## INTRODUCTION.

I think that I can best introduce the reader to the South Andaman language by freely extracting the remarks made thereon by the late Dr. A. J. Ellis; F.R.S., F.S.A., on his retirement from the Chair of the Philological Society for the second time on 19th May 1882 : he then gave a "Presidential Address" by way of a " Report on the Researches: into the Language of the South Andaman Island" from the papers of Mr. E. H. Man (C.I.E.) and Lt. Ru. C. Temple (Lt.-Col. Sir R. C. Temple, C:B., C.I.E., F.S.A.). From this Report are taken the following paragraphs verbatim, with such textual alterations as are necessary after so many years. It will be observed that in consequence necessary references to myself and my procedure are by name.

The South Andaman language, called by the natives $\hat{a} k a \dot{a}-b \hat{e} \cdot a-d a$, consists: in the first place of a series of base forms, reducible to roots. These forms may answer to any part. of speech, and in particular to what we call substantives, adjectives or verbs. Thes forms do not vary in construction, and are not subject to inflexion proper. Hence ther. $i^{\text {s nothing resembling the grammatical gender, declension or comjugation of Aryan languages: }}$ but the functions of such Aryan forms are diseharged by prefixes, postpositions, and suffixes. It is only in the pronouns and pronominal adjectives that there is anything which simulates declension. And it is only by the use of the prefines that anything likeconcord can be established.

The Andamanese have of course words: which imply sex, but they are in general quite
 à $\hat{0}$ - dingada father, àbê'tingada mother. 'Male' and 'female' are represented even fir animals by the above words for ' man' and ' woman,' without the affixes, which are usually omitted in composition,,$^{12}$ as $b \hat{u} \cdot l a$, pail; and when the animals are young by the names $a b w \hat{a} \cdot r a d a$ bachelor, or abjad $i j \hat{j} \cdot g d a$ spinster, rejecting the affix $\in$ as wâ ra, jad $\cdot i j \hat{o} \cdot g$, see below, letter to $J a m \cdot b u$, sentences 15 and 16. Even in the Aryan languages 'gender', the Latin 'genus.', means only a 'kind', andlas it so happened that the kind with one termination included males, with another females, and with a thind sexless things, the timehonourcd names masculine, feminine and neuter arose. But the classification thus formed has, properly speaking, nothing to do with sex, as may be seen at once from sentinel being feminine in Jrench (la sentinelle) and woman neuter in German (das Weib). We may see from the discussions in Grimm's grammar how difficult, or rather impossible it is to recover the feeling which led to that grouping in German, and the same difficulty is felt in other languages. The Andamanese grouping which takes the place of gender is, on the contrary, clear enough in the main. The Andamanese consider, first, objecto. generally, including everything thinkable. Then these are divided into animate and inanimate. Of course the vegetable kingdom is included in the latter. The animate objects are again divided into human and non-human. Of the human objects there is a sevenfold division as to the part of the body referred te, and this division is curiously exterded to the inanimate objects which affect or are considered in relation to certain. parts of the body. These group distinctions are pointed out by prefixes, and by the form assumed by the pronominal adjectives. So natural and rooted are these distinctions in the minds of the Andamanese that any use of a wrong prefix or wrong possessive form

[^0] of. clauses.
occasions unintelligibility or surprise or raises a laugh, just as when we use false concords in European languages. These prefixes are added to what in our translations become substantives, adjectives, and verbs, and which for purposes of general intelligibility to an Aryan audience had better be so designated. But we require new terms and an entirely new set of grammatical conceptions which shall not bend an agglutinative language to our inflexional translation. With this warning, that they are radically incorrect, I shall freely use inflexional terms, meaning merely that the language uses such and such forms to express what in other languages are distinguished by the corresponding inflexional terms, which really do not apply to this.

