De Koncis Folkspråkgrammatik av David Parke

The Concise Folkspråk Grammar by David Parke

Tanke

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Introduction

[Scen: Arthur on' Patsy rîde turj grôen ackers. Bûers arbêde in đe ackers. En slott ligg up en nâj hyll. Arthur on' Patsy rîde

after en wagensleppend bûer.]

Arthur: Ald frû! Bûer: Mann!

Arthur Mann. Ontschulding. Wilk ridder won in

đat slott?

Bûer: Ik is tritig-seven.

Arthur: Wat?

Bûer: Ik is 37. Ik is nejt ald.

Arthur: Ik kann nejt name đi blœt "mann". Bûer: Đu kund segge "Dennis".

Arthur: Ik wist nejt đat đu hêted Dennis.

Dennis: Lûw frâgd đu nejt.

Arthur: Ik ha ontschulded mi for đe "ald frû', đœch

đu saj ût tôrygg...

Dennis: Wârfor klag ik, is đat đu behandel mi als

minderwerđig.

Arthur: Đœch ik is koning.

Dennis: Koning? So hêrrlik! Hu werđed đu đat?

> Turj đe ûtnytting av đe arbêders! Turj feralded imperialistisch dogma halde đie standhald đe œkonomisch on' social unrechtferdigheid in user millieu! In fall

schall đâr ferbettere...

[Ein bûerwîv arbêd nâj]

Bûerwîv Terry: Dennis, đâr is hêrrlik schît her. [Si sej

Arthur] Ach. [achtingsful] Gôd Dag.

Arthur: Gôd dag, gôd frû. Ik is Arthur, koning av

đe Britone. Av wê slott is đat?

Terry: Koning av wê? Arthur: De Britone.

Terry: Wê âre đe Britone?

Arthur: Wi âre all. Wi âre all Britone. Ond ik is jiur

Terry: Ik wist đat wi hadde nên koning. Ik tenkd

đat wi wâre ên selvstiurend kollektiv.

Dennis: Đu bedrieg đi. Wi wone in en diktatur.

En selvbewarend autokrati wârin đe

arbêderklasse...

Terry. Đâr gâ đu, alltîd om đe klasskamp.

Dennis. Đat is ett alltîd om, blœt in fall hœre folk

Arthur: Bidd, gôd folk. Ik îl. Wê won in đat slott?

Nên won đâr. Terry: Wê is jiur hêrr đann? Arthur: Wi have nên hêrr. Terry:

Arthur: Wat!?

Dennis: Ik seggd tô đi allrêd. Wi âre en arnarcho-

> syndikalistisch kommun. Wi have êlk tîddêle tô dôe als en lêder for đe wek...

Arthur. [untuldig] Ja.

wese ratiferd bî en speciâl twê-weker

kongress...

Arthur: [untuldig on' wrêđig] Ik ferstâ!

Dennis: ...turj en simpel majoritât bî intern sake...

Arthur:

Dennis: ...đœch en twê-ŧriđel-dêl majoritât bî sake

Arthur: Wes still! Ik drag up đi tô wese still. "Updrage?" Wê tenk hi đat is hi? Terry:

Arthur: Ik is jiur koning!

Terry: Ik ha nejt stemmd up đi. Arthur. Ji stemme nejt up konings. Terry: Hu ha đu werđed koning?

Arthur: Đe Frûw av đe Mer, hir arm klêđed in

> đe purest schînend sîđ, hield up hœch Excalibur ût đe bôsem av đe water, đat betiuded đat schuld ik, Arthur, bere Excalibur, turj himmelisch forûtsejing.

Đârfor is ik jiur koning!

Dennis: Hœr her! Fremđ wîve, đie ligge in pôle,

> đie ûtdêle swerde, is nên bas for en regeringssystem. De hœchest fullmacht komm ût en mandat av de masse, nejt fran

en absurd waterceremoni

Arthur: Wes still!

Dennis: Đu kann nejt ôeve hœchest fullmacht,

forđat ha en waterig majd smitten en

swerd tô đi.

Arthur: Hald đîn munđ!

Dennis: In fall seggd ik rond đat was ik kêser,

> fordat hadd en fuchtig hôr slingd en sabel tô mi, schulde đê smîte mi in en asyl...

Arthur: Will đu halde munđ?!

[Arthur grîp đe hals av Dennis on' bev hin heftig]

Dennis: Nu merke wi đe gewald diupworteld in đe

system!

Arthur: Hald mund!

Sej de gewald diupworteld in de system! Dennis:

Help, ik werd undertryckd!

Arthur: Ferdamm'd bûer! [Arthur gâ weg wrêđig]

Ach hu ferrâdend! Hœrde ji đat? Ji hærde Dennis:

> đat, nê? Đat is precis wat mên ik. Saje ji đat undertryckt hi mi? Ji saje him - nejt wâr?

Dennis: ...đœch all beslûtings av đat lêder môte

Articles

Indefinite Article

The indefinite article for singular nouns is **en** [ən]. It is used in a very similar way to English *a/an*. It precedes the noun that is modifies. It is used when first mentioning a noun, that hasn't been spoken of in conversation before. After it has been mentioned with the indefinite article, the noun becomes known and it is normally then preceded by the definite article. **En** does not change for gender or case but it is not used for plural nouns. For plural nouns, no article is used or you can use **ênig** ['eɪnɪg], meaning *some* or *any*.

Ik fangd en dûv. = I caught a pigeon. En tiuv ha stolen mîn auto. = A thief has stolen my car.

Ik ha eten grôen appels. = I have eaten (some) green apples.

Kann du seje ênig appels an de bœm. = Can you see any/some apples on the tree?

Definite Article

The definite article for all cases, numbers and genders is **de** [də]. It is used in a very similar way to English *the*, Dutch *de/het* and German *der/die/das/den/dem/des*. It precedes the noun that it modifies.

De dûv was tick. = *The pigeon was fat.*

De tiuv stal $\frac{de}{dt}$ auto. = The thief stole the car.

De appels av dat bæm wåre sôet = The apples from that tree were sweet.

Pronouns

Personal Pronouns

The personal pronouns all have four basic forms; a subjective form, and objective form, a possessive form and a reflexive form. This is similar to the way the English first person singular pronoun, *I*, becomes *me* and *my* and *mine*. In terms of the old Germanic cases, subjective corresponds to the nominative case, objective to the accusative and dative cases, possessive to the genitive case, and reflexive to the reflexive case. Personal pronouns change form depending on whether they are the subject or object in a sentence. There are pronoun forms for each person (first, second and third) and separate forms for singular and plural. In the third person there are separate forms for masculine, feminine and neuter nouns.

Person	Subjective (Nominative)	Objective (Accusative/ Dative)	Possessive (Genitive)	Reflexive	English Equivalent
1st Singular	ik [ɪk]	mi [mi:]	mîn [main]	mi [mi:]	I, me, my, mine
1st Plural	wi [viː]	uss [us]	usser ['usər]	uss [us]	we, us, our, ours
2nd Singular	đu [du:]	đi [di:]	đîn [daɪn]	đi [di:]	you, your, yours*
2nd Plural	ji [ji:]	jiu [jɪu:]	jiur [jɪur]	jiu [jru:]	you, your, yours*
3rd singular (masculine)	hi [hi:]	hin [hɪn]	sîn [sain]	sick [sɪk]	he, him, his
3rd singular (feminine)	si [si:]	hir [hiːr]	hirer ['hi:rər]	sick [sɪk]	she, her, hers
3rd singular (neuter)	ett [ɛt]	him [him]	etts [ɛts]	sick [sɪk]	it, its
3rd plural	đê [deɪ]	đêm [deim]	đêr [de:r]	sick [sik]	they, them, their, theirs

```
Hi is en gôd singer. = He is a good singer.

Si stiur đe taxi. = She is driving the taxi.

Ik will lerne folkspråk. = I want to learn Folkspråk.

Si ha kyssd hin. = She has kissed him.

Wi schulle môete đêm morgen. = We shall meet them tomorrow.

De auto is sîn. = The car is his.

De appels âre mîn. = The apples are mine.

Dies hûs is usser. = This house is ours.
```

*Unlike in English, there are both plural and singular forms for the second person pronoun; ji and đu. Ji should always be used when addressing more than one person. When addressing one person formally, ji should also be used. Đu is a more familiar, intimate and informal pronoun than ji. Đu should be used mostly for addressing friends, lovers, family members and young children. It's use may be extended to colleagues and fellow students but then care should be taken to use it only informal situations. Used in the wrong situation, đu can be seen by some to be rude or excessively intimate — the verbal equivalent of invading someone's personal space.

