

Quenya

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Quenya is an artificial language created by the English philologist and author of “The Lord of the Rings”, “The Hobbit”, etc., J.R.R. Tolkien (1892-1973). The native language of the High Elves, Quenya was inspired by Finnish and Latin. It has nine cases (nominative, genitive, possessive, dative, allative, ablative, locative, instrumental, respective) and five verbal tenses (including the aorist, based upon the Greek tense with the same name).

1. Quenya Phonology

This document uses X-SAMPA for phonetic notation.

1.1 Vowels

Quenya has 5 vowels: **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**.

They are pronounced in the German or Spanish fashion, i.e.:

- **a** = [a]
- **e** = [e]
- **i** = [i]
- **o** = [o]
- **u** = [u]

Each of these vowels has a long version, that is denoted by an acute accent mark: **á**, **é**, **í**, **ó**, **ú** (pronounced as [a:], [e:], [i:], [o:], [u:]).

One of the most fundamental rules of Quenya phonology is:

A long vowel can never appear before a consonant cluster.

(but note: **ry**, **ny**, **ly**, **ty** do not count as consonant clusters when applying this rule; see below).

1.1.1 Diphthongs

Quenya has 7 diphthongs: **ai**, **oi**, **ui**, **au**, **eu**, **iu**, **ei**.

The last three are quite rare.

They are pronounced as follows:

- **ai** = [a:j]
- **oi** = [o:j]
- **ui** = [u:j]
- **ei** = [e:j]
- **au** = [au:]
- **eu** = [eu:]
- **iu** = [ju:]

Any other group of two or more sequential vowels cannot form a diphthong. These vowels consequently always belong to separate syllables:

oa “away” → **o-a**

tië “path” → **ti-e**

lëo “shade” → **le-o**

1.1.2 Diaeresis

In Quenya spelling in certain situations a diaeresis is used, but it makes no difference to pronunciation at all. It is simply used to denote a pronunciation that is not like the English pronunciation.

The use of the diaeresis is thus not obligatory, so that is why some authors never use it.

The diaeresis can be found on following vowels:

- final -**ë**
- the combinations **ëa, ëo**
Note: the diaeresis moves to the next vowel if the **e** is capitalized:
Eärendil
- the combination **oë** in the word **Loëndë** “mid year’s day”

1.2 Consonants

1.2.1 Single consonants

These are: **t, p, c, s, f, h, n, m, r, v, y, w, l.**

The pronunciation of most of these is easy as they correspond to the standard pronunciation of these consonants. But let’s have a look at them one by one:

- t = [t]
- p = [p]

- c = [k]: This pronunciation doesn't depend on the following vowel (e.g. as in English or French). So even though some actors say [si:rdan] for **Círdan**, it should always be pronounced [ki:rdan].
- s = [s]
- f = [f]
- h = [h]: but the pronunciation can be different when it is part of a consonant group (see below)
- n = [n]
- m = [m]
- r = [r]: it should always be a 'trilled'-r
- v = [v]
- y = [j]: consequently this letter always denotes a consonant
- l = [l]

Ancient consonants:

The precursor languages of Quenya contained the consonants **ñ** and **th**. In modern Quenya they are no longer pronounced with a separate sound but coincide with [n] and [s]. See also Quenya Tengwar.

1.2.2 Double consonants

These are: **cc**, **ll**, **mm**, **nn**, **pp**, **rr**, **tt**, **ss**.

They should be pronounced longer than their single counterparts, so it should be possible to hear a clear difference between e.g. **cc** and **c**.

1.2.3 Consonant clusters forming a unit

Even though these groups are considered units, when we want to determine the length of a syllable they count as a consonant cluster:

- **nd**, **rd**, **ld**: [nd], [rd], [ld]
In Quenya the letter **d** cannot appear by itself.
- **mb**: [mb]
Again **b** cannot appear by itself.
- **ng**: [N]
And **g** is a third letter that cannot appear by itself.
- **qu**: [kw]
This is always used instead of **cw**.
- **x**: [ks]
This is always used instead of **cs**.
- **ht**: [xt, Ct]

Following groups are also units, but they only appear at the beginning of words:

- **hw**: [Gw]
- **hl, hr**: [l], [r]
In the precursor languages of Quenya they were pronounced unvoiced, but in modern Quenya they are pronounced as ordinary **l** and **r**.
- **hy**: [C]
- **nw**: [nw]
When **nw** is found in the middle of a word is simply [n] followed by [w].

And finally a special group:

- **ry, ny, ly, ty**: [rj], [J], [L], [c]
These are slightly different as they always count as a single consonant when preceded by a long vowel, but as a consonant cluster when determining syllable length with a short vowel.

1.2.4 Other consonant groups

Quenya is very restrictive in the use of consonants as only certain combinations are allowed.

Following list contains the consonant groups that are allowed but aren't considered as a unit:

hty, lc, lm, lp, lqu, lt, lv, lw, mn, mp, my, nc, ngw, nqu, nt, nty, nw, ps, pt, rc, rm, rn, rqu, rt, rty, rs, rw, sc, squ, st, sty, sw, ts, tw.

From this list we e.g. conclude that *np* isn't allowed and has to be converted into **mp**.

These are the only consonants that can be found at the end of the word: **t, r, l, n, s**. And in the dative dual the consonant cluster **-nt**.

1.3 Stress

To know which syllable is stressed, we first have to understand the length of a syllable:

A syllable is called long if it contains:

- a long vowel
- a diphthong
- a short vowel followed by a consonant cluster

So the stress rules are:

- a monosyllabic word is stressed on that syllable
- a disyllabic word is stressed on the first syllable
exception: **avá** “don’t” is stressed on the final **á**
- a word with more than two syllables is stressed on the penultimate (one but last) syllable if it is long and on the third syllable from behind otherwise.

In these examples the penultimate syllable is short:

vestalë “marriage” → **ves-ta-le**

laurëa “golden” → **lau-re-a**

Yavannië “september” → **Ya-van-ni-e**

In these examples the penultimate syllable is long:

Elentári “Starqueen” → **E-len-tá-ri**

hastaina “marred” → **has-tai-na**

Valarauco “Balrog” → **Va-la-rau-co**

Elendil “Elendil” → **E-le-ndil**

The consonants **x** and **qu** count as a consonant cluster (**cs** and **cw**):

Helcaraxë “Helcaraxë” → **Hel-ca-ra-xë**

ciryaquen “sailor” → **ci-rya-quen**

The special consonant clusters **ry**, **ly**, **ny**, **ty** are considered consonant clusters when determining stress (see above):

Elenya “Sunday” → **E-le-nya**

These rules also imply that it is not always a syllable with long vowel that is stressed (in some languages like Swedish this is always true, so speakers of these languages have to be extra careful when stressing such words):

Úlairi “Nazgûl” → **Ú-lai-ri**

palantír “seeing-stone” → **pa-lan-tír**

2. Verbs

Quenya has 3 types of verbs. In the word list they can be recognized by the final letter of the stem:

- primitive verbs, ending on a consonant
- A-verbs
- U-verbs

Some special verbs can be found under a separate heading.

A Quenya verb has 5 tenses: Present, Aorist, Past, Perfect, Future. The verbal forms (infinitive, participle, gerund) and the imperative are each discussed under a separate heading.

2.1 Endings

To conjugate a Quenya verb is rather special because it can have subject and object endings, e.g. **hautanyel** can be decomposed as follows:

hauta - nye - l.

The verb is **hauta**- “stop”, the first ending **-nye** is a subject ending and means “I”, the second ending **-l** is an object ending and means “you”. So the translation is “I stop you”.

In the form **hautalyen** object and subject are reversed, so it means “you stop me”.

When only one ending is present it is always a subject ending:

hautan and **hautanyë** both mean “I stop”

hautal and **hautalyë** both mean “you stop”

So let's have look at the different endings:

- 1st person singular: **-n** or **-nyë** (both can be used as subject ending, only **-n** as object ending)
- 2nd person singular and plural: **-l** or **-lyë** (both can be used as subject ending, only **-l** as object ending)
- 3rd person plural: **-t** or **-ntë** (**-ntë** is always used as subject ending,

and **-t** always as object ending):

hautantë “they stop”, **hautanten** “they stop me”, **hautanyet** “I stop them”, ...

The other 2 persons are more complicated: The 1st person plural has 3 different subject endings and no object endings. So when an object is in the 1st person plural it is always a separate pronoun (see Pronouns). The 3 subject endings are:

- **-lmë**: this is called the ‘exclusive we’, because it is used when the listener is not included in the group that is meant by “we”:
hautalmë means “we stop but you don’t”
- **-lvë**: this is called the ‘inclusive we’, because it is used when the listener is also included in the group that is meant by “we”:
hautalvë means “we stop and you too”
- **-mmë**: this is used when “we” contains exactly 2 persons, so it is mostly translated as “both of us”:
hautammë “both of us stop”

The 3rd person singular also has more than one ending:

- **-s**: this ending is used as an object ending or as a subject ending when no object ending is present:
hautanyes “I stop him/her/it”, **hautas** “he/she/it stops”
- **-rye**: this ending is only used as subject ending when an object ending is present:
hautaryel “he/she/it stops you”

This is however still not all: there are also non-pronominal endings that are used when the subject is something else than a pronoun. In this case there can be no object ending, the object is thus always represented by a separate word or pronoun.

- The singular non-pronominal form is endingless: **i aran hauta** “the king stops”
- The plural non-pronominal ending is **-r**: **i eldar hautar** “the elves stop”

The plural non-pronominal ending is also used when the subject is in the dual or partitive plural:

i eldu hautar “both elves stop”

eldali hautar “some elves stop”

In the third person singular there exist two alternative endings for **-rye**- that

can express gender: **-ro-** for a male subject and **-re-** for a female subject:

tirirot “he sees them”

tiriret “she sees them”

2.2 Aorist Tense

The easiest tense is the Aorist as it is formed by the verbal stem from the dictionary and the endings we discussed before. So in fact all forms above are Aorists. It is used as an alternative present tense (see below), and so it isn't a past tense as its Greek namesake.

The formation of this tense can be seen in the next table. Only the non-pronominal forms are included as the others can be constructed by replacing the **-r** of the plural non-pronominal form with the right pronominal ending.

Note that the endingless forms have a vowel change in the Primitive verbs and the U-stems.

The Aorist Tense

	Primitive	A-stems	U-stems
<i>stem</i>	hir-	hauta-	allu-
<i>meaning</i>	<i>find</i>	<i>stop</i>	<i>wash</i>
<i>singular</i>	hirë	hauta	allo
<i>plural</i>	hirir	hautar	allur

Note that some verbs have a long vowel in the stem so their Aorists also contain a long vowel:

cúna- “bow” → aorist: **cúna**

súya- “breathe” → aorist: **súya**

móta- “labour” → aorist: **móta**

2.3 Present Tense

This tense is also called the Continuative tense. The usage and its contrast with the Aorist Tense are explained below.

The major principle behind this tense is the central vowel-lengthening. The

central vowel is the vowel in the final syllable of a primitive verb, or the vowel in the one but last syllable in a A-stem or U-stem verbs. Of course this lengthening can only happen if the syllable isn't long by itself.

Following syllables are already long and cannot be lengthened:

- a syllable with a diphthong, e.g. **hauta-** “stop”
- a syllable with a long vowel, e.g. **súya-** “breathe”
- a syllable in which the vowel is followed more than one consonant, e.g. **harna-** “wound”

Furthermore, the primitive and U-stems get an extra **-a** at the end of the stem and the final **-a** of the A-stems changes into **-ëa**. So this gives:

The Present Tense

with vowel lengthening

	Primitive	A-stems	U-stems
<i>stem</i>	hir-	cava-	palu-
<i>meaning</i>	<i>find</i>	<i>dig</i>	<i>spread</i>
<i>singular</i>	híra	cávëa	pálua
<i>plural</i>	hírar	cávëar	páluar

The Present Tense

without vowel lengthening

	Primitive	A-stems	U-stems
<i>stem</i>	miqu-	súya-	nurru-
<i>meaning</i>	<i>kiss-</i>	<i>breathe</i>	<i>grumble</i>
<i>singular</i>	miqua	súyëa	nurrua
<i>plural</i>	miquar	súyëar	nurruar

There is one verb with an irregular Present Tense: **ten-** “indicate, show”. Its present tense is formed with the stem **tëa-**:

tëan “I show”, **tëantë** “they show”, **i sairon tëa** “the wizard shows”, ...

2.3.1 Usage of Aorist and Present tenses

Most of the time both tenses can be used interchangeably. But there are a few cases in which one of them is clearly preferred:

- The the Present tense indicates duration, while the Aorist indicates a law or custom:

i máma máta salquë “the sheep is eating grass”

i máma matë salquë “the sheep eats grass”

The first sentence means something like “the sheep you see over there is at this moment eating grass” and the second sentence “sheep eat grass to stay alive”.

- The Aorist can be used to indicate an action in which the moment on which the action is performed is irrelevant:

elen silë “there shines a star”

lala “someone laughs”

- The Aorist can indicate sudden change while the Present tense indicates that a condition is true for a certain length of time:

i nér ortëa “the man is standing” (he stood there and he is still standing)

i nér orta “the mans stands” (he was sitting down and gets up)

- The Aorist can also be used to denote a custom or something recurring:

i ohtar súca sí “the soldier is drinking now”

i ohtar sucë ilya aurë “the soldier drinks each day”

2.4 Future Tense

Quenya has only one future tense, so it is used to indicate both near and distant future:

cenuvas Isil “he shall see the moon/he is going to see the moon”

This tense can be recognized by the ending **-uva**. The Primitive verbs simply add it, with the A-verbs it replaces the final **-a**, and with the U-verbs the final **-u** changes **-uva** into **-úva**:

The Future Tense

	Primitive	A-stems	U-stems
<i>stem</i>	hir-	hauta-	allu-
<i>meaning</i>	<i>find</i>	<i>stop</i>	<i>wash</i>
<i>singular</i>	hiruva	hautuva	allúva
<i>plural</i>	hiruvar	hautuvar	allúvar

The verb **quat-** “fill” is irregular as its Future Tense is **quantuva/quantuvar**.

2.5 Past Tense

It is used to denote a past action that still continues or that has finished without consequences. So it can be translated by either a Simple Past or a Present Perfect:

fautanë aqua i aurë “it snowed/it was snowing/it has snowed the whole day”

2.5.1 Regular formation

The basic ending to form the Past Tense is **-në**.

Following verbs follow the regular formation:

- A-stem verbs with a long central syllable that do not end on **-ya**:
 - hauta-** “stop” → **i elda hautanë** “the elf stopped”
 - lussa-** “whisper” → **lussanemmë** “we both whispered”
 - móta-** “labour” → **mótanelyë** “you laboured”
- U-stem verbs with a long central syllable:
 - nurru-** “grumble” → **nurrunen** “I grumbled”
- Primitive verbs on **-r**, **-n** or **-m**:
 - tir-** “watch” → **tirnes** “he watched”
 - tam-** “tap” → **tamnentes** “they tapped it”
 - cen-** “see” → **cennen i alda** “I saw the tree”

2.5.2 Primitive verbs with nasal inversion

The primitive verbs that end in **-t**, **-c**, **-p**, **-l**, **-qu** undergo the so called nasal

inversion because the **-n** of the past ending is placed before these consonants (the reason is that the clusters: tn, cn, pn, ln, cwn are not allowed in Quenya):

mat- “eat” → **mantë** “ate”
hat- “break” → **hantë** “broke”
tac- “fasten” → **tancë** “fastened”
pequ- “comb” → **penquë** “combed”

When a primitive verb ends in **p** Quenya phonology demands that **np** is changed into **mp**:

top- “cover” → **tompë** “covered”

and **nl** changes into **ll**:

wil- “fly” → **willë** “flew”

There is one final group that undergoes nasal inversion, these are the verbs on **-d**. But in modern Quenya a single **d** changes into **r**. So we have to be careful when we meet a primitive verb on **-r**, because when this **r** came from a **d** its past tense changes this into **nd** (and otherwise the past tense is regular, see above).

Following verbs belong to this group:

har- “sit” → **handë** “sat”
hyar- “plough” → **hyandë** “ploughed”
nir- “press” → **nindë** “pressed”
quir- “stir” → **quindë** “stirred”
quor- “choke” → **quondë** “choked”
rar- “peel” → **randë** “peeled”
rer- “sow” → **rendë** “sowed”
ser- “rest” → **sendë** “rested”
sir- “flow” → **sindë** “flowed”

2.5.3 Primitive verbs with vowel lengthening

The primitive verbs that end in **-v** or **-s** do not get the regular ending **-në**, but instead they get **-ë** and lengthen the central vowel:

tuv- “find” → **túvë** “found”
tyav- “taste” → **tyávë** “tasted”
sis- “fry” → **sísë** “fried”

2.5.4 A-stems/U-stems with short central syllable

These verbs can be conjugated by the regular formation, but most of the time their final **-a** or **-u** is dropped and they are conjugated as if they were primitive verbs:

capa- “jump” → **campë** “jumped” (or *capanë*)

cava- “dig” → **cávë** “dug” (or *cavanë*)

maca- “forge” → **mancë** “forged” (or *macanë*)

lala- “deny” → **lallë** “denied” (or *lalanë*)

(do not confuse with **lala-** “laugh”)

naqua- “steal” → **nanquë** “stole” (or *naquanë*)

hlapu- “blow” → **hlampë** “blew” (or *hlapunë*)

lutu- “float” → **luntë** “floated” (or *lutunë*)

These two verbs can never be conjugated by the regular ending:

papa- “tremble” → **pampë** “trembled”

pata- “rap” → **pantë** “rapped”

The verbs on **-wa** only apply in this case:

fawa- “forge” → **fangwë** “forged” (or *fawanë*)

rawa- “run” → **rangwë** “ran” (or *rawanë*)

And verbs on **-ha** are always regular:

nyeha- “weep” → **nyehanë** “wept”

Note: the central syllable in **maxa-** “cook” and **ruxa-** “crumble” is long as **x** is short for the consonant combination **cs**.

2.5.5 A-stem verbs on -ya

These verbs have two different past tenses which are used depending on whether it is used transitively or intransitively.

A verb is used transitively when it has a direct object, and intransitively when it doesn't have a direct object.

- when a verb on **-ya** is used transitively it has a regular past tense,
- when a verb on **-ya** is used intransitively its past tense is formed by dropping the ending **-ya** and conjugating it as if it were a primitive

verb.

So we have three cases:

- transitive verbs which require a direct object, these are always regular:

harya- “have, possess” → **haryanë** “had, possessed”

haryanes rocco “he had a horse”

- intransitive verbs (these cannot have a direct object), they are always conjugated as primitive verbs:

lamya- “sound” → **lamnë** “sounded”

i nyelli lamner “the bells sounded”

- transitive verbs that can be used intransitively, these verbs have two forms in the past tense:

ulya- “pour, overflow” → **ulyanë** “poured” and **ullë** “overflowed”

i nís ulyanë nén “the woman poured water”

i sirë ullë “the river overflowed”

yerya- “wear out, get old” → **yeryanë** “wore out” and **yernë** “got old”

i nér yeryanë i colla “the man wore the cloak out”

i nér yernë “the man got old”

2.5.6 Irregular Past Tenses

Some verbs are completely irregular:

anta- “give” → **ánë** “gave”

caw- “bow” → **caunë** “bowed”

ista- “know” → **sintë** “knew”

lala- “laugh” → **landë** “laughed”

lelya- “go” → **lendë** “went”

lenna- “go” → **lendë** “went”

lesta- “leave behind” → **lendë** “left behind”

lom- “hide” → **lombë** “hid”

onta- “create” → **ónë** “created”

serta- “tie” → **sérë** “tied”

ten- “show” → **tengë** “showed”

vinta- “fade” → **vintë** “faded”

Two verbs have both an irregular and a regular form:

atalta- “collapse” → **atalantë/ataltanë** “collapsed”

orta- “stand, get up” → **orontë/ortanë** “stood, got up”

The irregularities of some special verbs can be found in chapter 4.

