

Grammatical Guide to the Romanid Language

translation and adaptation for Anglophones of grammatical appendix of book

“Romanid – Tájékoztató és társalgási könyv” [Romanid – Guide and Phrase Book], 1984 by dr. Zoltán Magyar

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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 Pronunciation¹

The Romanid alphabet consists of 25 letters: *a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, 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, e, ee, eu, f, g, gu, 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*² is between the short variant of *a* in *father* and *u* in *hut*, e.g. *natural* natural, *patre* father.

Digraph *au*³ 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-to-ma-tic* automatic, *au-ro-ra* (first blush of) dawn, aurora.

Letter *c*⁴ 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. *comenczar* to begin, *quarcz* quartz.

After back vowels and consonants, as well as at the end of the word, letter *c* represents unaspirated sound *k*⁵ as in *sky*, e.g. *caval* horse, *color* colour, *cultur* culture, *clar* clear, *accent* stress, accent, *politic* political.

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

Digraph *ch*⁶ is pronounced as in *church*, e.g. *checoslovac* Czechoslovak(ian), *marcha* march(ing).

Letter *e*⁷ 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*⁸ is pronounced as *e* in *bed* but lengthened, e.g. *armee* army, *cafee* 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. *reedificar* to rebuild.

Diphthong *eu*⁹ 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*¹⁰, 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 front vowels (*e, i*) it denotes sound *z*¹¹ in *azure*, e.g. *genial* genial, *energia* energy.

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

Before back vowels (*a, o, u*), *gu* is pronounced as *gv*¹², e.g. *lingua* language.

Sound cluster *gv* before front vowels (*e, i*) is spelt as *gv*, e.g. *ungvent* ointment, *ingvinal* inguinal¹³.

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 [ɪ], [ʊ], close [e], aspirate [p^h], [t^h], [k^h], bi-labial [gw], [kw], [sw], approximant [ɹ] etc. instead of tense [i], [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 [au], cf. German *Haus* 'house'

⁴ IPA [ts]

⁵ IPA [k]

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 *fett* 'fat'. Closer variant is IPA [e].

⁸ IPA [e:], this is the only long vowel in Romanid.

⁹ IPA [eu], 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*.

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(translation with comments of the translator)

Grapheme *h* always sounds and it reads as in English¹⁴, 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* kolkhoz (co-operative farm in the former USSR).

Letter *i* denotes always the short variant of tense *i* in *machine*¹⁵.

Letter *j* represents always sound *z*¹⁶ 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 terms¹⁷, e.g. *kilogram* kilogram(me), *kolhoz* kolkhoz (co-operative farm in the former USSR).

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

Digraph *ll* represents sound *l* pronounced on the palate¹⁸. 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 [ŋg] as in *jungle* (never as a single sound as in *sing*).

Digraph *ny* denotes a palatal *n* sound¹⁹ resembling the English sound cluster *n+y* in phrase *can you*, or *ni* in *onion*. It is a rare phoneme.

Letter *o*²⁰ 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*²¹ before back vowels (*a*, *o*, *u*), e.g. *aqua* water, *quatre* four. If *qu* is followed by a front vowel (*e*, *i*), it is pronounced as unaspirated *k*, e.g. *quinque* five, *Turquia* Turkey.

Digraph *qv* is used to denote sound cluster *kv* before front vowels, e.g. *frequent* frequent, *qvestion* question.

Letter *r* is pronounced in all positions and it is preferably a trill with two-tree rolls.²² Its nearest English equivalent is *rr* in *merry*.

Letter *s* is always unvoiced²³, it never sounds as *z* even between vowels, e.g. *salvar* to save, *progresiv* progressive, *asi* so, thus.

Digraph *sh* reads as in English²⁴. It is quite rare, e.g. *sha* shah, *fashista* fascist.

When letter combination *su* is followed by a stressed vowel, it is pronounced as *sv*²⁵, e.g. *Suedia* Sweden, *Suisa* Switzerland. If the *u* is stressed, it sounds as a full vowel *u*, e.g. *sue* his, hers, its.

Sound *t* is unaspirated as in *steel*.

Letter *u*²⁶ 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*²⁷, e.g. *taxi* taxi, *maximal* maximal.

