

ALI EISAMI GAZIRMA.


## GRAMMAR

OF THE

## bórnu or kánurī language.

BY

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THE HONORARY CLERICAL SECRETARY OF THE CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY, WITHOUT WHOSE COMPREHENSIVE MIND

IT WOULD NEITHER HAVE BEEN COMMENCED NOR COMPLETED,

## THIS GRAMMAR

IS MOST RESPECTFULLY AND AFFECTIONATELY INSCRIBED

BY THE AUTHOR.

## PREFACE.

Ir is with heartfelt gratitude to the Giver of every good gift, that I take up my pen to write a few remarks perefatory to the following Grammar of the Kanuri language, which is spoken in the very heart of Africa. God has been pleased to preserve my life, to bestow fresh health after many an attack of fever, and to grant me energy and perseverance for the pursuit of my solitary and difficult studies, in the unhealthy and enervating climate of Sierra Leone, till the work was thus far accomplished. During my stay on the Western Coast of Africa (from December 1847 till February 1853), the cultivation of the Kanuri language occupied me almost three full years. As there was no native literature, considerable time was required, merely to bring some satisfactory portion of the language before my view: and then what a chaos of forms did it present! I had often just flattered myself to have discovered a rule, when, all at once, a new expression from my interpreter not only disappointed my hopes, but added to the previous difficulties. When I commenced my Kanuri studies, nothing whatever had been written on the grammar of that langage, neither was any thing known as to its general character; so that I was left to pursue my way through an entirely unknown region, where every step brought new and strange objects under my notice, contrary to every thing that I could have anticipated. Under such circumstances, two opposite errors are to be avoided : on the one hand there is the danger of being carried away by a desire for the new and the strange, so as to make common things look uncommon; and, on the other hand, that incredulity is to be guarded against, which postulates that the languages, hitherto unknown,

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cannot present features actually new. I endeavoured to avoid these extremes by tracing, as far as I was able, the grammatical forms to their proper origin, and by comparing the Kanuri with as many other languages as were within my reach. But I must confess, that in spite of my honest wish not to make a grammar for the Kanuri, but modestly and diligently to learn the grammar which the Kanuri has long ago made for itself, it from time to time required fresh exertion to keep my mind free from prejudice and preconceived notions; and whenever a new feature in the language came under my notice for the first time, the sensation which it produced in me was generally that of suspicion, and a desire to attribute it to incorrectness in my interpreter, till a frequent recurrence of the same convinced me of its reality. When, on such occasions, I remonstrated with my interpreter, he used to say in his broken English: "Please, Massa, we country no stand like white man country : white man talk every thing straight, but we can talk one thing in many different ways"-i.e. Please, sir, our language is not like white men's language: white men have only one expression for one and the same thing, but we can express the same thing in many different ways." This richness of grammatical forms, especially in the verb, is a real difficulty in the language, and, as may be easily imagined, appeared to me at first rather formidable ; and it required no little perseverance and exertion on my part to reduce to order such a confused mass of forms, and to ascertain the often strange peculiarities and fine differences in their use. For be it remembered, that an unlettered negro, speaking the English but very imperfectly, cannot be requested to decline a noun, or conjugate a verb, or to define the difference between given tenses and moods: all these things can only be ascertained by the diligent research of the grammarian himself, and he cannot look to his interpreter for more than the supply of his working materials. Many a rule which is expressed in the grammar by a few words
required days and weeks for its discovery. To learn the Kanuri language, for the first time, is certainly no easy task; and my interpreter often told me that he had never heard a black man, who was not a native of Bornu, speak it correctly; whereas they, the Bornuese, easily learn the language of the surrounding nations. It would be presumptuous in me to suppose that I have fully mastered the entire extent of the multifarious forms of this language, or that this first Grammar should be a perfect one; but this much I hope, that it will be found an essential help to a thorough acquisition of the language, and, eventually, to the translation of the word of God. The spiritual conquest and subjugation of the world is a gradual work, whose achievement employs many hands, and the bare consciousness of contributing in some measure towards that end is satisfactory, even though this contribution consist only in digging the metallic ore from the hidden bowels of the earth, which will afterward be converted into swords of victory. All the actions performed in the service of God for the good of mankind form one organic whole, from which no part may be missing: they are all required to bring about the final consummation, to usher in the eternal sabbath. Hence the meanest service which has a bearing in this direction is honourable, and may be rendered with that cheerfulness and confidence which is always inspired by the conviction that our objects are bound up with a great cause, and that we labour for a brighter future.

This leads to a direct answer to the question: "Why I, as a Christian Missionary, devoted so much time to the study of the Kanuri language ?" The Church Missionary Society, who, from a praiseworthy Christian compassion for the most degraded portion of our race, made the evangelization of Africa one of their chief objects, have long ago felt the necessity of bringing to light, and rendering available by grammatical cultivation the languages of that mysterious continent, before they could reasonably expect to christianize
the tribes by which they are spoken. With this view they for many years urged their Missionaries in Sierra Leone to study the native languages; but frequent deaths, and the pressure of other labours, prevented their instructions from producing the desired effect. But Sierra Leone, where slaves from almost every quarter of Africa had found an asylum of liberty, was too inviting a field to be left any longer unoccupied. The Committee appointed one of their Missionaries, the Rev. F. Schön, to devote himself exclusively to the study of languages. He spent several years in the study of the Hausa language, till the failure of his health compelled him to quit this field of labour. The results of his studies are preserved in his Hausa Grammar. It then fell to my lot to become his successor, and, at the same time, to take part in the instruction of the Fourah-Bay Institution. The directions of the Committee required of me, not only to furnish information respecting the whole question of African philology, but also to select some one language for my particular study. In its selection I was to be guided by the probability of "its becoming a sort of key to the study of other languages." At that time, however, the African languages were so little known, that, in deciding this question, I could not be guided by any strictly lingual data. The local Committee of Missionaries agreed with me in its being desirable that I should fix upon the Kanuri or Bornu language, as this was spoken by one of the mightiest nations in central Africa, and in the vicinity of Hausa, of which we already possessed a grammar. Accordingly, I selected one of the most suitable Bornuese of Sierra Leone as my interpreter, and commenced the language. In the progress of my studies it became more and more evident that the Kanuri had no important affinities with other Negro languages, and that, for the present, it cannot be used for direct Missionary purposes, from the fanatical Muhammadan character of the Bornuese. For, whilst Muhammadanism has been waning in Europe, it has experienced a signal revival
in the interior of Africa, owing, as I learnt from my interpreter, to the Pulo movement, which has been in operation since the beginning of the present century. But by the time I had become possessed of this information, I had made such progress in the language, that it was considered advisable that I should proceed still farther, and then publish the results for the benefit of philology, and, as it is hoped, for the benefit of future Missionary enterprise.
The language of this Grammar is the Kanuri, as it is spoken in the large province of Gazir, in the empire of Bornu, or, perhaps more correctly, as it was spoken there at the time when my interpreter left his home. This explanation is necessary; for the wars in the interior of Africa are so sanguinary, that whole districts often become depopulated by them, which are afterwards taken possession of by strangers. Whole tribes sometimes flee before their enemies and seek new places of abode. The old people of Sierra Leone often hear, from their newly imported countrymen, that the most radical social and political changes have taken place since they were torn from their native lands. The Kanuri may be considered as the language of Bornu proper, although it is not the only language of that country ; for just as at present Ireland is united with England in one principality, so, also, the Kanuri or Bornu kings have subjugated many surrounding tribes, of different languages, and annexed their territory to Bornu. But the ancient dynasty of Bornu kings always spoke pure Kanuri, which, as being the language of the ruling class, was considered the national language. About thirty years ago a new dynasty came to the throne of Bornu. The priest Laminu, after having killed the king with his own hand, ruled the country under the title of Shiekh, and on his death his son succeeded him as king. Shiekh Laminu was a Kanumma (i.e. a native of Kanum), and his select soldiers were likewise Kanumbu (i.e. natives of Kanum), so that the court language of Bornu, at the present day, is the Kanum dialect, which somewhat differs from and seems to be less pure than the Kanuri of this Grammar.

Respecting the names Kanuri and Bornu I obtained the following information. Kanuri is the name of the people and of the language, Bornu the name of the country. A man says of himself, either simply, wúma Kânuri, "I am a Kanuri ;" or wúma Bórnūma, "I am a Bornuese;" or wúma Bórnubē," I am of Bornu;" he either says, "I speak Kanuri," or "I speak the language of Bornu." The Kanuris or Bornuese are known under different names to the different Negro tribes with whom they come in contact; thus the Hausas call them Balébalī the Nufes, Bínō; the Bodes, Kágātsan ; and the Akus, Kánike.

Bornu proper is divided (or at any rate was so under the late dynasty) into the following tsédi or lárde, i. e. countries or provinces, in all of which the same language is spoken, but, of course, with more or less important dialectical differences:-G六zir, "the largest of all;" Débisisägé, "next to Gazir in size;" Máfōni, "as large as Débišăgé ;" $\dot{N}$ gumáti, Múlgû, Hába, ÁAbelam, Deía, Gúdu, Tưrō, Búdzęr, Kốrēram, Māntšimtšim, Girgắsei, Kátbū tílōa, Dádenigérī, Márma, Láluk, Túlīwa, Tawólo, Deíma, Dábīra, Dábügu, Gámbōram, Késāwa, Kárawawáru, Mágı̃-Bę́rręm, Dásu, Kéáão, Bádūma (not to be mistaken with the Buduma on the Tsâde-islands), Kádīwa, Kẹ́bdī, $\dot{N}$ gígĩwa,
 Kañálwa, Tsưntsenná, Gubuio, Bórgō or Bárgō, Mêlèrram, Bánōa, \&c. The Bornu empire is bounded on the north by the great desert and the Lake of Tsadde (by the Munios and others pronounced Tšáde); on the west by Nûfe, ÁAfuno (i.e. Hausa), Bóde, Kareikarei, Gẹzerere; on the south by Pt̂ka and Kódina; on the south-east and east by Mándara, Ńgála, Múdzugū, Gámargū, Márgı̄ and Báber.

The province of Géazir is so large, that the saying has become proverbial: käm bẹlāntse Gázir tsénūa, bę́läntse geráte tserágō, i.e. "If one says that his native place is Gazir, he wishes to conceal his native place." To traverse Gazir from one end to the other requires several
days. Its capital town is Gäzargumó, from which Tapsoía Magirári, Ali Eisam's birth-place, is at the distance of about one day's journey ; and another large town is Kaligimörám, from which Tapsơáa Magirári is five miles distant. Gazir itself is divided into the following smaller dis-
 taining from twenty to thirty towns and villages), Bérgem, Nañgúlam, Kálalāwa, Modzánganāwa, Kábuiwa, Kaliári, Ṅgallimári, Meíramri, Dĩambôrri, Kugátsoro, Dồmãri, Mêtārammári, Mulimári, Sábẹrri, ÁAgedìmi, Tórōro, Dádui,
 Mógunō, Múlintěèri, Wốtsagal, \&c.

My interpreter, who furnished me with the materials on which the Grammar is based, is $\frac{\mathrm{A} l i}{}$ Eisämi Gázzirma, i. e. Ali of Gazir, whose mother was Eisa, or, according to his English name, William Harding, a man of good common sense, of more than ordinary strength of memory, and of an unblameable moral character, although he is merely a baptized Christian, without making any special profession of religion. The portrait facing the title page faithfully represents him, as he was sitting with me in my study, from eight to twelve and from one to four, day after day, during the sixty-first, sixty-third, and sixty-fourth years of his age. His age is ascertained in the following way:-According to his marriage certificate, which I have seen, he was brought to Sierra Leone by a British cruiser on April 12th, 1818, and this was in about his thirtieth year; for his father, who was a Muhammadan priest, informed him, at the commencement of the Pulo inroads upon Bornu, that his age was nineteen years and seven months; and between this and the time of his being kidnapped five years elapsed, so that he was about twenty-five years old when he was torn from his native country. On his way to the sea he only stopped in Yoruba, where he remained about five years, which brings his age, on his arrival in Sierra Leone, to about thirty. Accordingly, the year of his birth must have been about 1787 or 1788.

Other incidents of his early life are the following:-He was circumcised in his ninth year, attended a school, where he learnt to read the Koran, from his seventh to his eleventh year. In about his thirteenth year they saw a total eclipse of the sun, which converted day into night, and was considered as an evil omen. The fulfilment of this was recognised in a severe visitation of locusts, and of the pestilence or plague, which happened the year after. In Sierra Leone Ali Eisami lived amongst a good many of his countrypeople, and had abundant opportunity for speaking his native tongue. At the time of my leaving Sierra Leone, there were still thirty of them alive, and in the years 1820-1830 their number was about 200. But natives of dry and arid countries, as e.g. Bornu, Hausa, the Sahara, \&c., die very fast in Sierra Leone : their acclimatisation there seems to be almost as difficult as that of Europeans. Besides Ali Eisami, and chiefly with a view of testing his accuracy, I also employed some other Bornu interpreters. One of them had only been five years away from Bornu, and served as corporal in Her Majesty's first West-Indian Regiment. He informed me, that at the time when he was kidnapped, the whole of Gazir was in the hands of the Shoa-Arabs, who had obtained it from Shiekh Laminu under a kind of feudal tenure. It becomes me here to acknowledge the prompt and kind manner with which Major O'Connor, Commander-in-Chief of Her Majesty's forces on the West Coast of Africa, responded to my request, by allowing the said corporal to leave the barracks and come to me daily for several weeks. From thus testing my interpreter by other Kanuris, and from his uniform consistency with himself, I became convinced that he had not forgotten his mother-tongue, but communicated it to me in its purity. The only thing in which I found him a little uncertain, was the quantity of the vowels and the accent; and how easily these are influenced, every body knows, who, after having constantly spoken a foreign language for several years, returns to his native language.

The basis of this Kanuri Grammar is a manuscript literature of about 800 quarto pages, which were dictated to me by my interpreter. They consist of stories, fables, romances, historical sketches, \&c.: and all the examples adduced in the Grammar as illustrative of the various rules, with but very few exceptions, are taken from this collection. Two or three weeks after the commencement of my Kanuri studies, I at once entered upon this plan of forming a literature, as the best way of becoming acquainted with the language, and the surest foundation of grammatical investigations. I found my interpreter truly inexhaustible in his narrations; and often when I inquired whether his fountain was not yet dried up, he replied " Please, Massa, word never done." He has brought this stock of knowledge from his native country, where, as he says, men often sit together till late at night, entertaining one another by narrating storiessand delivering speeches.

My having marked the accented syllable, and the quantity of vowels, as well as I could ascertain it, and the practice which I have adopted of always illustrating the grammatical rules, will, no doubt, be appreciated by every reader. The Kanuri Vocabulary, which is intended to be printed soon after this Grammar, will have prefixed to it a small collection of Ali Eisam's narrations, which will form useful reading exercises, and furnish opportunity for acquiring a more practical acquaintance with the language.

It gives me much pleasure to advert, in this place, to the only attempt ever made at a Kanuri Grammar besides my own. It proceeded from the pen of the laborious and indefatigable Edwin Norris, Esq.; and I am sure that every one who has seen it will agree with me, that it does him great credit; and that, as Professor Pott said of him in the German Zeitschrift für das Morgenland, "he has pretty well made every thing of his materials that can be made of them." He gives a fresh proof in this little work, that his spirit of investigation, far from being discouraged, is rather roused and attracted by what is difficult and abstruse. But the ma-
terials from which his Grammar was derived were of such a nature, that it is impossible the latter could convey a correct representation of the' Kanuri language, either in sound or in structure. Those materials are a translation of Arabic Dialogues, \&c., into Bornu, and the translation is written in Arabic characters. Now the Arabic alphabet is utterly incapable of faithfully representing the Bornu sounds; so that no one can read a transcript of Bornu, in Arabic characters, without knowing Bornu beforehand ; but Mr. Norris's Grammar goes still farther and gives us an English transcript of the Arabic transcript; the consequence of which is, that the actual Bornu sounds are often concealed instead of conveyed by it. Nor is this all. The documents which form Mr. Norris's authority bear evident marks that their author was not a Kanuri by birth, but that he had acquired this language as a foreigner.

Africa is still an unknown country to us in many respects. Its numerous languages are a wide field, the cultivation of which would be sure to reward the professional philologist with many interesting discoveries. Hitherto the Christian Missionaries have done by far the greater part of the work : may we not expect that linguists will join them in this enterprise? The African linguist has not only an excellent opportunity for enlarging the bounds of philological science, but he, at the same time, materially assists in preparing channels for the spread of that knowledge among the negroes which makes men "wise unto salvation." The time is in God's hand; but He graciously places it within our reach, and partly under our control, by permitting us to co-operate with Him in realizing His eternal purposes of love. May we pray and labour for the coming of those blessed days, when all nations and tribes shall hear, in their own tongues, the wonderful works of God!

SIGISMUND WILHELM KOELLE.

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339. Hendiadyoin ..... 324
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## CORRIGENDA.

| $2$ | 18 | read kainem for kánẹm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 14 | 11 | $e$ for é. |
| 16 | 6 | beláfifi for beláfíl. |
| 16 | 23 | rain for ran. |
| 16 | 29 | námgin for mámgin. |
| 18 | 17 | abocia for aboúa. |
| 28 | 4 | $n^{\prime} d a$ for $n d \dot{a}$. |
| 28 | last | nem, " house," for nem, " horse." |
| 29 | last | kágentsa for kágentša. |
| 30 | 10 | . . sốbāndốyē for sốbānódyè. |
| 41 | 27 | ר for 7 . |
| 44 | 14 | . . nemếngin for nemérigin. |
| 47 | 26 | tẹtáskin for tétáskin. |
| 48 | 15 | .second for third. |
| 48 | 17 | But as it is yet possible for But though it is still possible. |
| 51 | 4 | . . land in some other similar places, read |
| 52 | 19,24 | . any thing for something. |
| 56 | 13 | wứtsā for wứtsá. |
| 61 | 3 | . páṅgeiyè for pánigeiyè. |
| 64 | 14 | . . yekkẹliskin or yetkkẹliskin for yêkẹ́liskin or yekéliskin. |
| 68 | 6 | - nátuwī for nấtuwí. |
| 68 | 15 | - gágemin for gágemin. |
| 69 | 6 | . láduwî for láduwi. |
| 71 | 2 | . . tšigắreskō for tšigáreskō. |
| 71 | 10 | . . kibértō for kibérr. |
| 71 | 11 | . kibértē for kibértō. |
| 72 | last | . ${ }^{\text {a }}$ add after kadi $\bar{o}$, and $k$ kas̆sū |
| 73 | 11 | gếreskin for gíreskin. |
| 73 | 21 | .. karfáfé for karfáfé. |

## CORRIGENDA.

## page. Line.

7328 read kárgā for kargō.
779 . . kirgáskō for kírgáskō.

8022 . . yukk̄úruskin and yukkúruskin for yukúruskin and yukúruskin.
81 1, \&c. . . yukkúruskin, \&c. for yukúruskin, \&c.
81 19, \&c. . . lêné, \&c. for lèné, \&c.
8527 . . sẹntsäní for sentsāní.
1042 . . mángin for mängin.
107 last . . mólęngẽda for móléngęda.
1083 . . mádeskam for mádeska.
10813 . . kálāgeskēda for álägeskēda.
12425 . . sǔ̀d $\bar{u}$ for šidem.
13422 . . šešéso for šesếsō.
1407 add "or aré" after áre.
1545 read lēgasgányā for lēgasgényā.
15726 . . Kéllu for Kélū.
16110 add 201. after §.
17019 read kálakts̊i for kalátš.
17024 . . bögédány $\bar{a}$ for bōgedány $\bar{a}$
$183 \quad 10 \quad$. búrgōa for $=$ úrgōa.
1871 . . andírō for ándírō.
19920 . . tsáteiya for tsátëiya.
24419 . . péremné for péremmé.
2473 . . yāké for yákké.
25616 . . báagōba for $b a \dot{a} g o ́ o ́ b \bar{a}$.
27131 .. bóbōntsaskē for bólōntsaskē.

## CHAPTER I.

ETḤNOLOGICAL RELATIONSHIP OF THE KANURI LANGUAGE.
§. 1. It has often been observed that the Negro race is not a genuine branch of the human family, and that they occupy a kind of intermediate position between irrational animals and rational man. This view is not only opposed to the Bible, which speaks of the Negroes as men, but also to the results of an impartial examination of, and a closer acquaintance with, the Negro race itself. The genuine humanity of the Negroes can be proved in a variety of ways; and one of them is the philological. We confidently invite every man who can see in language the expression and counterpart of the mind to an examination of the Bornu grammar, and ask whether the richness of its inflection, the precision in the use of its forms, and its whole vital organism, is not an incontestible demonstration that the mind of a people, which daily weaves for its appearance so fitting and so artful a garb, must be allowed to claim fraternity with ours. And it can by no means be said of the Bornu nation, what, e. g., is true respecting the Phula, that they are not a genuine Negro tribe: on the contrary, the characteristic Negro features are stronger in the Bornuese than in some of the other Negro tribes.
§. 2. The true humanity of the Negroes can not only be inferred from the inflectional development and the whole grammatical structure of the Bornu language, but also from particular expressions and phrases which it has in common with European languages; and which show that Negroes receive
the same impressions of things, and view them in the same light, as Europeans. The following are instances of such expressions-
múskō yískin, " ich gebe die hand" $=$ " I shake hands." néngaçî tsúr"," " die Regenzeit ist eingefallen " $=$ " the rainy season is come."
wu kámmōtšire yiskin, "I give a man his right." kām nónigurō yākéskin, "I put somebody to shame." tégam yískin, " I give the breast," i.e. " I suckle." kámmō múskō ganāgéskin, "I lay hands on somebody." ágō díbì kámmō péléggsskin, " ich erzeige einem Böses " $=$
"I inflict evil on somebody."
kęmár táskin, " I take courage."
múskō kämbếwa, "having a free hand, liberal ;" from kámbẽ,
" free, not a slave ;" comp. " liberate, liberal."
kām súlweirō táskin, "I take one for lazy."
tsúroo kábūu arásgiben lénigin, "I shall go within six days." kảnem käm goótsùn, "Schlaf übernimmt einen" = "sleep overcomes one."
ká́ngē kām tsę́tei, "fever seizes one."
yambúskin, " I bear," said of a tree and a woman.
kạ́lă kámbē gồngin, "einem den Kopf halten," i. e. "to spoil one by always taking his part."
§. 3. Besides the affinity in grammatical forms, and the coincidence in certain expressions, the Bornu language is also connected with Indo-European and Semitic languages by a considerable number of rools. This radical affinity is so extensive, that it cannot be considered as merely accidental. Its cause can only be twofold: it is either owing to the sameness with which impressions are received from the external world, and with which these impressions are expressed again; or there must be a genealogical connexion between the cognate roots of African, Asiatic, and European languages. In both cases it argues for the true humanity of the Negro race. If we turn to the Bible, the only authentic account of the original
history of mankind, and there read of a primitive universal
 consequent sudden and miraculous "confusion of tongues "
 the radical affinity in a genealogical way. But perhaps neither the genealogical nor the psychological way, taken separately, sufficiently accounts for the whole extent of the radical affinity; and the relation between the human mind and language will lead us to a combination of both of them.

We now give a list of Bornu roots which are evidently cognate with either Indo-European or Semitic roots, or with both.
 remarks, puto, a. r. पा, nutrire, (cf. bú-skin, "I eat"). G. $\pi \alpha \tau \grave{\eta} \rho$, L. pater, G. Vater, E. father.
áfi, which, what. The $f$ of this root has become $m$ in the Semitic, and either $p$ or $k$ in the Indo-European languages. Hence we may here compare H. מָה ; A. 6o; S. कः; L. quis; Gr. $\pi \hat{\omega} \varsigma, \pi o ́ \sigma o \varsigma, ~ G . ~ w a s, ~ w e r, ~ w o ; ~ E . ~$ again aspirated, who, what.
$\bar{a} m$, people; H. עָ ; A.
dite and 'te, this; H. Tiֶ ; A. lذ; S. तत्; Gr. тis, тò; G. der, dieser ; E. the, this.
bul, white; H. בַ ; A. $;$; S. भूर ; L. purus, verus, albus, G. bar, wahr ; Sax. fullian = to whiten ; E. fuller, pale, pure.
bú-skin, I eat; kómbū, food; S. पा, servare, sustentare; Gr. ßó $\omega$, ßó $\kappa \kappa \omega$; L. pa-bulum; G. füttern, Futter ; E. feed, food.
 dinīa, world; A. دنَيًا.
di-skin, E. I do; G. ich thue.
dur, tribe, family ; H. . of society ; A. ده, time, age.
nigúrgulē, throat; S. गल, गॄ, deglutire; L. gula, collum; G. Kehle, Gurgel ; E. gorge, gullet, gargle.
pád-geskin, I wander, am lost, die; H. הָּר, to stray,
 pes, pedis; G. Fuss, Pfad ; E. foot, path.
patsár-nigin, I interpret; H.
pē, cow, cattle ; S. पा, sustentare, comp. brí-skin, I eat; Gr. Roûs, Boòs, which Bopp derives from गौ, cow ; L. bos; Isl. fé ; G. Vieh.
$p^{\frac{1}{t} r-n g i n, ~ I ~ s p r e a d ; ~ S . ~ स ् प ृ ष ्, ~ o r, ~ p e r h a p s, ~ प ॄ, ~ i m p l e r e ; ~ G r . ~}$ $\pi \lambda \eta \dot{\eta} \rho \omega$; L. spargo ; G. breiten spreizen ; E. spread, broad.
 rak, straight; S. रश्ष् servare, राज् regere; Gr. á $\rho \kappa$ ह́ $\omega$, L. rego, rectus; G. recht, richten ; E. right.
rará-ngin, I revile, curse; rútigin, I despise; H. 군, to


rú-skin, I see; H. רָָָה; A. رإي.
sámma, all; tsám-gin, I collect ; S. सम् ; Gr. $\sigma u ́ v$; L. cum, summa; G. sammt, sammeln ; E. sum.
 newly strained; S. fिच्, humectare, emittere; Gr. $\sigma \alpha \kappa \kappa \in ́ \omega$; L. sacco ; G. seihen, seigen.
suinū, shepherd ; S. सानु, planities in vertice montis; G. Senne, which is only applied to shepherds of the high mountains.
s̆i, he, she, it; H. הֶ ; A. 1 j ; S. स: ; L. is; G. sie; E. he, she.
 кеі́ра; G. scheeren, Scheere, Schaar; E. share, short. tamó-
tár-ngin, I strew ; S. स्दॄ, sternere; L. sterno ; G. Stroh, streuen ; E. straw, strew.
tár-nigin, I dry; S. तृष् ; Gr. $\tau \in ́ \rho \sigma o \mu \alpha t$; L. torreon; G trocken, Durst ; E. dry, drought, thirst.
tóliz, height, top ; S. तुल् ; Gr. $\tau \lambda \dot{\alpha} \omega$; Goth. hula; L. tollo ; G. Dulden, Kiel ; E. tall.
tsán-gin (sui tsák-tšin), I cover ; S. खच् ; L. lego ; G. decken, Dash; E. protect.
tsúm-gin, [ fast; H. م́امَ. A.
woladí, servant, as opposed to slave; H. רָלָ , child ; A. ${ }^{5}$,
wúra, great; wurấ-ngin, I grow up; S. भृरि and पुह, multus; Gr. $\pi o \lambda \grave{v}_{S} ; ~ L . ~ m u l t u s, ~ p l u s ; ~ H i b . ~ u r, ~ v e r y ; ~$ G. vel: E. more.
yil-nigin, I shout, hollow; yír-ngin, I cry, wail; Gr, on $\lambda \circ \lambda u ́ \zeta \omega$; L. ululo; G. gellen ; E. yell.
yim-búlu-skin (bulu being the root), I fill; S. पृ, पॄ, पूट् ; Gr. $\pi i \mu-\pi \lambda \eta-\mu t$; L. plo, plenus; G. füllen, sol ; E. full, fill.
§. 4. From the roots just enumerated a number of others have to be kept quite distinct, although they are common to the Kanuri and the Arabic. These are words which originally formed no part of the Kanuri language, but were adopted at the introduction of Muhammadanism, and through intercourse with Arabic-speaking people. A great proportion of them are therefore religious terms. But they are now so thoroughly naturalized, that the Bornuese use them as freely as if they had always been part of their own language; and even change and inflect them like all the other words, generally unconscious of their Arabic origin. We here subjoin a list of such Arabicisms in Kanuri.


8 ethnological relationship of the kanuri language.
dinar, s. gold ; A. s.
káfar, s. grave, cemetery ;
A. قبر.
karấ-ngin, I read; A. s. $_{\text {| }}^{\text {| }}$
kááiri, s. infidel ; A. فُر. lárde, s. the earth; A. ارض. málaka, s. angel ; A. ©fló míă, hundred; A.
 ratal, s. pound;
A. lb, sádāga, s. alms; A. ä tho.
 salám, s. peace; A. سَكَ. sāli-ngin, I pray; A. 0 . tsánna, s. heaven; A. ج̈غ .
§. 5. Here, also, would be the place for characterizing the relation of the Kanuri to other African languages; but as these are still so partially and so imperfectly known, we had better refer the reader to the "Polyglotta Africana," which facilitates a comparison on a limited scale.

## CHAPTER II.

## SOUNDS AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

§. 6. The orthography used in this Grammar follows the system proposed by Professor Lepsius of Berlin, which we found best adapted to the wants of Missionaries and Linguists who have to reduce unwritten languages, because it is based on sound physiological and phonetic principles, consistent in the selection of the signs it contains, and easily admits of an addition of new signs where occasion may require them.
§. 7. The Bornu language, in common with all other languages, has the three radical or fundamental vowels $i, a, u$, respectively answering to the three organs of speech by which the articulation of consonants is chiefly effected, viz. larnyx, tongue, and lip. But in the transition from one of these chief vowels to the other, the language presents to us several medial sounds which likewise require distinct signs. Of these medial vowels, three lie between $a$ and $i$, viz. $e, e, e$; and three between $a$ and $u$, viz. $a, \underline{o}, o$.

The sound of $e$, which isalso found in other African languages, is a deep pectoral sound, which is produced when we pronounce the $i$ of "girl" or "fir" as deep in the chest as we possibly can. In many cases, if not in all, this $e$ has arisen in Bornu from $i$, just as the corresponding sound did in English. It is therefore often changed back into i, if required by the law of euphony; and sometimes becomes $u$, which is likewise pronounced deep in the throat. To the ear the sound $e$ appears much nearer $e$ than $i$, and therefore its sign is a modification of $e$.

Another deep pectoral sound is $a$. It is closely allied to $e$, and is produced by uttering a short $a$ as deep in the chest as we possibly can. Sometimes these two sounds approach each other so nearly that one feels at a loss whether to write
$e$ or $a$. But $a$ frequently comes very near the common $a$, which is never the case with $e$. In short, we may say $e$ is a deep pectoral $e$ or $i$, and $a$ a deep pectoral $a$. These two sounds might also be considered as the indefinite fundamental vowel, lying at the base of all the other vowels; and it is to remind us of this that we subscribe to $e$ and $a$ the little ring by which Professor Lepsius represents the imperfect original vowel.

Neither can the line of demarcation between $e$ and $e$ be so distinctly drawn. The first is sounded as in "pen," and the second as $a$ in "hat," or $\ddot{a}$ in the German "Väter." But in the flow of language they often approach each other very closely, and sometimes one may even hear them used promiscuously.

A similar relation, as between $e$ and $e$, is sustained by $o$ and $o$. The former is the $o$ of "bone," and the latter the $a$ of "water" or "salt." It is sometimes difficult to decide whether $\varrho$ or $o a$ is pronounced.

The fundamental vowels $i, a, u$, are sounded as in German; and it may here be remarked, that the first of them is often resolved into $y$, and the last into $w$; and also, that when, after the common rules of grammar, $i$ ought to be followed by $y$, and $u$ by $w$, the letters $y$ and $w$ are generally omitted.

Diphthongs have for their final sound either $i$ or $u$, and the following are those used : $a i, e i, o i, u i ; a u, \underline{o u}$. When they receive the accent ( ${ }^{\prime}$ ), it is always placed on the last of the two vowels, as in Greek, e.g. meírō.
§. 8. Of the Consonants, those called Liquids are next in order to the vowels, having in common with them, that the voice is the material element of their sound. They are, $m, n, \dot{n}(=n g$ in "king"), $l$, and $r$. Assigning them severally to the organs of speech, $m$ shows its labial character by combining with $b ; n$ its lingual character by combining with $d$; whereas $\dot{n}, l$, and $r$, can come into immediate contact with the gutturals $k$ and $g$. In Bornu, the strong, vowel-like quality of the liquids (cf. §. 18 of "Organism der Sprache," von K. F. Becker) shows itself
especially by the capability of $\dot{n}, n, m$, being prefixed respectively to $g, d, b$, thus forming a sort of syllable by themselves, and even assuming the accent of the word, e.g.
 terminating words, a position which the language predominantly assigns to vowels, and, only in a few peculiar cases, also $k, g$, and $t$.

As the voice is the material element of the Vowels and Liquids, so the breath is the material element of the Spirants and Mutes (vid. Becker's Organism, §. 17.). The difference between the Spirants and the Mutes is this, that, in uttering the Mutes, the breath is first stopped by entirely shutting the channel of the mouth, and then suddenly suffered to break forth with vehemence (whence they are also called eruptive or explosive); whereas, in uttering the Spirants, the breath is not interrupted, but only pressed or impeded, by narrowing the channel of the mouth, whence they are called by Prof. Lepsius "fricantes," or "fricative." The greater or less force with which the breath is suffered to break forth constitutes the difference between sharp and flat Mutes. The Guttural Mutes are: $k$, sharp, as in "key;" $g$, flat, as in "go." The Lingual Mutes are: $t$, sharp, as in "tool;" $d$, flat, as in "do." The Labial Mutes are: $p$, sharp, as in "pain;" $b$, flat, as in "be." It must be remarked, however, that in Bornu the flats and sharps of the Guttural and Labial Mutes are not kept so distinct as in English, but are suffered to approach each other closely, or even to be sometimes interchanged, as in German.

Of the Spirants, or "fricantes," $h$ is not influenced by any one articulating organ more than by another, and therefore might take its place in any of the local classes. It is always sounded as in "hothouse." To the Guttural class belongs $y$, sounded as in "yes:" to the Lingual class, $s$, sounded as in "see;" $z$, as in "zeal;" s as $s h$ in "show :" and to the Labial class belong $f$ and $w$. The last of these has the sound as in "world;" and the first as in "father." It appears, however, that the Bornu language does not possess so firm and solid an
$f$ as we do, but one more like that of the Hebrew language; for words which in one district are pronounced with $b$ or $p$, are pronounced with $f$ in another; yea, one and the same individual may be found promiscuously to interchange $f$ and $b$ or $p$, not to mention the regular change of $f$ into $p$, according to $\S .15$. It would therefore not be amiss, if, in Bornu, we would write $b h$ or $p h(b$ or $\hat{p}$ ), instead of $f$.

The Kanuri language has three compound Consonants which are analogous to the diphthongs among vowels, and therefore might be called Consonantal Diplthonys. The component elements are, first, a Lingual Mute, and then a Lingual Spirant, as, $d z, t s, t \check{\text {. }}$. The first of these three compound Consonants is used sparingly, and then it may be interchanged promiscuously with the simple $z$. It would bear the same relation to $d_{z}^{\breve{z}}$ (the sound of $j$ in "join") as $t s$ does to $t \stackrel{s}{c}$, but the language does not seem to have developed $d \check{z}$, as distinguished from $t_{s}^{s}$. The compounds $t s$ and $t_{s}^{*}$ are of frequent occurrence. The former answers to the German $z$ in "Zeit," and the latter to the common pronunciation of $c h$ in "church." It has been contested among Englishmen themselves whether the ch in "church" is a simple palatal sound, or whether it is a compound. Perhaps the decision is not quite so easy. In Kanuri, also, ts has sometimes arisen from a palatal $k$ or $g\left(k^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right)$; but that it is really a compound sound is evident from the circumstance, that the same law which changes $s$ into $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ changes $t s$ into $t_{s}^{\check{c}}$ (cf. §. 18.).
§. 9. The signs required for writing the Kanuri language may therefore be represented by the following scheme-


The Compound Sounds of the Kanuri language are the following-

1. Vowel Diphthongs : ai, ei, oi, ui; au, ou.
2. Consonantal Diphthongs : $d z, t s$, tš.

The accented syllable is indicated by the acute accent, e.g. ába, kámū.

Long vowels are marked, as usually, by ( ${ }^{-}$) e.g. $\bar{a}$; all vowels without this sign are short.

Nasalization is indicated by a circumflex ( ${ }^{\sim}$ ) eg. mía.

## CHAPTER III.

EUPHONIC CHANGES.
§. 10. These are most conveniently considered under the following three heads, viz. as referring either to the vocalism, or consonantism, or the organic combination of both.

## I. Changes in the symphony of vowels.

§. 11. When the contact of vowels is immediate, the changes consist either in the contraction or ejection of vowels. The former takes place when two $a$ 's meet; e. $\boldsymbol{g}$.
$n \bar{a} m$ wuráabērō, "to the place of the great people," for $n \bar{a} \bar{a} m, \& c$.
kóānémmō léttęnäte, " the man who went southward," for kóáānémmo, \&c.
átemágo, " this is something," for átẹmāágō.
The ejection of vowels can be either by apocope or apharesis.
Instances of apocope:
$e$ ejected: mána lāg" áte, " this wicked word."
$u$ ejected : fug' ámberò, " before the people."
e ejected: kal' afi diskin?" what shall I do then ?" wot' ámmóo pè́léggommi," "do not show it to the people."

Instances of apheresis :
sádaga "šámbē, " alms of Asham."
kóa 'ba 'tárītsa, "the man, Father Ataritsa," for kóa ába Atárītsa.
§. 12. Even when the contact of vowels is not immediate they influence each other ; e.g.
$a$ sometimes becomes $o$ when followed by $o$ : máskin, " I take," has in the infinitive mógŏ for mágō; and in the Aorist, kímoskō, kimāgẹm, kímogō, kimagē, kímagū, kémogō.
$e ́$ has a tendency to become $i$ before $e$ : pértsé, " his horse," nom. pértsiyē, gen. pértsibē; nẹm abäntsibē," his father's house," for abántsębē ; tsúrō bundegíberō, "into the gun," from búndege, " gun."
$e$ becomes $u$ before $o$ : abántsurō, " to his father," from abántsé ; tatoáturō," to the children," from tatoáté; kōganawántsusō, " all his soldiers," from kōganawántse; nẹtálagätúc kwōya, "if it is poverty," from tálagäté ; kúlitu rôntsģ, " this insect's life," from kúlitte.
$e$ becomes $u$ or even $o$ before $u$ : létsu, rúntsęn náptšì, " he goes and sits down by himself;" kürrū, " sight," for kérrū ; kúllugō, "exit," for kẹllugō; kuntsúrō, "fall," for kentsúrō ; kómbū, " food," for kénbū.
$i$ sometimes becomes $e$ before $i$ : tigényin," in my skin," from tigi; diskin, "I do," has in the relative conjugation yegdẹ́skin.
II. changes in the symphony of consonants.
$\S 13$. The object of these changes is always to prevent the meeting of two incompatible consonants. This object is effected in a fourfold way; viz. either by changing one of the incompatible consonants into the other, or by merely adjusting it to the other, or even by dropping one altogether, or by inserting a vowel between the incompatible
consonants. These four cases have now to be illustrated by examples.

1. Assimilation, or rather Identification of Consonants.
§ 14. It will be observed, that the letters transformed into others are only $n, r, w$; for the few cases where $d$ and $t$ are assimilated are peculiar, and restricted to some specific adverbs. In producing the examples, we first take those cases in which the preceding, and, secondly, those in which the following, of two meeting consonants exercise the assimilating influence.
$g$ changes a following $r$ into $g$ : súntoggō for súntogrō, " to a broom."
$k$ a following $r$ into $k$ : rákkō, for rákrō, " right;" tsákkō for tsákrō, "exactly."
$l$ a following $n$ and $r$ into $l$ : álli, for álni, "my manner;" ángallem, for ángalnem, "thy sense ;" tsánei búllin, for búlnyin, (or búln'in), " with white cloths;" tsallemin, for tsálnęmin, " thou cuttest;" dándallō, for dándalrō," to the mosque."
$m$ a following $r$ and $w$ into $m$; némmō, for némrō, " to the house ;" kámmō, " to a man ;" šyứa meíramma for meiramwa, " he and the princess;" málamma, for málamwa, " priests;" agōnémmā kwōya, " if thou hast any thing." $s$ changes a preceding $d$ into $s$ in the word tsébessō, for tsébedsō, " all day long."
$n$ a preceding $t$ into $n$; as, nẹ́m tsẹlam pẹ́nnyin, for pẹ́tnyin, "in a very black house;" kálugū kal̂́ tarẹ́nnyin, for tarétnyin, "in a very blue shirt."
$l$ a preceding $r$ into $l$ : al' lénye, for ar', " come, let us go."
$r$ sometimes a preceding $n$ into $r$ : ñkilar rā tsédin, for ikỉlan, " by water or by land;" áfi nánĩer rágem? for nánièn, " what dost thou want of me?"

## 2. Permutation or Adjustment of Consonants.

§. 15. This takes place not only when consonants are in
immediate contact, but also sometimes when they are separated by vowels.

The permuting letters in immediate contact are, $b, g, m, n$, $\dot{n}, t$; and the permuted letters are, $g, k, m, n, \dot{n}$. Besides this, it must be remembered that all consonants permute an $f$ following into $p$; e.g. Àfíl? "which?" bèláfíl ? "which town?" but yímpī? "which day?" pérpì? "which horse?" dálpì? "which ram?"
$M$ changes a following $k$ into $n$ : ká́mū, "woman," but nęnámū, " womanhood;" kủrugū, " long," but nemnи́rugū, "length;" kẹ́ntšī "slave," nẹmeéntš̌̄, "slavery;" kúra, " great," nemwúra, " greatness."
$\dot{x}$ changes a following $k$ into $g$ : kíruskō, "I saw," but nigà nigíruskö, " I saw thee."

The letters $b, g, n, t$, adapt to themselves an immediately preceding $g, k, m, n, \dot{n}$, in the following manner-
$b$ sometimes permutes a preceding $n$ into $m$ : páton, " at home;" pátom bágō, " not at home:" wóltin, "it returns;" wóltim bágó, "it will never return."
$g$ sometimes $n$ into $\dot{n}$ : šmlanं ganí, "not on the eye;" büyén gonō, "he said, We will eat it."
$n$ sometimes $g$ and $k$ into $\dot{n}$ : kédẹ̀n némtse, "he keeps silence;" patáini, " my gruel;" sútoníi," my broom," from kédeg, pátag, sútog; ránini, " my due," from rak. But when the $n$ has thus done its work, it is generally dropped in all those cases where it is immediately followed by another consonant; as, sintoritse, "his broom," for súntonintsé; rán di, " mid-day," for rán ndí.
ts and $t_{\delta}^{\ell}$, in certain verbs, $m$ into $p$ : mámgin, "I sit," but náptsisin and náptsei.
$t s$ and $t_{s}^{\prime}$, in certain verbs, $n$ into $t$ : mángin, "I draw tight," but máttšìn, máttsei.
$t s$ and $t \stackrel{\Delta}{s}$, in certain verbs, $\dot{n}$ into $k$ : kálangin "I turn," but kálaktsìn, kálaktsei.

The cases of consonantal permutation without immediate contact are restricted to the inflection of verbs.

Verbs beginning with $b$ always change the aorist prefix $k i$ into $g i$, as gibáskō for kibáskō.

The personal and temporal prefixes of verbs in skin, viz. $t s e, t s a, t s ̌ i, k i$, by virtue of their initial consonant, permute the initial $k$ and $p$ of verbal roots respectively into $g$ and $b$; as, tsegášin, tsagásín, kigásō ts̆igásō, from kásesskin, "I run;" tsębértin, tsabẹrtin, kibẹ́rtō, tşibértō, from pertẹ́skin, "I pluck."

## 3. Ejection of Consonants.

§. 16. This only happens, when, either by grammatical inflection, or by the common syntax of words, three consonants would meet, without an intervening vowel. The consonant ejected is always the middle one. That middle position can be occupied by only three letters, viz. $m, n$, and $\dot{n}$.

Thus $m$ may be ejected, when it ought to stand between $n$ and $b$; as, päntsíbēn "bét $\overline{\text { c }} \mathrm{i}$, "it was in his house." $n$ is ejected-
between $l$ and $d$ or $t$; as, áldè, for álndè, áltsa, for álntsa;
between $m$ and $d$ or $t$; as, $k \bar{a} m$, 'dágā ? ámtse for ámntse; between $n$ and $y$; as, sitẹrányen 'yē, " we will bury him, said we."
between $\dot{n}$ and $d$; as, rai 'dí, " midday."
$\dot{n}$ is ejected between $m$ and $g$; as, $\bar{a} m$ 'gás $\overline{0}, "$ all people;" kâtšim 'gúbu, " much grass;" némgala for nẹm ńgala, "goodness."
4. Insertion of Vowels, to prevent assimilation, ejection, or hard combination of consonants.
§. 17. Thus the vowels $a$ and $\epsilon$ may be inserted-
a, e. g. ámāni, ámānem, ámāntse, ámāndē, ámāndō, ámäntsa, for ámni, ámnem, ámtse, ámdè, ámdō, ámtsa.
e, e. g. áleni, álenem, álentse, álendè, álendō, álentsa, for álli, allẹm, áltse, áldè, áldō, áltsa.
III. CHANGES ARISING FROM THE SYMPHONY OF CONSONANTS and VOWELS.

## 1. Change of Consonants.

§. 18. $s$ is always changed into $\stackrel{s}{s}$, and consequently $t s$ into $t \stackrel{y}{c}$, whenever it ought to stand before $i$ and $\underline{e}$, e.g. káseskin, "I run," but, ši tsegásín; gúltse, "he tells," but, gúltš̌i, "he has told;" yitreskin, "I cry," but, sit tstitin," he cries." Only the 8 of the third person of the possessive pronoun often remains unchanged, so that we have, e. g., abántsiyè and abántšiyè This is the law which regulates the change of $s$ into $s$ in the indefinite, perfect, and future tenses of verbs terminating in senigin and in several other forms.
$w$, when it ought to stand between two $a$ ' $s$, is sometimes changed into $u$, and then unites with the preceding $a$ in the diphthongs au or ọu, e.g. daúa for dấwa, "having meat; "abántsa yäntsoúa for yantsáwa, "their father and mother ;" šyúa abováa, "she and the father."

## 2. Change of Vowels.

§. 19. This is confined to the conversion of $e$ into $u$. $e$ is often changed into $u$, when followed-

By $m$ : tulōntsắtumā for tulōntsátęmā," this is their only one;" áfiyayè dímtumā for dimtemä," whatever thou mayest do."
By $w$ : dátu wátši, " it will not stand ;" meitu wá́sili, " the king is a white man;" mánānẹ kolótu wángō, "I will not transgress thy word." When this change of $e$ into $u$ takes place in consequence of a prefix or affix, so that $e$ and $w$ belong to one and the same word, the $w$ is frequently dropped: rōntsúa, "alive," for rōntséwa, "having his life;" búltüa for búltęa, "hyenas;" tsuárin, " he is sick," for tsewárin, cf. §. 20.

## 3. Ejection and Insertion of Consonants.

§. 20. The two vowel-consonants, or semi-vowels, $w$ and $y$ are often dropped between two vowels, the latter of which is
a. Thus, $w$ is dropped, when preceded by the closelyallied $u$ or $o$; and $y$, when preceded by the closely-allied $i$ or $e$. $w$ dropped after $u:$ kámūa, " women;" bárbūa, " robbers;" kálua, " having leaves;" dábūa, " provided with a neck." $w$ dropped after o: bán $\bar{o} a$, " hoes;" súmãa, "ears;" búrgōa, " cunning;" dínōa," strong."
$y$ dropped after $i:$ bálīa $a$ for bálīya, "to-morrow "" lêneomīa for lênẹmīya, " thou having gone."
$y$ dropped after $e$ : lēgeiéndēa for lēgeiéndēya, "we having gone."
The insertion of a consonant occurs in the compound word kénts $\bar{a}-m$-bū, " blood from the nose," which is composed of kẹ́ntsä, " nostrils," and bū, " blood."

## CHAPTER IV.

ETYMOLOGY OF SUBSTANTIVES.

## I. Derivation of Substantives.

§. 21. Almost all derived substantives are abstract nouns. The derivation takes place almost exclusively by prefixes. It is worthy of remark, that, in Bornu, abstract nouns can be formed from all concrete ones and from all adjectives. This is done by the prefix nem.

Instances of abstract nouns derived from concrete nouns:
nemabá, "fathership;" némmei, " royalty;" némmälam, "priesthood;" némkām, " humanity ;" nents̆ăágen, " animality;" nẹmsóbă, " friendship;" nemtálaga, " poverty;" from ába, "father;" mei, "king;" málam, " priest;" kām, " man;" ts̛̃ágen, " animal;" sóbä " friend;" tálaga, " a poor man."
Instances of abstract nouns derived from adjectives:
nemkúrugū, "length;" nẹmkáfugū, "shortness;" nemdíbï, "badness;" némbul, "whiteness;" nemteg̣lam, "blackness;" nemkẹttš, "sweetness;" némtstim," bitterness;" from kúrugū, " long ;" káfugū, " short;" díbi-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "bad;" bul, " white;" tsęlam, "black ;" kéts̆i, " sweet;" } \\
& \text { tsim, "bitter." }
\end{aligned}
$$

§. 22. But on substantives and adjectives beginning with $k$ nem has usually the effect of changing $k$ into $n$.
Substantives: nemnẹntši and nemnálīa, "slavery;" nemnámpū," blindness;" "nemnámū, " womanhood;" nemnérdī, "heathenism;" nęnnérige, "war," from kẹntši and kálìa, "slave;" kámpū," a blind man;" kámu, " a woman;" kérdī, " a heathen;" krríge, " war, warriors."
Adjectives: nẹnnúrugū, "length;" nęmnęţ̌̌̃," sweetness;" nẹnáámbè, "liberty;" nẹmnáfugū, " shortness;" nẹmnálē, " redness;" nęmnúyintẹ, " distance."
Only of kúra, "great," the abstract noun is not nemnúra, but nemwira. The sound-combination of $m+w$ is unquestionably more easy for the organs of speech than $m+n$; but, at the same time, less distinct and marked for the ear. And this seems to be the reason, why here language resisted its general inclination to organic ease and convenience, and preferred the more marked combination of $m+n$ to the more easy of $m+w$, with the only exception of nemwura, where the ear was too much accustomed to the succession of $m+w$, from the frequent occurrence of äm wurra. The general rule affords an instance, where euphony for the organs of speech and euphony for the ear came into conflict, and language decided in favour of the latter, with the only exception of nemwarra.
§. 23. Words which begin with a prosthetic $\dot{n}$ lose it on assuming the prefix nẹm; as, nẹmgắlifū, "richness;" nẹmgąlä, "goodness;" némgā, " health," from ngáálifū, "rich;" $\dot{n} g q a l \bar{a}, "$ good ;" $\dot{n} g \bar{a}, "$ well."
§. 24. When we meet with abstract nouns which differ from their concretes merely by the change of $k$ into $n$, it would be best to consider them as defective forms, having dropped the prefix nem for the sake of brevity, and not as presenting a new mode of forming abstract nouns. Such words are, e. g.,
nétš̀̃, "sweetness;" núrugū, "length;" nálīa and néntšĩ, " slavery ;" námbè, "liberty."
§. 25. The prefix ker serves the same object as nem, but its use is much more restricted : we only met with it in the two words kẹ́rmei, " royalty," and kęrmálam, " priesthood."
§. 26. All verbal infinitives might be considered as abstract nouns, as is done, e.g., in Arabic. But we take here only two classes of them, and treat them as nouns of action, or abstract substantives, because they are derived from the common infinitive in the same or a similar way, as the above abstract nouns from concrete nouns or adjectives.

Abstract substantives are formed from the infinitives of verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$ by prefixing to them nẹm; as, nẹmléte, "departure, walk;" nẹmbótę, " sleep;" nęmgôtę," seizure ;" nẹmkámte, " a cut;" from lếte, " to go ;" bốte, " to sleep;" gốte, " to take;" kámée, " to cut."

The infinitives of verbs in skin have an additional form, with the prefix $k e n$, by which they seem to be put on a parallel with the above forms of nemléte \&c., and converted into abstract substantives. When the infinitive has a prosthetic or euphonic $m$, $n$, or $\dot{n}$, that letter is dropped, and ken takes its place, but so, that, in the first and last of these three cases, the $n$ of $k e n$ is assimilated to the following radical, and becomes respectively $m$ and $\dot{n}$. When the infinitive has no prosthetic letter, the $n$ of ken is likewise assimilated to the first radical, and becomes $\dot{x}$ before $g$ and $k, m$ before $b$ and $p, l$ before $l$, $m$ before $m$, and $r$ before $r$. In accordance with §. 12. the $e$ of the prefix may become $o$ or $u$ when the first vowel of the infinitive is either $u$ or $o$.

| infinitives. | abstract nouns. | infinitives. | abstract nouns. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mbáfō | kembàfō | ndôrō | kendôró |
| $\stackrel{\prime}{m} b \bar{a}$ | kémbā | ndútō | kondútō |
| $m^{\prime} b \bar{c}$ | kómbù | $\stackrel{n}{n} g a \overline{ }$ | kénigà |
| ndégà | kendég $\bar{a}$ | $\dot{\text { njgámbō }}$ | kė̇gámbō |
| diò | kéndiō | ìgád | kerigádō |


| infinitives. | abstract nouns. | infintives. | tract noun |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ṅgándō | kėṅgándō | rốrō | kerrốō |
| rigágō | kerigáagō | rü | kúrrū |
| $\dot{n}$ gér ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ō | keṅgéroo | ságō | kenságō |
| $\dot{\text { ngértō }}$ | keriyérto | sánigō | kensánigō |
| ṅgếrō | kengér ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ságo | kenságō |
| $\stackrel{\prime}{n} d i \bar{o}$ | kẹ́nđiō | sébbgō | kensébyŏ |
| ṅgárō | kę̇igárō | sirto | kenešŕrō |
| kàsō \& $\dot{n}$ gásó | kerigásō | n'tà | kę́ntă |
| ṅgéndō | kerigéndō | támbō | kẹntámbō |
| $\dot{n}$ géogō | kerigéogō | $n$ tíō | kéntio \& kẹntō |
| $\dot{n g o ̛ ́ r o ̄ ~}$ | keṅgórō | wắrō | kuárō |
| kưtō | kuṅgútō | n'tsā | kéntsä |
| ládō | kell ${ }^{\text {ádō }}$ | ntsătō | kẹntsátō |
| lároo | kelláãō | ntsárgalei | \& kentsárgalō |
| lifō | kellifō | ntsárgale | \} kentsargato |
| lóo | kélliö | $n t s \dot{a} m b \bar{o}$ | kentsámbō |
| lưgō | kúllugō | $n t s a ́ r d u ̄$ | kentsárdù |
| mágō | kommágo | ntsárŏ | kentsáró |
| mbárō | kęmbárō | ntsákō | kentsákō |
| mérō | kẹmmê̂rō | ntsásei | kèntsásei |
| $m \bar{u}$ | kómmū |  | kentsásarei |
| nátō | kẹnnátoo | ntsekélio | kentsękẹliō |
| nándō | kennándó | ntsémbulō | kentsémbulō |
| nótō | kennótö | ntséótsö | kentséotsō |
| $n \bar{u}$ | kónnū | ntšō | kéntšö |
| puindō | kempándō | $n t$ éergei | kentsérgei |
| pértō | kempérto | $n t s$ ¢́fo | kentšifō |
| rágò | kerrágò | ntsúndō | kentsúndō |
| rémbó | kerrẹmbō | $n$ ntsurō | kontsúrō |

§. 27. We have yet to mention four other derived substantives, two of which are formed by prefixes, and two by affixes. These are quite isolated cases of derivation, and the derived words differ from the above in their not being abstract nouns.

Thus, kátigì, "hide" is formed from tigż, "skin;" kémendë
" this year," from mẹ́ndè, " last year;" pátō, "house home," from pă," home;" bénnnā, "sleep," from bẹn " sleep."

## II. Formation of the Plural.

§. 28. The plural is formed from the singular by adding the termination wa, e.g. pérwa, " horses;". némwa, " houses;" meíwa, "kings;" máleigawa, "angels." But, according to §. 20., the nouns terminating in $u$ and $o$ drop the $w$, and only assume $a$, which frequently permutes a preceding $u$ into $o$; as, kámūa and kámōa, "women;" kálūa, "leaves;" pátōa, " homes ;" kusótōa, " strangers."

The plural of táta, " child," and meína, " prince," is tátoōa and meinōa, which arose from a change of the final $a$ into $o$ (u) by the influence of the following $w$, and then the usual ejection of $w$.
$k a ̄ m$, "person," has in the plural, irregularly, $\bar{a} m$, " people," and kámū," woman;" besides kámūa, also ámūa and ámwa.

The plural termination is often omitted, and a word may have to be considered as a collective noun, or its plurality inferred from an accompanying word, as a numeral, \&c.

## III. Declension of Substantives.

§. 29. The Bornu language evinces a high degree of development by its distinct forms for the different cases, and more especially by its having a real nominative termination, a circumstance which is always indicative of considerable culture in a language. There are five distinct cases, of which the nominative terminates in ye, the genitive in $b e$, the dative in ro, the accusative in $g a$, and the locative or instrumental in $n$ or nyin; the latter, when a word terminates in a consonant, and sometimes, also, in a vowel, and the former generally. when a word terminates in a vowel. A final consonant of the root is changed by the case-termination, agreeably to the laws of euphony. Vide §. 14.

We now subjoin a few substantives, declined in the singular and plural.

## ع．

kánnuyē，
kánnubē．
kánnurō．
kánnugā．
kánnun．
múskōyē，＂hand．
＂риеч ，，＇อ凤оуялии
múskōbē．
múskōrō．
múskōgā．
múskon．
＂．spury „，
kannuábē．
kannuárō．
kannuágā．
kánnūan．
péryē，＂horse．＂
pérbē．
pérrō．
pérgā．
pérnyin．
F
0
0
0
0
0
0
 $\begin{array}{ll}\text { dandalwáyè，＂mosques．＂kargunwáyē，＂medicines．＂} \\ \text { dandalwábē．} & \text { kargunwábē．} \\ \text { dandalwárō．} & \text { karguxwáro．} \\ \text { dandalwágā．} & \text { kargunwágā．} \\ \text { dándalwan．} & \text { kárgunwan．}\end{array}$

## ＂friend．＂

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sóbāyē, } \\
& \text { sóbābe. } \\
& \text { sóbārō. } \\
& \text { sóbāgā. } \\
& \text { sóban. }
\end{aligned}
$$

sōbawáyē，
friends．＂
muskōwábē．
muskōwárō．
muskōwág $\bar{a}$.
múskōwan．
kárgunyē，＂medicine．＂
kárgunbè．
kárgunnō．
kárgungā．
\}kárgunnyin.
kárgunyē，＂medicine．＂
kárgunbē．
kárgunnō．
kárgungā．
\}kárgunnyin.
kárgunyē，＂medicine．＂
kárgunbē．
kárgunnō．
kárgungā．
\}kárgunnyin.
kárgunyē，＂medicine．＂
kárgunbē．
kárgunnō．
kárgungā．
\}kárgunnyin.
kárgunyē，＂medicine．＂
kárgunbē．
kárgunnō．
kárgungā．
\}kárgunnyin. sōbawábē． sōbawárō． sōbawágà． sóbāwan．
dándalyē， dándalbè． dándallō． dándalgă． fdándallin \｛dandalnyin

＂

| dándalyē，＂mosque．＂ | kárgunyē，＂medicine．＂ |
| :--- | :--- |
| dándalbē． | kárgunbè． |
| dándallō． | kárgunnō． |
| dándalgā． | kárgungā． |
| \｛dándallin | \}kárgunnyin. |



## IV. Gender of Substantives.

§. 30. Gender is not distinguished in words, except where it exists in nature, in which case it is expressed-

Either by an altogether different name, as :
kóa and kōánigā," man," tsaírō, " boy,"
kátīa, " male slave," kant̂́amō, " bull," gúbōgęm, " cock," ṅgalấrō, " ram," dal, " buck,"
kámē," woman."
pérō, " girl."
kir, "female slave."
pè, " cow."
kúgui, "hen."
dímī, " ewe."
kánū, " goat."

Or by additional words, corresponding to our " male," "female," "man," "woman," as:
pér $b \bar{z}$, " stallion,"
kórō $b_{\bar{\eta}}$, " male ass," gádu bī, "boar,"
kalígumō bū, " male camel,"
kốa káramã, "wizard," kốa kámbä, " widower," kōángā kagá, " grandfather," n̈garī dal, " roe-buck,"
per kúrgurī, " mare."
kórō kúrgurī," female ass."
gádu kúrgurī," sow."
kalígumō mátsei, " female camel."
kámē̆ káramā," witch."
kámū kámbā," widow."
kámū kagá, " grandmother."
ñgarī káñ̄, " roe."

## CHAPTER V.

## ETYMOLOGY OF PRONOUNS.

## I Personal Pronouns.

§. 31. These are wu, "I ;" ni, "thou;" $\check{i}$, " he, "she, it;" ándi, " we," nándi, "ye ;" sándi," they." They are inflected like substantives-

Nom. wúyē níyē šíyē $\mid$ andíyē nandỉyē sandíyē Gen. wúbē níbē š̛̀bē andíbē nandíbē sandíbē Dat. wúrō nírō širō andírō nandírō sandírō Ac. wúgā nígā sùıā andígā nandígā sandígā Lac. $\left\{\begin{array}{lllll}\text { mun } & \text { nyin sin } & \text { ándin nándin sándin } \\ \text { winyin ninyin } & \text { sinyin } & \text { andinyin nandinyin sandinyin }\end{array}\right.$

The forms for the plural can be contracted, viz. and into ei, nándi into ne, sándi into see.

It is evident that there is an etymological connexion between the forms for the singular and plural. The vowels of the singular are in the plural all changed into $a$; this also produces in the third person the change of $\delta$ into $s c f$. § 18 . The $w$ of the first person singular does not appear to be radical, but merely phonetic, the language being averse to commencing words with $u$, just as they pronounce the Arabic proper name Omar, "Wumar." The plurality in all three persons appears to be indicated by $n d i$, which is probably of the same origin with the numeral $n d i$. It would therefore seem that the character of the first person is $u$, or a vowel in general; of the second, $n$, and of the third, $s$. Thus the first person agrees with the Indo-European forms like "I ;" the second is identical with the Malayalim and others; and the third with Indo-European forms like "he," "she," "it," or Semitic ones like דיא הוא.

## II. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§. 32. The demonstrative pronoun áte, or, when suffixed, te, is only used in the singular, the want of a plural form being supplied by the word áni, "these." ate is declined as follows :

Nom. átiyē. G. átębē and átibē. Dat. áturō. Ac. átegā. Loc. áternyin.

The letters $t \rho$ are sometimes repeated, probably in order to express greater emphasis: átete, "this, this here;" or plural, ánîte, " these, these here."
$t \bar{u}$ is the remoter demonstrative, like our "that," and can be declined in the usual way. In the plural it becomes tọ́ni which is probably a contraction of $t u$ and $a n i$; for even in singular tu and ate are often joined into túte.

The word áni is sometimes changed in the context into éni, especially after $i$ and $e$, or contracted with a preceding $a$, according to $\S$. 11 ; tatoáni éni, " these my children;" tatoánęm áni, "these thy children;" tatoántse áni, " these his children;" tatoándè éni, " these our children;" tatoắndō áni, "these your children;" tato~ ántsa áni, or tatoāntsáni, " these their children."

The pronoun átegei, "such, such a one," (Lat. talis), is composed of áte and the suffix gei. Whereas áte refers chiefly to the individuality, átegei refers to the quality of a thing.

## III. Interrogative Pronouns.

§. 33. They are as follows :-
$n d \frac{u}{u}$ ? " who? which? which one?" ${ }_{a} f i$ ? " which? what? which sort?" ndágū? "how much? how many ?" ndásō? " which ?"

Both $n d \frac{u}{u}$ and $\frac{a ́ f i}{}$ are singular, but they can be rendered plural by suffixing so to them; eng. ndúsō $\frac{1}{\delta}$ a? "who arc come?" kōganáfisō sánū? "how many soldiers died ${ }^{\text {?" }}$
$n d a ́ s o \bar{o}$ is evidently composed in the same manner; nd att, however, is now no longer used as a pronoun, but merely as an adverb.

When ${ }^{\prime} f i$ is joined with a substantive terminating in $a$, the two $a$ 's thus meeting coalesce into one, egg. kōafi? " which man?" If the substantive terminates in another vowel, the $a$ of af is dropped, and merely $f i$ suffixed, egg. kámüfi? pếröfi? dímüfi? But if the substantive terminates in a consonant, $\bar{a} f i$ not only loses its $a$, but also the aspiration of $f,(=p h)$ and lengthens the $i$ e.g. ámpì? " which people?" dándalpı̄? "which mosque?" kírpı̄? "which female slave? The change of the consonant is identical with that of Hebrew aspirates after closed syllables.

## IV. Possessive Pronouns.

§.34. They have always the character of suffixes, and are very similar to the personal characteristic of verbs, but do not seem to have an etymological connexion with the personal pronouns. When joined to nouns terminating in a consonant, the laws of euphony come into operation, vide §. 14. Gender not being distinguished, there is only one form for each person, viz. in singular, $n i$ for the first, nem, for the second, ntse, for the third; and in plural, ndē ndō, ntsa. These possessive suffixes have an accent of more or less strength, which, in the following paradigms, will be marked in the usual way, but will afterwards generally be omitted. The nouns to which the possessive suffixes are added, are: táta, " child;" per, "horse;" net, " horse;" al, "manner;" dale, "buck."

## Singular.

| 1 per. tátāné, | pérní, | némní, | állí, | dálné, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 per. tátānẹm, | pérném, | némnẹ́m, | állém, | $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text { dálném, or } \\ \text { dállém. } \end{array}\right.$ |
| 3 per. tátāntsé, | pérntsé, | némtsé, | $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text { álntsé } \text { or } \\ \text { áltsé. } \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text { dálntsé or } \\ \text { dáltsé. } \end{array}\right.$ |

## Plural.

1 per. tátāndê, pẹrndê, némdè, álndè, dálndè,
2 per. tátāndóo, pẹ́rndó, némdó, álndô, dálndó,

3 per. tátāntsá, pérntsá, nẹmtsá, álntsá, dálntsá.
§. 35. Besides the forms euphonically changed, I have also met with instances where the change was avoided by the insertion of a vowel ; e.g. sálām-āntsę́, " his salutation;"áleni, "my manner; "álenęm, "thy manner;" ámāntsę, "his people;" and, in like manner, ámāni, ámānẹn, ámãndē, ámāndō, ámāntša.

Care must here be taken, not to confound the suff. lst pers. sing. with the pluralform of the demonstrative pronoun: tatoáni, e.g., may mean "these children" and "my children ;" but, in the first case, it stands for tátóa + áni, and in the second for: tátōa $+n i$.

In "yái ganá," a common address to women, yái probably stands for yáni, for the sake of euphony.

The same omission of $n$ appears to take place when the possessive suffix is added to the unmeaning word káge which is employed merely when the possessive pronouns ought to be used substantively; and, after the omission of $n$, a singular contraction of $\rho$ and $i$ into $\bar{e}$ seems to take place; for "mine" is expressed by kágę. But the other persons are regular: kágẹnẹm, "thine;" kágentse, "his;" kágendè, "ours;" kágendò, " yours;" kágents̆a, " theirs."
§. 36. When the case-terminations are added to the Possessive Pronouns, they may produce some change in them-

## Singular.

Nom. sóbäníyè, Gen. sóbāníbè, Dat. sóbānỉrō, Ac. sóbānígā, Loc. sôbānyin,
sốbānémyē, sóbänémbè, sóbānẹ́mmō, sóbānéng $a \bar{a}$, sóbänẹmin,
sóbāntsíyè. sóbāntsibè. sóbăntsúrō. sóbāntségā. sóbäntsẹ́nyin.

Plural.
Nom. sốbāndéyè. Gen. sốbāndêbbé, Dat. sốbāndêrō, Ac. sốbāndégāa, Loc. sôbändényin,
sóbānóódyē, sób $b a ̄ n d o ̂ b e \overline{,}$ sóbāndórrō, sóbāndóógā, sóbāndónyin,
sóbāntsáyè. sóbāntsábè. sóbāntsárō. sóbāntságā. sóbäntsányin.

## V. Indefinite Pronouns.

§. 37. These, like common names, do not indicate certain individuals, but existence in general. When used adjectively, they are easily converted into indefinite numerals. They are chiefly formed from interrogative pronouns, by suffixing either sō or yäye, or both; a process which is also adopted in many other languages, cf. "тís, тó oos, ò $\sigma \tau \iota s$;" "quis, quisque, aliquis;" "wer, der;" "whoever;" and which is very natural, inasmuch as the interrogative and indefinite pronouns equally represent the individuation which they make as one undetermined and unfixed.

