

5. Verbs

5.1 Basic forms: infinitive and stem

The infinitive, in Jameld, always ends in *-en*, and it is this verb form which appears in the dictionary.

<i>liuben</i>	to love
<i>yiben</i>	to give
<i>koxjen</i>	to guess
<i>isten</i>	to be

The verb stem is formed by removing the infinitive ending *-en*.

<i>liuben</i> → <i>liub-</i>
<i>yiben</i> → <i>yib-</i>
<i>koxjen</i> → <i>koxj-</i>

5.2 Present indicative

The present tense of many verbs is formed by removing the infinitive ending *-en*, i.e. it is identical to the verb stem.

<i>liuben</i> → <i>me liub</i>	to love → I love
<i>yiben</i> → <i>ye yib</i>	to give → you give
<i>anvülen</i> → <i>m'anvül</i>	to walk → I walk
<i>echten</i> → <i>e h'echt</i>	to tie → he ties

There are, as ever, some exceptions. Some verbs end with a consonant cluster or a single consonant that does not lend itself to forming the present in this manner. These form the present tense by removing the final *-n* from the infinitive, but leaving the *-e* for euphony. Such verbs are termed "soft-ending verbs", and are marked in the dictionary with an asterisk.

<i>wulnen</i> → <i>me wulne</i>	to want → I want
<i>koxjen</i> → <i>e koxje</i>	to guess → he guesses

There are also a very few verbs whose present tense cannot be readily guessed from the appearance of the infinitive. Here they are, all five of them:

<i>haven</i> → <i>me häv</i> *	to carve → I carve
<i>huen</i> → <i>ye hü</i>	to hold → you hold
<i>hüvren</i> → <i>ven huv</i>	to hope → we hope
<i>möten</i> → <i>me mot</i>	to have to → I must
<i>yaaen</i> → <i>e yegh</i>	to confess → he confesses

Any prefixed verbs formed from these root verbs follow the same pattern, e.g.:

<i>tinthuen</i> → <i>et tinthü</i>	to restrict → it restricts
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As you will have noticed, there are no complex conjugation patterns to concern the Jameld-learner: the present form of the verb is the same for all persons and numbers – with one notable exception: the verb *isten* (to be) has two present forms, *jist* in the singular and *ist* in the plural.**

<i>me jist</i>	I am
<i>es jist</i>	she is
<i>ven ist</i>	we are
<i>tem ist</i>	they are

Both *jist* and *ist* are often shortened to *'st* in speech: *me'st*, *ven'st*, etc.

5.3 Preterite (simple past)

The simple past tense, or preterite, is formed in a number of ways***.

Regular (or “weak”) verbs form the past tense by appending the suffix *-ta* to the present tense:

<i>liuben</i> → <i>me liubta</i>	to love → I loved
<i>anvülen</i> → <i>m'anvülta</i>	to walk → I walked

Soft-ending verbs may or may not retain the final *-e* before the *-ta*:

* Note that there is another verb *haven* which means “to heave”, and this is a perfectly normal soft-ending verb.

** Formerly, the verbs *alen* and *aven* and the obsolete *airen* also had separate singular and plural forms, respectively *gal/al*, *kave/ave* and *daire/aire*, but these are now archaic and their use is not recommended.

*** It used to be the case that all verbs formed their past tense by the addition of the suffix *-mä* to the stem, but this was a Ravtaalism and is now much frowned upon. If you use this form, be prepared for some very old-fashioned looks.

Isten (“to be”) is a special case: all its perfect forms are based on *wésen**. Hence:

isten/wésen → *wésaven* to be → to have been

5.5 Perfect

The perfect tense (that which in English appears as, for instance, “I have given”, “She has gone”) is formed by removing the final *-n* from the perfect infinitive.

<i>me yibave</i>	I have given
<i>es liubave</i>	she has loved
<i>tem hüave</i>	they have held
<i>ven wésave</i>	we have been

5.6 Pluperfect

The pluperfect tense (that which in English appears as, for instance, “I had given”, “She had gone”) is, in effect, the simple past of the perfect infinitive. The perfect infinitive, as noted above in section 5.4, is formed by adding *-aven* (i.e. the verb “to have” as a suffix) to the present tense. The simple past of *aven* is *aa*, and therefore the pluperfect appears as the present tense plus *-aa*:

<i>me yibaa</i>	I had given
<i>es liubaa</i>	she had loved
<i>tem hüaa</i>	they had held
<i>ven wésaa</i>	we had been

5.7 Future

The future tense is formed with the auxiliary verb *tsald* plus the verb infinitive:

<i>me tsald yiben</i>	I will give
<i>es tsald liuben</i>	she will love
<i>tem tsald huen</i>	they will hold

* Forms such as *istaven* and *jistave* can still be seen in formal contexts such as official documents, but these are not in common use.

Na removes the need for *h'* between *e* and a verb beginning with a vowel:

<i>e h'olt</i>	he went
<i>e n'olt</i>	he did not go

When negating compound verb constructions involving modal auxiliaries, *na* normally precedes the auxiliary:

<i>tem tsald yiben</i>	they will give
<i>tem na tsald yiben</i>	they will not give

<i>ye mot alen</i>	you must go
<i>ye na wald alen</i>	you must not go

However, for particular emphasis *na* may precede the infinitive:

Tem tsald na yiben, tem tsald véperen.
They will not give, they will take away.

Other negative adverbial constructions behave in the same way as *na*:

- *nazē* (never, not at all)
e nazē trinkave speritas he has never drunk spirits
tem nazē ziv they never argue
- *nawīs* (in no way)
me nawīs zicht mesten iet I really can't (lit. in no way can) eat
that
et nawīs jist maklauk that is totally impossible
(lit. that in no way is possible)
- *namor* (no longer, no more, any more)
me namor al leri I don't go there any more
ven namor vand te merk we no longer sell that brand
- *na ... n'ëg/n'ëd* (neither ... nor)
(*N'ëğ* and *n'ëd* are interchangeable.)
na yibyë ime richdhom n'ëd give me neither riches nor poverty
paumnas

See also:

3.5 QUANTIFIERS – negative expressions with nouns;

6.7 EMPHATIC ADVERBS – further notes on *na*;

8.1 COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS – “neither” and “nor”;

9.3 QUESTIONS – position of *na* in questions, elision in questions.

5.10 Conditional

The conditional is formed by replacing the *-en* of the infinitive with *-on*.

yiben → *yibon*
possen → *posson*

to give → would give
to happen → would happen

me yibon iye iǵé tes wés
et na posson

I would give you everything
it would not happen

Irregular present tense forms do not affect the conditional, which is based on the infinitive:

huen → *huon* (not **hüon*)

to hold → would hold

There is one exception: the verb *isten* (to be) has two conditional forms, *jiston* in the singular and *iston* in the plural.

me jiston strelin
ven iston béo

I would be brilliant
we would be better

5.11 Conditional perfect

The conditional perfect is formed by replacing the *-en* of the perfect infinitive with *-on*.

yibaven → *yibavon*
possaven → *possavon*

to have given → would have given
to have happened → would have happened

me yibavon iye iǵé tes wés
et na possavon

I would have given you everything
it would not have happened

As verbs with irregular present tense forms have perfect infinitives based on those forms, their conditional perfect forms follow the same patterns:

huen → *hüaven* → *hüavon*

to hold → to have held → would have held

yaaen → *yeghaven* → *yeghavon*

to confess → to have confessed → would have confessed

NB: *isten* → *wésaven* → *wésavon* to be → to have been → would
have been

5.12 Personal imperative

In Jameld, there are two ways to express the imperative: the personal imperative and the impersonal imperative.

