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# NOTES

TOWARDS A

# SECOANA GRAMMAR

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# NOTES

TOWARDS A

# SECOANA GRAMMAR.

COLLECTED BY

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CANON AND CHANCELLOR OF BLOEMFONTEIN CATHEDRAL.

SECOND EDITION.



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## PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

In 1864, the Rev. J. Fredoux, of the Paris Missionary Society, published at Capetown a short tract entitled, "A Sketch of the Sechuana Grammar." Though only extending over twelve pages, this little book contained the key to the whole subject. M. Fredoux's lamented death deprived Secoana students of a master singularly able and observant. His book soon became out of print, and in 1880 the task fell to the present writer of drawing out more at length the lines already given, and of adding to them such further knowledge as continued use of the language had contributed. In the present edition a few errors have been corrected, and some additional information supplied. The Serolong dialect has been usedthroughout.

BLOEMFONTEIN, September, 1885

# NOTES

TOWARDS A

# SECOANA GRAMMAR.

# I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

T. THE Secoana Language has 34 sounds, which are represented by the following letters:—

#### VOWELS.

a pre	nounce	l as a in	Englis	sh in hard	Examples. ba, they.
e	31	a	***	in able	gó betsa, to beat.
é	"	i	22	in win	péló, heart.
è	22	a	71	in spare	gó èma, to stand.
i	0.0	ee	22	in see	gó bina, to dance.
ō.	13	ou	**	in ought	gó bona, to see.
0	,,,	0	**	in no	motse, lown.
6	**	u	27	in put	pélő.
n	**	u	33	in rule	go ruta, to teach.
			Con	SONANTS.	
b pro	nounced	as b in			baha, enemies.
4.96		37 377	Dutch	in mader	no fola to recover

<sup>\*</sup> This letter should be slightly aspirated. In the Setlhapiñ dialect it is a pure h. In some other dialects it is pronounced as bh, which was probably its primitive sound, since further on it will be found to be capable of permutation into ph.

l l befo	re i or s	l as k in l represe d as m in	nts a lic	quid d sound	ka, by. lé, and. lilō, things. mashi, milk.
n	10	n	25		nare, a buffalo.
p	.55	P	92	400000	pitsa, a pot.
r	,,	T	23	in rude	rona, we.
S	21	S	,,	in see	selo, a thing.
t	**	t -	. 12		tau, a lion.
y	35	j in	French	in Jacques	yaka, as.
C *	**	ch ir	Englis	sh in cheese	go cóma, to hunt.
g	**	g in	Dutch	in gaan	gapè, again.

#### COMBINATIONS.

ny pro	nounced as	gn in	French	in seigneur	'nya, no.
sh	23	sh in	English	in shall	go shupa, to point.
11	10	tl	"	in bottle	tlala, hunger.
ts	111	ts	55	in pots	tsela, a path.
ñ	**	ng	**	in ring	en? what?

#### ASPIRATED CONSONANTS.

ch c fo	llowed by	y an aspiration	chaka, a battle-axe.
kh k	"	35	khuti, a hollow place.
ph p th t	22	22	phéfo, wind.
	22	111	thata, hard.
tlh tl	***	**	leitlhō, an eye.
The state of the s	13 h	y a quittural	
tsh ts	11		letsha, a lake. kgomó, an ox.

NOTE.—The following examples will show how necessary it is to master the distinction between the unaspirated and aspirated consonants.

Go cola, to take off a nether garment.
Go pota, to pass on one side.
Go photha, to thresh.
Go thala, to rule lines.
Go thatsa, to fill.
Go thatsa, to vomit.
Tsela, a path.
Kaba, a fan. Khaba, The Modder River.
Go kçaba, to adorn one's self.

- 2. When one vowel follows another, usually each must be distinctly sounded; e.g. lonao, a foot; go bua, to speak; tiègo, delay. O before a, e, and i has sometimes a diphthongal sound somewhat like w in English; e.g. go shoa, to die; koatlhao, a punishment; go noèla, to sink; loroé,
- \* Cheese is perhaps the least aspirated ch which English can supply; great care must be taken to pronounce c without any aspiration.



red ants. Words in which o comes before a, e, and i, and in which both vowels are distinctly sounded, should be written as follows:—Moköa, a heap; boböi, cowardice. When the three vowels aea come together, as in the words go tsamaea, to go away; go baea, to place; they are sounded as aiah in Isaiah.

In pronouncing, each syllable must be divided at the vowel; e.g. tha-mo, a neck, not tham-o. The accent is always on the penultima, except when the word ends with  $\bar{n}$ , as in bonañ (see); then the last syllable is very decidedly emphasized. When a sentence contains two or more consecutive monosyllabic words, the first of the two, or of each two, is emphasized; e.g. Ga ke e se ke be ke eè go ya teñ, I have never yet been to eat there. So also when a monosyllable ends a sentence the emphasis is thrown back on to the vowel of the preceding word; e.g. Kea sha, I am burning; Ba tla shoa, They will die.

Emphasis has much to do with distinguishing between many Secoana words. The student is recommended to ask a native to pronounce carefully for him the following:—Go fula kubu, to shoot at a hippopotamus, and go fula louño, to pluck fruit; Ke mothó, I am a man, and Ke mothó, It is a man; A o botlhókó? Are you sick? and A o botlhókó? Is he sick? or to try and master the differences in accents and emphasis in the following words:—Go tlóla, to jump; go tlhóla, to conquer; go tlóla, to anoint; go tlhōla, to remain

for a day; go tlhola, to spy; go tlhola, to create.

3. Of the consonants, some are *soft* and others *hard*, as shown below; and, according to fixed rules, those of the former class are often permuted into those of the latter.

Soft.	Hard.	Examples of Permutation.			
b	p ph	go bona, to see; go femèla, to defend;	pono, a sight. phemelo, defence.		
g h	kg kh	logata, a skull;	likgata, skulls. khumō, wealth.		
1	1	go lopa, to request;	topo, a request.		
T	th	lorakô, a wall;	lithako, walls.		
sh	tsh	go sila, to grind; go shólófela, to hope;	tshílō, a grindstone, chólófèlō, hope.		

Besides this rule of initial, a principle of final permutation is observable, which is described at length in the Appendix.

4. When s or ts comes before o the former is changed into sh and the latter into c; e.g. tishō (the herding), instead of tiso, from gó lisa (to herd); picō (the calling), instead of pitsō, from gó bitsa, to call.

5. When the syllable mo occurs before b, o and b are elided, and the m sound is prolonged; e.g. Kea 'mona (I see him), instead of Kea mo bona. Again, when o occurs between m and f it is elided; e.g. Kea mfeta (I pass him), instead of Kea mo feta.

# II. ETYMOLOGY.

#### I. NOUNS.

6. Secoana Nouns have no genders. Their numbers are shown by prefixes attached to them, some of which are singular and others plural. The following table shows these prefixes, the classifying figures used here and elsewhere being those used in Dr. Bleek's tables:—

	Prefi	xes.	Examples.			
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.		
1,	mo, personal		mosali, woman;	basali, women.		
3.	mo, of things	4. me	motse, town;	metse, towns.		
5.	le	6. ma	leina, name;	maina, names.		
7.	se	8. li	setlhare, tree;	lithare, trees.		
11.		10. li 6. ma (rare)	lonaō, foot ; louñō, fruit ;	linaō, feet. mauñō, fruits.		
14.	bo	6. ma	bosigo, night;	masigo, nights.		
		10. li	pitsé, horse;	lipitsé, horses.		
1.	no prefix	2. bo	mamathoane, bat;	bo'mamathoane,		

To express multitude, as of trees, animals, etc., the prefixes me and li are often supplanted by ma; e.g. mothoare, an olive tree; methoare, olive trees; mathoare, many olive trees; nku, a sheep; linku, sheep; manku, many sheep. In this there is a tendency, where it can be done, towards softening the initial consonant of the noun; e.g. pitsé, a horse; lipitsé, horses; mabitsé, many horses; tshèphè, a springbok; litshèphè, springboks; masèphè, many springboks.

When the prefix lo is placed before a word beginning with a soft consonant, and the prefix for the plural is to

be *li*, the *soft* consonant is changed into the corresponding hard letter; e.g.—:

Lolala, a mill;	Plural, litala.	
Lofafa, a feather;	liphafa,	
Lobone, a candle;	, liponè.	
Logopō, a rib;	, likgopō	
Loselo, a sieve;	, litshelo.	

Should the radical be a monosyllable, an n is interposed between the prefix and the permuted consonant; e.g. loli, a cord; linti, cords; loshó, death; linchó, deaths. Before p m

is interposed; e.g. lobu, brack ground; pl. limpu.

Under the head of 9, no prefix, will come all words beginning with c, k, n, p, t; e.g. chaka, a battle-axe, pl. lichaka; kóbō, a kaross, pl. likóbō; kgosi, a chief, pl. likgosi; khuti, a hollow, pl. likhuti; ñaka, a doctor, pl. liñaka; nōtō, a hammer, pl. linōtō; nyalo, a wedding, pl. linyalo; péla, a cony, pl. lipéla; pocō, a question, pl. lipocō; phōkō, a hegoat, pl. liphōkō; telo, a cry, pl. litelo: thaga, a sparrow.

pl. lithaga.

Words expressing relationship form their plural by prefixing bo to the singular; e.g. kgantsaliè, his sister; bokgantsaliè, his sisters; 'raecho, our father; bo'raecho, our fathers. Bo (No. 1, no prefix) is also prefixed to form the plural of many words which refer to the smaller kinds of animals; e.g. samane, a meer cat, pl. bosamane; lobolu, a chameleon, pl. bolobolu; kgantlapane, a lizard, pl. bokgantlapane. Again, bo is commonly prefixed to a proper noun, as a collective plural; e.g. Bo-Yohane, John and his companions.

The infinitive of the verb is often used as a noun; a plural is sometimes formed by adding ma to the verb (dropping the infinitival go) and changing the final a to o; e.g. go ea (to go), a going; maeo, goings; go tla (to come), a coming; matlo, comings; go coa (to come forth); maco, comings forth; go booa (to return), a returning; maboo, returnings.

The following are some irregular plurals:-

Noaga, a year; Noana, a child; Plural, linyaga.



Fèlo, a place;	Plural,	mafèlo.
Lekoto, a leg;		maoto.
Lechofa, an aperture :		marofa.
Lechóó, a paw;		maróó.
Lesapo, a bone;	**	marapõ.
Lecogo, an arm;	**	mabogo.
Lecoéle, a fist;	4.5	mabole,
Lesaka, a kraal;	12	maraka.
Lesama, a cheek;	111	marama.
Letsatsi, a day;	100	malatsi.
Letsèlè, a breast;	**	mabèlè.
Leitlho, an eye;	33	matlho.
Leino, a tooth;		mènō.
Locto, a journey;	**	liketo.
Moñ, a master;	,,	beñ.
Mocoana;		Becoana.
Mmaba, an enemy;	"	baba.
Ntló, a house;	"	matló.
Bupi, meal;		maupi.

In some nouns in the singular an elision, in accordance with the rule given in § 5, has taken place. These in the plural retain the elided consonant; e.g.—

```
'Melé (contracted from mobele), a body; Plural, mebelé.
'Mutla, a hare;
'Mila, a waggon-road; mebila.
'Mópi, a maker; babópi.
'Mala, colour; mebala.
```

7. There are no declensions in the Secoana language. Prepositions, particles, derivative forms of the verb, supply the place of inflections. There is, however, what has been called a locative case. It occurs after the prepositions mo, fa, koa, and kafa, whether expressed or understood. To the last vowel of the word is then added n, and if that vowel be broad it becomes acute, if acute still more acute. Again, should that vowel be a it is changed into e, and if è into i; e.g.—

Lonaō, foot; Molomo, mouth; Peló, heart; Seliba, a well; Mosèmè, a mat; Setthare, a tree; 'Melé, a body; Mo lonaoñ, In the foot.
Mo molomóñ, In the mouth.
Mo peluñ, In the heart.
Fa selibeñ, By the well.
Fa mosemeñ, By the mat.
Mo sellharéñ, On the tree.
Mo 'meliñ, In the body.



A few words do not decline; e.g. Koa gae, At home; Koa masimo, To the gardens; Fa moyako, At the door; mo 'isho

(contraction of leisho), On the hearth.

In the case of a proper noun (or pronoun) being governed by mo, koa, etc., go is interposed between the preposition and the noun, and no inflection occurs; e.g. E is koa go Peterose, Take it to Peter; E nne mo go rona, Let it stay among us.

When a noun ends with  $\tilde{n}$ , the locative is formed by adding ye; e.g. boya $\tilde{n}$ , grass; Mo boya $\tilde{n}$ , grass; In the grass (sometimes one hears Mo boyanye $\tilde{n}$ ); kga $\tilde{n}$ , a dispute; mo

kganye, In the dispute.

When the infinitive of the verb is used as a noun the locative case is formed as follows:—Kafa go rate# ga gago,

According to your will.

8. The genitive is expressed by a particle placed between the two nouns, like of in English. This particle will be found to be connected by alliteration with the personal pronoun, and, like it, is ruled by the prefix of the first noun, being different for different prefixes, as shown below—

				Singular,
0	refix	tes.	Particles.	Examples.
1	. 3.	mo	oa	Moruti oa me, My teacher (literally, The teacher of me).
	5.	le	ya	Leseli ya letsatsi, The light of the sun.
	7.	se	sa	Sebété sa kgomó, The liver of an ox.
	11.	lo	loa	Lofafa loa nche, The feather of an ostrich.
	14.	bo	ya	Bogalé ya tau, The anger of a lion.
	9.	wantin		Thipa ea gagoè, his knife (literally, The knife of him).
	1.	wantin	g oa	'Mamathoane oa ntló, The bat of the house.
				Plural.
	2.	ba	ba	Banna ba motse, The men of the town.
	4.	me	ea	Metse ea bone, Their towns (literally, The towns of them).
	6.	ma	2	Mafókó a kgosi, The words of the king.
	10.	li	tsa	Likgomó tsa Becoana, The oxen of the Becoana.
	2,	bo		Bo'mamathoane ba sekgoa, The bats of the wood.

When the infinitive of a verb is used as a noun, the

genitival particle is ga; e.g. go rata, to will; Go rata ga me, My will. Two other words, fèlo and golo, both meaning place, take ga for their genitival particle; e.g. Fèlo ga me, or

Golo ga me, My place. (See § 19.)

When the possessive case refers to a proper name, or to a noun of relationship, or to the interrogatory pronoun mañ (who or whom), ga is inserted between the genitival particle and the noun; e.g. Thipa ea ga Yohane, John's knife; Molamu oa ga rrè, My father's stick; Ke lokoalo loa ga mañ? Whose letter is it?

When the possessive case refers to a thing possessed by others in common with the person to whom it relates, a collective form of the possessive particle (see § 15) is used; e.g. Kgomó eo rrè, My father's ox; Nku eo malomè, My uncle's sheep; Pitsé eo nkgololè, My elder brother's horse; kgomó coo rrè, My father's cattle; Lipóli coo malomè, My uncle's goats; Lipitsé coo nkgololè, My elder brother's horses.

9. Formation of Nouns.-Many, if not most, Secoana

nouns are derived from verbs.

Personal Nouns are formed from verbs by prefixing mo to the root and changing the final vowel into i. Words of this class agree in signification with English verbal nouns in er; i.e. they denote the author of the action expressed by the verb; e.g. moagi, a builder, from go aga, to build; morèki, a buyer, from go rèka, to buy, etc. In such words, broad vowels of the verb become acute; i.e. \(\tilde{o}\) is changed into o, \(\tilde{e}\) into e; e.g. go \(\tilde{o}ka\), to betray, mooki, a betrayer; go \(\tilde{e}ta\), to travel, moeti, a traveller.

Nouns denoting the action of doing the thing signified by the verb are formed, without a prefix, by changing the final vowel into  $\bar{o}$ ; e.g. choar $\bar{o}$ , the action of seizing, from go choara, to seize; thhaban $\bar{o}$ , the action of fighting, from go thhabana, to fight, etc. When the word begins with a soft consonant this is changed into the hard letter corresponding to it, and when it begins with a vowel, a k is prefixed.

Examples are appended of both these rules.

Go bina, to dance; Go fosa, to miss; pino, a dancing. phosho, a miss.



Go gama, to milk;
Go huma, to become rich;
Go leba, to look at;
Go ruta, to teach;
Go seba, to whisper;
Go shupa, to point;
Go ama, to touch;
Go èma, to stand;
Go ina, to dip;

kgamō, a miking. khumō, riches. tebō, a gase. thutō, a teaching. tshèbō, a whispering. chupō, a pointing. kamō, a touch. kèmō, a standing. kinō, a dipping.

Sometimes nouns thus formed denote an instrument or a tool with which the action is performed; e.g. go róka, to

sew; thókō, an awl.

By still changing the final a into o, and prefixing mo, lo, bo, or se, other nouns are formed. When the prefix is bo, the idea of state or condition expressed in English by the affixes ness, ity, etc., is conveyed; e.g. bonolo, meekness; botseno, madness; boikokobeco, humility; boichoko, endurance.

Se is often found as a personal prefix, e.g. senatla, a clever person; secoéréré, a neat person. Personal nouns denoting misfortune especially take se for their prefix; e.g. sefofu, a blind man; sechoaro, a captive; setsèno, a mad man, etc.

Nouns can be formed from all adjectives by prefixing bo; Bonchó, blackness, from nchó, black; bontsi, multitude, from ntsi, many; bontlè, beauty, from ntlè, beautiful. When the initial consonant of the adjective (without a prefix) can be softened, such a permutation must be made; e.g. choeu, white, boshoeu, whiteness; kgoló, great, bogoló, greatness.

10. The diminutive of nouns is formed by adding ana or nyana to the word; e.g. ntló, a house, ntloana, a little house; bogobe, porridge, bogobenyana, a little porridge. When the noun ends with a, this is elided; e.g. sekgoa, a wood, sekgoana, a coppice.

In some cases the last consonant is permuted, in accordance with the principle of final permutation detailed in

the Appendix; e.g.—

Thèbè, a shield; Diminutive, thèyana, Kgōlé, a thong; ,, kgoyana. Setlhare, a tree; ,, setlhatshana. Lomōta, a trench; ,, lomōcana. Molapō, a river; ,, molacoana.

Tshephe, a springbok;	Diminutive,	tshèchoana.
Póli, a goat;	33	pótsane.
Noana, a child;	111	ñoanyana.
Lolémé, a tongue;	49	loleñoana.
Kgomó, an ox;	99	kgoñoana.

Since the genitival particle and all pronouns (see Paradigm on page 12) are determined by the prefix of the noun, it is often possible to omit the prefix. So one often hears 'atla sa me (my hand), instead of seatla sa me; 'itlhō ye le yosi (the single eye), instead of leitlhō ye le yosi; kgomō tsa gago (your oxen), instead of likgomó tsa gago.

#### 2. PRONOUNS.

Since the Pronouns in Secoana serve to connect the sub stantive with the adjective, it is necessary to treat of them before the latter.

11. The Paradigm on the next page contains the personal and demonstrative pronouns, both singular and plural, and also the genitival particles.

The following are exceptions:-

Nouns of relationship require the pronouns of sequence No. 1. (mo personal), e.g. 'Ragoè o ile, His father has gone; Ke ènè kgantsaliakè, She is my sister; Noana eo o bonakō, This child is clever.

Metsé, water, and mènō, teeth (plural of leinō, and so probably existing in an earlier form as mainō), take sequence No. 6 (ma plural); e.g. Metsé a noka, The water of the stream; Mènō a tau a robegile, The teeth of the lion are broken.

Words in which an elision has taken place (see p. 7) take the pronouns of sequences 1 or 3; e.g. 'Mutla o bolailoe, The hare has been killed; 'Mopi eo o na a bopa pitsa eeo o boetsè koa motsaneñ oa gagoè, The potter who made that pot has returned to his village.

	Emphatic.	Nominative.	Objective before the Verb.	Following the Genitival Particle.	Collec- tive.	Genitival Particle.	Demonstrative.
1st Person, singular ,, plural	nna, I, me rona, chona, we,	ke, kea, ka, n, I re, rea, ra, we	n, m, me re, us	me, ka, (of) me rona, chona (of) us	n, no ro cho		
2nd Person, singular ,, plural	oèna, thou, thee lona, nyena, you	o, oa, thou lo, loa, you	go, thee lo, you	gago, (of) thee lona, nyena	o, oe lo		
3rd Person.  Singular Prefixes.  1. mo, personal  1. wanting  3. mo, of things  5. le  7. se  11. lo  14. bo  9. wanting  15. —  Plural Prefixes.	ènè, he, him  ōnè, it yōnè, ,, shōnè, ,, lōnè ,, eōnè ,, gōnè ,,	o, oa, a, he o, oa, it le, lea, ya se, sea, sa lo, loa bo, boa, ya e, ea go, goa, ga ,,	mo, him o, it le " se " lo " bo " e " go ",	gagoè, (of) kim ōnè, (of) it yōné ;; shōnè ;; lōnè ;; yōnè ;; gōnè ;;	e o yo sho lo yo eo go	oa, of oa ,, ya ,, sa ,, loa ,, ya ,, ea ,, ga ,,	eo, this eoo, that  o ,, oo ,, ye ,, yeo ,, se ,, seo ,, lo ,, loo ,, yo ,, yoo ,, e ,, eeo ,, fa, foo, or mo, moo
2. ba, bo 4. me 6. ma 8. & 10. li	bōnè, they, them eōnè, ", ōnè ", cōnè ",	ba, baa, they e, ea ,, a ,, li, lia, tsa ,,	ba, them e ,, n ,, li ,,	bone, (of) them eone ,, one ,, cone ,,	bo eo o co	ba, of ea ,, a ,, tsa ,,	ba, these bao, those e ,, eo ,, a ,, ao ,, tse ,, tseo ,,

## Of the Emphatic Pronoun.

12. The Emphatic Pronoun is used in such assertions as would be expressed in English by "For my part," or "As far as I am concerned;" e.g. Nna, ka re yalo (literally, I), I said so; Enè, kea mo rata (Him), I love him. Also in such sentences as Ke gōné, It is it; Shōnè, se ntle thata, It is very pretty; Cōnè ke likgomó ruré, Those are something like oxen; A o kaea nna? Do you mean me? Go tla ea oèna, You will go (literally, There will go you); Ke bōnè, It is they. Also after the prepositions mo, koa, le, ka, etc.; e.g. mo go eōnè, in it; koa go bōnè, to them; le oèna, with you; ka ènè, by him.

# Of the Nominative Pronoun.

13. The Nominative Noun and the Verb must always be connected by a pronoun. You cannot say Mosetsana róka, for *The girl sews*, but Mosetsana oa róka (literally, *The girl she sews*); nor Kgomó timetse, for *The ox has strayed*, but Kgomó e timetse.

The Nominative Pronoun, as the foregoing paradigm shows, has mostly two or three forms. The use of one or more of these is determined by the tense of the verb to

which they refer.

