

Jameld Grammar ***Jameld Gramatika***

A concise guide to Jameld usage

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0. Introduction

The intention of this grammar is to document Jameld usage and thereby to provide a reasonably comprehensive guide for the benefit of the learner. Elsewhere in this volume can also be found a pronunciation guide, a list of irregular verbs, and other appendices to the dictionary, which provide valuable supplementary information.

This work primarily discusses the features of “modern standard Jameld”, defined as the educated speech of Jameld-speaking residents of Wissembörg and other key areas of the Üstzur region and the standard written form of the language based on that prestige dialect. Other dialects are discussed briefly where relevant and are treated more extensively in section 13, SPOKEN JAMELD, INFORMALITY AND DIALECTS.

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1. Nouns

1.1 Types of nouns

Jameld nouns can be divided into common nouns ("things"), abstract nouns ("concepts") and proper nouns ("names").

Common: *apel* (apple), *muth* (mouth), *stekfarghja* (hedgehog)

Abstract: *liub* (love), *éas* (requirement), *grauteidarstar* (grandparenthood)

Proper: *Ravtaal* (personal name), *Détṫṣi* (Germany), *Zur-aa* (name of river)

There is a further distinction, between count nouns (which can be singular or plural) and non-count nouns (which cannot).

Count nouns can be either common or abstract:

hirdel (toupée), *mol* (mole), *éannas* (characteristic)

Similarly, although many abstract nouns are non-count nouns, many common nouns (especially substances) are also non-count nouns:

fröda (happiness), *ät* (air), *selber* (silver), *abfoll* (rubbish)

1.2 Gender

In modern standard Jameld, nouns do not have a grammatical gender. See also 2.1 DEFINITE ARTICLE and 13. SPOKEN JAMELD, INFORMALITY AND DIALECTS.

1.3 Plurals

Nouns that end with a vowel or -y add -s in the plural (always pronounced /s/, not /z/):

laame → *laames*

ṫslaa → *ṫslaas*

ey → *eyes*

llama → *llamas*

squint → *squints*

eye → *eyes*

Most nouns ending in consonants add -es (pronounced as syllabic /s/) to form the plural:

dram → *drames*

ṫsoirkliystar → *ṫsoirkliystares*

dream → *dreams*

blackbird → *blackbirds*

However, nouns that end with -s, -x or -z just add -e in the plural (pronounced /ə/):

vias → *viase*
boix → *boixe*
spez → *speze*

road → roads
box → boxes
spice → spices

... except for the adjectives of origin, formed with -az, when used as nouns; these add -es:

Britaz → *Britazes*
Römaz → *Römazes*

British → British
Roman → Romans

The following nouns, ending in -(e)n, may optionally have no change in the plural:*

buhlen
lungen
nümbren
osen
staden
stahlen
tstocken
tšin
tablen
wulken
züken

book(s)
lung(s)
number(s)
trousers
half-mile(s)
chair(s)
sock(s)
shoe(s)
table(s)
sky (skies)
chick(s)

an buhlen → *auntert buhlen*
an züken → *ans züken*

a book → one hundred books
a chick → some chicks

Abbreviations form their plurals according to the above rules as they apply to the sound of the abbreviation concerned. Hence, abbreviations that are pronounced as if they end with a vowel (those that end in *A, B, C, D, E, H, I, J, K, O, P, Q, U, V, W* or *Y*) simply take -s (note the hyphen):

CD → *CD-s*
TŠ.E. → *TŠ.E-s*

CD → *CDs*
magazine → *magazines*

Those that end with a letter whose name sounds as if it ends with a consonant (i.e. *F, G, L, M, N, R, TŠ, T* or *Z*) take -es:

* Possibly a relic of the old dual form.

LG → *LG-es*

LP → *LPs*

And those that end with *S* or *X* take *-e*:

PS → *PS-e*

PS → *PSes*

Acronyms (pronounced as words not initialisms) are simply treated like normal nouns should a plural form be required.

See also 11.9 DATES regarding the names of decades.

1.4 Diminutives

Diminutives, indicating small size, endearment, youth, personification, contempt or insignificance depending on the context, are formed with the suffix *-ja*. For example:

buhlen → *buhlenja*

maz(ath) → *mazja*

kohk → *kohkja*

ferz+ṭstik → *ferzṭstikja*

biss → *bissja*

sēt → *sētja*

book → booklet

girl → (little) girl

cake → biscuit

fire+stick → match

bite → snack

sweet (adjective) → sweet (noun)

Final unstressed syllabic *-a*, *-e* and *-i* may be dropped before *-ja*:

bloma → *blomja*

(but: *otra* → *otrajja*)

flower → little flower

otter → otter pup)

lambe → *lambja*

ṭspēke → *ṭspēkja*

(but: *platne* → *platnejja*)

lamb → lambkin

fork → cake fork

plate/disc → small plate/disc)

māthi → *māthja*

framki → *framkja*

(but: *langui* → *languijja*)

mother → little mother (term of endearment)

friend → little friend

language → poxy little language)

Final unstressed *-o* and *-u* are not dropped:

auto → *autoja*

léu → *léuja*

car → toy car

lion → lion cub

Nouns ending in *-j* add *-t̥sja* to form diminutives:

<i>ij</i> → <i>ijt̥sja</i>	yew → small yew bush
<i>chrij</i> → <i>chrijt̥sja</i>	cry/shout → (feeble) cry/shout
<i>swij</i> → <i>swijt̥sja</i>	silence → short-lived silence

More informally, the prefix *ësti-* (“tiny little”) can be used:

<i>ëstiauto</i>	microcar
<i>ëstikess</i>	peck on the cheek; the briefest of kisses

Compare *rëz-* (“great big”):

<i>rëzsturm</i>	massive storm
<i>rëzfröda</i>	tremendous joy

1.5 Cases

The old four-case system (nominative, accusative, dative, genitive) has effectively become obsolete in modern standard Jameld. (But see 1.6 POSSESSION.)

For more details of residual features see section 2.1 DEFINITE ARTICLE.

1.6 Possession

Possessives of names are formed with the *-ü* suffix,* such as:

<i>Peterü</i>	Peter’s
<i>Rebekaü</i>	Rebeka’s
<i>Zuraalantü</i>	of Zuraaland
<i>te Kraamlepesü</i>	the te Kraamleps’

An apostrophe may precede the suffix in older documents, in formal settings, or following names ending in *u* or *ü*:

* This appears to be a development from the Old Jameld genitive ending *-us*, a combination which has most commonly become *ü* in modern Jameld, as elsewhere in the superlative suffix *-üt* (from OJ *-ust*), and past-tense forms such as *rü* and *wük*.

Peter'ü
Sānu'ü
Jofsü'ü

This form is required in the following time expressions (see 11.10 TIMES):

<i>vorvomit'ü</i>	in the morning
<i>pastšmit'ü</i>	in the afternoon
<i>vašind'ü</i>	in the evening

A hyphen followed by the relevant possessive adjective may also be seen in archaic or formal settings:

Peter-eü
Rebeka-esü
Zuraalant-etü
te Kraamlepes-temü

By convention, this form is required when referring to divine beings:

Got-eü
Jésus-eü

Possessives of non-proper nouns are formed in the same way:

<i>te thropü monnes</i>	the men of the village
<i>te throp'ü monnes</i>	
<i>te throp-etü monnes</i>	

or, of course:

te monnes ew te throp

2. Articles

2.1 Definite article

The definite article is *te* (before vowels: *t'*), and does not inflect for gender, case or number.

<i>fayel</i>	bird
<i>te fayel</i>	the bird
<i>fayeles</i>	birds
<i>te fayeles</i>	the birds

<i>amar</i>	bin
<i>t'amar</i>	the bin

See also 7.2 CONTRACTIONS for details of preposition-and-article contractions such as *ete* (*ew te*) and *inte* (*int te*).

You may sometimes come across the old neuter form *et* or the old case forms *ten*, *tem*, *ter* in dialectal speech, set phrases, or in certain surnames.

Here is the complete paradigm of the definite article, as used in former times. As noted above, *te* is now generally used in all cases and genders, but some forms have been preserved under non-standard circumstances.

	m	f	nt	pl
nom	<i>te</i>	<i>te</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>te</i>
acc	<i>te</i>	<i>ten</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>te</i>
dat	<i>tem</i>	<i>ter</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>tem</i>
gen	<i>ete</i>	<i>ete</i>	<i>ew et</i>	<i>ete</i>

2.2 Indefinite article

The indefinite article is always *an*, and the partitive article (English “some”) is always *ans*.

<i>fayel</i>	bird
<i>an fayel</i>	a bird
<i>ans fayeles</i>	some birds

2.3 Inclusion of the definite article

In Jameld the definite article is used before certain abstract nouns indicating major concepts, especially:

<i>te liub</i>	love	(<i>Te liub nazë leck.</i> Love never fails.)
<i>te hafst</i>	hate	
<i>t'eléf</i>	life	(<i>T'eléf jist an skat.</i> Life is a treasure.)
<i>te doth</i>	death	
<i>te monnsort</i>	mankind	
<i>te natür</i>	nature	
<i>te heman</i>	heaven	
<i>te paradis</i>	paradise	

The list above is not exhaustive.

The definite article is also used before the names of the seasons. For example:

<i>Ven al leri inte tspinne.</i>	We're going there in spring.
(But: <i>Ven al leri ëdar tspinne.</i>	We go there every spring.)
<i>Te heftš kümne.</i>	Autumn is starting.

Inalienable possessions (typically parts of the body and family members) are also often preceded by the definite article rather than a possessive adjective where the context makes the possessor clear. For example:

<i>M'ave an pön inte hant.</i>	I have a pain in my hand. (lit. in the hand)
<i>Es paptfsta met te mäthi.</i>	She spoke to her mother. (lit. to the mother)

2.4 Omission of the definite article

The definite article is often omitted in Jameld in names of works or publications. For example:

<i>Seya Jorthel'ü</i>	The Saga of Jorthel
<i>Zuraalantkronik</i>	The Zuraaland Chronicle (a newspaper)

2.5 Omission of the indefinite article

The indefinite article is often omitted in Jameld in certain contexts where it would be included in English, especially when describing people's profession or nationality. For example:

E jist Tskotaz.

He's (a) Scotsman.

Me jist oberquichtat.

I'm (a) translator.

However, the article returns before an adjective:

E jist an wéri Tskotaz.

He's a true Scotsman.

Me jist veln an nankani oberquichtat. I'm just a humble translator.

3. Adjectives

3.1 Inflections

When used attributively, adjectives precede the noun to which they refer, and they then inflect, usually by adding *-i* to the adjective.

<i>te fayel jist raft</i>	the bird is early
<i>te rafti fayel</i>	the early bird

In the dictionary, entries for adjectives which do not simply add *-i* give additional information between double square brackets [like this] (see 3.3 IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES); some adjectives add nothing (indicated by = between the brackets):

nüaw [=]

<i>an nüaw dāi</i>	a new day
(not * <i>an nüawi dāi</i>)	

Others, such as those with an unstressed final vowel, change that vowel to *i*, shown in the dictionary as follows:

ägnö [ägni]

<i>an ägni kente</i>	an ill child
----------------------	--------------

Some adjectives which do not inflect when used attributively are not marked in the dictionary. These belong to the following types:

- Possessive adjectives ending *-ü*: *meü, eü*, etc.
meü buhlen my book
- Adjectives of origin ending *-az*: *Britaz, Dānaz*, etc.
te Britaz Eylantes the British Isles
- Adjectives formed with the suffix *-lauk*: *frosklauk, toldlauk*, etc.
toldlauk persones tolerant people
- Adjectives ending in *-iṡ*: *bilediṡ, rebeliṡ*, etc.
an rebeliṡ knap a rebellious boy

- Ordinal numbers: *thrents*, *fěfts*, etc.
te thrents dāi the third day
- Adjectives which end in *-i* or *-ī*: *ěsti*, *minikī*, etc.
ěsti tšün tiny shoes
minikī kentes small children
- Past or present participles, ending in *-i* or *-in*
an dēkléri data a confirmed date
an rinin bek a trickling stream

3.2 Comparatives and superlatives

Comparatives and superlatives are formed with the suffixes *-o* and *-üt* respectively. They do not inflect when placed before a noun:

<i>raft</i>	early
<i>te rafti fayel</i>	the early bird
<i>rafto</i>	earlier
<i>te rafto fayel</i>	the earlier bird
<i>raftüt</i>	earliest
<i>te raftüt fayel</i>	the earliest bird

Unlike in English, even multisyllabic adjectives form the comparative and superlative in this way:

<i>linkwīlsem</i>	boring
<i>linkwīlsemo</i>	more boring
<i>linkwīlsemüt</i>	most boring

Adjectives that end with an unstressed vowel (usually, but not exclusively, *-a* or *-e*) and that drop said unstressed vowel when inflecting (see 3.1 INFLECTIONS) also drop the vowel before *-o* and *-üt*:

<i>faja</i>	hostile
<i>fajo</i>	more hostile
<i>léhe</i>	shallow
<i>léhüt</i>	shallowest

3.3 Irregular adjectives

Certain adjectives are irregular, and are explained in the dictionary entry, thus:

waa [wi, waato, waatüt]

This means that the adjective *waa* (“wet”) inflects and becomes *wi* before a noun, and that the comparative and superlative (“wetter” and “wettest”) are *waato* and *waatüt*.

your hair is wet
wet hair
wetter hair

yeü hïr jist waa
wi hïr
waato hïr

3.4 Adjectives used as nouns

An inflected adjective on its own can be used as a noun, with “person”, “one”, “thing”, etc. being implicit, as in the following examples (the nominal adjectives are underlined here to aid the reader):

E hélta an blindi.

He healed a blind man.

Oberyib te blüi.

Pass me the blue one.

Te yaxi jist tes me na mest zas.

The silly thing is that I don’t eat cheese.

A plural form of the nominal adjective can stand for “people”, “ones”, “things”, etc.:

Te pönis wä véperi i siuchhomze.

The injured were taken to hospital.

Strani kofë bifröd te Portugazes.

The Portuguese like strong coffee.

Es jolave an tsoirki jors und ti vïsis.

She owns a black horse and two white ones.

Et wés moran gutes bö iet.

There are several good things about it.

3.5 Quantifiers

Quantifiers in Jameld include the following (examples given using the count nouns “crisps” and “biscuits”, and a non-count noun, “chocolate”, as appropriate, plus the pronoun “us”):

- *iğé* (all)
Iğé tṡīpes ist smezlauk. All crisps are tasty.
Iğé te tṡīpes ist smezlauk. All (of) the crisps are tasty.
Iğé ṡokolat jist smezlauk. All chocolate is tasty.
Iğé te ṡokolat jist smezlauk. All (of) the chocolate is tasty.
Ven iğé liub ṡokolat. All of us (lit. we all) love chocolate.
(NB: Compare:
Tem iğé liub ṡokolat. They all love chocolate.
Iğé tem wi liub ṡokolat ... Everyone who loves chocolate ...
Ēdaran liub ṡokolat. Everyone loves chocolate.
See also 4.7 INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.)
- *äl* (all)
Äl tṡīpes ist smezlauk. All crisps are tasty.
Äl te tṡīpes ist smezlauk. All (of) the crisps are tasty.
Äl ṡokolat jist smezlauk. All chocolate is tasty.
Äl te ṡokolat jist smezlauk. All (of) the chocolate is tasty.
(NB: *Äl* cannot be used with pronouns.)
- *ans* (some, any)
Ans tṡīpes ist smezlauk. Some crisps are tasty.
Ans ete tṡīpes ist smezlauk. Some of the crisps are tasty.
Ave ye ans tṡīpes? Do you have any crisps?
Ans ṡokolat jist smezlauk. Some chocolate is tasty.
Ans ete ṡokolat jist smezlauk. Some of the chocolate is tasty.
Ave ye ans ṡokolat? Do you have any chocolate?
Ans ew iven liub ṡokolat. Some of us love chocolate.
- *wëth* (many, =lots of, =a lot of)
Wëth tṡīpes ist smezlauk. Many crisps are tasty.
Wëth ete tṡīpes ist smezlauk. Many of the crisps are tasty.
Wëth ew iven liub tṡīpes. Many of us love crisps.

- *weth* (much, =lots of, =a lot of)
Weth tšokolat jist smezlauk. Lots of chocolate is tasty.
Weth ete tšokolat jist smezlauk. A lot of the chocolate is tasty.
Et wés zo weth tšokolat. There is so much chocolate.

- *na* (no)*
Na tšipes ist mögi. No crisps are soft.
Na tšokolat jist ickal. No chocolate is nasty.
Ven ave na tšipes. We have no crisps.

- *nan* (none)
Nan ete tšipes ist mögi. None of the crisps are soft.
Nan ete tšokolat jist ickal. None of the chocolate is nasty.
Nan ew iven hašze tšokolat. None of us hate chocolate.
(NB: See also *nan ew béda* below.)

