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Special signs used in this document:  
* At the end of the words, it denotes ambiguous word ending (e.g. with or without final -e)  
# It marks Romanid phrases, sentences not found in the corpus but created by the translator
§ 1 Pronunciation

The Romanid alphabet consists of 25 letters: a, b, c, d, e, f, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, x, y, z.

The following letters and letter combinations (graphemes) are used to denote the Romanid sounds: a, au, b, c, ch, cz, d, ee, eu, f, g, gv, h, i, j, k, l, ll, m, n, ny, o, p, qu, qv, r, s, sh, su, t, u, v, x, y, z.

Graphemes b, ch, d, f, h, k, m, n, p, t, sh, v, z are pronounced more or less as in English.

The other graphemes – and the slightly differing ones as well – have the following phonetic values:

Letter a is between the short variant of a in father and u in hut, e.g. natural, father.

Digraph au denotes a diphthong of an a and a very short u sound, i.e. similar to English house. As it forms one syllable, it cannot be divided during hyphenation, e.g. au-ma-tic automatic, au-ro-ra (first blush of) dawn, aurora.

Letter č is pronounced before front vowels (e and i) as ts in tsar, or e.g. centre centre, acid acid.

This ts sound is rendered before back vowels (a, o, u) and at the end of the word as digraph cz (cf. English czar), e.g. comenťar to begin, quarćz quartz.

After back vowels and consonants, as well as at the end of the word, letter c represents unaspirated sound k as in sky, e.g. caval horse, color colour, culture culture, clar clear, accent stress, accent, politic political.

Sound k before front vowels (e, i) is denoted by digraph qu, e.g. quemia chemistry, quin quinine. (See under digraph qu!)

Digraph ch is pronounced as in church, e.g. checoslovak Czechoslovakian, marcha marching.

Letter e denotes an open sound between e in bed and a in bad, e.g. legal legal, mentir to lie. Stressed e becomes closer (i.e. e in bed) in open syllables, e.g. se-ra evening, ca-va-le-ri-a cavalry.

Digraph ee is pronounced as e in bed but lengthened, e.g. armee army, cafe coffee. N.B. It is a pure long vowel, not a diphthong as in gate or scare. This sound occurs only at the end of the words. Internally letter combination ee is pronounced in two syllables as separate e sounds, e.g. reedificār to rebuild.

Diphthong eu is composed of the close variant of e (i.e. e in bed) and a very short u sound. As it forms one syllable, it cannot be divided during hyphenation, e.g. Eu-ro-pa Europe, reu-ma rheumatism. When prefix re- is followed by a word beginning with u, the combination eu denotes two separate sounds: a full e and a full u, e.g. re-u-nir to reunite.

Letter f is always unvoiced as in fee (never voiced as in of).

Letter g is pronounced before back vowels (a, o, u) and consonants as in go, e.g. ganar to win, gol goal, grad grade. Before font vowels (e, i) it denotes sound 2 in azure, e.g. genial genial, energia energy.

Digraph gu is used to represent sound g before font vowels (e, i), e.g. guera war, guid guide (person).

Before back vowels (a, o, u), gu is pronounced as gv, e.g. lingua language.

Sound cluster gv before font vowels (e, i) is spelt as gy, e.g. ungvent ointment, ingvinal inguinal.

1 This section had to be revised in compliance with the phonetic basis of Anglophone speakers since originally it described the pronunciation of Romanid in comparison with Hungarian. We aimed at retaining the original text as much as possible. Certain amendments are put in the body text (in a style similar to the original), while dubious remarks, commentaries appear in footnotes (as in other sections).

Note that we intended to give phonetic descriptions very close to the author’s original specifications. This does not mean that pronunciation could not be slightly anglicised if it does not interfere with the comprehension. E.g. lax [l], [u], close [e], aspirate [pʰ], [tʰ], [kʰ], bi-labial [gw], [kw], [sw], approximant [j] etc. instead of tense [l], [u], open [ɛ], unaspirated [p], [t], [k], labio-dental [gv], [kv], [sv], trill [r] respectively.

2 IPA [a], cf. French là ‘there’, German hat ‘has’.
3 IPA [aʊ], cf. German Haus ‘house’
4 IPA [ɪ]
5 IPA [ʊ]
6 IPA [tʃ]. This sound is represented also by trigraph tch in word match. Note that letter combination ch may denote also sound cluster k+h – IPA [kh] – on compound boundaries, however, this case has no example in the corpus.
7 IPA [ɛ], cf. first e in French adresse ‘address’, German feft ‘fat’. Closer variant is IPA [e].
8 IPA [e], this is the only long vowel in Romanid.
9 IPA [ɛu], cf. Spanish Ceuta.
10 The grave accent will be used, as eù, in the vocabulary to signify disyllabic pronunciation.
11 IPA [ʒ], cf. g in French gel ‘gel’.
12 IPA [gv]
13 The Hungarian equivalent in the original text was incorrect: lumbar.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar
(translation with comments of the translator)

Grapheme $h$ always sounds and it reads as in English, when it is not part of digraphs $ch$, $sh$. However, according to the Hungarian pronunciation rules, it may stand also for sound $ch$ in German Bach ‘brook’, Scottish loch ‘lake’, e.g. kolhoz kolchoz (co-operative farm in the former USSR).

Letter $i$ denotes always the short variant of tense $i$ in machine.

Letter $j$ represents always sound $z$ in azure, e.g. jardin garden, jocar to play, viajar to travel.

Grapheme $k$ stands for unaspirated $k$ as in sky. It is used only in words internationally written with $k$, as well as in foreign terms, e.g. kilogram kilogram(me), kolhoz kolchoz (co-operative farm in the former USSR).

Letter $l$ is always “clear” as in leaf.

Digraph $ll$ represents sound $l$ pronounced on the palate. Its rough English equivalent is the sound cluster $l+y$ in phrase will you. It occurs only in a few words, e.g. batalla battle, palla straw.

Letter cluster $ng$ is not a grapheme, it is pronounced always as two sounds IPA $[\text{ng}]$ as in jungle (never as a single sound as in sing).

Digraph $ny$ denotes a palatal n sound resembling the English sound cluster $n+y$ in phrase can you, or $ni$ in onion. It is a rare phoneme.

Letter $o$ represents the short variant of au in daughter, e.g. portar to carry, to wear, Anton Anton. Stressed $o$ in open syllable is pronounced closer, i.e. half-way between tall and tool, e.g. ho-ra hour.

Sound $p$ is unaspirated as in spy.

Letter $q$ stands for unaspirated $k$. It is not used in itself, only in combination with letters $u$ or $v$.

Digraph $qu$ represents sound cluster $kv$ before back vowels ($a$, $o$, $u$). It is pronounced as $v$, quatre four. If $qu$ is followed by a front vowel ($e$, $i$), it is pronounced as unaspirated $k$, e.g. quinque five, Türquia Turkey.

Digraph $qy$ is used to denote sound cluster $kv$ before front vowels, e.g. frequent frequent, question question.

Letter $r$ is pronounced in all positions and it is preferably a trill with two-tree rolls. Its nearest English equivalent is $rr$ in merry.

Letter $s$ is always unvoiced, it never sounds as $z$ even between vowels, e.g. salvar to save, progressiv progressive, asi so, thus.

Digraph $sh$ reads as in English. It is quite rare, e.g. sha shab, fashista fascist.

When letter combination $su$ is followed by a stressed vowel, it is pronounced as $sv$, e.g. Suedia Sweden, Suisa Switzerland.

Sound $t$ is unaspirated as in steel.

Letter $u$ represents the short variant of tense $oo$ in pool. In diphthongs $au$ and $eu$ it is pronounced as a short asyllabic semi-vowel similar to the ones in house and oak; in clusters $gu$, $qu$ and $su$ it sounds as consonant $v$.

Letter $x$ denotes sound cluster $ks$, e.g. taxi taxi, maximal maximal.

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14 IPA $[h]$, alternative pronunciation: IPA $[x]$.
15 IPA $[i]$, cf. $i$ in French ville ‘town’ and in German Mutti ‘Mum’.
16 IPA $[j]$, cf. $j$ in French jour ‘day’.
17 IPA $[k]$ Letter $k$ is used in the Phrase Book, in addition to the foreign proper and currency names, in the following non-Romance words: word and prefix kilo (kilogram, kilometre, kilopond), as well as folkloric, parking, tank.
18 IPA $[l]$, cf. $ll$ in Spanish llave ‘key’, gli(i) in Italian foglio ‘sheet’. It is used in the Phrase Book in the following words: atelier, brillar, ella, Guillelm, Guillelmina, medalla, orgullos, papillon, pastilla, spalla, talla, tallar, tallata.
19 IPA $[n]$, cf. $gn$ in French agneau ‘lamb’ and in Italian bagno ‘bath’, as well as $ñ$ in Spanish año ‘year’. The following words contain $ny$ in the corpus: Bretanya, castanya, companyon*, conyac, champanya, ensenyar, ensenyament, Españya, espanyol, espanya, senyor, senyora, senyorita. (* Asterisk denotes here ambiguous word ending with or without final $-e$).
21 IPA $[kv]$ The only word in the Phrase Book that contains this sound is: shal ‘scarf’. In the other phrases, it is replaced by $ch$ – IPA $[tf]$ –, e.g. chac, chofer, ducha. Note that letter combination $sh$ may denote sound cluster $s+h$ – IPA $[\text{sh}]$ – on compound boundaries, however, this case has no example in the corpus.

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Letter y reads always as a consonant like in yeast, e.g. ayuta help, may May.

The vowel clusters ai, ei, oi, ae, oa, oe, ia and io are not diphthongs. They are pronounced separately as full vowels and they can be divided during hyphenation. E.g. cocain cocaine, ateist atheist, exploitar to exploit, aer air, coeducacion coeducation, Asia Asia, medio medium, means.

Letters ò, ù and w are retained in foreign words, e.g. Röntgen, Lübeck, Washington. The sound ò is spelt by digraph oe in Graeco-Latin words, e.g. oedema oedema, oestrogen oestrogen(ic).

Geminates like ff, mm, nn, pp, tt etc. do not exist in Romanid. Digraph ll is a specific grapheme for palatal l (see above). In case of accent the first c is pronounced as unaspirated k, the second one as ts. Double r (rr) may be spelt when the prefix ends in r and the second constituent starts with r, too, e.g. interrogar to interrogate, surrealist surrealist(ic). There is only one case with double s (ss) but it does not affect the pronunciation, it serves only to distinguish between two homophonic word: cassa cash desk, cashier’s office, ticket/book office, casa house. Double z (zz) is spelt in foreign word jazz.