The possessive pronouns can also be used as an article or determiner. That is, it can precede a noun.

```
Ha hi môeted hirer môder? = Has he met her mother?
Will du môete mîn yvel elders? = Do you want to meet my horrible parents?
Dat âre sîn rœd appels = Those are his red apples.
```

In English, when the object of a sentence is also the subject, one must change the object pronoun to a reflexive pronoun by using the possessive pronoun plus *-self* or *-selves*. You should say *I love myself* rather than *I love *me*. In Folkspråk, in most cases, such a change of pronoun is not necessary. Only in the third person are anything equivalent to the English *-self* pronouns needed. In all numbers and genders in the third person, the reflexive pronoun in Folkspråk is **sick**.

```
Ik lêre mi folksprâk. = I am teaching myself (learning) Folksprâk.
Hi schall drîve sick wrêdig! = He will make himself angry!
```

Demonstrative Pronouns

A few of the basics are:

dat [dat] = that. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. Ik will have dat. = I want that. Dat mann is siuk. = That man is sick. Wi klimme dat stênen treppe = We climb those stone steps. Usser hûse âre better als dat. = Our houses are better than those.

dies [di:s] = this/these. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. **Dies âre usser hûse**. = These are our houses. **Dies appel** is sûr = This apple is sour.

```
đâr [dæ:r] = there

her [he:r] = here

đann [dan] = then
```

Interrogative Pronouns

```
wat [vat] = what
wâr [væ:r] = where
wann [van] = when
wê [veɪ] = who
```

```
hu [hu:] = how
warfor [væ:rfor] = why
wilk [vilk] = which
```

Relative Pronouns

The relative pronoun die is in places where a relative pronoun such as *who*, *where* or *that* in English would be used.

Si is đe frû, đie schall werđe mîn wîv. = *She is the woman, who will become my wife.*

Date âre de torte, die will ik ete. = Those are the cakes, that I want to eat.

Dat is đe hund, die proberd ût tô bîte mi. = That's the dog, that tried to bite me!

Michaels hûs is đe hûs, in die wond ik. = Michael's house is the house where I used to live.

Other Pronouns

êlk [eɪlk] = each, every This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article.

sulk [sulk] = *such*. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article.

```
nejts [neɪts] = nothing
```

nên [neɪn] = none, not one, not any. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. Hi ha nên = He has none. Ik ha nên auto. = I have no car.

```
n\hat{e}mann [neiman] = no one, nobody
```

bêđ [beɪd] = both. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. Bêđ âre gelîk = Both are alike. Ik will ete bêđ appels. = I want to eat both apples.

Nouns

Nouns do not inflect for gender. They only inflection for case is the genitive -s suffix.

Plural of Nouns

There are two possible ways of forming plurals of Folkspråk nouns. Both methods make the noun plural by adding a suffix to the noun, either -e or -s. The method of pluralisation is determined by the stress pattern of the noun.

Nouns that end in a stressed syllable take -e. This includes all single-syllable nouns. Most multi-syllabic romance borrowings end in a stressed syllable and use this suffix.

Ên bên[beɪn], twê bêne = One leg, two legs.

Ên universitât [universi'tæ:t], **twê universitâte** = One university, two universities

Ên student [stu'dent], **twê studente** = One student, two students

Ên hund [hund], **twê hunde** = One dog, two dogs.

Ên mann [man], **twê manne** = One man, two men.

Ên station [sta'tsjo:n], **twê statione** = One station, two stations

Ên nonn ['non], **twê nonne** = One nun, two nuns.

Nouns that take -s are multi-syllable nouns that end in an unstressed syllable. These unstressed syllables are normally a suffix where the vowel has generalised to [ə] or [ɪ]. Such unstressed syllables include -en [-ən], -el [-əl], -ing [-ɪŋ], -er [-ər], -ek [-ək], -ed [-əd], -et [-ət], -e [-ə]. Words that end in an unstressed vowel also fall into this category.

En jungling ['junling], **twê junglings** = One child, two children

Ên mêning ['meɪnɪŋ], twê mênings = One opinion, two opinions

En appel ['apəl], twê appels = One apple, two apples

Ên segel ['se:gəl], **twê segels** = One sail, two sails

Ên asen ['a:sən], **twê asens** = *One donkey, two donkeys*

Ên têken ['teɪkən], twê têkens = One symbol, two symbols

Ên brôđer ['bru:dər], **twê brôđers** = One brother, two brothers

Ên stiurer ['stiorər], **twê stiurers** = One pilot/driver, two pilots/drivers

Ên blôsem ['blu:səm], **twê blôsems** = *one flower*, *two flowers*.

Ên besem ['be:səm], **twê besems** = *one broom*, *two brooms*.

Ên hâvek ['hæ:vək], **twê hâveks** = one hawk, two hawks

Ên hœved ['hø:vəd], **twê hœveds** = one head, two heads

Ên chokolade [ʃokoˈlɑːdə], **twê chokolades** = *one chocolate*, *two chocolates*.

Ên auto ['auto], **twê autos** = one car, two cars.

Ên parti ['parti], **twê partis** = *one party, two parties*.

Genitive Case

Nouns can take a genitive case with the addition of the -s suffix. This suffix works in a similar way to the 's suffix in English in phrases such as *David's computer* (the computer belonging to David) or *my father's tool box* (the tool box belonging to my father). In Folksprâk, the genitive suffix should be used only with proper names, not because it would be grammatically incorrect to use it elsewhere, but because it can be confused with the plural noun suffix -s.

Pappis tiugkist is swâr. = Daddy's tool box is heavy.

Davids computer werk langsam. = David's computer runs slowly.

Ik residerd in Michaels hûs. = I lived in Michael's house.

Adjectives and Adverbs

Adjectives come before the noun they modify but after any articles or determiners.

En grôen appel fall fran de hœch bœm. = A green apple is falling from the tall tree. De grœt mann is wrêdig. = The big man is angry.

Adjectives do not inflect for case, number of gender. The only changes to adjectives are the suffixes which are used to create the comparative and superlative forms.

Comparative

To form a comparative of an adjective, add **-er**. Unlike in English, for multi-syllable words, you need not use *more* instead of *-er* to form the comparative.

Si is greet deach hi is greeter. = She is big, but he is bigger.

Ik is alder dech du is ek ald= I am older but you are also old.

De lœve av de bœm âre grôen, on' de grass is grôener. = The leaves of tree are green, and the grass is greener.

Aspirin is effektiv, dœch morfin is effektiver = Aspirin is effective, but morphine is more effective. Jiur kycken is nejt hygienisch, mîn toilett is hygienischer = Your kitchen is not hygienic, my toilet is more hygienic.

Superlative

To form a comparative of an adjective, add **-est**. Unlike in English, for multi-syllable words, you need not use *most* instead of *-est* to form the superlative.

Dîn elders âre rîk, đœch mîn elders âre rîkest in đe stadd. = Your parents are rich but my parents are

richest in the city.

Woll is saft stoff, deech koton is saftest. = Wool is soft material, but cotton is softest.

