NEW & INDEPOSITOR OF SONT tysk rysk dutch svensk deutsch norwegisch de sch danish german th noors englisch nederlands fransk schwedisch DYCCKNN norwegian engelsk ʻENCh english французский danois norweg fon David Parke h tysk französisch german norwegian zweeds hollandsk dänisch svensk dytch russian egian ŚUÉdOİS **duits französisch** russe duits SVENSK французский danois fransk hollandsk ish **danish французский german french** danois **allemand rú**ssisch französisch english danish svensk dänisch duits norwegian dansk zweeds НОРВЕЖСКИЙ danish SWEdish noors fransk zweeds ge The Concise Frenkisch Gra

and niederländisch СКИЙ engelsk norwegisch französisch norwegisch niederländisch русский danish engelsk fransk Frenkisch needs your help! It is intended that Frenkisch will have an open-ended vocabulary. All words that potentially can meet the entry criteria of Frenkisch should be a part of the vocabulary. This vocabulary size is currently 600 words. It could potentially be expanded far wider, although I am unsure of what the final tally could be; 10 000 words or even 30 000?

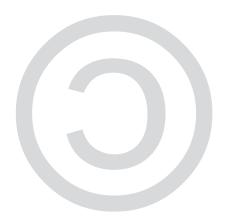
Frenkisch needs your suggestions for new words. To propose a new word for Frenkisch, send the author the suggested Frenkisch word, its translation into English, and cognate forms in at least three of the source language units. Frenkisch also needs help with translating the existing Frenkisch–English dictionary into other languages. Fluent and preferably native speakers of any of the Frenkisch source languages, with an interest in conlanging and linguistics, are needed for this task.

The author can be contacted by email at parked71@gmail.com

Frenkisch mout have jur help! Ett is wold dat frenkisch schall have en open begrenc'd wordschatt. All worden dat konde meuglik passe de leuvkriterias af frenkisch scholde wese en deil af de wordschatt. Dis wordschattantal is nou 6000 worden. Ett kond meuglik autbreide ferr wyder, eidoch ick is onseker hwat konde wese de endlik antal; 10 000 worden oder magschej 30 000?

Frenkisch tarv jur forslagen for niew worden. Tou forslaje en niew word for Frenkisch, send de autor de forslajen frenkisch word, de oversetting op Eng'lisch, ond kognatformen in toumindest tri af de orsprongspraikeinheiden. Frenkisch tarv help euk tou oversette de bestaiend Frenkisch-Eng'lisch wordbouk op ander spraiken. Wellsprekend, inheimisch sprekers af eilk af de Frenkisch orsprongspraiken, mid interesse in konstspraiken ond spraikleir sinde tarv'd for dis opgave.

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Introduction

I would like to present my latest constructed language — *Frenkisch*. Frenkisch is an outgrowth of my work in the Folkspraak group. It is an attempt to make a Germanic language that is a melding of multiple Germanic languages, but is more focused on artistic and aesthetic considerations. It is less bound by considerations of being simple or strictly pan-Germanic.

My approach in building it started out by applying the Interlingua method to a sample of predominantly Germanic languages (there also some non-Germanic sources — more about that later).

It is formed of common features from a group of source languages. The source languages of Frenkisch are English, Dutch, German, Danish, Norwegian Bokmål, Swedish, French and Russian. English, Dutch and German are treated as one unit each. The three Scandinavian languages are regarded as one unit collectively — that is, on the frequent occasions where the Scandinavian languages share a feature among the three of them, these three languages do not outweigh three other languages. The two non-Germanic sources count as one unit collectively — that is if they share a common feature it only has the weighting of one other language.

Linguistic features (such as vocabulary items, grammatical rules or phonological or orthographic features) will be a part of Frenkisch if they are represented by three (or more) units of my source languages. This could be, for example, Dutch and English and one (or more) Scandinavian language. Or by German and Scandinavian and Russian. For example, as a word for potato, cognate forms exist in the source languages as German Kartoffel, Danish kartoffel, and Russian картофель (kartofel'). This mean that three units (German, Scandinavian and Russian) of the source languages have common cognate form meaning potato. This is the basis of the Frenkisch word kartoffel. Note that the presence of this word does not exclude the possibility of other words meaning potato existing in Frenkisch. It also has potat, based on English potato, Dutch patat, Norwegian potet, Swedish potatis and French patate.

I have also given a some additional weighting to English and German (the two most widely spoken Germanic languages) — features that are shared by these two units gain the weighting of three units

rather than two and are thus guaranteed a place of influence over the shape of the language. For example Proto Germanic (PG) $^*\bar{u}$ has evolved to a [au] sound in both German and English. So in Frenkisch, cognates to PG $^*\bar{u}$ have evolved to [au] as well, even though this evolution is not shared by any of the other sources. A second example would be PG *sk has evolved to [ʃ] in English and German — this has happened also in Frenkisch. There are also some words represented by cognates only in English and German; Frenkisch lerne is based on English *learn* and German *lernen*.

The final form of Frenkisch words is determined by finding the most recent common ancestor of the cognates in the source languages. For example, the sources of Frenkisch haus are the cognates English house, Dutch huis, German Haus and Danish/Norwegian/Swedish *hus*. The ancestor of these cognates is PG *hūsam. This ancestor is then changed by a regular pseudo-evolution into a modernised form. This evolution is the commonest regular sound changes from earlier forms in the source languages. Like I mentioned before, I've decided that the PG *ū phoneme has a regular evolution to [au] in Frenkisch. Initial PG *h tends to remain unchanged, as does PG *s. Early Germanic grammatical suffixes, such as the -am in *hūsam tend to be dropped or generalised to a schwa sound. Thus PG *hūsam pseudo-evolves to Frenkisch haus. Often the ancestral form is assumed to be somewhat later than Proto-Germanic with certain common evolutions having already occurred such as i-mutation, generalisation of unstressed vowels, and loss of distinction between *hr and *r. When words are borrowings from French or Latin, they have applied to them what I consider to be the commonest adaptations that the Germanic source languages do to such words.

It is important to note that any particular word of one language is likely to have multiple meanings, some of them figurative or idiomatic. Some of these meanings might be shared by the cognate words of other languages. But sometimes they are not. Or sometimes a meaning is the primary meaning of a word in one language but in the cognate in another language it is only a secondary, less obvious meaning. Or sometimes a word in one language is the preferred word for a concept. But in a different language, the cognate is a second choice or is (like English *thou*) virtually obsolete. Just as important

as determining the *form* of a word in Frenkisch, my word formation methodology must also determine the *meaning*. For example, it is not sufficient to blandly state that Frenkisch schuve = English *shove* = Dutch *schuiven* = German *schieben* = Danish *skubbe* = Norwegian *skyve* = Swedish *skuffa*. These words are all cognate and have all evolved from PG *skeubhan. But they need to be carefully examined and only the common meanings/senses of these words become part of the meaning of schuve. So schuve carries only those meanings/senses that are shared by at least three units of the source languages.

A Frenkisch to English dictionary entry for schuve might look like this:

schuve v. = shove, push, thrust, push along.

And a Frenkisch to German dictionary entry would probably look like this:

schuve v. = schieben; stoßen; drängeln

Note that the meanings in both dictionaries are not just the cognate, but other words that refine the meaning and in what situations schuve would best be used.

I have tried to make the phonology fairly conservative and rich in phonemes, to retain as much potential information to as many languages as possible. So it retains some distinctions between sounds that some of the source languages may have lost. For example, I still have a difference between PG *w and *hw — So I have hwair (where) and wair (true). In Dutch for example, the cognates to these words are homonyms: waar and waar.

Now comes the reason for the name: I tried to think of an exciting name based on the language's function, but all the obvious ones are already taken. (eg intergermanisk, teutonish, Folkspraak, Middelsprake). Also I am not exactly sure if this language has a function or a purpose. So the name is based on one of its peculiar features: I've attempted to have an orthographic system that is as regular and unambiguous as possible. It also avoids the use of diacritical characters. Having a rich phonology, an etymological orthography but avoiding diacritical characters (restricting it to the basic 26 letters) and yet being regular and unambiguous is a huge challenge. I have even been forced to adapt my phonological system to keep the orthography simpler. It has necessitated using a number of di-graphs and tri-graphs to represent many phonemes. Because I need to represent words from

both Germanic and French or Graeco-Romance sources in roughly even amounts, my orthography draws a lot from French orthographic conventions — especially with vowels. The name *Frenkisch* is intended to convey a sense of the French (and other Romance) influence on the language. The name is intended to look like it is derived from *Frank* (the Germanic people after whom the France and the French are named) plus the PG *-iskaz suffix. Note that the Frenkisch word for *french* is not in fact *frenkisch* but francisch.

Some examples of the French influence on the orthography are: $eu = [\varnothing:]$, as in greut (great). ou = [u:], as in bloud (blood), $ai = [\varpi:]$, as in straite (street). u = [y:] or [Y], as in kuning (king) or tunn (thin). Of course there is much else that is drawn from other languages; $sch = [\int]$, as in schyne (to shine), is mainly from German, however German sch very often corresponds to Dutch sch, even if they are pronounced quite differently. The use of y to represent [ai] is English and Dutch influenced (in Dutch y can sometimes be used in place of ij.). The use of c as [ts] (as in provinc meaning province) even in a word-final position is Russian or generally Slavic inspired.