2.6 Perfect Tense

The Perfect Tense is used to express an action that has finished but still has some consequences, so it can be used for the English Present Perfect and Past Perfect:

amátien “I have eaten” (and I am still not hungry)

nó ecénienyes, oantes “after I had seen him, he went away”

This tense is formed in the following way:

- repeat the central vowel of the verb and put it in front of it
- lengthen the central vowel, if possible
- add the ending **-ië** (**-ier** in the plural)

So we find e.g.

mat- “eat”: **amátië**

tec- “write”: **etécië**

not- “count”: **onótië**

The A-verbs and U-verbs lose their final vowel before adding **-ië**:

mapa- “take”: **amápië**

palu- “spread”: **apálië**

Verbs on **-ya** even lose both these letters:

hanya- “understand”: **ahánië**

tulya- “lead”: **utúlië**

Verbs with a central vowel that cannot be lengthened:

menta- “send”: **ementië**

nasta- “prick”: **anastië**

nurru- “grumble”: **unurrië**

When the central vowel is long, we put a short version of this vowel in front of the stem:

móta- “labour”: **omótië**

When the central vowel is a diphthong, we add the first vowel of the diphthong:

hauta- “stop”: **ahautië**

poita- “cleanse”: **opoitie**

vaita- “wrap”: **avaitië**

suila- “greet”: **usuilië**

tiuta- “fatten”: **itiutië**

When the verb starts in a vowel, we don't add an extra vowel to the beginning of the stem:

anta- “give”: **antië**

allu- “wash”: **allië**

urya- “burn”: **úrië**

2.6.1 Historical influences

A number of changes in modern Quenya seem rather irregular at first sight, when we look at the evolution from Old-Elvish to Quenya however, they can be explained. Let's look at an example:

aran / **arani** “king”

elen / **eleni** “star”

talan / **talami** “floor”

Why has **talami** an **m** in the plural? Further on in the chapter about Nouns it is said that **talam-** was the stem of **talan** and we find this word as **talan (talam-)** in the word-lists.

When we look at this word in an Old-Elvish word-list we find simply **talam**. The stem-form is thus nothing else than the original Old-Elvish form of the word and the nominative-form **talan** is the irregular one.

The reason for this irregularity is that modern Quenya no longer allows an **m** to appear at the end of a word. So during the evolution of the language this **m** turned in the nominative into an **n**, in the other cases it however remained unchanged.

So where can we find these influences from Old-Elvish? It seems there are 3 places where these influences can still be seen:

- the perfect tense (and also the passive infinitive)
- the superlative
- the stem-forms

2.6.2 Old-Elvish influences on the perfect tense

Most likely certain verbs undergo historical influences on the Perfect Tense.

The problem can be found in the prefixed vowel. Quite a few letters are allowed in the middle of a word but not in the beginning, so they have evolved differently in the perfect tense (note: the passive Infinitive shows the same irregularities as a prefixed **a-** has the same effect).

The verb **tul-** “come” has **utúlië** “has come” as perfect tense. In Old-Elvish this verb was **tul** and there is no problem here because **t** is allowed at the beginning of a word.

Verbs with **d**

Take now the Old-Elvish verbs **dant** “fall” and **dab** “allow”. The letter **d** is no longer a separate letter in Quenya, neither in the beginning nor in the middle of a word. In the evolution a **d** in the beginning of a word changed into an **l** and in the middle of a word it changed into **r**.

So these verbs evolved into the Quenya verbs **lanta-** “fall” and **lav-** “allow” (the **b** changed into **v** but here there is no problem as this letter never appears at the end of a word).

But in the perfect tense the **d** changed into **r**:

lanta- “fall” → **arantië**

If we apply this to **lav-** we get a nice consequence: Old-Elvish also had a verb **lab** “lick”. In Quenya this verb also evolved into **lav-**, but their perfect tenses have remained different:

lav- “allow” → **arávië**

lav- “lick” → **alávië**

Verbs with **mb/nd/ng**

These verbs are however not the only ones, in Old-Elvish we had verbs that began with the consonantclusters **mb-**, **nd-** or **ng-**. In Quenya these are no longer allowed in the beginning of a word, but in the middle of words they are still allowed.

The verbs **namba-** “hammer” and **núta-** “set (of sun and moon)” have evolved from the Old-Elvish stems **ndam** and **ndú**. So in the perfect tense we find:

namba- “hammer” → **andambië**

núta- “set” → **undútië**

The next verbs had originally a stem beginning with **mb-**: **mar-** “dwell” (*mbar*), **manca-** “trade” (*mbakh*), **martya-** “destine” (*mbarat*) and **masta-** “bake” (*mbas*). So we find following perfect tenses:

mar- “dwell” → **ambárië**

manca- “trade” → **ambancië**

martya- “destine” → **ambartië**

masta- “bake” → **ambastië**

The verbs beginning with **ng-** can in Tengwar script still be recognized as they are even now written with the Tengwa **ñoldo** or **ngoldo** (Tengwa 19). In pronunciation there is no difference between **ñoldo** and the normal **n** (**númen**).

At the moment we know two verbs in this category: **nol-** “smell” (*ngol*) and **nanda-** “harp” (*nganad*):

nol- “smell” → **ongólië**

nanda- “harp” → **angandië**

Verbs with **h**

Verbs beginning with **h-** can show the same problems because this **h** can have evolved from both **kh-** and **sk-**. This last combination gives in Quenya the letter **h** at the beginning of a word and an **x** in the middle of a word.

Here we have following verbs: **halya-** “hide” (*skal*), **harna-** “wound” (*skar*), **hat-** “split” (*skat*) and **helta-** “undress” (*skel*) and following perfect tenses:

halya- “hide” → **axálië**

harna- “wound” → **axarnië**

hat- “split” → **axátië**

helta- “undress” → **exeltië**

When this starting **h** appears in the combinations **hy-**, **hl-** of **hr-** then we find following forms (at this moment no verbs in **hr-** are known):

hyar- “cleave” → **aryárië**

hlar- “hear” → **allárië**

In the combination **hw-** the changes are like these:

hwesta- “breathe” → **eswestië**

hwinya- “swirl” → **iswínië**

Verbs with s

The final irregularity is found with verbs starting in **s**. This **s** can either be a pure **s** (Tengwa 29 **silmë**) or have evolved from **th** (Tengwa 9 **súlë**).

In Old-Elvish the pure **s** was the letter **z**. In the beginning of a word this **z** became **s**, but in the middle it changed into **r**.

Words with **súlë** however are not influenced (they are still written with **súlë** even in modern Quenya Tengwar).

salpa- “sip” → **aralpië**

ser- “rest” → **erérië**

sil- “shine” → **irílië**

sir- “flow” → **irírië**

suc- “drink” → **urúcië**

Other influences

A few verbs have changes to Old-Elvish forms that show under influence of the ending **-ië**:

feuya- “feel disgust, abhor” → **efévië**

mauya- “compel” → **amávië**

tiuya- “swell, grow fat” → **itíwië**

Probably all other verbs that end in a vowel + **ya** have connecting consonant **w**:

aya- “honour, revere” → **áwië**

2.7 Negation of verbs

Quenya has two ways to negate a sentence:

- when the sentence contains a verb without object ending or a modal verb with an infinitive, the verb **um-** “not to be” is preferred
- in all other cases we use the particle **lá**

*Conjugation of **um-**:*

Present Tense: **úma** (úman, úmas, ...)

Aorist Tense: **umë** (umin, umis, ...)

Past Tense: **úmë** (úmen, úmes, ...)

Perfect Tense: **úmië** (úmien, úmies, ...)

Future Tense: **úva** (úvan, úvas, ...)

To negate a verb we use the corresponding conjugated form of **um-** followed by the infinitive of the original verb:

cennen i alda “I saw the tree” → **úmen cenë i alda** “I didn’t see the tree”

With a modal verb, the negation is expressed by two consecutive infinitives:

i híni polir capa “the children can jump” → **i híni umir polë capa** “the children cannot jump”

The verb **um-** is also used to negate a sentence with **ná**:

i aran ná taura “the king is mighty” → **i aran umë taura** “the king is not mighty”

When a verb has an object ending (and thus also a subject ending) we never use **um-** because it normally doesn’t get object endings. In this case the verb form is unchanged but preceded by the particle **lá**:

hirnenyes “I have found it” → **lá hirnenyes** “I haven’t found it”

The verb **ëa** is also always negated by using **lá**:

ëa huan i coassë “There is a dog in the house” → **lá ëa huan i coassë** “there is no dog in the house”

3. Verbal forms

3.1 Infinitive

The infinitive is used after verbs that influence the meaning of other verbs.

- The verbs **pol-** “can” and **mer-** “wish, want”:

polin quetë “I can talk”

i naucor merner matë “the dwarves wanted to eat”

i seldo pollë hlarë ilya quetta “the boy could hear each word”

merin cenda i parma “I want to read the book”

- Verbs that indicate that an action starts, ends or changes:

i nissi pustaner linda “the women stopped to sing”

i neri yestaner matë “the men began to eat”

Note: the word “to” that sometimes precedes an English infinitive is never translated into Quenya.

Formation:

This is easy because the infinitive is always equal to the endingless form of the aorist:

- for A-verbs this is equals the dictionary stem: **linda-** “sing” → **linda**
- for primitive verbs we find the ending **-ë**: **quet-** “speak, talk” → **quetë**
- for U-verbs the final **-u** of the stem becomes **-o**: **palu-** “spread” → **palo**

3.1.1 Long Infinitive

One of the most distinguishing properties of Quenya is the presence of object endings. So when an infinitive takes a personal pronoun as object then the infinitive is lengthened and the object ending is added.

i mól veryanë cenë i aran ar i tári “the slave dared to look at the king and queen”

When we replace “the king and queen” by a personal pronoun this is changed into:

i mól veryanë cenitat “the slave dared to look at them”

The long infinitive is formed by adding **-ta** to the stem of A-verbs and U-verbs, and **-ita** to the stem of primitive verbs:

car- “make, do, build” → **carita-**

mapa- “take, catch” → **mapata-**

palu- “spread” → **paluta-**

The long infinitive never appears without object ending, e.g.

polin ortatas “I can lift it”

i ohtari úvar mapatat “the soldiers will not catch them”

The long infinitive can also be used with possessive endings, but this can be found in the chapter on possessive pronouns.

3.1.2 Passive Infinitive

There is a complication when we want to use an infinitive in a passive sentence. Look at the following sentence:

i naucor polir matë i apsa “the dwarves can eat the food”

The verb **mat-** “to eat” is in the infinitive because it appears behind the modal verb **pol-** “can”.

When we make this sentences passive, the infinitive gets the prefix **a-**:

i apsa polë amatë i naucoinen “the food can be eaten by the dwarves”

Verbs that begin in a vowel, get a hyphen between the prefixed a and the stem:

i corma polë a-anta atarinyan “the ring can be given to my father”

In some verbs very likely the historical stems appear when we apply the prefix:

i massa polë ambasta “the bread can be baked”

The verb **masta-** “to bake” has a historical stem **mbasta-** that reappears when a prefix is put in front of it: **ambasta**.

For more on this see the chapter on historical influences on the perfect tense.

3.2 Participles

A Quenya verb has 2 participles: the active and the passive participle.

3.2.1 Active participle

The Active participle can be used in two ways:

- as an adjective: in this case it is always put behind the noun:
i seldo mátala “the eating boy”
- as a main verb in a sub-sentence that in English begins with “while”:
mátala marin, i nér cendanë parma “while (he was) eating an apple, the man read a book”

The active participle doesn't have a plural:

i seldor mátala “the eating boys”

But it can be declined in all 9 cases because it follows the rule of the last declinable word (see the chapter on inflected adjectives):

isilmë ilclassë “in gleaming moonlight” (locative ending)

When the noun is in the plural, dual or the partitive plural the case ending of the participle is plural:

vendí lindalaiva “of singing girls” (possessive plural ending)

When an Active participle has a direct object, this object always immediately follows the participle:

nauco tírala elda “a an elf watching dwarf” / “a dwarf that is/was watching an elf”

Note: the Active participle is never used predicatively or as a noun. Instead of both these uses Quenya uses the present tense instead.

When used as a noun, it becomes a present tense preceded by the article (this corresponds to the use of the article as a relative pronoun without antecedent):

i cendëa “he/she who is reading”

i mátar “they who are eating”

Formation:

The A-stems and U-stems form their active participle by lengthening the central vowel and adding the suffix **-la**:

mapa- “take” → **mápala** “taking”
lala- “laugh” → **lálala** “laughing”
hlapu- “blow” → **hlápula** “blowing”

When the syllable of the central vowel is already long (see Present Tense), this vowel cannot be lengthened:

hauta- “stop” → **hautala** “stopping”
píca- “diminish” → **pícala** “diminishing”
nurru- “grumble” → **nurrula** “grumbling”

The primitive verbs also have a lengthened central vowel and they get the ending **-ala**:

tir- “watch” → **tírala** “watching”
hac- “yawn” → **hácala** “yawning”
mat- “eat” → **mátala** “eating”

3.2.2 Passive participle

The passive participle is in Quenya only used as an adjective as it isn't needed to form the perfect tenses. It is called this way because with a transitive verb it can be used predicatively to form the passive voice (more on this in the chapter about Syntaxis):

i atani harnainë “the collected men” → **i atani nar harnainë**

i ondo ortaina “the lifted stone” → **i ondo ná ortaina**

For an intransitive verb it can only be used with a noun and in that case it is used to denote completion of the action:

i nér lantaina “the fallen man”

From these examples it should already be clear that the passive participle has a plural form on **-ë**, in fact it behaves like an ordinary adjective on **-a** (so it also can get case endings when following its noun; see Inflected adjectives).

Formation:

The A-stems and U-stems form their passive participle by adding the suffix **-ina**. This suffix merges with the final **-a** or **-u** into the diphthongs **-ai** and **-ui**. According to the stress rules (see Phonology), these diphthongs are always stressed.

anta- “give” → **antaina** “given”
perya- “halve” → **peryaina** “halved”

mapa- “take, catch” → **mapaina** “taken, caught”

moru- “conceal” → **moruina** “concealed”

The primitive verbs can be divided into three categories:

- verbs ending on **-c**, **-p**, **-t**, **-v**, **-s** also get the ending **-ina** but in these verbs the central vowel is lengthened:

rac- “break” → **rácina** “broken”

top- “cover” → **tópina** “covered”

not- “count” → **nótina** “counted”

lav- “allow” → **lávina** “allowed”

sis- “fry” → **sísina** “fried”

- verbs in **-qu** also follow this rule, but the central vowel cannot be lengthened (and **qui** doesn't contain a diphthong as it pronounced **cwi**):

miqu- “kiss” → **miquina** “concealed”

- verbs ending on **-r**, **-m**, **-n** receive the ending **-na**:

mer- “want” → **merna** “wanted”

nam- “judge” → **namna** “judged”

cen- “see” → **cenna** “seen”

- verbs on **-l** get **-da** as ending:

mel- “love” → **melda** “loved”

Note: Verbs can also form a verbal adjective. These adjectives always denote a static condition while past participle always denote a condition in evolution:

harna- “wound”

harna “with a wound”

harnaina “wounded”

quat- “fill”

quanta “full”

quátina “filled”

3.3 Gerund

The gerund is a combination of a verb and a noun. In English it has the same form as the present participle, e.g. “walking is healthy”. The noun “walking” is called the gerund of the verb “walk”.

As an example let’s look at some Quenya sentences:

harië malta úva carë nér anwavë alya “having gold doesn’t make a man really rich”

matië ná i analta alessë ilyë Naucoron “eating is the greatest joy of all dwarves”

A gerund can also have a direct object:

hirië harma caruva nér alya “finding a treasure shall make a man rich”

tirië aiwi anta i vendin alta alassë “watching birds gives a girl great pleasure”

(note: the object of the gerund is in the nominative and not in the genitive as with a verbal noun),

and an indirect object:

antië malta i aranen ná lai manë “giving gold to the king is very good”

In all these examples the gerund replaces the subject of the original sentence, it can however also replace the direct object:

melin tirië aiwi “I love watching birds”

There is a clear difference between infinitives (see above) and gerunds, as infinitives cannot be replaced by a normal noun:

polin quetë “I can talk”

In this sentence you cannot replace talk by e.g. “nature”, because *”I can nature” is not a good English sentence. But “I love nature” is a good sentence, so **tirië** has to be a gerund, and **quetë** an infinitive.

Formation:

The ending of the gerund is **-ië**.

Gerunds of primitive verbs are made by simply adding this ending:

quet- “say, speak” → **quetië**

A-verbs and U-verbs drop their final vowel before adding the ending:

orta- “stand, get up” → **ortię**

naina- “lament” → **nainię**

Note that this form is identical to the verbal noun **nainię**. This is often the case, analysis of the context has to decide whether it is a gerund or a verbal noun.

Verbs on **-ya** drop this ending completely before adding **-ię**:

harya- “have, possess” → **harię**

verya- “dare” → **verię**

3.3.1 Cases of the gerund

In Quenya the gerund can be declined into three cases:

- Genitive: This case appears when a gerund is dependant on a verbal noun:

i carmę tecięo “the art of writing”

- Dative: We use the dative to express “in order to”:

mótas cuinien “he works in order to live”

But in English the words “in order” are mostly implicitly understood, so to use this case properly you will have to be careful when meeting an English “to” + infinitive:

utúlientę cenien i aran “they had come to see the king”

- Instrumental: We use the instrumental to express “through, by”:

nolles mahta tirienen i ohtari “he learned to fight through/by watching the soldiers”

3.4 Negation

All verbal forms treated so far are negated by use of the particle **lá** (see also Negation in the chapter Verbs).

- Infinitives: Here we find a difference in meaning between negation with **lá** and with **um-**:

saila ná lá caritas “it is wise not to do it”

saila umę caritas “it is not wise to do it”

- Participles:

i soldor hácala “the yawning boys” → **i soldor lá hácala** “the not yawning boys”

i harma halyaina “the hidden treasure” → **i harma lá halyaina** “the not hidden treasure”

- Gerund:

quetië ná telpë “speaking is silver” → **lá quetië ná malta** “not speaking is gold”

3.5 The imperative

3.5.1 Ancient Imperative

The ancient form of the imperative is only used with primitive verbs.

It is formed by adding **-a** to the stem without lengthening the stem-vowel (so it is like the present tense but with a short central vowel):

tira! “watch!”

This imperative is very direct, so you shouldn’t use it when you want to be polite.

3.5.2 Standard Imperative

This is formed by placing the particle **á** before the infinitive:

á tirë! “watch!”

á vala! “rule!”

When the central vowel of the infinitive is long, a diphthong or followed by more than one consonant we use the particle **a** instead of **á** (but this is not obligatory, so using **á** is never wrong):

a caima! “lie down!”

a móta! “work!”

a linda! “sing!”

The combinations **ry**, **ly**, **ny**, **ty** do not count as a double consonant, so when the central vowel is immediately followed by any one of these we use **á**:

á lelya! “go!”

but

a mintya! “remember!”

The particle is pronounced as a unit with these infinitives, so the stress is normally on the particle **á** and not on **a** (the exceptions are verbs with an infinitive of more than two syllables).

3.5.3 Negative imperative

A prohibition or negative imperative is formed by the particle **áva**. It is the same for all verbs:

áva lelya! “don’t go!”

áva tirë! “don’t look!”

It can also be used on its own, but then the long vowel is shifted:

avá! “don’t!”

(note: this is the only two-syllable word that is stressed on the final syllable; see Phonology)

3.5.4 Personal pronouns with the imperative

When a verb is in the imperative it can have personal pronouns that refer to the subject, the direct object or the indirect object.

subject pronouns

A reference to the subject is not very frequent, only when it is absolutely necessary to specify to whom the command is directed: “Listen you!”

The Quenya endings are **-t** in the singular and **-l** in the plural:

a lindat! “sing you!” (singular)

a lindal! “sing you!” (plural)

With a primitive verb the connecting vowel is **-i-** as usual:

á tirë! “watch!”

á tirit!/á tiril! “watch you!”

These endings can also be used in the negative imperative:

áva tulë! “don’t come!”