§ 2 Stress

1. The stress falls on the last syllable if the word ends in consonant, clusters -ta or -itas (cf. Latin nouns in -tas, -itas), long vowel ee, and vowel i or u. E.g. anual annual, velocitas velocity, armae army, hodi today, lunedi Monday, meny menu, Moscú Moscow.

2. The stress falls on the penult (the next to last syllable) if the word ends in vowels a, e, o, sound cluster -er, or Graeco-Latin unstressed endings -us, -um, -as, -es, -is, -os. E.g. casa house, matre mother, tango tango, caracter character, virus virus, diabetes diabetes.

3. If the final vowel or unstressed syllable is preceded by vowel i or u (semi-vowel), or by unstressed syllable -er, -ic, -ul, -im or -iz, the stress falls on the antepenult (third syllable from the end). E.g. familia family,

IPA [ks] It is not specified whether pronunciation gz is allowed or not in words like: exact, exister. However, it may be supposed that it has to be pronounced always as ks, based on the analogy of Spanish and the rule that letter s is always unvoiced.

This contradicts to the statements in § 2 Stress. According to the latter, sound i counts as a semi-vowel – that is ultimately the glide element of a diphthong! – in these positions, e.g. radio. The structure of the language presumes that these kinds of sounds rather constitute a separate syllable but they are unstressed (reduced?, lax?). (Sound u is not mentioned at all but it may be treated analogically same as i.) Moreover, the list does not enumerate – besides the previously declared diphthongs au and eu – the sound clusters ui, ie, iu, ua, ue, uo, uu (neither ii, but its occurrence can be ruled out). Therefore these could be also diphthongs. According to § 2 Stress, their first element is semi-vocalic but counts as a separate syllable at the same time, e.g. serie, caries, radius, Darius, continua, vacuum. The same can be deduced in case of clusters -ier and -uer. It follows from the general stress rules that cluster ui is also rising.

The phonetic value of these letters is not specified, they might be pronounced according to the speaker’s native bias. In addition to the proper names, letter w is used in the corpus in words western ‘western (movie)’ and WC ‘toilet, lavatory’ and in case of units of measurements (newton, wat); the latter ones could be treated also as proper names; however, the only occurrence of wat is spelt by single t and it is not sure that this is intended or it is a misprint.

It is not specified that sound ø is close IPA [ø] or open IPA [œ] (the author’s native bias should presume close variant). In addition to the sound ø, letter combination oe may denote disyllabic sound cluster o+e on boundary compounds, e.g. fotoelectric. Because the latter one is the only example in the corpus, accent mark is not used to signify disyllabic pronunciation.

The specification does not mention whether stress affects the length of the vowels, with special regard to the stressed open syllables.

§ 8 Plural of nouns specifies that plural markers -s, -es, -os do not affect the place of the stress, except in case of words ending in -ul, -im, e.g. doctar ~ doctores, but secul ~ seculos.

Verbal plural marker -n also does not change the word stress, e.g. yo paglar ~ nos paglan, tu vijve ~ vos viven, il fini ~ des fini. We did not mark this feature by acute accent in the vocabulary despite of the fact that it does not meet the main stress rules. On the contrary, accent marks are left out from future plural forms because they are regular in contrast to the singular, e.g. yo serig ~ nos sernig.

We have marked the stress of these words in the vocabulary by acute accent, e.g. quantità, but quarenta.

This contradicts to the statements in § 1 Pronunciation. According to the latter, sound i counts as syllabic – therefore it is not a semi-vowel – in these positions, e.g. medio. The structure of the language presumes that these kinds of sounds rather constitute a separate syllable but they are unstressed (reduced?, lax?). (Sound u is not mentioned at all but it may be treated analogically same as i.)
The text seems to be inaccurate as it can be deduced from the examples. A more accurate specification can be as follows: The stress shifts to the antepenult from the penult, if the vowel of the penultimate syllable is (a) i which is followed by a vowel or consonant c, m, z; (b) u which is followed by a vowel or consonant l; or (c) e which is followed by consonant r. Note that these syllables are unstressed only in penult, but they can be stressed in other cases, namely at the end of words and in antepenult, e.g. America, economic, secul, octim.

Probably it would be convenient to supplement the above specification with the following rule: If letter cluster -er is preceded by an -i then -er preserves its stress even it is in one of the two last syllables (since -i cannot bear stress due to the rising diphthong ie). This rule could make the accent of words in-ger ~ inginiera etc. regular. Moreover, since it is not probable that u is stressed in word cuer ‘leather’, this rule seems to be applicable to letter cluster -uer, too.

We have marked the stress of these words in the vocabulary by acute accent, e.g. pder, but il pdered.

We have marked the stress of these singular words in the vocabulary by acute accent, e.g. sra, but yo será.

We have marked the stress of these two words in the vocabulary by acute accent. However, we did not mark the stress on the other similar words in the corpus – atmosfera, opera, primavera – because the original intention of the author is unknown. (There is no reason to differ from regular stress rules in the case of feminine variants of the profession names ending in -er – e.g. costureria, enfermera, periquera. On the contrary, the ones ending in -iera – e.g. inginiera – is probably stressed on the penult following the irregular stress pattern of their masculine counterparts. [Since this case can be recognised from the -i preceding the -er, this particular stress in not marked in the vocabulary by acute accent.]}

We have marked the irregular stress of this words by acute accent: papá Daddy, but papa Pope.

Based on Spanish analogy, this syllabication is probably does not apply to the non-Romance words as e.g. lat-letic, or [trans-]lat-lantic; as well as when the consonant cluster falls on morphemic boundary, e.g. sub-loca-tar.

Supposing that they represent a single sound but not a sound cluster on compound boundary.

The same applies to the compound words.
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(translation with comments of the translator)

§ 4 Capital letters

Initial letter is lowercase in common nouns, names of months and days, as well as names of nations and inhabitants when used attributively, e.g. strata, juli, luni, hungar, parisiun.

The followings are written with capitalised initials in addition to the proper names 43 (Anton Sarkadi [shar-cadl], Budapest, Tera, Danub, Alpes, Pacific Ocean): the first word of the first sentence in the text, as well as the first word of every new sentence after point, question mark or exclamation mark, the first word of a verse, the first word of a citation, the nouns of salutation 44 (Mi car Amico), the title of newspapers and journals, the first word of the title of books, pieces of poetry, articles and informative titles.

The personal and possessive pronouns are capitalised if they refer to the addressed person (Vos, Vostre) 45.

The initials are capitalised also in the followings: name of the holidays (Natal Christmas) and significant days 46 (Dia de Matres Mother’s Day), names of nations and inhabitants if they are used substantively or predicatively (yo es Hungar I am Hungarian, un Budapestian a male inhabitant of Budapest, la Transdanubiana the female inhabitant of Transdanubia, les Italienes the Italians), the word Stat state (country), common nouns when used as proper names (La Academia the Academy), allegorical and personified names (el Amor the Love, la Justice the Justice).

§ 5 Punctuation marks

1. Full stop terminates a complete, entire sentence 47. It is used after indirect (reported) questions, too. Full stop comes at the end of the abbreviation of word Senyor, e.g. Sr. Pataki Mr. Pataki. It is omitted in the abbreviation of words Senyora Mrs. and Senyorita Miss, e.g. Sra Kovács [kovach] Mrs. Kovács, Sta Molnár [molnar] Miss Molnár. (Also in addresses.)

No full stop is used 48 in dates after days, e.g., el 15 (dece quinque) august on 15th of August, as well as after numbers in names of sovereigns and popes, e.g. Luis XIV (dece quatre) Louis XIV, papa Paul VI (sex) Pope Paul VI. The same rules applies to the first days of months, to the first sovereigns and popes despite of the fact that in this case ordinal number is used, e.g. el 1 septiembre (el prim septiembre), Stefan I (Stefan prim), papa Johan Paul I (Johan Paul prim); but: papa Johan Paul II (Johan Paul dos).

The numbers after nouns are always cardinal numbers, e.g. leccion octe lesson eight, capitul treinta chapter thirty.

2. Comma separates co-ordinate sentences if there is no conjunction, e.g. Emil scrive, Petre lege Emil writes, Peter reads.

If conjunction is used between co-ordinate sentences, a comma comes before the conjunction, e.g. Yo dare, ma il no vole I should give but he does not want it.

Comma is not used before conjunction et, e.g. Maria et Julia laboran et studian Mary and Julie are working and studying 49.

43 It is not specified that common nouns in appositions attached to geographical proper names have to be capitalised or not. In the only data in the corpus, la Pusta Hortobágy [hortobady], word Pusta can be interpreted either as part of the proper name or as an appositive common noun (the latter is presumable due to the romanised orthography and the fact that name Hortobágy appears also alone).

Appositive salutations/addresses/titles – with or without personal name – are also capitalised within the text, e.g. Yo no have noqued, Senyor. Titles if they are not used in addresses are lowercase, though, e.g. Yo volere parlar con senyor Barna; however, the initials of abbreviated titles are capitalised, e.g. Per disgrace, Sr. Barna no es in casa (see § 5 Punctuation marks).

44 Probably this rule means that 2nd person plural and singular polite/formal forms have to be capitalised, while 2nd person plain/informal forms are in lowercase, cf. German Sie ~ Romanid Vos, German ihr ~ Romanid vos.

45 The type of the capitalisation is ambiguous in the corpus: there are data where the initials of all nouns are uppercase: Dia de Matres ‘Mother’s Day’, Internacional Dia de la Femina ‘International Women’s Day’, but there are examples where only the initial of the first word is capitalised: Dia des pedagogues ‘Teacher’s Day’, Dia des feroviaries ‘Railwaymen’s Day’.

46 Question mark is used instead of full stop in direct interrogative sentences, exclamation mark is used in case of exclamations, imperative sentences (whose verb is in imperative mood), optative, precative sentences.

47 The Phrase Book originally used word WC as an abbreviation, i.e. punctuated by full stops. We have amended this as WC because it is rather an initial word, and the other initial words are written in the corpus without full stops, e.g. CB, CJF, CY, NEC, PCA, SI, TF, USA.

48 According to the corpus, comma is omitted also before conjunction o ‘or’. The example sentence reveals that more singular subjects take plural predicate in Romanid.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar
(translation with comments of the translator)

No comma goes before the conjunctions of subordinate clauses and before the non-finite verbal phrases if the main clause comes first, e.g. yo save que il ariva hodi I know that he will arrive tomorrow, on deve laborar por viver one has to work in order to live.

