Trigedasleng: A Study of the Verb System of a Possible Future Creole English

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A. Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to explore the possibility that Trigedasleng, a conlang, could be a future development of Present-Day English (PDE). The main argument of this thesis is that Trigedasleng developed from PDE as a creole. Three aspects of Trigedasleng will be analyzed and discussed: the pronunciation and possible changes; the system of verb auxiliaries that English-based creoles use, which determine the tense, mood and aspects of verbs (TMA auxiliaries), and its comparison to the verb system found in Trigedasleng; the phrasal aspect of Trigedasleng's verb system, referred to as "phrasality" in this work, and an exploration of the possible developmental connections to PDE, as well as connections to the development of this feature through the history of English since the Old English period. The firm conclusions that can be drawn from this work are that Trigedasleng does seem to fit the profile of an English-based creole as far as the analyzed features are concerned, but also that phrasality "runs in the veins" of the English language, and ties Trigedasleng firmly to the English family in this aspect; lastly, it can be firmly concluded that Trigedasleng subscribes to compounding and phrasal construction seemingly as much as PDE does. Loose conclusions include the possibility of a creole developing within the "confines" of a single language, that there exists a shared cognitive reality that governs the grammar of a language as well as its possible developments, as well as that studying such constructed languages that are proposed future developed forms of present-day languages might help linguists predict the direction in which a language's development might proceed. What remains inconclusive is weather the changes observed in Trigedasleng's development are distinctly English.

Key words: conlangs, diachronic linguistics, creolistics, etymology, verb systems, TMA auxiliaries

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1. INTRODUCTION

Constructed languages, or conlangs, as they are popularly known, have been a part of popular culture and cult fandom since the dawn of fictional novels, comics, and television shows set in their own fictional universes alternate to ours. Most people are aware of what a conlang is, even if they are not aware of the term, and can easily distinguish between constructed languages and real, living languages. But, the number of conlangs keeps growing, and the complexity of some of these conlangs reaches astounding levels. Therefore, it is my personal belief that nearly everyone can intuitively know a conlang when they hear one, even if it "sounds" like an actual language.

The reason for this belief is very simple – real, living languages have a history, have naturally been developing and changing in parallel with the evolution of the human being, and have also a nearly unquantifiable measure of variation. This becomes obvious when one considers, for example, the various forms of Chinese that exist nowadays, or the massive difference between Japanese and Chinese, even though both languages use a nearly identical form of calligraphy (kanji). Each language has developed as it has so far due to reasons and causes from all sides – biological, historical, intralinguistic, natural, etc. – most of which we will surely never know. They are called living languages precisely because of these aspects.

Conlangs, on the other hand, have rarely as complex a history as living languages. But, giving credit where credit is due, Tolkien simply must be mentioned in this discussion, since he was the man who had handcrafted nearly 10 millennia of world history to go hand in hand with the development of his family of elven languages. Unlike this example, most other conlangs which do have a history have very little connection between language development and extralinguistic

factors. A prime example would be Klingon, since the official grammar of the language reveals nearly no connection between world history of Qo'Nos, the Klingon Empire, and the language of the Klingons, or any other extralinguistic factors, except for the Klingons "sounding" aggressive and their language having no actual word for '*thank you*', '*please*', and some other terms of politeness.

All conlangs have, up till now, belonged invariably to one of three categories that we categorize conlangs by: gibberish conlangs, consistent conlangs, and naturalistic conlangs (Peterson, 2013). To better illustrate the meaning of each category, I will provide an example or two per category, along with an explanation.

First, the easiest to present, the gibberish conlangs category. The name of this category makes the category self-explanatory. These languages are comprised of nonsensical sounds, in most cases carrying no meaning, with the only intent being for them to sound alien, foreign, strange, or simply incomprehensible. A great example of this would be really every non-English (or non-Basic, as they name it) language appearing in the Star Wars franchise. Linguists who are fans of the franchise (and many, many others who are not) often joke that the Twi'lek aliens of the universe speak the most polysemic and context-dependent language in the history of languages ever, since in all of the material, both video games, novels, comic books and movies, the characters belonging to this species (ab)use the phrase '*Moocha shakka pakka*' (personally transliterated) to the extent where you could have an entire conversation with a character in the *Knights of the Old Republic* video game, and all that character would say would be the aforementioned phrase, with subtitles ranging from greetings to complex compound sentences. Judging by the subtitles in the movies and TV shows, the meaning conveyed in the books, there seems to be no rules governing how the phrase is used. Two other very good examples of this category would be the language of

the Podlings from *The Dark Crystal* series and the famous "the funniest joke in the world" from Monty Python's *Flying Circus* movie; the former is merely a gibberish mixture of Slavic expressions and words, but heavily misused (that may change, however, with the new series coming to Netflix), while the latter is the purest form of gibberish, made only to sound German.

The second category, the consistent conlangs, are leagues ahead of gibberish. The main qualities of consistent conlangs are that these languages are, first of all, extremely well-constructed, having a proper grammar and an established vocabulary, but their namesake comes from the lexicological and morphological consistency – there are no variants or variations to the language. One could even argue that these conlangs are too consistent to have believably naturally developed as a language. A great example of this is Klingon. In Klingon, there is a 1:1 correlation between *signifié* and *signifiant*. It should be noted, however, that in the last few years the community of speakers of Klingon became more involved in the continued development of the language, resulting in several dozens of synonyms existing in the language today, but when analyzing a conlang, we analyze it as it was at the time of its creation. Another thing that makes Klingon a language unlikely to ever exist is its degree of variance in relation to its geographical (or galactic) spread. A language spoken across hundreds of planets for hundreds of years has not changed at all in that time, and no dialects or variants exist whatsoever. Klingon, however, is a fantastical language, but there exist two very famous consistent conlangs that have been present in the world since the late 19th century – Modern Hebrew and Esperanto. These share many traits of consistent conlangs with conlangs used for entertainment purposes, but have one distinguishing linguistic feature, and that is their native speakers, who are now granting these languages a small degree of variation, though nothing too specific or different from the basis of the language.

The third and last category, to which Trigedasleng belongs, are naturalistic conlangs. Their defining feature are their variance and redundancies, both lexical and morphological ones. Whereas the slightest difference in pronunciation of a Klingon word can mean either a planet or the act of stealing something, for example, phonemic variation in a natural language is key to every individual being able to speak the language, as well as for individuality of expression, regional difference, and so forth. That is why naturalistic conlangs are man-made things that are closest to natural language. For example, it has been scientifically proven on numerous occasions that a single person cannot identically pronounce the same word several times, be it several times in a row, or consecutively with buffers (e.g. speakers of different Englishes all pronounce the word '*cat*' in different ways, yet still understand it as the same word). This variance has, in recent years, been a specific focus of researchers worldwide, such as Jose Mompean, Penny Karanasou, Van Bael, van den Heuvel and Strik, among others, but these researchers mostly focused on research for use in language technologies or digital corpora. As far as conlangs are concerned, this variance makes a naturalistic conlang a believable language. English, for example, involves phenomena such as polysemy, homonymy, pronunciation variations and regional variants. For a language that covers, by some estimates, around 20% of the entirety of Earth's population at the moment, that is to be expected. Klingon, on the other hand, is the official language of the Klingon Empire, which in the *Star Trek* universe covers a territory of about 10%-20% of the "Beta Quadrant" of the Milky Way. To compare, while English covers roughly $7.272727e^{-14}$% of the Milky Way, Klingon covers roughly 2%-5% of the entire galaxy, i.e. it represents a speech area about 2.5 trillion times larger than that of English. And yet, the conlang in this universe, in which an English language identical to our Present-Day English exits (including various vernaculars and dialects and so forth), has no variation whatsoever, and according to its speakers and dictionaries, has a 1:1 ratio of lexical items

for extralinguistic items. Any freshman of any language major will tell you that such a language is quite unlikely to exist, even within the constraints of its own universe, where many planets are said to be home to numerous languages with rich vocabularies, regional variants and so on.

Having presented all this information, one may wonder how Trigedasleng is at all different from any other famous naturalistic conlang (like Valyrian, which has many variants, such as High Valyrian, Bastard Valyrian, Meereenese, etc.), and why it may be that important. Put in extremely simple terms: Trigedasleng is currently the only naturalistic constructed language that is based on, and a proposed development of, a real natural language spoken by actual people. Having said that, the former statement is at the same time both true and false. What this means is the following – while Trigedasleng is not developmentally a direct descendant of Present-Day English, the theory that this thesis proposes, and will attempt to illustrate through examples, is that Trigedasleng is actually an English creole, based on Present-Day English grammatical features, and using a fictional English cryptolect as a source of its vocabulary. This gives us the unique chance to diachronically study a supposed future variant of a language that is actively spoken today, and see how this language could develop from this point in time onwards, under the effects of certain intra- and extralinguistic causes and frames. Additionally, the language provides a great source of examples to study the possibility of a creole developing out of a single language (sort of) rather than out of two distinct languages, possibly widening the scope of what is considered a creole.

This thesis is a purely theoretical exploration of a possible evolution of the English language, and its intent is not to be directly practically applicable to the English language. The main goal of this work is to gather and examine linguistic evidence, and, based on it, see if the specific linguistic evolution that resulted in the verb system and pronunciation found in Trigedasleng is at all a viable or possible developmental route for the English language to take.

This will be done within the scope of the methodological and theoretical framework which will be further explained and presented in the next chapter.

2. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

2.1. TRIGEDASLENG ORIGINS

Trigedasleng is a fictional constructed language for the use in *The 100*, CW's critically-acclaimed and award-winning television adaptation of the young adult novel series of the same name, written by Kass Morgan. In the novels, Kass Morgan used a series of semi-nonsense phrases and sentences to illustrate the language used by the Grounders, but never actually developed the language itself in the way that it was presented in the television series. The phrases were made by heavily creolizing the English language they were based on. During the first season of the television series, the showrunners used the same phrases and sentences. Once they realized they would need a number of sentences and phrases significantly larger than what they already had on hand, they hired David J. Peterson to construct a language based on the sentences and phrases they had already used, so as to keep in line with continuity.

Peterson developed Trigedasleng as an isolating language with developed clusivity, and as a descendant of an American English cryptolect, the development of which will be further explained later in this section. According to the SIL Glossary of Linguistic Terms, "an isolating language is a language in which almost every word consists of a single morpheme," a defining factor of this conlang. Due to extralinguistic factors associated with its development, Trigedasleng has no written form to speak of, and therefore the language is written with English letter counterparts to the phonemes, but not following the rules of English spelling as we know them today. A great example of both the writing and the isolating quality of Trigedasleng can be properly depicted with the Trigedasleng verb *choj op* /ˈʧɔːʤ ɔp/ 'to eat', or *bak op* /bæk ɔp/ 'to retreat' (transcribed according to IPA symbols). As can be seen, the verbs are two-word terms, with each word being a single syllable. Most two-syllable words in the language, however, contain

diphthongs, such as the words in the verbs *ai raun* /aɪ raʊn/ ‘to watch’, *drein daun* /dreɪn daʊn/ ‘to drink’, or *fleim au* /fleɪm aʊ/ ‘to burn’.

Within this fictional universe, the human civilization of Earth is long gone, thanks to a nuclear holocaust. Most people have died, while those that have survived are split into three groups; one survived by launching off into space and surviving aboard a space station that orbits Earth, and became known later on as the Sky People; a second group locked themselves away inside Mount Weather Emergency Operations Center, located inside the Blue Ridge Mountains in Virginia, USA, and became later known as the Mountain Men; a third group simply survived by hiding out in caverns and caves and wherever else they could, and were the first ones to develop a society post-apocalypse, calling themselves the Grounders.

The Grounders split into tribes and nations, or ‘kru’ and ‘geda’ in Trigedasleng, and one such tribe, the Trikru (lit. ‘the forest tribe’), came into conflict with the Mountain Men. Both spoke English, so in order to fool their enemies, the Grounders collectively developed a cryptolect. This language was a simplified version of English, but due to such a sudden change, was unintelligible to the Mountain Men, and gave the Grounders a tactical advantage when it came to potential eavesdropping by Mountain Men spies. However, the simplicity of the code language appealed to the Grounder society and quickly spread, resulting in the entire Grounder society, save for the warriors and a couple of plot-relevant exceptions, speaking exclusively in Trigedasleng. Due to the breakdown of the entire society after a nuclear apocalypse, the average lifespan became much shorter, and over nearly a century, the cryptolect somehow developed into Trigedasleng, the conlang that is at the center of the plot. Due to Trigedasleng being essentially English, once a potential speaker gets accustomed to the basics, it becomes very simple to understand the language. One important distinction between English and Trigedasleng is the fact that in the latter, there is

nearly a one-to-one correspondence between sounds and letters. The reason for this lies, again, with the post-apocalyptic factor.

As one would expect from events such as the apocalypse, it brought out the necessity for the skills required to survive in a harsh, post-civilization environment, which, sadly, do not include writing. Since the premise of the story suggests that the nuclear apocalypse that hit the Earth was total, and since there were survivors left, it can be assumed that it had an effect similar to the bomb dropped on Hiroshima. According to data supplied by the Committee for the Compilation of Materials on Damage Caused by the Atomic Bombs in Hiroshima and Nagasaki in their book *The Impact of the A-Bomb: Hiroshima and Nagasaki, 1945-85* (1985), published by Iwanami Shoten, the destructive event did not result in a 100% casualty rate, and the rates dropped significantly the further away from the initial blast zone people were, as presented in the graph below.

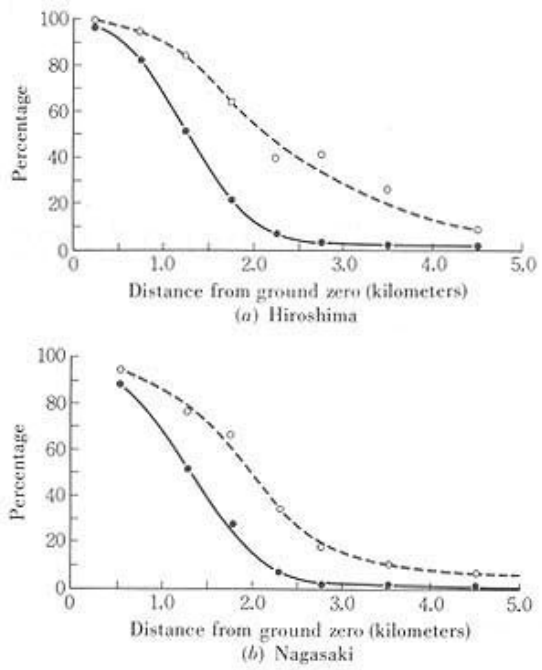

Table 1 – Relation of casualty (full) and mortality (dash) rates to distance from ground zero (The Committee. p86)

Since the apocalypse in the fictional world was of a nuclear variety, one can safely assume bombs were dropping from all over, but that there were also survivors. Priorities at the time would include purifying drinking water, securing food and other relevant resources, and at a later time, repopulating the surface. Of all the skills and arts invented by humanity, writing does not fall under survival skills, and was very likely forgotten, as people likely prioritized survival skills over civilization skills when teaching and raising their offspring. As the people lost the art of writing, and only knew how to speak a language, it is almost a given that a truly standardized grammar for written Trigedasleng does not exist in the survivors' culture. Once Skaikru (Trigedasleng for 'the people from the sky') landed back on Earth and brought back writing, the Grounders defaulted to using the newly-rediscovered skill of writing in the only way they could understand, which was phonemic orthography. E.g. if the letter pair '*ch*' corresponded to /tɕ/ or /tʃ/, depending on circumstance, then that was enough to satisfy their writing needs. After all, they had gone on for almost a century without writing. It would seem that Peterson believes that people default to a phonemic system of writing when they are learning writing, or re-learning, in this case. For example, introductions are made simply with a phrase like: "Ai leik Tvrtko kam Zagreb"; this is spoken almost exactly as it is written, /aɪ leɪk tʊɽtko kʌm zagreb/. As David Peterson has told me in our personal communication, originally, the Grounders were never meant to write. However, given the overwhelmingly positive response by fans who sought to learn the language, showrunners decided to introduce this element to the language as part of plot development, based on the way David Peterson wrote the lines for the cast of the show in their scripts. This way of writing was merely meant to depict how the lines were supposed to be pronounced, so that the cast could more easily speak the language, and more believably portray a native speaker on screen.

To summarize, the extralinguistic factors that affected the development of Trigedasleng, in more general terms, were an apocalyptic event, wartime and conflict, desire for safety, the need for information security, shorter life-spans, and the general human appeal for language economy.

2.2. THEORY

Some of the most prominent elements of Trigedasleng as a language are verb tenses and tense, mood and aspect auxiliaries (TMA auxiliaries henceforth), which together make up the verb system of the language. Through the analysis of these elements, we will see if the thesis stated previously holds ground, especially in regard to the position and function of these elements in other creoles. The reasoning behind it is that, if these are among the most prominent elements, they should prove the most effective to compare and analyze. Since the thesis is that Trigedasleng is a creole, the best comparison would be to other English-based creole languages. For that purpose, Bahamian and Patois were selected, since they have some of the largest native speaker bases among the English-based creoles. Additionally, all three of the languages exhibit similar word-formation patterns when it comes to verbs and auxiliaries, as well as similarly limited amounts of syntactically marked tenses and aspects. Most importantly, however, the TMA auxiliaries in each of the three languages seem to carry a significant portion of meaning, or at least carry a meaning-determining role in the semantics of the three languages. Therefore, the methodology that will be used in this paper will be a comparative analysis within a specific theoretical foundation.

To properly approach the topic of Trigedasleng's development as an English-based creole, and to set up a theoretical foundation to work within, there are a few theories worth mentioning which provide a basis for the foundation. The thesis will be based on three principles: that Middle

English is a Creole, that creoles can develop inside a language instead of as a result of interlinguistic contact, and that TMA auxiliaries play a vital role in determining whether a language can be considered a creole.

The claim being made within this work, and exemplified through analyzing the verb systems in Trigedasleng, Bahamian and Patois (treating the former one as much like an English-based creole as the latter two), was inspired by Manfred Görlach's (1986) article. Using Görlach's explanation of what a pidgin and a creole are, Middle English can be considered a creole, based on the fact that it is considered to have developed from a trade language that was established for easier communication between the then-ruling caste of French monarchs and the local British peoples, which could be considered to have been a pidgin trade language. As Görlach (1986, p331) states, "[p]idgins are characterized by a reduction of forms and functions and impoverishment as regards their communicative range, but they also exhibit a certain stability." Keeping with that line of thought, Present Day English could then be seen as a very evolved form of a creole language (Görlach, 1986). Based on such an idea, Trigedasleng itself may be considered a creole. The creole-formation formula that can be deduced from Görlach's work seems to be similar to what is widely thought to be how creole languages occur naturally. First, there have to be two languages in contact that are not immediately mutually intelligible, and a need for communication between speakers of each of these languages. This then necessitates the creation of a cross of the two languages by picking and choosing elements from each language to use in the new cross-language; only theories exist of what may guide speakers in these choices, and whether they are conscious or not, but none provide a certain conclusion. This language, when used more frequently by many speakers in that area becomes a pidgin. Once the first generation of speakers to whom this language is native begin adding to it and changing it, is the moment when the pidgin becomes a creole.

