Foreword

For a long time, learning Quenya, Tolkien’s High-Elven language, was a daunting task, especially if you didn’t study it just for the sake of studying it, or to produce the odd phrase, name, or short poem, but wanted to take a step beyond and write texts about common, everyday topics. The scarcity of information on many aspects of the grammar, and lack of an extensive vocabulary made a lot of prospective students turn away. In recent years, however, materials have been published in the journals Vinyar Tengwar and Parma Eldalamberon which have contributed greatly to our existing vocabulary, and to our understanding how Tolkien envisioned his Quenya would work (or, rather, his constantly evolving concept of Quenya), which by now I think has made it possible to compile a primer which introduces interested students to the language. This is what is presented in this book.

Whoever wants to apply what they have learned from Tolkien’s books, essays, and scraps of sketches of notes by actually writing or speaking in Quenya, however, still has to make choices almost constantly along the way, to assemble a coherent understanding of the structure and grammar of the language. Tolkien’s notorious vacillation between different forms of negation for example, or the several available variants of personal pronouns, or simply the fact that many pieces of information on the grammar come from different conceptual phases of the language forces the speaker to choose between those alternatives, and then stick to them consistently. Therefore everyone who uses the language inevitably creates their own vernacular, their own idiom. It is no different in the case of this book: what I present is the result of the choices I have made as I was building my approach to Quenya, my synthesis of how the language works, which may be subtly or dramatically different of how others use it. It is a version of Quenya therefore, a modern Quenya dialect as it were, which I rather pretentiously call atanquesta or Mannish Tongue, based on how Tolkien called various stages of his language tarquesta, high tongue, and parmaquesta, book tongue; after all, we are in the modern age of Man. I use Quenya and Atanquesta interchangeably in the text - whenever I say Quenya, it inevitably means my take on the language: for an authoritative voice you should always consult the original sources written by Tolkien.

It needs to be noted however, that no matter how I name the language it is still a form of NeoQuenya: a derivation of Tolkien’s original vision, one of the possible variants of synthesizing a set of rules out of the many devised by Tolkien over his lifetime. This is an applied study of Tolkien’s Quenya therefore, as opposed to an observational study of it, the aim of the latter being to understand how Tolkien’s languages work without the desire to use them, which is an equally valid and respectable approach. However, if that is what you are interested in, then these aren’t the droids you are looking for.¹

You will notice that there is very little of the usual Middle Earth vocabulary in the lessons, a conspicuous lack of Orcs, Elves, and Dwarves, and only a few references to historical development of various forms. That is deliberate: I wanted to present Atanquesta as a dialect on its own, and show how it can be used in everyday language. I

¹ sorry about the universe mixup
have not included any in-text references to the original sources either, to keep the text streamlined and accessible\(^2\). This doesn't mean that whoever starts studying Quenya should stop once they have finished this primer; in fact, it is really important to delve deeper and study the history of the language, its connection to other languages of Middle Earth. The journey only begins with this book, but it never ends.

Last but by no means least I would like to thank all the people who have helped and encouraged me to write this primer; Robert Reynolds, who was and is consultant, sounding board, proofreader, and friend; the wonderful members of the Languages of Middle Earth community on Google Plus: Itzhak Penziev, Paul Strack, Sami Padanius, Ekin Gören, James Coish, Aleksander Zapryagayev, and all the others. Thanks to the editorial teams of *Parma Eldalamberon* and *Vinyar Tengwar* for making Tolkien's linguistic writings available and accessible to the public.

First and foremost, respect and admiration to John Ronald Reuel Tolkien.

How To Use This Primer

This book is traditionally structured. It is broken up into lessons or chapters, each of which tries to introduce a few grammatical features of the language in a gradual fashion. Each lesson contains a text in Atanquesta to illustrate the grammar discussed in the lesson, and to add some words to your vocabulary. An English translation of the text and a list of new words is also provided, plus an audio recording (in the online version), which is followed by the discussion of new grammatical features introduced in the lesson. These are broken up into sections so if you are reading an online version or downloaded it to your desktop you can open an outline of the document and jump to any section easily.

When you tackle a new lesson, I recommend starting with reading the Quenya text first - read it in your head, then try to read it aloud (don't worry to get the pronunciation right on the first go), then listen to the audio if you can. Then go through the wordlist for the text, locate the words in the text and see how their actual shape in the text differs from their 'dictionary form'. Match the word in the text to its translation and see how its meaning and place in the sentence influences its form. Then read through the grammar sections, and again try to find the sentences/phrases in the text that feature that grammar structure or rule. Try to think of some new examples for yourself using the words you have already learned.

As you progress in your study, try to write/translate simple everyday texts for practice. Although it is always a temptation to jump in straight away after the first few lessons and translate your favourite rock song, or love poem, I would not do that until later - poetry, including song lyrics, usually involves highly idiomatic language, metaphors, ellipses, slang etc. that may be challenging even for an experienced Quenya student to translate well so that it is not only understandable to the audience, but also

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\(^2\) The reference websites listed at the end of the textbook (e.g. Eldamo) are a great resource to locate the references to words and grammatical paradigms

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captures the spirit of the original. It does not mean that you can't give it a go - just don't expect immediate success.

You can also join an online discussion group that you like (chances are you are already a member and that's how you found out about this primer) and start chatting with people about simple things first (the weather is a good starting point as usual:) and develop your confidence, gain practice, and ingrain the vocabulary and grammar.

However you do it, I wish you a very pleasant journey and great fun.

On Notation

If a word is preceded by a single asterisk: *word* then that particular word is a neologism - a word which cannot be found in Tolkien's original writings, essays, notes, drafts, or wordlists, but has been reconstructed or invented applying the rules laid down by him, using his original words or word-roots. I have tried to keep the number of neologisms at a minimum, but there are a few here and there.

If a word is preceded by two asterisks: **word** then it means that it is an incorrect or impossible form.

The glosses of the words listed in the vocabulary sections in each lesson have been simplified; but I heartily recommend to look up the full gloss, cross-references etc. of the words on a trustworthy website such as Eldamo or Parf Edhellen, once you have been through the book, and want to understand the deeper connections between words and other Eldarin languages.

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3 strictly speaking, all words that cannot explicitly be found in Tolkien's writings in that particular form are neologisms, but in the context of NeoQuenya, I apply the term more loosely

4 see the list of references at the end of the book
Lesson 0

The Sounds and Letters of Atanquesta

Quenya - so by extension Atanquesta - has what we could call a moderate range of vowels and consonants in use, also it is relatively picky as to what sounds can appear where within a word and in what combinations with each other, and this together defines the characteristic sound, look, and feel of the language.

Vowels

Atanquesta has five single vowels, each of them having a short and a long version: a, á, e, é, i, í, o, ó, u, ú, and six diphthongs: ai, oi, ui, au, eu, iu. I will list them with their IPA equivalents, and some illustrations how one can approach their pronunciation. Where I say English in terms of pronunciation, I mean modern British English received pronunciation, unless specified otherwise.

Single Vowels

a [a]: an open front vowel, this is the vowel of English father, Polish jajo, Danish Dansk, Quenya atan audio
á [ä]: a longer version of the previous, also moved to the center of the mouth cavity; think of English car, Hungarian nyár, Italian casa, Quenya tā audio
e [ɛ]: the vowel of English bed, Polish ten, Italian bene, Quenya lempe audio
é [eː] or [eː]: longer version of the previous one, mouthed with your mouth stretched wider; Hungarian kék, French beauté, German Jäger, Yorkshire English play, Quenya yén audio
i [i]: English it, Hungarian kicsi, German mitte, Quenya hire audio
í [iː]: English keen, Hungarian víz, German Biehne, Quenya níte audio
o [o]: think Hungarian ok, English knot, Polish kot, Quenya ondo audio
ó [oː]: longer version, with the mouth more rounded, Australian English yawn, Hungarian jó, German oder, Quenya mól audio
u [u]: English hook, Hungarian ujj, German Stunde, Quenya urda audio
ú [uː]: longer, with the lips more pursed; English boot, Hungarian kút, German Stuhl, Quenya ûme audio

Diphthongs

In diphthongs the two vowels are in close contact with each other and the first vowel (which receives more stress) effortlessly glides into the second one.

ai [aɪː]: think of Italian baita, Welsh gwaith, English light; Quenya aina audio
oi [ɔiː]: Quenya oina audio
ui [œi]: Hungarian új, English boot, German Stuhl, Quenya urda audio
au [au]: Hungarian új, English boot, German Stuhl, Quenya urda audio
eu [œu]: Hungarian új, English boot, German Stuhl, Quenya urda audio
ii [iːi]: Hungarian új, English boot, German Stuhl, Quenya urda audio

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On Other Vowel Combinations.

Other vowels can come into contact with each other in Atanquesta: you can see ea, ie, ou, oa, eo etc. either within words (like in the Quenya words tie, eale, noa) or with one closing, the other one opening a word (which in fast speech would glide into a continuous stream of sounds) e.g. rokk esse etc. However, these combinations are not diphthongs, and the vowels are pronounced individually and fully (they are in hiatus). Of course, especially in fast speech, they inevitably glide from one into the next, but even then both are spoken fully.

Word-final Vowels and Diereses

It is a feature of modern English that the vowel e at the end of words is not pronounced (and only their existence in spelling shows that they once were) - think of home, mole, silence, horde and countless more; also within words it is often degraded into the vowel schwa [ə] (the sound you say and hear at the end of English father). In Quenya/Atanquesta however, every vowel and diphthong is fully pronounced independently whether they stand at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of words. Thus ende is pronounced [ende] and not **[end], mule is [mule] and not [mul], leper is [leper] and not **[lepa] etc.

Similarly, combinations like ea are always pronounced as separate vowels [ea], and never as in English mean [mi:n] or fear [fiə], ie is always [ie] and never as in English lie [lai] etc.

To help his English speaking audience, in his published works Tolkien made sure that the vowel e, whenever it stood at the end of a word or in combination with a or o (ea, eo), and also the vowel o, when combined with a as oa, were written with a dieresis (two dots over them) as ë and ö. You will see many NeoQuenya speakers use this in writing. This is a matter of choice, and in this book I chose to follow my own usage, and not use any diereses. After all, once you know that all vowels are fully pronounced in Quenya you will have no need to distinguish one e from the other, as they are all the same.

Consonants

The consonants f, h, k(c), l, m, n, p, s, t, v are pronounced very similarly to those in English; however, p, t, and k are not aspirated.

y, when it is not part of the palatalized consonants listed a bit later below, has the same value as in English bay, year, German Bayern, etc.; e.g. Quenya yára audio
r is trilled, as in Scottish or Northern English e.g. Quenya rómen audio.

k and c: whichever of these two is used in writing, these consonants always represent the sound [k], and never [s] or [ts]. In his published works Tolkien used c, in his private notes and essays he seemed to favour k. Again, it is a matter of choice - I prefer k, and use that in this primer. So whether you see kalka or calca they are both pronounced [kalka] and mean “glass”.

s and þ: the letter þ, also spelled as th, originally represented the same sound [θ] as in English thin, thick, thumb etc. According to the internal story of the development of Quenya as envisioned by Tolkien, this sound fell out of favour of the Noldor and it merged with s. However, in his late linguistic writings Tolkien often used it in certain words, which may suggest that he had rethought his story. Anyway, it is conceivable that the sound and its spelling as þ/th were reinstated later as Men started to use Quenya (in Gondor, and, of course, now in our times). I have decided that words that Tolkien spelt with þ will be spelt like that in this book - and it is a matter of choice for the speaker whether they will pronounce it as [θ] or as [s]. An example is posta “terrify”. audio

w has become almost interchangeable with v and in pronunciation they have practically merged into [v]; the spelling of the words preserve their origins.

hw, hr, and hl: these are the unvoiced variants of w, r, and l, respectively. hw [h] as pronounced sounds like English wh in words like where, what when spoken by conservative English Received Pronunciation, or in Scottish, or Irish English; a Quenya example is hwarin audio. hr ['r.] can be found in Icelandic hrafn, Welsh Rhagfyr, Quenya hróta audio; hl {t} is pronounced as Welsh ll in words like Llandudno⁵, Quenya hlare audio. However, if the pronunciation of these voiceless consonants is found to be difficult, the speaker will not err too much by pronouncing them as the usual voiced w, r, or l.

The consonants b, d, and g are not found standing alone in Quenya words, only as part of consonant clusters.

Labialized and Palatalized Consonants

kw: this is the same sound as in English quick, quantum etc. and indeed usually spelt as qu (as in this book). Quenya quáre audio

ny [ɲ]: the sound of French agneau, Dutch oranje, Hungarian nyár, Polish koń, Quenya nyáre audio

ty [c.]: the sound of Slovak deväť, Hungarian tyúk, Romanian chin, Quenya tyáve audio

ly [ʎ]: the sound of Hungarian lyuk, American English million, Italian figlio, Quenya elye audio

hy [ç]: is what you hear in English hue, German nicht, Danish pjaske, Quenya hyáre audio

Consonant Clusters

⁵ see more on ll at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voiceless_dental_and_alveolar_lateral_fricatives
Atanquesta is fairly restrictive in what consonants clusters are permitted at the start, in the middle of, or end of words. At the beginning of words only the clusters **ps** and **ks** (the latter usually spelt as **x**) can be found. 

**Word-finally** no consonant clusters are permitted at all, with the very rare exception of **nt** (only a couple words and one suffix known).


Diphthongs cannot be followed by consonant clusters - meaning that combinations like **aint**, **oilt**, **oungw** etc. are not found in Atanquesta. The only exception to this is the cluster **st** which does occur in words such as **aista** “dread”.

**Double Consonants**

Double consonants such as **ll**, **pp**, **nn**, **ss**, **tt**, **rr**, **mm** are frequent in Atanquesta. Contrary to the usual English pronunciation of double consonants, in Atanquesta these are always pronounced long/double, just like in Italian, German, Hungarian etc. Examples: **malle**; **anna**; **urra**, **massa**

**Stress**

The way Atanquesta words are stressed depends on two things: how many syllables are in a word, and how long those syllables are. A syllable is **long** if it contains a **long vowel** (á, é, ó, ú, í), or a **diphthong** (ai, oi, ui, au, ou), and/or the vowel is followed by a **double consonant/consonant cluster**. In this respect Atanquesta treats the palatal and labial consonants **qu**, **ly**, **ny**, **ty**, **hy** as clusters. Examples, with the long syllable in bold: **malle**, **ampano**, **keante**, **kára**, **huine**, **nalye**.

A syllable is short if it contains a single short consonant and is followed by a single consonant, or a vowel in hiatus. Examples: **kare**, **tuluva**, **toa**, **keante**.

If the word has one or two syllables (is mono- or bisyllabic), then the stress falls on the **first syllable** of the word (I indicate the stressed syllable by printing it in all capitals): **MÁ; MÁra; KAre; LASse**.

If the word has at least three syllables:

- if the second-from-end (**penultimate**) syllable is long, then that receives the stress: **kaRINwa**; **FeaNÁro**; **ambaLOTse**; **kaNASTa**
- if the second-from-end syllable is short, then the stress falls on the syllable **before it**, i.e. the third-from-end (**antepenultimate**) syllable: **KÁrima**; **NAHtana**; **LINdale**; **MÁlime**, **TELume**.
- You will see that Atanquesta words are inflected for case, person, or tense by adding suffixes to them, many times more than one suffix after

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another; if the result of this suffixation is a word that is four or more syllables long, and the last three or more syllables are all short, then the vowel before the last full suffix gets lengthened and gets the stress. For illustration here's the verb kar- “make, do”; if this receives first the future tense marker -uva, then the 3rd person suffix -se (don't worry about the details now), then the resulting word would be **karuvase “he/she will make“ (four short syllables); however, to get a stress pattern that sounds pleasing to Quenya speakers, the vowel before the last suffix -se is lengthened, and the word becomes karuváse. As with many other rules in a language, there may be exceptions to this one as well; e.g. the attested adjective lakalima “not possible to be kindled (made to shine)” does not show any lengthening, although one would expect it to be **lakálima. Still, the pattern can be used as a rule of thumb when conjugation results in several short syllables at the end of a word.

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6 we will see later that some of the so called verbal pronominal suffixes have short forms which consist only of a single consonant, like -s or n: these don’t count as ‘full’ suffixes and don’t have a role in the vowel-lengthening rule
Lesson 1

Text


That's Marko. Marko is a man. Marko is a tall man. That's Hanne. Hanne is a woman. Hanne is a beautiful woman. That's Lilla. Lilla is a girl. The girl is young. That's Martin. Martin is a baby, a little baby. Marko, Hanne, Lilla, and Martin are a family.

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ta</td>
<td>pronoun “that”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nér</td>
<td>noun “man”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halla</td>
<td>adjective “tall, high”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nís</td>
<td>noun “woman”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vanima</td>
<td>adjective “beautiful”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>article “the”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nette</td>
<td>noun “girl”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ná-</td>
<td>verb “to be”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wine</td>
<td>noun “baby, small child”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>titta</td>
<td>adjective “small”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ar</td>
<td>conjunctive “and”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nosse</td>
<td>noun “family, clan”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammar

Subject, Predicate, and Object

There are a few grammatical concepts we need to talk about in order to be able to better understand the structure of sentences in Quenya.

The subject is the main actor, the “protagonist” of the sentence. It can be a single noun: “Marko is a man”; “The world is your oyster”; a pronoun: “We are the world, we are the children”; or a noun phrase: “That beautiful girl passes in front of my shop every day”. Most sentences contain a subject; however, in certain cases no subject is present: Come! The same is true of Quenya.
The **predicate** is the statement which is made about the subject in the sentence: what the subject **does** (Marko **is running**), or **is** (The girl **was beautiful**), or **what happens/happened** to it (The vase **has been broken**).

The **object** is the recipient of the action expressed in the predicate. It can be direct or indirect. The **direct object** is the immediate recipient of the action (the verb in italics, the direct object in bold italics): Mary **broke the vase**. It can be a noun (Mother **cooks dinner**); a pronoun (I **love you**); a form of the verb called gerund (I **like swimming**) or an infinitive (I **would hate to lose you**). An indirect object is the **beneficiary** of the action (underlined in the examples): Mother **cooks dinner for me**; Peter **gave Paul a gift**.

We will also often speak about words/phrases - parts of speech - that qualify the subject, the predicate, or the object, or modify their meaning: adjectives, adverbs, cardinals and ordinals etc.

Analyzing and understanding the structure of a Quenya sentence (and at the same time, the structure of sentences in your own native language) is very useful when learning a language or trying to translate a sentence from your native speech to Quenya. (Of course as your level of understanding and your practice increases this sort of analysis becomes automatic, instantaneous and mostly unconscious.) One way of analyzing sentences (that I was actually taught in school many-many years ago) is to substitute question words (interrogative pronouns to call them their proper name) for the part of the sentence you want to figure out. Consider this sample sentence:

The young boy ate dinner quickly yesterday, which pleased his mother a lot.

Now let's substitute question words for parts of this sentence and see what that tells us:

The young **who** ate dinner quickly yesterday? => subject (main actor in the sentence)

The young boy **what did to** the dinner quickly yesterday? => verb/predicate (what the subject did)

The young boy ate **what** quickly yesterday? => object (the thing that received the action)

The young boy ate dinner **how** yesterday? => adverb (qualifies the action/predicate/verb)

The young boy ate dinner quickly **when**? => adverb (qualifies the action/predicate/verb)

**The what sort of** boy ate dinner quickly yesterday? => adjective (qualifies the noun)

**What** pleased his mother a lot? => subject (the whole main clause “The young boy ate dinner quickly yesterday” being the subject of the second part of the sentence “pleased his mother a lot”)

This sort of analysis can be especially useful in Quenya where certain elements (morphemes) are what we could call ‘overloaded’: for example the suffix **-sse** can be a suffix of a noun in the locative case, a 3rd person singular pronominal suffix on a verb, or simply a noun ending marking an abstract noun (all these concepts will hopefully become clear as you progress in this primer) - it may at first glance be difficult for a beginner (or even an advanced student) to figure out exactly which one is used in the sentence they are looking at.
Article

*I* is the **definite article** corresponding to English “the”. *I nér* “the man”. Like in English, it can be followed by a singular or a plural noun.

There is no indefinite article corresponding to English “a, an” in Quenya. *Nette* can mean “girl” or “a girl” depending on context.

