

Book cover

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For checking the grammar of your sentences use this parser.

The La Gleki's

Crash Course in Lojban

The guide to the naturalistic logical language Published 2015

This crash course covers the most important aspects of Lojban, a logical language.

Why was this book born?

When I first saw the description of Lojban I was confused. A language where verbs and nouns don't differ. How is that possible? And then I saw those pronounceable smileys... but wait! It is a logical language. Where do emotions come from in the world of logic? These oddities were making me crazy.

If this language can combine those things it must be the most powerful human language in the world. And although I didn't have much free time for such hobbies I decided to look into it deeper.

Why?

- I wanted to try new ways of thinking.
- I wanted a beautiful language.
- And I wanted something easy to grasp.

I heard others saying that Lojban is extremely hard to learn but what I discovered later was an amazing simplicity of its structure.

Go on reading and you'll get evidence for that.

I also learnt that Lojban allows to say things shorter without unnecessary distracting details. For example, one doesn't have to always think of what tense (past, present or future) to use in a verb when it's already clear from context: when you need details you add them. But unlike other languages Lojban doesn't force you to do so.

But why did I decide to write my own course?

When I first opened textbooks on Lojban ... darn, they were written not for humans for sure. An awkward and boring style making it impossible to learn the language fast. A lot of distracting not necessary details, no solutions for real situations and bulky, bulky, bulky.

And I said "Enough! If you can't explain it yourself then I'll do that, in simple words, with better examples and as concise as possible."

Using this course.

Lojban is likely to be very different to the kinds of languages you are familiar with — which certainly include English. Learning it is much more than just learning its words and grammar: it is more about understanding it. It will make you think about the ways you express ideas in words. Something that you learned and used every day but never tried to understand how it works.

Learning may be easy or hard, depending on how well you understand the ideas behind it. There are not many words and rules that you need to learn to get into a basic level. You will get there rather quickly if you put a systemic effort. On the other hand, if you fail to understand some basic point, memorizing things will not help you much. In such cases don't hesitate to move on, and come back to it later. Likewise, some of the exercises are trickier than others (particularly the translation exercises at the end of sections). If you can't work out the answer to a particular question, feel free to skip it — but do look at the answer to the question.

Conventions used in this book.

Lojbanic text is in **bold**.

Translations are in *italic*.

Explanations of the structure of text in Lojban is in such "square" letters.

Brackets are used to clarify the grammatical structure of Lojban in examples. [These brackets are not part of official Lojban orthography, and are included only for clarifying stuff].

Words with their translations are indented.

Examples are marked by a line on the left. This is an example of a case study sentence.

Examples of common colloquial phrases are marked by a double line on the left.

Side notes and tips are in boxes. This is an example of a note.

For more information on Lojban, please contact the Logical Language Group:

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• web-site: <u>mw.lojban.org</u>

This course is created by the author La Gleki with the help of the Lojban community throughout year 2015. This book teaches a simplified and optimized style in Lojban and explains modern trends in Lojban language.

Lesson 1. The language at a glance

Alphabet

The basic thing you need to know about Lojban is obviously the alphabet.

Lojban uses the Latin alphabet (vowels are colored):

```
abcdefgijklmnoprstuvxyz'.
```

Letters are pronounced exactly as they are written.

There are six vowels in Lojban:

- **a** as in palm (not as in face)
- e as in *get*
- i as in *machine* or (Italian) *vino* (not as in *hit*)
- o as in *choice* or more not as in so (this should be a 'pure' sound).
- **u** as in cool (not as in but)
- \mathbf{v} as in *comma* (not as in *misty* or *cycle*)

a, e, i, o, u are pretty much the same as vowels in Italian or Spanish.

u before vowels can be pronounced shorter, like w, for example: **ui** is pronounced as wee.

i before vowels can be pronounced shorter, like y, for example: ie is pronounced as ye in yes.

The sixth vowel, \mathbf{y} sounds like a in the word comma. So it's kind of er or, in American English, uh. \mathbf{y} is the sound that comes out when the mouth is completely relaxed (this sound is also called schwa in the language trade).

As for consonants they are pronounced like in English or Latin, but there are a few differences:

- **c** is pronounced as *sh* (like in *shop*).
- \mathbf{g} always g as in gum, never g as in gem
- **j** like *j* in French bonjour or like *s* in pleasure or treasure.
- \mathbf{x} like ch in Scottish loch or as in German Bach, Spanish Jose or Arabic Khaled. Try pronouncing ksss while keeping your tongue down and you get this sound.
- like English h. So the apostrophe is regarded as a proper letter of Lojban and pronounced like a h. It can be found only between vowels. For example, $\mathbf{u}'\mathbf{i}$ is pronounced as *oo-hee* (whereas $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{i}$ is pronounced as *wee*).
 - a full stop (period) is also regarded as a letter in Lojban. It's a short pause in speech to stop words running into each other. Actually any word starting with a vowel has a full
- * stop placed in front of it. This helps prevent undesirable merging of two sequential words into one.

Stress is always put on the last but one vowel or shown explicitly using symbol `before the stressed vowel in order to break this rule. For example, **dansu** (which means *to dance*) can be also written as **d`ansu** to explicitly show the stress. If a word has only one vowel you just don't stress it.

You don't have to be very precise about Lojban pronunciation, because the sounds are distributed so that it is hard to mistake one sound for another. This means that rather than one 'correct' pronunciation, there is a range of acceptable pronunciation — the general principle is that anything is OK so long as it doesn't sound too much like something else. For example, Lojban \mathbf{r} can be pronounced like the r in English, Scottish or French.

Two things to be careful of, though, are pronouncing Lojban \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{u} like Standard British English hit and but (Northern English but is fine). This is because non-Lojban vowels, particularly these two, are used to separate consonants by people who find them hard to say. For example, if you have problems spitting out the \mathbf{ml} in \mathbf{mlatu} (which means cat), you can say milatu — where the i is very short, but other vowels: \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{u} have to be long.

The simplest sentence



lo mlatu a cat



pinxedrinks, to
drink



lo ladru *milk*



lo plise an apple



prami loves



karce ... is a car



carvi ... is a rain

Now let's turn to constructing our first sentences in Lojban.

Of course one of your first thoughts might be "Where are nouns and verbs in Lojban?"

Here are three verbs:

pinxe means drinks, to drink.mlatu means is a cat, to be a cat.ladru means is some milk.

And here is our first sentence:

lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

A cat drinks milk.

To turn a verb into a noun we put a short word lo in front of it: lo mlatu, lo ladru.

It might sound strange how cat and milk can be verbs but in fact this makes Lojban very simple:

pinxe - to drink **lo pinxe** - drinker lo mlatu - cat **mlatu** - is a cat ladru - is some milk lo ladru - milk

We can also say that **lo** creates a noun from a verb with roughly the meaning of *one who does...* (drink - drinker), one who is... (is a cat - cat) or one which is... (is some milk - milk).

The most basic sentence in Lojban consists of one phrase (otherwise called *clause*). Phrase has the following parts from the left to the right:

- the head of the clause: one or more nouns. The noun lo mlatu in this case.
- the head separator \mathbf{cu} (remember that \mathbf{c} is pronounced as sh)
- the tail of the clause: the main verb (pinxe) with possibly one or more nouns after it: the noun lo ladru in this case.

Any verb can be turned into a noun. For example, **lo pinxe** will mean *a drinker* (the one who drinks).

One more example:

lo plise cu kukte An apple is tasty.

Here, **lo plise** means an apple, **kukte** means to be tasty.

A simpler clause in Lojban would contain only one main verb:

You could say this when you see a car coming. The context would be clear enough that there is a car somewhere around and probably it's dangerous.

karce is a verb meaning is a car, to be a car.

Or you can say

where

carvi = is a rain, to be raining

Notice that in Lojban there is no need in the word it in such sense. You just use the verb you need.

prami

[Someone] loves.

prami = to love (someone)

bajra

Someone runs.

bajra = to run

Again context would probably tell who loves whom and who runs.

Lojban does not require any punctuation, separate words are used instead. Punctuation marks like . , !? "" and capital letters ($A\ B\ C$ etc.) can be used for stylistic purposes or to make the text look more smart. They don't add or change the meaning.

Pronouns: I - mi, you - do





mi = I do = you mi'ai = we

ti = this one

ta = that one

 $\mathbf{tu} = that one over there$

Like their English name hints, pronouns work like nouns by default. And they don't require **lo** in front of them.

mi pinxe

I drink.

do pinxe

You drink.

ti ladru

This is some milk.

tu mlatu

That is a cat.

do citka lo plise

You eat an apple.

citka = to eat (something)

mi prami do

I love you.

As you can see we can even omit \mathbf{cu} after pronouns as we can clearly see the head of the clause (\mathbf{mi} in the last example) and the tail with the verb being separated.

Nouns and pronouns work exactly the same, and later we will be calling them both *nouns* for brevity.

Unlike in English we don't have to add the verb "is/are/to be" to the sentence. It is already there: **mlatu** means *to be a cat*.

Task

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

mi'ai citkaWe eat.mi pinxe lo ladruI drink milk.mi citka lo pliseI eat an apple.

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

That is an apple over there. **tu plise**

The milk is tasty. lo ladru cu kukte

You love me. do prami mi

We eat an apple. mi'ai citka lo plise

.i separates sentences

The most precise way of uttering or writing sentences in Lojban would be placing a short word .i in the beginning of each of them:

.i mi viska lo mlatu .i lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

I see a cat. The cat drinks milk.

viska = to see (something)

.i separates sentences like the full stop (period) at the end of sentences in English texts.

When saying one sentence after another in English we make a pause (it may be short) between them. But pause has many different meanings in English. In Lojban we have a better way of understanding where one sentence ends and another begins.

Also note that sometimes when pronouncing words quickly you can't figure out where one sentence ends and the word of the next sentence begins. Therefore it's advised to use the word .i before starting a new sentence.

Task

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

lo prenu = person, people
stati = to be smart, to have a talent
klama = to go (to somewhere)
lo zarci = market
lo najnimre = an orange (fruit), oranges
lo badna = a banana, bananas

lo mu prenu cu klama lo zarci pano lo panono prenu cu stati .i do stati lo prenu cu nelci lo plise i za'u lo prenu cu nelci lo najnimre .i me'i lo prenu cu nelci lo badna

za'u lo mu prenu cu nelci lo plise za'u re lo mu prenu cu stati Five people go to the market.

10 out of 100 people are smart. You are smart.

People like apples. More people like oranges. Fewer people like bananas.

More than one person out of five like apples. More than two ut of five people are smart.

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

256 cats are smart.

Fewer than 12 apples are tasty.

All people eat. Fewer people eat oranges.

lo re mu xa mlatu cu stati me'i lo pa re plise cu kukte lo ro prenu cu citka i me'i lo prenu cu citka lo najnimre

Numbers: 1234567890 = pa re ci vo mu xa ze bi so no

lo simply turns a verb into a noun but such noun has no number associated with it. The sentence

lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

<u>A cat</u> drinks milk.

can also mean

lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

Cats drink milk.

A cat in English means "one cat", and cats means "two or more cats". In Lojban, **lo mlatu** can mean either of them. Usually context tells us how many cats are here.

But what if we want to specify the number?

Let's add a number after **lo**.

pa re ci vo mu xa ze bi so no

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

 $\mathbf{ro} = all.$

So

lo pa mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

A cat/one cat drinks milk.

For numbers consisting of several digits we just string those digits together.

lo re mu mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

25 cats drink milk.

Yes, it's that simple.

If we want to count we can separate numbers with .i:

5 ... 4 ... 3 ... 2 ... 1 ... start
mu .i vo .i ci .i re .i pa .i .insipe

insipe = to begin itself, break out

If we want **ro** is also used to express the meaning of *all*.

lo ro mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

 \sqcap By placing numbers to the left of **lo** we specify how many objects are in question:

ci lo re mu mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

Three out of 25 cats are drinking milk.

So we use **lo** as a separator in phrases with *out of* or similar.

ro to the left of **lo** gives us the meaning *each*:

ro lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru Each, every cat drinks milk.

Notice that **lo ro** ... means *all* and **ro lo** ... means *each*, *every*.

To say just cats (plural number) as opposed to a cat (one cat) we use the number **za'u**.

lo za'u mlatu cu pinxe

Cats are drinking.

Compare it with:

lo pa mlatu cu pinxe

A cat is drinking.

Putting **za'u** before **lo** means *more*, putting **me'i** means *less*:

za'u lo mlatu cu pinxe

More cats are drinking.

me'i lo mlatu cu pinxe

Fewer cats are drinking.

Putting a number after **za'u** or **me'i** specifies *more than [that number]*:

lo za'u ci mlatu cu pinxe

More than three cats are drinking.

me'i ci lo mu mlatu cu pinxe

Less than three out of five cats are drinking.

Compound verbs

Compound verbs (tanru in Lojban) are several verb words one after another.

tu melbi zdani

That is a pretty home.

```
melbi = to be beautiful

zdani = to be a home or nest (to someone)
```

do melbi dansu

You prettily dance.

dansu = to dance

Here the verb **melbi** adds an additional meaning as it is to the left of another verb: **zdani**. The left part is usually translated using adjectives and adverbs.

Compound verbs are a powerful tool that can give us richer verbs. You just string two verbs together. And the left part of such compound verb adds a flavor to the right one.

We can put **lo** to the left of such compound verb getting a compound noun:

lo melbi zdani = a nice home.

Now you know why there was cu after nouns in our example

lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

A cat drinks milk.

Without **cu** it'd turn into **lo mlatu pinxe** ... with the meaning *a cat-like drinker* whatever that could mean.

Remember about placing ${\bf cu}$ before the main verb in a clause to prevent unintentional creating of compound verbs.

Compound verbs can contain more than two verbs. In this case the first verb modifies the second one, the second one modifies the third and so on:

```
verba = to be a child
lo melbi verba zdani = a pretty-child home, a home of a pretty child
lo verba melbi zdani = a childishly pretty home, a home pretty in a childish way
```

Task

```
lo fetsi = a female, female beings (for example, women)
lo nakni = a male, male beings (for example, men, male humans)
sutra = to be quick
barda = to be big
cmalu = to be small
```

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

lo melbi fetsibeautiful female.do sutra klamaYou quickly go. You go fast.

ta barda zdani That is a big home.
lo sutra bajra mlatu a quickly running cat

lo sutra mlatu a quick cat lo bajra mlatu a running cat

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

This is a small child.

ti cmalu verba
tasty apple
quick eater

lo kukte plise
lo sutra citka

You are a quickly going male. do sutra klama nakni

"Yes/No" questions

In English, we make a *yes/no* question by changing the order of the words (e.g. "You are ..." — "Are you ...?") or putting some form of do at the beginning (e.g. Do you know?). In Lojban we can retain the order of words.

We turn any assertion into a yes/no question by simply putting the word xu somewhere in the sentence, for example in the beginning:

xu do nelci lo gerku?

Do you like dogs?

```
nelci = to like (something)
lo gerku = dog, dogs
```

Remember that in Lojban punctuation like "?" (question mark) is totally optional and used mostly for stylistic purposes. After all, we use the question word $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{u}$ that shows the question anyway.

Other examples:

xu mi klama

Am I coming?

klama = to come (to somewhere)

xu pelxu

Is it yellow?

pelxu = to be yellow

We can shift the meaning by placing xu after different parts of a clause. Some possible explanations of such shift in meaning are given in brackets:

- xu do nelci lo gerku
- Do you like dogs?
- do xu nelci lo gerku
- Do YOU like dogs?

(I thought it was someone else who likes them).

- do nelci xu lo gerku
- Do you LIKE dogs?

(I thought you were just neutral towards them).

do nelci lo gerku xuDo you like DOGS?(I thought you liked cats).

As you can see what is expressed using intonation in English is expressed by moving \mathbf{xu} after the part we want to emphasize. Note, that the first sentence with \mathbf{xu} in the beginning asks the most generic question without stressing any particular aspect.

xu is an interjection word. Here are the features of Lojban interjections:

- interjection modifies the construct to the left of it. So when put after certain part of the clause like pronoun or a verb it modifies that verb: **do <u>xu</u> nelci lo gerku** *Do <u>YOU</u> like dogs?*
- being put in the beginning of a clause interjection modifies the whole clause: xu do nelci lo gerku
 Do you like dogs?
- we can put an interjection after different parts of the same clause shifting the meaning.

Now how to reply to such 'yes/no' questions?

```
xu do nelci lo gerku
Do you like dogs?
je'u
Yes.
True [literally]
```

or

```
je'u nai
No.
Not true [literally]
```

Another way to answer *yes* is to repeat the main verb, for example

```
xu lo mlatu cu melbimelbiAre cats pretty?Pretty.
```

je'u and **je'u nai** are also interjections. We can use them not only in questions:

```
je'u do lazni
Actually you are lazy.
```

lazni = to be lazy

je'u mi nelci lo gerku

It is true that I like dogs.

The particle **nai** is a modifier of interjections, it creates the opposite meaning when put after them.

All Lojban words are divided into two groups: particles (called **cmavo** in Lojban) and verbs (**selbrivla**).

It is quite common to write several particles one after another without spaces between them. This is allowed by Lojban grammar. So don't be surprised to see **lonu** instead of **lo nu**, **je'unai** instead of **je'u nai** etc. This doesn't change the meaning. However, this is not applied to verbs: they are to be separated with spaces.

Task

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

xu lo barda zdani cu melbiIs the big home is beautiful— lo re nakni cu stati xu— Are the two men smart?

- je'unai -No.

do klama lo zarci xuDo you go to the market?

xu lo pa verba cu prami lo ci mlatuDoes the child love the three cats?

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

Is the car fast? **xu lo karce cu sutra**

— Is the orange tasty? — xu lo najnimre cu kukte

− Yes it is. − je'u

Does the female love you? **xu lo fetsi cu prami do**

Commands

How do we do commands and requests in English?

For example, if I want you to run, I'd probably say:

Run!

Now the verb for *to run* is **bajra**.

In Lojban **bajra** simply means *Someone runs/is running*. It can be assumed to mean a command *Do*

run! but sometimes context isn't enough to make you decide whether it's an urge to run or simply a statement of the fact that someone runs or is running.

Instead we say

do ko'oi bajra

do bajra means *You run*. And **ko'oi** is an interjection that turns *You run* into a command, appeal, request or suggestion.

do ko'oi is so useful and frequent in speech that in spoken Lojban it is also common to use a contraction of it, the word **ko**. It's just a shorter synonym of **do ko'oi**.

As noted earlier any interjection modifies only the part of the sentence that it follows. Moving ko'oi to another part moves command/request to that part.

You can even have several **ko'oi** in one sentence.

do ko'oi kurji do ko'oi

Take care of yourself.

kurji = to take care (of someone)

which in short form would be

ko kurji ko

ko kurji ko
Take care of yourself.
[Act so that] you take care of you. [literally]

As for **ko'oi** itself it is mostly used when applying to other pronouns (not **do**). E.g.

mi'ai ko'oi klama

Here **ko'oi** is applied to the pronoun **mi'ai** (*we*) although in ordinary speech it would probably be contracted to just

We can put **ko** or **do ko'oi** in any place where we put **do** transforming it into commands, e.g.

nelci ko

nelci = to like (something or someone)

Note that **prami** corresponds to English *to love* while **nelci** corresponds to English to like.

This means Make it so you are liked by someone!, and as you can see we have to restructure this clause in English which still sounds weird, but you could use it in Lojban in the sense of Try to make a good impression.

Polite requests

ko'oi is rather vague. Sometimes we need to be more precise and to ask polite questions. The interjection .e'o before a sentence turns it into a request:

.e'o do lebna lo cukta

Could you take the book, please?

Please take the book. [literally]

```
e'o = interjection: please
lebna = to take (something)
```

.e'o is enough to make polite requests in Lojban (in English as you can see one has to use "could you + please + a question").

Task

```
lotcati = tea
lo ckafi = coffee
catlu = to watch
lo skina = a film, movie
```

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

ko sutra bajra Run quickly! .e'o do pinxe lo tcati Drink tea! ko catlu lo skina Watch a film!

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

Be smart! ko stati Go home! ko klama lo zdani Please, drink coffee! .e'o do pinxe lo ckafi Please, take care of the girl. .e'o do kurji lo nixli

"And" and "or"

lo verba je melbi zdani = a childish and pretty home

lo sutra je blabi karce cu klama

A quick and white car is moving.

je means *and* in Lojban in compound verbs.

Without je

lo sutra blabi karce cu klama

A quickly white car is moving.

would be funny and make no sense since **sutra** modifies **blabi** and **blabi** modifies **karce** according to how compound verbs work. The same for

lo blabi sutra karce cu klama

A whitely quick car is moving.

So

lo sutra je blabi karce cu klama

A quick (and) white car is moving.

has the intended meaning. Both sutra and blabi modify karce directly.

For connecting nouns we use a similar particle .e:

mi .e do nelci lo plise

I like apples, and you like apples.

In modern styles of Lojban **je** is used for connecting nouns too:

mi je do nelci lo plise

I like apples, and you like apples.

This is considered a non-standard, although a popular approach.

When we need to show that nouns are considered together we use the particle **jo'u**:

lo nanla jo'u lo nixli cu casnu lo karce

A boy and a girl discuss a car.

```
nanla = ...is \ a \ boy, \ boys
nixli = ...is a girl, girls
```

Also notice that omitting **lo** can cause weird results:

lo nanla jo'u nixli cu casnu lo karce

Someone who is a boy and a girl (at the same time considered together!) discusses a car.

Don't remove **lo** when connecting two nouns:

lo nanla jo'u lo nixli cu casnu lo karce A boy and a girl discuss a car.

is the correct sentence here.

Let's mention other conjunction words.

lo nanla cu fengu ja bilma

The boy is angry or ill (or may be both angry and ill)

```
ja = and/or or
.a = and/or when connecting nouns.
```

```
fengu = to be angry
bilma = to be ill
```

lo karce cu blabi jo nai grusi

The car is either white or gray.

```
jo nai = either ... or ... but not both (it consists of two words but it has one single meaning)
.o nai = either ... or ... but not both when connecting nouns
```

Note that it's better to remember **jo nai** as a single word. The same for **.o nai**.

mi prami do .i ju do fenki

I love you. Whether or not you are crazy.

```
ju = whether or not...
fenki = to be crazy
```

Again many people always use **ja** instead of **.a**, **jo nai** instead of **.o nai**, **ju** instead of **.u**.

Task

lo jisra = a juice

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

mi nelci lo badna .e lo plise

I like bananas, and I like apples.

do sutra ja stati

You are quick or smart or both.

lo za'u prenu cu casnu lo nixli .u lo nanla

The people discuss girls whether or not (they

discuss) boys.

mi citka lo najnimre .o nai lo badnaI eat either oranges or bananas.

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

Females like rain, and males like rain.

Io fetsi .e lo nakni cu nelci lo carvi
mi .onai do klama lo zarci
mi viska lo barda je melbi karce
The child drinks milk and/or juice.

lo verba cu pinxe lo ladru .a lo jisra

Events: dancing - lo nu dansu, to be together - lo nu kansa

Any clause can be turned into a verb by putting **nu** in front of it:

lo nicte cu nu mi viska lo lunra

The night is when I see the Moon.

The night is the event when I see the Moon. [literally]

 $nicte = (some \ event) \ is \ a \ nighttime.$

lo nicte = night, nighttime
viska = to see (something)

lo lunra = the Moon

Here **lo nicte** is a noun of the clause and **nu mi viska lo lunra** is the main verb of the clause as it starts with **nu**. But inside this main verb we can see another clause (**mi viska lo lunra**) embedded!

The word **nu** actually transforms a clause into a verb that denotes an event or a process.

Adding **lo** in front of **nu** creates nouns that denote processes:

```
pinxe = to drink
lo nu pinxe = drinking

dansu = to dance
lo nu dansu = dancing

kansa = to be together with
lo nu kansa = being together

jimpe = to understand, to comprehend
lo nu jimpe = understanding, comprehending

klama = to come
lo nu klama = coming
lo nu do klama = coming of you, you coming
```

So **lo nu** corresponds to English -ing, -tion or -sion.

Some verbs require using events instead of ordinary nouns. For example

mi gleki lo nu do klama

I'm happy because you are coming.

```
gleki = to be happy (of some event)
lo gleki = a happy one, a happy person
```

mi djica lo nu do klama ti

I want you to come here (to this place)

```
djica = to want (some event)
mi jimpe lo nu do stati = I understand that you are smart.
jimpe = to understand (some event)
```

ti can refer not only to things but places. Some nouns are events by themselves. WWe can combine them with events so no lo nu will be used. \sqcap

lo cabna cu nicte

Now it's night. At present it's night.

lo cabna = present time, (an event) is at present.

lo nu pinxe lo ladru cu nabmi mi

Drinking milk is a problem, problematic to me.

nabmi = (event) is a problem (to someone)

Task

```
pilno = to use (something)
skami = ...is a computer
```

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

mi nelci lo nu dansu I like dancing.

xu do gleki lo nu pilno lo skamiAre you happy of using a computer?do djica lo nu mi citka lo plise xuDo you want me to eat an APPLE?

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

Coming here is a problem. lo nu klama ti cu nabmi

Do you understand that I like bananas. xu do jimpe lo nu mi nelci lo badna

Prepositions and tenses: was, is, will = pu, ca, ba

Prepositions in Lojban are grouped into series by their meaning to make them easier to remember and use.

Prepositions from the series called *PU*:

pu denotes past tense or before some eventca denotes present tense or at the same time as some eventba denotes future tense or after some event

mi pinxe ca lo nu do klama

I drink while you are coming.

Yes, we need **lo nu** to insert a whole sentence after **ca**.

mi citka ba lo nu mi dansu

I eat after I dance.

Now let's talk about tenses.

English forces us to use certain tenses. You have to choose between

A cat drinks milk.

A cat has been drinking milk.

A cat drank milk.

A cat will have drunk milk.

and other similar choices.

However, in Lojban tense are optional - you can be as vague or as precise as you want!

Our sentence

lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

A cat drinks milk.

in reality says nothing about when this happens. Context is clear enough in most cases and can help us. But if we need more precision we just add more words.

It may be a surprise to you but those prepositions can be used as tenses as well!

The only difference is that we should just drop the noun after **pu**, **ca**, **ba**, place them before the main verb and they will turn into tenses:

lo mlatu ca pinxe lo ladru

The cat drinks milk (at present).

lo mlatu pu pinxe lo ladru

The cat drank milk.

lo mlatu ba pinxe lo ladru

The cat will drink milk.

 \square As you can see we replaced cu with the tense word (pu, ca, ba) as they also clearly separate the head from the main verb.

ca doesn't describe *exactly this moment*. **ca** extends slightly into the past and the future, meaning *just about now*. This is because human beings don't perceive time in a perfectly logical way, and the Lojban tenses reflect that.

Another example:

lo nicte cu pluka

The night is pleasant.

```
pluka = to be pleasant
```

Tense words before nouns turn into prepositions:

ba lo nicte cu plukaAfter the night it is pleasant.

So to say *will be pleasant* we should place the tense word before the main verb:

lo nicte ba pluka

The night will be pleasant.