- *ëdar* (every, each)
Ëdar kohkja wight bö an onz. Each biscuit weighs about 30 g.
Ëdar dāi m'al i te börg. Every day I go to the town.
(NB: Used exclusively with singular nouns.)

- *pağé* (every, each)
Kohkjas pağé wight bö an onz. Each biscuit (lit. biscuits each) weighs about 30 g.
Dāis pağé m'al i te börg. Every day (lit. days every) I go to the town.
Ven pağé liub kohkjas. Each of us (lit. we each) loves biscuits.
(NB: Used exclusively with plural nouns and plural pronouns.)

- *mor* (more)
Mor tšipes ist smezlauk. More crisps are tasty.
Mor ete tšipes ist smezlauk. More of the crisps are tasty.
Mor tšokolat jist smezlauk. More chocolate is tasty.

* In Börgeslant dialect, *jan* is used to negate nouns instead of *na*:

Jan tšipes ist mögi. No crisps are soft.
Ve aven jan tšipes. We have no crisps.

Use of *jan* is spreading outside Börgeslant, particularly among young Jameld-speakers, and it can now be encountered in much of the Vestzur dialect area. See also 4.7 INDEFINITE PRONOUNS and 13.3 DIALECTS.

Mor ete tšokolat jist smezlauk. More of the chocolate is tasty.
Mor ew iven liub tšokolat. More of us love chocolate.

- *most* (most)

Most tšipes ist smezlauk. Most crisps are tasty.
Most ete tšipes ist smezlauk. Most of the crisps are tasty.
Most tšokolat jist smezlauk. Most chocolate is tasty.
Most ete tšokolat jist smezlauk. Most of the chocolate is tasty.
Most ew iven liub tšokolat. Most of us love chocolate.

- *pau* (few, not many, not much)

Pau tšipes ist mögi. Not many crisps are soft.
Pau ete tšipes ist mögi. Not many of the crisps are soft.
Pau tšokolat jist ickal. Not much chocolate is nasty.
Pau ete tšokolat jist ickal. Not much of the chocolate is nasty.
Pau ew iven hašše tšokolat. Few of us hate chocolate.

- *ans pau* (a few, some but not many)

Ans pau tšipes ist mögi. A few crisps are soft.
Ans pau ete tšipes ist mögi. A few of the crisps are soft.
Ans pau ew iven hašše tšokolat. A few of us hate chocolate.
Me mast ans pau tšipes. I ate a few crisps.
Me mast ans pau ete tšipes. I ate a few of the crisps.
Me mast ans pau ew itemt. I ate a few of them.

- *moran* (several, a few)

Moran kohkjas ist smezlauk. Several biscuits are tasty.
Moran ete kohkjas ist smezlauk. Several of the biscuits are tasty.
Moran ew iven liub tšokolat. Several of us love chocolate.
Me mast moran tšipes. I ate several crisps.
Me mast moran ete tšipes. I ate several of the crisps.
Me mast moran ew itemt. I ate several of them.

- *yüé* (any, whichever)

Yüé tšipes yanä. Any crisps will do.
Yüé ete tšipes yanä. Any of the crisps will do.
Yüé tšokolat yanä. Any chocolate will do.
Yüé ete tšokolat yanä. Any of the chocolate will do.
Yüé ew iven tšald mesten te tšokolat. Any of us will eat the chocolate.

- *yanoh* (enough)
Et na wés yanoh tšipes. There are not enough crisps.
Et na wés yanoh ete tšipes. There are not enough of the crisps.
Et na wés yanoh tšokolat. There is not enough chocolate.
Et na wés yanoh ete tšokolat. There is not enough of the chocolate.
Yanoh ew iven liub tšokolat. Enough of us love chocolate.
- *zest* (less, fewer)
Et wés jüji zest tšipes. There are now fewer crisps.
Et wés jüji zest ete tšipes. There are now fewer of the crisps.
Et wés jüji zest tšokolat. There is now less chocolate.
Et wés jüji zest ete tšokolat. There is now less of the chocolate.
Zest ew iven liub brokoli. Fewer of us love broccoli.
- *an pār* (a couple, a few)
An pār kohkjas, eöx ye will. A few biscuits, please.
An pār ete kohkjas leri, A couple of those biscuits, please.
eöx ye will.
An pār ew itemt mest wirmes. A couple/few of them eat worms.
- *béda* (both)
Béda buhlenes ist gut. Both books are good.
Béda ete buhlenes ist gut. Both of the books are good.
Ven béda liub tšokolat. Both of us (lit. we both) love chocolate.
(NB: For *béda* (both) as an adverb, see also 6.4 BOTH, AS WELL AS, ALL OF.)
- *an ew béda* (either)
An ew béda buhlenes ist gut.) Either book is good.
) Either of the books are good.
An ew ven béda tšald mesten Either of us (lit. one of we both) will
iet. eat it.
- *nan ew béda* (neither)
Nan ew béda buhlenes ist gut.) Neither book is good.
) Neither of the books are good.
Nan ew ven béda tšald Neither of us (lit. none of us both) will
mesten iet. eat it.
- *an minik* (a bit, a little)
An minik tšokolat jist gut A little chocolate is good for you.
vor iye.
An minik ete tšokolat jist gut A little of the chocolate is good for you.
vor iye.

4. Pronouns

4.1 Personal pronouns

The personal subject pronouns in Jameld are as follows:

	Singular	Plural
1st person (I, we)	<i>me</i>	<i>ven</i>
2nd person (you)	<i>ye</i> ¹	<i>yen</i>
3rd person (he/she/it, they)	<i>e/es/et</i>	<i>tem/temt</i> ²

Notes:

¹ The old informal 2nd person pronoun *the* is no longer used except in Börgeslant dialect.

² *Tem* for people (i.e. plurals of *e* and/or *es*) and *temt* for multiple things (i.e. more than one *et*).

When preceding a verb starting with a vowel, *me* and *ye* are elided to *m'* and *y'* respectively, and *e* becomes *e h'.**

<i>Me jist eld.</i>	I am old.
<i>M'ave thren kohkes.</i>	I have three cakes.
<i>E jist hi.</i>	He is tall.
<i>E h'ave an bendohnmerkin ew an ethelhön.</i>	He has a tape recording of a capercaillie.

When *me*, *ye* and *e* are used emphatically, their normally unstressed vowels are lengthened, although the spelling remains unchanged:

	normally	emphatic
<i>me</i>	[mə]	[me:]
<i>ye</i>	[jə]	[je:]
<i>e</i>	[e]	[e:]

As in:

Ye jist an mardram, no me jist parfekt.

You're a nightmare, but I'm perfect.

Object pronouns are formed by prefixing the subject pronouns with *i-*:

* By convention, *me* and *ye* are not elided in written modern standard Jameld before an infinitive. However, in speech they often are elided in this position, and hence also in reported or transcribed speech. Usage varies between speakers and appears to depend on the sentence construction, degree of formality and circumstances.

	Singular	Plural
1st person (me, us)	<i>ime</i>	<i>iven</i>
2nd person (you)	<i>iye</i>	<i>iyen</i>
3rd person (him/her/it, them)	<i>ie/ies/iet</i>	<i>item/itemt</i>

Such object pronouns are used for both the direct object and the indirect object:

<i>Me liub iye.</i>	I love you.
<i>Liub ye ime?</i>	Do you love me?
<i>Thräyyë iet i ime.</i>	Throw it to me.
<i>Et'st an buhlen böya iven.</i>	It's a book about us.

In informal speech, some of the object pronouns may be abbreviated in unstressed situations, and in quoted dialogue may be respelt to reflect the pronunciation:

	Singular	Plural
1st person (me)	<i>im'</i>	—
2nd person (you)	<i>iy'</i>	<i>iyen</i>
3rd person (him/her/it)	<i>'e/s't</i>	—

Informally, and for emphasis or clarity, *ie* (“him”) may be pronounced [i·ç], and is often now spelt *iegh* to reflect this.

4.2 Possessives

Possessive adjectives are formed by suffixing -*ü* to the subject pronouns:*

	Singular	Plural
1st person (my, our)	<i>meü</i>	<i>venü</i>
2nd person (your)	<i>yeü</i>	<i>yenü</i>
3rd person (his/her/its, their)	<i>eü/esü/etü</i>	<i>temü/temtü</i>

* A small but increasing number of speakers reject the -*ü* possessives as being ugly Ravtaalisms (and they may have a point). Instead, they choose to use and promote so-called “restored” possessives, which they claim are the rightful descendants of the Old Jameld forms. We provide them here as information for the reader.

	Singular	Plural
1st person (my, our)	<i>mi</i>	<i>ü</i>
2nd person (your)	<i>yi</i>	<i>yirri</i>
3rd person (his/her/its, their)	<i>zi/eyr/zi</i>	<i>erri</i>

It used to be the case that possessive pronouns added a further -s, e.g. *meüs* ("mine"), *temüs* ("theirs"). However, this form is now almost entirely extinct in speech (except in very formal usage) and has now been abandoned in all written Jameld apart from legal work and the ultra-conservative weekly newspaper *Üstzur Kronik*.

Hence:

<i>meü buhlen</i>	my book
<i>te buhlen jist meü</i> (very formal: <i>te buhlen jist meüs</i>)	the book is mine
<i>esü fas</i>	her face
<i>an fas lauk esü</i> (very formal: <i>an fas lauk esüs</i>)	a face like hers

Note:

<i>an framki ew ime</i>	a friend of mine (lit. of me)
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Inalienable possessions (typically parts of the body and family members) are often preceded by the definite article rather than a possessive adjective where the context makes the possessor clear. See 2.3 INCLUSION OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE for further details.

4.3 Reflexive pronouns

There are two sets of reflexive pronouns: the first (described here as "Type I") is used only with the relatively small number of reflexive verbs, and the second ("Type II") for all other uses.

	Type I	Type II
myself	<i>mi</i>	<i>mi</i>
yourself	<i>yi</i>	<i>yi</i>
himself	<i>i</i>	<i>eyi</i>
herself	<i>i</i>	<i>si</i>
itself	<i>i</i>	<i>ti</i>
ourselves	<i>i</i>	<i>min</i>
yourselves	<i>i</i>	<i>yin</i>
themselves	<i>i</i>	<i>temin, temtin</i>
oneself*	<i>i</i>	<i>iki</i>

* See 4.7 INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

The canonical examples of the two types of reflexive pronoun are as follows:

Type I:

me wük mi

e wük i

tem féǵ i

I washed [myself]

he washed [himself]

they feed [themselves]

Type II:

te monn eyi

es zand an letter i si

mi zicht ären iet

the man himself

she sent a letter to herself

I can do it myself (lit. myself can do it)

4.4 Reciprocal constructions

A number of Jameld expressions have reciprocal meanings and can be translated “each other”.

The following can only be used of two individuals:

t’uthi

béda t’uthi

ëdar t’uthi

(lit. the other one)

(lit. both the other one)

(lit. each the other one)

For example:

Ven liub i t’uthi.

We love each other.

(lit. We love ourselves the other one.)

Te slanes bëss i béda t’uthi.

The snakes bit each other.

(lit. The snakes bit themselves both the other one.)

Here the pronoun *i* (“self”) is used because the subject is also the direct object. It has the added benefit of avoiding the ambiguity otherwise inherent in the sentence, i.e. the identity of “the other one”. Nevertheless, *i* cannot be used where the subject is also the indirect object and a preposition therefore is added to the mix, as in the following examples:

Tem stārta ëdar ax t’uthi.

They stared at each other.

(lit. They stared each at the other one.)

Et tšën tes yen raaz béda met t'uthi.

It looks like you're furious with each other.
(lit. It seems that you rage both with the other one.)

Where more than two individuals are involved the construction changes:

t'uthis

(lit. the other ones)

ëdar t'uthis

(lit. each the other ones)

And the following construction is also an option:

anes met iven paǵé

all of us (lit. ones with us each)

anes met iyen paǵé

all of you (lit. ones with you each)

anes met item paǵé

all of them (lit. ones with them each)

anes met itemt paǵé

all of them (lit. ones with them each)

For example:

Tem slü i t'uthis.

They all hit each other.
(lit. They hit themselves the other ones.)

Ven yeb jolyeteles ëdar i t'uthis.

We all gave presents to each other.
(lit. We gave presents each to the other ones.)

Tem kö anes met item paǵé.

They are all chatting with each other.
(lit. They chat ones with them each.)

4.5 Demonstratives

Jameld has a relatively large selection of demonstratives and demonstrative-like words and constructions.

eri (erid)

here

leri (lerid)

there

jind

yonder (over there)

Eri and *leri* are the standard forms, but *erid* and *lerid* are often used before vowels:

<i>et jist eri</i>	it is here
<i>erid et jist</i>	here it is

“This” and “that” can be expressed in a number of ways:

<i>te ... eri</i>	this/these
<i>te ... leri</i>	that/those
<i>oquo</i>	this
<i>oquos</i>	these
<i>üquü</i>	that
<i>üquüs</i>	those
<i>jina</i>	yonder (that thing way over there)
<i>jinas</i>	yonder (those things way over there)

Although not entirely obsolete, the *-q-* forms are not used very often these days, and tend to be replaced in spoken Jameld by simply *te* or expressions including *eri* and *leri*. Hence, “that book is good” could be expressed as follows:

<i>Ûquü buhlen jist gut.</i>	(a bit old-fashioned or formal)
<i>Te buhlen jist gut.</i>	(it’s obvious which book is being discussed)
<i>Te buhlen leri jist gut.</i>	(that book, not this one)
<i>Jina buhlen jist gut.</i>	(that book over there)

Jina and *jinas* are sometimes used in opposition to *te*; for instance:

Te ledzibret jist gut, no jinas kohkes otvis precht.
This sandwich is nice, but those cakes look gorgeous.

Another alternative here would be to use *te ... eri* and *te ... leri*.

4.6 Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses (see also 9.2 RELATIVE CLAUSES).

<i>Te langui <u>tes</u> me paptŧ</i>	The language <u>that</u> I speak
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Jameld relative pronouns include:

<i>tes</i>	that, which (not used of people)
<i>tess</i>	whose (not used of people)
<i>wi</i>	who, whom

wig whom
wis whose
wist which

In Jameld, there is a distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

A restrictive (or defining) relative clause provides information that identifies the antecedent, and it is introduced by the relative pronoun *tes* (for things) or *wi* (for people):

<i>Te müs tes prilta ax te léu</i>	The mouse that roared at the lion
<i>Te mazath wi wä funjan int liub ük te münien</i>	The girl who fell in love with the moon (lit. who was caught in love by ...)
<i>Te tese tes me vista leri wä grusem.</i>	The things that I saw there were horrible.
<i>E jist te knap wi pirtha eü floss.</i>) This is the boy that lost his bicycle.) This is the boy who lost his bicycle.

In Jameld the relative pronoun cannot be omitted from restrictive relative clauses (even where it can in English). For example, in the following phrase *tes* is required, even though “that” is not:

<i>Te langui tes me paptfš</i>	The language [that] I speak
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On the other hand, *tes jist/ist* (“that is/are”) can be omitted in the following:

<i>T’eylant tes jist nimeni Patmos</i>) The island that is named Patmos
<i>T’eylant nimeni Patmos</i>) The island named Patmos
<i>Te kohkes tes ist ohn te platne</i>) The cakes that are on the plate
<i>Te kohkes ohn te platne</i>) The cakes on the plate

Where the meaning is “whom”, either *wi* or *wig* can be used, although *wig* is strictly correct:

<i>Te mintšes wi me liub</i>) The people who(m) I love
<i>Te mintšes wig me liub</i>) The people [that] I love

Either *tes* or *wen* (“when”) is required here:

<i>Te yura tes es less fšüel</i>) The year that she left school
<i>Te yura wen es less fšüel</i>) The year when she left school
) The year she left school

And here there is a free choice between *tes* and *au* (“where”):

<i>An plaz tes me haräiz vor isten älan</i>) A place that I go to be alone
<i>An plaz au me haräiz vor isten älan</i>) A place where I go to be alone
) A place I go to be alone

Jameld uses *wis* to translate “whose” when referring to people, and *tess* when referring to things:

<i>Te yarn wis floss wä fštülan</i>	The boy whose bicycle was stolen
<i>An buhlen tess titel jist äl té link</i>	A book whose title is far too long (... the title of which ...)
<i>Ans kohkes tess rëuk ven liub</i>	Some cakes whose smell we love (... the smell of which ...)