Substantives, adjectives, and adverbs, generally end in - $l a$, which is usually dropped before postpositions and in construction ; hence when I write a hyphen at the end of a word, I shall mean that in its full form it has -da. Subs. and adj. also occasionally end in $-r e$ for human objects, and this -re is not dropped before postpositions. This same suffix -re is also extensively used in verbs, for our past tense active, or past participle passive. A common termination is also-la, which as well as -re implies human, and ola, which is also honorific. What answers to our verbal substantives denoting either actor or action, is expressed by the suffix -nga added to verbal bases, both active and passive. What corresponds to the Aryan declension is carried out entirely by postpositions, as in fact it might be in English by prepositions, if we had a preposition to point out the accusative as in Spanish. In Andananese these postpositions are generally îa of, or more usually lîa of (where the $l$, as very frequently, is morely a euphonic prefix to vowels); len, to, in (but len also frequently marks out the object); lat to, towards; tek from and by; la by means of (instrument).

The plural is expressed by the addition of $l \hat{o} \cdot n g-k \hat{a} \cdot l a k{ }^{13}$ to the singular, when the distinction is considered necessary, which is not often, as the plural is left to be implied by the context, or is indicated by a prefix. Abstract subst. are formed from adj. by adding yô ma- quality, or property, as lâ• pangada long, lâ. panga-yô mada length. Negative subst. are formed by adding $b a$, an abbreviation for $y \hat{a} \cdot b a$, as $a b l \hat{\imath} \cdot g a d a$ child, ablîgaba not a child, but a boy or girl.

Active verbs use the suffixes - $k e$ for our gerundial form of infinitive, ${ }^{14}$ for our pres. part., pres. ind., and occasionally future;-re for past time, -ka imperfect,-ngabo fcr future, -nga for verbal subst., actor and action; with numerous auxiliaries answering to our 'may, might, shall, should, will, would.' Passive verbs use -nga for the gerundial

[^1]infinitive, the future, and verbal substantive, -ngaba for pres. and imperf. indic., -ngata for perf. and entô $b a$-ngata pluperf., and -re for past participle. ${ }^{15}$ Cortain verbs distinguish the subject and others the object, as human and non-human, by change of prefix, but no rule can be given as to when a verb does one or the other, so that this is a mere matter of practice. There are also reflective verbs formed by pronouns.

The greatest peculiarity of the language is the treatment of the personal and possessive pronoun. All the pronouns are sexless, but the forms used for the so-called dative seem to vary with the group. The normal form is that for the third person. 'he, she, it,' for which I will use 'it' only for brevity, and 'they' for the plural. We have then sing. $\hat{o} l$ it (subject), $\hat{\imath} a$ of it, en, $\hat{u} l, a t, i k, \epsilon b$ to it, in different forms, en it (object), and in it: pl. ò l-óichik they, ònta of them, et, $\hat{\alpha} \cdot l a t, a t \cdot a t, \hat{o} \cdot n t a t, \hat{o} \cdot l l e t$, eb et to them, in different forms, et them, $\hat{o} \cdot l l e t$ in them. These relations may also be expressed by the postpositions answering to case. Then for the first person $d$ - sing. and $m$ - plur., and for the second $n g$ - sing. and plur., are prefixed to these forms; as ol it, dôl I, ngôl thou, mol $1 \cdot \frac{\partial i c h i k}{}$ we, ngol òichik you. There is also what has been called a "fourth person," obtained by prefixing $l$ to those forms of the third person, which are not the subject of the sentence, and these give common postpositional forms, as $l i \cdot a$ of a or the (or English possessive 's), len to or in a or the, and also the object of a verb, lat, leb to a or the.

These preliminary explanations will serve to make intelligible the following examples, and will shew the structure of the language better than a long series of grammatical explanations. Observe that in all these examples a hyphen at the end of a word means that the suffix $-d a$ (applied to all things) may be added, but that it is omitted in construction, and heard only in isolated words or at the end of a clause. The hyphens between parts of a word separate the prefix, the suffix, the postposition and the parts of which the word is compounded, and are used merely for the purpose of assisting the unaccustomed reader; generally they should all be written together in one word without hyphens, just as in German ereifern and not er-eifer-n, though the latter shews the approximate composition.

## Prefixes Illustrated.

Cited hereafter as Nos. 1, 2, etc.
No. 1. bê•ri-nga good (animate but non-human, or inanimate).
No. 2. $j \bar{a} \cdot b a g$ - bad (ditto).
No. 3. $\dot{a}$-bê•ri-nga-good (human).
No. 4. $a b-j \bar{a} \cdot b a g$ - bad (ditto).
No. 5. ad-bêri-nga-well, that is, not sick (animate).