If a subordinate clause or a non-finite verbal phrase comes first, it is separated by a comma, e.g. Si yo have temp, yo ira a ver te If I have time, I shall go to see you, Vident el pericle, il fugid Seeing the danger, he ran away.

Comma goes after the phrases and adverbiacl complements which are not closely related to the sentence or taken out of context, e.g. Senyor, yo es a Vostre disposicion Sir, I am at your service, Finalmente, il arivad a 10 horas Finally, he arrived at 10 o’clock.

Comma separates the equivalent parts of speech, e.g. Les genitores, les avoles et les infantes viven in la misme urbe The parents, the grandparents and the children are living in the same town.

Comma goes both before and after the apposition, e.g. Stefan I, el gran rege, morid in 1038 Stephan I, the great king, died in 1038.

Salutations in letters are terminated by a comma in Romanid, e.g. Car Genitores, ... Dear Parents, ...

The other punctuation marks: semicolon, colon, question mark, exclamation mark, dash, quotation marks and brackets are used according to the Hungarian usage50.

§ 6 Articles

Romanid has both definite and indefinite article.

The forms of the definite article are as follows: el (masculine singular), la (feminine singular) and les (plural, both gender). E.g. el color the colour, la familia the family, les armas the weapons. Abstractions are preceded by neuter definite article lo51 e.g. lo bel the beautiful/beauty, lo bon the good.

The forms of the indefinite article52 are as follows: un (masculine), una (feminine). Indefinite article has no plural. E.g. un libro a book, libros books, una urbe a town, urbes towns.

§ 7 Nouns

Nouns have no specific ending in Romanid. They have two genders53: masculine and feminine.

Masculine nouns:
1. Words denoting males or male occupations, e.g. patre father, rege king.
2. Words ending in -o, e.g. libro book, medio medium, means. Exceptions: la radio, la dinamo, la foto, la mano.
3. Words ending in consonant, vowels -i or -u, e.g. credit credit, punct point, full stop, dot, alibi alibi, menu menu.
4. Nouns ending in -age, e.g. garage garage, massage massage.
5. Words of Greek origin ending in -ma, e.g. drama drama, enigma enigma, dilemma dilemma.
6. Words ending in -ee, e.g. cafee coffee, comitee committee. Exception: la armee the army.

Feminine nouns:
1. Words denoting females or female occupations, e.g. matre mother, heroin heroine.

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50 Hungarian usage is similar to the English one. The main difference is that exclamation mark is used if the main sentence uses imperative mood, even if it is a polite request (see footnote #47). This feature can be verified in the Romanid corpus. The other two differences, i.e. the form of the quotation mark and the hyphen cannot be checked in the corpus since it is typewritten. Because this problem has minor relevance, we will not detail it.

51 According to the examples, this refers to the usage of adjectives (participles) as abstract nouns. These constructions means ‘everything that is ...’

52 Indefinite article is used in Romanid, in contrast to the Hungarian but in accordance with the English usage, if the subject is classified into a category – especially in case of attributive construct –, e.g. El chac es un mental sport ‘The chess is a mental sport’. Spanish analogies presume that indefinite article is omitted if the category is a profession name without any attributes (e.g. profesor), or its attribute may not be preceded by indefinite article (e.g. altre). If the category is in plural, indefinite article is not used, since Romanid has no plural indefinite article, e.g. El tram et el trolebus son masa comunicacion medios ‘The tram and the trolley-bus are media of public transport’.

53 However, in two special cases, there is a third, “neuter” gender, too: words substantivised by article lo (see § 6 Articles), and the special form id of the 3rd person singular personal pronoun (see § 14 Personal pronouns).

In foreign words without natural gender, the gender is determined by the attached (or implied) classifying apposition, e.g. la Hortobágy from la Pasta Hortobágy.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar
(translation with comments of the translator)

2. Words ending in -a, e.g. vita life, galina hen. Exception: el dia the day.
3. The majority of words ending in -e, corte (court)yard, pure tower, force force, nasconde birth. Exceptions: names of months (marzo, septiembre, octubre, noviembre, deciembre), as well as the nouns that are also masculine in Romance languages. Some examples: centro centre, comerce commerce, edifice building, negocie business, shop, office office, people people, price prece price, space space.

Word cheque cheque is also masculine.
4. Words ending in end-stressed -ta and -ita, e.g. amista friendship, realita reality, velocita velocity.
5. Words ending in -ion and -icion, e.g. reunion reunion, nacion nation, leccion lesson.
6. Words ending in -ur, -ad, -id, -itad, e.g. cultur culture, figur figure, literatur literature, olimpiad Olympics, serendad serenade, oranjad orange juice, apsid apse, egid aegis, longitud longitude, altitud altitude. Exception: el futur the future.
7. Words of Latin origin ending in -is and -es, e.g. hepatitis hepatitis, appendicitis appendicitis, diabetes diabetes.

§ 8 Plural of nouns

The plural marker is -s after nouns ending in a vowel, or -es after consonants, e.g. casa – casas, color – colores.

End-stressed endings -ta and -ita change to -tes and -ites, respectively, in plural, e.g. realita – realitates, liberta – libertates, necesita – necesitates.

Words ending in consonant -e take plural marker -os, e.g. loc – locos, chec – checos, foc – focos.

The plural marker is the regular -s in case of words ending in -um, e.g. museum – museums, forum – forums.

The plural form of words in -es is same as their singular, e.g. la fasces – les fasces.

Endings -is and -us are deleted before the plural marker, e.g. la crisis – les crises, el virus – les vires.

The plural markers -s and -es do not change the position of the word stress (they have to be left out of consideration during application of stress rules), e.g. pace – paces, docto – doctores.

The sound clusters -ul and -im that are stressed in singular lose their stress in plural, e.g. modul – modules, secul – seculos, octiñ – octimes.

§ 9 Declension of nouns

Nouns in Romanid have two numbers and four cases.

It would be difficult to determine the gender of the word mare ‘see’ from the Romance languages if it would not be declared as feminine in Phrase Book. This etonym is masculine in Italian and Portuguese, epicene in Spanish and feminine only in French, Rhaeto-Romanic and Rumanian. It was unfortunate to increase the masculine nouns in -e, especially as they end generally in -o in Spanish and Italian. The majority of nouns in -re seems to be masculine anyway because their Spanish and Italian counterparts end in -ro.

This means that we cannot reconstruct the intended singular form (i.e. with or without final -e) of nouns which occur only in plural form ending in -es (except -ques < -que), e.g. compagnones – compagnon ~ compagnone, flores – flor ~ flor. (In the first example, the variant ending in a consonant is presumable, but there is hard to find any basis to choose in case of the latter one. We have to analyse the corpus yet to survey the morphotactics of Romanid in this field.)

In this case we have troubles to distinguish between nouns ending in -c and -co, too. However we have more proofs than in case of nouns ending possibly in -e. The nouns in -co are rare and they terminate almost always in -ico (the complete list of nouns in -ico found in the corpus: amico, elctrotecnico, mecanico, medico, tecnico, poco). In this type the ending -o seems to be a noun marker: there are variants without final vowel, and they are all adjectives or pronouns: mecanico ‘mechanical’, tecnic ‘technical’, poc ‘few’. (The occasionally substantivised adjectives do not take noun marker, e.g. el ric ‘the rich [man]’.) The nouns of the corpus ending in -ic are as follows: the proper name Emeric ‘Emery’, the modern international word aerobic ‘aerobic’ and the medical term analgesic ‘analgesic’ (the latter one can be interpreted as a substantivised adjective).

It is likely that the reason for this special plural marker in case of nouns ending in -c was to preserve the written form. On the contrary, the nouns ending in -g take the marker -es in plural despite of the fact that their written form changes, e.g. pedagog – pedagogues.

This should be true also for the plural marker -os.

According to this, the other clusters mentioned in § 2 Stress that are regularly unstressed in penult keep their stress in plural, e.g. analgesic – analgesicos.

In fact, nouns have only one “case” because accusative coincides with nominative and the other cases are formed by prepositions attached to the nominative form. In contrast to the nouns, specific accusative form
Paradigmatic examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>el dent</td>
<td>the tooth</td>
<td>les dentes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>el dent</td>
<td>the tooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>del dent</td>
<td>of the tooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>al dent</td>
<td>to/for the tooth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>la rota</td>
<td>the wheel</td>
<td>les rotas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>la rota</td>
<td>the wheel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>de la rota</td>
<td>of the wheel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>a la rota</td>
<td>to/for the wheel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 10 Adjectives

Adjectives are invariable when used as attributives or predicates. They are treated as nouns if they are substantivised. E.g. *el blanc mur* the white wall, *les blanc mures* the white walls. *Este libros son interesant* These books are interesting. *El povre* the poor man, *les povres* the poor (people), *el ric* the rich (man), *les ricos* the riches.

Adjective *grande* shortens to *gran* before nouns, e.g. *les gran magasines* the big stores.

§ 11 Nouns used as adjectives

If a noun comes before another noun, the first one becomes the attribute of the second one without alteration, e.g. *argent moneta* silver coin, *el Viena expres* the Vienna express, *prese liberta* freedom of the press.

§ 12 Comparative forms of adjectives

Positive comparison: positive degree: *long* long, comparative form: *plus long* longer, superlative form: *mas long* longest.

Negative comparison: *clar* clear, comparative form: *minus clar* less clear, superlative form: *minimus clar* least clear.

Comparison in attributive phrases: *la gran casa* the large house, *la plus gran casa* the larger house, *la mas gran casa* the largest house.

Usage as predicate: *Johan es diligent* John is diligent, *Luis es plus diligent* Louis is more diligent, *Helena es la mas diligent* Helen is the most diligent.

In addition to the relative superlative form, adjectives have also absolute superlative. E.g. *Budapest es la mas gran urbe de Hungaria* Budapest is the largest city of Hungary (Relative superlative). *Este urbe es belisim*

is used in case of pronouns *qui, quid* (see § 18 Interrogative pronouns, § 19 Relative pronouns) and their compounds (see § 22 Indefinite pronouns). Personal pronouns have specific accusative and dative forms (see § 14 Personal pronouns).

The word order in attributive compounds: The simple adjectival, participial, numeral and pronominal attributes precede the qualified word. However, if the attribute has an adjunct, it comes after the qualified word, e.g. *les vidit animales* ‘the seen animals’, but *les animales vidit in el zoologic jardin* ‘the animals seen in the zoo’.