Timmeren hûse âre wêk, đœch strœwen hûse âre wêkest = Wooden houses are weak, but straw houses are weakest

Dêr pîle âre sêr ackurat, dœch usser gewere âre ackuratest = Their arrows are very accurate but our rifles are the most accurate.

Is si generœs? [gene'rø:s] Ja si is generœsest. = Is she generous? Yes, she is the most generous.

Comparing Things

To express in Folkspråk that something is as big, small etc as something else, use so ... als ...

Dîn môder is so grœt als en walfisch. = Your mother is as big as a whale.

De tande av de hajfisch wâre so scharp als klinge. = The shark's teeth were as sharp as blades.

Đê âre so arm als kirkmûse. = They are as poor as church mice.

To express that something is bigger or smaller etc than something else, use als ...

De arme av dîn môder âre brêder als êkbœmtwîge. = Your mother's arms are broader than oak tree branches.

Ik is rîker als di. = I am richer than you.

Tô him âre nutte dœdliker als cyanid. = *To him, nuts are more deadly than cyanide.*

Irregular Adjectives

Folkspråk has a small number of irregular adjectives that form the comparative and superlative by other methods. The most common of these is **gôd** (*good*). **Gôd** follows a very similar pattern to English *good*.

```
gôd = good, well
better = better, more good
best = best, most good

nâj = near, close
nâr = nearer, closer
nâxt = nearest, next, closest
```

Adverbs

In Folkspråk, adjectives can be freely used as adverbs without modification. That is, they can modify verbs and other adjectives. This is different from English, where adverbs are derived from adjectives by adding the *-ly* suffix.

```
Ik lœp haastig. = I am running quickly.
Hi gâ langsam. = He is walking slowly.
Đê stervde blôdig. = They died bloodily.
Đe lœve âre siuk brûn. = The leaves are sickly brown.
```

Although using *good* as an adverb in English is considered bad form and *well* is considered the correct adverb, in Folksprâk **gôd** can be used as an adverb.

```
Ik kann singe gôd. = I can sing well.
Du sprek folksprâk gôd. = You speak Folksprâk well.
```

Intensive Adverbs

These are used to modify the degree of an adjective to a greater or lesser extent. In Folkspråk, sêr and tô are used in a way similar to English very and too - sêr[se:r] meaning to a significant or extreme degree and tô[tu:] meaning to an excessive or undesirable degree.

```
De weder was gestern sêr hêt. = The weather was very hot yesterday.

Dîn syster ha waxd sêr hœch. = Your sister has grown very tall.

Ik schuld kæpe en niu auto đœch ik is tô arm. = I should buy a new car but I am too poor.

De weder is tô kald. = The weather is too cold.
```

Verbs

The verb system of Folkspråk is probably the most complex part of Folkspråk grammar. In addition to a relatively high number of rules, there are a number of irregular verbs and strong verbs.

Infinitive verbs end in the -e [-ə] suffix.

```
kysse = to kiss
hate = to hate
lœpe = to run
singe = to sing
```

Finite verbs inflect for number; they have a plural form and a singular form. The past tense is formed by adding a suffix, other tenses and moods are formed by auxiliary verbs.

Present Tense

When the subject of the sentence is singular, finite verbs in Folkspråk are formed with just the stem of the verb and no suffix.

```
Ik kyss đe baby. = I am kissing the baby.

Đu hat schôl. = You hate school.

Hi læp îverig. = He is running zealously.

Đe fogel sing schæn. = The bird sings beautifully.
```

When the subject of the sentence is plural, finite verbs in Folksprâk are formed by adding a -e suffix to the verb stem. That is, the verb form is identical to the infinitive form.

```
Wi kysse usser môder befor ferlâte wi hir. = We kiss our mother before we leave her. Ji hate arm folk. = You hate poor people.

Dê lœpe ût fran đe stadd. = They are running out of the town.

De manne singe lûd = The men are singing loudly.
```

Unlike in English, there is no grammatical distinction between the continious and the simple present tense. *I am is walking to school* and *I walk to school* are expressed the same way; **Ik gâ tô schôl**. When it is necessary to make such a distinction, use an adverb.

```
Nu gâ ik tô schôl. = I am walking to school (now, at the moment). Êlk dag gâ ik tô schôl. = I walk to school (everyday).
```

Present Participle

The present participle is formed by adding -end [-ənd] to the stem of the verb. It can be used as an adjective or adverb.

```
Dat læpend schâpe âre bang. = Those running sheep are afraid.

Ik sej seven wirvelend dansers. = I see seven whirling dancers.

De brennend hûs schîn ræd. = The burning house shines redly.

De bûers spreke achtend tô đêr hêrr. = The peasants speak respectfully to their lord.
```

English often uses *be* plus the present participle as a variation on the present and past tense; note that **-end** can not be used in the manner of English *-ing* to form such sentences structures as *I was driving to*

my mother's house. Or the people are dancing in the street. Or the peasants are speaking to their lord. The present participle in Folkspråk is not used in this manner, instead simple tenses should be used.

Past Tense

For most regular singular verbs, the past tense is formed by adding -d to the verb stem. This is pronounced as [-d] if it follows a voiced consonant. If it follows an unvoiced consonant, it is pronounced [-t].

```
stelle = to place. Ik stelld ['steld] đe kupp up đe desch. = I placed the cup on the table. riskere = to risk. Đu riskerd [rɪs'ke:rd] đîn lîv. = You risked your life. beve = to shake. Đe erđ bevd [be:vd]. = The earth shook. smake = to taste. Ik smakd [sma:kt] sôet wîn. = I tasted sweet wine. sôeke = to seek. Đu sôekd [sy:kt] đe hêlig gral. = You sought the Holy Grail. lœpe = to run. Hi lœpd [lø:pt] turj đe strâte/ = He ran through the streets.
```

For regular singular verbs that end in a dental consonant (\mathbf{d} , \mathbf{d} , \mathbf{t} or \mathbf{t}), the past tense is formed by adding -ed to the verb stem. This is pronounced as [-ad].

```
hate = to hate. Ik hated ['ha:təd] mîn lêrers. = I hated my teachers.

slûte = to close. Đu slûted ['slautəd] đe fenster. = You closed the window.

lêde = to lead. Hi lêded ['leɪdəd] sîn here tô en grœt seg. = He led his armies to a great victory.

wade = to wade. Đe fogel waded ['va:dəd] in đe pôl. = The bird waded in the pond.
```

For most regular plural verbs, the past tense is formed by adding -de to the verb stem. This is pronounced as [-də] if it follows a voiced consonant. If it follows an unvoiced consonant, it is pronounced [-tə].

```
stelle = to place. Wi stellde ['steldə] usser mynte in en flasch. = We put our coins in a bottle. riskere = to risk. Ji riskerde [rɪs'ke:rd] jiur gesundhêd. = You risked your health. beve = to shake. De berge bevde [be:vdə]. = The mountains shook smake = to taste. Wi smakde [sma:ktə] bitter bere. = We tasted bitter berries. sôeke = to seek. Ji sôekde [sy:kte] de gehêmniss av stâjl. = You sought the secret of steel. lœpe = to run. Dê læpde [lø:pte] nakd in de wald. = They ran naked in the woods.
```

For regular plural verbs that end in a dental consonant (\mathbf{d} , \mathbf{d} , \mathbf{t} or \mathbf{t}), the past tense is formed by adding -ede to the verb stem. This is pronounced as [-ədə].

```
hate = to hate. Wi hatede ['ha:tədə] de slejt weder. = We hated the bad weather slûte = to close. Ji slûtede ['slautədə] de dôr. = You closed the door lêde = to lead. Đê lêdede ['leɪdəde] de junglings tô sekerhêd. = They led the children to safety. wade = to wade. De fogels wadede ['va:dəde] in de sump. = The birds waded in the swamp.
```

