

Synopsis of Ayola Grammar

Part I

1.1. History and Unique Features

1.1.1. History of Ayola

Ayola has been developed by the Ayola Research Group (ARG) at the University of Massachusetts Lowell. The language was given the name ‘Ayola’, from the Italian word *aiola*, meaning ‘flower garden’. This name expresses the orderliness and beauty which the developers have striven to give to the language: a phonetic alphabet, logical grammatical and word-building systems, as well as pleasing and easily-perceived sounds. In developing Ayola, the ARG has borrowed ideas from previous international languages such as Esperanto, Interlingua and Loglan, and introduced many new ideas of its own. The Ayola vocabulary is taken from many natural languages of the world, with a strong emphasis on European languages. In contrast to previous international languages, Ayola takes more words from the less-widely-spoken European languages, such as the Scandinavian languages, the Slavic languages, and other central and eastern European languages.

1.1.2. Unique Features of Ayola

Many features of Ayola, such as phonetic spelling, regular grammatical endings, etc. are shared with other existing international languages. However, in several important ways, Ayola is unique. The principal unique features are as follows:

1. Accentless Familiar Phonetic Spelling

The Ayola alphabet uses 24 of the 26 letters of the Roman alphabet for spelling (q and x are used only as symbols). No accents are used in spelling Ayola words; the stress accents (´) and (˘) are used to indicate irregular stress in Ayola approximations of foreign names and in interjections borrowed from natural languages. All letters have phonetic values recognized by at least some of the major European languages.

2. System of Resolving Word Boundaries

A string of Ayola sounds may be easily and uniquely resolved into a string of Ayola words. In most cases this word-boundary resolution only requires knowledge of Ayola’s phonology and elementary words.

3. Strict Rules of Word Building

The meanings of prefixes and suffixes are precisely defined and their rules of application strictly stated. Word compounding is an important process in Ayola but the rules for compounding words of the same part of speech are more restricted than in most other languages.

4. Complete and Consistent Markings of the Parts of Speech

All of the major parts of speech including prepositions are marked by characteristic

word endings. In addition, names derived from Ayola words have a characteristic word ending. There is a consistent relation between the derived parts of speech and the underlying fundamental form.

5. System of Prepositions and Links

A unique system of prepositions and links eliminates most of the ambiguities which occur in other languages due to the ambiguous syntactic function of prepositions. Both prepositions and links precede nouns and form phrases. However, prepositional phrases modify verbs and are free to move around in a sentence whereas link phrases modify nouns and are bound to a position following the modified noun. Links are formed from prepositions by distinctive prefixes.

6. Equivalence between Complex Derived Adjectives and Link Phrases

Every complex derived adjective has a one-to-one correspondence with a link phrase of identical meaning. Ambiguities due to the notoriously vague meanings of adjectival suffixes are eliminated.

7. Precise and Familiar Vocabulary

In the great majority of cases the Ayola root of the word for a concept is identical to the root used in one or more natural languages, but the Ayola word is often defined more precisely. Most of the lexical ambiguities which are still present in most international languages are eliminated. Shades of meaning and specific technical meanings are allowed. The major portion of the vocabulary is easily recognizable by speakers of major European languages.

8. Distinctness of International Combining Forms

A large number of international combining forms, such as **kata-**, **meta-** and **mono-**, are used only as combining forms which are parts of longer words. The possible roots within them (kat-, met-, mon-) are not used as Ayola roots. This restriction completely eliminates many potential ambiguities which might result if such possible roots were used both within combining forms and as roots.

9. Simple Ayola Equivalents of Linnaean Terms

Ayola provides a simple set of rules for converting the internationally-used Latin Linnaean names for animals, plants, clouds, etc. into equivalent Ayola forms. The resulting Ayola terms are almost always very similar to the original Latin ones but are simple and uniform in their word endings and satisfy the rules of Ayola grammar. For common animals and plants whose Latin name does not contain a species word, Ayola also derives a single-word term for that species from the natural languages.

1.2 Spelling and Pronunciation

1.2.1 Ayola Alphabet

Ayola is a phonetic language, which means that the words are spoken the way they are written. The Ayola alphabet has twenty-eight symbols, namely twenty-four of the twenty-six letters of the Latin alphabet (all except for q and x) and four digraphs (the two-letter combinations **dj**, **dz**, **tc**, and **ts**). No accents are used in the spelling of Ayola words. Ayola approximations of foreign names, as well as interjections borrowed from natural languages, use the acute (´) and grave(`) stress accents to indicate abnormal

stress.

Here is the complete alphabet, with a key to Ayola pronunciation.

Table 1.2.1-1 The Ayola Alphabet

a a as in <i>father</i>	f f as in <i>fit</i>	m m as in <i>may</i>	tc ch as in <i>chew</i>
b b as in <i>boy</i>	g g as in <i>go</i>	n n as in <i>no</i>	ts ts as in <i>its</i>
c sh as in <i>she</i>	h h as in <i>hay</i>	o o as in <i>obey</i>	u oo as in
d d as in <i>dog</i>	i i as in <i>machine</i>	p p as in <i>pay</i>	<i>moon</i>
dj j as in <i>joy</i>	j z as in <i>azure</i>	r r as in <i>red</i>	v v as in <i>vat</i>
dz dz as in <i>adze</i>	k k as in <i>kit</i>	s s as in <i>so</i>	w w as in <i>wet</i>
e a as in <i>chaotic</i>	l l as in <i>lay</i>	t t as in <i>tie</i>	y y as in <i>yet</i>
			z z as in <i>zoo</i>

Every letter is pronounced individually in Ayola, even in the cases of two vowels occurring together as in **naiva** (*naïve*) which is pronounced as [na-I-va], and **heroino** (*heroin*) which is pronounced as [he-ro-IN-o].

1.2.2 Stress

Ayola vocabulary words are always pronounced with the stress on the next-to-the-last syllable. Note the following examples where the stressed syllable is capitalized.

alu [A-lu]	glacyo [GLA-cyo]	instruktats [in-STRUK-tats]
vodo [VO-do]	kanuo [ka-NU-o]	instruktare [in-struk-TA-re]
medu [ME-du]	fineyo [fi-NE-yo]	dikcionaryo [dik-ci-o-NA-ryo]
patro [PA-tro]	manio [ma-NI-o]	fotografo [fo-to-GRA-fo]
dyaza [DYA-za]	kalorio [ka-lo-RI-o]	fotografio [fo-to-gra-FI-o]

1.3 Word Forms

1.3.1 Elementary Words

Elementary words are words which are indivisible, i.e. they do not break up into a root, optional affixes and an ending. There are 79 such words in Ayola. These include pronouns, indefinite and interrogative adjectives and adverbs, articles, connectives, relative words, a few prepositions, links and conjunctions, addressive words, and a number of other words in miscellaneous categories. Although they are indivisible, more than one third of the elementary words have the correct ending for their part of speech, i.e. **-o/-oy** for pronouns, **-a** for adjectives, **-e** for adverbs and **-u** for prepositions. The following table gives the 61 most important elementary words, listed by category.

Table 1.3.1-1 Selected Elementary Words

Ayola Word	Meaning	Part of Speech
adiu	<i>goodbye</i>	addressive word
aloa	<i>hello</i>	addressive word
aveu	<i>welcome</i>	addressive word
gratsi	<i>thank you</i>	addressive word
nuo	<i>it's nothing</i>	addressive word
la	<i>the</i>	article (definite)
lo	<i>a/the</i>	article (generic)
ke	<i>that</i>	clausal word
kwea	<i>whether (choice clause)</i>	clausal word
kwey	<i>whether (yes/no clause)</i>	clausal word
caw	<i>or (exclusive)</i>	connective (coordinating)
cay	<i>or (inclusive), and/or</i>	connective (coordinating)
ce	<i>and</i>	connective (coordinating)
ceyi	<i>and ... together</i>	connective (coordinating)
ceyu	<i>and then</i>	connective (coordinating)
coe	<i>but</i>	connective (coordinating)
neoy	<i>neither</i>	connective (coordinating, initial)
noy	<i>nor</i>	connective (coordinating, medial)
dwi	<i>divided by</i>	connective (mathematical)
mwa	<i>times, multiplied by</i>	connective (mathematical)
mye	<i>minus</i>	connective (mathematical)
poa	<i>to the power of</i>	connective (mathematical)
pyu	<i>plus</i>	connective (mathematical)
sua	<i>sub (subscript)</i>	connective (mathematical)
ci	<i>if</i>	connective (subordinating)
ciyu	<i>if-and-only-if</i>	connective (subordinating)
cnoci	<i>whether-or-not</i>	connective (subordinating)
cu	<i>only-if</i>	connective (subordinating)
nici	<i>unless</i>	connective (subordinating)
ye	<i>let/may (indirect imperative)</i>	indirect-imperative word
hwe	<i>how?, to what degree?</i>	interrogative word (adverb, degree)
hye	<i>how?, in what manner?</i>	interrogative word (adverb, manner)
hworde	<i>how?, by what method?</i>	interrogative word (adverb, method)
hwerve	<i>where?</i>	interrogative word (adverb, place)
hworfe	<i>why?</i>	interrogative word (adverb, reason)
hwande	<i>when?</i>	interrogative word (adverb, time)
hya	<i>what kind of?</i>	interrogative word (adjective, descriptive)
hwa	<i>which?</i>	interrogative word (adjective, identifying)
hyo	<i>who?</i>	interrogative word (pronoun, animate)
hwo	<i>what?</i>	interrogative word (pronoun, inanimate)
ea	<i>is/does?</i>	interrogative word (sentence, choice)
ey	<i>is/does?</i>	interrogative word (sentence, yes/no)

ji	<i>of</i>	link (state/action -> subject)
jwi	<i>of</i>	link (doer/action -> object)
je	<i>of</i>	link (part -> whole, product -> source)
jwe	<i>of</i>	link (container -> contents)
ja	<i>of</i>	link (possessed/used thing -> possessor/user)
jwa	<i>of</i>	link (possessor/user -> possessed/used thing)
nio	<i>it is not the case that ...</i>	negation word (sentence)
no	<i>not</i>	negation word (term)
byu	<i>by</i>	preposition (agent)
moy	<i>we/us</i>	pronoun (first-person, plural)
myo	<i>I/me</i>	pronoun (first-person, singular)
voy	<i>you</i>	pronoun (second-person, plural)
vu	<i>you</i>	pronoun (second-person, singular)
dya	<i>he/she #1</i>	pronoun (third person #1, singular, animate)
dwa	<i>it #1</i>	pronoun (third person #2, singular, inanimate)
dyo	<i>he/she #2</i>	pronoun (third-person #2, singular, animate)
dwo	<i>it #2</i>	pronoun (third-person #2, singular, inanimate)
kye	<i>that</i>	relative word (adverb)
kyo	<i>who/which</i>	relative word (pronoun)
now	<i>no</i>	reply
ya	<i>yes</i>	reply

1.3.2 Simple Words

Simple words consist of a root and an ending indicating the part of speech. Every simple word has a fundamental form, which is its principal part of speech, e.g. **libro** (book) is fundamentally a noun, **bela** (beautiful) is fundamentally an adjective, etc. Simple words also have two other forms: inflected forms, which preserve the fundamental part of speech, and derived forms, which alter the part of speech.

Table 1.3.2-1 lists the basic endings for the fundamental parts of speech along with the inflected endings (shaded rows) for nouns and verbs.

Table 1.3.2-1 Basic and Inflected Endings for Fundamental Parts of Speech

Fundamental Part of Speech	Ending	Meaning	Ayola Example	English
Noun	-o	singular	libro	<i>book</i>
	-oy	plural	libroy	<i>books</i>
Adjective	-a	descriptive adjective	bela	<i>beautiful</i>
Verb	-are	infinitive	legare	<i>to read</i>
	-ats	present tense	legats	<i>reads</i>
	-its	past tense	legits	<i>read</i>
	-uts	future tense	leguts	<i>will read</i>
	-aw	imperative mood	legaw	<i>read!</i>
Preposition	-u	preposition	overu	<i>above</i>

Quantifier	-a	quantifier	dusa	<i>two</i>
Determiner	-a	determiner	tisa	<i>this</i>

Table 1.3.1-2 lists the endings for the derived parts of speech formed from the six fundamental parts of speech.

