

Jameld Grammar

Jameld Gramatika

A concise guide to correct Jameld usage

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I. Nouns

1. Plurals

Nouns that end with a vowel or -y add -s in the plural (always pronounced /s/, not /z/):

laame → *laames*
f̄s̄laa → *f̄s̄laas*
ey → *ey*s

Most nouns ending in consonants add -es (pronounced as syllabic /s/) to form the plural:

helm → *helmes*
liystar → *liystares*

However, nouns that end with -s, -x or -z just add -e in the plural (pronounced /ə/):

vias → *viase*
boix → *boixe*
spez → *speze*

...except for the adjectives of origin, formed with -az, when used as nouns; these add -es:

Britaz → *Britazes*
Efesiaz → *Efesiazes*

The following nouns, ending in -(e)n, may optionally have no change in the plural*:

buhlen, *lungen*, *nümbren*, *osen*, *stahlen*, *f̄stocken*, *f̄s̄ün*, *tablen*, *wulken*, *züken*
an buhlen → *100 buhlen*
an züken → *ans züken*

Abbreviations form their plurals according to the above rules as they apply to the sound of the abbreviation concerned. Hence, abbreviations that are pronounced as if they end with a vowel (those that end in A, B, C, D, E, H, I, J, K, O, P, Q, U, V, W or Y) simply take -s:

CD → *CD-s*
T̄S.E. → *T̄S.E-s*

Those that end with a letter whose name sounds as if it ends with a consonant (i.e. F, G, L, M, N, R, T̄S, T or Z) take -es:

LG → *LG-es*

And those that end with S or X take -e:

PS → *PS-e*

Acronyms, of course, are simply treated like normal nouns should a plural form be required.

2. Genders and articles

In modern literary Jameld, nouns do not have a grammatical gender. The definite article is *te* (before vowels: *t'*), and does not inflect for gender, case or number. (However, you may sometimes come across the old neuter form *et* or the old case forms *ten*, *tem*, *ter* in dialectal speech, set phrases, or in certain surnames.) The indefinite article is always *an*, and the partitive article (English "some") is always *ans*.

bird	<i>fayel</i>
a bird	<i>an fayel</i>
the bird	<i>te fayel</i>
birds	<i>fayeles</i>
the birds	<i>te fayeles</i>
some birds	<i>ans fayeles</i>
the bin	<i>t'amar</i>

* Possibly a relic of the old dual form.

Here is the complete paradigm of the definite article, as used in former times. As noted above, *te* is now generally used in all cases and genders, but some forms have been preserved under non-standard circumstances.

	m	f	nt	pl
nom	<i>te</i>	<i>te</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>te</i>
acc	<i>te</i>	<i>ten</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>te</i>
dat	<i>tem</i>	<i>ter</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>tem</i>
gen	<i>ete</i>	<i>ete</i>	<i>ew et</i>	<i>ete</i>

II. Adjectives

1. Inflections

When used attributively, adjectives precede the noun to which they refer, and they then inflect, usually by adding *-i* to the adjective.

the bird is early *te fayel jist raft*
 the early bird *te rafti fayel*

In the dictionary, entries for adjectives which do not simply add *-i* give additional information between square brackets; some adjectives add nothing (indicated by = between the brackets):

nüaw [=] a new day, *an nüaw däi*

Others, such as those with an unstressed final vowel, change that vowel to *i*:

ägnö [ägni] an ill child, *an ägni kente*

Some adjectives which add nothing when used attributively are not marked in the dictionary. These are adjectives which belong to the following classes:

Possessive adjectives ending *-ü*: *meü, eü*, etc. (my book, *meü buhlen*)

Adjectives of nationality ending *-az*: *Britaz, Dänaz*, etc. (The British Isles, *te Britaz Eylantes*)

Adjectives formed in *-lauk*: *frosklauk, toldlauk* (tolerant people, *toldlauk persones*)

Adjectives ending in *-iſ*: *bilediſ, rebeliſ* (a rebellious boy, *an rebeliſ knap*)

Ordinal numbers: *threntſ, fëftſ* (the third day, *te threntſ däi*)

Adjectives which end in *-i* or *-i*: *ësti, miniki* (tiny shoes, *ësti ſſün*; small children, *miniki kentes*)

Past or present participles, ending in *-i, -an* or *-in*.