The personal imperative is used when giving commands or orders, for making personal invitations, or for invoking a wish. It is formed by adding a personal suffix to the verb stem (i.e. the infinitive without the *-en* ending); this suffix is the pronoun, with the letter *e* changed to *ë*:

pronoun	imperative suffix	English
<i>me</i>	<i>-më</i>	I
<i>ye</i>	<i>-yë</i>	you
<i>e</i>	<i>-ë</i>	he
<i>es</i>	<i>-ës</i>	she
<i>et</i>	<i>-ët</i>	it
<i>ven</i>	<i>-vën</i>	we
<i>yen</i>	<i>-yën</i>	you
<i>tem</i>	<i>-tëm</i>	they
<i>temt</i>	<i>-tëmt</i>	they

Here are some examples; by way of illustration, the equivalent statement appears first, followed by the imperative:

- Commands/orders (with 2nd person or 1st person singular):

<i>ye kümne</i>	you come
<i>kümneyë!</i>	come [here, you]!
<i>yen al för</i>	you (plural) go away
<i>alyën för!</i>	go away!
<i>ye n'al</i>	you do not go
<i>n'alyë!</i>	don't go!
<i>ye hü iet</i>	you hold it
<i>huyë iet!</i>	hold it!

(NB: the stem of *huen* is *hu*, not *hü*)

<i>me thakje</i>	I think
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thakjemë! think! (to oneself)

- Personal invitations (with 1st person plural):

ven al we go
alvën let's go

- Invoking wishes (with 3rd person):

et jist zo it is so
jistët zo let it be so

Got zeyen iye God blesses you
Got zeyenë iye may God bless you

et na poss it doesn't happen
na possët! may that not happen!

See also 5.15 IMPERATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE: INVOKING WISHES.

As can be seen from *kümneyë* and *thakjemë* above, soft-ending verbs whose stems end in awkward consonant clusters add *-e-* before the imperative ending. Soft-ending verbs with more compliant stems, such as *ären*, *aven* and *hüaren*, form the imperative without needing an *-e-* for euphony:

Äryë iet! Do it!
Avvën kohkjas! Let's have biscuits!

Irregular present tense forms do not affect the imperative, which is based on the stem:

huen → *huyë!* (not **hüyë*) to hold → hold!
hüvren → *hüvrevën* (not **huvvën*) to hope → let's hope
yaaen → *yaayën!* (not **yeghyën*) to confess → confess!

The verb *isten* (to be) has the following personal imperative forms:

Singular *wésmë, wésyë, jistë/jistës/jistët*
Plural *istvën, wésyën, isttëm/isttëmt*

5.13 Impersonal imperative

Sometimes you want something that's not quite so brusque, especially when giving directions. This is where the impersonal imperative comes in: it can be used in a general "it is suggested that you do this" fashion, as

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well as when the person being commanded is not specified (for instance, in adverts or on road signs). The impersonal imperative is identical with the verb stem, so it's rather simple:

<i>Al lavte</i>	Turn left
<i>Kömin eri</i>	Start here
<i>Réir te mel und te melk</i>	Stir the flour and milk
<i>Na Bistop</i>	Keep Clear (literally, "Do not block")
<i>Käv »Dr Strelü« Fruktkohk</i>	Buy "Dr Strel's" Fruitcake
<i>Är te Strand</i>	Do the Strand

Soft-ending verbs whose stems end in awkward consonant clusters add *-e*.

<i>Thakje gren</i>	Think green
<i>Koxje meü wight</i>	Guess my weight

Irregular present tense forms do not affect the imperative, which is based on the stem:

<i>Hüvre vor te бүт</i> (not <i>*Huv vor te бүт</i>)	Hope for the best
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The impersonal imperative of *isten* (to be) is *wés*.

<i>Wés optbaazin</i>	Be amazing
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5.14 Present subjunctive

The use of the present subjunctive in modern standard Jameld is limited to formal speech or writing, its place often being taken by other forms in colloquial settings. (For details, see below towards the end of this section.) Nevertheless, it remains an important literary form, primarily for optatives (the expression of wishes) and after "if" or related expressions, and it is also preserved in a number of set phrases.

Historically, the present subjunctive of most verbs was formed by adding the ending *-e* to the present tense (indicative) form (unless the present already ended in *-e*):

<i>eléven</i> → <i>elév</i> → <i>eléve</i>	to live
<i>kümnen</i> → <i>kümne</i> → <i>kümne</i>	to come

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However, as the difference was so minor – and in the case of soft-ending verbs, there was no difference at all – most of these forms fell out of use. In modern standard Jameld only the following forms are still used:

- *isten* (to be) → *sé*
tem sé zē ghari may they always be happy
yeü will sé atan may your will be done
et sé yanoh suffice it to say (lit. [may] it be enough)
wé sé iye woe betide you (lit. woe be [to] you)
- *wésen* (to be, to exist) → *wése*
et wése vaniysaus let there be custard
- *eléven* (to live) → *eléve*
only in the set phrase “long live (whatever)”, e.g.:
te fruktkohkar eléve! long live the pharmacist!

The following modal auxiliaries also have subjunctive forms that are still in use:

- *maken* (to be possible) → *make*
et make! may it be possible!
et na make! may it not be possible!
et make wölen may it be possible to fly
- *möten* (to have to) → *mote*
tem mote alen homz may they have to go home
- *willen* (to want to) → *wille*
ven wille helnen may we want to help
- *zichten* (to be able) → *zichte*
et zichte! may it be possible!
e zichte alen homz may he be able to go home

The present subjunctive of other verbs is formed using the auxiliary *ṭsohe* and the infinitive:

<i>ye ṭsohe aven freth</i>	may you have peace
<i>yeü köizrich ṭsohe künmen</i>	let your kingdom come
<i>tese ṭsohe alen wel</i>	may things go well

Wälde is used instead of *ṭsohe* for negatives:

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et nazē wälde possen may that never happen
(not **et nazē tsohe possen*)
te tšipes eri na wälde sneten te may these crisps not cut my mouth
muth

Wälde is also used for forlorn hopes:

et wälde endien régenen if only it would stop raining

In addition to optatives (the expression of wishes) such as those illustrated above, the present subjunctive is also used after non-hypothetical *eöx* (“if”), i.e. where the “if” clause is not expressing a counterfactual condition.

(NB: In contrast, after hypothetical “if”, i.e. where the “if” clause does express a counterfactual condition, the past subjunctive is used rather than the present subjunctive; for further details and examples, see 5.16 PAST SUBJUNCTIVE.)

Here the speaker has just been told he’s too old to help, and he’s acknowledging that (albeit grudgingly):

Eöx me sé té eld, me tšald alen If I am too old, I’ll go home.
homz.
(Not **Eöx me jist té eld...*)

Another way of expressing *eöx me sé té eld* is with inversion, where the verb moves to the front of the sentence, replacing *eöx*:

Sé me té eld, me tšald alen (lit. Be I too old, I’ll go home.)
homz.

Eöx me na sé té eld, me willon) If I’m not too old, I’d like to help.
helnen.)
Sé me na té eld, me willon helnen.)

Note the following additional examples, with inverted alternatives:

Eöx et wése vaniysaus, me tšald) If there is custard, I’ll have some.
aven ans.)
Wése et vaniysaus, me tšald)
aven ans.)

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Eöx et na wése vaniysaus, me na zicht aven ans.) If there is no custard, I can't have any.
Wése et na vaniysaus, me na zicht aven ans.)

(Compare the following; as there is no *eöx* ("if"), the subjunctive is not used:

Wen et wés vaniysaus, m'ave ans. When there is custard, I have some [habitually].)

Eöx ye wille alen, alyë jüji.) If you want to go, go now.*
Wille ye alen, alyë jüji.)