The suffix " $y e$ " seems to be identical with the Germanic prefix "je,"; Old G. "eo, io," which likewise renders definite pronouns indefinite, as in G. "jeder;" Old G. "ioweder;" E. "every." The suffix $s \bar{o}$ we also have in English, e.g. "whoso " (= whosoever) is literally ndú-sō; and in Latin also the corresponding ali ( $=$ all?) converts an interrogative into an indefinite pronoun: "quis, aliquis."

Indefinite Pronouns, formed by suffixing ye or yäye. lúye, "every one, all." ndx́yāye, " any one." dáasōye, " every one, all."
ndásōyăye, " any one." fiyāye, " whichever, whatever." ndáguyäyé, " how much, how many soever."
ndefinite Pronouns, formed by suffixing sō, the indefinite numeral. dúsō," whoso, any one." áfisō," whatsoever, whatever, "dágusō, "how many soever, whichever." how much soever." ndáasosō, " whoso, any one."
$\dot{n} g \neq a \bar{a}, "$ all, whole," has doubtless the same suffix; $\dot{n} g \bar{a}$ being dentical with the adjective $\ddot{n} g \bar{\alpha}$, " sound, well, whole ;" just as ulso many other languages express the idea of soundness and completeness by one and the same word.

## Indefinite Pronouns, formed by suffixing sō and yāye.

 ndúsöyāye, " whosoever." áfisōyāye, " whatsoever;" ndágusōyāye,"how many soever." ndásosōyăye, "whosoever."
## Other Indefinite Provouns.

lágā," a certain, some." gadé, "other, another."
$y^{\frac{i}{i n}}$, "one, a certain."
$k \bar{a} m$, "one."

## CHAPTER VI.

ETYMOLOGY OF ADJECTIVES.

## I. Derivation of Adjectives.

$\S .38$ Adjectives are derived by suffixing the syllables wa, $m a, m i, ~ r a m, ~ r i$.

The syllable wa forms possessive adjectives, i.e. adjectives expressing the possession of the things to whose names it is
appended, and has generally to be rendered in English by "having," or "possessing." Thus it is affixed-

1. To simple substantives-
kanáwa, " having hunger, hungry."
ángalwa, " having wisdom, wise."
$\dot{n} k \grave{i} w a$, " having water, watery."
kōañgáva, " having a husband, husbanded."
tatoáwa, " having children."
kalīawáwa, " having slaves."
kaláwa, "having a (good) head, intelligent."
2. To words defining substantives-
kásägar múskōnwa, " having a sword in the hand."
tšīn tỡllwánwa, " having a rat in the mouth."
šim kúrāwa, "having large eyes."
kérbū túlurwa, "having seven years, i.e. being seven years of age."
tátāntse tílōwa, "she having one child."
manändếwa, " we having a word (sc., to say)."
Sometimes the suffix $w a$ produces a change in the final vowel, viz. when that vowel is $e$ or the $i$ of the possessive pronoun ni-per yásyūa, " having three horses ;" némtsūa, "he having a house; manānyúa, "I am one having a word," or, "I have a word to say."

After words terminating in $u$ or $o$ the $w$ of $w a$ is frequently dropped-múskōn kitábbūa, "having a book in the hand;" kớa kấmūa," a man having a wife;" kām dúnōa, "a strong man;" gádu kádāfūa, "a dirty hog ;" kógiō, "a tuft," has kógiēwa.
§ 39. The same wa can also be affixed to inflected forms of the verb, converting them into a kind of participle.
wu yíreskinwa léngī, "I hạve gone weeping."
ni yíreminwa lềnemī," thou hast gone weeping."
ši tšírinwa lêtsǔi," he has gone weeping."
ándi yôrenwa lênyë, " we have gone weeping.".
nándi yı̂ruwīwa lénuwi, " ye have gone weeping." sándi tsásīirinwa létsei, " they have gone weeping."
wu lénginwa yíresskī, "I have wept walking."
ni léneminwa yûremī, " thou hast wept walking." ši létšinwa tš̀rtri, "he has wept walking." ándi lényenwa yirë̈, " we have wept walking." nándi lénuwīwa yîruwī, " ye have wept walking." sándi lêtseiwa tsásìri, " they have wept walking."
wu pérni tšéñganáwa léniḡ̄, " I have gone leading my horse." ni pérnẹn těênẹmmáwa lênẹmĩ," thou hast gone leading thy horse."
s̆i pérntse tšètsenáwa létš̆̃, " he has gone leading his horse." ándi pérndè tš̌̀nyenáwa lếnyê, " we have gone leading our horse."
nándi pẹ́rndō tšênuwáwa lênnwĩ, " ye have gone leading your horse."
sándi pérntsa tsêtsanáwa létsei, " they have gone leading their horse."
§. 40. The suffix ma forms adjectives of various imports, which are then very often used as substantives.

1. Possessive Adjectives like those in wa. kớa kámūma, "a man having a wife." kóa pátōma, " a man possessing a house, landlord." kó́a bútṡāmma, " a man having an oven." kām pérma, " a man possessing horses." kúlōma, "owning a farm."

But if the substantive is defined by other words, or a pronominal suffix, ma cannot be added, but only wa: it cannot be said, e.g.kás̆ägar múskonma, or mánäníma.
2. Adjectives indicating the country to which one belongs:
kām Bornúma, "a Bornuese."
kámū Afunóma, "a woman of Hausa."
kām Núfēma, "a native of kām bẹ́lāma," a townsman." Nufe." kóa Wadaíma, "a man of $\begin{aligned} & \text { kánnūma," "inhabitant of hell." } \\ & \text { tsánnama, "inhabitant of }\end{aligned}$ Wadai." $k \bar{a} m$ Kánẹmma, "a Kanumese."
heaven."
3. Adjectives indicating the occupation with, or production of, the thing expressed by the substantive or verb.

| kóa kárgunma, " a doctor of medicine." | lebálāma, " disputer." <br> bélāma, "town-magistrate." |
| :---: | :---: |
| kóa kárāma, "a wizard." | kagętma, blacksmith. |
| kām kitáfúma,"one constantly engaged with books." | ngếma, " potter." <br> tsáqāma, " weaver." |
| lebaīama, "trader." | pelétgema, " guide." |
| ilōma, "farmer | gultégema, "instruc |
| ásugūma, "hawker." | ach |
| krigema, " warrior." | yérrma, "benefactor." |

4. When added to the infinitive of a verb, $m a$ forms a sort of active participle, or name of agent.
déténa, " cooker, a cook." debátęma," a murderer." wúteqna, " a seer." kundóma, kendéōma and ndéóma, " maker."
nts̆ífoma, "buyer." ládōma, " seller." kómbūma, " eater." kéntsāma, "drinker."

These forms in $m a$ are singular; in the plural $m a$ is changed into $b \bar{u}:$ sándi pér $b \bar{u}$, " they are horsemen;" bornúbū "the Bornuese;" àm kárgunbū, " doctors;" debátubū, " murderers;" kánembu, " the Kanumese." But bélāma, " the head magistrate of a town," which word has doubtless the same origin, forms the plural regularly, bẹ́lamāwá, whilst bẹ́lābu means " town's-people."
41. The suffix $m i$ forms,

1. Patronymics of males:

ÉAli Eisámi, "Ali, the son of Eisa;" 'Ats̆i Kódòmi, "Atshi, the son of Kódō;" $\dot{N}$ góama Nanámi; Mastáfa Kélūmi; 'Ibram Tsarámi, \&c.

Búgar málammi, "Bugar, the son of the priest." 'Ali keígamämí, " Ali, the son of the general." 'Ibram tsánoāmi, " Ibrahim, the son of a nobleman." Dála kōganámi, " Dala, the son of a soldier." Isa belamámi, "Isa, son of a magistrate."
2. In a few instances, other adjectives restricted in their use to human beings :
tîlōmi or túlōmi, e.g. táta tílōmi," the only child." kámū tilōmi, " the only wife."
kuràmi "independent, disregarding the authority of the old, usurping the authority of the old."
§. 42. The suffix ram, forms,

1. Patronymics of females:

Eísā Mágätširím, " Eisa, the daughter of Magatshi." Káré ${ }^{\text {EAlīram, "Kắrē, the daughter of Ali." }}$
Ligiram W'marram, "Ligiram, the daughter of Omar." Kárū̄ Wusẹnárram, "Karu, the daughter of Osman."

Márīam málamrám, "Mary, the daughter of a priest." Káruã bę́lamãrám, "Karu, the daughter of a magistrate." Eísā kóganáram, "Eisa, the daughter of a soldier."
The adjectives in ram are frequently used as substantives: and it would seem that some are now only used as such; as, e.g. meíram, meaning " princess," i.e. the daughter of the king and the keigama. Meiram, therefore, always precedes the proper name, as meíram Eisa, "princess Eisa;" meíram Tsará, "princess Sarah." The same remark applies to meina, " prince."
2. Adjectives expressing application to, or connexion with, a thing.
kúllo múskōrám, "a copper-bracelet."
kúlulū nigólōrám, "a string of beads for the waist." mértsān súmōrám, " ear-coral."
kálug $\bar{u}$ krígerám, " a coat of mail." kấlugō krígerrám, " war instrument."
§. 43. The suffix $r i$ forms adjectives of names for different classes of men, viz.

1. Of names expressing rank, title, office.
meírí, "royal."
mágirấri," belonging to the king's mother."
meinári, " princely."
meíramri," "belonging to a princess."
keígamári;" " belonging to a general."
bẹlamárri, " magisterial.
2. Of names expressing occupation, or profession. málamri, "priestly." garwári, " mercantile."
kágę̣mári, "belonging to a blacksmith."
dúgürí, "belonging to a drummer."
kárgunmári, " medical."
3. Of names expressing nationality :

Mandarári, " belonging to Mandara."
Túbōrí, "belonging to Tubo."
Fulátärí," belonging to the Phula."
Núfèrí, " belonging to Nufe."
Šóari, "belonging to Shoas or Arabs."
4. Of two names expressing complexion : wásilīrí, "belonging to white men." sérifūrí, " belonging to Albinoes."

## II. Inflection of Adjectives.

§. 44. Adjectives are inflected in the same way as substantives, and if they form one part of a proposition with them, they only take the case-terminations, and the substantives remain without them. We will illustrate this by the following three examples: kógana pérma, "a horse soldier, a cavalier;" kálīa tsęlam, " a black slave;" pẹr kátrite, " a fine horse"-

## Singular.

Nom. kôgana permáyé
Gen. kógana perrmábē
Dat. kógana permárō
Ac. kógana permágā
Loc. kógana pérmān
kál̄̄a tsệllamyē per káritiyē, kátīa tsẹlambē per káritębē kátāa tsẹ́lammō per kárituro kálāa tsęlamgā per káritegā kátīa tsẹllamnyin per káritẹn.

Nom. kōganáwa perbúyē káliāua tsẹlamyē pérwa káritiyē. Gen. kōganáwa perbúbuē káliāwa tsẹlambè pérwa káritebē. Dat. kōganáwa perbúrō káliāwa tsẹlammō pérwa káriturō. Ac. kōganáwa perbúgā káliāwa tsẹlamgā pérwa káritegā. Loc. kōganáwa pẹ́rbūn káliāwa tsẹllamnyin pérwa káriten.

The adjective kúra, "great, large," has a distinct form for the plural, viz. wira which may be used when the noun is in the plural; e.g. meíwa kúra and meíwa wúra, "great kings." But the word $\bar{a} m$, which is used as the plural of $k \bar{a} m$, is never followed by kura, but only by wura, and this probably from a phonetic reason, $m-w$ joining so much easier than $m-k$ : hence, also, the abstract noun is nemwúra, instead of nẹmkúra, cf. §§. 15 and 22.

## CHAPTER VII.

## ETYMOLOGY OF NUMERALS.

## I. Cardinal Numbers.

§. 44. These are as follows:-
1 tílō (sometimes túlō) lásge 28 píndin tátä wúsgęn. and pal.
2 ndí.
3 yá́sge.
4 dége.
5 úgu and áge.
6 ärasge.
7 túlur.
8 wisge.
9 legár.
10 mégu or mếogu.
11 lágari.
12 ndúrī.
13 yắsgẹn.
14 dếri.
15 úri and wúri.
16 árasgen.
17 túlurri.
18 wúsgen.
19 legấrri.
20 píndi.
21 píndin tátā tílon.
22 píndin tátä ndín.
23 píndin tátä yásgen.
24 píndin tátä dégẹn.
25 píndin tátā úgun.
26 píndin tátä 'rásgẹn.
27 pindin tátā túlurnyin.

29 pírdin tátā legárnyin.
30 ptáage.
31 prasgẹn tátā tílon.
32 pŕasgèn tátā adín.
33 páasgen tátā yáásgen.
34 ptáargẹn tátā dếgen.
35 páasgen tátā úgun.
36 pr̂asgęn tátā 'rásgesn.
37 pâasgẹn tátā túlurnyin.
38 páasgen tátā wúsgẹn.
39 páasgen tátā legárnyin.
40 pídëge.
41 pídègen tátā tílon.
42 pídègen tátā ndín.
43 pídēgẹn tátā yá́sgen.
44 pidēgen tátä dếgen.
45 pídēgẹn tátā águn.
46 pídègen tátà 'rásgen.
47 pídēgen tátà túlurnyin.
48 pídègen tátā wúsyen.
49 pídègen tátā legárnyin.
50 prúuqu.
51 pŕăgun tátā tílon.
52 páügun tátā ndín.
ऽ3 pı̂́ugun tátā yásgen.
5̃4 práugun tátā dếgen.
55 pī̆ugun tátā úgun.

56 paügun tátà 'rásgen.
57 ptưgun tátā túlurnyin.
58 pûăqun tátā wùsgen.
59 puàgun tátā legaárnyin.
60 ptrrasge.
61 pt̂rasgen tátá tilon.
62 pṭ̆rasgen tátā ndín.
63 pt̂rasgẹn tátā yásgen.
64 pt̂rasgen tátä dégen.
65 pt̂rasgèn tátāa úgin.
66 pt̂rasgen tátā 'rásgen.
67 pı̂rasgen tátā túlurnyin.
68 pîrasgen tátā wưsgen.
69 ptrrasgen tátá legárnyin.
$70 p^{2}$ tulur.
71 pitululúrnyin tátā tilon.
72 pêtuluirnyin tátā ndín.
73 pítulúrmyin tátā yắggen.
74 pitulúrnyin tátä dégen.
75 ptutulírnyin tátá úgun.
76 pittulúrnyin tátā 'rásgen.
77 puttulírnyin tátā túlurnyin.
78 pấtulurnyin tátuā wúsgen.
79 pátulúrnyin tátã legárnyin.
80 pitusgu.
81 pôtusgun tátã tílon.
82 pútusgun tátã ndín.
83 pítusgun tátā yáaggen.
84 pâtusgun tátā dêgen.
85 pátusgun tátã úgun.
86 pâtusgun tátā 'rásgen.
87 pttusgun tátâ tuilurnyin.
88 pítusgun tátä wưrgen.
89 pâtusgun tátä legărnyin.
90 ptlegär.
91 pîlegárnyin tátã tílon.

92 pàlegárnyin tátā ndín.
93 pùlegárnyin tátā yásgen.
94 pùlegárnyin tátà dégęn.
95 pīlegárrnyin tátā águn.
96 pūlegárnyin tátà 'rásgen.
97 púlegárnyin tátã túlurnyin.
98 pīlegárnyin tátā wúsgen.
99 pälegárnyin tátä legắrnyin.
100 miáa or yóru.
101 míān tátā tilon, or yórun tátā tílon, or máān tílon, or yórun tílon.
102 míān tátä ndín, or yórun tátā ndín, or yórun ndín, or míän ndin.
103 máān tátā yắsgẹn, or yórun tátā yắsgen, or míản yấsgẹn, or yórun. yásgen, etc.
110 míān mégun, or yórun mégun.
111 míãn méogū lágarin, or yơrun méogū lágarin.
112 máän méogu ndurín, or yórun méogu ndurín,\&c.
120 miän píndin, or yórun pindin.
121 máän pindin tátā tílon, \&e.
130 máān puàasgen, or yórun $p^{\frac{1}{a}} \bar{a} g e^{2} n$.
131 mían p $\mathfrak{t}$ âsgen tátātílon, \&c.
140 miän pídēgen, or yórun pídēgen.
141 máān pídègen tátātílon, \&c.
200 yóru ndí (not mía ndí)

201 yơru ndín tátā tílon.
202 yóru ǹdín tátā ndín, \&cc220 yóru ndín pindin (not tátā píndin).
221 yóru ndin píndin tátā tílon, \&c.
300 yóru yásge.
301 yóruyáagèn tátā tálon,\&c.
320 yóru yásgen píndin, \&c.
400 yóru dége.
500 yóru úgu.
600 yóru árasge.
700 yóru túlur.
800 yóru wúsge.
900 yóru legáár.
1000 dúbu.
1001 dúbun tátā tílon.
1020 dúbun píndin.
1100 dúbun mīān or dúbun yórun.
1101 dúbun míān tátātílon,\&c.
1200 dúbun yóru ndín (not míā ndin).
2000 dúbu ndí.
3000 dúbu yásge.
4000 dúbu dếg.
5000 dúbu úgu.
6000 dúbu árasge.
7000 dúbu túlur.
8000 dúbu wúsge.
9000 dúbū legấr.
10,000 dúbu méogu.
11,000 dúbu mếogu lágårī.

20,000 dúbu píndi, \&c. 100,000 dúbu míã(not dúbu yóru).
100,001 dúbu míān tátā tílon, \&c.
200,000 dúbu yóru ndí (not dúbu máa ndí).
300,000 dúbuyóru yấsge,\&c. 400,000 dúbu yóru dége. 500,000 dúbu yóru úgu. 600,000 dúbu yóru árasge. 700,000 dúbu yóru túlur. 800,000 dúbu yóru wúsge. 900,000 dúbu yóru legár. $1,000,000$ dúbuyórumétgu,\&c. 2,000,000 dúbuyóru píndi,\&c. $3,000,000$ dúbu yóru pấasge. 4,000,000 dúbu yóru pídëge. $5,000,000$ dúbu yóri ptййgu. 6,000,000 dúbu yóru pı̂rasge. 7,000,000 dúbu yóru pátulur. $8,000,000$ dúbu yóru pı̂tusgu. $9,000,000$ dúbu yóru pûlegār. $10,000,000$ dúbu nem. $20,000,000$ dúbū nẹm dí. $30,000,000$ dúbū nẹm yắsge. 40,000,000 dúbū nęm dége, \&c. $100,000,000$ dúbū nẹm méogu. 200,000,000 dúbū nęrn píndi. $300,000,000$ dúbū nẹ̀m pấasge, \&c.
$1,000,000,000$ dúbū nem míã. $1,000,000,000,000$ dùbū nem dúbu.

In the common way of counting, the numerals from 11 to 19 seem to be used, as given above, for the sake of
brevity only, whereas they ought properly to be compounded with méogu in the following manner:

| 11, méogu lagărí, | 14, méogu dérri, | 17, méogu túlurrí, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 12, méogu nduri, | 15, méogu t́ri, | 18, méogun wúsgẹn, |
| 13, méogun yásgen, | 16, méogun árasgen, | 19, méogu legárri. |

These cardinal numbers are declined in the same way as substantives.

Nom. tílō, ndí, yâsge, dêgę, águ, árasge, túlur,
 Dat. tílorō, ndírō, yắsgurō, dếgurō, úgurō, ârasgurō, túlurrō, Ac. tílogā, ndỉgā, yá́sgegā, dếgegà áúgugã, árasgegà, tūlurgāa, Loc. tîlon, ndín, yấsgèn, dếgen, úgun, árasgen, túlurnyin.

## II. Ordinal Numbers.

§. 46. Of these there are, as, e.g., in Hebrew, distinct forms for the first ten numerals only, and those beyond ten are expressed by the cardinals. The ordinals from 3 to 10 are formed from the cardinals by prefixing " $k e n$," as-

3d kényäsge.
4th kèndëge.
5th kénwūgu or kénūgu.
6th kenärásge.

7th kéntulur.
8th kénwusge.
9th kénlegär or kéllegär.
10th kénmègu or kémméogu. *

For "first" and " second" there is no proper ordinal; but "first" is expressed either by "tilō," as in Heb. אֲָּ, or by "burgóbé̄;" and "second" by "deregébée" or "rigáfōbè," i.e. "one after the first." Deregébé and rigáfōbē can also be used to denote the last, i.e. "one coming behind or after all;"
 níte ắfi ṅgắfon rờntse, dúgō déregè nānírō kádim? "What has kept thee back, that thou hast come last to me ?"

## III. Adverbial Numbers.

§. 47. These are formed from cardinals by suffixing rō.
tilórō, " once." ndírō, " twice." yắsgurō, " thrice." dégurō, " 4 times." и́gurō, " 5 times." ärásgurō, " 6 times." túlurrō, " 7 times." wúsgurō, " 8 times." legárrō, " 9 times." mégurō, " 10 times." lagarírō, " 11 times." ndurírō, " 12 times." yáşgennō," 13 times." dérirō, " 14 times." wúrirō, " 15 times." ārásgennō, " 16 times." " tulúrrirō, " 17 times."
wúsgennō," 18 times."
legárrirō, " 19 times." pindirō, " 20 times."
píndin tílonnō, " 21 times."
píndin ndínnō, " 22 times."
píndiny ásgènnō," 23 times," \&c.
p ̂asgurō, " 30 times."
pídēgurō, " 40 times."
pर̄̆ugurō, " 50 times."
pı̂́rasgurō, " 60 times."
pītulúrrō, " 70 times."
$p^{\text {t́tusgurō, " } 80 \text { times." }}$
pūlegárrō, " 90 times."
míãrō or yórurō, " an hundred times"
dúburō, "a thousand times."

But the cardinal tílō or lásge can also stand for the adverbial number " once."

From the ordinal numbers 3 to 10 adverbial forms can likewise be derived, expressive of either ordinal or cardinal adverbs.
kényäsgurō," third time, and thrice."
kéndègurō, " fourth time, and four times."
kénūgurō, " fifth time, and five times."
kẹnärasgurō, " sixih time, and six times."
kéntulurrō, " seventh time, and seven times."
kẹnwusgurō, "eighth time, and eight times."
Kellegáarrō, " ninth time, and nine times."
kenméogurō, "tenth time, and ten times,"

## IV. Indefinite Numerals.

§. 48. They indicate any uncounted number or indeterminate quantity, and differ from indefinite pronouns, by not referring to existence as such, but merely to the number or quantity of existence, (vide K. F. Becker's Ausführliche deutsche Grammatik, Vol. I. §§. 157 and 182).
áfima, "something, some." It is composed of áfi,
" what? which thing?" and ma, the emphatic suffix, and usually only joined with negatives. (See Syntax.)
bágō, " nothing, not." It is doubtless composed of ágō, " a thing," and $b a$, a negative not otherwise occurring, but probably of the same origin with the Vei $m a$, the Greek $\mu \eta$, \&c.
ndúma consists of ndú, " who?" and the emphatic suffix ma. sámma, " all, every one."
$s \bar{o}$, " all, every one."
áfisō, " any thing, every thing ; all, every, any."
ndấsosō, " any."
$n d u ́ s o ̄, "$ every one, any one, all." From ndú, " who ?" $\dot{n} g a ́ s o \bar{O}, "$ all, whole." Probably from $\dot{n} g a ̆$ a, " sound, well, healthy," and $s \bar{o}$, properly, "all well, quite well," and then, " whole, all ;" just as E. " whole," L. "integer." ganá, "few, little."
$\ddot{n} g u b \overline{,}, "$ many, much."

## CHAPTER VIII.

## ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.

## I. Derivation of Verbs.

§. 49. Verbs can be derived from either substantives or adjectives, or other verbs.
$V$ erbs derived from substantives express either a becoming and being, or a doing and performing of what the substantive denotes :-
> mālámgin," I become a priest." sōbánigin, "I becóme a friend." meíngin, "I become a king." kōganánigin, "I become a kargunmáánin, " I become a doctor." soldier." legāl̂́nigin,"I become a lawyer."

sālámgin, "I make a saluta- kidánigin, " I work." tion, salute." neménigin, "I speak, make a bárênigin, "I hoe." speech."

Note.-From the substantive ángal, both arigáligin and angaltískin, " to act wisely," are formed. The latter is probably a composition of ángal and the verb táskin, which coalesced into the verb angaltáskin, still in use, and then into arigaltiskin. Of the latter the relative angaltigeskin, is formed, e.g.: arigaltíge kouáturō! "act wisely with this stone."
§. 50. Verbs derived from adjectives express the being and becoming, or producing and effecting what the adjectives denote :-
> 1. ngalánigin, " I shall be good." dunowánigin, "I becomestrong." ts̆irewángin, "I shall be right." añgalwárigin, "I become wise." kuránigin, "I become great."
2.kurángin,"I aggrandize,exalt,"|yitębulgéskin, "I whiten." or ${ }^{2}$ kurágeskin; butmorege- ṅgágeskin and yitẹngágesskin, nerally yitekurágesskin, id. tsoúgeskin and yitetsoúgeskin, "I make warm."
" I make well, cure."
kamégeskin and yiteqkamégeskin,
" I redden."
§. 51. Verbs derived from other verbs, corresponding to the Hebrew forms called Pealal.
letếngin, " I walk, walk about;" from lénigin, "I go." kerkéringin, "I tie up (e.g. clothes in a bag);" from kérigin, " I tie, tie on (e.g. clothes on the body)."
babánigin, " I deal out blows, beat well;" from bángin, " I give a blow, I beat."
termtémgin, "I build all about, build much;" from témgin, "I build."
lalángin, "I revile profusely;" from lángin, " I revile."
§. 52. From substantives and adjectives a number of verbs are formed, which, from their nature, occur only in the 3d pers. sing.
patsártši, "it is early before bếtš̌, "it is the dry season." sunrise."
 midnight."
magaribưtssic, "it is evening, after sunset." nerigalt́tsti, "it is the rainy season."
binemts̆i, "it is the cold season." dibdifútši, "it is the hot season."

With all these impersonal forms a subject has to be understood, and that is dinia, "the world, the atmosphere, the air;" and then there are some otherstsürétš̌i, "it is verified." |tšímtši " it is bitter."
 bááōtši," it is no more."
II. Fundamental Forms or Conjugations of the Verb.
53. The Bornu language possesses the capability, in common with the Hebrew and Arabic, of expressing certain modifi-
cations of the original meaning of a verb by distinct verbal forms. The inflection of these forms, although not quite identical, yet exhibits such a degree of sameness and similarity, as not to constitute so many different conjugations; but we retain this term, after the example of most Hebrew and Arabic grammarians, and shall accordingly speak of a radical, relative, reflective, and causative conjugation of the Verb.

Most of the verbs which in their radical form terminate in $\dot{n g i n}$ or $g i n$ are used in all these different conjugations; but of the verbs in skin only a limited number have developed a causative or relative conjugation, whilst they invariably form a reflective.

## 1. Radical Conjugation.

54. This expresses the simple or original notion of the verb, and consists of the pure verbal root, (which is most commonly a monosyllable) with a personal termination. The termination is a twofold one, by which all the verbs are separated into two classes, viz., in the lst per. sing. of the indefinite tense either $\dot{n} y i n$ ( gin ) or skin. There are a few verbs which have become obsolete in the first conjugation, and are now only used either in the second or third, e.g.
nággeskin, " I meet." $\mid$ pádgẹskin, "I draw to myself." pádgeskin, "I go astray." tantéskin, " I stretch myself."

The verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$, in the lst per. sing. of the indefinite tense, possess a secondary form, denoting emphasis or intensity. It is obtained by changing $\dot{n} g i n$ and $\dot{n} g e \bar{e}$ into neskin and neske, and therefore appears to be a mere imitation of the verbs in skin, Were it carried out in all the persons, it would have to be considered as an additional conjugation, answering to the Hebrew "Piel :" as it is, it had better be considered a bye-form of the, radical conjugation, or a mere attempt at developing an intensive conjugation.

## 2. Relative Conjugation.

§. 55. This indicaltes a relation of the energy, denoted by the radical conjugation, to something else ; thus imparting a trans-
itive force to intransitive verbs, and rendering transitive verbs doubly transitive. In this respect it corresponds with the second and fourth conjugation in Arabic. It is formed of verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$, by changing $\dot{n} g i n$ or $g i n$ of the radical conjugation into geskin, so that the proper characteristic of this conjugation is the inserted ge. Verbs in skin have generally no distinct relative conjugation; for the few forms which seem to be such, may as well be considered as the causative conjugation with a relative force, e.g. yeggdẹ́skin, "I help one to do," from dískin, "I do;" yegekéliskin and yekkẹ́liskin, "I help one to learn, I teach," from lttskin, "I learn;" yukúruskin, "I fall upon," from yürúskin, "I fall;" yigagáseskin, "I run after," from kásesskin, " I run;" \&c.

## 3. Reflective Conjugation.

§. 56. This gives a reflective direction to the energy expressed by the radical form of a verb, hence it cannot be used of verbs which are originally intransitive. It renders transitive verbs either intransitive or reflective, and in the plural frequently reciprocal. From verbs in rigin it is formed by changing that termination into teskin, of which the syllable $t \rho$ is the characteristic; but from verbs in skin it is formed by a prefix. The consonant $t$ again conveys the reflective characteristic, but the vowel by which it is accompanied varies. The choice of this vowel seems to be regulated by the vowel of the root, (see §. 12.) e.g. túruskin of rúskin, túmuskin of múskin, but tẹ́táskin of taksin. When a verb in skin begins with $k$ or $p$, they are changed into $g$ and $b$ by the reflective $t$; e.g. túguskin, from kúskin; but an initial $b$ and $g$ change the preceding $t$ of reflection into $d$, e.g. dúbuskin, from búskin, degẹdẹ́skin, from gendẹ́skin. It is even possible that the second rule may be called into operation in consequence of the effect of the first. When a verb terminating in skin begins with $y$, this is simply displaced by the
reflective $t$, e.g. táskin, from yấskin; targálleskin, from yargalleskin; tískin, from yiskin.

## 4. Causative Conjugation.

§. 57 . This expresses causation of the energy denoted by the radical conjugation, when formed of intransitive verbs, and thus corresponds in office with the Hebrew "Hifil." When formed of transitive verbs, its force generally coincides with that of the relative conjugation. Formally it always consists of the relative conjugation and a prefix, and this circumstance may account for the fact, that, in siguification also, these two conjugations are not kept so distinct from one another, and that it is difficult to say whether certain forms of the verbs in skin are relative or causative (vide $\S .55$ ). It is not unlikely that forms of verbs in skin, which have yige, yig, yug, \&c. prefixed, are properly the third conjugation, so that the $g$ of these prefixes is identical with the terminational $g$ which we have found to be the characteristic of the relative conjugation. But though it is still possible that yige is synonymous with yite, and as the evidently causative forms of the transitive verbs in ngin, are generally used as relatives, we always enumerate the the forms with the prefix yige, yig, \&c., under the fourth or causative conjugation, although in force they coincide with the relative forms. It is scarcely possible not to be struck with the similarity between yite and force of these verbal prefixes is no longer the same in Bornu and Hebrew.
§. 58. As the causative conjugation is only formed from a limited number of verbs, it will be necessary to give a list of them. And, on account of their difference in form and use, referred to in $\$ .57$, they had better be divided into three different classes.
a. List of intransitive verbs in ngin, forming a causative
njugation. conjugation.
ámgin, "am cold."
ârngin, " get dry." atsálṅgin, " hurry."
bagóngin, "die."
bónigin, "lie down."
búrngin, " am friendless."
dämángin, " recover."
dánigin, " stand."
dèringin, "am lean."
debdónigin," spend a day." dingin," become old."
dōndíngin, "become ill."
dzúmgin, "fast."
fugúnigin, " go before."
gámgin, "am left."

* geskénigin, " am steady."
kaliánigin, " become a slave." kāmbéngin, " become free."
kannuánigin, " become warm." káñgin, "escape."
kentstingin, " become a slave," kéringin, "become solid." ketstingin, "am agreeable." kōeigéngin, " am afraid." kúlngin, " am fat."
lámgin, " wash."
larsánigin, " marry."
lelénigin, " walk."
lếngin, " sleep."
léngin, " go."
linigin, " come out."
lólönigin, " tremble."
lumgin, "immerge." manánigin, " speak." mbángin, "swim." ménigin, "return." méreskin, " recover." námgin, "sit." némgin," am silent." nórigin, " know."
nóngūnigin, " am ashamed." ṅgalgớnigin," recover." ngámgin, "am dry." ǹgárigin, " recover." ṅgäfóngin, " go back." iggéséngin, " forget." ṅgubúngin, " be many." ngudéngin, " become poor." ngúnigin, " bow."
ṅguruñgurúmyin, " kneel," párigin, " awake." ringin, "fear." sālingin, " pray." tángin, " recollect." tsémgin, "descend." tšíngin, " rise." tusínigin, " rest." wólngin, " return." wolớngin, " wash myself." wuféngin, " pant." wurángin, " grow up." yéserigin, " go out of the way." yilnigin, "hollow." yingin, " breathe."
§. 59. List of Transitive Verbs in igin, forming a Causative Conjugation, which, however, is commonly used with a relative force.
ámgin, "lift up." ángin, " stretch." bérvigin, " scatter." dálngin, " dye."
dámgin, "deny," dếngin, " cook."
díngin, " rub."
dîrngin, "cut."
dzúnigin, " push."
fóngin, " join."
fúnigin, "empty." gálängin, " teach." gónigin. "take." gúlngin, " tell."
káligin, "drive back."
kámgin, " cut."
kónigin, " stick."
lámgin," load."
túnigin, "hang." mángin. "seek." ndálngin, " steal." ṅgádarnigin, " report." ngángin," milk." ṅgúrnōngin, "help." pálnigin, " change." párigin, " separate." ре́pëngin," untie." pérnigin, "spread." péléngin, "show." péremgin, "open." píngin, "draw." rángin, " press." rémgin, "bury."
> rónigin, "hold fast."
> sámgin, " rub."
> sámgin, "distribute."
> souárrigin, " ask advice."
> támgin, " hack."
> tamớngin, " finish."
> tárnigin, " scatter."
> tárnigin, "dry."
> téñin, " aim."
> témbalngin," roll."
> títingin, " cover."
> togsáñgin, " mix."
> tságèngin, " dress."
> tsálnigin, " cut."
> tsámgin, " gather."
> tsebáninin, " send."
> tséngin, " shake."
> tsó́rigin, "take."
> tsúmgin," put down."
> tšúängin, " hoe."
> túmgin, "honour."
> túngin, "squeeze."
> wángin, " will not."
> wárngin, "burn."
> wómgin, " strike."
> wósengin, "beat."
> wúnigin,"look."
> wúrrigin, "cut off."
> wuséngin, " cause to kneel."
> karánigin, "read."
> yémgin, " sprinkle." yírigin, "throw."

Whereas all the preceding verbs form their causative conjugation by prefixing yite to the relative, the verb kónigin, "to pass," forms its causative like the verbs in skin, viz. yikkógẹskin, c. Ac. "I pass with something, I cause something to pass."
§. 60. A still smaller number of verbs in skin possess a causative conjugation. With them it is always derived from the radical form by prefixing either yite or yige, or a modification of the latter.

Verbs in skin, forming their causative conjugation by simply prefixing yite, are-
gelágeskkin, " I remain." kếgesskin, " I distribute." $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { rógeskin, " I hang." } \\ & \text { wâresskin, " I am ill." }\end{aligned}\right.$
Others form it by prefixing yige, viz.
nágeskin, "I overtake." rágeskin, " I like." rambúskin, " I pay." rôreskin, "I collect."
báskin, " I mount."
báskin, "I pound."
pertéskin, "I pick."

Others prefix yig, yeg, yug, as the vowel of the verb may require, viz.
yegdéskin, from diskin, "I do."
yigdóreskin, from dóreskin, "I pick." yugdútẹskin, from dúteskin, "I sew." yegságeskin, from ságeskin, "I put down."
Others again modify the prefix still further, or equally well admit of several of the above prefixes, viz. bäfúskin, "I cook," has yitebaäfuskin and yigbäfúskin. buiskin, "I eat," has yigebiskin and yegbuiskin. gámbuskin, "I scratch," has yitegámbuskin and yigegámbuskin. káseskin, "I run," has yigagásesskin and yikkáseskin. ladẹ́skin, " I sell," has yigęladẹ́skin and yiteladẹ́skin. pádgeskin, "I am lost," has yitepádgeskin and yippádgeskin. yürúskin, "I fall," has yūkkúruskin.
yúwüreskin, " I laugh," has yukkúreskin.
liskin, "I learn," has yegekẹliskin and yekkéliskin.
karáskin, (an obsolete form of karánigin) "I read," has yagagáraskin and yakkáraskin.
dúruskin, "to shower down," has yitędúruskin and yugdúruskin.

## 5. Compound Conjugations.

§. 61. Strictly speaking, the causative conjugation belongs here, as it generally is a compound of yite and the relative conjugation. But as this is a regular and uniform formation, we do not enumerate it in this place, where we have only to do with a few isolated and rare forms which consist of a combination of several of the above described conjugations. They shew the capability of the language to develope a number of other regular forms, in addition to the abovementioned four conjugations. The following are such isolated forms as I met with-
kęrrigin, "I tie;" reflective kérteskin, " I tie myself;" relative reflective kértegeskin, "I tie myself to," i.e. "I hold fast something."
gérrigin, "I drag;" reflective, gérteskin, "I drag myself, I move;" relative reflective, gértegeskin. "I move to."
kélīngin, "I fold, roll;" reflective, kệliteskin, "to roll, wind itself (said of a serpent);" relative reflective, kél̄teggeskin, "to wind itself round something."
tę̇gin, (obsolete) "I am near;" reflective, téktęskin, (obsolete) "I near myself;" relative, tệkkęskin, "I put near to;" relative reflective, tę́ktegeskin, "I recline on."

## III. The Tenses of Verbs.

§. 62. The Kanuri has only absolute tenses, and possesses no forms exactly corresponding to our imperfect, pluperfect, and paulopost future; for what it has analogous to these relative tenses is in fact a conjunctional mood, vide §. 89. The tenses for which the Bornu language possesses distinct forms, are five in number, of which two are
past，one future，and two indefinite．The past tenses are an aorist and a perfect；the indefinite tenses，so called because not confined to any one time，are a first，or duralive，frequenta－ tive；and a second，or momentary，solitive，indefinite．In the indefinite tense the time－relation is subordinate，and the qualitative relation predominate．Therefore these two forms might be viewed as moods：but as they are formally parallel to the perfect tense，and as the time－relation is，at the same time，not excluded from them，we notice them amongst the tenses．It must also be remarked，that the second indefinite has in several persons a bye－form in $o$ ，viz．in the first person singular of the verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$ and skin，as；wúnigē and wúrigō， wúneskē and wúneskō，wúgeskē and wúgeskō，wúteskē and wúteskō， yitew ${ }^{\prime}$ and in the third person singular and plural of most verbs in skin，as，e．g．tseládé and tselládō，tsaláde and tsaládō，t̂́se and t̂sō，
 tšesęésō，\＆c．

In order to afford a convenient survey，we now give the first person singular of all the tenses in the different conjugations．

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 世 } \\ & \text { E } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | wúngin | wúgeskin | wúteskin | yitewứgeskin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | dámgin | dábgeskin | dápteskin | yitedábgeskin |
|  | ladẹskin |  | telladéskin | yigeladéskin |
| － | wúṅgè | wúgeskē | wútęskē | yitewúgeskē |
| 道 | dámgè | dábgeskē | dáptesk | yitedábgeskė |
| 宫 | ladệskè |  | teladẹskē | yigeladẹskē |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { む̀ } \\ & \dot{む} \\ & \text { Hiँ } \end{aligned}$ | （wúngiz | wúgeskī | wútesk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | yitewúgéski |
|  | dámgì | däbgeskī | dápteski | yitedábgeskī |
|  | ladẹskí |  | teladẹskī | yigeladẹskī |
|  | wúgoskō | wúgiguskō | wúgatuskō | yitewúgiguskō |
|  | dabgóskō | dabgíguskō | dabgátuskō | yitedabgiguskō |
|  | kiladéskkō |  | kateladéskō | kigeladẹskō |
| 淢 | （wûtsoskō | wútšiguskō | wûtatuskō | yitewûtšìguskō |
|  | daptsóskō | dapts̈ryuskō | daptátuskō | yitedaptšiguskō |
|  | tšriladệskō |  | tateladẹ́skō | tšigęladẹ́skō |

## IV. Infection of Verbs.

§. 63. All verbs are divided into two classes, according as their termination in the radical conjugation is either rigin or skin; and originally a difference of meaning seems to have been corresponding to this difference of form. The difference was probably this, that verbs in $\dot{n}$ in expressed a notion complete in itself, and not needing the complement of an object; whereas verbs in skin expressed a transitive or outwardly-operating direction of the verbal energy. Accordingly this difference of Kanuri verbs seems to have been the same as that between the Greek middle and active, or the Sanscrit atmanepadam and parasmaipadam. This view is also borne out by the circumstance, that the verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$ have formed a distinct relative conjugation, whereas the verbs in skin are without one (vide §. 55 ). But as it has been observed with regard to those languages, so it must also be said of the Kanuri, that language, as it at present exists, disposes of both forms in rather an arbitrary manner; so that the originally intransitive form has now as frequently a transitive signification, and vice versâ.

Verbs terminating in the radical conjugation in $\dot{n} y i n$ are so differently inflected from those in skin, that, in point of inflection, both must be kept entirely distinct. If we compare both classes, the personal characteristic appears to be, in the singular, for the first person, $g$; for the second, $m$; for the third, $t_{s}$; and in the plural-where, however, the characteristic of person and tense are not kept so distinct-for the first person, ye; for the second, $w u$; and for the third, $t_{s} a$.

## A. Inflection of Verbs in ṅgin.

§. 64. It is a very remarkable circumstance, that the Kanuri language possesses a verb which is identical with the inflectional terminations of the verbs in igin. Such an identity, it is true, might be merely accidental. But
if we consider the indefinite generality and vagueness of the signification of that peculiar verb (comp. the Syntax), and its dependent character as an enclitic, by dint of which character it could so easily coalesce with a root into one word, we must be led to think it probable, that the present conjugational terminations were originally nothing more than the inflected forms of the verb rigin, appended to the verbal roots. This view is the less surprising, as it is supposed, that in many other languages also the inflectional terminations arose from originally independent and separate words. Whether the inflection of the verbs in skin has the same origin, cannot now be so easily decided, as it appears to be much more closely and organically connected with the verbal root, and probably of greater antiquity, than the inflection of verbs in rigin.

We now give the inflection of the verb $\dot{n}$ gin, as a key to the inflection of the whole class of verbs in rigin, remarking, that the verb $\dot{n} g i n$, in the present stage of the language, is not used in any but the first conjugation; and even here has noperfect tense.

| indefinite i. | Indefinite in. | Aorist. | future. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wú $\dot{n}$ gin | $\dot{n}$ ge $\overline{\text { or }} \dot{n} \dot{g} o \bar{~}$ | goskō | tsoskō |
| mi nemin | nem | gam | tsam |
| sí tsenyin or tsin | tse | gonō | tsonō |
| andí nyèn | nye | geiyë | tseiyē |
| nandí nuwi | nü | gou | tsou |
| sandi tsanyin or tsei | $t s a ̄$ | gēda or gēa | tšĕda or tšẽada |

§. 65. Verbal roots whose inflectional terminations coincide with the preceding verb terminate either in a vowel, or in one of the liquid consonants, $l, m, n, \dot{n}, r$. If the verbal character is a vowel or $r$, the terminations are regular throughout; viz. in the first indefinite, igin, nemin, tšin; nyen, nuwi tsei. In illustration of this, we will now give the full inflection of the verb wúnigin, "I look."
I. CONJUGATION.
wu wúṅgin ${ }^{\text { }}$
 $n i$ wúnemin si $i$ ándi nándi sándi
II. CONJUGATION wúgeskin wúteskin wútẹmin wútin wútēn wútuwī wútei
wúteske ${ }^{4}$ yitewúgesskē ${ }^{5}$ wútę yiţwúgem wûte yitewútsege wútē yitewúgē wútū yitewर्ugū wúta yitewútsāga


| wu | $w^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \dot{n} g \imath^{6}$ | wúgeskī | wúteski | yitewúgeskī |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | wúnemì | wúgemı̄ | wútemı̄ | yitewúagemī |
| 辰 | wútš̌̀ | wútsegã | wútī | yitewútsegı̈ |
| 灾 ándi | wányē | wúgè | wútė | yitewúgè |
| nándi | wйกuwì | wúguwī | wútuwì | yitewúguwī |
| sándi | wutsei | wûtsagei | wútei | yitewútsagei |


| wu | wúgosko | wúgigusko ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | wúgateskō | yitewagigusho |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | wúgam | wúgigem | wúgatem | jiteú́gigom |
| si | wúgonō | wúgigunō ${ }^{8}$ | wúgate | yitewúgigunō |
| and | wúgeiyē | wúgigè | wágatē | yitewúgigē |
| nándi |  | wágigū | wúgat̄u | yitewúagigū |
| sándi | wúgè da | wúgêga ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | wúgata | yitewágęga |

1 and wúneskin. $\quad{ }^{2}$ and wúnigō, also wúneskē and wúneskō.
${ }^{3}$ and wúguskō or wúgeskō.
${ }_{5}^{5}$ and yitewúgeskō. $\quad{ }_{9}^{6}$ and wúneskì. 4 and wúteskō.
${ }^{7}$ and wúgigeskō.
and wúgèaga.

§. 66. In the preceding paragraph we illustrated the normal inflection of verbs in rigin, but now we have also to attend to those cases, where the normal inflection is interfered with. This interference arises from the contact of the verbal character, i.e. the last letter of the verbal root, with the initial of the termination, and the actual deviation from the normal consists only in the assimilation occasioned by that contact. This assimilation takes place either in the preceding or the following of the two meeting letters: the former is the case, when the verbal character is $m$, $n$, or $\dot{n}$, and the latter, when it is $l$. The changes which $l$ produces are confined to the first conjugation, and consist in the conversion of the initial $n$ of the termination, into $l$. Thus of wólngin, " I return," we get wólleskin, wóllemin, wóllèn, wól$l u w \bar{i}, \& c$. All the verbs whose character is $m$, $n$, or $\dot{n}$ agree in dropping the $\dot{n}$ of the first person, as, námgin, mángin, kalanigin: but in their further inflection they separate into two classes, one of which retain their character throughout and are conjugated regularly, as verbs with the character $r$, and the other which assimilate their character to the termination, so that $m$ becomes $p, n$ becomes $t$, and $\dot{n}$ becomes $k$ before $t$, and again $m$ becomes $b, n$ becomes $d$, and $\dot{n}$ becomes $g$ before $g$. Only in the last case the two $g$ 's, thus meeting, frequently become $k k$. Thus from námgin, "I sit,"

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\({ }^{1}\) and wúskō \({ }^{3}\) and wútšigeskō.
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> ${ }^{2}$ and wútsťiāda.
> ${ }^{4}$ and wútšigènō.
mángin, "I draw tight," kálañgin, "I turn," we get in the first conjugation :
náptšin
näptsei
náptse
naiptsā
näbgoskō
nábgam
nábyonō, \&c.
náptsoskō
náptsam
náptsonō, \&c.
máttšin kálaktšin
máttsei kálaktsei
máttse kálaktse
máttsā $\quad k^{a ́ l a k t s a ̄ a ~}$
mádgoskō
mádgam
mádgonō, \&e.
mátttoskō
mattsam
máttsonō, \&e. kálaktsonō, \&c.

To show the further euphonic alterations, we will give the full inflection of mangin, in the second and third conjugations, from which the corresponding forms of námgin and kálangin can be easily abstracted.

## Conjugation II.

INDEFINITE I.
wu mádgeskin mádgeskē
$n i$ mádgemin mádgem
ši máttegegin máttegege ándi mádgèn mádgē nándi mádguwī mádgū sándi máttsagei máttsäga

AORIST. FUTURE.
mádgiguskō máttšigusk̄̄ máttšigem mátţ̌̌igunō máttš̌igē máttưigū máttšāaga

Conjugation III.

| máttesskin | mátteskē | mádgateskō | máttateskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ máttemin | mátter | mádgatem | máttatẹm |
| ši máttin | mátte | mádgate | máttate |
| ándi máttèn | máttē | mádgatē | máttatē |
| nándi mâttuwī | máttū | mádgatū | mâttatū |
| sándi mattei | máttā | mádgãta | máttāta |

$\S$.67. As the verbs with the character $m, n$ or $\dot{n}$ separate into
two classes, viz. those euphonically changed and those unchanged, we now furnish a list of both classes.

1. List of verbs euphonically changed:
a. Verbs inflected like námgin, "I sit:"
ägelámgin, " I trouble." |lúmgin," I dive." ámgin, " I lift."
dagámgin, " I make holes in planting."
dámgin, " I hinder." démgin, " I permit." gámgin, "I remain behind." gurúmgin," I prick." kámgin, " I overtake." kúrumgin, " I sew a mat." lámgin, " I load"
b. Verbs inflected like mángin " I draw tight :" gebbángin, " I mash." kamángin, " I knead." kángin, " I skim." kasángin, " I consent." lếngin, " I sleep." píngin, " I draw a sword." rángin, "I lean against."
sángin, "I summon to prayer by hollooing."
súngin, " I whip."
súrungin, " I open a loop."
tángin, " I ascend." túngin, "I squeeze."
c. Verbs inflected like kálangin, " I turn."
bánigin, " I knock." fóngin, " I join." kónigin, " I stick." múngin, "I draw out." perténgin, " I agonize." rángin, " I can." sadánigin, " I give alms."
sángin, " I strain."
súnigin, " I bore."
šingin, " I scrape."
tángin, " I recollect." tsángin, " I cover."
tséngin, " I beckon."
tsớngin," I dip in."
tsúngin, " I cut open."
yēsángin, " I castrate."
yónigin, " I drive."
2. List of verbs not euphonically changed, but inflected regularly, like those with the character $r$.
$a$. Verbs with $m$ as their character:
adímgin, "I make a eunuch." námgin, " I break." ámgin," I grow cold." námgin, "I mark." bẹ́rẹmgin, "I twine yarn."
bertsémgin, " I honour."
dámgin," to flow."
digámgin, "I make water."
kámgin, " I cut." .
kámgin,"I become an adult."
kẹrẹmgin, " I lop."
kúrumgin, " I bale out."
lámgin, " I join."
lámgin, " I wash."
némgin, " I am silent." ígámgin, "I become lean." iggérémgin," I run." péremgin, " I open." salámgin," I salute." sámgin, " I rub."
sámgin, "I distribute." támgin, " I throw." têmgin, "I build."
b. Verbs with $n$ as their character:

| délangin, "I boil a soup." | ntsíngin, "I beg." |
| :--- | :--- |
| lálängin, "I revile." | ṅgángin, " I milk." |
| lángin, " I revile." | séngin, " I disentangle." <br> píngin, " I put off clothes." <br> našingin, "I dream." |
| yíngin, " I breathe." |  |

c. Verbs with $\dot{n}$ as their character:
kārả̛ngin, "I approach." | kérą̣igin, " I overhear."
§. 68. The verb patigin, "I hear," has certain peculiarities which distinguish it from párigin, "I awake," and which consist in its assuming $n$ before all formative appendages begining with $t$, and in its retaining $\dot{n}$ before the formative appendages beginning with $g$. The last of these two rules, however, permits of one exception, the passive participle not being pänigáta, but pāngáta. In the first conjugation the inflection of the chief tenses is as follows :

INDEFINITE I.
vu párigin,
ni pánemin,

AORIST.
pängóskō,
pángam,
future.
pāntsóskō.
pántsam.
indefinite i.
s̆i pấntšin
ándi pányen
nándi pánnuwì
sándi pấntsei

AORIST.
pärigónō páñgeiyē páñgou pāigéda
future.
pāntsónō
pántseiyē
pántsou
$p \bar{a} n t s{ }^{e} e ́ d a$
§. 69. Special notice must also be taken of the verbs in which the termination is preceded by $s e$ or $s u$, and all of which are either dissyllabic or polysyllabic. They have this peculiarity, that, before the terminations beginning with $g$ and $t_{s}$, they always drop the $\varepsilon$ or $u$, and that they only retain the $s$, of the terminational $t s$, so that two $s$ 's meet, one radical, the other formative; both of which, according to $\S .18$, are changed into $s$ before $i$ and $e$.

In illustration of these rules we will here give the inflection of the verbs káserigin, " I draw," and tusíngin, "I rest."

| indefinite i. |  | INDEFINITE | perfect. | AORIST. | FUTURE. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | káserigin | káserigè | káserigı̄ | kásgoskō | kássoskō |
| $n i$ | kásenèmin | kásenem | kásenemı̄ | kásgam | kássam |
| $s i$ | kásusin | kásse | kásǔz̄ | kásgonō | kássonō |
| ándi | kásenyen | kásenyē | kásenyē | kásgeiyē | kásseiye |
| nánd | kásenuwī | kásenū | kásenuwi | kásgou | kássou |
| sándi | kássei | kássā | kássei | $k a ́ s g e ̄ d a ~$ | kás̆suēda |
| wu | tusúṅgin | tusúrige | tusúṅgı̄ | tusgóskō | tussóskō |
| $n i$ | tusúnemin | tusúnem | *tusúnemī | tưsgam | tússam |
| sui | túššin | tüsse | tư¢̆šĩ | tusgónō | tussónō |
| ándi | tusúnyen | tusúnyē | tusúnyē | tusgeíyè | tusseíyè |
| nándi | tusúnuwi | tusúnū | tusúnuwi | túsgou | túss@u |
| sándi | tússei | tússä | tússei | tusgéda | tus̆séda |

In the second and third conjugations it will be sufficient, to $i_{\text {nflect only }}$ one verb, and the fourth needs no illustration, as it can be easily abstracted from the second.

Conjugation II.

| indefinte i. | indefinite in. | perfect. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| käsgeskin | kásgeskē | kásgeskī | kásgiguskō | kásusùguskō |
| kásgemin | kásgem | kásgemi | kásgigem | kášsigem |
| kássegin | kássege | kássegi | kásgigunō | káššigunō |
| kásgèn | kásgē | kásgē | kásgigè | kážšigè |
| di kásguwi | kásgū | kásguwī | kásgigū | káššigu |
| di kássagei | kássāga | kássagei | káásgẽga | kásusăga |

Conjugation III.

| wu | kásteskin | kásteskē | kásteskī | kásgateskō | kástateskō |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ni | kástemin | kástem | kástemī | kásgatem | kástatèm |
| ši | kástin | káste | kást̄ | kásgate | kástate |
| ándi | kástēn | kástē | kástē | kásgatē | kástatē |
| nándi $k a ́ s t u w i ̄ ~$ | kástū | kástuwī | kásgatū | kástatū |  |
| sándi | kástei | kástā | kástei | kásgāta | kástāta |

The following verbs are conjugated in the same manner-
meségingin, "I decay." pêseñgin, " I winnow." péresęnigin, " I escape." terigerè́sengin, " I halt." túsẹngin, " I beat."
tsúsę̇igin, "I vomit."
wóséngin, "I clear from chaff." wuséngin, " I cause a camel to kneel."
yéséngin, "I go out of the way."

The defective verb túsgeskin, "I set on fire," is inflected like the third conjugation of the preceding verbs.

## B. Inflection of Verbs in skin.

§. 70. Verbs in skin exhibit a far greater variety and multiplicity of forms, than verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$; so much so, that, at first sight, one might be tempted to say, what has once been asserted of the Georgian, that the language has as many conjugations as verbs. But if we examine them more closely, we soon find that they admit of a distribution into larger or smaller groups. The most striking difference in the inflection of verbs in skin
from those in $\dot{n g i n}$ consists in the former using prefixes, in several cases, where the latter have suffixes. These cases are, the formation of the third person, the characteristic of the aorist and future tenses, and of the reflective conjugation. As these prefixes occasion several changes in verbs beginning with $y$, the frst great division of the verbs terminating in skin will be that of verbs beginning with $y$, and verbs beginning otherwise. Then both these classes have to be subdivided into, 1. monosyllabic verbs, 2. Verbs monosyllabic in consequence of contraction, and 3. polysyllabic verbs.

## I. Inflection of Verbs in skin, not beginning with $\mathbf{y}$.

a. Such verbs with monosyllabic roots. And these monosyllables have again to be divided according to their vowels, viz.

## a. Monosyllabic Roots with the Vowel i.

§. 71. Of the last-mentioned class, the verb dískin, "I do," may serve as a paradigm.

Conjugation I.

| ind | ite I | indefinite in. | perfect. | Aorist. | future |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | diskin | dískè | $d i s k i$ | kidískō | ts̆ıdískō |
| $n i$ | dímin | dim | dîmè | kidem | tsidem |
| $\check{8}$ | tsédin | tséde | tsédì | kidō | tš̆dō |
| ándi | dáyēn | d ${ }^{\text {t }} \mathrm{y}$ e ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | dî́yè | kidiyē | ts̆ıdiyē |
| nándi | dı̂wi | dilu | dîwì | kidū | tṡı̇dū |
| sándi | tsádin | tsáde | tsádì | kẹdō | tşédo ${ }^{\text {col }}$ |

Conjugation II. "I make myself," e.g. by looking into a mirror.

| wu | tedéskin | tedéskē | tedeéski | katedés skō |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | tédęmin | tédèm | tẹdegroi | kátedem | tátedem |
| $\breve{s} i$ | tédin | téde | tédì | kátedō | tátedō |
| ándi | tédìyen | tédiyee | tédiyē | katedíyē | tatedíyē |
| nándi | téduwi, | tédū | téduwī | kátedū | $t a ́ t e d \bar{u}$ |
| sándi | tádin | táde | tádì | katádō | tatádó |

Conjugation IV., also with the forms, yegedéskin and yitediskin.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |


nándi yegdúwī yégdū yegdúwì kígdū tšígdū sándi tsaságdin $\left\{\begin{array}{c}t s a s a ́ g d e ́ e ~ \& ~ \\ \text { tságdẹ }\end{array}\right\}$ traságdī keságdō tsésságdō

Of this class of verbs we only met with two more, viz. tiskin, "I suffice," liskin, "I learn;" but the former is only used in the first conjugation, and the latter has in the third conjugation, not teléskin but teltéskin, and in the fourth, not yeglęskin, but yēkẹliskin or yekẹliskin, \&c.

## §. 72. $\beta$. Monosyllabic roots with the vowel a.

Conjugation I.

| nobrintre i. | nmperinte in | perpect. | aorist. | puture. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu táskin | táskè | táskì | kítaskō | tšritaskō. |
| ni tấmin | tām | támà | kítām | tšitām. |
| sui tsétei | tsétā | tsẹtei | kità | tš̌táa. |
| ándi teíyēn | teíyē | teíyē | kiteiyè | tšiteiyè. |
| nándi tấwì | tau | táwì | kitau | tšitau. |
| sándi tsátei | tsátã | tsátei | kétā | $\left\{t s_{s} \in t \bar{a}\right.$ |

Conjugation III.

| wu | tétaskin | tétaskè | têtaskì | kátettaskō | kō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | tétámin | têtām | tétämū | kátẹtäm | tátet |
| ${ }_{8 i}$ | tétei | $t_{\text {ceta }}$ | tẹtei $i$ | kátȩtà | tátetèà |
| , | tétteiyèn | tẹteiyē | tẹteiyē | kátȩteiyė | táteteteiyē |
| nändi | tettoūui | tétau | -tétâwi | kátettau | tátetau |
| di | tátei | tátà | tátei | káţ̧tā | tátêtā |

The fourth conjugation is inflected according to the first, and has in the first indefinite, yigetáskin and yitetáskin; in the aorist, kigetáskō and kitętáskō; and in the future ts̆igestáskō and tsütętásko.

It must be remarked, that the $a$ of the root is sometimes pronounced so obtusely, as to sound almost like an $o$.

Other verbs conjugated like táskin, "I catch," are: báskin, "I pound;" báskin, "I mount;" and gáskin, "I follow."
r. Monosyllabic Roots with the Vowel u.
§. 73. This class, like the preceding one, has in several forms an $i$ added to the vowel of the root, and united with it into a diphthong. The verb rúskin, "I see," will serve as a paradigm, and the verbs inflected like it are : búskin, "I eat," múskin, "I put on a shirt;" but the verb núskin, "I die," deviates so much from the above, that its inflection must be given separately.

Conjugation I.

| indefinite i. |  | Indefinite in. |  | aprist. <br> kíruskō | future. tšúruskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | ruskin | rúskē | rúskī |  |  |
| $n i$ | rúmin | rum | rúmi | kírum. | tšúrum |
| $\stackrel{4}{3 i}$ | tsúrui | tsưsū | tsúrui | kírù | tšúrū |
| ándi | ruiyēn | ruíyē | ruíyè | kíruiyē | tšúruiyē |
| nándi | rúwā | $r u \bar{~}$ | ги์ひล | kíru | ts̆úrū |
| sándi | tsárui | tsár $\bar{u}$ | tsárui | kérū | $t s$ érù \& ts̆ámu |
| wu | núskin | núske | núskī | kánuskō | tsánuskō |
| $n i$ | númin | num | númı̄ | kánum | tsánum |
| sii | nui | $n \bar{u}$ | nui | kánü | tsánū |
| ándi | nuíyën | nuiyè | пих์уе | kánuiyē | tsánuiyē |
| nándi | núwi | $n \bar{u}$-i | núwe | kánū | tsánù |
| sándi | sánui | sánū | sánui | kásunu | tsásunū |
|  |  |  | * K |  |  |

## Conjugation IV.


b. Verbs which are either monosyllabic in consequence of contraction, or dissyllabic in consequence of the characteristic of the second or third conjugation.
§. 74. We have here a class of verbs which had perhaps better be considered as defective, i.e. as either the second or the third conjugation of obsolete verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$. This opinion appears to be borne out by the circumstance, that a number of them are still inflected regularly as the second and third conjugations of the verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$. Others, however, are inflected as if they were original verbs in skin, i.e. like those in §. 75 This double mode of inflection forms the principle on which these verbs are divided into two classes.

Of the first class, the following are inflected like the third conjugation of verbs in rigin: ādẹtę́skin, "I reflect;" támteskin, "I stretch myself;" and the following like the second conjugation,


Of the second class, where it is possible, however, that the second syllable te and ge is in many cases radical,
the following may formally be considered as the third conjugation of verbs in rigin:-
dúteskin, " I sew."
gérteskin, "I divide."
gúteskin, "I draw."
kútegkin, "I bring."
nátęskin, "I plant."
nốteskin, "I send."
pertéskin, "I cut with a sickle."
širteskin, "I flay."

And the following as the second conjugation :-
kégeskin, "I divide." lúgeskin. " I come out." mágeskin, " I take." négesskin, " I mind."
rāgéskin, "I like."
ságestkin, " I unload."
sángeskin, " I raise."
ságeskin," I put down."

Most of this class of verbs are frequently contracted, in the first'person, so that we have, e.g., máskin, kimaskō, tšimaskō, for mágesskin, kimāgéskō, tšimägẹ́skō; and náskin, kináskko, ts̆inắskō, for náteskin, kinätéskō, ts̆inātéskō, \&c.

In illustration of what is stated above, we will now give the inflection of two verbs out of each class, and then add that of gágeskin, "I enter," which, in several respects, differs from them.

INDEFINITE I.

| $w u$ | ädẹmtéskin |
| :--- | :--- |
| $n i$ | ädémtẹmin |
| s̈i | ädémtin |
| ándi | $\bar{a} d e ́ m t e ̄ n$ |
| nándi | $\bar{a} d e ̣ ́ m t u w i ̄ ~$ | sándi ädẹ́ntei

wu nágeskin
ni nágemin
ši nátsegin
ándi nágèn nándi náguwī sándi nátsagei

INDEFINITE II.
$\bar{a} d e m t e ́ s k e \bar{~}$
ādẹ́mtẹm
adẹ́nte
ädémtē
ädẹ́mtū
ādémta
nágeskè
nágem
nátsege
nágè
nágū
nátsaga

AORIST.
$\bar{a} d e ̣ m g a ́ t e s k \bar{o}$
$\bar{a} d e e_{m g a ́ t e m}$
ādẹmgáte
ādegmgátē
ādẹmgátū
ādẹmgáta
nägígeskō
nāgígẹm
nägígunō
nāgígē
nägígū
nägéga

FUTURE. ādentátẹskō ādentátẹn ādẹmtáte ādentátē $\bar{a} d e ̣ m t a ́ t u ̄$ ādẹmtáta
nätšigeskō
nātšígem
nātš̌igunō
nätš̌'gè
nătšígū
nātsèega

| indefinte i. | indefinite in. | AORIST. | future. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu náteskin | náteskè | kinātéskō | tšinãtéskō |
| $n i$ nâtemin | náterm | kinátèm | tšinátem |
| s̊i tsẹnấtin | tsenáte | kinátō | tšinátoo |
| ándi nátēn | nátè | kinátè | tšinátė |
| nándi nátuwí | $n a$ átū | kinâtū | ts̆inátū |
| sándi tsanâtin | tsanáte | kęnátō | tšanátō |
| wu mágeskin | mágeskep | kímägeskō | tš̌māgeskō |
| $n i$ mágemin | mágèm | kímägèm | tšimãgem |
| sii trémagin | tsẹmäge | kímogō | ts̆ímogō |
| ándi mágèn | mágè | kímagē | tšímagē |
| nándi náguwì | mágù | kímagū | tšimagū |
| sándi tsámãgin | tsámãge | kémogō | ts̆ámogō |
| wu gágeskin | gágesskè | kargágeskō | tsargággeskō |
| $n i$ gágemín | gắgem | kargágẹm | tsargágèm |
| ši gágin | gáge | kargágō | tsargágō |
| ándi gágèn | gágè | kargágè | tsargágē |
| nándi gáguwĩ | gáaù | kargágua | tsargágū |
| ftsagágin |  | kasargágō | tsasargágō |
| sándi \{gagágìn | \{gagáge |  |  |
| támui | támū | $\int$ katimen, | tatúmū |

c. Polysyllabic Verbs whose initial is not $y$.

In order fully to exhibit the inflection of these verbs, we shall have to subdivide them in the following manner:-
$\alpha$. Polysyllabic verbs whose second vowel is either $e$ or $u$, and whose initial consonant is neither $g$, nor $k$, nor $p$.
§. 75. This subdivision of the polysyllabic verbs may be considered as exhibiting the regular inflection, whereas the following subdivisions exhibit deviations from the regular inflection. The two verbs ladẹeskin, "I sell," and lifúskin, "I guard," may serve as paradigms.


Conjugation III.
wu tęladẹ́skin tęladẹ́skē tẹladẹ́skī katẹladẹ́skō tatelladẹ́skō
$n i$ teládẹmin tęládèm teládẹmī katęládẹm tatęládẹm
sü tẹládin teláàō
ándi telládēn telládē
nándi telcáduwā tęládū
sándi taládin taládō
wu telifúskin telifúskē
ni telifúmin telifum
sui tellýfin telifíu
ándi tellífēn tęlifē
nándi tęlífuwī telifíu
sándi talt̂fin talifīu
telifúsk
telifúm
telifī̀
telifíē
telíffuwī
talifí

In the first person plural the verb lifiskin has the following forms, in addition to those given above: lifuiyēn, lifuiyē, kilf́fuiyē, tšilífuiyē. And if the initial vowel of a verb is o or $u$, the vowel of the prefix is influenced by it, according to §. 12 ; thus the verb róreskin, "I take out," has in the third per. sing., tsurórin, tsurôre, tsurórī, kirórō, ts̈rirórō, and in pl. tsorớrin, tsorớre, tsorớri, kerórō, tšorórō.

Additional verbs, inflected like ladęskin, are, láreeskin, " I rejoice;" mbáreskin, "I am tired;" nándẹskin, "I bite;" dóreskin, "I pick;" róreskin, "I take out," and the verbs constituting the second class of $\S .74$; also the verb méreskin, "I recover," but the latter, in the third person, with the bye-forms, tsemérin, tsamérin, tsệệre, tsamérẹ.

The verbs inflected like lifúskin are: rambúskin, "I pay;" támbuskin, " I taste."
$\beta$. Polysyllabic verbs whose initial consonant is either $g$, $k$, or $p$.
§. 76. The verbs which begin with $g$ do not differ in inflection from those of the preceding paragraph, except in the Aorist tense of the first conjugation, whose characteristic prefix is $g i$ instead of $k i$, and throughout the third conjugation, where the characteristic sharp mute becomes the corresponding flat one. The peculiarity of the verbs beginning with $k$ and $p$ consists in the change of these sharp mutes into the corresponding flat ones, whenever they are preceded by a formative sharp mute, viz. in the 3d per. sing. and pl. of the first conjugation, and throughout the third conjugation, but not in the fourth. To illustrate this, we now give the inflection of the three verbs: gámbuskin, "I scratch;" káresskin, " I tattoo;" and pertéskin, "I pluck."

