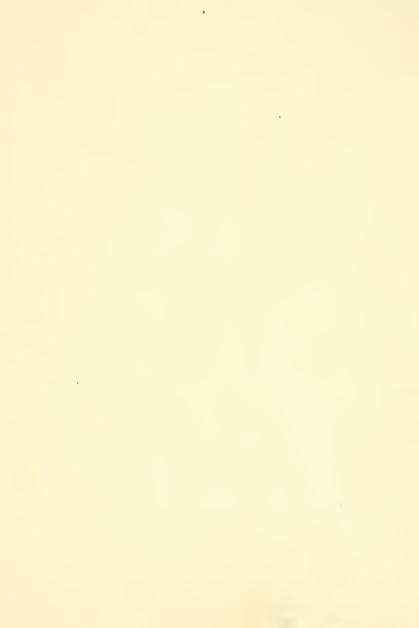
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AN INTRODUCTION

TO THE

PANAS 7008

GRAMMAR OF THE KUI OR KANDH LANGUAGE.

BΥ

LINGUM LETCHMAJEE,

LATE DEPUTY TRANSLATOR, GANJAM AGENT'S OFFICE.

SECOND EDITION.

Revised and Corrected.



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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

Mr. Lingum Letchmajee's Introduction to the Kondh Grammar originally appeared in the year 1853 in the pages of the Calcutta Christian Observer. It has been out of print for many years; and as it was the only existing attempt at a systematic account of an important, but little known, form of speech, the Government of Bengal, having obtained Mr. Letchmajee's permission, resolved to reprint it.

In the original edition all Kui words were printed in the Oriyā character, and advantage has been taken of the present opportunity to give them instead in the Roman character, and also to bring the general arrangement of the whole work into greater harmony with modern grammars of other Indian languages.

The task of preparing the edition for the Press was entrusted to my hands, and I have found it an interesting and instructive labour. Mr. Letchmajee promised to revise the proof-sheets, but I learned with much regret that he died while the work was in the Press, and never saw them.

The task of revision was then most kindly undertaken by the Reverend Father J. M. Descombes, Catholic Priest of Surada, in the Ganjam district. The present pages owe much to this gentleman's assistance, and the result is practically a new work. Numerous mistakes have been corrected, and a large number of examples of the use of the various forms have been added. These have been incorporated by me in the various places where they were required, so that it must be understood that while my hearty thanks are due to Father Descombes for his help, I am responsible for any errors that may appear.

The present work is only a grammar. It contains no reading lessons or vocabulary. For these the student is referred to Major J. M. D. Smith's *Practical Handbook of the Khond Language*, which gives all that can be required in that direction.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

CAMBERLEY,
The 15th January 1902.

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AN INTRODUCTION

TO THE

KUI OR KANDH GRAMMAR.

(Published by the Author in 1853.)

Or all the gifts which mankind have received from their benevolent Creator, the power of speech is the most useful and the most valuable: it not only elevates man above the brute-creation, as Cicero justly observes:—"Ac mihi quidem videntur homines, cum multis rebus humiliores et infirmiores sint, hac re maxime bestiis præstare, quod loqui possunt," but is also most essential to his living. "It is obvious, then," says Doctor Blair, "that writing and discourse are objects entitled to the highest attention." The first thing, therefore, that ought to be kept in view, when our object is to civilize a people barbarous, isolated, and unconnected with the rest of the human race, as the Kandhs are, is the cultivation and improvement of their language: in proportion as this is done, the people will be civilized.

Since the Kandhs have been known to the British functionaries resident in India, more particularly to those who have had to exercise a direct control over them, they have been considered objects of philanthropic contemplation; their savage rites, their rustic manners, and their simple mode of living have attracted the attention of many a philanthropist. After the cursory tour of the Hon'ble Mr. Russell, Colonel (then Captain) Campbell, c.s., was invested with control over them, in order

to put an end to the most shocking rites of human sacrifice and female infanticide. Shortly after this, Captain Macpherson, with enlarged powers, succeeded him. It is just to observe that, as the districts of Gumsur and Surādā, bordering on the savage country, were then only just ceded, neither of these indefatigable officials had time to turn his thoughts to the moral improvement of the Kandlıs.

Fortunately for the Kandhs, at the end of Captain Macpherson's agency, the administration of the Kandh affairs was again entrusted to Colonel Campbell, c.s. It is to him that the succeeding generations of the Kandh population will be bound in grateful obligation, for it was he who first brought the object of fixing their language to the notice of the Madras Government.

The labours of Captain J. P. Frye have already laid the foundation of this work by a series of publications; but it is to be lamented that ill-health compelled him to leave India, and that consequently his undertaking has been left in an imperfect state. A Grammar of the Kandh language has long been a desideratum, and would have been more welcomed by the public from his hands.

Much need not be said of a work of this nature, since its utility will be manifest to those who are engaged in the arduous duties of abolishing the rites of human sacrifice and female infanticide, and to whom the acquisition of this language is most essential. Very few have yet learnt the language, and consequently few are able to judge of its antiquity, simplicity and fulness in a philological point of view. It will be strange to observe that the language of the Kandh country, though bordering on the hill zamīndārīs in the Ganjam district, does not bear the least resemblance to that of these near neighbours. Although Oriyā may boast much of being derived from the copious,

energetic, and harmonious Sanskrit, it falls short, when we compare it with the Kui language, with respect to regularity. There are some anomalies in the Oriyā language,—far exceeding the bounds of our present undertaking to notice here—which do not exist in that of the Kandhs.

I have always thought that this language is a corruption of, or the primitive Telugu itself. In support of this opinion some arguments might be adduced; but as my object is to be as brief as possible, I shall content myself with pointing out the similarity that exists between many of the Kui and Telugu words. To notice all the grammatical similarities of the two languages would occupy more space than is intended for this introduction.

The following is a comparative list of a few of the vocables of the two languages:—

Telugu.	Kui lan	guage.	
	Böd and Gumsur dialect.	Chinna Kimedi dialect.	English meaning.
Ālu	Āli	Āli	a woman or a wife.
Illu	Iḍḍu	Illu	a house.
Īru	$\widetilde{ ext{I}} ext{ru}$	Īru	you.
Kannu	Kan	Kan	an eye.
Mrānu	Mrānu	Mrānu	a tree.
Mīnu	Mīnu	Mīnu	a fish.
Pālū	Pāḍu	Pālu	milk.
Pallu	Paddu	Pallu	a tooth.
Tala	Tlavu	Tlavū	the head.
Vāru	Ēvāru	Ēv aru	they.

The idiom also of this language is the same as that of the Telugu: in a word, we may translate a Telugu passage into it, rendering word for word.

The acquirement of the Kui language is not difficult; but it must at the same time be acknowledged that without having a previous knowledge of Telugu, or at least of Oriyā, it cannot be mastered within a twelvementh.

It contains, of course, words sufficient to express the ideas which mankind have in the infant state of civilization; but as it is now come under cultivation, it may, in the course of a few years, be made, by improvement, as copious as any of the known languages.

That poetry is anterior to prose is fully established by the existence of popular ballads and songs in this language.

The mode in which they perform their religious worship, and their propitiatory hymns addressed to their tutelary deities, are all in poetry. They have instrumental as well as vocal music; they sing their amatory ballads to small guitars of one or two strings, which they call dekas in their own language.

As this is the first attempt of this nature in this language, I erave the indulgence of the learned for any blunders which may have escaped my notice, and for any deficiencies which it was not in my power to supply.

¹ The Reverend Father J. M. Descombes says, with regard to the above observations, that, with few exceptions, Kandhs have no words to express abstract ideas. For instance, a Kandh does not say 'I am sick,' but 'I have fever,' or 'such and such a pain in such and such a part of the body.' No poetry in the sense of rhyme, or number and measure of syllables, is known among the Kandhs of Ganjam, and their worship is conducted in ordinary prose.

ALPHABET.

THE Roman alphabet, as adapted to the Kui language, consists of thirty-four letters, ten of which are vowels and the rest consonants. They are as follows:—

Vowels-a, ā, i, ī, u, ū, e, ē, o, ō.

The Consonants are divided into five classes—

(1)	Gutturals		k,	g,	h_*	ń,	þ.
(2)	Palatals		ch,	j,	y,	n,¹	100
(3)	Cerebrals	•••	ţ,	d,	ŗ,	1,	ņ.
(4)	Dentals		t,	d, r	, 1,	n,	S.
(5)	Labials		-	b, w		m,	

The usual arrangement observed by the Oriental grammarians has been somewhat altered: that now exhibited follows the order of nature. A separate place has not been allotted to the miscellaneous or avargya letters, they being all added to the different vargas according to their origin.

The pronunciation of the vowels is the same as in other Indian languages, with the following exceptions:—The short a is pronounced like the a in "pan" and not as in "America." The short e is pronounced like the e in "met" and the short o like the o in "not."