You'll just have to remember these. But at least adjectives don't inflect for number, case and gender, eh?

2. Comparatives and superlatives

Comparatives and superlatives are formed by the suffixes *-o* and *-üt* respectively. They do not inflect when placed before a noun:

early *raft* the early bird *te rafti fayel*
 earlier *rafto* the earlier bird *te rafto fayel*
 earliest *raftüt* the earliest bird *te raftüt fayel*

Longer adjectives form the comparative and superlative with *mor* and *most*:

boring *linkwilsem*
 more boring *mor linkwilsem*
 most boring *most linkwilsem*

3. Irregular adjectives

Certain adjectives are irregular, and are explained in the dictionary entry, thus:

waa [wi/waato/waatüt]

This means that the adjective *waa* (wet) becomes *wi* before a noun, and that the comparative and superlative ("wetter" and "wettest") are *waato* and *waatüt*.

your hair is wet *yeü hïr jist waa*
 wet hair *wi hïr*
 wetter hair *waato hïr*

4. Adverbs

Adverbs can be formed from many adjectives with the suffix *-ǵa*:

quick *naw*
quickly *nawǵa*

However, this usage is now considered rather formal, and so normally the adjective would be used unchanged as an adverb:

he drives quickly *e drif nawǵa* or *e drif naw*

III. Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns in Jameld are as follows:

	Singular	Plural
1st person (I, we)	<i>me</i>	<i>ven</i>
2nd person (you)	<i>ye</i> ¹	<i>yen</i>
3rd person (he/she/it, they)	<i>e/es/et</i>	<i>tem/temt</i> ²

¹ The old informal form *the* is no longer used except in Bõrgeslant dialect

² *Tem* for people (i.e. plurals of "he" and/or "she") and *temt* for multiple things (i.e. more than one "it")

Me and *ye* are shortened before a vowel to *m'* and *y'* respectively, and *e* before a vowel becomes *e h'*. The impersonal pronoun *ike* is equivalent to the English "one" or impersonal "you".

Objective pronouns are formed by prefixing the words in the above table by *i-*, e.g. *me ime*, *you iye*, *them item*. (An exception is *ike*, which remains the same, as it already begins with *i-*.) Such objective pronouns are used for both the direct object and the indirect object, for example:

I love you	<i>me liub iye</i>
do you love me?	<i>liub y'ime?</i>
throw it to me	<i>thräyyë iet i ime</i>
a book about us	<i>an buhlen böya iven</i>

Possessive adjectives are formed by suffixing *-ü* to the pronouns, e.g. my *meü*, his *eü*, their *temü*.

It used to be the case that possessive pronouns added a further *-s*: mine *meüs*, theirs *temüs*. However, this form is now almost entirely extinct in speech (except in very formal usage) and has now been abandoned in all written Jameld apart from legal work and the ultra-conservative weekly newspaper *Üstzur Kronik*.

Hence:

my book	<i>meü buhlen</i>
the book is mine	<i>te buhlen jist meü</i> (very formal: <i>meüs</i>)
her face	<i>esü fas</i>
a face like hers	<i>an fas lauk esü</i> (very formal: <i>esüs</i>)

Possessives of names are formed with the *-ü* suffix*, such as:

Peter's *Peterü*

You may see this written slightly differently in older documents, or in formal settings:

Peter'ü or even *Peter-eü* (very formal; shows the alternative derivation from the pronoun – the two usages have fallen together)

All are correct, but the simple addition of *-ü* is most usual in modern Jameld.

Possessives of non-proper nouns are formed in the same way:

the men of the village	<i>te thropü monnes</i>
or	<i>te throp'ü monnes</i>
or	<i>te throp-etü monnes</i>
or, of course	<i>te monnes ew te throp</i>

* This appears to be a development from the Old Jameld genitive ending *-us*, a letter combination which has most commonly become *ü* in modern Jameld, as elsewhere in the superlative suffix *-üt* (from OJ *-ust*), and past-tense forms such as *rü* and *wük*.

There are two sets of reflexive pronouns: the first is used only with the relatively small number of reflexive verbs, and the second for all other uses.