Some people might find it strange that I have referred to French and Russian, two non-Germanic languages, in creating a Germanic language. My reason for this is because although Frenkisch is intended to be used between speakers of Germanic languages, it is also intended to be useful to speakers from outside this grouping, who wish to communicate with Germanic-speakers. French and Russian were chosen because they are widely spoken as first languages, widely studied as second languages, and are similar to a large group of related Romantic and Slavic languages. So adding them to the mix improves one's chances of finding something in common. Often within the Germanic languages there is no clear majority form to show the way forward. There might be, for example, a split between English and Dutch on one side, German and Scandinavian on the other. But neither way has enough representation to be a basis for the Frenkisch word. By looking outside this grouping to what is more likely to be internationally recognised, it can clarify the situation. Note that, by my rules, a word still needs to be represented by cognates in at least half of my Germanic source languages before the presence in French or Russian permits it to be a part of Frenkisch.

The two non-Germanic languages that I have chosen are not only widely spoken internationally but are chosen because they either strongly influenced the Germanic languages, are strongly influenced by Germanic languages or both. For example, one often finds features in Russian that are common with German. Sometimes it is because German has borrowed from a Slavic source. Sometimes it is because Russian has borrowed from a Germanic source. Sometimes the two have borrowed from the same Romance source. And sometimes the feature is common because of the common Indo-European source of both language groups. I have chosen one Romance language and one Slavic language, to give a point of access for speakers of these two other great European language families. One other language that I did consider also consulting was Spanish. Spanish has more speakers than French but it has less direct influence over the Germanic languages than French. I didn't want to have to consult three non-Germanic languages, if only because of the increased workload. If, instead of French and Russian, I had chosen different big international languages such as Chinese or Arabic, it would have added very little to my analysis because these languages have so little in common with my Germanic source languages so would very rarely be of help.

Some might also ask why I didn't consult some of the other Germanic languages such as Afrikaans, Low Saxon, Frisian, Norwegian Nynorsk, Yiddish or Icelandic. Speakers of these languages are still likely to find features that are common with their language even if they were not used in the development of Frenkisch. I think I have chosen a representative sampling of Germanic languages which already covers most of the linguistic variation in the Germanic language group. There is little in Low Saxon this is not represented by something similar in Dutch or German or English or Scandinavian. And features that are truly unique to Low Saxon are not going to be appropriate to the nature of Frenkisch in any case. Also, in the case of Frisian or Low Saxon or Nynorsk, speakers of those languages are going to be, of necessity, already fluent in the majority languages of their country, which will be one of the languages that I have consulted. There is also a practical/pragmatic consideration: resources for some of those smaller languages have been for me difficult to find, and every additional language to consult adds to my workload.

As I said earlier, I haven't been restricted particularly by considerations of simplicity. Features that are shared by all or most of the source languages are present in Frenkisch even if they are not necessarily simple. I figure that restricting myself to grammatical or syntactical features that are shared by all four Germanic units of my source languages is a strong enough filter to remove most of the truly difficult grammar. It does leave me with some grammatical cases for pronouns, irregular adjectives, irregular and strong verbs and irregular spellings however.

I can not envision what sort of scenario would enable Frenkisch to become a widely spoken or studied language. It is however intended to be a modern Western language for the communication needs of the 21st Century. Those romantics who are looking for a language to use in tales and sagas of gods and heroes should keep looking. Those nationalists who are looking for a purified Germanic language, purged of all un-Germanic "contamination" are strongly encouraged to waste your time elsewhere.

Frenkisch might serve as primer language to introduce the Germanic languages to a student. It has features that would be encountered in most of the natural Germanic languages, only in simpler form. It could serve as an international auxiliary language (IAL), not just between native speakers of Germanic languages, but also "foreigners" from outside this region who wish to have an easy point of access. Although it is simpler than most Germanic languages, it definitely is not a simple as it could be, which admittedly makes the IAL usage problematic. It also could be used a language in fiction to provide a non-specific foreign flavour. (Similar things have been done in films and TV with Esperanto and Interlingua.) It could even be used in Military exercises to give a "foreign" language for the "enemy" side. (Esperanto has also be used this way).

Developing this language has been for me a journey of discovery into the Germanic languages. It's been done for my own amusement but I hope you get some enjoyment and even practical use from the result.

Pronunciation Guide

Generalised Vowel Length: This is based upon open/closed syllables. An *open* syllable ends in a single consonant or no consonants. In Frenkisch, an open syllable can also end in a single consonant followed by an apostrophe (') followed by another consonant. A *closed* syllable ends in two or more consonants. Vowels are long in most open syllables. Vowels are short in most closed syllables but in closed syllables, a vowel can be long if it is doubled. Example of an open syllable: bris [bri:s]. Example of a open syllable with following apostrophe: ad'lig ['a:dlɪg]. Example of a closed syllable: schipp [ʃɪp]. Example of a closed syllable with a doubled vowel: bruust [bry:st].

Long Final "e": Normally a single -e at the end of a word will be an unstressed suffix and should be pronounced as [ə]. But there are words that end in a stressed syllable with a long [e:] sound. In such cases, the e is doubled to indicate it's not an unstressed [ə]. For examples allee [a'le:] and idee [i'de:]

Suffixes And Compound Words: For the purposes of determining if a syllable is open or closed, consonants in a following suffix or parts of compound words are not considered. E.g. The e in temlik ['te:mlɪk] is long, even though it is followed by two consonants (m and l), because it is a word formed by adding the suffix - lik to the stem tem. Only the m consonant belongs to the syllable of the e. Likewise the a in glashaus [gla:s'haus] is long because the word is a compound of glas and haus. Only the s counts as being a part of the syllable that the a is in. The a is thus considered to be followed by a single consonant, therefore the syllable is open and the a is long.

Unstressed Syllables: Vowels in unstressed syllables are always short, regardless of whether they are open or closed. Often they are also schwas [ə]. Normally a final -e will be an unstressed [ə] sound. Frenkisch has a number of common unstressed prefixes and suffixes. These should be learnt and recognized, because recognition of unstressed adfixes will help you identify the stressed syllable and the length of it's vowel. For example, the final syllables of the following words are unstressed: besem, teiken, luttel, sturing, trucke. The first syllables of the following words are unstressed: geleuve, bereid, ferstand, erfaring.

Special Monosyllabic words: These words are almost all prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns (and some parts of the irregular verb wese). In this group of words, vowels are assumed to be short even in open syllables. Typical Examples are an [an], hwat [hvat], dat [dat], op [op], him [him], was [vas], af [af], fon [fon], is [is].

Multi-syllabic Romance Words: These words are normally stressed on the syllable before the final consonant. For example in karte ['kartə], the final consonant is t so the stress falls on the a before this. In excellence, the final consonant is c, so the stress falls on the e before that, so the pronunciation is [ɛkstsɛ'lɛntsə]. In advokat, the final consonant is t so the stress falls on the a before this, so the pronunciation is [advo'ka:t].

The biggest exception to this rule are words that end in -er or -el. These suffixes are unstressed so the stress will fall on the syllable before them. For example cykel 'tsaɪkəl]; vehikel [vɛ'hiːkəl]; cifer ['tsiːfər]; pulver ['pylvər].

The second exception is for 'Latin' nouns that retain the original Latin case endings such as -um, -us, -is. For example forum ['fo:rym]; museum [my'ze:ym]; fokus ['fo:kys]; tempus ['tempys]; basis ['ba:zɪs]; genesis [gɛ'ne:zɪs]. They are also notable in that these endings are modified when they form plurals. Such words are stressed on the syllable *before* the -us/-um/-is endings. It's important to note that this does not apply to all Romance words ending in -us, -um or -is: devis [dɛ'vi:s] and exkus [ɛks'ky:s] are stressed on the final syllable as normal because the -is and -us in those words aren't Latin case-endings.

The vowel length of the stressed syllable follows the open/closed rule. Other unstressed syllables are normally pronounced with short vowels. E.g. charakterisire [xarakteri'zi:rə]. If the word needs to be slowly pronounced for clarity or to assist spelling, the unstressed vowels can be long or short according to the open/close syllable rule. E.g. [xa:rakteri:'zi:rə]

The Vowel Phonemes

Short V	IPA Pronunciation	Word Examples	Notes
			Like <i>a</i> in German <i>Hand</i> . Like <i>a</i> in Northern
a	[a]	dat; an; katt; akt; allianc	or Scots English hand.
e	[ε]	wedde; reck'ning; ett; agent; direkt	Like <i>e</i> in English <i>bed</i> and <i>e</i> in German <i>Bett</i>
e	[e]	karte; luttel; cirkel; heupe	Like <i>a</i> in English <i>tuna</i> or <i>alike</i> . Like the final <i>e</i> in German <i>Freude</i>
i	[1]	in; sitte; ick; gift; beginne; bitter	Like i in English $sing$ and i in German $singen$