П

We can combine tenses with and without clauses after them.

mi pu citka ba lo nu mi dansu

I ate after I danced.

 \square Note, that **pu** (past tense) is put only in the main clause (**mi pu citka**).

We shouldn't put it with **dansu** (unlike English) as **mi dansu** is viewed relative to **mi pu citka** so we already know that everything was in past.

Prepositions from the series called *ZAhO*:

```
co'a = the event is at its beginning
ca'o = the event is in progress
mo'u = the event is at its finish
```

For precisely expressing English Progressive tense we use **ca'o**:

lo mlatu ca ca'o pinxe lo ladru

A cat (at present) is drinking milk.

mo'u usually corresponds to English Perfect tense:

lo mlatu ca mo'u pinxe lo ladru

A cat has drunk milk.

We could omit **ca** in these sentence since the context would be clear enough in most such cases.

Two prepositions from other series:

```
ta'e = simple tense: the event happens habitually <math>ze'a = through some time, for a while, during ...
```

Present Simple tense in English describes events that happen sometimes:

lo mlatu ca ta'e pinxe lo ladru

A cat (habitually, sometimes) drinks milk.

We can use the same rules for describing the past using **pu** instead of **ca** or the future using **ba**:

lo mlatu pu mo'u pinxe lo ladru

A cat had drunk milk.

lo mlatu ba mo'u pinxe lo ladru

A cat will have drunk milk.

The relative order of tenses is important. In **ca mo'u** we first say something happens in present (**ca**), then we state that in this present time the described event is finished (**mo'u**). Only when using this order we get Present Perfect tense.

ze'a emphasizes that events happened during an interval:

mi pu ze'a sipna

I slept for a while.

mi pu sipna ze'a lo nicte

I slept through the night. I slept all night.

Let's compare it with **ca**.

mi pu sipna ca lo nicte

I slept at night.

sipna = to sleep
lo nicte = a nighttime

When using **ze'a** we are talking about the whole interval of what we describe. \square Don't forget that **nicte** is itself an event so we don't need **nu** here.

Task

```
lo tsani = the sky
zvati = to be present at (some place or event), to stay ... (at some place)
```

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

mi ca gleki lo nu do viska lo tsani xu lo mlatu pu ru'i zvati lo zdani do pu citka lo plise ba lo nu mi pinxe lo ladru I am happy that you see the sky. Were the cat staying at home?

You ate an apple after I drank the milk.

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

You will see the sun.
You understand that it will rain.

do ba viska lo solri do ca jimpe lo nu ba carvi

Other prepositions

Other prepositions work the same way. \sqcap

```
fa'a = towards ..., in the direction of ...
to'o = from ..., from the direction of ...
bu'u = at ... (some place)
```

mi klama fa'a do to'o lo mlatu

I go to you from a cat.

П

mi cadzu bu'u lo tcadu

I walk in the city.

One thing is important. **nu** shows that a new clause in a sentence starts. Put **vau** after such clause to show its right border. Here is an example:

lo mlatu cu plipe fa'a mi ca lo nu do ru'i klama

A cat jumps towards me when you are coming.

```
plipe = to jump
```

but

lo mlatu cu plipe ca lo (nu do ru'i klama vau) fa'a mi

A cat jumps [when you are coming] towards me.

□(brackets are used here only to show the structure)

We use **vau** after the clause **nu do ru'i klama** to show that it ended and other parts of the sentence begin. \square Compare this sentence with the following:

lo mlatu cu plipe ca lo (nu do ru'i klama fa'a mi)

A cat jumps (when you are coming towards me).

As you can see **do klama fa'a mi** is a clause inside the big one. So **fa'a mi** is now inside it.

Now you, not the cat, come towards me.

At the end of the sentence **vau** is never needed as it's already the right border.

Some preposition require a noun with an event inside:

mi pinxe se ja'e lo nu mi taske

I drink because I am thirsty.

mi citka se ja'e lo nu mi xagji

I eat because I am hungry.

```
se ja'e = because ... (of some event)
taske = to be thirsty
xagji = to be hungry
```

Task

```
lo canko = window
lo fagri = a fire
```

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

ko catlu fa'a lo canko

xu do gleki ca lo nu do ru'i cadzu bu'u lo
purdi

ca lo nu mi klama lo zdani vau do pinxe lo
tcati se ja'e lo nu do taske

Look towards the window.

Are you happy when you are walking in the garden?

When I go home you drink tea because you are thirsty.

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

Quickly run away from the fire!

ko sutra bajra to'o lo fagri

Negation

mi na'e nelci do

I don't like you.

na'e bo mi nelci do

Not I like you (may be someone else likes you).

- **na'e** means *no* or *not*.
- na'e modifies the construct to the right of it.
- Before nouns and pronouns **na'e bo** is usually used instead, although in popular styles of Lojban it can be omitted.

So when put before a pronoun it negates that pronoun, when put before a verb word, it negates that verb word.

We can put **na'e** before different parts of the same clause shifting the meaning.

Here are other words that work exactly as **na'e**:

mi no'e nelci do

As for whether I love or hate you, I'm indifferent to you. I neither like nor hate you.

The word **no'e** makes a part of sentence middle in its meaning.

```
mi to'e nelci do
```

I hate you.

I hate you.
I anti-like you. [literally]

The word **to'e** makes a part of sentence opposite in its meaning. It's similar to English *anti-*.

mi je'a nelci do

I indeed like you.

I indeed-like you. [literally]

The word **je'a** confirms the meaning of a part of sentence. It means indeed'. Usually it's just omitted.

All these words form a scale:

Word Meaning

je'a indeed - the affirmative position on the scale

no'e not really - midpoint on the scale

to'e *anti-, dis-, mis-* etc. - opposite on the scale

na'e *non--* other than the affirmative position on the scale

na'e is more vague than no'e and to'e, it can mean any of them when you don't care about the exact meaning.

Lastly, the preposition **na** put before the main verb also makes it negative in meaning:

mi na nelci do

I don't like you.

Names. Choosing a name

cmevla, or a *name word* is a special kind of verb. It is mostly used to build personal names. You can easily recognize cmevla in a flow of text as only **cmevla** end in a consonant.

Besides, it is common to wrap them by one dot from each side. Examples are: .paris., .robin.

Lojbanists often omit dots in front of and at the end of cmevla to write texts faster for example, when text chatting. After all, cmevla are still separated from neighboring words by spaces around them. However, in spoken language it is still necessary to put a short pause before and after cmevla.

If one's name is Bob then we can create a cmevla ourselves that would sound as close as possible to this name, for example .bob.

And then we prefix it with the word \mathbf{la} so that it would work just like a noun $-\mathbf{la}$. The word \mathbf{la} is similar to **lo** but it converts a verb not to a simple noun but to a name (**cmene** in Lojban).

So the most simple example of using a name would be

la .bob. cu tcidu Bob reads/is reading.

tcidu = to read

Don't forget to put **la** if you want to produce a name!

Well, Bob is lucky because his name goes directly into Lojban without any changes. The same for the name Lojban. It's a cmevla and is written as .lojban.

la .lojban. cu bangu mi

I speak Lojban.

Lojban is the language used by me. Lojban is the language I use. [literally]

bangu = is a language (used by someone)

However, as you might guess Lojban spelling is quite transparent and therefore there are some rules for adapting names to how they are written in Lojban. This may sound strange — after all, a name is a name — but in fact all languages do this to some extent. For example, English speakers tend to pronounce *Jose* something like *Hozay*, and *Margaret* in Chinese is *Magelita*. Some sounds just don't exist in some languages, so the first thing you need to do is rewrite the name so that it only contains Lojban sounds, and is spelt in a Lojban way.

Pay attention to how the name is pronounced natively. Thus, the English and French names *Robert* come out differently in Lojban: the English name is rather **.robyt.** in UK English, or **.rabyrt.** in some American dialects, but the French is **.rober.**

la .suzyn.

Susan

In the English name Susan the two letters s are pronounced differently. The second one is actually a z, and the a is not really an a sound, it's the "schwa" explained in the beginning of this chapter. So Susan is written **.suzyn.** in Lojban.

Here are some names that we'll use throughout this book:

la .alis. Alice la .meilis. Mei Li la .bob. la .abdul. Abdul Bob la .ian. Yan or Ian la .al. Ali la .jasmin. Jasmine la .an. Anne la .kevin. Kevin la .eduard. Edward la .adam. Adam la .lukas. Lucas

- Two extra full stops (periods) are necessary because if you didn't put those pauses in speech, you might not know where the name started and ended, or in other words where the previous word ended and the next word began.
- The last letter of a cmevla must be a consonant. And if a name doesn't end in a consonant we usually add use s to the end; so in Lojban, Mary becomes .meris., Joe becomes .djos. and so on. An alternative is to leave out the last vowel, so Mary would become .mer. or .meir..
- You can also put a full stop in between a person's first and last names (though it's not compulsory), so *Jim Jones* becomes .djim.djonz.

Other verbs as names

You can use not only cmevla, but also other types of verbs to choose your nickname in Lojban. If you prefer, you can translate your name into Lojban (if you know what it means, of course) or adopt a completely new Lojban identity.

Here are a few examples of Lojbanic names:

Original name	Meaning	Word in Lojban	Your name
Robin	a name of a bird	lo turdida — American robin	la turdida
Alva	elf in Scandinavian	\mathbf{lo} .elfe $ elf$	la .elfe
Mei Li	beautiful in Mandarin Chinese	lo melbi — beautiful	la melbi

Three types of nouns: lo-nouns, la-names and pronouns

There are three types of nouns in Lojban:

- 1. lo-noun is lo + a verb.
- 2. name is la + a verb.
- 3. *pronouns* are $\mathbf{mi} I$, $\mathbf{tu} that$ and others

So as they mostly work the same way we are calling them *nouns* and use more specific terms when needed. In Lojban nouns are called sumti.

the, he and she

la alis cu klama lo zarci i le fetsi cu xagji Alice is going to a shop. She is hungry.

When instead of **lo** we put **le** we refer to nouns (pronouns or names) that have just been mentioned. They are translated to English as *he*, *she* or by using the article *the*.

```
le fetsi = she, the female
le nakni = he, the male
le prenu = he or she, the person (gender is not known)
```

la alis cu viska la jasmin i le fetsi cu melbi

Alice can see Jasmine. She (Jasmine) is beautiful.

If several nouns can match then the last one is used. In this case le fetsi is applied to Jasmine, the last noun deribing a female person.

In this example we assume that both Alice and Jasmine are females.

In spoken language **le** can be applied to nouns not found in text but obvious from context. Consider the outer reality a

Introducing yourself. Vocatives



cerni morning



vanci *evening*



donridaylight time



nicte night

Vocatives in Lojban are words that function just like interjections (**xu** which we discussed) but they attach the following noun after them:

coi do

Hello you.

coi = vocative: hello, greetings

You use coi + a noun to greet someone. coi corresponds to Hi, Hello, Good morning, and whatever else happens to be in vogue.

coi ro do = Hello all of you (Southern U.S. Hello y'all) is how people usually start a conversation with several people. coi re
do means Hello two of you or Hello you two and can be useful when, for example, one starts a letter to their parents).

Since vocatives work like interjections we have nice types of greetings:

cerni coi

Good morning!

morning - Hello! (literally)

vanci coi

Good evening!

donri coi

Good day!

pluka nicte di'ai

Good night!

di'ai do

Good luck to you!

```
di'ai = vocative: well-wish
pluka = to be pleasant to ... (someone)
```

We use **di'ai** here because *Good night!* is not a greeting but a well-wish actually. Thus we use a different vocative here. Although, you can be vague by saying **pluka nicte** (just meaning *pleasant night* without any wishes explicitly said).

The vocative **mi'e** + a noun is used to introduce yourself. Watch any film where people don't know each other's language. They start off saying things like "Me Tarzan".

mi'e la .jasmin.

I'm Jasmine. This is Jasmine speaking.

mi'e = vocative: identifies speaker

co'o is the farewell word, corresponding to *Goodbye*, *Farewell*. Lojbanists signing off on e-mail often end with something like **co'o mi'e .bob.** — this is equivalent to putting your name at the end of your email in English as a signature, and translates as *Goodbye*; *I'm Bob*.

And when you address people by name, you usually do so to make it clear who out of a group you are talking to. The word **doi** is used to show who you're talking to.

mi cliva doi la .robert.

I'm leaving, Robert.

```
cliva = to leave (something or someone)
```

Without **doi** the name might become the first noun of the clause:

doi is a bit like English O (as in O ye of little faith) or the Latin vocative (as in Et tu, Brute). Some languages don't distinguish between these contexts although as you can see Old English and Latin did.

Two more vocatives are are **ki'e** for saying thanks and **je'e** for accepting them:

- do pu sidju mi .i ki'e do
 je'e do
 You helped me, thank you.
 Not at all.

sidju = to help (someone)

We can omit the noun after the vocative only if this is the ends of the sentence. For example we can just say

- coi .i xu do kanro— Hello. How do you do?— Hello. Are you healthy? [literally]

kanro = to be healthy

Here, a new sentence starts immediately after the vocative coi so we omitted the name. Or we can say:

coi do mi djica lo nu do sidju mi
Hello. I want you to help me.
Hello you. I want that you help me. [literally]

Thus, in case you don't know the name of the listener you just place **do** after it if you want to continue the same sentence after the vocative.

Task

Close the right part of the table. Translate from Lojban the sentences on the left.

nelci = to like (someone or something)
lo mamta = a mother, mothers

cerni coi la .alis.

— mi ba sipna

- pluka nicte di'ai

mi'e la .adam. i mi nelci lo nu mi ru'i tavla do

Good morning, Alice.

- I will sleep.

— Good night.

I am Adam. I like that I am talking to you.

Close the right part of the table. Translate to Lojban the sentences on the left.

Mommy, I will eat an apple.

You leave? Goodbye.

doi lo mamta mi ba citka lo plise xu do cliva .i co'o do or just xu do cliva .i co'o

Lesson 2. More basic stuff

Order of arguments

Lojban dictionaries present all verbs with x1, x2 etc. symbols as e.g.

prami = x_1 loves x_2

There is nothing strange in these x1, x2. They are called places of arguments and simply represent the order in which you have to add nouns. E.g.

mi prami do

I love you.

This also means that

- x1 denotes the one who loves and
- x2 denotes the one who is loved by.

The advantage of such style of definitions is that compared to English there is no need in many additional words as all participants of this love are in one definition.

We can also omit nouns making the sentence more vague:

carvi (literally *is a rain, is raining*) means *It is raining*. **prami do** (literally *loves you*) means *Someone loves you*.

All omitted places in a clause just mean zo'e = something/someone so it means the same as

zo'e prami do

Someone loves you.

prami

is the same as

zo'e prami zo'e

Someone loves someone.

The order of arguments of compound verbs is the same as the of the last verb word in it:

tu sutra bajra pendo mi

That is my quickly running friend.

That is a quickly running friend of me. [literally]

pendo = to be a friend, is a friend (of someone)

So the order of arguments is the same as of **pendo** alone.

More than two places

There might be more than two places. E.g.

pinxe

x1 drinks x2 from x3

mi pinxe lo ladru lo kabri

I drink milk from a cup.

lo kabri

a cup

In this case there are three places and if you want to exclude the second place in the middle you have to use **zo'e**:

mi pinxe zo'e lo kabri

I drink [something] from a cup.

If we omitted zo'e we'd get

mi pinxe lo kabri

I drink a cup.

which would make no sense.

Note that like in English you don't need to remember all places of all verbs. You may study places when you find them useful or when people use them in a dialogue with you.

General rules in the order of arguments

The order of places in verbs might be sometimes hard to remember. But let's not worry — we don't have to memorize all of them. In fact nobody does (do you remember the meaning of hundreds of thousands of words in English?)

Most of them have one or two places. Usually you can guess the order using context and a few rules of thumb:

- 1. The first place is often the person or thing who <u>does</u> something or <u>is</u> something: **klama** = x1 *goes* ...
- 2. The object of some action is usually just after the first place: **punji** = x1 puts $\underline{x2}$ on x3, **dunda** = x1 gives $\underline{x2}$ (gift) to x3 (recipient)
- 3. And the next place will usually be filled with the recipient: **punji** = x1 *puts* x2 *on* $\underline{x3}$, **dunda** = x1 *gives* x2 *(gift) to* $\underline{x3}$ *(recipient)*
- 4. Destination (to) places nearly always come before origins (from) places: **klama** = x1 goes to x2 from x3
- 5. Less-used places come towards the end. These tend to be things like 'by standard', 'by means' or 'made of'.

The general idea is that first come the places which are most likely to be used.

No need to fill all places all the time. Unfilled places just have values irrelevant or obvious to the speaker (they take the value of $\mathbf{zo'e} = something$).

Places for nouns



lo pendo friend/friends



lo pa cukta

a book/the book



mi dunda lo pa cukta I give a book.

How do we say You are my friend?

do pendo mi

You are my friend.
You are a friend of me. [literally]

And now how do we say My friend is crazy.?

lo pendo be mi cu fenki My friend is crazy.

So when we convert a verb into a noun (pendo - to be a friend into lo pendo - a friend) we can still retain other places of that verb by placing **be** after it.

By default it attaches the second place (x2). We can attach more places by separating them with **bei**.

For example:

mi dunda lo pa cukta mi

I give a book to me.

lo pa cukta = a book

And now

lo dunda be lo cukta bei mi

The grantor of the book to me

lo dunda be lo cukta bei mi cu pendo mi

The giver of the book to me is my friend.

The one who gives the book to me is a friend of mine. [literally]

Another example:

la .lojban. cu bangu mi

Lojban is my language.

Lojban is a language of me. [literally]

bangu = x_1 is a language used by x_2 to express ideas x_3

However,

mi nelci lo bangu be mi

I like my language.

We can't omit **be** because **lo bangu mi** are two independent nouns (well, the second one is a pronoun but it's all the same in Lojban). Neither can we use **nu** because **lo nu bangu mi** is some event about my language. So **lo bangu be mi** is a correct solution to the problem.

Using **be** for not-converted verb words has no effect: **mi nelci be do** is the same as **mi nelci do**.

Relative clauses

Let's look at these two sentences.

- 1. The cat that is white is drinking milk.
- 2. The cat, which is white, is drinking milk.

In the first sentence the word "that" is essential to identifying the cat in question, it clarifies which cat we are talking about. Out of probably many cats we choose only those who are white. May be there is only one cat around that is white like in this example.

As for "which is white" from the second sentence it just provides additional information about the cat. It doesn't help us to identify cats. For example, this might happen when all the cats are white.

In Lojban we use **poi** for the first sentence and **noi** for the second sentence.

lo mlatu poi blabi cu pinxe lo ladru

The cat that is white is drinking milk.

lo mlatu noi blabi cu pinxe lo ladru

The cat, which is white, is drinking milk.

blabi = to be white

This **poi blabi** is a relative clause, a mini-clause attached to the noun **lo mlatu**. It ends just before the next word **cu**.

So we actually additionally state in the sentence that **lo mlatu cu blabi** — the cat is white.

Removing **poi** can change the meaning:

le nakni pu co'a speni lo ninmu poi pu se penmi bu'u lo zarci

He married a girl (which one?) met in the store.

Removing the relative clause with **poi** changes the meaning: *He married a girl*.

lo prenu poi gleki cu clani zmadu renvi

People (which ones?) who are happy live longer.

```
gleki = to be happy
clani = to be long
zmadu = to exceed
renvi = to survive
```

Removing the relative clause with **poi** changes the meaning: *People live longer*.

On the other hand, relative clauses with **noi** contain just additional information about the noun to which they are attached. That noun is sufficiently defined by itself so that removing relative clause doesn't change its meaning:

mi nelci la .jasmin. noi mi ta'e zgana bu'u lo panka

I like Jasmine, whom I habitually see in the park.

I like Jasmine (what else can I say about her?)...

Removing the relative clause with **noi** retains the meaning: *I like Jasmine*.

In spoken English the distinction is often achieved using intonation or by guessing. Also relative clauses with **noi** are traditionally separated with commas in English, they use *which* or *who* and the word *that* is not used in them.

Let's have a more interesting example.

```
lo tricu = a tree
barda = to be big/large
klama = to go to something
```

mi klama lo tricu

I go to a tree

lo tricu cu barda

The tree is big

And now let's join those two sentences:

lo tricu noi mi klama ke'a cu barda

A tree, to which I go, is big.

Note the word **ke'a**. We move the second sentence about the same tree into a relative clause and replace the noun **lo tricu** with **ke'a** in the relative clause. So the pronoun **ke'a** is like *who* and *which* in English. It points back to the noun to which the relative clause is attached.

So literally our Lojbanic sentence sounds like

A tree, such that I go to which, is big.

ke'a can be dropped if we are to place it just after **noi** or **poi**. That's why the two following sentences mean the same:

lo mlatu poi blabi cu pinxe lo ladru lo mlatu poi <u>ke'a</u> blabi cu pinxe lo ladru

The cat that is white is drinking milk.

la nakni pu co'a speni lo ninmu poi pu penmi bu'u lo zarci or

le nakni pu co'a speni lo ninmu poi pu penmi ke'a bu'u lo zarci

He married a girl whom he met in the store.

A more tricky example:

lo tricu noi mi pu klama ke'a ca lo cabdei cu barda

A tree, to which I went today, is big.

lo cabdei = the day of today

Note that ca lo cabdei belongs to the relative clause. Another example

lo tricu noi mi pu klama ke'a cu barda ca lo cabdei

A tree, to which I went, is big today.

The meaning has changed a lot.

Short relative clauses. "About".

Sometimes you might need to attach additional noun to another noun.

mi djuno zo'e pe do

I know something about you.

pe and **ne** are similar to **poi** and **noi** but connect nouns to nouns:

lo penbi pe mi cu xunre

A pen that is mine is red. (mine is essential to identifying the pen in question)

lo penbi ne mi cu xunre

A pen, which is mine, is red. (additional information)

```
ne = non-restrictive relative clause. "which is associated with, about ... (noun follows)

pe = restrictive relative clause. "that is associated with, about ... (noun follows)"
```

be and pe

Notice that relative clauses are attached to nouns whereas **be** connects to the verb that is transformed into a noun afterwards.

Actually, **lo bangu pe mi** is a better translation of *my language*, since this clause, like the English, is vague as to how the two are associated with each other.

However, you can say **lo birka be mi** as *my arm*. Even if you saw off your arm, it'll still be yours. That's why **birka** has a place of the owner:

```
birka = x_1 is an arm of x_2
```

Notice that **be** attaches to the verb word. But **pe**, **ne**, **poi** and **noi** are attached to nouns. For example,

lo melbi be mi cukta pe lo pendo cu barda

The beautiful to me book of my friend is big.

Here, **be mi** is applied only to the verb melbi = to be beautiful to ... (someone). But pe lo pe ho pe is applied to the whole noun lo pe mi pe cukta = the beautiful to me book.

"She is a teacher" and "She is the teacher"

In English the verb *is, are, to be* makes a noun work like a verb in English. In Lojban even such concepts as *cat* (**mlatu**), *person* (**prenu**), *house* (**dinju**), *home* (**zdani**) work like verbs by default. Only pronouns work as nouns.

However, here is an example:

le nakni cu ctuca

He teaches.

le nakni cu me lo ctuca

He is a teacher.

He is among those who are teachers. [literally]

le nakni cu du lo ctuca

He is the teacher.

```
\mathbf{me} = to \ be \ among ..., to be one of ..., to be a member of ... (noun follows) 
 <math>\mathbf{du} = to \ be \ identical \ to ...
```

The particle **me** takes a noun after it and shows that there are probably other teachers, and he is one of them.

However, when using the verb du we mean that he is, for example, the teacher we have been searching for or talking about.

me is also used to transform pronouns and personal names into verbs:

```
me mi verba = my child
tu me mi verba = this is my child
```

mi is a pronoun by itself. We turned it into a verb word: **me mi**. Then used it in the compound verb: **me mi verba** - *my child*. **lo** and **me** have opposite functions.

Similarly, **me mi'ai** means to be one of us, to be among us

xu do djica lo nu do me mi'ai

Do you want to be one of us?

Thus **me** and **du** can sometimes reflect what in English we use the verb to be/is/was for.

In Lojban we first rely on the meaning of what we need to say, not necessarily on how it is literally said in English or other languages.

Other examples:

mi me la bond

I am Bond.

mi du la .kevin.

I am Kevin. (the one you needed)

ti du la .alis. noi mi ta'e zgana bu'u lo panka

This is Alice, whom I often see in the park.

la jasmin poi du lo pendo be la .kevin. cu vi zvati

Jasmine, who is Kevin's friend, is here.

noi du and **poi du** are typically used in Lojban to introduce alternate names for something. So they correspond to English *namely, i.e.*:

la .alis. cu penmi la xumske fanza noi du la .djang.

Alice met 'Chemistry Annoyance', namely Zhang.

Prepositions inside nouns

We can place a tense not only before the main verb of a clause but at the end of it giving the same result:

mi ca tcidu

mi tcidu ca

I (now read).

tcidu = to read (some text)

When using **nu** we create a clause. Notice, the difference between these two examples:

lo nu tcidu ca cu nandu

The current reading is complicated, difficult.

lo nu tcidu cu ca nandu

The reading is now complicated.

Other examples:

mi klama lo cmana pu

I went to a mountain.

I go to a mountain (in past). [literally]

lo nu mi klama lo cmana pu cu pluka

That I went to a mountain is pleasant.

When not using **nu** we don't have clauses. Nouns start with **lo** and end in its verb (like a single or a compound verb). Thus we can insert prepositions to nouns only before that verb:

lo pu kunti tumla ca purdi

What was a desert is now a garden. (approximate translation)

So **pu** belongs to **lo kunti tumla** and **ca** belongs to **purdi** (as **lo pu kunti tumla** can't add **ca** in the end).

This doesn't contradict with using **be** after the verb since with **be** you change the verb: **bangu be mi** is considered one verb.

Placing prepositions <u>after</u> the main verbs binds them to outer verbs:

lo kunti tumla pu purdi means

The desert was a garden.

New nouns from places of the same verb

do dunda ti mi

You give this to me.

dunda = to give (some gift).

Note: *gift* here is anything given without payment or exchange — it doesn't need to have the 'special present' associations of the English word).

Conversion is a way to swap the places round in the verb and thus change the place structure. We can reclause the clause above and say

ti se dunda do mi

This is given by you to me.

do dunda ti mi means exactly the same as ti se dunda do mi! The difference is solely in style.

You may want to change things around for different emphasis (people tend to mention the more important things in a sentence first). So the following pairs mean the same thing:

mi viska do

I see you.

do se viska mi

You are seen by me.

lo nu mi tadni la .lojban. cu xamgu mi

My study of Lojban is good for me.

xamgu = to be good for (someone)

mi se xamgu lo nu mi tadni la .lojban.

For me it's good to study Lojban.

As we remember, when we add lo in front of a verb it becomes a noun. So lo **dunda** means something(s) which could fit in the first place of **dunda**.

lo dunda = *a giver, a donor, a donator*

As **dunda** actually means not just *to give* but *to donate* (*something*) it defines that the noun after it (the second argument) is actually something that is given.

Well, therefore it's a gift.