Attributive adverbial phrases are also used as postpositions, e.g. *projeccion in color* ‘colour projection’ (as well as cardinals used as ordinals, e.g. *papa Paul VI* (sex) ‘Pope Paul VI’).

This means genitival construction in general, e.g. *argent moneta ≈ moneta de argent*. There are examples in the Phrase Book, where the attributive noun is in plural: *confecciones seccion* ‘department of ready-to-wear articles’ (but also *confeccion seccion* with same meaning), *homes brasa nat* ‘men’s breast-stroke swimming’, *damas dors* ‘women’s backstroke (swimming)’, *homes relee (stafeta)* ‘men’s relay’, *homes/damas simple/duble* ‘men’s/women’s single/double’, *infantes jardin* ‘kindergarten’.

Moreover, infinitives can be attributes, too. In this case infinitives are verbal nouns (nominal gerunds), e.g. *estar camera* ‘living-room’, *dormir camera* ‘bedroom’, *dormir camisa* ‘nightdress, nightshirt’.

In appositive phrases the apposition comes first, e.g. *senyor Pataki, la Pusta Hortobágy, drama “Ban Bán”, matricul numer TI-27-48*, (with compound core constituent) *la opera Tosca de Puccini, la comedia El Avar de Molière*; however, the reverse order is also frequent: *Reflexa fotoaparat, Margaret Pont, Deák place, Berek strata, Kossuth emisor*. 
This city in very beautiful (Absolute superlative). The absolute superlative is formed by adding suffix -isim to the adjective. If the adjective ends in -e, the final -e is omitted62, e.g. grande – grandissim.

Comparison of mult much/many, plus or plusior more, plurim most.

Comparison of poc little/few, minus or minor less/fewer, minim least/fewest.

Forms plus and minus are used with uncountable nouns (materials and abstractions), e.g. plus aqua more water, minus luce less light. Countable (concrete and individual) nouns require plusior and minor, e.g. plusior soldates more soldiers, minor aves less birds.

§ 13 Comparison constructions

With the positive form of the adjective, tan ... cam is used, e.g. il es tan alt cam tu he is as tall as you. (The attribute has the same degree in both cases.)

With the comparative, que is used, e.g. Eva es plus diligent que Josef Eve is more diligent than Joseph. There is an alternative construction with preposition de: Eva es plus diligent de Josef. (The attribute has a greater degree in one of the cases.)

Comparison with the superlative has the form el/la ... de or el/la ... entre: Luis es el mas diligent de su clase companyones Louis is the most diligent of his classmates, Maria es la minimus alegre entre su amicas Mary is the least merry of her friends.

PRONOUNS

§ 14 Personal pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Acc.</th>
<th>Dat.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>yo I</td>
<td>me me</td>
<td>me (to/for) me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tu you (informal)</td>
<td>te you (informal)</td>
<td>(to/for) you (inf.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>il, ella, id he, she, it</td>
<td>le, la, ed or lo him, her, it</td>
<td>lui (to/for) him, her, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vos you (informal)</td>
<td>ils, ellas they</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>les, las them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lor (to/for) them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td></td>
<td>nos us</td>
<td>nos (to/for) us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| In 3rd person singular, il stands for the masculine, ella for the feminine and id for the neuter63.

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62 The form of the absolute superlative is not defined in case of adjectives ending in other vowel than -e, however, it is likely that the final vowel is deleted also in this type.

63 In nominative, il refers to male, ella to female living beings and id to inanimate objects. Il is used also for persons with unknown or unspecified gender (e.g. Il qui no audi, es surd ‘He who does not hear is deaf’). Nouns denoting group of living beings can be referred by a personal pronoun agreeing with the given noun (grammatical concord), e.g. juvenesa ‘youth’ – ella. Id is used also as impersonal or grammatical subject, e.g. Id es una hora ‘It is one o’clock’. Id as grammatical subject can be omitted only in idiomatic phrases, e.g. (id) es bien ‘(it is) all right’.

In accusative, the usage of the personal pronouns is more ambiguous. Le and la refer both animate and inanimate antepositional, emphatic objects, e.g. La expedicion de la recomendat letra la la posta certifica per un recepis. ‘The posting of a registered letter is certified in the post office by a receipt’. However, there are examples when they refer to unemphatic neuter objects (according to Spanish analogies, this can be true above all for feminine words): Si on vole meter a la posta una francat ordinar letra, id sufice de jectar la en una letras boxa. ‘If we want to post an ordinary letter, it is enough to drop it in a letter-box’. Not counting the above cases, pronouns lo and ed stand for inanimate objects in the corpus: lo is used always as an independent object and ed only with prepositions.

There is no special ‘neuter’ (i.e. inanimate) form in 3rd person plural personal pronoun, the concord is based always on the grammatical gender. If the actual gender is unknown or we want to refer to both masculine and feminine objects, the masculine form is used.

Romanid has specific informal/plain and formal/polite forms of 2nd person personal pronouns, similarly as in French. However, the table does not enumerate the formal pronouns, only the informal ones. The form of the 2nd person formal personal pronoun is vos both in singular and in plural, that is the same as the 2nd person plural informal pronoun (as in French) but capitalised. It is important that there is a semantic concord with the formal pronoun, that is (unlike in French) singular predicate has to be used when vos refers to one
After prepositions accusative forms are used\(^{64}\), e.g. *con me* with me, *de te* from you, *ante les* before them.

In case of two adjacent personal pronouns, the word order is as follows: the dative form (indirect object) of 1st and 2nd person personal pronouns comes always *first*, e.g. *La matre da nos les* The mother gives them to us. *Da me lo!* Give it to me! On the other hand, 3rd person dative forms (indirect objects) are in the *second* position, e.g. *Yo da les lor* I give them to them.

In interrogative sentences\(^{65}\), oblique (i.e. accusative and dative) forms of the personal pronouns come before the verb, e.g. *Quando me lo porta tu?* When do/will you bring it to me?

### § 15 Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns can be attributes or substantives. Attributive possessive pronouns are always followed by a noun and they are always invariable. These pronouns are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st p.</td>
<td><em>mi</em></td>
<td><em>nostre</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd p.</td>
<td><em>tu</em></td>
<td><em>vostre</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd p.</td>
<td><em>su</em>(^{67})</td>
<td><em>lor</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples: *mi patre* my father, *nostre patria* our homeland, *mi libros* my books, *nostre avoles* our grandparents.

In case of substantival possessive pronouns, suffix *-e* is added (except *nostre, vostre and lor*), they are preceded by definite article and can be pluralised. E.g. *Mi casa et la tue trovan se in el centre del vilage* My house and yours are found in the centre of the village. *Mi documentes son in ordin, ma les Vostres no son in ordin* My documents are in order, but yours are not in order. *La gran-matre ama multo les sues* The grandmother loves her family very much. (The vowel *u* in forms *sue* and *sues* is stressed therefore it is pronounced as *u* not as *v*.)

Substantival possessive forms are used as predicates but without article and they cannot be pluralised in this position. E.g. *Este libro es mie* This book is mine, *Este soldates son nostre* These soldiers are ours. *Vostre* as a polite/formal form has to be capitalised.

### § 16 Demonstrative pronouns

Pronoun *este* refers to the near objects, persons etc. and *aquel* to the distant ones.

In adjectival position they are invariable, e.g. *este hom* this man, *aquel flores* those flowers.

When they are used as substantives, they can be pluralised, e.g. *Estes son blu, aqueles son roge* These are blue, those are red.

The demonstrative pronouns have special invariable “neuter”, pronominal forms\(^{68}\): *esto* for near and *id* for distant reference. E.g. *Esto es una casa* This is a house, *Esto son letras* These are letters, *Quid es id?* What is it? *Id pluve* It is raining, *Id es 5 horas* It is 5 o’clock.

*Id* is used also as an impersonal and grammatical subject\(^{69}\), e.g. *Id pluve* It is raining, *Id es 5 horas* It is 5 o’clock.

person, e.g. *Que hora have Vos?* ‘What time is it on your (sing.) clock?’; otherwise the predicate is in plural. The only exception is the imperative mood, where both singular and plural polite pronouns require always 2nd person plural verbal form, e.g. *Volete dir me, que hora id es!* ‘Would you (sing./pl.) tell me the right time’.

Romanid has a special particle *on* for the general subject (cf. French *on*, German *man*, English *one/you/they*). Despite of the fact that this particle could be interpreted as a personal pronoun, the grammatical guide discusses it in § 22 Indefinite pronouns as an indefinite pronoun.

For 3rd person inanimate personal pronoun, see previous note.

\(^{64}\) Not only in interrogative sentences but in every case where reverse word order is used (§ 40 Word order), e.g. in optative sentences (desires): *Que le videre yo solo!* ‘I wish I should see him’

\(^{65}\) The capitalised form of 2nd person plural possessive pronoun is used as a polite/formal 2nd person form both in singular and plural (cf. French *votre/vos*), e.g. *Qued face Vos in Vostre libre temp?* ‘What do you do in your free time?’

\(^{66}\) 3rd person singular pronoun is used with the particle *on* (general subject), e.g. *Id no es indifferent, como on pasa su libre temp?* ‘It is not indifferent how you spend your free time’.

\(^{67}\) These “neuter”, pronominal forms represent an unnamed noun or a whole sentence.

\(^{68}\) This feature belongs rather to the functions of the homophonic personal pronoun.
§ 17 Noun-substituting pronoun

The forms of the noun-substituting pronoun are the same as the ones of the definite article\(^70\), i.e. *el, la, les*. E.g. *mi jardín et el de mi amico* my garden and the one of my friends, *Mi documentes et les de mi genitores perdes* My documents and the ones of my parents was lost.

§ 18 Interrogative pronouns


*Que?* + noun: What (kind of)? *Que libro lege Vos?* What kind of book are you reading? *De que color es este cravat?* What colour is the tie?

*Quel?* + noun: Which? *Quel cane es de pedigree?* Which dog has pedigree?

*Qual?* + verb: Which? E.g. *Qual es el mas bel color?* Which is the most beautiful colour? *Quais choisit tu?* Which one do you choose? *Quais recevit el regal?* Which received the gift?

*Como?* + verb *ser:* What? E.g. *Como son les resultates?* What are the results?

*Como?* + other verb: How? *Como funcionan la nov maquina?* How functions the new machine?