Verbs

Verbs: **Verb Stems and Agreement in Number**

Quenya verbs are usually listed in dictionaries in their **stem form**. The stem of the verb is the bare form which is capable of receiving endings and suffixes. Verb stems are marked by ending in a hyphen, e.g. *kar-* “do, make, build”.

Quenya verbs agree with their subject in number, so if their subject is plural, then the verb also gets a **plural marker** or a **plural suffix**.

Verbs: **The verb “to be”. Copula**

The verb “to be” is *ná-. Its form with a singular noun subject “is” *ná*; the plural form is *nar “are”*. One of the principal functions of *ná- “to be”* is in expressions which **identify or qualify a noun (A is B):** *Marko ná nér* “Marko is a man”; *Hanne ná nís* “Hanne is a woman”; *Marko, Hanne, Lilla or Martin nar nosse* “Marko, Hanne, Lilla, and Martin are a family”; *I nette ná nessa* “The girl is young”. In this function we call the verb the **copula**.

In English, “is” or “are” is always present in these expressions. In Quenya, however, in **present tense** the copula is very often **left out altogether and understood by context:** *Ta Marko* That [is] Marko; *Marko halla* Marko [is] tall; *Martin titta wine* Martin [is] a small baby.

Please note that Atanquesta has no phrase corresponding to the idiomatic English phrase ‘there is... there are’. Atanquesta uses either a simple copula in these cases, or one of the verbs that the language uses to express that something or someone ‘is’, ‘lives’ or ‘can be found’ somewhere. We will discuss these later on in the book.

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*7 Verbs are sometimes listed in their *form with a 3rd person singular noun* - e.g. *kare* “builds” - in word lists.*
Adjectives

Adjectives: Definition

Adjectives are words that qualify nouns: *halla nér* “tall man”; *nessa nette* “young girl”.

Adjectives: Position

In Quenya, when an adjective qualifies a subject (A tall man is standing in the garden) or an object (Yesterday I read an interesting book) its place is normally before the noun: *i halla nér; i nessa nette; i titta wine*.

This is also true in compound words which consist of an adjective and a noun (often seen in names), e.g. *Vinyalonde* “New Haven” literally *vinya* “new” + *londe* “haven”.

As seen above, in present tense sentences which state the quality of the subject (Marko is tall; The girl is young) the adjective follows the noun: *Marko halla; I nette netta*. In sentences like this the adjective is not part of the subject (the tall man) but it’s part of the predicate (is tall). This becomes evident when the copula (“is/are”) is re-inserted into the sentence: *I nér ná halla* “The man is tall”.

In sentences where the copula is omitted it is also possible for the subject and the predicate to swap places; however, when this happens, the noun is always preceded by the article *i* “the”. So the sentence *I nér halla* “The man is tall” means the same as *Halla i nér* “Tall is the man”. Similarly, *Lilla nessa = Nessa i Lilla; Hanne vanima nís = Vanima nís i Hanne*. As you can see, here the adjective stands before the noun, but they are separated by the article *i*, and here the adjective does not belong to the noun but to the copula (which has been left out but understood).

Occasionally, mainly in poetic or archaic language, the adjective can follow the noun it qualifies; you can see examples for this in Tolkien’s poem *Namárie* (e.g. *yéni unótime* “years innumerable = innumerable years” where *yéni* is the noun and *unótime* is the adjective).
Lesson 2

Text


It's now morning. The sun is in the sky. The family is in the room. The room is in the house. There are big and small rooms in the house. Hanne and Lilla are sitting on chairs. Hanne is eating bread with cheese. Lilla is drinking milk. Martin is lying in bed: Martin is still small. Marko is standing at the door and is grabbing a coat. Merko is going into the town. Hanne, Lilla, and Martin are staying in the house. Hanne and Lilla are cleaning the bowls and cups. Martin is resting. Beside the house in the tree birds are singing.

*Listen to the audio*

Vocabulary

sí adverb “now”
arin noun “morning”
Anar proper noun “the Sun”
helle noun “sky”
sambe noun “room, chamber”
koa noun “house”
alta adjective “large, great in size”
ham- verb “sit”
hamma noun “chair”
to preposition “on, in”
mat- verb “eat”
masta noun “bread, loaf, cake”
yo conjunctive “and (used between two closely related things)”
tyur noun “cheese”
yul- verb “drink”
ilin noun “milk”
kaita- verb “lie (be in a horizontal position)”
kaima noun “bed”
en or ena adverb “still”
tar- verb “stand”
ara preposition “beside, next (to), outside”
fenna noun “door”
mapa- verb “grab, seize”
kolla noun “cloak, coat”
men- verb “go, proceed in a direction”
osto noun “town, city”
lemya- verb “stay, tarry, remain”
poita- verb “cleanse, clean something”
salpa noun “bowl”
yulma noun “cup, beaker”
ser- verb “rest”
filit (filik-) noun “small bird”
lir- verb “sing”
Grammar

Nouns

Nouns: Plural

Quenya nouns can form their plurals in two ways depending on how they end.

Nouns that end in a **consonant** or **-e** form their plurals with the marker **-i**. If the noun ends in a consonant, the -i is added to it: *arin* “morning” *arini* “mornings”. If the noun ends in -e then the plural marker replaces the final -e: *nosse* “family” *nossi* “families”; *sambe* “room” *sambi* “rooms”.

There are nouns ending in -e that form their plurals irregularly by adding an **-r** as a plural marker instead of changing the final -e to an -i (**er-plurals**). Examples include *malle* “road” *maller*; *tyáve* “taste” *tyáver*. Some nouns have been attested with both forms; e.g. *esse* “name” can have its plural either as *essi* or *esser*.

Nouns that end in the **vowels a, o, u, i, and the vowel combination ie** receive an **-r** as their plural marker: *hamma* “chair” *hammar* “chairs”; *osto* “town” *ostor* “towns”; *tie* “path, road, way, line, course, direction” *tier* “paths etc.”.

Nouns: Stem Forms

As we have seen in the previous lesson verbs in Quenya possess a so called stem form which is the form capable of receiving endings/suffixes. This is also true for certain Quenya nouns. When these nouns stand in the sentence uninflected (without any endings or markers) they have one form; but when they receive markers or endings these are added to the stem form instead.8 Examples: *filit* “small bird” *filiki* “small birds” (not **filiti**); *lóme* “night” *lómisse* “in the night” (not **lómesse**); *nelet* “tooth” *nelki* “teeth” (not **neleti**). If a noun has a distinct stem form this is usually listed in brackets in dictionaries: *filit* (filik-); *lóme* (lómi-); *nelet* (nelk-); *nér* (ner-); *nís* (niss-).

Nouns: Cases: Definition

In many languages of the world nouns (and other parts of speech) in a sentence change their forms and/or receive specific suffixes depending on their function in the sentence and their relation to other words; i.e. they are **inflected for grammatical case**. Some languages have a great many cases (Latin, Finnish, Hungarian), others make do with a few (German, Russian). In Modern English most of the cases (that were still present in Old English) have been lost; there’s the **nominative (or subjective) case** which is

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8 We can also say that all Quenya nouns have stem forms, but in the majority of them the stem form is the same as the uninflected form.

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basically the uninflected form of the noun functioning as the subject of the sentence; you can see vestiges of the **accusative case** in some pronouns that have distinct accusative forms (I - me; he - him, she - her; we - us; they - them) and there's the **genitive ending** 's to express possession (*the dog's tail*). Otherwise English expresses the function of the noun using **prepositions** and **word order**.

Atanquesta (Quenya) nouns can be inflected in 8 grammatical cases: **nominative, genitive, possessive/adjectival, dative, instrumental, locative, allative, and ablative**. The cases are marked by **case endings**; these are attached to the stem of the noun. These will be introduced gradually in the lessons. Atanquesta can also use **prepositions** and **postpositions** to express the function/relation of nouns.

**Nouns: Cases: Nominative**

The **nominative** is the form of the noun it takes when it is the subject of the sentence. Nouns are usually listed in dictionaries in their nominative singular form: nér “man” koa “house”.

**Nouns: Cases: Accusative**

Archaic Quenya had a distinct **accusative case**: the form the nouns took when they were the **direct object** in the sentence. Late Quenya and thus Atanquesta has lost this; you can only tell if a noun is the direct object from word order and context.⁹

**Nouns: Cases: Locative**

In Atanquesta when we want to express that something is in, or on, or at something/someone we put the noun in the **locative case** (or use a preposition, see later).

The **singular locative ending** is **-sse**: koa - koasse; hamma - hammasse.

The **plural locative ending** is **-ssen**: koassen “in/on houses”; hammassen “on chairs”. Note that the original plural marker (-i or -r) disappears: nossi “families” but nossessen “in families”; maller “roads” mallessen “on roads”.

If the noun ends in a consonant the ending **-sse** is attached to the noun via the connecting vowel **e**: arin “morning” - arinesse,“in the morning”.

If the noun ends in a **consonant l** or **n** the locative ending may take the form **-de**: menel “heaven” menelde “in heaven”.

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⁹ Or we can say that the accusative form of the noun is the same as the nominative.
Nouns: Cases: Allative

Atanquesta puts the noun in the allative case when the action is directed to/into/onto the noun. The allative case ending is -nna in singular, -nnar in plural. When the noun ends in a consonant, an e connects the ending to the noun in singular, an i in plural.

Examples: koa “house” koanna “to/into/onto the house” koannar “to/into/onto the houses”; noss/nossenna/nossennar; nér/nerenna/nerinnar; osto/ostonna/ostonnar; fili/filikenna/filikinnar

If the noun ends in -n the allative ending can be assimilated to the noun: ilin/ilinna/ilinnar.

Nouns: Prepositions

Beside using grammatical cases, relations of nouns can also be expressed with prepositions; in fact there are way more prepositions than cases. Examples are or “above, over”; ara “beside, next to, outside”; et “out of”; nu “under, beneath” etc. As the name implies, the place of the preposition is before the noun (and the definite article if it is present): or i koa “above the house”; or before the noun phrase: nu i luine helle “beneath the blue sky”.

Certain prepositions require that the following noun is put in a specific case; for example et “out of” is followed by a noun in the ablative case (see later), ú “without” is followed by the noun in genitive etc.

Verbs

Verbs: Classes

Verbs can be put in different classes depending on how their stem forms (the form listed in the dictionary) end; this affects how they are inflected for tense and person. The main verb classes are:

- **Verbs that end in a consonant**
  - These are also called primitive, basic, or consonantal verbs, and are usually monosyllabic: yul- “drink”; tar- “stand”; ser- “rest” etc.

- **Verbs ending in -a**
  - Also called derived or a-stem verbs; the -a can be on itself or be part of a verb-forming suffix -ya/-ta/-ra. Examples: mapa- “grab, seize”; kaita “lie”; lemya- “stay, tarry”

- **Verbs ending in -u**
Also called **u-stem verbs**, there are relatively few of these. Some of these carry no special sense; others carry a sense of **inception** (see later).

Example: *kelu-* “flow”; *hamu-* “sit down”

**Verbs: Tenses: Present Continuous**

We put a verb in the Present Continuous tense (also called Present Imperfect) when we want to emphasize that the action is ongoing in the present time (or, rather, in the relative present of the sentence). In English this is expressed by using **is/are + -ing**: “the boy is playing”. Atanquesta verbs are inflected in Present Continuous depending on which class they belong to.

- **Primitive verbs**
  - Two things happen to a primitive verb in Present Continuous: 1. The **root vowel** which in Quenya is called **sundóma** is lengthened, 2. An -a is attached to the verb stem.
  - In **plural** the plural marker -r is also attached to the verb.
    - Examples (with the root vowel in bold): *mat-* “eat” *máta* “is eating”; *yul-* “drink” *yúla* “is drinking” *yúlar* “are drinking”; *ser-* “rest” *séra* “is resting” *sérar* “are resting”

- **A-verbs**
  - In A-verbs the Present Continuous is formed by changing the final -a to -ea, in plural -ear.
    - Examples: *mapa-* “grab” *mapea* “is grabbing” *mapear* “are grabbing”; *poita-* “clean” *poitea* “is cleaning” *poitear* “are cleaning”; *tulya-* “lead” *tulyea* “is leading” *tulyear* “are leading”

- **U-verbs**
  - In U-verbs we simply add an -a to the verb stem.
    - Examples: *kelu-* “flow” *kelua* “is flowing” *keluar* “are flowing”

**Adjectives**

**Adjectives: Plural**

When an adjective qualifies a plural noun, the adjective will also be in its plural form (i.e the adjective agrees with the noun for number).

Adjectives that end in -a will end in -e when they are plural: *halla nér* “tall man” *halle neri* “tall men”.

Adjectives ending in -e or a **consonant** receive an -i in plural which replaces the final -e or is attached to the final consonant: *karaite nís* “busy woman” *karaiti nisi* “busy women”; *firin rokko* “dead horse” *firini rokor* “dead horses”.

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Lesson 3

Text


‘Parka nánye’ quéta Marko.
‘Á hora!’ Otto aquéta. ‘Samin olpe quanta neno.’
‘Maira!’ aquéta Marko. ‘Móle nauva ankárima síra.’

The road that goes to the center of the town is long. At the end of the road there is a bridge that crosses the river. Marko is running. He wants to arrive soon. He is a builder - he builds houses. He and the other builders will finish another house today. Tomorrow all builders will rest.
At last Marko reaches the end of the bridge. He is spotting Otto who is standing under a tree. Otto and Marko are friends. They are walking on together. Otto is telling Marko a story. They are laughing. ‘I am thirsty’ says Marko. ‘Wait!’ replies Otto. ‘I have a bottle full of water.’ ‘Excellent!’ Marko replies. ‘Work will be easy today.’

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

malle noun “street, road”
yya relative pronoun “which, that (of things)”
enda noun “center, heart”
anda adjective “long”
metta noun “end, goal, finish”
yanta noun “bridge”
lahta- verb “cross, pass over, surpass, excel”
síre noun “river”
nor- verb “run, leap (of persons or animals)”
mer- verb “wish, want”
tul- verb “come, arrive”

rongo adverb “soon”
se pronoun “he, she”
exa adjective “other, different”
samno noun “builder, carpenter”
kar- verb “do, make, build”
telya- verb “finish something, conclude”
enta adjective “another, one more”
síra noun and adverb “today”
enar noun and adverb “tomorrow”
ilya adjective “all, every, the whole”
yallume adverb “at last”
anya- verb “reach, arrive at”
hententa- verb “spot with eye”
Pronouns

Pronouns: Personal Pronouns

Just like English, Atanquesta has personal pronouns that can stand in place of nouns in a sentence: I like milk. Peter loves her. It is the bee's knees.

There are four types of personal pronouns in Atanquesta: simple personal pronouns, emphatic pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and pronominal suffixes. They will be discussed separately.

Pronouns: Personal Pronouns: Simple

These are the simple personal pronouns:

<table>
<thead>
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<td>&quot;I&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tye</td>
<td>&quot;you (familiar) (thou)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lye</td>
<td>&quot;you (polite)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Se</td>
<td>&quot;he/him, she/her, it (of animals)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>&quot;it (of things)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Me</td>
<td>&quot;we, us (exclusive)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ve</td>
<td>&quot;we, us (inclusive)&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Le</td>
<td>&quot;you (plural)&quot;</td>
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Grammar

Pronouns

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</tr>
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</table>
**Te** “they, them”  
**Met** “we two (exclusive)”  
**Vet** “we two, you and me (inclusive)”  
**Tyet** “you/thou two (familiar)”  
**Let** “you two (polite)”  
**Tú** “they/them two (dual)”

In Atanquesta the simple personal pronouns have two principal roles:

- They can replace a noun when it is the object in the sentence; *Peter karuva i koa.* “Peter will build the house.” *Peter karuva sa.* “Peter will build it.”
- They can replace a noun if it is part of a sentence/phrase with a copula (whether the copula is expressed or not). (See Verbs: *The verb “to be”.* Copula in Lesson 1). *Peter ná parka.* “*Peter* is thirsty.”  
  *Se parka.* “He is thirsty.”
- Contrary to English, in Atanquesta simple personal pronouns do not stand for nouns when they are the subject of verbs. In English “I am running,” is a valid sentence; in Atanquesta **Ni nóra** is not. Atanquesta uses pronominal suffixes (or, in specific cases, emphatic pronouns) in place of the subject in sentences like this. See later.

The simple personal pronouns can be inflected for case, e.g *nin* “to me, for me”  
*lyenna* “to you, towards you”  
*sello* “from him/her”.

**Nouns**

**Nouns: Cases: Genitive**

The noun is in the *genitive case* when we want to express that something is part of it, originating from it, belongs to it, made of it, about/concerning it. Thus it is roughly equivalent of expressions using *of* in English (with the noun which would be in genitive in bold): “the roof of the house; the north of France; the necklace of gold”; or English expressions where the noun receives the ending ‘s/s’: “the boy’s hand; the players’ feet”.

The *singular* genitive case ending is -o; the *plural* ending is -on. In *singular*

- if the noun ends in -a then it is replaced by the genitive ending -o: *yanta* “bridge” *yanto* “of the bridge”
- If the noun ends in -o then it remains unchanged: *Marko* “Marko/Marko’s/of Marko”
- Otherwise the -o is attached to the stem of the noun: *malle* “road” *malleo* “of the road”; *nër* - *nero*; *tyur* - *tyuro*

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10 We will discuss the concept of duality and dual inflections later in the book

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- If the noun ends in -ie its genitive case will end in -io: mornie “darkness” mornio; this is also true for gerunds (which are a form of the verb that can act as nouns and will be discussed later) that end in -ie.

In plural
- The ending is attached to the plural form of the noun: netti “girls” nettion “of the girls” aldar “trees” aldaron “of the trees” nelki “teeth” nelkion “of the teeth”

Nouns: Cases: Dative

The dative case is used when the action is for the benefit, for the purpose of the noun. English usually applies the prepositions for or to here: “I'll fetch the bag for you. Give that thing back to me! I am happy for Billy”; but when the sentence contains a direct and an indirect object at the same time it can also use word order to express the dative: “Give me the book = give the book to me; I sent Mary a message = I sent a message to Mary. Atanquesta can also employ word order in similar situations - we'll discuss that later.

The dative ending in singular nouns is -n when the noun ends in a vowel, and -en when it ends in a consonant: Marko - Markon; koa - koan; malle - mallen; nér - neren; tyur - tyuren.

In plural the ending is -in which replaces the normal plural marker: aldar “trees” aldain “for trees”; wini “babies” winin “for babies”.

Verbs

Verbs: Tenses: Aorist

We have seen in the section about the Present Continuous tense how it was used to express actions that were ongoing in the present of the sentence. Atanquesta has another type of present which Tolkien called the Aorist; it can also be called general present, or timeless present.

The Aorist is used to describe actions that
- Are a general, timeless statement: “Lions eat meat. The Moon orbits the Earth. Mother cooks really well.”
- Often with verbs that have an inherent continual sense, describe an action that in itself implies that it happens continuously, like see, know, hear, feel, flow, wait for etc.

The name comes from a Greek word meaning “indefinite"
The aorist can be used together with adverbs that have a future meaning to express future actions: *Martin kare koa enar.* “Tomorrow Martin builds a house (= will build a house).”

Here’s how the aorist form of the verb looks like:

- In A-stem and U-stem verbs
  - In singular the aorist form is the same as the verb stem.
    
    *Pata-* “walk”  *I nette pata* “the girl walks”; *lemya-* “stay, remain, tarry”  *I koa lemya* “The house remains”; *kelu-* “flow”  *I sire kelu* “the river flows”
  - In plural the plural marker -r is also attached to the end: *I koar lemyar* “The houses remain”

- In primitive verbs
  - In singular the verb stem receives the ending -e: *mat-* “eat”  *mate* “eats”; *nor-* “run”  *nore* “runs”
  - In plural the ending is -ir: *tul-* “come”  *tulir* “[they] come”
  - Note that the *sundóma* (the root vowel of the stem) remains unchanged, as opposed to the continuous present where it is lengthened: *kare* “does, makes” but *kára* “is doing, is making”

- The copula
  - The aorist form of the verb *ná-* “to be” in singular is *na*, in plural *nar*

**Verbs: Tenses: Future**

When the verb describes an action that will take place in the future, it is put in future tense.

