5.217) -ot, -oties

- a. Bobslejisti pirmo braucienu veica minūtē un 5,18 sekundēs,
esot lideri un par 0,06
be.PTCP.IDECL leader.NOM.PL.M and PREP 0.06
sekundēm apsteidzot konkurentus.
 second.DAT.PL.F **overtake.PTCP.IDECL** competitor.ACC.PL.M
 ‘The bobsleigh team completed the first run in one minute and 5.18 seconds, leading the competition and being 0.06 seconds ahead of their closest competitors.’ (www.apollo.lv)
- b. [Jelgavas] Mērs teicies *neko*
 [Jelgava] mayor.NOM.M admit.PTCP.NOM.M nothing.ACC
nesaprotot no franču vīniem.
understand.PTCP.IDECL from French.GEN.PL.M wine.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The mayor [of Jelgava] admitted to knowing nothing about French wines.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- c. Miers reģionā iespējams,
esot politiskai gribai.
be.PTCP.IDECL political.DAT.F will.DAT.F
 ‘Peace in the region is possible, there being sufficient political will.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

(2.5.218) -am / -ām, -amies / -āmies

- a. Andreju vasarās ik dienas
 Andrejs.ACC.M summer.LOC.PL.F every day.ACC.PL.F
redz likājamies rožu dārzā,
 see.PRS.3 **bend.PTCP.IDECL** rose.GEN.PL.F garden.LOC.F
rosāmies pie bišu stropiem,
bustle.PTCP.IDECL at bee.GEN.PL.F hive.DAT.PL.M
apstaigājam tīrumus.
walk.PTCP.IDECL field.ACC.PL.M
 ‘In summer, Andrejs is always seen bending down in the rose garden, busying himself around the beehives, or walking in the fields.’
 (A. Žigure)
- b. Viņš juta *tuvojamies šo*
 he.NOM feel.PST.3 **approach.PTCP.IDECL** this.ACC.F
iespēju.
 opportunity.ACC.F
 ‘He felt this opportunity approaching.’ (www.korpuss.lv)
- c. Viņš teicās *acumirkli atrodamies*
 he.NOM claim.PST.3 instant.LOC.M **find.PTCP.IDECL**
visai grūtos apstākļos.
 rather difficult.LOC.PL.M circumstance.LOC.PL.M
 ‘He did though claim that he found himself at once in a rather difficult situation.’ (A. Eglītis)

The indeclinable participle ending in *-ot*, *-oties* is widely used in absolute dative constructions, i.e., in participial clauses consisting of a indeclinable participle and a noun or a pronoun in the dative case naming the agent (Skujiņa 2007: 12).

- (2.5.219) a. *No rīta,*
saulei lecot,
 sun.DAT.F **rise.PTCP.IDECL**
pārgāju pār Bruklinas tiltu.
 ‘In the morning, just when the sun was rising, I crossed the Brooklyn Bridge. (N. Ikstena)
- b. *Lietum listot,*
 rain.DAT.M **pour.PTCP.IDECL**
[pilsētā] iededz Ziemassvētku eglī.
 ‘The Christmas tree is lit [in the town], with rain pouring down.’
 (www.liepajniekiem.lv)

The indeclinable participle ending in *-am/-ām*, *-amies/-āmies* usually appears in conjunction with verbs of perception (*verba sentiendi*): *redzēt* ‘to see’, *dzirdēt* ‘to hear’, *manīt* ‘to glimpse’, *pamanīt* ‘to notice’, *ieraudzīt* ‘to see’, *sadzirdēt* ‘to hear’, *klausīties* ‘to listen’, *just* ‘to feel’, *sajust* ‘to start to feel’, *jaust* ‘to foresee’, etc.

- (2.5.220) a. *Viņš redzēja mani raudam.*
 he.NOM **see.PST.3** I.ACC **cry.PTCP.IDECL**
 ‘He saw me cry.’ (J. Joņevs)
- b. *Cilvēks, ieraudzījis nākam tramvaju,*
 person.NOM.M **see.PTCP.NOM.M** **come.PTCP.IDECL** tram.ACC.M
sāka skriet.
 start.PST.3 run.INF
 ‘The person, seeing the tram approaching, started running.’ (Kas Jauns)
- c. *[Mūzikas] albumā klavierspēle*
 [music] album.LOC.M piano_playing.NOM.F
dzirdama skanam visā krāšņumā.
hear.PTCP.NOM.F **sound.PTCP.IDECL** all.LOC.M splendor.LOC.M
 ‘The [music] album reveals piano music in its full splendor.’
 (www.parmuziku.lv)

In raising constructions, but never in absolute dative constructions, the two types of indeclinable participles can be used interchangeably.

- (2.5.221) a. *Es dzirdēju dzērves sakliedzamies // sakliedzoties.*
 I.NOM hear.PST.1SG crane.ACC.PL.F **call.PTCP.IDECL**
 ‘I heard cranes calling to each other.’
- b. *Aiz pārsteiguma paliku stāvam // stāvot*
 from surprise.GEN.M stay.PST.1SG **stand.PTCP.IDECL**
uz vietas.
 on place.GEN.F
 ‘I froze in surprise.’

- c. *Meitene, sajutusi ieplūstam // ieplūstot*
 girl.NOM.F feel.PTCP.NOM.F **flow.PTCP.IDECL**
telpā vēsumu,
 room.LOC.F cool.ACC.M
aizvēra logu.
 ‘Feeling cool air flowing in, the girl closed the window.’

In control constructions with a shared agent, the indeclinable participle ending in *-ot*, *-oties* and the semi-declinable participle are synonymous.

- (2.5.222) a. *Mēness, gaiši mirdzot // mirdzēdams,*
 moon.NOM.M light **shine.PTCP.IDECL**
rādīja tumsā ceļu.
 ‘The moon, shining bright, showed the way in the dark.’
 b. *Bērni rotaļājās jūras malā,*
ļiksmi smeļoties // smiedamies un
 joyfully **laugh.PTCP.IDECL** and
ceļot // celdami smilšu pilis.
build.PTCP.IDECL sand.GEN.PL.F castle.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Children were playing by the sea, laughing with joy and building sand castles.’

2.5.10 Word formation

Verb formation in Latvian is primarily based on suffixation, prefixation (Table 2.65 and Table 2.66), and a few circumfixal (prefix–postfix) verb formation types (Table 2.67).

Compound verbs are not particularly widespread in Latvian and are mostly limited to a relatively small number of compounds having an adverb as the first base (Soida 2009: 263; Vulāne 2013: 292–293), e.g.:

- (2.5.223) ADV + V (also V + ADV)
 a. *cauri skat-ī-t* (also *skatīt cauri*) ‘to look through’ – *caur-skat-ī-t* ‘to look through, to peruse’
cauri urb-t (also *urbt cauri*) ‘to bore through, to drill through’ – *caur-urb-t* ‘to bore through, to drill through, to perforate’
cauri strāv-o-t (also *strāvēt cauri*) ‘to flow through, to stream through’ – *caur-strāv-o-t* ‘to spread throughout, to permeate, to pervade’
 b. *pretī stat-ī-t* (also *statīt pretī*) ‘to set against’ – *pret-stat-ī-t* ‘to set against, to counterpose, to contrast’
 c. *labi pa-tik-t* (also *patikt labi*) ‘to like well, to like fine’ – *lab-pa-tik-t* ‘to please, to wish’
 d. *gana dar-ī-t* (also *darīt gana*) ‘to do enough’ – *gan-dar-ī-t* ‘to satisfy, to gratify’

Some compound verbs of this type are loan translations, e.g.:

(2.5.224) from English

augšup-lādēt ‘to upload’, *lejup-lādēt* ‘to download’

Due to the small number and the (often) problematic origins of compound verbs they are not given further consideration in this grammar.

In Latvian linguistics, reflexive verbs are traditionally interpreted as derivatives formed from non-reflexive verbs by means of the reflexive ending (see, e.g., Soida 2009: 206–219; Vulāne 2013: 291). The semantics and functions of Latvian reflexive verbs, however, are closely linked to distribution, diathesis, and, hence, to the syntactic structure of sentences; furthermore, reflexive verbs do not show systematic, clearly definable derivational meanings in the same way as suffixal and prefixal verbal derivatives. Thus, verb reflexivity in Latvian clearly goes beyond the boundaries of word formation. Circumfixal (i.e., prefix + the reflexive formative -s) derivatives expressing aspectual meanings are a notable exception. In this grammar, the system of reflexive verbs is described from the point of view of semantics and distribution (see Section 2.5.7), rather than as part of the system of verb formation. That said, Table 2.67 contains a brief summary of prefix + -s combinations available for expressing quantitative meanings (such as duration, iterativity, etc.).

The INF ending -t is not listed under *Word-formation means* in the tables below, as it is the same for all word-formation types. Where necessary (i.e., for circumfixal derivatives) both the non-reflexive ending -t and the reflexive formative -s (in examples, the INF reflexive ending -ties) are specified.

Likewise, as almost all word-formation types can produce INTRANS and TRANS verbs, and some verbs may be transitive or intransitive depending on context (see Section 2.5.6 on transitivity), the INTRANS/TRANS feature is only stated for strictly transitive derivatives, i.e., V-V with the suffix -ē- and V-V, N-V, ADJ-V with the suffix -inā-.

Suffixation

Suffixal verb formation in Latvian is represented by a wide range of word-formation types/models, defined, to a large extent, by the word class of the base. In Latvian, verbs are formed from other verbs, nouns, adjectives, and interjections (see Table 2.65). There are no systemic word-formation models for forming verbs from other word classes, therefore, these are not discussed in this grammar.

Although Latvian has just a few verbalizing suffixes – -ā-, -ē-, -ī-, -inā-, -o-, they are capable of carrying various derivational meanings, e.g., in V-V word-formation types – aspectuality and valency-related meanings, in N-V word-formation types – mainly, subject- and object-related meanings, in ADJ-V types – meanings related to subject/object attributes, in INT-V types – sound imitative meanings. The V-V suffixes -alē-, -aļā-, -elē-, -uļo- are monosemous and always express iterativity (usually, with chaotic actions and actions having no goal or endpoint).

In V-V derivatives, suffixes as the main means of word formation are sometimes accompanied by apophony (see Section 1.2.1 on apophony). The interfixes -(d)-,

-(st)-, -(ŋ)-, less frequently also -(šļ)-, -(šņ)-, -(žļ)- occur as a byproduct of word formation when there is a need to avoid vowel clustering between a vocalic suffix and a (primary) verbal root (see Section 1.1.4 on interfixes). These interfixes sometimes also occur, by analogy, where they are not formally necessary.

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	-ā-; usually attaches to the INF stem of a verb; may be accompanied by apophony and/or an interfix: -(ŋ)-, -(šļ)-, -(šņ)-, -(žļ)-	iterative	<i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>brauk-ā-t</i> (iterative) <i>sauk-t</i> ‘to call’ – <i>sauk-ā-t</i> (iterative) <i>trenk-t</i> ‘to drive, to propel’ – <i>trenk-ā-t</i> (iterative) <i>ves-t</i> ‘to carry (in a vehicle), to lead smth. / smb. somewhere’ – <i>vad-ā-t</i> (iterative) <i>nes-t</i> ‘to carry, to bear’ – <i>nēs-ā-t</i> (iterative), also ‘to wear’ <i>mī-t</i> ‘to tread, trample’ – <i>mī-(ŋ)-ā-t</i> (iterative) <i>rak-t</i> ‘to dig’ – <i>rak-(ŋ)-ā-t</i> , also <i>rak-ā-t</i> (iterative) <i>kos-t</i> ‘to bite’ – <i>ko-(šļ)-ā-t</i> ‘to chew’ <i>os-t</i> ‘to smell’ – <i>o-(šņ)-ā-t</i> ‘to sniff, to sniff around’ <i>zīs-t</i> ‘to suck, to nurse’ – <i>zī-(žļ)-ā-t</i> (iterative)
	-ī-; usually attaches to the INF stem of a verb; may be accompanied by apophony and/or an interfix: -(st)- or -(d)-	iterative	<i>lauz-t</i> ‘to break’ – <i>lauz-ī-t</i> (iterative) <i>kas-t</i> ‘to scrape’ – <i>kas-ī-t</i> (iterative), ‘to scratch’ <i>stiep-t</i> ‘to drag, to stretch’ – <i>staip-ī-t</i> (iterative) <i>svies-t</i> ‘to toss’ – <i>svaid-ī-t</i> (iterative) <i>ķer-t</i> ‘to catch’ – <i>ķer-(st)-ī-t</i> (iterative), ‘to try to catch’ <i>bēr-t</i> ‘to pour (of dry substances)’ – <i>bār-(st)-ī-t</i> ‘to strew, to scatter’ <i>vel-t</i> ‘to roll (with object)’ – <i>val-(st)-ī-t</i> (iterative) <i>lie-t</i> ‘to pour (of liquids)’ – <i>lai-(st)-ī-t</i> (iterative), ‘to water’ <i>mī-t</i> ‘to tread, trample’ – <i>mī-(d)-ī-t</i> (iterative) <i>sper-t</i> ‘to kick with the foot’ – <i>spār-(d)-ī-t</i> (iterative) <i>skrie-t</i> ‘to run’ – <i>skrai-(d)-ī-t</i> (iterative), ‘to run about’
	-ē-; usually attaches to the INF stem of a verb; may be accompanied by apophony and/or the interfix -(d)-	causative (always TRANS)	<i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow (no object)’ – <i>audz-ē-t</i> ‘to grow (with an object)’ <i>kars-t</i> ‘to grow hot’ – <i>kars-ē-t</i> ‘to heat’ <i>slāp-t</i> ‘to be thirsty, to thirst, to fade’ – <i>slāp-ē-t</i> ‘to put out, to suppress, to damp down’ <i>kus-t</i> ‘to melt (no object)’ – <i>kaus-ē-t</i> ‘to melt (with an object)’ <i>rūg-t</i> ‘to ferment (no object)’ – <i>raudz-ē-t</i> ‘to ferment (with an object)’ <i>dīg-t</i> ‘to germinate (no object)’ – <i>diedz-ē-t</i> ‘to germinate (with an object)’ <i>žau-t</i> ‘to hang smth. out (to dry)’ – <i>žāv-ē-t</i> ‘to dry, to cure, to smoke (with an object)’ <i>rau-t</i> ‘to draw, to pull’ – <i>rav-ē-t</i> ‘to weed’ <i>klīs-t</i> ‘to wander’ – <i>klie-(d)-ē-t</i> ‘to dissipate, to dispel’ <i>dzi-t</i> ‘to heal (no object)’ – <i>dzie-(d)-ē-t</i> ‘to heal (with an object)’ <i>grim-t</i> ‘to sink, to go under’ – <i>grem-(d)-ē-t</i> ‘to sink (with an object), to immerse’ <i>rim-t</i> ‘to cease, to subside’ – <i>rem-(d)-ē-t</i> ‘to alleviate, to soothe’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	-inā-; usually attaches to verbal roots; may be accompanied by apophony and/or the interfix -(d)-	causative (always TRANS)	<i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>ēd-inā-t</i> ‘to feed’ <i>reib-t</i> ‘to become dizzy, giddy’ – <i>reib-inā-t</i> ‘to make dizzy, giddy’ <i>brēk-t</i> ‘to scream’ – <i>brēc-inā-t</i> ‘to let or make smb. scream’ <i>deg-t</i> ‘to burn (no object)’ – <i>dedz-inā-t</i> ‘to burn (with an object)’ <i>šū-t</i> ‘to sew’ – <i>šū-(d)-inā-t</i> ‘to sew, to have smth. sewn’ <i>gul-t</i> ‘to fall, to cover’ – <i>gul-(d)-inā-t</i> ‘to lay (with an object)’ <i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>dzir(d)-inā-t</i> ‘to give to drink’ <i>raud-ā-t</i> ‘to cry’ – <i>raud-inā-t</i> ‘to make smb. cry’ <i>elp-o-t</i> ‘to breathe’ – <i>elp-inā-t</i> ‘to apply artificial breathing’ <i>put-ē-t</i> ‘to be dusty’ – <i>put-inā-t</i> ‘to be blown by the wind (of leaves, snow, dust)’ <i>skan-ē-t</i> ‘to sound, to be heard’ – <i>skan-(d)-inā-t</i> ‘to jingle, to repeat, to chant’ <i>krakšġ-ē-t</i> ‘to crack (of sound)’ – <i>krakšġ-inā-t</i> ‘to make smb. or smth. crack’ <i>plikšġ-ē-t</i> ‘to patter, to smack’ – <i>plikšġ-inā-t</i> ‘to cause to patter, to smack’ <i>švikst-ē-t</i> ‘to whiz’ – <i>švikst-inā-t</i> ‘to cause to whiz’
		iterative (always TRANS)	<i>urb-t</i> ‘to bore, to drill’ – <i>urb-inā-t</i> ‘to pick, to poke’ <i>ves-t</i> ‘to carry (in a vehicle), to lead smth. / smb. somewhere’ – <i>ved-inā-t</i> ‘to lead smb. somewhere, to direct’ <i>vil-t</i> ‘to let down, to mislead, to lure’ – <i>vil-inā-t</i> ‘to allure, to tempt, to entice’ <i>vēr-t</i> ‘to open/to shut’ – <i>vir-inā-t</i> ‘to keep opening and shutting’
	-alē-, -aļā-, -elē-, -uļo-; usually attach to the INF stem of a verb; in some cases, occur with the interfix -(d)-	iterative verbs expressing chaotic actions and actions having no goal or endpoint	<i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>brauk-alē-t</i> (iterative) <i>tec-ē-t</i> ‘to flow’ – <i>tek-alē-t</i> ‘to bustle about’ <i>kāp-t</i> ‘to climb’ – <i>kāp-aļā-t</i> (iterative) <i>snaus-t</i> ‘to nap’ – <i>snaud-aļā-t</i> (iterative) <i>spries-t</i> ‘to reason, to judge’ – <i>spried-elē-t</i> ‘to hold forth about, to speak at length about’ <i>jā-t</i> ‘to ride (a horse)’ – <i>jā-(d)-elē-t</i> (iterative) <i>bēg-t</i> ‘to run away’ – <i>bēg-uļo-t</i> ‘to be on the run’ <i>vārg-t</i> ‘to grow weak, to weaken (no object)’ – <i>vārg-uļo-t</i> (iterative)
	-ā-	agent-, object- and instrument-motivated verbs	<i>sarg-s</i> ‘guard’ – <i>sarg-ā-t</i> ‘to guard’ <i>bēd-a</i> ‘trouble, also sorrow’ – <i>bēd-ā-t</i> ‘to trouble about/over’ <i>rot-a</i> ‘ornament, adornment’ – <i>rot-ā-t</i> ‘to adorn’ <i>bur-a</i> ‘sail’ – <i>bur-ā-t</i> ‘to sail’
	-ē-	agent-motivated verbs	<i>ārst-s</i> ‘(medical) doctor’ – <i>ārst-ēt</i> ‘to treat, to cure’ <i>aukl-e</i> ‘nanny’ – <i>aukl-ē-t</i> ‘to nurture’ <i>bend-e</i> ‘executioner’ – <i>bend-ē-t</i> ‘to kill, to wreck’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V		instrument-motivated verbs	<i>air-is</i> ‘oar’ – <i>air-ē-t</i> ‘to row’ <i>kapl-is</i> ‘hoe’ – <i>kapl-ē-t</i> ‘to hoe’ <i>sūkn-is</i> ‘pump’ – <i>sūkn-ē-t</i> ‘to pump’
		object-motivated verbs	<i>laim-e</i> ‘luck, fortune’ – <i>laim-ē-t</i> ‘to win’ <i>kās-s</i> ‘cough’ – <i>kās-ē-t</i> ‘to cough’ <i>smīn-s</i> ‘sneer’ – <i>smīn-ē-t</i> ‘to sneer’ <i>vīl-e</i> ‘hem’ – <i>vīl-ē-t</i> ‘to hem’
	-inā-	object-motivated verbs (always TRANS)	<i>mier-s</i> ‘calm’ – <i>mier-inā-t</i> ‘to calm’ <i>god-s</i> ‘honor’ – <i>god-inā-t</i> ‘to honor’ <i>spēk-s</i> ‘strength’ – <i>spēc-inā-t</i> ‘to strengthen’ <i>šausm-as</i> ‘horror’ – <i>šausm-inā-t</i> ‘to horrify’
	-o-	agent-motivated verbs	<i>tulk-s</i> ‘translator’ – <i>tulk-o-t</i> ‘to translate’ <i>spieg-s</i> ‘spy’ – <i>spieg-o-t</i> ‘to spy’ <i>saim-niek-s</i> ‘owner, master’ – <i>saim-niek-o-t</i> ‘to manage, to run’ <i>kalp-s</i> ‘servant’ – <i>kalp-o-t</i> ‘to serve’
		instrument- and means-motivated verbs	<i>bumb-a</i> ‘ball, bomb’ – <i>bumb-o-t</i> ‘to play ball, to bomb’ <i>lāpst-a</i> ‘shovel’ – <i>lāpst-o-t</i> ‘to shovel’ <i>plost-s</i> ‘raft’ – <i>plost-o-t</i> ‘to float in a raft’ <i>vask-s</i> ‘wax’ – <i>vask-o-t</i> ‘to wax’ <i>krās-a</i> ‘paint, color’ – <i>krās-o-t</i> ‘to paint’
		object-motivated verbs 1) ‘to produce an object or phenomenon denoted by the base word’	<i>glezn-a</i> ‘painting’ – <i>glezn-o-t</i> ‘to paint (to produce a painting)’ <i>dej-a</i> ‘dance’ – <i>dej-o-t</i> ‘to dance’ <i>tēl-s</i> ‘image, character’ – <i>tēl-o-t</i> ‘to personate, to act the part of, also to affect’ <i>lap-a</i> ‘leaf’ – <i>lap-o-t</i> ‘to leaf’ <i>zar-s</i> ‘branch’ – <i>zar-o-t</i> ‘to branch’ <i>sūn-a</i> ‘moss’ – <i>sūn-o-t</i> ‘to be overgrown with moss’ <i>jok-s</i> ‘joke’ – <i>jok-o-t</i> ‘to joke’ <i>glaim-i</i> ‘flattery’ – <i>glaim-o-t</i> ‘to flatter’ <i>mel-i</i> ‘lie’ – <i>mel-o-t</i> ‘to lie’ <i>baum-as</i> ‘rumor’ – <i>baum-o-t</i> ‘to rumor’
		2) ‘to gather objects denoted by the base word’	<i>og-a</i> ‘berry’ – <i>og-o-t</i> ‘to pick berries’ <i>riekst-s</i> ‘nut’ – <i>riekst-o-t</i> ‘to gather nuts’ <i>sēn-e</i> ‘mushroom’ – <i>sēn-o-t</i> ‘to gather mushrooms’ <i>vēž-is</i> ‘crayfish’ – <i>vēž-o-t</i> ‘to catch crayfish’
		3) ‘to have a meal’	<i>brokast-is</i> ‘breakfast’ – <i>brokast-o-t</i> ‘to breakfast’ <i>pus-dien-as</i> ‘dinner, lunch’ – <i>pus-dien-o-t</i> ‘to dine, to lunch’ <i>vakariņ-as</i> ‘supper’ – <i>vakariņ-o-t</i> ‘to eat supper’
		4) ‘to assign, to provide an object denoted by the base word’	<i>alg-a</i> ‘pay, salary’ – <i>alg-o-t</i> ‘to employ, to pay wages’ <i>bals-s</i> ‘vote, voice’ – <i>bals-o-t</i> ‘to vote’ <i>ēn-a</i> ‘shade’ – <i>ēn-o-t</i> ‘to shade’ <i>gaism-a</i> ‘light’ – <i>gaism-o-t</i> ‘to light’ <i>piln-var-a</i> ‘power of attorney’ – <i>piln-var-o-t</i> ‘to assign a power of attorney to smb.’ <i>veid-s</i> ‘kind, shape, form’ – <i>veid-o-t</i> ‘to shape, to form’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	-o-	spatially and temporally motivated verbs	<i>tīrg-us</i> ‘market’ – <i>tīrg-o-t</i> ‘to sell’ <i>māj-a</i> ‘dwelling, home’ – <i>māj-o-t</i> ‘to dwell’ <i>ziem-a</i> ‘winter’ – <i>ziem-o-t</i> ‘to winter, to spend the winter’ <i>nakt-s</i> ‘night’ – <i>nak-(šņ)-o-t</i> ‘to spend the night’
ADJ–V	-ē-	processes bringing about the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>klus-s</i> ‘silent’ – <i>klus-ē-t</i> ‘to be silent’ <i>biez-s</i> ‘thick’ – <i>biez-ē-t</i> ‘to thicken’ <i>ciet-s</i> ‘hard’ – <i>ciet-ē-t</i> ‘to harden’ <i>tiev-s</i> ‘slim’ – <i>tiev-ē-t</i> ‘to slim down’
		to cause to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>skāb-s</i> ‘sour’ – <i>skāb-ē-t</i> ‘to ferment’ <i>blīv-s</i> ‘dense’ – <i>blīv-ē-t</i> ‘to seal, to pack, to compress’ <i>smail-s</i> ‘pointy, sharp’ – <i>smail-ē-t</i> ‘to prick (one’s ears)’
	-ī-	to cause to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>tīr-s</i> ‘clean’ – <i>tīr-ī-t</i> ‘to clean’ <i>svēt-s</i> ‘holy, sacred, blessed’ – <i>svēt-ī-t</i> ‘to bless’ <i>šķīst-s</i> ‘pure, virtuous’ – <i>šķīst-ī-t</i> ‘to purge, to purify’
	-inā-	to cause to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word (always TRANS)	<i>as-s</i> ‘sharp’ – <i>as-inā-t</i> ‘to sharpen’ <i>droš-s</i> ‘sure, secure’ – <i>droš-inā-t</i> ‘to reassure, to encourage’ <i>glud-s</i> ‘smooth’ – <i>glud-inā-t</i> ‘to iron’ <i>maz-s</i> ‘little, small’ – <i>maz-inā-t</i> ‘to lessen, to reduce’ <i>ret-s</i> ‘rare’ – <i>ret-inā-t</i> ‘to thin out, to rarefy’ <i>trak-s</i> ‘mad’ – <i>trac-inā-t</i> ‘to madden’
	-o-	to cause to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>liksm-s</i> ‘joyous’ – <i>liksm-o-t</i> ‘to feel joy, to rejoice’ <i>lab-s</i> ‘right, good’ – <i>lab-o-t</i> ‘to correct, to put right, to repair’ <i>klib-s</i> ‘lame’ – <i>klib-o-t</i> ‘to limp’ <i>skaidr-s</i> ‘clear’ – <i>skaidr-o-t</i> ‘to clarify, to make clear, to explain’ <i>taisn-s</i> ‘straight’ – <i>taisn-o-t</i> ‘to straighten’ <i>vingr-s</i> ‘fit, agile’ – <i>vingr-o-t</i> ‘to exercise’
INT–V	-ā-	onomatopoeia – sound imitation	<i>ai</i> ‘ah!’ – <i>aij-ā-t</i> ‘to rock (a baby)’ <i>pai</i> (used when caressing, gently stroking smb., saying that smb. is good) – <i>paj-ā-t</i> ‘to caress’
	-ē-		<i>blīkš</i> ‘bang!’ – <i>blīkš-ē-t</i> , <i>blīkšķ-ē-t</i> ‘to bang’ <i>krakš</i> ‘crack!’ – <i>krakš-ē-t</i> , <i>krakšķ-ē-t</i> ‘to crack (of sound)’ <i>ņau</i> ‘meow!’ – <i>ņaud-ē-t</i> ‘to meow’ <i>plunkš</i> ‘plop!’ – <i>plunkšķ-ē-t</i> ‘to plop’ <i>šviks</i> ‘whiz!’ – <i>švikst-ē-t</i> ‘to whiz’
	-o-		<i>ku-kū</i> ‘coo-coo!, cuckoo!’ – <i>kūk-o-t</i> ‘to produce the sound of a cuckoo bird’ <i>žū-žū</i> ‘sound made to lull a child to sleep’ – <i>žūž-o-t</i> ‘to lull a child to sleep’ <i>ūja</i> ‘ooh!’ – <i>ūjav-o-t</i> ‘to ooh’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
INT–V	-inā-	iterative onomatopoeic verbs	čiv-čiv ‘chirp’ – čiv-inā-t ‘to chirp’ gā-gā ‘honk’ – gāg-inā-t ‘to honk, to cackle’ sī-sī ‘chirr’ – sis-inā-t ‘to chirr’ u-ū ‘o-o-oo!’ – ūj-inā-t ‘to call out, to hoot, to heckle’

Table 2.65 Main verb formation types: suffixation

Prefixation

In Latvian, prefixal verb formation is strictly deverbal. Prefixation does not affect the overall phonetic and morphological shape of the base word. The number of prefixes in a given verb, excluding the negative *ne-* ‘not, also dis-’ (2.5.225), is usually limited to one, with the exception of verbs that are never used without a prefix and can therefore acquire a second prefix in the process of word formation (2.5.226).

- (2.5.225) a. *iz-skrie-t* ‘to run out’ – *ne-iz-skrie-t* ‘to not run out’
b. *ap-ģērb-t* ‘to dress’ – *ne-ap-ģērb-t* ‘to not dress’
c. *pār-las-ī-t* ‘to reread’ – *ne-pār-las-ī-t* ‘to not reread’

- (2.5.226) a. *pa-zī-t* ‘to be acquainted, to know’ – *ie-pa-zī-t* ‘to get acquainted’,
at-pa-zī-t ‘to recognize’
b. *ap-bed-ī-t* ‘to bury’ – *pār-ap-bed-ī-t* ‘to rebury’

All verbal prefixes (*aiz-*, *ap-*, *at-*, *ie-*, *iz-*, *no-*, *pa-*, *pār-*, *pie-*, *sa-*, *uz-*) are perfective and polysemous. In addition to perfectivity, verbal prefixes often simultaneously express other, e.g., spatial (incl. spatial oppositions), quantitative, temporal and aspectual meanings (among others, Soida 2009: 219–261; see Section 2.5.8). Some prefix meanings can only be realized in specific contexts; furthermore, prefix meanings characteristically depend on the semantics of the base verb to which they attach (e.g., verbs of motion, state, telic / atelic verbs, etc.).

The meanings of each prefix in Table 2.66 are organized into three basic blocks (spatial, quantitative, temporal / aspectual) with the most common meaning variations being listed for each block. Prefix meanings falling outside of the basic blocks are not discussed in this grammar; notably, verbal prefixes may have highly individualized meanings depending on the meaning of the base verb (see, e.g., Soida 2009: 257–259). All examples include a prefixless verb, either primary or derived by suffixation, and a corresponding prefixed verb. Verbs lacking prefixless or prefixed correlates as well as pairs of prefixless and prefixed verbs with different lexical meanings (i.e., lexicalized prefixed verbs) are not analyzed.

The negative *ne-*, which negates actions, processes, and states, is not included in the description of verb formation, since it typically applies on the sentence rather than on the word level (see also 3.2.3).

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	aiz-	spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘away’	<i>kris-t</i> ‘to fall’ – <i>aiz-kris-t</i> ‘to fall and land behind another object’ <i>ie-t</i> ‘to go’ – <i>aiz-ie-t</i> ‘to go away, to go to a destination’ <i>skrie-t</i> ‘to run’ – <i>aiz-skrie-t</i> ‘to run away, to run to a destination’ <i>peld-ē-t</i> ‘to swim’ – <i>aiz-peld-ē-t</i> ‘to swim away, to swim to a destination’
			<i>bir-t</i> ‘to drop, to run, to fall (of substances)’ – <i>aiz-bir-t</i> ‘to get filled up (with sand, etc.)’ <i>lik-t</i> ‘to put’ – <i>aiz-lik-t</i> ‘to put in front of, to put behind’ <i>sie-t</i> ‘to tie’ – <i>aiz-sie-t</i> ‘to tie up, to fasten’ <i>slēg-t</i> ‘to shut, to lock’ – <i>aiz-slēg-t</i> ‘to lock up’
		quantitative meanings 1) inchoative (inceptive) verbs 2) incomplete actions, actions performed in part	<i>kur-t</i> ‘to stoke’ – <i>aiz-kur-t</i> ‘to make a fire’ <i>deg-t</i> ‘to burn’ – <i>aiz-deg-t</i> ‘to light, to kindle’ <i>smēķ-ē-t</i> ‘to smoke’ – <i>aiz-smēķ-ē-t</i> ‘to light up (a cigarette)’
			<i>lauz-t</i> ‘to break’ – <i>aiz-lauz-t</i> ‘to break without a complete separation of the parts’ <i>kos-t</i> ‘to bite’ – <i>aiz-kos-t</i> ‘to take a bite of (an apple, etc.)’ <i>plēs-t</i> ‘to tear’ – <i>aiz-plēs-t</i> ‘to tear without a complete separation of the parts’
		3) actions carried out in full	<i>mig-t</i> ‘to be in the process of falling asleep’ – <i>aiz-mig-t</i> ‘to fall asleep’ <i>krau-t</i> ‘to load, to pile up’ – <i>aiz-krau-t</i> ‘to block up with smth.’ <i>pild-ī-t</i> ‘to fill’ – <i>aiz-pild-ī-t</i> ‘to fill up’
	ap-	spatial meanings direction: ‘around, round’	<i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>ap-brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive around smth., to bypass’ <i>skrie-t</i> ‘to run’ – <i>ap-skrie-t</i> ‘to run around smth.’ <i>plau-t</i> ‘to mow’ – <i>ap-plau-t</i> ‘to mow around smth.’
		quantitative meanings 1) incomplete actions, actions performed in part 2) actions carried out in full	<i>žū-t</i> ‘to dry’ – <i>ap-žū-t</i> ‘to dry up a little bit’ <i>deg-t</i> ‘to burn’ – <i>ap-deg-t</i> ‘to become burnt, scorched on the surface’ <i>pū-t</i> ‘to rot’ – <i>ap-pū-t</i> ‘to become slightly rotten, to begin to rot’
			<i>ģērb-t</i> ‘to dress’ – <i>ap-ģērb-t</i> (PFV) <i>bir-t</i> ‘to drop, to run, to fall (of substances)’ – <i>ap-bir-t</i> ‘to get covered, to get buried’ <i>au-t</i> ‘to put on one’s shoes’ – <i>ap-au-t</i> (PFV)
	at-	spatial meanings 1) direction: inbound, ‘here, back’	<i>nāk-t</i> ‘to come’ – <i>at-nāk-t</i> ‘to come here, to arrive, to come back’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>at-brauk-t</i> ‘to arrive, to come back (in a vehicle)’ <i>nes-t</i> ‘to carry’ – <i>at-nes-t</i> ‘to bring, to fetch’
			<i>ņem-t</i> ‘to take’ – <i>at-ņem-t</i> ‘to take away’ <i>plīs-t</i> ‘to tear (no object)’ – <i>at-plīs-t</i> ‘to be torn off’ <i>baid-ī-t</i> ‘to scare’ – <i>at-baid-ī-t</i> ‘to scare away’
		3) ‘up (so as to be open)’	<i>vēr-t</i> ‘to open / close’ – <i>at-vēr-t</i> ‘to open’ <i>pog-ā-t</i> ‘to button’ – <i>at-pog-ā-t</i> ‘to unbutton’ <i>tais-ī-t</i> ‘to make’ – <i>at-tais-ī-t</i> ‘to open’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	at-	quantitative meanings 1) inchoative (inceptive) verbs	<i>skan-ē-t</i> ‘to sound, to be heard’ – <i>at-skan-ē-t</i> ‘to resound, to ring out, to echo’ <i>spīd-ē-t</i> ‘to shine’ – <i>at-spīd-ē-t</i> ‘to begin to shine, to be reflected’
		2) incomplete actions, actions performed in part	<i>ġērb-t</i> ‘to dress’ – <i>at-ġērb-t</i> ‘to take off (a coat, etc.)’ <i>lie-t</i> ‘to pour (of liquids)’ – <i>at-lie-t</i> ‘to pour off’ <i>ir-t</i> ‘to fray’ – <i>at-ir-t</i> ‘to become unravelled’ <i>pa-lik-t</i> ‘to remain’ – <i>at-pa-lik-t</i> ‘to fall behind’
		3) actions carried out in full	<i>dzis-t</i> ‘to fade, to go out’ – <i>at-dzis-t</i> ‘to cool, to become cold’ <i>min-ē-t</i> ‘to guess’ – <i>at-min-ē-t</i> ‘to solve, to figure out, to remember’ <i>mod-inā-t</i> ‘to wake, to rouse’ – <i>at-mod-inā-t</i> ‘to wake up’
	ie-	spatial meanings direction: ‘in, into’	<i>ie-t</i> ‘to go’ – <i>ie-ie-t</i> ‘to go in’ <i>nāk-t</i> ‘to come’ – <i>ie-nāk-t</i> ‘to come in’ <i>kris-t</i> ‘to fall’ – <i>ie-kris-t</i> ‘to fall in, to fall into’ <i>kāp-t</i> ‘to step, to climb’ – <i>ie-kāp-t</i> ‘to get into, to step into’
		quantitative meanings 1) inchoative (inceptive) verbs	<i>kur-t</i> ‘to stoke’ – <i>ie-kur-t</i> ‘to make a fire, to cause to start burning’ <i>deg-t</i> ‘to burn’ – <i>ie-deg-t</i> ‘to light, to kindle, to switch on’ <i>šūp-o-t</i> ‘to swing’ – <i>ie-šūp-o-t</i> ‘to cause to swing’ <i>liksm-o-t</i> ‘to feel joy, to rejoice’ – <i>ie-liksm-o-t</i> ‘to make glad, to make happy’
		2) incomplete actions, actions performed in part	<i>skāb-t</i> ‘to turn sour’ – <i>ie-skāb-t</i> ‘to start to turn sour, to turn slightly sour’ <i>pel-ē-t</i> ‘to grow moldy’ – <i>ie-pel-ē-t</i> ‘to start to grow moldy, to grow slightly moldy’ <i>boj-ā-t</i> ‘to spoil’ – <i>ie-boj-ā-t</i> ‘to spoil a little bit’
		3) actions carried out in full	<i>do-t</i> ‘to give’ – <i>ie-do-t</i> (PFV) <i>gū-t</i> ‘to get, to gain’ – <i>ie-gū-t</i> ‘to acquire, to obtain’ <i>māc-ī-t</i> ‘to teach’ – <i>ie-māc-ī-t</i> (PFV)
	iz-	spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘out’	<i>skrie-t</i> ‘to run’ – <i>iz-skrie-t</i> ‘to run out’ <i>ie-t</i> ‘to go’ – <i>iz-ie-t</i> ‘to go out’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>iz-brauk-t</i> ‘to drive out, to depart’ <i>svies-t</i> ‘to toss’ – <i>iz-svies-t</i> ‘to toss out’
		2) direction: ‘in all directions, every which way’	<i>klis-t</i> ‘to wander’ – <i>iz-klis-t</i> ‘to wander in different directions, to disperse’ <i>kais-ī-t</i> ‘to strew, to scatter’ – <i>iz-kais-ī-t</i> ‘to strew, to scatter over a wide area’ <i>sē-t</i> ‘to sow’ – <i>iz-sē-t</i> ‘to sow out’
		3) direction: ‘through’	<i>lauz-t</i> ‘to break’ – <i>iz-lauz-t</i> ‘to break through, to make a hole in’ <i>sil-t</i> ‘to get warm’ – <i>iz-sil-t</i> ‘to get thoroughly warm’ <i>rūs-ē-t</i> ‘to rust’ – <i>iz-rūs-ē-t</i> ‘to rust through’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	iz-	quantitative meanings actions carried out in full	<i>beig-t</i> ‘to stop’ – <i>iz-beig-t</i> ‘to bring to an end, to terminate’ <i>dil-t</i> ‘to wear out’ – <i>iz-dil-t</i> ‘to become worn out’ <i>audz-inā-t</i> ‘to raise, to bring up’ – <i>iz-audz-inā-t</i> (PFV) <i>med-ī-t</i> ‘to hunt’ – <i>iz-med-ī-t</i> ‘to hunt to extinction’
		temporal and aspectual meanings prolonged actions	<i>slim-o-t</i> ‘to be ill’ – <i>iz-slim-o-t</i> ‘to have had (a certain illness)’ <i>mit-inā-t</i> ‘to give shelter, to give board and lodging’ – <i>iz-mit-inā-t</i> ‘to give shelter, to give board and lodging for a certain time’ <i>ēd-inā-t</i> ‘to feed’ – <i>iz-ēd-inā-t</i> ‘to feed all of smth. to smb.’
	no-	spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘down’	<i>kāp-t</i> ‘to step, to climb’ – <i>no-kāp-t</i> ‘to descend, to come down’ <i>kris-t</i> ‘to fall’ – <i>no-kris-t</i> ‘to fall down’ <i>nāk-t</i> ‘to come’ – <i>no-nāk-t</i> ‘to come down’
		2) ‘off’	<i>griez-t</i> ‘to cut’ – <i>no-griez-t</i> ‘to cut off’ <i>vilk-t</i> ‘to pull’ – <i>no-vilk-t</i> ‘to pull off, to take off’ <i>pūs-t</i> ‘to blow’ – <i>no-pūs-t</i> ‘to blow off’
		quantitative meanings 1) incomplete actions, actions performed in part	<i>pras-t</i> ‘to know how, to be able’ – <i>no-pras-t</i> ‘to perceive, to guess’ <i>gaid-ī-t</i> ‘to wait’ – <i>no-gaid-ī-t</i> ‘to wait until certain conditions are met’ <i>smīn-ē-t</i> ‘to grin, to sneer’ – <i>no smīn-ē-t</i> ‘to give a quick grin’
		2) actions carried out in full	<i>sal-t</i> ‘to be cold’ – <i>no-sal-t</i> ‘to get chilled to the bone, to freeze, to freeze to death’ <i>grim-t</i> ‘to sink, to go under’ – <i>no-grim-t</i> (PFV) <i>bals-o-t</i> ‘to vote’ – <i>no-bals-o-t</i> (PFV) <i>dzied-ā-t</i> ‘to sing’ – <i>no-dzied-ā-t</i> ‘to sing (a song, etc. in full)’
		temporal and aspectual meanings 1) sudden and brief actions 2) prolonged actions	<i>dreb-ē-t</i> ‘to shiver’ – <i>no-dreb-ē-t</i> ‘to give a shiver’ <i>čukst-ē-t</i> ‘to whisper’ – <i>no-čukst-ē-t</i> ‘to whisper smth. briefly’ <i>grab-ē-t</i> ‘to rattle’ – <i>no-grab-ē-t</i> ‘to produce a sudden and brief rattling sound’ <i>liet-o-t</i> ‘to use’ – <i>no-liet-o-t</i> ‘to wear out’ <i>peld-ē-t</i> ‘to swim’ – <i>no-peld-ē-t</i> ‘to swim for some time or to swim a certain distance’ <i>valk-ā-t</i> ‘to wear’ – <i>no-valk-ā-t</i> ‘to wear out’
	pa-	spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘under, below’	<i>ie-t</i> ‘to go’ – <i>pa-ie-t</i> ‘to pass under (a bridge, etc.)’ <i>kris-t</i> ‘to fall’ – <i>pa-kris-t</i> ‘to fall under, to get run over by’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>pa-brauk-t</i> ‘to drive under’ <i>lid-o-t</i> ‘to fly’ – <i>pa-lid-o-t</i> ‘to fly under’
		2) ‘open’	<i>lais-t</i> ‘to let, to release’ – <i>pa-lais-t</i> ‘to let loose, to set free’ <i>sis-t</i> ‘to hit’ – <i>pa-sis-t</i> ‘to throw open’ <i>rau-t</i> ‘to pull’ – <i>pa-rau-t</i> ‘to pull open’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	pa-	3) ‘away, aside’	<i>lĕk-t</i> ‘to jump, to leap’ – <i>pa-lĕk-t</i> ‘to jump aside, to leap aside’ <i>muk-t</i> ‘to bolt’ – <i>pa-muk-t</i> ‘to bolt away’ <i>sper-t</i> ‘to kick’ – <i>pa-sper-t</i> ‘to kick aside’
		quantitative meanings 1) incomplete actions, actions performed in part 2) actions carried out in full	<i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow’ – <i>pa-aug-t</i> ‘to grow a little bit’ <i>ceļ-o-t</i> ‘to travel’ – <i>pa-ceļ-o-t</i> ‘to travel a little bit’ <i>vār-i-t</i> ‘to boil’ – <i>pa-vār-i-t</i> ‘to boil a little bit’ <i>tīr-i-t</i> ‘to cleanse’ – <i>pa-tīr-i-t</i> ‘to cleanse a little bit’
		temporal and aspectual meanings sudden and brief actions	<i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>pa-ēs-t</i> (PFV) <i>bar-o-t</i> ‘to feed’ – <i>pa-bar-o-t</i> (PFV) <i>zus-t</i> ‘to disappear’ – <i>pa-zus-t</i> (PFV) <i>dār-i-t</i> ‘to do’ – <i>pa-dār-i-t</i> (PFV)
		spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘across, over’	<i>kāp-t</i> ‘to step, to climb’ – <i>pār-kāp-t</i> ‘to step over’ <i>skrie-t</i> ‘to run’ – <i>pār-skrie-t</i> ‘to run across’ <i>nes-t</i> ‘to carry’ – <i>pār-nes-t</i> ‘to carry across, to carry over’ <i>lid-o-t</i> ‘to fly’ – <i>pār-lid-o-t</i> ‘to fly over’
	pār-	2) ‘somewhere else’	<i>bēr-t</i> ‘to pour (of dry substances)’ – <i>pār-bēr-t</i> ‘to pour from one container into another’ <i>bēg-t</i> ‘to flee’ – <i>pār-bēg-t</i> ‘to flee to’ <i>krau-t</i> ‘to load’ – <i>pār-krau-t</i> ‘to transfer cargo to another vehicle, place, etc.’ <i>stād-i-t</i> ‘to plant’ – <i>pār-stād-i-t</i> ‘to replant’
		3) direction: ‘back’	<i>nāk-t</i> ‘to come’ – <i>pār-nāk-t</i> ‘to come back’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>pār-brauk-t</i> ‘to return’
		quantitative meanings 1) actions carried out in full 2) actions done to excess	<i>tulk-o-t</i> ‘to translate’ – <i>pār-tulk-o-t</i> (PFV) <i>cies-t</i> ‘to suffer’ – <i>pār-cies-t</i> ‘to have been through smth., to have had (an illness, operation, etc.)’ <i>zied-ē-t</i> ‘to blossom’ – <i>pār-zied-ē-t</i> ‘to cease blossoming’
		temporal and aspectual meanings prolonged actions	<i>las-i-t</i> ‘to read’ – <i>pār-las-i-t</i> ‘to read over, to reread’ <i>dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think’ – <i>pār-dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think over’ <i>skat-i-t</i> ‘to view, to consider’ – <i>pār-skat-i-t</i> ‘to go over again, to revise, to reconsider’
	pie-	spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘up (so as to be near), towards’	<i>ie-t</i> ‘to go, to walk’ – <i>pie-ie-t</i> ‘to walk up to smb., to approach’ <i>nāk-t</i> ‘to come’ – <i>pie-nāk-t</i> ‘to come up to smb.’ <i>nes-t</i> ‘to carry’ – <i>pie-nes-t</i> ‘to bring to smb.’ <i>lik-t</i> ‘to put’ – <i>pie-lik-t</i> ‘to add, attach smth. to smth.’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	pie-	2) ‘to add, to supplement’	<i>audz-ē-t</i> ‘to grow (with an object) – <i>pie-audz-ē-t</i> ‘to extend (hair, etc.)’ <i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>pie-dzer-t</i> ‘to accompany food with a drink, to wash down’ <i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>pie-ēs-t</i> ‘to accompany food with smth. extra to eat’
		quantitative meanings 1) incomplete actions, actions performed in part 2) actions carried out in full	<i>lab-o-t</i> ‘to correct, to repair’ – <i>pie-lab-o-t</i> ‘to make small / quick repairs’ <i>taupī-t</i> ‘to save, to spare’ – <i>pie-taup-ī-t</i> ‘to reserve’ <i>seg-t</i> ‘to cover’ – <i>pie-seg-t</i> ‘to cover partly, to cover only on a particular occasion’ <i>dzim-t</i> ‘to be born’ – <i>pie-dzim-t</i> (PFV) <i>ēd-inā-t</i> ‘to feed’ – <i>pie-ēd-inā-t</i> ‘to feed until one is full’ <i>raž-o-t</i> ‘to manufacture’ – <i>pie-raž-o-t</i> ‘to manufacture as much as needed or more’
		temporal and aspectual meanings prolonged actions	<i>dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think’ – <i>pie-dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think over, to think out’ <i>aug-t</i> ‘to grow (no object) – <i>pie-aug-t</i> ‘to be growing up’
	sa-	spatial meanings 1) direction: ‘together’ 2) direction: ‘in, into’	<i>lik-t</i> ‘to put’ – <i>sa-lik-t</i> ‘to put together’ <i>mes-t</i> ‘to throw’ – <i>sa-mes-t</i> ‘to throw together, to throw in one heap, etc.’ <i>šū-t</i> ‘to sew’ – <i>sa-šū-t</i> ‘to stitch up’ <i>ie-t</i> ‘to go’ – <i>sa-ie-t</i> ‘to go in, to fit in, to have room’ <i>kris-t</i> ‘to fall’ – <i>sa-kris-t</i> ‘to fall into, to pile up’ <i>put-inā-t</i> ‘to be blown about by the wind (typically of dust, snow)’ – <i>sa-put-inā-t</i> ‘to drift, to be blown into heaps by the wind’
		quantitative meanings 1) inchoative (inceptive) verbs 2) actions carried out in full	<i>skum-t</i> ‘to be sad’ – <i>sa-skum-t</i> ‘to become sad’ <i>sirg-t</i> ‘to ail, to be ill’ – <i>sa-sirg-t</i> ‘to be taken ill’ <i>strut-o-t</i> ‘to fester’ – <i>sa-strut-o-t</i> ‘to begin to fester’ <i>deg-t</i> ‘to burn’ – <i>sa-deg-t</i> ‘to burn down (no object)’ <i>lī-t</i> ‘to rain’ – <i>sa-lī-t</i> (PFV) <i>ciet-ē-t</i> ‘to solidify’ – <i>sa-ciet-ē-t</i> (PFV)
		temporal and aspectual meanings prolonged actions	<i>krā-t</i> ‘to put aside, to save’ – <i>sa-krā-t</i> ‘to save up, to accumulate’ <i>glab-ā-t</i> ‘to keep, to store’ – <i>sa-glab-ā-t</i> ‘to preserve, to retain’ <i>sēņ-o-t</i> ‘to gather mushrooms’ – <i>sa-sēņ-o-t</i> ‘to gather a certain amount of mushrooms’
	uz-	spatial meanings direction: ‘on, above, up’	<i>kāp-t</i> ‘to step, to climb’ – <i>uz-kāp-t</i> ‘to climb up, to ascend; to step on, to tread on; to board (a ship)’ <i>mes-t</i> ‘to throw’ – <i>uz-mes-t</i> ‘to throw onto’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>uz-brauk-t</i> ‘to go up, to drive up’ <i>ie-t</i> ‘to go, to walk’ – <i>uz-ie-t</i> ‘to go up, to walk up’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	uz-	quantitative meanings 1) inchoative (inceptive) verbs	<i>zied-ē-t</i> ‘to blossom’ – <i>uz-zied-ē-t</i> ‘to begin to blossom’ <i>gavil-ē-t</i> ‘to rejoice, to feel or show great joy’ – <i>uz-gavil-ē-t</i> ‘to cheer, to hail’ <i>liesm-o-t</i> ‘to be in flames’ – <i>uz-liesm-o-t</i> ‘to burst into flame, to flare up’
		2) incomplete actions, actions performed in part	<i>gaid-i-t</i> ‘to wait’ – <i>uz-gaid-i-t</i> ‘to wait for a short while’ <i>kos-t</i> ‘to bite’ – <i>uz-kos-t</i> ‘to have a snack, to have a bite’ <i>spēl-ē-t</i> ‘to play’ – <i>uz-spēl-ē-t</i> ‘to play for a short while’
		3) actions carried out in full	<i>cel-t</i> ‘to build’ – <i>uz-cel-t</i> (PFV) <i>cep-t</i> ‘to bake’ – <i>uz-cep-t</i> (PFV) <i>plauk-t</i> ‘to blossom, to bloom’ – <i>uz-plauk-t</i> (PFV)
		temporal and aspectual meanings 1) sudden and brief actions 2) prolonged actions	<i>run-ā-t</i> ‘to speak’ – <i>uz-run-ā-t</i> ‘to speak to, to address’ <i>lūk-o-t</i> ‘to look, to check’ – <i>uz-lūk-o-t</i> ‘to direct a look at’ <i>elp-o-t</i> ‘to breathe’ – <i>uz-elp-o-t</i> ‘to be able to breathe again, to take a breath’ <i>bar-o-t</i> ‘to feed’ – <i>uz-bar-o-t</i> ‘to fatten’ <i>krā-t</i> ‘to put aside, to save’ – <i>uz-krā-t</i> ‘to save up, to accumulate’ <i>glab-ā-t</i> ‘to keep, to store’ – <i>uz-glab-ā-t</i> ‘to store for a certain period of time’

Table 2.66 Main verb formation types: prefixation

Combined, i.e., circumfixal, derivatives

Meanings related to the quantitative aspect of actions can also be expressed by means of circumfixes – prefix+postfix combinations where the postfix is the reflexive formative *-s*. Circumfixes of this type can attach both to primary verb stems and to secondary verb stems derived by suffixation (see the V-V word-formation type below). The reflexive formative *-s* in the examples below is shown as part of the INF ending, i.e., *-ties*.

Verbal circumfixes consisting of a prefix and the formative *-s* are associated with the following meanings (see also Section 2.5.7):

- 1) sudden, unexpected, and brief actions;
- 2) actions done to a great extent, a great deal;
- 3) actions done to excess

The last two cases may additionally involve modality, as excessive actions are not always viewed positively.

Circumfixes consisting of a prefix and a suffix are used for forming verbs from nouns (N-V) and adjectives (ADJ-V).

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	aiz- + -s	brief, sudden, unexpected, also inchoative actions	<i>svil-t</i> ‘to burn superficially or lightly’ – <i>aiz-svil-ties</i> ‘to catch fire’
		actions done to a great extent, also for too long	<i>dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think’ – <i>aiz-dom-ā-ties</i> ‘to be deep in thought, to be lost in thought’ <i>gul-ē-t</i> ‘to sleep’ – <i>aiz-gul-ē-ties</i> ‘to oversleep’ <i>sēd-ē-t</i> ‘to sit’ – <i>aiz-sēd-ē-ties</i> ‘to sit for too long, to overstay’ <i>sapņ-o-t</i> ‘to dream’ – <i>aiz-sapņ-o-ties</i> ‘to be lost in dreams, to daydream’
	at- + -s	actions done to a great extent, also until one is tired of them	<i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>at-ēs-ties</i> ‘to eat one’s fill’ <i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>at-dzer-ties</i> ‘to drink one’s fill, to quench one’s thirst’ <i>gul-ē-t</i> ‘to sleep’ – <i>at-gul-ē-ties</i> ‘to sleep as much as one wishes’ <i>sēd-ē-t</i> ‘to sit’ – <i>at-sēd-ē-ties</i> ‘to sit a lot, also for a long time’
	ie- + -s	brief, sudden, unexpected, also inchoative actions	<i>klieg-t</i> ‘to scream’ – <i>ie-klieg-ties</i> ‘to cry out’ <i>klep-o-t</i> ‘to cough’ – <i>ie-klep-o-ties</i> ‘to cough (a little, once or twice)’ <i>rie-t</i> ‘to bark’ – <i>ie-rie-ties</i> ‘to begin to bark’ <i>sāp-ē-t</i> ‘to ache’ – <i>ie-sāp-ē-ties</i> ‘to ache suddenly and briefly’ <i>niesz-ē-t</i> ‘to itch’ – <i>ie-niesz-ē-ties</i> ‘to begin to itch’ <i>mirdz-ē-t</i> ‘to twinkle’ – <i>ie-mirdz-ē-ties</i> ‘to begin to twinkle, also for a brief moment’
	iz- + -s	actions done to a very great extent, also to one’s limits	<i>ceļ-o-t</i> ‘to travel’ – <i>iz-ceļ-o-ties</i> ‘to travel a lot and for a long time’ <i>brauk-t</i> ‘to go (in a vehicle), to drive’ – <i>iz-brauk-ties</i> ‘to move about a lot, to drive a lot’ <i>skrie-t</i> ‘to run’ – <i>iz-skrie-ties</i> ‘to run to one’s heart’s content’ <i>klep-o-t</i> ‘to cough’ – <i>iz-klep-o-ties</i> ‘to cough it out’ <i>dej-o-t</i> ‘to dance’ – <i>iz-dej-o-ties</i> ‘to dance to one’s heart’s content’ <i>smēķ-ē-t</i> ‘to smoke’ – <i>iz-smēķ-ē-ties</i> ‘to smoke to one’s heart’s content’
	no- + -s	actions done to a great extent, also until one is tired of them	<i>brēk-t</i> ‘to cry’ – <i>no-brēk-ties</i> ‘to cry oneself hoarse’ <i>bris-t</i> ‘to wade’ – <i>no-bris-ties</i> ‘to wade for a long time, until tired’ <i>staig-ā-t</i> ‘to walk’ – <i>no-staig-ā-ties</i> ‘to walk a lot until tired’ <i>raud-ā-t</i> ‘to weep’ – <i>no-raud-ā-ties</i> ‘to weep intensely, over a certain period of time’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
V–V	pie- + -s	actions done to a great extent	<i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>pie-ēs-ties</i> ‘to eat one’s fill’ <i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>pie-dzer-ties</i> ‘to get drunk’ <i>smel-t</i> ‘to draw (water)’ – <i>pie-smel-ties</i> ‘to draw (water) until filled’ <i>zag-t</i> ‘to steal’ – <i>pie-zag-ties</i> ‘to steal a lot, a quantity of smth.’
	pār- + -s	actions done to excess	<i>ēs-t</i> ‘to eat’ – <i>pār-ēs-ties</i> ‘to overeat’ <i>dzer-t</i> ‘to drink’ – <i>pār-dzer-ties</i> ‘to drink too much’ <i>gaidī-t</i> ‘to wait’ – <i>pār-gaid-ī-ties</i> ‘to be tired of waiting’ <i>strād-ā-t</i> ‘to work’ – <i>pār-strād-ā-ties</i> ‘to work too hard, too much’ <i>gul-ē-t</i> ‘to sleep’ – <i>pār-gul-ē-ties</i> ‘to sleep too much, for too long’
	sa- + -s	actions done to a great extent	<i>elp-o-t</i> ‘to breathe’ – <i>sa-elp-o-ties</i> ‘to breathe in, to inhale a significant quantity of smth.’ <i>dom-ā-t</i> ‘to think’ – <i>sa-dom-ā-ties</i> ‘to think carefully, for a long time, to be lost in thoughts’ <i>las-ī-t</i> ‘to read’ – <i>sa-las-ī-ties</i> ‘to read a lot about smth.’ <i>smēķ-ē-t</i> ‘to smoke’ – <i>sa-smēķ-ē-ties</i> ‘to smoke a lot so as to reach a certain physical state’
N–V	ap- + -o-t / -ties	acquiring or causing to acquire the thing denoted by the base word	<i>balv-a</i> ‘award, prize’ – <i>ap-balv-o-t</i> ‘to award’ <i>mež-s</i> ‘forest’ – <i>ap-mež-o-t</i> ‘to afforest, to cover with forest’ <i>laim-e</i> ‘happiness’ – <i>ap-laim-o-t</i> ‘to make very happy’ <i>led-us</i> ‘ice’ – <i>ap-led-o-t</i> ‘to become covered with ice’ <i>siev-a</i> ‘wife’ – <i>ap-siev-o-ties</i> ‘to take a wife’ <i>bērn-s</i> ‘child’ – <i>ap-bērn-oties</i> ‘to have a child’
	pār- + -o-ties; attaches to the GEN PL stem of nouns	becoming the thing denoted by the base word	<i>purv-s</i> ‘bog, swamp’ – <i>pār-purv-o-ties</i> ‘to become boggy, to turn into swamp’ <i>akmen-s</i> ‘stone’ – <i>pār-akmeņ-oties</i> ‘to petrify, to fossilize’ <i>kaul-s</i> ‘bone’ – <i>pārkaul-o-ties</i> ‘to ossify’ <i>ogl-e</i> ‘coal’ – <i>pār-ogl-o-ties</i> ‘to get charred, to turn into coal’ <i>cukur-s</i> ‘sugar’ – <i>pār-cukur-o-ties</i> ‘to become candied, to form sugar crystals’
ADJ–V	ap- + -inā-t / -o-t	causing to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>grūt-s</i> ‘difficult’ – <i>ap-grūt-inā-t</i> ‘to inconvenience, to trouble, to make smth. difficult’ <i>stulb-s</i> ‘stupid’ – <i>ap-stulb-inā-t</i> , <i>ap-stulb-o-t</i> ‘to stupefy’ <i>tumš-s</i> ‘dark’ – <i>ap-tumš-o-t</i> ‘to darken, to cloud’

Base word – derivative word class	Word-formation means	Derivational meaning	Examples
ADJ–V	at- + -inā-t / -o-t	restoring or enhancing the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>jaun-s</i> ‘new’ – <i>at-jaun-inā-t</i> ‘to update’, <i>at-jaun-o-t</i> ‘to restore, to renew’ <i>sveš-s</i> ‘strange, alien’ – <i>at-sveš-inā-t</i> ‘to estrange, to alienate’ <i>tāl-s</i> ‘distant’ – <i>at-tāl-inā-t</i> ‘to remove, to move away from’ <i>viegl-s</i> ‘easy, light’ – <i>at-viegl-inā-t</i> ‘to make easier’
	no- + -inā-t / -o-t	causing to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>gatav-s</i> ‘ready, ripe’ – <i>no-gatav-inā-t</i> ‘to ripen’ <i>trul-s</i> ‘dull, blunt’ – <i>no-trul-inā-t</i> ‘to dull, to blunt’ <i>meln-s</i> ‘black’ – <i>no-meln-o-t</i> ‘to become black, to denigrate’
	pa- + -inā-t	enhancing, increasing the attribute denoted by the base word	<i>ātr-s</i> ‘fast, speedy’ – <i>pa-ātr-inā-t</i> ‘to speed up’ <i>augst-s</i> ‘high’ – <i>pa-augst-inā-t</i> ‘to raise, to increase’ <i>ilg-s</i> ‘long’ – <i>pa-ildz-inā-t</i> ‘to prolong’ <i>slikt-s</i> ‘bad’ – <i>pa-slikt-inā-t</i> ‘to worsen’
	sa- + -inā-t / -o-t	causing to acquire the attribute denoted by the base word to the highest degree	<i>raib-s</i> ‘mottled, speckled’ – <i>sa-raib-inā-t</i> ‘to mottle’ <i>šaur-s</i> ‘narrow’ – <i>sa-šaur-inā-t</i> ‘to narrow, to narrow down’ <i>rūgt-s</i> ‘bitter’ – <i>sa-rūgt-inā-t</i> ‘to upset’ <i>nikn-s</i> ‘furious, enraged’ – <i>sa-nikn-o-t</i> ‘to infuriate, to enrage’

Table 2.67 Main verb formation types: circumfixation

2.6 ADVERBS

2.6.0 Introductory remarks

The adverb is a word class which consists of indeclinable words used to characterize actions, properties, circumstances, and, less frequently, objects. In sentences, adverbs function as adverbial modifiers (usually, those of place, time, measure, manner, cause, and purpose) (Skujiņa 2007: 40), typically attaching to verbs (2.6.1a), adjectives (2.6.1b) other adverbs (2.6.1c), and, occasionally, nouns (2.6.1d-e), pronouns (2.6.1f), and numerals (2.6.1g):

- (2.6.1) a. *ēst lēni* ‘to eat slowly’
b. *ārkārtīgi skaists* ‘extraordinarily beautiful’
c. *ļoti ātri* ‘very quickly’
d. *blakus stāvētājs* ‘a bystander’
e. *papildu atvaļinājums* ‘additional vacation’
f. *gluži cits* ‘quite different’
g. *aptuveni simts* ‘approximately a hundred’

Moreover, adverbs can be used to introduce sentences, in which case they apply to, or characterize, the entire content of such sentences (see also 3.2.10), e.g.:

(2.6.2) expressing time

- a. **Tūlīt** *atbrauks daži*
in_a_moment come.FUT.3 some.NOM.PL.M
mani draugi.
my.NOM.PL.M friend.NOM.PL.M
‘Some friends of mine will be here in a moment.’ (C)
- b. **Šodien** *gaidāms stiprs lietus.*
today expect.PTCP.NOM.M heavy.NOM.M rain.NOM.M
‘Heavy rain is expected today.’ (www.apollo.lv)

(2.6.3) expressing place

- a. **Vietām** *upe ir seklāka*
in_places river.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 shallow.CMP.NOM.F
par metru.
than meter.ACC.M
‘In some spots, the river is less than a meter deep.’ (C)
- b. **Ārā** *iedziedas gailis.*
outside begin_singing.PRS.3 rooster.NOM.M
‘A rooster starts crowing outside.’ (C)

The adverbs *kad* ‘when’, *kur* ‘where’, *kurp* ‘where to’, *kā* ‘how’, *cik* ‘how much’, *kāpēc*, *kādēļ*, *kālab* ‘why, for what reason, what for’ are used to introduce interrogative sentences, asking questions about time (2.6.4), place (2.6.5), manner (2.6.6), cause (2.6.7), and quantity (2.6.8):

(2.6.4) **Kad** *tev jābūt pilsētā?*

when you.DAT.SG DEB.be city.LOC.F
‘When do you need to be in the city?’ (C)

(2.6.5) a. **Kur** *izeja?*

where exit.NOM.F
‘Where is the exit?’ (C)

- c. **Kurp** *mēs braucam?*
where_to we.NOM go.PRS.1PL
‘Where are we going to?’ (C)

(2.6.6) **Kā** *pareizi kopt zemenes?*

how properly care.INF strawberry.ACC.PL.F
‘How to properly care for strawberries?’ (www.draugiem.lv)

(2.6.7) a. **Kāpēc** *tūjas dzeltē?*

why thuja.NOM.PL.F yellow.PRS.3
‘What causes thujas to turn yellow?’ (Latvijas Avīze)

- b. **Kādēļ** *sevi ir tik grūti mīlēt?*
why oneself.ACC be.COP.PRS.3 so difficult love.INF
‘Why is it so difficult to love oneself?’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- d. **Kālab** vajadzīga lidosta?
why necessary.NOM.F airport.NOM.F
 ‘Why is an airport necessary?’ (C)

- (2.6.8) **Cik** ilgi jūs strādājat par
how long you.NOM.PL work.PRS.2PL as
 pārdevēju?
 shop_assistant.ACC
 ‘How long have you been working as a shop assistant?’ (C)

All the above adverbs can also function as subordinating conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses (for details on conjunctions and conjunction words see Sections 2.6 and 3.5.2):

- (2.6.9) **Kad** esi atbildīgas izvēles
when be.COP.PRS.2SG responsible.GEN.F choice.GEN.F
 priekšā,
 front.LOC.F
 jāpaskatās uz savām iespējām no malas.
 ‘When you’re facing a difficult choice, you have to take a look at your options from the side.’ (Diena)

- (2.6.10) a. **Kartē** apkopotas ēdināšanas iestādes Rīgā,
kur var paēst vegānu pusdienas.
where be_able.PRS.3 eat.INF vegan.GEN.PL.M dinner.ACC.PL.F
 ‘The map shows restaurants in Riga where one can have a vegan dinner.’
 (CW)

- b. **Karte** ar dabas taku aprakstiem palīdzēs izlemt,
kurp doties brīvdienās.
where_to go.INF holidays.LOC.PL.F
 ‘A map with descriptions of nature trails will help [you] decide where to go on the weekend.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- (2.6.11) **Es** zinu, **kā** ir, **kad**
 I.NOM know.PRS.1SG **how** be.PRS.3 when
 nezini, ko gribi.
 not_know.PRS.2SG what.ACC want.PRS.2SG
 ‘I know what it’s like when you don’t know what you want.’ (Ir)

- (2.6.12) a. **Tūristi** nesaprot,
kāpēc jāmaksā par ieeju dabas
why DEB.pay for enter.ACC.F nature.GEN.F
 parkā.
 park.LOC.M
 ‘Tourists do not understand why they have to pay to enter a nature park.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- b. *Ministrija pieprasa skaidrot,*
kādēļ *uz sacensībām trenera vietā*
why *to competition.DAT.PL.F trainer.GEN.M place.LOC.F*
devies sporta federācijas prezidents.
go.PTCP.PST.M sports.GEN.M federation.GEN.F president.NOM.M
 ‘The ministry demands an explanation as to why the president of
 the sports federation went to the competition instead of the trainer.’
 (Diena)
- c. *Gribu zināt, kālab nepiegādā*
want.PRS.1SG know.INF why not_deliver.PRS.3
[pasūtīto] avīzi.
[subscribed] newspaper.ACC.F
 ‘I want to know why the newspaper [I have subscribed to] isn’t being
 delivered.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

Structurally, it is possible to distinguish between three kinds of adverbs:

- 1) one-word adverbs
- (2.6.14) *te* ‘here’, *tur* ‘there’, *tad* ‘then’, *iekšā* ‘inside’, *braukšus* ‘riding, driving as
 opposed to ‘on foot’, *kopā* ‘together’, *nekur* ‘nowhere’, *nedaudz* ‘a little’,
retumis ‘occasionally’, *tagad* ‘now’
- 2) compound adverbs
- (2.6.15) *šovakar* ‘this evening’, *nākamvasar* ‘next summer’, *toreiz* ‘then’
- 3) word combinations (of two words)
- (2.6.16) *šur tur* ‘here and there’, *kaut kad* ‘at some point in time’, *vienis prātis*
 ‘of the same opinion’, *galu galā* ‘eventually’, *pa labi* ‘right’

2.6.1 Semantic groups

Based on their semantics adverbs can be classified into (Paegle 2003: 162–179):

- 1) adverbs of time – *kad* ‘when’, *tad* ‘then’, *nekad* ‘never’, *kaut kad* ‘at some
 point in time’, *šad tad* ‘now and then’, *tagad* ‘now’, *tikko* ‘just’, *vēlāk* ‘later’,
rīt ‘tomorrow’, *vakar* ‘yesterday’, *šodien* ‘today’, *šogad* ‘this year’, *nākamnedēļ*
 ‘next week’, *pirmdien* ‘on Monday’, etc.
- (2.6.17) a. **Tagad** *nenozēloju toreizējo lēmumu.*
 now not_regret.PRS.1SG of_that_time.ACC.M decision.ACC.M
 ‘At this moment in time I don’t regret the decision I made then.’ (C)
- b. *Varbūt piezvani vēlāk?*
 maybe call.PRS.2SG later
 ‘Maybe you can call later?’ (C)
- e. **Šogad** *visu vasaru ir auksti.*
this_year all.ACC.F summer.ACC.F be.COP.PRS.3 cold
 ‘This year, it has been cold throughout the summer.’ (C)

- 2) adverbs of place – *te* ‘here’, *še* ‘here’, *tur* ‘there’, *turp* ‘to there’, *kur* ‘where’, *kurp* ‘where to’, *šur* ‘here’, *šurp* ‘to here’, *nekur* ‘nowhere’, *kaut kur* ‘somewhere’, *šur tur* ‘here and there’, *visur* ‘everywhere’, *ārā* ‘outside’, *iekšā* ‘in, inside’, *augšā* ‘up’, *lejā* ‘down’, *laukā* ‘outside’, etc.