## Conjugation I.

INDEFINITE I

## $w u$

$n i$ $8{ }_{8} i$ ondi tsegambin andi gámbēn gámbē nándi gámbuwi gámbū sándi tsagámbin tsagámbū
gámbuskin gámbuskē gámbumin gámbum tsegámbū

INDEFINITE II. PERFECT. gámbë gámbē gámbuwì gigámbū tsagámbì

FUTURE.
tšigámbuskō tšigámbum tšigámbō tšigámbē ts̊igámbū tšegámbō

INDEFINITE I.
wu káreskin ni kárẹmin ši tsegárin ándi kắrēn nándi ká́ruwī
sándi tsagárin
wu pertéskin
ni pértemin
s̆i tsẹbẹ́rtin
ándi pértēn
nándi pértuwī
sándi tsabẹrrtin
indefinite in. perfect.
kárẹskè káresski
kárẹm
tsegáre kárè
kátrū
tsagắre

AORIST.
kigárẹskō
kigárẹm
kigárō
kigárē
kigárū
kegárō
kibẹrtẹ́skō
kibértẹm
kibért
kibẹ́rtó
kibẹ́rtū
kebẹrtó
future.
tšigäresskō
tsigárem
tšigárō
tšigárè
tšigártu
ts̆agárō
tsìbertééskō
tsibértẹm
ts̆̈bérétō
tsübérté
tšibértu
tsababẹrtō

## Conjugation III.

wu degámbuskin degámbuskē degámbuskī kadegámbuskō tadegámbuskō ni degámbumin degámbum degámbumē kadegámbum tadegámbum s̆i degámbin degámbū degámb̄̄ kadeggámbō tadegámbō ándi deggámbēn degámbē degámbē kadegámbē tadegámbē nánd idegámbuwı̄ degámbũ sándi dagámbin, dagámbā
degámbuwi kadegámbū
tadegámbū
dagámbī kadegámbō tadeggámbō
wu tegắreskin tegárreskē tegáreskī katęgấreskō tategárẹskō
ni tegáremin tegárem tegárẹmi katẹ̆árẹm tategárẹm
s̆i tegárin tegáre tegárī kategắrō tategárō
ándi tegắrēn tegắrē tegárē kategárrē tategárē nándi tegáruwì tegárū tegáruwī kategárù tategárū sándi tagárin tagáre tagárī kętagárō tatagárō
wu tebertéskin tẹbertéskē
tebertéskī
$n i$ tẹbęrtẹmin tẹbértẹm
tebẹrtẹmī
katẹbẹtéskō tatębertẹ́skō
s̆i tebértin tebérte
ándi tẹbértēn tebẹrtē tębẹrtē
nándi tẹbęrtuwī tẹbẹrtū
sándi tabẹrtin
tabérte
tẹbértuwī katębẹrtū tatẹbértū
tabẹ́rtī
katebértẹm tatebértem
tẹbẹrtū katẹbęrtō tatẹbértō
tẹbértē katẹbértè tatẹbértē
katabértō tatabẹrrtō

Conjugation IV.
indefinite i. indefinite ir perfect. aorist. future. wu yitegámbu- yitegámbu- yitegámbu- kitegámbu- tšitegámbuskin, \&c. skē, \&c. skī, \&c. skō, \&c. skō, \&c.
 skin, \&c. skē, \&c. skī, \&c. skō, \&c. skō, \&c. wu yigepérte- yigepérte- yigepgérte- kigepérte- tšigepérteskin, \&c. $s k \bar{e}, \& \mathrm{c} . \quad s k \bar{j}, \& \mathrm{c} . \quad s k \bar{o}, \& \mathrm{c} . \quad s k \overline{0}, \& \mathrm{c}$.

Other verbs, inflected like gámbuskin, are: gádeskin, " I murmur;" gándẹskin, "I lick;" gẹndéskin, " I shake ;" géreskin, "I gnaw;" gérteskin, " I separate."

Like káreşkin: kégeskin, "I divide;" kẹndẹskin, "I tie a child on the back ;" kốreskin, "I ask;" only that the prefix Bd per. sing. of this last verb is $t s u$, instead of $t s g$.

Like pertéskin: pándęskin, "I get."
$\gamma$. Polysyllabic verbs whose second syllable is 8 g.
§. 77. This class corresponds to those verbs in gin which are enumerated in §. 69. They are only two in number, viz. káseskin, "I run," and ťgeskin, "I come;" but they differ so much from one another, that the inflection of both must be given in full.


$\delta$. Polysyllabic verbs inserting $r$ between the prefixes and the root.
§. 78. There are three verbs belonging to this class, viz. bäfúskin, "I am cooked ;" degáskin. "I remain; and gîręskin, "I tie." They all insert $r$ in the aorist and future tense, but in the third person singular and plural, only géreskin, and in the plural bäfuskin. The insertion of $r$ unites them into one class, but as each has also some other peculiarities, we must give the inflection of all of them.

INDEFINITE I.
wu bäfúskin
ni bāfúmin
$s i$
ándi báfēn
nándi báfuwã

- tsabáffin
sándi tsarbáfin
babáfin

INDEFINITE II. PERFECT.
bäfúskè bäfúskī
'báfum
báfú
báfē
bááfu
tsabăfu tsabáfí
tsarbáfa tsarbáfía
babáfū babáfī
degáskin degáskē degáskī
$\begin{array}{ll}n i & \text { degámin } \\ s ̌ i & \text { dégei } \\ \text { ándi } & \text { dégeiyen }\end{array}$
nándi degấwī
sándi dágui
dégām degámī
dégà dégei
degeíyè degeiyē dégau degáwī
dágū dágui

AORIST. FUTURE.
karfäfúskō tsarfäfúskō
karfăfum tsarfáfum
karfáfóo tsarfáfō
karfäfé tsarfáfé
karfáfū tsarfáfū
$\}^{k a s a r f a ̆ f o ̄ ~ t s a s a r f a ́ f o ́ ~}$

| wu | degáskin | degáskè | degáskì | kargáskō | tsargáskō |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ni | degámin | dégām | degámī | kárgam | tsárgam |
| ši | dégei | dégā | dégei | kárgō | tsárgā |
| ándi | dégeiyen | degeíyē | degeìyē | kargeíyē | tsargeíyè |

INDEFINITE I. INDEFINTTE II. PERFEGT. AORIST. FUTURE
wu gếreskin gérẹskē gêreskī kirgêreskō tšigèreskō
ni gếrẹmin gêrem gếrẹmī kirgérem tširgêrem
s̆i tsergérin tsegrgêre tsẹrgềvi kirgếrō tširgêro
ándi gếrēn gếrè gêrē kirgè́rè tširgềrè

sándi tsargêrin tsargêre tsargếrī kergềrō ts̆argêrō

The $e$ of géreskin is often changed in the third person into $\varrho$, as tsergę́rin, tsargérerin, \&c. Degáskin is only used in the first conjugation; bäfuskin has in the fourth conjugation, yitẹbäfúskin, and then means " to cook," transitive. Géreskin has in the fourth conjugation, yirgetreskin, and the third conjugation we subjoin in full.

INDEFINITE I. INDEFINITE II. PERFECT. AORIST. FUTURE.
wu tęrgéregskin tergêreskē tęrgéręski katergêręskōtatęrgéresskō
 s̈i tęrgérin tergêre tergềri katẹrgérō tatęrgérō ändi tẹrgêrēn̄ tegrgêrrē tęrgêrē katergếrè tatẹrgềrē nándi tẹrgêruwi tergér̄u tẹrgếruwi katergềrū tatẹrgérù sándi targêrin targêrẹ targêri katargếrō tatargérō
$\epsilon$. The verb wáreskin, "I am sick.
§. 79. This verb is properly regular, and the forms which are peculiar to it arose simply from the euphonic changes to which $w$ is liable. We now give its full inflection.

| inderi | inte i. | indefinite | perfect. | Aorist. | future. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | wáresskin | wăresskè | wáreski | kíwāreskō | tšüareskō |
| $n i$ | wâremin | wáreqm | wárẹmı | kiwārem | tšúărem |
| $\stackrel{3}{ } i$ | tsuárin | tsuárẹ | tsuấri | kíwārō | tşưärō |
| ándi | wárēn | wárè | wáré | kíwārè | tşúärè |
| nándi | wáruwī | wárū | wáruwà | kíwāra | tšưārū |
| sándi | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tsawárin } \\ \text { \& tsouár } \end{array}\right.$ | tsawáre \& tsouáre | tsawárí tsouár | kéwārō | ts̆áauārō |

2. Inflection of verbs in skin, beginning with y.
a. Such verbs with monosyllabic roots.
§. 80. This class contains only two verbs, one with the vowel $i$, and the other with the vowel $e$, viz. yiskin, "I give," and yés.skin, "I drink;" but they differ so much from each other, that it will be necessary to inflect them both. They only occur in the first conjugation.

INDEFINITE I.

| wu | yiskin | y'iskē | yískī | $k \underline{e} s k o ̄$ | $t s$ éskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | $y^{\frac{1}{\text { a min }}}$ | yı̄m | $y^{\frac{1}{2} m \bar{\imath}}$ | kēm | tsē$m$ |
| $8 i$ | tsĩn | tsō | $t s$ ®̄ | keínö | tšeíno |
| ándi | ẙyēn | $y^{\frac{1}{2}} y \bar{e}$ | $y^{\frac{1}{2} y e}$ | kéyë | tšeíyè |
| nándi | yư $w \bar{z}$ | $y \bar{u}$ | $y^{\frac{1}{u}} w \bar{\imath}$ | kéou | tšéou |
| sándi | tsádin | tsáde | tsádī | kédō | $t s$ édo |
| wu |  | yéo $s k \bar{e}$ | yêe $8 k \stackrel{\text { c }}{ }$ | késkō | tšéskō |
| $n i$ | yámin | $y \bar{a} m$ | yấmà | kéām | tšām |
| $\breve{s i}$ | tsei | $t s \bar{a}$ | tsei | kéa | $t s \bar{a}$ |
| ándi | yeíyēn | yêy $y$ ēd | yeiyé | kéyè | tšéyẽ |
| nándi | yáwī | yau | $y$ áa ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kéau | $t s$ ¢ ${ }_{\text {cu }}$ |
| sándi | tsásei | $t s \dot{a} s \bar{a}$ | tsásei | késā | tšés $s \bar{a}$ |

§: 81. b. The verb yáaskin, or yátęskin, " I carry," corresponds to the verbs in §. 74, and is conjugated as follows-


INDEFINITE I.
wu gêreskin $n i$ gếremin s̆i tsẹrgérin ändi gếrēn nándi géruwī sändi tsargêrin tsargềre tsargêrī

AORIST.
indefinite il. perfect.
gêreskē gêreskkī gếrẹm gêrẹñ tsergêre tsergêerı gérè gè gérè gérū gêruw̄
kirgérẹskō
tšigéreskō tširgếrẹm tširgếrō tširgérè tširgérū tšargérō

The $e$ of géreskin is often changed in the third person into e, as tsęrgę́rin, tsargę́rin, \&c. Degáskin is only used in the first conjugation; bäfúskin has in the fourth conjugation, yitȩbäfúskin, and then means " to cook," transitive. Géreskin has in the fourth conjugation, yirgéreskin, and the third conjugation we subjoin in full.
indefinte i. indefinite in. perfect. aorist. future.
wu tẹrgêreskin tẹrgếrẹskē tẹrgêreskī katergéresskōtatẹrgéreskō ni tergếrẹmin tẹrgêrẹn tergêrẹn katẹrgérẹm tatérgêrẹ̣ s̈i tęrgérin tęrgếre tergérī katergérō tatęrgérō ándi tẹrgérèn tẹrgérē tẹrgérē katergérē tatẹrgérē nändi tęrgếruwì tęrgêrū tęrgéruwi katergêrū tatẹrgềrū sándi targérin targéres targérī katargêrō tatargérō

> є. The verb wáreskin, "I am sick.
§. 79. This verb is properly regular, and the forms which are peculiar to it arose simply from the euphonic changes to which $w$ is liable. We now give its full inflection.

| indepi | I. | inderinite it | perfect. | AORIST. | future. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | wáreskin | wáreskè | wáresskì | kíwāreskō | tšüäreskō |
| $n i$ | wáremin | wárém | wáremı | kíwärem | tšüärem |
| $8 i$ | tsuárin | tsuăre | tsuárī | kíwārō | tšūärō |
| ándi | wárèn | wárè | wárè | kíwārē | tšưärè |
| nándi | wáruwì | wárū | wáruwì | kíwārù | tšüārū |
| di | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tsawárin } \\ \text { \& tsouár } \end{array}\right.$ | tsawáre \& tsouáre | tsawárí \& tsouárí | kéwārō | tşáwārō |

## 2. Inflection of verbs in skin, beginning with y.

a. Such verbs with monosyllabic roots.
§. 80. This class contains only two verbs, one with the vowel $i$, and the other with the vowel $e$, viz. yiskin, "I give," and yêskkin, "I drink;" but they differ so much from each other, that it will be necessary to inflect them both. They only occur in the first conjugation.
indefintte .

| wu | yiskin | yiskē | yískī | kééskō | trơéskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | yı̂min | yı̄m | $y^{\frac{1}{2} m \bar{~}}$ | kẹm | tşēm |
| $\stackrel{4}{8}$ | tšัก | $t s{ }_{0}$ | tšて | keínō | tşériō |
| ándi | yıtyèn | $y^{\frac{1}{2} y \bar{e}}$ | y ${ }^{\text {f }}$ y ${ }_{\text {e }}$ | keíyē | tşéiyè |
| nándi | yúw | $y \bar{u}$ | yứwī | kétou | tšéou |
| sándi | tsádin | tsáde | tsádī | kédō | tşédo |
| wu | yésskin | yeteskè | yêèskù | $k{ }_{\text {c }}^{\text {éskō }}$ | tsèsekō |
| ni | yámin | $y \bar{a} m$ | yấmù | kéām | tšäm |
| $\breve{s} i$ | tsei | $t s \bar{a}$ | tsei | kéa | $t \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{c} \vec{a}$ |
| ándi | yeíyēn | yéeyė\& | yeíyé | kêéyè | tšes ye |
| nándi | $y^{\text {à }}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | yau | $y^{\text {áwì }}$ | kéau | ts̆au |
| sándi | tsásei | $t s \dot{a} s \bar{a}$ | tsásei | kés ${ }_{\text {a }}$ | $t s{ }_{\text {ces }}$ |

§: 81. b. The verb yá́skin, or yáatękin, " I carry," corresponds to the verbs in $\S .74$, and is conjugated as follows-

|  | \{yááskin | $y^{\underline{a} s k} k \bar{e}$ | $y \text { áaskī }$ | keáskō | $t^{\prime} \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{a} \dot{c} s k o ̄$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | \{yăteskin | yáteske | $y^{\text {átecski}}$ | keáteskō | ts̆ătegskō |
| $n i$ | yáatemin | yâtem | yátęmī | keáterm | ts̆ătem |
| $\stackrel{3}{\text { si }}$ | tsátion | tsáte | tsátí | keátō | ts̆áto $o$ |
| ándi | yátēn | yắtē | yátē | keâtè | tšátē |
| nándi | $i$ yátuwi | yátū | $y^{\text {átuw }}$ ì | keâtú | tsátu |
| sándi | tsasåtin | tsásäte | tsasáti | kesááō | ts̆asátó |

c. Polysyllabic verbs in skin, beginning with $y$.
§. 82 . This class of verbs must again be subdivided according to the different formation of the third personin the Indefinite $I$ :part of them, i.e. all those whose last radical vowel is $a$, employing $i$ for this purpose, which then unites with the radical $a$ into the diphthong ei; and part of them, i.e. all those whose last radical vowel is either $e$ or $u$, using the termination $n$, which then invariably changes the preceding $e$ or $u$ into $i$. But as most of the verbs constituting these two classes have also some other peculiarities, especially in forming the aorist and future tenses, it will be necessary to give the inflection of more than one verb from each class.
$\alpha$. Polysyllabic verbs whose last radical vowel is a.
§. 83. Three verbs will be required to illustrate the inflection of this class, viz. yakkáraskin, "I teach," (probably itself the causative conjugation of karáskin, " I read,") yēsáskin, "I repair," yirgáskin, "I add." The minor differences in the inflection of these three verbs seem to depend on the vowel directly after the initial $y$, viz. $a, e, i$, which undergo different changes. After the first of these three verbs yaingaingáskin, "I mimic," is inflected, after the second: yéseráskin, "I cough;" yëtseráskin, "I believe ;" but the third stands by itself.
indefinite i. indefinite if. perfect. aorist. future.
vu
$n i$
$\overleftarrow{8 i}$

## ándi

 yakkáraskin yakkáraskē yakkáraskī kēakkáraskō ts̊akkáraskō yakkárāmin yakkárām yākkárāmı kēakkárām ts̊akkárām tsakkárei tsakkárä tsakkárei kēakkárā ts̆akkárā $\left\{\begin{array}{l}y a k k a ́ r e i y e n ~ y a k k a ́ r e i y e ̀ ~ y a k k a ́ r e i y e ̄ ~ k e ̄ a k k a ́ r e i y e ̄ ~ t s ̆ a k k a ́ r e i y e ̄ ~\end{array}\right.$ \{ \&yakkárèn \& yakkárē \& yakkárēnándi yakkárāwi yakkárau yakkárāwi kēakkárau tsakkárau sándi $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tsakkárei \& tsakkárā \& tsakkárei \& kēakkárā \& tsesesakkárā } \\ \text { tsasakirei }\end{array}\right.$ \{tsasakkárei tsasakkárā tsasakkárei kesakkárā

Indefinite i. indefinite in. perfect.
wu yēsáskin yēsáskē yēsáskī,
$n i$ yasámin yásām yësá́mī,
ši tsásei tsásā tsásei,
ándi yëseíyēn yēseíyē yēseíyē,
nándi yasáwī yásau yasấwī,
sándi
$\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { tsásei \& } & \text { tsásā \& } & \text { tsásei \& } \\ \text { tsasásei } & \text { tsasásā } & \text { tsasásei, }\end{array}\right.$
wu yirgáskin yïrgáskē yirgáskī kírgáskō ts̆irgáskō
$n i$ yirgámin yírgām yirgámī kírgām tšírgām
s̆i tsệ́rgei tsérga $\quad$ tsẹ́rgei kírgā ts̆irgā
ándi yirgeíyēn yirgéyē yirgeíyē kirgéyè ts̈irgeíyē
nándi yi̛rgá̀wì yírgau yirgáà kírgau tširgau sándi $\begin{cases}\text { tsárgei \& tsárga \& tsárgei \& kesárgā tséesárgā } \\ \text { tsasárgei } & \text { tsasárgā } \\ \text { tsasárgei }\end{cases}$
aorist. FUTURE.
kēasáskō tšēasáskō
kếasām t tsééasām
kéas $\bar{a} \quad t s ̌ e ́ a s a \bar{a}$
kếseiyē tšéseiyē
kếasau tš̌̌asau
kếasã \& tšéasa \& tsésásā

Of the third and fourth conjugations we only give the first person, as the others can be easily formed, and are of very rare occurrence.

Conjugation III.
indefinite i.
wu takkáraskin wu tasáskin wu tergáskin

| indefinite in. | aORist. | FUTURE. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| takkáraskē | katakkáraskō | tataklkáraskō |
| tasáskē | katetáskō | tatetáskō |
| tęrgáskē | katergáskō | tatęgáskō |

Conjugation. IV.
wu yitȩakkáraskin yitȩyakkáraskē yitȩkēakkáraskō yitẹts̆akkáraskō wu yiteyēsáskin wu yiteyirgáskin
yiteyēsáskē yitękēasáskō yitẹtšēasáskō
yiteyirgáskē kitẹkirgáskō tsuitetširgáskō
$\beta$. Polysyllabic verbs whose last radical vowel is $e, i$, or $u$.
$\alpha \alpha$. Such verbs with $a$ for their first vowel.
§. 84. Of this class of verbs yargáleskin, "I mind ;" yámbuskin, "I beget;" yardúgeskin, " I accompany;" yärugéskin,
"I redeem;" are all inflected alike, but yäkẹskin, "I put," deviates in several points.
indefinite i. indefinite in. perfect. aorist. future.troutio \& ftsargálin \& tsargále \& tsargálī \& kesargálō tšesargálō ttsasargálin tsasargále tsasargálī

| wu | yäkȩskin | $y a ̈ k e ́ s k e ̀ ~$ | $y a ̈ k e ́ s k i ̄$ | kèakéskō | tšēakéskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | yäkémin | yâkem | yākémì | kêakerm | tš̌akẹm |
| $\stackrel{4}{s}$ | tsákin | tsáke | tsákī | kéákō | tš̌éakō |
| ándi | yékēn | yékee | yékē | kêkē | tséékè |
| nándi | yákuwì | yákù | yákuwī | kéakū | tsééakū |
| sándi | tsasákin | tsasáke | tsasákī | kesákō | tşesákō |

Of the third and fourth conjugation it will be sufficient to give merely the first person.
indefintit i. indefinite if. perpegt aorist. future. wu targáleskin targálęskē targáleskī katargálęskō tatargáleskō wu tākéskin täkẹ́skē tākẹ́ski katagẹ́sgō tatakéskō wu yiteyargáleskin ——skē ——skī yìtekergáleskō yitẹtşergáleskō wu yiteyäkéskin ——skē ——skī yitegēagéskō yitẹts̆akẹskō
$\beta \beta$. Such verbs with $e$ and $i$ for their first vowel.
§. 85. We only met with two verbs of this description, viz. yëtsę̧kkin, "I kill," and yifuskin, "I buy;" the inflection of both of which must be given.


| wu | yffuskin | yífuskè | yîfuskī | keifuskō | tseífuskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ni | yifümin | yifum | yifumi | keifum | tseifum |
| $s i$ | tsťfin | tšifu | tšifi | keifö | tseifó |
| di | yffên | y $\ddagger$ fee | $y^{\frac{1}{4} \hat{e}}$ | keffè | tseife |
| nándi | ytuwi | $y^{\text {f }}$ 嗉 | $y^{\text {y }}$ ifuwi | keifu | tseifu |
| sándi | tsás̛̆̆fin | tsásurifu | $t s \dot{\alpha} \grave{s} i f \bar{\imath}$ | késurifō | tşéséfo |

The fourth conjugation is formed as usual ; in the third, yifuskin does not occur, and yëttséskin loses its radical $s$, and becomes tetetéskin, "I kill myself."

| INDEFINITE I. | INDEFINITE II. | PERFECT. | AORIST. | FUtURE. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu tētéskin | tētéskè | tëtẹski | katētéskō | tatêtéskō |
| $n i$ téteromin | tétem | tétemà | katêtẹm | tatétem |
| sì tétin | téte | tétı | katétō | tatête |
| ándi tétèn | tét ${ }_{\text {e }}$ | têtè | katétè | tatêtè |
| nándi tétuwi | têtù | tétuwi | katétù | tatét $\hat{u}$ |
| sándi tetétin | tetéte | tetétı | katéta | tatéta |

$\gamma \gamma$. Such verbs with e or $u$ for their first vowel.
§. 86. There is only one verb with the vowel e, viz. yembuiluskin, "I fill," and three with the vowel $u$, viz. yundưskin, "I swallow;" yärúskin, "I fall," and yúwüreskin, or yíuüresskin, "I laugh," the inflection of all of which had better be given, as it presents some minor differences in each case.

## INDEFINITE I INDEFINITE II. PERFECT. AORIST. FUTURE

wu yembúluskin yembúluskè yembúluskīkimbúluskō tšimbúluskō
nu yembúlumin yembúlum yembúlumīkimbúlum tšimbúlum
s̆i tsumbúlin tsumbúle tsumbúlī kimbúlō tšimbúlō
ándi yẹmbúlēn yombúlē yembúlē kimbúlē ts̈imbúlē nándi yembúluwì yembúlù yembúluw kimbúlù ts̆imbúl̄̄ sándi tsasambútin tsasambúte tsasambúlī kesambúlō tşesambùlō
modinite t. endefintre in. perfect. wu yundúskin yundúskē yundúskī $\begin{array}{lll}n i & \text { yundúmin yúndum } & \text { yundúmī } \\ \text { sui } & \text { tsúndin tsúnde } & \text { tsúndī }\end{array}$ ándi yúndèn yúndè yúndē nándi yúnduwī yúnd $\bar{u}$ yúnduw̄̄ sándi tsasúndin tsasúndè tsasúnd̄̀

| yürúskin | yürúskē | yūru'skı̄ | kourúskö | tsourúskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ yứrumin | yứrum | yứrumā | kóırum | tsoúrum |
| s̆i tsúrin | tsúre | tsúri | koúrō | tsoúrō |
| àndi yứrēn | yứrē | yứrē | koúrē | tsoúre |
| nảndi yûruwī | yưrū | yứuw̄̀ | koúrū | tsoúrū |
| sándi tsasứrin | tsasúre | tsasû́rì | kesoúrō | tšesoúrō |


| wu | yúwûreskin | yúwūreskē | yúwūreskī | koúruskō | tsoúruskō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | yúwūremin | yúwūrum | yúwūręmı̀ | koúrum | tsoúrum |
| $\stackrel{4}{4}$ | tsúwūrin | tsúwūre | tsúwūrī | koúrō | tsoúrō |
| ándi | yúwurēn | уи́wurè | yưwurē | koúrē | tsoúrē |
| nándi | yúwūruwà | yúwurū | yúwūruwì | koúrū | tsoúru |
| sándi | tsasuwúrin | tsasuwure | tsasuwúrì | kesuwúrō | tšesuwúrō |

The third conjugation may be used of yúwureskin, viz. túwüreskin, "I laugh at myself;" and the fourth of yúwūreskin and yürúskin, viz. yukúruskin, "I laugh at another," and yukíruskin, "I fall on something."
indgfintte i. indefintite in. perfect. aorist. future. wu túwūreskin túwūreskē túwūresk̄̄ katúwūreskō tatúwüreskō ni túwūremin túwūrem túwăremī katúwârem tatúwürem s̈̀ túwūrin túwūre túwūrī katúwurō tatúwurō ándi túwūrēn túwūrē túwūrē katúwurē tatúwurē nándi túwūruw̄̄ túwūr̄̄ túwūrwwī katúwurū tatúwurū

indefinite i. tndefinte if. perfect. aorist. future. nándi yukúruwī sándi tsasakúrin
ándi yukúrēn, yukúrē yukúrē kikúrē ts̆ukúrē
yukúruskē yukúruskī kikúruskō tšukúruskō
yukúrum yukúrumī kikúrum ts̆ukúrum
tsukúre tsukúrī kikúrō tsoukùro yukúr̄̄ yukúruwī kikúrū tšukúrū tsasaküre tsasakúrī kesakúrō tséesakúrō

## V. Moods of the verbs.

All the forms of verbs in $\S \S .65-86$ being those of the Indicative mood, we now consider that we have done with this, and shall proceed at once to the remaining moods; viz.

## 1. The Imperative Mood.

§. 87. There are particular imperative forms for the 2 d per. sing. and pl., and for the 1st per. pl.

Conjugation I. The imperative is formed of -
a. Verbs in ngin, by changing nęmin into né, nuwì into nógō, and nyen into nyogo, as:

2d person singular. 2d person plural. 1st person plural. lèné," go thou" lênógō, " go ye" lếnyogõ," let us go " dāné," "stand thou "dänógō, "stand ye "dánnyogō," let us stand" wollé," return wollógō," return wóllēogō," let us rethou"
ye" turn"
namné," sit thou" namnógō, " sit ye" námnyogō, "let us sit"
b. Verbs in $\operatorname{skin}$ in a variety of ways, viz.

1. The monosyllables form it differently, according as their vowel is either $i$, as in diskin, liskin, yiskin; or $e$, as in yétksin; or $a$ and $u$ as in báskin, gáskin, táskin; búskin, múskin, rúskin.

## $\alpha$. Vowel $i$ :

| 2d person singular. $d \bar{e}, \quad " \text { do " }$ | 2d person plural. dégō \& déogō | 1 st pers dйyogō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $l \bar{e}$, "learn" | lếgō \& léogò | lưyogō |
| $y e \vec{e}$ "give" | yégoo \& yéogō | yйyogō |

$\beta$ Vowel $e$ :
ad person singular.
$y \bar{a}$, "drink"
$\gamma$ Vowel $a$ and $u$ :

2. Verbs which may be considered monosyllabic or dissyllabic, (see §. 74), form their imperative either like the second and third conjugations of verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$, or like the polysyllabic verbs in skin. The following instances belong to the latter:-

3. Polysyllabic verbs form their imperative differently, according as their final radical vowel is either $a$ or $e$ and $u$.
$\alpha$. The final vowel $a$ :
2 d person singular. $\quad 2 \mathrm{~d}$ per. pl. $\quad$ Sst person plural. degeí \& degá, "follow" degeíga . degeíyogō yakkárei," teach" yakkáreigo yakkárēogō yếsei," repair"
$\beta$. The final vowel $e$ or $u$ :
dóré, "pick" dó́rogō dórrēogō from dóreskin gámbé,"scratch" gámbogō gámbēogō .. gámbuskin gêre, "tie" gếrogō gêrēogō .. géreskin

| 2d person singular. | 2 d Per. PL. | 1st plr. pl. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| káse, " run " | kásogō | kásus $\bar{e} o g o \bar{o}$ from | káseskin |
| ládé, " sell " | ládogō | $\left\{\begin{array}{ll} l a ́ d e ̄ g o ̄ ~ \& ~ & \ldots \\ \text { ládēogō } \end{array} \quad .\right.$ | ládẹskin |
| láré, " rejoice" | lárogō | lárèogō | láreskin |
| rembé, " pay " | rembógó | rembéogó | rembúskin |
| rôre, "take out" | rốrogō | rốreogō | roreskin |
| sirire "flay " | s̈rrtogō | şırıtēogō | surrteskin |
| yârūgé, " redeem" | yãrugógō | yārugêogō .. | yärúgeskin |
| yundé, "swallow" | yundógō | yundêogō | yundúskin |

$\gamma$. Two verbs deviating from the above, viz. yifuskin, "I buy," $\frac{1}{\text { tegeskin, " I come." }}$
2d person singular. 2d per. pl. 1 lst person plural. yífê, "buy " áre, "come"
yifogō
árogō
yífèogō


Note: The final $\underline{e}$ is sometimes dropped, imperative expressions aspiring after the greatest possible shortness; e.g, dān' dúgō lérigē, "Stop till I go!" al' lênyē, for áre lênyē, "Come, let us go!" tšin" āntsánnem gōné! "Rise, take thy things."

Conjugation II. This forms the imperative similarly to conjugation I, as-

2D PERSON SINGULAR. dágené, "stand upon" rúfügené," " write for" bóggené, "lie upon"

2d per. pl. Ist per. pl.
dágęnógó dágēogō from dágeskin rúfúgènógō rufúgēogō . . rufúgeskin bógenógō bógēogõ . . bógeskin

Conjugation III. Here again a division must be made between verbs in $\dot{n}$ gin and verbs in skin.
a. Verbs in igin form their imperative similarly to the second conjugation-

2D person singular. rítené, " fear thyself" wútęné,"look at thyself" wûtenoógö wútēogō .. wúteskin
b. Verbs in skin require a division into the following two classes :

1. Verbs whose last radical vowel is $a$, and monosyllabic verbs with the vowel $u$.

2d person singular.
takkárei," teach thyself" tásei, " prepare thyself" túrui, " see thyself"

2d person pl.
takkáreigō
taseígō
túruigō

IST PER. PL.
takkárēogō from takkáraskin taseíyogō .. tasáskin turuíyogō .. túruskin
2. Polysyllabic verbs whose last vowel is either $e$ or $u$.

| tẹla dedé, " sell thyself" $^{\text {a }}$ | télãdógō | téladégoo or tẹlladéogō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tegâre, "tattoo thyself" | tegárogō | tegárègō or tégáréoogō |
| tergêre, " tie thyself" | tergérogō | tergérègō |
| télifjé, " guard thyself" | télīfógo | télifégóo |
| degámbe, "scratch thyself | ' degámbogō | degámbèogõ |

Conjugation IV derives its forms from Conjugation II, as yitẹwúgené," cause to see " yiteqứgenógō yitewúgē̃ogō yigdé," do for one" yigdóyō yigdéogō yígeladé," sell for one " yígęladógō yígeladéogō

## 2. The Negative Mood.

§. 88. This mood is formed of the second indefinite and the future tense. In the first case the $g \bar{e}$ or $k \bar{e}$ of $\dot{n} g \bar{e}$ or skē become gani, of which, however, only the second syllable appears to be the negative sign; the second person adds mi, which is doubtless a euphonic alteration of $n i$; the third person adds $n i$ : in plural the first person adds ndế; the second wi, which also appears to be a euphonic substitution for $n i$; and the 3 d per. pl. likewise adds $n i$. In the second case the future terminations trosko and skō become tsasganí and sganí; tsono, of the 3d per. sing., becomes tsanni; and tsou, of the 2d per. pl., becomes tsäwi, which probably stands for tsouni. The other persons of the future coincide with the second indefinite. It would therefore appear, that, with the only exception of the Ist per. pl., negation is expressed throughout this mood bv the ter-
mination $n$ í, which is doubtless identical with the Germanic prefix $n i$ or $n$ in words like " nought, neither, never, neuter," \&c., and with the negative particle gani. It may even be asked, whether the negative termination of the lst per. sing. is not this very negative particle gane itself. The negative mood has always a strong accent on its last syllable, so that all the words are doubly accented.

Conjugation I. Here we give the negative indefinite in the first column, and the corresponding negative future in the second, of the following verbs: wúnigin, "I look;" kāránigin, " I approach;" wólingin, " I return;" séngin," I disentangle;" dískin, " I do;" yískin, "I give;" táskin, "I catch;" yệskin, "I drink ;" rúskin, " I see;" yundúskin, "I swallow ;' ladéskin, " I sell;" and yargálęskin, " I mind."

NEGATIVE INDEFINITE.
wu $n i$ s̆i ändi wúnyendê kärạnnnyendê nándi wúnnwồ kāráninnūwí sándi wútsāni kāragảntsāní
wu wólngăní sẹ́ngạní
ni wóllẹmmi sénnemmí
ši wóltsení séntsení ándi wóllendế sẹnnyendé nándi wólluwt sénénnuwí sándi wóltsäní señtsäni
wu dísgạní yísganí
ni dîmmí yîmmí
ši tsẹ́dẹní tš̌̀ní
ándi dốyendế yầyendé
nándi dêwó yúwó
sándi tsádęní tsádẹní

NEGATIVE FUTURE.
wútsasgani kärá̛ñtsasganı wútsammi käránitsammi
wứtsanní kärọntsanni
wưtseiyendé kárạ́ntseiyendé
wûtsäwí kārg̣ñtsāwí
wưt ${ }^{\circ} \alpha d a ̄ n i ́$
wóltsasganí
wóltsammí
wóltsanni
wóltseiyendé
wóltsāwí
wólts̆adāní
tšudisgagní
tšidimmi
ts̆̀dęni
tš̌idīyendê
tšídûwí
ts̊édenní
kärạn ${ }^{n}$ ş̆adāni
sẹ́ntsasgạní
sẹ́ntsammí
séntsanní
séntseiyendé
sẹ́ntsāwí
sẹ́ntšadāní
těésgani
tšémmí
tsééní
tšeíyendé
tšóviwí
tséédeni

## NEGATIVE INDEFINITE.

| wu tásgani | yêsganí |
| :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ támmí | yámmí |
| sui tsętãni | tsání |
| ándi teíyendé | yếyendé |
| nándi táwí | yáwí |
| sándi tsátāní | tsásāní |
| wu rúsganí | yúndusganí |
| ni rúmmí | yúndummí |
| ši tsúrūní | tsúndüné |
| ándi ruéyendè | yúndendé |
| nándi rúwó | yúnd̄uwí |
| sándi tsárūnź | tsasúndūné |

wu ladẹ́sganí yargálesgani
ni ládemmí yargálèmmí
s̆i tseládẹní tsargálęní
ándi ládēndé yargálendè
nándi ládūwí yargáānwí sándi tsaládẹní tsasargálẹní

NEGATIVE FUTURE.
$\left\{\begin{array}{r}t \text { šésgani or } \\ \text { tšiásgąni }\end{array}\right.$
tšitămmí ts̆ámmí
tšitāní ts̆ăní
tš̌teiyendé tšeíyendé
tšitäáwí ts̆ăwí
tšätāni těésäní
ts̆ir?usgạni tšíndusganí
tšívummí ts̆ưndummí
tš̌nūnи tšündunā
tširuiyendế tšưndendé
tširvūwi ts̆úndūwi
ts̆ánūnỉ ts̆asúndūní
ts̆iládesganí ts̆argálesganí
ts̆iládẹmmi ts̆argálẹmmí
tšiládẹni ts̆argáleni
ts̆iládēndê ts̆argálendé
ts̆iládūwí ts̆argálūwí
tšeládẹní ts̆argálení

Conjugation II-Two instances will suffice here, that of wúrigin, " I look," and námgin, " I sit."
wu wúgesgani nábgesganí
ni wúgemmí nábgemmí
s̆i wútsegeni náptsegeni
ándi wúgendê nábgendè nándi wúgûwí nábgūwi sándi wútsagāní nâptsagāní
wútŏigesganí
wútšigemmí
wưtšigeni
wútšigendé
wútš̀igūwz
wúts̊agāní
náptšigesganí náptšigemmí náptšigeni náptšigendê nápts̆igūwí
náptšagāní

Conjugation III.-This will be illustrated by the verbs, wúnigin "I see," yargáleskin "I mind," yíwūreskin, "I laugh," and yëtsẹ́skin, " I kill."

NEGATIVE INDEFINITE.

## wu

$n i$

$$
\check{s i} i
$$

ándi wútendế targálendé nándi wútúwí targálūwi sándi wútāni targálęní
wu túwūrȩsgąní tētésgani
ni túwūrẹmmi têtẹmmí
s̆i túwūręní têtęní
ándi túwūrendế tétendé
nándi túwūrūwi tétūwí sándi tatúwûręní tetêtęní

NEGATIVE FUTURE.
'wútatesganí tatargálesganí wûtatemmí tatargálemmí wútatẹni tatargálẹné wútatendê tatargálendé wútatūwí tatargálūwí wútatāni tatargálęní tatưwūresganni tatêtesganí tatúwūrẹmmi tatétẹmmí tatúwūrẹní tatêtẹni tatúwūrendé tatêtendé tatúwūrūwi tatêtūwi tatatúwūreni ${ }^{2}$ tatêtāní

The fourth conjugation is the same as the second, with the prefix yite.

## 3. The Conjunctional Mood.

§. 89. This answers to the Conditional Mood of other languages, and on this account we might have called it by that name; but as its use is peculiar in Kanuri, inasmuch as it expresses merely a time relation, and serves as the great connective of propositions, we prefer the more characteristic name of conjunctional. If it were not a contradiction in terms, we might have named it "the Temporal Mood." Its formal nature is still very obvious: it was probably nothing else, originally, than a preterite tense, with the enclitic suffix of the adverb $y \bar{a}$, " if, when," which, in the course of time, so fully coalesced with it into one word, as now to constitute a distinct form for the conjunctional mood. The supposition that this mood was originally formed by the suffix $y \bar{a}$, gains considerable support from forms like bálīya or bálīa for the simple báli, "tomorrow." Thus we met with the two following passages: ni yim lénnẹm bág gōya, "at the time when thou dost not sleep," and wátšīa sẹbāya lérigē, "I will go to-morrow morning;"
lit, " when to-morrow, when morning." This suffix $y \bar{a}$, and the second syllable of the word kwōyá, are likely to have the closest radical affinity with the conjunction $t \stackrel{\Delta}{a} a$.

The conjunctional mood, which always stands in a subordinate proposition, has two different forms, in order to express whether the energy of the verb in the principal proposition, is to be considered as exercised antecedent or subsequent to the time of speaking.

The first we call the Past Conjunctional, and the second the Future Conjugational.
a. The past conjunctional mood is derived from the aorist tense of the first conjugation by changing goskō into gasgán ${ }^{\prime} \bar{a}$, or skō into skany $\bar{a}$, as from wúgoskō, wūgasgg̣nyy $\bar{a}$. " when I had looked;" from nábgoskō, nabgasgợny $\bar{a}$," when I had sat down;" from kálaggoskō, kalaggasgányyä, " when I had turned;" from pésgoskō, pēsgasgǵnnyā, " when I had fanned;" from kiladẹ́skō,
 "when I had given;" from keífuskō, keifusgónyā ; from kéeskō, kęggạ́nyā, " when I had drunk."


The second and third conjugations need no further illustration, as they are inflected entirely like the first, gigeskō,
being changed into gigesgạ́ny $\bar{a}$, and gatepskō into gatesgạ̀ny $\bar{a}$, or skō into sgắny $\bar{a}$.

The conjunctional mood of the verb ngin is again identical with the mere terminatons of the other verbs (vide §. 64.); as, wu gasgắnyā, ni gámiā, s̆i gányā, ándi geiéndeä, nándi goáyā, sándi ged dányā.
b. The Future Conjunctional Mood is derived from the perfect tense, by simply suffixing $y a$, of which suffix the $y$ is generally dropped after $i$. We therefore only give the first conjugation of the following four verbs: nẹ́skīa, "when I shall have said ;" wúngīa, " when I shall have looked;" diskīa, " when I shall have done ;" and búskīa, " when I shall have eaten."

| wu | nésskīa | wúngiou | dískīa | búskia |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | némīa | wúnẹmāa | dímīa | búmāa |
| $\stackrel{\text { ci }}{ }$ | tsénĩa | wut ${ }^{\text {ctsioza }}$ | tsédiùa | tsébuiya |
| úndi | nyéa | wúnyēya | díyēya | buíyëya |
| nándi | núwīa | wúnuwia | díwāa | búwzà |
| sándi | tsánīa | wutseiya | tsádīa | tsábuiya |

## 4. The Participial Mood.

§. 90. The Kanuri language possesses a verbal form, which governs an object, and is used, at the same time, as a noun or adjective. In these respects it entirely corresponds to the participle of other languages. But, unlike the common participle, it is also regularly inflected, according to the different persons, tenses, and conjugations. It is to remind us of all these peculiarities, that we name it the Parlicipial Mood.

The participial mood is used in three different tenses, the present, past, and future ; and, accordingly, we shall have to speak of a present, past, and future participial. Its characteristic is uniform: it terminates in $n a$ in the 1st and 3d pers. sing. and pl., in the 2 d per. sing., $n a$, by assimilation, becomes ma and in the 2 d per. pl. euphonic laws change it into wa.
a. The Present Participial is derived from the second indefinite tense, whose final $g \bar{e}$ or $k \bar{e}$, in the lst per. sing., through the influence of the suffix $n a$, become changed into ga. We illustrate this form by inflecting the verbs wúngąna, "I am looking;" mángąna, "I am drawing tight;" ladẹ́sgåna, " I am selling ;" géresgą̣na, " I am tying."

Conjugation I.

| wu | wúngana | mángàna | ladésgana | gêresgana |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | wúnemma | mánnemma | ladémma | gêrẹmma |
| $8{ }^{\text {si }}$ | wútsena | máttsena | tselćádena | tserrgérena |
| ándi | wúnyêna | mánnyēna | ládèna | gérēna |
| nándi | wúnūwa | mánnüwa | ládūwa | gérūwa |
| sándi | wútsāna | mâttsāna | tsaládẹna | tsargérena |

Conjugation II.
wu wúgesgana mádgesgana
ni wúgemma mádgemma
s̆i wútsegena máttsegẹna
ándi wúgèna mádyēna nándi wúgūwa mádgūwa
sándi wútsagāna máttsagāna

Conjugation III.

| wu wútesgana | máttesgàna | teladésgana | tergéresgana |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ni wútemma | máttemma | telládermma | tergêrẹmma |
| $\breve{s i}$ - wútena | máttena | tel ${ }^{\text {ádẹna }}$ | tergérena |
| ándi wútèna | máttèna | tẹládèna | tergérēna |
| nándi wútūwa | máttūwa | telládūwa | tergérūuwa |
| sándi wútäna | máttāna | taládẹna | targérena |

The fourth conjugation is obtained by prefixing yitg to the second conjugation of verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$, or to the first conjugation of verbs in skin.
b. The Past Participial is derived from the aorist tense, of which the termination goskö, in the first person, becomes gasgana, and gonō, in the third person, ganna.

## Conjugation I.

wu wúgåsgåna mádgaşgåna kiladẹ́sgåna kirgéressgàna
ni wúgamma mádgamma kiládẹmma kirgérẹmma
ši wúganna mádganna kiládẹna kirgếrena
ándi wúgeiyēna mádgeiyēna kiládēna kirgérēna
nándi wúgọuva mádgouwa kiládūwa kirgérūwa
sándi wúgedāna mádgédāna
keládẹna kergérèna

## Conjugation II.

wu wúgigesgena mátkīgesgena
ni wágigemma mátkīgemma
s̆i wúgigena mátkĭgena
ándi wágigēna mátkīgēna
nándi wúgìgūwa mátkigūwa
sándi wúgegāna mátkegāna

## Conjugation III.

wu wúgatesgena mádgatęsgẹna katęladésgena katęrgéresgęna ni wúgatẹmma mádgatemma katẹládemmakatergérẹmma ši wúgatẹna mádgatęna katęládẹna katęrgêrẹna ándi wúgatēna mádgatēna katẹládëna katęrgềrēna nándiwúgatūwa mádgatūwa katẹládūwa katergếrūwa sándi wúgatāna mádgatāna katẹládẹna katerrgêrenna
c. The Future Participial is derived from the future tense, of which the termination tsoskō, in the first person, becomes tsasgana, and tsonō in the third person tsanna.

## Conjugation I.

wu wútsasgana
ni wútsamma
ši wútsanna
ándi wútseiyēna nándi wútsouwa sándi wútšedāna
máttsasgqna
máttsamma
máttsanna
máátseiyēna
mâttsouwa
máttĕedāna
tšilādésgana tšiládẹmma ts̊iládena tšiládèna tšiládüwa
tséládęna
tsürgéresgana
ts̊̀irgérẹmma
tširgérena
tširgérēna
tširgérū̃wa
tşergêrenna

## Conjugation II.

wu wúts̆igesgana máttšigesgena
$n i$ wúšigẹmma máttšigemma
ši wúts̆igena máttšigena
ándi wútšigēna máttšigèna
nándi wútšigūwa mátts̆igūwa
sándi wúts̆agāna mátts̆agāna
Conjugation III.
wu wútatèsgẹna máttatẹsgẹna tatęladẹ́sgẹna tatergéresgẹna $n i$ wútatęmma máttatẹma tatęládęmma tatergérrẹmma s̆i wútatena máttatęna tatelládẹna tatergérẹna ándi wútatēna máttatēna tatęládēna tatẹrgéréna nándi wútatūwa máttatūwa tateládūwa tatergérūwa sándi wútatāna máttatāna tatęládẹna tatergérrẹna

The participial mood of the verb $\ddot{n}^{\prime} g i n$ or néskin is again identical with the terminations of the above verbs, as will be seen from the following :

| present participial. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| wu past participial. |  |
| ni néggana | gásgana |
| nímma | gämma |
| s̆i tséna | gánna |
| ándi neíyëna | geíyēna |
| nándi núwa | goúwa |
| sándi tsádena \& tsána | gédāna |

FUTURE PARTICIPIAL.
tsásgana
tsámma
tsánna
tseiyēna
tsoúwa
tsédāna

## VI. Infinitive and Participle.

§. 91. For the formation of the infinitive a separation of the verbs into two classes is again required, viz. those with the termination rigin and those with skin.
a. Verbs terminating in $\dot{n} g i n$ form their infinitive by suffixing $t \rho$ or $t a$, and if this assumes the suffixes $g \ell$ or $g \bar{a}$, we obtain the infinitive of the second conjugation. The third conjugation does not appear to have an infinitive
peculiar to itself, and the infinitive of the fourth is obtained by prefixing yite, indiscriminately either to the first or second infinitive.

| finite verbs. | inf. of conjug.i. | inf. of conjug. if. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wutigin, "I look" | wútẹ, wútà | wútege, | wútagā |
| wólnigin, " I return" | wólte, wólta | wóltege, | wóltagā |
| nạ́mgin, " I break" | námtę, nạ́mtā | námtege, | námtagã |
| námgin, "I sit" | nápte, náptā | náptege, | náptagä |
| séngin, " I disentangle " | sénte, séntā | séntege, | séntagā |
| mángin, "I draw tight" | máattę, máttà | máttege, | máttagà |
| kār ránigin, "I approach " | kāránite kārántā | kāránitege, | kār ${ }^{\text {áñtagā }}$ |
| kálañgin, "I turn" | kálakte, kálaktā | kálaktege, | kálaktagā |
| tẹkkeskin, II. "I lean " |  | téktege, | téktagā |
| tsẹkkeskin, II. "I hasten |  | tsêktege, | tsẹktagā |
| to " |  |  |  |
| nágeskin, II. "I meet " |  | nátege, | nátagā |

§. 92. b. Verbs in skin evince a much greater variety in forming their infinitive; and to obtain a more convenient survey of the same, we have in the first place to retain their division into those without the initial $y$, and those with it.
aa. Infinitive of verbs in skin whose initial is not $\mathbf{y}$.
Two changes have here to be attended to, one at the beginning and the other at the end of the word.
$\alpha$. The change at the beginning of words consists in prefixing a liquid to verbs with the initials, $b, d, t, g, k$. This liquid, being accommodated to the initial consonant, is $m$ before $b, n$ before $d$ and $t$, and $\dot{n}$ before $g$ and $k$. Agreeably to $\$$. 15 , the initial $k$., on receiving the prefix $\dot{n}$, becomes changed into $g$. Hence we get the infinitives:
 from the verbs báskin, búskin, diskin, dútesskin, táskin, tískin, gáskin, gádęskin, kásęskin, and kôreskin; see also §. 26.
$\beta$. The change at the end of words is different, according as the verbal root is either monosyllabic or polysyllabic.
$\alpha \alpha$. Monosyllabic verbal roots separate into the following two classes:

1. Monosyllables with the vowels $a$ and $u$. The only change produced here, is the lengthening of short vowels, as fintte verbs. infinitives. finite verbs. infinitives. báskin, " I mount" ḿm $b \bar{a}$ gáskin, " I follow " $\check{n} g a ̈$ táskin, "I catch" ńtā búskin, "I eat" ḿbū \& mbú
múskin, "I put on" mù rúskin, "I see " $r \bar{u}$ núskin, "I die" $n \bar{u}$
2. Monosyllables with the vowel $\mathbf{i}$. These add the vowel $o$, and then either leave their radical vowel unchanged, or convert it into $\bar{e}$; as-

| finite verbs. | infinitives. |
| :--- | :--- |
| dískin, " I do"" | ndíó, ndéō |
| lískin, "I learn" | liō, léō |
| tískin, "I suffice". | ntióo, ntéō |

Note-tseskin, " I come," the only verb beginning with $i$, follows these verbs, by forming the infinitives, ndiō and ndéó.
ßß. Polysyllabic verbal rools, including some which are frequently contracted into monosyllables, but for our present purpose must be considered as polysyllabic. Most verbs of this class have for their final vowel $\varrho$, a few have $u$, and only one has $a$. The last-mentioned verb, degáskin, "I stop," has in the infinitive, ndégā, and the others form their infinitive by changing the last vowel into $\bar{o}$; as,

| bäfúskin, "I am cooked" | mbáfō |
| :---: | :---: |
| dôreskin, "I pick" | ndôorō |
| dúteskin, "I sew" | $n d$ útō |
| gámbuskin, "I scratch " | ṅgámbō |
| gádeskin, " I murmur " | $\dot{\text { ṅgádō }}$ |
| gándegskin, " I lick " | ṅgándō |
| gágeskin, "I enter" | $\dot{\text { ṅgágō }}$ |
| gendéseskin, "I shake" | ṅgẹ́ndō |
| géreskin, "I gnaw." | ṅgérō |
| gérteskin, " I separate." | ṅgértō |
| géręskin, "I tie" | ṅgêrō |
| káreskkin, "I tattoo " | ǹgárō |
| káseskin, "I run " | rigásō \& kásō |
| kégeskin, "I divide" | $\dot{n} \mathrm{~g}$ éogō \& kégó |
| kéndeskin, "I tie a child on the | ṅgéndō |
| kốreskin, "I ask" | ṅgórō |
| ku̇teskin, \& kúskin, " I bring " | kưtō \& ṅgútō |
| ladẹskin, "I sell" | ládō |
| láreskin, " I rejoice" | lárō |
| lifúskin, "I guard" | lifō |
| lúskin \& lúgeskin, " I come out" | lúgō |
| máskin \& mágeskin, "I accept" | mágō |
| mbăresskin, "I am tired" | mbắrō |
| méreskin, "I recover" | mêrō |
| náskin \& nátesskin, "I plant" | nâtoo |
| nándẹskin, " I bite" | nándō |
| nôskin \& nôteskin, " I send " | nôtō |
| pándeskin, "I get" | pándō |
| pertéskin, "I cut with a sickle" | pértō |
| rágeskin, "I like" | ráagō |
| rembúskin, "I pay" | rẹmbā |
| rốreskin, "I take out" | rórō |
| ságeskiñ, " I unload " | ságoo |
| sángeskin, "I raise" | sáṅgō |
| saṅgéskin, "I awake" | sáṅgō |

ftimt verbs.
sébgeskin, " I forget "
siritegkin, "I flay" támbuskin, "I taste" wârȩ̣kin, "I am sick"
infinitives.
sébgō \& séptag $\bar{a}$
šírtō
támbō
wároō

## bb. Infinitive of Verbs in skin whose initial is not $\mathbf{y}$.

Here also two changes have to be attended to, the one initial, and the other final.
$\alpha$. The change at the beginning of words consists in the exchange of $y$ for $t s$, which then receives a prosthetic $n$; and, besides this, a few verbs change their first vowel.
$\beta$. The change at the end of words is various.
$\alpha \alpha$. The two monosyllabic verbs yéseskin, "I drink," and yískin, "I give," have for their infinitives respectively, $n t s \bar{a}$ and ńtšō, probably for ńtsìo.
$\beta \beta$. The polysyllabic verbs must be considered in reference to their final vowel, viz.-

1. Polysyllabic roots whose last vowel is a, either assume the suffix $i$, which then coalesces with the $a$ into the diphthong $e i$, or only lengthen the $a$; as,
fintte verbs.
yakkaráskin, " I teach " ntsákkarei,* ntsákkarā yēsęráskin, "I cough" ntsásarei, ntsásarā yëtsẹráskīn, "I believe" ntsásarei, ntsásarā yängȧ̈gáskin, " I mimic " ntsáñgaṅgei, ntsánigaṅgā yēsáskin," I repair " yirgáskin," I add"
ntsásei, ntsásā
$n t s e ̨ r g e i, n t s e ̨ r g a \bar{a}$
2. The verb yekkéliskin, "I teach," has in the infinitive $n t s e k k e ̨ l i o ̄$.

[^0]3. Polysyllabic roots whose final vowel is $\varepsilon$ or $u$, generally change the same into $\bar{o}$, but sometimes admit of several changes, as :-


INFINITIVES.
$n t s \dot{r} d u g \bar{o}, n t s a ́ r d \bar{u}$
ntsárgalō, ntsargaleí, súrgalī $n t s a ̆ ́ r u g \overline{0}, n t s a ́ r o ̄, n t s a ̂ ́ r u i$ ntsákō, nts̛ơkō
$n t s a ́ t o ̄$
ntsámbō

ntsę̣mbulō, sémbulō
$n t s ̌ \neq 0$ ō
ntsündō
ntsúrō
$n t s u ̛$ ūō
§.93. There are two participles, one present and active, and the other past and passive.

The present or active participle is regularly derived from the infinitive of the first and second conjugations, by suffixing ma, comp. §. 40.

## Conjugation I.

a. Active Participles of Verbs in ṅgin.
kalaktęma, "turning" $\mid$ péstę̣a, " winnowing" käránitema, " approaching" mátterena, "drawing tight" námtema, "breaking" náptequa, "sitting" pántẹta, "hearing"
b. Active Participles of Verbs in skin.
ndêoma, kẹndêooma, kundóma," do-|núma, kármûma, "dying."
ing, making." mágōma, kommágöma, "acceptntáma, kentáma, " catching." ing."
rúma, kúrrūma, "seeing, a seer." nátōma, kennátōma, "planting."

ṅgútōma, koṅgútōma, "bringing." wárooma, kowârōma, " sick, being. ládōma, kellúdōma, "selling."
lifōma, kellifōma, " guarding." ṅgámbōma, kẹnigámbōma,
" scratching."
ṅgárōma, kẹnigárōma, "tatooing." pértōma, kembẹrtōma, "plucking."
ntšóma, kentšóma, " giving." ntsáma, kẹntsáma, " drinking." ntsátōma, kentsátōma,"carrying." ntsakkareíma, "teaching, a teacher."
$\grave{n} g a ́ s o ̄ m a, ~ k e ̨ ̇ ̇ g a ́ s o ̄ m a, ~ " r u n n i n g . " ~ n t s a ́ s a ̄ m a, ~ k e ̨ n t s a ́ s a ̄ m a, ~ " ~ r e p a i r-~$ š̌ŕtōma, kenširtōma, "flaying." ādémtẹma, ādę́mmāma, "reflect-ntsérgeima, kentsẹ́rgeima,"adding." ing."
ndéōma, kendéóma, " coming." mbáfóma, kèmbáfōma, " cooking." rórōma, kerrórōma, " taking out." ṅgêrōma, kẹngếrōma, " tying."
ntsúndōma, kontsíndōma, "swallowing."
ntǒífōma, kentšifōma, " buying." "ntsákōma, kentsákōma, " putting." ntšéotsōma,kentšéotsōma,"killing."

Conjugation II.
wūtégena, " showing." woltégema, " turning to." namtégerma, " breaking for." naptégema, " sitting to." māttégema, " drawing to." sentégema, "disentangling for." kalaktégema, "helping to turn."
kärcuitégema, " helping to approach." pēstégẹma, " winnowing for." tustégẹna, "helping to beat." nātégẹma, "overtaking." tsękkégema, " hastening."
§.94. Only verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$ have a past or passive participle, which is formed by suffixing gata to the simple verbal root. Its formal agreement with the 3 d per. pl. of the aorist tense in the third conjugation seems to be merely accidental, and its form may be accounted for in the following manner : $g a$ may be considered as the changed $g o$ of the aorist termination goskö, and $t a$ as the real past or passive sign, which coincides with the ancient $\pi$ of the participle perfect in Sanscrit, and the tus in Latin, and which root Professor Ewald also recognises in the prefix of the Hebrew Hithpael, see $\S .123 a$, of his "Ausführliches Lehrbuch der Hebræischen Sprache." When formed of
transitive verbs, it corresponds with the common past participle, but when formed of intransitive verbs, it has often to be rendered by our present participle; as,


## VII. The Objective Inflection of Transitive Verbs.

§. 95. We now come to one of the most striking peculiarities of the Kanuri language. It is what we term its "objective inflection." This is opposed to the "subjective" inflection of our European languages, which depends merely on a change of the subject, e.g. "I know," but " thou knowest, he knows." With this subjective inflection of the Bornu we have now finished. But it remains to notice an inflection which depends on a change of the object, and which is consequently restricted to transitive verbs. In English the verb "I know" has always the same form, whether its object be thee, or him, or you, or them. Not so in Kanuri. Here a change of the object produces as great an alteration in the verb, as a change of the subject. And this alteration of the verb which arises from a change of the object may be suitably termed its objective inflection, Such a peculiar inflection, of course, increases the verbal forms to a surprising degree; for it produces modifications in all the tenses and moods of the different conjugations, and also varies according as the verb terminates in $\dot{\text { gigin }}$ or skin. It will therefore be necessary to give paradigms of all the preceding subdivisions which affect
the verbal inflection, in order to afford a full illustration of the objective forms of transitive verbs.

As the nature of the objective forms consists in their expressing whether the object of transitive verbs is the first, second, or third person of the personal pronoun in either singular or plural, the question naturally suggests itself, whether these forms are not in reality the common subjective forms, with the addition of abbreviations of the personal pronouns. Such an origin of the objective inflection would be altogether what we might expect: in Hebrew, e.g., where the personal pronoun may follow the verb separately, it also unites itself with it, in the form of an abbreviated suffix. But a mere glance at the objective forms of the verb, and the personal pronouns in Kanuri, must convince us that there is no connection between them.

The American languages present a feature much more similar to the one in question. Professor Vater (in his "Mithridates," Vol. III. 2. p. 385), says of the American languages in general: "They express the accusative of pronouns in a manner which is often entirely different from the common pronouns, and which is organically one with the personal forms of the verb itself." He gives instances of languages in the south and north of the continent, e.g. the Chili, Abipon, Onichua, Aymara, Karaib, Totonaca, Natick, Greenlandish, which bear out his assertion. But there is one circumstance by which the objective form of the Kanuri is distinguished from that of most American languages. Their only inflection generally consists in the pronominal suffixes, either subjective, or subjective and objective; and S. Kleinschmidt e.g. expressly states in his Greenlandish Grammar, §. 48., that "the Greenlandish knows of no other indication of person, but by suffixes, and in the few cases where independent words indicate the person, those words were only rendered independent by the use of suffixes." Now in Kanuri the personal pronouns are words as independent as any nouns; and they maintain their own position as nominatives before the subjective form, or as nominatives and accusatives before
the objective form. And even some of the American languages seem to agree with it in this. At least Professor Vater asserts of the Chilesian language, "that the first, second, and third persons have different terminations, when they refer to the accusative of the second, third, or first persons, although the accusative and dative of the pronouns may also be expressed by independent words."

Of European languages, the Hungarian only slightly approaches the Kanuri, by having a distinct objective form for the accusative of the third person; but the ancient Basque comes fully up to it. (see Mithridates, Vol. III. p. 321, \&c.) There is also at least one Asiatic language, the Grusinian or Georgian, which is distinguished by an objective inflection. Vater gives the following instances : mikwarchar, "I love thee ;" mikwars, "I love him;" gikwarwar, " thou lovest me;" gikwars, " thou lovest him;" ukwarchar, "he loves thee;" ukwars, "he loves him;" wiznob, "I know him ;" miznobs, " he knows me;" iznobs, "he knows him; giznobs, " he knows thee.

The objective characteristic in Kanuri is so entirely interwoven, so organically united with the inflectional terminations and prefixes, that it cannot be easily separated and shown by itself. We therefore here content ourselves with the general observation, that the objective character of the first person is $S$, of the second, $N$, the difference between the singular and plural being indicated by vowels; and that the objective of the third person, has no formal distinction from the subjective. When the subject and the object are the same persons, as, "I, me, thou, thee," \&c., there is no objective form for it, this being expressed by the reflective conjugation, (see §. 56.)

## A. Objective inflection of Verbs in nigin.

§. 96. This will be sufficiently illustrated by the four verbs wúnigin, mólṅgin, mángin, and kálañgin.

In all these verbs the first per. sing. has only one form for the objective and subjective, except in the bye-form to be noticed at the end of this paragraph, and in the aorist and
future, when the objective is the second person plural; and this identity of the subjective and objective is extended to all the other persons, both in the singular and plural, whenever their object is the third person, as already stated in §. 95 .

The second person-singular expresses the objective first person by changing the subjective termination nemin into semin for the singular, and into samin for the plural; and the second person plural by similarly changing nuwi into suwī and sawi.

The third person singular forms the objective first person singular by changing ts into $s$, and ts into $\check{s}$; and the objective second person singular by inserting $n$ before $t s$ and $t \check{s}$; in the plural of the objective pronoun the first and second persons are similarly expressed; but the plurality is indicated by the subjective termination, thus rendering the objective singular identical with the o bjective plural.

The third person plural expresses the objective of the first person singular and plural by changing $t s$ into $s$, and of the second person by inserting $n$ before $t s$.

The first person plural expresses the objective of the second person singular and plural by the insertion of $n$; and sometimes by the change of $n y$ into $n t s$ or ntši.

Those verbs which change their character have in all objective forms the flat mute with the vowel $\rho$, before the termination.

For the sake of brevity we always omit the perfect tense in the following examples, as it is so easily derived from the first indefinite, by merely dropping the final $n$ and lengthening the vowel. So also we only want an illustration of the first and second conjugations, as the third has, of course, no objective forms, and as the fourth is formed by simplv prefixing yite to the second
Conjugation I.-Indefinite I.

${ }^{2}$ and mólentšièn.

| subject. | 葡容 wŕgā | nígā | šigā | andígà | nandígà | sandígà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wi | mádesemin | mángin | mángin <br> mánnemin | mádesāmin | mängin | mángin <br> mánnemin |
| ši | mádes̆in | mádentšin | măttšin | mádesei | mádentsei | máttšin |
| ándi |  | mádentšēn | má́nnyen |  | mádentšēn | mánnyen |
| nándi | mádesuwi |  | mánnuwi | mádesāwi |  | mánnuwı̄ |
| sándi | mádesei | mádentsei | mâttsei | mádesei | mádentsei | mâttsei |
| wu |  | -kálarigin | kálaṅgin |  | kálarigin | kálarigin |
| $n i$ | kálagesemin |  | kálarinemin | kálagesämin |  | kálaṙnemin |
| $\breve{s}$ | kálagešin | kálagentsin | kálaktsuin | kálagesei | kálagentsei | kálaktšin |
| ándi |  | kálagentšēn | kálañyen |  | kálagentšēn | kálarinyen |
| nándi | kálagesuwi |  | kálarinuwi | kálagesāwi |  | kálarinuwi |
| sándi | kálagesei | kálagentsei | kálaktsei | kálagesei | kálagentsei | kálaktsei |

ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.
Indefinite II.

and wúntšiè.
Indefinite II.

Aorist.

Aorist.

ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.
Future.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| subsect. | 苞 | wúgā | nígā | šígā | andígā | nandígā |

[^1]| subject. | \% wúgä | nígā | šiga | andígä | nandígã | sandígä |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $w u$ |  | mádẹntsoskō | máttsoskō |  | mádentş̌ēdaskō | máttsoskō |
| $m i$ | mádesam |  | máttsam | mádeşadam ${ }^{1}$ |  | máttsam |
| ši | mádesonō | mádentsonō | máttsonō | mádệs̆āda ${ }^{1}$ | mádentsè ${ }^{\text {ed }}{ }^{1}$ | máttsonō |
| undi |  | mádentseiyē | máttseiyee |  | mádẹntseiyē | máttseiyē |
| nándi | mádegsou |  | máttsou | mádeşăau ${ }^{1}$ |  | máttsou |
| sándi | mádessē̃ $d a^{1}$ | mádentsèēda ${ }^{1}$ | máttšăda ${ }^{1}$ | mádẹ̆̀àda ${ }^{1}$ | mádentşę ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{1}$ | mátts̆ăda ${ }^{1}$ |
| wu |  | kálagentsoskō | kálaktsoskō |  | kálagentšadaskō | hálaktsoskō |
|  | kálagesam |  | kálaktsam | kálagestędam ${ }^{1}$ |  | kálaktsam |
|  | kálagessonō | kálagentsonō | kálaktsonō | kálagessäda ${ }^{1}$ | kálagentšāda ${ }^{1}$ | kálaktsonō |
| ándi |  | kálagentseiyē | kálaktseiyē |  | kálagentseiyē | kálaktseiyē |
| nándi | kálagesou |  | kálaktsou | kálagešadau ${ }^{1}$ |  | kálaktsou |
| sándi | kálagesèèda | kálagents̆äda | kálaktšăda | kálagesăăda ${ }^{1}$ | kálagentşēda ${ }^{1}$ | kálakts̆ăda ${ }^{\text {1 }}$ |

ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.

Indefinite I.

Indefinite II.

Aorist.

| subject. | Öo vúgà \& würō | nígā \& nírō | šiga \& sirō | andígà \& -rō | nandígā \& -rō | sandígā \& -rō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | wúrigigeskō ${ }^{1}$. | wúgigeskō ${ }^{1}$ |  | wúṅgegask | wúgigeskō ${ }^{1}$ |
| $n i$ | wưskig |  | wưgigem | wúskegàm |  | wúgigem |
| $\check{S} 2$ | wúskigunō | wúṅgigunō | wưgigunō | wûskēga | wúrigēga | wúgigunō |
| ándi |  | wúrigigē | wúgigē |  | wúṅgigē | wágigè |
| nándi | wusk |  | wúgigū | wúskegau |  | wưgigū |
| sándi | wuskèga | wúṅgėga | wúgēga | wúskēga | wúùgēga | wúgẽga |
| $w u$ |  | máderigigeskō ${ }^{1}$ | mádgigeskō ${ }^{1}$ |  | máadė̇gégaskō | mádgigeskō ${ }^{1}$ |
| $n i$ | mádeskigem |  | mádgigem | mádeskegäm |  | mádgigem |
| ši | mádeskigunō | mádėrigigunō | mádgigunō | mádeskēga | mádeėngèga | mádgigunō |
| ándi |  | mádęrigigē | mádgigē |  | máderngigè | máadgigè |
| nándi | mádeski |  | mádgigũ | mádeskegau |  | mádgigū |
| sándi | mádeskēga | mádė̇̇gèga | mádgèga | mádeskēga | mádeongèga | mádgēga |


${ }^{1}$ See note on $\mathrm{p}, 114$.

