# 耶的：歬何谠 <br> Quetin i lambë eldaiva <br> a Quenya－Course <br> Thorsten Renk 

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## Preface



To be honest - not in my wildest dreams had I ever imagined the reactions after the release of the English version of my Sindarin course Pedin Edhellen. Some people actually volunteered to translate the course into other languages (right now, there are German, English and Polish versions and Portuguese and Spanish are in preparation). Now, such things give a huge boost in motivation and made it easier for me to start the translation of my Quenya course.

I think, of the two major Elvish languages, Quenya is the more elegant one. In translating text into Quenya, I often find myself in the pleasant position to express something in several different ways (a situation virtually unknown to a Sindarin translation) and in choosing between Aorist and Present tense or the different forms of 'we', it is possible to make distinctions which are impossible even in my mothertongue German. I have made use of these possibilities in the texts in this course, although these nuances of meaning are often lost in the English translation. Nevertheless, an alert reader might rediscover them.

I realize that there is already a very well-written Quenya course by Helge Fauskanger (in fact, this is where I learned Quenya from). However, I believe that the two courses have a somewhat complementary approach: Fauskanger's course tries to show the reader what we know first-hand about Quenya and how we can deduce the Quenya grammar from the attested text samples. It includes all uncertainties and unresolved questions which are a necessary part of such a project. On the other hand, this course here tries to present the result of this project - a reconstructed Quenya grammar. It focuses on the actual use of the language, i.e. how to read and write text in Quenya. Special emphasis is put into making a large vocabulary accessible for the reader along with the grammatical ideas. In this, my course follows more the traditional pattern of language courses. However, I would be glad if some of the readers of this course embark on the more laborious project to learn how all this is deduced from Tolkien's texts.

In discussing Tolkien's languages, often things remain uncertain or subject to speculation. In order to show the reader what is really known and genuinely Tolkien and what is reconstructed, I use the following scheme:

Single forms or words are marked with a prefixed * when they are introduced (these forms,
however, are not marked in continuous texts later on in order to keep things readable). For example, *-ccë means that this particular ending is not attested anywhere in Tolkien's writings but is reconstructed based on general principles of the pronominal system.

Longer sections describing uncertain grammatical rules are greyed out. If a rule is especially uncertain, it is greyed out and an additional remark in the text is given.

Greyed sections may or may not be right - they often contain conclusions which are likely to change if further writings by Tolkien are released. These sections do not claim to represent anything other than my best guess of what a particular rule may be, based on all my knowledge of the Elvish languages. In general, they represent one of several possibilities to interpret a given text and the reader is always encouraged to check the sources himself and make up his own mind. Different opinions on some points are not only possible, but the normal state of affairs in Elvish linguistics.

In the second edition of the course, several major alterations have been made. Most importantly, with the publication of 'Eldarin Hands, Fingers and Numerals' edited by Patrick Wynne in VT47-49 and 'Words, Phrases and Passages in The Lord of the Rings' edited by Christopher Gilson in Parma Eldalamberon 17 plenty of new information about Tolkien's ideas about aspects of Quenya grammar following the publication of 'The Lord of the Rings' has come to light.

In particular, this concerns the pronominal system, where in many places guesswork can now be replaced by attested forms. However, the published material reveals significant conceptual changes in the phase from about 1960 to 1968 covered by these publications. It is impossible to compile a table out of the material for a Quenya course which does justice to all of Tolkien's changing ideas without making hard decisions what forms to include. In the present course, two basic guidelines have been chosen for this purpose: Material which is closer to the publication of 'The Lord of the Rings' is preferred to material which is further removed (this takes emphasis away from Tolkien's very early and very late ideas) and studying this course should enable the reader to understand Tolkien's own texts in Quenya (this favours material attested in Quenya texts over material attested in tables or notes). In line with the second principle, sometimes in situations where several forms by Tolkien are known they are given here as variants. This however should not be taken to imply that they necessarily coexisted in Tolkien's mind.

Other important changes concern the verbs. We can now identify many more classes of verbs than previously thought, chiefly based on their formation of past tenses. However, some verbs also reveal unexpected present tense forms, and the attested regular perfect tense of derived verbs is different from what has been assumed before examples became available.

Finally, the new information allows for a lot of small details of Quenya idioms to be included into this course which make come Quenya more alive and add to the feeling of studying a real language rather than an invented one.

A scholarly treatment of the new material can be found on my site Parma Tyelpelassiva in a series of grammar articles which are recommended to the more advanced reader seeking to understand the precise relation of the material presented in this course to Tolkien's actual ideas. Recommended further reading includes:

## The Quenya Pronominal System:

http://www.phy.duke.edu/~ trenk/elvish/quenya_pronouns.html
The Quenya Past Tense
http://www.phy.duke.edu/~trenk/elvish/quenya_past_tense.html

The Quenya Perfect Tense
http://www.phy.duke.edu/~trenk/elvish/quenya_perfect_tense.html
The Eldarin Numerals
http://www.phy.duke.edu/~trenk/elvish/numerals.html
Impersonal Constructions in Elvish
http://www.phy.duke.edu/~trenk/elvish/impersonal.html
Quenya Minor Phrase Index
http://www.phy.duke.edu/~trenk/elvish/quenya_phrase_index.html

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## Part I - Basic Knowledge



The night is passing!


## Lesson 1

## Verbs in Present Tense， Plural Formation



### 1.1 TEXT

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ロ岂 iontion }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda_{j} \mathrm{~b} \text { 的 }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^0]
## Mára omentië!

Hísiel ar Nenwë tírat i taurë . Hísiel quéta:
Hísiel: Cénanyë nér imbi i aldar.
Nenwë: Massë cénatyes?
Hísiel: Lelyëas nu lómini.
Nenwë: Á tulë, Hísiel, hilyëalves! Á hauta!
Maglos: Man nastë?
Hísiel: Nammë Noldor. Nan Hísiel. Ma nalyë Sinda?
Maglos: Nan.
Hísiel: Mérammë nilmë.
Maglos: Ata pólalmë tulë sinomë.
Hísiel: Mára. Namárië!
Maglos: Namárië!

## A good meeting!

Hísiel and Nenwë watch the forest. Hísiel says:
Hísiel: I see a man between the trees.
Nenwë: Where do you see him?
Hisiel: He is going beneath the shadows.
Nenwë: Come, Hísiel, we follow him! Stop!
Maglos: Who are you?
Hísiel: We are Noldor. I'm Hísiel. Are you one of the Sindar?
Maglos: I am!
Hísiel: We wish friendship.
Maglos: We can come again to this place.
Hísiel: Good. Farewell!
Maglos: Farewell!

### 1.2 GRAMMAR

### 1.2.1 Plural formation of nouns

In Quenya, most grammatical information is contained in the endings of words. Therefore, along with many other ideas, the plural is expressed by appending an ending to a noun. In order to determine which one this should be, we can group the nouns into several classes according to how their basic form ends (the uninflected nominative). One finds three different groups of nouns:

The first group consists of nouns ending with $\mathbf{- a}, \mathbf{- 0}, \mathbf{- i}$ and $\mathbf{- u}$ as well as -ië (in nominative), the second group consists of all nouns ending in -ë and the last group is formed by the remaining nouns ending in a consonant.

Nouns of the first group form plural by appending an -r to their basic form:

```
alda (tree) \(\rightarrow\) aldar (trees)
meldo (friend) \(\rightarrow\) meldor (friends)
tári (queen) \(\rightarrow\) tárir (queens)
tië (path) \(\rightarrow\) tier (paths)
```

The second group forms plural by replacing the final -e of the basic form with an -i:
lambë (language) $\rightarrow$ lambi (languages)
lassë (leaf) $\rightarrow$ lassi (leaves)

Finally, the third group forms plural by appending an -i to the final consonant:

$$
\text { aran (king) } \rightarrow \text { arani (kings) }
$$

Unfortunately, some words involve a complication: These words show a shortened form in nominative singular which is not identical to the basic form (the stem) to which endings are appended. An example of such a word is oron (mountain) with the stem oront-. This means that the plural of oron is not oroni but oronti. When we list vocabulary, we list both forms for all words for which stem and nominative singular are different, e.g. as oron (oront-) (mountain). The same thing may occur for names, for example Hísiel has the stem Hísiell-.

### 1.2.2 The definite and indefinite article

The definite article 'the' is in Quenya i in both singular and plural (and the two other numbers to be discussed in the next lesson as well). It is placed before the noun:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{aran}(\text { king }) \rightarrow \mathrm{i} \text { aran (the king) } \\
& \text { aldar (trees) } \rightarrow \mathrm{i} \text { aldar (the trees) } \\
& \text { tië (path) } \rightarrow \mathrm{i} \text { tië (the path) }
\end{aligned}
$$

For the indefinite article ' $a$ ', there is no special word in Quenya - it can be added in the English translation when needed:

```
aran (king) or (a king)
```


### 1.2.3 Classes of verbs

In Quenya, there are basically two main classes of verbs (and several subclasses). These are usually called basic or primary verbs and derived verbs. The basic verbs correspond directly to a root in primitive Elvish, whereas the more numerous derived verbs come from such a root in addition with a derivational suffix.

Typically, derived verbs can be recognized by the derivational ending, which in Quenya takes the very typical form -ya, -ta, -na, -da or sometimes -a. An example might be lelya(to go) with the ending -ya or hauta- (to stop) with the ending -ta. On the other hand, the vast majority of basic verbs end in a consonant (as most primitive roots do). Thus, one can easily recognize that mer- (to wish) or quet- (to speak) are basic verbs. However, ending in -a is no absolute guarantee that one is dealing with a derived verb - but we will deal with the exceptions later in this course. The two main classes of verbs show differences when they are conjugated for different tenses and persons, therefore it is important to recognize and distinguish them.

Often, something happens to the stem vowel of a verb. The term 'stem vowel' refers to the vowel which forms part of the primitive root of the verb. For basic verbs, the stem vowel is often easy to find, because it is the only vowel of the verb. For derived verbs, the final -a can never be the stem vowel - once this ending is removed, finding the stem vowel in derived verbs is easy as well: In e.g. lanta- (to fall), the first -a- is the stem vowel, because the last -a has to be ruled out. Sometimes, it happens that a verb is prefixed and after the ending of an derived verb is removed, there are still two different vowels left, see e.g. enquanta- (refill). In this case, the stem vowel is the last one after the ending has been removed, i.e. the -a- of -quan- (note that the $\mathbf{- u}$ in -qu- is not counted as vowel since qu is just a different way of writing cw/kw in Quenya).

### 1.2.4 The present tense

The present tense is used in Quenya to express ongoing actions. It is often used similarly to the English present continuous tense ('I am [now] going to school'), although it is permissible to translate it as present tense in English as well. The Quenya present tense is not used to express habits, occupations, timeless truths and such like (i.e. 'I work for Gandalf' would not be rendered as present tense in Quenya, whereas 'I am [now] fighting for Gandalf' would).

Basic verbs in Quenya form the present tense by lengthening of the stem vowel and appending the ending -a:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tir- (to watch) } \rightarrow \text { tíra (is watching) } \\
& \text { tul- (to come) } \rightarrow \text { túla (is coming) }
\end{aligned}
$$

Further endings can be appended to these forms to express person (see below). For derived verbs, the present tense is formed by replacing the final -a by -ëa. If only one consonant is between this new ending -ea and the stem vowel, the stem vowel is lengthened, however if more than one consonant is between ending and stem vowel, the stem vowel remains short because lengthening is impossible in such cases. Hence, we find lengthening in

```
ora- (to urge) }->\mathrm{ órëa (is urging)
```

but not in

$$
\text { lanta- (to fall) } \rightarrow \text { lantëa - (is falling) }
$$

$$
\text { lelya- (to go) } \rightarrow \text { lelyëa (is going) }
$$

In third age Quenya (especially for derived verbs), often the Aorist (see lesson 5) is used instead of the present tense since it is simpler to form. The distinction between these tenses is increasingly blurry in late Quenya.

### 1.2.5 Pronominal verb endings

If the subject of a Quenya sentence is given by a separate word, the Quenya verb in present tense remains in the forms we have discussed above if the word is in singular. If the subject is in plural, the verb receives an additional plural ending -r:
lassë lantëa (a leaf is falling)
lassi lantear (leaves are falling)
$i$ aran túla (the king is coming)
neri lelyear (men are going)
However, in Quenya something special happens when the subject consists of two persons or things - in this case, the Quenya verb assumes the so-called dual verbal endings. In this case, the verb is marked by an ending -t:
lassë ar alda lanteat (leaf and tree are falling)
aran ar tári túlat (king and queen are coming)
These three usages of the verb in singular, plural and dual with no ending, $\mathbf{- r}$ and $\mathbf{- t}$ are called personless verb forms. This means that the one doing the action described by the verb is not expressed as part of the verb but stands separately in the sentence.

In contrast, when a pronoun is the subject in the English sentence (like in 'I am going'), this is often expressed in Quenya by an additional verb ending and not as a separate word. In fact, there are two different sets of pronominal verb endings in Quenya, long ones and short ones. We start by listing the short endings:

| Subject | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | - n (I) | - |
| 2. Person (familiar) | $-t$ (you) | -1 (you) |
| 2. Person (formal) | -1 (thou) | -1 (ye) |
| 3. Person | $-s$ (he, she, it) | $-t$ (they) |

See for example
túlan (I am coming)
tíral (ye are watching ${ }^{2}$ )
lanteas (he is falling)
lelyeat (they are going).
(Note that túla alone cannot be translated 'he is coming' but only 'is coming' - the English 'it' must be expressed in Quenya also. Note also that **lassi lanteat (leaves they fall) is probably not a proper Quenya sentence - if a subject is present as a separate word, a verb cannot have a pronominal ending. In this case, lanteat also cannot be interpreted as a personless dual, as then 'leaves' would have to be in a dual form as well, see the next lesson.)

Alternatively (and without any difference in meaning) the long endings can be used. Here, dual forms exist as well:

| Subject | Singular | Plural | Dual |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | -nyë (I) | -lmë /-mmë (we) | -lvë, -ngwë (we) |
| 2. Person (familiar) | -tyë (you) | -ldë,-llë (you) | -stë (you) |
| 2. Person (formal) | -lyë (thou) | -ldë, -llë (ye) | -stë (ye) |
| 3. Person (animate) | -ssë (he, she) | -ntë, -ltë (they) | -ttë (they) |
| 3. Person (neuter) | -ssa (it) | -ntë, -ltë (they) | -ttë (they) |

The reason why there are two different long endings translated as 'we' is that Quenya permits to express distinctions not present in the English language:

The ending -mmë is an exclusive 'we', it makes a distinction between the group of the speaker and the group of the listener and means 'we, but not you'. In contrast, the ending -lmë is an inclusive 'we', addressing both the group of the speaker and the listener, it therefore has the meaning 'all of us'. If however the speaker refers only to himself and the person addressed, i.e. 'you and me', a dual ending has to be chosen, either -lvë or more rarely -ngwë .

The endings -ltë and -ntë are variants - it does not change the meaning of the sentence if one uses tíraltë or tírantë (they are watching). The same is true for -ldë and -llë — there is no difference in meaning between túlaldë and túlallë (you are coming).

The dual endings are used when two persons or things are referred to, cf.
tírastë (the two of you are watching)
túlattë (the pair of them is coming)
For a more complete discussion on how this table relates to various changed concepts in Tolkien's pronominal system see appendix D.

To give some examples with long pronominal endings:
lantëanyë (I'm falling)
túlantë (they are coming)
tírammë (we [and not you] are watching)

[^1]If both subject and object of a sentence are pronouns, it is possible to express the subject as a long pronominal ending and append the object as a short ending:

```
cénalyen (you see me) (=cen-a-lye-n)
méranyes (I want it) (=mer-a-nye-s)
híralmet (we [all] find them) (=hir-a-lme-t)
```

However, this cannot be used in expressions like **cénanyen 'I am seeing myself' in which the object refers back to the subject. This requires the so-called reflexive forms.

### 1.2.6 The infinitive

For basic verbs, the infinitive is formed with the help of the ending -ë. In the case of A-verbs, it is identical with the verb stem:

```
tir- (to see) \(\rightarrow\) tirë (to see)
lanta- (to fall) \(\rightarrow\) lanta (to fall)
```

(Note that it is a common convention to list verbs by their stem, e.g. lanta- and give their meaning as an infinitive in English. However, this does not imply that the stem can actually be used as an infinitive in Quenya, tir alone would be quite meaningless, whereas tirë could really be translated as 'to watch'.)

The infinitives can be used as the object of a sentence:
Méran tirë. (I wish to see.)
Pólan quetë. (I'm able to speak.)

### 1.2.7 The imperative

The imperative is used to give orders. It is formed by using a or á in front of the infinitive:
á tirë taurë! (Watch the forest!)
a lelya (Go!)
Used like this, the imperative can be used addressing a single person or several persons. In lesson 13, we will learn how this distinction can be expressed.

### 1.2.8 The verb 'to be'

The basic form of the verb 'to be' is ná or na (is), in plural nar (are). Normal pronominal endings can be used with this verb, presumably all endings are appended to the short naand not to the long ná:

```
nan (I am), nat (you are), nas (he is)
nammë (we are), nal (you are), nat (they are)
```

(Of course, this gives only some of the possible endings - the whole set of long endings can be used, the dual 'we' and inclusive 'we' as well and so on.)
'To be' is often left out when it is understood, and, if present, usually moves towards the end of the sentence.

Nenwë Noldo ná. (Nenwë is a Noldo.)

### 1.2.9 Questions

Presumably, an ordinary sentence can be transformed into a question by adding the (untranslated) word ma in front of the sentence:

Cénatyë nér. (You are seeing a man.)
$\rightarrow$ Ma cénatyë nér? (Are you seeing a man?)
Noldo nu i alda ná. (A Noldo is beneath the tree.)
$\rightarrow$ Ma Noldo nu i alda ná? (Is a Noldo beneath the tree?)

### 1.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alda | tree | *massë? | where? |
| ar | and | meldo | friend |
| aran | king | mer- | to wish, to desire |
| ata | again | Namárië! | Farewell! |
| cen- | to see | nilmë | friendship |
| enquanta- | to refill | nér (ner-) | man |
| hauta- | to stop | nu | under, beneath |
| hilya- | to follow | omentië | meeting |
| hir- | to find | ora- | to urge, to impel |
| imbi | between, among | pol- | can, to be able to |
| lambë | tongue, language | quet- | to speak |
| lanta- (*lantë) | to fall | sinomë | here |
| lassë | leaf | tári | queen |
| lelya- (lendë) | to go, to travel | taurë | forest |
| lómin | shadow | tië | path, way |
| man? | who?, what? | tir- | to watch |
| mára | good, well | tul- | to come |

### 1.4 TENGWAR

### 1.4.1 General remarks

In order to write down the Elvish languages, the system of tengwar is used. This system is used for multiple purposes; writing Quenya is only one of them, writing Sindarin another one.

Therefore, a single sign (tengwa) does not uniquely represent a sound: the assignment of signs to sounds is dependent on the writing mode. Both the Elvish languages Sindarin and Quenya are written with the same set of signs, but because the writing mode is different, each sign must be read in a different way. Therefore, having learned how to read Sindarin in tengwar is not going to imply that you can skip the following introduction - you'll have to learn anew.

### 1.4.2 The 16 basic signs

The system of tengwar at its core is based on variations of two basic signs which consist of a stem ('telco') and a bow ('lúva'). These signs are tinco $p$ and parma $p$. Adding a small line, we can construct from those in addition calma $\mathfrak{q}$ and quesse $\mathfrak{q}$.

Unlike in Sindarin, memorizing the connection between name and sound of a tengwa is trivial - the tengwar are named after the sound they represent in Quenya, hence each name contains the sound of the tengwa. For the first four signs, we therefore have $t$ (tinco) p (parma) $\mathrm{c}(\mathrm{k})$ calma and qu (quesse).

If a second lúva is added to these signs, they represent the softened and nasalized versions of the original sounds: Here, we find ando $p o$ umbar $p \sim$ anga $c q$ and ungwe $q$ corresponding to the sounds nd, mb, ng and ngw. Note that d, b, g, and gw can appear in Quenya only in these combinations (and in addition as rd and ld which we'll cover in lesson 2), there is no possibility to write e.g. a single $g$ in the Quenya tengwar mode because that sound is not needed.

Starting from the four basic signs again, we may also extend the telco upward (instead of downward). This represents the aspirated sounds thule $b$, formen $b$, harma $d$ and hwesta d. They are pronounced th, $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{ph})$, ch und hw. However, in third age Quenya, the sound th is changed into $s$. This leads to the problem that Quenya words containing an $s$ which was derived from original th are written using thule, whereas s derived from archaic s is written in a different way. We will discuss this in detail in lesson 4.

Finally, we can derive a group of signs with two luvar and the telco extended upward. These represent the nasalized versions of the original basic group: anto $b_{\rho}$, ampa $b_{\sim}$, anca $c d$ and unqued. They represent the sounds nt, mp, nc and nqu.

Note that the sound qu is in Quenya really meant to represent kw - therefore, writing this as q is also acceptable, but in no case a vowel $u$ has to be introduced. For Quenya phonology, qu counts as a consonant.

Gathering all together, we can draw the following basic table of sounds and tengwar:

| $p$ | $p$ | $q$ | $q$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $t$ | $p$ | $c(k)$ | $q u$ |
| $p 0$ | $p$ | $c q$ | $q$ |
| nd | $m b$ | $n g$ | ngw |
| $b$ | $b$ | $c l$ | $d$ |
| s (th) | f | $c h$ | hw |
| $b o$ | $b \sim$ | $c d$ | $q$ |
| nt | $m p$ | nc | nqu |

A complete table of all tengwar and their names can be found in appendix A.


## Lesson 2

## AdJectives And Adverbs



### 2.1 TEXt








 "

## Tië na már

Hísiel ar Nenwë lelyëat na osto Noldoiva Mithrimessë. Ranyëattë terë i taurë . I aldar linyenwë ar tárë. Ringa nu nornor. Aiweli vanyë vílar imbi i aldar.
Anar síla calima, nan andúnë ar hísië túlar. I tië anda ná, ar Hísiel maita. Nan tíras i taurë. Orcor ranyëar terë i nórë. Hendu Hísiello ${ }^{1}$ cénat maica na ilya lómin.
Hísiel ar Nenwë quétat rimbavë ar na i metta túlat na i osto. Anar nútëa.

## The way home

Hísiel and Nenwë are going to the fortress of the Noldor at Lake Mithrim. They wander through the forest. The trees are old and large. It is cold beneath the oaks. Some beautiful birds are flying between the trees.
The sun is shining brightly, but evening and mist are coming. The way is long, and Hísiel is hungry. Nevertheless, she is watching the forest. Orcs wander through the land. Hísiel's eyes are looking sharply to every shadow.
Hísiel and Nenwë are talking much, and at the end they come to the fortified town. The sun is setting.

### 2.2 GRAMMAR

### 2.2.1 Dual

Apart from the numbers singular and plural known from English, Quenya has two more numbers which are not present in English. These are the dual and the partitive plural.

We have met the dual for verbs in the previous lesson already. However, the dual has somewhat more strict rules when applied to nouns. While for verbs and pronouns, any two things may be assumed to form a pair (Galadriel uses a dual pronoun to refer to 'we' as in Varda and herself for example), the dual for nouns is used only if they actually form a pair. This may be because they form a natural pair (like the two eyes of a man, or his two arms, or even the two trees of Valinor) or because they are closely connected in the mind of the speaker and he wants to emphasize this connection. Maybe 'The Two Towers' would be translated using dual. However, if one is talking about any two things not forming a pair, one uses atta (two) in Quenya instead of the dual. In English, this roughly corresponds to the difference between 'two socks' and 'a pair of socks' - only the second combination fits together.

For nouns ending with a vowel, the dual is usually formed using the ending -t. If a noun ends with a consonant, a connecting vowel is inserted. Usually this is -e-. All dual endings (like in fact any other noun ending) are appended to the stem of a noun (not to the nominative form if those differ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tië (path) } \rightarrow \text { tiet (a pair of paths, both paths) } \\
& \text { aran (king) } \rightarrow \text { aranet (a pair of kings, both kings) }
\end{aligned}
$$

However, there are some exceptions to the rule. Apart from the ending -t, there is also the more ancient ending $\mathbf{- u}$ and this ending is in fact sometimes preferred. Since this is a vocalic ending, it can easily be appended to any noun ending in a consonant. If it is

[^2]appended to a word ending with a vowel, this vowel is replaced by -u. One of the most important groups of words forming dual in -u are the parts of the human (elvish) body:

```
hen (eye) }->\mathrm{ hendu (both eyes)
ranco (arm) }->\mathrm{ rancu (both arms)
telco (leg) }->\mathrm{ telcu (both legs)
pé (lip) }->\mathrm{ peu (both lips)
tál (foot) }->\mathrm{ talu (both feet)
```

In order to achieve a more pleasant sound (which is important in Quenya), presumably the formation of the dual in $\mathbf{- u}$ is preferred for words which have -t- or -d- in their last syllable. For example alda (tree) would not form the dual aldat but rather aldu (both trees). It is important to notice that this also takes place if the stem contains -t- or -d-but not the nominative. This is the case e.g. for oron (mountain) with plural oronti (mountains) and dual orontu (both mountains).

```
ando (gate) \(\rightarrow\) andu (both gates)
nat (thing) \(\rightarrow\) natu (both things)
oron (mountain) \(\rightarrow\) orontu (both mountains)
```

It is clear that if the subject of a sentence is in dual, the verb should be inflected for dual rather than for plural in the personless form, hence hendu tírat (both eyes are watching) rather than ${ }^{* *}$ hendu tírar.

Eldu Noldor nat. (Both elves are Noldor.)
I talu ranyeat. (Both the feet wander.)

### 2.2.2 Partitive plural

Like the dual, the partitive plural is a number also unknown in English. It can be used to express two different ideas:

First, it may denote a part of a group, i.e. one would use partitive plural to translate expressions like 'some of the elves' or 'a part of the dwarves'. So the normal plural eldar (without article) is used to make a general statement and translates as 'elves' with the meaning 'elves as a race, all of the elves'. i eldar in contrast means 'the elves' in the sense of 'all of the elves previously mentioned'. Finally, the partitive plural eldali means 'some of the elves previously mentioned'.

Second, it apparently can be used to express the idea that there's a large quantity of the thing in question, i.e. to translate 'many trees' or 'lots of dwarves'.

The partitive plural is formed with the help of the ending -li. This is fine for any word ending with a vowel. If a word ends with a consonant, a connecting vowel -e- is inserted; however if the word ends with -l or -r, those consonants are probably assimilated into an ending -lli.

Presumably, it is the presence of the definite article which makes a distinction between the two different functions of the partitive plural: Expressions with the definite article seem to be translated with 'many' and those without is as 'some'.

```
elda (elf) \(\rightarrow\) eldali (some elves)
alda (tree) \(\rightarrow \mathrm{i}\) aldali (many trees)
casar (dwarf) \(\rightarrow \mathrm{i}\) casalli (many dwarves)
oron (mountain) \(\rightarrow\) oronteli (some mountains)
nat (thing) \(\rightarrow\) nateli (some things)
lassë (leaf) \(\rightarrow\) lasseli (some leaves)
```


### 2.2.3 Adjectives describing a noun

Adjectives are small words that are used to describe properties of nouns, like 'strong' or 'red'. They can have several different functions in a sentence. In so-called attributive use, they are used to describe a noun.

It turns out that the vast majority of adjectives in Quenya ends with -a or -ë, some also with -in. If an adjective is used to describe a noun, its usual position is before the noun (like in English). For example using tára (tall, high):

```
tára alda (a tall tree)
i tára oron (the high mountain)
```

However, in Quenya it is entirely permissible (although more poetic use) to let the adjective come after the noun as well (although this is not so often used):
andúnë ringa (a cold evening)
If adjectives are describing a noun that is not in singular, the adjective is marked for plural (regardless if the noun is in plural, dual or partitive plural). The adjective, however, doesn't have a special ending for dual or partitive plural, there is just one plural ending for every number that is not singular. If an adjective ends with -a, its plural is -ë (replacing the a). However, if the adjective ends with the combination -ëa, the plural is -ië . Adjectives ending in -ë have plurals in -i (replacing the -ë ), and finally adjectives ending in consonants just add an -i to form plural.

```
i tárë aldar (the tall trees)
lassi rimbë (many leaves)
i laicë lasseli (many green leaves)
tulcë rancu (a pair of strong arms)
laurië nati (golden things)
vanyë hendu (a beautiful pair of eyes)
```


### 2.2.4 Adjectives and the verb 'to be'

In a sentence like 'the elf is old', an adjective is used with a form of the verb 'to be' to tell something. This is called 'predicative use'. In Quenya, this can be done by choosing a suitable form of ná. The word order is such that 'to be' has to follow the adjective, otherwise an imperative meaning is implied. This is presumably not so for a following noun. If the context is sufficiently clear, the relevant form of ná is usually dropped entirely. Like when used to describe a noun, the adjective has to agree in number with the verb 'to be' and the subject of the sentence:

```
i elda linyenwa ná (the elf is old)
i elda na linyenwa (the elf shall be old!)
na tulca! (be strong!)
i lassi laicë nar (the leaves are green)
i oron tára (the mountain [is] high)
nateli laurië nar (some things are golden)
i elda Sinda ná (the elf is a Sinda)
```


### 2.2.5 Adjectives as Adverbs

In a sentence like 'he does it swiftly', the adjective swift is used in a modified form (which involves appending '-ly') to describe the verb. This is called 'adverbial use'.

Adverbs in Quenya work not so differently from English, although they require some attention. Sometimes the adjective is formally associated with the verb, but really describes the subject of the sentence. For example in 'the sun is shining brightly', 'brightly' is really a description of how the sun is, not so much about how the process of shining takes place. On the other hand, in 'the sun is shining frequently', 'frequently' is not a property of the sun, but specifically related to the process of shining. In English, it is possible to make this distinction - you can say 'the sun is shining bright', but you can't really say '**the sun is shining frequent'.

Quenya works the same way. When an adverb is really associated with the subject, it is not marked by a special ending. In fact, in this case it is an adjective in Quenya. Usually the adverb in Quenya follows the verb. In contrast to adjectives, adverbs cannot be marked for any plural, they remain in the same form even if the verb is in plural. However, when an English adverb is translated by an adjective in Quenya, the Quenya adjective agrees in number:

Anar síla calima. (The sun is shining bright.)
Aiweli vílar lintë. (Some birds are flying swiftly.)
Hendu tírat maica. (A pair of eyes is watching sharply.)

Only when it describes the action of the verb, a special ending (corresponding to the English '-ly') is used. The ending to convert an adjective into an adverb is -vë . For adjectives ending with -a, this can be appended directly, e.g. tára (high) becomes táravë (highly). If an adjective ends with $-\ddot{\mathbf{e}}$, this presumably becomes $-\mathbf{i}-$ when the ending is appended, hence morë (dark) gets morivë (darkly).

To -n, the last possible ending, the adverb ending is appended directly: melin (dear) becomes melinvë (dearly).

Quétammë rimbavë. (We talk frequently.)
I casar lelyëa lintavë. (The dwarf is travelling swiftly.)
á hauta lintavë! (Stop swiftly!)