- The singular future ending is *-uva*, in plural it is *-uvar*.
  - In primitive verbs the ending is added to the stem: *noruva* “will run, is going to run”  *matuvar* “[they] will eat, are going to eat”
  - In A-stem verbs the final -a of the stem is replaced: *mapuva* “will grab”  *anyuva* “will reach”  *tulyuvar* “[they] will lead”
  - In a specific subset of A-stem verbs that are called *ta-causative* the final a of the stem is preserved before the future ending: *tultauva* “will fetch”  *mentauva* “will send”. These are verbs that end in -ta and have an (implied) causative sense, i.e. “make/cause someone/something to do something”; like the examples above: *tulta-* “summon, fetch = make come”  *menta-* “send = make go”
  - In U-stem verbs the final -u is lengthened: *kelúva* “will flow”
  - The future form of *ná-* “to be” is *nauva/nauvar*
Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes

In English, when a sentence is a factual statement, (in other words the sentence is in the indicative mood)\(^\text{12}\), and the subject of the verb is a pronoun, the pronoun and the verb are two separate words (and the pronoun usually precedes the verb): I am running. They walk to school every day. She went to the kitchen.

Atanquesta, however, uses a different concept and employs special verb endings called pronominal subject suffixes or pronominal endings to express the subject of the verb. You can picture this as if the pronouns in English wandered to stand behind the verb and got attached to it: **Am-running-I. **Walk-they to school every day. **Went-she to the kitchen.

I will introduce the various pronominal suffixes gradually as there is quite a number of them. You can find a full table at the end of the book.

Note that pronominal suffixes are only used when the subject of the verb is not present as a noun (or an emphatic personal pronoun, or a demonstrative pronoun). If the noun is present the verb receives the bare tense ending only.

Some pronominal suffixes have long and short forms; some have only long forms. In normal everyday speech the short forms are used (where available); however, if another suffix is attached to the pronominal ending, then it can only be attached to the long form (see later).

The language has two further types of pronominal suffixes: the possessive (which are used with nouns) and the object suffixes (used with verbs); these will be discussed later.

Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes: 1st Person Singular

In 1st person singular the pronominal ending is **-nye** (long form) or **-n** (short form): Nóra-nye. “I am running.” Patuva-n i ostonna. “I will walk to town.”

In most tenses and verb classes the ending is simply attached to the verb: mátan. “I am eating” laluvan-ye “I will laugh” kaitean “I am lying”. However, in primitive verbs in aorist present, the normal aorist ending -e changes to -i before the ending: matin. “I eat” karin “I make” norin “I run”. This rule is applicable to all pronominal suffixes (i.e. not only 1st person singular).

Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes: 3rd Person Plural

In third person plural conjugation of the verb (“they”) the pronominal suffix is **-nte** or (more rarely and in poetic use) **-lte**. I netti nar i sambesse. Sí mateante ýāve. “The girls are in the room. They are eating fruit now.”

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\(^\text{12}\) For more on grammatical moods see e.g. [this Wikipedia article](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_mood)
Moods: Imperative

The verb is put in the imperative mood when the sentence expresses an order or request: “Go away! Close that door, please.”

In Atanquesta the imperative can be expressed by either the bare aorist form of the verb alone, or together with the imperative particle á. Depending on where the particle is positioned, there are three forms that can be used:

- The particle á can stand right before the verb. This is the most polite version: á tule “Please come!/ Come, will you?/Do come!”; á mapa, á nore, á lala

- If there is no particle á and only the bare aorist form is used, it is a less polite form: tule! “Come!” mapa! nore!

- The particle á can be stuck to the aorist form like an ending; in primitive verbs the -á replaces the final -e of the aorist. This is considered the least polite, most direct form of order: tulá! “Come at once!” mapá! norá!

It is possible for personal pronouns to be attached to the imperative particle á; in such expressions the meaning sometimes corresponds to English “let me... let him... etc.

Áni mene i ostonna. “Let me go to town.” Áse mate i yáve. “Let him eat the fruit! He should eat the fruit!” The pronoun can also be in dative, if it is the recipient/beneficiary of the action: Ánin anta i olpe! “Give me the bottle = give the bottle to me!”
Lesson 4

Text

Sinye ná. Marko tûle senna lûme yá. I alanwar hûmar i sambesse. Lilla eménie véra
samberyanna. Páras. Hentanes ilya auresse. Ehentanies parma; sí atakârasses. Martin ná
kaimasse, lorna.
Hanne yo Marko manter yáve; sí Hanne utultie olpe ar yulmar. Ulyeas limpe i yulmannar.
‘Ma karnetye síra?’ maquétas.
‘Ar manima i koa?’
‘Ninqui rambar, karne tôpa.’
‘Maira!’ quêta Hanne ta ortea i yulma. ‘Mâle!’
‘Mâle!’ raitea Marko. ‘Ar Lilla parne andave síra?’
‘Pustanes, mal rie senna lûmenna. Nilderya tenke sen menta, ar Lilla merne aquete.’
‘Se îta karaita. Navin yerna nâse.’
‘Nâto. Mal enar menuvalme i síreó rávanna. Matuvalme i salquesse, tyaluvalme ta
seruvalme. Apatye?’
‘Pâ! Mal enta olpe ve sina’ tenteas i limpeo olpenna, ‘tuluva aselme.’

It is evening. Marko arrived a short time ago. The adults are sitting in the room. Lilla has gone
to her own room. She is studying. She read the whole day. She has read a book; now she is
doing it again. Martin is in bed, asleep.
Hanne and Marko ate fruit; now Hanne has brought a bottle and cups. She is pouring wine
into the cups. ‘What did you do today?’ she asks.
‘The house is done’, replies Marko. ‘The man for whom we have built it came to see it. He likes
it.’
‘And what is the house like?’
‘White walls, red roof.’
‘Super!’ says Hanne and is raising the cup. ‘To good health!’
‘To good health!’ Marko is smiling. ‘And did Lilla study for long today?’
‘She stopped, but only for a short time. Her friend wrote her a message, and Lilla wanted to
reply.’
‘She is very busy. I think she must be tired.’
‘Yes. But tomorrow we’ll go to the riverbank. We’ll eat in the grass, play, and rest. Do you
agree?’
‘Okay! But another bottle like that’ he is pointing at the bottle of wine, ‘will come with us.’

Listen to the audio
Vocabulary

sinye noun “evening”
senna adjective “short”
lúme noun “time”
yá adverb “ago”
alanwa adjective, participle “adult, fully
grown”
véra adjective “own, private”
par- verb “learn, study”
henta- verb “examine, read, scan”
aure noun “day, daylight”
parma noun “book”
ata(-) prefix and adverb “again, re-”
lorna adjective “asleep”
yáve noun “fruit”
tulta- verb “fetch, summon, cause to
come”
ulya- verb “pour”
lime noun “wine”
ma interrogative particle “what?”
karinwa participle “complete, ready,
finished”
yen relative pronoun “to/for whom”
mára adjective “good, proper”
mára nin/len/sen etc idiom “I like it (it’s
good for me)/you like it etc”
manima interrogative “what sort? What kind? What is ... like?”
ninque adjective “white”
ramba noun “wall”
karne adjective “red”
tópa noun “roof”
orta- verb “raise, lift”
mále noun “good health”
raita- verb “smile”
anda adjective “long”
andave adverb “for long, for a long time”
pusta- verb “stop, cease”
mal conjunction “but”
rie adverb “only”
nilde noun “(female) friend”
tek- verb “write”
menta noun “message”
íta adjective, adverb “very, excessively”
karaite adjective “active, busy’
nav- verb “deem, judge”
yerna adjective “worn, tired”
náto adverb “true, it is so, yes”
ráva noun “bank of river/stream etc.”
salque noun “grass”
tyal- verb “play”
aþa- verb “agree”
þá adverb “yes (in agreement to
requests), OK”
sina adjective “this”
tenta- verb “point to, be directed to”
as(-) preposition, prefix “(together) with,
accompanied by”
Grammar

Verbs

Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes: 3rd Person Singular

In 3rd person singular conjugation, i.e. when the implied subject is “he, she, it”, the short form of the simple pronominal suffix is -s; the long form can be either -se or -sse. Marko samno. Karis koas. “Marko is a builder. He builds houses.” Lilla ná ara i alda. Tyálasse. “Lilla is beside the tree. She is playing.”

Verbs: Tenses: Past

In Atanquesta verbs can form their past tense belonging to two classes: weak and strong. In weak verbs, which is the more common type, past tense is expressed by the past tense suffix -ne which is attached to the verb stem (with or without metathesis; see later). We call these verbs “weak” because they “allow” the past tense suffix to attach to their stems without any major alteration to the verb stem.

There are verbs, however, which “resist” the past tense suffix and either form their past tense without -ne or change their stem before the suffix is attached to it - we call these verbs “strong”. There is no real “rule” that can be applied to figure out which verb will have a weak or strong past (some verbs may even have both) - a good dictionary will indicate if a verb has a strong past form.13

Verbs: Tenses: Past: Weak

In weak verbs past tense is formed by attaching the past tense suffix -ne to the stem; further suffixes (like pronominal suffixes) are then attached to the past tense

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13 In this respect Atanquesta is similar to English, which also has weak verbs forming their past tense with the regular -ed (walk - walked), and strong verbs which change their stems in past tense (bring - brought, not **bringed)
suffix. The attachment of the past tense suffix can happen in three ways, depending on what sound the verb stem ends in:

When the verb stem ends in a vowel (-a or -u), or the consonants m, n, r, the past tense suffix is simply attached to the stem: tulya - tulyane; lahtas “he/she/it passes across” - lahtanes “he/she/it passed across”; kelu - kelune; mer - merne.

When the verb ends in -l, the past tense marker assimilates to the final consonant of the stem, and becomes -le: tul - tulle.

If the stem of the verb ends in the consonant t, k, p, v, or s the -ne suffix is attached to the stem, but the final consonant of the stem and the n of the past suffix switch places, to make the resulting consonant combination easier to pronounce; we call this phenomenon metathesis.

If the stem ends in -t, metathesis results in -nt: mat “eat” → **matne → mante “ate”

If the stem ends in -k metathesis results in -nk: tuk- “pull, bring” - tunke “pulled, brought”

If the stem ends in -v, metathesis results in -mb: kuv- “bow” - kumbe “bowed”

If the stem ends in -p, metathesis results in -mp: kap- “leap” - kampe “leapt”

Verbs: Tenses: Past: Strong

In strong past forms the past suffix -ne either does not appear at all, and the verb stem changes to indicate the past tense, or the verb stem changes before the -ne suffix is attached to it. There are several variations, and there is no safe way to predict which verb will belong to this category - the Atanquesta speaker needs to memorize which verbs have a strong past.

The alteration of the verb stem can manifest in the lengthening of the stem vowel (sundóma) and adding an -e to the stem, loss of the formative verb ending -ta or -ya before the past suffix is attached, or the past marker “intruding” in the middle of the stem, which usually results in metathesis. Here are some examples: anta “give” - áne; yor- “enclose” - yóre; kaita- “lie horizontally” - keante; fanta- “veil, cloak, obscure” - fáne; ola- “grow, grow into, become” - óle; onta- “beget” - óne; lasta- “listen” - lasse; ista- “know” - sinte; karpa- “speak” karampe “spoke”; orya- “rise” oronye “rose”. There are certain patterns that can be observed in these verbs, how their past tenses are formed, based on their origins and the nature of their verb stem ending, but their discussion is beyond the scope of this primer. Ultimately, these strong past forms will need to be memorized.

Sometimes a verb can have both weak and strong past forms; fáne as the strong past from of fanta- coexists with the weak “regular” form fantane; the strong past túle “came” of the verb tul- “come” coexists with the weak form tulle.

14 This is because the primitive form (root) of the verb ended in -b which changed into v in Quenya; the n in the resulting nb then changes to m for euphonic reasons
15 np > mp for euphonic reasons
In other cases the two past forms differentiate between the transitive and intransitive usage of a verb: *ulya-* can mean “pour something” in a transitive sense, in which case its past form is *ulyane*; and it can also mean “pour, flow out” in an intransitive sense, which then will have a strong past form *ulle*.

**Verbs: Tenses: Past: The verb *ná-*

When *ná-* “to be” is not inflected for person (i.e. the verb has an expressed subject present), its past form can be either *náne*, plural *náner*, or *né*, plural *nér*. Both forms are valid.

When *ná-* is inflected for person (i.e. a pronominal suffix is attached to it), it can take the form *né-/ne-* plus suffix in which case it receives the long form of the pronominal suffix (*nénye, nelye, nése* or *nesse* etc.), or *ane-* which will receive the short suffix: *anen, anel, anes* etc.

**Verbs: Tenses: Present Perfect**

In Atanquesta the verb is put in the present perfect tense when the verb expresses an action that took place recently but has already been completed (as opposed to the present imperfect or present continuous tense which is still ongoing); thus it corresponds to the English present perfect as in *I have written a letter. They have arrived at last! Elvis has left the building*, with the difference that while in English the perfect uses an auxiliary verb (‘have’) to form the perfect, in Atanquesta verbs have a distinct perfect conjugation.

There are three markers that can form the present perfect of an Atanquesta verb. These are: 1) the ending -ie. This is present in all perfect forms. 2) the lengthening of the stem vowel (*sundóma*); 3) the stem vowel prefixed to the beginning of the verb; this is called an augment. 2) and 3) are more or less optional, and their presence is governed by the shape of the verb stem, the nature of the first vowel or consonant, and the style of the text (colloquial or poetic).

Based on the above there are several variations in which present perfect verbs can appear:

- Primitive verbs starting with a consonant. In these usually all three markers appear: *ser-* / *esérie* “has rested”; *tul-* / *utúlie* “has come”; *kar-* / *akárie* “has done”; *yul-* / *uiúlie* “has drunk”
- Primitive verbs starting with a consonant that comes from an original consonant cluster. In Common Eldarin, which was the precursor of Quenya (and other Eldarin languages) several verb stems started with a consonant cluster like *sk*, *nd*, *sl*, etc. Quenya, however, does not favour or indeed allow words to start with consonant clusters, and these regularly morphed into single consonants at the

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16 Transitive verbs must have a direct object present; while intransitive verbs can not
beginning of words; thus, from the primitive form *ndak- we got the Quenya verb *nak- “slay, hew”, from *skat- we get *hat- “break asunder”. But when the verb is in present perfect and the stem vowel is prefixed before the stem, that first consonant ceases to be the first and the original consonant cluster is reinstated: *nak- / andákie; *hat- / askátie. These are relatively few and would be pointed out in dictionaries.

- Derived (A or U) verbs starting with a consonant. The stem vowel is prefixed before the stem; the final vowel (-a or -u) is lost, or, in case of verbs ending in -ya, the entire ending is lost and replaced by -ie. Whether the stem vowel is lengthened depends on whether it is followed by a single consonant or a cluster. Sirya- / isirie “has flown”; telya- / etélie “has ended”; pusta- / upustie “has stopped”; kaita- / akaitie “has lain”.

- Derived verbs starting with a vowel. In normal colloquial language, as these verbs are already beginning with a vowel, there is no prefixing: ola- / ólie “has become”; orya- / órie “has risen”; ulya- / úlie “has poured”. However, mostly in poetic language, a prefix may appear, which is then basically a reduplication of the first vowel and consonant: ola- / olólie; orya- / orórie.

- The present perfect of the verb ná- “to be” is anaie “has been”.

- Strong or irregular forms. There are a few examples where the perfect form follows the pattern seen with strong past forms: menta- / eménie (not **ementie) “has sent”; fonta- / afónie (not **afantie) “has veiled”; or the perfect form cannot seemingly readily be derived from the verb stem: auto- / avánie “pass away, depart, be lost forever -> has departed”; auta- / oantie “go away, leave -> has left”. Again, such forms would be shown in dictionaries.

- As usual, when the verb has no explicit subject, a subject pronominal suffix is attached to the perfect ending: akárien “I have made”; amáties “he/she/it has eaten”.

Moods: Interrogative

In other words, questions in Quenya. We can distinguish two types of questions: yes/no questions and qualifying questions.

Moods: Interrogative: Yes/No Questions

These are the questions that can be answered by a simple yes or no. In English the usual order of subject and verb is reversed in questions: Are you tired? - although in colloquial language and when there is special emphasis on the subject, it may not be so: You did this?

In Atanquesta the order of the subject and verb is not reversed, and yes/no questions can simply be expressed by intonation, and (in writing) a question mark. Marko amátie i masta? “Has Marko eaten the bread?”
However, it is also possible to use the generic interrogative particle *ma* in these questions: *Ma Marko amátie i masta?* The two variants are equally valid.

**Moods: Interrogative: Qualifying Questions**

These are the questions where we use a question word or interrogative pronoun: *Where are you? Who let the dogs out? How many pebbles are there in my pocket?* Again, in English the word order is reversed, but in Atanquesta it is not: *Manima limpe yúlas?* “What sort of wine is he drinking?” *Masse i masta?* “Where is the bread?”

**Verbs**

**Verbs: Objective Pronominal Suffixes**

Earlier we’ve talked about the subjective pronominal suffixes which are attached to the verb to mark the subject of the verb, when it is not explicitly present in the sentence: *Máta masta.* “I am eating bread.” Atanquesta also possesses another pronominal suffix, which can be attached to the verb to mark the object of the verb when it is not explicitly present. It is called the *objective pronominal suffix.* In most cases it is attached to the verb after the subjective pronominal suffix, and it is always used with the *long form* of the subjective pronominal suffix. Let’s see a few examples, with the object suffix in bold: *Marko máta i masta.* “Marko is eating the bread.” *Mátasses.* “He is eating it.”

Only third person object suffixes are known: the singular is -*s*, the plural one is -*t*. First and second person objects are expressed with separate pronouns: *Tíras ni.* “He is watching me.”

**Verbs: Infinitive**

The infinitive is a non-inflected form of the verb that can take on certain functions in a sentence. In English the infinitive can be the bare dictionary form of the verb (bare infinitive) e.g. *eat*, or coupled with the particle “to”, called the full infinitive e.g. *to eat*. It typically appears after modal verbs e.g. “I can swim” or as an object of verbs: “I want to go to the cinema.”

Atanquesta has two types of infinitive: the general infinitive and the particular infinitive.

**General infinitive.** This has the same form as the aorist present form of the verb (uninflected for number or person), and similarly to English, it can follow verbs with a modal sense; e.g. *Istan quete Quenya.* “I can (know how to) speak Quenya.” *Polin nore.* “I can (am able to) run.”

**Particular infinitive.** This one differs from the general infinitive in the aspect that it can receive *object suffixes*. This also means that the particular infinitive can only be
formed from transitive verbs, i.e. ones that can be followed by an object (e.g. the verb nor- “to run” is intransitive in Quenya, cannot have a direct object, so it cannot have a particular infinitive form.)

The particular infinitive is formed by adding the suffix -ita to the verb stem, which is then followed by the object suffix. E.g. karitas “to make it”; matitas “to eat it”; tultaitat “to fetch them”.

Note that if the object of the infinitive is fully expressed (i.e. it is not expressed by an object suffix) then the general infinitive is used. Merin yule i limpe. “I want to drink the wine.”

In addition of object suffixes, the particular infinitive is also capable of receiving possessive pronominal suffixes, which are normally a feature of nouns, and will be discussed later.

Agreement And Negation: Agreement

Agreement with a question or statement can take two forms in Atanquesta, depending on whether the speaker confirms a fact, or agrees with a request.

Agreement With Facts

This type corresponds with English “yes; yes, it is; it is so”. Atanquesta here either simply uses ná “yes, it is so”, or, more emphatically, náto “it is that; yes (emphatic)”.

Martin amátie i masta? Ná, amátiesses. “Has Martin eaten the bread? Yes, he has.”

Agreement With Requests

This is in response to requests like “Will you come visit us tomorrow?” or “Please close the door.” Atanquesta here uses the verb apa. 17 “to be willing, agree”. The agreement can be with a fully conjugated verb: Tuluval i ostonna enar? “Will you come to town tomorrow?” Apan. Or Äpanye “Yes, I will!” “Okay”. Often it is simply expressed with the particle þá “yes, OK, all right, will do”. ‘Â ulya i limpe, mekin.’ ‘þá!’ “Pour the wine, please” “OK!”.

Verbs

Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes: 2nd Person Singular and Plural

These suffixes correspond to English you (or the archaic thou) in singular, and you in plural.

The polite (and more widely used) singular suffix is -lye (long form) or -l (short form). Alassea nân ire raitalye. “I am happy when you smile.”