Table 1.3.1-2 Endings for Other Parts of Speech
Derived from the Fundamental Parts of Speech

Fundamental Part of Speech	Derived Part of Speech	Ending	Meaning	Ayola	English
Noun	Descriptive Adjective	-a	who/which is <noun>	humana	<i>human</i>
	Relational Adjective	-(w)ay	of <noun>	human(w)ay	<i>(of a) human</i>
Adjective	Noun	-o	<adjective> one	bono	<i>good one</i>
	Relational Adjective	-(w)ay	of <adjective> one	bon(w)ay	<i>of a good one</i>
	Adverb	-e	in a <adjective> manner	bone	<i>well</i>
Verb	Noun	-o	<verb>er	amo	<i>lover</i>
	Descriptive Adjective	-a	<verb>ing	ama	<i>loving (adj.)</i>
	Relational Adjective	-(w)ay	of <verb>er(s)	am(w)ay	<i>lover's</i>
	Adverb	-e	<verb>ingly	ame	<i>lovingly</i>
Preposition	Noun	-o	<preposition> one	overo	<i>above one</i>
	Descriptive Adjective	-a	<preposition>	overa	<i>above (adj.)</i>
	Relational Adjective	-(w)ay	of <preposition> one	over(w)ay	<i>of an above one</i>
	Verb	-are	to be <preposition>	overare	<i>to be above above</i>
	Adverb	-e	<preposition>	overe	<i>(adv.)</i>
Quantifier	Noun	-o	the number <quantifier>	duso	<i>the number two</i>
	Adverb	-e	<quantifier> times as	duse	<i>two times as</i>
Determiner	Pronoun	-o	<determiner> one	tiso	<i>this one</i>

Note that both relational adjectives, ending in **-(w)ay**, and adverbs, ending in **-e**, are always derived from other parts of speech.

Note also that there are two types of relational adjectives: Type I relational adjectives (ending in **-ay**) denote the whole/origin/source of the person/thing or the subject of the state/action denoted by the following noun. Type II relational adjectives (ending in **-way**) denote the contents/product of the person/thing or the object of the doer/state/action denoted by the following noun.

1.3.3 Complex Words

Complex words are words which, in addition to a root and an ending, contain another element, such as a prefix, a suffix or another root. These words are discussed in various sections of the complete Grammar of Ayola, but not treated in this synopsis.

Part II

2.1 Nouns

Nouns denote a person, place, physical object, or abstract entity. Nouns are recognized by the **-o** ending for the singular and by the **-oy** ending for the plural inflection. Nouns which consist of only a noun root and an ending are called fundamental nouns. Nouns which consist of a non-noun (adjective, verb, preposition, quantifier) root and an ending and/or have at least one optional component (prefix, suffix, or additional root) are called derived nouns. Here are some examples of fundamental nouns in their singular and plural forms:

cambro	<i>room</i>	camproy	<i>rooms</i>
pisko	<i>fish</i>	piskoy	<i>fish</i>
viro	<i>man</i>	viroy	<i>men</i>
femo	<i>woman</i>	femoy	<i>women</i>

libro book libroy books
komputero computer komputeroy computers

Table 2.1-1 shows examples of nouns derived from the four parts of speech from which nouns can be derived.

Table 2.1-1 Nouns Derived from Four Other Parts of Speech

Fundamental Part of Speech	Fundamental Form of Word	English	Derived Noun	English
Adjective	bona importenta	<i>good</i> <i>important</i>	bono importento	<i>good one</i> <i>important one</i>
Verb	amare kurare	<i>to love</i> <i>to run</i>	amo kuro	<i>lover</i> <i>runner</i>
Preposition	overu naku	<i>above</i> <i>according to</i>	overo nako	<i>above one</i> <i>source</i>
Quantifier	dusa dusdek-kwara	<i>two (of something)</i> <i>twenty-four (of something)</i>	duso dusdek- kwaro	<i>the number</i> <i>two</i> <i>the number</i> <i>twenty-four</i>

A noun may be preceded by no article, by the definite article **la** or by the generic article **lo**. The noun may be accompanied by (a) modifying word(s) such as (a) preceding adjective(s) or a following linked phrase or relative clause. The article is always placed at the beginning of the entire noun phrase.

2.1.1 Nouns as Subjects and Objects

In Ayola nouns are not inflected for case, as they are in some natural languages (German, Albanian, etc). In the following examples the noun **viro** maintains the same form as subject, object, and indirect object.

<u>Viro</u> estats enu la cambro.	<i>A man is in the room.</i>
Myo vidats <u>viro</u> .	<i>I see a man.</i>
Myo donits la libro alu <u>viro</u> .	<i>I gave the book to a man.</i>

2.1.2 Singular Nouns

When preceded by no article, a singular noun refers to an indefinite person or thing. The English equivalent uses ‘a/an’.

anyo	<i>a year</i>
juna femo	<i>a young woman</i>
aplo jyonu la tablo	<i>an apple on the table</i>
arboro kyo myo grimpits	<i>a tree which I climbed</i>

When preceded by the definite article **la**, a singular noun refers to a definite person or thing, i.e. one that can be singled out or pointed to. The English equivalent uses ‘the’.

la anyo	<i>the year</i>
la juna femo	<i>the young woman</i>
la aplo jyonu la tablo	<i>the apple on the table</i>
la arboro kyo myo grimpits	<i>the tree which I climbed</i>

When preceded by the generic article **lo**, a singular noun refers to a typical or generic person or thing, i.e. one representative of a large class. A statement made with a singular noun preceded by the generic article applies individually to the great majority of members of the class denoted by the noun, although not necessarily to every last one. A statement using **lo** is therefore weaker than one using the universal quantifier **caka** (*each*) but is more compact, and it is very useful in Ayola just as it is in English. The English equivalent usually uses ‘a/an’ with the singular noun or no article with the plural noun. Sometimes ‘the’ with the singular noun may also be used.

Lo anyo havats dec-dusa monatoy.	<i>A/the year has twelve months. = Years have twelve months.</i>
Lo femo fondats lo copajo.	<i>A woman loves shopping. = Women love shopping.</i>
Lo arboro folyetcats efu lo printempo.	<i>A tree foliates in the spring. = Trees foliate in the spring.</i>

2.1.3 Plural Nouns

When preceded by no article, a plural noun refers to indefinite persons or things. The English equivalent also uses no article.

Dusa fratoy pentrits la hawso.	<i>Two brothers painted the house.</i>
Kwara forta viroy portits la barko.	<i>Four strong men carried the boat.</i>

With plural nouns there is an ambiguity, for it is unclear from the words alone whether noun phrases such as **dusa fratoy** and **kwara forta viroy** refer to persons or things individually or collectively. This more specific meaning may be clear from the context, just as it sometimes is in English. It may be stated explicitly by the use of **caka** (*each*) or **tuta** (*all*).

Caka dusa fratoy pentrits la hawso.	<i>Each of two brothers painted the house.</i>
Tuta kwara forta viroy portits la barko.	<i>All four strong men carried the boat.</i>

Alternatively, it may be stated explicitly by the use of the adverbs **sepre** (*separately*) or **kune** (*together*).

Sepre dusa fratoy pentrits la hawso.	<i>Separately two brothers painted the house.</i>
Kune kwara forta viroy portits la	<i>Together four strong men carried the</i>

barko.	<i>boat.</i>
--------	--------------

Caka, tuta, sepre and **kune** are also used to clarify the meanings of plural pronouns, which have the same ambiguity.

When preceded by the definite article **la**, a plural noun refers to definite persons or things. The English equivalent uses ‘the’.

La dusa fratoj pentrits la hawso.	<i>The two brothers painted the house.</i>
La kwara forta viroj portits la barko.	<i>The four strong men carried the boat.</i>

The same ambiguity of meaning (individual vs. collective) applies in the case of plural nouns with the definite article as it did in the case of plural nouns with no article. As before, **caka, tuta, sepre** and **kune** may be used to clarify the meaning.

When preceded by the generic article **lo**, a plural noun unambiguously refers collectively to the entire class of persons or things denoted by the noun. Unlike the case of the definite article, this unambiguous reference with the generic article is possible because the individual plural meaning is expressed by the combination of the generic article and the singular noun. Although **lo** + <singular noun> is singular in form it refers to a plural entity, i.e. the great majority of members of a class, but on an individual basis. Only the collective meaning remains for **lo** + <plural noun>. Here are some examples showing both individual generic and collective generic meaning.

Lo katso havats nawfa vivajoy.	<i>A/the (the typical) cat has nine lives.</i>
Lo katsoj kontrolintats la perognatay populaciono.	<i>The cat (cats collectively) has (have) controlled the mouse population.</i>
Lo romano amits lo vino.	<i>A (the typical) Roman loved wine.</i>
Lo romanoy konstruktits multa akweduktoj.	<i>The Romans (collectively) built many aqueducts.</i>
Lo moderna telefono estats mutce pluse parva asu lo telefono je la deknawfta tcenanyo.	<i>A/the (the typical) modern telephone is much smaller than (the typical) telephone of the nineteenth century.</i>
Aleksander Greyam Bel inventits lo telefonoy.	<i>Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone (telephones collectively).</i>
Lo komputero havats procesoro ce memorio.	<i>A/the (the typical) computer has a processor and a memory.</i>
Lo komputeroj canjwintats la mondo.	<i>The computer (computers collectively) has (have) changed the world.</i>

Note that the second sentence in each pair would not be correct with the singular form of the noun. For example the typical cat alone has not controlled the mouse population. Only cats acting as a group have done so, etc.

2.1.4 Translation of English Noun Phrases Into Ayola

Table 2.1.4-1 is a reference table for the translation of English noun phrases into Ayola. There are five possible English forms and six possible interpretations, but there is some duplication so that there are twelve possible cases in all. The translation process involves three steps:

1. Check the original English form with its possible English paraphrases.
2. Determine which paraphrase matches the intended meaning.
3. Obtain the proper Ayola translation.

Table 2.1.4-1 Translation of English Noun Phrases in Ayola

English	Case	English Paraphrase	Meaning	Ayola
<noun>	1	some <noun>	indefinite singular	-o
	2	the typical bit of <noun>	individual generic	lo -o
	3	<noun> collectively	collective generic	lo -oy
a/an <noun>	4	some <noun>	indefinite singular	-o
	5	the typical <noun>	individual generic	lo -o
the <noun>	6	-	definite singular	la -o
	7	the typical <noun>	individual generic	lo -o
	8	<noun>s collectively	collective generic	lo -oy
<noun>s	9	some <noun>s	indefinite plural	-oy
	10	the typical <noun>	individual generic	lo -o
	11	<noun>s collectively	collective generic	lo -oy
the <noun>s	12	-	definite plural	la -oy

The following English sentences along with their paraphrases and Ayola translations exemplify each case:

1.	<i>Water is on the table. (=Some water is on the table.)</i>	Vodo onats la tablo.
2.	<i>Water boils at one hundred Celsius. (=The typical bit of water boils at one hundred Celsius.)</i>	Lo vodo boylats ayu tcena celsiusoy.
3.	<i>Water sustains life. (=Water (collectively) sustains life (living things collectively).)</i>	Lo vodoy sustenats lo vivoy.
4.	<i>A book is on the table. (=Some book is on the table.)</i>	Libro onats la tablo.
5.	<i>A year has twelve months. (=The typical year has twelve months.)</i>	Lo anyo havats dec-dusa monatoy.
6.	<i>The guitar is on the table. (-)</i>	La gitaro onats la tablo.
7.	<i>The guitar has six strings. (=The typical guitar has six</i>	Lo gitaro havats sesa kordoy.

	<i>strings.)</i>	
8.	<i>The computer has changed the world. (=Computers collectively have changed the world.)</i>	Lo komputeroy canjwintats la mondo.
9.	<i>Clouds cover the sky. (=Some clouds cover the sky.)</i>	Nuboy kovrats la tcielo.
10.	<i>Children love to swim. (=The typical child loves to swim.)</i>	Lo bambino fondats nadare.
11.	<i>Computers have changed the world. (=Computers collectively have changed the world.)</i>	Lo komputeroy canjwintats la mondo.
12.	<i>The men went to New York. (-)</i>	La viroy ganits alu Nu York.

2.1.5 Caution in Translating Into Ayola Generic Forms

The actions denoted by some verbs cannot apply either individually or collectively to the large class of objects denoted by generic forms. For instance, consider the following English sentence and a possible Ayola translation using an individual generic form:

*Manwél tokats lo gitaro.	<i>Manuel plays the guitar.</i>
---------------------------	---------------------------------

This Ayola translation is evidently incorrect when the active verb is changed to a passive verb:

* Lo gitaro getokats byu Manwél.	<i>*The typical guitar is played by Manuel.</i>
----------------------------------	---

Because Manuel never plays most guitars, the above sentence does not make sense.