Perfect Tense

The perfect tense is formed by following the subject of the sentence with the verb **have** ['hɑ:və] and then the past participle of the verb. The past participle of regular verbs is formed in exactly the same way as the past tense of singular verbs — it is spelt the same and pronounced the same. Note that **have** is an irregular verb (see below) and must be conjugated to match the number of the subject.

```
stelle = to place. Ik ha stelld ['steld] = I have placed.

riskere = to risk. Đu ha riskerd [rɪs'ke:rd] = You have risked.

beve = to shake. Đe berge have bevd [be:vd] = The mountains have shaken.

smake = to taste. Wi have smakd [sma:kt] = We have tasted.

sôeke = to seek. Ji have sôekd [sy:kt] = You have sought.

lœpe = to run. Hi ha lœpd [lø:pt] = He has run.

hate = to hate. Ik ha hated ['ha:təd] = I have hated.
```

```
slûte = to close. Đu ha slûted ['slautəd] = You have closed.

lêde = to lead. Hi ha lêded ['leɪdəd] = He has led.

wade = to wade. Đe fogels have waded ['vɑ:dəd] = The birds have waded.
```

The past participle of verbs can also be used as an adjective;

```
De slûted dôr is rœd. = The closed door is red.
Hi is en hated mann. = He is a hated man.
```

Past Perfect Tense

This is formed with the past tense of **have**. Note that the past tense of **have** is irregular (see below). Otherwise it works in the same way as the perfect tense.

```
stelle = to place. Ik hadd stelld ['steld] = I had placed.
wade = to wade. De fogels hadde waded ['va:dəd] = The birds had waded.
```

Future Tense

The future tense is formed by following the subject of the sentence with the auxiliary verb **schulle** ['ʃolə] and then the infinitive of the verb. Note that **schulle** is an irregular verb (see below) and must be conjugated to match the number of the subject.

```
Ik schall [ʃal] stiure = I will drive.
Wi schulle erinnere = We will remember.
Du schall fergete = You will forget.
Ji schulle lige = You will lie.
Si schall segge = She will say.
Dê schulle seje = They will see.
```

Imperative Mood

The imperative is used for giving orders or requests. The imperative is formed by using just the stem of the verb and pronouns.

```
Stiur langsam! = Drive slowly!
Gev mi đîn klêđe. = Give me your clothes.
Wes nejt so dumm! = Don't be so stupid!
Fatt en geback. = Take a cake.
Drink đîn milk. = Drink your milk.
Stell ût jiur passporte. = Display your passports.
```

Passive Voice

Passive sentences are ones that make the object of the sentence into the subject. Examples of passive sentences in English would be "the milk was drunk by the cat" instead of "the cat drank the milk." Passive sentences are most often used when the doer of a deed is not known or to deflect blame away from the perpetrator of a misdeed. In Folksprâk, like English, a passive sentence is created with the verb wese followed by the past participle of the verb.

```
Mîn burs was stolen. = My wallet was stolen.

Đêr hûs is brekd. = Their house is being destroyed.

Đîn auto schall wese wegdragen. = Your car will be towed away.
```

If it is necessary to put the perpetrator of the act, it is added after the preposition **av** as an indirect object of the sentence.

Mîn burs was stolen av en tiuv. = My wallet was stolen by a thief.

Đêr hûs is brekd av đe wirvelwind. = Their house is being destroyed by the tornado. Đîn auto schall wese wegsleppd av en slepplastwagen. = Your car will be towed away by a tow truck.

Subjunctive Mood

To form conditional or tentative statements, move the verb tense one step into the past and use an appropriate conjunction or adverb (such as **infall**). So future tense becomes present tense, present tense becomes past tense, past tense becomes perfect tense, perfect tense becomes past perfect tense.

Infall werk mîn auto morgen, fare wi mid him tô arbêd. = If my car is working tommorow, we will travel with it to work.

Infall was ik en rîk man, levd ik in en grœt hûs mind manig betiuners. = If I were a rich man, I would live in big house with many servants.

Infall ha ik forûtsejen de problem mid mîn auto, ginge wi nejt hêm nu. = If I had forseen the problem with my car, we would not be walking home now.

Auxiliary Verbs

These verbs are used to change the mood another verb. They follow the subject of the sentence and are followed by the infinitive verb that they are modifying. Most of these auxiliary verbs are irregular (see below) and have a different singular and plural form.

```
schulle ['ʃolə] = to in the future do, shall, will.

Du schall fliuge tô Singapor. = You will fly to Singapore.

Wi schulle swimme in đe pôl. = We shall swim in the pond.

kunne ['konə] = to be able to, to know how to, can.

Ik kann [kan] spreke folkspråk. = I can speak Folkspråk.

Hunde kunne ete bêne. = Dogs are able to eat bones.
```

wolle ['volo] = to want to, to wish to.

Ik will lerne folkspråk. = I want to learn Folkspråk.

Dê wolle hære musik. = They want to hear music.

môte ['mu:tə] = to be compelled to, to need to, to have to, must.

Ik **môt** drinke water. = *I must drink water.* Dê **môte** sûpe bir. = *They need to guzzle beer.*

schulde ['ʃoldə]= *to be supposed to do, to be advised to, to ought to, should.*

Đu schuld nejt rœke. = You should not smoke. Đề schulde ete mềr brœd. = They should eat more bread.

mœge ['mø:gə] = to be possible to do, to be permitted to do.

Ik mag stiure autobusse. = *I am allowed to drive buses*.

Junglings mæge nejt sûpe wîn. = Children are not permitted to guzzle wine.

Unlike most English auxiliary verbs, the Folkspråk versions can be used in the past, perfect and future tense like other verbs. They can be freely combined with other auxiliary verbs to create complex moods and tenses.

Ik ha kund lœpe haastig. = I have been able to run quickly.
Wi schulde wolle drinke bir. = We should want to drink beer.
Đu schulde kunne spreke folkspråk. = You will be advised to know how to speak Folkspråk.

Irregular Verbs

Many verbs, especially some of the most important and commonly used verbs in Folkspråk are

irregular. They don't exactly follow the rules of past and present tense given above. Luckily they are few in number and there is a good chance that there will be equivalent verbs in your own Germanic language that are similarly irregular. Some of the irregular ones are listed below.

Table of Folkspråk Irregular Verbs

Infinitive	Present Singular	Present Plural	Past Singular	Past Plural	Past Participle	Translation
wese ['ve:sə]	is [18]	âre [ˈæːrə]	was [vas]	wâre [ˈvæːrə]	wesd [ve:st]	to be
have['ha:və]	ha[ha:]	have['hɑ:və]	hadd [had]	hadde ['hadə]	havd [ha:vd]	to have
kunne [ˈkʊnə]	kann [kan]	kunne [kunə]	kund [kund]	kunde ['kondə]	kund [kund]	to a able to, to know how to
schulle [ˈʃʊlə]	schall [ʃal]	schulle [¹∫ʊlə]	schuld [∫ʊld]	schulde [ˈʃʊldə]	schuld* [∫ʊld]	to do in the future
wolle [volə]	will [vɪl]	wolle [ˈvɪlə]	wold [vold]	wolde ['coldə]	wold [vold]	to want to
witte ['vɪtə]	wêt [veɪt]	witte ['vɪtə]	wist [vist]	wiste ['uɪstə]	witted ['vɪtəd]	to know or be aware of a situation
môte ['muːtə]	môt [mu:t]	môte ['mu:tə]	môst [mu:st]	môste [ˈmuːstə]	môted ['mu:təd]	to need to, to have to
mœge [ˈmø:gə]	mag [ma:g]	mœge [ˈmø:gə]	mœcht [mø:çt]	mœchte [ˈmøːçtə]	mœcht [møːçt]	to be allowed to, to be possible to
schulde** ['ʃʊldə]	schuld [ʃʊld]	schulde [¹∫ʊldə]	schuld [ʃʊld]	schulde [ˈʃʊldə]	schuld [ʃʊld]	to be advised to
gâe [ˈgæːə]	gâ [gæ:]	gâe [ˈgæːə]	ging [gɪŋ]	ginge [ˈgɪŋə]	gan [ga:n]	to go, to walk
stâe [ˈstæːə]	stâ [stæ:]	stâe ['stæ:ə]	stond ['stond]	stonde ['stondə]	standen ['standen]	to stand

wese [ve:sə] = to be.

