**Prefixes.**—A very common prefix is  $\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -bo, father;  $\bar{a}$ -ry $\bar{u}m$ , good. It is commonly prefixed to verbal roots in order to form nouns and adjectives; thus, chor, to be sour;  $\bar{a}$ -chor, sour; ti, to be great;  $\bar{a}$ -tim, large; thi, to arrive;  $\bar{a}$ -thit, arrival. It is also added to nouns in order to specify the meaning or to form diminutives; thus,  $\bar{u}ng$ , water;  $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{u}ng$ , water in which meat has been boiled:  $k\bar{u}ng$ , a tree;  $\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{u}ng$ , a bush.

The prefix  $\bar{a}$  is not a necessary part of the word, and it is often dropped; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -hám, pure; jer hám, pure gold:  $\bar{a}$ -tí, an egg; fo tí, a bird's egg. We are not as yet able to ascertain the rules regulating the retention or dropping of this  $\bar{a}$ . It seems as if it is commonly dropped when two words are put together as a compound.

There are several other prefixes in use. Some of them have still a definite meaning of their own. Others are apparently used as mere formatives. Such are ka, ta, pa, and sa in words such as ka- $l\bar{u}t$ , bare, from  $l\bar{u}t$ , to uncover; ta- $kry\acute{o}ng$ , praise, from  $kry\acute{o}ng$ , to praise; pa- $thy\bar{a}m$ , arrangement, from  $thy\bar{a}m$ , to arrange; sa-tsuk and tsuk, sun; sa-ar, goat, etc. Compare the prefixed consonants of classical Tibetan.

Articles.—The numeral  $k\bar{a}t$ , one, is used as an indefinite article, and the suffix re has the meaning of a definite article. Thus,  $mar\acute{o}$   $k\bar{a}t$ , a man; pa-no-re, the king. In connexion with numerals the suffix re is often replaced by mu; thus,  $k\bar{a}t-mu$   $k\bar{a}t-k\bar{a}$   $\mathcal{U}$ , the one said to the other.

Re and mu have another form, rem, and mum, respectively, in the accusative. Thus, hu pa-no-rem shū, he petitioned the king; kāt-mu kāt-mum li, the one said to the other. In this form, mu can be used after all sorts of nouns, definitely as well as indefinitely.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is expressed by using different words or by means of qualifying additions meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. The usual male affixes are ta-gri, for human beings;  $\bar{a}$ -bu, for animals;  $\bar{a}$ - $\underline{t}\underline{s}u$ , for goats, pigs, etc.; lóng, for some large animals; and the most common female ones are ta-'ayu, human beings;  $\bar{a}$ -mót, animals;  $\bar{a}$ -lyeng, young females rising to maturity;  $\bar{a}$ -mi, a young pig;  $\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{u}$ , a beast having borne young. The initial  $\bar{a}$  of such words is usually dropped. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -bo, father;  $\bar{a}$ -mo, mother: pa-no, king; pun-di, queen:  $\bar{a}$ -num, elder brother;

đ-nóm, elder sister: 'ayeng ta-grí, younger brother; 'ayeng ta-'ayu, younger sister: hik bu, cock; hik mót, hen: món  $\underline{ts}u$ , a boar; món mót, a sow:  $ty\bar{a}ng$ -mo lóng, a male elephant;  $ty\bar{a}ng$ -mo mót, a female elephant: rum-mít, a goddess: bik lyeng, a young matured cow that has not borne young: bik  $g\bar{u}$ , a matured cow: món mí, a sow that has not had young.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is nyum, and the plural is expressed by adding sang in the case of animate beings and pang in the case of inanimate objects. Nyum means 'the two,' both,' and it is often replaced by the usual numeral nyet, two. It is, therefore, perhaps more correct to say that there are only two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural suffixes sang and pang are pronounced song, pong, respectively. Examples of their use are ma-ro sang, men; li-pang, houses. Pang can also be added in the case of animate beings; thus, ma-ro pang, men.

Case.—The base alone, without any suffix, is used as the subject of intransitive verbs, and as the object. The object can, however, be distinguished by adding rem or mum; compare the remarks under the head of the article. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -bo-sa  $\bar{a}$ -m $\bar{u}$ -re  $m\bar{a}k$ -nón-ne, father-and mother-the died, the father and mother died; go hu-do kup ly $\bar{u}p$ , I his son beat, I have beaten his son;  $ch\bar{a}p$ -chhu sang-rem lí, servants-to said, he said to the servants.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding nun; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -kup tek-nun  $\bar{a}$ -bo-rem shu, son small-by father-to said, the younger said to his father.