Where a preposition precedes the relative pronoun, *tes* changes to *wist* and *tess* to *wis*; *wi* remains unchanged (*wig* is not used after a preposition):

<i>Te floss ohn wist ye rëd</i>	The bicycle on which you rode
<i>An vias endlink wist me wondräta</i>	A road along which I strolled
<i>Te mazath met wi ye paptfsta</i>	The girl with whom you spoke
<i>Te monn int wis fšün me star</i>	The man in whose shoes I stand
<i>An buhlen ohn wis deck jist an weps</i>	A book on whose cover is a wasp

In Jameld, **ew wi* (“of whom”) and **ew wist* (“of which”) are not valid constructions. Where possession is involved, *wis* or *tess* must be used; in other senses, another appropriate preposition may be used:

<i>Te knap böya wi ven paptfsta</i>	The boy of whom we spoke (lit. about who)
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In some cases there is an alternative to the preposition + *wist/wi* construction, using *leridi* (“to it, to there, to which”), *lerint* (“in it, in there, in which”), *lerimet* (“with it, with which”) and so on:

Te floss ohn wist ye rëd) The bicycle on which you rode
Te floss leridohn ye rëd)

Te mazath met wi ye paptfsta) The girl with whom you spoke
Te mazath lerimet ye paptfsta)

This is not always an option, however: as there is no such word as
**leridendlink* one must use *endlink wist*:

An vias endlink wist me wondräta A road along which I strolled

In a non-restrictive (non-defining, or parenthetical) relative clause, i.e. one that can be omitted as it does not actually define the antecedent, Jameld uses the relative pronouns *wist* (for things) and *wi* (for people), and a comma is used to introduce or surround the clause:

Me büyi zë eü buhlen, wist binintflatave weth ime.
I always buy his books, which have influenced me greatly.

Es al i bütikēs met esü son, wi jortf zë tēs.
She goes shopping with her son, who always causes havoc.

Jameld, wist jist an artalangui, jist jüji ober 40 yuras eld.
Jameld, which is a constructed language, is now over 40 years old.

Meü setstar, wi skeldar met öeles, vëgnérave an prīs.
My sister, who paints in oils, has won an award.

Compare the use of *tes* and *wist* in restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses:

Te buhlen tes me rese jist böya üles.
The book [that] I am reading is about owls.

Te buhlen, wist me rese, jist böya üles.
The book, which I am reading, is about owls.

Here we have first a restrictive relative clause, where *tes* is required. However, in the second example, with a non-restrictive relative clause (i.e. one that can be removed without changing the basic meaning of the sentence – “The book is about owls”), *wist* (“which”) and a pair of commas are required, as is also the case in English.

In non-restrictive relative clauses *tess* may not be used, and *wis* (“whose”) is required, even where the possessor is a thing, not a person. Compare:

Te konin tess aure wä pirdi int an ifoll wakita ies närviṣ.

Te konin wis aure wä pirdi int an ifoll wakita ies närviṣ.

The rabbit whose ear was lost in an accident watched her nervously.

Here, with a restrictive relative clause, one can use either *tess* (identifying the rabbit as not a person) or *wis* (treating the rabbit as a being with a personality).

Te konin, wis aure wä pirdi int an ifoll, wakita ies närviṣ.

The rabbit, whose ear was lost in an accident, watched her nervously.

Here there is no option but to use *wis*, as *tess* cannot be used in non-restrictive relative clauses. Another example:

Me büyi zë eü buhlen tess deckes ist röt.

I always buy his books whose covers are red.

(= I always buy those of his books that have red covers.)

Me büyi zë eü buhlen, wis deckes ist röt.

I always buy his books, whose covers are red.

(= I always buy his books, the covers of which are generally red.)

Jameld avoids situations where the antecedent is the whole main clause, such as “He eats with his fingers, which doesn’t look very nice.” Here Jameld would use a different construction and separate the two clauses with a colon, as follows:

E mest met eü fingeres: et n’otvis precht.

He eats with his fingers: it doesn’t look very nice.

Compare the following, where there is a relative clause, and the antecedent is just “his fingers”:

E mest met eü fingeres, wist n’otvis precht.

He eats with his fingers, which don’t look very nice.

Again:

Es zand ime blomas: et wä gut.

She sent me flowers, which was nice
[of her].

Es zand ime blomas, wist wä gut.

She sent me flowers, which were nice.

Where there is no antecedent, Jameld uses *was* (“what”), an indefinite pronoun such as *waszë*, or another construction:

<i>Was ye säir jist wask.</i>	That which you are saying is nonsense. (lit. What you say ...)
<i>Waszë poss, et poss.</i>	That which happens, happens. (lit. Whatever happens, it happens.)
<i>T'an wi sunt tsald döden.</i>	Whoever sins will die. (lit. The one who ...)

For instances such as:

Me thakje tes et tsald régenen jexnin.
I think [that] it will rain tonight.

where *tes* (“that”) – optional in English but not in Jameld – is not a pronoun but a conjunction, see 8.2 SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

4.7 Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns refer to unspecified persons (e.g. “someone”, “everyone”) or things (“anything”, “whatever”), or to an absence of same (“no one”, “nothing”). In Jameld these are:

<i>an</i>	one, someone
<i>ansan</i>	someone
<i>anstes</i>	something
<i>ëdaran</i>	everyone
<i>fulz</i>	some people
<i>iğé</i>	everything
<i>iğé anes</i>	everyone
<i>iğé tem</i>	everyone
<i>iğé tese</i>	everything
<i>iğé tes wés</i>	everything
<i>ike</i>	one
<i>jan</i>	no one (Börgeslant dialect)
<i>nan</i>	no one
<i>nates</i>	nothing
<i>waszë</i>	whatever
<i>wistzë</i>	whichever
<i>wizë</i>	whoever

<i>yüéan</i>	anyone
<i>yüétes</i>	anything

This list is not exhaustive. See also 3.5 QUANTIFIERS.

The adverb *äl* can precede certain indefinite pronouns, with an intensifying effect. For example:

<i>äl nan</i>	<i>no one at all</i>
<i>äl nates</i>	<i>nothing at all</i>
<i>äl yüétes</i>	<i>anything at all</i>
<i>äl ëdaran</i>	<i>absolutely everyone</i>

The impersonal pronoun *ike* is equivalent to the English “one” or impersonal “you”. Note, however, the sense of duty or compulsion implicit with *ike*, and compare with *an*:

<i>Ike mest flamtarta.</i>	One eats tarte flambée (i.e. one should eat it).
<i>An mest flamtarta.</i>	Someone is eating tarte flambée.

4.8 Interrogatives

Interrogatives introduce questions, such as:

<i>Wi jist ye, und was jist te rëuk?</i>	Who are you, and what is that smell?
--	--------------------------------------

They include:

<i>was</i>	what
<i>wist</i>	which
<i>wi</i>	who
<i>wis</i>	whose
<i>wen</i>	when
<i>au</i>	where
<i>umwi</i>	why
<i>wau</i>	how
<i>wauweth</i>	how much
<i>wauwëth</i>	how many

When referring to multiple possibilities, *wist* is often preferred to *was*:

<i>Wist ferf jist yeü yintſel?</i>	What is your favourite colour? (lit. Which colour is your favourite?)
------------------------------------	--

Note the construction *was vor (an)* ("what kind of"):

Was vor an kohk jist et?

What kind of cake is this? (lit. What for a cake is it?)

As an interrogative, *wis* can refer not just to people but also to things, where the thing can be inferred from the context:

Wis kohk mest ye?

Whose cake are you eating?

Wis ferttstät jist Wëen?

Which country's (lit. Whose) capital is Vienna?

Wis pağes ist temt?

Which book have these pages come from? (lit. Whose pages are these?)

"How" in the sense not of manner but of quantity is often translated *wauweth*, as in:

Wauweth eld jist ye?

How (lit. How much) old are you?

Wauweth link jist t'aa?

How (lit. How much) long is the river?

There is a sizeable additional group of interrogatives that consist of prepositions compounded with *-wi*,* as follows:

biwi

next to what? besides what?

eywi (from *ew+wi*)

of what? about what?

förwi

(away) from what?

fränwi

before what? in front of what?

ïwi

to what? to which?

intwi

in what? in which?

jemwi

against what?

metwi

with what? with which?

oberwi

over what?

ohnwi

on what? on which?

otwi

out of what? from what?

pastswi

after what?

sübwi

under what?

tiskwi

between what? between which?

vorwi

for what? why?

* Not *wi* meaning "who", but in fact a reduction of the Middle Jameld *wir/waur* (depending on dialect), "where". *Umwî* ("why") is in fact also part of this group.

In each case, the first syllable is stressed. This contrasts with “to whom”, “against whom”, etc., which would be written as two separate words in each case, the *wi* (“who(m)”) being stressed in speech:

<i>ĩ wi</i>	to whom?
<i>jem wi</i>	against whom?

(For “to/in/from which” in a non-interrogative sense, see 6.5 HERE, THERE AND EVERYWHERE.)

4.9 Impersonal *et* and “it”

The Jameld pronoun *et* (“it”) is often used impersonally to mean “this” or “that”, or as a shorthand for *t’an eri* (“this one”, lit. the one here) or *t’an leri* (“that one”, lit. the one there). For example:

<i>Was’st et?</i>) What is it?
) What’s this?
) What’s that?

<i>Et’st was possta.</i>	That’s what happened.
	(lit. It is what happened.)

<i>Me wulne et.</i> (informal)) I’d like that one.
<i>Me wulne et an.</i> (informal))
<i>Me wulne et’n.</i> (very informal))

<i>Me wulne ans ew et.</i> (informal)	I’d like some of that one.
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Note that even as a direct object *et* would be correct here. Compare:

<i>Me wulne iet.</i>	I’d like it.
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Et can only be used to refer to things, not people. Hence, in the following conversation, where English would use “it”, Jameld uses “here” and “there”:

Wi jist leri?
Who is it? (lit. Who is there?)

Me’st Älvard eri. Zicht me papttŕsen met Zëa, eöx ye will?
It’s Älvard here. (lit. I’m Älvard here.) Can I speak to Zëa, please?

Zëa, eri'st Älvard vor iye.

Zëa, it's Älvard for you. (lit. Here's Älvard ...)

(NB: *Et* is also the archaic and dialect neuter form of the definite article, which is handy to know.)

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*.

liuben → *liub-*
yiben → *yib-*
koxjen → *koxj-*

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
<i>kümmen</i> → <i>et kümne*</i>	to come → it comes

* In informal settings, *kümne* is often reduced to *küm*.

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:

<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

* 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.

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

<i>hüaren</i> → <i>me hüarta</i>	to hear → I heard
(a soft-ending verb that drops the <i>-e-</i> , as the stem ends in a single consonant)	

<i>wulnen</i> → <i>me wulnta</i>	to want → I wanted
(a soft-ending verb that drops the <i>-e-</i> , despite a final consonant cluster)	

<i>kontren</i> → <i>me kontreta</i>	to meet → I met
(a soft-ending verb that retains the <i>-e-</i> due to the final consonant cluster)	

Soft-ending weak verbs that retain the *-e-* before *-ta* due to awkward consonant clusters include:

<i>binithren</i> (<i>-thr-</i>) → <i>e binithreta</i>	to humiliate → he humiliated
<i>fulyen</i> (<i>-ly-</i>) → <i>tem fulyeta</i>	to follow → they followed
<i>grönmen</i> (<i>-nm-</i>) → <i>tem grönmeta</i>	to loiter → they loitered
<i>hantlen</i> (<i>-ntl-</i>) → <i>es hantleta</i>	to behave → she behaved
<i>kanyen</i> (<i>-ny-</i>) → <i>ven kanyeta</i>	to pack → we packed
<i>kessyen</i> (<i>-ssy-</i>) → <i>ven kessyeta</i>	to kiss → we kissed
<i>kontren</i> (<i>-ntr-</i>) → <i>me kontreta</i>	to meet → I met
<i>koxjen</i> (<i>-xj-</i>) → <i>ye koxjeta</i>	to guess → you guessed
<i>manjen</i> (<i>-nj-</i>) → <i>me manjeta</i>	to mingle → I mingled
<i>tomlen</i> (<i>-ml-</i>) → <i>e tomleta</i>	to tumble → he tumbled
<i>trujnen</i> (<i>-jn-</i>) → <i>es trujneta</i>	to found → she founded
<i>vegnen</i> (<i>-gn-</i>) → <i>tem vegneta</i>	to acquire → they acquired

... as well as their derivatives (e.g. *bifulyen*, *yivegnen*).

However, weak verbs whose present forms end in *-t* or *-d* behave slightly differently – here *-ta* becomes *-ha*:

<i>salten</i> → <i>me saltha</i>	to jump → I jumped
<i>pirden</i> → <i>me pirdha</i>	to lose → I lost

Strong or irregular verbs have irregular past tenses, for full details of which please consult the list of JAMELD IRREGULAR VERBS. Many of these feature a vowel change, but some are completely irregular.

<i>yiben</i> → <i>me yeb</i>	to give → I gave
<i>sügen</i> → <i>et sog</i>	to pull → it pulled
<i>isten</i> → <i>me wā</i>	to be → I was
<i>thakjen</i> → <i>yen thochta</i>	to think → you thought

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.

me yibave

I have given

es liubave

she has loved

tem hüave

they have held

ven wésave

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*:

me yibaa

I had given

es liubaa

she had loved

tem hüaa

they had held

ven wésaa

we had been

5.7 Future

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

me tsald yiben

I will give

es tsald liuben

she will love

tem tsald huen

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*:

- *nazë* (never, not at all)
e nazë trinkave speritas he has never drunk spirits
tem nazë ziv they never argue
- *nawis* (in no way)
me nawis zicht mesten iet I really can't (lit. in no way can) eat
that
et nawis 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'ëg* 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 iğé 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 iğé 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
<i>thakjemë!</i>	think! (to oneself)

- See also 5.15 IMPERATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE: INVOKING WISHES.

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>künnen</i> → <i>kümne</i> → <i>kümne</i>	to come

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 zë 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 kűnnen</i>	let your kingdom come
<i>tese ṭsohe alen wel</i>	may things go well

Wälde is used instead of *ṭsohe* for negatives:

<i>et nazë wälde possen</i> (not * <i>et nazë tsohe possen</i>) <i>te tšipes eri na wälde sneten te muth</i>	may that never happen may these crisps not cut my mouth
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Wälde is also used for forlorn hopes:

<i>et wälde endien régenen</i>	if only it would stop raining
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In addition to optatives (the expression of wishes) such as those illustrated above, the present subjunctive is also used after non-hypothetical *eõx* ("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):

<i>Eõx me sé té eld, me tšald alen homz.</i> (Not * <i>Eõx me jist té eld ...</i>)	If I am too old, I'll go home.
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Another way of expressing *eõx me sé té eld* is with inversion, where the verb moves to the front of the sentence, replacing *eõx*:

<i>Sé me té eld, me tšald alen homz.</i>	(lit. Be I too old, I'll go home.)
--	------------------------------------

<i>Eõx me na sé té eld, me willon helnen.</i>) If I'm not too old, I'd like to help.)
<i>Sé me na té eld, me willon helnen.</i>)

Note the following additional examples, with inverted alternatives:

<i>Eõx et wése vaniysaus, me tšald aven ans.</i>) If there is custard, I'll have some.)
<i>Wése et vaniysaus, me tšald aven ans.</i>)

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 tsald.) If I have to do it, I will.
Mote me ären iet, me tsald.)

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

Eöx me tsöhe trinken wïn, m'inttslip.) If I drink wine, I fall asleep.
Tsöhe me trinken wïn, m'inttslip.)

Eöx ye tsöhe visen Haral, tall ie.) If you see Haral, tell him.
Tsöhe ye visen Haral, tall ie.)

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

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

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

Snïǵ me zichte aven vaniysaus, me na tsald 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.