Note the difference between i casar lelyëa lintavë and aiweli vilir lintë - in the first case, a dwarf who is not usually swift in doing things travels swiftly, hence the swiftness is associated with the travelling. In the second case, birds who are usually swift fly, and hence the swiftness is associated with the birds.

The adjective mára (good) has the irregular adverb mai (well). Don't look to much to the English '-ly' to determine what form to use in Quenya - several English adjectives have adverbs which are formed a different way, for example 'fast' has the adverb 'fast' rather than '**fastly'.

## Quétalyë mai. (You speak well.)

Lelya lintavë mára ná. (To travel swiftly is good.)

### 2.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aiwë | (small) bird | na | to, towards |
| ando | gate | nan | but, however |
| Anar | sun | nat | thing |
| anda | long | Noldoiva | belonging to the Noldor |
| andúnë | sunset, evening | nórë | land |
| calima | bright | norno | oak |
| casar | dwarf | núta- | set, sink (of sun and moon) |
| elda | elf | orco | orc |
| hen (hend-) | eye | oron (oront-) | mountain |
| hísië (-th-) | mist | osto | fortress, town |
| ilya | all | pé (pe-) | lip |
| laica | green | ranco pl. ranqui | arm |
| laurëa | golden | ranya- | to wander |
| linta | swift | rimba | frequent, numerous |
| linyenwa | old | ringa | cold |
| mai | well | sil- | to shine |
| maica | sharp | tál (tal-) | foot |
| maita | hungry | tára | high, tall |
| már | home | telco (Pl. telqui) | leg |
| melin | dear | terë | through |
| metta | end | tulca | strong |
| Mithrimessë | at lake Mithrim | vanya | beautiful |
| morë | black, dark | vil- | to fly |

Please do not confuse the preposition na with the form of 'to be' ná (is) - the length is different.

### 2.4 Tengwar

### 2.4.1 Further consonants

One can construct eight more signs from telqui and luvar by choosing no extension either upward or downward for the telco and one or two luvar.

The group with two luvar is associated with sounds that fit into the regular scheme. We find the nasals númen $\mathfrak{m}$, malta $\mathfrak{\infty}$, ñoldo $\mathfrak{c c i}$ and ñwalme corresponding to the sounds $n$, m , $\tilde{n}$ und $\tilde{n} w$. ( $\tilde{n}$ is spoken as in 'ring', but this sound is virtually absent in 3rd age Quenya.)

The last group, however, represents sounds which do not fit into the regular scheme. Here, we have óre $\mathfrak{n}$, vala $\mathfrak{n}$, anna $\mathfrak{c l}$ and wilya $\mathfrak{a}$ with the sounds $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{v}$, y and w (there's a little quirk regarding how y is actually written; we'll come to this in time).

All further characters are not composed from telco and luva(r), but commonly they are also written in four columns. The next group of four consists of rómen $\mathcal{Y}$, arda $\mathcal{Y}$, lambe $\mathcal{V}$ and alda $\varsigma \mathfrak{5}$, representing the sounds $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{rd}, \mathrm{l}$ and ld .
The last complete group contains really only two characters, which however may also be turned upside down ('nuquerna'), this makes the placement of vowel-signs above the characters easier (see next lesson). The signs in question are silme $\mathcal{G}$, silme nuquerna $ף$, esse $\mathcal{G}$ and esse nuquerna $\mathfrak{o}$, representing $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{s}$, ss und ss.

Finally, one has hyarmen $\lambda$ to write the h at the beginning of a word (not in the middle, there cl is used).
This yields the following table:

| $\mathfrak{1}$ | D | CCl | a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| n | m | n | ñw |
| $\mathfrak{0}$ | 0 | Cl | $\square$ |
| r | V | y | W |
| U | U | $\widetilde{U}$ | 5 |
| r | rd | 1 | 1d |
| 6 | 9 | $\}$ | 3 |
| S | S | SS | SS |
| $\lambda$ |  |  |  |
| h |  |  |  |



## Lesson 3

## Genitive And Possessive



### 3.1 Text

便的的分光









## I osto Noldoiva

Tárë rambar varyear i osto Noldoiva Mithrimessë. Sinomë enda turmeno Noldoiva. I rambar nar ondoiva. I altë andor látë. Ohtari Eldaron tírar i andor. I alcar macilion síla calima.
Hísiel lelyëa terë i ando. Coar osto vinyë nar. Rimbë coar toava nar. I aldali nar imbi i coar. Mornië túla. Potai rimbë calmar telpeva fainear. I osto vanya ná.
Hísiel lelyëa na i heru ohtarion. Mérassë quetë omentiëo mi i taurë. Túlassë na i mindon tára heruva.

## The town of the Noldor

High walls are protecting the town of the Noldor on the Mithrim lakeshore. Here is the heart of the realm of the Noldor. The walls are of stone. The tall gates are wide open. Warriors from among the elves are watching the gates. The splendour of their swords is shining brightly. Hísiel is going through the gate. The houses of the town are new. Many houses are made of wood. Many trees are between the houses. Darkness is coming. Therefore many lamps of silver are giving light. The town is beautiful.
Hísiel is going to the lord of the warriors. She wishes to tell of the meeting in the forest. She is coming to the tall tower of the lord.

### 3.2 GRAMMAR

The English 'of' corresponds to two different cases in Quenya, therefore we have to be careful to make the distinction correctly in the translation. An English 'of' can correspond to either genitive or possessive in Quenya.

### 3.2.1 Genitive

The main functions of the genitive in Quenya are to indicate that

- something has its origin from some other thing
- something is part of something else
- something is the topic of a tale.

The genitive is formed with the help of the ending -o in singular and dual and with -on in plural and partitive plural. This ending is appended after other (partitive)-plural/dual endings. If the noun ends with -a, however, this is replaced by -o instead of forming -ao since this combination is not allowed in a Quenya word. If a noun ends in -0, nominative singular and genitive cannot be distinguished. Some examples are:

```
alda (tree) \(\rightarrow\) aldo (of a tree)
lassë (leaf) \(\rightarrow\) lassëo (of a leaf)
elen (star) \(\rightarrow\) eleno (of a star)
aldar (trees) \(\rightarrow\) aldaron (of trees)
lassi (leaves) \(\rightarrow\) lassion (of leaves)
meldo (friend) \(\rightarrow\) meldo (of a friend)
rancu (both arms) \(\rightarrow\) rancuo (of both arms)
ciryat (both ships) \(\rightarrow\) ciryato (of both ships)
aldali (some trees) \(\rightarrow\) aldalion (of some trees)
```

In a Quenya phrase, a genitive can follow another noun (e.g. quenta Silmarillion (tale of the Silmarils); but it can also come before another noun, such as in aldaron lassi (the leaves of the trees).

A noun that is described by a genitive (in our example aldaron lassi, this concerns 'leaves') does not need a definite article in Quenya to be definite. Hence the expression may not be translated as some leaves of some trees, but it is entirely permissible (although unusual) to add the definite article without changing the meaning and write $\mathbf{i}$ lassi aldaron. However, lassi aldaron can also mean 'the leaves of some trees' (it is only the noun in nominative that is determined by a genitive); in order to say 'the leaves of the trees' unambiguously one has to use [i] lassi i aldaron.

### 3.2.2 Possessive

The main purpose of the possessive in Quenya is to indicate that

- something belongs to someone
- something is made from some material or
- something is characterized by some other object.

The possessive in singular, dual and partitive plural is formed with the help of the ending -va, in plural the longer ending -iva is used (replacing any ordinary plural ending in -r or -i). Hence, the possessive plural of alda (tree) is not aldariva but aldaiva (of trees). In dual, the ending -va is directly appended to the dual ending, however if the dual ending is -t it changes into -wa, hence possessive dual of cirya (ship) is not ciryatva but ciryatwa (of both ships). The ending is also -wa if the noun ends with a consonant, e.g. aranwa (of a king).
Some examples include:

```
alda (tree) }->\mathrm{ aldava (of a tree)
lassë (leaf) }->\mathrm{ lasseva (of a leaf)
elen (star) }->\mathrm{ elenwa (of a star)
aldar (trees) }->\mathrm{ aldaiva (of trees)
lassi (leaves) }->\mathrm{ lassiva (of leaves)
meldo (friend) }->\mathrm{ meldova (of a friend)
rancu (both arms) }->\mathrm{ rancuva (of both arms)
ciryat (both ships) }->\mathrm{ ciryatwa (of both ships)
```

In contrast to genitive, nouns in possessive usually follow another noun, hence macili ohtariva (the swords of the warriors). As in the case of the genitive, a definite article may be used to determine the expression to distinguish between macili ohtariva ([the] swords of warriors) and macili i-ohtariva ([the] swords of the warriors), a definite article before macili is possible but doesn't alter the translation in any way - possessive phrases are sufficiently determined without the definite article.

### 3.2.3 Case ending complications

There is a new (but fortunately rare) complication when case endings involving a vowel are appended to longer words. Those endings actually add a syllable. For words with more than two syllables (not counting the possessive ending -va or the genitive ending -o) and in which all syllables are short, e.g. ciryali (some ships), the last syllable is lengthened before the ending (e.g. -va) is appended, hence ciryalíva instead of ciryaliva (this happens to avoid awkward stress patterns). However, tië becomes tieva since it has only two syllables.

No rule without an exception - the diphthong ui is counted as two short syllables instead of a single long one, hence one finds from cuilë (life) cuiléva instead of cuileva.
aldali (some trees) $\rightarrow$ aldalíva (of some trees)
Nouns which end in -ië may show another (optional) variation - here -n- may come between the stem and the ending in the presence of case endings. Thus, tië (path) but tieno (of a path).

### 3.2.4 Genitive or possessive

In the previous sections, we have only briefly discussed the question whether an English 'of' is to be translated into a Quenya genitive or possessive. We will now discuss this question in some detail.

Unambiguous genitives are family ties of persons, such as yendë arano (the daughter of the king) or indis arano (the wife of the king). In a broader sense, nearly all relations among persons are described by genitive, e.g. heru ohtarion (lord of the warriors). Only when discussing slaves, one would probably use the possessive: mól aranwa (a slave belonging to the king).

Unambiguous possessives are descriptions of ownership, i.e. macil Hísielwa (Hísiel's sword). Likewise, the matter something is made of is usually in possessive, e.g. ramba ondova (a wall of stone), macil angava (a sword of iron).

There is a slight ambiguity due to the fact that the genitive is used to describe the origin of things also, hence Hísiello macil would also be (Hísiel's sword); but in contrast to macil Hísielwa it would refer to a sword that has been forged by Hísiel or at least has been owned by her, whereas the possessive refers to a sword currently in her possession.

The description of properties is another field where the dividing line between the two cases is blurred. If the genitive is used, like in alcar macilion (splendour of the swords), the speaker emphasizes that the splendour is something originating from the swords. On the other hand, alcar maciliva (same translation) refers to the splendour as a permanent attribute of the swords (which is, because of corrosion, not an entirely true statement).

If one is telling a tale about something, the topic of this tale is usually in genitive, e.g. quenta ohtarion (the tale of the warriors). This leads to the surprising rule that in spite of the fact that the genitive usually describes the origin of something, the narrator of a tale is given in possessive in order to avoid misunderstandings. Hence, ohtarion quenta Hísielwa is a story about warriors told by Hísiel, although she does not own the story in any sense (well, maybe copyright was an issue for the elves...).

Finally, the genitive is used to denote something being part of a whole, e.g. andu rambaron (both gates of the walls) or hendu Hísiello (Hísiel's eyes). When in doubt, it is always preferable to choose the genitive, in third age Quenya, the genitive is starting to replace the possessive.

### 3.2.5 The last declinable word

This section deals with the question of what happens if an adjective describes a noun in genitive or possesive, e.g. 'the sword of the mighty king' or 'the leaves of the tall trees'.

The simplest thing in such a construction is to place the adjective as the last word. The case inflection then affects the adjective only, its noun is only marked for plural, dual or partitive plural, hence macil aran tauro (the sword coming from the mighty king).

However，it is equally possible to place the adjective before the noun it describes．In this case，the case inflection remains with the noun．This is the last declinable word rule which states that if a longer phrase is inflected for a particular case，only the last word of this phrase that can receive the ending does receive the ending，all other words are only marked for number．

If the adjective is put in front position however，one has to be careful with word order：In order to ensure that this cannot be read＇the mighty sword of the king＇one has to write taura arano macil．

In applying the case inflection to an adjective in plural，it often happens that an adjective has the plural ending－e－this is changed into－i－when additional endings are present，in combination with possessive this leads e．g．to－íva（the long í resulting from two merged short－ii－or genitives－ion，like in i lassi aldar tárion（the leaves of the tall trees）．Further examples are：
tuo rancu tulcion（the strength of both strong arms）
linyenwa norno lassë（the leaf of the old oak）
nórë andúni ringíva（a land of cold evenings）

## 3．3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |  | Quenya |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | English | alcar | splendour，glory |  | mól |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alta | tall，high | slave |  |
| anga | iron | mornië | darkness |
| calma | lamp | ohtar | warrior |
| cirya | ship | ondo | stone |
| coa | house | potai | therefore |
| cuilë | life | quenta | tale |
| elen | star | ramba | wall |
| enda | heart，center | taura | mighty |
| faina－ | to emit light | toa | silver |
| heru | lord | tuo | strength |
| indis | wife | turmen | realm |
| láta | wide open | varya－ | to protect |
| macil | sword | vinya | new |
| mi | in | yendë | daughter |
| mindon | tower |  |  |

## 3．4 TENGWAR

## 3．4．1 Vowels

Vowels in Quenya are written as accents（＇tehtar＇）above the consonants．One uses＂ a ，${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{e}$ ， ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{i},{ }^{\wedge} \mathrm{o}$ and ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{u}$ ．

Since words in Quenya usually end with a vowel，the order of reading is＇from bottom to top＇，i．e．each vowel follows the consonant it is written onto；the combination ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ is therefore read as ca，not as $a c$（as it would be in a Sindarin mode），e．g．岁で

If a word starts with a vowel or a long vowel has to be written，a carrier sign for the tehta is used．There is a short carrier 1 and a long carrier $j$ ．In general，the short carrier is used to denote short vowels whereas the long carrier denotes long vowels，hence $p \mathfrak{q}$ tecë（to write）but $p^{\prime}{ }^{\text {岁 }}$ téca（is writing）or 性敞 anta（to give）．

However，e，o and u can alternatively be written as＂é，＂ó und＂ú on a consonant or short carrier．Hence， $\mathfrak{p}^{\boldsymbol{H}}$ ，or $p^{?} \boldsymbol{P}^{\boldsymbol{U}}$ túla（is coming）are different ways to write the same thing．

## 3．4．2 Diphthongs

Diphthongs in Quenya are ai，au，oi，ui，eu und iu．Note that any other combination of two vowels is not a diphthong and that the following only applies to diphthongs．Here，the order of writing is reversed as compared to the usual one：The first vowel is written as a tehta above a carrier denoting the second one．For the vocalic carriers， $\boldsymbol{\wedge}$ denotes i and $\boldsymbol{o} u$ ． Hence，${ }^{火}$ is read ai and not $i a$ ；${ }^{*}$ is read au not $u a$ ．

If two vowels are adjacent to each other but do not form a diphthong，the second is written



## Lesson 4

## Past tense，Possessive <br> ENDINGS



## 4．1 Text





耻的自：






## I heru ohtarion

Hísiel túla na mindon heruva ohtarion ar quéta na i heru Aranwë.
Hísiel: Elen síla tielyanna, Aranwë. Tultanelyen.
Aranwë: Ar tielyanna, Hísiel. Mára cenital. Man méral nyarë?
Hísiel: Lendemmë na taurë ar tirnemmë. Cennemmë Sinda mi taurë. Quentemmë.
Aranwë: Ma nes meldo Noldoron?
Hísiel: Nánes senda. Camnemmë nilmë.
Aranwë: I Sindar mahtaner cotumo sinomë nó túlelmë. Méralmë nilmenta.
Hísiel: Potai raitatamma mára.
Aranwë: A mapa yulma limpeva ar a nyarë ilyë nati. Lastean omentiesto.

## The lord of the warriors

Hísiel is coming to the tower of the lord of the warriors and is talking to Lord Aranwë.
Hísiel: A star is shining upon your path, Aranwë. You summoned me.
Aranwë: And upon your path, Hísiel. It is good to see you. What do you wish to tell?
Hísiel: We went into the forest and watched. We saw a Sinda in the forest. We talked.
Aranwë: Was he a friend of the Noldor?
Hísiel: He was at peace. We received friendship.
Aranwë: The Sindar fought the enemy here before we came. We desire their friendship.
Hísiel: Therefore it was good that we smiled.
Aranwë: Take a cup of wine and tell all things. I'm listening about your meeting.

### 4.2 GRammar

### 4.2.1 Past tense - general remarks

In Quenya (like in English) there are several tenses which can be used when one tells of something that has happened in the past. The past tense is presumably used to describe situations in which something has been started in the past but it is unclear or unimportant if the action has been finished. Take for example 'At that time I was a fighter.' where it is left open if the speaker is still a fighter or not. This is in contrast to the perfect tense which is used to express that something has been completed in the past, e.g. 'I have been a fighter (but I'm not any more).'.

The past tense formation in Quenya is quite complex, and verbs fall in many different classes according to how exactly they form the past tense. However, for the majority of verbs, some rules can be given which past tense a verb will form. We will deal with some of the more complicated classes of past tense formations in lesson 15. In the meantime, whenever a verb has an unusual past tense not covered by the rules given here, this will be indicated in the vocabulary.

In order to understand the following, let us review some important terms. The first one is the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs. A verb is intransitive when it does not take an object, like 'to fall' is intransitive, one doesn't usually 'fall something'. In contrast, a transitive verb is one which takes an object, such as 'to take' - one usually
'takes something'. Some verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively, for example 'to sink'. A ship can sink (intransitive use) and one can sink a ship (transitive use).

The second important concept is the distinction between weak and strong past tense formation. Every verb has a verbal stem (this is the form listed in the vocabulary), e.g. lanta(to fall) or tir- (to watch) are examples for verbal stems. In addition, every verb also has a root. The difference is that the derivational suffix is not part of the root, although it is part of the stem. Furthermore, due to consonant shifts, usually the root looks slightly different. Thus, for basic verbs, verbal root and stem are more or less the same, for tir- (to watch) this form is both stem and root. On the other hand, for a derived verb like faina- (to emit light) faina- is the verbal stem, but the root is just fai, i.e. without the suffix (actually, the original root is written as PHAY, but you can see the relation easily in this case).

Weak past tenses are such that are formed from the verbal stem by means of an ending. tultanë (summoned) is a weak past tense for the stem tulta- (to summon) because it just appends the ending -në to this stem. Similarly, carne (made) is a weak past tense for the stem car- (to make) because an ending is appended to the stem.

Strong past tenses are those in which the verbal stem is modified. Thus, túle (came) is a strong past tense for tul- (to come) because the stem is changed by the lengthening of the stem vowel. orne (urged) is a strong past tense for ora- (to urge) because the stem has been modified by the loss of the derivational ending -a before the past tense ending -në is appended (in this example, or- is the root of the verb).

### 4.2.2 Past tense of derived verbs

For derived verbs, the main distinction in the formation of past tenses is whether a verb is transitive or intransitive. Verbs using the derivational suffix -ta are usually transitive verbs and form weak past tenses with the ending -në . Endings denoting person or number can then be appended to this ending.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tulta- }(\text { to summon }) \rightarrow \text { tultanë }(\text { summoned }) \rightarrow \text { tultanelyen }(\text { you summoned me) } \\
& \text { lenta- }(\text { to send }) \rightarrow \text { lentanë }(\text { sent }) \rightarrow \text { lentanelyes (you sent him) } \\
& \text { henta- }(\text { to examine }) \rightarrow \text { hentanë }(\text { examined }) \rightarrow \text { hentanenyes }(\text { I examined it })
\end{aligned}
$$

However, there are some verbs with the ending -ta which are used intransitively. In this case, so-called nasal infixion occurs and creates a strong past tense: The nasal -n- from the ending is moved into the verb stem, resulting in the ending -nte. This may shorten a long vowel in the stem:
lenweta- (to go away) $\rightarrow$ lenwentë (went away) $\rightarrow$ lenwentes (he went away) núta- (to sink) $\rightarrow$ nuntë (sank) $\rightarrow$ nuntes (it sank)

If the verb contains an -ai-, this changes to -ea- in the process:
caita- (to lie) $\rightarrow$ ceantë (lay) $\rightarrow$ ceantes (he lay)
raita- (to smile) $\rightarrow$ reantë (smiled) $\rightarrow$ reanten (I smiled)
If the verbal stem has a consonant before the ending -ta, the -a- is repeated:
tenta- (to point) $\rightarrow$ tenante (pointed) $\rightarrow$ tenantes (it pointed)
The second large class of verbs are formed with the derivational suffix -ya, and as a rule they are intransitive. Consequently, they tend to have a strong past tense with nasal infixion leading to the ending -nye. One important difference to the above is however that if a consonant is before -ya, the stem vowel is repeated before the ending, not an -a-.
orya- (to rise) $\rightarrow$ oronyë (rose) $\rightarrow$ oronyes (it arose)
virya- (to change) $\rightarrow$ virinyë (changed) $\rightarrow$ virinyel (you changed)

In some cases, verbs have different past tenses according to use: Transitive use implies a weak past tense such as in tentanenyes (I pointed it [towards]) whereas intransitive use leads to a strong past tense such as tenantes (it pointed).
All past tenses of derived verbs which do not agree with the above rules will be listed separately.

### 4.2.3 Past tense of basic verbs

For basic verbs, the distinction is not beween transitive and intransitive use but rather according to what the final consonant of the verbal stem is. In the case of $\mathbf{- p}, \mathbf{- t}$ and $\mathbf{- c}$ as final consonant, a strong past tense by nasal infixion occurs (and if the final consonant was -p, the nasal is changed into $-\mathbf{m}$ - in addition):

```
tec- (to write) }->\mathrm{ tencë (wrote) }->\textrm{i}\mathrm{ eldar tencer (the elves wrote)
quet- (to speak) }->\mathrm{ quentë (spoke) }->\mathrm{ quenten (I spoke)
cap- (to jump) }->\mathrm{ campë (jumped) }->\mathrm{ campelmë (we jumped)
```

In the case of $\mathbf{- m}, \mathbf{- n}, \mathbf{- r}$ and $\mathbf{- l}$ often a weak past tense involving the ending -në is seen in the process, an -ln- is changed to -ll-:

```
cen- (to see) }->\mathrm{ cennë (saw) }->\mathrm{ cennenyes (I saw it)
mer- (to wish) }->\mathrm{ mernë (wished) }->\mathrm{ mernetyë (you wished)
cam- (to receive) }->\mathrm{ camnë (received) }->\mathrm{ camnelyes (you received it)
vil- (to fly) }->\mathrm{ villë (flew) }->\mathrm{ aiwi viller (birds flew)
```

However, there is also the possibility of a strong past tense by vowel lengthening. This happens always for a final -v and may also occur for -l, $\mathbf{- r}$ and -m, leading in several cases to coexisting alternative past tenses, cf. carnë and cárë which both are valid past tenses of car- (make).

```
lav- (to lick) }->\mathrm{ lávë (licked) }->\mathrm{ láven (I licked)
tul- (to come) }->\mathrm{ túlë (came) }->\mathrm{ túles (he came)
car- (to make) }->\mathrm{ cárë (made) }->\mathrm{ cáresses (he made it)
```

Like in English, there are several verbs with irregular past tense formation in Quenya. Most of them we will discuss in lesson 15. At this point, however, we will introduce lendë (went), the past tense of lelya- (to go); this word is important and will often be used in the text.

### 4.2.4 Past tense of 'to be'

The past tense of the verb 'to be' is né or náne (was). The regular endings can be appended to the form ne- or náne-, e.g.
nen ohtar (I was a warrior)
i alda tára né (the tree was tall)
i macili laurië náner (the swords were golden)

### 4.2.5 Possessive endings

In English, possessive pronouns are used to indicate possession of something (e.g. 'my sword'). In Quenya, endings (you might have guessed...) are used instead for the same purpose. These endings are:

| Subject | Singular | Plural | Dual |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | -nya (my) | -lma/-mma (our) | -lva, -ngwa (our) |
| 2. Person (familiar) | -tya (your) | -lda,-lla (your) | -sta (your) |
| 2. Person (formal) | -lya (thy) | -lda, -lla (your) | -sta (your) |
| 3. Person (animate) | -rya (his, her) | -nta, -lta (their) | -twa (their) |
| 3. Person (neuter) | -rya (its) | -nta, -lta (their) | -twa (their) |

Again, the different forms of 'our' correspond to the inclusive, exclusive and dual 'we' respectively. In fact, the whole table can be studied in close analogy with the use of the verbal pronominal suffixes from lesson 1.

Possessive endings in singular are always appended before endings indicating case. This likewise holds for the nominative and accusative plural, hence 'my daughters' is yendenyar in Quenya and not ${ }^{* *}$ yendernya. For a few case endings in plural (to be discussed later) the order can be reversed, but in most cases the possessive ending would precede the plural case ending. If a noun ends with a vowel, possessive endings are directly appended, if the noun ends with a consonant, usually a connecting vowel is inserted. Normally this is -e-, only in the case of the 1 st person singular the vowel -i- is preferred.

```
macil (sword) \(\rightarrow\) macilinya (my sword)
macil (sword) \(\rightarrow\) macilemmar (our swords)
alda (tree) \(\rightarrow\) aldarya (his tree)
aran (king) \(\rightarrow\) i macil aranelyáva (the sword of thy king)
calma (lamp) \(\rightarrow\) alcar calmalmo (the splendour of our lamp)
```


### 4.2.6 Long infinitives

In Quenya, there is the possibility to attach an object pronoun to an infinitive ('to see') to create a longer form which can serve as an object ('to see it'). However, not the normal infinitive ending is used for this purpose but an expanded infinitive which is found using the ending -ta. For basic verbs, this changes the usual infinitive ending -ë into -i-.

```
car- (to do) }->\mathrm{ carë (to do) }->\mathrm{ caritas (to do it)
cen- (to see) }->\mathrm{ cenë (to see) }->\mathrm{ cenital (to see thee)
mapa- (to seize) }->\mathrm{ mapa (to seize) }->\mathrm{ mapatas (to seize it)
```

These long infinitives can now be used as the subject or object of a sentence:

Cenital mára ná. (It is good to see thee.)
Caritas farya. (To do it suffices.)
Méran mapatas. (I want to take it.)

The long infinitive can also be combined with the possessive pronoun endings, optionally followed by short endings indicating object:

Cennentë mahtatanya. (They saw my fighting.)
Caritalyas mára ná. (Thy doing it is good; It is good that thou dost it.)

### 4.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| caita- | to lie (upon) | mahta- | to fight |
| cam- | to receive | mapa- (nampë ) | to seize |
| cap- | to jump | nó | before (of time) |
| car- | to do, to make | nyar- | to tell |
| cotumo | enemy | orya- | to rise |
| epë | after (of time) | raita- | to smile |
| farya- (farinyë ) | to suffice | senda | at peace |
| henta- | to examine | tec- | to write |
| lasta- | to hear, to listen to | tenta- | to point |
| lav- | to lick | tielyanna | upon your path |
| lenta- | to send | tulta- | to summon |
| lenweta- | to go away | virya- | to change (intr.) |
| limpë | wine | yulma | cup |

### 4.4 TEngWar

### 4.4.1 The spelling of ' $y$ '

In the combinations ty, ndy, sy, nty, ny and ry (those occur very frequently in the personal pronouns) the $y$ is written as two dots .. below the consonant, hence bop is read nty. Of course, a tehta standing for a vowel can be written on top.
 shall find).

In word-initial position, $y$ is written as anna with two dots below $\mathfrak{c}$, such as in $\mathfrak{C}$ yulma (cup). So actually anna is not really the sound y but just a special carrier.

### 4.4.2 The spelling of ' $h$ '

For reasons which have to do with the phonological evolution of Quenya, word-initial h is written different from an $h$ inside a word. Initially, hyarmen $\lambda$ is used, like in $\lambda \dot{y} \mathfrak{m}$ hirin (I find), whereas in the middle of a word one writes harma cl like in $\mathbb{i d p} p \mathrm{p}$ ohtar (warrior).
In order to write the aspirated hr or hl , halla $\mid$ is used (introducing a third tengwa for the letter h), like in l党反 hlarë (to hear).

### 4.4.3 The spelling of 's'

Usually, s is written as silme $\mathcal{U}$, or, if a tehta is to be written on top of it, as silme nuquerna $\mathfrak{\eta}$, however there are some words where an s represents a th in primitive Elvish; in Quenya this is spoken as $s$ but still written as thúle $b$. In the vocabulary we mark such words with a (th-). An example would be bp"3 sinda (Grey-elf).

A different complication occurs when s follows a consonant, such as in the combinations


## 4．4．4 The spelling of＇nw＇

Although there is nwalme ca in the table of tengwar representing the sound nw，this sign is only used word－initially．Inside a word，númen and vilya are used instead，such as in光口光 vanwa（gone）．

## 4．4．5 The spelling of＇$r$＇

There are two different signs for writing $r$ ，rómen $y$ and óre $\mathfrak{n}$ ．Among those，rómen rep－ resents a＇stronger＇$r$ ，it is used at the beginning of a word or between two vowels，such as in $p^{\prime \prime \prime}$＇ÚG tára（tall）．On the other hand，óre is a weaker sound and is written at the end of a word or as a part of a consonant cluster，such as ing orco（orc）or $\mathfrak{m} \mathfrak{j} \mathfrak{D}$ nér（man）．

## 4．4．6 Double consonants

With the exception of ss which is written as esse $\{$ or esse nuquerna $\mathfrak{q}$ ，the doubling of a consonant is expressed by a bar＿below a consonant．Hence，$p$ is read tt like in or ${ }_{p}$


## 4．4．7 A variant in writing

Since a is the most frequently used vowel in Quenya，there＇s an abbreviated writing mode in which all vowels but the a are written．Each consonant which is followed by a consonant （and not by a left－out a）is then marked with a single low dot．

Hence，one would write quen for calma（lamp）．Since the author of this course thinks that this is rather difficult to read and imagines that the majority of his readers will probably encounter similar difficulties，we will not use any texts written in this mode in this course．


## Lesson 5

## Aorist，NEGAtion USING UA， Verbs in Reflexive



## 5．1 TEXT

i明传的入昷的


党角官々：

 pividp 敞g解：：



## I nórë nu huinë

Serë caita nórenna, nan i serë ua tanca. I Noldor marir sintavë Mithrimessë. I alta ohta vanwa ná, nan orcor ranyar terë pallë ardar nórëo Noldoiva. I cotumor uar pusta mahta i eldar. Rimbavë eldali varyaxer.
Hísiel ar rimbë eldar nar ohtari. Merintë hirë ar mahta orcor mi taurë ar varyantë i osto aranye. Hísiel melë turë i macil, nan eldali turir ehti ar cúr.
Hísiel ua linyenwa. Uassë ista cuivëo Eldaron ar uassë enyalë cala Alduon Valimáro. Samissë olori calloron.