[^2]No. 6. $a \dot{a} \cdot j \bar{a} \cdot b a g-i l l$, that is, not well (animate).
No. 7. $\hat{u} n$-bê•ri-nga-clevor (that is hanci-gool, $\hat{u} n$ referring to ông-its, applied to $k \hat{n} \cdot r o-h a n d$.

No. 8. $\hat{u}$ и-jâ bag-stupid (that is, hand-bad, ditto).
No. 9. ig-bê ri-nga-sharp-sighted (that is, eye-good, ig-its, being applied to dal-eye.
No. 10. ig-j $\bar{a} \cdot b a g$-dull-sighted (that is, eye-bad, ditto).
No. 11. $\hat{a} \cdot k \grave{a}-b \hat{e} \cdot r i-n g a$ - nice-tasted (that is, mouth-good, $\hat{a} \cdot k \grave{a}-$ its, applied to bang. mouth, dê•li-ya-palate.

No. 12. $\hat{u} n$-tig-bê•ri-nga-good, "all round " (that is, $\hat{u} n$ - hand and $i g *$ eye, good, $t$ being euphonic).

No. 13. $\hat{u} n-\operatorname{tig}_{-j} j \bar{a} \cdot b \bar{x} g-\mathrm{a}$ "duffer" (that is, hand and eye bad).
No. 14. ôt-bê'ri-nga-virtuous (thatis, head and heart good, ôt its, applied to chê'ta-head and kûg-heart.

No. 15. ôt-jáabag-vice, evil, vicious (that is, head and heart bad).
 bèri-nga-ke). Free translation: Dô ra was formerly a bad man, but now he is a good man. L Analytical translation: $\hat{a} \cdot r t a ̂ m ~ f o r m e r l y, ~ d \hat{o} \cdot r a$ name of man, $a b-j \bar{a} \cdot b a g$ (human)-bad, l'ed $\hat{a} \cdot r e ~ e x i s t-d i d, ~ d \hat{o} \cdot n a ~ b u t, ~ \hat{a} c h i t i k ~ n o w, ~ a ̀-b e ̂ \cdot r i-n g a-~(h u m a n)-g o o d ~[o r ~ a ̀ ~ a ̂ e ̂ . r i-n g a-k e ~$ (human)-good-is].] The 'is' is generally unexpressed, in l'ed $\hat{a} \cdot r e$ the $l$ ' is the common euphonic prefix, edầ $\cdot$ v exist,' re past time; which may be expressed as 'exist-did,' the verb being always put in the infinitive (properly unlimited, undefined) form, and the suffix -re being expressed by ' did' as -ke may be by 'does', etc., as the simplest way of expressing present and past time; the simple copula is never expressed, but in the second form àbe ringa is treated as a verb, and $k e$ being added makes it present, so that there is an apparent expression of the copula. The termination -da as applied to anything which exists, to be derived from the partially obsolete v . edd exist.

No. 16. $\hat{u}$-l $\hat{l} \cdot m a$ - one who misses striking an object with hand or foot, see Nos. 7 and 8 above.

No. 17. ig-lâ $m a$ - one who fails to see or find an object such as honey, a lost article, etc., see Nos. 9 and 10 above.

No. 18. $\hat{o} t-l \hat{a} \cdot m a$ - one who is wanting in head, that is, sense, see Nos. 14 and 15 above.
No. 19. ab-l $\hat{a} \cdot m a$ - one who is a "duffer" at getting turtles after they are speared, that is, by diving and seizing them, where $a b$ his, refers to chà $u$ body.

No. 20. $\dot{\sigma} \cdot k o-l \hat{a} \cdot m a$ - applied to a weapon which fails to penetrate the object struck through the fault of the striker.

No. 21. $\hat{a} \cdot k \grave{a}-l \hat{a} \cdot m a$ - who uses a wrong word to express his meaning ( $\hat{a} \cdot k a$ - its, being applied to bang-mouth, and teg-ili- voice).

This will suffice to show the curious action of the South Andaman prefixes, which it will be seen presently refer especially to the different forms of the possessive pronoun when applied to different parts of the human body.