Spelling	IPA Pronunciation		
SF	IP.	Word Examples	Notes
O	[၁]	fon; folk; knopp; koloss; monster; stoff; somp; op; getoldig;	Like <i>o</i> in German <i>hoffen</i> . Like <i>oa</i> in English <i>broad</i> but shorter. Similar to English <i>o</i> in <i>sock</i> but with the mouth slightly more closed.
u	[Y]	trucke; kusse; rugg; suster; robust; produkt	Like \ddot{u} in German $Gl\ddot{u}ck$ and y in $Rhythmus$. English speakers can say this by saying i as in $lift$, but holding the lips rounded.
Long Vo	owels an	d Dipthongs	
a	[a:]	have; dag; sak; advokat; normal; resultat	Like <i>a</i> in English <i>path</i> . Similar to <i>a</i> in German <i>Tag</i> and <i>ah</i> in <i>Hahn</i> but said more at the back of the mouth.
ai	[æː]	said; traid; befaire; daid; universitait; regulair	Similar to <i>a</i> in English <i>cat</i> but drawn out longer. Similar to <i>ä</i> in German <i>spät</i> or <i>Zähne</i> but said with the mouth more open.
e	[e:]	wese; temlik; problem; idee	Like <i>eh</i> in German <i>Lehm</i> . Like the first part of the vowel in English <i>take</i> , but lengthened. This is near to the Scots pronunciation of the vowel in <i>take</i> .
ei	[eɪ]	ein; arbeide; bereid; breid; geist	Like <i>ay</i> in English <i>day</i> or <i>ai</i> in <i>rain</i> .
i	[iː]	hi; si; ji; frid; nider; smid; etik; aktiv	Like <i>ee</i> in English <i>deep</i> . Like <i>ie</i> in German <i>tief</i> .
у	[aɪ]	wyn; schryve; by; byte; dryve; fynd; hwyt; schyv; myt	Like <i>i</i> in <i>like</i> or <i>y</i> in <i>my</i> . Like <i>ei</i> in German <i>Gleich</i> or <i>ai</i> in <i>Main</i> .
O	[oː]	bog; open; rotor; pol; station; logisch	Like <i>o</i> in German <i>rot</i> or <i>oh</i> in <i>ohne</i> . Similar to <i>oa</i> in English <i>load</i> .
ou	[u:]	dou; bouk; tou; snour; goud; fout; tour; routine;	Like <i>u</i> in English <i>lunar</i> or <i>oo</i> in <i>mood</i> . Like <i>u</i> in German <i>Fuß</i> or <i>uh</i> in <i>Kuh</i> .
eu	[ø:]	euve; greun; greute; bereure; seut; beseuke; leun; steute; heuved; greut; reud; interieur; adieu; Europa	Like ö in German König and like eu in French directeur. English speakers can approximate this vowel by saying ur as in burst but keeping the lips rounded.
u	[y:]	uvel; dur; kuning; fur; flugel; luve; buge; kuse; diktatur; minut; latitud; figur; natur	Like <i>ü</i> in German <i>über</i> or <i>üh</i> in <i>kühn</i> . English speakers can say this by saying <i>ee</i> as in <i>feet</i> , but holding the lips rounded.
au	[aʊ]	aut; braun; haus; auto, pause	Like ou in loud. Like au in German Haus.
ie	[19]	dier; biede; betiene; fliege; brief, Roumainie, Spanie	Like <i>ere</i> in non-rhotic English <i>mere</i> or <i>ia</i> in English <i>Colombia</i> . Like <i>ie</i> in German <i>Linie</i> or <i>Spanien</i> .
iew	[i:ʊ]	niew, triew, spiewe	similar to <i>ew</i> in <i>few</i> or <i>eau</i> in <i>beauty</i> but with the first sound drawn out longer.
aj	[aɪ]	majd; hajfisch; ajr; slaje	Pronounced like y. When followed by a vowel, a [j] consonant is added between the [aɪ] and the next vowel. eg slajend ['slatjənd]
ej	[eɪ]	fejte; tejn; rejtig; nejt; magschej	Pronounced like ei. When followed by a vowel, a [j] consonant is added between the [eɪ] and the next vowel. eg sejen [ˈseɪjən]

Pronouncing Consonants

Most of the consonants are pronounced in a similar way to English. However, the following consonants should be noted:

Fon David Parke By David Parke

С	[ts]	decent; excellence; provinc; cement; cifer; centrum; cykel	Before a front vowel (e, i, y) like ts in itself. Or z in German zehn. At the end of a word like tz in English blitz or German Spitze.
С	[k]	café; computer; curry; clown	When c occurs before a, o, u or a consonant, it is often in a borrowing from French or English and is pronounced in the same way as the English or French word.
ch	[x]	chaos; dochter; heuchest; rauch	Like <i>ch</i> in Scots <i>loch</i> or <i>ch</i> in German <i>Bach</i> .
ch	$[\int]$	chef, check; revanche	In words of French origin like ch in chateau.
ck	[k]	ackurat; fack; trucke; reck'ne; sack	Like <i>ck</i> in English <i>thick</i> or German <i>dick</i> .
g	[g]	geleuve; gnage; gral; laig; drachtig	Like <i>g</i> in <i>game</i> . Never like <i>g</i> in <i>geriatric</i> .
g	[3]	garage, baggage, genant, orange	In some French derived words, as <i>s</i> in <i>leisure</i> .
j	[j]	ja; justic; jacht; jucke; jamm're; just; jong; slaje; seje; sejl; gesejt; tejt; judisch	Like <i>j</i> in German <i>ja</i> and like <i>y</i> in <i>yes</i> . At the end of a syllable, see aj, ej in the vowel section.
ng	[ŋ]	singe; finger; bang; gang; hengst; jong; messing; Hongarie	Like <i>ng</i> in <i>singer</i> . Not like <i>ng</i> in <i>finger</i> and definitely not like <i>ng</i> in <i>singe</i> .
qu	[kv]	quick; qualitait; quelle; question; queu	Like <i>kv</i> in <i>kvetch</i> but the <i>v</i> is slightly more like a <i>w</i> sound. Like <i>kw</i> in Dutch <i>kwestie</i> .
r	[r], [ß]	bar; bard; sperre; ferr; hard; kraud; ackurat; reike; rar; rasch; raum; ruin	Rolled like in Scots or uvular like in French or German. But always sounded, even after a vowel.
S	[s],	sabel; sack; said; spreke; terasse; presse; last; fals; ys; haus; gras	Like <i>s</i> as in <i>safe</i> at the start or end of a word or when doubled or when combined with another consonant.
S	[z]	besem; blaise; hausen; charakterisire	When it is between two vowels, like <i>s</i> as in <i>pause</i> or <i>s</i> as in German <i>rasieren</i>
sch	[ʃ]	fisch; wunsche; schryve; schipp	Like sch in German Schuh and sh as in shape.
-tion	[ˈtsjoːn]	aktion; federation; lektion; nation; station	Appearing in myriad Romance borrowings, pronounced like <i>-tion</i> in German <i>Station</i> .
W	[v]	wade; wagen; wand're; bewond're; wyn; wunsche; wasche; gewer; frauw; bauwe; blaw;	Halfway between v as in <i>vine</i> and w as in <i>wine</i> . At the end of a syllable, it becomes the vowel $[v]$ and forms a dipthong with the preceding vowel. When between two vowels is pronounced as $[w]$.
wr	[vr]	wreid; wraik; handwrist	Combined with r becomes a [v] sound.
hw	[hv]	hwal; hwair; hwelve; hwyt; hwyl	Like w with h before it.

Frenkisch Alphabet

When the letters in Frenkisch are sounded out for spelling, they are pronounced as follows:

Aa	a:	Bb	be:	Сс	tse:	Dd	de:	Ee	e:
Ff	εf	Gg	ge:	Hh	ha:	li	iː	Jj	je:
Kk	ka:	LI	εΙ	Mm	εm	Nn	εn	Oo	O!
Рр	pe:	Qq	ky:	Rr	er	Ss	εs	Tt	te:
Uu	y:	Vv	ve:	Ww	'dəpəl ve:	Xx	ıks	Yy	aı
Zz	zet								

Basic Phrases

Hei Hi, hey

Hallo (used on the telephone primarily)

Goud morgen Good morning

Goud dag Good afternoon, Good day, G'day,

Goud aivend Good evening
Goud nacht Good night

Hou gai ett? How are you? How's it going?

Farwell/Adieu Good bye.

Ick heit.../Myn nam is... My name is...

Wessogoud (WSG) Please

Tank di/Tank ju Thank you

Tanken Thanks

Gern My pleasure, you're welcome, no problem.

Andschulding Excuse me, pardon, I'm sorry.

Ja Yes, Nei No

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 somme ['sɔmə], meaning *some* or *any*.

Ick fang'd en dauv. = I caught a pigeon.

En tiev ha stolen myn auto. = \underline{A} thief has stolen my car.

Ick ha eten greun appels. = I have eaten (some) green apples.

Kann dou seje somme appels an de triew. = 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*. It precedes the noun that it modifies.

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

De tiev stal de auto. = *The thief stole the car*.

De appels af dat triew waire seut = The apples off 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	Objective	Possessive	Reflexive	English Equivalent
1st Singular	ick [ɪk]	mi [mi:]	myn [main]	mi [mi:]	I, me, my, mine
1st Plural	wi [viː]	ons [ons]	onser ['onzər]	ons [ons]	we, us, our, ours
2nd Singular	dou [du:]	di [di:]	dyn [dain]	di [di:]	you, your, yours*
2nd Plural	ji [ji:]	ju [jy:]	jur [jy:r]	ju [jy:]	you, your, yours*
3rd singular (masculine)	hi [hi:]	him [hɪm]	syn [sam]	sick [sɪk]	he, him, his
3rd singular (feminine)	si [si:]	hir [hiːr]	hirer [ˈhiːrər]	sick [sɪk]	she, her, hers
3rd singular (neuter)	ett [ɛt]	ett [ɛt]	etts [ɛts]	sick [sɪk]	it, its
3rd plural	dei [deɪ]	deim [deim]	deir [deir]	sick [sɪk]	they, them, their, theirs

Hi is en goud singer. = He is a good singer.

Si stur de taxi. = *She is driving the taxi*.

<u>lck</u> will lerne frenkisch. = <u>I</u> want to learn Frenkisch.

Si ha kuss'd him. = She has kissed him.

Wi scholle meute deim morgen. = We shall meet them tomorrow.