	Type I	Type II
myself	<i>mi</i>	<i>mi</i>
yourself	<i>yi</i>	<i>yi</i>
himself	<i>i</i>	<i>eyi</i>
herself	<i>i</i>	<i>si</i>
itself	<i>i</i>	<i>ti</i>
oneself	<i>i</i>	<i>iki</i>
ourselves	<i>i</i>	<i>min</i>
yourselves	<i>i</i>	<i>yin</i>
themselves	<i>i</i>	<i>temin, temtin</i>

The canonical examples of the two types of reflexive pronoun are as follows:

Type I:	he washed [himself]	<i>e wük i</i>
Type II:	the man himself	<i>te monn eyi</i>
	he sent a letter to himself	<i>e zand an letter i eyi</i>

IV. Demonstratives

Jameld has a relatively large number of demonstratives and demonstrative-like words.

here	<i>eri, erid</i>
there	<i>leri, lerid</i>
yonder (over there)	<i>jind</i>

Eri and *leri* are the forms normally used, but *erid* and *lerid* are often used before vowels:

it is here	<i>et jist eri</i>
here it is	<i>erid et jist</i>

this	<i>oquo</i>
these	<i>oquos</i>
that	<i>üquü</i>
those	<i>üquüs</i>
yonder (that thing way over there)	<i>jina</i>
yonder (those things way over there)	<i>jinas</i>

Although not entirely obsolete, the *-q-* forms are not used very often these days, and tend to be replaced in spoken Jameld by simply *te* or expressions including *eri* and *leri*:

this book is good	<i>Oquo buhlen jist gut</i>	(a bit old-fashioned or formal)
or	<i>Te buhlen jist gut</i>	(it's obvious which book is being discussed)
or	<i>Te buhlen eri jist gut</i>	(this book, not that one)

Jina and *jinas* are sometimes used in opposition to *te*, for instance:

This sandwich is nice, but those cakes look gorgeous.
Te ledzibret jist gut, no jinas kohkes otvis precht.

Another alternative here would be to use *te ... eri* and *te ... leri*.

V. Verbs

1. Infinitive

The infinitive, in Jameld, always ends in *-en*, and it is this verb form which appears in the dictionary.

to love	<i>liuben</i>
to give	<i>yiben</i>
to be	<i>isten</i>

2. Present tense

The present tense is normally formed by removing the infinitive ending *-en* to leave the verb stem.

I love	<i>me liub</i>
you give	<i>ye yib</i>
I walk	<i>m'anvül</i>
he ties	<i>e h'echt</i>

There are, as ever, some exceptions. Some verbs end with a consonant cluster, or with a consonant which does not lend itself to forming the present like this. They form the present tense by removing the final *-n* from the infinitive, but leaving the *-e*. These are termed soft-ending verbs, and are marked in the dictionary with an asterisk.

to want	<i>wulnen</i>
I want	<i>me wulne</i>
to guess	<i>koxjen</i>
he guesses	<i>e koxje</i>

There are also a very few verbs whose present tense cannot be readily guessed from the appearance of the infinitive. Here they are, all four of them:

<i>huen</i> (to hold) → <i>hü</i>	
<i>huvren</i> (to hope) → <i>huv</i>	
<i>möten</i> (to have to) → <i>mot</i>	
<i>haven</i> (to hew, cut) → <i>häv</i>	(but note that there is another verb <i>haven</i> which means "to heave", and this is a perfectly normal soft-ending verb)

Any prefixed verbs formed from these roots follow the same pattern, e.g.:

tinthuen → *tinthü*

Finally, there is one other exception: the verb *isten* (to be) has two present forms, *jist* in the singular and *ist* in the plural.*

I am	<i>me jist</i>
she is	<i>es jist</i>
we are	<i>ven ist</i>
they are	<i>tem ist</i>

Both forms are often shortened to *'st* in speech: *me'st*, *ven'st* etc.

3. Simple past tense (Preterite)

The simple past tense, or preterite, is formed in a number of ways[‡].

Regular (or "weak") verbs form the past tense with the suffix *-ta*:

<i>liuben</i> → <i>me liubta</i>	
<i>hüaren</i> → <i>me hüarta</i>	(soft-ending verb which drops the <i>-e-</i> , as root ends in single consonant)
<i>wulnen</i> → <i>me wulnta</i>	(soft-ending verb which drops the <i>-e-</i> , despite consonant cluster)
<i>kontren</i> → <i>me kontreta</i>	(soft-ending verb which retains the <i>-e-</i> due to consonant cluster)

* Formerly, the verbs *alen* and *aven* and the obsolete *airen* also had separate singular and plural forms, respectively *gal/al*, *kave/ave*, *daire/aire*, but these are now archaic and their use is not recommended.