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17 Also spelled asa-
If the subject of the verb is a familiar person (friend, family), the familiar singular form -tye/-t can be used (in this usage it is similar to the now archaic English thou).

*Tuluvatye enar?* Will you (thou) come tomorrow?

The 2nd person plural suffix is *-lde.* *Aþalde, málor?* ‘Do you agree, friends?’

**Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes: 1st Person Plural**

These suffixes correspond to English *we;* however, Atanquesta differentiates two types of 1st person plural subjects (i.e. there are two types of ‘we’):

- inclusive ‘we’: this is used when the person to whom the sentence is addressed is included in the ‘we’ of the sentence; the suffix is *-lve.* *Enar tuluvalve Ondolindenna.* “Tomorrow we (including you) will arrive in Gondolin.”

- exclusive ‘we’: to be used in sentences where the person addressed (or the reader of the text) is not included in the action; here the suffix is *-lme.* *Enar tulvalme i ostonna, mal hehtuvalme le sinome.* “We will arrive at the town tomorrow, but we will leave you here.”

There are also specific forms of the 1st person plural pronominal suffixes related to the **dual** conjugation of verbs which we will touch upon later.

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18 Note that while ‘thou’ is now archaic in English, -tye/-t are not archaic in Atanquesta.
Lesson 5

Text


It’s a beautiful morning today; Hanne is standing at the door and is watching the garden. A mild breeze is blowing: Hanne’s coat is flapping in the breeze. The glory of the morning is smoothing the woman’s mood. ‘Lilla!’ she calls, ‘Help me, please. The chickens are hungry.’ ‘I’m coming!’ Lilla replies. Soon mother and daughter are going out of the house. A pair of trees stand in the middle of the garden, and behind the two trees some chicken are wandering in the grass. The family has two hens and ten chickens. Lilla picks up a hen with black plume. ‘Look at this bird!’ she says. ‘I like it. The feet are so strong, the eyes glitter.’ ‘That hen is indeed a great one’ smiles Hanne. ‘Last week it gave us twelve eggs.’ The hens and chickens are excited. Hanne opens the bag that she is carrying and picks up a handful of seeds, then scatters them on the ground. The two hens, whose feathers glitter in the sunshine, are protecting the chickens, who run to Hanne.

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

| sé  | se | preposition “at” |
| fenna | noun | “door” |
| tir- | verb | “watch, heed, guard” |
| tarwa | noun | “garden” |
| milya | adjective | “gentle, soft” |
| hwesta | noun | “breeze” |
| váva- | verb | “to blow” |
| hlapu- | verb | “to blow, fly or stream in the wind” |
| alkar | noun | “glory, radiance” |
| pas- | verb | “to smooth” |
| inwalme | noun | “mood” |

yal- verb “call”
á  imperative particle
ápya- verb “help, assist, comfort”
meakin verb? adverb? “please”⑨
porokelle (plural porokeller) noun
“chicken”
maita adjective “hungry”

⑨ mekin is a word that is attested in this single form only and it is difficult to determine whether it is a standalone adverb “please” or actually a verb *mek-* in a first person singular form
amil noun “mother”
seilde noun “daughter”
auta- verb “leave, go away, depart”
et preposition “out (of)” followed by ablative
ende noun “centre, middle”
ka preposition, adverb “behind, at back of place”
ranya- verb “wander”
salque noun “grass”
sam- verb “have, possess”
poroke noun “hen”
kean cardinal “ten”
lepta- verb “pick up, feel with fingers”
arwa adjective “having, with...” followed by noun in genitive
morna adjective “dark, black, gloomy”
lúpe noun “plume”
sina demonstrative pronoun “this”
tál (tal-) noun “foot”
poldórea adjective “strong (physically)”
hen (hend-) noun “eye”
mirilya- verb “glitter”
tana demonstrative pronoun “that”
naitie adverb “truly, really”
tella adjective “last, hindmost”
otsole noun “week”
olte noun “egg”
yunque cardinal “twelve”
awalda adjective “excited”
latya- verb “open”
poko noun “bag”
kol- verb “carry, bear”
erde noun “seed, grain”
masse noun “portion, handful”
re- verb “sow, scatter” past tense rende
kemen noun “earth, soil, ground”
quesse noun “feather”
alka- verb “glitter, shine”
áre noun “sunshine, daylight, day (from sunrise to sunset)”
varya- verb “protect”

Grammar

Nouns

Nouns: Cases: Ablative

The noun is in the ablative case when its meaning corresponds to English expressions with the prepositions from (so basically this is the opposite of the allative case we discussed earlier). The ablative case suffix is -llo, plural -llon; koallo “from [the] house” kiryllon “from [the] ships”.

Nouns: Dual

Besides appearing in sentences in singular or plural forms, Atanquesta nouns also have a special mode of inflection for number: the dual form. As its name implies, this denotes nouns of which there are two.

u-duals: this is used with nouns which describes things that form natural pairs; it is mostly used with body parts: hen (hend-) “eye” hendu “a pair of eyes”. Pé “lip” peu “lips”.

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**t-duals**: this is the common form and can be used with any type of noun; it basically replaces the number *atta* “two” with a dual suffix. E.g. *koa* “house” *koat* “two houses”; *maitar* “artist” *maitaret* “two artists”.

Beside nouns, verbs and pronouns also have dual forms; however, adjectives don’t.

*Dual case declensions*

Nouns that are in dual, when inflected for a case, also receive dual-specific case suffixes:
- **allative**: -*nta*; *koa* “house” *koanta* “to the two houses”
- **ablative**: -*lto*; *koalto* “from the two houses”
- **locative**: -*tse*; *koatse* “in/on/at the two houses”
- **genitive**: -*to*; *koato* “of the two houses”
- **dative**: -*nt*; *koant* “for the two houses”

**Nouns: Partitive Plural**

A characteristic and interesting feature of Quenya is the existence of the so called **partitive plural** forms beside the usual or normal plural that, as we have seen, is formed with the plural markers -*i* or -*r*. The partitive plural differs from the normal plural in that it refers to a - usually undefined - number of things or creatures it marks. So it will mean something along the lines of “some, many, a lot, a group of [things/people]’.

The partitive plural marker is -*li*. The marker is attached as it is to nouns ending in a vowel; *koa* “house” *koali* “some houses, many houses”; if the noun ends in a consonant, the partitive plural marker is attached to it via a connecting vowel: *atar* “father” *atareli* “some, a lot of fathers”; if the noun ends in ‘*l’ the marker is simply attached: *indil* “lily” *indilli* “some, many, a group of lilies”; and if the noun ends in ‘*n’ then it is assimilated to the following ‘*l’ of the partitive plural marker: *atan* “man, human” *atalli* “some, many men”.

The differences between the two plurals could be explained as follows:
- If the noun is in a normal plural and it is not preceded by the definite article *i*, then it usually means *all the things (in the world)* it refers to, a general plural: *rusko* “fox” *ruskor* “foxes” *Ruskor matir hráva*.”Foxes eat meat” i.e. every fox, all the foxes
- If the noun is a normal plural and is preceded by the article *i* or by other words determining the noun, like demonstrative pronouns, it usually refers to *all the members of a certain, defined group of things, all the things mentioned in the previous sentence etc.* E.g. *rusko* - *ruskor* - *I ruskor noa kennen nesse nér.* “The foxes I saw yesterday [i.e. all the foxes in that group] were young.”
- If the noun is in partitive plural form it refers to an undefined group of things the speaker is talking about: *rusko* - *ruskoli* - *Ruskoli tuller i taurrello lómisse ar manter i porokelli.* “Foxes (i.e. some foxes) came from the forest in the night and ate the chicken.”
Numbers

Numbers: Nouns and Cardinal Numerals

The Atanquesta cardinal numerals from one to nineteen are as follows (certain numerals have more than one possible form):

- min, atta, nelde, kanta, lempe, enque, otso, toldo, nerte, quain/kean, minque, yunque, yunquenta/nelque, kanaque, lepenque, eneque, otoque, toloque, neterque

The usual place for Atanquesta cardinals is **following the noun** they modify:

Before *min* “one” and *atta* “two” the noun is in singular: *koa min, koa atta* “one house, two houses”.

Before other numerals the noun is in plural: *koar kanta, koar toloque* “four houses, eighteen houses”

In formal/archaic speech the nouns may appear in plural genitive from three upwards: *koaron yunque* “twelve houses”.

Numbers: Ordinals

The ordinals from first to nineteenth are as follows (some ordinals have more than one form):

- minya, attea/tatya, neldea/nelya, kantea, lempea, enquea, otsea, toldea, nertea, quainea, minquea, yunquea, nelquea, kanaquea, lepenquea, enequea, otoquea, toloquea, neterquea

The ordinals are adjectives; therefore, they stand before the noun they modify: *i kantea ré* “the fourth day”; *i nertea nís* “the ninth woman”.

Pronouns

Pronouns: Demonstrative and Relative

*Demonstrative pronouns. We call these pronouns demonstrative, because they “demonstrate” the noun, i.e. point to it. This book, that girl, yonder house, these mice etc.*
But they can also stand alone: I have enough of this. In Atanquesta, we have sina (plural sine) “this”, tana (plural tane) “that”, and enta (plural ente) “yonder, that over there”. Sina parma mára nin. “I like this book [literally, this book is good for me].”

There are also case-inflected and prefixed versions of the demonstrative pronouns, eg. sillo “from here, since now”, talle “like that”, tanen “in that way” etc.

Relative pronouns. These are pronouns that refer to nouns mentioned earlier: the man who, the town where, the method which etc. The basic Atanquesta relative pronouns are ya “that, that which” and ye “who, whom”; the plural of both forms is i. Sometimes i is used in singular (in place of ya/ye) however. I aiwe ye wila or i koar i entasse tarir tuilindo ná. “The bird that's flying over the houses that stand over there is a swallow.”

The relative pronouns also have case-inflected variants which can be used in the appropriate relative clauses, e.g. yasse/yassen “where, wherein, in which place(s)”, yan “for/to which” yalle “as, in the same way as, like”, yello (pluralillon) “from whom”, yenna “to whom”, yeo (pluralion) “whose, of whom”. I nér yello rappen ta rokko lange rúsea. “The man from whom I stole that horse is very angry.”

Nouns

Nouns: Cases: Instrumental

The noun is in its instrumental form when it expresses that something is happening by [the means of] / with [the means of] / because of the noun. The instrumental case suffix is -nen in the singular, and -inen in the plural, and -nten in dual: rokko “horse” rokkonen “by (on) horse” rokkoinen “by horses” rokkonten “by a pair of horses”.

When the plural of a noun ends in -i, in instrumental case it lengthens: ehte “spear” ehtinen “by spears”.

Note that although the instrumental is often translated as “with [something]” it does not mean “together with” (e.g. “I went to town with Martin yesterday.”)21. Atanquesta uses the prepositions as or ó to express this. So observe the difference in the meaning of these two examples: Marko tulle sinna rokkonen. “Marko came here by/on a horse” = the horse was the means of Marko’s travel; Marko tulle sinna as rokko. “Marko came here with a horse.” = Marko was accompanied by a horse on his journey here, but he did not ride on its back.

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20 sina has a shorter form si, tana has ta
21 this latter one is called the comitative case which is not found in Atanquesta
Nouns: Cases: Possessive/Adjectival

The **possessive (or possessive/adjectival) case** is used when there is a possessive relationship between two nouns: the man’s house; the day of the Dead. In such expressions the noun in possessive often acquires an adjectival meaning (hence the name): the language of Men = the Mannish language.

The singular possessive case suffix is **-wa** after nouns ending in *l/r/n/t*, and **-va** after all other nouns: *i koa atanwa* “the man’s house”; *i kiryava tyulma* “the ship’s mast”.

In plural the ending is **-iva** “ships”; if the plural noun ends in *-i*, then it is lengthened: *i quenta ataníva* “the story of Men”.

In dual the ending is **-hta**: *kiryahta* “the two ships”.

If the possessed noun is in plural, the possessive ending is inflected for number: *i kiryave tyulmar* “the ship’s masts”; *i salpar nettíve* “the girls’ bowls”
Lesson 6

Text

‘Masse tana parma? Quen lá hire aiqua sina koasse’ nainea Marko. ‘Noa hentanenyes sinome, ar sí vanwa.’

Nurrula, toluas, ar ménas exa sambenna. Hanne hlára se lepta engwi, ar layaile yo holyaile fennaron hlóna.

‘Lilla, á mene ar aby a Sen’ quétas. ‘Oluvas nairea ar rákina quiquie lá hires ya kesta.’

‘Istanyes. Enyalil õre kestanes tana tamma ter auri nelde?’

‘Lá. Manima tamma?’

‘La istan tensi, mal ranyanes hútaila i koasse andave.’

‘Náto’ Hanne aquéta. ‘Yallume hirnesses nu Martinwa kaima. Lá karampe asinye tere otsole, an nambes ánenyes Martinen tyalien.’

Marko entúla, kólila i parma; ruxa náse. ‘Á kene! Narkaina. Navin Martin rappe sa. Uhtan í parmar rúkine nar.’

‘Vá nurru!’ Hanne raitea. ‘Hiruvan exa parma i ostosse enar.’

‘Where is that book? One does not find anything in this house’ complains Marko.

‘Yesterday I saw it here, now it is gone.’

Grumbling, he stands up and goes to another room. Hanne hears him pick up things, and the noise of opening and closing doors.

‘Lilla, go and help him’ she says. ‘He turns sad and broken whenever he doesn’t find what he is looking for.’

‘I know. Do you remember when he searched for that tool for three days?’

‘I don’t. What sort of tool?’

‘I don’t know any more, but he wandered cursing in the house for a long time.’

‘Indeed.’ Hanne replies. ‘At last he found it under Martin’s bed. He did not talk to me for a week, because he thought I gave it to Martin to play.’

Marko is returning, carrying the book; he is angry. ‘Look! It is torn. I think Martin pinched it. I hate it when books are ruined.’

‘Don’t grumble!’ Hanne smiles. ‘We will find another book in town tomorrow.’

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

masse interrogative pronoun “where”
quen, quén noun, pronoun “a person, someone”
hir- verb “find”
lá, la negative particle “no, not”
lá- verb “is not, does not”
*aiqua noun “anything”
naina- verb “lament”
sinome adverb “here, in this place”
vanwa adjective “gone, lost, departed, dead”
nurru- verb “grumble”
tolu- verb “stand up”
exa adjective “other”
hlar- verb “hear”
engwe noun “thing, object”
holya- verb “close”
hlóna noun “noise”
ol- verb “become, grow into, turn into”
nairea adjective “sorrowful, sad”
rákina adjective “broken, ruined”
quiquie adverb “whenever”
kesta- verb “seek, look for, search for”
enyal- verb “remember, recall”
íre conjunctive “when”
tamma noun “tool”
ter, tere preposition “through”
aure noun “day”
manima interrogative pronoun “what sort, what kind”
tensi adverb “by now, to date, already”
húta- verb “curse”
andave adverb “for long, for a long time”
yallume adverb “at last”
nu preposition “under”
kaima noun “bed”
karpa- verb “talk, speak” past tense
karampe
as- prefix “together with”
asinye personal pronoun “with me”
nav- verb “deem, judge, have an opinion that”
tyal- verb “play”
en- prefix “re-, again”
entul- verb “return”
ruxa adjective “angry”
narka- verb “rend, tear”
raf- verb “snatch, seize, steal” past tense
rappe
uhta- verb “dislike”
í conjunctive “when”
rúkina adjective “shattered, disordered, broken”

Grammar

Participles

The participle is a form of the verb which is used in sentences to modify nouns (or verbs, see later). In English, there are two types: the Present Active Participle: “the running horse”, and the Present Passive Participle: “the broken glass”. In Atanquesta, there are also active and passive participles, but they can appear in several tenses.

Participial phrases can often be rephrased into a sentence with a relative clause:
the running horse > the horse that is running; the broken glass > the glass that is broken.

Participles: Active

This participle is related to actions happening in present time, a continuing action: a crying child; The running man was sweating profusely. Note the difference between the two verbal forms in the latter sentence - both ending in -ing: the first one is a participle, the second is part of the past continuous conjugation of the verb.
The Atanquesta suffix for the active participle is -ila. If the verb stem ends in a consonant, the participial ending is either simply attached to the stem, and the stem vowel is lengthened: kar- “make” kárila “making”; nor- “run” nóriila “running”, or the root vowel remains as is, but is attached to the stem acting as a connecting vowel (this is called ómataima in Quenya): kar- karaila; nor- noroila.

If the verb stem ends in -u, the -i- of the participial suffix is lost: hlapu- “fly with the wind” hlápula.

If the stem ends in -a, then either the full -ila suffix is attached to the stem, or the -i- is dropped: either form is found and acceptable. Raita- “smile” raitala/raitaila “smiling”.

A characteristic usage for participles is in sentences like Running, the horse was beautiful. Nórila i rokko né vanima. Marko came to the house, smiling. Marko tulle i koanna, raitaila.

Since these participles qualify nouns in the sentence, and so have an adjectival function, they will agree with their noun in number - i.e. if they qualify a plural noun their final a will turn into an e. This is true for all other participles that are adjectival.

Participles: Passive

This participle refers to actions that happened in the past, and happened to the noun it modifies: a broken glass; the sliced bread.

The Atanquesta suffix for this form is -ina. In consonantal verbs the stem vowel is generally not lengthened; the suffix attached to the stem: rak- “break” rakina “broken”; although in some attested historical forms a lengthened stem vowel can be found: rúkina “shattered, disordered, broken”.

With U-verbs the -i- is dropped: liru- “sing (gaily)” liruna “sung”.
With A-verbs, usually the -a- of the suffix is dropped: ista- “know’ istina “seized”; there may be exceptions: esta- “name (someone or something) estaina “named”.

These participles agree with their noun for number.

Agreement and Negation: Negation

We have seen earlier in that Atanquesta employs different verbs for agreement with facts (ná-) and with requests (bá-). It is a similar case with the opposite function: negation.

Negation of Facts

To negate facts Atanquesta uses the negative verb lá- and the negative particle lá or la.

The particle is used to negate various parts of a sentence: lá menin “I do not go” lá tuluvas “he is not going to come” Marko lá alassea “Marko is not happy” Lilla la amil “Lilla is not a mother”.

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We can also use the particle as a short answer to questions: *Marko alassea?* “Is Marko happy?” *Lá.* “No.”

However, when giving a short answer to questions, one can also use the negative verb, with pronominal suffixes: *Marko alassea?* “Is Marko happy?” *Láse.* “He is not.”

Negation of Requests, Refusal

This is used when expressing disagreement with a request, a refusal or unwillingness to do something; here the particle is *vá* or *ava*, the verb form is *vá*-.

Again, the particle is used to negate verbs in sentences, or used to answer requests, while the negative verb can be used to answer requests. *Marko vá tuluva enar.* “Marko will not come tomorrow (because he does not want to).” *Á mate! Vá.* or *Ványe.* “‘Eat!’ ‘No.’ or ‘I won’t.’”

*vá/ava* is also used as a negative imperative particle, to express negative requests/commands: *Ava henta i parma!* “Don't read the book!”

Syntax

Syntax: General subject

When we are speaking about things in general, or we don't want to specifically name the subject of a sentence, we often resort to the use of *general subjects*. In fact, the *we* in the previous sentence was exactly that. In English, we have several possibilities: *One can never be certain about the weather in England.* “*Money, they say, is the root of all evil today.*” *If you break it, you pay for it.*

In Atanquesta we also have different pronouns/nouns that can be used as general subjects: *mo* “one, someone” and its pair *ma* “something”, and *quen* “one, someone, a person”: *Mo henta parmar yestallo mettanna senyave.* “One reads books from start to end usually.” *Í quen nyare quenta, lastan.* “When someone tells a story, I listen.”

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22 not talking about this book, naturally; this one, you should definitely read
Lesson 7

Text


‘Meril i masto peresta?’ Hanne maquêta Marko. ‘Lanye lange maita síra.’

Marko la aquete. I parmo narkare en ápa se. Sanas mene i ostonna artuilesse. Rie i parmo kanasta ehentánies tensi; mína nas henta ompa.

‘Si sulpa mára nin’ Lilla quêta. ‘Ma urda karitas?’


‘Pô! Lilla aquéta, ar lalea. ‘Mal i sulpava matie yú alasse, íre nas ta úkalima aval’

‘Alye mate, tá. Ú karpáreo telyuvalme i ahtumat rongo. Yerna nán, ar Martin yú mere mate.’

