Grammar of the Danetian Language

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Contents

1	Inti	roduction	3
2	Pho	onology	3
	2.1	Phoneme Inventory	3
	2.2	Spelling	4
	2.3	Phonotactics	4
	2.4	Syllable Interactions	5
	2.5	Syllabification	5
	2.6	Accent	5
3	Noı	ins	5
	3.1	First Declension (I)	5
	3.2	Second Declension (II)	6
	3.3	Third Declension (III)	7
	3.4	Identifying Noun Class	9
4	\mathbf{Adj}	ectives	10
5	Nu	merals	10
	5.1	Cardinals	10
	5.2	Ordinals	13
	5.3	Adverbials	14
	5.4	Inflection of Numeral Phrases	14
	5.5	Inflection of Ordinals	14
6	Pro	nouns	15
	6.1	Personal Pronouns	15
	6.2	Demonstratives	16
	6.3	Possessive Pronouns	17
7	Ver	bs	17
	7.1	Inflection of Non-Personal Forms	21
	7.2	Imperative and Subjunctive	22

8	Adverbs	22
9	Prepositions	22
10	Conjunctions	23
11	Derivational Morphology	24
12	Syntax	25
	12.1 Standard Word Order	25
	12.2 Copula Omission	25
	12.3 Possession	25
	12.4 Definiteness	26
	12.5 Interrogatives	26
	12.6 Ability	26
	12.7 Comparison	27
	12.8 Negation	27

1 Introduction

Danetian is an Indo-European language, belonging to the centum-branch. It has inherited a rich inflectional morphology from its parent language. There are nine classes of words: nouns, adjectives, numbers, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Nouns can possess one of three genders, and decline according to seven cases and two numbers. Verbs conjugate according to six tenses, three moods, and two voices, along with the usual three persons and two numbers. Moreover, they possess a couple of impersonal forms which share properties with nouns and adjectives.

Even though a single word can have hundreds of different forms, the grammar is fairly regular. Nouns decline according to about a dozen paradigms. Verbs conjugate according to just two paradigms. There is only one irregular verb in the whole language: the copula.

Being a highly inflectional language, the word order is quite free. The order of the words in a sentence can be shifted in order to emphasize different words. Nevertheless, SOV is the most natural order.

2 Phonology

2.1 Phoneme Inventory

	Labial	Coronal	Palatal	Velar
Aspirated Plosive	p^{h}	$ m t^h$		k ^h
Tenuis Plosive	p	\mathbf{t}		k
Voiced Plosive	b	d		g
Nasal	m	n		(ŋ)
Fricative		s		
Trill		r		
Approximant		1	j	w

Table 1: Phonemic chart for consonant phonemes in Danetian. Allophones are enclosed in parentheses.

Danetian has 16 consonant phonemes: nine plosives, one fricative, and six sonorants (see table 1). The plosives are characterized by their place of articulation (labial, dental, or velar) and their voice-onset time (aspirated, tenuis, or voiced). The sonorant inventory is comprised of two nasals (/m/, /n/), two liquids (/l/, /r/), and two semivowels (/j/, /w/). The velar nasal /n/ is an allophone of /n/ before velar plosives. Danetian distinguishes between single and double consonants; for instance, $/p \ k^h \ s \ r/$ are distinct from $/p : k^h : s : r :/$.

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i		u
Mid	e		О
Open		a	

Table 2: Phonemic chart for vowel phonemes in Danetian.

There are five vowel phonemes: /a e i o u/. However, Danetian also distinguishes between long and short vowels. Thus, /a/ is distinct from /az/. The vowels are summarized in table 2.

2.2 Spelling

For convenience, each sound will be represented by a single letter. We will use a modified form of the Greek alphabet: abgde ϑ ijklmnoprstuw φ x. Every letter corresponds to its equivalent sound in the International Phonetic Alphabet, with the exception of the aspirated plosives: $[\varphi \vartheta x]$ represent the sounds $/p^h t^h k^h/$, respectively. Long vowels are marked by a macron (e.g. \bar{a}).

2.3 Phonotactics

A syllable has three parts: an onset, a nucleus, and a coda. Every syllable is required to have a nucleus; the other parts are optional.

The nucleus always contains a vowel. Optionally, this vowel can be preceded by a semivowel (j, w). If the vowel is short, it can also be followed by a semivowel. However, if a long vowel is followed by a semivowel, the vowel is shortened. For instance, $\bar{a}j > aj$.

If u is adjacent to w, then the combination becomes \bar{u} . Similarly, if i is adjacent to j, the sound pair is reduced to $\bar{\iota}$.

The onset can be any consonant, excluding semivowels (since these are considered part of the nucleus). If this consonant happens to be a plosive, then it can be followed by a liquid (e.g. br, bl). If the consonant happens to be a tenuis plosive (p, t, k), then it can be followed by s. An s in the onset cannot be followed by another consonant. For instance, the word "star" is phonotactically invalid.

The coda can be any consonant except the aspirated plosives (ϕ, ϑ, x) . If the consonant is not a voiced plosive (b, d, g), then it can be followed by s. If the consonant is a tenuis plosive (p, t, k), then it can be preceded by s. If the consonant is not a nasal (m, n), then it can be preceded by a liquid. If the consonant is a plosive, then it can be preceded by a nasal sharing the same place of articulation. We can also have these more complicated combinations: a nasal followed by s followed by a plosive; a liquid followed by s followed by a plosive. If a coda cannot be derived from any of these rules, then it is phonotactically invalid.

2.4 Syllable Interactions

Within a single syllable, the rules laid out above apply. But what about interactions between more than one syllable? UNDER CONSTRUCTION

2.5 Syllabification

UNDER CONSTRUCTION

2.6 Accent

Every word has exactly one stressed syllable. The syllable upon which this stress accent falls can be determined by these rules:

- 1. If the last syllable contains a long vowel, then the stress falls here.
- 2. Otherwise, if the penultimate syllable contains a long vowel, then the stress falls here.
- 3. Otherwise, if the antepenultimate syllable contains a long vowel, then the stress falls here.
- 4. If none of these syllables contain a long vowel, then the stress falls on the antepenultimate syllable by default.