Eöx me mote ären iet, me fšald.) If I have to do it, I will.
Mote me ären iet, me fšald.)

Usage is the same with *fšohe* and *wälde*, although with the former inversion is now archaic or poetic, and with the latter impossible:

Eöx me fšohe trinken wïn, m'intfšlip.) If I drink wine, I fall asleep.
Tšohe me trinken wïn, m'intfšlip.)

Eöx ye fšohe visen Haral, tall ie.) If you see Haral, tell him.
Tšohe ye visen Haral, tall ie.)

Eöx me na wälde mesten te kohkes tes me back, temt bikümne blét fšimeli. If I don't eat the cakes that I bake, they just go mouldy.

Snïğ ("unless") can be used as an alternative to *eöx ... na*; the subjunctive is required (with *wälde* not *fšohe*):

Snïğ me sé té eld, me willon helnen. Unless I'm too old, I'd like to help.

Snïğ me zichte aven vaniysaus, me na fšald mesten te pastï. Unless I can have custard, I won't eat the pie.

* The set expression *eöx ye will*, meaning "please" (literally "if you will") is an exception due to its remarkable age: it actually predates this use of the present subjunctive, which although now formal is by no means archaic. Usage was not fully standardised until the late 18th century, although since the mid 20th century use of the subjunctive has declined in non-formal contexts.

*Snij̄ me wälde mesten te
kohkes tes me back, temt
bikümne blét tsimeli.* Unless I eat the cakes that I bake, they
just go mouldy.

The present subjunctive is also used after *tügo* (in the sense of “even if”), when looking forward in time:

*Tügo et tsöhe benen te jüteli
yura, me tsald slüten te buhlen.* Even if it takes me all year, I’m going
to finish this book.

Inversion is possible with *tügo*:

*Tsöhe et benen te jüteli yura,
me tsald slüten te buhlen.* (lit. May it take the whole year...)

(Compare the following, where *tügo* has the sense of “even though”, and the subjunctive is not used:

*Tügo et st kalt, es tsald trinken
te thë.* Even though it’s cold, she’s going to
drink that tea.)

The subjunctive is also used when the *eöx* or *tügo* clause comes later in the sentence, although in that case inversion is not possible:

*M’int̄slip eöx me tsöhe trinken
wïn.* I fall asleep if I drink wine.

*Me tsald aven vaniysaus eöx et
wése ans.* I’ll have custard if there is any.

Me tsald ären iet eöx me mote. I will do it if I have to.

*Te kohkes tes me back bikümne
blét tsimeli eöx me na wälde
mesten itemt.* The cakes that I bake just go mouldy if
I don’t eat them.

*Me tsald slüten te buhlen tügo et
tsöhe benen te jüteli yura.* I’m going to finish this book even if
it takes me all year.

*E seta iet és eöx e tsöhe
méyanen iet.* He said it as if he meant it.

Note the use of the present subjunctive in the last example above following *és eöx* (“as if”); the “if” here is not hypothetical, and the tense is shown by the main clause.

Unlike certain related languages (e.g. German), in Jameld the subjunctive is not required after *tes* (“that”) or in indirect speech:

E seta tes y’ave grundi aures. He said that you have big ears.

Es thakje tes ye jist wivifsi. She thinks that you're ugly.
(not **E seta tes ye fsohe aven...* or **Es thakje tes ye sé...*)

Note also that Jameld is stricter than English in distinguishing between "if" and "whether", and that the subjunctive is not required after *widar* ("whether"):

Me na wit widar me fsoh alen. I don't know whether/if I should go.
Me na wit widar m'al éd na. I don't know whether to go or not.

The present subjunctive is preserved in a number of set phrases where otherwise it might or might not be used in modern standard Jameld, such as:

<i>et sé zo</i>	so be it (lit. it be so)
<i>et sé yanoh</i>	suffice it to say (lit. it be enough)
<i>wauzë et sé</i>	be that as it may (lit. however it be)
<i>wé sé iye</i>	woe betide you (lit. woe be [to] you)
<i>waszë fsohe künnen</i>	come what may (lit. whatever may come)

It also appears as part of the following contractions:

<i>sé'ts</i>	(= <i>sé et tes</i>)	if it be that, if (expressing doubt)
<i>sé't</i>	(= <i>sé et</i>)	if it be, if so

The latter is particularly formal and bookish, but *sé'ts* is still in general usage:

Sé'ts t'aasel leri'st werkilauk, If that's a real donkey then I'm
me'st Jorthelü kusina. Jorthel's cousin.

In colloquial usage, the present subjunctive after "if" is often replaced by the present indicative, although this is widely frowned upon. For instance:

<i>Eöx me na sé té eld, me willon</i>) If I'm not too old, I'd like to help.
<i>helen.</i>)
<i>Eöx me na jist té eld, me willon</i>)
<i>helen.</i>)
<i>Eöx me mote ären iet, me fsald.</i>) If I have to do it, I will.
<i>Eöx me mot ären iet, me fsald.</i>)

Eöx me tsohe trinken wïn,) If I drink wine, I fall asleep.
m'intfslip.)
Eöx me trink wïn, m'intfslip.)

For alternatives to the subjunctive when invoking wishes, see 5.15
IMPERATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE: INVOKING WISHES below.

5.15 Imperative and subjunctive: invoking wishes

Two options for invoking wishes have been outlined above in 5.12
PERSONAL IMPERATIVE and 5.14 PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

The personal imperative can come across as too brusque or overbearing under certain circumstances, especially when the subject is a single individual who is within earshot; also, the use of the imperative can result in unwieldy constructions when the subject is not just a pronoun or a proper name. On the other hand, the subjunctive can have a bookish or even archaic air, especially when the auxiliary *tsohe* is used; many speakers will nevertheless prefer it to the potentially harsh personal imperative, especially when invoking a wish, which is after all a somewhat archaic (or arch) mode of speech.

Compare the following:

jistët zo) let it be so
et sé zo)

Got zeyenë iye may God bless you
(a set phrase; **Got tsohe zeyenen iye* would never be used)

na possët!) may that not happen!
et na wâlde possen!)

isttëm zë ghari) may they always be happy
tem sé zë ghari)

et wése vaniysaus let there be custard
(no imperative option)

avyë freth) may you have peace
ye tsohe aven freth)

(although both constructions are possible, there is a conflict in wishing someone well with an imperative; the subjunctive would normally be used*)

yeü will, jistët atan) may your will be done
yeü will sé atan)
(the imperative is possible here, but awkward)

te härlauknas und te meyt, isttëmt vorzë ï ie
te härlauknas und te meyt sé vorzë ï ie
to him be the glory and the might forever

t'an wi ave an aure, hüarë
t'an wi ave an aure tšohn hüaren
let the one who has an ear hear

These final (somewhat Biblical) examples illustrate the difficulty of using the imperative when the subject is a phrase (e.g. “the glory and the might” or “the one who has an ear”). In modern formal usage, the subjunctive would be a much more likely choice here.

5.16 Past subjunctive

The use of the past subjunctive, like that of the present subjunctive, is in modern standard Jameld limited to formal speech or writing, its place often being taken by the CONDITIONAL (see 5.10) in colloquial settings. Nevertheless, it remains an important literary form in hypothetical constructions, especially after “if”.