Ik will wese rik = I want to be rich.

Ik is rik = I am rich.

 $\mathbf{D}\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ are $\mathbf{arm} = They$ are poor.

Đu was gesund = You were healthy.

Wi wâre siuk = We were sick

Đê have wesd alltîd arm = They have always been poor.

have ['ha:və] = to have

Hi schuld have en auto. = He should have a car.

Hi ha twê œge. = He has two eyes.

Ji have tri autos. = You have three cars.

Ik hadd nên auto. = I had no car.

Sîn hunde hadde en ungeluck. = His dogs had an accident.

Đề have havd en ungeluck. = They have had an accident.

kunne ['kunə] = to be able to, to know how to

Ji schulde kunne swimme. = You should be able to swim.

Đu kann nejt fliuge. = You can not fly.

Wi kunne swimme. = We can swim.

Si kund spreke engelisch. = She could (was able to) speak English.

Ji kunde singe gôd. = You could (were able to) sing well.

Đề have kund swimme. = They have been able to swim.

wolle [vole] = to want to, to wish to.

Hi schuld wolle ete tortes. = *He should want to eat cakes*.

Hi will lerne folkspråk. = He wants to learn Folkspråk.

Wolle ji drinke mîn wîn? = *Do you want to drink my wine?*

Ik wold nejt besôeke đîn môder gestern. = *I didn't want to visit your mother yesterday.*

Đê wold dœde đêr elders. = They wanted to kill their parents.

Ik ha wold besitte en hûs. = I have wanted to own a house.

môte ['mu:tə] = to be compelled to, to need to, must.

Ik schuld nejt môte drinke mêr bir. = I should not need to drink more beer.

Mîn katt môt ete flêsch. = My cat needs to eat meat.

Môte ji kysse mîn grœtmôder so îverig? = *Must* you kiss my grandmother so enthusiastically?.

Ik **môst nejt** besôeke đîn **môder**. = *I didn't need to visit your mother*.

Dêr elders môste wese friudig. = Their parents needed to be happy.

Ik ha môted dœde sîn hunde. = I have needed to kill his dogs.

schulle $\lceil \lceil \text{old} \rceil = to in the future do, shall, will.$

Ik kann schulle swimme over de streem. = I can in the future swim across the river.

Đu schall fliuge tô Singapor. = You will fly to Singapore.

Wi schulle swimme in de pôl. = We shall swim in the pond.

Si schuld lerne nâxt jâr engelisch. = She would next year learn English.

Wi schulde singe de gesang gôd after manig singend lektione. = We would sing the song well after many singing lessons.

*The past participle of **schulle** is in practise never used and would be impossible to translate into English if it ever were.

schulde ['foldə] = to be supposed to do, to be advised to, to ought to, should.

This verb is in fact the past tense of **schulle used in a subjunctive mood and can possibly cause confusion since it has two meanings. Care needs to be taken to make sure the two are kept distinct, by, for example, using adverbs of time in addition to **schuld** when it is being used as the past tense of **schulle**.

Ik schuld witte sîn nam. = I should know his name.

Hi schuld swimme haastiger. = *He ought to swim faster.*

Schulde wi besôeke đîn siuk grœtmôder? = Should we visit your sick grandmother?

Ik schuld nejt besôeke đîn môder gestern. = I was not supposed to visit your mother yesterday.

Dê schulde rêse lat'st jâr tô de ald land av dêr elders .= There were meant to travel to their parents old country last year.□

Ik ha schuld behandele de begraving av dîn elders. = I have been supposed to attend to your parents funeral.

mæge ['mø:gə] = to be possible to do, to be permitted to do, may.

Ik schuld nejt mæge drinke bir. = I should not be allowed to drink beer.

Mîn katt mag ete fisch. = My cat is allowed to eat fish.

Ji mæge kysse mîn grætmôder. = You may kiss my grandmother.

Ik mæcht nejt ræke bî de hûs av dîn môder. = I was not allowed to smoke at your mother's house.

De elders mæchte inkomme de land av dêr junglings. = The parents were allowed to enter their children's country.

Ik ha mecht migrere tô Irland. = I have been allowed to migrate to Ireland.

witte ['vɪtə] = to know of a situation.

Ik will witte sîn nam. = *I* want to know his name.

Hi wêt dat have fische nên lunge. = He knows that fish have no lungs.

Witte ji dat is mîn grœtmôder dœd? = Do you know that my grandmother is dead?

Ik wist nejt đat besôeke đîn môder morgen. = *I didn't know that your mother was visiting tomorrow.*

Đê wiste đat wâre đêr elders dœd. = They knew that their parents were dead. []

Ik ha witted đat wâre đêr elders dœd. = I have known that their parents were dead.

 \hat{gae} ['gæ:ə] = to go, to walk.

Ik will gâe tô đe krôg.= I want to go to the pub.

Hi gâ fort an đe stræmkust. = He is walking along the river bank.

Gâe ji tô đe hûs av jiur grœtmôder? = Are you walking to your grandmother's house?

Ik ging tô đe hûs av đîn elders gestern. = I walked yesterday to your parents' house.

De junglings ginge tô de begraving av dêr grœtelders. = *The children went to their grandparents funeral*.□ Ik ha gan hêm fran de krôg. = *I have gone home from the pub*.

stâe ['stæ: \Rightarrow] = to stand, to be in a place.

Si schall stâe befor en tribunal. = She will stand in front of a court.

Ik stå ûten de bôkbotek. = I am standing outside a bookstore.

Wâr stâe ji? = Where are you standing?

De ald appelbœm stond allên in de acker. = The old apple tree stood alone in the field.

Wi stonde up de hechtpunkt av de berg. = We stood on the summit of the mountain.

Ett ha stond dår sið manig jåre. = It has stood there for many years.

Strong Verbs.

Folkspråk has a number of strong verbs (approximately 40) that form the past and perfect tense by changing the vowel sound of the verb stem instead of the regular method of adding a suffix. This process of vowel change is know as *ablaut*. In addition to *ablaut*, the past participles of strong verbs take an -en [-ən] suffix rather than -d or -ed. Strong verbs are divided into seven classes. Each class has the same or similar vowel in the infinitive form and undergoes the same *ablaut* changes in the past tense and past participle. Each strong verb needs to be learnt. If a verb is strong in Folkspråk there will be a very good chance that your own Germanic language will have a counterpart that is likewise strong and whose vowels change in a very similar way to the Folkspråk one. Rather than learning the individual *ablaut* for each verb, I recommend you first learn the strong verb classes and the *ablaut* for each class. The strong verb classes are as follows:

Table of Folkspråk Strong Verbs.