3 Nouns

Every noun inherently possesses one of three genders: masculine, feminine, or neuter. The masculine and feminine genders are also called the animate genders. Nouns in this class decline according to two numbers (singular and plural), and seven cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, ablative, dative, locative, instrumental). Nouns can be divided into several classes, based on their inflection pattern. As is tradition, there are three classes: first declension (I), second declension (II), and third declension (III).

Declining nouns is pretty straightforward: just change the endings of a word according to the tables below.

3.1 First Declension (I)

The first declension is also called the a-stem class. It contains mostly feminine nouns, although a few masculine nouns are included here, but no neuter. All first declension nouns are regular. Table 3 shows how these nouns are declined.

bena	bena (f): woman			
I	s	p		
nom	bena	benās		
acc	$ben\bar{a}m$	benāns		
gen	benas	benōm		
abl	benas	benamos		
dat	benaj	benamos		
loc	benaj	benasu		
ins	bena	benaφi		

Table 3: Inflection of first declension nouns (I).

3.2 Second Declension (II)

The second declension is split into two parts: second declension animate (IIA), and second declension neuter (IIN). The IIA declension contains mostly masculine nouns, with a few feminine nouns here and there. The IIN declension contains only neuter nouns, as the name suggests.

The only difference between the animate and the neuter declension is the nominative and accusative endings. All other endings are identical.

wiros (m): man			
IIA	s	p	
nom	wiros	wirōs	
acc	wirom	wirons	
gen	wirosjo	$ m wirar{o}m$	
abl	wirad	wiromos	
dat	wiroj	wiromos	
loc	wirī	wirīsu	
ins	wiro	wirojs	

Table 4: Inflection of second declension animate nouns (IIA).

donom (n): gift			
IIN	s	p	
nom	donom	dona	
acc	donom	dona	
gen	donosjo	$don\bar{o}m$	
abl	$\mathrm{don}\bar{\mathrm{a}}\mathrm{d}$	donomos	
dat	donoj	donomos	
loc	$\mathrm{don}\bar{\mathrm{i}}$	$don\bar{i}su$	
ins	dono	donojs	

Table 5: Inflection of second declension neuter nouns (IIN).

3.3 Third Declension (III)

The third declension contains the largest number of paradigms, even though the number of words in this class is relatively small. These are the paradigms within the third declension: i-stem (IIIi), u-stem animate (IIIuA), u-stem neuter (IIIuN), s-stem (IIIs), n-stem (IIIn), consonantal stem (IIIc), and vocalic stem (IIIv).

mentis (f): thought			
IIIi	s	p	
nom	mentis	mentīes	
acc	mentim	mentins	
gen	mentīs	$ment\overline{iom}$	
abl	mentīs	mentimos	
dat	$ment\bar{i}$	mentimos	
loc	$ment\bar{i}$	mentisu	
ins	$ment\bar{i}$	mentiφi	

Table 6: Inflection of third declension i-stem nouns (IIIi).

lokus (m): lako			
IIIuA	s	p	
nom	lokus	lokūes	
acc	lokum	lokuns	
gen	lokwes	$lokw\bar{o}m$	
abl	lokwes	lokumos	
dat	lokwī	lokumos	
loc	lokwe	lokusu	
ins	lokwe	lokuφi	

Table 7: Inflection of third declension u-stem animate nouns (IIIuA).

doru (n): wood			
IIIuN	s	p	
nom	doru	$dor \bar{u}$	
acc	doru	$dorar{u}$	
gen	$dorar{u}s$	$dor \bar{u} \bar{o} m$	
abl	$dorar{u}s$	dorumos	
dat	$dor \bar{u}\bar{\imath}$	dorumos	
loc	$dor \bar{u}$	dorusu	
ins	$dor \bar{u}$	doruφi	

Table 8: Inflection of third declension u-stem neuter nouns (IIIuN).

jūgos (n): team, pair			
IIIs	s	p	
nom	jūgos	$ m jar{u}gar{o}s$	
acc	m jar ugos	$ m jar{u}gar{o}s$	
gen	jūgesos	$ m jar{u}gesar{o}m$	
abl	jūgesos	jūgesmos	
dat	jūgesī	jūgesmos	
loc	m jar uges	$j\bar{u}gesu$	
ins	jūges	$j\bar{u}ges\phi i$	

Table 9: Inflection of third declension s-stem nouns (IIIs). A noun can be recognized as third declension s-stem if it's neuter and its nominative singular ends in -os.

noman (n): name			
IIIn	s	p	
nom	noman	nomō	
acc	noman	$nom\bar{o}$	
gen	nomans	nomanes	
abl	nomans	nomanes	
dat	nomanī	nomanī	
loc	noman	noman	
ins	nomane	nomane	

Table 10: Inflection of third declension n-stem nouns (IIIn).

The consonantal stem is the most complicated paradigm within the third declension (but it's still very easy). Rather than *changing* the endings as in the tables above, we simply *append* the endings to the nominative singular form.

A noun can be recognized as consonantal stem if it ends in a consonant, and it doesn't fit into any of the paradigms above; that is, if it doesn't end in -os, -is, -an, or any of the endings used above.

Now, all this has been pretty simple so far, so here comes the complicated part: the roots of the nouns change slightly when we append the endings. There are two rules:

- 1. If the root of the noun (i.e. nominative singular, or dictionary form) ends in a syllable containing a long vowel, then this vowel is shortened for every other case and number. For example, $d\bar{o}m > domes$.
- 2. If the last letter of this root is a liquid (l, r), then the last vowel disappears completely when an ending is appended. For example, pater > patres. But if no ending is appended, then the vowel is simply shortened, as per the previous rule. In the locative singular, pater > pater.

That's it. That's the most complicated part of of third declension consonant stem.

dōm (m): house				
IIIc	s	p		
nom	${ m d}ar{ m o}{ m m}$	domes		
acc	domam	domans		
gen	domes	$\operatorname{domar{o}m}$		
abl	domes	domimos		
dat	$\mathrm{dom}ar{\mathrm{i}}$	domimos		
loc	dom	domisu		
ins	dome	$\operatorname{domi} \varphi \mathrm{i}$		

Table 11: Inflection of third declension consonant stem nouns (IIIc).

The third declension vocalic stem is very easy: just append the endings. There are no funky rules as with the consonantal stem. In the genitive plural, the vowel is taken away, and the ending -om is appended. But that's it. It's very easy.