Imperative Mood.
§. 98. The first person plural, from the nature of the case, can only have the third person for its object; and consequently has only a subjective form, so that we can omit it here altogether. The second person has for its object either the first or the third person.

Conjugation I.

| subject. | 葡 wúgä | andígā | šígā \& sandígā. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | wúsenó | wúsāné | wưné |
| nándi | wû́senógō | wừsānógō | wúnógō |
| $n i$ | mólessené | mólesāné | móllé |
| nándi | mólesenógo | mólesānógō | móllógō |
| $n i$ | mádesenné | máalessāné | mánnné |
| nándi | mádesenógō | mádȩsānógò | mánnógō |
| $n i$ | kálagesené | kálagesāné | kálanné |
| nándi | kálagesesnógō | kálagesānógō | kálarnoógō |

Conjugation II.

|  | wúrō | andírō | sirrō \& sandírō. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ <br> nándi | wúsegené wúsegenógō | wû́sagāné wứsagānógō | wúgené wúgènógō |
| $n i$ nándi | mólesegesné mólesegęnógō | mólesagāné mólesagānógō | mólgene ${ }^{1}$ <br> mólgẹnógō |
| $n i$ <br> nándi | mádesegené mádesegęnógó | mádesagāné mádesagānógō | mádgené <br> mádgenógō |
| $n i$ <br> nándi | kálagesegené kálagesegenógō | kálagesagāné kálagesagānógō | kálaggené <br> kálaggenógō |

## Negative Mood.

§. 99. This is derived so regularly from the second indefinite tense, that it will be sufficiently illustrated by the verb wúnigin.

Conjugation I-Present Tense.


## Future Tense.

|  |  | w |  |  | wúntšědasgan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | wúsammí |  | , | wúšadàmmi |  |
|  | wûsanní | n | tsanní | wúšadà̀nní | wúnts̆adànni |
|  |  | wừntseiyendé | wûtseiyendé |  | wûntseiyendè |
|  | wú |  | wưtsàui | úṡadàwi |  |
| , | wúšadā |  |  |  |  |

Conjugation II-Present Tense.

|  | wúrō | nírō | şırō, sandirō | andirō | nandírō |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu | wúntsegesgani wúgesganí |  |  |  | wúntsagasgani |
| $n$ | wúsegemmi |  | wúgermmí | wúsagāmm |  |
| sti | wúsegeni | wúntsegeni | wútsegení | wúsagāní | wưntsagäní |
| ándi |  | wúntsegendé | wúgendế |  | wùntsegendé |
| indi | wùsegūwí |  | wúgûwí | wúsagāwi |  |
| sándi | wúsagāní | wúntsagāni | wútsagàni | wúsagāní | wûntsagāní |

${ }^{1}$ And the common form wúnganí.

## Future Tense.

subject.
wu
$n i$
ši
$\dot{a} n d i$
nándi
sándi

| 言 wúgă | nígā | šigà \& sandígà | andígā | nandige |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | wúntšigesgani wûtšigesganí |  |  | wúntšagasg |
| wưsigemmi |  | wútšigemmí | rísagāmmi |  |
| wưzigeni | wúntšigèni | wútšigeni | úšagāní | wưntšagâni |
|  | wúntšigendê | wútšigendế |  | ıntšige |
| wustiat |  | wútš̌gūwí | 'isagãwi |  |
| wúšagāní | wưntšagāní | wúts̆agàní | wúṡagāní | wưnts̆agà |

## Conjunctional Mood.

§. 100 . This being derived so regularly from the aorist and perf tenses, it will be sufficient to illustrate it by the verb wúnigin.

Past Conjunctional.
subject.
wu
$n i$
$\breve{s i}$
ándi
nándi
sándi


Future Conjunctional.

| wu |  | wúntsęskīa | wánesskīa ${ }^{2}$ |  | wúntsaskia ${ }^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | wúsẹmīa |  | wúnemìa | wúsamīa |  |
| si | wús̊̀̄a | wúntšia | wûtšīa | wúseiya | wúntseiya |
| andi |  | wưntšēya | wúnyēya |  | wûntšēya |
| nándi | wúsuwīa |  | wúnuwīa | wứsawīa |  |
| sándi | wúseiya | wúntseiya | wútseiya | wúseiya | wúntseiya |

${ }^{1}$ And wūskedämiā. $\quad$ And wūngīa.
Participial Mood.
§. 101. This will be illustrated by the verbs wúnigin and mángin.
Conjugation I.

§. 101. This will be illustrated by
*-5G fgo
nigā
šig ā \& sandígā

Conjugation II.


## B. Objective Inflection of Verbs in skin.

1. Verbs in skin not beginning with y.
§. 102. The objective character of these verbs, corresponds, on the whole, with that of verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$; but it always takes its place before the verbal root. Its minor differences may be observed from the following examples.

## Indicative Mood.

Here we-only illustrate the first indefinite, the aorist, and the future tenses, as the others can be easily derived from these.

| subject. | Indefinite I. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | wúgà | nígā | sǔgā \& sandígá | andígä | nandígä |
| ขu |  | ntsédeskin | dískin |  | ntsádeskin |
| $n i$ | sédesmin |  | dı̂min | sádemin |  |
| si | sédin | $n t s e ̣ d i n ~$ | tsédin | sádin | ntsádin |
| ándi |  | $n t s e ́ d i ̄ y e n$ | dryen* |  | ntsádiyen |
| nándi | séduwī |  | dı̂wì | sáduwì |  |
| sándi | sádin | tsádin | tsádin | sádin | $n t s a ́ d i n ~$ |
| wu |  | ntsúruskin | ruskin |  | ntsáruskin |
| $n i$ | surumin |  | rúmin | sárūmin |  |
| ši | súrui | $n t s u ́ r u i$ | tsúrui | sárui | ntsárui |
| ándi |  | ntsúmiyen | ruíyen |  | ntsáruiyen |
| nándi | súruwī |  | rúwī | sáruwī |  |
| sándi | sárui | ntsárui | tsárui | sárui | $n t s a ́ r u i$ |
| wu |  | ntsémaskin | máskin |  | ntsámaskin |
| $n i$ | sémagemin |  | mágemin | sámagemin |  |
| $\check{s i}$ | sémagin | ntsémagin | tsémagin | sámagin | ntsámagin |
| andi |  | ntsẹ́magēn | mágēn |  | ntsémagēn |
| nándi | sémaguwà |  | máguwi | sámaguwì |  |
| sándi | sámagin | ntsámagin | tsámagin | sámagin | ntsámagin |

[^2]| subject. | 芴 wúgā | nígā | šígā \& sandígă | andígā | nandígā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | ntseladẹskin | ladẹskin |  | ntsaladẹskin |
| $n i$ | seládẹmin |  | ládemin | saládèmin |  |
| ši | seládin | ntseládin | tseládin | saládin | ntsaládin |
| $\dot{a} n d i$ |  | ntselcádèn | ládèn |  | ntseládēn |
| nándi | seláduwi |  | láduwì | saláduwi |  |
| sándi | saládin | ntsaládin | tsald́din | saládin | ntsaládin |
| wu |  | ntsegáres | kâreskin |  | ntsagáreskin |
| $n i$ | segáremin |  | kárẹmin | sagárẹmin |  |
| $\stackrel{4}{s} i$ | segárin | $n t$ egegárin | tsegárin | sagấrin | ntsagárin |
| ándi |  | $n t s e g a ̆ ́ r e ̄ n ~$ | kárén |  | $n t s a g a ̆ r e ̄ n$ |
| nándi | segáruwi |  | káruwi | sagáruwì |  |
| sándi | sagárin | ntsagárin | tsagárin | sagârin | $n t s a g a ́ r i n ~$ |
| wu |  | $n t s u ̛ q o ̄ r ~$ | kóresskin |  | $n t s o ́ g o ̄ r e s k i n$ |
| $n i$ | súgōrẹmin |  | kóregmin | sógōrẹmin |  |
| $\stackrel{3}{s i}$ | súgōrin | ntsúgōrin | tsúgōrin | sógōrin | $n t s o ́ g o ̄ r i n ~$ |
| ándi |  | $n t s u ́ g o ̄ r e ̀ ̀ n$ | kốėn |  | $n t s o ́ g o ̄ r e ̄ n ~$ |
| nándi | súgōruwī |  | kốruwì | sógōruwi |  |
| sándi | sógōrin | $n t s o ́ g o ̈ r i n ~$ | tsógörin | sógōrin | ntsógörin |
| wu |  | $n t s e b e r t$ és | pertéskin |  | ntsabẹrţ́skin |
| $n i$ | sebértemin |  | pértermin | sabértegin |  |
| si | sebértin | $n t s e b$ értin | tsebértin | sabértin | ntsabértin |
| ándi |  | $n t s e l b e ̨ r t e ̄ n ~$ | pértèn |  | ntsabẹrtēn |
| nándi | sebértuwi |  | pértuwì | sabértuwi |  |
| sándi | sabértin | ntsabértin | tsabẹrtin | sabértin | ntsabértin |
| wu |  | $n t e r g e ̂ r e s k ~$ | géreskin |  | ntsargêreskkin |
| $n i$ | sẹrgêremin |  | getremin | sargéremin |  |
| $s{ }^{\text {s }} i$ | sergérin | ntsergẹtrin | tsergérin | sargérin | $n t s a r g e ́ r i n ~$ |
| $\dot{a}$ |  | ntsęrgérèn | geterèn |  | ntsergèrēn |
| nándi | sergéruwi |  | gèruwi | sargéruwi |  |

Aorist.

| subject. | 薈 wúgā | nígä | šígā \& sandígā | andígā | nandígă |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | $\dot{\text { njidískō }}$ | kidískō |  | ṅgedệskō |
| $n i$ | skídern |  | kídẹm | skédęm |  |
| $8{ }^{\text {si }}$ | skídō | $\dot{\text { rigidō }}$ | kidō | skédō | ṅgédō |
| $\dot{\text { a }}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  | rigídiyē | kidiyee |  | ṅgídiyē |
| nándi | skidū |  | kídū | skédū |  |
| sándi | skédö | $\dot{n}$ gédóō | kédō | skédō | $\dot{n}$ gédō |
| vu |  | $\dot{\text { ngíruskō }}$ | kíruskō |  | ṅgéruskō |
| $n i$ | skírum |  | kírum | skérum |  |
| $\stackrel{4}{8}$ | skírū | $\dot{n}$ gínū | kirū | skérū | rigérū |
| ándi |  | ṅgíruiyē | kiruiyē |  | ṅgíruiyē |
| nándi | skírū |  | kírut | skérū |  |
| sándi | skęrū | $\dot{n}$ gérèu | kér ${ }_{\text {u }}$ | skérū | ṙgérū |
| wu |  | ṅgímaskō | kímaskö |  | $\dot{n g e ̨ ́ m a s k o ̄ ~}$ |
| $n i$ | skímägerm |  | kímägem | skémägem |  |
| sii | skimogŏ | $\dot{\text { ngímogō }}$ | kímogò | skémogō | ngémogō |
| ándi |  | ṅgímagē | kímagè |  | ṅgímagē |
| nándi | skimogū |  | kimogù | skémogū |  |
| sándi | skémogō | $\dot{n g e ́ m o g o ̄ ~}$ | kémogó | skémogō | ngémogō |
| wu |  | $\dot{\text { nigiladẹ́skō }}$ | kiladéskō |  | ṅgeladéskō |
| $n i$ | skiládẹm |  | kiláderm | skeládem |  |
| ši | skiládō" | ̇̇giládō | kiládō | skelládō | ṅgeládò |
| ándi |  | ̇̇giládē | kiládè |  | ṅgiládè |
| nándi | skiládù |  | kiládū | skeládü |  |
| sándi | skeleládō | ṅgeládō | keládō | skeládō | ṅgeládō |
| wu |  | ṅgigắreskō | kigáresskō |  | ṅgegáresko |
| $n i$ | skigárem |  | kigárem | skegấrem |  |
| si $i$ | skigárō | ṅgigárıō | kigároo | skegárō | ṅgegárō |
| ándi |  | ṅgigárẻ | kigárè |  | ̇̇gigárè |
| nándi | skiqắrū |  | kiqárū | skegárrū |  |


| subject. | $\text { 葡 wúg } \vec{a}$ | nígä | šígā \& sandígā | andígā | nandíga |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | ṅgígōreskō | kígōreskō |  | rigégōreskō |
| $n i$ | skigōrem |  | kígōrem | skégōrem |  |
| Si | skigorō | $\dot{n}$ gígorō | kígorŏ | skégorō | rigégorō |
| ándi |  | $\dot{n}$ gigorē | kígorē |  | j̇gígorē |
| nándi | skigorū |  | kígorū | skégorū |  |
| sándi | skégorō | ṅgégorō | kégorö | skégorō | $\dot{n}$ gégorō |
| wu |  | ṅgibertéskō | kibertéskō |  | $\dot{\text { rigebertéskō }}$ |
| $n i$ | skibértem |  | kibértem | skebértem |  |
| ši | skibértō | ṅgibértō | kibẹrró | skebértō | ngebértō |
| ándi |  | ṅgibértē | kibértë |  | ṅgebértē |
| nándi | skibẹrtū |  | kibértū | skebértú |  |
| sándi | skebérrō | ngȩbértō | kebértō | skebértō | ṅgebértō |
| wu |  | rigirgéreskō | kirgéreskoo |  | ṅgergéreskō |
| $n i$ | skirgêrem |  | kirgérẹm | skergérẹm |  |
| sii | skirgéroo | ṅgirgérō | kirgérō | skergérō | ṅgergérō |
| ándi |  | $\dot{n}$ girgérē | kirgérè |  | ṅgirgếrē |
| nándi | skirgérū |  | kirgérü | skergérū |  |
| sándi | skergérō | $\dot{n}$ gergérō | kergếrŏ | skergérō | ṅgergèrō |
|  |  |  | uture. |  |  |
| wu |  | ntsidiskoo | tšidískō |  | ntšedískō |
| $n i$ | sídem |  | tšıdem | sédem |  |
| $s{ }^{\text {si }}$ | šzdō |  | tšidō | šédō | $n t s$ édo ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| ándi |  | ntšidiy | tš̌̇diyē |  | ntšidiyē |
| nándi | šidem |  | $t \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\text { eld }} d \vec{u}$ | şédù |  |
| sándi | ṡédō | $n t$ ěédo | tšédō | šédō | $n t s{ }^{\text {éd }}$ dō |
| wu |  | ntš̌ünuskō | tšưruskō |  | ntşárusiō |
| $n i$ | sư̇um* |  | ts̆úrum | sărum |  |
| sii | šúūū | $n t$ šひ̇ии | tsùū | sárù | ntšárıu |
| ándi |  | ntšúmiyē | tšúruiyē |  | nts̆áruiyē |
| nándi | ชัช́rrū |  | tšúmù | sárat |  |
| sándi | şána | $n t s$ árū | tşar | şárū | $n t s$ är ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |


| subject. | 㤅 wúgā | nígā | šigā \& sandígā | andígā | nandíga ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | $n t s ̌$ ímaskō | tš̌̇maskō |  | $n t s$ émaskō |
| $n i$ | šímagem |  | tšı̇magem | šémagem |  |
| sui | šı̇mogō | ntšímogō | tš̌̀mogō | séémogō | $n t s$ ėemogō |
| ándi |  | ntšímagē | tš̌̀magē |  | ntšémagē |
| nándi | šimogū |  | tšímogu | séémogū |  |
| sándi | sésmogō | ntşémogō | tşémogō | ¢ֻ̇émogō | $n t s$ émogō |
| wu |  | $n t s ̌ i l a d e ̣ ̂ s k o ̄ ~$ | tšilàdẹskō |  | $n t s$ ěeladẹskō |
| $n i$ | šiládẹ |  | tšiládẹm | şeladédem |  |
| ¢ 20 | šiládō | $n t s ̌ i l a ́ d o ̄ ~$ | tšiliádō | šeládō | $n t s$ šleládō |
| ándi |  | ntşiládē | tšilládè |  | $n t$ şelcádè |
| nándi | šiládū |  | tšiládū | šeládù |  |
| sándi | šeládó | $n t s{ }_{\text {eleládō }}$ | tšeládà | šeládō | $n t s{ }^{\text {eleládō }}$ |
| wu |  | $n t s$ ǐgấreskō | tšigáresskō |  | ntšagáreskō |
| $n i$ | šigârem |  | tšigárem so | s̆agârem |  |
| $\breve{s} i$ | ṡigárō | $n t s ̌ i g a ̆ ́ r o ̄ ~$ | tšigárō | s̆agárō | $n t s ̌ a g a ̆ ́ r o ̄ ~$ |
| ándi |  |  | ts̆ı̇وáree |  | $n t s$ ăagárē |
| nándi | šigára |  | tšigáan | s̆agárū |  |
| sándi | šagárō | $n t s$ agárō | ts̆agároo | s̆agárā | ntšagáao |
| wu |  | ntšĭgōreskō | tšigōreskō |  | $n t s ̌ o ́ g o ̄ r e s k o ̄$ |
| $n i$ | š̌gōregm |  | ts̆řṑ? | ̧̆ógōrem |  |
| $\stackrel{4}{8}$ | šígorō | ntằ̇gorō | tšígorō so | sógorō | ntšógorō |
| ándi |  | ntšigorē | tšigorē |  | nts̛̆̇gorè |
| nándi | šrgorū |  | tšigorū | sögorü |  |
| sándi | sógorō | nts̆ógorō | tơógorō | s̆ógorō | ntšógorō |
| wu |  | ntšibertẹ́skō | tšibertééskō |  | ntšabęrtéskō |
| $n i$ | šibértẹm |  | tsibértem sid | sabértem |  |
| Ši | šibẹrtō | $n t s ̌ i b e ́ r t o ̄$ | tšibértō | s̆abértō | nts̆abértō |
| $\dot{\text { ándi }}$ |  | $n t s$ šibértē | tšiliérrtē |  | $n t s ̌ i b e ́ r t e ̄ ~$ |
| nándi | šibértū |  | ts̆ıibértū | šabértū | 4 |
|  | ¿̆ahóntō |  |  |  | šabér |


| svbsect. | 葸 wrigā | nigā | šigā \& sandigā | andígà | nandigā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | $n t s$ ěr géresskō | tšrigetrestkō |  | ntĕergêresko |
| $n i$ | s̈rgėrérem |  | ts̈rgêręem | seregérem |  |
|  | sıirgèrö | $n t s ̌ r i n g e ̂ r o ̄ ~$ | tš̈rgérō | şergérō | ntserergêrō |
| andi |  | ntširgérè | tširgérē |  | $n t s$ širgérè |
| nándi | sir ${ }^{\text {rgérrū }}$ |  | tširgêrū | sergéra |  |
| sándi | sergérō | ntşergéroo | tşergérōo | šergếrō | $n t$ Ěergêrō |

Imperative Mood.
§. 103. The 1st per. having no distinct objective forms, we only give the 2 d per. sing. and pl., with the 1 st and 3 d per. as its object.

Conjugation I.

| subject. | 商 wúgā | andíga | šigā \& sandígă |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | sedé | sadé | dè |
| nándi | sedógō | sadógō | déogō |
| $n i$ | súrui | sárui | rui |
| nándi | súruigō | sáruigō | ruígō |
| $n i$ | semáge | samáge | máge |
| nándi | semágogō | samágogō | mágogō |
| $n i$ | seladé | saladé | ladé |
| nándi | seladógō | saladógō | ladógō |
| $n i$ | segáre | sagáre | káre |
| nándi | segárogō | sagárogō | károgō |
| $n i$ | seberté | saberté | perté |
| nándi | selbertógō | sabertógō | pertógō |
| $n i$ | sergére | sargêre | gêre |


| subject. | - Conjugation II. ${ }^{1}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 呉 wúrō | andírō | širō \& sandírō |
| $n i$ | segdé | sagdée ${ }^{2}$ | yigdé |
| nándi | segdógō | sagdógó ${ }^{2}$ | yigdógō |
| $n i$ | segemáge | sagamáge | yigẹmáge |
| nándi | segemágogō | sagamágogō | yigemágogō |
| $n i$ | segeladé | sagaladé | yigeladé |
| nándi | segeladógō | sagaladógō | gigeladógō |
| $n i$ <br> nándi | segakārér $^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {segakārōo }}{ }^{3}$ | sagakārés ${ }^{\text {sagakárógo }}$ |  |
| nandi | segakārogō | sagakärogo | yigakarogo |
| $n i$ | segeperté | sagaperté | yigeperté |
| nándi | segepertógō | sagapertógō | yigepertógō |
| $n i$ | sergegére | sargegére | yirgegêre |
| nándi | sergegérogō | sargegérogō | yirgegé̂rogō |

Negative Mood.
§. 104. This being so regularly derived from the indicative, it will suffice to illustrate it by only one verb.

Present Negative.

${ }^{1}$ Of ruskin, no second Conjugation is used.
${ }^{2}$ Also sasagdé and sasagdóyō.

## Future Negative.

| subject. | 鲁 wúgā | nígā |  <br> sandíg $\bar{a}$ | andígã | nandígā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & w u \\ & n i \end{aligned}$ | šidemmi | šidesgani ${ }^{1}$ | tšidesgani ${ }^{1}$ <br> ts̆idẹmmi | şédemmi | $n t s$ édesgani ${ }^{1}$ |
| $8{ }^{\text {si }}$ | šidẹní | $n t s$ ¢̇d | tš̀̇dent | sédédení | $n t s$ édené |
| ánd |  | ntšıd̄̄̀ 2 ndê | tsưdìyendê |  | $n t s$ écidìyendê |
| nd | š̀dūuví |  | tsìdūwí | šédūwí |  |
| sándi | sédedená | $n t$ ěédeñ | tšédęní | sédeñ | $n t s{ }^{\text {éd }}$ denn |

Conjunctional Mood.
§. 105. This, also, is so regularly formed, that one verb can serve as a paradigm for all the rest.


Future Conjunctional.

| wu |  | ntsúruskīa | rúskīa |  | ntsáruskīa |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $n i$ | súrumīa |  | rúmīa | sárumīa |  |
| s̆i | súmìya | ntsúmiya | tsúruiya | sáruiya | ntsáruiya |
| ándi |  | ntsúruiyēya | ruíyēya |  | ntsáruiyéya |
| nándi | súruwīa |  | rúwīa | sáruwīa |  |
| sándi | sáruiya | ntsáruiya | tsáruiya | sáruiya | ntsáruiya |

${ }^{1} \mathrm{Or}$ with $i$ after $d$.

Participial Mood.
§. 106. Here again not more than one paradigm will be required.


Past Participial.
wu
$n i$
ši
ándi
nándi
sándi

|  | ṅgiladésganu |
| :---: | :---: |
| skiládẹmma |  |
| skiládgna | rigiládẹna |
|  | . nigiládèna |
| skiládūwa |  |
| skeládẹna | ṅgeládena |

? Future Participial.
wu
$n i$
s̆i
ándi
nándi
sándi

| şıl ${ }^{\text {sádemma }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| šiládẹna | ntšiládęna |
|  | ntšiládèna |
| šiládūwa |  |
| šeládęna | ntšeládęna |

tšiladésgana ts̆iládęmma šeládẹma tšiládẹna séeládéna ts̊iládèna tšiládūwa tşeládęna
kiladésgana
kiládemma skeládémma
kiládẹna
kiládèna kiládāwa keládẹna

ṅgeladéśsgąna

ṅgeládẹna
ngeleládēna

ṅgeládẹna
$n t$ šeladẹ́sgana
ntšeládena ntšeládèna
ntšeládena
2. Objective Inflection of Verbs in skin, with the initial y.
§. 107. These verbs differ from the preceding class chiefly by their losing the initial $y$, in consequence of the objective prefixes, which take its place. This and their other peculiarities will appear from the following examples.
subject
$w u$
$n i$
s̆i
ándi
nándi
sándi

$w u$
$n i$
$\check{s i} i$
$\dot{a} n d i$
$n a ́ n d i$
sándi

${ }^{1}$ All these forms have also satsā, instead of sasā.

| Subject． |  | nígā | š̌gā \＆ sandígā | andígā | nandíga |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | nts̛̆̆fuskin | yófuskin |  | ntsásuifuskin |
| $n i$ | š้fumin |  | yífümin | sásifũmin |  |
| $8 \mathrm{i} i$ | sưfin | ntsŏfin | tš̌̌ín | sáş̌̆fin |  |
| ándi |  | $n t s$ 令fēn | y解ēn |  |  |
| nándi | šı̆fuwī |  | yq́fuw | sás̈ifuwì |  |
| sándi | sásžfin |  | tsásifin | sásüfin | $n t s a ́ s$ 亿̈fin |
| wu |  | $n t s \bar{a} k e ́ s k i n$ | yäkéskin |  | ntsasäkéskin |
| $n i$ | sákemin |  | yákemin | sasákemin |  |
| si | sákin | ntsákin | tsákin | sasákin | ntsasákin |
| ándi |  | $n t s a ́ k e ̄ n$ | yékēn |  | ntsasákēn |
| nándi | sákuwī |  | yákuwi | sasákuwi |  |
| sándi | sasákin | ntsasákin | tsasákin | sasákin | $n t s a s a ́ k i n$ |
| wu |  | ntšētséskin | yētséskin |  | nts̆ēšéseskin |
| $n i$ | sésemin |  | yétsemin | šésemin |  |
| $\check{s i}$ | sessin | $n t s$ étšin | $t s$ étetsin | šešessin | ntšešésuin |
| ándi |  | $n t s$ čétsēn | yétssèn |  |  |
| nándi | šésuwi |  | yêtsuwì | šešésuwi |  |
| sándi | sesésésin |  | tšešě̆̇in | seséşin． | ntšešés in |
|  |  |  | orist． |  |  |
| wu | － |  | késkō |  | $\dot{n g e ̨} d e s k o ̄$ |
| $n i$ | skếm |  | $k \underline{e} m$ | skédém |  |
| $s{ }_{\text {chi }}$ | skeínō | ṅgeíno | keínō | skédō | $\dot{n}$ gédō |
| ándi |  |  | keáyė |  | $\dot{n}$ ¢édiyè |
| nándi | skédū ${ }^{\prime}$ |  | kéou | skédū |  |
| sándi | skédō | $\dot{n}$ gédō | kédō | skédō | ṅgédō |
| wu |  | $\dot{n}$ geấskō | keáskō |  | $\dot{\text { ngesáskō }}$ |
| $n i$ | skeâtẹm |  | keátẹm | skesátem |  |
| si | skeátō | ṅgeátō | keátō | skęsátō | $\dot{n}$ gesáto |
| ándi |  | ṅgeátē | keátē |  | ṅgesấtē |
| nándi | skeátū |  | keátū | skesátu |  |
| sándi | skesátō | ṅgesáátō | kesáto | skesátō | ṅgesat́tō |


| subject. | 魯 wrigā | nígä | šígā \& sandígā | andígā | nandígã |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | ṙgëtserráskō | kētseráskō |  | $\dot{n}$ gēsettseráskō ${ }^{1}$ |
| $n i$ | skétserām |  | $k$ ketseràm | skēsátserām |  |
| $8{ }^{\text {chi }}$ | skétserrā | $\dot{n}$ gétser ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $k e ̂ t s e r a \bar{a}$ | skēsátserā | $\dot{n} \mathrm{~g}$ ēátserrā |
| ándi |  | $\dot{n}$ gētserreíyē | kētsercíyè |  | $\dot{n g}$ ēsatserreíyè |
| nándi | skêtsęrau |  | kettserau | skēsátsẹrau |  |
| sándi | skétserā | $\dot{n}$ gétserā | kétgerrā | skēsátserrā | $\dot{n}$ gēsátserã ${ }^{1}$ |
| wu |  | ṅgergáleskō | kergáleskō |  | rigesargáleskō |
| $n i$ | skergálèm |  | kergálem | skesargálem |  |
| $\breve{8 i}$ | skergálō | ṅgergálō | kergálō | skesargálō | ṅgesargálō |
| ándi |  | rigergálē | kergálé |  | ṅgesargálē |
| nándi | skergálū |  | keryálù | skesargálù |  |
| sándi | skesargáloo | ¢o ṅgesargálō | kesargálō | skesargálō | ṅgesargálō |
| wu |  | ṅgeífuskō | keífuskō |  | rigés̆ifuskō |
| $n i$ | skeifum |  | keífum | skešžfum |  |
| ši | skeifō | $\dot{n} \mathrm{~g}$ eifö | keifō | skèšifō | $\dot{n} \mathrm{~g}$ èsǐfō |
| ándi |  | ṅgeífè | keíē |  | ṅésifē |
| nándi | skeifū |  | keifú | skés̆ifū |  |
| sándi | skéšifó | ṅgéšifó | kéšrifo | skéséfō | ṅgéşifō |
| wu |  | ṅgēakéskō ${ }^{2}$ | $k e ̄ a k e ́ s k o ̄{ }^{2}$ |  | $\dot{n g e s a k e ́ s k o ̄}{ }^{2}$ |
| $n i$ | skēäkem |  | kēákem | skēsákẹm |  |
| $8{ }^{\text {si }}$ | skāákō | ṅgèákō | keákō | skesákō | $\dot{n}$ gesákō |
| ándi |  | $\dot{n}$ gékè | kêkē |  | ̇̇gesákē |
| nándi | skēákū |  | kēákū | skęsákū |  |
| sándi | skesákō | rigesćkō | kesákō | skesákō | ṅgesákò |

${ }^{1}$ These forms have also ṅgēts for ṅgès.
${ }^{2}$ Also kuskō for keskō.

| subject. | 䔡 wrigā | nígā | šígā \& sandíg $\bar{a}$ | andígā | nandígà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | $\dot{n}$ gētséskō | kētséskō |  | $\dot{n} \mathrm{ges}$ asẹskō |
| $n i$ | skétsẹm ${ }^{1}$ |  | kétsem | skesásem ${ }^{5}$ |  |
| ši | skésō | $\dot{n}$ gétsō | kétsō | skėsósō | $\dot{n}$ geesósō |
| ándi |  | $\dot{n}$ gétšē ${ }^{3}$ | kétšē |  | $\dot{n}$ ¢ešéšē |
| nándi | skétsū ${ }^{2}$ |  | $k e ̂ t s u \bar{u}$ | skëséşu ${ }^{6}$ |  |
| sándi | skešêso | $\dot{n g e s t e ́ s o ~}{ }^{4}$ | kešéso | skešêsō | $\dot{n}$ gešésō |


|  |  |  | Future. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | $n t s e ́ s k o ̄$ | tséskō |  | $n t$ ¢̌édes $k$ ō |
| $n i$ | şêm | - | tsęem | sédem |  |
| $\breve{8} 8$ | seínō | ntseínō | tšéno | şédō | $n t s$ éédo |
| ándi |  | ntsééye | tsérye |  | ntšédiyē |
| nándi | şอ̆อu |  | tşéou ${ }^{7}$ | $\stackrel{\text { séd }}{ }$ du |  |
| sándi | šédō | $n t s{ }^{\text {éd }}$ dō | $t s e^{\text {ésätō }}$ | šédō | $n t s \underline{C l}^{\text {éd }}$ ō |
| wu |  | $n t$ ¢̆áskō | tšáakō |  | $n t s$ ésāskō |
| $n i$ | sáátem |  | tšátèm | sááātem ${ }^{9}$ |  |
| sii | s̊átō | $n t \stackrel{\text { čátō }}{ }$ | ts̆ătō | séseātō | $n t s$ ésäto |
| ándi |  | $n t s$ áte | tšátē |  | $n t s$ ésätē |
| nándi | šátu |  | $t s{ }_{\text {ćat }}$ tū | šésātu |  |
| sándi | šésäto | $n t s$ ésāto | tšésätō | šésāto | ntšésätō |
| wu |  | ntšētseráskõ | tsëētseráskō |  | $n t s$ ësatseráskö |
| $n i$ | ṡétserà $m$ |  | tšětserām | sētsátserām |  |
| ši | sêtsererā | $n t s$ sétsera ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | tšétserà | sētsátserā | $n t s$ ēsátserā |
| ándi |  | ntš̄ētsereíyẽ | tšētsereréyē |  | $n t s{ }_{\text {ēsatsereiyē }}$ |
| nándi | sétserau |  | tsêetserau | sētsátserau |  |
| sándi | sêtsera | $n t s$ êtsera $\bar{a}$ | tšétserā | sētsátsera | $n t s ̌ e ̄ s a ́ t s e r a ̄ ~$ |




[^3]${ }_{5}^{2}$ And tšěšifū.
${ }^{5}$ And tšéakō.
${ }^{3}$ And tšēakéskō.
And tš̌éakū.

## Imperative Mood.

§. 108. We again omit the first person, as it has no distinct form for the objective.

| subject. | 薄 wrigà | andígā | sigā \& sandígã |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | $\stackrel{\text { se }}{ }$ | sáde | $y e$ |
| nándi | šógō | sádogō | yógō |
| $n i$ | sáte | sásäte | yáte |
| nándi | sátogō | sásātogō | yátogō |
| $n i$ | sargále | sasargále | yargále |
| nándi | sargálogō | sasargálogō | yargálogō |
| $n i$ | šfe | sásurife | yifg |
| nándi | š̌fogō | sás̆ífogō | yífogō |
| $n i$ | sāké | sāsáke | $y \bar{a} k \underline{e}$ |
| nándi | sákogō | sasákogō | yákogō |
| $n i$ | sęsé | šešṫge | yêtsé |
| nándi | šêsogō | šešêsogō | yétsogō |

Negative Mood.
§. 109. All verbs agree so fully in the Negative, that they can be illustrated by a single example.

| SUBJECT. | Present Negative. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 畐 $w$ \%r | nírō | surō \& sandírō | andírō | nandírō |
| wu |  | $n t s ̌ ' s g a n i ́$ | yisganí |  | ntsádesganí |
| $n i$ | š̌̆mmí |  | $y^{\frac{1}{2} m m i ́}$ | sádẹmmí |  |
| $s{ }^{\text {si }}$ | šâní | $n t s$ ̌ini | tšêñ | sádení | $n t s a ́ d e n i ́ ~$ |
| ándi |  | ntš̌̌yendé | yp̂yendé |  | $n t s a ́ d i ̄ y e n d e ̂ ̀ ~$ |
| nándi | šžwí |  | $y^{\frac{1}{2}} w_{i}^{\prime}$ | sádūwí |  |
| sándi | sádẹn | $n t s a ́ d e n i ́$ | tsádení | sádęní | $n t s a ́ d e n i ~$ |

Future Negative.

| SUBJECT.wu | 䔡 wúrō | nírō | šírō \& sandírō | undirō | nandiro |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $n t s$ ésganí | tšésganí |  | $n t$ çédesgani |
|  |  | ntosegan | tsémmi | sédemmí |  |
| $n i$ | sémmi |  | tséein | šédeni | $n t 8$ édeni |
| ¢̆ | şeinı́ | ntşeini | tšéyendé |  | $n t s ̌ e ́ d i ̄ y e n d e ̂ ~$ |
| ándi |  | $n t s$ eíyendè | tsơówí | šédūwí |  |
| nándi | šĖvai |  | tsouwi | šédení | ntşèdeni |
| sándi | sédeçn | ntšédená | tsed |  |  |

Conjunctional Mood.
-75ə1 әप7
${ }^{1}$ And šoúwi.
Past Conjunctional.


Participial Mood.
§. 111. The objective inflection of the participial will be illustrated by the two verbs, yäkéskin and yëtséskin.

SUBJECT.

| 旡 wúgā | nígà | šígā \& sandígà | andígà | nandígā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sākémma sákena | ntsākésggana | yākésgana |  | ntsasakésgan |
|  |  | yākẹ́mma | sasakẹnma |  |
|  | $n t s a ́ k e n n a$ | tsákena | sasákẹna | ntsasákena |
|  | $n t s a k e ̂ n a ~$ | yekéna |  | ntsasakêna |
| sákūwa |  | yákūwa | sasákutwa |  |
| sasákẹna | ntsasákęna | tsasáken | sasákena | ntsasákèn |
|  | ntšètsésgana | yêtsésgana |  | ntšešessésgan |
| sēesémma |  | yêtsémma | šešesémma |  |
| sésena | $n t s$ ĕtsena | tšĕtsenna | seesésena | tšešĕsena |
|  | ntšĕtséña ${ }^{1}$ | yêtşêna |  | $n t s e^{\text {ereserèn }}$ a |
| sésūwa |  | yêtrūwa |  |  |
| šeşèsena |  | tšeséȩsena | seséésena | $n t s$ ešésesena. |

Past Participial.

| wu |  | ṅgèakésgana | kēakésgana |  | $\dot{n}$ gesakésganc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n i$ | skēakémma |  | keakémma | skesakémma |  |
| si | skēàkẹna | ṅgéákena | kāderena | skesákena | ṅgesákena |
| ándi |  | ṅgēakéna | keàakéna |  | ṅgesakéna |
| nándi | skèakúwa |  | keakúwa | skesakúwa |  |
| sándi | skesákena | ṅgesákena | kesákena | skesákena | ṅgesákena |
| wu |  | $\dot{n}$ gētsésgana | kētrésgàna |  | ṅgesę̧gésgan |
| $n i$ | skêtsémma ${ }^{2}$ |  | kētsẹ́mma | skeǧęsétémma |  |
| si $i$ | skétsẹna ${ }^{3}$ | rigétsẹna | kétsẹna | ske ěéésena $^{\text {a }}$ | ṅgesésésena |
| ándi |  | $\dot{n}$ gétšiè $n a$ | kềtšièna |  | $\dot{n g e s e ̨ ̌ s ̌ i e ̀ n a ~}$ |
| nándi | skētsúwa |  | kētsúwa | skesēsứwa |  |
| sándi | ske ěésena | ṅgeşésena | kešésecna | skešésena | ṅgešéşena |

[^4]Future Participial.

| subject. | $\text { 睘 wúg } \bar{a}$ | nígä | šiga $\&$ sandígā | andígã | nandígã |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wu |  | ntšēakésgana | tsēeakésgana |  | $n t s$ esākésgana |
| $n i$ | šēakémma |  | tšēakẹmma | šešĕkémma |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { si }}{ }$ | ṡéàkena | $n t s$ éákena | tšēákena | s̆essákena | ntşessákena |
| ándi |  | ntşekéna | tsěekéna |  | ntšesakéna |
| nándi | šēakúwa |  | tšeakưwa | sesesakúwa |  |
| sándi | ṡesákena | $n t s ̌$ escakena | tšesákena | şesákena | ntšesákena |
| - |  |  |  |  |  |
| wu |  | ntěètsésgana | tšētsésgana |  | $n t s{ }^{\text {eseberésésgana }}$ |
| $n i$ | sēesémma ${ }^{1}$ |  | tsētsẹmma | sese |  |
| $\check{s i}$ | ¢้セ̇šina | $n t s{ }_{\text {cét }}$ tšina | tšétšina | seşéšina |  |
| ándi |  | $n t$ sétšièina | tsétšièna |  | $n t s ̌ e s ̌$ éčièna |
| nándi | šĕ̛̆úwa |  | tšeţtsúua | secesersúwa |  |
| sándi | seséessina |  | tşescess ina | sesctssina | ntšešěăina |

VIII. Defective Verbs.
§. 112. By these we understand such verbs as occur only in certain Conjugations, or Moods, or Tenses, or Persons. The first three classes are already illustrated in the above, see $\S \S .54$ and 74. But as a proof that the verb nágeskin, "I meet one," was rightly considered as a defective verb of the 2d Conjugatinn, I may here observe, that Ali assured me that the Mábr and Kóyām tribes still use the form nánigin or náneskin, for "I go," of which the second conjugation is regularly nágeskin, "I go to, towards, i.e. I meet one."

Of Verbs defective in the persons we may here mention:

1. Certain reciprocal forms which do not naturally occur,

[^5]except in the plural: ándi tádèn, nándi táduwĩ, sándi tádin; ándi tádē, nándi tád̄̄ and táduwī, sándi táte, tádō, tádī; ándi katadéndeā nándi katadúwī̄, sándi katadẹnyā; ándi tadèna, nándi tadúwa, sándi tádẹna, " to meet."
ándi tabánnyen, nándi tabánnuwī, sándi tabáktsei, " to agree, \&c."
2. As imperative of t̂seskin, we only met with áre! árogō! and for the third person plural of gágeskin, támui is generally used, of which no other forms occur, except it be in the verb múskin, "to put on a shirt," perhaps = " to get into it."
3. Certain impersonal verbs, i.e. verbs with the subject dinia understood, whose final $i$ may be long or short-
 nīa bìnẹmts̆i, id. bétši, " it is dry-season." dibdifútš̄, "it is summer." nengalťt $\overline{\text { ši, "it }}$ is rainy-season." bigelátǎž, " it is spring." bunyét š̀̄, " it is night." kaútš̌̃, "it is day." dẹ́rtẹtši. " it is midnight."
kanawátši \& lamboátši, "it is famine."
kasalawấtš̌̃, " there is plenty (of provisions.)"
krīguátsǔi, " there is war."
kaläfiátši, " there is peace, prosperity."
4. Other Impersonal Verbs.
dámtšin, "it flows" (e.g, ink̂́).
tsúdûrin, "it falls" (viz. délāgẹ).
tširētšic, "it is verified" (e.g. mána).
tẹlaktšin," it drops" (e.g. $i k k t)$.
tsámbin, "it burns " (viz. kánu).
tsui and tsę́ti, "it is enough."
sẹ́tī or šito, "it is enough for me."
$n t s e ́ t i t ~ a n d ~ n t s ̌ i t o ̄, " ~ i t ~ i s ~ e n o u g h ~ f o r ~ t h e e . " ~$
tsẹrệndin, "it aches."
mbétš̌i, " there is, there exists."
wūagátse, "it happens."
wūagátši, "it has happened."
5. The verb gámgin is indeed regularly inflected, but gáptš̄̄ is sometimes used impersonally; as, sándi kām dége. ṅgáfon gáptš̆, " four persons were left behind."

## CHAPTER IX.

ETYMOLOGY OF ADVERBS.
§. 113. In an etymological point of view the Kanuri adverbs may be divided into original, converted, deflected, and compound adverbs.
§. 114. I. Original Adverbs are those which bear no trace of having been derived from other parts of speech. They separate into two classes; viz. those which are unlimited in their use, and those which are each confined to a particular verb or adjective. The former we call general, and the latter specific adverbs.

## 1. List of General Adverbs.

ái, " verily, truly, really."
$b a$, the sign of interrogation.
Perhaps it may be derived
from the same source as the
German "ob;" Old German "oba;" which, in Old German, was likewise used in direct questions see Becker's Gram. I., §. 176. bágō, " not."
$b_{i ́ a}$, "for nothing, in vain." bug, búggō, " violently, with force."
dúgō, " first, at first, before." ganí, " not." gelé, " now." kádag, " gently, softly." kúrū, kúrūma, " again." lintá, lintárō, "much, very, very much, too much, most."
$n d a$, "here, there, now, where?" ṅgálle, 品gálte, "ever, always, at any time." n'gei, "so, thus."
n'gó, "behold, here," corre-
sponding with the Hebrew .
sérag," "ever, constantly, always."
tsẹbed, " the whole day."
wáge, "soon, immediately, presently."
wónte, " now, then."
yāye, "when" (relative).
2. List of Specific Adverbs, answering to our "very."

| bug, búggō | ken | pau | sul | tsai |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d \bar{e}$ | kéded ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | pet | sílià | tsar |
| fárei | lai, lei | $p^{\text {notot }}$ | tarẹt | tser |
| fog | las | $p$ ìt | téles, tệlessö | tsírit |
| fogg | loñ | póleg | tẹn, ndẹ́n | tsit |
| for | mếu, mèu | póteg | tes |  |
| kuran | $n t s{ }_{\text {coil }}$ | sálag | tim |  |

§. 115. II. Converted Adverbs comprise a number of substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and one postposition, which are used adverbially without undergoing any change of form. The following is a list of them.

1. Substantives converted into adverbs-
bálí, " to-morrow."
bísgā," yesterday." búnyé, " by night." búrgō, "at first, originally." déregē, " next, after, at last." dérte, " at midnight."
fátsar, " at day-break" kâtsüriri, " at vesper." kau dábū, " at noon." kẹmẹndē, "this year."
kẹrma, " presently." $k \bar{u}, "$ to-day."
lēsá, "in the evening." mágarifu, "in the evening about six or seven o'clock." mêndē, " last year." mínwa, "next year." wágaré, " on the day after tomorrow."
2. Adjectives converted into adverbs: dúa, "quickly;" ganá, "a little, shortly;" gáral, " stretched out;" ígalā, "well;" sérin, " silently."
3. Pronouns converted into adverbs: átemä, " therefore;" ndárā," where, whither ?" túgō, " there, yonder."
4. A Postposition converted into adverbs: gadi, " as, as if, as when."
§. 116. III. Deflected Adverbs are either nouns with caseterminations or inflected verbs.
5. Adverbs formed by the Locative or Instrumental Case-
a. Of Substantives.-
búrgōn, "at first, originally." dếgan, " without." délin, " out of town."
fárin, " above, on high."
fúgun, " before." gánān, "from childhood."

kárą̇igen, " near." ṅgánts̆in, " before." ṅgáfon, " behind." ségerin, " aside." tsúron, " within."<br>ts̆áman, " before, previously."

## b. Of Adjectives-

díbin, "badly."
dúan," quickly."
ílān, " slowly, gently." kánadin, "quietly, meekly." káríten, " fine, beautifully."
ńgalān, " well, fine." suluweínyin, " lazily."
tságitān, "diligently,zealously." tsoúnyin, " angrily."
c. Of Pronouns : átemān, " there, then ; here, now ; therefore ;" ndán, " whence ?"
2. Adverbs formed by the Dalive Case-

> a. Of Substantives-
dégãrō, " without, out." dẹ́lirō, "out of town." fárirō, " above, up." fúguiō," before, onward." kárạǹgurō, "near."
$\dot{n}$ gâforō," back, backwards." ìgántširō," before." ségerirō, "aside." tsurórō, " within, inside."

## b. Of Adjectives -

díbirō," badly."
dर́uarō, " quickly."
ẑlārṑ, ílännō," softly, gently." kanadírō, kanadínnō, " quietly, meekly."
ká́riturō, "beautifully." kétširō, " sweetly, pleasantly." $\check{n}$ galārō, " well."

## c. Of Pronouns-

áfirö, "because." $\mid$ gadếrō," more, again." atẹnárō, "therefore, on that account." ndárārō, " whither? where?" ndárṑ, " whither? where."
d. Of Numerals-
tilơơo, "once." $\mid$ yásgurō," thrice." ndírō, "twice."

ṅgúburō," " much, very." sérinnō, " silently." súluweirō, " lazily."
tilómirö, "at once, presently." tságitsārō, " diligently."
tsoúrō; " angrily, violently." tšíremārō, " truly."
3. Adverbs are also produced by the deflection of the following verbal forms-
a. An Imperative-áte, " not," see Syntax.
b. A Conjunctional-galágāa, "next year," per ellipsin for dínīa galágīa, "when the world will have been the present year."
§. 117. IV. Compound Adverbs are formed in the following manner-

## 1. By connecting a substantive and pronoun-

bisgāte, " on the day before yesterday."
lóktete, " all that time, at this time, then, now."
náten, nátẹman, " there, then, immediately, atonce," comp. the German "auf derStelle."
sáfi, yímpì? " at what time? when?"
yímte, yímturō, yímtẹmā, yímteman, yimtemárō, " at that time, at this time, then, now."
2. By a composition with yaye or sokérmayāyé, " now, at present." ${ }^{\text {koág } u s o ̂, " ~ t i l l ~ n o w . " ~}$ sáfiyāé, "at any time, always." ndárason, " everywhere." yímpiyāyé, " whenever." yímpisō, "at any time, always."
3. By a composition with gei-áfigei? " in what manner? how? wherefore? why ?" átegei, átegeínyin, ategeirō, atẹgeíma, ategeímun, ategeímārō, "thus, in such a manner" (átegé is at the same time a converted adverb, from the pronoun átegeí, "such"). kó́agei, (from kū?)" about this time;" e.g. bálī mínwa kóagei, " next year about this time."
4. By Phraseological Composition-nâtęn fúgun, " next time, in future ;" wónte ñgáfon, " afterwards, hereafter;" áte nañga, or áte nángārō, or áte nañgátęmārō, " therefore, on that account;" áten dúgō," then, at that time, at that moment;" kūn kásẹn, "henceforth, in future;" kū adúgusō or tām kúrō kuté, " till to-day, up to this moment."

## CHAPTER X.

ETYMOLOGY OF POSTPOSITIONS.
§. 118. The Kanuri has no prepositions, properly so called; for in most cases where other languages have prepositions, it makes use of substantives, but, in a few cases, it employs postpositions which correspond to the prepositions of other languages. The following are the postpositions in use-

1. lan, "on, upon;" e.g. múskōlan, "on the hand." This appears to have arisen from a noun $l \vec{a}$, with the locative termination $n$; and, accordingly, $l \bar{a}$ and $n$ may
still be separated from one another. I met with this separation in the following two instances-
tsúrī yäsgẹlâtęn kóa gérgätsę," on the third leap, the man was vexed."
ateláman ándi kárgeiyé, "it is on this that we live."
2. derī or dẹin, " round, round about;" e.g. beládẹrī or beláderin, " round the town."
3. nainga, " because of, for the sake of, on account of." abáni nariga, " for my father's sake."
4. gadi, or contracted into gei, " as, like ;" áfi gadi, " like what?" kóägei, " like a man."

## CHAPTER XI.

## ETYMOLOGY OF CONJUNCTIONS.

§. 119. I. Original conjunctions, i.e. words which occur at present in the language only in the capacity of conjunctions, are either simple, or compound, or correlative.

1. Simple conjunctions-
$\tilde{r} \bar{a}$, "or," probably standing in the same relation to rágeskin, " I like," as, e. g., iא does to inț, and vel to velle.
sei, sai, " except, but;" tšā, "except, unless, when;" $y \bar{a}$, " if."
2. Compound conjunctions-
kwōyá, "if;" áfeiya, "if;" yăyé, " whether, if, although."
3. Correlative conjunctions$w a-w a$, "both-and." When added to $o$ and $u$, the
$w$ is generally dropped and $a$ only appended : sumōa múskōa, " ear and hand;" búltùa gádūa," the hyena and the hog."
In several cases " $i$ " is changed into $u$ when it ought to take $w a$, and then also assumes $a$ only, instead of wa; e.g. dígalwa bútšūa, " a bed and a mat."

The $i$ of the personal and possessive pronouns becomes $y u$, and then takes also $a$, instead of $w a$ : nyúa s̆yúa, " thou and he;" andyúa sandyúa, "we and they;" yānyúa abánnyūa, " my mother and my father." Sometimes, however, it becomes núa š̛́u. A final $\ell$ is likewise changed into $u$; e. g. yásgūa dégūa, " three and four."
$n-n$ or nyin-nyin, " both-and, as well-as;" the simple $n$ is used after nouns terminating in a vowel, and nyin usually after a consonant.
$\bar{o}-\bar{o}, "$ either-or," viz. after a vowel: kaláóo kúloō, " either the head, or the money = your money or your life!"
If the final vowel is $\varrho$, it becomes $u$ before $o$ : yásgū̄ déǵgū̄, " either three or four ;" sóloō kríguō " either peace or war."
$w_{\bar{o}-w}$, "id.," viz. after consonants, and rarely after vowels : némwō dágalwō, "either the house or the bed."
$r \bar{a}-r \bar{a}$, " whether-or," after vowels and consonants : dímirā pếrā," whether a sheep or a cow ;" némrā digalrä," whether a house or a bed." $k w o ̄ y a-k w a \bar{a}$ or kó́a, " if-so, if-then."
tšā̄-kwōga, " if, when."
§. 120. II. Only one of the converted conjunctions is compound, viz. áteyāyé, áteyaêrōo, " and yet, nevertheless," and all the rest are simple. Most of the latter are converted from
adverbs; as, áfirō, "why, wherefore;" átemà, áteman, atẹár $\begin{gathered}0 \\ \text {, " therefore ;" dúgō, " till, until;" } n d a, " ~ t h e n . " ~ O n e ~\end{gathered}$ is converted from a postposition, viz. gei, "as," and two from verbs, viz. áte, "lest," which is properly an imperative, and geny $\bar{a}$, which is properly a conjunctional mood.

## CHAPTER XII.

## INTERJECTIONS.

§. 121. The language appears to be rather poor in interjections, but we met with the following-
wóó! woióo! expressive of grief and pain; e. g. woío, tígīni $\dot{n}$ gásó tseréndin, " ah! my whole body is aching."
woíáyō! expressive of grief and complaint; e. g. woíāyō, wúgā kógōsei, " O ! they have beaten me;" woíàyō, yáni pátseg̀̄, " O ! my mother has died."
yoúwā! expressive of joy and surprise; e.g. yóiwā, kidanni dátời, " ah! my work is done."

## CHAPTER XIII.

MECHANICAL CONSTRUCTION OF PROPOSITIONS.

## I. Simple Propositions.

§. 122. In simple propositions the subject almost invariably stands before the predicate. This will here be illustrated by a number of examples.

1. Indicative Propositions.

## a. Positive-

 wu páñgin, "I hear."

Note I. In propositions like tš̌ttsa sándindiso, the expressed subject had better be taken as in apposition to the subject implied in the verb, and the whole translated, " they arose, both of them."

Note 2. The common order of words is inverted, when the statement is made that what precedes is a quotation (comp. Lat. inquit. E. says he); as, yētsarám ganyá? gónō širō komándē, "dost thou believe? said our Lord to him;" loktếfi tš̌̃nyen? gonō yāníyē, " at what o'clock shall we rise? said my mother;" kánüte rúsgạni, kónō kęnyếrirō búltiyye, "I did not see the fire, said the hyena to the weasel;" pántsan ndúma bágō, tşe ába pếrīberō yā pérōbeyē, " there is nobody in their house, says the girl's mother to the girl's father."
b. Negative-
mei t̂́sení, " the king did not come."
mei ŝ́šin batago, " the king does not come at all." wu pániganní, "I do not hear it." ándi trasunuíyendê, "we shall not die."
2. Interrogative Propositions. These differ from indicative propositions merely by the tone, or by the affix $b a$, which is the sign of interrogation-
'Allā mbétši? or 'Allā mbétš̌̄ba? "is there a God ?"
 mei $\frac{\text { śsin }}{}$ bágōba? " does the king not come at all?" ándi tsasunuíyendé? or tsasunuíyendéba? " shall we not die?"
3. Imperative Propositions can have their subject either expressed or included in the verb. In the first case, the subject likewise precedes the verb.
lêné! or ni lêné !" " go thou!" lénogō! or nándi lénogō!" go ye !"
> lényogō! or ándi lếnyogō!' "let us go!" áte lênemmí! or ni áte lénẹmmí! " do not go!"
4. When the predicate is a substantive or adjective, it simply follows the subject, and is not connected with it by a copula; but instead of the latter it sometimes has the affix $g \bar{o}$.

Allā mei, or 'Allā meigō, "God is the king." ši meína, or s̆i meínagō, "he is a prince." ši málam ganí, "he is not a prince," or sui málam ganígō, id. wu meíram ganí, or meíram ganígō, "I am not a princess."
II. Complex Propositions, with complements of the subject and predicate.
§. 123. The complements of the subject may be adjectives, numerals, possessive pronouns, and substantives, either in apposition, or in the genitive case, and participles which may likewise be complemented.

1. Adjectives and numerals always follow the subject âm wúra nā meíbērō létsei, "great men went to the king." $k a ̄ m$ tálagā $\begin{gathered}\text { éş̃, "a poor person came." }\end{gathered}$ mei ndé lębála tsádin," two kings made war." per úgu tsagáši, "five horses have run away."
2. Possessive Pronouns are always suffixed to the subject, even when the latter is defined by adjectives or numerals-
kemấndè kúra, " our Lord is great." abántsa pérntsa tsaládì "their father has sold their horses."
mánäni tílō mbếtši, literally, " my word one is there," i.e. "I have one word to say."
pẹ́rni kúrā nui, "my large horse died."
mánāntsa tšìi ē gúltsei, " they have spoken their true words," i.e. "the truth."
3. Nouns in the genitive case, or in apposition may precede the subject ; but generally they follow it -

Bornúbē mei kām kúra and mei Bornúbē kām kúra, "the king of Bornu is a great man."
abánibē nẹm kánuyè tsẹ́bui and nẹm abánibè kánuyē tsẹbui, "fire consumed my father's house."
mei abáni lúptšī and abáni mei lúptšz̆, "my father, the king, has died."
'Ali yayáni lếtš̃̌ and yayáni ${ }^{\text {º Ali }}$ lêtsừ, " Ali, my brother, has gone."
 " slaves, four in number," i.e. "four slaves have run away."
4. Participles, with their complements before them, follow the subject-
bárbū kām 'dí kálgūni ndalgédāna mána tílōma manátsäní, " the two thieves who were stealing my shirt did not speak one word."
wu nāntsúrō lénganna tátāntse rúskī, "going to his place, I saw his child."
§. 124. The complements of the predicate may be adverbs, a next and remote object, and an infinitive, which may itself be variously complemented.

1. The adverbs may stand either before or after the predicate, yea, even before the subject-
bárbü ílān kádiō, or bárbū kádiō ilān, or ílan bárbū kádiō, "the thief came softly."
per dúarō ṅgéremts̆in, or pẹr ṅgérents̆in dúarō, or dúarō per ngéremtšin, " the horse gallops quickly."

The same position is occupied by substantives which are used adverbially wu tsédin kádiskō, or wu kádiskō tsédin, or tsédin wu kádiskō, "I came by land."
s̆i múskōn kítā, or s̆̈i kítā múskōn, or múskōn ši kítā, "he caught it with the hand."
2. The next and remote objects can occupy all possible positions with regard to the subject, to the predicate, and to each other-
s̆i wúrō dáa s̄ō, or ši wúrō šō dā, or wúrō ši dá šō, or d $\frac{1}{a}$
 gave me meat."
wu pẹr meírō kúskō, or wu meírō per kúskō, or meírō wú per kúskō, or pẹr wu meírō kúskō, or wú per kúskō meírō, or per meírō wu kúskō, "I brought a horse to the king."
kām kạ́nāyē rigúbu tšéťšin bágō," a famine does not kill many people."

Sometimes the object and its verb are separated from each other by another verbwúgā dánèm šigóremba? " wouldest thou stop and ask me?"
wu kù lífā kórōbē, lénigin, dúgō Állāyē pélēsege, búskẻ, "I ate to-day the corpse of an ass, which God showed me as I walked."

The position occupied by the next and remote object, can also be occupied by an object and an adverb, or an object and a noun used adverbially-
ši kitábugā ílān góttši, or süi ílān gótš̌i kitábugāa, or ílān ši kitábugà gótšì, or kitábugā ši ílān gôtšĭ, or s̆i kitábugā gótš̄̃ ílān, or kitábugā ílän s̆i gótšĩ, "he took the book softly."


 búltugā kás̆agarnyin ši tšętš̌̆, "he killed a hyena with the sword."

When a proposition contains an adverb, in addition to a next and remote object, the adverb has the same freedom of position.
wu bísgā pẹ meírō kúskō, or bísgā wu per kískō meírō, or wu per kúskō bísgā meírō, or wu pęr kúskō meírō bísgā, or wu pęr bísgā meírō kúskō," yesterday I brought a horse to the king."
3. The same freedom of position is also extended to an infinitive and its complements which may qualify the predicate-
wu kúyinturō lête rágeskī, or wu léte rágeskī kúyinturō, or kúyinturō wu lête rágeskkī, \&c., "I like to go far away." wu pérni kásugurō ntsátō wángì, or kásugurō wu pérni ntsátō wáng̀ī, or wu pérni ntsátō wánigı̀ kásugurō, or wu kásugurō pérni ntsátō wáñḡ̄, " I will not take my horse to market."

## III. Junction of Propositions.

§. 125. In connecting propositions with each other, various means can be adopted-

1. Conjunctions, e. g. ni wúrō kídā š̀dẹm kwōyá, wu nígā beäntsóskō, "if thou workest for me, I will pay thee."
2. The Conjunctional Mood: ni abánigā rúmīa ši labárte gúlentsonō, " when thou shalt see my father, he will tell thee the news." wu pátorô wólteskè lérigīa, äm pátobēye è wúrơ, " ndán kádim? ?" tsányā wúyē "káragan kádiskō" nẹ́skīa, àm pátobē wúro " tšívè gúlẹmi" tơédābá? "if I
return home, and the people at home say to me, ' whence camest thou?' and I tell them, ' I came from the forest,' will the people at home say to me, 'thou hast spoken truth?" "
wu, kánurō sunótẹn lēgasgẹnyā, kánu rùsgğní, "I, when thou sentest me for fire, and I had gone, did not see fire."
3. Sometimes propositions remain formally unconnected, which, in other languages, are joined by conjunctions.
a. Interrogative subordinate propositions:

ṅgălōndē ruiyē tsúlugībá," let us see whether our beans have come up." wừné abánni t̛ỡ $\bar{b}$ a, "see, if my father has come."
b. Subordinate propositions expressive of the object of a principal proposition, they being included between the subject and predicate of the latter. The conjunction omitted here is the propositional article, which is also frequently omitted in other languages-
mei Fulátäwa tsagásín tsírui, "the king sees the Phula flee."
 held his rope."
tšā wu tsäbälan wứa nyúa kg̣lā fóktseiyē nóneşgqná kwōya, "if I had known that you and I would have met." bárbu s̛̀ kandírayè šigà gurétšin nốtseni. "the thief knows not that the hunter watches him."
4. There is in Kanuri a peculiar encasement of propositions, one proposition being, as it were, parenthetically inserted or encased in another, which we have sometimes to express by a participial construction, or a conjunction.
ši tsúrō pẹrbē, ágō tsúrō pẹrbèn degánā nótseñí, tšífunäté́, "he who had bought the belly of the horse (what was in the belly of the horse he knew not.")
sandígā dábūntsa fónnẹm tei, " catch them and tie their neck."
wōkítāte, málamwa bóbōtsa, karánógō, " call the priests, and read the letter."
sándi nás̊ā tílon, meíyē ná tsō, náptsäna, "they were sitting on one side, the king having given them a place." ándi nā pérrōẹ́mbērō, kámurō rágē nyē, kásùyē, "we are come to "thy daughter, as we thought we would like her for a wife."
nā ígalārốbērō, ši kéribē tségā, kádiō, "he came to the place of the ram, following the footsteps of the dog."
 riage, give her to me," i.e. give her to me in marriage." ngúdō kéndegeílan, ām 'găsō šígā tsárui, pártse, " the bird flies from the court, the people all seeing it."
$n \bar{a}$ dáágelsō kasálteirō, koúntse ganá gôtse, gerátsé, ťšz̄, "he came to the place where the monkeys bathe, having taken to himself a little stone and concealed it."
pếrōntse káragārō kó́ayē gó̀tse gágā, " the man took her girl, and entered the forest."
karáminítę, wu šíga sôbā abániberō, nígā dískē, yísk̄̄, " as for my younger sister, I gave her in marriage to my father's friend."
nírō géránigè kíguskō, "I hid it, and brought it to thee." kámā sandírō kómb̄u gótse keínyā, "the woman having taken food and given it to them."
abántsurō ṅkt goótse tšō, "she took water and gave it to her father."
áte, búndiyè nígā âse góntsẹní, "lest a beast come and take thee."
wu bẹlla gadéroo tátāni táskē lénẹskin, "I will take my child and go to another town."

## CHAPTER XIV.

## SYNTAX OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§. 126. The proper names of persons are generally accompanied by that of a parent, in the following manner: the patronymics of males are derived from the name of the mother by means of the adjective-termination $m i$, and the patronymics of females from that of the father by means of the adjective-termination ram.

1. Names of males-
${ }^{\text {TA }}$ Ali Eísämi, i.e. "Ali, whose mother was Eisá."
${ }^{\prime} A t s ̌ i ~ K o ́ d o ̄ m i, ~ i . e . ~ " A t s ̌ i, ~ w h o s e ~ m o t h e r ~ w a s ~ K o ́ d o ̄ . " ~$
$\dot{N}$ ́óama Nánāmi, i.e. "Ngóama, whose mother was Nánã."
Mastáfā Kélùmi, i.e. "Mastáfā, whose mother was Kélu." "Ibram Káreèmi, "Ibram, whose mother was Káree."
2. Names of females-

Eísā Magátširam, i.e. "Eisa, whose father was Magátǒi." Ligeram Wúmarram, i.e. "Ligeram, whose father was Omar."
Ká́rū Asemá́ram, i. e. "Ká́rū, whose father was Asẹma." Pésäm 'Atširam, i.e." Pessam, whose father was "Atši." Tsárā Búgarram, i.e. Sarah, whose father was Bugar."

The profession or office of the father is often added to the proper name in a similar manner-

1. Names of males-
${ }^{〔}$ Ali Eisāmi málammi, i.e. "Ali, whose mother was Eisa, and whose father was a priest."
${ }^{\text {'Ibram Kèlūmi málamtimí, "'Ibram, whose mother was }}$ Kélümi, and whose father was a cattle-owner." Dála kógganāmi, i.e. "Dala, whose father was a soldier."
2. Names of females-

Máríam ${ }^{\text {'Atš̀irram }}$ málamram; i.e. " Mary, whose father was the priest Atstiz"
Káru kóganāram, i.e. "Karu, whose father was a soldier."
Eisāa bélamäram, i.e. "Eisa, whose father was a magistrate."
§. 127. The sons of kings and of the first minister of war (keígama) are termed meina, and the daughters meiram. But both these words have the peculiarity of being placed before the proper name, as substantives, corresponding to our "prince" and "princess;" although originally they appear to have been real adjectives. In order to express whether a prince or princess is the son or daughter of the king or of the first minister of war, meimí and meíram, or keígamämi and keígamāram are respectively joined to the name.

Children of the king-
meina Búgar meimí, " prince Bugar."
meína Eísāmi meimí, " prince Eisami." meína Músā meimí, " prince Moses." meíram Tsárā meíram, "princess Sarah." meíram Eísa meíram, "princess Eísa." meíram Kệlū meíram, " princess Kẹ́lu."

Children of the keigama-
meína ${ }^{\text {n }}$ Ali keígamāmi, "prince Ali." meína Ibrām keígamāmi,' " prince Ibrahim.'
meíram Tsärā keígamäram, "princess Sarah."
meíram 'As̆ā keigamāram, " princess Asha.".
meíram Búgarram keígamãram, " princess Bugarram."

The grandsons of a king and of his first minister of war are termed meidug $\hat{u}$, and the granddaughters kingì. But the king's grandchildren add to their name meinämí and meinäram, and the keígama's grandchildren, keígamämí and keígamāram.
meídugū $\mathcal{L}$ Ali meínämí, " prince Ali."
kíngı̄ Tsárā meỉnāram, " princess Sara." meídugū Búgar keígawämí, " prince Bugar." kíngī Kárrē keígamāram, " princess Kare."

Note.-The children of a meídugū and kingī̀ have no further distinguishing title, but merely add to their own that of their parents, like other people-'Ali meidugū, 'Ali kíngīmi, Eísa meídugūrám.