The letter \bar{a} is always shortened when it is at the commencement or in the middle of a word, and is followed by i, h, or two or more consonants coming together. Thus, $a\tilde{i}$, not $\tilde{a}\tilde{i}$, I come, though we have $\tilde{a}di$, thou comest; aha, not $\tilde{a}ha$; atta, not $\tilde{a}tta$; sallenju, not $s\tilde{a}llenju$. When not followed by these letters initial or medial a is always long, as in $\tilde{a}n\tilde{e}$. If a word ends in a short a, that a is lengthened when a termination commencing with a single consonant is added. Thus viha, a bundle of straw; plural, $vih\tilde{a}ka$.

¹ I have put no discritical mark over this letter, which is only used in conjunction with other palatal consonants, and is at once recognised in that position.

The letter e is pronounced short at the commencement of a word, provided that it is followed by two or more consonants coming together. Thus, essē, but ēlu. So also in the middle of a word when followed by two or more consonants coming together, it is pronounced short, provided that it is not immediately preceded by a vowel, in which case it is invariably pronounced long. Thus, sallenju, but vāēnju. When such a short e becomes, owing to declension or conjugation, followed by a single instead of by two or more consonants coming together, it is lengthened. Thus, lāvenju, a young man, inflected form lāvēni.

The letter h is pronounced abruptly, like the Bengali or Oriyā visarga. When it is followed by a vowel, it is changed to h. Thus, kahpa, to play, but $kah\tilde{i}$, I play, or shall play. The sign \sim over the i in the last-mentioned word signifies that a nasal sound, like that of the n in the French word "bon," is given to the vowel over which it is placed.

There do not appear to be any other peculiarities worthy of notice in Kui orthography.

Nouns.

NOUNS.

Thus, rājenju, a king; lāvenju, a young man; ollenju, a servant; saundenju, a distiller; kumbārenju, a potter; sāhibenju, a gentleman; kāma-gaṭṭanju, a coolie; tonjio-gaṭṭarju, a merchant; tezinanju, a blacksmith. It hence frequently makes verbal nouns: punanju, a man who knows; vēnanju, the man that hears; wāṭanju, the man that came, and so on.

Gender.—With regard to gender, this language follows the order of nature. Nouns that denote males are masculine; those that denote females are feminine, and the rest are neuter. Nouns ending in anju form their feminines in āri. Thus, kāma-gaṭṭāri, a she-coolie.

Number.—To form the plural from the singular, the following rules should be observed:—

(1st) All nouns ending in enju form their plurals by changing that syllable to enga, thus—

Sîngular.		Plural.
lāvenju,	a young man.	lāvenga.
rājenju,	a king.	rājenga.
ollenju,	a servant.	ollenga.

(2nd) All compound nouns ending in gattanju and all verbal nouns change anju to āru, thus—

kāma-gaṭṭanju,	a coolie.	kāma-gaļţā r u.
punanju,	a man who knows.	punāru.
venanju,	a man who hears.	venāru.
ginanju,	a man who does.	gināru.
tinanju,	an eater.	tināru.

(3rd) Masculine nouns denoting relationship form the plural by adding ru to the singular, thus—

Singular.		Plural,
āba,	a father.	ābāru.
dāda,	a father's elder brother.	dādāru.
koka,	a father's younger brother.	kokāru.
āpō,	a son.	āpōru.
jāma,	a husband.	jāmāru.
māhenja,	a friend.	māhenjāru.
sāmdi,	the father of a daughter-	sändiru.
	in-law.	

- (4th) Feminine nouns in āri change it to āwi in the plural, thus—
 punāri, a woman who knows. punāwi.
- (5th) Other feminine nouns form the plural by adding ska to the singular, thus—

a mother. āyaska. āya, a younger sister. angi, anyiska. ango, an uncle's wife. anyoska. poda, a mother-in-law. podaska. baï. an elder sister. baiska. a mother's brother's wife. āmaska. ama, āsa, a woman. āsaska. buddi, a little girl. buddiska. a Kui woman. kuāli, kuāliska. dombāli, a Panam woman. dombāliska.

(6th) The plurals of other nouns are formed in various ways:—1st, by adding iga to the singular; thus, $\bar{o}da$, a goat, makes $\bar{o}daiga$; $k\bar{o}di$, a cow makes $k\bar{o}dinga$; secondly, by changing the final into iga; thus, $k\bar{a}u$, fruit makes $k\bar{a}nga$; $\bar{u}ju$, a piece of flesh, makes $\bar{u}nga$; thirdly, by adding ka to the singular; thus, viha, a bundle of straw, makes $vih\bar{a}ka$; $pat\bar{c}$, a nosklace

Nouns. 5

of beads, makes $pat\bar{e}ka$. When this termination is affixed to some nouns, of which du or ju are finals, it changes them respectively into t and s; thus, $mr\bar{a}du$, a hare, makes mratka; $s\bar{o}ju$, a sore, makes $s\bar{o}ska$. If the final is a double consonant followed by a vowel, it drops the last letter with the vowel and changes the remaining one, according to the above rules; thus, paddu, a tooth, makes patka.

Exception.—Vēju, a piece of wood, has two forms of the plural—vejugu and veska.

Case.—The whole number of Kui nouns is divided into two classes: those that end in nju are of the major or superior class, and all those which terminate in any other letter constitute what is called the minor or inferior class.

The principal cases are the nominative and the genitive or oblique form. The oblique form is that by adding to which the different postpositions the various cases are obtained: it is frequently used for the genitive without any postposition whatever; thus, lāvēni kṛuha, the young man's wife.

The oblique form of nouns of the first class is made from the nominative by changing the final nju into ni; thus, $l\bar{a}venju$, a young man, makes in the oblique form $l\bar{a}v\bar{e}ni$.

The oblique form of those plurals that end in *iya* and *ska* is made by adding *ni*; thus, *lāvenga*, young men, makes *lāvengāni*; *āsaska*, women, makes *āsaskāni*.

Those plurals that end in ru form their inflection by changing the ru into ri; thus, $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}ru$, elder brothers, makes $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}ri$.

To make the subject of the cases more plain, we here give an example of a noun of each of the two classes declined with all the cases in both numbers:—

1st Declension.

Lārenjī	, a	young	man.
---------	-----	-------	------

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	lāvenju,	lāvenga.
Voc.	ōē lāventi,	ōē lāvenga.
Acc.	lāvēni, lāvēni-i, -tini, and sometimes -ki.	lāvengāni, etc., as in the singular.
Obl.	lāvēni,	lāvengāni.
$oldsymbol{D}$ at.	lāvēni-tangi,-tingi, -ki, or -tiki.	lāvengāmi-tangi, &c., as in the singular.
Abl.	lāvēni-tai, -tōti, or -ḍai,	lāvengāni-ṭai, ṭōṭi, or -ḍai.
Gen.	lāvēni, or lāvēni-i,	lāvengāni, or -ni-i.
Loc.	lāvēni-tanni, -wahāta, -ta, -lai, or -laita.	lāveigāni-tanni, &c., as in the singular.

2nd Declension.

Mīda, a child.

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Voc.	mīḍa,	mīḍaṅga
Acc.	mīdāni, &c.	mīḍangāni, &c.
Old.	mīda,	mīḍaṅgāni.
Dat.	mīda-tangi, &e.,	mīdangāni-tangi, &e.
Abl.	mīda-ṭai, -ṭōṭi, er -ḍai,	mīdangāni-ṭai, -ṭōṭi, or -ḍai.
Gen.	mīdāni, or -ni-i,	mīḍaṅgāni, or -ni-i.
Loc.	mīda-tanni, &c.	mīdangāni-tanni, &c.

The different shades of meaning of the postpositions must be learnt by a course of reading or by intercourse with the natives: it would be a tedious task to attempt to give rules on the subject.

The dative case has generally the same force as the prepositions to and for in English; thus, ērāni-ki (or tangi) sassē, I went for it.

Nouns. 7

The dative postposition ki, used with the positive degree of an adjective, gives the adjective the force of the comparative degree; as, ēāni-ki i-anju negganju, this man is better than that person; literally, to that person this man is good; see also under the head of adjectives.

When we speak of motion towards any place, the name of the place must be in the dative; jāḍā-ki sassenju, he went to the forest; nāṭo-ki wātenju, he came to the village.

It is to be observed, however, that if the object towards which motion is directed be of such a nature as not to admit of entrance, the word wahā (near) must be inserted between the noun and the postposition ki; as mrānu-wahā-ki sassenju, he went to the tree; nai-wahā-ki wātenju, he came to me. When any end, purpose, or intention is to be expressed, we may place the noun, or the infinitive of any verb (for the infinitive is always equivalent to a noun) denoting it, in the dative case; as, mangē aḥpā-tangi gēhi wātenju, he came running in order to apprehend us; nāto-ki salbā-tangi nādisi ningitenju, he got up early in the morning for the purpose of going to a village.

In order to mean 'for,' 'on account of,' bāga or wāga or (in Gumsur) gēlu is used. Thus lāvēni-bāgā (or -wāgā or -gēlu) jonmān sitē, I paid the fine for the young man; lāvēni-bāgā ānu dondo pātē, I was punished on account of him.