The past subjunctive of weak verbs is formed by replacing the preterite suffix *-ta* with *-te*. This also applies to irregular verbs whose preterites end in *-ta*:

eléven → *elévta* → *elévte* to live
thakjen → *thochta* → *thochte* to think

* Alternatively, a completely different construction might be more natural in some cases:

Me prek/huv tes ye tšald aven freth I pray/hope that you will have peace
Ven will/wuntš tes ye tšald aven freth We wish you peace (lit. We want/wish that you will have peace)

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The past subjunctive of strong verbs is formed by adding -e to the preterite, e.g.:

<i>zenden</i> → <i>zand</i> → <i>zande</i>	to send
<i>hujen</i> → <i>hé</i> → <i>hée</i>	to hang
<i>ligen</i> → <i>lö</i> → <i>löe</i>	to lie, be situated
<i>möten</i> → <i>maat</i> → <i>maate</i>	to have to
<i>isten/wésen</i> → <i>wä</i> → <i>wäe</i>	to be, exist

There are two irregular forms:

<i>ären</i> → <i>at</i> → <i>äte</i>	to do
<i>aven</i> → <i>aa</i> → <i>äe</i>	to have

As an example, consider the analogous English expression “if I were you”, which in Jameld would be:

eöx me wäe iye

Here, the subjunctive is required after hypothetical *eöx* (“if”), as the “if” clause expresses a counterfactual condition. (Compare *wen me wä met iye* (“when I was with you”), using the preterite; here there is no “if”. See also 5.14 PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE for cases of non-hypothetical “if”.)

Another way of expressing *eöx me wä iye* is with inversion, where the verb moves to the front of the sentence, replacing *eöx*:

wäe me iye (lit. were I you)

This kind of construction is common (though not compulsory) when using the past subjunctive of certain key verbs and modal auxiliaries:

- isten/wésen* (to be, to exist) → *wäe*
eöx et wäe vaniysaus) if there were custard
wäe et vaniysaus)

eöx et na wäe vaniysaus) if there were no custard
wäe et na vaniysaus)
- aven* (to have) → *äe*
eöx m'äe auntmillion dollares) if I had a million dollars
äe me auntmillion dollares)

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- *maken* (to be possible) → *mochte*
eöx et mochte wölen) if it were possible to fly
mochte et wölen)
- *möten* (to have to) → *maate*
eöx me maate alen homz) if I had to go home
maate me alen homz)
- *willen* (to want to) → *wohe*
eöx ye wohe helnen) if you wanted to help
wohe ye helnen)
- *zichten* (to be able) → *zochte*
eöx me zochte mesten veln) if I could eat nothing but crisps
tfsipes)
zochte me mesten veln tfsipes)

With other verbs, inversion is rather uncommon; archaic, even.

eöx me vonde iye t'auto) if I sold you the car
(?) *vonde me iye t'auto*)

Inversion is impossible with negatives involving infinitives:

eöx et na mochte wölen if it were not possible to fly

When the “if” clause has a verb in the past subjunctive, the main clause uses the conditional:

Eöx et wäe vaniysaus, m'avon ans.) If there were custard, I'd have some.
Wäe et vaniysaus, m'avon ans.)

M'avon vaniysaus, eöx et wäe ans.) I'd have custard, if there were any.
M'avon vaniysaus, wäe et ans.)

The past subjunctive can be used after *tügo* (in the sense of “even if”), when considering a conditional statement:

E na meston zukini, tügo ye He wouldn't eat courgette, even if
zëite ie. you paid him.

Snïğ (“unless”) cannot be used to replace *eöx ... na* when the “if” is hypothetical:

Eöx et na wäe vaniysaus, 'e optfindien iet jiston beni. If custard did not exist, it would be necessary to invent it.
(Not **Sniğ et wäe vaniysaus...*)

The past subjunctive also appears as part of the following contractions:

wäe't no (= *wäe et no*) if only
wäe'ts (= *wäe et tes*) if it were that, if (hypothetical, archaic)

In colloquial usage, the past subjunctive is often replaced by the conditional, although this is widely frowned upon. For instance:

Eöx et wäe vaniysaus, m'avon ans.) If there were custard, I'd have some.
Eöx et wéson vaniysaus, m'avon ans.)

5.17 Other subjunctive forms

The following subjunctive forms are rarely used.

- Pluperfect subjunctive

The suffix *-äe* marks the pluperfect subjunctive. The main clause requires the conditional perfect:

Eöx et wésäe vaniysaus, m'avavon ans.) If there had been custard, I would have had some.
Wésäe et vaniysaus, m'avavon ans.)

The pluperfect subjunctive is often replaced by the conditional perfect, although this is not strictly correct:

Eöx et wésavon vaniysaus, m'avavon ans.

- Future subjunctive

The future subjunctive requires the auxiliary *ēsalde* (*walde* for negatives). The main clause uses the future indicative:

Eöx ye t̄salde alen, me t̄sald alen.) If you will go, I will go.
)
T̄salde ye alen, me t̄sald alen.)

Eöx ye na walde alen, me na t̄sald alen. If you won't go, I won't go.

The present subjunctive is often used instead:

Eöx ye t̄sohe alen, m'al.) If you're going, I'm going.
)
T̄sohe ye alen, m'al.)

5.18 Present participle

The present participle is formed by replacing the *-en* of the infinitive with *-in*. Irregular present tense forms do not affect the present participle.

<i>papt̄sen</i> → <i>papt̄sin</i>	to speak → speaking
<i>gléen</i> → <i>glén</i>	to glow → glowing
<i>huen</i> → <i>huin</i> (not * <i>hüin</i>)	to hold → holding

There is one exception: the verb *isten* (to be) uses the present participle of *wésen*:

<i>isten</i> → <i>wésin</i>	to be → being
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The present participle can be used as a noun or as an adjective:

<i>me liub drīfin</i>	I love driving
<i>singin mackt te këel sar</i>	singing makes one's throat sore
<i>an papt̄sin fayel</i>	a talking bird

Note that the usage of the present participle in the present continuous tense (e.g. "I am reading") is not the same as it is in English. See section 5.23 CONTINUOUS OR PROGRESSIVE FORMS below for details.

5.19 Past participles

In Jameld, there are two types of past participle: stative and dynamic (formerly called "resultative").

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Stative participles indicate the state of something. They are formed by adding *-i* to the present form (including irregular present forms); if the present ends in *-e*, as is the case with soft-ending verbs, this *-e* is dropped:

<i>malten</i> → <i>malt</i> → <i>malti</i>	to melt → melt → molten
<i>haven</i> → <i>häv</i> → <i>hävi</i>	to carve → carve → carved
<i>wulnen</i> → <i>wulne</i> → <i>wulni</i>	to want → want → wanted
<i>jolkläzen</i> → <i>jolkläz</i> → <i>jolkläzi</i>	to appoint → appoint → appointed

The stative participle is the one to use attributively, i.e. before the noun, as here:

<i>malti is</i>	molten ice
<i>an hävi vorthräyel</i>	a carved object
<i>an wulni monn</i>	a wanted man

In contrast, dynamic participles indicate that something is (or was, or will be) in the process of being affected by something else. For weak verbs, they are identical with the stative participle:

<i>t'is wä malti</i>	the ice was melted (by the sun)
<i>te tšüdrisť wä jolkläzi</i>	the time was appointed (by agreement of the board)

For strong or irregular verbs, the dynamic participle either ends in *-i* (and is therefore probably identical with the stative) or is formed by adding *-an* or *-n* to the preterite, or in some cases is entirely irregular – see the list of JAMELD IRREGULAR VERBS for full details. For example:

<i>wärpen</i> → <i>würp</i> → <i>würpan</i>	to twist → twisted → twisted
<i>eskrären</i> → <i>eskrä</i> → <i>eskrären</i>	to write → wrote → written
<i>yaaen</i> → <i>yeghta</i> → <i>iyen</i>	to confess → confessed → confessed

Compare:

<i>eü liy wä würpan pozirťs te pohn</i>	his body was twisted with the pain (dynamic)
<i>eü yamunth wä wärpi</i>	his mind was twisted (and had been for some time) (stative)

<i>e wā tintthrün ük te nüawes</i>	he was depressed by the news (dynamic)
<i>e wā tintthräyi</i>	he was depressed (i.e. in a state of depression) (stative)
<i>te buhlen jist eskrën</i>	the book is [being] written [at the moment] (dynamic)
<i>te buhlen jist eskrëri</i>	the book is written (i.e. the writing process is complete) (stative)

Note, in general, the sense of completion inherent in the stative, and the ongoingness implied by the dynamic. In modern usage, however, this subtle difference has become somewhat blurred, so that many native speakers now use the dynamic participle in all cases in the passive, although this is not strictly correct. Only the most horn-rimmed of grammar sticklers would now bother to pick you up on using the wrong participle with the passive in any context other than formal writing.