#### Examples.

- Motlhañka o tsamaile, The servant (he) has gone. Mosali o na a itumèla, The woman (she) rejoiced. Monna oa mo rata, The man (he) loves him.
- Motse o ka agioa, The town (it) may be built.
   Morafe o no oa ata, The nation (it) increased.
   Molapā oa cha, The river is drying up.
- 14. Bogöbè bo yeloe, The bread has been eaten. Bora bo no ya robèga, The bow was broken. Botshélo boa tshéloa, The drift is being crossed.
  - Sethare se tla reñoa, The tree will be cut down. Sechaba se ne sa phatlalala, The tribe became seattered. Selo sea shoa, The thing is dying.
- Lolapa lo tletse, The court-yard is full.
   Louño ga loa ka loa bucoa, The fruit was not ripe.
   Loli loa kgaoga, The string is coming asunder.



Linku li tla timéla, The sheep will stray.
 Linca li ne tsa bogōla, The dogs barked.
 Lipóli lia mo tshaba, The goats are afraid of him.

The letter n (prefixed to the following word) is used instead of or interchangeably with ke before some tenses of the verb; e.g. Nka lema, I can plough, or Ke ka lema; Ntla gana, I will refuse, or Ke tla gana; Ga nka ka ea, I did not go, or Ga kea ka ka ea; Gore ntle ke koalè, That I may write, or Gore ke tle ke koalè.

After the conjunctions fa (if), and ka (since), etc., the third person nominative pronoun (he) is always a; e.g. Fa a tla, If he comes, not Fa o tla; Ka a tsile, Since he has come, not Ka o tsile.

With the present tense of the verb go tla (to come) a change in the pronoun is made, and we find Kee tla, I am coming; Oe tla, He is coming, Ree tla, Loe tla, Bae tla, Lie tla, etc., instead of Kea tla, Oa tla, Rea tla, Loa tla, Baa tla, and Lia tla.

With the present tense of the verb, when used absolutely, the longest form of this pronoun is used; e.g. Kea rata, I love; and again with the objective pronoun before the verb, e.g. Kea mo rata, I love him; but when the verb is followed by a noun, the first shorter form is used, e.g. Ke rata mali, I love money. When the verb is followed by an adverb, though the object of the sentence be the pronoun before the verb, the shorter nominative pronoun is used; e.g. Kea mo itse, I know him, but Ke mo itse sentle, I know him well.

The first placed of the Personal Nominative Pronouns, when prefixed to pe, forms with the negative the adjective no or none; e.g. Ga go na ope, There is no one; Ga go na morafe ope, There is no nation; Ga a na leina lepe, He has no name; Ga re na sépe, We have nothing; Setlhare seo ga se na louño lope, That tree has no fruit; Ga ba na bogobè bope, They have no bread; Bogosi yoo ga bo na melao epe, That kingdom has no laws; Ga a nna gope, He dwells nowhere; Motse o ga o na bathó bape, This town has no people; Ga go na mafókó ape, There are no news; Lesakana ye ga le na linku lipe, This kraal has no sheep.

When two or more nouns of different prefixes are nominatives to a verb, the pronoun connecting them with the verb should be li; e.g. Molemō oa gagoè, le bonōlō, le bobélónomi, li feta tsa bathó botlhe, His goodness, meekness, and kindness exceed every one's. When two or more nouns of the singular number having the same prefix are nominatives to the verb, the pronoun may be that which would agree with the plural of the said prefix; e.g. Leseli le lefifi ga a choane, Light and darkness are not alike.

# Of the Objective Pronoun.

14. The Objective Pronoun, except when the Emphatic is used objectively as stated above, is always placed before the verb; e.g. Rea mo tlotla, We honour him; O tla bo ya, You will eat it (bogōbè, porridge, being understood); Ke tla se isa kae? Where shall I take it? (selō, a thing, understood); Nka go utloa, I can hear you.

The objective case of the first personal pronoun singular is expressed by prefixing n to the verb; e.g. A oa ntshaba? Do you fear me? As will be seen by the following examples, this in certain cases demands a change in the initial consonant of the verb, in accordance with the rule of

permutation already given.

O tla gana, He will refuse; O tla nkgana, He will refuse me.
Humisa, eurich; Nkhumisa, Eurich me.
Léré, bring; Niéré, Bring me.
Rata, love; Nthata, Love me.
Sebetsa, whisper to; Nishebetsa, Whisper to me.
Nehutèla, move for ; Nehutèla, Move for me.

When the verb begins with a vowel, k is inserted between it and the pronoun n; e.g. alima, lend; nkalima, lend me.

M is prefixed to the permuted consonant instead of n, when the verb begins with b or f; e.g. bitsa, call, mpitsa, call

me; femèla, defend, mphemèla, defend me.

In the third person singular, when mo (him) precedes a verb beginning with b, both o and b are elided and m is prolonged almost to the force of mm; e.g. Ke belitse, I have beaten; Ke mmelitse (or as it is more often written, Ke

'melitse), I have beaten him. When mo precedes a verb beginning with f, the o is elided; e.g. Ke tla feta, I will pass, Ke tla 'mfeta, I will pass him.

# Of the Collective Pronoun.

15. The Collective Pronouns are suffixed to the preposition na (with); e.g. naō, with you; naò, with him; nalō, with you; nabō, with them; naō, nayō, nashō, nalō, naeō, nacō, with it, or with them, the distinction depending on the nouns with which the pronouns agree. The collective pronouns when prefixed to the and si form respectively the adjectives all or the whole, and only, alone, or self. The following examples are given:—

#### Collective with the.

Rona rotlhe, all we.
Lona lotthe, all ye.
Motse otlhe, all the town.
Lerumo yotlhe, the whole spear.
Selèpè shotlhe, all the axe.
Lofeèlo lotlhe, the whole broom.
Bogobè yotlhe, all the porridge.

Thipa evilhe, the whole knife. Fèlo gotthe, the whole place. Bathó botthe, all people. Metse eotthe, all towns. Malatsi otthe, all days. Lilō cotthe, all things.

#### Collective with si.

Ke nna ka nosi, It is I myself. Ke tsile ke le nosi, I have come alone. A o tla tla ka oesi? Will you come yourself? Re tla ea re le rosi, We will go alone. Ke lona losi ba lo ka ean, You are the only ones that can go. Ke bone bosi, It is they alone. O tsile ka esi, He has come himself. Ke yone lerumo yosi, That is the only spear. Ke shone shosi, It is the very thing. Loselo loo ke lone ka losi, That sieve is the very one. Ke yele bogobe yosi, I have eaten the porridge only. A thipa e ke cone cosi? Is this the only knife? Batho ba tsile ka bosi, The people have come themselves. Ke cone mecocli cosi, Those are the only fountains. Mafókó osi, The only words. Mafókó ao ka osi, The same words. Linku li tsile li le cosi, The sheep have come alone.

It has been remarked that the Emphatic Pronouns are formed by adding ne or na to the conjunctive.

The use of this collective form in the possessive case has been pointed out in § 8; its use, with the numeral adjective, will be found in § 33; it is sometimes used with the verb, as follows:—Moroaoè o na a nyala malōba, 'me bathó ba gagoè boo ba le teñ, His son was married the day before yesterday, and all his people were there, Yohane le Peterose boo ba le gōnè, Both John and Peter were there. In pronouncing it, the o should be prolonged. Probably it would be correct to write evotlhe, bootlhe, noosi.

## Of the Demonstrative Pronoun.

16. Besides the Demonstrative Pronouns shown in the paradigm, the pronoun that is formed by adding le to the first-placed demonstrative pronoun. This form is mostly used to distinguish by distance; e.g. Bathó bale, Those people (yonder); Nnaea thipa ele, Give me yonder knife. Also to express comparison of distance, as in the following dialogue:

—A o bōna setlhare seo? Do you see that tree? A o raca seo sa motlhoare? Do you mean that one, the olive? 'Nya, sele, sa molibonoka, No, that further one, the willow.

In this longer form, the vowel should be prolonged in pronunciation, almost to the extent of doubling the sound,

as baale, seele, eele.

The demonstrative this is often formed by adding no to the first-placed demonstrative in the paradigm; e.g. Mo sekgoeň seno, In this wood (in which I am); Ka tsatsi yeno, On this (present) day; Mo tluň eno, In this house (in which I am). This form is often put in opposition to that formed by adding le, described above; e.g. Moseya ono oa noka, This side of the stream; Moseya ole oa molapō, That side of the river. The two forms given in the paradigm, o, this; oo, that, etc., seem to have the distinguishing idea of on this hand and on that hand, while one and ole have that of here and yonder.

# Of the Relative Pronoun.

17. There is no special form for the Relative Pronoun in Secoana; its place is supplied by the first-placed de-



monstrative, followed sometimes immediately, at others more remotely, by the personal pronoun, whether emphatic, nominative, objective, or possessive, as the phrase may demand.

Examples: With the Emphatic after a Particle.

Bathó ba ke tsileñ le bônê, The people with whom I came.

Tihobolo e ke fulileñ ka eônê, The gun with which I shot.

Monna eo ke tla rekañ pitsé mo go ènê, The man from whom I shall buy a horse.

With the Nominative.

Batlhanka ba ba nkitseñ, The servants who know me.

Lekau ye le lemileñ tshimō, The young man who has dug the garden.

Linku tse li timetseñ, The sheep which have strayed.

#### With the Objective.

Moroetsana eo ke mo ratañ, The damsel whom I love. Pelesa e ke tla e kgoetsañ, The pack-ox which I shall drive. Molelo o re o tukisitseñ, The fire which we have kindled.

#### With the Possessive.

Kgosi e lefatshé e leñ ya eōnè, The chief whose country it is. Selō se ke buañ kaga shōnè, The thing of which I speak. Mocñ eo pitsé ea gagoe e latlhegileñ, The stranger whose horse is lost.

### Sentences with a Double Relative.

- Ke ènè EO mogoma o ke lemañ ka ōnè e leñ oa GAGOÈ, literally, It is he who the pick which I dig with it is of him.
- Pitsa E E thubegileñ ke e mosetsana o na a e rèka ñogola, literally, The pot which is smashed is that which the girl bought it last year.
- Petsana E rrè o E go neilen ke e malomagoè o na a e mo naea maloha, literally, The foal which my father he has it you given is that which his uncle he it him gave the day before yesterday.
- In sentence No. 1, EO is demonstrative with GAGOE, possessive after oa; o is demonstrative with one emphatic after ka.
  - No. 2. E E are demonstrative and nominative; e is demonstrative with e objective.
  - No. 3. E is demonstrative with E objective; e is demonstrative with e objective.

It will be noticed that in the above examples the verb ends in  $\bar{n}$ ; the relative phrase mostly demands this. (See § 50.)

When the first and second personal pronouns are used in a relative sentence, the demonstratives of the third person, whether singular or plural, are used; e.g. Nna eo ke builen.

1 who have spoken; Oèna eo o mo thusitseñ, You who have helped him; Rona ba re sa choanelañ, We who are unworthy; Lona ba lo rekileñ, Ye who have bought.

### The Interrogative Pronoun.

18. The following are the Interrogative Pronouns:-

Eñ, or ñ? what? Mañ (sing.), bomañ (plur.)? who? Fe? which?

En is used with the auxiliary, substantive, and other verbs; e.g. Ke en? What is it? See se ke en? What is this thing? See se o se bitsa en? What do you call this thing?

N is suffixed to the verbs; e.g. O batlan? What do you seek? O tshaban? What do you fear? O lirilen? What

have you done?

N is also suffixed to the genitival particle; e.g. Lokoalo loan? A writing of what? See se ke san? What is this a thing of? (i.e. What does it belong to or form a part of?) Ke boyaloa yan? What kind of wine is it? Ke mothala oan? What is it the spoor of?

Mañ and bomañ are used as follows:—Ke boman? Who are they? Ntló e agiloe ke mañ? By whom has the house been built? Thipa e ke ea ga mañ? Whose knife is this?

Mañ is sometimes used to supply the relative pronoun; e.g. Ga ke itsé gore ke tla bitsa mañ, I do not know whom I shall call (literally, I do not know that I shall call whom).

Fe? (which?) is affixed to the personal nominative pronouns; e.g., Mothó ofe? Which man? Molapō ofe? Which rivulet? Lecōgō lefe? Which arm? Seliba sefe? Which fountain? Loètō lofe? Which journey? Bogōbè bofe? Which perridge? Namane efe? Which calf? Fèlō gofe? Which place? Banna bafe? Which men? Mesamō efe? Which pillows? Mafókó afe? Which words? Lilō life? Which things?

The difference of meaning in the above interrogatory forms may be illustrated best by the example of a key (selotlolo). A man finding a key, and being entirely ignorant of its use, might ask, Seo se ke en? What is this thing?

But if, knowing its use, he wanted to know to what lock it belonged, he might ask, Selotlolo se ke sañ? What is this the key of? Lastly, if in a bunch of keys he wanted to know which belonged to a certain lock, he would ask, Ke selotlolo sefe? Which key is it?

# Of the Indefinite Pronoun.

19. Pronouns No. 15 in the paradigm are used indefinitely, i.e. to express it is, there is, etc.; e.g. Go siamé, It is right; Go molemō, It is good; Go ntlè, It is nice; Go kgakala, It is far; Go tla ea mañ? Who will go? (liferally, There will go who?) Go tla itsé ènè, He will know (literally, There will know he); Go ntsé yalo, It is so; Ga goa nna yalo, It is not so; Go no ga nna yalo, It was so; Ga goa ka ga nna yalo, It was not so; Ke gōnè, It is it; A go nnè yalo, Let it be so; Go se ka ga nna yalo, or A go se nnè yalo, Let it not be so. One often meets with such expressions as Ga lirala, It came to pass; Ga tla mothó, There came a person; Ga bua ènè, He spake (literally, There spake he). These are only shortened forms of Go no ga lirala, Go no ga tla, Go no ga bua, etc.

When the infinitive mood of the verb is used as a noun, sequence No. 15 is used as its pronoun and genitival particle. Go tla ga gagoè, His coming (literally, to come of him); Go rata mo go siamen, A right will (literally, to will which

right).

So, too, with the different adverbs formed by conjunction with the pronouns; e.g. gotlhe, altogether; Ga go na gope koa o ka ean gone, There is nowhere where he can go; Ke

gofe? Which (place) is it?

The last two examples refer to place, and probably in these, golo, or fèlo (a place), is understood. Both these words agree with sequence No. 15, but with this difference, that fèlo takes fa and foo for its demonstratives, while golo takes mo and moo. A few examples of these words are given. Ga re na fèlo fa re ka agañ gonè, We have no place where we can live; Fèlo foo ke fèlo fa go mashoe, That place is a bad place; Ke golo mo pula e sa neñ gonè, It is

a place where rain does not fall; Golo moo ga go na boyañ,

That place has no grass.

20. When the personal possessive pronouns my, yours, and his refer to something which is possessed by a person in common with others, the following form is used:—Ga echo, mine; ga eno, yours; ga gabo, his; e.g. koa ga echo, at my (home); koa ga eno, at your's; koa ga gabo, at his.

So also, Mothó oa echo, A person of my kindred; or the plural, Bathó ba echo. Sometimes a still shorter form is used, as follows:—Bathó becho, my people; litsala tsecho, my friends; bathó beno, thy people; litsala tseno, thy friends; pitsé eno, thy horse; pitsé eabo, his horse. When ga is inserted, the pronoun refers to place; e.g. Bathó baecho, People related to me; but Bathó bagaecho, People

who live at the same place as I do.

21. Nouns of relationship contain the possessive idea, and mostly have the pronouns which would ordinarily follow the genitival particle suffixed in a contracted form.

#### Examples.

'Rè, My father, instead of Rara oa me.
'Ragō, Your father', Rara oa gago.
'Ragoè, His father', Raechō, Our father', Rara oa chona.
'Raenō, Your father', Rara oa nyena.
'Rabo, Their father', Rara oa bōnè.

So also, 'mè (better written mmè), my mother, 'mago, your mother, 'magoè, his mother, 'maecho, our mother, 'maeno, your mother, 'mabo, their mother. Again, malomè, my uncle (mother's brother), malomagō, malomagoè; mañoanè, my aunt (mother's younger sister), mañoanagō, mañoanagoè, etc.

Several nouns of relationship form this contraction as follows:—Moroaliake, my daughter (instead of moroali oa ka); moroaliō, your daughter; moroalie, his daughter; mogolole (or nkgolole), my elder brother (mogoloō, mogolöe); nake (short for monnake), my younger brother (monnaō, monnaoè); moroake, my son (moroaō, moroaoè), etc.

Still another form is the following:-Mogatsake, my

spouse; mogaco, your spouse; mogatse, his spouse.

The genitival idea being contained in these nouns, it is not necessary to use any particle in connecting them with other nouns; e.g. mañoana Maria, Mary's aunt; mogatsa

Filipe, Philip's wife; moroa Yakobo, James' son.

22. It will have been noticed that in the above examples the suffixed form of the first person singular pronoun ends in e; e.g. 'rè, 'mè, kgantsaliakè, mogatsakè, etc. But this form is only used when speaking of a person, not to him. In the latter case the pronoun must end in a; e.g. 'ra, 'ma, kgantsaliaka, etc. The same is the case with personal proper names which end in a, such as Pula, Seleka, Lichaba, etc. These, though respectively meaning rain, an adder, and nations, are, with countless others, often given to persons. In speaking to a person whose name ends with a you must say Pula, Seleka, or Lichaba, but you would speak of him as Pule, Seleke, or Lichabe.

## 3. ADJECTIVES.

23. Adjectives are placed after the nouns, and mostly have the prefix of these also attached to them, a pronoun being inserted between the two words; e.g. 'nye, little, 'nye'nye, very little indeed, 'nye'nyane, too little; ntlè, pretty; ntsi, many, ntsintsi, very many, nchó; black, tala, green; tiloli, striped; telele, long; kima, stout; tonna, big.

Mothó eo montlè, a good-looking person.
Bathó ba ba'nye, a few people.
Motse o mo'nye'nye, a very little town.
Metsé a ma'nye'nye'nye, a very little water indeed.
Kgölè e 'nye'nyane, too small a thong.

Setlhare se sentle, a tretty tree.

Linonè tse lintsi, many blesboks.
Lipulumo tse lintsintsi, very many
vildebeests.

Boyañ yo botala, green grass.
Pitsé e tiloli, a striped horse.
Setlhake se setelele, a long island.
Logon lo lokima, a stout piece of
wood.

Namane e tonna, a big calf.



The connecting pronouns in the above examples are the demonstratives.

The adjective *noe* means *some* when it follows the noun without the intermediate pronoun, but with the pronoun it means *another* or *other* in the sense of *additional*, e.g.—

Mothó moñoe, some man; Motha moñoe, some time; Leina leñoe, some name; Selèpè señoe, a certain axe; Louño loñoe, some fruit; Bofulo boñoe, some pasture; Thipa ñoe, a certain knife; Fèlo goñoe, a certain place; Bathó bañoe, some people; Mekoa meñoe, some heaps; Matsha mañoe, some lakes; Linku liñoe, some sheep; mothó eo moñoe, another manmotha o moñoe, another time. leina ye leñoe, another name. selèpè se señoe, another axe. louño lo loñoe, another fruit. bofulo yo boñoe, another pasture. thipa e ñoe, another haife. felo fa goñoe, another place. bathó ba bañoe, other people. meköa e meñoe, other heaps. matsha a mañoe, other lakes. linku tse liñoe, other sheep.

24. When an adjective begins with a hard consonant capable of permutation, this must be changed to its corresponding soft consonant after all the prefixes except li; e.g. tshesane, thin, setlhare se sesesane, a thin tree; lithomesho tse litshesane, thin rafters; but the original form is retained after a noun which lacks a prefix; e.g. thomesho e tshesane, a thin rafter. A few additional examples are given below.

Pitsa e kgoló, a large pot. Mosali eo mogoló, a great woman. Sechaba se segoló, a great tribe. Boleó yo bogoló, great wicked-

ness,
Lipitsa tse líkgoló, large pots.
Lefókó ye legoló, a great word.
Loètő lo logoló, a great journey.
Banna ba bagoló, great fourney.
Melamu e megoló, great clubs.
Matlhō a magoló, great eyes.
Thipa e ncha, a new knife.
Leina ye lesha, a new knives.
Leina ye lesha, a new name.
Boyañ yo bosha, new grass.
Khai e tshetlha, a yellow cloth.

Mosésé o mosetlha, a yellow petti-

Kgomó e choeu, a white ox.
Seatla se seshoeu, a white hand.
Mothó eo moshoeu, a white person.
Taka e khibilu, red pipeclay.
Louño lo lohibilu, a red fruit.
Mabōgō a mahibilu, red arms.
Petsana e khunou, a brown foal.
Mogatla o mohunou, a brown tail.
Kgomó e pululu, a grey ox.
Moriri o 'mululu, grey hair.
Tshipi e potlana, a small iron.
Sebété se sebotlana, a small liver.
Lilō tse lipotlana, small things.
Noana eo 'motlana, a small child.

25. Some adjectives are connected with the noun by

means of the demonstrative and nominative pronouns, and are not affected by the prefix of the noun; e.g. mosimane eo o loshōkō, an impudent boy; kgosi e e matsetselekō, a prudent chief; mothó eo o mashoè, an ugly person; likhai tse li lotsatsa, thin cloths; bogōbè yo bo monate, nice porridge; lekau ye le mafatla, a bald youth; pōō e e tlhaga, a wild bull.

In at least one case, that of sele (other in the sense of different from), only the nominative is used as the connecting pronoun; e.g. mothó o sele, a different person; mokgoa o sele, a different custom; lilō li sele, other things.

26. Nouns also may be connected with other nouns by the demonstrative and nominative pronouns and used as adjectives as in the case of molemo, goodness; thata, strength; bogalé, anger; boshula, evil; bonolo, meekness, etc.; e.g. motho eo o molemo, a good man; selèpè se se thata, a strong axe; nca e e bogalé, an angry dog; lipéló tse li boshula, evil hearts; banna ba ba bonolo, meek men. Sometimes the genitival particle is used instead of the pronouns; e.g. motho oa boikgogomosho a proud person; mosali oa motlholagali, a widow woman.

Verbs, especially the intransitive, are constantly used as adjectives in a quasi participial way; e.g. mosali eo o cofetseñ, an old woman (literally, a woman who has become old); puō e e boitshegañ, a terrible saying (literally, a saying

which is terrible).

27. Adjectives, like nouns, form a diminutive by adding ana or nyana; e.g. mothó, eo 'motlanyana, a very little man; mosali eo moshoeunyana, a rather light-coloured woman;

kgōlè e tshesanyane, a very thin thong.

Here again a permutation of consonants takes place, similar to that noticed in describing the diminutive of nouns; e.g. mothó eo mokhutshane, a small person; mothó eo mokhuthoanyane, a very small person.

The feminine of cattle is expressed by adding this di-

minutive to the adjective of colour; e.g.-

Kgomó e phachoa, a black and white ox, fem. kgomó e phachoana. Pitsé e tiloli, a striped horse, fem. pitsé e tilotsana.



Kgomó e pululu, a grey ox, fem. kgomó e pulucoana. Pitsé e choeu, a white horse, fem. pitsé e choana.

Ncho (black) loses its n in the feminine; e.g. pitsé e

nchó, a black horse; pitsé e choana, a black mare.

28. Adverbs are formed from many adjectives by prefixing se, the permutation taking place as given in § 24, ncha, new, sesha, anew; ntlè, nice, sentlè, nicely; kgoló,

great, segoló, greatly.