Now consider another possible translation using a collective generic form:

*Manwél tokats lo gitaroy.	<i>Manuel plays the guitar (guitars collectively).</i>
----------------------------	--

This translation is also incorrect. The collective entity of guitars can do some things, such as change popular music, and have some things done to it such as be loved but it cannot be played by one person. The correct way to translate the original English sentence is to add a helping verb, e.g. **povare**:

Manwél povats tokare lo gitaro.	<i>Manuel can play the typical guitar.</i>
---------------------------------	--

2.2 Pronouns

Pronouns substitute for a noun, noun phrase, or name which either has been explicitly mentioned or is understood through the context. Pronouns occur in elementary and compound

forms. Elementary pronouns consist of personal pronouns, interrogative pronouns and the relative pronoun.

2.2.1 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns refer to the speaker(s) (first person), the listener(s) (second person), or someone(s) or something(s) previously mentioned or understood through the context (third#1 and third#2 persons). Note: Personal pronouns are the first of two elementary pronoun groups which have plural forms. The complete list of personal pronouns is given in Table 2.2.1-1.

Table 2.2.1-1 Personal Pronouns

Person	Singular		Plural	
1 st	myo	<i>I/me</i>	moy	<i>we/us</i>
2 nd	vu	<i>you</i>	voy	<i>you (plural)</i>
3 rd #1	dya	<i>he/she/him/her</i>	dyay	<i>they/them (persons) #1</i>
	dwa	<i>it</i>	dway	<i>they/them (things) #1</i>
3 rd #2	dyo	<i>he/she/him/her</i>	dyoy	<i>they/them (persons) #2</i>
	dwo	<i>it</i>	dwoy	<i>they/them (things) #2</i>

Ayola has distinct plural forms for all personal pronouns. However, note a distinction between the first/second-person and the third-person plural forms. Although the latter are formed regularly from the singular forms, the former are not. There is an underlying reason for this. The first-person plural form may sometimes denote a true plural entity of first persons (members of a group speaking jointly) but more commonly denotes a combination of first and second persons (*I/me + you*), first and third persons (*I/me + he/him/she/her/they/them*), or all three persons. Similarly, the second-person plural form may sometimes denote a true plural entity of second persons (members of a group addressed) but may also denote a combination of second and third persons (*you + he/him/she/her/they/them*). In contrast, the third-person plural forms only denote true plural entities of third persons. Thus, **moy** and **voy**, while clearly recognizable in Ayola as denoting plural entities, are elementary words and are not derived by pluralizing the singular forms. It would be too cumbersome to have distinct forms for each of the many combinations of persons denoted by **moy** and **voy**, and sometimes it is useful to have the plural form stand for two different combinations, as illustrated by the following sentence:

Ci myo ganuts kunu vu caw ci myo ganuts kunu dya, moy gozuts mutce.	<i>If I go with you or if I go with him/her, we will enjoy (it) a lot.</i>
--	--

Ayola personal pronouns have no case inflection and retain the same form when used as subject, direct object, or indirect object.

Myo fondats dya.	<i>I like him/her.</i>
Dya fondats myo.	<i>He/she likes me.</i>
Myo donits dwa alu dya.	<i>I gave it to him/her.</i>
Dya donits dwa alu myo.	<i>He/she gave it to me.</i>

Ayola does not make a sex/gender distinction in the personal pronouns but does make a person/thing, i.e. animate/inanimate, distinction, using the same y/w contrast as is used in the indefinite and interrogative pronouns. In order to provide unambiguous reference to the two different persons of the same sex or to the two different things, Ayola uses a second set of third-person pronouns, which is parallel to the first set, but distinguished by the a/o contrast. The rule of usage is that the first third-person pronoun is used for the first-mentioned person or thing whereas the corresponding second third-person pronoun is used for the second-mentioned person or thing. These second third-person pronouns are sometimes referred to by linguists as fourth-person pronouns and are used in various ways in some natural languages. Here are some examples:

Myo vidits Bob ce An.	<i>I saw Bob and Ann.</i>
Dya vizeituts dyo efu la neksta semano.	<i>He will visit her next week.</i>
Myo vidits Bob ce Tom.	<i>I saw Bob and Tom.</i>
Dyo vizeituts dya efu la neksta semano.	<i>He (Tom) will visit him (Bob) next week.</i>
Djen telefonirits ce dicits alu myo vonu la nuva caro ja Linda.	<i>Jenn telephoned and told me about Linda's new car.</i>
Dya dicits ke dya fondats dwa mutce.	<i>She (Jenn) said that she (Jenn) likes it a lot.</i>
Dya dicits ke dyo fondats dwa mutce.	<i>She (Jenn) said that she (Linda) likes it a lot.</i>
Sali ce yi Fred ce Keyt ce yi Djordj faruts samwo efu tinakto.	<i>Sally and Fred and Kate and George will do something tonight.</i>
Dyay ganuts alu la butikago ce dyoy ganuts alu la teatro.	<i>They (Sally and Fred) will go to the mall and they (Kate and George) will go to the theater.</i>

Plural personal Pronouns may be ambiguous because the pronouns alone do not specify whether the persons or things are acting individually or collectively. For instance, consider the sentences:

Dyay pentrits la hawso.	<i>They painted the house.</i>
Moy portits la barko.	<i>We carried the boat.</i>

This more specific meaning may be clear from the context, just as it sometimes is in English. Alternatively, it may be stated explicitly by the use of the quantifiers **caka** (*each*) or **tuta** (*all*) or the adverbs **sepre** (*separately*) or **kune** (*together*).

Caka dyay pentrits la hawso.	<i>Each of them painted the house.</i>
Tuta moy portits la barko.	<i>All of us (together) carried the boat.</i>
Sepre dyay pentrits la hawso.	<i>Separately they painted the house.</i>
Kune moy portits la barko.	<i>Together we carried the boat.</i>

2.2.2 Interrogative Pronouns

The interrogative pronouns **hyo** (*who?*) and **hwo** (*what?*) are similar to those used in English.

Hyo venits furu vidare myo?	<i>Who came to see me?</i>
Hwo dya ponits alonu myoza desko?	<i>What did he/she put on my desk?</i>

When interrogative pronouns are used together with third-person pronouns note the consistent use of the **y** (indicating person) or **w** (indicating thing) in the pronoun words.

<u>Hyo</u> enats la cambro?	<i>Who is in the room?</i>
Myo no konesats <u>dya</u> .	<i>I do not know him/her.</i>
<u>Hwo</u> onats la tablo?	<i>What is on the table?</i>
Myo no vidintats <u>dwa</u> antese.	<i>I haven't seen it before.</i>

2.2.3 Relative Pronoun

The relative pronoun is **kyo** (*singular*). It is translated as who/whom/which, and may refer to a singular or plural animate or inanimate entity. It can function as the subject, direct object, or propositional object in a modifying phrase.

La viro kyo parlats enu Franceso estats myoza amiko.	<i>The man who speaks (in) French is my friend.</i>
La femo kyo myo vizituts estats awtoro.	<i>The woman whom I will visit is an author.</i>
Myo konesats la persono alu kyo vu donits la libro.	<i>I know the person to whom you gave the book.</i>
La viroy kyo parlats enu Franceso estats myoza amikoy.	<i>The men who speak in French are my friends.</i>
La femoy kyo myo vizituts estats awtoroy.	<i>The women whom I will visit are authors.</i>
Myo konesats la personoy alu kyo vu donits la libro.	<i>I know the persons to whom you gave the book.</i>

2.3 Verbs

Verbs describe either the action of the subject of the sentence or the action or relation between a subject and an object in the sentence. Verbs are recognized by the **-are** ending for the infinitive mood, by the **-ats/-its/-uts** endings for the indicative mood, and by the **-aw** ending for the imperative mood. Verbs which consist of only a verb root and an

ending are called fundamental verbs. Verbs which consist of a non-verb (preposition) root and ending and/or have at least one optional component (prefix or suffix) are called derived verbs. Here are some examples of fundamental verbs in various forms.

Fundamental Verbs					
eglare	<i>to equal</i>	eglats	<i>equals</i>	eglaw	<i>equal!</i>
amare	<i>to love</i>	amits	<i>loved</i>	amaw	<i>love!</i>
kurare	<i>to run</i>	kuruts	<i>runs</i>	kuraw	<i>run!</i>
grimpare	<i>to climb</i>	grimpats	<i>climbs</i>	grimpaw	<i>climb!</i>

2.3.1 The Indicative Mood & Verb Tenses

The three verb tense endings of the indicative mood are **-ats**, **-its**, and **-uts**.

Table 2.3-1 Verb Tenses

Tense	Verb Ending	Ayola	English
Present/General	-ats	moy ludats	<i>we play</i>
Past	-its	moy ludits	<i>we played</i>
Future	-uts	moy luduts	<i>we will play</i>

Note that the **-ats** ending covers both of the following cases:

- a) for stative verbs, e.g. *to equal*, *to love*, *to be in*, it denotes a relation occurring either at the present time or in general

Duso pyu duso eglats kwaro.	<i>Two plus two equals four.</i>
Myo amats lo libro.	<i>I love books.</i>
La tablo enats la cambro.	<i>The table is in the room.</i>

- b) for dynamic verbs, e.g. *to run*, *to hit*, *to equalize*, *to fall in love*, *to get into*, it denotes an action occurring continually, habitually, etc.

Djim kurats efu caka vespero.	<i>Jim runs every evening.</i>
Tayger Wudz frapats la bolo bone.	<i>Tiger Woods hits the ball well.</i>

In order to denote an action occurring at the present time when using a dynamic verb, there are two options:

- a) a verb with the **-ats** ending must be accompanied by the adverb **nune** (*now*) expressing present time

Djim kurats nune.	<i>Jim runs now.</i>
Dya kantats nune.	<i>She sings now.</i>

- b) a verb with the progressive aspect suffix **-ant-** plus the **-ats** ending may be used

Myo pensats ke myo amihantats.	<i>I think I am falling in love.</i>
Tayger Wudz frapantats bone efu tidjurno.	<i>Tiger Woods is hitting well today.</i>

For further discussion on verb aspect suffixes see section 2.3.4.

2.3.2 The Infinitive Mood

The infinitive ending is **-are** for all verbs. This is the form given in the dictionary. The infinitive can be used as either the subject of a verb, the object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

Vidare estats kredare.	<i>To see is to believe.</i>
Amare estats estare humana.	<i>To love is to be human.</i>
Dya vwelats ganare alu Europa efu tisa somero.	<i>She wants to go to Europe this summer.</i>
Dya studats diligente furu lernare fiziko.	<i>He studies diligently in order to learn physics.</i>
Dyay enkuradjits dya umsu studare.	<i>They encouraged her to study.</i>

Infinitives functioning as the object of the verb may themselves take another infinitive as an object:

Myo vwelats povare parlare enu Ayola fluente.	<i>I want to be able to speak Ayola fluently.</i>
--	---

2.3.3 The Imperative Mood

The imperative ending is **-aw** for all verbs. There are two imperative forms: the direct and the indirect.

In the direct imperative form, the subject is omitted and is assumed to be a second person (singular or plural). The name of the addressed person(s) or thing(s) may precede or follow the verb phrase and is separated from the verb by a comma.

Parlaw!	<i>Speak!</i>
Regardaw la bela tcielo!	<i>Look at the beautiful sky!</i>
Djon, venaw!	<i>John, come!</i>
Venaw, Djon!	<i>Come, John!</i>

In the indirect imperative form, the subject is stated and the indirect imperative word **ye** (*let/may*) must be used at the beginning of the sentence.

Ye moy ganaw!	<i>Let's go!</i>
Ye vu suksesaw!	<i>May you succeed! (Good luck!)</i>
Ye Bogon kunaw vu!	<i>May God be with you!</i>
Ye Djon venaw!	<i>Let John come!</i>

Note the distinction between the example sentences **Djon, venaw!** and **Ye Djon**

venaw! where the presence of the indirect imperative word **ye** indicates clearly that ‘Djon’ is not being directly addressed.

2.3.4 Transitive & Intransitive Verbs

Transitive verbs comprise the great majority of all verbs. They express a relation between a subject and an object or an action of a subject on an object. The usual order in Ayola is subject-verb-object (SVO) except in interrogative sentences in which the order is object-subject-verb (OSV). While the direct object usually immediately follows the transitive verb, it may sometimes be preceded by a prepositional phrase.

Duso pyu treso eglats kwino.	<i>Two plus three equals five.</i>
Myo fondats la libro.	<i>I like the book.</i>
Hwo vu fondats?	<i>What do you like?</i>
Dya donits carpo alu dyaza sestro.	<i>She gave a scarf to her sister.</i>
Dya instruktits alu dyaza frato fiziko.	<i>He taught his brother physics.</i>

Sometimes the direct object of a transitive verb may be omitted, but the verb is still regarded as transitive.

Dya instruktits alu dyo enu la haymo.	<i>She taught him at home.</i>
Dya skribits alenu la libro.	<i>He wrote in the book.</i>

Intransitive verbs express an action of a subject which is not transferred to an object. They may, however, be modified by a prepositional phrase or adverb.