You can recognize a word in the dictionary as vocalic stem if it ends in a vowel, and it doesn't fit any of the above paradigms.

Nītsje (m): Nietzsche			
IIIv	S	p	
nom	Nītsje	Nītsjes	
acc	$N\bar{i}tsjem$	Nītsjens	
gen	Nītsjes	$N\bar{i}tsj\bar{o}m$	
abl	Nītsjes	Nītsjemos	
dat	$\overline{\text{Nitsje}}$	Nītsjemos	
loc	$\overline{\text{Nitsje}}$	Nītsesu	
ins	Nītsje	Nītsjeφi	

Table 12: Inflection of third declension vocalic stem nouns (IIIv).

3.4 Identifying Noun Class

A dictionary lists nouns in their nominative singular form. But we need to know the nouns class in order to decline it correctly. To do this, look at the dictionary form:

- 1. Does it end in -a, -om, -is, -us, -u, or -an? If so, then it's classified as I, IIN, IIIi, IIIuA, IIIuN, or IIIn, respectively.
- 2. Does it end in -os? If its gender is masculine or feminine, then it's class I. If it's neuter, then it's IIIs.
- 3. Does it not fit into any of the above paradigms? If it ends in a vowel then it's IIIv. If it ends in a consonant, then it's IIIc.

4 Adjectives

Whereas there are ten different inflection paradigms for nouns, adjectives only have two, fortunately. Every adjective will fall in one of these two paradigms. Moreover, the forms are exactly identical to the nominal inflections, so there's nothing new to learn.

senos (adj): old						
	singular			plural		
	M	F	N	M	F	N
nom	senos	sena	senom	senōs	senās	sena
acc	senom	senām	senom	senons	senāns	sena
gen	senosjo	senas	senosjo	$\operatorname{senar{o}m}$	senōm	senom
abl	$\operatorname{sen\bar{a}d}$	senas	$\operatorname{sen\bar{a}d}$	senomos	senamos	senomos
dat	senoj	senaj	senoj	senomos	senamos	senomos
loc	senī	senaj	senī	senīsu	senasu	senī
ins	seno	sena	seno	senojs	senaφi	senojs

Table 13: Inflection of adjectives of the first class.

jūenu	jūenus (adj): young					
		singular			plural	
	M	F	N	M	F	N
nom	jūenus	jūenis	jūenu	jūenūes	jūenīes	jūenū
acc	jūenum	jūenim	jūenu	jūenuns	jūenins	$ m jar{u}enar{u}$
gen	jūenwes	jūenīs	jūenūs	jūenwōm	jūenīōm	jūenūōm
abl	jūenwes	jūenīs	jūenūs	jūenumos	jūenimos	jūenumos
dat	jūenwī	jūenī	jūenūī	jūenumos	jūenimos	jūenumos
loc	$j\bar{u}enwe$	jūenī	jūenū	jūenusu	jūenisu	jūenusu
ins	$j\bar{u}enwe$	jūenī	jūenū	jūenuφi	jūeniφi	jūenuφi

Table 14: Inflection of adjectives of the second class.

5 Numerals

5.1 Cardinals

All cardinal numbers inflect according to case. The cardinals ojnos, $d\bar{u}o$, $tr\bar{i}es$, and petwores also inflect according to gender. The cardinal ojnos is the only one to inflect for number as well, having singular and plural forms.

	singular			plural		
	M	F	N	M	F	N
nom	ojnos	ojna	ojnom	ojnōs	ojnās	ojna
acc	ojnom	ojnām	ojnom	ojnons	$ m ojn\bar{a}ns$	ojna
gen	ojnosjo	ojnas	ojnosjo	ojnōm	$ m ojnar{o}m$	$ m ojnar{o}m$
abl	$ m ojn\bar{a}d$	ojnas	$_{ m ojn\bar{a}d}$	ojnomos	ojnamos	ojnomos
dat	ojnoj	ojnaj	ojnoj	ojnomos	ojnamos	ojnomos
loc	ojnī	ojnaj	ojnī	ojnīsu	ojnasu	ojnī
ins	ojno	ojna	ojno	ojnojs	ojnaφi	ojnojs

Table 15: Inflection of the numeral one.

two	M	F	N
nom	${ m d} ar{ m u}{ m o}$	$d\bar{u}a$	dwī
acc	${ m d}{ar{u}}{ m ns}$	$d\bar{u}ns$	dwī
gen	$\mathrm{dwar{o}m}$	$dw\bar{o}m$	$dw\bar{o}m$
abl	dumos	dwamos	dumos
dat	dumos	dwamos	dumos
loc	dusu	dwarsu	dusu
ins	duφi	dwarφi	duφi

Table 16: Inflection of the numeral two.

three	M	F	N
nom	trīes	tistres	trī
acc	$ m trar{i}ns$	${ m tistrans}$	${ m tr} ar{ m i}$
gen	$ arjar{o}m$	${ m tistrar{o}m}$	$ arjar{o}m$
abl	trimos	tisarmos	trimos
dat	trimos	tisarmos	trimos
loc	trisu	tisarsu	trisu
ins	triφi	${ m tisar} \phi { m i}$	triφi

Table 17: Inflection of the numeral three.

four	M	F	N
nom	petwores	petestres	petwor
acc	petworans	petestrāns	petwor
gen	$\operatorname{peturar{o}m}$	petestrom	$ m peturar{o}m$
abl	petwarmos	petesarmos	petwarmos
dat	petwarmos	petesarmos	petwarmos
loc	petwarsu	petesarsu	petwarsu
ins	petwarφi	petesarφi	petwarφi

Table 18: Inflection of the numeral four.

	five	six	seven	eight	nine	ten
nom	pempe	sweks	septam	okto	newam	dekam
acc	pempāns	swekans	$\operatorname{sept\bar{a}ns}$	oktans	newāns	$dek\bar{a}ns$
gen	$ m pempar{o}m$	$swek\bar{o}m$	$\operatorname{septar{o}m}$	$okt\bar{o}m$	$new\bar{o}m$	$ m dekar{o}m$
abl	pempamos	swekamos	septamos	oktamos	newamos	dekamos
dat	pempamos	swekamos	septamos	oktamos	newamos	dekamos
loc	pempasu	swekasu	septasu	oktasu	newasu	dekasu
ins	pempaφi	swekaφi	septaφi	oktaφi	$newa\phi$	dekaφi

Table 19: Inflection of the numerals 5-10.

	s	p
nom	kantom	kantomes
acc	kantam	kantāns
gen	kantes	$kant\bar{o}m$
abl	kantes	kantamos
dat	$kant\bar{i}$	kantamos
loc	kanto	kantasu
ins	kante	kantaφi

Table 20: The numeral for "hundred" behaves like a neuter noun, inflecting for both singular and plural. However, it inflects irregularly.