29. There is no comparison of adjectives in Secoana. Instead, the adverb bogoló (especially) is often used as follows:—Pitsé e, e thata bogoló go eeo, literally, This horse is strong rather than that one; but it is better Secoana to use the verb go feta (to pass), and to say, Pitsé e, e thata go feta eeo, This horse is strong, surpassing that one; or Pitsé e, e feta eeo ka bothata, This horse surpasses that one in strength.

If you wish to put a question as to comparison, you may ask it as follows, Fa go le Yohane, go le Peterose, bogoló o rata ofe? Which do you prefer of John and Peter? The verb go gaisa (to excel) is also used to express comparison of worth; e.g. Louño lo, lo monate thata, go gaisa loo, literally, This fruit is very sweet, excelling that. To express the superlative, the following form will be used:—Noana eo, o ithuta sentle go feta bana botlhe, This child learns nicely, surpassing all the children; or Noana eo, o gaisa bana botlhe ka go ithuta, This child excels all the children in learning.

The idea of intensity is often obtained by repetition, see example in § 23 of 'nye, 'nye'nye, and 'nye'nye'nye; and of ntsi, ntsi-ntsi. So also kgolo makes kgolo-golo (very old),

and also its adverb bogoló-goló (very long ago).

#### 4. NUMERALS.

30. The Becoana of old counted on their fingers, beginning always with the little finger of the left hand, crossing over from thumb to thumb, and completing the ten with the little finger of the right hand.



The following are the names of these numbers :-

Cardinal,	Ordinal.
I. Noe.	Ntlha.
2. Peli.	Bobeli.
3. Tharo.	Boraro.
4. Nnè.	Bonè.
5. Tlhano.	Botlhano.
6. Thataro.	Borataro.
Tshélèla.	Botshélèla.
7. Shupa.	Boshupa.
8. Fera (or rōba) menoana e le mebeli.	Boferañ-'meli. }
Shorter form-Fera 'meli, or )	
9. Fera (or roba) monoana o le	Boferañ-moñoe.
moñoe, or fera moñoe and roba moñoe.	Borobañ-moñoe.
10. Shóme.	Leshómè.

Several of the above forms refer to the practice of finger-counting. Ntlha (a point) refers to the thin-tipped little finger which expresses it. Tshélèla is from go tshéla (to cross over), for in denoting six you must cross over to the thumb of the right hand. Shupa is from go shupa (to point out), as to it is assigned the pointing finger, viz. the first right-hand finger. Fera and rôba are also verbs, meaning respectively to fold down and to break off. So eight is signified by holding up the right hand, with the third and fourth fingers (menoana e le mebeli, two fingers) folded down, and nine with the little finger only folded down.

The rule as to prefix and permutation already given in § 24 applies also to the Numerals, but only peli, tharo, and thataro are affected by it. Nnè, as will be observed in the ordinal, drops an n after a prefix. Tshélèla, shupa, fera, and rōba, are verbs, and must be treated of separately.

31. When used in an assertive sentence, such as Matló matlhano, The houses are five, it is sufficient to affix to the numeral adjective the prefix of the noun with which it agrees, and in the case of a noun which has no prefix simply to add the numeral.

#### Examples.

Tséla ñoe-fèla, The road is one only.
Basali babeli, The women are two.
Likgomó tharo, The oxen are three.
Melapō menè, The rivers are four.
Litlhapi tlhano, The fish are five.
Maraka marataro, The kraals are six.
Baroetsana bashómè, The maidens are ten.

The *verbal* numerals in an assertive sentence are connected with the noun by the nominative pronoun, in accordance with the rule given in § 13, paragraph 6; e.g.—

Linamane lia tshélèla, The calves are six.

Melaó ea shupa, The laws are seven.

Marapō a fera menoana e le mebeli, The bones are eight.

Litsala li rōba monoana o le moñoe-sela, The friends are nine.

32. When used relatively as adjectives of quantity, the adjectival numerals, if referring to a noun definitely, follow the rule given in § 23, but if indefinitely, they are connected with the noun by the imperfect tense of the substantive verb used participially, as described in § 53.

#### Examples.

Definitely.

Basali ba bararo ba ne ba sila mabele, The three women ground the corn.

Matló a matlhano a na a iteoa ke tlali, The five houses were struck by lightning.

Litau tse tharo li ne tsa bolaea thutloa, The three lions killed a giraffe. Indefinitely.

Basali ba le bararo ba ne ba sila

mabele, Three women (literally, women being three) ground the corn.

Matló a le matlhano a na a iteon ke tlali, Five houses were struck by lightning.

Litau li le tharo li ne tsa bolaea thutloa, Three lions killed a giraffe.

(Note that both here and in the assertive form, nouns of sequences Nos. 9 and 10 are followed by the numeral adjective without any prefix; e.g. Likgomó tharo, not Likgomó litharo; Litau tse tharo, not Litau tse litharo; Litau li le tharo, not Litau li le litharo.

The above distinction is also applied to other adjectives of quantity, e.g. Lecoai ye le'nye'nye, the little salt, but lecoai le le le'nye'nye, a little salt.

The same rule applies to the verbal numerals when used relatively. If they refer to the noun definitely they are connected with it by the demonstrative and nominative pronouns, in accordance with the rule given in \$ 17, but when indefinitely, by the imperfect tense of the verb (minus the auxiliary) used participially. (See § 40.)

Examples.

Definitely.

Litlhomesho tse li tshélelañ li ne tsa sha, The six raflers were burnt.

Makau a a shupañ a na a ea koa morakeñ, The seven young men went to the cattle-post.

Baroa ba ba ferañ-<sup>1</sup>meli ba ne ba fula chukulu, The eight bushmen shot a rhinoceros.

Rasimane ba ba ferañ-moñoe ba ne ba letsa liphala tsa bōne, The nine lads blew their trumpets. Indefinitely.

Litlhomesho li tshélela li ne tsa
sha, Six rafters were burnt.

Makau a shupa a na a ea koa morakeñ, Seven young men went

to the cattle-post.

Baroa ba fera-'meli ba ne ba fula
chukulu, Eight bushmen shot a
rhinoceros.

Basimane ba fera-moñoe ba ne ba letsa liphala tsa bōnè, Nine lads blew their trumpets.

33. A collective form is gained by using the collective pronoun to connect the noun with the adjectival numerals; e.g. Liliba coo peli, Both wells; Bomoroaliè boo beli, Both his daughters; Ba ile boo beli, They have both gone; Re tsile roo beli, We have both come; A lo kgōtshé loo beli? Are you both satisfied? Matlhō oo mabeli, Both eyes; Mecoeli e chele eo mebeli (or eo beli), Both the fountains are dried up.

As will be seen by the last example, beli may be used with or without a prefix; e.g. boo beli or boo babeli, roo beli or roo babeli. Other numbers seem to require the prefix; e.g. Banna bao ke Barolon boo bathano, All those five men are Barolong; A o tsile le mesamo eo meraro? Have you brought all the three pillows? Re tsile roo barataro, We have all six of us come. Shôme does not require the prefix; e.g. Bana ba me ba sa tshélile boo shôme, All my ten children are alive.

The collective form may also be had by prefixing bo to the numeral, and using it after the preposition ka; e.g. Ba shule ka bobeli, They are both dead; O tla li nnaea ka borataro, He will give me all the six; A ba ile naco ka boshome? Have they taken all the ten? And this form may also be applied to the verbal numerals; e.g. Pitsé tsa me li timetse ka boserañ-'meli, All my eight horses have strayed.

34. The following examples will show the different meanings of the three forms of numerals given in sections 31, 32, and 33:—

Assertive.

Likgomó li sale shómè mo 'sakeñ, The oxen are still ten in the kraal.

Relative.

Likgomó-tse li shomè li sale mo 'sakeñ, The ten oxen are still in the kraal.

Collective.

Likgomó li sale coo shòmè mo 'sakeñ, All the ten oxen are still in Likgomó li sale mo 'sakeñ ka boshómè, the kraal.

By prefixing ga to the cardinal numerals an adverbial form is gained; e.g. ganoe-fela, once; gabeli, twice; gararo, thrice; ganè, four times; gatlhano, five times; garataro, six times; gashupa, seven times; gafera-meli, eight times; gafera-monoe, nine times; gashomè, ten times.

35. The ordinals are connected with the noun by means of the genitival particle; e.g. mosali oa ntlha, the first woman; loètō loa bobeli, the second journey; botshélō ya boraro, the third drift; sekgoa sa boshupa, the seventh wood; lehuto ya boferañ-moñoe, the ninth knot; thou ea leshómè,

the tenth elephant.

36. By placing the genitival particle sa (selo, a thing, understood) and loa (lobaka, a space of time, understood) before the ordinal, adverbial forms are gained; e.g. sa ntlha, first; sa bobeli, secondly; sa borataro, sixthly; loa bobeli, the second time; loa bothano, the fifth time; loa-boroban-meli, the eighth time.

37. The multiples of ten form their plural as follows :-

Mashómè a le mabeli, twenty. Mashómè a le mararo, thirty. Mashómè a le marè, forty. Mashómè a le mathano, fifty. Mashómè a le marataro, Mashómè a a tshelelañ, sixty. Mashómè a a shupañ, seventy.

Mashómè a a ferañ menoana e le mebeli, eighty.

Mashómè a a ferañ monoana o le moñoe-fèla, ninety.

Lekgoló, an hundred.

When a number in excess of ten or any other multiple of ten is required, some form of the verb go coa (or moco, its substantive, an excess) is used as follows:—

Leshómè ye le coañ ka boñoe-fèla, } eleven.
Leshómè ye le moco moñoe-fèla, } sixteen.
Leshómè ye le coañ ka borataro, } sixteen.
Leshómè ye le meco e e ferañ-'meli, } eighteen.
Leshómè ye le coañ ka boferañ-'meli, } eighteen.
Mashómè a le mararo a meco mebeli, Mashómè a le mararo a a coañ ka bobeli, } thirty-two.
Mashómè a a shupañ a meco e e shupañ, } seventy-seven.
Mashómè a a shupañ a a coañ ka boshupa, } seventy-seven.

When a number above an hundred is required the following is the form used:—

Lekgoló ye le nañ le mashómè a le matlhano a meco meraro, one hundred and fifty-three (literally, an hundred which has five tens and three over).

Makgoló a a shupañ a a nañ le mashómè a mabeli a moco o le moñoe-

fela, seven hundred and twenty-one.

Makgoló a a ferañ monoana o le moñoe-fela, a a nañ le mashóme a a ferañ moñoe, a a coañ ka boferañ-moñoe, nine hundred and ninety-nine.

There is no special word for thousand, and after the last example the reader will be prepared to hear that a form of the English word (thausanta) is mostly used; though one sometimes hears Makgoló a shómè, or Makgoló a kgoló.

# 5. VERBS.

38. The simple form of the Secoana Verb always terminates in a, with the exception of the verbs go leré, to

bring; go itsé, to know; and go té, to say.

In the following form only the usual personal pronouns are given. The examples of the nominative pronoungiven in § 13 will have already shown that in the third person singular or plural the pronoun must agree with the noun which is either expressed or understood.

It will be observed that in the present and perfect tenses the pronouns for the second and third persons singular are the same. The difference in either number is expressed

by emphasis, and must be learnt by the ear.

In tenses 11, 13, and many others, the auxiliary verbs ne, ke, or the are used to determine time or manner. In the second and third persons singular these are written O no oa reka, o no a rekile, etc., being as a rule so pronounced. But one does sometimes hear O no oa reka, o no a rekile, and in some books these forms are used. No doubt in the more usual form the change from no to no, or na, etc., is a sympathetic one, caused by the subsequent pronoun.

Many of the forms in the following table have been inserted solely for the purpose of showing the form of pronoun proper to them; the varied use of the pronouns being the most difficult task in learning the Secoana Verb.

Conjugation of the verb go reka, to buy.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

### PRESENT TENSE.

Affirmative.	Negative.
I. I buy.	2. I do not bu
Kea rèka.	Ga ke reké.
oa rèka.	ga o reké.
oa rèka.	ga a reké.
Rea reka.	Ga re reké.
loa rèka.	ga lo reké.
baa reka.	ga ba reké.

### IMPERFECT TENSE

1111 1111 1101	
3. I was buying.	4. I was not buying
Ke ne ke reka.	Ke ne ke sa reké.
o no o rèka.	o no o sa reké.
o na a rèka.	o na a sa reké.
Re ne re rèka.	Re ne re sa reké.
lo no lo rèka.	lo no lo sa reké.
ba ne ba rèka.	ba ne ba sa reké.

PERFECT	TENSE.
5. I have bought,	6. I have not bought.
Ke rekile.	Ga kea rèka,
o rekile.	ga oa reka.
o rekile.	ga a reka.
Re rekile.	Ga rea reku.
lo rekile.	ga loa rèka.
ba rekile.	ga baa rèka.

## EMPHATIC PERFECT TENSE.

Affirmative.

I have already bought.
 Nkile ka rèka.

o kile oa reka.
o kile a reka.
Re kile ra reka,
lo kile loa reka,
ba kile ba reka.

Negative.

8. I have not yet bought.
Ga ke ésé ke reké:
ga o ésé o reké.
ga a ésé a reké.
Ga re ésé re reké.
ga lo ésé lo reké.
ga ba ése ba reké.

## MORE EMPHATIC NEGATIVE FORM.

9. I have never yet bought.

Ga ke ése ke be ke reké. ga o ésé o be o reké. ga a ésé a be a reké. Ga re ésé re be re reké. ga lo ésé lo be lo reké. ga ba ésé ba be ba reké.

### MOST EMPHATIC NEGATIVE FORM.

10. I have never bought.

Ga ke ésé nke ke reké, ga o ésé o ke o reké, ga a ésé a ke a reké, Ga re ésé re ke re reké. ga lo ésé lo ke lo reké. ga ba ésé ba ke ba reké.

NOTE.—A pluperfect form of Nos. 8, 9, and 10 is formed as follows:—

Ke ne ke ésé ke reke, I had not yet bought.
 O na a ésé a be a reké, He had never yet bought.

10. Ba ne ba ésé ba ke ba reké, They had never bought.

#### PAST TENSE.

Affirmative.

11. I bought.
Ke ne ka rèka.
o no oa rèka.
o na a rèka.
Re ne ra rèka.
lo no loa rèka.

Also
Ka na ka rèka.
oa na oa rèka.
a na a rèka.
Ra na ta rèka.
loa na loa rèka.
ba na ba rèka.

ba ne ba reka.

Negative.

12. I did not buy.
Ga kea ka ka rèka,
ga oa ka oa rèka.
ga a ka a rèka.
Ga rea ka ra rèka.
ga loa ka loa rèka.
ga baa ka ba rèka.

Also
Ke ne ke sa rèka,
o no o sa rèka,
o na a sa rèka.
Re ne re sa rèka,
lo no lo sa rèka,
ba ne ba sa rèka.

### PLUPERFECT TENSE.

## Affirmative.

13. I had bought.

Ke ne ke rekile.
o no o rekile.
o na a rekile.
Re ne re rekile.
lo no lo rekile.
ba ne ba rekile.

## Negative.

14. I had not bought.

Ke ne ke se ka ka rèka, o no o se ka oa rèka. o na a se ka a rèka. Re ne re se ka ra rèka. lo no lo se ka loa rèka. ba ne ba se ka ba rèka.

### FUTURE TENSE.

15. I will buy.

Ke tla rèka. o tla rèka. o tla rèka. Re tla rèka. lo tla rèka. ba tla rèka. 16. I will not buy.

Ga nka ke rèka, ga o nka o rèka, ga a nka a rèka. Ga re nka re rèka, ga lo nka lo rèka, ga ba nka ba rèka

## FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

17. I shall have bought.

Ntla bo ke rekile, o tla bo o rekile, o tla bo a rekile, Re tla bo re rekile, lo tla bo lo rekile, ba tla bo ba rekile. 18. I shall not have bought.

Ntla bo ke ésé ke reké. o tla bo o ésé o reké. o tla bo a ésé a reké. Re tla bo re ésé re reké. lo tla bo lo ésé lo reké. ba tla bo ba ésé ba reké.

## POTENTIAL MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE.

19. I can (or may) buy.

Nka rèka. o ka rèka. o ka rèka. Re ka rèka. lo ka rèka. ba ka rèka. 20. I cannot (or may not) buy.

Ga nkake ka rèka, ga o kake oa rèka, ga a kake a rèka, Ga re kake ra rèka, ga lo kake loa rèka, ga ba kake ba rèka,

## PAST TENSE.

Affirmative.

Negative.

21. I could (or might) have bought. 22. I could not (or might not) have bought.

Ke ne nka rèka.
o no o ka rèka.
o na a ka rèka.
Re ne re ka rèka.
lo no lo ka rèka.
ba ne ba ka rèka.

Ke ne ke sa kake ka reka.
o no o sa kake oa reka.
o na a sa kake a reka.
Re ne re sa kake ra reka.
lo no lo sa kake loa reka.
ba ne ba sa kake ba reka.

## CONDITIONAL MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE.

 I would (or should) buy, Nkabo ke reka.
 o kabo o reka.

o kabo a rèka. Re kabo re rèka. Io kabo lo rèka. ba kabo ba rèka. 24. Iwould not (or should not) buy.

Nkabo ke sa reké.
o kabo o sa reké.
o kabo a sa reké.
Re kabo re sa reké.
lo kabo lo sa reké.
ba kabo ba sa reké.

NOTE.—Throughout the Conditional Mood ko may be used instead of kabo.

## ANOTHER FORM OF THE PRESENT TENSE.

25. I should (or would) buy. Ke ne ke tla rèka. o no o tla rèka. o na a tla rèka. Re ne re tla rèka. lo no lo tla rèka. ba ne ba tla rèka. 26. I should not (or would not) buy. Ke ne ke sénka ke rèka. o no o sénka o rèka. o na a sénka a rèka. Re ne re sénka re rèka. lo no lo sénka lo rèka. ba ne ba sénka ba rèka.

#### PAST TENSE.

27. I would (or should) have bought. 28. I would not (or should not) have bought,

Nkabo ke rekile.
o kabo o rekile.
o kabo a rekile.
Re kabo re rekile.
lo kabo lo rekile.
ba kabo ba rekile.

Nkabo ke se ka ka rèka, o kabo o se ka oa rèka. o kabo a se ka a rèka. Re kabo re se ka ra rèka. Io kabo lo se ka loa rèka, ba kabo ba se ka ba rèka.

Another form-Nkabo ke ne ka rèka. Another form-Nkabo ke sa rèka.

## SUBTUNCTIVE MOOD.

# (Chiefly used with the conjunction that.)

### PRESENT TENSE.

Affirmative,

29. That I may buy.

Goré ke rèkè. goré o rèkè. goré a rèkè. Goré re reke.

goré lo rèkè. goré ba rèkè.

goré lo se rèkè. goré ba se rèkè. ANOTHER FORM OF THE PRESENT NEGATIVE TENSE.

Goré ke se rèkè.

goré o se rèkè.

goré a se rèkè.

Goré re se rèkè.

Goré ke se ka ka reka. goré o se ka oa reka.

goré a se ka a rèka.

Goré re se ka ra rèka. goré lo se ka loa rèka. goré ba se ka ba rèka.

Negative. 30. That I may not buy.

## FUTURE TENSE.

Affirmative.

31. That I may buy. Goré ke tle ke rèkè. goré o tlo o rèke. goré a tle a rèkè. Goré re tle re rèkè. goré lo tle lo rèke.

goré ba tle ba rèkè.

Negative.

32. That I may not buy. Goré ke tle ke se ka ka rèka. goré o tlo o se ka oa reka. goré a tle a se ka a rèka. Goré re tle re se ka ra rèka. goré lo tle lo se ka loa reka. goré ba tle ba se ka ba rèka.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

A ke reke, Let me buy.

Rèka, O rèkè, buy (sing.). A a reke, Let him buy.

A re reke (dual), ] A re reken,

Rekañ. Lo rèkè, Lo rekeñ,

A ba reke, Let them buy.

A ke se reke, Let me not buy. A ke se ka ka rèka Se reke, O se reke, do not buy. O se ka oa reka, Let him not A a se reke, A a se ka a rèka, buy. A re se reke, Let us not buy.

A re se rekeñ, A re se ka ra rèka, Se reken,

Lo se reke, do not buy. Lo se rekeñ,

Lo se ka loa reka, A ba se reke,

Let them not A ba se ka ba reka,

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Affirmative.

35. To buy.

Negative. 36. Not to buy.

Go rèka.

Go bisa (or busa) go rèka.

## PROGRESSIVE MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE,

37. I am buying.
Ke ntse ke rèka.
o ntse o rèka.
o ntse a rèka.
Re ntse re rèka.
lo ntse lo rèka,
ba ntse ba rèka.

38. I am not buying. Ke ntse ke sa reké. o ntse o sa reké. o ntse a sa reké. Re ntse re sa reké. lo ntse lo sa reké. ba ntse ba sa reké.

### PAST TENSE.

39. I was buying.
Ke ne ke ntse ke rèka.
o no o ntse o rèka.
o na a ntse a rèka.
Re ne re ntse re rèka.
lo no lo ntse lo rèka.
ba ne ba ntse ba rèka.

40. I was not buying. Ke ne ke ntse ke sa reké. o no o ntse o sa reké. o na a ntse a sa reké. Re ne re ntse re sa reké. lo no lo ntse lo sa reké. ba ne ba ntse ba sa reké.

#### FUTURE TENSE.

41. I shall be buying.

Ntla bo ke rèka,
o tla bo o rèka,
o tla bo a rèka.
Re tla bo re rèka,
lo tla bo lo rèka,
ba tla bo ba rèka,

42. I shall not be buying.

Ntla bo ke sa reké.
o tla bo o sa reké.
o tla bo a sa reké.
Re tla bo re sa reké.
lo tla bo lo sa reké.
ba tla bo ba sa reké.

# PROGRESSIVE MOOD (Habitual).

#### PRESENT TENSE.

43. I am buying (as usual).
Kea bo ke rèka.
oa bo o rèka,
oa bo a rèka.
Rea bo re rèka.
loa bo lo rèka.
baa bo ba rèka.

44. I am not buying (as usual).
Kea bo ke sa reké.
oa bo o sa reké.
oa bo a sa reké.
Rea bo re sa reké.
loa bo lo sa reké.
baa bo ba sa reké.

### PAST TENSE.

## Affirmative.

Negative. 45. I have bought (as usual). 46. I have not bought (as usual). Kea bo ke rekile. Kea bo ke se ka ka reka. oa bo o rekile. oa bo o se ka oa reka. oa bo a se'ka a rèka.

oa bo a rekile. Rea bo re rekile. loa bo lo rekile. baa bo ba rekile.

Rea bo re se ka ra reka. loa bo lo se ka loa reka. baa bo ba se ka ba reka.

# PROGRESSIVE MOOD (Emphatic).

### PRESENT TENSE.

47. I am still buying. Ke santse ke rèka. o santse o reka. o santse a rèka. Re santse re rèka. lo santse lo rèka. ba santse ba reka.

48. I am no longer buying. Ga ke tlhôlé ke rèka. ga o tlhôlé o rèka. ga a tlhōlé a rèka. Ga re tlholé re rèka. ga lo tlhôlé lo rèka, ga ba tlhōlé ba rèka.