The second theory to note is a personal theory that in fact inspired this thesis would be the presupposition that a creole can, under certain specific rules, develop from a pidgin that appears within a single language instead of being a resulting 'lovechild' of two distinct languages in a multilingual contact situation, and that Trigedasleng is an example of such a creole. Common creole languages, such as Bahamian and Patois, are English-based creoles, whose former pidgins used English grammar as a foundation, with lexical items added from a different language or several languages, in this case various African languages. A single-language creole would, in turn, seem implausible at first, but the proposition here is somewhat more complex. As stated in the previous section of this work, Trigedasleng is not a direct descendant of English. The first step in its development was an artificially constructed cryptolect that the Grounders used to communicate information in a safe way, even when being spied upon by their enemies. It uses specific, hand-picked parts of the grammar of the English language, while coding specific terms without substantially altering the baseline vocabulary. The timeline of events is relatively straight-forward. From the similarities between English and Trigedasleng, it can be easily assumed that English was the basis for the cryptolect that preceded it. If we treat this nameless Grounder cryptolect as a separate language, and suppose that, in some aspects, it was simpler to use than Present Day English, it can easily be seen how, on the basis of that cryptolect and English as sources of lexical items, a pre-Trigedasleng pidgin could have been established. This would make Trigedasleng an English-based creole, if only indirectly. Another slightly simpler way would be to perceive the Grounder cryptolect itself as a pidgin, using select elements of the English grammar as its basis, and adding lexical items from fringe and non-standard vernaculars of English. This necessitates making an argument that such vernaculars can be viewed as languages separate from standard Present Day English. Using the creole formula derived from Görlach's article, the result still ends

up being the same – Trigedasleng can be, in a way, considered an indirectly English-based creole. Though it is unclear if the resulting language was first a pidgin between English and the Grounder cryptolect, or if the cryptolect went through a process of artificial creolization on its own, through generations, it developed into its own language, and became clearly distinguishable from Present Day English. Looking at creoles in this way, it could be then argued that a creole may develop not only externally, from the contact of two languages, but also internally, between varieties of a single language, like Trigedasleng may have from English and its own cryptolect. As such, Trigedasleng will be treated as a creole in the following analysis, to see if the notion proves plausible.

Treating Trigedasleng as a creole is connected directly to the next theoretical principle that will be presented, and it states that TMA auxiliaries are a crucial element of creole verb systems, and that they determine the status of an English-Based creole as such. This theoretical principle is taken directly from Helean McPhee's definition of creole verb systems, which in itself is a collection of rules propositions that have been established by many important names in creolistics:

> *Tense, mood and aspect auxiliaries are preverbal elements that are said to play a decisive role in determining creole status (Schneider 1990: 90). […] Creole languages are said to have relative tense systems. That is, the reference point is the time of the event under discussion and not the time of the utterance (Holm 1988: 151). According to Givón (1984: 272), modality encompasses notions of reality. That is, the possibility, acceptability, necessity or desirability of an event or state. Aspect is a way of "viewing the internal temporal consistency of a situation" (Comrie 1976: 3). Aspect may be habitual, completive, or progressive for example. While most introductory texts on Creole languages present the invariant TMA order for preverbal auxiliaries in Creoles, Alleyne (1980) and Gibson (1986) posit the order MTA, which is more*

commonly associated with non-Creoles according to Bakker et al. (1995: 248). (McPhee, 2003, p29)

As mentioned, the elements of the three creoles that will be analyzed are the verb systems (tenses, tense marking, tense, mood and aspect auxiliaries (TMA), semantic qualities of verbs), and pronunciation. This foundation will rest mostly upon the principles stated above, and will draw from the constructivist tradition, but is not inherently constructivist itself. The most important aspect of constructivist theory that forms this theoretical foundation is George Lakoff's position that the meanings carried by phrases are not direct sums of the meanings of their parts, presented in his third case study from *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind* (1987). This, I believe, is the best explanation of how phrasal verbs and idioms in the English language function.

Another theoretical aspect that will be used, and slightly altered, is that of mental spaces and cognitive realities, from Gilles Fauconnier's *Mental Spaces: Aspects of Meaning Construction in Natural Language* (1994). Firstly, the cognitive realities that Fauconnier talks of are not, in fact separate from the "real" reality, also called the physical reality, but are a speaker's mental representation of the physical reality. In this sense, connectors, the notional link between the reference and the term used as a reference trigger, can be used to not only connect notions between references, but also between perception and reality. Secondly, mental spaces are cognitive constructs that are constructed during and for the purpose of one specific discourse. In Fauconnier's words:

[…] mental spaces, constructs distinct from linguistic structures but built up in any discourse according to guidelines provided by the linguistic expressions. In the model, mental spaces will be represented as structured, incrementable sets— that is,

> *sets with elements (a, b, c,...) and relations holding between them (R_1ab, R_2a, R_3cbf,...), such that new elements can be added to them and new relations established between their elements. (...) In a technical sense, an incrementable set is an ordered sequence of ordinary sets, but it will be convenient to speak of the mental space as being built up during ongoing discourse, rather than to refer to the corresponding sequence of sets.* (Fauconnier, 1994, p16)

In this sense, a rather simplified explanation could be that this thesis of Fauconnier's is connected to the famous and ill-named Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Whereas the latter claims that the language that a person uses greatly influences cognitive processes and their world-view (which is, in fact, what a person's cognitive reality is, judging by Fauconnier's explanation), the former claims that it is the cognitive reality of a person that influences language and its use; in both cases, language and cognitive reality influence each other, but for each, one of directions of influence is much stronger. In essence, both use the same theoretical principles, but what one sees as the source of influence, another sees as the target, making the direction of the cognitive-language relationship somewhat opposite.

3. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

3.1. PRONUNCIATION ANALYSIS OF TRIGEDASLENG IN REGARD TO PDE

The first and foremost factor that influenced the development of Trigedasleng as a language is language economy. In Trigedasleng, the principle of least effort resulted in numerous changes. most notably stress reduction (or a form thereof), cluster reduction, fortition and the general loss of latter-syllable rhoticity on the lexical level, while a completely new set of analogies, as well as a cultural environment, work on the semantic and grammatical levels. However, these changes do not have a lot to do with the main thesis, so I will only present a few brief examples of said changes, to better illustrate the language.

Firstly, the easiest change to notice is a sort of stress reduction in the spoken language as compared to Present-Day English. It may be completely unnecessary to provide examples, as the entire spoken language seems noticeably more relaxed in most of the examples we find throughout the series, and it also proved to be a harder effort to locate and identify stress in phrases and sentences in comparison to Present Day English. Stress reduction as a term in this case may not be entirely appropriate, but it is the next best thing. What I am specifically talking about here is a reduction in the usefulness of stress in the language system overall. Whereas it is quite easy to locate stress points in example sentence 3.1.1 in English (mostly because the English language has what Collins and Mees call **lexically designed stress**; 2013), it is much more difficult to find it in Trigedasleng. This could be as a result of an overall simplified language system when compared to English, or as a result of a lack of necessity for stress as a semantic indicator in Trigedasleng, since there seem to be no polysemic words the likes of the English word *produce*, where stress can be used to indicate the word's category, and it seems that stress is used more in a grammatical function, being placed on more or less the same syllable in a specific word class, to better indicate

the most important information that the speaker wishes to present in an utterance. This is somewhat similar to the manner in which Western Slavic languages use stress (such as Slovak or Czech), which Collins and Mees have termed **language invariable stress** (2013). Language invariable stress means that stress "overwhelmingly falls on a syllable in a particular position in the word." (Collins and Mees, 2013, p131)

Example 3.1.1

ENG:"I am Tvrtko of the Croatian nation." /aɪ æm ˈTvrtko ɒv ðə krəʊˈeɪʃən ˈneɪʃən/

TRIG: "Ai laik Tvrtko kom Krowgeda." /aɪ laɪk ˈTvrtko kʌm ˈkrogɛdə/

As presented in example 3.1.1, speech stress in the English utterance is easily identified. Aside from the proper name in the example, which is foreign to Trigedasleng, the only noticeable stress in the utterance is in the word *Krowgeda*. The *-geda* root word contains no noticeably stressed syllables in the example sentence, while the determiner-prefix *Krow-* carries only slight but noticeable stress. There are many more examples in Trigedasleng where it can be seen how stress-fluid the language is, and how little stress is actually used in speech. It can be argued that this is one of the qualities of English that Trigedasleng retained, to an extent, since grammatical items are spoken without stress, as opposed to lexical items (Collins and Mees, 2013); however, as mentioned before, stress in Trigedasleng is grammatically and not lexically determined. It is quite possible that, while grammatical words and certain single-syllable words (such as personal pronouns) carry no stress, nouns, verbs (except copula) and pronouns (except personal) carry a first-syllable stress. What's more, it seems that verbal satellites carry stress as well. This could be a mechanism to differentiate a verbal satellite from any other grammatical word. Consider the following example.

Example 3.1.2

Utterance	Transcription
Step op en gon nila gon ai.	/ˈstɛp ˈɔp æn gɔn ˈnila[h] ˈgɔn aɪ/
Kof em op gon ai.	/ˈkɔf ɛm ˈɔp ˈgɔn aɪ/
Du na frag em op na gada in chit bilaik emo gaf in.	/du nɑ ˈfræg ɛm ˈɔp nɑ ˈgada ˈɪn ˈʧɪt biˈlaɪk ɛmɔ ˈgæf ˈɪn/
Ai nou na teik em na gon daun.	/aɪ noʊ nɑ ˈteɪk ɛm nɑ gɔn ˈdaʊn/

What can be clearly seen from these utterances in example 3.1.2 is that, with the exception of the copula from *'bilaik'*, /biˈlaɪk/, where the *'bi-'* prefix is optional (reasons discussed in section 3.3) so the stress is on the second syllable, any stress found in utterances is found on the first syllable of a word, regardless of the number of syllables in a word, which goes in favor of the notion that Trigedasleng has language invariable stress. Another thing that can be argued, then, is that sentence stress has become completely grammaticalized in the language, while lexical stress has been dropped due to lack of necessity, but this proposition requires further research. What also requires more research is which indicators of stress are most used in Trigedasleng.