The rest of the numerals inflect like consonantal-stem nouns:

- ojnodant (num): eleven
- dwidant (num): twelve
- tridant (num): thirteen
- peturdant (num): fourteen
- pempedant (num): fifteen
- swesdant (num): sixteen
- septandant (num): seventeen
- oktodant (num): eighteen
- newandant (num): nineteen
- dwitont (num): twenty
- tritont (num): thirty
- peturtont (num): forty
- pempetont (num): fifty

- wesbont (num): sixty
- septantont (num): seventy
- oktantont (num): eighty
- newantont (num): ninety
- tustont (num): myriad

Notice that there's no word for thousand. This is because it can simply be constructed as "ten hundred". There are a few rules about inflection of numeral phrases in section 5.4. Keeping these rules in mind, "ten hundred" can be translated as "dekam kantōm". The cardinal 1917 would be "newandant kantōm septandant", literally "nineteen hundred seventeen". The cardinal 2019 would be "dwitont kantōm newandant".

5.2 Ordinals

- protos (num): first
- witeros (num): second
- tretos (num): third
- peturos (num): fourth
- pentos (num): fifth
- sektos (num): sixth
- sentos (num): seventh
- oktos (num): eighth
- newnos (num): ninth
- dentos (num): tenth
- ojnodantos (num): eleventh
- kantomos (num): hundredth
- tustontos (num): myriadth

5.3 Adverbials

• sam (num): once

• dwis (num): twice

• tris (num): thrice

• petris (num): four times

• pentis (num): five times

• sektis (num): six times

5.4 Inflection of Numeral Phrases

The numerals 1-4 are declined in the exact same case and number as the noun they're describing in a numeral phrase. For example, *ojnos wiros*, *ojnosjo wirosjo*, and so on.

However, all other numerals behave like this: For numerals which are **not** 1-4, if the numeral phrase is in either nominative or accusative, then the noun that the numeral describes should be in genitive plural. For example, in nominative we say ojnos wiros, $d\bar{u}o$ wiros, $tr\bar{\iota}es$ wiros, $petw\bar{\iota}res$ wiros, but pempe wirom (notice the use of genitive plural). Once again, the genitive plural is only used if the numeral phrase is in either nominative or accusative. In all other cases, the noun carries the same case as the numeral. For example, in instrumental, $pempa\phii$ wirojs.

If the numeral is compound, we only look at the last component. For example, twenty one is $dwitont\ ojnos$. Twenty one men is $dwitont\ ojnos\ wiros$ (notice that wiros is in singular, because ojnos precedes it). Twenty two men is $dwitont\ d\bar{u}o\ wir\bar{o}s$ (notice that the noun is in nominative plural). Twenty five men is $dwitont\ pempe\ wir\bar{o}m$ (the noun is now in genitive plural).

There are cases where a numeral itself will have to be in genitive plural. For example, the compound cardinal for "two myriad" is "dwī tustontes," but "five myriad" is "pempe tustontōm". In other words, numerals follow the same inflection rules laid above.

By the way, notice that the "dwī" in "dwī tustontes" is neuter. This is because numerals have an inherent neuter gender if they don't inflect for gender already. The only numerals which inflect for gender are 1-4. Thus, other numerals have an inherent neuter gender.

5.5 Inflection of Ordinals

Compound ordinals are special. Let's look at a few examples:

• dwitont protos (twenty first): First, notice that only the last component of the ordinal (the protos) is marked as an ordinal. The rest of the ordinal is identical to the corresponding cardinal.

- newandant kantōm dwitont protos (nineteen hundred twenty first): Once again, notice that every component of this compound ordinal is identical to the corresponding cardinal, and only the last component is marked as ordinal.
- septandant kantōm septantont sektō (locative singular of "seventeen hundred seventy sixth"): Notice that if we wanna mark the ordinal in the locative case, then only the last component (the "sektō") changes endings. The rest of the ordinal remains intact.

If you wanna say "I was born in 1999", then say "Dena newandant kantōm newantont newnī jere," which literally means "I was given birth in the nineteen hundred ninety ninth year." However, we can omit the "year", and we can simply say "Dena newandant kantōm newantont newnī, or "I was born in the nineteen hundred ninety ninth." If you were born in the year 2000, then simply say "Dena dwī tustontī."

6 Pronouns

6.1 Personal Pronouns

first person pronoun			
	s	p	
nom	edo	wī	
acc	me	nōs	
gen	mene	nos	
abl	med	nosmed	
dat	meθjo	nosmī	
loc	moj	nosmi	
ins	mono	nono	

Table 21: Inflection of the first person pronoun.

second person pronoun			
	s	p	
nom	tu	jū	
acc	twe	wos	
gen	${ m tar{u}e}$	wos	
abl	twed	usmed	
dat	teφjo	usmī	
loc	toj	usmi	
ins	tono	usno	

Table 22: Inflection of the second person pronoun.

reflexive pronoun					
	\mathbf{s}	p			
nom	su	$\bar{\mathrm{sus}}$			
acc	swe	$\overline{\text{swos}}$			
gen	$ar{ ext{sue}}$	swos			
abl	swed	sesmed			
dat	$se\phi jo$	$\operatorname{sesm}\bar{i}$			
loc	soj	sesmi			
ins	soj	sesno			

Table 23: Inflection of the reflexive pronoun.

		singular			plural	
	M F N		M	F	N	
nom	enos	ena	enod	enī	enās	ena
acc	enom	$\mathrm{enar{a}m}$	enod	enons	enāns	ena
gen	enosjo	enosjas	enosjo	$en\bar{i}s\bar{o}m$	${ m enasar{o}m}$	enīsōm
abl	$enosm\bar{a}d$	enosjas	$enosm\bar{a}d$	$\bar{\mathrm{enimos}}$	enamos	enīmos
dat	$enosm\bar{i}$	enosjaj	enosmī	$\bar{\mathrm{enimos}}$	enamos	enīmos
loc	enosmi	enosja	enosmi	enīsu	enasu	enīsu
ins	enono	$\mathrm{en}ar{\mathrm{a}}$	enosmi	enojs	enaφi	enojs

Table 24: Inflection of the third person pronoun.