### PAST TENSE.

AQ. I was still buying. Ke ne ke santse ke rèka. o no o santse o reka. o na a santse a rèka. Re ne re santse re rèka. lo no lo santse lo reka. ba ne ba santse ba reka.

50. I no longer bought. Ke ne ke sa tlhôlé ke rèka. o no o sa tlhôlé o reka. o na a sa tlhōlé a rèka. Re ne re sa tlhôlé re rèka. lo no lo sa tlhôlé lo rèka. ba ne ba sa tlhôlé ba rèka.

#### FUTURE TENSE.

51. I will continue to buy. Ke tla nna ke reka. o tla nna o reka. o tla nna a rèka. Re tla nna re rèka. lo tla nna lo rèka. ba tla nna ba rèka.

- 52. I will buy no more. Ga nka ke nna ke rèka. ga o nka o nna o reka. ga a nka a nna a rèka. Ga re nka re nna re rèka. ga lo nka lo nna lo reka. ga ba nka ba nna ba rèka.

Another form-Ga nka ke tlhola ke reka.

## INTERROGATIVE PRESENT PERMISSIVE TENSE.

53. Am I to buy?

A ke ke reke? A ke a reke?

A ke re reke? A ke ba rèkè?

NOTE. - This tense being used to ask direction of another, is only used in the first and third persons.

## REPETITIVE MOOD.

### PRESENT TENSE.

# 54. I buy again.

Ke bile kea rèka. o bile oa rèka. o bile oa rèka. Re bile rea rèka. lo bile loa rèka. ba bile baa rèka.

More complete-Ke bile ke rèka gape.

## PAST TENSE.

## 55. I have bought again.

Ke bile ke rekile.
o bile o rekile.
o bile o rekile.

Re bile re rekile. lo bile lo rekile. ba bile ba rekile.

Another form—Ke bile ka rèka.

Also a future form—Ke tla ba ke rèka, I shall buy again.

## PECULIAR TENSES.

## DEPRECATIVE CONDITIONAL.

# 56. Lest I should buy.

Goré é sé éré kgotsa ka rèka. goré é sé éré kgotsa oa rèka. goré é sé éré kgotsa a rèka. Goré é sé éré kgotsa ra rèka. goré é sé éré kgotsa loa rèka. goré é sé éré kgotsa ba rèka.

NOTE. - Kgono and gono are interchangeable with kgotsa.

#### PRESENT HABITUAL

## Affirmative.

Negative.

57. I am in the habit of buying. Ke tle ke rèkè. o tle o rèkè. oa tle a rèkè. Re tle re rèkè. lo tle lo rèkè.

ba tle ba rèkè.

58. I am not in the habit of buying.
Ga nke ke rèka.
ga o ko o rèka.
ga a ke a rèka.
Ga re ke re rèka.
ga lo ko lo rèka.
ga ba ke ba rèka

## PAST HABITUAL

59. I used to buy.

Ke ne ke tle ke rèkè.
o no o tle o rèkè.
o na a tle a rèkè.
Re ne re tle re rèkè.
lo no lo tle lo rèkè.
ba ne ba tle ba rèkè.

60. I used not to buy. Ke ne ke se ke ke rèka. o no o se ko o rèka. a na a se ke a rèka. Re ne re se ke re rèka. lo no lo se ke lo rèka. ba ne ba se ke ba rèka.

### ALTERNATIVE FUTURE.

## 61. Or else I will buy.

Nka tla ka rèka. o ka tla oa rèka. o ka tla a rèka.

Re ka tla ra rèka. lo ka tla loa rèka. ba ka tla ba reka.

### ADVERBIAL PERFECT.

(Used with the Adverbs Eré, fa. etc.)

62. When I have bought.

Eré ke séna go rèka. éré o séna go rèka. éré a séna go rèka.

Eré re séna go rèka. éré lo séna go rèka. éré ba séna go rèka.

### ADVERBIAL PLUPERFECT.

(Used with the Adverbs Erile, eare, etc.).

63. When I had bought.

Erilé ke séna go rèka. erilé o séna go rèka. erilé a séna go rèka.

Erilé re séna go rèka. erilé lo séna go rèka. erilé ba séna go rèka.

64. I bought long ago.

Ga ke bóló go rèka. ga o bóló go rèka. ga a bóló go reka.

Ga re bóló go reka. ga lo bóló go rèka. ga ba bóló go rèka.

65. I had bought long ago.

Ke ne ke sa bóló go rèka. o no o sa bóló go reka. o na a sa bóló go reka.

Re ne re sa bóló go rèka. lo no lo sa bóló go reka. ba ne ba sa bóló go reka.

39. Formation of the Perfect.-The Perfect is usually formed by changing the final a into ile, as in the example already given, Kea reka, I buy; Ke rekile, I have bought.

When, however, the verb ends in

na, this syllable is usually \ nyé, go bōna, to see, pft. bonyé. changed into f or nne, go ikana, to swear, pft. ikanne. mé, go palama, to climb, pft. palamé. ma. ntse, go phanya, to crack, pft. phantse. nya, litsé, go bitsa, to call, pft. bilitsé. tsa. 33 tshitse, go bontsha, to show, pft. bontshitsé Isha, etsé, go lebala, to forget, pft. lebetsé. ala or ela. " go femèla, to defend, pft. femetsé. sitsé, go lisa, to herd, pft. lisitsé. sa,

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ara, this syll. is usually changed into èré, go choara, to seize, pft. choèré.
aea,