- (2.6.18) a. *Kas te notiek?*
 what.NOM here happen.PRS.3
 ‘What’s happening here?’ (C)
- b. *Fausts vienmēr, visur bija viens.*
 Faust.NOM.M always everywhere be.COP.PST.3 alone.NOM.M
 ‘Faust was always, everywhere alone.’ (C)
- c. *Emīls iziet laukā,*
 Emīls.NOM.M go_out.PRS.3 out
Balvis paliek sēžam.
 ‘Emīls goes out, Balvis remains seated.’ (C)

- 3) adverbs of manner – *kā* ‘how’, *tā* ‘like that’, *šā* ‘like this’, *nekā* ‘in no way’, *kaut kā* ‘somehow’, *šā tā* ‘anyhow, somehow’, *labi* ‘well’, *lēni* ‘slowly’, *skriešus* ‘running, at a run’, *lēkšiem* ‘at a gallop’, *aumaļām* ‘in great amount, pouring’, etc.

- (2.6.19) a. *No dokumentiem varēja secināt,*
ka [viņš]
 that [he]
skolu šā tā ir beidzis.
 school.ACC.F like_this like_that be.AUX.PRS.3 finish.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It could be concluded from the documents that [he] got through school somehow.’ (C)
- b. *Rītausma nāk lēni.*
 dawn.NOM.F come.PRS.3 slowly
 ‘The dawn breaks slowly.’ (C)
- c. *Viņam aumaļām tecēja asaras.*
 he.DAT.M in_streams pour.PST.3 tear.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Tears were streaming down his face.’ (C)

- 4) adverbs of measure – *cik* ‘how much’, *tik* ‘that much’, *kaut cik* ‘any, at all’, *necik* ‘not very’, *daudz* ‘much’, *maz* ‘little’, *mazliet* ‘slightly’, *nedaudz* ‘a little’, *gana* ‘enough’, *pietiekami* ‘sufficiently’, etc.

- (2.6.20) a. *Cik skaisti!*
 how beautiful
 ‘How beautiful!’ (C)
- b. *Patērētāji maz zina par savām tiesībām.*
 consumer.NOM.PL.M little know.PRS.3 about own.ACC.PL.F
 right.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Consumers know little about their rights.’ (C)

- c. *Kārlim* *rotaļlietu* *ir* ***gana.***
 Kārlis.DAT.M toy.GEN.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 **enough**
 ‘Kārlis has enough toys.’ (www.mansmazais.lv)

5) adverbs of purpose and cause – *kāpēc*, *kādēļ*, *kālab* ‘why, for what reason, what for’, *tāpēc*, *tādēļ*, *tālab* ‘for that reason, therefore, because’

- (2.6.21) a. ***Kāpēc*** *piekritāt* *kandidēt* *uz* *iestādes*
why agree.PST.2PL run.INF for institution.GEN.F
direktora *amatu?*
 director.GEN.M position.ACC.M
 ‘Why did you agree to run for the position of the director of the institution?’ (Ir)
- b. *U-18* *basketbolistēm* *grūts* *un*
 U-18 basketball_player.DAT.PL.F difficult.NOM.M and
tāpēc *lielisks* *panākums*
therefore remarkable.NOM.M achievement.NOM.M
Eiropas *čempionātā.*
 Europe.GEN.F championship.LOC.M
 ‘A difficult and therefore remarkable achievement for the U-18 basketball players (F) at the European championship.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- c. *Katram* *jāmācās* *paša* *dēļ,*
 everybody.DAT.M DEB.study self.GEN.M because_of
nevis tālab, *ka* *skolotājs* *to* *grib.*
 not **for_that_reason** that teacher.NOM.M it.ACC.M want.PRS.3
 ‘One has to study for one’s own sake rather than because their teacher wants them to.’ (C)

The above classification is, to an extent, arbitrary: some adverbs can express different meanings depending on the context (for a detailed discussion see Paegle 2003: 159–161). For example, the adverbs *tūlīt*, *tūdaļ* ‘in a moment, right away’ can carry time (2.6.22a) as well as place (2.6.22b) semantics:

- (2.6.22) a. ***Tūlīt*** *sākas* *olimpiskās*
shortly begin.PRS.3 Olympic.NOM.PL.F
spēles.
 game.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The Olympic games will start shortly.’ (Kas Jauns)
- b. *Debitanti* *basketbola* *līgas* *tabulā*
 newcomer.NOM.PL.M basketball.GEN.M league.GEN.F table.LOC.F
redzami ***tūlīt*** *aiz* *trim*
 see.PTCP.NOM.PL.M **immediately** behind three.DAT
spēcīgākajām *komandām.*
 strong.GEN.COMP.PL.F team.GEN.PL.F
 ‘The newcomers immediately follow the three strongest teams on the basketball league table.’ (Diena)

Likewise, the adverb *turpat* ‘in the same place, right there’, for example, can express place (2.6.23a) and measure (2.6.23b) meanings:

- (2.6.23) a. *Hokejistu* *apcietina* ***turpat*** *uz* *ledus*.
 hockey_player.ACC.M arrest.PRS.3 **there** on ice.GEN.M
 ‘The hockey player is arrested right there on the ice.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- b. *Zemessardzes* *kājnieku* *bataljonā*
 National_Guard.GEN.F infantry.GEN.PL.M battalion.LOC.M
dienē ***turpat*** *pieci* *simti*
 serve.PRS.3 **almost** five.NOM.M hundred.NOM.PL.M
cilvēku.
 person.GEN.PL.M
 ‘Almost five hundred persons serve in the National Guard infantry
 battalion.’ (Diena)

Moreover, the adverbial meanings of manner and measure, manner and time, manner and place are not always clearly distinguishable, i.e., it is perhaps best to view them as being realized simultaneously. For example, the adverb of manner *lēni* ‘slowly’ in example (2.6.24a) can also be interpreted as an adverb of measure, while the adverb of time *palaikam* ‘from time to time’ (2.6.24b) and the adverb of place *vietumis* ‘here and there’ (2.6.24c) can both be construed as adverbs of manner.

- (2.6.24) a. *Valstij* *ir* ***lēni*** *augoša,* *bet*
 country.DAT.F be.COP.PRS.3 **slowly** grow.PTCP.NOM.F but
daudzsološa *ekonomika*.
 promising.NOM.F economy.NOM.F
 ‘The country has a slowly growing but promising economy.’ (Ir)
- b. *Naktī* *visā* *valstī* ***palaikam*** *lis*.
 night.LOC.F entire.LOC.F country.LOC.F **occasionally** rain.FUT.3
 ‘Intermittent rain is expected tonight throughout the country.’
 (www.apollo.lv)
- c. *Ostā* ***vietumis*** *redzami* *ledus*
 port.LOC.F **here_and_there** see.PTCP.NOM.PL.M ice.GEN.M
sastrēgumi.
 jam.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Ice jams can be seen here and there in the port.’ (www.liepajniekiem.lv)

2.6.2 Comparison

Since adverbs are indeclinable they lack grammatical categories. Some adverbs of adjectival origin (mostly derived from qualitative adjectives), however, are gradable and can appear in the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative* degrees, which are formed in the same way as adjectival degrees of comparison: using the suffix *-āk-* to form the comparative degree and the prefix *vis-* to form the superlative degree; word-final *-ī*, *-u*, and *-ām* are not retained in the comparative and superlative forms:

- (2.6.25) a. *maz – maz-āk – vis-maz-āk* ‘little – less – least’
 b. *gudr-i – gudr-āk – vis-gudr-āk* ‘cleverly – more cleverly – most cleverly’
 c. *tāl-u – tāl-āk – vis-tāl-āk* ‘far – farther – farthest’
 d. *lēn-ām – lēn-āk – vis-lēn-āk* ‘slowly – more slowly – most slowly’

(2.6.26) *labi* ‘well’

- a. *Jums labi padodas valodas?*
 you.DAT.PL **good** come_easy.PRS.3 language.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Are you good at languages?’ (C)
- b. *Lauku sētā labāk*
 countryside.GEN.PL.M farmstead.LOC.F **better**
iederēsies peonijas.
 fit_in.FUT.3 peony.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Peonies will be better suited for a farmstead.’ (C)
- c. *Tas [saldējums] viņiem garšo*
 that.NOM.M [ice_cream] they.DAT.M like.PRS.3
vislabāk.
best
 ‘They like that [ice cream] the best.’ (C)

Forming the comparative and superlative degrees of the adverb *daudz* ‘much, a lot’ involves using a different root:

(2.6.27) *daudz – vair-āk – vis-vair-āk* ‘much – more – most’

- a. *Ar optimismu var ļoti daudz*
 with optimism.INS.M be_able.PRS.3 very **much**
izdarīt.
 accomplish.INF
 ‘Much can be accomplished with optimism.’ (C)
- b. *Šogad skolas gaitas sāks*
 this_year school.GEN.F activity.NOM.PL.F begin.FUT.3
vairāk pirmklasnieku nekā pērn.
more first_form_pupils.GEN.PL.M than last_year.
 ‘More first form pupils will begin their schooling this year than the year before.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. “*Ar sudrabu strādāju visvairāk, bet*
 with silver.INS.M work.PRS.1SG **most** but
izmantoju arī zeltu,”
 use.PRS.1SG also gold.ACC.M
stāsta [rotu] mākslinieks.
 “‘I work with silver the most, but I also use gold’, the [jewelry] artist says.’ (Kas Jauns)

As a rule, the comparative and superlative degrees of adverbs derived from relational adjectives either do not occur at all or are rare, e.g., the adverb *latviski* ‘in Latvian, in a Latvian manner’ in mass media texts:

- (2.6.28) a. *Bet varbūt ir veids, kā to*
 but maybe be.PRS.3 way.NOM.M how it.ACC.M
pateikt latvisk-āk, ne zinātniskā valodā?
 say.INF **Latvian-CMP** not scientific.LOC.F language.LOC.F
 ‘But maybe there is a more Latvian way to say it rather than using
 scientific language?’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Domāju, tas ir*
 think.PRS.1SG he.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3
vis-latvisk-āk domājošais politiķis.
SPL-pro Latvian-CMP thinking.PTCP.NOM.M politician.NOM.M
 ‘I believe he is the most pro-Latvian thinking politician.’ (Diena)

Likewise, examples of gradable adverbs derived from compound adjectives are very rare in language use, e.g., the comparative of the adverb *melnbalti* ‘in a black-and-white manner’:

- (2.6.29) a. *Dramaturģe daudz melnbalt-āk iezīmējusi*
 playwright.NOM.F much **black_white-CMP** outline.PTCP.NOM.F
galvenās varones mazdēla raksturu.
 main.GEN.F heroine.GEN.F grandson.GEN.M character.ACC.M
 ‘The playwright (F) outlines the character of the protagonist’s (F)
 grandson in a much more black-and-white manner.’
 (Latvijas Avīze)
- b. *Fotoattēls jāmēģina veidot bāl-āk*
 photo.NOM.M DEB.try produce.INF pale-CMP
vai melnbalt-āk.
 or **black_white-CMP**
 ‘[You] should try to produce paler or more black-and-white photographs.’
 (www.draugiem.lv)

2.6.3 Word formation

As a word class, adverbs originate from words of other word classes through conversion, i.e., adverbialization of isolated word forms or word combinations (for more details see Soida 1969; Paegle 2003: 157–159; Vulāne 2013: 294–295). Adverbial word formation in Latvian lacks systematicity in the sense that in many cases it is closely linked with the specific historical backgrounds of certain kinds of lexemes and changes in the syntactic functions of words of some word classes. Therefore, only a few morphological and syntactic word formation types can be singled out.

Morphological word formation

Alongside conversion, Latvian has developed several morphological adverbial word formation types. Suffixation, i.e., derivation of adverbs by means of the suffix *-i* (also, *-u*, *-ām*) and the suffix *-p*, shows the greatest degree of generalization.

Suffixation

ADJ-ADV

Derivation of adverbs by means of the suffix *-i*

- 1) Adverbs ending in *-i* can be derived from virtually any adjective regardless of its internal morphological makeup (2.6.30), semantics, or stratum of the vocabulary (2.6.31):
 - (2.6.30) a. from primary adjectives
viegl-s – *viegl-i* ‘easy – easily’
ērt-s – *ērt-i* ‘comfortable – comfortably’
 - b. from derived adjectives
zar-ain-s – *zar-ain-i* ‘branchy – in a branched manner’
ie-zaļ-š – *ie-zaļ-i* ‘greenish – greenishly’
vēstur-isk-s – *vēstur-isk-i* ‘historical – historically’
 - c. from compound adjectives
zil-zaļ-š – *zil-zaļ-i* ‘blue-green – in a blue-green manner’
meln-balt-s – *meln-balt-i* ‘black-and-white – in a black-and-white manner’
- (2.6.31) from borrowed adjectives
aktīv-s – *aktīv-i* ‘active – actively’
abstrakt-s – *abstrakt-i* ‘abstract – abstractly’
destruktīv-s – *destruktīv-i* ‘destructive – destructively’
konsekvent-s – *konsekvent-i* ‘consistent – consistently’
- 2) In addition, adverbs ending in *-i* can also be derived from declinable participles, namely, the present active participle (2.6.32a), present passive participle (2.6.32b), and past passive participle (2.6.32c); here, again, whether the source verb is a primary or a derived word is of no particular significance:
 - (2.6.32) a. *klieg-t* – *kliedz-oš-s* – *kliedz-oš-i* ‘shout – shouting – in a shouting manner’
ap-stulb-inā-t – *ap-stulb-in-oš-s* – *ap-stulb-in-oš-i* ‘dazzle – dazzling – dazzlingly’
 - b. *teik-t* – *teic-am-s* – *teic-am-i* ‘commend – commendable – commendably’
pār-skat-ī-t – *pār-skat-ām-s* – *pār-skat-ām-i* ‘peruse – perusable – in a perusable manner’
 - c. *slēp-t* – *slēp-t-s* – *slēp-t-i* ‘hide – hidden – in a hidden manner’
aiz-vain-o-t – *aiz-vain-o-t-s* – *aiz-vain-o-t-i* ‘offend – offended – in an offended manner’

Derivation of adverbs by means of the suffixes *-u*, *-ām*

Although the adverbial suffixes *-u*, *-ām* can only combine with native primary qualitative adjectives, the resulting adverbs do not differ from adverbs derived by means of the suffix *-i* either semantically or with respect to usage, therefore, all three suffixes are considered to be derivational variants. In contemporary Latvian, some adverbs can occur in any of the three variants:

(2.6.33) *klusī, klusu, klusām* ‘quietly’

- a. *Tēvs* ***klusī*** *elpo.*
father.NOM.M **quietly** breath.PRS.3
‘Father is breathing quietly.’ (C)
- b. *Viņi* ***klusu*** *izgāja.*
they.NOM.M **quietly** leave.PST.3
‘They left quietly.’ (C)
- c. *Valdis* ***klusām*** *iesvilpās.*
Valdis.NOM.M **quietly** whistled.PST.3
‘Valdis whistled quietly.’ (C)

There are also adverbs that permit two variants:

(2.6.34) *-i* and *-ām*

- a. *lēni, lēnām* ‘slowly’
Lēni *kāpjos* *atpakaļ* *pa* *rasaino* *taku.*
slowly back.PRS.1SG away down dewy.ACC.F path.ACC.F
‘I back away slowly down the dewy path.’ (C)
Kuģi ***lēnām*** *apledo.*
ship.NOM.PL.M **slowly** ice_over.PRS.3
‘The ships slowly become covered with ice.’ (C)
- b. *gauži, gaužām* ‘very, intensely, bitterly’
Viņa *sāka* ***gauži*** *raudāt.*
she.NOM start.PST.3 **bitterly** cry.INF
‘She started to weep bitterly.’ (C)
Stādi *izskatās* ***gaužām*** *vāriģi.*
seedling.NOM.PL.M look.PRS.3 **very** frail.NOM.PL.M
‘The seedlings look very frail.’ (C)

(2.6.35) *-i* and *-u*

- a. *tāli, tālu* ‘far (away)’
Kaut kur ***tāli*** *vēl* *ducina.*
somewhere **far** still rumble.PRS.3
‘The rumbling sound is still coming from somewhere far away.’ (C)
Tikai *nepeldi* ***tālu.***
just not_swim.IMP.2SG **far.**
‘Just do not swim far.’ (C)
- b. *augsti, augstu* ‘highly’
Šīs *nozares* *prasa*
this.NOM.PL.F industry.NOM.PL.F require.PRS.3
augsti *kvalificētu* *darbaspēku ..*
highly qualified.PTCP.ACC.M personnel.ACC.M
‘These industries require highly qualified personnel ...’ (C)
Tu *pārāk* ***augstu*** *sevi* *vērtē.*
you.NOM.SG too **highly** self.ACC rate.PRS.2SG
‘You rate yourself too highly.’ (C)

N-ADV, PRON-ADV

Derivation of adverbs by means of the suffix *-p*

In addition to the above, there is a group of adverbs expressing direction and derived from spatial nouns (2.6.36a) and pronouns (2.6.36b) by means of the suffix *-p*:

- (2.6.36) a. *augšu-p* ‘upwards’, *leju-p* ‘downwards’, *āru-p* ‘outwards’, *iekšu-p* ‘inwards’, *kalnu-p* ‘uphill’, *māju-p* ‘homeward’, *sauļu-p* ‘sunward’
b. *kur-p* ‘where to’, *tur-p* ‘to there’, *šur-p* ‘to here’

- (2.6.37) a. *Ar uzvaru mājup no Ventspils*
with victory.INS.F **home** from Ventspils.GEN.F
atgriežas volejbolisti.
return.PRS.3 volleyball_player.NOM.PL.M
‘The volleyball players are coming home from Ventspils with a victory.’
(www.sportacentrs.lv)
b. *Paskaties augšup!*
look.IMP.2SG **upwards**
Vai pazīsti Vecrīgas celtnes?
‘Look up! Do you recognize the buildings of Old Rīga?’
(www.delfi.lv)
c. *Viņš bieži turp aizbrauc.*
he.NOM often **to_there** go.PRS.3
‘He often goes there.’ (C)
d. *Nāc šurp!*
come.IMP.2SG **to_here**
‘Come here!’ (C)

Syntactic word formation

Conversion – adverbialization

Adverbs produced by conversion can be of nominal, pronominal, or verbal origin (with reduced or retained case endings, which in some cases belong to obsolete grammatical forms):

- 1) nominal origin – adverbs derived from different forms of nouns (2.6.38), adjectives (2.6.39), or numerals (2.6.40)

- (2.6.38) a. NOM SG
gana ‘enough’, *pulka* ‘a lot’, etc.
b. DAT SG
mūžam ‘forever’, *laikam* ‘possibly’, etc.
c. ACC SG
drusku ‘a little bit’, *rīt(u)* ‘tomorrow’, etc.
d. INS SG
milzum ‘extremely’, *brīnum* ‘astonishingly’, *krustu šķērsu* ‘in all directions’, etc.

- e. LOC SG
augšā ‘up’, *ārā* ‘outside’, *laukā* ‘out’, *vaļā* ‘open’, *kopā* ‘together’,
reizē ‘at the same time’, *vienatā* ‘on one’s own’, *divatā* ‘the two
 (of us, them, etc.), two together’, *pirmdien* ‘on Monday’, *otrdien*
 ‘on Tuesday’, etc.
- f. ACC PL
tecīnus ‘quickly and lightly’, *sāņus* ‘sideways’, etc.
- g. INS PL
vienis prātis ‘of the same opinion’, *retumis* ‘occasionally’, *vietumis*
 ‘here and there’, *sānis* ‘sideways’, *brīžiem* ‘from time to time’, *vietām*
 ‘in spots’, *lēkšiem* ‘at a gallop’, etc.
- h. LOC PL
lēkšos ‘at a gallop’, *pušu* ‘in half, asunder’, etc.

(2.6.39) *tukšā* ‘empty-handedly’, *dīkā* ‘idly’, *lāgā* ‘quite’, *maz* ‘little’, *daudz*
 ‘much’, *žēl* ‘pity’, *brīv* ‘allowed’, *ciet* ‘closed’, etc.

(2.6.40) *pirms* ‘before’

2) pronominal origin – adverbs derived from pronouns

(2.6.41) *kur* ‘where’, *tur* ‘there’, *šur* ‘here’, *te* ‘here’, *še* ‘here’, *šeit* ‘here’, *kad* ‘when’,
tad ‘then’, *kā* ‘how’, *tā* ‘like that’, *šā* ‘like this’, *citur* ‘elsewhere’,
visur ‘everywhere’, *cik* ‘how much’, *tik* ‘that much’

3) verbal origin – adverbs mostly derived from participial forms of verbs

a) adverbializations of indeclinable participles

(2.6.42) *beidzot* ‘at last’, *negribot* ‘unwittingly’, *nekavējoties* ‘immediately’

b) old participial forms in *-u*, *-us*, *-šus*

(2.6.43) a. *tupu* ‘squatting’, *rāpu* ‘crawling’, *papildu* ‘additionally’, etc.

b. *sēdus* ‘sitting’, *stāvus* ‘standing’, *papildus* ‘additionally’, *četrpāpus*
 ‘on all fours’, etc.

c. *braukšus* ‘riding, driving as opposed to ‘on foot’’, *skriešus* ‘running,
 at a run’, *lišus* ‘creeping’, etc.

Compounds and word combinations

Compound adverbs

1) PREP + N (2.6.44), PREP + ADJ (2.6.45), PREP + NUM (2.6.46) – with or
 without case endings:

(2.6.44) *pa-galam* ‘over, finished’, *uz-reiz* ‘at once’, *aiz-vakar* ‘the day before
 yesterday’, *bez-gala* ‘infinitely’, *no-pakaļ* ‘following closely’, *pa-reizi*
 ‘correctly’, *pa-tiesi* ‘indeed’, etc.

(2.6.45) *pa-retam* ‘seldom’, *pa-pilnam* ‘in abundance’, *aiz-pērn* ‘the year before last’, etc.

(2.6.46) *aiz-vien* ‘always, still’, *ar-vien* ‘always, still, increasingly’, etc.

- 2) PREP + PRON (2.6.47a) and PRON + POST (2.6.47b)
- (2.6.47) a. *pa-visam* ‘very, completely, at all’
 b. *kā-pēc, kā-dēļ, kā-lab* ‘why, for what reason, what for’, *tā-pēc, tā-dēļ, tā-lab* ‘for that reason, therefore, because’
- 3) PTCL + ADV (2.6.48a) and ADV + PTCL (2.6.48b)
- (2.6.48) a. *jeb-kad* ‘ever’, *jeb-kur* ‘anywhere’, *jeb-kā* ‘in whatever way’, *ne-kad* ‘never’, *ne-kur* ‘nowhere’, *ne-kā* ‘in no way’, etc.
 b. *tur-pat* ‘right there’, *te-pat, še-pat* ‘right here’, *tā-pat* ‘in the same way’
- 4) N + N (2.6.49a), ADJ + N (2.6.49b), NUM + N (2.6.49c)
- (2.6.49) a. *mūž-dien* ‘always’, *viet-vietām* ‘here and there’, etc.
 b. *lielāko-ties* ‘mostly’, *maz-liet* ‘slightly’, *galveno-kārt* ‘for the most part’, etc.
 c. *pirm-kārt* ‘firstly’, *otr-kārt* ‘secondly’, *desmit-reiz* ‘ten times’, *vien-laikus* ‘simultaneously’, etc.
- 5) PRON + N
- (2.6.50) *šo-gad* ‘this year’, *to-dien* ‘that day’, *to-gad* ‘that year’, *viņ-gad* ‘last year’, *viņ-nedēļ* ‘last week’, *citu-dien* ‘next day, another day’, *daž-brīd* ‘at times’, *paš-reiz* ‘at present’, *kād-reiz* ‘once, someday’, etc.
- 6) PTCP DECL + N
- (2.6.51) *nākoš-reiz* ‘next time’, *nākam-gad* ‘next year’, *pagājušo-ziem* ‘last winter’, etc.

Adverbial word combinations

- 1) N + N (2.6.52a) (although it is also possible that some of them are historical participial forms (see Soida 1969) (2.6.52b))
- (2.6.52) a. *krustu šķērsu* ‘in all directions’, *beigu beigās* ‘after all’, etc.
 b. *juku jukām* ‘in a topsy-turvy manner’, *līču loču* ‘in a zigzag manner’, *atliku likām* ‘more than enough, plenty’, etc.
- 2) PREP + ADJ
- (2.6.53) *pa īstam* ‘genuinely, for real’, *pa vecam* ‘in the old way’, *pa labi* ‘right’, *pa kreisi* ‘left’, etc.
- 3) ADV + ADV
- (2.6.54) *šad tad* ‘now and then’, *šur tur* ‘here and there’, *šurp turp* ‘back and forth’, *šā tā* ‘anyhow, somehow’, *cik necik* ‘more or less, a little’, etc.
- 4) PTCL + ADV
- (2.6.55) *kaut kad* ‘at some point in time’, *kaut kur* ‘somewhere’, *kaut kā* ‘somehow’, *sazin kad, diez(in) kad, nez(in) kad* ‘at an unknown moment’, *sazin kur, diez(in) kur, nez(in) kur* ‘at an unknown place’, *sazin kā, diez(in) kā, nez(in) kā* ‘in an unknown manner’ with *sazin, diez(in),* and *nez(in)* reinforcing the meaning of indefiniteness and adding different shades of meaning depending on the context

2.7 PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions (adpositions) are a class of function words indicating relations between objects, phenomena, processes, etc. In a sentence, a preposition typically combines with a noun (2.7.1a), a word functioning as a noun (2.7.1b), or a pronoun (2.7.1c) in a particular case, helping to establish syntactic relationships between content words in the containing clause and specify case meanings (Skujiņa 2007: 311).

- (2.7.1) a. **No** *rīta* *biju* *uz* *pastu*.
from **morning.GEN.M** **be.PST.1SG** **to** **post_office.ACC.M**
 ‘In the morning, I went to the post office.’ (I. Ābele)
- b. *Pelēkais* *tērps* *viņai* *bija*
grey.NOM.M **garment.NOM.M** **she.DAT.F** **be.COP.PST.3**
vairākus *numurus* *par* *lielu*.
several.ACC.PL.M **size.ACC.PL.M** **too** **large.ACC.M**
 ‘The grey garment was several sizes too large for her.’ (A. Eglītis)
- c. *Pie manis atbrauca krusttēvs!*
by **I.GEN** **come.PST.3** **godfather.NOM.M**
 ‘My godfather has come to visit!’ (www.draugiem.lv)

Most prepositions are polysemous so that their actual meaning can only be determined within context.

As a rule, Latvian prepositions come before the word with which they combine, e.g.:

- (2.7.2) a. *ap* *koku*
around **tree.ACC.M**
 ‘around a tree’
- b. *ar* *māsu*
with **sister.INS.F**
 ‘with one’s sister’
- c. *bez* *naudas*
without **money.GEN.F**
 ‘without money’
- d. *caur* *tirgu*
through **market.ACC.M**
 ‘through the market’
- e. *gar* *māju*
along **house.ACC.F**
 ‘along a house’
- f. *no* *atvilktnes*
from **drawer.GEN.F**
 ‘from a drawer’
- g. *pār* *strautu*
over **brook.ACC.M**
 ‘over a brook’

- h. **pie** *krūma*
by bush.GEN.M
 ‘by a bush’
- i. **pirms** *nedēļas*
before week.GEN.F
 ‘a week ago’
- j. **pret** *logu*
against window.ACC.M
 ‘against a window’
- k. **uz** *galda*
on table.GEN.M
 ‘on a table’

There is, however, a small number of postpositions, e.g., *dēļ* ‘due to, because of’ and *labad* ‘for the sake of’:

- (2.7.3) a. **Lietus** **dēļ** *Rīgā* *aplūdušas*
rain.GEN.M **because_of** Rīga.LOC.F flood.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
ielas.
 street.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Rain left the streets of Riga flooded.’ (www.delfi)
- b. **Precēti** *vīrieši* *veselīgu* *ēdienu*
 marry.PTCP.NOM.PL.M man.NOM.PL.M healthy.ACC.M food.ACC.M
mājās ēd tikai mīlā miera
 home.LOC.PL.F eat.PRS.3 only dear.GEN.M **peace.GEN.M**
labad,
 for_the_sake_of
savukārt, kad sieva neredz, labprāt mīlojas ar neveselīgām ātrajām
uzkodām.
 ‘Married men only eat healthy food at home to keep the peace, but
 whenever their wife isn’t looking they are only too happy to treat
 themselves to unhealthy fast food snacks.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

While the postposition *dēļ* is sometimes used prepositively, e.g., in colloquial speech and mass media texts, such usage is considered non-standard:

- (2.7.4) a. **Tikai** **dēļ** **tevis** *reģistrējos* *sporta*
 only **because_of** **you.GEN** register.PST.1SG sport.GEN.M
portālā.
 website.LOC.M
 ‘You are the only reason why I registered at the sports website.’
 (www.sportacentrs.lv)
 Correct: *tevis dēļ*

- b. *Adīt* *nevaru* *dēļ* [*slimas*]
 knit.INF not_be_able.PRS.1SG **due_to** [ill]
sirds, *paskatos* *televīzoru,* *palasu*
heart.GEN.F watch.PRS.1SG television.ACC.M read.PRS.1SG
kādu *grāmatu.*
 some_kind.ACC.F book.ACC.F
 ‘I can’t knit because of [an ill] heart, [so] I watch a bit of television,
 read a book.’(C)
 Correct: *sirds dēļ*

The preposition *pēc* ‘after, by, for, because of’ can be used either prepositively (when expressing spatial, temporal relations, intent or purpose, etc. (2.7.5a)), or postpositively (when stating causes and reasons (2.7.5b)):

- (2.7.5) a. *Sākumā* *cilvēki* *nāca* [*uz veikalu*]
 at_first.LOC.M person.NOM.PL.M come.PST.3 [to shop]
pēc lauku **produktiem.**
for country.GEN.PL.F **product.DAT.PL.M**
 ‘At first, people would come [to the shop] for farm produce.’ (Ir)
- b. *Kāda* *jēga* *precēties,* *ja tāda*
 what_kind.NOM.F point.NOM.F marry.INF if that_kind.GEN.M
nieka *pēc nevarat* *vienoties.*
trifle.GEN.M **for** not_be_able.PRS.2PL agree.INF
 ‘What’s the point of marrying if you can’t agree over such a trifle.’
 (www.cosmo.lv)

The distribution of prepositions

Prepositions determine the case of words with which they combine. Case requirements differ depending on whether the dependent words are in the singular or plural.

SINGULAR

GEN

- (2.7.6) a. *aiz* ‘after, behind’
Aiz *loga* *ir* *silts*
behind **window.GEN.M** be.PRS.3 warm.NOM.M
septembris *mazā* *Amerikas* *miestā.*
 September.NOM.M small.LOC.M America.GEN.F village.LOC.M
 ‘Outside the window is a warm September in a small American village.’
 (N. Ikstena)
- b. *bez* ‘without’
Pārdevējas [*veikalā*] *strādā* *bez* *atelpas.*
 shop_assistant.NOM.PL.F [shop] work.PRS.3 **without** **rest.GEN.F**
 ‘The shop assistants [at the shop] are working without a moment’s rest.’
 (Ir)

- c. *kopš* ‘since, from’
Par locītavām jā rūpējas kopš jaunības.
 about joint.DAT.PL.F DEB.take_care from youth.GEN.F
 ‘One needs to take care of one’s joints from a young age.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- d. *dēļ* ‘due to, because of’
Jau piektdienas vakarā Rīgā
 already Friday.GEN.F evening.LOC.M Rīga.LOC.F
būs satiksmes ierobežojumi maratona
 be.FUT.3 traffic.GEN.F restriction.NOM.PL.M marathon.GEN.M
dēļ.
due_to
 ‘Traffic restrictions will be in place in Rīga already on Friday evening
 due to the marathon.’ (www.lsm.lv)
- e. *labad* ‘for the sake of’
Kārtības labad atjaunojām ēkas
 order.GEN.F for_the_sake_of restore.PST.3 building.GEN.F
fasādi.
 façade.ACC.F
 ‘For the sake of order we have restored the façade of the building.’
 (www.liepajniekiem.lv)
- f. *no* ‘from, out of’
Pilsētas torņi bija redzami
 city.GEN.F tower.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PST.3 see.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
no mūsu mājas otrā stāva
 from we.GEN house.GEN.F second.GEN.M floor.GEN.M
loga.
window.GEN.M
 ‘The city’s towers could be seen from our second-floor window.’
 (Jaunā Gaita)
- g. *pēc* ‘after, by, for, because of’
Pēc izglītības filoloģe viņa
 by education.GEN.F philologist.NOM.F she.NOM
Zviedrijā daudz laika veltījusi
 Sweden.LOC.F much time.GEN.M devote.PTCP.NOM.F
latviešu valodas mācīšanai.
 Latvian.GEN.PL.M language.GEN.F teaching.DAT.F
 ‘A philologist by training, she devoted a lot of time to teaching Latvian
 in Sweden.’ (Jaunā Gaita)
- h. *pie* ‘at, by’
Visiem mums patik pie dabas.
 all.DAT.PL.M we.DAT like.PRS.3 by nature.GEN.F
 ‘We all like to spend time in nature.’ (Ir)

- i. *pirms* ‘before, prior to, ahead of, ago’
Viņš ir atnācis pirms
 he.NOM be.AUX.PRS.3 arrive.PTCP.NOM.M ahead_of
laika.
time.GEN.M
 ‘He arrived ahead of time.’ (M. Ziverts)
- j. *priekš* ‘ago’
Kaimiņu draudzes mācītājs priekš neilga
 neighbor.GEN.PL.M parish.GEN.F priest.NOM.M before short.GEN.M
laika ar visu draudzi bija
time.GEN.M with entire.INS.F parish.INS.F be.AUX.PST.3
pārgājis vispirms katoļticībā, tad
 convert.PTCP.NOM.M at_first Catholicism.LOC.F then
pareizticībā.
Orthodoxy.LOC.F
 ‘Recently, the neighboring parish priest converted first to the Catholic, then to the Orthodox faith together with the whole congregation.’ (C)
- k. *virš* ‘above, over’
Liepājā virš jūras novērots
 Liepāja.LOC.F above sea.GEN.F spot.PTCP.NOM.M
virpuļviesulis.
whirlwind.NOM.M
 ‘A whirlwind was spotted in Liepāja over the sea.’ (Ir)
- l. *zem* ‘under’
Bille mazliet paceļ [albuma] lapu,
 Bille.NOM.F slightly lift_up.PRS.3 [album] page.ACC.F
kas zem zīdpapīra.
 which.NOM underneath tissue_paper.GEN.M
 ‘Bille lifts up the [album] page slightly, which is underneath the tissue paper.’ (V. Belševica)

DAT

- (2.7.7) *līdz* ‘until, (up) to’
Ņujorkā reiz latvieši dzīrodami
 New_York.LOC.F once Latvian.NOM.PL.M carouse.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
dzejoja un staigāja pa ielām līdz
 compose.poetry.PST.3 and walk.PST.3 in street.DAT.PL.F until
rītam.
morning.DAT.M
 ‘Once upon a time in New York, Latvians made up poems and walked the (city’s) streets carousing until morning.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

ACC

- (2.7.8) a. *ap* ‘around, about’

Zemes **ap** *muižu* [baronam]
land.GEN.M around manor_house.ACC.M [baron]
palicis *maz.*
remain.PTCP.NOM.M little
‘[The baron hasn’t] much land left around the manor house.’
(V. Belševica)

- b. *caur* ‘through’

Es *skrēju* **caur** *mežu* *uz*
I.NOM ran.PST.1SG through forest.ACC.M towards
mājām.
home.DAT.PL.F
‘I ran home through the forest.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- c. *gar* ‘along, past’

Viņa *atceras* *stāvas* *kāpnes* **gar**
she.NOM recall.PRS.3 steep.ACC.PL.F staircase.ACC.PL.F along
mājas **ārpusi.**
house.GEN.F outside.ACC.F
‘She recalls a steep staircase running along the outside of the house.’
(V. Belševica)

- d. *pa* ‘on, during’

Pa *to* **laiku** *kļuvis* *pavisam*
during that.ACC.M time.ACC.M become.PTCP.NOM.M quite
gaišs.
light.NOM.M
‘In the meantime, daylight broke.’ (A. Žigure)

- e. *par* ‘about, on’

Vai *tu* *tagad* *runā* **par** *savu*
Q you.NOM.SG now talk.PRS.2SG about own.ACC.M
stāstu?
story.ACC.M
‘Are you talking about your story now?’ (N. Ikstena)

- f. *pār* ‘across, over’

Pārkāpumā *pieķertais* *zvejnieks* *aiz*
offense.LOC.M catch.PTCP.NOM.M fisherman.NOM.M out_of
pārsteiguma *gandrīz* *pārvēlās* **pār** *laivas*
surprise.GEN.M almost roll_over.PST.3 over boat.GEN.F
malu.
side.ACC.F
‘The fisherman caught committing an offense almost rolled overboard with surprise.’ (Ir)

g. *pret* ‘against, towards’

[Latvijas] *Hokeja mačos pret*
 [Latvia] hockey.GEN.M match.LOC.PL.M **against**
Dāniju un Slovēkiju favorīti
 Denmark.ACC.F and Slovakia.ACC.F favorite.NOM.PL.M
bija pretinieki.
 be.COP.PST.3 opponent.NOM.PL.M
 ‘In [Latvia’s] ice hockey matches against Denmark and Slovakia
 the opposing teams were the favorites.’ (Diena)

h. *starp* ‘between, among’

Kurš ir novilcis robežu
 who.NOM.M be.AUX.PRS.3 draw.PTCP.NOM.M boundary.ACC.F
starp divu cilvēku
 between two.GEN.PL.M person.GEN.PL.M
apbrīnu?
 admiration.ACC.F
 ‘Who has drawn a line between the admiration of two people?’
 (Jaunā Gaita)

INS

(2.7.9) *ar* ‘with’

Darbs, pārslodzei mijoties ar
 work.NOM.M overwork.DAT.F alternate.PTCP.IDECL **with**
bezdarbību, postīja Žaņa
 idleness.INS.F devastate.PST.3 Žanis.GEN.M
veselību.
 health.ACC.F
 ‘Work, with frequent transitions from overwork to idleness, was taking its
 toll on Žanis’s health.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

The prepositions *uz* ‘to, on’ and *pa* ‘on’ can take words in two different cases in the singular:

1) ***uz*** with GEN denotes location (2.7.10a), while with ACC it denotes direction (2.7.10b)

(2.7.10) a. ***Uz rokas tev smaržoja rožu***
on arm.GEN.F you.DAT.SG smell.PST.3 rose.GEN.PL.F
klēpis.
 armful.NOM.M
 ‘There was an armful of fragrant roses resting against your arm.’
 (M. Zīverts)

b. *Viņš gāja atpakaļ uz istabu.*
 he.NOM go.PST.3 back **to room.ACC.F**
 ‘He went back to the room.’ (I. Ābele)

2) the meaning of **pa** is partitive with DAT (2.7.11a) and spatial with ACC (2.7.11b)

- (2.7.11) a. *Šo maizi grūti griezt, vieglāk*
 this.ACC.F bread.ACC.F difficult slice.INF easier
ir lauzt pa gabalam.
 be.COP.PRS.3 break.INF by piece.DAT.M
 ‘This bread is difficult to slice, it’s easier to break off piece by piece.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

- b. **Pa ganību ceļu uz sētu**
along pasture.GEN.PL.F **road.ACC.M** towards yard.ACC.F
nāca gov.
 come.PST.3 cow.NOM.F
 ‘A cow was approaching the yard by the pasture road.’ (V. Belševica)

The prepositions *abpus* ‘on either side’, *apakšpus* ‘below’, *ārpus* ‘outside, beyond’, *augšpus* ‘above, up’, *lejpus* ‘below, down’, *šaipus* ‘on this side’, *viņpus* ‘on that side, on the far side’, *otrpus* ‘on the other side, across’, *iekšpus* ‘inside’, *virspus* ‘above, over’ usually govern GEN SG, but can also be used with DAT SG with no difference in meaning:

(2.7.12) *abpus* ‘on either side’

- a. GEN
Jo lielāks [mašīnu] ātrums, jo
 CONJ great.CMP.NOM.M [car] speed.NOM.M CONJ
platākiem ceļiem jābūt, jo
 wide.COMP.DAT.PL.M road.DAT.PL.M DEB.be CONJ
platākai brīvajai joslai abpus ceļa.
 wide.CMP.DAT.F free.DAT.F lane.DAT.F **on_either_side** **road.GEN.M**
 ‘The greater the [car] speed, the wider the necessary [width] of the motorways and the hard shoulders on either side of the road.’ (CW)
- b. DAT
Par grāvju izrakšanu abpus
 about ditch.GEN.PL.M digging_up.ACC.F **on_either_side**
ceļam, to labojot, aizmirst.
road.DAT.M it.ACC.M repair.PTCP.IDECL forget.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘They forgot to dig ditches on either side of the road when repairing it.’
 (Kas Jauns)

(2.7.13) *lejpus* ‘below, down’

- a. GEN
Ceļi vēl joprojām savieno cietokšņus ar pilsētu,
kas atrodas lejpus kalna.
 that.NOM locate.PRS.3 **below** **mountain.GEN.M**
 ‘To this day, the roads connect the fortresses to the town at the foot of the mountain.’ (C)

b. DAT

*Izkāpjot [no mašīnas] pie mājas ar koptu
step.PTCP [out_of car] at house.GEN.F with groom.INS.M
pagalmu un ezeru lejpas kalnam
courtyard.INS.M and lake.INS.M down mountain.DAT.M
redzu durvju priekšā rosāties cilvēkus.*

‘Stepping out [of the car] at a house with a well-kept courtyard and a lake at the foot of the hill, I see people bustling about in front of the door.’ (www.delfi.lv)

(2.7.14) *šai pusē* ‘on this side’

a. GEN

*Vai viņš kur paslēpies šai pusē upes?
Q he.NOM anywhere hide.PRS.3 on_this_side river.GEN.F
‘Is he hiding somewhere on this side of the river?’ (www.draugiem.lv)*

b. DAT

*Arī šai pusē upē ir klusas un
also on_this_side river.DAT.F be.PRS.3 quiet.NOM.PL.F and
interesantas vietas.
interesting.NOM.PL.F place.NOM.PL.F*

‘There are quiet and interesting places on this side of the river, too.’
(Diena)

PLURAL

GEN

When combined with words in the plural, all three Latvian postpositions, namely, *dēļ* ‘due to, because of’ (2.7.15a), *labad* ‘for the sake of’ (2.7.15b), and *pēc* ‘for, because of’ (2.7.15c), require the genitive case:

(2.7.15) a. *Kanādā plūdu dēļ
Canada.LOC.F flood.GEN.PL.M because_of
evakuēti 2000 cilvēki.
evacuate.PTCP.NOM.PL.M 2000 person.NOM.PL.M
‘In Canada, 2000 people were evacuated due to the flood.’ (Diena)*

b. *Vai bērnu labad vecākiem
Q child.GEN.PL.M for_the_sake_of parent.DAT.PL.M
jāatsakās no operas apmeklēšanas?
DEB.give_up from opera.GEN.F visiting.GEN.F
‘Should parents forgo going to the opera for the sake of children?’
(Latvijas Avīze)*

c. *Jums jābeidz apvainoties kaut kādu
you.DAT.PL DEB.stop take_offense.INF some_kind.ACC.PL.M
nieku pēc.
trifle.GEN.PL.M because_of
‘You should stop taking offense at trifles.’ (CW)*

Although the preposition *bez* ‘without’ sometimes does occur with words in the genitive plural, especially in literary works, colloquial speech, and mass media texts (see examples (2.7.16)), in contemporary Latvian, it is more commonly followed by nouns or pronouns in the dative plural (see example (2.7.18)).

- (2.7.16) a. *Šajā dārzā un mājā var iet*
 this.LOC.M garden.LOC.M and house.LOC.F be_able.PRS.3 go.INF
bez bailu.
 without fear.GEN.PL.F
 ‘One can enter this garden and house without fear.’ (C)
- b. *Ārpus pilsētas centra zālienā uzturēties*
 outside city.GEN.F center.GEN.M lawn.LOC.M stay.INF
var bez bēdu.
 be_able.PRS.3 without worry.GEN.PL.F
 ‘Outside the city center you can use public lawns without worries.’ (C)
- c. *Uzcel pili tā bez logu,*
 build.IMP.2SG castle.ACC.F so without window.GEN.PL.M
bez durvju.
 without door.GEN.PL.F
 ‘Build a castle like that, with no windows, no doors.’ (C)

INS

- (2.7.17) *ar* ‘with’
Stacijās vagonš piepildās ar jauniem
 station.LOC.PL.F carriage.NOM.M fill_up.PRS.3 with new.INS.PL.M
pasāžieriem.
 passenger.INS.PL.M
 ‘At the stations, the carriage fills up with new passengers.’ (A. Žigūre)

DAT

The rest of the prepositions, i.e., *aiz* ‘after, behind’, *ap* ‘around, about’, *bez* ‘without’, *gar* ‘along, past’, *no* ‘from, out of’, *par* ‘about, on’, *pār* ‘across, over’, *pēc* ‘after, by’, *pie* ‘at, by’, *pret* ‘against, towards’, *zem* ‘under’, *uz* ‘to, on’, *virš* ‘above, over’, govern plural words in the dative, e.g.:

- (2.7.18) a. *Elza bez grūtībām iekļaujas pilsētas*
 Elsa.NOM.F without difficulty.DAT.PL.F adapt.PRS.3 city.GEN.F
ritmā.
 rhythm.LOC.M
 ‘Elsa has no difficulty in adapting to the rhythm of the city.’ (A. Žigūre)
- b. *Dievs mums katram piešķir savu daļu laimes,*
bet tā nenonāk līdz mums.
 but it.NOM.F not_reach.PRS.3 to we.DAT
 ‘God has given each of us our share of happiness, only it does not reach us.’ (M. Ziverts)

- c. *Celtniecība* *man* *patikusi* *jau* *no*
 construction.NOM.F I.DAT like.PTCP.NOM.F already from
seniem *laikiem.*
 ancient.DAT.PL.M time.DAT.PL.M
 ‘I’ve liked construction for ages.’ (A. Eglītis)
- d. *Par* *vecākām* *jāuzskata* [*latviešu*]
 PREP old.DAT.CMP.PL.F DEB.consider [Latvian]
tautasdziesmas,
 folk song.NOM.PL.F
kur vēstīts, kā tabaku audzē un šņauc.
 ‘The [Latvian] folk songs that talk about how to grow tobacco and take
 snuff should be considered the oldest.’ (A. Johansons)
- e. *Pirms* *100* *gadiem,*
 ago *100* *year.DAT.PL.M*
ja tu vispār gribēji tomātu,
 if you.NOM.SG at_all want.PST.2SG tomato.ACC.M
tas bija pašam jāizaudzē.
 it.NOM.M be.AUX.PST.3 self.DAT.M DEB.grow
 ‘A hundred years ago, if you wanted a tomato at all, you had to grow it
 yourself.’ (Ir)
- f. *Suns* *noliek* *galvu* *uz* *ķepām* *un*
 dog.NOM.M put.PRS.3 head.ACC.F on paw.DAT.PL.F and
iesmilkstas.
 whimper.PRS.3
 ‘The dog puts its head on its paws and whimpers.’ (V. Belševica)

Likewise, all prepositions ending in *-pus*, such as *abpus* ‘on either side’, *apakšpus* ‘below’, *ārpus* ‘outside, beyond’, *augšpus* ‘above, up’, *lejpūs* ‘below, down’, *šaipus* ‘on this side’, *viņpus* ‘on that side, on the far side’, *otrpūs* ‘on the other side, across’, *iekšpus* ‘inside’, and *virspūs* ‘above, over’ combine with dative plurals, e.g.:

- (2.7.19) a. *Augšpus* [*upes*] *krācēm* *ir* *liels*
 above [river] rapid.DAT.PL.F be.PRS.3 large.NOM.M
atvars.
 whirlpool.NOM.M
 ‘There is a large whirlpool upstream from the [river] rapids.’ (C)
- b. *Kā* *uzvesties* *iekšpus* *mājām?*
 how behave.INF inside house.DAT.PL.F
 ‘How to behave inside the house?’ (www.satori.lv)
- c. *Ainava* *otrpūs* *logiem* *neko*
 landscape.NOM.F other_side window.DAT.PL.M nothing.ACC
aizdomīgu *neliecina.*
 suspicious.ACC.M not_suggest.PRS.3
 ‘The landscape on the other side of the windows does not suggest
 anything suspicious.’ (C)

The semantics of prepositions

Most prepositional meanings fall under one of the following basic domains (also see Kalme 2001: 28–38; Paegle 2003: 187–206; Nitiņa 2013c: 621–625, 629–640):

1) spatial relationships

(2.7.20) a. *aiz* ‘after, behind’

Aiz *pilsētas* *sākās* *lauki* *un*
behind **city.ACC.F** **begin.PST.3** **field.NOM.PL.M** **and**
meži.
 forest.NOM.PL.M

‘The fields and forests began beyond the city.’ (V. Belševica)

b. *ap* ‘around, about’

Kā *sniegputenis* *plosās* **ap** *mūsu*
 how blizzard.NOM.M rage.PRS.3 **around** we.GEN
māju!
house.ACC.F

‘How the blizzard is raging around our house!’ (M. Zīverts)

c. *caur* ‘through’

Gāju *uz* *jūru* **caur** *mežu.*
 go.PST.1SG towards sea.ACC.F **through** **forest.ACC.M**

‘I was walking towards the sea through the forest.’ (I. Ābele)

d. *gar* ‘along, past’

Būvēs *vairāk* *nekā* *500* *km* *garu*
 build.FUT.3 more than 500 km long.ACC.M
veloceliņu **gar** *Baltijas* *jūras*
 bicycle_path.ACC.M **along** Baltic.GEN.F sea.GEN.F
krastu.

shore.ACC.M

‘A bicycle path more than 500 kilometers in length will be built along the shore of the Baltic Sea.’ (www.db.lv)

e. *līdz* ‘(up) to’

Bille [*vilcienā*] *nogulēja* **līdz** *pašam*
 Bille.NOM.F [train] sleep.PST.3 **up_to** same.DAT.M
Tukumam.

Tukums.DAT.M

‘Bille slept [on the train] all the way to Tukums.’ (V. Belševica)

f. *no* ‘from, out of’

Viņa baidījās,
ka tiks *izlikta* **no** *šīs*
 that get.AUX.FUT.3 evict.PTCP.NOM.F **out_of** this.GEN.F
sanatorijas.
sanatorium.GEN.F

‘She was afraid that she would get evicted from this sanatorium.’
 (M. Zīverts)

- g. *pie* ‘at, by’
Ārst *pasauc* *mani* *novakarē* ***pie***
 doctor.NOM.M call_over.PST.3 I.ACC afternoon.LOC.F **at**
loga.
window.GEN.M
 ‘In the late afternoon, the doctor called me over to the window.’
 (I. Ābele)
- h. *pa* ‘on’
Minta *bungo* *ar* *pirkstgaliem* ***pa***
 Minta.NOM.M tap.PST.3 with fingertip.INS.PL.M **on**
galdu.
desk.ACC.M
 ‘Minta was tapping his fingertips on the desk.’ (A. Eglītis)
- i. *pār* ‘across, over’
Laba *braukšana* *bija* *vienīgi* ***pār***
 good.NOM.F ride.NOM.F be.PST.3 only **across**
tiltu.
bridge.ACC.M
 ‘The ride was good only when crossing the bridge.’ (V. Belševica)
- i. *pret* ‘against, towards’
Atbalstījos ***pret*** *tilta* ***malu*** *un*
 support.PST.1SG **against** bridge.GEN.M **parapet.ACC.F** and
raudzījos *tālumā.*
 look.PST.1SG distance.LOC.M
 ‘I supported [myself] against the parapet of the bridge and looked into the distance.’ (N. Ikstena)
- j. *starp* ‘between, among’
Viņi *ieraudzīja* *Filipu* *staigājam* ***starp***
 they.NOM.M see.PST.3 Philip.ACC.M walk.PTCP.IDECL **between**
[restorāna] galdiņiem.
[restaurant] table.DAT.PL.M
 ‘They saw Philip walking between the [restaurant] tables.’ (A. Eglītis)
- k. *uz* ‘to, on’
Bille *apsēdās* *mājas* *priekšā* ***uz***
 Bille.NOM.F sit_down.PST.3 house.GEN.F front.LOC.F **on**
soliņa.
bench.GEN.M
 ‘Bille sat down on the bench in front of the house.’ (V. Belševica)
- l. *virs* ‘above, over’
Virs *Vecrīgas* ***jumtiem*** *pacēlās* *migla.*
over Old_Rīga.GEN.F **roof.DAT.PL.M** rise.PST.3 fog.NOM.F
 ‘The fog rose over the roofs of Old Rīga.’ (www.delfi.lv)

m. *zem* ‘under’

<i>Laulātais</i>	<i>pāris</i>	<i>pastaigājās</i>	<i>zem</i>
marry.PTCP.NOM.M	couple.NOM.M	stroll.PST.3	under
<i>neredzētu</i>	<i>sugu</i>	<i>palmām.</i>	
not_see.PTCP.GEN.PL.M	species.GEN.PL.F	palm_tree.DAT.PL.F	

‘The married couple was strolling under never-before-seen varieties of palm trees.’ (A. Eglītis)

In addition to the above, all prepositions ending in *-pus* also express very concrete spatial meanings:

(2.7.21) a. *apakšpus* ‘below’

<i>Augšpus</i>	<i>un</i>	<i>apakšpus</i>	<i>[klēpjatora]</i>	<i>tastatūrai</i>
above	and	below	[laptop_computer]	keyboard.DAT.F
<i>iestrādātas</i>		<i>metāla</i>	<i>jostas.</i>	
work_into.PTCP.NOM.PL.F		metal.GEN.M	band.NOM.PL.F	

‘Above and below the keyboard [of the laptop computer] are metal bands (which) had been worked into it.’ (CW)

b. *augšpus* ‘above, up’

<i>20 kilometru</i>		<i>augšpus</i>	<i>Jelgavas</i>
20 kilometer.GEN.PL.M		above	Jelgava.GEN.F
<i>ūdens</i>	<i>līmenis</i>	<i>[Lielupē]</i>	<i>pēdējās</i>
water.GEN.M	level.NOM.M	[Lielupe]	last.GEN.F
<i>nedēļas</i>	<i>laikā</i>	<i>cēlies</i>	<i>par 2,2</i>
week.GEN.F	time.LOC.M	rise.PTCP.NOM.M	of 2.2

metriem.

meter.DAT.PL.M

‘Twenty kilometers upstream from Jelgava the water level [in the Lielupe River] has risen 2.2 meters over the last week.’ (www.delfi.lv)

c. *lejpūs* ‘below, down’

<i>Otrdienas</i>	<i>pēcpusdienā</i>	<i>izkustējies</i>	<i>ledus</i>
Tuesday.GEN.F	afternoon.LOC.F	budge.PTCP.NOM.M	ice.GEN.M
<i>sastrēgums</i>	<i>Daugavā</i>	<i>lejpūs</i>	
jam.NOM.M	Daugava.LOC.F	downstream	

Jēkabpils.

Jēkabpils.GEN.F

‘On Tuesday afternoon, an ice jam broke free on the Daugava, downstream from Jēkabpils.’ (www.lsm.lv)

d. *šai pusē* ‘on this side’

<i>Tas</i>	<i>notika</i>	<i>pirtiņā</i>	<i>šai pusē</i>
it.NOM.M	happen.PST.3	bathroom.LOC.F	this_side

rijas.

threshing_barn.GEN.F

‘It happened in the bathroom on this side of the threshing barn.’ (C)

- e. *viņpus* ‘on that side, on the far side’
Latvijas *vieglatlētu* *starti*
 Latvia.GEN.F track_and_field_athlete.GEN.PL.M start.NOM.PL.M
viņpus okeāna *ir veiksmīgi.*
 across ocean.GEN.M be.COP.PRS.3 successful.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Latvian track and field athletes are making good starts overseas.’
 (www.sportacentrs.lv)
- f. *otrpus* ‘on the other side, across’
Valsts šogad otrpus robežai
 state.NOM.F this_year other_side border.DAT.F
atstājusi daudz ieobraucēju.
 leave.PTCP.NOM.F many foreigner.GEN.PL.M
 ‘This year, the state left many foreigners on the other side of the border.’
 (Diena)
- g. *iekšpus* ‘inside’
[tēlniecības] Kvadriennāle pirmo reizi
 [sculpture] quadrennial.NOM.F first.ACC.F time.ACC.F
būs skatāma iekšpus [muzeja]
 be.COP.FUT.3 see.PTCP.NOM.F inside [museum]
sētas.
 fence.GEN.F
 ‘For the first time the [sculpture] Quadrennial will be held inside the [museum] fence.’ (Diena)
- h. *ārpus* ‘outside, beyond’
Cilvēkam vajag laiku,
kad var kaut ko paspēt
 when be_able.PRS.3 something.ACC manage.INF
izdarīt ārpus darba.
 do.INF outside work.GEN.M
 ‘A person needs time to be able to do something outside work.’
 (Ir)
- i. *virspus* ‘above, over’
Viņš ilgi nespēsot noturēties virspus
 he.NOM long_time not_be_able.OBL.FUT stay.INF above
ūdens.
 water.GEN.M
 ‘Apparently, he will not be able to stay afloat for long.’ (C)
- j. *abpus* ‘on either side’
Abpus šosejai būs sēta.
 both_sides motorway.DAT.F be.FUT.3 fencing.NOM.F
 ‘There will be fencing on either side of the motorway.’
 (www.lsm.lv)

2) temporal relationships

(2.7.22) a. *ar* 'with'

Ar *nākamo gadu* *plānots* *celt*
with next.INS.M **year.INS.M** plan.PTCP.NOM.M rise.INF
ūdens pakalpojumu tarifus.
 water.GEN.M service.GEN.PL.M rate.ACC.PL.M
 'Beginning next year, water rates are expected to rise.'
 (www.liepajniekiem.lv)

b. *ārpus* 'outside'

Skolotājiem arī ārpus darba laika
 teacher.DAT.PL.M also **outside** work.GEN.M **time.GEN.M**
jāievēro profesijas ētika.
 DEB.observe profession.GEN.F ethics.NOM.F
 'Teachers should also observe professional ethics outside working hours.' (www.lsm.lv)

c. *kopš* 'since'

Kopš *ši brīža* *dzejnieks Elzu*
since this.GEN.M **moment.GEN.M** poet.NOM.M Elsa.ACC.F
dēvē tikai par Marselīni.
 refer_to.PRS.3 only as Marcelina.ACC.F
 'From this moment on, the poet always refers to Elsa as "Marcelina".'
 (A. Žigūre)

d. *līdz* 'until'

Līdz *šim es te dzīvoju viens.*
until this.DAT.M I.NOM here live.PST.1SG alone.NOM.M
 'Until now, I have lived here alone.' (M. Ziverts)

e. *no* 'from'

No *rīta vides inspektori*
from morning.GEN.M environment.GEN.F inspector.NOM.PL.M
ieraudzāja,
 see.PST.3
ka [upē] airē viens vīrs ar tikliem laivā.
 'In the morning, environmental inspectors saw a man rowing on the river with a fishing net in (his) boat.' (Ir)

f. *pa* 'during'

Pa *svētku laiku te ciemojās*
during holiday.GEN.PL.M **time.ACC.M** here stay.PST.3
daudzi tēva studiju laikā
 many.NOM.PL.M father.GEN.M studies.GEN.PL.F time.GEN.M
draugi.
 friend.NOM.PL.M
 'During the holidays, many of my father's friends from (his) student days stayed here.' (A. Žigūre)

- g. *pēc* ‘after’

Pēc gada obligāti būs jāliek
after year.GEN.M compulsory be.AUX.FUT.3 DEB.take
eksāmens fizikā un ķīmijā.
 exam.NOM.M physics.LOC.F and chemistry.LOC.F
 ‘A year from now, the physics and chemistry exams will be compulsory.’
 (www.lsm.lv)

- h. *pirms* ‘before, prior to, ahead of, ago’

Pirms vairākiem gadiem nokritu no
prior_to several.DAT.PL.M year.DAT.PL.M fall.PST.1SG from
zirga.
 horse.GEN.M
 ‘Several years ago, I fell off a horse.’ (I. Ābele)

- g. *priekš* ‘ago’

Apiņiem šais laikos ir
 hop.DAT.PL.M this.LOC.PL.M time.LOC.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3
lielāka vērtība nekā priekš 10 gadiem.
 high.NOM.CPM.F value.NOM.F than **ago 10 year.DAT.PL.M**
 ‘These days, hops are more valuable than ten years ago.’ (CW)

- i. *uz* ‘before’

Nakts uz otrdienu būs auksta.
 night.NOM.F **before Tuesday.ACC.F** be.COP.FUT.3 cold.NOM.F
 ‘Monday night will be cold.’ (www.lsm.lv)

3) manner

- (2.7.23) a. *ar* ‘with’

Egle sāk svērties un ar varenu
 fir_tree.NOM.F start.PRS.3 lean.INF and **with** mighty.INS.M
šalcienu nokrīt.
rustle.INS.M fall.PRS.3
 ‘The fir tree starts to lean to one side and falls down with a mighty rustle.’ (V. Belševica)

- b. *aiz* ‘by’

Neraustiet savu suni aiz pavadas.
 not_pull.IMP.2PL own.ACC.M dog.ACC.M **by** leash.GEN.F
 ‘Do not pull your dog by the leash.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- c. *bez* ‘without’

Saeima noraida ierosinājumu šovasar
 parliament.NOM.F reject.PRS.3 proposal.ACC.M this_summer
strādāt bez brīvdienām.
 work.INF **without recess.DAT.PL.F**
 ‘The parliament rejects the proposal to work without a recess this summer.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- d. *pa* ‘out, through’
Pamodos šorīt,
paskatījos pa logu.
 look.PST.1SG through window.ACC.M
 ‘I woke up this morning, looked out the window.’ (I. Ābele)
- e. *pie* ‘at, by’
Jolanta paņēma Mintautu pie elkoņa.
 Jolanta.NOM.F take.PST.3 Mintauts.ACC.M by elbow.GEN.M
 ‘Jolanta took Mintauts by the elbow.’ (A. Eglītis)
- f. *pēc* ‘according to’
Bērnām jāsaprot,
ka ne vienmēr viss
 that not always everything.NOM.M
notiek pēc viņa prāta.
 happen.PRS.3 according_to he.GEN mind.GEN.M
 ‘A child needs to understand that things don’t always go the way he wants.’ (CW)
- g. *par* ‘as, having the quality of’
Pārstrādāšanās nāk par sliktu sirdij.
 overwork.NOM.F come.PRS.3 as bad.ACC.M heart.DAT.F
 ‘Overwork is bad for the heart.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- h. *uz* ‘on’
Kā var iemācīties staigāt uz galvas?
 how be_able.PRS.3 learn.INF walk.INF on head.GEN.F
 ‘How can one learn to walk on one’s hands [lit. head]?’ (CW)
- i. *zem* ‘under’
Vannojot turi zīdaiņi no
 bathing.PTCP.IDECL hold.IMP.2SG infant.ACC.M from
galvas puses zem padusēm.
 head.GEN.F side.GEN.F under underarm.DAT.PL.F
 ‘When bathing an infant, place your arm under his head grasping his underarms.’ (www.delfi.lv)

4) reason or cause

- (2.7.24) a. *aiz* ‘with, out of’
Bija laiks,
kad smējos aiz laimes.
 when laugh.PST.1SG out_of happiness.GEN.F
 ‘There was a time when I used to laugh out of happiness.’ (M. Zīverts)
- b. *ar* ‘with’
Ar vējbakām meitene [ir]
 with chickenpox.INS.PL.F girl.NOM.F [is]
saslimusi bērnudārzā.
 caught.PTCP.NOM.F kindergarten.LOC.M
 ‘The girl caught chickenpox in kindergarten.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

- c. *dēļ* ‘due to, because of’

<i>Līdzīgā</i>	<i>izskata</i>	<i>dēļ</i>	<i>daudzi</i>
similar.GEN.M	appearance.GEN.M	due_to	many.NOM.PL.M.
<i>visas</i>	<i>krunkainās</i>	<i>pavasara</i>	<i>sēnes</i>
all.ACC.PL.F	wrinkly.ACC.PL.F	spring.GEN.M	mushrooms.ACC.PL.F
<i>maldīgi</i>	<i>uzskata</i>	<i>par</i>	<i>ēdamām.</i>
mistakenly	consider.PRS.3	as	edible.DAT.PL.F

‘Due to a similar appearance, many mistakenly believe all wrinkly spring mushrooms to be edible.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- d. *no* ‘from, out of’

<i>Dziedātāja</i>	<i>pēc</i>	<i>koncerta</i>	<i>raudāja</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>prieka.</i>
singer.NOM.F	after	concert.GEN.M	cry.PST.3	from	joy.GEN.M

‘After the concert, the singer wept with joy.’ (Kas Jauns)

- e. *par* ‘for’

<i>Par godu</i>	<i>Mātes</i>	<i>dienai</i>	<i>notiks</i>
for honor.ACC.M	mother.GEN.F	day.DAT.F	happen.FUT.3
<i>dažādi</i>	<i>pasākumi.</i>		
various.NOM.PL.M	events.NOM.PL.M		

‘Various events will take place in honor of Mother’s Day.’ (Diena)

- f. *pēc* ‘due to, for, over’

<i>Niecīga</i>	<i>parāda</i>	<i>pēc</i>	<i>tiesu</i>	<i>izpildītājs</i>
trifling.GEN.M	debt.GEN.M	for	court.GEN.PL.F	bailiff.NOM.M
<i>atņem</i>	<i>ģimenei</i>	<i>māju.</i>		
take_away.PRS.3	family.DAT.F	home.ACC.F		

‘Due to a trifling debt, the bailiff takes away the family’s home.’
(Kas Jauns)

5) intent or purpose

- (2.7.25) a. *ar* ‘with’

<i>Viņš</i>	<i>atsūtīts</i>	<i>šurp</i>	<i>ar</i>
he.NOM	send.PTCP.NOM.M	to_here	with
<i>kādu</i>	<i>uzdevumu.</i>		
some_kind.INS.M	mission.INS.M		

‘He has been sent here with a mission.’ (M. Zīverts)

- b. *dēļ* ‘for’

<i>Lūk,</i>	<i>tā</i>	<i>dēļ</i>	<i>ir</i>	<i>vērts</i>	<i>censties.</i>
look,	it.GEN.M	for	be.COP.PRS3	worth.COP.NOM.M	strive.INF

‘Look, that’s why it’s worth making an effort.’ (C)

- c. *labad* ‘for the sake of, for’

<i>Dzeltenās</i>	<i>linijas</i>	<i>[māju</i>	<i>pagalmos]</i>
yellow.NOM.PL.F	line.NOM.PL.F	[building	yard]
<i>novilkta</i>	<i>iedzīvotāju.</i>	<i>drošības</i>	<i>labad.</i>
draw.PTCP.NOM.PL.F	resident.GEN.PL.M	safety.GEN.F	for

‘These yellow lines [in the yards of apartment buildings] have been painted for the safety of the residents.’ (www.lvportals.lv)

- d. *par* ‘as’
Esmu mācījusies par sākumskolas
 be.AUX.PRS.1SG studied .PTCP.NOM.F as primary_school.GEN.F
logopēdu un skolotāju.
 speech_therapist.ACC.M and teacher.ACC.F
 ‘I trained as a primary school speech therapist and teacher.’
 (www.cosmo.lv)

- e. *uz* ‘for’
Pabarojusi bērnus,
viņa sāk posties uz darbu.
 she.NOM start.PRS.3 prepare.INF for work.ACC.M
 ‘After feeding the children, she starts getting ready for work.’
 (www.delfi.lv)

6) partitivity

- (2.7.26) a. *pa* ‘by (as in expressions like *hour by hour*, *step by step*, etc.)’
Mēs palīdzēsim jums [jūsu atmiņai]
 we.NOM help.FUT.1PL you.DAT.PL [your memory]
pēdas dzīt soli pa solim.
 trace.ACC.PL.F track.INF step.ACC.M by step.DAT.M
 ‘We will help you recover [your memory] step by step.’ (M. Ziverts)

- b. *no* ‘of’
Pagājušajā nedēļā divi no mums bija
 last.LOC.F week.LOC.F two.NOM.PL.M of we.DAT be.PST.3
[mūzikas] ierakstu studijā.
 [music] recording.GEN.PL.M studio.LOC.F
 ‘Last week two of us were at the [music] recording studio.’ (CW)

7) quantity:

a) a definite quantity

- (2.7.27) a. *par* ‘for’
Pirmās mellenes tirgū var
 first.ACC.PL.F blueberry.ACC.PL.F market.LOC.M be_able.PRS.3
nopirkt par četriem eiro litrā.
 buy.INF for four.ACC.PL.M euro liter.LOC.M
 ‘The first blueberries [of the season] can be bought at the market for four euros per liter.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- b. *pret* ‘against, for’
Mainu divistabu dzīvokli
 change.PRS.1SG two-room.GEN.PL.F apartment.ACC.M
Liepājā pret īpašumu laukos.
 Liepāja.LOC.F for property.ACC.M country.LOC.PL.M
 ‘I’m looking to swap a two-room apartment in Liepāja for a property in he country.’ (www.liepajniekiem.lv)

- b) an approximate quantity (in the sense of a numerical value, which can include time)

(2.7.28) a. *ap* ‘about, around’

Aizmigu *ap* *septiņiem* *vakarā.*
 fall.asleep.PST.1SG **about** **seven.DAT.PL.M** evening.LOC.M
 ‘I fell asleep at about seven in the evening.’ (I. Ābele)

b. *līdz* ‘up to’

Vasaras *ceļojumiem* *atlaides* *līdz* **20**
 summer.GEN.F trip.DAT.PL.M discount.NOM.PL.F **up_to** **20**
procentiem *ar* *mūsu* *klienta*
percent.DAT.PL.M with we.GEN client.GEN.M
karti.
 card.INS.F
 ‘Up to twenty percent off on summer trips with our loyalty card.’
 (www.apollo.lv)

c. *pret* ‘at, towards’

Pret *rītu* *sāka* *celties*
towards **morning.ACC.M** start.PST.3 gather.INF
vētra, *sāka* *līt.*
 storm.NOM.F started rain
 ‘In the small hours of the morning, a storm began to gather, it started to rain.’

d. *starp* ‘between’ (CW)

Starp *pirmdien* *un* *otrdien*
between **Monday.ACC.F** and **Tuesday.ACC.F**
gulējām *divas* *stundas.*
 sleep.PST.1PL two.ACC.PL.F hour.ACC.PL.F
 ‘We had two hours of sleep sometime between Monday and Tuesday.’

e. *virš* ‘over, above’ (CW)

Ūdens *līmenis* *Daugavā* *pakāpies*
 water.GEN.M level.NOM.M Daugava.LOC.F rise.PTCP.NOM.M
virš *normas.*
above **norm.GEN.F**
 ‘The water level in the Daugava has risen above the norm.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

8) absence or lack

(2.7.29) *bez* ‘without’

[*Ceptuves*] *izveidošanā* *esam* *iztikuši*
 [bakery] formation.LOC.F be.AUX.PRS.1PL subsist.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
bez *aizdevumiem.*
without **loan.DAT.PL.M**
 ‘When setting up [the bakery] we did so without a loan.’ (Ir)

9) means, co-presence

(2.7.30) *ar* ‘with, by means of’

a. [*saldējuma*] *Pārdevējs* *aicinot* *māja*
[ice cream] seller.NOM.M invite.PTCP.IDECL wave.PST.3

ar roku.

with hand.INS.F

‘The [ice cream] seller waved his hand invitingly.’ (V. Belševica)

b. *Sēžot* *ar šiem zinātniekiem,*
sitting.PTCP.IDECL *with this.INS.PL.M scientist.INS.PL.M*
laiks bija paskrējis nemanot.