5.20 Passive voice: formation

Although some are only rarely used, a range of passive forms are available in Jameld (although, of course, for transitive verbs only). All use an auxiliary verb (various forms of *isten*) and a past participle, stative or dynamic as appropriate.

(NB: Many passive constructions are temporally ambiguous. Further information is provided in the following section, 5.21 PASSIVE VOICE: RESOLVING AMBIGUITIES.)

- Using *jist/ist* as auxiliary

Flamtarta jist mackti int Zuraaland. (stative/dynamic)

Tarte flambée is made in Zuraaland.

or

Tarte flambée has been made in Zuraaland [for many centuries, and it still is now].

Te flamtarta jist mackti. (stative/dynamic)

The tarte flambée is being made.

or

The tarte flambée has been made.*

Te flamtarta jist mastan. (dynamic)

The tarte flambée is being eaten.

Te flamtarta jist mesti. (stative)

The tarte flambée has been eaten.

- Using *wä* as auxiliary

Te flamtarta eri wä mackti int Zuraalant. (stative/dynamic)

This tarte flambée was made in Zuraaland.

Et wä bideli ük te yarnjas. (stative/dynamic)

It was divided up by the boys.

or

It had been divided up by the boys.

or possibly

It was being divided up by the boys.

Et wä vondan ük te backaré. (dynamic)

It was sold by the bakery.

or

It was being sold by the bakery.

Et wä vandi ük te backaré. (stative)

It had been sold by the bakery.

* The use of the perfect and pluperfect forms of *isten* (*wésave* and *wésaa*) with the passive voice is to be avoided for two reasons: firstly, native speakers find the resulting constructions old-fashioned and clumsy; and secondly, expressions such as *Te flamtarta wésave mackti* imply that the next word will be “but...” Therefore, *jist/ist* and *wä* should be used instead, with an appropriate adverb for clarity.

- Using *ṡald isten* as auxiliary

Maltzas ṡald isten mackti.

Melted cheese will be made.

or

Melted cheese will have been made.

- Using *jiston/iston* as auxiliary

Et jiston mackti.

It would be made.

or

It would have been made.

5.21 Passive voice: resolving ambiguities

Many passive constructions are temporally ambiguous. This is partly due to the avoidance of perfect and pluperfect forms of *isten* and otherwise (in weak verbs only) to the fact that the stative and dynamic participles are identical. As an example, consider:

Te gas jist mäi.

The lawn has been mown.

or

The lawn is mown. (Somebody did it earlier.)

or

The lawn is mown. (Somebody does it every few weeks.)

or

The lawn is [being] mown. (Somebody is doing it now.)

In the latter case, there is so Jameld equivalent for the English word “being”. As a result the potential for ambiguity is quite high.

To resolve these ambiguities, native speakers employ a variety of time-related adverbs with the passive to clarify the meaning. The most common are:

<i>äl</i>	completely
<i>beréde</i>	already
<i>vort'nü</i>	at the moment, at that time

Others include:

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<i>äls</i>	constantly
<i>birafıs</i>	soon
<i>delets</i>	recently
<i>oft</i>	often
<i>tisks</i>	occasionally
<i>vors</i>	previously
<i>zë</i>	always
<i>zofer</i>	so far
<i>zotolk</i>	just now

In this section, such adverbs are surrounded by braces to aid the reader.

So, to clarify:

Te gas jist {biréde} mäi.

The lawn is [already] mown. (Somebody did it earlier.)

Te gas jist {vort'nü} mäi.

The lawn is [actively-right-now] mown. (Somebody is doing it now.)

Te gas jist {tisks} mäi.

The lawn is [occasionally] mown. (Somebody does it every few weeks.)

More examples:

Wenjeldönt wä {vort'nü} tşlui inte park.

Angleball was being played in the park.

Wenjeldönt wä {vors} tşlui inte park.

Angleball had been played in the park.

Wenjeldönt wä {oft/tisks} tşlui inte park.

Angleball was [often/sometimes] played in the park.

Te flamtarta jist {vort'nü} mackti.

The tarte flambée is being made.

Te flamtarta jist {äl} mackti.

The tarte flambée has been made.

Compare the following, where there would be no ambiguity without the adverbs because *mesten* is a strong verb and therefore the dynamic and stative participles are different:

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Te flamtarta jist {vort'nü} mastan.
The tarte flambée is being eaten.

Te flamtarta jist {äl} mesti.
The tarte flambée has been eaten.

Despite the lack of ambiguity here, native speakers would often use the adverbs anyway.

Furthermore, because of this use of adverbs to avoid ambiguity, a high percentage of Jameld speakers no longer even distinguish between the two types of past participles, and always use the dynamic with the passive. Hence, although the following is technically ungrammatical, it's the kind of thing you will often hear in Zuraaland without comment:

Te flamtarta jist äl mastan.

A lot of tarte flambée gets consumed in Zuraaland.

5.22 Passive voice: avoidance

As an alternative to the passive voice (see 5.20 PASSIVE VOICE: FORMATION above), impersonal active constructions may be used. The subject is usually one of the following pronouns:

<i>an</i>	one, someone
<i>ans</i>	some, some people
<i>ansan</i>	someone
<i>anstes</i>	something
<i>fulz</i>	some people
<i>ike</i>	one
<i>nan</i>	no one
<i>nates</i>	nothing

Here are some examples of passive constructions, followed by one or more impersonal active alternatives for each.

<i>Te gas jist biréde mäi.</i>	The lawn is [already] mown.
<i>An mäta te gas.</i>) Someone mowed the grass.
<i>Ansan mäta te gas.</i>)

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<i>Te gas jist vort'nü mäi.</i> <i>An mä vort'nü te gas.</i> <i>Ansan mä vort'nü te gas.</i>	The lawn is [actively-right-now] mown.) Someone is mowing the grass.)
<i>Te gas jist tisks mäi.</i> <i>An mä tisks te gas.</i> <i>Ansan mä tisks te gas.</i>	The lawn is [occasionally] mown.) Someone mows the grass.)
<i>Te gas nazë jist mäi.</i> <i>Nan mä te gas.</i>	The lawn is never mown. No one mows the grass.
<i>Wenjeldönt wä vort'nü tšlui</i> <i>inte park.</i> <i>Fulz tšluta vort'nü wenjeldont</i> <i>inte park.</i>	Angleball was being played in the park. People were playing angleball in the park.
<i>Flamtarta jist mastan int</i> <i>Zuraalant.</i> <i>Fulz int Zuraalant mest flamtarta.</i> <i>Ans int Zuraalant mest flamtarta</i> <i>däis pağë.</i> <i>Ike mest flamtarta int Zuraalant.</i>	Tarte flambée is eaten in Zuraaland. People in Zuraaland eat tarte flambée. Some people in Zuraaland eat tarte flambée every day. One eats (implied: one should eat) tarte flambée in Zuraaland.