The suffix nun also forms an ablative; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -b $\bar{a}$ -nun, here-from, from here.

The genitive can be expressed by putting the governed before the governing word; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -do-sa  $\bar{a}$ -bo li- $k\bar{a}$ , you-of father house-in, in your father's house. A-do-sa, your, contains the suffix sa, which is commonly used in the genitive; thus, ka-su  $\bar{a}$ -bo-sa  $ch\bar{a}p$ -chhu-sang, my father's servants.

The vocative is expressed by prefixing e and suffixing  $w\bar{a}$  or  $\bar{a}$ , before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, e  $\bar{a}$ -bo- $w\bar{a}$ , O father; e  $\bar{a}$ -kup- $p\bar{a}$ , O child.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are  $\bar{a}$ -lon, behind;  $\bar{a}$ -min, under;  $\bar{a}$ -plang, upon; dun-k $\bar{a}$ , in the presence of; nahān, before;  $k\bar{a}$ , to, in, at, for, on, upon, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are commonly formed from verbal bases by prefixing  $\bar{a}$ , and, if the verb ends in a vowel, by suffixing m; thus,  $d\bar{u}$ , to be white;  $\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{u}m$ , white. Other adjectives are formed by adding the suffix bo; thus,  $ry\bar{a}m$ -bo, beautiful.

Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify; thus, on  $\tilde{a}$ - $d\tilde{u}m$ , the white horse.

The particle of comparison is len; thus, hado yeng hado nóm len rhen, his brother his sister than tall, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus, khā nyet, forty; khā fa-ngū, twenties five, hundred.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

hó, thou. hu, he, she, it. go, I. ka-sum, me. hó-mum, thee. hum, him, her, it. hó-nun, by thee. hu-nun, by him, her, it. go-num, by me. hu-sa, his, her, its. ka-su, my. hó-sa, thy. hu-nun, from him, her, it. ka-su-nun, from me. hó-nun, from thee. hu-nyí, ha-nyí, they two. ā-nyí, you two. ka-nyí, we two.  $hu-y\bar{u}$ ,  $ha-y\bar{u}$ , they.  $\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{u}$ , you.  $ka-y\bar{u}, k\bar{a}, we.$ hu-yūm, ha-yūm, them. ka-yūm, us. ā-yūm, you. hu-yū-nun, ha-yū-nun, ka-yū-nun,  $\bar{a}$ -y $\bar{u}$ -nun, by you. kā-nun, by them. by us. ka-yū-sa, kā-sa, our. hu-yū-sa, ha-yū-sa, *ā-yū-sa*, your. their.

These pronouns can be emphasized by adding the particle do; thus, ka-do, I myself; ka- $y\bar{u}$ -do, we ourselves;  $\bar{a}$ -do,  $h\delta$ -do, thou thyself;  $\bar{a}$ -nyi-do, you two yourselves; hu-do, ha-do, he himself, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are  $\bar{a}$ -re, this; o-re, that. The particle do can be added; thus, o-re-do-pang, those very things. The simple bases  $\bar{a}$  and o are used as demonstrative adjectives; thus,  $\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}m$  kup, this year only; o nyi-lung, under those circumstances.

Interrogative pronouns are to, who? sa-re, which? shū, what? The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives; thus, ma-ró to-num zūk-re, the man who did it. The most common way of expressing relativity is, however, by means of participles; thus, ta-lyāng-kā jū-bā rum, heaven-in living God, the God who is in heaven; ka-su kup ā-re māk-nón-bū-re, my son this dead-gone-the, this my son who had died. Participles can also be used in connexion with interrogative pronouns; thus, sa-tet ka-su ka-kā thūp-shyet nyi-wung-re ka-sum nóng-wa, how-much my share getting-for being-the me-to give; give me the share which falleth to me. It will be seen that the article re is, in such cases, added to the usual verbal participles.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding la to the interrogatives; thus, to-na-la, anybody;  $sh\bar{u}$ -la, anything.

Verbs.—Verbs do not change for person and number. Some forms show a preference for certain persons, but this tendency has not been developed. In the case of the verb bo, to give, there are two different forms, viz., bo, when the object is of the first or second person, and byi, when the object is of the third person.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used with the meaning of a verb substantive. The most usual ones are gum, gó, go,  $g\bar{a}$ , ka, and nyi. Gum is used in all persons and numbers;  $g\delta$  is usually, but not always, employed in the second person, and especially interrogatively; go is common in negative clauses and without regard to person;  $g\bar{a}$  is almost wholly confined to the negative; ka is almost invariably combined with a particle, and generally refers relatively to a neuter subject; and nyi is used in all persons and numbers.