## The land beneath a shadow

Peace lies upon the land, but the peace is not firm. The Noldor live only for a short time at Lake Mithrim. The great war has passed, but orcs wander through wide regions of the land of the Noldor. The enemies do not stop to fight the elves. Often Elves defend themselves.
Hísiel and many elves are warriors. They wish to find and to fight orcs in the forest and they protect the town and the king. Hísiel likes to wield the sword, but some elves wield spears and bows.
Hísiel is not old. She does not know of the awakening of the Elves and she does not remember the light of the trees of Valinor. She still has dreams of heroes.

### 5.2 GRAMMAR

### 5.2.1 Aorist

Like English, Quenya has two distinct forms of expressing things that happen in he present. The present tense, mainly used for currently ongoing actions we have discussed in lesson 1. In contrast to this is the Aorist, a 'timeless' form of the present tense. Its main use is to tell general truths, e.g. istan quetë i lambe eldaiva (I speak the Elvish language, i.e. I am able to speak it any time it may be required, but I do not necessarily speak it right now). This is a timeless expression since it is true now, but also will be true in the future. In contrast is quétan i lambë eldaiva (I am speaking Elvish [now]) an expression denoting an ongoing action.

Apart from describing habits, general truths and capabilities (and such like) the Aorist is also used in situations in which the time remains somehow unspecified and in which it is unimportant if the action is ongoing in the very moment or not. The distinction between Aorist and present tense is, however, not very strict in third age Quenya - especially for derived verbs, the Aorist seems often to be used to express ongoing actions as well.

To understand the formation of the Aorist is easier than to understand its precise meaning. For basic verbs in the personless singular form, the Aorist is equal to the infinitive of the verb. To this form, the plural marker -r or any (long or short) pronominal ending can be appended. If any ending is present, the final -ë of basic verbs is changed into -i-.

Hísiel polë tecë. (Hísiel can write.)
Eldar polir quetë i lambë eldaiva. (Elves can speak Elvish.)
Ceninyes. (I see it.)
For derived verbs, the singular form of the Aorist is identical with the verb stem, i.e. lanta (falls) from lanta- (to fall). To this form, any of the known endings can be appended:

Hísiel mahta. (Hísiel fights.)
Lassi lantar. (Leaves fall.)
Haryan macil. (I possess a sword.)
Lindanyes. (I sing it.)

### 5.2.2 Negation using ua

Negation in Quenya is a bit complex, because there's a difference between stating a negative fact like 'Galadriel is not a dwarf' and a negative intention like 'I won't go to Utumno!'. In this lesson, we start with a way to state negative facts. One possibility to express such type of negation in Quenya is the use of the negative verb ua- (to be not, to do not) (this is both the Aorist and present tense form). The past tense of this verb is únë. It can take regular pronominal endings such as uan (I don't) or únetye (you didn't).

It can be used to negate relations between nouns and other nouns or nouns and adjectives in predicative use:

Elda ua Nauco. (An Elf is not a dwarf.)
Ilyë lassi uar laurië. (All leaves are not golden.)
I andúnë ua ringa. (The evening is not cold now.)
I andúni sinomë uar ringë. (The evenings here are [generally] not cold.)
Uan Nauco. (I'm not a dwarf.)
Uan úmëa . (I am not being evil.)
Uan saila. (I'm not wise.)
However, ua- is chiefly used with verbs. In this case, it remains in the present/Aorist form and takes pronominal endings, but the following verb is used in the personless form conjugated for the appropriate tense, such as ualyë carë (you don't make), uan cára (I am not making), uas cáre (he didn't make).

I nauco ua polë quetë i lambë. (The dwarf cannot speak the tongue.)
Uan mahtëa. (I do not fight [now].)
Uan cennes. (I did not see it.)
Nenwë ua polë mahta. (Nenwë is not able to fight.)
In archaic Quenya however, the negated verb always remains in infinitive and both tense and pronoun are carried by ua-:

Únen cenë. (I did not see).
Únetyë mahta i orcor. (You did not fight the orcs.)

### 5.2.3 Expressing 'and' in pairs

If one has a pair of things or persons in mind (like 'heaven and earth'), using ar is not the only way of translating the 'and' connecting them. The ending -yë can be used instead on the second word. A final -sye would be changed to -rye.

Nenwë Hísielyë (Nenwë and Hísiel)
tári aranyë (queen and king)
nauco eldayë (dwarf and elf)
ohta séreyë (war and peace)

### 5.2.4 The reflexive

If a transitive verb has an object which is the same as its subject, one has a reflexive verb form. In English, such forms usually involve a form of '-self' or 'each other', such in 'the elf saw himself' or 'the dwarves fought each other'. As we have learned in lesson 1, this can not be expressed by combining long and short pronominal endings. Thus, i naucor mahtanet translates as 'the dwarfs fought them [i.e. others]' and i elda cennes is 'the elf saw him [i.e. another person]'. Instead, the reflexive is used in Quenya.

The personless forms of the reflexive in singular, plural and dual are given by the endings -xe, -xer and -xet. For derived verbs, these are appended just as pronominal endings are in Aorist. Thus, one finds
i elda cennexe (the elf saw himself)
i naucor mahtanexer (the dwarves fought each other)
It is somewhat less clear how to combine this with pronominal endings. However, it seems plausible to 'open' the reflexive endings, i.e. to remove the plural or dual marker, use a long pronominal ending and finish with the plural or dual marker. Thus, 'myself' would combine into the ending -xe-n, whereas a plural 'yourselves' would be -xe-lle-r.
cenixen (I see myself)
tirixestet! (you two watch yourselves!)

### 5.2.5 Colloquial use of 3rd person possessives

We have learned that the endings denoting 'his' and 'their' are -rya and -nta, -lta respectively. However, in colloquial Quenya, the ending -rya has acquired a plural meaning as if the -r- in the ending was a plural marker. Consequently, the singular is then expressed by -ya only, so this leads to colloquial expressions like macilya (his sword) or yulmarya (their cups)
yulmarya oronye (their cups rose)
camnen macilya (I received his sword)

### 5.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alta | large, great in size | nauco | dwarf |
| arda | realm, region | nórenna | upon the land |
| cala | light | ohta | war |
| callo | hero | olor | dream |
| cú | bow | palla | wide |
| cuivë | awakening | pusta- | to stop |
| ehtë | spear | saila | wise |
| enyal- | to recall, to remember | sam- | to have |
| harya- | to have, to possess | sérë | peace |
| huinë | shadow | sinta (th-) | short |
| ista- | to know | tanca | firm, fixed, sure |
| linda- | to sing | tur- | to wield, to control, to govern |
| mar- | to abide, to be settled | úmëa | evil |
| mel- | to love | vanwa | gone, past |

### 5.4 Conversation - Greeting and Farewell

In the third age of Middle-Earth, Quenya is only spoken by very few on formal occasions, therefore the known greetings are rather formal as well. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that the Noldor, great lovers of the artistic use of language would have used similar elaborated phrases among themselves.

For a very formal way of addressing someone (like a king) you might use
Aiya N.N.! (Hail N.N.!),
or
Alla N.N.! (Hail N.N.!)
and combine this with the title of the person
Aiya Feanáro, aranion analta! (Hail Fëanor, greatest of kings!)
For a less formal occasion, like a meeting with other elves on the road, you can think of using

Elen síla lúmenna omentielvo! (A star shines upon the hour of our meeting!)
But remember to use this formula only if two persons (or two groups) are meeting (remember, Quenya makes a distinction between dual and plural). If a meeting of three or more groups takes place, you should say

Elen síla lúmenna yomenielmo! (A star shines upon the hour of our meeting!)
(yomenië being the correct word for a meeting of more than two). The difference of these phrases is lost in translation. Be careful when using such phrases to make the correct distinction between dual and plural and especially between exclusive and inclusive 'we' - if you use yomeniemmo instead of yomenielmo, you exclude the other party from your greeting (and are not really polite doing so!).

A similar greeting is
Anar caluva tielyanna! (The sun shall shine upon your path!)
A number of greetings and farewells revolve around márië (goodness, happiness). For a greeting, one might use

Hara máriesse! (Stay in happiness!)
whereas for farewell you might use
Márienna (Towards what is good!)
or
Namárië! (Farewell!)
Other farewell phrases are
Alámene! (Go with a blessing!)
or
Nai autuvalyë séressë! (May you leave in peace!)
or simply
Mára mesta. (Good journey.)


Lesson 6

## Locative And Allative, RELATIVE SENTENCES



### 6.1 TEXT


 i quำ的:



以






## Massë i Sinda?

Hilyala auressë Hísiel ar Nenwë enlelyeat taurenna. Merintë hirë i Sinda i cennentë.
Hísiel: Nalvë i nómessë yassë né omentielva.
Nenwë: Ar i lúmë yassë mernessë tulë.
Hísiel: Massë nas?
Nenwë: A lasta lamma Rómessë! Mahtalë ná.
Hísiel: Lelyalvë alarcavë Rómenna yassë i mahtalë!
Túlantë nómenna yassë quén mahtanë.
Hísiel:Á cenë sercë talamessë!
Nenwë: Rimbë orcor ner sinome ar namper i Sinda. Hilyatat alasaila ná.
Hísiel: Ua alasaila. Hilyeanyë!

## Where is the Sinda?

On the following day, Hísiel and Nenwë are again going to the forest. They wish to find the Sinda whom they saw.
Hísiel: We are at the place where our meeting was.
Nenwë: And it is the hour in which he wanted to come.
Hísiel: Where is he?
Nenwë: Listen, a sound in the East! It is a battle!
Hísiel: We go swiftly to the East where this fight is!
They come to a place where someone fought.
Hísiel: Look, blood on the ground!
Nenwë: Many orcs were here and have taken the Sinda. To follow them is unwise.
Hísiel: It is not unwise! I am pursuing!

### 6.2 GRammar

### 6.2.1 The locative

Previously, we made statements about the place where something happens with the help of a preposition. We have used $\mathbf{m i}$ (in), e.g. mi taurë (in a forest). This is possible in Quenya, however it might be seen as unusual. It is more usual to express this idea with the help of a case inflection ending. The relevant case for specifying places (and times for that matter) is the locative.

This case is formed using the ending -ssë in singular, -ssen in plural and partitive plural (in the latter case in addition to the ending -li) and -tsë in dual. For any noun ending with a vowel, those endings can be appended directly. This also applies to nouns with a possessive ending:

```
coassë (in a house)
coassen (in houses)
tauressë (in a forest)
ciryatsë (on both ships)
lúmessë (at an hour)
eldalissen (with some elves)
coanyassë (in my house)
```

For nouns ending with a consonant, a connecting vowel has to be inserted. In singular and dual this is -e-, but in plural presumably the regular plural ending -i- is used for that purpose (the partitive plural always ends in a vowel because of the ending -li):
mindonessë (at a tower)
mindonissen (at towers)
mindonetsë (at both towers)
orontissen (on mountains)
For nouns which form their dual in -u, presumably the singular ending -ssë is preferred to -tsë since it is unnecessary to have both the dual markers -u and -t- present:
andussë (at both gates)

### 6.2.2 The allative

Like places, also directions can be expressed in Quenya by means of a case ending. The relevant case is called allative. It is used to express directions as 'to, towards', but sometimes also as 'into'. Finally, especially with caita- (to lie) it can be used to express 'upon'.

In singular, the allative is formed using the ending -nna. In plural, this gets -nnar, in dual -nta. In partitive plural, -nnar is appended to the ending -li. Again, for nouns ending with a vowel, this is no problem:

```
coanna (to a house)
i taurenna (into the forest)
aldannar (to trees)
ciryanta (towards both ships)
eldalinnar (to some elves)
Isil síla tienyanna. (The moon is shining upon my path.)
Hísië caita nórenna. (Mist lies upon the land.)
```

For nouns ending with a consonant, the set of connecting vowels known from the locative is inserted again: in singular and dual this is -e-, in plural rather -i-:
orontenna (to a mountain)
orontinnar (towards mountains)
As in the case of the locative, for nouns with duals in -u, presumably rather the singular ending -nna is used than the dual -nta:
andunna (towards both gates)
If the context does not clarify if the allative is meant to imply 'towards' or 'into', e.g. in lelyëan coanyanna which could be 'I'm going to my house' or 'I'm going into my house', prepositions can be used instead of the allative to clarify what is meant: lelyëan minna coanya can only be translated as 'I'm going into my house'.

### 6.2.3 Shortened forms

When appending possessive or case inflection endings it occasionally occurs that a word ends just with the consonant the ending begins with. For example, in 'my king' we have the final -n of aran meeting the initial -n- of -nya. Following the standard rules, we would form araninya (my king), but presumably the shortened aranya is more common in Quenya. Be careful not to confuse this with the use of -ye expressing 'and', and especially with the colloquial use of -ya for which aranya translates as 'his king'.

Generalizing this, we find that equal consonants may be merged when appending an ending:

```
mindonna (to a tower)
ohtarya (his warrior)
macilya (your sword)
```

indissë (at a wife)
Sometimes one finds even more drastically reduced forms, such as yonya (my son) from yondo (son) instead of yondonya, but it is difficult to give rules in what cases such a contraction would be acceptable. However, some contractions appear to be rather common. The most important ones concern the directions Formen (North), Hyarmen (South), Rómen (East) and Númen (West). Here, the final -n is regularly left out when giving directions or positions:

Formessë (in the North)
Rómessë (in the East)
Númenna (into the West)
Hyarmenna (into the South)

### 6.2.4 Relative sentences

In Quenya there are two different relative pronouns. The first one, $\mathbf{i}$ is indeclinable (i.e. does not receive any case endings) and identical with the definite article. Presumably, it is only used for persons and even then only in nominative and accusative without any distinction in number:

> i elda i ohtar ná (the elf who is a warrior)
> i nauco i cennenyë (the dwarf whom I saw)
> eldali i lender (some elves who went)
> tornet i mahtar (both brothers who fight)

The second possibility is the relative pronoun which takes the form ye for persons and ya for inanimate things. These become in plural $\mathbf{i}$ and yar and can be inflected for case just like other nouns.
macil ya Hísiel turë (the sword that Hísiel wields)
aldar yar cennenyë (trees which I saw)
lúmë yassë Feanáro firnë (the hour in which Feanor died)
i nér yeo yondo mahtanen (the man whose son I fought)
i eldar ion quentes (the elves about whom he spoke)
tië yanna lelyammë (the direction into which we travel)
Tinco yava macil erë ná. (the metal of which this sword is [made] is steel.)

### 6.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |  | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alarca | swift, rushing |  | lámë | hour, time |
| alasaila | unwise |  | *mahtalë | fight |
| aurë | day | nómë | place |  |
| en- | prefix re-, again | Númen | West |  |
| erë | steel | quén | someone |  |
| fir- | to die | Rómen | East |  |
| Formen | North | sercë | blood |  |
| hilyala | following | talan (talam-) | floor |  |
| Hyarmen | South | tinco | metal |  |
| Isil | the moon | toron (torn-) | brother |  |
| lamma | sound | yondo | son |  |

### 6.4 Conversation - Asking for things

If you're travelling with elves, you might end up in a situation where you spend an evening with them around the fire. If then food is passed around (and in other situations) it is useful if you've learned enough Quenya to ask for things.

Please learn to use the correct pronouns first - you should always be aware of the difference between formal address -lye and informal one -tye, as well as know when to use inclusive, exclusive and dual 'we'. Otherwise you might end up being rude unintentionally.

If you want to ask for something very politely, you could try
Ma nin antalyë . . ? (Couldst thou hand me over. . . ?)
If you have some degree of familiarity with the elf, this may become
Ma nin antatyë ... ? (Can you give me... ?)
If your desire is really urgent (and you don't care so much about being polite), this might be an option:

Ánin anta ...! (Give me...!)
If you'd like to see your cup refilled, you might ask
Ma nin enquantatyë yulmanya? (Could you refill my cup?)
In general, you can state your wish as
Méran ... (I desire ... ).
After your wish has been granted, you might want to express your gratitude using
Hantanyel. (I thank thee.)
If you get asked for something yourself and agree to hand something over, you might try
Mára. (Well.) or Antanyë. ([Yes], I give.)
If you deny the request, this gets
Vá or Aván (No.)
Using the following list of words, you should be able to form complete requests like
Ma nin antatyë i yulma limpeva? (Can you give me the cup of wine?).
Remember that the possessive is used here to express 'having wine' as a property of the cup!

You might ask for the following:
Food and drink: apsa (cooked food, meat), masta/massa (bread), lís (liss-) (honey), sáva (juice), pirya (syrup), yávë (fruit), porë (flour), culuma (orange), sulca (edible root), coimas (Lembas), miruvórë ('mead', a Valinorean drink), limpë (wine), sulpa (soup), pio (plum, cherry), piucca (berry), tyuru (cheese)
Tableware: yulma (cup), sicil (knife, dagger), venë (container, bowl), cilinyul (drinking vessel of glass)


## Lesson 7

## Dative and Ablative， Gerund，Superlative



### 7.1 Text

尚と群



 infin：：






## Mahtalë

I orcor lelyear lintavë, ar i eldar atta hilyeat andavë. Mentessë túlantë ambonnar taureva ar cénantë i orcor hauta palan parna ambossë. Hísiel antea ilyë pilinderyar Nenwen ar lelyea muinavë nómenna orcoiva. Tanomë hauteas. Mettassë pilindi Nenwëo vílar taurello orcoin. Hísiel cápa nómerya foinallo. Cénas i Sinda nútessen ar orcor cainen. Túrassë macilerya analarca ar mácassë orcor atta. Nenwë hortëa rimbë pilindi nuhtien mahta orcor. Hísiel ná ohtar anverya, nan sercerya síra lintavë. Nan i orcor uar veryë. Uar merë firë Sindan. Mentessë autear.

## A fight

The orcs are marching swiftly and the two elves follow for a long time. At the end, they are coming to wooded hills and see the orcs rest far away on a bare hilltop. Hísiel gives all her arrows to Nenwë and is going secretly to the place of the orcs. There she is waiting. At the end, Nenwë's arrows fly from the forest to the orcs.
Hísiel is jumping from her hiding-place. She sees the Sinda in bonds and ten orcs. She is wielding her sword exceedingly swift and is slaying two orcs. Nenwë is sending more arrows to prevent the orcs from fighting. Hísiel is a very bold warrior, but her blood is flowing swiftly. The orcs, however, are not bold. They do not wish to die for a Sinda. In the end, they flee.

### 7.2 GRammar

### 7.2.1 The dative

The dative has no direct counterpart in English as a distinct case; usually the Quenya dative is used to translate English expressions involving 'for someone', 'to someone', 'for the benefit of someone' and such like. In general, the dative marks someone or something profiting from the verb action. The standard example is the verb 'to give' (from which the name dative is derived in Latin): The thing that is given is in accusative whereas the one who receives the gift (and hence profits from it) is in dative. In addition to expressing that something is done for someone, the dative can presumably also be used to express that something is done against someone, hence it would also be used in 'I fight against orcs'.

The dative is formed by appending the ending -n to the stem of a noun in singular. For all nouns ending in $\mathbf{- r}$ in plural, this ending is replaced by $\mathbf{- i}$ - before $\mathbf{- n}$ is appended (this replacement is similar as in the case of the possessive), for all nouns forming plural in -i the ending is appended directly. The dual dative ending is -nt. For nouns with duals in -u, presumably the singular ending -n is favoured instead. Finally, the ending -n can simply be appended to the partitive plural.

For nouns ending in a consonant a connecting vowel -e- has to be inserted before the dative ending is appended. Since the ending is so short, it cannot be merged with a final -n of a word: 'for a king' is therefore always aranen and never aran only.

```
coan (for a house)
lassen (for a leaf)
i ciryain (for the ships)
lassin (for leaves)
ciryant (for both ships)
andun (for both gates)
```

```
aranen (for a king)
aranyan (for my king)
casallin (for some dwarves)
```

A sentence may have verb objects in both dative and accusative objects. In English, in this case the dative has to be expressed by a preposition or has to come first, 'I give the man a dog' is not the same as 'I give the dog a man'. In Quenya, however, the case inflection ending makes the distinction clear and either object may come first.

Mahtan nórenyan. (I fight for my land.)
Anteatyë i naucon harma. (You're giving the dwarf a treasure.)
Anteatyë harma i naucon. (You're giving a treasure to the dwarf.)
For consonant stems, especially those ending with $\mathbf{- n}$, there is a variant of the dative singular ending. Instead of inserting a connecting vowel -e- before the ending -n, the dative singular can be marked with an ending -a.
arana (for a king)
nata (for a thing)

### 7.2.2 The ablative

The final case dealing with position is the ablative. It is used to express the direction from where something is coming.

In singular, it is formed using the ending -llo. In plural, this becomes -llon (or -llor). The dual ending is -lto. These endings are directly appended if the noun ends with a vowel. In partitive plural, either -llo or -llon is correct and is appended to the partitive plural -li.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { coallo (from a house) } \\
& \text { lassello (from a leaf) } \\
& \text { ciryalto (from both ships) } \\
& \text { coallon (from houses) } \\
& \text { eldalillon (from some elves) }
\end{aligned}
$$

For nouns ending with a consonant, in singular and dual the connecting vowel -e- has to be inserted; in plural this is presumably -i-. For nouns with duals in -u, -llo is presumably preferred to -lto. Finally, for nouns ending with -l the ablative ending can be merged with this final consonant:
aranello (from a king)
natillon (from things)
andullo (from both gates)
As already discussed, the ablative denotes directions from where something comes. This can sometimes lead to an overlap in meaning with the genitive if the genitive is used to denote origin. In the phrase antalë Hísiellello a present is named that comes from Hísiel's direction, maybe from her home, but not necessarily from here. In antalë Hísiello however the present has its origin from her, presumably she made it. antalë Hísielwa names a present belonging to Hísiel, presumably she was receiving it. Finally, antalë Hísiellen is a present for Hísiel which is supposed to be given to her.

### 7.2.3 The gerund

The gerund is a noun derived from a verb describing the verb action, e.g. 'the singing' from 'to sing'. It should not be confused with the English participle 'singing' which is used as an adjective like in 'a singing man'. Gerund and infinitive are not particularly distinct
in Quenya, hence it is entirely legitimate to translate a Quenya gerund as an infinitive in English.

For basic verbs, the gerund is formed by appending -ië to the verb stem, e.g. tecië (writing) from tec- (to write). For derived verbs, there are two different cases: Usually, the final -a of the verbal stem is removed and the ending -ië appended, e.g. i lantië (the falling) from lanta- (to fall). If the verb however ends with -ya, then this entire ending is removed before appending -ië, therefore one finds hilië (following) from hilya- (to follow).

Finally, for verbs which end in their only vowel like ná (to be) or verbs which show an ending in two vowels after the derivational suffix is removed like tuia- (to sprout) (where we'd find tui-ië when removing the ending to get the gerund), the alternative ending -vë is used to get návë (being) or tuivë (sprouting).

The main difference between gerund and infinitive in Quenya is that it is possible for the gerund to receive case inflection endings (since it can be treated like a regular noun). Especially the dative is important in this context since gerunds in dative are used to express phrases which employ 'in order to' or similar constructions in English (note that many phrases denoting intention do not have the full 'in order to' in English but just 'to' - nevertheless an infinitive alone is not enough to express such intentions and the gerund has to be chosen):

Túlen tirien. (I came in order to watch.)
Tirissë uaven lanta. (He watches in order not to fall.)
Hísiel lelyëa mahtien. (Hísiel is marching to fight.)
Of course the gerund can also be used in other cases besides dative:
i tecieva issë (the art of writing)
ua mára lantië (it is not good to fall)
túlan i mahtiello (I'm coming from the fighting)
lelyean i tecienna (I'm going to the writing)

### 7.2.4 The use of possessive endings in locative, allative and ablative plural

Usually the possessive pronominal endings precede the case ending, but for the endings -nnar, -llon (-llor) and -ssen the order can be inverted: In this case, the plural marker -r or -n is removed from the ending, the case ending is appended to the word first, followed by the possessive ending, followed by the plural marker.
cirya-nna-nya-r (towards my ships)
lasselloryar (from its leaves)
ostosselyan (in your towns)
It may even be that this is the regular order for these endings.

### 7.2.5 The superlative

Quenya does not form a true superlative, but it does have forms which may sometimes be translated as one. These are called intensified forms.

Intensification is done by means of prefixes. The lesser degree is expressed by an- or ana- whereas the higher degree of intensification is expressed by ar- or ari-. This leads to an intensification of the meaning of the adjective, such as in calima (bright), ancalima (very bright) arcalima (exceedingly bright), or melda (dear), anamelda (very dear) and arimelda (exceedingly dear).

If, however, a genitive is present to name a group that is compared to the object described by the adjectives, e.g. ancalima elenion (very bright among the stars), a superlative is implied and it is permissible to translate this form as 'one of the brightest stars'. Similarly, arcalima elenion (exceedingly bright among the stars) could be translated as 'the brightest star'.

In combining the prefix an- with the adjective, sometimes consonant clusters are formed which are not permissible in Quenya. In these cases, consonants are assimilated:
an- + l- gets all-, an- $+\mathbf{s}$ is changed into ass-, an- $+\mathbf{r}$ - into arr-, an- $+\mathbf{m}-$ into amm- and finally an- + p- into amp-.

As an alternative, the prefix ana- can be used. When ar- is combined with an adjective, the combinations -rf-, -rh-, -rl- and -rs- are problematic, but in this case it is probably best to use ari- instead.

In some cases, ere- (sole, alone) can also form a superlative with an adjective, as in eremelda (sole dear, dearest). Finally, the intensified form of mára (good) is the irregular arya (excelling).

```
assaila (very wise)
assaila aranion (among the wisest of the kings)
eresaila (wisest, wise alone)
arlinwenya atanion (oldest among men)
antanca (very strong)
ampalan (very far)
ariringa (exceedingly cold)
ereringa hríve (the coldest winter)
arya ohtarion (the best of the warriors)
```


### 7.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ambo | hill | melda | dear |
| anta- | to give | mentë | end |
| antalë | gift | muina | hidden, secret |
| atan | man, human | nuhta- | to stunt, to stop short |
| atta | two | nútë | bond, knot |
| auta- (vánë , oantë $)$ | to go away, to leave | palan | far, wide |
| cainen | ten | parna | bare |
| foina | hidden | pilin (pilind-) | arrow |
| issë | art, lore | sir- | flow |
| harma | trasure | tanomë | in that place |
| horta- | to let fly, to send flying | tuia- | to sprout |
| mac- | to slay | verya | bold |

### 7.4 Conversation - Yes and No

In many cases, Quenya is richer in expression than English. A good example for this is how to express agreement or disagreement. In Quenya, there is a difference if one disagrees with a fact or states an intention.

A question like

Ma Hísiel elda? (Is Hísiel an elf?)
is asking for a fact. The possible answer is evidently independent of any intention of the person being addressed by the question. It only depends on Hísiel being an elf or not (assuming you do not intend to lie).
On the other hand, a question like
Ma tulityë coanyanna? (Do you come to my house?).
might rather be interpreted as asking for an intention - the questioned person can make a decision and will answer the question based on the result of the decision (and this is not a fact, since the intention to come to the house might change later on). Generally, questions asking for intentions can only be formulated in aorist or future. If the event has happened already, it is not an intention any more (even if you were unsure yesterday if you should visit your friend, yesterday's mood has become a fact that you cannot influence any more).
You can confirm your intention using
Mára. ([This is] good.)
but this makes little sense as a reply to a question asking for facts. Here, you should rather repeat the verb of the question or use a form of 'to be':

Ma eldar altë? (Are elves tall?)
Nar. ('Yes.'; lit. 'They are.') or Ná (It is so.).

Ma Hísiel mahtanë mai? (Did Hísiel fight well?)
Mathanes. ([Yes], she fought well.)
If you'd like to deny an intention, you can use
Vá. (No.) or Ávan. (I won't.)
But these expressions cannot be used to deny facts. Here, you should use
Lá. (No.)
or repeat the negated verb of the question, i.e.
Ma naucor altë? (Are dwarves tall?)
Uar. ('No.'; lit.' They are not.')
Ma Hísiel mahtanë mai? (Did Hísiel fight well?)
Ua mahtanë. ([No], she did not fight well.)
Sometimes, these distinctions can convey nuances of meaning. Assume you would really like to visit your friend, but you know that he lives on an island and you are quite sure you will not have a boat, you should answer

Ma tulityë coanyanna? (Do you come to my house?)
using
Lá. (No.)
since you want to express that it is not by intention that you won't come but rather that you are forced by the circumstances to remain at home.
Well - if you have to decline the invitation, you might think of offering an apology:
Ánin apsenë. (Forgive me!)


## Lesson 8

## Perfect tense，negative Imperative，Pronouns



## 8．1 Text

м的言 ipicion








 ظyím：：
尚柋们：


Númello utúliemmë. . .
I eldar hárar náressë ar quétar.
Maglos: Orcor amápier nyë ar Auriel sellinya. Nótë orcoron avánië nórenna cotumo.
Hísiel: Hilyalmë. Nan hautalmë lómissë. Sí ava quetë sellelyo.
Maglos: Mallo i Noldor utúlier? Utúlieldë lúmessë aralta maurëo.
Nenwë: Númello utúliemmë, Valimarello.
Hísiel: Terë i Helcaraxë eléliemmë, ar rimbë Noldor ifírier.
Maglos: Manen evérieldë Helcaraxë?
Hísiel: Liemmo aran amápië ciryammar ar usúsiet. Avániessë liemma firien.
Nenwë: Sinomë marimmë liet. Uammë utúlië mahtien i cotumo hya lyë varien.
Maglos: Nan ánieldë estel men.
We have come from the West...
The elves sit around the fire and talk.
Maglos: The orcs have seized me and Auriel, my sister. A number of orcs have departed into the land of the enemy.
Hísiel: We follow them. But we rest at night. Now don't talk of your sister any more.
Maglos: Where did the Noldor come from? You have come at the time of our greatest need.
Nenwë: From the west we have come, from Valinor.
Hísiel: Through the grinding ice we have gone, and many Noldor have died.
Maglos: Why did you dare the grinding ice?
Hísiel: A king of our people has seized the ships and has burned them. He left our people to die.
Nenwë: Here we abide as two people. We did not come to fight the enemy or to help you.
Maglos: But you have given hope to us.

### 8.2 GRammar

### 8.2.1 Perfect tense

The perfect tense is used to describe actions which have been completed in the past and are over by the time they are told. This is the main difference to the past tense.

The perfect tense is the only verbal form that receives a prefix in addition to an ending. This prefix (called 'augment', 'strengthening') is a repetition of the stem vowel. The original stem vowel is then lengthened if possible (i.e. if it is not followed by two or more consonants).

Therefore we find from tec- (to write) etéc- and from fanta- (to veil) afanta- . The perfect tense ending -ie is then appended to this augmented form. For basic verbs, this is straightforward. For derived verbs, usually the full derivational ending -ta, -ya, -da, -na or $\mathbf{- a}$ is dropped. For the derived verbs, this may imply that it actually becomes possible to lengthen the stem vowel since a consonant is dropped.
tec- (to write) $\rightarrow$ etécië (has written)
fanta- (to veil) $\rightarrow$ afánië (has veiled)
verya- (to dare) $\rightarrow$ evérië (has dared)
comya- (to gather) $\rightarrow$ ocómië (has gathered)
quet- (to speak) $\rightarrow$ equétië (has spoken)
anta- (to give) $\rightarrow$ ánië (has given)
This becomes a bit problematic when the verb had a diphthong, such as auta- (to go away) or caita- (to lie). In this case, it is probably best to start from the past tense form, e, g, vánë and ceantë and just replace the ending by the perfect -ië and use the first vowel of the diphthong as augment.