5.23 Continuous or progressive forms

The English -ing form is normally translated in Jameld by the simple present tense, or by the future tense.

<i>me sid</i>	I am sitting (= I sit)
<i>me drif morn i Londe</i>) I am driving to London tomorrow
<i>me tšald drifen morn i Londe</i>)

However, sometimes you wish to emphasise that *right now* you are doing something. Here, in Jameld you can use the following construction (which could be characterised as “at the doing of the something”) to indicate ongoing action:

<i>me jist ax te resin ete buhlen</i>	I am reading the book (right now)* (lit. I am at the reading of the book)
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* Another option here, of course, is to use an adverb such as *vort'nü* (“right now”), e.g. *me res vort'nü te buhlen*.

<i>es wā ax te mestin ete maal</i>	she was eating a meal (just then) (lit. she was at the eating of the meal)
<i>e tsald isten mornmorn ax te tallin ew t'iywoles</i>	he will be counting butterflies tomorrow morning (lit. he will be tomorrow morning at the counting of the butterflies)

Note in the latter two examples the use of *ete* (or *ew t'*), meaning “of the”, even though the object is not definite in English in these cases.

Note also that this use of the present participle is different from the English usage, as in “I am reading”. One cannot say in Jameld **me jist resin* – if anything, it would imply that the speaker is somehow the living embodiment of the activity of “reading”, which you have to admit is rather unlikely.

5.24 Use of infinitive

The infinitive can be used in various ways in Jameld, as in other related languages. Firstly, it is used to form the future (SECTION 5.7) with *tsalden*, the present subjunctive (SECTION 5.14) with *tsöhe* and *wälde*, and in other ways with the other modal auxiliary verbs *maken*, *möten*, *willen* and *zichten* and their past forms (SECTIONS 5.27–5.32):

<i>me tsald yiben</i>	I shall give
<i>eöx me tsöhe yiben</i>	if I give
<i>me mak yiben</i>	I might give
<i>me maat yiben</i>	I had to give
<i>me will yiben</i>	I want to give
<i>me na zochta yiben</i>	I couldn't give
etc.	

There are also a number of other verbs after which (unlike in English) the infinitive may follow directly. They include the following (and their synonyms):

- *alen* (to go), *künnen* (to come)
es alta anvülen she went walking
- *köminen* (to begin), *punären* (to continue), *endien* (to end, finish)
me kömintä staren I started to stand
tem punäre feyten they continue to fight

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- me tsald endien chrijen* I will stop shouting
- *visen* (to see), *hüaren* (to hear), *fohlen* (to feel) – “verbs of perception”
hüare ye ie singen? can you hear him singing?
me vista ie mesten I saw him eating
 - *laven* (to leave, to allow)
tem lavta ime paptsen they allowed me to speak
 - *biaden* (to suggest, to ask)
e béd ies alen he asked her to go
 - *wafsten* (to be bothered)
me na wafst stare I can't be bothered to stand

The following verb can be followed by the perfect infinitive:

- *repemen* (to remember)
me repem visaven iet I remember seeing it

In all other cases, though, it is not possible to use the infinitive on its own. After a verb (with the exception of those listed above) or after an adjective, noun or pronoun, the infinitive is preceded by the infinitive particle 'e.

- e vorzend 'e gamten noffeli* he promises to play nicely
m'istranta 'e stare I tried to stand up
et'st luch 'e visen it is easy to see
tem wä swer 'e obertügen they were hard to convince
anstes 'e ghüden wrun something to hide from
et mackt ime 'e wohpen it makes me cry

However, where the meaning is “in order to”, the preposition *vor* is used:

- m'al vor zaräizen* I go [in order] to return*

* In archaic literary style a comma may be used: *m'al, zaräizen*)

5.25 Reflexivity

A small group of Jameld verbs – notably *wasken* (to wash), *kledhen* (to get dressed) and *féġen* (to feed) – are truly reflexive, that is, they need a reflexive pronoun as an object if there is no other object.

The “Type I” reflexive pronouns are used (see 4.3 REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS); if *me* is the subject, then *mi* is the object; if *ye* is the subject, then *yi* is the object; otherwise, the object is just *i*. Examples:

<i>me wash mi</i>	I wash [myself]
<i>ye kledh yi</i>	you get dressed (you dress yourself)
<i>e féġ i</i>	he feeds himself
<i>tem wük i</i>	they washed themselves

5.26 Habitual

The habitual form, which is only used for emphasis and to avoid ambiguity, uses the appropriate tense of the verb *ären* (to do) plus the present participle:

<i>m'äre yibin</i>	I give (habitually)
<i>m'at yibin</i>	I used to give
<i>me tsald ären yibin</i>	I will give (habitually)
<i>m'ärave yibin</i>	I have been giving
<i>m'äraa yibin</i>	I had been giving

5.27 Modal auxiliary verbs

The modal auxiliary verbs of Jameld, in keeping with those of other Germanic languages, are slightly eccentric: they have irregular past (and in one case present) forms, although they are not as defective as those of English. The most important is *tsalden*, forms of which are used to form the future, the present subjunctive, and certain other modal constructions.

- *tsalden*
Present tense: *tsald* – see 5.7 FUTURE, 5.8 FUTURE PERFECT, 5.28 EXPRESSING INTENTION, WILL OR DESIRE.
Past (preterite): *tsoh* – see 5.32 EXPRESSING DUTY OR REGRET.
Related forms: *tsöhe* – see 5.14 PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE; 5.15 IMPERATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE: INVOKING WISHES;

ƒsalde – see 5.17 OTHER SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS;

ƒsaldon – see 5.30 EXPRESSING POSSIBILITY, DOUBT, UNCERTAINTY.

- *maken*
Present tense: *mak* – see 5.30 EXPRESSING POSSIBILITY, DOUBT, UNCERTAINTY.
Past (preterite): *mochta* – ditto.
- *möten*
Present tense: *mot* – see 5.29 EXPRESSING NECESSITY, COMPULSION, CONCESSION AND PROHIBITION.
Past (preterite): *maat* – ditto.
- *walden*
Present tense: *wald* – see 5.29 EXPRESSING NECESSITY, COMPULSION, CONCESSION AND PROHIBITION.
Past (preterite): *wäld* – ditto.
Related forms: *wälde* – see 5.14 PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE; 5.15 IMPERATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE: INVOKING WISHES;
walde – see 5.17 OTHER SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS.
- *willen*
Present tense: *will* – see 5.28 EXPRESSING INTENTION, WILL OR DESIRE.
Past (preterite): *woh* – ditto.
- *zichten*
Present tense: *zicht* – see 5.31 EXPRESSING ABILITY AND PERMISSION.
Past (preterite): *zochta* – ditto.

These uses are discussed in the following sections.

5.28 Expressing intention, will or desire

Tsald is the usual marker of intention and future action:

Me ƒsald resen te buhlen.

I will read the book.

Me na ƒsald resen te buhlen.

I will not read the book.

Me ƒsald resaven te buhlen.

I will have read the book.

Tsald ye isten leri?

Will you be there?

Sometimes the present tense is sufficient, as the context makes the time clear:

Me res iet morn.) I'll read it tomorrow.
Me f̄sald resen iet morn.)

Second-person statements with *f̄sald* tend to be instructions:

Ye f̄sald resen iet morn.) You will read it tomorrow.
) You are to read it tomorrow.