De auto is <u>syn.</u> = The car is <u>his</u>.

De appels sinde myn. = The apples are mine.

Dis haus is <u>onser</u>. = This house is <u>ours</u>.

*Unlike in English, there are both plural and singular forms for the second person pronoun; ji and dou. Ji should always be used when addressing more than one person. When addressing one person in a formal context, ji should also be used. Dou is a more familiar, intimate and informal pronoun than ji. Dou 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, dou 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 <u>hi</u> meuted <u>hirer</u> mouder? = Has <u>he</u> met <u>her</u> mother? Will <u>dou</u> meute <u>myn</u> uvel elders? = Do <u>you</u> want to meet <u>my</u> horrible parents? Dat sinde <u>syn</u> reud appels = Those are <u>his</u> 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 Frenkisch, 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 Frenkisch is sick.

lck leire <u>mi</u> frenkisch. = *I am teaching <u>myself</u> (learning) Frenkisch.* Hi schall dryve <u>sick</u> wreid! = *He will make <u>himself</u> angry!*

Impersonal Pronoun

The impersonal pronoun is used in situations when you are referring to everyone in general, yet nobody in particular. In formal English, the equivalent to this would be *one* e.g. <u>One</u> should never burp in the presence of royalty. In less formal English, you or they is more often used e.g. <u>You</u> don't vote for kings! <u>They</u> should lock that lunatic up. In Frenkisch, the impersonal pronoun is menn. Like the personal pronouns, it inflects for case and has an objective, genitive and reflexive form.

Person	Subjective	Objective	Possessive	Reflexive	English Equivalent
Impersonal	menn [menn]	ein [eɪn]	eins [eins]	sick [sɪk]	one, you, they

Menn is treated as a plural pronoun for the purposes of verb declension.

Menn stemme nejt op kunings! = You don't vote for kings.

<u>Menn</u> kunne nejt euve heuchest follmacht, bar fordat en wat'rig majd ha smitten en swerd tou <u>ein</u> = <u>You</u> can't exercise supreme executive power, just because some watery tart threw a sword at <u>you</u>.

Infall meuge <u>menn</u> wese en jurist, moust <u>eins</u> ansejing wese absolut rein. When <u>one</u> is a judge, <u>one's</u> reputation must be absolutely spotless.

Demonstrative Pronouns

A few of the basics are:

dat [dat] = that, those. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. Ick will have <u>dat</u>. = I want <u>that</u>. <u>Dat</u> mann is siek. = <u>That</u> man is sick. Wi klimme <u>dat</u> steinen treppen = We climb <u>those</u> stone steps. Onser hausen sinde better als <u>dat</u>. = Our houses are better than <u>those</u>.

dis [di:s] = this/these. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. \underline{Dis} sinde onser hausen. $= \underline{These}$ are our houses. \underline{Dis} appel is saur = This apple is sour.

dair [dæ:r] = there

her[heir] = here

dann [dan] = then

Interrogative Pronouns

hwat [hvat] = what

hwair [hvæ:r] = where

hwann [hvan] = when

hwei [hveɪ] = who

hou [hu:] = how

hwairfor ['hvæ:rfo:r] = why

hwilk [hvɪlk] = which

Relative Pronouns

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

Si is de frauw, <u>dat</u> schall werde myn wyv. = *She is the woman*, <u>who</u> will become my wife.

Dat sinde de tortes, dat ick will ete. = Those are the cakes, that I want to eat.

Dat is de hond, dat probir'd aut tou byte mi. = That's the dog, that tried to bite me!

Michaels haus is de haus, in dat ick won'd. = Michael's house is the house where I used to live.

Other Pronouns

all [al] = all, every This can be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article.

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

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

nejts [neits] = nothing

nein [neɪn] = none, not one, not any. This can be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. Hi ha

nein = He has none. Ick ha nein auto. = I have no car.

neimann [neiman] = no one, nobody

beid [beid] = *both*. This can also be used as a pronoun and as a determiner/article. <u>Beid</u> sinde gelyk = <u>Both</u> are alike. Ick will ete <u>beid</u> appels. = *I* want to eat <u>both</u> apples.

Nouns

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

Plural of Nouns

There are three possible ways of forming plurals of Frenkisch nouns. All methods make the noun plural by adding a suffix to the noun, either -en or -s. The method of pluralisation is determined by the stress pattern of the noun. In addition, nouns of Greek or Latin origin, with the original language case endings, change the case ending.

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

Ein bein[beɪn], twei beinen = One leg, two legs.

Ein universitait [yniverzi'tæ:t], twei universitaiten = One university, two universities

Ein student [sty'dent], twei studenten = One student, two students

Ein hond [hond], twei honden = One dog, two dogs.

Ein mann [man], twei mannen = One man, two men.

Ein station [staltsjo:n], twei stationen = One station, two stations

Ein nonn ['non], twei nonnen = One nun, two nuns.

Nouns that end in a stressed vowel are pronounced with a slight glottal stop between the vowel of the stem and the vowel of the -en suffix

Ein armee [ar'me:], twei armeeen [ar'me:?ən] = One army, two armies Ein streu [strø:], twei streuen ['strø:?ən] = One straw, two straws.

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 [a] or [a]. Such unstressed syllables include -en [-an], -el [-al], -ing [-ing], -er [-ar], -ek [-ak], -ed [-ad], -et [-at], -e [-a]. Words that end in an unstressed vowel also fall into this category.

Ein meining ['meɪnɪŋ], twei meinings = One opinion, two opinions

Ein appel ['apal], twei appels = One apple, two apples

Ein teiken ['teɪkən], twei teikens = One symbol, two symbols

Ein brouder ['bru:dər], twei brouders = One brother, two brothers

Ein blousem ['blu:zəm], twei blousems = one flower, two flowers.

Ein havek ['hɑːvək], twei haveks = one hawk, two hawks

Ein heuved ['hø:vəd], twei heuveds = one head, two heads

Ein schokolade [ʃokoˈlɑːdə], twei schokolades = one chocolate, two chocolates.

Ein auto ['auto], twei autos = one car, two cars.

Ein parti ['parti], twei partis = one party, two parties.

Nouns with the original Greek or Roman case suffixes: These are -us, -um and -is. For example: museum, fokus, genesis. In these words, the case-suffix changes and uses a -s to make the plural.

Nouns ending in -us form the plural by changing the -us to -is

Nouns ending in -um form the plural by changing the -um to -as

Nouns ending in -is form the plural by changing the -is to -es.

ein fokus ['fokys], twei fokis = one focus, two foci

```
ein tempus ['tempys], twei tempis = one tense, two tenses ein inkubus [ɪn'ky:bys], twei inkubis = one incubus, two incubi ein centrum ['tsentrym], twei centras = one centre, two centres ein visum ['vi:zym], twei visas = one visa, visas ein museum [my'ze:ym], twei museas = one museum, two museums ein basis ['ba:zɪs], twei bases = one basis, two bases ein krisis ['kri:zɪs], twei krises = one crisis, two crises ein tesis ['te:zɪs], twei teses = one thesis, two theses
```

It's again important to note that not all words ending in -us, -um or -is take such endings. In many cases such as exkus, kostum and devis, the -us, -um or -is is not a Greek/Latin case-suffix and is in fact the stressed syllable of the word. The correct pluralization for those words is exkusen, kostumen and devisen.

Genitive/Possessive 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 *Ingmar's computer* (the computer belonging to Ingmar) or *my father's tool box* (the tool box belonging to my father). In Frenkisch, 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. In other situations, it is better to use as construction such as *the paw of the dog* rather than *the dog's paw*. So in Frenkisch, *the dog's paw* would be translated as de peut af de hond.

```
Pappis tugkist is swair. = Daddy's tool box is heavy.
Ingmars computer werk langsam. = Ingmar's computer runs slowly.
Ick residir'd in Michaels haus. = I lived in Michael's house.
De peut af de hond is hairig. = The dog's paw is hairy.
```

Adjectives and Adverbs

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

```
En greun appel fall fra de <u>heuch</u> triew. = A green apple is falling from the <u>tall</u> tree. De greut mann is <u>wreid</u>. = The big man is <u>angry</u>.
```

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.

Adjectives with Abbreviating Stems.

These adjectives have a final syllable in the stem, that is abbreviated when a suffix such as the comparative -er is added. For example luttel, even, seker. In such adjectives, the final syllable has an unstressed schwa [5] vowel. When a suffix (beginning in a vowel) is added to the stem, this final syllable is abbreviated — is not pronounced and in writing is replaced by an apostrophe. For example when -er is added to the stem luttel, it makes lutt'ler. (littler, more little). When -est is added to the stem even, it makes ev'nest. (flattest, most flat). Note that the stem abbreviates only when a suffix beginning in a vowel is applied. When a suffix beginning in a consonant is applied, the full stem is used. eg seker plus -heid makes sekerheid (security).

Comparative

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

```
Si is greut doch hi is greuter. = She is big, but he is bigger. lck is alder doch dou is euk ald= I am older but you are also old.
```

De leuven af de triew sinde greun, ond de gras is greuner. = The leaves of the tree are green, and the grass is greener.

Aspirin is <u>effektiv</u>, doch morfin is <u>effektiver</u> = Aspirin is <u>effective</u>, but morphine is <u>more effective</u>. Jur kucken is nejt <u>hygienisch</u>, myn toilett is <u>hygienischer</u> = Your kitchen is not <u>hygienic</u>, my toilet is more <u>hygienic</u>.

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.