> auta- (to go away) $\rightarrow$ vánë (went away) $\rightarrow$ avánië (has gone away)
> caita- (to lie) $\rightarrow$ ceantë (lay) $\rightarrow$ eceantië (has lain)

This gets the right perfect for auta-. If however a purely physical 'has left, has gone to another place' is meant, then the perfect tense is actually oantië.

There's yet another complication having to do with the fact that some consonant changes occur when an ending is appended, and these have to be undone when the ending is removed. For example mahta- (to fight) represents mac-ta- and would lead to a perfect amácië (has fought). But we will deal with other examples of these kind in lesson 15.

To these forms, the usual set of plural marker -r or long and short pronominal endings can be appended:
equétienyes (I have said it)
i lassi alantier (the leaves have fallen)
amácietyë orcor (you have fought orcs)
ecénielyen (you have seen me)
There is a complication whenever a verb begins with a vowel. In this case, the augment is presumably the repeated first syllable, but it is also possible that it is simply left out (and the perfect tense is only denoted by -ië and the vowel lengthening if possible). Maybe both versions are acceptable, and leaving out the augment might even be acceptable for other verbs:
ora- (to urge) $\rightarrow$ orórië (has urged)
anta- (to give) $\rightarrow$ ánië (has given)
hir- (to find) $\rightarrow$ hírië or ihírië (has found)
If the first vowel of a verb is caused by a prefix however; e.g. if the element en- (again) is used, then the augment is formed from the regular verb (with prefix removed) and the prefix is then reinserted before the augment:

$$
\text { encen- (see again) } \rightarrow \text { enecénië (has seen again) }
$$

### 8.2.2 Perfect tense of 'to be' and 'to be not'

The verb 'to be' has the perfect tense anaië whereas the negative verb ua- has the perfect tense uië. To these, the regular endings can be appended.

Nenwë anaië ohtar. (Nenwë has been a warrior.)
Hísiel uie Valimaressë. (Hísiel has not been in Valinor.)
Uien nahta orco. (I have not slain the orc.) (archaic use)
Uan anácië orco. (I have not slain the orc.) (colloquial use)

### 8.2.3 Independent Pronouns

Up to now, we have seen pronouns only as verbal endings, and this is in fact where they are most often used in Quenya. But there are several possibilities to use pronouns independent
of a verb, though it is not quite clear if the pronouns can be used like this in all cases.
Pronouns in nominative are rare in the attested texts. We find

| Subject | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | ni (I) | $\mathrm{me} / \mathrm{met}$ (we) |
| 2. Person (formal) | le (thou) | le (ye) |
| 2. Person | tye (you) | le (you) |
| 3. Person | ta (he, she, it) se (he, she), sa (it) | *te (they) |

Here, me stands for inclusive (and possible exclusive?) 'we', whereas met represents the dual 'we'.

Quenya can only have one pronoun as a verb subject. Therefore, if one wants to use an independent pronoun, the pronominal ending of the verb has to be dropped. Arguably this is most useful when dealing with the verb 'to be' and to avoid combinations which are difficult to pronounce. However, using those pronouns does not convey any special emphasis, for this there's a separate class of pronouns in Quenya.

```
Ni elda. (I [am] an elf.)
Met eldar. (We both [are] elves.)
Tye téca parma. (You are writing a book.)
Sa parma ná. (It is a book.)
```

Independent pronouns in accusative can be used instead of a short ending (which in turn is appended to a long ending), hence melityen or tye melë nye are both equivalent ways of expressing 'you love me'. It isn't quite clear, but there is some evidence that pronouns in accusative may not always be identical with the nominative forms (in some conceptual stages of Tolkien's work, the following forms seem to be variants of the nominative ones instead):

| Object | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | *nye (me) | me/met (us) |
| 2. Person (formal) | lye (thee) | lye (ye) |
| 2. Person | tye (you) | lye (you) |
| 3. Person | *ta (him, her, it) | te (them) |

They can be used if the short ending is unknown or doesn't produce a pleasant sound:
Tye melinyë. (I love you.)
A macë te! (Kill them!)
In cases other than accusative, the case inflection endings are presumably appended to the nominative forms of the pronouns. But if one interprets the accusatives given above rather as variant forms, then of course those can be inflected as well. We have attested examples for both uses. As an example, we give the dative with the ending -n:

| Object | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | nin (me) | men/ment (us) |
| 2. Person (formal) | len (thee) | len (ye) |
| 2. Person | *tyen (you) | len (you) |
| 3. Person | *sen (him, her) *san (it) | tien (them) |

(For the 3rd person plural, some vowel shifts take place since the nominative te represents older *tai. In essence, this leads to the fact that all case inflection endings have to be appended to tie- instead of $t e$-. The form ment is the dual 'we' in dative.)
Since datives cannot be expressed as verb endings, there is no choice but to use independent pronouns:

Man antanë nin parma? (Who gave me a book?)

Mahtammë lyen. (We fight for you.)
Here are some examples for pronouns in other cases:
Man lëo ohtar? (Who among you is a warrior?) (genitive)
Tyenna utúlien. (I have come to you.) (allative)
Tiello túlas. (He is coming from them.) (ablative)
Tyessë marin. (With you I abide.) (locative)
But the use of the accusative/variant forms may also be permissible with inflection:
Elen síla lyenna! (A star is shining upon you!)
Hísiel nyessë ná. (Hísiel is with me.)

### 8.2.4 Negative Imperative

Negative imperatives (used to prohibit something) are phrased in Quenya similar to the usual imperative, but instead of the particle á, rather áva is used:

```
áva tulë (don't come!)
áva hilya nin (don't follow me!)
áva matë massa (don't eat bread!)
```


### 8.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| comya- | to gather |
| estel | hope |
| fanta- | to veil |
| har- | to sit |
| hya | or |
| lië | people |
| lómë (lómi-) | night |
| *mallo | where from |
| *manen | why, by what |
| massa | bread |
| mat- | eat |
| maurë | need |
| nahta- | to slay |
| nárë | fire, flame |
| nótë | number |
| parma | book |
| seler (th-) (sell-) | sister |
| sí | now |
| usta- | to burn (something) |
| verya- | to dare |

### 8.4 Conversation - INTRODUCING ONESELF

If you have met elves and have exchanged greetings, presumably eventually the time will come when you'd like to tell something about yourself. Maybe you should start with your names, knowing the name of the person one talks to is also desirable for elves:

Essenya ná N.N. (My name is N.N.)
But elves do not only know the name essë (which is used to denote the whole person including body and soul), but they often have additional given or added names. Such name is called epessë (after-name).

Before they find their own name, elves get their first name by their mother. Such a name is called amilessë (mother-name). Both the given name and the mother-name can be referred to as anessi. Sometimes it happens that an elf chooses a name for himself. Such a name is then called cilmessë (choosen name). Pay attention which of his names an elf tells you!

Using e.g.
Nan centano. (I'm a potter.)
you can talk about your profession. In the vocabulary at the end of this section you'll find some more useful words.

You can introduce your family using
Sin vessenya ná. Esserya ná N.N. (This is my wife. Her name is N.N.)
If you want to talk about children, you might say
Hínar atta nar nossemmassë. (Two children are in our house.)
Do not try a literal translation of the English 'I have two children.' using harya- (to have, to possess) in Quenya - elves would never see children as a possession and would find your choice of words exceedingly strange.

If you talk about where you come from, the Aorist is used to denote your true home:
Tulin Ondolindello. (I come from Gondolin.)
The perfect tense, however, is used when you want to express that you come from a place which is not your home:

Utúlien Ondolindello. (I have come from Gondolin.)
Alternatively, you might also use
Márenya ná Ondolindë. (Gondolin is my home.)
Professions and titles: aran (king), tári (queen), cundu (prince), aranel (princess), heru (lord), heri (lady), arquen (nobleman), haryon (heir), roquen (knight), cáno (commander), tercáno (herald), istyar (scholar), sairon (wizard), ingólmo (loremaster), lambengolmo (loremaster, linguist), tano (craftsman, smith), quentaro (storyteller), samno (carpenter, wright, builder), centaro (potter), ciryamo (mariner), ohtar (warrior), ehtyar (spearman)
Familiy: verno (husband), vessë (wife), indis (bride), atar (father), amil or ammë (mother), yondo (son), yeldë (daughter), toron (torn-) (brother), onómë or seler (th-) (sell-) (sister), indyo (grandchild), onóna (onón-) (twin), hína (child)


Lesson 9

Future tense，emphatic Pronouns，VErbs demanding A CASE


## 9．1 Text

炡施当






佮认党吅：




## Orontinnar

Hilyala auressë hísië caitëa nórenna. Hísiel cuivëa arinyavë.
Maglos: I orcor lelyear orontinnar. I ondolissë úvalmë hirë tienta.
Hísiel: Hiruvalmet. Roitan voronwa.
Maglos: Nan rucin i nótello orcoron.
Nenwë: Ava rucë. Hísiel ohtar antaura ná, ar inyë ua alamaitë.
Maglos: Mai equétietyë. Haruvan estel.
I eldar lelyear Formenna. Sinyessë mistë lantëa. Mettassë túlar orontinnar.
Nenwë: Sinomë i orcoron tië vanwa ná.
Hísiel: Uantë hiruva rimbë tier terë i oronti. Etyë polë hirë te sinomë.
Ohtacaruvalmë orconnar!

## Mountainwards

On the next day, mist lies upon the land. Hísiel awakens early.
Maglos: The orcs are marching towards the mountains. On rocks, we will not find their trail.
Hísiel: We will find them. I hunt with endurance.
Maglos: But I fear the number of the orcs.
Nenwë: Don't fear. Hísiel is a mighty warrior, and even I am not without skills.
Maglos: You have spoken well. I will have hope.
The elves march towards North. In the evening, a light rain is falling.
In the end they come to the mountains.
Nenwë: Here the trail of the orcs is gone.
Hísiel: They will not find many paths through the mountains. Even you can find them here. We will make war against the orcs!

### 9.2 GRAMMAR

### 9.2.1 The future tense

The future tense is used to describe (just like in English) events which have not yet happened. But in Quenya, future tense can be used if a speaker believes an event is going to happen or if he wishes it; hence both 'Our friendship shall last forever.' and 'The sun will rise tomorrow.' would be future tense in Quenya.

The formation of this tense is simple - the ending -uva is used. For basic verbs, this can directly be appended to the verbal stem; for derived verbs the ending -a has to be dropped before:

```
cen- (to see) }->\mathrm{ cenuva (will see)
hir- (to find) }->\mathrm{ hiruva (will find)
quet- (to speak) }->\mathrm{ quetuva (will speak)
lanta- (to fall) }->\mathrm{ lantuva (will fall)
```

However, it seems that for derived verbs, this is a late development, and the older form would actually involve a loss of the derivational ending with all consequences as seen in the discussion of the perfect in lesson 8. This may still be the case for all derived verbs in -ya, hence:
mahta- (to fight) $\rightarrow$ macuva (will fight)
lelya- (to go) $\rightarrow$ leluva (will go)
ista- (to know) $\rightarrow$ isuva (will know)

To these forms, the complete set of plural markers and long and short pronominal endings can be appended:

Lossë lantuva hrívessë. (In winter, snow will fall.)
Valimaressë hiruvalyë sérë. (In Valinor you will find peace.)
Sinomë maruvan. (Here I will abide.)

### 9.2.2 The future tense of 'to be' and 'to be not'

The future tense of 'to be' is nauva (will be), its negative version reads úva (will not be).
Nauvalyë saila. (You will be wise.)
Nauco úva tecë parma. (A dwarf will not write a book.)
Nissi úvar ohtari. (Women will not be warriors.)

### 9.2.3 Emphatic pronouns

In Quenya there's the possibility to use pronouns with special emphasis. For example, compare 'I fight for my country.' with 'I, too, fight for my country' - the second example would correspond to an emphatic pronoun in Quenya.

Emphatic pronouns are derived following a rather clear scheme - essentially they are the long pronominal endings known from the verb conjugation, but they are appended to a 'carrier' $\mathbf{e}-$, or in the case of the 1 st person singular $\mathbf{i}$-, hence emmë an emphatic exclusive 'we' or elyë an emphatic formal 'you'.

| Subject | Singular | Plural | Dual |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | inyë (I) | *elmë / emmë (we) | *elvë, engwë (we) |
| 2. Person (familiar) | *etyë (you) | *eldë ellë (you) | *estë (you) |
| 2. Person (formal) | elyë (thou) | *eldë, ellë (ye) | *estë (ye) |
| 3. Person (animate) | *essë (he, she) | *entë, *eltë (they) | *ettë (they) |
| 3. Person (neuter) | *essa (it) | *entë, *eltë (they) | *ettë (they) |

Again the different forms of 'we' correspond to dual, exclusive and inclusive use.
Just like in the case of the non-emphatic pronouns, there can only be one subject in the sentence, hence if an independent pronoun is subject of the sentence, the pronominal ending of the verb has to go away (but is marked for plural if necessary).

In the translations, emphatic pronouns can be expressed using 'even', 'too', or 'but':
Inyë tye melë, venya. (I too love you, my girl.)
Emmë amácier nóremman. (Even we fought for our land.)
Elyë marë eressë. (But you stay alone.)
These pronouns can receive case inflection endings, e.g. the dative can be formed using -n:
Elyen amápienyë i harma. (But for you I have taken the treasure.)
Emmen uassë merë mahta. (But for us he doesn't want to fight.)
Elven mahtas. (For us, too, he's fighting.)
Finally some examples for other cases:
Emmenna tuluvas. (Even to us he will come.)
Etyessë maruvan. (With you, too, I will stay.)

### 9.2.4 Basic verbs with vowel ending

As indicated in lesson 1, there are verbs which should be counted as basic verbs although they end with a vowel. This is possible when the root is very short and contains just a consonant and a vowel, e.g. the root NA leads to the verb na- (to be) without any derivational ending.

But there is a second possibility: The vowel might just be an extension of the stem vowel, for example the root SEN leads via sene to the verb apsene- (to forgive), similarly the root KIR forms the verb ciri- (to cut). If this happens with any vowel except -a-, it is easily recognized. However, a verb like para- (to read) from the root PAR may easily be regarded as a derived verb. One must be careful with all verbs which use just a derivational ending in $\mathbf{- a}$ and in which the stem vowel is $\mathbf{- a}$ - as well - obviously, a verb like ora- (to urge) cannot be the result of a root extension.

As most tenses tend to a loss of endings, the conjugation of such verbs is rather straightforward. They may show the ending vowel in infinitive and Aorist as a connecting vowel, but behave just like any other basic verb in other tenses. Thus, maybe apsenen (I forgive) rather than $* *$ apsenin but apsénan (I am forgiving), apsennen (I forgave), apsénien (I have forgiven) and apsenuva (I will forgive).
A verb like ciri- may not show any unusual behaviour at all, as the impersonal Aorist would become cirë anyway and the stem vowel -i- would resemble the connecting vowel otherwise, as in cirin (I cut).

### 9.2.5 Verbs demanding a case

In almost every case inflection language, verbs demand a certain case (often the accusative) in which the verb object has to be. As long as this case is the same in two languages, no problems arise, but as soom as the case is different one has to be aware of this fact when doing a translation. For example, 'to give' has the person receiving the gift in dative and the gift itself in accusative in both Quenya and English, hence the sentence 'I give a sword to the elf' becomes antean macil i eldan in Quenya.

However, Quenya has several more cases than English does, therefore it sometimes occurs that verbs demand a case not present in English. For example the verb ruc- (to fear) has the feared object in accusative in English but in ablative in Quenya, hence 'I fear an orc' becomes rucin orcollo in Quenya and not rucin orco.

The known verbs of this type are:
anta- (to give) with dative:
antan parma i eldan (I give a book to the elf)
anta- (to give) with allative:
antan parma i eldanna (I give a book to the elf)
anta- (to present) with accusative and instrumental (see lesson 10):
antan i elda parmanen (I present the elf with a book)
ruc- (to fear) with ablative:
runcen i hatalillor (I feared the spears)
caita- (to lie upon) with allative:
mornië caita nórenna (darkness lies upon the land)
quet- (to speak about) with genitive:
quetin Silmarillion (I speak about the Silmarils)
apsene- (to forgive) with dative:
apsenen cotumonyain (I forgive my enemies)
órana- (to have mercy) with locative:
á órana orcossen! (have mercy with the orcs!)
tulya- (to send into) with allative:
tulyanen eldali ohtanna (I sent some elves into war)
ohtacar- (to make war against) with allative:
ohtacárenyë Melcorenna (I made war against Melkor)
verya- (to join, to marry) with allative:
Indis verenyë Fëanáronna. (Indis married Fëanor)

### 9.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |  | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alamaitë | without skill | nís (niss-) | woman |  |
| apsene- | to forgive |  | ohtacar- | to make war |
| arinya | early |  | órana- | to have mercy |
| ciri- | to cut |  | para- | to read |
| cuiva- | to awaken | roita- | to hunt, to pursue |  |
| eressë | loneliness | ruc- | to fear |  |
| hatal | spear |  | sinyë (th-) | evening |
| hrívë | winter |  | vendë | maiden |
| lossë | snow | tulya- | to lead into |  |
| maitë (mais-) | skilled | verya- | to join, to marry |  |
| mistë | light rain | voronwa | enduring, long-lasting |  |

### 9.4 CONVERSATION - ASK FOR THE WAY

If you are lost in the wilderness but lucky enough to meet some elves, it might be useful to know some phrases which can be used to ask for the way.

Merin hirë i tië Ondolindenna. (I'm looking for the way to Gondolin.)
Massë Ondolindë? (Where is Gondolin?)
Manna Ondolindenna? (What direction is Gondolin?)
If the distance is short, you might hear something like
Á lelya hyaryanna/foryanna. (Go left/right!)
or
Cilya sina tenta númenna. A hilya sa tenn' andúnë . (This cleft points westward. Follow it till sunset.)

You may note that these words look very similar to the directions hyarmenna (southward) and formenna (northward), and there's a reason for this: Elves would usually turn themselves towards the Blessed Lands, i.e. facing westward when thinking about directions. But in this case, the left hand points southward and the right hand points northward (and the fact that northward lies Utumno, the stronghold of Melkor, would lead them to associate evil with the right side rather than the left).

If your destination is farther away, you might have to cope with a longer description in Quenya, e.g.

Á lelya terë i taurë. Tuluvalyë ailinna. Sina ailillo polilyë cenë rassenna. Ailillo á lelya Rómenna ar hiruvalye menelya.
(Go through the forest. You will come to a lake. From this lake you can see a mountain-peak. From the lake, go East and you will find your destination.)

In a town, this might rather become
Á lelya maller atta téranna. Hiruvalyë coa alta. Enta coallo á lelya foryanna mindonna.
(Go straight for two roads. You will find a large house. From that house, go right towards a tower.)

Landmarks: oron (oront-) mountain, rassë (peak, summit), tildë (peak, summit), ambo (hill), cilya (cleft, ravine, pass), nandë (valley), tumbo (deep valley), yáwë (cleft), pendë (slope), tië (path), taurë (great forest), ehtelë (spring), ailin (pond, lake), ringë (mountain lake), sírë (river), nellë (brook), hópa (harbour), hresta (shore), falassë (beach), ëar (sea, ocean), celma (channel), tol (toll-) (island), lóna (distant island), quíne (ridge), motto (fen), axo 'ridge'
Direction: Formen (North), Hyarmen (South), Númen (West), Rómen (East), téra (straight), hyarya (left), forya (right)
Buildings: mallë (malle-) (road), ataquë (building), coa (house), car (card-) (house), ampano (building, wooden hall), ando (gate), andon (andond-)(great gate), ramba (wall), mindo (single tower), mindon (great tower), osto (town, strongplace), opelë (village, fortified house), hróta (underground dwelling)

Various: nórë (land), nórië (nation), arda (realm, region), ména (region), men (place), réna (border), peler (fenced field), panda (pasture), turmen (realm)


Lesson 10

## Instrumental，Comparative， Demonstrative Pronouns



## 10．1 TEXT

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## Cilyassë

Mornië alantië i orontinnar. Hísiel céna i lóminna.
Hísiel: Arya hilyatat terë i lómë.
Nenwë: Sina tië i cilyanna oronta ná. Morniessë quénlantuva. Ar cé orcor caitear foinavë.
Hísiel: Aurë enta tuluva yassë uatyë rucë ilyë natillon. I morniessë i orcor cenir mai epë elmë, nan hiruvalmë tië tana isilmenen.
Nenwë: Ar manen merityë mahta i orcor?
Hísiel: Á sana anasanië! Hiritat saila, mahtatat alasaila. Hlaruvalmet.
Mainen ar talinen lelyeantë lencavë i cilyanna. Hísiel ná minya tirien ar hlarien. Mettassë entúlas.
Hísiel: Ealar úmië i cilyassë nar. Isilmë ua silë cilyanna, nan hlassenyet ómantainen. Sin ná anwavë tië umbarteva. Tanen ualmë polë lelya.

## In the gorge

Darkness has fallen upon the mountains. Hísiel is looking into the night.
Hísiel: It would be very well to follow them through the night.
Nenwë: This path into the gorge is steep. In darkness, someone will fall. And maybe the orcs lie hidden.
Hísiel: That day shall come on which you do not fear all things any more. In darkness, the orcs can see better than we do, but we will find that path in moonlight.
Nenwë: And how do you want to fight the orcs?
Hísiel: Think harder! To find them is wise, to fight them not. We shall hear them.
Using hands and feet they climb slowly towards the gorge. Hísiel is first to watch and to hear. Finally she is returning:
Hísiel: Evil spirits are in the gorge. The moonlight did not shine into the gorge, but I heard them by their voices. This is truly an evil road! In that way we cannot proceed.

### 10.2 GRAMMAR

### 10.2.1 Instrumental

Besides the cases indicating place and direction, Quenya has a case with a more complex meaning, the instrumental.

The primary function of the instrumental is to denote the 'instrument' by what something is accomplished, i.e. in the sentence 'I fight with a sword', the sword is the instrument by which the fighting is done, and hence this word has to be in the Quenya instrumental case.

This case is formed in quite close analogy with the dative, the only difference being that to the dative ending -n (or -nt in dual) a further ending -en is appended. This implies for words which usually form plural in -r that as in the case of the dative, plural formation in instrumental is done in -i-:
ciryanen (by ship; cf. dative. ciryan)
ciryainen (by ships; cf. dative ciryain)
lassenen (using a leaf; cf. dative lassen)
ciryanten (by both ships)
andunen (using both gates)
eldalinen (by some elves)
aranyanen (by my king)
However, for nouns ending in -n, the instrumental ending -nen can be directly appended, since -nn as a final consonant cluster is impossible in Quenya, but quite permissible if it appears inside a word. However, for words ending in different consonants, a connecting vowel -e- in singular and -i- in plural is inserted:
arannen (by a king)
natenen (using a thing)
natinen (using things)
If the noun ends with an $\mathbf{- i}$, this remains short in singular but is lengthened in plural:
tárinen (by a queen)
tárínen (by queens)
As already mentioned, the instrumental is primarily used to denote with the help of what object something has been done:

Etécien i parma quessenen. (I have written the book using a feather.)
Hísiel mahta macilenen. (Hísiel fights with a sword.)
Eldar quetir quettainen. (Elves speak using words.)
Furthermore, the instrumental can be used to denote the one having carried out an action (which is described in passive):

I harma halda ná Nenwenen. (The treasure is hidden by Nenwë.)
I Orco harnaina Hísielenen. (The orc [was] wounded by Hísiel.)
The instrumental can also be used to denote the cause of some observed effect (with the more literal translation 'caused by'):

Lassi lantar súrinen. (Leaves fall caused by wind.)
I eldali firner i ohtanen. (Many elves died in the war.)

### 10.2.2 The comparative

In Quenya, no true comparative form is known which would be a literal translation of e.g. 'greater'. There is, however, a phrase which can be used to compare adjectives, and this phrase makes use of the word epë (before).

Literally translated, the sentence Hísiel linta ná epë Nenwë. would be 'Hísiel is quick before Nenwë.', but this is not how an English speaking person would express this idea, hence it should be translated as 'Hísiel is faster than Nenwë.'.

Eldar sailë ner epë atani. (The elves were wiser than the men.)
Anar calima epë Isil. (The sun is brighter than the moon.)
Aldar altë nar epë atani. (Trees are taller than humans.)
Presumably also adverbs can be compared with this formula:
Eldar cenir mai epë orcor. (Elves see better than orcs.)
There is, however, a different way of expressing the comparative in phrases like 'Try harder!' or 'Look closer!'. Here, the comparative is expressed by repeating the intensified verb as a gerund. The gerund of cen- (to see) is cenië, and using the intensifying prefix this becomes ancenië , thus 'look closer' in the sense of 'look with more effort' is á cenë ancenië!.
á ricë anaricië! (Try harder!)
á mahta ammahtië! (Fight harder!)
á tirë antirië! (Watch more closely!)
Quite possibly, the same can be done with the prefix ar-, ari- - this would then take the meaning of taking one's best effort:
á mahta arimahtië! (Fight all you can!)
á norë arnórië! (Run as fast as you can!)

### 10.2.3 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are used to draw attention to a specific object or person, i.e. 'this elf' instead of just 'an elf'. In Quenya, there are two different groups of demonstrative pronouns - those specifying a noun and independent ones.

Demonstrative pronouns specifying a noun are grammatically adjectives, i.e. they agree in number with the noun and can get case inflection endings if they are the last declinable word. Like adjectives, they can be found before or after a noun.

The attested examples include sina (this), tana (that), enta (that over there, that in the future) and yana (that back then).
elda sina (this elf)
nér tana (that man)
macil enta (that sword over there)
aurë enta (that day)
sina denotes an object close to the speaker, tana an object close to the listener and enta an object far away from both. enta can also used to express a distance in time, if so it refers to future events whereas yana refers to past events.

Ma antatyë nin macil tana? (Can you give me that sword?)
Aurë entassë Hísiel entuluva. (On that day Hísiel will come again.)
Yana auressë Hísiel lendë mahtien. (On that day, Hísiel went to fight.)
Sina elda Nenwë ná. (This elf is Nenwë.)
Independent demonstrative pronouns are not associated with a noun. Grammatically, they can be treated like pronouns in nominative or accusative. We can deduce the forms sin (this [here], thus) and *tan (that). But the stems are rather productive with other endings denoting time, space and manner.

From SI one finds the derivatives sí (now), sië (thus), sinen (by this means), silo, sio (hence), sítë (of this sort), sís, síssë (here), sinomë (in this place), silumë (at this time) and sir, sira (towards this).

TA on the other hand yields words like tá (then), ta (so, like that), tanen (in that way), tó (thence), taitë (of this sort), tas, tassë (there), tanomë (in that place), talumë (at that time) and tama (that matter).

Tanen macuvalmë i orcor! (In that way we'll fight the orcs!)
Sië quentë Hísiel. (Thus spoke Hísiel.)
Sin macil ná, ar tan hatal. (This is a sword, and that a spear.)
Uan melë táitë ohtari. (I don't like warriors of that sort.)
Silumë ar sinomë varuvaxelmër.
(At this time and in this place, we will defend ourselves!)

### 10.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| anwa | real, actual, true | nor- | to run |
| cé | maybe | óma | voice |
| cilya | gorge, cleft, pass | oronta | steep |
| eala | spirit | quessë | feather |
| halda | veiled, hidden | quetta | word |
| harnaina | wounded | ric- | to try, to make an effort |
| hlar- (hlassë $)$ | to hear | *sana- | to think |
| isilmë | moonlight | súrë (súri-) | wind |
| lannë | tissue, cloth | tál (tal-) | foot |
| lenca | slow | umbar (umbart-) | doom |
| má (ma-) | hand | véla | alike |
| minya | first |  |  |

### 10.4 CONVERSATION - COMPARING THINGS

When you talk to elves, sooner or later you will be asked about what things you like and dislike. In this situation you should know how to compare things since these sentences are phrased in quite a different way in Quenya than in English.

For example, pointing at two things and trying to ask 'Which do you think is prettier?' doesn't really work because there's no word for 'prettier' and you can only say 'A is pretty before B'.

Therefore, it is better to ask
Man aralta sinë aldaron? (Which is the tallest among these trees?)
Man lyen eremelda sinë nation? (Which is your favourite among these things?)
Ma lannë sina vanya ná epë tana? (Is this garment more beautiful than that?)
Don't even try answering Sina epë vanya., since epë doesn't mean 'more' and your sentence literally would be 'this before beautiful'. Instead, your answer might be

Sin anvanya. (This is very beautiful.)
If you don't want to commit to a definite opintion, you may want to say
Véla nar. (They are alike.)
There is no sharp borderline between the Quenya comparative and superlative, and for an elf this answer makes a lot of sense. You might use the following vocabulary to train yourself in comparisons:
Colors: carnë (red), culuina (orange), fána or fánë (white), helwa (pale blue), laiqua (green), laurëa (golden), lossë (snow white), luin (blue), malina (yellow), morë or morna (black), ninquë (white), silma (silver, shining white), sindë (th-) (grey), varnë (dark brown)

Properties: vanya or vanima (beautiful), mára (useful, good), raica (wrong, crooked), ulca or umëa (evil), halla (tall), anda (long), sinta (th-) (short), alta (tall, great), úra (large), úvëa (abundant, very large), titta (tiny), pitya (small), nindë (fragile, thin), tiuca (fat), lunga (heavy), lissë (sweet), sára (bitter), quanta (full), lusta (empty), lauca (warm), ringa (cold), vinya (new), yerna (old, worn), nessa (young), linyenwa (old), naira (vast), runda (smoothed), haura (huge), pia (little)


Lesson 11

## Prepositions，Negation using LÁ，Optative USing NAI



## 11．1 TEXT

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 qpion：：


## I valarauco

I eldar hostear sanwentar.
Nenwë: Man caruvalmë? Lá polilmë lelya terë i cilya.
Maglos: Á lasta! Quén túla!
Nenwë: Nárë ar mornië túlar et lómillo!
Hísiel: Valarauco! Á auta lintavë!
I eldar lelyear tyelcavë foina menenna mír rondo pitya.
Maglos: Man caruvalmë? Ualmë polë mahta valarauco!
Hísiel: Uan Nolofinwë. Inyë lá polë mahta enta eala ú cáleo. Nan avan auta!
Nenwë: Enta valarauco ua sinomë me hirien. Sin sanwë anúmëa cotumo.
Maglos: Nai autuva sina lómë.

## The balrog

The Elves gather their thoughts.
Nenwë: What shall we do? We cannot go through the gorge.
Maglos: Listen! Someone is coming!
Nenwë: Fire and Darkness are coming out of the night.
Hísiel: A balrog! Flee swiftly!
The Elves hasten into a hidden place in a small cave.
Maglos: What shall we do? We cannot fight a balrog!
Hísiel: I am not Fingolfin. Even I cannot fight this being without light. But I will not flee!
Nenwë: That balrog is not here to find us. This is an evil plan of the Enemy.
Maglos: May this night pass swiftly!