‡ It used to be the case that all verbs formed their past tense by the addition of the suffix *-mä* to the root, but this was a Ravtaalism and is now rather frowned upon. You can use this form, but be prepared for some very old-fashioned looks.

The soft-ending weak verbs which retain the *-e-* before *-ta* due to awkward consonant clusters are:

abledzen, bifulyen, bihantlen, binithren, fulyen, grönmen, hantlen, jolfulyen, jolkoxjen, kanyen, kessyen, kontren, koxjen, manjen, tomlen, trujnen, vegnen, wifulyen, yivegnen

However, weak verbs whose roots end in *-t* or *-d* behave slightly differently:

salten → *me saltha* (*-ta* becomes *-ha* after *-t*)
pirden → *me pirdha* (... and after *-d*)

Strong or irregular verbs have irregular past tenses, for full details of which please consult the list of JAMELD IRREGULAR VERBS. Many of these feature a vowel change, but some are completely irregular.

yiben → *me yeb*
sügen → *me sog*
isten → *me wä*
thakjen → *me thochta*

The verbs with irregular present tense forms have past tense forms which are based on the present tense, or else are completely irregular.

huen → *me hü* (present) → *me hūta* (past)
haven → *me häv* (present) → *me hūv* (past)

In some dialects there is an additional plural form, adding *-(a)n* to the singular past, e.g.:

me liubta, ven liubtan
e yeb, tem yeban
ye wä, yen wän
me tor, ven torn

However, this is not a feature of standard Jameld.

4. Perfect infinitive

Jameld has a second infinitive, the perfect infinitive. It can be translated in English as “to have (something)ed.” This perfect infinitive is formed by adding *-aven* to the verb stem, i.e. the present tense.

to have loved *liubaven*
to have given *yibaven*
to have wished *wulnaven* (NB soft-ending verbs drop the final *-e* from their stem)
to have held *hüaven* (NB not **huaven*: formed from stem, not infinitive)

5. Perfect tense

The perfect tense (that which in English appears as, for instance, “I have given,” “She has gone”) is formed by removing the final *-n* from the perfect infinitive.

I have given *me yibave*
she has loved *es liubave*
they have held *tem hüave*

6. Pluperfect tense

The pluperfect tense (that which in English appears as, for instance, “I had given,” “She had gone”) is, in effect, the simple past of the perfect infinitive. The perfect infinitive, as noted above in SECTION 4, is formed by adding *-aven* (i.e. the verb “to have” as a suffix) to the verb stem. The simple past of *aven* is *aa*, and therefore the pluperfect appears as the verb root plus *-aa*:

I had given *me yibaa*
she had loved *es liubaa*
they had held *tem hüaa*

7. Future tense

The future tense in Jameld is formed with the auxiliary verb *ƒsald* plus the verb infinitive:

I shall give	<i>me ƒsald yiben</i>
she will love	<i>es ƒsald liuben</i>
they will hold	<i>tem ƒsald huen</i>

Colloquially, *ƒsald* is often shortened to just *ƒsa'*:

I'll give it back	<i>me ƒsa' yiben za iet</i>
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Sometimes the present tense is sufficient, as the context makes the time clear:

I'll call you tomorrow	<i>m'optchrije iye morn = me ƒsald optchrijen iye morn</i>
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8. Future perfect tense

The future perfect tense in Jameld is formed with the auxiliary verb *ƒsald* plus the perfect infinitive of the verb:

I will have given	<i>me ƒsald yibaven</i>
she will have loved	<i>es ƒsald liubaven</i>
they will have held	<i>tem ƒsald hüaven</i>

9. Present participle

The present participle is formed by replacing the *-en* of the infinitive with *-in*. It can be used as a noun or as an adjective:

I like driving	<i>me laukim drifin</i>
a talking bird	<i>an paptƒsin fayel</i>

Note that the usage of the present participle in the present continuous tense (e.g. "I am reading") is not the same as it is in English. See section 11. CONTINUOUS FORMS below for details.

10. Past participles

Strictly speaking, this part of speech should really be called the passive participle, but as historically the past tense was formed using this participle, the name has stuck. In Jameld, there are two types of past participles, stative and resultative.