áva tulit!/áva tulil! “don’t come you!”

direct object pronouns

To indicate the direct object we can use the nominative of the independent personal pronouns:

a laita te! “bless them!”

á tirë nye! “watch me!”

It is however preferred to add this nominative as ending to the particle **á** (in this situation we always use **á** never **a**):

átë laita! “bless them!”

ányë tirë! “watch me!”

Also with the negative imperative both forms are possible:

ávamë tirë! “don’t watch us!”

áva tirë me! “don’t watch us!”

But again the form where the ending **-me** is applied to **áva** is preferred.

indirect object pronouns

With an indirect object we obviously use the dative forms of the pronouns:

ámen linda! “sing for us!”

When a verb has both a direct and an indirect object, you have the choice which is applied to the particle **á** or **áva** and which is used a separate word:

ánin carë ta! “do it for me!”

áta carë nin! “do it for me!”

4. Special verbs

4.1 to be

Quenya has two verbs that correspond to the English verb “to be”: **ná** and **ëa**.

Ná is used in the following cases:

- to connect two nouns:
sambë sina ná caimasan “this room is a bedroom”
- to connect a noun and an adjective:
sambi sinë nar pityë “these rooms are small”

Eä is used to denote existence at a location:

i harma ëa i sambessë “the treasure is in the room”
ëan tauressë “I am in a wood”

The non-pronominal forms of **ëa** can be used without subject to denote “there is” (**ëa**) or “there are” (**ëar**):

ëa elda as quinga “there is an elf with a bow”
ëar narmor i ostossë “there are wolves in the city”

Conjugation:

These verbs have no Perfect tense and the Present and Aorist tenses are identical.

The verb **ná**

The Present/Aorist tense of **ná** is formed with the stem **na-**, so we find e.g.:

nan “I am”, **nalyë** “you are”, **nantë** “they are”, ...

The Past tense is formed with the stem **ne-**, the endless form is **né**, e.g.:

nes “he/she/it was”, **nelmë** “we were (excl.)”, ...

The Future tense is regular with stem **nauva-**:

i nissi nauvar nairë “the women will be sad”
nauvan aran “I shall be king”

The verb **ëa**

The Present/Aorist tense of **ëa** is regular with the stem **ëa-**, so we find e.g.:

ëan “I am”, **ëalyë** “you are”, **ëantë** “they are”, ...

The Past tense is formed with the stem **enge-**, e.g.:

enges “he/she/it was”, **engelmë** “we were (excl.)”, ...

The Future tense is regular with stem **euva-**:

i roccor euvar i malcoressë “the horses will be in the castle”

euvalmë sinomë “we shall be here”

This verb has a Present Participle **ëala**:

i ostor ëala “the existing cities”

4.2 Impersonal verbs

These verbs have the special property of lacking an explicit subject. In most languages only verbs that denote a condition or weather are of this type: “it rains”, “it freezes”, ...

Such verbs are also impersonal in Quenya:

lipta “it drips”

uquë “it rains”

fauta “it snows”

hilca “it freezes”

Note: these verbs don't get the ending **-s** even though we translate it into English with the personal pronoun “it”.

A second group are the impersonal verbs that are also impersonal in English and have an indirect object that indicates to whom the action matters. In Quenya this indirect object is put in the dative case:

marta- “happen” → **marta sen** “it happens to her”

mauya- “compel” → **mauya nin** “it compels me”

naya- “grieve” → **naya son** “it grieves him”

onga- “pain” → **onga men** “it pains us”

vilda- “matter” → **vilda len** “it matters to you”

A longer example:

mauya nin lelya ostonna “I am compelled to go to town”

Quenya also has a few verbs that get an explicit subject in most other languages:

itisya- “itch, irritate”

loya- “be thirsty”

óla- “dream”

sahta- “be hot”

sitta- “be used to”

or-/ora- “urge, impel”

The original English subject changes into a dative in Quenya:

orë nin caritas “it impels me to do it” = “I was impelled to do it”

It is also possible to use a dative-subject that is not a personal pronoun:

oranë i eldan lelya “the elf was impelled to go”

With the verb **óla-** “dream” we find analogously:

óla i venden eldaron “the girl dreamed about elves (genitive)”

In Quenya we consider the dreamer (the girl) not as the agent (subject) of the dream but as the receiver (indirect object). So literally we could say “it dreams to the girl about elves”.

Sometimes the verb **ná** can also be used impersonally when the predicate is an adjective:

ná ringa nin “it is cold to me” = “I am cold”

ná mára son “it is good to him” = “he is good”

Note: this construction is also possible in German: “Mir ist kalt”.

4.3 Causative verbs

These verbs originate with an adjective and their meaning is that one acquires the property expressed by the adjective.

They can be formed by adding **-ta** to the adjective:

alya “rich” → **alyata-** “become rich”

Adjectives on **-ë** change this final letter into **-i**:

airë “holy” → **airita-** “become holy, hallow”

ninquë “white” → **ninquita-** “become white, whiten”

The stress rules imply that these verbs show some irregularities:

- when an ending is added to the verb that contains exactly one syllable, we change **-ta** into **-tá-**:

i aran airitánë “the king hallowed”
but **alyatanelmë** “we became rich”

- this phenomenon also appears in the present participle:

airitalë “hallowing”

- in the passive participle **-taina** changes into **-nta**:

ninquinta “whitened”

4.4 the verb equë

The verb **quet-** can mean “say” or “speak” depending on the case with which it is used (dative or allative).

With direct or indirect speech (see Syntaxis) the verb **equë** is preferred. The conjugation of this verb is extremely simple: it has only one form that is used for all tenses and all numbers. It is only used when the subject is a proper noun or a personal pronoun (so it cannot be used with an ordinary noun like “father”, “king”, etc.)

equen: ‘cé’ “I say/said: ‘maybe’ ”

Even the word order is uncommon as it is always placed right before its subject:

equë Elendil: ‘utúlien’ “Elendil says/said: ‘I have come’ ”

equë Altariel ar Teleporno: ‘namárië’ “Galadriel and Celeborn say/said: ‘farewell’ ”

It is however never really wrong to use **quet-**:

quetin: 'cé' "I say: 'maybe'"

Elendil quentë: 'utúlien' "Elendil said: 'I have come'"

Altariel ar Teleporno quenter: 'namárië' "Galadriel and Celeborn said: 'farewell'"

And when we use a different subject **quet-** is obligatory:

i nís quéta: 'aiya' "the woman is saying: 'hello'"

Also when the subject follows the direct speech we use **quet-**:

'utúlien', quentë Elendil "I have come', said Elendil"

4.5 the verb **auta-**

This verb has three conjugations which depend on the meaning of the verb. The three conjugations coincide in following tenses and verbal forms: Present, Aorist, Future, Present Participle, Gerund, Imperative.

1. pass away

This meaning is only used in official texts and only in the Past tense:

i aran anwë "the king passed away"

2. go away, depart

This meaning is always associated with a direction. So this conjugation is generally accompanied by an allative noun:

i nér oantë i ëanna "the man departed for the sea"/"the man went away to the sea"

The directional complement can of course be implied:

i nauco oantië "the dwarf has departed"/"the dwarf went away"

The complete conjugation is:

Past tense: **oantë**,
Perfect tense: **oantië**,
Infinitive: **auta**,
Past participle: **autaina**.

3. leave, disappear

In this meaning no direction is present, so we cannot have an allative complement:

yéni avánier “centuries have disappeared, have gone by”

i seldo vánë “the boy disappeared”/”the boy left”

(note: the meaning “leave behind” is not expressed by **auta-** but by **lesta-**).

The past participle is also used with the meaning “lost” (i.e. “cannot be regained”):

Valimar ná vanwa “Valimar is lost”

The complete conjugation is:

Past tense: **vánë**,

Perfect tense: **avánië**,

Infinitive: **vanwë**,

Past participle: **vanwa**.

5. The article

Quenya only has a definite article **i** and it is unchangeable.

A word in the singular without article is translated with an indefinite article.

elen “a star”; **i elen** “the star”
eleni “stars”; **i eleni** “the stars”

With the dual number the article is translated as “both”:

hyapat “a pair of shoes”; **i hyapat** “both shoes”

The article isn’t used with following words:

- nouns that have a pronominal ending:

coanya “my house”

- nouns in the partitive plural:

aldali “some trees”

- nouns with a demonstrative pronoun:

macil sina “this sword”

- proper names:

Anar “the sun”

- names of peoples:

Eldar “the Elves”

(but note **i eldar** is possible when referring to a particular group of elves)

- when a noun is accompanied by a noun in the genitive case or in the possessive case (or both) it normally shouldn’t get the article (for examples see the genitive or possessive cases).

The article **i** can also be used as a relative pronoun, but this is treated in the chapter on pronouns.

6. Nouns

Quenya nouns can be declined into 9 cases and 4 numbers, so each noun has 36 forms.

Paradigms of the standard declension of a noun can be found in Appendix 1.

6.1 The plural of nouns

There are 2 possible endings that indicate the plural: **-r** and **i**.

- Words ending in **-a**, **-i**, **-o**, **-u**, **-ië** get **-r**:
 - alda** → **aldar** (tree)
 - tári** → **tárir** (queen)
 - ondo** → **ondor** (rock)
 - heru** → **herur** (lord)
 - tië** → **tier** (path)
- Words ending in a consonant get **-i**:
 - aran** → **arani** (king)
 - macil** → **macili** (sword)
- Words on **-ë** but not **-ië** change the final **-ë** into **-i**:
 - aurë** → **auri** (day)
 - lassë** → **lassi** (leaf)

Following words are irregular:

- on **-ë**:
 - mallë** → **maller** (street)
 - rotsë** → **rotser** (pipe)
 - tyávë** → **tyáver** (taste)
 - tyellë** → **tyeller** (grade, incline)
- on **-a**
 - hína** → **híni** (child)
 - ónona** → **ónoni** (twin)

6.2 The dual

The Quenya dual is used for expressing natural pairs. So when talking about the two eyes of one person, we use the dual. But when we talk about eyes from different persons we use the ordinary plural.

So that's why we translate the dual not simply by the number two but by "a pair of":

pé "lip" → **peu** "a pair of lips"

alda "tree" → **aldu** "a pair of trees"

but

atta pér "two lips"

atta aldar "two trees"

When the dual is preceded by the article **i** we translate it by "both":

i peu "both lips"

i aldu "both trees"

Formation:

The ending **-u** is used when the word contains a **d** or **t** sound or when it denotes a body part:

sarat "sign" → **saratu** "a pair of signs"

lár "ear" → **laru** "a pair of ears"

When these words end on **-a** or **-o**, the **-u** of the ending replaces these vowels:

alda "tree" → **aldu** "a pair of trees"

tiuco "thigh" → **tiucu** "a pair of thighs"

When the noun ends on **-i** or **-ë** (with plural on **-i**) we find following diphthongs in the dual:

tári "queen" → **táriu** "a pair of queens"

tanwë "device" → **tanweu** "a pair of devices"

All other words use the ending **-t**:

cirya "ship" → **ciryat** "a pair of ships"

lassë "leaf" → **lasset** "a pair of leaves"

When the word ends on a consonant this ending becomes **-et**:

aran “king” → **aranet** “a pair of kings”

Some words cannot take the **-u** ending, they always take **-t**:

- words on **-u**: **cundu** “prince” → **cundut** “a pair of princes”
- words on **-ië**: **tië** “path” → **tiet** “a pair of paths”
- words on **-ë** that form their plural on **-r**: **rotsë** “pipe” → **rotset** “a pair of pipes”

The word **veru** “married couple” is always dual.

6.3 The partitive plural

The partitive plural replaces the words ‘some’ or ‘a few’. The ordinary plural has the additional implied meaning ‘all I am talking about’.

i ciryar nar fânë “the ships are white”

This means in fact ‘all the ships I’m talking about, are white’.

But the partitive plural implies that there are also ships that have a different colour:

i ciryali nar fânë “some/a few ships are white”

The partitive plural can also denote something that is part of a bigger entity.

i cirya rancë ondolissë “the ship broke upon some/a few rocks”

This means that there are more rocks, but the ship didn’t sail into them. Sometimes it is used for a group that belongs to a larger group.

eldali nar altë “some/a few elves are large”

So we mean that there also are elves that are not so large. But in the ordinary plural...

eldar nar altë “elves are large”

In this sentence we mean “every elf is large”.

When a noun in the partitive plural is accompanied by an adjective, the adjective has the normal plural form.

wenyë lasseli “some/a few green leaves”

But in the partitive plural the rule of the last declinable word is not applied. So the case-suffix is always applied to the noun even when there are adjectives or pronouns following behind the noun (see adjectives):

rimbalissen hallë “on some/a few high walls”

Formation:

The basic rule is to add the suffix **-li** to nouns ending in a vowel:

lassë “leaf” → **lasseli**

cirya “ship” → **ciryali**

When the noun ends on **-l**, the same suffix is added.

macil “sword” → **macilli**

The final letters **-r**, **-n** and **-s** change into **-l**.

atar “father” → **atalli**

elen “star” → **elelli**

cos “quarrel” → **colli**

Note: because of this rule it is possible that two entirely different nouns have an identical partitive plural:

atar “father”/**atan** “man” → **atalli** “some fathers/men”

Nouns ending in **t** get an additional **-e**.

sarat “sign” → **sarateli**

6.4 Stem-forms

Lots of Quenya nouns have a stem-form that is used in almost all cases and number except the nominative singular. These forms can be found in the dictionary and have to be learned by heart.

Let’s look at following examples:

hen, hend- “eye” → **hendi** “eyes” → **hendu** “a pair of eyes”

tál, tal- “foot” → **tali** “feet” → **talu** “a pair of feet”

laman, lamn- “animal” → **lamni** “animals” → **lamnet** “a pair of animals”

Note that the endings of the plural and dual are based upon the stem-form and not on the nominative singular:

pilin, pilind- “arrow” → **pilindi** “arrows” → **pilindu** “a pair of arrows”

A separate appendix is dedicated to an overview of stem-forms.

6.4.1 I-stems

I-stems are nouns with a nominative singular on **-ë** but that use a stem on **-i** in all other cases. In this document they are grouped together with four other classes of related nouns:

The Quenya nouns in **-ë/-i** can be divided into these groups:

- nouns in **-ë** with plural on **-r** (**mallë, rotsë, tyávë, tyellë**)
- nouns in **-ë** with plural on **-i** but that keep the **-ë** in the singular
- nouns in **-ë** with a stem on **-i** (real I-stems)
- nouns in **-i**
- nouns in **-ië**

More about these can be found in Appendix 1.

6.4.2 U-stems

In the same way we can divide the nouns in **-o/-u** into several groups:

- nouns that keep the **-o** in all cases
- nouns with a stem on **-u** but with a nominative singular on **-o** (the real U-stems)
- nouns that keep the **-u** in all cases

We again refer to this appendix for further details.

6.5 Cases

6.5.1 The nominative case

In Quenya the Nominative case is used for:

- the subject
- the predicate
- the direct object
- after most prepositions (only **et, arwa, rá** and **ú** take another case)

The nominative is the basic form that can be found in a dictionary. The plural,

dual and partitive plural of this case can be found earlier in this chapter.

The use of the nominative for the direct object has implications for the word order: in a normal sentence the word order is subject - verb - object:

i nér roita i rocco “the man chases the horse”

i rocco roita i nér “the horse chases the man”

All other parts of the sentence can be in any order:

i aran anta rocco i roquenen “the king gives a horse to the knight”

i aran anta i roquenen rocco

i aran i roquenen anta rocco

i roquenen i aran anta rocco

It purely depends on the emphasis one likes to express.

The Accusative case

In Book Quenya (this is an ancient precursor of Quenya) there existed a separate Accusative case that was used for the direct object and after prepositions. But in the Quenya at the time of the Lord of the Rings this case had disappeared.

It was formed as follows:

- when the Nominative singular ends in a consonant, the Accusative singular is identical to the Nominative, the Accusative plural ends in **-i**
- when the Nominative singular ends in a vowel, this vowel is lengthened in the Accusative singular, in the Accusative plural we add **-i**
- but when the Nominative singular ends in **-i** or **-ië**, the Acc. plural ends in **-i**
- when the Nominative dual ends in **-u**, this **u** is lengthened to **ú**; when it ends in **-t**, the Accusative dual is identical to the Nominative dual
- in the Accusative partitive plural we always find **-i**

alda (tree) sing. **aldá**, plural **aldai**, dual **aldú**, part. plural **aldali**

macil (sword) sing. **macil**, plural **macilí**, dual **macilet**, part. plural **macilí**

lië (people) sing. **lië**, plural **lí**, dual **liet**, part. plural **lieli**

6.5.2 The genitive case

Quenya has 2 cases that together form the traditional genitive case of an inflected language (e.g. Latin, German or Greek): the genitive and the possessive. So it is important to know when each is appropriate.

Usage

There is quite an extensive list of situations in which the genitive is used:

1. origin

The place where something is made or someone is born is in the genitive:

cirya Tiriono “the ship of Tirion”

seldo Alqualondëo “the boy from Swanhaven”

It has no implication of movement, so the boy was born in Swanhaven but we don't mean that he just arrived from Swanhaven.

2. previous owner

rocco arano “the horse of a king”

This means that the horse once belonged to the king, but now belongs to someone else.

3. partitive genitive

We use this to denote something that is part of something greater:

i elenion ancalima “the brightest of the stars”

ranqui i arano “the arms of the king”

4. family relations

i arano yondor “the sons of the king”

indis ohtaro “the bride of a soldier”

5. where a title belongs to

aran Sindaron “the king of the Sindar”

heru i cormaron “the lord of the rings”

6. nouns after “about”

Frequently the preposition “about” is replaced by “of” in English, so we have to be careful about the meaning of this “of”:

i naucor quetir altë harmaron “the dwarves speak of (about) great

treasures”

quenta Silmarillion “the tale of (about) the Silmarils”

quentalë Noldoron “the history of (about) the Noldor”

equessi arano “the sayings about the king”

(for more about this, see also Verbal nouns).

7. composite names of plants or animals

asëa aranion “kings’ weed”

8. the word following **quanta** “full”

quanta masso “full of bread”

9. the prepositions **ú** “without” and the adjective **arwa** “with, having”

ú calo “without light”

aran arwa ohtarion “a king with/having soldiers”

The adjective **arwa** has **arwë** as plural, this is used when there is more than one owner:

neri arwë collo “men with/having a mantle”

Word order

The genitive can be placed in front or behind the noun to which it belongs:

i nórëo aldar “trees of the land”

aldar i nórëo “trees of the land”

There are 2 cases in which the genitive is always put in front:

- when the noun is preceded by a preposition:

ve osto aran “like the king of a city”

nu tirino tópa “under the roof of a tower”

- when the noun has both a word in the genitive and in the possessive case:

i eldaron macil atarwa “father’s sword of (coming from) the elves”

A genitive can also be used predicatively:

i corma ná Saurondo “the ring is (originally) Sauron’s”

Use of the article

A noun that is accompanied by a noun in the genitive case normally shouldn’t get the article **i** (however the article is sometimes written for poetic reasons).