In Lojban we don't need a separate word for a gift. It's much easier.

If a verb word has the second argument you can prefix it with se and it will refer to the second place of that verb:

It's just

lo se dunda = something that is given, a gift

For the ease of understanding and memorizing predicate words prefixed with **se** are put into the dictionary as well together with their definitions although you can easily figure out their meaning yourself.

So you don't have to memorize numerous interconnected words. Lojban is much easier. We save a lot of words because of such clever design.

Indeed, we can't imagine a gift without implying that someone gave it or will give it. When phenomena are connected Lojban reflects this.

Changing other places in main verbs

se is part of a series of particles which go, in alphabetical order, **se**, **te**, **ve**, **xe**. Like a lot of these series, the first one (**se**) is used a lot more than the others, but sometimes the others are useful.

- se changes round the first and second places
- te changes round the first and third places
- ve, the first and fourth, and
- xe, the first and fifth.

le nakni cu zbasu lo stizu lo mudri

He made a chair out of wood.

zbasu = x_1 builds, makes x_2 out of x_3 **lo stizu** = *a chair, chairs* lo mudri = wood

lo mudri cu te zbasu lo stizu le nakni

Wood is the material the chair is made of by him.

The **le nakni** has now moved to the third place in the sentence, and can now be dropped out without being missed if we are too lazy to specify who made the chair or we just don't know who made it:

lo mudri cu te zbasu lo stizuWood is the material of the chair.

The more extreme conversions like **ve** and **xe** are rarely used, partly because most verb words only have two or three places, and partly because even with four- or five-place verbs, the less-used places are less needed in ordinary speech.

Similarly to our example with **lo se dunda** (a gift) we can use **te, ve, xe** to get more words from other places of verbs.

lo prenu cu dunda lo cukta miA person gives a book to me.

lo prenu can also be **lo dunda** — the giver. But what about the noun describing **mi** and **lo cukta**? Well, you probably guessed.

mi te dunda lo cukta

This means that **mi** can be **lo te dunda** — the recipient. In the same way, **lo cukta** can be **lo se dunda** — the gift or the thing given. So if we want to make a really obvious sentence, we can say

lo dunda cu dunda lo se dunda lo te dunda

The donor gives the gift to the recipient.

The giver gives the given-thing to the person-to-whom-it-is-given. [literally]

Free word order. Prepositions for places

Usually we don't need all the places of a verb, so we can omit the unnecessary ones by replacing them with **zo'e**. However, we can use *place tags* - special prepositions to explicitly refer to a needed place.

mi prami do is the same as fa mi prami fe do

- **fa** refers to the first place of a verb (x1)
- **fe** to the second place (x2)
- **fi** to the second place (x3)
- **fo** to the second place (x4)
- **fu** to the second place (x5)

More examples:

klama = x_1 goes to x_2 from x_3

fi marks lo tcadu as the third place of klama (the origin of movement). Without fi, the sentence would turn into **mi klama lo tcadu** meaning *I go to the city*.

mi pinxe fi lo kabri is the same as mi pinxe zo'e lo kabri

I drink [something] from a cup.

pinxe = x_1 drinks x_2 from x_3

mi tugni zo'e lo nu vitke lo rirni

mi tugni fi lo nu vitke lo rirni

I agree [with someone] about visiting parents.

tugni = x_1 agrees with someone x_2 about x_3 (event)

With place tags we can move places around:

fe lo cukta cu dunda fi lo nanlaThe book was given to a boy.

dunda = x_1 gives the gift x_2 to x_3

Here

- **lo cukta** = *the book*, the second place of **dunda**, what is given
- **lo nanla** = *a boy*, the third place of **dunda**, the recipient.

Extensive use of place tags can make our speech harder to perceive but they allow for more freedom.

be allows using place tags too by placing them after **be**:

lo dunda fi lo nanla cu pendo mi

The one who give something to a boy is my friend.

Unlike **se** series using place tags like **fa** doesn't change the place structure.

Another option in placing nouns is that we can put all the nouns of one main verb in front of the verb (preserving their relative order). Because of this freedom we can say:

mi do prami which is the same asmi prami do

I love you.

ko kurji ko is the same as ko ko kurji

Take care of yourself.

The following clauses are also equal in meaning:

mi dunda lo plise do

I give the apple to you.

mi lo plise cu dunda do

I the apple give to you.

mi lo plise do dunda

I the apple to you give.

Infinitives

Infinitives are verbs that are often prefixed with "to" in English. Examples include "I like to run" with "to run" being the infinitive.

lo mlatu cu djica lo ka pinxe

The cat wants to drink.

The particle **ka** works much like **nu** but it indicates that the noun on the left does or would do the action following ka. It makes the first noun of the outer verb (djica in this case) also the first noun of the embedded verb started by ka (pinxe in this case) so you don't have to repeat this noun the second time.

Thus we can rewrite the sentence as

lo mlatu cu djica lo nu lo mlatu cu pinxe
The cat wants that the cat drinks [literally]

The first translation sounds more natural and compact so using **ka** is preferred in such case.

Another example with a pronoun in the place of the first noun

mi djica lo ka pinxe

I want to drink.

or

mi djica lo nu mi pinxe

I want that I drink [literally]

Again the first sentence looks smarter.

As for *I want you to drink* it's simple **mi djica lo nu do pinxe**. First pronouns of **djica** differs from the one from **pinxe** so we can't use **ka** here.

It is also possible to use **ka** when we usually don't use infinitive in English

mi gleki lo ka jinga *I'm glad of winning.*

which is the same as

mi gleki lo nu mi jinga

I'm glad that I won.

zo'e and da

zo'e can denote different things every time:

zo'e tavla zo'e zo'e

Someone talk to someone about something or someone.

which in the correct context might actually mean:

My friend talks to his father about his girlfriend.

 ${f da}$ means something/someone that exists. Usually it is translated as There is something/someone that ...

mi tavla da

There is someone I talk to.

tavla = x_1 talks to x_2 about x_3

But there is an important rule: if you use da the second time in the same sentence it always means the same thing as the first da.

da tavla da

Someone talk to themselves.

da tavla da da

Someone talk to themselves about themselves.

This is its difference from **zo'e**.

"To have"

The English verb to have has several meanings.

birka mi

Something is an arm of me

I have an arm.

birka = x_1 is an arm of x_2

mi cortu lo birka be mi

I feel pain in my arm.

My arm hurts.

cortu = x_1 feels pain in part of body x_2

If you keep a dog at home:

mi ralte lo gerku

I keep a dog., I have a dog.

mi ralte lo karce

I have a car.

ralte = x_1 keeps x_2 in their possesion

If you possess something according to some law or documents you should use **ponse**:

mi ponse lo vi bakni lo vi se ciska

I own this cow according to what is written here.

```
ponse = x_1 owns x_2 according to the law/document/custom x_3 vi = preposition: near ...
```

By default without a noun after it or with **zo'e** means *here* (i.e. *near this place*).

We can use **lo me mi birka** — *my arm*, **lo me mi gerku** — *my dog* using compound verbs, of course. This section just describes more precise ways of expressing such things in Lojban by using where appropriate the place structure of verbs (like in the example with **lo birka be mi**) or using specific verbs like **ralte**.

For expressing family relationship we use a very simple strategy in Lojban:

da bruna mi

mi se bruna da

Someone is my brother.

I have a brother.

There is someone who is a brother of me. [literally]

So we don't need the verb "to have" to denote such relationship. The same for other family members:

da mamta mi or mi se mamta da = I have a mother.
da patfu mi or mi se patfu da = I have a father.
da mensi mi or mi se mensi da = I have a sister.
da panzi mi or mi se panzi da = I have a child (or children).

Lesson 3. Questions. Quoting. Interjections

Content questions



lo ninmu a woman (female human)



lo nanmu a man (male human)

English also has a number of wh- questions — who, what etc. In Lojban we use one word for all of these: ma. This is like an instruction to fill in the missing place. For example:

- do klama ma
- la .london.
- Where are you going?
- London.
- ma klama la .london.
- la .kevin.
- Who's going to London?
- Kevin.
- mi dunda ma do
- lo cukta
- I give what to you? (probably meaning What was it I was supposed to be giving you?)
- The book.

It is quite common to restrict **ma** with relative clauses:

- do xabju ma poi gugde lo gugde'usu
 In what country do you live? USA
 You inhabit what that is a country? USA [literally]

xabju = to inhabit (some place)

Combining prepositions or relative clauses with **ma** can give us other useful questions:

word	meaning	[literally]
ca ma	When?	during what
bu'u ma	Where?	at what
ma poi prenu	Who?	what that is a person
ma poi dacti	What? (about objects)	what that is an object
se ja'e ma	Why?	because of what
pe ma	Whose? Which? About what?	pertaining to what or whom
lo mlatu poi mo Which cat? Which kind of cat?		

pe ma is attached only to nouns:

lo penbi pe ma cu zvati lo jubme Whose pen is on the table?

mo is like **ma**, but questions the main verb, not a noun — it's like English *What does* x *do?* or *What* is x? (remember, Lojban doesn't force you to distinguish between being and doing!) We can see **mo** as asking someone to describe the relationship between the nouns in the question.

— do mo— How do you do? What's up?— You are what, you do what? (literally) This is the most common way of asking How do you do?, Howdy? in Lojban. The answer might be: - **mi gleki** - I'm happy. — mi kanro — I'm healthy.

Another way of asking *How do you do?*:

— do cinmo lo ka mo — How are you? How do you feel

```
(emotionally)?

— gleki — Happy.

— tatpi — Tired.
```

cinmo = to feel (some event)

Another example:

```
do mo la .kevin.
What are you to Kevin?
You ??? Kevin. [literally]
```

The answer depends on the context. Possible answers to this question are:

• **nelci**: I like him.

• **pendo**: I am his friend

• prami: I adore/am in love with him.

• **xebni**: I hate him.

• **fengu**: I'm angry with him.

• cinba: I kissed him

Note once again that the time is not important here: just as **cinba** can mean *kiss, kissed, will kiss* and so on, **mo** does not ask a question about any particular time.

We've said that **mo** can also be a *What is* ... type of question. The simplest example is **tu mo** — *What is this?* You could also ask **la** .**meilis**. **cu mo**, which could mean *Who is Mei Li?*, *What is Mei Li?*, *What is Mei Li doing?* and so on. Again, the answer depends on the context. For example:

• ninmu: She's a woman.

• jungo: She's Chinese.

• pulji: She's a policewoman.

• **sanga**: She's a singer or She's singing.

• melbi: She's beautiful. (possibly a pun, since this is what meili means in Chinese!)

There are ways to be more specific, but these normally involve a **ma**-question; for example **la** .**meilis.** cu gasnu ma (*Mei Li does what?*).

Number questions

The word **xo** means *How many?* and thus asks for a number.

lo xo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

How many cats drink milk?

The answer might be:

mu

Five.

The full answer will be:

lo mu mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

5 cats drink milk.

So the person being asked is supposed to put an appropriate value in place of **xo**.

A few more examples:

lo xo botpi cu kunti

How many of the bottles are empty?

lo xo prenu cu klama ti

How many people come here?

do viska lo xo sonci

How many soldiers do you see?

Indirect questions

mi djuno lo du'u ma kau tadni la .lojban.

I know who is studying Lojban.

This is called an indirect question. The word *who* in that statement is not a request for information, there's no question mark, and the question word is not stressed. In fact you yourself know the answer to the question *Who* is *learning Lojban?*

kau is an interjection that you put after a question word telling that its an indirect question.

If I ask you the question **ma tadni la .lojban.**, you know what value to fill in the **ma** slot with: **la .kevin.** So you could just say

mi djuno lo du'u la .kevin. cu tadni la .lojban.

This all means that **mi djuno lo du'u <u>ma</u> tadni la .lojban.** can never be an indirect question: it is asking for an answer (even if you're doing it rhetorically).

You can put it after other question words:

mi djuno lo du'u lo xo kau prenu cu tadni la .lojban.

I know how many people study Lojban.

Other examples:

ma tadni la .lojban.

Who is studying Lojban?

By the same token,

mi djica lo nu ma tadni la .lojban.

Who do I want to study Lojban?

I want who to study Lojban? [literally]

And

mi pu cusku lo se du'u ma tadni la .lojban.

Who did I say is studying Lojban?

I said who is studying Lojban? [literally]

mi djuno lo du'u makau tadni la .lojban.

I know who is studying Lojban. I know the identity of the person studying Lojban.

sei: comments to the text

The particle **sei** allows to insert into a clause a comment about our attitude about what is said in that clause:

do jinga sei mi gleki

You won! (I'm happy about that!)

However:

do jinga sei la .ian. cu gleki

You won! (And Yan is happy about that!)

Like with nouns formed with **lo** the clause formed with **sei** must end in a verb. So we put all its nouns before the verb or glue them into the main verb with **be** and **bei**:

la .alis. cu prami sei la .bob. cu gleki la .kevin.

Let's add brackets to make it more easily readable.

la .alis. cu prami (sei la .bob. cu gleki) la .kevin.

Alice loves (Bob is happy) Kevin.

Alice loves Kevin (Bob is happy).

With **be**:

do jinga sei manci be mi

You won! (this amazed me)

sei is also useful for quoting text:

f mi prami la .mark. sei le fetsi pu cusku I love Mark! — she said.

Ouotation marks

The opposite method of dealing with quotations is putting them into nouns by placing the word lu before the quote and placing **li'u** after it.

For example,

mi cusku lu mi prami do li'u

I say "I love you."

cusku = x_1 expresses/says x_2 (quote) to audience x_3

A nice feature of Lojban is that 'quote' and 'unquote' marks are pronounceable. They are represented by separate words: lu and li'u. It is quite handy since in spoken Lojban you don't have to change intonation to show where a quoted text starts and ends.

This sentence literally claims that John said (uttered / wrote) the quoted text. If the central claim is that John made the utterance, as is likely in conversation, this style is the most sensible.

However, in written text which quotes a conversation, you don't want the he said or she said to be considered part of the conversation. If unmarked, it could confuse speakers and listeners what le nakni, le fetsi or le prenu refer to. In such cases it's better to use sei.

You can also nest quotations, e.g.

la .ian. pu cusku lu la .djein. pu cusku lu coi li'u mi li'u

Yan said "Jane said 'Hello' to me."

which is similar to

la .ian. pu cusku lu la .djein. pu rinsa mi li'u

Yan said "Jane greeted me."

Lojban is very careful to distinguish between words for things, and the things themselves. So you can't speak about the clause "the universe") in the same way you speak about the universe itself. To give a silly example, the clause **lo munje** is small, but the universe itself is not. To distinguish between the two in Lojban, you need to use quotation:

lu lo munje li'u cu cmalu

'The universe' is small (a small text).

lo munje na cmalu

The universe is not small.

lo munje = the universe, world

Tip: **lu** ... **li'u** is intended to quote grammatical pieces of Lojban — ideally, entire sentences, rather than individual words. For smaller chunks of Lojban, which do not necessary make sense in isolation, the proper quotation words are instead lo'u... le'u, the 'error quotes'. For example, ro lo mi pendo cu klama makes sense in Lojban as a sentence, and can be enclosed in **lu ... li'u**. But if you want to say what goes before pendo in the sentence, ro lo mi does not make that much sense on its own. So you would quote that sentence fragment, not as **lu ro lo mi li'u**, but as **lo'u ro lo mi le'u**.

Interjections and vocatives work like **sei** constructs:

.ui mi jinga sei le nakni cu cusku Yippee, "I won", he said.

As you can see .ui is not his words. It's your attitude to the clause. If you want to guote ".ui mi jinga" use quotation marks getting:

lu .ui mi jinga li'u se cusku le nakni

"Yippee, I won", he said.

See the difference between the two examples?

Now several verbs related to talking:

```
cusku = x_1 expresses/says x_2 (quote) to audience x_3

retsku = x_1 asks x_2 (quote) to audience x_3

spusku = x_1 replies/says answer x_2 (quote) to audience x_3
```

As you can see all of those verbs have the same place structure so it's easy to remember them. And here are some more verbs:

```
spuda = x_1 replies to x_2 by doing x_3

tavla = x_1 talks/speaks to x_2 about subject x_3 in language x_4

ciska = x_1 write x_2 on x_3 (surface/paper...)
```

Note the different place structures of **cusku**, **tavla** and **ciska**.

- With **cusku** the emphasis is on communication; what is communicated is more important than who it is communicated to. Quotes in e-mails frequently start with **do cusku di'e** (**di'e** is a particle that means 'the following') as the Lojban equivalent of *You wrote*.
- With **tavla** the emphasis is rather more on the social act of talking: you can **tavla** about nothing in particular.
- ciska places more emphasis on the physical act of writing.

le fetsi pu retsku lu do klama ma li'u

She asked "Where do you go?"

mi pu spusku lu mi klama lo zdani li'u

I replied "I am going home."

mi pu spuda lo se retsku be le fetsi lo ka spusku lu mi klama lo zdani li'u

I replied to her question by saying in reply "I am going home."

Indirect quotations (reported speech)

A clause like *Alice said "Robin said "Hello" to me*". can also be expressed in a rather more subtle way:

la .alis. pu cusku zo'e pe lo nu la .robin. pu rinsa le fetsi

Alice said something about Robin greeting her before.

Alice said something about the event of Robin greeted her.

[literally]

or a bit shorter:

la .alis. pu cusku lo se du'u la .robin. pu rinsa le fetsi

Alice said that Robin had greeted her.

What is this **se du'u**? This combination allows us to express indirect speech.

Here are the examples of verbs related to talking when using reported speech:

le fetsi pu retsku lo sedu'u mi klama makau

She asked where I was going.

mi pu spusku lo sedu'u mi klama lo zdani

I replied that I was going home.

mi pu spuda lo se retsku be le fetsi lo ka spusku lo sedu'u mi klama lo zdani

I replied to her question by saying in reply that I was going home.

Simple **du'u** is used in Lojban in some places of verbs instead of **nu**, e.g.:

djuno = x_1 knows x_2 (du'u, fact) about x_3 by reasoning x_4

mi djuno lo du'u do stati

It's not a mistake to use **nu** instead of **du'u** but it is recommended to use **du'u** if the dictionary says **du'u** should go in that place. But what is the difference between them?

Lojban has different words for *that...*, depending on what sort of thing is meant.

- If that introduces something that happened, use **nu**. (Events can be subdivided more finely yet, but for now let's not complicate matters even more than necessary).
- If that introduces something that you think, use du'u. This is how you can guess where to put nu and where to put du'u.
- If that introduces something that you say, use **se du'u**. But if it's a literal quote use **lu ... li'u**.

zo — quoting one word

zo is a quotation marker, just like **lu**. However, **zo** quotes <u>only one</u> word immediately after it. This means it does not have an unquote word like li'u: we already know where the quotation ends. Thus we save two syllables making our speech more concise.

zo robin cmene mi

Robin is my name.

My name is Robin.

Oh yes, this is how you present yourself in Lojban using your Lojbanized name. Of course, if you have a name consisting of more than one verb word then use lu ... li'u.

lu robin djonson li'u cmene mi

Robin Johnson is my name.

Another way is to use **me**.

mi me la robin djonson I'm Robin Johnson.

Emotional interjections

Sometimes **sei** with its clause is too lengthy for expressing a simple attitude. That's why in Lojban there are short particles called *interjections*, or attitudinal indicators. They work as **sei** with their clauses. The most basic ones consist of two vowels, sometimes with an apostrophe in the middle.

There are more than 50 interjections. Each of them corresponds to a different emotional state. So in Lojban we can be very specific about our emotions still remaining concise in our speech.

For example .ui (pronounced as English "we") expresses happiness and means the same as sei mi **gleki** so we instead of

do jinga sei mi glekiYou won! (I'm happy about that!)

we can just say an equivalent phrase:

do jinga .uiYou won! (I'm happy about that!)

Like with **xu** or **sei**-clauses we can add interjections after any noun, pronoun or verb thus expressing our attitude towards that part of the sentence.

Here are some of the most useful interjections with examples:

Urging interjections.

I wonder what is that. Hm, what is that?

```
.a'u = interest ("Hm ...")
```

.au do kanro

I wish you were healthy.

```
.au (pronounced as in how) = desire
```

.aunai mi klama lo ckule

I don't want to go to school.

.aunai = reluctance

.a'o do clira volve

I hope you return early.

.a'o = I hope.

.e'a do nerkla

You may come in.

.e'a = permission (like in "I allow you...")

.e'i mi ca cliva

I have to leave now.

.e'i do gunka

You have to work.

.e'i = constraint

.e'o mi ciksi da poi mi cusku djica

Please, let me explain what I want to say.

.e'o = request (Please ...)

.e'u do pinxe lo jisra

I suggest that you drink the juice. You'd better drink the juice.

.e'u = suggestion

.ei mi ciska lo xatra

I should write a letter.

```
.ei as in h\underline{e}\underline{v} = obligation ("I should ...")
```

Attitude interjections.

```
.ai as in high = intent ("I'm going to...")
.ia like German Ja = belief
.i'e = approval
.i'enai = disapproval
.ie like yeah = agreement
.ienai = disagreement
.ii = fear (Think of Eeek!)
.io = respect

.o'u tu mlatu
Oh, that's only a cat.
(relaxation!) that is a cat. [literally]
```

In this case you probably thought that was something dangerous but it's only a cat so you are saying .o'u.

```
.o'u = relaxation
.oi as in boy = complaint/pain
.oinai = pleasure
.u'e = wonder (like in Wow!)
.u'i = amusement
.u'u = repentance (Sorry, I'm sorry!)
.ua as in waah!, or French quoi = discovery. Eureka! Ah, I get it!
.uanai = confusion. I don't get it, Duh...
```

lo mlatu .ue cu pinxe lo ladru

```
A cat (wow, how unexpected!) is drinking milk.
A cat (surprise!) is drinking milk. [literally]
```

```
.ue as in question = surprise.uenai = not a surprise, as expected
```

.ui do jinga

Yay, you won!

```
.ui like <u>we</u>, or French <u>oui</u> = Yay! (interjection of happiness) .uinai = Unfortunately .uo as in quote = Voila! (interjection of completion) .uu as in woo = pity
```

In English the word pity is often connected with the feeling of superiority which would be **.uu ga'i** — pity combined with a sense of superiority, or **.uu vu'e** — pity combined with a sense of virtue.

je'u = Yes, it's true
je'unai = No, it's false, not true
ba'a = expectation
ba'acu'i = I experience
ba'anai = I remember

Less frequent interjections can be searched in the dictionary that also shows the meaning when **cu'i** or **nai** is attached to them.

Note that any word that starts with a vowel is prefixed with a dot in Lojban. So the correct spelling is **.ui** and so on. In writing many Lojbanists often omit dots. We will do this later in this course for brevity. However, while speaking you should always show this dot by making a short pause before saying such word to prevent merging two neighboring words together into one.

In Lojban word two vowels together are pronounced as one sound:

- ullet if the first of two vowels is $oldsymbol{.u}$ it is pronounced as $oldsymbol{w}$
- if the first of two vowels is .i it is pronounced as y in yes
- if the last of two vowels is .i it is pronounced as y in hey
- but .ui is pronounced as like we in English

This is also shown in the table above. Vowel combinations are pronounced in such a way even if this combination of vowels is a part of another word, e.g. **.uiski** means "whisky" and can be pronounced as "weeh-skeeh" just like in English.



While being photographed instead of "cheese" say **.ui** (sounds like English "we"). It means *I'm happy* in Lojban and produces the best smile due to its special sounding.

Interjections are short but not always as powerful as "sei plus its clause". E.g.

sei mi'ai gleki do jinga

How we are happy, you won!

can't be expressed using interjections, although in simpler cases it's possible:

sei mi gleki do jinga = .ui do jinga

(.ui always describes the attitude of the one who says it).

sei do gleki le prenu cu jinga = .uidai le prenu cu jinga

Intensity of interjections

- When we put **nai** after an interjection we turn it into its opposite.
- When we put **cu'i** after an interjection we turn it into the middle attitude.

The emotion is turned into its opposite by adding **nai**, so **.ui** is an interjection of happiness while **.uinai** means *I'm unhappy*, and so on. This is unlike verbs and nouns where **nai** just means *not*. By adding **cu'i** we create an emotion in the middle. Not all interjections are meaningful with **cu'i**. One of the most used ones is **.a'ucu'i** — *no interest* (while **.aunai** denotes repulsion).

You can divide up the continuum even more finely. If you want to say that you have an only weak attitude, you can add the particle **ru'e** to the corresponding interjection. **sai** is used for expressing strong degree of an attitude. Extremely strong attitude is **cai**. This gives you a seven-part scale:

cai > sai > (nothing) > ru'e > cu'i > nai ru'e > nai > nai sai > nai cai

So for instance, if you want to say *Eh. That's cool*, you'd say **.a'ucu'i**. If you want to say *That is really gross!*, you'd say **.a'unaisai**. And if you want to say *Oh my God, that is the most interesting thing in the world since the very invention of Lojban!* then you would say **.a'ucai**. **cai** is used very seldom as strong emotions happen rarely.

Interjections are extremely useful, and it is well worth making an effort to learn the most common ones. One of the biggest problems people have when trying to speak in a foreign language is that, while they've learnt how to say simple clauses like **mi klama lo cmana** (*I go to a mountain*), they can't express feelings, because many languages do this in a round-about way. In Lojban you can be very direct, very briefly (there are ways of 'softening' these emotions, which we'll get to in a later lesson). In fact, these interjections are so useful that some Lojbanists use them even when they're writing in English instead of those internet smileys — symbols like ;-) or :-(and others.

Empathy in interjections

• When we put dai after an interjection we show listener's attitude.

.o'adai do jinga You must be proud since you won.

A common pitfall to avoid is trying to specify whose attitude the interjections express. The reason interjections are so simple is that they express direct emotional or attitudinal responses — gut reactions, without making any fine distinctions like whose attitude is involved. The reaction is always taken to be the speaker's. So .ui do cliva means that you're happy that someone else is leaving, just like You're leaving — Yay! does. If you wanted to say that the someone else is happy, not you, then you wouldn't say Yay! at all. Instead, you'd say something like You must be happy you're leaving. The same goes in Lojban: if you're relaying someone else's responses, not your own, then that's what the clause are there for.

You wouldn't likely make this mistake for .ui. But .ei (expresses obligation) is the worst offender. .ei mi cliva means I should leave. But .ei do cliva doesn't necessarily mean You ought to leave. It's more like I feel the obligation for you to leave. I can say this if I want you gone while you're making yourself comfortable — but not if you've remembered you've got to be somewhere else, while I'd want nothing more than for you to stick around.

The temptation to use interjections for others' reactions is strong enough, in fact, that there are a couple of ways of getting around it. If you add the modifier dai, you're saying that the emotion is someone else's, and that you are empathizing with them. If .a'u is *That's interesting!*, .a'u dai is more like *That must have been interesting for you!* If you add the modifier **se'i**, you say that you feel the emotion for yourself. If you add se'i nai, then, you say that you feel it for someone else: .uise'inai is pretty much I'm happy for you!

Questions in interjections

.iepei lo ninmu cu melbi

Do you agree the the woman is pretty?

pei = interjection: what is your attitude?