Stative participles act as adjectives, and indicate the state of something. They are formed by adding *-i* to the verb stem:

molten ice	<i>malti is</i>
a depressed man	<i>an tintthräyi monn</i>
the appointed time	<i>te jolkläzi ƒsüdris</i>

Resultative participles indicate that the thing being described is in the process of being passively affected by something else. For weak verbs, they are identical with the stative participle:

the ice was melted (by the sun)	<i>t'is wä malti</i>
the time was appointed (by agreement of the board)	<i>te ƒsüdris wä jolkläzi</i>

For strong or irregular verbs, the resultative participle either ends in *-i* (and therefore may or may not be identical with the stative) or is formed by adding *-an* or *-n* to the past tense – see the JAMELD IRREGULAR VERBS section for full details.

the man was depressed (by what happened)	<i>te monn wä tintthrün</i>	(resultative)
his body twisted with pain	<i>eü yod wüspan pozirƒs pohn</i>	(resultative)

Compare this with:

the man was depressed (in a state of depression)	<i>te monn wä tintthräyi</i>	(stative)
his twisted body	<i>eü wärpi yod</i>	(stative)

In modern usage the difference has become blurred so that most native speakers now use the resultative participle in both cases, although this is not strictly correct.

11. Continuous forms

The English -ing form is normally translated in Jameld by the simple present tense, or by the future tense.

I am sitting *me sid*

I am driving to London tomorrow *me drif morn i London*
or: *me tsald drifen morn i London*

However, sometimes you wish to emphasise that *right now* you are doing something. Here, in Jameld you can use the following construction to indicate ongoing action:

I am reading a book (right now) *me jist ax te resin ete buhlen*

she was eating the meal (just then) *es wä ax te mestin ete maal*

The construction is: *ax te (present participle) [ete (object)]*

Note that this is different from the English usage:

I am walking **me jist anvülin* (This does not work. If anything, it implies that the speaker is somehow the living embodiment of the activity of "walking", which you have to admit is rather unlikely.)

12. Use of infinitive with other verbs and/or helper particle

The infinitive can be used in various ways in Jameld, as in other related languages. Firstly, it is used to form the future tense (SECTION 7) with *tsalden*, and in other ways with the other modal verbs, *maken*, *möten*, *willen* and *zichten*:

I shall give *me tsald yiben*

I might give *me mak yiben*

I must give *me mot yiben*

I want to give *me will yiben*

I can give *me zicht yiben*

There are also a number of other verbs after which (unlike in English) the infinitive may follow directly. They are: *alen*, *biaden*, *endien*, *hüaren*, *köminen*, *künnen*, *laven*, *punären*, *visen*, *wafsten*. Examples follow.

she went walking *es alta anvülen*

he asked her to go *e béd ies alen*

I will stop shouting *me tsald endien chrijen*

can you hear him singing? *hüare ye ie singen?*

I started to stand *me kömintä staren*

they continue to fight *tem punäre feyten*

I saw him eating *me vista ie mesten*

I can't be bothered to stand *me na wafst staren*

In all other cases, though, it is not possible to use the infinitive on its own. After a verb (with the exception of those listed above) or after an adjective, noun or pronoun, the infinitive is preceded by the "helper particle", 'e.

he promises to play nicely *e vorzend 'e gamten noffeli*

I tried to stand up *m'istranta 'e staren*

it is easy to see *et'st luch 'e visen*

they were hard to convince *tem wä swer 'e obertügen*

something to hide from *anstes 'e ghüden wrun*

However, where the meaning is "in order to", the preposition *vor* is used:

I go [in order] to return *m'al vor zaräizen*

(or, alternatively, a comma may be used: *m'al, zaräizen*)

13. Reflexivity

A small group of Jameld verbs – notably *wasken* (to wash), *kledhen* (to get dressed) and *féġen* (to feed) – are truly reflexive. That is, they need a reflexive pronoun as an object if there is no other object.

The “Type I” reflexive pronouns are used (see III. PERSONAL PRONOUNS); if *me* is the subject, then *mi* is the object; if *ye* is the subject, then *yi* is the object; otherwise, the object is just *i*. Examples:

I wash myself	<i>me wask mi</i>
you dress yourself	<i>ye kledh yi</i>
he feeds himself	<i>e féġ i</i>
they washed themselves	<i>tem wük i</i>

14. Negation

To negate a sentence, simply put *na* before the verb:

I do not want	<i>me na wulne</i>
he was not	<i>e na wã</i>
they will not hold	<i>tem na fšald yiben</i>
you must not go	<i>ye na mot alen</i>

When *na* precedes a verb beginning with a vowel, *na* becomes *n’*:

we are not old	<i>ven n’ist eld</i>
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15. Imperative

In Jameld, there are two ways to express the imperative: the personal imperative and the impersonal imperative.