So we have to take into account that a noun in the genitive can be translated with either an indefinite or a definite article:

indis ohtarö “a bride of a soldier”/”the bride of a soldier”

ohtarö indis “a bride of a soldier”/”the bride of a soldier”

i ohtarö indis “a bride of the soldier”/”the bride of the soldier”

indis i ohtarö “a bride of the soldier”/”the bride of the soldier”

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-o**. Most words simply add this ending:

aran “king” → **arano**

tári “queen” → **táριο**

vendë “girl” → **vendëo**

Words that have a stem-form use this stem-form:

nís “woman” → **nisso**

curo “device” → **curuo**

lómë “night” → **lomio**

Words on **-o** have a genitive singular that is identical to the nominative singular:

rocco “horse” → **rocco**

In words on **-a** this final letter is replaced by **-o**:

máma “sheep” → **mámo**

Words on **-ië** lengthen the final **-ë**:

mornië “darkness” → **morniéo**

lië “people” → **liéo**

Plural:

The plural adds **-on** to the nominative *plural* (this is exceptional as all other cases of the plural are based upon the nominative singular):

aldar “trees” → **aldaron** (nom.sing.: alda)

eleni “stars” → **elenion** (nom.sing.: elen)

rávi “lions” → **rávion** (nom.sing.: rá)

nissi “women” → **nission** (nom.sing.: nís)

Words on **-ië** lengthen the final **-ë**:

mornië “darkness” → **morniéron**

lië “people” → **liéron**

Dual:

In the dual the ending is also **-o**:

ciryat “a pair of ships” → **ciryato** (nom.sing.: cirya)

aldu “a pair of trees” → **alduo** (nom.sing.: alda)

rávét “a pair of lions” → **ráveto** (nom.sing.: rá)

When the noun has a t-dual and the nominative singular ends in a vowel followed by a consonant (**-l**, **-n**, **-r**, **-s**), the **-e-** of the nominative dual disappears in the genitive dual:

aranet “a pair of kings” → **aranto** (nom.sing.: aran)

macilet “a pair of swords” → **macilto** (nom.sing.: macil)

ëaret “a pair of seas” → **ëarto** (nom.sing.: ëar)

Words on **-ië** lengthen the final **-ë**:

mornië “darkness” → **morniéto**

lië “people” → **liéto**

Partitive Plural:

We always add **-on** to the nominative partitive plural:

ciryali “some ships” → **ciryalion** (nom.sing.: cirya)

6.5.3 The possessive case

It is important to know the contrast with the genitive case as these two are closely related.

Usage

There are 4 situations in which the possessive is used:

1. present owner

rocco i aranwa “the king’s horse”

This means that the horse at this moment belongs to the king. It has no implications of origin or previous ownership.

This is why in English this case is frequently translated by an English genitive.

Of course this ownership is always related to the tense of the verb: it is the present owner at the moment indicated by the verb:

ná coa i eldava “it’s the elf’s house”

So this house is at this moment the property of that elf.

né parma i vendeva “it was the book of the girl”

In this case the girl was the present owner of the book at the moment of the sentence, but it is quite possible that at this moment she no longer owns it.

2. properties

The possessive case is also used to denote a property of a person or object:

huinë i taureva “the gloom of the wood”

altarë i nerwa “the length of the man”

3. substance

We also use this case to denote the substance from which something is made:

rië telpeva “a/the crown of silver”

This meaning is of course related to using an adjective:

i telpina rië “the silver crown”

When we use a possessive case the material from which the crown is made is emphasized (just as can be seen by the English translations).

4. subject of nouns with an “about” noun

In situation 6 of the usage of the genitive case we have seen that the words after the preposition “about” are in the genitive. The subject of these words is however in the possessive case. This can again be translated by “of” but in this case “of” is equivalent to the preposition “by”:

quentalë atarwa “the story of (i.e. by) father”

equessi i naucoiva “the sayings of (i.e. by) the dwarves”

(for more about this, see also Verbal nouns).

Word order

The possessive is always put behind the noun to which it belongs:

míri i naucova “the dwarf’s jewels”

tári i eldaiva “the elves’ queen”

A possessive can also be used predicatively:

i corma ná Saurondeva “the ring is Sauron’s”

Use of the article

A noun that is accompanied by a noun in the possessive case normally shouldn’t get the article **i** (however the article is sometimes written for poetic reasons).

So we have to take into account that a noun in the possessive can be translated with either an indefinite or a definite article:

coa ohtarwa “a house of a soldier”/”the house of a soldier”

coa i ohtarwa “a house of the soldier”/”the house of the soldier”

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-va** after vowels and **-wa** after consonants. Most words simply add these endings:

elda “elf” → **eldava**

aran “king” → **aranwa**

There are two important exceptions:

- words that end on a vowel and of which the penultimate syllable is short, lengthen the final vowel before adding **-va**:

tyalië “play” → **tyaliéva**

oromë “hornblower” → **oroméva**

tano “craftsman” → **tanóva**

- words of two syllables that contain the diphthong **-ui** in the first syllable and that end in a vowel, also lengthen this vowel before adding the ending:

huinë “gloom” → **huinéva**

tuima “sprout” → **tuimáva**

Words that have a stem-form in a vowel (I-stems and U-stems) use this stem-form:

curo “device” → **curuva**

lómë “night” → **lomiva**

Words that have a stem-form in a consonant use their basic form and not the stem-form:

fion “hawk” → **fionwa** (stem *fiond-*)

tirios “burg” → **tirioswa** (stem *tiriošt-*)

amil “mother” → **amilwa** (stem *amill-*)

toron “brother” → **toronwa** (stem *torn-*)

seler “sister” → **selerwa** (stem *sell-*)

henet “window” → **henetwa** (stem *henets-*)

talan “floor” → **talanwa** (stem *talam-*)

Exceptions:

- words with a stem-form on **-ss**:

nís “window” → **nisseva** (stem *niss-*)

lis “honey” → **lisseva** (stem *liss-*)

- words with a stem-form on **-c**:

filit “little bird” → **filiqua** (stem *filic-*)

nelet “tooth” → **nelequa** (stem *nelc-*)

quesset “pillow” → **quessequa** (stem *quessec-*)

- words with a long vowel that is shortened in the stem-form:

tál “foot” → **talwa** (stem *tal-*)

nér “man” → **nerwa** (stem *ner-*)

Plural:

The ending is **-iva**:

macil “sword” → **maciliva**

elda “elf” → **eldaiva**

(note: this ending forms a diphthong when the noun ends in **-a**, **-o** or **-u**).

Exceptions:

- words ending in **-ë** drop this **-ë** and have **-íva** as ending:
lassë “leaf” → **lassíva**
- words ending in **-ië** drop this **-ië** and have **-íva** as ending:
mornië “darkness” → **morníva**
- words ending in **-i** (or with a stem-form in **-i**) also get **-íva**:
tári “queen” → **táríva**
lómë “night” → **lómíva**

Dual:

The dual is regular: u-duals get **-va**, t-duals get **-wa**:

ciryat “a pair of ships” → **ciryatwa** (nom.sing.: *cirya*)

aldu “a pair of trees” → **alduva** (nom.sing.: *alda*)

Partitive Plural:

When the nominative partitive plural ends in **-lli**, the possessive ends in **-lliva**:

toron “brother” → **torolli** → **torolliva**

macil “sword” → **macilli** → **macilliva**

When the nominative partitive plural only has a single **l** before the final **i** then the possessive ends in **-líva**:

cirya “ship” → **ciryali** → **ciryalíva**

sarat “sign” → **sarateli** → **saratelíva**

6.5.4 The dative case

Usage

The dative is used for the indirect object.

i nér anta i parma i eldan “the man gives the book to the elf”

The word order is free because we can always recognize the indirect object by its ending:

i nér anta i eldan i parma “the man gives the elf the book”

i eldan i nér anta i parma “to the elf the man gives the book”

i nér i eldan anta i parma

Some verbs can have an indirect object without a direct object:

i vendi liltar i aranen “the girls dance for the king”

The verb **apsen-** “remit, forgive” has a direct object in the dative:

i aran apsenë i neren “the king forgives the man”

The preposition **rá** “on behalf of, for” is used with the dative:

i orco tullë rá Sauronden “the orc came on behalf of Sauron”

Impersonal verbs

The dative is also used for the recipient of certain impersonal verbs:

i seldon óla aiwion “the boy dreams about birds”

(see also: Special Verbs).

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-n** after vowels and **-en** after consonants. Most words simply add these endings:

aran “king” → **aranen**

tári “queen” → **tárin**

vendë “girl” → **venden**

Words that have a stem-form use this stem-form:

nís “woman” → **nissen**

curo “device” → **curun**

lómë “night” → **lomin**

Plural:

The ending is **-in**:

macil “sword” → **macilin**

elda “elf” → **eldain**

(note: this ending forms a diphthong when the noun ends in **-a**, **-o** or **-u**).

Exceptions:

- words ending in **-ë** drop this **-ë** and have **-in** as ending:
lassë “leaf” → **lassin**
- words ending in **-ië** drop this **-ië** and have **-in** as ending:
mornië “darkness” → **mornin**
- words ending in **-i** (or with a stem-form in **-i**) also get **-in**:
tári “queen” → **tárin**
lómë “night” → **lómín**

Dual:

The dual is regular:

- u-duals get **-n**:
aldu “a pair of trees” → **aldun** (nom.sing.: alda)
- in t-duals the final **-t** is replaced by **-nt**:
ciryat “a pair of ships” → **ciryant** (nom.sing.: cirya)
aranet “a pair of kings” → **aranent** (nom.sing.: aran)

(note: these words are the only Quenya words that end in more than one consonant).

Partitive Plural:

We always add **-n** to the nominative partitive plural:

ciryali “some ships” → **ciryalin** (nom.sing.: cirya)

6.5.5 The ablative case

Usage

The ablative corresponds to the preposition “from”. So it is used for origins that involve motion:

tuluvan i ciryallo “I shall come from the boat”

or for the originator of something given:

tuvunes i malta i cundullo “he received the gold from the prince”

The ablative is also used with following words:

- the verb **ruc-** “fear”, to express what is “feared”:

i hína runcë i huinello “the child feared the shadow”

- the preposition **et** “out, out of”:

i fëa tullë et i olupello “the spirit came out of the bottle”

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-llo** after vowels and **-ello** after consonants. Most words simply add these endings:

sarat “sign” → **saratello**

tári “queen” → **tárillo**

vendë “girl” → **vendello**

Words that have a stem-form use this stem-form:

nís “woman” → **nissello**

curo “device” → **curullo**

lómë “night” → **lomillo**

Exceptions:

- words ending in **-l** contract with the ending:

menel “heaven” → **menello**

- words ending in **-r**, **-n**, **-s** lose this final consonant before adding **-llo**:

aran “king” → **arallo**
atar “father” → **atallo**
tavas “woodland” → **tavallo**

When using these rules you have to look at the final letter of the stem-form (and not at the final letter of the nominative):

talan “floor” → **talamello** (stem-form *talam-*)
nén “water” → **nello** (stem-form *nen-*)

The ablative of contracted stems (see Appendix 2: Stem-forms) doesn't use the stem-form but the nominative singular:

toron “brother” → **torollo** (stem-form *torn-*)

Doubled L-stems also use the nominative singular:

amil “mother” → **amillo** (stem-form *amill-*)

(so for these nouns the genitive and ablative singular are identical).

Plural:

The ending is **-llon** after vowels and **-illon** after consonants.

mindon “tower” → **mindonillon**
elda “elf” → **eldallon**

(note: sometimes the plural endings **-llor** and **-illor** are seen, but these are not preferred).

Exceptions:

- words ending in **-l** contract with the ending:
macil “sword” → **macillon**
- doubled L-stems use the nominative singular:
amil “mother” → **amillon** (stem-form *amill-*)

Dual:

- u-duals get **-llo**:
aldu “a pair of trees” → **aldullo** (nom.sing.: *alda*)
- in t-duals the final **-t** is replaced by **-lto**:
ciryat “a pair of ships” → **ciryalto** (nom.sing.: *cirya*)

aranet “a pair of kings” → **aranelto** (nom.sing.: aran)

Partitive Plural:

We add **-llon** or **-llo** to the nominative partitive plural:

ciryali “some ships” → **ciryalillon/ciryalillo** (nom.sing.: ciryā)

(but the ending **-llon** is preferred, and again sometimes **-llor** is seen).

6.5.6 The allative case

Usage

The allative corresponds to the preposition “towards” (and this is frequently abbreviated to “to”).

So it is used for destinations:

lelyuvan i ciryanna “I shall go to(wards) the boat”

or for a direction in which the action is performed:

quentes Elendilenna “he spoke to(wards) Elendil”

lenden ostonna “I went to town”

The preposition “into” is translated by **mir** followed by a nominative:

lenden mir osto “I went into town”

The allative is also used with following verbs:

- **caita-** “lie”, to express whereupon the subject “lies”:
i ciryā caita i falmannar “the ship lies upon the waves”
- **tulya-** “lead”, to express whereinto the subject “is lead”:
tulyan i nér i taurena “I lead the man into the forest”

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-nna** after vowels and **-enna** after consonants. Most words simply add these endings:

aran “king” → **aranenna**

tári “queen” → **tárinna**

vendë “girl” → **vendenna**

Words that have a stem-form use this stem-form:

nís “woman” → **nissenna**

curo “device” → **curunna**

lómë “night” → **lominna**

Exceptions:

- words ending in **-n** contract with the ending:

mindon “tower” → **mindonna**

- words ending in **-l** change **l + nna** into **lda**:

menel “heaven” → **menelda**

When using these rules you have to look at the final letter of the stem-form (and not at the final letter of the nominative):

talan “floor” → **talamenna** (stem-form *talam-*)

nén “water” → **nenna** (stem-form *nen-*)

The allative of contracted stems (see Appendix 2: Stem-forms) doesn't use the stem-form but the nominative singular:

toron “brother” → **toronna** (stem-form *torn-*)

Doubled N-stems also use the nominative singular:

olwen “branch” → **olwenna** (stem-form *olwenn-*)

Plural:

The ending is **-nnar** after vowels and **-innar** after consonants:

macil “sword” → **macilinnar**

elda “elf” → **eldannar**

Exception:

- words ending in **-n** contract with the ending:

mindon “tower” → **mindonnar**

- doubled N-stems use the nominative singular:
olwen “branch” → **olwennar** (stem-form *olwenn-*)

Dual:

- u-duals get **-nna**:
aldu “a pair of trees” → **aldunna** (nom.sing.: alda)
- in t-duals the final **-t** is replaced by **-nta**:
ciryat “a pair of ships” → **ciryanta** (nom.sing.: cirya)
aranet “a pair of kings” → **aranenta** (nom.sing.: aran)

Partitive Plural:

We add **-nnar** or **-nna** to the nominative partitive plural:

ciryali “some ships” → **ciryalinnar** / **ciryalinna** (nom.sing.: cirya)

(but the ending **-nnar** is preferred).

6.5.7 The locative case

Usage

The locative corresponds to the prepositions “in”, “on” and “upon”.

It is always used for places:

ëan coassë “I am in a house”

i ciryamo ëa i ciryassë “the sailor is on the ship”

i aiwi háma olwassë “the bird sits upon a branch”

or for a moment or period in time when something happens:

utúlien i lómissë “I have come in the night”

There are two situations in which we don't use the locative:

- The preposition “into” is translated by **mir** followed by a nominative:
nér vantanë mir i mallë “a man walked into the street”

- The preposition “in” can also be used to denote a condition or feeling someone has, in that case we use the preposition **mi** (or **mí**, this is short for **mi + i**):

nér vantanë mi mornië “a man walked in darkness”

nér vantanë mí ringa “a man walked in the cold”

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-ssë** after vowels and **-essë** after consonants. Most words simply add these endings:

aran “king” → **aranessë**

tári “queen” → **tárisë**

vendë “girl” → **vendessë**

Words that have a stem-form use this stem-form:

sar “pebble” → **sardessë** (stem-form *sard-*)

curo “device” → **curussë**

lómë “night” → **lomissë**

Exceptions:

- words ending in **-s** contract with the ending:
arquilis “desert” → **arquilissë**
- words ending in **-t** only get **-së** as ending:
ecet “short sword” → **ecetsë**
- words ending in **-l** change **l + ssë** into **ldë**:
menel “heaven” → **meneldë**
- words ending in **-n** change **n + ssë** into **ndë**:
cemen “earth, soil” → **cemendë**

Words that in the nominative end on **-ssë** don’t have a locative case, when a locative would be needed they use the preposition **mi**:

Víressë “April” → **mi Víressë**

Stem-forms show quite a lot of exceptions in this case (see Stem-forms):

- The locative of contracted stems doesn't use the stem-form but the nominative singular:

toron "brother" → **torondë** (stem-form *torn-*)

- Doubled S-stems simply add **-ë** to the stem-form:

falas "beach" → **falassë** (stem-form *falas-*)

- T-stems that add **-s** also follow this rule:

henet "window" → **henetsë** (stem-form *henets-*)

- C-stems are changed as follows:

quesset "pillow" → **quessexë** (stem-form *quessec-*)

but **nelet** uses the rule of the T-stems in this case:

nelet "tooth" → **neletsë** (stem-form *nelc-*)

- M-stems use the nominative instead of the stem-form:

talan "floor" → **talandë** (stem-form *talam-*)

Plural:

The ending is **-ssen** after vowels and **-issen** after consonants.

macil "sword" → **macilissen**

elda "elf" → **eldassen**

Exceptions: In the plural the different exceptions generally aren't used, only when a word would end on **-sissen** (or **-cissen**) is the ending shortened:

- Words ending in **-s**:

arquilis "desert" → **arquilissen**

- Doubled S-stems:

falas "beach" → **falassen** (stem-form *falas-*)

- T-stems that add **-s**:

henet "window" → **henetsen** (stem-form *henets-*)

- C-stems:

quesset "pillow" → **quessexen** (stem-form *quessec-*)

nelet "tooth" → **neletsen** (stem-form *nelc-*)

Dual:

- u-duals get **-ssë**:
aldu “a pair of trees” → **aldussë** (nom.sing.: alda)
- t-duals get **-së**:
ciryat “a pair of ships” → **ciryatsë** (nom.sing.: cirya)
aranet “a pair of kings” → **aranetsë** (nom.sing.: aran)

Partitive Plural:

We add **-ssen** or **-ssë** to the nominative partitive plural:

ciryali “some ships” → **ciryalissen/ciryalissë** (nom.sing.: cirya)

(but the ending **-ssen** is preferred).

6.5.8 The instrumental case

Usage

The instrumental corresponds to the preposition “with”:

técantë tecilden “they are writing with a pen”

But not all uses of the preposition “with” correspond to an instrumental, only when the underlying meaning is “with the help of” or “by means of” this case is used.

For example the sentence:

cennyet as elda “I saw them with an elf”

In this sentence we mean that they were together with an elf, not that they were using an elf to see better.

Sometimes the instrumental corresponds to the English preposition “through”:

lassi lantar i súrinen “leaves fall through the wind”

In the passive voice (see Syntaxis) the instrumental is also used for the agent and in English the agent is expressed by the preposition “by”.

Except for the instrumental the preposition “with” can be translated into Quenya in several ways:

- ownership: **arwa/arwë** with a genitive:

nauco arwa harmo “a dwarf with a treasure”

- “together with”: **as** (used with a singular)/**yo** (used with plural, dual):
quetin as atarinya “I speak with my father”
quetin yo nildonyar “I speak with my friends”
- also in this meaning the prefix **ó-** is used with personal pronouns:
óni “with me”, **ólë** “with you”, **ómë** “with us”,
ótë “with them”, **óta/ót** “with it”, **óso/ósë/ós** “with him/her”

Formation

We discuss each of the numbers separately:

Singular:

The basic ending is **-nen**. So with vowels this case is equal to the dative with an extra **-en**

tári “queen” → **tárinen**

vendë “girl” → **vendenen**

When a noun ends on **-r** or **-n**, we add **-nen**:

atar “father” → **atarnen**

elen “star” → **elennen**

or has a stem-form on **-m**, **-r** or **-n**:

talan “floor” → **talamnen** (stem-form *talam-*)

olos “dream” → **olornen** (stem-form *olor-*)

The instrumental of contracted stems doesn't use the stem-form but the nominative singular:

toron “brother” → **toronnen** (stem-form *torn-*)

When a noun or its stem-form ends on **-p**, **-c** or **-t**, we apply nasal inversion (see also the past tense of the verbs):

ecet “short sword” → **ecenten**

filit “little bird” → **filincen** (stem-form *filic-*)

When a noun ends in **-l**, the ending becomes **-den**:

macil “sword” → **macilden**

Other nouns ending on a consonant have **-enen** as ending:

arquilis “desert” → **arquisenen**

nís “woman” → **nissenen** (stem-form *niss-*)

Plural:

In the plural we always add **-en** to the dative:

macil “sword” → macilin → **macilinen**

elda “elf” → eldain → **eldainen**

(note: this ending forms a diphthong when the noun ends in **-a**, **-o** or **-u**).