The suffixes of the ablative mean 'from' as in *lāvēni-tōṭi potēka koḍātu*, take away the necklace from the young man.

The locative, formed by the postposition ta or laita, corresponds to our prepositions in, on, upon, among, &c. It points out the place where anything is done; as $kr\bar{a}dinga$ $goss\bar{a}$ -ta mannu, the tigers are in the forest. $K\bar{c}$ or $r\bar{a}u$, the sign of what we may call the social ablative, is equivalent to the English preposition with; as $\bar{a}nu$ mai $\bar{a}w\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{c}$ $w\bar{a}t\bar{c}$, I came with my father.

ADJECTIVES.

The adjectives of the Kui language are few in number; they are not varied on account of gender, number or case.

The adjective is generally placed before the noun; as neggi lōku, a good man; neggi āsa, a good woman.

Many substantives are converted into adjectives by affixing the particle gatta or gatti; thus, dāṭa, strength, and gatta prefixed to the masculine affix anju make dāṭa-gatṭanju, a strong man; sanja, beauty, and gatṭa prefixed to the feminine termination āri make sanja-gaṭṭāri, a beautiful woman.

In the Kui language the degrees of comparison are formed, not by any change in the adjective itself, but by the use of the postpositions of the dative or the ablative, as *ērāni-ḍui neggāri siḍē*, there is nothing better than this; see also under the head of nouns (dative case).

The superlative degree is generally formed by prefixing the word dēhā or dēhānē, much, to the adjective; as, dēhānē dāṭa-gaṭṭanju, he is a very strong man. To express the strongest, the greatest, etc., the phrase golē-tāri-dai or golē-tāri-tōṭi, than all, is used, as golē-tāri-tōṭi (or -dai) ēanju dāṭa-gaṭṭanju, he is the strongest of all men; literally, from all this one is the strong.

¹ The want of adjectives in this language is, for the most part, supplied by the relative participles.

The numerals are-

sāja pattu.

rondi. one. rindi, two. munji, three. nālgi, four. singi, five. sajgi, six. odgi, seven. eight. āṭā, nohā, nine. dasā, ten. egāra, eleven. bārā, twelve. one dozen. bārā rondi, bārā rindi, two dozen, and so on to pattoka, or baro bara, twelve dozen = 144. ro pattu, one twelve dozen = 144. ri pattu, two twelve dozen = 288. mu pattu, three twelve dozen = 432. four twelve dozen = 576. nāl pattu, five twelve dozen = 720. sing pattu,

odi pattu, seven twelve dozen = 1008. ātā pattu, eight twelve dozen = 1152. bāro pattu or mondeka, twelve twelve dozen = 1728.

six twelve dozen = 864.

It will be noted that the higher numbers go up by twelves, not by tens. The Oriyā numerals (except those for 'one' and 'two') are also used.

PRONOUNS.

The pronouns of this language are declined like nouns.

The primitive pronouns are—

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu, I.	āmu, we.
2nd ,,	īnu, thou.	īru, ye or you.
3rd " Mase.,	ē-anju, he.	ē-āru, they.
Fem. & neut.,	\bar{e} - ri , she or it.	ē-wi, ē-waska.

There is a set of particles which may be called the *indeclinable demonstrative pronouns*. They are o, \bar{a} , and \bar{e} , that, and i, this. Any one of these prefixed to the suffix anju and its plural $\bar{a}ru$, and to ri and wi or waska, the feminine and neuter terminations (singular and plural), give the pronouns of the third person; as, o-anju, he; o- $\bar{a}ru$, they (masc.); o-ri, she or it; o-wi or o-waska, they (fem. and neut.). The letter w sometimes intervenes between the demonstrative particles and the suffix anju or its plural form, $\bar{a}ru$, as i-wanju, o-wanju, he; i- $w\bar{a}ru$, o- $w\bar{a}ru$, they (masc.).

The oblique form of the pronouns of the third person masculine is made by changing anju into āni in the singular, and āru into āri in the plural number; as o-anju, o-āni; o-āru, o-āri.

The pronoun of the third person feminine and neuter makes its oblique form by changing ri into $r\bar{a}ni$ in the singular, and wi or waska into $wask\bar{a}ni$ in the plural number; as, \bar{a} -ri, \bar{a} -ri, ri, ri

The oblique form of the pronouns of the first and second persons respectively is $n\bar{a}$ (or nai) (1st sg.) and $m\bar{a}$ (or mai) (1st pl.), $n\bar{i}$ (2nd sg.) and $m\bar{a}$ (2nd pl.).

The possessives are analogous to the oblique forms; as $n\bar{a}$ (or nai), my; $m\bar{a}$ (or mai), our; $n\bar{\imath}$, thy; $m\bar{\imath}$, your; \bar{a} - $w\bar{a}ni$, his; \bar{a} - $w\bar{a}ri$, their (masc.); \bar{a} - $r\bar{a}ni$, her or its; \bar{a} - $wask\bar{a}ni$, their (f. & n.).

The accusative and dative of the pronouns of the first and second persons is formed by adding $ig\bar{e}^1$ to the oblique form; as $naig\bar{e}$, to me; $naig\bar{e}$, to us; $niig\bar{e}$, to thee; $ming\bar{e}$, to you.

The pronouns of the third person form their dative by adding the proper postpositions to the oblique form.

There is another form of the pronouns, which may be called the genitive absolute. It is formed by adding nda or ndi to the oblique form; as ma-nda, ours; mi-ndi, yours. When this termination is affixed to the oblique form of the pronouns of the third person in the singular number, the ni of the oblique form is dropped; but in the plural ndi is only changed to di; as e-wa-ndi, his; ē-ra-ndi, hers; but ē-wāri-di, theirs (masc.); ē-waskāni-di, theirs (fem. and neut.).

We thus get the following declensions of the personal pronouns:-

FIRST PERSON.

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	ānu, I.	āmu, we.
Acc.	nange, me.	maige, us.
Obl.	nd, nai.	$m\bar{a}$, mai .
Dat.	nange, to me.	mange, to us.
Abl.	nā-ţōṭi, from me.	mā-ṭōṭi, from us.
Poss. Gen.	nā, nai, my.	mā, mai, our.
Abs. Gen.	nanda, mine.	mandi, ours.
_	(nā-wahāta, in me.	mā-wahāta, in us.
Loc.	$n\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{e}$, with me.	$m\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{e}$, with us.

¹ This form is used in both a dative and an accusative signification in the Gumsur and Bōd dialect. In the Chinna Kimedi dialect there is a separate form for each of these. See p. 46.

The postpositions of the dative signification may also be added to the oblique form; as $m\bar{a} \cdot g\bar{e}lu \ d\bar{i}t\bar{e}$, she wept for us; $n\bar{i} \cdot w\bar{a}ga \ sass\bar{e}$, I went for you.

The accusative of the neuter pronoun of the third person is sometimes \tilde{e} -ra in the singular and \tilde{e} -wa in the plural.

SECOND PERSON.

	Singular.	Plural.	
Nom.	īnu, thou.	īru, you.	
Acc.	ninge, thee.	minge, you.	
Obl.	n ī.	$m\bar{\imath}$.	
Dat.	ninge, to thee.	minge, to you.	
Abl.	nī-tōṭi, from thee.	mī-tōti, from you.	
Poss. Gen.	$n\bar{\imath}$, thy.	mī, your.	
Abs. Gen.	nindi, thine.	mindi, yours.	
T	nī-wahāta, in thee.	mī-wahāta, in you.	
Loc.	$n\bar{\imath}-k\bar{e}$, with thee.	mī-kē, with you.	

THIRD PERSON.

MASCULINE.

ELASCO1	LINE.
Singular.	Plural.
ē-anju, he.	ē-āru, they.
$ar{e}$ - $ar{a}$ ni, him.	\bar{e} - $\bar{a}ri$, them.
ē-āni.	ē-āri.
\bar{e} - $\bar{a}ni$ - ki , to him.	\bar{e} - $\bar{a}ri$ - ki , to them.
ē-āni-ţōţi, from him.	ē-āri-ṭōṭi, from them.
\bar{e} - $\bar{a}ni$, his.	ē-āri, their.
\bar{e} -and i , his.	\bar{e} - $\bar{a}ridi$, theirs.
ē-āni-wahāta, in him.	ē-āri-wahāta, in them.
\hat{e} - \hat{a} ni- $k\bar{e}$, with him.	\bar{e} - $\bar{a}ri$ - $k\bar{e}$, with them.
	Singular. ē-anju, he. ē-āni, him. ē-āni-ki, to him. ē-āni-tōţi, from him. ē-āni, his. ē-andi, his.

FEMININE AND NEUTER.