Dyn elders sinde <u>ryk</u>, doch myn elders sinde de <u>rykest</u> luden in de stad. = *Your parents are <u>rich</u> but* my parents are the <u>richest</u> people in the city.

Woll is saift stoff, doch koton is saiftest. = Wool is soft material, but cotton is softest.

Timmeren hausen sinde <u>weik</u>, doch streuwen hausen sinde <u>weikest</u> = *Wooden houses are <u>weak</u>*, but straw houses are <u>weakest</u>

Deir pylen sinde seir <u>ackurat</u>, doch onser geweren sinde <u>ackuratest</u> = *Their arrows are very <u>accurate</u>* but our rifles are <u>the most accurate</u>.

Is si genereus? Ja, si is genereusest. = Is she generous? Yes, she is the most generous.

Comparing Things

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

Dyn mouder is so greut als en hwalfisch. = Your mother is as big as a whale.

De tanden af de hajfisch waire so scharp als klingen. = The shark's teeth were as sharp as blades.

Dei sinde so arm als kirkmausen. = They are as poor as church mice.

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

De armen af dyn mouder sinde breider <u>als</u> eiktriewtwygen. = *Your mother's arms are broader <u>than</u>* oak tree branches.

Ick is ryker als di. = *I am richer than you*.

Tou him sinde notten deudliker als cyanid. = To him, nuts are more deadly than cyanide.

Irregular Adjectives

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

```
goud = good, well
better = better, more good
best = best, most good
naij = near, close
nair = nearer, closer
naixt = nearest, next, closest
```

Adverbs

In Frenkisch, 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 normally derived from adjectives by adding the *-ly* suffix.

```
Ick leup <u>haastig.</u> = I am running <u>quickly</u>.

Hi gai <u>langsam.</u> = He is walking <u>slowly</u>.

Dei deuj'de <u>bloudig.</u> = They died <u>bloodily</u>.

De leuven sinde <u>siek</u> braun. = The leaves are <u>sickly</u> brown.
```

In cases when it is necessary for the purposes of avoiding ambiguity, optionally adverbs can be

designated as such by adding the -wis suffix to the stem:

Italies president is gemeinwis welllustig = *The president of Italy is wickedly lecherous*. Italies president is welllustigwis gemein = *The president of Italy is salaciously nasty*.

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

Ick kann singe <u>goud</u>. = *I can sing <u>well</u>*.

Dou sprek frenkisch <u>goud</u>. = *You speak Frenkisch <u>well</u>*.

Intensive Adverbs

These are used to modify the degree of an adjective to a greater or lesser extent. In Frenkisch, seir and tou are used in a way similar to English *very* and *too* — seir[seɪr] meaning to a significant or extreme degree and tou [tu:] meaning to an excessive or undesirable degree.

De weder was gestern <u>seir</u> heit. = *The weather was <u>very</u> hot yesterday*.

Dyn suster ha wax'd <u>seir</u> heuch. = *Your sister has grown <u>very</u> tall*.

Ick schold keupe en niew auto doch ick is <u>tou</u> arm. = *I should buy a new car but I am <u>too</u> poor*.

De weder is <u>tou</u> kald. = *The weather is <u>too</u> cold*.

Verbs

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

Verbs have a basic stem and are modified by additions (mostly suffixs) to that. Infinitive verbs end in the -e [-ə] suffix.

```
kusse = to kiss
hate = to hate
leupe = to run
singe = to sing
schimm're = to shimmer
visitire = to inspect, to examine
```

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.

Verbs with Abbreviating Stems.

These verbs have a final syllable in the stem, that is abbreviated when a suffix such as the infinitive -e is added. For example schimm're, teik'ne, hwirv'le, have the stems schimmer, teiken, and hwirvel. In such verbs, the final syllable has an unstressed schwa [9] vowel. When a suffix (beginning in a vowel) is added to the stem, this final syllable is abbreviated — is not pronounced and in writing is replaced by an apostrophe. For example when -ing is added to the stem schimmer, it makes schimm'ring. (The action or process of shimmering). When -er is added to the stem teiken, it makes teik'ner. (something or someone who draws). When -end is added to the stem hwirvel, it makes hwirv'lend (which whirls). Note that the stem abbreviates only when a suffix beginning in a vowel is applied. When a suffix beginning in a consonant is applied, the full stem is used. eg teik'ne plus -bar makes teikenbar (drawable). Schimm're plus -'d makes schimmer'd (shimmered)

Present Tense

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

Ick kuss de baby. = I am kissing the baby.

Dou <u>hat</u> schoul. = You <u>hate</u> school. Hi <u>leup</u> yv'rig. = He <u>is running</u> zealously. De fogel <u>sing</u> scheun. = The bird <u>sings</u> beautifully.

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

Wi kusse onser mouder befor wi ferlaite hir. = We kiss our mother before we leave her.

Ji hate arm folk. = You hate poor people.

Dei leupe aut de stad. = They are running out of the town.

De mannen <u>singe</u> laud = *The men are singing loudly*.

Unlike in English, there is no grammatical distinction between the continuous and the simple present tense. *I am walking to school* and *I walk to school* are expressed the same way; lck gai tou schoul. When it is necessary to make such a distinction, use an adverb.

Nou gai ick tou schoul. = I am walking to school (right now, as I speak these words my legs are moving and the school is getting closer).

Eilk dag gai ick tou schoul. = I walk to school (everyday, yesterday and most likely tomorrow also, but not necessarily at this very minute).

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 <u>leupend</u> schaipen sinde bang. = *Those running sheep are afraid*.

lck sej seven <u>hwirv'lend</u> dansers. = *I see seven <u>whirling</u> dancers*.

De brennend haus schyn reud. = The burning house shines redly.

De bauwers spreke achtend tou deir herr.= The peasants speak respectfully to their lord.

English often uses the verb *to be* plus the present participle (*-ing*) 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 <u>was driving</u> to my mother's house. Or the people <u>are dancing</u> in the street. Or the peasants <u>are speaking</u> to their lord. The present participle in Frenkisch is not used in this manner, instead simple tenses should be used.

Past Tense

Unlike in English, there is no grammatical distinction between the continuous and the simple past tense. *She was swimming in the sea*, and *she swam in the sea* are expressed the same way; Si swamm in de seiw. When it is necessary to make such a distinction, use an adverb.

Gestern <u>swamm</u> si in de seiw. = *She <u>was swimming</u> in the the sea yesterday*. Eilk dag <u>swamm</u> si in de seiw. = *Everyday she <u>swam</u> in the sea*.

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. lck stell'd ['stɛld] de kopp op de desch. = I placed the cup on the table. riskire = to risk. Dou riskir'd [rɪs'ki:rd] dyn lyv. = You risked your life. teik'ne = to draw. Si teiken'd ['teɪkənd] schreckfoll bilden. = She drew terrifying pictures. beve = to shake. De erd bev'd [be:vd] = The earth shook. smacke = to taste. lck smack'd [smakt] seut wyn. = I tasted sweet wine. seuke = to seek. Dou seuk'd [sø:kt] de heilig gral. = You sought the Holy Grail. leupe = to run. Hi leup'd [lø:pt] torj de straites. = He ran through the streets.

For regular singular verbs that end in a dental consonant (d or t), the past tense is formed by adding

-ed to the verb stem. This is pronounced as [-əd].

```
hate = to hate. lck hated ['ha:təd] myn leirers. = I hated my teachers. slute = to close. Dou sluted ['sly:təd] de fenster. = You closed the window. leide = to lead. Hi leided ['leɪdəd] syn heren tou en greut seg. = He led his armies to a great victory. wade = to wade. De fogel waded ['va:dəd] in de poul. = 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 stell'de ['steldə] onser munten in en flasch. = We put our coins in a bottle. riskire = to risk. Ji riskir'de [rɪs'kiːrd] jur gesondheid. = You risked your health. wex'le = to exchange. Wi wexel'de ['vɛksəldə] ponden tou euros. = We converted pounds to euros. beve = to shake. De bergen bev'de [beːvdə]. = The mountains shook smacke = to taste. Wi smack'de [smaktə] bitter beres. = We tasted bitter berries. seuke = to seek. Ji seuk'de [søːkte] de geheimniss af stail. = You sought the secret of steel. leupe = to run. Dei leup'de [løːpte] nak'd in de wald. = They ran naked in the woods.
```

For regular plural verbs that end in a dental consonant (d or t), the past tense is formed by adding -ede to the verb stem. This is pronounced as [-9d9].

```
hate = to hate. Wi hatede ['ha:tədə] de faul wedder. = We hated the bad weather slute = to close. Ji slutede ['sly:tədə] de deur. = You closed the door leide = to lead. Dei leidede ['leɪdəde] de jonglings tou sekerheid. = They led the children to safety. wade = to wade. De fogels wadede ['va:dəde] in de somp. = 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. lck ha stell'd ['steld] de kopp op de tavel = I have put the cup on the table. riskire = to risk. Dou ha riskir'd [rɪs'kird] dyn lyv = You have risked your life. beve = to shake. De bergen have bev'd [bevd] = The mountains have shaken. smacke = to taste. Wi have smack'd [smakt] de seut wyn = We have tasted the sweet wine. seuke = to seek. Ji have seuk'd [sø:kt] de heilig gral = You have sought the holy grail. leupe = to run. Hi ha leupd [lø:pt] torj de straites = He has run through the streets. hate = to hate. lck ha hated ['ha:təd] di myn gansch lyv = I have hated you my entire life. slute = to close. Dou ha sluted ['sly:təd] de fenster= You have closed the window. leide = to lead. Hi ha leided ['leɪdəd] siden mennig jairen = He has led for many years. wade = to wade. De storken have waded ['bo:dəd] in de marsch = The storks have waded in the marsh.
```

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

```
De <u>sluted</u> deur is reud. = The <u>closed</u> door is red.
Hi is en <u>hated</u> mann. = He is a <u>hated</u> 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. lck <u>hadd</u> stell'd ['steld] de kopp op de tavel = I \ \underline{had} put the cup on the table. wade = to \ wade. De fogels <u>hadde</u> waded ['vo:dəd] in de somp = The \ birds \ \underline{had} waded in the swamp.
```

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Future Tense

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

Ick <u>schall</u> [ʃal] sture = I <u>will</u> drive. Wi <u>scholle</u> erinn're = We <u>will</u> remember. Dou <u>schall</u> fergete = You <u>will</u> forget. Ji <u>scholle</u> lige = You <u>will</u> lie. Si <u>schall</u> segge = She <u>will</u> say. Dei <u>scholle</u> seje = They <u>will</u> 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 no pronouns.