‘Sitting with these scientists, time went by without us noticing.’
(A. Eglītis)

10) relationships forming semantic objects

(2.7.31) a. *ar* ‘with’

Es piedalījos [viesnīcas] projekta
I.NOM. participate.PST.1SG [hotel] project.GEN.M

izstrādāšanā un sadarbojos ar
development.LOC.F and work.PST.1SG *with*

būvuzņēmējiem.

contractor.INS.PL.M

‘I participated in the development of the design [of the hotel] and worked with the building contractors.’ (A. Eglītis)

b. *par* ‘about, of’

Izrāde stāsta par attiecībām
performance.NOM.F tells.PRS.3 *of relationship.DAT.PL.F*

trīs cilvēku starpā.
three people.GEN.PL.M space.LOC.F

‘The performance is about the relationship among three people.’ (Ir)

c. *pēc* ‘after’

Es pat uz veikalu pēc maizes
I.NOM even to shop.ACC.M *after bread.GEN.F*

eju ar fotoaparātu.
go.PRS.1SG with camera.INS.M

‘I take the camera with me even when I go to the shop for bread.’
(Diena)

d. *pie* ‘(on)to, (along) with’

Izvērtas lēcas var pievienot
boiled.PTCP.ACC.PL.F lentil.ACC.PL.F be_able.PRS.3 add.INF

pie dažādiem ēdieniem.

onto different.DAT.PL.M dish.DAT.PL.M

‘Boiled lentils can be added to all kinds of dishes.’

(Neatkarīgā Rita Avīze)

e. *pret* ‘towards’

Bet kā ar mūsu cieņu pret
but how with we.GEN respect.INS.F towards
vecākiem?

parent.DAT.PL.M

‘But what about our respect for parents?’ (www.maminuklubs.lv)

f. *no* ‘of’

Viņa vēlējās redzēt kaut ko no
she.NOM want.PST.3 see.INF something of
[acteku] drupām.

[Aztec] ruin.DAT.PL.F

‘She wanted to see something of the [Aztec] ruins.’ (A. Eglītis)

g. *uz* ‘at, towards’

Tēvs skatās uz meitu, un
father.NOM.M look.PRS.3 at daughter.ACC.F and
acīs ir lepnums.
eye.LOC.PL.F be.PRS.3 pride.NOM.M

‘The father looks at his daughter and there is pride in his eyes.’

(A. Žigūre)

11) features

(2.7.32) a. *ar* ‘with’

Brūnais [albuma] vāks ar zeltītām
brown.NOM.M [album] cover.NOM.M with gilded.INS.PL.F
pogām izskatās smags.
button.INS.PL.F look.PRS.3 heavy.NOM.M

‘The brown cover [of the album], with its gilded buttons, looks heavy.’

(V. Belševica)

b. *aiz* ‘behind, across’

Ar pirmajām pavasara dienām saimnieks
with first.INS.PL.F spring.GEN.M day.INS.PL.F master.NOM.M
dzen aitas uz ganībām aiz
drive.PRS.3 sheep.ACC.PL.F to pasture.DAT.PL.F behind
meža.

forest.GEN.M

‘With the coming of spring, the head of the household takes the sheep to the pasture beyond the forest.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

c. *bez* ‘without’

Kivi ir putns vistas lielumā,

bez spārniem un ar garu knābi.
without wing.DAT.PL.M and with long.INS.M beak.INS.M

‘The kiwi is a chicken-sized bird, without wings and with a long beak.’

(CW)

d. *pret* ‘against’

Mūsu projekts bija par priežu
 we.GEN project.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 about pine.GEN.PL.F
izturību pret slimībām.
 resistance.ACC.F against disease.DAT.PL.F
 ‘Our project was about the resistance of pines against diseases.’ (Ir)

12) sequence, order

(2.7.33) a. *aiz* ‘after, behind’

Riteņbarucēji drīkst braukt viens
 cyclist.NOM.PL.M be_allowed.PRS.3 ride.INF one.NOM.M
aiz otra.
 behind other.GEN.M
 ‘The cyclists are allowed to follow closely behind one another.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)

b. *pēc* ‘after’

Nākamajā pieturā pēc Jelgavas,
 next.LOC.F station.LOC.F after Jelgava.GEN.F
Krimūnās, vilciens stāv ilgāk.
 ‘At the next station after Jelgava, Krimūnas, the train stops for a longer time.’ (A. Žigure)

13) comparison

(2.7.34) a. *no* ‘of’

Viņš bija skaistākais no
 he.NOM be.COP.PST.3 handsome.CMP.NOM.M of
brāļiem.
 brother.DAT.PL.M
 ‘He was the handsomest of the brothers.’ (V. Belševica)

b. *par* ‘than’

Ir arī skaistākas meitenes par
 be.PRS.3 also beautiful.CMP.NOM.PL.F girls.NOM.PL.F than
mani.
 I.ACC
 ‘There are more beautiful girls than me.’ (M. Zīverts)

c. *starp* ‘among’

Viņš ir labākais starp Latvijas
 he.NOM be.COP.PRS.3 good.CMP.NOM.M among Latvia.GEN.F
kamaniņu sportistiem.
 luge.GEN.PL.F athlete.DAT.PL.M
 ‘He is the best among Latvian luge athletes.’ (Diena)

This account of prepositional meanings is not intended as a set of hard and fast categories, since, clearly, category membership may vary depending on interpretation

in at least some of the cases. For example, some prepositional meanings included under ‘manner’ can be construed as being concerned with spatial relationships or semantic objects, and vice versa. Likewise, prepositions used to indicate means or co-presence can be analyzed as also serving to mark semantic objects, etc.

Although originally the preposition *priekš* ‘ago’ expressed temporal relationships, this usage is now, to an extent, dated, and the preposition *pirms* ‘before, prior to, ahead of, ago’. In colloquial speech, *priekš* often indicates intent or purpose:

- (2.7.35) a. *Likums* *ir* *viens* *priekš*
 law.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 one.NOM.M for
visiem.
 everyone.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The law is the same for everyone.’ (C)
- b. *Ne* *priekš* *sevis* *viņš* *dzīvo,* *bet* *gan*
 not for self.GEN he.NOM live.PRS.3 but rather
priekš *pasaules.*
 for world.GEN.F
 ‘It’s not for himself that he lives, it’s for the world.’ (C)

Such usage, however, is considered incorrect in Standard Latvian, prepositionless dative or genitive constructions being preferred instead:

- (2.7.36) a. *Likums* *ir* *viens* *visiem.*
 law.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 one.NOM.M everyone.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The law is the same for everyone.’
- b. *Ne* *sev* .., *bet* *gan* *pasaulei.*
 not self.DAT.M but rather world.DAT.F
 ‘Not for himself..., but for the world.’

Latvian has a number of adverbs functioning as prepositions. These usually express spatial and temporal relationships, manner, etc., for example, *apkārt* ‘around’, *cauri* ‘through’, *garām* ‘past, by’, *pāri* ‘over, across’, *pretī* ‘opposite, across’, *viršū* ‘on top of, on, onto, over’, and combine with nouns and other declinable words in the dative:

- (2.7.37) a. *Es* *piecēlos* *kājās* *un* *lēnām*
 I.NOM stand.PST.1SG foot.LOC.PL.F and slowly
apgāju *apkārt* *istabai.*
 walk_around.PST.1SG around room.DAT.F
 ‘I got to my feet and slowly walked around the room.’ (C)
- b. *Saule* *spīd* *cauri* *koku* *galotnēm.*
 sun.NOM.F shine through tree.GEN.PL.M top.DAT.PL.F
 ‘The sun is shining through the treetops.’ (C)
- c. *Iedama* *garām* *spogulim,*
 walk.PTCP.NOM.F past mirror.DAT.M
viņa nepacēla acis.
 ‘She did not look up as she walked past the mirror.’ (C)

- d. *Es pāri laukam steidzos mājup.*
 I.NOM across field.DAT.M hurry.PST.1SG homeward
 ‘I hurried home across the field.’ (C)
- e. *Mēs dzīvojam kalnā tieši pretī jūrai.*
 we.NOM live.PRS.1PL mountain.LOC.M directly opposite
 sea.DAT.F
 ‘We live on a mountain, directly opposite the sea.’ (C)
- f. *Putni metas virsū graudiem.*
 bird.NOM.PL.M swoop.PRS.3 onto grain.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The birds swoop down onto the grain.’ (C)

2.8 PARTICLES

Particles are a class of function words used to express the speaker’s attitude towards the content of an utterance and add a modal, emotional, and/or semantic meaning to a particular part of a sentence (i.e., a sentence constituent) or to an utterance as a whole (Skujiņa 2007: 288). The majority of particles are polysemous and their meaning is highly context-dependent.

Particles do not inflect, do not function as parts of sentences and, in general, are usually uninvolved in dependencies.

Particles may express the following types of meaning (Kalme 2001: 56–63; Paegle 2003: 210–213):

1) affirmative

- (2.8.1) a. *jā* ‘yes’
 – *Vai es drikstu ienākt? – Jā, jā, lūdzu.*
 Q I.NOM may.PRS.1SG enter.INF yes yes please
 ‘May I come in? – Yes, yes, please.’ (C)
- b. *nujā, nuja* ‘yes’ (in colloquial speech)
 “*Nujā, [mēs esam] meža malā, viņš*
yes [we are] forest.GEN.M edge.LOC.F he.NOM
apstiprina.
 confirm.PRS.3
 ‘Yes, [we are] at the edge of the forest,’ he confirms. (C)

2) negative

- (2.8.2) a. *nē* ‘no’
Nē, es te vairs nepalikšu.
 no I.NOM here anymore not_stay.FUT.1SG
 ‘No, I won’t stay here any longer.’ (C)

b. *ne* ‘not’

[dziesmas] *Aizliegums attiecas tikai uz valsts radio un televīziju,*

bet ne privātām stacijām.

but **not** private.DAT.PL.F station.DAT.PL.F

‘The [song broadcasting] prohibition only applies to public radio and television but not to private stations.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

3) interrogative

(2.8.3) *vai* ‘whether, if’

Vai *Kārlis vēl nav*

Q *Kārlis.NOM.M still not_be.AUX.PRS.3*

apprecēties?

marry.PTCP.NOM.M

‘Is Kārlis still unmarried?’ (I. Gaile)

4) comparative

(2.8.4) a. *it kā, itin kā* ‘as if, as though, seemingly’

Tā ir skaista vieta,

it.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 beautiful.NOM.F place.NOM.F

meži ir it kā atkāpušies

forest.NOM.PL.M be.AUX.PRS.3 **as though** retreat.PTCP.NOM.PL.M

no jūras.

from sea.GEN.F

‘It is a beautiful place, the forests look as though they have retreated from the coast.’ (N. Ikstena)

Trīs bērni dzīvo itin kā

three.NOM child.NOM.PL.M live.PRS.3 **seemingly**

pilnīgi normālā mūsdienu realitātē.

absolutely normal.LOC.F modern.LOC.PL.F reality.LOC.F

‘The three children live in a seemingly normal modern reality.’

(Diena)

b. *kā* ‘like, as’

Rakstnieka tēlotajam zēnam pasaule

writer.GEN.M depict.PTCP.DAT.M boy.DAT.M world.NOM.F

ir kā brīnums.

be.COP.PRS.3 **as** miracle.NOM.M

‘The boy depicted by the writer sees the world as a miracle.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

c. *nekā* ‘than, as’

Mēs dzīvojām citā pilsētā nekā

we.NOM live.PST.1PL other.LOC.F town.LOC.F **than**

mātes vecāki.

mother.GEN.F parent.NOM.PL.M

‘We live in a different town than our maternal grandparents.’

(Jaunā Gaita)

5) conditional

- (2.8.5) a. *kaut* ‘if only, I wish’

Kaut *nebūtu* *tik* *neciešami* *karsti!*
if_only not_be.COND so unbearably hot
 ‘If only it weren’t so unbearably hot!’ (A. Eglītis)

- b. *lai* ‘let, may’

Lai *viss* *izdodas!*
let all.NOM.M succeed.PRS.3
 ‘Let it all go well!’ (www.draugiem.lv)

6) limitative

- (2.8.6) a. *tikai* ‘only’

Tikai *pēc* *ilgākas* *meklēšanas* *Argods*
only after long.GEN.F searching.GEN.F Argods.NOM.M
atrada *brīvu* *vietu* *[automašīnas novietošanai].*
 find.PST.3 vacant.ACC.F space.ACC.F [car parking]
 ‘Only after a long search did Argods find a vacant [parking] space.’
 (A. Eglītis)

- b. *vien* ‘unless, as long as’

Gadu tūkstošu gaitā ir izrādījies, ka cilvēks ir pārāks [par zvēriem].
Ja vien nav no bailīgajiem.
 if **as_long_as** not_be.COP.PRS.3 of timid.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Over the course of the millennia, it turned out that man is superior
 [to animals]. As long as he or she is not timid.’ (P. Bankovskis)

- c. *vienīgi* ‘only, though’

Vienīgi *gribētos* *zināt,* *kas* *ir*
only wish.COND know.INF what.NOM be.COP.PRS.3
mani *kaimiņi.*
 my.NOM.PL.M neighbor.NOM.PL.M
 ‘I would just like to know who my neighbors are.’ (www.tvnet.lv)

- d. *vairs* ‘anymore, already’

Tur **vairs** *nekas* *nav* *glābjams.*
 there **already** nothing.NOM not_be.COP.PRS.3 save.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It is beyond saving already.’ (A. Žigure)

7) emphasizing, intensifying, or attenuating

- (2.8.7) a. *ak* ‘oh, I see’

“Es biju sapratis, ka arī viņa [krustmāte] ir šeit [slimnīcā].”

Ak *tā?”* *Ārsts* *teica.*

oh_I_see so doctor.NOM.M say.PST.3

“Interesanti. Bet, nē, viņas te nav.”

‘I was led to believe that she [the aunt] is here [at the hospital], as well.

“Were you, indeed?” the doctor said.

“That’s interesting. But, no, she is not here.” (I. Gaile)

- b. *arī*, *ar* ‘also, what’s more, at that, either’
Daudzi [cilvēki] vispār neko nedara.
Un negrib arī mācīties.
 and not_want.PRS.3 either learn.INF
 ‘Many [people] don’t do anything at all. And don’t want to learn either.’
 (www.tvnet.lv)
- c. *ir*, *i* ‘also, too’
 “*Mainies ir tu uz augšu”, teica*
 change.IMP.1PL too you.NOM.SG to top.ACC.F say.pst.3
režisors citiem.
 director.NOM.M other.DAT.PL.M
 “‘You, too, should strive to elevate yourself.’” said the director to
 the others.’ (www.kroders.lv)
- d. *it, itin* ‘at all, in the slightest’
Tā [abstraktā tēlniecība] vispār
 it.NOM.F [abstract sculpture] at_all
nav it nekas!
 not_be.COP.PRS.3 at_all nothing.NOM
 ‘It [abstract sculpture] is nothing at all!’ (A. Eglītis)
Par privāto dzīvi es negribu runāt
 about private.ACC.F life.ACC.F I.NOM not_want.PRS.1SG talk.INF
itin nemaz.
at_all not_at_all
 ‘I do not want to talk about my private life at all.’ (Latvijas Avīze)
- e. *gan* ‘emphasis, e.g., ‘really’
Kad mēs augām, tā gan
 when we.NOM grow_up.PST.1PL like_that really
nebija.
 not_be.PST.3
 ‘It really wasn’t like that when we were growing up.’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- f. *jau* ‘already’
Nekad nevajag atstāt teātri jau
 never not_should.PRS.3 leave.INF theater.ACC.M already
pēc pirmā cēliena.
 after first.GEN.M act.GEN.M
 ‘One should never leave the theater [already] after the first act.’
 (A. Eglītis)
- g. *jel, jele* ‘emphasis, e.g., emphatic ‘do’
 “*Bet saki jel, Bērtuli,” viņš runāja,*
 but tell.IMP.2SG EMPH Bērtulis.ACC.M he.NOM say.PST.3
 “*kādēļ gan Jēkabs tā nebēdājās kā tu?*”
 “‘Bērtulis, do tell,’ he said, “why didn’t Jēkabs grieve as much as you
 did?’” (C)

Vai tu vispār esi jele ko
 Q you.NOM.SG at_all be.AUX.PRS.2SG EMPH what.ACC
 darijis [manā labā]?
 do.PTCP.NOM.M [my sake]

‘Have you ever done anything at all [for me]?’ (A. Eglitis)

h. *jo* ‘emphasis’

Piektdienas rītā Latvijā, jo īpaši
 Friday.GEN.F morning.LOC.M Latvia.LOC.F EMPH particularly
 Latgalē, apgrūtināta satiksme
 Latgale.LOC.F burden.PTCP.NOM.F traffic.NOM.F
 [snigšanas dēļ].
 [snowfall due_to]

‘On Friday morning, traffic is heavy [due to snow] throughout Latvia, especially in Latgale.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

i. *nebūt* ‘by no means, at all’

Man liekas,
 ka mums viss nebūt
 that we.DAT all.NOM.M by_no_means
 nav tik labi,
 not_be.COP.PRS.3 so well
 kā varētu būt.

‘It seems to me that all is, by no means, as well as it could be between you and me.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

j. *nu* ‘emphasis’

Bet te nu tā [iespēja] bija.
 but here EMPH it.NOM.F [opportunity] be.PST.3
 ‘There it [the opportunity] was.’ (I. Gaile)

k. *pat* ‘even’

Viņš raksta, glezno un iet pat
 he.NOM write.PRS.3 paint.PRS.3 and go.PRS.3 even
 zvejot.
 fish.INF

‘He writes, paints, and even goes fishing.’ (Jaunā Gaita)

l. *tad* ‘emphasis’

Jā, bet kā tad to var zināt?
 yes but how EMPH it.ACC be_able.PRS.3 know.INF
 ‘Yes, but how are you supposed to know that?’ (Rīgas Laiks)

m. *tak* ‘emphasis’

Jūs tak zināt prāvestu Plāni
 you.NOM.PL EMPH know.PRS.2PL dean.ACC.M Plānis.ACC.M
 Nikolaju?
 Nikolajs.ACC.M

‘You do know the dean, Nikolajs Plānis, don’t you?’ (I. Ābele)

- n. *tik, tikai* ‘just, nothing more than’

Bet bērns tik stāv kā
but child.NOM.M just stand.PRS.3 as

stāvējis.

stand.PTCP.NOM.M

‘But the child just keeps standing.’ (L. Tauns)

Tās visas ir tikai tavas
that.NOM.PL.F all.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 just your.NOM.PL.F

iedomas.

imagination.NOM.PL.F

‘These are all just figments of your imagination.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

- o. *vēl* ‘still, yet’

Dēli vēl snauda savās
son.NOM.PL.M still snooze.PST.3 own.LOC.PL.F

gultās.

bed.LOC.PL.F

‘The sons were still snoozing in their beds.’ (I. Ābele)

- p. *vien, vienīgi* ‘(when/what/etc.)ever, only, except that’

Katrā laikā,

kad vien tev izdevīgi [varam satikties]!
when ever you.DAT.SG convenient

‘Any time, whenever it suits you [we can meet]!’ (A. Eglītis)

Ārēji ģimenē nekas nemainās,
outwardly family.LOC.F nothing.NOM not_change.PRS.3

vienīgi meita aug.

except_that daughter.NOM.F grow.PRS.3

‘Outwardly, nothing changes in the family, except that the daughter is growing up.’ (A. Žigūre)

- r. *vis* ‘negative emphasis’

Kad Artūrs šo [lidostas] departamentu sāka veidot,

tā [tik labi] vis nebija.

that [so well] NEG.EMPH not_be.PST.3

‘When Arthur first started setting up this [airport] department it was nothing like that.’ (Diena)

8) generalizing

- (2.8.8) *ik* ‘every’

Archīva darbinieks ik rītu šķērso
archive.GEN.M worker.NOM.M every morning.ACC.M cross.PRS.3

Stokholmu trolejbusā.

Stockholm.ACC.F trolleybus.LOC.M

‘Every morning, the archive worker crosses Stockholm in a trolleybus.’

(Dz. Sodums)

9) indefinite

- (2.8.9) a. *diez, diezin* ‘who knows’, *diez vai, diezin vai* ‘hardly’
Ko viņš [dēls] diez tagad dara?
 what.ACC he.NOM [son] **who knows** now do.PRS.3
 ‘Who knows what he [the son] is up to these days?’ (www.maminuklubs.lv)
***Diezin vai** šajā laikā [1. pasaules*
hardly this.LOC.M time.LOC.M [first world
kara laikā] būs iespējams novākt ražu.
 war time] be.COP.FUT.3 possible gather.INF crop.ACC.F
 ‘It would have hardly been possible to gather the crops at that time
 [during WWI].’ (P. Bankovskis)
- b. *it kā, itin kā* ‘sort of, kind of’
Miegs it kā nāca, it kā nenāca.
 sleep.NOM.M **sort_of** come.PST.3 **sort_of** not_come.PST.3
 ‘I sort of felt and sort of didn’t feel like falling asleep.’ (C)
- c. *kaut* ‘at least’
Es varēju ar vienu vārdu, kaut
 I.NOM be_able.PST.1SG with one.INS.M word.INS.M **at_least**
pusvārdu, pateikt,
 half_word.INS.M say.INF
ka es tam nepiekrītu.
 ‘I could say a word, or even a half word, to show that I didn’t agree.’
 (www.satori.lv)
- d. *nez* ‘(I) wonder’, *nezin* ‘somehow, for some reason’
***Nez,** vai viņš mani atlaidīs [no darba]?*
PTCL Q he.NOM I.ACC fire.FUT.3 [from job]
 ‘I wonder, will he fire me?’ (I. Gaile)
*Man **nezin** kāpēc ir labs*
 I.DAT **for_some_reason** why be.PRS.3 good.NOM.M
garastāvoklis.
 mood.NOM.M
 ‘I feel great for some reason.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)
- e. *lai* ‘uncertainty regarding a future action’
*Ko **lai** iesāku?*
 what.ACC **PTCL** do.PRS.1SG
 ‘What shall I do?’ (L. Tauns)
- f. *tā kā* ‘as it were’
Būtu vērts [pēc svētkiem] tā kā izdarīt
 be.COP.COND worth [after festival] **as_it_were** do.INF
kādus secinājumus.
 some.ACC.PL.M conclusion.ACC.PL.M
 ‘It would be wise, as it were, to draw some conclusions [after
 the festival]’ (Diena)

- g. *vai* ‘almost, nearly’

Tēlnieka daiļrade pētīta gadiem ilgi,

bet vai ik reizi atklājas

but almost every time.ACC.F be_discovered.PRS.3

kaut kas jauns.

something.NOM new.NOM.M

‘The sculptor’s works have been studied for years, yet one still discovers something new almost every time.’ (www.lsm.lv)

10) expressing doubt

- (2.8.10) a. *droši vien* ‘probably, likely’

Droši vien [senās ēkas] telpu

probably [ancient buildings] room.GEN.PL.F

iekārtojums jāsaista ar kādiem

design.NOM.M DEB.tie with some.INS.PL.M

vēstures notikumiem.

history.GEN.F event.INS.PL.M

‘The design of indoor spaces [in the ancient building] should probably be tied to relevant historical events.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

- b. *laikam* ‘probably, likely’

Sarūgtināts viņš nodomāja,

ka laikam būs jānēsā brilles.

that probably be.AUX.FUT.3 DEB.wear glasses.NOM.F

‘He was upset and thought that he would probably have to wear glasses.’ (R. Ezera)

- c. *sak* ‘you know’

Būt par aktieri...

Sak, tas jau bija

you_know it.NOM.M already be.COP.PST.3

vienīgais pareizais ceļš.

only.NOM.M right.NOM.M way.NOM.M

‘To be an actor ... It was the only right way, you know.’

(www.liepājniekiem.lv)

- d. *tā kā* ‘like, as if’

Francis augšstāvā tā kā ieklepojas.

Francis.NOM.M upstairs.LOC.M as_if cough.PRS.3

‘It sounds like Francis is coughing upstairs.’ (C)

- e. *varbūt* ‘perhaps, maybe’

Varbūt es pārāk slikti domāju par

perhaps I.NOM too badly think.PRS.1SG about

cilvēkiem?

person.DAT.PL.M

‘Perhaps, I think too badly of people?’ (I. Gaile)

11) positive or negative evaluation

(2.8.11) a. *diemžēl* ‘unfortunately’

diemžēl *iepriecināt* *nevarēsim* –
unfortunately cheer_up.INF not_be_able.FUT.1PL

laiks kļūs siltāks tikai marta otrajā pusē.

‘Unfortunately, we won’t be able to cheer you up – the weather will not get warmer until the second half of March.’ (Kas Jauns)

b. *tātad* ‘so, then’

Kalnus vēl neredzam, jo ir tumšs,

tātad *rīt* *mūs* *sagaida* *pārsteigums.*

so tomorrow we.ACC await.PRS.3 surprise.NOM.M

‘We can’t see the mountains yet, because it’s dark, so there is going to be a surprise for us tomorrow.’ (www.lsm.lv)

In Latvian, particles often occur in combinations (usually, of two particles) (also see examples (2.8.9)–(2.8.10) with the particles *it kā*, *itin kā*, *tā kā*, *droši vien*, *diezin vai*, *vai ne* above), e.g.:

(2.8.12) a. *gan jau* ‘surely’

Gan jau *drīz* *redzēsimes.*

surely soon meet.FUT.1PL

‘Surely, we will meet again soon.’ (C)

b. *nu gan* ‘emphasis, e.g., really, indeed’

Tu **nu gan** *esi*

you.NOM.SG **really** be.COP.PRS.2SG

naivs.

naïve.NOM.M

‘You really are naïve.’ (C)

c. *vai tad* ‘disbelief, e.g., really, actually’

Vai tad *mums* *ļoti* *jāsteidzas?*

Q **EMPH** we.DAT very DEB.hurry

‘Are we really in such a hurry?’ (C)

d. *tad gan* ‘emphasis, focus, e.g., that’s when’

Tad gan *iestājās* *liela* *bezcerība*

that’s_when start.PST.3 large.NOM.F hopelessness.NOM.F

un *izmisums.*

and despair.NOM.M

‘That’s when real hopelessness and despair kicked in.’ (C)

e. *nu tad* ‘well then’

Nu tad *uz* *drīzu* *tikšanos,*

well then to near.ACC.F meeting.ACC.F

Kārlī.

Kārlis.VOC.M

‘Well then, see you soon, Kārlis.’ (I. Gaile)

Affirmative, negative, interrogative, and conditional particles usually apply to whole utterances, therefore, their typical position is at the beginning of a text.

- (2.8.13) a. *Jā, tā tas ir.*
yes so it.NOM.M be.PRS.3
 ‘Yes, that’s the case.’ (C)
- b. – *Vai tu vēl raksti*
Q you.NOM.SG still write.PRS.2SG
dzeju?
 poetry.ACC.F
 ‘Do you still write poetry?’
 – *Nē, sen vairs ne.*
no long anymore no
 ‘No, not for a long time.’ (C)
- c. *Vai tu zini,*
Q you.NOM.SG know.PRS.2SG
ko tu tikko pasūtīnāji [restorānā]?
 ‘Do you know what you have just ordered [at the restaurant]?’
 (A. Eglītis)
- d. *Kaut es varētu iekāpt tanī*
if_only I.NOM be_able.COND board.INF that.LOC.M
[kuģī]!
 [ship]
 ‘If only I could board that [ship]!’ (L. Tauns)

In spoken language, especially in colloquial speech, affirmative, negative, and interrogative particles are sometimes placed at the end of a text.

- (2.8.14) a. *Es, protams, biju laimīgs, jā.*
 I.NOM of_course be.COP.PST.1SG happy.NOM.M **yes**
 ‘I was, of course, happy, to be sure.’ (C)
- b. *Vai jums ir pazīstams šis vārds?*
Nē?
 name.NOM.M **no**
 ‘Do you know this word? No?’ (P. Bankovskis)
- c. *Taču nebūsim nodevēji, vai ne?*
 still not_be.FUT.1PL traitor.NOM.PL.M **Q** **EMPH**
 ‘Let’s not be traitors though, OK?’ (R. Ezera)

All other particles usually precede or follow the syntactic constituent to which their modal, emotional, etc. meaning relates (see examples above). Irrespective of their position in a sentence, all particles function as discourse markers, since their meaning always rests on a wider context inextricably linked to a specific communicative situation.

The negative particles *nē* ‘no’ and *ne* ‘not’ are not synonymous. The particle *nē* ‘no’ usually applies to the whole content of an utterance and is separated by a comma.

- (2.8.15) “*Vai vēlaties ceļot uz [Meksikas]*
 Q want.PRS.2PL travel.INF to [Mexico]
galvaspilsētu?”
 capital.ACC.F
 ‘Do you want to travel to the capital [of Mexico]?’
 “**Nē,** *uz Akapulko.*”
 no to Acapulco
 ‘No, to Acapulco.’ (A. Eglītis)

The particle *ne* ‘not’, by contrast, applies to a particular part of sentence, either preceding it (2.8.16) or substituting for, or pointing to, a previously mentioned negated predicate (2.8.17).

- (2.8.16) **Ne** *mirkli nešaubījos par to,*
 not moment.ACC.M not_doubt.PST.1SG about that.ACC.M
ka drošības sajūtu rada ģimene.
 ‘Not for a moment did I doubt that family gives us a sense of security.’
 (Latvijas Avīze)

- (2.8.17) a. *Meitu viņam nebija, māsu*
 daughter.GEN.PL.F he.DAT not_be.PST.3 sister.GEN.PL.F
arī ne [nebija].
 also not [not_be]
 ‘He didn’t have daughters or sisters.’ (I. Ābele)
- b. *Mēs katrs zinām, kas*
 we.NOM each.NOM.M know.PRS.1PL what.NOM
mums der un kas ne
 we.DAT suit.PRS.3 and what.NOM not
[neder].
 [not_suit]
 ‘Each of us knows what suits us and what doesn’t.’ (C)

Particles may be homonymous with adverbs (*tad* ‘then’, *jau* ‘already’, *nu* ‘now’, *vēl* ‘yet, still’), conjunctions (*arī* ‘and also, as well’, *vai* ‘or’, *lai* ‘so that’, *ne* ‘not’, *i* ‘both ... and’, *ir* ‘both ... and’, *gan* ‘both ... and’, *jo* ‘as, since’), and interjections (*ak* ‘oh’, *nu* ‘well, why’) (see Section 2.0.4).

2.9 CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are a class of function words used to connect syntactic units, such as content (lexical) words, phrases, clauses, and, at the text level, also sentences. Conjunctions do not inflect and are not included in parts of sentences (Skujiņa 2007: 332). Depending on the type of syntactic relationship they signal, conjunctions are further classified into coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions join syntactic units that are of equal syntactic importance, such as coordinated parts of sentences (2.9.1), coordinated clauses (2.9.2), independent clauses (2.9.3), and sentences (2.9.4) (Skujiņa 2007: 334).

- (2.9.1) a. *Pa dienu vēl bija saulains*
 during day.ACC.F still be.PST.3 sunny.NOM.M
un silts, bet naktīs kļuva
 and warm.NOM.M but night.LOC.PL.F become.COP.PST.3
vēsāks.
 chillier.NOM.M
 ‘The days were still sunny and warm, but nights were getting chillier.’
 (P. Bankovskis)

- b. *Rozes, neļķes un lilijas*
 rose.NOM.PL.F carnation.NOM.PL.F and lily.NOM.PL.F
vislabāk jūtas atsevišķās, nevis
 best_of_all feel.PRS.3 separate.LOC.PL.F instead_of
jauktās buketēs.
 mix.PTCP.LOC.PL.F bouquets.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Roses, carnations, and lilies feel best in separate, rather than mixed,
 bouquets.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- (2.9.2) *Un notrīs meitene,*
Kas ar vecmāmiņu iet pa ielu
Un ēd ābolu.
 and eat.PRS.3 apple.ACC.M
 ‘And the girl,
 Who is walking down the street with her grandmother
 And is eating an apple, shivers.’ (L. Tauns)

- (2.9.3) *Puķu [dārzā] ir daudz, un tās*
 flower.GEN.PL.F [garden] be.PRS.3 a_lot and they.NOM.F
zied tik koši.
 bloom.PRS.3 so colorfully
 ‘There are a lot of flowers [in the garden] and they are so colorful.’
 (A. Žigūre)

(2.9.4) [1921. gadā] *Izrādās, lielā florencieša [Dantes] darbi latviski vispār nav atdzejoti.*

Un *pēkšņi jauns atklājums – tomēr*
and suddenly new.NOM.M discovery.NOM.M after_all
ir gan!

be.AUX.PRS.3 PTCL

‘[In 1921] It turns out that the great Florentine [Dante] has never been translated into Latvian. And then all of a sudden another discovery – he has been, after all!’ (Z. Skujiņš)

Coordinating conjunctions may have one of the following meanings (Paegle 2003: 216–219):

1) cumulative or copulative

(2.9.5) a. *un* ‘and’

Viņš pirka un pārdeva mežus.
 he.NOM buy.PST.3 **and** sell.PST.3 woodland.ACC.PL.M
 ‘He bought and sold woodland.’ (I. Ābele)

b. *arī* ‘also, too’

Mūsu mājās [viesībās] arī tika dejots.
 we.GEN home.LOC.PL.F [parties] **also** get.AUX.PST.3 dance.PTCP.NOM.F
 ‘We also used to have dances at our house [during parties].’ (Jaunā Gaita)

c. *kā arī* ‘and also, as well as’

Revīzijā tika vērtēta tilta projektēšana un būvniecība, kā arī izmaksas.
 audit.NOM.F get.AUX.PST.3 assess.PTCP.NOM.F bridge.GEN.M
 design.NOM.F and construction.NOM.F **as_well_as** cost.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The audit assessed the design and construction workflow, as well as the cost of the bridge.’ (C)

d. *gan – gan* ‘both ... and’

Sēnes ir gan viensūnas, gan daudzšūnu organismi.
 fungi.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 **CONJ** single-celled.GEN.F **CONJ**
 multicellular.GEN.PL.F organism.NOM.PL.M
 ‘There are both single-celled and multicellular organisms among fungi.’ (C)

e. *ir – ir, i – i* ‘both ... and’

Tētis mīlēja ir māmiņu, ir bērņus, ir godīgu darbu.
 daddy.NOM.M love.PST.3 **both** mummy.ACC.F **and**
 child.ACC.PL.M **and** honest.ACC.M work.ACC.M
 ‘Daddy loved mummy, the children, and also honest work.’ (C)
Uz šo adresi agrāk bieži braucām i no rītiem, i pusnaktīs.
 to this.ACC.F address.ACC.F before often drive.PST.1PL
both in morning.DAT.PL.M **and** midnight.LOC.PL.F
 ‘In the past, we often drove to this address in the morning and at midnight alike.’ (I. Ābele)

- f. *ne – ne, nedz – nedz* ‘(n)either ... (n)or’
Par to vairs negribas ne runāt,
 about it.ACC.M anymore not_want.AUX.PRS.3 NEG.CONJ talk.INF
ne lasīt, ne domāt.
 NEG.CONJ read.INF NEG.CONJ think.INF
 ‘One neither wants to talk, nor read, nor think about it anymore.’ (C)
Mājās nav nedz gaļas, nedz
 home.LOC.PL.F not_be.PRS.3 neither meat.GEN.F nor
kāpostu.
 cabbage.GEN.PL.M
 ‘There is neither meat nor cabbage at home.’ (A. Eglītis)
- g. *ne vien – bet arī, ne tikai – bet arī* ‘not only / not just ... but also’
Šī ierīce uzrāda ne vien siltuma,
 this.NOM.F device.NOM.F show.PRS.3 not only heat.GEN.M
bet arī ūdens cirkulāciju.
 but also water.GEN.M circulation.ACC.F
 ‘This device keeps track of heat as well as water circulation.’ (C)
Martinam Rīgā patīk ne tikai
 Martins.DAT.M Rīga.LOC.F like.PRS.3 not only
skaistā vecpilsētā un jūgendstils, bet
 beautiful.NOM.F old_town.NOM.F and Art_Nouveau.NOM.M but
arī kultūra.
 also culture.NOM.F
 ‘What Martins likes about Rīga is not just the beauty of the Old Town and Art Nouveau, but also the culture.’ (Ir)
- h. *tiklab – kā arī* ‘equally well’
Tas var liecināt tiklab par
 that.NOM.M may.PRS.3 signify.INF as_much about
iekšējās kultūras trūkumu, kā arī par
 inner.GEN.F culture.GEN.F lack.ACC.M as also about
kaitīgu ieradumu.
 harmful.ACC.M habit.ACC.M
 ‘This may equally well indicate a lack of personal culture as a bad habit.’ (C)
- i. *kā – tā* ‘either’
Papildlaikā pie panākuma varēja tikt
 extra_period.LOC.M to success.GEN.M be_able.PST.3 get.INF
kā viena, tā otra [basketbola]
 CONJ one.NOM.F CONJ other.NOM.F [basketball]
komanda.
 team.NOM.F
 ‘Either [basketball] team could have been successful in the extra period.’ (C)

2) adversative

(2.9.6) a. *bet* 'but'

Dzīvoklis ir liels, bet tumšs.
apartment.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 large.NOM.M but dark.NOM.M
'The apartment is large but dark.' (A. Žigūre)

b. *nevis* 'instead of, rather than'

Domā par veselību, nevis [ķermeņa] svaru!
think.IMP.2SG about health.ACC.F rather_than [body]
weight.ACC.M

'Think in terms of health rather than [body] weight!' (www.delfi.lv)

c. *taču* 'however, whereas'

Veco šķirņu gurķi sausumā un karstumā kļuva rūgti, taču modernajām šķirnēm tā nenotiek.
however modern.DAT.PL.F variety.DAT.PL.F so not_happen.PRS.3
'Old varieties of cucumbers would turn bitter in dry and hot conditions, modern varieties, however, do not.' (www.mammamunteti.lv)

d. *tomēr* 'nevertheless, still, yet'

Pilsēta bija tukša, kā jau dienas vidū.

Tomēr tā bija moderna un cerīga vieta.
still that.NOM.F be.COP.PST.3 modern.NOM.F and
hopeful.NOM.F place.NOM.F

'The city was empty, as might be expected at noon. Still it was a modern place, full of hope.' (A. Eglītis)

e. *turpretī* 'whereas, on the contrary'

Uzņēmēji esot aicinājuši ministru prezidentu uz tikšanos.

Turpretī premjera preses sekretāre, whereas prime_minister.GEN.M press.GEN.F secretary.NOM.F to noliecēja.
that.ACC.M deny.PST.3

'Business owners apparently proposed a meeting with the prime minister. The prime minister's press secretary, however, denies this.' (Diena)

3) disjunctive

(2.9.7) a. *vai* 'or'

Ir pilnīgi skaidrs,

ka tas [fotogrāfijā redzamais siluets]
that that.NOM.M [photograph visible figure]

nav alnis, briedis vai stirna.
not_be.COP.PRS.3 moose.NOM.M stag.NOM.M or doe.NOM.F

'It's quite clear that this [a figure in a photograph] is not a moose, stag, or doe.' (P. Bankovskis)

- b. *vai – vai* ‘whether ... or, no matter ...’

Vai *bija* *ziema,* **vai** *vasara,*
whether be.PST.3 winter.NOM.F **or** summer.NOM.F
skujeņi slejas kā mūris.

‘Winter or summer, the conifers stood like a wall.’ (Diena)

- c. *vai nu – vai* ‘either ... or’

Es *dzīvoju* **vai nu** *tikai* *nākotnē,* **vai**
 I.NOM live.PRS.1SG **either** only future.LOC.F **or**
pagātnē.

past.LOC.F

‘I live either entirely in the future, or in the past.’ (C)

- d. *te – te* ‘now... now...’

Jūra *viļņojās* **te** *tumši* *zila,* **te**
 sea.NOM.F wave.PST.3 **now** dark blue.NOM.F **now**
neparasti *zaļa.*

unusually green.NOM.F

‘The waves came now dark blue, now unusually green.’ (C)

- e. *drīz – drīz* ‘now... now..., at one moment ... at the next ...’

Skaļu *strazdu* *bars* *apsēž*
 loud.GEN.PL.M blackbird.GEN.PL.M flock.NOM.M sit.PRS.3
pamestā *dārzā* **drīz** *vienu,*
 abandoned.LOC.M garden.LOC.M **one_moment** one.ACC.M
drīz *otru* *ķiršu* *koku.*
next_moment second.ACC.M cherry.GEN.PL.M tree.ACC.M

‘At one moment a flock of loud blackbirds in the abandoned garden sits on one cherry-tree, at the next – on another.’ (C)

- f. *nevis – bet* ‘rather than, not... but...’

Durvis *veras* **nevis** *uz* *āru,*
 door.NOM.PL.F open.PRS.3 **not** towards outside.ACC.M
bet *uz* *iekšpusi.*

but towards interior.ACC.F

‘The door opens inwards rather than outwards.’ (C)

4) explanatory

- (2.9.8) *jeb* ‘or (a.k.a.)’

Vasaras *saulgrieze* **jeb** *saulespuķe*
 summer.GEN.F helianthus.NOM.F **or** sunflower.NOM.F
ir *kurvjziežu* *dzimtas* *lakstaugs.*
 be.COP.PRS.3 daisy.GEN.PL.M family.GEN.F herbaceous.NOM.M
 ‘*Helianthus annuus*, or the sunflower, is a herbaceous plant of the daisy family.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

In Latvian, the coordinating conjunctions *vai* ‘or’ and *jeb* ‘or (a.k.a.)’ have different functions and, therefore, should not be used interchangeably: the conjunction *vai* is disjunctive (2.9.9a), whereas *jeb* is explanatory (2.9.9b).

- (2.9.9) a. *diena vai nakts* ‘day **or** night’
 b. *kadiķis jeb paeglis* ‘Juniperus communis, **or** common juniper’

Likewise, the conjunction *jeb* is not synonymous with the somewhat outdated subordinating conjunction *jebšu* ‘although, despite’.

- (2.9.10) *Viņš ir pagarš, plecīgs un, jebšu (// kaut gan) jau students, tomēr visai despite (//despite) already student.NOM.M yet rather vienkāršs [jauneklis].*
 simple.NOM.M [young_man]
 ‘He is tallish, broad-shouldered and, despite already being a student, [a] rather simple [young man].’ (www.letonika.lv)

However, in mass media and other contemporary texts, the conjunction *jebšu* ‘although, despite’ is sometimes used instead of the conjunction *jeb* ‘or (a.k.a.)’ (and also instead of *vai* ‘or’), possibly because it is seen as an interesting, unusual means of expression, i.e., a stylistic device.

- (2.9.11) *Nauda kāzu dāvanā jebšu (correct: jeb) or [kāzu viesiem] palika bēdīgi.*
 [wedding guest] become.PST.3 sad
 ‘Money as a wedding gift or this made us [the guests] sad.’ (www.precos.lv)

Subordinating conjunctions are used to connect a subordinate clause to the main clause of a sentence (2.9.12a-b) or to join one or several dependent clauses to an independent clause (which may be the main clause of a sentence or another subordinate clause) (2.9.12c) (Skujiņa 2007: 273).

- (2.9.12) a. *Man šķita, ka tas nav iespējams.*
 I.DAT seem.PST.3 **that** it.NOM.M not_be.COP.PRS.3 possible
 ‘I didn’t think it was possible.’ (Diena)
 b. *Ja būvuzraugs nebūtu apjucis, viņš varētu man samelot, ka tieši tajā ēkas apšuvumā vietā that exactly that.LOC.F [building paneling] spot.LOC.F tehniku iemeslu dēļ vienai technical.GEN.PL.M reason.GEN.PL.M because_of one.DAT.F plāksnei mala šaurāka.*
 panel.DAT.F edge.NOM.F narrow.NOM.CMP.F
 ‘If it weren’t for the confusion, the construction supervisor could have lied to me that one of the panels having a narrower edge in that particular spot [of the façade paneling] was a technical necessity.’ (A. Eglītis)

- c. **Lai gan** *nevar* *sacīt,* **ka** *tas* *[stāsts]*
although not_be_able.PRS.3 say.INF **that** it.NOM.M [story]
būtu bijis literārs
 be.AUX.COND be.COP.PTCP.NOM.M literary.NOM.M
sacerējums ar augstu vērtību,
 composition.NOM.M with high.INS.F value.INS.F
muīžas īpašniekam piemita raita stāstītāja dotumi.
 ‘Although it [the story] could not be said to be a work of great literary merit, the lord of the manor had the makings of a fluent storyteller.’
 (P. Bankovskis)

Subordinating conjunctions can express the following meanings (Paegle 2003: 219–220):

1) purpose

- (2.9.13) *lai* ‘in order that, so as to, so that’

Emocijas jāpazīst,
lai *tās* *kļūtu* *vieglāk kontrolējamās.*
so_that it.NOM.PL.F become.COP.COND easier control.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
 ‘One should learn about one’s emotions so that they become easier to control.’ (C)

2) condition

- (2.9.14) *ja* ‘if, unless, provided that’

Ja *bērnu* *ved* *pirmo* *reizi* *klausities*
if child.ACC.M take.PRS.3 first.ACC.DEF.F time.ACC.F listen.INF
operu,
 opera.ACC.F
tai jābūt ļoti augstā izpildījumā.
 ‘If you take a child to the opera for the first time, it should be a really sublime performance.’ (Latvijas Avīze)

3) cause

- (2.9.15) a. *tā kā* ‘since, as’

Tā kā *tuvojās* *sēdes* *beigas,*
so as get_nearer.PST.3 meeting.GEN.F end.NOM.F
deputāti nebija noskaņoti turpināt diskutēšanu.
 ‘Since the meeting was nearing its end, the MPs didn’t seem disposed to continue the discussion.’ (C)

- b. *tāpēc ka, tādēļ ka* ‘because’

Šie cilvēki neprāto par zemākām [dzīvokļu] cenām nākotnē,
tāpēc ka *īpašums* *viņiem* *vajadzīgs*
because property.NOM.M they.DAT.M needed.NOM.M
dzīvošanai tūlīt.
 living.DAT.F right_now
 ‘These people don’t speculate about lower [apartment] prices in the future, because they need somewhere to live right now.’ (C)

Šo [darba plānošanas] kļūdu ir nepieciešams labot,
tādēļ ka tā nav tikai
because it.NOM.F not_be.COP.PRS.3 only
 tehniska.
 technical.NOM.F

‘This [task planning] error ought to be corrected, because it’s not just a technicality.’ (C)

4) consequence

(2.9.16) *tā ka* ‘therefore, hence, so’

Vārti [dārzam] ir gana plati,

tā ka arī lielais pašizgāzējs varēs
so that also large.NOM.M lorry.NOM.M be_able.FUT.3
 tikt iekšā.
 get.INF inside.LOC.F

‘The [garden] gates are wide enough, so that even the large lorry will be able to get inside.’ (C)

5) reason, justification

(2.9.17) *jo* ‘as, for the reason that’

Pamest galvaspilsētu nebija žēl,

jo mani vienmēr saistījuši lauki.
as I.ACC always fascinate.PTCP.NOM.PL.M countryside.NOM.PL.M

‘I wasn’t sorry to leave the capital, as I have always been fascinated by the countryside.’ (C)

6) concession

(2.9.18) a. *kaut* ‘even though’, *kaut gan* ‘although, though’, *kaut arī* ‘even if’
Sniega šogad nav,

kaut tuvojas jau Ziemassvētki.
even approach.PRS.3 already Christmas.NOM.PL.M

‘There is no snow this year, even though Christmas is just around the corner.’ (C)

Bieži esmu neizlēmīgs,

kaut gan no malas tā nešķiet.
even_though from side.GEN.F so not_seem.PRS.3

‘I am often indecisive, although it is not apparent to others.’ (C)

Tāču kritiens,

kaut arī no neliela augstuma,
even_if from not_large.GEN.M height.GEN.M

bija diezgan neveiksmīgs.

‘However, it was a rather unfortunate fall, even if not from a great height.’ (C)

- b. *lai gan* ‘although, despite’, *lai arī* ‘although, despite’
Lai gan *acis* *ir* *ciet*,
although eye.NOM.PL.F be.PRS.3 closed
miegs tomēr vēl nenāk.
 ‘Although my eyes are closed, I’m still not tired.’ (C)
Tēvs, lai arī svešzemnieks,
 father.NOM.M **even_though** foreigner.NOM.M
bija ļoti cienīts ārsts.
 ‘My father, despite being a foreigner, was a very well-respected doctor.’ (C)

7) comparison

- (2.9.19) *jo – jo* ‘the ... the’

Jo *ātrāk* *mēs* *tiekam* *no* *šejiēnes* *projām*,
CONJ sooner we.NOM get.PRS.1PL of here.GEN.F away
jo *labāk.*
CONJ better

‘The sooner we get out of here, the better.’ (A. Eglītis)

The subordinating conjunctions *ka*, *lai*, *vai* are considered to be semantically neutral when they are used to introduce the following types of subordinate clauses:

1) attributive clauses

- (2.9.20) *Žanis* *bija* *secinājis* **ka** *vislabāk*
 Žanis.NOM.M be.AUX.PST.3 conclude.PTCP.NOM.M **that** best
ir *dzīvi* *iedalīt* *posmos*,
 be.COP.PRS life.ACC.F divide.INF stage.LOC.PL.M
kas sākas un beidzas.
 ‘Žanis had concluded that life was best divided into stages, each with a beginning and an end.’ (Jaunā Gaita)’

2) object clauses

- (2.9.21) a. *Šajā brīdī sapratu,*
ka *atpakaļceļa* *vairs* *nav.*
that return.GEN.M anymore not_be.PRS.3
 ‘At that moment I realized that there was no going back.’ (C)
 b. *Es* *negribu,* **lai** *jūs* *domājat,*
 I.NOM not_want.PRS.1SG **SUB** you.NOM.PL think.PRS.2PL
ka izliekos.
 ‘I don’t want you to think that I am pretending.’ (www.arterritory.com)
 c. *Dodoties prom un nezinot,*
vai *kādreiz* *vēl* *atgriezīšos* *[dzimtenē],*
whether ever still return.FUT.1SG *[faherland]*
es gribēju apciemot vecākus.
 ‘Going away and not knowing whether I was ever going to come back [to my country], I wanted to visit my parents.’ (P. Bankovskis)

3) subject clauses

- (2.9.22) *Iespējams, ka jums taisnība.*
 possible.NOM.M **that** you.DAT.PL truth.NOM.F
 ‘You may be right.’ (C)

In addition, the conjunction *ka* ‘that’ can be used to express the cause of something being a certain way:

- (2.9.23) *Labi, ka darba kolektīvs jauks un atbalstošs.*
 well **that** work.GEN.M collective.NOM.M nice.NOM.M and
 supportive.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It’s a good thing that the staff are nice and supportive.’ (C)

When introducing subordinate clauses, the adverb *kad* ‘when’ should not be confused with, i.e., used instead of, the subordinating conjunction *ka* ‘that’:

- (2.9.24) a. *Nu gadās,*
kad (correct: *ka*) [*dēls*] *aizmirst piezvanīt ...*
when (correct: *that*) [son] forget.PRS.3 call.INF
 ‘Well, there are times when [my son] forgets to call ...’ (C)
- b. *Es, protams, ļoti atvainojos,*
kad (correct: *ka*) *aizkavēju jūsu*
when (correct: *that*) keep.PRS.1SG you.GEN.PL
uzmanību.
 attention.ACC.F
 ‘I am, of course, very sorry to have kept your attention [for so long].’ (C)

Kad ‘when’ is an adverb of time and it therefore usually introduces subordinate clauses of time (2.9.25), whereas the conjunction *ka* ‘that’ is used for attributive, object, subject, and other subordinate clauses (see examples (2.9.21)–(2.9.23)).

- (2.9.25) a. *Ko darīt, kad ārā liš?*
 what do.INF **when** outside rain.PRS.3
 ‘What to do when it’s raining outside?’ (www.tvnet.lv)
- b. *Kad Mintauts neko neteica,*
when Mintauts.NOM.M nothing.ACC not_say.PST.3
profesors runāja vien tālāk.
 ‘When Mintauts didn’t say anything the professor just kept on talking.’
 (A. Eglītis)

In Latvian, a conjunction may consist of a single word (*un* ‘and’, *bet* ‘but’, *ja* ‘if’, *ka* ‘that’, *lai* ‘in order to, so’, *jo* ‘as’), a correlative pair (*gan – gan* ‘both ... and’, *ne – ne* ‘(n)either ... (n)or’, *jo – jo* ‘the ... the ...’, *nedz – nedz* ‘(n)either ... (n)or’) or of several words (*kā arī* ‘and also, as well as’, *kaut arī* ‘even if’, *lai gan* ‘although, despite’, *tāpēc ka* ‘because’, *tā ka* ‘therefore, hence, so’, *ne vien – bet arī* ‘not only / not just ... but also’, *tiklab – kā arī* ‘equally well’).

In addition, some particles may function as coordinating (2.9.26) or subordinating (2.9.27) conjunctions, e.g.:

(2.9.26) a. *tikai* ‘only’

Jezups nekad nebija juties piederīgs pie šīs dzīves,

tikai *Marcela* *samierināja* *viņu* *ar*
only Marcela.NOM.F reconcile.PST.3 he.ACC with
īkdienu.

everyday.INS.F

‘Jezups had never felt like he belonged in this life, only Marcela was able to reconcile him with everyday existence.’ (I. Ābele)

b. *toties* ‘but, at the same time’

Šķiedrvielas nedod kalorijas,

toties *izdara* *daudz* *ko* *citu*
but do.PRS.3 many what.ACC other.ACC.M
noderīgu.

useful.ACC.M

‘Fiber has no caloric value but it does many other useful things.’

(www.delfi.lv)

c. *vienīgi*

Vecmāmiņa ir laipna,

vienīgi *melnā* *kleita* *un*
only black.NOM.F dress.NOM.F and
mežģīņu *aube* *padara* *viņu* *ļoti*
lace.GEN.PL.F bonnet.NOM.F make.PRS.3 she.ACC very
cienīgu.

dignified.ACC.F

‘The grandmother is kind, only the black dress and the lace bonnet give her a very dignified look.’ (A. Žigūre)

(2.9.27) *it kā, itin kā* ‘as if, as though’

Vējš viņiem pūta mugurā,

it kā *kaut kur* *dzītu.*
as_if somewhere chase.COND

‘The wind was blowing on their backs, as if chasing them away.’ (C)

Finally, the relative pronouns *kas* ‘who, what, which, that’, *kurš* ‘who, which, that (M SG)’, and *kāds* ‘which (M SG)’ (see Section 2.7.6), as well as a number of adverbs, such as *kad* ‘when’, *kur* ‘where’, *kā* ‘how’, *cik* ‘how much’, can be used as subordinating conjunctions (see Section 2.9; for details on conjunction words see 3.5.2).

2.10 INTERJECTIONS

Interjections are lexical units used to communicate the speaker's emotions (2.10.1a), volition (2.10.1b), or to express (reproduce) the sounds of the world (2.10.1c) (Kalnača 2011a: 95).

- (2.10.1) a. **Ai,** *jasmīns* *uzziedējis!*
ah *jasmine.NOM.M* *bloom.PTCP.NOM.M*
 'Ah, the jasmine has bloomed!' (C)
- b. **Ei!** *Pagaidi!*
hey *wait.IMP.2SG*
 'Hey! Wait!' (C)
- c. **Apči! Apči!** – *Tobiass* *šķaudīja* *gandrīz*
achoo achoo *Tobias.NOM.M* *sneeze.PST.3* *almost*
pēc katra soļa.
after every.GEN.M step.GEN.M
 'Achoo! Achoo! – Tobias sneezed almost after every step.' (C)

The class of interjections also covers greetings and polite expressions such as *labrīt* 'good morning!', *labdien* 'good afternoon!', *labvakar* 'good evening!', *ar labu nakti* 'good night!', *sveiki* 'hello!', *sveicināti* 'how do you do?', *uz redzēšanos* 'bye!', *visu labu* 'all the best!', *ardievu* 'farewell!', *atā* 'so long!, ta-ta!', *lūdzu* 'please', *paldies* 'thanks!', *pateicos* 'thank you!', *tencinu* 'thank you!', *atvainojos* 'I'm sorry!', *atvainojiet* 'excuse me!', *piedod* 'sorry!', *piedodiet* 'I beg your pardon!, (please) forgive me!'.

- (2.10.2) a. **Labrīt** *vēl jūlijā!*
good_morning *still July.LOC.M*
 'Good morning while it's still July!' (Diena)
- b. **Es** *tas esmu.* **Labvakar!**
I.NOM that.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.1SG **good_evening**
 'That'd be me. Good evening!' (M. Ziverts)
- c. **Sveiki,** *kā jums klājas?*
hello *how you.DAT.PL do.PRS.3*
 'Hello, how do you do?' (www.lsm.lv)
- d. **Ardievu,** *Laine.*
farewell *Laine.NOM.F*
 'Farewell, Laine.' (M. Zālīte)
- e. **Atā,** *cisīni!*
so_long *sausage.NOM.PL.M*
 'So long, sausages!' (Diena)
- f. **Pastāstiet,** *lūdzu, sīkāk par šo projektu.*
tell.IMP.2PL please in_more_detail about this.ACC.M project.ACC.M
 'Please, tell [us] more about this project.' (C)
- g. **Paldies** *par uzmanību!*
thank_you *for attention.ACC.F*
 'Thank you for your attention!' (C)

- h. **Piedodiet, Durbes kundze, ka ierodos**
forgive_me Durbe.GEN.F madam.NOM.F that arrive.PRS.1SG
jūsu mājā.
 you.GEN.PL home.LOC.F
 ‘Please forgive me, Mrs. Durbe, for visiting you at your home.’
 (A. Eglītis)

Generally, interjections do not inflect and are not involved in the syntactic structure of sentences. Interjections function as discourse markers and are always stressed and separated by a pause in oral speech or delimited by a comma (2.10.3a), dash (2.10.3b), or an exclamation mark (2.10.3c) in writing.

- (2.10.3) a. **Atā, tēt.**
ta-ta dad.VOC.M
 ‘Ta-ta, daddy.’ (C)
- b. **Noskanēja – bliukš! – un terīne, pārsprāgusi uz**
 sound.PST.3 **bang** and tureen.NOM.F crack.PTCP.NOM.F in
pusēm, gulēja uz grīdas.
 half.DAT.PL.F lay.PST.3 on floor.GEN.F
 ‘And then – bang – the tureen, having cracked in half, lay on the floor.’
 (CW)
- c. **Ā! Tas esat jūs! Labvakar!**
a-ha it.NOM.M be.COP.2.PL you.NOM.PL **good_evening**
 A-ha! It’s you! Good evening!’ (A. Eglītis)

Semantically, interjections are closely linked to the speech or writing (rhetorical) situation in which they occur. That is to say, one and the same interjection can be used to express very different meanings depending on the speaker’s feelings. For instance, the interjection *ai* ‘oh’ may convey pleasure (2.10.4a), surprise (2.10.4b), or disbelief (2.10.4c).

- (2.10.4) a. **Ai, ai, cik tad bija labi!**
oh oh how then be.COP.PST.3 good
 ‘Oh, oh, what great times those were!’ (C)
- b. **Paskatījos uz savām kājām,**
ai, es biju piebradājis
oh I.NOM be.AUX.PST.1SG trample_down.PTCP.NOM.M
balto, pūkaino grīdsegu.
 white.ACC.F fluffy.ACC.F carpet.ACC.F
 ‘I looked at my feet, oh, I had left footprints on the white, fluffy carpet.’ (C)
- c. **Ai, nu ko tu tur**
eh PTCL what.ACC you.NOM.SG PTCL
runā?
 say.PRS.2SG
 ‘Eh, why do you say that?’ (C)

On the whole, interjections can express four kinds of meanings:

1) emotions and sensations

- (2.10.5) a. *Joprojām esmu bez ziemas jakas. Brr!*
 still be.PRS.1SG without winter.GEN.F jacket.GEN.F **brr**
 ‘I still don’t have a winter jacket. Brr!’ (C)
- b. *Ehē, tie taču kokosrieksti!*
aha that.NOM.PL.M PTCL coconut.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Aha, if those aren’t coconuts!’ (C)

2) attitude, evaluation

- (2.10.6) a. *Piecas meitas [ir mūsu ģimenē].*
Re, *kā dzīvē gadās!*
look how life.LOC.F happen.PRS.3
 ‘Five daughters [in our family]. Look, how things go in life!’ (I. Ābele)
- b. *Vai dienīn, kas tik mūžā*
oh day.VOC.F what.NOM PTCL lifetime.LOC.M
nav darīts!
 not_be.AUX.PRS.3 do.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Dear me, I’ve done all kinds of things in my life!’ (R. Ezera)

3) volition

- (2.10.7) a. *Labi, es ķeros pie darba [grīdu*
ok I.NOM get_down_to.PRS.1SG to work.GEN.M [floor
krāsošanas].
 painting]
 ‘OK, I’m getting to work [painting the floor].’ (G. Priede)
- b. *Kad no sētas puses atskanēja:*
 when from backyard.GEN.F side.GEN.F sound.PST.3
 – *U-ū-ū!* –, *vajadzēja dzīt govīs mājās.*
o-o-oo have_to.PST.3 drive.INF cow.ACC.PL.F home.LOC.PL.F
 ‘“O-o-oo!” coming from the backyard meant that the cows had to be
 driven home.’ (V. Belševica)

4) sound imitation, or onomatopoeia – unlike other types of interjections, imitative interjections are basically monosemous and are used to depict (reproduce) specific sounds occurring in nature or produced by humans or animals

- (2.10.8) *apči* ‘achoo’, *čiv čiv* ‘chirp’, *ku-kū* ‘cuckoo’, *ņau* ‘meow’, *vau* ‘woof’, *pēk-pēk* ‘quack’, *mū* ‘moo’, *iā* ‘hee haw’, *bladāc* ‘bam, wham, boom, fa-thud’, *džinks* ‘ding’, *plunkš* ‘plop’, *krakš* ‘crack’, *krā* ‘caw’, *tfū* ‘ptui (ptooey)’, *zliukš* ‘snip snap, swish, swoosh’, *žvīks* ‘zing’
- a. – *Phe!* – *nicīgi izsaucās vecais kungs.*
pshaw scornfully exclaim.PST.3 old.NOM.M gentleman.NOM.M
 ‘– Pshaw! – the old gentleman scornfully exclaimed.’ (I. Ābele)

- b. – **Ņau!** – *teica kaķis, baltgalvītis.*
meow say.PST.3 cat.NOM.M white_head.NOM.M
 ‘– Meow! – the white-headed cat said.’ (C)
- c. – **Bē!** – *Jēriņš teica un paskurināja līpu.*
baa lamb.NOM.M say.PST.3 and wag.PST.3 tail.ACC.F
 ‘– Baa! – said the lamb and wagged its tail.’ (V. Belševica)
- d. *Paldies jums, vegāni, saka gotiņas.*
 thank you.DAT.PL vegan.NOM.PL.M say.PRS.3 COW.NOM.PL.F
Mū mū!
moo moo
 ‘Thank you, vegans, the cows say. Moo moo!’ (C)
- e. **Bladāc,** *piezemējos sniega kaudzē.*
bam land.PST.1SG snow.GEN.M pile.LOC.F
 ‘Bam, I landed in a pile of snow.’ (C)
- f. *Un dažbrīd pagriežienos [vilciena riteņi]*
 and sometimes turn.LOC.PL.M [train wheel]
ieskanas. Šņirkt, šņirkt.
 resound.PRS.3 clack clack
 ‘And sometimes, at turns, [the wheels of the train] would clack.
 Clickety-clack.’ (C)

Interjections usually occur at the beginning of a sentence or text as an introductory element, i.e., as a semantically and grammatically undifferentiated sentence expressing, on a very generic level, the speaker’s emotions or reaction to a previous event or remark. The text that follows, then, provides more specific, elaborate information.

- (2.10.9) a. **Vai,** *kāds skaists kaķis!*
aww what_kind beautiful.NOM.M cat.NOM.M
 ‘Aww, what an adorable cat!’ (C)
- b. **Pag,** *kas tā par skaņu?*
hey what.NOM that.NOM.F of sound.ACC.F
 ‘Hey, what’s that sound?’ (R. Ezera)
- c. – **Re,** *ka tev bail!*
see PTCL you.DAT.SG afraid
 – *smējās Anita [kad Bille bija nokāpusi no koka].*
 ‘See, you are afraid, after all! – Anita laughed [when Bille had climbed down from the tree].’ (V. Belševica)

Interjections can also be used to evaluate and summarize, in which case they are placed at the end of a sentence or text.

- (2.10.10) a. *Tur ir durvis, lūdzu!*
 there be.PRS.3 door.NOM.PL.F **here_you_are**
 ‘The door is right there, help yourself!’ (G. Priede)

- b. *Tikai vēsturnieki to [valdnieka vārdu]*
 only historian.NOM.PL.M that.ACC.M [ruler name]
atceras. Tā, lūk.
 remember.PRS.3 so look
 ‘Only historians remember it [the ruler’s name]. That’s how the story goes.’ (C)
- c. *Ūdenī viņš met mazus*
 water.LOC.M he.NOM throw.PRS.3 small.ACC.PL.M
akmentiņus. Plunkš, plunkš, plunkš.
 pebble.ACC.PL.M plop plop plop
 ‘He throws pebbles into the water. Plop, plop, plop.’ (C)

When used in the middle of a sentence, interjections function a bit like particles, either adding modality-related shades of meaning to the content of an utterance or emphasizing information that might be important to the speaker or the addressee.

- (2.10.11) a. *Kumoss pa kumosam un, skat, jau*
 bite.NOM.M by bite.DAT.M and look already
esi pārēdies ..
 be.AUX.PRS.2SG overeat.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Bite by bite and, there you are, you have already eaten too much ..’ (C)
- b. *Te pēkšņi viņam ieniezējās deguns un*
 here suddenly he.DAT itch.PST.3 nose.NOM.M and
viņš – apči! – nošķaudījās.
 he.NOM achoo sneeze.PST.3
 ‘He suddenly felt a tickling sensation in his nose and – achoo! – sneezed.’ (C)
- c. *Kā, Dievs pasargi, viņi ar*
 how God.NOM.M protect.IMP.2SG they.NOM.M with
to [parāda atmaksu] tiks
 that.INS.F [debt repayment] get.FUT.3
galā?
 end.LOC.M
 ‘And how, God forbid, will they manage [to repay the debt]?’ (C)

Etymologically, interjections can be classified into several groups.

- 1) primary interjections – *ai* ‘oh’, *ak* ‘oh’, *ei* ‘hey’, *ū* ‘meaning defined by intonation and context’, *tpr* ‘whoa’, *ā-ū* ‘cooee’, *aijā* ‘rock-a-bye’, *ūjā* ‘heh, ooh, oho, gee’, *kukū* ‘cuckoo’, *ai ai* ‘tut-tut, tsk tsk’, etc.

- (2.10.12) a. *Ak, mēs malači!*
 yay we.NOM successful_person.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Yay, we did great!’ (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Ei, vai te kāds ir?*
 hey Q here anybody.NOM.M be.PRS.3
 ‘Hey, is there anybody here?’ (C)

c. *Skropstu* *tuša –* *ū,* *super,* *kāda*
 eyelash.GEN.PL.M mascara.NOM.F **wow** super what.NOM.F
līka *birstīte!*
 curved.NOM.F brush.NOM.F

‘Mascara – wow, super, what a curved brush!’ (C)

d. *Ē,* *bet* *varbūt* *viņš* *var* *nokāpt*
er but maybe he.NOM be_able.PRS.3 go_down.INF
pāgrabā *paskatīties,*
 basement.LOC.M look.INF
kāpēc nav ūdens.

‘Er, maybe he can go down to the basement and check why there is no water.’ (C)

e. *Ai* *ai,* *tomēr* *tu* *esi* *divkosis!*
tut tut yet you.NOM.SG be.COP.PRS.2SG hypocrite.NOM.M
 ‘Tut-tut, you are a hypocrite, after all.’ (C)

- 2) secondary interjections formed by zero-derivation from certain forms of content words (often, from the vocative form of a noun (2.10.13a) or its nominative form functioning as the vocative (2.10.13b), also from the 2SG (2.10.14a-b), 2PL (2.10.14c) imperative and other forms of a verb (2.10.14d), or the nominative form of an adjective (2.10.15)), as well as from adverbs (2.10.16) and word groups (2.10.17).