It is evening again. The family is sitting at the table. It is time for eating. Lilla is bringing the food in a large bowl and gives a portion to everyone. They are eating.

‘Do you want half of the bread?’ Hanne asks Marko. ‘I am not very hungry today.’

Marko doesn’t answer. The tearing of the book is still bothering him. He is thinking of going to the town early in the morning. He has read only a quarter of the book so far; he is eager to read on.

‘I like this soup’ says Lilla. ‘Is it difficult to make?’

‘On the contrary, easy. I have made it countless times. I will show you. From start to finishing only a short time.’

‘Okay!’ Lilla replies, and laughs. ‘But eating the soup is also a joy, when it’s so murky outside!’

‘Eat, then. Without talking we will finish the dinner soon. I am tired, and Martin also wants to eat.’

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

ata adverb “again”
paluhta noun “table”
lûme noun “time, hour”
matta noun “food”
ant- verb “give”
illi pronoun “all, everyone”
peresta, perta fraction “one half”
lange adverb “very, excessively, extremely”
ap- verb “touch (figuratively), affect, concern”
en, ena adverb “still”
saná- verb “think, reflect on”
artuile noun “early morning”
kanasta, kasta fraction “one fourth, quarter”
mína- verb “eager to go, desiring to start”
**Grammar**

**Verbs**

**Verbs: Gerund**

The **gerund** is a specific form of the verb which is not inflected for tense, person, or number (in this aspect similar to the **infinitive**), and has noun-like qualities (i.e. it can be subject or object of a verb). In English gerunds end in **-ing** (not to be confused with the active participle (q.v.) which also ends in -ing): *I hate running. Eating a lot of cake will not make you happy.*

Atanquesta also has gerunds which have similar qualities: not inflected for tense, number, or person (however, can receive possessive pronominal suffixes, of which later in the book), can be inflected for case, and can stand in sentences as subjects or objects of other verbs.

In primitive/consonantal verbs the gerund is formed by adding the suffix **-ie** to the stem of the verb: *mat - matie “eating”; nor - norie “running”.*

If the verb is an A-verb:
- if its stem is ending in **-ta** then the gerund is formed by adding **-ie**: *orta - ortie “lifting” raita - raitie “smiling”*
- if its stem is ending in **-ya** or **-a**, the gerund is formed by adding **-re** to the stem: *narka - narkare “rendering, tearing”, karpa - karpare “talking”, telya - telyare “finishing” anya - anyare “reaching”. If the resulting words have three short syllables then the -a- is lengthened: hora - horáre “waiting”*

If the verb is an U-verb, then the gerundial suffix is **-ye**: *kelu - keluye “flowing, streaming”*

The gerund can be inflected for case. E.g. *I nosse hára se i paluhta i ahtumat matien. “The family is sitting at the table to eat (lit. for the eating) dinner.” Matiello autienna senna i lúme. “Time is short from eating till leaving.”*

As discussed in the section on the genitive case, the genitive of gerunds ending in **-ie** is **-io**.

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23 which is basically the same suffix as **-ie** but written with a different spelling
Numbers

Numbers: Fractions

Fraction numbers in Atanquesta use the fraction suffix -sta (which is related to the noun asta “division, part; month”), sometimes reduced to -ta. Some examples: peresta\(^{24}\) or perta “one half” nelesta or neldesta “one third” kanasta or kasta “one fourth, a quarter” kaista “one tenth” etc.

Agreement and Negation

Negation: The Negative Prefixes

In Atanquesta we can find two types of negative prefix that can appear in words (mostly adjectives or nouns) to express a negative meaning.

The prefixes la-/al-/ala-; these express a generic negation: e.g. ista “knowledge” laista “ignorance”; saila “wise” alasaila “unwise”.

The prefix ú-; this can also be generic in meaning, but many times it carries a connotation of wrongness, difficulty, or impossibility: mára “good, proper, fit for a purpose” úmara “evil, sinister, bad” kalima “bright” úkalima “murky, dim”; nótimia “countable” únótima “impossible to recount, numberless”.

The old negative prefix il- which is no longer productive, can be found in the adjective/noun ilfirin “immortal” (as opposed to firin “mortal”).

Negation: The Privative Preposition

This is the preposition ú “without, not having” and it is followed by the noun (of which we’re without) in genitive: ilin “milk” ú ilino “without milk”; kala “light” Handemme i sambesse ú kalo ter anda lúme. “We sat in the room without light for (lit. “through”) a long time.”

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\(^{24}\) peresta comes from the root PER meaning “divide in middle, halve”, and not related to atta “two”
Night has arrived. Having eaten dinner, the family is gathering in the room, except Martin, who is lying in his bed. Lilla switches on a lamp, then goes to her mother. They are whispering.

‘I will light a fire’ says Marko. ‘It’s cold. I will fetch wood.’

Having been lit, the fire illuminates the room with an orange light.

‘What kind of wood is that? I love the smell!’ asks Lilla.

‘Beech.’

‘Daddy, I want to come with you to your work tomorrow. I’d like to see that house being built.’

‘I see that you want to do away my sadness’ smiles Marko. ‘Okay. But I suppose you will not stay through the whole day?’

‘I won’t. Mum will be waiting for me at home, because her sister is coming in the evening. I will help her clean the house.’

‘And will you have time for your study?’

‘Yes. Having cleaned, I will go to my friend’s house, several friends will be there, we will study together.’

Marko leans back and closes his eyes.

‘My head hurts’ he says. ‘Will you fetch me a glass of ice cold water please?’
Vocabulary

lóme noun “night”
hosta- verb “gather, collect, pile up, assemble”
hequa adverb “except, not counting”
narta- verb “kindle, light something”
kalma noun “lamp”
hlussa- verb “whisper”
náre noun “fire”
ringa adjective “cold”
toa noun “wood (as a material)”
kalya- verb “illuminate”
kuluina adjective “orange, golden orange (in colour)”
kále noun “light”
tatalla- verb “admire, marvel at, esteem, value”
olme noun “odour, smell”
ferne noun “beech tree, beech”
nan- prefix “back-, backwards, against”
nankar- verb “undo, destroy”
quíta- verb “suppose, guess”
marre adverb “at home”
nésa noun “sister”
tanome demonstrative pronoun, adverb “there, in that place”
*nantalta- verb “lean back”
nwalya- verb “torment, cause pain, hurt”
helka adjective “icy, ice-cold”

Grammar

Nouns

Nouns: Suffixes: Possessive Pronominal Suffix

The possessive pronominal suffix is similar to (and related to) the verbal pronominal suffix (-nye/-lye/-sse etc.), with the difference that the possessive suffix is used with nouns or words functioning as nouns (such as gerunds). In their function they correspond to the English possessive pronouns my, your, his, her, its, our, their.

In Atanquesta the possessive pronominal suffix comes in singular, plural, and dual flavours.

In 1st person singular (“my”) the suffix is -nya. If the noun ends in a consonant, -nya is connected to the noun with the connecting vowel -i-. Koanya “my house” atarinya “my father” Matienya illume ruhta Lilla. “My eating always terrifies Lilla.”

In 2nd person singular (“your”) the suffix is -lya (polite) or -tya (familiar). If the noun ends in a consonant, the connecting vowel is -e- (as it is in all the other persons except the 1st person singular). Koalya “your house” ataretya “your father”
In **3rd person singular** (“his/her/its”) the suffix is **-rya**. The suffix is not gender-specific. In colloquial speech sometimes it is simplified to **-ya**. *Koarya* “his/her/its house” *atarerya/atarya* “his/her/its father”.

In **1st person plural** (“our”) the suffix is **-lva** if the meaning is inclusive (“ours including you”) and **-lma** when the meaning is exclusive (“ours but not yours”). *Koalva* “our house” *atarelma* “our father”.

In **2nd person plural** (“your”) the suffix is **-lda**. *Koalda* “your house” *atarelda* “your father”.

In **3rd person plural** (“their”) the suffix is **-nta**. *Koanta* “their house” *atarenta* “their father”.

If the possessed thing is in plural or dual, the plural/dual marker follows the possessive suffix: *koanyar* “my houses” *atarelyat* “your two dads”.

The **dual** possessive suffixes are used when there are two possessors: “of we two, of you two, of them two”.

The **1st person dual** suffix is **-ngwa** if it is inclusive (“ours = yours and mine together”) and **-mma** when exclusive (“of the two of us but not yours”). *Koamma*, *atarengwa*.

The **2nd person dual** (“of the two of you”) suffix is **-sta**. *Koasta*, *ataresta*.

The **3rd person dual** (“of the two of them”) suffix is **-twa**. *Koatwa*, *ataretwa*.

One other part of speech that can receive possessive suffixes is the particular infinitive (see in Lesson 4). Consider the following example:

```
mat- "eat" - matita "(to) eat" - matitas "(to) eat it" - matitaryas "him eating it"
Marko entulle noa ar kenne sa Lilla mante i massa; matitaryas né umára sen. “Marko arrived yesterday and saw that Lilla had eaten the bread; her eating it he did not like.”
```

**Participles**

**Participles: Imperfect Passive**

The function of the **imperfect passive participle** is to qualify nouns (or words functioning as nouns) in a sentence. As their name suggests, they refer to an action that is ongoing and is happening to the noun they qualify (i.e. the noun is the object of the action): *The house being built is beautiful*. They can also stand in for a clause: **[While] being raised up** the children often journeyed abroad.

The suffix of the imperfect passive participle is **-aina**; when it is affixed to an A-stem verb one of the a-s is dropped: *karaina* “being made, being built”; *istaina* “being known”; *I tyavaina limpe né pasta ar lisse*. “The wine [that was] being tasted was smooth and sweet.” *Faraina i morko nurtane felkosse*. “Being hunted the bear hid in a cave.”

These participles agree with their noun for number, i.e. when standing with a plural noun their final a changes to e.
Participles: Perfect Active and Passive

The **perfect active and passive participles** are basically present perfect active or passive verb forms turned into participles. Some examples, with the perfect verb in bold, and the perfect participle in bold underscore: *I have left my parents' house. Having left my parents' house I never felt happier. The house has been built in a hurry. Having just been built the house already starts to crumble.*

The perfect participle is formed from the **augmentless** (i.e. without having the root vowel prefixed at the start) perfect of the verb, lengthening of the *e*, and adding -la for the active, and -na for the passive form: *kar “do, make, build” káriéla “having done, having made, built” káriéna “having been made, built”; orya “rise” óriéla “having risen”; tulta “fetch, summon” tultiéna “having been summoned”.*

It makes sense that the present passive participle can only be formed from transitive verbs (i.e. verbs that can have direct objects), thus *nor “run” nóriéla “having run” but not **nóriéna as nor in Atanquesta is an intransitive verb and cannot have objects.*

These participles agree with their noun for number.
Text

‘Meril amba piriya?’ Lilla maquéta. ‘Ta mára náse. Arya lá limpe’
‘Arkean, là amba! Penquanta nán.’ Maria aquéta, tentaila kumbaryanna. ‘Ar, manen istal ma mára limpe ná?’
‘Ta nulla’ Lilla lalea. ‘É, nangwe yúyo quante. Mal ta urda pustien!’
‘Orro! Henteanenyes!’
‘Ánin apsene. Rie merin tana lyen ma. Lá hanyanyes.’ Tenteas quentelenna i parmasse.
‘Ta naitie urda asta. Áni telya nótime quenteli, ta kenduvangwes uo.’
Lillo nostaru tırat i exa sambello. Hanne quaéra Markonna.
‘Enyalil manen paralyanengwe uo, uman? Hamalyanengwe i titta ampanosse ya atarelya akárie i nordosse ara i hahta.’
Lilla paltea veruryo kendele.
‘Karaite verunya. Menuvan i tarwanna ar leptuvan queali.’ Auteatte i koallo. Kata i sambesse parmaron eske quantea i vilya.

‘Do you want more juice?’ asks Lilla. ‘It is so good. Better than wine’
‘No more, I pray! I am full to the brim.’ Maria replies, pointing to her belly. ‘And, how do you know how good wine is?’
‘That’s secret’ Lilla laughs, ‘Indeed, we are full. But it’s so difficult to stop!’
The two girls turn back to their books. Maria is Lilla’s friend. Maria is younger than Lilla, yet they are affectionate friends. They are studying. Maria jerks her head up and grabs the book from Lilla’s hands.’
‘Oi! I was reading that!’
‘Forgive me. I just want to show you something. I don’t understand it.’ She’s pointing at a sentence in the book.
‘That is indeed a difficult part. Let me finish a few sentences, then we will examine it together.’
Lilla’s parents are watching from the other room. Hanne turns to Marko.
‘Do you remember how we used to study together, at one time? We used to sit in the small wooden house that your father made in the oak tree beside the fence.’
‘Yes. You used to bring a great amount of books, and yet you always used to read your most favourite book. But listen, I was cleaning some old shoes when you called me. I think it is possible to rescue them. They will be good when we travel to the mountains in the summer.’
Lilla strokes the face of her husband.
‘My busy husband. I am going to go to the garden and pick some veggies.’ They go out. Back in the room the rustle of books is filling the air.
Vocabulary

amba adjective “more”
pirya noun “juice”
arya adjective “better”
ar- verb “to petition, pray”
penquanta adjective “full to the brim, totally full”
tenta- verb “point to, indicate” (transitive); be directed to, be pointed to (intrans.)
kumba noun “belly”
nulla adjective “hidden, secret, obscure”
yūyo pronoun “both”
pusta- verb “stop, halt”
quer- verb “turn”
ananta conjunctive “and yet, however”
melima adjective “loving, affectionate”
rihta- verb “to jerk”
kas (kar-) noun “head”
amba, amb- adverb, prefix “upwards”
orro interjection “ugh, alas!, ow!”
apsen- verb “forgive”
tana- verb “show, indicate”
ma pronoun “something, a thing” (undefined)
hanya- verb “understand”
quentele noun “sentence, paragraph”
asta noun “part, division; month”
kenda- verb “read carefully, examine, watch”
nostar noun “parent, begetter”
uman adverb “at one time, once”
ampano noun “building, house” (especially of wood)
nordo noun “oak, oak tree”
hahta noun “fence, hedge”
úme noun “abundance, a great quantity of things”
illume adverb “always”
melda adjective “beloved, dear, sweet”
lasta- verb “listen”
yára adjective “old, ancient”
hyapat noun “shoe”
kárima adjective “doable, possible”
rehta- verb “save, rescue”
lely- verb “go, proceed, travel”
oron (oront-) noun “mountain”
lair noun “summer; meadow”
palta- verb “feel with hand, stroke”
veru noun “husband”
kendele noun “face, visage”
quea noun “vegetable”
ka, kata preposition, adverb “behind, at back of place”
eske noun “rustle”
quanta- verb “fill something”
vilya noun “air; sky”
Grammar

Verbs

Verbs: Pronominal Suffixes: Dual

Just like nouns and possessive suffixes that can be inflected in dual beside singular and plural forms, so can verbs have dual personal pronominal suffixes - obviously these are used when the verb has two subjects.

If the subject is a standalone dual noun then the verb can receive a dual marker -t; i nettet nórat “the two girls are running”. Note that use of the usual plural marker -r is equally valid (i nettet nórar).

The suffixes are as follows:

In first person dual (“the two of us”) the suffix is -ngwe if it is inclusive (“you and I”), and -mme when exclusive (“the two of us but not you”). mätangwe “you and I are eating” norimme “we two are running [but not you].”

In second person dual (“the two of you”) the suffix is -ste. mátaste “you [two] are eating” noriste “you [two] run”

In third person dual (“the two of them”) the suffix is -tte. mátatte “the two of them are eating” noritte “they [them two] run”

Verbs: Tenses: Past Imperfect

We put the verb in the past imperfect tense when we refer to a continuous action that took place in the past; in English this is expressed by was/were + -ing: I was making dinner when Marko came home. I went into the room: the children were watching cartoon on the telly.

In Atanquesta the past imperfect is formed simply by adding the past tense suffix -ne to the imperfect (present continuous) form of the verb (q.v. at Verbs: Tenses: Present Continuous): káran “I am making” káranen “I was making” henteatte “the two of them are reading” henteanette “the two of them were reading”.

Verbs: Tenses: Past Imperfect as Consuetudinal

The consuetudinal past is a fancy way of calling actions that were habitual in the past, i.e. corresponding to “used to [do something]” in English.

Atanquesta uses an old form of the past imperfect to form the consuetudinal past. This employs and old form of the present continuous suffix, -lya, and the usual past tense suffix -ne; the root vowel of consonantal verbs is not lengthened, but the
root vowel is duplicated before the -lya suffix. nor- “run” norolyane “used to run” raita- “smile” raitalyanengwe “we used to smile, you and I”.

Syntax

Syntax: Comparative and Superlative

In English (and many other languages) adjectives have distinct comparative and superlative forms which are used to express a comparison between (certain qualities of) things, or an increased intensity/quality: The Mercedes is a better car than the Trabant, but to me the Jag is the best. We’re gonna need a bigger boat. John is the brightest of all students in the class.

In Atanquesta adjectives lack this double system; instead, the language relies on different structures to express comparison and intensity.

To compare the qualities of two nouns/things/persons Atanquesta uses an expression with the comparative particle lá ‘beyond’. This is a homonym of the negative verb/particle lá (i.e. they are written and pronounced the same), and the listener/reader will have to rely on the context the understand what is meant.

The structure of the comparative expressions is A [is/are] adjective beyond B. A [ná/nar] adjective lá B. Examples: Marko ná linyenwa lá Hanne. “Marko is older than Hanne (literally: Marko is old beyond Hanne).” I ninque mindon halla lá i morna. “The white tower [is] taller than the black [one].”

If the intention is not to expressly compare two things, only to express an increased intensity of the quality we’re talking about (It is very warm today. I am looking for a bigger house. This is a most excellent offer.), then Atanquesta uses the intensive prefix an(a)- or am- before the adjective. This prefix is am- before p, n, l, and r, and an- before t, k, f, s, h, v, w, and vowels. So: halla “tall” anhalla “very tall, taller” alta “large” analta “very big, larger” pasta “smooth” ampasta “very smooth, smoother” saila “wise” ansaila “very wise, wiser”, núra “deep” amnúra “very deep, deeper” etc..

For expressing the superlative Atanquesta uses the above mentioned intensive prefix an(a)- with a genitive construction25. Thus the sweetest wine will be i limpion amlisse or amlisse limpion (literally “the sweetest of wines”), the most beloved friend will be ammelda máloron/máloron ammelda etc.

There is yet another way, to express the intensity of actions: more of that later.

25 which is in fact a partitive
It was early morning; Marko had woken up at dawn, and soon, carrying a bag, walked on the path leading from their house to the woods. Otto was waiting at the edge of the forest. They had agreed to gather mushrooms, which at this season teem among the trees.

‘Hi!’ Otto raised his hand. ‘Lovely morning. I have looked under a few trees already, spotted some huge, fat mushrooms under all of them.’

‘Super. By sunset we will have picked four bags full of mushrooms.’

They walked between the oaks, beeches, and bushes, on the soft ground, picked mushrooms, listened to birds sing from the tree-tops. Otto found a horn that an animal had shed.

‘My wife will like it’ he said. ‘I will fix it on the wall in the big room.’

‘Tomorrow morning we will meet on the field behind my house, nine or ten friends. I’m bringing a ball. Will you come?’

‘No. I will be doing something.’

‘On a Sunday?’

‘Alas! A craftsman is coming, the roof of our house is damaged. But he will finish by evening.’

‘They will have left by then. But come anyway, for dinner.’

‘Let me guess: mushrooms?’

‘What else?’ laughs Marko.