The exceptions are regular once you know the dative:

lassë “leaf” → lassín → **lassínen**

mornië “darkness” → mornín → **mornínen**

tári “queen” → tárín → **tárínen**

lómë “night” → lómín → **lómínen**

Dual:

In the dual we also add **-en** to the dative:

aldu “a pair of trees” → aldun → **aldunen** (nom.sing.: alda)

ciryat “a pair of ships” → ciryant → **ciryanten** (nom.sing.: ciryä)

aranet “a pair of kings” → aranent → **aranenten** (nom.sing.: aran)

Partitive Plural:

When the nominative partitive plural ends in **-lli**, the instrumental ends in **-llinen**:

toron “brother” → **torolli** → **torollinen**

macil “sword” → **macilli** → **macillinen**

When the nominative partitive plural only has a single **l** before the final **i** then the instrumental ends in **-línen**:

ciryä “ship” → **ciryali** → **ciryalínen**

sarat “sign” → **sarateli** → **saratelínen**

6.5.9 The respective case

Usage

This case is sometimes called the mystery-case because so little is known of it.

We only have a few examples by Tolkien himself, so different authors have used it in different ways. But as Helge Fauskanger notes: ‘as these authors didn’t get nightly visits from Tolkien, we can regard these uses as acceptable’.

Most authors use it as a nephew of the locative case:

- To replace the proposition “by” when it used to describe a place:

i coa i taures “the house by the forest”

This means “the house next to the forest”, a locative has a slightly different meaning:

i coa i tauressä “the house in the forest”

- To replace the proposition “at” when it used to describe a place:

i calta i rambas “the picture at the wall”

This means “the picture hanging on the wall”, a locative again has a slightly different meaning:

i calta i rambassë “the picture on (top of) the wall”

Formation

The formation is however well known, because Tolkien explained in a letter to Mr. Plotz: the respective can be formed by changing the final **-n** of the dative into an **-s**:

ciryas “by a ship” (dative: *ciryān*)

ciryais “by ships” (dative: *ciryāin*)

ciryalis “by some ships” (dative: *ciryālin*)

The u-duals are formed in the same way:

aldus “by a pair of trees” (dative: *aldun*)

The t-duals however have a special ending **-tes**:

ciryates “by a pair of ships”

6.6 Special types of nouns

6.6.1 2-letter words

Quenya has a number of words that end in a long vowel, but they all have only two letters:

cú “crescent, arc”
hó “owl”
lú “moment”
má “hand”
pé “lip”
ré “day (of 24 hours)”
sú “rushing (of the wind)”

The following words also have this form, but in modern Quenya they sound old-fashioned, so they are replaced most of the time with the word next to them:

cá “jaw”,	better: anca
ló “night”,	better: lómë
ní “woman”,	better: nís
sá “fire”,	better: uru
wá “wind”,	better: vaiwa
yó “son”,	better: yondo

They have some special features:

- When the case ending contains a double consonant, the vowel is shortened:

ressë “on a day” (locative)
i mannar “to the hands” (allative)

- In the u-duals the **-u** joins with the final vowel to make a diphthong:

mau “a pair of hand”
peu “a pair of lips”
(cau) “(a pair of jaws)”

- In the plural the **-i-** also joins with the final vowel:

cuinen “with arcs” (instrumental)
maiva “of hands” (possessive)

In the words in **-é** this gives us the diphthong **-ei-** that is very rare in

Quenya:

pein “to lips” (dative)

- The genitive singular is not known for most nouns. Only words on **-é** don't give any problems because **éo** is acceptable:

ré “day” → **réo**

pé “lip” → **péo**

The complete declination for **hó** “owl” can be found in next table:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	hó	hór	hót	hóli
genitive	-	hóron	hóto	hólion
possessive	hóva	hoiva	hotwa	hóliva
dative	hón	hoin	hont	hólin
ablative	hollo	hollon(r)	holto	hólillo(n)(r)
allative	honna	honnar	honta	hólinna(r)
locative	hossë	hossen	hotsë	hólisse(n)
instrumental	hónen	hoinen	honten	hólinen
respective	hós	hois	hótes	hólis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **pé** “lip”):

Nom. **peu**, Gen. **peuo**, Poss. **peuva**, Dat. **peun**,

Abl. **peullo**, All. **peunna**, Loc. **peussë**, Instr. **peunen**, Resp. **peus**.

The behaviour of the final long vowel before possessive endings is discussed in the chapter about possessive pronouns.

6.6.2 Verbal nouns

These are nouns that are constructed out of verbs.

The main types are:

1. The ending **-më** is used for abstract things:

mel- “love” → **melmë** “love”

car- “make, build, do” → **carmë** “art”

2. The ending **-ië** is used for a noun that indicates that the action is still going on:

tyal- “play” → **tyalië** “a play”

perya- “halve” → **perië** “a halving”

3. Verbs on **-ta** can be used as nouns without changing anything:

vanta- “walk” → **vanta** “a walk”

lanta- “fall” → **lanta** “a fall”

4. The ending **-ë** together with a lengthened stem-vowel are used to make nouns that describe a consequence of the verb:

ser- “rest” → **séré** “peace”

lir- “sing” → **lirë** “a song”

5. To make nouns that denote concrete things we use the ending **-lë** with A-verbs and U-verbs:

nurta- “hide” → **nurtalë** “a hiding”

perya- “halve” → **peryalë** “a half”

nurru- “grumble” → **nurrulë** “a grumble”

and for primitive verbs we add **-alë** to the past tense stem:

quet- “talk” → **quentalë** “a story”

This fifth type of nouns is the type most frequently found.

To denote someone who performs an action we have the endings: **-ro/-rë** and **-indo/-indë**. The endings on **-o** are masculine, and those on **-ë** are feminine.

The first two endings are applied to A-verbs and U-verbs:

masta- “bake”

mastaro “baker” (m.)

mstarë “baker” (f.)

and the other two to primitive verbs:

car- “make, build, do”

carindo “maker, builder” (m.)

carindë “maker, builder” (f.)

Sometimes the ending **-ro** is replaced by the short form **-r**, e.g. **istar** “wizard”

from **ista**- “know”.

To make the plurals of the masculine form on **-ro** I would personally always prefer this shortened form:

mastari instead of **mastaror**

Usage of cases

The connection of a verbal noun to a verb means that it is often a condensed sentence, so that is why such nouns can have a subject and an object:

Altariello nainië “the lament of Galadriel”

We call this a subject genitive because Galadriel is the one who laments.

When a verbal noun has an object we use the possessive case:

litalë Oroméva “honour for Orome”

By this we mean that Orome is honoured, so it is the object of “honour”, and this is called an objectpossessive.

Of course both can be present with the same verbal noun:

Eruo melmë ataniva “the love of God for men”

atanion melmë Eruva “the love of men for God”

7. Adjectives

7.1 Introduction

Quenya has 3 types of adjectives depending on their final letter:

- adjectives in **-a**:
 - alta** “big”
 - corna** “round”
 - larca** “swift, rapid”
 - raica** “bent”
 - farëa** “enough”
- adjectives in **-ë**:
 - leucë** “sick”
 - ninquë** “white”
 - carnë** “red”
- adjectives in **-n**; most end in **-in** but some in **-en**:
 - marin** “ripe”
 - qualin** “dead”
 - peren** “patient”

Adjectives are mostly placed in front of the noun to which they belong:

larca sîrë “a rapid river”
i ninquë fanya “the white cloud”

It is emphasized by putting it after its noun:

mallë raica “a bent (and not straight) road”

With a proper noun adjectives are always put behind the noun:

Elendil Voronda “Elendil (the) Faithful, Faithful Elendil”

Adjectives can also be used predicatively with the verb **ná**:

i parma ná carnë “the book is red”

In such short sentences **ná** (or **nar**) is often omitted:

i parma carnë “the book is red”

7.2 Plural

Adjectives have only one plural form; it is used whenever the noun it belongs to is not singular (so dual, plural and partitive plural make no difference for the adjective):

carni parmar “red books”

carni parmat “a pair of red books”

carni parmali “some red books”

Predicatively used adjectives are in the plural whenever the subject refers to more than one person or thing:

i ciryar nar ninqui “the ships are white”

i aran ar i tári nar altë “the king and queen are big”

Formation of the plural:

- adjectives in **-a** but not in **-ëa**:
 - alta** → **altë** “big”
 - corna** → **cornë** “round”
 - raica** → **raicë** “bent”
- adjectives in **-ëa**:
 - farëa** → **farië** “enough”
 - laurëa** → **laurië** “golden”
- adjectives in **-ë**:
 - leucë** → **leuci** “sick”
 - ninquë** → **ninqui** “white”
- adjectives in **-n** have two possible forms:
 - marin** → **marini**/**marindi** “ripe”
 - qualin** → **qualini**/**qualindi** “dead”
 - peren** → **pereni**/**perendi** “patient”

One adjective is irregular:

maitë → **maisi** “handy”

7.3 Inflected adjectives

In Quenya there are only 2 occurrences in which the adjectives are inflected:

- when the adjective is used as a noun,
- when the adjective immediately follows its noun.

In all other places an adjective only has 2 forms: singular and plural (see above).

7.3.1 Usage

adjectives used as a noun:

We translate this in English by using the word “one” with the adjective:

laica “a keen one”; **i laica** “the keen one”

carnë “a red one”; **i carnë** “the red one”

hwarin “a crooked one”; **i hwarin** “the crooked one”

In this case the adjective is inflected with the noun endings:

laicar “keen ones”; **carni** “red ones”; **hwarindi** “crooked ones”

Dual and partitive plural are also possible:

laicat “a pair of keen ones”; **carnit** “a pair of red ones”;
i hwarindu “both crooked ones”

laicali “some keen ones”; **carnili** “some red ones”;
i hwarindeli “some crooked ones”

These nouns can of course take all case endings, e.g.

laicaron (genitive plural); **carnillo** (ablative singular);
i hwarindun (dative dual) ...

adjectives following the noun:

When the adjective is put behind its noun, the rule of the last declinable word applies. This means that the adjective takes the case endings and the noun loses them:

coa carninna “to a red house” (allative)

coa carnillo “from a red house” (ablative)

In the plural the adjective has the plural case-endings and the noun is in the nominative plural:

coar carninnar “to red houses” (allative)

In the dual the adjective has the dual case-endings and the noun is in the nominative dual:

coat carnilto “from a pair of red houses” (ablative)

Note: adjectives only have t-duals even if they contain a d- or t-sound:

i aldu tiucatsë “in both thick trees” (locative)

The other types of words that are inflected in this way are:

- participles when they follow the noun
- demonstrative pronouns
- titles also always follow the noun, so it is also the title and not the noun itself that is inflected:

Elendil Voronda “Elendil the Faithful”

Elendil Vorondan “to Elendil the Faithful” (dative)

Elendil Vorondallo “from Elendil the Faithful” (ablative)

But there are two cases in which this rule isn’t followed:

- When the noun is in the partitive plural, the case ending remains with the noun and the adjective has its original (plural) form:

coalissë carni “in some red houses” (locative)

- The adjectives on **-ëa** only have a plural form and no other cases so the ending remains with the noun:

coanna laurëa “to a golden house” (allative)

coannar laurië “to golden houses” (allative)

7.3.2 Paradigms

A few remarks:

- The forms of the plural can only be used when the adjective follows the noun, not when it is used as a noun. But in that case it follows the

ordinary rules of noun declension paradigms (appendix 1).

- Adjectives on **-ëa** cannot be inflected so they aren't included in these tables. They can be used as nouns but in that case they are inflected like the nouns **ampa** "hook" or **alda** "tree".
- The partitive plural can only be used when the adjective is used as a noun so it isn't included in the table.

Adjectives on **-a** (but not **-ëa**) are inflected as follows (**anda** "long"):

	singular	plural	dual
nominative	anda	andë	andat
genitive	ando	andëon	andato
possessive	andava	andeiva	andatwa
dative	andan	andein	andant
ablative	andallo	andellon(r)	andalto
allative	andanna	andennar	andanta
locative	andassë	andessen	andatsë
instrumental	andanen	andeinen	andanten
respective	andas	andeis	andates

Adjectives on **-ë** are inflected as follows (**ninquë** "white"):

	singular	plural	dual
nominative	ninquë	ninqui	ninquit
genitive	ninquio	ninquion	ninquito
possessive	ninquiva	ninquíva	ninquitwa
dative	ninquin	ninquín	ninquit
ablative	ninquillo	ninquillon(r)	ninquilto
allative	ninquinna	ninquinnar	ninquinta
locative	ninquissë	ninquissen	ninquitsë
instrumental	ninquinen	ninquínen	ninquinten
respective	ninquis	ninquís	ninquites

Adjectives on **-n** are inflected as follows (**melin** “dear”):

	singular	plural	dual
nominative	melin	melini/melindi	melindet
genitive	melindo	melindion	melindeto
possessive	melinwa	melindiva	melindetwa
dative	melinden	melindin	melindent
ablative	melindello	melindillon(r)	melindelto
allative	melindenna	melindinnar	melindenta
locative	melindessë	melindissen	melindetsë
instrumental	melindenen	melindinen	melindenten
respective	melindes	melindis	melindetes

7.4 Comparative

Quenya uses two different comparatives: relative and absolute.

7.4.1 relative comparison

When we use an adjective in a relative comparison, it is preceded by **lá** but its form doesn't change:

Oromë ná halla lá Mandos “Orome is longer than Mandos”

Anar ná calima lá Isil “The sun is brighter than the moon”

Note: **lá** is also used to negate a verb, so it can appear with both meanings in one sentence:

macilenya ná lá maica lá macilerya “my sword is not sharper than your sword”

7.4.2 absolute comparison

If on the other hand the comparison is used absolutely, we have a special ending **-lda**:

Oromë ná hallalda “Orome is longer”

So these comparatives are always adjectives on **-a** and follow the rules of these

adjectives:

laiqualdë peleri “greener fields”

To apply the ending to adjectives on **-ë** we use their I-stem:

ninquë “white” → **ninquilda**

and adjectives on **-in/-en** get the ending **-ilda**:

melin “dear” → **melinilda**

Finally, a few are irregular:

mára/manë “good” → **malda** “better”

vanya “beautiful, fair” → **valda** “more beautiful, fairer”

ulca “bad” → **ulda** “worse”

faica “bad” → **felda** “worse”

limba “many” → **lilda** “more”

olya “much” → **olda** “more”

and the diminutive:

manca “few” → **mitsa** “less”

7.5 Superlative

The superlative is formed by applying the prefix **an-** to the adjective:

calima “clear” → **ancalima** “clearest”

vinya “new” → **anvinya** “newest”

This prefix cannot be applied to every adjective as otherwise unallowed consonant clusters could appear. It can be prefixed to adjectives beginning in: a vowel, **c-**, **n-**, **qu-**, **t-**, **v-**, **w-**, **y-**, **f-**, **h-**.

alta “big” → **analta** “biggest”

nindë “fragile” → **annindë** “most fragile”

quenta “full” → **anquanta** “fullest”

wilwa “vague” → **anwilwa** “vaguest”

yelwa “loathsome” → **anyelwa** “most loathsome”

furin “hidden” → **anfurin** “most hidden”

halla “long” → **anhalla** “longest”

When an adjective begins in **p-** the prefix becomes **am-**:

pitya “small, little” → **ampitya** “smallest”

Before **l-**, **m-**, **r-**, **s-** the **n** of **an-** changes into an double consonant:

lauca “warm” → **allauca** “warmest”

ringa “cold” → **arringa** “coldest”

sarda “hard” → **assarda** “hardest”

marin “ripe” → **ammarin** “ripest”

7.5.1 Old-Elvish influences on the superlative

We have met the prefix **an-** for the superlative. We also said that this prefix can change under the influence of the beginning consonant of the adjective. But in all these cases the changes are in the prefix **an-** itself, the original adjective is not influenced.

But when we look at the historical development of Quenya, a large group of adjectives must have ‘historical’ irregularities, e.g.

vanya “beautiful” → **ambanya** “most beautiful”

With the Old-Elvish influences however we are getting the original forms of the adjectives back in the superlative. Most of these forms are analogous to the changes in the perfect tense.

Adjectives with **mb/nd/ng**

Let’s first look at adjectives that started with the combinations **mb-**, **nd-** and **ng-** in Old-Elvish:

- **mb-**: **marta** “fated” → **ambarta**
 merya “festive” → **amberya**
- **nd-**: **nulla** “obscure” → **andulla**
 númenya “western” → **andúmenya**
- **ng-**: **nóla** “learned” → **angóla**
 nwalca “cruel” → **angwalca**

Adjectives with d

Also an **l-** that has evolved from **d-** has such influences:

laira “shady” → **andaira**
lára “flat” → **andára**
lómëa “gloomy” → **andómëa**
lóra “dark” → **andóra**
lumna “oppressive” → **andumna**

Adjectives with b/w

A large number of adjectives that begin in **v-** in Quenya, had a **b-** in Old-Elvish. Here we find that **an + v** gives rise to the original **amb-**:

vanya “beautiful” → **ambanya**
valaina “divine” → **ambalaina**
valya “powerful” → **ambalya**
vanima “fair” → **ambanima**
varna “safe” → **ambarna**
varnë “brown” → **ambarnë**
verca “wild” → **amberca**
verya “bold” → **amberya**
vorima “continual” → **amborima**
voronwa “enduring” → **amboronwa**

In some the **v-** evolved from **w-**:

vára “dirty” → **anwára**
vëa “manly” → **anwëa**
véra “personal” → **anwéra**
vindë “blue-grey” → **anwindë**

The adjective **wenya** “green, fresh” has evolved from **gwen**, so it has following superlative:

wenya “green, fresh” → **angwenya**

8. Adverbs

As in all languages Quenya has 2 types of adverbs:

- basic adverbs
- adverbs derived from adjectives

The basic adverbs are separate words that aren't derived from another word, e.g.

sí “now”

aqua “full, completely”

There are consequently no rules on how to form them.

To make an adjective into an adverb, we use following rules:

- an adjective on **-a** gets the ending **-vë**
 - anda** “long” → **andavë** “longly”
 - tulca** “firm” → **tulcavë** “firmly”
 - saila** “wise” → **sailavë** “wisely”
- in an adjective on **-ë** this letter is replaced by **-ivë**:
 - morë** “black” → **morivë** “blackly”
 - nindë** “thin” → **nindivë** “thinly”
 - mussë** “soft” → **mussivë** “softly”
- the adjectives on **-n** cannot take the normal ending (**nv** is not allowed in Quenya phonology), so this final letter is changed into **-mbë**:
 - firin** “dead” → **firimbë** “deadly”
 - teren** “slender” → **terembë** “slenderly”

Finally, a few are irregular:

mára/manë “good” → **vandë** “well”

limba “many” → **lia** “many”

olya “much” → **olë** “more”

manca “few” → **micë** “few”

lilda “more” → **lil** “more”

olda “more” → **oldo** “more”

mitsa “less” → **mis** “less”

9. Pronouns

9.1 Personal pronouns

9.1.1 Personal pronoun endings

Most personal pronouns are used as endings with a conjugated verb. These can be found in the chapters about Verbs and about the Imperative.

One special use of these endings exists: they can be added to a preposition. Let's use the preposition **ara** "against" as an example:

- nyë**: **aranyë** "against me"
- lyë**: **aralyë** "against you"
- lmë**: **aralmë** "against us" (exclusive)
- lvë**: **aralvë** "against us" (inclusive)
- mmë**: **arammë** "against both of us" (dual)
- ntë**: **arantë** "against them"
- ryë**: **araryë** "against him/her/it"

When the preposition ends in a consonant we use the connecting vowel **e** (and as always **i** in the first person singular):

- asinyë** "with me"
- aselyë** "with you"
- asentë** "with them", ...

9.1.2 Independent personal pronouns

These are used when no ending is possible or when the personal pronoun has to be in a case other than the nominative, e.g.

nin antalyes "you give it to me"

Here "to me" has to be in the dative case so we use the personal pronoun **ni** with the dative ending **-n**.