¹⁴ IPA [h], alternative pronunciation: IPA [x].

¹⁵ IPA [i], cf. *i* in French *ville* ‘town’ and in German *Mutti* ‘Mum’.

¹⁶ IPA [ʒ], 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 [ʎ], cf. *ll* in Spanish *llave* ‘key’, *gl(i)* in Italian *foglio* ‘sheet’. It is used in the Phrase Book in the following words: *ateller*, *brillar*, *ella*, *Guillelm*, *Guillelmina*, *medalla*, *orgullos*, *papillon*, *pastilla*, *spalla*, *talla*, *tallar*, *tallata*.

¹⁹ IPA [ɲ], 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*, *Espanya*, *espanyol*, *espanya*, *senyor*, *senyora*, *senyorita*. (* Asterisk denotes here ambiguous word ending with or without final *-e*).

²⁰ IPA [ɔ], cf. French *porte* ‘gate’, German *Motte* ‘moth’, Spanish *dos* ‘two’. Closer variant is IPA [o], cf. French *dépôt* ‘warehouse, deposit’, German *Forelle* ‘trout’, Spanish *oro* ‘gold’.

²¹ IPA [kv]

²² IPA [r], cf. *r* in Spanish *oro* ‘gold’, German *Rat* ‘council, counsel’

²³ IPA [s]

²⁴ IPA [ʃ] The only word in the Phrase Book that contains this sound is: *shal* ‘scarf’. In the other phrases, it is replaced by *ch* – IPA [tʃ] –, e.g. *chac*, *chofer*, *ducha*. Note that letter combination *sh* may denote sound cluster *s+h* – IPA [sh] – on compound boundaries, however, this case has no example in the corpus.

²⁵ IPA [sv]

²⁶ IPA [u], cf. French *vous* ‘you’, German *Muzik* ‘music’, Spanish *luna* ‘moon’.

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 diphthongs²⁸. They are pronounced separately as full vowels and they can be divided during hyphenation. E.g. *cocain* cocaine, *ateist* atheist, *exploatar* to exploit, *aer* air, *coeducacion* coeducation, *Asia* Asia, *medio* medium, means.

Letters *ö, ü* and *w*²⁹ are retained in foreign words, e.g. *Röntgen, Lübeck, Washington*. The sound *ö*³⁰ 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/booking office, *casa* house. Double *z* (*zz*) is spelt in foreign word *jazz*.

§ 2 Stress³¹

1. The stress falls on the last syllable if the word ends in consonant³², clusters *-ta* or *-ita*³³ (cf. Latin nouns in *-tas, -itas*), long vowel *ee*, and vowel *i* or *u*. E.g. *anua* annual, *velocita* velocity, *armee* army, *hodi* today, *lunedj* Monday, *menu* menu, *Moscū* 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-vowel³⁴), or by unstressed syllable *-er, -ic, -ul, -im* or *-iz*³⁵, the stress falls on the antepenult (third syllable from the end). E.g. *familia* family,

²⁷ 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.

²⁸ 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, radium, 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.

²⁹ 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.)

³⁰ It is not specified that sound *ö* is close IPA [ø] or open IPA [œ] (the author's native bias should presume close variant). In addition to the sound *ö*, letter combination *oe* may denote disyllabic sound cluster *o+e* on compound boundaries, e.g. *fotoelectric*. Because the latter one is the only example in the corpus, accent mark is not used to signify disyllabic pronunciation.

³¹ The specification does not mention whether stress affects the length of the vowels, with special regard to the stressed open syllables.

³² § 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. *doctor ~ doctores*, but *secul ~ secules*.

Verbal plural marker *-n* also does not change the word stress, e.g. *yo parla ~ nos parlan, tu vive ~ vos viven, il fini ~ iles finin*. 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 será ~ nos seran*.

³³ We have marked the stress of these words in the vocabulary by acute accent, e.g. *quantitá*, but *quarenta*.

³⁴ 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*.)

serie series, *radio* radio, *continua* continue!, *radium* radium, *Darius* Darius, *vacuum* vacuum, *caries* caries, *camera* (living) room, chamber, *politica* politics, *secules* centuries, *aproxima* bring near!, *il legaliza* he legalises.