## APPENDIX I

PHILOLOGICAL HARP. $(a)$
N.B.-All words which in their full form have the suffix "da" are indicated in this and the following Appendices by a hyphen being substituted for the "da", e.g., ûcha-(this) for ûcha (da).


For examples of use see Dictionary
(a) This scheme is taken from Forbes's well-known Hindustani Grammar (p. 68)

Notes.-(1) The present time. (2) the immediate past. (3) the immediate future. (4) specific time in the past. (5) indefinite past. (6) specific time in the future. (7) indefinite future. (8) the latter honorific. (9) the latter preferably after a vowel.

## APPENDIX II.

## VARIOUS FORMS OF THE PERSONAL AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS IN RELATION TO GENERAL AND SPECIFIO OBJECTS.

Personal Pronouns with Examples of Use.

| I | dôlla | In construction. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | dôl | dô | dôna | $d \hat{a}^{1} ;{ }^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ | $d \prime$ |
| Thou | ngôlla | ngôl | $n g o ̂$ | ngôna | $n g \hat{a}^{1} ; n g a^{1}$ | $n g^{\prime}$ |
| He , she, it. | ôlla | $\hat{o l}{ }^{2}$ | $\hat{o}$ | ôna | $\hat{a}^{1} ; a^{1}$ | $a^{1}$ |
| We | mòlòichik | mol' |  | $m e d a^{3}$ | ned' | $\square^{3}$ |
| You | ngoloichik | ngoll |  | ngeda , | ngëd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $n g^{\prime}$ |
| They | oloichik | ol ${ }^{\prime}$ |  | eda , |  | ed' |

Ex.:-Who is calling me ?: mija d’arñgêre-ke? I : dôlla. He is coming :ôl òn-ke. We shot the pig: meda reg taij-re. You struck me: nga dad abpärek-re. He gave (it) to me: wai ôna den âre. We are all hungry: mòl'ardûru makat-gâringa-. When are you (pl.) returning home ? : tain nged wij - ke ? You are the only marksman in that village : kâ bâraij-len ng'ûnyáb ijillā-.

Imperative:-dô; ngô ; ô; môchoo ngôcho; ôcho. Ex:-Let me sleep: dô mâmike; Sleep (thou) : (ngô) mâmi-ke; Let him sleep : ô mami-ke; Let us sleep : môcho mâmi-ke; Sleep (yo) : ngôcho mâmi-ke; Let them sleep: ôcho mâmi-ke.

| Me | dôl(la)-len | in construction |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | den | dad | ${ }^{\text {dai }}$ |
| Thee | $n g o ̂ l(l a)-l e n$ | ngen | ngad | $n g a i$ |
| Him, her, it | $\hat{o l}$ (la)-len | en | ad | $a i$ |
| Us | moloichik-len | met | mad | mat |
| You | ngolöichik-len | nget | ngad | ngat |
| Them | oloichik-len | et | ad | $a t$ |

Ex.:-To whom shall I give this pot?: dô mija-len $\hat{u} c h a b \hat{u} j m a n-k e ? ~ T o ~ m e: ~$ dôl(la)-len.
He brought me a bow: ô den kârama tâyu-re.
I am leaving you (sing.) behind : wai dô ngai îji-ke.
You abused us for nothing: ng'ôtkalya mad abtôgo-re.

[^3]APPENDIX II-contd.

|  |  | (a) | (b) | (c) | (d) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Myself | doyme | $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text { têmar } \\ \text { or } \\ \text { oatâm } \end{array}\right\}$ | dekan | diji | döto |
| Thyself | ngiyen- | , | ngekan | $n g i j i$ | ngöto |
| Him (her or it)self | obyen | " | tkan | iji | oto |
| Ourselves | mànut- | " | mêkan | mijit | môto |
| Yourselves | mopys:- | " | ngêkan | ngijil | ngöto |
| Themselves | \%yat | " | ¿kan | ijit | ōto |

(a) Punga himself made this bucket : pang'ôyun-temar ûcha dakar täne-re. That lad himself harpooned all these turtles: kat'akà kadaka l'ôyun-batâm ûch'ârdûru yâdi dût-re.
(b) See hurt (v.i.) and Ex. at self.
(c) Never mind! they will take it away themselves to night: achin-dake! wai ed'ijit girug-ya id. be.
(d) See Ex. at barter.