The personal imperative is used when giving commands or orders, for making personal invitations, or for invoking a wish. It is formed by adding a personal suffix to the verb stem; this suffix is the pronoun, with the letter *e* changed to *ë*:

you come	<i>ye kümne</i>	
come [here, you]!	<i>kümneyë!</i>	
you (plural) go away	<i>yen al för</i>	
go away!	<i>alyën för!</i>	
we go	<i>ven al</i>	
let’s go	<i>alvën</i>	
I think	<i>me thakje</i>	
think! (to oneself)	<i>thakjemë!</i>	
you hold it	<i>ye hü iet</i>	
hold it!	<i>huyë iet!</i>	(NB: the root is <i>hu</i> , not <i>hü</i>)
it is so	<i>et jist zo</i>	
let it be so	<i>jistët zo</i>	
God blesses you	<i>Got zeyen iye</i>	
may God bless you	<i>Got zeyenë iye</i>	
you do not go	<i>ye n’al</i>	
don’t go!	<i>n’alyë!</i>	
it doesn’t happen	<i>et na poss</i>	
may that not happen!	<i>na possët!</i>	

As can be seen, this personal imperative can be used with any person (1st, 2nd or 3rd), conveying a range of meanings.

However, sometimes you don't want something quite so direct, especially when giving directions – often the personal imperative would seem far too brusque. The impersonal imperative is often used in a more general “it is suggested that you do this” fashion, but also is used when the person being commanded is not specified (for instance in adverts or on road signs). The impersonal imperative is identical with the verb root, so it's rather simple:

Turn left	<i>Al lavte</i>
Start here	<i>Kömin eri</i>
Stir the flour and milk	<i>Réir te mel und te melk</i>
Buy “Dr Strel’s” Fruitcake	<i>Käv »Dr Strelü« Fruktkohk</i>
	(NB <i>käv</i> not <i>käve</i> ; some soft-ending verbs can do this because they can make do without the final -e)
Keep Clear	<i>Na Bistop</i> (literally, “Do not block”)

16. Habitual

The habitual form, which is only used for emphasis and to avoid ambiguity, uses the verb *ären* (to do) plus the present participle:

I give (habitually)	<i>m'äre yibin</i>
I used to give	<i>m'at yibin</i>
I will give (habitually)	<i>me tsald ären yibin</i>
I have been giving	<i>m'ärave yibin</i>
I had been giving	<i>m'äraa yibin</i>

17. Conditional

The conditional is formed by replacing the *-en* of the infinitive with *-on*.

I would give	<i>me yibon</i>
I would have given	<i>me yibavon</i>

18. Expressing intention

I am going to give	<i>me tsald yiben</i>
or I intend to give	or <i>me méyan 'e yiben</i> or <i>me jolméyan 'e yiben</i>
I was going to give	<i>me méyanta 'e yiben</i> or <i>me jolméyanta 'e yiben</i>

19. Expressing necessity, (im)possibility or (in)ability

I must give	<i>me mot yiben</i>
I must not give	<i>me na mot yiben</i>
I had to give	<i>me maat yiben</i>
I did not have to give	<i>me na maat yiben</i>
I will have to give	<i>me tsald möten yiben</i>
I will not have to give	<i>me na tsald möten yiben</i>
I will have had to give	<i>me tsald motaven yiben</i>
I have had to give	<i>me motave yiben</i>
I would have to give	<i>me möton yiben</i>
I would have had to give	<i>me motavon yiben</i>
I might give	<i>me mak yiben</i>
I might not give	<i>me na mak yiben</i>
I might have given	<i>me mochta yiben</i>
etc.	
I can give	<i>me zicht yiben</i>
I cannot give	<i>me na zicht yiben</i>
I could have given	<i>me zochta yiben</i>
etc.	