Comments on the stress. In some cases stress differs from the above main rules.

1. In case of class II verbs (whose infinitive ends in *-er*), the stress³⁶ falls on the stem in past tense and in 2nd person imperative, e.g. *yo comprended* I understood, *permetete* allow!. The stem is stressed also in case of this verb type in present conditional, e.g. *yo comprender* I should understand, *tu videre* you would see.

2. The future tense ends always in stressed *-a*³⁷ (and stressed *-an* in plural). E.g. *il parlará* he will speak.

3. Words ending in *-men* are stressed on the penult, e.g. *specimen* specimen, *volumen* volume (size), *examen* examination.

4. There are words where penultimate cluster *-er* is stressed³⁸, e.g. *bandera* flag, *frontera* border, boundary. Words ending in *-ier* are always stressed on the last syllable, e.g. *ingenier* engineer, *cavalier* knight, *alfier* bishop (in chess).

5. In case of adjectives ending in *-ori*, the stress falls on sound *o*, e.g. *respiratori* respiratory, *obligatori* obligatory.

6. The penult is stressed also in case of words ending in *-ing*, e.g. *camping* camping, *miting* meeting.

7. Note that *el papa* the Pope, *el papá*³⁹ the Daddy.

§ 3 Division of syllables

1. If there is a single consonant between two vowels, the consonant goes to the second syllable, e.g. *vi-ta* life.

2. If there are two consonants between two vowels, the first consonant remains in the first syllable, the second one goes to the second syllable, e.g. *cul-tur* culture, *man-dat* mandate, *Vol-ga* Volga, *con-sum* consumption.

However, if the second consonant is *l* or *r*, then both consonants will be the part of the second syllable⁴⁰, e.g. *pa-tre* father, *co-pla* (music hall) song.

Digraphs *ch*, *cz*, *ll*, *ny* and *sh* cannot be divided⁴¹.

3. If there are three or more consonants between two vowels, the first consonant remains in the first syllable, the others go to the next one, e.g. *mem-bre* member, *com-plet* complete. Consonant clusters starting with *s* cannot be divided, e.g. *a-stre* star, *Au-stria* Austria, *con-struccion* construction.

4. The prefixed words are preferably divided on constituent boundary⁴², e.g. *in-util* useless, *trans-atlantic* transatlantic.

³⁵ 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 *inginiér* ~ *inginiéra* etc. regular. Moreover, since it is not probable that *u* is stressed in word *cuér* 'leather', this rule seems to be applicable to letter cluster *-uer*, too.

³⁶ We have marked the stress of these words in the vocabulary by acute accent, e.g. *perder*, but *il pérded*.

³⁷ We have marked the stress of these singular words in the vocabulary by acute accent, e.g. *sera*, but *yo será*.

³⁸ 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. *costurera*, *enfirmiera*, *peruquera*. On the contrary, the ones ending in *-iera* – e.g. *inginiéra* – 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 is not marked in the vocabulary by acute accent.]

³⁹ We have marked the irregular stress of this words by acute accent: *papá* Daddy, but *papa* Pope.

⁴⁰ Based on Spanish analogy, this syllabication is probably does not apply to the non-Romance words as e.g. *#at-letic*, or *[trans-]at-lantic*; as well as when the consonant cluster falls on morphemic boundary, e.g. *sub-locatar*.

⁴¹ Supposing that they represent a single sound but not a sound cluster on compound boundary.

⁴² The same applies to the compound words.

§ 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, lunedì, hungar, parisian*.

The followings are written with capitalised initials in addition to the proper names⁴³ (*Anton Sarkadi* [sharcadi], *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 salutation⁴⁴ (*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 days⁴⁶ (*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 Italianes* 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 sentence⁴⁷. 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 used⁴⁸ 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 septembre (el prim septembre)*, *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 trenta* 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 studying⁴⁹.

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 romanidised orthography and the fact that name *Hortobágy* appears also alone).

⁴⁴ 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).

⁴⁵ 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*.

⁴⁶ 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 feroviaires* 'Railwaymen's Day'.

⁴⁷ 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, precativ sentences.

⁴⁸ The Phrase Book originally used word *W.C.* 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, CV, NEC, PCA, SI, TV, USA*.