<i>Snïǵ me wälde mesten te kohkes tes me back, temt bikümne blét tsimeli.</i>	Unless I eat the cakes that I bake, they just go mouldy.
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The present subjunctive is also used after *tügo* (in the sense of “even if”), when looking forward in time:

<i>Tügo et tsohe benen te jüteli yura, me tsald slüten te buhlen.</i>	Even if it takes me all year, I’m going to finish this book.
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Inversion is possible with *tügo*:

<i>Tsohe et benen te jüteli yura, me tsald slüten te buhlen.</i>	(lit. May it take the whole year ...)
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(Compare the following, where *tügo* has the sense of “even though”, and the subjunctive is not used:

<i>Tügo et’st kalt, es tsald trinken te the.</i>	Even though it’s cold, she’s going to drink that tea.)
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The subjunctive is also used when the *eöx* or *tügo* clause comes later in the sentence, although in that case inversion is not possible:

<i>M’inttslip eöx me tsohe trinken win.</i>	I fall asleep if I drink wine.
<i>Me tsald aven vaniysaus eöx et wése ans.</i>	I’ll have custard if there is any.
<i>Me tsald ären iet eöx me mote.</i>	I will do it if I have to.
<i>Te kohkes tes me back bikümne blét tsimeli eöx me na wälde mesten itemt.</i>	The cakes that I bake just go mouldy if I don’t eat them.
<i>Me tsald slüten te buhlen tügo et tsohe benen te jüteli yura.</i>	I’m going to finish this book even if it takes me all year.
<i>E seta iet és eöx e tsohe méyanen iet.</i>	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:

<i>E seta tes y'ave grundi aures.</i>	He said that you have big ears.
<i>Es thakje tes ye jist wivifsi.</i>	She thinks that you're ugly.
(not * <i>E seta tes ye tsohe aven ...</i> or * <i>Es thakje tes ye sé ...</i>)	

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

<i>Me na wit widar me tsoh alen.</i>	I don't know whether/if I should go.
<i>Me na wit widar m'al ed na.</i>	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 tsohe kûnnen</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:

<i>Sé'ts t'aasel leri'st werkilauk,</i>	If that's a real donkey then I'm
<i>me'st Jorthelü kusina.</i>	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 tsald.</i>) If I have to do it, I will.
<i>Eöx me mot ären iet, me tsald.</i>)

<i>Eöx me tsohe trinken win,</i>) If I drink wine, I fall asleep.
<i>m'inttšlip.</i>)
<i>Eöx me trink win, m'inttšlip.</i>)

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:

<i>jistët zo</i>) let it be so
<i>et sé zo</i>)

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

<i>na possët!</i>) may that not happen!
<i>et na wälde possen!</i>)

<i>isttëm zë ghari</i>) may they always be happy
<i>tem sé zë ghari</i>)

<i>et wése vaniysaus</i>	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; hence, 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 i ie
te härlauknas und te meyt sé vorzë i ie
to him be the glory and the might forever

t'an wi ave an aure, hüarë
t'an wi ave an aure tsohn 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*:

<i>elëven</i> → <i>elévta</i> → <i>elévte</i>	to live
<i>thakjen</i> → <i>thochta</i> → <i>thochte</i>	to think

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

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

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>lō</i> → <i>lōe</i>	to lie, be situated
<i>mōten</i> → <i>maat</i> → <i>maate</i>	to have to
<i>isten/wésen</i> → <i>wā</i> → <i>wāe</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:

eōx me wāe iye

Here, the subjunctive is required after hypothetical *eōx* (“if”), as the “if” clause expresses a counterfactual condition. (Compare *wen me wā 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 *eōx me wā iye* is with inversion, where the verb moves to the front of the sentence, replacing *eōx*:

wāe 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) → *wāe*
eōx et wāe vaniysaus) if there were custard
wāe et vaniysaus)

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

- *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
tʃsipes)
zochte me mesten veln tʃsipes)

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:

*Eõx ye na walde alen, me
na tsald alen.*

If you won't go, I won't go.

The present subjunctive is often used instead:

*Eõx ye tsohe alen, m'al.
Tsohe ye alen, m'al.*

) If you're going, I'm going.
)

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.

papttsen → *papttsin*
gléen → *gléin*
huen → *huin* (not **hüin*)

to speak → speaking
to glow → glowing
to hold → holding

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

isten → *wésin*

to be → being

The present participle can be used as a noun or as an adjective:

me liub drifin
singin mack't te këel sar
an papttsin fayel

I love driving
singing makes one's throat sore
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").

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:

malten → *malt* → *malti*
haven → *häv* → *hävi*

to melt → melt → molten
to carve → carve → carved

wulnen → *wulne* → *wulni*
jolkläzen → *jolkläz* → *jolkläzi*

to want → want → wanted
to appoint → appoint → appointed

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

malti is
an hävi vorthräyel
an wulni monn

molten ice
a carved object
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:

t'is wä malti
te tšüdrisť wä jolkläzi

the ice was melted (by the sun)
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:

eskrören → *eskrē* → *eskrēn*
dragen → *drug* → *drugan*
wärpen → *würp* → *würpan*
yaaen → *yeghta* → *iyen*

to write → wrote → written
to draw → drew → drawn
to twist → twisted → twisted
to confess → confessed → confessed

Compare:

te buhlen jist eskrēn

the book is [being] written [at the moment] (dynamic)

te buhlen jist eskrři

the book is written (i.e. the writing process is complete) (stative)

eü liy wä würpan pozirtš te pohn

his body was twisted with the pain (dynamic)

eü yamunth wä wärpi

his mind was twisted (and had been for some time) (stative)

e wä tintthrün ük te nüawes

he was depressed by the news (dynamic)

e wä tintthräyi

he was depressed (i.e. in a state of depression) (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. 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 Zuraalant. (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.

* 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 *wă* should be used instead, with an appropriate adverb for clarity.

- Using *wä* as auxiliary

Te flamtarta eri wä mackti int Zuraaland. (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.

- Using *tsald isten* as auxiliary

Maltzas tsald 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 mǎi.

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 no 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:

<i>äls</i>	constantly
<i>birafsts</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} mǎi.

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

Te gas jist {vort’nü} mǎi.

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

Te gas jist {tisks} mǎi.

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

More examples:

Wenjeldönt wä {vort'nü} t̥slui inte park.
Angleball was being played in the park.

Wenjeldönt wä {vors} t̥slui inte park.
Angleball had been played in the park.

Wenjeldönt wä {oft/tisks} t̥slui 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:

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 with the passive, and always use the dynamic. Hence, although the following is – strictly speaking – 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>)

<i>Te gas jist vort'nü mäi.</i>	The lawn is [actively-right-now] mown.
<i>An mä vort'nü te gas.</i>) Someone is mowing the grass.
<i>Ansan mä vort'nü te gas.</i>)

<i>Te gas jist tisks mäi.</i>	The lawn is [occasionally] mown.
<i>An mä tisks te gas.</i>) Someone mows the grass.
<i>Ansan mä tisks te gas.</i>)

<i>Te gas nazē jist mäi.</i>	The lawn is never mown.
<i>Nan mä te gas.</i>	No one mows the grass.

<i>Wenjeldönt wä vort'nü tšlui inte park.</i>	Angleball was being played in the park.
<i>Fulz tšluta vort'nü wenjeldont inte park.</i>	People were playing angleball in the park.

<i>Flamtarta jist mastan int Zuraalant.</i>	Tarte flambée is eaten in Zuraaland.
<i>Fulz int Zuraalant mest flamtarta.</i>	People in Zuraaland eat tarte flambée.
<i>Ans int Zuraalant mest flamtarta däis pagé.</i>	Some people in Zuraaland eat tarte flambée every day.

Ike mest flamtarta int Zuraalant. 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 tsald 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)
<i>es wä 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*,

* Another option here, of course, is to use an adverb such as *vort'nü* (“right now”), e.g. *me res vort'nü te buhlen*.

the present subjunctive (SECTION 5.14) with *ṭsohe* 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 ṭsald yiben</i>	I shall give
<i>eöx me ṭsohe 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 kömintā staren I started to stand
tem punäre feyten they continue to fight
me ṭsald 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 paptṭṣen they allowed me to speak
- *biaden* (to suggest, to ask)
e béd ies alen he asked her to go
- *waṭṣten* (to be bothered)
me na waṭṣt staren 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.

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

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

<i>m'al vor zaräizen</i>	I go [in order] to return*
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5.25 Reflexivity

A small group of Jameld verbs – notably *wasken* (to wash), *kledhen* (to get dressed) and *féĝen* (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 féĝ 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 tšald ären yibin</i>	I will give (habitually)

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

m'ärave yibin
m'äraa yibin

I have been giving
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;
tsalde – see 5.17 OTHER SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS;
tsaldon – 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 tsald resen te buhlen.

I will read the book.

Me na tsald resen te buhlen.

I will not read the book.

Me tsald 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 tsald resen iet morn.

)

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

Ye tsald 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

<i>e na will resen</i>	he doesn't want to read
<i>e woh resen</i>	he wanted to read
<i>e na woh resen</i>	he didn't want to read*

Compare the following constructions:

<i>Me will alen.</i>) I want to go.) I would like to go.
<i>Me will tes ye alen.</i>) I want you to go.) I would like you to go.
<i>Ye will alen.</i>	You want to go.
<i>Ye willon alen!</i>	You <u>would</u> want to go, wouldn't you?

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

<i>Will ye éwajen ime?</i>	Will you marry me? (= Do you want to marry me?)
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Compare third-person usage:

<i>Will es alen?</i>	Does she want to go?
<i>Woh tem na kűnnen?</i>	Didn't they want to come?

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

<i>Will ven alen?</i>	Shall we go?
<i>Will me frégen ie?</i>	Shall I ask him?

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

<i>Me wulne te buhlen eri.</i>) I want this book.) I would like this book.
<i>E wulnta te buhlen eri.</i>	He wanted this book.
<i>Wulne ye an »jelly baby«?</i>	Would you like a jelly baby?

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

5.29 Expressing necessity, compulsion, concession and prohibition

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

<i>me mot alen</i>) I must go) I have to go
<i>ye mot resen</i>) you must read) you have to read
<i>Mot ye alen?</i>) Must you go?) Do you have to go?
<i>Maat ye wäiten link?</i>	Did you have to wait long?
<i>me maat resen</i>	I had to read
<i>me motave resen</i>	I have had to read
<i>me tsald möten resen</i>	I will have to read
<i>me tsald möten resaven</i>	I will have to have read
<i>me tsald motaven resen</i>	I will have had to read
<i>me tsald 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 tsald 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 tsald 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 *nazë* (“never”) instead of *na*

<i>ye nawīs mot mesten iet</i>) you absolutely must not eat it
<i>ye nazë 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 tsald 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 tsald 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 mochte</i>	it was possible
<i>mak et?</i>	is it possible?
<i>mochta 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)
<i>ven tsald zichten resen</i>) we will be able to read) we will be allowed to read (unambiguously: <i>ven tsald aven örafs '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 priten</i>	you may not pass

Compare:

<i>Y'ave te kenth!</i>	You can do it! (lit. you have the ability)
------------------------	--

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 drifen?</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 *tsoh*:

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

The sense of “supposed to” can be expressed in Jameld with *tsoh si*:

<i>Ye tsoh si resaven iet!</i>	You're supposed to have read it!
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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>dë-</i>	<i>dëköminen</i>	to restart
<i>des-</i>	<i>dessluten</i>	to decrypt
<i>ha(r)-</i>	<i>hatiäen</i>	to attract
<i>jol-</i>	<i>jolyeten</i>	to donate
<i>mes-</i>	<i>mesrighen</i>	to miss (fail to reach)
<i>ras-</i>	<i>rasbreken</i>	to break apart

<i>wi(r)-</i>	<i>wivéperen</i>	to deceive
<i>yi-</i>	<i>yiberen</i>	to give birth

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

<i>ab-</i>	<i>abtiäen</i>	to take off (clothes)
<i>ax-</i>	<i>axswären</i>	to defend
<i>böya-</i>	<i>böyalidhen</i>	to divert
<i>för-</i>	<i>föralen</i>	to depart
<i>ï- Δ</i>	<i>ijungen</i>	to congregate
<i>int- Δ</i>	<i>intquichten</i>	to enter (in a diary)
<i>kontra-</i>	<i>kontrastaren</i>	to oppose
<i>met- Δ</i>	<i>mettstemen</i>	to agree
<i>ober- Δ</i>	<i>obereskrören</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>otkiysen</i>	to pick (a team)
<i>pastš-</i>	<i>pastšalen</i>	to verify
<i>pu(n)- Δ</i>	<i>puštšrēken</i>	to strike through
<i>sem-</i>	<i>semflaten</i>	to flow together
<i>tint- Δ</i>	<i>tintzovaten</i>	to descend
<i>unter- Δ</i>	<i>untereskrören</i>	to sign (a document)
<i>vor[and]-</i>	<i>vorvisen</i>	to plan
<i>za-</i>	<i>zaslājen</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:

<i><u>oberbleden</u></i>	to turn over (a page)
<i><u>oberstemen</u></i>	to agree
<i><u>oberyiben</u></i>	to pass (something to someone)
<i><u>oberyiben</u></i>	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 tšakel</i>) she turns off the switch
<i>es zet te tšakel ab</i>)
<i>e h'abvéperta te hod</i>) he took off his hat
<i>e véperta te hod ab</i>)

e véperta te hod ab eü chadof he took his hat off his head
(not **e h'avvéperta te hod eü chadof*)

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)

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 *bifrōden* 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

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 (lit. His Majesty are wearing today
intthrikin osen. 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?
Tsaldenn Te Mester benen jexnin Will the Master be requiring the car
t'auto? 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.

me jist

I am

es jist

she is

ven ist

we are

tem ist

they are

Isten has the following personal imperative forms:

Singular *wésmë, wésyë, jistë/jistës/jistët*

Plural *istvën, wésyën, isttëm/isttënt*

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”:

et wés

) there is

) there are (lit. it exists)

Et wés an ängi monn oter.

There is a strange man outside.

Et wés tī ängi monnes oter.

There are two strange men outside.

wés ...?

) is there ...?

) are there ...?

Wés ans melk?

Wés ans kohkjas?

(Note: Not **wés et ...?*)

Is there any milk?

Are there any biscuits?

6. Adverbs

6.1 Function

Jameld adverbs can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb or a whole sentence:

<i>tem less jister</i>	they left yesterday
<i>et jist mol tsohn</i>	it is very beautiful
<i>e drif té naw</i>	he drives too quickly
<i>nanförtunlauk ven ave na fruktkohk</i>	unfortunately we have no fruitcake

Adverbs do not inflect (change) according to the gender or number of what they describe.

Adverbs can be categorised according to their function; examples follow:

- adverbs of time

<i>biraft, intekort</i>	soon
<i>jexdäi</i>	today
<i>tisks</i>	occasionally
- adverbs of place

<i>eri, erid</i>	here
<i>leri, lerid</i>	there
<i>nëir</i>	near
- adverbs of manner

<i>wel</i>	well
<i>lauk</i>	like
- adverbs of intensity/degree

<i>mol, riyñ</i>	very
<i>tagé</i>	enough
- adverbs of doubt

<i>petsťsé, tśé</i>	maybe
<i>sĭditsĕnlauk</i>	probably
- adverbs of negation

<i>nau</i>	no
<i>nazĕ</i>	never

- adverbs of affirmation
jey, sī yes
werkilauk, zowér really
- adverbs of exclusion
veln only
blét hardly
- adverbs of interrogation (see also 4.8 INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS)
au? where?
wau? how?
wen? when?

6.2 Derivation from adjectives

Adverbs can be formed from many adjectives using the suffix *-ǵa*:

<i>naw</i>	quick
<i>nawǫa</i>	quickly

However, this usage is now considered rather formal or even archaic; normally the adjective would be used unchanged as an adverb:

<i>e drif nawğa</i>) he drives quickly
<i>e drif naw</i>)

6.3 Comparatives and superlatives

Comparatives and superlatives of adjectives used as adverbs are formed with the suffixes *-o* and *-üt* respectively.

<i>e drif nawo as ime</i>	he drives more quickly than me
<i>es drif nawüt</i>	she is the fastest driver (lit. she drives fastest)

6.4 Both, as well as, all of

The Jameld equivalent of “both”, *béda*, can only apply to two alternatives, thus:

E mast te kohk und te knots béda. He ate both the cake and the bun
(lit. he ate the cake and the bun both)

*Robin Curtis wä Lt. Saavik int
Star Trek III und IV béda.*

Robin Curtis was Lt. Saavik in both
Star Trek III and *IV*.

It is a curiosity of *béda* that it appears after the alternatives.

(NB: Another way to express this would be to use the conjunction *zowel*:

E mast te kohk zowel te knots.

He ate both the cake and the bun.

*Robin Curtis wä Lt. Saavik int
Star Trek III zowel IV.*

Robin Curtis was Lt. Saavik in both
Star Trek III and *IV*.)

If there are three or more alternatives, *zoäl* must be employed, in the sense of “all of the following”:

*E mast zoäl te kohk, te knots und
te kohkja.*

He ate the cake, the bun and the
biscuit.

*Lt. Saavik wä int zoäl Star Trek
II, III und IV.*

Lt. Saavik appeared in *Star Trek
II, III* and *IV*.

Zoäl could be omitted in both cases here, but its presence emphasises that we are talking about excess, continuation, etc. (as “both” would).

6.5 Here, there and everywhere

The Jameld words for “here” and “there”, *eri* and *leri*, have variant forms when they precede a vowel, i.e. *erid* and *lerid* respectively. For example:

*eri temt ist
erid et jist*

here they are
here it is

This behaviour can also be seen in the compound adverbs they form:

eri(d) + ot → eridot

from here, hence

leri(d) + ot → leridot

from there, thence

eri(d) + i → eridi

to here, hither

leri(d) + i → leridi

to there, thither

eri + met → erimet

herewith

leri + jem → lerijem

on the other hand

eri(d) + ohn → leridohn

on there, thereon

The *leri(d)*- adverbs can also have the meanings “to/from/on it” and “to/from/on which”:

leribi

next to it, next to which

<i>leridohn</i>	on it, on which
<i>lerisüb</i>	under it, under which
<i>Leg iet leribi.</i>	Put it down next to that.
<i>Et'st thefaré, lerijem et wés layas.</i>	That's theft, against which there are laws.

Informally, *leri(d)*- adverbs can even be used of people:

<i>Es tsald éwajen Osk, leribi me</i>	She's marrying Osk, next to whom
<i>söd wíl te repevintraufsin.</i>	I sat at the funeral.