"" ailé, go laea, to direct, pft. lailé.
or eilé, go raea, to say to, pft. reilé.
ola,
"" otsè, go golóla, to losse, pft. golótsé.
ula,
"" utsé, go lula, to sit, pft. lutsé.
```

In the formation of the perfect the vowels are generally made acute.

# The following are a few irregular perfects:-

Go ya, to eat;	Perfect	, yélè,
Go cha, to become dried up;		chélè.
Go sa, to clear up (as mist);		sélè.
Go na, to rain;		nélè.
Go coa, to come out;		Iulè.
Go ea, lo go;	11	ilė.
Go oa, to fall;	**	olè.
Go loa, to fight;	25	lolè.
Go noa, to drink;		nolè.
Go roala, to cover head or feet;	16	roelé.
Go shoa, to die;		shulé.
Go tla, to come;	14	tsilé.
Go belega, to carry;	**	belègé.
Go anya, to suck (if used of an animal);	**	amulé.
Go bucoa, to become ripe or cooked;	,,,	bululé.
Go tlhacoa, to wash a thing;	23	tlhacoitsé.
Go kgora, to be satisfied;	"	kgötshé.
The state of the s		

40. Remarks on some of the Tenses.

It will have been noticed that the difference of tense and mood is mostly obtained by the use of an auxiliary. So, for instance, in tense 11, Ke ne ka rèka, ne is the auxiliary (probably an obsolete form of the substantive verb), Ke being its nominative pronoun, while ka is the nominative pronoun to rèka. In a sentence in which the past tense has thus been fully expressed, the auxiliary may be dropped in succeeding verbs of the same tense; e.g. Ke ne ka rèka pitsé, ka e isa koa gae, 'me ka e thathèla mo lesakeñ, I bought a horse, and took it home, and put it in the kraal; Ke tsile maabane, ka ea koa gaeno, ka fithèla 'mago a róka, I came yesterday, I went to your place, and found your mother sewing.

The following should be noted with regard to the nega-

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tive past (No. 12). In such a sentence as the following, where the two nominative cases refer to the same person, the ordinary form is used:—Ke ne ka mo omanya, 'me ga kea ka ka 'metsa, I scolded him, but I did not beat him; but when a positive sentence is followed by a negative, and the subject of the negative sentence is another person, the following form is used:—O na a mpitsa, 'me ke se ka ka mo utloa, He called me, but I did not hear him; Ke ne ka li mo shupetsa, 'me a se ka a rata go li rèka, I showed them to him, but he did not wish to buy them.

Tense 7 is sometimes used to express an action once done in time past; e.g. Nkile ka ea teñ, Once upon a time I went there; Nkile ka bona Mosheshoe, I once saw Moshesh.

When the future has been once expressed it is well to continue the sentence with the present subjunctive: e.g. Ke tla aga ntló, ke e rulèlè, 'me ke e shoetsè sentle, I shall build

a house, thatch it, and finish it nicely.

The subjunctive is also used in a sentence which describes the habits of a person or thing, rather than any fact about it; e.g. Letlonkana ke pholofolo e e bogalé—motlha moñoe le tsenè mo tluñ, le choarè losea, The black hyena is a fierce animal—sometimes it will enter a house, and seize an infant. See also further on for the use of the subjunctive after the particles éré, e tle éré, etc.

Tense 25 is especially used when a person wishing to comply with a request is prevented by some other matter; e.g. Ke ne ke tla ea le oèna, 'me rrè a ré ke èè go batla pitsé ea gagoè e e latlhegileñ, I would go with you, but my father

says I am to go and look for his horse which is lost.

The second person singular of the imperative mood ends with a, and has an for its plural; rèka, buy, rekan, buy ye. Sometimes the pronouns are expressed, and then the verb must end with è or en; e.g. o rèkè, lo rèkè, or lo reken. (Note the connection here between the subjunctive mood and the imperative.) When more than one imperative is used in a sentence, it is right to begin with the imperative proper and continue with the subjunctive form; e.g. Tsaea pitsé ea me, e isè koa metsén, 'me o e fé, Take my horse,



lead it to the water, and feed it. When the objective pronoun is used before the verb this subjunctive form must always be used; e.g. o e rèkè, buy it; indeed, in this case the nominative pronoun need not be expressed, it will suffice to say e rèkè. By prefixing ako to the imperative a polite form of request is gained; e.g. Ako o letsè tshipi, Please (or would you) ring the bell. Reflective verbs (see § 42) have è and not a for their final vowel throughout the imperative mood; so we have Itlhaganèlè, Make haste, not Itlhaganela, and Ikoatlhaeñ, Repent ye, not Ikoatlhaeañ.

The use of the progressive mood is of course to express the progress of an action. So tenses 37 and 39 may be translated, "I am going on buying," or "I was going on buying." It is very difficult to give an equivalent in English for the bo in tenses 43 to 46. Sometimes it means simply, It is often used with the forms éré, erilé, etc. (see § 57). The following examples of this use have been supplied to

the writer by the Rev. A. Wookey, of Kuruman:-

Erilé ke coa mo tluñ a bo a ème fa, When I came out of the house, he was standing there.

Erilé a lula, a bo a chotse mogocana, When he sat down he had a dish (in his hand).

Erilé ke goroga, kgosi ea bo e tsile, When I arrived the chief had come.

Erilé ke coa mo tluñ, a ème fa, When I came out of the house he stood there.

Erilé a lula, a tsaea mogocana, When he sat down he took a dish.

Erilé ke goroga kgosi ea tla, When I arrived the chief came.

The following are examples of the habitual use of bo:—Kana bana ba gago ba thhola ba séeo yañ! Why, your children are away all day! Kaitse ba bo ba ntsé ba ile sekoleñ, Yes, they have gone off to school as usual; Lipitsé tsa gago li kae? Where are your horses? Lia bo li ile go fula, They have gone to graze as usual; Oa bo o ntsé o lirañ? What work are you upon now? Kea bo ke shuga matlalo, I am going on braying skins.

In tenses 54 and 55 (repetitive) the auxiliary ba or bile scarcely expresses repetition without the adverb gape, (again); e.g. Re tla ba re go bona gape len? When shall we see you again? Ba and bile are often used to express

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also or moreover; e.g. Moñ-oa-goè o mo luetsé sentle, a ba a mo naea likhai, His master has paid him well, and has also given him clothes; Kgosi e bile ea mo atlholèla, More-

over, the chief acquitted him.

Tense 61 is used in a threatening sentence, such as Nka tla ka go betsa fa o sa lilimalé, I shall be beating you if you are not quiet; O se ka oa e fepa, e ka tla ea go raga, Don't tease it, or it will kick you (more fully, It will be kicking you directly). Ka as an auxiliary has always more or less the idea of may be. So when warning is given of a thing which is more than probable, tla tla is used instead of ka tla; e.g. O se ka oa ema foo, likgomó li tla tla tsa go gata, Don't stand there, the oxen will be treading on you; A re tsamaèe, o tla tla a re omanya, Let us go, he'll be sure to scold us.

The infinitive mood connected with a sentence by the Conjunction le may be used to carry on the sense of any preceding tense which has been fully expressed; e.g. Ke ne ka mo kaela, le go mo thaloganyetsa sentle, I directed him, and made him understand well; O tha ba tsaea, le go ba ruta,

You will take them and teach them.

There are no participles proper in Secoana. The present participle is sometimes supplied by the infinitive mood used as follows:—O na a e bolaea ka go e fula, He killed it by shooting it (literally, by to shoot it); O na a timela ka go bisa go thokomela tséla, He went wrong through not taking notice of the road. Sometimes, again, by the imperfect tense, used without the auxiliary; e.g. Ke ne ka bolaea nonyane e fofa, I killed a bird flying; Re ne ra mona a tabogèla koa tlun ea gagoè, We saw him running towards his house.

In like manner the past participle is expressed by means of the pluperfect without the auxiliary; e.g. Ke mfithetse a shulé, I found him dead; O tsamaile a lapile, He went away

tired.

The past participle is also supplied by such phrases as Ka a na a rekile, Since he had bought; Eré a séna go rèka, When he had bought, etc.; e.g. Ka a na a yele péle ga a ésé a bolole, ga a ka a rata go ya mo tseleñ, Having eaten before



he set out, he did not wish to eat on the road; Ka a na a rekile pitsé, ga a ka a rèka pelesa, Having bought a horse, he did not buy a pack-ox; Eré ka pula e ne e nélè mariga, lefatshé ga lea ka ya omelèla thata, Rain having fallen in the winter, the ground did not get very dry; Eré ka a na a ba tlogetsé a sa le mo'nye, ga baa ka ba mo itsé, Having left them when he was still young, they did not know him.

The relative pronoun, with the verb ending in  $\bar{n}$  (see § 50), sometimes supplies the participle; e.g. Ke bona motho eoo, eo o tsamaeañ ka bonako, I see that man walking (or who walks) quickly; Ke ne ka bolaea nonyane e e fofañ, I killed

the flying bird.

# Of the Passive Voice.

41. The Passive Voice is formed by inserting everywhere, in all tenses and moods, an o (equivalent in sound to w) before the final vowel of the verb in its active form; e.g. Kea rata, I love; Kea ratoa, I am loved; Ke ratile, I have loved; Ke ratiloe, I have been loved.

But when the verb ends in

ma, or nya, this is generally \ go roma, to send, pres. pas. roñoa. changed into floa, f go tlhakanya, to mix, pr. pas. tlhakañoa. ba you, go tlhaba, to pierce, pr. pas. tlhayou. " coa or pioa, go bópa, to frame, pr. pas. bócoa or bópioa. pa SIL sioa, go lisa, to herd, pr. pas. lisioa. tsa lioa, go betsa, to beat, pr. pas. belioa. 19 tsha tshioa, go bontsha, to show, pr. pas. bontshioa. aea ,, aioa or \ go kaea, to consider, pr. pas. kaioa. eoa, | go baea, to place, pr. pas. beoa. "fioa or shoa, go boifa, to fear, pr. pas. boifioa or boishoa.

As has been stated above, the perfect passive is usually formed by inserting o before the final vowel of the perfect active; e.g. rekile, rekiloe. But when the perfect active ends in

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The passive followed by ke is often used where in English we should find the active voice; e.g. O romiloe ke mañ? By whom were you sent? (such a phrase is generally preferred to E mañ eo o go romileñ? Who sent you?); Ke romiloe ke rrè, I was sent by my father; Borife yo, o bo koalecoé ke mañ? Who wrote this letter for you? (literally, This letter, you it were written for by whom?); Lithlakó tse o li segecoé ke mañ? Who made these shoes for you? (literally, These shoes, you them were cut for by whom?); Thipa e ke e neiloé ke rrè, My father gave me this knife (literally, This knife I was it given by my father.

# Derivative Species of the Verb.

42. Their formation.—The Conjugation of Derivative Verbs is in all things the same as that of the simple species. They are formed from it as follows:—

The Relative is formed by changing the final a into èla; e.g. go bala, to count, relative balèla. But when a verb

ends in

NOTE.—Go lere, to bring, takes leretse for its relative; go tlhacoa, to wash (clothes), takes tlhacoetsa; and go re, to say, takes go raea.

The Causative is formed by changing the final a into isa; e.g. go lóma, to bite, causative lómisa. But when a verb ends in

la, this in the Causative sometimes becomes Isa, gakala, gakatsa.

ga, , , , , , , sa, coga, cosa.

nya, (llhakana, tlhakanya.

or nIsha, (choana, choanisha.

Verbs ending in fa have often two forms of the causative in use; e.g.—

Go boifa, to fear; Causative either boitsha, or boifisa.
Go tlhalefa, to become wise; ,, tlhaletsha, or tlhaletsha.
Go akofa, to make haste; ,, akotsha, or akofisa.



The following are a few irregular causatives:-

Go na, to rain;	Causative,	go nesa.
Go ya, to cat;	**	go yesa.
Go oa, to fall;	"	go osa,
Go noa, to drink;	,,	go nosa.
Go booa, to return;	27	go bósa.
Go roala, to put on head or feet;	21	go roesa.
Go apara, to attire one's self;	***	go apesa.
Go anya, to suck;	99	go amusa.
Go tla, to come;	22	go tsisa.

The Reciprocal is formed by changing the final a into ana; e.g. go rata, reciprocal ratana. But when the verb ends in èla, this in the reciprocal becomes alana; e.g. go lumèla, to agree, reciprocal lumalana, not lumelana.

The Reflective is formed by prefixing i to the simple form; e.g. go kgona, to persuade, reflective ikgona. When the first letter of the simple form is a soft consonant, it must be changed to the corresponding hard letter, and when it is a vowel, a k must be inserted; e.g.—

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Go raea, to say to; Reflective, go ithaea.
Go botsa, to question; ,, go ipotsa.
Go itsé, to know; ,, go ikitsé.
Go ama, to touch; ,, go ikama.
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The following are exceptions:-

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Go itshephisa, to hallow; Reflective, go iitshephisa.
Go itaea, to strike; ,, go ititaea.
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43. Signification of the Derivative Forms.

The Relative supplies the words for, to, about, against, etc.; e.g.—

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Go batla, to seek ;
                            go batlela, to seek on behalf of another.
Go bólèla, to announce;
                           go bólelela, to announce to or to tell.
Go busa, to govern;
                            go busetsa, to govern for.
Go tshaba, to flee;
                            go tshabela, to flee to.
Go betsa, to beat;
                            go beletsa, to beat for.
Go aba, to distribute;
                            go abela, to distribute to.
Go rukutlha, to rebel;
                            go rukutlhèla, to rebel against.
Go leofa, to sin;
                            go leofela, to sin against.
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A choice between the simple and relative forms of the verb often materially affects the meaning of a sentence; e.g.

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go tloga, to leave (literally, to move), is used of leaving a place; O tlogile len koa Thaba Nchó? When did you leave (or start from) Thaba Ncho? But the relative verb (go tlogèla) must be used when a person is referred to; e.g. O tlogetse mosali kae? Where have you left the woman? O ba tlogetse leñ? When did you leave them? So with the verb go fitlha, to find, also to reach: Ba tla fitlha len koa gae? When will they reach home? O tla fitlhèla 'rago a santse a le ten. You will find your father there still. The relative verb is used with such adverbs as before and without; go tsamaea, to walk: go tsamaela-péle, to walk on ahead; go coa, to come forth: go coela koantle, to come outside. In this way too the relative is often required with a preposition; e.g. go oa, to fall; go oèla mo pitsen, to fall upon a pot. This use of the relative with a preposition often distinguishes between from and to; e.g. go fapoga mo tselen, to turn aside from a path, go fapogèla koa tseleñ, to turn aside to a path; go fologa koa ncoeñ, to descend from a mountain; go fologèla koa mogogoron, to descend into the valley. The relative verb with mo (in) has the force of into; e.g. Ke tla mo amogelèla mo tlun, I shall receive him into the house; O na a oèla mo metsén, He fell into the water.

When the relative is followed by the adverb ruré (really) it has the force of continuance or completion; e.g. go nna, to be; go nnèla-ruré, to be for ever; go tsamaèla-ruré, to go

away altogether.

The relative form of the verb supplying the place of prepositions naturally often governs two objects; e.g. Ba se mo neile, They have given it to him. Here se (it) is the proper object of the verb, mo (him) being the indirect object. In such a case it is important to notice that the indirect object must always be nearest to the verb; e.g. Ke bóleletse monnaó puō ea gago, I have told your brother your word; Re tla se ba remèla, We will cut it for them; Eä, o e mo shupetsé, Go and show it (tséla, road, understood) to him; Leka go e ba abèla sentlè, Try to distribute it (nama, meat, understood) to them nicely.

In the Causative form the subject causes or helps an agent



to do, or causes to come about, the thing expressed by the simple verb; e.g. go aga, to build, go agisa, to cause to build, go kitlana, to become knit together, go kitlanya, to knit together.

In the Reciprocal the action is performed upon each other by two or more agents; e.g. go bolaea, to kill, go bolaana, to kill one another; go ama, to touch, go amana, to touch one another; go atamela, to approach, go atamalana, to draw near to each other.

Under this head will come verbs of division, such as go menagana, to become folded in two, (its causative) go menaganya, to fold double; go arogana, to become divided, go aroganya, to divide.

In the Reflective, the action is performed by the subject

upon himself; e.g. go ipolaea, to kill one's self.

The following example will show in how many ways these various species may be combined.

Simple form . . , go kgaola, to sever.

Intransitive form (see § 44) . . . go kgaoga, to become severed. Reciprocal of Intransitive . . go kgaogana, to become divided, or

severed from each other.

Causative of Recip. of Intransitive go kgaoganya, to divide.

Reflec. of Caus. of Recip. of Intran. go ikgaoganya, to separate one's self. Rel. of Refl. of Caus. of Rec. of Int. go ikgaoganyetsa, to separate one's self for.

Double Relative of Reflec. of Caus. \ go ikgaoganyeletsa, to separate one's of Reciprocal of Intransitive . \ \ self for from another person.

Example—Ke shone se ke se ikgaoganyelelitsen nae, literally, It is it for which I separated myself from him.

# Of the Intransitive Verb.

44. Secoana has many Intransitive Verbs, such as go lapa, to become weary; go nona, to become fat; go fèla, to come to an end; go tlhakana, to become mixed, etc. These become transitive in the causative species; e.g. go lapisa, to weary; go nontsha, to fatten; go felisa, to bring to an end; go tlhakanya, to mix.

This change from transitive to intransitive by means of the derivative forms is often puzzling. The verb go retèla, to be too difficult, will give a good example of this. In the VERBS. 49

Intransitive form we have Se retetse, It is too difficult. Change this form into the relative (go retelèla), and it becomes active; e.g. Se ntheteletse, It is too difficult for me, or It beats me. Make this passive (see § 41, paragraph 4), and you get a very frequent form—Ke retelecoe ke go se lira, I cannot do it (literally, I am unabled by to do it); Ke ne ka retelèloa ke go se shoetsa, I was not able to finish it; O tla retelèloa ke go mo tsietsa, You will not be able to deceive him.

Most active verbs become intransitive by changing the final a into èga; e.g. go thuba, to smash, go thubèga, to become smashed, E thubegile, It is smashed; go golola, to loose, go gololèga, to become free. Sometimes, but rarely, esèga is used instead of èga; so go gololesèga is interchangeable When an active verb ends in la, the inwith go gololega. transitive is often formed by changing la into ga: e.g. go simolóla, to begin, go simológa, to have a beginning; go chólóla, to spill, go chólóga, to become spilt; go kgaola, to sever, go kgaoga, to come asunder. Some verbs become intransitive by adding la or gala to the active form; e.g. go bona, to see, go bonala, to be visible, go bonagala, to be evident; go utloa, to hear; go utloala, to be audible, go utloagala, to be intelligible; go lira, to do, go lirala, to be being done, go liragala, to happen. This intransitive is sometimes called the status form.

The perfect of many intransitive verbs is found in Secoana where we should have expected to find the present tense; e.g. ke lapile, I am tired; ke humanegile, I am poor; ke cofetse, I am old; go siamé, it is right; go ntsé yalo, it is so: for the exact translation of the present tense of the above verbs is go lapa, to become tired; go humanèga, to become poor; go cofala, to become old; go siama, to become right; go nna, to become. Thus, Ke lapile really means I have become and am tired; Go siamé, It has become and is right; Go ntsé yalo, It has become and is so. So too in the negative, Ga kea lapa, I am not tired; Ga goa siama, It is not right; Ga rea humanèga, We are not poor; Ga a cofala, He is not old; all of which are really perfects. And again with the negative after ka (see § 49), Ka a sa lapa, Since he is not tired; Ka a sa

humanega, Since he is not poor; Fa a sa siama, If he is not right; and with the relative pronoun (see § 50), Ba ba sa siamañ, They who are not right; Ba lo sa cofalañ, You who are not old.

Again, where in English we should use the perfect, in such verbs as the above, the pluperfect will be found in Secoana; e.g. Ke ne ke lapile, I was tired (literally, I had become and was tired); O na a cofetse, He was old, etc.

45. There are a few deponent verbs, such as go thologelèloa, to long for; go gakologèloa, to remember; go fegèloa,

to sigh, etc.

46. By changing the final a into olola, the contrary to the primary meaning is obtained; go tlótla, to honour, go tlótlóla, to dishonour; go bōfa, to bind, go bofólóla, to unbind; go lira, to do, go lirólóla, to undo; go huna, to tie, go

hunólóla, to untie, etc.

47. Some verbs become intensified by substituting isa for the final a; e.g. go botsa, to question, go botsisa, to question diligently; go feta, to pass, or to surpass, intensitive go fetisa, and even go fetisisa. Verbs of violence are intensified by the addition of ka to the simple form; e.g. go thuba, to smash, intensitive go thubaka; go tlhanya, to strike with the fist, go tlhanyaka to strike repeatedly; go roga, to insult, intensitive go rogaka. To some verbs ma is added as an intransitive affix, expressive of motion downwards; e.g. go oba, to bow, obama, become bowed down; go ina, to dip, inama, become bent or dipped down; go kona, to bend awry, konama, become bent down.

# Verbs formed from Nouns.

48. Verbs are sometimes formed by affixing fa to the radical form of a noun; e.g. bogalé, anger, go galefa, to become angry; monaté, pleasant, go natefa, to be pleasant; boleó, sinfulness, go leofa, to sin. Fala and its causative fatsa are thus affixed to many nouns: thata, strength, go thatafala, to become strong, go thatafatsa, to strengthen; letshé-

go, blessing or good-fortune, go tshégofala, to become blessed,

go tshégőfatsa, to bless.

Sometimes nouns are added to verbs, as go baea-péló, to wait a-bit (literally, to place your heart); go èla-tlhōkō, to pay heed to; go utloa-botlhókó, to be sorry; go tlhomoga-péló, to pity. In such cases changes of tense or species only affect the verb, the nouns being still hyphened to the altered form; e.g. Mpèèla-péló, Wait for me; O mo tlhomogetse-péló, He has had pity on him. Sometimes the ordinarily attached noun is separated from the verb, and removed to the end of the sentence; e.g. Utloèla litlólō tsa me botlhókó, Have mercy on my transgressions; Ela se mothó eoo o se go raeañ tlhōkō, Pay attention to what that person says to you.

# Changes in the Negative Verb.

49. After the particles ka (since), fa (if), éré (when), etc., sa is always used for not, and changes take place in the following tenses of the Negative Verb:—

2.	Present		Ka ke sa reké.
6.	Perfect		Ka ke sa rèka.
8.	Emphatic Perfect		Ka ke ésé ke reké.
12.	Past		Ka ke se ka ka rèka. Ka ke ne ke sa rèka.
16.	Future	. `	Ka ke sénka ke réka.
20.	Present Potential		Ka ke sa kake ka rèka.
45.	Present Progressive		Ka ke sa tlhole ke rèka.
49.	Future Progressive		Ka ke sénka ke nna ke rèka.
57.			Ka ke sa bóló go rèka.

NOTE.—Remember that after ka, fa, and éré, a is the pronoun used in the third person singular (he), not o.

# Of the Verb after the Relative Pronoun.

50. As has been notified above (§ 17), the verb when it follows a relative pronoun generally ends in  $\tilde{n}$ ; e.g. Mosimané eo o tshamekañ, The boy who plays; Linku tse li timetseñ, The sheep which have strayed. But in tenses in which an auxiliary has been used to express the past the  $\tilde{n}$ 

is not added : e.g. Kgosi e ke ne ka e itsé. The chief whom I knew: Monna eo o na a ka re bólelela. The man who could have told us. It is probable that at one time the  $\tilde{n}$  was added to the auxiliary, as is still the case in one or two tenses : e.g. Ke ènè eo o kileñ a lema gonè. It is he who once ploughed there: A ke bone ba ba ntsen ba aga ntlo gone? Is it they who are building a house there? Ba lo sa kaken loa gana. You who cannot refuse.

NOTE.—Since the verb with the relative pronoun is sometimes used to supply the place of the participle, this added # may for the sake of reference be called the participial ñ, and will thus be referred to in the following pages.

Sa is always the negative used after the relative pronoun, never ga. In the following tenses a change is made from the ordinary negative form.

2. Present (Nna) eo ke sa rekeñ. I who do not buy.

6. Perfect Batho ba ba sa rekañ, The people who have not bought.

8. Emphatic Eo o éséñ a reké, He who has not yet bought.

Ba ba se kañ ba reka, They who did not buy. 12. Past

16. Future (Rona) ba re sénkañ re reka, We who will not buy. 20. Pot. Pres. (Lona) ba lo sa kakeñ loa reka, You who cannot buy. 49. Prog. Fu. Eo o sénkañ a nna a reka, He who will no longer buy.

## The Substantive Verb.

## Go nna, to be.

For precision's sake, a noun or adverb is added to many

of the following tenses.

The following must be noted with reference to the third person singular and plural in the present and imperfect tenses.

When the verb is followed by a noun or a pronoun, or a noun or pronoun governed by the possessive particle, ke represents the verb in both numbers in the present, and  $\epsilon$ ne e le in the imperfect ; e.g. Ke mothó, He is a man ; Ke balotsana, They are rascals; Ke ene, It is he; Ke oa rona, He VERBS. 53

is (one) of us; Ke ba Thaba Nchó, They are (people) of Thaba Nchu; E ne e le legolu, He was a thief; E ne e le makau, They were young men; E ne e le eone, It was it; E ne e le bone, It was they. So too the negative to ke is ga se in both numbers, of e ne e le the negative is e ne e se; e.g. Ga se mothó, He is not a man; Ga se bomoroalie, They are not his daughters; E ne e se oa morase oa rona, He was not (a man) of our nation; E ne e se bathó ba banchó, They were