## Possessive Pronouns.

Of these there are three clasees, viz;-those employed in relation to (1) non-human and inanimate objects, (2) human objects and recognized terms of relationship (see App. VIII), and (3) certain organs or parts of the human or animal body, as well as what is incorporeal, viz : soul, spirit, ghost and the seat of the affections and passions.

|  | 1. | (a) | (b) | (c) | (d) | (e) | (f) | 3.* | (h) | (i) | (j) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| My | dìa- | dia-; $d^{\prime}$ | dai | ad | dab | dar | dâkà | dig | dông | dôt | dōto |
| Thy | ngia- | $n g i a-; n g^{\prime}$ | ngai | ang | ngab | ngar | ngakkà | ngig | ngông | ngôt | ngōto |
| His, her, | ia- | 2a- | ai |  |  | $a r$ | âkà | $i g$ | ông | ôt | òto |
| its |  |  |  |  |  | (l) |  | (l)ig | (l)ông | (l)ôt | (l) $\bar{o}$ to |
| Our |  | ${ }_{\text {metat }}$ m $\mathrm{m}^{\text {a }}$ | mai | $\left.\right\|_{a m} ^{(c) a}$ | mat | marat | makat | mitig | môiot | môtot | mötot |
| Your | eta- | êtat ; $n g^{\prime}$ | ngai | ang | ngat | ngarat | ngakat | ngitig | ngôiot | ngótot | ngötot |
| Their | ōnta- | onntat | ai | a |  | arat | akat | itig | ôiot | ôtot |  |
|  | (l) ōnta- | (l)ōntat | (l)ai | (l) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | (l) $a t$ | (l)arat | (l)akat | (l)itig | (l)òiot | (l)ôtot | (l)ōtot |

* These are employed respectively with words indicating:-
(d) body, back, spine, thigh, calf (of leg), elbow, knee, rib, stomach, bowels, liver, spleen, lap.
(e) leg, hip, loin, bladder, abdomen, helly.
(f) mouth, chin, lip, throat, palate, longue, gullet, jaw-bone, saliva, breath.
(g) shoulder, arm, breast, face, temple, cheek, nose, ear, eye, tear, gum, tooth.
( $h$ ) hand, finger, thumb, wrist, knuokle, palm, sole, nail, foot, toe, heel, ankle, kidney.
(i) head, brain, occiput, scalp, neek, nape, chest, lung, bosom, soul, spirit, ghost, heart
(a) the organ, and (b) the seat of the affections, ete.
(j) waist only.


## APPENDIX II-contd

## Examples of use:-

Class 1. My bow: día karama-. Your hut: ngîa bad-. Golat's canoe: gôlat l'ía rôko-. Wologa's fish-arrow : wólog'îa tōlbôd-. Our turtle : mêta yâdi-. Their sow: ōnta rôgo-. The pig's food: reg l'ìa yât-.

Class 2. (a) My man: dîa âbûla-. My husband: d’ab-bûla-. Our women: mêtat (a-pail-. Your wife: ng'ab-pail-. Your father: ng'ab-maiola. Your grandfather: ngîa maiola. My mother: d’ab-chânola. My grand-mother: día chânola. Your uncle: ngía maia. My nephew: d'ar-bāa-. Your children (addressing mother) : ng'at-wêjila (see children). My infant son (either parent speaking) : dîa ōta-. My son (over three years) (a) (father speaking): d'aródire. (b) (mother speaking) : d'ab-êtire. Your younger brothers : ng'alat-kâm-. Your step-sons: ng'ebet-adenire. My adopted son: d'ôt-châtnga-. Golat's brother-in-law: gôlat l'ìa mâma. Wologa's daughter-in-law: wôlog'îa ôtin. Their daughters (over 3 years of age) : onntat $b \bar{a} \bar{a}$.
(b) Your wife (one lately married) : ngai it $k$-yâte-. (c) Our husbands (married within, say, three months): am $\mathfrak{\imath} k$ - $y$ âte-. See App. VIII.