However, this would be frowned on in formal written Jameld, and the following would be preferred:

Es tsald éwajen Osk, nech wi me söd wíl te repevintraufsin.

(For "to/from/on which" in an interrogative sense, e.g. "To which castle are you going?", see 4.8 INTERROGATIVES.)

The following compound adverbs based on *au* ("where") exist:

<i>ansau</i>	anywhere, somewhere
<i>n'ansau</i>	nowhere
<i>ëdau</i>	elsewhere, somewhere else
<i>oberau</i>	everywhere, throughout
<i>yüéau</i>	anywhere

6.6 Adverbs of time and the -s suffix

Many adverbs of time have the ending -s, usually as a contraction of *tsüdas* ("times"). Often this indicates repetition:

<i>aunts</i>	once, sometime
<i>tis</i>	twice
<i>threns</i>	thrice
<i>vours</i>	four times
<i>fëfs</i>	five times
<i>wëths</i>	many times
<i>fëfe tsüdas</i>	
<i>wëth tsüdas</i>	

Repetition is not the only meaning, however, as can be seen from the list below, which is not necessarily exhaustive. Note that in some cases there is only a short form, or only a long form.

<i>äls</i>	<i>ältšüdas</i>	all the time, constantly
—	<i>anstšüdas</i>	sometimes
<i>biraft(s)</i>	—	soon
—	<i>bičšüdas</i>	betimes, in good time
<i>däis</i>	<i>däitšüdas</i>	in the daytime
<i>delets</i>	—	recently
<i>ëds</i>	<i>ëdtšüdas</i>	at some other time
<i>förs</i>	—	immediately, instantly, at once
<i>mosts</i>	<i>mostšüdas</i>	mainly, usually, mostly
<i>nins</i>	<i>nintšüdas</i>	at night
<i>sems</i>	<i>semčšüdas</i>	simultaneously, at the same time
<i>čšüs</i>	—	presently, by-and-by
—	<i>tesčšüdas</i>	then, at that time
<i>tisks</i>	<i>tiskčšüdas</i>	occasionally, sometimes
<i>vors</i>	<i>vortšüdas</i>	previously
<i>vorvors</i>	<i>int vorvori čšüdas</i>	formerly, in times past

6.7 Emphatic adverbs

Certain adverbs, notably *sī* and *na*, convey special emphasis when they follow the verb. Consider the following example pairs of expressions, with and without emphasis:

<i>me kätte was'st drüchi</i>	I know what's right
<i>me kätte sī was'st drüchi</i>	I do know what's right
<i>m'aa</i>	I did
<i>m'aa sī</i>	I did indeed
<i>e willon säiren iet</i>	he would say that
<i>e willon sī säiren iet</i>	he <u>would</u> say that, wouldn't he?
<i>me na kätte</i>	I don't know
<i>me kätte na</i>	I really don't know
<i>e na woh huen te muth</i>	he would not shut up
<i>e woh na huen te muth</i>	he just would not shut up

The third and fifth examples above illustrate that these emphatic adverbs come after the auxiliary verb if there is one, not after the infinitive. In this respect these emphatic adverbs differ in use from normal adverbial usage (see 9.1 MAIN CLAUSES).

Note also that the emphatic *na* (examples four and five above) is not additional to the *na* for negation; rather, there remains just the one *na*, but it moves after the verb.

See also 4.7 INDEFINITE PRONOUNS for an emphatic use of *äl*.

7. Prepositions

7.1 List of prepositions

Here is a list of Jameld prepositions with their English equivalents, followed by some notes on important differences between Jameld and English usage. For general guidance on correct usage in Jameld, please see the dictionary entry for the relevant English prepositions, many of which provide extensive examples.

<i>ab</i>	off
<i>as</i>	than
<i>ax</i>	at, on, by
<i>böya, bö</i>	about, concerning
<i>böyäd</i>	around
<i>endlink</i>	along
<i>ew</i>	of
<i>förab</i>	away from
<i>förober</i>	beyond
<i>frän</i>	in front of, ahead
<i>fränvor</i>	in front of, ahead
<i>ghregvor</i>	behind
<i>i</i>	to
<i>iand</i>	toward
<i>inek</i>	until
<i>int</i>	in, at
<i>inter</i>	inside, within
<i>inti</i>	into
<i>intmit</i>	among
<i>iyk</i>	past, by
<i>izbi</i>	beside
<i>jem</i>	against, towards
<i>kontraja</i>	against
<i>kontrober</i>	opposite, facing
<i>lauk</i>	like
<i>met</i>	with, by, among
<i>mönös, möns</i>	without
<i>nech</i>	by, beside
<i>nober</i>	across, opposite, facing
<i>ob</i>	above, over
<i>ober</i>	over, above, across
<i>ohn</i>	on, at
<i>opt</i>	up

<i>ot</i>	out, out of, from, by
<i>oter</i>	outside
<i>otvor</i>	except, besides, but
<i>par</i>	per
<i>pasṭs</i>	after
<i>pasṭsi</i>	according to
<i>pozirṭs</i>	due to, because of
<i>pu</i>	through, via, by
<i>sith</i>	since
<i>süb</i>	under, below, underneath
<i>ther</i>	across, over, above
<i>tint</i>	down
<i>tisk</i>	between
<i>tretew</i>	despite, notwithstanding
<i>tügo</i>	despite
<i>ük</i>	by
<i>unter</i>	under, below, underneath
<i>via</i>	via
<i>vor</i>	for, to, at
<i>vorand</i>	forward, forth
<i>vorvor</i>	before
<i>wenpasṭs</i>	after
<i>wil</i>	during, while, in, for
<i>wrun</i>	from, of
<i>za</i>	behind

See also 4.8 INTERROGATIVES and 6.5 HERE, THERE AND EVERYWHERE regarding prepositional compounds with *eri*, *leri*, *au* and *wi*.

7.2 Contractions

Several Jameld prepositions form contractions with the definite article:

<i>ew te</i> → <i>ete</i>	of the
<i>int te</i> → <i>inte</i>	in the
<i>met te</i> → <i>mete</i>	with the

The last of these, *mete*, is not considered acceptable in formal writing, although it may be encountered in very informal contexts. *Ete* and *inte*, however, are entirely normal usage in modern standard Jameld.

Before a vowel, *ew t'*, *int t'* and *met t'* do not contract.

7.3 The suffix *-and*

Mention should be made of the suffix *-and*, which has similarities with the English *-ward[s]* (as in *toward[s]*, *homeward[s]*, etc.). It appears in the list above as part of *iand* and *vorand*, and also forms compounds with nouns, such as:

<i>homzand</i>	homewards
<i>Wörthand</i>	towards (the town of) Woerth
<i>Davidand</i>	towards David

7.4 “At” and “in”: expressions of location

“At/in [somewhere]” is usually translated by *int*, although sometimes by *ohn* for certain non-enclosed locations:

<i>int tsüle</i>	at school
<i>int Jonü</i>	at John’s house
<i>inte fruktkohkarü</i>	at the chemist’s
<i>ohn te viaskrüsün</i>	at the road junction
<i>ohn te top ete ghul</i>	at the top of the hill
<i>int homz</i>	at home
<i>inte homze</i>	in the house
<i>inte miyr</i>	at sea
<i>inte sonnen</i>	in the sun
<i>int Anglant</i>	in England
<i>willkümne int Zuraalant</i>	welcome to Zuraaland

7.5 “At”, “in” and “on”: expressions of time

“At [a point in time]” is usually translated by *ax*:

<i>ax thren tsüddres</i>	at three o’clock
<i>ax sonnentint</i>	at sunset

But note:

<i>int nin</i>) at night
<i>nins</i>)

“In” in expressions of time is translated by *int* when referring to a point in time during a longer period, and *wil* when referring to the whole period:

me dëhomzta i Zuraalant int 1998 I moved to Zuraaland in 1998
me famta int Zuraalant wil 1998 I lived in Zuraaland in 1998

“In” is also translated by *int* when referring to a period of time taken:

m’at iet int thren tšüдрес I did it in three hours
me tšald visen iye int thren I’ll see you in three weeks
wöktes

Note also:

int nin) in the night
nins)

int dăi) in the daytime
dăis)

“On” in expressions of time is not directly translated:

(delet) Samüdăi on Saturday (last Saturday)
(necht) Samüdăi on Saturday (next Saturday)
Samüdăis on Saturdays
ven alta i te strond (delet) we went to the beach on Saturday
Samüdăi
ven al i te strond (necht) Samüdăi we’re going to the beach on Saturday
ven al i te strond Samüdăis we go to the beach on Saturdays
ven al i te strond Samüdăis pağé we go to the beach every Saturday

7.6 “By”: causes and means

“By” when referring to a cause or agent is translated *ük*:

todi ük lechten killed by lightning
böyayeban ük an tën surrounded by a fence

But:

an skeldarel ot Picasso a painting by Picasso
(see also 7.8 “FROM” AND “OUT OF” – *WRUN* AND *OT* below)

“By” when referring to a means or method is usually translated *met*:

met buss by bus
met ferrüvias by train
met e-poťšt by e-mail

zëien met kreditkarta pay by credit card

But:
ax föd by foot, on foot

7.7 Translating “of”

English “of” is sometimes directly translated by the Jameld equivalent, *ew*:

<i>te gründe ew Zuraalant</i> (also <i>Zuraalantü gründe</i>)	the size of Zuraaland
<i>te nimen ete mazath</i> (also <i>te mazathü nimen</i>)	the name of the girl
<i>aunt ew meü brothares</i>	one of my brothers
<i>an mazath ew ight yuras</i>	a girl of eight
<i>an chadof mackti ew gold</i> (also <i>an chadof ot gold</i>)	a head (made) of gold

However, there are many cases where this is not so. For instance, when referring to groups a genitive construction is often used:

<i>an grup vourü</i>	a party of four
<i>ven ist threnü</i>	there are three of us
<i>tem wä threnü</i>	there were three of them

(although *et wä thren ew item* would also be idiomatic in this case)

When referring to quantities or measures, “of” is not translated:

<i>an kap kofë</i>	a cup of coffee
<i>an pär kohkjas</i>	a couple of biscuits
<i>tĩ kilos mel</i>	two kilos of flour

Ew is used, however, when specifying, or when preceding the definite article (when it becomes *ete* – see 7.2 CONTRACTIONS):

<i>an kap ew yeü härlauk kofë</i>	a cup of your delicious coffee
<i>an pär ete kohkjas leri</i>	a couple of those biscuits
<i>ans pau ete tĩsipes</i>	a few of the crisps

“Of” in dates is not translated:

<i>temzvourfĩ Septembü</i>	the fourteenth of September
<i>tĩsumme ’69</i>	the summer of ’69

“Of” with compass points is translated *wrun*:

Krakatoa na jist üst wrun Java Krakatoa is not east of Java

But:

Zud-Anglant the south of England

7.8 “From” and “out of” – *Wrun* and *ot*

English “from” is translated by its direct Jameld equivalent, *wrun*, when referring to distances or in the construction “from ... to/until ...”:

<i>tî kilometeres wrun Lembek</i>	two kilometres from Lembach
<i>wrun Lembek î Wissembörg</i>	from Lembach to Wissembourg
<i>wrun aunt inek tî</i>	from one o’clock until two o’clock

“From” in the sense of coming from somewhere or someone or something is translated *ot*, which has the basic meaning of “out” or “out of”:

<i>an e-potst ot Älvard</i>	an e-mail from Älvard
<i>te buss ot Lembek</i>	the bus from Lembach
<i>trinken ot te flass</i>	drink from the bottle
<i>vaniysaus ot an boix</i>	custard out of a packet
<i>Ot au kümne ye?</i>	Where are you from?
	(lit. Out-of where come you?)

Ot also translates “by” when indicating an artist or author:

<i>an skeldarel ot Picasso</i>	a painting by Picasso
<i>te nüaw CD ot Prefab Sprout</i>	the new CD by Prefab Sprout

7.9 “For” meaning “during” – *wîl*

With regard to time and distance expressions, “for” can be translated *vor* only in the sense of sufficiency:

<i>et wés yanoh mestel vor fêfe dâis</i>	there’s enough food for five days
<i>et wés yanoh benzën vor tî miles</i>	there’s enough petrol for
	two (Jameldic) miles

Otherwise, where “for” carries the sense of “during”, it is translated by *wîl*:

krames wíl ti kilometeres
et tsald régenen wíl yoursi dāis
tem wawübta wíl fêfe tsüдрес

bends for two kilometres
it will rain for forty days
they worked for five hours

8. Conjunctions

8.1 Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses and sentences. For example:

- *und* (and)
Me mest kohk und tšipes. I eat cake and crisps.
Et eri'st blü, und et leri'st röt. This one is blue, and that one is red.
- *zowel* (and also, both ... and)
E mast te kohk zowel te knots. He ate both the cake and the bun.
- *zowel na* (neither)
Me n'al, zowel na ye. I'm not going, and neither are you.
- *no* (but)
Kohk bifröd ime no na brokoli. I like cake but not broccoli.
Brokoli na bifröd ime, no me mast éfenwel iet. I don't like broccoli, but I ate it anyway.
- *ěǵ, ěd* (or)
(*Ěǵ* and *ěd* are interchangeable.)
Kümne ye ěǵ al ye? Are you coming or are you going?
M'al Samüdäi ěd Sonnendäi. I'm going on Saturday or Sunday.
- *n'ěǵ, n'ěd* (nor)
(*N'ěǵ* and *n'ěd* are interchangeable.)
Frégetšlúdes na tšoh isten Quizzes should be neither too easy
té luch n'ěd té swer. nor too difficult.
- *zo* (so)
E mast meü kohk, zo me mast eü knots. He ate my cake, so I ate his bun.

8.2 Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions link a main clause with a subordinate clause, and can be classified into a number of groups. For example:

- Complementisers: *tes* (that), *widar* (whether)
E säir tes et 'st kalt oter. He says [that] it's cold outside.
Me thakje tes et tsald I think [that] it will rain tonight.
régenen jexnin.
Me na wit widar et tsald I don't know whether it will rain
régenen morn. tomorrow.
 (Note that although "that" is optional in English in the above examples, *tes* is required in Jameld.)
- Time: *wen* (when), *wenpastš* (as soon as), *wil* (while)
Wen me wä yöng me mast When I was young I ate only crisps.
veln tšipes.
E less wenpastš e vista ime. He left as soon as he saw me.
Me waki TV wil me mest te I watch television while eating my
rastmest. breakfast.
- Cause: *pozirul* (because), *bisilt* (as, since)
Es slü ie pozirul e vista ax ies. She hit him because he looked at
 her.
Bisilt et wä ax te tsnöin, ven As it was snowing, we stayed in.
pustü inter.
- Condition: *eöx* (if), *zolink* (provided that), *snüŕ* (unless)
Me tsald isten lerid eöx me I will be there if I can.
zichte.
Me tsald isten leri snüŕ me I will be there unless I have to
mote wawüben la. work late.
- Comparison: *és eöx* (as if), *lauk és* (like), *as* (than), *intzo* (inasmuch as)
Tem festha lauk és et wä 1999. They partied like it was 1999.
Tšüeles itškauje zest Latin jüji Schools teach less Latin now than
as temt at inte 1950-s. they did in the 1950s.
- Purpose and result: *zo's* (so that), *vor* (in order to), *zowis tes* (in such a way that)
Kümneyë eri zo's me zicht Come here so that I can hear you.
hüaren iye.
Es stü vor visen ob temü She stood up in order to see over
chaas. their heads.
Tem tell zowis tes nan ew They fell in such a way that none of
itemt bruk. them broke.

- Concession: *tügo* (although, even if), *tretew* (despite), *zoerns* (as much as)
Tügo kohk bifröd ime, Although I like cake, I prefer
m'opkiysen raumis. ice cream.
Me na kessyon iye, tügo ye I wouldn't kiss you even if you
wäe rëzrich. were stinking rich.

These are not exhaustive lists.

9. Sentences, clauses and word order

9.1 Main clauses

Broadly speaking, the word order in Jameld is SVO, that is, Subject-Verb-Object. For instance:

<i>Ven mast te kohk.</i>	We ate the cake.
<i>Ven thrü te kohk i Haral.</i>	We threw the cake to Haral.

An indirect object can also come before the direct object:

<i>Ven thrü Haral te kohk.</i>	We threw Haral the cake.
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Adverbs modifying verbs tend to come straight after the verb concerned:

<i>Ven mast naw te kohk.</i>	We ate the cake quickly. (lit. We ate quickly the cake.)
<i>Tsé ven mast té naw iet.</i>	Maybe we ate it too quickly. (lit. Maybe we ate too quickly it.)

Note in that last example that the fronted “maybe” made no difference to the word order elsewhere; also, an adverbial phrase (here: *té naw*) will stick to the end of the verb en bloc and push the object later in the sentence.

Where the phrase involves an auxiliary verb and a verb infinitive, the adverb comes after the infinitive (but see also 6.7 EMPHATIC ADVERBS for an exception):

<i>Me tsald mesten naw te kohk.</i>	I will eat the cake quickly. (lit. I will to-eat quickly the cake.)
<i>E na zicht mesten naw kohk.</i>	He cannot eat cake quickly. (lit. He not can to-eat quickly cake.)