§ 19 Relative pronouns

*Cui?* who, that, *quid* what, which, that. Accusative forms: *que* whom, that, *qued* what, which, that. Plural forms: *quis* who, that (nom.), *ques* whom, that (acc.), *quides* what, which, that (nom.), *quesed* what, which, that (acc.). *Cui?*\(^72\) whose, of what, of which (sing.), *cuis* whose, of what, of which (pl.). Examples: *Les estrangeres quis arivad hodi parlan angles* The foreigners, who arrived today, speak English. *Yo vides les objectes quedes el museum exposed* I saw the things that are exhibited by the museum. *El roman cui accion joca se in Hungaria have un internacional success* The novel, whose plot is set in Hungary, has an international success. *Les infants in cui vita esto no encontra se poten dir se felice* The children, in whose life it does not happen, can call themselves happy.

§ 20 Reflexive pronouns

Romanid has only one true reflexive pronoun, it has a common accusative and dative form for 3rd person singular and plural: *se* (to/for) himself, herself, itself, themselves. The 1st and 2nd reflexive pronouns (*me, te, nos, vos*) are borrowed from the personal pronouns. E.g. *Tu leve te* You wash yourself, *Il compra se una camisa* He buys a shirt for himself, *Nos vestin nos* We dress ourselves, *Iles encontraran se a sex horas* They will meet at 6 o’clock. In questions\(^73\) the reflexive pronouns comes before the verb, e.g. *Te leve tu?* Are you washing yourself? *Se alegran les infants?* Are the children glad?

The plural forms of the reflexive pronoun function also as a reciprocal pronoun, e.g. *Nos aman nos:* 1. We love ourselves (reflexive), 2. We love each other (reciprocal).

The reciprocal reflexive pronoun\(^\text{74}\) is as follows: *un altre* one other, each other. With prepositions: *a un altre* for/to one other, for/to each other, *de un altre* from/of one other, from/of each other, *con un altre* with one other, with each other. E.g. *Nos laboran un altre* We work for one another.

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\(^{70}\) This is similar to the English *one* when it used instead of repetition of a previously mentioned noun. In Spanish, this kind of absolute (stand-alone) definite article can be used only in genitival construction (*el/la/les de ...* ‘one of’) and it is likely that this is true also in Romanid.

\(^{71}\) Due to its irregular stress, we mark the accent of this word in the vocabulary by an acute accent: *cúi?* *cúis?*

\(^{72}\) Word *cui(s)* is stressed on the *u*, cf. § 18 Interrogative pronouns.

\(^{73}\) Not only in interrogative sentences but in every case where reverse word order is used (§ 40 Word order), e.g. in desires.

\(^{74}\) The reciprocal reflexive pronoun *un altre* has no accusative (and dative) form, the plain reflexive pronoun is used in this case. Moreover, the reciprocal reflexive pronoun is used instead of a plain reflexive pronoun only if it is not clear from the context that the reflexive pronoun should have reciprocal connotation. The reciprocal reflexive pronoun is the only way to express antepositional reciprocal object in 1st and 2nd (but presumably also in 3rd) person, e.g. *Un autre aman nos* ‘We love each other (and not other people)’. It is not clear whether this pronoun has to agree in gender (i.e. form *una altre* does exist or not beside *un altre*). There is a compulsory concord in Spanish: the feminine form must be used if all of the subjects are feminine, otherwise (i.e. if one of the subjects is masculine or the gender is indeterminate) the masculine form.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar
(translation with comments of the translator)

§ 21 Emphasising pronoun
It has only one form: ipse\(^75\), e.g. yo ipse I myself, el president ipse the president himself.

§ 22 Indefinite pronouns

The indefinite pronouns\(^76\) can be:

1. Substantival: alqui somebody, someone, alquid something, quicunc anybody, anyone, no matter who, whoever, quidcunc anything, no matter what, whatever, omnequi everybody, everyone, noqui nobody, no one, noquid nothing. The constituents qui, quid in these pronouns are declined, e.g. alquid something (acc.), omneque everybody, everyone (acc.).

2. Adjectival: omne\(^77\) every, each, alcun + plural noun: some (kind/sort of), alcun + plural noun: some, several, a few, tot les all, every, tot + singular definite article: whole, all, nul no (kind of), not any. E.g., Omne hom es mortal or tot les homes son mortal Every man is mortal or all men are mortal. Tot la familia The whole family. Have tu alcun problema? Do you have some problem? Yo have alcun problemas I have some problems. Nos no viden nul resultat We see no result.

Uncountable nouns (materials and abstractions) are used in singular after muit many, much, a lot of, and poc little, few, e.g. mult denar a lot of money, much money, poc aqua little. Countable (concrete and individual) nouns take plural after them, e.g. mult infantes many children, a lot of children, poc dates few data.

Plural pronouns omnes all of us/you/them, multes many people, many of us/you/them, pocs few people refers to group of persons.
The particle on\(^78\) indicating general, indeterminate subjects is also an indefinite pronoun. E.g. Hic on parla frances French is spoken here (lit. Here, one speaks French).

VERBS

§ 23 Classification of verbs

Romanid has two voices: active and passive. There are four moods in both voices: indicative, hortative-conjunctive, conditional and imperative.

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\(^75\) The pronoun ipse comes directly after the emphasised word (which need not be in nominative case by all means). Definite article has to be used before the emphasised word if it is a noun (or other substantivised word) and the word normally may take the article. It does not agree in gender but it is undefined whether it has plural form or not, i.e. is ‘we ourselves’ translated as nos ipse or nos ipses?

\(^76\) This section discusses not only the indefinite pronouns, but also the general pronouns (e.g. collective: every-, concessive: any-, no matter ..., negative: no-). On the contrary, it does not deal with adverbial pronouns at all. The only exception of these kinds of pronouns in the corpus is phrase in omne parte ‘everywhere’. According to this it is likely that the planned Romanid system is similar to the Spanish (cf. Sp. en todas partes ‘everywhere’, analogy can be found also in Romanid de este modo – Sp. de este modo ‘in this way, thus’). Neither adverbiał pronoun abmo ‘both’ is mentioned. It comes with plural, e.g. personas de ambo sexes ‘persons of both sexes’. Though we may use – like in Spanish – the numeral phrase dos instead, e.g. la juvenesa des dos sexes ‘youth of both sexes’. (On the analogy of omne – omnes etc. it is likely that abmo may take plural marker if used as collective number.)

Adjectival pronoun altre ‘other’ was also omitted (as well as its substantival form el altre ‘the other’ and the presumed altres ‘others, other people’). In contrast with English, it is likely that it cannot be preceded by indefinite article, because un altre ‘one other, each other’ has different meaning (cf. § 20 Reflexive pronouns); but there is no relevant example in the corpus.

Further undisussed pronouns are: bastante ‘enough’ (and the analogically presumed bastantes ‘enough (people), in sufficient numbers’), as well as certan ‘certain’ (certanes ‘certain people, some (people)’). The latter one – contrary to Spanish – can be used with indefinite pronoun, pl. havent versat un certan procent ‘after paying a certain percent’.

\(^77\) At the same time omne is also substantival indefinite pronouns. If it used as an attribute, the qualified word is placed in singular.

\(^78\) The particle on can be interpreted as a personal pronoun (cf. French on, German man). It can be translated into English by indefinite pronoun one, plural personal pronoun (you, they, we) or by passive voice. Particle on behaves like a 3rd person singular personal pronoun, e.g. it agrees in 3rd person singular, the related reflexive pronoun is se, possessive pronoun is su, e.g. On pote solar se et duchar se ‘You may sun yourself and take a shower’. Id no es indiferent, como on pasa su libre temp ‘It is not indifferent how you spend your free time’.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar
(translation with comments of the translator)

Indicative has four tenses: present, past, future and future perfect. There is only one (present) tense in hortative-conjunctive. Conditional has present and past tense. Imperative has a defective present only.
There are two numbers – singular and plural – and three persons in both numbers.
The verb has three non-finite forms: infinitive, participle and gerund.
Romanid verbs have no subjunctive (unlike Romance languages or English) and there is no sequence of tenses at all. The tense in the main clause does not affect the tense in the sub-ordinate clause; it always reflects the real logical temporal relations.

§ 24 Conjugation of verbs

Romanid verbs have two stems: the base stem and the present stem. The base stem is formed by omitting the ending -ar, -er and -ir from the infinitive, present stem is the same as the infinitive without final -r.
According to this, the suffix of the infinitive is: -ar, -er, -ir. E.g. parl-ar to speak (class I verbs), viv-er to live (class II verbs), fin-ir to finish (class III verbs).

§ 25 Active voice

The singular form of the present tense is the same as the present stem preceded by a personal pronoun, e.g. yo parla I speak, I am speaking etc.; tu vive you live, you are living etc.; il fini he finishes etc. In plural, suffix -n is added to the verb, but this suffix does not change the stress of the word, e.g. nos parlan we speak, we are speaking etc.; vos viven you live, you are living etc.; iles finin they finish etc.
Romanid has only one past tense. It is formed by adding tense marker -d to the present stem, pl. yo parlad I spoke, I was speaking etc., nos vived we lived, we were living etc.
To form simple future, marker -a has to be added to the infinitive in the singular and marker -an in the plural (or marker -ra(n) to the present stem), e.g. yo parlarana I shall speak, nos finiran we will finish. Stress falls always on the final syllable (i.e. on the tense marker).