The nominative of these independent pronouns is used in the following situations:

- when the verb has a direct object that is a personal pronoun and a subject that isn't:

i lië te latuva "the people will bless them"

Note the difference with:

i lië latuvantë “they will bless the people”

- when a gerund or a present participle has a personal pronoun as direct object:

utúlien le cenien “I have come to see you”

me cénala vánes “while he saw us (seeing us), he left”

i elda se suilala “the her greeting elf”

- after prepositions (but in that case we mostly apply the ending to the preposition):

ve nye “like me”

- with the copula **ná** the verb can be omitted and replaced by a personal pronoun:

nye aran “I am king”

le halla “you are long”

The word order is again quite free, but in principle the nominative always immediately precedes the verb (except of course when used with prepositions). The other cases either immediately precede the verb or immediately follow the verb:

órenya quéta nin / órenya nin quéta “my heart says me”

	1st pers. singular	1st pers. plural	1st pers. dual	2nd pers.	3rd pers. singular male	3rd pers. singular female	3rd pers. singular neuter	3rd pers. plural
nominative	nye	me	met	le	so	se	ta	te
dative	nin	men	ment	len	son	sen	tan	tien
ablative	nillo	mello	melto	lello	sollo	sello	tallo	tiello
allative	ninna	menna	menta	lenna	sonna	senna	tanna	tienna
locative	nissë	messë	metsë	lessë	sossë	sessë	tassë	tiessë
instrumental	ninen	menen	menten	lenen	sonen	senen	tanen	tienen
respective	nis	mes	metes	les	sos	ses	tas	ties

Note:

- the forms of the 3rd person singular depend on the gender:
Oromë sonna lendë “Orome went to him”
Oromë senna lendë “Orome went to her”
- the cases of **ta** cannot be translated literally, i.e. **tallo** isn’t translated by “from it” but by “from there”, ...
Oromë tanna lendë “Orome went (over)there”
Oromë tassë hamë “Orome sits thereupon/therein”
- the difference between the 1st person plural and dual is translated by using “both” with the dual:
imbë me “between us”
imbë met “between us both”

9.1.3 Emphatic personal pronouns

Sometimes we want to emphasize the personal pronoun and in that case we don’t use endings but separate words.

Let’s look at an example, non-emphatic we use endings:

hiruvalyes “you shall find it”

When we want to emphasize that “you” found it, we change this into:

elyë ta hiruva “even you shall find it”

Note: **ta** is an ordinary independent pronoun because it cannot stay an object ending if no subject ending is present.

An example in the first person:

inyë tye méla “even I love you”

These forms can also be used as direct object:

mélalyë inyë “you love even me”

An overview of the emphatic personal pronouns:

inyë “even I, even me”

elyë “even you”

eryë “even he/she/it, even him/her/it”

elmë “even we, even us” (excl.)

elwë “even we, even us” (incl.)

emmë “even we, even us” (dual)

entë “even they, even them”

When we use an emphatic pronoun we do not add a personal ending to the verb:

elyë lala “even you laugh”

But in the plural we still use the ending **-r**:

elmë lalar “even we laugh”

So emphatically we can see a difference between singular “you” and plural “you”:

elyë matë “even you eat” (singular)

elyë matir “even you eat” (plural)

The negation of a verb with an emphatic pronoun always uses **lá** instead of **um-** (see Verbs):

elyë lá linda “even you don’t sing”

Note: The emphatic pronouns can be declined in all cases, e.g.:

elmen “even for us” (dative)

inyenna “even towards me” (allative)

9.1.4 The informal second person

There is a poorly attested form in Quenya that is used for the informal second person singular (in English we see no difference, but some examples of other languages are French “tu”, German “du”, Dutch “jij”). The normal second person is in the singular always formal (French “vous”, German “Sie”, Dutch “u”).

The informal forms are only used when the person spoken to is very close, a brother, sister or very good friend.

The personal pronoun subject ending is **-ccë**:

maticcë “you eat”

The object ending doesn’t have an informal form, so we always use **-l**:

ceninyel “I see you”

The independent forms are based on the stem **ce-**:

Dative: **cen**, Ablative: **cello**, Allative: **cenna**,

Locative: **cessë**, Instrumental: **cenen**, Respective: **ces**.

An example with the dative:

antan cen lôtë “I give you a flower”

The nominative has an exceptional form: **tye**.

atar tye canë “father commands you”

The emphatic form is:

eccë “even you”

9.2 Possessive pronouns

Most of the time we use possessive endings instead of independent possessive pronouns.

These should not be confused with the endings of the possessive case (e.g. “my prince’s horse” would become **rocco cundunyava** where **cundu** both gets a possessive pronoun ending **nya** to denote “my” and a possessive case ending **va** to denote the English genitive ending).

9.2.1 Possessive endings

They can be formed by changing the final **-ë** of the subject endings of the verbs (see Verbs) into **-a**:

verb ending	translation	possessive	translation
-nyë	I	-nya	my
-lyë	you	-lya	your
-lvë	we (incl.)	-lva	our (incl.)
-lmë	we (excl.)	-lma	our (excl.)
-mmë	we (dual)	-mma	our (dual)
-ryë	he/she/it	-rya	his/her/its
-ntë	they	-nta	their

They are used as endings of nouns:

coanya “my house”

roccolya “your horse”

nórenta “their country”

The different endings for “our” correspond to the different endings for “we”:

coalva “our house (and also yours)”

coalma “our house (but not yours)”

coamma “the house of the two of us”

When a possessive ending and a case ending are added to the same noun we always apply the possessive ending first and only afterwards the case ending:

Anar caluva tielyanna “the Sun will shine towards your path”

So we find **tielyanna** = **tië** + **lya** (possessive) + **nna** (allative).

In fact is easiest to look upon a noun with a case ending as a new noun that is declined according to the rules of the different cases and numbers. Let’s e.g. look at **sambelya** “your room”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	sambelya	sambelyar	sambelyat	sambelyali
genitive	sambelyo	sambelyaron	sambelyato	sambelyalion
possessive	sambelyava	sambelyaiva	sambelyatwa	sambelyalíva
dative	sambelyan	sambelyain	sambelyant	sambelyalin
ablative	sambelyallo	sambelyallon(r)	sambelyalto	sambelyalillo(n,r)
allative	sambelyanna	sambelyannar	sambelyanta	sambelyalinna(r)
locative	sambelyassë	sambelyassen	sambelyatsë	sambelyalissë(n)
instrumental	sambelyanen	sambelyainen	sambelyanten	sambelyalínen
respective	sambelyas	sambelyais	sambelyates	sambelyalis

Note:

- the ending **-nta** is also the ending of the dual allative. So **ciryanta** can mean “their ship” as well as “towards both ships”. Of course “towards both their ships” is **ciryantanta**.
- nouns with possessive endings always have t-duals, never u-duals.

- there is also an informal second person possessive ending: **-cca**:

macilecca “your sword”

Adding possessive endings to nouns

When the noun ends on a consonant we have to add an extra vowel before we can add the possessive ending. When the noun has a stem-form we use the stem-form before adding these endings:

- in the plural or before **-nya** this vowel is **-i-**
 - macilinya** “my sword” (nom. macil)
 - masinyar** “my homes” (nom. mar)
 - tecilintar** “their pens” (nom. tecil)
- in the singular it is **-e-** (except with **-nya**)
 - atarelya** “your father” (nom. atar)
 - amillenta** “their mother” (nom. amil)
- in the dual it is **-u-** (except with **-nya**)
 - maciluryat** “both his/her swords” (nom. macil)
 - fiondulmat** “both our hawks” (nom. fion)

(but note: **alda** “tree” has **aldu** as dual, but when a possessive ending is added we don’t find the **-u-** as it ends in a vowel: **aldaryat**).

When the noun ends in a vowel no extra vowel is needed (so in the partitive plural there is no need for an extra vowel).

I-stems and U-stems add possessive endings to their stem-forms:

angulya “your snake” (nom. *ango*)
lingwintar “their fishes” (nom. *lingwë*)

Nouns ending in **-ë** that are not I-stems always add possessive endings to the singular, when we need a plural ending we add it after the possessive ending:

lassenya “my leaf” (nom. *lassë*)
lassenyar “my leaves”

An optional rule is used whenever the noun ends on the same consonant as the first consonant of the possessive ending. In that case no extra vowel is added and the two identical consonants merge into one:

aranyar “my kings” (but **araninyar** is also acceptable)
macilya “your sword” (but **macilelya** is also acceptable)

The expressions “my son”, “my daughter” and “my child” have irregular contractions with the ending **-nya**:

yondo + nya = yonya “my son”

yeldë + nya = yenya “my daughter”

hína + nya = hinya “my child”

When the possessive endings **-nya**, **-lya** or **-rya** are applied to 2-letter nouns the final long vowel of these nouns is not shortened as the combinations **ny**, **ly** and **ry** are not seen as double consonants (see Quenya/Phonology):

máryat “both his/her hands” (nom. *má*)

hónya “my owl” (nom. *hó*)

But the long vowel has to be shortened before the other possessive endings:

pentat “both their lips” (nom. *pé*)

9.2.2 Infinitives with possessive endings

In the page on verbal forms the long infinitive can be found. It is used when the infinitive has a direct object:

merin caritas “I want to do it”

It is also possible to express a different subject for the infinitive by adding a possessive ending:

merin caritalyas “I want you to do it”

mernelyë tiritanyat “you wanted me to look at them”

This construction can also be used when the direct object is something else than a personal pronoun:

merin tiritalya i seldor “I want you to look at the boys”

9.2.3 Independent Possessive pronouns

When you look at the independent personal pronouns, it is apparent that the possessive and genitive cases are missing.

When the possessive pronoun is not emphasized we use the possessive endings as discussed above, but sometimes we do want to stress these pronouns and in that case we use the independent forms. They are used as adjectives:

lenya parma “your book (and no one elses)”

and can also be used predicatively:

i parma ná lenya “the book is yours”

These pronouns are formed by adding **-ya** to the dative of the independent personal pronouns, this gives following overview:

pronoun	translation
ninya	mine
lenya	yours
menya	ours
mentya	ours (dual)
sonya	his
senya	hers
tanya	its, thereof
tienya	theirs

This last word of course also means “my path”, but normally these two meanings shouldn’t be confused.

Note: there also exists an informal second person: **cenya** “yours”.

9.3 Relative pronouns

Quenya contains two relative pronouns **ya** and **i**.

The pronoun **i** cannot be declined, it is only used when it is the subject of the sub-sentence and the antecedent is a person or a group of persons:

i eldar i tirir i naucor, enger i tauressë “the elves who are looking at the dwarves were in the wood”

By contrast, the number of **ya** equals the number of the antecedent (the noun to which it refers):

i harma ya hirnelyë, ná alta “the treasure (that) you found is big”

i harmar yar hirnelyë, nar altë “the treasures (that) you found are big”

i harmat yat hirnelyë, nar altë “both treasures (that) you found are big”

And it can be used to replace both subject and object. So the following sentence has two meanings:

i eldar yar tirir i naucor, ... “the elves who are looking at the dwarves ...
/ that the dwarves are looking at ...”

In contrast to **i**, it is never wrong to use **ya** although sometimes the context has to be used to decide which meaning is actually intended.

The pronoun **ya** is declined depending on the function it has in the sub-sentence. When **ya** is used instead of noun in a certain case, it has to be declined in that case:

i coar yassen marilmë, nar carnë “the houses in which we live are red”

is decomposed of:

i coar nar carnë + i coassen marilmë “the houses are red” + “we live in the houses”

So **ya** is used to replace **i coassen**, so it becomes **yassen**.

It is declined as a noun on **-a**:

	singular	plural	dual
nominative	ya	yar	yat
genitive	yo	yaron	yato
possessive	yava	yaiva	yatwa
dative	yan	yain	yant
ablative	yallo	yallon(r)	yalto
allative	yanna	yannar	yanta
locative	yassë	yassen	yatsë
instrumental	yanen	yainen	yanten
respective	yas	yais	yates

In a relative sub-sentence the word order is not as free as in a normal sentence as the verb always immediately follows the relative pronoun. And so in this case the subject follows its verb:

i osto yassë marë i nér, ... “the city in which the man lives ...”

i tol yanna círar i ciryar, ... “the island to(wards) which the ships are sailing ...”

i nóri yallon tuller i ohtari, ... “the countries from which the soldiers came ...”

The advantage of this is that there is never any confusion between the use of **i** as article and as relative pronoun, as the relative pronoun is always followed by a conjugated verb:

i nissi i lindëar, ... “the women who are singing ...”

Remark: The case-ending of **ya** can be omitted when the antecedent has the same case in the main sentence as **ya** has in the subsentence:

lómissë yassë cennenyes = lómissë ya cennenyes “in the night in which I saw it”

9.3.1 Relative pronouns without antecedent

The relative pronoun **i** can be used without antecedent, it then means “the one(s) who”:

i lindëa, ná nís “the one that is singing is a woman”

i hirner i malta, nar alyë “the ones that found the gold are rich”

Such sub-sentences can also appear as direct object of the main verb:

hiruvan i suncer limpenya “I shall find the ones that drank my wine”

The relative pronoun **ya** can also be used in this way, but it means “that which”:

ecénien, ya túla “I have seen that which is coming”

ya merin, ná limpë “that which I want is wine”

9.4 Demonstrative pronouns

Quenya distinguishes three distances: close, away, far away. We also have two demonstrative pronouns that indicate that something is in the past or in the future.

close: this demonstrative pronoun is **sina** “this”

elda sina “this elf”

coa sina “this house”

and in the plural:

nissi sinë “these women”

Note: **sina** is related to **sí** “now” and **sinomë** “here”

away: this demonstrative pronoun is **tana** “that”

nauco tana “that dwarf”

rocco tana “that horse”

and in the plural:

vendi tanë “those girls”

far away/future: this demonstrative pronoun is **enta** “yonder”, it is also used to denote something in the future:

coa enta “yonder house, the future house”

and in the plural:

cundur entë “yonder princes, the future princes”

past: this demonstrative pronoun is **yana** “former, earlier”

aran yana “the former king, the earlier king”

and in the plural:

arani yanë “the former kings, the earlier kings”

Note:

- Words with a demonstrative pronoun don't have the article.
- Demonstrative pronouns always follow their noun so the rules of the last declinable word have to be followed:

nér sinanen “by this man” (instrumental)

neri sinínen “by this man” (instrumental)

9.4.1 independant demonstrative pronouns

The pronouns **sina** and **tana** can also be used as subject without accompanying noun:

sin ná coa “this is a house”

ta ná nér “that is a man”

These independant forms don't change when used in the plural:

sin nar coar “these are houses”

ta nar neri “those are men”

9.5 Interrogative pronouns

In English most interrogative pronouns begin with a “w”: who, what, where, when, why, ... In Quenya they analogously start in **ma-**.

So we find that “who” corresponds to **man**:

man tiruva? “who shall look?”

And “what” corresponds to **mana**:

mana ná coimas? “what is lembas?”

This interrogative pronoun can also be used with the meaning “which”, but then it isn't put at the start of the question but follows the noun:

cirya mana cenil? “which ship do you see?”

The other English interrogative pronouns correspond to the inflected forms of **man** and **mana**:

	man	meaning	mana	meaning
nominative	man	who?	mana	what?
genitive	mano	whose?		
dative			manan	to whom?
ablative	mallo	wherefrom?		
allative	manna	whereto?		
locative	massë	where?	manassë	when?
instrumental	manen	how?	mananen	with what?
respective			manas	whereby?

The final interrogative pronoun **ma** is used to ask yes/no-questions. The word order doesn't change, we just add **ma** to the beginning of the sentence to make it into a yes/no-question:

tences i parma "he wrote the book"

→ **ma tences i parma?** "did he write the book?"

ëa malta i orontessë "there is gold in the mountain"

→ **ma ëa malta i orontessë?** "is there gold in the mountain?"

The verb **ná** (or **nar**) is usually dropped when changing the sentence into a yes/no-question:

nís enta ná elda "that woman is an elf"

→ **ma nís enta elda?** "is that woman an elf?"

In an interrogative sub-sentence, we also use **ma**:

umin ista ma utúlies "I don't know whether he has come"

9.6 Indefinite pronouns

When you want to be vague about who performs an action we use "one" or "someone" in English. In Quenya we use the pronoun **quen**:

quen rancë yulma "someone broke a cup"

Its declination is in all cases except the nominative equal to the declination of the noun **quén, quen-** “person”:

matië yávë ná mára quenén “eating fruit is good for someone”

The pronoun **ilya** means “each” when used in the singular and “all” in the plural:

ilya parma “each book”

ilyë parmar “all books”

The pronouns for “many”, “much” are:

- **limba** with adverb **lil** (used for countable things that do not involve time)
- **rimba** with adverb **rimbavë** (used with meaning “frequent, numerous”)
- **olya** with adverb **olë/oltë** (“much”)

The other indefinite pronouns are:

ilquen “everyone”

úquen “nobody, none”

qua “something”

ilqua “everything”

úqua “nothing, none”

The English indefinite pronouns “some” and “few” do not exist in Quenya as they are rendered by the Partitive Plural (see Nouns).

9.7 Reflexive pronouns

The reflexive pronoun is expressed by the ending **-co**. It replaces the object ending of the verb:

ceninyes “I see him/her/it”

becomes

ceninyeco “I see myself”

meliryeco “he/she/it loves himself/herself/itself”

10. Number words

The first 11 numerals are:

minë (1)	atta (2)	neldë (3)	canta (4)
lempë (5)	enquë (6)	otso (7)	tolto (8)
nertë (9)	cainen (10)	minquë (11)	

As the elves originally used the duodecimal (base-12) number system, they had need for 12 different digits. This is the reason that the symbols for 10 and 11 are included in this table. The number zero is **munta**.

There are two words for the number 12:

12 **rasta/yunquë**

The word **rasta** means something like “a dozen”, **yunquë** is used for counting.

The numbers 13 to 19 are made with the suffix **-cëa** after the first syllable of the number words for 3 to 9:

13	nelcëa
14	cancëa
15	lencëa
16	encëa
17	occëa
18	tolcëa
19	nercëa

The multiples of 10, thus 20 to 90, are constructed with the suffix **-cainen**:

20	yucainen
30	nelcainen
40	cancainen
50	lemincainen
60	eneccainen
70	otsocainen
80	tolcainen
90	nercainen
100	tuxa

To make a number that is not a multiple of 10, we first write the units and then afterwards the multiple of 10 (to speakers of German or Dutch, this is very common):

54 **canta lemincainen**

The numbers between 100 and 200 can be made in the same fashion:

140 **cancainen tuxa**

172 **atta otsocainen tuxa**

Just as for 12, the numbers 110 and 120 can be written in two different ways:

110 **cainen tuxa/minquecainen**

120 **yucainen tuxa/yunquecainen**

To write the numbers 200 to 900 we use the same prefixes as the multiples of 10, but this time with the suffix **-tuxa**:

200 **yutuxa**

300 **neltuxa**

400 **cantuxa**

etc.

We also know the number words:

1000 **húmë**

1 million **mindóra**

There is still one strange feature of the number words from 20 upwards, when these number words are followed by a noun, the noun is in the partitive plural:

nelcainen roccoli "thirty horses"

tuxa cirjali "one hundred ships"

10.1 Ordinals

The first three ordinals are irregular:

first: **minya**

second: **tatya**

third: **nelya**

From four until nine we remove the last vowel of the cardinal number and add –**ëa**:

four: **canta** → fourth: **cantëa**

five: **lempë** → fifth: **lempëa**

six: **enquë** → sixth: **enquëa**

seven: **otso** → seventh: **otsëa**

eight: **tolto** → eighth: **toltëa**

nine: **nertë** → ninth: **nertëa**

Ten is again irregular:

ten: **cainen** → tenth: **quainëa**

But eleven and twelve also follow the normal rule:

eleven: **minquë** → eleventh: **minquëa**

twelve: **yunquë** → twelfth: **yunquëa**

For “half” we have the word **perya**.

10.2 Quotientials

There also exists quotientials that are used when something has happened a certain number of times. They are used as adverbs:

eru once

yú twice

nel thrice (or three times)

can four times

The higher numbers are formed with the suffix –**llumë**:

lemillumë five times

enquellumë six times

cëallumë ten times

tuxallumë one hundred times

11. Syntaxis

This article isn't really an overview of Quenya syntaxis, but rather a list of topics that have to do with syntaxis and that didn't really fit on any other page.