Secondly, as far as cluster reduction is concerned, phrases that can be distinctly tied to their Present-Day English original counterparts show a decrease in consonant cluster sizes as compared to their predecessors. Most often this is the case in syllables with two consecutive consonants. It is also noteworthy that cluster reduction seems to have affected entire syllables of words. Some clear examples of this can be easily found in Trigedasleng verbs, as can be seen from the following examples in the table below.

Example 3.1.3

English	**Trigedasleng**	**Change**
to ask	*as op*	***ask – as***
to calm down (from "chill out")	*chil au*	***out – au***
to heal (from "fix")	*fis op*	***/fɪks/ - /fɪs/***
go away (from "gone away")	*gon we*	***away - we***
to love (from "hold [sb] in [your heart, likely]")	*hod in*	***hold - hod***

Thirdly, fortition seems to have played a major role in the development of Trigedasleng as a language. Several verbs in Trigedasleng show a seemingly "firmer" pronunciation of consonants than their Present Day English counterparts, often occurring in places where the English language uses the velar nasal [ŋ] or the voiced dental fricative [ð], replacing the former with a combination of the alveolar or post-alveolar nasal [n] and aspirated voiced or voiceless velar plosives [k^h] and [g^h] and the latter with the voiced alveolar plosive [d]. This was likely as an attempt to make words of arguably negative meaning sound harsher, though clear reasons are not given neither by the author of the language nor by the story in the TV series, making the actual reason open to speculation. Another reason could be to reduce the uses of certain sounds, since the voiceless dental fricative [θ] is still used in mostly the same places as in English (e.g. *gouthru klin, throu daun, flou thru, thonken*).

Example 3.1.4

English	**Trigedasleng**	**Fortition**
to fool/trick (from "to punk someone")	*ponk klin*	/pʌ**ŋ(k)**/ - /p'ɔ**nk^h**/
to join (from "gang up")	*glong op*	/gæ**ŋ**/ - /glɔ**ng^h**/
to have/own (from "gather")	*gada in*	/gæ**ð**ər/ - /gɑ**d**ɑ/
nation/country/station/post/gathering (from "gather")	*(-)geda*	/ gæ**ð**ər/ - / gɛ**d**ɑ/

Lastly, the loss of latter-syllable rhoticity is a common feature in the language, seemingly keeping in line with the already common loss of it in American English slangs when compared to the standard American English pronunciation, which falls into the rhotic varieties of English, where the historical /r/ sound is present in every pronunciation context. What is considered in this work as latter-syllable rhoticity, is the presence of *'r'* both phonetically and orthographically, i.e. the pronunciation of the /r/ sound in words that orthographically end with the letter *'r'*. The loss of this feature entails the complete disappearance of the *'r'* /r/ at final positions in words. This may be as an effect of incorporating various American slang expressions into the cryptolect that developed itself into Trigedasleng over time, or it may be a collateral phenomenon of the previously mentioned overall stress reduction that seems to be very widespread in the language. What must be noted is that it seems like this feature does not function in favor of language economy, but this case requires significant study to prove weather this is an intentional or a natural development. Consider these examples.

Example 3.1.5

Trigedasleng	**Present Day English**	**Meaning**
finga au /fɪŋgə aʊ/	finger out /fɪŋg**ər** aʊt/	to accuse
*fleiva op /fleɪv**a** ap/*	flavor up /fleɪv**ər** ʌp/	to salt/add spices
*gada in /gad**a** ɪn/*	gather in /gæð**ər** ɪn/	to have/own
*lufa au /luf**ə** aʊ/*	look for out /lʊk f**ɔr** aʊt/	to search *(trans.)*

3.2. TMA AUXILIARIES IN BAHAMIAN, PATOIS AND TRIGEDASLENG

The main source of information for this analysis has been drawn from Helean McPhee's (2000) study. The definition for tense systems in English-based creoles that McPhee uses in her study is that of Bernard Comrie: "Tense relates the time of the situation referred to to some other time, usually the moment of speaking" (Comrie, 1976, p1-2), but as will be seen in this section of the discussion, tenses in these creoles are more than likely relative tenses, since in some cases the tense used does not correspond to the implied time, while in other cases, a single tense can be used to imply several different times, or even aspects.

Time could, therefore, be implied semantically, either through context, or through some form of language-internalized logic, thus requiring additional extralinguistic knowledge for understanding each specific utterance, or it could be implied through particles such as auxiliaries, or it could use a combination of methods. That is, of course, as much the case with Bahamian and with Patois as it is with Trigedasleng, since all three of these languages use premodifying and/or postmodifying TMA auxiliaries, but still, a significant part is still inferred contextually. In Trigedasleng, much of the grammar's usage is dependent on the lexical items used in a sentence. For examples, some verbs or verbal satellites may have an inherently passive voice, while other verbs or satellites require an additional particle to indicate the passive voice. This much can be seen from the following examples of Trigedasleng taken from the TV show, where such differences in meaning and in form can be clearly seen. In each example, two sentences were provided, each of which is in a different mood, for the purpose of better illustrating the lack of grammatical difference in expressing mood. At the same time, both sentences in example 3.2.1 use the particle *'ge'* to indicate passive voice, while the second sentence in example 3.2.2 does not require the particle since the verbal satellite already implies a passive voice.

Example 3.2.1

*Taim yu drag raun, taim yu **ge ban au**.*

If you fall behind, then you **will be left behind**.

*No won **ge ban au.***

No one **will be left behind**.

Example 3.2.2

*Ge smak daun, **gyon op** nodotaim.*

If you get beaten, **get back** up again.

*Kom woda 'so **gyon op**, gon woda 'so kom daun.*

By water we **are born**, to water we return.

As can be clearly seen in both cases, the forms of *'ge ban au'* and *'gyon op'* in both instances are the same, respectively. In example 3.2.1 the same form of *'ge ban au'* is used in a conditional (indicated by the 'taim… taim' form) mood and in an indicative mood, which indicates that this *'ge'* particle is most likely and aspect auxiliary, tied to expressing the passive voice. In example 3.2.2, while both of the sentences have the same verb form, *'gyon op'*, the first sentence in the example expresses subjunctive imperative mood in active voice, while the second one expresses indicative mood in passive voice. This is due to the nature of the verbal satellites in Trigedasleng. These satellites more closely specify the meaning of the verb, and often carry also the aspect, the mood or the voice of the sentence. Therefore, some of the satellites are inherently passive, making the whole verb passive, while others are not, and require the preverbal particle *'ge'* in order to express the passive voice.

Similarly, in Patois, the Jamaican creole, uses the *'a'* auxiliary in order to mark that the verb has a tense. However, due to the many possibilities it carries, the safest option is to consider it the Non-specific tense auxiliary, meaning that context takes the role of determining which time the utterance refers to. As far as *'a'* being an aspectual auxiliary, the same rule applies. Consider, in the following example, all the possible meanings of the sentence when taken as an isolated utterance:

Example 3.2.3

*Im **a sel** yam a maakit.*

(1) PRESENT PROGRESSIVE: *He **is selling** yams at the market.*

HABITUAL PRESENT: *He **usually sells** yams at the market.*

(2) PAST PROGRESSIVE: *He **was selling** yams at the market.*

HABITUAL PAST: *He **used to sell** yams at the market.*

(3) FUTURE (COLLOQ.): *He **is going to sell** yams at the market.*

As presented, the sentence can be understood in several ways. First, the most basic option is that of an absolute present tense in, if you assume that the person saying this utterance is either just talking about someone's current activity, or generally about someone's habits. The second option is understanding an absolute past tense, again either expressing a person's activity that went on for a time in the past, or someone's past habits. The only thing that can be understood for certain is that the sentence is not referring to the standard future, since in Patois, the *'a'* auxiliary has to be coupled with the TMA auxiliary *'go'*; however, the Open Grammar Project on github.io lists the bare *'a'* auxiliary as a possible colloquial form of the future indicative tense. Therefore, the actual meaning of the sentence can only be determined based on the context it is in, and based on

what form of language the person is speaking - basilectal, mesolectal, or acrolectal Patois - as not all forms are equally prone to hypercorrection or usage of colloquialisms. Therefore, ignoring the colloquial future tense, Patrick proposes that there seems to be a notional rule that governs the use of TMA auxiliaries in Patois native speaker communities, and it is as follows: "*Mark past-tense more often when temporal organization of the discourse is disrupted, and less often when it is predictable.*" (Patrick, 2004, p415).

As far as tense in Trigedasleng is concerned, there seems to be no indication of it in examples 3.2.1 and 3.2.2, which can only lead to the conclusion that either Trigedasleng is a tenseless language (which is incorrect, as will be presented in the following paragraphs) or that the tense in these example sentences is marked by a zero-auxiliary. Marking a grammatical function with a zero-particle is not unheard of, especially in English, with varieties of zero-particles such as the *'Ø-that'* subordinator, the '-Ø' inflections, and so on. In another set of examples, however, tense-marking particles which have a clear grammatical function, order and meaning to them, can be pinpointed. As will be presented, auxiliaries *'na'* and *'don'* indicate future and past tense, respectively. This goes in favor of the notion that Trigedasleng might be an English-based creole, since it presents the same trait that other well-established English-based creoles exhibit, which is using a single-syllable tense-auxiliary for each of the tenses.