- When we put **pei** after an interjection we turn it into a question.

 - pei lo lunra cu crino
 ienai
 The moon is green (what is your attitude?)
 I disagree.

As **pei** can act as an interjection modifier you can use .iepei, pe'ipei to ask question but in this case the listener will be forced to use .ie, .iecu'i, .ienai, pe'i etc. when replying.

• **pei** can be used on its own like **xu** (not after an interjection). **pei** is a question interjection more general than xu. When using pei you don't force the speaker to reply with only je'u or je'unai.

Most suitable interjections in reply are .ie (I agree) and .ienai (I disagree), pe'i (In my opinion it's true), although je'u and "je'unai are fine too.

If you want to use an interjection and **pei** as a full interjection together put **pei** before the interjection so that it doesn't modify it:

pei .u'i lo mlatu cu sutra plipe

(What do you feel?) Heh, the cat is quickly jumping.

Combining interjections

We can combine interjections:

.iu .uinai

I am unhappily in love.

.ue .ui do jinga

Oh, you won! I'm so happy!

jinga = to win.

In this case the victory was unprobable, I'm surprised and happy at the same time.

Forgot to put an interjection at the beginning?

What if we forgot to add .ui at the beginning of this clause. In

do pu sidju mi .ui

.ui modifies only the pronoun mi putting the attitude only to me.

Now let's close the clause with **vau** and then put the interjection:

do pu sidju mi vau .ui You helped me, yay!

vau = particle. Shows that the clause just ended

More vocatives

Vocatives exist to manage our conversations: to make someone pay attention to our turn, to butt in before it is our turn, to signal that a conversation is beginning or ending, and so on.

Here are some more rare vocatives:

- co'oi is the greeting/parting word much like Italian ciao: it corresponds to Hello / Bye.
- ju'i Hey!, with which you draw someone's attention, and
- **fi'i** *Welcome! At your service!*, with which you offer hospitality or a service. (It's what you say to a visitor; you wouldn't say it over the phone, for instance, unless your addressee is calling from the airport and is on their way over).
- **ki'e** *Thank you* and the appropriate response is *not* **fi'i** (*You're welcome* doesn't mean you're being visited by some guests), but the simple acknowledgement **je'e**.
- **je'e** corresponds to *Roger!* in radio-speak, and *right* or *uh-uh* in normal English: it confirms that you've received a message. If you haven't, you say **je'enai** instead (of course); in normal English, that would be *Beg your pardon?* or *Huh?*
- In case you haven't received the message clearly, you can explicitly ask for the speaker to repeat whatever they said with **ke'o**.
- Similarly, **be'e** signals a request to send a message (*Hello? Are you there?*), and **re'i** indicates that you are ready to receive a message. It's what you say when you pick up the phone which in English also happens to be *Hello?*, but in Italian is *Pronto* or *Ready!*
- **mu'o** is what you say when you explicitly make it another speaker's turn to speak: it's the *Over!* of radio.
- vi'o acknowledges a request, and promises to carry it out: in radio talk this is Wilco!, and in normal English OK or All right, I will (or for that matter, Consider it done!)

Vocatives take nouns after them. However, the rule is that you can drop **lo** making it more vague:

```
coi gleki
Hello, friends!
can mean both
coi lo gleki — Hello, a happy one or
coi la gleki — Hello, Happy (a personal name) depending on context.
```

If you use the vocative on its own (without a noun after it) and the sentence is not finished yet then you need to separate it from the rest, because the things likeliest to follow the vocative in a sentence could easily be misconstrued as describing your addressee. Use the word **do** for that. For example,

```
coi do la .alis. la .meilis. pu cliva

Hello! Alice left Mei Li.

Hello you! Alice left Mei Li [literally]

coi la .alis. la .meilis. pu cliva

Hello, Alice! Ranjeet's just left.
```

And if you want to put both vocatives and interjections modifying the whole sentence please put

interjections first:

.ui coi do la .alis. la .meilis. pu cliva

Yay, Hello! Alice left Mei Li.

Note that in the beginning of sentences usually interjections are put before vocatives because

coi .ui do la .alis. la .meilis. pu cliva

means

Hello (I'm happy about this greeting) you! Alice left Mei Li.

So an interjection immediately after a vocative modifies that vocative. Similarly, interjection modifies the vocative noun when being put after it:

coi do .ui la .alis. la .meilis. pu cliva

Hello you (I'm happy about you)! Alice left Mei Li.

Lesson 4. Practice

Dialogue: First meeting

Now we know about so many things that we can start talking.

coi la .Alis.

Hi, Alice!

 $\mathbf{coi} - \mathit{Hello}$, $\mathbf{la} - \mathit{shows}$ that a name follows. Capital letter in **.Alis.** is used for stylistic purposes.

coi la .Mark.

Hi, Mark!

do mo?

How are you?

do = you, do mo - you are what? what can you say about yourself?,

the question mark is an addition for stylistic purposes only

mi kanro .i mi bredi lo ka tavla

I'm healthy. And I'm ready to talk.

mi = I, kanro = to be healthy, .i — separates sentences,bredi = to be ready, tavla = to talk

xamgu .i ma tcima ca lo bavlamdei?

Good. What will be the weather tomorrow?

xamgu = to be good, ma = what?, tcima =
weather, ca — at (some time), lo bavlamdei =
tomorrow

mi na djuno .i lo solri sei mi pacna

I don't know. It'll be sunny, I hope.

na = not true that, djuno = to know,
lo solri = the sun, sei — discursive
comment, pacna = to hope

mi jimpe

I understand.

jimpe = to understand

co'o

Goodbye.

The whole dialogue once again:

coi la .Alis.

coi la .Mark.

do mo?

mi kanro .i mi bredi lo ka tavla

xamgu .i ma tcima ca lo bavlamdei?

mi na djuno .i lo solri sei mi pacna

mi jimpe

 $\mathbf{co'o}$

Spelling styles. Capital letters

Capital letters are optionally used in Lojban for stylistic purposes:

la .Alis. is the same as la .alis.

And a capital letter alone has a special meaning. It denotes the name of that letter:

A is the same as **.abu**, **B** is the same as **by.** and so on. They means the same and even are

read the same as normal **.abu**, **by.** etc.

Punctuation can also be used to help visually structure the text. However, punctuation is used only as a decoration. It doesn't add any meaning to the text.

The symbol . (dot) can be used as we use dot in English (i.e. as a punctuation mark) but its main purpose in Lojban is that it is a proper letter that denotes a pause.

Senses

You should be careful with the words for senses since in Lojban they are very powerful compared to natural languages.

```
viska = x_1 sees x_2 (form, object, color)
```

viska lo tarmi be ... = x1
sees the form of ...
(something with that form)
viska lo se skari be ... =
x1 sees the color of ...
(something with that color)

mi viska lo plise

I see an apple.

mi viska lo tarmi be lo plise i le plise cu se tarmi lo cukla

I see the form of an apple.
The apple is round.

plise = x_1 is an apple

mi viska lo se skari be lo plise i le plise cu skari lo xunre

I see the color of the apple.
The apple is colored red.

tirna = x_1 hears x_2 (sound)

tirna lo sance be ... = x1 hears the sound of ... (something that produces that sound)

mi tirna lo palta

I hear a plate

mi tirna lo sance be lo
palta poi ru'i porpi i le
palta cu se sance lo cladu
I hear the sound of a plate
that is falling. It sounds
loud.

Or we can use **cladu** and similar words

directly:

mi tirna lo cladu

I hear something loud.

mi tirna lo tolycladu

I hear something quite in sound.

mi tirna lo tonga be lo paplta

poi farlu = I hear the tone of the

plate falling down.

sumne = x_1 *smells* x_2 *(odor)*

sumne lo panci be ... =

x1 smells the odor of ...
(something with that odor)

mi smaka lo plise

I taste the apple.

mi smaka lo tasta be lo plise i le plise cu se tasta lo kukte

I taste the taste of the apple. The apple tastes sweet.

smaka = x_1 smacks, tastes x_2 (taste)

smaka lo tasta be ... = x1 *smells the taste of ...*

(something with that taste)

sumne lo plise

I smell the apple.

mi sumne lo panci be lo plise i le plise cu se panci lo xrula

I smell the odor of the apple. The apple smells of flowers.

palpi = x_1 palpates, touch-feels x_2 (surface)

palpi lo sefta be ... = x1 touch-feels the surface of ... (something with that surface)

mi palpi lo plise

I palpate, touch feel the apple.

mi palpi lo sefta be lo plise i le plise cu se sefta lo xutla

I touch feel the surface of the apple. The apple has a smooth surface. Also instead of "to see", "to smell" you can just use the vague ${f ganse}-to$ sense.

ganse = x_1 senses x_2 (object, event) by means x_3

ganse lo tarmi be ... = x1senses the form of ... (something with that form, means of sensing is unspecified)

mi ganse lo plise

I sense an apple.

mi ganse lo tarmi be lo plise i le plise cu se tarmi lo cukla

I sense the form of an apple. The apple is round.

Note that English confuses smelling some odor and smelling something that produces that odor. We say to smell an apple, the apple smells of flowers (has the scent of flowers). This two-fold distinction is important because an apple produces aromatic particles that are distinct from the apple itself. The same for a falling plate and its sound — those are different things.

In Lojban you can easily separate between those cases like shown in the examples above.

You can ask precise questions like

— do tirna ma poi sance =

What sound do you hear?

- **lo zgike** = a music
- do tirna lo sance be ma
- = You hear a sound of what?
- **lo plise poi farlu** = An apple that has fallen down.

Some words can be used with different sensory verbs. For example, you can

```
viska lo sefta = see the surface
palpi lo sefta = palpate the
surface
```

Other special feelings:

```
cortu = x_1 feels pain in x_2 (organ, part of x_1's body)
```

mi cortu lo cidni

I feel pain in my knee my knee hurts.

cidni = x_1 is a knee of x_2

```
ganse lo glare = to feel the heat
ganse lo lenku = to feel the
cold
```

Colors

gusni = x_1 (energy) is a light illuminating x_2 from the light source x_3

carmi = x_1 is

intense/bright/saturated/brilliant in property (ka) x_2

mi catlu lo xunre tsani ca lo cerni

I look at the red sky in the morning.

xunre = x_1 is red

mi viska lo narju fagri noi cokcu lo mudri

I see the orange fire, which absorbs the wood.

 $\mathbf{narju} = x_1$ is orange

lo tricu cu plexu ca lo critu

The trees are yellow in autumn.

 $\mathbf{pelxu} = x_1 \text{ is yellow}$

lo lebna lo crino plise = Take

the green apple.

crino = x_1 is green

xu lo ca tsani cu blanu

Is the sky now blue?

blanu = x_1 is blue

le fetsi cu dasni lo zirpu

taxfu

She wears a violet dress.

zirpu = x_1 is violet

Health

cortu = x_1 feels pain in x_2 (organ, part of x_1 's body)

mi cortu lo cidni

I feel pain in my knee my knee hurts.

cidni = x1 is a

knee of x2

kanro = x_1 is

healthy

bilma = x_1 is ill

or sick with

symptoms x_2 from disease x_3

 $\mathbf{mikce} = x_1 \ cures$

or treats x_2 for

disease x_3 with

medicine X₄

la zukam =

common cold

(disease)

lo influenza =

influenza, flu

glare =
$$x_1$$
 is hot
lenku = x_1 is
cold

Human body

 $\mathbf{xadni} = x_1 \text{ is } a$ $body \text{ of } x_2$ $\mathbf{rango} = x_1 \text{ is } an$ $organ \text{ of } body x_2$



Most of these words have the same place structure as **xadni**:

stedu =
$$x_1$$
 is a head of x_2

However, some describe smaller parts:

degji =
$$x_1$$
 is a finger/toe on part x_2 (hand, foot)

finger

degji lo

jamfu =

x1 is a toe

 $\mathbf{tamji} = x_i \ is \ a$

thumb or big toe on x_2 (hand, foot)

janco = x_1 is a

joint attaching limbs x_2

ctebi = x_1 is a lip

of mouth, orifice x_2

cidni = x_1 is a

knee or elbow of limb x_2

xasne = x_1 is a sweat of body x_2

Internal organs have places for their functions:

cigla = x_1 is a

gland secreting secret x_2

Kinship

Again notice the consistency in place strucre of the following verbs:

prenu = x_1 is a person (in fairy tales and fantastic stories animals and alien being from other planets can be persons)

remna = x_1 is a human

The following two words are for humans only:

$$ninmu = x_1 is a$$
 $woman$
 $nanmu = x_1 is a$
 man

The following words can be used for describing both animals and humans:

fetsi =
$$x_1$$
 is

female
nakni = x_1 is a

man

lanzu = x_1 is a

family including
 x_2

speni = x_1 is a

husband/wife of x_2

mi co'a
speni la
.suzan.
I married
Susan.

rirni = x_1 is a parent of x_2 mamta = x_1 is a mother of x_2 patfu = x_1 is a father of x_2

 $\mathbf{panzi} = x_1 \text{ is } a$ $child \text{ of } x_2$ $\mathbf{tixnu} = x_1 \text{ is } a$ $daughter \text{ of } x_2$ $\mathbf{bersa} = x_1 \text{ is } a$ $son \text{ of } x_2$

tunba = x_1 is a sibling (brother/sister) of x_2 mensi = x_1 is a sister (older/younger) of x_2 bruna = x_1 is a brother of x_2

Emotions

aged

badri =
$$x_1$$
 is sad
about x_2
gleki = x_1 is
happy about x_2
terpa = x_1 fears
 x_2
cinmo = x_1 feels
emotion x_2
nelci = x_1 likes
 x_2
prami = x_1 loves
 x_2
manci = x_1 feels
awe or wonder
about x_2
steba = x_1 feels
frustration about
 x_2
se cfipu = x_1 is
confused about
 x_2
cisma = x_1
smiles
cmila = x_1

```
fengu = x_1 is

angry about x_2

kucli = x_1 is

curious of x_2

xajmi = x_1 thinks

x_2 is funny

se zdile = x_1 is

amused by x_2

(zdile = x_1 is

amusing)

surla = x_1

relaxes (by doing x_2)
```

djica =
$$x_1$$

 $desires x_2$
pacna = x_1
 $hopes that x_2 is$
 $true$
nitcu = x_1 needs
 x_2
kakne = x_1 is
 $capable of x_2$ (**mi**
kakne lo ka
bajra = $I can$
 $run.$)

Basic notions

Movements:

zvati =
$$x_1$$
 is present at x_2

klama = x_1 goes to x_2 from x_3

ko klagau lo cukta Bring the book.

klagau = x_1 brings x_2 to x_3 from x_4

ko muvgau
lo cukta lo
cnita
Move the
book down.

muvgau = x_1 moves x_2 to x_3 from x_4 vofli = x_1 flies to x_2 from x_3 cnita = x_1 is below x_2 gapru = x_1 is above x_2 zunle = x_1 is to the left of x_2 pritu = x_1 is to the right of x_2

Basic actions:

zbasu = x1creates, makes x2 from x3 (components, raw materials) $\mathbf{jgari} = x_1 \ holds$ \mathbf{X}_2 **cpacu** = x_1 *gets* x_2 from x_3 te cpacu = x_1 gives x_2 to x_3 **dunda** = x_1 *gives* the gift x_2 to x_3 **lebna** = x_1 takes x_2 from x_3 **benji** = x_1 sends x_2 to x_3 te benji = x_1 receives x_2 to x_3 **punji** = x_1 *puts* x_2 onto x_3

Vehicles:

marce = x_1 is a vehicle carrying x_2 karce = x_1 is a car carrying x_2 bloti = x_1 is a boat carrying x_2 vinji = x_1 is an aircraft carrying x_2

trene =
$$x_1$$
 is a train of cars x_2

Body postures:

$$sanli = x_1 stands$$

$$on x_2$$

$$zutse = x_1 sits$$

$$on x_2$$

$$vreta = x_1 lies on$$

$$x_2$$

Basic things:

$$\mathbf{djacu} = x_1 is$$

$$some \ water$$

$$\mathbf{dertu} = x_1 is$$

$$some \ soil$$

$$\mathbf{xamsi} = x_1 is \ a$$

$$sea$$

$$\mathbf{terdi} = x_1 is \ the$$

$$Earth$$

$$\mathbf{tsani} = x_1 is \ the$$

$$sky$$

$$\mathbf{vacri} = x_1 is$$

$$some \ air$$

Animals and plants:

danlu =
$$x_1$$
 is an
animal
cinki = x_1 is an
insect
spati = x_1 is a

$$plant$$
 $grute = x_1 is a$
 $fruit$
 $mudri = x_1 is$
 $some\ wood$

In the shop:

$$\mathbf{vecnu} = x_1 \ sells$$
 $x_2 \ to \ x_3$
 $\mathbf{te} \ \mathbf{vecnu} = x_1$
 $buys \ x_2 \ from \ x_3$
 $\mathbf{pleji} = x_1 \ pays \ x_2$
 $to \ x_3 \ for \ x_4$
 $\mathbf{jdima} = x_1 \ is \ the$
 $price \ of \ x_2$
 $\mathbf{jdini} = x_1 \ is$
 $money$
 $\mathbf{rupnusudu} = x_1$
 $costs \ x_2 \ US$
 $dollars$
 $\mathbf{rupne'uru} = x_1$
 $costs \ x_2 \ euro$

Shop, buildings

stuzi =
$$x_1$$
 is a
place
dinju = x_1 is a
building, house
zdani = x_1 is a
home of x_2
se zdani = x_2

lives in x_2 , x_1 inhabits x_2 $\mathbf{tcadu} = x_1 \text{ is } a$

city or town **jarbu** = x_1 is a

 $suburban \ are \ of \\ city/town \ x_2$

nurma = x_1 is a rural area, x_1 is in the country

kumfa = x_1 is a

room

vikmi kumfa = x_1 is a toilet **zarci** = x_1 is a shop

Lesson 5. "They" and math

Names of letters in Lojban

Each letter has a name in Lojban.

The following table represents the basic Lojban alphabet and how to pronounce letters (below each letter):

 i
 a
 b
 c
 d
 e

 .y'y.
 .abu
 by.
 cy.
 dy.
 .ebu

 f
 g
 i
 j
 ky.
 ly.

 fy.
 gy.
 .ibu
 jy.
 ky.
 ly.

 m
 n
 o
 p
 r
 sy.

 t
 u
 v
 y
 z

 ty.
 .ubu
 yy.
 xy.
 .ybu zy.

As you can see

- to get the name for a vowel, we add "bu"
- to get the name for a consonant, we add
 "y"
- the word for '
 (apostrophe) is .y'y.

We can spell word using these names. For example, CNN will be **cy. ny. ny.**

Letters instead of "he" and "she"

Names of letters are pronouns. And we can use them for another method of referring to nouns and names earlier used in speech.

la robin cu
viska lo
mlatu i lo
mlatu cu
na'e viska
la robin
la robin cu
viska lo
mlatu i
my. na'e
viska ry.
Robin sees
a cat. The
cat doesn't
see Robin.

As the first letter in robin is r and the first letter in mlatu is m we can use names of letters to refer to nouns that we get from them. Both Lojban sentences mean the same.

So if you see a Lojban letter being used as a noun, you take it as referring to the last noun or name whose verb word (**robin** and **mlatu** in this case) starts with that letter.

Clearly, this method is more powerful than *he* or *she*.

But notice that it can happen that we'd like to refer back to, say, lo mlatu, but then before we can do so, another noun or name that starts with m appeared in the meantime, so that my. can no longer refer to the cat. The quickest way out is to repeat the entire noun or name, i.e. lo mlatu.

If a name consists of several cmevla you can use the first letters of them to refer to that name. The same is for compound verbs:

la
.djon.smit.
cu citka lo
finpe stasu
i dy.sy.
nelci fy.sy.
John Smith
is eating fish
soup. He
likes it.

If you need to put several pronouns one after another separate them with the particle **boi**:

mi klama
la paris la
moskov
I go to
Paris from
Moscow.
mi klama
py. boi my.
I go to P
from M.

The phrase **mi klama py. my.** would mean *I*go to PM which
wouldn't mean what is
needed here.

Other methods for "he", "she", "they"



lo melbibeautiful,
handsome,

pretty



lo se pluka nice, pleasant

In English we often
use such pronouns as
"they", "he", "she", "it"
in order not to repeat
the same name or
noun over and over
again.

Lojban gives us more possibilities.

- The particle ri refers to the last noun used in the discourse.
- The particle ra refers
 to one of the last
 nouns used in the
 discourse but before
 ri.

Look how we can make a story more concise by using them: la .alis. cu klama lo barja .i la .alis. ze'a pinxe lo vanju .i la .alis. cu zgana lo nanmu .i lo nanmu cu melbi .i lo nanmu cu zgana la .alis. Alice goes to the bar. Alice drinks some wine for a while. Alice notices a man. The man is

beautiful.

The man

notices

Alice.

la .alis. cu klama lo barja .i ra ze'a pinxe lo vanju .i ra zgana lo nanmu .i ri melbi .i ri zgana ra Alice goes to the bar. She drinks some wine for a while. She notices a man. He is beautiful. He notices her.

melbi means
both
handsome
and beautiful
no matter the
person of
what gender
you describe.

Another example

la .alis. cu
sipna bu'u lo
kumfa pe la
.alis.
Alice sleeps in
Alice's room.
Alice
sleeps-in
the ofAlice room.
[literally]

is turned into:

la .alis. cu
sipna bu'u lo
kumfa pe ri
Alice sleeps in
her room.
Alice
sleeps in
the room of
[last
noun].
[literally]

The **ri** is equivalent to repeating the last noun or name, which is **la**.alis. here.

Note that **ri** does not repeat **lo kumfa pe ri** (which is also a noun), because **ri** is inside that noun and therefore that noun is not yet complete when **ri** appears. This prevents **ri** from getting entangled in paradoxes of self-reference. (There are plenty of other ways to do that!)

Note also that nouns within other nouns, as in quotations, abstractions, are counted in the order of their beginnings. Thus a lower level noun like la .alis. in that last example is considered to be more recent than a higher level noun that contains it.

Most pronouns are ignored by **ri**. It is better just to repeat them directly:

mi prami mi I love me. I love myself.

However,

- the particles ti, ta,
 tu are picked up by
 ri, because you
 might have changed
 what you are
 pointing at, so
 repeating tu may
 not be effective.
- 2. likewise, ri itself (or rather it's antecedent) can be repeated by a later ri; in fact, a string of ri particles with no other intervening nouns always repeat the same noun:

.i la .alis. cu zgana lo nanmu .i ri melbi .i ri zgana

ra

Alice
notices a
man. He is
beautiful.
He notices

Here the second **ri** has as antecedent the first **ri**, which has as

her.

antecedent **lo nanmu**.
All three refer to the same thing: the man.

A vague **ra** repeats a recently used noun but before the one to which **ri** can refer. The use of **ra** forces the listener to guess at the referent, but makes life easier for the speaker.

Tip: nouns are counted from their beginnings.
So in a sentence like

lo du'u
lo
nanmu
cu
dotco
cu se
djuno
ri

ri refers to lo
nanmu and
not lo du'u lo
nanmu cu
dotco: the

start of lo
nanmu is
closer to ri
than the start
of lo nu lo
nanmu cu
dotco.

Tip: ri cannot refer to a noun if it is already smack in the middle of that noun. For example, in

la .alis.
cu
pinxe
lo ri
vanju

ri obviouslyrefers to la.alis., and notto lo vanju.

Clause inside
sei forms a
parallel text.
ri and ra
ignore nouns
inside sei-

clauses:

mi
viska la
.mark.
sei la
.jasmin.
pu
cusku i
ri jibni
la
.djein.
I see
Mark, —
Jasmine
said. He
is near
Jane.

In this
example ri
cannot refer
to la .jasmin.
We simply
ignore the
whole sei la
.jasmin. pu
cusku clause
when
deciding what
ri should
refer to.

Finally, only
you decide
what's to use
in speech: the
method with
ri and ra or
the method

with letter names.

"Myself, themselves"

mi nelci mi

I like myself.
I like me.
[literally]

or

mi lumci

mi

I wash myself.

lumci = x_1 washes x_2 of contaminant x_3 with x_4

In some languages like Russian people say literally *I wash self*. In order to be closer to Russian style we can use **lo nei** which always refers to the first noun of a clause:

mi nelci lo nei

which is the same as

mi nelci mi

or we can say

la ian cu
lumci lo
nei
Yan washes
himself.

which is the same as

la ian cu lumci ri

Remember that **ri** can't refer back to pronouns like **mi** so **lo nei** might be preferred here.

And of course, when changing the first noun **lo nei** doesn't change which is quite handy:

mi lumci lo nei, do lumci lo nei, la ian cu lumci lo nei ...

nei itself is a verb sowe can attach particlesof se series to it:

• **lo nei** links to the first noun of the

current clause

- lo se nei links to the second
- **lo te nei** to the third and so on.

Here are some more straightforward examples of its use:

la .meilis.
cu pensi lo
nei
Mei Li
thinks
about
herself.

lo gerku
cu batci lo
nei
The dog
bites itself.

nei works well when a sentence only contains one clause. But when it has several embedded clauses we might need something different. In la .jasmin.
cu djuno
lo du'u la
.alis. cu
prami lo
nei
Jasmine
knows that
Alice loves
herself.

lo nei refers to la.alis.

What if we want to refer to Jasmine? Here is the solution:

la .jasmin.
cu djuno
lo du'u la
.alis. cu
prami vo'a
Jasmine
knows that
Alice loves
her.

So while **lo nei** refers to the first noun of the current clause, **vo'a** refers to the first noun of the current sentence.

When there are no embedded clauses those two words mean the same:

la .alis. cu
prami vo'a
is the
same as la
.alis. cu
prami lo
nei
Alice loves
herself.

- vo'a refers to the first noun of the current sentence.
- vo'e refers to the second noun of the current sentence.
- vo'i refers to the third noun of the current sentence.
- vo'o refers to the 4th noun of the current sentence.
- vo'u refers to the 5th noun of the current sentence.

Some Lojbanists use **ra** in order to refer to such "self"-places, which is deliberately

as vague as pronouns in many natural languages.

go'i for the previous clause

- nei alone links to the current clause.
- go'i links to the previous clause.

go'i presents yet
another way of
referring back to a
noun that we need.

Whereas **lo nei** refers to the first noun of the current clause, **lo go'i** refers to the first noun of the previous clause.

> la .alis. cu klama lo barja .i la .alis. cu viska lo nanmu

can be changed to:

la .alis. cu klama lo barja .i lo go'i cu viska lo nanmu lo se go'i refers to the
second nouns of the
previous clause, lo te
go'i to the third etc.
For example,

.i la .alis. cu zgana lo nanmu .i ri melbi

can also be expressed as

.i la .alis.
cu zgana
lo nanmu
.i <u>lo se go'i</u>
cu melbi

That's because **lo se go'i** refers to the

second place (x2) of
the preceding clause,
which is **lo nanmu**.

Consider another example:

Bill saw
Bob. He hit
him.