Infinitive	Past	Perfect	Meaning
Class I			
î	* ê *	*i**en	
bîte	bêt-	bitten	to bite
drîve	drêv-	drieven	to drive, to incite
rîde	rêd-	ridden	to ride
schîne	schên-	schienen	to shine
smîte	smêt-	smitten	to throw
Class II			
iu	*œ*	*o*en	
biude	bœd-	boden	to offer
fliuge	flœg-	flogen	to fly
friuse	frœs-	frosen	to freeze
schiute	schœt-	schoten	to shoot
Class III			

Infinitive	Past	Perfect	Meaning
*i**e	*a**	*u**en	<u> </u>
binde	band-	bunden	to bind
drinke	drank-	drunken	to drink
finde	fand-	funden	to find
singe	sang-	sungen	to sing
springe	sprang-	sprungen	to jump
Class IV			
*e*e or *o*e	*a*	*o*en	
komme	kam-	komen	to come
stecke	stak-	stoken	to stab
stele	stal-	stolen	to steal
Class V			
*e*e or *i*e	*a*	*e*en	
bidde	bad-	beden	to pray
ete	at-	eten	to eat
geve	gav-	geven	to give
lige	lag-	legen	to lie
seje	saj-	sejen	to see
sitte	sat-	seten	to sit
Class VI			
*a*e	*ô*	*a*en	
drage	drôg-	dragen	to pull
slaje	slôj-	slajen	to hit
Class VII			
*a**e or *â*	*iu*	*a*en	
falle	fiul-	fallen	to fall
halde	hiuld-	halden	to hold
lâte	liut-	laten	to allow , to let

Note that the past tense of strong verbs conjugate for number. Singular past tense is the simple stem of the strong verb with the vowel change. Plural past tense is the past stem of the strong verb plus a -e suffix.

```
Ik drîv, ik drêv, ik ha drieven. = I drive, I drove, I have driven.

Dê drîve, đê drêve, đê have drieven. = They drive, they drove, they have driven.

Hi sing, hi sang, hi ha sungen. = He sings, he sang, he has sung.

Wi singe, wi sange, wi have sungen. = We sing, we sang, we have sung.

Du sej, đu saj, đu ha sejen. = You see, you saw, you have seen.

Ji seje, ji saje, ji have sejen. = You see, you saw, you have seen.
```

Prepositions

These little words are used in a similar way as to in English. They come before the noun or pronoun they modify and before any articles, determiners or adjectives. Many are similar in use to their English cognates but there are a few notable exceptions which might trap the unwary English speaker. In particular **up** which does not mean *up* but more like English *on* or *upon*.

```
De kupp is up de desch = The cup is on the table.
Dîn hôd is up dîn hœved = Your hat is on your head.
Ik lig up de bedd = I am lying on the bed.
Ji môte arbêde up frîdag = You must work on Friday.
```

An sometimes can be used like English *on*, but means not on top of something but stuck to or against the side of something. (Like picture on a wall, or a city on a river)

```
De bild is an de mûr = The picture is on the wall.
London lig an de Thames = London lies on the Thames.
Mîn hotel was an de strand = My Hotel was right on the beach.
Ik slôj an đe dôr = I banged against the door.
after['aftər] = after, behind
an[an] = on, against, at
av^1[av] = of, belonging to
av^2[av] = off
befor[bəˈfoːr] = before, in front of
\mathbf{b}\hat{\mathbf{i}}[\mathbf{bai}] = by, beside
for[for] = for
fort[fort] = forth, onwards, forward, along
fran[fran] = from
hinden ['hɪndən] = behind
in[In] = in, inside
mid[mid] = with, accompanied by
\mathbf{n}\hat{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{j}[\mathbf{n}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{I}] = near, next to
neden['ne:den] = down, downwards
om[om] = around, about, regarding
oven['o:vən] = up, upwards
over['o:vər] = over, across, above
\hat{sid}[said] = since, for.
t\hat{\mathbf{o}}[tu:] = to
tôrygg[tuːˈrʏg] = behind, backwards
twischen['tuɪʃən] = between, among
turj['tori] = through, by way of, via
unden['undən] = down, downwards
under['under] = under, beneath, below
\mathbf{up}[\mathbf{up}] = on, upon, on top of
\hat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{t}[aut] = out, out of, from out of
ûten['autən] = without, except, outside
```

Conjunctions

These are the small word that connect the clauses of complex sentences together.

on', ond [ən], [ənd], [ənd] = and. Only when ond comes before a word starting with a vowel is the d pronounced or written. Otherwise it is replaced by an apostrophe. It is normally pronounced unstressed so the vowel becomes [ə]

```
Ik will ete fisch on' frite. = I want to eat fish and chips.
```

Hi will ete persche ond appels. = He wants to eat peaches and apples.

Ik saj ên bischop on' fîv presters. = I saw one bishop and five priests.

Wi saje twê monke ond acht nonne. = We saw two monks and eight nuns.

```
\mathbf{dech} [\mathbf{dosc}] = but, though
```

Ik liuv mîn frû dech hirer elders hate mi. = I love my wife but her parents hate me. Hi sûp bir dech ett drîv hin siuk = He drinks beer but it makes him sick.

```
oder[oder] = or
```

infall ['infal] = if, in the event of.

Infall besôeke đîn elders, gâ ik tô đe krôg. = *If* your parents visit, *I* will go to the pub.

ov $[\mathfrak{pv}]$ = whether, if. Only used if the same manner as English if, in situations where if could be replaced with whether. In most situations if should be translated as **infall**.

Ik will witte ov is dîn auto grôen oder rœd. = I want to know whether your car is green or red.

forđat [fordat] = because

Hi was drœrig fordat was hi tô tick. = He was unhappy because he was too fat.

dat [dat] = that. Used to introduce a subordinate clause in exactly the same way English that can be used. Ik wêt dat is din auto grôen. = I know that your car is green.

 $ext{cek} [\emptyset:k] = also, too.$ Not used to translate too as in excessively.

Dîn auto is grôen. Mîn is œk grôen. = Your car is green. Mine is also green.

Đu is rîk đœch ik is rîk œk. = You are rich, but I am rich too.

Syntax and Word Order

The V2 Rule

The default word order in Folkspråk is subject-verb-object (SVO). The subject of the sentence must be immediately next to the verb and not have any adverbs between it. But word order is also governed by the rule that the verb comes second (the V2 rule). The V2 rule means the first element of the sentence may be the subject, and indirect object or an adverb but the verb must follow it.

Mîn doktor visiterd mi gestern. = *My doctor examined me yesterday.*

In this instance the verb **visiterd** is second following **mîn doktor**, the subject of the sentence.

Gestern visiterd mîn doktor mi. = My doctor examined me yesterday.

In this case visiterd is second following gestern, an adverb for time.

A sentence may begin with an *indirect* object, provided that the second element of the sentence is the finite verb

De frû av de mer smêt en swerd tô Arthur. = The lady of the lake threw a sword to Arthur.

Tô Arthur smêt de frû av de mer en swerd. = The lady of the lake threw to Arthur a sword.

In the second example the sentence starts with with the indirect object, marked as such by the preposition tô. It is more permissable to start a sentence with an indirect object since are preceded by a preposition and are thus less likely to be mistaken for the subject of the sentence.

Putting the direct object of the sentence first should be avoided as it often will be impossible to tell which is the subject and which is the object of the sentence.

De mann et de fisch = *The man is eating the fish.*

*De fisch et de mann = *The man is eating the fish.

This sentence should be avoided since it looks exactly like the fish is eating the man.

Inversion of subject and direct object is more permissible in cases where the subject and object are pronouns, since these modify for case.

Hi et dêm = He is eating them.

 $\mathbf{D\hat{e}m}$ et $\mathbf{hi} = He$ is eating them.

This would be permissible, because from the case forms of the pronouns, it is clear who is eating whom. But such an arrangement is probably best left for instances where poetic license are needed.

Questions

A sentence is converted from a statement into a question by reversing the order of the subject and verb.

```
Ik at en appel. = I ate an apple.
At ik en appel? = Did I eat an apple?
Hi hêt Thomas. = He is called Thomas.
Hêt hi Thomas? = Is he called Thomas?

Du will gâe tô đe krôg. = You want to go to the pub.
Will đu gâe tô đe krôg? = Do you want to go to the pub?
```

A statement can also be made a question, simply by a change in the speaker's tone of voice. Or in writing by ending the statement in a question mark.

```
Hi hêt Thomas? = He's called Thomas?
Du will gâe tô đe krôg? = You want to go to the pub?
```

Position of Infinitives and Participles

Infinitive verbs and participles normally follow immediately after the finite verb.

```
Hi will spreke tô mi = He wants to speak with me. Ik ha sprekd tô hin = I have spoken to him.
```

De auto av mîn elders was stolen ût fran đêr garage = My parents car was stolen from their garage.