(2.10.13) a. *Jēziņ,* *nu* *kas* *te* *notiek?*
jeez PTCL what.NOM here happen.PRS.3
 ‘Jeez, what’s happening here?’ (Diena)

b. *Ak* *kungs,* *kā* *Nellija* *uztraucas!*
 oh **Lord.NOM.M** how Nellija.NOM.F worry.PRS.3
 ‘Oh my Lord, Nellija looks so nervous!’ (C)

(2.10.14) a. *Klau,* *man* *ir* *nepieciešama* *tava*
look I.DAT be.COP.PRS necessary.PTCP.NOM.F your.NOM.F
palīdzība.
 help.NOM.F
 ‘Look, I need your help.’ (C)

b. *Redzi,* *bērns,* *dzīvi* *skaistu*
see child.NOM.M life.ACC.F beautiful.ACC.F
dara *atklātība*
 make.PRS.3 openness.NOM.F
un *godīgums.*
 and honesty.NOM.M

‘You see, child, openness and honesty are what make this life beautiful.’ (G. Priede)

c. *Piedodiet,* *skolotāj!*
forgive teacher.VOC.M
 ‘Forgive me, teacher.’ (V. Belševica)

- d. *Lūdzu, parādiet dokumentus!*
please show.IMP.2PL document.ACC.PL.M
 ‘Show me your documents, please!’ (C)
- (2.10.15) a. *Flīlip! Sveiks!*
 Philip.VOC.M **howdy**
 ‘Philip! Howdy!’ (A. Eglītis)
- b. *Vesels, brāl!*
cheers brother.VOC.M
Daudz laimes!
 ‘Cheers, brother! Congratulations!’ (www.draugiem.lv)
- (2.10.16) a. *Tikai nesāc ķildu, labi!*
 just not_start.IMP.2SG fight.ACC.F **ok**
 ‘Just don’t start a fight, OK!’ (M. Zīverts)
- b. *Žēl, bet atpakaļceļā vairs*
unfortunately but return.GEN.M anymore
nav.
 not_be.PRS.3
 ‘Unfortunately, there’s no turning back.’ (G. Priede)
- (2.10.17) a. *Jūs atkal traucē Sibilla Švirkste,*
 you.ACC.PL again disturb.PRS.3 Sibilla.NOM.F Švirkste.NOM.F
labdien.
hello
 ‘It’s Sibilla Švirkste intruding on you again, good afternoon.’
 (G. Priede)
- b. *Pie joda, kur tu staigā?*
bloody_hell where you.NOM.SG wander.PRS.2SG
 ‘Bloody hell, where have you been wandering?’ (I. Ābele)
- c. *Ak tu debesīņ! Bille iemācīsies*
good_heavens Bille.NOM.F learn.FUT.3
[vācu valodu] viens un divi,
 [german language] one.NOM and two.NOM
viņai viegla galva.
 ‘Good heavens! Bille will master [German] in no time, she has a good head for it.’ (V. Belševica)
- d. *Neapmierināts klients, velns parāvis.*
 not_satisfy.PTCP.NOM.M customer.NOM.M **damn_it**
 ‘A dissatisfied customer, damn it.’ (C)

Some interjections may have undergone articulatorily motivated changes – shortening (clipping) (2.10.18) or shortening with subsequent merging, i.e., compounding (2.10.19), e.g.:

- (2.10.18) a. *klau* ‘look!, listen!, look here!’ < *klausies* ‘listen’ (IMP 2SG)
 b. *paga* ‘hey!, wait!’ < *pagaidi* ‘wait’ (IMP 2SG)

- (2.10.19) a. *eku* ‘look!, there it goes!’ < *redzi* ‘see’ (IMP 2SG) + *kur* ‘where’
 b. *vaizi* ‘you know’ < *vai* ‘if, whether’ + *zini* ‘know’ (IND 2SG)
 ‘do you know?’
 c. *vadzi* ‘listen!, look here!’ < *vai* ‘if, whether’ + *dzirdi* ‘hear’ (IND 2SG)
 ‘do you hear?’
 d. *āre* ‘aha, you see!’ < *ā* ‘ah!’ + *redzi* ‘see’ (IMP 2SG)
 e. *paldies* ‘thanks!’ < *palīdzī* ‘help’ (IMP 2SG) + *Dievs* ‘God’ (NOM SG)
 f. *labdien* ‘good afternoon!’ < *labu dienu* ‘good afternoon’ (INS)

Finally, there are a number of borrowed interjections, such as *marš* ‘go!, off you go!, mil. march!, forward!’, *kuš* ‘shh!’, *urrā* ‘hurrah!, hooray!’ (2.10.20). Some borrowed interjections are mostly used in colloquial speech, e.g., *opsā* ‘meaning is highly context-dependent, e.g., uh-oh!, whoops!, but also alley-oop!’, *čau* ‘hi!, bye!, ciao!’, *davai* ‘come on!, let’s [do it]!, bring it on!’ (2.10.21):

- (2.10.20) a. *Un tagad, marš, klasē!*
 and now **off_you_go** classroom.LOC.F
 ‘And now, off you go to the classroom!’ (C)
 b. *Sveiciens Lainei 2 gadu*
 greeting.NOM.PL.M Laine.DAT.F 2 year.GEN.PL.M
 jubilejā!! Urrā!!!
 birthday.LOC.F **Hurrah!!!**
 ‘Greetings to Laine on her second birthday!! Hurrah!!!’ (C)
 c. *Kuš! Tūlīt runās prezidente!*
 shh now speak.FUT.3 president.NOM.F
 ‘Shh! The president is about to speak!’ (C)
- (2.10.21) a. *Opsā... Visai sarežģīta situācija.*
 uh-oh... quite complicate.PTCP.NOM.F situation.NOM.F
 ‘Uh-oh... That’s quite a complicated situation.’ (CW)
 b. *Dairi, čau!*
 Dairis.VOC.M **hi**
 ‘Dairis, hi!’ (G. Priede)
 c. *Davai, kaut ko darām!*
 come_on something.ACC do.IMP.1PL
 ‘Come on, let’s do something!’ (C)

3. SYNTAX

3.0 Introductory remarks

3.0.1 Syntactic subsystems

The system of syntax can be divided into three subsystems: the simple sentence, the composite sentence, and text. Latvian research into syntax also proposes that word syntax (Kārklīņš 1976: 9) and phrase syntax be treated as separate subfields or levels of syntax (Ahero et al. 1962: IX–X). Nevertheless, the word or the word form is a component of the minimal syntactic unit or an element of a syntactic unit, as these do not act as units of syntax by themselves. The phrase, in its turn, is a non-predicative syntactic unit, as it cannot accomplish the function of communication on its own. It reflects the relationships between the realia, but it is not connected to the speech situation or the speaker's judgment of the situation, therefore its main function is to provide the building material for the sentence. The role of the phrase in the development of a sentence will be discussed in the chapters dealing with the extenders of the simple sentence.

The main subsystem of syntax is the syntax of the simple sentence. **The simple sentence** is a predicative syntactic unit, developed on the basis of several syntactically connected word forms, or a single word form based on a specific model (Skujiņa 2007: 447). **The composite sentence** is a combination of several predicative units formed on the basis of a syntactic relation or a polypredicative unit (Skujiņa 2007: 341). The basis of a composite sentence is also a specific model. **Text** is a logically structured conceptually connected body of utterances, aimed at achieving a communicative goal (Skujiņa 2007: 392). Text syntax establishes the units of the text, namely the utterances and the phrasal units, studies their structural changes in reaction to the context and the communicative situation as well as the syntactic and contextual relations developing between the textual units.

3.0.2 Syntactic relations

Syntactic units usually consist of several components. Although a simple sentence can be based on a single component, it can also be expanded, thus every sentence is a potentially multi-componential unit.

A syntactic relation describes a relation between word forms, words, and predicative units (sentences or clauses) that form the bases of the syntactical unit: the sentence, the phrase, the text (Skujiņa 2007: 359).

Syntactic relations have their formal and informal indicators. To establish the existence of the syntactic relations between word forms or predicative units, the formal indicator is the safest criterion. Nevertheless, we cannot say that syntactic relations are solely based on formal indicators, as syntactic relations can exist also without any formal indications in syntactic units – sentences and phrases.

The means for expressing the syntactic relations in Latvian are as follows:

- 1) word forms (for example, the case forms of nouns; the gender, number, and case forms of adjectives; the person and number of the verb);
- 2) prepositions;
- 3) conjunctions and conjunctive words – the functional substitutes of the conjunctions;
- 4) word order in the cases when the same grammatical form can accomplish different syntactic functions, for example, the subject of the sentence in the dative precedes the object:

- (3.0.1) a. *Kas man jums jāiedod?*
what.NOM I.DAT you.DAT.PL DEB.give
'What do I have to give you?' (A. Kolbergs)
- b. *Tev rīt būs man jāiedod savs numurs.*
you.DAT.SG tomorrow be.AUX.FUT.3 I.DAT DEB.give
own.NOM.M number.NOM.M
'Tomorrow you will have to give me your number.' (P. Bankovskis)

The noun in the nominative can take on different syntactic functions depending on word order:

- (3.0.2) *Māksla kā pretošanās un pretošanās*
art.NOM.F as resistance.NOM.F and resistance.NOM.F
kā māksla.
as art.NOM.F
'Art as a form resistance and resistance as a form of art.'
(www.barikades.lv)

The word order, as the indicator of syntactic relations, is signaled by the fact that the syntactically related word forms are positioned in the sentence next to each other, especially in the cases when there are no other formal indicators of the syntactic relations.

5) in spoken text – syntagmatic parsing connects syntactically related word forms in one syntagm or intonationally separated unit; this is shown using punctuation marks in a written text, compare (3.0.3a) and (3.0.3b):

- (3.0.3) a. *Kārtīgs latvju puika dzied,*
proper. NOM.M Latvian.GEN.PL.M guy.NOM.M sing.PRS.3
labi sporto un dejo!
well do_sports.PRS.3 and dance.PRS.3
'A proper Latvian guy sings, does well in sports, and dances!'
(www.jaunjelgavasvidusskola.lv)
- b. *Kārtīgs latvju puika dzied*
proper.NOM.M Latvian.GEN.PL.M guy.NOM.M sing.PRS.3
labi, sporto un dejo!
well do_sports.PRS.3 and dance.PRS.3
'A proper Latvian guy sings well, does sports, and dances!'

Different paradigmatic criteria can be used to establish syntactic relations, for example, the analogy of the syntactic position. If in the sentence (3.0.4a), the word *gaidīšana* 'waiting' is the subject of the sentence, analogically the same function will be accomplished by the infinitive form in the sentence (3.0.4b):

- (3.0.4) a. *Reizēm gaidīšana ir labākais.*
sometimes **waiting.NOM.F** be.COP.PRS.3 good.NOM.SPL.M
'Sometimes waiting is the best part.' (www.delfi.lv)
- b. *Reizēm gaidīt ir labākais.*
sometimes **wait.INF** be.COP.PRS.3 good.NOM.SPL.M
'Sometimes it is best to wait.'

The principle of analogy is used also in the cases when not only the subject of the sentence, but also the predicate is formally changed, but keep the same semantic function. The bolded forms in examples (3.0.5) to (3.0.6) are the subject of the sentence:

- (3.0.5) a. *Pusaudžu nodarbināšana ir*
teenager.GEN.PL.M **employment.NOM.F** be.AUX.PRS.3
pieļaujama.
allow.PTCP.NOM.F
'Employment of teenagers is allowed.' (www.lm.gov.lv)
- b. ***Nodarbināt** pusaudžus ir pieļaujams.*
employ.INF teenager.ACC.PL.M be.AUX.PRS.3 allow.PTCP.NOM.M
'It is allowed to employ teenagers.'
- (3.0.6) a. *Pie mums ir sniegs.*
at we.DAT be.PRS.3 **snow.NOM.M**
'We have snow here.' (www.facebook.com)
- b. *Pie mums sniega nav.*
at we.DAT **snow.GEN.M** not_be.PRS.3
'We do not have any snow here.'

The types of syntactic relations

The **predicative relation** exists between the subject and the predicate of the sentence; it forms the basic syntactic unit – the simple sentence (Skujiņa 2007: 307). The predicative nucleus of the sentence is the predicate, as its grammatical categories – tense and modality – express the predicativity. Several syntactic theories consider the predicate as the main semantic unit of the sentence, with the subject of the sentence being one of the arguments of the predicate. However, there are several reasons to consider the subject of the sentence as a part of the syntactic center.

Firstly, the subject of the sentence is a compulsory extension of the predicative nucleus in the sentences with a bipartite structure.

Secondly, the distinction between the subject of the sentence and the other arguments is signaled by the agreement between the forms of the subject and predicate in most cases. The formal dependence between the subject and the predicate of the sentence is two-directional: the subject of the sentence determines the gender, number, and person of the predicate, but the predicate demands the subject of the sentence be in a particular case.

The form of the predicate thus depends on the form of the subject of the sentence, but not on the direct extralinguistic reality:

- (3.0.7) a. *Es esmu rakstījis par to*
I.NOM be.AUX.PRS.1SG write.PTCP.NOM.M about it.ACC.M
jau iepriekš.
already before
'I already have written about this before.' (A. Dripe)
- b. *Organizācijas ir rakstījušas*
organization.NOM.PL.F be.AUX.PRS.3 write.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
valdībai vēstules.
government.DAT.F letter.ACC.PL.F
'Organizations have written letters to the government.' (www.providus.lv)

The case of the subject of the sentence, in its turn, depends on the lexico-grammatical nature and grammatical form of the predicate. Three-person verbs occur with the nominative case, in contrast to impersonal verbs, which cannot occur with the nominative case:

- (3.0.8) *Es gribu pateikt paldies.*
I.NOM want.PRS.1SG say.INF thank_you
'I would like to say thank you.' (www.draugiem.lv)
- (3.0.9) *Man gribas lidot.*
I.DAT want.PRS.3 fly.INF
'I want to fly.' (www.dziesmas.lv)

The nominative case does not occur with the infinitive:

- (3.0.10) *Tev to nesaprast.*
you.DAT.SG it.ACC.M not_understand.INF
'You would not understand.' (www.dziesmas.lv)

There are several verbs for which the subject of the sentence is in the genitive case:

- (3.0.11) a. *Šeit tevis nav.*
 here you.GEN.SG not_be.PRS.3
 ‘You are not here.’ (www.dziesmas.lv)
- b. *Man tevis nepietiek.*
 I.DAT you.GEN.SG not_be_enough.PRS.3
 ‘I have not had enough of you.’ (www.dziesmas.lv)

Thus, on the basis of the agreement between the forms, the predicative agreement is two-directional. We can also say that it is the subject of the sentence that is in control of agreement, and the predicate that is in control of the semantic and grammatical categories of the sentence.

The **secondary predicative and adjunctive relations** are the syntactic relations, on the basis of which the extenders can join the simple sentence. Both types of syntactic relations are similar, as the dependent word form is joined not to a single word, but to a predicative unit or a phrase. The **secondary predicate** joins the sentence on the basis of the secondary predicative relation, but the **adjuncts** join the sentence on the basis of the adjunctive relation or relation of sentence determination. In sentence (3.0.12), the secondary predicate *miglains* ‘foggy’ joins the predicative unit *rīts atausa* ‘dawn broke’.

- (3.0.12) *Pārgājiena rīts atausa miglains.*
 hike.GEN.M morning.NOM.M break.PST.3 foggy.NOM.M
 ‘The dawn broke foggy on the day of the hike.’ (Z. Ērgle)

In (3.0.13), the secondary predicate *par vadītāju* ‘as manager’ is related to both the components of the phrase *iecelt viņu* ‘to appoint her’ simultaneously.

- (3.0.13) *Šodien domes deputāti*
 today council.GEN.F member_of_council.NOM.PL.M
iecēla viņu par bērnodārza
 appoint.PST.3 she.ACC PREP kindergarten.GEN.M
vadītāju.
 manager.ACC.F
 ‘Today the members of the local council appointed her as manager of the kindergarten.’ (www.aprinkis.lv)

The secondary predicate possesses an additional or secondary predication, i.e., the meaning of tense and modality, and this can be transformed into a separate predicative unit:

- (3.0.14) *Rīts atausa + Rīts*
 morning.NOM.M break.PST.3 morning.NOM.M
bija miglains.
 be.COP.PST.3 foggy.NOM.M
 ‘The day broke + The morning was foggy.’

Thus, the characteristic feature of the secondary predicate is its capability to form a second, hidden syntactic center.

The adjuncts or sentence determiners (see Mel'chuk 1995: 139; Skujiņa 2007: 86) are the so called free sentence extenders: the parts of the sentence that are not related syntactically to any word in the sentence, but refer to the sentence as a whole. For example, the adverbial modifiers (mostly those of time and place) can refer to the whole sentence, especially if positioned at the beginning of the sentence:

- (3.0.15) *Vakarpusē vēja brāzmas pierims.*
 evening.LOC.F wind.GEN.M gust.NOM.PL.F subside.FUT.3
 'In the evening, the gusts of wind will subside.' (www.nra.lv)

Subordination and coordination form a traditional opposition in syntactic research. In **subordination**, the dependent component is joined to the independent one, thus, their functions in the sentence are different (Skujiņa 2007: 273). For example, if a subordinate phrase is introduced into the sentence, the independent component cannot be dismissed without the dependent word, compare (3.0.16a) and (3.0.16b):

- (3.0.16) a. *Igauņi ir pieņēmuši*
 Estonian.NOM.PL.M be.AUX.PRS.3 accept.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
labus lēmumus.
 good.ACC.PL.M decision.ACC.PL.M
 'The Estonians have made good decisions.' (www.delfi.lv)
- b. **Igauņi ir pieņēmuši*
 Estonian.NOM.PL.M be.AUX.PRS.3 accept.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
labus.
 good.ACC.PL.M
 'The Estonians have made good...'

In **coordination**, the components are syntactically equal, thus they have the same functions in the sentence (Skujiņa 2007: 335). If a coordinative phrase or its components are introduced in a sentence, they adopt the same syntactic position and we can dismiss any of them:

- (3.0.17) *Jauks un patikams vīrietis*
 nice.NOM.M and pleasant.NOM.M man.NOM.M
meklē draudzeni.
 look_for.PRS.3 girlfriend.ACC.F
 'A nice and pleasant man is looking for a girlfriend.' (www.viss.lv)

Both subordination and coordination are implemented in several syntactic subsystems. Phrases, which function in simple sentences, are built on the basis of subordination and coordination. Subordination and coordination dominate in the relations of a composite sentence.

3.1 The simple sentence as a mono-predicative syntactic unit

3.1.1 The main features of the simple sentence

The simple sentence is the main unit of syntax, and the syntax of the simple sentence is the most important subsystem of syntax.

The two characteristic features of the simple sentence are its communicative function and a certain structural organization pattern. The simple sentence can be defined as a minimal predicative unit formed by a single word form, or several syntactically related word forms, based on a particular model (Valdmanis 1985: 69).

Thus, firstly, every single sentence informs about something, as it is a communicative unit. Secondly, every simple sentence is based on a generalized, abstract pattern, on the basis of which the particular sentence is built. The sentence reflects in a generalized way a real, typified situation. The sentence is independent from the context or the communicative situation, thus it is both structurally and semantically complete. The abstract pattern or the model of the sentence can be described using formal and semantic features, thus we can speak about its formal structure and semantic structure.

To indicate a particular sentence, the term *utterance* is used. The utterance as a speech unit possesses not only formal and semantic structures, but also a particular communicative structure. The utterance is aimed at a particular speech situation and it is integrated into the context (Skujiņa 2007: 173). The essential features of the utterance are, for example, the particular word order and, in the spoken text, its intonation. Therefore, the structure of the simple sentence can be discussed with respect to three aspects: its formal structure, its semantic structure, and its communicative structure.

3.1.2 Predicativity as the main grammatical feature of the simple sentence

Predicativity is the main grammatical meaning of the sentence, which relates the sentence to the speech situation and makes it a unit of communication. Predicativity is an obligatory feature of the simple sentence. It shows the attitude of the contents to reality and expresses itself as the unity of the two obligatory sentence categories: **the syntactic tense** and **the syntactic modality** (Skujiņa 2007: 307). Namely, every particular sentence describes the particular situation simultaneously assessing it from the point of view of reality/irreality and placing it in time with regard to the time of the speech event. The simple sentence has a single predicative nucleus; therefore it is a mono-predicative unit.

The predicative relation is only one of the ways in which predicativity manifests. The sentence possesses predicativity even if there is no overt subject, as in (3.1.1) and (3.1.2), or no overt predicate, as in (3.1.3):

- (3.1.1) *Tur taču ir tumšs!*
there however be.COP.PRS.3 dark.NOM.M
'But it is dark there!' (C)

- (3.1.2) *Kādreiz* *jau* *vajag* *priecāties* *arī.*
 sometimes just need.PRS.3 be_happy.INF too
 ‘Sometimes one just needs to be happy, too.’ (C)
- (3.1.3) *Mēģinājumi* *katru* *dienu.*
 rehearsals.NOM.PL.M every day.ACC.F
 ‘Rehearsals every day.’ (*Diena*)

Syntactic expression of tense

The category of syntactic tense is connected to the morphological tense category of the verb (see Section 2.5.3); however, the two are not identical. Syntactic tense is a broader term than morphological tense, as the sentence can have a tense even when there is no overt predicate present, as in (3.1.4):

- (3.1.4) *Izbrīns* *mātes* *tumšzaļās*
 surprise.NOM.M mother.GEN.F dark_green.LOC.PL.F
acīs.
 eye.LOC.PL.F
 ‘The surprise in mother’s dark green eyes.’ (I. Ābele)

The syntactic tense can be expressed by lexical means, i.e., the adverbial modifiers of time, as in (3.1.5):

- (3.1.5) *Es* *rīt* *braucu* *uz* *Parīzi.*
 I.NOM tomorrow go.PRS.1SG to Paris.ACC.F
 ‘I am going to Paris tomorrow.’ (C)

The syntactic tense opposition is a three-member opposition: present – past – future. To establish the syntactic tense of the event reflected in the sentence, it is important to establish the relationship between the time of the event in relation to the speech time, regardless of the finite form of the verb. Thus, for example, (3.1.5) is in the syntactic future.

Syntactic modality

The meaning of the modality as well as the meaning of the tense is related to the speech situation and expresses the attitude of the contents of the sentence towards reality from the point of view of the speaker or as assessed by the speaker.

Syntactic modality is based on the concept of reality/irreality, thus the syntactic modality is a binary opposition: *realis* – *irrealis*. The *irrealis* meanings can differ: expressing a need, wish, possibility, order, suggestion, etc.

The basis of syntactic modality is formed by the morphological mood category of the verb (see Section 2.5.4), but both of these categories are not identical. The verb form system participates in the expression of the syntactic modality: the *realis* modality is expressed with the help of the indicative mood, the *irrealis* modality with the help of all the other moods (Freimane 1985: 17). Nevertheless, the *realis* modality is also present in sentences where there is no overt predicate:

- (3.1.6) *Acis lielas un gudras.*
 eye.NOM.PL.F big.NOM.PL.F and clever.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The eyes are big and clever.’ (I. Ābele)

Modal verbs and modal particles also participate in the expression of the syntactic modality. (3.1.7) and (3.1.8) are in the *irrealis* syntactic modality, although the predicative nucleus contains a finite verb form in the indicative mood:

- (3.1.7) *Viņa laikam grib naudu.*
 she.NOM probably want.PRS.3 money.ACC.F
 ‘She may want some money.’ (C)

- (3.1.8) *Nāksies likt lietā mazu viltību.*
 must.FUT.3 put.INF to_use little.ACC.F cunning.ACC.F
 ‘We will have to be a little cunning here.’ (C)

Syntactic person

The main word form in the sentence is the finite form of the verb, therefore, in Latvian linguistics, it is often defined as the form that embodies the grammatical category of the person (Kalnača 2013c: 459). From this we can conclude that the syntactic person should be an obligatory sentence category. Nevertheless, the conception of the syntactic person is problematic.

At present, the syntactic person is perceived in two ways: it can be considered as 1) the grammatical subject of the sentence or 2) any word representing some agent (Freimane 2008: 85).

If the person’s conception is semantic, namely, if the syntactic person is the word representing the agent or the experiencer, then the person is not an obligatory trait of the sentence, as there are many kinds of sentence patterns, which do not contain either the agent or the experiencer, as in (3.1.9) to (3.1.11):

- (3.1.9) *Barga ziema.*
 harsh.NOM.F winter.NOM.F
 ‘A harsh winter.’ (C)

- (3.1.10) *Jau viegli krēslo.*
 already lightly dusk.PRS.3
 ‘Dusk is already falling.’ (C)

- (3.1.11) *Saule būs silta un maiga.*
 sun.NOM.F be.COP.FUT.3 warm.NOM.F and gentle.NOM.F
 ‘The sun will be warm and gentle.’ (C)

If we consider the subject of the sentence as the syntactic person, even then the person is not an obligatory feature of the sentence, as in (3.1.12) and (3.1.13):

- (3.1.12) *Ik pa brīdim puteņo.*
 PTCL PREP while snow.PRS.3
 ‘Every few moments there is a snow flurry.’ (C)

(3.1.13) *Ārā ir auksts.*
 outside be.COP.PRS.3 cold.NOM.M
 'It is cold outside.' (C)

Thus, whichever conception of the person we presume, it is an optional feature of the sentence.

The meaning of the person (in contrast with the tense and mood) is not contained only in the finite verb, but also in the personal pronoun. Therefore, the sentence can express meanings of several persons. The syntactic person can contrast with the morphological person (see Section 2.5.2), for example:

(3.1.14) *Bet vai tev vajag eksperimentēt?*
 But Q you.DAT.SG need.PRS.3 experiment.INF
 'But do you need to experiment?' (C)

The verb *vajag* 'need' in (3.1.14) is in its third person form, but the sentence itself has a syntactic second person meaning. (3.1.15) has a syntactic third person meaning, although the predicate is in the infinitive, which does not have the meaning of a person:

(3.1.15) *Visiem stāt!*
 everyone.DAT.PL stop.INF
 'Everyone stop!' (www.delfi.lv)

Thus, the meaning of the person is not part of the complex that forms the predicativity.

3.2 Formal structure of the simple sentence

3.2.0 Introductory remarks

The description of the formal structure of the simple sentence is based on the study of the typical pattern, which forms the basis of any sentence structure. The formal organization of the simple sentence involves the system of the sentence forms or its paradigm, and the types of sentence expansion. In the description of the formal structure of the sentence, however, one cannot completely ignore the semantics of the sentence and its components.

3.2.1 Simple sentence patterns

The sentence is formed by word forms. The word form separately or together with another word form is part of a sentence. The pattern of the simple sentence is a generalized and abstract model, formed by the necessary minimum of the components. The sentence pattern is part of every speaker's consciousness and is materialized in the communications process with the help of the words of the particular lexical meanings and the particular morphological forms (Freimane 1985: 21).

The aim of sentence pattern theory is to establish the necessary minimum of components for particular sentence types, so that these sentences can perform their main functions: communication and expression of thought also outside of their immediate context (Valdmanis 1987: 73).

In the description of the simple sentence pattern it is useful to distinguish between the **minimal pattern** or the **predicative minimum** and the **expanded pattern** or the **semantic minimum** (Skujiņa 2007: 445). The predicative and the semantic minimum can be considered as separate stages in the process of the development of the sentence structure.

The minimal pattern of the simple sentence

The **predicative minimum** is necessary so that the sentence could be a syntactically formed predicative unit. At this level of high abstraction, it is not important if this structural minimum can form a complete communicative unit. Thus, for example, (3.2.1) and (3.2.2), formed on the basis of the minimal pattern, are complete in the semantic sense:

(3.2.1) *Un iestājas nakts.*
and set_in.PRS.3 night.NOM.F
'And night sets in.' (www.facebook.com)

(3.2.2) *Krēslo.*
dusk.PRS.3
'Dusk is falling.' (C)

(3.2.3), formed on the basis of the minimal pattern, is not semantically complete and cannot function as an independent communicative unit.

(3.2.3) *Lūdzu, atnes!*
please bring.IMP.2SG
'Could you please bring it here!' (www.twitter.com)

The **principal parts** of the sentence – the subject and the predicate – are the components of the predicative minimum. A sentence formed only by the components of the minimal pattern is traditionally called the **simple unexpanded sentence** (Skujiņa 2007: 446).

On the basis of quantity, we can distinguish two types of syntactic centers:

1) the unexpanded syntactic center and 2) the expanded syntactic center. In the unexpanded syntactic center there is only one sentence subject and sentence predicate. In the expanded syntactic center there are several coordinated subjects (3.2.4) or predicates (3.2.5 and 3.2.6) in a coordinated relationship (Freimane 1985: 22–23):

(3.2.4) *Nedz es, nedz kāds cits nezina,*
neither I.NOM nor anybody.NOM.M else.NOM.M not_know.PRS.3
vai Dievs man lēmis atgriešanos.
if god.NOM.M I.DAT decide.PTCP.PST.3 return.ACC.F
'Neither I nor anybody else knows if God has destined me to return.'
(G. Berelis)

- (3.2.5) *Viņa nebija un arī negribēja*
 she.NOM not_be.COP.PST.3 and also not_want.PST.3
būt raudīga.
 be.COP.INF tearful.NOM.F

‘She was not and did not want to be tearful.’ (Ē. Kūlis)

- (3.2.6) *Ausainē bija silti un labi.*
 fur_hat.LOC.F be.COP.PST.3 warm and nice

‘It was nice and warm in the fur hat.’ (C)

There are different possibilities for forming real sentences or semantically complete communication units on the basis of minimal patterns. Firstly, there are patterns which permit free development of complete, context independent unexpanded sentences with different lexical means of implementation where the co-occurrence of the words depends mostly on extralinguistic factors. For example, on the basis of the $N_{\text{NOM}} - V_{\text{FIN,COP}} \text{ADJ}$ pattern, one can form different sentences without semantic limitations:

- (3.2.7) *Seja ir sarkana.*
 face.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 red.NOM.F

‘The face is red.’ (C)

- (3.2.8) *Pamazām laiks kļūst siltāks.*
 slowly weather.NOM.M become.COP.PRS.3 warmer

‘The weather is slowly warming up.’ (C)

Secondly, there are patterns, on the basis of which one can form unexpanded sentences only with words from particular semantic groups. For example, the pattern $N_{\text{NOM}} - V_{\text{FIN}}$ permits unexpanded sentences if the predicate is an intransitive verb. If the verb is transitive, the pattern has to be expanded with the name of the object in the accusative:

- (3.2.9) *Mana puķe pazaudēja vienu ērkšķi.*
 my.NOM.F flower.NOM.F lost.PST.3 one.ACC.M
 thorn.ACC.M

‘My flower lost one thorn.’ (C)

Thirdly, there are minimal patterns which do not permit unexpanded sentences, thus, extenders are an obligatory condition of sentence formation in such cases. For example, the sentences based on the single component pattern $V_{\text{FIN}3}$, naming the phenomena connected with auditory or gustatory perception, involve an extender with an adverbial meaning:

- (3.2.10) *Pie durvīm zvana.*
 at door.DAT.PL.F ring.PRS.3
 ‘Someone is ringing at the door.’ (C)

- (3.2.11) *Tur patikami smaržo pēc svaigas*
there pleasantly smell.PRS.3 of fresh.GEN.F
koksnes
 wood.GEN.F
 ‘It smells pleasantly of fresh wood there.’ (C)

The sentences based on the same pattern describing a state involve extenders describing the experiencer:

- (3.2.12) *Man šausmīgi salst.*
I.DAT terribly be_cold.PRS.3
 ‘I am terribly cold.’ (C)
- (3.2.13) *Kur tev sāp?*
 where **you.DAT** hurt.PRS.3
 ‘Where does it hurt?’ (C)
- (3.2.14) *Tagad veicas tikai tirgoņiem.*
 now fare.PRS.3 only **trader.DAT.PL.M**
 ‘Now it is only traders who are in luck.’ (C)

Therefore, the question of the necessary expanded model or the issue of semantic completeness is an important question with regard to the syntax of the simple sentence.

Expanded pattern of the simple sentence

The components that are necessary to make the sentence into a semantically complete communication unit are part of the expanded simple sentence pattern. From this point of view, all the informationally necessary components are considered to be substantial and, thus, an obligatory part of the pattern (see Freimane 1985, 2008; Kārklīņš 1974, 1976; Lagzdīņa 1997; Lokmane 2004; Valdmanis 1987, 1989). In contrast, the optional non-obligatory extenders express meanings that are not crucial components in the expression of the conceptual structure of the sentence. They do enrich the meaning of the sentence, but do not participate in the formation of the semantic type of the sentence.

Obligatory extenders do not differ from optional extenders either with respect to formal characteristics or their semantic relation to the predicate. Nevertheless, the non-obligatory extenders have more variability in both their formal and semantic features.

The grammatical minimum together with the obligatory extenders form the **semantic minimum**. The degree of abstraction of the expanded pattern is lesser, therefore, the lexical semantics of the verb gain more importance. The degree of obligation for having extenders depends on different factors. Firstly, it can depend on the general semantic features which form the meaning of the verb (rarely, other parts of speech), for example, transitivity, movement, or the particularities of the semantics of the lexeme. Secondly, the degree of obligation is dependent on

the semantics of the arguments involved, that is their semantic roles have different degrees of importance. The most important or the central semantic roles (for example, agent and patient) are syntactically obligatory more often than the less important or more peripheral roles (Lokmane 2004). Thirdly, the degree of obligation can depend on the peculiarities of the syntactic center, especially, if it consists of a single component, for example:

- (3.2.15) *Pretiniekam pašam ir bail.*
 opponent.DAT.M self.DAT.M be.COP.PRS.3 afraid
 ‘The opponent is himself afraid.’ (C)

- (3.2.16) *Uz melniem ceļgaliem – baltas stiegrainas plaukstas.*
 on black.DAT.PL.M knee.DAT.PL.M white.NOM.PL.F
 sinuous.NOM.PL.F palm.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The white, sinuous palms on the black knees.’ (Diena)

It is the direct object in the accusative that is obligatory in combination with the transitive verbs (see Section 2.5.6). Usually, it has the role of the patient (3.2.17), but it can also have other roles, for example, the role of the percept (3.2.18) or content (3.2.19):

- (3.2.17) *Nocirtām lielu, vecu meža ābeli.*
 cut_down. PST.1PL big.ACC.F old.ACC.F forest.GEN.M
 apple_tree.ACC.F
 ‘We cut down a big, old crab apple tree.’ (C)

- (3.2.18) *Viņš apskatīja senču dzimtās vietas.*
 he.NOM view.PST.3 ancestor.GEN.PL.M native.ACC.PL.F
 place.ACC.PL.F
 ‘He visited the native places of his ancestors.’ (C)

- (3.2.19) *Šo stāstu izdomāja indiāņi.*
 this.ACC.M story.ACC.M invent.PST.3 Indian.NOM.PL.M
 ‘This story was invented by the Indians.’ (C)

Transitive verbs with the meaning of ‘to be able to carry out a particular activity’ are used without the accusative, but the sentence is usually expanded with the help of an adverbial modifier:

- (3.2.20) *Mani abi bērni peld jau pāris gadus.*
 my.NOM.PL.M both.NOM.PL.M child.NOM.PL.M
 swim.PRS.3 already couple.NOM.PL.M year.ACC.PL.M
 ‘Both of my children have been swimming already for a couple of years.’
 (www.bdaugava.lv)

If the object is generic, adverbial modifiers are characteristic extenders of the sentence, too:

- (3.2.21) *Es lasiju ilgi, lēni un pamatīgi.*
 I.NOM read.PST.1SG long slowly and thoroughly
 ‘I was reading for a long time, slowly, and thoroughly.’ (A. Kolbergs)

The roles of the direct object in linguistic communication are very important, as there are many actions that are carried out with the help of different objects and cannot be accomplished without them. As the direct objects can be of various kinds, they are not obvious or deducible from the meaning of the verb, thus, the addressee can not identify them unless they are verbalized or named.

The obligatory indirect object is the extender in the dative, which usually has the semantic role of the beneficiary:

- (3.2.22) *Vai tev palīdzēja kādi eksperti?*
 Q you.DAT.SG help.PST.3 any.NOM.PL.M expert.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Did you get help from any experts?’ (C)

Usually the indirect object is obligatory when the direct object is absent from the sentence.

An obligatory component with an adverbial meaning expresses place (3.2.23), time (3.2.24), or the type of action (3.2.25):

- (3.2.23) *Prezidents atrodas ārpus valsts.*
 president.NOM.M be_located.PRS.3 outside
 country.GEN.F
 ‘The President is outside the country.’ (C)

- (3.2.24) *Nu tā nopļāpājām līdz pusnaktij.*
 PTCL so prattle.PST.1PL until midnight.DAT.F
 ‘Well then, we have prattled until midnight.’ (C)

- (3.2.25) *Suns uzvedās kārtīgi.*
 dog.NOM.M behave.PST.3 orderly
 ‘The dog was behaving itself.’ (C)

The obligatory presence of the components with an adverbial meaning in the sentence usually depends on the lexical semantics of the predicate, as in (3.2.26) and (3.2.27):

- (3.2.26) *Viņi apmetās pie kupa bērza.*
 they.NOM.PL.M settle_down.PST.3 by
 with_dense_foliage.GEN.M birch_tree.GEN.M
 ‘They settled down by the birch tree with dense foliage.’ (C)

- (3.2.27) *Rucavieši rīkojās prātīgāk.*
 inhabitant_of_Rucava.NOM.PL.M act.PST.3 sensibly.CMP
 ‘The inhabitants of Rucava acted in a more sensible way.’ (C)

The obligatory use of adverbs in subjectless sentences can be dictated not by the single lexeme, but by the pattern of the sentence itself. For example, the characteristics of a place are often needed in describing a state:

(3.2.28) *Tur ir kluss un mierīgs.*
there be.COP.PRS.3 quiet.NOM.M and calm.NOM.M
 ‘It is calm and quiet there.’ (C)

(3.2.29) *Ārā sāka krēslot.*
outside start.PST.3 dusk.INF
 ‘The dusk began to fall outside.’ (C)

An obligatory extender describing a place, suggests that the name of the agent should not be searched for in this context, as it is evident or is not important:

(3.2.30) *Visapkārt brišķēja un šalca, kauca un gaudoja.*
all_around crackle.PST.3 and rustle.PST.3 howl.PST.3 and
 wail.PST.3
 ‘It was crackling and rustling, howling and wailing all around us.’
 (maxima-library.org)

If the action has an animate agent not mentioned in the sentence, the adverb assigns a grammatically unequivocal meaning to the form of the verb, i.e., that of a generic person (Freimane 1985: 21):

(3.2.31) *Šeit runā daudzās nesaprotamās lietās.*
here speak.PRS.3 many.ACC.PL.F
 incomprehensible.ACC.PL.F thing.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Here people talk about many puzzling things.’ (C)

Characterization of the place is obligatory in most potentially verbal sentences:

(3.2.32) *Turpat arī Didžejs, skaists un bīstams cilvēks.*
there also DeeJay.NOM.M handsome.NOM.M
 and dangerous.NOM.M person.NOM.M
 ‘DeeJay was there too, a handsome and a dangerous person.’ (J. Joņevs)

The dative-marked adjunct with the meaning of the experiencer is obligatory in (3.2.33):

(3.2.33) *Jums veicas.*
you.DAT.PL do_well.PRS.3
 ‘You are lucky.’ (C)

In a communicative situation, the role of the experiencer is among the most substantial. If the state experienced by somebody is named, then it is important also to name the experiencer, unless it is clear from the situation or the context. Naming the experiencer depends not so much on the lexical meaning of the verb (or some

other word), as on the situation being described and the structure of the sentence in general, as the experienced states can be expressed not only in verbal, but also in adverbial and nominal sentences:

(3.2.34) *Šoreiz vecākiem būs interesanti.*
 this_time parent.DAT.PL.M be.COP.FUT.3 interesting
 ‘This time it will be interesting for the parents.’ (C)

(3.2.35) *Man ir silts.*
 I.DAT be.COP.PRS.3 warm.NOM.M
 ‘I am warm.’ (C)

There are sentences where the presence of one of the two possible extenders is obligatory. In these cases, we can apply the concept of quasi-obligation (see Freimane 1983: 47), for example:

(3.2.36) *Ausīs /auss džinkst.*
 ear.LOC.PL.F/NOM.F ring.PRS.3
 ‘There is ringing in the ears.’ (www.dzivei.lv)

(3.2.37) *Galvā /galva dun.*
 head.LOC.F/NOM.F boom.PRS.3
 ‘There is booming in the head.’ (www.termorelax.com)

In some cases, both extenders can be implemented simultaneously, but it is not obligatory:

(3.2.38) *Tehnika kalpo ilgi /*
 technology.NOM.F serve.PRS.3 for_a_long_time
kā kredīta garants.
 as loan.GEN.M guarantee.NOM.M
 ‘The technology serves as security for the loan / for a long time.’ (C)

(3.2.39) *Viņa samaksāja par maizes kukuli /*
 she.NOM pay.PST.3 for bread.GEN.F loaf.ACC.M
bargu naudu / vietējam fermerim.
 harsh.ACC.F money.ACC.F local.DAT.M farmer.DAT.M
 ‘She paid the local farmer / a huge sum of money / for the loaf of bread.’ (C)

Quasi-obligatory extenders can be found in sentences naming states:

(3.2.40) *Visiem / te ir interesanti.*
 everyone.DAT.PL.M here be.COP.PRS.3 interesting
 ‘For everyone / it interesting here.’ (www.vaduguns.lv)

(3.2.41) *Man / istabā ir karsti.*
 I.DAT room.LOC.F be.COP.PRS.3 hot
 ‘For me / it is hot in the room.’ (www.calis.delfi.lv)

Thus, we can conclude that from the perspective of efficiency of communication, it is important not to overdo the verbalization of the components. If one is named,

the others are either known to the addressee, are obvious or not important, or can be partly deduced from the named component. Therefore, the number of obligatory extenders does not exceed one.

Presenting a complete list of the expanded patterns is not possible at the current stage of study of Latvian syntax, due to several reasons. Firstly, syntactic obligatoriness cannot be analyzed as a sentence category independently of the context or situation. The speaker chooses to verbalize the most important components of the situation, but the components that are deducible from the situation do not need to be verbalized. Thus, obligatoriness mainly depends on the communicative situation: the aim of the speaker, the addressee's knowledge and capability to identify the participants of the situation. The absence of certain components makes us interpret the sentence as one which is closely related to the communicative situation:

(3.2.42) *Salst.*

freeze.PRS.3

'It is cold [to the speaker].' (C)

(3.2.43) *Ir labi un mierīgi.*

be.COP.PRS.3 good and quiet

'It is good and quiet [to the speaker].' (C)

(3.2.44) *Bet ir silts.*

But be.COP.PRS.3 warm.NOM.M

'But it is warm [here].' (C)

(3.2.45) *Viņa ir tālu.*

she.NOM be.COP.PRS.3 far

'She is far away [from the speaker].' (S. Kaldupe)

(3.2.42) to (3.2.45), however, cannot be considered as semantically incomplete. Thus, secondly, the syntactic obligation has different levels; we cannot speak of a binary opposition: obligatory – non-obligatory. The level of obligation depends on the nature of the situation described (which is generally reflected in the language through the verb meanings and sentence types), but mostly it depends on the speaker's interpretation of the needs of communication. Thirdly, because of the low level of abstraction of the sentence patterns, their number would be exceedingly large.

A list of simple sentence patterns in Latvian is given in Section 3.2.7 as a summary of a detailed description of basic predicate and subject types.

3.2.2 Basic sentence types

The basic sentence type characterizes the contents of the minimal pattern of a simple sentence. There are two basic sentence types in Latvian: the canonical bipartite sentence and the single-component subjectless sentence.

The bipartite sentence minimum consists of a subject and a predicate (Skujiņa 2007: 96). The predicate is the more important component as it expresses predicativity.

Typically, the predicate is formed by a finite verb form with its tense and modality directly related to the expression of predicativity.

The bipartite sentence predicate is syntactically related to the subject of the sentence in a predicative relation. As stated before, the special status of the subject in a sentence is derived from the fact that in most cases it agrees with the predicate, therefore, the subject participates in the formation of the syntactic center of the sentence. If none of the word forms agree with the predicate, then semantic and paradigmatic criteria are used to establish the syntactic center of the sentence. As the bipartite sentence is the main sentence type in Latvian, it will be discussed in detail in later sections focused on morphological sentence types.

A subjectless sentence consists of one main part of the sentence without any formal reference to the second possible part of the syntactic center (Skujiņa 2007: 447). The single component pattern is formed with invariable word forms, which are strictly predetermined from the point of view of person, number, gender, and case. The subjectless pattern is a common, although less characteristic, type of pattern in Latvian. Subjectless sentences are used to describe states and processes occurring of their own accord, without an agent, and the causes of which are unknown or unimportant to the speaker. The main semantic domains of subjectless sentences are natural phenomena, spontaneous bodily functions, or phenomena associated with one's inner world.

On the basis of the semantic and formal differences among predicates and their typical extenders, the following subjectless sentence types have been established for Latvian.

- 1) Sentences describing different natural processes (astronomical and meteorological phenomena):

(3.2.46) *Pēdējoreiz lija krietni pirms*
 last_time rain.PST.3 considerably before
Jāņiem.
 Midsummer's_Day.DAT.PL.M
 'The last time it rained was long before Midsummer's Day.' (C)

(3.2.47) *Tā mīlīgi miglo.*
 so tenderly become_misty.PRS.3
 'The mist is gently descending.' (C)

(3.2.48) *Laukā jau krēsloja.*
 outside already darken.PST.3
 'It was already twilight outside.' (C)

- 2) Sentences describing phenomena perceived through hearing (3.2.49), smell (3.2.50), and, less often, vision (3.2.51, 3.2.52):

(3.2.49) *Visapkārt dun, rib un dārd.*
 all_around boom.PRS.3 ramble.PRS.3 and roll.PRS.3
 'It is booming, rambling, and rolling all around.' (C)

(3.2.50) *Gaisā smaržo pēc Havannas liķiera.*
 air.LOC.M smell.PRS.3 PREP Havana.GEN.F liqueur.GEN.M
 ‘There is a scent of Havana liqueur in the air.’ (C)

(3.2.51) *Kaut kur pie Smiltenes gaisos nozibsnija balti.*
 somewhere by Smiltene.GEN.F air.LOC.PL.M flash.PST.3
 whitely.
 ‘Somewhere near Smiltene there was a white flash in the air.’
 (L. Muktupāvela)

(3.2.52) *Tai mājā spokojas.*
 that.LOC.F house.LOC.F haunt.PRS.3
 ‘That house is haunted.’ (C)

3) Sentences describing physical sensations or mental states:

(3.2.53) *Galvā dunēja.*
 head.LOC.F boom.PST.3
 ‘(His) head was booming.’ (C)

(3.2.54) *Gurnos divaini kņudēja.*
 loin.LOC.PL.M oddly tingle.PST.3
 ‘There was a strange tingling in (his) loins.’ (C)

(3.2.55) *Man jau bērnībā bija bail no zirgiem.*
 I.DAT already childhood.LOC.F be.COP.PST.3 afraid of
 horse.DAT.PL.M
 ‘I have been afraid of horses since childhood.’ (C)

4) Sentences describing involuntary processes connected with human existence:

(3.2.56) *Man vienkārši laimējās.*
 I.DAT simply be_lucky.PST.3.
 ‘I was just lucky.’ (C)

(3.2.57) *Kā tev, draudzīn, klājas?*
 how you.DAT friend.DIM.VOC.M do.PRS.3
 ‘How are you, my friend?’ (C)

5) Sentences with a generic or unspecified agent and a predicate in the passive voice:

(3.2.58) *Skolas koncertā tika dejots labāk nekā rajona skatē.*
 school.GEN.F concert.LOC.M get.AUX.PST.3 dance.PTCP.NOM.M
 good.CMP than district.GEN.M competition.LOC.F
 ‘There was better dancing at the school concert than in the regional competition.’ (C)

(3.2.59) *Šajā gadā tiks aktīvi*
 this.LOC.M year.LOC.M get.AUX.FUT.3 actively
strādāts.
 work.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘There will be a lot of hard work done this year.’ (C)

(3.2.60) *Uz koncertiem vispār sen*
 to concert.DAT.PL.M at_all for_a_long_time
nav būts. (C)
 not_be.AUX.PRS.3 be.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘One has not been to any concerts at all lately.’

Sentences with a generic or unspecified agent and a predicate in the third person are borderline cases between subjectless and bipartite sentences:

(3.2.61) a. *Priekšā runā citādi kā aiz muguras.*
 in_front **speak.PRS.3** differently than behind back.GEN.F
 ‘They say things differently in front of you than behind your back.’ (C)

(3.2.62) a. *No tālienes var dzirdēt vilciena*
 from distance.GEN.F **be_able.PRS.3** **hear.INF** train.GEN.M
svilpšanu.
 whistling.ACC.F
 ‘One can hear the train’s whistling from a distance.’ (C)

(3.2.63) *Tā to dara jau 3500 gadu.*
 so it.ACC.M **do.PRS.3** already 3500 year.GEN.PL.M
 ‘It has been done this way already for 3500 years.’ (C)

In this type of sentence, just as in the previously discussed sentences with predicates in the passive voice, attention is directed towards an action abstracted from the agent. Nevertheless, the sentence structure could formally be supplemented with the name of the agent in a certain grammatical form:

(3.2.61) b. *Priekšā [visi, cilvēki] runā*
 in_front [all.NOM.PL.M person.NOM.PL.M] **speak.PRS.3**
citādi kā aiz muguras.
 differently than behind back.GEN.F
 ‘[Everyone, people] say(s) things differently in front of you than behind your back.’ (www.epupa.valoda.lv)

(3.2.62) b. *No tālienes [ikviens, jebkurš]*
 from distance.GEN.F [everyone.NOM.M anyone.NOM.M]
var dzirdēt vilciena svilpšanu.
be_able.PRS.3 hear.INF train.GEN.M whistling.ACC.F
 ‘[Everyone, anyone] can hear the train’s whistling from a distance.’
 (www.valoda.ailab.lv)

This allows one also to consider this type of sentence as an incompletely realized bipartite pattern sentence.

The same can be said about sentences containing a predicate in the infinitive:

(3.2.63) a. *Stāt!*

stop.INF
'Stop!' (C)

(3.2.64) a. *Zvanīt pēc pulksten 17.00.*

call.INF after o'clock 5_p.m.
'Call after 5 o'clock!' (C)

(3.2.65) a. *Kā atrisināt drošības*
how **resolve.INF** security.GEN.F
problēmas?

problem.ACC.PL.F
'How to resolve security problems?' (C)

If the agent is generic, these sentences can be formally supplemented with an agent in the dative:

(3.2.63) b. [*Ikvienam, visiem*] *Stāt!*
[everyone.DAT.M all.DAT.M] stop.INF
'[Everyone,] stop!'

(3.2.64) b. [*Ikvienam, visiem*] *Zvanīt pēc*
[everyone.DAT.M all.DAT.M] call.INF after
pulksten 17.00.
o'clock 5_p.m.
'[Everyone,] call after 5 o'clock!'

Semantically, subjectless sentences can be potentially equivalent to potentially verbal bipartite sentences describing natural phenomena and weather conditions:

(3.2.66) *Vietām īslaicīgs lietus.*
here_and_there short_term.NOM.M rain.NOM.M
'Sporadic showers here and there.' (C)

(3.2.67) *Visu laiku troksnis no*
all.ACC.M time.ACC.M noise.NOM.M from
tilta puses.
bridge.GEN.M side.GEN.F
'Constant noise from the direction of the bridge.' (C)

3.2.3 Verbal sentences

The morphological type of a sentence depends on the part of speech used in the predicate. In verbal, nominal, and adverbial sentences, the predicate is a verb, nominal (noun or adjective), or adverb, respectively. If a verbal sentence does not

formally contain the predicate, that is, the full lexical verb *būt* ‘to be’, then this is considered a potentially verbal sentence (see, e.g., (3.1.3, 3.1.4) and (3.2.66, 3.2.67)).

In most cases, the function of the predicate is taken on by just the finite verb or together with another word form or several word forms. If the predicate is formed by the full lexical verb, it is a verbal predicate (Skujiņa 2007: 441). If the predicate is formed by a functional verb expressing only or mostly a grammatical meaning, it is considered to be a copula, which is used together with a nominal or an adverb to form a nominal or adverbial predicate.

Simple verbal predicates in bipartite sentences

A simple verbal predicate is usually formed by a verb in a finite form (see, e.g., (3.2.17–3.2.27)).

A simple verbal predicate in the infinitive is found in three communicatively and semantically different types of sentences.

First of all, in categorical command sentences:

- (3.2.68) *Visiem gulēt!*
 everyone.DAT.PL.M **sleep.INF**
 ‘Everyone to bed!’ (www.spoki.lv)

Second of all, in interrogative sentences with a modal meaning indicating necessity or possibility:

- (3.2.69) *Ko man jautās darba intervijā*
 what.ACC I.DAT ask.FUT.3 job.GEN.M interview.LOC.F
un ko man atbildēt?
 and what.ACC I.DAT **answer.INF**
 ‘What will they ask in the job interview, and what should I answer?’
 (www.workingday.lv)

Third of all, in sentences describing an impossible action:

- (3.2.70) *Kur nu man līdzināties jaunajiem*
 where PTCL I.DAT be_like.INF young_one.DAT.PL.M
ar viņu izglītību un
 with he.GEN.PL.M education.INS.F and
zināšanām.
 knowledge.INS.PL.F
 ‘How could I measure up to those young ones with their education and knowledge!’ (www.procesilativija.lv)

- (3.2.71) *Man uz atpūtu necerēt ...*
 I.DAT for rest.ACC.F **not_hope.INF**
 ‘No hope for any rest for me ...’ (D. Zigmonte)

These sentences contain an *irrealis* modal meaning, which can be deduced from the syntactic construction as a whole, rather than from any particular grammatical form.

Compound verbal predicates in bipartite sentences

The compound verbal predicate is formed by a copula and an infinitive:

- (3.2.72) *Taisnīgā cīņā krist ir tomēr*
 just.LOC.F fight.LOC.F fall.INF **be.COP.PRS.3** still
uzvarēt.
be_victorious.INF
 ‘Dying in a just battle is still a victory.’ (C)

In this type of sentence, the infinitive also functions as the subject, therefore, the syntactic function of the word depends on the word order, i.e., the predicate follows the subject of the sentence. These sentences have the meaning of aphorisms, therefore, they often do not possess all the paradigmatic tense forms and the copula is used in the present tense.

In addition to the verb *būt* ‘to be’, the verb *nozīmēt* ‘to mean’ can also be used in the function of a copula:

- (3.2.72) *Dzimto zemi mīlēt nozīmē arī*
 native.ACC.F land.ACC.F love.INF **mean.PRS.3** also
to apstrādāt.
 it.ACC.F **cultivate.INF**
 ‘Love for one’s native land means its cultivation, too.’ (*Lubānas Ziņas*)

The compound verbal predicate is used in sentences containing a copula in the past or future tense form, as the present tense form of the copula is impossible in such sentences. Interrogative sentences have the meaning of necessity or possibility:

- (3.2.73) *Ko citu man bija teikt?*
 what.ACC else.ACC.M I.DAT **be.COP.PST.3** say.INF
 ‘What else could I say?’ (C)
- (3.2.74) *Vai man būs tevī aizlaist?*
 Q I.DAT **be.COP.FUT.3** you.ACC.SG **let_go.INF**
 ‘Shall I let you go?’ (I. Šķipsna)

Imperative sentences express necessity:

- (3.2.75) *Jums būs darīt tā un ne citādi.*
 you.DAT.PL **be.COP.FUT.3** do.INF thus and not otherwise
 ‘You are to do it exactly like this and not otherwise.’ (C)
- (3.2.76) *Te tad nu arī mums būs palikt.*
 here then PTCL also we.DAT **be.COP.FUT.3** stay.INF
 ‘This is where we stay.’ (P. Bankovskis)

In the function of the subject of the sentence, we can encounter not only the speaker or the addressee, but also the name of an inanimate object:

- (3.2.77) *Dāvanai būs būt!*
 present.DAT.F **be.COP.FUT.3** **be.INF**
 ‘There shall be presents!’ (*Mans Mazais*)

Negative sentences mostly express prohibition:

- (3.2.78) *Tev* *nebūs* *par* *mani* *visu*
 you.DAT.SG **not_be.COP.FUT.3** about I.ACC all.ACC.M
zināt!
know.INF
 ‘You are not to know everything about me.’ (www.apollo.lv)

Thus, first, the formally implemented copula is not possible in the present; second, sentences with and without copulas are semantically different, therefore, a fully formed system in the present, past, and future tenses in many cases is impossible; and third, sentences with a copula (especially in the future tense) are stylistically expressive. This allows us to presume that sentences with and without copulas form two different sentence types (for more on this see Lokmane 2014a, 2016).

Complex verbal predicates in bipartite sentences

The complex verbal predicate is formed with a finite modal or aspectual verb in an auxiliary meaning together with an infinitive. The finite form expresses the modal and aspectual (therefore, grammatical) meanings, while the action itself is described by the lexical verb in its infinitive form:

- (3.2.79) *Mazais* *noteikti* *gribēja* *gulēt.*
 little.NOM.M definitely **want.PST.3** **sleep.INF**
 ‘The little one must have been sleepy.’ (C)
- (3.2.80) *Mēs* *sākām* *runāt* *par* *Raini.*
 we.NOM **start.PST.1PL** **talk.INF** about Rainis.ACC.M
 ‘We started talking about Rainis.’ (C)
- (3.2.81) *Viņai* *izdevās* *pagriezt* *atslēgu.*
 she.DAT **manage.PST.3** **turn.INF** key.ACC.F
 ‘She managed to turn the key.’ (C)

The verb in the infinitive has the main function in the sentence both semantically and from the point of view of argument structure. The auxiliary only adds semantic nuance to the action described in the sentence.

However, in some cases the argument structure is determined not only by the infinitive but also by a modal or aspectual auxiliary which proves that the predicate is indeed a complex one. First of all, this can be seen when the sentence is transformed into the passive voice, with the object of the infinitive turning into the subject in the nominative case that agrees with the aspectual auxiliary:

- (3.2.82) a. *Pils* *ir* *sākta* *būvēt*
castle.NOM.F be.AUX.PRS.3 **begin.PTCP.NOM.F** build.INF
 1214. *gadā.*
 1214 year.LOC.M
 ‘The construction of the castle began in 1214.’ (www.travelnews.lv)

A similar sentence in the passive with the modal auxiliary:

- (3.2.83) a. *Zinātniskie pētījumi pat nav*
scientific.NOM.PL.M research.NOM.PL.M even not_be.AUX.PRS.3
mēģināti izskaidrot.
attempt.PTCP.NOM.PL.M explain.INF
 ‘There was not even an attempt to explain the scientific research.’
 (www.apollo.lv)

It should be noted that both sentences can also have different forms in the passive – subjectless sentences, where the object retains its function and remains in the accusative:

- (3.2.82) b. *Pili ir sākts būvēt*
castle.ACC.F be.AUX.PRS.3 begin.PTCP.NOM.M build.INF
1214. gadā.
1214 year.LOC
 ‘The construction of the castle began in 1214.’

- (3.2.83) b. *Zinātniskos pētījumus pat nav*
scientific.ACC.PL.M research.ACC.PL.M even not_be.AUX.PRS.3
mēģināts izskaidrot.
attempt.PTCP.NOM.M explain.INF
 ‘There was not even an attempt to explain the scientific research.’

Second of all, another argument that would argue in favor of the complex nature of the predicate is offered by sentences that have their modal or aspectual auxiliary in the debitive but the object of the infinitive – in the nominative. Although language policy requires one to use the object in the accusative if it follows an infinitive, it is not infrequent to find sentences like (3.2.84) and (3.2.85) which show that speakers perceive the predicate as a complex unit and use the nominative just like in the other cases where the predicate is in the debitive mood:

- (3.2.84) *Tas jāsāk darīt tieši tagad.*
it.NOM.M DEB.start do.INF exactly now
 ‘It must be started now.’ (C)

- (3.2.85) *Valsts institūcijām ir jāspēj*
state.GEN.F institution.DAT.PL.F be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.be_able
sasniegt mērķis.
reach.INF objective.NOM.M
 ‘State institutions must be able to reach their objective.’ (C)

Third of all, in sentences with a negated modal auxiliary, the object of the infinitive, i.e., the negative pronoun, is in the genitive case. The use of the genitive in this case is licensed by the negated auxiliary rather than the infinitive:

- (3.2.86) *Bet tur nekā nevar darīt.*
But there nothing.GEN not_can.PRS.3 do.INF
 ‘But there is nothing one can do about it.’ (C)

The modal meaning of the auxiliary can be combined with other lexico-semantic elements. The infinitive can be used after several verbs, which have a modal element in their meaning. The modal meaning of these words is not as important as their lexical meaning, therefore, they can be used as full lexical verbs, as well. In Latvian, these words are as follows: *atzīt* ‘to recognize’, *gatavoties* ‘to get ready’, *taisīties* ‘to prepare’, *nodomāt* ‘to intend’, *nolemt* ‘to decide’, *mēgt* ‘to be in the habit of’, *nevīžot* ‘to not care’, *neklāties* ‘to not fare’, *dergties* ‘to be disgusted’, *patikt* ‘to like’, *pierast* ‘to get used to’, *mācēt* ‘to know’, *prast* ‘to know how’, *iemācīties* ‘to learn’, *baidīties* ‘to be afraid’, *kautrēties* ‘to be shy’, and others. The modal meaning is enhanced in co-occurrence with the infinitive:

- (3.2.87) *Izaugusi* *tepat* *jūrmalā,* *viņa*
grow.PTCP.NOM.F right_here seaside.LOC.F she.NOM
kopš *bērnības* *pierada* *justies*
since childhood.GEN.F get_used_to.PST.3 feel.INF
kā *zivs* *ūdenī.*
like fish.NOM.F water.LOC.M
‘Having grown up right here at the seaside, she was used to feeling like a fish in water.’ (L. Bridaka)

- (3.2.88) *Filmas* *skatīties* *viņš* *atzina*
film.ACC.PL.F watch.INF he.NOM admit.PST.3
tikai *svētdienās* *un* *savus* *ieradumus*
only Sunday.LOC.PL.F and own.ACC.PL.M habit.ACC.PL.M
reti *kad* *mainīja.*
rarely when change.PST.3
‘He would admit to watching films only on Sundays and he rarely changed his habits.’ (I. Grebze)

Verbal predicates in subjectless sentences

The verbal predicate in a subjectless sentence is formed with a verb in the third person. Most often these are impersonal verbs that describe natural phenomena:

- (3.2.89) *Bija* *kārtīgi* *uzsalis.*
be.AUX.PST.3 thoroughly freeze.PTCP.NOM.M
‘It had frozen all over.’ (C)

Verbal predicates are formed using auditory or visual perception verbs if the source of the sound or smell is not mentioned in the sentence, due to it not being known or not being important to the speaker:

- (3.2.90) *Būdā* *burbuļoja,* *sprakšķēja,* *gruzdēja,*
hut.LOC.F bubble.PST.3 crackle.PST.3 smolder.PST.3
vira, *čurkstēja.*
boil.PST.3 sizzle.PST.3
‘It was bubbling, crackling, smoldering, boiling, sizzling in the hut.’
(N. Ikstena)

- (3.2.91) *Zem kociem smaržo pēc trūdošām*
under tree.DAT.PL.M smell.PRS.3 of moldering.DAT.PL.F
lapām.
leaf.DAT.PL.F
‘It smells of moldering leaves under the trees.’ (C)

The function of the predicate can be taken on by the verbs naming the visual percept:

- (3.2.92) *Man jau dubultojas.*
I.DAT already double.PRS.3
‘I have started seeing double already.’ (C)
- (3.2.93) *Liepājā naktīs spokojas.*
Liepāja.LOC.F night.LOC.PL.F haunt.PRS.3
‘Liepāja is haunted at night.’ (C)
- (3.2.94) *Acīs miglojās.*
eye.LOC.PL.F be_mist.PST.3
‘My eyes misted over.’ (C)

The predicate can be formed by verbs describing physical sensations or mental states:

- (3.2.95) *Atkal iesāpējās pēdās.*
again ache.PST.3 foot.LOC.PL.F
‘[My] feet twinged with pain again.’ (C)
- (3.2.96) *Viņam varbūt nedaudz smeldza*
he.DAT possibly slightly ache.PST.3
pakrūtē.
pit_of_the_stomach.LOC.F
‘The pit of his stomach might have been aching a bit.’ (C)
- (3.2.97) *Kņudēja sirdī, urdijās, dedzināja.*
tingle.PST.3 heart.LOC.F poke.PST.3 burn.PST.3
‘There was a tingling, poking, burning feeling in his heart.’ (C)

As can be seen in (3.2.92–3.2.97), this type of expansion is usually taken on by the name of the experiencer in the dative case and the extender in the locative, which provides more precise information about the particular organ or part of the body where the feeling is localized. Similarly, we can also form bipartite constructions where the part of the body takes on the function of the subject of the sentence:

- (3.2.98) *No nepatīkamajām pārdomām*
from unpleasant.DAT.PL.F contemplation.DAT.PL.F
iesāpējās galva.
ache.PST.3 head.NOM.F
‘The unpleasant thoughts prompted a headache.’ (C)

The nominative case indicates that the entire body is involved, while the locative case signals partial involvement. The nominative and locative arguments are

quasi-compulsory syntactic elements. The indefinite pronouns *kas* ‘what, who’, *kaut kas* ‘something’ are frequently used as substitutes for an unknown source of a process or state:

- (3.2.99) *Manī kaut kas smeldz.*
 I.LOC something ache.PRS.3
 ‘Something is aching inside of me.’ (www.sargs.lv)

Some modal verbs can be used as full lexical verbs with the function of a predicate, signifying the accidental nature of the action:

- (3.2.100) *Vispār visu ko gribas.*
 generally all.ACC.M what.ACC want.PRS.3
 ‘Just in general, one wants all sorts of things.’ (C)

- (3.2.101) *Šoreiz laimējās.*
 this_time have_luck.PST.3
 ‘This time (we) were lucky.’ (C)

Three-person verbs can function as predicates when they can take on the name of the agent in bipartite sentences, if the agent is generic or unspecified. The predicate is formed by the verb in the passive:

- (3.2.102) *Ar mašīnīti diezgan ripināts pa*
 with car.INS.F enough roll.PTCP.NOM.M along
noziedzīgiem ceļiem.
 criminal.DAT.PL.M road.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The car has been involved in many a crime.’ (A. Bels)

An infinitive verbal predicate can occur in subjectless sentences with a necessitative or imperative meaning:

- (3.2.103) *Kā atrast īstu mīlestību?*
 how find.INF true.ACC.F love.ACC.F
 ‘How to find true love?’ (C)

- (3.2.104) *Ievērot klusumu!*
 observe.INF silence.ACC.M
 ‘Silence is to be observed!’ (www.mammamunteti.lv)

3.2.4 Nominal sentences

The nominal predicate is usually a compound predicate, formed by a copula and a nominal or its substitute – a noun, adjective, numeral, pronoun, or declinable participle (Skujiņa 2007: 257). A copula is the finite form of a verb expressing its grammatical meaning. For this reason, it has a leading role in expressing predicativity. With respect to lexical meaning, the nominal part of the predicate plays the more important role.

- (3.2.105) *Dzīve* *ir* *skaista.*
 life.NOM.F **be.COP.PRS.3** beautiful.NOM.F
 ‘Life is beautiful!’ (C)

In bipartite sentences, a declinable participle can form either a verbal or nominal predicate depending on whether it primarily describes the result of an action (verbal) or the characteristics of an action (adjectival). The nominal predicate is usually formed by the present declinable participle. This can be partly explained by the fact that these participles do not form analytical forms of the verb (see Section 2.5.1):

- (3.2.106) *Lēmums* *ir* *galīgs* *un*
 decision.NOM.M **be.COP.PRS.3** final.NOM.M and
nepārsūdzams.
non-appealable.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘The decision is final and non-appealable.’ (C)

The nominal predicate can be formed also by the past declinable participle, if it is functioning as an adjective. Whether it is used as an adjective or not, depends on the semantics of the verb and its distribution:

- (3.2.107) *Bērns* *ir* *uztraukts* *un*
 child.NOM.M **be.COP.PRS.3** worried.PTCP.NOM.M and
nemierīgs.
 agitated.NOM.M
 ‘The child is worried and agitated.’ (www.mammamunteti.lv)

The predicates formed by the present declinable participle with a modal meaning are borderline cases between the verbal and nominal predicate types:

- (3.2.108) *Te* *nekas* *vairs* *nav*
 here NOM anymore **not_be.COP.PRS.3**
līdzams.
help.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Nothing can be done here.’ (Ē. Kūlis)

The finite form of the verb *būt* ‘to be’, which expresses the grammatical meanings, is most often used to form the copula. In modern Latvian, the verb *kļūt* ‘to become’ can also be used as a copula:

- (3.2.109) *Meistari* *kļuva* *domīgi.*
 repairman.NOM.PL.M **become.COP.PST.3** puzzled.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The repairmen became puzzled.’ (C)

In specific environments, several different linking verbs can take on the function of a copula. Elsewhere, these verbs can also be used as full or lexical verbs (Freimane 1985: 56).

First of all, these are verbs describing the characteristics of the subject (as is done by the copula *būt* ‘to be’): *izdoties* ‘to succeed’, *padoties* ‘to excel at’, *iznākt* ‘to end up’, *izrādīties* ‘to turn out’, *justies* ‘to feel’, *palikt* ‘to stay’, *stāvēt* ‘to stand’, *turēties* ‘to hold on’, *pieturēties* ‘to remain’, *nesties* ‘to rush’:

(3.2.110) *Sportisti* *ir* *un* *paliek*
 athlete.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 and stay.COP.PRS.3
sportisti.
 athlete.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Athletes will be athletes.’ (C)

(3.2.111) *Koks* *stāv* *kluss* *un*
 tree.NOM.M stand.COP.PRS.3 quiet.NOM.M and
mirdzošs.
 shimmer.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘The tree stands quiet and shimmering.’ (B. Veisberga)

Second of all, verbs describing a change in the characteristics of the subject can function as copulas (as is done by the copula *kļūt* ‘to become’): *palikt* ‘to stay’, *nākt* ‘to come’, *mesties* ‘to rush’, *tapt* ‘to become’, *tikt* ‘to arrive’:

(3.2.112) *Pusdienas* *jau* *nāk* *gatavas.*
 dinner.NOM.PL.F already come.COP.PRS.3 ready.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Dinner is going to be ready soon.’ (www.pictame.com)

(3.2.113) *Nakts* *metas* *tumša.*
 night.NOM.F rush.COP.PRS.3 dark.NOM.F
 ‘The night is getting dark.’ (www.jaunagaita.net)

Third of all, in simple sentences verbs relating to perception can function as copulas: *šķist* ‘to seem’, *likties* ‘to resemble’, *rādīties* ‘to appear’, *izskatīties* ‘to look like’:

(3.2.114) *Šāda* *atbilde* *liekas*
 this_kind.NOM.F answer.NOM.F seem.COP.PRS.3
dīvaina.
 strange.NOM.F
 ‘This kind of answer seems strange.’ (C)

(3.2.115) *Abi* *attēli* *izskatās* *vienādi.*
 both picture.NOM.PL.M look.COP.PRS.3 alike.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Both pictures look alike.’ (C)

Desemanticization is enhanced by the lexical semantics of the verb (words with a general meaning desemanticize more easily) and the environment of the verb. Both lexical and semantic factors can have an impact on the meaning of a verb if the words preceding or following the verb all share common semantic elements. First, the lexical semantics of the words preceding and following the verb, namely, their common semantic elements, must be taken into account:

(3.2.116) *Ķurzēns* *vēl* *arvien* *stinga* *kluss*
 Kurzēns.NOM.M still ever freeze.COP.PST.3 quiet.NOM.M
un *mēms.*
 and speechless.NOM.M
 ‘Ķurzēns remained frozen, all quiet and speechless.’ (A. Eglitis)

Second, the syntactic function of the words preceding and following the verb must be taken into account. In (3.2.117), the verb *gulēt* ‘to stay in bed’ does not have an important informative meaning, as it is not unusual for people who are sick to be lying down. For this reason, it can be considered to be functioning as a copula. On the other hand, in (3.2.118), the same verb is used with its full lexical meaning and forms a collocation *gulēt mājās* ‘to stay at home’. The word *slims* ‘ill’ fulfils the function of a secondary predicate in this example.