English doesn't bother with precision here —

he just means "some
male person
mentioned earlier."
Did Bill hit Bob, or did
Bob hit Bill? We don't
know. Lojban does
have other tricks up its
sleeve, and as you
might just have
already guessed, lo se
go'i will do the trick.

la bil cu
viska la
bob i lo se
go'i cu
darxi lo
go'i

Although, in most cases **ri**, **ra** or using first letter of names are to choose from:

la bil cu viska la bob i ri darxi la bil

or

la bil cu viska la bob i la bob cu darxi ra

What does go'i copy?

Note that emotional interjections like .ui, .u'i, je'u, those formed with sei and the question interjection xu are not parts of clauses. Thus they are not copied by go'i.

Other interjections like nai, cu'i, pei are parts of the clause when they are used on their own (not as modifiers of emotional interjections). na, na'e, no'e, to'e are also parts of clauses.

go'i copies words that
are parts of clauses
like na and na'e:

la bob naprami laalis

— go'i

It is nottrue thatBob lovesAlice.

- He
doesn't
(love).
- la bob
na'e prami
la alis
- go'i
- Bob
doesn't love
Alice.
- He
doesn't
(love).

In order to say "No, he does love her" we need to use the word reverse to $\mathbf{na} - \mathbf{ja'a}$.

la bob na prami la alis ja'a go'i

Bob doesn't love Alice.

He does.

To override **na'e** we use its opposite: **je'a**.

la bob cuna'e pramila alis

— je'a go'i

Bobdoesn't loveAlice.

- He does.

go'i is quite common for answering 'yes/no' in a kind of logical style. Unlike je'u it is not an interjection and thus doesn't directly express your attitude. Instead, by saying go'i you repeat the previous clause (e.g. just said by the one you are talking to) as some absolute truth.

If you ask me

xu do nelci

la .alis. (Do

you like

Alice?), and I

then say You

like Alice., I

am repeating

your words,

but not your

meaning. I

would need to

say I like

Alice. instead. $\mathbf{go'i}$ repeats the meaning of the clause, not necessarily the words literally. So $\mathbf{go'i}$ after \mathbf{xu} do nelci la .alis. means <u>mi</u> nelci la .alis. (and not do nelci la .alis.. In other words, in an answer to a Do you? type of 'yes/no' question, go'i means Yes (I do), as you'd expect.

Rewrite rule when using go'i

- xu do pu zvati la madrid
- ba go'i
- Have you been to Madrid?
- I will.

mi pu
klama .i
ba go'i
I went. And
I will go.

We can use prepositions together with **go'i**. In this case they replace preposition of the same series if they occurred in the clause we refer to with this **go'i**. In this example **pu** replaces **ba** said by the first speaker since both prepositions are in *PU* series.

go'i can be omitted if
the context is clear
enough:

xu do puzvati lamadrid

- ba
- Have you

been to

Madrid?

- I will.

The same is true for some series of non-

prepositions like **na'e**:

mi to'enelci logerkui mi je'ago'i

- I hate (anti-love) dogs.

- I do love them.

Here **je'a** replaces '**to'e** said earlier.

Here are several most notable groups of particles that can override each other within each group when using **go'i**:

- Tense: pu ca ba
- Event contours: ta'e
 - ru'i ze'a and any other event contours you might encounter.

Negation:

- ja'ai nai
- ja'a na
- je'a no'e to'e na'e

A little math.

li mu du li re su'i ci

Five equals two plus three.

Here **li** is similar to **lo**but it starts a
mathematical
expression (or just a
number). So **li mu**means *Number 5* for
use in formulae unlike
simple **mu** which is
used to denote 5
objects or events.

Note that **re su'i ci** (2+3) is one single expression considered as one noun.

du is a verb and meansto be equal to.

- \bullet su'i means plus.
- vu'u means minus.
- pi'i means times and is used for multiplication
- fe'i means divided by and is used for division.

The word **pi** is a decimal separator so **no pi mu** means 0.5, **ci ze pi pa so** means 37.19.

In some notations 0.35 can be written as .35 and in Lojban we can also drop zero saying **pi mu**.

Here are some other examples.

li pare fe'i ci du li vo = 12:3=4li re pi'i re du li vo = two times two is four li pano vu'u mu pi'i re du li no = $10-5\cdot 2=0$

Notice again that you put **li** only once before the equation and once after it. Thus 12:3 is considered one number. Indeed, 4 is the same as 12:3. They are both numbers.

More examples:

xu li mu
du li re
su'i ci
Is 5 = 2 +
3?
go'i
Yes.
na go'i
No.

For asking for a number we use **ma**:

li ci su'i vo du ma 3 + 4 = ? li ze 7

"Most", "many" and "too much"

Words like *most* and *many* are also numbers in Lojban, which is pretty logical if you think about it. The following 'numbers' are particularly useful:

ro eachso'a almost allso'e mostso'i many/a lot ofso'o several

so'u fewno zero, nonesu'e at mostsu'o at leastza'u more than...du'e too many

Some examples:

so'i lo
merko cu
nelci la
.nirvanas.
Many
Americans
like
"Nirvana".

The group, not the mystical state.
Although on second thought... An yes, names are ambiguous, because they're used Humpty-Dumpty style: they mean what the speaker means.

so'u lo
jungo cu
nelci la
.nirvanas.
Few Chinese
people like
Nirvana.

su'e mu lo
muno
prenu cu
cmila
No more
than five out
of the fifty
people
laugh(ed).
(For
example, if a
comedian

su'o pa lo prenu cu prami do

told a bad

joke).

At least one person loves you.

This last sentence is logically the same as lo prenu cu prami do, which means at least one person loves you. In fact, all articles in Lojban have such default numbers associated with them; lo by default means su'o pa lo ro — at least one out of all....

"First, second, last"

Ordinal numbers such as "first, second, third" are used to put things in order. In Lojban they are formed with a number plus **moi** immediately after it:

```
\mathbf{pamoi} = x_1 \text{ is}

first \ among \ ...

\mathbf{remoi} = x_1 \text{ is}

second \ among \ ...

\mathbf{cimoi} = x_1 \text{ is}

third \ among \ ...

...

\mathbf{romoi} = x_1 \text{ is}

last \ among \ ...
```

It is possible to use verbs instead of numbers:

memimoi =
$$x_1$$
 is
mine
medomoi = x_1 is
yours

In this case we had to convert pronouns to verbs using **me**.

ti pamoi lo

ratcu pe mi This is my first rat. ta romoi lo ratcu pe mi That is my last rat. lo cerni tarci cu romoi lo tarci poi cumki falo nu viska pu lo nu co'a donri The morning star is the last star that's visible before the dawning of the day. ta me mi moi That's mine. ta me mi moi lo stixu That's my place.

.i lo vi
stizu cu
me mi moi
lo paci
stizu poi
stizu poi
sruri lo
jubme
This place
is mine
among 13
places
around the
table.

Cardinal numbers are placed before ordinal numbers in a string and separated by **lo**.

ci lo pa
moi be lo
ckafi kabri
the first
three cups
of coffee

Without **lo** we could have read this as **ci pa moi** - *thirty-first*.

never - noroi, always - roroi

An intermittent event can be specified with

the prepositions like

ta'e or by counting the
number of times
during the interval that
it takes place. In this
case we use a number
and append a
preposition roi to
make a quantified
tense. Quantified
tenses are common in
English, but not so
commonly named: they
are exemplified by the
following constructs:

- noroi = never
- paroi = once
- reroi = twice
- ciroi = thrice

• • •

- **so'iroi** = many times
- so'uroi = a few times
- du'eroi = too many times
- **roroi** = always

mi paroi
klama lo
zarci
I go to the
market once.

 $\mathbf{zarci} = x_1 \text{ is a}$ market

mi du'eroi
klama lo
zarci
I go to the
market too
often.

With the quantified tense alone, we don't know whether the past, the present, or the future is intended, but of course the quantified tense can be enriched with tenses:

mi pu
reroi
klama lo
zarci
I went to
the market
twice.

Without **pu** the construct **reroi** may mean that once i went to the market but the second time I will be there only in the future.

• pare'u = for the firsttime

• rere'u = for the second time

•••

- za'ure'u = again
- rore'u = for the last time

The particle **re'u**works like **roi** but tells
for which time this
event happens.

Compare:

mi paroi vitke lo

muzga

I visited the

museum

once.

mi pare'u

vitke lo

muzga

I visited the

museum for

the first

time.

mi za'uroi

vitke lo muzga

I visited the

museum more

times.

mi za'ure'u vitke lo muzga I visited the museum again. mi za'uparoi vitke lo muzga I visited the museum more than once. mi za'upare'u vitke lo muzga I visited the museum not for the first time (may be for the second/third etc.))

vitke = to visit
(somebody or
something)

Making

prepositions from verbs. fi'o

mi klama fi'o
kansa do
I go with you.
I go with
you
accompanying
me.
[literally]

kansa = x_1 accompanies x_2

The verb klama - to go has no place for denoting with whom you are going.

The combination of the particle **fi'o** followed by a main verb, in this case the verb word **kansa**, forms a new case which is prefixed to the noun filling this new place, namely **do**. The meaning of **fi'o kansa do** is that **do** fills the x1 place of **kansa** (x1 accompanies x2).

It is important to

remember that even though **do** is placed following **fi'o kansa**, it belongs in the x1 place of **kansa**.

Thus the verb **klama**has now acquired an
additional place
specifying who
accompanies you while
you are going.

Prepositions add extra places to verbs.

What's really interesting is that prepositions in Lojban have their corresponding verbs.

For example,

fa'a = fi'o farna farna = x_1 is a direction of x_2 from viewpoint x_3

So if you forgot a preposition you can use **fi'o** plus an appropriate verb

instead of that.

As you can see in
English we use a
preposition. **fi'o kansa**is also a preposition
but with a verb inside!

In fact there is a preposition for **fi'o kansa** as well. It's **ka'ai**. But if you don't remember a preposition you can safely use the construct with **fi'o**.

We can add verbs with **se** and its friends for **fi'o**:

mi klama fi'o
se pilno lo
jamfu
I walk on foot.
I walk
using feet.
[literally]

There is a common preposition **se pi'o** which is the same as **fi'o se pilno**. So if there is **se** inside **fi'o** clause the corresponding

preposition also has this **se** (Of course, the same for **te**, **ve**, **xe**).

The only exlusion is for **pu** and **ba**:

pu = fi'ose purciba = fi'ose balvi

So those two
prepositions have **se** in
their coresponding
verbs whereas they
themselves don't have.

The term for such an added place is a preposition place, as distinguished from the regular numbered places. The fi'o construction marking a prepositional place is called a *prepositional* clause, and the noun which follows it a prepositional noun. Prepositional clauses may be placed anywhere within the main clause, in any order; they have no

effect whatever on the rules for assigning unmarked clause to numbered places, and they may not be marked with places tags (fa, fe, fi, fo, fu).

There can be prepositions that refer to objects. An example is **fa'a**. It is compared to the first noun of the clause where it resides.

Lesson 6. Time, space, situation

Time of day, dates and calendar

Time of day

- ma tcika ti
= What's the
time?
- li pa pa =
Eleven
[hours]

Another option:

ma catcikaWhat is thetime now?

 $\mathbf{ma} = the$ $content\ question$ $word\ (what)$ $\mathbf{tcika} = x_1$ (hours, minutes, $seconds)\ is\ the$ $time\ of\ event\ x_2$ $on\ day\ x_3,\ at$ $timezone\ x_4$

So in Lojban, times do not exist in the abstract: times are always the times of something. So we ask what the time is of **ti**, meaning *this* event/thing, or, in other words now.

ca tcika lo
nu ei
sipna
It's time to
sleep.

24-hour time is used almost always in Lojban as 12-hour system can lead to misunderstading.

In order to specify not only hours but minutes and seconds we separate them with **pi'e**:

li pa pa pi'e pano

11:10 (Ten
minutes past
eleven)
The number
eleven: ten

[literally]

or

li pa pa pi'e pano pi'e pa

ci

Ten minutes and thirteen seconds past eleven.

The number

eleven:

ten : thirteen

[literally]

In order to say ten <u>to</u>

eleven you can just say

li pano pi'e mu no

10:50

If we want to give the time of an event, rather than just tell the time, we need to fill in some more places. The second place of **tcika** is *state/event*: people don't have times — events have times. So we use **nu**:

li pa no cu tcika lo nu mi klama

Ten o'clock is the time that I go (or come!)

Preposition for time of day

By using **se** we can get a more naturally sounding sentence:

lo nu mi
klama cu
se tcika li
pa no
I go at 10
o'clock.

But you might still find too long and clumsy.

Or we can use a preposition:

mi klama
ti'u li pa
no
I am going
at 10:00.

ti'u = fi'o se
tcika =
occurring at the
time of day...

Dates

nanca = x_1 is of duration of x_2 years

nanca specifies the
duration and in order
two say two years long
you fill the second
place with a number
prefixed with li:

mi nanca li re re I am 22 years old.

In order to say *in year* 2014 we use **moi**:

ca lo re no
pa vo moi
nanca mi pu
zvati la
.kebek.
In 2014 I was
in Quebec.
During
2014th year
I was in
Quebec.
[literally]

The basic verb for dates is

$\mathbf{datru} = X_1$

(event) is dated/pertaining to day/occurring on day x_2 of month x_3 of year x_4 in calendar x_5

The default calendar is the standard Western one as it is international. If you want to use, for example, the Arabic or Chinese calendars, you can put lo xrabo or lo jungo in the fourth place. (As always, context is important —

in a discussion of
Islamic history we
would probably
assume that the Arabic
calendar was being
used).

We can therefore say

lo nu lo
remna cu
klama lo
lunra cu
datru li repa
li ze li pa so
xa so
That a
human goesto the moon
is dated
day 21,
month 7,
year 1969.
[literally]

Remember that when we speak of dates in Lojban, we also need to specify the place on the globe where the date was calculated. The instant Neil Armstrong made that small step for (a) man, for instance, it wasn't

the 21st of July
everywhere on Earth.
In Tokyo, it was closer
to the 22nd. So if we
want to point out that
it was the 21st,
Houston time, we need
to specify the x4 place
of tcika. That means
we can simply say:

lo nu lo
remna cu
klama lo
lunra cu
datru li re
pa li ze li
pa so xa so
fi'o se
tcika fo la
.xustyn.

Days, months and seasons

$$\mathbf{masti} = x_1 \text{ is } x_2$$
 $months \ long$
 $\mathbf{djedi} = x_1 \text{ is } x_2$
 $full \ days \ long$

Here are the names of the days of the week:

English Lojban name

Monday lo lurdei

Tuesday lo fagdei
Wednesday lo jaurdei
Thursday lo mudydei
Friday lo jimdei
Saturday lo tedydei
Sunday lo soldei

mi gunka

ca lo lurdei

I work on

Monday

mi gunka

ca ro lurdei

I work every

Monday

And here are the names of months of Gregorian calendar:

English name	Lojban name	meaning
January	lo	1st
	pagmese	month
February	lo	2nd
	regmese	month
March	lo	3rd
	cigmese	month
April	lo	4th
	vogmese	month
May	lo	5th
	mugmese	month
June	lo	6th
	xagmese	month
July	lo	7th
	zegmese	month
August	lo	8th
	bigmese	month
September	lo	9th
	sogmese	month
October	lo	10th
	daugmese	month
November	lo	11th
	feigmese	month
December	lo	12th
	gaigmese	month

It is easier to remember them if you

notice that they the first letters remind of numbers. Thus, May is the first month and start with **pa** (1) and so on.

Calendars in other cultures

The names of days of the week and months match international standards. However, there can be a need to describe conventions for cultures which for example do not use a seven-day week. In ordinary speech you are free to create compound verbs for that. For example, you can call the first month of classical Chinese calendar as lo jungo pavma'i (literally Chinese January although the first month in the original Chinese calendar rather starts in February). And lo jungo pavdei could be the first day of the

Chinese ten-day week.

(jungo means x1 is

Chinese).

The same logic can be applied if the seasons where you live don't match this pattern. For example, the rainy season or monsoon could be **lo carvi citsi** (from **carvi** = rain, and **citsi** = season). Here are some I made up for fun to give a better idea of the weather in Britain:

lo lenku the cold carvi rain citsi spring **lo mligla** the warm carvi rain citsi summer lo brife the windy carvi rain citsi autumn the lo dunja freezing carvi rain citsi winter

Later in this course
we'll see how to create
new words in the form
of lujvo and zi'evla and
those words will have
precise meanings and
thus become terms.

You'll actually need a pretty good knowledge of Lojban to make up lujvo on the spot, but we'll learn how to make some simple lujvo later on in this course.

Scope in prepositions

- Prepositions with a particle ku or a noun after them modify the sentence to the right of them.
- Prepositions without

 a noun before the
 main verb are

 applied to that main verb.
- Prepositions at the end of the clause are applied to the main verb of that clause as well.

Compare vi ku ro da fenki versus ro da vi fenki.

ro da vi fenki

Everyone is crazy here.
Every one here crazy
[literally]

vi ku ro da

fenki

Here
everyone is
crazy.
Here: every
one crazy

[literally]

Did you catch that?

- 1. Everyone is crazy

 here means that if

 someone is not

 crazy somewhere

 then they will
 - become crazy in this place.
- 2. Here everyone is crazy simply describes those who are here (and they are crazy). We don't know anything about others in other places.

Other examples:

vi ku mi

gunka

Here, I

work.

(describes

what

happens

here).

mi vi gunka

I here work.

(describes

me, where

am I and

what I do).

pa lo

prenu cu

roroi jundi

One of the

people is

always

attentive.

it is the same person who is always attentive.

roroiku su'o pa

lo prenu cu

jundi

Always one of the

people is always

attentive.

it is always that one person is attentive.
People may change but there is one always attentive.

Time and place

mi citka lo cirla

I eat

cheese.

I ate

cheese.

I always eat

cheese.

In a

moment, I

will have

just

finished

eating

cheese.

Tenses in Lojban are optional, you don't have to think all the time what tense to use.

Often context resolves what is correct. We add tenses when we feel we need them.

Lojban tenses treat

time and space the same. Saying that *I* worked a long time ago is not grammatically different than saying *I* work far away to the north. English treats words like earlier, past tense ending -ed and space prepositions like in or near in three different schemes, while in Lojban they use the same principle.

Time and place

Preposition without a noun after it describes the event as relative to here and now:

mi pinxe

ba

I will drink.

mi pinxe

bu'u

I drink at this place.

Preposition with a noun after it describes the event as relative to the event in that noun:

mi pinxe
ba lo nu
mi cadzu
I drink after
I walk.

Time & space journeys

mi pu ba
klama lo
cmana
It happened
before I went
to the
mountain.
I in past:
in future:
go to the
mountain.
[literally]

mi ba pu klama lo

cmana

It will happen after I went to the mountain.

 ${\tt I} \; {\tt in} \;$

future: in
past: go to
the

mountain.

[literally]

If there are several prepositions in one clause, the rule is that

we read them from left to right, thinking it as a so called *imaginary journey*. We begin at an implied point in time and space (the speaker's "now and here" if no noun follows), and then follow the prepositions one after another from left to right.

The rule can be overriden by connecting prepositions with **ce'e**:

mi ba ce'e pu klama lo

cmana

I went and
will go to the
mountain.
I in future
and in
past: go to
the
mountain.
[literally]

mi cadzu ba lo nu mi citka ce'e pu lo nu mi sipna I walk after I eat and before I sleep.

Distance in time and space

Prepositions

fau = preposition.
at the same time,
place or situation
 as ...

bu'u

zi = just or **vi** = soon, in a near short time ...

za = a
while ago
or in a
while, in an
unspecified
time
va =
not
far
from
...

vu =

zu = long far
time ago or away
in a long from
time ...; far
away

Following the imaginary journey principle after a tense we can put particle specifying how far we ago into the past or future:

- pu zu means a long
 time ago
- **pu za** means *a while ago*

- ullet pu zi means just
- ba zi means soon
- **ba za** means in a while
- ba zu means in a long time

i, a and u. This order appears again and again in Lojban, and might be worth to memorize. Short and long in are always context dependent, relative and subjective. Two hundred years is a short time for a species to evolve, but a long time to wait for the bus.

are special
prepositions,
they modify
the previous
preposition
like pu and
ba: pu zu is a
long time ago
while zu pu is
in the past of
some point in

time which is a long time toward the future or the past of now. In the first example, \mathbf{pu} shows that we begin in the past, \mathbf{zu} then that it is a long time backwards. In the second example, $\mathbf{z}\mathbf{u}$ shows that we begin at some point far away in time from now, **pu** then, that we move backwards from that point. Thus pu zu is always in the past. **zu pu** could be in the future.

As you can see spatial distance is marked in a similar way by **vi**, **va**

and **vu** for short, unspecified (medium) and long distance in space.

We can use them as prepositions as well:

ba za lo
djedi be li
ci mi volve
In three
days I will
return.

The space equivalent of **ca** is **bu'u**. And **fau** is more vague than two of them, it can mean time, space or situation.

ba za vu
ku mi
gunka
Some time
in the
future, I
will work a
place long
away.

gunka = to work

mi vipuzu gunka

I used to work here a long time ago.
I here-past-long-time-

distance work [literally]

pu zu vu

ku zasti fa

lo ninmu

.e lo

nanmu

Long ago

and far

away lived

a woman

and a man.

The last sentence is how fairy tales often begin.

If vau in the last sentence wasn't there, mi would become the second place of catra rather than the first place of gunka, so the listener would understand the sentence as Not very far from where Kennedy was killed by me someone works.

Duration in time and space

Prepositions

 $\mathbf{ze'i} - \mathbf{for} \quad \mathbf{ve'i} - \mathbf{over}$ a short a short time of ... space of ... (event) (event) ze'a - for ve'a over an unspecified unspecified time of ... space of ... (event) (event) ze'u — for ve'u a long time over the long space of ... of ... (event) (event)

Again it's easy to remember given the similarity between vowels in two columns.

mi ze'u

bajra

I run for a long time.

la .bob.

ze'u pinxe

lo birje

Bob drinks

beer for a

long time.

mi

bazize'a

xabju la

.djakartas.

Pretty soon

I'm going to

live in

Jakarta for

a while.

lo jenmi pe
la .romas.
baze'u
gunta la
.kart.xadact.
The army of
Romans will
be attacking
Carthage for

a long time.

This does not mean that Romans are not attacking Carthage these days. In Lojban, if we say that something is true at a particular time, it doesn't mean that it is not true at any other time. You can say **pu ba ze'u** so that we know that this activity was in future when viewed from some point in past but in past when viewed from today.

do ve'u klama lo
dotco gugde
ze'u
You spend a long
time traveling a
long space to
Germany.

ti ve'u gerku

That's a big dog. This is a dog covering a large space.

We can also contrast
do ca ze'i pu klama
with do pu ze'i ca
klama. The first event
of traveling has one
endpoint in the present
and extends a little
towards the past, while
the second event has
one endpoint in the
past and extends only
to the present (that is,
slighty into the past or
future) of that
endpoint.

Event contours

pu'o =

preposition: to
be about to do
something (the
event has not yet
happened)

ca'o =

preposition: to

be doing
something (the
event is in
progress)

ba'o =

preposition: to
have done
something, to be
no longer doing
something (the
event has ended)

With the *event*contours and unlike

pu, ca and ba we view
each event as having
shape with certain
stages:

mi ba
tavla lo
mikce
I will speak
to the
doctor (and
I might be
speaking
now too).

mi pu pu'o
tavla lo
mikce
I was about
to speak to
the doctor
(I am not
speaking
now, the
event
hasn't
started
yet).

Note that **mi** ba tavla is similar to **mi** pu'o tavla, and likewise with **ba'o** and **pu**. Why do they seem reversed in sounding? Because event contours view the present as $% \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ seen from the viewpoint of the process, whereas the other tenses view events

seen from the present.

Other examples:

lo sanmi ca pu'o

bredi

The meal is not ready yet.

mi pu ca'o tavla lo mikce

I was speaking to the doctor.

mi pu ba'o tavla lo mikce

I had spoken to the doctor.

mi ba ba'o
tavla lo
mikce
I will have

spoken to the doctor.

More clarity is achieved by combining several tenses:

.a'o mi ba
zi ba'o
gunka
I hope I've
soon
finished
working.

In Lojban, we also operate with an event's natural beginning and its natural end. The term *natural* is highly subjective in this sense, and the natural end refers to the point in the process where it should end. You can say about a late train, for instance, that its process of reaching you is now extending beyond its natural end. An undercooked, but served meal, similarly, is being eaten before the natural beginning of the process. The event contour prepositions used in these examples are as follows:

za'o = still. The

event is in

process beyond

its natural end

xa'o = already

as in "too early".

The event

already started is

immaturely in

process

seja'e ma do za'o zvati vi Why are you still

here?
la .kevin.
xa'o zvati
vi
Kevin is
already

here.

All of these tenses
have been describing
stages of a process
which takes some time
(as shown on the graph
above; those tenses
above the event like).
But many of the event
contours describes
point like stages in the
process, like its

beginning. As is true of ca and bu'u, they actually extend slightly into the past and future of that point, and need not to be precise.

The two most important point-like event contours are:

co'a = the event
starts during (a
noun follows)
co'u = the event
stops during (a
noun follows)

For this kind of aspect,
English normally just
uses verbs: start,
finish, stop. Lojban
likewise allows you to
use distinct verbs to
express these notions:
cfari, mulno, and
sisti. Using aspects
just lets you express
things more succinctly;
and with Lojban the
way it is, anything that
makes things more
succinct comes in

handy.

mo'u describes events as finished:

la .maks.
mo'u
zbasu lo vi
dinju
Max has
built this
house.

lo kabri mo'u porpi

The vase broke.

 $\mathbf{mo'u} = the$ event is at its natural end $\mathbf{porpi} = x_1$ breaks into $pieces x_2$

Most of the time, though, processes actually end at their natural ending; this is what makes it natural. Trains are not usually late, and people usually retrain themselves to eat only edible food.

Since a process can be interrupted and resumed, these points have earned their own event contour also:

de'a = the event
is pausing during
(a noun follows)
di'a = the event
is resuming
during (a noun
follows)

de'a
ze'i
jundi =
BRB (I'll
be right
back)
di'a
jundi =
back

jundi = x_1 pays attentio n to x_2

These two
expressions
are common
in text chat

for saying
that you stop
paying
attention or
away, and
then back
online.

One could of course also say just **de'a** or **di'a** and hope the point gets across.

Two prepositions from TAhE series:

ru'i =

continuous

tense: the event

is continuous

ta'e = simple

tense: the event

happens

habitually

Place contours

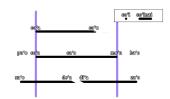
Even contours can be used to refer to space if we prefix them with

fe'e:

lo rokci cu
kuspe fe'e
co'u lo
canko
The rock
reached
and
stopped by
the
window.

kuspe = x_1 extends, reaches across scope, range x_2

All event contours in one diagram



Vertical line signifies
the time for the
natural beginning and
natural end of an
event.

Horizontal lines show the event contours.