Listen to the audio
Vocabulary

Kuita- verb “wake up, awaken”
Ambaróne noun “dawn, sunrise”
Tie noun “path, road, line”
Taure noun “forest, woods”
Rima noun “edge, brink”
Komya- verb “collect something, gather”
Hwan (hwand-) noun “mushroom, fungus”
Loa noun “season, year”
Um- verb “teem, be in abundance”
Imbi preposition “among, between”
Aiya interjection “hail! greetings!”
Orta- verb “raise, list”
Mirima adjective “lovely, precious”
Haura interjection “hail! greetings!”
Tiuka adjective “thick, fat”
Undóme noun “twilight, period around sunset”
Kanta cardinal “four”
Telkonta- verb “stride, walk, tread”
Tussa noun “bush”
Musse adjective “soft”
Lir- verb “sing”
Ingä noun “top, uppermost point”
Aldinga noun “tree-top”
Tuv- verb “find, discover”
Rasse noun “horn”
Laman noun “animal”
Hehta- verb “abandon, forsake, leave behind”
Vesse noun “wife”
Panya- verb “fix, set”
Pa preposition “on (the vertical surface of), touching”
Ramba noun “wall”
Ó- prefix “together, con-”
Ókom- verb “meet, come together”
Palar noun “plain, field”
Hya conjunctive “or”
Pamba noun “ball”
Nerte cardinal “nine”
Anarya proper noun “Sunday”
Tamo noun “craftsman”
Tópa noun “roof”
Hasta- verb “mar, ruin”
Tenna preposition “until, till”

Grammar

Nouns

Nouns: Cases: Short Locative

The short locative case is a variant of the usual locative, but with the -sse locative case ending shortened to -s. This can be used in temporal expressions, i.e. related to time: Isilya “Monday” Isilyas “on Monday” hríve “winter” Sina hríves láne ringa. “[In] this winter it wasn’t cold.” But sina hrívesse would be equally correct.
Verbs

Verbs: Tenses: Pluperfect

The **pluperfect tense** is used when we talk about an action that took place before a point in the past and completed by that point; it is also called *past perfect, and* in English it is expressed with **had**: *By the time I came home Martin had already eaten his dinner.*

In Atanquesta the pluperfect form is similar to the **perfect active participle** but with the past tense suffix **-ne** added in the end (plus any other suffixes after it, such as the personal and object pronominal suffixes): **kar-** “do, make, build” **káriélane** “had done, made, built” **ista-** “know” **sintiélanede** “you had known” **mat-** “eat” **mátiélane** “I had eaten it”.

Verbs: Tenses: Future Imperfect

The **future imperfect tense** is used to express continuous actions that will happen in the future: English **will be ...ing**: *I can't come to the cinema tonight, I will be doing my homework at that time.*

In Atanquesta this is formed by adding the future marker **-uva** to the imperfect active form: **nor-** “run” **noroiluva** “will be running” **henta-** “read” **hentailuvatyes** “you will be reading it”. In the **passive** variant the imperfect passive form is the base: **tek-** “write” **tekainuva** “will be being written” **Lá hentuvan i parma si laires an en tá tekainuvas.** “I will not read the book this summer, for it is still going to be being written at that time.” However, this is rarely used in normal daily language.

Verbs: Tenses: Future Perfect

With the **future perfect tense** Atanquesta expresses actions that will be concluded by the future point the sentence is referring to, similar to English: *By this time next year you will have finished school.*

The future perfect in Atanquesta is formed by adding the future marker **-va** to the augmented or augmentless perfect form of the verb; the **e** before the **-va** suffix is lengthened. **nor-** “run” **nóriéva** “will have run” **kar-** “do, make, build” **akáriévante** “they will have made” **menta-** “send” **eménievanyes** (irregular perfect) “I will have sent it”.

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Lesson 11

Text

‘Manima parma henteal?’
Lilla orta i parma, ya netyaina lillaitea emmanen ar alte, tiuie, karne tengwainen.
‘Ongwe quenta.’
‘Ongwe quenta? Mana?’
‘I Hloirea Sikil’. Nas pà nér ye entule mardeyanna ar tuve vesseya kaita talamesse, qualin, sikil maquayasse, serkeo limbar tópar ilqua, mal i fenna pahta mityallo. Illi savir i vesse anákie inse, mal i nér apta save naite náse, ar rike amríkie tana sa vesseya uxarenka. Rafis i sikil mal ristas inse ta fire. Tanen tuvinte i sikil hloirea—
‘Ehentáienyes’ Marko mitta, arwa ulka tindeo henduryasse. ‘Meril ista man i úkarindo?’
Lilla háta i parma atareryanna, ar lalea. ‘Vá verya!’
‘Akáriel ya karuvaina?’
‘Lá hanyan.’
‘Parie, poite sambelyo…’
‘Náto. I sovuvaine yulmar nar tana alta salpasse. Sovuvanyet amna sinye.’
‘Vá, inye karuva sa. Handen ter quanta ré, optonya nwalya; mára nauva tare.’
‘Masse amya?’
‘Kennen se nore amnórie i andonna senna lúme yá.’
‘Al i armaro roa nostuvaila.’
‘Nora!’ Marko raitea. ‘Taita tulma lá tule ilya aures!’

‘What book are you reading?’
Lilla lifts the book, which is adorned with a colourful picture, and big, fat, red letters.
‘A crime story.’
‘Crime story? Which one?’
‘The Poison Dagger’. It’s about a man who comes home and finds his wife lying on the floor, dead, a dagger in her hand, blood drops cover everything, but the door is closed from inside. Everyone thinks the wife has killed herself, but the man refuses to believe that is true, and tries very hard to show his wife is innocent. He steals the dagger but cuts himself then dies. That’s how they find out that the dagger is poisoned—
‘I have read that’ interrupts Marko with an evil glint in his eyes. ‘Do you want to know who the perpetrator is?’
Lilla throws the book at his father and laughs. ‘Don’t you dare!’
‘Have you done what is to be done?’
‘I don’t understand.’
‘Studying, doing your room…’
‘Yes. The cups to be washed are in that big bowl. I will wash them closer to evening.’
‘No, I will do it. I sat all day, my back hurts; it will be good to stand.’
‘Where’s mom?’
‘I saw her running fast towards the gate a short time ago.’
‘Ah! The neighbour’s dog is about to give birth.’
‘Run!’ smiles Marko. ‘Such an event does not come every day!’

Vocabulary

netya- verb “adorn, trim”
lī-, lin- prefix “many, multi-, poli-”
laite noun “colour”
emma noun “picture”
tengwa noun “letter, sign”
ongwe noun “crime”
hloirea adjective “poisonous, venomous”
sikil noun “dagger”
pá preposition “about, concerning”
mar (mard-) noun “house, home, dwelling”
qualin adjective “dead”
talan (talam-) noun “ground, floor”
maqua noun “hand-full, group of five (similar) things; hand (colloquial)”
serce noun “blood”
limba noun “drop”
top- verb “cover, roof in”
ilqua noun “everything”
phahta adjective “closed”
mitya adjective “interior”
sav- verb “believe that something is true, in someone’s existence”
nak- verb “kill, slay; bite”
inse reflexive pronoun “herself, himself, itself (animals)”
apta- verb “refuse”
rik- verb “try, strive for, endeavour”
uxare noun “wrongdoing, sin”
rista- verb “cut”
fir- verb “die”
tanen demonstrative pronoun, adverb “that way, in that manner”
mitta- verb “insert, enter”
ulka adjective “evil”
tinde noun “glint”
úkar- verb “do wrong”
úkarindo noun “wrongdoer, perpetrator”
hat- verb “hurl, throw”
verya- verb “dare”
sov- verb “wash”
inye pronoun “I (emphatic)”
opto noun “back”
amya noun “mom, mommy”
ando noun “gate”
yá adverb “ago”
armaro noun “neighbour”
roa noun “dog”
nosta- verb “give birth to; beget”
taite demonstrative pronoun “of that sort, such”
tulma noun “event (mainly future event)”
Grammar

Participles

Participles: Future Active and Passive

The future active and passive participles qualify nouns (or other words functioning as subjects or objects, such as gerunds etc.); to English, they can be mostly translated as “[who/that] is going to, is about to, expected to, is to”. “Mr Stropp, who is going to run for Parliament this year, is a well respected gentleman.” “I have put the page numbers of the text to be read on the blackboard.”

In Atanquesta these are formed by adding the suffixes -ila (active) or -ina (passive) to the future form of the verb: mat- “eat” matuvaila “[who is] going to eat”. I matuvaila híni horaner sé i paluhta. “The children that were about to eat were waiting at the table.” I matuvaina apsa né haura salpasse. “The food to be eaten was in a huge bowl.”

These participles agree with their noun for number.

Participles: Adverbial

In the section Syntax: Comparative and Superlative I mentioned that there is one more way to express an increased intensity in Atanquesta. This refers to an increased intensity of action and is expressed by using adverbial participles.

The adverbial participle acts as an adverb in the sentence, i.e. it qualifies the verb; it signifies that the action of the verb is ongoing better, harder, with a greater effort, intensity. In appearance it is similar to that of the gerund of the verb (verb stem + -ie), but it has a lengthened root vowel, and is preceded by the intensive prefix an(a)/am. It is quite specific in use, as it basically repeats the main verb it qualifies, and together they form an intensified/comparative expression: kar- “do, make, build” kare ankórie “do [it] better, do it with more intensity” ken- “look, see” kene ankénie “look more closely, look attentively” rik- “try, strive” rike amríkie “try really hard, try harder” mat- “eat” Martin mante i yáve ammátie. “Martin ate the fruit with a great appetite/with
gusto/devoured it”. nor- “run” Hanne nóra amnórie i ostonna. “Hanne is running into town speedily/as fast as she can/by running really hard.”

Pronouns

In addition to the simple personal pronouns we got familiar with in the early chapters of the primer, I am now introducing two more personal pronouns: the emphatic and the reflexive personal pronoun.

Pronouns: Personal Pronouns: Emphatic

As its name implies, the emphatic personal pronoun is used in a sentence when the speaker/writer wants to put a specific emphasis on the subject of the verb (which would normally be expressed by the personal pronominal suffix attached to the verb); in sentences like that the emphatic pronoun acts as a full, specific subject of the verb, so the verb does not receive any pronominal suffixes, and is inflected for number only.

The emphatic personal pronouns are:
- singular: inye “I”; elye “you”; isse “he, she, it”
- plural: elve “we (inclusive)”; elme “we (exclusive); ilke “you”; inte “they”
- dual: inque “we two (inclusive)”; emme “we two (exclusive); 26 :esto “them two”

Some examples for the usage: Hanne mere vinya koa: meris elye karuva sa. “Hanne wants a new house: she wants that it will be you who will build it.” Lilla mele i parma, mal inye lá tanka. “Lilla loves the book, but myself I am not sure.”

Pronouns: Personal Pronouns: Reflexive

The reflexive personal pronoun is used as an object of a verb and corresponds to the English reflexive pronouns formed with -self/selves: myself, yourself, ourselves etc. In Atanquesta these pronouns contain the prefix im- “same” (modified depending on the second element): imni “myself”; imle “yourself (polite); intye “yourself (familiar)”; inne “himself, herself”; insa “itself; inwe “ourselves (inclusive)” imme “ourselves (exclusive); inde “yourselves”; inte “themselves”. Hanne tîra inse i kilintillasse. “Hanne is watching herself in the mirror.” Áme ulya inwen limpe! “Let’s pour [to] ourselves [some] wine!”

26 the dual 2nd person form (“you two”) is not known, but could be something like *ilde
27 a famous example of the emphatic pronoun is in the poem Namârie “…nai elye hiruva” “I hope it will be you who find [Valimar]”
Nouns: Suffixes: Privative

We have seen earlier that the privative preposition ú means “without something” and is followed by the noun in genitive. Atanquesta has also two suffixes that provide a similar meaning “without, -less”; these are -enka and -lóra. E.g. alasse “joy” alassenka “joyless”; óma “voice” ómalóra “voiceless”.
Lesson 12

Text

Elenyo arin né; Lilla eméniélane as nilderya i ostonna. Marko tárane sé i fenna tirila i netti pata i mallesse, Maria hilyala nó Lilla, íre Hanne tulle minna i sambe, kenedelya aqua ninque, ha ampe Marko.

‘Mana nwarea lye?’ maquentes.
‘Martin neme laiwa.’
‘Manen?’
‘Nas lange ninque, ar lá mere mate.’
‘Noa mantes?’
‘Rie titta. Mal i híni mante imma ve i alanwar, ar rie Martin ná laiwa sí.’
‘Ar nó noa?’
‘Tá mante ammátie. Mal noa epe ahtumat appanen kaserya ar nemnes lauka. Ar sí úra nas.’
‘Antanel ma Martin?’
‘Ambamenuvan Martinna ar lemyuvan óse lan serilye titta. Nemil ninque lá Martin.’
‘Apan. Epe i ajar oantie karuvan i apsa. I sulpa tensi karinwa. Nai tuluva i ajar rongo!’
‘Etékiel sen sa i nyelle rúkina?’
‘Ná. Tonuvas.’

It was Saturday morning; Lilla had gone to town with her friend. Marko was standing at the door watching the girls walk down the road, Maria following after Lilla, when Hanne came into the room, her face totally white, which worried Marko.

‘What is gnawing at you?’ he asked.
‘Martin looks ill.’
‘How?’
‘He is very pale, and does not want to eat.’
‘Did he eat yesterday?’
‘Only a little. But the children ate the same thing as the adults, and only Martin is sick now.’
‘And before yesterday?’
‘Then he ate very well. But after dinner yesterday I touched his head and it seemed warm.
And today it’s hot.’
‘Did you give Martin something?’
‘I have not given him anything until now. I have sent a message to the doctor. He replied that he would come in a short time.’
‘I will go up to Martin and will stay with him while you rest for a bit. You look paler than Martin.’
'All right. After the doctor’s gone I will prepare the food. The soup is already done. I wish the doctor arrived soon!’
‘Have you written to him that the bell is broken?’
‘Yes. He will knock.’
‘Good. That bell is useless. I will get another one after the weekend.’ Marko turned to his wife. ‘Don't be afraid. Martin will get his health back before the sun rises on Monday.’

Vocabulary

- **Elenya** proper noun “Saturday”
- **hilya** verb “follow”
- **nó** preposition “before (in time), behind (in space)”
- **minna** preposition “into”
- **aqua** adverb “totally, fully, absolutely”
- **ninque** adjective “white, pale”
- **nem** verb “seem, appear to be”
- **laiwa** adjective “ill, sick”
- **nwara** verb “gnaw”
- **manen** interrogative “how”
- **titta** adjective “small, little”
- **imma** pronoun “same, same thing”
- **alanwa** adjective, noun “adult, fully grown”
- **appa** verb “touch with hand”
- **lauka** adjective “warm”
- **úra** adjective “hot”
- **anta** verb “give”
- ***aiqua** pronoun “anything”
- **menta** verb “send”
- **tenka** noun “letter, epistola”
- **aþar** noun “physician, doctor, healer”
- **epe, apa** preposition, prefix “after (in time), before, in front of (in space)”
- **óse** pronoun “with him, with her”
- **lan** conjunctive “while”
- **ser** verb “rest, repose; reside temporarily”
- **apsa** noun “food”
- **karinwa** adjective “done, completed, finished”
- **nyelle** noun “bell”
- **ton** verb “knock”
- **alwara** adjective “useless”
- **metta** noun “end”
- **þorya** verb “fear, be afraid, be terrified”
- **tanka** adjective “fixed, firm, sure”
- **kam** verb “receive”
- **Isilya** proper noun “Monday”

Grammar

Syntax

Syntax: Expressing Objects By Word Order

In English, if a verb has a direct and an indirect object present at the same time in a sentence, it is possible for both objects to remain uninflected, with only the word
order showing which one is which (indirect underlines, direct object in bold): *I sent Mary a letter*. Adam lent *John* a book. *I gave Billy a piece of my mind*. The same syntactic structure is possible in Atanquesta, but with a difference. Here **it is the indirect object** (the recipient of the action, the beneficiary, usually a noun or an emphatic pronoun) **that comes second after the direct object**: *Antanen parma Marko*. “I gave *Marko* a book.” *Akärien si koa elve*. “I have made you this house (and not someone else).” If the indirect object, however, is a simple nonemphatic pronoun, then it is kept close to the verb and it comes first: *Nyaruvan tye quenta*. “I’ll tell you a story.”

Of course it is also possible and grammatical to put the indirect object in dative in which case the word order does not matter as its role will be obvious: *Antanen Markon parma*.

**Syntax: Optative Expressions**

Optative expressions or sentences are ones that express a wish, a hope, a possibility one would like to become true: *I wish that... May it be that... If only it were that...* etc. In Atanquesta there are two ways to construct sentences like that:

- With the optative particle *nai*. This translates to “be it that” and is followed by **the verb in future tense**. *Nai Otto tuluva enar!* “I wish that/be it that Otto comes tomorrow!”
- With the imperative form of the copula ná- which is *na*. This can be used similarly to *nai*, with the verb in future tense (*Na Otto tuluva enar!*), but it can also be used with adjectives: *Síra merende: na almárie aureldar!* “It is a festival today: your days be blessed!”.

**Participles**

**Participles: Perfective**

The **perfective participle** is related to the passive participle, but it implies that the action has been carried out to its completion, fully finished. The suffix is **-nwa** (or **-nwe** if the noun is plural) which connects to consonantal stems via the connecting vowel i. Examples: kar “make, do” karia passive ppl “made, done” karinwa perfective ppl “fully made, finished, completed”; also ala- “grow” alanwa “fully grown, adult”; ista- “know” istanwa “known, ascertained, fully recognized”.

**Syntax**

**Syntax: Space and Time: Before and After**

In English, the terms **before** and **after** can refer to relationships both in space (before = in front of; after = behind), and time (before = preceding, happening earlier, after =
following, happening later than). Quenya as similarly has space and time relations interlinked, but here the relationship between space and time is reversed; so what's before in time = behind in space, and what's after in time = before in space.\footnote{This is due to the Elvish concept of past and future: the Elves are facing the future, time moving past them, therefore what's 'behind' them in space has happened 'before' in time, and what's 'before' them in space, will happen 'after' in time.}

Atanquesta expresses these relations using prepositions:

- **nó** “before (in time), but behind (in space)”
- **epe/apa** (also as prefixes **epe-/apa-**) “after (in time), but before, in front of (in space)”

**Syntax: Noun Clause and Relative (‘which’) Clause**

Here we discuss two types of complex sentences which often occur; both types of complex sentence contains a main clause (the main statement of the sentence) and a dependent clause (which provides additional information to the main statement).

**The noun clause.** In this type of complex sentence, the entire dependent clause is the object of the verb in the main clause. The two clauses are connected by the conjunction **that**. I told him that he should clean his room. Here, the entire clause he should clean his room is the object of him main verb told (because that's what I told him). Otto showed me that cooking pasta is easy. The journalist reported that hostilities had broken out in Middle East.

In Atanquesta noun clauses are formed using the conjunction **sa**. Merin sa Otto lemya tenna lôme. “I want that Otto stays until night/I want Otto to stay until night.” Hanne nyarne sa iye lassi alantier. “Hanne said/explained that all leaves had fallen.” Quétas sa horuvas lyenna. “He says that he will wait for you.”

**The relative ‘which’ clause.** In this type the entire main clause (the main part of the sentence before the conjunction) is actually the subject of the verb in the dependent clause (the part after the conjunction); the conjunction is **which**. The children were very noisy all day which annoyed me a lot. The main clause “the children were very noisy all day” is the subject of the verb “annoyed” (because that's what annoyed me). Lilla is very clever which makes her father proud.

In Atanquesta ‘which’ clauses use the conjunction **ha**. Lilla lange istima ha fasta atarerya. “Lilla is very learned which pleases her father.” Note that this construction could be rephrased as “Lilla is very learned and that pleases her father.” Lilla lange istima ar ta fasta atarerya. The two would essentially mean the same.
This week one more person is staying in the family’s house: Karlo, the brother of Hanne’s mother. Karlo lives abroad, and this is the first time he is in this country. Hanne has returned from the garden carrying fresh vegetables. ‘It’s raining’ she says. ‘It seems to me a storm is imminent. I think we cannot go to the town today.’

‘Oh, that’s bad’ says Lilla turning to Karlo. ‘I wanted to show you how beautiful our town was.’

‘But perhaps you can tell Karlo about the city?’ asks Marko.

‘Okay, with pleasure! Sit down beside me, Karlo.’

‘I am listening’ smiles Karlo, and sits down on a deep, soft chair.

‘Our city is very old - the first people came here thousands of years ago. It is divided in the middle by a river, and the two banks of the river are not the same: on the western bank hills stand, and on the eastern bank a plain stretches. The city centre is on the eastern bank, but across the river, on the top of a hill a castle stands where once kings lived. The castle is huge with many-many rooms, and now anyone can see them. In the town centre one finds several old, beautiful buildings, and the streets are narrow and short. But on the riverbank there’s a wide path with trees, and when the sun is shining people walk and rest there, watch the ships on the river, and the gulls catching fish from the water. To me spring is the most beautiful season, when all the trees are budding, and the air is fragrant.’