Example 3.2.4

Emo kripon kom Maun nou na ge gada in kom won hef.

Emo	kripon	kom	Maun	**nou**	**na**	**ge**	**gada**	**in**	kom	won	hef
3PL	creep	come	mountain	NEG	FUT	PASS	own	SAT, possess	come	one	hefter
Them	crime	of	Mountain	**cannot**		**be owned**			by	one	man

The crimes of the Mountain cannot be answered by one man.

Example 3.2.5

Tomak don ge led op.

Tomak	**don**	**ge**	**led**	**op**
NAME	PAST	PASS	wound/injure	SAT, state
Tomak	**has been**		**wounded**	

Tomak has been wounded.

Example 3.2.6

Ai na konge'mo wormana.

Ai	**na**	**konge**	'(e)mo	wormana
NAME	FUT	summon	3PL(short)	war men
I	**will**	**summon**	them	war chiefs

I will summon the war chiefs.

Example 3.2.7

Emo don hon ai nontu daun.

Emo	**don**	**hon-**	ai	nontu	**-daun**
NAME	PAST	take	1SG	number two	SAT, percision
Them	**have**	**take**	I	father	***(split verb)***

They took my father.

As presented, on their own, TMA auxiliaries *'na'* and *'don'* clearly indicate tense, as seen in examples 3.2.6 and 3.2.7. In combination with other auxiliaries, however, such as the negator *'nou'* and passive auxiliary *'ge'*, as in examples 3.2.4 and 3.2.5, more complex forms are achieved, such as expressing a finite past event in 3.2.5, or impossibility in 3.2.4, which is most likely the Trigedasleng counterpart to PDE modality. A similar trait can be observed in Bahamian and Jamaican. Additionally, based on examples 3.2.4 through 3.2.7 exhibiting clear Past and Future

tense indication, it is quite likely that sentences in examples 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 are in the Present tense, which would mean that the Present tense in Trigedasleng is marked by the Ø-marker.

All three languages exhibit heavy reliance on TMA auxiliaries not only in performing grammatical and semantic functions on their own, but also conveying different information when combined. That much is true with Trigedasleng, as presented in example 3.2.4, where a combination of the negator *'nou'* and the Future tense indicator *'na'* results in a form that expresses impossibility rather than tense, or the example 3.2.5, where a combination of the Past tense indicator *'don'* and the passive auxiliary *'ge'* results in a perfective past reference, which is likely as close to PDE's Present Perfect as Trigedasleng gets. Such is also the case with Bahamian TMA auxiliaries '*bin*' and *'did'*, both of which are premodifying components of the main Verb Phrase in the matrix clause, and carry a significant component of the meaning. Additionally, it can be argued that these two auxiliaries not only carry meaning for the main Verb phrase, but also dictate the meanings of other Verb phrases that occur within the same sentence. Here are a few examples:

Example 3.2.8

*We **did like** school.*

We **liked** school.

Example 3.2.9

*She **bin workin'** der fa years.*

She **has been working** there for years.

Example 3.2.10

*He **did bin washin'** de car wen I get der.*

He **had been washing** the car when I got there.

Example 3.2.11

*Wen I get der, you **betta bin gun**.*

When I get there, you **had better be gone**.

(from McPhee, 2003, p31)

As is evident in examples 3.2.8 and 3.2.9, '*did'* and '*bin*' function well enough as tense and aspect auxiliaries, with the only meaning carried in the examples being the temporal point of reference of the speaker. In the other two examples, 3.2.10 and 3.2.11, it is clearly visible how not only the usage of a specific TMA auxiliary affects the semantics of the sentence, but its syntactic position also determines what meaning it carries, as well as the meanings of other Verb phrases in the sentence. Specifically, in examples 3.2.10 and 3.2.11, the verb '*get'* does not change its form, but the meaning it carries changes, however minimally, based on the auxiliaries present in the main verb phrase, and its syntactic position relative to the verb '*get'*. In example 3.2.10, the co-occurrence of both '*bin*' and '*did'* auxiliaries shows how, when combined, these auxiliaries, which mark both tense and aspect when on their own, each take a more specific role, in this case with *'did'* marking tense and *'bin'* marking aspect. In example 3.2.11, the subordinate clause *'wen I get der'* points semantically to a certain foreseeable future moment relative to the speaker, but without a TMA auxiliary or a tense marking of any kind, as opposed to 3.2.10. Additionally, the TMA auxiliary *'bin'* in this sentence obviously only behaves as an aspect auxiliary, with *'betta'* here arguably taking on the role of a mood auxiliary indicating a subjunctive mood.

In addition to that, *'bin'* and *'did'* as auxiliaries, as proposed by Alleyne and repeated by McPhee, can carry either tense-marking meaning or modality meanings, depending on their combinations and positions in a combination, as well as contextual environment:

> […] *in Afro-American dialects, a combination of the 'past and future particles' expresses conditional mood. (...) Note the examples below.*
>
> *(8) Dey did fix de gate.*
>
> *"They fixed the gate/they had fixed the gate."*
>
> *(9) Dey did bin fix de gate.*
>
> *"They [came/went]/[had been {here/there}] and fixed the gate."*
>
> *The difference in meaning between 'did' + uninflected V and 'did bin' + uninflected V is not one of time. Both examples may be interpreted as simple past or anterior, depending on context. When 'bin' is inserted in (9), it conveys the idea of movement from one location to another. This suggests that 'bin' may function as a verb of motion*. (McPhee, 2003, p31-32)

Namely, Bahamian is an English-lexicon creole, while its grammar is a mix of both the English grammar as well as an African dialect (as Bahamian creole has as of yet not been sufficiently studied, I have not found any mention of a specific named African dialect, though the literature consulted all seems to be in agreement that it is an African dialect). This is something even McPhee mentions in her own article. therefore, approaching both the lexicon and the grammar from an exclusively English point of view seems in the very least a fallacy in analysis. I will therefore keep treating '*bin'* as a TMA auxiliary, ignoring its speculative verbal function. That being said, the

examples that McPhee provides, in addition to her argumentation, clearly point to at least two TMA auxiliaries that have a significant impact on semantics of verbs in Bahamian.

In Patois, the situation with TMA auxiliaries and potential combinations is somewhat similar. As Peter L. Patrick describes it in his article:

> *All descriptions of basilectal [Jamaican Creole] agree that it combines invariant pre-verbal particles with unmarked verb stems to express grammatical categories, where native Englishes typically use verbal auxiliaries, inflectional suffixes and agreement-marking. It is also generally argued that contrasting linguistic categories and semantic values underlie and constrain these formal differences.* (Patrick, 2004, p413)

That being said, Patrick does state that most linguists perceive there to be a strict hierarchy and direct relation between form and meaning, and that in their "idealized accounts of creole grammars," these linguists assume that tenses are marked always in the same manner by the same TMA auxiliaries, of which many linguists consider an example to be Bickerton's works. For Patrick, however, Bickerton's approach to Patois (and other creoles) is flawed because it cannot "account for the full range of facts over many creoles," as well as because it "articulates poorly with general TMA and typological studies." Patrick also believes that Bickerton fundamentally does not understand the grammar of Patois, mainly because of his notions that there is a "strict form-meaning isomorphy," (Patrick 2004) which is simply impossible due to the many variations and exceptions to the rules that exist in Patois.

Now, similarly to Bahamian and Trigedasleng, Patois does not use a single TMA auxiliary, nor a specific combination, to mark all three of tense, mood and aspect, and the contextual

restrictions of an utterance's semantics on its syntax do apply, as is the case with Bahamian and with Trigedasleng. A good example of the Patois TMA system is through the auxiliary particles *'a'*, and the absence of them, when marking aspect, and the addition of a tense-specific TMA auxiliary like *'ben'*, as can be seen in the example below. The form seems to be [TMA auxiliary(s) + uninflected verb] when forming a complete verb phrase.

Example 3.2.11

> *"Mi **a** ron.*
> *I am running./I was running./I habitually run./I used to habitually run.*
>
> *Mi **ben a** ron.*
> *I was running./I used to habitually run."*
>
> (from Patrick, 2004, p414)

As is evident, the auxiliary *'a'* merely determines the aspect of a verb as progressive, while *'ben'* as an auxiliary marks tense as past. There seems to be no strict distinction between a single auxiliary and a combination of two auxiliaries when expressing the Past tense, however, since both *"Mi a ron."* and *"Mi ben a ron."* can both be used to express a past progressive indicative or past habitual tense. Therefore, it can be argued that *'ben'* may only serve to more clearly indicate the past tense when communicating to an outsider or a non-native speaker, while community insiders may actually rely on specific contextual markers or non-verbal communication methods when speaking, but such claims have no real proof outside of theoretical assumptions, since both Patois and Bahamian have yet to be further researched. In an earlier example, however (ex. 3.2.3 on page 23), it is shown clearly that there are often no syntactic or semantic variables determining the

specific meanings of bare verb occurrences in Jamaican Patois, something very common to the language.

An argument can be made here that this kind of linguistic behavior of these creoles and of Trigedasleng is an evidence of an existing type-hierarchy within the languages' lexicons, where certain lexical items, based on what meaning they hold, are sorted by order of importance of their meaning when interpreting an utterance. A good analogy would be the "First In - Last Out" principle used most often in stack-based grammars. To clarify, I am not making a claim that Trigedasleng, Bahamian or Patois have a stack-based grammar. Using said analogy when understanding an utterance, the lexical item with the most possible meanings, and therefore the one with the least discernable meaning, goes in first on the stack, then the next one, and so on. The last items to be added onto the stack will be the items with least possible meanings, a single possible meaning, or a solely grammatical function. When leaving the stack, the last items to be added would leave first, therefore limiting the possible interpretations of the polysemous items, and in combination with the context that the utterance exists in result in a single interpretation. For this argument to be true, or in the very least, convincing, it must hold true for at least most of the languages' utterances, if not all of them, barring any phrasemes whose forms are set in stone by consistent use over time. Nota bene, under phrasemes, I mean any multi-word phrase that semantically means something unrelated to the sum of its' parts' meanings, be it phrasal verbs or nouns or auxiliaries. This is, of course, enough for a research of its own, and will not be developed further in this paper.