Stur langsam! = <u>Drive</u> slowly!

Gev mi dyn kleiden. = <u>Give</u> me your clothes.

Wes nejt so domm! = <u>Don't be</u> so stupid!

Fatt en kouke. = <u>Take</u> a cake.

Drink dyn milk. = <u>Drink</u> your milk.

WSG, stell aut jur passporten. = Please <u>display</u> 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 Frenkisch, like English, a passive sentence is created with the verb wese followed by the past participle of the verb.

Myn burs <u>was stolen</u>. = My wallet <u>was stolen</u>.

Deir haus <u>is brek'd</u>. = Their house <u>is being destroyed</u>.

Dyn auto schall <u>wese wegslepp'd</u>. = Your car will <u>be towed away</u>.

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

Myn burs was stolen <u>fon en tiev.</u> = My wallet was stolen <u>by a thief.</u>

Deir haus is brek'd <u>fon de hwirvelwind.</u> = Their house is being destroyed <u>by the tornado.</u>

Dyn auto schall wese wegslepp'd <u>fon en slepplastwagen.</u> = Your car will be towed away <u>by a tow truck.</u>

Subjunctive Mood

To form conditional or tentative statements, use the auxilliary verb meuge and use an appropriate conjunction or adverb (such as infall). Note that meuge is an irregular verb and must be conjugate to match the number of the subject.

Infall mag myn auto werke morgen, wi meuge <u>fare</u> fon ett tou arbeid. = *If my car <u>is working</u>* tomorrow, we <u>will travel</u> by it to work.

Infall <u>mag</u> ick <u>wese</u> en ryk mann, ick <u>mag leve</u> ick in en greut haus mid mennig betieners. = *If I were* a rich man, *I would live* in big house with many servants.

Infall $\underline{\text{meucht ick have forautsejen}}$ de problem mid myn auto, wi $\underline{\text{meuge gaie nejt}}$ heim nou. = $\underline{\text{If } I}$ $\underline{\text{had forseen}}$ 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.

scholle $\lceil \lceil \mathfrak{sla} \rceil = to in the future do, shall, will.$

Dou schall fliege tou Singapor. = You will fly to Singapore.

Wi scholle swimme in de poul. = We shall swim in the pond.

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

lck kann [kan] spreke frenkisch. = I can speak Frenkisch.

Honden kunne ete beinen. = Dogs are able to eat bones.

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

lck will lerne frenkisch. = *I want to learn Frenkisch*.

Dei wolle heure musik. = They want to hear music.

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

lck <u>mout</u> drinke water. = *I <u>must</u> drink water*.

Dei <u>moute</u> saupe bir. = *They <u>need to guzzle beer.*</u>

scholde ['solda] = to be supposed to do, to be advised to, to ought to, should.

Dou schold nejt reuke. = You should not smoke.

Dei <u>scholde</u> ete meir breud. = *They <u>should</u>* eat more bread.

Unlike most English auxiliary verbs, the Frenkisch 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.

Ick ha kond leupe haastig. = *I have been able to run quickly*.

Wi scholde wolle drinke bir. = We should want to drink beer.

Dou schall moute kunne spreke Frenkisch. = You will need to know how to speak Frenkisch.

Irregular Verbs

Some verbs, especially some of the most important and commonly used verbs in Frenkisch 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 Frenkisch Irregular Verbs

idbic of fici	ikiscii ii legu	idi verbs				
Infinitive	Present Singular	Present Plural	Past Singular	Past Plural	Past Participle	Translation
wese ['veːsə]	is [ɪs]	sinde [ˈsɪndə]	was [vas]	waire [ˈvæːrə]	wes'd [ve:st]	to be
have['hɑːvə]	ha[haː]	have['hɑ:və]	hadd [had]	hadde [ˈhadə]	hav'd [ha:vd]	to have
kunne [ˈkʏnə]	kann [kan]	kunne [ˈkʏnə]	kond [kond]	konde ['kondə]	kond [kond]	to be able to, to know how to
scholle [ˈʃɔlə]	schall [schal]	scholle [ˈʃɔlə]	schold [ʃɔld]	scholde [ˈʃɔldə]	schold* [∫ɔld]	to do in the future
wolle [volə]	will [vɪl]	wolle ['vɔlə]	wold [vold]	wolde [ˈʋɔldə]	wold [vold]	to want to

Infinitive	Present Singular	Present Plural	Past Singular	Past Plural	Past Participle	Translation
witte [ˈvɪtə]	weit [veɪt]	witte [ˈvɪtə]	wist [vist]	wiste ['vɪstə]	witted [ˈvɪtəd]	to know or be aware of a situation
moute ['mu:tə]	mout [mu:t]	moute ['muːtə]	moust [mu:st]	mouste ['muːstə]	mouted ['mu:təd]	to need to, to have to
meuge [ˈmøːgə]	mag [maːg]	meuge [ˈmøːgə]	meucht [mø:xt]	meuchte [ˈmøːxtə]	meucht [mø:xt]	would, might
scholde** [ˈʃɔldə]	schold [ʃɔld]	scholde [ˈʃɔldə]	schold [ʃɔld]	scholde [ˈʃɔldə]	schold [ʃɔld]	to be advised to
gaie [ˈgæːʔə]	gai [gæ:]	gaie [ˈgæːʔə]	ging [gɪŋ]	ginge [ˈgɪŋə]	gan [ga:n]	to go, to walk
staie [ˈstæːʔə]	stai [stæ:]	staie [ˈstæ:ʔə]	stond ['stond]	stonde ['stondə]	standen ['standen]	to stand

wese [ve:sə] = to be.

Ick will wese ryk = I want to be rich.

 $lck \underline{is} ryk = I \underline{am} rich.$

Dei $\underline{\text{sinde}}$ arm = $\underline{\text{They are poor.}}$

Dou <u>was</u> gesond = You <u>were</u> healthy.

Wi waire siek = We were sick

Dei have wes'd alltyd arm = They have always been poor.

have ['hɑ:və] = to have

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

Hi <u>ha</u> twei euges. = He <u>has</u> two eyes.

Ji have tri autos. = You have three cars.

lck <u>hadd</u> nein auto. = $I \underline{had}$ no car.

Syn honden hadde en ongeluck. = His dogs had an accident.

Dei have <u>hav'd</u> en ongeluck. = *They have <u>had</u> an accident*.

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

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

Dou <u>kann</u> nejt fliege. = *You <u>can</u> not fly*.

Wi kunne swimme. = We can swim.

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

Ji konde singe goud. = You could (were able to) sing well.

Dei have kond swimme. = They have been able to swim.

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

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

Hi will lerne frenkisch. = *He wants to learn Frenkisch*.

Wolle ji drinke myn wyn? = *Do you want to drink my wine*?

Ick wold nejt beseuke dyn mouder gestern. = *I didn't want to visit your mother yesterday*.

Dei <u>wolde</u> deude deir elders. = *They <u>wanted to kill their parents.</u>*

Ick ha wold besitte en haus. = I have wanted to own a house.

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

lck schold nejt moute drinke meir bir. = *I should not need to drink more beer.*

Myn katt mout ete fleisch. = *My cat needs to eat meat*.

<u>Moute</u> ji kusse myn greutmouder so yverig? = <u>Must</u> you kiss my grandmother so enthusiastically?.

lck <u>moust nejt</u> beseuke dyn mouder. = *I <u>didn't need to</u> visit your mother*.

Deir elders mouste wese friewdig. = *Their parents needed to be happy.*

Ick ha mouted deude syn honden. = I have needed to kill his dogs.

scholle [$\lceil \text{sole} \rceil = to in the future do, shall, will.$

Dou schall fliege tou Singapor. = You will fly to Singapore.

Wi scholle swimme in de poul. = We shall swim in the pond.

Si <u>schold</u> lerne naixt jair engelisch. = *She <u>would</u> next year learn English*.

Wi <u>scholde</u> singe de gesang goud after mennig singlektionen. = We <u>would</u> sing the song well after many singing lessons.

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

scholde ['[oldə] = to be supposed to do, to be advised to, to ought to, should.

**This verb is in fact the past tense of scholle 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 schold when it is being used as the past tense of scholle.

lck <u>schold</u> witte syn nam. = *I should know his name*.

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

<u>Scholde</u> wi beseuke dyn siek greutmouder? = <u>Should</u> we visit your sick grandmother?

lck schold nejt beseuke dyn mouder gestern. = I was not supposed to visit your mother yesterday.

Dei <u>scholde</u> reise latest jair tou de ald land af deir elders .= There <u>were meant to</u> travel to their parents old country last year.

meuge ['mø:gə] = would, might, See the subjunctive mood..