9.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are not inverted in Jameld, i.e. the verb does *not* move to the end of the clause. Relative clauses are underlined here as an aid to the reader:

Me jist te monn wi mackta te kohk.
I am the man who made the cake.

Te mazath wi thrü te kohk ġafta för.
The girl who threw the cake ran away.

Te kohk tes es thrü ax Haral wä mackti ük ime.
The cake that she threw at Haral was made by me.

When an adverb is involved, sense determines which verb it adheres to:

Me mackta te kohk tes ven {thrü jister} ax Haral.
I made the cake that we threw at Haral yesterday.
(i.e. it was thrown yesterday – lit. that we threw yesterday ...)

Me {mackta jister} te kohk tes ven thrü ax Haral.
I made the cake that we threw at Haral yesterday.
(i.e. it was made yesterday – lit. I made yesterday the cake ...)

Note that no comma is required before or after the relative clause in the examples above, all of which feature restrictive relative clauses. However, as noted in 4.6 RELATIVE PRONOUNS, there is a difference with non-restrictive relative clauses, as illustrated below (examples repeated from that section):

Te buhlen tes me rese jist böya üles.
The book [that] I am reading is about owls.

Te buhlen, wist me rese, jist böya üles.
The book, which [incidentally] I am reading, is about owls.

Here we have first a restrictive relative clause, without commas. However, as shown by the second example, with a non-restrictive relative clause a pair of commas are required.

Another example, with an introductory comma for the non-restrictive relative clause, but no closing comma as the end of the clause is coincident with the end of the sentence:

Me büyi zë eü buhlen tess deckes ist röt.
I always buy his books whose covers are red.
(= I always buy those of his books that have red covers.)

Me büyi zë eü buhlen, wis deckes ist röt.
I always buy his books, whose covers are red.
(= I always buy his books, the covers of which are generally red.)

Jameld avoids situations where the antecedent is the whole main clause, such as “He eats with his fingers, which doesn’t look very nice.” Here Jameld would use a different construction and separate the two clauses with a colon, as follows:

E mest met eü fingeres: et n’otvis precht.

He eats with his fingers: it doesn’t look very nice.

Compare the following, where there is a relative clause, and the antecedent is just “his fingers”:

E mest met eü fingeres, wist n’otvis precht.

He eats with his fingers, which don’t look very nice.

9.3 Questions

In forming questions, the verb is moved before the subject:

Mest ye kohk?

Do you eat cake?/Are you eating cake?
(lit. Eat you cake?)

Mest ye na kohk?

Don’t you eat cake?/Aren’t you eating cake?

Question words – *was* (“what”), *wi* (“who”), *au* (“where”) and so on – are inserted at the front of the sentence:

Was mest ye?

What do you eat?/What are you eating?
(lit. What eat you?)

Was mest ye na?

What don’t you eat?

Compare the following:

Metwi less iye?

With what did you leave?

Met wi less iye?

With whom did you leave?

Was less iye met?

What did you leave with?

Wi less iye met?

Who did you leave with?

This illustrates that compound interrogatives similarly go at the front of the sentence, and also that non-compound interrogatives may be preceded by a preposition – especially in formal contexts. (See also the notes in 4.8 INTERROGATIVES on such compounds.)

Thrü yen jister te kohk ax Haral?

Did you throw that cake at Haral
yesterday?

Note here that the adverb *jister* has not stuck to the verb, which has been fronted. The adverb is in the same place it would have been if this had been a statement rather than a question, i.e. "You threw that cake at Haral yesterday."

If the question involves a modal auxiliary, the modal is fronted but the infinitive remains where it would have been in a declarative sentence:

Will ye alen?

Do you want to go?
(lit. Want you to-go?)

*Will ye na alen?**

Don't you want to go?
(lit. Want you not to-go?)

In indirect questions, the verb is in the same position that it would be in a declarative sentence:

Es frog umwi ye na mest te kohk. She asked why you are not eating the cake.

Tem will können widar ye tsald alen jexnin. They would like to know whether you will be going tonight.

9.4 Tag questions

In Jameld tag questions may take a number of forms. The first and most common option is a short particle or phrase:

- Negative tags after positive statements: *na* ("not"), *na wér* ("not true")

Ye tsald isten leri, na?) You will be there, won't you?
Ye tsald isten leri, na wér?)

Te kohk eri'st ickal, na?) This cake's horrible, isn't it?
Te kohk eri'st ickal, na wér?)

- Positive tags after negative statements: *zo* ("so")

Et na tsald isten kalt, zo? It won't be cold, will it?
Me na jist té la, zo? I'm not too late, am I?

* *Na* does not elide before infinitives (compare 4.1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS for a similar case of non-elision).

These are the most simple forms of tag questions. However, there is another more formal option, involving the use of auxiliary verbs, similar to English “aren’t you?”, “did it?”, “won’t I?” and so on. The following examples do not constitute an exhaustive list.

- Negative tags after positive statements, with *isten* (“to be”)
Te kohk eri’st ickal, jist et na? This cake’s horrible, isn’t it?
Te programa wä strelin, That programme was brilliant,
wä et na? wasn’t it?
- Negative tags after positive statements, with *ären* (“to do”)
Me liub tšsipes, äre me na? I love crisps, don’t I?
Tem mest jorse, äre tem na? They eat horses, don’t they?
Yen olt i Lüach, at yen na? You went to Liège, didn’t you?

NB: Where English would use “haven’t you?”, “hasn’t he?”, etc. after perfect forms, Jameld uses *ären*:

Yen alave i Lüach, at yen na? You’ve been to Liège, haven’t you?
(lit. didn’t you?)

- Negative tags after positive statements, with *aven* (“to have”)
Et ave threunaupert iys, ave It’s got 300 eyes, hasn’t it?
et na?

NB: Where English would use “didn’t you?”, “doesn’t he?”, etc. after “had”, Jameld uses *aven*:

Y’aa an röti Lada, aa ye na? You had a red Lada, didn’t you?
(lit. hadn’t you?)

- Negative tags after positive statements, with *tšald* (“will”)
Ye tšald isten leri, tšald ye na? You will be there, won’t you?
- Positive tags after negative statements, with *isten* (“to be”)
Me na jist té la, jist me? I’m not too late, am I?
Ye na wä te threntš monn, You weren’t the third man, were you?
wä ye?
- Positive tags after negative statements, with *ären* (“to do”)
Tem na mest jorse, äre tem? They don’t eat horses, do they?
Es na seta et, at es? She didn’t say that, did she?

NB: Where English would use “have you?”, “has he?”, etc. after perfect forms, Jameld uses *ären*:

Yen n’alave i Lüach, at yen? You haven’t been to Liège, have you?
(lit. did you?)

- Positive tags after negative statements, with *willen* (“to want”)
Ye na will paptf̃sen met ime, You don’t want to talk to me, do you?
will ye? (lit. want you?)
- Positive tags after negative statements, with *aven* (“to have”)
Ye n’ave te grip, ave ye? You haven’t got flu, have you?

NB: Where English would use “did you?”, “does he?”, etc. after “didn’t have”, Jameld uses *aven*:

Et n’aa grundi dantes, aa et? It didn’t have big teeth, did it?
(lit. had it?)

- Positive tags after negative statements, with *tsald* (“will”)
Et na tsald isten kalt, tsald et? It won’t be cold, will it?

Unbalanced tag questions (positive tags after positive statements) are often used in English for confrontational or ironic effect (“Oh, you do, do you?”) or to confirm new information (“You were there, were you?”). Such tag questions cannot be translated literally into Jameld. Jameld has its own mechanisms for conveying such nuanced meanings; the significant words in the examples below are surrounded by braces to aid the reader.

- Confrontation
Will ye {sī} paptf̃sen met ime? You want to talk to me, do you?
(lit. Want you {indeed} to-speak ...)
- Surprise
{Aah welzo}, jist me jüji an kakrelat? Oh, I’m a cockroach now, am I?
(lit. {Ah well then}, am I now ...)
- Sarcasm
{Zowér}, jist me an masochist wi fulye an diét? So I’m a masochist on a diet, am I?
(lit. {Actually}, am I a masochist who follows a diet?)

- Confirmation of new information

{Zovor}, bëss e iye?

He bit you, did he?

(lit. {Consequently}, bit he you?)

{Zovor}, wä yen leri?

You were there, were you?

(lit. {Hence}, were you there?)

Needless to say, the tone of voice will also play a part in each of these cases.

10. Word stress

In Jameld, the stress normally falls on the first syllable of the word. However, there are many exceptions, including most words that are formed of a root and a prefix (where the stress normally falls on the first syllable of the root).

In the Jameld–English section of the dictionary, word stress is marked by the use of subscript diacritics under the vowel of the stressed syllable, where this is not the first syllable, or where the length of the vowel is not as expected.

An inverted breve below (thus: **ḁ**) indicates that the vowel in the stressed syllable is short.

anḁnas <i>n</i> pineapple

NB: Inverted breve is also sometimes used in the dictionary to indicate an unexpected short vowel in an *unstressed* syllable; if so, more than one vowel in the word will have a stress mark and an IPA transcription will also be given.

A macron below (**ā**) indicates that the vowel in the stressed syllable is long.

boga <i>n</i> bow (<i>curved thing</i>), selection

Dot below (**ḁ**) always indicates a long vowel in an unstressed syllable.

ḁtḁnd <i>a/adv</i> outward(s)

These subscript diacritics are not, of course, part of Jameld, and should not be used when writing in the language. They are purely used in the dictionary as a shorthand, to avoid having to provide an IPA transcription for every headword.

11. Numerals

11.1 Cardinal and ordinal numbers

NB: In the table below, the symbol Δ indicates that the form is not entirely regular.

	(cardinal)	(ordinal)
0	<i>zo, zaurōt*</i>	—
1	<i>aunt</i>	<i>auntŧŧ, vorūt**</i>
2	<i>tī</i>	<i>tītŧ, uth***</i>
3	<i>thren</i>	<i>threntŧ</i>
4	<i>vour</i>	<i>vourŧŧ</i>
5	<i>fēfe</i>	Δ <i>fēftŧ</i>
6	<i>zix</i>	<i>zixŧŧ</i>
7	<i>ŧŧébun, ŧŧén#</i>	<i>ŧŧébuntŧ</i>
8	<i>ight</i>	<i>ightŧŧ</i>
9	<i>neōn</i>	<i>neōntŧ</i>
10	<i>temz</i>	Δ <i>temŧŧ</i>
11	<i>anlav, temzaunt##</i>	Δ <i>anlaŧŧ, temzauntŧŧ</i>
12	<i>talav, temzti###</i>	Δ <i>talatŧ, temztiŧŧ</i>
13	<i>temzthren</i>	<i>temzthrentŧ</i>
14	<i>temzvour</i>	<i>temzvourŧŧ</i>
15	<i>temzfēfe</i>	Δ <i>temzfēftŧ</i>
16	Δ <i>temzix</i>	Δ <i>temzixŧŧ</i>
17	Δ <i>temŧŧébun</i>	Δ <i>temŧŧébuntŧ</i>
18	<i>temzight</i>	<i>temzightŧŧ</i>
19	<i>temzneōn</i>	<i>temzneōntŧ</i>

* For the differences between *zaurōt* and *zo*, see 11.5 ZERO, NOUGHT, NIL, ETC.

** *Auntŧŧ* and *vorūt* differ somewhat in usage: *auntŧŧ* tends to be used to indicate first of a small or specified number, such as in a race or competition, whereas *vorūt* suggests “first of all”, “foremost”. There are no hard and fast rules, however, and different speakers vary.

*** *Tītŧ* and *uth* differ in usage: any context where the connection with the number two is strong will favour *tītŧ*, such as second in a race or sequence. If there are only two or three people or items involved, a Jameld-speaker is much more likely to use *uth* (literally, “(an)other”) than an English-speaker would be to refer to the second following a reference to the first. Different speakers vary in their usage of these words, though.

ŧŧén (originally a dialectal variation of *ŧŧébun*) is now widely used in informal Jameld; *ŧŧébun* remains the standard form in formal writing.

The revived archaic and dialectal forms *anlav* and *anlaŧŧ* are now the usual words for 11 and 11th, whereas the formerly dominant *temzaunt(ŧŧ)* is now reserved for very formal contexts.

Regarding *talav/talatŧ* and *temzti(ŧŧ)*, see the note above about *anlav*.

20	<i>twansi</i>	<i>twansit̩s</i>
21	<i>twansiaunt</i>	<i>twansiaunt̩s</i>
22	<i>twansiti</i>	<i>twansitit̩s</i>
23	<i>twansithren</i>	<i>twansithrent̩s</i>
24	<i>twansivour</i>	<i>twansivourt̩s</i>
25	<i>twansifēfe</i>	Δ <i>twansifēft̩s</i>
26	<i>twansizix</i>	<i>twansizixt̩s</i>
27	<i>twansit̩sé bun</i>	<i>twansit̩sé bunt̩s</i>
28	<i>twansiight</i>	<i>twansiight̩s</i>
29	<i>twansineön</i>	<i>twansineönt̩s</i>
30	<i>thrensi</i>	<i>thrensit̩s</i>
40	<i>voursi</i>	<i>voursit̩s</i>
50	Δ <i>fēfsi</i>	Δ <i>fēfsit̩s</i>
60	<i>zixsi</i>	<i>zixsit̩s</i>
70	Δ <i>t̩sébsi</i>	Δ <i>t̩sébsit̩s</i>
80	<i>ightsi</i>	<i>ightsit̩s</i>
90	<i>neönsi</i>	<i>neönsit̩s</i>
100	<i>(an) auntert</i>	<i>auntert̩s</i>
101	<i>auntertaunt</i> (NB: no “and”)	<i>auntertaunt̩s</i>
102	<i>auntertti</i>	<i>aunterttit̩s</i>
110	<i>aunterttemz</i>	Δ <i>aunterttem̩s</i>
200	<i>t̩auntert</i>	<i>t̩auntertt̩s</i>
729	<i>t̩sébunaunterttwansineön</i>	<i>t̩sébunaunterttwansineönt̩s</i>
1,000	<i>(an) athmild</i>	<i>athmild̩s</i>
1,001	<i>athmild aunt</i>	<i>athmild aunt̩s</i>
1,111	<i>athmild auntertanlav</i>	<i>athmild auntertanlat̩s</i>
2,000	<i>t̩iathmild</i>	<i>t̩iathmild̩s</i>
10,000	<i>temzathmild</i>	<i>temzathmild̩s</i>
1,000,000	<i>(aunt)million</i>	<i>million̩s</i>
1,000,000,000	<i>(aunt)billion</i>	<i>billion̩s</i>
9,876,543,210	<i>neönbillion ighauntertt̩sébsizixmillion</i> <i>fēfeauntertvoursithrenathmild</i> <i>t̩aunterttemz</i>	<i>neönbillion</i> <i>ighauntertt̩sébsizixmillion</i> <i>fēfeauntertvoursithrenathmild</i> <i>t̩aunterttem̩s</i>

11.2 Writing numbers

When writing large numbers, use a space as the thousands separator (not comma, as in English):

1 009
24 951
78 900 110

When writing large numbers in words, begin a new word at the point where there would be a thousands separator, after the word *athmild*:

twansivourathmild neönauntertfëfsiaunt 24,951

A space is also required after *million*, *billion* and higher multipliers.

temzëfemillion vourauntertathmild 25,400,000

When writing numbers with figures, the letter *tš* is added to indicate ordinals. This *tš* is sometimes formatted as superscript.

93^{tš} or 93^{tš}

11.3 Fractions

Fractions are normally the same as the ordinal numbers:

<i>an fëftš</i>	one-fifth
<i>thren ighttšes</i>	three-eighths

Even “third” and “quarter” are the same as the ordinals for “third”^{*} and “fourth”:

<i>tš threntšes ete kohk</i>	two-thirds of the cake
<i>an vourtš mil</i>	a quarter of a mile

Note, however, that when referring to quarters of an hour the word *quart* is used:

<i>an quart</i>	a quarter of an hour
<i>an threnquart</i>	three-quarters of an hour

^{*} The archaic *threned* can safely be ignored by the learner.

There are two words that mean “half”, *twaned* and *jel*. *Jel* tends to be the more common in use, although its habit of forming compounds meaning “halfway to” can unnerve the learner; note also that *twaned* and *jel* are not used in the same way as each other:

<i>an jel kohk</i>	half a cake
<i>jelblind</i>	half blind
<i>jel ew ime</i>	half of me
<i>uthjel</i>) one and a half (also: half past one)
<i>aunt und twaned</i>)
<i>threnjel</i>) two and a half (also: half past two)
<i>tī und twaned</i>)
<i>vourjel</i>) three and a half (also: half past three)
<i>thren und twaned</i>)
<i>fëfjel</i>) four and a half (also: half past four)
<i>vour und twaned</i>)
<i>talavjel</i>) eleven and a half (also: half past
<i>anlav und twaned</i>) eleven)

From 12½ upwards, the *-jel* forms cannot be used:

<i>talav und twaned</i>	twelve and a half
-------------------------	-------------------

See also 11.10 TIMES.