Space: "to the

left", "to the right"

lo prenu

cu sanli

fi'o se

pritu mi

The person

stands to

the right of

me.

lo gerku

cu vreta

fi'o se

zunle lo

verba

A dog is

lying to the

left of a

child.

lo mlatu

cu plipe

fi'o se

crane do

The cat

jumps in

front of

you.

zunle = x_1 is to

the left of x_2 from

 $the\ viewpoint\ of$

 X_3

pritu = x_1 is to

the right of x_2 from the viewpoint of x_3 **crane** = x_1 is in front of x_2 facing x_3 **trixe** = x_1 is behind x_2 from the viewpoint of x_3

sanli = to stand
vreta = to lie
(horizontally)

If no noun follows then the position is understood as relative to the speaker: this is important when speaking about left and right:

lo prenu
cu sanli
fi'o se
pritu
The person
stands to
the right (of
me).

ko jgari lo panbi
poi zunle
Take the pen on
the left.

ko catlu lo dinju poi crane

Look at the

house in

the front.

la .bob. cu sanli fi'o se pritu vi

Bob stands

just to the

right.

la .bob. cu sanli fi'o se pritu vi la .meiris.

Bill stands just to the right of me near Mary.

The third place can be useful from whose viewpoint the object is to the left, to the right etc.:

lo dinju cu zunle lo rokci

ti

The house is to the left of the rock if viewed from here.

Connecting sentences with prepositions

mi klama

lo cmana

ca lo nu lo

mlatu cu

pinxe lo

ladru

I am

coming to a

mountain

while a cat

is drinking

milk.

mi klama

lo cmana .i

ca bo lo

mlatu cu

pinxe lo

ladru

I am

coming to a

mountain,

and the

same time a

cat is

drinking

milk.

If two sentences are too long we can use .i

to separate them. But
we still can show that
they express the same
idea using
prepositions. The
second example differs
from the first one in
that it puts the focus
on both sentences.

So here we use .i, then the preposition that we need and then **bo**.

The particle **bo**

- attaches the sentence to the previous one.
 - Usually we split
 sentences into two
 and then bind
 them with bo
 when a sentence
 looks or sounds
 too bulky.
- separates the
 preposition before it
 from the rest of the
 sentence where it
 belongs.
 - Left on its own, a preposition always applies to the noun after it. So .i

ca lo mlatu

would have meant something like during a cat, at the time of cat. Looks like a nonsense. At least this doesn't mean what we want. To make the prepositions apply to the entire sentence and bind the previous sentence, we follow it with the word bo.

Other examples:

mi cadzu .i
ba bo mi
citka
I walk, and
then I eat.

.i ba bo means
afterwards, then. The
sentence after .i ba bo
refers to something
that took place later
than what took place
in the sentence before.

Remember that **ba** and **pu** differ from other prepositions. The very astute reader will have noted that 'afterwards' should have been **.i pu bo**. Such special rule for Lojban was made by analogy of natural languages. So you just have to remember this special behavior of these two words.

A modern trend is to do the same with **fa**, **fe** and its friends.

mi gleki .i fe bo do jinga

is the same as

mi
gleki
lo nu
do
jinga
I am
glad
that
you
win.

Here **fe** refers to the second place of **gleki**. It is possible to use **se** to reverse the order:

do
jinga
.i se
fe bo
mi
gleki
You
win,
and I
am
glad
of
that.

Causes and implications

gasnu — to make
something do
something

lo canko cu kalri

The window is open.

ko gasnu
lo nu lo
canko cu
kalri
Open the
window!

gasnu = agent x_1 causes event x_2 to happen

Such verbs as to open (something), to move can be rephrased as to make something open, to make something move and therefore we don't need to learn extra verbs for every such meaning. Instead we use an additional verb **gasnu** all the time.

Its corresponding preposition is **gau**:

gau ko lo
canko cu
kalri
Open the
window!

e'o gau do
lo canko
cu kalri
Please open
the
window.

gau = fi'o
gasnu =
agentive
preposition (to
make someone
do something)

The third option is to use separate words:

mi kargau lo canko I open a window.

kargau = to
open (something)

jalge - result
("because of ...",
"why?")

ma se
jalge lo nu
carvi
What gives
the rise to
the raining?

jalge = event x₁
is the result or
outcome of event
x₂
se jalge = event
x₁ give rise to the
event x₂

The corresponding preposition of **se jalge** is **se ja'e**:

- se ja'e
ma carvi lo nu lo
dilnu cu
klaku
- Why is it
raining? Because
the clouds
are crying.

se ja'e = fi'o se
jalge = because
of ...
se ja'e ma =
why?

Therefore is the reverse word compared to because:

- $\mathbf{se} \ \mathbf{ja'e} = because$
- ja'e = therefore

lo dilnu cu klaku ja'e lo nu lo dargu cu cilmo Skies are cryingresulting in the road being wet. lo dilnu cu klaku i ja'e bo lo dargu cu cilmo Skies are crying. Therefore the road is wet.

$\begin{aligned} & \textbf{nibli} - \textbf{logical} \\ & \textbf{implication} \end{aligned}$

ma niblilo nu nictelo nu losolri na te

gusni - What

logically

entails that

it is night? -

The sun not

shining.

the source of light x_3 falling onto x_2

Its corresponding preposition is **ni'i**:

- ni'i ma
nicte - lo
nu lo solri
na te
gusni
- Why is it

night? Because
the sun is
not shining.

lo solri na te gusni i se ni'i bo nicte

The sun is not shining.
Therefore, it's night.

ni'i = fi'o nibli
= logically
because of ...
seni'i = with the
logical
consequence
that ..., logically

This is another type of why. Here we can't use jalge as we are talking not about a result but about logical implication. The fact that it is night just logically follows from the sun not shining.

therefore

Verbs more precise than jalge

Here are other frequent verbs for causes with their corresponding prepositions:

Let's try to replace

jalge with other verbs
in our examples.

rinka — physical causation

lo nu lo dilnu cu
klaku cu rinka lo
nu lo dargu cu
cilmo
The clouds' crying is
making it rain.
The-event the
cloud weep
physically-cause

the event rain.
[literally]

rinka = x_1 causes effect x_2 under conditions x_3

Its corresponding preposition is **ri'a**:

lo dargu
cu cilmo
ri'a lo nu
lo dilnu cu
klaku

ri'a = because
(of physical or
mechanical
cause...)

Compare:

mi darxi la .kevin.
ri'a lo nu ky. lacpu
lo kerfa be mi
I hit Kevin because
he pulled my hair.

This is nonsense. It means that Kevin pulling my hair physically caused me to hit him, which would only be true if Kevin had pulled my hair so hard that I had fallen on top of him, perhaps.

What we need is either a more vague **se ja'e** or another preposition that we'll study just now.

mukti - motivation

lo nu la
kevin cu
lacpu lo
kerfa be
mi cu
mukti lo
nu mi
darxi ky.
vau mi
Kevin
pulling my
hair

motivated

me to hit

him.

mukti = x_1 is a motive, incentive for the event x_2 caused by agent x_3

In this example, what we have is not two events which are physically connected, like clouds and rain, but three events:

- 1. Kevin pulls my hair.
- 2. I decide, as a result of this, to hit Kevin.
- 3. I hit Kevin.

English misses out the second event and says Sally hit Joey because he pulled her hair. However, this is not only vague but, some would say, psychologically dangerous. People do not generally react to stimuli automatically, but as a result of motivation, and confusing complex responses with simple physical causation may lead us to believe that

we have no control
over our emotions or
even our actions. Thus,
it is often useful to
distinguish between
physical reactions
(rinka) and responses
which have a
cognitive/emotional
element (mukti).

The corresponding preposition of **mukti** is **mu'i**:

mi darxi la
.kevin.
mu'i lo nu
ky. lacpu
lo kerfa be
mi
I hit Kevin
because he
pulled my
hair.

mu'i = because (of motive ...)

As we can see, the third place is nearly always unnecessary, since we can assume that the agent of the second event is also the person who
decides to do it. Even
so, this structure is a
bit clumsy, so again we
would normally use a
preposition — in this
case, mu'i. This gives
us

Using **te** we get **te mukti** which has

another concise

translation in English:

te mukti = x_1 intends/going to do x_2 with motive x_3

Yes, in fact to be going to is tightly connected with motivation so we use the same verb for these concepts in Lojban.

mi te
mukti lo
ka klama
la paris
I am going
to visit
Paris.

krinu - justification

lo nu la
.salis. cu
carmi
gunka cu
krinu lo
nu lo
ctuca cu
dunda lo
tartcita sy.

la .salis.
cu te
dunda lo
tartcita lo
ctuca ki'u
lo nu sy.
carmi
gunka

krinu = event x₁
is a justification
or reason for
event x₂
ki'u = because
(due to
explanation ...)

The difference between motivation and justification is not always clear, but we can say that the latter involves some rule or standard while the former does not require this. Going back to the example of Sally and the teacher, it is possible to say

la .salis. cu te
dunda lo tartcita
lo ctuca mu'i lo
nu sy. carmi
gunka
Sally is-given
a star-label
[by] the
teacher withmotivation she
much-try work.
[literally]

However, this says
only that Sally's hard
work motivated the
teacher to give her a
star. It does not imply
that it is the custom
for teachers to give
stars (or 'star-labels',
as I have rather
pedantically translated
it) as a reward for
good work. What we
need here is ki'u, the
preposition from
krinu.

Note: Don't
get ki'u
mixed up with
ku'i which
means but,
however!

Let's not confuse jalge and nibli

Notice that **se ja'e** is the only verb that has **se**. It means that the order of it's places is reversed compared to the other verbs.

ki'u appeals to more general considerations than mu'i, but it still deals with human standards, not logical laws. Only a very naive student would believe that if a student is given a star, it must logically imply that that student has worked hard. In the tragic case of Fluffy, however, the fact that Fluffy is a rabbit

logically implies that
he will not live long,
given what we know
about rabbits. Here we
can confidently use
nibli.

Of course, the questions do not have to take these forms; if young Joey is a religious type, he might say la .flufis. co'a morsi ki'u ma, asking with what justification God took his rabbit from him, whereas if he is scientifically minded, he might ask la .flufis. co'a morsi ri'a ma, inquiring as to the physical cause of Fluffy's death.

"So ... that"

The expression so ...

that is very common in

English. It is expressed
in Lojban by splitting
such sentence into
two:

mi tai
galtu plipe
.i ja'e bo
mi farlu
I jumped so
high that I
fell down.

tai — preposition. in the manner of ...

mi tai

zukte

I cat this

way

mi tai

fengu

I am so

angry.

fengu = x_1 is angry of x_2 (event)

"If ... then"

fau lo nu
do fenki
vau mi ba
prami do
If you are
crazy then
I'll love you.

The preposition **fau**means with the event
of..., under
circumstances ... It
requires an event after
it. In fact it is much
like **ca** (when) or **bu'u**(at (some place)).

Indeed, in most cases
we can replace **fau**with **ca** getting almost
the same meaning
(may be sometimes
more precise):

mi ba
prami do
ca lo nu do
fenki
I'll love you
when you
are crazy.

We can replace **lo** with **ro** after such prepositions getting a new meaning:

mi ba prami
do ca ro nu
do fenki
I'll love you
whenever you
are crazy.

fau and da'i.
What if ...

da'i mi turni = Icould be a king.da'inai mi turni= I am a king.

- The interjection da'i
 marks the clause in
 which it is put as
 describing an
 imaginary event.
- The opposite
 interjection da'inai
 marks the clause as
 describing an actual,
 real event.

Constructs with da'i
are usually translated
to English with so
called auxiliary verbs
such as can/could,
will/would, may/might,
should and must.
Clauses with da'i in
English are said to be
in subjunctive mood.

Omitting da'i or
da'inai makes the
sentence clear only
from context which is
usually quite

transparent. That's why **da'i** or **da'inai** is not obligatory. We use it for clarity when needed.

Clauses with **da'i** often include **fau**:

da'i mi
gleki fau
lo nu mi
ponse lo
megdo be
lo rupnu

I
would/could
be happy if
I had one
million
dollars.

fau = in the event/situation/w orld of ... megdo = x_1 is a million of x_2

Here the event inside

fau is equally

imagined together with

mi gleki. And here is

the reverse example:

da'inai mi
gleki fau
lo nu mi
ponse lo
megdo be
lo rupnu
Having one
million
dollars I am
happy.

A good example of **mo** and **da'i**:

mo da'i
fau lo nu
mi cusku
zo nai
What if I
say "no"?

Probabilities

Suppose you come home and hear someone scratching.
You can say one of the following sentences:

fau da ti
mlatu.
This might
be/possibly
is a cat. It is
possible that

this is a cat. (You keep several animals at home. So it might be your cat scratching but you are not sure.)

fau ro da ti

mlatu.

this must be/certainly is the cat. (You have a cat and such noise can be produced by only one object, that cat.)

fau so'e da

ti mlatu.

This should be/probably is the cat. (If you have a dog then it can also produce such sounds but your dog usually

doesn't do that so the cat is more likely.)

fau so'u da ti mlatu.

It is not probable that this is the cat.

fau no da

ti mlatu

This can't be the cat.

This

mustn't be

the cat. It is

impossible

that this is

the cat.

Notice that we omitted

da'i for brevity. But if
we want to be
explicitly clear about
the events being
imaginary da'i in these
examples is to be put
inside the fau clause:

1. fau da'i da denotes

that the event in this clause is possible, may/can

possibly happen.

2. **fau da'i ro da** — the event *would* necessarily happen.

3. **fau da'i so'e da** — the event *is* probable, will probably happen, is likely to happen.

4. **fau da'i so'o da** — the event *is* remotely probable, could/might happen.

5. **fau da'i so'u da** — the event *is not likely, probably don't happen.*

6. **fau da'i no da** — the event *is not possible*.

The difference
between these is in the
number of imaginary
situations we take into
account. We don't
describe those
situations, we just
mark them as da
(something) letting the
context (or our
listeners) decide what
those situations are.

Words with possibility implied in their places

Some verbs have **da'i** implied in some of their places when you don't use **da'i** explicitly:

mi pacna lo nu do ba pluka sipna

I hope you will have a pleasant sleep.

pacna = x_1 hopes for x_2 (possible event) with likelihood x_3 (number, by default **li so'a** i.e. close to 1)

mi kanpe lo nu do tsuku

I expect you to arrive.

mi kanpe lo
nu do ba
jinga vau li
so'e
You'll
probably win.
I expect
with a high
probability
that you
will win.
[literally]

mi kanpe
lo nu mi
cortu fau
ro nu lo
rokci cu
farlu lo
tuple be
mi
I know for

I know for a fact that if a rock lands on my foot, it will hurt.

kanpe = x_1 expects x_2 (possible event) with expected likelihood x_3 (a number from 0 till 1, the default value is **li so'a**, i.e. near 1)

Unlike **pacna** the verb **kanpe** doesn't necessarily implies hope or wish. It can describe impartial expectation, subjective evaluation of the probability of a situation.

cumki fa

lo nu do

jinga

It is

possible

that you

win.

- xu ba

carvi

- cumki
- Will it

rain?

- May be.

 $\mathbf{cumki} = X_1$

(possible event) is possible, x_1

may, might occur, x_1 is a

maybe.

- xu ba

carvi

- lakne
- Will it

rain?

- Probably.

 $\mathbf{lakne} = x_1$

(possible event)

is probable,

likely

mi djica lo

nu do

jinga

I want you

to win.

mi djica lo

ka vitke fi

la .paris.

I would

rather visit

Paris. I

want to

visit Paris.

djica = x_1 wants

 x_2 (possible

event)

mi te

mukti lo

ka vitke fi

la .paris.

I will visit

Paris. I

intend

to/I'm

gonna visit

Paris.

mi te mukti

vitke fi la

.paris.

I'm visiting

Paris

intentionally.

te mukti = x_1 is

motivated to

 $bring\ about\ goal$

 x_2 (possible

event) by motive

 x_3 (event)

mi kakne

lo ka

limna

I am able to

swim.

mi pu kakne lo ka gunka

I could
work. I was
able to
work.

kakne = x_1 can, is able to do x_2 (property of x_1)

x2 describes a possible event.

mi te javni lo ka gunka I should work.

te javni = x_1 should/ought to do x_2 (property of x_1) under rule x_3 (proposition)

x2 describes a possible event.

do na te javni lo ka tcidu You don't have to read.

```
na te javni = x_1
doesn't have to,
needn't to do x_2
(property of x_1)
under rule x_3
(proposition)
```

x2 describes a possible event.

mi nitcu lo ka sipna

I need to sleep.

$$nitcu = x_1 needs$$

 $x_2 (possible$
event)

mi bilga lo ka gunka

I must work. I am obliged to work.

```
bilga = x_1 must,
is obliged to do
x_2 (property of
x_1)
```

mi curmi
lo nu do
citka ti
I allow you
to eat this.

curmi = x_1 allows/permits x_2 (possible event)

mi tolcru
lo nu do
nerkla
I forbid you
to enter.

{gl|tolcru|x1
forbids/prohibits x2
(possible event)}}

xu do stidi
lo nu mi
sipna
Do you
suggest

that I sleep?

{gl|stidi|x1 makes a
suggestion x2 (possible
event}}

mi na birti lo nu ra volve I'm not sure if he returns. **birti** = x_1 is certain/sure/posi tive/convinced that x_2 (possible event) is true

mi senpi
lo nu ra
kakne lo
ka limna
I doubt that
he can
swim.

senpi = x_1 doubts that x_2 (possible event) is true **senpi** is the same as **na'e birti**

lo nu mi
pavyseljirna
I imagine
myself being
a unicorn. I
could be a
unicorn.
se xanri

mi se xanri

x1 imagines x2 (possible event)

xanri

x1 (possible event) isimaginedby x2

Lesson 7. Conjuncti ons in detail

But ...

lo xance
be do cu
melbi .i je
ku'i lo
voksa be
do cu
mabla
Your hands
are nice.
But your
voice is

xance = x_1 is a hand (of x_2) **voksa** = x_1 is a voice (of x_2)

ugly.

Actually *but* is the same as *and* although it adds a flavor of contrast.

In Lojban we just use **je** and then add the interjection **ku'i** that will give us the necessary contrast.

Logical connectives

There are four basic words for logical connectives:

- ja = and/or
- je = and
- $\mathbf{jo} = only\ if$
- $\mathbf{ju} = whether or not.$

These are used for connecting parts of compound verbs. For connecting nouns we use similar connectives: .a, .e, .o, .u. So instead of the letter j we have a dot (pause) here.

The modern trend is to use ja, je, jo, ju for connecting nouns too.

Placing **na** before a connective negates what is to the left of it.

Placing **nai** after a connective negates what is to the right of it.

So if we take two
parts: A and B then
placing **ja** between
them gives **A ja B**which means *A or B or*both of them while e.g. **A jo nai B** means
either A or B but not
both.

This system gives results that are purely logical but might not look intuitively usable. Some of them are used seldom. It is no need to try to understand why they produce such results so you can just learn them by rot.

Here are the basic operators combining two words: *this* and *that*.

• **ti** .**a ta** = *this and/or*

that, this or that or both of them

- ti .e ta = this and that, both this and that
- **ti .o ta** = both or none
- ti .u ta = this, and perhaps that

Some other more rare conjunctions:

- ti .a nai ta = this if
 that, this is the
 exclusive condition
 for that
- ti .e nai ta = this and not that, this but not that
- ti .o nai ta = eitherthis or that
- ti na .a ta = this only if that
- ti na .e ta = not this but that
- ti na .e nai ta =neither this nor that(none)
- ti na .u ta = doesn't influence (not this, but perhaps that)
- ti na .u nai ta =

 doesn't influence (not

this, but perhaps that)

- ti se .u ta = perhaps this, and that
- ti se .u nai ta =perhaps this but notthat

ju and .u meaning whether or not just emphasize that the second value does not affect the truth of the sentence.

As you can see some produce synonymous results and **se** is used only for **ju** / **.u** because in other cases it leads to no effect in meaning.

Logical connectives for sentences

.i je joins two
sentences with a
logical and, showing
that two sentences are
part of one thought
and that both
sentences are true.

la rome'os
cu prami
la djuliet .i
je la
djuliet cu
prami la
rome'os
Romeo
loves Juliet
and Juliet
loves
Romeo

means that both statements are true, i.e. Romeo and Juliet love each other.

The same is applicable to other conjunctions:

la rome'os cu
prami la djuliet
.i ja la djuliet
cu prami la
rome'os
Romeo loves
Juliet and/or
Juliet loves
Romeo

means that
one of
them loves
the other,
and
perhaps
both of
them do.

la rome'os
cu prami
la djuliet .i
jo nai la
djuliet cu
prami la
rome'os
Either
Romeo
loves Juliet
or Juliet
loves

Romeo.

Here
either
Romeo
loves Juliet
(but Juliet
doesn't
love him),
or Juliet
loves

Romeo (but he doesn't love her).

la rome'os cu prami la djuliet .i <u>ja nai</u> la djuliet cu prami la rome'os Romeo

loves Juliet

 \underline{if} Juliet

loves

Romeo.

means that

if Juliet

loves

Romeo, he

definitely

loves her,

but he may

love her

anyway

(the only

outcome

which is

impossible

is that

Juliet loves Romeo but he doesn't love her).

la rome'os
cu prami
la djuliet .i
jo la
djuliet cu
prami la
rome'os
Romeo
loves Juliet
only if Juliet
loves

Romeo.

means that
if Juliet
loves
Romeo, he
loves her,
and if she
doesn't
love him,
he doesn't
love her.

la rome'os
cu prami
la djuliet .i
ju la
djuliet cu
prami la
rome'os
Romeo
loves Juliet
whether or
not Juliet
loves
Romeo.

.i mi djuno lo du'u do vi zvati .i na ja mi dasni no da

You read the first sentence: I know that you're here. Then you get the conjunction: If that were the case, I would wear nothing.
You didn't know in advance that the first sentence was going to be an if. This is unlike the case in English (and natural languages

in general), where the *if* comes right at the start of the first sentence, and gives you plenty of warning about what's coming up.

Notice how we
Lojbanize the name
"Romeo": combination
"eo" is impossible in
Lojban so we used
"e'o" and added a
consonant in the end
for his name.

Logical connectives for nouns

mi ralte lo
pa gerku .e
lo re mlatu
I've got a dog
and two cats.
I keep one
dog and two
cat.
[literally]

This is actually a contracted way of saying:

mi ralte lo
pa gerku .i
je mi ralte
lo re
mlatu

It is true that I have a dog. It is true that I have two cats.

mi ba
vitke lo
mamta .a
lo tamne
I'll visit the
mother or
the cousin.

This leaves open the possibility that I will get round to visiting both of them at some point. If I want to say that that I will visit either the mother or the cousin but not both, I need .o nai (either/or). This is actually a negative only if, which sounds confusing, but is quite simple. If and only if I do not visit the cousin,

I will visit the mother implies that, if I visit the cousin, I will not visit the mother, and vice versa; so I will visit either the mother or the cousin but not both. So we have

mi ba
vitke lo
mamta .o
nai lo
tamne
I'll visit
either the
mother or
the cousin.

As .o means only if, I will visit the mother if (and only if) I visit the cousin would be mi ba vitke lo mamta .o lo tamne. If, for some strange reason, I want to use simple if and say that I will definitely visit the mother if I visit the cousin, but I may visit her anyway, I need another negative:

.a nai:

mi ba vitke lo
mamta .a nai lo
tamne
ja nai = if
.a nai = if (for
nouns)

And $.\mathbf{u}$ means whether or not. In this way I can say

mi ba vitke lo mamta .u lo tamne I'll visit the mother whether or not I'll visit the cousin. mi nelci la bob .e nai la alis I like Bob but not Alice. I like Bob and not Alice

This is how we can say but not. Thus we negate the noun after .e. We can even say .e nai ku'i adding a

[literally]

flavor of contrast for the second noun.

It is possible to do the reverse: to negate the noun <u>before</u> .e. In this case we use the particle **na** before .e:

mi nelci la

alis na .e la
Bob

I don't like
Alice but I do
like Bob.
I like
Alice not
and Bob
[literally]

The second sentence means the same as the first although it may sound a bit weird for English speakers ("I like Alice not...") so you might prefer the first version — mi nelci la bob .e nai la alis or even mi nelci la bob .i mi na nelci la alis. And the last case:

mi nelci la
alis na .e
nai la Bob
I don't like
neither
Alice nor
Bob

Logical connectives for compound verbs

As we've seen before,
we can put two or
more verbs into a main
verb, getting a
compound verb
(tanru), and optionally
convert it into a noun
using **lo** or similar
particles:

lo xunre cukta

a red book

The first element of the compound verb modifies or restricts the second element, in some unspecified way. What happens if there are three or more elements, though? Like many other features of

Lojban grammar, tanru follow a left-grouping rule, which means that the element on the far left modifies the next one, then those two together modify the next, and so on. For example,

lo melbi xunre
cukta means a
beautifully red
book

But usually we need something like beautiful red book.

Thus, we have two adjectives. We need to connect them together like: beautiful and red book.

The simplest method for that is just to use a logical conjunction and say

no barda je
xunre cukta
A big red book.
A (big and
red) book.
[literally]

la .alis. cu nelci ro lo xajmi ja melbi nanmu Alice likes men who are funny or handsome (or both). Alice likes all (funny and/or beautiful) man [literally]

Let's say that Alice finds the qualities of humor and good looks attractive but incompatible — she likes Woody Allen and Steven Seagal, but thinks a mixture of the two would be just too much. We would then say

la .alis. cu nelci ro lo xajmi jo nai melbi nanmu Alice likes all (<u>either</u> funny <u>or</u> beautiful) man Alice likes men who are either funny or handsome (but not both). [literally]

On the other hand,
Jasmine is turned on
by funny men, and
doesn't care about
their looks at all.
Woody Allen would do
fine, but Steven Seagal
wouldn't stand a
chance unless he could
tell a few jokes
(funnier than
Schwarzenegger's,
preferably.) What we
need here is

la .jasmin. cu nelci ro lo xajmi ju melbi nanmu Jasmine likes all (funny whether or not beautiful) man.Jasmine likes funny men, whether they are handsome

Warning: Be
careful not to
confuse
connecting
nouns and
parts of
compound
verbs:

or not.

mi ba
vitke lo
mi
mamta
je lo mi
speni is
not the

same as
mi ba
vitke lo
mi
mamta
je
speni.

The first
phrase uses
the modern
trend of using **je** for
connecting
nouns.

The first phrase means that I will visit my mother and my spouse (probably on separate occasions). The second means that I will visit a person who is both my mother and my spouse.

Logical connectives for clause tails

pu ku mi
kelci lo
fudbolo
gi'e cu
klama lo
zdani gi'e
pinxe lo
ladru
I played
football,
went home,
drank milk.

gi'e connects several
clauses into one with
some nouns shared.
Look at this:

.i la .bob. pu
klama la
.kalifornias. .i
je la .bob. pu
stali la
.kalifornias.
ze'a lo nanca
be li ci
Bob goes to
California, and
Bob stays in
California
during three
years.

We can make this
example more concise
by merging the two
sentences into one:

.i la .bob.
pu klama la
.kalifornias.
gi'e pu stali
la
.kalifornias.
ze'a lo
nanca be li
ci
Bob went to
California,
and stayed
in California
for three
years.

We're keeping the subject who does or is something constant, and changing the rest of the sentence.