6.2 Demonstratives

Danetian only has two demonstratives: the spatial demonstrative, and the referential demonstrative. The spatial demonstrative is used to point to something that both the speaker and the listener can see or physically point to: "that thing which is over there". The referential deictic is used to refer to something which was mentioned earlier in the conversation, or to refer to something that is not physically present with the speaker and listener: "that thing which was said earlier", "that tree which is not here for us to see".

		singular		plural		
	M	F	N	M	F	N
nom	so	sa	tod	toj	saj	ta
acc	tom	$_{ m tam}$	tod	tons	tans	ta
gen	tosjo	tesas	tosjo	tesom	tesom	tesom
abl	$tosm\bar{o}d$	$tosm\bar{o}d$	$tosm\bar{o}d$	tojos	tojos	tojos
dat	tosmoj	tesjaj	tosmoj	tojmus	tamus	tojmus
loc	tosmi	tesjaj	tosmi	tojsu	tasu	tojsu
ins	toj	toj	toj	tojφi	taφi	tojφi

Table 25: Inflection of the spatial demonstrative (also called deictic demonstrative).

		singular	plural			
	M	F	N	M	F	N
nom	e	ī	īd	<u>1</u>	īas	ī
acc	$_{ m im}$	īm	īd	ins	$\bar{\mathrm{ins}}$	$\overline{1}$
gen	eso	esas	eso	esom	esom	esom
abl	$\operatorname{esm\bar{o}d}$	$esm\bar{o}d$	$esm\bar{o}d$	īos	$\overline{1}$ OS	īos
dat	esmoj	esjaj	esmoj	īmus	īmus	īmus
loc	esmi	esjaj	esmi	īsu	īsu	īsu
ins	$\overline{1}$	$\overline{1}$	$\overline{1}$	īφi	īφi	īφi

Table 26: Inflection of the referential demonstrative (also called contextual demonstrative).

6.3 Possessive Pronouns

Possession is usually marked by the genitive case. However, if the possessor is a pronoun, instead of using the pronoun's genitive case, we use the adequate possessive pronoun. These are the possessive pronouns:

• meos (pn): mine, my

• tūos (pn): yours, your

• sūos (pn): his, hers, its

• nosjos (pn): ours, our

• wosjos (pn): yours, your

• swosjos (pn): theirs, their

• posjos (pn): whose

The possessive pronoun *posjos* is usually used as an interrogative or a relative pronoun. All of these possessive pronouns decline like first class adjectives.

Possessive pronouns go at the very beginning of a noun phrase. Thus, if there are adjectives describing the noun in question, then the possessive pronoun goes before these adjectives. Thus, "nosjos medus d \bar{o} m", meaning "our great house", is syntactically correct.

7 Verbs

There are only two classes of verbs: thematic and athematic. Every verb falls into one of these categories. The only exception is the copula, being the only irregular verb. A verb in the dictionary can be recognized as thematic if it ends in -o. Similarly, an athematic verb can be recognized if it ends in -omi.

Verbs conjugate according to voice, mood, aspect, tense, person, and number. There are two voices (active and passive), three moods (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), three tenses (present, past, and future), three persons

(first, second, and third), and two numbers (singular and plural). Therefore, each verb has hundreds of different forms. But you won't need to know all of these forms: all you need to do is keep in mind the three rules explained below, and just look at the tables.

The forms of the imperfective aspect are identical to the perfectives, except that there is reduplication involved. In order to form the imperfective, apply these rules:

- If the verb begins with a consonant, take the first consonant, append "a", and add this as a prefix to the verb. For example, bīwo > babīwo; gerφo > gagerφo; denomi > dadenomi; mīϑo > mamīϑo; plako > paplako; sjūo > sasjūo; klepo > kaklepo.
- If the verb begins with a vowel, take this vowel, shorten it if it's long, append the first consonant that appears after the vowel, and add this as a prefix to the verb. For example, ūkomi > ukūkomi; ombo > omombo; udwopo > ududwopo.
- In the extremely rare case that the root of the verb doesn't contain a consonant, like in īomi or ūomi, then simply append the letter a to the beginning of the verb. That is, ūomi > aūomi. These two verbs are probably the only ones you need to worry about. Every other verb will contain a consonant in its root.

Those were the rules for the imperfective aspect; we just take the perfective forms, and apply those rules to arrive at the imperfective forms. The rest is pretty straightforward; just look at the tables and you'll figure out how to conjugate a verb.