Colloquially, sometimes you can use *alen* ("to go") as the auxiliary:

M'al optchrijen iye morn.) I'll call you tomorrow.
(lit. I go to call you tomorrow)

The nonmodal verb *méyanen* (and its related verb *jolméyanen*) can also be used to indicate intention. Note the use of the infinitive particle 'e:

me méyan 'e resen) I intend to read
me jolméyan 'e resen) I'm going to read

me méyanta 'e resen) I intended to read
me jolméyanta 'e resen) I was going to read

Willen is used to indicate desire (or lack of it):

e will resen he wants to read
e na will resen he doesn't want to read
e woh resen he wanted to read
e na woh resen he didn't want to read*

Compare the following constructions:

Me will alen.) I want to go.
) I would like to go.

Me will tes ye alen.) I want you to go.
) I would like you to go.

* *e na woh resen* could also mean "he just would not read", indicating insistence, but the *na* would be particularly stressed in speech.

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Ye will alen.
Ye willon alen!

You want to go.
You would want to go, wouldn't you?

Note that *will* in second-person questions can be equivalent to English "will":

Will ye éwajen ime?

Will you marry me?
(= Do you want to marry me?)

Compare third-person usage:

Will es alen?
Woh tem na künnen?

Does she want to go?
Didn't they want to come?

First-person *will* questions have the sense of suggestions:

Will ven alen?
Will me frégen ie?

Shall we go?
Shall I ask him?

Desire to have something, as opposed to desire to do something, is expressed by *wulnen*:

Me wulne te buhlen eri.

) I want this book.
) I would like this book.

E wulnta te buhlen eri.
Wulne ye an »jelly baby«?

He wanted this book.
Would you like a jelly baby?

5.29 Expressing necessity, compulsion, concession and prohibition

Möten (present tense *mot*) generally translates "must", "have to":

me mot alen

) I must go
) I have to go

ye mot resen

) you must read
) you have to read

Mot ye alen?

) Must you go?
) Do you have to go?

Maat ye wäiten link?

Did you have to wait long?

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<i>me maat resen</i>	I had to read
<i>me motave resen</i>	I have had to read
<i>me fšald möten resen</i>	I will have to read
<i>me fšald möten resaven</i>	I will have to have read
<i>me fšald motaven resen</i>	I will have had to read
<i>me fšald motaven resaven</i>	I will have had to have read
<i>me möton resen</i>	I would have to read
<i>me motavon resen</i>	I would have had to read
etc.	

Note the significant ambiguity inherent when using *möten* in the negative:

<i>ye na mot mesten iet</i>) you must not eat it (prohibition)) you do not have to eat it (concession)
<i>ye na maat mesten iet</i>) you had to (were required to) not eat) it) you did not have to eat it
<i>ye na fšald möten mesten iet</i>) you will have to not eat it) you will not have to eat it

For this reason, *na mot/na maat/na fšald möten* are rarely used. Instead, one of the following options is usually chosen to make sure the meaning is clear:

- *nawīs* (“in no way”) or *nazē* (“never”) instead of *na*

<i>ye nawīs mot mesten iet</i>) you absolutely must not eat it
<i>ye nazē mot mesten iet</i>)

Although there is potentially still some ambiguity here, in practice it would be unidiomatic to use these constructions to mean “you don’t have to ...”

<i>ye nawīs maat mesten iet</i>	you were absolutely required not to eat it
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- *walden* instead of *möten*

<i>ye na wald mesten iet</i>	you must not eat it
<i>ye na wäld mesten iet</i>	you were required to not eat it
<i>ye na fšald walden mesten iet</i>	you will have to not eat it

This use of *walden* is totally unambiguous, although somewhat formal.

If the desired meaning is “don’t have to”, the best solution is:

- *na ben 'e* (“not need to”)

<i>ye na ben 'e mesten iet</i>	you don't have to eat it
<i>ye na benta 'e mesten iet</i>	you didn't have to eat it
<i>ye na fsald benen 'e mesten iet</i>	you won't have to eat it

Möten also indicates deduction in certain contexts:

<i>ye mot isten dasskalt</i>	you must be frozen
<i>et mot régenaven</i>	it must have rained

Note also the following idiomatic use without the infinitive *isten* (which is only possible with *et* as the subject):

<i>et mot tes tem wä bilati</i>	they must have been delayed (lit. it must [be] that they were delayed)
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5.30 Expressing possibility, doubt, uncertainty

Maken is the usual marker of uncertainty or doubt:

<i>me mak resen</i>	I might read; it is possible that I will read
<i>me na mak resen</i>	I might not read
<i>e mak resaven</i>	he might have read
<i>mak ye resen iet?</i>	might you read it?
<i>et mak possen</i>	it might happen

Note also the following idiomatic use without the infinitive *isten* (which is only possible with *et* as the subject):

<i>et mak tes es rü iet</i>	maybe she read it (lit. it may [be] that she read it)
<i>et mak tes ven al morn</i>	maybe we will go tomorrow (lit. it may [be] that we go tomorrow)
<i>et mak</i>	it is possible
<i>et na mak</i>	it is not possible

<i>et moçhta</i>	it was possible
<i>mak et?</i>	is it possible?
<i>moçhta et?</i>	was it possible?

In each of these examples of using *maken* without an infinitive, *zichten* would also be an option, e.g.:

<i>et zicht tes ven al morn</i>	maybe we will go tomorrow (lit. it can [be] that we go tomorrow)
<i>et zicht</i>	it is possible
<i>zochta et?</i>	was it possible?

Tsaldon indicates theoretical possibility:

<i>et tsaldon werkien</i>	it should work
<i>et tsaldon werkiaven</i>	it should have worked

5.31 Expressing ability and permission

Ability and permission are generally marked by *zichten*; although this theoretically allows some ambiguity, in practice the meaning (especially in speech, with context) is clear:

<i>me zicht resen</i>) I can read) I am able to read) I am allowed to read (unambiguously: <i>m'ave örafs 'e resen</i> , lit. I have permission to read)
<i>e na zicht resen</i>) he cannot read) he is unable to read) he is not allowed to read (unambiguously: <i>e n'ave örafs 'e resen</i> , lit. he does not have permission to read)
<i>tem zochta resen</i>) they could read) they were able to read) they were allowed to read (unambiguously: <i>tem aa örafs 'e resen</i> , lit. they had permission to read)

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<i>ven f̄sald zichten resen</i>) we will be able to read
) we will be allowed to read
	(unambiguously: <i>ven f̄sald aven öraṫṫ</i> ' <i>e resen</i> , lit. we will have permission to read)

With *zichten* statements in the second person, the implication is often that of granting or denying permission:

<i>ye zicht alen</i>	you may go
<i>ye na zicht pr̄iten</i>	you may not pass

Compare:

<i>Y'ave te kenth!</i>	You can do it! (lit. you have the ability)
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Questions in the first person involving *zichten* tend to be requests for permission, or requests to be given something:

<i>Zicht ven alen?</i>	May we go?
<i>Zicht me aven an ledzibret met zas?</i>	Can I have a cheese sandwich, please?

Questions with *zichten* in the second or third person are normally enquiries regarding ability:

<i>Zicht yen visen iet?</i>	Can you see it?
<i>Zicht e dr̄ifen?</i>	Can he drive?
<i>Zochta tem na alen?</i>	Couldn't they go?

See also 5.30 EXPRESSING POSSIBILITY, DOUBT, UNCERTAINTY for examples of using *zichten* without an infinitive.

5.32 Expressing duty or regret

Duty is often marked by *f̄soh*:

<i>me f̄soh resen</i>) I should read
) I ought to read
<i>me f̄soh resaven</i>) I should have read
) I ought to have read

The sense of “supposed to” can be expressed in Jameld with *t̄soh s̄i*:

Ye t̄soh s̄i resaven iet!

You’re supposed to have read it!