(3.2.117) *Vectēvs gul ļoti slims.*
 grandfather.NOM.M stay_in_bed.COP.PRS.3 very ill.NOM.M
 ‘Grandfather is in bed, very sick.’ (www.spoki.lv)

(3.2.118) *Bērns atkal divas nedēļas gul mājās slims.*
 child.NOM.M again two.ACC.PL.F week.ACC.PL.F stay_in_bed.PRS.3
 home.LOC.PL.M ill.NOM.M
 ‘The child has stayed at home sick again for two weeks.’
 (www.mammamunteti.lv)

The zero form of the copula does not change the type of the compound nominal predicate:

(3.2.119) *Zeme [ir] stingra, gan neiegrims.*
 ground.NOM.F [be.COP.PRS.3] firm.NOM.F surely
 not_cave_in.FUT.3
 ‘The ground is firm, it will surely not cave in.’ (C)

Quite often the declinable forms of the words depending on the nominal (noun or pronoun) can also form part of the nominal predicate. In this case, the predicate does not agree with the subject of the sentence, thus, there is no formal marker of the predicative relationship. Nouns are found in this function in the genitive, instrumental, and locative cases. The locative is the most productive in this regard, which can be explained by the tendency of the locative to adverbialize:

(3.2.120) *Vairums dejotāju bija kostīmos un maskās.*
 majority.NOM.M dancer.GEN.PL be.COP.PST.3
 costume.LOC.PL.M and mask.LOC.PL.F
 ‘The majority of the dancers wore costumes and masks.’ (A. Eglītis)

If the predicate contains a locative describing the state of the subject, the sentence is marginally adverbial, but if the noun has the full paradigm, it can be considered nominal:

(3.2.121) *Valsts ir pārādā policistiem.*
 state.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 debt.LOC.M policeman.DAT.PL.M
 ‘The state is in debt to the policemen.’ (C)

- (3.2.122) *Abi vienmēr ir badā.*
 both.NOM.PL.M constantly **be.COP.PRS.3** hunger.LOC.M
 ‘They are both constantly hungry.’ (C)

The genitive or compound genitive, which describes a characteristic feature of the subject of the sentence, can have the function of a nominal predicate:

- (3.2.123) *Korpuss ir plastmasas vai vieglmetāla.*
 body.NOM.M **be.COP.PRS.3** plastic.GEN.F or light_metal.GEN.M
 ‘The body is made of plastic or light alloy.’ (C)

- (3.2.124) *Piegāde ir bezmaksas.*
 delivery.NOM.F **be.COP.PRS.3** free.GEN.F
 ‘Delivery is free.’ (C)

The instrumental case functions as part of the nominal predicate:

- (3.2.125) *Bokseris ir ar raksturu.*
 boxer.NOM.M **be.COP.PRS.3** with character.INS.M
 ‘The boxer has character.’ (C)

- (3.2.126) *No ielas puses nams ir ar diviem stāviem.*
 from street.GEN.F side.GEN.F building.NOM.M
be.COP.PRS.3 with two.INS.PL.M floor.INS.PL.M
 ‘From the street side, the building has two floors.’ (C)

A nominal predicate can be formed by a prepositional phrase:

- (3.2.127) *Tagad sēnes ir bez tārpiem.*
 now mushroom.NOM.PL.F **be.COP.PRS.3** without
worm.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Now the mushrooms are without worms.’ (C)

- (3.2.128) *Industrija ir kļuvusi par zinātnes mērķi un tās eksistences attaisnojumu.*
 industry.NOM.F **be.COP.PRS.3** become.PTCP.NOM.F **PREP**
 science.GEN.F **target.ACC.M** and it.GEN.F
 existence.GEN.F **reason.ACC.M**
 ‘The industry has become a target of science and its reason for existence.’
 (R. Mūks)

A nominal predicate can contain a comparative phrase:

- (3.2.129) *Viņš ir kā zibensnovedējs gan ģimenē, gan skolā.*
 he.NOM **be.COP.PRS.3** like lightning_rod.NOM.M
 CONJ family.LOC.F CONJ school.LOC.F
 ‘He is like a lightning rod both at home and at school.’ (C)

A nominal predicate containing a modal or aspectual auxiliary is a complex nominal predicate:

- (3.2.130) *Viņa grib būt tieši operas režisore.*
 she.NOM want.PRS.3 be.COP.INF precisely
 opera.GEN.F director.NOM.F
 ‘She wants to be precisely an opera stage manager.’ (C)

In a subjectless sentence, a nominal predicate is formed by an adjective in the nominative case and a copula.

These predicates describe natural phenomena, which are climatic or meteorological in character as well as those connected with the change between day and night, seasons, and so on:

- (3.2.131) *Tur taču ir tumšs!*
 there however be.COP.PRS.3 dark.NOM.M
 ‘But it is really dark there!’ (C)
- (3.2.132) *Nedēļas otrajā pusē atkal kļuva siltāks.*
 week.GEN.F second.LOC.F half.LOC.F again
 become.COP.PST.3 warm.CMP.NOM.M
 ‘In the second half of the week, it became warmer again.’ (C)

The zero form of the copula does not change the predicate type:

- (3.2.133) *Mājā [ir] tumšs.*
 house.LOC.F [be.COP.PRS.3] dark.NOM.M
 ‘It is dark inside the house.’ (C)

Just like in bipartite sentences, the modal or aspectual auxiliaries can form a part of the predicate, changing it into a complex predicate:

- (3.2.134) *Sāk kļūt siltāks.*
 start.PRS.3 become.COP.INF warm.CMP.NOM.M
 ‘It is starting to become warmer.’ (C)

3.2.5 Adverbial sentences

The adverbial predicate is usually a compound predicate, formed by a copula and an adverb (Skujiņa 2007: 17). The capacity of the adverb to form the predicate is semantically limited. Only those adverbs (predicative adverbs of state verbs), which have meanings related to the meanings of the words used as predicates (verbs and adjectives), can typically form the predicate.

- (3.2.135) *Tev tas ir vienalga.*
 you.DAT.SG it.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 indifferent
 ‘It does not matter to you.’ (C)

These predicates can be formed by adverbs, which express an evaluation or a physical or psychological state:

- (3.2.136) *Tas* *ir* *garlaicigi.*
 that.NOM.M **be.COP.PRS.3** boring
 ‘That is boring.’ (C)

Adverbs of degree:

- (3.2.137) *Ogu* *ir* *maz.*
 berry.GEN.PL.F **be.COP.PRS.3** few
 ‘There are few berries.’ (C)

And some adverbs of manner:

- (3.2.138) *Te* *viss* *ir* *godigi.*
 here everything.NOM.M **be.COP.PRS.3** honestly
 ‘Everything is done honestly here.’ (C)

Not all word types can function as subjects in adverbial sentences. Subjects most often are indefinite pronouns describing the entire situation (*tas* ‘that’, *viss* ‘everything’), as in (3.2.136) and (3.2.138), or by a verb in the infinitive:

- (3.2.139) *Strādāt* *ir* *droši.*
 work.INF **be.COP.PRS.3** safe
 ‘It is safe to work.’ (C)

A noun can be the subject of a sentence if the adverb describes a state:

- (3.2.140) *Nu* *viss* *darbs* *bija* *pagalam.*
 now all.NOM.M work.NOM.M **be.COP.PST.3** lost
 ‘Now the whole job was in vain.’ (C)

These types of sentences can be considered to be on the borderline with nominal sentences if the predicate contains a noun form describing a state and if this form has also partly adverbialized:

- (3.2.141) *Esmu* *pilnīgā* *sajūsmā.*
 be.COP.PRS.1 complete.LOC.F **delight.LOC.F**
 ‘I am completely delighted.’ (C)

An adverbial clause can also contain a copula in its zero form, which does not change the predicate type:

- (3.2.142) *Un* *tomēr* *viss* *[ir]* *citādi.*
 and still everything.NOM.M [be.COP.PRS.3] different
 ‘And still, everything has changed.’ (C)

If an adverbial predicate attracts a modal or aspectual auxiliary, it forms a complex adverbial predicate:

- (3.2.143) *Nākošnedēļ* *viss* *var* *būt* *citādi.*
 next_week everything.NOM.M **be_able.PRS.3** **be.COP.INF** different
 ‘Next week everything may be different.’ (C)

An adverbial predicate in a subjectless sentence describes physical sensations or mental states:

- (3.2.144) *Saulītē jau ir silti.*
 sun.LOC.F already be.COP.PRS.3 warm
 ‘It is already warm in the sunshine.’ (C)
- (3.2.145) *Ar viņiem vienkārši nebija interesanti.*
 with they.INS.PL.M just not_be.COP.PST.3 interesting
 ‘Being with them was just not interesting.’ (V. Freimane)

3.2.6 Simple sentence subjects

A subject of a sentence is normally a noun or its substitute (an adjective, numeral, pronoun, or declinable participle) in a particular case (Skujina 2007: 390). Subjects are typically in the nominative case; however, in Latvian it is also possible for subjects to be in several oblique cases.

The subject of a sentence is the genitive case form of a noun or its substitute in sentences with the verb *nebūt* ‘to not be’ or the verbs *trūkt* ‘to lack’, *pietikt* ‘to suffice’ in the predicate:

- (3.2.146) *Konkrētu plānu man nebija.*
 concrete.GEN.PL.M plan.GEN.PL.M I.DAT not_be.PST.3
 ‘I did not have any concrete plans.’ (C)
- (3.2.147) *Vai tad Rīgas policijai trūkst darba?*
 Q really Riga.GEN.F police.DAT.F lack.PRS.3 work.GEN.M
 ‘Do the Riga police really not have enough work?’ (C)
- (3.2.148) *Vietas pietiek visiem.*
 space.GEN.F suffice.PRS.3 everyone.DAT.M
 ‘There is enough space for everyone.’ (C)

The subject of a sentence is the dative case form of a noun or its substitute in three different types of sentences. First of all, in sentences with a predicate in the debitive mood:

- (3.2.149) *Lēmumam jābūt motivētam.*
 decision.DAT.M DEB.be.AUX. justify.PTCP.DAT.M
 ‘The decision has to be justified.’ (C)

Second of all, in sentences with a complex predicate, containing a modal or aspectual auxiliary:

- (3.2.150) *Man iepatikās stāstīt par savu dzīvi.*
 I.DAT start_enjoying.PST.3 tell.INF about own.ACC.F life.ACC.F
 ‘I started to enjoy talking about my life.’ (C)

Third of all, in sentences containing a predicate in the infinitive:

- (3.2.151) *Laikam jau man to*
perhaps already I.DAT this.ACC.M
nesaprast.
not_understand.INF
'Perhaps this is not for me to understand.' (C)

The reasons for treating dative forms as grammatical subjects of sentences, are as follows:

- 1) semantic reasons, that is, these dative forms have an agent meaning,
- 2) formal agreement with the nominal predicate,
- 3) paradigmatic criteria.

If we recognize the debitive mood as part of the morphological paradigm of the verb form, then, syntactically, sentences in the indicative mood and the debitive mood belong to one and the same sentence pattern. In the oblique forms of this syntactic paradigm, all the arguments maintain their original functions (for discussion of differential or non-canonical subject marking in Latvian see Fennells 1995; Holvoet 2013; Holvoet & Grzybowska 2014; Holvoet & Nau 2014a; Seržant 2013).

Occasionally, the subject position is occupied by a prepositional phrase with *pa* 'along, by' expressing a distributive meaning or rare/dispersed occurrence (see also Holvoet 2011b, 18):

- (3.2.152) *Tas ļautu ie baudīt pa*
that.NOM.M allow.COND enjoy.INF PREP
glāzītei.
glass.DAT.F.
'That would allow one to enjoy a fine glass of alcohol.' (C)

Infinitive forms are used as sentence subjects quite often. Instead of just identifying the separate realia, an infinitive together with its arguments (if any) describes the entire situation, while the predicate expresses an evaluation or qualification of the situation. Use of the infinitive as a sentence subject occurs in four different types of sentences.

First of all, an infinitive can function as a subject in verbal sentences where the compound predicate is formed by a copula together with an infinitive:

- (3.2.153) *Mīlēt ir atdot sevi pilnībā.*
love.INF be.COP.PRS.3 surrender.INF self.ACC fully
'To love is to surrender oneself fully.' (C)

Second of all, an infinitive functioning as a subject can be found in verbal sentences with a simple predicate in its passive form:

- (3.2.154) *Šeit peldēties ir aizliegts.*
here swim.INF be.AUX.PRS.3 forbid.PTCP.NOM.M
'It is forbidden to swim here.' (C)

Third of all, subjects containing infinitives can be found in nominal sentences, if the predicate is formed by a copula with a nominal, which is most often a noun, less often an adjective in the superlative degree:

- (3.2.155) *Toties ģimnāzijā strādāt ir*
 however high.school.LOC.F **work.INF** be.COP.PRS.3
viens prieks.
 one.NOM.M delight.NOM.M
 ‘Working at the high school, however, is a delight.’ (C)

- (3.2.156) *Visgrūtākais ir izlikties un*
 difficult.SPL.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 **pretend.INF** and
klusēt.
be_quiet.INF
 ‘The most difficult thing is to pretend and stay quiet.’ (www.dziesmas.lv)

Fourth of all, infinitives functioning as sentence subjects are possible in adverbial sentences formed by a copula and an adverb:

- (3.2.157) *Garāžā dzīvot ir jautri.*
 garage.LOC.F **live.INF** be.COP.PRS.3 cheerfully
 ‘Living in the garage is fun.’ (C)

If an infinitive functions as a subject, the predicate will have an evaluative meaning in nominal as well as adverbial sentences. Additionally, this evaluation will refer to the experiencer or agent, stating that something for that individual is easy or difficult, good or bad, etc.

An infinitive sentence subject can also marginally function as a secondary predicate, if that sentence has a modal meaning:

- (3.2.158) *Audzēkņiem ir pienākums*
 student.DAT.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 responsibility.NOM.M
atbildēt par savu rīcību.
answer.INF for own.ACC.F action.ACC.F
 ‘The students have the responsibility to answer for their actions.’ (C)

It is also possible to develop a compound subject for a sentence formed by a copula in the infinitive and a dative or a prepositional phrase:

- (3.2.159) *Būt cilvēkam grūti.*
be.COP.INF human.DAT.M difficult
 ‘It is difficult to be human.’ (C)
- (3.2.160) *Būt par upuri dažreiz ir*
be.COP.INF as victim.ACC.M sometimes be.COP.PRS.3
ļoti izdevīgi.
 very convenient
 ‘To be a victim is sometimes very convenient.’ (C)

Sentences containing an infinitive can also be considered verbal sentences with a complex predicate and an unrealized sentence subject in the dative case:

- (3.2.161) *Troksnī [ikvienam] ir grūti strādāt.*
 noise.LOC.M [everybody.DAT] be.COP.PRS.3 hard work.INF
 ‘It is hard (for anyone) to work in a noisy environment.’ (C)

The subject of this sentence type is understood as either a generic agent or experiencer, or, alternatively, it may be deduced from context.

3.2.7 A list of basic simple sentence patterns

Sentence patterns can be depicted with symbols denoting the part of speech and morphological form of the subject and predicate. If necessary, the pattern can also contain some generalized semantic features (ANIM ‘animate’, MOD ‘modal’, QUANT ‘having a quantitative meaning’). If the pattern contains only some specific lexemes, these can also be indicated.

Not all minimal patterns can be used with equal flexibility for sentence development. There are some patterns that can be realized quite freely, limited only by the rules of semantic compatibility. Other patterns can be realized only if their components belong to specific semantic groups. There are also patterns that can be realized only with specific lexemes.

The sentence pattern depicts only the basic form of the paradigm. If necessary, the symbolic depiction can be made more concrete, for example, the generalized pattern $N_{NOM} - V_{FIN}$ can be made more specific using its concrete version $N_{NOM}^{ANIM} - V_{FIN}$ or $N_{NOM} - V_{FIN}^{IN3}$. By specifying the generalized pattern, we can develop the variants of the pattern. It is possible to develop patterns and their variants, if necessary, also the subvariants, with a different level of abstraction. The sequence of components depicts the so-called direct word order, which in informative sentences is stylistically and emotionally neutral.

A dash is placed between the symbols representing the components of the sentence in the minimal two-component patterns: $N_{NOM} - V_{FIN}$. If a component is formed by an indivisible word group, the + sign is used.

Bipartite sentences

Verbal sentences

$N_{NOM} - V_{FIN}$

- (3.2.162) *Talkas notika arī pirms tam.*
 joint.work.NOM.PL.F happen.PST.3 also before that.DAT.M
 ‘People used to help each other also in the past.’ (C)

$N_{GEN} - V_{FIN3}$ [nebūt ‘to not be’, (ne)trūkt ‘to (not) lack’, (ne)pietikt ‘to (not) suffice’]

- (3.2.163) *Apņēmības netrūkst.*
 determination.GEN.F not_lack.PRS.3
 ‘There is no shortage of determination here.’ (C)

(3.2.164) *Vietas pietiek visiem.*
 space.GEN.F suffice.PRS.3 everyone.DAT.PL.M
 ‘There is enough space for everyone.’ (C)

(3.2.165) *Konkrētu plānu man nebija.*
 concrete.GEN.PL.M plan.GEN.PL.M. I.DAT. not_be.PST.3
 ‘I did not have any concrete plans.’ (C)

PRON/ADV + V_{INF} – V_{FIN3} [nebūt ‘to not be’, (ne)trūkt ‘to (not) lack’, (ne)pietikt ‘to (not) suffice’]

(3.2.166) *Tik un tā ir ko darīt.*
 even_so be.PRS.3 what.ACC do.INF
 ‘Even so, there is enough to do.’ (C)

(3.2.167) *Pagaidām pietiek ko darīt.*
 for_now suffice.PRS.3 what.ACC do.INF
 ‘For now there is enough to do.’ (C)

V_{INF} – V_{FIN, COP} V_{INF}

(3.2.168) *Dzīvot ir ciest.*
 live.INF be.COP.PRS.3 suffer.INF
 ‘To live is to suffer.’ (C)

V_{INF} – V_{FIN3, PASS}

(3.2.169) *Par to domāt nebija ļauts.*
 about that.ACC think.INF not_be.AUX.PST.3
 allow.PTCP.PASS.NOM.M
 ‘Thinking about it was not permitted.’ (C)

NM_{DAT} – (V_{FIN, COP}) V_{INF}

(3.2.170) *Kā mums reaģēt?*
 how we.DAT react.INF
 ‘How do we react?’ (C)

Nominal sentences

Pattern 1

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} NM

This pattern can have several variants and subvariants.

Variant 1

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} N

Further subvariants can be identified according to the case of the noun used in the formation of the predicate.

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} N_{NOM}

- (3.2.171) *Students visos laikos ir*
 student.NOM.M all.LOC.PL.M time.LOC.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3
students.
 student.NOM.M
 ‘The student will always be a student.’ (C)

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} N_{GEN}

- (3.2.171) *Grīda barakās ir*
 floor.NOM.F barrack.LOC.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3
koka.
 wood.GEN.M
 ‘The floor in the barracks is made of wood.’ (C)

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} N_{LOC}

- (3.2.172) *Bērns ir nomodā.*
 child.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 awake.LOC.M
 ‘The child is awake.’ (C)

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} PREP N

- (3.2.173) *Siliņš droši vien būtu kļuvis*
 Siliņš.NOM.M probably be.AUX.COND become.PTCP.NOM.M
par skolotāju.
 PREP teacher.ACC.M
 ‘Siliņš probably would have become a teacher.’ (C)

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} PTCL^[kā ‘like’] + NM_{NOM}

- (3.2.174) *Zeme ir kā ripa.*
 Earth.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 like disc.NOM.F
 ‘The Earth is like a disc.’ (C)

Variant 2

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} ADJ

The subalternatives of variant 2:

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} ADJ_{NOM}

- (3.2.175) *Naktis kļuva vēsākas.*
 night.NOM.PL.F become.COP.PST.3 cool.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The nights were getting cooler.’ (C)

NM_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} PREP ADJ

- (3.2.176) *Publika tur būs par jaunu.*
 audience.NOM.PL.F there be.COP.FUT.3 PREP young.ACC.F
 ‘The audience will be too young there.’ (C)

Variant 3

NM_{NOM} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **PTCP**_{NOM}

- (3.2.177) *Šis albums nav zemē*
 this.NOM.M album.NOM.M not_be.COP.PRS.3 ground.LOC.F
metams.
 throw.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘This album is not bad.’ (C)

Variant 4

NM_{NOM} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **PRON**_{NOM}

- (3.2.178) *Tas arī ir viss.*
 that.NOM.M also be.COP.PRS.3 all.NOM.M
 ‘That is all.’ (C)

Variant 5

NM_{NOM} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **NUM**_{NOM}

- (3.2.179) *Spēlētāji bija četri.*
 player.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PST.3 four.NOM.PL.M
 ‘There were four players.’ (C)

Pattern 2

NM_{GEN} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **NM**^{QUANT}

- (3.2.180) *Sarežģītu situāciju nebija mazums.*
 complicated.GEN.PL.F situation.GEN.PL.F not_be.COP.PST.3
 shortage.NOM.M
 ‘There was no shortage of complicated situations.’ (C)

Pattern 3

V_{INF} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **NM**

Variant 1

V_{INF} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **N**_{NOM}

- (3.2.181) *Tagad tavš pienākums ir mācīt dzīvot citiem.*
 now your.NOM.M duty.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3
 teach.INF live.INF other.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Now it is your duty to teach others how to live.’ (D. Zigmonte)

Variant 2

V_{INF} – **V**_{FIN, COP} **ADJ**_{NOM}

- (3.2.182) *Galvenais ir sākt.*
 important.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 begin.INF
 ‘The most important thing is to begin.’ (C)

Variant 3

V_{INF} – V_{FIN, COP} PRON_{NOM}

- (3.2.183) *Pārpeldēt* *pāri* *Daugavai* *viņam*
 swim_across.INF across Daugava.DAT.F he.DAT.M
nav *nekas.*
 not_be.PRS.3 nothing.NOM.M
 ‘Swimming across the River Daugava is nothing to him.’
 (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

Variant 4

V_{INF} – V_{FIN, COP} PTCP_{NOM}

- (3.2.184) *Kaitināt* *viņus* *nav* *ieteicams.*
 annoy.INF they.ACC.M not_be.COP.PRS.3 advise.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It is not advisable to annoy them.’ (C)

Variant 5

V_{INF} – V_{FIN, COP} PREP N

- (3.2.185) *Jautāt* *sev* *būs* *kļūvis* *par*
 ask.INF self.DAT be.AUX.FUT.3 become.PTCP.NOM.M PREP
ieradumu.
 habit.ACC.M
 ‘To question oneself will have become a habit.’ (C)

Pattern 4

PRON_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} PRON PREP [kas ‘what’ par ‘of’] NM

- (3.2.186) *Kas* *tā* *būs* *par* *brangu*
 what.NOM that.NOM.F be.COP.FUT.3 PREP jolly_good.ACC.F
saimnieci!
 hostess.ACC.F
 ‘What a jolly good hostess she will be!’ (C)

Adverbial sentences

Pattern 1

PRON_{NOM} – V_{FIN, COP} ADV

- (3.2.187) *Mums* *tas* *likās* *smieklīgi.*
 we.DAT it.NOM.M seem.PST.3 ridiculous
 ‘It seemed ridiculous to us.’ (C)

Pattern 2

V_{INF} – V_{FIN, COP} ADV

- (3.2.188) *Bija* *skaisti* *un* *labi* *dzīvot.*
 be.COP.PST.3 beautifully and well live.INF
 ‘It was nice and good to live (there).’ (D. Zigmonte)

Pattern 3

$N_{\text{NOM}} - V_{\text{FIN, COP}} \text{ ADV}$

- (3.2.189) *Maisam gals ir vaļā.*
 sack.DAT.M end.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 open
 ‘Here comes the deluge. (lit. The end of the sack is open.)’ (C)

Pattern 4

$N_{\text{GEN}} - V_{\text{FIN, COP}} \text{ ADV}^{\text{QUANT}}$

- (3.2.190) *Ogu ir maz.*
 berry.GEN.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3 few
 ‘There are few berries.’ (C)

Subjectless sentences

Verbal sentences

V_{FIN3}

- (3.2.191) *Ik pa brīdim puteņo.*
 PTCL PREP moment.DAT.M be_snowstorm.PRS.3
 ‘Snowstorms come and go.’ (C)
- (3.2.192) *Limbažu rajonā uzbrukts pasta mašīnai.*
 Limbaži.GEN.PL district.LOC.M attack.PTCP.PASS.NOM.M
 post.GEN.M car.DAT.M
 ‘The postman’s car has been attacked in Limbaži District.’ (LNT)

V_{INF}

- (3.2.193) *Ko nu tur daudz runāt un stāstīt!*
 what.ACC well there much say.INF and
 tell.INF
 ‘There is not much to say or tell!’ (www.facebook.com)

Nominal sentences

$V_{\text{FIN3, COP}} \text{ ADJ}_{\text{NOM}}$

- (3.2.194) *Kļūst siltāks un gaišāks.*
 become.COP.PRS.3 warm.CMP.NOM.M and light.CMP.NOM.M
 ‘It is getting warmer and lighter.’ (C)

$V_{\text{FIN3, COP}} \text{ PREP N}$

- (3.2.195) *Bija pāri pusnaktij.*
 be.COP.PST.3 over midnight.DAT.F
 ‘It was after midnight.’ (C)

Adverbial sentences

V_{FIN3, COP} ADV

(3.2.196) *Šodien ir gana.*
today be.COP.PRS.3 enough
'Enough for today.' (C)

3.2.8 Paradigm of the simple sentence

Using a paradigmatic approach in viewing the phenomena of syntax allows us to implement the systemic principle, that is simplifying the system of syntax, thereby making it more understandable while unifying an endless variety of utterances into specific types and subtypes. The paradigmatic approach is based on the supposition that the sentence structural pattern is not set in stone, that it is variable within certain limits. Thus the simple sentence, just like the word in morphology, possesses a system of forms or a paradigm.

Each paradigm has a basic form – which is the sentence in the syntactic indicative active voice form of the present indefinite.

The paradigmatic approach facilitates the classification of the parts of the sentence in cases when the form and contents of the utterance are in an asymmetric relationship, i.e., when its formal features contradict its semantic features and neither, therefore, allow us to establish the function of a part of the sentence (for example, sentences with the predicate in the debitive mood).

The two distinct approaches that are used in the study of language, the formal and the semantic, allow us to distinguish the formal paradigm relations from the semantic paradigm relations. The formal paradigm implementation allows us to omit some formal component without changing the semantics of the sentence. The semantic implementation can be seen in how the change of the meaning leads to the formal changes of the utterance.

The formal aspect of the syntactic paradigm

Bipartite sentences permit the regular zero form of the subject or the predicate of the sentence. The full or partial realization of the forms can be considered parts of the same paradigm. The meaning of the sentence does not change, although its stylistic or emotional expressiveness can be affected.

Two partial realization forms have been established for Latvian. First, the zero form of the subject of the sentence can occur in sentences with the predicate in the first or second person:

(3.2.197) [*Es*] *Neesmu ticis pie*
[I] not_be.AUX.PRS.1SG get.PTCP.NOM.M PREP
savas lauku mājas.
own.GEN.F country.GEN.PL.M house.GEN.F
'(I) Have never gotten my own country home.' (C)

Second, the zero form of the predicate is possible in sentences containing the verb *būt* ‘to be’ in its full lexical meaning (or a synonymous verb). These sentences can be considered to be potentially verbal according to their morphological type. Potentially verbal sentences contain the unrealized verb *būt* ‘to be’ in all three lexical meanings – existential (3.2.198), locative (3.2.199) and possessive (3.2.200):

(3.2.198) *Šogad [ir] tā siltā*
 this_year [be.PRS.3] that.NOM.F warm.NOM.F
ziema.
 winter.NOM.F
 ‘This year (it is) that warm winter.’ (C)

(3.2.199) *Viņam tagad ozoli [ir]*
 he.DAT now oak.NOM.PL.M [be.PRS.3]
tepat aiz meža.
 right_here behind forest.GEN.M
 ‘Now he has oak trees right behind the forest.’ (C)

(3.2.200) *Viņiem [ir] labi biti*
 they.DAT.PL.M [be.PRS.3] good.NOM.PL.M beat.NOM.PL.M
un teksti.
 and text.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Their beats and lyrics are good.’ (C)

The adjunct is a typical means for sentence expansion. If there is no adjunct, the noun in the nominative case will be expanded with the help of attributes:

(3.2.201) *Burvīgs un dūmakains rīts.*
 charming.NOM.M and misty.NOM.M morning.NOM.M
 ‘It is a magical and misty morning.’ (C)

Potentially verbal sentences are paradigmatically limited, as they exist only in the simple present of the indicative mood.

When assessing the realization of the incomplete form, we need to take into account the possibility of the parallel use of the complete form. In the imperative mood the full form is normally not used, unless we want to sound more emphatic, or to single out the agent of the action from among other subjects:

(3.2.202) *Nu nāciet jūs citi un ziņojiet!*
 well come.IMP.2PL you.NOM.PL other.NOM.PL.M and report.IMP.2PL
 ‘Come on you others, and deliver your news!’ (C)

Thus, the presence of the subject in the imperative sentence is not freely controllable.

The semantic aspect of the syntactic paradigm

According to the narrow meaning of the paradigm, the sentence is a system of forms that is connected with the expression of predicativity. It is only the tense and the modality – the grammatical meanings which turn the sentence into a unit of communication – that can change within the paradigm (Skujiņa 2007: 445).

The paradigm is based on the morphological form of the verb. The form of the verb can change only in tense and mood categories, but the subject of the sentence can change the form of its case. The full paradigm is formed by the five modal meanings and all tense forms possible for each mood (see Sections 2.5.3 and 2.5.4).

According to the broad concept of the syntactic paradigm, it contains not only the different tense and modal forms of the sentence, but also the so-called regular semantic realization forms (Lokmane 2013: 735). The semantic realization is the variability of the structural sentence pattern within specific limits: the denotative contents of the sentence do not change, although some of the grammatical or closely-related meanings do change as they are expressed with a specific lexeme instead of the verb form (as in the narrow meaning of the paradigm). The auxiliary verb is added to the sentence adding the meaning of modality, aspect, or unintentionality.

Nevertheless, the limitations of the paradigmatic change are not obvious, as they are set differently in different authors' writing. It would be more useful to consider only those changes as paradigmatic, where neither the sentence proposition, nor the word class of its components, nor their syntactic function changes. The changes do not affect the meanings that refer to the propositional contents of the sentence, but rather the meanings that connect the utterance to the speech situation, thus changing the meaning of the time or modality (it could express the speaker's opinion of the credibility of the contents).

If the auxiliary in the finite form is included in the structural sentence pattern, the verb of the predicate changes its form to the infinitive. Nevertheless, it keeps the main function in the sentence both structurally and from the point of view of its range of co-occurrence:

- (3.2.203) *Deputātām* *neklājas* *šādā*
 parliamentarian.DAT.M **not_befit.PRS.3** such.LOC.M
veidā *runāt.*
 way.LOC.M speak.INF
 'Members of parliament should not be speaking in this way.' (C)

Having become a part of the sentence, the auxiliary can change the form of the subject of the sentence, thus replacing its nominative case with the dative (while keeping its meaning and the function of the subject of the sentence):

- (3.2.204) **Man** *reiz* *gadījās* *redzēt* *sava*
I.DAT once happen.PST.3 see.INF own.GEN.M
kaķa *rotaļu* *ar* *peļi.*
 cat.GEN.M game.ACC.F with mouse.INS.F
 'Once I stumbled upon my cat playing with a mouse.' (C)

- (3.2.205) **Man** *pietika* *tikai* *uzmest*
I.DAT be_enough.PST.3 only throw.INF
kādam *no* *tiem* *aci*
 somebody.DAT.M of that.DAT.PL.M eye.ACC.F
 'It was enough for me to get a glimpse of one of them.' (C)

It is not necessary to be able to deduce all the possible paradigmatic forms of the specific sentence pattern. The possibilities will depend on the lexical meanings of the words and the entire content of the sentence, namely, the real situation as described by the sentence.

3.2.9 The secondary predicate

Depending on the syntactic relations, we can distinguish two types of means for sentence expansion: the extenders of the relations of the word and the extenders of the relations of the sentence (Lokmane 2013: 740–741).

The extenders of the word are connected with the particular word of the sentence. They can be taken on in subordination (as dependent components of the phrases with the meaning of the attribute, object, subject, or an adverbial) or on a formally equivalent basis (the extenders with the meaning of the apposition). The extenders of the sentence, however, are related not to one particular word, but the entire predicative unit – the sentence – or a phrase. Thus, they are incorporated into the sentence independently of the word relations – straight into the second-level syntactic relations – on the basis of the relations of secondary predication and sentence determination (Lokmane 2013: 741–742).

The simple sentence can be expanded by parts of speech which form a latent, supplementary syntactic center of the sentence, which expresses additional or secondary predication (Skujina 2007: 346). The fact that these parts of speech can be easily transformed into primary predicates also suggests their supplementary or partial predicativity:

(3.2.206) *Pa laipu iedams, neskaties*
 PREP plank-way.ACC.F walk.PTCP.NOM.M not_look.IMP.2SG
zvaigznēs!
 star.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Don’t look at the stars while walking on a plank-way.’ (C)

(3.2.207) *Uzreiz sajutām jaunus*
 right_away feel.PST.1PL fresh.ACC.PL.M
vējus pūšam no Liepājas puses
 wind.ACC.PL.M blow.PTCP from Liepāja.GEN.F side.GEN.F
 ‘Right away we felt fresh winds coming from Liepāja.’ (C)

Thus, secondary predication has a certain similarity with primary predication, that is, the components of secondary predication possess the meaning of the tense and modality.

The expression of the meaning of the **tense** can be different for different types of secondary predicates (Lokmane 2013: 742–743).

The characteristics that are given in the secondary predicate are mostly limited to the time period mentioned within the predicate:

(3.2.208) *Dzintars* *skraida* *apkārt* *vesels*
 Dzintars.NOM.M run.PRS.3 around **fit.NOM.M**
kā *rutks.*
 as black_radish.NOM.M
 ‘Dzintars is running around as fit as a fiddle.’ (C)

It is possible that the secondary predicate has its own explicit time reference:

(3.2.209) *Citā* *reizē* *viņu* *sastapis,*
 another.LOC.F time.LOC.F he.ACC **meet.PTCP.NOM.M**
es *sūdzējos* *par* *savu* *neveiksmi.*
 I.NOM complain.PST.1SG about own.ACC.F mishap.ACC.F
 ‘The next time I met him, I complained about my mishap.’ (A. Eglītis)

Sometimes secondary predicates are semantically related to adverbials – this depends on the lexical meaning of the word and is possible in situations when the named characteristic can describe the realia themselves and also the process:

(3.2.210) *Spuldžu* *gaisma* *vairs* *nešķiedās*
 light_bulb.GEN.PL.F light.NOM.F anymore not_scatter.PST.3
ārā, *bet* *aptinās* *istabai*
 outside but wind_around.PST.3 room.DAT.F
silti *un* *mīlīgi.*
 warmly and gently
 ‘The lighting did not spill outside anymore, but warmly embraced the room’. (I. Šķipsna)

The secondary predicate can contain the meaning of the result, that is, it names the characteristic that was not there before the action described by the predicate, but which appeared as a result of that action:

(3.2.210) *Tas* *mani* *kā* *ārstu* *darīja*
 that.NOM.M I.ACC as doctor.ACC.M make.PST.3
uzmanīgu.
cautious.ACC.M
 ‘As a doctor, this made me cautious.’ (C)

The secondary predicate also possesses a modal meaning, which depends on the modality of the predicate.

The secondary predication is less important than the primary predication and can be realized only on its basis. Predication expresses the relation between the subject and its characteristics, just like the attributive relation, but contrary to it, here the characteristic is attributed to the subject during the speech act (in the sentence itself), that is, the relation is named by the speaker and as such it is accepted as a given (Lokmane 2013: 743–744). The attributive relation is realized in the nominal phrase, it is taken ready-made into the sentence, while the secondary predication is realized in the sentence itself. The adjective forming the attribute can be either in its definite or indefinite form, but the adjective in the function

of the secondary predicate can be only in its indefinite form, as it delivers new information.

From the point of view of the semantic structure, there are several propositions in sentences with secondary predicates. New additional conceptual relations can appear between these propositions, for example, the relations of cause and effect:

- (3.2.211) *Es sēdēju zem loga un*
 I.NOM sit.PST.1SG under window.GEN.M and
izmisīs raudāju.
despair.PTCP.NOM.M cry.PST.1SG
 'I was sitting under the window and crying my heart out.' (C)

- (3.2.212) *Viņš, nepatīkami pārsteigts,*
 he.NOM unpleasantly **surprise.PTCP.NOM.M**
iesaucās.
 exclaim.PST.3
 'He cried out unpleasantly surprised.' (C)

In relation to the secondary predicate, the issue of the **main and auxiliary meaning of the verb** arises. Sometimes the appearance of the secondary predicate reduces the meaning of the primary predicate, downgrading it to a copula (Freimane 1985: 74). This creates a nominal compound predicate:

- (3.2.213) *Ziemā šis vienistabas dzīvoklis*
 winter.LOC.F this.NOM.M single_room.GEN.M apartment.NOM.M
parasti stāv tukšs.
 normally **remain.COP.PRS.3 empty.NOM.M**
 'During winter this single room apartment is normally vacant.' (H. Gulbis)

If the verb has been used in its full lexical meaning, then two statements have been expressed, that is, the sentence is based on two propositions:

- (3.2.214) *Knēvelis šaušalīgi lepns stāv*
 youngster.NOM.M ghastly **proud.NOM.M stand.PRS.3**
rasainā rītā uz mājas
 dewy.LOC.M morning.LOC.M on house.GEN.F
lieveņa.
 porch.GEN.M
 'The little whippersnapper is standing on the porch incredibly proud of himself.' (C)

Secondary predicates can be characterized by several features.

First, according to their function in the nuclear sentence, secondary predicates can be divided into two groups – **secondary predicates** (the predicates in the nuclear sentence) and **secondary subjects** (the subject of the nuclear sentence). The majority of secondary predicates during the sentence transformation obtain the function of the predicate (see examples 3.2.211–3.2.214).

The type of secondary predicates that obtain the function of the sentence subject are less frequent. Since they do not have a formal agreement with any of the members of the syntactic center, they are placed into the periphery of the secondary predicates:

- (3.2.215) *Viņš nosēd pie televizora*
 he.NOM sit_about.PRS.3 by television.GEN.M
ar drūmu izbrīnu acīs.
 with dismal.INS.M surprise.INS.M eye.LOC.PL.F
 ‘He remains sitting by the television with a dismally stunned look in his eyes.’ (A. Liepa)

Secondly, secondary predicates can be characterized according to the presence or absence of the formal agreement with their controller. The controller of the secondary predicate is usually the subject or object of the sentence.

The controller for **subject-oriented** secondary predicates is the subject of the sentence:

- (3.2.216) *Pieticīgie grieķi no*
 unpretentious.NOM.PL.M Greek.NOM.PL.M PREP
rīta piecēlušies, segu
 morning.GEN.M rise.PTCP.NOM.PL.M blanket.ACC.F
pārvērtā par togu un izgāja
 change.PST.3 PREP toga.ACC.F and go_out.PST.3
pilsētā viegli un gudri.
 city.LOC.F light.NOM.PL.M and wise.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The unpretentious Greeks, rising in the morning, changed their blanket into a toga and walked into the city easily and wisely.’ (I. Šķipsna)

The controller for the **object-oriented** secondary predicate is the object of the sentence:

- (3.2.217) *Mani dara uzmanīgu šī pieeja*
 I.ACC make.PRS.3 cautious.ACC this.NOM.F approach.NOM.F
zinātnei.
 science.DAT.F
 ‘This approach to science makes me cautious.’ (C)

Third, secondary predicates can be characterized by their (in)dispensability. Secondary predicates are usually dispensable, but there are verbs whose meaning can be realized in the sentence only with the help of a secondary predicate:

- (3.2.218) *Atcerēties mēs mēdzam*
 remember.INF we.NOM be_accustomed.PRS.1PL
tikai to, ko vēlākie
 only that.ACC.M that.ACC later.NOM.PL.M
notikumi padarījuši svarīgu.
 event.NOM.PL.M make.PTCP.NOM.PL.M important.ACC.M
 ‘We usually remember only those events that have turned out to be important afterwards.’ (I. Šķipsna)

Fourth, the part of the speech is also important in the realization of secondary predicates. It is possible to distinguish two groups:

- 1) nominals in the function of secondary predicates;
- 2) verbs in the function of secondary predicates.

Nominal forms as secondary predicates

The **adjective** or its substitute (adjectivized participle, numeral), or less frequently a noun in the nominative, can be used in the function of the secondary predicate:

- (3.2.219) *Jezga* *apkārt* *brāzmoja* *pamatīga.*
 hustle.NOM.F around storm.PST.3 **ample.NOM.F**
 ‘There was ample hustle and bustle around us.’ (Z. Skujiņš)

The **adjective** or its substitute in the accusative is the object-oriented secondary predicate:

- (3.2.220) *Tas* *viņa* *sirdi* *dara* *priecīgu.*
 it.NOM.M he.GEN heart.ACC.F make.PRS.3 **joyful.ACC.F**
 ‘It makes his heart joyful.’ (C)

The form of the **prepositional nominal** with the preposition *par* in the function of the secondary predicate is possible with verbs whose meaning incorporates the meaning of ‘doing something to convert something into something else’ or ‘considering that something is something else’: *norīkot* ‘to appoint’, *iekārtot* ‘to arrange’, *ievēlēt* ‘to elect’, *atzīt* ‘to recognize’, *uzskatīt* ‘to consider’, *nosaukt* ‘to name’, etc. All these object-oriented secondary predicates are compulsory in the sentence:

- (3.2.221) *Pēteris* *šos* *vārdus*
 Peter.NOM.M this.ACC.PL.M word.ACC.PL.M
atzina *par* *ļoti* *prātīgiem.*
 consider.PST.3 **PREP** very **wise.DAT.PL.M**
 ‘Pēteris considered these words as very wise.’ (C)

The secondary predicative function can be carried out by the **instrumental** case with the meaning of a type or characteristic feature. The instrumental can name a characteristic feature of the agent, which describes the agent during the action named by the predicate:

- (3.2.222) *Mārtiņa* *vakarā* *meitas* *ar*
 Martin.GEN.M Eve.LOC.M young_woman.NOM.PL.F with
aizsietām *acīm* *un* *izplestām*
 cover.PTCP.INS.PL.F **eye.INS.PL.F** and outstrech.PTCP.INS.PL.F
rokām *skreļot* *uz* *sētu.*
hand.INS.PL.F run.PTCP to courtyard.ACC.F
 ‘On Martinmas Eve the young women run to the courtyard with their eyes covered and their hands outstretched. (While the young women are running to the courtyard, their eyes are covered and their hands are outstretched).’ (C)

More frequently, however, the instrumental names the characteristics that are constant for the agent:

- (3.2.223) *Manā* *virzienā* *nāk* *kāda*
my.LOC.M direction.LOC.M come.PRS.3 some.NOM.F
jauka *būtne* *ne* *pārāk* *gariem*
nice.NOM.F creature.NOM.F not too long.INS.PL.M
matiem.
hair.INS.PL.M
‘A beautiful creature with medium-length hair is walking in my direction.’
(C)

The instrumental in the function of the secondary predicate does not formally agree with its controller, and as we can see, the meaning of the tense is not so evident either or sometimes can be absent altogether. Thus, we can consider these forms as secondary predicates because of the transformations which are enabled, and secondly because they do not have subordinate relations with any of the words in the sentence.

The instrumental zero prepositional phrase is often used in the function of the secondary predicate:

- (3.2.224) *Resns* *virietis* *raibu* ***cepurī***
fat.NOM.M man.NOM.M multi-colored.INS.F **hat.INS.F**
galvā *izrīkoja* *darbiniekus.*
head.LOC.F order.PST.3 worker.ACC.PL.M
‘A fat man wearing a multi-colored hat was ordering the workers around.’ (C)

Nearly always when the instrumental case describing the characteristic feature is used in the function of the secondary predicate, it demands an attribute, which presents the new information.

The locative case which describes a characteristic feature functions similarly to the instrumental case:

- (3.2.225) *Puiku* *izlaiduši* *ziemas* *laikā*
boy.ACC.M let.PTCP.NOM.PL.M winter.GEN.F weather.LOC.M
vienā ***kreklā.***
one.LOC.M **shirt.LOC.M**
‘The boy has been let out into the wintery weather, wearing only a shirt’.
(C)

Detached secondary predicates can also be expressed with the help of nominal forms, which in Latvian linguistics have traditionally been considered to be detached attributes or appositions. Detachment in Latvian grammar is defined as a specifically stressed part of the sentence or a phrase that has been attributed with a certain syntactic independence and intonational distinction (Nitiņa & Grigorjevs 2013: 810–811). This is most often achieved by moving that part of the sentence to an

unusual position, for example, the attribute is placed after the word it qualifies. In those cases, the syntactic function of the controlling word does not matter. Undetached attributes and detachments describe a characteristic feature as one that has been known before, but the detached attributes express new information which the author considers to be particularly important. Here is an example of a detached attribute:

- (3.2.226) *Acīm* *paveras* *akmeņu*
 eye.DAT.PL.F open_up.PRS.3 stone.GEN.PL.M
muguras, *tik* *lielas* *un* *lēzenas*
 back.NOM.PL.M so big.NOM.PL.F and smooth.NOM.PL.F
kā jūra.
 as sea.NOM.F
 ‘The backs of the stones stretch out before one’s eyes, as big and
 as smooth as the sea itself.’ (C)

Detached attributes are distinctly different from undetached attributes.

First of all, they can easily form coordinative phrases regardless of the number of attributes in the sentence:

- (3.2.227) *Viņa* *skatās* *lielām,* *pelēkām*
 she.NOM gaze.PRS.3 large.INS.PL.F grey.INS.PL.F
acīm, *ļoti* *nopietnām,* *ļoti*
 eye.INS.PL.F very serious.INS.PL.F very
uzmanīgām.
 attentive.INS.PL.F
 ‘She is gazing with her very serious and very attentive large grey eyes.’
 (D. Zigmonte)

Second of all, the detached attribute and apposition can be used next to a pronoun:

- (3.2.228) *Tas* *bija* *visapkārt –* *caurspīdīgs* *un*
 it.NOM.M be.PST.3 everywhere transparent.NOM.M and
sālš.
 salty.NOM.M
 ‘It was everywhere – transparent and salty.’ (N. Ikstena)

Third of all, the detached attribute or apposition group can include the adverbial modifier of time (or some other kind of modifier), which enhances the predicativity of the phrase, as modifiers function as extenders of the predicative unit:

- (3.2.229) *Nācija* *sastāvēja* *no* *daudzām* *dažādām*
 nation.NOM.F consist.PST.3 of many.DAT.F different.DAT.PL.F
tautībām, *lielākoties* *rupjām,*
 ethnic_group.DAT.PL.F mostly brutal.DAT.PL.F
kareivīgām *un* *necivilizētām.*
 warmongering.DAT.PL.F and uncivilized.DAT.PL.F
 ‘The nation consisted of many different ethnic groups, mostly brutal,
 warmongering, and uncivilized.’ (C)

Fourth of all, the detached attributes and appositions in particular surroundings can be perceived as predicates, which form the boundary cases between simple and complex sentences:

- (3.2.230) *Tā* *bija* *buļļa* *seja –* *pietiekami*
 it.NOM.F be.COP.PST.3 bull.GEN.M face.NOM.F sufficiently
svaīga, *veselīgu,* *sārtu* *iedegumu,*
fresh.NOM.F healthy.INS.M rosy.INS.M **suntan.INS.M**
sparīgiem **vaibstiem.**
 vigorous.INS.PL.M **feature.INS.PL.M**
 ‘It was the face of a bull – sufficiently fresh, healthy, rosy from the sun,
 and sporting vigorous features’. (I. Šķipsna)

Fifth of all, the detached attributes, appositions and their groups are detached from the rest of the sentence with the help of the intonation, which in written language is depicted with the help of punctuation marks:

- (3.2.231) *Tāds* *paliks* *kalns* *mūsu*
 such.NOM.M remain.FUT.3 mountain.NOM.M we.GEN
atmiņā – *skaists* *un* *auksts.*
 memory.LOC.F **beautiful.NOM.M** and **cold.NOM.M**
 ‘This is how the mountain will remain in our memory – beautiful and
 cold.’ (C)

All the abovementioned features suggest that these types of extenders can easily become part of a complex sentence. Therefore, they can be considered to be secondary predicates and are not positional attributes or types of appositions.

Secondary predicativity is also a characteristic feature of address forms. These obtain the function of secondary predicate in cases where they describe the addressee:

- (3.2.232) *Tu* *nelieti,* *tu* *briesmoni,*
 you.NOM.SG **bastard.VOC.M** you.NOM.SG **monster.VOC.M**
es *tevi* *nositišu.*
 I.NOM you.ACC kill.FUT.1SG
 ‘You bastard, you monster, I will kill you.’ (C)

Even in cases where the addressee is only named, the address form should be considered a secondary predicate, as its transformation (3.2.233 a. and b.) is possible:

- (3.2.233) a. *Kungi,* *man* *jūsu* *neaugligais*
gentleman.NOM.PL.M I.DAT you.GEN.PL. fruitless.NOM.M
strīds *jau* *ir* *apnicis.*
 quarrel.NOM.M already be.AUX.PRS.3 tire.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Gentlemen, I am tired of your fruitless quarrel.’ (C)
- (3.2.233) b. *Jūs* *[uzrunātie]* *esat* *kungi.*
 you.NOM.PL [addressee] be.COP.PRS.2PL gentleman.NOM.PL.M
 ‘You, that is the addressees, are gentlemen.’

Verbal forms as secondary predicates

In a sentence the function of the secondary predicate can be carried out by all Latvian **participles** (see Section 2.5.9).

The meaning of the relative tense is inherent in the form of the participle itself – in relation to the action named by the finite form of the verb, it is either simultaneous with the action or precedes the action.

Declinable present participles are rarely found functioning as secondary predicates as they function just like adjectives and mostly name the feature and not the parallel action; therefore, they are considered to be substitutes of adjectives:

- (3.2.234) *Tualetes* *galdiņam* *abās* *malās*
toilet.GEN.F table.DAT.M both.LOC.F side.LOC.PL.F
bija *spoguļi*, ***grozāmi*** *kā*
be.COP.PST.3 mirror.NOM.PL.M **adjust.PTCP.NOM.PL.M** like
spārni.
wing.NOM.PL.M
‘The dressing table had mirrors on both sides, which could be adjusted like wings.’ (I. Šķipsna)

- (3.2.235) *Labais* *stils* *ir* *airanu*
good.NOM.M style.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 ayran.ACC.M
pasniegt ***putojošu***.
serve.INF **froth.PTCP.ACC.M**
‘It is good practice to serve the ayran frothy.’
(L. Kota)

In contrast, declinable past participles are often found functioning as secondary predicates. They can either substitute the nominal or function as the central components of the participial clause:

- (3.2.236) *Nama* *vidū* ***apgaismota***
building.GEN.M middle.LOC.M **lit_up.PTCP.NOM.F**
laistījās *milzīga* *ambrazūra*.
shine.PST.3 huge.NOM.F embrasure.NOM.F
‘In the middle of the building there was a huge embrasure, all shiny and lit up.’ (A. Eglītis)

- (3.2.237) *Bim-bomm*, *pulkstenis* *Katoļu* *ielā*
ding_dong clock.NOM.M Katoļu.GEN.PL.M street.LOC.F
aizsmacis *nodun*.
be_hoarse.PTCP.NOM.M resound.PRS.3
‘Ding-dong, the clock on Katoļu Street resounded heavily.’
(I. Ābele)

The semi-declinable participle has a very narrow semantics (it only names the accompanying action) and only one syntactic function, that is, it is always the secondary predicate:

- (3.2.238) *Nezinādama, vilcinādamās mana*
not_know.PTCP.NOM.F **linger.PTCP.NOM.F** **my.NOM.F**
roka beidzot iegrima mitrajā
 hand.NOM.F finally sink.PST.3 damp.LOC.F
masā.
 mass.LOC.F
 ‘Not knowing, lingering, my hand finally sank into the damp mass.’
 (I. Šķipsna)

Similarly, indeclinable participles also function only as secondary predicates. In cases where they function as subject-oriented secondary predicates, the subject of the sentence becomes the agent of both the finite form and the form named by the participle.

Participles with the ending *-am* are found with verbs describing psychological states:

- (3.2.239) *Ar degsmi un prieku daru tikai to,*
ko [es] apzinos darām
 what.ACC [I.NOM] perceive.PRS.1SG **do.PTCP**
vai zinām labāk nekā citi.
 or **know.PTCP** better than other.NOM.PL.M
 ‘I can carry out only those actions with joy and passion that I perceive as being capable of doing or knowing better than others.’ (V. Freimane)

The indeclinable participle with the ending *-am* is often used together with the verbs *šķīst, likties* ‘to seem’. In this case we can observe the raised subject construction where the agent of the action named by the participle becomes the subject of the sentence, but the patient of the state named by the predicate is either generalized or deducible from the context:

- (3.2.240) *Smadzenes šķiet neizjūtam*
 brain.NOM.PL.F seem.PRS.3 **not_distinguish.PTCP**
atšķirību starp reālo un
 difference.ACC.F between real.ACC.M and
iedomāto.
 imagine.PTCP.ACC.M
 ‘The brain seemingly fails to distinguish the real from the imagined.’ (C)
- (3.2.241) *Krāsns mute likās žāvājamies*
 furnace.GEN.F mouth.NOM.F seem.PST.3 **yawn.PTCP**
aiz garlaicības.
 from boredom.GEN.F
 ‘The mouth of the furnace seemed to be yawning from boredom.’
 (D. Zigmonte)

Participles ending with *-ot* functioning as subject-oriented secondary predicates are mostly found in participial clauses:

- (3.2.242) *Lasot* *vēstuli,* *Oto* *bija* *gar*
read.PTCP letter.ACC.F Oto.NOM.M be.AUX.PST.3 along
sienu *noslīdējis* *līdz* *sēdus* *tupienam.*
 wall.ACC.F sink.PTCP.NOM.M until sitting squatting.DAT.M
 ‘While reading the letter, Oto had sunk down along the wall and was
 squatting in a sitting position.’ (L. Muktopāvela)

The agent can be generalized, thereby remaining syntactically unrealized:

- (3.2.243) *[Tu]* *jūtīsies* *labi,* *darot* *ko*
 [you.NOM.SG] feel.FUT.2SG good do.PTCP something.ACC
pozitīvu.
 positive.ACC.M
 ‘You will feel good doing something positive.’ (C)

Sometimes the agent of the action described by a participle ending in *-ot* is different than the subject of the sentence, and can be deduced from context or general knowledge:

- (3.2.244) *Skatoties* *uz viņiem* *no Vidzemes* *augstienes,*
look.PTCP at they.DAT.M from Vidzeme.GEN.F upland.GEN.F
viņi *izskatās tāli* *un sīki.*
 they.NOM.M seem.PRS.3 distant.NOM.M and tiny.NOM.M
 ‘Looking at them from the Vidzeme Upland, they all seem distant and
 tiny.’ (A. Lice)

Indeclinable participles, especially the participles ending in *-am*, can also act as object-oriented secondary predicates, that is, the agent of the action named by the participle is the object of the sentence:

- (3.2.245) *Ik rudeni* *viņš* *gaidīja* *uzkrītam*
 every autumn.ACC.M he.NOM wait.PST.3 **fall.PTCP**
pirmo *sniegu.*
 first.ACC.M snow.ACC.M
 ‘Every autumn he was looking forward to the falling of the first snow.’
 (D. Zigmonte)

It is also possible that syntactically the participle is subject-oriented, but semantically object-oriented, because it characterizes the patient of the action named by the predicate:

- (3.2.246) *Vēl ceturtdien “Eolikas”* *četrrotne*
 just Thursday Eolika.GEN.F four_members.NOM.F
bija manāma *draudzīgi esam* *uz*
 be.COP.PST.3 notice.PTCP.NOM.F friendly **be.PTCP** on
skatuves.
 stage.GEN.F
 ‘Just this Thursday, the four members of the group «Eolika» could be seen
 being friendly on the stage.’ (www.nra.lv)

Used together with the transitive reflexive verbs *teikties* ‘to claim’, *sacīties* ‘to claim’ the participle is semantically syncretic, because the subject and the object are coreferential:

- (3.2.247) *Vēl pirmdien abas puses teicās*
 just Monday both.NOM.PL.F side.NOM.PL.F claim.PST.3
par kandidātiem neko nezinām.
 about candidate.DAT.PL.M nothing.ACC. not_know.PTCP
 ‘Just this Monday both sides were claiming not to know anything about their candidates.’ (LNT)

An indeclinable participle ending in *-ot* can be used together with the name of a separate agent in its dative form in the absolute dative construction:

- (3.2.248) *Ķekatnieki aizlaidās puteņainajā naktī,*
 mummer.NOM.PL.M leave.PST.3 blizzardy.LOC.F night.LOC.F
kamanu zvārguļiem šķindot.
 sleigh.GEN.PL.F bell.DAT.PL.M jingle.PTCP
 ‘With the jingle of sleigh bells, the mummers disappeared into the blizzardy night.’ (D. Zigmonte)

The **infinitive** form of the verb can be used in the sentence in different functions (see Sections 3.2.3 and 3.2.6), but the function of the secondary predicate is the most characteristic one.

The subject infinitive names the action carried out by the person named by the subject, therefore, it is the subject-oriented secondary predicate.

The infinitive of the subject describing the purpose is found after verbs of direction:

- (3.2.249) *Iešu salikt mantas.*
 go.FUT.1SG pack.INF belonging.ACC.PL.F
 ‘I will go pack.’ (C)

The object infinitive describes an action carried out by the object of the sentence, thus, in the sentence it has the function of the object-oriented secondary predicate. In Latvian, the object infinitive is used together with verbs that have meanings relating to encouragement or prohibition – *aicināt* ‘to invite’, *ieteikt* ‘to suggest’, *likt* ‘to force, make’, *liegt* ‘to forbid’, *lūgt* ‘to ask’, *mācīt* ‘to teach’, *mudināt* ‘to encourage’, *pavēlēt* ‘to order’, *piesacīt* ‘to admonish’, *prasīt* ‘to demand’, *pierunāt* ‘to persuade’ (Freimane 1985: 72):

- (3.2.250) *Ar pogām man ļāva spēlēties.*
 with button.INS.PL.F I.DAT allow.PST.3 play.INF
 ‘I was allowed to play with buttons.’ (C)

The object infinitive can be compulsory depending on the lexical meaning of the matrix verb.

The infinitive in Latvian is normally used after nouns with a meaning relating to modality, and less often after adjectives (*vēlēšanās* ‘wish’, *iespēja* ‘possibility’, *spēja* ‘capacity’, *alkas* ‘longing, desire’, *griba* ‘will’, *apņēmība* ‘resolution’, *nepieciešamība* ‘need’, *pienākums* ‘duty’, *pamudinājums* ‘encouragement’, *aicinājums* ‘appeal’, *cerība* ‘hope’, *lūgums* ‘request’, *nodoms* ‘intention’, *paraša*, *paradums* ‘habit’, *spējīgs* ‘capable of’, and so on):

- (3.2.251) *Viņa ķermeni caurdūra alkas*
 he.GEN body.ACC.M pierce.PST.3 desire.NOM.PL.F
meiteni saķert.
 girl.ACC.F catch.INF
 ‘His body was pierced by the desire to catch the girl.’ (G. Repše)

- (3.2.252) *Viņa paklausīja aicinājumam aizvizināt*
 she.NOM succumb.PST.3 request.DAT.M take.INF
līdz pašām namdurvīm.
 to self.DAT.PL.F door.DAT.PL.F
 ‘She gave in to the request to take (the passenger) all the way to the actual door.’ (I. Grebзде)

The majority of these nouns and adjectives are derived from verbs and their semantics are very close to the semantics of verbs used as auxiliaries.

The infinitive can be taken on by other nouns (and adjectives) with an abstract meaning relating to the outcome of a thought process, emotional state, or ethical concept (*prieks* ‘joy’, *kauns* ‘shame’, *tiesības* ‘rights’, *bailes* ‘fear’, *drosme* ‘courage’, *jēga* ‘sense’, *iemesls* ‘reason’, *nozīme* ‘meaning’, and so on).

- (3.2.253) *Man vairs nav iemesla par*
 I.DAT anymore not_be.PRS.3 reason.GEN.M about
kaut ko šaubīt.
 something.ACC doubt.INF
 ‘I have no reason to doubt anything anymore.’ (C)

- (3.2.254) *Nav nozīmes kaut ko atstāt*
 not_be.PRS.3 sense.GEN.F something.ACC leave.INF
bērniem
 child.DAT.PL.M
 ‘There is no sense in leaving anything for the children.’ (C)

- (3.2.255) *Tagad vecmāmiņai īstais laiks paskatīties*
 now granny.DAT.F right.NOM.M time.NOM.M look.INF
izbrīnā.
 surprise.LOC.M
 ‘Now is just the time for the granny to look up in surprise.’ (D. Zigmonte)

Typically, nouns (and adjectives) are part of the syntactic center of the sentence, thus it is the predicative use of the word that implements the meaning of the modality or

evaluation. It suggests that the infinitive is part of the predicative complex instead of just describing the noun.

This is one of the reasons why infinitive forms used after the noun or adjective should be considered secondary predicates and not dependent components of nominal phrases. The other reason is the fact that the lexical meaning of the noun does not suggest the need for an extender in the meaning of the object of the sentence which is in the form of the infinitive. The infinitive used after the noun differs from the attribute, because the attribute describes a characteristic feature of the noun, but in the sentence, e.g., (3.2.256), the infinitive does not describe the noun *doma* ‘thought, idea’, but characterizes the action while pointing to its agent.

- (3.2.256) *Kā tev radās doma kļūt*
 how you.DAT arise.PST.3 idea.NOM.F become.INF
par modes mākslinieci?
 PREP fashion.GEN.F designer.ACC.F
 ‘How did it occur to you to become a fashion designer?’ (C)

A **compound secondary predicate** is formed by a copula together with a nominal or its substitute, and the secondary predicate also aligns its form with that of the primary predicate:

- (3.2.257) *Kā jūs to varat panākt,*
 how you.NOM.PL.M that.ACC be_able.PRS.2PL achieve.INF
mācītājs būdams?
priest.NOM.M be.COP.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘How can you achieve that being a priest?’ (C)

- (3.2.258) *Tās bija divas*
 that.NOM.PL.F be.COP.PST.3 two.NOM.PL.F
dienas, kas mums lika būt
 days.NOM.PL.F that we.DAT made.PST.3 **be.COP.INF**
laimīgiem.
happy.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Those were two days that made us happy.’ (C)

If a secondary predicate or its phrase precedes its controller, the sentence will contain the zero form of the copula *būdams* ‘being’:

- (3.2.259) [*Būdama*] *dzīves likstu*
 [be.COP.PTCP] life.GEN.F misfortune.GEN.PL.F
nomākta, saimniece vairs
 deject.PTCP.NOM.F mistress.NOM.F anymore
nemācēja pasmaidīt.
 not_know_how.PST.3 smile.INF
 ‘Having succumbed to the misfortunes of her life, the mistress of the house would not smile anymore.’ (D. Zigmonte)

The copula in the form of the indeclinable participle can be found in different types of syntactic constructions:

- (3.2.260) *Zemledus* *makšķernieki* *izrādījušies*
under_ice.GEN.M fisherman.NOM.PL.M turn_out.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
esam **glābējeņģēli** *tieši* *nelaimes*
be.COP.PTCP guardian_angel.NOM.PL.M just accident.GEN.F
vietā.
place.LOC.F
‘The ice fishermen turned out to be guardian angels right at the location of the accident.’ (*Diena*)

Second, the object-oriented secondary predicate can be found in the form of the indeclinable participle:

- (3.2.261) *Žurnālisti* *iedomājās* *sevi*
journalist.NOM.PL.M imagine.PST.3 self.ACC
esam *rakstnieces* *uzticības* **personas.**
be.COP.PTCP writer.GEN.F loyalty.GEN.F person.ACC.PL.M
‘The journalists see themselves as the confidantes of the writer.’
(G. Repše)

Third, when used together with the reflexive verbs *teikties* ‘to claim’, *dēvēties* ‘to call oneself’, *sacīties* ‘to claim’, *domāties* ‘to think’, *sajusties* ‘to feel’ the compound secondary predicate is object-oriented according to its form, and syncretic according to its meaning:

- (3.2.262) *Viņš* *sakās* **esam**
he.NOM suggest.PRS.3 be.COP.PTCP
trakoti **norūpējies** *par*
go_wild concern.PTCP.NOM.M about
tiesiskumu *valstī.*
justice.ACC.M country.LOC.F
‘He is suggesting being madly concerned about the situation of justice in this country.’ (www.delfi.lv)

- (3.2.263) *Vai* *viņš* *ir* *tas,* **kas**
Q he.NOM be.COP.PRS.3 that.NOM.M who.NOM
domājās **esam?**
think.PST.3 be.COP.PTCP
‘Is he really the person he thinks he is?’ (A. Neiburga)

A copula in the infinitive form together with a nominal in the dative is part of the object-oriented secondary predicate. The controller is the name of the object in the dative:

- (3.2.264) *Ļauj* *viņam* **būt** **laimīgam.**
let.IMP.PRS.2SG he.DAT be.COP.INF happy.DAT.M
‘Let him be happy.’ (C)

The secondary predicate, just like the primary predicate, can contain a modal or aspectual auxiliary. In this case it forms a compound secondary predicate:

- (3.2.265) *Tagad bija laiks sākt mācīties*
 now be.PST.3 time.NOM.M start.INF learn.INF
dzīvi.
 life.ACC.F
 ‘Now was time to start learning how to live.’ (I. Šķipsna)

- (3.2.266) *Viņš man vēstules rakstīja,*
 he.NOM I.DAT letter.ACC.PL.F write.PST.3
pielabināties gribēdams.
 get_into_good_graces.INF want.PTCP.M
 ‘He was writing letters to me hoping to get into my good graces.’ (C)

The comparative clause in the function of the secondary predicate

In a simple sentence, the secondary predicate is formed by the comparative clause.

If the comparative clause contains a noun, it is most often a secondary subject:

- (3.2.267) *Viņu pareģojumi izšķīduši kā*
 they.GEN prediction.NOM.PL.M burst.PTCP.NOM.PL.M like
ziepju burbuļi.
 soap.GEN.PL.F bubble.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Their predictions have burst like soap bubbles.’ (C)

If the comparative clause contains a noun in the dative, it is a secondary predicate:

- (3.2.268) *Kā jau domātājam, Ziedonim ļoti*
 as PTCL thinker.DAT.M Ziedonis.DAT.M very
svarīgs ir ceļa
 important.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 road.GEN.M
jēdziens.
 concept.NOM.M
 ‘As can be expected from a thinker, the concept of the road was very important for Ziedonis.’ (G. Berelis)

If the comparative clause contains a verb form, then the verb is a secondary predicate:

- (3.2.269) *Visi ziņojumi tika atzīmēti*
 all.NOM.PL.M report.NOM.PL.M get.AUX.PST.3 mark.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
kā izlasīti.
 as read.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
 ‘All the reports got marked as read.’ (C)

When comparing, it is difficult to differentiate between secondary predication in a simple sentence and ellipsis in the clause of a complex sentence. This is an objective difficulty, as sentences with a comparative clause can be expanded into several core

sentences. The number of extenders and their types could serve as a criterion for establishing the type of sentence, for example:

- (3.2.270) *Vieglie lido kā spalviņas*
 light.NOM.PL.M fly.PRS.3 like feather.NOM.PL.F
viļņa galotnē.
 wave.GEN.M top.LOC.F
 ‘The light ones fly like feathers at the top of a wave.’ (C)

The extender with an adverbial meaning *galotnē* ‘at the top’, suggests that the comparative phrase could form a clause (*flying like feathers fly at the top of a wave*).

3.2.10 Adjuncts

Adjuncts are free extenders of a sentence, which are valency-independent and whose form and semantics are independent of the predicate. They possess syntactic autonomy and they modify the entire sentence – not only the predicate, but also the parts of the sentence that are connected to it – the subject of the sentence and the sentence extenders, if they are present (Skujīņa 2007: 86). Adjuncts can be found in different types of sentences usually situated at the beginning of the sentence.

A dative-marked adjunct with the meaning of an experiencer (3.2.271, 3.2.272) or a possessor (3.2.273) usually names a person or another living being:

- (3.2.271) *Lai tev veicas visās dzīvēs*
 may you.DAT.SG succeed.PRS.3 all.LOC.PL.F life.GEN.F
jomās!
 area.LOC.PL.F
 ‘Good luck in all areas of your life!’ (www.nra.lv)

- (3.2.272) *Zivīm slāpst.*
 fish.DAT.PL.F suffocate.PRS.3
 ‘The fish are suffocating.’ (www.spoki.lv)

- (3.2.273) *Mums ir jauna māja lapa.*
 we.DAT be.PRS.3 new.NOM.F home.GEN.F page.NOM.F
 ‘We have a new homepage.’ (www.facebook.com)

Latvian syntax has conceptualized the experiencer or the dative of possession in different ways. Ozols (1967: 202) considers the dative of experiencer or possession to function as the so-called **indirect subject of the sentence**. Thus, he proposes a three-member syntactic center for the sentence, formed by the verb, the direct subject of the sentence in the nominative, and the indirect subject of the sentence in the dative. In addition, the dative is not considered to have any additional syntactic function, if the sentence does not contain the direct subject of the sentence. In cases where the dative has a syncretic indirect subject and object function, it is proposed that the dative form should be considered the object-subject of the sentence (Ozols 1967: 181).

Kārkliņš (1968: 295) offers a similar solution, proposing a complex syntactic center for the sentence. He points out that the predication is implemented in two simultaneous aspects: the predicative personal aspect, expressed by the dative and the impersonal predicative aspect, expressed by the nominative. The function of the subject of the sentence, according to Kārkliņš (1968: 291), can be based on the fact that the dative expresses the meaning of person, and the name of the person is always the subject of the sentence. However, the proposed model of a three-member syntactic center for the sentence did not gain wider support.

According to Freimane (1984: 56), the dative of the experiencer and possession should be considered a free sentence extender – an adjunct. It is a part of the sentence, which is not subordinated to any word, and remains loosely connected to the whole sentence. Thus, the attribution of the meaning to the whole structural basis of the sentence and the lack of a direct connection to any particular word in the sentence has to be considered the main characteristic feature of the dative-marked adjunct (Freimane 1984: 58–59). Rozenbergs (1970: 56), in turn, suggested that adjuncts are the parts of the sentence that are not conditioned by the valency of the predicate, nevertheless, they form the basic structure of the sentence.

The other words of the sentence do not form the relation of subordination with the dative of the experiencer or possession. The head of a phrase usually is a lexeme which can be used in any grammatical form, however, e.g., the infinitive forms of the verbs in the examples (3.2.271–3.2.273) *veikties* ‘to succeed’, *slāpt* ‘to suffocate’, *būt* ‘to be’ are not compatible with the dative of the experiencer or possession.

An important feature of the adjunct is its place at the beginning of the sentence. Although word order in Latvian is rather free and is mostly used to express information structure, it is nevertheless often related to the type of syntactic relations and semantics of a particular part of a sentence, for example, the sentences (3.2.274 and 3.2.275) have completely different meanings:

(3.2.274) *Viņam tas viss ir.*
 he.DAT it.NOM.M all.NOM.M be.PRS.3
 ‘He has it all.’ (www.apollo.lv)
 (*Viņam* is the dative of possession, thus the adjunct.)

(3.2.275) *Tas viss ir viņam.*
 that.NOM.M all.NOM.M be.PRS.3 he.DAT
 ‘All that is for him.’
 (*Viņam* is the dative of the beneficiary, thus it is a component of the phrase.)