Dyay dansits enu la festo.	<i>They danced at the party.</i>
Myo dormuts dumu tuta la nakto.	<i>I will sleep all night.</i>
La bambino kondutats bone.	<i>The child behaves well.</i>
La katso myawits.	<i>The cat meowed.</i>

Transitive/Intransitive Verb Pairs

In many natural languages there is a small but important class of verbs which are used both transitively and intransitively. If a verb can be used both ways in the natural languages, Ayola distinguishes between the transitive and intransitive by adding a **-w-** to the intransitive verb root to make the transitive verb root. These verb pairs generally denote various types of change, such as change in time, change of state, change of position and motion of an inanimate/animate object.

La klaseo finits atu 11:30 (dec-uno tresdeco).	<i>The class finished at 11:30.</i>
La studentoy finwits farare dyayza kwizimoy.	<i>The students finished (doing) their quizzes.</i>
La fumo miksits ecu la lufto.	<i>The smoke mixed with the air.</i>
Dya mikswits la farino cwe la sukero.	<i>She mixed the flour and the sugar.</i>
La vetero canjits.	<i>The weather changed.</i>

Suno canjwits la vetero.	<i>The Sun changed the weather.</i>
--------------------------	-------------------------------------

A sentence with the intransitive member of the pair and a subject is always equivalent to a sentence with the transitive member of the pair in which that subject becomes the object and **samyo/samwo** 'someone/something' becomes the subject. For instance:

La glacyo meltits.
The ice melted.



Samyo/samwo meltwits la glacyo.
Someone/something melted the ice.

La konserto inicits.
The concert began.



Samyo/samwo inicwits la konserto.
Someone/something began the concert.

La vetero canjits.
The weather changed.



Samyo/samwo canjwits la vetero.
Someone/something changed the weather.

Note the contrast between the above examples and the following examples in which the subject of the intransitive verb remains the subject of the transitive verb. Such verbs are not true intransitive/transitive pairs. They are transitive-only verbs whose so-called intransitive counterpart is simply the transitive verb with the object not explicitly stated.

Dya kumprits robo.
She bought a dress.

Dya kumprits (samwo).
She bought (something).

Dya vidits dyo.
She saw him.

Dya vidits (samyo).
She saw (somebody).

Transitive verbs which have a true associated intransitive pair member are the only ones whose roots end in a consonant followed by **-w-**.

For a small group of intransitive verbs whose roots end in either **iy** or **uy**, the transitive counterpart is formed by replacing the **y** with a **w** because the combination **yw** is unpronounceable.

La temperaturo variyats.	<i>The temperature varies.</i>
La nuboy variwats la temperaturo.	<i>The clouds vary the temperature.</i>
La programo kontinuyits.	<i>The program continued.</i>
Dyay kontinuwits la programo.	<i>They continued the program.</i>

Below is a list showing some of the commonly-used special transitive/intransitive verb pairs:

Table 2.3-6 Special Transitive/Intransitive Verb Pairs

Verbs with Roots Ending in iy/iw		Verbs with Roots Ending in uy/uw	
asociyare/asociware	<i>to associate</i>	atenuyare/atenuware	<i>to attenuate</i>
deviyare/deviware	<i>to deviate</i>	fluktuyare/fluktuware	<i>to fluctuate</i>
disociyare/disociware	<i>to dissociate</i>	fluyare/fluware	<i>to flow</i>
mariyare/mariware	<i>to marry</i>	graduyare/graduware	<i>to graduate</i>
variware/variware	<i>to vary</i>	kontinuyare/kontinuware	<i>to continue</i>
ekspatriyare/ekspatriware	<i>to expatriate</i>		
eksfoliyare/eksfoliware	<i>to exfoliate</i>		

2.3.5 Verb Voices

There are two verb voices in Ayola, namely active and passive. All verb forms discussed so far are active. The corresponding passive forms are created by prefixing the passive prefix **ge-** for the direct object passive and **gye-** for the indirect object passive.

Dya geamats byu cakyo.	<i>She is loved by everyone.</i>
Viro gevidits enu la jardino.	<i>A man was seen in the garden.</i>
Dya vwelats amare ce geamare.	<i>She wants to love and to be loved.</i>
Kindoy, gevidaw ce no geawdaw!	<i>Children, be seen and be not heard!</i>
Bona libro geskribantats.	<i>A good book is being written.</i>
Bela pikturo gepentrintats.	<i>A beautiful picture has been painted.</i>
Libro gedonits alu la femo byu amiko.	<i>A book was given to the woman by a friend.</i>
Dya gyeinstruktits byu bona profesoro.	<i>He was taught by a good professor.</i>
La femo gyedonits libro byu amiko.	<i>The woman was given a book by a friend.</i>

2.4 Prepositions

Prepositions precede a noun, noun phrase, or name to form a prepositional phrase which modifies the main verb of the sentence. Prepositions are recognized by the **-u** ending. There are three elementary prepositions as well as simple and complex prepositions. The non-elementary prepositions are always fundamental and cannot be derived from another part of speech.

2.4.1 Elementary Prepositions

The three elementary prepositions are the agent preposition **byu**, and the two built-in-joint-argument prepositions **ecu** and **acu**. Note that although they do not split up into a root and an ending, they all end in **-u**, so as to enhance their recognizability as prepositions.

The agent preposition **byu** (*by, through the agency of*) is used to mark the agent (logical subject) of an action, in both direct-object passive and indirect-object passive constructions.

Dya geamats byu Djon.	<i>She is loved by John.</i>
Byu Djon dya geamats.	<i>By John she is loved.</i>
Dya gyedonits libro byu Djon.	<i>She was given a book by John.</i>
Byu Djon dya gyedonits libro.	<i>By John she was given a book.</i>

The preposition **byu** is also used to mark the agent of an action when the action verb is not explicitly stated but is implied as in this sentence:

La pentruro estats byu Rembrant.	<i>The painting is by Rembrandt.</i>
----------------------------------	--------------------------------------

The above sentence is an abbreviated form of the following sentence where the action verb is explicitly stated:

La pentruro gefarits byu Rembrant.	<i>The painting was done by Rembrandt.</i>
------------------------------------	--

The built-in-joint-argument prepositions **ecu** and **acu** are used with verbs having two arguments with identical or similar roles in cases where the arguments do not occur adjacently in the sentence. **Ecu** marks one of two symmetric arguments, i.e. those which can be interchanged without a change of meaning.

Ecu la faruno Djon mikswits la sukero. *With the flour John mixed the sugar.*

Acu marks one of two asymmetric arguments, i.e. those which cannot be interchanged without a change in meaning.

Acu lo kafo Dik preferats lo teho. *To coffee, Dick prefers tea.*

2.4.2 Simple Prepositions

Simple prepositions consist of a root plus the **-u** ending. They express a wide variety of relations including place, time, direction, means/method, cause, etc. They often come in pairs such as **overu** (*above*) and **underu** (*below*) or **antesu** (*before*) and **postu** (*after*). The commonly used simple prepositions are shown in the tables below, grouped according to category.

Table 2.4.2-1 Simple Prepositions Organized by Category

Place			
ayu	<i>at (a point)</i>	apudu	<i>beside</i>
enu	<i>in (a region)</i>	opozu	<i>opposite to</i>
awtu	<i>outside of</i>	tcisu	<i>on this side of, short of</i>
onu	<i>on (on the surface of)</i>	tcezu	<i>across (on the other side of), beyond</i>
ofu	<i>off of</i>	interu	<i>between (connecting)</i>
overu	<i>above</i>	entresu	<i>between (in the medial position)</i>
underu	<i>below</i>	parmu	<i>among (amidst, surrounded by)</i>
prapu	<i>behind, in back of</i>	elu	<i>among (out of the class of)</i>
frentu	<i>in front of</i>	layvu	<i>to the left of</i>
agenstu	<i>against (in forcible contact with)</i>	dekstru	<i>to the right of</i>

Time			
atu	<i>at (an instant)</i>	dumu	<i>during</i>
efu	<i>in (an interval)</i>	sinsu	<i>since</i>
antesu	<i>before</i>	djisu	<i>until</i>
postu	<i>after</i>		

Direction			
delu	<i>from (origin, source)</i>	toru	<i>toward</i>
alu	<i>to (destination, recipient)</i>	deru	<i>away from</i>
viyu	<i>via, by way of</i>		

Locus/Direction			
upu	<i>up</i>	lenu	<i>along</i>
dolu	<i>down</i>	tcirku	<i>around</i>
krosu	<i>across (spanning)</i>	travu	<i>through (passing through)</i>
smeru	<i>with (in the same direction as)</i>	gansu	<i>throughout (a region)</i>
resmeru	<i>against (in the opposite direction from)</i>		

Counteraction	
kawnteru	<i>against (in counteraction to)</i>

Cause			
kawsu	<i>because of</i>	trotsu	<i>in spite of</i>

Accompaniment/Competition			
kunu	<i>with (accompanied by)</i>	vertsu	<i>against/with (in competition with)</i>
nonkunu	<i>without (unaccompanied by)</i>		

Feature			
avu	<i>with (having)</i>	nevu	<i>without (not having)</i>

Comparison			
asu	<i>as/than (compared subject)</i>	asku	<i>as/than (compared object)</i>
licu	<i>like (in the same manner as subject)</i>	licku	<i>like (in the same manner as object)</i>

Means/Method			
medu	<i>with (by means of)</i>	furu	<i>for (for the benefit/purpose of)</i>
nonmedu	<i>without (not by means of)</i>		

Assignment/Interpretation			
ezu	<i>as (assigned/interpreted subject)</i>	ezgu	<i>as (assigned/interpreted object)</i>

Reciprocation/Substitution			
pwaru	<i>for (in return for)</i>	inamu	<i>for (on behalf of)</i>
		anstatu	<i>for (in place of), instead of</i>

Goal/Anti-goal			
umsu	<i>to (to the goal of)</i>	demsu	<i>from (avoiding)</i>

Favoring/Opposition			
proru	<i>for (in favor of)</i>	antiru	<i>against (in opposition to)</i>

Transferral	
veku	<i>with/of (material)</i>

Degree	
grayu	<i>by the amount of</i>

Association			
naku	<i>according to</i>	vonu	<i>about</i>
kontru	<i>against (not according to, contrary to)</i>	enplusu	<i>besides, in addition to</i>
sawfu	<i>except</i>		

Here are some examples of the use of the common simple prepositions.

Myo telefonirits myoza onklo atu oco.	<i>I telephoned my uncle at eight.</i>
Myo ganuts alu Frans efu Julion.	<i>I will go to France in July.</i>
Efu Julion myo ganuts alu Frans.	<i>In July I will go to France.</i>
Myo prenit la pikturo delu la	<i>I took the picture from the book and</i>

libro ce donits dwa alu myoza amiko.	<i>gave it to my friend.</i>
Dze estats animalo parmu la arboroy.	<i>There is an animal among the trees.</i>
Elu myoza amikoy, dya estats la pluste bona studento.	<i>Among my friends, she is the best student.</i>
Dya gratits dyo pwaru la libro.	<i>She thanked him for the book.</i>
Tom ludits teniso kunu Dik avu hoca energenso.	<i>Tom played tennis with Dick with great energy.</i>
Tyo devats studare furu lernare.	<i>One must study in order to learn.</i>
Furu lernare tyo devats studare.	<i>In order to learn one must study.</i>
Djon estats egle vyela asu Bil.	<i>John is as old as Bill.</i>
Tom pluse fondats Dik asu Hari.	<i>Tom likes Dick more than Harry (does).</i>
Tom pluse fondats Dik asku Hari.	<i>Tom likes Dick more than (he does) Harry.</i>
Dya plenizits la balono veku heliumo.	<i>He filled the balloon <u>with</u> helium.</i>
Dya pustizits la glaso veku vino.	<i>She emptied the glass <u>of</u> wine.</i>
Ezu prezidento myo apuntats Maykel Djonz ezgu judjo.	<i>As president I appoint Michael Jones as judge.</i>
Dya helpits myo umsu lernare fiziko.	<i>She helped me to learn physics.</i>
La nivo deterits myo demsu ganare.	<i>The snow deterred me from going.</i>
Dyay viadjits alu Europa viyu Island.	<i>They traveled to Europe by way of Iceland.</i>
Miza filyo zvyelats grayu nawfa anyoy.	<i>My son is nine years old.</i>
Dya kurits grayu deca kilometroy.	<i>She ran ten kilometers.</i>
Dya kurits grayu dusdeca kilometroy dwi horo.	<i>She ran at twenty kilometers per hour.</i>

2.5 Links

Like prepositions, links precede a noun, noun phrase or name to form a link phrase which modifies the noun after which it is placed. Unlike prepositional phrases, which are free to move around in the sentence, link phrases are bound to the nouns which they modify. Elementary links are recognized as being the only elementary words beginning with **j**. Links derived from prepositions are recognized by the prefix **j-** when the root of the preposition begins with a voiced consonant, the prefix **jy-** when the root begins with a vowel and the prefix **c-** when the root begins with a voiceless consonant.