When the king is addressed, the word koma, which, like our " Lord," is also used in addressing God, is usually added after the word mei, e.g. mei kománi, " my lord king."
§. 128. The Kấnurī language has no words exactly corresponding to our "Mr.," "Mrs." "Sir," "Madam," and in their stead it uses terms which properly denote family-relations. These terms can be used with or without the proper name, and have generally the suffix of the first person singular of the possessive pronoun.
yáya,=" great grandfather," "great grandmother," is used in addressing extremely old people, who are thereby designated as being able to be somebody's real great grandparents, a thing considered most honourable, e.g. yáyäní, "my great grandfather!" yáyäni 'Ali, " my great grandfather Ali;" yáyāní Eísä. $k a g a ́="$ grandfather," " grandmother," is used in addressing aged persons, if, by way of compliment, one wishes to express himself so much their junior, that he could be their real grandchild, e.g. kagáni, " my grandfather;"
kagáni 1 Ibrām, " my grandfather Ibram;" kagáni Tsára " my grandmother Sarah."
$\dot{a} b a=$ "father " and $y \bar{a}=$ " mother " are used, the first in addressing males, and the second in addressing females, to whom one wishes to show filial reverence. This is the usual mode of address, answering to our " Mr." and "Mrs."—abáni, " my father ;" yá́ni, " my mother;" abáni Búgar, " father Bugar ;" yáni Kárè, " mother Kare." yay $\dot{\alpha}=$ "elder brother," and "elder sister" is used in addressing males and females whom one considers older than oneself, and yet not old enough to be one's parents, e.g. yayáni, "my elder brother;" yayấni Dálā, " elder brother Dala; yayáni’Amsa," "elder sister Amsa." karámi=" younger brother, younger sister," is used in addressing males and females whom one considers younger than oneself, and yet not so young as to be one's children; e.g. karâminí, " my younger brother;" karáminí Suleíman, "my younger brother Solomon;" karáminí Sábēa, " my younger sister Sabea."
táta $=$ " child, son, or daughter," is used in addressing those whom one considers so much younger as to admit of one's being their parent, e.g. tátāní, " my son;" tátāní ${ }^{\prime} I s \bar{a}$, " my son Jesus," also tátāní kéngalī $I s a$, id. If one addresses a female, pérō is necessarily added after tátāní, e.g. tátāni pếrō," my daughter;" tátāní pérō $\dot{N}$ goálū, " my daughter Ngoali."
dígō=" grandchild, grandson, and granddaughter," is used in addressing youths and children over whom age and experience gives one the superiority of grandparentsdígōni, "my grandson;" dígōni Músa, "my grandson Moses;" dígöni Aúa, " my granddaughter Eve." yayári="great grandchild, great grandson, great granddaughter," is used by very old persons in addressing young people-yayáarīni, " my great grandchild;" yayáarīní Edírīsa, " my great grandson Edirisa;" yayáriní Magáltum, " my great granddaughter Magaltum."
§. 129. A peculiar use of certain other substantives may here be noticed:
diniā or dinīa is often used when we predicate a thing of the grammatical subject-
dínïa kau dábbū, lit. "the world is noon," i.e. "it is noon."
díniä bunétš̌̄, lit. " the world has become night," i.e. "it has become night."
dínīa bīnémtši, lit. "the world has cold season," i.e. "it is cold season."
dínī̄ ná̛ngalûts̃̄̃, lit. " the world has rainy season," i.e. "it is rainy season."
díniä bántenyếwa, lit. " the world is hazy," i.e. "it is hazy."
díniā ká̛nâ kadínyâ, " when a famine had come."
diniä nẹtsélam, " the sky is darkness," i.e." there is darkness."

káma, " companion, associate," is used for our " other," as the Hebrew רָע and
wútẹ kóanigā kámänem, " as for me, a man thy fellow," i.e. " who am a man as well as thou, like thyself." búrgōwa kámāntsúa kálā fóktsāna, " one cunning one met with the other."
ndúndè kámāntségà kôtreyāyé, ni tšírum, "thou shalt see whoever of us surpasses the other."
ágō tilórō dímmāté, kámāntsúrō dímmí kwōyá, "if what thou doest to the one, thou doest not to the other."
$n \bar{a}$, "place," is used in connexions where other languages employ the word " hand," or personal pronouns, or even the verb " to have."
málam wōkéta nányin tsẹ́māḡ̃, " the priest took the letter from my hand."
árgém nántsan ganá ganá tsémágę," he takes very little millet from their hand."
kérmei nántsẹn-máskē, "I take the kingdom from him." $n a ̄$ komändébērō lēgédányā, komāndêrrō: "ándi nānẹmmó kášè." Komándè sandírō: "áfi nányin mánuwī?" " when they had come to our Lord, they said to our Lord: 'we are come to thee.' Our Lord said to them : ' what do you want of me?'" wu kamágẹn bắgō nányin, "I have no honey."
For rō and kálā, see §. 193 ; for kām, kóa, kōánigā, see §. sányā, " profession," has this peculiarity, that, when the profession is specified, it is never done by the concrete, but always by the abstract noun.
kríge or nógana sányānigō, " I am a soldier by profession."
yánte sányāntsígō, " he is a fisherman by profession." sábr sányă sôbāníbègō," my friend is a merchant by profession."
$\breve{s i}$ nándirā or bárā sányāntsúgō, " he is a hunter by profession."

The same rule holds good in reference to kágalla, " rank, office," e. g. s̈i kágallāntse nätsalla, " he is a general by rank."
kágallänem nembẹ́läbá? " art thou a magistrate by office ?"

## Use of the Cases-Nominative.

§. 130. Few languages having developed a real Nominative termination, it is natural that the Bornu should not be very rigid in its use, but often omit it. A noun is often sufficiently marked out as the nominative, when it stands in the proximity of other words with oblique case-terminations. But the use of the nominative termination is a means by which the subject of a proposition can enjoy a more extensive freedom of position, without producing any ambiguity in the

* y
construction. It would seem, that this nominative suffix (ye) is generally long, but not always.
kanáyé sandígā tsętei, " hunger seized them."
túlōye kámāntségā tsúgōre, " one asks the other."
kạnę̣yyẽ sandígā gótse, " sleep overwhelms them."
 mouth."
nèm gálifubē kánuyē tsẹ́bū, " fire consumes the house of the rich man."
tsa mei Bórnumārō kōganawántsiyè gulgéda, " said his soldiers to the king at Bornu."
§. 131. The Nominative termination is sometimes retained before another case-termination-
wúyērō rášīde kām yấsge šéogō ! " give me three men !"
yáte málamyêrō! " carry him to the priest !"
nandíyërō állā bárga tsakẹ! " may God bless you !"
wúyēga sâtẹ! " carry me!"
kitábuyēga gótsei, " they took a book."
árgalámyēga gótsei, " they took a pen."
This may be the case, even when the accusative termination which should follow it is omitted, so that, in fact, the nominative becomes an accusative-
yäntšíyē tši̛rūní, abántš̆iyē tšírūní, " he cannot see his mother, he cannot see his father." dátitiyè rigásoo dếnógō, " cook all this flesh."
bẹlan kámuyè déptsäni," they do not leave a woman in the town."
árgemyē rúntsen gànánogō, tširāyè rúntsęn ganáanogo, "lay down the corn by itself and the sand by itself."
 looked at the south."


## Genitive.

8. 132. With regard to the position of the genitive it may be
said, that, in most cases, it immediately follows the word which it qualifies. But this order, although predominant, is yet not unfrequently reversed; and sometimes there is even another word intervening between the genitive and its governing noun. The following instances will illustrate these three different cases-
1. mána állāabe, " word of God."
tšírē mánabē, " the truth of the word."
kánu nẹm abắnibē tsébui, " fire consumed my father's house."
kitábu $b$ yayấnibē s̆ē, " give me my brother's book."
2. kúguibē kợnā yêtsęmin? " canst thou destroy the appetite of fowls."
kóábē tšē wuítse, " he looses the man's rope."
táta dúlīma sóbāntsíbē mána pãngányā," the leprous boy having heard his friend's word."
šimà péerōtíbè kóā, tse, "he shall be the girl's husband, said he."
$\bar{a} m$ wúra kaúbe tsou pängeddany $\bar{a}$, " when the great men had felt the heat of the sun."
3. ṅgampáttū tsábā wútšin kúguibē, " the cat sees the way of the fowls."
$\dot{n} k \underset{t}{t}$ tsútōri ṅgálōōē, " the water of the beans boiled." áfi rágem krt̛gibé? "what (implement) of war dost thou like?"
§. 133. Of the various relations expressed by the genitive, that of possession predominates (genitivus possessivus) -
kátīa állābē or kéntš̃̄ állābē," servant of God."
pátō abánibē, " my father's house,"
táta yayánibee, " my brother's son."
bérni mérbē, " the king's residence."
tánei kámubē," the woman's clothes."
ándi Bórnubē," we of Bornu, or belonging to Bornu."

The material, also, of which a thing consists, its quality or the profession, rank, and office which one has, can be expressed by a noun in the genitive, (genitivus qualitativus) -
lêtsäm lêfulābē," a bridle of silver."
lítsäm sưbē, " a bridle of iron."
kóš̆sa gésgābē," a wooden spoon." kós̛ša lífulābē," a silver spoon." $\dot{n}$ gáwa kárambē," a shield made of an alligator's hide." $\dot{n} g a ́ w a ~ \dot{n} g a ́ r a n b e \bar{e}, " ~ a ~ s h i e l d ~ m a d e ~ o f ~ a ~ w i l d-c o w ' s ~ h i d e . " ~ " ~$ kásuagar sừbè, " an iron sword."
sốbäntse málambè," his friend, the priest."
sóbāntse kérdibē, "his friend, the heathen."
abáni bẹ́lamābee pátseḡ̄," my father, the magistrate, has died."
sốbā meínäbē kándiräabē pátsegī," the hunter, the prince's friend, has died."
níte sóbāni tsưrēbēe, " thou art my friend of a truth; or, my true, real friend."
ni pátōbè, wu déliliè , " thou art in the house, I in the field ; or, thou belongest to the house, I to the field."

The lack of a partitive use of the genitive is supplied by the postposition lan, or by placing the whole of which part is referred to absolutely at the head of a proposition-
táta kánibé ndílan tílō kolôtsẹ tílō gớtsẹ, " of the two kids he leaves one and takes one."
tsánei ilf̂fi rágem? lit. " as to cloth, what sort dost thou like? i.e. " what sort of cloth dost thou like?"
§. 134. A genitive whose governing word is not expressed has frequently to be rendered in English by, "men, people, followers, disciples," or by wordslike, " work, office, duty, speech, life, suffering,' \&c.-
nábi ${ }^{\text {I }}$ Isabēté sándi kámū tílō gốtsa, " the followers of the prophet Jesus take one wife."
állabëma šigō tse, "he said, that he belonged to God; or, was God's servant."
kó́abë tsúlugi, " the man's business is over."
abánibē dátš̌i, " my father's speech, or work, or life, is over." bẹ́lamäbè bêla gurêta, "it is the magistrate's to keep the town."
kárgunmäbē kárgun kẹ́ntšo, "it is the doctor's to give medicine."
búltū dágẹl tilō dábubēn tsę́tā, "the hyena takes one monkey by the neck."
kámū kómãndébē tserrámbū, " the woman paid her $\operatorname{debt}$ (kásu) to our Lord," i.e. she died.
ándi süga múskōben teíyendé kwōyá" if we do not take him by his hand."
kasgimábērō lếgonō," he went to the diviner's." abánibèroo lénigin, "I go to my father's." állābēma šigō, " God's will be done."
fúgubēmátiyè tsúrūní, " he who was before saw it not." wu kẹrrmei šibēn máskī, "I have taken the kingdom from him." wúbē dátư̛̌i, "it is all over with me, I am as good as dead."
§. 135. The Kanuri, not admitting of composition, has sometimes to make use of a genitive, where ree can compound rúngō árgèmbè," " millet flour."
kanigádĩ pêbeé, "cow-horn."
kídā kúlōbē," farm-work."
tábera némbē, " house-door."
ṅgampátū̄ káragābē, " bush-cat."
ši kárgūa tširrēbē, "he is true-hearted."

Sometimes the genitive is used in a connexion where it must be rendered by our "for, to, in order to, against, towards "-
kátsumū kâmūnỉbēn kágèn wúrō šímīa, "he having given me clothes both for my wife and myself."
kélfūnemté lebaíabēbá? "is this thy natron for trade?"
béóogō gésgā tsáltābē," axes for cutting trees."
kátkunni tsẹ́tęní, lit. "it does not reach my load," i.e. "it is not yet a load for me."
sóbāni nẹm ká́muntsíbē tẹ́mtš̃, " my friend built an house for his wife."
kárgun káramābē, " a charm against witches."
kóā tsábā pāntsíbē gótse," " the man took the road towards his home."
$\dot{a ́ g o ̄ ~ k o ́ m b u n t s a ́ b e ̄ ~ t s ̌ i ́ f u ̄, ~ " ~ h e ~ b u y s ~ s o m e t h i n g ~ f o r ~ t h e i r ~ f o o d . " ~}$
tsálintse kọu gótibē širō tšin, béogōntse gẹ́sgā kámtibè širō $t s ̆ i n$, " he gives him his bag for taking stones, and his axe for cutting wood."
 drinking water."
§. 136. It is surprising, that the Genitive termination is often added to an inflected verb, or even to a longer proposition, similarly to the Hebrew, where a noun can appear in the state of construction before a proposition, e.g. 1 Sam. xxv. 15,
 even in this latter case, there can be an ellipsis of the governing noun, when it may be gathered from the context,
lókte tšiñógōbē, lit. " the hour of 'rise ye,'" i.e. "the hour when God will say 'rise!'" i.q. lókte tơ̌itibē, " the hour of rising," i.e. " of the resurrection."
nemée ' ágō yásgete ndásō ṅgúbugōbē' nemé badấgonō, " he began to tell the tale of 'which three things are the greatest? ${ }^{\text {" }}$
kốa gédirō debátsegeñābēté sírtogō, "flay the one (sc. sheep) of that man who has killed it towards the east." mána wásisī rúntse nemétš̈mbè s̀i pántši," he heard the word which the white man was saying by himself,"
which is the same as : mána wáásili rúntse nemếtsenāté ši pántšà.
tatoánę̣mwa bu, dúgō lēnógōbè," thou and thy children may eat, before you go."
§. 137. If a word is defined both by a noun in the genitive and a possessive pronoun, the latter is suffixed to that word, and the genitive follows it, in the same way as adjectives do, a construction which we also meet with in Hebrew, e.g. מַחִסִי עֹן, " my refuge of strength," i.e. " my strong refuge "-
kásunindè ṅgálōbē mányyē, "let us seek our bean-seed," i.e. "beans for seed."
 calabash to fetch water in."
létẹndè kúbēté, " this our going of to-day."
nemè́ntsa áširbē nemétsei, "they speak their word of secrecy," i.e. "their secret word."
kấmūntse nigäbē," his wife of matrimony," i.e. "his married wife."
káreintse krígibē tsáptse, "he takes his war-instruments together."
káśšintse kómbubẻ širō ts̆in, " he gives him his provision of food for the journey."
§. 138. But generally the genitive and its governing noun, forming only one logical word, are also to such an extent dealt with as a grammatical unit, that case-terminations and pronouns-often both at the same time-are affixed to the word in the genitive, instead of that qualified by it.
sándi nă sóbãníbērō lêtsa, " they go to my friend's place." $n \bar{a} a \bar{a} m$ wúrabērō $\hat{\text { tै }} 8 \rho s k \bar{\imath}$, " I came to the place of the great men."
wu táta málam kúrabèga rúskī, "I saw the son of the great priest."
tši pè érō meíbè pátsegenábērro pâtsege," he holds it to the mouth of the king's diseased daughter."
kóayè pẹ́ran tsúrō kánubēn tsutúlūgę, "the man takes the leg out of the midst of the fire."
$\check{n} g o ̄$, wu $̂$ áseski mána bísgäbêturō, " behold, I have come on account of the word of yesterday."
tš̃ tšinnäbbēn, dátse," he stops at the entrance of the gate." ába pérrōbèga lafeátse, " he salutes the father of the girl." wu nä kánubéturō lêgasgǻnyã, "I having gone to the place of this fire."
kásugūu bẹ̀la gadébèèoo lêtsei, " they went to the market of another town."
nâ léte kábūu tílōbērō sandígà késātō, "they carried them to a place of the distance of one day's walk," iq. na létẹ kábū tílowäro sandígā̀ késàtō.
š̆̀ni ndỉsō káligī̀ kánigarbēyē súktse, " a thorn of the kangartree pricks both my legs."
§. 139. When a noun is both defining and defined (the former in regard to one that precedes, and the latter in regard to one that follows) it may assume the genitive termination, but more generally it is without it-
sártę kásugū bęlamásúibē tsęte, "it is the time for the market of a neighbouring town."
$k a ̄ m$ tši tšinnäbē," a porter."
tige pérbē kóabē kiruinyā," he having seen the skin of the man's horse."
pátō bẹ́làma béláaberō lếgonō," he went to the house of the magistrate of the town."
§. 140. The genitive is pleonastic, when it is connected with a possessive pronoun, just as in the German provincial-ism-" meines Knaben sein Buch," or "meines Freundes sein Name" -
yímtẹmä kitábubē nigúbüntse nōgéda, "on that day they knew the abundance of books."
málamníbē tsūntséte, kó́a málam Eísãmi, " my priest's name was, priest Eisami."
ába pérōbē tátabè láfeäntse tsémāge," " the girl's father accepts the boy's salutation."
bẹlátibē tsúntse Kalálāwa, " that town's name was Kalalawa." meitíbé abántse kúra, "he was the king's great uncle." meíbë karámintse meína bóbōtse," "the king's sister calls the prince."
kandíra tílōbē kidāntse ām wúrayē tsárui, " the great man had seen the work of the one hunter."
§. 141. The genitive is sometimes avoided by the use of a possessive pronoun or an adjective in wa.
mána hámma pánts̆in bágó," he did not hear the word of any body."
nẹn kánibé tšinnänts̆e péremts̆a, " they open the door of the goat-house," i. q. ts̆inna nẹm kánibë pérẹtra.
káliāte tsứntse T Te̛tétsēe, " that slave's name is Tshetshe, i.q. tsū káliātílē \&c.
búnīte tsưntse dágun bóbōtsei," they call the name of that fish Dagu," i. q. tsūu būnítibē, \&c.
wu mánäte pántẹtse wánggana, "I dislike the hearing of this word," i. q. wu pântẹ mánätíbē wánigåna.
mei kámuntse táta pềrō kēảmbō, "a king's wife brought forth a girl."
dími dábuntse kálaktši Potêro, "he directed the sheep's head to the west."

## Dative.

§. 142. The proper import of the dative appears to be that of motion towards a place, and therefore it is used after the question " whither?" Then, by applying the idea of motion to time, it is also used of temporal duration after the question, "how long?" But although this is its general force, it is sometimes used to indicate quiet rest in a
place after the question "where?" just as languages, which use prepositions, frequently express motion towards and rest in a place by the same preposition. And, accordingly, it is also used in a temporal sense after the question "when ?"

Note. The dative termination is sometimes omitted, probably through carelessness of the speakergédi gá̛sgā kúrābē létsę," he went under a large tree." lêtsa nem lemánbè," they go to the warehouse."
§. 143. The dative used of motion or direction in spacekúlorō tátoántse bóbōtse," he calls his children to the farm."
tšigāntsurō tsáke, " he puts it into his bag."
tšē dábuntsārō tsęregérére," he ties a rope to their neck." búltù káragāntsurō abgātẹnyā, "the hyena having started for its forest."
búltū $̂$ ôsin nántsārō, sandîyē nā búltubērō $\begin{gathered}\text { t́sei, " the hyena }\end{gathered}$ comes to them, and they to the hyena."
dími dábântsẹ Potếrō kalảts̆ yāyé, kóa Gédirō kálaktsege dímīga Gédirō debátseḡ̄, "whenever the sheep had turned its neck to the west, the man turned it to the east, and slaughtered the sheep towards the east."

The dative used of rest in space-
kámū tátāntsúa kạnẹ̣mō bōgẹdányā," when the woman and her child lay asleep."
§. 144. The dative used of continuation in time.
kĝ̣ntäge ndírṑ nabgasgânyă," he having sat down two months."
$k u ́ b \bar{u}$ mágẹrō lègónō, " he went on one week."
kâbū yásgurō tsúrō $\dot{n} k i ̉ b e ̄ n ~ d e g e i ́ y a ̄, ~ " i t ~ h a v i n g ~ r e m a i n e d ~$ three days in water."
kábū máge ndú, yásgegeirō tússa," they wait for about two or three weeks."
wu búnyērō kádiskō, " I came in the night, or by night." kábù ganárō kargúnyā, " they having lived a few days."
§. 145. There is a kind of absolute dative, indicating a general relation or reference, which must be expressed in English by " as to, with regard to, according to." This use of the dative, however, does not appear to be very frequent.
$k a ̄ m$ núnan, käm 'gắnyinturō ndásō $\dot{n} g u ́ b u g o ̄ ? ~ " w i t h ~ r e g a r d ~$ to the dead and the living, who are the more numerous?" dínar tsurớre kátkuntsurō, "he takes gold according to his load," i.e. " as much as he could carry."
mina núnärō nốtsęní, "he knew not of the dead lion," i.e. "that the lion was dead."
§. 146. The remote object of doubly transitive verbs is always in the dative case, and especially also the price at which any thing is sold.
wu keáriga kígōreskō mána tilórō, "I asked the old man for a word."
ndágurō ládẹmin? " at how much dost thou sell it?" wu pếni wưtsẹnārō ladẹ́skī, "I have sold my cow for twelve dollars."
$\dot{n} g u ́ r d e g i ̄ r o ̄ ~ w u ́ g a ̄ ~ s e ́ d e ̣ n a ̈ ̆, ~ " i t ~ h a s ~ m a ̂ d e ~ m e ~ a ~ l a m e ~ m a n . " ~$ sándi sớbäni bẹlamārō gånâtsei, "they made my friend magistrate."
wu sígã sóbānírō kéréneskē," I have chosen him for my friend."
ši wúgā logóši ágō kómbubērō, "he begged food of me." kúlōni rếtsei náyā dégurō, " they divided my farm into four parts."
mártegené mánāni kámūnẹmmō gúllé," please, tell my word to thy wife."
kómāndégà kégorō, ágō kárgentsábērō, " they asked our Lord concerning something they had at heart."
níga dếrō kóltseiendé," we cannot let thee (sc. go) empty." állā kábuntse kúrugurō tsedéé!"may God make his days long !"
§. 147. In close connexion with its preceding use, the dative also indicates the person or thing for whose benefit or harm anything is done (=dativus commodi et incommodi) -
málam sandírō állà logôtsę," the priest begs God for them." abáni nā kárgunmáábērō lếtši wúrō," my father went to the doctor for me."
ÁA nẹm tẹ́mtši káámuntsurō," Ali built a house for his wife." wúrō kām mānógō!" seek somebody for me!"
málan kárgun trẹ́dę Fulátāsorō, " the priest makes a charm against all the Phula."
§. 148. In the following examples, where the dative expresses the purpose or object of an action, it is analogous to the supine (see §. 262); and the difference is merely, that in these cases it is joined with a noun, whereas in the supine it requires an infinitive-
wu nikt̂rō lếngin, "I will go for water."
ágō gadếrō gani nānémmō kášyē," "we have come to thee for nothing else."
kúrguligā lebálārō tsétã, "he seizes the lion for a fight." kámù gẹ́sgārō lêtsęna, " the woman is gone for wood." káliāwa kãm’di légededa súgurō, "two slaves went for grass."
§. 149. And in full contrast with its use just mentioned, the dative also marks the cause, motive, reason, from which an action proceeds, in which case it has to be expressed in English by " on account of, because of, from, through, by," \&c.
mána nyúa meinãwa nemẹ́nuwáturō kádiskō, "I am come on
account of the word which thou and the prince have been speaking."
mána átẹáárō ni yírẹmin? " wilt thou cry because of this word."
$n \bar{a}$ meíbērō nemtálagārō lếtsę, "he goes to the king on account of his poverty."
kalígimō núnaãté tígīntsẹ́ degẹ́ndin, mána kátsallä krígíbērō, " the dead camel's skin shook at the word of the war-chief." tátoàntse ṅgắsō kạ́närō tsášīrin, "all his children cry from hunger."
$\ddot{n} g o ̄$, wu $̀$ íseskī mánändē bísgābéturō, "behold, I have come because of our word of yesterday."
kúrrūntse tsaráganí nẹmdibintsúrô, "they do not like the sight of him, because of his badness."
šíga állan mägíngánátẹmãrō, wriga kolốs̃z, " he left me on account of my entreating him for God's sake."

## Accusative.

§. 150. The accusative termination which seems to be often short, is as frequently omitted as it is used, because this case can generally be easily known from the context, even without distinction of form. It is especially under the following circumstances that the accusative termination can be omitted, without producing the slightest ambiguity -

1. When the subject is distinguished by the nominative termination-
ウ̇gampátū kériyè gôtse tsíndī," the dog took and swallowed the cat."
ágō rōnémyé tserágenāté," something which thy soul likes."
táta rigúdōbē tílō káruwāyē tsédirō kolōgányā," "the storm having thrown one young bird upon the ground."
2. When the subject stands before the object and verbmei keígamá bóbōtse, " the king calls the general."
sóbāni kitátáb gớtš̌, " my friend has taken the book." málam tsúgutō yayáni, " the priest fetched my brother."
3. When the objective inflection of the verb points out the accusative-
ši néngalà rum bágoō, " thou dost not see him in the rainy season."
$k \bar{u}$ wu állayē bánāsege, "to-day God helps me." wu komándè sẹrágì, " the Lord loves me."
For the accusative with a nominative termination, see §. 130.

## Locative or Instrumental.

§. 151. This case, as is intimated by its name, expresses the idea of place and of instrumentality, thus corresponding to the Latin ablative.

As locative it generally conveys the idea of quiet rest or existence in a place, but sometimes also the idea of motion from or to a place, in the same way as the prepositions " in, èv, ב." do not always denote rest in a place, but sometimes also motion.

1. The locative indicating rest or existence in a place$\dot{n} g o ̄$ sándi tsúrō némbēn, "behold, they are within the house."
kóáni kū páton bágō," my husband is not at home today."
fúgū kęmándēbēn dấtsa, " they stand before our Lord." wáásilī nígā nónigurō šímdēn ntsákinbá? " should the white man put thee to shame before our eyes?" pántsen sabarátẹ, "he prepares himself in his house " š̀i tsúrō ṅgérgentsibēn s̆i tsúrui, "it was within his bag: he saw it."
2. The locative indicating motion to a placendúyē pántsęn létsę, " every one goes to his house." wu nandígä yáskē bẹlányin, "I carry you to my country."
léné bẹlándon, bália wóltẹné, "go to your town, and return to-morrow."
3. The locative indicating motion from a placenátẹman pǻntsurō wólte lēgónō, "he returned from this place, and went to his house." bẹ́rnyin táta karấminibē yóktse, "he comes and drives my brother's son out of the capital." yímīa kasuánemin tšimếrem, "having given it, thou shalt recover from thy sickness."
§. 152. This case is also used in a temporal sense, after the question " when ?" " since when ?" and thus becomes a casus temporalis.

In this transfer of local relations to time, we have again a phenomenon which is not only negrotic, but human-
kẹrbúfin katámbum? "in what year wast thou born?" mẹndè nẹ́rgalin yāyấni pädgigunō," last rainy season my brother died."
kábū yársgẹn másẹna ngá̀sō dátŏ $\grave{i n}$, "in three days all the provisions will be done."
wu bényēn kádiskō, "I came by night."
sándi ganántsan sōbägáta," they were friends from their youth up."
lēnesgenátęman kêogutō? "did he bring it when I had left."
${ }_{\text {tseinyin }}$ pátorō, " when they had come home."
But quite as often, if not oftener, the time when any thing happens is indicated by no case-termination whatever -
méndē mei lúbgonō, " last year the king died."
$k \bar{u}$ búnyé sóbāni $\frac{\text { šsí, " this night my friend came." }}{}$
ši néngalı̄ rum bágō, bînẹn rum báágó, " thou dost not see
him in the rainy or the cold season."
tsaírō kábū tílō tšítsẹ, " the boy rises one day."
minwa kúlō diskin, "next year I will make a farm."
ńgalī ndi nẹ́mtẹ dátš̈in, "in two years this house will be done."
§. 153. As instrumental this case marks the instrument or means by which an object is effected-
áte kámyee gulóndon pélésẹní, " let no one point at me with his finger."
tsánna bárrēmäbēté tsánna rigấsōga kôtš̌̃ kẹtš̌in, " the heaven of the agriculturist surpasses every heaven in pleasantness."
nígă rátal 'din béánigin, "I will pay thee with two dollars." pépéton kạlàntse báktse, " he knocks his head with the wing."
ndúyāye kámāntsegã dúnōn kótsęnāté," every one who exceeds the other in strength."
wu dími rátal dégen yíbuskī, "I bought a sheep for four dollars."
keigama ÁAli Marēmínyin š̌igā bóbōtsei, "they call him by ( the name of) Ali Maremi.
kádi málamnyin šígà bóbōtsei nẹmgalántsurō, " they call him by (the title of) ' priest-serpent,' on account of its harmlessness."
kóa mei sôbäntse tílōa, pêroōntse tílōa, káliāntse tílōa, sándi dége, káligimōntsa tílon úgu, " there was a king who had one friend, one daughter, and one slave; they were four of them, and with one camel five."
§. 154. Besides the case mentioned in §. 138., there are some others in which the case-termination is separated from the word to which it more immediately belongs, and which may here be brought under one view-

1. The noun, which is an appositional explanation of another, takes the case-termination, properly belonging to the noun explained-
bẹ́la, tsúntse Dámāturúten nábgêda, "they settled in a town of the name of Dámāturū."
béla tílō, tsúntse Tságalāritęn, keígamā létsẹ náptšĩ, " the general went and settled in a certain town of the name of Tságalārī."
s̆i kớa, abắntse núnnärō, rîtš̆̃, " he fears the man whose father is dead."
lénógō, mei kómànírō, gúllogō!" go and tell my lord, the king."
pátō sóbäntse meínābērō létsę," he went to the house of his friend, the prince."
kónō kẹrdiyē sóbbäntse málammō, " said the heathen to his friend, the priest."
yitemté kạl à nándi málamwáben," this sin is on the head of you, the priests."
2. The last only of two or more nouns which are connected by the terminational conjunctions n, nyin, wa, bears the case-termination which properly belongs to each of them; just as we say, by an opposite omission, e.g. "the view of the master and his whole school."
mána ába keárin meinānbē, " conversation of an old man and a prince."
lếngè, yänyứa abánnyūaroo gúlingè, "I go and tell it to my mother and my father."
kónō kóayē ìgampátūa kẹ́riwāāō," said the man to the cat and the dog."
3. In like manner the termination stands only after the last of two words which are repeated for the purpose of expressing distribution or emphasis-
tílō tîlōn dánnógō! " stand up one by one!"
îlā álān náántsurō léné, " go very softly to its place." ílā ilàn wólti, " he returned very gently."
4. When a noun is qualified by an adjective or a more
enlarged adjectival complement, the last of the qualifying words has the termination belonging to the noun-
s̆i málam kúrātegā rit̀tši, " he fears the great priest." kámū búnī tátäntse ganáāo tšī, " the woman gave the fish to her little boy."
$n \bar{a}$ lêté kábū tílowárrō sandíga kęsấtō, " they carried them to a place at the distance of one day's walk."
§. 155. The preceding rule forms a natural transition to that most peculiar phenomenon of the Kanuri by which case-terminations are suffixed to finite verbs. This peculiarity occurs when the adjectival qualification of a noun is couched in a subordinate (relative) proposition.

Thus the case-terminations can be suffixed to-

1. A verb in the Indefinite I.
nā koúga ganátšinga kámuntsurō pẹlētsęge, " he shows his wife the place where he laid down the stone."
$n \bar{a}$ dà ganányenturō kólōgonógō, " put it in the place where we keep the flesh."
 who came in the way saw them."
pátō kómāntse léttǒinnō lēgéda, " they went to a house whose master slept."
meíyè kốa kánirō wóltšinga bóbōtsę," the king calls the man that can turn himself into a goat."
nā kómbū dêtseirō sáte, " they carry me to a place where they cook food."
kámpū mána kốa lemán sadákts̆inbē pántsei, " the blind men hear the word of the man that gives away goods as alms."
nā dágẹlsō kạlaindō tsádinbērō kádiō, " he came to the place where all the monkeys were playing."
 where the monkey was crying."
$n \bar{a}$ ká̛ngal tsúlūginnō ábgāte, "he starts for the place where the sun rises."
táta wurâtse, lelêtěinnō wóltš̀̃a, " the child having grown and become able to walk about."
2. Rarely an Aorist or Indefinite II.
kámū, ši kóàntsúa, nígā kédóman táta tílō gẹnyyā, tsasámbūní, "a woman and her husband had only one child since they were married."
s̆i n̄̄ tş̧ráagurō dếgan létš̌in, "it walks without where it likes."
3. A verb in the negative-
táta ganá áfíma nốtsenírō kẹrmei abántsiyè tšinãté, " when his father gives the government to the little boy who knows nothing." mána yā kintan, táta kíntan ǹgálēma tabáktsäníbē," narration of a stepmother and step-children never agreeing."
4. A verb in the participialmána bísgā neméényenắturō kádiskō, "I come on account of the word which we were speaking yesterday." lényē nā pérrō gúllẹmmābéturō, " let us go where the girl is of whom thou hast spoken." kátsallā krígẹbē sandígā tsárui gerátanan, " the officers see them in the place where they were hidden." per š̌rrō meíyē tsẹbátsennärō tsébāa," he mounts the horse which the king had sent him."
käm šyúa tságādennātéga tsúruiya, " when he sees the man with whom he had been quarrelling."
labár yántsa meínayē tsę́tanābē pántsei, " they heard the news of their mother, whom the prince had caught." nä wúgā sunốtemmáturō wu légasgănyā, "I having gone to the place where thou sentest me."
kóayē kóa š̀irō fóktsaganārō, " the man said to the man whom they had given him."

## CHAPTER XV.

## SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

## I. Personal Pronouns.

§. 156. When, per ellipsin, they stand for a whole proposition, i.e. when they express an answer, they regularly assume the emphatic suffix ma in the singular, and generally in the plural also (comp. §. 24. I. 1. of the Vei Grammar).
ndú nếmmō gắgō? " who entered the house?" Answer, wúma, "I."
ši ndú tseráagō? "whom does he like?" Answer, níma, " thee ;" andima and andíga, " us."

But should the pronoun be accompanied by a negative, or express a question, the negative and interrogative particles take the place of the emphatic suffix-
> ndú kạ́nãwa? " who is hungry ?" Answer, wu ganí, šima, " not I, he."
> ndú š̌řō gúltse? "who told it him ?" níba? "thou ?"

§. 157. In English, propositions like the following, "went to the Crystal Palace to-day," appear rather irregular, whereas in Latin the pronoun is regularly omitted in such cases. The Kanuri, in this respect, stands between the English and Latin, but much more resembles the former than the latter. If the pronoun is dispensed with in Kanuri, it does not give the impression of an actual omission, number and person being so fully indicated by the form of the verb alone; nevertheless, the joint use of pronoun and verb greatly preponderates-

> wu nānémmó t̂́seskō, "I am come to thee." wu ntserágesgana lintárō, "I like thee exceedingly." áfíma šímmí, " thou hast not given me any thing."
§. 158. The personal pronouns are employed in a twofold manner, for the purpose of expressing emphasis; viz. first, when the proper subject of a proposition is expressed, and its corresponding pronoun inserted before the predicate, a mode of speech equally admissible in English; secondly, when it precedes a possessive pronoun of the same person and number. In this case its force is rendered in English merely by a stronger intonation of the possessive pronoun, whilst, e.g., the Hebrew language would admit of a literal
 stretched out the heavens ")-

1. táta búrgōa, s̊i tsúrui, " the cunning boy, he saw it." meite, ši táta ganá, " the king, he was a little child." pếrōndôtę, ši kóā bágōo, "your daughter, she has no husband."
táta gálifubē s̆i kámūa, " the son of the rich man, he was married."
2. sándi meintsáwa ándi meíndè bágō, " they have a king of their own, we have none."
ni lemánnem kágē gadí tš̌ítōba? " will thy goods be equal to mine?"
lếnógō pändórō! wúte lámbīni bágō," go home! it is not my business."
wu kídāni dâtuši, kágenem badîné," " $m y$ work is done, do thou begin thine."
§. 159. But the personal pronoun, in this connexion, does not always express a contrast or emphasis, and the instances are even far more numerous where it is used pleonastically-
wu neménnīté, wu tálagā," my word," i.e. " what I have to say is, I am a poor man."
wu kámūni kómandébē tserámbī, " my wife has paid our Lord," i. e. "has died."
kóa ši pátō meíbē kárgāa, " a (certain) man lived in the king's house."
kó́a tsęrágẹnārō kấfugurō bẹręmtšin, ába pérōbē s̆i nótsẹní, kóa wấtsenārō kúrū̄gurō bẹ́rẹmts̈in; kốa (i. e. aba pếrōbē) ši nôtsęní,: pếrō s̆i kóāntse kęeếtsẹna; abântses nôtsẹní, " for the man whom she likes she twines short threads; the father of the girl does not know it: for the man whom she dislikes she twines long threads; the man does not know it: the girl had chosen her husband; her father did not know it.
kábū túlur kitę́nyā, táta ši pátōm bágō̄, kámū s̆i leírān tsúlüge, " after seven days, when the boy was not at home, the woman came forth from the grave."
It can scarcely be expected, that an actual pleonasm should be regular in any language; and it may readily be observed that, in all the above instances, the pronoun can be considered as rendering some one word more conspicuous than another. If, therefore, a " pleonastic" use of the pronoun is spoken of, this term must be taken relatively.
§. 160. Neither is it absolutely necessary that the subject and predicate should be formally united by a distinct word, and yet many languages regularly do so. The Kanuri maintains great freedom, in this respect, and it not unfrequently uses a personal pronoun where it may be considered as a copula; just as in Hebrew, e. g., Deut. xii. 23, הדקָּם דהוּא דַנֶּשֶׁ " the blood is the

keấri fulátabē ši tálagā," an old Pulo was a poor man." abáni s̆i mei, " my father is a king." kenyéri ši búrgōa, " the weasel is cunning." kamá́un ši bōgáta, " the elephant was lying."
§. 161. Sometimes the personal pronouns must be rendered in English by the relative pronoun-
kốa ši lemántse ńngubū, kábūu túlo ts̛̛̀̀tsę," a man whose goods were many arose on a certain day."
$k o ̂ a ~ s ̌ i ~ m a ́ l a m ~ t s ̌ i ~ t s ̌ i n n a ̄ a b e n ~ d a ̄ g a ́ t a, ~ " t h e ~ m a n ~ w h o ~ w a s ~ a ~$ priest was standing under the gate."
tse tatántsurō nā kúguibērō šígā kinớtō, "said she to her child which she had sent to the fowl's place."
§. 162. In a few cases the pronoun is omitted where we would expect it-
ni wúrō kọ́nāwa nẹm, " thou toldst me that thou wast hungry," for ni wúrō ni kọ́nāwa nẹm, or ni wúrō "wu kánāwa" nẹm.
ni wúrō búrgōa nẹm, " thou toldst me that thou art cunning."
Note. It is scarcely necessary to observe that the Kanuri language, in addressing people, has not fallen into the practice of unnaturally substituting other persons and the plural number for the 2 d per. sing.; but that its $n i$ addresses the king as well as the slave.

## II. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§. 163. They can be used separately, in the same way as sub-stantives-
kámûni kálāntse tsębánd̄̄; átibēma labárte nírō kúskō," my wife has been delivered; of this I bring thee the tidings."
áte nígā ntsẹrágẹnäté áré, wúrō gúllé, " the one who loves thee may come and tell me of it."
But generally they are employed to define other words, as adjectives do. Thus used, two things must be observed; one with regard to agreement, and the other to position.
$\S .164$. A noun in the singular can be defined by a demonstrative pronoun in either singular or plural. In the first case the whole is singular, and in the second the noun may be considered as collective, and the whole must be rendered in English by plurals-
$k \bar{a} m$ áte, " this person;" kām tū, " that person ;" pẹr átẹ, " this horse;" kou áte, " this stone."
$k a ̄ m$ áni, " these persons ;" kām tọ́ni, " those persons;" per áni, " these horses;" kou áni, " these stones."

A noun in the plural, likewise, can be defined by a pronoun in the singular and plural; but in both cases the whole has to be rendered in English by plurals. The use of the singular form of the pronoun appears greatly to preponderate; for, strange to say; though the language oftenunhesitatingly repeats whole words, and even phrases, yet it shows a strong tendency to omit grammatical forms when they may be inferred from the context-
$\bar{a} m$ áte and $\bar{a} m$ áni, " these persons, these people;" perwáte and perwáni, " these horses ;" koúwa áte and koúwa áni, "these stones;" tatoánem áte and tatoánẹm áni, " these thy children ;" $\bar{a} m$ tù and $\bar{a} m$ tọ́ni, " these people."
§. 165. With regard to position it may be observed, that the adjectival demonstrative always immediately follows the word which it defines, either in the character of a suffix, or as a distinct word. "Word," however, must here be taken in a wide sense, not in a grammatical but a logical one, so that it includes all sorts of complements together with which a noun may form part of a proposition. Accordingly the demonstrative may be appended to a genitive, or a possessive pronoun, or an adjective and participle. Thus it also happens, that the demonstrative sometimes stands at a considerable distance from the word to which it more immediately belongs, and before which it is usually placed in English. This, however, can only be found surprising at first sight; for all the complements of a word form with it one whole, one idea, one name; and the difference between Bornu and English is only this, that the former places the demonstrative behind and the latter before the name. For it is self-evident that, e.g. in the word, "this house, designed for the produce of all the nations on the face of the earth," the demonstrative refers as well to the remote "earth" as to the close "house," they being only last and first part of one and the
same name. The German language approaches the Bornu still more closely in form, being capable of expressing the above name in the following manner : diess für die Erzeugnisse aller Nationen auf der Oberfläche der Erde bestimmte Haus.

The following instances will illustrate the position of the demonstrative in Kanurikäm áte, " this person." $k a ̈ m$ áni," these people." kệrite, " this dog."
múskō gès sgābē áte, "this bough."
kitábu kómänibē áte, " this book
of my Lord."
táta málambēté," "this child of
the priest."
pérōnite, " this my daughter." sóbāníte, " this my friend." kóa yásgete," these three men." sóbā ndìte, " these two friends." táta n̈galāté, " this good child." nem kúrâté, " this large house."
kusótō lárdẹ kuáyintén îsenāté, "this stranger, come from a far country," Ger. "dieser aus fernem Lande gekommene Fremde."
béla krígiyee tártsenā̄te, "this town destroyed by war."
sóbā wúgā tsoùrō tsegrágenāté́, " this friend ardently loving me," Ger. "dieser mich warm liebende Freund."
mána kámpüa kãm dégibē átęma, "this narration of four blind men."
§. 166. On inquiring now more particularly into the use of the demonstrative pronoun, it will show itself: 1 . as a common demonstrative; 2. as a definite article; 3. as a means of generally distinguishing or marking one word above another; and 4. as a relative.

The instances given in $\$$. 165 . will be a sufficient illustration of its use as a common demonstrative pronoun.
§. 167. It can be easily traced, in most languages which possess a definite article, that it has developed itself from a demonstrative pronoun; and therefore we need not be surprised to find that, in the Kanuri also, the demonstrative pronoun is often used with so weak a demonstrative force as to correspond exactly sitilitit with a definite article-
kéndertéma kómbüntsígō, "the cotton plant is his food." kámūte s̈̀ tširē nemét́tšin báágō, "no woman speaks the truth."
diniātellkū bántẹyétwa, "the weather is foggy to-day." ,
ńdà kúguitę? Kúgui ǹgampátuyè tsúndī. 'Ndā ṅgampátūte ? $\dot{N}$ gampátū kérìye tsúndī. 'Ndà kérīte? Túgö kệrı létšin, "where is the fowl? The cat has swallowed the fowl. Where is the cat? The dog has swallowed the cat. Where is the dog? There goes the dog."
kámbête dếge ; dếgetega mei Bórnumāma kôts̆in báagō ; dégẹte gånánệià, kámbēte dâtšǐ ; kìté rágẹmma ganánemin, "the free ones (viz. wives) are four; this number the Bornu king himself does not exceed; when thou hast taken these four, the free ones are completed; if (then) thou wishest, thou mayest take a (i.e. any) female slave."
§. 168. Sometimes the demonstrative is suffixed where its force cannot be rendered even by the article, but merely by the intonation or the position. So used, its force seems to be weakened down to that of the emphatic affix $m a$, with which it is then often joined. Its combination with personal and possessive pronouns, and with proper names, may here also be mentioned. This last case has its analogy in the Greek language, and in those modern languages which employ the definite article before proper names of rivers, mountains, countries, \&c., or, like the German, even before proper names of persons, when indicating affinity or notoriety; e.g. " the Rhine, the Thames," " die Mine, der Strauss." The combination of ate and a possessive pronoun has its analogy in Old German and Gothic, where the definite article frequently precedes a substantive with a possessive pronoun, and also in Italian, where this is regularly the case. The following examples will illustrate these various statements -
ágō yásgete ndấsō ǹgúbugō? "which three things are the greatest?"
lámū tilōte ándírô kútư, " one wife will be bad for us." ndúyăye kórangäte kā nótseige, "we shall know to-day who is a man."
ángalte š̌mlan gani kárgă, "intelligence has not its seat in the eye."
šitegā tsátā, " him they catch."
nîte abándē, " thou art our father."
abăni, wưte péroòte tširemárō kirágęskō, " my father, I truly love this girl."
nite táta kớaǹgábē ; kárgenentẹ álla nts̆ō, kām ganí, "thou art the son of a man; God has given thee thine heart, and not man."
pếrōnite kámurō nírō ntséşkō, "I give thee my daughter for a wife."
sándi bẹlāndéturō táásiní, " they shall not come into our town."
allátẹma nóteṣ, käm nótsẹna bágō, " God knows it, and not any man."
kốa mei Deíaima Láfiâté nóneqmba? "dost thou know a certain Laphia, king of Deia ?"
bẹlla Kurnawátẹn š̌i náptò̀r, "he sat down in the town of Kurnawa.
áfiyäye dímtuma, " whatever thou wilt do."
béla Tsebbakten tséptsā, "they dismount in the town Tsebag."
Fulăta tsúntsẹ Dā̀ikoúäturō lếtse gulgönō, "he went and told it to a Pulo whose name was Dankoua."
Bornúten málam tơirebēte kúnganāma tsúgōrin bágō, "in Bornu no real priest inquires of a soothsayer."
§. 169. The Kanuri has no distinct relative pronoun, and it may be said of it, as of many other languages, that it employs the demonstrative pronoun to discharge the function of a relative. -
käm třirewäte trüruige, "we shall see the one who is right."
wu široō tširrē yấsgẹ, wúrō gulúsẹnāté nẹmếnẹsk̄̀, "I have told him those three truths which he has told me."
$\bar{a} m$ sígā tsarággenäte n ráásō bóbōtse, " he calls all those people who like him."
ágō rōnẹmye tserrágẹnàté wu nírō kúskī, "I have brought thee the thing which thy soul likes."
mánānẹm búrgō wúrō gulúsemmāté kū tširêtš̄̃, " thy word which thou toldest me at first has to-day been verified." ni " wu málam" nęminté kẹ́rdi nốnẹmba? " thou who sayest, ' I am a priest,' dost thou know a heathen ?"
§. 170. The relative pronoun being expressed by the demonstrative, there cannot, of course, be forms in Kanuri which unite a demonstrative and a relative; e.g. our "what" has to be rendered by ago and ate following; and propositions without ago must be considered as elliptical ; e.g.
ágō maná́nemmāté $\dot{n}$ ńgō dískī, " what thou hast told me, behold I have done."
$\dot{n} g o ̄ o ́ g g o ̄ ~ w u ~ b u ́ s k i n t e, ~ " ~ b e h o l d ~ w h a t ~ I ~ e a t . " ~ " ~$
gáptsęnāté tsúrō bellágāníben geráneskē," that which remains I hide in my hole."
§. 171. Such relative propositions, as express a mere complement in the form of a proposition, are treated altogether like adjectives, and consequently their last word assumes the formative appendages properly belonging to the complemented noun, agreeably to §. $154 ;$ e.g.
bẹ́la Fuláta búrgṑ tartanáturō létsa, " they go to that town which the Phula had first destroyed.
mána bísga nemếnyenáturō kádiskō, "I am come on account of what we were saying yesterday."
§. 172. But in these subordinate adjectival propositions the demonstrative pronoun is frequently wanting, so that the force of our relative is conveyed simply by the grammatical form of the
verb, i.e. the participial, or the very similar indefinite I., or it remains altogether unexpressed, as after a verb in the negative mood and a negative particle. This throws a fresh light on what has been stated above. It would seem that the demonstrative is in no case actually converted into a relative, but always retains its demonstrative force. Neither is this at all surprising, for the force of the demonstrative and relative is alike in all languages: both transform a general term into a special one. The Kanuri therefore most naturally expresses this double specification by one and the same word. It is true, then, that in cases where the demonstrative is suffixed to a relative proposition a word is doubly specified, viz. first by the relative proposition, and then by the demonstrative. But neither is this exactly a pleonasm, provided such doubly specified words are thereby rendered more conspicuous than those only singly specified. And this seems to be actually the case; so that we may say in general, adjectival relative propositions with the demonstrative suffix correspond to English propositions as, "the man who can commit such a crime," \&c.; and those without it to, "a man who can commit such a crime." It must be observed, and the examples already produced have shown it, that our "the-who" would often be too strong an expression for the Kanuri participle with the demonstrative; but so much seems certain, that the relative proposition with the pronoun always renders the qualified word somewhat more conspicuous, than without the pronoun; and, at any rate, the proposition in the latter case, is not to be considered as eliptical.

Instances of relative propositions without a pronouns̆i mána nótsení neménigana, "he does not know the word I was saying."
ágō tígirō tşésákena báaō, "there is nothing which they might put on (their) body."
wu mánāni tílō kámuníyè gulúsẹna nírō guluntsẹskēe, "I will tell thee something which my wife has told me."
kām dā gádubē tsegérẹna kẹrdù ganí, kām dä dágélbē tsegérẹna kérdī ganí, kām lâfā tsébūna kẹ́rdī ganí, kām kìmel tsána kẹ́rdī ganí; kām kámãntse kárgẹn tsẹteite š̀ma $k \underset{r}{r d i g} \bar{o}$, " a man who eats the meat of swine, or of monkeys, or what has died of itself, or drinks fermented liquor, is not a heathen; but the man who keeps another in his heart (i.e. who cannot forgive), he is a heathen."
nā pếrō gerá̆gata mátšin, "he seeks the place where the girl is hidden."
nă kẹ́ngal tsúlügin tšúrīu, "he will see the place where the sun rises."
ágō ǹgálēma rúsganí, manấtsei pánessgani, kū wu kíruskō, " what I have never seen at any time, nor heard them tell, I have seen to-day."
kóa kándẹli ganí sü náptši pántsẹn, " the man who was not jealous remained at home."
kóá tsęrágennírō gótsa tsádī," they took her and gave her to a man whom she did not like."
kām kitábbū nôtsęní, ágō díbī nớtsẹní, ñgalā nôtsení lemán gốtse, nāndórō đ̂̀s̃ĩa, nandíga tsúgōre, " one who knows no book, who knows not what is bad, and who knows not what is good, takes goods, and having come to you asks you."
§. 173. The demonstrative is not unfrequently used to indicate relations which we express otherwise, viz. by conjunctions or adverbs, e.g., by-
if : ni ñgalāté,, áte lêneen kām díbī sōbắnẹmmí," if thou art good, do not go and befriend a bad man."
nándi ká́mū ndí mánuwitéé, ñgalàa ganí, "if ye seek two wives it is not good."
as, or because : kā állayē bélāndérō ntsugútęnāté, ándi nírō
 town, we will give thee a horse."
kām rînẹmma báagō nẹmintẹ, lênyē wúrō pánẹm pólêsegené,
" as thou sayest thou art afraid of none, let us go, show me thy home."
kélegeni kóllèm tsúlugenäté wu nígā wántseskī," because thou hast let the wild dog come out, I do not want thee."
$n i$ ásir kókobè tsánnẹmmāté, wúyè kágẹnẹm tsaktsóskō, " because thou hast covered the frog's secret, therefore will I cover thine."
that, so that: ni áfi rìnem " dínāa búnyē lúskin bágō" neminté? "what fearest thou that thou sayest: 'I will never go out by night? "
ágō tsédẹ, kúlumte tsębándẹnāté, ši kámmō gúltšinba? " will he tell anybody what he did to get this ring?"
that (the article of propositions): tátōa kirúnyā nótš̀i pérōntss tsámbōte, " when he had seen the children, he knew that his daughter had borne them."
gálif̄̄u bárbū pāntsúrō $\frac{1}{\text { tseite }}$ s̆i nôtseña, "the rich man was aware that thieves had come to his house."
táta š̌iga mbéláatšinté ši nốtsení, " she knew not that the boy watched her."
mei 'Amādẹ s̆i rōntsứa tátāntsurō kẹrmei tšinté ñgallà kwōyá, kitábū wúné, " examine the book, whether it is right that king Muhammad should give the kingdom to his son in his lifetime."
why : ágō Fulátayē búrgō lásgen kríge Deíān badîtsẹnäté mei Tšígā naṅgá," the reason why the Phula have begun a war in Deia for the first time, is because of king Tshiga."
ágō yôresskinté, meíye kām nānírō tsúnōtę," the reason I weep is, because the king has sent somebody to me."
 he wept, Famine rose and came to the man."
wu lêneskinté, wúa búltūa kợlä fórinyē, " as I went, I and an hyena met."
 dawned he came and entered the capital."
kádīga mátšinté tsúrō külben tsúrui, "when he sought the serpent, he found it in a hole."
where : átẹma na kę́ngal tsúlutuinté," this is the place where the sun rises."
$n \bar{a}$ tše dâtteenátén pếroáye dấtsei, " where the rope ended, there the girls stopped."
§. 174. The syllable te, thus used, often even assumes a case-termination, a circumstance which may be considered as a proof that we have rightly understood its nature in the examples given in $\S .1 \% 3$. , viz. that it is really the demonstrative pronoun, and not, e.g., an adverbial particle. Instances of this kind I first got from Mal Lafia, but Ali Eisami is likewise familiar with them, though he usually omits the case-termination-
sándi lếtseitęn, seígā ṅgúduyē kítā, "when they went, thirst took hold of them."

Or the case-termination may be affixed to the verb and be followed by the pronoun-
gésgā tsáltseinyinté," when they cut the tree."
tsábunyinté," when they eat."
karátseinyinté," when they read."
Thus can be formed, wu léniginyinté, ni lénẹminyintẹ́, s̆i lêtšinyinté, ándi lênyenyinté, nandi lênūwinyinté, sandi lẹtseinyinté, which does not appear; to differ at all in meaning from lénigintẹ́, \&c.
§.175. With regard to the demonstrative pronoun, the Kanuri again manifests its great economy in the use of forms; for, whenever it belongs to two or more words which occupy a parallel position in a proposition, it is joined only to the last-
kām širō gúltsa, pántse, tsátsęrānite, ši wág ē s̈imtsẹn tšírū, "the man to whom they tell it, who hears, but does not believe it, will see it with his eyes in the next world." tsábä béläbē tsẹtā létš̆inté," when he took the way to the town and went."
§. 176. The reduplicated form of the demonstrative pronoun átete appears to be emphatic, like the English "this here," the German "diess da," and the French "celui-çi."
> béla áteten wúa kó́anyúa lúgēn bágō, "I and my husband will not come out of this town."
> ni ndáran kām dèg' átetete kibándẹm? " whence hast thou obtained these four persons?"
> táta átẹte yántse bá́gô, " this child here has no mother."
> ndáran ši ämánìte kibándō? " whence has he obtained these people?"

The pronoun átegei fully answers to our "such," e.g. kid $\bar{a}$ átegei rágesganỉ, "I do not like such a work;" and it is also employed, when a proper name is purposely withheld, e.g. béla ategeínyin kíluguskō, nem gúllẹmĩa, "when thou hast said, I come from such-and-such a town."

Just as our "here, there, then, so," are derived from demonstrative pronouns, so in Bornu, adverbs are formed by means of the demonstrative pronoun, for which see §. 115, 3.

## III. Interrogative Pronouns.

§.177. All interrogative pronouns can be used substantively -
ndú abáni tsúrū? " who saw my father?"
áfi rinemin? " what fearest thou?"

$n d a ́ s o o ~ g a ̆ ́ g o ̄ ? ~ " ~ w h i c h ~ o n e ~ e n t e r e d ~ ? " ~$
But $a ́ f i, n d a ́ g a \bar{a}$, and ndásō more frequently follow substantives in the capacity of adjectives. áfisō and ndágáa are always plural, whether they are joined to a noun in the singular or plural; e.g. kăm 'dágū? àm 'dág $\bar{u}$ "how many people?" tatắfisō and tatoấfisõ? "which children?"
áf $i$ and ndásō," "which ?" can be connected with nouns in the singular and plural; and the former seems to inquire after the kind or quality, and the latter after individuality.
$n d u^{\prime}$ is never used adjectively, neither can it govern a genitive; and, e.g., the question, " who of his friends has helped him?" must be rendered by ndú sốbāntsíyē š̌irō bánätseḡ̄? or sóbāntsetę, ndú širō bánātseḡ̄? or sóbāntse

When áfi and ndú are used substantively, the former always refers to things, and the latter to persons. Of this rule the only exception is made by the word $t s \bar{u}$, after which only $n d u$ inquires, but never affi; e.g. ndu tsúnem? " what is thy name? ndú tsū beláñęmbē? " what is the name of thy town."

## IV. Possessive Pronouns.

§. 178. Their import is identical with that of the genitive of the personal pronouns, which therefore, though rarely, may take its place. This is the case only, when the possessive suffix is not sufficiently explicit ; as, e.g., the plural suffixes, or, when the more circumstantial genitive construction is intended to convey a greater emphasis-

ṅgálēma mánāndè, wứa s̆yưabē, tsábān tsúlūgení, " never our, i. e. mine and thine word disagreed."
kốa áte sốba ndúbē? sốbā wúbē," whose friend is this man? Mine." The answer may also be, sób $b \bar{a} n i$, wúbē," my friend, mine ; merely, to lay more stress on the person."
§. 179. The possessive genitive being identical, in force, with the possessive pronoun, it is not to be wondered at that the Kanuri sometimes uses the simple genitive of the pronoun, where the English and other languages have a possessive pronoun without a substantive. Both modes of expression coincide in their being properly eliptical; e.g. wúbē dâts̆i, viz. $k i d a ̄$, or rō, or $k a ́ b u ̄$, or mána, \&c., "mine," i.e. " my work, or life, or time, or speech, \&c. is done."

The Kanuri, however, has another way of using the possessive pronouns substantively, without admitting an elipsis, and of which it makes a more general use. This is by the unmeaning, or, as might be said, all-meaning substantive kágé, to which the possessive suffixes are added, just as in Arabic the suffixes of the personal pronoun are added to the corresponding and equally unmeaning word
ni lemánnẹm kágè gadi tšitōoba? " will thy goods be equal to mine?"
wásili kálugù meibee kirúnyā, kágentses tsúrō kángädibèn tsętuiläge, " the white man having seen the king's shirt, took his own out of the horn."
 gớné, kágè sè, " I have obtained the food which thou hast shown me : here it is; come, divide it : take thine and give me mine."
nándi tátōa anānátẹmārō kútugō; andite, kágendè dâtş̉̀, " you, little children, will have woful times; as for us, ours (i. e. our time, life) is done."
Note. Kage is sometimes used redundantly where a mere possessive pronoun would be quite sufficient; e.g.
wássili kágendè $=$ wásisilindế, " our white man."
§. 180. After nouns which are indicative of time, the possessive pronoun shows that so much time was spent. It has then to be rendered into English by the corresponding personal pronoun and the understood copula by a verb-
kọntăgenti yáage nántsẹn, "I remained three months with him."
n̈galīni púūgun táta wísgen, "I am fifty-eight years old."
ši kábüntse yá́sge nā abániben, "he spent three days at my father's."
wu kū káboūni túlur wu núskī, "I have been dead these seven days, or I have died seven days ago."

And when the noun with the possessive suffix is the predicate of a proposition, the suffix is sometimes rendered by the verb "to have;" as,
niyè s̀znẹm 'dí, wúyēe ơtni ndí, " thou hast two legs, and I have two legs."
§. 181. After a transitive infinitive the possessive suffixes have to be rendered by personal pronouns, and the infinitive by a finite verb-
kámpū kâm 'dî logớtenírôo ťsanātę́, "as two blind men came to beg of me."
šigă dútsei ntěéotsōntsurô, " they pursue it to kill it."
sándi nôtsāní, búltū kómbuntsārō kádiōté," "they did not know that the hyena had come to eat them."
The possessive plural suffixes of the interrogative nd́u must be rendered by the genitive of the corresponding personal pronouns. Comp. §. 141.
wúa nyứa ndúndē lemánwāgō? lit. "as for me and thee, our who is wealthy ${ }^{\text {? " }} i$ i.e. " which of us is the wealthiest, I or thee?",
§. 182. The Kanuri language often anticipates an event ; e.g. it calls a thing one's own which is merely intended or expected to become so; and, in this case, we have to render the possessive suffix by the preposition for with the corresponding personal pronoun-
kárgūntsẹ kām nôtsena bágō, " nobody knows a medicine for it."
dúlīma kámäntse mátšin, "he seeks a fellow-leper for himself."
ndúyé kámūntse mátse, nígã tsẹ́dẹ, "every one seeks a wife for himself and marries."
§. 183. When the possessive pronouns have a reflective force, the Kanuri neither discards them altogether, as the Latin, or
uses them, where they are superfluous, so frequently as the English; but, just as the German, it maintains, in this respect, an intermediate position between the Latin and English-
dínīa búnyē kárgẹntse tsergę̉re, gấge, " by night he ties his heart together and enters."
àm wúra rigásō súmōntsa pẹ́rẹntsāna, "all the great men are opening their ears."
nándi kìtâbu állabē rigásō múskōndon, " ye have all the books of God in your hand."
dágelntse múskōnwa tsúlūge, "he comes out with his monkey in his hand."
 ties it, and takes it on his head."
wúrō mủskōn ílän pélésegermãa, "thou having shewn it me with thy hand."
s̆i kámāntsega kárgẹn tsẹ́tei, " he holds his fellow in his heart."
kúgui dēgága kạááunbē kús̆yëtš̌in šīn, " the fowl turned the dung of the elephant with its feet."
§. 184. When $a b a$ and $y a$ are used in addressing persons (see §. 128.), without any further title, they always take the suffix of the 1st person singular (as abáni, yáni), with the exception, however, that, when husband and wife address each other, these words generally assume the suffix of the 3d person plural, which, in this case, refers to the children, and honouringly designates the other conjugal half as an actual parent. Nay, these words are even used with the suffix of the 1st person plural, by which the speaking party modestly ranks himself with the children, just as, with us, parents sometimes use the words "father and mother" of one another-
kámuyè kóāntsúrō: abántsa, ni wúrō búrgōa nẹm, "the woman said to her husband, (their) father, thou toldst me that thou art cunning."
šìyè kámuntsurō: yấntsa, ni tšìrēwa, " he said to his wife, (their) mother, thou art right."
yā mána pérōntsíbè pántse, ábā pérrobērō: abándè, ni mána pérơnémbè pánęmiba? " the mother hears the word of her daughter, and says to the girl's father, (our) father, hast thou heard the word of thy daughter?"

The word komándē is analogous to the Hebrew Nֲדַּ Both are applied to God, and the suffix has become so entirely one with the noun, that the people no longer separate them, but use them as one name for God.
§. 185. Having already seen that, e.g., a case termination (§. 154.) or a demonstrative pronoun (§. 1.65.) is not always attached to the word to which it more immediately belongs, but to the last of its complements, if there be any, we would naturally expect the same to be the case with the possessive pronoun, whose force is likewise not confined to the mere substantive, but equally extends to the remotest of its complements. This, however, is not the case; and the possessive pronoun always takes precedence of all other complements and attaches itself regularly to the chief noun-
> málam kálugūntse kúra gốtsę," the priest takes his great garment."
> kírntse tílo bóbötse, " she calls one of her slaves." dấntse gádubē árgata gốtsę," he takes his dried pork."

§. 186. Sometimes a possessive pronoun is connected with a genitive, by which it is rendered pleonastic-
ni kóa sóbänémtibẻ kẹndiōntse rággemmí, " thou dost not like the coming of this thy friend."

More examples of a pleonastic use of the possessive pronouns, or, at least, of their use, where in English they are omitted, will be found among those adduced to §. 199.

## V. Indefinite Pronouns.

§. 187. The difference in the use of the suffixes ye, yaye, and so, appears to be this, that ye is numeric, i.e. referring to each individual separately; so qualitative, i.e. referring to each individual equally, and not more to one than the other; and yaye either identical with so or indicating any one individual, but not the whole number. When so and yaye are joined in one word, they correspond in force to our " soever."

The indefinite pronouns, when used substantively, can be construed with the verb either in singular or plural-
ndúyē pántsurō légonō, " every one went to his home." ndúyē súmōntsę pérę̣tse, " let every one open his ears." ndúyē tỡťtsa, pántsärō lêtsa, " they, every one, arise and go to their home."
mána meínabē yíllé, ndúyē pántsa, " proclaim the word of the prince, that they, every one, may hear it."
ndúyăye sáberātenógō, " get ready every one of you."
$n \bar{a}$ ts̆irreberō ndúyāye létsonō, "every one will go to the place of retribution."
kām tsátēìya, lágā múskō kámtšin, lágā s̆ī kámtšin, " when they have caught anybody, one cuts an arm, another cuts a leg."
lágâ î́sei, lágâ lếtsei, " some come, some go."
ndúsō kā gốtsa, š̀igā ntšéotsorō mátsei, "they each take a stick and seek to kill it."
kām agótegei bélānden tsẹdin bágó, " one does not do such a thing in our country."
kām ásirntsa nótsana bágō, sai álla, " no one knows their secret but God."
ndúyē bẹláturōo ț́sei, " every one came to this town."
§. 188. The indefinite pronouns, used attributively, either follow the noun in the capacity of adjectives or precede them in apposition.
ni tsánei ndásosō wánemmí, "thou dost not like any clothes."
kárgun 'dásosō sóbaannémyē nírō mátse," "any medicine that thy friend seeks for thee."
kām lága mána kitábubē pántšīa kárgẹntšíyē tsoúrō tsẹrágẹna; kām lága mána kitábubē pánts̀īa, kárgęntšíyē tsoúrō wátsena, " one person having heard the word of the book, his heart likes it ardently; another person having heard the word of the book, his heart hates it violently."
ágō áfisō tseráagenäté yē, " whatever thing he likes, give him." $k a ̈ m ~ ' d u ́ s o ̄ ~ t ̂ s e n a ~ t s ̌ i b a ́ n d o ̄, " ~ w h o s o ~ c o m e s ~ s h a l l ~ o b t a i n ~ i t . " ~$
ndúyāye kām létsé," whatever person goes."
áfiyăye ágō tseráagenāte yē, " whatever thing he likes, give him."
ndúsō kām ṫ́senena tšibándō, " whoso comes shall obtain it."
§. 189. The appendage yaye, which renders a pronoun indefinite, is not always attached to the pronoun, but may be separated from it by other words; e.g.
táta gessaáfibē yāyé tsúruiya, kámtse tsębui, " whatever treefruit he saw, he plucked and ate."
áfi nẹmkẹt ${ }^{\text {sündōyāyé, " whatever may be your fondness." }}$
$n d \dot{u}$ nígā ntsęrág $g o ̄ y a ̄ y e ́, ~ " ~ w h o e v e r ~ m a y ~ l o v e ~ t h e e . " ~$
kóañắfi î̀ ō yāye, " whatever man comes."
áfi kámyē tsédin yāyé, " whatever one may do."
But $m a$, which has the same force as yaye, seems to be never detached from interrogative pronouns-
ši tsánei ilf́fìma wátši, " she dislikes any kind of cloth."
kómāndête ši ndúma aláktš̃̃, "our Lord has created everybody."
§. 190. The indefinite use of $k \bar{a} m$ is not so common, as in German that of "man," or in French that of " on "(=homo), but about as common as in English that of "one;" and to express a mere grammatical subject, the language more frequently employs one of the different persons, viz. either the $2 d$ person singular, or the 2 d or 3 d of the plural.