not black people.

But when the verb is followed by an adjective, or by a substantive used adjectivally, or by a substantive governed by the locative preposition, the nominative pronoun suffices to represent the substantive verb in the present tense, and is used both with the auxiliary and the verb to form the past tense; e.g. O montle, He is good-looking; Ba mashoe, They are ugly. Ga a moshoeu, He is not a white person; Ga ba banchó, They are not black. O molemō, He is good; Ba botlhalé, They are wise. O mo tluñ, He is in the house; Ga a koa tshimoñ, He is not in the garden. O na a le boshula, He was wicked; Ba ne ba le logoali, They were impertinent. Se ne se le mashoe, It was ugly; O na a se masókó, He was not kind; Linku li ne li se mo 'sakeñ, The sheep were not in the kraal.

In the following paradigm the first described form is numbered 1 and 2, 3 and 4, and the second is numbered 1a

and 2a, 3a and 4a.

Briefly stated, tenses 1 and 2, 3 and 4, describe what a thing is intrinsically, or what it belongs to, while 1a and 2a, 3a and 4a describe a quality which it possesses or a position

in which it is placed.

E is used with the substantive verb to express it in an indefinite sense when the object thus indefinitely alluded to is a noun or pronoun; e.g. E tla nna ènè, It will be he; Ga e nka e nna bōnè, It will not be they. But when the object is an adjective or an adverb, the indefinite pronoun must be go; e.g. Go tla nna sentlè, It will be nice; Ga go nka go nna molemō, It will not be good; Go ntsé yalo, It is so, etc. (See § 19).



## INDICATIVE MOOD.

### PRESENT TENSE.

## Affirmative.

1. I am a man.

Ke mothó. ke mothó. ke mothó. Re bathó. lo bathó. ke bathó. Negative.

I am not a man.
 Ga ke mothó.
 ga o mothó.
 Ga re bathó.
 ga lo bathó.
 ga se bathó.

## PRESENT TENSE.

Ia. I am good.

Ke molemō.
o molemō.
o molemō.
Re molemō.
lo molemō.
ba molemō.

2a. I am not good.
Ga ke molemõ.
ga o molemõ.
ga a molemõ.
Ga re molemõ.
ga lo molemõ,
ca ba molemõ.

#### IMPERFECT TENSE.

3. I was a man.
Ke ne ke le mothó,
o no o le mothó,
e ne e le mothó.
Re ne re le bathó.
lo no lo le bathó.
e ne e le bathó.

4. I was not a man.
Ke ne ke se mothó.
o no o se mothó.
e ne e se mothó.
Re ne re se bathó.
lo no lo se bathó.
e ne e se bathó.

### IMPERFECT TENSE.

3a. I was good.

Ke ne ke le molemō.
o no o le molemō.
o na a le molemō.
Re ne re le molemō.
lo no lo le molemō.
ba ne ba le molemō.

4a. I was not good.
Ke ne ke se molemō.
o no o se molemō.
o na a se molemō.
Re ne re se molemō.
lo no lo se molemō.
ba ne ba se molemō.

NOTE.—Instead of ke ne ke le, another form, kea bo ke le, is often used; ea bo e le, instead of e ne e le; ga bo go le, instead of go no go le, etc. Of these two forms, kea bo ke le is more habitual and so less definite than ke ne ke le.

With reference to tenses 1a and 2a, 3a and 4a, in the third persons singular and plural the pronouns must of course agree with the nouns to which they refer, whether these are expressed or understood. See examples on next page.

### Positive.

Motse o montle, The town is pretty ; Seliba se monaté, The fountain is pleasant; Letseba le legoló, The pigeon is a great one; Lomao lo bogale, The needle is sharp; Boshula bo bogoló, The evil is great; Thupa e telele, The rod is long ; Fèlo fa go metsé thata, This place is very wet; Fèlo fa ga go metsé thata. Bathó ba mo tluñ, The men are in the house; Bathó ga ba mo tluñ. Merafè e mentsi, The nations are many; Matlhare a masetlha. The leaves are vellow: Linku li koa nageñ, The sheep are in the veld; Linku ga li koa nageñ. Go botshé thata, It is very sweet;

Negative.

Motse ga o montlè. Seliba ga se monaté. Letseba ga le legoló. Lomao ga lo bogalé. Boshula ga bo bogoló. Thupa ga e telele.

Merafè ga e mentsi. Matlhare ga a masetlha, Ga go botshé thata.

# So too in the imperfect—

1. Molao o no o le tshiamo, The law was just.

2. Sebaga se ne se le bokété, The bead was heavy. 3. Leñau le ne le le bogalé, The leopard was fierce.

4. Borokó bo no bo le botlhókó, The gum was bitter.

5. Nama e ne e le tala, The flesh was raw.

Fèlo go no go le serètsè, The place was muddy.

7. Baba ba ne ba le mo khutiñ, The enemies were in the hollow. 8. Mesifa e ne e le mesesanyane, The veins were very thin.

9. Makaba a na a le koa moraken, The pack-oxen were at the post.

10. Lithipa li ne li le boboi, The knives were blunt.

11. Go no go le sethukuthuku, It was close.

# The following are the negatives to the above:—

Sebaga se ne se se bokété

3. Leñau le ne le se bogalé.

4. Borokó bo no bo se botlhókó.

5. Nama e ne e se tala. Fèlo go no go se serètsè. 7. Baba ba ne ba se mo khutiñ.

Mesifa e ne e se mesesanyane. Makaba a na a se koa morakeñ.

10. Lithipa li ne li se boboi.

Go no go se sethukuthuku.

# PERFECT INTRANSITIVE TENSE (see p. 49).

Affirmative.

5. I am so (literally, I have become and am so).

Ke ntsé valo. o ntsé yalo. o ntsé yalo. Re ntsé yalo. lo ntsé yalo. ba ntsé yalo.

Negative.

6. I am not so.

Ga kea nna yalo, ga oa nna yalo. ga a nna yalo. Ga rea nna yalo. ga loa nna yalo. ga baa nna yalo,

## PERFECT EMPHATIC TENSE.

Affirmative.

7. I once was a man.

Nkile ka pna mothó. o kile oa nna mothó. o kile a nna mothó. Re kile ra nna bathó. lo kile loa nna bathó. ba kile ba nna batho.

#### ALSO

9. I used to be a man. Nkile ka ne ke le motho. o kile oa ne o le mothó. o kile a ne a le mothó. Re kile ra ne re le bathó. lo kile loa ne lo le bathó. ha kile ba ne ba le bathó. When used with an adverb this

form must run

Nkile ka ne ke ntsé (yalo).

Negative.

8. I am not yet (or I have not vet become) a man.

Ga ke ese ke nne mothó. ga o ese o nne mothó. ga a ese a nne mothó. Ga re ese re nne bathó. ga lo ese lo nne bathó. ga ba ese ba nne bathó.

#### FURTHER FORMS.

10. Ga ke ésé ke be ke nne mothó. I have never yet become a man.

 Ga ke ésé nke ke nne boboi, I was never a coward.

12. Ke ne ke ésé ke nne kgosi, I was not yet (or had not yet become) a chief.

13. Ke ne ke ésé ke be ke nne yalo, I had never yet been so.

 Ke ne ke ésé nke ke nne legolu, I had never been a thief.

#### PAST TENSE.

15. I became a thief. Ke ne ka nna legolu. o no oa nna legolu. o na a nna legolu. Re ne ra nna magolu. lo no loa nna magolu. ba ne ba nna magolu.

16. I have not become a thief. Ga kea ka ka nna legolu. ga oa ka oa nna legolu. ga a ka a nna legolu. Ga rea ka ra nna magolu. ga loa ka loa nna magolu. ga baa ka ba nna magolu.

17. I did not become a thief.

Ke ne ke se ka ka nna legolu. o no o se ka oa nna legolu. o na a se ka a nna legolu.

Re ne re se ka ra nna magolu. lo no lo se ka loa nna magolu. ba ne ba se ka ba nna magolu.

### PAST INTRANSITIVE TENSE.

Affirmative.

18. I was so (literally, I had become and was so).

Ke ne ke ntsé valo. o no o ntsé yalo. o na a ntsé valo.

Negative.

19. I have not been so.

Ke ne ke sa nna yalo. o no o sa nna valo. o na a sa nna yalo.

## Affirmative.

Re ne re ntsé yalo. lo no lo ntsé yalo. ba ne ba ntsé yalo.

## Negative.

Re ne re sa nna yalo. lo no lo sa nna yalo. ba ne ba sa nna yalo.

### FUTURE TENSE.

## 20. I shall be.

Ke tla nna.
o tla nna.
o tla nna.
Re tla nna.
lo tla nna.
ba tla nna.

## 21. I shall not be,

Ga nka ke nna. ga o nka o nna, ga a nka a nna. Ga re nka re nna, ga lo nka lo nna, ga ba nka ba nna.

## POTENTIAL MOOD.

### PRESENT TENSE.

## 22. I may (or can) be.

Nka nna.
o ka nna.
o ka nna.
Re ka nna.
lo ka nna.
ba ka nna.

## 23. I cannot (or may not) be.

Ga nkake ka nna. ga o kake oa nna. ga a kake a nna. Ga re kake ra nna. ga lo kake loa nna. ga ba kake ba nna.

#### PAST TENSE.

# 24. I could (or might) have been.

Ke ne nka nna, o no o ka nna, o na a ka nna, Re ne re ka nna, lo no lo ka nna, la ne ha ka nna,

## 25. I could (or might) not have been. Ke ne ke sa kake ka nna. o no o sa kake oa nna. o na a sa kake a nna. Re ne re sa kake ra nna, lo no lo sa kake loa nna. ba ne ba sa kake ba nna.

## CONDITIONAL MOOD.

### PRESENT TENSE.

26. I should be a man.

Nkabo ke le mothó, o kabo o le mothó, o kabo a le mothó. Re kabo re le bathó, lo kabo lo le bathó, ba kabo ba le bathó, 27. I should not be a man.

Nkabo ke se mothó, o kabo o se mothó, o kabo a se mothó. Re kabo re se bathó, lo kabo lo se bathó, ba kabo ba se bathó.

With an adverb this tense must be—Nkabo ke ntsé (yalo); and the negative—Nkabo ke sa nna (yalo).

# A progressive form of 26 and 27 is used as follows:-

## Affirmative.

I should still go on being a man.

Nkabo ke ntsé ke le mothó, o kabo o ntsé o le mothó, o kabo a ntsé a le mothó. Re kabo re ntsé re le bathó, lo kabo lo ntsé lo le bathó, ba kabo ba ntsé ba le bathó.

# . Negative.

I should not still go on being a man.

Nkabo ke ntsé ke se mothó.
o kabo o ntsé o se mothó.
o kabo a ntsé a se mothó.
Re kabo re ntsé re se bathó.
lo kabo lo ntsé lo se bathó.
ba kabo ba ntsé ba se bathó.

## ANOTHER FORM OF THE PRESENT TENSE.

28. I should (or would) be.

Ke ne ke tla nna.
o no o tla nna.
o na a tla nna.
Re ne re tla nna.
lo no lo tla nna.
ba ne ba tla nna.

29. I would not (or should) not be.

Ke ne ke sénka ke nna, o no o sénka o nna, o na a sénka a nna. Re ne re sénka re nna. lo no lo sénka lo nna. ba ne ba sénka ba nna,

### PAST TENSE.

30. I should (or would) have been.

Nkabo ke ne ka nna, o kabo o no oa nna, o kabo o na a nna, Re kabo re ne ra nna, lo kabo lo no loa nna, ba kabo ba ne ba nna, 31. I should not (or would not)
have been.

Nkabo ke se ka ka nna.
o kabo o se ka oa nna.
o kabo a se ka a nna.
Re kabo re se ka ra nna.
lo kabo lo se ka loa nna.
ba kabo ba se ka ba nna.

# SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

## PRESENT TENSE.

32. That I may be.

Goré ke nnè. goré o nnè goré a nnè. Goré re nnè. goré lo nnè. goré ba nnè. 33. That I may not be.

Goré ke se nnè. goré o se nnè. goré a se nnè. Goré re se nnè. goré lo se nnè. goré ba se nnè.

Another form of the negative-Goré ke se ka ka nna. (See p. 35.)

### FUTURE TENSE.

Affirmative.

34. That I may be. Goré ke tle ke nnè. goré o tle o nnè. goré a tle a nnè. Goré re tle re nnè. goré lo tle lo nnè. goré ba tle ba nnè.

Negative.

35. That I may not be. Goré ke tle ke se ka ka nna. goré o tlo o se ka oa nna. goré a tle a se ka a nna. Goré re tle re se ka ra nna. goré lo tle lo se ka loa nna. goré ba tle ba se ka ba nna.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

27

36. A ke nnè, Let me be.

Nna, be (sing).

A a nnè, Let him be.

A re nnè, Let us be.

Nnañ, Lo nne. } be (plur.)

A ba nnè, Let them be.

3/-

A ke se nnè, A ke se ka ka nna, \}Let me not be

Se nnè, O se nnè,

O se ka oa nna,

A a se nnè, A a se ka a nna,

A re se nnè,

A re se ka ra nna, Se nneñ,

Lo se nnè, Lo se ka loa nna,

A ba se nnè, A ba se ka ba nna, Let us not be.

do not be

Let then not

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Go nna, to be.

Go bisa go nna, not to be.

# PROGRESSIVE MOOD.

# PRESENT TENSE.

40. I am being a man.
Ke ntsé ke le mothó.
o ntsé o le mothó.
o ntsé a le mothó.
Re ntsé re le bathó.
lo ntsé lo le bathó.
ba ntsé ba le bathó.

41. I am not being a man.

Ke ntsé ke se mothó.
o ntsé o se mothó.
o ntsé a se mothó.
Re ntsé re se bathó.
lo ntsé lo se bathó.
ba ntsé ba se bathó.

With an adverb this tense must run—Ke ntsé ke ntsé (yalo), and its negative—Ke ntsé ke sa nna (yalo).

### PAST TENSE.

## Affirmative.

Negative.

42. I was going on being a man.

43. I was not going on being a man.

Ke ne ke ntsé ke le mothó.
o no o ntsé o le mothó.
o na a ntsé a le mothó.
Re ne re ntsé re le bathó.
lo no ntsé lo le bathó.
ba ne ba ntsé ba le bathó.

Ke ne ke ntsé ke se mothó.
o no o ntsé o se mothó.
o na a ntsé a se mothó.
Re ne re ntsé re se bathó.
lo no lo ntsé lo se bathó.
ba ne ba ntsé ba se bathó.

With an adverb this tense must run—Ke ne ke ntsé ke ntsé (yalo), and its negative—Ke ne ke ntsé ke sa nna (yalo).

### FUTURE TENSE.

44. I shall be being a man.

Ntla bo ke le mothó,
o tla bo o le mothó,
o tla bo a le mothó,
Re tla bo re le bathó,
lo tla bo lo le bathó,
ba tla bo ba le bathó,

45. I shall not be being a man.

Ntla bo ke se mothó.
o tla bo o se mothó.
o tla bo a se mothó.
Re tla bo re se bathó.
lo tla bo lo se bathó.
ba tla bo ba se bathó.

But with an adverb—Ntla bo ke ntsé (yalo), and its negative—Ntla bo ke sa nna (yalo).

A still more progressive form of 44 and 45 is used as follows:-

I shall be going on being a man.

Ntla bo ke ntsé ke le mothó.

o tla bo o ntsé o le mothó.

o tla bo a ntsé a le mothó.

Re tla bo re ntsé re le bathó.

lo tla bo lo ntsé lo le bathó,

ba tla bo ba ntsé ba le bathő.

I shall not be going on being a man.

N'that bo ke n'tsé ke se mothó.

o that bo o ntsé o se mothó.

o that bo a ntsé a se mothó.

Re that bo re ntsé re se bathó.

lo that bo lo ntsé lo se bathó.

ba that bo ba ntsé ba se bathó.

## PROGRESSIVE MOOD (Habitual).

## PRESENT TENSE.

46. I am a man as usual.

Kea bo ke le mothó, oa bo o le mothó. oa bo a le mothó. Rea bo re le bathó, loa bo lo le bathó, baa bo ba le bathó.

47. I am not a man as usual.

Kea bo ke se mothó, oa bo o se mothó, oa bo a se mothó. Rea bo re se bathó. loa bo lo se bathó. baa bo ba se bathó.

## ANOTHER FORM.

Affirmative.

Kea bo ke nna mothó.
oa bo o nna mothó.
oa bo a nna mothó.
Rea bo re nna bathó.
loa bo lo nna bathó.
baa bo ba nna bathó.

Negative.

Kea bo ke sa nne mothó, oa bo o sa nne mothó, oa bo a sa nne mothó. Rea bo re sa nne bathó, loa bo lo sa nne bathó, baa bo ba sa nne bathó,

But when used with an adverb tense 46 must run—Kea bo ke ntsé (yalo); and tense 47—Kea bo ke sa nna (yalo).

A still more progressive form of 46 and 47 is used as follows:—

I am going on being a man as usual.

Kea bo ke ntsé ke le mothó.
oa bo o ntsé o le mothó.
oa bo a ntsé a le mothó.
Rea bo re ntsé re le bathó.
loa bo lo ntsé lo le bathó.
baa bo ba ntsé ba le bathó.

I am not going on being a man as usual.

Kea bo ke ntsé ke se mothó.
oa bo o ntsé o se mothó.
oa bo a ntsé a se mothó.
Rea bo re ntsé re se bathó.
loa bo lo ntsé lo se bathó,
baa bo ba ntsé ba se bathó,

## PROGRESSIVE MOOD (Emphatic).

## PRESENT TENSE.

48. I am still a man. Ke sa ntsé ke le mothó. o sa ntsé o le mothó. o sa ntsé a le mothó. Re sa ntsé re le bathó. lo sa ntsé lo le bathó. ba sa ntsé ba le bathó. 49. I am no longer a man. Ga ke tlhölé ke le mothó, ga o tlhölé o le mothó. ga a tlhölé a le mothó. Ga re tlhölé re le bathó. ga lo tlhölé lo le bathó. ga ba tlhölé ba le bathó.

But with the adverb—Ke santsé ke ntsé (yalo), and the negative—Ga ke tlhôlé ke ntsé (yalo).

### PAST TENSE.

50. I was still a man.

Ke ne ke santsé ke le mothó,
o no o santsé o le mothó,
o na a santsé a le mothó.
Re ne re santsé re le bathó,
lo no lo santsé lo le bathó,
ba ne ba santsé ba le bathó.

51. I was no longer a man.
Ke ne ke sa tlhōlé ke le mothó,
o no o sa tlhōlé o le mothó,
o na a sa tlhōle a le mothó,
ke ne re sa tlhōlé re le bathó,
lo no lo sa tlhōlé lo le bathó,
ba ne ba sa tlhōlé ba le bathó.

But with an adverb—Ke ne ke santsé ke ntsé yalo, and the negative
—Ke ne ke sa tlhōlé ke ntsé yalo.

### FUTURE TENSE.

## Affirmative.

52. I shall go on being a man. Ke tla nna ke nna mothó. o tla nna o nna mothó. o tla nna a nna mothó. Re tla nna re nna bathó. lo tla nna lo nna bathó. lo tla nna lo nna bathó.

## Negative.

53. I shall not go on being a man. Ga nka ke nna ke nna mothó. ga o nka o nna o nna mothó. ga a nka a nna a nna mothó. Ga re nka re nna re nna bathó. ga lo nka lo nna lo nna bathó. ga ba nka ba nna ba nna bathó.

## REPETITIVE MOOD.

### PRESENT TENSE.

54. Moreover, I am a man.

Ke bile ke mothó. o bile o mothó. e bile ke mothó. Re bile re bathó. lo bile lo bathó. e bile ke bathó.

But if the completing word be an adjective, or a substantive used adjectively (see tenses 1a and 3a), the third person will become O bile o montle, Moreover, he is good-looking; Ba bile ba molemo, Moreover, they are good.

With the adverb, tense 54 will become-Ke bile ke ntst yalo.

#### PAST TENSE.

55. Moreover, I was a man.

Ke ne ke bile ke le mothó.
o no o bile o le mothó.
e ne e bile e le mothó.
o no o bile a le molemó.

Re ne re bile re le bathó. lo no lo bile lo le bathó. e ne e bile e le bathó. ba ne ba bile ba le molemo.

With the adverb this tense will become-Ke bile ke ne ke ntse yalo.

## PECULIAR TENSES.

## DEPRECATIVE CONDITIONAL.

56. Lest I should be.

Goré é sé éré kgotsa ka nna. goré é sé éré kgotsa oa nna. goré é sé éré kgotsa a nna. Goré é sé éré kgotsa ra nna. goré é sé éré kgotsa loa nna. goré é sé éré kgotsa ba nna.

### ALTERNATIVE FUTURE.

## 57. Or else I shall become a coward.

Nka tla ka nna boböi.
o ka tla oa nna boböi.
o ka tla a nna boböi.

Re ka tla ra nna bobói. lo ka tla loa nna bobói. ba ka tla ba nna bobói.

### PRESENT HABITUAL.

Affirmative.

58. I am wont to be so.
Ke tle ke nnè yalo, o tle o nnè yalo, oa tle a nnè yalo.
Re tle re nnè yalo, lo tle lo nnè yalo, ba tle ba nnè yalo.

Negative.

59. I am not wont to be so.
Ga nke ke nna yalo.
ga o ko o nna yalo.
ga a ke a nna yalo.
Ga re ke re nna yalo.
ga lo ke lo nna yalo.
ga ba ke ba nna yalo.

### PAST HABITUAL.

60. I used to be so.

Ke ne ke tle ke nnè yalo,
o no o tle o nnè yalo,
o na a tle a nnè yalo.
Re ne re tle re nnè yalo.
lo no lo tle lo nnè yalo.
ba ne ba tle ba nne yalo.

61. I used not to be so.

Ke ne ke se ke ke nna yalo,
o no o se ko o nna yalo,
o na a se ke a nna yalo,
Ra ne re se ke re nna yalo,
lo no lo se ke lo nna yalo,
ba ne ba se ke ba nna yalo,

## 62. I have long been so.

Ga ke bóló go nna yalo. ga o bóló go nna yalo. ga a bóló go nna yalo. Ga re bóló go nna yalo. ga lo bóló go nna yalo. ga ba bóló go nna yalo.

## 63. I had long been so.

Ke ne ke sa bóló go nna yalo. o no o sa bóló go nna yalo. o na a sa bóló go nna yalo. Re ne re sa bóló go nna yalo. lo no lo sa bóló go nna yalo, ba ne ba sa bóló go nna yalo.

### ADVERBIAL PERFECT.

## 64. When I have become a man.

Éré ke séna go nna mothó. éré o séna go nna mothó. éré a séna go nna mothó. Éré re séna go nna bathó. éré lo séna go nna bathó. ére ba séna go nna bathó.

## ADVERBIAL PLUPERFECT.

## 65. When I had become a man.

Érilé ke sena go nna mothó. érilé o sena go nna mothó. érilé a sena go nna mothó. Érilé re sena go nna bathó, érilé lo sena go nna bathó, érilé ba sena go nna bathó,



51. In addition to the changes already noticed in § 49, as taking place when the verb follows the particles ka, fa, etc., note the following:—

TENSE 1 .- Since I am a man.

TENSE 2 .- Since I am not a man.

Ka ke le mothó. ka o le mothó. ka e le mothó. Ka re le bathó. ka le le bathó. Ka ke se mothó, ka o se mothó. ka e se mothó. Ka re se bathó. ka lo se bathó. ka e se bathó.

# TENSE 2a. - Since I am not good.

Ka ke se molemō. ka o se molemō. ka a se molemō. Ka re se molemō. ka lo se molemō. ka ba se molemō.

52. In addition to the changes marked as taking place in the verb after the relative pronoun (see § 50) the following should be noticed:—

#### TENSE I.

Nna, eo ke leñ mothó. Qèna, eo o leñ mothó. Enè, eo e leñ mothó. Rona, ba re leñ bathó. Lona, ba lo leñ bathó. Bonè, ba e leñ bathó.

#### TENSE 2.

Nna, eo ke señ mothó. Qèna, eo o señ mothó. Ènè, eo e señ mothó. Rona, ba re señ bathó. Lona, ba lo señ bathó. Bonè, ba e señ bathó.

#### TENSE Ia.

Nna, eo ke leñ molemō. Qèna, eo o leñ molemō. Ènè, eo o leñ molemō. Rona, ba re leñ molemō. Lona, ba lo leñ molemō. Bōnè, ba ba leñ molemō.

#### TENSE 2a.

Nna, eo ke señ molemō. Qèna, eo o señ molemō. Ènè, eo o señ molemō. Rona, ba re señ molemō. Lona, ba lo señ molemō. Bōnè, ba ba señ molemō.

NOTE.—The emphatic pronouns Nna, Oèna, Enè, etc., have been added to the above forms for the purpose of supplying an antecedent, not necessarily as part of the phrase.

53. For the participle of the substantive verb, see what is said as to Participles on p. 43. An instance of the use of the imperfect without the auxiliary as a participle will be found in § 32, where the participial forms ba le, a le, li le, are

used to connect the noun with the numeral, and in § 15, in ke le nosi, li le cosi, etc.

# The verb, Go na le, to have.

54. The verb, go na le (to have) is formed from what seems to be an older form of the substantive verb (go na instead of go nna), and the preposition le (with); e.g. Ke na le pitsé, I have a horse; O na a na le kgomó, He had an ox.

In the negative the le is dropped; e.g. Ga ke na pitsé, I have not a horse; O na a sé na sépe, He had nothing. After ka, etc., the change is made as follows:—Ka ke sé na pitsé, Since I have not a horse. After the relative pronoun the ñ is added to the na, the le is not affected; e.g. Ke bathó ba ba nañ le likgomó thata, They are people who have much cattle; and in the negative the form is as follows:—Lipitsé tse li sé nañ metsé li tla shoa, Horses which have no water will die.

Note. - Sé na is often written séna.

Go na le (the go in this sentence being the indefinite pronoun) is used for there is or there are; e.g. Go na le pitsé e le noe-fèla mo 'saken, There is only one horse in the kraal; Go na le bathó ba le bantsi gone, There are many people there; Go no go na le bathó, There were people. So again, Ga bo go na le bathó. And also in the negative, Ga go na ope, There is no one; Go no go sé na sépe, or Ga bo go sé na sépe, There was nothing.

# " To be there."

55. To be there is expressed as follows :-

O gonè, He is there. Lo gonè, Se gonè, O gonè, Bo gonè, or E gonè, It is there. Ba gonè, Li gonè, E gonè, A gonè, } They are there.

In the negative this becomes Ga a gone, He is not there;

Ga lo gōnè, Ga se gōnè, Ga ba gōnè, etc.; but a form more frequently heard is—

Ga a eo, He is not there.
Ga loo, Ga se eo, Ga oo, Ga boo, or Ga e eo, It is not there.
Ga ba eo,
Ga li eo, Ga e eo, Ga a eo.

NOTE.—After ka, etc. (see § 49), these become Ka a se eo, Fa lo se eo, Ka se se eo, Ka o se eo, etc. And after the relative pronoun (see § 50) they would stand, Eo o se eon, Ba lo se eon, Se se se eon, etc.

This eo preceded by le is also used affirmatively, especially in the past tense; e.g.—

Affirmative. Negative. I was not there. I was there. Ke ne ke le eo. Ke ne ke se eo. o no o le eo. o no o se eo. o na a le eo. o na a se eo. Re ne re le eo. Re ne re se eo. lo no lo le eo. lo no lo se eo. ba ne ba le eo. ba ne ba se eo.

One does not meet with this form eo in the present affirmative, except after such particles as ka, fa, etc., and also after the relative pronoun; e.g. Ka a le eo, Since he is there; Fa a le eo, If he is there; Ba ba le eoñ, They who are there; Eo o le eoñ, He who is there. And also after the adverb sa (still); e.g. Ba sa le eo, They are still there.

# 6. PREPOSITIONS, ADVERBS, CONJUNCTIONS, ETC.

#### THEN-THEREFORE.

56. Ke gōnè (after which the verb always takes the participial n) expresses then in the sense of thereupon, or in that case; e.g. Fa o ka ntemèla ka tsatsi yotlhe, ke gōnè nka go naean shelen, If you will dig for me a whole day then I will give you a shilling. O na a mo gakatsa thata, 'me ke gōnè o nen a bua masokó a a sa choanelan, He provoked him

exceedingly, and thereupon he spoke unseemly words. (Notice that in this last sentence the verb bua has not the final n.

The auxiliary verb neñ has taken this.)

Then in the sense of thereupon or after that is expressed by elirañ gōnè, or ea lira gōnè; e.g. Erilé ba séna go shoetsa go lema, ea lira gōné ba tsamaeañ, Then, when they had finished ploughing, they went away. The verb after elirañ gōnè, or ea lira gōnè must always end with the participial ñ. The present form is always used, never the perfect or past. The pronouns ke, o, re, lo, and ba are used. The third person singular is always o, never a. Elirè gōnè is used in an imperative sentence; e.g. O tho o tsamaeè fèla, o se ka oa fapoga, 'me éré fa o fitha fa litséla li fapanañ teñ, elirè gōnè o fapogañ, Just walk on, and don't turn aside, but when you get to where the roads cross, then turn aside.

Then (thereupon) is often expressed by means of the verbs go tloga and go itsé; e.g. O na a lema litema li le peli, 'me a tloga a tsamaea, He ploughed two furrows and then he went away; O na a bua yalo a itsé go léla, He spoke thus and then he cried. Note that itsé thus used takes the infinitive after it. Sometimes itsané is used instead of itsé.

Then (at that time) is sometimes expressed by mothan go. There is an instance of this in the chapter on Holy Baptism in the Secoana Catechism—"Ba liran mothan go

le Molimo?" What do they then make with God?

Therefore is also expressed by ke gonè; e.g. Ke gonè ke ren, Therefore I say; ke gonè ke 'melitsen, Therefore I have beaten him. Sometimes ka gonè is added after the verb; e.g. Ke gonè ke 'melitsen ka gonè.

#### WHEN.

57. When, used interrogatively, is expressed by leñ; e.g. Ba tla tla leñ? When will they come? Re tla go bōna leñ gape? When shall we see you again? One often hears leñ used in such a sentence as the following:—Ga ke itsé goré o tla tla leñ, I do not know when he will come. Fa expresses when in the future; e.g. Fa o tla, ke tla e go shupetsa, When you come, I will show it to you. (The real meaning of fa is

if, and it is only used as when in a sentence which expresses uncertainty; see § 67.) Ka expresses when in a past sense; e.g. Ka ba séna go tsamaea, When they had gone.

The verb go re (to say) lends itself to express when in the following forms :- Eré, etlaré, erilé, earé, e tle éré, e nnè éré.

# Examples.

FUTURE. - Etlaré ke tsamaea, ke go bitse, When I go I will call you; Eré o fitlha, o botsè koa o agileň teň, When you arrive, ask where he lives. Also E tle éré lo ea, lo mpitse, When you go, call me; and E nne e re tshipi e lela, lo akofa, Whenever the bell rings, hasten.

FUTURE HYPOTHETICAL.—Etlaré fa pula e na, ke lemè,

when rain falls I will plough.

(Observe the use of the subjunctive in ke go bitse, o botse, and ke lem?.)

PAST.—Earé (or erilé) ke fitlha koa molacoanen, ka timèla, When I got to the brook I lost my way. Of the two forms earé and erilé, the former is less definite than the latter, and is preferred in a sentence in which what follows upon when is of a more general and remote nature.