11.1 Passive voice

The passive participle can in addition to being an adjective, also be used to form passive sentences.

In a normal sentence in the active voice, the subject is the one performing the action of the verb: "he reads the book". But we can make the object of the sentence (the book) the subject of a new sentence "the book is read" or "the book has been read". These sentences belong to the passive voice because their subject undergoes the action of the verb.

In English we recognize these sentences by the use of "to be" as auxiliary verb. The main verb is changed into a past participle.

In the chapter on verbal forms you can find how to form the passive participle and how to use it as an adjective:

i coa carna "the built house"

Quenya doesn't have a real passive voice but uses a construction with the verb **ná** and uses the passive participle as a predicate:

i coa ná carna "the house is built"

In the plural this becomes:

i coar nar carnë "the houses are built"

By changing the tense of **ná** we can form the Passive Past and Passive Future tenses:

i coa né carna "the house was built"

i coa nauva carna "the house will be built"

But sometimes it is better to avoid a passive construction by using the indefinite pronoun **quen**:

quen cára i coa

Literally “someone is building a house”, this can be used as an alternative for “a house is being built”.

A passive sentence is related to an active sentence in the following way:

i elda tencë i parma “the elf wrote the book”

The object **i parma** becomes the subject and the original subject **i elda** becomes the agent:

i parma né técina i eldanen “the book was written by the elf”

As can be seen, the agent is expressed by a noun in the instrumental case.

This also implies that in one passive sentence two nouns in the instrumental case can appear: an agent and a normal instrumental:

i parma né técina i eldanen i quessenen “the book was written by the elf with a feather”

When a passive participle is used as an adjective it can also have an agent:

i parma técina i eldanen né carnë “the book written by an elf was red”

i nerinen carnë coar ataltier “the houses built by the men have collapsed”

11.2 Wish contructions

Sometimes you only want to express a wish or a hope that something would happen. In Quenya this is expressed by a sentence beginning with the particle **nai**.

In English we this is expressed by sentences beginning with “may”, but this not very frequently used in modern English:

nai hiruvalyes “may you find it”

In modern English we would rather use:

nai tiruantes “I hope (that) they see it/I wish (that) they see it”

Note: the verb following “nai” is always in the future tense.

In this way, we can make any sentence with a future tense into a wish:

hiruvan i malta “I shall find the gold”

→ **nai hiruvan i malta** “I hope I shall find the gold”

caruvantes “they will do it”

→ **nai caruvantes** “I hope they will do it”

elda tuluva “an elf will come”

→ **nai elda tuluva** “I hope an Elf will come”

The word **nai** has an additional meaning of “probably”, so when you use it, you assume that something will very likely happen.

There also exists a word **cé** that is very similar to **nai**, but it has the additional meaning “maybe”. It is also used with a future tense:

cé caruvantes “they will maybe do it”

So by using **cé**, we express that we have strong doubts whether they will actually do it.

11.3 Conditional sentences

A conditional sentence begins in English with “when” or “if”.

The Quenya conjunction **irë** means “when”, so a conditional sentence with **irë** expresses a certainty that something will happen:

irë ceninyel, nan alassë “when I see you, I am happy”

When we are not so sure, we use **mai** (or **ai**) to express “if”:

mai ceninyel, nán alassë “if I see you, I am happy”

So in this sentence it is not sure that I will see you.

It is also possible to express doubts over the other part of the sentence, but in this case we use **nai** or **cé** as the final word of the part of the sentence without **mai** or **irë**:

irë ëar lumbor, liptuva nai “when there are clouds, it will probably rain”

tuluva cé, mai ëal coassë “I shall maybe come, if you are home”

11.4 Postpositions

In Quenya we have at least two postpositions, they are the equivalent of prepositions but are put behind the noun to which they belong.

In English this also happens with the postposition “ago”, e.g. “three years ago”. In Quenya the word **yá** “ago” is used in the same way:

neldë loar yá “three years ago”

Another postposition is **pella** “beyond”, in English this is however a preposition:

Númen pella “beyond the west”

The noun can also be declined:

elenillor pella “from beyond the stars”

In Old-Elvish apparently more postpositions existed, but these were assimilated into the cases (see Quenya/Nouns), e.g. the postposition **ana** changed into the case-ending **-nna**.

11.5 Indirect speech

Indirect speech is the construction with “that” that is used after verbs that express that something is said, thought, hoped or wished, e.g. “I think that he comes”, “you wish that he was here”. In English the conjunction “that” is often omitted but this is not allowed in Quenya, so English-speakers have to be very careful when translating such sentences into Quenya.

The conjunction “that” is translated by **sa**:

merin sa haryalyë alassë “I wish/want (that) you are happy”

istan sa äalyë sinomë “I know (that) you are here”

The indirect speech can also be the subject of the sentence. In following example the entire word-group **sa äalyë sinomë** is the subject of the sentence:

ná manë sa äalyë sinomë “that you are here, is good”

Indirect speech can also appear with **equë** (see Quenya/Special Verbs):

equë Elendil sa tulles “Elendil said that he came”

Appendix 1: Noun declension paradigms

1. nouns in -a

We use **ampa** “hook”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	ampa	ampar	ampat	ampali
genitive	ampo	amparon	ampato	ampalion
possessive	ampava	ampaiva	ampatwa	ampalíva
dative	ampan	ampain	ampant	ampalin
ablative	ampallo	ampallon(r)	ampalto	ampalillo(n)(r)
allative	ampanna	ampannar	ampanta	ampalinna(r)
locative	ampassë	ampassen	ampatsë	ampalisse(n)
instrumental	ampanen	ampainen	ampanten	ampalínen
respective	ampas	ampais	ampates	ampalis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **alda** “tree”):

Nom. **aldu**, Gen. **alduo**, Poss. **alduva**, Dat. **aldun**,

Abl. **aldullo**, All. **aldunna**, Loc. **aldussë**, Instr. **aldunen**, Resp. **aldus**.

Note: nouns on -**oa** probably have a genitive singular in -**ó**:

coa “house” → **có**

and always have a t-dual.

2. nouns in -l

We use **macil** “sword”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	macil	macili	macilet	macilli
genitive	macilo	macilion	<u>macilto</u>	macillion
possessive	macilwa	maciliva	maciletwa	macilliva

dative	macilen	macilin	macilent	macillin
ablative	<u>macillo</u>	<u>macillon(r)</u>	macilelto	macillillo(n)(r)
allative	<u>macilda</u>	macilinnar	macilenta	macillinna(r)
locative	<u>macildë</u>	macilissen	maciletsë	macillisse(n)
instrumental	<u>macilden</u>	macilinen	macilenten	macillinen
respective	maciles	macilis	maciletes	macillis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **sutil** “slime”):

Nom. **sutilu**, Gen. **sutiluo**, Poss. **sutiluva**, Dat. **sutilun**,

Abl. **sutilullo**, All. **sutilunna**, Loc. **sutilussë**, Instr. **sutilunen**, Resp. **sutilus**.

3. nouns in -n

We use **aran** “king”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	aran	arani	aranet	aralli
genitive	arano	aranion	<u>aranto</u>	arallion
possessive	aranwa	araniva	aranetwa	aralliva
dative	aranen	aranin	aranent	arallin
ablative	<u>arallo</u>	aranillon(r)	aranelto	arallillo(n)(r)
allative	<u>aranna</u>	<u>arannar</u>	aranenta	arallinna(r)
locative	<u>arandë</u>	aranissen	aranetsë	arallisse(n)
instrumental	<u>aralden</u>	araninen	aranenten	arallinen
respective	aranes	aranis	aranetes	arallis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **atan** “human, man”):

Nom. **atanu**, Gen. **atanuo**, Poss. **atanuva**, Dat. **atanun**,

Abl. **atanullo**, All. **atanunna**, Loc. **atanussë**, Instr. **atanunen**, Resp. **atanus**.

4. nouns in -r

We use **luxor** “swamp, bog”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	luxor	luxori	luxoret	luxolli
genitive	luxoro	luxorion	<u>luxorto</u>	luxollion
possessive	luxorwa	luxoriva	luxoretwa	luxolliva
dative	luxoren	luxorin	luxorent	luxollin
ablative	<u>luxollo</u>	luxorillon(r)	luxorelto	luxollillo(n)(r)
allative	luxorena	luxorinnar	luxorenta	luxollinna(r)
locative	luxoressë	luxorissen	luxoretsë	luxollisse(n)
instrumental	luxornen	luxorinen	luxorenten	luxollinen
respective	luxores	luxoris	luxoretet	luxollis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **tasar** “willow”):

Nom. **tasaru**, Gen. **tasaruo**, Poss. **tasaruva**, Dat. **tasarun**,

Abl. **tasarullo**, All. **tasarunna**, Loc. **tasarussë**, Instr. **tasarunen**, Resp. **tasarus**.

5. nouns in -s

We use **cos** “quarrel, dispute”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	cos	cosi	coset	colli
genitive	coso	cosion	<u>costo</u>	collion
possessive	coswa	cosiva	cosetwa	colliva
dative	cosen	cosin	cosent	collin
ablative	<u>collo</u>	cosillon(r)	coselto	collillo(n)(r)
allative	cosenna	cosinnar	cosenta	collinna(r)

locative	<u>cossë</u>	<u>cossen</u>	cosetsë	collisse(n)
instrumental	cosenen	cosinen	cosenten	collinen
respective	coses	cosis	cosetes	collis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **tavas** “woodland”):

Nom. **tavas**, Gen. **tavasu**, Poss. **tavasuva**, Dat. **tavasun**,

Abl. **tavasullo**, All. **tavasunna**, Loc. **tavasussë**, Instr. **tavasunen**, Resp. **tavasus**.

6. nouns in -t

We use **sarat** “sign” (this group only contains u-duals):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	sarat	sarati	saratu	sarateli
genitive	sarato	saration	saratuo	saratelion
possessive	saratwa	sarativa	saratuva	sarateliva
dative	saraten	saratin	saratun	saratelin
ablative	saratello	saratillon(r)	saratullo	saratelillo(n)(r)
allative	saratenna	saratinnar	saratunna	saratelinna(r)
locative	<u>saratsë</u>	saratissen	saratussë	saratelisse(n)
instrumental	<u>saranten</u>	saratinen	saratunen	saratelinen
respective	sarates	saratis	saratus	saratelis

7. Nouns in -ë with plural in -er

This group only contains four nouns: **mallë** “street”, **rotsë** “pipe”, **tyávë** “taste”, **tyellë** “grade”. All nouns have t-duals, no u-duals are possible.

They are declined as follows (we use **mallë** “street”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	mallë	maller	mallet	malleli
genitive	mallëo	malleron	malleto	mallelion

possessive	malleva	<u>mallíva</u>	malletwa	mallelíva
dative	mallen	<u>mallín</u>	mallent	mallelin
ablative	mallello	mallellon(r)	mallelto	mallelillo(n)(r)
allative	mallenna	mallengnar	mallenta	mallelinna(r)
locative	mallessë	mallessen	malletsë	mallelisse(n)
instrumental	mallenen	<u>mallínen</u>	mallenten	mallelínen
respective	malles	<u>mallís</u>	malletes	mallelis

8. Nouns in -ë without I-stem

These normal nouns as e.g. **aurë** “day” keep this –ë in all cases of the singular and in ablative, allative and locative in the plural. In the other cases of the plural this –ë changes into an –i (we use **aurë** “day”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	aurë	auri	auret	aureli
genitive	aurëo	aurion	aureto	aurelion
possessive	aureva	<u>auríva</u>	auretwa	aurelíva
dative	auren	<u>aurín</u>	aurent	aurelin
ablative	aurello	aurellon(r)	aurelto	aurelillo(n)(r)
allative	aureнна	aurennar	aurenta	aurelinna(r)
locative	auressë	auressen	auretsë	aurelisse(n)
instrumental	aurenen	<u>aurínen</u>	aurenten	aurelínen
respective	atures	<u>aurís</u>	auretes	aurelis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **tanwë** “device”):

Nom. **tanweu**, Poss. **tanweuva**, Dat. **tanweun**,

Abl. **tanweullo**, All. **tanweunna**, Loc. **tanweussë**, Instr. **tanweunen**,
Resp. **tanweus**.

Note: the Genitive dual is always formed with the t-dual: **tanweto**.

9. Nouns in -ë with I-stem

These nouns use **-i** in all cases except the nominative singular (we use **porë**, **pori-** “flour”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	porë	porir	porit	porili
genitive	porio	poriron	porito	porilion
possessive	poriva	<u>poríva</u>	poritwa	porilíva
dative	porin	<u>porín</u>	porint	porilin
ablative	porillo	porillon(r)	porilto	porilillo(n)(r)
allative	porinna	porinnar	porinta	porilinna(r)
locative	porissë	porissen	poritsë	porilisse(n)
instrumental	porinen	<u>porínen</u>	porinten	porilínen
respective	poris	<u>porís</u>	porites	porilis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **lohtë** “blossom”):

Nom. **lohtiu**, Gen. **lohtiuo**, Poss. **lohtiuva**, Dat. **lohtiu**,

Abl. **lohtiuullo**, All. **lohtiunna**, Loc. **lohtiussë**, Instr. **lohtiunen**, Resp. **lohtius**.

Some I-stems have a completely irregular nominative singular, in all other cases they follow the declension of **lohtë**:

lapattë, **lapatsi-** “rabbit”

mahtë, **maxi-** “hold, grip”

ohtë, **oxi-** “egg”

suhtë, **suxi-** “resin, gum”

A few remarks:

- The noun **ethë** “spear” can be inflected as an I-stem or as a noun without I-stem.
- The noun **lingwë** has an alternative nominative singular **linwë**. All other cases are formed with the stem **lingwi-**.
- The adjectives in **-ë** also belong to the I-stems, but one can only notice this when the adjective takes case endings (see inflected adjectives).

10. Nouns in -i

These nouns mostly denote female persons or animals (we use **lopsi** “mare”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	lopsi	lopsir	lopsit	lopsili
genitive	lopsio	lopsiron	lopsito	lopsilion
possessive	lopsiva	<u>lopsíva</u>	lopsitwa	lopsilíva
dative	lopsin	<u>lopsín</u>	lopsint	lopsilin
ablative	lopsillo	lopsillon(r)	lopsilto	lopsilillo(n)(r)
allative	lopsinna	lopsinnar	lopsinta	lopsilinna(r)
locative	lopsissë	lopsissen	lopsitsë	lopsilisse(n)
instrumental	lopsinen	<u>lopsínen</u>	lopsinten	lopsilínen
respective	lopsiis	<u>lopsís</u>	lopsites	lopsilis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **tári** “queen”):

Nom. **táriu**, Gen. **táriuo**, Poss. **táriuva**, Dat. **táriun**,

Abl. **táriullo**, All. **táriunna**, Loc. **táriussë**, Instr. **táriunen**, Resp. **tárius**.

11. Nouns in -ië

All nouns have t-duals, no u-duals are possible (we use **tië** “path”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	tië	tier	tiet	<u>tiéli</u>
genitive	<u>tiéo</u>	<u>tiéron</u>	<u>tiéto</u>	tielion
possessive	<u>tiéva</u>	<u>tíva</u>	tietwa	tielíva
dative	tien	<u>tín</u>	tient	<u>tiélin</u>
ablative	tiello	tiellon(r)	tielto	tielillo(n)(r)
allative	tienna	tiennar	tienta	tielinna(r)
locative	tiessë	tiessen	tietsë	tielisse(n)

instrumental	<u>tié</u> nen	<u>ti</u> nen	tienten	tielinen
respective	ties	<u>tí</u> s	<u>tié</u> tes	<u>tié</u> lis

12. Nouns in -o that keep -o in all cases

They are declined as follows (we use **carpo** “frog”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	carpo	carpor	carpot	carpoli
genitive	carpo	carporon	carpoto	carpolion
possessive	carpova	carpoiva	carpotwa	carpolíva
dative	carpon	carpoin	carpont	carpolin
ablative	carpollo	carpollon(r)	carpolto	carpolillo(n)(r)
allative	carponna	carponnar	carponta	carpolinna(r)
locative	carpossë	carpossen	carpotsë	carpolisse(n)
instrumental	carponen	carpoinen	carponten	carpolinen
respective	carpos	carpois	carpotes	carpolis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **ondo** “stone”):

Nom. **ondu**, Gen. **onduo**, Poss. **onduva**, Dat. **ondun**,

Abl. **ondullo**, All. **ondunna**, Loc. **ondussë**, Instr. **ondunen**, Resp. **ondus**.

13. Nouns in -u that keep -u in all cases

There also exist words that end in the nominative in **-u**, these are however not U-stems. They differ from the U-stems in the nominative and the genitive plural. They also always have a t-dual.

They are declined as follows (we use **heru** “lord”):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	heru	herur	herut	heruli
genitive	heru	heruron	heruto	herulion
possessive	heruva	heruiva	herutwa	herulíva

dative	herun	heruin	herunt	herulin
ablative	herullo	herullon(r)	herulto	herulillo(n)(r)
allative	herunna	herunnar	herunta	herulinna(r)
locative	herussë	herussen	herutsë	herulisse(n)
instrumental	herunen	heruinen	herunten	herulinen
respective	herus	heruis	herutes	herulis

14. Nouns in -o with a U-stem

These are the real U-stems. But there are two exceptional categories: the nouns in **-co** and the nouns in **-go**.

The others are declined as follows (we use **malo**, **malu-** “pollen”). Note that these nouns don’t follow the normal rule for the formation of the plural: they get **-i** as extension instead of the **-r** that ordinarily follows vowels.

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	malo	malui	malut	maluli
genitive	maluo	maluion	maluto	malulion
possessive	maluva	maluiva	malutwa	malulíva
dative	malun	maluin	malunt	malulin
ablative	malullo	malullon(r)	malulto	malulillo(n)(r)
allative	malunna	malunnar	malunta	malulinna(r)
locative	malussë	malussen	malutsë	malulisse(n)
instrumental	malunen	maluinen	malunten	malulinen
respective	Malus	maluis	malutes	malulis

The u-duals in this group are declined as follows (we use **sito**, **situ-** “habit”):

Nom. **situ**, Gen. **situo**, Poss. **situva**, Dat. **situn**,

Abl. **situllo**, All. **situnna**, Loc. **situssë**, Instr. **situnen**, Resp. **situs**.

Note that these forms are, except for the nominative, all equal to the singular.

The noun **tuo** “muscle” behaves rather strangely because its Old-Elvish stem was **túu-**. This long **ú** appears when the ending begins in a single consonant; when the ending starts in a consonant cluster or a vowel, we find **u** instead of **ú**, e.g.

Dative singular: **tún**

Ablative singular: **tullo**

U-stems in -co

The special feature here is that the combination **cui** changes in **qui**. As an example we look at **urco**, **urcu-** “bogey”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	urco	<u>urqui</u>	urcut	urculi
genitive	urcuo	<u>urquion</u>	urcuto	urculion
possessive	urcuva	<u>urquiva</u>	urcutwa	urculiva
dative	urcun	<u>urquin</u>	urcut	urculin
ablative	urcullo	urcullon(r)	urculto	urculillo(n)(r)
allative	urcunna	urcunnar	urcunta	urculinna(r)
locative	urcussë	urcussen	urcutsë	urculisse(n)
instrumental	urcunen	<u>urquinen</u>	urcuten	urculinen
respective	urcus	<u>urquis</u>	urcutes	urculis

The u-duals are just as in the example of **sito**, except for the nominative, all equal to the singular.

Two nouns behave irregularly:

- **rauco** “demon” is only a U-stem in the singular, partitive plural and dual. The plural is formed with the stem **rauca-**.
- **telco** “leg, stem” is only a U-stem in the plural and the dual. The singular and partitive plural are formed with the stem **tulco-** (see above for nouns that end in **-o**).