1. The 2 d per. sing. used indefinitely-
kámurō mérsānẹmīa, kấrgènem šírō yímīa, níga ntšètsō, "if one trusts a woman and gives her his heart, she will kill him."
ágō rummátẹna nemếnemin, rúmmíte, nemếnẹn bágō, kátugūte ${ }_{n}$ ńgglà ganí, " what one has seen, one may speak; what one has not seen, one must not speak, a lie is not good."
Bornúten kanás̆in pánẹmin nas̆innemāa, nā kúniganamábērō lénemīa, kanásín nas̆innemmāté širō gúlgẹm, " in Bornu, when one has had a dream in his house, he goes to a soothsayer and tells her the dream which he has had."
2. The 2d per. pl. used indefinitelykenyêeri bęlágāntsurō gấgīa, nándi bẹlágāte lánū, " šíga teíyen" nū, badinúwiàma, ši ṅgáfondôblen tsútūge, tsegásuin, " when a weasel hàs gone into its hole and you begin to dig the hole up, thinking to catch it, it comes out behind you and runs away."
bámba pátō tílōberō gágāa, tsúrō pátōbêtenn, nándi kām píndi degáwiyāyé, tílōma kolótšim bágoõ, " the cholera having entered into a house, does not leave one in it, though there may have been twenty of you."
3. The 3d per. pl. used indefinitely-
kerrágō ás̆irberō skirágẹm kwōyá, áte ás̆irndè dégan pántsāní, "if thou lovest me with a secret love, let them not hear our secret in public.
ándi bélànden agótegei tsádin bágō, "in our country they cannot act thus."
§. 191. Hence it may happen that sometimes these persons alternate with each other. Such is the case with-
4. the 2 d per. sing. and the 2 d per. pl. -
kạ́nā kadínyā, kálū gésgäbē káragan lénem, mánẹm, kútẹ* 2 D
māa, yā tatoánesmbēyè kálūte détsẹ, tatoánẹm tsábui
 mánū, t̂́suwīa, yā tatoándōbē sándi nándōn tsẹ́māge dêtse, tatoấndō tsábui, " when a famine has come, thou goest and seekest tree-leaves in the wood, and having brought them, the mother of thy children cooks these leaves, that thy children may eat them. The next morning ye rise again, and go and seek tree-fruits, and when ye have come, the mother of your children takes them from you and cooks them, that your children may eat.
5. The 2 d per. sing. and the 3 d per. pl.-
táta ñgẹni Bórnūten rámāa, kárgẹntse bibûtsei bágō; kár-
 an orphan in Bornu, they do not molest him; when thou molestest him, he sits down and weeps," i.e. " when one sees, one does not molest him," \&c.
§. 192. The second person being so extensively used in indefinite propositions, in which all importance is attached to the predicate, and the subject considered indifferent, it is not regarded as irregular, to use the verb in the 2 d per. sing., even if the grammatical subject is $k \bar{a} m$.
kām kúra íátānẹn yambúmma kágẹnẹte ni nótsam, " when a grown up person begets a child, he will know that it is his own."
kām kâmuntsẹ nígābē tām, gérẹm, kógōtāté sui nā kómāndében pántsẹní, "(if) one catches and ties his married wife, that flogging he has not heard of with our Lord."
kámté agố rigala dímīa, " a man having done any thing good."
6. There are no distinct forms for the reflective pronouns, which want is supplied partly by the reflective form of the verb, (see $\S .56$.), and partly by the use of the substantives rō and kólä with the possessive pronouns-
by rō-yim rōndóyē ká́mundo tseraágeñāté wu nandírō ntsádeskō, " the day on which ye yourselves will like your wife, I will give her to you."
pánẹm pándẹm námnẹmmäté wu rōniyè tsẹrágä, "I myself wish that thou mayest get a home for thyself and sit down in it."
by kọllā-nátẹn fúgun ấfindêma nírō ntšíyen bágō; léné, kalánẹm níma ấmpāné, " henceforth we shall no longer give thee any thing of our own; go and provide for thyself."
ni kọ́lānémma kálīa nẹm, " thou sayest that thou thyself art a slave."
šigā nátēn báagō, šíma káläntsen tsúlūgin, " we do not plant it ; it comes up of itself."
The want of reciprocal pronouns is supplied chiefly by the plural of the reflective form of verbs; e.g.
sándi móltei, " they wrestle with each other."
sándi tárūna, " they are looking at each other."

## CHAPTER XVI.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.
§. 194. Adjectives, used attributively, always follow the noun to which they belong; e.g.
käm kúróa, "a great man."
àm wúra " great men."
'Ali Gázirma, "Ali of Gazir."
Ali Eísāmi, " Ali, the son of Eisa."
They also receive the case-termination (see §. 154. 4.), the suffixes of the inseparable conjunctions ( $\S .309 . \& \mathrm{c}$.) and the demonstrative pronouns ( $\S .165$. ), instead of the noun which they qualify; e.g.
nẹm bélinnō gá́gé, " he enters into a new house." álla kām tsęlamnyin búllinso aláktse, " God made both the white and black man."
sit per $\dot{n}$ gadāate tšifí, "he has bought this fine horse." sō $\dot{n} g u b u ́ n d \bar{o}$ áte, " this your much crying."
§. 195. The plural termination, however, is never added to the adjective, but only to the noun which it qualifies; so that it can only be seen from the noun whether an adjective is plural or not. Only the two adjectives, kúra and ganá,* which have a peculiar plural form, and the derived adjectives in $m a$, which likewise do not form their plural in wa, make an exception to this rule; for they regularly appear in the plural form when they qualify a noun which has either the plural-termination or a collective force. But if twice repeated, the singular of kura and ganá may follow a noun in the plural-
> wu kốganawá $\dot{n} g u b \bar{u}$ rúskī, "I have seen many soldiers." sốbâni pérwa kárīite tšifī, "my friend has bought beautiful horses."

Kárdè sándi ām kúrūgu, " the Karde are a tall people." ši pétóa bútu tsúgutō, "he bought cheap cows."
$k o ̄ g a n a ́ w a ̄ ~ w u ́ r a ~ n ́ g u b \bar{u} ~ m b e ́ t e ́ s i, ~ " ~ t h e r e ~ a r e ~ m a n y ~ g r e a t ~ w a r-~$ riors."
málamwā wúra nántsen, " there are great priests with him."
 all died."
tatoắte abábū ganí, " these children have no father."
$\bar{a} m$ Bornúbū Kánṻrin bóbögata, "the Bornuese are called Kanuri."
$\bar{a} m$ Kánembūu $\dot{n} g u ́ b \bar{u}$ й $̀$ sa nāntsúrō, " many Kanumese came to him."
tatoántse ganá ganá ñgubū mbétši, he has many little children."

[^6]fúgù málamwa kúra kúrabēn námnesgana, "I was sitting before these great priests."
ándi ganá ganá bátagūntsan námnyēna, " we little ones were sitting at their side."
That the possessive pronoun takes its place before the attributive adjective is illustrated in $\S .185$.
§. 196. Though the substantival use of adjectives is very limited in English, it is still more so in Kanuri. Expressions like " the beautiful," "the lovely," when referring to substances, must be rendered in Kanuri by ágō and an adjective; or, when used abstractedly, by abstract nouns, which the language can form from adjectives without limitation (see §. 21.). Even when we say, "the good and the evil," instead of "the good and the evil men," the Kanuri makes use of kam, kóa, ába, \&c., far more frequently than of mere adjectives. Sometimes, however, adjectives are thus employed, and the following are instances of this kind-
kúra dágelbē pántsẹn náptš̄̃," the great one," i.e. "the chief of the monkeys sat in his house."
kū níma kúra bẹlabē tš̃nẹn," to-day risest thou a grandee of the town."
tséldamten, kaméten, káfūgquten kúrū̆gúten nigásō állāma alảktse, "it was God who created all, the black and the red, the short and the tall.
ganánden kuránden $\dot{n} g a ́ s o ̄ n a ́ m n y e ̄ o g o ̄, ~ " ~ l e t ~ u s ~ a l l ~ s i t ~ d o w n, ~$ both the small and great among us."
kốayē kúra krígibē bóbōtse, "the man calls a military grandee."
§. 197. There being no distinguishing forms to indicate gradation of adjectives, the language endeavours to make up for that deficiency in several ways-

1. By the mere positive with go-
a. For the comparative -
wúa ny ${ }^{\prime}$ a nándē lemánwagō?" which of us is the wealthier, I or thou?"
ndúndē kúragō yäye kù ruíyē, " we shall see to-day which of us is the greater."
kām wúrō kưragō tsúrō káragā átibēn bágō," there is none greater than I in this forest."

Note. This is doubtless the origin of the word rigálgó, which is now used as a regular comparative of rigala.
b. For the superlative -
dínīa $\dot{n}$ gáson 'Allāma kúragō, " God is the greatest in the whole world."
ágō yá́sgẹte ndáāo $\dot{n} g u ́ b u g o ̄ ?$ " which three things are the greatest?"
tsúrō tatoántsiben níma kúrāntsúgō, " thou art the greatest of his children."
ndú búrgōagō tsúrō kām úgubétẹn, " who is the most cunning among these five?"
2. By the verb kóngin, "I surpass."
a. For the comparative-
wu nígā kóntsẹskī kúran, " I am greater than thou." s̆i wrigā némgalan kósō̃," he is better than I." tátäte búrgōn gúltegemántsega kótsẹna, " this boy is more cunning than his teacher."
b. For the superlative-
álla kām 'dúsōga kótsena, " God is the greatest of all." šétan nemdíbin tšágen 'gâsōgā kótsẹna, "Satan is the worst of all creatures."
3. By the adverb linta, which expresses an absolute superlative, like the corresponding "most," "höchst," " maxime," in other languages-
wu nígà tsóúrō ntserágesgana līntá, "I love thee most ardently."
yayắni kárìte lintá, " my elder sister is most beautiful." péroōte ši nóngūa līntá," this girl is most bashful."
§. 198. Here also mention may be made of the emphatic repetition of adjectives, the force of which we have sometimes to render by a comparative and sometimes by adverbs like " much, very."
lemán ńngala ñgala ṅgásō kérêtsa, " they pick out all the finer goods."
tatoântse kógana wúra wúragä rigắfon tságä," his children follow the very great warriors."
§. 199. Some peculiar uses of the adjective termination wa deserve a further illustration by examples."

1. After words expressive of a time-measure, it indicates that so much time is spent-
kau tsátanābē ságā ndíwāte, káfī kádiō, " two years after the eclipse of the sun had happened, the locusts came."
kábū gánawāma šim hámtši, "in a few days the eye had healed."
tátāni kẹrbūntse ārásgūa pádyigunō," my child died six years old."
kábū yásgūa àsęskè ntsúruskin, "in two days I will come and see thee."
sádāga abắntsibē túlurwa sadáktse, " he brings the sacrifice for his father, which is brought seven (viz. days) after one's death."
námtsenābē káábū ndíwa, kótīram ts̆ĭtse, " having sat down two days, the wood-demon arose."
It is thus that the time of pregnancy is especially indicated, which word must often be used, in order to convey in English the force of the wa-
kámū ką̣ntāge legár, kábū legárwa kạ́lāntse tsẹbándin, " a
woman is delivered after a pregnancy of nine months and nine days."
kámuntse ká̛ntảge dégūa tsúrōntse bibúgonō, "his wife miscarried in the fourth month."
2. After a substantive with a possessive pronoun, its force has to be translated into English either by a mere adjective or by a verb; and after nouns, which have no corresponding adjective in English, by a substantive with "having, possessing," \&c.-
wú tšāā kạnnānyứa kwōyá, "if I had been hungry." ni tširènémwa, " thou art right." ši yímpisō kidántsūa, "he is always busy."
ši kámū déguārō wolgányā, "he having become one who has four wives," i.e. "he having become possessed of four wives."
kấmuärō wóllū, " ye became possessed of wives." wu nemé̀ $n y \bar{u} a$, "I have something to say." sándi ṅgásō nāntsá́wa. "they all have their places." káliāwa kām méogu múskon bếgōa dāgáta, "ten slaves were standing there with axes in their hands." wu kásu kámbēwa, "I am having somebody's trust," i.e. "I owe him, am his debtor."
sốbäni kásu abánnibēwa, " my friend is my father's debtor." yayánite ši kóāntsúa, " my elder sister had a husband."
3. After a phrase or proposition, it renders it adverbial or participial, and the finite verb to which it is affixed corresponds to the Latin gerund in "do," comp. §. 39.-
kunot́tinwa kẹlfūntse gótse, " he took his natron rejoicingly." sándi kábin fúgunwa nábgata," they were sitting with the corpse before them."
málam fúgurō kôtsę, mei súg à ṅgáfon tségeiwa, " the priest goes before, with the king following him behind."
ógana ṅgásō suigà ñgáfon tságeiwa, nā Fulátaberō légeda, "he, and all the soldiers following him, went to the Phula."
súni Fulátabē pếntse tsẹnếgīwa, kádiō gédi gẹ́sgāberō, " the Pulo swain, tending his cows, came under a large tree."
Note. Sometimes, however, $w a$ is omitted-
kām kórōntse bāgótiē $\frac{\text { ćšia, "if one comes who has no }}{}$ ass."
4. When a noun, expressive of time-measure, is qualified by an adjectival proposition, the $w a$ at the end of the participle seems to be merely intended to show more clearly the adjectival nature of such a proposition- ; yim kẹ́ndège tséténawāté, bẹ́rnirō nátsagei, "when the fourth day had come, they reached the capital."
 when the Pulo war arose, was the rainy-season." yim t̂́syennawāmá ${ }^{\prime}$ Afunō andígā skeládō," at the time we came, the Hausas bought us."

## CHAPTER XVII.

## SYNTAX OF NUMERALS.

§. 200. When connected with nouns, the numerals occupy the same position as the adjectives, i.e. they stand after the noun; and when the noun is at the same time qualified by an adjective, the numeral follows both; as, per pindi, per nggala. píndi, táta dúnōa yásge.
§. 201. 1. When persons are counted, the numerals, instead of following the substantive immediately, are connected with $k \bar{a} m$, which must be considered in apposition to the substantive, and takes its place between the substantive and the numerals.

In English, this peculiar construction is rendered as if $k \bar{a} m$ were not used at all-
bárbū kām 'di t́sa, "two thieves came."
tatoántse kām yá́sge sabaráta, " his three sons prepared themselves."
ām kátsalla kām yá̉sg'ate andígă kolốšedāní," these three chiefs will not leave us."
2. This convenient $k \bar{a} m$ is, of course, regularly employed, where we use a numeral substantively-
tátāni käm'di támin, " thou catchest two of my children." kámdē tílōma kolốtšédāní," they will not leave one of our men."
kámtsé túlōma nā meíberō lêtsena báágō, " not one of his people was going to the king."
kámdō kúra tílō tsánū, "one of your great men will die."
3. It is very rarely the case, that a numeral is used substantively without $k \bar{a} m$ -
túlöntsấtuma wútsei, dúgō wurá̛gonō, "they saw this their only one, till it was grown up."
§. 202. 1. The want of distinct forms for distributive numerals is supplied by repeating a cardinal number. If a casetermination or suffix is required, the last numeral only assumes it-
gútšigányē ṅgásō túlō túlōn tsúndū," the pelican swallowed all, one by one."
ndúyē tílō tílō kágentse gốtse, " each takes but one as his own."
pépetōntsa tílō tílō múktsa," they pluck their wings one by one."
sándi rigásō tílō tílōn komándēga kégorō, "all of them asked the Lord, one after another."
kóggana rigásó tîlō tílōn îsa, "all the soldiers came, one by one."
2. This repetition, in order to indicate distribution, is not confined to numerals, but is also extended to other wordsárgèmwa tšírāwa gadé gadêrō rúntsan ganáné, "lay down the millet and the sand by themselves, each in a different place."
dántse nả nárrō túlūgeskē, "I take out his flesh from different places successively. andírō rétā rếtā skẹdō, "she gave half to each of us."
§. 203. It is a token of childlike simplicity, arguing perhaps for the age and primitiveness of the language, that it frequently counts up to the number intended, for the purpose, as it would seem, of thus exemplifying the idea of a long, uninterrupted continuation-
kờntāge lásge, ndí, yásge, dégẹ, úgurō nabgędányā, pêrō páltū, " when they had remained five months, the girl became with child."
kábū lásge, ndí, yấsgę, dêge, águ, ấrasgẹ, túlurrō lēgędányā, béla Górgōtẹn tsẹ́bgeda, " having walked for seven days, they dismounted at the town of Gorgo."
§.204. It seems to be for this same purpose, that, with untiring patience, the language repeats the predicate of a number of subjects, or even a whole proposition, on account of a change in the adverb. The same circumstantiality of enumeration is observed in the primitive Hebrew language, comp. Ewald's Kritische Gram. §. 303.
 ram, a goat, and many fowls.
lêtsa, bẹla Tseebáktẹn tséptsā; wāgányā, tšítsa, béla Kátsoulétẹn
 dínīa wägányā, sẹba tšǐtsa, lêtsa, bẹla Gafeiyêtèn teébgệ̀da; -dínāa wăgányā, séba tšítsa, lêtsa, bẹla Tšats̆áramtẹn tsębgēda; wāyányā séba tšítsa, létsa, bẹla Adúfiátẹn tsébgę̀da;
wägányă, tšítsa, lếtsa, bẹlla Murmúrten tsébgẹ̀da; wăgányā,
 lêtseité kárbīna tsúrō káragäntsíbèn sandígā kírū," they regularly arose at day-break, and, having marched all day, dismounted in the evening in the following towns successively, T'sébag, Katsoúlē, Kádūwa, Gáfeiyē, Tšáts̆ăram, Adúfīa, Múrmur, Tšágūa, and, in the morning, when they had arisen in the latter town and resumed their march, a hunter saw them in his forest."
kẹrmãte karagátẹn dzádzirma díbi, kúrgulī díbi, ṅgáran díbi, kẹri šúti díbi, búltu díbi, sándi áte sandíma díbigō, " at present the following animals are the most dangerous in the forest: the leopard, lion, wild cows, wild dogs, and hyenas."
dántse ganá ganán tségerin: kúyē tségerin, bálīye tségerin, "he eats his meat little by little: every day something." lêtse, nā yáyāntsúsōben logôts̊in: kúyē lêtšin, logôtšin, širō
 begs of his brothers every day and they give him.
§. 205. It now remains to notice the peculiar usages of some cardinal numbers.

1. The Numeral tilo is used for our "one and the same,"

$\dot{n} g a ́ s o ̄ n \bar{a}$ túlon námnyēogō, "let us all sit in one and the same place."
béla ndîtẹ kúlugū tîlōn 'kī gốtsei," both these towns fetch water from one and the same brook."
2. tílō is often used without numeric force, merely to indicate the indefiniteness of its substantive, so that it assumes the character of an indefinite pronoun, and corresponds with the indefinite article of other languages, most of which, as is well known, havedeveloped it from a numeral ; e.g. English "a," German "ein," French " un."
kúrū kớa tílō, kanáamōntse mégūa, nàntsúrō kádiō, "again there came a man to him who had ten bullocks."
belamásǜten kóā tílō tátōa ṅgúbūa, "in the neigbouring town there was a certain man who had many children."
táta tílō tšitsee, nà péroberō kádiō, "a certain boy rose and went to the girl."
tsaírō kábê tilō tsôttse, sôbäntse bóbòtse, "one day the boy rose up and called his friend."
3. When repeated, it has to be rendered by our "one-another"-
átẹma kárgun dágẹlbē tílōte. Tílō : lênẹm, \&c.," this is one remedy against the monkeys. Another is, thou goest," \&c.
4. Frequently tílō assumes one of the singular suffixes of the possessive pronouns which renders it adverbial, so that lon or káran might always be substituted, without any change of meaning -
kúlō pándęskī wu túlōni," "I alone have got the farm."
ni tilónembë múskōba kántsa? "have they cut thy hand only ?"
ši tîlōntsé kúlōlan bấrè badžgonō, "he had begun to work alone on the farm."
wu tsúrō káragāben tilōni nẹ́mni tẹ́mgē, "I build my house alone in the midst of the forest."
5. Between the words tílō, túlō, pal, and lásge, there is no difference of meaning, and they are used indiscriminately.
§. 206. The word máge is identical, according to Ali Eisami, with túlur and wísge, but it would seem that this statement is correct only as regards the latter. Its use, however, is restricted to time; and kábū máge, or merely máge, is the usual expression for our "week," just as in German, "vor acht Tagen" $=$ " a week ago." Kábú mágẹ stands in
a similar relation to kábù wísge, as in English " a fortnight " does to "fourteen days." The uncertainty as to whether máge means seven or eight days, doubtless arises from the possibility, in any language, of taking the last or first of a given number of days either inclusively or exclusively. To remove it, the Bornuese can: say, ká́bū máge túlur, "a space of time consisting of six full days and odd;" and kábūu máge wúsgẹ, "seven full natural days and odd." When máge is joined with lókte, it means the same as when joined with kábū, viz. "a week." But it may also be connected with sága, $n_{n} g a l \bar{\imath}$, and kérbū, and then indicates a unit consisting of seven or eight years.

If it could be joined with kántāge, it would fully answer to our "six month ;" but kớntāge is always followed by the common numerals.

To express our "fortnight," the common numeral for fifteen is used, viz. wúuri or kábu úri. The peculiarity which proves this term to be collective is the omission of méogu; for, let it be observed, when the numerals from eleven to nineteen are connected with substantives, they regularly appear in their full form, i.e. with méogu before them; e. g. pẹr méogu úri, " fifteen horses;" käm méogu túlurri, "seventeen men."

The term answering to our "three weeks" also includes one day more, being kábū píndi ndúri, or merely píndi ndúri, instead of the common numeral, píndi táta ndín.

In lieu of our "four weeks," they either use kạntägē, " a month," or lémã dége, "four Sundays."
§. 207. The numeral méogu, with or without $k \bar{a} m$ or $\bar{a} m$ before it, is used indefinitely for any large number of mennot of irrational beings-even if they be in reality many hundreds or thousands, thus representing them as an unbroken company, a united congregation. In a similar manner, we also use a definite number for an indefinite one; e.g. in the expressions, "a hundred times, a thousand times."
kónō málamyè kàm méogurō, "said the priest to the assembly."
áfi wūagátsé, ām méogu? kónō méyè àm méogurō," what is the matter, ye men? said the king to the men."
s̆i dẩb̄̄ kām méogubēn náptšin bágó," he never sits among other people."
áširntsa kām mêoguyē pängéda," the people at large have heard their secret."
kām méogu séreäbè pántsou, "the men of the court shall hear it."
$\bar{a} m$ méoguyè tsáruiya, " when the people saw it."
§. 208. With regard to the use of ordinal numbers, it must be observed that either themselves or their verb regularly assume the suffix $t_{\ell}$, and that, in conformity with §. 203., they are preceded either by the highest or by all cardinal numbers which are less in value than themselves. The te which they assume may be considered as identical with the one corresponding to the adverb "when," §. 173., or with that usually appended to the absolute case, §. 334.; so that, the phrase "he came on the fourth day," would literally read in Kanuri, "three days, when the fourth (viz. was), he came;" or, " three days, as to the fourth, he came." Some examples from Ali will further illustrate this-
kábuntsa yásge tsábālan bốtsa, yim kẹndēge tsétenawãtẹ bẹ́rnirō nátsagei, " they were (lit. slept) three days on the way, and on the fourth day they arrived at the city."
kábū yắsge kitẹnyā, kẹndéguāté, bẹ́rni Katāgúmben tš̌̌gẹda, lit. "when it had reached three days, as to the fourth, they arose in the city of Katagum," i.e. "on the fourth day they arose in the city of Katagum."
kábū yá́sgurō nabgę̈dányā, kẹndéfguātẹ́ tšittsa, "after they had been sitting three days, they arose on the fourth."
kábū lásge, ndí, yásge, dégé, kẹnúguāté, bẹla Yákubābē tsabándi,$i . e$. "on the fifth day they reached the town of Yakuba."
$k a ́ b u ̈ n t s a ~ n d i ́ ~ k e n y a ́ s g n u a ̄ t e ́ ~ s a b a r a ̂ ́ t a, ~ i . e . ~ " t h e y ~ p r e p a r e d ~$ themselves on the third day."
 his town on the fifth day."
kẹrbū, lảsge, ndí, kẹnyásguäté kām kúra tỉlō bẹlándon pátsegè, "in the third year, i. e. in three years a great man will die in your town."
§. 209. The indefinite numerals ṅgásō or sō require some remarks. The first can be used either as a substantive or as an adjective, and the second, which enclitically joins itself to a preceding noun, only as an adjective. When connected with $n d i, s o$ corresponds with the German " alle" in "alle beide." But, in English, it would not be idiomatic always to translate it "all two"; so that sandi ndiso has generally to be rendered by "both of them," i.e. sö remains untranslated; e.g. sándi ndísō lemántsa gớtsa, "both of them took their goods." Even in some other cases, $s \bar{o}$ cannot always be rendered in English, except, perhaps, by "together ;" e.g.
kónō búltuyè dágelsorō. Dágẹlso mána búltubē pắntsa; dágelsoyë búlturö, \&c., "said the hyena to the monkeys. The monkeys heard the word of the hyena; the monkeys said to the hyena."
wúa nyúa ${ }^{\text {aso }}$ gériyè, " we, I and thou, eat it."
andyưa nyúasō másena állayē sádẹ tšibuiyē, "we and thou together will eat the food God gives us."
 of all the birds together."
ándi bêlāndéte kagándēsō gártsa, abándésorō kológeda, "our grandfathers built these our towns, and left them to our fathers."

In connexion with a negative, $\dot{n} g$ ás $\sigma$ or $s o$ answers to our " any ;"e.g.
dā rigásō wu rúsganí, "I did not see any meat." s̊i kätunómasō tsúnōtení, "he did not send any messenger."
§. 210. A surprising and apparently ungrammatical use is made of $s \overline{0}$, when it is employed so as to correspond with the Greek oi $\pi \epsilon \rho i \quad t i v \alpha$, and must be rendered in English, either by the Saxon genitive or by the insertion of words like " parents, friends, relatives, people." For in this case $s \bar{o}$ is annexed to a word in the same manner as when it is a mere adjective; but the context always shows that it is not intended adjectivally to qualify that word, but rather to occupy an imperial relation to it, and to render it subservient, in the same way as a nominative does its genitive. The following instances will illustrate these remarks-
táta pá́tō pếrosốberō légonō, " the boy went to the girl's family."
bèlla ká̉musobē kíbāndẹ́nyā," he having reached the town of the people of the woman."
nā meísoberō kadínyā, meísorō, tšīb̄̄te wu yáaskē Fulátāsorō gédbgeskī, "having come to the place of the king's people, he said to the king's people, I have carried the calabash and thrown it at the Phula."
§. 211. There being no distinct forms for the fractional numbers, their want is supplied by the use of the nouns réta, " a half " (like Heb. דִזִי ), and naía," a part ;" e.g.
málam rétāntse dégan, rêtäntse bellágan, " half of the priest was without and half within the hole."
naiántse dếge, ni wúrō yá́sge s̊ē, " give me three-fourths of it."

## CHAPTER XVIII.

## SYNTAX OF VERBS.

§. 212. The Kanuri has not developed a passive voice, and must therefore employ the active in a variety of ways, in order to express what other languages can convey by a distinct passive. The following cases will here be noticed-

1. The past participle deserves a first mention. By this the Kanuri approaches closely to a real passive; and, with a knowledge of the Englishonly, the temptation would be great, to mistake it for an actual passive. But languages like the German lead us to make a distinction which will enable us to comprehend the right nature of the past participle in question. The German language is capable * of distinguishing an actual suffering, a passiveness, as such, from a condition which is considered as a mere adjectival qualification, a mere attribute of the subject. Thus there is a difference between "er wird geliebt" and "er ist geliebt" both of which must be rendered into English by "he is loved;" but the first only is passive, the second is adjectival, and altogether similar to "er ist gut," or "he is good." Now the Kanuri participle corresponds to the second only, $\dagger$ although in English it is frequently rendered by a passiveconstruction, viz. always when it is the participle of a transitive verb. And that the above is a correct characteristic of this participle, appears especially from the circumstance that it can be formed even of intransitive verbs, when it answers to our present participle active-
wásilī kúgui tílō wárgāta múskōn tsectána," " the white man was holding a roasted fowl in his hand." tígī kóábē wulgáta, " the man's skin was peeled."

[^7]ši gerágata dágel nốtsäń," the monkeys knew not that he was hidden."
ágō bul tsáneinyin tsakkáta," something white covered with clothes."
dántse árgata gôtse." he takes his dried meat."
keári dägátarō tšō," he gave it to the old man who was standing."
sốbāni nábgata, dúgō mánāníte neméneşkin, " my friend must be sitting. before I shall tell my story."
kádī bōgáta kírū, "he saw a serpent lying."
2. The present participial is likewise employed-
kalígimōntse mégu, 品ásō lemán láptsęna," he had ten camels, all of which he had been lading with goods," i.e. "all laden with goods."
táta mána kámāntsiyē nemêttsęnagā ši pántš̆̃," "the boy heard the word which his companion was speaking," i.e. "the word spoken by his companion."
pẹr široo meíye tsębátseñārō tsęba, " he mounts the horse -sent him by the king."
3. Kām, "sombody," or the 3d. person plural of an active verb are often used as substitutes for the passive-
kām šígā tsúrui, " he has been seen." kãm šigà tserắgẹní, " he is not loved."
bárbū tîlō rốtsagei, " a robber has been hung." béla tártsei, " the town has been destroyed."
4. The reflective form may be likewise employed instead of a passive, which is quite natural, as both the reflective and passive qualifications of a verb render it intransitive, and hence the substitution of a reflective for a passive occurs also in other languages, see Becker's Grammar, II. 40.
wōkìta tsúruia, karáturoo tegę̣ri, " having seen the letter it was tied," i.e. "it was too hard for him to read."
ñgalārō sabarátęna gurétơin, " having himself well prepared, he awaited it," i.e. "he awaited it well prepared." šitẹman ämpátin tárgunäte, " by the same does the rabbit guard itself," i.e. " is the rabbit guarded."
kẹrī méogu, dábūntsa tšē súben tẹrgêrrena, ṅgampátugā tsárui, " many dogs, having their necks tied with iron chains, saw the cat."
kấrgeni kámtī, " my heart is cut," i.e." my courage is lost."
5. The infinitive active also may be used instead of a passive-
$k a ̄ m$ tsęlamte ágó rítibē," a black man is something of fearing," i.e. "something to be feared."
béla ṅgásō tárte badûtsei, "all the towns have begun to scatter," i.e. " to be scattered."
mánäte pánturō ńgalà ganí, "this word is not good to hear," i.e. "to be heard."
káliàgō mérsātibè gani," a slave is not a thing to be trusted."
§.213. The government of verbs is simple: by far the greater majority govern an accusative, a small number a dative, or both an accusative and a dative. The prevailing notion of the two latter classes of verbs is that of priority, superiority, esteem, or its contrary.

1. List of verbs which govern both an accusative and dative-
amárigin, " I consent." añgárrigin, " I deny." badôngin, "I begin." bertsémgin, " I honour." godéngin, " I bless." kasánigin, " I consent." mérsangin, " I trust."
nágeskin, " I overtake." nốngûnigin, "I am ashamed of." rìngin, " I fear." rambúskin, "I pay," (cf. Lat. honor = " reward.")
tángin, " I ascend."
wätsémgin, " I judge."

Besides these, there are two other verbs, nórigin and yéngin, which assume a different meaning, according as they are construed with the dative or accusative: with the dative not ingin means, "I obey ;" yéngin, " I answer ;" with the accusative, the former, "I know ;" the latter (with keiga), "I sing."
2. Verbs governing a dative-
adúnigin, " I bless." báskin, " I mount." digérnigin, " I praise." gāgéskin," I enter."
túmgin," I reverence."
yéserigin, "I go out of the way for any one."

Of these verbs, nágéskin and gắgeskin are probably the relative forms of the now obsolete roots, nánigin, gárigin, and consequently their dative construction is quite regular ; but they are inserted in the above lists because they now only occur in this form. Other words might be looked for in these lists, whose proper place, however, is not here; so, e.g., kértegeskin is synonymous with our "to hold, to hold fast," and construed with a dative; but the reason of this construction is, that it is a regular relative, derived from the reflective of the verb kérnigin, which is still in common use (see §. 61.). In like manner, yakkáraskin, ' I teach reading," and yekkéliskin, " I teach," both of which are construed with a dative of the person taught, might be erroneously taken for original verbs, answering to our "teach;" but they also are relative forms of karángin (obsolete $=k a r a ́ s k i n$ ) and liskin; and the phrases kámmō yakkáraskin. "I teach one to read," and kámmō yekkéliskin, "I teach one," are elliptical, their full form being kitábugā kámmō yakkáraskin, kitábugā kámmō yekkẹliskin.
§. 214. It is agreeable to the rules in §. 146. and 147 , that the remoter object to which the relative conjugation refers the action of the radical verb should uniformly be in the dative case, whereas the nearer object remains the same as in the
radical conjugation; e. g. sôbāni wúrō tátäntse pélëseğ̃," my friend has shown me his son."

But sometimes it may happen that in cases where, by means of an ellipsis, the relative form is usually followed by a dative, the elliptical nature of such a construction is in time lost sight of, the relative form treated as radical, and consequently construed with a mere accusative ; e. g. belágātegā kégenógō, "fill up this hole," the full form of which is, bellágäturō kátigā kégẹnógō; then elliptically, bẹlágāturō kégenógō; and then changed, bellágātegă kégenógō. Again, lámgin, or pẹ́sga lámgin, "I wash the face;" wu š̌irō pẹ́sga lámgeskin, and šígā láámeskin, "I wash his face."
§. 215. In the government of verbs in the causative conjugation two cases must be chiefly observed: one, when the verb subordinates merely an accusative; the other, when it subordinates both an accusative and a dative.

1. The first case, or that of a proper and actual causative, takes place when this conjugation is formed-
a. From any of the intransitive verbs in $\dot{n} g i n$, enumerated in §. 58., with the exception of yilngin and yíngin (not of kóngin).
b. From the following transitive verbs in rigintúmgin, "I honour, submit to," c. dat.; caus. yitętúmgeskin, c. ac. "I persuade."
c. From some intransitive verbs in skinbäfúskin, " to cook, boil," intr. gelágeskin, "to remain for next year." pádgeskin, " I am lost." wáreskin, " I am ill."
2. The second case, or that of a causative in form, but mostly a mere relative in force, takes place when it is derived-
a. From any of the transitive verbs in rigin, enumerated in §. 59., with the exception of parrigin and wárngin.
b. From the following transitive verbs in skinbúskin, " I eat," caus., " I help some one " (dat.) "to eat something " (ac.).
dískin, "I do," caus., "I help some one " (dat.)" to do something " (ac.).
dóreskkin, " I pick,"' caus., "I help some one "(dat.) " to pick something" (ac.). dútęskin, " I sew," caus., " I help some one " (dat.) " to sew something" (ac.).
gámbuskin, " I scratch," caus., "I help some one " (dat.) " to scratch something " (ac.).
kégéskin, " I distribute," caus., " I distribute something " (dat.) " to others" (ac.). rágesskin, " I like," caus., " I like or help some one" (dat.) "to get something" (ac.).
rambúskin, " I pay," caus., " I pay something " (ac.) " to somebody" (dat.).
rógeskin, " I hang," caus., i. q. rel., "I hang some one " (ac.), " upon something " (dat.).
róreskin, "I collect," caus., " I collect something " (ac.) " into something " (dat.).
ságéskin, " I put down," caus., "I put down something " (ac.) "upon something" (dat.).
báskin, " I beat," caus., " I help one" (dat.) " to beat something" (ac.).
ladẹ́skin, " I sell," caus., " I sell something" (ac.) " to somebody" (dat).
It must be observed that in all the instances under No. 2, the force of the causative and of the relative entirely coincide in every verb which admits of both forms, so that we have here an instance of redundancy of forms in the language. The mutual force of both forms is rendered in English by any of the follow-
ing prepositions, " to, toward, against, for, at, on, upon, in, into," \&c.; in one case by the adverb " again,". viz. yitesaamgéskin, "I distribute again," the original idea being, "I distribute upon or in addition to," viz." the former distribution."
§. 216. A few other cases remain to be mentioned, which, in some respects, differ from what has been stated above concerning the causative conjugation-
3. The verb lámgin means " to wash oneself, to wash the face;" but in the causative, in which it governs an accusative, it does not mean " to cause one to wash himself," but " to wash somebody's face," viz. that of an infant, or of a dead body. The Verb wárigin means "to burn," trans.; and in the causative, where it likewise governs an accusative, it also means " to burn," but with the idea, " like a potter," i.e. to make earthen-pots fit for use by burning them in an oven.
4. The verbs, báskin, c. dat., "I mount," párigin, c. ac. "I separate," sángeskin, c. ac. "I awaken," trans., in the causative, govern the same cases, and have to be rendered in English in the same way; but the reason why they severally admit of a causative, or, in this case, rather a relative conjugation, is, that one may wish to direct attention especially to the object on which one mounts, or the contact from which one separates, or the state from which one awakens. In the following propositions the causative form would therefore seem to be more correct than the radical form, although the latter is quite admissible and frequently employed-
wu kalígimōnírō yigebbáskī, "I have mounted my camel." sandígā leebáläntsálan yitępárgesskī, "I have separated them," lit. "from being in their quarrel," i.e. "when they had a quarrel."
šig à kónęmlan yitesángeski, "I have awakened him out of sleep."
5. The verbs yilngin, "I holloa," and yingin, "I breathe," though both intransitive, use the causative and relative forms indiscriminately, and govern a dative in either case; the first with the meaning, "to holloa over or towards somebody;" the second with the meaning, "I help one to breathe or to live, I assist, support one."
6. The verb nónigin likewise uses the relative and causative conjugations indiscriminately, but both with a causative meaning, " to cause one" (dat.) " to know something" (ac.).
7. The intransitive verbs, kásesskin, "I run," yürúskin, " I fall," and yúwüreskin, " I laugh," become transitive in the causative conjugation, but have their object in the dative case ; e.g.
kürgul̄̄ sóbbānírō tsukkúr̄̄," a lion has fallen upon or seized my friend."
$\bar{a} m$ 'gásō kúrgulirō tsagagáš̃, "all people ran after or pursued the lion."
áte keárirō yukkúrremmí, " do not laugh at, or do not deride, an old man."
8. Several verbs can, in the causative conjugation, govern indiscriminately an accusative and dative-
liskin, " I learn," caus. c. ac. and dat. of person, "I teach." náageskin, "I overtake," caus. c. ac. and dat., i.q. radical conj. tsāgénigin, "I dress," caus. c. ac. and dat., i.q. radical conj.
§. 217. The aorist is employed either to indicate past time in general, without any adjunct idea, as the Greek aorists : or, as the Greek and our imperfect, to represent a past act in its commencement and duration, or in its progress. As in Latin the perfect, and in English the imperfect, so in Kanuri, this is the proper historical tense; but with regard to its use it must be remarked, that for the most part it occurs only at the end of a sentence or period; and when several verbs follow each other.
denoting a series of consecutive acts, the last of them only is found in the aorist, as will be seen from the following instances-
meíyē : ába málam, wu bẹrnìen katambúskō wurāgóskō," the king said, father priest, I was born and grew up in the capital."
kámpūa kām dếge tš̆trtsa, kásugurō ntsúnturō lègéda; lēge-
dányā, dábū kásugubēn dāgéda, "four blind men arose and went to market to beg; when they had gone, they stood up in the midst of the market."
Dägänyã, kríge Fulátabē tsìgónō: ánem wügeiéndeā, mei Deiáma yalntsúa Fulátä yóktses, bẹländêrō kášyō, "it being over, the Pulo war commenced: when we looked to the south, the king of Deia, with his people-the Phula having driven them-were coming to our town." sagándè tilơrõ nabgeiéndeä, mei žse, Fuláta bẹrnīen tsętúläge, gáge, náptseña, dúgō ságā pal kilugō," when we had sat down for one year, the king came, the Phula left the capital, he entered and remained till one year had elapsed."
áteman múskō Wāsiliberō gágesskē, komándè äširndégā tsáktsę,
 tilórō pitsgeda, "thence we came into the hands of white people, our Lord helped us; the English, servants of God, captured us and brought us here, and gave us freedom for God's sake."
täta tálagäbē tri̛tse, lêtse, meína sōbágonō," the son of a poor man rose, went and made friendship with a prince."
§. 218. The perfect tense indicates past time fully completed. It may be said that the aorist indicates the inceptive, and the perfect the completed end of past duration. If, e.g., you say, kádiskō, you convey the idea of your having once started, and then of having been performing the act of coming; if $\mathfrak{z s e s k}$, you convey the idea of your having fully completed and actually terminated your act of coming.

Although the aorist is the proper tempus historicum, yet the perfect frequently alternates with it in one and the same narration. The beginning of a story which was told me may serve to illustrate this-

Málam tsúrō bẹlāben kámūntse tìlōa. Kámūntse tílōte širō táta tílo kẹ́ngalı̄ tsámbō. Kēambínyā, tátã suyứa kâmuntsúa tsasargále. Táta ganá wurāgányā, yā tátabē pátsegi. Kámū pátsegẹnābè kábū yásge kìtẹnyâ, sádāga yásguāntsíbē sadáktš̀. Sadakkányā, kábū túlur tsệtī. Kábū túlur kìtẹnyã, sádagāntse túlurwa sadáktši. Túlurwa sadáktsẹ dägányă, kábū pídēge tsẹéti. Kìtẹ́nyā, sádàga pídēguabē sadáktse dāgányā, málam karámintsẹ bóbōtse, karámintsúrō: " karáminí, bélā áte yã tátānibē wúrō tátā kolớsege, komándē šiga mátš̃, wu bélà áte wưgā sęrágẹni, wu bẹla gadérō tátāni táskè lênesskin," tse karámintsurō, káreintse tsergệre, gốtsẹ, tátäntsẹ múskōn tsẹ́tā, bẹla gadếrō lêgonō. Lēgányā, bẹlàa átẹn pántsẹ mátsẹ, šyúa tátāntsứa nábgệda. Nabgẹdányă, karámintse tátäntse tílō kẹnigalol tílō mbétš̛i, tátāntse tsétátā, nā yayấntse málamberō kígutō, \&c., "A priest in a town had one wife. This his only wife brought him one male child. When she had given birth to the child, he and his wife took care of it. When the little child had grown up, the child's mother died. When the woman had been lost three days, he brought the threedays' sacrifice for her. After he had brought it, the time came to seven days. When it had come to seven days, he brought the seven-days' sacrifice for her. When he had brought the seven-days' sacrifice, the time came to forty days. Then, when he had brought the forty-days' sacrifice, the priest called his younger sister, and said to his younger sister, ' younger sister, as for this town-the mother of my child having left me the child at her death-this town does not like me, I will take my child and go to another town.' He bound up his things, and took them, and caught his child by the hand, and went to another town. Having
gone, he sought a home for himself in that town and remained, he and his child. Having remained, his younger sister, who had also one male child, took her child, and brought it to her elder brother, the priest," \&c.
§. 219. As certain perfect forms of the Greek and Latin, e.g. oî̀ $\alpha$, $\mu \dot{e} \mu \nu \eta \mu \alpha l$, novi, memini, have to be rendered in English by the present, so also must the Perfect or even Aorist forms of certain Bornu verbs. Most of them, however, may in another context be equally rendered in English by the perfectbónigī,"I lie," prop. "I have lain nốngì, nóninō, nógoskō, "I know." down."
dángı̃," I stand," prop. "I have stood up."
kúski and kíguskō, "I bring," and "I brought."
námgī, " I sit," prop. "I sat
down."
pándęskī, " I possess," prop. "I have got." rá́geski and rá́geskō, " I like." rîniḡ̀, rínigō, rígoskō, "I fear." tíski, "I am enough, suffice." wáñgī, "I dislike." yētsęráskī," I believe."

It is evident that the Bornu forms are more correctly chosen, because all these acts must have been performed before they can be annnounced.
§. 220. The indefinite tenses can stand for any of the three capital tenses, the context always indicating which of them. But as the first indefinite expresses frequency, and the second indefinite singleness of action, besides the time-relation, they might as well be considered as two moods.

The indefinite I. expresses continuation, repetition, frequency of action, and may be used -

1. For our present, viz. when this expresses-
a. Capability or habit of doing a thing, as in all universal propositions or general statements; e.g. ṙgádō párts̆in, búnı̄ mbâtsin, kām lêtšin, " a bird flies,
a fish swims, man walks." This is the same as, ṅgúdō pártẹma, búnī mbắtẹma, kām lêtẹma.
kưyē létšin logótšin, š̌rrō tsádin, báálīe létšin, logơtš̌in, šírō tsádin, "to-day he goes and begs and they give him, to-morrow he goes and begs and they give him."
b. Certainty or firm resolution to begin an act at once, so that, as far as the will is concerned, it is already entered upon; e.g.
léngin, "I go," i,e. I have fully resolved to begin going instantly. Sometimes we express this force of the indefinite by an auxiliary verb; e.g. wu kídäni dískin, "I will do my work."
2. For our future, when no stress is laid on the circumstance that an act is not yet commenced, but when it may soon begin and have its progress in futurity-
wu nánīen kámū bágō: ndúc sandígà ǹngalārō wúts̆in? "I have no wife about me: who will look well after them?"
ām wúra, nemé gúluntsaskinté, ndúyē súmōntse péremtse, " ye great men, as to the word which I shall tell you, let every one open his ears."
kúngănamāté, ši ágō bálī̀ t̂́sinte nírō gúltšin, "as to a soothsayer, she tells thee what will come to pass to-morrow."
áfiyāye állayè āgémesaganāté š̌itẹmā ruíyen, "whatever God has decreed for us, that we shall see."
ńgō abándō kábin bōgáta, wúyē abándogā gáskin, "behold your father is lying a corpse; I shall follow your father."

3 For our past, when it indicates that a thing was done
continuously, repeatedly, that it has been a practice, a habit, or custom-
sándi badigêdányā, wu ts̆̌̌neskē, sandígà ǹgáfon gáskin, tílō nágeskkia, gónigē yundúskin, ndí nágeskīa, gónigē yundúskin; $\dot{n} g a ̆ ́ s o ̄ ~ k a ́ b u ̄ ~ p a ́ n t s a ~ t s a b a ́ n d i n t e ́ ~ w u ~$ yundúski," when they had sat down, I rose and followed after them; having overtaken one, I took and swallowed it, and having overtaken another, I took and swallowed it; by the time they would have reached their home, I had swallowed all."
kóa sóbāntse "kẹ́rdi tsúmtšin bágō, sālűtšin bágō, sadáktšin bágō, lífā pébē tsẹbui, dā gádubè tsébui, da dálbē tsẹ́bui, kímilntse tsei, dăgáta tẹ́rtẹrts̆in, " his friend, the heathen, fasted not, prayed not, offered not, ate the carrion of cattle, ate hog's flesh, ate monkeys' flesh, drank his beer, made water whilst standing."
wátšisō bárbū, dínīa bunētšĩa, ṅgérgentse gótse, ndálturō léttŏin, "every day, when it had become night, the thief took his bag and went to steal."
 kân ī tsúruiya, tšêtsę, gốtsę, létsšin, tsấtę, tsegérrīa, kúrū kātširítšīa wóltin, " a leopard used to rise at night, and came into the midst of a town; when he had come and seen a sheep, he killed it, took it and went off. Having carried it away and eaten it, he returned, after it had become evening."
§. 221. It is natural that, in all languages which possess verbal forms expressive of continuity or frequency, there should be a near approach in the use of these forms to participles, perhaps sometimes a mutual interchange (cf. for the Semitic Ewald's Hebrew Grammar, §. 136. c.); for any action which serves as an adjective to distinguish and mark an agent must have been continuous or repeated. Accordingly we cannot be greatly surprised if we find the first indefinite employed in Kanuri where other languages employ a participle, or, in its stead, an
infinitive, and if we find it alternating with the participle, and also, in other respects, treated like it. Hence we may be reconciled to what appears at first so strange and startling, viz. that in Kanuri a regularly inflected finite verb assumes caseterminations. In addition to the examples produced in §. 155. others may be added to illustrate the above statements -
bárētš̀in tsúrui, "he saw him hoe."
kóãnémgā kóā kandíra átetę tsęttšin rúmba? " didst thou see this hunter kill thy husband?"
kéngal Pótēn tsegkúrin kirúnyā, "he having seen the sun set in the west."
nántse lêttsuinnō létsẹ, "let him go to the place to which he is going."
ši málam, kitábu nótsęna, tsúmtšin, sátīts̆in, sadáktšin, " he is a priest, and knows the book, fasts, prays, and sacrifices."
keígamā ṅgáfō meíbē tségei Fulátasoyē kerúnyâ, " the Phula having seen the general following after the king."
ágō tserágęna tsédinnõ wólgonō," she became one who could do what she liked."
bísga búnyē wu némnyin bónesgàna lénneskin wu našingoskō, " yesterday night, lying sleeping (prop. that I might sleep) in my house, I dreamt."
§. 222. In the participial use of the indefinite the mere abstract notion of the verb seems to preponderate over the accident of continuation and repetition; hence it is natural that the adverb bago, which expresses absolute negation should uniformly be coupled with the first indefinite when it refers to what is never to be, either now, nor at any future time ; cf. also §§. 292., 293., 225.
wu nígã rambúskin bágō, sai 'Alla, "I can by no means pay thee, but God only."
mána àm wúrayē nemétsa pángånātẹ́ wu sébbgesskin bágō̄, "the word which the great men have spoken and I heard, 1 shall never forget."
yim abánem wúa sưua degéenāté, mána neméngīa, kótšin bágó, " at the time when I and thy father were alive, and I had spoken a word, he never transgressed it."
kámū ndí díbī kwōyá, kománde nāndérō ísenāté, andírō " kámū $n d i ́$ áte dt̂́wí" gúltšin bágoōba? "if two wives were improper, would not our Lord, when he came to us, have told us, 'Do not take two wives.'"

Whereas the first indefinite with bago negatives a future action for any period whatever, it does so only for a limited period when followed by gani; e.g.
wu nírō pérni ntségẹladẹ́skūa, kẹmẹndē wúgā beấsẹmin ganí, "if I sell my horse to thee, thou wilt not pay me this year."

In practice, however, this rule is not so rigorously observed, although it originally seems to have been the ground for this difference of forms, and we meet bago where gani would have been more proper.
§. 223. It may be considered as a consequence of the future import of the indefinite, that it is sometimes used with the force of an imperative, just as the future in Greek, but weakening, in a measure, the strictly imperative power, and placing the mere expectation that a thing will be done in a stronger light -
> " kām kẹrmei dúnōn tsębándin bágō" tsę kitábuyè wu kíruskō, "I have seen that the book says, 'let a man never get a kingdom by force." "

§. 224. The second indefinite expresses single action and is used-

1. as a present-
a. when indicating a firm resolution to do something instantly; e.g.
lérigē, "I go," i.e. "I am fully determined at once to
perform the act of going." It differs from the corresponding indefinite $I$. by representing the act as single.
 me twenty-four, and I will give thee the ram."
b. When followed by an indefinite I. with a present force ; e.g.
wu léngē karángin, " I go and read." wu bớngé lếngin, "I lie down and sleep."
2. As a future, when followed by the future tense or the indefinite $\mathbf{I}$. with a future force ; e.g.
kẹrbū lásge, ndì, kenyásguâté käm kúra tílō belándon
 náptsou, " after two years, in the third, there shall a great man die in your town, and all ye of this town shall sit down in one place for his funeral." kárgè tsundía, kantegálibī ndísō pítse tšindō, "having swallowed the heart, he will draw out both the kidneys and swallow them."
 " he having sat down, all his soldiers will come and will begin to eat the flesh."
bátīe wu séba îseskē, šígă yētsęskin, " to-morrow I will come early and will kill him."
3. As a preterite, when it is followed by an indefinite I. with a past meaning, or by a perfect, or an aorist "búnyëgányā, sándi ísa, tsẹ́ptsä, árgẹm 'gásō tsábui, " night having set in, they came, alighted, and ate all the millet." áşeskē, pánīen námgē, álla logờngìn, "I came, sat down in my home, and prayed to God." ṅgampátū létse, gôtsé, kúguigā tsúndī, " the cat went, seized the fowl, and swallowed it."
 Lígïramté nigã tsédẹ, kígutō pāndérō," "our father arose, went and married our step-mother Ligiram in the town Bilbila and brought her home."
§. 225. Joined by bago, the second indefinite negatives a single action which was to happen at any future period (cf. Indefinite I. with bago, §. 222.). The accident of time standing much in the back ground, compared with the idea of singleness of action, the indefinite II. with bágō may often be best rendered by our present; cf. also §. 234.
ni mánāni pánẹm bágō kwōyá, degá ni tšrírum, "if thou wilt not hear my word, stop and thou shalt see it."
ágō fúgubē rúmin, ṅgăfobē, t̂sisinté ni rum báagō, " thou seest what is before thee, but thou canst not see when that is to come which is behind thee."
kóayè ši tsánnā nañga lemántse kámmō tšim bágō, " the man said he would not give his goods to any one on heaven's account;" understand, "on the occasion when he was requested so to do."
kárgẹnẹm tsẹ́lạn kwōyá, ni tsánnā pándẹm bágō, "if thy heart is black, thou shalt not obtain heaven," viz. " on the one occasion after death."
pátorō lếnẹmĩã, ísẹm bágō, "if thou go home, thou wilt not return," viz. "on the present occasion, whilst on others thou mayest do so."
When it is said to a blind man, níte símnem rum bágō, "thou dost not see with thine eyes," rum seems to stand from a phonetic reason, because in its stead rúmim bágō might be used, whereas one could not say rúskē bágō or tsúrū bágō, but only rúskim bágō, and tsúrui bágō.
§. 226. It has been said in §. 217, that the aorist is the proper historical tense, but that it generally appears only in the last of a number of verbs which are grouped closely together; now the tense of these preceding verbs is uniformly the second
indefinite, and it can likewise claim to itself the character of being an historical tense. But it is more descriptive or graphic than drily historical, it paints history as it were. With the second indefinite narration proceeds, with the aorist or perfect it concludes. The second indefinite joins fact to fact, observation to observation, so objectively and abstractedly that it seems quite to lose sight of the accident of time, and, with surprising unconcern, leaves it to a following perfect, or aorist, or future, to determine in what time an action is to be conceived, so that it actually ceases to be a tense in the common sense. At any rate, the second indefinite has much less of the character of a real tense than the first; for whilst the latter generally stands at the end of a sentence, and so leaves no doubt as to time, the former is not thus situated, and depends on the time of the tense immediately following.

Some more examples may here be given to illustrate the use of the second indefinite as a graphic historical tense-
kourúnyã tsütse tsęgáse, nā kurgûlíberō légonō, " after having fallen, he rose up, ran, and went to the lion."
kirúnyā, dzáadzirma ̂̀sẹ, búlteggā tsẹ́tā, tšétsę, búltegā a tsẹ́bū, báré badittšĩ, "having seen it, the leopard came, seized the hyena, killed it, ate it, and began to work."
ši wólte, t̂́se, rigúdō gớtse, tsẹbā gésgārō, pátō nigúdōbēlan $\dot{n}$ gúdō gănátsę, tsédirō tsebgónō, " he returned, came, took the birds, climbed up the tree, put the birds into the bird's nest, and came down on the ground."
 gédíbèn tsálūgu, tsába Kúrnoābē gógonō," the king heard the General's message, and got ready; all his people rose up, went out through the east gate, and took the way to Kúrnōa."
§.227. The cases are comparatively rare where a second indefinite is historical without a past tense following. When the second indefinite is thus employed, its forms in $o$ are preferred. A few instances may here follow to illustrate this-
nátẹman kó́ayē káliārō: wu nígā mérsāntsẹskē, kásgimārṑ ntsúnōtęskē, ni lếnẹm, kásgimayē nírō tšìrè gúltsę, ni wóllẹm, íşem, wúrō kátuḡ̄ kámnẹm, lềngē, tátāni táskē, yétsẹskē, kūn ká́sęn nírō kām gúltsasgạní," then said the man to the slave, 'I trusted thee, and sent thee to the diviner ; thou wentest, the diviner told thee the truth; thou returnedst, camest, fabricatedst a lie to me, so that I went, took my boy and killed him, henceforth I shall no longer call thee a man."
málam tsúrō bẹ́lābēn kámūntse tílōa; kâmuñtse tílōte širō táta tilō kéṅgadı̄ tsámbō," a priest in a town had (only) one wife; and this his only wife brought him one male child."
tátayē abántsurō : abáni, woínā andírō lénẹm, kâsugun yíbum yáasge kútummäté, kámūnẹmte tátāntsurō woínā ndîte gôtsẹ tšō, andírō woína tílōte rêtse, réta rét ā skédō," the boy said to his father, 'my father, of the three pancakes which thou hast bought at the market and brought to us, this thy wife took two and gave them to her child, and one she rent in two and gave us each a half.' "
áfi nigā ntsebándō ? " what has happened to thee ?"
äm bélabeyē, " koänémte ndú tšêttsō ?" kedányāa, šíyē, " kandíra, kamáśsindè áte, šímã tšêttsō" kónō àm bẹlaberō kámuyē, "when the people of the town had asked her, ' who killed thy husband ?' she, the woman, said to the people of the town, 'this hunter, our neighbour, he killed him.'"
§. 228. We have seen that narration moves on in the second indefinite, and that this is usually the tense of a number of parallel verbs which are followed by an aorist or perfect, thus with these concluding verbs uniting into one group, and forming a kind of sentence or period in which a whole speech is, by degrees, brought under a convenient survey. But now these periods themselves need a connecting band, to show that they are merely
parts of a whole. And the second indefinite proves such a band of union. But its force and use here is peculiar. The same verb which, in the aorist or perfect, has concluded one sentence, is repeated in the second indefinite, and thus begins another sentence, or forms the first link of another group of verbs. This repeated verb accordingly does not add to the substance or quantity of narration, but serves merely a formal purpose, is a mere connective : and as a connective, it does not outwardly link together, like our conjunctions, but unites the various sentences of a speech into one graphic description, one picture. The historical aorist or perfect, by bringing the time-idea of preteriteness, so to speak, into prominence, destroys the picturelike character of speech, and it seems to be the sole object of repeating a verb in the second indefinite to restore this character. The aorist or perfect, recurrent at short intervals in Kanuri relations, maintains the historical character, and the more frequent use of the second indefinite preserves the vivacity of picture-like representation.

The following are instances of the repetition of verbs in the indefinite II.; and to render the translation into English as little awkward as possible, the second indefinite will be translated by a present, of which it perfectly well admits-
lēgányā, mei gergátť̄i; gergátsé, keígamā yóktse, kášagar tsémãge, " he having gone, the king became wrath; he is wrath, drives away the General, and takes the sword." Fuláta tšitsa, nā meíberō káššō, ísa, bę́ñ kārañgedányā, meirō wōkita tsẹbátsa, " the Phula rose up and came to the king; they come, and having approached the capital, send the king a letter."
 kábū tilowárō sandígā kesáatō, " all the soldiers pursued the Phula to kill them; they pursue and carried them to a place of the distance of one day's march."
nā kóäberō kádiō ; íse, kó́agā, lafiâtse," "he came to the man;
he comes, salutes the man."
nā bélamāaberō kégutō; tságūte, dāgányā," they brought it to the magistrate; they bring it, it being done," \&c.
sándi móltei; mólta, kóayè šigā gótse, wóptsege, "they wrestled ; they wrestle, the man took him and threw him down."
tš̌its $t s$, lêtsei ; lêtsa, nā gadê, kébāndẹ́nyā, bō gẹ́da, " they rose up and went; they go, having reached another place, they lay down."
§. 229. The future tense is used to indicate absolute futurity: it represents an act as not yet commenced at the time of speaking. It is rather surprising, that whilst in form it corresponds to the second aorist, yet in force it is parallel to the perfect.
bẹ́lamāwa t̂́seiya, sandíyé rigáwāntsa badt̂tšèda, " when the magistrates have come, they will begin their wrestling."
kām kấmā ndí gạnátš̌īa, kęrêtsonō, "if a man takes in two wives, he will be partial."
tátātíbè bū rúskīa, kásuāte wúgā kolớsonō, wu tšìtsóskō ; búntséte s̆imníyē tsúrūni kwōya, kásuāte wúgā kolớs̆im bágō, wu tsánuskō, " when I shall have seen the boy's blood, the sickness will leave me and I shall get up; if my eyes do not see the blood, the sickness will never (i.e. neither now, nor at any future time) leave me, and I shall die."
ni tílōnem dígallan bốnẹmãa, búndiyè nígā gốntsonō, "if thou sleep alone in the bed, wild beasts will take thee."
létsęní kwōya, tsū bẹlābē bibî́tsonō, "if he does not go, he will defame the name of the town."
 he gives his first slave to Satan, he will recover, said the diviner."
§. 230. The Kanuri, not possessing relative tenses, has to express these by various other forms, as will be, seen from the following instances-

1. The imperfect by an aorist, perfect, or participle-
kigūtényā, д̇gampáturö keínō. "when she had brought it, she gave it to the cat."
gōgányā, múrtāga pérẹmgonō, " when she had taken it, she opened the smelling-bottle."
kúlō tsalgányā, árgem tsęnátī, ̀̇gálō tsenátī, másarmī tsenátiti, " when he had cleared the farm, he planted millet, beans, and maize."
ši búnyẽ dígalntselan bôttẹna, rúntse nemététsin " when by night she was lying on her bed, she spoke to herself."
2. The pluperfect by the conjunctional, or a participial, or a perfect-
lēgedány $\bar{a}$, dúny $\bar{a}$ wāgányā, tátōa tšítsa, " when they had gone, and when it had dawned, the boys arose."
kóa kámuntse páltigō nốtš̃, " the man knew that his wife had conceived."
péró kớnemye gôtsẹna, s̆̈ nottsení, " he did not know that sleep had seized the girl."
nāñgalấrōberō lēgányā, ṅgalárrō dzáádzirma tšêtsesna, " when he went to the ram, the ram had killed the leopard."
3. The paulopost future by the conjunctional, the perfect, or the future-
 mánānem tşirêtésí, ni wúgā kốsẹmi, " when I shall have come to thee, thou mayest see my whole body; and if thou wilt see the wale of a stick, thy word will have become true, thou wilt have surpassed me."
 tímin tsátsasganí, " if I had known that, if I should bite any one, my teeth twould kill, I would not have bitten the man with my teeth."
ts̆ă wu bágō kwōya, nígă kólīram átiye gồntsẹ, ntsăte, $n t \overline{\text { ēétsō }}$, "if I had not gone, the wood-demon would have taken, carried off, and killed thee."
§. 231. The Kanuri has not developed auxiliary verbs to express tenses, with the only exception of dâtsū̃, an impersonal
form of dánḡ̄, "I stand," or dátse of dángēe, id., by which the completion of an action is still more emphatically indicated than by the mere perfect. It has a parallel in the Spanish language, where the auxiliary estar also means "to stand" (L. stare). As to its use, it must be remarked, that it always follows the verb to which it belongs, and that this verb itself is uniformly in the second indefinite, whereas it can itself be either in the indefinite or in the perfect tense, the latter most frequently. It is only used in the 3d person singular, whatever may be the person and number of the other verb-
 márō nandígā bóbōngédáskō," ye have now cut the wood, dug the iron, built the furnace, therefore I have called you."
wu nemé komándē súnōte t̂́sesganāté wu nandírō nemếneskē, dátữ̄ : kóa mánätégā pántsęnāte pántse ñgalārō, " I have now told you the word, on account of which our Lord has sent me: let every man who has been hearing this word, hear it well."
nátẹman kâmtęgã dárō kámtsā dấtšin, kálẹmte kámuásō, pérroásō tsógōntsärō p pítsagei, " then they cut the man entirely into meat, and the women, with the girls, fill their baskets with the intestines."
bámbäte bánnā tsẹ́dō Bọrnun ṅgúburō: àm wúra ṅgásō šíma tsebbátke dátse, " the pestilence caused much devastation in Bornu: it entirely carried off all the great people."
rốntsẹna tsúlūge dấtsenní, dúgō dárō kámtsei, "he had not yet quite expired when they cut him up for meat."
§. 232. A few other verbs are sometimes used so that they appear much like time-auxiliaries, but perhaps give up less of their proper verbal notion in Kanuri than in other languages where they are similarly used; cf. Becker, I. §. 90 . The verbs lénigē, bónigè, tờz̀ingē, with other verbs following, may be taken as indicative of mere inchoation; as,
léngè bórigin "I am going to sleep."
léngè búskin, "I am going to eat," comp.in German, "schlafen gehen, essen gehen."
léñgè bóngī, "I went to sleep." tš̌̀né, námné, šigā rui, "sit down now and behold him."
Similar to this is the use of kofngin, in certain connexions; as, délāge tsudúre kốtš̄̃, " the rains are over."

In all these cases, when two verbs belong so closely together, the negative character, if required, is added to the last only, comp. §. 257.-
léngè búsganní, "I am not going to eat."
délăge tsudúre kôtsenín, " the rains are not over."
§. 233. In the syntax of moods it will be convenient to term what is usually called the indicative mood the affirmative, because, in Kanuri an affirmative and a negative, as one single indicative, must be distinguished from the subjunctive, imperative, \&c.

The affirmative indicative mood expresses reality and certainty ; e.g.

| nórigū, " I know." | rufútseiyē," we shall write." |
| :--- | :--- |
| lét $\bar{t} \bar{z}$, " he has gone." |  |

§. 234. The negative indicative mood, a verbal form which the Kanuri has in common with the Finnic * and other languages, expresses negation of existence or action; e.g.
nónganí, " I do not know it."
létęeni," he did not go."
rufútsasganí, "I shall not write."
As there is a formal connexion between the negative mood and the second indefinite tense, so also in power the negative joins itself to the indefinite II., by always referring to a single action, to an energy which is considered as occupying only one moment of time. Hereby it differs from the first indefinite with búgō (see §. 222.); e g. léñgạní means, "I did not go ;"

[^8]létsasgạni, "I shall not go,", viz. " on a certain understood occasion;" but lénigin bágō, "I never went," or "I shall never go," viz. "on any occasion."

The future tense of the negative mood and the second indefinite with bágö almost coincide in use, yet there is some difference between them. They agree in rendering negativean action still future at the time of speaking; but they appear to differ in this, that the future of the negative mood urges the idea of futurity, and perhaps refers especially to what is still distant in future; whereas the second indefinite with bágō urges the singleness of the action, but leaves ample room as to the proper moment of time, to happen either immediately after the time of speaking or at any future period (cf. §. 225.). The first indefinite with ganí is different from both these forms; for it neither urges the idea of futurity, nor negatives an act which might have occured at any future period, but refers to a defined and limited period of the future, and allows the possibility of an action taking place at any moment within that limited period only. So, when I say, wu lénigia t̂́seskin ganí, I convey the idea that I shall be absent for a certain period, as, a few days or a few years, but it leaves me at full liberty to return after such a period: whereas if I say, wu lénigīa, żzeskkin bágō, I state that I shall not return at all, but remain absent for ever.
§. 235. The negative mood has a peculiar emphasis when it is connected with certain pronouns, numerals, or adverbs, which we have often to render by "even not," or " not any," \&c. And the particular word to which the negative logically refers has generally the suffix $m a$, cf. §. 283. 2. In this way also the language makes up for the lack of compound words like " n'one (none), n'either, k'ein, n’ullus," \&c.
> ndúmā gémnyendê pátōtẹ, kóāte ši tílōntse gẹ́mnyê," we did not meet any body in the house, but the man alone."
> wu ṅgálèma rúsgani, "I never saw it."
> kómändéte, ši ndúmä, áte kérdī, áte mésẹlạm tse aláktsení, ndúsō
kállō alákkon̄̄, "our Lord has not created any one, saying, This is a heathen, and this a moslim: he has created all alike."
kăm tílōma rúsgani," "I did not see any body." ndúmärō gúllendê, " we did not tell it to any body." kámū šírō áfīma gúltsẹní, " the woman did not tell him any thing."
ndúma t̂sení, " none has come."
§. 236. When áte is joined to the negative mood, we have a double negation, which, however, does not, as in English, amount to an affirmation, but, as in Greek and Hebrew, is more intensely negative. Besides this it must be remarked that this combination is always prohibitive or hortatory ; it is in fact a negative optative. This prohibitive character appears very natural, when we rightly understand the nature of áte. For although it is indubitable that it has actually passed into an adverb, and even into a conjunction, yet it is evident that it originally was the imperative of a verb now obsolete. The clearest proof of the latter circumstance is its occurrence in the plural form. There are also different forms of ate, identical with it in every respect except the sound, and probably more or less peculiar to different localities, viz. wóte, ńte, ńde, ńde, wóndẹ; plural, átogō, wótogō, ntógō, ndógō, wóndogō. But these forms are never followed by any mood except by the negative.

1. Instances of the negative with áte, when the latter is an adverb or conjunction -
šigā ägalārō teí, áte pérẹsení," hold it well, lest it should escape."
kām dà gádubē gílū̆ kwōya, wágē wóte wúa šyúa túruiyendé,
"if one has eaten hog's meat, I and he may not see each other in the next world."
wu agóte áte rúsgani " I will not (wish not, may not) see this thing."
áte šimnemin šimālō rúsgann," may I not see tears in thine eyes."
2. Instances of the negative with ate, when the latter may be a verb as well as an adverb (sing.), and when it is merely a verb (pl.)-
áte ndúmārō gúllẹmmí, "do not tell it to any body:" àfi nemkétsindō yāyé, wóte kárgenemgā kámurō yímmí, " whatever your intimacy may be, do not give thy heart to a woman."
ndé ndárāma lúgemmí, " do not go out anywhere." ntógō gádūwí, " do not (you) quarrel." wótogō lebála díví, " do not (ye) make a palaver." ndé lólōnemmi, " do not (thou) tremble." wónde ágō átegā gérẹmmí, " do not eat this thing." áte nändérō t̀sẹm, ntsúruiyendé," do not come to us, we will not see thee,"
§. 237. The imperative mood expresses command, exhortation, request, as the following examples will show-
lēnógō, máleiga ṅgásó bóbōnógō, "go and call all the angels." dēgá, gúlngēe, páneé, "stop, I will tell it to thee, listen." súmönẹm, pẹrẹmmé, ni páné, "open thy ears and hear thou." tšinné, léné, dígallan bóné, "arise, go and sleep in the bed." áre, gérte, kággenem góné, kágè 笼, " come, divide it, take thy part and give me mine."
The 1st person plural of the imperative has usually to be rendered in English by "let us"-
árogō, šiga kárą̇néogō," come ye, and let us go near him."
tšżnógō, lếnyogō, "arise, and let us go."
árogō, lếnyogō, páton námnyogō, " come, let us go and sit down in the house."
meite bẹlánden yóninéogō, "let us drive the king out of our town."
ṅgắsō nā túlon námnyēogō, kạlándō ämpányogō, nyē," we said, Let us all sit down in one place, and mind ourselves."