⁴⁹ 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.

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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 adverbial 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 mismе 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 *lo*⁵¹, 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, *masage* massage.
5. Words of Greek origin ending in *-ma*, e.g. *drama* drama, *enigma* enigma, *dilema* 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, *heroine* heroine.

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 trolleybus 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 Pusta Hortobágy*.

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, *ture* tower, *force* force, *nascence* birth. Exceptions: names of months (*marce*, *septembre*, *octobre*, *novembre*, *decembre*), as well as the nouns that are also masculine in Romance languages⁵⁴. Some examples: *centre* centre, *comerce* commerce, *edifice* building, *negoce* business, shop, *ofice* office, *pople* people, *prece* price, *space* square, 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 *-cion*, e.g. *reunion* reunion, *nacion* nation, *leccion* lesson.
6. Words ending in *-ur*, *-ad*, *-id*, *-itud*, e.g. *cultur* culture, *figur* figure, *literatur* literature, *olimpiad* Olympics, *serenad* 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, *apendicitis* appendicitis, *diabetes* diabetes.

§ 8 Plural of nouns

The plural marker is *-s* after nouns ending in a vowel, or *-es* after consonants⁵⁵, 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 *-c* take plural marker *-os*⁵⁶, 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 fascas* – *les fascas*.

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*⁵⁷ 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*, *doctor* – *doctores*.

The sound clusters *-ul* and *-im*⁵⁸ that are stressed in singular lose their stress in plural, e.g. *modul* – *modules*, *secul* – *secules*, *octim* – *octimes*.

§ 9 Declension of nouns

Nouns in Romanid have two numbers and four cases⁵⁹.

⁵⁴ 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 etymon 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*.

⁵⁵ 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. *companyones* – *companyon* ~ *companyone*, *flores* – *flor* ~ *flore*. (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.)

⁵⁶ 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 *-co* found in the corpus: *amico*, *eletrotecnico*, *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: *mecanic* ‘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*.

⁵⁷ This should be true also for the plural marker *-os*.

⁵⁸ According to this, the other clusters mentioned in § 2 Stress that are regularly unstressed in penult keep their stress in plural, e.g. *analgesic* – *analgegiços*.

⁵⁹ 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

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Paradigmatic examples:

		Singular		Plural
Nom.	<i>el dent</i>	the tooth	<i>les dentes</i>	the teeth
Acc.	<i>el dent</i>	the tooth	<i>les dentes</i>	the teeth
Gen.	<i>del dent</i>	of the tooth	<i>des dentes</i>	of the teeth
Dat.	<i>al dent</i>	to/for the tooth	<i>as dentes</i>	to/for the teeth
Nom.	<i>la rota</i>	the wheel	<i>les rotas</i>	the wheels
Acc.	<i>la rota</i>	the wheel	<i>les rotas</i>	the wheels
Gen.	<i>de la rota</i>	of the wheel	<i>des rotas</i>	of the wheels
Dat.	<i>a la rota</i>	to/for the wheel	<i>as rotas</i>	to/for the wheels
	<i>de + el = del</i>		<i>de + les = des</i>	
	<i>a + el = al</i>		<i>a + les = as</i>	

§ 10 Adjectives

Adjectives are invariable when used as attributives⁶⁰ 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 magazines* 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 alteration⁶¹, 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: *minus 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).

⁶⁰ 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').

⁶¹ 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 appositional phrases the apposition comes first, e.g. *senyor Pataki, la Pusta Hortobágy, drama "Ban Bánk"*, *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 fotoaparát, Margaret Pont, Deák place, Berek strata, Kossuth emisor*.

This city is 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 – grandisim*.

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 amigas* Mary is the least merry of her friends.