U-stems in -go

The special feature here is that the combination **gui** changes in **gwi**. As an example we look at **ango**, **angu-** “snake”:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	ango	<u>angwi</u>	angut	anguli
genitive	anguo	<u>angwion</u>	anguto	angulion
possessive	anguva	<u>angwiva</u>	angutwa	anguliva
dative	angun	<u>angwin</u>	angunt	angulin
ablative	angullo	angullon(r)	angulto	angulillo(n)(r)
allative	angunna	angunnar	angunta	angulinna(r)
locative	angussë	angussen	angutsë	angulisse(n)
instrumental	angunen	<u>angwinen</u>	angunten	angulinen
respective	angus	<u>angwis</u>	angutes	angulis

The u-duals are just as in the example of **sito**, except for the nominative, all equal to the singular.

Appendix 2: Stem-forms

Stem-forms can be explained as remnants of Old-Elvish. The original Old-Elvish word for “floor” was **talam**. But as the letter **m** is no longer allowed at the end of Quenya words, it evolved into **talan** with **talam-** as stem-form.

All nouns with a u-dual that belong to one of the categories on this page, use their stem-forms but are otherwise regular (we use **toron**, **torn-** “brother”):

Nom. **tornu**, Gen. **tornuo**, Poss. **tornuva**, Dat. **tornun**,

Abl. **tornullo**, All. **tornunna**, Loc. **tornussë**, Instr. **tornunen**, Resp. **tornus**.

1. d/t-stems

The first group of words ends in **-n**, **-r** or **-l**. Their stem-forms are made by adding a **-d-**.

The second group ends in **-n**, **-r** or **-s** and add **-t** to form the stem.

A list of the known Quenya-words belonging to this group can be found here:

d-stems

aldëon, **aldëond-** “avenue”

arëan, **arëand-** “wilderness”

amun, **amund-** “hill”

andon, **andond-** “gate”

culuin, **culuind-** “goldfish”

falmarin, **falmarind-** “seanymph”

fan, **fand-** “dog”

fion, **fiond-** “hawk”

hen, **hend-** “eye”

hón, **hond-** “(physical) heart”¹

hwan, **hwand-** “sponge”

laucien, **lauciend-** “vegetable garden”

lin, **lind-** “melody”

lon, **lond-** “noise”

malicon, **malicond-** “amber”

meren, **merend-** “feast”

min, **mind-** “bit, piece”

morion, **moriond-** “son of the dark”

morwen, **morwend-** “daughter of the dark”

nan, nand- “woodland”
nin, nind- “blueness”
nindon, nindond- “lapis lazuli”
óman, omand- “vowel” ¹
perian, periand- “hobbit”
pilin, pilind- “arrow”
pimpilin, pimpilind- “tassle”
pirin, pirind- “rod, pin”
purin, purind- “hearth”
quan, quand- “ear (of animal)”
salyon, salyond- “hero”
samin, samind- “silk”
serin, serind- “wreath”
silwin, silwind- “birch”
sorin, sorind- “throne”
talán, taland- “burden”
tambin, tambind- “cauldron”
tiqulin, tiquilind- “thaw, slush”
tirin, tirind- “turret”
tirion, tiriond- “mighty tower”
tolipin, tolipind- “mannakin”
túrion, túriond- “palace”
tusturin, tusturind- “match (to light fire)”
uin, uind- “whale”
voron, vorond- “vassal”
wen, wend- “virgin”
werilin, werlind- “whirligig”
wilwarin, wilwarind- “butterfly”

¹ note that the **ó** vowels become short in the stem-form.

car, card- “property, building”
cosar, cosard- “soldier”
curuvar, curuward- “(good) wizard”
lalar, lalard- “laughter”
lávëar, lávëard- “glutton”
mámar, máward- “sheperd”
mar, mard- “grit”
nar, nard- “odour, fragrance”
nyar, nyard- “tale, saying”

palasar, palasard- “great table”
sar, sard- “pebble”
talar, talard- “beast of burden”
tyur, tyurd- “cheese”

mul, muld- “powder”
nal, nald- “dell, dale”
neltil, neltild- “triangle”
niquetil, niquetild- “snow-cap”
tel, teld- “roof”
tyel, tyeld- “end”
vil, vild- “matter, business”
wingil, wingild- “nymph”

There are also a few proper names with such stem-forms:

Laurelin, Lórien, Solonel, Taniquetil, Ancalimon, Sauron.

t-stems

oron, oront- “mountain”

ambar, ambart- “doom”
umbar, umbart- “fate”

ais, aist- “good name”
alas, alast- “marble”
calarus, calarust- “copper”
ciris, cirist- “cleft, crack”
coimas, coimast- “lembas”²
hos, host- “folk, people”
iquis, iquist- “requirement”
lairus, lairust- “verdigris”
liquis, liquist- “transparence, clarity”
lis, list- “grace, blessing”
maxilis, maxilist- “lordship”
mis, mist- “urine”
naus, naust- “suspicion”
nes, nest- “food, feed, fodder”
nierwes, nierwest- “hive”
nus, nust- “smell”

nyas, nyast- “scratch, score”
os, ost- “cottage”
pus, pust- “boil”
tirios, tiriost- “walled town, burg”
urus, urust- “redcopper”

² also has the stem-form **coimass**-.

The proper names in this group are:

Turambar, Mandos.

The adjectives on **-n** probably also belong to the **d**-stems (PE 14 pg. 77):

i hwarindi “the crooked (ones)”
hwarindi neri “crooked men”

When they are used as final declinable words, they get the vowels **-e-** or **-i-** between the stem and the case-ending:

harma furindessë “in a concealed treasure”
urur úrindinen “with blazing hot fires”

The declension of **d**- and **t**-stems is regular except in the possessive singular. In this case we use the suffix **-wa** with the nominative (all nouns in this group have u-duals):

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	fion	fiondi	fiondu	fiondeli
genitive	fiondo	fiondion	fionduo	fiondelion
possessive	<u>fionwa</u>	fiondiva	fionduva	fiondelíva
dative	fionden	fiondin	fiondun	fiondelin
ablative	fiondello	fiondillon(r)	fiondullo	fiondelillo(n)(r)
allative	fiondenna	fiondinnar	fiondunna	fiondelinna(r)
locative	fiondessë	fiondissen	fiondussë	fiondelisse(n)
instrumental	fiondenen	fiondinen	fiondunen	fiondelinen
respective	fiondes	fiondis	fiondus	fiondelis

2. Contracted stems

Another group of stems lose the vowel of the second syllable. So the stem-form is a contracted form of the nominative.

Following nouns belong to this group:

- coron, corn-** “ball”
- feren, fern-** “beech”
- haran, harn-** “leader”
- huan, hún-** “dog”
- laman, lamn-** “animal”
- soron, sorn-** “eagle”
- toron, torn-** “brother”

In quite a number of cases of the singular these words use the nominative to produce these cases. In the partitive plural they also use the nominative:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	haran	harni	harnet	haralli
genitive	harno	harnion	<u>haranto</u>	harallion
possessive	<u>haranwa</u>	harniva	harnetwa	haralliva
dative	harnen	harnin	harnent	harallin
ablative	<u>harallo</u>	harnillon(r)	harelto	harallillo(n)(r)
allative	<u>haranna</u>	harninnar	harnenta	harallinna(r)
locative	<u>harandë</u>	harnissen	harnetsë	harallisse(n)
instrumental	<u>harannen</u>	harninen	harnenten	harallinen
respective	harnes	harnis	harnetes	harallis

There is a second group that have lost the final vowel + **n** in the nominative

- calmar, calmarn-** “child of light”
- halatir, halatirn-** “kingfisher”
- mëar, mëarn-** “gore, blood”
- pur, purn-** “(artificial) fire”
- tavar, tavarn-** “dale sprite”

and also

seler, sell- “sister”

They have in the singular only two exceptional cases:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	seler	seli	sellet	seli
genitive	sello	sellion	<u>selerto</u>	sellion
possessive	<u>selerwa</u>	selliva	selletwa	selliva
dative	sellen	sellin	sellent	sellin
ablative	sellello	sellillon(r)	sellelto	sellillo(n)(r)
allative	sellenna	sellinnar	sellenta	sellinna(r)
locative	sellessë	sellissen	selletsë	sellisse(n)
instrumental	<u>selernen</u>	sellinen	sellenten	sellinen
respective	selles	sellis	selletes	sellis

3. Doubled stems

There are also words in **-t** that have a doubled stem but they can be found in the chapter about Exceptional stems.

doubled stems in ss

A number of stems double their final **-s**:

calas, calass- “brass”

coimas, coimass- “lembas” ¹

eques, equess- “saying”

falas, falass- “shore, beach”

indis, indiss- “bride”

inwilis, inwiliss- “fairy”

is, iss- “light snow”

itis, itiss- “fly bite”

lis, liss- “honey”

nes, ness- “mead, valley, land”

niquis, niquiss- “frost-pattern”

nís, niss- “woman”²
oinalis, oinaliss- “ointment”
olos, oloss- “snow”³
sintilis, sintiliss- “sparkling (of crystal)”
tiris, tiriss- “watch”
tolos, toloss- “knob, lump”
tyos, tyoss- “cough”

The proper name **Tulcas** also belongs to this group.

¹ **coimas** also has the stem-form **coimast-**.

² The long **í** shortens before a double consonant.

³ This word also has the nominative **olossë**. It should not be confused with **olos** “dream” which has an irregular stem-form (see Exceptional stems).

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	falas	falassi	falasset	falasseli
genitive	falasso	falassion	<u>falasto</u>	falasselion
possessive	falasseva	falassiva	falassetwa	falasselíva
dative	falassen	falassin	falassent	falasselin
ablative	falassello	falassillon(r)	falasselto	falasselillo(n)(r)
allative	falassenna	falassinnar	falassenta	falasselinna(r)
locative	<u>falassë</u>	<u>falassen</u>	falassetsë	falasselisse(n)
instrumental	falassenen	falassinen	falssenten	falasselínen
respective	falasses	falassis	falassetes	falasselis

The word **solor** “surf” has stem-form **soloss-** and uses the same forms as these words except the possessive singular which is **solorwa**.

doubled stems in ll/nn

Final **l** and **n** can also be doubled:

amil, amill- “mother”
aranel, aranel-

horinel, horinell- “pine-needle”
miril, mirill- “jewel”
riel, riell- “flower-girl”
sil, sill- “moon”
tol, toll- “island” ¹
ailin, ailinn- “lake”
cailen, cailenn- “throat”
calimban, calimbann- “barbarian land”
campin, campinn- “hips”
colman, colmann- “summit”
elwen, elwenn- “heart”
helin, helinn- “pansy”
irin, irinn- “town”
irmin, irminn- “inhabited world”
latúcen, latúcenn- “tin”
licin, licinn- “horn”
mindon, mindonn- “turret”
olwen, olwenn- “branch, wand”
onin, oninn- “anvil”
pequen, pequenn- “comb”
tamin, taminn- “forge”
túrin, túrinn- “province”
wilin, wilinn- “bird”

The proper name **Silmariel** also belongs to these words.

¹ The cases of **tol** are formed with an **-o-** between stem and ending (see Exceptional stems).

The exceptional cases are: the possessive singular, the allative or ablative in singular and plural, and all cases of the partitive plural.

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	amil	amilli	amillet	amilli
genitive	amillo	amillion	<u>amilto</u>	amillion
possessive	<u>amilwa</u>	amilliva	amilletwa	amilliva
dative	amillen	amillin	amillent	amillin
ablative	<u>amillo</u>	<u>amillon(r)</u>	amillelto	amillillo(n)(r)

allative	amillenna	amillinnar	amillenta	amillinna(r)
locative	amillessë	amillissen	amilletsë	amillisse(n)
instrumental	amillenen	amillinen	amillenten	amillinen
respective	amilles	amillis	amilletes	amillis

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	olwen	olwenni	olwennet	olwelli
genitive	olwenno	olwennion	<u>olwento</u>	olwellion
possessive	<u>olwenwa</u>	olwenniva	olwennetwa	olwelliva
dative	olwennen	olwennin	olwennent	olwellin
ablative	olwennello	olwennillon(r)	olwennelto	olwellillo(n)(r)
allative	<u>olwenna</u>	<u>olwennar</u>	olwennenta	olwellinna(r)
locative	olwennessë	olwennissen	olwennetsë	olwellisse(n)
instrumental	olwennenen	olwenninen	olwennenten	olwellinen
respective	olwennes	olwennis	olwennetes	olwellis

doubled stems in rr

condor, condorr- “warrior”

hostar, hostarr- “tribe”

indor, indorr- “groom”

lamandar, lamandarr- “herdsman”

lar, larr- “place, region”

maquar, maquarr- “(human) jaw”

milnar, milnarr- “sown field”

neldor, neldorr- “beech”

They are declined as follows:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	lar	larri	larret	lalli

genitive	larro	larrion	<u>larto</u>	lallion
possessive	<u>larwa</u>	larriva	larretwa	lalliva
dative	larren	larrin	larrent	lallin
ablative	larrello	larrillon(r)	larrelto	lallillo(n)(r)
allative	larrenna	larrennar	larrenta	lallinna(r)
locative	larressë	larrissen	larretsë	lallisse(n)
instrumental	larrenen	larrinen	larrenten	lallinen
respective	larres	larris	larretes	lallis

4. m-stems

As told in the introduction, the letter **m** is no longer allowed at the end of a word and has changed into **n** in the nominative:

artan, artam- “hammer”

ilin, ilim- “milk”

men, mem- “nose, beak”

quin, quim- “female”

ran, ram- “noise”

talan, talam- “floor”

These words have exceptional locatives, instrumentals and partitive plurals:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	men	memi	memet	melli
genitive	memo	memion	<u>mento</u>	mellion
possessive	memeva	memiva	memetwa	melliva
dative	memen	memin	mement	mellin
ablative	memello	memillon(r)	memelto	mellillo(n)(r)
allative	memenna	meminnar	mementa	mellinna(r)
locative	<u>mendë</u>	memissen	memetsë	mellisse(n)

instrumental	<u>memnen</u>	meminen	mementen	mellinen
respective	memes	memis	memetes	mellis

The words with stem on **-ng** also behave like these words:

falaswin, falaswing- “wavecrest”

fen, feng- “reed”

The locative is **fendë** and the partitive plural **felli** (but the instrumental is regular: **fengenen**).

5. c-stems

Four words originally ended in **-c**, and this letter is also not allowed at the end of a word:

filit, filic- “little bird”

nelet, nelc- “tooth”

oryat, oryac- “badger”

quesset, quessec- “pillow”

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	filit	filici	filicu	filiceli
genitive	filico	filicion	filicuo	filicelion
possessive	<u>filiqua</u>	filiciva	filicuva	filicelíva
dative	filicen	filicin	filicun	filicelin
ablative	filicello	filicillon(r)	filicullo	filicelillo(n)(r)
allative	filicenna	filicinnar	filicunna	filicelinna(r)
locative	<u>filixë</u>	filicissen	filicussë	filicelisse(n)
instrumental	<u>filincen</u>	filicinen	filicunen	filicelínen
respective	filices	filicis	filicus	filicelis

The locative of **nelet** is **neletsë**, but otherwise it is declined the same as the other three nouns.

6. Words with misleading final letter

Following words look as words on **-r** but they are in fact words on **-s**:

câr, cas- “head”
cor, cos- “war”
fandor, fandos- “monster”
mar, mas- “home, dwelling”
nier, nies “honey-bee”

They only have a final **-r** in the nominative singular, in all other cases they are declined as **cos**.

And these words look as words on **-s** but they are really words on **-t**:

ceres, ceret- “earthenware”
hes, het- “sibling”
palis, palit- “sward, lawn”

They only have a final **-s** in the nominative singular, in all other cases they are declined as **sarat**.

7. Doubled t-stems

doubled stems in ts

When the words end in **-t** we don't find a genuine doubling but rather add an extra **s**:

helet, helets- “fur-coat”
henet, henets- “window”
orot, orots- “cave”
quelet, quelets- “corpse”

Also some words in **-s** belong to this group:

aris, arits- “daughter”
cangaris, cangarits- “weaver”
fas, fats- “tassel”
nos, nots- “damp”
oaris, oarits- “mermaid”

And one exceptional word in **-ë**:

vitë, vits- “sap”

These words have a special locative and possessive singular, and they all have a u-dual:

	singular	plural	dual	part. plural
nominative	helet	heletsi	heletsu	heletseli
genitive	heletso	heletsion	heletsuo	heletselion
possessive	<u>heletwa</u>	heletsiva	heletsuva	heletselíva
dative	heletsen	heletsin	heletsun	heletselin
ablative	heletsello	heletsillon(r)	heletsullo	heletselillo(n)(r)
allative	heletsenna	heletsinnar	heletsunna	heletselinna(r)
locative	<u>heletsē</u>	heletsissen	heletsussē	heletselisse(n)
instrumental	heletsenen	heletsinen	heletsunen	heletselinen
respective	heletses	heletsis	heletsus	heletselis

Exceptional stem-forms

doubled stems in tt

calumet, calumett- “lamp”

cehtecet, cehtecett- “cuckling”

lat, latt-, “flap, lid”

lequet, lequett- “joint”

mat, matt- “meal”

nat, natt- “thing”

tecet, tecett- “letter”

These words are declined as **henet, henets-**.

doubled stems in ht

cecet, ceceht- “pheasant”

met, meht- “mark, aim”

mut, muht- “dirt, filth”

sarat, sarahht- “plank”

teret, tereht- “auger, gimlet”

tet, teht- “spot, mark”

welet, weleht- “boil, tumour”

yat, yaht- “neck”

These words are also declined as **henet**, **henets-**.

Vowel shortening

In some nouns a long vowel is shortened in the stem-form, but otherwise they are declined as if they didn't have that long vowel in the nominative singular.

lár, lar- “ear”

nén, nen- “water”

nér, ner- “man”

quén, quen- “person”

tál, tal- “foot”

yár, yar- “blood”¹

¹ The normal word for blood is **sercë**.

The word **yén** “Elvish year” is an exception, as its stem-form also has a long **é**: **yéni**.

Vowel lengthening

In a few words we find the reverse situation. But they are all proper names:

Eruhín, Eruhín- “Child of Eru”

Valatar, Valatár- “Valar-king”

Atanatar, Atanatár- “Forefather”

Casar, Casár- “Dwarf”

Vowel changing

In some words the vowel completely changes. The most frequent words are the U-stems and the I-stems.

There are 2 words that have a stem-form in **-a** but a nominative in **-o**:

rauco, rauca- “demon”

sundo, sunda- “root”

Note: **rauco** is in singular and dual a U-stem.

There are also 2 words on **-a** with a stem-form on **-i**:

hína, híni- “child”

ónona, ónoni- “twin”

Words with exceptional connecting vowels

As we have seen: when a case-ending that begins with a consonant, is applied to a noun ending in a consonant we add an **-e-** between the stem and the ending, e.g.

macilen “to a sword” (dative)

anarenna “to a king” (allative)

There are however four words that have a different connecting vowel:

With **-o-**

tol, toll- “island”

Mandos, Mandost- “Mandos”

so we find e.g.

tolossë “on an island” (locative)

Mandostonna “to Mandos” (allative)

With **-a-**

tál, tal- “foot”

umbar, umbart- “fate”

so we find e.g.

talan “to a foot” (dative)

umbartanen “with fate” (instrumental)

Irregular stem-forms

First a group of connected words: All words that denote a “room” end on **-san**. This is derived from **sambë** “room”, e.g.:

caimasan, caimasamb- “bedroom”

These two words also belong to this group:

han, hamb- “ground”

san, samb- “chamber”

But some words are totally irregular:

cilapi, cilapinc- “robin”

hyar, hyarm- “plough”

las, lax- “snare”

lencë, lenqu- “limb”
nó, nów- “idea”
oito, oiont- “lack”
olos, olor- “dream”
pat, papt- “small leaf”
peltas, peltax- “pivot”
piet, piecc- “pin”
rá, ráv- “lion”
sat, sapt- “hole”
silit, siliqu- “flint”
sincë, sinqu- “mineral, metal”
taran, taramb- “buffet”
telin, telimb- “roof, covering”
tó, tów- “wool”
tyus, tyux- “cud”
ulun, ulump- “camel”