The dative-marked adjunct can often be compulsory in the sentence, as the sentence cannot function as an independent communicative unit without it. The dative-marked adjunct can be found in different types of sentences, although it will mostly occur in the following distribution.

First of all, the dative of the experiencer can be found in verbal sentences where the predicate or the main part of the sentence is an impersonal verb naming a state or a matter of chance:

- (3.2.276) *Tev nepatīk baritons?*
 you.DAT.SG not_like.PRS.3 baritone.NOM.M
 ‘Don’t you like baritone?’ (I. Šķipsna)

Second of all, the dative of the experiencer can be found in adverbial sentences where the predicate names some state:

- (3.2.277) *Tas būs interesanti ikvienam.*
 it.NOM.M be.COP.FUT.3 interesting anyone.DAT.M
 ‘It will be interesting for anyone.’ (www.fenikssfun.com)

Third of all, the dative of possession can be found in verbal sentences with the verb *būt* ‘to be’ or *nebūt* ‘not to be’ as a full lexical verb in the predicate:

- (3.2.278) *Tagad mums ir vairāki drošības dienesti.*
 now we.DAT be.PRS.3 several.NOM.PL.M
 security.GEN.F service.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Now we have several security services.’ (A. Kolbergs)

A possessive meaning can be also seen in the cases where the adjunct and the subject of the sentence stand in relation to the part and the whole or when they describe characteristic features:

- (3.2.279) *Gara pasaulei nav robežu.*
 spirit.GEN.M world.DAT.F not_be.PRS.3 border.GEN.PL.F
 ‘The spiritual world does not have any borders.’ (Z. Mauriņa)

Būt ‘to be’ can be also used in its zero form in potentially verbal sentences:

- (3.2.280) *Kādas jums te [ir] divainas metaforas ...*
 what_kind.NOM.PL.F you.DAT.PL here [be.PRS.3]
 strange.NOM.PL.F metaphor.NOM.PL.F
 ‘What strange metaphors you have here!’ (S. Kaldupe)

The dative in the sentences (3.2.281) and (3.2.282) can also be considered an adjunct:

- (3.2.281) *Tūristiem Ventspilī būs ko darīt.*
 tourist.DAT.PL.M Ventspils.LOC.F be.FUT.3 what.ACC do.INF
 ‘The tourists in Ventspils will have something to do.’ (www.ventspils.lv)

- (3.2.282) *Man viņām nav ko pārmest.*
 I.DAT she.DAT.PL.F not_be.PRS.3 what.ACC
 reprimand.INF
 ‘I have nothing to reprimand them for.’ (A. Kolbergs)

Such sentences in modern Latvian are considered to be simple (see also 3.5.2).

Fourth of all, dative-marked adjuncts with the combined meaning of the possessor and experiencer can be rather freely situated in the sentence – their distribution does not have any formal or semantic limitations:

(3.2.283) *Man sirds top smaga.*
I.DAT heart.NOM.F get.COP.PRS.3 heavy.NOM.F
 ‘My heart feels heavy.’ (V. Jākobsons)

(3.2.284) *Šodien man nav darāmā diena.*
 today **I.DAT** not_be.PRS.3 do.PTCP.NOM.F day.NOM.F
 ‘Today is not my day of action.’ (V. Jākobsons)

(3.2.285) *Lielākoties man izrādījās taisnība.*
 mostly **I.DAT** turn_out.PST.3 truth.NOM.F
 ‘Most of the time, I turned out to be right.’ (V. Freimane)

When the dative expresses a possessive meaning it competes with the genitive; however, there are some semantic differences between the two case forms. The dative stresses the existence of possessive relations at the moment of utterance, while the possessive genitive does not imply this meaning (Lokmane 2014b).

Fifth of all, the dative when used together with the present passive participle as the predicate has the meaning of the agent. Usually, the verb is transitive; the object is named in the nominative, and thus carries out the function of the subject of the sentence. Therefore, the dative functions as an adjunct:

(3.2.286) *Man vēl viens darbiņš darāms.*
I.DAT still one.NOM.M job.NOM.M do.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘I have one more job to do.’ (www.maminuklubs.lv)

If the participle is formed from an intransitive verb, the meaning of the agent is even stronger. Nevertheless, due to systemic assumptions, the dative is still to be considered an adjunct:

(3.2.287) *Mums bija caur uguni ejams.*
we.DAT be.COP.PST.3 through fire.ACC.F go.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘We were to go through the fire.’ (I. Indrāne)

Adverbial adjuncts, like dative-marked adjuncts, expand the sentence regardless of the relations between the words, thus they are not part of any phrase (Freimane 1985: 83). Usually they refer to the sentence as a whole and are placed at the beginning of the sentence:

(3.2.288) *Pirkstos mirdzēja smalkas sidraba*
finger.LOC.PL.M glitter.PST.3 fine.NOM.PL.F silver.GEN.M
 rotas.
 jewelry.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Fine silver jewelry glittered on the fingers.’ (L. Muktupāvela)

The sentence can start with several locative adjuncts used in parallel:

- (3.2.289) *Augšā aiz mākoņiem lido*
high.LOC.F behind cloud.DAT.PL.M fly.PRS.3
melnās piles.
 black.NOM.PL.F duck.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The black ducks fly high up above the clouds.’ (A. Bels)

The adverbial adjunct usually expresses the meaning of the place or time, but there are also other adverbial adjuncts, for example, those with the meaning of the cause:

- (3.2.290) *Naktī, vējā smiltīm ir*
 night.LOC.F **wind.LOC.M** sand.DAT.PL.F be.PRS.3
balss.
 voice.NOM.F
 ‘At night, in the wind, the sand has a voice.’ (A. Bels)

In the sentences with adverbial adjuncts, the predicate is often placed before the subject of the sentence:

- (3.2.291) *Barā tomēr bija stingra*
crowd.LOC.M however be.PST.3 strict.NOM.F
kārtība.
 order.NOM.F
 ‘There was, however, a strict order in the crowd.’ (A. Eglītis)

- (3.2.292) *Virs galvas šalca putnu spārni.*
above head.GEN.F rustle.PST.3 bird.GEN.PL.M wing.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The wings of the birds rustled overhead.’ (A. Bels)

The adverbial adjunct can also be an obligatory sentence extender, especially in potentially verbal sentences:

- (3.2.293) *Uz vārtiņiem vējrādītājs*
on gate.DAT.PL.M weather_vane.NOM.M
ķēmīga putna izskatā.
 freakish.GEN.M bird.GEN.M look.LOC.M
 ‘There was a freakish birdlike weather vane on the gate.’ (S. Kaldupe)

Often there is both an adverbial and a dative-marked adjunct at the beginning of the sentence:

- (3.2.294) *Viņam kājās tie paši*
he.DAT foot.LOC.PL.F that.NOM.PL.M same.NOM.PL.M
jau divdesmit piecus gadus
 already twenty five.ACC.PL.M year.ACC.PL.M
valkātie zābaki.
 wear.PTCP.NOM.PL.M boot.NOM.PL.M
 ‘His feet were covered by the same boots that he had been wearing for twenty-five years.’ (Z. Mauriņa)

If the predicate is not verbal, identification of the adjunct does not cause any difficulties, since there is no verb to subordinate the adverb (Freimane 1984: 59). In verbal sentences, however, the detection of adjuncts can be problematic. Although, if the adverbial does not depend on the valency of the predicate, then there is no doubt that it is an adjunct as it will not be part of any verbal phrase:

- (3.2.295) *Trešajā dienā vairs nesāp.*
 third.LOC.F **day.LOC.F** anymore not_hurt.PRS.3
 ‘On the third day it does not hurt anymore.’ (A. Lice)

There is a view in Latvian syntax, that any adverb, positioned at the beginning of the sentence, has the potential to refer to the whole sentence regardless of the lexical meaning of the predicate (Freimane 1984: 64).

- (3.2.296) *Manī kaut kas sabrieda, sasparojās,*
I.LOC something swell.PST.3 brace_up.PST.3
sadīga, ieriesās un atvērās.
 sprout.PST.3 germinate.PST.3 and open_up.PST.3
 ‘Something swelled and braced up, sprouted, germinated and opened up within me.’ (L. Muktupāvela)

The opening position in the sentence (or in a clause of a composite sentence) is the most characteristic feature of the adjunct, as the components of phrases are usually found on the right side of the predicate.

Adverbials that follow the noun and are not subordinated to any word in the sentence should also be considered adjuncts:

- (3.2.297) a. *Lielais zālājs aiz loga*
 large.NOM.M lawn.NOM.M **aiz** **loga**
behind **window.GEN.M**
vēl bija krēslā.
 still be.COP.PST.3 dusk.LOC.F
 ‘The large lawn behind the window was still in the dusk.’ (I. Šķipsna)

The lexical meaning of the word *zālājs* ‘lawn’ does not require the characterization of its place, (*zālājs aiz loga* ‘the lawn behind the window’ is not a phrase), therefore we can transform the sentence into two predicative units:

- (3.2.297) b. *Lielais zālājs, kas ir*
 large.NOM.M lawn.NOM.M which.NOM be.PRS.3
aiz loga, vēl
 behind window.GEN.M still
bija krēslā.
 be.COP.PST.3 dusk.LOC.F
 ‘The large lawn, which was behind the window, was still in the dusk.’

This signals the implicit predicativity of this adjunct. The structure of this sentence has been condensed to such a level, that neither the subject, nor the predicate of the proposition have been realized, thus formally there is only an adverbial.

An adverbial positioned after the secondary predicate also represents a separate proposition and should be considered an adjunct:

- (3.2.298) *Viņš nosēd pie televizora*
 he.NOM sit.PRS.3 by television.GEN.M
drūmu izbrīnu acīs.
 gloomy.INS.M astonishment.INS.M eye.LOC.PL.F
 ‘He stays in front of the TV screen, with a gloomy astonishment in his eyes.’ (A. Liepa)

3.2.11 Subordination in the simple sentence

The extenders standing in relation to a separate word are incorporated into sentences by means of subordination. Subordinative relations between words are forged by the word as a lexico-grammatical unit (Lokmane 2013: 761). The relations create phrases with lexical units as their heads, in some rare cases the head can also be a word form. Regardless of the grammatical form of the head, the phrase does not collapse, which suggests that the phrase has its own paradigm, which is based on the form system of the head (its morphological paradigm), for example, *lasīt ogas* ‘to pick berries’, *lasu ogas* ‘I am picking berries’, *lasījām ogas* ‘we were picking berries’, *lasot ogas* ‘while picking berries’, etc.

The subordinated extenders can function as an object, attribute, adverbial, or apposition. They can also have the meaning of an agent.

Objects

Extenders functioning as objects have traditionally been called complements and most often are arguments of the verb (Skujiņa 2007: 278). The object is a generalization, which can be made more concrete depending on the grammatical form used to express the object, thus creating different kinds of objects.

The direct object can be expressed by a noun or its substitute in the accusative, which usually has the meaning of a patient (3.2.299) or percept (3.2.300):

- (3.2.299) *Tu visu vari ēst?*
 you.NOM.SG all.ACC.M be_able.PRS.2SG eat.INF
 ‘Can you eat anything?’ (C)
- (3.2.300) *Es redzēju briesmīgu sapni.*
 I.NOM see.PST.1SG terrible.ACC.M dream.ACC.M
 ‘I saw a terrible dream.’ (C)

The indirect object can be expressed by a noun or its substitute in the dative, which usually has the meaning of an addressee or a beneficiary:

- (3.2.301) *Viņš stāstīja man savu sapni.*
 he.NOM tell.PST.3 I.DAT own.ACC.M dream.ACC.M
 ‘He told me his dream.’ (C)

Next to the indirect object, the phrase can also contain the direct object in the accusative:

- (3.2.302) *Tēt, nopērc man suni.*
 dad.VOC.M buy.IMP.2SG I.DAT dog.ACC.M
 ‘Dad, buy me a dog!’ (T. Zeltiņš)

Only the indirect object without the direct object can be subordinated to the verb:

- (3.2.303) *Tu driksti viņiem pieskarties.*
 you.NOM.SG be_allowed.PRS.2SG they.DAT.M touch.INF
 ‘You can touch them.’ (C)

The dative-marked object can also have the syncretic meaning of the experiencer and possessor, if the sentence contains a name of a body part of the object:

- (3.2.304) *Cauna man iekoda rokā.*
 marten.NOM.F I.DAT bite.PST.3 hand.LOC.F
 ‘The marten bit my hand. (C)

The direct object can be expressed by a noun or its substitute in the instrumental with the meaning of an instrument or companion:

- (3.2.305) *Piedāvājumā rokām darināti un rūpnieciski austi paklāji.*
 offer.LOC.M hand.INS.PL.F make.PTCP.NOM.PL.M and
 industrially weave.PTCP.NOM.PL.M carpet.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Offering handmade and industrially woven carpets.’ (C)

- (3.2.306) *Kā tu varēji dzīvot ar mani?*
 how you.NOM.SG be_able.PST.2SG live.INF with
 I.INS
 ‘How could you live with me?’ (C)

The indirect object can be expressed by a prepositional phrase with a variety of meanings depending on the semantics of the preposition:

- (3.2.307) *Katra meitene sapņo par baltu kleitu.*
 every.NOM.F girl.NOM.F dream.PRS.3 about
 white.ACC.F dress.ACC.F
 ‘Every girl dreams of a white dress.’ (C)

- (3.2.308) *No kļavas taisa cirvja kātus.*
 of maple.GEN.F make.PRS.3 axe.GEN.M handle.ACC.PL.M
 ‘Axe handles are made from maple.’ (C)

The nouns and their substitutes in the nominative together with the predicate in the debitive mood can also be considered subordinated, namely, as objects.

In such sentences the function of the subject is expressed by the dative, whereas the nominative has the semantics typical of an object:

- (3.2.309) *Dzīvokļos bija jātaisa*
flat.LOC.PL.M be.AUX.PST.3 DEB.make.
remonts.
renovation.NOM.M
‘The flats had to be renovated.’ (C)

Although the syntactic function of the nominative in sentences with the debitive is problematic (see Holvoet & Grzybowska 2014; Holvoet & Nau 2014a for more), an additional semantic criterion to support its object function is the fact that the first and second person pronouns in the standard language are in the accusative (see also Fennells 1995: 46):

- (3.2.310) *Man tevi jāsauc īstajā vārdā.*
I.DAT you.ACC.SG DEB.call real.LOC.M name.LOC.M
‘I have to call you by your real name.’ (C)
- (3.2.311) *Viņiem būtu jāredz mani šeit.*
they.DAT.M be.AUX.COND DEB.see I.ACC here
‘They should have seen me here.’ (C)

In spoken language and less formal standard language, the accusative form of the object can substitute for the nominative:

- (3.2.312) *To jāredz katram.* (C)
it.ACC DEB.see everybody.DAT.M
‘This must be seen by everybody.’ (C)

The object can be subordinated to a deverbal noun. In this case, the object can be expressed with a genitive or a prepositional phrase:

- (3.2.313) *Lasīšanas kāre bija mazliet*
reading.GEN.F desire.NOM.F be.AUX.PST.3 partially
apmierināta.
satisfy.PTCP.NOM.F
‘The desire to read had been partially satisfied.’ (C)
- (3.2.314) *Kādi ir iebildumi pret*
what_kind.NOM.PL.M be.PRS.3SG objection.NOM.PL.M **against**
šādu sadarbību?
this_kind.ACC.F **cooperation.ACC.F**
‘What are the objections against this kind of cooperation?’ (C)

If the noun which co-occurs with an object is not derived from a verb, the phrase still has the meaning of the action:

- (3.2.315) *vēstule dēlam*
letter.NOM.F **son.DAT.M**
‘a letter to the son’

- (3.2.316) *pateicības* *vārdi* *mūsu*
 gratitude.GEN.F word.NOM.PL.M we.GEN
draugam
friend.DAT.M
 ‘words of gratitude to our friend’

Speakers know that the letters are written and the words are said, thus we can postulate the implicit components of the phrase: *dēlam [uzrakstīta] vēstule* ‘a letter [written] to the son’; *draugam [pateikti] pateicības vārdi* ‘words [said to] a friend’.

The object in the genitive or a prepositional object can be subordinated to an adjective:

- (3.2.317) *Teksts* *paskumjš* *un* *pilns*
 text.NOM.M slightly_sad.NOM.M and full.NOM.M
pārdomu.
reflection.GEN.PL.F
 ‘A slightly sad text filled with reflections.’ (C)

- (3.2.318) *Tīmeklis* *ir* *pilns* ***ar***
 internet.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 full.NOM.M **with**
mulķībām.
nonsense.INS.PL.F
 ‘The internet is full of nonsense.’ (C)

The objects are subordinated to an adjective in the comparative degree:

- (3.2.319) *Klusēšana* *ir* *labāka* ***par***
 silence.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 better.NOM.F **than**
runāšanu.
talking.ACC.F
 ‘Keeping silent is better than talking.’ (C)

Extenders functioning as agents

An extender as a component of a subordinative phrase functioning as an agent, is expressed in the form of a noun or its substitute in the genitive case (Lokmane 2013: 763). The head of the phrase can be a noun derived from a verb:

- (3.2.320) *Dīvaino* *noskaņu* *pastiprināja*
 weird.ACC.F ambience.ACC.F enhance.PST.3
vēja ***kauķšana.***
wind.GEN.M howling.NOM.F
 ‘The weird ambience was enhanced by the howling of the wind.’ (C)
- (3.2.321) *Vecu* *sievu* *tenkas*
 old.GEN.PL.F wife.GEN.PL.F gossip.ACC.PL.F
noraidi!
 reject.IMP.2SG
 ‘Disregard old wives’ tales!’ (C)

(3.2.322) *Jurģa* *kritiens* *nav*
Jurģis.GEN.M fall.NOM.M not_be.COP.PRS.3
vienīgais.
 only_one.NOM.M
 ‘Jurģis’ fall is not the only one.’ (C)

The head of the phrase can be expressed by the past passive participle:

(3.2.323) *Manis* *radītie* *projekti*
I.GEN create.PTCP.NOM.PL.M project.NOM.PL.M
ir *daudz* *apjomīgāki.*
 be.COP.PRS.3 more ambitious.NOM.PL.M
 ‘The projects created by me are more ambitious.’ (C)

A participle with the subordinate agentive genitive can take the position of the predicate with the auxiliary *būt*. In such cases, a specific kind of passive construction is created which names the agent and describes the result instead of the process of the action (see Holvoet 2011b: 22):

(3.2.324) *Daudz kas* *ir* *paša*
 much be.AUX.PRS.3 self.GEN.F
roku *darināts.*
hand.GEN.PL.F make.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Much has been made with his own hands.’ (C)

Attributes

Extenders with an attributive function that are subordinated to the noun are mostly adjectives or their substitutes (declinable participles or pronouns) or nouns in the genitive case (Skujiņa 2007: 42). The relationship between two nominals is considered to be attributive, and in the widest sense it can be considered as the relationship between a realia and its features. The attributive relationship is a generalization that can be specified. The attributive relations can be of different types, for example:

- Characteristic features:

(3.2.325) *Būs* *vēls* *un* *silts*
 be.COP.FUT.3 late.NOM.M and warm.NOM.M
rudens.
 autumn.NOM.M
 ‘It will be a late and warm autumn.’ (C)

- The relationship of a whole and its parts:

(3.2.326) *Numurs* *izvietots* *uz* *krekla*
 number.NOM.M place.PTCP.NOM.M on shirt.GEN.M
piedurknes.
 sleeve.GEN.F
 ‘The number is marked on the sleeve of the shirt.’ (C)

- Possession:

(3.2.327) *Tiek meklēta Daigas pazudusi*
 get.AUX.PRS.3 search.PTCP.NOM.F **Daiga.GEN.F** lose.PTCP.NOM.F
cepure.
 hat.NOM.F
 ‘Daiga’s lost hat is being searched for.’ (C)

- Material or substance:

(3.2.328) *Kreklu sasprauda ar mazu sudraba*
 shirt.ACC.M fasten.PST.3 with small.INS.F **silver.GEN.M**
saktiņu.
 brooch.INS.F
 ‘The shirt was fastened with a small silver brooch.’ (C)

- The “inverted” relation of the object where the head of the phrase names the object of the action expressed by a passive participle:

(3.2.329) *Bet tā ir labojama*
 but that.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 repair.PTCP.NOM.F
kaite.
 problem.NOM.F
 ‘That, however, is a repairable problem.’ (C)

Here, the dependent component can be considered to name a characteristic feature of the head, because the passive participle can form a coordinative phrase with an adjective:

(3.2.330) *Grūti lasāms un neskaidrs teksts.*
 difficult read.PTCP.NOM.M and unclear.NOM.M text.NOM.M
 ‘A difficult to read and unclear text.’ (C)

The attributive relations can border with the adverbial ones. Borderline relations such as these result from the lexical meaning of the dependent component.

- Purpose or usefulness:

(3.2.331) *Ēkas foajē ir novietota ziedojumu kaste.*
 building.GEN.F lobby be.AUX.PRS.3
 set.PTCP.NOM.F **donation.GEN.PL.M** box.NOM.F
 ‘There is a collection box in the lobby of the building.’ (C)

- Place:

(3.2.332) *Policija saista zelta pārdevējus*
 police.NOM.F link.PRS.3 gold.GEN.M vendor.ACC.PL.M
 ar **lielceļu** *krāpniekiem.*
 with **highway.GEN.PL.M** criminal.INS.PL.M
 ‘The police link gold vendors with highway criminals.’ (C)

- Time:

(3.2.333) *Marta* *vējš* *un* *aprīļa* *lietus*
March.GEN.M wind.NOM.M and **April.GEN.M** rain.NOM.M
nes *mājā* *lielu* *svētību.*
bring.PRS.3 home.LOC.F great.ACC.F blessing.ACC.F
‘The March wind and April rain bring home great benefits.’ (C)

The obligatory attributes are to some extent similar to predicates. These attributes are mostly compulsory, if they are subordinated to the term for a part of the body:

(3.2.334) *Viņš* *bij* *skaists* *cilvēks*
he.NOM be.COP.PST.3 handsome.NOM.M man.NOM.M
ar *platiem* *pleciem,* *zilām,*
with **broad.INS.PL.M** shoulder.INS.PL.M **blue.INS.PL.F**
mīlām *acīm* *un* *gaišiem* *matiem.*
loving.INS.PL.F eye.INS.PL.F and **light.INS.PL.M** hair.INS.PL.M
‘He was a handsome man with broad shoulders, loving blue eyes, and light hair.’ (C)

Attributes are compulsory if related to the cognate object:

(3.2.335) *Viņš* *smaidīja* *savu* *plato*
he.NOM smile.PST.3 **own.ACC.M** **wide.ACC.M**
sirmgalvja *smaidu.*
old_man.GEN.M smile.ACC.M
‘The old man was smiling his wide smile.’ (C)

In the sentences with the lexical verb *nebūt* ‘not to be’, the attribute can be closer to the predicate:

(3.2.336) *Šobrīd* *tam* *visam* *nav*
now it.DAT.M all.DAT.M not_be.COP.PRS.3
īstais *laiks.*
right.NOM.M time.NOM.M
‘This is not the right moment for it.’ (C)

Sentence (3.2.336) cannot contain a subject in the genitive case (**Šobrīd tam visam nav īstā laika*), therefore the function of the attribute of the word form *īstais* ‘the real one’ is doubtful.

The predicative meaning of the attribute is also enhanced by adding an adverbial of time:

(3.2.337) *Man* *ir* *liela* *pieredze* *un*
I.DAT be.PRS.3 large.NOM.F experience.NOM.F and
pagaidām *vēl* *diezgan* *nesabojāta*
for_now still fairly **not_damage.PTCP.NOM.F**
atmiņa.
memory.NOM.F
‘I have a lot of experience and, for now, still a fairly intact memory.’ (C)

Adverbial modifiers

Extenders with an adverbial function are subordinated to a verb and can be expressed with the help of different parts of speech in different grammatical forms – different case forms of nouns (mostly locative, instrumental, and dative), prepositional phrases, and adverbs (Skujiņa 2007: 39). The adverbial meaning is also a generalization, which can be specified:

- Manner:

(3.2.338) *Uzvedies* ***kārtīgi!***
behave.IMP.2SG **properly**
'Behave yourself!' (C)

- Degree:

(3.2.339) *Vēl* ***drusku*** *liņāja.*
still **slightly** drizzle.PST.3
'It was still drizzling slightly.' (C)

- Cause:

(3.2.340) *Sēžu,* ***bailēs*** *sarāvusies.*
sit.PRS.1SG **fear.LOC.PL.F** shrink.PTCP.NOM.F
'I am sitting shrunken with fear.' (C)

- The meaning of location. As was mentioned earlier, the extenders with the meaning of a location can be adjuncts, if they are placed at the beginning of the sentence or directly after the noun. The adverbial modifiers of place can be considered to be subordinated if they depend on the valency of the verb, usually in the function of a predicate, and are normally placed to the right of the verb in sentences with a neutral word order:

(3.2.341) *Vīņa* *iekāpa* ***trolejbusā*** *un*
she.NOM get_in.PST.3 **trolleybus.LOC.M** and
apsēdās ***pie*** ***loga.***
sit_down.PST.3 **next_to** **window.GEN.M**
'She got on the bus and sat down next to a window.' (C)

- Time. Extenders with time-related or temporal meanings are most often adjuncts. Nevertheless, they can be subordinated to a verb, if a verb requires (3.2.342) or can optionally be expanded (3.2.343) with a temporal adverbial:

(3.2.342) *Es* *nemāku* *nokrist* *pludmalē*
I.NOM not_know_how.PRS.1SG fall_down.INF beach.LOC.F
un *nogulēt* *tur* *septiņas*
and sleep.INF there seven.ACC.PL.F
dienas.
day.ACC.PL.F
'I don't know how to fall down onto the beach and lay there for seven days.' (C)

- (3.2.343) *Citi* *ir* *aizmirsti*
 other.NOM.PL.M be.AUX.PRS.3 forget.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
uz *visiem* *laikiem.*
 for all.DAT.PL.M time.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Others are forgotten forever.’ (C)

Appositions

The syntactic relationship that exists between an apposition and the word it describes (its head) can be considered to be a word relation. However, this does not form a real phrase, as both the apposition and its head are nouns of the same case, therefore the syntactic link between the words is weaker than subordination. Descriptions of Latvian syntax contain different views on apposition: Valdmanis (1989: 21) states that since an apposition agrees with its head, it is subordinated to it, Freimane (1985: 102), however, considers that the apposition within a sentence is a determiner on the basis of formal equivalence, but is not subordinated to it. The apposition also has been ascribed a predicative relationship with the head noun (Ahero et. al. 1962: 273; Holvoet 2011b: 15–16).

Appositions can be situated both in front of the head noun (3.2.345) as well as after it (3.2.344). An apposition and a head noun are co-referential, therefore their main distinguishing feature lies in their semantics, as the apposition can describe a characteristic feature of a head noun (3.2.344) as well as relatedness (3.2.345), ethnicity (3.2.346), or occupation (3.2.347):

- (3.2.344) *Viņu* *visu* *laiku* *uzskatīja* *par*
 he.ACC all.ACC.M time.ACC.M consider.PST.3 as
puīku *palaidni.*
 boy.ACC.M rascal.ACC.M
 ‘He was always considered a mischievous boy.’ (C)
- (3.2.345) *Māsa* *Dace* *bija* *ļoti*
 sister.NOM.F Dace.NOM.F be.COP.PST.3 very
maiga *rakstura.*
 gentle.GEN.M character.GEN.M
 ‘(His/Her/Their/etc.) sister Dace was of an extremely gentle character.’
 (C)
- (3.2.346) *Uzvarēja* *īgaunis* *Raimo* *Kulli.*
 win.PST.3 Estonian.NOM.M Raimo.NOM.M Kulli.NOM.M
 ‘An Estonian, Raimo Kulli, won.’ (C)
- (3.2.347) *Bija* *ataicināts* *dakteris*
 be.AUX.PST.3 invite.PTCP.NOM.M doctor.NOM.M
Pūpolītis.
 pussy-willow.NOM.M
 ‘Doctor Pussy-willow had been invited.’ (C)

An apposition and its head noun can also have the relationship of a more general notion and its subtype:

- (3.2.348) *Par kandidātu var būt*
as candidate.ACC.M be_able.PRS.3 be.INF
ārsts anesteziologs vai ārsts
doctor.NOM.M anesthesiologist.NOM.M or doctor.NOM.M
stažieris.
trainee.NOM.M
‘A physician anesthesiologist or a trainee doctor can apply for
the position.’ (C)

3.3 The communicative structure of a simple sentence

3.3.0 Introductory remarks

The communicative structure of a sentence closely reflects the functions of a sentence in communication, either written or oral. Communicative structure encompasses various communicative features expressed both grammatically (forms of verbs in various moods, particular syntactic constructions, word order) and lexically (particles, interjections) and also phonetically (emphasis and intonation). This chapter will examine the communicative types and information structure of sentences in Latvian.

The communicative type of a sentence shows the communicative purpose of an utterance and is closely connected with the type of the speech act (Austin 1962; Searle 1969; Levinson 1983). All speech act types and communicative types of utterances are best revealed in a dialogue, namely, in a conversational situation involving both a sender and an addressee. Since this work refers to written language (texts), the communicative types will be exemplified mainly from written sources. In spoken language, the communicative type is signaled by the intonation of the phrase, partly reflected in the punctuation of the written phrase. Therefore, the punctuation – especially in the absence of any grammatical or lexical marking – can be regarded as a formal indicator of the communicative type. If the communicative type of the phrase is marked grammatically, the punctuation is secondary and in most cases is not decisive for the definition of the communicative type. In combination with grammatical means, the communicative type is also indicated by the presence of separate lexical units (particles, interjections, certain lexical verbs).

In some types of speech acts, utterances with limited or no predication are used, for instance, in expressive or directive speech acts, as well as in certain standardized communication situations, for example, greetings or farewells:

- (3.3.1) *Lieliski!*
splendid
‘Splendid!’ (C)

- (3.3.2) *Uzmanību!*
attention
'Attention!' (C)
- (3.3.3) *Sveiki, Leon!*
hi Leons.VOC.M
'Hi, Leon!' (C)
- (3.3.4) *Nu tad atā!*
well then bye
'Bye bye then!' (C)

3.3.1 Declarative sentences

Declarative sentences are used mainly in representative speech acts that aim at providing information (Skujiņa 2007: 373):

- (3.3.5) *Visu laiku list.*
all.ACC.M time.ACC.M rain.PRS.3
'It is raining all the time.' (C)

The declarative sentence is different from all other communicative types because its main function is informative, while the communicative purpose of other communicative types is related to emotional expression and to verbal influence upon speech actors. Therefore, the declarative construction – as the most neutral structure in a given context and communicative situation – can acquire different functions, for example, the interrogative function or the expressive function. In the case of a written text, only the punctuation functions as the marker of the communicative type:

- (3.3.6) *Tu taču nedomā mani tā*
you.NOM.SG PTCL not_think.PRS.2SG I.ACC like_that
atstāt?
leave.INF
'You're not thinking of leaving me like that?' (C)
- (3.3.7) *Te notiek kaut kas ārkārtējs!*
here happen.PRS.3 something.NOM extraordinary.NOM.M
'Something extraordinary is going on here!' (C)

If declarative sentences contain certain performative verbs, they are also used in declarative speech acts so that the utterance corresponds to some action:

- (3.3.8) *Saeimas ārkārtas sēdi pasludinū*
Saeima.GEN.F extraordinary.GEN.F session.ACC.F declare.PRS.1SG
par atklātu.
as open.PTCP.ACC.F
'I hereby declare the extraordinary session of the Saeima open.' (C)

- (3.3.9) *Ar šo pavēli es atbrīvoju jūs*
 by this.INS.F order.INS.F I.NOM release.PRS.1SG you.ACC.PL
no jūsu līdzšinējām karavīru saistībām.
 from you.GEN.PL former.DAT.PL.F soldier.GEN.PL.M duty.DAT.PL.F
 ‘By this order I release you from all your former soldier’s duties.’ (C)

Declarative sentences are also used in commissive speech acts by which the speaker takes on some future obligations, for instance, by promising or threatening something:

- (3.3.10) *Es drīz nākšu pie tevis.*
 I.NOM soon come.FUT.1SG to you.GEN.SG
 ‘I will soon come to you.’ (C)
- (3.3.11) *Lieliski, es būšu pēc kādas stundas, labi?*
 great I.NOM be.FUT.1SG after some.GEN.F hour.GEN.F okay
 ‘Great, I will be there in an hour or so, okay?’ (C)
- (3.3.12) *Tu tikai pamēģini neizēst zupas šķīvi!*
 you.NOM.SG just try.IMP.2SG not_eat_up.INF soup.GEN.F plate.ACC.M
 ‘You just try leaving your soup unfinished!’ (C)

3.3.2 Exhortative sentences

Exhortative sentences are used in directive speech acts. Such speech acts are used to encourage the hearer or some third party to perform some action (Skujina 2007: 277). Exhortative utterances normally are grammatically marked because they typically feature the use of the verb in the imperative mood, mainly in the second person of the singular or plural:

- (3.3.13) *Ej, atgulies gultā.*
 go.IMP.2SG lie_down.IMP.2SG bed.LOC.F
 ‘Go, lie down in bed.’ (C)
- (3.3.14) *Nāciet man līdzi!*
 come.IMP.2PL I.DAT with
 ‘Come with me.’ (C)

The addressee of the exhortative sentences usually remains unnamed except for particularly emphatic uses where it is stated that only the addressee and no one else must perform the action in question:

- (3.3.15) *Nē, tu atbildi skaidri un gaiši: būs naktsmājas man
 brightly be.FUT.3 night’s_shelter.NOM.F I.DAT
 pie tevis vai nebūs?
 with you.GEN.SG or not_be.FUT.3*
 ‘Hey, will you give me a clear answer – may I stay overnight at your place or not?’ (C)

- (3.3.16) *Tad nu arī jūs kādreiz uzņemieties*
 then PTCL too you.NOM.PL someday assume.IMP.2PL
šo politisko atbildību.
 this.ACC.F political.ACC.F responsibility.ACC.F
 ‘You too will assume this political responsibility someday.’ (C)

Often the emphasis is further reinforced by a marked word-order where the subject is adjacent to the predicate, or by means of a particle:

- (3.3.17) *Tad atbildiet jūs par to!*
 then be_responsible.IMP.2PL you.NOM.PL for that.ACC
 ‘Then you be responsible for that!’ (C)

- (3.3.18) *Nezinu. Saki tu.*
 not_know.PRS.1SG say.IMP.2SG you.NOM.SG
 ‘I don’t know. You tell (me).’ (C)

- (3.3.19) *Ejiet arī jūs pie zemnieku*
 go.IMP.2PL too you.NOM.PL to farmer.GEN.PL.M
organizācijām!
 organization.DAT.PL.F
 ‘Why don’t you also go to the farmers’ organizations!’ (C)

In broad terms, the sentences with the addressee in the third person singular or the first person plural are also considered exhortative sentences. In order to encourage use of the third person, the modal particle *lai* is used in Latvian. The verb in such sentences is in the first or third person of the present indicative (see the paradigm of the imperative in Latvian in Section 2.5.4):

- (3.3.20) *Nē, lai viņš saka!*
 no PTCL he.NOM say.PRS.3
 ‘No, let him speak!’ (C)

- (3.3.21) *Lai viņas vairs nebaidās*
 PTCL they.NOM.F anymore not_be_afraid.PRS.3
precēties!
 get_married.INF
 ‘Let them not be afraid to get married!’ (C)

- (3.3.22) *Lai mēs no akmeņiem nekārojam*
 PTCL we.NOM from stone.DAT.PL.M not_desire.PRS.1PL
maizi, nedz pasaulīgās lietās
 bread.ACC.F nor worldly.LOC.PL.F matter.LOC.PL.F
meklētu savu prieku!
 seek.COND own.ACC.M joy.ACC.M
 ‘Let us not covet bread from stones, nor seek joy in worldly matters!’ (C)

The modal marker *lai* stems from the particle found in the exhortative sentences (Holvoet 2001: 196), but it can also function as a subordinating conjunction

(see 3.5.2). Thus the encouragements addressed to a third party can contain explicit performative verbs in the main clause with an object clause introduced by *lai*:

- (3.3.23) *Palūdziet, lai viņš izveido objektīvu*
ask.IMP.2PL CONJ he.NOM develop.PRS.3 objective.ACC.M
un saprātīgu vērtējumu.
and reasonable.ACC.M assessment.ACC.M
'Ask him to develop an objective and reasonable assessment.' (C)
- (3.3.24) *Es teicu, lai viņš tā dara.*
I.NOM say.PST.1SG CONJ he.NOM so do.PRS.3
'I told him to do so.' (C)

Encouragements addressed to a third party border on permission or wishing:

- (3.3.25) *Lai viņš visu risina.*
PTCL he.NOM everything.ACC solve.PRS.3
'Let him solve everything.' (C)
- (3.3.26) *Lai viņš ņem to būdu.*
PTCL he.NOM take.PRS.3 that.ACC.F shack.ACC.F
'Let him take the shack.' (C)
- (3.3.27) *Bērnam liec mieru, lai bērns gul!*
child.DAT.M leave.IMP.2SG peace.ACC.M PTCL child.NOM.M
sleep.PRS.3
'Leave the child alone, let the child sleep!' (C)
- (3.3.28) *Lai jums izdodas atrast savu vietu dzīvē, piepildīt sapņus!*
PTCL you.DAT.PL accomplish.PRS.3 find.INF own.ACC.F
place.ACC.F life.LOC.F fulfil.INF dream.ACC.PL.M
'May you find your place in life and fulfil your dreams!' (C)

Permission and wishing can also be signaled by explicit performatives in the main clause along with an object clause introduced by *lai*:

- (3.3.29) *Ļauj, lai viss rit savu gaitu.*
let.IMP.2SG CONJ everything.NOM flow.PRS.3 own.ACC.F
pace.ACC.F
'Let everything go with the flow.' (C)
- (3.3.30) *Vēlos, lai viņa mani arī nākamgad nēsā uz rokām.*
wish.PRS.1SG CONJ she.NOM I.ACC too next_year
carry.PRS.3 on arm.DAT.PL.F
'I want her to court me next year too.' (C)

In order to extend the encouragement to the group containing the speaker, the first person plural of the present or future tense is used. In this case, the addressee is not explicitly named:

(3.3.31) *Braucam!*

go.PRS.1PL

‘Let’s go!’ (C)

(3.3.32) *Labi, iesim laukā no ķēķa.*

okay go.FUT.1PL outside from kitchen.GEN.M

‘Okay, let’s leave the kitchen.’ (C)

Encouragement is expressed by sentences with the predicate in the infinitive but the addressee, if present, is either in the vocative or in the dative case:

(3.3.33) *Gulties! Komanda gulties!*

lie_down.INF order.NOM.F lie_down.INF

‘Lie down! Lie down, it’s an order!’ (C)

(3.3.34) *Un tā visiem gulēt ar rokām virs*

and so everyone.DAT.PL.M lie.INF with hand.INS.PL.F above

galvas līdz nākamajai komandai!

head.GEN.F until next.DAT.F order.DAT.F

‘And everyone keep their hands above their heads like so until I give the next order.’ (C)

The verb in the infinitive can convey encouragement as well as an injunction or instruction, as is frequently the case in formal style:

(3.3.35) *Atzīt par spēku zaudējušu*

acknowledge.INF as power.ACC.M lose.PTCP.ACC.M

Alternatīvā dienestā likumu.

alternative.GEN.M service.GEN.M law.ACC.M

‘The Alternative Service Law shall be declared invalid.’ (www.likumi.lv)

(3.3.36) *Veicināt lauku kultūrvides*

advance.INF rural.GEN.PL.M cultural_environment.GEN.F

atjaunošanu.

revival.ACC.F

Sekmēt zinātnes attīstību valsts

promote.INF science.GEN.F development.ACC.F state.GEN.F

politikas līmenī.

policy.GEN.F level.LOC.M

‘The rural cultural environment shall be revived. The development of science shall be promoted at the state policy level.’ (www.cvk.lv)

In directive speech acts, sentences appear in the imperative along with the particle *ja* or a desemanticized adverb *labi* at the end of the utterance. Although such sentences

normally end with a question mark, their main function is encouragement or even a rather categorical order, and the imperative mood is consistently used:

- (3.3.37) *Izbeidz, ja?*
stop.IMP.2SG okay
'Stop it, will you?' (C)
- (3.3.38) *Un nemēģini aizmigt,*
and not_try.IMP.2SG fall_asleep.INF
ja?
okay
'Don't you dare fall asleep, okay?' (C)
- (3.3.39) *Turies, labi?*
hold_on.IMP.2SG okay
'Be brave, okay?' (C)
- (3.3.40) *Piedod, labi?*
forgive.IMP.2SG okay
'Forgive me, will you?' (C)
- (3.3.41) *Tu paklusē, labi?*
you.NOM.SG be_silent.IMP.2SG okay
'Shut up, will you?' (C)

Such encouragement can be addressed to the group containing the speaker him- or herself:

- (3.3.42) *Iesim visi uz istabu, labi?*
go.FUT.1PL everybody.NOM.M to room.ACC.F okay
'Let's all go to that room, okay?' (C)

Exhortative sentences can also contain direct address and the interjection *lūdzu*:

- (3.3.43) *Tikai neuztraucies, tēt.*
just not_worry.IMP.2SG dad.VOC.M
'Just don't worry, dad.' (C)
- (3.3.44) *Lūdzu, sēdiet mierīgi!*
please sit.IMP.2PL calmly
'Please, sit and be quiet!' (C)

It should be noted that *lūgt* in exhortative sentences can also be a finite lexical verb. In this case, it is normally followed by the infinitive or a noun phrase in the accusative:

- (3.3.45) *Lūdzu pieņemt likumprojektu pirmajā lasījumā.*
ask.PRS.1SG pass.INF bill.ACC.M first.LOC.M
reading.LOC.M
'I ask for the bill to be passed in the first reading.' (C)

(3.3.46) *Lūdzam saglabāt mieru.*
 ask.PRS.1PL preserve.INF peace.ACC.M
 'We ask that you stay calm.' (C)

(3.3.47) *Lūdzi rezultātu!*
 request.PRS.1SG result.ACC.M
 'I request the result!' (C)

Encouragement is often expressed by means of utterances with limited or no predication:

(3.3.48) *Marš, uz durvīm!*
 INTERJ to door.DAT.PL.F
 'Go, to the door!' (C)

(3.3.49) *Stop!*
 INTERJ
 'Stop!' (C)

3.3.3 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences are used in interrogative speech acts where the speaker is attempting to obtain information from the addressee (Skujīņa 2007: 175).

Polar questions presuppose affirmative or negative answers. In Latvian, such questions can be marked with the interrogative particle at the beginning of a sentence:

(3.3.50) *Vai viņš ir greizsirdīgs?*
 Q he.NOM be.COP.PRS.3 jealous.NOM.M
 'Is he jealous?' (C)

Polar interrogative sentences often lack an explicit means for expressing the communicative type and a question is only marked (in speech) by intonation and (in writing) with a question mark generally at the end of the sentence. With regard to word order, interrogative sentences do not differ from declarative ones:

(3.3.51) *Jūs dzersiet tēju?*
 you.NOM.PL drink.FUT.2PL tea.ACC.F
 'Would you like some tea?' (C)

The interrogative particle can also be located at the end of the sentence. Such sentences also convey the doubts or dissatisfaction of the speaker and therefore must also be considered as expressive speech acts:

(3.3.52) *Viņš dzimteni pārdod, vai?!*
 he.NOM motherland.ACC.F sell.PRS.3 Q
 'He is selling his motherland, is he?!' (C)

(3.3.53) *Slikti, vai? Nepatīk?*
 badly Q not_like.PRS.3
 'It's bad, huh? Don't you like it?' (C)

- (3.3.54) *Ko no skolotāja var ņemt?*
 what.ACC from teacher.GEN.M be_able.PRS.3 take.INF
Grāmatas, vai?
 book.ACC.PL.F Q
 ‘What can we take from a teacher? Books, huh?’ (C)

If a speaker wishes to ascertain whether his or her thoughts are correct and expects an acknowledgment from the addressee, the word combination *vai ne* or, more seldom, *vai jā*, as well as the particles *ne* and *ja* can be used at the end of the declarative sentence:

- (3.3.55) *Dzīve taču ir skaista,*
 life.NOM.F PTCL be.COP.PRS.3 beautiful.NOM.F
vai ne?
 Q PTCL
 ‘Life is beautiful though, isn’t it?’ (C)
- (3.3.56) *Tu taču esi nopircis*
 you.NOM.SG PTCL be.AUX.PRS.2SG buy.PTCP.NOM.M
šokolādes kūciņas, vai jā?
 chocolate.GEN.F cake.ACC.PL.F Q PTCL
 ‘You bought some chocolate cakes though, didn’t you?’ (C)
- (3.3.57) *Tagad tak būsit visu*
 now PTCL be.AUX.FUT.2PL everything.ACC
paspējušas, ne?
 manage.PTCP.NOM.PL.F PTCL
 ‘Now you’ll have managed to do everything, right?’ (C)
- (3.3.58) *Tu sevi mānī, ja?*
 you.NOM.SG self.ACC deceive.PRS.2SG PTCL
 ‘You are deceiving yourself, aren’t you?’ (C)

Declarative sentences marked with the particles *taču*, *tad*, *varbūt* are also used to perform a polar interrogative function. In this case the particle expresses a certain degree of assurance concerning the sentence content and provides an indication as to the type of answer expected:

- (3.3.59) *Tu taču nebrauksi ar viņu?*
 you.NOM.SG PTCL not_go.FUT.2SG with he.INS
 ‘You’re not going with him, are you?’ (C)
- (3.3.60) *Tad tu neiebilsti?*
 PTCL you.NOM.SG not_object.PRS.2SG
 ‘So you don’t object?’ (C)
- (3.3.61) *Varbūt tomēr citādi jāizvieto mēbeles?*
 maybe PTCL differently DEB.place furniture.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Perhaps we should place the furniture differently?’ (C)

If the desemanticized adverb *labi* ‘well’ is used at the end of a declarative sentence along with a question mark, the speaker does not really seek to obtain information but rather asks permission with regard to some action and expects the addressee to grant it:

- (3.3.62) *Es ieliešu, labi?*
 I.NOM pour.FUT.1SG okay
 ‘I’ll pour some, okay?’ (C)
- (3.3.63) *Es visu uzsaucu, labi?*
 I.NOM everything.ACC pay.PRS.1SG okay
 ‘I’ll pay for everything, okay?’ (C)
- (3.3.64) *Es varu un gribu katru dienu
 I.NOM be_able.PRS.1SG and want.PRS.1SG every.ACC.F day.ACC.F
 iet uz skolu un braukt mājās, labi?
 go.INF to school.ACC.F and go.INF home.LOC.PL.F okay
 ‘I can and want to go to school and back home every day, okay?’ (C)*

Polar interrogative sentences are also used in directive speech acts. Most often such sentences are marked by modal words, the conditional mood, negation, or a combination of the above:

- (3.3.65) *Vai tu vari palikt mierīga
 Q you.NOM.SG be_able.PRS.2SG stay.INF still.NOM.F
 un negrozīties?
 and not_move.INF
 ‘Could you sit still and not fidget?’ (C)*
- (3.3.66) *Negribi pafilmēt?
 not_want.PRS.2SG record.INF
 ‘Would you like to record it?’ (C)*
- (3.3.67) *Godātie kolēģi, vai jūs
 honorable.NOM.PL.M colleague.NOM.PL.M Q you.NOM.PL
 varētu mazliet klusāk?
 be_able.COND a_little quietly
 ‘Dear colleagues, could you keep the volume a little down?’ (C)*
- (3.3.68) *Vai jūs man neatvērtu durvis?
 Q you.NOM.PL I.DAT not_open.COND door.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Could you open the door for me?’ (celoju.draugiem.lv)*

Directive speech acts can also include interrogative sentences with the verb in the future tense:

- (3.3.69) *Cukuru padosi?
 sugar.ACC.M pass.FUT.2SG
 ‘Could you pass me some sugar?’ (C)*

- (3.3.70) *Varbūt iesim padzert tēju?*
 maybe go.FUT.1PL drink.INF tea.ACC.F
 ‘Shall we go drink some tea?’ (C)

Special questions are introduced using the pronouns *kas* ‘who, what’, *kurš* ‘who, which’, *kāds* ‘what’ or adverbs (for instance, *kā* ‘how’, *kur* ‘where’, *kad* ‘when’, *cik* ‘how many, how much’, *kāpēc* ‘why’) and these presuppose a more informative contribution. Special questions are used when the speaker wishes the listener to reveal or specify some particular item of information topicalized by the question:

- (3.3.71) *Kas tad paliek pāri?*
 what.NOM then be_left.PRS.3 over
 ‘What is left over then?’ (C)
- (3.3.72) *Kurš cits viņu atbalstīs?*
 who.NOM.M another.NOM.M he.ACC support.FUT.3
 ‘Who else will support him?’ (C)
- (3.3.73) *Kādi ir eiro ieviešanas pamatprincipi?*
 which.NOM.PL.M be.COP.PRS.3 euro introduction.GEN.F
 main_principle.NOM.PL.M
 ‘What are the main principles for the introduction of the euro?’ (C)
- (3.3.74) *Kāpēc paliku?*
 why stay.PST.1SG
 ‘Why did I stay?’ (C)
- (3.3.75) *Cik droši varam justies blakus jaunajiem vadītājiem?*
 how safe be_able.PRS.1PL feel.INF beside
 new.DAT.PL.M manager.DAT.PL.M
 ‘How safe can we feel with our new managers?’ (C)

A particular special question type in Latvian is represented by the construction *kas ... par* along with a noun phrase in the accusative:

- (3.3.76) *Un kas par lietu?*
 and what.NOM PREP matter.ACC.F
 ‘And what’s the matter?’ (C)
- (3.3.77) *Kas tas par vārdu?*
 what.NOM that.NOM.M PREP name.ACC.M
 ‘What kind of name is that?’ (C)
- (3.3.78) *Kas tas ir par signālu?*
 what.NOM that.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 PREP signal.ACC.M
 ‘What kind of signal is that?’ (C)

Alternative questions require one to choose from several options. Alternative questions can formally appear both as polar and special questions. The possible options within this type of question are bound by the conjunction *vai*:

- (3.3.79) *Tu paliec vai kāp?*
 you.NOM.SG stay.PRS.2SG or climb.PRS.2SG
 ‘Are you staying or climbing?’ (C)
- (3.3.80) *Ko tu dzersi – tēju vai kafiju?*
 what.ACC you.NOM.SG drink.FUT.2SG tea.ACC.F or
 coffee.ACC.F
 ‘What are you having – tea or coffee?’ (C)

If the question contains two predicates, one of them can be negated:

- (3.3.81) *Ņemsit vai neņemsit?*
 take.FUT.2PL or not_take.FUT.2PL
 ‘Are you taking it or not taking it?’ (C)
- (3.3.82) *Vai tad tu nāksi vai nenāksi pie briežiem palīgā?*
 Q PTCL you.NOM.SG come.FUT.2SG or not_come.FUT.2SG
 to deer.DAT.PL.M to_aid
 ‘Are you coming or not coming to rescue the deer?’ (C)

3.3.4 Exclamative sentences

Exclamative sentences are used in expressive speech acts and convey the speaker’s attitude or emotions (Skujiņa 2007: 171). Since exclamative sentences in their structure often resemble declarative sentences, they do not contain specific markers of the communicative type. The main purpose of an exclamative sentence is to express emotional content which is shown by the exclamation mark at the end of the sentence:

- (3.3.83) *Bet es nemaz negribu viņu precēt!*
 but I.NOM not_at_all not_want.PRS.1SG he.ACC
 marry.INF

‘But I don’t even want to marry him!’ (C)

In exclamative sentences a variety of emotionally expressive lexical means, especially interjections and particles, can occur:

- (3.3.84) *Ak, laime, cik tu biji īsa!*
 oh happiness.NOM.F how you.NOM.SG be.COP.PST.2SG
 brief.NOM.F
 ‘Oh happiness, how brief you were!’ (C)

(3.3.85) *Tad nudien smaržoja pēc svētkiem!*
 then indeed smell.PST.3 PREP party.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Then it really smelled like a party!’ (C)

(3.3.86) *Ir nu gan laiki pienākuši!*
 be.AUX.PRS.3 PTCL PTCL time.NOM.PL.M come.PTCP.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Oh, what times!’ (C)

In expressive speech acts, sentences can be used that formally resemble the special interrogative sentences. They can be introduced by the pronoun *kāds* ‘what’ or by the quantitative adverb *cik* ‘how much, how many’. Both the content of the sentence – an emphatic statement rather than a question – and the punctuation at the end of the sentence indicate an expressive speech act:

(3.3.87) *Kāds spēks ir šajos jauniešos!*
 what.NOM.M strength.NOM.M be.PRS.3 this.LOC.PL.M
 young_person.LOC.PL.M
 ‘These young people have such strength!’ (C)

(3.3.88) *Cik viņš bija neveikls un smieklīgs!*
 how he.NOM be.COP.PST.3 clumsy.NOM.M and funny.NOM.M
 ‘How clumsy and funny he was!’ (C)

The interrogative construction *kas ... par* along with a noun phrase in the accusative can also acquire an expressive function:

(3.3.89) *Kas par kaunu!*
 what.NOM PREP shame.ACC.M
 ‘How shameful!’ (C)

(3.3.90) *Kas tas bija par braucienu!*
 what.NOM that.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 PREP ride.ACC.M
 ‘What a ride that was!’ (C)

(3.3.91) *Kas tas bija par skatu!*
 what.NOM that.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3 PREP spectacle.ACC.M
 ‘What a spectacle that was!’ (C)

Exclamative sentences introduced by a question-word may be elliptical if they describe an item or a situation that can be identified in the communicative context or situation:

(3.3.92) *Jasmīne: Reku tavš spieķis, vecmamm...*
 Jasmīne.NOM.F look_here your.NOM.SG cane.NOM.M granny.VOC.F
Ģertrūde: Kāda laime!
 Ģertrūde.NOM.F what.NOM.F luck.NOM.F
 ‘Jasmīne: Look, your cane, granny...
 Ģertrūde: What luck!’ (C)

- (3.3.93) *Kas par vārdu! Feklēnija!*
 what.NOM PREP name.ACC.M Feklēnija.NOM.F
 ‘What a name! Feklēnija!’ (C)

3.3.5 Optative sentences

Optative sentences can be used in optative speech acts and are used for expressing wishes or desires (Skujiņa 2007: 440). These sentences typically are grammatically marked – they feature the verb in the conditional mood and the particles *kaut* ‘may’ or *lai* ‘let, may’. A desire expressed in this type of sentence mainly relates to some action or state relating to the speaker:

- (3.3.94) *Kaut būtu vēl tumšāks, kaut*
 PTCL be.COP.COND more dark.CMP.NOM.M PTCL
varētu paslēpties tumsā...
 be_able.COND hide.INF dark.LOC.F
 ‘If only it were even darker, if only I could hide in the dark...’ (C)

A wish is normally addressed to an interlocutor or any other person in question. Most often, an optative sentence contains the particle *lai* and a verb in the third person present indicative. A wish mentions the addressee, usually in the dative case:

- (3.3.95) *Lai jums izdodas!*
 PTCL you.DAT.PL succeed.PRS.3
 ‘Good luck to you!’ (C)

The addressee can also be expressed by a pronoun in the third person singular or the first person plural:

- (3.3.96) *Lai viņam ilgs mūžs.*
 PTCL he.DAT long.NOM.M life.NOM.M
 ‘May he have a long life!’ (C)

- (3.3.97) *Lai mums visiem veiksmīga*
 PTCL we.DAT all.DAT.PL successful.NOM.F
nedēļa.
 week.NOM.F
 ‘May we all have a successful week!’ (C)

A wish can also be expressed using a verb in the conditional mood:

- (3.3.98) *Lai mums būtu panākumi*
 PTCL we.DAT be.COND success.NOM.PL.M
darbā un liels progress
 work.LOC.M and great.NOM.M progress.NOM.M
studijās!
 study.LOC.PL.F
 ‘May our work be successful and may we have great progress in our studies!’ (C)

- (3.3.99) *Lai skolotājiem būtu eņģeļiem*
 PTCL teacher.DAT.PL.M be.COND angel.DAT.PL.M
raksturīgā laikā izjūta un
 typical_of.NOM.F time.GEN.M sense.NOM.F and
eņģeļu pacietība!
 angel.GEN.PL.M patience.NOM.F
 ‘Let the teachers have an angelic sense of time and angelic patience!’ (C)

Optative speech acts more often than other types of speech acts contain explicit performatives in the main clause along with the object clause, introduced by the particles *lai* or *kaut* functioning as conjunctions:

- (3.3.100) *Vēlos, lai Aizkrauklē būtu*
 wish.PRS.1SG CONJ Aizkraukle.LOC.F be.COND
skeitparks.
 skatepark.NOM.M
 ‘I wish there was a skatepark in Aizkraukle.’ (C)
- (3.3.101) *Mums rūp, lai ikviens bankas*
 we.DAT care.PRS.1PL CONJ every.NOM.M bank.GEN.F
darbinieks justos labi.
 employee.NOM.M feel.COND good
 ‘We care that every bank employee should feel good.’ (C)
- (3.3.102) *Gribas, lai tas notiek uzreiz.*
 wish.PRS.3 CONJ it.NOM.M happen.PRS.3 immediately
 ‘I wish it would happen immediately.’ (C)
- (3.3.103) *Bērnībā [Rita] drīzāk vēlējusies,*
 childhood.LOC.F [Rita] rather wish.PTCP.NOM.F
kaut varētu dzīvot dzīvoklī.
 PTCL be_able.COND live.INF apartment.LOC.M
 ‘As a child Rita wished she could live in an apartment instead.’ (C)

Wishes can also contain the explicit finite verb *vēlēt* or *novēlēt* ‘wish’, followed by the infinitive or a direct object:

- (3.3.104) *Vēlu visiem šī gada*
 wish.PRS.1SG all.DAT.PL.M this.GEN.M year.GEN.M
beidzējiem neapstāties, turpināt mācīties.
 graduate.DAT.PL.M not_stop.INF continue.INF learn.INF
 ‘I wish for all of this year’s graduates to never stop learning!’ (C)
- (3.3.105) *Es jums vēlu laimīgu*
 I.NOM you.DAT.PL wish.PRS.1SG happy.ACC.M
ceļu!
 journey.ACC.M
 ‘I wish you a good trip!’ (C)

(3.3.106) *Novēlu* *tautai* *mīlestību* *un*
 wish.PRS.1SG nation.DAT.F love.ACC.F and
ticību.
 faith.ACC.F
 ‘I wish our nation love and faith!’ (C)

Such sentences have given rise to elliptical wishes:

(3.3.107) *Laimīgu* *ceļu* *jums* *visiem!*
 happy.ACC.M journey.ACC.M you.DAT.PL all.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Have a good trip everyone!’ (C)

(3.3.108) *Daudz* *laimes,* *Latvija!*
 much happiness.GEN.F Latvia.NOM.F
 ‘Happy birthday, Latvia!’ (C)

3.4 Word order in simple sentences

3.4.0 Introductory remarks

In Latvian, word order has three types of functions:

- 1) a **grammatical** function: word order shows the grammatical relation between word forms (if the order is changed, the grammatical structure of the sentence changes, too),
- 2) a **communicative** function: word order reveals the information structure of the sentence (if the order is changed, the grammatical structure of the sentence does not change),
- 3) a **stylistic** function: word order conveys added stylistic and/or emotional information (if the order is changed, the grammatical structure of the sentence remains unchanged).

For the purposes of this study, “a neutral or direct word order” refers to an order that expresses the notional content without any added information, namely, it is stylistically and emotionally neutral, context-independent, and unrelated to any special communicative purpose or emphatic use (Skujina 2007: 403). Conversely, “an indirect word order” indicates one that carries added stylistic and/or emotional information or implies a special communicative purpose (Skujina 2007: 254).

The word order in a sentence can be examined in two ways:

- 1) The word order in the sentence as a whole, or the **absolute word order**. For instance, in Latvian, the predicate in interrogative sentences is mostly at the absolute end of the sentence (3.4.1), while the adjuncts are usually at the beginning of the sentence (3.4.2):

(3.4.1) *Kur* *tad* *es* *paliktu?*
 where PTCL I.NOM be_left.COND
 ‘Where would I go?’ (C)

- (3.4.2) *Vakarā* *restorānā* *ar* *milzu*
 evening.LOC.M restaurant.LOC.M with huge
apetīti *notiesājām* *uz* *oglēm* *ceptu*
 appetite.INS.F eat.PST.1PL on charcoal.DAT.PL.F grill.PTCP.ACC.F
cūku *ar* *dārzeņiem.*
 pork.ACC.F with vegetable.INS.PL.M
 ‘Yesterday at the restaurant we eagerly ate charcoal-grilled pork with
 vegetables.’ (C)

- 2) Two or more word forms occur in relation to one another, or the **relative word order**. Typologically, Latvian belongs to the SVO languages with the following basic word order: the *subject* comes first, the *verb* second, and the *object* third. Latvian shows all six possible subject/verb/object distributions, the least common types being VSO and VOS (Valkovska 2016a: 41). SVO is the most common type and can be found in various sentence constructions and sentence communicative types. The second most common type is OVS, typically occurring with the direct object and its phrase at the beginning of the sentence, most often it is contextually-bound and expresses information that is already known:

- (3.4.3) *Šo* *faktu* *savos* *darbos*
 this.ACC.M fact.ACC.M own.LOC.PL.M work.LOC.PL.M
atzīmē *arī* *citi* *līdzīgu*
 refer.PRS.3 also other.NOM.PL.M similar.GEN.PL.M
pētījumu *autori.*
 study.GEN.PL.M author.NOM.PL.M
 ‘This fact is referred to by authors of similar studies.’ (C)

The SOV order is most typical of sentences with a pronoun functioning as the object:

- (3.4.4) *Kur* *jūs* *tos* *niedru*
 where you.NOM.PL that.ACC.PL.M reed.GEN.PL.F
jumtus *iemācījāties* *likt?*
 roof.ACC.PL.M learn.PST.3 make.INF
 ‘Where did you learn to make these thatched roofs?’ (C)

- (3.4.5) *Viņš* *mani* *lasa* *kā* *atvērtu* *grāmatu...*
 he.NOM I.ACC read.PRS.3 like open.ACC.F book.ACC.F
 ‘He reads me like an open book...’ (C)

The object can also be a semantically independent word; such sequences are most often found in the mass media:

- (3.4.6) *Lielākā* *daļa* *deputātu* *iecerei*
 largest.NOM.F part.NOM.F MP.GEN.PL.M idea.DAT.F
atbalstu *neizteica.*
 support.ACC.M not_express.PST.3
 ‘Most of the MPs didn’t support the idea.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

In OSV sentences, the object mainly has the function of an interrogative word or a conjunction in subclauses:

- (3.4.7) *Ko es tev samācīju?*
 what.ACC I.NOM you.DAT.SG teach.PST.1SG
 ‘What did I teach you?’ (C)

- (3.4.8) *Tu klausies, ko es tev saku?*
 you.NOM.SG listen.PRS.2SG what.ACC I.NOM you.DAT.SG
 say.PRS.1SG
 ‘Are you listening to what I am saying to you?’ (C)

In OSV sentences, the object can be an emphasized pronoun (3.4.9), sometimes also a contextually-bound semantically independent word or phrase (3.4.10):

- (3.4.9) *To viņi mums nekad nepiedeva.*
 that.ACC they.NOM.M we.DAT never not_forgive.PST.3
 ‘They never forgave us that.’ (C)

- (3.4.10) *Visus šos gadalaikus bērni atainoja savos zīmējumos.*
 all.ACC.PL.M this.ACC.PL.M season.ACC.PL.M
 child.NOM.PL.M portray.PST.3 own.LOC.PL.M
 drawing.LOC.PL.M
 ‘The children portrayed all these seasons in their drawings.’ (C)

VSO (3.4.11 and 3.4.12) and VOS (3.4.13) types are very expressive and are mostly found in subclauses and in fiction or poetry when colloquial speech is portrayed (Valkovska 2016a: 42–44):

- (3.4.11) *Bet pēkšņi Stefans saka: -*
 but suddenly Stefans.NOM.M say.PRS.3
Pērc tu to sev.
 buy.IMP.2SG you.NOM.SG that.ACC self.DAT
 ‘But suddenly Stefans says: - Buy it for yourself.’ (C)

- (3.4.12) *Vārdsakot, pārdeva viņi čigānam vilku par teļu.*
 in_short sell.PST.3 they.NOM gypsy.DAT.M
 wolf.ACC.M for calf.ACC.M
 ‘In short, they sold the gypsy the wolf as a calf.’ (C)

- (3.4.13) *Pie galda sēž un dzer tēju divas sievietes – Eliza un Sabīne.*
 at table.GEN.M sit.PRS.3 and drink.PRS.3 tea.ACC.F
 two.NOM.F woman.NOM.PL.F Eliza.NOM.F and Sabine.NOM.F
 ‘Two women sit and drink tea at the table, Eliza and Sabine.’ (C)

If we only look at the sequence of two components – the subject and the predicate – the SV order appears neutral in Latvian. However, in a number of cases with a neutral word order, the subject occurs after the predicate. For example, in sentences with sentence-initial adverbial adjuncts, the neutral order is one where *the predicate* is first and is followed by *the subject*, if the subject is the rheme:

- (3.4.14) *Kādā dienā priekšā pavērās*
 some.LOC.F day.LOC.F ahead.LOC.F open_up.PST.3
plašs klajums.
 vast.NOM.M field.NOM.M
 ‘One day a vast field opened up.’ (C)
- (3.4.15) *Dārzā labi jūtas skujeņi,*
 garden.LOC.M well feel.PRS.3 conifer.NOM.PL.M
hortenzijas.
 hortensia.NOM.PL.F
 ‘Conifers and hortensias fit well in the garden.’ (C)
- (3.4.16) *Šodien lija jauks lietutiņš.*
 today rain.PST.3 nice.NOM.M drizzling_rain.NOM.M
 ‘Today there was a nice, drizzling rain.’ (C)

The VS order is neutral also in sentences which contain only the rheme and describe a state:

- (3.4.17) *Iezvanījās mobilais telefons.*
 ring.PST.3 mobile.NOM.M phone.NOM.M
 ‘The mobile phone rang.’ (C)
- (3.4.18) *Bija silta augusta nakts.*
 be.PST.3 warm.NOM.F August.GEN.M night.NOM.F
 ‘It was a warm August night.’ (C)

Sentences with an SV order usually are bipartite from the point of view of information structure, and changing the word order makes it possible to avoid this. This is also important in sentences with an adjunct functioning as the theme. In addition, the SV order is more often used in dynamic narration, while the VS order is more common in descriptions of states. This is because the verb is more important in narration and therefore is placed at the end of the sentence, but in descriptions of states the noun carries more weight.

Also, in Latvian, the relative word order in phrases tends to be fixed, especially in noun phrases. Attributes normally precede the noun. Those that follow it are numerical attributes expressing an approximate amount:

- (3.4.19) *Vāzē liktas tās [dālijas]*
 vase.LOC.F put.PTCP.NOM.PL.F that.NOM.PL.F [dahlias]
nostāv dienas trīs.
 stand.PRS.3 day.NOM.PL.F three.NOM.F
 ‘Dahlias, when put in a vase, stay fresh for about three days.’ (C)

- (3.4.20) *Mēs* *nebijām* *redzējušās*
 we.NOM not_be.AUX.PST.1PL see.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
gadus *piecus.*
 year.ACC.PL.M five.ACC.M
 ‘We hadn’t seen each other for about five years.’ (C)

The noun is followed by an object:

- (3.4.21) *Vīratēvs* *uzdod* *jautājumu* *par*
 father-in-law.NOM.M ask.PRS.3 question.ACC.M about
Šekspīru.
 Shakespeare.ACC.M
 ‘Father-in-law asks questions about Shakespeare.’ (C)

- (3.4.22) *Tā* *ir* *Lieldienu* *dāvana*
 it.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 Easter.GEN.PL.F gift.NOM.F
draugiem.
 friend.DAT.PL.M
 ‘It is an Easter gift for friends.’ (C)

The placement of parallel subordinated attributes in the phrase depends on the formal type of subordination. The governed component (a noun in the genitive) in most cases is located closer to the noun than the adjective agreeing with the noun:

- (3.4.23) *Darbnīcā* *sagādātas*
 workshop.LOC.F procure.PTCP.NOM.PL.F
aromātiskas *vaska* *plāksnes.*
 aromatic.NOM.PL.F wax.GEN.PL.M plate.NOM.PL.F
 ‘In the workshops there are aromatic wax plates.’ (C)

However, the adjective may be placed closer to the noun than the governed component, especially if the adjective is definite:

- (3.4.24) *Šāda* *siena* *būs* *tavas*
 such.NOM.F wall.NOM.F be.COP.FUT.3 your.GEN.F
istabas *skaistais* *akcents.*
 room.GEN.F beautiful.NOM.M highlight.NOM.M
 ‘Such a wall will be the beautiful highlight of your room.’ (C)

If there are several governed components in parallel, the sequence depends on which of them is semantically more related to the noun:

- (3.4.25) *Meistars* *kopš* *laika* *gala* *dedzināja*
 master.NOM.M since time.GEN.M end.GEN.M burn.PST.3
tikai *baznīcas* *vaska* *sveces.*
 only church.GEN.F wax.GEN.M candle.ACC.PL.F
 ‘The master has always burned only wax candles from the church.’ [wax candles is a more semantically related phrase than church candles] (C)

If several agreeing components are subordinated in parallel, the word order is determined both by the closeness of the semantic relations and the part of speech of the components (Valkovska 2016a: 110–111), for example, pronouns (3.4.26) and numerals (3.4.27) are usually placed further away from the noun:

- (3.4.26) *Tu esi mans labākais draugs.*
 you.NOM.SG be.COP.PRS.2SG my.NOM.M best.NOM.M friend.NOM.M
 ‘You are my best friend.’ (C)

- (3.4.27) *Tas ir pirmais nopietnais solis tavā karjerā.*
 it.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 first.NOM.M serious.NOM.M step.NOM.M your.LOC.SG.F career.LOC.F
 ‘This is the first serious step in your career.’ (C)

In modern Latvian (especially in the mass media), the relative order of words in strings of attributes is unstable and results in deviations from literary language norms. First of all, such deviations can be found in phrases containing *viens no*:

- (3.4.28) *Šis ir mūsu partijas vēlēšanu kampaņas viens no elementiem.*
 this.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 we.GEN party.GEN.F election.GEN.PL.F campaign.GEN.F one.NOM.M of element.DAT.PL.M
 [according to the norm –
viens no mūsu partijas vēlēšanu kampaņas elementiem
 one.NOM.M of we.GEN party.GEN.F election.GEN.PL.F campaign.GEN.F element.DAT.PL.M]
 ‘This is one of the elements of our party election campaign.’ (*Diena*)

The reason for this tendency could be an attempt to avoid the preposition *no* being too distant from its specifier, the noun.