### 11.2 GRAMMAR

### 11.2.1 Prepositions

We have seen that there are two different possibilities of expressing the location of something in a Quenya sentence: first, we have e.g. the preposition mi (in) and second the locative case -ssë . A similar relation holds between the preposition na and the allative case -nna.
mi taurë as well as tauressë (in a forest) are grammatically correct Quenya, but usually a case inflection ending is preferred to a preposition. However, there are some names for places which are in fact derived from locatives, e.g. aicassë (mountain peak; lit.: sharpened place). Instead of using the ending -ssë with those words (and creating the rather cumbersome aicassessë it is better to use a preposition instead and to express the idea as mi aicassë (on a mountain peak).

In many languages, the noun following a preposition is usually found in a certain case dictated by the preposition. Quenya is no exception: most prepositions are followed by the accusative (which means the words do not usually show a special case inflection), but there are several prepositions governing different cases, and their use has to be memorized. An example for this is ú (without) which governs genitive in Quenya, hence ú macilo (without a sword).

A preposition does not determine a noun sufficiently, hence there is a difference between mi taurë (in a forest) and mi i taurë (in the forest). The definite article can be contracted
with the preposition in some cases, in the above example this yields mí taurë (in the forest). Wherever such a contracted form is relevant, we will quote it separately in the following.

Prepositions followed by accusative:
amba, ama (up, upward, onto)
Lelyalmë amba oron. (We go up a mountain.)
an (for, because of ${ }^{1}$, until)
Uan pólë tulë an i orcor. (Because of the orcs I could not come.)
Sinomë maruvammë an aurë. (We will stay here until morning.)
apa (before (of space), after (of time))
Nenwë lelyëa apa Hísiel. (Nenwë is going before Hísiel.)
ara (outside, beside)
I atani marir ara nórë sina. (The men abide outside of this land.)

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enga, hequa (save, except)
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Ilyë nissi uar ohtari enga Éowyn. (No woman is a warrior except Éowyn.)
ерё (before (of space), after (of time))
á quetë epë autanyë. (Speak after I leave!)
á lelya epë Nenwë. (Go before Nenwë.)
han (beyond)
Ondolindë han i oronti ná. (Gondolin is beyond the mountains.)

## harë (near)

I osto harë i sírë ná. (The town is near the river.)
ho (from)
Sina nér tulë ho Ondolindë. (This man comes from Gondolin.)
imbë (between two things (spatial and temporal))
Imbë i mindonet ando ná. (Between the two towers is a gate.)
Lómë hilya imbë auri. (A night follows between days.)
imbi (among (several things))
Ancalima imbi eleni. (Brightest among the stars.)
lo (by agent of)
Lo Hísiel orco harnaina. (The orc was wounded by Hísiel.)
$\mathbf{m i}$ (in, on (spatial and temporal)); mí (in the)
Eldar nar mi aicassë. (Elves are on the mountain peak.)
Mí lómë tuluvan. (In the night I will come.)
mír, minna (into)
Lelyammë mír taurë. (We go into a forest.)

[^3]na, ana (to, towards)
Lelyalmë na oron. (We travel towards a mountain.)
nó (after, behind (of space), before (of time))
Sindar marner sís nó utúlielmë. (The Sindar dwelled here before we came.)
Nó i oron taurë. (Behind the mountain is a river.)
nu, no, undu (under, beneath)
$\mathrm{Nu} i$ alda caitear firini lassi. (Under the tree, dead leaves are lying.)
Undu lumbor caita i nórë. (The land lies beneath clouds.)
or (above)
Or i alda aiwi vílar. (Birds are flying above the tree.)
tenna (until)
Maruvan tenna andúnë. (I will wait until evening.)
terë (through)
Leluvalmë terë i taurë. (We will go through the forest.)
ve (like, as)
Cennen cále vë Anar. (I saw a light like the sun.)
yo (together with)
Nenwë lelyea yo Hísiel. (Nenwë accompanies Hísiel.)
Prepositions followed by genitive:
arwa (with, having)
Cénan nér arwa macilo. (I see a man with a sword.)
ú (without)
Nér ú meldoron ua alya. (A man without friends is not rich.)
Prepositions followed by ablative:
et (out of)
Et ostollo orontinnar utúlien. (Out of the town I came to the mountains.)
The reason for the seemingly strange change of meaning of apa and epë is that Elves picture themselves facing the future. Thus, past events, those that in English have happened before lie behind them, whereas the future is before their eyes. Thus, the meaning of these prepositions is inverted in Quenya as compared to English when they are applied to time.

### 11.2.2 Negation using lá and vá

Apart from the use of the negative verb ua there is a second (more simple) possibility for negating Quenya sentences. This can be done by using lá in front of the verb. Using this technique, all verbal endings remain unchanged (this is in fact different to the use of ua where the verb is inflected for tense only).

Lá utúlien coalyanna. (I have not come to your house.)
Sina parma lá tencen. (I did not write this book.)
In contrast to ua, lá can also be used for the negation of infinitives or gerunds:

Lá macitas assaila ná. (Not to kill him is very wise.)
Lá mahtien utúlien. (I have not come to fight.)
In general, it makes little difference if you choose ua or lá for negations, but some situations require more caution:
First of all, remember that intentions are denoted in a different way using vá rather than lá or ua:

Vá tuluvan coalyanna. (I will not come to your house.)
Intentions can also be denoted using the verb ava- which is usually not used in any other tense (it makes no sense to deny intentions in past tense conceptually).
avan tulë ! (I won't come!)
Second, the verb 'to be' is never negated using lá but always replaced by ua, hence not Nissi lá nauvar ohtari. but Nissi úvar ohtari. (Women will not be warriors.).

### 11.2.3 Wishes using nai

In order to express a wish in Quenya, nai is usually set in front of an ordinary sentence in order to express that this is something desired. nai could roughly be translated as 'may it be that', but in a less literal translation this can also be 'hopefully' or something similar.

The use in connection with the future tense is most common:
Nai varuvante i osto! (May they protect the town!)
Nai lá mahtuvalmë! (Hopefully we will not fight!)
Nai hiruvalyë i harma! (May you find the treasure!)
nai can also be used with present or even past tense if one had wished for something but doesn't yet know if it has come true:

Nai ni ecéniessë. (Hopefully she has seen me!)
Nai túlas! (I hope he is coming!)

### 11.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aicassë | mountain peak |  | nanwen- |
| alya | rich, blessed | or | or |
| apa | behind, in the rear | pitya | above |
| cálë | light | small |  |
| et | out of | rondo | cave |
| firin | dead | sanwë | thought, act of thinking |
| harë | near | sírë | river |
| hosta- | to gather | tyelca | swift, agile, hasty |
| lumbo | cloud | ú | without |
| men | way; place, spot | valarauco | balrog |

### 11.4 Conversation - IN battle

Sometimes, Middle-Earth can be a dangerous place and you might end up being drawn into a battle. If you happen to have Noldor fighting next to you, however, you do not need to
fear much. Nevertheless, knowing some battle commands can make a difference.
Simple commands during the fighting may sound like this (pay attention to the initial imperative á - once you hear this, you should be on alert):

Áte macë! (Kill them!)
Á nanwenë! (Fall back!)
Á varya men sina! (Defend this place!)
Á virya nernehtallo sandastanna! (Change from a spearhead into a shieldwall)!
Before the actual fighting starts, you might usually get to hear some longer battle plan:
Á horta pilindi tengwenyanen.
(Shoot arrows on my sign!)
I macari varuvar men sina ortainë turmainen.
(The swordsmen will defend this place with raised shields.)
I roqueni leluvar minyar.
(The riders will proceed first.)
If you are cut off, it is good if you know how to call for help:
Nan harnaina! (I'm injured!)
Á tulë ninna! (Come to me!)
If the battle is going well, you might want to try a warcry:
Qualmë ilyë orcoin! (Death to all orcs!)
Ondolinden! (For Gondolin!)
Warriors: ohtar or mahtar (warrior), ehtyar (spearman), roquen (knight), cáno (commander), macar (swordsman)

Battle formations: nernehta (spearhead formation), sandastan (shield wall)
Weapons and armour: macil (sword), lango (broad sword), ecet (short sword), sicil (dagger), quinga or cú (bow), pilin (pilind-) (arrow), ehtë (spear), hatal (javelin), turma (shield), cassa or castol (helmet)

Verbs: mahta- (to fight), mac- (to slay), harna- (to wound), horta- (to shoot, to send flying), nornoro- (to run), mar- (to wait), varya- (to protect), tur- (to wield), asya- (to assist)


## Lesson 12

## Participles，the Verb ËA， Numbers



## 12．1 TEXT









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[^4]
## Dor Daedeloth

Mettassë túla i cálë aurëo. I valarauco avánië. I eldaron neldë lelyear terë i cilya ar túlar palla naira sarna ardanna. Lumbor teltar aurë.
Maglos: Essë sina nórëo ná Dor Daedeloth lienyassë.
Hísiel: Sina turmen tirna cotumonen ná. Merin hirë i runyar valarauco.
Aicavë tírala Hísiel lelyëa i nórenna astova ar sarna. Apa anda lúmë híras itië.
Hísiel: I valarauco mápienwa sellelya lendë Rómenna. Eldali hilyaner, nan ner mácinë úmië ealainen.
Maglos: Manna Auriel mapaina?
Nenwë: Ëa quenta mindono móliva cotumo harë oronti. Enta menna lelyala cé hiruvalmë Auriel.

## Dor Daedeloth

Finally the light of the day is coming. The balrog has gone. The three elves travel through the gorge and come to a wide, empty stony land. Clouds cover the sun.
Maglos: My people call this realm 'Dor Daedeloth'.
Hísiel: This land is guarded by the enemy. I wish to find the tracks of the balrog.
Sharply watching Hísiel marches into the dusty and stony land. After a long time she finds the trail.
Hísiel: Having seized your sister, the balrog went towards the East. Some elves followed, but they were slain by evil spirits.
Maglos: Where has Auriel been brought to?
Nenwë: There is a tale about a tower of a servant of the Enemy close to the mountains. Going to that place, maybe we fill find Auriel.

### 12.2 GRAMMAR

### 12.2.1 The present active participle

The present active participle (PPA) is an adjective derived from a verb and is used to describe someone carrying out the action of the verb. Therefore, someone who goes somewhere can be described as 'going'.

In English, the PPA is used with auxiliary verbs to form the continuous tenses, e.g. 'a man is going'. This, however, cannot be translated with the participle in Quenya, as we have seen, Quenya does not use an auxiliary verb to express this idea but has a distinction between Aorist and present tense instead.

The PPA is formed by appending the ending -la to the verb stem. If possible (i.e. if only one consonant is following and if it is not part of a diphthong) the stem vowel is lengthened. For A-verbs, the ending can be appended without complications:

```
lanta- (to fall) \(\rightarrow\) lantala (falling)
lelya- (to go) \(\rightarrow\) lelyala (going)
lala- (to laugh) \(\rightarrow\) lálala (laughing)
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For basic verbs, the ending is presumably appended to the present tense:

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car- (to do) \(\rightarrow\) cára (is doing) \(\rightarrow\) cárala (doing)
tir- (to watch) \(\rightarrow\) tíra (is watching) \(\rightarrow\) tírala (watching)
tul- (to come) \(\rightarrow\) túla (is coming) \(\rightarrow\) túlala (coming)
```

Grammatically, the PPA is very similar to adjectives with the one exception that it does not form a distinct plural; 'watching elves' is therefore translated as eldar tírala and not eldar tíralë.

When translating, it is probably often permissible to translate the PPA in phrases using 'while'

Cénan mahtala eldar. (I see fighting elves.)
Lindala lenden. (I went while I sang.)
Hísiel tírala ná. (Hísiel [is] watchful.)
But a PPA can also be readily translated literally:
Nér mápala macil lendë. (A man went, seizing a sword.)

### 12.2.2 The perfect passive participle

The perfect passive participle (PPP) is another adjective derived from a verb, but in contrast to the PPA it describes the state of a thing on which the verbal action has been carried out, i.e. if someone saw a man, this man is 'seen'. Strictly speaking, it exists only for transitive verbs.

The reason is that an intransitive verb cannot form passive. When you give something, that thing has been 'given' and this is the PPP. However, when you fall, you are later in the state of 'having fallen' and not '**having been fallen', so this is a perfect active participle. Nevertheless, the form we learn here is the same for transitive and intransitive verbs and is simply translated in a different way - so for intransitive verbs, we really form the perfect active participle.

The PPP is formed in Quenya with the ending -na or -ina. For derived verbs, the ending -ina is directly appended to the verbal stem, except when the derivational ending is -ya, then this ending is dropped.

```
anta- (to give) \(\rightarrow\) antaina (given)
lanta- (to fall) \(\rightarrow\) lantaina (fallen)
hilya- (to follow) \(\rightarrow\) hilina (followed)
varya- (to protect) \(\rightarrow\) varina (protected)
```

For basic verbs the final consonant of the verb stem determines which ending is used. Basic verbs with the endings $\mathbf{- c}, \mathbf{- p}, \mathbf{- v}$ or $\mathbf{- t}$ use the ending -ina as well, but their stem vowel is lengthened:

```
tec- (to write) }->\mathrm{ técina (written)
mat- (to eat) }->\mathrm{ mátina (eaten)
```

Basic verbs with the final consonants -r, -m or -n however append the shorter ending -na directly to the verb stem (since this produces a two consonant cluster, the stem vowel cannot be long):

```
car- (to do) }->\mathrm{ carna (done)
cen- (to see) }->\mathrm{ cenna (seen)
```

Basic verbs with the ending -l form the PPP also with the ending -na, but the resulting consonant group -ln- is changed into -ld- in Quenya:

$$
\text { mel- (to love) } \rightarrow \text { melda (loved) }
$$

The PPP can be used just like an adjective, in contrast to the PPA it also forms a regular plural. If the PPP describes an action, the one doing the action appears in instrumental case:

I parma técina ná quessenen. (The book is written using a feather.)
Cénan sellinyar meldë. (I see my beloved sisters.)
Sina macil ná carna Nenwenen. (This sword is made by Nenwë.)
There is a variant ending -nwa (which is appended to basic verbs as -inwa which has the same meaning).

```
car- (to do) }->\mathrm{ carinwa (done)
anta- (to give) }->\mathrm{ antanwa (given)
```

In variant forms, this ending is also used with the perfect stem without augment. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { car- (to do) } \rightarrow \text { acárië (has done) } \rightarrow \text { cárienwa (done) } \\
& \text { fanta- (to veil) } \rightarrow \text { afánië (has veiled) } \rightarrow \text { fánienwa (veiled) }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 12.2.3 The verb ëa

Apart from the verb ná there's a second verb in Quenya which can be translated as 'to be. This is ëa , but this verb can also be translated as 'it exists', 'there is' or 'let it be'.
ëa is both the present tense and the Aorist. The past tense is engë, the perfect tense éye or engië and the future tense euva.

There's a noun derived from this verb, Ёa, this describes the creation as such.
Elda ëa osto sinassë. (There's an elf in this town.)
Eru ëa han Ëa. (God exists beyond the creation.)
Yana lúmessë engë elda. (Once upon a time there was an elf.)
Tanomë engië alta ohta. (There has been a great war at that place.)
Euvar eldar tenn' ambar-metta. (There will be Elves till the end of the world.)

### 12.2.4 Numbers

The elves originally used a base 10 system for numbers just as we do. However, even early on, six and twelve were considered especially important, and a complete duodecimal system, i.e. a base 12 system was developed. This in turn influenced the base 10 system somewhat, so that this contains special names for multiples of 12 . In this course however, we will focus on the decimal system. The cardinal and ordinal numbers from 1 to 12 are:

| one | minë | first | minya |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| two | atta | second | tatya |
| three | neldë | third | nelya |
| four | canta | fourth | cantëa |
| five | lempë | fifth | lempëa |
| six | enquë | sixth | enquëa |
| seven | otso | seventh | otsëa |
| eight | tolto | eighth | toltëa |
| nine | nertë | ninth | nertëa |
| ten | cainen | tenth | quainëa |
| eleven | minquë | eleventh | *minquëa |
| twelve | yunque | twelveth | *yunquëa |

Here minë is used to denote the first in a series, whereas a different word er is used to denote the idea of one thing standing alone. There are also two variant forms, lepen may also used to denote five, and cëa to denote ten.

One has to guess a bit how to form larger numbers. Based on the Early Qenya Grammar, one would think that -këa is used for the English '-teen' and that this is appended to the first part of the number word, like
nelcëa (thirteen)
cancëa (fourteen)
lencëa (fifteen)
On the other hand, the English '-ty' is created by appending -cainen to the full number, thus maybe
attacainen (twenty)
neldecainen (thirty)
cantacainen (fourty)
The single digits then come, other than in English, in front:
minë neldecainen (thirty-one)
nerte toltocainen (eighty-nine)

We also know how to express fractions - by means of the ending -sta, however some sound shifts occur:

| $1 / 2$ | peresta |
| :---: | :---: |
| $1 / 3$ | neldesta |
| $1 / 4$ | canasta |
| $1 / 5$ | lepesta |
| $1 / 6$ | enquesta |
| $1 / 7$ | otosta |
| $1 / 8$ | tolosta |
| $1 / 9$ | neresta |

'half' here is based on a verb perya- (to divide in half).

The numbers are used as follows: Usually they follow the noun thy count, 'seven Elves' is therefore eldar otso. The noun then takes plural, except when atta is used, then the noun may remain in singular, thus elda atta is permissible.

For larger numerals, there are in fact two possibilities. Either the noun is in genitive plural and numerals inflect as singular noun or alternatively the noun is declined and the numeral indeclinable.

Thus, 'three stars' is usually eleni neldë and for example in genitive becomes elenion neldë (of three stars). However, it is also permissible to express the phrase as elenion neldë (three stars, lit. of stars three), but then in genitive this becomes elenion neldëo (of three stars).

Nyarin quenta eldaron lempëo. (I tell a tale of five Elves.)
Á lelya orontinnar neldë. (Go towards the three mountains!)
Tulin ohtaron neldello. (I come from three battles.)

### 12.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| aica | sharp |
| asto | dust |
| essë | name |
| fum- | sleep |
| lala- | to laugh |
| *manna | where to? |
| naira | empty, wide, vast |
| perya- | to divide in half |
| runya | footprint |
| sarna | stony |
| telta- | to overshadow, to screen |

### 12.4 Conversation - the Time

If you want to make an appointment with elves, there's one thing you need to consider first — elves are immortal and have a lot of time - therefore it is not appreciated if you are very hasty.

You can ask for a time for a meeting in Quenya using
Man lúmessë entuluvalyë? (At which hour will you return?)
Man lússë nauva omentielva? (At what time will our meeting take place?)
The locative is used to specify the time
Hrívessë, Ringaressë tuluvan. (In winter, in December I will come.)
Á tulë men sinanna i anaróressë. (Come at sunrise to this place.)
If you need a more detailed description, you might hear
Otsëa lúmessë enquëa árëo Súlimessë. (At the seventh hour of the 6th of March.)

If you want to try a more poetic answer, you might say
Írë Isil orya. (When the moon rises.)
Lúmessë, yassë utúlielyë i yana auressë. (At the hour in which you came on that day.)

Units: lúmë (hour), asta (month), loa (year), yén (longyear; 144 years), randa (age)
Times of the day: aurë or árë (day), lómë (lómi-), ló or mórë (night), ára (sunrise), arin (morning), arië (day), sinyë (evening), tindómë or undómë (twilight), anarórë (sunrise), núro or andúnë (sunset)

Seasons: coirë (early spring), tuilë (late spring), lairë (summer), yávië (harvest, early autumn), quellë (late autumn), hrívë (winter), lasselanta (fall)

Months: Narvinyë (January), Nénimë (February), Súlimë (March), Víressë (April), Lótessë (May), Nárië (June), Cermië (July), Úrimë (August), Yavannië (September), Narquelië (October), Hísimë (November), Ringarë (December)


## Part II - Advanced Topics



May you find Valinor!


Lesson 13

## Archaic Case Inflection, Imperative and Pronouns, U-STEMS



### 13.1 TEXT











[^5]
## Quenta Ninquelótëo

Maglos nyára:
Sin quenta i vendëo Nimloth, yëo essë Ninquelótë lambes Noldoiva ná: Aurion neldë lendiemmë i astova ardas hilyainë orcoinen. Cantëa aures me nampentë ar leryanentë mandos cotumóva. Enta mando né rímas hísiéva nórëo. Aurion tolto cennemmë eressië mornë rambai mandommo. Nertea aurës pólemmë mahta túré or orcoi i me tirner. Oantiemmë terë mornë sambí ar antumna sambes hirnemmë tié mandollo. Mettas entullemmë i vilyanna enwina mindos. Ai meril hirë enta mindó, cena i orontinna: Altë tarmar atta ondova nat i tengwi i mindonna.

## The story of Ninquelótë

Maglos narrates:
This is the story of the maiden Nimloth, whose name is Ninquelótë in the language of the Noldor: Three days we travelled in the dusty land, followed by orcs. On the fourth day they caught us and released us into the prison of the enemy. That prison was at the border of the misty land. Eight days we saw only the dark walls of our jail. On the ninth day we were able to fight and gain a victory over the orcs who watched us. We went away through dark chambers, and in the deepest chamber we found a way out of the prison. At the end we came back to the sky at an old watchtower. If you wish to find that watchtower, look towards the mountains: Two high pillars of stone are the signs towards the tower.

### 13.2 GRAMMAR

### 13.2.1 The accusative

Up to now, we have used direct objects in accusative without any case inflection. This is indeed how things are expressed in modern Quenya, however archaic Quenya did have a distinct form of the accusative and this form is often preserved in written form (so-called 'book Quenya'). We will therefore see the distinct accusative only in this lesson (where an old legend is told) but usually have no distinct accusative forms.

In singular, the archaic accusative is made distinct by lengthening of the final vowel of a noun. If the noun ends with a consonant, however, even the archaic accusative is the same as the nominative:

```
cirya (ship) }->\mathrm{ ciryá (ship; acc.)
lassë (leaf) }->\mathrm{ lassé (leaf; acc.)
cotumo (enemy) -> cotumó (enemy; acc.)
nat (thing) }->\mathrm{ nat (thing, acc.)
```

In accusative plural, all nouns receive the plural marker -i, even if $\mathbf{- r}$ is their usual plural marker. For nouns with regular nominative plurals in -i, the accusative becomes a lengthened -í:

```
ciryar (ships) }->\mathrm{ ciryai (ships; acc.)
lassi (leaves) }->\mathrm{ lassí (leaves; acc.)
cotumor (enemies) }->\mathrm{ cotumoi (enemies; acc.)
nati (things) }->\mathrm{ natí (things, acc.)
```

In partitive plural, the ending -li becomes -lí in accusative:
ciryali (some ships) $\rightarrow$ ciryalí (some ships; acc.)
lasseli (some leaves) $\rightarrow$ lasselí (some leaves; acc.)
cotumoli (some enemies) $\rightarrow$ cotumolí (some enemies; acc.)
nateli (some things) $\rightarrow$ natelí (some things; acc.)
Finally, in dual there is presumably never a distinction between nominative and accusative.
Nertëa auressë Feanáro cennë i falassé vinya nórëo.
(On the ninth day Fëanor saw the shore of a new land.)

### 13.2.2 The respective

Presumably, there are more cases in Quenya than the ones covered so far - there may be a case used for comparing things, but we know for sure that there is the so-called respective. This case is marked in singular, partitive plural and dual with the ending -s and in plural by -is (which however doesn't lead to a long -i- if the ending is -i already). If a noun ends with a consonant, the connecting vowel -e- is inserted.

In order to understand the meaning of the case, consider the relationship between the dative -n and the allative -nna - in some sense, both denote a direction, but the allative is more spatial, whereas the dative is more abstract. Nevertheless, anta- (to give) can take either case in Quenya. Likewise, consider the relationship between the genitive -o and the ablative -llo - both can denote origin, but the ablative usually refers to spatial origin whereas the genitive is more abstract. Presumably, the relation between the respective -s and the locative -ssë is the same and the respective would refer to position in a more abstract sense, like for example in sentences like 'fear in one's heart' rucië indos. In this lesson, we have simply used it as a variant of the locative, which in archaic use it probably is.

```
cirya (ship) }->\mathrm{ ciryas (on a ship)
ciryar (ships) }->\mathrm{ ciryais (on ships)
ciryat (both ships) }->\mathrm{ ciryates (on both ships)
ciryali (some ships) }->\mathrm{ ciryalis (on some ships)
nat (thing) }->\mathrm{ nates (near a thing)
nati (things) }->\mathrm{ natis (near things)
natu (both things) }->\mathrm{ natus (near two things)
nateli (some things) }->\mathrm{ natelis (near some things)
```


### 13.2.3 The primitive imperative

In archaic Quenya there is a form of the imperative which (at least for basic verbs) is formed with the ending -a (without lengthening of the stem vowel, hence this is distinct from the present tense). Presumably this is not used in modern Quenya, but some forms have survived:

```
Heca! (Be gone!)
Ela! (Look!)
```

It is possible that these primitive imperatives would show up at least for basic verbs in ancient texts, so they should presumably be used whenever the distinct accusative is used. One might find:

Tira! (Look!)
Tula! (Come!)

### 13.2.4 Imperative and pronouns

In the primitive imperative form discussed above it is possible to make a distinction if one or several persons are addressed. If the order is to one person only, an ending -t can be used whereas for a group an ending $\mathbf{- l}$ would appear (it is not a coincidence that these are just the two short 2 nd person verbal endings).

Hecat! (Be gone!; to one person)
Elal! (Look!; to a group)
If this distinction can be made using the 'modern' imperative as well, these endings would then be appended to the verb in infinitive. For basic verbs with infinitives in -ë, this would consequently be changed into -i-:
á tulil! (Come!; to a group)
á cenit! (Look!; to one person)
á mahtal! (Fight!; to a group)
Without explicit example, we can guess that pronominal endings can also be used to express imperatives in the 3rd person:
á cenis! (He shall see!)
á mahtas! (He shall fight!)
Apart from pronouns expressing the logical subject of an imperative phrase as used above, pronouns can also be the object of an imperative. Usually they would then be written as independent pronouns, but as part of imperatives they are appended to á:

```
ánin anta! (Give me!)
ámen antal! (Give us!)
ányë tirë! (Watch me!)
```


### 13.2.5 U-stem nouns

There are some nouns for which the declination looks somewhat irregular. These nouns usually end in -0, but this comes from a stem which originally ended in -u, and this is recovered as a connecting vowel as soon as endings are appended. The most important of these nouns are ango (snake), rusco (fox), ranco (arm) and urco (bogey).

For all case endings which do not involve a plural marker -i-, the original ending is restored as connecting vowel -u-for these words:

```
anguo (of a snake)
urcussë (at a bogey)
rancunen (by use of an arm)
```

However, the U-stem nouns form a plural with the plural marker -i instead of $-r$, and this implies that -u- is turned to -w- - if this however is created in the combination -cw-, it is written as usual as -qu-. Hence the following forms:

```
angwi (snakes)
urquinnar (to bogeys)
ranquion (of arms)
```

But the partitive plural has the -l- separating the $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{i}$, hence no changes occur (this is another way of saying that the partitive plural marker -li doesn't involve the plural marker -i):

```
anguli (some snakes)
```

An especially nasty example is telco (stem, leg). This word forms its plural telqui in analogy with ranco in spite of the fact that there's no reason for this - its stem does not originally end with an $\mathbf{- u}$ and we have no reason to assume that the singular forms would not be e.g. the regular telcossë instead of telcussë (at a leg).

Nácina nenyë angunen. (I was bitten by a snake.)
Nyarnen quenta rusquion neldë . (I told a story about the three foxes.)

### 13.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| ango (U-stem) | snake |
| enwina | old |
| eressëa | only, alone, lonely |
| indo | heart, will, resolve |
| lotë | flower |
| mando | custody, prison |
| mindo | tower |
| nac- | to bite |
| ninquë | white |
| ríma | border |
| rusco (U-stem) | fox |
| sambë (th-) | chamber, room |
| tarma | pillar |
| tengwë | sign |
| tumna | deep, hidden |
| túrë | victory |
| urco (U-stem) | bogey, orc |
| vendë | maiden |
| vilya | sky |
|  |  |

### 13.4 CONVERSATION - THE WEATHER

Even elves use the weather sometimes as a topic for conversation, especially when they are travelling and get wet like anyone else. However, their attitude towards such experiences is much more relaxed than the one of many humans.

Using
Man utúlien súrinen? (What has come with the wind?)
Man tultuva i súrë? (What will the wind bring?)
You can ask for the current weather or for what is to come. Your answer may be some of the following:

Ulya. (It is raining.)
Anar síla. (The sun is shining.)
Lossë caitëa nórenna. (Snow lies upon the land.)
Hísië tópa orontion aicassi. (Mist veils the peaks of the mountains.)
Lumbor hostear. (Dark clouds are gathering.)
Pay attention to the fact that weather conditions are expressed in impersonal constructions in Elvish - this means, the English 'it' often used in expressions like 'it is cold' does not appear in the Quenya sentence - instead, the sentence has no subject (this is perfectly fine
for a Quenya sentence). Even a sentence like 'I am cold' refers to an outside condition and is most likely translated as an impersonal construction as well:

Ringa ná. (It is cold.)
Ringa nin. (I am cold.)
Ringa nin súrinen. (The wind makes me cold.)
Also, do not forget that the Noldor love poetic phrases to describe what they see and feel:
Lumboli hostear ar lelyear vilyassë ve altë ciryar - raumo tuluva.
(Dark clouds are gathering and travelling across the sky like great ships - a storm will come.)

Nouns: mistë (fine rain), fanya (cloud), lumbo (dark cloud), súrë (súri-) (wind), vaiwa (wind), árë (sunlight), hísë (-th-) (mist), hísië (-th-) (mist), raumo (storm), nixë (frost), lúrë (dark weather), lossë (snow)

Adjectives: lúrëa (dark, overcast), ringa (cold), lauca (warm)


Lesson 14

## Phonology, Prefixes, Compound Formation



### 14.1 TEXT

i












## I mindo

I eldar neldë lelyar aurion canta harë i oronti. Sinomë i nórë ringa ná, úna ar unduhuinéva. Lá ëa cilya terë i oronti. Eressëa únótimë ondor cenintë aurenen, ar lómissë hlarintë lammar orcohtarion. Uantë hirë nén, nan ilya vinya auressë ellelyantë ar uantë nancenë. Lá lamni ar lá olvar tuvintë tanomë. Epetai mettassë auhortantë nateli lintavë lelien. Tellelyantë tenna toltëa auressë tulintë i tarmanta ar tuvintë i mindo oronto pendessë.
Muinavë lelyeantë i mindonna tirien. I hestanë ondor rambaron tinir hísiénen. Ve ondonelet orta i mindo. Apa sinta lúmë cénantë orcor atta ettulë mindo andollo. Andunessë i eldar analelyeantë mindo túcinë macilinen.