‘Marvellous’ says Karlo. ‘Something tells me I am going to like this town a lot.’
Vocabulary

**ennō noun** “person”  
**hánō noun** “brother”  
**har- verb** “sit; reside permanently” past tense **hande**  
**ettele noun** “foreign land”  
**wenya adjective** “fresh, green”  
**kelya- verb** “it rains” (impersonal)  
**raumo noun** “storm; sound of storm”  
**uv- verb** “be imminent, be upon someone”  
**ek- verb** “may, have a chance, have an opportunity” (impersonal)  
**urrā adjective** “bad”  
**kenasta adverb** “perhaps, maybe, perchance”  
**pol- auxiliary verb** “can, be able to (physically)”  
**holmo**29 noun, adverb “from the heart, heartily, with pleasure”  
**hamu- verb** “sit down”  
**nūra adjective** “deep”  
**enwina adjective** “old”  
**lie noun** “people, folk, persons” (followed by the verb in plural)  
**sinna demonstrative pronoun, adverb** “hither, to this place”  
**koranar noun** “year, Sun-year”  
**húme cardinal** “thousand”  
**sirya noun** “river”  
**perya- verb** “halve, divide in middle”  
**ráva noun** “(river)bank”  
**imya adjective** “same”  
**númenya adjective** “western”  
**ambo noun** “hill”  
**rómenya adjective** “eastern”  
**landa noun** “plain”  
**lat- verb** “lie, stretch, be situated (of regions, lands etc.)”  
**lá preposition** “across, beyond”  
**taras noun** “fort, castle”  
**aran noun** “king”  
**andanéya adverb** “once upon a time, long time ago”  
**aiquen pronoun** “anyone, whoever”  
**lertha auxiliary verb** “can, is allowed to, is free to”  
**kim- verb** “find, light to”  
**nótima adjective** “countable, some, few, several”  
**ataque noun** “building, large building”  
**náha adjective** “narrow”  
**palda adjective** “broad”  
**sil- verb** “shine”  
**kirya noun** “ship”  
**maiwe noun** “gull”  
**lingwe noun** “fish”  
**tuile noun** “spring (season)”  
**ilya adjective** “all, every, each”  
**tuilu- verb** “bud, open up, sprout (of plants, trees etc.)”  
**nísimia adjective** “sweet smelling, fragrant”  
**or- verb** “to warn, urge, feel an urge/wish/desire” (impersonal)

29 holmo is actually the irregular ablative of the noun hón “heart (physical organ)”
Grammar

Verbs

Verbs: Impersonal

Whenever an English sentence contains a predicate (which usually contains a verb or copula), it will have a subject (sometimes only implied, as in imperative sentences like *Come!*). There are situations though where this subject is a very generic one, usually the pronoun *it*, like in these examples: *It's raining again. It seems to me that we are in agreement.*

In Atanquesta the language deals with this sort of situations by **allowing certain verbs to appear in a subjectless, so called impersonal conjugation.** This means that the verb has no subjects, either standalone or as a pronominal suffix, so it will appear in the sentence in its bare tense form without pronominal suffixes; if the verb has a beneficiary/recipient, it will be in dative case. Here are some examples:

- *kelya-* “to rain” *Kelya.* “It rains; it's raining.”
- *niku-* “to be cold, to freeze” *Nique.* “It is cold. It freezes.”
- *nem-* “seem, appear” *Neme nin raumo túla.* “It seems to me [that] a storm is coming.”
- *óla-* “dream” *ólane sen sa wilwarin nése.* “He dreamt [lit. it dreamt to him] that he was a butterfly.”
- *mauya-* “compel, oppress” *Mauya men tuve analta lunte.* “We must [lit. it compels us to] find a bigger boat.”
- *or-* “to warn, urge, feel an urge/wish/desire” This is a special one as this verb has two possible aorist forms with slightly different meanings, *ora* and *ore.* *Ora nin lasselanta nauva vanima si loas.* “Something tells me/I have a feeling [lit. it warns me] that autumn will be beautiful this year.” *Ore nin kape alassenen.* “I would like to/it feels like/I need to leap with joy.”
- *ek-* “may, have a chance or opportunity”; *eke men tyale enar? “can we/may we play tomorrow?”* *Neme nin Anar kaluva enar; ekuva tyen moia i lotarwasse.* “Looks like the sun will shine tomorrow; you will have a chance to work in the garden.”

Verbs: Auxiliary Phrases: May, Can, Know, Must etc.

Just like English, Atanquesta has a number of verbs that are used as **auxiliaries**, i.e. verbs that our couples with infinitives to express intent, chance, possibility, need etc. Think of *I must eat, you can dance, I dare not go, etc.* We have the following in Atanquesta:

- *ek-, or-, and mauya-* were discussed in the previous section Verbs:Impersonal
- *pol-* “can, be able to (physically)” *polin teke* “I can write” (because I am healthy and nothing physical prevents me)
**ista-** “can, know (how to)” *istantekê* “I can write” (I know how to write because I have learnt it)

**ler̃ta-** “can, be free to, be allowed to” *lertantekê* “I can write” (I am free to do it, no one has permitted or prevented me)

**mer-** “want, wish, hope” *meritekê* “I want to write, I wish to write”

If you want to follow the verb with an object pronominal suffix, you’ll need to use the particular infinitive: *lertantekitâs* “I can write it”, *merîntekitât* “I want to read them”.

**Verbs: Inceptives**

**Inceptive** verbs carry a sense of the start, the beginning (the inception) of an action, a happening; in English, this sort of meaning is usually expressed by phrasal verbs such as *set out, sit down, go forth* but also by verbs like *reden* “go red”. In Atanquesta we see two types of this kind of verb:

- **U-verbs that have an inceptive meaning.** There are a few of these: *haru-* or *hamu-* “sit down” *seru-* “settle down, go to rest” *tolu-* “stand up” *koiru-* “come to life” *tuîlu-* “to bud, open (of flowers and leaves)”. As far as we know, this -u suffix is no longer productive, i.e. cannot be freely used to form inceptive verbs from other ones (on productive and non-productive suffixes see the next section).

- **The -nta suffix.** When this suffix is attached to an adjective it forms a verb with the meaning “to become, to grow [adjective]”. Our attested example is *ninque* “white” *ninquitânta-* “whiten, grow white, get pale”. This appears to be a productive suffix, so (where it makes sense) it can be used with other adjectives: *morna* “dark, black, gloomy” *mornantânta-* “darken, blacken”.

Another possibility to express this kind of meaning is to use the verb *ola-* “grow, become”: *Otto* *olante* *laikan* *mailenen*. “Otto became green with greed.”

**Verbs: Verbs to Express Situation/Location**

When the Atanquesta speaker wants to say that something or someone is located/situated somewhere, resides or lives somewhere, there is a variety of different verbs to choose from (instead of simply saying *ná* “is”), each of them fitting a particular subject or situation.

- **kim-** “find, light on, come by” is a verb that is mostly used with a general subject: *Mô kime* *andamundar* *hyarmende*. “One finds elephants in the South. = Elephants can be found in the South.”

- **mar-** “dwell, live, be settled” *Atarinya* *avânie* *mare* *vahâya*. “My father has gone to live far away.”

- **oi-** “live, pass one’s days”, present imperfect *oîa*, no aorist form, past imperfect *oiâne* “lived, was living, used to live”, perfect *oîne* “have lived”. *Koranar* *atta* yā
oianen opelesse mal sí oian ostosse. “Two years ago I lived in a village but now I live in a city.”

- **koita-** “live, have life” for general statements like *Andamundar koitar hyarmende.* “Elephants live in the South.”
- **har-** “reside, dwell (permanently)” - in its usage similar to **mar-** above
- **ser-** “rest, repose” is used when someone stays temporarily in a place; *Seruvan ontarinyaron koasse ter otsolet.* “I will stay in my parents’ house for (lit. “through”) two weeks.”
- **ham-** “sit” is said of settlements (towns, villages), buildings in general. *London hame siryo rāvassen.* “London is/lies/can be found on the banks of a river.”
- **tar-** “stand” is said of tall buildings, towers, mountains etc. *I anhalla ataque nóreo tára mi analta oston.* “The tallest building of the country stands in the largest town.”
- **lat-** “be extended, lie, stretch” is said of regions, lands, countries. *I erume Sahara láta nótime nóressen.* “The Sahara desert lies in several countries.”
Lesson 14

Text

Elena is Maria's little sister. Lilla has agreed to watch her while Maria and their parents are away. Elena is an active and talkative child; she and Lilla played in the garden but Elena got tired and they came in to the house.

'I am thirsty' said Elena.

'Me too. I will fetch some juice.'

Having returned with the cups, Lilla noticed a cloth encircling Elena's leg.

'What's that?' she asked.

'A small wound. I cut my leg when I played last week. It's already healed.'

'Be careful! You are a girl who likes running around, don't break your leg or arm.'

'Okay. But please, now tell me a story!'

'Do you know the tale about the fox and the crow?'

'No.'

'The fox was walking through the forest when he spotted the crow who was sitting on the branch of an oak tree.'

'Hail!' said the fox. The crow didn't answer. The fox looked up at the crow and saw that the bird had a big cheese in its beak. The fox was very hungry; his hunting had been unlucky for long days.'
‘Glorious crow! O beautiful among beautiful ones!’ he said in a sweet voice. ‘What an adorable creature, how shining her plume, how precious her beak, how shapely her head! How noble her appearance! Am I the only one on the forest who is able to see how praiseworthy this bird is? Oh, if only she sang a single song, I know I would name her the Queen of Birds!’

Having heard those sweet words the crow forgot all of her fears, her breast puffed up, she opened her beak—and then the cheese fell from her beak into the fox’s mouth.

‘Certainly, you have desirable plume and a shapely head,’ said the fox, ‘but where are your wits?’

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

ńika adjective “small, little”
oar adverb “away”
nyárula adjective “apt to talk, talkative”
hína noun “child”
lumba adjective “weary”
hententa- verb “spot with eye, notice”
lanne noun “cloth, tissue”
pel- verb “revolve, encircle”
telko noun “leg, trunk”
nahte noun “wound”
envinyanta adjective “healed”
tiríte adjective “watchful, vigilant, careful”
rak- verb “break”
ranko (ranku-) noun “arm”
rusko (rusku-) noun “fox”
korko noun “crow”
olwa noun “branch”
nengwe noun “nose; beak”
fara- verb “hunt, chase”
herenya adjective “fortunate, blessed, rich”
tenta adverb “up to then, yet”
alkarinqua adjective “glorious, splendid”
lisse adjective “sweet, sweet tasting”
óma noun “voice; vowel”
kuima noun “creature”
mimírima adjective “precious, exquisite”
kantea adjective “shapely, well-shaped”
nemesta noun “appearance”
erinqua adjective “single, sole”
laita- verb “praise”
linde noun “tune, music, song”
esta- verb “name something/someone”
tári noun “queen”
þosse noun “fear, dread”
súma noun “breast, chest”
tiuya- verb “swell”
panta- verb “open”
lanta- verb “fall”
anto noun “mouth”
istanwa participle “known, ascertained”
írima adjective “desirable, lovely”
handele noun “intellect, wits”
Grammar

Formative Suffixes

Formative Suffixes: Definition

Formative suffixes are suffixes that when attached to a word, they form a new word with it, with a new meaning, usually a new part of speech: a noun out of a verb, a verb out of an adjective etc. English has them as well; for instance the -ly suffix is used to form adverbs from adjectives or participles: hotly, sparingly, attentively; the -ise/ize suffix forms verbs out of nouns: memorize, incentivize, computerize etc.\(^{30}\)

Some formative suffixes are non-productive (or, more precisely, no longer productive), i.e. we know that at some point in the history of the language they were productive, but this stopped, and the speakers no longer recognize them as formative suffixes and do not use them to form new words. An example for this in English is the old adverbial suffix -s, which appears in some old adverbs still very much in use - always, forwards, needs must etc. - but are no longer recognised as such. Other formative suffixes are still productive and in use - see the example computerize in the previous paragraph.

Formative Suffixes: Nominal

These suffixes form nouns. Examples:
- sse: karpa- “talk, speak” karpasse “full organized language, including system, vocabulary, metre, etc.”; tengwa “letter, tengwa” tengwasse “alphabet”
- ie aran “king” aranie “kingdom” fir- “expire, die” firie “death” morna “dark, black” mornie “darkness”

Some of them are explicitly used to form nouns out of verbs:

\(^{30}\) English is a very flexible language and nouns can often be turned into verbs without any change to them, often resulting in curious things like to action something
-sta/-ste (not to be confused with the -sta ending of fractions, and there is also a -sta abstract noun suffix): nem- “seem, appear” nemesta “appearance”; tul- “come” tulusta “arrival, advent” mer- “want, wish” meresta “intention”

-nde: arka- “pray” arkande “petition, prayer”; mitta- “insert, enter” mittande “insertion, intrusion, infixion”

-le/re/me: fara- “hunt” farale “hunting, a hunt” laita- “to praise” laitale “praise” ninquitा- “whiten something” ninquitáre “whitening, whitewashing” nir- “press, force, will”

Agental suffixes. These form nouns from verbs denoting the agent, the “doer” of the action, like the English -(e)r suffix in words like carver, hunter, seer etc.

-indo/-inde a male and female agental suffix, respectively. E.g. kol- “carry, bear” kolindo “bearer”
-r(o): onta- “beget” ontaro “parent, begetter”; ohta- “make war, fight” ohtar “warrior”; sana- “think, reflect” sanar “mind, thinker”

-mo: kirya- “sail” kirymo “mariner, shipman”; nôle “wisdom” tir- “watch, heed, guard” tirmo “watcher”

Formative Suffixes: Adjectival

As the name implies, these suffixes form adjectives.

-ea: This is a fairly general and frequent suffix, seen in many Quenya adjectives that either were formed from primitive roots during the development of the language from its more archaic predecessors, or are newer formations more transparently coming from other words. Just a few examples: eressa “lonely” (eresse “loneliness, solitude”); lossea “snowy white” (losse “snow”); taurea “forested, having woods” (taure “forest, woodland”); kantea “shapely” (kanta “shape”). The various formative suffixes can also follow one another, forming new words, as in fara- “hunt, chase” (verb) -> faraste “(a) hunt, chase” (noun) -> farastea “‘of the chase’, (habitually) hunted”

-inqua: This suffix means “full of, completely, -some”; our two attested examples are alkarinquа “glorious, full of glory” (alkar “glory, radiance”), and erinquа “single, alone” (er “one, alone”).

-enka, -lóra: we discussed these in lesson 11; these privative suffixes form adjectives meaning “-less, without”; alda “tree” aldalóra “treeless”

Verbal adjectival suffixes. These are specifically used to form adjectives from verbs.

-(l)ima: This suffix conveys the meaning of ‘possible, capable, -able, -ible’. When it is attached to an A-stem, it can be -lima or -ima: istalima “knowable, ascertainable”; ortalima “able to be raised”; tultaima “sendable”. If the verb is a consonantal/primitive verb, the sundóma (root vowel) is lengthened: kol- “bear, carry” kólima “bearable, light” káríma “doable, possible” kénima “visible” mátima “edible”.

-ite: This adjectival suffix carries a more generic meaning, a quality related to the action represented by the verb. If this suffix is attached to a consonantal verb, a duplicated root vowel appears before it; if the root vowel is a then it is duplicated as a, if it is o, then it is duplicated as o, if u the it becomes o or u, if it is e or i, then due to its
connection with the \( i \) of -ite the two will merge to \( i \). These adjectives often (but not always) have an ‘extended’, metaphorical meaning related to the original verb. Examples: \( kar- \) “make, do” \( karaite \) “active, busy”; \( kol- \) “bear, carry” \( koloite \) “capable of bearing, tolerant, enduring”; \( kuv- \) “hide” \( kuvoite \) “hiding, secretive, treacherous”; \( yul- \) “drink” \( yuluite \) “drinking (as a habit), aquatic” \( tir- \) “watch, guard, heed” \( tirite \) “watchful, vigilant”. With A- and U- verbs the ending is simply attached to the stem: \( nüta- \) “sink, descend” \( nütaite \) “naturally lowering, degrading”. Sometimes we see an extended version of the suffix, as in \( tulamaite \) “likely to come, probable” from \( tul- \).

-ula: This suffix means “apt to do, likely, has a tendency to”, and examples are \( mat- \) “eat” \( mátula \) “edacious”, \( nyar- \) “talk, relate, tell” \( nyárula \) “apt to talk” \( kuv- \) “bend” (this is a homonym of \( kuv- \) “hide” seen in the previous paragraph) \( kuvula \) “flexible, pliant”.

Again, these suffixes can be part of a ‘chain’ as in \( kar- \) “make, do” -> \( karaite \) “active, busy” -> \( karaitie \) “activity, business” -> \( lakaraitie \) “laziness, inactivity”.

Formative Suffixes: Causative Verbal

Here we talk specifically about a suffix that makes verbs out of adjectives. Causative means to have a meaning of ‘make something to do something, make something happen’. The suffix is -\( ta \), and we have three attested examples that suggest that this suffix can be productive: \( vinya \) “new” \( envinyata \) “renew, heal, make new again” (\( en- \) as a prefix means “re-, again”); \( tanka \) “sure, firm” \( tankata \) “make fixed, make firm, confirm”; \( ninque \) “white” \( ninquita \) “whiten, make white”.

A Note On Formative Suffixes

Quenya is a language that is in many ways similar to real-life agglutinative languages: the pronominal suffixes, the way pre- and suffixes and markers can be attached one by one to core words to modify and extend them etc. Also, the relative abundance of attested examples of the formative suffixes we have just discussed suggests that these are productive and could be considered to be part of the usual conjugation of verbs or nouns or adjectives. What this all points to that it is perfectly grammatical in Atanquesta to take a verb for example, and create an adjective from it using the suffix -\( ima \) or -\( ula \) or -\( ite \), as long as the meaning of the newly formed word makes sense, like \( naina- \) “lament” *\( nainalima \) “lamentable, regrettable” (with the asterisk we mark the word as unattested, theoretical, newly formed), or \( lala- \) “laugh” *\( lalaite \) “having a humorous disposition, funny”. Nevertheless the speaker/writer must be aware that however grammatical these words are, strictly speaking they are neologisms: newly formed words created from existing words and roots using grammatical and phonetic rules as laid down by Tolkien, and are not found in dictionaries of Tolkien’s attested words. Therefore the speaker/writer must at all times think of their audience and
consider whether the words created are transparent enough in their structure and meaning to be readily understood, or require a footnote or other means of explaining the intention behind them (especially if the meaning is less literal and more metaphorical/extended). Of course, neologisms can get established in the Quenya speaking community with time, and become part of the NeoQuenya/Atanquesta vocabulary - after all, that's how real life languages work and evolve all the time. But all this is part of a much wider, ongoing discussion about NeoQuenya and neologisms, which is outside the scope of this primer - I will point the audience to the various online fora and websites dedicated to Tolkien's languages for further information.

Adjectives: Adjectives as Nouns

In certain situations Quenya adjectives can act as nouns in sentences, in which case they are declined as nouns (form their plurals as nouns, can be inflected for case etc.). A famous attested example is *A vanimar, vanimálion nostari* “O beautiful ones, parents of beautiful children” where the adjective *vanima* “fair, beautiful” acts as a noun and receives a plural or a partitive plural ending just like any noun would, as opposed to being pluralised as *vanime*, as a normal adjective would be.
Lesson 15

Text

Síra merende ná, i alanwar lá moiar, i híni lá parír. Maria ar Elena yúyo tuller mardetollo as Lilla tyalien. Marko ambaménie samberyanna. Mernes titta aquapahtie. Hanne mitta i koa, kendelrya karanyaina.

‘Lange vailima ova’ quétas, ‘mal vanime laiti! Melin lasselanta.’

‘Nalye maita?’ Lilla maquéta.

‘Náto! Yalle nauro.’

‘Tultuvan lyen matta yo yulda, qui tyalil aselve Tana Yo Intya.’

‘Tá, qui váquétuvan, maita lemyuvan?’ Ialea Hanne.

‘Mekiiin’ Maria ar Elena quétar uo.

‘Aþa, aþa! Masse atarelya, Lilla?’