bīwo (v): to l	live						
ACTIVE							
		Perfect			Imperfect		
	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	Future	
Indicative							
edo	bīwo	bīwom	bīwim	babīwo	babīwom	babīwim	
${ m tu}$	bīwesi	bīwes	bīwis	babīwesi	babīwes	babīwis	
enos	bīweti	bīwet	bīwit	babīweti	babīwet	babīwit	
$\overline{\mathrm{wi}}$	bīwomos	bīwome	bīwime	babīwomos	babīwome	babīwime	
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	bīwete	bīwete	bīwite	babīwete	babīwete	babīwite	
$\mathrm{en}\bar{\mathrm{i}}$	bīwonti	bīwont	bīwint	babīwonti	babīwont	babīwint	
Subjunctive							
edo	bīwō	bīwōm	bīwīm	babīwō	babīwōm	babīwīm	
${ m tu}$	bīwēsi	bīwēs	bīwīs	babīwēsi	babīwēs	babīwīs	
enos	bīwēti	bīwēt	bīwīt	babīwēti	babīwēt	babīwīt	
$\overline{\mathrm{wi}}$	bīwōmos	bīwōme	bīwīme	babīwomos	babīwōme	babīwīme	
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	bīwēte	bīwēte	bīwīte	babīwēte	babīwēte	babīwīte	
$\mathrm{en}ar{\mathrm{i}}$	bīwōnti	bīwōnt	bīwīnt	babīwōnti	babīwont	babīwīnt	
Imperative			ı		I	I	
tu	bīwe	bīwa	bīwi	babīwe	babīwa	babīwi	
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	bīwete	bīwate	bīwite	babīwete	babīwate	babīwite	
Infinitive	bīweti	bīwati	bīwiti	babīweti	babīwati	babīwiti	
Participle	bīwentos	bīwantos	bīwintos	babīwentos	babīwantos	babīwintos	
PASSIVE							
		Perfect			Imperfect		
	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	Future	
Indicative							
edo	bīwar	bīwa	bīwi	babīwar	babīwa	babīwi	
${ m tu}$	bīwetar	bīweta	bīwita	babīwetar	babīweta	babīwita	
enos	bīwetor	bīweto	bīwito	babīwetor	babīweto	babīwito	
$\overline{\mathrm{wi}}$	bīwomosθa	bīwomeθa	bīwimeθa	babīwomosθa	babīwomeθa	babīwimeθa	
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	bīweθawe	bīweθawe	bīwiθawe	babīwe∂awe	babīweθawe	babīwiθawe	
$\mathrm{en}ar{\mathrm{i}}$	bīwontor	bīwonto	bīwinto	babīwontor	babīwonto	babīwinto	
Subjunctive							
edo	bīwār	bīwā	bīwi	babīwār	babīwā	babīwi	
${ m tu}$	bīwētar	bīwēta	bīwīta	babīwētar	babīwēta	babīwīta	
enos	bīwētor	bīwēto	bīwīto	babīwētor	babīwēto	babīwīto	
$\overline{\mathrm{wi}}$	bīwōmosθa	bīwōmeθa	bīwīmeθa	babīwōmos∂a	babīwōmeθa	babīwīmeθa	
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	bīwēθawe	bīwēθawe	bīwīθawe	babīwēθawe	babīwēθawe	babīwīθawe	
$\mathrm{en}ar{\mathrm{i}}$	bīwontor	bīwonto	bīwīnto	babīwontor	babīwonto	babīwīnto	
Imperative							
tu	bīweso	bīwaso	bīwiso	babīweso	babīwaso	babīwiso	
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	bīweθawe	bīwaθawe	bīwiθawe	babīweθawe	babīwaθawe	babīwiθawe	
Infinitive	bīwesti	bīwasti	bīwisti	babīwesti	babīwasti	babīwisti	
Participle	bīwennos	bīwannos	bīwinnos	babīwennos	babīwannos	babīwinnos	

Table 27: Inflection of thematic verbs.

ūkomi (v): to speak						
` /			ACTIVI	Ε		
		Perfect			Imperfect	
	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	Future
Indicative		1				11
edo	ūkomi	ūkom	ūkim	ukūkomi	ukūkom	ukūkim
${ m tu}$	ūkosi	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{kos}$	ūkis	ukūkosi	$uk\bar{u}kos$	$ukar{u}kis$
enos	ūkoti	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{kot}$	ūkit	ukūkoti	$uk\bar{u}kot$	$\mathrm{u}\mathrm{k}\mathrm{ar{u}}\mathrm{kit}$
$\overline{\mathrm{wi}}$	ūkomos	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{kome}$	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{kime}$	ukūkomos	$uk\bar{u}kome$	$ukar{u}kime$
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	ūkote	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{kote}$	ūkite	ukūkote	ukūkote	$uk\bar{u}kite$
$en\bar{i}$	ūkonti	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{kont}$	ūkint	ukūkonti	$uk\bar{u}kont$	$uk\bar{u}kint$
Subjunctive						
edo	ūkōmi	$ar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}ar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{m}$	ūkīm	ukūkōmi	ukūkōm	ukūkīm
${ m tu}$	ūkōsi	$ar{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{k} ar{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{s}$	ūkīs	ukūkōsi	$ukar{u}kar{o}s$	$ukar{u}kar{i}s$
enos	ūkōti	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{t}$	ūkīt	ukūkōti	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{o}t$	$ukar{u}kar{l}t$
$\overline{w_1}$	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{mos}$	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{m}\mathrm{e}$	ūkīme	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{o}mos$	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{o}me$	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{i}me$
jū	ūkōte	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{t}\mathrm{e}$	ūkīte	ukūkōte	ukūkōte	ukūkīte
$en\bar{i}$	ūkōnti	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{n}\mathrm{t}$	$\bar{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{k} \bar{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{n} \mathrm{t}$	ukūkōnti	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{o}nt$	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{i}nt$
Imperative						
${ m tu}$	ūko	ūka	ūki	ukūko	ukūka	ukūki
jū	ūkote	ūkate	ūkite	ukūkote	ukūkate	ukūkite
Infinitive	ūkoti	ūkati	ūkiti	ukūkoti	ukūkati	ukūkiti
Participle	ūkontos	ūkantos	ūkintos	ukūkontos	ukūkantos	ukūkintos
			PASSIV	E.		
		Perfect	111221		Imperfect	
	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	Future
Indicative						
edo	ūkar	ūka	ūki	ukūkar	ukūka	ukūki
tu	ūkotar	ūkota	ūkita	ukūkotar	ukūkota	ukūkita
enos	ūkotor	ūkoto	ūkito	ukūkotor	ukūkoto	ukūkito
$\overline{\mathrm{w_1}}$	ūkomosθa	\bar{u} kome ϑ a	ūkimeθa	ukūkomos∂a	ukūkomeθa	ukūkimeθa
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	ūkoθawe	ūkoθawe	ūkiθawe	ukūkoθawe	ukūkoθawe	ukūkiϑawe
$\mathrm{en}ar{\mathrm{i}}$	ūkontor	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{konto}$	ūkinto	ukūkontor	ukūkonto	ukūkinto
Subjunctive		I .	I.		1	ı
edo	ūkār	ūkā	ūki	ukūkār	ukūkā	ukūki
${ m tu}$	ūkōtar	ūkōta	ūkīta	ukūkōtar	ukūkōta	ukūkīta
enos	ūkōtor	$\bar{\mathrm{u}}\mathrm{k}\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{to}$	ūkīto	ukūkōtor	ukūkōto	ukūkīto
$\overline{\mathrm{wi}}$	ūkōmosθa	ūkōmeθa	ūkīmeθa	ukūkōmosθa	ukūkōme ϑ a	ukūkīmeθa
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	ūkōθawe	$\bar{u}k\bar{o}\vartheta awe$	ūkīθawe	ukūkōθawe	ukūkōθawe	ukūkīθawe
enī	ūkōntor	ūkōnto	ūkīnto	ukūkōntor	$uk\bar{u}k\bar{o}nto$	ukūkīnto
Imperative		1	ı		1	ı
tu	ūkoso	ūkaso	ūkiso	ukūkoso	ukūkaso	ukūkiso
$\mathrm{j}ar{\mathrm{u}}$	ūkoθawe	ūkaθawe	ūkiθawe	ukūkoθawe	ukūkaθawe	ukūkiθawe
Infinitive	ūkosti	ūkasti	ūkisti	ukūkosti	ukūkasti	ukūkisti
Participle	ūkonnos	ūkannos	ūkinnos	ukūkonnos	ukūkannos	ukūkinnos

Table 28: Inflection of athematic verbs.