In cases of inversion due to the V2 rule, they follow immediately after the subject of the sentence.

```
Morgen schall ik besôeke mîn elders. = Tomorrow I will visit my parents.

Gestern was ik visiterd fran mîn doktor. = Yesterday I was examined by my doctor.

Langsam ha ik stiurd đe auto turj đe strâte av đe stadd. = I have driven the car slowly through the streets of town.
```

Position of Adverbs

Adverbs of manner follow immediately after the verb they modify. Other adverbs can be freely positioned in the sentence, provided they don't break the V2 rule.

```
Ik kann seker swimme. = I can surely swim.

Ik kann swimme seker. = I can swim safely.

Hi swimm nejt in de pôl. = He is not swimming in the pond.
```

Word Order of Subordinate Clauses

Subordinate clauses follow the V2 rule, in that the primary clause of the sentence is regarded as the first element of the subordinate clause. Therefore the verb comes first in the subordinate clause, followed by the subject, a process known as *inversion*.

```
Ik gâ tô đe krôg infall besôeke đîn elders. = I'm going to the pub if your parents visit.
Ik will witte ov is đîn auto grôen ođer rœd. = I want to know whether your car is green or red.
Hi was drœrig forđat was hi tô tick. = He was unhappy because he was too fat.
```

The conjunctions **ond/on**, **oder** *and* **dech** do not follow the inversion rule for subordinate clauses. When these conjunctions are used, the subordinate clause follows the same rules as a primary clause.

Ik môt drinke water ođer ik schall sterve tyrstig = I must drink water or I will die of thirst. Ik liuv mîn frû đœch hirer elders hate mi = I love my wife but her parents hate me. Si rêd en brûn ross on' si sang en friuđig liud = She rode a brown horse and she sang a happy song.

Time

Telling the Time

The Folkspråk word for *o'clock* is **o'r**[u:r]. The time of day is normal preced by the preposition **om**. The 24 hour clock is the preferred format. In fact Folkspråk has no exact equivalent to English *a.m.* and *p.m.*

```
Om wat ôr is ett? = What's the time?
Ett is om elv ôr. = It's eleven o'clock (in the morning).
Ett is om fiurtejn ôr. = It's two o'clock (in the afternoon).
Ett is om twentig-tri ôr. = It's 11pm.
```

Times that are not exactly on the hour, are expressed by following the ôr by the number of minutes since the beginning of the hour.

```
Ett is om twentig-tri ôr fîvtig-seven. = It's 11:57pm.
Ett is om acht ôr fîvtejn. = It's quarter past eight in the morning.
```

Adverbs of Time

```
nêmâl = never

êns = once, one time

selden = seldom, rarely

ênigtîd = sometimes

oft = often, frequently

êmâl = ever, at any time

alltîd = always

êdoch still, yet

allrêd = already

niulik = recently

upniu = again
```

Unlike in English, in Folkspråk, the names of months, days of the week and seasons need not be capitalised.

Days of the Week

```
sonndag['son,da:g] = Sunday

mândag['mæ:n,da:g] = Monday

tiusdag['tros,da:g] = Tuesday

wônsdag['vu:ns,da:g] = Wednesday

tonnersdag['toners,da:g] = Thursday

frîdag['frai,da:g] = Friday

saterdag['sa:ter,da:q] = Saturday
```

Months

```
januâr[janu'æ:r] = January
februâr[febru'æ:r] = February
marc[marts] = March
april[a'pri:l] = April
mai[maɪ] = May
juni['ju:ni] = June
```

```
juli['ju:li] = July
august[ao'gost] = August
september[sep'tembər] = September
oktober[ok'to:bər] = October
november[no'vembər] = November
december[de'tsembər] = December
```

Seasons of the Year

Numbers

Writing Numbers

When using Folkspråk in a localised situation, it may be appropriate and more convenient to use the number conventions of the country in question. But when using Folkspråk for international communication, a more international system, which carries less chance of confusion and incompatibility is recommended. The following is system is calculated to be as internationally compatible as possible.

In Folkspråk the decimal separator can be either a point or a comma (**punkt** or **komma**). Therefore 3.142 = 3,142. Long multi-digit numbers may be grouped into groups of three digits much like in English. But the only group separator that is permitted it a space. Therefore 1.048576 = 1048576. Commas or points may not be used a group separator: $3,142 \neq 3.142$.

Lists or sequences of numbers should be separated by a semi-colon (;). So zero, one, one, two, three, five, eight, thirteen, twenty-one should be typed as 0; 1; 1; 2; 3; 5; 8; 13; 21.

Small non-integer numbers (i.e. between -1 and +1) are always represented with a preceding zero. So $\frac{3}{4}$ × 1 is represented as 0,75 or 0.75 but never as *.75.

Negative numbers have the negative sign in front of the number. Therefore *negative three point five* is represented as -3,5 or -3.5 but never as *3.5–

Currency symbols come before the numerals of the price they are denoting. Thus *one euro thirty five cents* is written as €1,35 or €1.35 and not *1,35€. Symbols for sub-units of currency, such as cents or pence are not normally written unless the price is less than one of the major unit. In these cases, the sub-unit is written after the numeral of the price in question. So *ninety-nine pence* may be written as 99p. It could also safely be written as £0,99 or £0.99. *One dollar and two cents* would be written as \$1,02 or \$1.02 but not *\$1.02¢

Cardinal Numbers

Numbers work in a very similar way to English numbers. For numbers 21–99, they follow the modern English word order for example **tritig-fiur** (34) and not ***fiur-on'-tritig.**

```
zero['ze:ro] = 0

en[ein] = 1
```

```
tw\hat{e}[tvei] or two[tvoi] = 2
tri[tri:] = 3
fiur[fior] = 4
\mathbf{fiv}[\mathbf{faiv}] = 5
sex[seks] = 6
seven[se:van] = 7
acht[axt] = 8
niun[niun] = 9
tein[tein] = 10
elv[\varepsilon | v] = 11
twelv[tvelv] = 12
tritejn['tri:,tein] = 13
fiurtejn['fior_tein] = 14
fîvtejn['faɪv,teɪn = 15
sextein[seks, tein = 16]
seventejn['se:vən,teɪn] = 17
achttein['axt,tein] = 18
niuntejn['nɪonˌteɪn] =19
twentig['tventig] = 20
twentig-ên[tventig'ein] = 21
tritig['tri:trg] = 30
fiurtig['fiortig] = 40
fîvtig['faɪvtɪg] = 50
sextig['sekstig] = 60
seventig['se:vəntɪg] = 70
achttig['axtig] = 80
niuntig['niontig] =90
hunderd[hunderd] = 100
hunderd-ên[hundərd'ein] = 101
hunderd-twentig-ên[hundərd,tventig'ein] = 121
twê-hunderd['tuer,hunderd] = 200
niun-hunderd-niuntig-niun['nɪun,hundərd,nɪuntɪg'nɪun] = 999
\hat{\mathbf{tusend}}[\text{'tausend}] = 1000
million[mɪl'jo:n] = 1\ 000\ 000\ (10^6)
milliard[mɪl'jard] = 1\ 000\ 000\ 000\ (10^9)
billion[bɪl'jo:n] = 1\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ (10^{12})
trillion[trillion] = 10^{15}
```

Ordinal Numbers

Most ordinal numbers are formed by taking the cardinal number and adding the -**de** suffix. This is pronounced as either [-də] or [-tə] depending on whether the final consonant in the cardinal number is voiced or unvoiced. The exception to this is the ordinal number for *first* and any other ordinal numbers ending with a final numeral of one (excepting 11), such as *twenty-first*. Instead of being ***ênđe**, it is **êrst**[e:rst] or **fyrst**[fyrst].

```
êrst[e:rst] = first
fyrst[fyrst] = first
twêde['tve:də] = second
tride['tri:də] = third
fiurde['fiurdə] = fourth
fivde['faivdə] = fifth
sexde['sɛkstə] = sixth
```

```
sevende['se:vəndə] = seventh
achtde['axtə] = eighth
niunde['niundə] = ninth
tejnde['teində] = tenth
twentig-êrst[',toentig'e:rst] = twenty-first
```

Ik is đe triđe jungling av mîn môder. = I am my mother's third child. Morgen is sîn twentig-êrst geburddag = Tomorrow is his 21st birthday.