PRONOUNS

§ 14 Personal pronouns

		Singular			
Nom.	<i>yo</i> I	<i>tu</i> you (<i>informal</i>)	<i>il, ella, id</i> he, she, it		
Acc.	<i>me</i> me	<i>te</i> you (<i>informal</i>)	<i>le, la, ed</i> him, her, it		
			or <i>lo</i>		
Dat.	<i>me</i> (to/for) me	<i>te</i> (to/for) you (<i>inf.</i>)	<i>lui</i>	(to/for) him, her, it	
		Plural			
Nom.	<i>nos</i> we	<i>vos</i> you (<i>informal</i>)	<i>iles, ellas</i> they		
Acc.	<i>nos</i> us	<i>vos</i> you (<i>informal</i>)	<i>les, las</i> them		
Dat.	<i>nos</i> (to/for) us	<i>vos</i> (to/for) you (<i>inf.</i>)	<i>lor</i>	(to/for) them	

In 3rd person singular, *il* stands for the masculine, *ella* for the feminine and *id* for the neuter⁶³.

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 to 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

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After prepositions accusative forms are used⁶⁴, 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 sentences⁶⁵, 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:

	Singular		Plural	
1st p.	<i>mi</i>	my	<i>nostre</i>	our
2nd p.	<i>tu</i>	your (<i>informal</i>)	<i>vostre</i> ⁶⁶	your (<i>informal</i>)
3rd p.	<i>su</i> ⁶⁷	his, her, its	<i>lor</i>	their

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 *aque* to the distant ones.

In adjectival position they are invariable, e.g. *este hom* this man, *aque flores* that 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 forms⁶⁸: *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 es un mural horloge* It is a hanging clock.

Id is used also as an impersonal and grammatical subject⁶⁹, 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.

⁶⁴ For 3rd person inanimate personal pronoun, see previous note.

⁶⁵ 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’

⁶⁶ 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?’

⁶⁷ 3rd person singular pronoun is used with the particle *on* (general subject), e.g. *Id no es indiferent, como on pasa su libre temp* ‘It is not indifferent how you spend your free time’.

⁶⁸ These “neuter”, pronominal forms represent an unnamed noun or a whole sentence.

⁶⁹ 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 article⁷⁰, i.e. *el, la, les*. E.g. *mi jardin et el de mi amico* my garden and the one of my friends, *Mi documentes et les de mi genitores perded se* My documents and the ones of my parents was lost.

§ 18 Interrogative pronouns

Qui? Who? (*sing.*) *que?* whom? (*sing.*) *quis?* who? (*pl.*) *ques?* whom? (*pl.*) *Quid?* what? (*sing. nom.*) *qued?* what? (*sing. acc.*) *quides?* what? (*pl. nom.*) *quedes?* what? (*sing. acc.*) *Cui?* Whose? Of what? (*sing.*) *cuis?* whose? of what? (*pl.*) (The vowel *u* is stressed⁷¹). E.g. *Qued face tu?* What are you doing? *Quis laboran in el jardin?* Who are working in the garden? *In cui casa habita tu?* Whose house are you living in?

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? *Qual choise tu?* Which one do you choose? *Qual recived 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 funciona la nov maquina?* How functions the new machine?

§ 19 Relative pronouns

Qui 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.*), *quedes* 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 vided 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 succes* The novel, whose plot is set in Hungary, has an international success. *Les infantes in cuis 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 questions⁷³ the reflexive pronouns comes before the verb, e.g. *Te leve tu?* Are you washing yourself? *Se alegran les infantes?* 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 pronoun⁷⁴ 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 por un altre* We work for one another.

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 altre 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.

§ 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 pronouns⁷⁶ can be:

1. Substantial: *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. *alqued* something (*acc.*), *omneque* everybody, everyone (*acc.*).

2. Adjectival: *omne*⁷⁷ every, each, *alcun* + singular 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 *mult* 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, *pocos* 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.

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 mod* ~ Sp. *de este modo* ‘in this way, thus’).

Neither adverbial pronoun *ambo* ‘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 *les dos* instead, e.g. *la juvenesa des dos sexes* ‘youth of both sexes’. (On the analogy of *omne* – *omnes* etc. it is likely that *ambo* may take plural marker if used as collective number.)

Adjectival pronoun *altre* ‘other’ was also omitted (as well as its substantial 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 undiscussed pronouns are: *bastante* ‘enough’ (and the analogically presumed *#bastantes* ‘enough (people), in sufficient numbers’), as well as *certain* ‘certain’ (*#certanes* ‘certain people, some (people)’). The latter one – contrary to Spanish – can be used with indefinite pronoun, pl. *havent versat un certain procent* ‘after paying a certain percent’.