Finite verb.—Some verbal bases ending in a vowel undergo certain changes before auxiliary verbs, such as khu, to be able; lel, to be finished;  $g\bar{a}t$ , to desire;  $m\bar{a}t$ ,

to do, and also before several other suffixes. In such cases m, n, or t is added to the base. Thus, li, to speak; lin-khu, to be able to speak; shi, to see; shim-khu, to be able to see; di, to come; dit-det, about to come, and so forth.

Some verbal suffixes are used with an indefinite meaning, without reference to time. Such are ma, ma-o, yam-o, and sa-o. The first three are used with the meaning of a present or past; thus, go pi-ma, I am writing, or, have written; lót-thūb-ma, he has been found again; hu thi-ma-o, he has arrived; hu māk-yam-o, he is dead. The final o of such forms should be compared with the assertive o of Tibetan.

Sa-o applies more to the present or future; thus, go nóng-sa-o, I shall go.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present; thus, go  $ly\bar{u}p$ , I beat. The base  $b\bar{a}m$ , to remain, to be, is commonly added; thus, go lik- $b\bar{a}m$ , I call.

Participles ending in det and ung are commonly also used with the meaning of a present; thus, hu  $m\bar{a}k$ -det, he is dying; ho  $ly\bar{u}p$ -pung, thou strikest.

The same is the case with the forms ending in  $p\bar{a}$ , such as  $nyi-p\bar{a}$ , it is;  $ry\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$ , it is good. Compare the Tibetan article pa.

Past time.—The base alone is commonly used as a past tense; thus, go li, I said; bām, he lived.

Participles ending in ung,  $p\bar{a}$ , and bo are often used in the same way; thus,  $b\delta$  bukkung, thou struckest;  $|l\delta t-di-p\bar{a}|$ , he returned;  $nyim-b\bar{u}$ , he was.

A past tense is also formed by adding  $b\bar{a}$ ; thus, go-nun lik-b $\bar{a}$ , I called; go buk-b $\bar{a}m$ -b $\bar{a}$ , I strike-remained, I was striking.

A periphrastic past is formed by adding fat, to finish, to complete; thus, lik-fat or lik-fat-ba, called, or, had called. Te is sometimes added; thus, shong-fat-te, he wasted.

Te is perhaps a suffix e with reduplication of the preceding t. If so, it is connected with the suffix ne in nón-ne, went.

Future.—The usual future is formed by adding sho; thus, shu-sho, I shall say. Sho is connected with the suffix shang, or shong in go buk-shong, I shall strike. According to the list of words such forms are only used in the first person. The suffix shang is, however, commonly used to form an indefinite future participle.

The list of words gives forms such as buk-shet, thou wilt strike, he will strike, in the second and third persons. The suffix shet is used to form verbal nouns and infinitives of purpose; thus, <u>tsām</u>, to hold; <u>tsām-shet</u>, handle; thūp-shyet nyi-wung-re, getting-for being-the, that which should be got.

Note also the suffixes pa-ró, which implies a doubt, and tūng, which is used to form a kind of subjunctive; thus, go shí-pa-ró, I may perhaps see him; go-nun ā-yūm lí-tūng, I would have told you.

What may possibly take place is denoted by adding the suffix  $p\bar{u}$ ; thus, go  $lik-p\bar{u}$ , I may perhaps call; go  $lik-shang-p\bar{u}$ , I shall perhaps call.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding o; thus,  $d\ell$ -o, come. In verbs ending in a consonant, a is added and the preceding consonant is doubled; thus,  $m\bar{a}t$ -ta or  $m\bar{a}t$ -ta-o, do. Sometimes we also find forms such as  $l\ell$ -a or  $l\ell$ -a-o, speak.

The suffix wa in nóng-wa, give, is only another way of writing o.

A periphrastic imperative is formed by adding kón, to permit, to the base; thus, ka-sum lik-kón, or lík-kòn-na-o, let me call.

Verbs ending in a vowel assume the full form mentioned above before this kón; thus, shí, to see; shím-kón, let him, etc., see: byí, give; byin-kón, let him, etc., give: dí, come; dít-kón, let him, etc., come.

An imperative of the third person is also formed by prefixing ta and suffixing sa; thus, hum ta-māt-sa, let him do it.