	Singular,	Plural.
Nom.	\bar{e} - ri , she, it.	ē-wi, ē-waska, they.
Acc.	ē-rāni, her, it, ē-ra, it.	ē-waskāni, them, ē-wa, them (neut.).
Obl.	ē-rāni.	ē-waskāni.
Dat.	ē-rāni-ki, to her, to it.	ē-waskāni-ki, to them.
Abl.	ē-rāni-tōṭi, from her, from it.	ē-waskāni-ṭōṭi, from them.
Poss. Gen.	ē-rāni, her, its.	ē-waskānī, their.
Abs. Gen.	ē-randi, hers, its.	ē-waskānidi, theirs.
Loc.	ē-rāni-wahātā, in her, in it. ē-rāni-kē, with her, with it.	ē-waskāni-wahāta, in them ē-waskāni-kē, with them.

In all these the plural is used honorifically for the singular. In the second person the use of the singular is familiar or contemptuous. The following are examples of the use of the possessive genitives:—

nai āba, my (masc. or fem.) father.
nai aṅgiska, my (masc. or fem.) sisters.
mī āya, your (to a man or woman) mother.
nī āya, your (to a child) mother.
ēāni tālāu, his head.
ērāni tālāu, her head.
ēāri mrāga, their daughter.

There is a dual pronoun in the Kui language which means both the person addressed and the person addressing, and which from want of a corresponding English term we may translate we. It is declined as follows:—

Nom. āju.
Obl. ammāni.
Dat. and Acc. ammangē.

There are no relative pronouns. Their place is taken by the relative participles of verbs.

The particle esti or isiti prefixed to anju for masculine, and āri for feminine and neuter in the singular, and āru for masculine, āwi for feminine and neuter in the plural number, gives the interrogative pronouns; as, estanju, who? (masc. sing.); estāri, who or which? (fem. and neut. sing.); estāru, who? (masc. pl.); estāwi, who or which? (fem. and neut. pl.).

Inna, meaning what? is also an interrogative pronoun; sometimes the pronominal affix āri is added to it; as, nī kajju-ta inna (or innāri) mannē, what is in thy hand?

There is a part of the verb which, for want of a more appropriate term to express it in English, we denominate the *supine*: its use is very rare in the language. It is formed by suffixing *bondi* to the root, as in *pāg-bondi*, in order to beat.

There are no verbal nouns. The infinitive is sometimes used as a verbal noun; it cannot be declined with any other postposition than tangi, tingi, or tiki; as, wāwa tangi, for coming; sālwa tangi, for going; pāga-tiki, in order to beat.

The verbs are divided into five conjugations.

The principal parts of a verb are the root and the present and past verbal participles; to one of these (as the particular conjugation may require) the personal terminations are affixed, as may be seen in the paradigms of the verbs.

The first conjugation forms its present participle by adding i and the past by adding a to the root; as, from $p\bar{a}g$, the root, meaning 'to beat,' are formed $p\bar{a}g$ -i, beating; and $p\bar{a}g$ -a, having beaten.

The indefinite and the past relative participles in this conjugation are formed by adding ni and ti, respectively, to the present verbal participle; as $p\bar{a}g$ -ini $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that beats or will beat; $p\bar{a}g$ -iti $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that did beat.

The personal terminations are in this conjugation affixed to the present verbal participle; as, $p\bar{a}g \cdot i \cdot \tilde{i}$, I shall beat; $p\bar{a}g \cdot i \cdot t\tilde{e}$, I did beat.

The second conjugation forms its present and past verbal participles by adding pi and a, respectively, to the root; as from $m\bar{e}h$, the root, meaning 'to see,' are formed meh-pi, seeing; $m\bar{e}ha$, having seen.

The indefinite and past relative participles are formed by adding ni and ti, respectively, to the root; as meḥ-ni lōku, the man that sees or will see; meḥ-ti lōku, the man that did see.

The personal terminations are in this conjugation affixed to the root; as, $m\tilde{e}h$ - \tilde{i} , I shall see; $me\dot{h}$ - $t\tilde{e}$, I saw.

The third conjugation forms its present and past verbal participles by adding i and a, respectively, to the root; as from $k\bar{o}$, the root, meaning 'to cut,' are formed $k\bar{o}$ -i, cutting; $k\bar{o}$ -a, having cut.

¹ In the roots of the second conjugation, when the succeeding affix begins with a vowel, the h is changed into h, and the vowel incorporating with it becomes one syllable.

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The indefinite and past relative participles are formed by adding $\bar{a}ni$ and ti, respectively, to the root; as, $k\bar{o}$ - $\bar{a}ni$ $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that cuts or will cut; $k\bar{o}$ -ti $l\bar{o}$ -ku, the man that did cut.

The personal terminations are in this conjugation affixed to the root; as $k\bar{o}-\tilde{\imath}$, I shall cut; $ko-t\bar{e}$, I did cut.

The fourth conjugation forms its present and past verbal participles by adding i and ja, respectively, to the root; as, from \bar{a} , the root, meaning 'to become' are formed a-i, becoming; and \bar{a} -ja, having become.

The indefinite and past relative participles of the fourth conjugation are formed by adding ni and ti, respectively, to the root; as, \bar{a} -ni $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that becomes or will become; \bar{a} -ti $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that became.

The personal terminations are in this conjugation affixed to the root; as, $a-\tilde{\imath}$, I shall become; $\tilde{a}-t\tilde{e}$, I became.

The *fifth conjugation* forms its present and past verbal participles by adding i or pki and a, respectively, to the root; as, from gi, the root, meaning 'to do,' are formed gi-i or gi-pki, doing, and gy-a, having done.

The indefinite and relative participles are in this conjugation formed by adding ni and ti, respectively, to the root; as, gi-ni $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that does or will do; gi-ti $l\bar{o}ku$, the man that did.

The personal terminations are in this conjugation affixed to the root; as gi- \tilde{i} , I shall do; gi- $t\bar{e}$, I did.

The infinitive is formed by adding to the roots a in the first, pa in the second and third, wa in the fourth, and pka or wa in the fifth conjugation; as, $p\bar{a}g$ -a, to beat; meh-pa, to see; $k\bar{o}$ -pa, to eat; \bar{a} -wa, to become; gi-pka or gi-wa, to do.

To sum up. The following table shows the principal forms in each of the five conjugations:—

Conjugation.	Root.	Present verbal participle.	Past verbal participle.	Indefinite relative participle.	Past relative participle.	1 Sin- guiar present.	1 Sin- gular past.	Infinitive.
1	pãg	pāg-i	pāg-a	pāg-i-ni	pāg-i-ti	pāg-i-ī	pāg·i·tē	pāg-a.
2	meli	mei-pi	mēh-a	mel-ni	meh-ti	mēl₁-ī	meļ-tē	meh pa.
3	kō	kō-i	kō-a	kō-ā-ni	kō-ti	kō-i	kō-tē	kō-pa.
4	ā	a-i	ũ-ja	\bar{a} - ni	ā-ti	a-ī	ũ-tē	ù-wa.
5	gi	gi-i or gipki	gy-a	gi-ni	g i -ti	9i-ī	gi·tē	gi-wa or gipka.

¹ All verbs which end in i and form their past verbal participle by the addition of the vowel a undergo this change, viz., the i of the root is dropped and y substituted as in the above example.

The foregoing remarks refer only to affirmative verbs. All verbs in the negative form are conjugated in the same way, which will be found described on page 21, post.

We here present to the reader the affirmative and negative auxiliaries conjugated—

Affirmative Auxiliary.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Root, mān, to be. Present verbal participle, manbi, manji, being. Past verbal participle, manja, having been.

Singular

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT-FUTURE TENSE-I AM, OR I SHALL BE,

	Parrie area I	W. W. W. W. W. W.
1st Person,	ānu maī	āmu mannāmu (dual, āju manna).
2nd ,,	īnu manji	īru manjēru.
3rd " Mase.,	ē-anju mannenju	ē-āru mannēru.
Fem. & neut	ē-ri mannē	ē-wi mannu.

PAST TENSE-I WAS.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu masse	āmu massāmu (dual, āju massa).
2nd ,,	īnu massi	īru massēru.
3rd " Masc.,	ē-anju massenju	ē-āru massēru.
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri massē	ē-wi matsu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person, inu manmu, be thou. iru manju, be ye.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Manba.

Indefinite relative participle, manni. Past relative participle, massi.

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When this verb is used as an auxiliary, the future tense has always the meaning of the present. Thus, gipki mai, I am doing, not 'I shall be doing,' which would be gipki manjai, and so on.

Negative Auxiliary.

The negative auxiliary, sid, not to be, has neither the principal parts nor the infinitive. It has not been found in the imperative mood.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE-I AM NOT.

		Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person,	ānu siḍēnu	āmu sidāmu (dual, āju sidassu).
2nd	,,	īnu siḍāi 1	īru siḍēru.
5rd	" Masc.,	ē-anju sidenju	ē-āru siḍēru.
I	Fem. & neut	ē-ri sidē	ē-wi siddu.

PAST TENSE-I WAS NOT.

		Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person,	ān u si dātē	āmu sidātāmu (dual, āju sidātassu).
2nd	,,	īnu sidāti	ī r u siḍātēru.
3rd	" Masc.,	ē-anju sidātenju	ē-āru siḍātēru.
	Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri siḍātē	ē-wi siḍātu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person, siḍā-ā, be thou not. siḍātu, be ye not. Indefinite relative participle, siḍāni. ²
Past relative participle, siḍāti.