## The watchtower

The three elves wander four days close to the mountains. Here the land is cold, lonely and beneath a shadow. There is no pass through the mountains. Alone uncounted rocks they see in daylight, and at night they hear the sounds of orc warriors. They do not find water, but each new day they proceed again and do not look back. No animals and no plants they find here. Consequently, at the end they throw away some things to travel swiftly. They go through till on the eighth day they come to the two pillars and find the watchtower at the slope of a mountain. Hidden they go to the tower to observe. The withered stones of the walls glint in the mist. Like a tooth of stone the tower rises. After a short time they see two orcs coming out of the tower gate. At sunset, the elves approach the tower with drawn swords.

### 14.2 GRAMMAR

### 14.2.1 General remarks about Quenya phonology

As we have seen already in the discussion of the Quenya tengwar writing mode, there are some consonants (like e.g. d) which cannot appear alone between vowels but always have to be part of the group nd. In fact, Quenya is very restrictive regarding what consonant clusters are allowed in principle.

At the beginning of a Quenya word, only vowels or the consonants
$\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{w}$ and y
may appear. There are also few consonant groups which can occur word-initially, these are
qu (instead of cw), ty, ly, ny and nw,
all of these contain the semi-vowels $\mathbf{y}$ or $\mathbf{w}$. Quite independent of its meaning, a word like 'darkness' could therefore never be a Quenya word, nor could it even be written in a Quenya tengwar mode for the simple reason that a Quenya word cannot start with da-.

Inside a Quenya word, the following consonant clusters occur frequently:
ld, mb, mp, nc, nd, ng, ngw nqu, nt, nw, ps, qu (for cw), ts and $x$ (for ks)

All other consonant groups which can occur in principle inside a single Quenya word are

> cc, ht, hty, lc, ll, lm, lp, lqu, lt, lv, lw, ly, mm, mn my nn nty, ny, pt, rc, rd, rm, rn, rp, rqu, rr, rt, rty, rs, rw, ry, sc, squ, ss, st sty, sw tt, tw and ty

In words with prefixes and compound formations, a few more combinations may occur which cannot be part of a single Quenya word. However, often consonant groups are changed instead to agree with the allowed clusters. Apart from consonant clusters involving $\mathbf{y}$ or $\mathbf{q}$, no Quenya consonant cluster can have more than two consonants.

Finally, a Quenya word has to end with either a vowel or one of the consonants

$$
\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{l} \text { or } \mathrm{r} .
$$

As a part of case inflection in dual, final -nt is also attested.
Single vowels may occur everywhere. The vowel combinations
ai, au, oi, ui, eu, iu
are diphthongs, i.e. they are spoken as one sound and are written in tengwar as a diphthong, not as two separate tehtar on two carriers. Most other combinations of vowels are possible (although they are not diphthongs), but the combinations aa, ee, ii, oo and uu are usually changed into á, é, í, ó and ú and ao is changed into o.

### 14.2.2 Prefixes

The knowledge about possible and impossible consonant groups would be of little practical use if there were not the possibility to use prefixes for many words, or to form a compound of two words. Doing this, it can easily happen that an impossible consonant cluster is created in the process, and it is important to recognize this and to know which consonant group has to be used instead.

Grammatically, prefixes are usually found before a verb (other than prepositions which are written before a noun), but some are also used to form new words, and yet others are associated with a noun or an adjective. Sometimes, there is no sharp distinction, therefore the following scheme is more to indicate a typical use than to give fixed rules. If two variants are given for a prefix and one of them ends with a vowel and the other with a consonant, the consonant ending is used if the following word starts with a vowel and vice versa.

The most important verbal prefixes in Quenya are:
ana- (to, towards)
Analelyan i coalya. (I go to your house.)

## apa-, ap- (after)

Hísiel apaquetë Nenwë. (Hísiel speaks after Nenwë.)
ata-, at- (re-, again, back, a second time)
Atamahtuvalmë! (We will fight again!)
au- (1) away (to get rid of it) 2) without)
Auhortan i alamára pilin. (I throw away the bad arrow.)
Aumahtammë estel. (We fight without hope.)
en- (re-, again, repeating again and again)
Aurë entuluva. (Daylight will return.)
ete-, et- (forth, out)
Ettúlan coanyallo. (I come out of my house.)
hó- (away (in order to get it to the speaker))
Á hótulë i Naucollor. (Come away from the dwarves!)
hru- (evil-)
Feanáro hrucarnë Telerin. (Feanor did evil to the Teleri.)
nai- (grievously, ill-)
Naiquentes Feanáro. (He cursed Feanor.)
nan- (back, re- (by same agent))
Áva nancenë! (Don't look back!)
ó- (together)
Ma ólelyalvë i ostonna? (Do we go together to the town?)
ter- (through)
Vanda sina termaruva... (This oath shall last... .)
undu- (down)
Undutúlan i aldallo. (I come down from the tree.)
Prefixes used for word formation of adjectives and nouns:
ala-, al- (un- (negation of especially adjectives))
Lá carita i hamil mára alasaila ná. (Not to do what you judge good is unwise.)
ama-, am- (blessed)
Amatulië ohtaron né. (It was a blessed arrival of warriors.)
ar- (1) (beside, outside)
Lelyan i arnórinnar. (I travel into the outer lands.)
as-, asa- (easy)
Ascénima i tie orcoron. (Easy to see is the path of the orcs.)
ara-, ar- (2) (noble, royal)
Utúlien arostollo Noldoron. (I have come from the royal town of the Noldor.)
ava- (un- (denoting something forbidden))
Quenta sina avaquétima. (This tale may not be told.)
can- (four)
Meruvallë canaurë. (You will wait four days.)
hrai- (difficult)
Eldaron coar hraicénimë nar. (The houses of elves are difficult to see.)
il- (un- (a variant of ala-))
Eldar nar ilfirin. (Elves are immortal.)
lin-, li- (many)
Tulin i nandenna linailiniva. (I come into the vale of many lakes.)

## loi- (mistaken)

Loicare né ohtacarië nauconnar. (A mistaken deed was to make war against the dwarves.)
mai- (good)
Maiquétina i saila quetta. (Well spoken was the wise word.)
nel- (three)
Mahtan nelecconen. (I fight with a trident.)
sau- (foul)
Saucarë mahta toron. (A foul deed is to fight a brother.)
ú- (un, not)
Eleni nar únótimë. (Stars are uncountable.)
ur- (with difficulty)
Urcárimë i Silmarilli. (Difficult to make were the Silmarils.)
The difference between the prefixes au- and hó- is the following: au denotes situations in which something is removed from the speaker in order to get rid of it, e.g. if something is cast away because the speaker doesn't want it any more. In contrast, hó is used if something is taken away from somewhere else in order to get it to the speaker.

The prefixes il- and ala-, al- belong to the group of words denying facts. Therefore, alquétima is something which cannot be told, e.g. because there are no appropriate words. The prefix ava- on the other hand has to do with the negation of intentions. Used with an adjective, it implies that something is forbidden, hence avaquétima denotes something that could in principle be expressed in words, but there's some rule which tells that it should not.

The prefixes ata-, en- and nan- can all take the meaning 're-, again'. The difference is as follows: ata- denotes things which are done a second time only, i.e. it would not be used with an event like the sunrise. For such events which happen again and again, the prefix en- is used instead. Finally, nan- denotes an action by the same agent coming back to do something again (whereas ata- just requires that something is done a second time, but doesn't specify the agent).

### 14.2.3 Consonant shifts

If a prefix ending with a consonant is used in front of a word starting with a consonant, it can happed that a forbidden consonant cluster is created. Usually, the group is then changed (some clusters can actually appear even if they are not part of the allowed Quenya clusters - this is because the rules in compound formation are a bit more relaxed - in any case, these groups are listed in the following as well). We know some of these shifts, others can be deduced from the general phonology:
Final consonant -l: lf $\rightarrow \mathbf{l f}, \ln \rightarrow \mathbf{l d}, \operatorname{lr} \rightarrow \mathbf{l l}, 1 \mathrm{~s} \rightarrow * \mathbf{l s}$, $\mathbf{l d}$

Final consonant $\mathbf{- n}: \mathbf{n l} \rightarrow \mathbf{l l}, \mathrm{ns} \rightarrow \mathbf{s s}, \mathbf{n s}, \mathrm{nr} \rightarrow \mathbf{r r}, \mathrm{nm} \rightarrow \mathbf{m m}, \mathrm{np} \rightarrow \mathbf{m p}, \mathrm{nv} \rightarrow \mathbf{n v}$.
Final consonant $\mathbf{- r}: \mathbf{r p} \rightarrow \mathbf{r p}, \mathrm{rl} \rightarrow \mathbf{l l}, \mathrm{rs} \rightarrow \mathbf{r s}, \mathrm{rv} \rightarrow \mathbf{r v}$
Final consonant $-\mathbf{s}: \mathrm{sn} \rightarrow \mathbf{s s}, \mathbf{r n}, \mathrm{sp} \rightarrow{ }^{*} \mathbf{s p}, \mathrm{sm} \rightarrow \mathbf{r m}, \mathrm{sr} \rightarrow{ }^{*} \mathbf{r r}, \mathrm{sl} \rightarrow{ }^{*} \mathbf{l l}, \mathrm{sv} \rightarrow{ }^{*} \mathbf{r v}$, sf $\rightarrow * \mathbf{f f}$, sh $\rightarrow *$ sc, *rh

Final consonant -t: $\mathrm{tn} \rightarrow \mathbf{n t}, \mathrm{tl} \rightarrow * \mathbf{I t}, \mathrm{tr} \rightarrow * \mathbf{r t}, \mathrm{tc} \rightarrow \mathbf{c c}, \mathrm{tf} \rightarrow \mathbf{f f}$, th $\rightarrow * \mathbf{h}$

### 14.2.4 Compounds

Like in English, Quenya permits compounds of e.g. two nouns to form a new noun, e.g. 'star' + 'light' to 'starlight'. For many nouns, this is not problematic since the majority of Quenya nouns ends with a vowel, but for some, impossible consonant clusters can be created - if so, the rules outlined above apply. An example would be the name Elemmacil (star-sword).

### 14.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| carë | Queed | Quenya | English |  |
| cárima | doable |  | olva | plant |
| cénima | visible |  | orta- | to raise |
| epetai | consequently | pendë | slope |  |
| hesta- | to wither | tenna | to |  |
| laman (lamn-) | animal | tin- | to glint |  |
| nelet | tooth | tuc- | to draw |  |
| nén | water | tuv- | to find |  |
| nótima | countable | una | lonely, abandoned |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

### 14.4 Conversation - how do you feel?

You can ask how a Noldo feels using a phrase like
Man felmelya? (How do you feel?; lit. 'what is your impulse/emotion')
or more precisely
Man hroafelmelya? (How is your bodily well-being?)
Man fëafelmelya? (How is your spiritual well-being?).
Maybe you get an answer like
Alassë nyë quantëa. (Joy is filling me.)
Rucin natillon yar tuluvar. (I fear the things that will come.)
Órenya lálëa . (My heart is laughing .)
Alassenya avánië. (My joy has left me.)
Nanyë alya, an i naicë autëa. (I am blessed, for the pain is passing.)
Tevin ilyë orcor. (I hate all orcs.)
If the person you're addressing is not well, you might at least wish him well:
Nai hiruvalyë alassë! (May you find joy!)
Nai i Valar tiruvar tielya! (May the Valar watch your path!)
Nai naicelya autuva! (May your pain fade!)

Verbs: tev- (to hate), ruc- (to fear), lala- (to laugh), naina- (to lament), nyéna- (to lament), nwalya- (to pain, to torment)

Nouns: tevië (hate), caurë (fear), alassë (joy), nírë (tear), naicë (pain), quámë (sickness), ossë (horror), felmë (emotion), hroafelmë (impulses of the body like hunger, thirst,. . . ), fëafelmë (emotion, like love, hate, fear...)

Adjectives: sancë (hateful), alassëa (happy), naicelëa (painful), hlaiwa (sick), caimassëa (bedridden), alya (rich, blessed), eressëa (lonely)


## Lesson 15

## OTHER CLASSES OF VERBS



### 15.1 TExT

## ふ gom














Nu cemen<br>I mindo tópa palwë vilyanna. Mitya men ná cumna. Nícua. Tië penda tulya tumnë sambinnar móressë. Rimbë orcoron tali yeryaner sina tië andë yéninen.<br>Maglos: Uan póla cenë nat i huinessë. Mauya elmen tinta calmar.<br>Nenwë: Ua mauya. Nan órea nin lá turë nolwë sina sinomë.<br>Nenwë ortëa máryat ar quéta quettali. Rilma mirilya imbi lepseryar. I tië ascénima ná ar i eldar lelyear tumnë sambinnar. Huinessë hlárantë nén nurrula. Túvantë pityë andor ar vinyë tier pendeo mettassë .<br>Hísiel: Sin ná tumna osto! Manen hiruvalmë Auriel? Lá ihírien tienya yéni yá hrótassë ar tan farnë. Epë senden, súlë tengë tienya.<br>Nenwë : Lelyuvalmë nenna ar tanomë hostuvalme sanwelmar.

## Below the ground

The roof of the tower opens wide to the sky. Its interior is empty. It is cold. A down-sloping way leads towards deep chambers in darkness. The feet of many orcs have worn this path during many years.
Maglos: I can't see a thing in the darkness. We have to light lamps.
Nenwë: We don't have to. But I don't really want to apply this secret knowledge here.
Nenwë raises both his hands and speaks some words. A glittering light is shimmering between his fingers. The way becomes easy to see and the Elves go towards the deep chambers. In the gloom they hear murmuring water. They find small doors and new corridors at the end of the slope.
Hísiel: This is a deep town! How shall we find Auriel here? I lost my way in an underground dwelling years ago, and that was enough! Only after I rested, a breath of wind indicated my way.
Nenwë: We will go to the water and gather our thoughts there.

### 15.2 GRAMMAR

### 15.2.1 Verb classes

We have so far made a distinction between basic and derived verbs, and classified their past tense formation according to transitive and intransitive use and the final stem consonant. However, while this covers most of the verbs in Quenya, there are quite a few more classes of verbs. We have already seen primary verbs with a vowel ending. There is also a class of derived verbs with a derivational ending in $\mathbf{- u}$. Other verbs show a seemingly strange past tense, which is however perfectly in line with the rules outlined so far if one knows the phonological development of the verb. Yet other verbs show past tenses which are unexpected and irregular in the sense that we don't know according to what rules we'd expect their formation, but they are not lone exceptions, so we must assume that they are in fact regular for a class of verbs. Finally, there is also a number of unexpected past and perfect tenses which seem to be isolated examples for which the label 'irregular' may be more appropriate.

### 15.2.2 Derived U-verbs

In addition to the derived verbs with derivational suffixes ending in $\mathbf{- a}$, there's also a small group of verbs with the stem ending in $\mathbf{- u}$, therefore these verbs are referred to as $U$-verbs. They are
palu- (to open (oneself) wide)
nicu- (to be cold (referring to weather))
fifíru- (to fade slowly (an elaboration of fir-))
hlapu- (to blow, to fly, to stream in wind)
nurru- (to murmur)
Presumably, the conjugation of these verbs is done as follows (using the example palu-):
palu-: inf. palo (to open), ext. inf. paluta (to open), Aorist palwë (palwi-) (opens), present tense pálua (is opening), past tense palunë (opened), perfect tense apálië (opened), future palúva (will open), PPA pálula (opening), PPP paluina (opened), gerund palië ([the] opening)
The forms in Aorist are the most irregular ones. Presumably, the verbs would become palwë, niquë, nurui, hlapui and fifírui in this tense.

I lumbor hlapuir súrinen. (Clouds drift in the wind.)
Linyenwa atan fifírui. (An old man is slowly fading away.)
I súrë nicúva hrívessë. (The wind will be cold in winter.)
I falmali unurrier mí falassë. (Many waves have murmured at the beach.)

### 15.2.3 Phonological developments in past tense formation

For some basic verbs with final consonant -r, the past tense is seemingly irregular, however in reality only the original stem is restored in past tense. An example would be rer- (to sow) which is derived from the primitive root RED. In Aorist, this becomes rerin (I sow), but the past tense is formed as if the verb would still be red-, hence rendë (sowed). The verbs of this class are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { rer- }(\text { to sow }) \rightarrow \text { rendë }(\text { sowed }) \\
& \text { ser- }(\text { to rest }) \rightarrow \text { sendë (rested) } \\
& \text { hyar- (to cleave) } \rightarrow \text { hyandë }(\text { cleaved) } \\
& \text { nir- }(\text { to press }) \rightarrow \text { nindë (pressed) }
\end{aligned}
$$

There are also few verbs ending in $\mathbf{- r}$ for which the primitive root ended in -s. In this case, the past tense may also be regularly formed by nasal infixion, however this subsequently changes to -ssë.
hrir- (to snow) $\rightarrow$ hrissë (snowed)
hlar- (to hear) $\rightarrow$ hlassë (heard)
Two verbs which show the ending -ëa in Aorist are derived from a root in -enga- where -ng- has dropped out in Aorist and present tense, but is restored due to nasal infixion in past tense. We already know ëa (to exist).

```
ëa- (to exist) }->\mathrm{ engë (existed)
tëa (to indicate) }->\mathrm{ tengë (indicated)
```


### 15.2.4 Vowel-lengthening past tenses for derived verbs

Vowel lengthening is a common past tense formation for basic verbs, cf. tul- (to come) túle (came). However, there are also few derived verbs which show a loss of derivational
suffix and lengthening of the stem vowel in past tense. Often, these are variant forms to more regular past tenses.
lumna- (to lie heavy) $\rightarrow$ lúvë (lay heavy)
onta- (to beget, create) $\rightarrow$ óne or ontane (created)
anta- (to give) $\rightarrow$ áne or antane (gave)
fanta- (to veil) $\rightarrow$ fáne or fantane (veiled)

### 15.2.5 Past tenses for derived verbs with suffix loss

There are a number of derived verbs which form past tenses with a suffix -në, however this is only appended after the derivational ending has been lost, so in effect these verbs are treated in past tense as if they were basic verbs. Often, these occur for intransitive verbs and are variant forms to more regular strong past tense formations.

```
farya-(to suffice) }->\mathrm{ farnë or farinyë (sufficed)
caita- (to lie) }->\mathrm{ cainë or ceantë (lay)
menta- (to send) }->\mathrm{ mennë (sent)
ora- (to urge) }->\mathrm{ ornë or oranë (urged)
ava- (to refuse, forbid) }->\mathrm{ aunë or avanë (refused)
tenya- (to arrive) }->\mathrm{ tennë (arrived)
ua- (to be not) }->\mathrm{ únë (was not)
virya- (to change) (intr.) }->\mathrm{ virnë or virinyë (changed)
```

If this takes place for lala- which may come from two different roots and hence take either the meaning 'to laugh' or the meaning 'to deny', the verbs would be distinct in past tense:
lala- (to laugh) $\rightarrow$ lalanë or landë (laughed)
lala- (to deny) $\rightarrow$ lalanë or lallë (denied)

### 15.2.6 The past tense for verbs in both transitive and intransitive use

There are some verbs which can be used transitively as well as intransitively, i.e. ulya- (to pour), yerya- (to wear out, to get old) or tenta- (to point). In these cases, the past tense formation is different for transitive and intransitive use of the verb. The intransitive use is connected with a strong past tense, whereas the transitive use is connected with a weak past tense.

I sírë ullë cilyanna. (The river poured into a gorge.)
I elda ulyanë limpë yulmanyanna. (The elf poured wine into my cup.)
I atan yernë. (The man aged.)
Yeryanes i macil. (He wore the sword down.)
Rancunya tenantë Formenna. (My arm pointed northward.)
Tentanenyë i tanna sírenna. (I pointed the sign towards the river.)

### 15.2.7 Perfect tenses of derived verbs from past tenses

Usually, the perfect tense of derived verbs is formed via a loss of the derivational suffix. However, in some cases it is directly formed from the past tense and includes all past tense markers.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { orta- (to raise) } \rightarrow \text { ortanë (raised) } \rightarrow \text { ortanië (has raised) } \\
& \text { henta- (to eye) } \rightarrow \text { hentanë (eyed) } \rightarrow \text { ehentanië (has eyed) }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 15.2.8 Derived verbs with symmetric roots

There are few verbs where the root has one consonant, and the root vowel may be before or after this consonant or in both positions. Two examples are ISI and AWA. The derived verbs from these roots may change the position of the root vowel in different tenses. For example, ista- (to know) uses the shape of the root IS, but the past tense sintë is formed by nasal infixion as if the verb had been sita-. Likewise, the variant isintë is formed as if the verb had been isita-.

The situation of AWA is a bit more complex, as aw- changes to au- and awa- changes to $\mathbf{o a}-$, but one can spot the same pattern in the past tenses: The verb auta- (to go away, to disappear) has past tenses according to what specific meaning the speaker has in mind. If he wants to express a simple 'go away' to another place, then the past tense is oantë (went away). If the intended meaning is however 'to disappear' in the sense of 'vanished', then past tense is vánë (vanished).

This holds also for other tenses. The perfect tense is formed from the past tenses:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { auta- (to vanish) } \rightarrow \text { vánë (vanished) } \rightarrow \text { avánië (has vanished) } \\
& \text { auta- (to go away) } \rightarrow \text { oantë (went away) } \rightarrow \text { oantië (has gone away) } \\
& \text { ista- (to know) } \rightarrow \text { sintë (knew) } \rightarrow \text { isintië (has known) }
\end{aligned}
$$

However, ista- has an alternative regular perfect tense ísië .
The participles vanwa (gone) and síta (known) are likewise derived from the inverted roots, whereas the future tense forms autuva and istuva or isuva employ the roots as seen in present tense and Aorist.

Ilyë eldar oantier Valimarenna. (All elves have gone to Valinor.)
Yéni únótimë avánier. (Uncounted years have passed away.)

### 15.2.9 Impersonal verbs

Most Quenya sentences have an explicit subject, i.e. there is either a noun in this function somewhere in the sentence or there is a pronoun (possibly as a verbal ending). However, unlike in English where every sentence must have a subject, this is not so in Quenya there are some verbs which do not require any subject. This is so because sometimes logically there is no one in particular who carries out the verbal action, e.g. in ulya ([it] is raining) there is no particular thing that could be inserted in the place of the English 'it' and consequently it is left out in Quenya.

Since English does require a subject and Quenya doesn't, it is impossible to give literal translations of these constructions. They have to be expressed using a pronoun (mostly 'it') in English - but it would be wrong to use them in Quenya, one cannot say e.g. ulyas.

There are not so many verbs which are regularly impersonal. They are mauya ([it] is necessary, [it] impels), óla ([it] dreams) and orë or ora ([it] urges, [it] compels). All these describe things which an elf does not experience as his own doing but as something which happens to him - hence an elf does not see himself as the creator of his dreams but as a mere spectator, hence he would say óla nin ([it] dreams to me; I dream).

Similarly, orë does not denote a conscious decision to want something to happen (this would be merin (I want)) but as some desire of his heart that he cannot change by will, like
in orë nin caritas ([it] compels for me to do it; I desire to do it). Consequently, necessities are expressed using an impersonal verb as well: mauya nin caritas ([it] is necessary for me to do it; I have to do it).

Óra i naucon mahta. (The dwarf wants to fight.)
Mauya eldalin termarë Endoressë. (Some elves must abide in Middle-Earth.)

### 15.2.10 equë

The verb equë (says, say) is used to quote something if it is followed by independent pronouns or names. It is indeclinable, hence it cannot appear in any other tense and it does not receive the plural ending -r. It is used like in Equë Hísiel: 'Númello utúlien.' (Hísiel says: 'Out of the West I have come.')

Equë inyë : 'Ardalya nauva Menel'
(But I say: 'Your kingdom will be heaven.')
Equë Hísiel ar Nenwë: 'Nammë eldar.'
(Hísiel and Nenwë say: 'We are elves.')
Sometimes, equë can also be used to express indirect speech, as in Equë Hísiel ecéniessë Nenwë. (Hísiel says she has seen Nenwë.). It can sometimes be used with a short pronominal ending as well: eques (he says), equen (I say)...

### 15.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ava- | to forbid, to refuse | óla- | to dream |
| equë | says | onta- | to create, to beget |
| fifíru- | to fade slowly | palu- | to open wide |
| hlapu- | to fly, to stream in wind | rer- | to sow |
| hrir- | to snow | rilma | glittering light |
| hróta | underground dwelling | ser- | to rest |
| hyar- | to cleave | súlë (th-) | breath |
| lala- | 1) to laugh 2) to deny | tanna | sign |
| lepsë | finger | tëa | to indicate |
| lumna- | to lie heavy | tenya- | to arrive |
| mauya- | to be necessary, to impel | tinta- | to kindle |
| menta- | to send | tiuya- | to swell, to grow fat |
| mirilya- | to glitter | tópa | roof |
| mitya | inner | ulya- | to pour |
| nicu- | to be cold | yá | before, ago |
| nir- | to press, to thrust, to force | yén | longyear (144 years) |
| nolwë | lore, secret knowledge | yerya- | to wear, to age |
| nurru- | to murmur |  |  |

### 15.4 CONVERSATION - IN NATURE

Elves, especially the Noldor with their preference for the beauty of language love to describe nature with poetic words and phrases. If you are travelling with Noldor, you should
follow this habit and observe nature around you. If you see something beautiful, you can alert the others with

Ela! (Look!) or Á tirë! (Watch!) or Á cenë! (Look!).
But use some poetry to describe exactly what it is you have seen:
Laurië lantar lassi súrinen. (Like gold fall the leaves in the wind.)
Linta ve soron i celumë síreo. (Swift like an eagle is the streaming of the river.)
Lumbor ve mindoni hostar vilyassë. (Clouds like towers gather in the sky.)
If you want to describe an animal, you might use similar expressions:
Mámar túpar i ambo ve fanyar. (Sheep cover the hill like clouds.)
Rocco, linta ve i súrë . (A horse, swift as the wind.)
Calima i vilië sorno vilyassë. (Bright is the flight of the eagle in the sky.)
Animals: celva (animal), laman (lamn-) (animal, mammal), andamunda (elephant), huo (dog), ronyo (hunting dog), hyalma (shell), leuca (snake), lingwë (fish), hala (small fish), lókë (dragon, snake, serpent, drake), rámalókë (winged dragon), urulókë (firedragon), lingwilókë (sea serpent) máma (sheep), morco (bear), mundo (ox), nyarro (rat), rá(ráv-) (lion), ráca (wolf), narmo (wolf), nauro (werewolf), rocco (horse), vilwarin (butterfly), *nion (bee), yaxë (cow)

Birds: aiwë (bird), filit (filic-) (small bird), alqua (swan), cu (dove), halatir (kingfisher), lindo (singing bird), lómelindë (nightingale), maiwë (gull), soron (th-) (eagle), tambaro (woodpecker), tuilindo (swallow), corco (crow)

Plants: olva (plant), uilë (seaweed), salquë (grass), sara (th-) (hard, dry grass), lassë (leaf), olwa (branch), tussa (shrub), hwan (fungus, sponge), lótë (flower), lossë (blossom, often white blossom), asëa aranion (athelas, kingsfoil), alda (tree), ornë (small tree), alalmë (elm tree), feren (beech), ercassë (holly), malinornë (Mallorn), norno (oak), tasar (willow), tyulussë (poplar), hwinde (birch)


## Lesson 16

## Special constructions



## 16．1 TEXt

## certa romai

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岗的的

## Nolwë Nenwëo

I eldar túlar yanwenna or sírë tumna undupalúrë. Rilma Nenwëo ua faryëa calinatan sina hróta. Vaháya menello pólantë hlarë ómar cotumo mólion.
Hísiel: Uan ista ma intya mára lelyata sina tië.
Nenwë: I nalmë sinomë alta alma. Haryuvalmë estel.
Maglos: Orcor túlar tellello!
I eldar lelyear yanwenna. Sí imbë atta hormar cotumóron nar. Hísiel ortëa macilerya. Orcor ar úmeantë atani túlar tielto. Erë lamya erenen. Nenwë ataquéta quettali ar i hróta calinanta. Morna nén falastëa yanwenna ar mápëa rimbë cotumor. Nenwëo yalie falmaiva tyára i túrë eldain.
Maglos: Maitë sina nolwetya ná?
Nenwë: Sin ná Valimáro cálë ar nólë néno.
Hísiel: I orcor utúlier tana tiello. Sanwenya i mauya elmen menë tana tienna.

## Nenwë's secret lore

The elves are coming to a bridge over a river deep below the surface. Nenwë's glittering light does not suffice to light this cavern. From a distant place they can hear voices of the Enemy's servants.
Hísiel: I don't know whether it is a good idea to go this way.
Nenwë: That we are here is great fortune. We shall have hope.
Maglos: Orcs are coming from behind!
The elves run towards the bridge. Now they are between two hordes of enemies. Hísiel raises her sword. Orcs and humans seduced to evil are coming from both paths. Steel rings on steel. Again Nenwë is speaking some words and the cavern is lightened. Dark water is foaming over the bridge and carries away many enemies. Nenwe's summoning of the waves brings victory for the elves.
Maglos: What kind is this secret lore of yours?
Nenwë: This is the light of Valinor and some knowledge of water.
Hísiel: The orcs have come from this way. My guess is that we have to go into that corridor.

### 16.2 GRAMMAR

### 16.2.1 Sentences using 'that'

Unfortunately, in English 'that' is used for quite a few different things. This is not so in Quenya. We have already encountered the relative pronoun ya, like in i nat ya ecénien (the thing that I saw). If 'that' is used as relative pronoun, it can always be replaced by 'which'. This is not the case for the other uses of English 'that'. We have seen that it can be demonstrative pronoun, tana nat (that thing) as compared to sina nat (this thing). If 'that' can neither be replaced by 'which' nor by 'this' without the sentence losing its meaning, then it is used as a conjunction.

In previous examples, we sometimes have translated sentences like Merin mahtuvalyë. (I wish you will fight.) a bit more freely using 'I wish that you fight.'. It is now clear that in Quenya the second version can literally be expressed using $\mathbf{i}$ which doubles as a conjunction:

Merin i mahtuvalyë. (I wish that you will fight.)

Cénan i lassë lanta. (I see that a leaf falls.)
Note that the latter sentence is apparently difficult to distinguish from 'I see the leaf fall' - however in lesson 20 we will learn about a possibility to distinguish the two.
i introduces a so-called nominal clause, which means that the whole following expression can be subject or object in a sentence:

I ihírietyen mára. (That you have found me is well.)
Merin i mahtuvalyë i orcor. (I wish that you shall fight the orcs.)

### 16.2.2 Sentences using 'whether, if'

The word ma has been used up to now either to introduce a question which can be answered with yes or no or, with case inflection, as a general question word. It is, however, possible that it can be used in the middle of a sentence as 'whether' or 'if':

Uan istëa ma tuluvalyë . (I do not know whether you will come.)
Ánin quetë ma vessenya tyessë ná. (Tell me if my wife is with you!)

### 16.2.3 Genitive and possessive with verbal nouns

In sentences involving a verbal noun (a noun describing an action) it can happen that two genitives are associated with it, e.g. 'Hísiel's making of a sword'. In spite of the fact that both 'Hísiel' and 'sword' are in genitive, logically 'Hísiel' is the subject (she's doing the 'making') and 'sword' the object.