⁷⁷ At the same time *omne* is also substantial 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’.

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 plural⁷⁹ – and three persons in both numbers.

The verb has three non-finite forms: infinitive, participle and gerund.

Romanid verbs have no subjunctive⁸⁰ (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 relations⁸¹.

§ 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)⁸².

§ 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 stem⁸³, pl. *yo parlad* I spoke, I was speaking *etc.*, *nos vived* we lived, we was living *etc.*

To form simple future⁸⁴, 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 parlara* 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.

⁸⁰ 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.

⁸¹ 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 compra* ‘I see that she does the shopping’, *#Yo vide que ella comprara* ‘I saw that she will 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 compra* ‘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.

⁸² 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.

⁸³ 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.

⁸⁴ 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 begin⁸⁵.

Hortative-conjunctive⁸⁶ – 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 *-er*⁸⁷ 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 *-e*⁸⁸ 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 salutet 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.

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 Teatre?* ‘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.

⁸⁵ In addition future perfect may express probability, possibility referring to past, see Paragraph 10, § 44 Verbal periphrases.

⁸⁶ 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 conjunction *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 phoned 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.)

⁸⁷ 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.)

⁸⁸ 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 wash 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.

⁸⁹ 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.

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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 sere laudat* I should be praised, *nos seren laudat* we should be praised.

Past conditional: *yo havre 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 continuative aspect is expressed by reflexive verb instead⁹¹, e.g. *La casa es construit* The house is built up (Result: it is finished), *La casa construi se* The house is being built (Action: they are working on it; *lit.* The house is building itself). Or: *La casa es in construcion* 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 lavaran 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. *Quando 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.

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.)

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.

⁹¹ It seems that Romanid adopts Spanish system: Spanish *estar* + participle (*pasiva de resultado*) construction corresponds to Romanid passive voice, and Spanish *ser* + participle (*pasiva de acción*) as well as *se* + declined verb (*pasiva refleja*) constructions are equivalent with Romanid reflexive verbs, cf. Spanish *La exposición será abierta[†] al público mañana a las doce, y estará abierta[‡] de lunes a viernes* 'The exposition will be opened[†] to the public tomorrow at twelve o'clock and it will be open[‡] from Monday to Friday' († the action of the opening, ‡ the result of the opening, i.e. the opening hours, is emphasised). For further analogies, cf. Russian passive voice: it is formed by the past passive participle if the verb is perfective and it is the reflexive form if the verb is imperfective.

Passive voice can be substituted by using general subject, i.e. particle *on* (cf. § 22 Indefinite pronouns), e.g. *#On construi la casa* 'lit. They are building the house'.

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 *far*⁹³, 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 havra* 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

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 percussion, 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 *#necesitar*.

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 Infinitive phrases. For modal verbal periphrases, see § 44 Verbal periphrases.

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 *vist*, 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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- 7 = Hortative-conjunctive
- 8 = Present conditional
- 9 = Past conditional
- 10 = Imperative
- 11 = Present participle
- 12 = Past participle
- 13 = Present gerund
- 14 = Past gerund