The imperative is always affirmative, and whenever it ought
to be negative or prohibitive, the negative mood with ate is used, cf. §. 236.
§. 238. It is strange, but not without parallel in Hebrew (see Ewald, §. 235. a), that the imperative is used in indirect speech which contains a resolution, determination, or wish, where we may use a subjunctive -
 námné nẹm, "thou goest, sendest a letter to the Wadaiese, that the Wadaiese should come and should kill me, and thinkest that thou wouldest remain" (viz. "quietly, unmolested ").
wúgă rốsegané, atẹmárō kádiskō, "that thou shouldest hang me, therefore am I come."
§. 239. The imperative of the verba declarandi is followed by the second indefinite, which must be rendered in the English by an infinitive-
$\bar{a} m$ wúra $\dot{\text { raqúsō }}$ bóbōné $\begin{gathered}\text { ísa, "call all the great men to come." }\end{gathered}$ širō gúllé kídāntse tsẹ́dẹ, "tell him to do his work."
§. 240. The imperative sometimes, though rarely, assumes the suffix be, for the purpose, as it would seem, of rendering it more solicitous, or emphatic-
"álla andírō kásām pốnébé !" nyē logớnyen, " O God, breathe wind upon us! we prayed."
wúrō kómb̄̈̆ $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{c}$ हैbĕ, " O give me food."
§. 241. It is very peculiar that the imperative assumes a dative termination when it corresponds to our infinitive in negative questions. The dative suffix is owing to a negative verb, as dámgin, wánigin, which are usually followed by a supine (see §. 262.). An infinitive could always be substituted for this imperative without altering the meaning, so that we might say the imperative stands here for an infinitive. But the real origin of this construction seems to have been, that the imperative was considered a literal quotation, so that, e.g.,
ši árerō wátš九̆, "he dislikes to come," has to be explained thus, "he dislikes (wátǒ̌) the request: 'come"" (árẹ). When the phrase stops with the imperative, which is often the case, it must be considered elliptical, a negative verb being omitted-
$n i$ wúrō ágō sैêrō? or ni wúrō ágō sैêrō dámnẹmī? or ni wủrō ágō kentšórō? or ni wúrō ágō kentšórō dámnẹ̀i? "dost thou refuse to give me something?"
wúrō gullérō? or wúrō gullérō wánemī? or wúrō gúlturō? or wúrō gúlturō wánnemī? "wilt thou not tell it to me?"
§. 242. The conjunctional mood presents an action as having occurred previous to another, or places it in the relation of antecedence. This mood answers in force to the absolute genitive of Greek participles, and forms the great connective between propositions, thus making up for the lack of certain adverbs, conjunctions, and, in part, of relative tenses (cf. §. 230.). The past conjunctional indicates antecedence to a past act, and the future conjunctional antecedence to a future one; hence, the former is followed by a verb in the preterite, and the latter by an indefinite, a future, or an imperative.
ká̛nem sandígā gōgányā, kốa tš̌ttse," when sleep had seized them, the man arose."
kašinyā, mei létsę, pántsęn tséptş̊̃̄, " when they had come, the king went and dismounted at his house."
kargāgẹnyā, málināma ṅgásō nā málināntsáberō káášō, " when he had entered, all the dyers came to their dyeing-places." kolōgigẹnyā, wásili gerátei, " having thrown it away, the white men hid themselves."
kū wu lếngīu, t́seskin bágō, "when I have gone to-day, I shall return no more."
námgīa, kấmuni kōáng à ámānisōyē tşeráágō,"if I would remain, all the men of my relations would love my wife."
nôneskīa, nìrō gulntsę̨kē: sabarắtenę, "when I know it, I will tell thee : get ready."
nígă yắskīa, wôte kámūnénmō mérsānemmí" if I shall have carried thee, do not trust thy wife."
nìyè yímpiyäyé lókte tsétīa, wōgérma yákeé, "give notice when it will be time."
§. 243. As condition is always something which must take place at a future period, the Kanuri, not altogether without reason, considers it a time-relation, and supplies the want of a conditional mood by its conjunctional. Thus employed, the conjunctional can be followed either by a future or a perfect tense, the latter appearing to convey greater emphasis or certainty.
wúroo kálgū šimīa, wúgā sẹtí, " if thou give me a shirt, I shall be satisfied."
kéntsāmbū kẹntsānẹmin tsưqīa, kámte těétšin bágō, "if blood drops from his nose, it will not kill that man."
ヱ̆i lárderō gágīa, lárdẹte s̆i pátsegū, "if it comes into a country, that country will be lost."
kōángā mána tsúrōntsibē pẹ́rẹmtse, kámurō gúlts̆z̄a, áširntses állayē péremtsonō, "if a man discloses to a wo~ man his inward thought, God will disclose his own secrets."
§. 244. Sometimes the future conjunctional stands for the past conjunctional, viz. in narrating what frequently or usually happened, and in this case the future conjunctional is likewise followed by a past tense.
 taken them and come home, we took a large pot."
kaúyē tsúruiya, kâfı̄ ártš̌̌," when the sun had seen them, the locusts were dry."
pépetōntsé pérrtè dâtỡa, rớrē, ngếrō támnyē, gạnányēya, ganá ganán káyēnyen Káyēnyè dâtšĩa, lơkte káfibibē kơtš̌̃, "when we had fully plucked out their wings, we took them and put them into pots; and having kept these, we fried them little 'by little. When we had fried them altogether, the time of locusts was over."
ši lêtšin, rưntse souargáte: "búltū ši páton náptsẹna, wu t́sesskē, dā yêtsęskē, gớnigè, nāntsủrō yấskāa, s̆i tš̌tsę, nányin tsémäge, wúrō ganá š̌̃a, ši rigúbū gơtšin " tse málam dệla rúntse nemétts̆in, " priest jackal went, reflected, and said by himself, The hyena is sitting at home, I come, kill game, take it, and when I have brought it to him, he rises, takes it from me, and having given me a little, he takes much."
§. 245. In further illustration of the above statement, that the conjunctional is the great connective means between propositions, the following examples may be adduced -
kadínyā, tátagā kigorō: áfirō yîremin? tse kigōrẹnyã, tátayē kờarō: wứa abánnyūa, kẹlege lắtārō kašséndēa, kẹlege lánnyent' abánīe wúrō: kélegẹte tsúlugīa, šigà ñgalārō teí, áte péressení! tse, wu námgana ts̆ĭ bęlágāben, abáni bẹlágā tílō látse, nānígā kārañgányā, kẹlege tsúlūginté kirusgănyā, kélegegà kitasgényā, kẹlege múskōnyin péresse, káragärō kargágõ. Kárgãgényā, abáni kélege kirúnyā, kẹlege káragârō gágā. Kargāgényà, ába kẹlegegā tsúrui. Kirúnyä, abáni gergátsę, wúgā lātęrámnyin bágesgonō. Bagesgányā, šimnígà tsẹtúlugû. Kitúllugényā, wúrō: lêné karagānẹmmō! tse wúgā yágusgonō, kónō tátuyē kóáturō, " when he had come, he asked the boy, 'Why dost thou weep ?' Having asked him thus, the boy said to the man, ' I and my father went to dig up a wild dog, and when we were digging for the wild dog my father told me, - When the wild dog comes out, hold it fast, lest it escape.' Whilst I was sitting at the opening of the hole, and my father had dug up one hole, till he came near to me, I saw the wild dog as it came out, and having seized the wild dog, it escaped from my hand and entered into the forest. Having entered, and my father having seen it, the wild dog was gone into the forest. Having gone in, my father saw the wild dog. Having seen it, my father was vexed, and knocked me with
the spade. When he knocked me, he struck out mine eye; and having struck it out, he said to me, Go into thy forest. Thus he drove me away, said the boy to the man."
 Kẹ́ngal tsúlügin rúmĩa, wóltęm, nänírō tsẹm, wưrō gulủsẹmīa, pếrōnite kámurō nîō nts̊éskō, kónō meíyē šǎrō, " the king said to him, Behold, when this my daughter shall have grown up and become a woman, and if thou wilt go and see the place where the sun rises, I will give thee my daughter for a wife, when thou shalt have returned to me and told me of it."
§. 246. The frequent repetition of the conjunctional being monotonous, it is often made to alternate with te, which has a similar force, cf. §. 173.
$n \bar{a}$ per $\dot{n} g e ́ r e ̣ m t i b e ́ t u r o ̄ ~ k a s ̌ i ́ n y a ̄, ~ p e ́ r g a ̄ ~ n i g e ́ r e m t s e i t e ́, ~ p e r ~$ tátātibétīe per rigásōga kốtši nẹndốnyin, " when they had come to the race-course, and galloped the 'horses, that boy's horse exceeded all the others in swiftness."
tsábārō katamúnyă, t̂seité, mínätéga kár $\begin{gathered}\text { a̛ngedányā, minätéga }\end{gathered}$ tsárui, " when they had entered on the way and were coming, they, having come near the lion, saw the lion."
kitányā, gátš̄intse ganâtiyē, tsédīga wútšinté, núfa tílōga gờts̆i,
" when it had caught them, and her younger sister looked upon the ground, she took a ground-nut."
abgatény $\bar{a}$, ši lếtšinté suyứa kúguiwa kọlãa fóktsei, "he having left, met a fowl as he went:"

This alternation of te with the conjunctional seems to be owing merely to a rhetorical reason; and, not unfrequently, several forms with te, or several conjunctionals, follow in immediate succession-
kadínyā, sờbāntséga bóbōtšinté, sôbäntse, nem tsáktsegenā̄té, wu nemniga péremgin bágōo, "when he had come and
called his friend, his friend having shut his house said, I shall by no means open my house."
šiterâtse dāgányā, kábū yásge kītẹnyā, sádāga yásguābē sadakkányā, kábū túlur kitẹ́nyā, sádäga túlurwābē sadakkányā, lêtsé, kánuu gadé tséde, pátorō kígutō, "when he had buried her, and when after three days he had brought the three-day's sacrifice, and after seven days the sevenday's sacrifice, he went, took another wife, and brought her home."
§. 247. The conjunctional mood of other verbs is frequently avoided by dägányā, the conjunctional of dánigin, in which case this verb sinks down into a mere auxiliary verb; comp. also §. 231.

As dāgány $\bar{a}$ is usually preceded by a verb in the second indefinite, together with which its force is identical with the mere conjunctional of that verb (e.g. kasálta, dāgány $\bar{a}=$ kasalgatányäa), it would appear natural, to consider dägányā, together with the preceding indefinite, as a mere circumscription of the conjunctional; and although virtually it comes to this, yet formally they must be kept asunder, as we may learn from the examples adduced in §. 228., and dägáng $\bar{a}$ must be considered by itself as an auxiliary verb.
dágęl sándi nôtsäni; kasáltā, dāgányã, pántsārō lêtsei, lit. " the monkeys, they knew it not ; they wash themselves, it being done, they went to their home," i.e. "when the monkeys which did not know of it, had washed themselves, they went to their home.
ísa, nęmtsa tẹmtsei, némtsa tẹ́mtsā, dägányā, táta, šyúa kámuntsúa némtsan náptsei, " they came and kept silence; when they had kept silence, the boy, with his wife, sat down in their house."
málam Lámīnu sandírō álla tsugóre, dāgányä, Fuláta, tsúrō bérniben, meíga tsárui, " when priest Laminu had begged God for them, the Phula within the capital saw the king."

dagányā, tš̌tse, kớa bóbōtse," he arose, went, bought a hoe, bought an axe, sought seed, and having sought all, arose and called a man."
§. 248. Generally the conjunctional mood is merely a repetition of the last preceding verb; but it very often repeats not only the verb, but the whole phrase connected with it-:
mína tšīgányā, pếrōga báktšin gonō. Pêrōga báktšin gányā, tátāye kátsagäntséga gôtsẹ, "the lion having risen, intended to strike the girl. He having intended to strike the girl, the boy took his javelin."
kigöręnyā, "wu kárgūni tsoútšin" gonō. "Wu kárugūni tsoútsün" gányă, abáyē, " he having asked her, she said, My tooth aches. She having said, My tooth aches, the father replied."
tátāyē, " galé wu lêrigin" gonō. "Wu lénigin" gányă, dégãaro kilugö, " the boy said, Then I go. Having said, I go, he went out."
§. 249. After subordinate conditional propositions, the English language is far more sparing in the use of the conjunctions "so, then," than the German with its "so, dann, alsdann;" but the Kanuri is still more sparing in this respect, and scarcely ever makes use of conjunctions after the conjunctional. Yet there are some few instances where conjunctions are used; e.g.
lēgányā, wónte andíyē tşı̀nyê, Bósorō lênyē," when he had gone, then we arose and went to Boso."
§. 250. When the conjunctional is connected with a word terminating in yäye or s $\bar{o}$, the Kanuri is so expressive that we cannot imitate it in English, but have to leave the force of either the conjunctional or yāye unexpressed-
krîgurō lênemiàa, ndúyäye krígen tsátseiya, kām 'dáguyāye
 " when thou shalt have gone to war, whomsoever they will pierce, how many people soever they may kill, if thou wilt take thy stone, all these people shall rise up."
yímpisố dā yéttšēya, " whenever (and if) we had killed game." yìmpiyāye kām šyứa tságädẹnătégà tsuiruiya, "whenever he sees the man with whom he has been quarrelling."
ndáraso látseiya, koúwa, "wherever they dig, it is stony:" ndáranyāye andíga sáruiya, s̆ešésō, "wherever (and whenever) they see us, they kill us."
§. 251. Whereas the indicative mood of a verb expresses the mere exercise of an energy as either momentary or lasting, and in such a manner that the idea of activity, the peculiarly verbal quality, predominates, the participial present, similarly to a participle or adjective, exhibits the same as a distinguishing characteristic of the agent, as something attached to his person, or a lasting state or condition. Thus it may be used as the simple predicate of a proposition, as also the participle in Hebrew ; e.g. Judg.

 with other propositions, to indicate a state or condition during which an action takes place ; or, just as a participle or adjective, in order to qualify a noun.

1. Examples where the participial is the predicate of detached propositions -
ándi nigà nónts̄ēna, " we know thee."
tsúroo kitábubèn tsábäa ñgalā mbétši, nándi rúwa, " ye see that within the book there is a good way." áfisō nốnẹma, " thou knowest every thing."
ndú keníge nốtsẹnāgō? "who understands (the use of) arrows?"
pếrō pêrō ganí, kāmứtsena, " the girl was no longer a girl, she had become a woman."
2. Examples where the participial is used similarly to the conjunctional mood.
The use of these two forms does not altogether coincide, the former standing for the time-relation of contemporariness, and the latter for that of antecedence or succession.

In this respect the Kanuri participial agrees with the use of the Latin, Greek, and English participle.
sándi bótsana, Nyamnyám dínūa búnyē tšitsa, nā sóguberō lebálarō kásū̄ō," when they were sleeping, or, they being asleep, the cannibals arose at night, and came to the sheikh for war."
sága kríge. Fulátābē tšitsenã̃wa dínia nẹngat̄̄," the time when the Pulo-war began, was the rainy season."
sándi n̄gắsō súmōntsa pérẹmtsāna, mána kámubē pántsei, "they all, when they opened their ears, heard the woman's word."

With the temporal case-termination, however, and sometimes also with that of the genitive, the participial has exactly the same force as the past conjunctional mood; e.g.
săfíi kéogutō? Lênemmátẹn kéogutō, tse kámūyē kóantsúrō gulgónō. Kóoyē : lếnesganátẹman kêogutō? tse kámūntségã kigorō. Kámuyē: lênemmátẹman kêogutō, "at what time did they bring it? The woman said to her husband, ' when thou hadst gone, they brought it.' 'When I had gone they brought it?' asked the man of his wife. The wife said, 'when thou hadst gone they brought it." "
náptsenābè kábū ndíwa, kôlīram tš̌̌tse, "having sat down for two days, the wood-demon arose."
3. Examples where the participial is an adjectival qualification of a noun"-
wu tsánei rágesgàna máné, "seek for the clothes which I like," lit. in German, "suche die ich sie liebenden," i.e. "die von mir geliebten, Kleider."
mána rōntsíyē wátsena širo gúltsei," they tell her a word which her soul does not like," lit. in German, "sie sagen ihr ein ihre Seele nicht liebendes," i.e. "von ihrer Seele nicht geliebtes, Wort."
ši ṅgúdorō agó nigalā tsẹ́dẹna, ṅgúdō šírō kárgun ts̆̃̄na mei nôtsení, " the king did not know that he had been doing good to the bird, and that the bird had given him a charm."
dágẹl tšêtsẹna gótsẹ, pántsurō lêtši, "he took the monkey which he had killed and went home," lit. in German, "er nimmt den er getödtet habenden (i.e. den von ihm getödteten) Affen," \&c.
kð́a rigaláārōtse dzādzirmágà tšètsenágā kámū kanásinlan tsúrui, "the woman saw in her dream the man whose ram had killed the leopard."
ši mánāndō neménūwa $\dot{n} g a ́ s o ̄ ~ p a ́ n t s e, ~ " h e ~ h e a r d ~ a l l ~ t h e ~$ words which you were speaking."
păntsúrō kašínyā, kámū állabē tseráambûna sándi tsúrui, " when they had come to her house, they saw that the woman was dead."
§. 252. The past participial does not appear to be of very common use, and its force coincides with the participial present, when this refers to past time.
sốbāntsẹ málambē tšĭgánna, kábūntse píndi ndúrī lēgánna s̆i tšīgányā, kábū mágūa létsé, málammō nátsegī tsábālan, " when his friend, the priest, had risen, and had been walking for three months, he arose, and, walking for one week, overtook the priest on the way."
§. 253. The future participial corresponds to the Latin gerundive, and conveys the idea of necessity or possibility.

1. Examples of this description-
mei mána nemétsanna nốtsení," the king did not know what to say, or what he should say," or more properly, in German, "das zu sagende Ding," or in Latin, " verbum dicendum."
kómbua tsábălan ts̊̀būná tšō," he gave him food which he might eat on the way."
wu rúskīa, mána nírō guluntsḉsggna mbêttŏi, lit. "when I
have seen it , there will be a word which I may tell thee," i.e. "I may have something to tell thee."
pántsän náptsäna, ágō tšédẹna nôtsäni," they were sitting at home, and did not know what to do."
mána neméttsedãna nótsäni, " they did not know what to say."
labár kadínyä, ndúyē nā kạlā tşesákęna nốtsāní, " when the news came, none knew where to lay their head."
2. The future participial of the verb ngin or neskin is, however, used differently, ${ }^{\wedge}$ being met with where the present participial is expected-
"pếrōni nírō kắmurō ntš̀skin" tsámmāté, wu lêneskē, tseskī, "as thou hast been saying, I will give thee my daughter for a wife, I went and came back again." átema mána wúrō gúluse, nírō guluntsẹéskē, ni rúfūné tsánnäte wúrō, " this is a word which he has told me, that I should tell it to thee; write it as he has been telling it to me."
"ágō yásge ndásō ṅgúbugō?" tsámmāté, mánāte wu gédïntse nônésganní, "as thou sayest, Which three things are most numerous? I do not know the meaning of this word."
§. 254. The above are the moods for which the Kanuri has distinct forms; and as many other languages have also separate forms for some other moods, it now remains to be shown by what means the Kanuri makes up for its lack of these. The probability that, in the earliest stages of language, all moods have been expressed by time-forms, and the present practice in many languages of employing tenses instead moods (e.g. thou shalt not kill, non occides, $\mu \eta$ ो фoveúa $\eta$ ), leads us to look for the wanting forms of moods among the tenses.

We have already seen, in §. 243., that the Kanuri frequently employs the conjunctional instead of a conditional mood. The absence of this latter mood is further supplied by the indicative
mood in its different tenses, as may be seen from the following instances-
tşă málante t̂́se, ádimmō mána nemêttegegni kwōya, ádim kgläntse tsétssin, "if the priest had not come and spoken a word to the eunuch, the eunuch would have killed himself."
tsuā bưrgon kảmū pándesgesnāté, táta kơángā wưrō tsámbō kwōyá, kóa bánoōni tsémaăgi múskōnyin, "if the wife whom I first had, had borne a male-child for me, then would he have taken the hoe out of my hand."
ts̄ā wu tsábälan wúa nyứa kọlāa fóktseiyē nónésggñà kwōya, páton tỡtstaggní, "if I had known that I and thou should meet on the way, I would not have started from home." nigā ntsurúsgänäté, dánẹskē, nígā ntšigórreskōbá p "would I stop and ask thee, if I saw thee ?"
kámū ndí dỉbù kwōyá, komándè andírō gúltşin bágơba? "if it were bad to have two wives, would not our Lord have told us so?"
§.255. A subjunctive is quite foreign to the Kanuri, and it employs in its place the following forms-

## 1. The first indefinite-

kóayē: ấfi diskē, dúgō kóa átegã táskin, "the man said, What must I do that I may take this man?"
fári gésgäben kómbū mättes, andirōō sáde, buiyen, "he sought food on a tree, and gave it to us, that we should eat it."
2. The second indefinite-
mártegenoogō, yim kásugurō lénuwīa, wúgā böbösenógō, ntsagáskê, lényé, "please call me on the day when you are going to market, that I may follow you, and we may go."
wúgä serágemin nemin, "thou sayest that thou lovest me." némdé témné, gágè, " build thou our house, that we may enter it."
3. The future-
ni kớnànémwă kwōyá, wúga dánem šigórẹmbá, "if thou wert hungry, wouldest thou stop and ask me?"
pānírō ísemiã, tátāte bóbōneskē, ni šigā tširum, "when thou hast come to my home, I will call the boy that thou mayest see him."
wu nígā ntserágeskīa, komándè tširágeni," "if I were to love thee, our Lord would not like it,"
tsatánde dátò̀za, kolôtsa ártsonō, " when they have built it, they leave it that it may dry."
4. The future participial, see also §. 253.mána nemétsouwa nónūwí kwōya, "if ye did not know what word ye should say."
sôbāni áte ágō wúrō tsẹdẹnāté kām tšidena mbétši kwōya, " whether there is any body who would do what this my friend has done for me."
5. For examples where the imperative occupies the place of a subjunctive, see $\S .238$.
§. 256. The lack of a voluntative or optative mood is commonly supplied by the indefinite II.; as,
kốa mánätégā pántsenāté, pántse ñgalārō. Kām mánätégà
 päntsóno," " let every man who hears this word hear it well. And any one who does not hear this word, may he know that, having gone to the next world, every one shall hear it in the place of truth."
kóa ts̊it̀ee, nā meíberō légónō, meîō: állà bárga tsaké, állā kábūnem kúrūgurō tsedẹ, állà nasárntse, állā niga ngíburō ganattse!" "the man arose, went to the king, and said to the king, God bless thee, God make thy days long, God prosper thee, God give thee long life!" málam Fulảtabē kúrayë : ndúyē bẹlántsẹn lêtse náptse : krîgẹ dấtší; tálaga ṅgásō, ndúyē lêttsẹ, bárētse! tsẹ málam Fulátabē,
andírō gulgónō, " a great priest of the Phula said to us, Let every one go and settle in his town: the war is over: as to the poor, let all go and do farm-work."
§. 257. We have already seen (§. 224.) that the proper time of the second indefinite is usually to be derived from the tense immediately following, so that the indefinite II. might be considered in itself as tenseless; we have also observed that a case-termination (§. 154.) or a demonstrative pronoun (§. 175.) is frequently added only to the last of a number of words to which it logically belongs. Now this same tendency of the language, to express certain grammatical relations of a whole group of words only in the last of them, shows itself also in several other instances, which may here, after the tenses and moods, be conveniently brought under one view. At first this peculiarity of the Kanuri is calculated to excite surprise; but in reality it is nothing but what is often met with in the English and other languages, with this only difference, that in the latter the grammatical relation of such a group of words is indicated at the beginning, and in Kanuri at the end. The form converted in Kanuri is always the second indefinite, but the form converting can be various, viz.-

## 1. Aorist-

wu šígā yardúgeskē, tsábālan kolōgóskō, " I accompanied her and left her on the way."
 $\dot{n}$ úd $\bar{o}$ ganátse, tsédirō tsębgonō," he came back, took the birds, climbed up the tree, put the birds into the birds' nest, and came down to the ground."
 pāntsibé gógonõ," he arose, took his meat, left the way to the hyena's house, and took the way to his own home."

## 2. Perfect-

sándi tšĭtseíya, š̌igà bóbötsa, ntsáturō wátsei," when they
had risen, they did not call him, and did not like to carry him."
tátoā rigúdō kolớtsa, tsagáse, pántsärō lếtsei, " the children left the birds, ran, and went home."
mána búltubē pántsę, tš̌̌tse, rứntsẹn gerátī, " he heard the voice of the hyena, arose, and hid himself alone."
3. Indefinite I.-
 come again and work?"
 kánè tsúruiga, těêtsẹ, gớtse, létš̌in, " a leopard used to rise at night, and to come into the midst of the town; having come and seen a goat, he killed it, took it, and went off."
4. Future-
 ṅgásō tsáptū, šitẹrántsurō lénū, nā tílon náptsou, " after two years, in the third, one of your great men will die, and ye all shall assemble, go and bury him, and sit down in one place."
ndáranyāyé, wu léneskḕ, mátsoskō, " wherever it may be, I will go and seek it."
logóni komándè pántšĭa, wu nandírō ṫseskē gúluntšedáskō, " when our Lord has heard my prayer, I will come to you and tell you of it."
5. The negative mood, or a negative particle-
a. nớnganā kwōya, wu pányin ts̛̛̀̀ngē, krígurō lêtsasgañí, " if I knew it, I would not get up in my house and go to war."
s̆i kábua tílōma bóbōtse, sándı̃ ndè nemêtsāni," he did not call her on any day, nor did either of them speak."
kẹngal tsukkúrīa, kāmúffìma súntog gốtse, pátō pérātžin
bágó," when the sun has set, no woman takes a broom to sweep the house."
b. It may even happen that, from this practice, the negation is attached to a word to which it does not logically belong-
s̈i lemántiyē kolốtse nóntsení, " the goods do not let him know thee."
s̆i tílōntse keíwāte ráktse góts̆in bágō, " he was not able to take the bag alone."
Fuláta àm bẹ́labē kolơotsa kída kúlōbē tsádin bágō, " the Phula did not let the people of the town do farm-work."
nā lénẹm, kómbū mánẹm, kútẹm tšibumma bágō, " there was no place where thou couldst go and seek food and bring it to eat."
ágō rúsganite nírō gulntsẹ́skē argalámnẹmin rufútsammí, " what I have not seen, I do not tell thee to write with the pen."
wưrō ágō ganá sádé tatoānírō yískin bágō," they did not give me any little thing, to give to my children."
wu tšilwấte kolốnęskē lếtsanní, "I shall not suffer this rat to go."
6. The imperative mood. This is of very rare occur-rence-
tílō kágenem, bām, lēné, tílō tşênẹn yāté," "one is thine own, mount it and go, and draw and carry the other." šimnẹ tsánnem bōné," shut thine eyes and lie down."
7. The conjunctional mood-
à. kấmmiö ágọ góng ${ }^{\prime}$ é yískīa, "when I take something and give it to somebody." ni álla logốnẹm, állayē bánāntsegé; pándẹm támīa, nānírō kutem," do thou beg of God, that God may help
thee; and if thou hast received and taken it, bring it to me."
āntsáni ladẹ́skē wólteskīa, nandígã beántšedáskō, " when I shall have sold my things and returned, I will pay you."
b. It must be remembered, however, that it is far more frequently the case that a second indefinite is not converted before a conjunctional-
wưrō nä ganá šē, námnęskē! kanáyē sẹtána, dallítẹ dẹbáneskë, wárneskè ! géreskīa, dẹ́lāge kótš̃a, wu léneskin, " give me a little place that I may sit down. I am hungry, and will slaughter my buck and roast it. When I have eaten it, and the rain has passed, I shall go."
Bornútẹn kām lêtsę, kúlōntse dábū káragäbēn tsáltse, árgemtse tsẹnátẹ, bârêtse ; kombútšia, kạmáun tsúruiya, $\frac{1}{c} s ̌ i n ~ k u ́ t o ̄ t u ́ r o ̄, ~ " i n ~ B o r n u ~ o n e ~ g o e s ~ a n d ~ c u t s ~ h i s ~$ farm in the midst of the forest, plants his guineacorn, and weeds it; but when it has become food, and the elephants have seen it, they come to the farm."
8. The participle-
wu kū lỏkteñí, állayē tamísse šinnāté kū dâtǒi," to-day my time which God has counted and given me is over." ši ndáran kăm dége tsebảnde, pántsen tsúgūte ganátsẹna? "whence did he obtain the four persons whom he brought and located in his house?"
$n \bar{a}$ lêtsa kómbū mátợedāna nôtsāni," they did not know where to go and seek food."
9. The sign of interrogation-
ni tšìnẹn, dánemmi dúgō, sála tờtsee, nirō dánts̆igunōbá? "if thou dost not first rise up and stand, will prayer rise up and meet thee?"
tígīnẹm kaláfìa ganí dúgō tơiznẹm, salîtsambá? "if thy body be not first well, wilt thou rise up and pray?" ni yírẹtīa, abánẹmma yānémma kū ts̊̌̀tsa, náptsa, sandígā tšírumbá? "if thou criest, will thy father and thy mother rise to-day and sit down, so that thou mayest see them ?"
§. 258. The infinitive, including the noun of action or abstract verbal noun, (see §. 26.), is often used objectively, the possessive pronoun, with which it is connected, containing the object-
wu nānẹ́mmō kádiskō logótẹnémmō, lit. "I am come to thy begging ;" i.e. "to beg thee."
kuingórōntse tsarágeñí, lit. " they do not like her asking," i.e. "to ask her."
§. 259. When used subjectively, the possessive pronoun, being likewise changed into a personal one, becomes the subject, and the infinitive its finite verb-
nándi áfi kendếondō? "why have you come?" lit. "what or why is your coming ?"
áfi kúrrundō? tširiē neménógō, "speak the truth, what did you see?" lit. " what was your seeing?"
§. 260. Sometimes the infinitive is used absolutely, when its force answers to the well-known "infinitivus absolutus" in Hebrew-
karáte, karánem kitábū díniābē ngásó dátótšyăyé, lit. " as for reading, thou mayest have finished reading," i.e. "thou mayest have finished the mere reading of all the books of the world."
§. 261. The infinitive is also frequently avoided where we might expect it, and the forms occupying its place are-

## 1. Indefinite II.-

lukrán ágō tǒírē bágorō tsẹ́bū ši tsúrui, "he saw him swear on the Coran to an untruth."
 kóllé, rúntsẹma lêtsẹ, "let her go alone."
kęrbūni méogu lagaríwa, dúgō karánigē tsẹ̆góskō, "I was eleven years old when I left off reading."
2. Indefinite I.-
rágẹmà yéfumin kwōyá, "If thou like to buy it."
3. Perfect-
pängányā, ingamopátūuga kolơtse létšũ, " when he had heard it, he let the cat go."
4. Aorist-
atẹmárō kolốtsa kárgā, "therefore they let it live."
kolôsẹm lēgóskõ, " thou lettest me go."
5. Conjunctional mood-
sandígā rúskīa rággeskī, " I like to see them."
6. The Future Participial-
nemét nemétranna nótteeni, " he did not know a word to say."
7. The verb ngin or neskin-
bẹláfírō lêtšāyãyé "kámū mánigin" tsẹ, pềrō tsádin bágó, " to whatever town he went, in order to seek a wife, they did not give him a girl."
kámũ némmö gắge, pếrōntsúrō bánâtsegin tse, " the woman enters the house to help her girl."
léneskē, kómbū márigin 'gē, "I went to seek food."
§. 262. With the dative termination the infinitive answers to a supine, just as we know from the old German that the English and German supine were originally the dative of an infinitive; see Latham's English Grammar, §. 454., and Becker's Deutsche Gram., §. 248.

The supine I met with after the following words most of which are verbs-
ápteskī: ñgö kóáte áptê léturō," behold this man has left to go."
badingin: lemán bẹ́labē rigáso tamóturō badřgonō, "he began to put an end to all the goods of the town."
dántse rigásō dírtse wárturō badígonō, "he cut up all his meat, and began to roast it."
kídäntsa badítsei, ndérō, "they began to do their work." badingin, however, is also very frequently construed with the simple infinitive, without case-termina-tion-
šúa kóäwa lête badútsei, "he and the man began to walk."
márba látẹ badīgéda, " they began to dig a hole."
dámgin: ši sandírō dáptši ládorō," he refused to sell it to them."
dúnigin: šigā dútsei ntšéôtsōntsúrō," they pursued it to kill it."
ganá (an adj.): sándi lếturō dúnōntsa ganá," their strength to walk is small."
éseskin: kasálturō ísei, "they came to bathe."
léngin: nä málamberō lègéda, nígā ndếrō, " they went to the priest to marry."
kásugurō ntsúnturō légéda, "they went to market to beg."
mánigin: ndúsō kā gốtsa, wúgā ntšéotsorō mátsei, "they every one took a stick and sought to kill me."
mbẹläñin: Šóge šigà mbẹlàtšin ntšéetsorō, "the sheikh watched him to kill him."
nốteskin: kúmō gótārō kām tsónöte, " they sent somebody to take the calabash."
rágeskin: ndúyẻ šígā wúturō tsẹrágẹna, " every one liked to see him."
rìngin: sándi lḕturō rîtsei, "they fear to go."
rîtš̌̄ kẹndérō, " he feared to come."
tamánigin: pérrō kágelmābèga ntšéotsorō tamátš̀̄̃," he wished to kill the blacksmith's girl."
táskin : ñgō, ̇̇ngampátū tsátānu ntšētsorō, " behold, they had caught a cat to kill it."
tegérre : kánnu sandírō ntơétsorō tegę̀ri, " it was impossible for them to quench the fire."
wấngin: mána abấntsibē pánturō wâtš̌̌," he would not listen to his father's word."
késaintséggã kolôturō wátóż, "he did not want to let his mother-in-law go."
yấskin: kām 'di kẹ́rī tšêtsana ntšĕtsorō tsásätin, "two men were drawing a dog and carrying it to kill it:"
§. 263. The difference in use between the present or active participle and the participial, appears to be that the latter always refers to one particular action, occupying a definite space of time, as a real historical fact, whereas the former is more ideal or abstract than historical, and expresses the general fitness and ability or readiness for an action, as well as a practice in, or constant occupation with, any work.

1. This participle is frequently used as a substantive or name of the agent; as,
détema, " cook."
logótema, " beggar." kenť̌̌́fōma, " buyer." kelládōma, "seller." bizťtema, " spoiler." kombú́ma," eater." kentsáma, " drinker."
sâlětęma, " worshipper." ndiōma, " workman." kúrrūma, " seer." mbátęma, "swimmer." kasáteema, " washer." ntsákkareíma, " teacher."
2. It does not seem to be very frequently used as a common participle; yet we have met with the following instance-
kẹrmã ndúyăye kám 'gaclā ndéoma ñgàläntse tsẹdin, käm díbi ndéoma dîbintse tsẹdin," at present every one who is doing good, does his good; and whoever is doing evil, does his evil."
3. This participle is especially used in negative propositions,
which do not refer to one historical action, but to a general and lasting state or condition-
ásurirndō állayè tsáktsęna kām péremtẹna bágō, "God is covering your secret, and none may uncover it."
nẹmsóbändétẹ diniāa átẹn kām pártẹna bágō, sai a alla, "there is no one that can dissolve our friendship in this world, except God."
käm kámăntsibé àgō bibítema bágó," there was no one that destroyed any thing of the other."
kām kámāntsurō ágō díbi ndéooma bágō," there was none that did any evil to the other."
kerúnyă, kām tílōma fúgurōo kótęma bágō," when they had seen it, there was not one man that went farther."
§. 264. The past or passive participle is properly passive, when formed of transitive verbs, but when formed of intransitive verbs it is merely past, and generally coincides in force with our participle present-

ṅgalárō nả dzádzirmáben dāgáta bẹlāma létsẹ tsúrui, " the magistrate went and saw the ram standing with the leopard."
ándi tsúrō bérnibēn nábgata, dúgō wásilī bẹlāntsẹn tsúlugge, " we were sitting in the city, when the white man left his town."
keári dägátarō tšō, "he gave it to the old man who was standing there."
tígi kóābē kirínyā, wulgáta, " when he saw the man's skin, it was peeled."
dântse argata gớtse, " he takes his dried meat."
kadinyā, tšinna nigásō tsakkátâga, " when he came, all the gates were shut against him."
kúgui wárgata múskōn tsętāna, " he was holding a roasted fowl in his hand."
§. 265. In its objective inflection the Kanuri possesses a means for frequently avoiding the use of pronouns, viz. always when the latter are indicated by the verbal form. The language, how-
ever, does not always avail itself of this advantage, but indiscriminately uses or omits the pronoun in such cases.

1. Examples of the objective inflection with a pronounni wúrō tširē yás sge gulủsemīa, " when thou shalt have told me three truths."
$a b \dot{a} k \bar{o} a$, wrug $\bar{a}$ nớsembd́? " man and father, knowest thou me?"
wu nígă ntsúgöreskē, wúgā nốsemībá? " I ask thee, Dost thou know me?"
" andígā šesěęsin" tsa, "they expected to kill us."
tátāni, tílōnèm komándē andírō sádō; wúyē nígā kolōntséskè, " my child, thee only has our Lord given us; I left thee."
$\bar{a} m{ }_{t}{ }^{s} a$, wúg $\bar{a} k o ́ g \bar{o} s a$, " people came and flogged me."
2. Examples of the objective inflection without a pronoundäné, mánāni tilō mbétši, gulẹntsẹ́skē, pāné! " stop, I have one word, I will tell it to thee ; listen!"
pétrōni ká́murō ntờskē, "I will give thee my daughter for a wife."
$a b \dot{d}$ kōa, nóntsesganí, " man and father, I know thee not." ši tšire pántse gúlungéda," he heard and told you the truth."
$n i$ ngáafōn ségãm, " thou followest me behind."
tságūte, šō, wólte, pāntsúrō lēgónō," he brought it, gave it me, returned, and went home."
3. The objective form is not always employed where it might be, but in its stead we sometimes meet with the common subjective form; e.g.
$n i$ andígā kirúmīa, for skerúmīa, " when thou shalt have seen us."
pándēn andígã ganánẹm, for ganásām, "thou puttest us down in our house."
tátāte wúgä tsúruiya, for súruiya, " when the child shall have seen me."
ni tš̌nem, tsẹ, wúgà logónem, for logósem, " thou arisest, comest, and beggest of me."
§. 266. Like other very ancient languages, the Kanuri knows of no copula, in the usual sense of the word, as will be seen from the following numerous instances ; comp., however, §. 280.
abánẹm bágō nariga, " on account of thy father's being no more."
kántāgèni yá́sge nántsen, "I was three months with him."
ṣ̛ kóa pếrōbè ganí, " he is not the girl's husband."
${ }^{\prime}$ d $\bar{a}$ dugulgúlemī? " where is the muck-worm?"
áte tsoúba? " is this hard ?"
ni meí, " thou art a king."
kergếge ši ṅgắfon, " the ostrich was behind."
rō bágō," there was no life."
andírō kútū, "it is bad for us."
nándi ndísō dāní, " both of you shall be meat for me."
dímīwa 㭝sanāté bíā ganí, "it is not for nothing that the sheep have come."
kelūgényä, búltibē káñ̀, tárgunābē pè, " when they had come out, the hyena's was the goat, and the rabbit's the cow."
ni ndú? " who art thou?"
§. 267. It may here be remarked, that when our verb " to be" is not a mere copula, but an actual predicate, the Kanuri expresses it by various words; viz.
4. by mbétrši," there is, exists," a defective verb, whose root is be-
gésgã kủra tîlö tsúrō pānémbén'bétši, "there is one large tree within thy premises."
kầmù póndi pántseqn'béts̛̆, " there are twenty wives in his house."
wu ni kạ́là díniäbếtẹn'bétši, nónesgasni," "I did not know that thou wast still in this world."
tsúroŏ kitábubēn tsabá ṅgala mbétš̛̀, " there is a good way within the book."
käm níga kôntsena mbéttsi diyê? " is there indeed one who surpasses thee?"

This defective verb has also sometimes to be rendered in English by " to have"mánäni tîlō mbêtš̌i, "I have one word." yấntse gána ganá kénigalī mbéť̌i," she had a little brother." kitábu tilō abánnibé mbétsờ, " my father had one book."
2. By degáskin, "I live, am, abide, remain"kām àte " wu túlōníma ágō nóngī" " tse dégāni? " may there not be any one who says, I alone know any thing." tátāni áte kágegeẹ́mma fónné, nánę̣min dágū, " join this my child with thine, that they may be with thee." nátẹn kárgū dúgō búltuyē lếtse, "there they were till the hyena went."
pátoo bélamäbēn kárgā, " he was in the magistrate's house."
3. By nábgoskō, "I sit, I am "dínía nábgonōman, köánigà, pérōntse tsambúnagā kámurō tsédinté ni pánẹmbá?" " hast thou heard since the world began of a man having married his daughter whom he had begotten?"
kérmaándingáāō-komándè mánändè gadêrōtsẹdẹ-nábgeiyē, "at present all of us are such whose language our Lord has divided."
§. 268. The enclitic verb ngin or neskin generally precedes the " verba sentiendi et declarandi," and introduces in direct speech what the Latin language would turn into an "accusative cum infinitivo." In English igin remains unexpressed, and only the following verb is translated.

1. Thus neskin is joined-

With gúlnigin: "nā ämniberō lénesskin," nęskè gulgasgạnyā, " when I had said, I will go to my people."
nảmnyē! tse kámūnémyē nírō gulúntšin, " let us sit down, said thy wife to thee."
With kórreskin : ndárā lênẹmin ? tsẹ kigōrẹnyā," he having asked me, Where wilt thou go?"
ắfi ṅgáfon dímin? tse šigã kigórō, "what didst thou do afterwards? asked he him."
With lalángin: áfi lambốnẹm? tse š̌̌gā lalángonō," she scolded him, saying, What business is it of thine?"
With nemééngin: nẹm tẹ́mnẹm, kámūnẹ́mwa námnuwī, nẹm neménemin, "thou saidst that thou wouldst build a house that thou and thy wife might sit down."
 liked two wives."
With ntsúngin: mártegẹné, wóte bẹ́la tárnemmí! tse meíyē šigā ntsúngonō, " the king entreated him, saying, Please, do not destroy the town."
With tamánigin: "tsánnā tšibándẹskō" tse tamáts̆i kárrgentsen," he expected in his heart that he would (lit. I shall) obtain heaven."
2. When neskin refers to an inward speaking, a thought, or an opinion, it is often followed by kargóskō, which then cannot be rendered into English, and which seems to convey the idea, that one rested quite satisfied with his opinion, and did not entertain any doubt; as, kóäntse kábin tsúrō iggérgibēn nốtsęní, lemán tse kárgā, "she did not know that her husband was a corpse in the bag, she thought it was goods."
kóāntsa bęlamásüirō lēgónō, ts ā kárgū, "they were of opinion that their husband had gone to a neighbouring town."
tátāntsétęmā debánneskin tse ši kárgà, "he fully believed that I would kill his child."
§. 269. It must be observed as a striking peculiarity of the Kanuri, that, in quoting a speech, the subject alone, or the subject with the remote object, usually stand before the speech,
and neskin, the predicate of that subject, follows the quotation however long it may be, and frequently with a repetition of both the subject and the remote object ; as,
meíyè sandírō: "lénógō, tsúrō bérnibēn ndúyăye kām lêtse, kéngal nā tsúlūgìn tsúruiya, wôlte ť̌̌̃̃a, wu širō pêrōni tşęgkō kámurō" kónō meíyē kóganāwa kām yấsgurō, " the king said to three soldiers, Go ye ; and any person within the town who goes, and, after having seen the place where the sun rises, comes back again, to him will I give $m y$ daughter for a wife."
rigúdō kóarō: pérturō bām, pátorō lênẹnāa, kẹ́ndegei meíbēn nígā meíyē ntsugốrīa, meírō, " wu nā kau tsúlūginnō sunôtẹm :" " lēné, rum, t̂sẹmãa, pêrōni nírô kấmurō ntšiskin," "tsámmāté, wu lếneskē ṫseskī̀" gúllé meírō, mei nírō nemé neméñtsege pāné, kónō rigúdoyē kớarō, " the bird said to the man, Mount this horse, and, having gone home, say to the king when he shall have asked thee in the king's court, 'as thou hast sent me to the place where the sun rises, and hast said, Go, see, and having returned, I give thee my daughter for a wife: I went and have returned,' and hear what the king will tell thee."
ámāntse kašinnyā, ámāntsurō: ándi búrgō $\begin{gathered}\text { ťy yente, minágä }\end{gathered}$ díballan kiruiyéndeä, táta sóbānítiyè minágà kátsagăntsen tsấtse, mína lếtsẹ, kẹrtsakkonō. Kẹrtsakkányā, ándi kúrū lênyenté, mína kúrū gęrgătses, ts̊̀ttse, andỉrō tsukkúrinté, tátayē $\dot{n} g a i ́ d o ̄ n t s e ́ g a ̄ ~ k a ̀ n ~ b a ́ k t s e ̣, ~ s ̌ ̌ l l a ̄ ~ t s e ̨ t u ́ l u g i ̄ ~ ; ~ m i ́ n a ~ l e ̂ t t e e, ~, ~$ kẹ́rtsaktšì, ándi kónyē, lényè. Lègeiéndeā ndúmārō gúllendé, bẹ́sgēndē párnyē ; kas̆šéndeā, táta bẹla bẹsgēwā̄êtiō mína nưnārō nôtsęní; s̆i minagā kirúnyā, tsęénāntse pîtse, lêtses, minagă tsấtsę, tęmbáltsę, kolôtši. Kolōgányā, wúyē lếneskè bólōntsaskē, ț̀̄̄, tátōa kām 'di áte, ndúntsa kamárwagō, wúrō gulúsẹnógō pán${ }^{\prime} g e ̄ ~ k o ́ n o ̄ ~ p e ́ r o y e ̄ ~ a ́ m a ̆ n t s u r o ̄, ~$ " when her people had come, the girl said to her people, When we first came, and had seen a lion on the way, a boy, this my friend, stuck the lion with his javelin, and the lion went on and sat down. After he had sat down and
we had again come, the lion was again vexed, arose, and when he fell upon us, the boy smote his jaw with a stick, so that a bone fell out; the lion went, sat down, and we passed by and went on. When we had gone, we did not tell it to any body, but performed our dance; and when we came back, the boy of that town where the dance had been, knew not that the lion was dead; but having seen the lion, he drew his sword, awent, stuck the lion, rolled him over and left him. Having left him, I went, called you to come, and now I will hear : tell me, which of these two boys is the most courageous?"
§. 270. The use of the verb tegéregskin (see Dictionary) is also so peculiar that it will not be superfluous to illustrate it by a number of examples-
 ntsóko, "when I had taken him, I wanted to put life into him; but when I had begun, I could not put life into him."
Fuláta yókturō nírō tegęérī kwōya, aré," if it be too hard for thee to drive the Phula, come."
gốturō badigányā, širō gôturō tegếri, "when he began to take it, he could not take it."
 knew it beforehand, that times would be unsettled and hard."
tšē tứtšīa, dzádzairma tšêyē kệntārō tegétri," when he had fastened the rope, the rope did not succeed in catching the leopard."
kóāte pếrōntsurō manắtsegiyāyé, pếrō s̛̀ŕrō tegè́ri, "whenever the man spoke to his girl, she did not yield to him."
s̆i keígamā yáasge kinōtosō, Fuláta krígurō sandírō tagúrū, "although he had sent three generals, the Phula were too strong for them in war (lit. for war)."
§. 271. It only remains to notice a peculiar use of verbs denominative. From every Kanuri substantive a verb in rigin
can be derived, which, with the same substantive as its subject, expresses what we convey in English by, "to prosper, thrive ; to answer one's idea, purpose, destination; to be right, proper, good," \&c.-
belándō kurâmi dêgūa bẹlâtsanní, " your town, having four chiefs, will not prosper."
tátāte ñgalārō tatátờin, " this boy thrives beautifully."
némní némtšin ganí, " my house no longer answers its purpose: it is old, dilapidated."
kámū sóbāníbe kāmútš̆, " my friend's wife is become an excellent woman."
pẹ́rntse pértšin báagō," his horse is not a good one, or will never be a good one."
kríge Fulátabē krígetši, " the wars of the Phula are wars indeed."

Sometimes, however, the substantive is not converted into a verb, and yet becomes the predicate; e.g.
bellándè áte béla a ganí, " this our town is no longer good." sóbbāni sóbba," my friend is a friend indeed."

## CHAPTER XIX.

CERTAIN SUFFIXES.

## I. Interrogative Suffixes.

§. 272. The interrogative suffix $b a$, which is used in inquiring after really uncertain or unknown things, can be appended to nouns as well as verbs. Its original form seems to have been ra, which, though rarely, is still in use. The reason why ra was changed into $b a$ was probably this, that it has so often to be suffixed to the second person of the indeinite II., which terminates in $m$ and which is so much moreeasily followed by $b$ (perhaps at first $w$ ) than by $r$. After the change had taken place in this
most common case, it was easy to retain it also where there was no phonetic reason for it. This interrogative $r a$, and the conjunction ra, had probably the same origin. The only instance where I have met with ra instead of the common $b a$ is -
wúa nandyứasō lényerrá? "shall I and thou go together."
$\S .273$. The interrogative sign is always suffixed to the particular word in question; and if a whole proposition is interrogative, it stands after the verb; as,
ntsęrágesgąní, dúgō dā nánẹmin tšímāgeskōbá? "did I not love thee before I accepted meat from thee?"
wúgà nósemba? "knowest thou me?"
meíba rágū? meíma rágé, " do you want a king? Yes."
dunónyinba nábgoskō? " did I sit down by my own strength? or: did I remain by force?"
ni tílōnémbè múskōba kámtsa? "did they cut off thy hand only ?"
kấmū átibē kóáté níba yé̀tsem? " didst thou kill the husband of this woman?"
ate tsouba? "is this hard?"
mei Ibrấmba kríge tsúugutō? "did king Abraham bring war ?"
abándè yāndégā wátsenābá, dúgō yánde kánū? "did our father dislike our mother before our mother died ?"
§. 274. This suffix is generally marked out by a very strong accent when preceded by several unaccented syllables; but if the latter is not the case it is toneless, and especially so after the negative mood-
ni mána bísgā guluntsésgàna pánẹmíba, kū wóltẹm, nānírō kádim? "didst thou not hear the word which I was telling thee yesterday, that thou comest again to-day?" nîte kốa málam délàtȩ nônemmíba? ándi dä káragāāē nigásō šima málamdégō ni nónẹmmíba? " didst thou not know priest jackal? didst thou not know that he is the priest of all of us, the beasts of the forest?"
wúgā súrūmimbá dúgō kōátiyè šêésin? "dost thou look at me when this man is about to kill me?"
§.275. Sometimes the suffix is altogether omitted, so that the interrogation is expressed by the tone only; and this, after verbs in the indefinite I., may even be considered as the rule.
agôtęmäté ṅgalâtšonō? " will this thing be for good?"
agôte ṅgásō meíyē sádō? "has the king given me all these things?"
र́sęm, wúgã sōbásẹmin? " dost thou come and befriend me ?" ni wúgā súwüremin? " dost thou laugh at me."
kăm komándè ás̆irntse tsáktsęãmá, ni aširntse pérẹnẹmin? " wilt thou disclose the secret of him, whose secret our Lord is concealing ?"
§. 276. But in a few cases the indefiite I. assumes the suffix, and with the indefinite II. its assumption is a rule, rarely departed from -
kăm gadé nótsťinbá, sai álla? " will any body else know it except God?"
wu logớtenẹm pániginba? " can I hear thy supplication?"
dá̉gel góngàna súrûba? " did you see me take a monkey ?" nándi kasánnūba? " will ye consent ?"
kámurō tsédinte ni pánệbla? "didst thou hear that he made her his wife ?"
§.277. In a language which has no subjunctive mood, we must be prepared to find no distinction made between direct and indirect questions. Accordingly the interrogative $b a$ is also used in indirect questions, where it has to be translated by whether or if.
abándōye nandígā kórreskẻ gonō, nándi nigásō dátư̌ība? "your father told me to ask you, whether you are all here?" tígīni ṅgás $o ̄$ wüné, birti kábè rúmba? "behold my whole body, whether thou canst see the wale of a stick?"
$\dot{n} g a ̂ ́ s o ̄ ~ t ̂ ́ s a ~ d a ́ t s ̌ i ̄ b a, ~ a n d i ́ r o ̄ ~ w u ̄ n e ́ ? ~ " ~ s e e ~ f o r ~ u s, ~ w h e t h e r ~ a l l ~ a r e ~$ come?"
§.278. It is another proof of the economy which the Kanuri observes in the use of forms (comp. \&. 257.), that it dispenses with
the interrogative suffix whenever the question is expressed by an interrogative pronoun or adverb-
ndágurō ládẹmin? "for how much wilt thou sell it?"
nändi ndárän kilū̆gu, tatoáni? "whence have ye come, my children?"
labárpā wưrō kútem? " what news dost thou bring me?"
ágō táta átiyè tsẹ́dẹnäté ndú tẹ́din? " who will do what this boy has done?"
áfirō nigínotō? " why did he send thee?"
áfigei tsẹ́dō? "how did he do it?"
andirō áfi sádem buíyen? " what dost thou give us to eat?"
mánäté ndú nandǐrō gúlntsa pánū? "who told you this word that you heard ?"
§. 279. The interrogative enclitic "genya" may likewise be ranked among the suffixes (comp. §. 323.). It is used when the question is not after something uncertain or undecided; but when an answer is anticipated as sure, and not admitting of any doubt. It is, therefore, not the object of questions with genya, to have a doubt dissolved, or information given, but by raising a doubt, or by producing an artificial uncertainty, to make a fact or statement appear the more certain and indubitable. Herein the use of genya differs from that of $b a$. In English, negative questions answer the same purpose, and, therefore, genya is usually translated by them; as,
nándi kū rúwui gennya, tǒírète átema komándè tserrágō? "have ye seen to-day, that what our Lord loves is truth?"
kuillonyin genya nigeibuskō? " have I not bought thee with my money?"
símā genya andigā áásibū? "has not he bought us?" ši nandígā búrgōn kótsei, nándi rṻwí genya? " did ye not see that he exceeds you in intelligence?"
wúte karáminite dántsé rū̀wí gẹnya? gányā," when he had said, Do ye see the flesh of my little brother?"
mána nemétsęnàté ni páneqmì genyá? " hast thou heard the word which he was saying?"
álla genya yäntségā gốtę!?" was it not God that took away his mother?"
tšă pérte tsírō bibuttsia wu áserni genya! "if the mare had miscarried, had not the loss been mine?"

## II. Predicative Suffix.

§. 280. The suffix go is of very frequent occurrence, after the predicate of a proposition, with the purpose, as it would seem, of marking it as such, thus answering, in a measure, to the copula of other languages. But probably it is expressive, at the same time, of some emphasis or distinction. It is chiefly used when a noun, pronoun, adjective, or participle is the predicate; as,
mána tširētę šima ńgalāgō, " as to this true word, it is good." wu ši kádmyō nóniganni, "I did not know that it was a person." ši kánigō nesskè, "I thought it was a goat."
belága áte šrma pānigō, "this hole is my home."
til̄ōte šima rägésganāgō," this one, him I love, or : him alone I love."
átema näpte meináabēgō, "this is the habit of a prince." níma kớa pérrönibēgō, " thou art the husband of my daughter."
 the heathen town of which I told you, this is it." tilōtẹna kágēogō, " one be mine."
ndưyăye nã komāndébétẹn š̌ima kàm bégō, "every one who is with God, is a free man."
$\breve{s i}^{\text {² }}{ }^{\text {A }}$ begr bōgátagō nótseni, "he did not know that the Aber was lying there."
yántsẹ bắgō, wúma yăntsúgō, wíma abántsugō, "he has no mother, I am his mother, I am his father."
§. 281. Besides this more common use of $g o$, its occurrence in the following instances must be noticed as somewhat peculiar-

1. In a question and after a finite verb, especially a part cipial; but its use in such instances, appears to be rare
áfi sányānémgō? " what is thy profession?" áfi kárge tsélamgō? " what is a black heart."
áfi $\begin{gathered}\text { šigā tsébuigō? " what will eat her?" }\end{gathered}$
kớa kámüntse páltigō nôtš̆i, "the man knew that his wife had become with child."
keấri tílō lori nó́tsęnāgō, " one single old man knew it." kām Fulátayè rítsęnāté sớa tílö lon rítsennāgō, " as for the people whom the Phula fear, they fear only the Shoas."
2. In the following example where it is added to the object of a transitive verb-
káliātẹ́ áfi nẹ́mgalāntsiyāyé, tátānẹm débigō tsẹténí, " whatever be the goodness of a slave, he does not equal thy bad child." But this example also admits of the translation, "(suppose) thy child is bad, he does not equal it;" and then it belongs to §. 280.
3. In cases like the following, where it contrasts with a negative-
pérōntsurō káritugō rúsgăní, "I have not seen so beautiful a girl as his."
meíndērō némgalăāō bágō, or meínderō ṅgalāagō bágō, or meínderō mei ñga̛lāgō bágō, "there is no king so good as ours."

## III. Emphatic Suffixes.

§. 282. The suffix $m a$ expresses emphasis, or gives prominence to a word. In English its force is chiefly conveyed by the accent, and sometimes by words like, " even, very," \&c.
wúgā sôbamárō skirắgem kwōya, "if thou like me for a friend."
álläma š̌mni tsáktse," it is God that shuts my eyes," i.e. "that causes my blindness."
wu níma ntserágesskô, "thee I love."
wu kérmāma dẹ̀lin kadisyớnyā, " having just now come from abroad."
ándi ṅgásō nẹm tílōteman námnyogō," let all of us abide in one house."
ni málam nañga tsánnā pándẹm bágō ; kām kárge búlwāté, šima tsánna tsebándin, " on account of thy being a priest thou dost not obtain heaven; if one has a clean heart he will obtain heaven."
áte gádimā Bọ́rnun tsádin, "thus they do in Bornu."
sándi ganí, wúma šígā yëtsẹ́skō, " not they, $I$ have killed him."
áte nañgátẹmārō "Gédīte şı́ma kúragō" kẹ̀da hām wúrayẽ, " on this account the great men say, The east is most excellent."
§. 283. Being emphatic, $m a$ is used with especial propriety and frequency-

1. To respond, in an answer, to the interrogative $b a-$ komándē sandírō, meíba rágū? Sandíyē, meíma rágè, " our Lord said to them, Do ye like a king? They said, A king we like."
"áte ndư?" tse ábayē. Tílōye, "wủmā" tse yégonō, " the father said, Who is this? One replied, I."
2. In negative propositions-
tsábamãrō gágendê, " we have not entered on the road." kérigậī télōma bágō dábuntsan, " not one male was among them."
kām tílōma nemétma bágóo tsúrō bệläben, " there was not one man speaking within the town."
3. When an adjectival qualification is expressed by a relative proposition-
$n \bar{a}$ lêneskinma nónesgåní, "I did not know where I was going."
ándi rōndêwa nábgatãma, yándè š̌mdēn täm, yêtsegmin? "wilt thou catch and kill our mother in our sight, who remain alive?"
kām kām tsẹélam rîtsẹní kwṑya, komándē andígä alágesanátẹma rítseiyendé, "if one does not fear a negro, neither will he fear our Lord who has created us."
kớa n̆gebal détsenāma tšítse, " the man who had boiled the egg arose."
§. 284. Although this suffix combines most frequently with nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and participles, yet it is also found after finite verbs; as,

## 1. Indefinite I.-

yayāntsúsorō "wu léniginma" gúltsenní, " he did not tell all his brothers, that he went."
nā lêtšinma nốtsení, " he did not know where to go."

## 2. Indefinite II.-

" mána búrgō gultsétémā" gonō," he said the word which he spoke at first."
áfiyāye dimtema, " whatever thou wilt do."
3. Aorist-
wu katambúskōman rigáltē nā túlon lênyendè, "since I was born, we never went anywhere."
wu súgā pānírō kíguskōman, kábū tílōma šígā kārá̛nnesgåní, "since I brought her home, I have never come near her one day."
4. Conjunctional mood, past and future-
gána tusgányäma, kóāte 乞̂ši, " when he had waited a little, the man came."
kitábūga peremgányāma, kómāndêye sìmtse pérẹmgonō, "when he had opened the book, our Lord opened his eyes."
kirúnyäma, mina tš̌itši, " when they had seen him, the lion arose."
ártse dátš̌iàma, pépetōntse pértē," when they were dried, we plucked out their wings."
§. 285. In reference to the position of $m a$ we may observe-

1. That it always takes precedence of a case-termination, as kốa tšúruskō šimniman, "I shall see the man with mine own eyes."
s̆i dégarō šim kámman tsúlūgin bágō," it does not come out in the sight of man."
šiteman àmpấtin tárgunätẹ, "by the same the rabbit is guarded."
2. But if both te and $m a$ are affixed to a word, sometimes one and sometimes the other occupies the first place; e $g$.
 gûbétitie ńgebaltéga tsírui, " when they had gone, the one who was before did not see the pigeon's egg, and passed on ; but the one behind saw the egg."
tílōmátiye kádè bōgáta tsúrō bęlágāben kírū, " the one saw a serpent lie in a hole."
$n \bar{a}$ kidāabe tsátānitemā ni rum, " thou sawest that they had not yet arrived at the age for work."
kàd źte yímtẹmä komándè sandígâ gẹrágonō, " at that time our Lord hid these serpents."
§. 286. There are some other suffixes or enclitic appendages which likewise appear to be of an emphatic force but of much rarer occurrence. They are dig $\bar{e}$, or diye, and $y \bar{e}$. The first two are also abbreviated into $d \bar{e}$ -
kām nígā kóntsenna mbétš̀i diyē," there is certainly one that surpasses thee."
wot' ámmō pélégemmí digē, " do not by any means show it to the people."
wu kidāni díski diyē, "I have done my work."
abáni mbêttši digē, "I have a father."
agốte nuíya fûtsę, kurâtsẹ kurugútšinyế, " what has died
swells up, grows big and long."
ši abánigeíyē, " he is like my father."
abáni wúrō s̆o dē, "my father gave it to me."

## CHAPTER XX.

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.
§. 287. Deflected adverbs with case-terminations are used in a similar manner to the cases by which they are formed -

1. Adverbs of place with a dative termination are therefore employed when the verb implies a motion, direction, or tendency; and adverbs with the locative termination, when the energy of a verb is considered as exercised in a certain place, without referring to the tendency or direction of the energy -
kó́a tš̌̃tse, rigáaforō wólgate, " the man arises and turns back."
bilge fárirō tš̌ttšī, " a vapour rose up."
kádū fủgurō kôtse, kớa šrigā teégei ṅgáfon, " the serpent passed on before and the man followed behind."
ágō fúgun wūagátšinté wu nóriganí, " I do not know what will happen in future."
sándi ndísō tsagás̆in, kórō fúgun, kir ingáfon," " both of them ran, the ass before and the female slave behind."
2. Sometimes, however, the Kanuris seem to consider as tendency what we represent as being at rest -
béla kúyinturō kolōgedányā, "when they had left the town far behind."
kámuntse fúgurō tsáke, bẹ́lāntsārō lēgéda, "he put his wife before, and so they went home."
3. The locative termination has so entirely coalesced with certain adverbs of manner that they scarcely ever appear without them, as dúan, žlān, kánadin, sẹ́rin.
§. 288. When connected with verbs, the adverbs derived from adjectives usually assume the dative termination; those not so derived may be with or without it: but when adverbs qualify adjectives, they are always without case-termination -
s̊i ṅgúburō nemétši, " he has spoken much."
$n \bar{a}$ Yorubáben ígúburō nábgoskō, "I remained a long time
in a place in Yoruba."
meíyē šigā tsoúrō tsęrágẹna, " the king loved him ardently." nyúa kámūnémma n̈gąlārō námnógó, " sit down well, thou and thy wife."
pérō mána pānigányā, kęétširō pántsení, " when the girl had heard the word, she did not feel comfortable."
ni kidānem díbirō kidẹm, "thou hast done thy work badly." ganá lëgányā," when he had gone a little."
sóbāni tússe ganárā dátš̌i, "my friend has already rested a little."
sẹ́rin létsa, ndúsơ na a túlon sę́rin náptsei," they went away quietly, and all of them sat down quietly in one place;" also sérinnō léngin, and sérinnõ námgin; but only sẹ́rin némgin, "I keep silent."
s̆i nemététšin bágō, kǵ̣deg nérmtsena, "he never spoke, but was holding his peace."
kädegggō némné, " hold thy peace."
kitábūni kấrīte ganá, " my book is rather beautiful." ndú kúrūgu lintágō? " who is the tallest?"
§. 289. The Kanuri language has a peculiar kind of adverbs, which we may call specific or confined adverbs, each being confined in its use to one or a few particular adjectives or their denominative verbs, as illustrated in the following examples. These singular adverbs which seem to be common in African languages, as they exist also in the Aku and Vei, have something in their nature which may be compared to the onomatopoetica, or something in which the immediate, instinctive sense of language particularly manifests itself. They are eminently expressions of feelings (German, Gefühlsworte), or manifestations of vague impressions rather than of clearly defined ideas.
bug, búggō: wu šígā búggō bánigī, "I have struck it violently." dè: bérä̆ge dê, "quite naked ;" bẹrägéngín dê, "I have become quite naked."
fárei: búnyè färei, " quite night, or pitch dark."
fóg: búl fóg, " very white;" ši búltši bul fóg, "it is very white."
fōg: tšim fōg, "very bitter;" ši tšimtši tšim fōg, " it is very bitter."
for : dē fór, " quite empty;" ši détši dè fớr, "it is quite empty."
karain: ndí karañ, "only two."
kẹn: dúnōa kén, " very strong;" sii dunoâts̆i dúnōa kén, "he is very strong."
kédeg : némgata kédẹg, " very silent;" kédẹn némgin, " I am very silent."
lai and lei: kaláfía laí, " very well;" kaláli laí, " very meek, gentle;" kánadiwa lai, "very meek."
las: kaláfīa lás, e.g. tsábāte kaláfīa lás," this road is quite secure ;" tẹl 1 āla lás, " very soft ;" kaláli lás, " very meek."
lonं : tílō loñ, " only one, a single one."
méu or míu: kétšī méu, " very sweet, pleasant."
$n t s ̌ i l: ~ g a n a ́ ~ n t s ̊ i l, ~ " ~ v e r y ~ l i t t l e . " ~ " ~$
pau: ángalwa paú, " very intelligent;" ši añgalwátši paú, "he is very intelligent."
pèt : tsélạm pęt, "jet black;" tsélamtşi tsẹ́lạm pét, " he has become jet black."
pôot: kúrūgu pôot, " very long;" s̆i kurugútš̌i pôot, " it has grown very long."
 become very hot."
póleg: kágāfu póleg, "very stupid;" kagāfúts̆i póleg, " he is very stupid."
póteg: kámpū póteg, "quite blind;" kampúts̆i póteg, "he is quite blind."
sálag: kálām sálag, " very insipid;" s̆i kạ́lāmts̆i kálăm sálag, "it is very insipid ;" kámpoi sálag, " very light."
$s u l: ~ d e \bar{e} ~ s u l$, "quite empty, destitute ;" détši sul, "it is quite empty ;" béráge sul, " quite naked."
šiliūu: ámāse šllitū," very cold ;" dínīa amāsę́tši súliū, "it is very cold."
 quite blue."
téles and télessō : tsébed télessō," the whole day long."
tẹi $\mathfrak{i}$ and ndéni: káfūgu tẹ́r," very short;" and káfúgúndẹñ, id. ; kāfugútši káf́ūgundẹ́n, "it is very short."
tẹ́s : kárañge tẹ́s, "very near;" and káfūgu tẹ́s, "very shallow, not deep."
tim: kúrâ tím, " very great;" ši kurắtši tím, " it is very great."
tsai: bẹ́lin tsaí, " quite new;" bẹlintš̌i bẹlin tsá," it is quite new."
tsar : ṅgámdē tsár, " quite dry ;" s̆i nigamdétési nigámdè tsár, "it is quite dry;" kibū tsár, " very hard." $t s e r r: ~ \grave{n} g \bar{a} t s e ́ r$, " very well."
tšírit: kau tsou tširit, " the sun is very hot."
ts̆̈t: kåmé ts̆it, "very red;" s̆i kamêts̆i kạ́mè tšit, "it is quite red."
§. 290. The adverb lintá, which answers to our "very, highly, exceedingly, most," can take the place of any of these specific adverbs, with the exception of karan, loin, téles, and fárei; it also is joined with those adjectives for which there are no confined adverbs in existence. In connexion with all common adjectives it has the form lintá; as, kúrā lintá, kamé lintá, bẹtin lintá, \&c. In connexion with derived adjectives in wa, it can be lintá and lintároō ; as,
áñgalwa lintá or lintârō, " very intelligent."
nónigūa lintá or lintátrō, " very bashful."
lemánwa lintá or lintárō," very wealthy."
And in connexion with verbs it can likewise have both forms, but the one in $r \bar{o}$ predominates; as,
s̆i lếtsinn, or létsęna lintá and lintárō," he goes very often." ni karánemin, or karánemma lintá and lintárō," thou readest very well."
sándi neméttsei, or neméttsāna lintá and lintárō," they talk a great deal."
ši némtšin, or némtsena or némgata lintá and lintárō, "' he is very silent, quiet."
§. 291. The interrogative adverbs are the same, whether they be in a direct or indirect question-
ába kámpū, áfirō búrgō yākẹmin? "thou blind man, why dost thou cry for help?"
kánnu túlurté, málammō alákkeda ; áfirō málammō alákkeda kánnu túlurgā, málamté, ši kitábū nôtsẹna, tsába $\dot{n}$ ngala $\bar{a}$ tsúrui, tsábā díbi tsúrui, " as for the seven fires, they were made for the priests; the reason why the seven fires were made for the priests is this, that the priests, knowing the book, see the good road and see the bad road."
áfigei kām sū gơtse, kánnu bágō kášagar tsẹgárin? "how can one take iron, and beat it into a sword without fire ?"
sóbānirō pélēgeskē, áfigei kidāntse tsẹdin, "I will show my friend how he must do his work."
§. 292. The Kanuri has three negative adverbs, bágō, gani, and átę, all of which may be rendered by our " not ;" and this is the place to define the use of each of them. All three can be used to qualify a verb, gani also to qualify adverbs, and $b a ̆ ́ g o ́ a ~ a n d ~ g a n i ́ ~ c a n ~ b y ~ t h e m s e l v e s ~ f o r m ~ t h e ~ p r e d i c a t e ~$ of a proposition.