2.5.1 Elementary Links

There are six elementary links in Ayola, all of which are translated as *of* in English. They are given in table 2.5.1-1, along with some examples of each.

Table 2.5.1-1

Link	Meaning	Linked Terms	Examples
ji	of	state/action → subject	kelsityo ji la zdanyo <i>tallness of the building</i> obzervajo ji humanoy <i>observation of humans</i> (humans observe)
jwi	of	doer/action → object	bibajo jwi vino <i>drinking of wine</i> obzervajo jwi humanoy <i>observation of humans</i> (humans are observed)
je	of	part → whole product → source	litso je viro <i>face of a man</i> piskoy je la oceano <i>fish of the ocean</i> suko je orango <i>juice of an orange</i> vinoy je Frans <i>wines of France</i>
jwe	of	container → contents	glaso jwe vodo <i>glass of water</i> muzeo jwe arto <i>museum of art</i>
ja	of	possessed/used thing → possessor/user	caro ja Djon <i>car of John</i> hawso ja Dik <i>house of Dick</i>
jwa	of	possessor/user, etc → possessed/used thing	viro jwa geproprieto <i>man of property</i> femo jwa dusa hundoy <i>woman of two dogs</i>

The link **ja** links a noun denoting a possessed or used thing to another noun or name that denotes the possessor or user of it, e.g. **caro ja Djon** (car of John) or **hawso ja Dik** (house of Dick).

The link **je** may link a noun denoting one entity to another denoting a larger entity which contains it, e.g. **litso je viro** (face of a man) or **piskoy je la oceano** (fish of the ocean). In addition, it may link a noun denoting one entity to another entity denoting its source, e.g. **suko je orango** (juice of an orange) or **vinoy je Frans** (wines of France).

In contrast, the link **jwe** links a noun denoting one entity to a second noun denoting its contents, e.g. **glaso jwe vodo** (glass of water) or **muzeo jwe arto** (museum of art).

Nearly everything in the physical world is a member or part of a larger entity while it, in turn, serves as a larger whole for its own members, parts or contents.

The link **ji** links a noun denoting a state/action to another noun denoting the subject of that state/action, e.g. **kelsityo ji la zdanyo** (the building is tall) and **obzervajo ji humanoy** (humans observe).

In contrast, the link **jwi** links noun denoting a state/action to another noun denoting the object of that state/action, e.g. **bibajo jwi vino** (wine is drunk) and **obzervajo jwi humanoy** (humans are observed).

In addition, **jwi** links a wide variety of nouns expressing relations such as kinship, representation, superordinate, etc. to nouns denoting the objects of these relations, e.g. **matro jwi la kindo**, **fotografuro jwi monto**, **redjo jwi Frans**.

2.5.3 Test for a Preposition vs. Link

A good test which the student may use to decide between the use of a preposition or a link is the following:

Does the prepositional phrase answer

- a) an adverbial question (where, when, why, from where, etc.)? or
- b) an adjectival question (which, what kind of)?

If it answers an adverbial question, use a preposition.

If it answers an adjectival question, use a link.

Let us apply this test to the sentence:

He read the book in the room.

Hwerve dya legits la libro? *Where did he read the book?*
Dya legits la libro enu la cambro. *He read the book (while he was) in the room.*

Hwa libro dya legits? *Which book did he read?*
Dya legits la libro iyenu la cambro. *He read the book (that was/is) in the room.*

In Ayola a prepositional phrase is free to move within a sentence. For example, the first of the above sentences may also be written as

Enu la cambro dya legits la libro. *In the room he read the book.*

In contrast to a prepositional phrase, a linked phrase is bound to follow the noun it modifies within a noun phrase and cannot move freely within a sentence. **jyenu la cambro** must always immediately follow **la libro** and cannot be moved to any other position.

2.5.2 Links Derived from Prepositions

The great majority of links are derived from prepositions by the following rules:

1. If the prepositional root begins with a voiced consonant, use a **j-** prefix: **byu** → **jbyu**, **dumu** → **jdumu**, **dekstru** → **jdekstru**, etc.
2. If the preposition root begins with a voiceless consonant, use a **c-** prefix: **postu** → **cpostu**, **propu** → **cpropu**, **furu** → **cfuru**, etc.
3. If the preposition root begins with a vowel, use a **jy-** prefix: **atu** → **jyatu**, **onu** → **jyonu**, **anstatu** → **jyanstatu**. etc.

The existence of both prepositions and links in Ayola eliminates many of the ambiguities which occur in English and other natural languages due to ambiguous reference of the preposition, i.e. the uncertainty about whether the preposition refers to a noun or a verb. Consider the following sentence:

Drive along the road from Mexico to Oquossoc.

This sentence is ambiguous because each ‘from’ and ‘to’ could modify the noun ‘road’ or the verb ‘drive’. In Ayola, we can make this association explicit:

Kondwiraw alenu la strado delu	<i>(The driving goes from</i>
Méksiko alu Okwasok.	<i>Mexico to Oquossoc.)</i>
Kondwiraw jdelu Méksiko jyalu Okwasok.	<i>(The road goes from</i>
	<i>Mexico to Oquossoc.)</i>

Often prepositions and links can occur in the same sentence.

Kondwirau alenu la strado	<i>Drive along the road</i>
jdelu Méksiko jyalu Okwasok	<i>from Mexico to Oquossoc</i>
delu Róksburi alu Bayron.	<i>from Roxbury to Byron.</i>

In Ayola, it is clear that **jdelu** and **jyalu** refer to **strado**, whereas **delu** and **alu** refer to **kondwiraw**. The intended meaning is that while the road extends from Mexico to Oquossoc, the driving only extends from Roxbury to Byron.

2.6 Numbers

The number system of Ayola is built up from basic number roots for the simple digits (0-9) and the powers of ten: 10, 100, 1000, and higher powers of 1000. These basic number roots are given in table 2.6-1.

Table 2.6-1 Basic Number Roots

Numeral	Number Root	Numeral	Number Root
0	nul-	10	dec-
1	un-	100	tcen-
2	dus-	1000	mil-
3	tres-	10 ⁶	million-
4	kwar-	10 ⁹	bilion-
5	kwin-	10 ¹²	trilion-
6	ses-		
7	sep-		
8	oc-		
9	nawf-		

Number roots of two-digit numbers have the following form:

(multiplier root)-dec- + hyphen + (addend root)

where the optional multiplier root ranges from **dus-** to **nawf-** and the optional addend root ranges from **un-** to **nawf-**. The hyphen is used to separate the tens place from the units place. Number roots of numbers having more than two digits are formed in an analogous fashion, where the multiplier root directly precedes the power-of-ten root and hyphens separate the units, tens, hundreds, thousands, etc. places.

Table 2.6-2 gives some examples of multidigit number roots.

Table 2.6-2 Examples of Multidigit Roots

Numeral	Number Root	Numeral	Number Root
47	kwardec-sep-	101	tcen-un-
88	ocdec-oc-	111	tcen-dec-un-
96	nawfdec-ses-	1000	mil-
100	tcen-	1001	mil-un-
200	dustcen-	1011	mil-dec-un-
600	sestcen-	1111	mil-tcen-dec-un-
1600	dec-ses-mil-	201,000	dustcen-un-mil-

Note that the multiplier root may in itself be complex, i.e. contains multiple number roots, as in **dec-ses-mil-** and **dustcen-un-mil-**, where the multiplier roots are **dec-ses-** and **dustcen-un-** respectively.

2.6.1 Numbers as Quantifiers

The fundamental part of speech of a number is a quantifier, i.e. a word which specifies the count of the objects denoted by the noun which it precedes. Quantifiers are recognized by the **-a** ending.

Dusa libroy onats la desko.

Two books are on the desk.

Nansi havats kwina katsoy.
 Dya pagits kwartcena dolaroy
 furu dyaza skioy.

*Nancy has five cats.
 She paid \$400 for her skis.*

2.6.2 Numbers as Nouns

The first derived part of speech of a number is a noun. These nouns are used in counting, in mathematical expressions, and in referring to numerals in a number. Number nouns are recognized by the **-o** ending.

uno, duso, treso, kwaro,...
 Duso pyu treso eglats kwino.
 Kwara poa treso eglats sesdec-kwaro.
 La numero dusdec-duso havats dusa dusoy

one, two, three, four,...
Two plus three equals 5.
 $4^3 = 64$
The number 22 has 2 twos.

2.6.3 Numbers as Multiplier Adverbs

The second derived part of speech of a number is a multiplier adverb, which denotes the multiple of a quantity in a comparative construction. Number adverbs are recognized by the **-e** ending.

John. Brus estats duse vyela asu Djon.

Bruce is twice as old as

Myo estits tcene dursta asu vu!

*I was a hundred times as
 thirsty as you!*

2.6.4 Convention for the Use of Words vs. Numerals in Ayola Text

When one wishes to refer to numbers, e.g. in a mathematical or scientific context, in dates, times, etc., one should write the numerals instead of the number words.

5 + 11 = 16	<i>5 + 11 = 16</i>
Dya adiconits 3 cwe 4.	<i>He added 3 and 4.</i>
Tidjurno estats 19 Junio 2009.	<i>Today is June 19, 2009.</i>

When one wishes to use quantifiers in noun phrases involving quantities of up to one hundred, one should write the quantifier words rather than the numerals. For quantifiers above one hundred, one should write the numerals followed by the quantifier ending **-a..**

Dze estats deca studentoy hire.	<i>There are ten students here.</i>
Tcena personoy venits.	<i>One hundred people came.</i>
Moy viadjits grayu 3000a kilometroy.	<i>We traveled 3000 kilometers.</i>

2.7 Adjectives

Adjectives usually precede a noun, a noun phrase or name, and modify it. Adjectives are recognized by the **-a** ending for descriptive adjectives and **-ay** or **-way** endings for relational adjectives. There are three elementary adjectives, two of which are discussed in this synopsis, as well as simple adjectives and complex adjectives.

2.7.1 Elementary Adjectives

The two elementary adjectives discussed in this synopsis are the interrogative adjectives **hwa** (which) and **hya** (what kind of), which refer to the identity and attributes of the modified noun respectively.

Hwa libroy vu fondats pluste bone?
Hya filmo estits dwa?

Which books do you like best?
What kind of film was it?

2.7.2 Simple Descriptive Adjectives

Descriptive adjectives denote a quality or an attribute of a person or thing denoted by the noun which they modify. Descriptive adjectives which consist of only an adjective root and the descriptive adjective ending **-a** are called fundamental adjectives. Descriptive adjectives which consist of a non-adjective (noun, verb, preposition) root and the **-a** ending are called derived descriptive adjectives. Here are some examples of fundamental adjectives:

bona	good	mala	bad
bela	beautiful	feda	ugly
granda	large	parva	small
kelsa	tall	corta	short
ruja	red	honesta	honest
verda	green	importenta	important
blua	blue		

Table 2.7.2-1 shows examples of descriptive adjectives derived from the three parts of speech from which such adjectives can be derived.

Table 2.7.2-1 Derived Descriptive Adjectives

Fundamental Part of Speech	Fundamental Form of Word	English	Derived Descriptive Adjective	English
Noun	femo kuprumo	woman copper	fema kupruma	woman copper
Verb	amare kurare	to love to run	ama kura	loving running
Preposition	overu naku	above according to	overa naka	above acting-as- source

Here are some phrases containing derived descriptive adjectives:

fema profesoro	woman professor
kupruma drato	copper wire
ama matro	loving mother
kura viro	running man
overa satso	above sentence
naka informo	acting-as-source informant

2.7.3 Relational Adjectives

Relational adjectives end in **-ay** (Type I) or **-way** (Type II) and are bound to the noun or adjective which they precede. Type I relational adjectives are derived from nouns by applying the adjectival ending **ay** to the noun root. Their equivalent noun phrases consist of two nouns whose relation with each other is expressed by the links **ji** or **je** in Ayola.