3.3. PHRASAL VERBS IN ENGLISH AND TRIGEDASLENG

One of the signature features of English as a language is its phenomenon of phrasal verbs, which will be shown to have been key in the development of the Trigedasleng's verb system, which is almost exclusively phrasal, as will be presented at a later point in this section.

More often than not, a phrasal verb's meaning is greater than the sum of the verb's parts' meanings. According to George J. M. Lamont, this "phrasality" is a feature that has been present in English since the Old English period, though in a form more akin to other Germanic languages, by merit of inseparable prefixes attached to the verb. A similar quality can nowadays be seen in German, for instance, though the prefix is separable, and can oftentimes be found postposed to the root verb, while still maintaining the same meaning, something that the verbs in Old English could not. Consider the following examples of comparison of PDE verb *'to break up'* (meaning, to break into pieces) with the Old English class IV strong verb '*tōbrecan*' and the contemporary German strong verb *'auseinanderbrechen'*, in the Present tense and in the Past Perfect, Past Participle and Partizip II tenses, respectively (the examples in Old English were constructed using information from Stephen Forrest's OE online dictionary and Morgan Macleod's doctoral dissertation on the Perfect in Old English, while examples in PDE and Contemporary German were constructed from personal knowledge of the languages):

Example 3.3.1

Mīn wandrianflota ***tōbriceþ***. (Present Indicative)

My hovercraft ***is breaking up***. (Present Progressive)

Mein Schwebeboot ***bricht auseinander***. (Präsens Indikativ)

Example 3.3.2

Mīn wandrianflota ***hæfde tōgebrocen.*** (Past Participle)

My hovercraft ***has broken up.*** (Present Perfect)

Mein Schwebeboot ***ist auseinandergebrochen.*** (Partizip II)

Example 3.3.3

Ic ***brece*** *eall þā fadunga.* (Present indicative)

I ***am breaking*** *all the rules.* (Present Progressive)

Ich ***breche*** *alle Regeln.* (Präsens Indikativ)

Example 3.3.4

Ic ***hæfde*** *eall þā fadunga* ***gebrocen.*** (Past Participle)

I ***have broken*** *all the rules.* (Present Perfect)

I ***habe*** *all die Regeln* ***gebrochen****.* (Partizip II)

As can be seen from the examples, while the OE phrasal verb 'ancestor' has a prepositional prefix that is immobile, the PDE phrasal verb keeps its post-positioned adverbial particle always after the verb. The example in Present Day German was provided only as a representation of the classic as proof that, through more than a millennium of language development, these prefixes have developed mobility, and had there been no influence on English from French and Old Norse, it can be theorized that English would still develop a form of phrasal verbs, however different it may have been, which would still follow similar principles, if not the same. This is, of course, just a

theoretical supposition, but the importance it carries lies in the fact that, through numerous examples, this internal consistency of English and its leaning on phrasal verbs shows just how much of a defining feature phrasal verbs are when it comes to English as a language. It can be therefore said that this specific feature of English, having been present since its early years, is likely to remain one of its defining features simply by merit of its sheer simplicity in coding meaning, whatever future form we might find English in. Drawing on that, it should be considered a necessary feature of any language developing from English to have a developed form of phrasality as a part of its verb system, which Trigedasleng has, as will be presented later.

The argument I make here in favor of phrasal verbs is grounded in two facts. The foundation of this argument is Fauconnier's notion of mental spaces and connectors, but slightly modified (as mentioned in the previous chapter). Simply speaking, due to the very nature and the quality of the cognitive connectors that Fauconnier uses as the foundation for building up different cognitive realities, I believe that their quality of linking two simple notions, or several connectors linking two more complex notions several times removed, can be stretched even further, linking complex concepts or even different cognitive realities, allowing for complex meaning encoding within a language based on a "shared" cognitive reality. The second fact that the argument is based on is, as stated in the introduction, the fact that Trigedasleng, in its fictional universe, was originally developed by the Grounder people as a cryptolect, to allow for safer communication if being eavesdropped on by the Mountain Men. Taking the need for a cryptolect as a necessity and the as-of-yet undetermined potential of phrasal verbs to encode meaning as a tool to fulfill this necessity, the two complement each other obviously. This would explain why Trigedasleng went down the route of having almost exclusively a form of phrasality in its verb system. Even though the verbs may seem as prepositional verbs, the simple fact that these verbs can be split by

interjecting a noun phrase goes in favor of these being phrasal verbs rather than prepositional. As Lamont explains:

> *A phrasal verb in Present-Day English is a verb that takes a complementary particle, in other words, an adverb resembling a preposition, necessary to complete a sentence. A common example is the verb "to fix up": "He fixed up the car." The word "up" here is a particle, not a preposition, because "up" can move: "He fixed the car up." This movement of the particle "up" quickly distinguishes it from the preposition "up".* (Lamont, 2005, online)

Therefore, it can be easily concluded that a phrasal verb is syntactically one of the most mutable forms in the English language, while its similar cousin, the prepositional verb, is one that does not have the quality of a moveable particle, and it also requires a complement, such as an object or a prepositional phrase. This is what makes the phrasal verb uniquely useful for the purposes the Grounders needed. A phrasal verb can defy known established rules of word order in English, and can be more difficult to decipher for non-speakers. Therefore, using the phrasal verb as a basis for a verb system could make it more difficult to be spied on, while at the same time retaining meaning and clearly stating what you mean to other speakers of the language. This unique quality of phrasal verbs can be easily seen from the following example of the phrasal verb *'wear out'*.

Example 3.3.5

*The family **wore** the storm **out**.*	to weather/outlast something
*The family **wore out** the storm.*	to weather/outlast something

The meaning of the verb remains the same when the object is interjected and when it is post-posed in the first two sentences in example 3.3.5, and this same quality of phrasal verbs remains in Trigedasleng, as will be presented in the following examples.

Example 3.3.6

*Naikou don **tich** yu **op** os. / Naikou don **tich op** you os.*

Naikou	**don**	**tich-**	yu	**-op**	os
NAME	PAST	teach	2SG	SAT, intimacy	awesome
Naikou	**has**	**teach**	you	***(split verb)***	well

Naikou has taught you well.

However, when there is emphasis on the object, on the sentence, or either of the objects when the phrasal verb is ditransitive, unlike PDE, the verb cannot be split.

Example 3.3.7

Ai na rip of steiks-de kom yu joken klaka.

Ai	**na**	**rip**	**of**	steiks	-de	kom	yu	joken	klaka
1SG	FUT	tear	SAT, physicality	meat	EMPH	come	2SG	EXPL, jerking	bone
I	**will**	**tear**		meat		off	you	fucking	bones

I will tear the meat off your fucking bones.

As evident, the verbs in Trigedasleng follow a very similar pattern of behavior as that of PDE phrasal verbs, which in combination with the presupposition that phrasality is a key feature of English gives credence to the proposition that Trigedasleng developed out of PDE. However, that is only a syntactic analysis of the feature. A semantic analysis of Trigedasleng's verbal satellites shows a behavior strikingly different than that of phrasal auxiliaries in PDE, which is a unique feature to Trigedasleng, and can be considered further development of the phenomenon of phrasal

verbs. After all, the phrasality present in PDE is significantly more developed and complex than what is present in OE, as shown in examples 3.3.1 through 3.3.4.

As mentioned previously, the verbs that require a verbal satellite in Trigedasleng are, in fact, the regular form of verbs. Regular verbs, therefore, appear always as a two-word item with a verbal satellite; the main particle of a verb, or the main verb, carries a general idea of the meaning, which is open and undefined, while the satellite limits and defines the specifics of the verb's meaning. Put simply, the phrasal functionality of PDE verbs seems to have become the norm, thereby making phrasal verbs regular and lone verbs irregular, wherefrom the verb system in this proposed creole further evolved. A system such as this offers a very complex way of encoding meaning, while at the same time very effective. With reduced lexical items as opposed to PDE, the language still maintains nearly infinite options for combining verbs and satellites in order to convey a specific meaning. Consider the following example on the verbs *'hod'*, *'get'* and *'ses'*, and the functionality of possible satellites, proposed based on researching their usage and meanings of verbs they are part of:

Example 3.3.8

hod - VERB, signifies the act/state of holding something or having something, in both a metaphorical, physical and emotional manner

get - VERB, signifies mental states/actions that are a result of the subject knowing something

ses - VERB, signifies only actions that define something either publicly or mentally

daun - SAT, often signifies an action that is focused on something, actions that require either care, focus, or precision, very rarely signifies physical direction downwards

in - SAT, signifies internalization, actions directed inwards metaphorically, often possession, or physical states of possessing, used mostly in abstract meanings

klin - SAT, signifies the finality or completion of an action, used to present actions and processes that have a long-lasting or permanent effect or outcome

op - SAT, signifies either actions that express the current state of the subject, change the current state of the subject, regardless of duration of the change, or actions that are simply taken; additionally, verbs that signify physical, emotional and/or sexual intimacy seem to take *'op'* exclusively