11.4 Decimals

The decimal marker is comma, thus:

5,1 (read: *fëfe komma aunt*)

11.5 Zero, nought, nil, etc.

The Jameld words *zaurot* and *zo* both mean “zero”, but tend to be used in slightly different contexts.

Zaurot is used when the meaning is “zero”, alone.

<i>Te t̥san vor luk jist zaurot.</i>	The chances of success are zero.
<i>Et wés smelan zaurot kohkas oberi.</i>	There are exactly zero cakes left.
<i>... thren, t̥i, aunt, zaurot!</i>	... Three, two, one, zero! (in a countdown)
<i>Vor hüaren te kures d̥ev̥ö, press zaurot.</i>	To hear these options again, press zero.

Zo is more likely to be used in connection with other numbers, such as in scorelines, serial numbers, times and decimals.

<i>Wissembörg slü San Marino t̥i-zo.</i>	FC 1920 Wissembourg beat San Marino two-nil.
--	--

<i>Serianümbren vour vour, zo zo aunt</i>	Serial number 44-001
---	----------------------

<i>Zo neön zo zo t̥süдрес</i>	0900 hours
-------------------------------	------------

<i>Zo komma zix zo f̥êfe</i>	0.605
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11.6 Roman numerals

Roman numerals are infrequently used in Jameld, except for monarchical ordinals (consistently so), centuries (formerly common, now less so) and occasionally for volume or chapter numbers.

Ælvard II (read: *Ælvard T̥i*, not *Ælvard te T̥i t̥s*)

XXI AY (read: *twansiaunt t̥s auntertyura*)

Del V (read: *Del F̥êfe*)

11.7 Age

In modern standard Jameld, one “is” however many years old; one does not “have” those years. (Note, though, that some Vestzur speakers do use the verb “have” in this context.)

<i>Wauweth eld jist ye?</i>	How old (lit. how much old) are you?
<i>Me’st neön yuras eld.</i>	I’m nine.
<i>Ye bipart lauk an zixyurar.</i>	You’re behaving like a six-year-old.

<i>Me drif an temzyuraitš Alfa Romeo.</i>	I drive a ten-year-old Alfa Romeo.
<i>E jist wil eü hi temze.</i>	He's in his late teens.
<i>Es jist wil esü thrensiyuras.</i>	She's in her thirties.

11.8 Money

There is more than one way of expressing amounts of money in Jameld:

€14,95 (read: *temzvour euro neönsifëfe [cent]*, or *temzvour neönsifëfe*)
€0,60 (read: *zixsi cent*, or *zo zixsi*)

The old Zuran *merka* currency has long since been phased out in favour of the euro, but many older Jameld-speakers still refer to amounts in terms of *merk*as. The euro was roughly equivalent to four *merk*as, and so a price of €27 might be seen as “just over Mka 100”.

<i>Twansitšëbun euro? Et'st ober an auntert merk</i> as!	€27? That's more than Mka 100!
--	--------------------------------

Prices in *merk*as were formerly written in the following format: *Mka*, then the number of *merk*as, then an oblique stroke, then a small raised figure to indicate the number of quarter-*merk*as. For example:

Mka 10 ² (read: <i>temz merk</i> as <i>tī</i>)	= Mka 10,50
--	-------------

This even went so far as quarters of quarters:

Mka 2 ^{3/3} (read: <i>tī merk</i> as <i>thren und thren</i>)	= Mka 2,93¾
--	-------------

Perhaps fortunately, decimalisation brought an end to this delightfully baroque system.

11.9 Dates

The months of the year and the days of the week are as follows:

Et possta Wojensdäi 31tš Januar It happened on Wednesday,
1973. 31 January 1973.
(Read: *thrensiaunttš Januar temzneönauntertšébsithren*)
Note the ordinal number for the date; no “the” or “of”; and that the
auntert (“hundred”) is not omitted.

1904 (read: *temzneönauntertvour*)
 1982 (read: *temzneönauntertightsiti*)
 2000 (read: *tiathmild*)
 2004 (read: *twansiauntertvour*)
 Note the use of “two thousand” for the year 2000 alone, after which usage reverted to “twenty hundred”. Also that there is no “oh” for the zero before the four.

1900-es	(read: <i>temzneönauntertes</i>)
1980-s / 80-s	(read: <i>temzneönauntertightsis, ightsis</i>)
1990-s / 90-s	(read: <i>temzneönauntertneönsis, neönsis</i>)
2000-es	(read: <i>tiäthmildes</i>)
2010-e	(read: <i>twansiaunterttemze</i>)
2020-s	(read: <i>twansiaunterttwansis</i>)

Centuries are named with ordinal numbers, e.g. *te twansiaunttṣ auntertyura* (“the twenty-first century”). In writing the convention is to precede the abbreviation AY with either Roman numerals with no ordinal *tṣ* (now less common), or with standard numerals with an ordinal *tṣ*, thus:

XXI AY = 21tṣ AY

11.10 Times

Times in Jameld may be expressed using either the 12-hour or the 24-hour clock. Traditional, 12-hour times may include or omit the word *tṣüdre[s]* (“hour[s]”), and those involving half hours may use either of two forms.*

(12-hour style)	(24-hour style)
00:30 <i>jeltṣüdre / talav [tṣüdres] und twaned</i>	<i>zo zo thrensi tṣüdres</i>
01:00 <i>aunt [tṣüdre]</i>	<i>zo aunt zo zo tṣüdres</i>
01:30 <i>uthjel / aunt [tṣüdre] und twaned</i>	<i>zo aunt thrensi tṣüdres</i>
02:00 <i>tī [tṣüdres]</i>	<i>zo tī zo zo tṣüdres</i>
02:10 <i>tī [tṣüdres] und temz</i>	<i>zo tī temz tṣüdres</i>
02:15 <i>tī [tṣüdres] und quart</i>	<i>zo tī temzfēfe tṣüdres</i>
02:30 <i>threnjel / tī [tṣüdres] und twaned</i>	<i>zo tī thrensi tṣüdres</i>
02:40 <i>twansi i thren [tṣüdres]</i>	<i>zo tī voursi tṣüdres</i>
02:45 <i>quart i thren [tṣüdres]</i>	<i>zo tī voursifēfe tṣüdres</i>
03:00 <i>thren [tṣüdres]</i>	<i>zo thren zo zo tṣüdres</i>
12:00 <i>talav [tṣüdres] / mitdāi</i>	<i>talav zo zo tṣüdres</i>
13:00 <i>aunt [tṣüdre]</i>	<i>temzthren zo zo tṣüdres</i>
20:00 <i>ight [tṣüdres]</i>	<i>twansi zo zo tṣüdres</i>
23:30 <i>talavjel / anlav [tṣüdres] und twaned</i>	<i>twansithren thrensi tṣüdres</i>
00:00 <i>talav [tṣüdres] / mitnin</i>	<i>zo zo zo zo tṣüdres</i>

Was wīz t’or?

Et wīz thren tṣüdres.

Et’st vourjel.

Ax temzthren zo zo tṣüdres.

Vorvor zix tṣüdres.

Pastṣ neōn und twaned.

What’s the time?

(lit. What shows the clock?)

The time is three o’clock.

It’s half past three.

At 1300 hours.

By six o’clock.

After 9.30.

* See also 11.3 FRACTIONS.

Although the format 14:05 is widely used for the 24-hour clock, many Jamelftſes prefer the more Jameld-specific 14^{tſ}05 style, and you will often see this on signs. Sometimes the time will even be styled like this:

14^T05

Unlike the ordinal ^{tſ}, this “hour” ^{tſ} is never formatted as superscript.

For clarification when using the 12-hour clock, the following terms may be used in speech, after the time itself, to specify whether a.m. or p.m. is intended:

<i>vorvormit'ü</i>	in the morning
<i>mitdäi</i>	noon
<i>pastſmit'ü</i>	in the afternoon/evening
<i>vatſind'ü</i>	in the evening
<i>int nin</i>) at night / in the small hours
<i>nins</i>)
<i>int t'ülſüdres</i>	in the small hours
<i>mitnin</i>	midnight

For example:

T'abpaptth jist ax thren pastſmit'ü.

The appointment is at three in the afternoon.

12-hour times are normally written with the abbreviations *vorü* and *pasü* (*vorvormit'ü*, a.m., and *pastſmit'ü*, p.m., respectively):

9 ^{tſ} <i>vorü</i>	9 a.m.
9 ^{tſ} 30 <i>vorü</i>	9.30 a.m.
12 ^{tſ} <i>mitdäi</i>	12 noon
9 ^{tſ} <i>pasü</i>	9 p.m.
9 ^{tſ} 30 <i>pasü</i>	9.30 p.m.
12 ^{tſ} <i>mitnin</i>	12 midnight

11.11 Temperatures

The Jameld word for “degree” is *grada*.

15° or 15 °C (read: *temzfëfe gradas*)

Et'st vour gradas.

It's four degrees.

<i>Et'st vour gradas ober zo.</i>	It's four degrees above zero.
<i>Et'st mōnōs vour gradas.</i>	It's minus four degrees.
<i>Et'st vour gradas unter zo.</i>	It's four degrees below zero.

11.12 Weights and measures

The metric system is in general usage in Zuraaland. The basic unit of length is the *meter*, and the basic unit of weight is the *kilograma*, often referred to as the *kilo*. The *liter* is the basic unit of volume. With reference to computing, the Jameld spellings of “byte” and “bit” are *bita* and *bit* respectively. Standard SI abbreviations are used.

The standard metric prefixes are used, with minor alterations to suit Jameld spelling conventions:

<i>tera</i>	10^{12}	tera
<i>giga</i>	10^9	giga
<i>mega</i>	10^6	mega
<i>kilo</i>	10^3	kilo
<i>hekto</i>	10^2	hecto
<i>deka</i>	10^1	deca
	10^0	
<i>deki</i>	10^{-1}	deci
<i>kenti</i>	10^{-2}	centi
<i>mili</i>	10^{-3}	milli
<i>mikro</i>	10^{-6}	micro
<i>nano</i>	10^{-9}	nano
<i>piko</i>	10^{-12}	pico

Hence:

50 μg (read: *fěfsi mikrogramas*)

150 g (read: *auntertfěfsi gramas*)

70 kg (read: *tšébsi kilogramas*)

Also:

an pun) a pound/half-kilo (500 g)

an jel kilo)

an dass 10 kg

5 km (read: *fěfe kilometers*)

16 mm = 1,6 cm (read: *temzix milimeteres ist yilauk aunt komma zix kentimeteres*)

12 000 m² (read: *talavathmild quadretmeteres*)

Also:

<i>an thüm</i>	2 cm
<i>an hant</i>	10 cm
<i>an spen</i>	20 cm
<i>an föd</i>	30 cm

1 L = 0,001 m³ (read: *aunt liter jist yilauk zo komma zo zo aunt kübiṯs meteres*)

75 cl (read: *ṯsébsifēfe kentiliteres*)

Also:

an quint 0.25 L

2 TB (read: *tī terabītas*)

8 Mbps (read: *ight megabit-es par sekunda*)

The units *pun*, *dass*, *föd*, *thüm*, *hant*, *spen* and *quint* are all ancient, now obsolete, Jameldic measures that have taken on new informal meanings under the metric system. For details of the former Jameldic system of weights and measures, see the article under “Weights and Measures” in the *Encyclopædia Jameldica*.

11.13 Telephone numbers

As Zuraaland is served by the French telephone system, Zuran telephone numbers are of ten digits, conventionally read as five pairs:

03 99 99 00 50 (read: *zo-thren neönsineön neönsineön zo-zo fēṯsi*)

International numbers, of course, do not necessarily fall neatly into this pattern; they are read in groups of two or three digits as seems appropriate:

+422 90 00 099 (read: *plus vouraunterttwansitī neönsi zo-zo zoauntertneönsineön* – note the “oh hundred”)

11.14 “Dozen” and approximate numbers

The following Jameld expressions indicate approximate numbers of items, in a similar way to “dozen” or “half a dozen” in English. Note that if the exact number is known, these terms would be unlikely to be used, unless the speaker were trying to obfuscate the true value for some reason.

<i>an äjen</i>	about eight
<i>an tejen</i>	about ten
<i>an duzen</i>	about twelve

Rarely, multiples of the above may occur:

<i>an fëftejen</i>	50 or so
--------------------	----------

<i>E h'ave an äjen elzares.</i>	He has eight or so polecats.
<i>Me mast an duzen twiṯses.</i>	I ate a dozen damsons.

11.15 Repetition and multiplication

A number of additional Jameld expressions exist in connection with numerical repetition and multiplication:

- *-fald*

<i>threnfald</i>	threefold
<i>temzfald</i>	tenfold
<i>auntertfald</i>	hundredfold
<i>wëthfald</i>	manyfold, [by] many times
- *-s* (see also 6.7 ADVERBS OF TIME AND THE -S SUFFIX)

<i>aunts</i>	once
<i>tīs</i>	twice
<i>threns</i>	thrice, three times
<i>vours</i>	four times
<i>fëfs</i>	five times
<i>wëths</i>	many times
<i>zaurots</i>	no times, never
- *-pel*

<i>auntpel</i>	single
<i>tīpel</i>	double
<i>threpel</i>	triple
<i>vourpel</i>	quadruple
<i>fëfpel</i>	quintuple
- *-pelar*

<i>auntpelar</i>	child of single birth
<i>tīpelar</i>	twin
<i>threpelar</i>	triplet
<i>vourpelar</i>	quadruplet

fëfpelar

quintuplet

- When referring to groups a genitive construction is often used:
an grup vourü a party of four
ven ist threnü there are three of us

12. Orthography, spelling and punctuation

12.1 Alphabet

The Jameld alphabet has 27 letters, thus:

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S TŠ T U V W X Y Z

In addition, there are six additional vowels, and one additional consonant, with diacritics:

Ä Ê Ë Ī Ő Ŭ Ğ

These are not considered separate letters of the alphabet, and words containing these characters are by convention sorted alphabetically along with words without the diacritics. For example, in a telephone directory *Älrich* would appear between *Alpin* and *Alster*. Non-Jameld-native diacriticised letters such as à or ô are also sorted as if there were no diacritic.

In the days of typewriters (and, for that matter, up to the present date), with special Jameldic characters not being available when typing or texting, the following conventions were/are applied:

- Ä Ê Ë Ī Ő Ŭ were/are usually accessible (e.g. on French typewriters and computer keyboards there were keys for lower-case “é” and a dead key for diaeresis); otherwise, the unaccented letter would suffice (especially the case for Ē and Ī, which until recently were a problem on many mobile phones).
- TŠ and Ğ, it was generally accepted, would not be available, so TS and G had to suffice until Jameld fonts became more widely available to PC users. The TS and G convention remains in online contexts (e-mail, instant messaging, microblogging, fora) and in texting and other mobile-phone use. Some websites make use of certain “close enough” substitutes, such as the Turkish g with breve (ğ) and ts with macron (tš).

Throughout the ages, of course, professional typesetters producing Jameld newspapers, magazines, books, pamphlets, letterheads and so on prided themselves on doing a proper job with the proper Jameld characters – often obtained at considerable expense.

The spelling alphabet below, or close variants of it, is used for clarity when spelling names over the telephone etc.:

A	A lauk Aajen	M	M lauk Michal
Ä	A-pünkti lauk Älvard	N	N lauk Nadina
B	B lauk Bartel	O	O lauk Oktobü
C	C lauk Chadof	Ö	O-pünkti lauk Öls
D	D lauk Dasswight	P	P lauk Petersil
E	E lauk Elsaas	Q	Q lauk Quadret
É	E-akut lauk Ékelacker	R	R lauk Rothtar
Ě	E-pünkti lauk Ěxar	S	S lauk Siyistha
F	F lauk Filip	ṪṢ	ṪṢ lauk Ṫšarlota
G	G lauk Grautghreg	T	T lauk Tomas
Ĝ	Ĝ lauk Ĝeligh	U	U lauk Ulvita
H	H lauk Haral	Ŭ	U-pünkti lauk Ŭladeck
I	I lauk Iylid	V	V lauk Vias
Ī	I-pünkti lauk Īkon	W	W lauk Wezlen
J	J lauk Jorthel	X	X lauk Xolb
K	K lauk Kastané	Y	Y lauk Yenevra
L	L lauk Ladiġ	Z	Z lauk Zur-aa

12.2 Capitalisation

In Jameld, the first word in the sentence is capitalised, as is the first word in a quotation within a sentence.

E seta: »Me jist eld.« He said, "I am old."

However, if the particle 'e' appears first in a sentence, it is not capitalised, and the following word is:

'e Staren jist swer, eõx ye sé an jertja ohn is.
Standing is difficult, if you're a baby deer on ice.