The suffix  $k\bar{a}$  is used in the first person; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $g\acute{o}$ - $\bar{a}$ - $ny\acute{\iota}$   $m\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$ , let us make merry.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing nun; thus, ma-linun, don't speak.

Verbal nouns and participles.—All the forms mentioned under the head of the various tenses are properly verbal nouns or participles.

The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, thi, to arrive; thi-re, the arrival, etc. By adding various postpositions adverbial clauses can be formed. Such postpositions are gang, if; go-rūng, though; shen, when, etc. Thus, go li-gang, if I speak; ka-sum sót-go-rūng, though you kill me; khya-shen, when he came.

The verbal nouns formed by adding shet have already been mentioned.

The same is the case with the present participle ending in det; thus, lik-det, calling, about to call.

The most usual participle is formed by adding wung, or ung, before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, li-wung, saying; māt-tung, doing. This participle is also used as a noun in connexion with the postposition sa; thus, shang-lel-lung-sa, to-wastefinishing-on, after he had wasted; lik-kung-sa la, calling-on even, immediately on calling.

The suffix shang has been mentioned under the head of future. It forms an indefinite future participle, and also an infinitive of purpose; thus, lik-shang, calling, about calling; bro-shang, in order to tend.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding  $b\bar{a}n$ , i.e., probably  $b\bar{a}$  and the conjunction un, and, and lung; thus,  $zo-b\bar{a}n$ , having eaten; lik-lung, having called.

The relative participle is commonly formed by adding the suffix bo or  $b\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $ta-ly\bar{a}ng-k\bar{a}\;j\bar{u}-b\bar{u}\;rum$ , heaven-in living God, the God who lives in heaven.

The participle ending in ung or wung is also commonly used as a relative participle. The article re is commonly added. Thus, lók-kung-re, expending the, that which has been expended. It will be seen that the whole relative clause has here been compounded into one single noun.

The suffix m which forms adjectives of verbal bases can also be considered as the suffix of a relative participle. Compare Khambu m, me, etc.

Passive voice.—There is no proper passive voice. Instead of 'I am struck' the Lepchas say 'somebody struck me.' The bases thôm, to place, and nông, to go, are sometimes added in order to form a kind of passive; thus, pi-thôm-bo, written; môk-nôn, expended.

Causals.—Causal verbs are formed by inserting a y after the initial consonant. Thus, thór, to escape; thyór, to cause to escape: thóp, to knock down; thyóp, to cause to knock down. A final ng is then changed to n; thus, dáng, to run; dyán, to fling away: nóng, to go; nyón, to cause to go.

Other causals are formed by adding kón, to permit; māt, to do. Thus, buk-kón, to cause to beat; go-la māt, merrily make, to gladden.

Verbs such as  $ny\delta n$ , cause to go;  $hry\delta n$ , raise;  $by\delta$ , give, etc., are often affixed to other verbs, giving an emphatic transitive sense; thus,  $\delta p$ - $ny\delta n$ , to fire off; dun- $by\delta$ , to tell to, to relate;  $l\delta -bi$ , he said, etc.

Other auxiliaries used in the formation of compound verbs are khu, to be able;  $g\bar{a}t$ , to desire, to be wanted; te, which implies a doubt, and so forth. Thus,  $z\bar{u}k$ -khu, to be able to do;  $go\ nóng$ - $g\bar{a}t$ , I want to go; sum- $g\acute{o}$ - $g\bar{a}t$ - $p\bar{a}$ , to-be-glad-is-wanted, we should make merry;  $sh\bar{u}\ z\bar{u}k$ -ka-te, what can be done? Te can also be used after the suffix  $f\bar{a}t$  in the past tense. See above. Compare also  $b\bar{a}m$ -nyi-de, livest.

Irregular verbs.—The verbs nóng, to go; hróng, to arise; fróng, to point out, are irregular, their past base being formed by changing the final ng to n; thus, go nón, I went.

Negative particle.—The negative verb is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing ne; thus, ma nóng-ne, you did not give; ma nyin-ne, it is not. The latter example shows that verbs ending in a vowel often double the n of the suffixed ne.

Interrogative particle.—In such queries as do not contain an interrogative pronoun, the interrogative particle a is added; thus,  $h\delta \bar{a}$ -lom li-a, did you say so?  $\Delta$  is sometimes also used in connexion with other interrogatives; thus,  $h\delta sa$ - $th\bar{a}$  khyashang-a, you when arrive-will?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned above under the head of authorities and to the specimens which follow. They have both been kindly prepared by Mr. David MacDonald. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, which has been forwarded from Darjeeling, will be found on pp. 255 and ff.

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