Class 3. (d) My body: dab chàu-. Your knees: ngat lô--. (e) His leg: ar chág-. Our hips : marat chōrog-. (f) Thy mouth: ngâkà bang-. Their jawbones: akat êkib-. (g) Thy face: ngig mûgu-. Woi's teeth: wôi l'itig tag-. (h) Wôloga's foot: wôlog'ông pâg-. Our hands: mòiot kōro-. (i) Thy forehead: ngôt mûgu-. Their heads: ôtol chêta-. My father's spirit: d'ab-maiola l'ôt chàugala. Your soul : ngôt yôlo-. Your heart (bosom, seat of the affections, etc.) : ngôt $k u ̂ g-$. Our hearts (the organ) : môtot kûk-tâ-bana-. (j) Thy waist: ngōto kinab. Our women's waists: metat (a-) pail l'òtot kinab--

From the determinate use of possessive pronouns in Class 3 arises the custom of omitting the name of the part of the body referred to after a possessive pronoun, where it is more or less clear what it must be. This is especially the case when the word could refer to many parts of the human body, sufficiently distinguished by the form of the possessive pronoun, as $\boldsymbol{p} \hat{i} d-; \quad p_{\hat{i}}^{j}$-(hair), $\hat{e} d$-; $\hat{e} j$-(skin), $t \hat{d}$-(bone), $\hat{t} \hat{-}$-(blood), gímar- (sweat), yîlnya-(vein, muscle), nötnga- (pulse), mûn- (brain, marrow, pus). When any doubt is felt or precision is essential the full phrase is used. Examples of omissions :-(1) môtot cheta $p \hat{i} j$. (the hair of our heads). This is contracted into môtot $p \hat{i} j$. On reference to Class 3 (i) it is obvious that reference is made only to the head. (2) ngakat pai êj- (the skin of your lips) might be contracted into ngakat $\varepsilon j$ - unless it may happen to be necessary to a void risk of chin being referred to. (3) dig gûd ta- (the bone of my arm). With the arm outstretched this might be contracted to dig tâ- without risk of ambiguity. (4) ngar châg ti- (the blood of thy leg) might be expressed by ngar ti-, and no doubt would arise if the limb had either been previously mentioned, pointed to or was bleeding at the time.

## APPENDIX II-contd.

In the construction of certain compound words further examples are furnished of the same nature, e. g., kârama-l'ôt-châma-, upper nock of bow [lit. bow-its (head i. e.) upper-nock] ; kârama-l'ar-châma-, lower nock of bow [lit. bow-its (leg i. e.) lower-nock]; wôlo-l'ig-yôd-, edge of adze [lit. adze-its (tooth)-edge] ; yât-l'ig-jdg-, fish's-gill [lit. fish-its (cheek)-slit, i. e. gin].

| My own ; mine | dentan | dôyun | . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Thy own; thine | ngêkan | ngôyun |  |
| His (her or its) own | óbew | óyen | Ex.-My own bow : dekan kârama-. |
| ......'s own | rsbar | Coyma | With your (pl.) own hands : ngôyut kōro-tek. |
| Our own; ours | mábas | môyut | This Jarawa's own hut : ucha järawa l'êkan châng-. |
| Your own, yours Their own, theirs | ngekas | ngoym | The pigs' own feet : reg l'ôyut pâg-. |
| s' own | l'akan | l'ôyut |  |


|  | On...... account- | On...own account | For......sake. | For....... needs. | Owing to $\qquad$ action or intervention. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { On...... } \\ & \text { behalf. } \end{aligned}$ | In. . . . .stead or place. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| my | d'ik | $d^{\prime} a$ | d'âl; d'en | d'at | d'ông-jîg | d'ôyu | d'ông-tềla |
| thy | $n g^{\prime}$ ik | $n g^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ | $n g^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \boldsymbol{l}$; $\boldsymbol{n g} g^{\prime} \mathrm{en}$ | $n g^{\prime} a t$ | $n g^{\prime} \hat{o} n g-j{ }^{\text {j }} \mathrm{t}$ | $n g$ 'ôyu | $n g$ 'óng-tt ka |
| his, her | $i k$ | $a$ | $\hat{u l}$; en | at | ông-ĵ̀ g | ôyu | ông-têka |
| ......'s | $l ' i k$ | $\boldsymbol{r a}$ | l'ul ; l'en | $l ' a t$ | $l ' o ̂ n g-j t g$ | l'ôyu | l'ông-têka |
| our | m'itik | $m^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ | m'ùlat ; m'et | m'atat | m'òiot-jı g | m'ôyu | m'òiot-teka |
| your | $n g$ 'itik | $n g^{\prime} a$ | $n g^{\prime} \hat{l}{ }^{\text {atat }}$; ng'et | $n{ }^{\prime}$ 'atat | ng'oiot-jit g | $n g^{\prime} \hat{o} y u$ | $n g^{\prime}$ òot-teka |
| their | itik | $a$ | ûlat ; et | atat | diot-jig | $\hat{o} y u$ | oiot-teka |
| ...... ${ }^{\text {P }}$ | l'itik | $l$ la | l'ûlat ; l'et | l'atat | l'oiot-jıg | l'ôyu | l'oiot-taka |