The copula is the only irregular verb, so all you need to do is look at the table, and use the appropriate entry.

esmi (v): to be						
	Perfect			Imperfect		
	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	Future
Indicative						
edo	esmi	esam	φum	wesmi	wesam	astum
tu	essi	es	φus	wessi	wes	astus
enos	esti	est	φut	westi	wet	astut
wī	esmos	esme	φ ume	wesmos	wesme	astume
jū	este	este	φ ute	weste	weste	astute
enī	senti	sent	φ unt	wesenti	wesent	astunt
Subjunctive						
edo	esō	sjām	$ hoar{u}m$	wesō	wesjām	astūm
tu	esēsi	$sj\bar{a}s$	$\phi ar{u} s$	wesēsi	wesjas	$\operatorname{astar{u}s}$
enos	esēti	$sj\bar{a}t$	$ arphiar{ ext{u}} ext{t}$	wesēti	wesjat	$\operatorname{astar{u}t}$
wī	esōmos	$\bar{\text{sime}}$	$q\bar{u}me$	wesōmos	wesīme	$ast\bar{u}me$
jū	esēte	sīte	$\varphi ar{u} te$	wesēte	wesīte	astūte
enī	esonti	$\bar{\sin}t$	$\varphi \bar{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{nt}$	wesonti	wesint	$ast\bar{u}nt$
Imperative						
tu	es	esa	φu	wes	wesa	astu
jū	este	esate	φute	weste	wesate	astute
Infinitive	esti	siti	φuti	westi	wesiti	astuti
Participle	sentos	sintos	φuntos	wesentos	wesintos	astuntos

Table 29: Inflection of the copula.

7.1 Inflection of Non-Personal Forms

Participles can be declined just like adjectives of the first paradigm, so there's nothing new to say here.

Infinitives can be treated as neuter nouns. They have their own special little way of declining.

IIIc	s	p
nom	doti	$dot\bar{i}$
acc	doti	$dot\bar{i}$
gen	$dot\bar{i}s$	$dot\overline{iom}$
abl	$dot\bar{i}s$	dotimos
dat	$dot\bar{\imath}$	dotimos
loc	$dot\bar{\imath}$	dotisu
ins	$dot\bar{i}$	dotiφi

Table 30: Inflection of infinitives.

7.2 Imperative and Subjunctive

The imperative is used to give a direct command, and can only be used with second person. If you wanna give a command to third, or even first person, then you need to use the subjunctive. The subjunctive, used as a main verb, is used to express a desire. For example, $Kan\bar{\imath}am\ kane$, $Jo\bar{a}nna!$ can be translated as, "Sing a song, John!" But $Jo\bar{a}nna\ kan\bar{\imath}am\ kan\bar{\imath}ti$ is best translated as "I wish that John would sing a song," or "If only John would sing a song."

Since the imperative cannot be used for first or third person, the subjunctive is the best strategy to express a command in that case.

One last thing: Suppose you wanna say, "Romans go home!" You're an inhabitant in Roman Judea, and you're fed up with the way the Romans have been treating your people. So you write this phrase as grafiti on a wall. Since you're not speaking directly to the Romans (as they are not in front of you), then it's better to use the subjunctive rather than the imperative.

8 Adverbs

• pote (adv): where

• podo (adv): when

• posom (adv): how

• pople (adv): how much

• pospe (adv): why

• tote (adv): there

• todo (adv): then, at that time

• tosom (adv): like that

• tople (adv): that much

• tospe (adv): because of that, for that reason, due to that

9 Prepositions

Prepositions take nouns or nominal phrases as an argument. The case of this noun is important for the preposition: different prepositions accept different cases. In fact, a single preposition might mean different things depending on the case that's used.

Here is a dump of my notes on prepositions so far:

• to (pp): (gen) of

• apo (pp): (abl) from; (acc) moving away from

- ans (pp): (gen) without
- do (pp): (dat) to; (acc) until, moving until you reach, hasta; (gen) for the benefit of
- en (pp): (loc) in; (acc) inwards, into
- sem (pp): (ins) with
- ana (pp): (loc) on; (acc) up (up the stream), along (along the road)
- uper (pp): (loc) on, above, over
- upo (pp): (loc) under
- ud (pp): (loc) outside
- peri (pp): (ins) around; (acc) going around; (gen) about, topic, concerning
- anti (pp): (loc) in front of; (acc) towards, in the direction of; (gen) before (time)
- posti (pp): (loc) behind; (acc) backwards, in the opposite direction of; (gen) after (time)
- epi (pp): (loc) at; (ins) near
- meði (pp): (loc) between, in the middle of; (gen) during, in the middle of (time); (ins) surrounded by, among
- tras (pp): (acc) through, across (the river), beyond (the mountain)
- pra (pp): (gen) next to, on the side of; (acc) moving along (the road, river); (ins) compared to, than
- witer (pp): (ins) in agreement with; (abl) according to, según
- ar (pp): (dat) because of, thanks to
- uta (pp): (dat) for the purpose of, for

10 Conjunctions

UNDER CONSTRUCTION

If "and" is used to connect nouns or something, it's placed after all the nouns to be connected. If it's used to connect two sentences or clauses, it's placed in between

- pe (c): and
- we (c): or

- nam (c): because, for
- ati (c): but, yet
- perti (c): otherwise, if not
- tori (c): therefore, then, thus
- uti (c): so that, in order that
- je (c): if; binary interrogative particle
- jeti (c): rather, si no que, instead
- nu (c): so, now
- som (c): like, just like
- posom (c): in a manner that, such that, in such a manner that
- aspe (c): for, because
- pewiter (c): therefore