Secondly, there are deviations with regard to the placement of indefinite agreeing attributes, they are placed between the phrase head and the governed dependent component:

- (3.4.29) *Dziesmas izpildīs šībrīža populāri dziedātāji.*
 song.NOM.PL.F perform.FUT.3 present_moment.GEN.M popular.NOM.PL.M singer.NOM.PL.M
 [according to the norm –
populāri šībrīža dziedātāji
 popular.NOM.PL.M present_moment.GEN.M singer.NOM.PL.M]
 ‘The songs will be performed by currently popular singers.’ (www.delfi.lv)

Such a tendency could be explained by the desire to avoid homoforms that could give rise to misunderstandings, for example, in the string *pozitīva uzņēmuma tēla veidošana* ‘creation of a positive image for a company’ one can see the phrase *pozitīvs uzņēmums* ‘a positive company’ and also *pozitīvs tēls* ‘a positive image’, thus, to avoid a misunderstanding, the order *uzņēmuma pozitīva tēla veidošana* was chosen. The word order can also be influenced by the speaker’s opinion on the closeness of the semantic relations between words:

- (3.4.30) *Zāļu nepamatota lietošana*
drug.GEN.PL.F unfounded.NOM.F use.NOM.F
ir kaitīga veselībai.
 be.COP.PRS.3 harmful.NOM.F health.DAT.F
 ‘Misuse of drugs is harmful to your health.’ (www.vi.gov.lv)

In an adjectival phrase, the dependent component is usually placed before the adjective (*ļoti labs* ‘very good’, *gaiši zils* ‘light blue’, *pavisam auksts* ‘very cold’). Also, in an adverbial phrase the dependent component is usually placed before the adverb (*samērā bīstami* ‘somewhat dangerously’, *diezgan droši* ‘fairly safely’).

In a verbal phrase, the positioning of the components is looser. In phrases with a neutral word order, objects are most often placed after the verb:

- (3.4.31) *Uzvara dos bērniem*
 victory.NOM.F **give.FUT.3** **child.DAT.PL.M**
iespēju par brīvu apmeklēt
opportunity.ACC.F for free.ACC visit.INF
radošo studiju.
 creative.ACC.F studio.ACC.F
 ‘The victory will give children the opportunity to visit the creative studio for free.’ (C)

However, the placement of objects can be influenced by various factors, the sentence structure type, the presence of other sentence components, context as well as the object lexeme (Valkovska 2016a: 118). Complements of type and measure as well as those creating conditions that modify the verb may be found in different places in the sentence; their placement mainly depends on the information structure (see Section 3.4.2):

- (3.4.31) *Tas iet pavisam ātri.*
 it.NOM.M **go.PRS.3** **very** **fast**
 ‘It goes very fast.’ (C)
- (3.4.32) *Kur tik ātri ņems jaunu kleitu?*
 where **so** **quickly** **find.FUT.3** new.ACC.F
 dress.ACC.F
 ‘Where will a new dress be found so quickly?’ (C)

3.4.1 The grammatical function of word order

Since syntactic relations between word forms in Latvian are usually expressed by means of inflections, word order in a sentence is relatively free. However, there are situations where word order determines the syntactic function of word forms.

In sentences with homoforms, the subject precedes the object:

- (3.4.33) a. *Līdakas* *sāk* *ēst*
 pike.NOM.PL.F begin.PRS.3 eat.INF
 citas *zivis.*
 other.ACC.PL.F fish.ACC.PL.F
 ‘The pikes begin eating other fish.’ (www.copeslietas.lv)
- b. *Citas* ***zivis*** *sāk* *ēst*
 other.NOM.PL.F **fish.NOM.PL.F** begin.PRS.3 eat.INF
 līdakas.
 pike.ACC.PL.F
 ‘Other fish start eating the pikes.’

The subject of (3.4.33a) is *līdakas*, but that of (3.4.33b) is *zivis*.

If a word form can perform different syntactic functions, the sequence of words is crucial in distinguishing between these functions. A noun in the nominative may be the subject or part of the predicate:

- (3.4.34) a. *Māksla* *ir* *radišana.*
 art.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 creation.NOM.F
 ‘Art is creation.’ (C)
- b. *Radišana* *ir* *māksla.*
 creation.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 art.NOM.F
 ‘Creation is art.’

In example (3.4.34a), the subject is *māksla*, but in (3.4.34b), the subject is *radišana*; the sentences have different semantics. Changing word order and the semantics of the sentence are used as artistic devices in example (3.4.35):

- (3.4.35) *Spēlfilmā* *režisors* *ir* *dievs.*
 film.LOC.F director.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 God.NOM.M
 Dokumentālajā *kino* *dievs*
 documentary.LOC.DEF.M cinema.M God.NOM.M
 ir *režisors.*
 be.COP.PRS.3 director.NOM.M
 ‘In a film, the director is God. In documentary cinema, God is the director.’
 (National Film Awards ceremony “Lielais Kristaps”)

However, it should be noted that in many cases it is not the placement of the nominative that matters, but lexical semantics. In example (3.4.36b), semantics do not allow the interpretation of the word *prece* as the subject, because the subject is usually used to identify the topic of speech, while the predicate has an attributive role (see also Lokmane 2009):

- (3.4.36) a. *Māksla* *ir* *prece.*
 art.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 commodity.NOM.F
 ‘Art is a commodity.’ (C)
- b. *Prece* *ir* *māksla.*
 commodity.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 art.NOM.F
 ‘Art is commodity.’

Therefore, sentence (3.4.36b) is either completely semantically unacceptable or is only conceivable in a very expressive context. If the semantics of the sentence preclude the relevant interpretation, the word order is not decisive.

An adjective in the nominative, depending on its placement in the sentence, may be an attribute (3.4.37b, 3.4.38b, 3.4.39a), a predicate (3.4.37a, 3.4.39b), or a secondary predicate (3.4.38a):

- (3.4.37) a. *Vakars* *ir* *tīri* *jauks.*
 evening.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 rather nice.NOM.M
 ‘The evening is rather nice.’ (C)
- b. *Ir* *tīri* *jauks* *vakars.*
 be.PRS.3 rather nice.NOM.M evening.NOM.M
 ‘It is a rather nice evening.’
- (3.4.38) a. *Saule* *rietēja* *iesarkana.*
 sun.NOM.F set.PST.3 fairly_red.NOM.F
 ‘The sun was fairly red as it was setting. [lit. The sun was setting fairly red.]’ (C)
- b. *Rietēja* *iesarkana* *saule.*
 set.PST.3 fairly_red.NOM.F sun.NOM.F
 ‘A fairly red sun was setting.’
- (3.4.39) a. *Tradīcijām* *ir* *liela*
 tradition.DAT.PL.F be.PRS.3 great.NOM.F
vērtība.
 value.NOM.F
 ‘Traditions are of great value.’ (C)
- b. *Vērtība* *tradīcijām* *ir*
 value.NOM.F tradition.DAT.PL.F be.COP.PRS.3
liela.
 great.NOM.F
 ‘The value of traditions is great.’

A noun (in examples (3.4.40) the noun is substituted by a pronoun) in the dative can be either the subject or the object depending on the placement:

- (3.4.40) a. *Man* *jums* *kas*
 I.DAT you.DAT.PL something.NOM
vēstāms.
 tell.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘I have something to tell you.’ (C)

- b. *Jums* *man* *kas*
 you.DAT.PL I.DAT something.NOM
vēstāms.
 tell.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘You have something to tell me.’

In example (3.4.40a), the subject is *man*, but in example (3.4.40b), the subject is *jums*, and the sentences have different semantics. However, in some cases, when the object is contextually bound, it may precede the subject (Valkovska 2016b):

(3.4.41) *Par Grieķiju tu sāki runāt.*

- Manuprāt,* *viņiem* *mums* *tiešām*
 in_my_opinion they.DAT.M we.DAT really
nav *jāpalīdz.*
 not_be.AUX.PRS.3 DEB.help
 ‘You started talking about Greece. I do not think we really need to help them.’ (twitter.com)

The dative that follows the predicate is the object (3.4.42a), but the dative placed at the beginning of the sentence is an adjunct (3.4.42b):

- (3.4.42) a. *Svētki* *ir* *jums.*
 celebration.NOM.PL.M be.PRS.3 you.DAT.PL
 ‘The celebration is for you.’ (C)
 b. *Jums* *ir* *svētki.*
 you.DAT.PL be.PRS.3 celebration.NOM.PL.M
 ‘You have a celebration.’

The verb in the infinitive, depending on its placement in the sentence, may be the subject or the predicate:

- (3.4.43) a. *Mīlēt* *ir* *dot.*
 love.INF be.COP.PRS.3 give.INF
 ‘To love is to give.’ (C)
 b. *Dot* *ir* *mīlēt.*
 give.INF be.COP.PRS.3 love.INF
 ‘To give is to love.’
 (3.4.44) a. *Mīlēt* *nozīmē* *saprast.*
 love.INF mean.PRS.3 understand.INF
 ‘To love means to understand.’ (C)
 b. *Saprast* *nozīmē* *mīlēt.*
 understand.INF mean.PRS.3 love.INF
 ‘To understand means to love.’

In examples (3.4.43a, 3.4.44a), the subject is *mīlēt*, but in examples (3.4.43b, 3.4.44b), it is part of the predicate.

The placement in the sentence may testify to the closeness of the bond and thus also to the type of syntactic relations between the components. If the phrase-dependent

component is placed at the absolute beginning of the sentence, it is more independent and able to relate to the whole sentence, becoming an adjunct:

- (3.4.45) *Patiesībā viņiem bija dota*
in fact they.DAT.M be.AUX.PST.3 give.PTCP.NOM.F
komanda tikai identificēt lidaparātu un
command.NOM.F only identify.INF aircraft.ACC.M and
sekot tam.
follow.INF it.DAT.M
‘In fact, they were only given the command to identify the aircraft and follow it.’ (C)

- (3.4.46) *Profesorei spēku dod*
professor.DAT.F strength.ACC.M give.PRS.3
darbs ar studentiem.
work.NOM.M with student.INS.PL.M
‘Work with students gives the professor strength.’ (www.rsu.lv)

In sentence (3.4.45), the dative can be considered an adjunct because of its placement, although the phrase *dot viņiem komandu* ‘to give them a command’ is also possible. Similarly, in sentence (3.4.46), the phrase *dot profesorei spēku* ‘to give the professor strength’ is also possible, but the placement of the dative at the beginning of the sentence gives it the meaning of the experiencer, and it can be considered an adjunct.

An adverbial adjunct, placed at the beginning of the sentence, relates to the whole sentence (3.4.47a), but the same adjunct, placed after the noun, is related only to this word (3.4.47b):

- (3.4.47) a. *Mežā viņus pārsteidz*
forest.LOC.M they.ACC.M surprise.PRS.3
nakts.
night.NOM.F
‘In the forest, they are surprised by the night.’ (C)
- b. *Viņus pārsteidz nakts mežā.*
they.ACC.M surprise.PRS.3 night.NOM.F forest.LOC. M
‘They are surprised by the night in the forest.’

3.4.2 The communicative function of word order

The communicative function of word order in Latvian is related to information structure, namely, the division of the utterance into the theme and the rheme. The topical division is binary in nature and consists of dividing a sentence into topical and less topical information (Skujiņa 2007: 388). It should also be noted that there are communicatively indivisible sentences in Latvian where it is not possible to distinguish between the units of information structure.

The theme and the rheme have been extensively examined in linguistics; in reviewing all approaches, the following features of the relevant division of components can be mentioned:

- 1) the theme is information known to the receiver, or the given; in contrast, the rheme is new, unknown (in which case the theme is usually contextually bound);
- 2) the theme is less important information that can be new to the receiver, but the rheme is important information, the main content of the statement (in this case, an important feature of the rheme in the oral text is the sentence emphasis);
- 3) the theme is the topic of the speech or the outset of the message, the rheme is the content of the message, or what is said about the object (in which case it is always placed at the beginning of the utterance).

These three aspects can be correlated (the given is also less important information and the topic of the speech), therefore, we can talk about a canonical or unmarked theme. However, quite often these aspects do not coincide, so there are problems with distinguishing between the theme and the rheme. For instance, an item known to the addressee can also be topicalized, emphasizing its importance:

- (3.4.48) *Vēlāk tieši Jānis izvirzīja savu*
 later exactly Jānis.NOM.M put.PST.3 own.ACC.F
komandu vadībā.
 team.ACC.F lead.LOC.F
 ‘Later it was exactly Jānis who put his team in the lead.’ (C)

And conversely, new information can also be the topic of the speech:

- (3.4.49) *Kāda meitene iznāca no*
 some.NOM.F girl.NOM.F come_out.PST.3 from
uzgaidāmās telpas.
 waiting.GEN.F room.GEN.F
 ‘A girl came out of the waiting room.’ (C)

If the theme possesses less characteristic features, one should speak of a non-canonical or marked theme. A marked theme may be contextually unbound, it may carry a characteristic intonational emphasis, often there is an accompanying particle:

- (3.4.50) *Pat lāci var iemācīt dejot.*
 even bear.ACC.M can.PRS.3 teach.INF dance.INF
 ‘Even a bear can be taught to dance.’ (C)

Information structure is closely related to the prosody of the sentence. Usually, in a speech, there is a pause between the theme and the rheme, so each of these units forms its own intonational phrase. Each intonational phrase is also characterized by emphasis highlighting a word in the intonation unit. In a sentence with several intonational phrases, the rheme is most often marked by more intense stress, which should be considered sentence stress (Valkovska 2016b). As the stress can be

clearly identified only in speech and, in Latvian, it bears no direct relation to word order – namely, the same word order may have a different sentence stress – this work considers the theme to be the outset of the message, which always occurs at the beginning of the sentence (see also Valkovska 2016b). So, the theme is the first component of the sentence and the rest of the sentence is considered the rheme (Thompson 2004: 143).

Information structure is related to the syntactic structure of the sentence. For example, the theme is most often expressed by a noun or by a noun phrase, especially when functioning as the subject of the sentence. The predicate, in turn, along with its attributes typically functions as the rheme. The role played by information structure can vary across types of syntactic relations. Therefore, different types of syntactic relations and sentence components along with their relationship with information structure will be discussed below.

The least significant role with regard to information structure is played by the noun phrase. As was previously stated, the word order in a phrase is determined by the closeness of the semantic relations among components.

Generally, a syntactic unit – a phrase – forms one component in a topical division. When the components of a noun phrase are placed at a distance from each other, one may belong to the theme, the other to the rheme (Valkovska 2016b: 28–29). Examples (3.4.51–3.4.53) stress the attribute, but the head of the phrase functions as the theme:

- (3.4.51) *Birojus* *uzņēmēji* *gribēja*
office.ACC.PL.M businessman.NOM.PL.M want.PST.3
ekskluzīvus.
exclusive.ACC.PL.M
 ‘As for the offices, the businessmen wanted them to be exclusive.’ (*Ir*)

- (3.4.52) *Runātāja* *es* *esmu* *dīža.*
speaker.NOM.F I.NOM be.COP.PRS.1SG **great.NOM.F**
 ‘As a speaker, I am great.’ (twitter.com)

- (3.4.53) *Troksnis* *sacelts* *liels.*
fuss.NOM.M kick_up.PTCP.NOM.M **huge.NOM.M**
 ‘The fuss that is kicked up, is huge.’ (*Latvijas Avīze*)

Although the attributes (3.4.51–3.4.53) are placed in a position that is typical of a secondary predicate site, they do not bear any relation to the real predicate and do not have the temporal or modal meanings characteristic of a secondary predicate or a predicative adjunct.

In a verb phrase, the role played by information structure is greater. Objects (both direct and indirect) are usually placed after the predicate, and the indirect object in the dative is usually closer to the verb:

- (3.4.54) *Aktieris* *nemitīgi* *sūta* *aktrisei* *SMS.*
 actor.NOM.M constantly send.PRS.3 **actress.DAT.F** **SMS**
 ‘The actor constantly texts the actress.’ (C)

However, for the purpose of topicalization, this word order can be easily changed:

- (3.4.55) *Prezidents* *sūta* *sveicienus*
 president.NOM.M send.PRS.3 **greeting.ACC.PL.M**
visām *Latvijas* *mātēm.*
 all.DAT.PL.F Latvia.GEN.F **mother.DAT.PL.F**
 ‘The president sends greetings to all mothers in Latvia.’ (C)

Pronominal objects are usually to the left of the predicate:

- (3.4.56) *Es* *viņam* *visu* *godprātīgi*
 I.NOM **he.DAT** **everything.ACC.M** in_good_faith
izklāstīju.
 tell.PST.1SG
 ‘I told him everything in good faith.’ (C)

- (3.4.57) *Mums* *sūtīja* *apsveikumus* *un*
we.DAT send.PST.3 greeting.ACC.PL.M and
ziedus.
 flower.ACC.PL.M
 ‘We were sent greetings and flowers.’ (C)

An indirect object, if it is a semantically independent word, functions relatively infrequently as the theme, mainly in media language:

- (3.4.58) *Nacionālās* *apvienības* *izvirzītajai*
 national.GEN.DEF.F union.GEN.F move_forward.PTCP.DAT.F
kandidatūrai *šodien* *atbalstu* *izteica*
candidacy.DAT.F today support.ACC.M express.PST.3
koalīcijas *partijas.*
 coalition.GEN.F party.NOM.PL.F
 ‘The coalition parties today supported the candidate nominated by the “Nacionālā apvienība”.’ (Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze)

It is more common for the direct object to function as the theme:

- (3.4.59) *Tāpēc* *profesionālos* *politiķus*
 therefore professional.ACC.PL.M **politician.ACC.PL.M**
aicinu *pieņemt* *profesionāli*
 call.PRS.1SG take.INF professionally
politiskus *lēmumus.*
 political.ACC.PL.M decision.ACC.PL.M
 ‘Therefore, I call on professional politicians to make professional political decisions.’ (C)

- (3.4.60) *Bet* *Kaliforniju* *zinājām* *visi.*
 but **California.ACC.F** know.PST.1PL all.NOM.PL.M
 ‘But we all knew of California.’ (A. Eglītis)

The object often plays the role of the theme in subjectless sentences with a generalized or indeterminate agent; in such cases this order can be considered neutral:

- (3.4.61) *Ziemeļu skujkoku mežus*
 north.GEN.PL.M conifer.GEN.PL.M forest.ACC.PL.M
sauc arī par boreālajiem
 call.PRS.3 also PREP boreal.DAT.PL.M
mežiem.
 forest.DAT.PL.M
 ‘Northern coniferous forests are also called boreal forests.’ (C)

- (3.4.62) *Mežus atjauno vai nu mākslīgi,*
 forest.ACC.PL.M restore.PRS.3 CONJ PART artificially
tos stādot un sējot, vai
 it.ACC.PL.M plant.PTCP and sow.PTCP CONJ
arī izcirstajām teritorijām ļauj
 PART cut.PTCP.DAT.PL.F area.DAT.PL.F let.PRS.3
atjaunoties dabiski.
 renew.INF naturally
 ‘The forests are restored either artificially by planting and sowing, or the cut areas are left to grow naturally.’ (C)

The object constitutes the theme with the subject in the infinitive:

- (3.4.63) *Brīvību regulēt no augšas*
 freedom.ACC.F regulate.INF from above.GEN.F
nav iespējams.
 not_be.COP.PRS.3 possible.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It is not possible to regulate freedom from above.’ (Ir)
- (3.4.64) *Bērnu audzināt nav grūti.*
 child.ACC.M raise.INF not_be.COP.PRS.3 difficult
 ‘It is not difficult to raise a child.’ (C)

An object functioning as the theme in a bipartite sentence often results in a VS order in both verbal (3.4.65), nominal (3.4.66), and adverbial (3.4.67) sentences:

- (3.4.65) *Šo parādību veicina*
 this.ACC.F phenomenon.ACC.F encourage.PRS.3
legālo medikamentu tirgotāji.
 legal.GEN.PL.F drug.GEN.PL.M trader.NOM.PL.M
 ‘This phenomenon is encouraged by sellers of legal drugs.’ (C)
- (3.4.66) *Režisora izdarīto ir*
 director.GEN.M do.PTCP.ACC.M be.COP.PRS.3
pamats apbrīnot.
 reason.NOM.M admire.INF
 ‘There is a reason to admire the director’s achievement.’ (Ir)

- (3.4.67) *Čennini* *receptes* *nebija* *viegli* *lietot.*
 Cennini.GEN.M **recipe.NOM.PL.F** not_be.COP.PST.3 easy use.INF
 ‘Cennini’s recipes were not easy to use.’ (A. Eglītis)

The position of adverbial modifiers is not strictly determined. They can occur both before and after the predicate, and their position is mainly determined by information structure.

Alternatively, adverbials of manner, measure, and cause – when functioning as the theme – usually occur as a marked theme:

- (3.4.68) *Lēni,* *bet* *nenovēršami* *izrobotais* *gabals*
slowly but **inevitably** dent.PTCP.NOM.M chunk.NOM.M
dodas *uz* *jūru.*
 travel.PRS.3 toward sea.ACC.F
 ‘Slowly but inevitably, the dented chunk travels toward the sea.’ (C)

- (3.4.69) *Tik* *daudz* *jau* *tas* *saldējums* *nemaksāja.*
so **much** PTCL that.NOM.M ice_cream.NOM.M not_cost.PST.3
 ‘The ice cream didn’t cost that much.’ (C)

- (3.4.70) *Aiz* *bēdām* *Lielā* *līgava*
PREP **sadness.DAT.PL.F** great.NOM.F bride.NOM.F
saēdās *drīgenes.*
 eat.PST.3 henbane.ACC.PL.F
 ‘In her sadness, the Great Bride ate a lot of black henbane.’ (C)

The secondary predicate, as stated above, may be found in different places in the sentence. The secondary predicate functioning as the theme should be considered a marked theme:

- (3.4.71) *Baismīgi* *sarkans* *un* *melns* *aiz*
 fearfully **red.NOM.M** and **black.NOM.M** behind
mežiem *ārdījās* *saulriets.*
 forest.DAT.PL.M rage.PST.3 sunset.NOM.M
 ‘Fearfully red and black, the sunset blazed behind the forests.’ (C)

- (3.4.72) *Priecīgs* *sasveicinos* *ar* *pārējiem* *biedriem.*
glad.NOM.M greet.PRS.1SG with other.INS.PL.M member.INS.PL.M
 ‘I greet the other members gladly.’ (C)

A secondary predicate can only precede the subject if the subject is a pronoun or proper noun because they do not bind attributes:

- (3.4.73) *Vārīti* *tie* *parasti* *ir*
boil.PTCP.NOM.PL.M it.NOM.PL.M usually be.COP.PRS.3
sausī *un* *gaisīgi.*
 dry.NOM.PL.M and airy.NOM.PL.M
 ‘When boiled, they usually are dry and airy.’ (www.cetrassezonas.lv)

- (3.4.74) *Pārsteigts* *Radziņš* *piecēlās* *gultā*
surprise.PTCP.NOM.M *Radziņš.NOM.M* *get_up.PST.3* *bed.LOC.F*
sēdus.
 seated
 ‘Surprised, Radziņš sat up in his bed.’ (C)

The subject is the most typical means for expressing an unmarked theme. If occurring with a particle, a subject can be a marked theme:

- (3.4.75) *Ari vārds daudz ko nozīmē.*
 also **word.NOM.M** *a_lot* *what.ACC* *mean.PRS.3*
 ‘A word, too, means a lot.’ (A. Eglītis)

A verbal predicate rarely functions as the theme, because most sentences beginning with a predicate are communicatively indivisible (see 3.4.102, 3.4.103). A verbal predicate functions as a marked theme in the following examples:

- (3.4.76) *Pat ēdam mēs istabā.*
 even **eat.PRS.1PL** *we.NOM* *room.LOC.F*
 ‘We even eat in the room.’ (delfi.lv)
- (3.4.77) *Ari ēd viņi citādi.*
 also **eat.PRS.3** *they.NOM.M* *differently*
 ‘They eat differently, too.’ (C)

The semantics of these sentences could be rephrased as follows: ‘with regard to eating, we do it in the room (just like many other things)’ (3.4.76), or ‘with regard to eating, they do it differently (like many other things)’ (3.4.77) therefore the predicates should be considered the theme.

Nominal predicates functioning as the theme are more common. In nominal (noun) sentences, where the subject of the sentence is also a noun, the word order usually performs a grammatical function (see Section 3.4.1). However, in cases where the semantics of the word forms or the context precludes interpreting them as SV, the predicate is the theme:

- (3.4.78) *Mikla nav diktators –*
puzzle.NOM.F **not_be.COP.PRS.3** *dictator.NOM.M*
mikla ir cilvēki.
puzzle.NOM.F **be.COP.PRS.3** *person.NOM.PL.M*
 ‘The puzzle is not dictator, the puzzle is people.’ (C)
- (3.4.79) *Ļoti iejūtīgi audzinātāji bija*
 very sensitive.NOM.PL.M **teacher.NOM.PL.M** **be.COP.PST.3**
arī Valdis Kiršteins, Valdis
 also Valdis.NOM.M Kiršteins.NOM.M Valdis.NOM.M
Užāns un daudzi citi.
 Užāns.NOM.M and many.NOM.M other.NOM.PL.M
 ‘Very sensitive teachers also included Valdis Kiršteins, Valdis Užāns, and many others.’ (A. Dripe)

If the subject and the predicate belong to different parts of speech, the predicate is advanced to the function of the theme to topicalize the subject of the sentence. The predicate can be both nominal (noun) (3.4.80) and adjectival (3.4.81):

- (3.4.80) *Viņa mūža sapnis un apsēstība bija vadīt cilvēkus.*
 he.GEN life.GEN.M dream.NOM.M and
 obsession.NOM.F be.COP.PST.3 lead.INF person.ACC.PL.M
 ‘His lifelong dream and obsession was to lead people.’ (A. Tifentāle)

- (3.4.81) *Svarīgs ir arī draugu atbalsts.*
 important.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 also friend.GEN.PL.M
 support.NOM.M
 ‘Support from friends is also important.’ (C)

The subject in an adjectival sentence with a marked theme may be placed between the parts of the predicate:

- (3.4.82) *Politkorekta Zālīte ir bijusi tikai pret savu mammu.*
 politically_correct.NOM.F Zālite.NOM.F be.AUX.PRS.3
 bijusi tikai pret savu
 be.COP.PTCP.NOM.F only against own.ACC.F
 mother.ACC.F
 ‘Zālīte was politically correct only with her mom.’ (Diena)

- (3.4.83) *Tik pilns, tik brīvs un piepeši arī tik priecīgs viņš savu mūžu nebija juties.*
 so full.NOM.M so free.NOM.M and suddenly
 arī tik priecīgs viņš savu mūžu
 also so happy.NOM.M he.NOM own.ACC.M life.ACC.M
 not_be.AUX.PST.3 feel.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘Never in his life had he felt so full, so free, and suddenly also so happy.’ (C)

An adverbial predicate often plays the role of an unmarked theme if the subject is an infinitive, especially when it comes to a particular person or area:

- (3.4.84) *Tik grūti ir būt vienai.*
 so hard be.COP.PRS.3 be.INF alone.DAT.F
 ‘It’s so hard to be alone.’ (C)

- (3.4.85) *Vispareizāk šai gadījumā būtu runāt par praktisku materiālismu.*
 best this.LOC.M case.LOC.M be.COP.COND speak.INF
 par praktisku materiālismu.
 about practical.ACC.M materialism.ACC.M
 ‘In this case, it would be best to speak about practical materialism.’
 (R. Mūks)

If an adverbial sentence expresses a general statement, the word order is usually direct, namely, SV (Valkovska 2016b: 41):

(3.4.86) *Ar roku to darīt ir sarežģīti.*
 with hand.INS.F it.ACC.M do.INF be.COP.PRS.3 difficult
 ‘It is difficult to do it by hand.’ (C)

(3.4.87) *Skolā strādāt ir ērti.*
 school.LOC.F work.INF be.COP.PRS.3 convenient
 ‘It is convenient to work at school.’ (C)

Place and time adjuncts are among the most typical unmarked themes in Latvian. They bind the sentence to the context or to a particular speech situation, and tend to be at the beginning of the utterance:

(3.4.88) *Pie griestiem dega spoža divsimtvatu spuldze.*
 at ceiling.DAT.PL.M burn.PST.3 bright.NOM.F two-hundred_watt.GEN.PL.M light_bulb.NOM.F
 ‘A bright two-hundred-watt light bulb was shining on the ceiling.’ (A. Puriņš)

(3.4.89) *Vakaros parasti sanākuši kopā dažādu tautību jaunieši.*
 evening.LOC.PL.M usually come.PTCP.NOM.PL.M together different.GEN.PL.F nationality.GEN.PL.F young_person.NOM.PL.M
 ‘In the evenings, young people of different nationalities used to come together.’ (E. Veidemane)

Particularly frequent are adverbial adjuncts functioning as the theme in subjectless sentences (3.4.90) and potentially verbal sentences (3.4.91). The fewer actants (arguments) there are in the semantic structure of the verb, the more likely it is that adjuncts will play a major role in the communicative structure (Valkovska 2016b: 13).

(3.4.90) *Trīs nedēļas nebija lijs.*
 three.ACC.F week.ACC.PL.F not_be.AUX.PST.3 rain.PTCP.NOM.M
 ‘It hadn’t rained for three weeks.’ (C)

(3.4.91) *Aiz loga tikai mežs.*
 beyond window.GEN.M only forest.NOM.M
 ‘Outside the window, only forest.’ (C)

Often several adjuncts are used in parallel as the theme:

(3.4.92) *Vidzemē jau liš.*
 Vidzeme.LOC.F already rain.PRS.3
 ‘It is already raining in Vidzeme.’ (C)

(3.4.93) *Atceļā pāri mums snieg.*
 way_back.LOC.M over we.DAT snow.PRS.3
 ‘On the way back it snowed on us.’ (C)

An adjunct in the dative is a typical unmarked theme:

- (3.4.94) *Maizei* *bija* *rudzu* *ziedu* *un*
bread.DAT.F be.PST.3 rye.GEN.PL.M flower.GEN.PL.M and
rudens *kļavlapu* *smarža.*
autumn.GEN.M maple_leaf.GEN.PL.F smell.NOM.F
‘The bread had the smell of rye flowers and autumn maple leaves.’
(S. Kaldupe)

- (3.4.95) *Mums* *pat* *nebija* *pazīstama*
we.DAT even not_be.COP.PST.3 know.PTCP.NOM.F
ši *izjūta:* “*piegriezies*”...
this.NOM.F feeling.NOM.F dead_bored
‘We didn’t even know the feeling: “dead bored” ...’ (E. Veidemane)

As was mentioned earlier, VS order is common in bipartite sentences where an adjunct is functioning as the theme:

- (3.4.96) *Vispirms* *gruva* *tuvāko* *mājeļu*
first collapse.PST.3 closest.GEN.F house.GEN.PL.F
jumti *un* *žogi.*
roof.NOM.PL.M and fence.NOM.PL.M
‘The roofs and fences of the closest houses collapsed first.’ (L. Ķuzāne)

- (3.4.97) *Un* *tam* *laikam* *piemīt*
and that.DAT.M time.DAT.M characterize_by.PRS.3
alkas *pēc* *kaut kā* *tāla,*
craving.NOM.PL.F for something.GEN distant.GEN.M
skaista, *īpaša.*
beautiful.GEN.M special.GEN.M
‘And that time was characterized by a craving for something distant, beautiful, special.’ (E. Veidemane)

- (3.4.98) *Bērniem* *patīk* *mājiņas,*
child.DAT.PL.M like.PRS.3 toy_house.NOM.PL.F
kluciši, *torniši.*
block.NOM.PL.M tower.NOM.PL.M
‘Children love toy houses, blocks, towers.’ (C)

The SV order is found mainly in cases where the subject is contextually bound:

- (3.4.99) *Vakaros* *viņi* *sēdēja* *virtuvē* *pie*
evening.LOC.PL.M they.NOM.M sit.PST.3 kitchen.LOC.F at
lielā *galda.*
large.GEN.M table.GEN.M
‘In the evenings, they were sitting in the kitchen at the large table.’ (C)

Communicatively indivisible sentences

Communicatively indivisible sentences are utterances that announce an event, without noting the starting point of that event (Beloshapkova 1999: 798). What matters most here is the basic structural type of the sentence, the valency, and the semantic type of the predicate; for example, sentences using predicates with zero valency, or impersonal sentences, are often communicatively indivisible (Valkovska 2016b: 13). Generally, such sentences are made up of verbs that describe different processes in nature.

- (3.4.100) *Smaržo* *pēc* *piparmētru* *konfektēm* *un*
 smell.PRS.3 like peppermint.GEN.PL.F candy.DAT.PL.F and
jūras.
 sea.GEN.F
 ‘It smells like peppermint candy and the sea.’ (C)

- (3.4.101) *Sniga* *jau* *trešo* *dienu* *no*
 snow.PST.3 already third.ACC.F day.ACC.F PREP
vietas.
 place.GEN.F
 ‘It was snowing for the third day in a row.’ (C)

The majority of predicate-initial bipartite sentences are considered to be indivisible. These sentences describe a situation or an event as a whole, and all the information is usually new:

- (3.4.102) *Sākās* *mans* *ģimenei* *un* *jaunatnes*
begin.PST.3 my.NOM.M family.DAT.F and youth.GEN.F
audzināšanai *veltītās* *publicistikas*
 education.DAT.F dedicate.PTCP.GEN.F journalism.GEN.F
laiks.
 time.NOM.M
 ‘Thus began the period of journalism I dedicated to the family and to youth education.’ (A. Dripe)

- (3.4.103) *Piebrauca* *kāds* *vīrs* *ar*
drive_up.PST.3 some.NOM.M man.NOM.M with
čikstošu *velosipēdu.*
 creak.PTCP.INS.M bicycle.INS.M
 ‘A man with a creaking bicycle pedalled up.’ (C)

- (3.4.104) *Nebūs* *vairs* *mūsu* *Liepājas.*
not_be.FUT.3 no_more we.GEN Liepāja.GEN.F
 ‘Our Liepāja will be no more.’ (L. Ķuzāne)

Sentences with only a rheme and in which the implicit theme has to be determined from context, can border on contextually bound utterances.

3.4.3 The stylistic function of word order

One can speak of the stylistic function of word order when a particular word order type is used only in a certain style. For example, in colloquial language, the adverbial of measure tends to be placed after an adjective (Valkovska 2016a: 107):

- (3.4.105) *Esi jau liels diezgan.*
 be.COP.PRS.2SG already big.NOM.M enough
 ‘You are big enough already.’ (C)

- (3.4.106) *Mazs pavisam biju.*
 small.NOM.M so be.COP.PST.1SG
 ‘I was so small (young).’ (C)

The placement of the attribute after the noun is typical of both poetic language ((3.4.107, 3.4.108) and colloquial language (3.4.109):

- (3.4.107) *Mākoņi melni pa istabu šaudās.*
 cloud.NOM.PL.M black.NOM.PL.M around room.ACC.F
 swirl.PRS.3
 ‘Black clouds are swirling around the room.’ (C)

- (3.4.108) *Oga saldā, oga sūrā,*
 berry.NOM.F sweet.NOM.F berry.NOM.F sour.NOM.F
kuru roku izvēlies?
 which.ACC.F hand.ACC.F choose.PRS.2SG
 ‘Berry sweet, berry sour, which hand do you choose?’ (www.dziesmas.lv)

- (3.4.109) *Pat ne sapnis, murgs*
 even not dream.NOM.M nightmare.NOM.M
gatavais.
 ready.NOM.M
 ‘Not even a dream, a real nightmare.’ (C)

The stylistic function often combines with the communicative one, because the change in the placement of the components not only expresses added stylistic information, but also adds topicalization, for instance, in the following sentences in the colloquial register:

- (3.4.110) *Paldies liels!*
 thank you big.NOM.M
 ‘Thank you so much!’ (C)

- (3.4.111) *Nu necieš viņš to puiku ne*
 well hate.PRS.3 he.NOM that.ACC.M boy.ACC.M PTCL
acu galā!
 eye.GEN.PL.F end.LOC.M
 ‘Well, he can’t stand that boy at all!’ (A. Puriņš)

3.5 Composite sentences

3.5.0 Introductory remarks

Composite sentences are a combination of several predicative units based on certain syntactic relations. They are formed following a generalized pattern or scheme and function as a communicative whole (Skujiņa 2007: 341). The parts of composite sentences are modeled on simple sentences, but this pattern does not always appear in full:

(3.5.1) *Daļa kristiešu Ziemassvētkus atzīmē 24. un 25. decembrī, bet daļa – janvārī.*
'Some Christians celebrate Christmas on December 24 and 25, but some – in January.' (C)

(3.5.2) *Es vismaz jutos to [viesmīlību] pelnījis, bet viņi!?*
'I at least felt I deserved it [hospitality], but them!?' (C)

In examples (3.5.1) and (3.5.2), the second part of the sentence shows clause reduction.

Thus, the parts of a composite sentence have the formal and conceptual structure of a simple sentence, but do not have communicative autonomy. The parts of a composite sentence may also have other structural features which are determined by their inclusion in a larger communicative unit, for example, they may include linking words and may have a specific word order:

(3.5.3) *Redzēsiet, ko cilvēki var izdarīt ar domas spēku.*
'You will see what people can achieve with the power of thought.' (C)

In the sentence (3.5.3), the pronoun *kas* 'what' (in the accusative, *ko*) is both the linking word and the object, therefore, it is located at the beginning of this part of the sentence.

The number of parts in a composite sentence can vary, thus, the most important feature that makes a composite sentence a communicative whole is its intonational unity. The sentence intonation in oral text denotes the boundaries of a composite sentence; in written texts this role is played by sentence-final punctuation marks.

A composite sentence is usually polypropositive, that is, it announces a number of events, but it can also be monopropositive, for example, when a composite sentence structure includes the means of expressing information structure:

(3.5.4) *Atmiņas .. bija tās, kuras uzvedināja mani rakstīt šo dziesmu.* (C)
'Memories... were the ones that led me to write this song.'

It is also possible that a part of the sentence (usually the main clause) expresses an epistemic modal meaning without propositional content:

(3.5.5) *Liekas, ka ir iestājies pārvērtību brīdis.*
'It seems that a moment of transformation has come.' (C)

In a composite sentence, predicative units are joined on the basis of the syntactic relations of coordination and subordination. According to these syntactic relations,

the parts of compound sentences are coordinated (3.5.6), while the parts of complex sentences are subordinated (3.5.7):

(3.5.6) Skārdi būkšķēja un stikli škindēja gandrīz katru dienu.

‘Tin plates clanged and glasses clinked almost every day.’ (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.7) Dari, kā pašam ienāk prātā.

‘Do as you think.’ (Ē. Hānbergs)

In Latvian syntax, a third type of sentence is traditionally distinguished – the mixed composite sentence, in which coordination is the dominant relation, but where at least one main clause has a subclause bound by the relation of subordination:

(3.5.8) Tas bija ļoti labi audzināts kaķis, viņš visu laiku izlikās, ka ziņkārīgi seko manai nodarbībai.

‘It was a very well-behaved cat, it always pretended to be curious about my actions.’ (A. Eglītis)

However, since mixed composite sentences are, in fact, a combination of complex and compound sentences, they do not differ from complex and compound sentences in terms of their syntactic relations and will not be further examined in this work.

The parts of a composite sentence can be joined with or without linking words. Various parts of speech can function as linking words: conjunctions, pronouns, adverbs, particles. At times it can be difficult to determine the syntactic relation, if the parts of a sentence are joined without a linking word (i.e., asyndetically). Such cases can be described as syncretic realization of coordination or subordination, or as a non-differentiated syntactic relation:

(3.5.9) Mīlestība ir kā brīvība – tā vienmēr no jauna jāatrod un vienmēr jāatdod.

‘Love is like freedom – it must always be rediscovered and always returned.’ (I. Šķipsna)

The relationship between the parts of a sentence (3.5.9) can be understood as unitive – which is characteristic of coordination – as well as motivational – which pertains to subordination.

However, in most cases, the syntactic relationship between the parts of a sentence in an asyndetic situation can be determined on the basis of their semantic relationship to be either coordination (3.5.10) or subordination (3.5.11):

(3.5.10) Tiem blakām drīz vien paceļas lieli, moderni veikali, jauns, pārdrošo projektēts kino izslej savu naktīs mirdzošo torni.

‘Modern shops soon rise next to them, a new, daringly designed cinema raises its tower, luminous at night.’ (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.11) Tagad es zinu: es nemeklēju īstajā virzienā. (C)

‘Now I know: I’m not looking in the right direction.’

A single sentence can combine both asyndetic and syndetic means for joining its parts. This is possible in both compound (3.5.12), complex (3.5.13), and mixed composite sentences (3.5.14):

(3.5.12) *Varbūt viņš nav iekrājis ne centa, varbūt viņam ir tikai brangi parādi, bet katrā ziņā viņam ir spēkrati.*

‘Maybe he hasn’t saved a penny, maybe he only has huge debts, but in any case he has a car.’ (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.13) *Viņš nosmaidījis sacīja, ka sabiedriskajā transportā pieradis dot vietu padzīvojušām sievietēm, tā esot audzināts.*

‘He smiled and said that he was used to giving his seat to elderly ladies, he had been brought up that way.’ (Ē. Kūlis)

(3.5.14) *Losandželosa ir liela; daži saka: trīsdesmit jūdzes caurmērā, citi apgalvo, ka septiņdesmit, bet tā, saprotams, nav nekāda nelaime.*

‘Los Angeles is huge; some say thirty miles on average, others say seventy, but that, of course, is no big deal.’ (A. Eglītis)

The order of the parts in a composite sentence can be fixed or varied. For example, the causal subclause, introduced by *tā kā* ‘since, as’, always precedes the main clause:

(3.5.15) *Tā kā tā bija izeja, durvis varēja atvērt tikai no iekšpuses.*

‘As it was the exit, the door could only be opened from inside.’ (C)

If the order of the parts is free, their placement is usually related to the information structure of the contextual and communicative situation in which the sentence is used, for example, the placement of an object subclause before the main clause:

(3.5.16) *Vai tas ir pieņemami, es nezinu.*

‘Whether it is acceptable, I don’t know.’ (C)

3.5.1 Compound sentences

A compound sentence consists of two or more parts joined by coordination (Skujiņa 2007: 340). The semantic relations between the parts of a compound sentence are closely related to the linking words which join the parts. The parts can be joined by the conjunctions *un* ‘and’, *bet* ‘but’, *turpretī (turpretim)* ‘on the other hand’, *ne – ne* ‘neither – nor’, *vai arī* ‘or’, *vai nu – vai (arī)* ‘either – or’, *te – te* ‘here – here’, the particles *taču* ‘however, yet’, *tomēr* ‘still, yet’, *arī* ‘also, as well’, *toties* ‘but, in return’, *tikai* ‘only, but’, *pat* ‘even’, the adverbs *tādēļ* ‘therefore, hence’, *tāpēc* ‘therefore, hence’, *tālab* ‘therefore, hence’, *citādi* ‘otherwise’, *tādējādi* ‘thus, thereby’. The introductory words *piemēram* ‘for example’, *proti* ‘namely’, *tas ir* ‘that is, namely’, *respektīvi* ‘or rather, namely’ can also function as linking words.

The unitive relation is most often expressed by the conjunction *un* ‘and’ or, less often, by the particles *arī* ‘also’ or *pat* ‘even’ functioning as conjunctions:

(3.5.17) *Nepaiet ne nedēļa, un esmu atpakaļ.*

‘Not even a week goes by, and I am back.’ (C)

(3.5.18) Aizturētajam .. nebija .. neviena dokumenta, arī nevienu viņa radnieku pilsētā neizdevās atrast.

‘The detainee ... didn’t have ... a single document, nor did anyone manage to find a relative of his in the city.’ (C)

(3.5.19) Visi nu apjukuši un tādi kā nelaimīgi skatījās uz Billi, pat Olgai apaļās mutes kaktiņi uz leju.

‘Everyone was confused now and looked at Bille in a sort of unhappy way, even the corners of Olga’s round mouth drooped.’ (C)

As the particles used in this way also retain their particle-specific semantics, sentences whose parts are joined using the particles *arī* ‘also’ and *pat* ‘even’ border on being asyndetic. This is also shown by the frequent use of a combination of two linking words:

(3.5.20) Mēs, Marit, dzīvojam nenormālā laikā, un arī mūsu dzīves nav īsti normālas.

‘We, Marita, live in abnormal times, and our lives are not really normal either.’ (C)

(3.5.21) Kājas viņam bija basas, un pat nagi kāju pirkstiem bija apgriezti.

His feet were bare, and even his toes had their nails clipped.’ (C)

(3.5.22) Nakts ir silta, un pat nenojaušam, ka tūlīt sāksies īsta ziema.

‘The night is warm and [we] don’t even sense that a real winter is about to begin.’ (C)

The negation of the unitive relation is expressed with the reduplicative conjunction *ne – ne* ‘neither - nor’:

(3.5.23) Vienā rakstā M bija salīdzinājis cilvēkus ar putniem – ne tie sēj, ne tie plauj, ne kaut ko krāj, un pati daba tos baro.

‘In an article, M had compared people with birds – they neither sow, nor plough, nor save anything, and nature itself feeds them.’ (C)

(3.5.24) Viņa var iet ieskrieties; ne tu viņai esi vajadzīgs, ne viņa tev.

‘She can take a hike; she neither needs you, nor do you need her.’ (C)

In an asyndetic compound sentence, the unitive relation is the most common:

(3.5.25) Bet laiks gāja, es tā arī neko nespēju izdomāt ..

‘But time went by, and so I never was able to figure out anything ...’ (C)

The cause and effect relations are expressed by the adverbs *tādēļ* ‘therefore, hence’, *tāpēc* ‘therefore, hence’, *tālab* ‘therefore, hence’, *tādējādi* ‘thus, thereby’ (the latter mainly in business texts and scientific discourse) functioning as conjunctions:

(3.5.26) Pavisam 2. klasē bija ap četrdesmit skolnieku, tāpēc tika izveidotas divas paralēlklases.

‘In total, there were approximately forty students in grade 2, therefore two parallel classes were created.’ (C)

(3.5.27) Bet tās [domas] bija brīvas, tādēļ mana interese par viņas tekstiem neviltota.

‘But those [thoughts] were free, so my interest in her texts was genuine.’ (C)

- (3.5.28) Bija pilnmēness, tālab varēja viegli izvairīties no svaigi uzraktajām puku dobēm.
 ‘There was a full moon, so it was easy to avoid the freshly dug flower beds.’ (C)
- (3.5.29) Turklāt praksē nereti auditorijas vēlmes ir īstermiņa, tādējādi šāda nekritiska sekošana auditorijas vēlmēm varētu nākotnē radīt negatīvas sekas.
 ‘Besides, in practice, the audience’s wishes are often short-term, therefore, a non-critical bending to the audience’s wishes could have negative effects in the future.’ (C)

These relations can be combined with the unitive relation and, therefore, tend to be considered a subtype of the unitive relation:

- (3.5.30) Latvijai jūrā nav salu, un tāpēc Sāmsala šķiet brīnumaina, noslēpumaina un droša miera osta.
 ‘Latvia doesn’t have any sea islands, and, therefore, Saaremaa seems a wondrous, mysterious, and safe peaceful harbor.’ (C)
- (3.5.31) Nekas tāds vēl nav redzēts, un tādēļ man tas jāizdara.
 ‘Nothing like that has been seen before, and so I have to do it.’ (C)
- (3.5.32) Attīstītākās valstis izmanto abas pieejas vienlaicīgi, un tādējādi tās pārklājas.
 ‘The most advanced countries use both approaches simultaneously and, therefore, they overlap.’ (C)

The contrastive relation is expressed using the conjunctions *bet* ‘but’, *turpreti* (*turpretim*) ‘on the other hand’. The content of the second part of such sentences is the opposite of what could be expected based on the content of their first part:

- (3.5.33) Kaut kas manī iekšā tiecās uz debesīm, bet ķermenis bija tik ļoti smags.
 ‘Something inside me longed for heaven, but my body was so heavy.’ (C)
- (3.5.34) Viņš lielo lomu guva sacensību pirmajā dienā, turpretim otrās dienas sacensības nebija vairs tik veiksmīgas ..
 ‘He got the big catch on the first day of the competition; however, the second day of the competition was not quite as successful.’ (C)

Rhetorical or difficult-to-answer questions are more common in compound sentences whose parts are joined using the conjunction *bet* ‘but’, than in other composite sentence types:

- (3.5.35) To jau mēs visu laiku esam zinājuši, bet vai jūs mūs klausījāt?
 ‘We have known this all along, but did you listen to us?’ (C)
- (3.5.36) Bagātību vēlas iegūt ikviens, bet kāpēc visiem neizdodas?
 ‘Everyone wants to be wealthy but why doesn’t everyone succeed?’ (C)
- (3.5.37) Skumji, bet ko darīt?
 ‘Sad, but what can one do?’ (C)

As contrastive conjunctions, the contrastive particles *tomēr* ‘still, yet’ and *taču* ‘however, yet’ are semantically close to the conjunction *bet* ‘but’:

(3.5.38) *Romānists ir nodevējs, tomēr neviens viņu netiesā.*
‘The novelist is a traitor, but no one judges him.’ (C)

(3.5.39) *Tumsā nebija viegli atrast savus zirgus, taču bez tiem nekāds tālākais ceļš nebija iedomājams.*
‘It was not easy to find one’s horses in the dark, but without them there was no way forward.’ (C)

Functioning as a coordinating conjunction, the particle *toties* ‘but, in return’ indicates that the content of the second part of the sentence compensates somewhat for what is mentioned in the first part:

(3.5.40) *Mājās augu dienu valda krietna krēsla, toties tās [ādas] lieliski pasargā no nežēlīgi kveldējošiem saules stariem.*
‘At home, all day long twilight reigns, but those [skins] perfectly protect against the sunlight relentlessly beating down.’ (C)

Functioning as a conjunction, the meaning of the particle *tikai* ‘only’ retains a quality of restriction and indicates that, in the given situation, only what is mentioned in the second part of the sentence matters:

(3.5.41) *Es samaksāšu, brālīt, tikai tu piestādi rēķinu.*
‘I’ll pay, bro, you just bring the bill.’ (C)

The particle *tikai* ‘only’ can also indicate that the content of the second part of the sentence is to some extent an exception to what is mentioned in the first part:

(3.5.42) *Dievs mūs visus ir līdzīgi apdāvinājis, tikai daži no mums šīs dāvanas prot izmantot labāk nekā pārējie.*
‘God has gifted us all alike, only a few of us can use these gifts better than others.’ (C)

The adverb *citādi* ‘otherwise’ can also be used as a conjunction. In such sentences, there is a conditional and consequential relation between parts, namely, the second part of the sentence refers to the consequences that would be possible, unless the condition referred to in the first part was satisfied:

(3.5.43) *Mammucis izskrēja pretī, citādi pa to tumsu neatradīs īstās durvis.*
‘Mommy ran to meet [us], otherwise there’s no way of finding the right door in the dark.’ (C)

One also finds the combination of two synonymous or semantically close linking words *bet tomēr* and *bet toties* that reinforces the contrastive relation:

(3.5.44) *Maz tas līdz, bet tomēr kaut kas darīts.*
‘It is of little use, but still something has been done.’ (C)

(3.5.45) *Par viņu es nezinu neko, bet toties par tevi visu.*
‘I don’t know anything about him, but about you I know everything.’ (C)

In contrast, the particles *tikai* 'only' and *taču* 'however, yet' co-occur with the contrastive conjunction *bet* 'but', but retain their characteristic semantics of restriction or reinforcement:

(3.5.46) *Vīnus ieraugot, cilvēks piecēlās, **bet tikai** pāris soļu atstatumā Agra beidzot atpazīna Kārlī.*

'When he saw them, the man got up, but only a few steps away did Agra finally recognize Kārlis.' (C)

(3.5.47) .. *pa starpu – dažādi iespaidumi un piebildumi, **bet taču** neraisās stāsts.*

'... in between – several insertions and comments, but the story does not unfold.' (C)

However, the contrastive linking word *tomēr* 'still, yet' can be combined with the coordinating conjunction *un* 'and', and even in this case, the particle retains the semantics of 'contrary to the expectations' or 'in spite of the obstacles':

(3.5.48) *Anglijā jums gāja labi, **un tomēr** jūs riskējāt ar dzīvību, atgrieždamies Padomju Savienībā.*

'In England you fared well, and yet you risked your life by returning to the Soviet Union.' (C)

Disjunctive relations in a compound sentence are expressed by *vai arī* 'or', *vai nu – vai (arī)* 'either – or':

(3.5.49) *Tagad laikam tik briesmīgi nebija, **vai arī** Olga pieradusi, viņa vairs negība, Billi redzējama ..*

'Now apparently it was not so terrible, or Olga had grown accustomed, she no longer fainted, seeing Bille.' (C)

(3.5.50) *Abas nozīmes var īstenoties sinkrētiski, **vai arī** atkarībā no izteikuma semantikas kāda no nozīmēm var dominēt.*

'Both meanings can be realized in a syncretic fashion, or, depending on the semantics of the utterance, one of the meanings can prevail.' (C)

(3.5.51) ***Vai nu** viņai sala, **vai arī** tas nāca no spēcīgās nervu spriedzes.*

'Either she was freezing, or it came from strong nervous tension.' (C)

(3.5.52) ***Vai nu** jumtiņš sašķiebies, **vai** dikdienība prātā.*

'Either they were going nuts, or their minds were idle.' (C)

Cases where coordination was made using the coordinated (combined) conjunctions *vai – vai* 'either – or' or *vai – vai arī* 'either – or' were not found, because in such cases, the first *vai* in each combination corresponds either to a subordinating conjunction (3.5.53, 3.5.54) or to the interrogative particle (3.5.55):

(3.5.53) *Vienalga, **vai** rīts vai vakars, **vai** lietus vai zibens.*

'It's all the same, whether it's morning or evening, whether it's raining or thundering.' (C)

(3.5.54) *Protams, nevar jau uzminēt, **vai** viņi tur patiesi strādā līdz agram rītam, **vai arī** pie iedegtām lampām viņiem labāk nāk miegs.*

‘Of course, you can’t guess whether they really work there until dawn, or whether by leaving the lights on they get a better night’s sleep.’ (C)

(3.5.55) *Nez **vai** Šmits savai ārstēšanas metodei tādus izmanto, **vai arī** Edžus vecumdienās pārāk daudz greznumlietu sācis valkāt.*

‘I wonder if Šmits uses them as a method of treatment, or Edžus has started to wear too much jewelry in his old age.’ (C)

The conjunction *jeb vai* ‘or’ can function as a coordinating conjunction in cases where the first part of the sentence is introduced by the interrogative particle *vai*:

(3.5.56) ***Vai tu darīsi brīnumus mirušo vidū, **jeb vai** palikušie celsies tevi godāt?***

‘Will you perform miracles among the dead, or will the living rise up to honor you?’ (C)

Less common is the disjunctive relation in a compound sentence, which is expressed using *te – te* ‘here – here’:

(3.5.57) ***Te vilku piemin, te vilks klāt.***

‘Once you mention the wolf, it comes.’ (www.garamantas.lv)

(3.5.58) ***Te viens nosists, te cits nodurts, te nošauts beigts, te vēl kāds izvarots ..***

‘Here one is beaten to death, here another is stabbed, here another is shot, here someone else is raped ..’ (C)

The relations of clarification or interpretation between parts of a compound sentence are expressed by the words *piemēram* ‘for example’, *proti* ‘namely’, *tas ir* ‘that is, namely’, *respektīvi* ‘or rather, namely’:

(3.5.59) *Pasaulē izpletnlēcēju nav daudz, un vēl mazāk ir pilotu – **piemēram, Amerikā ir mazāk nekā pusmiljons licencētu pilotu.***

‘There are not many parachutists in the world, and even fewer pilots – for example, there are less than half a million licensed pilots in America.’ (C)

(3.5.60) *A. Hermana izrādes ir atvērtas, **tas ir, tajās milzīga nozīme ir skatītāju aktivitātei.***

‘Alvis Hermanis’ performances are open, that is, audience activity is of great importance in them.’ (C)

(3.5.61) *Un atkal man prātā nāk Kurta Fridrihsona teiktais par mākslu, **proti – mākslā galvenais ir – maigums un distance.***

‘And again, Kurts Fridrihsons’ words about art come to my mind, namely, the main thing in art is tenderness and distance.’ (C)

(3.5.62) *Trasē jauniešus sagaidīja seši uzdevumi, **respektīvi, katrs komandas dalībnieks bija sagatavots tikai vienam no šiem pārbaudījumiem.***

‘Six tasks were prepared for the youths on the track, that is to say, each team member was prepared for only one of these tests.’ (C)

The parts of a compound sentence can have shared components – most often adverbial adjuncts (3.5.63) or dative adjuncts (3.5.64), rarely other sentence components, for instance, objects (3.5.65):

(3.5.63) Pēc brīža viņš atkal parādījās lūkā un viņam pakal uzvījās smalka dūmu strūklīņa.

‘After a while, he reappeared in the hatch, and he was followed by a fine trail of smoke.’ (C)

(3.5.64) Man vienā rokā ir vesels pīrāgs un otrā ir pīrāga gals.

‘I had a whole pie in one hand, and in the other – the tip of a pie.’
(V. Jākobsons)

(3.5.65) Par vēršu cīņām iznāk grāmata pēc grāmatas, romāns pēc romāna un, saprotams, parādās arī daudzas filmas.

‘Book after book, novel after novel are published **about bullfighting** and, of course, it appears in many films, too.’ (A. Eglītis)

Interestingly, the adverbial adjuncts shared by the parts of a compound sentence may even be raised before the first part of the double conjunction, which unmistakably indicates that they belong to both parts of the sentence:

(3.5.66) Tāpat bieži pēdējos gados veiktos eksperimentos vai nu tiek pētīti paši fotojonizācijas procesi vai arī šie procesi tiek izmantoti atomu detektēšanai.

‘Similarly, **in the experiments frequently conducted in recent years**, photoionization processes are either studied or these processes are used to detect atoms.’ (C)

The parts of a compound sentence can be reduced. Reduced parts are those in which a structurally significant component, such as a predicate (3.5.67) or a predicate along with the subject (3.5.68, 3.5.69), is not realized or is omitted due to the context, namely, the first part of the sentence:

(3.5.67) Viņa Lejasruļos jau bijusi, toties Rodrigo pat laukos nekad [nav bijis].

‘She has already been to Lejasruļi, but Rodrigo [has not] even [been] to the countryside.’ (C)

(3.5.68) Gar Sanfrancisko plūst okeāna aukstā straume, gar Losandželosu – [plūst okeāna] siltā [straume].

‘The cold ocean current flows along San Francisco, along Los Angeles – [flows] the warm [ocean current].’ (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.69) Nekādu Anniņu neviens neesot ne acīs redzējis, toties direktora kundzi pašu pirkumus no tirgus stiepjām [kāds ir redzējis] vai ik mīļu dienu.

‘No one had ever seen any Anniņa; however, [someone had seen] the director’s lady dragging their own purchases back from the market each and every day.’ (C)

The order of the parts in a compound sentence is usually fixed and cannot be changed because it implies a logical progression of thought.

A compound sentence can have a closed or open structure. Closed structure sentences contain only two parts and in this sense they are similar to complex sentences (3.5.70), but in open structure sentences the number of parts is unlimited and can be increased (3.5.71, 3.5.72):

(3.5.70) Vajadzētu aiziet, tomēr nevairoš, neaizeju.

‘I should leave, still, I don’t shy away, I don’t leave.’ (C)

(3.5.71) Krūtis sažņaudzās sāpēs, priekšā izplēnēja kāpnes, pasaule sagriezās kamolā.

‘[His] chest clenched in pain, the stairs evaporated ahead [of him], the world started spinning around.’ (A. Henrišs)

(3.5.72) Ne viņai kas ir, ne viņa pēc kā izskatās.

‘She neither has anything, nor does she look any good.’ (C)

In open structure sentences, one can have conjunctive or disjunctive relations. It is not important by which means the parts are conjoined, the mere fact that parts of the same type are joined produces notional relations. Conjunctions only emphasize the notional identity of the parts and perform expressive function rather than function as mere conjunctions:

(3.5.73) Un deviņas dienas šos maisus ārdīju, un deviņas nakts pavadīju šķetināju.

‘And for nine days I tore up these sacks, and for nine nights I untangled the threads.’ (C)

However, in open structure sentences with disjunctive relations the lexical items that join the parts are important because it is by means of these items that the particular modal meaning of possibility is expressed:

(3.5.74) Atbilde ir vienkārša – vai kāds to līdz šim nav vēlējies darīt, vai kādam ir kas slēpjams no sabiedrības.

‘The answer is simple – either someone did not wish to do it up until now or someone has something to hide from society.’ (C)

In compound sentences with an open structure, the modal and temporal meanings of the parts are identical, the communicative types of these parts, too, are identical:

(3.5.75) Te nogurums pēc garas darba dienas, te prieks par sasniegumiem.

‘At times, fatigue after a long day of work, at times, joy about achievements.’ (C)

(3.5.76) Vai nu zivju toreiz bijis vairāk, vai līvu vīri bijuši stiprāki.

‘Either there were more fish back then, or the Livonian men were stronger.’ (C)

In closed structure sentences, there may be differences in the modal and temporal meanings of the parts (3.5.77, 3.5.78), also the parts themselves may belong to various communicative types (3.5.79):

(3.5.77) Mēs neko daudz nerunājām arī agrāk, bet tagad tas ir citādi.

‘Even before we didn’t talk much, but now it’s different.’ (C)

(3.5.78) Visi grib būt loģiski un sakarīgi, bet arī tas viņiem neizdodas!
'Everyone wants to be logical and coherent, but they don't manage even that!' (C)

(3.5.79) Tūdaļ vajadzēja piesteigties pārējiem rūķiem, bet kāpēc tos nemanīja?
'The other dwarves should have rushed up right away, but why were they nowhere to be seen?' (C)

In compound sentences with more than two parts, there might be a combination of open and closed structures. In example (3.5.80), the first two parts constitute a shared open structure, while the third part relates to the former one as a closed structure.

(3.5.80) Man palika kauns, es jutos vainīgs, tomēr man vajadzēja pierādīt savu patiesību.
'I was ashamed, I felt guilty, but I needed to prove that I was right.' (C)

3.5.2 Complex sentences

A complex sentence is a main clause (or an independent part) which, by means of the relation of subordination, connects a subclause (or a dependent part) to it (Skujiņa 2007: 340). The minimal structure of a complex sentence can be expanded so as to include several subclauses that might be connected to the main clause both by direct (3.5.81) and gradual (3.5.82) subordination:

(3.5.81) Kad cena nolaidās līdz pieciem latiem, Klāvs iedomājās, ka jaunos zābakus nepieciešami aplacīt, un kaulējās vēl, lai atlicinātu kortelītīm.
'When the price dropped to five lats, Klāvs imagined that the new boots needed to be celebrated and negotiated to save some cash for a small bottle of vodka.' (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.82) Izrādījās, ka biju apbruņota tālākajiem pārbaudījumiem, ko slēpa nezināmā nākotnē.
'It turned out that I was well armed for the subsequent tests hidden in the unknown future.' (V. Freimane)

It is also possible to combine direct and gradual subordination in a single complex clause:

(3.5.83) Ja bijāt bikls, nekas jūs netraucēja viņai sekot un noskaidrot dzīvesvietu, lai tad pavisam lēnā garā izlemtu, ko darīt tālāk.
'If you were shy, you could very well follow her and find out where she lived and then, undisturbed, decide on how to proceed.' (A. Eglītis)

The parts of a complex sentence are called predicative units; however, these can also be formed according to specific patterns that are not typical of simple sentences, e.g., a subjectless subordinate clause with a predicate in the conditional mood:

(3.5.84) *Valdībām nekad nav īstais laiks,*

lai izdarītu kaut ko konkrētu.

CONJ **do.COND** something.ACC.M concrete.ACC.M

‘It is never the right time for governments, to do something concrete.’ (C)

The subordinate relationship between the parts of a complex sentence is either similar to the subordinate relationship in a phrase or specific. However, the means of expressing subordination in a complex sentence are always different from the means of expressing subordination in a phrase. In the latter, they are word forms or prepositions, but in the former they are subordinators. Unlike coordinators, subordinators belong to a subclause and form a structural element of that clause. Subordinators are movable together with the subclause to which they belong, while coordinators are not as movable, their place in the clause is fixed.

Subordinators in a complex sentence can be simple subordinating conjunctions: *ka* ‘that’, *lai* ‘let, may’, *vai* ‘whether’, *ja* ‘if’, *jo* ‘because, for’, *kaut* ‘if only’, *līdz* ‘till, until’, *pirms* ‘before’, *kamēr* ‘while, till’, etc., or complex subordinating conjunctions: *līdzko* ‘as soon as’, *tiklīdz* ‘as soon as’, *tā ka* ‘so that’, *tā kā* ‘as, since, because’, *tāpēc ka* ‘because, for’, *tādēļ ka* ‘because, for’, *kaut gan* ‘although’, *kaut arī* ‘although’, *lai gan* ‘although’, *lai arī* ‘although’, *tiklīdz kā* ‘as soon as’, *līdz kamēr* ‘until’, *it kā* ‘as if’, etc., relative pronouns (*kas* ‘what, who’, *kurš* ‘who, which’, *kāds* ‘what’), or adverbs (*kad* ‘when’, *kur* ‘where’, *kurp* ‘where (to)’, *kāpēc* ‘why’, *kādēļ* ‘why’, *kālab* ‘why, for what reason’, *cik* ‘how many, how much’, *kā* ‘how’).

Some of the subordinators are autosemantic, that is, they themselves express the semantic relationships between the main clause and the subclause and determine its semantic type (for example, *ja, jo, tā ka, tā kā, tāpēc ka, kaut gan, it kā*). Synsemantic subordinators can introduce different types of subclauses (such as *ka, lai*).

In a complex sentence, just as in a compound sentence, parts might be connected without a conjunction, most often in sentences with complement clauses:

(3.5.85) *Anete teica, tev jābūt stipram.*

‘Anete said you have to be strong.’ (Ē. Kūlis)

(3.5.86) *Stāvu un, dziļi ievēlot elpu, jūtu – rudens arī manā dzīves dārzā.*

‘I stand and, taking a deep breath, I feel autumn in my garden of life, too.’

(Ē. Kūlis)

Principles of classification of complex sentences

Complex sentences can be grouped by analogy with the models of syntactic relations in a simple sentence. Subordination in a complex sentence may, first of all, be analogous to subordination in a phrase, second of all, it may be analogous to a predicative relationship between the subject of the sentence and its predicate, and, third of all, it may be analogous to an adjunctive syntactic relation in a simple sentence.

Subclauses can also be grouped depending on the semantic relationships between the support word in the sentence or the whole main clause, on the one hand, and the subclause, on the other (for example, an attributive, object, or adverbial clause).

Subordination that is analogous to the relationship between a word and its dependent word form in a complex sentence is determined by the valency of the word (in the example (3.5.87), the verb *gaidīt* ‘to wait’):

- (3.5.87) *Viņš jau bija iedarbinājis mašīnu un*
gaidīja, līdz tā iesilst.
wait.PST.3 until it.NOM.F warm_up.PRS.3
 ‘He had started the car and waited for it to warm up.’ (C)

The subclauses of this type like the dependent components of the phrases are subordinated to a word in the main clause that would be referred to as a *support word*. Such a support word could also be a particular grammatical form, for instance, a comparative:

- (3.5.88) ... *viriešos es orientējos pat*
labāk, nekā varētu vēlēties ...
better than be_able.COND wish.INF
 ‘... I understand men even better than I would like to...’ (C)

The possibilities of binding a subclause, similarly to the head of a phrase, can depend on both the part of speech of the support word (for instance, any noun is able to bind an attributive clause) and the semantic group to which it belongs. In (3.5.89), the possibility of binding a subclause is determined by the fact that the support word is the noun *prieks* ‘happiness’, while in (3.5.90), the semantic group of the support word is what matters: nouns of intellectual or emotional evaluation, and similar words belonging to other parts of speech (for instance, the verb *priecāties* ‘to be happy’ or the adjective *priecīgs* ‘happy’) are able to bind the same subclause:

- (3.5.89) *Vai ir kāds prieks, kuru neietekmē visi šie ārējie apstākļi?*
 ‘Is there such joy that is not affected by all these external circumstances?’
 (www.vilande.lv)

- (3.5.90) *Patiess prieks, ka esat ar mums!*
 ‘It’s a real pleasure that you are with us!’ (www.facebook.com)

Subclauses that are subordinated to one word are always introduced by synsemantic subordinators. Their role is to show the dependence of the subclause on the support word, but they do not in themselves express the semantic relationship between the subclause and the main clause. These are conjunctions (in (3.5.91) and (3.5.92)), relative pronouns (3.5.93), and adverbs (3.5.94):

- (3.5.91) *Un iegaumēju, ka nav spēcīgāka ieroča par savaldību, mieru un tiešu, runātīgu skatienu.*

‘And I noticed that there was no stronger weapon than restraint, peace, and a direct, eloquent gaze.’ (V. Freimane)

- (3.5.92) *Viņš nespēja izšķirt, vai tā veļas augšup vai lejup.*

‘He could not tell whether it was tumbling up or down.’ (A. Henriņš)

(3.5.93) *Es nezināju, ko viņam atbildēt.*
 ‘I didn’t know what to answer him.’ (C)

(3.5.94) *Bridī, kad nolaidāmies, kaut kā uzreiz pašķīrāmies.*
 ‘At the moment (when) we landed, we somehow immediately parted.’
 (P. Bankovskis)

Pronouns and adverbs as subordinators have generalized meanings: they express the subject (*kas* ‘what, who’), attribute (*kāds* ‘what’, *kā* ‘how’), quantity (*cik* ‘how many, how much’, *kurš* ‘who, which’), place (*kur* ‘where’), time (*kad* ‘when’), cause or purpose (*kāpēc*, *kādēļ*, *kālab* ‘why, for what reason’). However, if the subclause is subordinated to one word, these meanings are not essential in shaping the semantic relation. The main function of these subordinators is to indicate a grammatical dependence on the support word in the main clause.