For examples of use, see (in Dictionary) make (compel), hunt, dance, give, gather, barter, owing to, instead and for.

## A DICTIONARY

OF THE

# SOUTH Andaman ( $\hat{A} K \hat{A}-B \hat{E} A$ ) Lancuace 

With Grammatical Notes, Map, Illustrations and Several Appendices.
by EDWARD HORACE MAN, C.I.E.
Author of " The Aboriginal Inhabitants of the Andaman Islands," " A Dictionary of the Central Nicobarese Language," etc.

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$230 m b a y:$
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[^0]:    ${ }^{12}$ This expression includes both prefix and suffix. The suffix-da is occasionally retained at the end

[^1]:    ${ }^{13}$ Here lồng is probably 'their', 4th person, kû lak is apparently no longer found separately.
    ${ }^{14}$ In his glossary Mr. Man uses the form in cke (just as we say gerundially 'to exist') to shew that he means a verbal form. He says that if you ask an Andamanese the name of any action which you shew him, he will give you the form in -ke. But it remains to be established that this corresponds to our gerundial infinitive, at least I have not detected it in any example which Mr. Man has furnished, nor could he recall one. In Latin dictionaries audio, amo, are Engished 'to hear, to love', which they certainly do not mean. But as it is usual to give Latin verbs in this form, so it may be usual to give Andamanese verbs in the form in $\cdot k e$, which would be like using audit, amat in Latin. Our gerundial or supine infinitive answers to the; Latin ad audiendum, auditum. Dr. Morris prefers calling it the "dative infinitive" (Hist. Outlines of Engl. Accidence, 1872, p. 177). It is frequently us3d for the pure infinitive in English. The pure infinitive is properly only a verbal subst., and most nearly corresponds to one of the senses of the Andamanese form with the suffix -nja, but in point of fact there is nothing in Andamaneseidentical with the Aryan infinitive.

[^2]:    15 Mr . Man 'conjugates' a verb thus, using the inflexjonal names. I translate the suffixes $-k e$ do, does, -ka -ing -was, -re did, etc., as the nearest inflexional representatives, but they do not gire the true feeling of the original, to which we have nothing which corresponds in English.

    Active. Inf. m $\hat{\imath} \cdot m i$-ke sleep-to. Pres. dôl $m \hat{d} \cdot m i$-ke I sleep-do. Imperf. dôl mâ $\cdot m i-k a$ I sleep-ingwas. Perf. dôl mâ mi-re I sleep-did (I slept). Pluperf. dôl entô'ba mîtmi-re I alrcady sleep-did. Fut.
     sleep-let, mô cho ma•mi-ke us sleep-let. Optative dôl mí $\cdot m i \cdot n g a t o ̂ \cdot g u k$ I sleep-(verbal subs.) might. Con. tinuative participle, mâ mi-nga bédig sleep-(verbal subs.) while $=$ while sleeping.
     being. Imprrf. k $\hat{a} \cdot r a m a d \hat{o} \cdot l-l a \hat{a} c h \hat{\imath} \cdot b a i y a k i \cdot p-n g a b a$ bow me-by then scooped-was-being. Perf. kî̀rama
     already scoopэd hed-beэn. Fut. kârama dól la kô p-nga bow me-by scooped-will-be.

[^3]:    These are used in the past tense only, and even then only by purists.
    2 Honorifically " maia" is substituted. See p. 69.
    "Is sometimes used for the lat pers. ming. See Ex. at "I" (p. 74).