TRIGEDASLENG	**ENGLISH**	**MEANING EXPLANATION**
hod daun	care; mind; tend to; hold down	*'daun'* attributes the action with an idea of care, and with *'hod'* having a physical meaning of having something, the resulting meaning is that of having someone to take care of. which brings the broad meaning of caring for someone or something, and by extension, minding someone or something, or medically tending to someone or something; another extension would be to physically hold someone down
hod in	to love	*'in'* mainly attributes the inwardness and emotional capacity of something, and when attributing this to *'hod'*, this results in emotionally holding someone inside yourself, which then extends to the state of loving someone

hod op	wait; stop	*'op'* attributes a change of state, and *'hod'* is here meant metaphorically, therefore resulting in a meaning of changing how you currently 'held your own self', which is extended semantically to mean to stop or to wait.
get daun	worry; concern oneself	*'get'* in this capacity means a state that is a result of knowing something, while *'daun'* attributes the meaning of focus, resulting in a meaning of focusing on that knowledge, and extending then to the meaning of worrying about or concerning yourself with the knowledge in question
get in	to know	*'get'* in this sense is an action taken with the focus on knowledge, and *'in'* attributes an inwardness to that knowledge, metaphorically, which results in the meaning to know something.
get klin	be certain	*'get'* in this sense is an action taken with the focus on knowledge, and *'klin'* attributes a finality to it; having knowledge in a manner that makes it permanently true extends then to being certain of something
ses in	be attracted to someone	*'ses'* in this case defines the state of something, and *'in'* attributes an inwardness to that definition, thereby limiting it to a definition of something for oneself, and by extension meaning to define someone as attractive;
ses klin	to explain	*'ses'*, again, means the definition of something, while *'klin'* attributes a finality to that definition, resulting in a broad meaning of explaining something to someone
ses op	to have sex	*'ses'* defines the state of something, while *'op'* attributes both the change of the state of something, as well as doing something; by attributing the change of state to defining the state of something, the meaning seems to change the definition of a relationship that had previously existed to the state of an intimate relationship, and does so through

		the act of intimacy, and so, by extension, means the act of intimacy itself

As evident, the phrasal construction presented here shows that Trigedasleng is an example of an extremely construction-dependent language.

What is additionally useful when creating a cryptolect to hide information from an English-speaking community, is to not use auxiliary verbs. Present-Day English is heavily reliant on auxiliary verbs in nearly any context. Not only do these verbs have meanings on their own when it comes to sentences that contain complementary adverbials, but they also function as auxiliaries to distinguish tense aspects, and even passive mood. Such is the case with PDE verbs '*be*', '*have*' and '*do*'. This is not the case with Trigedasleng. Such verbs that do exist in the language function only as introductory elements for other required sentence elements, such as nouns or prepositional phrases, in order to more closely specify the meaning, since they themselves take no verbal auxiliaries as all of the other verbs do. This would, then, make them more akin to the copula function of the PDE verb '*be*' than an auxiliary function. There are in total eleven such "copulae" in Trigedasleng presented so far in all of the available material.

TRIG. VERB	**MEANING**	**Example**
biyo	to speak (followed by an obligatory prepositional phrase)	*Yu nontu **don biyo** laik yu na sis au.* Your father **said** you could help.
(bi-)laik	to be (exclusively followed by an adjective, a pronoun, a noun, or a subordinated clause)	*Pas daun, em **bilaik** tofon.* After that, it **is** a difficult thing. *Chon yu **bilaik**?* Who **are** you? Ai **laik** Indra kom Trigeda. I **am** Indra of the Tree Nation.
bants	to leave (either standing alone or followed by an adverbial of location)	*Omo tek souda **bants**!* All technology must go. *Taim na **bants**.*

		Let's **leave**.
sei	to mean, to signify	*Chit yu **sei**?* What do you **mean**? *Chit ai **sei** bilaik'mo ogeda ste natrona.* What I **mean** is, they are all traitors.
kigon	to continue (exclusively to tell someone to continue with activity they were doing previously)	*Gouba tu raun en **kigon** yo granplei.* Pair up and **continue** your training.
chants	to afford, to risk, to chance (followed by a verb phrase)	*Roun nou na **chants** na gada in bilaik en's kwelen.* Roun can't **afford** to look weak.
konge	to summon (a group of people)	***Konge** osir taim bilaik odon.* **Fetch** us when it's done. *Ai na **konge**'mo wormana?* should I **summon** the warchiefs?
seimbeda	to prefer (followed by a noun phrase or subordinate clause)	*Seintaim em **seimbeda** sleng kom baga.* She even **prefers** the enemy's language.
ste	stay, remain (followed by adjective) to be (exclusively when stating a fact about something or someone)	*Yumi na **ste** stelt kom taim Ripa ge pul we.* You and I will **remain** hidden until the Reapers are drawn away.
teik	get, make someone do something (imperative exclusively)	***Teik** em gonot raun o osir na trig yu op.* **Let** him go or we shoot. ***Teik** osir gonot kom hir.* **Get** us out of here.
wochas	careful, look out (exclusively introducing a verb phrase, prepositional phrase or clause containing a warning, or as an exclamation)	***Wochas** ona riskiwe, Okteivia.* **Be careful** in the dark, Octavia. *Taim'mo trigplei stot au, **wochas** kom nulif shan.* When the shooting starts, **watch out** for the green flickers.

Circling back to the aforementioned "stretching" of Fauconnier's notion of cognitive connectors and the identification principle, linking complex concepts or even different cognitive realities, allowing for complex meaning encoding within a language based on a "shared" cognitive reality. Firstly, to explain through a simple example, the natures of a connector and of cognitive realities. Fauconnier uses an excellent example for a simple explanation of a connector between two realities.

Example 3.3.9

"Plato is on the top shelf. It's bound in leather."

In the example, 'Plato' is most definitely not a reference to the author, but to a book authored by Plato. The notional connector between the two notions draws the legitimacy of its reference from the fact that there exists a shared cultural cognitive reality where books are considered a representation or even a physical part of their author, therefore making the two equal in a way.

Let's consider another example. Suppose Naikou is drawing a picture of Olivia. Even though Olivia has brown hair in the physical reality, Naikou draws her with red hair, a representation of how he sees her in his cognitive reality. Now, suppose Naikou was talking to some random passer-by about the drawing. This situation makes it possible for the following sentence to be entirely legitimate, even though it would in any other context make no sense:

Example 3.3.10

The red-haired girl is a brunette.

The sentence, in any other context, would logically be false, but in this specific case, it is, in fact, a true statement. Namely, '*the red-haired girl*' refers to the drawing directly, but is a cognitively twice-removed reference for Olivia, the model that Naikou used for the drawing, therefore, using the name of his drawing as a reference item for the actual person, linking his cognitive reality with the physical reality through a two-fold connection. The first connector is between the physical

reality and Naikou's cognitive reality, while the second connector is between Naikou's cognitive reality and the reality of the drawing.

Using this model of connectors, mental spaces and cognitive realities, it is easy to explain not only why Trigedasleng does not need tense aspects or moods as much as PDE needs, but it also provides a simple explanation as to why Trigedasleng has a vastly different vocabulary as opposed to English. Namely, Fauconnier claims that connectors, the notional link between referent and reference, are part of idealized cognitive models, along with cognitive realities, are set up either locally or culturally, with slight variation from community to community, and are based on either logic or experience. Focusing on the cultural set-up of connectors and the fact that there exists a shared cognitive reality among speakers, it can be theorized that this shared reality could influence the changes occurring in a language, the direction in which these changes take the language, and may cause a new, very distinct version of an already existing language to emerge. Therefore, out of an existing English language, and through a set-up of new cultural connectors based on a new shared cognitive reality different to the one that PDE speakers share, the changes that occurred in PDE and resulted ultimately in Trigedasleng might have been a result of a shift in the shared cognitive reality of the speakers.

Now, it is true that this is a very loose and stretched interpretation of cognitive realities and mental spaces, since Fauconnier's entire idea was of building a contextual cognitive environment for a discourse that is currently going on, by referring to an already existing reality, therefore being merely another tool for a logical interpretation of context and for explaining apparent logical and language fallacies. But upon reading his ideas, it did seem possible to stretch those ideas to a greater scope. Namely, if a language developed under specific circumstances, with specific grammar rules, it must mean that there exists a sort of context specific to a single language. It may

be more of a loose context, determining how time is referenced, what kind of tone is used, which metaphors are used in general construal of abstract ideas or in naming schemes, and so forth. These are all specific characteristics of any given language, however, there are always counterparts to each of these traits that may be found in other languages, therefore making them distinct, but not unique. Combining all of these traits may result in an underlying shared cognitive reality of the speakers of any given language.

If this idea is applied to Trigedasleng, certain lines can be clearly drawn. Through all of the dialogue in the TV series, the indicative mood is almost always used, with the subjunctive rarely exhibited in the show, mostly to state tactical options, one's feelings towards another or to report on one's thoughts. This could be a reflection of the military and tribal organization of society, along with the need for the cryptolect to be both intonationally and lexically indecipherable, as a result having a regular intonation that is more akin to that of the English imperative, possibly due to early communication being more about stating orders than regular conversation. What's more, the infinitive and imperative forms are grammatically identical. This lack of distinction could be either due to the lack of verbal inflections in the language, the lack the infinitive *'to'* particle, which is present in PDE, or it may well be a result of the imperative being the root form of a verb rather than the infinitive. The latter option is far less likely than the former two, but it is not outside the realm of possibility. That is, however, a discussion on its own.

Another thing that is easily apparent is that, while lexically very different, the notions behind each lexical item in certain thematic groups are very similar to the notions behind PDE lexical items. This could point to the fact that, no matter how much a language changes, notional concepts can sometimes stay the same. Take for example nouns in both languages for describing elements of nature. While the lexical items are in form different than their PDE counterparts, the

Trigedasleng forms actually derive their form from the notional qualities of their PDE counterparts. Not only does this mean that notional concepts stayed the same, but it also shows that the PDE trend of introducing new lexical items through compounding two or more existing ones is a trait that remains in Trigedasleng.