In general they may be thus characterised: bágō is unlimited or absolute, ganí limited or relative, and áte prohibitive ; comp. also §. 234.
§. 293. In connexion with verbs, the following remarks may be made on the three negatives-

1. bágoo can be joined to
a. The participial-
wu mána nírō gultsạ́sgàna bágō, "I shall not tell thee a word."
s̆i käm rítsẹna báago, "he does not fear any body." kām šígā, tsúrūna bágō, " no one was seeing him." tátāte áfima nótsena bágó," this boy knows nothing at all."
b. The indefinite I.-
ándi nírō bíárō bánäntšigēn bágō," we shall not help thee for nothing."
š̌̌gà gốtsei bágō, dínīa lẹ́mtšāa, " they never take it when it has become night."
ágô pânẹskē yúrusgànãté nírō gulntsẹskkin bágõ, " I shall never tell thee what I have heard, and why I laught."
wu nígā ntsẹrágekin báagō," I do not like thee."
c. The indefinite II.-
kóa lemánva ši sadáktšin bágō, málammásō š̆gā tsárui. Sandíyē širō: abá kōa àfirō ni ngúmōri tšža laía dẹbánẹm, sadáninẹm bágō? kéda málamwayē š̌riō, " a certain rich man never brought sacrifice, and all the priests saw him. The priests then said unto him, Man and father, why dost thou not kill and offer the Easter-lamb when Easter is come?"
 rum bágō, nẹngalıì tséptšãa, rum bágō, bigelátš̌ĩa tílō tílō rúmin, bīnémtšīa. sandígā rừmin 'gúburō," thou dost not see the Lagera locusts in the dry season, thou dost not see them in the hot season, thou dost not see them when the rainy season has set in, thou seest one here and there in the spring, but thou seest them in great numbers in the cold season."
In all these instances bágob negatives an act that is continuous or repeated at certain periods.
2. gani is only joined to-
a. The indefinite I.-
wu nāntsúrō lérigin ganí, "I will not go to him."
b. The aorist-
ši mánäte wúrō gulgónō ganí, "he did not tell me the word."
In these instances the negative particle refers to a definite fact: it is not general like bágō, but special; not abstract, but historical. This, therefore, was the proper particle with which to form the negative mood (see §. 88.).
3. ate is only connected with the negative mood, and then forms a negative optative or imperative, which appears the more natural from its verbal origin-
náten fúgun átegei áte dímmí, "henceforth do so no more."
kōañgáfíyāyé áte ásurirntse nggáso kámurō gúltsegení, "let no man whatever tell even one of his secrets to a woman."
áte ás̈irndē dégan pántsāní, " may they not hear our secret without."
§. 294. In connexion with adverbs, or adverbial qualifications, or the subject of a proposition, gani only is used. It always stands immediately after the word which it negatives-
kídānẹm ńgalārō ganí kídẹm, " thou didst not do thy work well," i.q. kídānem ǹgalārō dímmí.
bísgā ganni kídęskō," not yesterday did I come," i.q. bísgā wu ťeseganí, "I did not come yesterday."
kómbū naṅga gani kádiskō, "I did not come on account of food."

ángallémte wu ganí nírō ntšiskō, "it is not I who have given thee thy wisdom."
ándi ganí nígà bóbōntšyè, álla nígā ntsesánge, "it is not we who did call thee, God raised thee up."
§. 295. When used as the predicate of a proposition, there is likewise a difference between $b a \dot{g} g \bar{o}$ and ganí. The former
denies the existence, the latter the nature or quality of a subject. It may be easily perceived, that this difference between them bears a close analogy to that which exists when they are connected with verbs. For to say that a thing is not in existence is an absolute or general statement, and that a certain general idea is not realised in this or that object is a special one. In English bágō must be rendered by "there is not," or the like, and gani by "is not;" comp. also §. 235.
4. Examples of bágōo
kámū bágō, táta bágō, šì tílöntsȩ̣ loñ tsírơ pântsíben, "there was no woman, there was no child, he was quite alone in the house."
 give us water."
tátäntse tîlōwa náptsẹna, gadêntsẹ bágō, "he remained possessed of only one child, he had nothing else."
kánnu-sơóáa bágod, " there was no lamp there."
àm bẹlabè nigásō, tilōma tsuirō bẹläben bágō, "as to all the people of the town, there was not one of them within the town."
5. Examples of gani-
mána wúrō gúlemmâté kátugū ganí," the word which thou hast told me is not a lie."
ni hóóeige gani, tátäni, " thou art not a coward, my son." ni ágō ruímmäté gésgà ganí, mágarā krígibē," what thou seest is not a tree, but a man of war."
 was jealous, and the other man was not jealous." kām dà gádubé tseggérena kẹrdè ganí, "a man who eats pork is not a heathen."
šà tsédin rúmmāté š̀ kámmã ganí, "the footsteps which thou hast seen on the ground are not the footsteps of a person."
§. 296. The adverb dúgō regularly stands between two propositions, and must sometimes be construed with what precedes
it, and sometimes with what follows it. In certain cases it is quite evident that it belongs to what follows; e.g.
áfigei dúgō kágou? lit. " how was it before you escaped?" i.e. " how did you escape?"

In others it is equally evident that it belongs to what it precedes, which is best proved by a few examples, when it stands at the end of a proposition with which the following has no connexion; as,
pêroōyê, lénigè, abánirō gúlnigē dúgō. Pếrō lêtse, \&e., " the girl said, I will go and first tell it to my father. The girl went," \&c.
But there are also a great many cases where it might equally be construed backwards or forwards, and where it is very difficult to decide which construction was intended by the speaker. On this account we will here arrange a number of examples, according to the English words, by which in each instance dúyō had better be translated. But although in English the adverb usually belongs to what follows, yet in Kanuri it seems more frequently to belong to what precedes; signifying properly, first, previously, before. When it belongs to what follows, it must be translated into English by ere, before.

The following are the words by which dugō is rendered in English-

1. Before-
dấndê wúné dúgô lênesskê," look at our meat before I go." ntsẹrágesgání dúgó dà nánẹmin tš̌imágeskōbá?" "do I not love thee ere I accept meat at thy hand?"
lóktęte wu ánigallyúáa dúgō pádgigeskō," at that time, before I was lost, I was in possession of my senses."
2. Except-
wúa šyứa lágāndē tsúrūni dúgō pártēn bágō," we shall not part, except one of us fall."
kām kām tserrágeni dúgó ágō nântsen tšimāgeni, " one does not like a man, exceptone acceptssomething from him." mállamgâ lăfiâtsesní dúgó káragārō lêtş̆in bágō, "he never goes to the wood, except he salutes the priest."
tšilwă dínīa bunêtsẹní dúgō dégan lelêțšin bágó," a rat never walks about openly, except at night."
3. First-
ganá gértigē dúgō ! Ganá gérgutagányā, "let us first move on a little! When they had moved on a little." wu lêñgò dúgō, wágè pānírō lēné, "I will go first, then go thou to my house."
4. That-
ăfi dískè dúgō wu mêrreskin," what must I do that I may recover."
níte áfi nंgăfon rôntse dúgō déregè nānirō kádim? "what kept thee back, that thou didst come last to me?" áfi dískē dúgō tsábä tsánnabē pándęskin? "what must I do to find the way to heaven ?"
5. Then-
wu gésgā ganá rúskin dúgō gésgā kúra góngimbá? "shall I see a little tree, and then go and take a large one?" wúrō dógum tílō skeínyä, wu yurúskē dúgō tờ̀ñgē nănémmō kádiskō, " when he had given me one knock, I fell, and then arose and came to thee."
6. Till-
kómbū mátse andỉrō sádẹ buíyen dúgō kábū tílo kárūa tš̌tse, " she sought food and gave it us to eat, till one day a storm arose."
kirntsáva káliāntsáwa tátāntsáwa wútsei dúgō kámū kảsuwāyē šigā tsétei, " they beheld their female slave, and their male slave, and their child, till a sickness seized the woman."
nemsôbände ándi ganánden díyenté áte kolơnyendé dúgō komándè andígã páręsā," let us, not leave off our friendship, which we have had from our childhood up, till our Lord separates us."
dégā dúgō lénigē kúlōnígā rúskē," stop till I go and see my farm."
páton gànátsęna dúgō pérō wurátsẹ, "he kept her at home till the girl grew up."
7. When-
kúlōntse tsáltšin dúgō kúrū kốa körōntse arásgūa kádiō näntsúrō," he cut (i.e. cleared) his farm, when a man with three asses came again to him."
wu kentšingana dúgō labárntse tsédī ${ }^{\text {ºA }}$ Afunóben pāngỏskō, " I was in slavery when I heard news of him in the Hausa country."
búnyē bôtsęna dúgō s̆i nāšíngonō, "she was sleeping at night when she dreamt."
kámpū sei kām dége pē debátsei dúgō kíruskō," the four blind men killed a cow when I saw them."
béländétęn ndúyāye pésgāntségā Gẹdirō tšō dúgō sālt̂tšin, "in our country every one turns his face towards the east when he prays."
§. 297. The suffix gadi or gei, although usually a postposition, is converted into an adverb of manner when appended to a finite verb, and may be rendered by "as, as if, as when, like"-
àm kúlōlan bárētsei dúgō dínīa dūargányā, kêgerā Gẹ́din ŝšin gadi, Pótē wūgédányā, káf̄̄ kámanwa Pótēn tš̌̀tsę, Gẹdirō乞̂šin kérū, "people worked on the farm till it became dark as when a thunder storm comes from the east, and looking to the west, they saw the Kamanwa locusts rise in the west and come towards the east."
dínīa ṅgáso tsęllamtš̃̄, dínīa bunêtse gadi, " the whole atmosphere became dark, as when it is night."
wúrō segdẹ́mmägei wriyē nírō nts̆igdẹ́skō," as thou hast done to me, I will do to thee."
§. 298. The adverb $\ddot{n} g o ̈$ corresponds to the Hebrew Tהנה, but has less of a verbal character than this, inasmuch as it never subordinates the subject; e.g. $\dot{n} g \bar{o}$ wu, "behold me,"
 They also agree sometimes when connected with a verb; for then ${ }_{\text {Tנֵּ }}$ can likewise stand without having the subject
of its dependent proposition expressed separately (vide Ewald's Gram., §. 296. d.), which is the rule with regard to $\dot{n}^{\prime} g o$. . When connected with a pronoun, ńgõ usually takes its place before, but sometimes also after it. A few examples may follow by way of illustration-
andí $\dot{n} g o ̄ \bar{t} \not t_{s}^{\prime} y \bar{e}$, " behold we have come."
$\ddot{n} g \bar{o} a ́ g o ̄ ~ l a g a ́, " ~ b e h o l d ~ h e r e ~ i s ~ s o m e t h i n g . " ~ " ~$
wu ñgō sabarâtécski, " behold I am ready."
$\check{n}{ }^{\prime} g \bar{o} p \bar{a} n i$, rui ńngalā$r o ̄, "$ here is my house, look at it well." $\grave{n}^{\prime \prime g o}$ ándi kórondē lámnyè dáttsí, "behold, I have already loaded our asses."
ńgō nírō kalígimō tílō ntšiskī," behold, I give thee a camel." kómbū pélēsęgemmãté wu pándeskī, ńgō ši, " I have got the food which thou hast shewn me; here it is."
$\ddot{n} g \bar{o}$ ši, déǵgan dägáta, " behold, he is standing without." $\ddot{n} g o ̄$ kókō gerágata, " behold the toad hidden, or here is the toad hidden."
§. 299. The peculiarity of nigúburō, that it is often used where we employ the corresponding adjective, may here be noticed and illustrated-
kúgui ṅgúburō tšib̄̄, " he bought many fowls."
bẹ́ri rigúburō dètsa, "they cooked much vegetable food."
sóóge sandígā tsététšin 'gúburō, " the Sheikh killed many of them."
šima bánnā tsédō Bórnun 'gúburō, " it occasioned much desolation in Bornu."
wúa abánẹ̣mma nẹmsóbà à ngúburō dûyē, "I and thy father have had much friendship."
§. 300. The adverb $s \bar{o}$, which always suffixes itself to the verb, refers to a past point of time, and thus far coincides with the past tense of the conjunctional mood; but like the " so" which converts interrogative pronouns into indefinite ones, and with which it has doubtless one common origin, it generalises the word to which it is affixed, so as to form a contrast with something which is to follow. Hereby it differs from the conjunc-
tional mood, and assumes the office of a conjunction. It may be translated by " when, even when, since, although " -
yáasgurō kām kinótōsō, léturō wátši," although he sent one the third time, he did not want to go."
kántāge pal kítōsō, náten tšžtse Fulátaberō lêturō wâtši,
" even when it had become one month, or even at the
end of one month, he did not want to get up there and go to the Phula."
náyā dé́gusorō ígúgonōsō, kām šigā tsúrūna bágō, " when he bowed down to the four quarters, no one was looking at him."
tátāni, wúa abánemma nígā dâyē nábeiyesō, ni tílōnẹm komándē andírō sádō, " my child, since I and thy father married and settled, our Lord has only given thee to us."
ni Fulátāwa nyúa, dínīa wágonosō, gáduwī, dúgō kau dábū kítō ; kau dábū tsẹtenāsō, ni Fuláta yókturō nírō tegéreri $k w o y a$, aré, " the Phula and thou have fought since daybreak till it became mid-day; if, although it has become mid-day, thou art not able to drive away the Phula, come."
Nyamnyámyē sandígā dûtsei, kolôtsāní, dúgō dínīa wágonō ; wágonosō, Nyamnyám sandígā kolôtsa, wólturō wátsei, "the cannibals pursued them, and did not leave them till it had become day; and even since it became day, the cannibals did not want to leave them and to return."
§. 301. The enclitic suffix yāye has much in common with sō. It also forms indefinite pronouns of interrogative ones; and as then it can be separated from the pronoun and attached to a succeeding word (see §. 189.), this latter may happen to be a verb, so that merely the context, generally the preceding interrogative pronoun, can decide whether $y \bar{a} y e$ is an adverb or part of an indefinite pronoun. But if no interrogative pronoun precedes, it may be presumed that $y \bar{a} y e$, suffixed to a verb,
is an adverb, meaning, "whenever." Then yāye may also pass into a conjunction, just as the suffix so.
8. Instances of $y \bar{a} y e$ as adverb-
gésgā rigámdè tsẹbándi yāye, tsẹbui, kệl̃ tsębándi yãye, tsębui, kâts̆im tsębándi yāye tsẹbui, "whenever it reached a dry tree, it devoured it; whenever it reached a green one, it devoured it; whenever it reached grass, it devoured it."
nandyưa kámwa nā tílon námnūwa yāyé, nandígā kãm ntšórūna bágō, " whenever ye sit in the same place with any body, no one shall see you."
kām tsẹlam tílötẹna dāgáta tsáruiyāyé, dátsa gurêtsei bágō," whenever they see a black man, they do not stop and wait."
dími dábūntse Potêrō kálaktši yāyé, kốa Gédirō kálaktsegé, " whenever the sheep turned its neck to the west, the man turned it towards the east."
kóáte péroantsurō manátsegiy̆āyé, pếrō sírō tegếri, "whenever the man spoke to his girl, he did not succeed with her."
9. Instances of yāye as conjunction-
tsúrō bẹläâétẹn kámte dúbū dégā yāye, tilōma kolơtšinn, $b a ́ g o \bar{o}, "$ even if there be a thousand people within that town, it will not leave one."
kúlītu rốntsẹ tsúlūgení yâyé, sándi tamótsagei, " even if the life of the insect has not yet expired, they finish it."
§. 302. Notice may here also be taken of certain modes of expression in Kanuri in whose stead we employ adverbs. We sometimes use adverbs for the following substantives-
$n \bar{a}$; as, gésga túria, kádititégā wúné nā gáginté, " when the tree falls, watch where the serpent enters."
$r \bar{u}$; as, pántsen rúntse nemétšin, " he was talking to himself in his house."
kólle rúntsemā lêttse, "let her go alone."
§. 303. The following verbs also have often to be rendered by adverbs-
10. burgónigin by "first"-
dugulgúlimī burgótse $\frac{\imath}{\imath} o ̄ 0$, "the muck-worm came first." gúbōgum burgôtse tš̌̌tse, " the cock rose up first."
11. dánigin, in its impersonal forms dátšin, dâtsẹ, dâtsẹní, dátši, by -
a. "Quite, fully, completely, entirely, wholly, altogether "-
áte kớganāndè ǹgá́sō Fulátayē tšétse dátsẹní, " lest the Phula kill our soldiers altogether."
kām tšes̊ęésenāté rốntsèmā tsúlūge dâtseni dúgō dárō kámtsei, " when they kill one, they cut him up for meat before his life has quite left him."
nátẹmān kāmtég $\bar{a}$ dáa rō kámtsā dátờin, " then they cut the man completely up as meat."
b. "Already, now, then "-
ándi bellága lányē dátǒ̌̃ tsa, "they said, We have already dug the grave."
Fuláta tsédīni ṅgásō tártsā dátš̀, " the Phula have now wasted my whole land."
sándi dégusō debắtsa dímīntsa dáts̆i, " they have now, all four of them, killed their sheep."
komándè kídāñtsa tšō dátši, "our Lord had then given them their work."
12. kärängin, by "nearly, soon, almost"wu kídāni dískē kāránítšī, "I have nearly done my work." $\ddot{n} g \bar{o}$ gésgã ntsúrōntse kārớntš̃̃, lit. "behold the tree's falling has approached," i.e. "the tree will soon fall."
13. kélngin, in conjunction with dérinigin, by "entirely, completely "-
kóganāwa nigásō bẹlla dẹrittsa kéltsā, "all the soldiers completely surround the town."
14. léngin, by "on, further, longer;" or the verb "to continue"-
šyứa táta gấlifubē sốbäntsưa lêtsei, nẹmsóbäntsa tsádin, "he and the rich man's son, his friend, continued their friendship."
15. lúgeskin, by "out"-
s̊im tátabē báktse kitúlugō, lit. " he struck the boy's eye that it came out," i.e. "he struck the boy's eye out."
16. némgin, by " silently "-
pántsęn némtse náptši, " he sat down silently in his house."
17. wólteskin, by " again "-

- gúbōgum wólte kádiō nā pếrōberō," the cock came again to the girl."
§. 304. The word n'da appears to be an adverb of mood, whose occasional connexion with an optative or imperative increases the emphasis or solicitation, which we may express by "do, pray."
lēné, nā kấsgimāberō, ńda tsédi wúrō tsúrū, "go to the diviner, do, let him see the ground for me."
ńda wu rúskē, "pray let me see it."
n'da wúrō š̄̄, " pray give it to me."
ńda lëné, " do go."


## CHAPTER XXI.

SYNTAX OF POSTPOSITIONS.
§. 305. In many languages prepositions are used to supply the want of cases, to such an extent, that one cannot but be struck with the great affinity which exists between them and caseterminations. But in a language in which, instead of prepositions, there are postpositions or suffixes, which bear the greatest resemblance to terminations, it becomes really difficult to distinguish between them. We may therefore consider it fortunate that the Kanuri has so few postpositions, that occasion for confusion cannot often occur.

The postpositions also share this peculiarity with the caseterminations, that they can be separated from the word to which they grammatically belong, cf. §. 154.-
búnyē tilōma nả kálgū gờtsenālan tsátg gånátse, wôlt̄̄, "in one night he carried it and laid it on the place whence he had taken the shirt, and returned."
$n \bar{a}$ dzádzirmā tsétsẹnālan dátsegna, "he was standing on the spot where he had killed the leopard."
§. 306. The postpositions, gadi, lan, and nanga, are of frequent occurrence. In English they must often be rendered by another part of speech. Their use is also peculiar in other respects, so that we had better give some examples by way of illustration-

1, gadi or gei, "as, like; as it were, as if "-
kām äte bürgōntse bưrgō kenyé̀ribé gadi, " this man's subtilty is like the subtilty of a weasel."
ni lemánnem kágee gadi tšitōba? " will thy goods be equal to mine?"
kálgû wăsilibēgei tsárūní, " they did not see a shirt like that of the white man."
kú gadi Mákkārō katamúnyä, bálī gadi lẹ́mä, " having
entered Mecca, as it were, to-day, the morrow, as it were, was a Friday."

 rise in the west and go towards the east, as if a thunder storm were coming from the east." -
2. lan, which must be very differently rendered in English, comp. the Hebrew לy-
a. "On, upon"-
kốa bútứilan náptse, " the man sat down on the mat." lēné dígallan bōné, " go and lie down on the bed." dígallan lêttsa, " they slept on the bed."
b. "On the ground of, because of, from "nẹmsôbantsálan ágō tsádẹnātẹ́ kām tšídẹna bágō, " none will do what they have done from friendship."
c. "Out of "—
woladíntsusō kọ́nemlan tsęsánges, sabarâta, " he awakened them out of sleep to get ready."
d. " In"-
kaúlan tártsa," they dry it in the sun."
kitábülan kérū, " they saw it in the book."
ámdè wúra dándallan sálītsā," our great people pray in the mosque."
magarántīlan kánnu fúnyê, "we lighted a fire in the school."
ṫsẹm, káfiālam bớgam, " thou camest and didst sleep in the shade."
käm kaúlan tsęna segêtšin, "one pants if one comes in the sun."
e. "Before" -
tšínnälan tšígā tsédin ganáátse, " he puts the bag down on the ground before the gate." dándal kürāalan dátse, álam méogunderi bóbötse " he
stood before the large mosque and called the twelve regiments."

## f. " After "-

kúgui burgốēlan tzìttse, " he rises after the first crowing of the cock."
g. " From on, from "-
pérlan tsépts $\bar{a}$, " they dismount from the horses." kuílolan kádiskō, "I come from the farm."
dígalntselan tšígonō, " he arose from his bed."
h. "For"-
kómbū sandílan gáptş̌̃, " there is food left for them." kémil andílan gáptš̌̄, afisō andílan gáptş̄, " rum was left for us, any thing was left for us."
i. By the genitive-
táta pérbē ndilan tílō gôtse, tílō wúrō skẹinō," of the two colts, he took one, and gave me the other."
nemê ndí gáptsẹnälan tillō badígonō," of the two tales that were left, he began one."
ándi yáage gamnyénnälan ndí kašigāna, wu tilōni kénggligo $\overline{0}$, " of the three of us that were left, two were females, and I the only male."
k. "Whilst, during "-
sándi męlteilan kurgúlirō kấtī pítsagei, "whilst they wrestled, they threw dirt at the lion."
ándi lềnyenlan pánigeiyē, "we heard it whilst walking."
3. nainga, " on account of, for the sake of, because of" ni málam naniga tsánnä pándẹm bágō," thou wilt not obtain heaven, on account of being a priest."
kū kóäni pátom bágō nañga wúgà serrágemin nẹm, " thou sayest that thou lovest me on account of my husband's not being at home to-day."
áte nañga kádiskō, " therefore I am come."
pếrōa wátáisō taáăirin pếntsa bágōo nanga, "the girls wept all day long on account of their cow being no more."
šígā kétšyē, kásundē dábesánā nañga, "we killed him, because he denied the debt he owed us."
kéntširō komándè sẹ́dī nañga, kátugū kámgin bágōo, "I do not tell lies, because our Lord has given me into slavery."
§. 307. As the language is deficient in postpositions, it makes up for the want of them either by the following grammatical forms, or by the use of certain substantives-

1. The adjectives in wa are sometimes used where we have a noun and the preposition " with "tšiligindērō tsúkkūrin, kás̈agar múskōnwa, " he was jumping down into our ship with a sword in his hand." $\dot{n} g a a_{s} \bar{o} \overline{s ̌ i n} n$ sálgāwa, "all were with chains on the feet." kóa kálfūma kálfūntse nigántšinwa nábgata, "the man who had the natron was sitting with his natron before him."
2. The conjunctional mood sometimes stands for our "in," or "after," with a noun-
 kábū wúri kìtényā, wu tsò̀ngē, "I rose up after a fortnight."
3. The dative case is usually employed instead of our preposition " to "wu pérrōtúrō nemệ tílō nemég geskē, "I will speęk a word to this girl." wúrō pẹ́lēsegení kwōya, "if thou wilt not show it to me." nā meíberō káášō̆, " he came to the king's place."
4. Even the genitive and the locative must often be rendered by a preposition-
tsábā Sámbulbē tsátā," they took the way to Constantinople."
yấndè šimdēn täm, gérrem, yêtsęmin?" wilt thou seize. tie, and kill our mother before our eyes?"
wu Bórnun námganäté́, " when I lived in Bornu." s̆i béläntsen tšitç̌ĩa, " when she arose in her town."
§. 308. It has been proved that the Indo-European prepositions are not original but derived (see §. 84. of "Das Wort in seiner organischen Verwandlung," von Dr. Karl F. Becker); and some of them, e.g. "beside, behalf, forsake, instead, in spite," still bear the mark of their substantival origin on their faces: it also appears that most of the Hebrew prepositions are properly substantives (see Gesenius' Gram., §. 99.): hence the Kanuri language would seem to be entitled to the character of high antiquity from this circumstance also, that it still expresses a great many relations, for which other languages have developed prepositions, by real substantives. These substantives, when used to express a prepositional relation, are either in the locative or in the dative case, as the verb may require it. We will here enumerate the chief of these substantives, with a few examples for illustration-
5. bátagū, " side" = with, close by, close to-
ándi ganá ganá bátagūntsan námnyena, "we very little ones sat down with them."
pếrōni, níte námné batagúnyin, " my daughter, do thou sit down close by me."
6. dábū," midst"= through, among-
kókō dábūntsa rêtse kôts̛̆in, " the toad tore through them, and passed on."
kẹngalī tílơma bágō dábüntsan, " not one male was among them."
7. gédi, "place over which the branches of a tree spread " = under-
gédì gésgā kúrāberō nāgéga, "they arrived under a large tree."
bōgéda gédi gésgäben, " they lay under a tree."
8. káté, "interval, space interposed " = between-
lebálà bágō wúa nyáa katéndēn, " there is no palaver between either of us."
nyúa s̆yúa katéndon lebálā bágṑ, "there is no dispute between you two."
9. kálä, " head " $=$ on, upon-
sándi rigásō tsẹ́ptsā, kọ́la perntsáben, " all of them dismounted from (on) their horses." ragálō kála kánnubèn, " the beans were on the fire."
10. $n \bar{a}$, "place " $=$ to, with. Sometimes even with the ellipsis of $n a-$
$n \bar{a}$ meíberō kádī $\bar{o}$, " he came to the king."
nántsẹn bárbū kảm dếge mbếtši, " there were four thieves with him."
wúte, yāníbēn tílöni, " as for me, I was alone with my mother."
11. ǹgăfō, " back," kádugū, " rear" = behind, after$\dot{r}$ íáföntsan gerágata, "he was hidden behind them." rigáfoo táta kẹ́ngalz̄ben táta pếrō tsasámb̄̈," after the boy they became parents of a girl."
tšénäntse gớtse kádugūntsa gígā, "he took his knife and followed after them."
12. fári," top, upper part"=on, uponkóa a fári gésgāberō tsébā, " the man climbed upon a tree." fári gésgāben kómbū mátse, "it sought food on the trees."
13. fúgū, " front" $=$ before-
fúgünemin dugulgúlemi ${ }^{\text {ts }}$ so ", "the muck-worm came before thee."
fúgüntsen ganáṅgē, "I will lay it down before him." fúgū kómändéberō kígutō, "he brought them before our Lord."
14. tsédĩga,"bottom"=under-
tsédìga dígalberô kánnâ fútsẹge, "he made a fire under the bed."
kảni tílō tsédāga dábēn bótsẹna, "somebody was lying under the meat."
15. tsúro, "belly, interior" = inside, within, in, into, among tsúrô kangáddibēn tsetúlūge "he took it out from within the horn."
mána tsúrô wōkítābē pányè, "let us hear the words in the letter."
ágō tsúrō kárgentsíbē ándi nốnyēba? "do we know what is in his heart?"
tsúrō kábūu ārásgibèn lénggè, "I will go within six days." kábū tílō tsúrô káragāberō gắge," one day he entered into a forest."
tsúrō woinnä yásgiben woin $\bar{a}$ ndí gótse, " from among the three cakes, she took two."

## CHAPTER XXII.

## SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

§. 309. A number of conjunctions bear the character of suffixes, and have the peculiarity of being attached not only to the word which is joined, but also to the one to which it is joined. In form one of them is identical with the plural termination, or an adjective termination, and another with the locative termination; but they are always easily recognised as conjunctions by the context, and more especially by their repetition in several succeeding words. The difference in the use of $w a(a)$ and $n$ (nyin) seems to be this, that wa refers merely to number, $n$ also to quality, wa simply adds or co-ordinates, but $n$, at the same time, contrasts what it joins together; wa (cf. Hebrew 7) generally answers to our " and ;" when this is merely copulative, $n$ corresponds more to our conjunctions, "both-and, as wellas, not only-but." In practice, however, these two forms are not always kept so distinct, and sometimes we find them alternating with each other.
§.310. Instances of the correlative conjunction wa-wa-
 "he said, a shirt for me, trousers for me, a cap for me, and clothes for my wife, (viz. I like.")
wúa kōàtûa kämpigítē, "I and this man have contended." abắntsāuca wúáa ábā tílō sasámbō, "one father has begotten their father and me."
kírntsāwa káliāntsāwa tátāntsāwa wútsei, " they look at their female slave, their male slave, and their child."
kárabū ikî́wa kánnūa, kamúrsoābē, "fable of the water, the fire, and an old woman."
kúlum lífuläbēwa, kúlum dínarbēwa, dégerger árilbèwa pêrorō keínō, "he gave a silver-ring, a gold-ring, and a scarlet neck-tie to the girl."
ába nántsẹ wurấtsęnāwa, abántse šigā tsambúnāwa lebálā tsádinté," when the man with whom he had grown up, and the man who had begotten him, made a contest."
§. 311. Instances of the correlative conjunction $n-n-$
kámun, tátan, kōángan, ngásoō s̊īn sálgāwa, " women, children, men, all had chains on their legs."
ándi kōañgáte kurátęn ganáten, keárì̀ten komúrsöten rigásō, andígā satapátki," the men, both great and small, the hoary men and the hoary women, all of us he would have * ruined."
nembunyếnyin, kaúnyin, ndásō $\dot{n} g u ́ b u g o ̄ ? ~ " o f ~ w h i c h ~ i s ~ t h e r e ~$ a greater number, of nights or of days?"
álegā komändébēté, tsẹlạ̀tẹn, kaméten, káfūgúten kúrūgúten $\dot{n} g a ́ s o \bar{o}$ šimã aláktse, " as for the creation of our Lord, he has created all, both the black and the red, the short and the tall."
kámütẹn tátätẹn, kōangátẹn, ganâtẹn kurâten, pêtẹn pẹ̀rtẹn, kaligimóten korôten, kanẑamôten dimíten, känâten kuguíten, gabagăten kullốten, ăfísō ágō lemánte ngásō tsorơre, "they took all, whatever was property, the women and the children, the men both small and great, the cows and the horses,
the camels and the asses, the oxen and the sheep, the goats and the fowls, cloth and money."
ts̆ā ši kámuntsurō gúltsentí kwŏya, álegā állabéte ṅgásō, kấmnyin, búndin, ṅgúdon, búni tsúrō ṅkîbèn, ndúyē tšā mána kámāntsibē pắnts̆in, "if he had not told it to his wife, the whole creation of God, the men and the beasts, the birds and the fish in the water, would each understand the language of the other."
§. 312. Instances of $w a$ and $n$ used promiscuously-
káliātúa kirtúua ndísō kámbè állārō kolớnȩskĩ," both this male slave, and this female slave, I set free for God's sake." kir túlō átẹn kálīa tílō átẹn álla tilórō wu sandỉgā kámbērō kolôneski," this one female slave, and this one male slave, I set free for God's sake"
kománden, kálū gesgáben, kâtšimnyin, kígīnyin, kátin genya rínẹnma bágō, " thou fearest nothing, except our Lord, leaves of trees, grass, and flies."
ni kām rînẹmma bágō, kátšimwa, kigĩwa, tsédīwa, kálū gesgábēwa rínẹm nem, "thou dost not fear any body, only the grass, flies, the ground, and tree-leaves.
§. 313. It sometimes occurs that a word to which another is joined by wa is itself without it. It may even happen that this word, if a pronoun, is omitted altogether, and has to be gathered from the finite verb, cf. §. 333.-
kớa kámuntsūa pántsān náptsāna, " a man and his wife were sitting in their house."
meína meimíwa kalaíndò dर̂yenté,, "when I and the royal prince played."
ámāntsūa tsábui, " they eat it with their people."
ńngō ándi bóbōsam, tatoányūa ntségeiye $\bar{e}$, ándi t̂́šyē, " behold, thou hast called us: I and my children followed thee and came."
§. 314. Mention may here also be made of a few adverbial phrases formed by the correlative conjunction $n-n-$
náten fúgun áte cátegei dímmí, "in future do no more so."
bélän kuíyintẹn kolơtseiya, "they having left it far from town."
$k a \bar{m}$ wün fúgun bágō," there is no man before me," i.e. " superior to me."
kóā átẹte állãn kásẹn kām sủgãa kótsęna bágō, "none exceeds this man, except God."
§. 315. The correlative suffix $\bar{o}-\bar{o}$ answers to our "whether -or," and takes its place after the words which are to be represented as doubtful-
lényè ruíyogō kợnā kúguibē tšétšiskóō, tšétšisgányō, "let us go and see whether I may appease (lit. kill) the hunger of fowls, or whether I may not appease it."
kríge mbétsưivō, kríge bắgoō, kā nándi tsừrū, " to-day ye shall see, whether there is war, or whether there is no war."
tširremárō gúlniginō kátugumárō gúlniginwō tsúrum, " thou shalt see, whether I speak true, or whether I speak false."
meió meínaō àm kandegeíbē ǹgāsóō sándi nốtsäní, "neither the king, nor the prince, nor all the people of the court knew it."
tšíremáō kátugumáō, ām wúra nẹmététsa, "whether it be a truth, or whether it be a falsehood, the great men have said it."
But as is the case with the suffix wa, so also here the antecedent member of the conjunction can be omitted-
ágō dísganāte ñ́galâ, nándi ruígō, díbiwō, nándi ruigō, " see what I have done, whether it be good, or whether it be bad."
§. 316. The correlative conjunctions ra-ra, and $y \bar{e}-y \bar{e}$, or yen-yen, appear to be of a similar force with $o-o$, but of less frequent occurrence-
áfi gadê ni mánemin? kómbu mánẹmírrâ kêntsa mánemírrà?
" what else dost thou seek? dost thou seek food, or dost thou seek drink?"
komándè sandírō ndí ñgalāyē gúltsení, díbiyē gúltsẹní, tílō ńgaläyē gúltsęní, débìyē gúltsẹní, "our Lord did not tell them whether two were good, and did not tell them whether they were bad; he did not say whether one was good, and did not say whether she was bad."
sẹrágiyè wu nōtsóskō sęrágệníyè wu nōtsóskō, "I shall know whether she loves me or not."
tsẹmếrīyen ni tšưrum, tsẹmérrenâyen, ni tšưum, " thou wilt see, whether he will recover or not."
§. 317. The suffixal conjunction $s \bar{o}-s \bar{o}$ is not disjunctive or exclusive, like $\bar{o}-\bar{o}$ and $r \bar{a}-r \bar{a}$, but inclusive, removing a contrast-
lebásarsō, yálōsō, kugudógusō $\dot{n} g a ̂ ́ s o ̄ ~ n \bar{a}$ átẹn bārêtsei, " there they cultivate all, both onions, and yalo, and sweet potatoes."
kálệmte, kámuásō pếroấsō tsógōntsārō pı̂́tsagei, " as for the intestines, both the women and the girls put them into their baskets."
§. 318. The suffixal conjunctions which we have now considered have all the peculiarity of being double or correlative; and in this peculiarity they are joined by some other conjunctions which are not suffixes, viz. ts $\bar{a} \bar{a}-k w o \bar{y} y, t_{s} \bar{a}-t \bar{s} \bar{a}$, and $t s ̌ a ̄ a b o ̄ y o-k o ́ a$. Of these, ts̆ $\bar{a}-k w o ̄ y a ~ i s ~ a l w a y s ~ i n ~ t h e ~ s u b-~$ ordinate proposition, and seems to be the fullest and most regular form of a conditional statement; as,
tšā gádūtẹ ruíyendê kwōya, ándi nigássō pérndewāsō nigúduyē sеееॅе́ $\bar{\imath}$, " if we had not seen this hog, thirst would have killed us all, and our horses."
ts̆ā kríge bágó kwōya, kām Bórnun támbunātś pátsegin bágō, "if there had not been war, no man born in Bornu would have been lost."
tšāa burgóteg kániyè búlturō teṣdeni kwōya, tsse táta kánibē ngásō tilō tilōn gótse dátstinn, "if the goat had not played this trick to the hyena, she would have come and taken all the young ones of the goat one by one."
tšä ni ṫsemmi kwōya, kän wírō wōkítāte karảtsanna bágö, "if thou hadst not come, there would not have been a person able to read this letter to me."
tšă karámintsúsō búrgō tsàde, šigā tsátä, meírō tsádenín kwōya, mei gergàtse, "if his younger brothers had not made a conspiracy, caught him, and given him up to the king, the king would have been wrath."
§. 319. This full form, however, is not always used, and we often find a condition expressed either by ts $\bar{a} a \operatorname{br}$ by kwōya alone-
ts̆ă rînẹmāa, pếrōte ni pándemba? " wouldest thou have had this girl if thou hadst feared ?"
yintẹ kglááni yêtséski kwoōya, wu kơóngã," if on that day Ihad killed myself, I should have been a man."
tšă tátänẹmtẹ kánnuye tǒétờa, wu ruiskīa, dábūnem kámgin, " if the fire kill thy child, and I see it, I will cut thy throat."
átemā tamánem kwōya, wúa nyúa sóbändête pártseiyê," if thou intendest this, we shall dissolve our friendship." nänémmón ťăyendé kwōya, nígã ntšètse, "if we had not come to thee, he would have killed thee."
rûmīa, ni šígà rágẹmī kwōya, nírō lemán 'gưburō ntěénōn, "when thou hast seen him, he will give thee plenty of goods if thou lovest him."
§. 320. In the instances here given, ts̈a and kwöya are of exactly the same force, but sometimes they differ in use; for ts $\bar{a} \overline{\text { chen }}$ can also stand for a condition fulfilled, or a ground, a cause, which is never the case with kworya-
ts̆à andï déteg tsinei andírōo sadi, " as we were naked, they gaye us cloth."
tšā ni gálifūté, wu nígā logóñgin, " as thou art rich, I beg of thee."
§. 321. It is very rarely the case that $t_{s} \bar{a}$ introduces both the condition and the consequence, $t \stackrel{s}{a} a-t s \bar{a} a$ then corresponding to our "if-then "-
tšăa nándi wúrō bánāseguwí kwōya, tšā wu mánäni mbétšiba? "if ye had not helped me, would I then have a word to say now?"
ts̆ă ši kámuntsurō gúltsenní kwōya, álegā állābête, ndúyē ts̉ā mána kámāntsíbe pántšin, "if he had not told it to his wife, then of the whole creation of God every one would now understand the language of the other."
§. 322. But the particle which more frequently introduces the chief proposition, after a condition with tšā-kwōya, is kóa. The fullest form then of a conditional preposition appears to be this, when the condition is introduced by $t \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\bar{a}} \hat{a}-k w \bar{o} y a$, and the consequence by kóa-
$n i$ wúrō kấmā ndíte $\dot{n}$ galā ganí nẹminté, ts̆ă $\bar{a}$ ngalà ganí kwōya, komándè kó́a andírō gúlusāniba ? "as thou tellest me that two wives are not good, would not our Lord then have told it to us if they were not good?"
tşā bẹlààndèn wurányèna dúgō pátkigē kwōya, kóa ñgásō nônyēna, "if we had grown up in our country before we were lost, then we should know all."
ts̆āa ni wúgā bóbōnemi kwōya, bísgā kóa nānémmō t̂́seskī, "if thou hadst called me, I would have come to thee yesterday."
ts̆ă búrgōn táta kōánigā wưrō tsámbō kwōya, kóa bánōni tsę́mägi múskōnyin, "if she would at first have borne me a male child, then it would have taken my hoe out of my hand."
§.323. Of the remaining conjunctions which may require some remarks, we will first take those of an enclitic or suffixal character, and then those which maintain a more independent position.

The enclitic genya, the same in form and doubtless in origin with the interrogative character, §. 279., is a deflected form of the verb, just as our "except," with which it coincides in force and position-
sándi úgu genya, kām gadè nótšinba sai álla? "can any other persons besides these five know it except God?"
š́ genya, käm wōkítānem áte karátsanna bágō, " there will not be any body able to read thy letter except he."
wrima näntsúrō léneskin gęnya, ši wôlte tsádẹní, " except I go to him, he will not return and come to me."
komándè genya, kámyè tamíssę dấtsanní, " our Lord excepted, no man would ever have finished counting it."
táta tilō genya tsasámbūni," they had but one child."
ágoo dégaté genya kām rítsena bágōo, " he does not fear any body, except these four things."
§. 324. Just as the English conjunction "that" and the German "dass," were originally pronouns; so also in Kanuri the pronoun te is converted into a conjunction, vide also §. 173.
sándi nótsāni, búltu kómbuntsārō kádiōté," "they did not know that the hyena had come to eat them."
álla šigā kolốtsim bágōte ni nônẹmmíba? " dost thou not know that God will never forsake him?"
pánẹm pándẹm námnẹmmāté, wu rōniyè tsęrágã, " my own soul likes that thou shouldest get a house for thyself and dwell there."
abánnemmō gưllé agō trẹ́de ts̊imérenäté," "tell thy father what to do that he may recover."
§. 325. The conjunction $y a$ is suffixed to the predicate only, and then can be temporal as well as conditional, answering to our" when" and "if."
ni mána pánẹm bágō kwōya, fúgū átẹn wu pátom bágōya, kōángā gadé bóbōnem, "if thou dost not hearken to my word; and, in future, when I am not at home callest another man."
kām kámtse árgẹm 'gúbūa mbêtš̌ya, lêtsę, kásurō gơtš̌in, "if
one has an acquaintance who has much guinea-corn, he goes and borrows."
kóa bẹ́làma Tsarầmi Dáduima kôandêya lárē, kúra béla Dáduibē kóandếya, lấré, "if the governor of Dadui, the son of Sarah, be our husband, we shall rejoice; if the chief of the town of Dadui be our husband, we shall rejoice."
áfìma nígā ntsebándenu bágōya, ni wúgā kốsem̄̄̄, "if nothing befal thee, thou surpassest me."
§. 326. A merely assumed or possible condition is expressed by $y a ̈ y e$, which attaches itself to the particular word represented as doubtful, and has to be rendered in English-

1. By "whether"-
šima kóâte tơętsō yâye, kū núndi ng ắsō nôtsou," to-day ye all shall know whether he killed the man."
mána yāntsiyee abántsurō nemếtseginté ši pánts̆i yāye nótsäni, " they did not know whether he had understood the word which his mother had spoken to his father."
búmi yāye kām nôtsẹna bá́gō, bû́mmí yāye kām nôtsęna bágō, "whether he has eaten, no one knows; and whether he has not eaten, no one knows."
2. By "even if, although"

Bórnu nigásoo dáts̊inyāye, wu Fuláta kal tšígaşgàní, " even if all Bornu should be ruined, I shall not follow the Pulo rascals."
kárgunmā nigássō t̄sei yāye, kárguntsẹtę nốtsei bágō, "although all the doctors should come, they do not know a medicine for it."
karánem kitábù díniābē ngáaso dátši yāye, kárgenémte tsélạ̀m kwōya, ni tsánnā pándẹm bágō, " although thou have read all the books in the world, if thy heart be black thou shalt not obtain heaven."
§. 327. When the adverb áte is governed by a verb, it becomes converted into a conjunction, and answers to our "lest."
bernite sandírō kolớnyē, áte kóganāndē ṅgásō Fulảtayē, tšétse
dátsenné, " let us leave the capital to them, lest the Phula completely kill all our soldiers."
áre lênyē, áte àm pátobë tšittsāní, "come and let us go, lest the people of the house rise up."
§. 328. Some adverbial forms of the demonstrative pronoun are used as consequential conjunctions, viz. átemā, átemáró, and áteman. They always take their place at the head of the proposition which contains the effect or consequence; as,
pátō meíbēn nápts̈inté, átẹmā ágō kárgeníyè wấtse kidískō, "because they have sat down in the king's residence, therefore I have done what my heart did not like."
ñgō, Fulátasō wōkíta tsẹbágeda wúrō, àtemárō wu nandígā bóböntsaskē," behold the Phula have sent me a letter, therefore I called you all."
Fuláta sándi ñgalả ganí, átẹmān mei Tšigāā kọlàantse gógẹda, " the Phula are not good, therefore they supported the king of Tshiga."
mei Tš̌̌ga sandírō agơ ṅgalā tsédin; tsapádgī sándi kerúnyā, átẹmān búrgōn Deíätẹn krígurō Fulátasōyē badâtsa, " the Tshiga king had favoured them ; therefore when they saw that he had been killed, the Phula began a war in Deia for the first time."
§. 329. As átemátrō introduces a natural consequence, so the adversative conjunction áteyãye or áteyaêrō, by silently annulling the natural consequence, introduces the opposite of what the preceding proposition would have led one to expect-
wu kátsalla krígibē; àteyāye krígurō tờ̛̀ngãa, léngĩa, krígetẹn
 "I am a chief officer of war; yet if I should rise to go to war, and should know that they were going to kill me in that war, I would never rise at home and go to war." ni mei abáni, wu meíram, ágō rāgésgàna dískin; áteyaérō kóāni sóbānem, kátsalla krígibē nẹmintę, šimā wu meíya rágeskō," thou art my father the king; I am a princess
and do what I like; nevertheless I wish he were king who is my husband, thy friend, whom thou callest wargeneral."
káliāye, ágō rāgésgana dískin pánẹmin, kómbū râgésgàna büskin, ìkt̂ rāgẹ́sgạna yêeskin; átẹyaêrō, wu bẹlánden fúnōnyúa, dà gádubē wúgā sệtīa, kímẹlni yệeskē, dígallílan bónigè, átẹmā rāgéskō, kónō káliàye abántsurō, " the slave said to his master, I do in thy house whatever I like, I eat food when I like, I drink water when I like; but in spite of this I should like to have merely a waist-cloth, and, having eaten enough hog-meat, to drink beer, and to sleep on my bed, provided it were in our own country."
§. 330. The conjunction $r \bar{a}$ corresponds to our "or," and is placed between the two words which are represented as exclusive of one another ; as,
áfi yífum, kánni rā dími? " what didst thou buy, a goat or a sheep?"
$n d \dot{u} n t s \bar{o}$, kát $m \bar{u}$ rā kó́a ${ }^{2}$ " who gave it thee, a woman or a man?"
muskốfi átsege, dul lā butge? "which hand did he stretch out, the right or the left?"
§. 331. The use of some conjunctions is avoided in Kanuri by employing other forms-

1. "And" is avoided by a kind of encasement of propositions one in the other-
nérō î́sẹskē gulntséskē, "I come and tell thee of it." andígā t̀se násaga, " may he come and meet us." $\bar{a} m$ wúra " sandígā lênyee párnyen," tsa, " the great men said, Let us go and separate them."
šeáreāye sírío ndísō tsẹ́măge keínō, " the court took both and gave them to him."
2. "If" is avoided by the use of the conjunctionalnírō mána tílō gulntsẹéskīa ts̆ŕdẹmbá? "if I tell thee a thing, wilt thou do it?"
wúrō kálgū tilō šimīa wúgā, sęt̄̄, "if he give me one shirt, I am satisfied."
3. "Also " is avoided by the verb wólteskinmálam goní mána tátabē pántši ; pängányā, wólte, pêrōga kigorō, "the reverend priest heard the boy's words; and having heard them, he also asked the girl." sơbäntse lāfiántse kimägényà, šáyè wólte, sôbāntségā kígorō, "when his friend had accepted his salutation, he also inquired of his friend."
 kớganā bérrnibé ingásō bóbötse, " he called the twelve regiments to come to him; he also called all the soldiers of the capital."
§. 332. But besides this, we also find examples in Kanuri of phrases which omit the conjunction, where, in English, we should insert it. Thus we find omitted-
4. "And" between several verbs closely following each other ; e.g.
 him to turn, go, get ready, and come, that we may perform the marriage."
ši mána sôbäntsibè pántse, lêttse, kámuntsûa pántsān náptsei, " he heard the word of his friend, went, and he with his wife sat down in their house."
wu tšìneskē, nānémmō kádiskō, nírō gúlturō, "I arose and came to thee, to tell thee of it."
5. "That" may be omitted in all its various capacities;
viz.一
a. As the propositional article or conjunction before propositions dependent on "verba sentiendi et declarandi" $=$ òt lêttší tsā," they thought that he slept."
kúguiyè tsábū dátši, nándi rúba? " do you see that the fowls have eaten it?"
sándi wu búrgōn sandígā kốngana nốtsäní, " they did not know that I surpassed them in sense."
keigamā mei tsúlugā pängányă, "when the general had heard that the king had come out." yímtemä nōgónō, kóäntse búrgöwa, "then she knew that her husband was cunning."
b. As expressing a purpose, end, or object $=\dot{\omega} s$, $i_{\nu}^{\prime \prime} \alpha-$ úndi nirō per ntš̌̀yeé, létsam, "we will give thee a horse, that thou mayest go." komándè wúgà súnotō, mána gulntsáskè, "our Lord has sent me, that I should tell you a word."
$n \bar{a}$ ganá šē, nẹmní témgè, " give me a little space, that I may build a house for myself."
sóbānémmō gulgéskē, nírō mátsę, "I will tell it to thy friend, that he may seek it for thee."
c. As expressing a consequence $=\stackrel{\omega}{\omega} \sigma \boldsymbol{\tau} \epsilon-$
ăfi trédé, kibándō, wu nónesganní, " what he did so as to get it, I know not."
wúrō nă ${ }^{\text {sē }}$ bórigè, " give me a place, so that I may sleep."
šim tátabē báktse kitúlugō, "he smote the boy's eye, so that it came out," i.e. "he smote the boy's eye out."
 that ye may drink," i.e. " water to drink."
6. "Except," "but," or " but that," is often omitted after negatives, especially gadé with a negative-
 dislikes any kind of cloth, but the elephant-hide she likes."
kómbū nariga gani kádiskō, ni nañga kádiskõ, "I did not come for the sake of food, but for thy sake."
s̆i nă gáden náptšin bágō, tsúrō kéndẹrbēn nảptšin, "it never sits down in any other place, except within the cotton shrub."
tsúrō ť̛ígāben ágō gadê tílōma bágoó, मेgắsō búrgō," there was nothing else in the bag, but pure sense." áte sandỉrō manágệmmí, wu nírō manágèné, nesskīa, ni sandírō manágené," do not speak to them, except when I tell thee to do so."

## CHAPTER XXIII.

## FIGURES OF SPEECH.

## I. Ellipsis.

§. 333. The ellipsis is not uncommon in Kanuri, and consists in the omission of -

1. Certain substantives-
ágō, " thing, matter :" kúbēte kốtš̀̄, bálī fúgun àte gadế fókkemmí; " the matter of to-day is passed; do it no more in future."
níyē dā, gónệmmayē dā, nándì ndísō dāni," thou art meat, and what thou hast taken is meat; both of you are meat for me."
dúgō állayē tsédinté ándi ruíyogō," till we may see what God will do."
$\imath_{i} \overline{\text { è }}$, "kind, sort:" kálgū wāsilíbē gadi rúwīa, "if you see a shirt like that of the white man's:" compare kálgû ílī wāsilíbē gadi bágó, "there was no shirt like that of the white man's."
kả̛gentse: masenántsa dêtse, abántsibè tơo," she cooks their food, and gives her father his," i.q. abántsibē kágentse šírō to̊õ.
 tsúrūní, kốtši; kádūqubétiyē ingebaltẹ́gā tsúrui, " when they went, the foremost one did not see the pigeon's eggs; but the one behind saw the eggs."
kárā, "reading:" lukránbē dāgányā, wúrō abániyē kídā sekkélit, " the reading of the Koran being over, my father taught me work."
kídā, " work :" kóäbē tsúlugī, wónte kágenem gáptsẹ, "the man's work is over, now thine remains."
labár, " news :" wúrō tságūte gúlesgēgányā," when they had brought the news and told it to me."
lóktẹ, " time :" tég gamnyin kámtābē kìtẹ́ny $\bar{a}$, " when it had arrived at the time to be weaned."
lókte bámbābẻ kilugényā, Fulátabē kargágō, " when the time of the plague had passed, the time of the Phula set in."
$n \bar{a}$, " place :" sándíyē, abándōberō kášyē, " they said, We came to your father's place."
sā, "time :" sáfi kéogutō? Lếnẹmáátẹn kếogutō, " at what time did they bring it? At the time when thou wast gone they brought it."
2. Personal pronouns-
nírō másẹna mánigè, tatoánẹmma bū, "I seek food for thee, that thou and thy children may eat it."
kâdū̃wa tši̛tsa, bẹlla kádibềrō lêtsa, for suyúa kádĩwa \&c., " he and the serpent arose, and went to the serpent's town."
sốbāntsúa nábgẹ̆da, "he and his friend sat down."
málam fúgun, mei ṅgáfon ísa, Fulátāwa kg̣lā fóktsei, " they came, the priest before and the king after, and met the Phula."
3. Verbs : see also §. 242.-
álla bárgāndō," a curse ;" i.q. álla bárgāndō gôtş, " may God take his blessing from you."

## II. Absolutism and Pleonasm.

§. 334. Absolutism arises if a word, instead of occupying its regular place, is abruptly introduced at the beginning of a proposition, and is represented in its proper place by the corresponding pronoun if it is a substantive, or by the corresponding finite verb if it is an infinitive. The purpose of the absolute use of a word is, to mark emphasis or a contrast; but as this figure of speech is employed very freely in Kanuri, its peculiar force may sometimes be so weakened as to be entirely lost, in which case the representative word may be considered as a pleonasm. The absolute word is frequently distinguished by the demonstrative pronoun te, ate ; and may be either the subject, or the object, or a verb, or a more subordinate part in the proposition.

1. Absolutism of the subject (pleonasm) -
kóa, šyứa kámuntsúa nemeِ nemétsěedâna nốtsāni; kóa tsáneima, s̆i " tsáneini ladẹ́skī kẹ́lfurō," tse, " the man, he and his wife had not a word to say; the clothowner, he said, I have sold my cloth for natron." dágęl, sándi nôtsāní, " the monkeys knew it not." kām kárge ṅgaláwāté kām kárge búlwāté, š̌ima tsánnā tsębándin. Ká́rgeté, šima kām kánnurō tsátin, šima $k \bar{a} m$ tsánnārō tsấtin, " one with a good heart, one with a white heart, he obtains heaven. The heart, it carries one to hell, and it carries one to heaven." ágō gédīntse báágōte nemétrō, ši áram, " to relate any thing which has no foundation is aram (unclean)." kām kánadīwa, šima wá́gē tsánnārō gágin," the meek man, he will enter into heaven in the next world." kām lemán ṅgúbuäté, ši nuíya, wáagē, yim tšinógōben, ndúyē tšĭtseíya, kóa lemánma pátō tsánnābē ši tsẹbándin bágō, "the man of much wealth when he dies, then in the next world, on the day of resurrection when all will rise-then the man of wealth will not obtain a heavenly home."
2. Absolutism of the object (pleonasm) -
kām andígā kósanāté, wu tšineskē kū, léneskē, šigā tšưruskō, "as to the man who surpasses us I will rise to-day, and go and see him."
dal, náteman búltiyè šigā kolơtse, "then the hyena left the buck."
sándi rigásō, kẹnyếri sandígā búrgōn kôtsẹna, " the weasel surpasses them all in sense."
kám ū kásuwàyē, žígā tsẹ́tei, " a sickness took hold of the woman."
kámpigīntsésganāté, ni wígà tširēn kóseqū," as for me who denied thee, thou exceedest me in truth."
wu, mei wúgā súnōte, " the king sent me."
We may also regard it as a pleonasm when, although the objective conjugation of a verb unmistakably indicates the pronominal object, the latter is separately expressed-
nígà meíyē ntsugốrīa, " the king having sent thee."
s̈i nígâ ntsúrui, " he saw thee."
ni wúgā kómbūn kốsemin nęm, " thou thinkest that thou surpassest me in eating."
3. Absolutism of the subject and object -
tátäté, kōángā š̌igā tsámbunāté, kām ñgalā šiga tsámbō, " as for this boy and the man who has begotten him, a good man has begotten him."
4. Absolutism of the verb-
kẹndiōnite, wúgā álla sunótẹ kádiskō, " as for my coming, God sent me, so I came."
5. Absolutism occurs especially in connection with possessive pronouns, the word or words to which they refer being abruptly placed before them, cf. §. 159.
a. By this means the use of the genitive is frequently avoided, particularly at the beginning of a narra-tive-
kámū díniāma, gimpisō kóāntsíyō sírō, " the husband of a certain loose woman said every day to her."
káliàte, tsúntse wu rágesgănāté, málamnōo gúllógō, "tell the priest the name of this slave whom I like." tátäntsété, tsúntse Dúnōma, "his son's name was Dunoma."
kãm lága, kámū méógu pántsẹn 'bétş̌̀," in some man's house are ten wives."
b. Words are sometimes used absolutely, with the apparent design of pointing out the precise persons to whom a plural form referswúa nyúa, ndúndè lemánwāgō? " which of us is more wealthy, I or thou ?" wúa nyứa nemsóbāndē kétsītši, " pleasant is our friendship, the one between me and thee."
wúte sandíte, abántsāwa wúa, ába tî̄ō sasámbō," as for me and them, one father has begotten their father and me."
c. Sometimes the absolute word appears to be purely pleonastic-
wu, kámūni kómāndébē tsẹrạ́mb̄̃," my wife has paid the Lord."
ši, mána búndi káragãbeyè manätseíya, mána manátsanäté š̈ pántšin, " when the beasts of the forest spoke, he understood the words which they spoke."
6. The absolute word sometimes occupies the exact place of a genitive -
kōángā kām 'dí, túlō tšittse, " of two men, one arose." tatoântese ndí, tîlo dal tílō kalágó," of her two kids one was male and one female."
tšírè yấsgette, tílō nemếnẹmã, ndí gáptsę, "of the three truths, thou hast told one and two remain." nándi kām pindi degáwi yâye, ingăsō, tílōma kolóts̆ìm bágõ, "though you may be twenty, yet of all it will not leave one."
kímilntsę, tšibī tílō gờtse, " he takes one calabash of. beer for himself."

## III. Apposition.

§. 335. When apposition occurs in Kanuri, the case-terminations and all other suffixes are only appended to the last word in apposition, although they logically belong to the preceding words as well.

In reference to the location of the case-terminations, see §. 154,-
kónemte, 九̌i bárbū, wúgā gósgonō, "sleep has taken me as a thief."
Bornứten ágō, sóbāte, ṡi kúra, "in Bornu the thing friendship is great."
šyúa sốbāntsę, kẹ́rd̄̄wa, "he and his friend, the heathen."
nemêntse pányē, tátānémbē, "we will hear its word, thy child's."

We must especially notice the use of apposition in connexion with proper names. Here the Kanuri, like the German, seldom uses the genitive of apposition. Accordingly, in connecting the proper with the common names of towns, countries, and months, it differs from the English; while in speaking of rivers, titles, \&c., the two languages agree ; as,
nā keígamāberō, béla Tsagaláriturō $\frac{\text { źsei, " they came to the }}{}$ generalissimo's place, the town of Tsagalátri."
kás̆agarté meína Ibrámmō wu yískī, " this sword I have given to the prince Abraham."
bẹla Atšáăerō sógūte, " they brought me to the town of Atšáse."

## ts̆̃̄ kúlugū Dábalambétęn námnógō, "wait ye at the

 fording-place of the river Dábalam."bẹla Käluátęn náptsā, "they remained in the town of Kálūa."
ùte régem äm y $\bar{a}$ Mamadibēté, " this is the portion of the people of brother Muhammad."
tsúntse málam ${ }^{\text {' }} 1$ sa, " his name is priest Jesus."
lóktęté málam Láminuyè ši bélàntsę Kánemnyin nábgata, "at that time was priest Laminu dwelling in his country, Kanem."
Lárde Börnã kúra, "the land of Bornu is large."
wu kọntäge Rátsa pátkiguskō, "I was lost on the month of Ratsab."

It must be remarked, however, that the proper names of lands and months are sometimes found in the genitive, as in English -
tsédi Deiâbē ngắsō Fulátayè tsẹ́mägi, "the Phula took the whole country of Deia."
tsédi Afunóbèn wu pängóskō, "I heard it in the land of Hausa.
kộntāge 'Atš̀ibe šima burgógō," the month of Atshi is the first."

## IV. Collectives.

§. 336. A number of objects, considered as one compact whole, is often expressed by a word in the singular, i. e. a collective noun, "especially the locusts and the Pulo warriors," as one can also say in German, " sie haben den Türken geschlagen," \&c.-
 the time when the Kamanwa locusts come, they rise in the west and come to the east."
ándi šígā $\dot{n} g u ́ b u r o ̄$, teíyē, " we caught them (the locusts) in great number."
n̆gō Fuláta nãnémmō lebálarō îsün, " behold the Phula come to thee for fight."
Wádai kríge tsúgūte, " the Wadais brought war." wu Bórnun námgananté, Fuláta Bórnun tš̌tsę, tsédi Bornúbē $\dot{n}$ gásō krígen tártse, " when I lived in Bornu, the Phula arose in Bornu, and desolated the whole Bornu country by war."

## V. Abstractum pro concreto.

§. 337. An instance of this is supplied by the word kríge, "war"-
mei Wádaibē mártege, kríge wúrō tsubátse ! wủrō kríge tsubáatsẹní kwōya, kốa málam Láminūu áte nányin kérmei mógō tsęrágena, " may the king of Wadai be pleased to send me warriors! if he does not send me warriors, this priest Laminu wishes to take the kingdom from me."
kríge tsáptsā lēgéda, " they assembled the warriors and went."

## VI. Anakoluthon.

§. 338. Anakolutha, or sentences concluding differently from what their beginning leads one to expect, are now and then met with in Ali's narrations ; e.g.
kámāntsiyē : ni, kómāndétẹ mánāndéte pā̃̉gányā, ñgalāyē gúltseni díbiyè gúltsẹní, kédęg nęmtsę, nándèn, tšítsęnāté, ágō kārgéntsẹn degánā, ándi nónyēba? "his companion replied, As for thee, our Lord having heard our word, did not tell us whether it was good, or whether it was bad, but kept his peace, could we know then what was in his heart when he rose from our place?"
š̌iyē, " ām wúra, sốbāni átẹ, ágō wúrō tsédę̣āté, kām tšiddẹna mbétši kwōya-wu nemếnẹskē, pänógō," kónō tátayē ām wúrārō," the boy said to the great men, Ye great men, if there is any one who may do what this my friend has done for me: I will narrate it to you, hear it."

## VII. Hendiadys.

§. 339. There is a sort of hendiadys in the following junction-

1. Of kámgin and kóngin-
n̉galī ndí kámtse kōgányā," two years having passed by." ǹgúdō fáribè kámtsa kôtseiya, neméttseiya, nemế nemếtsanăté ši pánts̆in, " when the birds of the air passed by, and spoke, he understood the speech which they spoke."
2. Of kúrū and wólṅgin = " also, again "-
táta pếrō kęsāmbúngā, kúrū wólta, kę́ngặ̄̄̄ tsasámbī; kẹnigalī keesämbu'nyā, kúrū wólta, táta pếrō tsasámbī, " when they had begotten a girl, they also begat a boy; and when they had begotten a boy, they again begat a girl."
kúrū wóltẹ, nemè $e$ tílō badt́gonö, " again he began another saying."

## VIII. Synecdoche.

§. 340. It is not uncommon in Kanuri to put a part for the whole. This takes place through the use of the following words, which are more impressive than a mere pronoun-
kậlā, "head:" ndúyē kọlläntse āmpâtse, "let every one mind himself."
wu kạlä̃ni rāgésganna, " I love myself." áte koláánẹn yétsęmmí, "do not kill thyself."
kárge, "heart:" kām lága mána kitábubuè pántšĩa, kấrgentš̌̌̌yē tsoúrō wâtsẹna; kām lága, mána kitảbubē pântšía, kárgẹntš̌iyẽ tsoúrō tserágena, " some person hearing (having heard) the word of the book, strongly dislikes it; and some person hearing the word of the book, loves it ardently."
rō, "life, soul :" ágō rōnémyē tserrágẹnāté wu nírō kúskī, "I have brought thee what thou likest."
ăfi rōnémyè tseráagō wúgā bóhōsgam? "what didst thou want, that thou calledst me?"
šim, "eye:" būntséte šimniyè tsúrūni kwōya, kásuäté wúgā kolớšm bágō," if I do not see his blood, this sickness will not leave me."
tsúrōo, " belly :" sóbäntse táta tsírōntsíbe tsę́tā," his friend took his own son."

## IX. Nomina conjuguta.

§.341. Verbs are not unfrequently followed by nouns of kindred meaning (nomina conjugata) in the accusative. This happens-

1. When the notion of the finite verb requires to be more clearly defined-
sabaráte krágibè sabaráta, " they made preparation for a war."
kandíra lête $\dot{\text { nugúdobē létšin, " the hunter walked the walk }}$ of birds," i.e. " as birds walk."
2. When the "nomen conjugatum" expresses the objective result of the finite verb-
kanásinni àte našíngạnāté wu lénęskē, gédintsé, tšíruskô, "I will go and see the meaning of this my dream which I have had."
mána manátrtsanäté ši pánts̆in," he understood the saying (word) which they said."

Áte dátši.


[^0]:    ${ }^{\text {* }}$ Frequently the $e i$ of these Infinitives is marked by a strong accent, as ntsákkareí, \&c.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ All these terminations in which $\breve{s}$ is immediately followed by $a$, have also two other forms, viz. one with sia, which is doubtless the original one, and which caused the change of $s$ into $\stackrel{s}{ }$ according nothing but a contraction of $i+a$ into $\underset{e}{e}$, just as in Sanskrit nothing
    $a+i$ are generally contracted into $e$.

[^2]:    * Sometimes en of the lst per. pl. may be long, but generally a final $n$ prefers a short vowel before it.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ And $l \bar{e}$ for leiyè.
    And tšéakem.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ And ntšētšiéna
    ${ }^{2}$ And skētšímma.
    ${ }^{3}$ And ksétsǐna.

[^5]:    1 And se้šimma.

[^6]:    * When ganá is opposed to $\ddot{n} g u b u$ and not to kúra, it falls under the rule of the common adjectives.

[^7]:    * cf. Becker's Grammar. I. p. 212.
    $\dagger$ Hence it is also constanly called adjective in the Vocabulary.

[^8]:    * ef. Becker II. §. 215 ,