Myn katt <u>mag</u> ete fisch, ett mag werde siek = *Were my cat to eat fisch, it would get sick*. Infall <u>meuge</u> ji kusse eimail myn greutmouder, si <u>mag</u> wese seir friewdig. = *If you ever kissed my*

grandmother, she would be very happy.

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

Ick will witte syn nam. = *I want to know his name*.

Hi weit dat fischen have nein beinen. = He knows that fish have no legs.

Witte ji dat myn greutmouder is deud? = <u>Do you know</u> that my grandmother is dead?

lck <u>wist nejt</u> dat dyn mouder beseuk morgen. = *I_didn't know that your mother was visiting tomorrow.*

Dei wiste dat deir elders waire deud. = They knew that their parents were dead.

Ick ha witted dat deir elders leve noch. = I have known that their parents are still alive.

gaie ['gæ:? \Rightarrow] = to go, to walk.

Ick will gaie tou de kroug.= I want to go to the pub.

Hi gai fort an de streumkust. = He <u>is walking</u> along the river bank.

<u>Gaie ji</u> tou de haus af jur greutmouder? = <u>Are you walking to your grandmother's house?</u>

lck ging tou de haus af dyn elders gestern. = I walked yesterday to your parents' house.

De jonglings ginge tou de begraving af deir greutelders. = *The children went to their grandparents funeral*.

Ick ha gan heim fra de kroug. = I have gone home from the pub.

staie ['stæ:?ə] = to stand, to be in a place.

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

Ick <u>stai</u> auten en boukboutik. = *I am standing outside a bookstore*.

Hwair staie ji? = Where are you standing?

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

Wi stonde op de heuchtpunkt af de berg. = We stood on the summit of the mountain.

Ett ha <u>standen</u> dair siden mennig jairen. = *It has <u>stood</u> there for many years*.

Strong Verbs.

Frenkisch has a number of strong verbs (approximately 40) that form the past and perfect tense by

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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 Frenkisch 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 Frenkisch 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 Frenkisch Strong Verbs.

Infinitive	Past	Perfect	Meaning
Class I *y*	*ei*	*i*en (fricative or liquids), *i**en (stops).	
byte	beit-	bitten	to bite
dryve	dreiv-	driven	to drive, to incite
ryde	reid-	ridden	to ride
schyne	schein-	schinen	to shine
smyte	smeit-	smitten	to throw
stryde	streid-	stridden	to fight
Class II *ie* or *u*	*eu*	*o*en	
biede	beud-	boden	to offer
fliege	fleug-	flogen	to fly
friese	freus-	frosen	to freeze
schute	scheut-	schoten	to shoot
Class III *i**e	*a**	*o**en	
binde	band-	bonden	to bind
drinke	drank-	dronken	to drink
finde	fand-	fonden	to find
singe	sang-	songen	to sing
springe	sprang-	sprongen	to jump
stinke	stank-	stonken	to stink
swimme	swamm-	swommen	to swim
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	*ou*	*a*en	
drage	droug-	dragen	to pull

Infinitive	Past	Perfect	Meaning
slaje	slouj-	slajen	to hit
Class VII *a**e or *ai*	*ie*	*a*en	
falle	fiel-	fallen	to fall
halde	hield-	halden	to hold
laite	liet-	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.

Ick dryv, ick dreiv, ick ha driven. = I drive, I drove, I have driven.

Dei dryve, dei dreive, dei have driven. = They drive, they drove, they have driven.

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

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

Dou sej, dou saj, dou 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 op which does not mean *up* but more like English *on* or *upon*.

De kopp is <u>op</u> de tavel = The cup is <u>on</u> the table. Dyn houd is <u>op</u> dyn heuved = Your hat is <u>on</u> your head. Ick lig <u>op</u> de bedd = I am lying <u>on</u> the bed. Ji moute arbeide <u>op</u> frydag = You must work <u>on</u> 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 \underline{an} de maur = The picture is \underline{on} the wall. London lig \underline{an} de Thames = London lies \underline{on} the Thames. Myn hotel was direkt \underline{an} de strand = My hotel was right \underline{on} the beach. Ick slouj \underline{an} de deur = I banged $\underline{against}$ the door.

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after['aftər] = after, behind
an[an] = on, against, at
af^{1}[af] = off, off of
af^2 [af] = of, belonging to
aut [aut] = out, out of, from out of
auten ['autən] = without, except, outside
befor [bəˈfoːr] = before, in front of
by [bai] = by, beside
fon [fon] = by (indicating agency)
for [fo:r] = for
fort [fort] = forth, onwards, forward, along
fra[fra] = from
hinden ['hɪndən] = behind
in[in] = in, inside
inmidde [ɪˈmɪdə] = between, amidst, among, amongst.
mid[mid] = with, accompanied by
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naij [nai] = near, next to
niden ['ne:dən] = down, downwards
om [əm] = around, about, regarding
onder ['əndər] = under, beneath, below
op [əp] = on, upon, on top of
oven ['o:vən] = above
over ['o:vər] = over, above, atop, in excess of, on, about
siden [said] = since, for.
tou [tu:] = to
tourugg [tu:'ryg] = behind, backwards
twischen ['toɪʃən] = between, among, amongst
torj ['təri] = through, by way of, via

Conjunctions

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

ond [and], [and] = and. It is normally pronounced unstressed so the vowel becomes [a]

Ick will ete fisch ond friten. = *I want to eat fish and chips*.

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

Ick saj ein bischop ond fimf presters. = I saw one bishop and five priests.

Wi saje twei monken <u>ond</u> acht nonnen. = We saw two monks <u>and</u> eight nuns.

Dei leve mid syn elders <u>ond</u> dei geniete dis behaglik tousamenstelling = *They are living with his parent and they enjoy this cosy arrangement.*

doch [dox] = but, though

Ick luv myn frau doch hirer elders hate mi. = I love my wife but her parents hate me.

Hi saup bir <u>doch</u> ett mak him tick = *He drinks beer <u>but</u> it's making him fat*.

oder ['o:dər] = or

lck danc'd mid en heuch frauw oder ett was en mann magschej = I was dancing with a tall women or maybe it was a man.

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

<u>Infall</u> beseuke dyn elders, ick gai tou de kroug. = <u>If</u> your parents visit, I will go to the pub.

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

lck will witte of dyn auto is greun oder reud. = *I want to know whether your car is green or red.*

fordat ['fo:rdat] = because

Hi was dreurig fordat hi was tou 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. Ick weit dat dyn auto is greun. = I know that your car is green.

euk [\emptyset :k] = also, too. Not used to translate too as in excessively.

Dyn auto is luttel euk ett is feralded ond gefairlik = *Your car is small, also it is outdated and dangerous.* Dou is ryk doch ick is ryk <u>euk.</u> = *You are rich, but I am rich <u>too</u>.*

Syntax and Word Order

The V2 Rule

The default word order in Frenkisch is subject-verb-object (SVO). The subject of the sentence must be immediately next to the verb and not have any adverbs between it and the verb. 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.

Myn doktor <u>visitir'd</u> mi gestern. = *My doctor examined me yesterday*.

In this instance the verb visitird is second following myn doktor, the subject of the sentence.

Gestern <u>visitir'd</u> myn doktor mi. = *My doctor examined me yesterday*.

In this case visitir'd 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 frauw af de mer <u>smeit</u> en swerd tou Arthur. = *The lady of the lake threw a sword to Arthur.*Tou Arthur <u>smeit</u> de frauw af de mer en swerd. = *The lady of the lake threw to Arthur a sword.*In the second example the sentence starts with the indirect object, marked as such by the preposition tou. It is more permissible to start a sentence with an indirect object since they 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 personal pronouns, since these modify for case.

Hi et deim= He is eating them.

Deim et 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.

lck at en appel. = I ate an apple.

At ick en appel? = Did I eat an apple?

Hi heit Thomas. = *He is called Thomas*.

Heit hi Thomas? = *Is he called Thomas*?

Dou will gaie tou de kroug. = You want to go to the pub.

Will dou gaie tou de kroug? = 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 heit Thomas? = *He's called Thomas*?

Dou will gaie tou de kroug? = 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 tou mi = *He wants to speak with me*.

Ick ha sprek'd tou him = I have spoken to him.

De auto af myn elders was <u>stolen</u> fra deir garage = My parents car was <u>stolen</u> from their garage.

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

Morgen schall ick <u>beseuke</u> myn elders. = *Tomorrow I will <u>visit</u> my parents*.

Gestern was ick <u>visitir'd</u> fra myn doktor. = *Yesterday I was <u>examined</u> by my doctor*.

Langsam ha ick <u>stur'd</u> de auto torj de straites av de stadd. = *I have <u>driven</u> the car slowly through the streets of the town*.

Will dou <u>seje</u> en film? = *Do you want to see a movie*?

Position of Adverbs and Particles

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

<u>Seker</u> kann ick swimme. = *I can surely swim*. Ick kann swimme <u>seker</u>. = *I can swim <u>safely</u>.* Hi swimm <u>neit</u> in de poul. = *He is not swimming in the pond*.

Time

Telling the Time

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

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

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

Ett is om twentig-tri our fimftig-seven. = *It's* 11:57pm. Ett is om acht our fimftejn. = *It's* quarter past eight in the morning.