1.	Present infinitive			
	<i>ir</i>	<i>facer</i> <i>far</i>	<i>dicer</i> <i>dir</i>	<i>vider</i> <i>ver</i>
2.	Past infinitive			
	<i>haver it</i>	<i>haver facit</i> <i>haver fat</i>	<i>haver dicit</i> <i>haver dit</i>	<i>haver vidit</i> <i>haver vist</i>
3.	Present indicative			
	<i>yo vade</i> <i>yo va</i>	<i>yo face</i> <i>yo fa</i>	<i>yo dice</i> <i>yo di</i>	<i>yo vide</i> <i>yo vi</i>
4.	Past indicative			
	<i>yo vaded</i>	<i>yo faced</i> <i>yo fad</i>	<i>yo diced</i> –	<i>yo vided</i> –
5.	Future indicative			
	<i>yo ira</i>	<i>yo facera</i> <i>yo fara</i>	<i>yo dicera</i> <i>yo dira</i>	<i>yo videra</i> <i>yo vera</i>
6.	Future perfect indicative			
	<i>yo havra it</i>	<i>yo havra facit</i> <i>yo havra fat</i>	<i>yo havra dicit</i> <i>yo havra dit</i>	<i>yo havra vidit</i> <i>yo havra vist</i>
7.	Hortative-conjunctive			
	<i>que yo vada</i>	<i>que yo faca</i>	<i>que yo dica</i> –	<i>que yo vida</i> <i>que yo vea</i>
8.	Present conditional			
	<i>yo ire</i>	<i>yo facere</i> <i>yo fare</i>	<i>yo dicere</i> <i>yo dire</i>	<i>yo videre</i> <i>yo vere</i>
9.	Past conditional			
	<i>yo havre it</i>	<i>yo havre facit</i> <i>yo havre fat</i>	<i>yo havre dicit</i> <i>yo havre dit</i>	<i>yo havre vidit</i> <i>yo havre vist</i>
10.	Imperative			
	<i>va!</i>	<i>face!</i> <i>fa!</i>	<i>dice!</i> <i>di!</i>	<i>vide!</i> <i>vi!</i>
11.	Present participle			
	<i>vadent</i> <i>ient</i>	<i>facent</i> –	<i>dicent</i> –	<i>vident</i> –
12.	Past participle			
	<i>it</i>	<i>facit</i> <i>fat</i>	<i>dicit</i> <i>dit</i>	<i>vidit</i> <i>vist</i>
13.	Present gerund			
	<i>vadent</i> <i>ient</i>	<i>facent</i> –	<i>dicent</i> –	<i>vident</i> –
14.	Past gerund			
	<i>havent it</i>	<i>havent facit</i> <i>havent fat</i>	<i>havent dicit</i> <i>havent dit</i>	<i>havent vidit</i> <i>havent vist</i>

§ 32 Infinitive

The markers of the present active infinitive⁹⁷ are: *-ar*, *-er*, *-ir* (class I, II and III resp.). E.g. *parlar* to speak, *vider* to see, *audir* to hear.

⁹⁷ For attributive usage of the infinitive, see § 11 Nouns used as adjectives; for phrasal usage, see § 43 Infinitive phrases and § 44 Verbal periphrases.

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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 participle⁹⁸, 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 animales 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 sorprended 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 actions⁹⁹.

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*¹⁰⁰ 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 pronouns¹⁰¹, e.g. *con me* with me, *except te* except you, *per le* by/through him.

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.

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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, *detrás* 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

<i>con regard a</i>	considering
<i>dentro de</i>	inside
<i>fora de</i>	outside (of)
<i>in cas de</i>	in case of
<i>in comparacion de</i>	in comparison with/to
<i>in consequence de</i>	in consequence of
<i>in loc de</i>	instead of
<i>in miloc de</i>	in the middle of
<i>por causa de</i>	on account of
<i>pres de</i>	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 consequent* 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(1)op, *tene* take this, here you are, *va* go away, be off (with you), *hura* hooray, hurrah, *bravo* bravo, very well, *ecce*¹⁰² 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 conosco 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*¹⁰³. 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

¹⁰² The indicated word takes the accusative after interjection *ecce*, e.g. *ecce les* 'here are they'.

¹⁰³ The construction *no ... que* stands round the verbal predicate and the restrictive adjunct goes immediately after the word *que*.

Europe. *A octe horas nos van en la scola* We will go to school at 8 o'clock. *Hodi yo scrivera letras* I will write letters today. (*Hodi 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 phrase¹⁰⁴ (which is not the subject), the axis predicate¹⁰⁵ – 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 batit 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 removit.* The cause must be removed.)

§ 42 Non-finite verbal phrases

Sub-ordinate clauses can be replaced by infinitive, participle or gerund¹⁰⁶ if the subject of the clause appears in the main sentence as a subject or as a complement¹⁰⁷. 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 phrases¹⁰⁸

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, *sembler* 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 razon* 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, *permeter* 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*

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.

Modal non-finite phrases – verbal periphrases – that are not equivalent to subordinate clauses are discussed in § 44 Verbal periphrases.

¹⁰⁷ There is a contradictory example in the corpus, cf. § 34 Gerund.