The first nouns
coinciding all those
sentences are called
"the head of the
clause", and the
remaining part, the
main verb with its
trailing nouns, is called

"the tail of clause". To separate them we use **gi'e** which has the same final vowel as in **je** and thus means and. Other connectives for clause tail are **gi'a** for and/or, **gi'onai** for either ... or, **gi'u** for whether or not etc. so they have the same vowel as connectives of **ja** series.

Choice questions

There is another type of *or* that we find in questions.

- xu do
pinxe lo
tcati .o nai
lo ckafi?
- je'u
- Will you
drink tea or
coffee?
- Yes.

That's a weird but a perfectly reasonable answer: Yes, I will drink tea or coffee.

Why this happens is because *or* has several meanings in English:

- A or B can mean either A, or B but not both. We use jonai here.
- A or B can mean A
 or B or both. We use
 ja here.
- 3. A or B? can be a question meaning select from A and B, which of them do you choose? We use ji here.

Thus in the last case we use a separate question conjunction **ji**:

do pinxelo tcati jilo ckafi?Will youdrink tea orcoffee?

Possible answers:

lo tcati .e lo ckafi Tea and coffee. lo tcati

Tea.

lo ckafi

 ${\it Coffee.}$

However, it is also possible to use conjunctions when replying:

.e - Both

(the first and

the second

item is

chosen)

.e nai - The

first one

(tea) (the

first but not

the second

one is

chosen)

 $\mathbf{na.e} - The$

second one

(coffee) (not

the first but

the second

one is

chosen)

na .e nai —

Neither (not

the first and not the second one is chosen)

If you say .e, you are saying the sentence .ido pinxe lo tcati .e lo **ckafi** — in other words, you will drink both. If you say .e nai, you are using the and not conjunction, which negates what follows it: so you are saying Iwill drink tea, and not coffee. If you want to negate what went before the conjunction instead, you use na .e and you are saying Iwill drink not tea, and coffee (or, as is more usual in English, not tea, but coffee) which means that you are picking only coffee. If you want neither, you can negate both sides: **na .e nai**. You can still be unhelpful with your response: .a would leave us right where we started, for

instance. But at least this way you have a logically consistent way of picking alternatives presented to you.

You can ask questions in the same way about the other kinds of conjunctions we have looked at. The interrogative conjunction for clause tails is **gi'i**, for compound verbs - **je'i**, for sentences — **.i je'i**.

The modern trend is to use ji for compound verbs too and .i ji for sentences.

Indirect questions are achieved by using **ji kau**:

The waiter asks

Jasmine and Alice lo

lanme ji lo bakni =

lamb or beef? Once

they answer, he knows whether they want to eat lamb or beef:

ba'o lo nu la .jasmin. .e la .alis. cu spusku vau lo bevri cu djuno lo du'u re ra djica lo ka citka lo lanme <u>ji</u> kau bakni Having Jasmine and Alice replied, the

waiter
knows
whether
they two
want to eat

beef.

lamb or

Forethought conjunctions

mi nelci la
Alis na je la
Bob
I don't like
Alice but I do
like Bob.
I like
Alice not
and Bob.
[literally]

The second sentence means the same as the first although it may sound a bit weird for English speakers ("I like Alice not...")

So if you don't like such linking of sentences hard to grasp or use you can either use the first sentence or use forethought conjunctions.

Forethought conjunctions are used to identify the logical relation between two terms by being placed in front of the first term, rather than in between the two.

.i mi djuno lo du'u do vi zvati .i na ja mi dasni no da

The problem here is, the logical version of if denies what comes before it. So in effect, you're getting the first statement, quite normally, and then the surprise: Either that's not true, or this is true. Things are just as bad for other conjunctions denying what comes before them:

mi nelci lo
bakni na
.e lo jipci
I like not
the beef,
but the
chicken.

But look at what the Lojban is actually saying:

I like the beef — NOT! and the chicken.

There was a vogue in the '90s of putting NOT! at the end of sentences in American English (see Wayne's World.) This was a joke, and the reason it was a joke is that saying a sentence isn't true after you've already said it isn't exactly being helpful.

So if we're going to use logical conjunctions in Lojban, and are obligated to pull NOT!-tricks like this, the Lojban listener can understandably get frustrated. Once again, though, Lojban has an answer. With forethought conjunctions, you can indicate the logical relationship between two terms in front of the first term. You still need a word separating the two terms, to show what is being logically

connected. But now you know in advance what that logical connection is.

If nouns are involved, the forethought conjunction is formed by placing the particle **ga** before the logical conjunction. The two nouns are then connected with the particle **gi**. So the forethought version of **mi** .e **do** is

ge mi gi do

Here, **ge** means that the two nouns coming up are connected with and, while **gi** indicates that what follows is the second noun in the relation.

The series is parallel to other connectives. It is **ga**, **ge**, **go**, **gu**.

The real usefulness of these forms comes out in the NOT!conjunctions we've just seen. If you want to give some warning when choosing the chicken instead of the beef, you can now say

> mi djica <u>ge nai</u> lo bakni <u>gi</u> lo jipci

Forethought conjunctions can be followed by **nai**, just like their afterthought counterparts.

If you wanted to say beef, not chicken, you would put **nai** after the **gi**:

mi djica ge lo bakni gi nai lo jipci

If you're connecting clauses, as it turns out, you still use **ge** or their friends. If you don't follow **ge** + noun immediately by **gi** and another noun, then Lojban grammar assumes that you're connecting not nouns

any more, but clauses.
So here is our
forethought version of
the problematic
sentence:

ni ga nai
mi djuno
lo du'u do
vi zvati gi
mi dasni
no da
If I know
that you are
here, I will
wear
nothing.

You'll notice that there is no second .i here.

Two clauses connected by ga nai belong to the same sentence.

What's coming up after the gi is a separate clause, so we don't need to separate it out with .i.

This can actually turn out handy in beating Lojban precedence:

.i la .flufis. cu ractu .i je ro lo ractu ze'i jmive .i la .flufis. se ni'i ze'i **jmive** Fluffy is a rabbit, and rabbits live not long. Fluffy therefore lives not long.

We should be able from that to say

i la .flufis.

cu ractu i
je ro lo
ractu ze'i
jmive i se
ni'i bo la
.flufis. ze'i
jmive

Right? Actually, no we can't: **bo** has the function of connecting sentences through prepositions, because it connects sentences

on its own. And when it does, it connects them tighter than .i je does. This means that .i se ni'i bo connects only to the immediately preceding $sentence-not\ to\ the$ preceding sentence pair! So Fluffy's death is presented as a consequence of rabbits not living long — not a consequence of both rabbits not living long and Fluffy being a rabbit.

However, if we put the two clauses in a single sentence, then none of this is an issue: the conclusion will attach to both clauses, but will still attach to a single sentence:

.i <u>ge</u> la .flufis. cu ractu <u>gi</u> ro lo ractu ze'i jmive <u>.i se ni'i</u> <u>bo</u> la .flufis. ze'i jmive There is also a forethought conjunction for compound verbs: these are gu'a, gu'e, gu'o, gu'u. And the second compound part is connected with gi. So if we want to say that Alice fancies men that are, if funny, then also handsome, the afterthought version is

la .alis. cu nelci ro lo melbi na ja xajmi nanmu

To make this slightly (but only slightly!)
more comprehensible,
we can put this in
forethought mode:

la .alis. cu nelci ro lo <u>gu'a nai</u> melbi <u>gi</u> xajmi nanmu

There are no forethought versions of clause tail

conjunctions. In practice, however, two clauses connected by **ge** can be clause tails just as easily as a full clause: there is no real distinction in meaning between the two.

New conjunction system

There is an
experimental new
conjunctions system
that is gaining
popularity. It doesn't
contradict the
standard system once
you know the
correspondences.

In the new system **ja**, **je**, **jo**, **ju** are used for connecting both nouns and verbs.

ja cu, je cu, jo cu, jucu are used to connectclause tails.

In each pair of columns you can see the new conjunctions to the left and the

standard conjunctions to the right:

in tanru *nouns* clause tails

The new system has fewer words to remember that's why it is gaining popularity.

Also you can use such conjunctions as **jo'u** and **joi** with it.

Lesson 8. Structurin g text

Emphasis



spageti
... is spaghetti

To emphasize a word we would use stress in

spoken English, and italics or capitals in written English.

In Lojban we use a separate word **ba'e**.

Like interjections, this word can go pretty much anywhere in a Lojban sentence, but it emphasizes the word that <u>follows</u> it, rather than what precedes it.

mi ba'e
nelci lo
spageti
I do like
spaghetti.

Paragraphs and separating sentences

ni'o works exactly like.i but starts a newparagraph. Paragraphsare usually associatedwith new topics.

It is normal to use in speech only .i to separate sentence but you might want to use

ni'o especially in a written text to structure it.

to ... toi for parenthetical remarks

Comments that we place inside parentheses in English text are formed using the particle **to** instead of the left parenthesis and **toi** instead of the right parenthesis:

ti poi to
vi'onai do
mi na
djica lo
drata toi
plise cu
fusra
This (no, I
don't want
another
one!) apple
is rotten.

 $\mathbf{ti} = this$ $\mathbf{djica} = to \ desire$ $\mathbf{drata} = to \ be$ $different \ from \dots$ $\mathbf{plise} = x_1 \ is \ an$

apple $\mathbf{fusra} = x_1 \ rots$ or decays with agent x_2

Such parenthetical remarks can go anywhere interjections can — meaning pretty much anywhere in a Lojban sentence. With parentheses, just like with quotes, you need to know where the parenthesis starts, and where it ends.

Advanced interjections

Discursives

A special group of interjections carry information about how a particular word or clause fits in with everything else you're saying.

We've seen one such interjection already: **ku'i**, which means *but*, *however*. This means that whatever it is attached to contrasts

with what you've been saying. It usually applies to a whole sentence (so normally you'll see it next to .i), but it can apply to a single word: .abu na .e ku'i by. is the proper Lojban for Not A, but B. Let's study other interjections.

.i mi venfu
do doi
melbi .e
ji'a lo
cmalu
gerku pe
do
I'll get you,
my pretty
— and your
little dog,
too!

ji'a means
additionally,
also. This means
that whatever it
is attached to
adds on to what
you've been
saying.

- mi si'a
nelci do
- I too like
you.
(although,
this is not
perfect
English
here)
- mi nelci
lo mlatu
- mi si'a
go'i
- I like cats.

si'a means
similarly, too.

– Me too.

In some cases, there is nothing to either contrast or add to what you've said, because what you've said is the unique relevant case. In that context, you would use only in English. Because only is somewhat clumsy to express in terms of pure logic, Lojban allows another discursive as its

equivalent: **po'o**. So

lo mlatu
po'o cu
nelci lo
mlatnipa
Only cats
like catnip.

lo mlatnipa = a
cat-intoxicating
catnip

If you wanted to say that something is not the only applicable case, then of course you'd say **po'o nai**.

la .alis. cu nelci ro lo xajmi ja melbi nanmu Alice likes men who are funny or handsome (or both). Alice likes all (funny and/or beautiful) man [literally]

This sentence is still true even if Alice also likes men who are not funny or handsome. In natural language, social conventions means you wouldn't normally say such a sentence in that case, because it would be misleading. In Lojban in order to be more precise 9when we want that) we can add po'o:

la .alis. cu
nelci fe
po'o lo
xajmi ja
melbi
nanmu
Alice likes
only men
who are
funny or
handsome
(or both).

Or we can rephrase this using **da**:

ro da poi nanmu gi'e se nelci la .alis. cu xajmi ja melbi Foreveryone who is a man and is liked by alice it is true that he is funny and/or handsome.

"Kidding..." and sarcasm

Interjections.
Kidding and

sarcasm

Kilding,
20'o saying notseriously,
humorously
xo'o Sarcastically
xo'ocu'i without xo'onal
saying

• The interjection zo'o is used just like the smiley-face in e-mail, to indicate that you're being humorous when saying something, and it's used for

much the same reason.

- The interjection xo'o
 is used the same way
 but for expression
 sarcasm.
- Correspondingly,

 zo'onai is used to

 show that the

 information is not a

 joke and xo'onai is

 for expressing

 sincerity.

In these two communication systems, it's difficult to work out whether someone is joking or not — in e-mail, because you can't hear the tone of voice that gives things away; in Lojban, because Lojban doesn't want to leave things to naturallanguage-based intuition when you want to explicitly express something (and also because it's used a lot on e-mail anyway). So hints like this are always

welcome, and frequently taken advantage of.

Fixing errors in speech

When screwing a sentence up, knowing how to correct yourself is a good idea. You can use two words to delete your previous words:

- si deletion:
 Deletes last word only.
- sa deletion:

 Deletes back until

 next cmavo spoken.

The function of them is obvious: they delete words as if they have never been spoken.

They do not work inside certain quotes (all quotes except lu...li'u), though, as that would leave it impossible to quote these words. Several si in a row deletes several words.

When you make a mistake while speaking (factual or grammatical) in English you don't normally bother to correct it even if you realize you made a mistake in the first place. That's because English is fairly redundant (for this very reason!). In English if we catch ourselves making an error, we stumble out a correction that will do the trick, without going into details like how many words should be cancelled: context usually helps us. So if I say

> I took and read an English dictionary. Er, Lojban dictionary.

context and common sense dictate that Lojban dictionary is meant to replace

English dictionary. But what if it was meant to replace took and read an English dictionary? We wouldn't normally care, in natural languages.

But Lojban allows you to be more precise about what words you are correcting.

si erases the immediately preceding word. If you want to erase two words in a row, you say si si after them. So the correction above would be in Lojban

.i mi te benji je tadni lo glico valsi si si lojbo valsi valsi = x_1 is a word with the meaning x_2 in language x_3

The problem with **si** is, you have to count words. This can get tedious, and you

shouldn't have to keep a transcript of your words when you want to correct yourself.

The other correction word Lojban offers is somewhat more helpful: **sa** takes the word following it, which starts the clause to serve as the correction. It then goes back in the sentence, looking for the last time you used a clause starting with the same word or another word of the same class (selma'o). Once it finds the last such clause, it replaces all text from that clause up to sa with the clause following sa. For example:

> .i mi te benji gi'e tadni lo sa .i mi tadni lo lojbo valsi

The correction following **sa** is a

sentence; you know
that, because the first
word after **sa** is the
sentence marker, **.i**. So
the sentence following **sa** replaces the current
sentence up to and
including **sa**. Or
consider:

.i mi mrilu fi do ca lo prulamdei sa ca lo reldei

The correction is ca lo reldei — on Tuesday.

So what it replaces is everything from the last clause beginning with ca: ca lo prulamdei — yesterday. The English version would be Yesterday I mailed you... actually, it was Monday.

Dealing with misunderstan ding

.i mi puzi te vecnulo flokati.i lo

flokati ki'a

I justbought aflokati.

— Flokati,

huh?

ki'a =

interjection
inquiry:
confusion about
something said.
"Huh? Whaat??
(confusion),
pardon?"

When you don't understand what someone has just said — whether because you don't get what they were referring to, or you don't know the word, or the grammar confused you — you can repeat the word or clause you didn't get, and add ki'a as a plaintive request for clarification (so it's even better than Huh?, because you can point out exactly what made you say Huh?)

Here is a dialogue.

— mi nelci

lo kalci

- ki'a ?
- I like shit.
- Whaat???

Note: Since zo
quotes any word
following it —
any word — it
turns out that zo
ki'a doesn't
mean zo? Huh?
at all, but The
word ki'a. To ask
zo? Huh?, you'll
have to resort to

Lesson 9

zo zo ki'a.

Terminology in clauses

Let's describe the structure of Lojban clause (**bridi**). The main verb, or predicate (**selbri** in Lojban) describes relationships of nouns. It can be represented as a single verb word

(selbrivla) or as a
compound verb
(tanru).

Here are some examples of nouns and main verbs.

ti ladru

This is milk.

Here **ti** is a noun and **ladru** is the main verb consisting of one verb word.

lo mlatu
cu sutra
pinxe
A cat
quickly

drinks.

Here **lo mlatu** is a noun (sumti) and the compound verb **sutra pinxe** works as the main verb (selbri).

Also you can add prepositions (sumtcita) like ca:

ra ca citka He/she now eats. So in other words.

bridi =
 optionally one or
 more sumti +
 one selbri + one
 or more
 sumtcita

or in English

clause =
 optionally one or
 more nouns +
 one main verb of
 the clause + one
 or more
 prepositions.

tanru, or compound
verbs consist of two or
more verb words. Each
left verb word is called
seltau compared to
the right one called
tertau.

Morphology of verbs

Verbs (**selbrivla**) are divided into 4 groups by their form:

1. **gismu**, or *root-words* are main

building blocks of Lojban vocabulary. gismu are easy to recognise, because they always have five letters, in the ${\rm form}\;{\rm CVCCV-e.g.}$ ladru, gismu, sumti, orCCVCV e.g. mlatu, cmene, bridi, klamawhere C=consonant and V=vowel.Verbs in the following forms are created when there is no appropriate verb in gismu list:

2. **lujvo**, or *compound*words. They are

created from short

building blocks

(called **rafsi**) used

for mnemonic

purposes. Examples

are: **retsku**,

kargau

3. **zi'evla**, or *free*words. They are

usually created for

specific concepts

and things like *igloo*(**iglu** in Lojban),

spaghetti (**spageti**

in Lojban).

4. **cmevla**, or *name* words.

Task. Close the right part of the table.
Which of the following Lojban words are selbrivla, cmevla (remember, they always end in a consonant), neither?

Note: I've the full stops are removed in the **cmevla** below to make the task a bit more tricky;).

lojban cmevla selbrivla karce robin cmevla mi cmavo mlatu selbrivla cukta selbrivla fa'a cmavo to'o cmavo ian cmevla ba cmavo selbrivla spageti

Masses and loi



loi prenu cu sruri lo

jubme

People surrounded the table.

jubme = x_1 is a table

We can't say **lo prenu cu sruri lo jubme**because it's impossible
that each person can
surround the table.

In fact the mass (crowd) of people surrounded it. Thus, we say lo gunma be lo prenu cu sruri lo jubme.

There is a shortcut for **lo gunma be lo** wich is **loi**.

lo gunma
be lo prenu
cu sruri lo
jubme
loi prenu
cu sruri lo
jubme
The mass of
people
surrounded

the building.

Carrots alone and carrots together



lo najgenja

a carrot

Consider a sentence:

Three carrots weigh 60 grams.

Does it mean that each carrots weighs 60 grams or they weigh 60 grams if taken together?

In Lojban we can easily distinguish between these two cases:

ro lo ci najgenja cu grake li 60

Each of three carrots weigh 60 grams. loi ci najgenja cu grake li 60

Three carrots weigh 60 grams in total.

(so that every carrots weighs 20 grams on average)

najgenja = x_1 is a carrot **grake** = x_1 weighs x_2 grams **kiltygrake** = x_1 weighs x_2 kilograms

As you can see there is an important difference between describing one object of a mass or describing the mass as a whole.

As we already know **lo ci najgenja** just
means *three carrots*:

ko dunda
lo ci
najgenja
Give me
three
carrots.

And

ko dunda
pa lo ci
najgenja
Give me
one carrot
out of those
three.

Existing things: "any", "the", "a"

Here is the difference between **lo** and **da poi**:

mi nitcu lo
mikce = I need
a doctor (any
doctor) (implying
"any doctor will
do").
mi nitcu da poi
mikce = There
is a doctor whom
I need.

We looked at **lo**, **zo'e** and **da** before. Here is a more complete expalanation.

- da poi refers to objects that exist. da always refers to the same object or event when used more than once in the same sentence or in several sentences connected to each other using connectives like ja, **ba bo** and their friends. So if I say da klama lo barja .i je da fenki you can assume I'm referring to the same man in both sentences.
- lo simply converts
 verbs to nouns. lo is
 similar to zo'e noi
 because it actually
 means someone who
 or something, which.
 As it is based on zo'e
 it can refer to
 different objects
 every time is used.

There are actually

three words in **da**series: **da**, **de**, **di**. Use
them if you need to
refer to different
objects in one
discourse:

ci da poi gerku cu batci re de poi nanmu Three dogs bite two men.

If you need more such words in one discourse add a suffix **xi** to them and then any number (which we can call an index).

Thus,

- da xi pa is the same
 as simple da,
- da xi re is the same as de,
- da xi ci is the sameas di
- da xi vo is the fourth "something" and so on...

Dropping da

pa mlatu is the same as pa da poi mlatu and thus means there is one cat. The same is true for other numbers and verbs: not using lo is equivalent of using da poi. Compare:

lo re mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

= Two cats drink milk.

re lo mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

= Two of cats drink milk.

re mlatu cu pinxe lo ladru

= There are two cats who drink milk.

Every time you use a number+verb a new **da** with new index is implied so

re mlatu cu
viska re prenu
is the same as re
da poi mlatu cu
pinxe re de poi

prenu (notice da
and de).

Another example:

mi cu clani
means
I have two
brothers and
they are tall.

clani = x_1 is long/tall

Topic and comment. zo'u

Sometimes it is useful to show the topic of a clause and then say a comment about it:

lo finpe
zo'u mi
nelci lo
salmone
As for fish I
like salmon.

zo'u ends the topic and starts the comment of the clause.

 $\mathbf{zo'u}$ is more useful

when a pronoun like

da is defined in the
topic and then used in
the comment:

da zo'u mi viska da

There is a thing such that I see it.

da poi gerku zo'u mi nelci

da

For each
ting that is
a dog: I like
it.
I like all
dogs.

da de zo'u da viska de

There is da and de such that da sees de.

The two pronouns **da**and **de** tell us that
there are two things
which stand in the
relationship that one
sees the other. It might

be the case that the supposed two things are really just a single thing that loves itself: nothing in the sentence rules out that interpretation, which is why the colloquial translation does not say Somebody sees somebody else. The things referred to by different pronouns of da series may be different or the same.

It is perfectly okay for these pronouns to appear more than once in the main clause:

da zo'u da
prami da
There is da
such that da
loves da.
There is
someone who
loves
himself/herself.

It is not necessary for a pronoun to be the direct noun of the the main verb: da zo'u lo
gerku pe
da cu
viska mi
There is da
such that
the dog of
them sees
me.
Somebody's
dog sees
me.

Scope

ci da poi gerku cu batci re de poi nanmu Three dogs bite two men.

The question raised here is, does each of the dogs bite the same two men, or is it possible that there are two different men per dog, for six men altogether? If the former interpretation is taken, the number of men involved is fixed at two; but if the latter,

then the speaker has
to be taken as saying
that there might be
any number of men
between two and six
inclusive. By using
zo'u we can make our
sentence more clear:

ci da poi
gerku re de
poi nanmu
zo'u da
batci de
For three da
which are
dogs, for two
de which are
men: da
bites de.

Here we see that each of the dogs is said to bite two men, and it might be different men each time; a total of six biting events altogether.

How then are we to express the other interpretation, in which just two men are involved? We cannot just reverse the order of variables in the prenex to

re de poi
nanmu ci
da poi
gerku zo'u
da batci de
For two de
which are
men, for
three da
which are
dogs, da
bites de

for although we have now limited the number of men to exactly two, we end up with an indeterminate number of dogs, from three to six. The distinction is called a "scope distinction": in the first example $ci\ da$ poi gerku is said to have wider scope than re de poi nanmu, and therefore precedes it in the prenex. In the second example the reverse is true.

To make to scope

equal we use a special connective **ce'e** connecting two nouns.

ci da poi
gerku ce'e
re de poi
nanmu cu
batci
ci gerku re
nanmu cu
batci
Three dogs
[plus] two
men, bite.

which picks out two
groups, one of three
dogs and the other of
two men, and says that
every one of the dogs
bites each of the men.
The second Lojban
version uses
forethought.

"any" and "some" in examples

The words "any" and
"some" are translated
to Lojban using **da poi**or **lo**. Here are the
most important
meanings of these

words. There is no need in memorizing the English names of those cases (like "irrealis"). Lojban is simple as you can see in the translations:

• Specific

known:

da pu

fonjor

ne .i

ko

smadi

lo

du'u

da me

ma

kau

Someb

ody

called.

Guess

who?

• Specific

unknown:

mi pu

tirna

da .i

ku'i

mi pu na kakne lo ka facki lo du'u da mo kau Iheard something, but Icouldn 't tell what it was. • Irrealis: .ei do troci bu'u lo drata You musttry somew here else. • Question:

xu da do pu junga u de Did anybo dy tell you anything aboutit? • Conditional antecedent fau da'i lo nu do viska su'o prenu vau, ko mi ba zi sai junga u If you see anybo dy, tell

me

• Comparati ve: la .djon. cu zmad u ro da lo ka clani than dy. • Direct negation: la su'o John seedy.

immed iately.

John is taller anybo

.djon. pu na viska prenu didn't anybo

• Antimorphic: mi jinvi lo du'u naku da djuno lo du'u ma kau danfu I don't think that anybo dy knows theanswe r. • Antiadditive: lo banxa catni cu rivbi lo ka

			jdice da The bank avoide d taking any decisio n.
			• Free
			choice:
			ro da
			zo'u:
			.e'a do
			cinba
			da
			You
			may
			kiss
			anybo
			dy.
			• Universal free choice:
			la
			.djon.
			pu
			cinba
			ro
		l	

ma'ur ni'u poi lo xunre ke'a kerfa John kissed any woman with red hair. • Generic: lo gerku cu se tuple vo da Any dog has four legs. • Indiscrimin ative: mi na za'o djica lo ka

gletu
lo na
slabu
be mi
I don't
want
to
sleep
with
just
anybo
dy
anymo
re.

Four meanin gs of "you" in English

We've
already seen
two personal
pronouns,
mi and do,
meaning I
(or me) and
you.
However,
you in
English can
mean four

different things: 1. The one person I'm talking to. 2. A number of people I'm talking to. 3. The person or people I'm talking to and some other person or people. 4. Anyone (as in Money can't buy you love.) Lojban gets round the confusion between (1) and (2) by using numbers. The most common way

to express (2) is **ro do** = all of you(or Southern U.S. y'all). You can also use specific numbers: lo re do would mean you two (for example, once can start e-mails to their parents with coi lo re do). Notice that **re do** means two of you and re lo ci do means two of you three. You can also use numbers with **ko**, e.g. ro ko klama ti - All ofyou, get over here. Case (3) is expressed by

the pronoun $\mathbf{do'o} - you$ and someone else. Case (4) is completely different: it's normally expressed by ro da = allda or ro lo prenu - allpersons, but often you can just miss it out altogether (or place $\mathbf{zo'e}$ in that place).

"we" —
differe
nt ways
of
saying
that

mi'ai

=I

and at

least

one

other

person (corres ponds toEnglis h "we") The word we (**mi'ai**) is vague. Sometimes we might want to use more precise words: mi'o =you and I mi'a = we withou t you ma'a = you and I and anothe r/other s Unlike English

some languages have separate words for that too. Not surprisingly, Lojban has such words too, although you are always free to revert back to **mi'ai**, which might be more comfortable sometimes.