5.33 Compound verbs

Compound verbs have a prefix attached to the root verb. For example, the root verb *huen* (“to hold”) can become:

<i>inthuen</i>	to restrict, contain
<i>jolhuen</i>	to limit
etc.	

Some prefixes are unstressed; these generally have no separate meaning as words in their own right:

<i>bi(n)-</i>	<i>bimögen</i>	to soften
<i>dê-</i>	<i>dêkôminen</i>	to restart
<i>des-</i>	<i>desslütên</i>	to decrypt
<i>ha(r)-</i>	<i>hatiäên</i>	to attract
<i>jol-</i>	<i>jolyetên</i>	to donate
<i>mes-</i>	<i>mesrighên</i>	to miss (fail to reach)
<i>ras-</i>	<i>rasbreken</i>	to break apart
<i>wi(r)-</i>	<i>wivéperên</i>	to deceive
<i>yi-</i>	<i>yiberên</i>	to give birth

Some prefixes are stressed; these typically resemble words otherwise used as prepositions and/or adverbs:

<i>ab-</i>	<i>abtiäên</i>	to take off (clothes)
<i>ax-</i>	<i>axswären</i>	to defend
<i>böya-</i>	<i>böyalidhên</i>	to divert
<i>för-</i>	<i>föralên</i>	to depart
<i>î- Δ</i>	<i>ijungen</i>	to congregate
<i>int- Δ</i>	<i>intquichten</i>	to enter (in a diary)
<i>kontra-</i>	<i>kontrastarên</i>	to oppose
<i>kum- Δ</i>	<i>kumfstemên</i>	to agree
<i>ober- Δ</i>	<i>obereskrîrên</i>	to overwrite
<i>ohn- Δ</i>	<i>ohnmerken</i>	to record
<i>op(t)-</i>	<i>optwassen</i>	to grow up
<i>ot-</i>	<i>otkiysên</i>	to pick (a team)
<i>past̄s-</i>	<i>past̄salên</i>	to verify
<i>pu(n)- Δ</i>	<i>puŋstrêkên</i>	to strike through

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<i>sem-</i>	<i>semflaten</i>	to flow together
<i>tint-</i> Δ	<i>tintzovaten</i>	to descend
<i>unter-</i> Δ	<i>untereskrüren</i>	to sign (a document)
<i>vor[and]-</i>	<i>vorvisen</i>	to plan
<i>za-</i>	<i>zasläjjen</i>	to retaliate

The prefixes marked with the symbol Δ in the list above can also act as unstressed prefixes, typically where the meaning is more abstract; where stressed, these prefixes tend to have a more concrete meaning:

<u><i>oberbleden</i></u>	to turn over (a page)
<u><i>oberstemen</i></u>	to agree
<u><i>oberyiben</i></u>	to pass (something to someone)
<u><i>oberyiben</i></u>	to surrender

In some cases, stressed prefixes that are identical to prepositions and/or adverbs can be separated from the verb and moved after the object without changing the meaning of the phrase:

<i>es abzet te tsakel</i>) she turns off the switch
<i>es zet te tsakel ab</i>)
<i>e h'abvéperta te hod</i>) he took off his hat
<i>e véperta te hod ab</i>)

Note, however, that once an indirect object is involved, the options are reduced:

<i>e véperta te hod ab eü chadof</i>	he took his hat off his head
(not * <i>e h'abvéperta te hod eü chadof</i>)	

All compound verbs follow their root verb's behaviour with respect to past tense formation and so on, i.e. if the root verb is a strong verb or has an irregular present tense form, the compound verb will follow suit:

huen → *hü* (irregular present)
jolhuen → *jolhü* (ditto)

zenden → *zand* (strong verb, preterite)
vorzenden → *vorzand* (ditto)

5.34 Stimulus-subject verbs

There are a small number of verb idioms in Jameld which require a different argument orientation to that which prevails in English. Specifically, consider the following example:

Zas bifröd ime. I like cheese. (lit. Cheese pleases me.)

Although it is quite correct idiomatic Jameld to say *Me liub zas* (“I love cheese”), the most natural way to say that you *like* something, e.g. cheese, is as above, and as you can see the expression literally means “Cheese pleases me.” This is because *bifröden* is what might be referred to as a stimulus-subject verb (where the stimulus, here cheese, is the verb subject) rather than an experiencer-subject verb, such as *liuben*.

Subject	Verb	Object
<i>Zas</i> Cheese (Stimulus)	<i>bifröd</i> pleases	<i>ime</i> me (Experiencer)
<i>Me</i> I (Experiencer)	<i>liub</i> love	<i>zas</i> cheese (Stimulus)

Other verbs that behave in this manner include *nanbifröden* (“to displease”, translating English “to dislike”) and *bitrauen* (“to sadden”, as in *et bitrau ime*, “I’m sorry” – literally, “it saddens me”).

5.35 *Majestitmerfald* (Plural of majesty)

At the insistence of the 16th-century King Ravtaal II, the monarch was to be addressed in a curious mixed singular/plural fashion. Instead of a second-person pronoun, the expressions *Te Kōiz* (the King), *Eü Majestit* (His Majesty) or *Eü Sildkenth* (His Genius) were to be used, along with the even-then-archaic plural form of the verb. Hence, instead of the normal enquiry

Wulne ye ans kohk? Would you like some cake?
(lit. Wish you some cake?)

Ravtaal would demand to be asked

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Wulnen Te Kōiz ans kohk? (lit. Wish the King some cake?)

Similarly, a simple observation such as

Ye part jexdäi intthrikin osen. You're wearing impressive trousers today.

became the even more sycophantic

Eü Majestit parten jexdäi intthrikin osen. (lit. His Majesty are wearing today impressive trousers.)

After the demise of the tyrant king and the abolition of the monarchy, the *majestitmerfald* fell into disuse, but it has been resurrected in modern times for ironic or sarcastic purposes. As the final *-n* of the plural verb form is pronounced (indeed, in this case, emphasised), unlike that of the otherwise identical infinitive, it is usually now written *-nn* to differentiate it. Hence:

Wulnenn Te Dama raum met iet? Would the Lady like cream with that?
Tšaldenn Te Mester benen jexnin t'auto? Will the Master be requiring the car tonight?

Extreme caution is advised.

5.36 *Isten, sen, wésen* and impersonal constructions

The verbs *isten* and *wésen* are both generally translated “to be”, and they share a preterite form (*wä*) and certain other forms. However, there are clear differences in their use.

Isten is the main copula; by contrast, *wésen* often has more the sense of “to exist”:

Me jist an monnperson. I am a human being.
Wëth uthi sortes wés. Many other species exist.

Isten has two present forms, *jist* in the singular and *ist* in the plural.

<i>me jist</i>	I am
<i>es jist</i>	she is
<i>ven ist</i>	we are
<i>tem ist</i>	they are

Isten has the following personal imperative forms:

Singular *wésmé, wésyë, jisté/jistéš/jistéš*

Plural *istvën, wésyën, isttëm/isttëmt*

Further examples of *isten* “borrowing” from *wésen* can be found in the various subsections of this section on verbs.

There is an alternative, archaic, infinitive: *sen*. This is no longer used in modern standard Jameld, but it is the source of the subjunctive *sé*.

Wésen is used for impersonal constructions equivalent to the English “there is/are”:

<i>et wés</i>) there is
) there are (lit. it exists)

<i>Et wés an ängi monn oter.</i>	There is a strange man outside.
<i>Et wés ti ängi monnes oter.</i>	There are two strange men outside.

<i>wés...?</i>) is there...?
) are there...?

<i>Wés ans melk?</i>	Is there any milk?
<i>Wés ans kohkjas?</i>	Are there any biscuits?

(Note: Not **wés et...?*)