79 If there are more singular subjects, the verb is in plural, e.g. Maria et Julia laboran et studian ‘Mary and Julie are working and studying’, mi casa et la tue trovan se in el centre del vilage ‘My house and yours are found in the village centre’.
In Romanid there is a semantic concord with the 2nd person formal personal pronoun, that is singular predicate has to be used when Vos refers to one person, otherwise the predicate is in plural, e.g. Qued have Vos? ‘What is the matter with you (sing.)?’ ~ Qued haven Vos? ‘What is the matter with you (pl.)?’. The only exception is the imperative mood, where both singular and plural polite pronouns require always 2nd person plural verbal form, see § 25 Active voice.
In spite of this statement, the hortative mood is still a kind of subjunctive, however, it has more limited functions as in Romance languages or in English. That is why we translated its name as hortative-conjunctive, though. For more information on hortative-conjunctive (there is not too much), see § 25 Active voice.
According to this present tense in the subordinate clause means that it is simultaneous with the main sentence, past tense is used in case of antecedence, future tense in case of posteriority.
Examples if the main sentence is in present (similar to English usage): "Yo vide que ella comprad ‘I see that she did the shopping’, "Yo vide que ella comprara ‘I saw that she will do the shopping’, "Yo vide que ella comprara ‘I saw that she would do the shopping’.
Examples if the main sentence is in past (different from English usage): "Yo vided que ella comprad ‘I saw that she had done the shopping’, "Yo vided que ella comprara ‘I saw that she did the shopping’, "Yo vided que ella comprara ‘I saw that she would do the shopping’.
It is likely that the scheme is the same if the main sentence is in future, however, special future perfect tense is used when a clause relates to a future action that is completed before the action of the other clause would begin, e.g. Quando yo havra arivat en Viena, yo scrivera te una ilustrat carta ‘When I shall have arrive in Vienna, I will write picture postcard to you’, see § 25 Active voice.
In the paradigm of the class II verbs ending in -er, several forms have irregular stress because it falls on the same syllable as (regularly) in present indicative. These forms are as follows: past indicative, present conditional and 2nd person plural of indicative, cf. § 2 Stress.
The stress of the past indicative of class II verbs ending in -er is irregular: it falls on the same syllable as in present indicative, e.g. nos vived, cf. § 2 Stress.
Simple future may have also modal function: it may express probability, possibility referring to present and future, see Paragraph 10, § 44 Verbal periphrases.
Formation of future perfect: simple future of auxiliary *haver* + past perfect of the main verb. E.g. *Quando yo havra arivat en Viena, yo scrivera te una ilustrat carta* When I shall have arrive in Vienna, I will write picture postcard to you. Future perfect is used to express a future action which is completed before another future action would begin.89

Hortative-conjunctive 86 – which has only one tense – is formed from the present tense by replacing final vowel -a to -e in verbs ending in -ar, substituting final vowel -e with -a in verbs ending in -er87 and adding marker -se to the present stem of verbs ending in -ir (i.e. marker class I -e, class II -a or class III -ise is added to the base stem) e.g. *que yo parle* that I may/might speak, *que il viva* that he may/might live, *que iles finisen* that they may/might finish. Plural forms take marker -n also in this tense.

To form present conditional, mood marker -e88 is added to the infinitive (or marker -re(n) to the present stem), e.g. *yo parlare* I should speak, *tu vivere* you would live, *il finire* he would finish.

Past conditional is a compound tense. It is formed by present conditional of auxiliary *haver* and past perfect of the main verb, e.g. *Yo havre salutat le, si yo havre vidit le* I should have greeted him, if I had seen him.

As there is no Romance-style subjunctive in Romanid, present conditional or past conditional is used after conjunctive *si* 89.

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According to the Phrase Books, present tense can be used for the future, e.g. *Quando me lo porta tu?* ‘When do you bring it to me?’ (however, it can be actually a substitution of imperative), *Quid joca se este sera in el Nacional Theatre?* ‘What is on tonight at the National Theatre?’ (the time expression determines).

Immediate future is expressed by construction *ir + infinitive*, see Paragraph 1, § 44 Verbal periphrases.

In addition future perfect may express probability, possibility referring to past, see Paragraph 10, § 44 Verbal periphrases.

In spite of the author’s statements that hortative mood is not a kind of subjunctive, in fact, it is. However, it has more limited functions as in Romance languages or in English (that is why we add phrase ‘conjunctive’ to its name). We know only little information about this mood. One of the certain data is that it cannot be used in conditional clauses (introduced by conjunction *si* ‘if’). In addition it is always preceded by conjunctive *que* in the corpus. Therefore it seems that it cannot be used in main sentence, however, it is possible that it can stand for the missing imperative forms (the subjunctive introduced by *que* is used in Spanish in this position).

According to the above, the hortative-conjunctive in Romanid can be presumably used (as a common set of Hungarian sub-ordinate imperative and Romance subjunctive):

– in a subordinate clause if it is a dependent command (e.g. He phonned me to start);
– in a subject or object clause if the main sentence expresses demand, request, desire, command, prohibition, permission, necessity (e.g. I ask you to start);
– in a clause of purpose (e.g. He did everything in order that I might start).

In the other cases when English would use subjunctive, conditional shall be used instead. (If English would use indicative in place of Romance subjunctive, Romanid presumably uses also indicative.)

In hortative-conjunctive forms of verbs ending in -ar and -er, the mood marker causes a change in pronunciation of the stem consonant, pl. *dicer – que yo dica*. In cases of verbs ending in -gver, -qver, it is likely that *v* should change to *u* because orthography *-gua, -qua* is regular but *-gva, -qva* is not (there is no relevant example the in corpus.)

The examples of § 26 Passive voice and § 27 Reflexive verbs reveal that conditional forms also take plural marker -n, e.g. *iles lavaren se* ‘they would was themselves’.

The stress of the conditional of class II verbs ending in -er is irregular: it falls on the same syllable as in present indicative, e.g. *tu vivere*, cf. § 2 Stress.

Conditional may express also supposition, dubiety, cf. Paragraph 12, § 44 Verbal periphrases.

This statement does not mean that indicative cannot be used if the condition is real. Based on the available information, Romanid presumably applies the Hungarian system. The main differences between Hungarian and English usage are as follows: Future tense can be used in a clause of condition to express future arrangement (present continuous in English, cf. if I am having money ~ Hun. *ha lesz pénzem ~ # si yo havra denar*). If past tense or past perfect is used in English in a clause of condition, it is replaced by conditional in Hungarian (because the English past and past perfect are forms of subjunctive here). Present conditional is used if the condition is unreal or improbable in the present (past tense in English, cf. if I had money [but I have not any] ~ Hun. *ha lenne pénzem ~ # si yo havre denar*), and past conditional is used when the condition was unreal or improbable in the past (past perfect in English, cf. if I had had money ~ Hun. *ha lett volna pénzem ~ # si yo havre havit denar*). In main sentence Romanid past conditional stands for English perfect conditional, auxiliary *should* is replaced by *devre* (Hun. *kellene*), *could* is replaced by *potere* (Hun. *tudna/tudná*) or simply by conditional without auxiliary.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar
(translation with comments of the translator)

Imperative has only three forms: 2nd person singular, 1st person plural and 2nd person plural. All these forms are used without personal pronoun. 2nd person singular imperative is the same as the present stem itself, e.g. parla! speak! (sing. informal) vive! live! (sing. informal) dormi! sleep! (sing. informal). 1st person plural: present stem + marker -mos, e.g. parlamos! let’s speak tenemos! let’s hold dormimos! let’s sleep. 2nd person plural⁹⁰: stem + marker + -te, e.g. parlate! speak! (pl. + sing. formal), scrivete! write! (pl. + sing. formal), dormite! sleep! (pl. + sing. formal).

§ 26 Passive voice

Passive voice is formed by the conjugated forms of auxiliary ser (to be) and the past participle of the main verb.

Present indicative: yo es laudat I am praised, nos son laudat we are praised.
Past indicative: yo esed laudat I was praised, nos esed laudat we were praised.
Future indicative: yo sera laudat I shall be praised, nos seran laudat we shall be praised.
Future perfect indicative: yo havra sit laudat I shall have been praised, nos havran sit laudat we shall have been praised.
Hortative-conjunctive: que yo sea laudat that I may/might be praised, que nos sean laudat that we may/might be praised.
Present conditional: yo serae laudat I should be praised, nos seran laudat we should be praised.
Past conditional: yo havræ sit laudat I should have been praised, nos havren sit laudat we should have been praised.
Imperative: se laudat! be praised! (sing. informal) semos laudat! let’s be praised! sete laudat! be praised! (pl. + sing. formal).

The passive voice in Romanid denotes rather a state resulting from an action and not the action itself. Therefore continulative aspect is expressed by reflexive verb instead⁹¹, e.g. La casa es construí The house is being built (Result: it is finished), La casa construï se The house is being built (Action: they are working on it; lit. The house is building itself). Or: La casa es in construcció The house is under construction.

§ 27 Reflexive verbs

Reflexive verbs⁹² are conjugated verbs followed by a reflexive pronoun (me, te, se, nos, vos, se). E.g. yo lava me I wash myself, tu lava te you wash yourself, il lava es he washes himself, nos lavad nos we washed ourselves, vos lavaron vos you will wash yourselves, iles lavaren se they would wash themselves, lava te! wash yourself! que yo lave me that I may/might wash myself.

In questions and in sentences where reverse word order is used, the reflexive pronoun comes before the verb, e.g. Cuando te lava tu? When do you wash yourself? Porque no se vestin les infantes? Why do the children not dress (themselves)?

When used with a modal auxiliary, reflexive pronoun is placed after the infinitive, e.g. Quando vole Vos vestir Vos? When do you want to dress (yourselves)? Yo no vole ir me I do not want to leave.

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⁹⁰ This is the only case when plural form – not singular one – must be used with 2nd person singular formal personal pronoun. (The possible reason is that there is no other way to distinguish between formal and informal forms since personal pronoun is not used in imperative.)

⁹¹ The stress of the 2nd person plural imperative form of class II verbs ending in -er is irregular: it falls on the same syllable as in present indicative, e.g. scrivete!, cf. § 2 Stress.

⁹² Reflexive verbs are used also instead of passive voice if action is emphasised, cf. § 26 Passive voice.
§ 28 Causative phrases

To form a causative phrase, infinitive of the verb must be placed after a declined form of auxiliary far93, e.g. yo fa scriver I have [it] written, tu fara facer you have [it] made, nos faren dar we have [it] given.

§ 29 Principal auxiliaries

Romanid has two principal auxiliaries94: haver and ser.
Verb haver is a close equivalent to the English verb to have, both as an auxiliary and as a main verb. (Yo have I have.)

Haver has the following irregular forms: yo havre I shall have, yo havre I should have.
The irregular forms of ser are as follows: yo es I am, nos son we are, yo esed I was, nos esed we were, que yo sea that I may/might be, que nos sean that we may/might be.

§ 30 Modal auxiliaries

Modal auxiliaries are as follows95: dever must, to have to, licer may, to be allowed, poter can, to be able, voler to want.

Note that the meaning of negative forms of dever and licer: no dever need not, not to have to, no licer must not, not to be allowed to, e.g. yo deve ir I must go, il no lice fumar he must not smoke.

Auxiliaries haver and dever have irregular future and present conditional because vowel e in the second syllable is deleted, e.g. havra, havre, devra, devre.

§ 31 Irregular verbs

There is a number of verbs in Romanid that are irregular. These are96: ir to go, dicer to tell, facer to make and vider to see.