Names of months, days of the week, countries and nationalities are also capitalised.

Te tīš Wojensdāi int Febrar jist an speziali dāi vor Jameltšes paġe int Zuraalant.

The second Wednesday in February is a special day for all Jameltsh in Zuraaland.

Country and place names that in English are made up of two or more capitalised words may be one compound word in Jameld:

<i>Nüdmiyr</i>	North Sea
<i>Tsoirkwadin</i>	Black Forest

or a hyphenated compound (a hyphen having been inserted under the special conditions outlined in 12.5 COMPOUND WORDS AND HYPHENATION), with only the first part capitalised:

<i>Rin-aa</i>	River Rhine (lit. Rhine-river)
<i>Vërdindass-strät</i>	Badger Street

or hyphenated, with both parts capitalised (typically where the second part is itself a proper name):

<i>Vest-Dëttsi</i>	West Germany
<i>Tstät-Lüxembörg</i>	Luxembourg City

or, as in English, separate capitalised words (for instance, as here, where the first part is an adjective but the second part is not in itself a proper name):

<i>Tësechaz Republik</i>	Czech Republic
<i>Unti Köizrich</i>	United Kingdom

Personal names and titles are capitalised; note, however, that surname prefixes such as *te* and *ot* are not capitalised:

Prof. Alezandra Wenjelsbek
Wulfrik ot Swije

In the names of works, all words except non-initial articles, short prepositions and conjunctions are by convention capitalised:

Te Buhlen ew Ernsi Thäches böya an Ethelknucht ot Zur
The Book of Solemn Thoughts about a Knight from Zur

12.3 Apostrophe

In Jameld, the apostrophe is used to mark elision, as in:

<i>t'amar</i> (< <i>te amar</i>)	the bin
<i>m'eskrë</i> (< <i>me eskrë</i>)	I wrote
<i>ven'st</i> (< <i>ven ist</i>)	we are (informal)
<i>me tsa'</i> (< <i>me tsald</i>)	I will (informal)

When representing a trailing off in reported speech, the ellipsis (...) is not used in Jameld; rather, the convention is two en dashes separated by and surrounded by spaces:

»Et bitrau ime – – zoerns« e seta. »Me na känne was, ëd wau, me tsoh – – «
"I'm so ... so very sorry," he said. "I just don't know what, or how, to ..."

12.5 Compound words and hyphenation

In Jameld, compounds are normally written as one word, in the same manner as most other Germanic languages:

frégetaaken = *frége* + *taaken* (question mark)

platnesüchkléth = *platne* + *süch[en]* + *kléth* (teatowel)

Hengistbörgkaap (Hengistbury Head – place name)

Where a component of the compound is shared by two or more other components, a hyphen and space are necessary:

muth- und klausiuch (foot-and-mouth disease)

optstüzin- und lantinvias (runway, lit. taking-off and landing road)

A hyphen is normally inserted in compound words before a short component (one or two letters long) that begins with a vowel, after a short component (one or two letters long) ending in a vowel, or for clarity (e.g. where one component is an abbreviation or contains a hyphen already, or where there is a clash of identical letters):

Zur-aa (River Sauer)

e-pofst-adressa (e-mail address)

PIN-kode (PIN code)

kö-missa (chat message)

Vërdindass-strät (a street name)

However, the hyphen tends to be omitted before the vowel in compounds of more than two parts:

Zuraalant = *Zur* + *aa* + *lant* (Zuraaland)

ätistartstemwerk = *ät* + *istar* + *tstemwerk* (air-conditioning)

The hyphen (or often, in handwriting and book printing, the double oblique hyphen, thus: ⁂) is used when breaking a long word over two lines:

Te restaurant ohn Hengistbörgkaap ave nüaw Nitharlantaz ätistartstemwerk, und zovor et blire kohl wen te dāi jist tsrat.

Or:
Te restaurant ohn Hengistbörgkaap ave nüaw Nitharlantaz ätistartstemwerk, und zovor et blire kohl wen te dāi jist tsrat.

12.6 Foreign words

With place names, brand names and other proper nouns, the convention is to capitalise. There is no need to otherwise mark the word as “foreign”:

Wés an Nando’s int Tbilisi?
Is there a Nando’s in Tbilisi?

With other foreign words, until they have been naturalised (and, if necessary, written with Jameldic spelling), italics or quotation marks tend to be used:

E sochta erns vor te mot juste.
He groped for the *mot juste*.

Te Déttšazes ave »Schadenfreude«; ven ave zatšandfröda.
The Germans have “Schadenfreude”; we have “zatšandfröda”.

»Wulne ye an ‘jelly baby’?« frog te Doktor.
“Would you like a jelly baby?” asked the Doctor.

13. Spoken Jameld, informality and dialects

13.1 Contractions

Contractions are common in spoken Jameld, e.g.

<i>me jist</i> → <i>me'st</i>	I'm
<i>ye jist</i> → <i>ye'st</i>	you're
<i>et jist</i> → <i>et'st</i>	it's
<i>ven ist</i> → <i>ven'st</i>	we're
<i>et eri jist</i> → <i>et eri'st</i>	this one's
<i>tšald</i> → <i>tša'</i>	will
<i>kümne</i> → <i>küm</i>	come
<i>zicht me?</i> → <i>zicha?</i>	may I?
<i>met te</i> → <i>mete</i>	with the

(The above are to be distinguished from *me*, *ye*, *na* and *te* eliding to *m'*, *y'*, *n'* and *t'* before vowels, which are required in modern standard Jameld. It is considered incorrect to write or say **me olt* or **te ül*.)

Additionally, certain other combinations also contract or are simplified in speech. For example, verbs whose present indicative ends in *-je* or *-ye* can become contracted before *ye* or *yen*:

Was thakje ye? → *Was thak' ye?* What do you think?

13.2 Discourse particles

Speakers often make use of so-called discourse particles or fillers, as a placeholder while planning what to say next, when uncertain or to introduce a topic the hearer won't like. Jameld discourse particles include the following:

<i>ans</i>	some) uncertainty, hesitation
<i>er</i>	er, um)
<i>intedédh</i>	actually)
<i>öh</i>	er, um)
<i>zolink</i>	as long as)
<i>vass ye</i>	you understand) "you see"
<i>zo</i>	so, thus)
<i>zowis</i>	thus)

<i>zovor</i>	so, thus	linking to previous utterance
<i>zochan</i>	like that) something like that
<i>zochans</i>	some like that)
<i>zoch'nan</i>	one like that)
<i>wel</i>	well) rebooting conversation
<i>welzo</i>	well then)
<i>zowel</i>	anyway)
<i>zowér</i>	actually	introducing unwelcome topic

Zo also fills another role as an emphatic when scolding or warning children or subordinates (or jocularly pretending to do so):

<i>Rohk zo!</i>	Take care!
<i>Endiyè zo!</i>	Stop that!

See also sections 4.1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS, 4.9 IMPERSONAL *ET* AND “IT”, 5.14 PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE and 5.16 PAST SUBJUNCTIVE for additional information about informal usage.

13.3 Dialects

A full discussion of Jameld dialects is beyond the scope of this slim volume. However, the descriptions that follow should suffice to illustrate the major differences and features of the three main dialects, while touching briefly on important sub-dialects.

- Üstzur (“East Zur”)

The main literary dialect and traditionally the most prestigious, Üstzur is spoken in the east of Zuraaland. “Modern standard Jameld”, as generally documented in the present dictionary and grammar, is defined as the educated speech of Jameld-speaking residents of Wissembörg and the Üstzur region, which includes Sténselz and Ridselz, close to the capital; the lowlands east of the central ridge; Sülz and the villages of Mitlant prining in the south (in some of which a transitional dialect is spoken); and Hunsbach in the south-east, which has some minor but distinctive features in its dialect. The variant of Üstzur spoken in the village of Élibek, to the north-west of Wissembörg, is notable for certain unusual traits. Üstzur is regarded by some in the other regions as a bit prim and proper, but is well

understood by all Jameld-speakers.

- Vestzur (“West Zur”)

Vestzur is spoken in the south-west of Zuraaland, in the spa town of Niderbrönt and the surrounding villages, including Wörth and Wintstén. It is a progressive dialect and shows signs of French influence, due in part to the large numbers of visitors that have historically flocked to Niderbrönt to take the waters. Vestzur pronunciation is considered to be “easier” – if not to pronounce, then at least on the ear – with [x] and [ç] reduced to [h], and [dʒ] to [ʒ]; Üstzur’s tap-r [r] becomes uvular [ʁ]. Äu is pronounced [ø:] rather than [ɔ:], and the question words tend to start with *h* (see below for examples). Since the late 20th century, the pronunciation associated with this dialect has gained something of a cachet among the younger generation and is seen as “cool” in comparison to stuffy old Üstzur.

- Börgeslant (“Land of the Castles”)

This is a conservative rural dialect, spoken in the mountainous north and north-west of Zuraaland, including the small town of Lembek, along the Sténbek valley, and the isolated village of Wenjelsbek, where the dialect has some distinctive and unusual features.

Börgeslant dialect retains some vestigial features of Old Jameld grammar:

I. Grammatical gender, although simplified

The former three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter, have been reduced to two in Börgeslant, with the masculine and feminine being combined into a common gender. The definite article has two forms, *te* (common and plural) and *et* (neuter singular); an additional form, *tem*, is used by some speakers as a dative definite article (common and plural). No other relics of grammatical gender remain.

II. “Irregular” plural nouns

Unlike the other dialects, Börgeslant has retained some of the Old Jameld plurals that feature ablaut (vowel alternation; cf. English “mouse”/“mice”). A plural suffix *-(e)n* sometimes also appears:

English	Börgeslant sing/pl	MSJ sing/pl
man	<i>monn / minn</i>	<i>monn / monnes</i>
foot	<i>foud / füden</i>	<i>föd / födes</i>

tree	<i>baam / bēmen</i>	<i>baam / baames</i>
ewe	<i>áy / œyn</i>	<i>ãi / äis</i>
goose	<i>gaas / gēse</i>	<i>gaas / gaase</i>
cheese	<i>zas / zōse</i>	<i>zas / zase</i>
cow	<i>kou / kün</i>	<i>ëxar / ëxares</i>
shoe	<i>tsuw / tsün</i>	<i>tsün / tsün</i>

Some plurals have been compressed:

hand	<i>hant / hinn</i> (< <i>hinten</i>)	<i>hant / hantes</i>
tooth	<i>dant / dinn</i> (< <i>dinten</i>)	<i>dant / dantes</i>

Others may be less predicable:

day	<i>däi / dājen</i>	<i>däi / dāis</i>
toe	<i>tä / täjen</i>	<i>tä / täs</i>
eye	<i>ígh / jin</i>	<i>iy / iys</i>

III. Pronoun differences

The personal pronouns in Börgeslant are as follows (modern standard Jameld pronouns are shown for comparison):

	<u>nom</u>	<u>acc/dat</u>	<u>poss/gen</u>	<u>MSJ</u>
1S	<i>ek, 'k</i>	<i>mē</i>	<i>mí</i>	<i>me / ime / meü</i>
2S	<i>the</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>thí</i>	<i>ye / iye / yeü</i>
3Sm	<i>ē</i>	<i>ē</i>	<i>zí</i>	<i>e / ie / eü</i>
3Sf	<i>es, 's</i>	<i>es, 's</i>	<i>ëra</i>	<i>es / ies / esü</i>
3Sn	<i>et, 't</i>	<i>et, 't</i>	<i>eta</i>	<i>et / iet / etü</i>
1P	<i>ve</i>	<i>ve</i>	<i>ös</i>	<i>ven / iven / venü</i>
2P	<i>ye</i>	<i>ye</i>	<i>yí</i>	<i>yen / iyen / yenü</i>
3Pmf	<i>tem</i>	<i>tem</i>	<i>tema</i>	<i>tem / item / temü</i>
3Pn	<i>temt</i>	<i>temt</i>	<i>temta</i>	<i>temt / itemt / temtö</i>

As can be seen, only the first-person singular pronoun has a separate objective form in this dialect; the other objective forms have been lost. (MSJ uses a “new” set of objective pronouns not derived from Old Jameld.)

IV. Conjugation of verbs

In Börgeslant, verbs in the plural number generally carry a *-(a)n* suffix, in both the present and the past forms, and the second-person singular form has a *-s* ending, again in both the present and the past. The verb *lube* (“to love”; MSJ *liuben*) here serves to provide some examples:

English	Börgeslant	MSJ
I love you	<i>ek lub the</i>	<i>me liub iye</i>
You love me	<i>the lubs mē</i>	<i>ye liub ime</i>
We love it	<i>ve luban't</i>	<i>ven liub iet</i>
I loved you	<i>ek lubta the</i>	<i>me liubta iye</i>
You loved me	<i>the lubtas mē</i>	<i>ye liubta ime</i>
We loved it	<i>ve lubtan't</i>	<i>ven liubta iet</i>

Note the full paradigm of the irregular verb *sen/isten* ("to be"):

English	Börgeslant	MSJ
I am	<i>ek jist</i>	<i>me jist</i>
You are (thou art)	<i>the jist</i>	<i>ye jist</i>
He/she is	<i>ē/es jist</i>	<i>e/es jist</i>
We are	<i>ve san</i>	<i>ven ist</i>
You are	<i>ye san</i>	<i>yen ist</i>
They are	<i>tem ist</i>	<i>tem ist</i>

The Börgeslant accent is also distinctive, with a number of the vowels having a notably different value from those in other dialects of Jameld. Written Börgeslant makes use of the additional letters *á*, *í* and *œ* for this reason.

	Börgeslant	MSJ
<i>a</i>	[æ:], stressed [æə]	[a], long [ɑ:]
<i>aa</i>	[æ:], stressed [æə]	[ɑ:]
<i>au</i>	[ʌ:], stressed [ʌə] (written <i>á</i>)	[aʊ]
<i>ä</i>	[æj]	[e], long [e:]
<i>äu</i>	[ø] (written <i>œ</i>)	[ɔ:]
<i>e</i>	[ɛ:], stressed [ɛə]	[ɛ], long [e:]
<i>é</i>	[ɛ:], stressed [ɛə]	[e:]
<i>ë</i>	[ej]	[i:]
<i>i</i>	[ɛ], long [i:] (written <i>í</i>)	[ɪ], half-long [i·]
<i>ī</i>	[øj]	[aɪ]
<i>o</i>	[o:]	[ɔ], long [o:]
<i>ö</i>	[ɔj]	[œ], long [ø:]
<i>u</i>	[u:]	[ʊ], long [u:]
<i>ü</i>	[uj], final after vowel [j]	[ʏ], long [y:]

In unstressed position, *a*, *e*, *o* and *u* tend towards [ə].

For comparison, here are some key words in all three main dialects:

	Üstzur	Vestzur	Börgeslant
one	<i>aunt</i>	<i>aun</i>	<i>ān</i>
two	<i>tī</i>	<i>taa/tō</i>	<i>tī</i>
from	<i>wrun</i>	<i>wru</i>	<i>wru</i>
to see	<i>visen</i>	<i>vize</i>	<i>t̥saae</i>
eye	<i>iy</i>	<i>iy</i>	<i>ígh</i>
head	<i>chaa/chadof</i>	<i>chaa</i>	<i>chaaf</i>
small	<i>lex, kley</i>	<i>iti, klé</i>	<i>lix/líx</i>
yes	<i>jey</i>	<i>jé</i>	<i>jé</i>
no (not “yes”)	<i>nau</i>	<i>nò/nau</i>	<i>né</i>
no (not any)	<i>na</i>	<i>na/jan</i>	<i>jan</i>
what	<i>was</i>	<i>haz</i>	<i>wa</i>
who	<i>wi</i>	<i>hi</i>	<i>wí</i>
why	<i>umwi</i>	<i>oni</i>	<i>vorwi</i>
when	<i>wen</i>	<i>hen</i>	<i>wen</i>
how	<i>wau</i>	<i>hau</i>	<i>wu</i>
where	<i>au</i>	<i>äu</i>	<i>á</i>
which	<i>wist</i>	<i>hest</i>	<i>wist</i>

In case of doubt, the reader is advised to use modern standard Jameld to avoid confusion, except among close friends or in highly informal situations. These notes on dialect have been provided to prepare the learner for local words, verb forms and pronunciations that may be encountered around Zuraaland.

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(2009)

On Jameld

Six and twenty (and some) years ago
Was I smit by a rare and precious thing:
A condition of the mind that,
Like a symbiont, would both enrich and feed off its host.

It is a disease of sound
And marks on paper
And a feel for what is right –
Not absolutely, but for a mind in my mind.

So forth they came – and come:
Bons mots like *hauf*, and *thren*
And *maltzas*, *klivbend*, *ledzibret*;
And *zatsandfröda*, prince of all that's felt.

Yet more: a land emerged
Of forest, hill and shattered castle;
A river to name it
And a people who love the nobly inept.

And what of me, infected as a boy
By all this glossomania?
Am I a better man of it?
I know not, but I know me more.