> **mi** = I or the speake rs

Oddly
enough, mi
can also
mean we.
Lojban
makes no
distinction
between
singular and

plural by default. So if several people are speaking all together, \mathbf{mi} (which refers to the one or more speakers) is perfectly correct for we. In practice, you'll usually get **mi** used like that when one person is presuming to speak (or more often, to write) on behalf of others.

Some examples:

mi prami do I love you.

mi'a penmi do ti'u li ci We'll meet you at threeo'clock. ma'a remna We are all human. mi djica lo nu do cliva Wewant you to go away. mi'ai prami la .bob. We love Bob. (The sentence just states there are several people loving Bill including the speaker. It's not known if "we"

includes the listener)

Quotin g text in differe nt langua ges

The particle

zoi is a

quotation

mark for

quoting non-

Lojban text.

Its syntax is

zoi X. text

 \mathbf{X} , where X

is a Lojban

word (called

the

delimiting

word) which

is separated

from the

quoted text

by pauses,

and which is

not found in

the written

text or

spoken

phoneme

stream inside that quotation. It is common, but not required, to use the name of some letter, which corresponds to the Lojban name of the language being quoted:

zoi gy.
John is
a man
.gy. cu
glico
jufra
"John is
a man" is
an
English
sentence.

where gy.
stands for
glico. Other
popular
choices of
delimiting
words are
.kuot., a

Lojban name which sounds like the English wordquote, and the word zoi itself. Another possibility is a Lojban word suggesting the topic of the quotation.

Lojban
strictly
avoids any
confusion
between
things and
the names of
things:

zo.bob.cmene
la bob.
The-word "Bob"
is-the-name-of
the-one-named
Bob.
[literally]

zo .bab. isthe word,whereas labab. is the

thing named
by the word.
The particle
la'e and lu'e
convert back
and forth
between
references
and their
referents:

zo .bab.
cmene la'e
zo .bab.
The-word
"Bob" is-thename-of thereferent-of
the-word
"Bob".
lu'e la bab.
cmene la
bab.
A-symbol-for
Bob is-thename-of Bob.

Last two
examples
mean the
same. But
this is
different:

la
bab.
cu
cmene
la
bab.
Bob is
the
name
of Bob.

and says
that Bob is
both the
name and
the thing
named, an
unlikely
situation.
People are
not names.

The particle la'o serves to mark non-Lojban names, for example the Linnaean binomial names (such as "Homo sapiens"), which are the international ly standardized names for species of animals and plants.

International ly known names which can more
easily be
recognized
by spelling
rather than
pronunciatio
n, such as
Goethe, can
also appear
in Lojban
text with

la'o:

la'o dy.
Goethe
.dy. cu
me la'o
ly.
Homo
sapiens
.ly.
Goethe
is a
Homo
sapiens.

Using la'o
for all names
rather than
Lojbanizing,
however,
makes for
very
cumbersome
text. A rough
equivalent of
la'o might
be la me

zoi.

Everything expressed in text should also be expressed in speech and vice versa. Therefore, there cannot be any punctuation which is not pronounced. This means that Lojban has a wide range of words to quote other words. All Lojban convert a text into a noun.

$lu\,...\,li'u$

quote only
text that is
grammatical
ly correct.
To quote any

Lojban text

we use **lo'u**... **le'u** quote
instead.

xu lo'u je le'u lojbo sumtcita . i je'unai Is "je" a preposition? No.ma xe fanva zoi gy.What's up?.gy. la .lojban. How to translate"What's up?" to Lojban?

zo'oi quotes

next word
only. Next
word is
identified by
pauses in
speech or
whitespace/d
ot in writing:

ri pu
cusku
zo'oi
Doh!
.u'i
Ha ha,
he
said
"Doh!"

There is also the word **la'oi**, which forms a oneword name but unlike **la** even out of non-Lojban words:

la'oi
Safi
glico
nanmu.
It's his
name.
Safi is
an
English
guy. .i
lu'e ri
cmene
ri

The word

me'oi

next word
into a verb
even if it's
not a Lojban
word. It is
used to
create
necessary
verb words

on the fly or when you forget a

Lojban verb:

lo
xirma
ca
me'oi
gallop
The
horse
gallops

General use of **zo'oi**, la'oi and **me'oi** is problematic. You should be aware that the word following **zo'oi** should not include a period, a glottal stop or a pause. For example, the following sentence is not correct:

mi
penmi
la'oi
Mei Li
is not
correc
t since

la'oi attach es only one word, Mei. "la'oi uli.uli zgike tutci" for *Uli* uli is a musica 1 instrum ent is notcorrec t since la'oi takes only the first word before the dot: "uli" ("`uli` uli" is a Hawaii

an musica 1 instrum ent). Thus use la'o gy.uli. uli.gy. zgike tutci for *Uli* uli is a musica 1 instrum ent.

Infiniti ves and ce'u

The particle

ce'u is used

for referring

to the noun

from the

outside verb:

mi gleki lo
ka ce'u
prami
means the
same as

mi gleki lo nu mi prami I am happy that I love, I am happy of loving (someone). mi gleki lo ka prami ce'u means the same as mi gleki lo nu prami mi I am happy that someone loves me, I am happy of being loved (by someone) There is also

There is also
a rule that
the first
omitted
noun in the
embedded
clause is
automaticall
y assigend
the value of

ce'u if ka is used in the beginning of the embedded clause. So we can make the first sentence shorter: mi gleki lo ka prami means the same as mi gleki lo nu mi prami I am happy that I love, I am happy of loving (someone). mi gleki lo ka prami **ce'u** means the same as mi gleki lo nu prami mi I am happy that someone loves me, I

am happy of
being loved
(by
someone)

Notice we can't do that for the second sentence. In order to omit ce'u there you need to somehow fill the first noun so that ce'u goes to the next unfilled

mi gleki lo

ka zo'e

noun:

prami

means the

same as

mi gleki lo

nu prami

mi

I am happy

that

someone

loves me, I

am happy of

being loved (by someone)

For most
verbs **ce'u** in
their event
places refers
to the first
place of the
verb:

In mi
gleki
lo ka
ce'u
prami
the
particl
e ce'u
refers
to mi.

For **zmadu**and **mleca**the particle **ce'u** refers
equally to
the first two
places:

In mi zmad u do lo ka ce'u
clani
(I am
lengthi
er/talle
r than
you)
ce'u
refers
both to
mi and
do.

A very
special case
is **simxu**that has in
its second
place two **ce'u**.

mi
jo'u
do
simxu
lo ka
ce'u
ce'u
prami
You
and I
love
each
other.

The first
place of
simxu is one

or several nouns connected with **jo'u**.

The second place of simxu is an abstraction.
The first two unfilled places take have ce'u implied. So you can remove both ce'u in this example:

mi
jo'u
do
simxu
lo ka
prami
You
and I
love
each
other.

ka and $ce^{\imath}u$

are also
used to
express
infinitives:

mi djica lo ka pinxe or mi djica lo nu mi pinxe I want to drink. ra na nitcu lo ka co'e Hedoes not have to do this.

elliptic al/uns pecifie d verb. Often transla ted

co'e —

with this,

that,

it.

ma
pu
co'e
Who
did
it?
mi curmi

lo nu do
co'e
I will give
you
permission
to do it.

So co'e is a verb that is known from context. mi co'e might mean I am doing you know what, or You know who I am.

While zo'e is
the 'don't
care' noun,
co'e is the
'don't care'
verb. For
example,
when I say
mi klama lo
barja, I'm
not

bothering to

specify my

point of origin, route, or vehicle. And when I say **mi co'e** lo barja I don't specify what I'm doing to the bar, probably I'm visiting it. So mi co'e lo **barja** means something like Ithingummy the bar: the bar and I are in some relationship, but I'm not bothering to say what it is. I might be going to it, coming from it, sleeping in it, refurbishing it, or hearing about my neighbor getting

drunk in it
once. It just
doesn't
matter
enough for
me to say
what.

The verb

djica

requires us
to specify an
event that
one desires.

mi
djica
lo nu
mi
citka
lo
plise
I want
to eat
an
apple.

Okay, but
usually we
just say in
English I
want an
apple. We
can't desire

the apple itself, we want to do something with it.

Here we can omit the second **mi** and replace the verb *to* eat with **co'e**.

mi
djica
lo nu
co'e lo
plise
I want
somet
hing to
do
with
an
apple.

So I let it be
up to context
what
abstraction
about the
apple I
desire.

There is a compact abbreviation for lo nu co'e which is tu'a:

mi
djica
tu'a lo
plise
I want
an
apple.

tu'a takes a noun and converts it to an elliptical abstraction which has something to do with that noun. One always has to guess what abstraction the speaker means by tu'a + thenoun, so it should only

be used when context makes it easy to guess. Another example: gasnu $= x_1$ does/b rings about \boldsymbol{X}_2 (volitio n not implie d) za'a do gasnu tu'a lo skami I see that you make thecompu ter do somet hing.

There are situations where you cannot use tu'a, even though it would seem suitable. These situations are when I don't want the resulting noun to be an abstraction, but a concrete noun. In this case, one can use zo'e **pe** or its abbreviation zo'ei.

mi djuno zo'ei do or mi djuno zo'e pe do I know aboutyou, I know something about you

Compar isons: "more than..."

mi nelci rutpesxu pe semau lo ladru I like jam more than milk. lo rutpesxu cu zmadu lo ladru lo ka mi nelci I like jam more than milk. Jam exceeds milk in how much I like it. [literally]

We can of course say

... mi nelci
ce'u in the
end to show
the listener
that we fill
the second
place of it
(but the first
is filled

anyway so

ce'u is not

needed

here).

Another

method is to use the preposition

semau

which means
more than
and always
refers to the
first place of
its clause:

lo
rutpesxu
cu se
nelci mi
semau
lo ladru
Jam is
liked by
me more
than
milk.

And now an interesting sentence:

Bob likes Betty more than Mary.

It can mean two different things in English!

Bob likes
 Betty and

he likes Mary less. 2. Bob likes Betty but Mary likes Betty too, though not as much as Bob does! Do we compare Betty with Mary in how Bob likes them? Or instead we compare Bob with Mary in how they like Betty? English is ambiguous in this regard. However, since semaualways compares

the noun
after it with
the first
place of the
clause we
know what
we get:

la bob cu
nelci la
betis
semau la
maris
Bob
(compared
to Mary)
likes Betty
more.
Mary likes
Betty less.

la
betis
cu se
nelci
la bob
semau
la
maris

semaula
la
maris
Betty
is
loved
by Bob
more
than
Mary.
Bob

likes Mary less.

Compar isons: "equal

", "the same"

mi dunli lo mensi be mi lo ka clani i ku'i mi na mintu my. I am as long as my sister. But I'm not her.I equal the sister of me in length. But ${\rm i} \ {\rm am} \ {\rm not}$ identical to her. [literally]

dunli

 $= x_1$

(any

type)

is

equal

to x_2

(any

type)

in x_3

(prope

rty of

 x_1 and

 x_2 with

{kau})

mintu

 $= x_1$

(any

type)

is

identic

al to x_2 (any
type)
in x_3 (prope
rty of x_1 and x_2 with $\{kau\}$)

dunli

compares two places for a single property, while **mintu** compares for identity. My sister and I are the same height, but we are not the same person. Clark Kent $\quad \text{and} \quad$ Superman have different admirers, but they are the same

person.

The same goes for another two verbs: mi frica do lo ka nelci makau We differ from each other in what we like. I differ from you in liking what. [literally] lo drata be mi $\mathbf{c}\mathbf{u}$ kakne lo ka sidju Someone other than me is able to help. frica $= x_1$ (any type) differs from x_2 (any type) in x_3 (prope rty of x_1 and x_2 with {kau}) drata

				$= x_1$
				(any
				type)
				is not
				the
				same
				as x_2
				(any
				type)
				Interna
				1
				preposi
				tions
				Using be
				you can
				attach not
				only the
				default
				places of
				verbs but
				even
				prepositions:
				1

lo vi xatra be de'i li vo cu se mrilu de'i li ze Thisletter, dated the 4th, was mailed on the 7th

A date tagged with $\mathbf{de'i}$ applies only to the xatra. In lo vi xatra de'i li vo cu se mrilu de'i li **ze** it would apply to the whole clause, not to the letter. What we want to say is that the former date applies just to the letter, and the

latter date
applies to
the mailing
of the letter.
This means
that the 4th,
as a date,
applies only
to the verb
lo xatra,
and not to
the entire
clause.

Another example is

fi'e =
prepos
ition:
author
ed by
.... The
same
as fi'o
finti

fi'e, like by
in English,
tends to
apply only to
specific
things, and
not to

events: you say *a book* by Dickens or a sonata by Mozart, ${\rm not}\, {\it Jim}\,\, went$ to the zoo, by Norman Mailer. (OK, you can say "Jim Went To The Zoo", by Norman Mailer if "Jim Went To The Zoo" is the name of a book. But then by Norman Mailer is still attached to a thing, and not to an event). So fi'e is almost always used as an internal noun. This means you can say

lo
cukta
be fi'e
la
.dikens.
a book
by
Dickens

However, in

la
.oliver.tuist.
pe fi'e la
.dikens. cu
mutce
xamgu
"Oliver
Twist" by
Dickens is
very good.

we use **pe** to attach the preposition to the whole noun (the name la .oliver.tuist . in this case).

Another
frequently
used
alternative is
to use **finti**which **fi'e** is
derived
from:

la

.oliver.tuist

poi la .dikens. cu finti ke'a cu mutce **xamgu** or la .oliver.tuist . poi la .dikens. cu finti cu mutce xamgu "Oliver Twist" by Dickens is very good. Compo und verbs in detail

The grouping of terms in Lojban grammar is particularly important when it comes to tanru (compound verbs). The way verbs

group
together in a
tanru
determines
what that
tanru means.
For example,

bad music magazi ne

has in
English two
interpretatio
ns: a bad
magazine
about music,
or a
magazine
about bad
music. In
Lojban, its
equivalent

lo xlali zgike karni

has only the interpretatio $n \ a \ bad$ -

music magazine, because the first two verbs (xlali zgike-badmusic) group together first. So it is important to be able to modify the grouping of verbs, so that we can make sure the tanru means what we actually intend it to mean. For that reason, Lojban has a couple of mechanisms in place for making tanru group together properly.

In English

we use

brackets to
structure the
text.
Likewise for
tanru we use
ke' for the
left bracket
and ke'e for
the right
bracket.

lo
xlali
ke
zgike
karni
means
a bad
{music
magazi
ne}.

As you can see we separated **xlali** from the rest of the tanru and made it apply to the whole tanru. There is no need in **ke'e**

in the end of the tanru since we already know that it ends here.

> .i mi pu zi te vecnu lo xlali ke zgike karni .i toʻe zanru la'o gy.Eurythmics.gy. I just bought a bad music-magazine. It dissed the Eurythmics.

That's one way of grouping together verbs in tanru. The other way is to use a particle **bo** in a new role. When **bo** appears between two verbs, it means that those verbs group together more tightly than anything else. So an alternative

way of
saying bad
{music
magazine} is

lo

xlali

zgike

bo

karni

= a

bad

music-

magazi

ne

bo here is

similar to

the hyphen

in English

translation.

This means

that \mathbf{zgike}

bo karni

should count

as a unit, to

which **xlali**

(bad)

applies.

tighter

connectio

ns

So **bo** makes

the connections tighter.

la
.jasmin.
je la
.alis.
jonaibo
la .bob.
Jasmine
and
(either
Alice or
Bob)

ke can also
be used with
connectives
(though not
with
sentences;
they have
their own
kind of
bracket, tu'e
... tu'u.) So
we could
also say

la
.jasmi
n. je
ke la
.alis.
jonai
la
.ranjit

Remember
that the
right bracket
ke'e can be
left out in
most cases
without
changing the
meaning
(like in this
case).

Forethought conjunction are also used a lot since they can eliminate the need in right brackets:

la
.jasmi
n. gi
gajon
ai la
.alis.
gi la
.bob.

<u>gaje</u>

either Alice or Bob $\quad \text{and} \quad$ gajona <u>i</u> gaje la .jasmin . gi la .alis. g<u>i</u> la .bob. Either Jasmin e and Alice, or *Bob*}} We don't need **bo** or **ke** with forethought conjunctions co for changi ng the order

e and

in compou nd verbs

There is another way of restructurin g compound verbs.

mi fanva se

jibri

I'm a professional translator

jibri =

x1 is a

job of

*x*2

dotyb

au =

x1 is

Germa

n used

by x2

to say

х3

glibau

= x1 is

Englis

h used

by x2

to say

х3

If I wanted
to say that
I'm a
professional
translator
from English
to German, I
could mess
around with

be, bei:

mi fanva
be lo
dotybau
bei lo
glibau be'o
se jibri
I'm a
professional
translator
from
English to

German

The fact that
it was a
compound
verb could
quickly be
lost in
speech due
to the
complicated
structure of
the
sentence.
Here, we

word **co**: co inverts the compo und verb, makin g the rightm ost verb word modify the leftmo st instea d of the other way around . Any previo us noun fills the modifi ed, any

can use the

following noun fills the modifier.

mi se jibri co fanva lo dotybau lo glibau

It is the same clause as the previous Lojban one, but much more easy to understand. Notice that any noun before the compound verb fills \mathbf{se} **jibri**, while any following it only fills the modifying verb: fanva.

The strength by which

two verbs are bound together with \mathbf{co} is very weak even weaker than normal compound verb grouping without any grouping words. This makes sure that, in a coconstruct, the leftmost verb word is always the verb being modified, and the rightmost always modifies, even if any of those parts are compound verbs. This makes a coconstruct easy to understand:

ti pelxu plise co kukte

is read as **ti**

(pelxu

plise) co

kukte,

which is the

same as ti

kukte pelxu

bo plise.

This also

means that a

ke ... ke'e

cannot

encompass a

CO.

However, **ja**

cu, ja cu

etc. bind

even looser

than **co**. This

is in order to

totally avoid

confusion

about which

verb word

binds to

which in a **ja**

cu-

construct.

The answer

is simple: **ja cu** never
emcompasse
s any verb
groups.

How can you
express "I
am an
important
American
buyer of
computers"
using a co?

Answer: mi
skami te
vecnu co
vajni merko

If it's of any
use, this is
the list of
different
kind of verb
word
groupers
ranked by
strength:

- 1. **bo** and **ke**
 - ... ke'e
- 2. Logical connectiv

es other
than ja
cu series
3. not using
grouping
words
4. co
5. ja cu
series
(clause-ta
il
afterthou
ght
connectiv
es)

Lesso n 10

Interna l nouns and be

As **be** allows attaching to nouns other nouns as their place this means that you can nest noun inside noun inside noun, up to and including the

point where you fry your brain.

This means, by the way, that you can nest noun inside noun inside noun, up to and including the point where you fry your brain. To hold off on frying your brain just a little, you need to be able to say this is where the list of nested noun stops — at least at the current level of nesting. To close the list of nouns attached with **be** we put the word **be'o** at the

end: lo be la bei la The letter toYan from cu la .bob. mails this to Bobla cu be la .ian. bei la .alis. la .bob. Jasmine mails $\{Alice's$ letter to Bob.

xatra

.ian.

.alis.

Alice

.jasmin.

mrilu ti

Jasmine

.jasmin.

mrilu

lo xatra

Yan} to

lo mrilu be lo xatra be la .ian. bei la .alis. be'o bei la .bob. The one who mails {Alice's letter to Yan} to Bob. lo mrilu be lo xatra be la .ian. bei la .alis. bei la .bob. Theone who mails $\{Alice's$ letter to Yan aboutBob}.

Advanced styles:
Moreabout

short relative clauses

We've covered **pe** and **ne**.

A construct sometimes used by Lojbanists is

lo {noun}

{verb}. This is equivalent

to **lo {verb}**

pe {noun}.

For example,

lo mi gerku

 $is\ equivalent$

to **lo gerku**

pe mi.

However,

this is okay

only with

pronouns. If

you want to

use a noun

converted

from a verb

(for

example,

with **lo**) then

it's advisable

to use **pe**: **lo**

gerku pe la .alis. = theAlice's dog. You can see that the order is the other way around from English: lo gerku pe lo nanla looks more like the dog of a boy. Now, English uses both s and of for this kind of association. The choice between the two is complicated, but basically depends on whether the 'possessor' is a person or not which is why the dog of a boy sounds

odd, as does

English's verbs. move a lo dog. However, only to names.

In Lojban you can pronoun to the left:

> gerku pe mi is the same as lo pe mi gerku. This is literall y The of me dog/ my

this applies pronouns, not to **lo**nouns or la-

In short it's much safer

to always
use pe and
put it after
the noun to
which it is
attached: lo
gerku pe la
.alis. and lo
gerku pe
mi are most
intuitive
constructs.

Situatio n: "My garden"

ti me lo purdi pe This is my mi .i mi garden. I walk in the cadzu bu'u py. walk in garden. i mi tirna lo cipni poi sanga i lo sance be cy. na cladu

I hear tirnds birds singing. The sound of birds is not loud. .i lo .i lo The sounds is tolycladu i lo rilti rhythm is nice. The i lo nice. The tone is high. .i tcima The fa lo weat solri .i sunn weather is mi catlu look to the lo tsani sky. .i mi na viska lo I don't see solri .i lo the sun. dilnu cu Clouds fanta lo covers its solri beams. gusni .i ku'i mi ca'o But I can ganse lo still feel glare the heat of gau lo the sun. solri .i mi viska lo I see apple trees. The plise plise tricu .i ri clani i clani .i apples are lo plise cu crino green.

.i mi klama lo I go to the plise apple tricu .i trees. I mi ganse feel cold lo lenku under the ni'a lo trees. tricu .i mi jdice lo

I decide to ka sumne lo smell an apple. I smell it's sumle lo flavour. panci .i lo .i lo panci cu pluka .i pleasant. I chew the apple. lo plise .i mi smaka lo plise .i ri titla

I taste the apple. It's sweet. .i mi .i mi
klama lo
crane .i
mi viska
lo flora lo flora .i mi co'a zutse tezu'e lo ka

I sit down to smell sumne lo their panci be lo flora .i lo .i lo
mlatu cu
klama
mi .i mi
palpi lo

A cat
comes to
me. I
touch the palpi lo mlatu cat.i lo sefta be ri cu ranti je ranti je kerfa is coft. ranti je xutla .i loi kerfa cu xutla i mi co'a
sanli i
lo purdi
pe mi
melbi

I stand up.
My garden
is
beautiful. .i mi $What\ are$ cinmo cinmo
ma i lo
ka gleki
i mi
cinmi lo
ka na
I feel that
I am not ka na badri

Task.

Answer

these

questions

(close the

right part of

the table):

xutla or ranti je **xutla** — What is lo thesefta cat's be lo mlatu surface? cu mo Smooth, smoothand soft. xu do je'unai cinmo
lo ka
badri
No.

Dicti onary

In this dictionary I will list words needed for basic conversation

. Please,

note:

• this

dictionary

lists only

basic

words.

Lojban is a

live and

dynamic

language

and

accumulate

s more

words over

time. \bullet examples are provided only for most useful places of verbs. • not all examples are written in an easy style. I added them to show different (sometimes more powerful) application s of aword. You may study them later. • if there are, for example, 5 places of a verb it doesn't mean you need to

remember them all. Not all of them are always needed. Practice will allow you to gradually internalize them while speaking to Lojbanists in real time. • people may use other places of verbs in their speech or even verbs not listed here. Feel free to ask them about the meaning of them. In this dictionary we

mention only those who define the basic structure of verbs. Other Lojban dictionarie s can mention more places which are used more seldom.

Types of places

Each place
in Lojban
can contain
one of the
following:

- clause
- entity or text
- number

Situatio ns

1. an entity place in a noun matches an entity place of the main verb:

plise

 $= x_1$

(entity

) is an

apple

of

specie

 $s x_2$

grute

 $= x_1$

(entity

) is a

fruit of

plant

 \boldsymbol{X}_2

plise
cu
grute
Apple

lo

is a

fruit.

Here the

first place of **plise** is a topic and it matches the first place of grute which is also a topic. 2. a clause place in a noun matches a clause place of the main verb. It means that the place is filled either with a clause or another place of event type: djica $= x_1$ wants \boldsymbol{X}_2 (clause nitcu $= x_1$ needs

 x_2 (clause
)

se
nitcu
= x_1 (clause
) is
neede
d by x_2

mi
djica
lo se
nitcu
I want
what is

needed.

Here the second place of **djica** is a clause and it matches the second place of **nitcu** which is also a clause.

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{nicte} \\ = x_1 \\ (event) \\ is \ a \\ nightti \\ me \end{array}$

lo nicte
cu nu lo
solri na
te gusni
Nighttime
is when
the Sun
isn't
shining.

crisa

 $= x_1$

(event)

is a

summe

r

citsi =

 X_1

(event)

is a

season

lo crisa cu

citsi

3. an entity
place in a
noun is
vague when
put into a
clause place
of the main
verb. Putting
a topic place

into a clause

place

denotes an obvious relation:

mi
djica
lo
plise
I
want
an
apple.

The second place of djica is a clause. Thus lo plise, an apple plays some role in that clause. Probably it means:

mi
djica
lo nu
mi
citka
lo
plise
I
want
to eat
an
apple.

but may be I just want to hold an

apple in my
hand. If you
need
vagueness
or just lazy
to say more
you can use
this method.

mi lerci I'm late.

probably
means that
e.g. my
arrival
happened
late.

4. text place

is filled with quotes and start with zo, lu ... li'u, zoi, zo'oi or some other particles.

5. Numbersare markedwith li

A number

specified
with **li** goes
there:

ti mitre li mu This is 5 meters long.

or a
"number"
place from
another
verb: lo
namcu, lo
se mitre.

6. Properties are a special kind of clauses.
Clause can be used as a property. It has a **ce'u** particle

When used in the first place of the verb
ce'u refers to the second

place of the verb. • When used in the another place of the verb **ce'u** refers to the first place of the verb. • If explicitly specified in the definition then it refers to what is described in the definition. ckaji $= x_1$ (infinit ive of x_2) is a proper ty of x_2

lo ka kukte
cu ckaji lo
badna
Bananas are
characterized
as being
sweet.
Being tasty
is a
property of
bananas.
[literally]
mi
kakne

lo ka

limna

I am
able
to
swim.

Some properties can refer equally to several places:

mi zmadu do
lo ka clani
vau lo centre
be li mu
I am 5
centimeters
taller than you.
I am more
than you in
length by 5
centimeters.
[literally]

zmad

 $\mathbf{u} = x_1$

(any

type)

exceed

s or is

more

than x_2 (any

type)

in x_3 (prope

rty of x_1 and x_2 with $\{kau\}$)

by

amoun $t x_4$

Here, mi
and do are
compared,
and ce'u in
the third
place refers
to each of
them
equally.

In case of doubt open the dictio nary and look

at the exam ples. At least on of the usag е exam ples will have all place S filled.

7.
'proposition
- a place
filled with
du'u. It
works
exactly as
nu but is
traditionally
used with
some places
and always
mentioned
for them in
the

				dic	tionary:
					djuno = x_1
					(entity) knows
					that x_2 (propo
					sition) is true
					mi djuno lo
					du'u do stati I
					know that you
					are smart.
				Dio	e tionary