1 = Present infinitive
2 = Past infinitive
3 = Present indicative
4 = Past indicative
5 = Future indicative
6 = Future perfect indicative

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93 It is likely that only the short variant far can be used as an auxiliary, the longer one facer is not.
94 The grammar does not mention the third principal auxiliary used in Phrase Book, that is hay. It is a defective verb that has only one impersonal present indicative form. It is used only in phrase id hay... which is the equivalent of English there is/are construction for both singular and plural subjects (cf. Spanish hay), e.g. Id hay percusion, corda et picicat instrumentes. ‘There are percussion, string and plucked instruments’
95 English auxiliary need can be translated as dever ‘must, to have to’ if it means obligation, or as "ser necesar ‘to be necessary, to be needed’ in case of inevitability. There is no solution in the corpus if need means claim or demand; it would be rendered, based on the analogy of Spanish, by hypothetical phrase "haver necesita or by hypothetical verb "necesar.

Neither English auxiliary ought to has proper Romanid equivalent. On the basis of the corpus, it has to be translated in the same way as must or obligatory, inevitable need (i.e. there is no difference between the obligation from an authority or from conscience). It is likely that the equivalents of ought can be put in conditional (i.e. translated as if it were should) to render the difference with must/need. Negative ought not to can be interpreted as no licer.

Dever stands also for shall/will in case of a command, obligation. Voler or future tense is used if shall/will means an intention and a decision to fulfil it. (Future tense is used when it is not modal phrase but express a future action.)

The past forms of English auxiliaries (e.g. could, might, should) are translated by conditional Romanid forms (e.g. potere, licere, devre) if English forms express not a real past arrangement but they are in fact subjunctive forms. (N.B. If should/would and may/might are not modal auxiliaries, their Romanid equivalent is Romanid conditional and hortative-conjunctive mood, respectively.) For other modal verbs (e.g. soler ‘used to’) and for examples of usage of modal auxiliaries, see § 43 Infini-

96 In fact, only verb ir is irregular of them; dicer, facer and vider regular, they only have a shorter, “contracted” variant dir, far and ver, respectively. (These short variants are regular, too, but they are more or less defective; the only irregular form is vis, that is the past participle of ver.) Further irregular verbs discussed elsewhere: ser (§ 29 Principal auxiliaries), haver (§ 29 Principal auxiliaries, § 30 Modal auxiliaries), dever (§ 30 Modal auxiliaries).
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### § 32 Infinitive

The markers of the present active infinitive\(^7\) are: *-ar, -er, -ir* (class I, II and III resp.). E.g. *parlar* to speak, *vider* to see, *audir* to hear.

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\(^7\) For attributive usage of the infinitive, see § 11 Nouns used as adjectives; for phrasal usage, see § 43 Infini-
tive phrases and § 44 Verbal periphrases.
Past active infinitive is formed by the infinitive of auxiliary *haver* and the past participle of the main verb, *e.g.* *haver vidit* to have seen. Past infinitive is used instead of a past sub-ordinate clause when its subject is the same as the one of the main sentence. *E.g.* *Yo regreta de haver te molestat* I regret having disturb you.

§ 33 Participle

To form present participle, suffix *-nt* is added to the present stem in case of class I and II verbs and *-ent* in case of class III verbs, *e.g.* *parlant* speaking, *vident* seeing, *fugient* running. *La vivent substance* the living substance.

In present participle of verbs ending in *-uir*, sound *i* is deleted from the vowel cluster, *e.g.* *construent* (instead of *construient*) building.

The suffix of past participle is *-at* in case of class I verbs and *-it* in case of class II and III verbs. This suffix is added to the base stem, *e.g.* *amat* loved, *scrivit* written, *finit* finished. In attributive position: *la scrivit letra* the written letter, *les vidit animales* the seen animals. However, if the attributive participle has an adjunct, the whole participial phrase comes after the noun, *e.g.* *les amimales vidit in el zoologic jardin* the animals seen in the zoo.

§ 34 Gerund

Present active gerund has the same form as the present active participle: *amant* loving, *recivent* receiving, *e.g.* *Legent el libro, yo audi la radio* While reading the book I listened to the radio. *Entrant en la camera, yo surpridend me* On entering the room I was surprised. It is used instead of a clause of time if the subjects of the main and of the sub-ordinate clause are the same and both predicates refer to simultaneous actions.

Past active gerund is formed by the present active gerund of auxiliary *haver* and the past participle of the main verb, *e.g.* *havent finit* having finished. It is equivalent with an antecedent clause of time or cause if the subjects of the clauses are the same. *E.g.* *Havent finit su labor, il vaded se a promenar se* Having finished his job he went for a walk. *Havent arivat tarde, Johan no poted ver la exposicion* Having arrived late John could not see the exhibition.

§ 35 Formation of adverbs

We can form adverb from every adjective. If the adjective ends in a consonant except *l* or *r*, the suffix of the adverb is *-amente*; *e.g.* *curios – curiosamente* curious – curiously, *economic – economicamente* economic – economically.

If the adjective ends in *-ant, -ent*, the form of the suffix is *-emente*, *e.g.* *evident – evidentemente* evident – evidently.

If the adjective ends in vowel *-e* or in consonants *-l* or *-r*, the suffix is *-mente*, *e.g.* *probable – probablemente* probable – probably, *general – generalmente* general – generally.

Comparison of adverbs: *gravemente* gravely, seriously, *plus gravemente* more gravely, more seriously, *mas gravemente* most gravely, most seriously, *gravisimamente* very gravely, very seriously.

§ 36 Prepositions

There are simple and compound prepositions. Every preposition governs the accusative. This rule has relevance only in case of pronouns, *e.g.* *con me* with me, *except te* except you, *per le* by/through him.

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98 If attributive present participle means ‘it is used for’ in English, then infinitive is used instead of participle in Romanid, cf. *estar camera* ‘living-room (room used for living [in the daytime])’ vs. *vivent substance* ‘living substance (substance that lives)’, cf. § 11 Nouns used as adjectives.

99 In spite of this, there is an example sentence in the Phrase Book where the subjects of the two clauses are not the same, even their actions do not occur simultaneously: *Arivant a la frontera, les garda-fronteras comenczan el pasaport control* ‘After somebody has arrived [lit. When arriving] at the border, the border guards begin to check the passport’. (It can be presumed, supported by a Spanish analogy, that a time clause having a general subject can be replaced by a gerund, even if the subject of the main sentence is not the same.)

100 There are adjectives ending in other vowel than *-e*, *e.g.* *respiratori*, cf. suffix *-ori* in § 7 Nouns, which are not discussed here, though. It is very likely that these take also suffix form *-mente*.

101 According to the corpus, the prepositional form of 3rd person singular neuter personal pronoun is *ed* (*lo* occurs only in absolute [stand-alone] position), cf. § 14 Personal pronouns.
Grammatical guide to the Romanid language by dr. Zoltán Magyar (translation with comments of the translator)

Simple prepositions

- **a** to, onto, for, **an** at, by, **ante** before, in front of, **apud** with sy, on sy, from sy among sy, **circa** (a)round, (at) about, **con** with, **contra** against, **de** of, from, **desde** since, from, **detras** behind, **durante** during, **en** in, into, **entre** between, among, **except** except, **extra** outside (of), **in** in, **infra** below, **intra** within, inside, **jusca** to, as far as, up to, till, until, **malgrad** in spite of, **per** through, by, per, via, **por** for, because of, for the sake of, **post** after, **segun** according to, **sin** without, **sub** under, **supra** above, **sur** on, from, **trans** across, over, through(out), **ultra** beyond, **vers** toward(s).

Compound prepositions

- **con regard a** considering
- **dentro de** inside
- **fora de** outside (of)
- **in cas de** in case of
- **in comparacion de** in comparison with/to
- **in consequence de** in consequence of
- **in loc de** instead of
- **in miloc de** in the middle of
- **por causa de** on account of
- **pres de** beside, near, close to

§ 37 Conjunctions

There are co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

Co-ordinating conjunctions: **et and**, **ni ... ni ...** neither ... nor ..., **sic cam or asi cam** as well as, **o or, o ... o ...** either ... or ..., **ma but**, **no solo ... ma anque ...** not only ... but also ..., **dunque** therefore, **asi** so, thus, **per consequeen** consequently, for this reason.

Subordinating conjunctions: **que that**, **perque because**, **si if, cam since, as, quando when, donde where, adonde (to) where, whereto**, **dedonde from where, wherefrom**, **bienque (al)though**, **como as**, **per quanto** however much, no matter how, much as, **solamente quando only when, quando anque even if, con tanto plus que all the more so (as/since).**

§ 38 Interjections

The more frequent interjections are as follows: **ah ah, ouch, oh o, oh, eh oh, how, eh bien** well (now), **pst hush, fi pooh, shame**, **per fortuna** fortunately, **per disgrace** unfortunately, **puf** bang, p(l)op, tene take this, here you are, **va** go away, be off (with you), **hura** hooray, hurrah, **bravo** bravo, very well, **ecce** behold, there (you are), here is/are, **regarda** just look at that.

Interjections are followed by an exclamation mark.

§ 39 Negation

Romanid has only one negative particle: **no**. It comes always before the predicate or the negated phrase, e.g. **Yo no conosce le** I do not know him. **No por esto fad yo apelar te** This is not why I sent for you.

In Romanid, like in Romance languages, double negative is used if the negative word would go after the verb. In this case, particle **no** comes before the verb, too. E.g. **Noqui veni** Nobody comes (simple negation because **noqui** is placed before the verb). **Id no veni noqui** No person comes, **yo no vide noque** I see nobody (double negation because **noqui** and **noque** follow the verb).

The word **only (solo, solamente)** may be expressed also by the restrictive construction **no ... que**. The sentence **il arivara solamente a tres horas** can be rendered also as **il no arivara que a tres horas** he will arrive only at 3 o’clock.

§ 40 Word order

In Romanid the core of the sentences (both main sentences and clauses) is the axis subject – predicate or the axis predicate – subject. The other parts of the sentence are placed round this core.

If the sentence starts with the subject or with another unstressed phrase, the axis subject – predicate (direct/normal word order) is used. E.g. **Nostre pais es situat in Central Europa** Our country is situated in Central
Europe. A octe horas nos van en la scola We will go to school at 8 o’clock. Hodí yo scrivera letras I will write letters today. (Hodí scrivera yo letras Today I will write letters)

Indirect questions have also direct word order, e.g. Il no comprende como id poted arivar He does not understand how could it happen.

If the sentence is interrogative or optative (i.e. expresses desire), or it begins with an emphasised phrase\(^{104}\) (which is not the subject), the axis predicate\(^{105}\) – subject (reverse word order) is used. E.g. Donde es el jurnal? Where is the journal? Le videre yo solo! or Que le videre yo solo! I wish I should see him In el teatre esed nos heri In was the theatre where we were yesterday.

§ 41 Anteposition of phrases

The stressed, emphasised phrases are placed in the beginning of the sentence.