¹ Here the \bar{a} is long, although it precedes i. In the Oriyā character this word is written $\hat{g}_{\Theta}|_{UQ}$.

² Although I have called this form of the negative auxiliary *Indefinite*, yet it properly refers to the present time, and I have not yet met with a single instance in which it is used with a future signification.

When the English verb to be in any of its variations comes between a pronoun, an adverb, or a noun, the sense may well be expressed in the Kui language by placing the adjective after the pronoun and adding to it the following suffixes:—

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	$\bar{a}nu.$	āmu.
2nd	āti.	āru.
3rd	anju.	$\bar{a}ru.$
Fem. and neut.	, āri.	āwi.
āju makes	• • •	āsu.

Examples.

I am good.
We are good.
Thou art good.
You are good.
He is good.
They are good.
She or it is good.
They (fem. and neut.) are good.
We (1st and 2nd persons) are good.

But if a noun ending in anju follows the pronoun, it changes the anju into ntēnu for the first and nti for the second person in the singular number. In the plural we have ganḍāmu or ganāmu for the first and ganḍēru or ganēru for the second and third persons masculine; as—

ānu kuentēnu,	I am a Kandh.
īnu kuenti,	Thou art a Kandh
ē-anju kuenju,	He is a Kandh.
āmu kui-gaņdāmu,	We are Kandhs,
īru kui-gaņdēru,	You are Kandhs.
ē-āru kui-gaņģēru,	They are Kandhs.

Finite Verb.

A scheme of the personal terminations is given below to assist the memory of the reader—

AFFIRMATIVE FORM.

		FUTURE TENSE.	
		Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person,	ĩ	nāmu (dual, na).
2nd	,,	di	$d\bar{e}ru$.
$3 \mathrm{rd}$	" Masc.,	nenju	$nar{e}ru.$
	Fem. & neut.,	nē PAST TENSE.	nu.
		Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person,	$tar{e}$	tāmu (dual, tā).
2nd	"	ti	tēru.
3rd	" Masc.,	tenju	tēru.
]	Fem. and neut.,	$tar{e}$ imperative.	tu.
2nd	Person	177.74	tu or du.

In the Chinna Kimedi dialect, the third person plural ends in \tilde{o} not u.

NEGATIVE FORM.

In the negative form of the verb the personal terminations are suffixed to the *root* in all the conjugations.

	Singular.	Ploral.
1st Person,	ēnu	āmu (dual, assu).
2nd ,,	āi	ēru.
3rd ,, Masc.,	enju	ēru
Fem. and neut.,	$ar{e}$ PAST TENSE.	u.
	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ātē or ātēnu	ātāmu (dual, ātassu).
2nd ,,	$\bar{a}ti$	ātēru
3rd ,, Masc.,	ātenju	ātē r u.
Fem. and neut.,	$atar{e}$	āl u.
	IMPERATIVE.	
2nd Person.	ā	ātu.

The negative relative participles are formed by inserting \bar{a} between the root and the suffix ni or ti; as, $p\bar{a}g$ - \bar{a} -ti $l\bar{o}kn$, the man that did not beat.

A verb of each conjugation is here selected and conjugated through all its simple moods and tenses. The conjugation of the compound tenses will follow—ride page 34. The meaning of each tense is only given in the first conjugation, and is left to be inferred in the others—

Paradigm of the First Conjugation.

Root, pag, to beat.

AFFIRMATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE-I SHALL BEAT.

		Singular.	Plural.
lst	Person,	ānu pāgi-ĩ	āmu pāgi-nāmu (dual
			āju pāgi-na).
2nd	,,	īnu pāgi-di	īru pāgi-dēru
3rd	" Masc.,	ē-anju pāgi-nenj u	ē-āru pā gi-n ēr u.
	Fem. and neut.,	ē-ri pāgi-nē	ē-wi pāgi-nu.
		PAST TENSE-I DID BEAT. Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person,	ānu pāgi-tē	ānu pāgi•tāmu (dua <mark>!</mark> āju pāgi-ta).
2nd	,,	īnu pāgi-ti	īru pāgi-tēru.
3rd	" Masc.,	ē-an j u pāyi-te n ju	ē-āru pāgi-tēru.
	Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri pāgi-tē	ē-wi pāgi-tu,
		IMPERATIVE MOOD.	
		Singular.	Plural.
2nd	Person,	pāg-āmu, beat thou.	pāg-ātu, beat ye.1
		INFINITIVE MOOD.	
		pay-a, to beat.	

Present verbal participle, $p\bar{a}g$ -i, beating.

Past verbal participle, $p\bar{a}g$ -a, having beaten.

Indefinite relative participle, $p\bar{a}g$ -i-ni, who beats or will beat.

Past relative participle, $p\bar{a}g$ -i-ti, who has beaten.

Supine, $p\bar{a}g$ -bondi, in order to beat.

 $^{^{1}}$ \bar{a} intervenes between the root and the imperative terminations only in the first conjugation.

NEGATIVE FORM.1

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE-I SHALL NOT BEAT.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu pāg-ēnu	āmu pāg-āmu (dual, āju pāg-assu).
2nd ,,	īnu pāg-āi	īru pāg-ēru.
3rd " Masc.,	ē-an ju pāg-enju	ē-āru pāg-ēru.
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri pāg-ē	ē-wi pāg-u.
	PAST TENSE-I DID NOT BEAT,	
	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu pāg-ātē, or •ātēnu	āmu pāg-ātāmu (dual, āju pāg-ātassu).
2nd ,,	īnu pāg-āti	īru pāg-ātēru.
3rd " Masc.,	ē-anju pāg-ātenju	ē-āru pāg-ātēr u .
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri pāg-ātē	ē-wi pāg-ātu.
	IMPERATIVE MOOD.	
	Singular.	Plural.

OIII	guiar	•
	_	

2nd Person,

pāg-ā, beat not thou. pāg-ātu, beat not ye.

Indefinite relative participle, pāg-āni, who does not, or will not beat.

Past relative participle, pāg-āti, who did not beat.

In the negative form the infinitive mood, the verbal participles, and the supine are not used.

Paradigm of the Second Conjugation.

Root, meh, to see.

AFFIRMATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

ānu mēh-ĩ

2nd

1st Person,

3rd , Masc., Fem. & neut.,

īnu meh-di ē-anju meh-nenju ē-rī meh-nē

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1st Person,

ānu meh-tē

2nd ,,

3rd ,, Mase.,

Fem. & neut., ē-ri meh-tē

īnu meh-ti

ē-anju meh-tenju

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person,

meh-mu

meh-du.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

meh-pa.

Present verbal participle, meh-pi. Past verbal participle, mēḥ-a. Indefinite relative participle, meh-ni. Past relative participle, meh-ti. Supine, meh-bondi.

Plural

āmu meh-nāmu (dual,

āju meh-na). īru meh-dēru. ē-āru meh-nēru. ē-wi meh-nu.

Plural.

āmu meh-tāmu (dual, āju meh-ta). īru meh-tēru.

ē-āru meh-tēru. ē-wi meh-tu.

NEGATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu mēh-ēnu

āmu mēh-āmu (dual, āju

meh-assui.

2nd

" Masc.,

īnu mēh-āi

īru mēh-ēru. ē-āru mēh-ēru.

3rd Fem. & neut.,

ē-anju mēh-enju ē-rī mēh-ē

ē-wi mēh-u.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu mēh-ātē or -ātēnu

āmu mēh-ātāmu (dual, āju meh-ātassu).

2nd ,, 3rd " Masc.,

īnu mēh-āti ē-anju mēh-ātenju īru mēh-ātēru. ē-āru mēh-ātēru.

Fem. & neut.,

ē-ri mēh-ātē

ē-wi mēh-ātu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person,

mēh-ā

mēh-āin.

Indefinite relative participle, mēh-āni. Past relative participle, mēh-āti.

Paradigm of the Third Conjugation.

Root, $k\bar{o}$, to cut.

AFFIRMATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

2nd

ānu kō-ī

āmu ko-nāmu (dual, āju

īnu kō-di

 $k\bar{o}$ -na). īru kō-dēru.

3rd ,, Masc.,

ē-anju kō-nenju

ē-āru ko-nēru. ē-wi kō-nu.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri kō-nē

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

āmu kō-tāmu (dual, āju

ānu kō-tē

 $k\bar{o}$ -ta).

2nd 3rd , Masc.,

īnu kō-ti ē-anju kō-tenju Fem. & neut., ē-ri kō-t

īru kō-tēru. ē-āru kō-tēru. ē-wi kō-tu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural. kö-du.

2nd Person,

kō-mu

INFINITIVE MOOD. kō-pa.

Present verbal participle, kō-i. Past verbal participle, kō-a.

Indefinite relative participle, ko-āni.

Past relative participle, kō-ti.