Quenya makes this distinction more clearly: The subject of such an expression is in genitive whereas the object is in possessive, hence

Hísiello carië macilwa (Hísiel's making of a sword)
Nenwëo mapalë massava (Nenwe's seizing of bread)
This can be used to construct some pretty tricky sentences:
Nission nurtalë nerentaron maciliva lá carna ohtacarien.
(The womens' hiding of their men's swords was not done to make war.)

### 16.2.4 Causative verbs from adjectives

There is a special way to express things like 'make rich' or 'make a sword sharp; sharpen a sword'. Apart from the literal (and presumably not so elegant) versions
carë alya (make rich)
carë macil maica (make a sword sharp)
these things can be expressed by appending the causative verbal ending -ta to an adjective in order to form a verb:
alyata (make rich)
maicata macil (sharpen a sword)
If the adjective ends with an -ë, this becomes -i- before the ending is appended:

$$
\text { ninquë (white) } \rightarrow \text { ninquita- (to whiten) }
$$

Two peculiarities of such verbs are known: In the past tense, they are usually longer than normal verbs. Therefore, if possible, the vowel is lengthened in front of the past tense ending -në, i.e. maicatánë instead of maicatanë in order to avoid awkward stress patterns. This, however, is only carried out if a following pronominal ending is not a complete syllable:
maicatánen (I sharpened)
maicatanenyë (I sharpened)
The second difference to ordinary verbs is that the perfect passive participle is not formed by -ina like for normal A-verbs but by -nta to the original adjective:
maicanta (sharpened)
envinyanta (renewed)
A longer example:
Macil maicanta mára epë macil yeryaina mahtien.
(A sharpened sword is better for fighting than a worn one.)

### 16.2.5 Interrogative pronouns

Based on the demonstrative stems SI and TA, one can also try to deduce interrogative pronouns or question words from the stem MA. One would find man? (what?, who?), *má? (when?), *ma? (like what?), manen? (in what way?), *mó? (whence?), *maitë? (of what sort?), *mas, *massë? (where?), *manomë? (in what place?), *malumë? (at what time?) and *mar, *mara? (what matter?).

Maitë ohtar Hísiel ná? (What sort of a warrior is Hísiel?)
Malumë holya i ando? (At what time closes the gate?)
Má Finwëo veryanwë Indissenna né? (When was Finwe's wedding to Indis?)
Mó camelmë asëa ? (Whence do we receive comfort?)

### 16.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alma | good fortune | nóle | lore, knowledge |
| asëa | comfort, healing | palúrë | surface (of earth) |
| falasta- | to foam | tellë | rear |
| falma | wave | tyar- | to cause |
| holya- (intr.) | to close | vaháya | far away, distant |
| horma | horde, host | veryanwë | wedding |
| intya | idea | yal- | to call, to summon |
| lamya | sound, ring | yanwë | bridge |
| men- | to go |  |  |

### 16.4 NUANCES IN EXPRESSION - PREPOSITIONS

Often there are two possibilities in Quenya to translate some expressions, for example a position can be told using a preposition (e.g. mi) or the locative case. The question is in which situation which version is to be preferred.

If one wants to be precise, often the preposition is the better choice. For example, taurenna can be translated as 'to a forest' or 'into a forest', but this is a problem if you try to tell someone 'Go to the forest, but under no circumstances go into the forest!' in Quenya you may be misunderstood using the allative Á lelya i taurenna nan áva lelya i taurenna. However, you can easily think of using prepositions for clarity: Á lelya na i taurë nan áva lelya mir i taurë! cannot be misunderstood so easily.

Similarly, using aicassenna you express that you go towards a mountain top, but using amba aicassë implies that you actually intend to go up.

Some things can in fact only be expressed with the help of prepositions because there is no suitable case ending, e.g. Á lelya terë i taurë! 'Go through the forest!' cannot be expressed using allative.

A similar difference in precision holds also true for the locative: Whereas coassë may mean 'at a house' or 'in a house', harë coa can only be understood as 'at a house' and mi coa clarifies that 'in a house' is the intended meaning.

On the other hand, case inflection endings seem to be used more frequently in the language than prepositions and should probably be preferred in all situations in which no precise distinction is necessary.

Another important distinction has to be made in the translation of the English 'with' into Quenya. Here, three different situations may arise:

If you can replace English 'with' by 'using' or 'by', then it has to be expressed by the Quenya instrumental case:

Mahtanyë macilenen. (I fight with a sword.)
Cenin hendunen. (I see with both eyes.)
On the other hand, if the English 'with' can be expressed as 'together with' then it corresponds to the preposition yo in Quenya:

Lelyan Ondolindenna yo sellinyar. (I travel with my sisters to Gondolin.)

Finally, if the 'with' expresses possession of something, then the preposition arwa (followed by genitive) has to be used in Quenya:

Cénan nér arwa rocco. (I see a man with a horse.)


## Lesson 17

## Must，Shall，CAN； Postpositions



## 17．1 TEXT





＂ます。＂








## Auriel

I síre hrótassë pella i eldar túlar rimbë sambinnar mandoiva. I vista nítë ar lauca ná. Mettassë hírantë pahta ando tírala orconen. Pilin Nenwëo máca i orco ar i eldar lelyear mir sambë. Túvantë Auriel.
Maglos: Auriel! Sellinya!
Auriel: Maglos! Manen ihírielden? Uan haryanë estel.
Maglos: Á tulë lintavë! Mauya men auta sina men.
Auriel: Uanyë polë auta.
Nenwë: Óra emmen auta allintavë. Ma rucilyë i uammë ista i tië, Auriel?
Auriel: Lá. Nan aiquen hirë sina sambë lusta, ilyë orcor tiruvar men. Ualmë rehta. Uan lerta auta an ilyë firuvaldë.
Nenwë: Man caruvalmë?


#### Abstract

Auriel Beyond the river in the cavern the Elves come to many prison cells. The air is humid and warm. Finally they find a closed door watched by an orc. An arrow of Nenwë slays the orc and the elves go into the cell. They find Auriel. Maglos: Auriel! Sister! Auriel: Maglos! How did you find me? I had no hope left. Maglos: Come quickly! We have to leave this place. Auriel: I cannot leave. Nenwë: But we have to leave very quickly! Do you fear that we don't know the way, Auriel? Auriel: No. But if anyone finds this cell empty, all orcs will look for us. We cannot flee. I cannot leave, for you will all die. Nenwë: What shall we do?


### 17.2 GRAMMAR

### 17.2.1 Can, be able to

In Quenya, there are several different ways to express that someone can do something, all used to express different situations.
pol- (can, be able to) is used with the meaning 'being physically able to do something'. It can sometimes be used in a slightly broader sense, though:

I nauco polë orta i ondo. (The dwarf can lift the rock.)
$\rightarrow$ he's got enough strength
Polin quetë i lambë Sindaiva. (I can speak Sindarin.)
$\rightarrow$ because I have a mouth, am not gagged and know the words
ista- (can, know) refers to knowledge necessary before an action can be performed:
Istan tecë. (I can write.)
$\rightarrow$ I know what the letters look like
The difference between pol- and ista- becomes apparent in the following sentence:
Istan tecë nan lá pólan tecë.
(I know how to write but I'm not able to.)
$\rightarrow$ I know the letters, but my hands are bound

Finally there's lerta- (can, be free to) which is used to express a permission to perform an action:

Lertatyë sí lelya. (You can go now.)
Again it is clear that the permission for an action does not imply that a person is physically able to perform it, nor that he has the necessary knowledge. It is therefore quite easy to construct a sentence with all three of the above verbs.

In addition there is also the impersonal verb ecë or in future tense ecuva which has the meaning 'it is open' in the sense that there is no obstacle to do it. This may likewise translated as 'I can':

Ecë nin carë sa. (I can do it.)
Ecuva tyen menë orontinnar. (You'll be able to go to the mountains.)
Ecë nin? (May I?)

### 17.2.2 Want

We have already covered the words necessary to express that one wants something. meris used to express a wish as the result of a conscious decision:

Merin lelya Ondolindenna. (I want to travel to Gondolin.)
$\rightarrow \mathrm{I}$ have decided to go
In contrast, the impersonal or- expresses an urge which is not the result of a conscious decision. Since this urge presumably more often than not reflects a desire felt now, the verb is probably found more in present tense than in Aorist.

Óra nin auta sina mahtale. (I wish to flee from this fight.)
$\rightarrow$ but I don't actually do it because my friends are still there

### 17.2.3 Should

There are different possibilities to express that someone should do something. First of all, future tense can be used for this meaning:

Vanda sina termaruva. (This oath shall stand.)
Men equétientë varyuvalmë i osto.
(They have said to us we shall defend the town.)
Alternatively, it is presumably possible to use or- (urge) (in this case not as an impersonal verb):

Tyë óran caritas. (I urge you to do it; You should do it.)

### 17.2.4 Must

Rock-solid obligations and necessities are expressed in Quenya using the impersonal mauya(it impels) - they are not seen as one's own choices but rather as something coming from outside, limiting ones choices, and hence an impersonal construction makes a lot of sense. The one having an obligation appears in dative:

Mauya tyen varya i osto. (You have to defend the town.)

### 17.2.5 Postpositions

Apart from a large set of prepositions, there are also (few) postpositions in Quenya. They have a very similar function, however they do not appear in front of the word they refer to but behind it. The known Quenya postpositions are:
pella (beyond)
I sírë pella osto ná. (Beyond the river is a town.)
yá (ago)
Loali yá utúlien Endorenna.
(Some years ago I came to Middle-Earth.)

### 17.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| aiquen | if anyone |
| ecë | is open |
| lauca | warm |
| lerta- | to be free to |
| loa | year |
| lusta | empty |
| nítë | moist, humid |
| pahta | closed |
| rehta- | to escape, to recover |
| vanda | oath |
| vista | air (as substance) |

### 17.4 NUANCES IN EXPRESSION - PRONOUNS

There are different possibilities to translate English pronouns in a Quenya sentence. The phrase 'I see you.' can for example be translated as Ceninyet. or Cenin tyë. or even as Ni cenë tyë.

It seems as if there is in general no real difference in emphasis if one uses the long or the short pronominal verb endings - however, the long endings are usually more precise, especially for the question of inclusive, exclusive and dual 'we'. A further advantage of the long endings is that the confusion between 2nd person sg. and 3rd person plural (which are both $\mathbf{- t}$ ) is avoided. In writing poetry, the freedom of introducing an additional syllable without altering the meaning may be very useful.

Similarly, it seems that there is no difference if one expresses a non-emphatic pronoun as a verbal ending or as an independent pronoun, it is however more usual to express the pronoun in the verbal endings. A possible exception may be the verb na- (to be): This is often left out in Quenya, therefore ni tulca (I'm strong) is possibly preferred to nan tulca even if the latter form is entirely correct.

There is however a difference between the use of an emphatic and a non-emphatic pronoun (an emphatic pronoun cannot be expressed as a verbal ending) - here there is special emphasis on the expression:

Nai hiruvalyë! (May you find!)
Nai elyë hiruva! (May even you find!)


## Lesson 18

## PASSIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE



## 18．1 TEXT

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## Hísiello verië

Hísiel: Intyanya ná i sí hanyan i cotumo sanwë. Símanyassë amápies Auriel Noldoiva ardallo. Lá cennë i orcor. Man aiquen hanya i cé Noldor tan carner?
Nenwë: I Sindar istar i cotumo, uar cé ohtacaruva Noldoin.
Auriel: Lá na le tanca! Uammë harya rimba estel Noldoin.
Hísiel: Mauya Aurielen auta nuhtien cotumo sanwë.
Maglos: Manen?
Hísiel: Silumë ualmë hilyainë. Morna ná. Ai inyë mára i mandossë, ellë cé poluvar auta. I orcor cenuvar elda sinomë ar úvar tirë lyë. Ai lá hirintë lyë, hilyala auressë mahtuvanyë lerienyan.
Nenwë: Firuvatyë sinomë. Sin áva carë!
Maglos: Etelehtuvalmë se nan lá he.
Hísiel: Caruvanyes. Á lelya! Namárië.
Maglos: Namárië, Hísiel! Nai i Valar tyë tiruvar! Na encenuvalmë!

## Hísiel's courage

Hísiel: My guess is that I now understand the thought of the Enemy. I imagine he has taken Auriel from the realm of the Noldor. The orcs have not been seen. What if anyone believes that the Noldor could have done that?
Nenwë: The Sindar know the Enemy, they would not make war against the Noldor.
Auriel: Do not be sure! We don't have much trust in the Noldor.
Hísiel: It is necessary that Auriel leaves to prevent the plan of the enemy from completion.
Maglos: How?
Hísiel: In this hour, we are not yet followed. It is dark. If I stay in the cell, you may be able to escape. The orcs will see an elf here and will not watch for you. If they do not find you, I will fight for my freedom on the following day.
Nenwë: You will die here! Don't do this!
Maglos: We can save her, but not her.
Hísiel: I will do it. Go now! Farewell!
Maglos: Farewell, Hísiel! May the Valar watch you. And may we all see each other again!

### 18.2 GRAMMAR

The use of passive and subjunctive in Quenya is not really well attested. Therefore this lesson has the main purpose of showing the most likely constructions serving this purpose, it is not clear if all of these would really correspond to Tolkien's ideas, at times things are based on analogies with Sindarin grammar (which in itself isn't really well understood).

### 18.2.1 The subjunctive

In describing situations which are not based on fact there is a difference if one describes a situation that is wished for or one that is uncertain to take place.

In order to describe wishes we already have introduced nai, but there is also a very similar optative particle na (be it!). It seems that this particle can be used quite similarly to nai:

Na tuluvalyë sír coanyanna. (May you come to my house today.)
Na ecéniessë nyë. (Hopefully she has seen me.)
Similar expressions can be formed using adjectives and the verb 'to be' (which can be left out optionally):

Na alassëa Nenwë. (May Nenwë be happy!)
Uncertain and contrary to fact situations are marked with the particle cé which may in some expressions be translated as 'maybe':

Lá caritas alasaila cé nauva.
(Not to do it would be unwise./Not to do it will perhaps be unwise.)
The English subjunctive arises here from a form in future tense which is explicitly marked as uncertain - presumably a verb in present tense would only express uncertainty:

Lá caritas alasaila cé ná. (Not to do it is maybe unwise.)
Conditional phrases can be formed using *ai or qui (if) or aiquen (if anybody). Such expressions may often involve the subjunctive:

Aiquen ecénië me cé nalmë mandossë.
(If anyone had seen us, we would be in prison.)

```
Ai cénan orco cé autuvan.
(If I would see an orc, I would run.)
Ai cénan orco autuvan.
(If I see an orc I will run.)
```

Factual situations describing a general rule on the other hand do not need the subjunctive particle:

Quiequie cenin orco, autan. (Whenever I see an orc, I run.)

### 18.2.2 The passive

There are two different forms in Quenya which may come out as passive in the English translation. First, one can use the perfect passive participle in combination with the verb 'to be' in order to express that something has happened to someone:

Ni harnaina. (I am/have been wounded.)
I parma técina ná. (The book is/has been written.)
Nanyë cenna orcoinen. (I am seen by orcs.)
Aurë tuluva yassë i parma técina nauva.
(The day shall come on which the book will be written.)
Culu túvina né lo naucor. (Gold was found by the dwarves.)
Note that in these constructions, the one who does the verbal action is either in instrumental case or joined using the preposition lo.

A different possibility is to express passive using an impersonal verb, i.e. a verb which does not have a pronominal ending or a subject anywhere in the sentence:

Carë indomenya. (My will is done, lit. '[someone] does my will')
Nyë cenë. (I am being seen.)
Antuva tyë massa ostossë. (In town you will be given bread.)
Of course such a construction can be combined with an optative or subjunctive:

Na carë indomelya. (May your will be done.)
Cé tirë nyë. (Maybe I am being watched.)
A passive meaning is also implied by the personless verb form in plural. In this case, the sentence refers to some unspecified people:

Quetir nauror orontissen nar.
(They say werewolves are in the mountains./It is said...)

### 18.2.3 The pronouns he and ha

Sometimes one has a sentence in which 3rd person pronouns refer to different persons or things, for example in 'Auriel likes him [Maglos] but not him [Nenwë]'. Such sentences would occur more in the spoken language where gestures or eye-contact can resolve the ambiguity more easily than in written language where they appear a bit awkward. Nevertheless, Quenya makes a distinction in this situation. The first person or thing referred to in the sentence is expressed using the pronoun se (he, she) or sa (it), but the second is expressed with he (he, she the other) or *ha (the other thing).

Hísiel melë se nan lá mele he. (Hísiel loves him but not him [the other]).
Lá mapanyë sa. Úsie mapanye ha.
(I don't take it. On the contrary, I take the other thing.)

### 18.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| *ai | if |
| culu | gold (as metal) |
| etelehta- | to deliver, to save |
| hanya- | to understand |
| indomë | will |
| *lerië | freedom |
| nauro | werewolf |
| qui | if |
| quiequie | whenever |
| síma | imagination |
| úsië | on the contrary |

### 18.4 NUANCES IN EXPRESSION - WORD ORDER

In general, Quenya has a very liberal word order: Adjectives can come in front of the noun they describe or behind:
tára oron / oron tára (a high mountain)
Likewise, genitives can come before the noun they refer to or after:
elenion ancalima (brightest among the stars)
quenta Silmarillion (the tale of the Silmarils)
The verb ná (to be) can be in the middle of a sentence (well, not for adjectives), at the end or can be left out completely:
elda tulca ná (an elf is strong)
elda tulca (an elf is strong)
Usually the case inflection endings make it sufficiently clear what the grammatical structure of a sentence is supposed to be, therefore the individual elements of the sentence can be moved around to bring elements that the speaker wants to emphasize to front position:

Et Earello Endorenna utúlien.
(Out of the great sea (and not from somewhere else) I have come to Middle-
Earth.)
Endorenna utúlien et Earello.
(To Middle-Earth (and not to Valinor) I have come from the great sea.)
Utúlien et Earello Endorenna.
(I have come (and have not been going) out of the great sea to Middle-Earth.)
Usually the subject of the sentence precedes the verb, but even this rule can be ignored in poetry or especially emphasized word order:

Laurië lantar lassi. (Golden fall the leaves.)
Maybe one should not overdo this freedom of expression though - a sentence like Tyë céna ni. (You I see) is probably not outright wrong, but it isn't very elegant either however nothing can really be said against Tyë cénan.


## Lesson 19

## Endings For Word Formation



## 19．1 TEXt

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## I tië mandollo

I eldar neldë hehtar Hísiel mandossë ar lintë nallelyar. Únótimë lúmi hlarintë ómar orcoron, nan i eldaron halyalë mára ar marintë aqua furini. Tírë cotumóron ya tyarna mahtalenen fifírui Hísiello selmanen. Mettassë tulintë vilyanna ar nantë lérë. Autantë úcénimë raucollon ar mínantë márentanna. Nattírala vélantë i nárë ar mornië hostar i mindossë.
Nu hísiévëa vilya morna tellelyantë i cotumo nórë ar Nenwëo nolwë tieva tana neldëa auressë axa terë i oronti. Auriel ná ú tuo ar Maglos colë selleryallë or anorontë tier ondoarwë. Mettassë tulintë i orontillon nandenna aldarwa harë i arda Noldoiva.

## The way from the prison

The three elves leave Hísiel in the prison and go back swiftly. Uncounted times they hear the voices of orcs, but the camouflage of the elves is good and they remain completely hidden. The watchfulness of the enemies that was caused by the battle fades slowly due to Hísiel's plan. At the end they come back to the sky and are free. They leave unseen horrors behind and only desire to go home. Looking back they see fire and darkness gather at the tower.
Beneath a misty dark sky they cross the land of the Enemy and on the third day Nenwë's knowledge of the paths shows them a small pass through the mountains. Auriel is without strength and Maglos carries his little sister over the steepest of the stony paths. At the end they come from the mountains to a tree-woven valley near the realm of the Noldor.

### 19.2 GRAMMAR

Apart from the prefixes, Quenya also has a lot of endings which can be used to form new vocabulary from known words. An example (which we have encountered several times before) is the ending -lë which is used to form an abstract noun from a verb describing the verbal action, i.e. mahta- (to fight); mahtalë (a fight). Some of the following endings are however possibly rather primitive Elvish formation rules than modern Quenya, we don't know for sure, therefore one should not start creating new words unless it is really necessary.

### 19.2.1 Endings to form nouns from verbs

## -ë (abstract action)

Is only used for basic verbs, the stem vowel gets lengthened when the ending is used:
sir- (to flow) $\rightarrow$ sírë (stream)
lir- (to sing) $\rightarrow$ lírë (song)
-indo /-indë (male (female) person carrying out the verbal action)
col- (to bear) $\rightarrow$ colindo (bearer)
mel- (to love) $\rightarrow$ melindë (lover)
-il (an object connected with the verbal action)
tec- (to write) $\rightarrow$ tecil (pen)
-lë (the verbal action)
Is only used for A-verbs.

$$
\text { intya- (to guess) } \rightarrow \text { intyalë (imagination) }
$$

vesta- (to marry) $\rightarrow$ vestalë (marriage)
-r/-ro (a person connected with the verbal action)
$-\mathbf{r}$ is a gender-neutral ending, both form plural in -ri
ista- (to know) $\rightarrow$ istar (wizard, knowledgeable one)
envinyata- (to renew) $\rightarrow$ envinyatar (renewer)

### 19.2.2 Endings to form nouns from adjectives

-ë (noun corresponding to the adjective)
Is used like '-ness' in English, a possible adjective ending -a is dropped.
aira (holy) $\rightarrow$ airë (holiness)
-ië (an abstract noun or a collection of several objects)
Possible adjective endings -a or -ya are dropped.
verya (bold) $\rightarrow$ verië (boldness)
sarna (from stone) $\rightarrow$ sarnië (pebble-bank)
-on (a name ending)
saura (foul smelling) $\rightarrow$ Sauron ancalima (extremely bright) $\rightarrow$ Ancalimon

### 19.2.3 Endings to form nouns from nouns

-ië (an abstract, generalized idea to a noun)
Possible endings -a or -ya are dropped.
tengwesta (system of signs) $\rightarrow$ tengwestië (grammar, language)
-iel (daughter of...)
tári (queen) $\rightarrow$ Indis táriel (Indis, daughter of the queen)
-incë (a diminutive ending)
atar (father) $\rightarrow$ atarincë (little father)
-ion (son of...)
aran (king) $\rightarrow$ Feanáro aranion (Feanor, son of the king)
-llë (a diminutive ending)
nandë (harp) $\rightarrow$ nandellë (little harp)
-mo/-më (a male/female person connected with the noun)
cirya (ship) $\rightarrow$ ciryamo (sailor)
-në (a group of something)
carca (tooth) $\rightarrow$ carcanë (a row of teeth)
-rë (state of having received/been something)
alma (fortune, blessing) $\rightarrow$ almarë (blessedness)
-sta (system of..., collection of...)
tengwë (sign) $\rightarrow$ tengwesta (sign system)
-wë (a name ending, ...-person)
aran (king) $\rightarrow$ Aranwë

### 19.2.4 Endings to form adjectives from nouns

```
-arwa (having, with ...)
    alda (tree) }->\mathrm{ aldarwa (with trees)
-enca (deprived of ...)
    cala (light) }->\mathrm{ calenca (lightless)
-inqua (full of...)
    alcar (splendour, glory) }->\mathrm{ alcarinqua (glorious)
-ite (of sort)
    morimá (black hand) }->\mathrm{ morimaitë (black handed)
-rin (language of ...)
    elda (elf) }->\mathrm{ eldarin (Elvish)
-vëa (like ..., ...-like)
    él (star) }->\mathrm{ elvëa (starlike)
```


### 19.2.5 Endings to form adjectives from verbs

-ima (...-able)
This ending leads to lengthening of the stem vowel if possible.

```
not- (to count) }->\mathrm{ nótima (countable)
quet- (to speak) }->\mathrm{ quétima (speakable)
```


### 19.3 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English | Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aira | holy | nán (nand-) | valley |
| aqua | fully, completely | nattir- | to look back |
| axa | narrow path, ravine | nandë | harp |
| col- | to carry, to bear, to wear | rauco | demon |
| furin | hidden, secret | saura (th-) | foul, evil smelling |
| halya- | to veil, to conceal | selma (th-) | fixed idea, will |
| hehta- | to abandon, to forsake | tana- | to show, to indicate |
| lir- | to sing | véla- | to see |
| mína- | to wish to go to a place | vesta- | to marry |

### 19.4 TransLations into Quenya

The translation of (arbitrary) texts into Quenya (and hence the writing of texts in Quenya) is much more difficult than translations from Quenya. Therefore we address this topic here near the end of the course.

The reason for this difficulty is that, apart from the usual problems concerning grammar differences between English and Quenya (like the distinction between genitive and possessive and so on) there is a special problem - lack of vocabulary. Quenya has about 2500 attested words, this is enough to talk about many things but not enough by far to translate every sentence one has in mind, even using the rich possibilities for Quenya word formation. Just to give the relation: A typical English dictionary contains 50.000 entries, a specialized dictionary easily some 300.000 .

### 19.4.1 Recognize limits

The first step before attempting the actual translation is to recognize what can be done and what cannot. Quenya has been invented by Tolkien as the language of the Vanyar and Noldor. Therefore, the available vocabulary deals with things in Middle-Earth and Valinor and the more heroic activities of the elves. It follows that it is comparatively easy to write songs about Middle-Earth, or to invent a story about elves. On the other hand we don't know too many words about elvish everyday life (like cooking, dishwashing and so on) and there are no words for things in our modern life.

For many words, paraphrases can be found, but those have the tendency to become awkward rather quickly and a potential reader might not understand them any more. Hence if it turns out that a sentence cannot really be translated into Quenya well, one should seriously consider not to translate the sentence.

### 19.4.2 Don't translate the words, translate the meaning

Quenya has a lot of subtleties which cannot really be translated into English, like the distinction between genitive and possessive, and there are some constructions which do not exist in English at all like impersonal verbs. Therefore it makes little sense to try to translate every word in an English sentence and hope that they form a meaningful Quenya sentence - usually they don't. Instead, one should try to write a sentence with the same meaning in Quenya.

In translating into a foreign language, one uses often constructions peculiar for one's own language. For example the English 'to make friends' would hardly be carë nildor in Quenya. It is a useful test to translate such an expression in a language besides English (and Quenya) - if the expression is part of that other language then it is probably general enough to be used in Quenya as well - but if it does not exist in the other language, it probably is peculiar to English. Always keep in mind that Quenya can be used by persons who are not native English speakers, and for two persons trying to communicate in Quenya ${ }^{1}$ their mothertongue should not make a difference for the choice of Quenya expressions.

For example, a great temptation for the beginner is to translate the English present progressive tense 'I am singing' with the Quenya participle nan lindala. This, of course, is wrong since Quenya has a tense for precisely this purpose and the sentence should be translated lindëan. The same is true for 'I have come' which is not haryan tulla but utúlien.

[^6]Tolkien has often put substantial work into making expressions in Quenya different from English. But this (as far as it goes beyond the grammar) is a question of aesthetics and cannot really be taught in a course. The best way is to study Tolkien's own texts in Quenya and how he translated things.

### 19.4.3 Rephrase expressions

Often something cannot be said because a single word is missing. But then, it is often possible to say something similar by rephrasing the expression. Such exercises in rephrasing are everyday life of an Elvish translator, and one should continuously add tricks and techniques how to do this.

A simple possibility is to make use of the connection of some words, e.g. instead to 'look for something' one can 'desire to find' something, making use of the fact that 'looking for' is related to the desired outcome 'finding'. Hence this can be translated as merë hirë .

In general, it is a good idea simply to describe one action out of a sequence. For example, instead of 'I am here' one might think of 'I have come to this place' or 'you will find me here' which all describe either the preceding action or the predicted consequence and essentially convey the same meaning. Creative thinking helps a lot with such problems!


## Lesson 20

## Vanyarin Quenya，Various



## 20．1 TEXT






傥話尚：









## Nilmë tennoio

Auriel, Nenwë ar Maglos hostainë harë linyenwe ondoli yar tengwi rénava ardo Noldoiva. Anar cála lauca ar i lúmë cotumo nóressë alenyalima. I eldar quétar namárië.
Maglos: Ma encenuvalmë Hísiel?
Nenwë: Ihíriessë umbarterya. Uassë pólë mahta valarauco, nan lienya enyaluvas.
Auriel: Yëa i Sindar enyaluvar.
Nenwë: Man cenuva ilyë eldar ahosta ar aquetë séressë?
Auriel: Hísiel avárie cuilenya. Vanda sina ninya termaruva tenn' ambarmetta: Íre Hísiello hya Nenwëo nossë ohtacaruva, inyë ar hínanyar ohtacaruvar. Nai nilmë imbë met tennoio!
Nenwë: Mai equétietyë, Auriel! Enyaluvan.
Maglos: Namárië, Nenwë meldomma.
Nenwë: Márienna!

## Friendship forever

Auriel, Nenwë and Maglos are gathered near some ancient rocks which are the bordersigns of the realm of the Noldor. The sun is shining warmly and the time in the land of the enemy is beyond recall. The elves say farewell.
Maglos: Will we see Hísiel again?
Nenwë: She has found her fate. She could not fight against a balrog, but my people will remember her.
Auriel: The Sindar will also remember her.
Nenwë: Who shall see all elves gather and speak in peace?
Auriel: Hísiel protected my life. This my oath shall stand till the end of the world: Whenever the house of Hísiel or the house of Nenwë go to war, I and my children will go to war as well. May friendship be between us forever!
Nenwë: You have spoken well, Auriel. I will keep the memory.
Maglos: Farewell, Nenwë , our friend.
Nenwë: Farewell!

### 20.2 GRammar

### 20.2.1 Independent possessive pronouns

Apart from the possessive endings, Quenya also has independent possessive pronouns. Two of them are actually attested, the rest can be reconstructed according to the general principles of the pronominal system:

| Possessor | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | ninya (my) | menya (our) |
| 2. Person (formal) | *lenya (thy) | *lenya (thy) |
| 2. Person | *tyenya (your) | *lenya (your) |
| 3. Person | *senya (his/her/its) | *tenya (their) |

Ninya i túrë. (Mine is the victory!)
Sin ná macil ninya, tan tyenya. (This is my sword, that is yours.)

### 20.2.2 Short pronominal verbal endings with separate subject

Until now we have seen the short pronominal verb endings either as subject of the sentence (i.e. cenin (I see)) or in combination with a long ending as object (i.e. ceninyes (I seem him)).

However, if the subject of the sentence is separate, a short verbal ending as such can be used to express the object of the verb (and this can be very confusing):

Hísiel cénas. (Hísiel sees him.)
Elyë hiruvan. (Even you will find me.)
Inyë melit. (I too love you.)