For the use of éré, etlaré, earé, and erilé with tenses 62 and 63, see what is said of participles on p. 43; e.g. Earé ba séna go fitlha ba tlhola malatsi a le mabeli gonè, Having

arrived, they spent two days there.

Earé must not be confounded with earé, a form denoting whenever, and requiring to be remotely followed by the subjunctive; e.g. Eäré ke 'mitsa, a tlè, Whenever I call him, he comes.

PLUPERFECT.-Erilé ke timetse, ka itigèla fa fatshé, ka robala, When I had lost my way, I threw myself on the ground, and went to sleep.

NOTE. - The third person pronoun singular governed by ere, etlare, erilé, earé, is always a, never o. Probably the tense required after these forms is the imperfect, without the auxiliary. It should also be stated that instead of the pronoun e the pronouns agreeing with the noun or pronoun governed by when may be used; that is to say, it is indifferent whether you say Erilé ke timetse, or ke rilé ke timetse; eré o fitlha, or o ré o fitlha.

Motlhañ go, ntlhañ go, motlhañ o, and mogañ o express when; e.g. Motlhañ go o tsamaeañ, o mpitsè, When you go call me; E tle éré motlhañ go lo eañ sekoleñ, lo mpólelèlè, When (the time comes that) you go to school, tell me. This, form is especially used as the historical when; e.g. Erilé mogañ go Baroloñ ba fulugañ koa Motlhana-pitsé, ba tla mo Thaba Nchó, When the Baroloñ left Platberg, they came to Thaba Nchu.

(Observe that the verb governed by mothhaft go ends with the participial ft.) These forms which are uses of the word mothla (a period of time) are more remote than those formed from go ref. For instance, you cannot use mothlaft go of anything which has happened or may happen on the day in which you are speaking. You cannot express When I have eaten I will go, by Mothhaft go ke yeleft ke that tsamaea, but you must say Etlaré ke sena go ya ke tsamaèè. Mogast cannot be used of a thing done in the same year as that in which you speak. It is formed from noaga (a year), and sometimes one hears nogast instead of mogast.

#### FROM,

58. From is expressed by koa and mo. Koa is used when a more or less distant place is referred to; e.g. Ke coa koa morakeň, I come from the cattle post; O tla tla leň koa molapoň, When will he come from the river? (See p. 47 for the use of the simple verb with koa expressing from, as opposed to the relative with koa expressing to.) Mo is used when a place is near; e.g. Ke coa mo tluň, I come from the house; Lokoalō loo lo coa mo go mañ? From whom does that letter come? Lo coa mo monneň oa koa Kapa, It comes from a man at the Cape.

NOTE.—In this example the questioner uses mo (mo go mañ) as not supposing the writer to be far distant, and because the fact of a letter being received from him seems to make him a present person. Mo having been used in the question is also used in the answer, but koa is used with Kapa, because the Cape is known to be far distant.

The verbs go tloga (to move) and go simolola (to begin) are used to express from descriptively; e.g. Go simolola gompiyeno, From to-day; Go tloga fano go ea koa ga malomago ke bokgakala yo bokaee? From here to your uncle's, how far is it?

#### TO-UNTO.

59. To is also expressed by mo and koa. Of these mo is used with verbs which express motion towards one's self; e.g. Tla mo go nna, Come to me; Se leré mo go rona, Bring it to us; Se gogèlè mo go nna, Drag it to me. Koa is used to express motion to or towards another; e.g. Eà koa go 'mago, Go to your mother; Se isè koa tsaleñ ea gago, Take it to your friend. The relative verb with and without the preposition is mostly used when expressing motion to a person or thing; e.g. Ke tla se ba tsèèla, I will take it to them; Ba se nthometse, They have sent it to me; Ao koaletse 'rago? Have you written to your father? And with the preposition; e.g. Tabogèla koa go ènè, Run to him; Boèla koa nokeñ, Return to the river; Thibèla pitsé eeo koano go nna, Turn that horse (hither) to me.

When to is to refer to a person's village rather than to himself, koa goora and mo goora are used instead of koa go and mo go (compare last par. of § 19); e.g. Se isè koa goora Yohane, Take it to John's place; Ke nna mo goora Morōke, I live in Moroka's town. Koa ga and mo ga are used when a person's house is referred to; e.g. Ke mo tlogetse mo ga Ma-Petrose, I left him at Peter's mother's house; Eä le noana koa ga rakgali, Take the child to my aunt's.

Ka koa would be used if you had to refer to a place between which and yourself some mountain or town intervened. For instance, at Thaba Nchu to the north-east of the chief town lies the village where the Basuken live, and on the south-west is another village called after a man named Tau. If a man were going from the Basuken to Tau's village, he would say Ke ea ka koa goora Tau (I am going to Tau's place), because it lies on the other side of the more important town. This rule will apply to koa whenever it is used as a preposition. (See §§ 58, 60, 61, 82, 83, and 87.)

Unto is expressed by the verbs go ea and go isa; e.g. O na a mo rata go isa loshuñ, He loved him unto death; Ke tla leka go tshegetsa buka e go ea bokhutloñ ya botshelo ya me,

I shall try to keep this book unto the end of my life.

# IN-INTO-WITHIN-ON AND UPON.

60. In is expressed by mo when a thing is near, either really or ideally; e.g. mo tshimon, in the garden; mo 'saken, in the kraal; mo tlun, in the house. Or, when a thing is more or less distant, by koa; e.g. O koa kerekeñ, He is in church; Ba koa tshimon, They are in the garden; that is to say, if the church or garden were close at hand, mo would be used, but if even a little distance off, koa would be right.

Into is expressed by mo used after the verb in the relative form (see p. 47); e.g. O na a mo tsèèla mo segotlon, He took him into the back yard; Ke mo amogeletse mo tluñ ea me, I

have received him into my house.

Within and inside are expressed by mo ten ga, koa ten ga, and kafa teñ ga; e.g. Lefókó le tsenye mo teñ ga péló ea gagoe, The word has entered within his heart; Likgomó li mo ten ga lesaka, The oxen are inside the kraal: O tla bona petloana mo teñ ga ntló, You will find the adze inside the house. Koa ten would be used of the more distant part of a place or thing, as of a considerable cave, Koa teñ ga logaga (within the cave), would imply at the further end of it.

Kafa ten would be used of the enclosure round the house. not in the house itself; e.g. O kafa teñ ga lolapa, He is inside the court-yard; O kafa ten ga segotlo, He is inside the back yard. Or a man being himself outside and speaking of some one within an enclosure would say, O kafa ten, He is inside.

Perhaps kafa here and in § 86 and 87 should be written ka fa, since it seems to follow the note given in § 59 (see ka koa).

On and upon are expressed by mo; e.g. Ke 'meile mo mañoleñ a ka, I placed him on my knees; Tsaea mogocana o o mo tafolen, Take the bowl which is on the table; Leré lusho lo lo mo sefalen, Bring the spoon which is on the bin; Pega motlhotha o mo lephaten, Hang this sieve on the peg; Thapo e mole logoren mole, The cord is yonder on the hedge yonder.

# AT.

61. At is expressed by fa, koa, mo, and mono. Fa is used when at expresses by the side of, as fa seatlen sa gagoè se se siamen, at his right hand.

Koa expresses at in such a sense as koa gae, at home; O koa morakeñ, He is at the post; Ba koa masimō, They are at the gardens; Ke nna koa Thaba Nchó, I live at Thaba Nchu.

Mo and mono also express at in the sense of here at; e.g. O mo gae, He is at home (that is to say, though he may not be in his house at the present moment, he has not gone away permanently); O nna kae yanoñ, e sale bogoló-goló ga ke ésé ke be ke go bōné? Where do you live now—I have not seen you for ever so long; Ke ntsé ke le mono gae—a ga se ka o se ke o tla go mpōna? I am living here at home—is it not because you are not in the habit of coming to see me?

# HERE-HITHER.

62. Here is expressed by fa, fano, mo, mono, and koano. Fa is used for here in the sense of close by ; e.g. Nna fa, sit here (Nna fale\* would express a little further off, but still close by); E bèè fa, Put it here. Fano is used in answer to the question of some one, who cannot see you, calling O kae? Where are you? Ke fano, I am here. Fano could be used of any place, such as a kraal or open yard, but mono would be right to use of a covered place, which could, as it were, contain you; e.g. O fa kae? or O felo kae? (see § 19), Whereabouts are you? Ke mono tlun, or Ke mono mo tlun, I am here in the house. Mono is used for here in the sense of this town here; e.g. Ke nna mono, I live here; O tsile len mono? When did you come here? Koano expresses the idea of hither in the sense of here to me; e.g. Mo leré koano, Bring him here (to me), or more fully, Mo leré koano go nna; Re tsile koano go oèna, We have come here to you; Mo rèè a tlè koano go rona, Tell him to come here to us. But if hither meant to this place here, mono would be used.

#### THERE.

- 63. There in the sense of in that place is expressed by goné
- \* Le added to fa, mo, and koa, supplies the idea of further off; e.g. Leba koa, Look there; Ga ke reé koa, ke raea koale, I don't mean there—I mean yonder there. See § 16.

and ten, which are interchangeable. The adverbial use of these has already been stated in § 55. Koa and koo are sometimes used; e.g. Leba koa, look there (i.e. in the direction in which I point). Koo means There where you are; e.g. Go liralañ koo? What is going on there where you are? Mafókó en koo? What are the news in your part of the world? A Henry o gone koo? Is Henry there with you? For the use of there, as an indefinite pronoun, see § 19.

#### WHERE-WHENCE.

64. Kae is used interrogatively; e.g. O ile kae, Where has he gone? O kae, Where is he? Fa kae is used for whereabouts: e.g. O fa kae? Whereabouts is he? Koa kae is used when the question supposes the person inquired for to be in some house or covered place; e.g. O koa kae? Where is he in?

Ka kae is used for where, in the sense of by which way? So a man coming into a house in the dark, on the floor of which others were sleeping, would ask, Ke tla feta ka kae? Where shall I pass? He would be answered, Feta kafa, Pass on this side. Again, you may ask, O ile ka kae? Which way has he gone?

Fa kae, in the same way, stands for whence or from what place; e.g. a man coming back with a horse which had run away, might be asked, O e thibile fa kae? Where did you turn it from? Kgomó e, e coa fa lefatshiñ lefe? From what country

does that ox come?

When not an interrogative, where is expressed by koa at the beginning, and gone or ten at the end of the sentence. In this case the verb must always end with the participial ñ; e.g. Ga ke itsé koa ba ileñ teñ, I don't know where they have gone; O ile koa o sa kakeñ oa mo latela gone, He has gone where you cannot follow him; Nchupetsa koa o tla agañ ten, Show me where you will build. But fa and mo are sometimes thus used instead of koa in speaking of a present place; e.g. A ga se fa pitsé ea gago e kileñ ea go ligèla teñ? Is not this (the place) where your horse once threw you? (Mosima o) a ga se mo nca ea gago e neñ ea bolaèla 'mutla gonè, Is not this (the hole) where your dog killed a hare?



# FOR-SINCE-BECAUSE-ON ACCOUNT OF.

65. For is expressed by gonne; e.g. Nna, ke itsé sentlè, gonne ke ne ka 'mōna a lira yalo, For my part, I am quite sure (literally, I know well), For I saw him do so; Le nna ke ne ka mo utloa, gonne ke ne ke le teñ, I also heard him,

for I was there.

Since is expressed by ka and éréka; e.g. Ga re itsé fa re tla tlhacoa likhai gompiyeno, ka metsé a le kgakala, We do not know whether we shall wash the clothes to-day, since the water is far off; O choanetse go mo naea tlhobolō ea gago ka o sentse ea gagoè, You ought to give him your gun, since you have destroyed his. Eréka is used as an introduction to a sentence, in the sense of forasmuch: e.g. Éréka bathó ba gana go utloa molaō, Forasmuch as the people refuse to obey the law; Éréka, erilé ke go bólelèla oa tshèga, Since, when

I told you you laughed.

E sale is used for since in the sense of ever since, or since such and such a time; e.g. E sale ke 'mona nogola ga ke ésé ke be ke 'moné, literally, Since I saw him last year I have not yet again seen him; E sale nyalon ea gago ga o ésé o re yèlé nala, Since your marriage you have not paid us a visit. (Go ya nala, to pay a visit. The relative yèla is used because the object re is expressed. This change is required with many verbs of motion.) E sale go agioa ga kereke ga go ésé go ko go feté letsatsi lepe ke sa e ea, Ever since the church was built there has not passed a day (in which) I have not been to it; Noana eo oa ntshaba—o kile a ucoa lusho loa me, 'me ka 'metsa, 'me e sale yalo oa ntshaba, That child is afraid of me—she once stole my spoon, and I beat her, and ever since she has been afraid of me.

Because is expressed by ka gonne, ka ntlha ea gono, ka ntlha ea moo (literally, on account of that), kaga moo (concerning that), and ka mokgoa oo (literally, by that manner); e.g. Ke ne ka bua yalo ka gonne ke ne ke gaketse, I spoke so because I was angry; Pitsé ea gago e siile ea ka ka ntlha ea gono ea me e tlhotsa, Your horse outstripped mine because mine was lame; 'Nya, ga ea e siea ka ntlha ea moo, No, it did not outstrip it

because of that; Ga toe Tau o na a bolaea bathó bogológoló—
o na a ba bolaea ka mokgoa oañ, It is said that Tau killed
people long ago—killed them because of what? Ka ntlha ea
bogolu, On account of theft; A ke ka gōnè fèla moo, Is it
only because of that? Èè, ke ka mokgoa oo fèla, Yes, it is only
on that account; A o tsile ka ntlha ea puō ea me, Have you
come on account of my word? Èè, ke tsilé ka gono o rilé ke
tlè, Yes, I have come because you said I was to come; O coaletseñ
moyakō? Why have you shut the door? Ke ka ntlha ea pula,
It is because of (or on account of) the rain; Ke tshaba go
'metsa ka ntlha ea nthō, I am afraid; to beat him because of
the sore; Ke hulugile ka mokgoa oa letsatsi, I have removed
because of the drought; O itlhaganetse ka ntlha ea noka—a
ré, e tla tlala, He made haste on account of the river—he said
it would get full.

# THAT.

66. That is expressed by goré or fa. When goré expresses in order that, it is followed by the subjunctive mood (see tenses 29 and 31, p. 35). But goré and fa are otherwise used interchangeably; e.g. Kea itsé fa o le mothó, I know that you are a man, or Kea itse goré o mothó (for the difference in the verb, o le in the one case, and o in the other; see § 51). Goré is really the infinitive mood of the verb go ré (to say), and is therefore used as follows:—Ke go ré, that is to say; yaka go ré, for instance; le ka goré ka goré, and so on.

NOTE.—Ga toe and go tuloe are torms one often hears used to express there is said. These must be relies of a verb at one time more commonly used. A few examples are given. Ga toe mogoagaliago o letse a bolaile leñibi mo mogobiñ, It is said that your father-in-law killed an otter yesterday in the vlei. Kana mothó eo go toen Ra-Pulana o agile fa kae? Whereabouts does a person called Ra-Fulana live? Yaka go tuloe, Ñoana eo o bonya le eo o bonakō ke ba rata botlhe, As the saying goes, the clever child and the slow child I love them both. The form go teiloe (it has been said) is followed by ga toe; e.g. Go teiloe nnetle ga toe a èè koa morakeñ, What's-his-name has been told to go to the post,

IF-OR-PERHAPS-OR ELSE-EXCEPT.

67. If is expressed by fa (see § 57 on the use of fa as



when); e.g. Fa pula e ka na ntla lema, If rain should fall I would plough; Fa ba ea le nna nka ea, If they go I also will go; Fa o thoka señoe, nkoalèla o nkitsisé, If you are in need of anything, write to me and let me know. Goré may be used interchangeably with fa; e.g. Eä, o bonè fa tséla eeo e siamé, Go and see if that road is right, or Eä, o bonè goré a tséla eeo e siamé (literally, Go, you see that that road is it right). When fa is added to the forms of go ré, given in § 57, it gives the idea of uncertainty. Eré fa and etlaré fa are forms of when implying probability rather than something confidently expected. The most uncertain form is ekare fa; e.g. A ekaré fa 'rago a tla, o santsé o setse koa morago yana, a ga a kake a go betsa? If your father should come while you are staying behind like that, would he not beat you?

Or is expressed by gono, kgono, kgotsa, and lefaele. The first three are interchangeable: e.g. Ke tla palama pitsé ea ga rrè, kgotsa ea ga malomè, I shall ride my father's horse or my uncle's. (It would be equally right to say gono ea ga malomè, or kgono ea ga malomè). Lefaele (literally, le fa e le, and if it be') is especially used as we use either (see an example of this in the Tenth Commandment), and also to express whether it be; eä koa 'sakeñ, o tsèè pitsé e o e ratañ, lefaele e choaana, lefaele e pululu, kgotsa ñoe, Go to the kraal and take which horse you like, whether it be the white mare or the grey horse, or any other. Lefa e ka nna also expresses whether it be; e.g. Lefa e ka nna ènè kgotsa eo moñoe, whether it be he or another.

Perhaps is expressed by kampo, ampo, or kgampo, all of which words are interchangeable; e.g. Kgampo o tla tla gompiyeno, Perhaps he will come to-day. Perhaps is also expressed by etlare kgotsa and motlha ope; the first of these is followed by the verb in the subjunctive mood, the second requires the potential; e.g. Etlaré kgotsa a gane, or motlha ope o ka gana, Maybe he will refuse (see tense 56). Another form, ekaré kgono, is also used. This would be a still less assured form than etlare kgono (or kgotsa); e.g. Ekaré kgono a tla gompiyeno, He may come to-day.

Or else is expressed by éré gono; e.g. Lipholo tsera li

letse li vele mabele a rona-rrè a ré o mo ntshetsè liponto li le tlhano, éré gono o mo nèè kgomó, Your bullocks ate our corn last night-my father says you must pay him five bounds. or else give him an ox.

Except is expressed by faésé (if it be not); e.g. Ga ke itsé ope gonè faésé Yohane, I know no one there except

Tohn.

# THOUGH-NEVERTHELESS-WHEREAS.

68. Lefa expresses although; e.g. Lefa letsatsi le kolometse nka ea-pitsé ea me e tsamaea sentlè bosigo. Though the sun has set I will go-my horse goes well at night; Lefa bathó botlhe ba ka tsamaea, nna nka sala, Though all the people go, I will remain; Lefa a le 'motlana, o thata, Though

he be little, he is strong.

Ecoa also expresses though; e.g. 'Me ntla ga o ntebogé. ecoa ke go thusitse, Well, you don't thank me, though I have helped you; O tlhola a ba refolèla, ecoa bonè ba tle ba mo lefise, He goes on letting them off without fines, though they are in the habit of fining him; Ga a itsé go aga, ecoa a na a rutiloe, He does not know how to build, though he has been taught: O lira yaka mohumanègi, ecoa e le mohumi, He acts like a poor man, though he is a rich man; O bua yaka eo o sénañ mafókó, ecoa a le bonôlo, He speaks like an unkind man (go na le mafókó, to have words, idiom for to be kind), though he is meek.

Le mororo expresses although; e.g. Ba rata lefatshé va bonè, le mororo le séna metsé, They like their country, although it has no water; Ga ba kgatlhoé ke lefatshé ya bonè, le mororo le na le lithare, They are not pleased with their country,

though it has trees.

Nevertheless is expressed by lefagontsévalo (literally, and if it be so); e.g. Eè, kea îtsé fa a mpifetse, 'me lefagontsévalo fa ke 'mona ke tla mo lumelisa, Yes, I know he has shunned me, but nevertheless if I see him I shall greet him; O ntlabelelitse, 'me lesagontsévalo ke sa mo rata, He has slandered me, but nevertheless I still love him,

Whereas is expressed by ntsekane and elekane; e.g. Ke



itheile ka re, Mothó eoo ke ènè eo o botlhalé go gaisa bathó botlhe, ntsekané go na le bathó ba le bantsi ba ba botlhalé yaka ènè, I said to myself, I said, that man is the wisest of men, whereas there are many men as wise as he; O tsilé yaka a le bonōlō, elekane oa ucoa, He came like a gentle person, whereas he steals.

#### WITH.

69. Le expresses with in the sense of together with; e.g. Ke tsilé le ènè, I have come with him. (See the use of na in § 15.)

NOTE. — Go tla le (to come with) and go ea le (to go with) are often used for to bring and to take,

Le also expresses along; e.g. Eä le molapō, Go along the river; Eä le tséla, Go along the road (i.e. go with the road, or where the road goes).

Ka expresses with in the sense of by means of; e.g. Ke ne ka e séga ka thipa, I cut it with a knife; Ke apaea bogōbè ka pitsa eeo, I cook porridge with that pot; O na a ntitaea ka lecoélé, He struck me with the fist. Ka is also used as with in adverbial phrases, such as ka tlótlō, with honour; ka tlhokomèlō, with care.

#### BY.

70. Ke expresses by when it refers to the author or doer of anything; e.g. Ntló e e agiloe ke Yakobo, This house was built by James; O rutiloè ke nna, He was taught by me; Mesème ea me e ne ea kgopholoa ke seféfo, My mats were swept away by a whirlwind. But ka must be used for by means of (see § 69). For instances of the difference between ke and ka, note the following:—Póli e choéroè ke setlhatshana ka linaka, The goat was caught by the bush by its horns; Noana o itsioé ke magoè, A child is known by its mother; Mothó o itsioé ka litsala tsa gagoè, A man is known by his friends.

By (adverb of place) is expressed by fa, governing the locative case; e.g. Fa koloin, by the side of the waggon; fa

go ènè, by his side; fa seliben, by the well.



#### HOW.

71. The interrogative how when it means in what way is expressed by yañ; when it means by what means, kañ must be used; e.g. Nka ea yañ, ga ke na sebaka? How can I go, I have no time? Nka ea kañ, ga ke na pitsé? How can I go, I have no horse?

How, used interjectionally, is expressed by kana before the sentence and yañ at its end; e.g. Kana go lefifi yañ! How dark it is / Kana o rata nca ea gago yañ! How fond

you are of your dog!

How, when not an interrogative, is expressed in the following ways:—Ga ke itsé goré nka ea kañ, literally, I do not know that I can go by what means; Ga ke itsé goré nka ea yañ, literally, I do not know that I can manage to go how; Ga ke itsé kafa nka eañ ka gōnè, literally, I do not know according to I can go by it. This last form—kafa before the verb and ka gōnè after it—is most frequently used. Notice that the verb ends with the participial n̄; e.g. Loa itsé kafa lo choanetseñ go ipaea ka gōnè (or ka teñ), You know how you ought to behave. When the auxiliary is used to place the verb in the past tense, the verb does not take the n̄ (see § 50); e.g. Ba ne ba mpólelèla kafa ba ne ba bolaea phika ka teñ, They told me how they had killed the python. But the n̄ may fall on the auxiliary, and one sometimes hears kafa ba nen ba bolaea.

After the verb go itsé (to know) how need not be expressed; e.g. O itsé go lema, He knows (how) to plough; Ba

itse go epa moseele, They know how to dig a trench.

# WHY.

72. Why, standing by itself, is expressed by Ke ka go ren? literally, It is by to say what? Ke ka go nen? It is by to be what? Ke ka ntlha ea en? It is on what account? Ke ka mokgoa oan? It is by what manner?

When why precedes a sentence it may be expressed by ke en, ke go ren, or ke go nen, which are interchangeable; e.g.—

Ke en Ke go ren did not go where I said you were to go?

Why is also expressed by the interrogative pronoun  $\bar{n}$  or  $e\bar{n}$  (see § 18) attached to or following the relative form of the verb (see § 43); e.g. O mpatlelañ, or O mpatlela eñ? Why do you seek me? (literally, What do you seek me for? Ga lo ntumeleleñ? Why do you not believe me?

Again, why is expressed by ka fa and ka gond (see § 71); e.g. Ga ke itsé kafa lo mpilitsen ka gond, I don't know why

you have called me.

Why, when used as an interjection, may be expressed by ntla; e.g. Ntla! pitsé ea gago ea tlhotsa, Why! your horse is lame; Ntla! mothó eo o bosilō, Why! that man is foolish.

# ACCORDING TO-CONCERNING.

73. According to is expressed by kafa, which governs the locative case (see § 7); e.g. Kafa lefókuñ ya me, According to my word; Kafa mokgoeñ oa sechaba, According to the

custom of the tribe.

Concerning or about is expressed by kaga; e.g. Ke tsile go go bólelèla kaga malomago, I have come to tell you about your uncle; O na a mpotsa kaga mafókó a a na a buioa mo kgotleñ, He questioned me concerning the words which were spoken in the court. Kaga must be followed by the genitival pronouns; e.g. Kaga gagoè, about him (not kaga ènè); kaga me, about me (not kaga nna). Kaga is also used as follows:—Kaga me, For my part, or As far as I am concerned.

# AS-LIKE-AS THOUGH.

74. As or like is expressed by yaka; e.g. Opèla yaka ke opèla, Sing as I sing; O bua yaka mogoloë, He speaks like his brother; Kgoetsa moroba sentlè yaka nna, Drive the heifer nicely like me; A o ka bala yaka ènè? Can you read like him? O léla yaka noanyana, You cry like a little child. Féla yaka expresses just like; e.g. Fèla yaka fa mothó a ea

go rèka kgomó, o tla li èla-tlhōkō cotlhe péle, go bōna goré kgomó e ntlè thata go fetisa ke efe, Just as when a man goes to buy an ox, he will scrutinize them all first, to see which is the very best. After yaka the third person nominative pronoun

(he) is always a.

Like, in the sense of similar to, is expressed by the verb go choana (to be like) followed by le (with); e.g. Kgama e choana le tsesèbè, The hartebeest is like the bastard-hartebeest; Puo ea Secoana e choana le ea Sesotho, The Secoana language is like the Sesutho. The difference between go choana and yaka may be seen by the following example:—Ntló ea gago e choana le ea ga mmè, Your house resembles my mother's; Ntló ea gago e ntsé fèla yaka ea ga mmè, Your house is exactly like my mother's.

As though, or it seems as if, is expressed by éte, or ekéte, with and without yaka; e.g. Ekéte ke bathó ba ba itseñ go lema, It seems as if they are people who know how to plough; A ga se ènè, eole, Is it not he, that man yonder? Éte ke ènè, It looks like him; O lira yaka éte ga oa ithuta, You work as though you had not been taught (literally, had not learnt). After the relative pronoun, ñ may be added to ekéte; e.g. Ba ntsé fela yaka ba ekétéñ ga ba na tlhaloganyō, They are just