¹⁰⁸ 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, *comenczar* 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 disposit 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 periphrases¹⁰⁹

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 recibir 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 fnid 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 octubre* 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, *Continue 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 eror* This must be an error, *Il arivara a octe* He will very likely arrive at 8 o'clock. Future perfect can express 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 deve de saver* You surely know [it], *Il deve de haver scriver 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 sere profesor* He said to be a teacher/professor, *Anque il havre recibit este decoracion* He is also supposed to have received this award.

13. A continuative action is rendered by *no fnir* + *de* + infinitive, e.g. *Emil no fni 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.

¹⁰⁹ The paragraphs 10 and 12 do not deal with verbal periphrases but with certain connotative characteristics of tenses and moods (as an addition to § 25 Active voice).

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3. Phrases with prepositions, e.g. *projeccion 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: Numerals¹¹⁰

Cardinal numbers

zero or nil	<i>zero</i>
one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine	<i>un, dos, tres, quatre, cinque, sex, septe, octe, nove</i>
ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen	<i>dece, dece un, dece dos, dece tres, dece quatre</i>
twenty, twenty one, twenty two, twenty three	<i>venti, venti un, venti dos, venti tres</i>
thirty, forty, fifty, sixty, seventy, eighty, ninety	<i>trenta, quarenta, cinquenta, sexenta, septenta, octenta, noventa</i>
100; 101; 102; 103	<i>cent, cent un, cent dos, cent tres</i>
200; 300; 400; 500; 600; 700; 800	<i>dos cent, tres cent, quatre cent, cinque cent, sex cent, septe cent, octe cent, nove cent</i>
1000; 1001; 1013	<i>mil, mil un, mil dece tres</i>
2000; 5000; 10,000; 100,000	<i>dos mil, cinque mil, dece mil, cent mil</i>
1,000,000; 3,000,000	<i>milion, tres miliones</i>
1984	<i>mil nove cent octenta quatre</i>

Postpositive cardinal numbers can be used as ordinal numbers as in English; e.g. *leccion octe* lesson eight, *capitul trenta* chapter thirty. See § 5 Punctuation marks.

Ordinal numbers

first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth	<i>prim, secund, terce, quart, qvint, sexim, septim, octim, novim</i>
tenth, eleventh, twelfth, twentieth, twenty fifth, thirtieth, fiftieth	<i>decim, dece prim, dece secund, ventim, venti qvint, trentim, quinquentim</i>
100 th ; 108 th ; 200 th ; 500 th	<i>centim, cent octim, dos centim, cinque centim</i>
1000 th ; 10,000 th ; 1,000,000 th	<i>milesim, dece milesim, milionesim</i>
the year 1984	<i>el mil nove cent octenta quart an</i>

Multiplicative numbers

once, twice, five times, ten times, a hundred times, a thousand times	<i>una ves, dos ves, cinque ves, dece ves, cent ves, mil ves</i>
simple, double, triple, quadruple, quintuple, sixfold, sevenfold, eightfold, ninefold, tenfold, hundredfold, thousandfold	<i>simple, duple, triple, quadruple, qvintuple, sextuple, septuple, octuple, novuple, decuple, centuple, milesuple</i>

Distributive numbers

one by one; by/in twos, threes, tens	<i>per un, per dos, per tres, per dece</i>
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Fractional numbers

half, one quarter/fourth, one fifth, two thirds, three fourths, four fifths, six eighths, nine tenths	<i>demi, un quart, un qvint, un decim, dos terces, tres quartes, quatre qvintes, sex octimes, nove decimes</i>
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Decimal fractions

one point five (1.5)	<i>un coma cinque (1,5)</i>
three point two (3.2)	<i>tres coma dos (3,2)</i>
twenty eight point four (28.4)	<i>venti octe coma quatre (28,4)</i>

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.

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Basic rules of arithmetic

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

Quantities, measures

one/a litre of milk	<i>un litre de lacte</i>
two kilo(gramme)s of potatoes	<i>dos kilos de pan</i>
one/a two-kilo(gramme) bread	<i>un dos-kilo pan</i>
one/a cup of tea	<i>una tasa de tee</i>
ten metres high	<i>dece metres alt</i>
a 500 metres long bridge	<i>un 500 metres long pont</i>