Supine, ko-bondi.

NEGATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

ānu kō-ēnu

īnu kō-āi ē-ānju kō-enju

Fem. & neut., ē-ri kō-ē

Maso.,

Plural.

Plural.

āmu kō-āmu (dual, āju

āmu ko-ātāmu (dual, āju

kō-assu).

īru kō-ēru. ē-āru kō-ēru. ē-wi kō-u.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

ānu kō-ātē, or -atēnu

kō-ātassu).

2nd ,, 3rd , Masc.,

1st Person,

1st Person,

2nd

3rd ,,

ē-anju kō-ātenju Fem. & neut., ē-ri kō-ātē

īnu kō-āti

īru kō-ātēru. ē-āru kō-ātēru. ē-wi kō-atu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person,

kō-ā

kō-ātu.

Indefinite relative participle, kō-āni. Past relative participle, kō-āti.

Paradigm of the Fourth Conjugation.

Root, ā, to become, to be necessary.

AFFIRMATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

ānu a-ī1 1st Person,

āmu ā-nāmu (dual, āju

 \bar{a} -na). īru ā-dēru.

Plural.

īnu ā-di 2nd ,,

3rd ,, Mase., ē-anju ā-nenju

ē-āru ā-nēru.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri ā-nē ē-wiā-nu.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu ā-tē

āmu ā-tāmu (dual, āju

 \bar{a} -ta). īru ā-tēru.

2nd ,, 3rd ,, Masc., ē-anju ā-tenju

īnu ā-ti

ē-aru ā-tēru.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri ā-tē

ē-ru ā-tu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person,

 \bar{a} -mu

ā-du.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

ā-wa.

Present verbal participle, a-i Past verbal participle, ā-ja. Indefinite relative participle, ā.ni. Past relative participle, ā-ti. Supine, ā-bondi.

¹ The \bar{a} is shortened, as usual, before i.

NEGATIVE FORM. INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE,

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu ā-ēnu

āmu ā-āmu (dual, āju

 \bar{a} -assu).

2nd ,,

īnu ā-āi

īru ā-ēru. ē-āru ā-ēru.

3rd " Masc.,

ē-anju ā-enju

ē-wi ā-u.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri ā-ē

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu ā-ātē, or ā-ātēnu

āmu ā-ātāmu (dual, āju

ā-ātassu).

2ud

īnu ā-āti

īru ā-ātēru. ē-āru ā-ātēru.

3rd ", Mase., ē-anju ā-ātenju

ē-wi ā-ātu.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri ā-ātē

o www.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person,

ā-ā

ā-ātu.

Indefinite relative participle, \tilde{a} - $\tilde{a}ni$. Past relative participle, \tilde{a} - $\tilde{a}ti$.

Paradigm of the Fifth Conjugation. Root, gi, to do.

AFFIRMATIVE FROM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE,

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu gi-ī	āmu gi-nāmu (dual, āju gi-na).
2nd ,,	inu gi-di	īru gi-dēru.
3rd ,, Masc.,	ē-anju gi-nenju	ē-āru gi-nēru.
Fem. & neut.,	$ar{e}$ - $ri~gi$ - $nar{e}$	ē-wi gi-nu.
	• PAST TENSE.	
	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	dnu gi-tē	āmu gi-tāmu (dual, āju gi-ta).
2nd ,,	īnu gi-ti	īru gi-tēr u.
3rd " Masc.,	ē-anju gi-tenju	ē-āru gi-tēru.
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri gi-tē	ē-wi gi-tu.
	IMPERATIVE MOOD.	
2nd Person,	gi- mu	g\$-dt.

gi-mu

or

gi-pka.

•	
INFINITIVE	MOOD.

Present verbal participle, gi-i, or gi-pki. Past verbal participle, gy-a or gi-a. Indefinite relative participle, gi-ni. Past relative participle, gi-ti. Supine, gi-bondi.

gi-wa

NEGATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu gi-ēnu

āmu gi-āmu (dual, āiu

gi-assu).

2nd ,,

īnu gi-āi

īru gi-ēru.

3rd ,, Masc., ē-anju gi-enju

 \bar{e} - \bar{a} ru gi- \bar{e} ru.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri gi-ē

ē-wi gi-u.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1st Person,

ānu gi-ātē, or gi-ātēnu

āmu gi-ātāmu (dual, āju

gi-ātassu).

2nd ,,

īnu gi-āti

īru gi-ātēru.

3rd ,, Masc., ē-anju gi-ātenju

ē-āru gi-ātēru.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri gi-ātē

ē-wi gi-ātu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2nd Person,

gi-ā

gi-ātu.

Indefinite relative participle, gi-āni.
Past relative participle, gi-āti.

It now remains to notice here that the personal terminations are sometimes found affixed to the past verbal participle of this conjugation; as, anu gya-ĩ, I do or will do; inu gyā-di, thou doest or wilst do.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

The verbs salba, to go; punba, to know; venba, to hear; tinba, to eat; and manba, to be, to remain, are irregular. Salba is conjugated as follows:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular. Plural.

1st Person, ānu sai ānu sānāmu (dual, āju sāna).

2nd ,, īnu sajji īru sānēru.

3rd ,, Masc., ē-anju sānenju ē-āru sānēru.
Fem. & neut., ē-ri sānē ē-wi sānu.

PAST TENSE.

Singular. Plural.

1st Person, ānu sassē āmu sassāmu (dual, āju sassa).

2nd ,, īnu sassi īru sassēru.

3rd ,, Masc., ē-anju sassenju ē-āru sassēru.

Fem. & neut., ē-ri sassē ē-wi sassu.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular. Plural. 2nd Person, salmu or sajju saldu.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

salba.

Present verbal participle, sānāra, or (in compound tenses) sajji. Past verbal participle, salla or sajja. Indefinite relative participle, sanni. Past relative participle, sassi.

The compound tenses are-

Present, sajji-maī, I go.

Imperfect, sajjisse or sajji-masse, I was going.

Perfect, sajja-maž, I have gone.

Pluperfect, sajjasse or sajja-masse, I had gone.

Punba is conjugated as follows:-

INDICATIVE MOOD.

FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu puĩ	āmu punnāmu.
2nd "	īnu punji	īru punjēru.
3rd ,, Masc.,	ē-anju punnenju	ē-āru punnēru.
Fem. & neut.,	$ar{e}$ -r i punn $ar{e}$	ē-wi punno (more usual
		than punnu).

The past tense is ānu pussē, etc., like ānu sassē, above.

The imperative is punmu, know thou, and punju, know ye.

The participles are—

Present verbal, punji.
Past verbal, punja.
Indefinite relative, punni.
Past relative, pussi.

The compound tenses are-

Present, punji-mat.
Imperfect, punjisse or punji-masse.
Perfect, punja-mat.

Pluperfect, punjasse or punja-masse.

The future of venba runs as follows:-

			Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person	,	venn î	vennāmu,
2nd	"		venji	venjēru.
3rd	"	Masc.,	vennenj u	vennēru.
		Fem. & neut.,	vennē	vennu.

The past is vesse, etc. In the other parts of the verb it follows punba. Tinba is conjugated exactly like venba.

Manba, meaning 'to be,' has been already conjugated on page 18, ante. Its conjugation, when it means 'to remain,' is different, viz.—

Future.—The future is not used. Instead thereof the word rahi is borrowed from Oriyā and combined with the future of āwa, to become; thus—

			Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person	1,	rahi aï	rahi ānāmu.
2nd	22		rahi ādi	rahi ādēru.
3rd	22	Mase.,	rahi ānenju	rahi ānēru.
		Fem. & neut.,	rahi ānē	rahi ānu.

Similarly, the past is formed with the pluperfect of āwa. Thus ānu rahi ājassē.

The present is ānu manbi-mai, etc., or ānu rahi ai-mai, I remain, I live, I inhabit.

The imperfect is anu manbi massé; the perfect is anu manja mai, and so on for the other parts.

COMPUOND TENSES.

The compound tenses are formed in the same way for all verbs. It will be enough to give them in full for the verb giwa, to do (fifth conjugation). For the other conjugations the first person singular will suffice.

Two tenses (the present and the imperfect) are formed from the present verbal participle, and two (the perfect and the pluperfect) from the past verbal participle.

The present tense is formed by compounding the present participle with the present tense of manba, to be; thus—

I do, I am doing.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu gipki-maī	āmu gipki-mannāmu.
2nd ,,	īnu gipki-manji	īru gipki-manjēr u .
3rd " Mase.,	ē-anju gipki-mannenju	ē-āru gipki-mannēru.
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri gipki-mannē	ē-wi gipki-mannu.

Similarly-

1st Conjugation, anu pagi-mai, I beat.

2nd ,, anu meḥpī-mai, I see.

3rd ,, ānu kōi-meī, I cut.

4th ,, anu ai-maĩ, I become.

Similarly, the negative forms are-

ānu pāgi-sidēnu, I do not beat.

ānu meḥpi-sidēnu, I do not see.