Some Adverbs of Time

neimail = never eins = once, one time selden = seldom, rarely sommetyds = sometimes oft = often, frequently eimail = ever, at any time alltyd = always eidoch = even, yet noch = even, still, yet allreid = already niewlik = recently opniew = again

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

Days of the Week

sonndag['son,da:g] = Sunday mondag['mo:n,da:g] = Monday tiewsdag['ti:os,da:g] = Tuesday wounsdag['vu:ns,da:g] = Wednesday tonnersdag['toners,da:g] = Thursday frydag['frai,do:g] = Friday
saterdag['so:tər,do:g] = Saturday

Months

januari [janu'a:rɪ] = January
februari [febru'a:rɪ] = February
marc[marts] = March
april[a'pri:l] = April
mai[mæ:] = May
juni['jy:ni] = June
juli['jy:li] = July
august[ao'gyst] = August
september[sep'tembər] = September
oktober[ɔk'to:bər] = October
november[no'vembər] = November
december[de'tsembər] = December

Seasons of the Year

eirjair['eɪrjæːr]

lent [lɛnt] = Spring. Lent is equivalent in meaning to English lent. It only falls during spring

in the northern hemisphere. Because this is inaccurate in regard to the southern

hemisphere, eirjair should always be used for climes south of the equator.

sommer['somer] = Summer

hervest['hervəst] = Autumn/Fall. This is the same as the Frenkisch word for harvest. When it is

necessary to distinguish between *Autumn/Fall* and *harvest*, use hervestjairstyd: Wi hadde en goud hervest op dis hervestjairstyd. = We had a good harvest this

Autumn.

winter['vinter] = Winter

Numbers

Writing Numbers

When using Frenkisch in a localised situation, it may be appropriate and more convenient to use the number conventions of the country in question. But when using Frenkisch 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 Frenkisch the decimal separator can be either a point or a comma (pronounced 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 = 1.048576. Commas or points may *not* be used a group separator: $3,142 \neq 3.142 \neq 3.14$

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

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pence are not normally written unless the price is less than one of the major unit. In these cases, the subunit 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-fiewer (34) and not *fiewer-on'-tritig.

```
null[ny1] or zero['ze:ro] = 0
ein[ein] = 1
twei[tvei] or two [tvo:] = 2
tri[tri:] = 3
fiewer[fi:uwar] = 4
fimf[fimf] = 5
sex[seks] = 6
seven[seven] = 7
acht[axt] = 8
niewn[ni:vn] = 9
tein[tein] = 10
elv[\varepsilon lv] = 11
twelv[tvelv] = 12
tritejn['tri:_tein] = 13
fiewertejn['fi:owər,teɪn] = 14
fimftejn['fimf,tein = 15
sextejn[seks]tein = 16
seventejn['se:vən,teɪn] = 17
achttejn['axt,tein] = 18
niewntejn['ni:un,teɪn] =19
twentig['tventig] = 20
twentig-ein[tuentig'ein] = 21
tritig['tri:tig] = 30
fiewertig['fi:uwərtɪg] = 40
fimftig['fimftig] = 50
sextig['sekstig] = 60
seventig['se:vəntɪg] = 70
achttig['axtig] = 80
niewntig['ni:ontrg] = 90
honderd['honderd] = 100
honderd-ein[honderd'ein] = 101
honderd-twentig-ein[,honderd,tventig'ein] = 121
twei-honderd['tvei,honderd] = 200
niewn-honderd-niewntig-niewn['ni:un,hondord,ni:utɪg'ni:un] = 999
tausend['tausend] = 1000
million[mil'jo:n] = 1 000 000 (10^6)
milliard[mil'jard] = 1 000 000 000 (10^9)
billion[bil'join] = 1\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ (10^{12})
trillion[trillion] = 1\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000\ (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 *einde, it is eirst[eɪrst] or furst[fyrst].

```
eirst[eirst] furst[fyrst] or = first

tweide['tve:də] = second

tride['tri:də] = third

fiewerde['fi:wwerdə] = fourth

fimfde['fimftə] = fifth

sexde['sɛkstə] = sixth

sevende['sɛ:vəndə] = seventh

achtde['axtə] = eighth

niewnde['ni:undə] = ninth

tejnde['teində] = tenth

twentig-eirst['ˌtvɛntɪg'e:rst] = twenty-first

lck is de tride jongling af myn mouder. = I am my mother's third child.

Morgen is syn twentig-eirst geburtdag = Tomorrow is his 21st birthday.
```

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

```
1^e = eirst = furst = 1^{st}

2^e = tweide = 2^{nd}

3^e = tride = 3^{rd}

4^e = fiewerde = 4^{th}

82^e = achttig-tweide = 82^{nd}
```

Gestern was de 82^e geburtdag af myn greutfader. = 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 eirstdel or furstdel as the final part of the number.

```
halv[halv] = half, semi-, hemi-½
helft[hɛlft] = one half;½
tridel['tri:dəl] = third;⅓
fiewerdel['fi:owərdəl] = one fourth/quarter;¼
fimfdel['fimftəl] = one fifth;⅓
sexdel['sɛkstəl] = one sixth;⅙
sevendel['sɛ:vəndəl] = one seventh;⅙
achtdel['axtəl] = one eighth;⅙
niewndel['ni:ondəl] = one ninth;⅙
tejndel['teɪndəl] = one tenth;⅙
twentig-eirstdel['ˌtvɛntɪg'eɪrstəl] = one twenty-first;⅙
Dyn appel sej aut kostlik. Gev mi helft. = Your apple looks delicious. Give me half.
lck gav hir en halv appel. = I gave her half an apple.
Twei is en achtdel af sextejn = Two is one eighth of sixteen.
lck besitt en fiewerdel deil af de business = I own a quarter share of the business.
```

Prefixes and Suffixes

Frenkisch 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-, er-, 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-*misbrauke = *to misuse*, *violate or abuse*. misdaid = *misdeed or crime*

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

onleir'd = unlearned, ignorant. ongeleuver = unbeliever, infidel.

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

andtecke = to uncover or discover. and schulde to excuse, to pardon.

Suffixes Creating Adjectives

-ig[-1g] 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 Frenkisch swynig would have to mean literally full of pigs. *Piggy* would be better translated as swynlik.

steinig = stony; full of stones; Dis sol is steinig. = This soil is stony. leuvig = leafy, full of leaves. De park ha mennig leuvig triewen. = The park has many leafy trees.

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

behelpsam = helpful. bugsam = 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 Frenkisch nouns may not be freely used as adjectives without an explicit converting suffix.

steinen = stone. Ick klimm de steinen treppen. = I am climbing the stone steps. Wi wone in en timmeren haus = We live in a wood(en) house. Syn ring is golden. = His ring is golden.

- -leus[-lø:s] Having none or a lack of a particular noun. Equivalent to English -less. inhaldsleus = empty. Myn forraidkisten waire alltyd inhaldsleus. = My cupboards were always empty. lyvleus lifeless, dull. De kroug was lyvleus op en mondagmorgen = 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; Menn scholde sture eins auto langsam op landlik straites. = You should drive your car slowly on country roads. Swynlik = piggy, piglike, porcine. Dou et dyn feud swynlik! = 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.

niderlandisch = Dutch, of the Netherlands. portugesisch = Portuguese, of Portugal.

It also appears in a myriad of Romance borrowings of adjectives, generally where -ic and -ical would appearing English

demokratisch = democratic. akademisch = academic. chemisch = chemical

- -bar[-bar] Able to be acted upon easily by a particular verb. Equivalent to English -able. formbar = workable, plastic, malleable. Heit ysern 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

- -heid[-heid] The condition of being a particular adjective or noun. Often equivalent to English -hood. smierigheid = dirt, filth, smut. behaglikheid = comfort, cosiness, snugness
- -nis[-nis] The condition of being a particular adjective or noun. Often equivalent to English -ness. gefangnis = captivity, detention, prison. geheimnis = secrecy, stealth
- -doum[-dom] The condition of being a particular adjective or noun. Often equivalent to English -dom.
- -schap[-ʃap] The group having a particular characteristic or being a particular adjective. Often equivalent to English -ship.
- wittenschap = *science*, *knowledge*, *learning*. eigenschap = *quality*, *aspect*, *function*, *characteristic*.
- -er[-ər] One who does or is the agent of a particular verb. Equivalent to English -er. swimmer = swimmer, some one or something that swims. dancer = dancer, one who dances. This suffix is also used to create the word for somebody who is the a resident of, of the member of an ethnic group of a particular region or country.
- englander = English person, Englishman. Niderlander = Dutch person, resident of the Netherlands. japaner = Japanese person, resident of Japan.
- -ing[-ing] The process or action of doing a particular verb. Often equivalent to English -ing. kreiring = creation. overleving = survival.
- -de[-də] 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.
- wydde = width, diepde = depth, heucht = height dreuged = drought. joged = youth, boy.
- -e [-ə] Somebody or something who is the adjective of the root. No direct equivalent in English, but -ie or -y is often used in this manner: E.g. greenie, hottie, oldie ald = old. alde = old person or thing. scheun = beautiful. scheune beautiful person or thing.

Compound Words

Multiple words may be combined in Frenkisch to make compound words for complex concepts. In compound words, each element of the compound modifies the next element. For example a schoulleirer is a *schoolteacher*, that is a teacher who teaches in a school. An autosturleirer is a driving instructor, that is a teacher who teaches driving motor vehicles. A leirerschoul is a *teachers' college*, that is a school where teachers are trained to teach. Unlike in English, the elements of compound words are not separated by spaces or hyphens. This, in theory can result in quite long words such as asylseukergefangnis (*asylum seeker detention centre*), benzinstationbrennstoffpomp (*petrol station fuel pump*) and slepplastwagen (*towtruck*).

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spoken originally in North Western Europe, but which now can be found throughout the ken

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