Subordination that is analogous to a predicative relation in a simple sentence arises when the function of the subject (3.5.95) or, more seldom, the predicate (3.5.96), is performed by a subclause rather than a separate word form:

(3.5.95) *Labi vien ir,*
 good PTCL be.COP.PRS.3
ka to neizdariju.
 CONJ that.ACC.M not_do.PST.1
 ‘It is just as good that I did not do that.’ (C)

(3.5.96) *Sākotnējā informācija bija,*
 initial.NOM.F information.NOM.F be.COP.PST.3
ka avarējusi lidmašīna.
 CONJ crash.PTCP.NOM.F plane.NOM.F
 ‘The initial information was that a plane has crashed.’ (C)

Subordination that is analogous to an adjunctive relation arises when the subclause is subordinated to the whole main clause rather than a single support word in the main clause. Such subclauses do not depend on the valency of the word and are introduced by autosemantic subordinators (*jo*, *ja*, *lai*, *tā ka*, *tā kā*, *lai gan*, etc.) – their function is to express the semantic relations between the main clause and the subclause:

(3.5.97) *Pirms turpinu stāstījumu, man jūs jāiepazīstina ar šo interesanto cilvēku.*
 ‘Before I continue, I should introduce this interesting person to you.’ (C)

Correlative elements are sometimes involved in shaping the relation of subordination, namely, the main clause has an anaphoric element (an antecedent) which is a deictic word signaling a following subclause:

(3.5.98) *Runā tikai to,*
 speak.IMP.2SG only that.ACC.M
ko vajag!
 what.ACC need.PRS.3
 ‘Say only what is required!’ (A. Henrišs)

Such an anaphoric element may be optional and might reinforce the relation between the main clause and the subclause:

- (3.5.99) *Dari [tā], kā pašam ienāk prātā.*
'Do as you see fit.' (Ē. Hānbergs)
- (3.5.100) *Taču tā ir veicinājusi arī dažas [tādas] īpašības, ko atzistu par zināmu trūkumu, par savām vājībām.*
'However, it has also contributed to [certain] qualities which I consider as a certain drawback, as my shortcomings.' (V. Freimane)
- (3.5.101) *Kad telpas izkūpināja, [tad] kadiķi sāka smaržot pēc cilvēka klātbūtnes.*
'When the rooms were fumigated, [then] the junipers began to smell of the presence of man.' (Ē. Hānbergs)

It may also be the case that it is not possible to add a subclause without a correlative element. In this case, a syntactic relation is formed between a deictic word in the main clause and the subclause:

- (3.5.102) *Es nevaru izlabot to, kas bijis.*
'I can't correct what has been.' (C)
- (3.5.103) *Visam, kas bijis līdz iestāšanās brīdim klosterī, vairs nav nozīmes.*
'Anything that existed before joining the monastery does not matter anymore.' (C)
- (3.5.104) *Tā nav, ka es uz teātri neaizeju.*
'It's not that I don't go to the theater.'
(L. Brīdaka)

Both pronouns and deictic adverbs that are associated with semantically relevant subordinators may function as anaphoric elements: *tas – kas*, *tur – kur*, *tad – kad*, and so on. Some anaphoric elements may also associate themselves with conjunctions, especially the conjunction *ka*:

- (3.5.105) *Pat Pontontilts bijis tik augstu pacelts, ka uzbraukt un uzkāpt bijis bīstami.*
'Even the Pontoon Bridge had been lifted up so high that it was dangerous to drive or climb onto it.' (A. Henriņš)
- (3.5.106) *Nelaime ir tāda, ka no tās nolādētās bedres tu vienkārši vairs nespēj aizlaisties.*
'The problem is [such] that you just can't get out of that damn pit anymore.' (P. Bankovskis)

In the following, the types of subclauses will be examined in more detail, looking at both the peculiarities of the subordination relationship and the semantic relations between the parts of the sentence.

Semantic types of subordinate clauses

Attributive or relative clauses are subordinated to the noun and usually immediately follow that noun (Skujiņa 2007: 41–42):

- (3.5.107) *Joprojām jūtos lepna par **uzvaru**, **kas** nenāca viegli.*
'I still feel proud of the victory, which did not come easily.' (Ē. Kūlis)
- (3.5.108) *Diemžēl maz **lugu**, **kurās** gribētos noskatīties.*
'Unfortunately, there are few plays [which] I would like to watch.'
(L. Brīdaka)

In attributive clauses, the subordinators most often are relative pronouns *kas*, *kurš*, *kāds*. These are anaphoric elements because they are semantically related to the support word in the sentence. At the same time, they are also parts of the sentence in the subclause, therefore they must be used in different case forms:

- (3.5.109) *Pietrūka uzticības, **ko** vīrs reiz viņai zvērēja.*
'She missed the faithfulness that her husband once swore to her.'
(L. Brīdaka)
- (3.5.110) *Viņa nometa jaunās kurpes, **ar kurām** tik apgrūtināti staigāt.*
'She kicked off the new shoes, which were so difficult to walk with.'
(L. Brīdaka)

The above attributive clauses can specify a noun of any semantics, but the use of other subordinators in such clauses depends on the lexical semantics of the support word.

Adverbs of place can be used as subordinators in attributive clauses, if the support word has a lexical meaning of place:

- (3.5.111) *Ir **rajonī**, **kur**klusuma greznība pieaug līdz fantastiskam krāšņumam.*
'There are neighborhoods where the luxury of silence rises to fantastic splendor.' (A. Eglītis)
- (3.5.112) *Ir savādi būt **vietā**, **kur** daba, parādot savu spēku, izdzēš cilvēka radītos nospiedumus.*
'It is strange to be in a place where nature, showing its power, erases the imprints left by man.' (C)

If the support word in the main clause functions as an adverb of place, the meaning of the subclause nears that of an adverbial clause of place:

- (3.5.113) ***Vietā**, **kur** sākas melnais kultūrslānis, ir tādas kā gulbūves atliekas.*
'There is something like the remains of a log building [in the place] where the black cultural layer begins.' (C)
- (3.5.114) *Viesiem patikusi nakts ekskursija **mežā**, **kur** bija jāpārvar dažādi šķēršļi.*
'Guests enjoyed the night excursion in the woods, where they had to overcome various obstacles.' (C)

Adverbs of manner can be used as subordinators in attributive clauses, if the subclause is subordinated to a noun that has a lexical meaning of manner. In the following subclauses, the predicate is the infinitive and the subclause has an *irrealis* modal meaning:

- (3.5.115) *Grāmatu lasīšana ir izcils veids, kā relaksēties.*
 book.GEN.PL.F reading.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 great.NOM
way.NOM.M how relax.INF
 ‘Reading books is a great way to relax.’ (C)

- (3.5.116) *Izlasi par paņēmieniem, kā tērēt mazāk!*
 read.IMP.2SG about technique.DAT.PL
how spend.INF less.CMP
 ‘Read about techniques on how to spend less!’ (C)

Adverbs of time can be used as subordinators in attributive clauses, if the subclause is subordinated to a noun that has a lexical meaning of time:

- (3.5.117) *Jā, bija reiz laiks, kad es biju krietni aktīvāks un apsviedīgāks nekā šodien.*
 ‘Yes, there was a time when I was much more active and skilled than today.’ (C)

- (3.5.118) *Ļoti iespējams, ka nu ir tas rīts, kad viņa domā.*
 ‘It is quite possible that this is the morning when she thinks.’ (C)

If the support word in the main clause functions as an adverb of time, the meaning of the subclause nears that of an adverbial clause of time:

- (3.5.119) *Jau pirmajā rītā, kad visi sēdējām pie kafijas galda, ģimenes vecmāmiņa man kaut ko jautāja.*
 ‘Already on the first morning, when we were all sitting at the coffee table, the grandmother of the family asked me something.’ (C)

The conjunction *ka* may introduce an attributive clause, if the support word is a noun with the meaning of cognition or speaking (for instance, *doma* ‘thought’, *ideja* ‘idea’, *ilūzija* ‘illusion’, *iespaids* ‘impression’, *cerība* ‘hope’, *vārdi* ‘words’, *draudi* ‘threats’, etc.)

- (3.5.120) *Es loloju sevi domu, ka šī dziesma izskanēs tikai viņam.*
 ‘I cherish the idea that this song will play only for him.’ (C)
- (3.5.121) *Atmiņā pavidēja kāda sacītais, ka jebkurš cilvēks ticot savai nemirstībai.*
 ‘I vaguely remembered that someone said that everyone believes in their own immortality.’ (C)
- (3.5.122) *Ļaudis spārvoja cerība, ka brīvība tiem tūlīt atnesīs labāku dzīvi.*
 ‘People were lifted by the hope that freedom would immediately bring them a better life.’ (C)

Because the support word refers to a process or condition, the attributive clauses (3.5.120–3.5.122) are semantically close to the complement clauses. If the support word has a different semantics, the conjunction *ka* in the subclause requires an anaphoric element *tāds* ‘such’ in the main clause:

(3.5.123) *Par tik zinīgiem viesiem man bija tāds prieks, ka lūdzu tos pienākt ne tikai svētkos vien.*

‘I was so glad about such knowledgeable guests that I asked them to come not just on holidays.’ (C)

An attributive clause can be placed both after the main clause (see, for example, 3.5.107–3.5.110) or in the middle of it:

(3.5.124) *Kabatas naudu, ko būtu varējusi tēvam izvilināt daudz lielāku .., tērēju tikai grāmatām, kino apmeklējumiem un saldiem niekiem.*

‘My pocket money, [of which] I could have gotten much more from my father, I only spent on books, movies, and candy.’ (V. Freimane)

(3.5.125) *Oregonā, kur lietus nepārtraukti list gandrīz pilnus sešus mēnešus, daudziem vietējiem lietusmēteļu nemaz nebija.*

‘In Oregon, where it rains continuously for almost six whole months, many locals did not have raincoats at all.’ (A. Eglītis)

Object or complement clauses are subordinated to a verb that can bind an object (Skujiņa 2007: 277–278):

(3.5.126) *Cilvēks plašā mītnē **nezina**, ko iesākt.*

‘A person in a large residence does not know what to do.’
(Ē. Hānbergs)

Complement clauses can be introduced by relative pronouns (3.5.127), conjunctions (3.5.128, 3.5.129), and adverbs of various semantic classes (3.5.130, 3.5.131):

(3.5.127) *Kādu laiciņu **neviens** nevarēja saprast, kas nu būs.*

‘For a while no one could understand what was going to happen.’
(A. Heniņš)

(3.5.128) *Pat dzimuši losandželosieši apgalvo, ka nereti uzduroties pilnīgi nepazīstamiem apvidiem.*

‘Even natives of Los Angeles claim that they often encounter completely unfamiliar areas.’ (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.129) *Viņš domā, vai viņa prāts un jūtas ir spējīgi radīt kaut ko lielu.*

‘He wonders if his mind and feelings are capable of creating something great.’ (C)

(3.5.130) *Eiropietīm dažkārt jāpabrīnās, cik ļoti civilizējusies Amerikas suni.*

‘Europeans sometimes are amazed how civilized American dogs are.’
(A. Eglītis)

(3.5.131) *Visi mēs redzēsim, **kā** tas notiek tālāk.*

‘We’ll all see how it goes next.’ (C)

Support verbs can be not only in a finite form but also appear in a non-finite form, e.g., a participle:

(3.5.132) *Nemaldiniet tautu, **teikdams**, **ka** nevarat nosaukt savu cenu.*

‘Do not mislead the people by saying that you cannot name your price.’ (C)

(3.5.133) *Viņa skatījās uz to pusi, **gaidot**, **kad** bālā parādība atkārtosies.*

‘She looked to that side, waiting for the pale apparition to reappear.’

(L. Stumbre)

Usually, the complement clause is placed immediately after its subordinating word but there may be other words between the subclause and the support word:

(3.5.134) ***Pasaki**, Sem, **ko** mums tagad darīt?*

‘Tell me, Sems, what do we do now?’ (C)

The position of the complement clause is free. It is usually placed after the main clause (3.5.127–3.5.131), but it can also be in the middle of the main clause (3.5.135) or be preposed to it (3.5.136, 3.5.137):

(3.5.135) ***Par to**, **ka** Kristaps Porziņģis kļuvis par populārāko Latvijas basketbolistu, vairs nešaubās neviens.*

‘No one has any doubt [about the fact] that Kristaps Porziņģis has become the most popular Latvian basketball player.’ (jauns.lv)

(3.5.136) *Vai Rīgas zaudētāji kļūs par jaunajiem uzvarētājiem – **to** mēs vēl redzēsim.*

‘Will the losers of Rīga become the new winners – it remains to be seen.’ (C)

(3.5.137) *Kā būs turpmāk – nezinu.*

‘What will happen next – I do not know.’ (C)

A complement clause can also have an anaphoric element in the main clause, especially when the subclause is placed in the middle of the main clause (3.5.135) or in front of it (3.5.136).

Subject clauses perform the function of the subject in the main clause (Skujiņa 2007: 390). A number of different subordinators are possible: most often it is the subordinate conjunction *ka* (3.5.138), but conjunctions *vai*, *lai* (3.5.139), the pronoun *kas* (3.5.140), the adverbs *kur*, *kad*, *kā*, *cik*, etc. are also possible.

(3.5.138) *Skaidrs, **ka** par izvēli nav daudz ko prātot.*

‘It is clear that with this choice there is not much to think about.’

(A. Eglītis)

(3.5.139) *Galvenais, **lai** mums ir labi.*

‘The main thing is that we are fine.’ (C)

(3.5.140) ***Kas** bijis, pagājis.*

‘Let bygones be bygones.’ (C)

In sentences with subject clauses, the main clause is characterized by a certain formal composition and a certain semantics. Very often the predicate of the main clause is a verb of appearance *likties* ‘to seem’, *šķist* ‘to seem’, *izrādīties* ‘to prove, to turn out’, *izskatīties* ‘to appear, to resemble’, etc. in its third-person form. Such sentences require a mandatory subclause:

- (3.5.141) *Bet man likās,*
 but I.DAT seem.PST.3
ka ar to nepietiek.
 that with that.INS not suffice.PRS.3
 ‘But it seemed to me that that was not enough.’ (C)

The predicate of the main clause can have the meaning of probability or chance:

- (3.5.142) *Nereti gadās, ka vientuļi bagātnieki novēl savus miljonus sūnu hospitāliem.*
 ‘It is not uncommon for lonely rich people to leave their millions to dog hospitals.’ (A. Eglītis)
- (3.5.143) *Var būt, ka es sāku saredzēt lietas no vēsturiskās perspektīvas.*
 ‘It may be that I’m beginning to see things from a historical perspective.’
 (C)

Quite often the predicate of the main clause can have, regardless of the part of speech, evaluative meaning:

- (3.5.144) *.. žēl tikai, ka mēs visi nevaram būt arī miljonāri...*
 ‘... it’s just a pity that we can’t all be millionaires too...’ (A. Eglītis)
- (3.5.145) *Labi vien ir, ka viss sanācis, kā sanācis.*
 ‘It’s just as good that everything happened the way it did.’ (C)
- (3.5.146) *Nav nekāds brīnums, ka viņš vēl ir tik jauns un jau tik slavens.*
 ‘It’s no wonder that he is still so young and already so famous.’ (C)

A subject clause can be added if the verbal predicate is a transitive verb in the passive:

- (3.5.147) *Tādējādi uzreiz redzams, vai palīks vieta vēl kādam skapītim.*
 ‘Thus, it can be seen right away if there is room for another locker.’ (C)
- (3.5.148) *Sākumā bija domāts, ka darbosies tikai puikas.*
 ‘Initially, it was thought that only the boys would participate.’ (C)

The placement of the subject clause is free, it can be placed in front of the main clause (3.5.140), after it (3.5.141–3.5.143), or in the middle of it (3.5.149):

- (3.5.149) *Tas, kam bija jānotiek, jau bija noticis.*
 ‘What had to happen had already happened.’ (C)

Predicate clauses are only possible in Latvian when there is a copula in the main clause and when the subclause functions as part of the nominal predicate (Skujiņa 2007: 172). The predicate clause typically has an anaphoric element – the pronouns *tas* ‘that’, *tāds* ‘such’ – as part of the nominal predicate in the main clause:

(3.5.150) *Sajūta* *ir* *tāda,*
 feeling.NOM.F be.COP.PRS.3 **such.NOM.F**
ka vai nu uzceļam šo namiņu tagad vai nekad.
 ‘My feeling is that either we build this house now or we never do it.’ (C)

(3.5.151) *Tikai* *nelaime* [*ir*] *tā,*
 PTCL misfortune.NOM.F [be] **that.NOM.F**
ka pie labā pierod daudz ātrāk un ātrāk aizmirst.
 ‘The problem just is that we get used to good things sooner and forget about them sooner.’ (C)

If there is no anaphoric element, the subject in the main clause has a particular form and semantics – typically, it is a noun that refers to cognitive activity or communication: *noteikums* ‘condition’, *pārmets* ‘reproach’, *arguments* ‘argument’, *atbilde* ‘answer’, *secinājums* ‘conclusion’, *informācija* ‘information’, *uzskats* ‘opinion’, *viedoklis* ‘stance, position’, *ziņa* ‘message’, *vēstījums* ‘message’, *fakts* ‘fact’, and so forth:

(3.5.152) **Noteikums** *bija,*
condition.NOM.M be.COP.PST.3
ka mašīna tiks reģistrēta uz mammas vārda.
 ‘The agreement was that the car will be registered in mother’s name.’ (C)

(3.5.153) **Atbilde** *bija,*
answer.NOM.F be.COP.PST.3
ka par tik zemu cenu labu zupu uzvārīt nevar.
 ‘The answer was that it is impossible to make a good soup at such a low cost.’ (C)

(3.5.154) *Mednieku* **viedoklis** *ir,*
 hunter.GEN.PL **opinion.NOM.M** be.COP.PRS.3
ka viņi skatīsies pēc reālās situācijas.
 ‘The hunters’ opinion is that they will decide according to the actual situation.’ (C)

The copula is usually present in the main clause (3.5.152–3.5.154) but in rare cases it can be absent:

(3.5.155) *Viena* *lieta,*
 one.NOM.F thing.NOM.F
ka esam saraduši kā cimdus ar roku.
 ‘The thing is, we have become as used to each other as a hand and glove.’
 (Ē. Kūlis)

The predicate clause always follows the main clause.

It should be noted that in nominal simple sentences, where both the subject and predicate of the sentence contain nouns, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the syntactic functions of these two categories, so the predicate clause actually borders on the subject clause:

(3.5.156) a. *Problēma ir, ka maz gūstam vārtus.*

‘The problem is that we score too few goals.’ (C)

If an anaphoric element were added to the main clause, two different structures could be obtained:

b. *Problēma ir **tāda**, ka maz gūstam vārtus.*

‘The problem is that we score too few goals.’ (predicate clause)

c. ***Tas**, ka maz gūstam vārtus, ir problēma.*

‘The small number of goals we score is a problem.’ (subject clause)

Adverbial clauses express various adverbial meanings – those of time, place, manner, measure, cause, purpose, etc. These subclauses can be subordinated to one word or to the whole main clause. It should be emphasized that it is not always easy to determine whether a subclause is bound to a single support word or the whole main clause, just as, in a simple sentence, it is sometimes hard to distinguish between arguments and adjuncts (see 3.2.10).

The following criteria can be used to determine the specificity of the syntactic relationship. First of all, the valency of the support word – if the subclause of a certain semantics follows from the valency of the verb, then it is subordinated to one word. Second of all, position in the sentence – if the adverbial clause is placed immediately after the support word, it is subordinated to that word. Third of all, if there is a semantic or contextual subordinator – given that, in most cases, adverbial clauses are introduced by semantic subordinators, they are likely to relate to the whole subclause.

Adverbial clauses of time or temporal clauses express the time of the process named in the main clause (Skujīņa 2007: 202) and are introduced by the semantic conjunctions *kamēr, līdz, līdzko, kolīdz, līdz kamēr, tiklīdz, tiklīdz kā, tikko, tikko kā, iekams, kopš, pirms* and the adverb of time *kad*, as well as the word group *pēc tam kad*.

(3.5.157) *Mana mamma ir laba, kad es viņu nekaitinu.*

‘My mom is good when I don’t get her angry.’ (C)

(3.5.158) *Paiet labs laiks, iekams tu sadūšojies kustēt.*

‘It takes quite some time before you pluck up courage to start moving.’ (C)

(3.5.159) *Bet, līdzko iekoptajā krastā sākuši pacelties pirmie bagātnieku savrupnami, pamatus rokot, atrasta nafta!*

‘But, as soon as the first villas of the rich appeared along the developed coast, they struck oil while digging the foundations!’ (A. Eglītis)

Similarly to the adverbials of time, i.e., adjuncts (see 3.2.10), the adverbial clause of time mostly relates to the whole subclause. Such subclauses, the support word of which obligatorily or optionally requires a description of time, could be considered subordinated to one word:

- (3.5.160) *Reizēm viņa .. **nogulēja, līdz no skolas pārradās brālis un māsa.***
 ‘Sometimes she slept in until her siblings came back from school.’ (C)
- (3.5.161) *Tagad mums ir **jāpaspēj, kamēr vēl ir mazs ūdens, ar smago mašīnu pārvest granti pāri.***
 ‘We have to manage, while the water is still low, to transport the gravel across with the lorry.’ (C)

The need to describe time can result from the semantics of the complex predicate in general:

- (3.5.162) ***Vajag paspēt iekārtoties darbā, kamēr ir tāda iespēja, paspēt pastrādāt, kamēr nav izdzinuši.***
 ‘You need to manage to find a job, while that’s a possibility, manage to work a bit, before they throw you out.’ (C)

However, in most cases, time describes the whole event, not just a specific verb, so adverbial clauses of time can typically be considered to be bound to the entire main clause:

- (3.5.162) ***Kad telpas izkūpināja, kadiķi sāka smaržot pēc cilvēka klātbūtnes.***
 ‘When the rooms were fumigated, the junipers began smelling of human presence.’ (Ē. Hānbergs)

Adverbial clauses of time can have various anaphoric elements in the main clause – deictic adverbs mainly with a temporal meaning (3.5.163–3.5.165), less often – with a meaning of manner (3.5.166):

- (3.5.163) *Ari **tad, kad acīs spīdēja prieks, smaidis palika skumjš.***
 ‘Even [then] when (their) eyes shone with joy, (their) smile remained sad.’ (C)
- (3.5.164) ***Tagad, kopš daudzus gadus esmu pensijā, man pat avīzes vairs nav nepieciešamas.***
 ‘Now that I’ve been retired for many years, I don’t even need newspapers anymore.’ (C)
- (3.5.165) *.. es bravūrīgi saucu un nerimu **tikmēr, līdz kamēr man nebija piebiedrojis viss mūsu šķibais kāsis.***
 ‘I shouted with bravado and didn’t stop [so long] until our whole weird bunch had joined in.’ (P. Bankovskis)
- (3.5.166) ***Tiklīdz es nolieku ēdamos uz galda, tā Baiba mani raušus aizrauj uz vannas istabu.***
 ‘As soon as I put food on the table [so] Baiba literally dragged me to the bathroom.’ (V. Jākobsons)

Adverbial clauses of time can be placed in all three positions – after the main clause (3.5.157, 3.5.158), in front of it (3.5.162), and in the middle of it (3.5.163, 3.5.164).

Adverbial clauses of place indicate the place of the event mentioned in the main clause (Skujiņa 2007: 451) and are introduced by the adverbs of place *kur*, *kurp*. Subclauses subordinated to one word are related to a verb of direction (3.5.167, 3.5.168) or location (3.5.169, 3.5.170), the valency of which requires the description of the place: *doties* ‘to go’, *ceļot* ‘to travel’, *iet* ‘to go’, *stāvēt* ‘to stand’, *atrasties* ‘to be located’, etc.

(3.5.167) *Viņš iet, **kur** viņam liek.*

‘He goes where he is told to go.’ (C)

(3.5.168) *[Zemes] gars šos cilvēkus stingri netur un laiž vaļā **doties**, **kurp** tie vēlas.*

‘The spirit [of the Earth] doesn’t hold these people back and lets them go wherever they wish.’ (C)

(3.5.169) *.. **saiņi** ar dārglietām **atrodas**, **kur** paslēpti.*

‘The packages with the valuables are located where they were hidden.’ (C)

(3.5.170) *Viņi palika **stāvam**, **kur** stāvējuši.*

‘They remained standing where they were.’ (C)

Subclauses subordinated to a noun with the semantics of place are similar to attributive clauses:

(3.5.171) *Bet ko lai saka nabaga cilvēki **pilsētā**, **kur** mašīnu vairāk nekā saprašanas?*

‘But what should those poor people in the city say where there are more cars than the mind can grasp?’ (Ē. Kūlis)

(3.5.172) *Cik savādāk bija vecajā, atpalikušajā **Eiropā**, **kur** visi staigājām kājām.*

‘How very different it all was in old, backward Europe where everybody was still going around on foot.’ (A. Eglītis)

In most cases, the adverbial clause of place is related to the whole sentence:

(3.5.173) ***Kur** vien skaties – visi apklusuši.*

‘Wherever you look, everybody has fallen silent.’ (C)

The adverbial clause of place can have anaphoric elements in the main clause – deictic adverbs of place *tur* ‘there’, *turp* ‘(to) there’, *visur* ‘everywhere’, *citur* ‘elsewhere’, *šeit* ‘here’, etc.:

(3.5.174) *Mums jādodas **turp**, **kur** mūs gaida vismazāk.*

‘We must go [there] where we are least expected.’ (C)

(3.5.175) *Kopumā **visur**, **kur** esam bijuši, latviešus uzņem kā savējos.*

‘In general, wherever we have been, Latvians are always welcomed as locals.’ (C)

The prepositional phrases *no kurienes* ‘from where’, *uz kurieni* ‘(to) where’ can introduce an adverbial clause of place only if the main clause contains an anaphoric element:

(3.5.176) *Un jums jāatgriežas tur, **no kurienes** esat nākuši, – pīšļos.*

‘And you must return [there] where you came from – to dust.’ (C)

The adverbial clause of place can follow the main clause (3.5.167–3.5.170), be in front of it (3.5.173), or in the middle of it (3.5.175).

Adverbial clauses of manner refer to the manner of the process described by the main clause (Skujiņa 2007: 439) and are usually introduced by the adverb of manner *kā*:

(3.5.177) *Var regulēt [sēdekļus], **kā** vien ienāk prātā.*

‘You can adjust [the seats] however you like.’ (C)

An adverbial clause of manner in most cases has an anaphoric element *tā* in the main clause, but it can be introduced also by other subordinators:

(3.5.178) *Nevar jau aiziet uz televīziju intervēties, mierīgi atsēsties un pļāpāt tā, **ka** ne silts, ne auksts.*

‘One cannot go to the TV (station) for an interview, sit there relaxed and chat as if nothing has happened.’ (C)

An adverbial clause of manner introduced by the conjunction *lai* will have a purpose meaning:

(3.5.179) *Apsēdos tā, **lai** varētu redzēt viesnīcas ieeju.*

‘I sat down so that I could see the hotel entrance.’ (C)

An adverbial clause of manner introduced by the conjunction *it kā* will have a comparative meaning:

(3.5.180) *Tu runā tā, **it kā** tas nebūtu iespējams.*

‘You are speaking [so] as if it were not possible.’ (C)

The adverbial clause of manner is usually placed after the main clause (3.5.177–3.5.180), but it can also be in front of it (3.5.181), or in the middle of it (3.5.182):

(3.5.181) ***Kā** mežā sauc, tā atskan!*

‘What goes around, comes around.’ (lit: ‘As you shout into the woods, so it echoes.’) (www.la.lv)

(3.5.182) *Bet tā, **kā** Agra gribēja, šo dziesmu varēja nodziedāt tikai viņš.*

‘Only he was able to sing the song the way Agra liked.’ (C)

The adverbial clauses of manner are semantically close to the adverbial clauses of degree.

Adverbial clauses of degree indicate the measure of process or action expressed in the main clause (Skujiņa 2007: 229) and are usually introduced by the adverb of measure *cik*:

(3.5.183) ***Cik** vien varam, darām paši.*

‘As much as we can, we do ourselves.’ (C)

(3.5.184) *Kādēļ nepelni **tik**, cik gribētu?*

‘Why don’t you earn as much as you would like?’ (C)

An adverbial clause of degree usually also has anaphoric elements in the main clause – deictic adverbs with the meaning of degree *tik* ‘so’, *tā* ‘to such an extent’, in which case the subclause can also be introduced by other subordinators:

(3.5.185) *Un neviens nekad mūžā nav sevi ienīdis **tik** ļoti, kā es sevi tagad.*

‘Nobody has ever hated himself as much as I do now.’ (P. Bankovskis)

(3.5.186) *Lai viņi stāv **tik** ilgi, kamēr brūni un sausi paliek.*

‘Let them remain here [so long] until they turn brown and dry.’ (C)

(3.5.187) *Losandželosietis ir tā saradis ar spēkratiem, ka bez tiem jūtas kā bez kājām.*

‘An Angeleno is so used to a car that without one he feels as if he’d lost his legs.’ (A. Eglītis)

The adverbial clause of degree typically follows the main clause (3.5.184–3.5.187), but it can also be in front of it (3.5.183).

Adverbial clauses of purpose express the purpose of the process or action expressed in the main clause and are introduced by the semantic conjunction of purpose *lai* (Skujņa 2007: 256):

(3.5.188) *Varbūt Askolds tā runāja, lai sevi mierinātu.*

‘Maybe Askolds spoke like this to comfort himself.’ (Ē. Kūlis)

(3.5.189) *Tiek jau nu gan darīts viss, lai mazbērnus iemidzinātu.*

‘Everything possible is being done to lull the grandchildren to sleep.’ (A. Eglītis)

An adverbial clause of purpose can have an anaphoric element in the main clause – the adverbs *tāpēc*, *tādēļ*:

(3.5.190) *Mums nav jātaisa projekti **tāpēc**,*

lai *izdzīvotu.*

CONJ survive.COND

‘We do not need to write project applications to survive.’ (C)

In the adverbial clause of purpose, the predicate is usually in the conditional mood (3.5.188–3.5.190) but it can also be in the indicative (3.5.191).

(3.5.191) *Reiz, dusmu brīdī, virtuvē paņēmu olas un laidu tās pret sienu,*

lai *šķīst.*

CONJ fall_to_pieces.PRS.3

‘Once in a fit of anger I took eggs and smashed them against the kitchen wall.’ (V. Freimane)

The adverbial clause of purpose typically follows the main clause (3.5.188–3.5.191), but it can also be in front of it (3.5.192).

- (3.5.192) *Lai dzīvotu, nepieciešams mājoklis un darbs.*
'In order to live, one needs shelter and a job.' (A. Eglītis)

Adverbial clauses of cause relate to the cause of the content expressed in the main clause and are introduced by the complex conjunctions *tāpēc ka*, *tādēļ ka*, *tā kā* (Skujiņa 2007: 69):

- (3.5.193) *Bet es ar tevi runāšu, tāpēc ka man nav vienalga.*
'But I will talk to you, because I care.' (C)

- (3.5.194) *Tā kā tas viss man ir svešs, es lieliski atpūtos.*
'Since all of this is unknown to me, I relaxed really well.' (C)

The adverbs *tāpēc*, *tādēļ* can perform the function of an anaphoric element in the main clause, in this case the subclause is introduced by the conjunction *ka*:

- (3.5.195) *Brīvs cilvēks ir brīvs tāpēc, ka ir tāds.*
'A free person is free because he is so.' (V. Freimane)

A subclause introduced by *tā kā* can have an anaphoric element in the main clause, the adverb *tad* 'then':

- (3.5.196) *Tā kā manas ciešanas bija neizmērojamas, tad neatlika nekas cits kā kļūt par ģēniju.*
'As my suffering was so immense, I had no choice but to become a genius.' (C)

An adverbial clause of cause introduced by *tāpēc ka*, *tādēļ ka* always follows the main clause (3.5.193), but a subclause introduced by *tā kā* (3.5.194) always precedes the main clause.

Adverbial clauses of reason are introduced by the conjunction *jo* (Skujiņa 2007: 277). They are semantically very close to the adverbial clauses of cause, and in many cases *jo* is synonymous to *tāpēc ka*, *tādēļ ka*:

- (3.5.197) *Nolēmām pusdienas neēst, jo vakarā bijām ielūgti uz restorānu.*
'We decided to skip lunch, because in the evening we were invited to a restaurant.' (C)

However, the reason is not always the cause of a phenomenon but rather an explanation of the content of the main clause:

- (3.5.198) *Mīļie vienmēr ir ap mums, jo ģimene ir viena no galvenajām vērtībām.*
'We are always surrounded by loved ones, because family is one of the most important values.' (C)

- (3.5.199) *Rīts, kā parasti, izskatās vienreizējs, jo saule lec no okeāna.*
'As usual, the morning looks amazing, because the sun rises from the ocean.' (C)

An adverbial clause of reason always follows the main clause.

Adverbial clauses of result or consequence express the consequences of the content expressed in the main clause and are introduced by the complex conjunction *tā ka* (Skujiņa 2007: 345):

- (3.5.200) *Mūs krastā nelaida, tā ka no Islandes es redzēju tikai kalnus tālumā.*
 ‘We were not allowed ashore, therefore, all I saw of Iceland were distant hills.’ (C)

An adverbial clause of result always follows the main clause.

Adverbial clauses of condition or **conditional clauses** express the conditions under which something may or may not occur and are introduced by the conjunction *ja* (Skujiņa 2007: 259–260):

- (3.5.201) *Ja padomā, cilvēka mūžs tāds sezonas laiks vien ir – paskrien tik ātri kā vasara.*
 ‘If you think about it, a human life is like a season, [it] rushes past as fast as summer.’ (Ē. Kūlis)
- (3.5.202) *Neviens filmu aktieris Savienotajās valstīs nespēj pastāvēt, ja neprot boksēt un slaidi zvelt partnerim pa žokli.*
 ‘No film actor can survive in the States if he can’t box and skilfully hit his partner’s jaw.’ (A. Eglītis)

Conditional clauses can have an anaphoric element, the adverb of time *tad* ‘then’:

- (3.5.203) *Bet, ja ar viņiem kas gadās, tad lielu liels troksnis.*
 ‘But if something happens to them, [then] the fuss is incredible.’ (Ē. Kūlis)
- (3.5.204) *Ja tās lietas ir tādas, tad esmu pats pirmais.*
 ‘If things are like that, then I am the first to go.’ (V. Jākobsons)

Both the subclause and the main clause can have an *irrealis* modal meaning if the conditional is used:

- (3.5.205) *Tomēr, ja varētu pagriezt atpakaļ laika
 still if be_able.COND turn.INF back time.GEN.M
 ratu, varbūt mums būtu vērts
 wheel.ACC.M perhaps we.DAT be.COP.COND worth
 satikties.
 meet.INF*
 ‘Still, if it were possible to turn back the wheel of time perhaps it would be worth it for us to meet.’ (C)

The adverbial clauses of condition can be placed freely – after the main clause (3.5.202), in front of it (3.5.204), or, less often, in the middle of it (3.5.206).

- (3.5.206) *Šis kuteris, ja vien nodrošinātu attiecīgu gaisu un pārtikas daudzumu, mierīgi varēja doties ceļojumā uz Mēnesi.*
 ‘If there was enough air and food on this motorboat, we could easily take a trip to the Moon.’ (C)

Adverbial clauses of concession or **consecutive clauses** indicate something that may affect the process or the action of the main clause but does not. Such subclauses are introduced by complex conjunctions *kaut gan*, *kaut arī*, *lai gan*, *lai arī*, *jebšu* (Skujiņa 2007: 299):

(3.5.207) *Soļi bija klusi, **lai gan** rudens lapas varētu sacelt iespaidīgāku troksni.*
 ‘The steps were quiet, although the autumn leaves could have made them quite a bit louder.’ (L. Stumbre)

(3.5.208) *Kāds īpatnējs, lēts un pretīgs glumums piemīt šīm sīkumtīrgus mantām, **kaut gan** tās nākušas tieši no drēbnieka.*
 ‘These flea market things have a weird, cheap, sticky feel to them, even though they have come straight from the tailor’s.’ (A. Eglītis)

The predicate of consecutive clauses most often is in the conditional mood (3.5.207, 3.5.209, 3.5.210), but the indicative is possible, too (3.5.208). If the predicate is in the subjunctive mood, the subclause can also be introduced by the conjunction *lai*:

(3.5.209) *Lai kurp mēs dotos,*
 CONJ where we.NOM go.COND
nebija iespējams izvairīties no cigarešu dūmiem.
 ‘Wherever we went, it was impossible to avoid the cigarette smoke.’ (C)

(3.5.210) *Lai ko es teiktu,*
 CONJ what.ACC I.NOM say.COND
vārdi būs par sīkiem.
 ‘Whatever I say, the words will be too small.’ (C)

Consecutive clauses can have an anaphoric element in the main clause, for instance, the particle *tomēr*:

(3.5.211) ***Kaut gan** matos sarma, tomēr acīs – jaunības dzirksts...*
 ‘Although there is silver in the hair, the eyes still have a youthful sparkle.’ (www.ezerzeme.lv)

A consecutive clause can be placed behind the main clause (3.5.207, 3.5.208) or in front of it (3.5.209–3.5.211). Less frequently, a consecutive clause, usually reduced, can be found in the middle of the main clause (3.5.212).

(3.5.212) *Bez tam, jēdzieni stereotips un aizspriedums, **lai gan** līdzās esoši, tomēr ir divi dažādi lielumi.*
 ‘Besides, notions such as stereotype and prejudice, although close, are still two different notions.’ (C)

Adverbial clauses of comparison or **comparative clauses** compare the process or action expressed in the main clause with some other process or action, and are introduced by the conjunctions *tāpat kā*, *it kā*, *itin kā* (Skujiņa 2007: 335–336):

(3.5.213) *Tomēr katrai sievietītei vajag bišķīt mīlumu, **tāpat kā** istabas puķei ūdeni.*
 ‘Still, just like a house plant needs some water, every woman needs a bit of affection.’ (Ē. Kūlis)

(3.5.214) *Vecāmāte, **it kā nekas nebūtu bijis**, salika rokas apaļiski klēpī un smaidīja.*
 ‘As if nothing had happened, grandmother positioned her hands on her lap in a circle and smiled.’ (C)

(3.5.215) *Sals palīdz pašam sevi apmānīt, **itin kā varētu staigāt pa ūdens virsmu**.*
 ‘Frost helps one fool oneself [into thinking], it is possible to walk on water.’ (C)

Adverbial clauses of comparison usually follow the main clause (3.5.213, 3.5.215), less often they are placed in the middle of it (3.5.214), only subclauses introduced by *tāpat kā* can be placed in front of the main clause (3.5.216).

(3.5.216) ***Tāpat kā pilsētnieks pāržina savu pilsētu ..**, tāpat Jāzepts pāržina mežu.*
 ‘Just like a city dweller knows one’s city, Jāzepts knows the forest.’ (C)

A special sub-type of the comparative clause is a clause subordinated to the comparative (adjective (3.5.217) or adverb (3.5.218)) and introduced by the conjunction *nekā*:

(3.5.217) *Mans noziegums ir lielāks,*
 my.NOM.M crime.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 large.CMP.NOM.M
nekā to varētu piedot.
than that.ACC be_able.COND forgive.INF
 ‘My crime is greater than can be forgiven.’ (C)

(3.5.218) *Tālab agrāk, nekā būtu vajadzējis,*
 therefore early.CMP than be.AUX.COND need.PTCP.NOM.M
Sizifs sāka gausties par spēka izsīkumu.
 ‘Therefore, earlier than he should have, Sisyphus started complaining of exhaustion.’ (A. Heniņš)

These clauses always follow the word form to which they are subordinated.

Comparative correlative clauses indicate a proportional increase of two values and a correlation between them. A subclause can have the meaning of a condition or causativity. A comparative correlative clause is introduced by the first part of the reduplicative conjunction *jo – jo*, the second part introduces the main clause. Both parts of the complex sentence have the forms of an adverb or adjective in the comparative:

(3.5.219) ***Jo ilgāk ļaudis dzīvo šinī***
CONJ long.CMP people.NOM.PL.M live.PRS.3 this.LOC.F
pilsētā, jo vairāk brīnās
 city.LOC.F CONJ much.CMP wonder.PRS.3
par tās neizsmeļamo dažādību.
 ‘The longer people live in this city, the more they are amazed by its endless diversity.’ (A. Eglītis)

Often there are more than two parts in a complex sentence, which are introduced by the reduplicative conjunction *jo* – *jo*. In this case, the number of subclauses and the number of main clauses can only be determined by the content. In example (3.5.220), there is one subclause and two main clauses, whereas in (3.5.221) – two subclauses and one main clause:

(3.5.220) ***Jo** vairāk par to domāju, **jo** lielāka ziņkāre pārņēma, **jo** nevaldāmāk rosījās fantāzija...*

‘The more I thought of it, the more curious I grew, the wilder my imagination became.’ (C)

(3.5.221) ***Jo** vairāk lēmumu atkal un atkal tiek pieņemts, **jo** vairāk kļūdu pieļauts un no tām mācību gūts, **jo** veiksmīgākas izvēles cilvēks izdarīs.*

‘The more decisions are made again and again, the more mistakes are made and lessons learned from them, the better the choices a person will make.’ (C)

Sentences with a comparative correlative subclause are characterized by a reduction in one or both parts:

(3.5.222) ***Jo** tālāk, **jo** trakāk.*

‘The deeper into the wood you go, the more timber seems to grow’
(lit. ‘The further, the crazier.’) (C)

Comparative correlative constructions can also be realized in a simple sentence:

(3.5.223) *Un Volža šķibais deguns **jo** tuvāk tēva mājai, **jo** spītīgāks.*

‘The closer [it was] to his father’s house, the more spiteful Voldis’s crooked nose [became].’ (C)

Additive clauses are considered a special case in Latvian syntax. In terms of semantic relations, they could also be main clauses but need to be qualified as subclauses, because they are introduced by subordinators, which anaphorically include the entire content of the main clause (Skujiņa 2007: 325):

(3.5.224) *Prieks gan iznāk diezgan padārgs, **kā** to pagājušajos Jānos pārliecinājās latviešu makšķernieki.*

‘This bit of fun turns out to be pretty expensive, as Latvian anglers learned on Midsummer’s last year.’ (A. Eglītis)

(3.5.225) *Jaunais vīrs piemetina, ka nu jau viņi atgriezušies ierastajā dzīvē, atsākuši filmēties, **kas** bijis ļoti grūti pēc medusmēneša.*

‘The newlywed husband adds that they have gotten back to their routine and resumed shooting the film, which had been very difficult after the honeymoon.’ (C)

Additive clauses always follow the main clause.

The modality of subclauses

Subclauses can have either a *realis* or *irrealis* modal meaning. Most often, the modality of a subclause depends on the same factors that determine the modality in a simple sentence. However, there are cases when the use of the *irrealis* mood depends on the structural features of a complex sentence.

For instance, the use of the **conditional** with subclauses of various semantic types is triggered by negation in the main clause:

- (3.5.226) *Nav neviēna, kas uzrakstītu spēcīgu dziesmu.*
not_be.PRS.3 nobody.GEN.M who.NOM write.COND powerful.ACC.F song.ACC.F
'There is nobody (around) who could compose a powerful song.' (C)

- (3.5.227) *Pasaulē nav tāda likuma, kas kaut ko neaizliegta.*
'There is no law in the world that would not forbid something.' (C)

- (3.5.228) .. pašlaik neredz nevienu citu kandidātu, kurš šim amatam būtu vairāk piemērots.
'At the moment I see nobody who would suit this post better.' (C)

The use of the conditional is common in subclauses of various semantic types introduced by the conjunction *lai*:

- (3.5.229) *Lai kas tas nebūtu, labāk neienesiet to savā mājā.* (C)
CONJ what.NOM that.NOM.M not_be.COP.COND
'Whatever it is, better not to bring it home.' (C)
- (3.5.230) *Pats svarīgākais ir, lai bērni varētu atgriezties skolās un turpināt mācības.*
'The most important thing is that children should be able to return to school and resume their education.' (C)

In complement clauses involving a *verbum dicendi* in the main clause and which are introduced by the conjunction *lai*, a special **oblique** is possible – the so-called reported imperative (see also Section 2.5.4):

- (3.5.231) [Veikalnieks] Piesacīja,
[shopkeeper.NOM] declare.PST.3
lai nu nākot mamma vai paps,
CONJ now come.OBL.PRS mom.NOM.F or dad.NOM.M
Billei viņš vairs nedošot.
'[The shopkeeper] declared that next time mom or dad should come, he would no longer be serving Bille.' (C)

In Latvian, subclauses – more often than simple sentences – have the **infinitive** as their predicate. Special mention should be made of **infinitival relative clauses** which express finality or suitability for something, so that they have an *irrealis* modal meaning. Such subclauses can be subordinated to a noun:

(3.5.232) *Vispirms vajadzēja aizsūtīt Viktoram*
 first need.PST.3 send.INF Viktors.DAT.M
ģimētnes, ko ielīmēt kādā
photo.ACC.PL.F what.ACC **attach.INF** some.LOC.F
ārzemju pasē.
 foreign_country.GEN.PL.F passport.LOC.F
 ‘First, Viktors needed to be sent photos that he could attach to a foreign passport.’ (A. Henrišs)

The word which binds the subclause refers to circumstances, a thing, means, and so on which are a necessary condition for the condition mentioned in the subclause to arise or for the the action mentioned in the subclause to take place (Holvoet 2000, 100).

Infinitival relative clauses can be subordinated to a pronoun, most often if the main clause contains a negation:

(3.5.233) *Dārzā nav nekā,*
 garden.LOC.M not_be.PRS.3 **nothing.GEN**
ko redzēt.
 what.ACC **see.INF**
 ‘There is nothing to see in the garden.’ (C)

It is possible that there is no word in the main clause to which the subclause is subordinated. Such sentences are somewhere in between simple and complex sentences. If they are interpreted as complex sentences, then the main clause has an incomplete grammatical center and the function of the subject of the sentence is performed by the whole subclause:

(3.5.234) *Ir, par ko padomāt.*
 be.PRS.3 PREP what.ACC **think.INF**
 ‘There is something to think about.’ (C)

If such sentences are interpreted as simple sentences, they are considered to be lexicalized idiomatic structures expressing either necessity (3.5.235) or lack of necessity (3.5.236) (see also Holvoet 2000, 100).

(3.5.235) *Cik daudz man vēl*
 how much I.DAT still
bija ko mācīties.
 be.PST.3 what.ACC learn.INF
 ‘How much there was still for me to learn.’ (C)

(3.5.236) *Skaidrs, ka par izvēli*
 clear.NOM.M that PREP choice.ACC.F
nav daudz ko prātot.
 not_be.PRS.3 much what.ACC ponder.INF
 ‘No doubt, there is no need to mull over the choice.’ (A. Eglītis)

Sentences can also take on a meaning, which describes something that is worth or not worth doing:

- (3.5.237) *Tur bija ko padomāt.*
 there be.PST.3 what.ACC think.INF
 ‘There were things to think about.’ (C)

- (3.5.238) *Bet uz to mūsu valstī laikam nav ko cerēt.*
 ‘Apparently, it is not worth hoping for that in our country.’ (C)

There are other types of infinitival subclauses in Latvian, but they do not differ formally or semantically from simple sentences with an infinitival predicate:

- (3.5.239) *Tas ir lēts veids, kā paplašināt redzesloku.*
 that.NOM.M be.COP.PRS.3 cheap.NOM.M way.NOM.M
 how broaden.INF horizon.ACC.M
 ‘That is a cheap way for broadening one’s horizons.’ (C)

- (3.5.240) *Diemžēl iemesls nav tāds, par kuru priecāties.*
 ‘Unfortunately, the reason is nothing to be happy about.’ (C)

- (3.5.241) .. *skolnieku vislabāk var iedrošināt, sakot, ko viņam darīt, nevis ko nedarīt.*
 ‘...a student is best encouraged by saying what he should do rather than what he shouldn’t.’ (C)

Still, it should be noted, that an infinitival predicate is found more often in a subclause than in a main clause or simple sentence.

Final thoughts

The description of Latvian grammar given in this book is one possible way to view a language's grammatical system. The process of writing this grammar gave the authors valuable experience and if this project were to be undertaken now, it is possible that the interpretation of certain language phenomena or the arrangement of certain systems would be different. While fully aware that the contents of this book could be further clarified or expanded, as well as contradicted, the authors feel content in the knowledge that another step has been taken in understanding the systems of the Latvian language. Each such step is the foundation for future studies while also a testament to the boundless nature of research into language, for just as an old Latvian legend states that Rīga can be built but never finished, the same is true for this work.

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Latviešu valodas gramatika

Kopsavilkums

“Latvian grammar”, resp., “Latviešu valodas gramatikas” mērķis ir ziņas par latviešu valodu, tās gramatisko sistēmu padarīt pieejamas plašākai auditorijai ne tikai Latvijā, bet arī ārpus tās. Valoda, kā zināms, ir viena no svarīgākajām kultūras, vēstures un arī ikdienas dzīves sastāvdaļām – valodu lieto visi, tādēļ ļoti daudzus tā arī nopietni interesē. Tas ir svarīgi gan cilvēkiem, kam latviešu valoda ir dzimtā vai kas prot latviešu valodu, gan arī tiem, kas interesējas par Latvijas kultūru, vēsturi un, protams, latviešu valodu.

Zinātniskas angļu valodā rakstītas latviešu gramatikas aktualitāti nosaka arī plašā latviešu diaspora ārzemēs, īpaši angļiski runājošās valstīs, kur bērni un jaunieši izglītību apgūst savas mītnes zemes valodā, bet ne vairs latviešu valodā. Tādēļ dažāda informācija par Latviju, latviešu valodu, literatūru un kultūru visbiežāk tiek meklēta angļu vai kādā citā mītnes zemes valodā.

Latviešu gramatika angļu valodā būs noderīga arī tiem, kas apgūst latviešu valodu kā svešvalodu un, kad iepazīts valodas minimums, vēlas uzzināt vairāk par valodas gramatisko sistēmu un tās īpatnībām, lai būtu iespējams valodu lietot arvien prasmīgāk un arī pareizāk. Tāpat “Latviešu valodas gramatika” būs labs izziņas un materiālu avots tiem, kas māca latviešu valodu – gan kā dzimto vai mantoto, gan kā svešvalodu.

Nozīmīgs ir arī fakts, ka ārzemju valodnieku vidū vērojams liels pieprasījums pēc sistēmiskiem un uzticamiem dzimtās valodas runātāju sagatavotiem latviešu valodas datiem, jo latviešu valodā ir ārkārtīgi interesants ļoti senisku un relatīvi jaunu valodas attīstības faktu savijums, kas interesē ārzemju pētniekus un ir vitāli svarīgs valodu tipoloģiskā, kognitīvā, pragmatiskā, funkcionālā un kontrastīvā analizē. Te var pieminēt, piem., vajadzības izteiksmi un izteiksmju sistēmu vispār, verba veida nozīmju izteikšanu, dažādas konstrukcijas ar datīvu, ģenitīvu un nominatīvu, skaņu mijas vārddarināšanā un fomveidošanā.

Latviešu valoda pieder pie indoeiropiešu valodu saimes baltu valodu grupas; šai grupā ietilpst arī lietuviešu valoda un jau mirusī senprūšu valoda. Rudzīte (1993: 4) norāda: “Tagadējā latviešu valoda .. ir radusies, saplūstot kopā valodām, kādās runājušas no vēstures avotiem zināmās baltu ciltis – latgaļi jeb latvieši, sēļi, zemgaļi, kā

arī kurši, kam sava valoda bijusi vēl 16. gadsimtā.” Līdzīgi kā lietuviešu valoda, arī latviešu valoda saglabājusi dažādas seniskas, uz indoeiropiešu vai baltu pirmvalodas laiku atvedināmas leksiskas, fonētiskas un gramatiskas parādības. No valodas tipoloģijas viedokļa latviešu valoda pārstāv klasisku indoeiropiešu valodu (baltu valodu) sistēmu ar daudzveidīgu gramatisko formu veidošanu un plašu vārdu darināšanu. Taču latviešu valodā atrodamas arī iezīmes, kas līdzinās Baltijas jūras somu valodu, piem., libiešu vai igauņu valodas, parādībām. Tas galvenokārt skaidrojams ar seniem valodu kontaktiem un Baltijas jūras areāla valodu līdzīgām pazīmēm.

Latviešu valoda ir Latvijas Republikas valsts valoda. 2004. gadā, Latvijai iestājoties Eiropas Savienībā, latviešu valoda ir ieguvusi Eiropas Savienības oficiālās valodas statusu. Latviešu valodas kā dzimtās valodas runātāju skaits ir apmēram 1,5 miljoni. No tiem 1,38 miljoni dzīvo Latvijā, pārējie – Amerikas Savienotajās Valstīs, Austrālijā, Kanādā, Apvienotajā Karalistē, Vācijā, Lietuvā, Igaunijā, Zviedrijā, Krievijā, Brazīlijā u.c. Latviešu valodu kā otro valodu izmanto apmēram 500 000 citu tautību Latvijas iedzīvotāju (Latviešu valodas aģentūras dati, pieejami: <https://valoda.lv/valsts-valoda/>).

Latviešu valodā tiek šķirti trīs dialekti – vidus dialekts, libiskais dialekts un augšzemnieku dialekts (Vanags 2018: 27). Vidus dialekts tiek runāts Vidzemes vidienē (Vidzemes vidus izloksnes), Zemgalē (zemgaliskās izloksnes) un Kurzemes dienviddaļā (kursiskās izloksnes). Latviešu literārā valoda veidojusies galvenokārt uz Vidzemes vidus un zemgalisko izlokšņu bāzes. Libisko dialektu runā Vidzemes ziemeļrietumu daļā (Vidzemes libiskās izloksnes) un Kurzemes ziemeļdaļā (Kurzemes libiskās jeb tāmnieku izloksnes). Daļa šo novadu latviešu ir Baltijas jūras somu tautas libiešu pēcteči, kuru runātajā latviešu valodā saglabājusies arī daļa libiešu valodas iezīmju. Tas noteicis īpašu latviešu valodas paveida – libiskā dialekta – izveidošanos. Savukārt augšzemnieku dialektā runā Vidzemes austrumdaļā, Sēlijā (jeb Augšzemē) un Latgalē, tiek šķirtas sēliskās (Sēlijā un Vidzemē ap Ērgļiem, Koknesi, Pļaviņām un Madonu) un latgaliskās izloksnes (Latgalē un Vidzemes austrumdaļā) (Vanags op. cit.). Kopš 18. gs. pazīstama arī latgaliešu rakstu valoda – vēsturisks latviešu valodas paveids, kā pamats ir Dienvidlatgales izloksnes (Leikuma, Andronovs 2018: 28–30).

Rakstīti teksti (galvenokārt kristīgi reliģiska satura – gan luterāņu, gan katoļu) latviešu valodā saglabājušies no 16. gs., to pamatā ir Rīgā runātā latviešu valoda, rakstībai izmantota viduslejasvācu rakstu tradīcija; tekstu autori – vācu tautības garīdznieki (Vanags 2018: 27). Vēlākajos gadsimtos tekstu rakstība ir uzlabota, balsoties uz vidus dialekta izlokšņu valodu, pakāpeniski reliģiskiem tekstiem pievienojusies arī laicīgi teksti – vārdnīcas, gramatikas, literāri un populārzinātniski darbi, lietišķi teksti u.c. (Vanags op. cit.). Rakstu valodas attīstībā un normēšanā būtiska loma bijusi Johana Ernsta Glicka (*Johann Ernst Glück*) veiktajam Bībeles tulkojumam latviešu valodā (pirmoreiz publicēts 1685–1694, atkārtots un precizēts izdevums 1739). Kopš 19. gs. vidus strauji pieauguši latviešu tautības autoru rakstīti visdažādākā satura teksti, īpaši dinamiska bijusi visu žanru latviešu daiļliteratūras attīstība. Jāuzsver, ka šai laikā visi latviešu tautības autori neatkarīgi no tekstu satura īpašu

uzmanību pievērš latviešu valodas izkopšanas, normēšanas un ortogrāfijas jautājumiem. Šī tradīcija lielākajā daļā teksta žanru saglabājusies līdz mūsu dienām.

Šobrīd lietotā latviešu ortogrāfija – latīņu alfabēts, kurš papildināts ar diakritiskām zīmēm patskaņu garuma, palatālo līdzskaņu un šņāceņu apzīmēšanai – balstās rakstības principos, kas 1908. gadā pieņemti Rīgas Latviešu biedrības Zinību komisijas Ortogrāfijas komisijā.

Latviešu gramatiku vēsture sākas 17. gs., pirmā gramatika ir Johana Georga Rēhehūzena (*Johann Georg Rehehusen*) “Manuductio ad linguam Lettonicam facilis & certa... Riga 1644”, tai gadsimta beigās un 18. gs. seko vēl virkne gramatiku, no kurām nozīmīgākā un apjomīgākā ir Gotharda Fridriha Stendera (*Gothard Friedrich Stender*) “Lettische Grammatik” (1783). Vācu autoru rakstīto gramatiku posms noslēdzas 19. gs. 60. gados ar pirmo zinātnisko sava laika modernākajās valodniecības atziņās balstīto Augusta Bilenšteina (*August Bielenstein*) latviešu valodas gramatiku “Die Lettische Sprache nach ihren Lauten und Formen erklärend und vergleichend dargestellt” (divos sējumos, 1863–1864), kura joprojām tiek uzskatīta par vienu no nozīmīgākajiem latviešu valodas gramatiskās sistēmas aprakstiem (plašāk sk. Kļaviņa 2008). Kopš 19. gs. otrās puses un 20. gs. sākuma tiek publicētas arī dažādas latviešu autoru rakstītas gramatikas un gramatiskās sistēmas apraksti. Kā nozīmīgākie minami Andreja Stērstes “Latviešu valodas mācība”, pirmā latviešu valodā sarakstītā zinātniskā gramatika trīs daļās (1879–1880), Kārļa Milenbaha “Teikums” (1898), Jāņa Endzelīna un Kārļa Milenbaha “Latviešu gramatika” un “Latviešu valodas mācība” (abas 1907).

Savukārt citās valodās pieejamais 20.–21. gs. rakstīto latviešu valodas gramatiku materiāls ir vai nu ļoti sen gatavots (piem., Jāņa Endzelīna “Lettische Grammatik” (1922)), vai arī šādu materiālu autoriem latviešu valoda nav dzimtā un latviešu valodas fakti objektīvu iemeslu dēļ aprakstīti selektīvi (piem., Terje Matiasens (*Terje Mathiasen*) “A Short Grammar of Latvian” (1997), Nikole Naua (*Nicole Nau*) “Latvian” (1998), Jans Henriks Holsts (*Jan Henrik Holst*) “Lettische Grammatik” (2001)). Virkne latviešu gramatiku ir paredzētas kā latviešu valodas mācību līdzekļi cittautiešiem, kam nav īpašu latviešu valodas un kultūras priekšzināšanu (piem., Trevora Fennella un Henrija Gelsena (*Trevor Fennell, Henry Gelsen*) “A Grammar of Modern Latvian” (1980), Terēzes Svilānes Bartolomjū (*Terēze Svilane Bartholomew*) “Complete Latvian” (2011), Daces Prauliņas “Latvian. An Essential Grammar” (2012)). Dažādi pētījumi tapuši arī par atsevišķiem latviešu gramatikas jautājumiem baltu, teorētiskās, tipoloģiskās vai areālās valodniecības kontekstā (piem., Holvoet 2001, 2007, kā arī rakstu krājumi Nau, Ostrowski 2010; Holvoet, Nau 2014, 2015, 2016; Arkadiev, Holvoet, Wiemer 2015).

2013. gadā (atk. izd. 2015. g.) latviešu valodā ir iznākusi jaunākā akadēmiskas ievirzes “Latviešu valodas gramatika” (Rīga: LU Akadēmiskais apgāds) Dainas Nitiņas un Jura Grigorjeva redakcijā, kas pārstāv dažādu paaudžu teorētiskas ievirzes autoru zinātnisku pētījumu kopumu (gramatikas autori – Ilze Auziņa, Dace Markus, Juris Grigorjevs, Inese Indričāne, Anna Vulāne, Daina Nitiņa, Gunta Smiltnece, Ieva Brenķe, Baiba Saulīte, Linda Lauze, Andra Kalnača un Ilze Lokmane). Šī gramatika

apkopo 20. gs. beigu / 21. gs. sākuma izpētes pieredzi un kalpo par labu pamatu turpmākiem pētījumiem latviešu gramatikā un fonētikā. Morfonoloģijas un verba nodaļas (izņemot divdabju aprakstu) šai gramatikā rakstījusi Andra Kalnača, vienkārša teikuma sintakses nodaļas – Ilze Lokmane.

Nākamais uzdevums ir bijis zinātniskas latviešu valodas gramatikas izstrāde angļu valodā. Andras Kalnačas un Ilzes Lokmanes sagatavotā “Latviešu valodas gramatika” ir abu autoru īpašs pētniecisks darbs 2014–2018. gadā. Turklāt šai gramatikai ir būtiskas atšķirības no 2013. gadā izdotās “Latviešu valodas gramatikas”:

- 1) latviešu gramatikai angļu valodā ir atšķirīga mērķauditorija, kas nosaka arī atšķirīgu valodas parādību aprakstu un akcentējumu, kā arī piemēru atlasu (piemēri vairāk orientēti uz aprakstāmo faktu precīzu ilustrēšanu);
- 2) risināta arī latviešu valodas gramatiskās sistēmas apraksta tradīciju saskaņošana ar Rietumeiropas un Amerikas lingvistisko skolu atziņām un mūsdienīgu gramatikas terminoloģiju (sk. “Subject index”, kurā aiz angļu valodas termina iekavās norādīts arī atbilstošais latviešu gramatikas jēdziens).

Jā par kādu latviešu valodas gramatikas parādību lingvistiskajā literatūrā pausti atšķirīgi viedokļi, atsevišķos gadījumos uzskatu dažādība “Latviešu valodas gramatikā” gan ir pieminēta, bet grāmatas ierobežotā apjoma un – jo īpaši – izvirzītā mērķa dēļ nav detalizēti aplūkoti. Tomēr autores centušās norādīt, kurš no viedokļiem un kādu iemeslu dēļ pieņemts šajā darbā. Valodas gramatiskās sistēmas normēšanas jautājumi gramatikā nav aplūkoti, taču atsevišķos gadījumos var būt norādīts uz kādu formu vai konstrukciju sarunvalodas vai neliterāru lietojumu un šāda lietojuma iemesliem.

Abas gramatikas autores ir Latvijas Universitātes Humanitāro zinātņu fakultātes profesores, dažādu valodniecības, t. sk. gramatikas, kursu docētājas, kā arī pētījumu autores par latviešu valodas morfoloģiju, morfonoloģiju, sintaksi, morfosintaksi, stilistiku u.c. sinhroniskās un vispārīgās valodniecības tematiem. Gan Andras Kalnačas un Ilzes Lokmanes zinātniskie pētījumi, gan darbs ar studentiem auditorijā un viņu bakalaura, maģistra un doktora darbu vadīšanā ļāvis uzkrāt zināšanas par valodas gramatisko sistēmu un tās būtību, kā arī pieredzi gramatikas jautājumu interpretācijā.

“Latviešu valodas gramatika” ir deskriptīvs un sinhronisks latviešu literārās valodas apraksts (ar dažiem izņēmumiem morfonoloģijas nodaļā, aprakstot skaņu mijas latviešu valodā). Tas galvenokārt balstīts uz latviešu valodniecībā 20. gs. un 21. gs. izstrādātām gramatiskās sistēmas apraksta tradīcijām (sk., piem., Endzelīns 1922, 1951; Ahero et al. 1959, 1962; Kārklīņš 1974, 1976; Freimane 1985, 2008; Ceplītis, Rozenbergs, Valdmanis 1989; Gāters 1993; Kalme, Smiltnece 2001; Nitiņa 2001; Paegle 2003; Beitiņa 2009; Soida 2009; Nitiņa, Grigorjevs 2013).

Gramatiku veido trīs nodaļas – “Morfonoloģija”, “Morfoloģija”, “Sintakse”. Morfonoloģijas nodaļā, lai būtu iespējams izskaidrot dažādas ar vārdu darināšanu un formu veidošanu saistītas skaņu mijas, norādīti arī šo miņu vēsturiskie cēloņi. Vārdu darināšana atšķirībā no latviešu gramatikas tradīcijām (sk., piem., Ahero et al. 1959; Nitiņa, Grigorjevs 2013) neveido īpašu gramatikas nodaļu, tā atrodama morfoloģijas

nodaļā lietvārdu, adjektīvu, verbu u.c. vārdšķiru apraksta noslēgumā īpašā apakšno-
daļā. Morfoloģijas nodaļas ievaddaļā blakus morfēmikas, formveidošanas principu un
vārdšķiru iedalījuma aprakstam sniegti arī vispārīgi komentāri par latviešu valodas
vārdu darināšanas paņēmieniem, līdzekļiem un tiem. Sintaksē galvenā uzmanība
pievērsta strukturālam un daļēji arī funkcionālam vienkārša teikuma aprakstam, sa-
likts teikums skatīts galvenokārt kā vairāku predikatīvu vienību apvienojums vienā
komunikatīvā veselumā, tāpēc uzmanība pievērsta gan šo vienību jeb teikuma daļu
strukturālajām īpatnībām, gan semantiskajām attieksmēm.

Arī gramatikas piemēru materiāls kopumā ir sinhronisks – izmantoti “Līdz-
svarotā mūsdienu latviešu valodas tekstu korpusa 2018” dati (pieejams: <http://www.korpuss.lv/id/LVK2018>; piemēri apzīmēti ar C), kā arī dažādi plašsaziņas li-
dzekļu (gan iespiestu, gan internetā pieejamu), interešu portālu, latviešu daiļlitera-
tūras un atsevišķi folkloras u. c. piemēri. Atsevišķos gadījumos izmantots arī timekļa
meklētājs *google.lv*, kā arī dati no “Latvian Web Corpus (lvTenTen) (Ten Ten Corpus
Family)”, pieejams: <https://www.sketchengine.eu/lvtenten-latvian-corpus/>, šie pie-
mēri apzīmēti ar CW. Gramatikas ierobežotā apjoma dēļ, kā arī lai izvairītos no in-
formācijas, kas neattiecas uz aprakstāmiem valodas faktiem, piemēri var būt īsināti
vai adaptēti (tas tekstā nav īpaši atzīmēts, izņemot nodaļu par saliktu teikumu, kur
teikuma daļu izlaidums norādīts ar divpunkti). Piemēru analīze nav balstīta uz va-
lodas faktu biežuma analīzi. Piemēros ar trekninājumu parasti izcelts aplūkojamais
valodas fakts; ja nepieciešams papildus izcēlums, izmantots arī pasvītrojums.

Piemēru glosēšana veikta saskaņā ar “Leipcigas glosēšanas principiem”
(“The Leipzig Glossing Rules”, pieejams: <https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>). Taču pilnībā respektēt šos principus nav bijis iespējams gramati-
kas apjoma ierobežojuma dēļ. Morfoloģijas nodaļās, ja piemērā minēti salikti teikumi
vai vairāki vienkārši teikumi, glosēta tikai tā teikuma daļa (vai tas teikums), kurā
ir aprakstāmais valodas fakts. Salikta teikuma sintakses nodaļā nepieciešamības ga-
dījumā glosētas atsevišķas gramatiskas formas, leksēmas vai predikatīvas vienības.
Lietvārdiem, īpašības vārdiem, skaitļa vārdiem, vietniekvārdiem, lokāmajiem div-
dabjiem glosā norādīts tikai daudzskaitlis, vienskaitlis nav īpaši marķēts – izņemot
personas vietniekvārdus *tu* un *jūs*. Minētajām vārdšķirām glosēta arī dzimšu atšķirī-
ba, jo tā latviešu valodā saistīta ar teikuma locekļu savstarpējo saskaņojumu. Glosē-
jot prievārdus, partikulas, saikļus un izsaukmes vārdus, ne vienmēr bijis iespējams
atrast precīzu tādas pašas vārdšķiras vārda tulkojumu angļu valodā, tāpēc glosās var
būt norādīts tikai vispārīgs minēto vārdšķiru apzīmējums (piem., PREP – prievārds,
PTCL – partikula, Q – jautājuma partikula, CONJ – saiklis, INT – izsaukmes vārds;
sk. arī “Abbreviations”).

Morfonoloģijas nodaļā, galvenokārt 1.2.2. apakšnoodaļā, aprakstot patskaņu *e*,
ē izrunas saikni ar vārddarināšanu un formveidošanu, izmantots “Starptautiskais
fonētiskais alfabēts” (“The International Phonetic Alphabet”, pieejams: <https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org/content/full-ipa-chart>). Piemēros nav ap-
zīmētas latviešu valodas garo zilbju intonācijas (stieptā, krītošā un lautzā), jo tām
nav tieša sakara ar patskaņu *e*, *ē* izrunu.

Pateicība

“Latviešu valodas gramatika” tapusi, pateicoties divu projektu finansējumam. Latvijas Universitātes Humanitāro zinātņu fakultātes Latvistikas un baltistikas nodaļā 2014.–2018. gadā tika īstenots Valsts pētījumu programmas “Letonika – Latvijas vēsture, valodas, kultūra, vērtības” projekta Nr. 3 “Latviešu valodas pētījumi 21. gadsimta zinātnes kontekstā” apakšprojekts “Latviešu gramatika”, savukārt 2014., 2016., 2017. gadā – Latvijas Universitātes pētniecības projekts “Mūsdienu latviešu gramatika (angļu valodā)” (abu projektu vadītāja – Andra Kalnača). Projektos bez gramatikas teksta autorēm Andras Kalnačas un Ilzes Lokmanes piedalījušies arī tulkotāji Tatjana Pakalne (gramatikas ievads un morfoloģija), Zigrīda Vinčela (morfonoloģija, izņemot “The morphophonological functions of vowel alternations”), Vita Kalnbērziņa (vienkārša teikuma sintakse, izņemot “Communicative structure of a simple sentence” un “Word order in a simple sentence”), Dens Dimiņš (“Communicative structure of a simple sentence” un “Word order in a simple sentence”, kā arī salikta teikuma un teksta sintakse) un Uldis Balodis (ievads un morfonoloģijas apakšnodaļa “The morphophonological functions of vowel alternations”). Piemēru atlasē Andrai Kalnačai un Ilzei Lokmanei palīdzējušas Anita Butāne (morfoloģija) un Agita Kazakeviča (sintakse), savukārt Lauma Šime, Karīna Avakjanca un Zane Mūrniece glosējušas piemērus morfoloģijas un sintakses nodaļās. Dažādas vērtīgas konsultācijas par gramatikas jautājumiem, to saikni ar latīņu un grieķu gramatiku apraksta tradīcijām abu projektu izstrādes gaitā, kā arī gramatikas tapšanas noslēguma fāzē sniegusi projektu dalībiece Ilze Rūmniece. Visu tekstu kopumā atkārtoti rediģējis un pārskatījis, kā arī dažādus ļoti noderīgus padomus devis Uldis Balodis. Vislielākā pateicība visiem gramatikas tapšanā iesaistītajiem projektu dalībniekiem! Ar prieku arī atceramies gramatikas projektu dalībnieku regulārās tikšanās 2014.–2017. gadā, kad tika diskutēts gan par gramatikā lietojamiem terminiem un jēdzieniem, gan par jau uzrakstītām gramatikas daļām, to struktūru, aprakstāmo latviešu valodas faktu un piemēru atlasī, glosēšanas principiem.

Morfonoloģijas nodaļas piemēru fonētiskās transkripcijas sakarā vērtīgus ieteikumus sniedzis Juris Grigorjevs, Ilze Auziņa sagatavojusi gramatikas sākumā atrodamo latviešu valodas burtu un skaņu atbilstmes tabulu, savukārt Edmunds Trumpa – latviešu valodas dialektu karti, par ko viņiem visiem trim īpašs paldies.

Pateicība izsakāma arī Hellei Metslangai (*Helle Metslang*), Bonifacam Stundžam (*Bonifacas Stundžia*) un Daiki Horiguči (*Daiki Horiguchi*), kuru lietpratīgie ieteikumi un precizējumi bijuši īpaši nozīmīgi grāmatas sagatavošanas beigu posmā. Paldies arī visiem Latvijas Universitātes kolēģiem, kuri atbalstījuši gramatikas publicēšanu!

Par rūpēm, sagatavojot publicēšanai “Latviešu valodas gramatikas” manuskriptu, paldies arī LU Akadēmiskajam apgādam un tā direktorei Aijai Rozenšteinei.

Tomēr visvairāk pateicības vārdu pienākas abu autoru ģimenēm, jo sevišķi dzīvesbiedriem, par atbalstu, izpratni un pacietību gramatikas pētniecībā un grāmatas rakstīšanas laikā.

Rīga – Garciems – Lubāna
2020. gada jūlijā

Andra Kalnača, Ilze Lokmane
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