Example 3.3.11

PDE	CONCEPTUALIZATION	TRIG.	TRANSCRIPTION
the Sun	the only star that shines during the day, essentially makes daytime what it is	*deimeika*	/deɪmeɪkəˈ/
wolfsbane	one of the most common symptom of aconitine poisoning is the face going numb and skin going cold, pale, resembling a bone	*feisbona*	/feɪsˈboʊnə/
rainbow	a common belief is that a rainbow is a sign of good fortunes, which can get a person to be hopeful	*houpgeda*	/hoʊpˈgɛdə/
the Moon	the moon is always the brightest-shining celestial object in the night sky	*natshana*	/natʃanə/

As mentioned, a construction trend is very easily noticed in Trigedasleng. Much like the examples above, nouns are often solid compound nouns, while verbs in the language are, as shown earlier, regularly phrasal constructions. Additionally, even the few copulae that do exist in the language are mostly in fact the result of compounding PDE words.

TRIG. VERB	**MEANING**	**CONSTRUCTION**
biyo	to speak	*be + yourself*
(bi-)laik	to be	*be + like*
kigon	to continue	*keep + going*
konge	to summon	*come + get*
seimbeda	to prefer	*same + better*
wochas	careful, look out	*watch + ass*

It can be argued, then, that the shared cognitive reality of Trigedasleng, if such a concept is viable, involves compounding and phrasality as a far more common language trait than PDE does. This, for lack of a better term, extensive "phrasality" of Trigedasleng's lexical items in general, but mostly verbs, is a feature that very clearly evolved from PDE phrasal verbs and idioms, and the tendency for compounding when coining new words. However, since compounding and phrasality are a typically English attitude towards lexical construction, and since it is a trait present in every variety of English since Old English, only gaining in popularity the closer we get to PDE, it can be also argued that a shared cognitive reality of a language is something passed down from generation to generation, and is what allows us to further evolve a language and change it to better suit our needs. That would mean that populations that spoke Old English, Middle English, Modern English, and Trigedasleng, respectively, all share a clear etymological connection.

According to Stefan Thim, in his discussion on the historical development of postponed particles, he notes that "throughout the history of English the position of the particle has remained essentially fixed," as well as that "the development [of phrasal verbs] to be observed in the history of English ties in completely with the cross-linguistically well-attested development of preverbs and can therefore be characterized as highly regular in almost every aspect, both from a comparative and a typological point of view." (Thim, 2012, p115-116) Additionally, while Thim claims that phrasal verbs and idioms are bot uniquely English, he does state that "What is particularly remarkable in English, I therefore suggest, is the attitude towards the construction rather than the construction itself." He explains this attitude as something that all present-day Germanic languages share, as well as English, which is the tendency to form new verbs from existing elements, instead of new verbal particles. Having that in mind, along with the fact that Trigedasleng developed from an English-based cryptolect, it can be argued that this feature is by

design rather than by conformity or accident. If those who have designed the cryptolect expected the continuing development of PDE to favor phrasal constructions over new lexical items, a heavily phrasal-dependent cryptolect would be an ideal solution.

4. CONCLUSION

The starting thesis of this work was that Trigedasleng is a proposed future developed form of English, having developed from Present Day English, as an English creole, based on Present Day English grammatical features, and using a fictional English cryptolect as a source of its vocabulary. If true, this would make it the first of its kind among constructed languages, and therefore worth investigating further, as it would make it possible to perhaps create a prediction model based on which possible developments in any language, should more different developed forms for languages be created in the future. My main attempt was to test this by briefly examining Trigedasleng's verb system from the prism of three different grammar aspects, and comparing it to two well-established English-based creoles, to see if any similarities appear that would provide sufficient proof for this thesis to be held plausible.

In the second chapter of this thesis, Trigedasleng's origins have been presented shortly and argued. The purpose of this chapter was to present theoretical principles that form the basis of the main thesis, as well as how the thesis will be approached, and to limit the scope of the analysis to pronunciation differences between Present-Day English and Trigedasleng, similarities between the verb systems found in Bahamian, Patois and Trigedasleng, and the shared tendency for phrasal verbs in different iterations of English throughout its development, and comparing that to Trigedasleng. The goal in this chapter was also to see whether any extra-linguistic or intralinguistic factors could be found, and which known language changes they had caused, which would provide credence to the idea that Trigedasleng, in any way, shape or form, truly had developed from Present-Day English, as well as to establish what those changes were, and to quickly elaborate and illustrate them.

The analysis that was presented in the third chapter was three-fold. In the first section, the pronunciation differences between Present-Day English and Trigedasleng seem to fit certain known patterns of language change, but to surely say if this kind of behavior would truly happen with English is too far-fetched a conclusion for now. Grammaticalization of stress could be considered a form of obligatorification, and seeing as the thesis is that Trigedasleng is a creole based on English and a *constructed* cryptolect, it is a plausible change. The cluster reduction that was presented in this section is a phenomenon that had been diachronically happening in English (and likely all other languages stemming from Proto-Indo-European) since it could be distinguished from other Germanic languages, which means it is not a change specific enough to be considered uniquely English. Fortition, on the other hand, is a much more specific change, and was much more likely caused by specific extralinguistic factors than being an inherently English change, but it does support the fact that the language is based on a military cryptolect, if only partially. The last change that was explored regarding pronunciation, the loss of latter-syllable rhoticity, is actually a uniquely English trait, and it therefore goes in favor of the thesis. Therefore, of the observed changes, the grammaticalization of stress, fortition and loss of latter-syllable rhoticity are all changes that, when combined, do go in favor of Trigedasleng being a creole language that developed out of English, while cluster reduction is only supports the fact that Trigedasleng is a language that belongs in the Indo-European family, but nothing more specific than that. On the other hand, while it was not thoroughly explored, the section does touch upon a multitude of phonological, morphological and prosodic issues within Trigedasleng, especially certain elements which were shown to possibly work against language economy instead of for it. All of these issues would alone be enough for a study on its own.

In the second section of the chapter, the focus is on analyzing two creoles and Trigedasleng, in an effort to see whether the same approaches to each of the language would provide similar results. While analyzing the behaviors of Bahamian and Patois as far as marking tense using TMA auxiliaries, it has been shown how important of a role situational context and semantics play in understanding the exact mood and aspect of tenses in the utterances in those creoles. The same has been shown to be the case with Trigedasleng. This points to a similar behavior pattern and reliance on not only auxiliaries, but also on the immediate linguistic environment and external context in which the utterance exists, which enables an utterance such as the Patois example 'Im a sell yam a maakit' to be understood in one case as past tense, and future tense in another. In Present-Day English very clear and unique TMA auxiliaries and combinations of auxiliaries exist to distinguish between tenses, moods and aspects, and in that specific regard, context is not crucial, for example, in understanding weather the verb in a sentence indicates a past or present tense, or if the aspect is progressive or perfective, and so forth. For the creoles and for Trigedasleng, however, it proved vital. In the case of all three languages, based on the contexts in which each utterance exists, a different meaning could be interpreted from an utterance. For Bahamian, both context and auxiliaries proved to be equally important when interpreting the exact meaning of the utterance. In the case of Patois, context plays a much more crucial role than auxiliaries do in interpreting meanings of utterances. A far as Trigedasleng is concerned, the analysis showed a notable reliance on context, similarly to Patois but not to the same extent. It also showed a reliance on combinations of TMA auxiliaries in order to convey mood, tense and aspect, very similarly to Bahamian. In analyzing how TMA auxiliaries behave specifically in Trigedasleng, and how vital they are to interpreting utterances, it is clearly presented how Trigedasleng relies on these auxiliaries not only for marking tense, aspect or mood, but even more so to complement and determine the exact

meaning of the verb, leading to the conclusion that auxiliaries in regular verbs in Trigedasleng are, in function, akin to lexical words more than they are to grammar words, which is a significant difference from regular verbs in Present-Day English. This kind of linguistic behavior can be seen in phrasal verbs in PDE, and I have argued this to be the foundation of the verb system found in the Grounder cryptolect that preceded Trigedasleng.

To sum up, it is my firm belief that this thesis has provided sufficient theoretical foundation, if not even evidence, that Trigedasleng behaves like an English-based creole, which should be enough reason to at least consider it plausible that it is an English-based creole. Given the fact that Trigedasleng as a language developed in a linguistically isolated environment of the American north-eastern seaboard, specifically around the Washington, D.C. area, because of the nuclear apocalypse that happened in the story's fictional past, it is difficult to imagine there being any other natural language involved in its development, making Trigedasleng a language that developed exclusively in an American English environment. The language's territorial isolation from other languages, in combination with the presented proof of its creole-like behavior, and its presented lexical and grammatical connections to Present-Day English, gives some credence to the theory that Trigedasleng as a creole developed "inside" of the English language, a personal theoretical proposition that was presented in the second chapter of this thesis, which claims that creoles can develop as a result of contact between two sufficiently different varieties of a single language. Proving this theory beyond reasonable doubt, however, would require a more extensive research into the behavior of and similarities between many other Eastern American creoles.

Considering all of the above factors, it can be concluded with a sufficient degree of certainty that a language such as Trigedasleng could plausibly develop from Present Day English under the circumstances described in its fictional history. Additionally, it can also be safely

assumed that, based on the presented behavior of its verb system, which has been shown to be quite keen on phrasality and construction rather than invention, a behavior that Thim calls “specifically English”, it can be safely concluded that Trigedasleng is, in fact, a plausible future developmental route for the English language.

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