11 Derivational Morphology

Here are a few of the suffixes I use to derive new words. (This is just another dump of my notes)

- -etis, -tis: Forms abstract nouns from thematic and athematic verbs, respectively
- -īa: forms abstract nouns from adjectives
- -eman: forms a noun referring to the result of an action (verb)
- -trom (n): forms nouns denoting instruments
- -iskos: adjective, "of or pertaining to", "related to", spanish "-al". Also works as a demonym suffix
- -(e)ter, -(e)tra, -(e)trom: forms agent nouns from verbs
- -īo: derives verbs from adjectives, "to cause something to be *adjective*"
- -jos: derives adjectives from nouns, equivalent to "-ious"
- -isos: makes adjectives comparative
- -istos: makes adjectives superlative

^{**} you use tori when you wanna say "so [adj] that...", "tan [adj] que..." you say: "pople [adj] posom..." in this case, pople behaves as a conjunction

- -isjos: -issimus, a lot, to a high degree
- -uka: makes collective
- -atos, -ata, -atom: forms adjectives from nouns, indicating the possession of a thing or quality
- -inos, ina, inom: creates adjectives of material "made of"
- -e: makes adverbs out of adjectives
- -akos: forms patronymic, and also means "person concerning X", so it can form professions. For example, person concerning the holy = priest. work
 > worker

12 Syntax

12.1 Standard Word Order

The most natural and default way to order the words in a sentence is SOV. However, it's possible to use different orders to emphasize different parts of the sentence. I haven't really figured it out yet, so: UNDER CONSTRUCTION Adjectives go before nouns.

12.2 Copula Omission

Suppose you wanna say that, that the night is cloudy. Then, you can say: noptis esti neqesata. But more often than not, we can simply omit the copula, so we end up saying: noptis neqesata. Even though there is no apparent verb here, this is a complete sentence. This is because the copula is implicitly understood. However, it must be noted that by omitting the copula, all information about tense and aspect is lost, and must be inferred from context.

If you really need to use the copula, then it goes between the two phrases to be conjoined, rather than at the end, as standard word order would suggest.

12.3 Possession

Suppose you wanna say that Pawlos has a dog. Then, you literally say "to Pawlos is a dog". That is, possession is expressed by having the possessor in the dative case, and the thing that is possessed in the nominative case. Thus: Pawlosmī esti twōn. But since the copula can be omitted, we can simply say: Pawlosmī twōn.

There actually is a verb which means "to possess": ajtomi. However, it's not really used that often; it sounds very formal, almost what you would hear in a legal setting. It sounds more natural to use the dative construction.

If you wanna emphasize that it is to Pawlos that the dog belongs, and not to some other person, then you can use the same construction as before, but using the genitive case instead of the dative.

12.4 Definiteness

In English, we have the articles *the* and *a*, *an* to mark definiteness. They are called the definite and indefinite articles, respectively. Unlike English, Danetian doesn't have any articles, so definiteness is not usually marked. However, there is a way to mark it in some cases.

Consider the phrases, "I don't see the book", and "I don't see a book". The first one implies that you don't see one particular book that you're looking for. The second one implies that you don't see any book at all. These can be translated as follows:

- I don't see the book: ne witso bibliom; (literally: I don't see book).
- I don't see a book: ne wītso bibljosjo; (literally: I don't see of book).

In the first phrase, the book is expressed in the accusative case. In the second, it's in the genitive case. This is one of the many uses of the genitive.

12.5 Interrogatives

There are three types of interogative statements: open questions, binary questions, and disjunctive questions. For example:

- Open question: Who threw the rock?
- Disjunctive question: Was is Petros or Pawlos who threw the rock?
- Binary question: Did Petros throw the rock?

In order to form an open question, we simply use the interrogative pronouns or adverbs: Who, what, when, where, whence, etc. It sounds more natural to place these in the beginning of a sentence (but once again, the order of the words can be changed quite freely). Thus, our open ended question is translated as: Pos ammonam swepot? (literally: Who rock threw?)

In order to form a binary question, we simply use the particle "je" before the sentence. This particle is also used to form conditionals, but more on that later. When using this particle, the verb must be in subjunctive mood, and not in indicative as before. Our binary question from before is then translated as: Je Petros ammonam swepōt? (literally: If Petros stone threw?)

To form disjunctive questions, we use "je" in the beginning of the question, and then use the disjunctive particle "we" to join the two options given. Once again, the verb must be in subjunctive. Thus: Je Petros we Pawlos ammonam swepōt? (literally: If Petros or Pawlos stone threw?)

Note: Unlike in other languages, changing the word order is not required to form a question.

12.6 Ability

In order to say that "wood is cuttable", we use the passive future participle of the verb "to cut". Thus, "Doru askīdinnom" can be translated as "The tree is cuttable", or "Wood is cuttable".

12.7 Comparison

If you wanna say that my house is bigger than yours, you say, "Meos dom medisos pra $t\bar{u}o$." Notice the use of the preposition pra. This preposition, among other uses, accepts nouns in the instrumental case, and allows us to make a comparison. The phrase $pra\ t\bar{u}o$ can be translated as "compared to yours".

12.8 Negation

Whereas double-negation in English is frowned upon, double-negation in Danetian is a requirement. Thus, "I never said anything anywhere" would be "Nedo nepos ne ūkom," which literally means "Never nothing not I-said."

Notice the use of the word "ne". This acts as a negatory particle, and it should always precede the word that it's negating. If it's negating a whole sentence, then it precedes the main verb. For example, the negation of the sentence "Twe $l\bar{u}\phi$ o" would be "Twe ne $l\bar{u}\phi$ o". If you wanna emphasize that "It is not you that I love," then you say, "Ne twe $l\bar{u}\phi$ o," or "Ne twe, pom $l\bar{u}\phi$ o".

In order to negate a command, then the subjunctive is used instead of the imperative. Take the statement "Give me the apple." Its translation would be "Ablam meθjo de", while its negation would be "Ablam meθjo ne dēti". If you wanna say "Don't give me the *apple*, give me the *tree*", then you say "Ne ablam meθjo deti, doru meθjo de!"