### 20.2.3 Prefixed pronouns

Quenya pronouns can receive prefixes as well - two examples are known, ó- (together) and im- (self). These prefixes are attached to the independent non-emphatic pronouns. Prefixing $\mathbf{0}$ - is straightforward, but $\mathbf{i m}$ - leads to some sound shifts:

| Subject | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Person | imni (I myself) | immë / immet (we ourselves) |
| 2. Person (formal) | imlë (thou thyselves) | imlë (thou thyselves (pl.)) |
| 2. Person | intyë (you yourself) | imlë (you yourself) |
| 3. Person | insë, insa (he himself...) | intë (they themselves) |

Á marë ónissë! (Stay with me!)
Together with the indefinite pronoun mo (someone) this is an alternative way of forming reflexive sentences:

Ceninyë imni nenessë. (I see myself in the water.)
qui mo tenta immo Númenna (if one turns oneself westward)

### 20.2.4 The infinitive-prefix a-

If a sentence contains a verb of perception (like 'to see' or 'to hear') and the description of that perception contains another verb (e.g. describing what the person that is observed is doing at the moment), then this observed action is found in infinitive for derived verbs, but the verb gets a special prefix $\mathbf{a}$-:

Man cenuva lumbor ahosta? (Who shall see clouds gather?)
Hláran eldar amahta. (I hear elves fight.)
Presumably, for basic verbs infinitive is used as well:
Hláran naucor aquetë. (I hear dwarves speak.)
However, this can also be expressed by present tense
Hláran naucor quétar. (I hear dwarves speaking.)
For verbs beginning with $\mathbf{a}$-, the prefix may form a separate syllable:
Cénan elda a-anta harma naucon.
(I see an elf give a treasure to a dwarf.)

### 20.2.5 Harmony in speech

In order to allow for a harmonious flow of the speech, often changes to words are made. For example, if in a phase two vowels follow each other it is permissible to leave the first one out, even if this would create a usually forbidden consonant cluster at the end of the first word. This happens especially if the two vowels are identical:
tenn' ambar-metta (till the end of the world)
Elen síla lúmenn' omentielvo.
(A star is shining upon the hour of our meeting.)
For similar reasons, the definite article i may sometimes appear as in if followed by a vowel, or even as ' $\mathbf{n}$ if preceded and followed by vowels
i coimas in Eldaron (the waybread of the elves)
Utúlië 'n aurë! (The day has come!)

### 20.2.6 Emphasis

A phrase can be emphasized by using e as the first word - this roughly translates as 'indeed'. In a question, this even precedes the question word:

E inyë mahtuva! (Indeed I myself will fight!)
E man antuvas? (What shall he give indeed?)

### 20.3 VANYARIN QUENYA

The Quenya we have learned so far in this course is mostly exilic Quenya (EQ), i.e. Quenya as spoken by the Noldor in Middle-Earth, although occasionally we have touched upon some archaic features which may be present also in the Quenya of the Noldor in Valinor. For example, words like orco or casar describe things in Middle-Earth and can't have been part of the Quenya known in Valinor.

However, the Noldor are not the only elves who spoke Quenya - the Vanyar did so as well, and we do know enough of Vanyarin Quenya (VQ) (or Minyarin Quendya, as a Vanya would express it) to get an idea of what it sounded like. In general, exilic Quenya and Vanyarin Quenya would have been mutually intelligible, although some words would sound strange and others would be completely new.
A number of differences exist in the spoken language only - for example, remember that the tengwa thúle is used to write 's' when the primitive root involved a TH. In Vanyarin Quenya, this is still spoken. Likewise, if the original root involved a W-, this becomes $\mathbf{v}$ - in exilic Quenya but not in Vanyarin Quenya, or word-initial NG- leads to n- in exilic Quenya, but not in Vanyarin Quenya.

In the following, we just list a few of the changes. This is not an attempt to teach how to write in Vanyarin Quenya - a deep understanding of the development of Quenya words is necessary to do that which goes well beyond what this course is meant to be - but rather to illustrate the differences.

EQ: samno (carpenter) $\rightarrow$ VQ: thamno
EQ: sanyë (rule) $\rightarrow$ VQ: thanyë
EQ: hísië (mist) $\rightarrow$ VQ: chíthië
EQ: fuinë (deep shadow) $\rightarrow \mathrm{VQ}$ : huinë
EQ : falmë (wave) $\rightarrow \mathrm{VQ}$ : hwalma

EQ: vendë (maiden) $\rightarrow$ VQ: wendë
EQ: Noldo (Noldo) $\rightarrow$ VQ: Ngoldo
EQ: nirwa (cushion) $\rightarrow$ VQ: nizwa
EQ: ilárëa (daily) $\rightarrow$ VQ: ilázëa
Vanyarin Quenya also has genuinely different words for some things - we just know only four of them, but there are certainly more: ezella (green), nasar (red), ulban (blue) and tulca (yellow).

The case inflection works slightly differently. The nominative plural of nouns in -ë is -i in exilic Quenya but rather í in Vanyarin Quenya. In exilic Quenya, the genitive singular of nouns in -a is just -0, but in Vanyarin Quenya this would be -ó. Adjectives ending in -a do not form a plural in -ë as in exilic Quenya but instead in -ai, likewise adjectives in -ëa would not have a plural in -ië as in Noldorin Quenya but rather -ëai.

In general, Vanyarin Quenya is extremely conservative in the use of language, thus every construction we have met as archaic, such as the book accusative, is used. Presumably, also the frequent shortenings of endings in nominative would not occur so much in Vanyarin Quenya, thus Hísiel could well be Chíthiellë in Vanyarin. A few sentences might show the differences and similarities:

Ezellai lassí i olbazë nar. (Green leaves are on the branch.)
Ceninyë i lintai aiwí wilir ulban Menelze. (I see swift birds fly in the blue sky.)
I Ngoldo camnë ilázëai thanyezyai. (The Noldo received his daily rules.)

### 20.4 Vocabulary

| Quenya | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| ambar | world |
| coimas | waybread |
| ezella (V) | green |
| fuinë | deep shadow |
| ilárëa | daily |
| nasar (V) | red |
| nirwa | cushion |
| nossë | family, clan, house |
| olva | branch |
| samno | wright, carpenter |
| sanye | rule |
| réna | border |
| tennoio | forever |
| tulca (V) | yellow |
| ulban (V) | blue |
| yando | also |

### 20.5 TRANSLATIONS INTO QUENYA - WORD FORMATION

Sometimes it so happens that in spite of all rephrasing a sentence cannot be said because a single word is missing. In this case the temptation is enormous to create a word and be done with it. In principle this is not a problem if one follows a few important rules:

### 20.5.1 Some warnings

First, and of paramount importance: A homemade creation should never end up unmarked in a wordlist together with attested words by Tolkien. In a text in Quenya using those words without a special note is okay, but in a text about Quenya it has to be clarified what is reconstructed. In this course there are numerous examples (e.g. pronouns which are introduced with a *) ${ }^{1}$.

Next, a home-made creation should be such that it can be understood - if it is necessary to send an English explanation along with the Quenya letter then there is no point in writing in Quenya in the first place. It is the purpose of a language to be understood. In particular, word creations using known prefixes and affixes are more readily understood than complete inventions.

### 20.5.2 Various types of word creation

All words which are known in Quenya are derived from primitive Elvish forms according to certain rules (the explanation of those rules would be a separate course). This is the reason that there is often a close relationship between Quenya and Sindarin words. In addition we know that Quenya only permits a very limited number of consonant clusters. It follows that there is little point in writing down a nicely sounding word and defining that it should be the word for something - if it doesn't fit into the system.

In principle it is possible to derive words from primitive Elvish roots, but this is not really easy and not recommended for a beginner - the rules are very complex and not in all cases well understood.

There are, however, several possibilities to derive words within Quenya itself:
If one knows a verb but no corresponding noun (e.g. mahta- (to fight)) then one can either form the gerund mahtië ([the] fighting) or use a noun-derivation affix to get mahtale (a fight).

If one knows a verb (e.g. can- (to see)) and is looking for an adjective (e.g. invisible), then a combination of prefixes and affixes might do the trick to derive * úcenima (invisible).

Finally, the formation of compounds is an easy way of forming new words: See e.g. *elencálë (starlight) from elen + cálë .

For an introduction to primitive Elvish and word formation from primitive roots, taking a look into the corresponding articles at z.B. 'The evolution of Quenya' on Helge Fauskanger's Ardalambion

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www.uib.no/People/hnohf/qevolution.pdf
```

is highly recommended.

[^7]

Appendix A

## TENGWAR AND THEIR NAMES



| $P_{\text {tinco }}^{P}$ |  | $\underset{\text { calma }}{q}$ | $\begin{gathered} q \\ \text { quesse } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{P}} \\ & \text { ando } \end{aligned}$ | $p$ <br> umbar | $\begin{gathered} c q \\ \text { anga } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} q \\ \text { ungwe } \end{gathered}$ |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { b } \\ \text { thule } \end{gathered}$ | formen | harma | hwesta |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { bo } \\ & \text { anto } \end{aligned}$ | $\frac{\mathrm{bo}}{\mathrm{ampa}}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{cd} \\ & \text { anca } \end{aligned}$ | unque |
| $\begin{gathered} \mathfrak{W O} \\ \text { númen } \end{gathered}$ | malta | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{CCl} \\ \text { ñoldo } \end{gathered}$ | ñwalme |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathfrak{n} \\ & \text { óre } \end{aligned}$ | vala | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{Cl} \\ \text { anna } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathfrak{a} \\ \text { wilya } \end{gathered}$ |


| $\begin{gathered} \text { Y } \\ \text { rómen } \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{\text { arda }}{\text { U }}$ | lambe | $\underset{\text { alda }}{ }$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 9 | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathcal{E} \\ \text { esse } \end{array}\right.$ | 3 |
| $\lambda$ hyarmen | $\begin{gathered} 1 \\ \text { halla } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \\ \text { yanta } \end{gathered}$ | úre |



## Appendix B

## QUENYA CASE INFLECTION



The case inflection of some nouns with different final sounds using the examples cirya (ship), lassë (leaf), meldo (friend), elen (star) and nat (thing):

| Singular |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | cirya | lassë | meldo | elen | nat |  |  |  |
| Genitive | ciryo | lassëo | meldo | eleno | nato |  |  |  |
| Possessive | ciryava | lasséva | meldova | elenwa | nateva |  |  |  |
| Dative | ciryan | lassen | meldon | elenen | naten |  |  |  |
| Accusative | ciryá | lassé | meldó | elen | nat |  |  |  |
| Locative | ciryassë | lassessë | meldossë | elenessë | natessë |  |  |  |
| Allative | ciryanna | lassenna | meldonna | elenna | natenna |  |  |  |
| Ablative | ciryallo | lassello | meldollo | elenello | natello |  |  |  |
| Instrumental | ciryanen | lassenen | meldonen | elennen | natenen |  |  |  |
| Respective | ciryas | lasses | meldos | elenes | nates |  |  |  |
| Dual |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nominative | ciryat | lasset | meldu | elenet | natu |  |  |  |
| Genitive | ciryato | lasseto | melduo | eleneto | natuo |  |  |  |
| Possessive | ciryatwa | lassetwa | melduva | elenetwa | natuva |  |  |  |
| Dative | ciryant | lassent | meldun | elenent | natun |  |  |  |
| Accusative | ciryat | lasset | meldu | elenet | natu |  |  |  |
| Locative | ciryatsë | lassetsë | meldussë | elenetsë | natussë |  |  |  |
| Allative | ciryanta | lassenta | meldunna | elenenta | natunna |  |  |  |
| Ablative | ciryalto | lasselto | meldullo | elenelto | natullo |  |  |  |
| Instrumental | ciryanten | lassenten | meldunen | elenenten | natunen |  |  |  |
| Respective | ciryates | lassetes | meldus | elenetes | natus |  |  |  |


| Plural |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | ciryar | lassi | meldor | eleni | nati |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Genitive | ciryaron | lassion | meldoron | elenion | nation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Possessive | ciryaiva | lassiva | meldoiva | eleniva | nativa |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Dative | ciryain | lassin | meldoin | elenin | natin |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Accusative | ciryai | lassí | meldoi | elení | natí |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Locative | ciryassen | lassessen | meldossen | elenissen | natissen |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Allative | ciryannar | lassennar | meldonnar | eleninnar | natinnar |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ablative | ciryallon | lassellon | meldollon | elenillon | natillon |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Instrumental | ciryainen | lassinen | meldoinen | eleninen | natinen |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Respective | ciryais | lassis | meldois | elenis | natis |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Partitive-Plural |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nominative | ciryali | lasseli | meldoli | eleneli | nateli |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Genitive | ciryalion | lasselion | meldolion | elenelion | natelion |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Possessiv e | ciryalíva | lasselíva | meldolíva | elenelíva | natelíva |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Dative | ciryalin | lasselin | meldolin | elenelin | natelin |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Accusative | ciryalí | lasselí | meldolí | elenelí | natelí |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Locative | ciryalissë(n) | lasselissë(n) | meldolissë(n) | elenelissë(n) | natelissë(n) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Allative | ciryalinna(r) | lasselinna(r) | meldolinna(r) | elenelinna(r) | natelinna(r) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ablative | ciryalillo(n) | lasselillo(n) | meldolillo(n) | elenelillo(n) | natelillo(n) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Instrumental | ciryalínen | lasselínen | meldolínen | elenelínen | natelínen |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Respective | ciryalis | lasselis | meldolis | elenelis | natelis |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

The examples also contain several special cases such as the dual in -u and shortened endings for elen. For the use of the cases see lessons $3,6,7,10$ and 13 ; for the different numbers see 1 and 2 .


## Appendix C

## QUENYA VERB PARADIGMS



The system of Quenya verbs can be quite complex. Here, we just show a few paradigms to illustrate the range of possible forms that can be found. Not all of the forms are equally well known, in particular the knowledge about participles is rather poor, thus this table is clearly often a suggestion based on the rules given in this course rather than a reproduction of tables by Tolkien.

The tables contain a number of typical basic and derived verbs to illustrate the range of forms. car- (to make) is a basic verb with past tense in -në , tul- (to come) a basic verb with a vowel-lengthening past tense and tec- (to write) a basic verb with a past tense by nasal infixion. Together, they cover the more usual basic verb classes.

Two more unusual formation classes are represented by para- (to read) which shows a basic verb with a vocalic extension of the stem and talt- (to slip) which shows a basic verb with a three consonant root.

| Basic verbs | car- | tul- | tec- | para- | talt- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Infinitive | carë | tulë | tecë | para | taltë |
| Aorist | carë | tulë | tecë | para | taltë |
| Present | cára | túla | téca | pára | talta |
| Past | carnë | túlë | tencë | parnë | talantë |
| Perfect | acárië | utúlië | etécië | apárië | ataltië |
| Future | caruva | tuluva | tecuva | paruva | taltuva |
| Long inf. | carita | tulita | tecita | parata | taltita |
| Gerund | carië | tulië | tecië | parië | taltië |
| Pr. Part. | cárala | túlala | técala | párala | taltala |
| Part. Perf. | carna | tulda | técina | parna | taltina |

The table contains the two typical derived verb classes. fanta- (to veil) is a transitive verb
in -ta with a weak past tense whereas virya- (to change) is an intransitive verb with a strong past tense by nasal infixion.

A few more unusual classes of derived verbs are represented by ista- (to know) and auta(to go away) which are characterized by symmetric roots and by caita- (to lie), an intransitive verb in -ta with a strong past tense. Finally, nicu- (to be cold) shows the pattern of an U-verb.

| Derived verbs | fanta- | virya- | ista- | auta- | caita- | nicu- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Infinitive | fanta | virya | ista | auta | caita | nico |
| Aorist | fanta | virya | ista | auta | caita | nique |
| Present | fantëa | viryëa | istëa | autëa | caitëa | nicua |
| Past | fantanë | virinyë | sintë | vánë | ceantë | nicunë |
| Perfect | afánië | ivírië | ísië | avánië | eceantië | inícië |
| Future | fantuva | viruva | isuva | autuva | caituva | nicuva |
| Long inf. | fantata | virata | istata | autata | caitata | nicuta |
| Gerund | fantië | virië | istië | autië | caitië | nicië |
| Pr. Part. | fantala | viryala | istala | autala | caitala | nicúla |
| Part. Perf. | fantaina | viryaina | sína | vanwa | caitaina | nicuina |

Finally, the paradigms of na- (to be, ua- (to be not), ëa (to exist) and ava- (to want not) are presented as far as known (these verbs being notoriously irregular, there's not much point in guessing participles):

| Auxiliary verbs | na- | ua- | ëa - | ava- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Infinitive | ná | ua | ëa | ava |
| Aorist | ná | ua | ëa | ava |
| Present | ná | ua | ëa | avëa |
| Past | né or nánë | únë | engë | aunë |
| Perfect | anaië | uië | éyë | aunië |
| Future | nauva | úva | euva | avuva |

For the use of the different tenses and forms, see lessons $1,4,5,7,8,9,12,13$ and 15.


## Appendix D

## PRONOMINAL ENDINGS



It is known that Tolkien revised the system of pronominal endings in Quenya more than once. By now, we have several complete paradigms of which no two look quite the same Naturally this is not very beneficial for an understanding of these forms. This brief overview intends to give just an idea of the main conceptual changes.

## D. 1 1ST PERSON PLURAL

In this course, we have used -mmë for exclusive we ('we and not you'), -Imë for the inclusive we ('we and you') and -lvë for the dual we ('both of us'). This is the assignment used by Tolkien in the Quenya used in the Lord of the Rings, and we can readily map these endings to characteristic consonants, e.g. the inclusive 'we' has both the consonant $\mathbf{I}$ for a formal 'you' and $\mathbf{m}$ associated with 'we', hence the ending can literally be translated as 'we and you'.

However, Tolkien decided in his late years to change this system and make it conceptually more clear. The dual in this late concept (not used in this course) was indicated by reduplication of the pronominal consonant, hence -mmë must be the dual 'we'. Tolkien then decided that there are two different independent 1st person plural pronouns, me for exclusive 'we' and ve for inclusive 'we'. In this concept, -l- has a role as plural marker, hence -lmë uses an exclusive 'we' marked for plural, and -lvë does the same thing with an inclusive 'we'.

There are two reasons why this revision has not been included in this course: First, the Sindarin pronominal ending $\mathbf{- m}$ can only be derived from a Common Eldarin ending $\mathbf{m m X}$ with $X$ any vowel - but if that is the dual ending, Tolkien's revisions should cover the Sindarin pronominal system as well. In using Tolkien's revised system for Quenya,
the Sindarin taught in my course 'Pedin Edhellen' and the Quenya taught here would not be compatible. Second, almost all published Quenya texts by Tolkien use the pre-revision system. Since part of the purpose of this course is to enable the reader to understand and translate Tolkien's Quenya, it would not seem a good idea to teach a system which is only known from tables.

## D. 2 THE 2ND PERSON

The changes in the 2 nd person mainly concern the question if there should be a distinction between singular and plural or between formal and familiar use. Tolkien writes:
' ... all these languages had, or originally had, no distinction between the singular and plural second person pronouns, but had a marked distinction between the familiar forms and the courteous' (from: The Peoples of Middle-Earth, p. 42-43)

However, this is explicitly contradicted by later evidence: 'it often appears in the forms hekat! sg. and hekal! pl. with reduced pronominal affixes of the 2 nd person. (from: The War of the Jewels, p. 364)

Hence, here an explicit distinction between singular and plural is made and the consonants are assigned as I (plural) and $\mathbf{t}$ (c) singular (we can deduce the $\mathbf{c}$ from the known phonetic shifts).

Therefore, in principle any of the following scenarios may be true (dependent on which conceptional phase one is looking at):

- the short ending -t and the long ending -tyë denote informal speech, the short ending $-\mathbf{l}$ and the long ending -lyë denote formal speech
- the short ending -t and the long ending -tyë denote singular, the short ending -1 and the long ending -lyë denote plural
- originally, there was a short ending -t for singular and -I for plural. However, plural forms came to be used in formal speech, therefore -l could be used for both formal singular and all plurals whereas -t would denote informal singular. The long endings could then be used to make explicit distinctions: -tyë as informal singular, -lyë as formal singular and -llë as formal plural.

The matter is complicated by the fact that there's yet a third pronominal consonant $\mathbf{d}$ for the 2nd person which otherwise was never productive in Quenya, leading to such variant endings as -ldë . In this course, the last scenario has been used, once you have memorized it, it should be possible to switch to any of the other schemes.

## D. 3 The dual pronominal endings

There have been vast changes in the shape of the dual pronominal endings over the years as Tolkien tried different concepts. For example, at one time the 2nd person familiar dual was -ccë . Here, the dual meaning is implied by reduplication of the 2 nd person familiar characteristic consonant c. However, in an almost contemporary table the same ending takes the form -lko - now the characteristic consonant is used with the ending -o which is in all likelihood connected with the old dual ending -u. Yet a bit later, the same ending takes the form -star with a dual marker -s-.

And finally, in the latest known table, the 2nd person familiar dual appears as -stë - but this time, Tolkien describes the ending as the result of a reduplication of the 2 nd person characteristic consonant d via -ddë $>$-zdë $>$-stë .
The reason for this is, of course, that no verbs with dual pronominal inflection were published in any text. The 1 st person singular ending -n or the 2 nd person ending -lyë which did appear in The Lord of the Rings was never ever subject to any further change.
Given this complicated situation of changing concepts, it must be clearly understood that the forms presented in this course represent a selection of different tables drawn at different times with the aim to fit the usage in Tolkien's Quenya texts more or less. However, they are not Tolkien's final decision, the only way he ever assigned pronouns, nor is there a published table on pronominal endings which agrees exactly with what has been presented here.


## Appendix E

## Vocabulary Quenya-English



## A

*ai if
aica sharp
aicassë mountain peak
aiquen if anyone aira holy
aiwë (small) bird alamaitë without skill
alarca swift, rushing
alasaila unwise
alcar splendour, glory
alda tree
alma good fortune, wealth
alta tall, high
alya rich, blessed
ambar world
ambo hill
Anar sun
anda long
ando gate
andúnë sunset, evening
anga iron
ango (U-stem) snake
anta- to give
antalë gift
anwa real, actual, true
apa behind, in the rear
apsene- to forgive
aqua fully, completely
ar and
aran king
arda realm, region
arinya early
asëa comfort, healing
asto dust
ata again
atan man, human
atta two
aurë day
auta- (vánë , oantë ) to go away, to leave
ava- to forbid, to refuse
axa narrow path, ravine

## C

cainen ten
caita- to lie (upon)
cala light
cálë light
calima bright
callo hero
calma lamp
cam- to receive
cap- to jump
car- to do, to make
carë deed
cárima doable
casar dwarf
cé maybe
cen- to see

| cénima visible | H |
| :---: | :---: |
| cilya gorge, cleft, pass |  |
|  | halya- to veil, to conceal |
| coa house | hanya- to understand |
| coimas waybread | har- to sit |
| col- to carry, to bear, to wear | harë near |
| comya- to gather | harma treasure |
| cotumo enemy | harya- to have, to possess |
| cúbow | hatal spear |
| cuilë life | hauta- to stop |
| cuiva- to awaken | hehta- to abandon, to forsake |
| cuivë awakening | henta- to examine to eye |
| culu gold (as metal) | heru lord |
|  | hesta- to wither |
| E | hilya- to follow |
| eala spiritecë is open | hir- to find |
|  | hísië (-th-) mist |
| ehtë spear | hlapu- to fly, to stream in wind |
| elda elf | hlar- (hlassë ) to hear |
| elen star | holya- (intr.) to close |
| enda heart, center | horma horde, host <br> horta- to let fly to send flying |
| enquanta- to refill <br> enwina old | hosta- to gather |
| enyal- to recall, to remember | hrir- to snow |
| epë after (of time), before (of space)epetai consequently | hrívë winter |
|  | hróta underground dwelling huinë shadow |
| equë says | hya or |
| eressë loneliness | hyar- to cleave |
|  | Hyarmen South |
| essë name |  |
| estel hope | I |
| et out of |  |
| etelehta- to deliver, to save | ilárëa daily |
| ezella (V) green | ilya all |
|  | imbi between, among |
| F | indo heart, will, resolve |
| faina- to emit light | indomë will |
| falasta- to foam | intya idea |
| falma wave | Isil moon |
| fanta- to veil | isilmë moonlight |
| farya- (farinyë ) to suffice | issë art, lore |
| fifíru- to fade slowly | ista- to know |
| fir- to die |  |
| firin dead | L |
| foina hidden |  |
| Formen North | laica green |
| fuinë deep shadow | lala- (1) to laugh |
| fum- sleep | lala- (2) to deny |
| furin hidden, secret | laman (lamn-) animal lambë tongue, language |

lamma sound
lamya sound, ring
lannë tissue, cloth
lanta- to fall
lassë leaf
lasta- to hear
láta wide open
lauca warm
laurëa golden
lav- to lick
lelya- to go, to travel
lenca slow
lenta- to send
lenweta- to go away
lepsë finger
*lerië freedom
lerta- to be free to
lië people
limpë wine
linda- to sing
linta swift
linyenwa old
lir- to sing
loa year
lómë (lómi-) night
lómin shadow
lúmë hour, time
lossë snow
lotë flower
lumbo cloud
lumna- to lie heavy
lusta empty

## M

má (ma-) hand
mac- to slay
macil sword
mahta- to fight
*mahtalë fight
mai well
maica sharp
maita hungry
maitë (mais-) skilled
*mallo where from?
man? who?, what?
mando custody, prison
manen why, by what
*manna where to?
mapa- (nampë ) to seize
mar- to abide, to be settled
már home
mára good
massa bread
*massë? where?
mat- to eat
maurë need
mauya- to be necessary, to impel
mel- to love
melda dear
meldo friend
melin dear
men way; place, spot
men- to go
menta- to send
mentë end
mer- to wish, to desire
metta end
mi in
mína- to wish to go to a place
mindo tower
mindon tower
minya first
mirilya- to glitter
mistë light rain
mitya inner
mól slave
morë black, dark
mornië darkness
muina hidden, secret

## N

na to, towards
nac- to bite
nahta- to slay
naira empty, wide, vast
Namárië! Farewell!
nan but, however
nán (nand-) valley
nandë harp
nanwen- to return
nárë fire, flame
nasar (V) red
nat thing
nattir- to look back
nauco dwarf
nauro werewolf
nelet tooth
nén water
nér (ner-) man
nicu- to be cold
nilmë friendship
ninquë white
nir- to press, to thrust, to force
nirwa cushion
nís (niss-) woman
nítë moist, humid
nó before (of time), after (of space)
nóle lore, knowledge
nolwë lore, secret knowledge
nómë place
nor- to run
nórë land
norno oak
nossë family, clan, house
nótë number
nótima countable
nu under, beneath
nuhta- to stunt, to stop short
Númen West
nurru- to murmur
núta- set, sink (of sun and moon)
nútë bond, knot
nyar- to tell

## 0

ohta war
ohtacar- to make war
ohtar warrior
óla- to dream
olor dream
olva plant, branch
óma voice
omentië meeting
ondo stone
onta- to create, to beget
or above
ora- to urge, to impel
órana- to have mercy
orco orc
oron (oront-) mountain
oronta steep
orta- to raise
orya- to rise
osto fortress, town

## P

pahta closed
palan far, wide
palla wide
palu- to open wide
palúrë surface (of earth)
para- to read
parma book
parna bare
pé (pe-) lip
pendë slope
perya- to divide in half
pilin (pilind-) arrow
pitya small
pol- to be able to
potai therefore
pusta- to stop

## Q

quén someone
quenta tale
quessë feather
quet- to speak
quetta word
qui if
quiequie whenever

## R

raita- to smile
ramba wall
ranco (pl. ranqui) arm
ranya- to wander, to stray
rauco demon
rehta- to escape, to recover
réna border
rer- to sow
ric- to try, to make an effort
rilma glittering light
ríma border
rimba frequent, numerous
ringa cold
roita- to hunt, to pursue
Rómen East
rondo cave
ruc- to fear
runya footprint
rusco (U-stem) fox

## S

saila wise sam- to have sambë (th-) chamber, room samno (th-) wright, carpenter
*sana- to think
sanwë thought, act of thinking
sanye (th-) rule
sarna stony
saura (th-) foul, evil smelling
seler (th-) (sell-) sister
selma (th-) fixed idea, will
senda at peace
ser- to rest
sercë blood
serë peace
sí now
sil- to shine
síma imagination
sinomë here
sinta (th-) short
sinyë evening
sir- to flow
sírë river
súlë (th-) breath
súrë (súri-) wind

## T

tál (tal-)foot
talan (talam-) floor
tana- to show, to indicate
tanca firm, fixed, sure
tanna sign
tanomë in that place
tára high, tall
tári queen
tarma pillar
taura mighty
taurë forest
tëa to indicate
tec- to write
telco (pl. telqui) leg
tellë rear
telpë silver
telta- to overshadow, to screen
tengwë sign
tenna to, until
tennoio forever
tenta- to point
tenya- to arrive
terë through
tië path, way
tin- to glint
tinco metal
tinta- to kindle
tir- to watch
tiuya- to swell, to grow fat
toa wood
tópa roof
toron (torn-) brother
tuc- to draw
tuia- to sprout
tul- to come
tulca strong
tulca (V) yellow
tulta- to summon
tulya to lead into
tumna deep, hidden
tuo strength
tur- to wield, to control, to govern
túrë victory
turmen realm
tuv- to find
tyar- to cause
tyelca swift, agile, hasty

## U

ú without
ua- to be not
ulban (V) blue
ulya- to pour
umbar (umbart-) doom
umëa evil
úna lonely, abandoned
urco (U-stem) bogey, orc
úsië on the contrary
usta- to burn (tr.)

## V

vaháya far away, distant
valarauco Balrog
vanda oath
vanwa gone, past
vanya beautiful
varya- to protect
véla alike
véla- to see
vendë maiden
verya bold
verya- (1) to dare
verya- (2) to join, to marry
veryanwë wedding
vesta- to marry
vil- to fly
vilya sky
vinya new
virya- to change (intr.)
vista air (as substance)
voronwa enduring, long-lasting

## Y

yá before, ago
yal- to call, to summon
yando also
yanwë bridge
yén longyear ( 144 years)
yendë daughter
yerya- to wear, to age
yondo son
yulma cup


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The name＇Maglos＇is Sindarin，and is written in the tehtar Sindarin mode of tengwar script．

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ The author is aware that in Old English, 'thou' and 'ye' are actually the famililar forms. However, most people today associate it with a formal mode of addressing people. Sometimes, Tolkien adopted this convention himself.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hísiello is a genitive 'of Hísiel'

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ This meaning is rather uncertain and it seems likely that Tolkien dismissed the notion of a causal an 'for, because' in later texts

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Sindarin name＇Dor Daedeloth＇cannot be written in a Quenya tengwar mode and is therefore written in the tehtar Sindarin mode．

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Sindarin-name 'Nimloth' cannot be written in a Quenya tengwar mode, therefore it is written in a Sindarin tehtar mode.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ The author of these lines has tried it and it is in fact possible to have a conversation in spoken Quenya

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ The underlying wordlists for this course are Helge Fauskanger's Quettaparma Quenyanna and Quettaparma Quenyallo, i.e. all words are attested somewhere - however in some instances it is not quite clear from which conceptual phase of Tolkien's work they are taken. Therefore a wordlist naming the source is always to be preferred to the one offered here (which is by no means complete and should only help to learn the lessons).