VI. Emphatic adverbs

Certain adverbs, notably *sī* and *na*, may appear after the verb, and give special emphasis. Some examples:

I know what's right	<i>me kätte was'st drüchi</i>
I do know what's right	<i>me kätte sī was'st drüchi</i>
I did indeed	<i>m'aa sī</i>
he would say that, wouldn't he?	<i>e willon sī säiren iet</i>
I don't know	<i>me na kätte</i>
I really don't know	<i>me kätte na</i>
he would not shut up	<i>e na woh huen te muth</i>
he just would not shut up	<i>e woh na huen te muth</i>

VII. Capitalisation and punctuation

In Jameld, the first word in the sentence is capitalised, as is the first word in a quotation within a sentence.

He said, "I am old." *E seta: »Me jist eld.«*

Names of months, days of the week, countries and nationalities are also capitalised.

Quotations, as you will have noted above, are introduced by a colon and enclosed in inward-pointing double guillemets. Quotations within quotations are enclosed in single guillemets: ›thus‹, although in handwriting inverted commas, 'thus', are often used instead of single or even double guillemets.

Full stops, exclamation marks, question marks, colons and semi-colons are all used as in English, as are commas, although commas may also be placed in front of verb infinitives where the meaning is "in order to":

I go [in order] to return *m'al, zaräizen* (alternatively, and more commonly:
m'al vor zaräizen)

but:

I want to return *me will zaräizen*

VIII. Word order

Broadly speaking, the word order in Jameld is SVO, that is, Subject-Verb-Object. For instance:

We ate the cake *Ven mast te kohk*
We threw the cake to Haral *Ven thrü te kohk i Haral*

An indirect object can also come before the direct object:

We threw Haral the cake *Ven thrü Haral te kohk*

Adverbs adhere closely to their verbs:

We ate the cake quickly *Ven mast naw te kohk*
Maybe we ate it too quickly *Tsé ven mast té naw iet.*

Note in that last example that the fronted “maybe” made no difference to the word order elsewhere; also, an adverbial phrase (here: *té naw*) will stick to the end of the verb en bloc and push the object later in the sentence.

Where the phrase involves an auxiliary verb and a verb infinitive, the adverb comes after the infinitive:

I will eat the cake quickly *Me tsald mesten naw te kohk*
He cannot eat cake quickly *E na zicht mesten naw kohk*

Relative clauses have the same word order; they are not inverted:

I made the cake that we threw at Haral yesterday
Me mackta te kohk tes ven thrü jister ax Haral (if it was thrown yesterday)
Me mackta jister te kohk tes ven thrü ax Haral (if it was made yesterday)

The cake that we threw at Haral yesterday was made by me
Te kohk tes ven thrü jister ax Haral wä mackti ük ime.

Note also, in all the above cases: there is no comma before the relative clause.

In forming questions, the verb is moved before the subject:

Do you eat cake?/Are you eating cake? *Mest ye kohk?*
Don't you eat cake?/Aren't you eating cake? *Mest ye na kohk?*
What do you eat?/What are you eating? *Was mest ye?*
What don't you eat? *Was mest ye na?*

Did you throw that cake at Haral yesterday? *Thrü yen jister te kohk ax Haral?*

Note here, that the adverb *jister* has not stuck to the verb, which has been fronted. The adverb is in the same place it would have been if this had not been a question, i.e. “You threw that cake at Haral yesterday.” Nothing’s ever simple, is it?

IX. Word stress

In Jameld, the stress normally falls on the first syllable of the word. However, there are many exceptions, including most words that are formed of a root and a prefix (where the stress normally falls on the first syllable of the root). In the Jameld-English section of the dictionary, word stress is marked by the use of subscript diacritics under the vowel of the stressed syllable, where this is not the first syllable, or where the length of the vowel is not as expected.

An inverted breve below (**ă**) indicates that the vowel in the stressed syllable is short. A macron below (**ā**) indicates that the vowel in the stressed syllable is long.

(NB: inverted breve is also sometimes used in the dictionary to indicate an unexpected short vowel in an *unstressed* syllable; if so, more than one vowel in the word will have a stress mark and an IPA transcription will also be given. Dot below (**·**) always indicates a long vowel in an unstressed syllable.)