Ordinals can be written in abbreviated form with the cardinal number followed by a superscript e: -e

```
1^e = \text{êrst} = \text{fyrst} = 1^{st}

2^e = \text{twêde} = 2^{nd}

3^e = \text{tride} = 3^{rd}

4^e = \text{twêde} = 4^{th}

82^e = \text{achttig-twêde} = 82^{nd}
```

Gestern was de 82^e geburddag av mîn grœtfader. = Yesterday was my grandfather's 82nd birthday.

Fractional Numbers

Most fractions are formed by taking the ordinal number and adding the -del suffix. This is pronounced as either [-dəl] or [-təl] depending on whether the final consonant in the cardinal number is voiced or unvoiced. Fractional numbers can be used as adjectives, adverbs or as nouns in their own right. The exception to this is the fractional number for ½, which is a helft as noun and halv as an adjective and ½ which is not normally considered a fractional number. Fractional numbers which end in the numeral 1 (excepting 11) may be denoted using êrstdel or fyrstdel as the final part of the number.

```
halv[halv] = half, semi-, hemi- ½
helft[helft] = one half; ½
triđel['tri:dəl] = third; ½
fiurđel['furdəl] = one fourth/quarter; ¼
fivđel['farvdəl] = one fifth; ½
sexđel['sekstəl] = one sixth; ½
sevenđel['se:vəndəl] = one seventh; ½
achtđel['axtəl] = one eighth; ½
niunđe['niundəl] = one ninth; ½
tejnđel['teindəl] = one tenth; ½
tejnđel['teindəl] = one tenth; ½
twentig-êrstđel[',tventig'e:rstəl] = one twenty-first; ½
Dîn appel sej ût kostlik. Gev mi helft. = Your apple looks delicious. Give me half.
Ik gav hir en halv appel. = I gave her half an apple.
Twê is en achtđel av sextejn = Two is one eighth of sixteen.
Ik besitt en fiurđel dêl av đe business = I own a quarter share of the business.
```

Prefixes and Suffixes

Folkspråk has a large number of prefixes and especially suffixes which can be used to change words from one part of speech to another or to modify their meaning. Some of these prefixes have no real independent meaning and are not able to be productively added to existing words, these are **ge-**, **fer-**, **be-**. Many other prefixes are words in their own right and can be used as prepositions, nouns, adjectives etc. Listed here are the productive suffixes and prefixes which are not words in their own right and which may be used to modify existing words for word creation.

Prefixes

mis-[mis-] Modifying nouns and verbs, meaning bad or undesirable. Equivalent to English *mis-*misbrûke = *to misuse*, *violate or abuse*. misdâd = *misdeed or crime*

un-[on-] Modifying adjectives and nouns, meaning the opposite of the root. Mostly equivalent to English *un*-

unlêrd = unlearned, ignorant. ungelœver = unbeliever, infidel.

ont-[ont-] Modifying verbs to give a meaning of reversing or undoing the original process. Often equivalent to English *un*-.

onttecke = to uncover or discover. **ontschulde** to excuse, to pardon.

Suffixes Creating Adjectives

-ig[-Ig] Full of a particular noun. Mostly equivalent to English -y but only used in this manner. In English, for example *piggy* could mean having the characteristics of a pig. But Folkspråk swînig would have to mean literally full of pigs. *Piggy* would be better translated as swînlik.

stênig = stony; full of stones; Đies sol is stênig. = This soil is stony. lœvig = leafy, full of leaves. Đe park ha manig lœvig bœme. = The park has many leafy trees.

- -ful[-fol] Full of a particular noun. Used in a similar way to -ig. hopful = hopeful, promising.
- -sam[-sam] Having a tendency to be the particular adjective, or do a particular verb. Often equivalent to English -some.

behelpsam = helpful. biugsam = flexible, pliant, supple. gewaldsam = violent.

-en[-ən] Constructed from a particular material noun. Equivalent to English -en, (as in *golden*, *wooden*, *woollen*, *earthen*) but used in many more places, since most Folkspråk nouns may not be freely used as adjectives without an explicit converting suffix.

stênen = stone. Ik klimm de stênen treppe. = I am climbing the stone steps. Wi wone in en timmeren $h\hat{u}s$ = We live in a wood(en) house. Sîn ring is golden. = His ring is golden.

- -lœs[-lø:s] Having none or a lack of a particular noun. Equivalent to English -less.
 inhaldslœs = empty. Mîn forrâdkiste wâre alltîd inhaldslœs. = My cupboards were always empty.
 lîvlœs lifeless, dull. De krôg was lîvlœs up en mândagmorgen = The pub was lifeless on a Monday morning.
- -lik[-lik] Having similar properties or characteristics to a particular noun. Equivalent to English -like and sometimes -ly.
- landlik = rural, rustic; Ji schulde stiure jiur auto langsam up landlik strâte. = You should drive your car slowly on country roads. Swînlik = piggy, piglike, porcine. Đu et đîn fôd swînlik! = You eat your food like a pig! (piggily)
- -isch[-ɪʃ] Belonging to the same grouping as a particular group. Similar in usage to -lik, but is used more for nationalities and countries. Equivalent to English -ish. Also appears in a myriad of Romance borrowings of adjectives, replacing -ic and -ical.
- -bar[-bar] Able to be acted upon easily by a particular verb. Equivalent to English -able. formbar = workable, plastic, malleable. Hêt îsern is formbar = Hot iron is malleable.
- -ed, -d[-əd, -d] The past participle of regular verbs. See the section on verbs.
- -end[-ənd] The present participle of a verb. See the section on verbs.

Suffixes Creating Nouns

-hêd[-heid] The condition of being a particular adjective or noun. Often equivalent to English -hood.

smiurighêd = dirt, filth, smut. behaglikhêd = comfort, cosiness, snugness

- -nis[-nɪs] The condition of being a particular adjective or noun. Often equivalent to English -ness. **gefangnis** = *captivity*, *detention*, *prison*. **gehêmnis** = *secrecy*, *stealth*
- -dôm[-dom] The condition of being a particular adjective or noun. Often equivalent to English -dom.
- -schap[-∫ap] The group having a particular characteristic or being a particular adjective. Often equivalent to English -ship.
- wittenschap = science, knowledge, learning. êgenschap = quality, aspect, function, characteristic.
- -er[-ər] One who does or is the agent of a particular verb. Equivalent to English -er. swimmer = swimmer, one who swimmers. danser = dancer, one who dances.
- -ing[-ɪŋ] The process or action of doing a particular verb. Often equivalent to English -ing. kreering = creation. overleving = survival.
- -d[-d] The condition of being a particular adjective. Not normally productive, this suffix has several fossilised forms which has assimilated to the final consonant of the root adjective. Often equivalent to English -th in breadth or length or -t in English height.

hœcht = *height* dugeđ = *virtue*. jugeđ = *youth*, *boy*.

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