This kind of anteposition goes with reverse word order. E.g. In Debrecen habita Anton It is Debrecen where Anton lives. A octe horas ariva el tren At 8 o’clock will the train arrive. (Without emphasis: A octe horas el tren ariva The train will arrive at 8 o’clock.)

There is an ambiguous situation when the direct object is placed in anteposition and the subject is a noun phrase agreeing in number with the direct object. In this case a personal pronoun (i.e. le, la, lo, les) – in concord with the direct object in gender, number and case – shall be repeated after the stressed object phrase. E.g. El melon lo manja el infant It is the melon that the child eats. Les cavales les baten les cocheres The horses the drivers beat.

The problem can be solved also by using passive voice, e.g. el melon es manjat per el infant, les cavales son battit per les cocheres.

There is no ambiguity if the subject is a personal pronoun or the particle on, e.g. La causa deve tu remover It is the cause you must remove. (Or maybe by passive voice: La causa deve ser remotiv. The cause must be removed.)

§ 42 Non-finite verbal phrases

Sub-ordinate clauses can be replaced by infinitive, participle or gerund\(^{106}\) if the subject of the clause appears in the main sentence as a subject or as a complement\(^{107}\). E.g. Yo spera de poter acceptar Vostre oferta I hope I can accept you offer. El pais, dividit en dos, trova se in Asia The land, divided in two, is found in Asia. Vestient me, yo dejuna While dressing, I have my breakfasts.

§ 43 Infinitive phrases\(^{108}\)

A number of verbs take the bare infinitive without any connective word (preposition, particle). These verbs are as follows: modal auxiliaries (dever, licer, poter, voler), causative auxiliary (far), lasar to let, saver to know, soler used to, audir to hear, vider to see, semblar to seem, desirar to wish, sentir to feel, to have the feeling that. E.g. il deve venir he must go, yo vole vider lo I want to see it, il faced construir una casa he had a house built, nos solen levar nos a septe we used to get up 7 o’clock, yo senti haver razion I have the feeling that I am right (lit. I feel that I have truth).

In most of the infinitive phrases, infinitive is used with preposition de. These are the phrases of: verbs rogar to ask, alegrar se to be glad, sperar to hope, probar to try, oblivar to forget, prometer to promise, permiter to permit, tentar to allow etc., as well as nominal phrases id es facil it is easy, id es interesant it is interesting, haver intencion to intend, to have the intention of ...ing, ser capace to be capable of. E.g. Yo roga Vos de erviar

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\(^{104}\) Cf. § 41 Anteposition of phrases.

\(^{105}\) In case of reverse word order, the oblique forms of the personal and reflexive pronouns (i.e. if they are used as direct or indirect objects) precede the verbal part of predicate, cf. § 14 Personal pronouns, § 20 Reflexive pronouns.

\(^{106}\) For the infinitive phrases see second and subsequent paragraphs in § 43 Infinitive phrases; for gerundial phrases see § 34 Gerund, and § 33 Participle for the participles.

\(^{107}\) Modal non-finite phrases – verbal periphrases – that are not equivalent to subordinate clauses are discussed in § 44 Verbal periphrases.

\(^{108}\) There is a contradictory example in the corpus, cf. § 34 Gerund.

This section discusses two unrelated grammatical constructions; moreover, these were already partly mentioned in separate sections. It would be more correct to move the first paragraph into § 30 Modal auxiliaries and § 28 Causative phrases, as well as the rest into § 42 Non-finite verbal phrases. (Or this section might be about the syntactical features of infinitive, but it does not deal with the verbal periphrases using infinitive at all, cf. § 44 Verbal periphrases)
me I ask you to send me, Il prometed me de venir he promised me to come, Id es agreable de promenar es in el parc It is pleasurable to walk in the park, Yo have la sperance de revider le I have the hope to see him again.

Infinitive takes preposition a after verbs expressing motion, start, aim or intention; such as ir to go, venir to come, comenzar to begin, to start, preparar se to make preparations for, invitar to invite, aprender to learn, amar to love.

Examples: Julia va a comprar Julia goes shopping, Comencza a leger! Start to read! Yo aprended a cavalcar I learnt to ride, Yo es dispost a responder I am disposed to reply, Este infant es apt a studiar This child is able to study.

Clauses of purpose can be replaced by por + infinitive construction. E.g. Il partid en Budapest por pasar un examen He has left for Budapest in order to take an examination.

§ 44 Verbal periphrases

In Romanid, like in Romance languages, some modalities are expressed by idiomatic finite or non-finite verbal phrases called verbal periphrases.

1. Immediate future is expressed by the present tense of verb ir and the bare infinitive of the main verb, e.g. Yo va venir I am coming in a minute, Vos va reciver lo You will get it right away, El tren va partir The train is about to leave.

2. Just finished actions are rendered by present of venir + de + infinitive of main verb, e.g. Il veni de arivar He just arrived.

3. Poner se or meter se + a + infinitive: to set about, to start (doing), e.g. Ana poned se a scriver la letra Anne has set about writing the letter.

4. Cesar + de + infinitive: to stop (doing), to give up, e.g. Il cesad de laborar He stops working.

5. Finir + per + infinitive: in the end, finally, after all. E.g. Il finid per comprender He understood [it] in the end.

6. Haver + a + infinitive expresses obligation, e.g. Yo have a pagar multo I have to pay much.

7. Ser + a + infinitive:
a) La suma es a pagar el 1 octobre The sum is to pay on 1st October,

b) La ture es ja a vider The tower is already visible.

8. Continuar + a + infinitive: to keep on (doing), continue (doing), (do) on(ward), e.g. Il continua a laborar He goes working, Continuate a leger! Continue reading!

9. Ir + gerund expresses a gradually changing action, e.g. Les preces van augmentant The prices keep increasing.

10. Simple future is used also to denote probability or possibility, e.g. Id sera dece horas It must be 10 o’clock, Id sera un error This must be an error, Il arivara a octe He will very likely arrive at 8 o’clock. Future perfect can expresses the same but referring to a past action, e.g. Id havra sit dece horas It may have been 10 o’clock, Mi amico havra se it ja My friend will have already left.

11. Certainty (e.g. adverbs surely, certainly, no doubt, obviously) can be also rendered by dever + de + infinitive in the present or by dever + de + past infinitive in the past, e.g. Tu devede de saver You surely know [it], Il devede de haver scritit este letra I am sure (Obviously) he wrote this letter.

12. Supposition, dubiety in the present can be expressed by present conditional and supposition in the past by past conditional, e.g. Il seré profesor He said to be a teacher/professor, Anque il havre recivit este decoracion He is also supposed to have received this award.

13. A continuative action is rendered by no finir + de + infinitive, e.g. Emil no fini de rider Emil never stops laughing.

§ 45 Word-building

Basic vocabulary is derived by analytical comparison of etymons of Latin, Greek and Romance languages. To expand basic vocabulary, we may use two types of word-formation: compounding and derivation by prefixes or suffixes.

Main types of compounding:

1. Preformed international compounds of Latin or Greek origin, e.g. multicolor multi-coloured, stenografia stenography.

2. Borrowings, metaphrases from Romance languages, e.g. bel-soror sister-in-law, portaviones aircraft carrier.
3. Phrases with prepositions, e.g. *proyeccion in color* colour projection, *viage in avion* flight, travelling by air, *luta por pace* struggle for peace (analytical word-building).

4. Germanic-type synthetic compounds, e.g. *guera declaracion* declaration of war, *recherca institut* research institute.

Some examples of words derived by international prefixes and postfixes: *ven-ir, con-ven-ir, de-ven-ir, pre-ven-ir, pro-ven-ir, sub-ven-ci-on, cur-er, cur-s, ex-cur-sion, pre-pot-ent, limon-ad, soci-al-ism, direct-or-a, liter-at-ur* etc.

### Annex: Numerals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinal numbers</th>
<th>Ordinal numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zero or nil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td><em>un</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td><em>dos</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td><em>tres</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td><em>quatre</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td><em>quinque</em></td>
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<td><em>septe</em></td>
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<td><em>nove</em></td>
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<td><em>dece</em></td>
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<td>twelve</td>
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<td><em>dece tres</em></td>
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<td><em>dece quatre</em></td>
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<td>twenty</td>
<td><em>venti</em></td>
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<td>twenty one</td>
<td><em>venti un</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>twenty two</td>
<td><em>venti dos</em></td>
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<td>twenty three</td>
<td><em>venti tres</em></td>
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<td>three</td>
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<tr>
<td>twenty</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### Multiplicative numbers

- *una ves, dos ves, quinque ves, dece ves, cent ves, mil ves*
- *simple, duble, triple, quadruple, qvintuple, sextuple, septuple, octuple, novuple, decuple, centuple, milesuple*

#### Distributive numbers

- *per un, per dos, per tres, per dece*

#### Fractional numbers

- *demi, un quart, un qvint, un decim, dos terces, tres quartes, quarte quvintes, sex octimes, nove declies*

#### Decimal fractions

- *un coma quinque (1.5)*
- *tres coma dos (3.2)*
- *venti octe coma quatt (28.4)*

110 The Grammatical Guide does not contain information about Romanid numerals. In order to complete the language specification, we attached the relevant parts of the Phrase Book here.
**Grammatical guide to the Romanid language** by dr. Zoltán Magyar  
*(translation with comments of the translator)*

### Basic rules of arithmetic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Romanid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>five plus seven is twelve</td>
<td><em>quinque plus septe es dece dos</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sixteen minus nine is seven</td>
<td><em>dece sex minus nove es septe</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six times seven is forty two</td>
<td><em>sex ves septe es quarenta dos</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thirty divided by six is five</td>
<td><em>trenta (dividit) per sex es quinque</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six squared (to the 2nd power) is thirty six</td>
<td><em>sex al quadrat (a la 2° potence) es trenta sex</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three cubed (to the 3rd power) is twenty seven</td>
<td><em>tres al cub (a la 3° potence) es venti septe</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>square root of sixteen is four</td>
<td><em>quadrat radice de dece sex es quatre</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Quantities, measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Romanid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one/a litre of milk</td>
<td><em>un litre de lacte</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two kilo(gramme)s of potatoes</td>
<td><em>dos kilos de pan</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one/a two-kilo(gramme) bread</td>
<td><em>un dos-kilo pan</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one/a cup of tea</td>
<td><em>una tasa de tee</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ten metres high</td>
<td><em>dece metres alt</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a 500 metres long bridge</td>
<td><em>un 500 metres long pont</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>