Table 2.7.3-1 Type I Relational Adjectives and Equivalent Linked Phrases

Phrase with Relational Adjective (Type I)		Equivalent Linked Phrase	
studentay instruكتاڝo	<i>student teaching</i>	instruكتاڝo ji studentoy	<i>instruction of students (students instruct)</i>
instruكتاڝo studaڝo	<i>instructor studying</i>	studaڝo ji instruكتاڝo	<i>studying of instructors (instructors study)</i>
zdanyay kelsityo	<i>building tallness</i>	kelsityo ji zdanyo	<i>tallness of a building</i>
manay fingro	<i>hand finger</i>	fingro je mano	<i>finger of a hand</i>
oceanay vodo	<i>ocean water</i>	vodo je oceano	<i>water of an ocean</i>
zdanyay kelsenso	<i>building height</i>	kelsenso je zdanyo	<i>height of a building</i>
kometeay membro	<i>committee member</i>	membro je komiteo	<i>member of a committee</i>
someray insektoy	<i>summer insects</i>	insektoy je somero	<i>insects of a summer</i>
monday lingoy	<i>world languages</i>	lingoy je mondo	<i>languages of a world</i>
urbay muzeo	<i>city museum</i>	muzeo je urbo	<i>museum of a city</i>

Type II relational adjectives are derived from nouns by applying the adjective ending **-way** to the noun root. Their equivalent noun phrases consist of two nouns whose relation with each other is expressed by the links **jwi** or **jwe** in

Ayola.

Table 2.7.3-2 Type II Relational Adjectives and Equivalent Linked Phrases

Phrase with Relational Adjective (Type II)		Equivalent Linked Phrase	
fransanway redjo	<i>French king</i>	redjo jwi fransanoy	<i>king of the French</i>
lingikway studento	<i>linguistics student</i>	studento jwi lingiko	<i>student of linguistics</i>
montway fotografuro	<i>mountain photograph</i>	fotografuro jwi monto	<i>photograph of a mountain</i>
stelway amo	<i>star lover</i>	amo jwi steloy	<i>lover of stars</i>
studentway instruktajo	<i>student instruction</i>	instruktajo jwi studentoy	<i>instruction of students</i> <i>(students are instructed)</i>
vodway botelo	<i>water(containing) bottle</i>	botelo jwe vodo	<i>bottle of water</i>
studajway cambro	<i>study room</i>	cambro jwe studajo	<i>room of studying</i>
insektway somero	<i>insect summer</i>	somero jwe insektoy	<i>summer of insects</i>
lingway mondo	<i>language world</i>	mondo jwe lingoy	<i>world of languages</i>
oceanway planeto	<i>ocean planet</i>	planeto jwe oceanoy	<i>planet of oceans</i>
piskway oceano	<i>fish ocean</i>	oceano jwe piskoy	<i>ocean of fish</i>
artway muzeo	<i>art museum</i>	muzeo jwe arto	<i>museum of art</i>

Both Type I and Type II relational adjectives may be derived from names. Type I relational adjectives are formed by adding the **-ay** ending to the name, except when the name ends in **-a**, in which case the **-a** is dropped before adding the **-ay** ending. These adjectives are equivalent to a linked phrase with one of the links **je** or **ji** and mean ‘of <name>’ where ‘of’ is interpreted to mean ‘part of’, ‘originating from’ or ‘of (as subject)’. Here are some more examples:

Myo amats lo europay urbo.	<i>I love European cities (cities of Europe).</i>
La kwarteto tokits motsartay muziko.	<i>The quartet played Mozart music (music originating from Mozart).</i>
La fransay belityo estats cakwerve.	<i>The French beauty (beauty of France) is everywhere.</i>

Type II relational adjectives are formed by adding the **-way** ending to the name in all cases. These adjectives are equivalent to a linked phrase with one of the links **jwe** or **jwi** and mean ‘of <name>’ where ‘of’ is interpreted to mean ‘containing/depicting’ or ‘of (as object)’. Note the contrast in meaning between the following sentences, which differ only in their relational adjectives:

Myo amats lo fransay muzeo.	<i>I love French museums (museums in France).</i>
Myo amats lo fransway muzeo.	<i>I love French museums (museums depicting France).</i>

Note that in several of the above examples, a noun phrase containing the generic article **lo** and a singular noun and indicating individual meaning, is translated in English by a noun phrase containing a plural noun.

In the following sentences the Type I relational adjective indicates that the person or place is the subject of the action:

La motsartay kompozajo estits gedono jbyu Bogon.	<i>Mozart's composing was a gift of God. (Mozart composes.)</i>
La jongwoay developajo estats mutce rapida.	<i>The Chinese (China's) development is very rapid. (China develops.)</i>

Note that the possessive form of the name in English may often be used to translate an Ayola relational adjective derived from a name. However, English possessive forms of names may not always be translated by relational adjectives in Ayola. When the possessive relation between a person and a thing is one of ownership or utility, there is no adjectival form in Ayola and a link phrase using the link **ja** must be used.

La hawso ja Motsart estits gedono jbyu dyaza patro.	<i>Mozart's house was a gift of his father.</i>
--	---

When an Ayola root or a name ends in either of the consonants **w** or **y**, or the vowel **u**, special variants of the normal Type II relational adjective ending must be used so as to make the word pronounceable. The three additional rules for Type II relational adjectives to cover these special cases are as follows:

1. If the root or name ends in **w** or **y**, the ending is **-uay**.
2. If the root or name ends in **u**, the ending is **-vay**.
3. For the intransitive member of a transitive/intransitive verb pair, the ending is **-uay**.

Here are some examples:

- movare (to move) (vi) → movuay (of a moving thing)
e.g. as in movwuay grupo (group of moving things)
- movware (to move) (vt) → movuay (of a mover)
e.g. as in movwuay grupo (group of movers)
- glacyo (ice) → glacyuay (of ice)
e.g. as in glacyuay bwato (ice box)
- kanuo (canoe) → kanuvay (of a canoe)
e.g. as in kanuvay hawso (canoe house)

2.8 Adverbs

Adverbs modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. When adverbs modify a verb, they are free to move about in the sentence. Position is governed mainly by considerations of emphasis and style. When adverbs modify an adjective or another adverb, they must occur directly before it and are bound to it. Adverbs are recognized by the **-e** ending. There are nine elementary adverbs, seven of which are discussed in this synopsis, as well as simple and complex adverbs. All non-elementary adverbs are derived from another part of speech.

2.8.1 Elementary Adverbs

The six elementary adverbs discussed in this synopsis are those listed in Table 2.8.1-1

Table 2.8.1-1 Interrogative Adverbs

Adverb		Equivalent Prepositional Phrase	
Ayola	English	Ayola	English
hwe	how?	grayu hwo	to what degree?

hye	how?	(none)	in what manner?
hwande	when?	atu hwo efu hwo	at what point in time? in what region of time?
hwerve	where?	ayu hwo enu hwo	at what point in space, etc.? in what region of space, etc.?
hworde	how?	medu hwo	by what method?
hworfe	why?	kawsu hwo furu hwo	because of what? for what purpose?

Note that all interrogative adverbs except for **hye** have (an) equivalent prepositional phrase (s). Here are some examples illustrating their use:

Hwe vyela estats tata arboro?	<i>How old is that tree?</i>
Hye dya kantits la ario?	<i>How (in what manner) did she sing the aria?</i>
Hworde dya kantats tata alta nwotoy?	<i>How (by what method) does she sing those high notes?</i>
Hwande ce hwerve la konserto okazuts?	<i>When and where will the concert take place?</i>

2.8.3 Relative Adverbs

The relative adverb is **kye** (*how/when/where/why/that*). Note that the meaning of **kye** is clearly indicated by the meaning of the noun which precedes it. For example, when **kye** follows **metodo** it means ‘by which’; when it follows **razono** it means ‘why’, etc. It has many translations depending on the noun which it follows.

La metodo kye dya nadits estits ekstraordinarya.	<i>The method by which he swam was extraordinary.</i>
Mark dicits alu myo la razono kye dyay empregits myo.	<i>Mark told me the reason why they hired me.</i>
La degreeo kye dya kreskits dumu una anyo surprizats myo.	<i>The degree to which he grew in one year surprises me.</i>
La maniero kye dya tokits platicits cakyoy.	<i>The manner in which she played pleased everybody.</i>
Dya departuts efu la djurno kye dya arivuts.	<i>She will leave on the day when he arrives.</i>
Myo sabats la lwoko kye dya studits.	<i>I know the place where she studied.</i>

Sometimes **kye** may be translated as ‘that’ in English.

2.8.2 Simple Adverbs

Simple adverbs are always derived from another part of speech, namely an adjective, a verb or a preposition. Adverbs derived from adjectives usually

indicate the manner in which, or the degree to which an action is done; adverbs derived from verbs indicate the manner in which an action is done; adverbs derived from prepositions indicate the place, time, purpose, etc. of an action. Table 2.8.2-1 shows examples of the adverbs derived from the three parts of speech from which they can be derived.

Table 2.8.2-1 Adverbs Derived from Three Other Parts of Speech

Fundamental Part of Speech	Fundamental Form of Word	English	Derived Adverb	English
Adjective	bona ekstrema	good extreme	bone ekstreme	well well
Verb	amare vwelare	to love to want	ame vwele	lovingly willingly
Preposition	overu furu	over for	overe fure	above purposefully

2.9 Names and Titles

Names from other languages can be approximated by the string of Ayola sounds which is closest to the native pronunciation by using the twenty-eight symbols of the Ayola alphabet along with the acute accent (´) indicating irregular stress (stress not on the next-to-the-last syllable) and the grave accent (`) indicating the absence of stress. This Ayola phonetic approximation of a foreign name is usually identical or nearly identical in sound to the native version; however, sometimes the approximation is noticeably different in sound because the Basic Alphabet cannot incorporate all the sounds of the natural languages. From the phonetic approximations of the names relational adjectives and nouns can be derived which function identically to those derived from Ayola words.

In addition, Ayola provides a method of deriving names from its own words using the **-n** word ending. These derived names may be combined with each other or with proper names to form multi-word complex Ayola names, which serve as Ayola translations of foreign names.

2.9.1 Single-Word Names: Proper Names

Single-word proper names are words which designate persons, places, geographical features, teams, etc. but have no semantic content.

Table 2.9.1-1 Examples of Proper Names

Native Version of Name	Ayola Approximation Using Basic Alphabet
<i>Antonio</i>	Antonyo

<i>Maria</i>	Maria
<i>Dave</i>	Deyv
<i>Carlos</i>	Karlos
<i>Barbara</i>	Bárbara
<i>Cousteau</i>	Kùsto
<i>Bach</i>	Bak
<i>Smith</i>	Smit
<i>Blithe</i>	Blayd
<i>Washington</i>	Wácinton
<i>DuPont</i>	Dùpont

2.9.2 Single-Word Names: Derived Names

Single-word derived names are formed by adding an **-n** to an Ayola noun and capitalizing it. The noun may be a fundamental noun, like **sinyoro** (*mister*) or a derived noun like **belo** (*beautiful one*) or **amo** (*lover*).

sinyoro → Sinyoron	<i>mister</i> → <i>Mister</i>
profesoro → Profesoron	<i>professor</i> → <i>Professor</i>
lundo → Lundon	<i>monday</i> → <i>Monday</i>
belo → Belon	<i>beauty</i> → <i>Beauty</i>
amo → Amon	<i>lover</i> → <i>Lover</i>
geamo → Geamon	<i>beloved</i> → <i>Beloved</i>

2.9.3 Multi-Word Names: Strings of Proper Names

Proper names may be combined in sequence to form a multi-word string of proper names. These strings may contain two names:

<i>George Washington</i>	Djordj Wácinton
<i>Noam Chomsky</i>	Noam Tcomski
<i>Charles Darwin</i>	Tcarlz Darwin
<i>Albert Einstein</i>	Albert Aynctayn

Or three names:

<i>George Washington Carver</i>	Djordj Wácinton Karver
<i>Charles Robert Darwin</i>	Tcarlz Robert Darwin

Multi-word names may also include a variety of word types from the native language such as singular and plural nouns, articles, adjectives, prepositions, connectives and possessive forms. In the Ayola approximation these words are also represented as closely as possible, just as proper names are.

<i>Mount Washington</i>	Mawnt Wácinton
<i>Mississippi River</i>	Misisipi River

<i>Honest Abe</i>	Onest Eyb
<i>Silicon Valley</i>	Silikon Vali
<i>(The) Red Sox</i>	Red Soks
<i>Croton on the Hudson</i>	Kroton On Hadson
<i>Manchester-by-the-Sea</i>	Mantcester Bay Da Si
<i>Trinidad and Tobago</i>	Trinidad And Tobeygo
<i>(The) United States of America</i>	Yunayted Steyts Av Amérika
<i>Wendy's Restaurant</i>	Wendiz Restorant

There is no grammar in the Ayola approximation. Each word is simply one component of a multi-word name string.

In forming the Ayola phonetic approximation to foreign names the treatment of names with articles deserves special comment. In the most common case, the native definite article is used in order to distinguish the name from an indefinite or generic noun phrase in speech.