X. Suffixes

Below is a list of the most common suffixes used in word-building:

		Examples
-al	adjectival ending for words from Latin; cf. Eng. -al, Ger. -al, Du. -aal	<i>nütral</i> (neutral) <i>vertikal</i> (vertical)
-an	abstractiviser, working on nouns, adjectives and even verbs to convert the concrete to the abstract	<i>smelan</i> (exact) <i>personan</i> (nation)
-ar	forms nouns referring to people (not things) with particular qualities, characteristics or affiliations; contrast with -at which forms agent nouns from verbs	<i>tsemiar</i> (chemist) <i>laavar</i> (coward)
-aſ	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -ment	<i>optchandaſ</i> (announcement) <i>zetaſ</i> (situation)
-at	forms agent nouns from verb roots	<i>rejelat</i> (sovereign) <i>kompütat</i> (computer)
-aton	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -ation	<i>redaton</i> (salvation) <i>bibindaton</i> (connection)
-el	adjectival ending for words from French; cf. Eng. -el, Ger. -ell, Du. -eel also forms nouns describing the result of verbs; the thing verbed	<i>individuel</i> (individual) <i>intelektuel</i> (intellectual) <i>tsefel</i> (creature) <i>sâirel</i> (saying)
-ikla	see -kla	
-il	forms nouns, the object of the verb; cf. Eng. -ee	<i>hlinil</i> (handrail)
-in	present participle ending, used to form adjectives; cf. Eng. -ant	<i>pässin</i> (appropriate) <i>bitseltin</i> (different)
-iſ	forms adjectives indicating place of origin, similarity or condition; cf. Eng. -ish, -ic	<i>plastis</i> (plastic) <i>dhulwohis</i> (rabid)
-it	forms nouns describing states; cf. Eng. -ity	<i>autôrit</i> (authority) <i>birespontebelit</i> (responsibility)
-iv	forms adjectives; represents Eng. -ive in loanwords only	<i>aktiv</i> (active) <i>positiv</i> (positive)
-ja	forms diminutive nouns	<i>wevelja</i> (tissue) <i>kartja</i> (ticket)
-kla	forms adjectives; similar to Eng. -al	<i>globakla</i> (global) <i>plazikla</i> (local)
-ko	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -cy	<i>blithko</i> (bliss) <i>släuko</i> (sleigh)
-lauk	forms adjectives; cf. Eng. -like/-ly, Ger. -lich, Du. -lijk	<i>maklauk</i> (possible) <i>toldlauk</i> (tolerant)
-nas	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -ness	<i>éannas</i> (characteristic) <i>segharnas</i> (security)
-sem	forms adjectives indicating qualities or similarities; cf. Eng. -some	<i>rastsem</i> (calm) <i>rëuksem</i> (aromatic)
-tom	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -ance	<i>lidhtom</i> (guidance) <i>instertom</i> (instance)
-ton	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -tion	<i>drehton</i> (direction) <i>funktton</i> (function)
-werk	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -works	<i>ferzwerk</i> (fireworks) <i>slaawerk</i> (machinations)
-zion	forms nouns; cf. Eng. -sion	<i>vizion</i> (vision) <i>vérzion</i> (version)

XI. Numbers

Numbers in Jameld are written according to the following rules:

When writing large numbers, use a space as the thousands separator (not comma, as in English): *24 951*

When writing large numbers in words, begin a new word at the point where there would a break, i.e. at the same point as the thousands separator:

twansivourathmild neönauntertfëfsiaunt

The decimal marker is comma, thus: *5,1* (read *fëfe komma aunt*)

XII. Compound words and hyphenation

When forming compounds, Jameld combines the words into one word in the same manner as most other Germanic languages:

frégetaaken = frége + taaken (question mark)

platnesüchkléth = platne + süch[en] + kléth (teatowel)

Hengistbörgkaap (Hengistbury Head – place name)

For numbers, see XI. NUMBERS above.

A hyphen is often inserted before a component that begins with a vowel, or for clarity (e.g. where one part is an abbreviation or contains a hyphen already, after a short word ending in a vowel, or where there is a clash of identical letters):

Zur-Aa (River Sauer)

e-poſt-adressa (e-mail address)

PIN-kode (PIN code)

kö-missa (chat message)

Vërdindass-strät (a street name)

However, the hyphen tends to be omitted before the vowel in compounds of more than two parts:

Zuraalant

ätistarſtemwerk = ät + iſtar + ſtemwerk (air-conditioning)

See also the pronunciation guide, the list of irregular verbs, and the other appendices to the dictionary for more information.

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