ānu kōi-sidēnu, I do not cut.

ānu ai-sidēnu, I do not become.

ānu gipki-sidēnu, I do not do.

The imperfect tense is formed by compounding the present participle with the past tense of manba, to be. This latter is massē, etc., and in Gumsur, but not in Chinna Kimedi, the ma of massē is elided, and the whole compound becomes one word. Thus instead of gipki-massē, we have gipkissē. This tense is therefore conjugated in Gumsur as follows:—

I was doing.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu gipkissē	āmu gipkissāmu.
2nd ,,	inu gipkissi	īru gipkissēru.
3rd " Mase,	ē-anju gipkissenju	ē-āru gipkissēru.
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri gipkissē	ē-wi gipkissu.

In Chinna Kimedi we should have gipki-masse, and so on. Similarly—

1st Conjugation, anu pagisse or pagi-masse, I was beating.

2nd ,, ānu mehpissē or mehpi-massē, I was seeing.

3rd ,, ānu kōissē or kōi-massē, I was cutting.

4th , anu aissē or ai-massē, I was becoming.

The negative forms are-

ānu pāgi-siḍātē, I was not beating. ānu meḥpi-siḍātē, I was not seeing. ānu kōi-siḍātē, I was not cutting. ānu ai-siḍātē, I was not becoming. ānu gipki-siḍātē, I was not doing. The perfect tense is formed by compounding the past participle with the resent tense of manba, to be, thus,--

I have done.

		Singular.	Plural.
1st P	erson,	ānu gya-ma?	āmu gya-mannāmu.
2nd	1)	īnu gya-manji	īru gya-manjēru.
3rd	" Masc.,	ē-anju gya-mannenju	ē-āru gya-mannēru.
	Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri gya-mannē	ē-wi gya-mann u .

Similarly-

Ist Conjugation, ānu pāga-maī, I have beaten.

2nd , ānu mēha-maī, I have seen.

3rd , ānu kōa-maī, I have cut.

4th , ānu āja-maī, I have become.

The negative forms are-

ānu pāga-sidēnu. ānu mēha-sidēnu. ānu kōa-sidēnu. ānu ēja-sidēnu. ānu gya-sidēnu.

The pluperfect tense is formed by compounding the past participle with the past tense of manta, to be. As in the case of the imperfect, the first two letters of massē are elided. We thus get—

I had done.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	ānu gyassē.	ānu gyassā mu.
2nd ,,	īnu gyazsi.	īru gyassēru.
3rd " Mase,	ē-anju gyassenju.	ē-āru gyassēru.
Fem. & neut.,	ē-ri gyassē.	ē-wi gyassu.

In Chinna Kimedi the forms would be gya-massē, etc. Similarly—

1st Conjugation, ānu pāgassē or pāga-massē, I had beaten.
2nd ,, ānu mēhassē or mēha-massē, I had seen.
3rd .. ānu kōassē or kōa-massē, I had cut.
4th .. ānu ājassē or āja-massē, I had become.

The negative forms are-

anu paga-vidate,	I had not beaten.
anu měha-zidatě,	I had not seen.
anu kāa-ridātē,	I had not eut.
ānu āja-sidātē,	I had not become.
ānu gya-sidātē,	I had not done.

Other tenses, besides the above four, can be made up on the same principle, e.g., a future continuative, and giphi manjai, I shall be doing, and a future past, and gya manjai, I shall have done.

The potential mood is formed by affixing the verb mu (conj. 2nd), to be able, to the infinitive.

	Flagri ac.	URE TENSE.
1st Person	**	1st Person, amu mu-namu, We shall be able.
2rd ,,	inu mu-di, Thou wilt be able.	2nd ,, îru mu-dêru, You will be able.
3rd "	é-anju mu-nenju, He will be able.	3rd ,, é-áru mu-néru, They will be able.
	ê-ri mu-nê, She or it will be able.	é-wi mu-nu, They (fem. & next.) will be able.
	F4.	ST TENSE.

Magalar.	Flural
1st Person, anu mu-tē, I could.	1st Person, amu mu-tamu, We could.
2nd ,, inu mu-ti, Thou couldst.	2nd ,, iru mu-tēru, You could.
3rd ,, ē-anju mu-tenju, He could.	3rd ,, ē-āru mu-tēru, They could.
ē-ri mu-tē, She or it could.	ē-wi mu-tu, They (iem. &
	neut./ could.

From this are formed anu giva mui, I shall be able do; anu giva mute, I could do; anu giva muenu, I shall not be able do; amu giva muamu, we cannot do. The present tense is anu mupi mai, I am able.

The continuative mood, or one that expresses any action that is continued, is formed by adding the verbal participles to the tenses of the verb du (conj. 2nd), to continue; as anu gipki dui, I shall continue doing; anu gipki duie,

I continued doing; ānu gya dutē, I had continued doing; ānu gipki dupi mat, I continue doing.

The precative mood is formed by adding the following affixes to the infinitive of any verb:—

		Singular.	Plural.
1st	Person,	kānu.	kāmu.
2nd	,,	kādi.	kādu.
3rd	,,	kanju.	kāru.
	Fem. & neut.,	kāri.	kāwi.

Thus, đnu giwā-kānu, pray, let me do, corresponding to the Latin, utinam faciam.

The following affixes added to the root of any verb express an intention of doing what the root signifies:—

FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.	
1st Person,	kaī.	kānāmu.
2nd ,,	kādi.	kādēru.
3rd ,,	kānenju.	kānēru.
Fem. & neut.,	kānē.	kānu.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person,	kātē.	kātāmu.
2nd ,,	kāti.	kātēru.
3rd ,,	kātenj u.	kātēru.
Fem. & neut.	, kātē.	kātu,

Thus, anu emba gi-kātē, I went there with the intention of doing (it). Of this there is no negative form.

The root $k\bar{u}$, corresponding to the Latin nolle, is used with the infinitive of any verb to express the unwillingness of the actor to do what the principal verb signifies; thus, $\bar{a}nu\ \bar{e}he\bar{n}gi\ giwa\ k\bar{u}t\bar{e}$, I did not wish to do it so.

Condition or contingency is expressed in the Kui language by changing the \bar{e} of the first person singular of the past tense of any verb to $\bar{e}ka$. It is not varied on account of number, person, or tense; as,

ānu, īnu, ē-anju, ē-ri, āmu, īru, ē-wāru or ē-wi gitēka.

If I, thou, he, she or it, we, ye, or they (m. f. n.) do or did.

Thus-

rāni wātēka, lōkoguli ōjinēru, if the queen come, people will assemble.

inu torka gitēka, dondo pandi, if thou steal, thou wilt receive punishment.

āmu nēi ātēka, wānāmu, if we are well, we shall come.

kāmā rihitēka, ēāru salbā-kāru, if the work is finished, let them go.

ānu sitēka, ēanju onenju, if I give, he will take.

Such forms as ēhengi gitāki, supposing such a thing is done; ānu sitāki, supposing I gave it, serve to mark the consequence; as, ēhengi gitāki ānu embā-ki sassē, in consequence of their having done so, I went there; ānu sitāki ēanju ōtenju, in consequence of my having given it to him, he took it away. These forms are not used by the Kandhs of Ganjam.

The particle $n\bar{e}$ added to an infinitive also marks consequence; as, $\bar{e}hengi~giw\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}nu~emb\bar{a}-ki~sass\bar{e}$, in consequence of their having done so, I went there. The same particle is also used to give emphasis,—see page 44.

¹ This root forms its principal parts according to the rules laid down for the formation of verbs of the first conjugation, but the personal terminations are affixed to the root.

PARTICIPLES.

The present and the past verbal participles cannot be used by themselves; the latter, however, in conjunction with the particles nai, nanga, or naiko, are used to express several minor actions, performed simultaneously with the main action of a sentence; thus, ānu, emba sajjā·nai, ēāni sūdā·nai, engāēju unjā-nai, otē nāto-ki wātē, having gone there, seen him, and taken my meal, I returned again to my village; here going, seeing, and taking meals are minor actions to the main action of returning again. Naiko is not used by the Kandhs of Ganjam. Pāgi-nāvio formed with the present participle means 'when beating.'

By adding ānanga¹ to the past verbal participle of any verb, the negative of the above form is obtained; as, emba sallā-ānanga, ēāni sūdā-ānanga, ēri īsingi wessa mudi, without having gone there and seen him, how wilt thou be able to say it?

The present verbal participle is sometimes doubled; as gēhi gēhi wātenju, he came running; literally, running and running.

Relative pronouns are rendered unnecessary in the Kui language by certain participles of the verb which have the relative pronoun inherent in them, and which, like adjectives, must always be followed by some noun.

The peculiarity of these participles consists in the relative form inherent in them, invariably referring to the noun which immediately follows them, and which is also the agent to the action denoted by them; thus, $w\bar{a}ni\ loku$, the person that comes or will come; $w\bar{a}ti\ l\bar{o}ku$, the person that came; $s\bar{u}d\bar{a}ni\ n\bar{a}ju$, the country that is not or will not be seen; $\bar{a}nu\ lihni\ iddu$, the house in which I dwell or will dwell.