I love the Red Sox. vs. *I love red socks.*
I saw the Tigers in Detroit. vs. *I saw tigers in Detroit.*

However, the definite article may often be omitted.

Red Sox defeat Tigers 8-2.
The final score was Red Sox 8 and Tigers 2.

In this case the definite article is omitted in the Ayola phonetic approximation since names such as **Red Soks** and **Taygerz** are clearly names. Noun phrases would be expressed in Ayola words.

Myo amats Red Soks.	<i>I love the Red Sox.</i>
Myo amats lo ruja soko.	<i>I love red socks</i>
Myo vidits Taygerz enu Ditroyt.	<i>I saw the Tigers in Detroit.</i>
Myo vidits tigroy enu Ditroyt.	<i>I saw tigers in Detroit.</i>

A second case is where the native definite article is used internally in a complex name such as 'Manchester-by-the-Sea'. In this case the article is not used to distinguish the name from a noun phrase but to definitize an internal word, e.g. 'sea', and it must be included in the Ayola phonetic approximation. English 'the' is approximated by **da**.

Manchester-by-the-Sea → **Mantcester Bay Da Si**

A third case is where a non-native definite article is used in a foreign name such as the English names 'Los Angeles' and 'Las Vegas', where the definite articles 'Los' and 'Las' are taken from Spanish. In this case the article words are already treated not as articles but simply as parts of the name in English and must also be treated as such in Ayola.

Los Angeles → **Los Ándjeles**
Las Vegas → **Las Vegas**

2.9.4 Multi-word Names: Strings of Derived Names

Derived names may be combined in sequence to form a multi-word name.

Sinyoron Katson	<i>Mister Cat</i>
Ruton Treson	<i>Route Three</i>
Matron Anseron	<i>Mother Goose</i>

2.9.5 Multi-word Names: Combinations of Proper Names and Derived Names

Proper names and derived names may also be combined together in sequence to form a multi-word name. The name derived from the noun denoting the category, e.g.

Madamon, Profesoron must precede the proper name. Descriptive derived names, e.g. **Unton, Martelon** follow the proper name in the sequence.

Madamon Smit	<i>Mrs. Smith</i>
Profesoron Djaylz	<i>Professor Giles</i>
Monton Wácinton	<i>Mount Washington</i>
Stradon Wácinton	<i>Washington Street</i>
Redjinon Elízabet Unton	<i>Queen Elizabeth the First</i>
Redjon Tcarlz Martelon	<i>King Charles the Hammer</i>
Rivron Tcarlz	<i>The Charles River</i>

2.9.6 Adjective/Quantifier–Noun Names

Adjective/quantifier-noun names are formed by adding an **-n** to both the adjective or quantifier preceding a noun and to the noun. Here are some examples:

Honestan Eyb	<i>Honest Abe</i>
Eylwayfwayn Rivron	<i>Alewife River</i>
Alban Hawson	<i>The White House</i>
Dusan Ventoyrn	<i>Two Winds (vacation house)</i>

2.9.7 Linked-Noun-Phrase Names

Linked-noun-phrase names are formed out of a linked noun phrase. If a link connects two names, either proper or derived, it is interpreted as part of the name and it is capitalized. Note that links, as well as articles, do not take the **-n** ending.

Mantcester Jyapudu La Maron	<i>Manchester-By-The-Sea (town)</i>
Restoranton Ja Wendi	<i>Wendy's Restaurant</i>
Gedonon Jyalu Amikon	<i>Gift to a Friend (shop)</i>

If it is intended that the linked phrase not be part of the name, but simply a modifying phrase used to specify a particular object out of a set of several objects having the same name, then the definite article is placed before the name and the specifying link is not capitalized.

la Mantcester Jyapudu La Maron jyenu Masatcusetts	<i>the Manchester-By-The-Sea in Massachusetts</i>
la Restoranton Ja Wendi cfrentu myoza hawso	<i>the Wendy's Restaurant in front of my house</i>

2.9.8 Titles

In English and other natural languages names may sometimes serve as titles of another category, i.e. the name of a person may also serve as the title of a book, movie, or play. As titles they are enclosed in quotes and may be preceded by the category word to eliminate any ambiguity.

Myo fondats Hamlet.	<i>I like (the man) Hamlet.</i>
Myo fondats la dramo 'Hamlet'.	<i>I like the play Hamlet.</i>
Myo fondats la filmo 'Hamlet'.	<i>I like the movie Hamlet.</i>
Myo vidits Cikago.	<i>I saw (the city) Chicago.</i>
Myo vidits la muzikalo 'Cikago'.	<i>I saw the musical Chicago.</i>
Myo vidits la filmo 'Cikago'.	<i>I saw the movie Chicago.</i>

Titles of books, movies, plays, etc. can sometimes be much longer and can be entire sentences. In Ayola, in writing, the Ayola phonetic approximation of these titles are enclosed in single quotation marks and every word is capitalized.

'Mister Smit Gowz Tu Wácinton'	Mister Smith Goes to Washington (<i>film</i>)
'Da Devil Werz Prada'	The Devil Wears Prada (<i>film</i>)

These quotation marks may be optionally spoken as **zitwi** (*quote*) and **zityu** (*unquote*) when desired for emphasis. However, as in the natural languages, usually the quotation marks are not explicitly spoken and the title is recognized by the presence of a preceding category word, e.g. **libro** (*book*), **dramo** (*play*), **filmo** (*movie*), etc.

<i>I saw the film</i> Mister Smith Goes to Washington.	Myo vidits la filmo 'Mister Smit Gowz Tu Wácinton.'
<i>She loved the movie</i> The Devil Wears Prada.	Dya amits la filmo 'Da Devil Werz Prada.'

Myo vidits la filmo 'Mister Smit Gowz Tu Wácinton.'	<i>I saw the film</i> Mister Smith Goes to Washington.
Dya amits la filmo 'Da Devil Werz Prada.'	<i>She loved the movie</i> The Devil Wears Prada.

Ayola translations of titles of books, movies, plays, etc. are indicated as titles by placing the entire word, phrase or sentence in single quotes as discussed above for foreign titles. No **-n**'s are added to the words.

‘Sinyoron Smit Ganats Alu Wácinton’	Mister Smith Goes to Washington (<i>film</i>)
‘La Diablo Trazats Pradwoy’	The Devil Wears Prada (<i>film</i>)

As discussed above, usually the quotation marks are not explicitly spoken and the title is recognized by the presence of a preceding category word, e.g. **libro** (*book*), **dramo** (*play*), **filmo** (*movie*), etc.

Myo vidits la filmo ‘Sinyoron Smit Ganats Alu Wácinton.’	<i>I saw the film</i> Mister Smith Goes to Washington.
Dya amits la filmo ‘La Diablo Trazats Pradwoy.’	<i>She loved the movie</i> The Devil Wears Prada.

2.9.7 Summary: Two Ways of Representing Complex Foreign Names

The table below shows a comparison of the Ayola phonetic approximations and the Ayola translations of several complex foreign names taken from English.

Table 2.9.7-1 Two Ways of Representing Complex Foreign Names

Foreign Name	Ayola Phonetic Approximation	Ayola Translation
Mount Washington	Mawnt Wácinton	Monton Wácinton
Mississippi River	Misisipi River	Rivron Misisipi
Honest Abe	Onest Eyb	Honestan Eyb
Silicon Valley	Silikon Vali	Silikonwayn Valeon
(The) Red Sox	Red Soks	Rujan Sokoyñ
Croton on Hudson	Kroton On Hadson	Kroton Jyapudu Hadson
Manchester-by-the-Sea	Mantcester Bay Da Si	Mantcester Jyapudu La Maron
Trinidad and Tobago	Trinidad And Tobeygo	Trinidad Ceyi Tobeygo
(The) United States of America	Yunayted Steyts Av Amérika	Geunizinton Steytoyn Je Amérika
Wendy’s Restaurant	Wendiz Restorant	Restoranton Ja Wendi

Both versions of the name are available to an Ayola speaker. The version used would depend on the context. Two native English speakers would probably prefer to use the phonetic approximation, since they are both familiar with the meaning of the names. However, if a native English speaker were communicating in Ayola to a native speaker of another language unfamiliar with English he might prefer to use the Ayola translation in order to communicate better the meaning of the name.

Part III

3.1 Negation

3.1.1 Negation of Terms

To negate terms i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc., the negation word **no** is placed before the word to be negated. Any part of speech can be negated in Ayola.

Myo amats lo lingo. *I love languages.*
Myo no amats lo lingo. *I do not love languages.*

Moy kantantits rapide coe felitce. *We were singing rapidly but happily.*
Moy kantantits rapide coe no felitce. *We were singing rapidly but not happily.*

La torto gemandjits byu moy. *The pie was eaten by us.*
La torto gemandjits no byu moy. *The pie was eaten not by us.*

Cakyo vidits la filmo. *Everyone saw the movie.*
No cakyo vidits la filmo. *Not everyone saw the movie.*

Dyaza frato estats stanka ce trista. *Her brother is tired and sad.*
Dyaza frato estats stanka coe no trista. *Her brother is tired but not sad.*

3.1.2 Negation of Sentences

In order to negate an entire sentence, the sentence negation word **Nio** is placed at the beginning of the sentence.

Dya spendits mutca moneo. *She spent a lot of money.*
Nio dya spendits mutca moneo. *It is not the case that she spent a lot of money.*

The need for both negation words arises in cases such as the one below:

Myo no ludits dumu una semana. *I did not play during one week.*
Nio myo ludits dumu una semana. *It is not the case that I played during one week.*

In the first sentence the word **no** negates only the verb **ludits** and the speaker means that he/she did not play for a whole week (took the week off), whereas in the second sentence the word **Nio** negates the entire sentence so the speaker means that it is not the case that he/she played for one whole week.

3.2 Questions

3.2.1 Questions with Head Words

One way to form questions in Ayola is by using one of the two head words, viz. **ey** and **ea**. The head word **ey** always begins a question that anticipates a yes/no answer, whereas the head word **ea** begins a question that anticipates a choice answer.

Table 3.2-2 Head Words

Head Word	English	Ayola	English
Ey ...?	<i>Do/does ...?</i>	Ey voy vwelats lernare Ayola?	<i>Do you want to learn Ayola?</i>
Ea ...?	<i>Do/does ...?</i>	Ea moy ganats efu Saturndon caw efu Sundon? Ea vu studentats fiziko cay kimiko?	<i>Do we go on Saturday or on Sunday? Are you studying physics or chemistry (or both)?</i>

3.2.2 Questions with Tail Phrases

Tail phrases can be used to convert a statement or request into a question by asking the speaker to commit to it. There are two tail phrases, viz. **ey now** and **ey ya**. **ey now** is used to convert an affirmative statement into an interrogative statement. **ey ya** converts a negative statement into an interrogative one.

Dyay sidyits enu la parko, ey now?	They sat in the park, didn't they?
Voy no darfats bibare lo vino, ey ya?	You don't drink wine, do you?
Dyay besantits, ey now?	They were kissing, weren't they?

If the declarative statement is affirmative, **ey now** should be used; if the declarative statement is negative, **ey ya** should be used.

3.3 Connectives

A connective is a word that connects words, phrases or clauses within a sentence or a sentence to previous discourse. When it connects clauses to form a longer sentence, a connective acts in the same manner as a conjunction.

3.3.1 Coordinating Connectives

Coordinating connectives connect words, phrases or clauses of equal status. They must appear in the medial position between the words, phrases or clauses which they connect. There are six coordinating connectives in Ayola, all of which are elementary words, which are listed Table 3.3.1-1.

Table 3.3.1-1 Coordinating Connectives

ce	<i>and</i>
ceyi	<i>and... together (=ce + occurring together)</i>
ceyu	<i>and then (=ce + occurring in sequence)</i>
cay	<i>or (inclusive), and/or</i>
caw	<i>or (exclusive)</i>
coe	<i>but</i>

ce is the basic coordinating connective indicating logical conjunction. A sentence containing terms connected by **ce** is equivalent to the connection of two sentences, the first of which contains the first connected term and the second of which contains the second connected term. Here are some examples in which **ce** connects nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositional phrases, and clauses.

Cirli mandjuts aploy ce kruckoy.	<i>Shirley will eat apples and pears.</i>
Cirli ce myo mandjuts ce bibuts.	<i>Shirley and I will eat and drink.</i>
La licamika ce felitca viro parlits alu myo.	<i>The friendly and happy man spoke to me.</i>
Dya kurits delenu la hawso ce alenu la garadjo.	<i>She ran out of the house and into the garage.</i>
Cirli mandjuts aploy ce myo bibuts vino.	<i>Shirley will eat apples and I will drink wine.</i>

Here are some examples in which **ce** connects subjects, verbs, and direct objects.