‘Samberyasse.’

‘Ma kóras?’

‘Quila quetuvanesse nin íre oantes, istuvanenyes...’

Hanne autúka kollarya ar hamua.

‘Manen mo tyale tana tyalie?’

‘Tyalindo tára epe i exi ar sana pá quetta. Tá mauya sen tana i quetta exi mal ómalóra; lertas tana rie máryanten. Lertas terhate i quetta astannar ar tana i ostar ve quante quettar.’

‘Tana tyalie kesya ni’ raitea Hanne. ‘Mal ké na minya, Lilla. Qui inye nauva minya loikáruvan!’

Lilla tolua, ar tára epe i exi. Taiteas lepetas.

‘Erya quetta.’ quéta Maria.

Lilla si taitea lepetas ar lepende.

‘Asta atta.’ quéta Hanne.

Lilla ortea lepetarya ata.

‘Minya asta.’

Lilla ortea quáre ar nambea kaserya.

‘Sarda.’

Lilla tana “lá” mánen.

‘Ondo!’ yála Elena.

Lilla ríka mquaryar tana “kenasta”.

‘Ma ovéa, tanka nán’ Hanne quéta. ‘Áme intya i attea asta, tá kénai intyuvan yú i minya.’

Lilla ortea leper atta.

‘Attea asta.’ Elena quéta.

Lilla ortea márya ar tenteas súmaryanna.

‘Hón!’ quéta Maria. Lilla kukumba.

‘Ondo ar hón, mana ta?’

Lilla ortea kambarya.

‘Sí i quanta quetta’ Hanne quéta. Lilla ortea kaserya tárienna. Quérasses oo, ta taitea rankorya ar tana paltarya i exînñar.
‘Apta, váquete’ quéta Maria.
Hanne palpa estirnerya. ‘Istanyes: sinkahonda!’
‘Náto’ lálea Lilla.
‘Quila tanúvanel i quanta quetta yestasse, intyaniévanyes lintie’ quéta Elena. Maria raitea ar palta nésaryo finde.

Today's a holiday - the adults don't work, the children don't study. Maria and Elena both came from their home to play with Lilla. Marko has gone up to his room. He wanted a little privacy. Hanne enters the house, her face reddened.
‘Very windy outside’ she says, ‘but beautiful colours! I love the autumn.’
‘Are you hungry?’ asks Lilla.
‘Yes! Like a wolf.’
‘I will bring you food and drink, if you play with us Show and Guess.’
‘So, if I refuse, I will stay hungry?’ laughs Hanne.
‘Pleeease’ Maria and Elena are saying together.
‘Okay, okay! Where is your dad, Lilla?’
‘In his room.’
‘What is he doing?’
‘If he had told me when he left, I would know…’
Hanne pulls off her coat and sits down.
‘How does one play that game?’
‘A player stands before the others and thinks of a word. Then the player has to demonstrate the word to the others, but without a voice; she can only show with her hands. She is allowed to break up the word into parts and show the parts as whole words.’
‘That game is interesting to me’ smiles Hanne. ‘But perhaps be the first, Lilla. If I go first I will make a mistake!’
Lilla stands up, and stands in front of the others. She extends an index finger.
‘A single word’ says Maria.
Lilla now extends an index finger and a middle finger.
‘Two parts’ says Hanne.
Lilla raises her index finger again.
‘First part.’
Lilla raises her fist and is beating her head.
‘Hard.’
Lilla is indicating “no” with her hand.
‘Rock!’ cries Elena.
Lilla is twisting her hand showing “maybe”.
‘Something similar, I am sure’ says Hanne. ‘Let’s guess the second part, then maybe we’ll figure out the first part as well.’
Lilla is raising two fingers.
‘Second part’ Elena says.
Lilla is raising her hand and points at her chest.
‘Heart!’ says Maria. Lilla nods repeatedly.
‘Rock and heart, what’s that?’
Lilla is lifting her cupped hand.
'Now the whole word' says Hanne. Lilla lifts her head high. She turns away, then extends her arm and is showing her palm towards the others.
'Refuse, deny' says Maria.
Hanne slaps her forehead. 'I know: heart of stone, flint-hearted!'
'Indeed' laughs Lilla.
'If you would've shown the whole word at the beginning, I would've guessed it quickly' says Elena. Maria smiles and strokes her sister's hair.

Listen to the audio

Vocabulary

**merende** noun “festival, holiday”
**moia-** verb “work, labour”
**aquapahtie** noun “privacy”
**karanya-** verb “redden, become red”
**vailima** adjective “windy”
**mel-** verb “to love”
**lasselanta** noun “autumn, fall (season)”
**yalle** relative pronoun “as, (just) like, in the same way as”
**nauro** noun “wolf”
**qui** conjunctive “if”
**intya-** verb “imagine, guess, suppose, devise”
**váquet-** verb “refuse, deny”
**tuk-** verb “pull, draw”
**tyalindo** noun “player”
**sana-** verb “think, reflect on”
**ómalóra** adjective “voiceless”
**terhat-** verb “break apart, break asunder”
**kesya-** verb “cause interest”
**loi-** prefix “mis-”
**loikar-** verb “make a mistake, do it wrong”
**tolu-** verb “stand up”
**lepetas** noun “index finger”
**taita-** verb “extend, prolong”
**erya** adjective “single”
**lepende** noun “middle finger”
**quáré** noun “fist”
**namba-** verb “to batter, hammer, beat repeatedly”
**sarda** adjective “hard (as a material)”
**ondo** noun “rock; stone as a material”
**rik-** verb “twist”
**ovéa** adjective “similar, alike”
**kénai** adverb “perhaps, maybe, if it be that”
**leper** noun “finger”
**hón** noun “heart (as a physical organ)”
**kukumba-** verb “nod repeatedly”
**tárie** noun “height”
**palta** noun “palm of hand”
**apta-** verb “deny, refuse”
**estirne** noun “forehead”
**sinkahonda** adjective “flint-hearted”
**lintie** adverb “quickly”
**finde** noun “hair”
Grammar

Verbs

Verbs:Tenses:Past Future, Past Future Perfect

Verbs are put in the **past future** tense when the action was planned/intended to be carried out in the future. It corresponds to the English past future as expressed as “was/were going to...”, “would...”, for example **I was going to study** yesterday but then I fell ill. Peter asked Maria what her plans were for the evening, and she said **she would stay home** and watch movies accompanied by a bottle of red.

Similarly, the **past future perfect** refers to actions that were originated in the past and would have ended by some time in the future (relative to the past of the sentence) - actually, the **would have ended** in this sentence is an example of this tense.

In Atanquesta the past future is formed by attaching the past suffix **-ne** to the future form of the verb. If that ends in **-uva**, then the **a** is lengthened: **kar-** “do, make” **karuváne** “was going to do/make, would do/make”; **fara-** “hunt, chase” **faruváne** “was going to hunt, would hunt”. If the future ends in **-auva**, as in causative ta-verbs (see the section on future tense), then the lengthening does not occur (because there is now a diphthong in the antepenultimate syllable, making it long): **tulta-, tultauvane**

In the past future perfect first the verb is put in its **perfect form**, then the future suffix **-va**, and for reasons of stress the **e** of the perfect suffix gets lengthened; subsequently the past suffix **-ne** is attached to it: **kar-** “do, make” **(a)kariévane** “was going to have done/made, would have done/made” **ola-** “grow, become” **olóliévane** “would have grown, would have become”.

The past future and past future perfect tenses can also be used to express various degrees of probability in conditional mood; see in the next section.

Syntax

Syntax: Uncertainty and Conditional

In communication we often need to express various degrees of uncertainty of an action happening, or describe conditions (“if - then”). Consider these examples in English:

*Maybe I’ll go to the town tomorrow.*
*If you come with me I’ll also go to the town tomorrow.*
*If you came with me I would go to the town tomorrow.*
*If you had come with me I would have gone to the town.*

---

31 see the section on Stress in Lesson 0
Atanquesta employs two main ways of expressing the various degrees of uncertainty in sentences: a) the particles/adverbs qui “if” and ké “if, maybe”, and their various derivatives, and b) various verb tenses, centering around the future tense - which makes sense, as the future, not having happened yet, carries a degree of uncertainty on itself.

The adverbs/particles mentioned above are qui “if”, ké “if, maybe” kénai “if it be that” kenasta/kenasit “perhaps, maybe” kéla or quila “maybe not, did not, have not” ai, aike “supposing, maybe” laqui “unless”.

Let’s consider how we would construct the example sentences listed above in Atanquesta.

Maybe I’ll go to town tomorrow/I may go to the town tomorrow/I might go to the town tomorrow.

These sentences contain no condition, but express a varying degree of uncertainty; in Atanquesta we can express this by using the adverbs above, with or without future tense:

Kénai enar menin i ostonna.
Ai ké enar menin i ostonna.
Ai ké enar menuvan i ostonna.

The use of the future enhances the uncertainty in a subtle way, due to its own uncertain nature (something like the difference between may and might).

If you come with me I’ll go to the town tomorrow.

This is a simple if-then condition, no uncertainty: if you come, I go, too. For this reason Atanquesta uses a simple aorist in the if-clause:

Ké/Qui tulil asinye menuvan i ostonna enar.

If you came with me I would go to the town tomorrow.

This condition contains uncertainty (you may or may not come with me, so I also may or may not go); therefore Atanquesta uses a future in the if-clause and a future in the then-clause:

Ké/Qui tuluval asinye menuvan i ostonna enar. “If you were to come with me I would go...”

If you had come with me I would have gone to the town.

This was a possibility in the past, but it did not come true. Here Atanquesta uses a very idiomatic solution: a) a past future in the if-clause, b) a past future perfect in the then-clause, and c) to indicate that the condition did not come true, it either uses a ‘negative if’ quila or kéla in the sentence, or adds the negative verb lá- at the end of the if-clause (inflected for past tense, and person). So:

Kéla/quila tulúvanel asinye eméniévanen i ostonna.
or
Ké/qui tulúvanel asinye, lanel, emeníévanen i ostonna.
# Grammar Tables

## Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Partitive Plural</th>
<th>Dual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nominative</strong></td>
<td>alda</td>
<td>aldar</td>
<td>aldali</td>
<td>aldat</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lasse</td>
<td>lassi</td>
<td>lasseli</td>
<td>lasset</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maitar</td>
<td>maitari</td>
<td>maitareli</td>
<td>maitaret</td>
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<td><strong>Genitive</strong></td>
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<td>aldaron</td>
<td>aldalion</td>
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<td>lassion</td>
<td>lasselion</td>
<td>lasseto</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>maitaro</td>
<td>maitaron</td>
<td>maitarelion</td>
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<td><strong>Dative</strong></td>
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<td>aldain</td>
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<td>maitarelin</td>
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<td><strong>Locative</strong></td>
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<td>maitaresse</td>
<td>maitaressen</td>
<td>maitarelissen</td>
<td>maitaretsese</td>
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<td><strong>Allative</strong></td>
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<td>aldannar</td>
<td>aldalinnar</td>
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<td>lassenna</td>
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<td>maitarenonna</td>
<td>maitarinna</td>
<td>maitarelinnar</td>
<td>maitarentanta</td>
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<td><strong>Ablative</strong></td>
<td>aldallo</td>
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<td>aldalillion</td>
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<td>maitarello</td>
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<td><strong>Instrumental</strong></td>
<td>aldanen</td>
<td>aldainen</td>
<td>aldalínen</td>
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<td><strong>Possessive</strong></td>
<td>aldava</td>
<td>aldaiva</td>
<td>aldáiva</td>
<td>aldantha</td>
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<tr>
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<td>lasseva</td>
<td>lassiva</td>
<td>lasselíva</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maitarwa</td>
<td>maitaríva</td>
<td>maitarelíva</td>
<td>maitarehta</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verbs

Conjugated verb tenses are presented in this table with the verbs shown in the form when there is an expressed singular subject present in the sentence. Pronominal suffixes, used to mark the verbs for person, are shown in the Pronouns table below. Only the three main verb classes are illustrated; for special cases, irregular forms etc. please refer to the grammar sections in the text.

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Consonantal</th>
<th>A-stem</th>
<th>U-stem</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>General infinitive</td>
<td><em>mate</em> “to eat”</td>
<td><em>kirya</em> “to sail”</td>
<td><em>turu</em> “to master”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particular infinitive</td>
<td><em>matita</em> “to eat”</td>
<td><em>kiryaita</em> “to sail”</td>
<td><em>turuta</em> “to master”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund</td>
<td><em>matie</em> “eating”</td>
<td><em>kiryare</em> “sailing”</td>
<td><em>turuye</em> “mastering”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aorist</td>
<td><em>mate</em> “eat”</td>
<td><em>kiryaa</em> “sail”</td>
<td><em>turu</em> “master”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Imperfect</td>
<td><em>máta</em> “is eating”</td>
<td><em>kiryéa</em> “is sailing”</td>
<td><em>turua</em> “is mastering”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Perfect</td>
<td><em>amátie</em> “has eaten”</td>
<td><em>ikírie</em> “has sailed”</td>
<td><em>utúrie</em> “has mastered”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple Past</td>
<td><em>mante</em> “ate”</td>
<td><em>kiryane</em> “sailed”</td>
<td><em>turune</em> “mastered”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Imperfect</td>
<td><em>mátane</em> “was eating”</td>
<td><em>kiryéane</em> “was sailing”</td>
<td><em>turúane</em> “was mastering”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consuetudinal</td>
<td><em>matalyane</em> “used to eat”</td>
<td><em>kirilyane</em> “used to sail”</td>
<td><em>turulyane</em> “used to master”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td><em>métiélane</em> “had eaten”</td>
<td><em>kiriélane</em> “had sailed”</td>
<td><em>túriélane</em> “had mastered”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Future</td>
<td><em>matuváne</em> “was going to eat; would eat”</td>
<td><em>kiryuváne</em> “was going to sail; would sail”</td>
<td><em>turúváne</em> “was going to master; would master”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Future Perfect</td>
<td><em>mátiévane</em> “would have eaten”</td>
<td><em>kiriévane</em> “would have sailed”</td>
<td><em>túriévane</em> “would have mastered”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple Future</td>
<td><em>matuva</em> “will eat”</td>
<td><em>kiryuva</em> “will sail”</td>
<td><em>turúva</em> “will master”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Imperfect</td>
<td><em>matailuva</em> “will be eating”</td>
<td><em>kiryailuva</em> “will be sailing”</td>
<td><em>turuilluva</em> “will be mastering”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td><em>mátiéva</em> “will have eaten”</td>
<td><em>kiriéva</em> “will have sailed”</td>
<td><em>túriéva</em> “will have mastered”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pronouns

Forms marked with ∅ are presently not known.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Independent</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Simple</td>
<td>Emphatic</td>
<td>Reflexive</td>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Possessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg 1st “I”</td>
<td>ni</td>
<td>inye</td>
<td>imni</td>
<td>-nye, -n</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-nya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg 2nd polite “you”</td>
<td>lye</td>
<td>elye</td>
<td>imle</td>
<td>-lye, -l</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-lya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg 2nd familiar “thou”</td>
<td>tye</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>intye</td>
<td>-tyle, -t</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-tya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg 3rd “he/she/it”</td>
<td>se</td>
<td>sa</td>
<td>isse</td>
<td>-sse/-se, -s</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>-rya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl 1st incl. “we and you”</td>
<td>ve</td>
<td>elve</td>
<td>inwe</td>
<td>-lve</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-lva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl 1st excl “we, not you”</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>elme</td>
<td>imme</td>
<td>-lme</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-lma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl 2nd “you”</td>
<td>le</td>
<td>ilke</td>
<td>inde</td>
<td>-lde</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-lda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl 3rd “they”</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>inte</td>
<td>inte</td>
<td>-nte, -lte</td>
<td>-t</td>
<td>-nta, -lta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual 1st incl “you &amp; I”</td>
<td>vet</td>
<td>inque</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-ngwe</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-ngwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual 1st excl “we two, not you”</td>
<td>met</td>
<td>emme</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-mme</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-mma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual 2nd “you two”</td>
<td>let, tyet</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-ste</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-sta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual 3rd “they two”</td>
<td>tú</td>
<td>esto</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-tte</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>-twa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Epilogue

*Manna sí?* Where to now? You ask now with your newly found knowledge. If you are doing that, it’s a good sign; it means that the beauty and complexity of Quenya have hooked you and make you look for more.

First, let’s acknowledge that however complete the material presented in this primer may look, there are still gaps in our knowledge about how Quenya works. We have patchy information for instance, about numbers above nineteen (there is info out there but not in a coherent way), how dates are expressed; certain grammatical features are poorly attested, and of course although there are thousands of Quenya words attested, even that doesn’t come close to a “complete” modern vocabulary. This all makes writing texts in a Quenya sometimes resemble a task of writing something in an ancient language of which only a few hundred clay tablets remain from archeological digs - sometimes even those broken into hundreds of fragments, and covering a period of two thousand years during which the language constantly changed and evolved.

Also, there is still unpublished material out there, Tolkien’s hitherto unexplored linguistic essays and notes are still expected to be released in the journals *Parma Eldalamberon* and *Vinyar Tengwar* - these may add valuable pieces of information to the current gaps in our knowledge, or even make us rethink how certain aspects of the language work - Tolkien was never shy to rewrite and reimagine parts of his languages.

Having said that though, even now one can write about a lot of things in Quenya, as I hope the texts in this primer prove. Through creative use of existing features of the language, through paraphrasing, metaphors, kennings, application of formative suffixes, the agglutinative aspect of the language, one can go quite far. And then there is also the crafting of neologisms.

The creation of neologisms is outside the scope of this primer, and even within the NeoQuenya community it is often a hotly debated topic. Here I will only say that only neologisms that have been created respecting the vocabulary, the phonology and grammar patterns laid down by Tolkien will have a chance to be understood by other Quenya readers, and a chance to be accepted into the NeoQuenya vocabulary.

So *manna sí* for you if you are still intrigued? Well there is a wealth of information available out there to deepen your knowledge. Tolkien’s original writings are there to be enjoyed in his published books and the History of Middle Earth series edited by his son Christopher. You can hunt down back copies of the journals *Parma Eldalamberon* and *Vinyar Tengwar*; some of them are out of print, others may be available to order. You can visit websites dedicated to Tolkien’s languages, and read other people’s view on how Quenya works - and start formulating your own set of ideas, your own dialect. You can get familiar with the other Middle Earth languages, try to learn them as far as they can be, explore their relationships and their shared internal and external history. You can join online communities, where you can post your texts and translations, ask for advice, discuss bits that intrigue you, and of course, use the language, chat, talk. That’s what this is about, after all.
“Where would rock and roll be without feedback?” asked David Gilmour twisting the knobs on his guitar amp in the film *Pink Floyd Live in Pompeii*; and feedback is very important to me as well, so do feel free to seek me out and provide your comments and observation - I will keep maintaining this primer and adding new bits to it to my best abilities.

Resources

I recommend the following offline and online resources to get more information on Tolkien's languages - there are of course more out there; this is just a selection, ones that I am familiar with.

Books and Publications
- Tolkien's published books and writings - you can doubtless find a bibliography for a complete list

Websites
- I only give the URLs here, and only a few - perusing these excellent websites will lead you to more
  - [http://www.elvish.org/](http://www.elvish.org/) The Elvish Linguistic Society
  - [https://realelvish.net/](https://realelvish.net/) Merin Essi ar Quentelí!
  - [https://folk.uib.no/hnohf/](https://folk.uib.no/hnohf/) Ardalambion
  - [https://www.jrrvf.com/](https://www.jrrvf.com/) Glæmscrafu
  - [http://at.mansbjorkman.net/](http://at.mansbjorkman.net/) Amanye Tenceli
  - [http://sindanoorie.net/](http://sindanoorie.net/) Sindanórie

Online Dictionaries
- [https://eldamo.org/index.html](https://eldamo.org/index.html) Eldamo
- [https://www.elfdict.com/](https://www.elfdict.com/) Parf Edhellen

Online Communities
- [https://plus.google.com/u/0/communities/105957840800720660334](https://plus.google.com/u/0/communities/105957840800720660334) Languages of Middle Earth on Google Plus - a community I founded and moderate
- the Vinye Lambengolmor server on Discord, an online chat platform
- [http://www.councilofelrond.com/forum/category/6/](http://www.councilofelrond.com/forum/category/6/) The Languages section on Council of Elrond Forum