If the relative participle of an active verb comes between two nouns and the first be the nominative case, it is the agent to the action denoted by the participle; and the noun following, in whatever case it may be, is the object effected by that action; thus, ēanju vēpa manni krādi, the tiger that he has

¹ In the Gumsur and Bod dialect ārangē, instead of ānangā is used; as, gi-ārangē, without having done.

killed; īru sūda manni loku, the man that you have seen; čanju arsa manni loku, the man that he has called. But if the first noun be in the accusative case, it is the object affected by the action which the active participle denotes, and the following noun in whatever case it may be is agent thereto; as, ēāni tinja manni krādi, the tiger that has eaten him; ēāni sūda mannanju, the man that has seen him; ēāni arsa manni loku, the man that has called him. If, independently of the agent and object, the relative inherent in an active participle refers to the instrument, place or other subordinate correlative to the action which it denotes, the agent is placed first in the nominative, then the object in the accusative, next the relative participle, and finally the instrument, place, or other correlative to which it refers; thus, anu kradini kāta manni kūdē (or waha), the sword with which (or the place in which) I killed the tiger; iru sinda sitanju, the man to whom you gave the cloth. In these examples I and you are the agents, and therefore in the nominative case, the tiger and the cloth are the objects, and therefore in the accusative, and the sword, the place, and the man, are subordinate correlatives referred to, and therefore placed immediately after the participle.

If the relative participle of a neuter verb stands between two nouns, the first must always be in the nominative case, because neuter verbs cannot govern the accusative, and it is always the agent to the action denoted by the participle, the noun following being merely the subordinate correlative thereto; thus, ānu loḥpa manni iḍḍu, the house in which I am dwelling; īru tāka manni pahāri, the road in which you are walking; ēanju kopki manni waha, the place in which he is sitting; īru dossa manni iḍḍu, the house in which you had slept.

The foregoing and following examples will best explain the manner in which these participles supply, in construction, the cases of the relative pronouns and the mode in which they must be translated in English by corresponding prepositions.

Nom. ēāni vespa manni kṛāḍi, the tiger which has killed him; mimmal sūḍa mannanju, the man who has seen you.

¹ Mimma is Chinna Kimedi dialect for mingē.

Gen. pūnga siḍāni mrānu, the tree of which there are no flowers; kuḍḍu vringini iḍḍu, the house of which the wall is inclined.

Dat. ēanju wāja manni iḍḍu, the house to which he is come.

Acc. ēanju respa manni kṛāḍi, the tiger which he has killed; īru sūḍa mannanju, the man whom you have seen.

Abl. ānu mrānu krāsa manni kūdē, the knife with which I have cut down the tree.

Loc. anu dosassi iddu, the house in which I had slept.

The relative participle, by affixing $\bar{a}ri$, has often the same signification as a noun; as, $sin\bar{a}ri$ $negg\bar{a}ri$, the act of giving is good.

Nouns denoting an agent may be formed from every verb by adding to the relative participles, either affirmative or negative, the affix anju for the masculine and āri for feminine and neuter, in the singular; āru for masculine and āwi for feminine and neuter in the plural; thus, vēnanju, the man that beats or will beat; vēnāri, the woman or thing that beats or will beat; paskinanju, the man that kills or will kill; paskināri, the woman or thing that kills or will kill; paskānanju, the man that does not or will not kill; paskānāri, the woman or thing that does not or will not kill.

The particle via, added to the relative participles, means while, when, at the time of; as, ānu embā-ki samnavia, while or when I was going there; dnu emba mannavia, while or when I was there.

OTHER VERBAL FORMS.

There is no passive voice in the Kui language: it is, however, sometimes supplied by using the infinitive of any verb in conjunction with the verb āwa, to become; as, giwa ātē, it is done; rūwa ātē, it is ploughed; tinwa ātē gina, is the eating done, have finished your meal? but the use of this form is very rare.

To active roots sometimes the syllable ta is added, and then the personal terminations in the affirmative form are joined; as, $vest\bar{e}$, I said, $vest\bar{a}t\bar{e}$, I said. This form is slightly emphatic,—'yes, I did say.'

In the Kui language the word agreeing with the verb is always in the nominative case, and has generally the first place in the sentence; then follows the word denoting the object governed by the verb; next any intermediate explanatory clause, and the verb itself closes the period; thus, anu ēāni ēra gimu īnji vestē, I told him to do that thing; literally, I, him, that thing, do thou, saying, told.

PARTICLES.

Such words as $idd\bar{e}$, now; $ess\bar{e}ka$, when; nenju, to-day; risi, yesterday; $wi\bar{e}$, to-morrow; rohossi, the day before yesterday, which we call adverbs in the English language, are declined with some or all the cases of nouns.

Innādiki means why? and is of very extensive use in the language; as, āwanju innādiki wātenju, why did he come?

The particle $n\bar{e}$ is used to express emphasis: its most common use is with adverbs; as, $emba-n\bar{e}$ massenju, he was in the very same place.

Gapsi koksi means 'more or less'; dinā dinā, always; uttē salmu, go quickly; idērē giēnu, hereafter I shall not do; ūjēnē īnu nēāti, truly thou art a good man.

The words sendo and kuiti, above; $n\bar{e}d\bar{e}$, below; $madd\bar{e}$, in the middle; and some others require the preceding noun to be inflected; as, $\bar{e}r\bar{a}ni$ sendo $mann\bar{e}$, it is above that.

 $T\bar{a}ri$, a postposition meaning of, seems to be a composition of ta and $\bar{a}ri$; it is used in cases such as the following:—as, $sendo-t\bar{a}ri$, of the upper one; $madd\bar{e}-t\bar{a}ri$, of the middle one; $\bar{o}d\bar{u}-t\bar{a}ri$, of the last one. E.~g., $\bar{o}d\bar{u}-t\bar{a}ri$ $mr\bar{a}nu$, the last of the trees. See also comparison of adjectives.

The idea of without is indicated by the negative verb substantive, as in dābonga sidētē sassēka, if you go without money.

There seem to be but two conjunctions -enga, and; $g\bar{e}$, but.

The particle gina (let us do) is added to the end of the concluding verb of a sentence in order to give it an interrogative turn; as, īnu gidi gina, wilt thou do (it)? A milder interrogative is formed by suffixing go, as in īnu sajjigo, will you go? (as an invitation); īnu wādigo, will you come? i.e., don't forget to come.

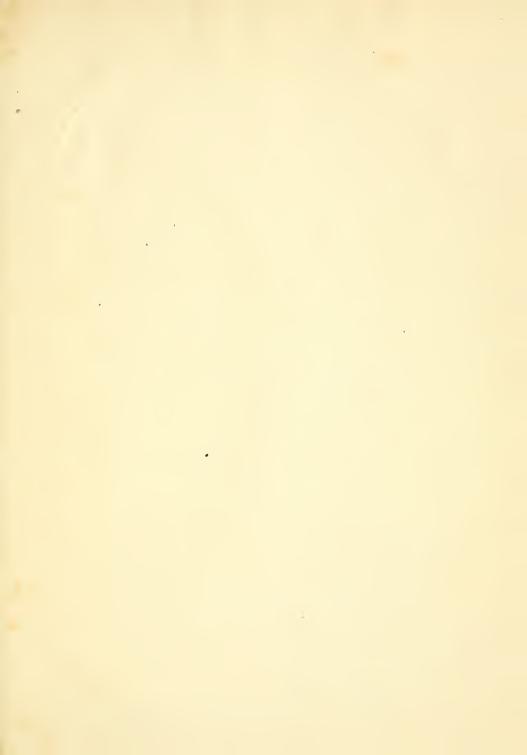
When a speaker relates what another has said, he does not, as in English, use the infinitive mood, but repeats the words of the original speaker, adding inji (the present verbal participle of the verb in, to say); thus, he told me to go would be rendered in the Kui language salmu inji vestenju; literally, go thou, saying, he said. Thus also in the sentence srasui vēmu

inji vestenju, he told (me) to kill the snake; literally, snake beat thou, saying, he said; inji is used, in like manner, when we address to a second person an order to be delivered to a third; thus, tell him to send, would be rendered paṇḍāmu inji vesmu; literally, send thou, saying, say.

The interjections of the most common occurrence are aigō or aikē, alas! ātē, all right!

DIALECTIC VARIATIONS.

In conclusion it may not be amiss to notice some of the peculiarities which exist in the Chinna Kimedi dialect. The letter d of the Bod and Gumsur dialect is universally changed to l; s is sometimes changed to d. In some places the personal terminations of verbs, di and du, are sometimes changed to ri and ru. Nanna, me; ninna, thee; mamma, us; and mimma, you, are commonly used instead of the corresponding Bod and Gumsur accusatives— $nang\bar{e}$, $n\bar{m}g\bar{e}$, $mang\bar{e}$, and $m\bar{n}ng\bar{e}$.



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