Lutciano ce Tcetcelya kantits la kansiono. = Lutciano kantits la kansiono ce Tcetcelya kantits la kansiono.	<i>Luciano and Cecelia sang the song. = Luciano sang the song and Cecelia sang the song.</i>
Tcetcelya kantits ce swonits la kansiono. = Tcetcelya kantits la kansiono ce Tcetcelya swonits la kansiono.	<i>Cecelia sang and played the song. = Cecelia sang the song and Cecelia played the song.</i>
Lutciano kantits la kansiono ce la ario. = Lutciano kantits la kansiono ce Lutciano kantits la ario.	<i>Luciano sang the song and the aria. = Luciano sang the song and Luciano sang the aria.</i>

These sentences using **ce** state in a compact way that the two events occurred but do not specify whether they occurred together or in sequence. If we wish to specify this additional information we may do so by using **ceyi** or **ceyu**.

Lutciano ceyi Tcetcelya kantits la kansiono.	<i>Luciano and Cecelia sang the song together.</i>
---	--

Lutciano ceyu Tcetcelya kantits la kansiono.	<i>Luciano and then Cecelia sang the song.</i>
Tcetcelya kantits ceyi swonits la kansiono.	<i>Cecelia sang and played the song together.</i>
Tcetcelya kantits ceyu swonits la kansiono.	<i>Cecelia sang and then played the song.</i>
Lutciano kantits la kansiono ceyu la ario.	<i>Luciano sang the song and then the aria.</i>

Note that if the last sentence contained **la kansiono ceyi la ario** it would describe a physical impossibility. Not every combination of connected terms describes a physically possible event. Sentences containing terms connected by **ceyi** and **ceyu** are also equivalent to a connection of two sentences.

Lutciano kantits la kansiono ceyi Tcetcelya kantits la kansiono.	<i>Luciano sang the song and Cecelia sang the song together.</i>
Lutciano kantits la kansiono ceyu Lutciano kantits la ario.	<i>Luciano sang the song and then Luciano sang the aria.</i>

cay and **caw** are the basic coordinating connectives indicating logical alternation. **cay** indicates inclusive alternation and **caw** indicates exclusive alternation. Here are some examples in which **cay** and **caw** connect nouns, prepositional phrases, and clauses.

Myo vwelats mandjare aploy cay bananoy.	<i>I want to eat apples and/or bananas.</i>
Efu tisa postmidago moy povats ganare alu muzeo cay alu pladjo.	<i>This afternoon we can go to a museum and/or to a beach.</i>
Efu tisa postmidago moy povats ganare alu muzeo cay moy povats repozare enu pladjo.	<i>This afternoon we can go to a museum and/or we can lie on the beach.</i>
Myo vwelats mandjare aplo caw orango.	<i>I want to eat an apple or an orange.</i>
Efu tinakto moy povats ganare alu teatro caw alu restoranto.	<i>Tonight we can go to a theater or to a restaurant.</i>
Efu tinakto moy povats ganare alu teatro caw moy povats restare enhayme.	<i>Tonight we can go to a theater or we can stay at home.</i>

coe is the basic coordinating connective indicating logical conjunction with contrast. **coe** often occurs with the negative word **no** either as the adjacent pair **coe no** or as the separated words **no... coe** within a sentence. Here are some examples in which **coe** connects nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases, and clauses.

Myo bezonats no kalkulato coe komputero.	<i>I need not a calculator but a computer.</i>
Myo estats stanka coe felitca.	<i>I am tired but happy.</i>
Dya ganits alu la lyako coe no alu la oceano.	<i>He went to the lake but not to the ocean.</i>
Dya ganits no alu la lyako coe alu la oceano.	<i>He went not to the lake but to the ocean.</i>
Myo estats stanka coe myo estats felitca.	<i>I am tired but I am happy.</i>

A

A coordinating connective pair consists of two words: an initial word which occurs before the connected terms or clauses and a medial word which occurs between them. In four cases, the medial word is one of the coordinating connectives described above and the initial word is derived from it by prefixing **e-**. In the fifth case, both the initial and medial words are distinct elementary words.

Table 3.3.1-2 Coordinating Connective Pairs

ece .. ce ..	<i>both .. and ..</i>
ecay .. cay ..	<i>either (inclusive) .. or ..</i>
ecaw .. caw ..	<i>either (exclusive) .. or ..</i>
ecoe .. coe ..	<i>(contrastingly) .. but ..</i>
neoy .. noy ..	<i>neither .. nor ..</i>

In all cases, the initial word cannot stand alone and must be used in combination with the medial word. The medial words **ce**, **cay**, **caw**, and **coe** can stand alone as connectives. The medial word **noy** cannot stand alone because the initial word **neoy** is needed in order to negate the first term.

Here are some examples of the connective pairs:

Ece dya ce dyo venits alu la festo.	<i>Both she and he came to the party.</i>
Mandjaw ecay la salato cay la supo.	<i>Eat either the salad or the soup or both.</i>
Mandjaw ecaw la salato caw la supo.	<i>Eat either the salad or the soup.</i>
Dya estats ecoe vyela coe forta.	<i>He is (contrastingly) old but strong.</i>
Neoy la viroy noy la femoy vwelats kantare.	<i>Neither the men nor the women want to sing.</i>

Correlative connectives serve two functions. First, they can resolve ambiguities resulting from the occurrence of two or more connectives within a single sentence.

Djon **caw** Dik **ce** Bil helputs myo. *John or Dick and Bill will help me.*

This sentence is as ambiguous in Ayola as it is in English because the grouping of the connected entities is unclear. The ambiguity can be clarified with the use of coordinating connective pairs. Note that the grouping is the same in sentences (1) and (3).

(1) E caw Djon caw Dik ce Bil helputs myo.	<i>Either John or (Dick and Bill) will help me.</i>
(2) E ce Djon caw Dik ce Bil helputs myo.	<i>Both (John or Dick) and Bill will help me.</i>
(3) Djon caw e ce Dik ce Bil helputs myo.	<i>John or both Dick and Bill will help me.</i>

Second, coordinating connective pairs serve to alert the listener that a connection is about to occur. Compare the following sentences:

Dya estats bela **ce** inteligenta. *She is beautiful and intelligent.*
Dya estats **e**ce bela **ce** inteligenta. *She is both beautiful and intelligent.*

Dya fondats lo aplo **ce** lo orango. *She likes apples and oranges.*
Dya fondats **e**ce lo aplo **ce** lo orango. *She likes both apples and oranges.*

Although the meaning of each member of each pair of sentences is identical, the listener knows that in the second member the speaker intends to make a connection before the word **bela** or **aplo** is uttered. In addition, because **e**ce is distinct from **ce**, the listener knows after hearing **e**ce that the speaker is initiating a new connection rather than connecting the verb **fondats** with another verb.

3.3.2 Subordinating Connectives

A subordinating connective introduces a conditional clause which together with a main clause forms a sentence. The subordinating connective and the conditional clause may either begin the sentence or follow the main clause. When the connective and the conditional clause begin the sentence, a comma must be inserted before the main clause. There are five subordinating connectives in Ayola, all of which are elementary words.

Table 3.3.2-1 Subordinating Connectives

ci	<i>if</i>	cnoci	<i>whether-or-not</i>
cu	<i>only-if</i>	nici	<i>unless</i>
ciyu	<i>if-and-only-if</i>		

Myo luduts ci la vetero estuts bona.	<i>I will play if the weather is good.</i>
Ci la vetero estuts bona, myo luduts.	<i>If the weather is good, I will play.</i>
Myo luduts cu la vetero estuts bona.	<i>I will play only-if the weather is good.</i>
Ciyu la vetero estuts bona, myo luduts.	<i>If-and-only-if the weather is good, I will play.</i>
Myo luduts cnoci la vetero estuts bona.	<i>I will play whether-or-not the weather is good.</i>
Myo luduts nici la vetero estuts mala.	<i>I will play unless the weather is bad.</i>

3.4 Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word that conjoins clauses within a sentence. There is one elementary conjunction, which is not discussed in this synopsis, and numerous compound conjunctions. All conjunctions end with **-ke**.

3.4.1 Conjunctions Derived from Prepositions

Compound conjunctions are created by joining preposition roots to the truth-affirming clausal word **ke**. They may appear in either medial or initial positions within a sentence.

Dyay dansits **kawske** myo kantits. *They danced because I sang.*
Moy kantits **postke** la festo finits. *We sang after the party was over.*

Kawske myo kantits, dyay dansits. *Because I sang, they danced.*
Postke la festo finits, moy kantits. *After the party was over, we sang.*

Table 3.4.1-1 Common Compound Conjunctions

Ayola Preposition	English	Ayola Conjunction	English
antesu	<i>before</i>	anteske	<i>before</i>
postu	<i>after</i>	postke	<i>after</i>
dumu	<i>during</i>	dumke	<i>while</i>
sinsu	<i>since</i>	sinske	<i>since</i>
djisu	<i>until</i>	djiske	<i>until</i>
medu	<i>by means of</i>	medke	<i>(by means of that)</i>
furu	<i>in order to</i>	furke	<i>in order that</i>
kawsu	<i>because of</i>	kawske	<i>because</i>
trotsu	<i>in spite of</i>	trotske	<i>although</i>
pwaru	<i>in return for</i>	pwarke	<i>(in return for that)</i>
anstatu	<i>instead of</i>	anstatke	<i>(instead of that)</i>

vonu	<i>about</i>	vonke	<i>(about that)</i>
------	--------------	-------	---------------------

Here are some examples of the common compound conjunctions listed in the table:

Myo mandjits anteske dya mandjits.	<i>I ate before he ate.</i>
Myo enletihits postke dya enletihits.	<i>I went to bed after he went to bed.</i>
Dumke dya dormits, myo legits.	<i>While she slept, I read.</i>
Sinske dya arivits, moy farintats multa cozoy.	<i>Since she arrived, we have done many things.</i>
Djiske dya departats, moy geokuputs.	<i>Until she leaves, we will be busy.</i>
Medke myo uzits komputero, myo farits la gepraco mutce pluse rapide.	<i>By using a computer, I did my work much more rapidly.</i>
Furke voy awdats bone, sidyaw pluse nire.	<i>In order that you hear well, sit closer.</i>
Kawske dwa pluvetcits, myo no ganits.	<i>Because it rained, I didn't go.</i>
Trotske dwa nivetcits, myo ganits.	<i>Although it snowed, I went.</i>
Pwarke vu faruts la tabeloy, myo skributs la teksto.	<i>In return for your doing the tables, I will write the text.</i>
Anstatke moy mandjuts enhayme, ye moy mandjaw enu restoranto.	<i>Instead of our eating at home, let's eat at a restaurant.</i>
Myo estats felitca vonke dya lernantats Ayola rapide.	<i>I am happy that she is learning Ayola quickly.</i>

The English translations given in parenthesis in Table 3.4.1-1 are literal translations of the Ayola but would not be used in correct grammatical English. Instead, a gerundive construction or just the conjunction 'that' would be used, as in the following phrases:

medke myo uzits komputero ...	<i>by using a computer ...</i>
pwarke vu faruts la tabeloy ...	<i>in return for your doing the tables ...</i>
anstatke moy mandjats enhayme ...	<i>instead of our eating at home ...</i>
myo estats felitca vonke ...	<i>I am happy that ...</i>

Four Ayola conjunctions deserve special comment, namely the equivalents of the English words 'when' and 'where', functioning as conjunctions. They are given in table 3.4.1-2. What makes these conjunctions special is that in English, 'when' and 'where' function not only as conjunctions, but also both as interrogative adverbs and clausal words. Therefore, one must be careful to recognize those instances when they are functioning as conjunctions and should be translated as **atke, ayke, efke** and **enke**.

Table 3.4.1-2 Temporal and Spatial Conjunctions

Ayola Preposition	English	Ayola Conjunction	English
atu	<i>at temporal point</i>	atke	<i>when (at the same temporal point as)</i>
ayu	<i>at spatial point</i>	ayke	<i>where (at the same spatial point as)</i>
efu	<i>in temporal region</i>	efke	<i>when (in the same temporal region as)</i>
enu	<i>in spatial region</i>	enke	<i>where (in the same spatial region as)</i>

See the examples:

Myo departuts atke vu departuts.	<i>I will leave when you leave.</i>
La funciono havats deklivo nulo ayke dwa tucats la akso.	<i>The function has a slope of zero where it touches the axis.</i>
Efke vu parlats lente, myo komprenats caka vorto.	<i>When you speak slowly, I understand every word.</i>
Enke dze estats fumo, dze estats fayro.	<i>Where there's smoke, there's fire.</i>