like those who are as if they had no understanding.

Note the difference between the following:—Yaka re magolu, As if we are thieves; and Yaka re le magolu, As (or since) we are thieves; Yaka ke mohumi, As if he were a rich

man; Yaka e le mohumi, As he is a rich man.

Bo is also a form used, especially among the older Becoana, to express as if; e.g. A o lira yalo bo o noanyana? Do you do thus, as if you were a child? A oa mpotsa bo ke itse lilo tseo? Do you ask me as if I knew those things? A ke tla go fa, bo o tle o mphe? Shall I give to you, as if you ever give to me? This bo sometimes means whether; e.g. Ke rata o utloe, bo ke koalile masokó sentle, kgotsa 'nya, I wish you to hear whether I have written the news nicely or no.

#### SO-THUS.

75. So is expressed by yalo; e.g. O tle o 'mólelèle yalo,

Tell him so; E tsèè yalo, Take it so; O se ka oa e tsaea yalo, Don't take it so; A go nnè yalo, Be it so.

When so means therefore, it is expressed by yana; e.g. 'Me yana, ka bathó botlhe ba mo laèla yalo, etc., And so,

because all the people directed him thus, etc.

Again yana is used to express thus, when it is to lead on to some advice or narration; e.g. O the o'molelèlè yana, o re, a rulèlè ntho ea gagoè ka lothaka, Tell him thus, say, he is to thatch his house with reeds.

# ABOUT-AS MANY AS-SO MUCH-HOW MANY.

76. About, in the sense of nearly, is expressed by e ka ne e le (sometimes written kane); e.g. E ka ne e le bathó ba le mashómè a le mabeli, There are about twenty people; E ka ne e ne e le likolobe li le mashómè a le mabeli mo tshimoñ, There were about twenty pigs in the garden. Etlaré kgotsa (see § 67) is often used for about; e.g. Ke gopola etlaré kgotsa ba nnè mashómè a le matlhano, I think they are about fifty.

As great as is expressed by kana ka; e.g. Ntló ea ga rrè e kana ka ntló ea ga 'ragō, My father's house is the same size as your father's house; Ba agile lesaka ye legoló ye le kana ka ya rona, They have built a large kraal as big as our's.

Equal to is expressed by the verb go lekana; e.g. A Noka e Nchó e kana ka Noka e Tshetlha? Is the Orange River as large as the Vaal River? Ga ke itsé—ke gopola lia lekana,

I don't know-I think they are the same size.

How many is expressed by kaee, which is an adjective and comes under the rule given in \$\mathbb{S}\$ 23, 32; e.g. Nka tsaea li le kaee? How many may I take? Banyana ba gago ba kaee? How many are your children? O chotsé go le kaee? How much have you taken? O ile gone ga kaee? How often have you been there? O agile koa Thaba Ncho ka sebaka se sekaee? How long have you lived at Thaba Nchu?

The Becoana are wont to use their fingers for the purpose of expressing numbers (see § 30). In connection with this practice two words bokana and bokalo are used. If I wanted to tell you to take five of anything, I should hold up my left hand open, and say, Tsaea bokana, Take so many. If

you wished to ask if you might take five, you would do the same and say, A nka tsaea bokana? May I take so many? to which I should answer, Eè, tsaea bokalo, Yes, take that number. Go le kana and go le kalo are also used as follows :- If I wanted leave to take a yard of plank, I could show its owner that measure by holding out my hands and could say, A nka tsaea go le kana, May I take so much? to which he might answer, Eè, tsaea go le kalo, Yes, take that quantity.

# AGAINST.

77. Against is expressed by kaga, kemanon le, and kgathanon le ; e.g.-

Go bua kaga gagoe, Go bua kemanon le ènè, Go bua kgatlhanon le ènè,

Kemanoñ le and Kgatlhanoñ le are perhaps modern Secoana, and seem to have been called into being by the weakness of kaga, which need only mean concerning (see § 73). Refer to § 43 for the use of the relative verb to express against.

# HENCEFORTH.

78. Henceforth is expressed by go tloga fa, and go tloga foo, the first meaning from this time forth, and the second, from that time forth; e.g. 'Me go tloga foo ba ne ba ikaelèla go ipusholosetsa, And from that time forth they determined to revenge themselves; Go tloga fa ga nka ke tlhôla ke palama pitsé eeo, From this time forth I will never again ride that horse.

Refer to § 65 for e sale (ever since), which is so often used to express henceforth; e.g. E tla ne e sale gompiyeno ga nka ke tlhola ke leka go tshéla noka e tletse, From this day forth I will never again try to cross a river when it is full; O nnyalitse fa péle ga bana ba me, 'me e sale yana ba tla nkaea eo o nyatsegileñ, You have despised me before my children, and from henceforth they will regard me as despicable.

#### TOGETHER.

79. 'Mogo expresses together; e.g. Re tsile 'mogo, We have come together : Ba tla ea 'mogo, They will go together. Go ea 'mogo, is used as an idiom for to agree; e.g. Mafókó a gago a ea 'môgô le a ga rrè, Your words agree with my father's. The reciprocal form of the verb assists in expressing the idea of together (see § 43).

80. The following adverbs of manner take their place in a sentence without affecting other words, and it will suffice to give examples of them :-

Very, thata, bobe, segolb. Very, very, thata segolo, thata bobe, thata thata, and segolo setonna. Badly, mashod. Nicely, sentle.

Especially, bogoló (see § 29). Simply, fela. Surely, kaitsane or kaitse. Wantonly, ka bomo.

# Examples.

Se molemo thata, It is very nice.

Se molemo thata thata, It is very, very nice.

Ke mo rata thata segoló, I love him very much indeed.

O palama bobe, You ride very much (almost implying too much). Ke go leofetse segoló setonna, I have sinned against you exceedingly.

Pula e nele thata bobe, The rain has fallen excessively.

Kana o rókile mashoè yañ, How badly you have seron.

O tlhabile nku mashoè, You have killed the sheep badly. Bogoló ke rata go tsamaea, I would rather go.

Ga ke raté go ré o sebolu, \ I do not wish to say you are lazy-I would bogoló nka re o bonya, I rather say you are slow,

Éè, ke ba rata botlhe, 'me bogoló ke rata Yohane, Yes, I love them all, but especially I love John.

Kana pitsé ea gago e tsamaea sentlè yañ, How nicely your horse goes.

O buile sentle, You have spoken well.

() mo rutile sentlè, You have taught him well.

Ke e lira fela ka ntlha ea gago, I do it simply on your account.

O e sentse fela, You have simply destroyed it.

O ntiteile ka bomo, He has struck me without cause.

Kaitsé o ka e nchupetsa fa o rata, Surely you can show it to me if you like. Kaitsané o ka ithuta fa o leka thata, I am sure you can learn if you try

Kaitsé mothó eoo ke molotsana, There is no doubt that man is a rascal.

NOTE. - Bobe really means wicked (sebe, sin); but this meaning seems now almost to have left it. Mashoe also is sometimes used approvingly; e.g. Hutse ea gago e go choanela mashoe, Your hat is very becoming. Compare our English slang expression, "awfully jolly."

#### OUGHT-MUST.

81. The verb go choanèla (to be fitting), is used to express ought; e.g. O choanetse go 'metsa, You ought to beat him; Ga oa choanèla go mo araba yalo, You ought not to answer him so; O na a choanetse go ea naè, He ought to have gone with him; O na a se ka a choanèla go se ama, He ought not to have touched it.

Secoana is very weak in expressing must. Sometimes one can use go choandla, or one can use the subjunctive with or without goré; e.g. O na a nthaea a ré, ke eé go kgôla póli koa morakeň, He told me I must go to bring a goat from

the cattle-post.

In Sesutho *must* is expressed by e ka kgona, followed by the subjunctive. These are Secoana words, and may be used perhaps in an emergency, but the form of speech is not Secoana.

# BEFORE.

82. Before is expressed by pêle, pêle ga, fa pêle, koa pêle,

and erile pele.

Péle, simply used after the verb, means first; e.g. Ya péle, Eat first; Se shoetsè péle, Finish it first; Péle, o èè, o bitsè 'magō, First go and call your mother.

Péle is connected with a noun by the genitival particle ga; e.g. Péle ga botsalo ya noana, Before the birth of the

child; péle ga go tla ga gagoè, before his coming.

Péle is principally used with tense 8, without the negative ga; e.g. Péle o ésé o mo nosé setlhare, o tsikinyè botlole, Before you give him the medicine, shake the bottle; Péle a ésé a tlé, o 'maakanyetsè ntló, Before he comes, get a house ready for him. In a past phrase péle ga must be used; e.g. Péle ga a ésé a tsamaeé, a tla go mpōna, Before he went, he came to see me; péle ga a ésé a shoé, before he died.

Fa pêlê ga means in the front of; e.g. Ke 'monye a ntsê koa kgotla, 'me kóbō e o e rókañ e le fa pêle ga gagoè, I saw him sitting in the court, and the karross he is sewing was

in front of him; Ba tla ba ema fa péle ga kgosi, They came

and stood in front of the chief.

Erilé pêle expresses formerly; e.g. Erilé pêle ra bo re le litsala thata, Formerly we were great friends; Erilé pêle-pêle Barolon ba èpa ka lithobane, În times long past the Barolon dug with their staves.

Koa péle, would express a further distance; e.g. O ile koa péle, He is gone on in front; Fetèla koa péle, Pass on ahead; Ke ènè eo o koa péle ga koloi koa, It is he ahead of the waggon there.

# BEHIND-AFTER.

83. Behind and after are expressed by morago; e.g. Ea koa morago, Go behind; O setse koa morago, He has stayed behind; Leba kgomó eeo, e e koa morago ga \* lesaka, Look at that ox which is behind the kraal; Ke ne ka tla morago ga gagoè, I came after him; 'Me morago ga tla ba bañoe, And afterwards others came; 'Me morago a séna go bua, ka èma, ka mo araba, And after he had spoken, I stood up and answered him.

Ka morago expresses backwards; e.g. Booa ka morago,

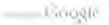
or Tsamaea ka morago, Go backwards.

Gara-morago expresses after a while; e.g. O na a lilimala ka sebaka, 'me gara-morago a bua, He was silent for a time, but after a while he spoke.

# BETWEEN-AMONG.

84. Between and among are expressed by gare ga, mo gare, ka gare, fa gare, and koa gare; e.g. O boile gare ga thota, He has returned from the middle of the veld; O kolopelitse lencoe fa gare ga bone, He threw a stone into the midst of them; Ke ne ka 'mona a ntsé fa gare ga lithare li le peli, I saw him sitting between two trees; Ke letse ke bonye pulumo mo gare ga serapa sa litshephe, Yesterday I saw a wildebeest among (or in the midst of) a herd of springboks; O na a nna mo gare ga bone, He sat among them; O na a

Observe that morago is connected with nouns or pronouns by means of the genitival particle ga.



baea noana fa gare ga basali, He placed the child between the women : O na a ea koa gare ga bone, He went into the midst

of them.

Note the difference between mo gare and koa gare. You can express "I left him in the middle of the town" either by Ke mo tlogetse mo gare ga motse or koa gare ga motse. If you say mo gare you represent yourself as in the position in which you were when you left him, but if koa gare, you speak of the position in which you now are, at a distance from where you left him.

Ka garè expresses in twain; e.g. Gagola khai ka garè. Tear the cloth down the middle; A o e segile ka gare? Have you cut it down the middle? Sometimes ka gare expresses

between; e.g. Re tsene ka gare, Come in between us.

Among is often expressed by mo; e.g. Ke rata go nna mo lichaben, I like to live among the tribes; Ba tsile go nna mo go rona. They have come to live among us.

# ABOVE-ON THE TOP OF-OVER.

85. Above is expressed by means of golimo; e.g. Se mo golimo ga tafole, It is upon (on the top of) the table; Se koa golimo ga lencoè, It is on the top of the mountain; Se fa golimo ga lobota, It is high up on the wall. If a man was looking for a thing on a wall or a tree and it was above him, you would say, Se koa golimo, It is higher up. Golimo is also used for over in the sense of superior to; e.g. Kgosi e golimo ga bathó ba eonè bothe, The chief is superior to all his people; Molimo o golimo ga lilo cotlhe. God is over all things.

# BELOW.

86. Tlase expresses below, in the following forms:-Fa tlase implies lower than a thing, but by the side of it;

e.g. fa tlase ga ntló, below the house; fa tlase ga lorako. below the wall. Koa tlase would imply further down, or the lowest point; e.g. Lorako koa golimo lo agiloe ka setene, ko a tlase ka maye, Above the wall is built of brick, below with stone ; Setlhare seo se na le matlhare thata koa golimo, koa tlase

ga a eo, That tree has leaves up above, below there are none. Kafa tlase expresses underneath; e.g. Nakeli e fatile mosima kafa tlase ga metheo ea ntló ea me, A polecat has scratched a hole underneath the foundations of my house; Go molélō o mogoló kafa tlase ga lefatshé, There is a great fire underneath the world.

Tlase ga, without a preceding preposition, is used figuratively in the sense of subject to; e.g. Ke agile tlase ga Moroke, I live under Moroka.

#### OUTSIDE.

87. Outside is expressed by koa ntle, ka koa ntle, fa ntle, or kafa ntle. The difference between these forms is, as previous examples will have shown, one of distance or position; e.g. Ba agile koa ntle, They live outside; Barolon ba lema koa ntle ga motse, The Barolong plough outside the town. Koa ntle is used here because the Barolong's cornfields are always at a distance from their town, but the Basuto have their fields near their dwellings, and of them it would be said "Basotho ba lema kafa ntle ga motse." If you were in a kraal and an ox outside, you might ask, Kgomó eeo e kae? Where is that ox? Answer: Ke e fa ntle, That's it outside. But if you mention the place which it is outside of you must use kafa and say, Ke e kafa ntle ga lesaka. Kafa ntle sometimes seems to express a double degree of outside; e.g. Secoana houses have a screened court-yard in front of them. If you say Ke ne ka tsena mo tluñ, 'me ka tlogèla nca ea me fa ntle, I went into the house, but I left my dog outside, you express outside the house, but within the court-yard. But if you say Ka tlogela nca ea me kafa ntle you express outside the screen, or as it is called the lolapa. A few further examples are given-O se ka oa golola mo motseñ-tsamaea, o gololè koa ntle, Don't outspan in the town-go and outspan (a little distance) outside; Golola fa ntle, Outspan just outside. But if you say outside of what, you must use kafa ntle; e.g. Golola kafa ntle ga motse, Outspan just outside the town; Latlhèla mekulu eeo koa ntle ga tshimo, Throw those wild gourds (quite) outside the garden.

#### FAR.

88. Far is expressed by kgakala or its diminutive kgakalyana; e.g. O ile kgakala, He has gone far away. Go kgakala, It is far; Ba agile kgakala le rona, They live far from (literally, with) us; Li fapanye kgakala, They differ widely; Go kgakala gofe, go tloga mo Thaba Nchó le go ea koa Lotlhakane, kgotsa go ea koa Grahamstown? literally, Which is far, to move from Thaba Nchu and to go to Lotlhakane, or to go to Grahamstown? Go kgakala Grahamstown thata, Grahamstown is very far (i.e. much further).

Kgakayana is used for rather far; e.g. A lo lemile mo gae? Have you ploughed at home? (i.e. within your town); 'Nya, re lemile kgakayana le motse, No, we have ploughed some distance from the town. Still, in a very puzzling way, kgakayana is sometimes used to express a little further; e.g. A motse oa ga eno o ntsé yaka Bloemfontein? Is your town as (i.e. as far as) Bloemfontein? 'Nya, one o kgakayana,

No, it is a little further.

# NEAR-NEXT TO-OPPOSITE TO.

89. Gaufi, Gauchoane, Gauchoanyane, express near in different degrees; e.g. Ba gaufi, They are near; Malomagō o agile kae? Where does your uncle live? O agile kafa tlase ga lencoè ye, He lives below this mountain; A go kgakala? Is it far? 'Nya, go gauchoanyane—o tla go bona fa o tlhaga, No, it is very near indeed—you will see it when you get over the rise (go tlhaga used in this way is an idiom, it means "to come in sight," as of a waggon coming over the rise and so putting in an appearance); Ba agile gauchoane le motse, They live very near the town.

The verb go bapa (to be side by side) expresses next to; e.g. Motse oa gagoè o bapile le oora nnetle, His town is by the side of what d'ye call em's; Matló a rona a bapile, Our

houses are side by side.

Opposite to is expressed by go lebagana; e.g. Moraka oa ga 'ra-noanagō o lebaganye le oa rona, Your uncle's (father's brother's) cattle post is opposite our's; Eè, kea itsé fa e lebaganye, Yes, I know they are opposite.

#### EVERYWHERE-ANYWHERE-ALTOGETHER.

90. Everywhere is expressed by goñoe le goñoe; e.g. Goñoe le goñoe koa o ka eañ teñ, Wherever you may go; O na a 'matla goñoe le goñoe—go ne go séna gope koa o se kañ a 'matlèla gōnè, He sought him everywhere—there was nowhere where he did not seek him; Ga kea ka ka ea gope, I did not go anywhere. Ka gope is used for at all; e.g. Ga ke mo raté ka gope, I do not love him at all; (refer to § 13, last paragraph but one, for the use of gope); Ba tsamaile gotlhe, They have gone altogether; Lo the lo èè lo li bathè gotlhe mo lesatshiñ, Go and seek through the whole land for them.

#### OFTEN.

91. Gantsi or ka gantsi expresses often; e.g. O na a mpólelèla yalo ka gantsi, He often told me so; O ea gonè ka gantsi, he goes there often; Ke ile teñ gantsi, I have often been there; Re'monye teñ gantsintsi, We have very often seen him there.

#### ALWAYS.

92. Ka metlha or ka metlha eotlhe, and sometimes ka metlha le metlha are used for always; e.g. Kana mothó eo o lemile mashoè yañ! How badly this man has ploughed! Èè, o lema yalo ka metlha, Yes, he always ploughs so. The progressive mood is most frequently used with ka metlha; e.g. A mothó eo o ntsé a róka yalo ka metlha? Does this man always sew like this? Èè, o ntsé a róka yalo ka metlha, Yes, he always sews like that. Ka metlha eotlhe, and ka metlha le metlha are slightly stronger forms.

Ka galè implies the idea of customary; e.g. A o itsé go kgoetsa? Do you know how to drive? Kea go itsé—ke tirō ea me ea ka galè, I do know how—it is my constant employment. Yaka galè stands for as ever, and le galè for of course; e.g. O lirile sentlè yaka galè, He has done well as usual. Le galè, ntla ea, certainly, I shall go.

# IN THE MORNING.

93. Mosho means morning, and is used as follows:—Ke monye ka mosho, I saw him in the morning; A o raea ka

mosho ono? Do you mean this very morning? Ke mo utloile a bua valo mo moshon ono, I heard him say so this very morning : Ke tla 'mona ka mosho, I shall see him to-morrow ; O 'móleletse valo mo moshoñ oa tsatsi ve o shuleň ka yōnè, He told him so on the morning of the day on which he died. Éré, erilé, etc. (see § 57) are often used with ka mosho in giving directions or narrating a story; e.g. Golola koa ntle ga motse, 'me éré ka mosho o romèlè go itsisé kgosi, Outspan outside the town, and in the morning send to inform the chief; 'Me erilé ka mosho ba tshéla noka botlhe, And on the morrow they all crossed the river: 'Me earé ka mosho, ka ba sa tshéla noka. And on the morrow while they were still crossing the river.

The verb go coga (to rise) is also used to express to-morrow; e.g. Ke tla coga ke ea goné, I shall go there to-morrow, The relative form go cogèla is used for very early; e.g. Ke tla cogèla ke ea, I shall get up early and go. Early in the morning is also expressed by go sa le ka mosho; e.g. Ke tla leka go fitlha go sa le ka mosho, I shall try to arrive early in the morning. Ka go sa ntsé go le mosho is also used interchangeably with go sale ka mosho. Go tlhola (to continue) is used to express all day; e.g. O thootse kae? Where have you been all day? O thootse o liran? What have you been

doing all day ?

# IN THE EVENING.

94. The following terms are used :- Maitsibooa (the close of the afternoon), Lotlatlana (twilight), Maabanyane (after dark); e.g. Ke tla tla maitsibooa, I will come late in the afternoon; Re tla lo ruta ka maabanyane, We will teach you in the evening; Ba gorogile ka lotlatlana, They arrived in the twilight.

The verb go lala (to lie down) is used as follows: - A lo tla lala lo gorogile? Will you get there to-night? (literally, Will you lie down, having arrived); O letse a tsilé, He came yesterday; Ga a ka a lala a robetse, He did not sleep all night; O letse a gotlhola mashoe, He coughed badly all

night.

95. The following adverbs of time take their place in a sentence without affecting other words, and it will suffice to give examples of them:—

1. This year, mononloaga.

2. Last year, flogola.

Year before last, neagatlóla.
 Two years ago, neageñ.

Yesterday, maabane. (See also § 94.)

6. Day before yesterday, maloba.

7. By and by, kgantele.

8. Afresh, sesha.
9. Again, gapè. (See also p. 38,

tense 54.)

1. Ba tla nyalana monoñoaga, They will marry this year,

 O na a ea go bôna rakgaliagoe nogôla, He went to see his aunt last year.

 Noagatlóla re ne re ea go cóma lipholó, The year before last we went to hunt elands.

 E sale ñoageñ pula ga e ésé e né sentlè, For the last three years we have not had a good rain.

5. A nama e e sale ea moliro oa maabane? Is this meat which has remained from yesterday's feast?

 Ga ba bolo go ea; ba tsamaile malöba, They have been gone some time; they went the day before yesterday.

7. Mo ree, ke tla tla kgantele, Tell him I will come by-and-by.

 O e rokile mashoè; e thanthololè, o be o e rokè sesha, You have sevon it badly; unpick it, and sevo it afresh.

9. Mpólelela gape, Tell me again.

NOTE.—With regard to No. 2, the verb go lika (to go round) is sometimes used to express last year; e.g. Ke likile ke etetse koa Kapa, I visited Capetown last year; A ga se ocina o likileñ o lemile gōne? I it not you who last year ploughed there? Ba ne ba siamecoe ke tshimō eeo, gonne ba ne ba likile ba e lemile, They had a right to that garden, or they ploughed it the year before.

# NOW.

96. Yanoñ and yana express now; e.g. Eä yanoñ, Go now; Eä yanoñ-yanoñ, Go at once. Yana is less used than yanoñ, and is less definite; e.g. A ga oa ka oa bōna likgomó li feta kafa? Did you not see some oxen pass this way? Ke li bonye, I saw them; A ga li bolo go feta, Is it long since they passed? 'Nya, ke gōnè li fetañ yana yana, No, they have only just gone by.

Ke goné, as used in the last sentence, expresses just now. It is followed by the verb in the present tense ending with  $\hat{n}$ ; e.g. A ke gone o cogañ? Are you only just up? A tshipi

e lelile? Has the bell rung? Eè, ke gonè e lelañ, Yes, it has just rung. Ke gonè after ka, etc., or when used with the relative pronoun, becomes e le gonè (see §§ 51 and 52); e.g. Ka e le gonè ba tlañ, Since they have only just come; A o lalelitse makau a e leñ gonè a tlañ, Have you hired those young men who have just come?

The verb go coa (to come forth) is used to express an action only just past; e.g. Borife yo ke coan go bo lo balela, The letter which I have only just now read to you.

The adverb kganteyane is also used to express this idea; e.g. A rrè ga a eo moo, Is not my father here? 'Nya—o na a le gōnè, 'me o tsamaile, No—he was here, but he has gone; A ke sebaka a tsamaile? Has he been gone long? 'Nya, ke gōnè o tsamaeañ kganteyane, No, he has only this minute gone.

#### AGO.

97. Ago is expressed by go fetile (there have passed); e.g. go fetile nyaga li le tlhano ke nyetse, I married five years ago; Go fetile nyaga li le kaee o monye? How many years have passed since you saw him? Go fetile nyaga li le peli, It is two years ago.

# AT LENGTH.

98. Kgabagarè expresses at length; e.g. O na a ba lesa ba bua botlhe, 'me erilé a bōna fa ba sa shoetsé go bua, kgabagarè a nama a re ba lilimalè, He allowed them all to speak, but when he saw they did not make an end of speaking, at length he was obliged to say they must be silent. (The word Nama used in this sentence is itself an idiom, and is used as an auxiliary verb; e.g. Ke tla nama ke go betsa, I shall be obliged to beat you, or I shall beat you presently.) The word bofèlo (end) preceded by the genitival particles ga, loa, or ya, is used for lastly; e.g. 'Ragō o etetse mono gabeli—ya bofèlo ke monoñoaga, Your father has visited this place twice—the last time was this year.

# STILL-ALREADY.

99. Tenses 48 and 50 have already shown the use of santsé as an auxiliary verb to express still. Santsé is really

composed of an adverb sa, attached to the progressive auxiliary ntsė. Semė, a contraction of sa emė, is used interchangeably with santsė; e.g. Ke semė ke lema, I am still ploughing. Sa is itself used with the verb as follows:—Ke sa rèka, I still buy; Ke ne ke sa rèka, I was still buying. It is difficult for foreigners to use this latter phrase, for only an emphasis distinguishes it from the negative past (see tense 12).

Sa is often found with the imperfect tense of the substantive verb le, and these are mostly printed as one word, sale; e.g. Etlare letsatsi le tlhaba o tla bo a sale mo Khaba, When the sun rises he will still be at Modder River. (See e sale,

§ 65, and go sale ka mosho, § 93.)

Setse, which is the perfect of go sala (to remain), is used with the verb to express already; e.g. Erile letsatsi le tlhaba a bo a setse a le koa masimō, When the sun rose he was already in the fields; O na a setse a fitlhile fa tsatsi le tlhaba, He had already arrived when the sun rose. See tense 7, p. 32, for the use of kile to express already in the sense of a thing once done.

# ALMOST.

roo. The past tenses of the verb go batla (to seek), followed by the infinitive of the verb to which it relates, express almost; e.g. Ke batlile go shoa, I almost died; Ba batlile go li ya cotlhe, They are nearly all of them; Etlaré letsatsi le kolomèla a bo a batlile go fitlha, When the sun sets he will be nearly there; Ke ne ka batla go choara none, I almost caught a blesbok.

# UNTIL.

101. The verb go tsamaea (to go) expresses until in the following forms:—Nna fa, go tsamaea ke tla, sit here till I come. (The go in this sentence seems to be the indefinite pronoun; see § 19.) Or both the auxiliary and the principal verb may be put into the subjunctive; e.g. Ke tsamaèè ke tlè, or ke tlè ke tsamaèè ke tlè, or again, go tlè go tsamaèè ke tlè. Ga tsamaea must be used in the past; e.g. Ba ne ba coelèla-péle ga tsamaea ba fitlha koa tluñ, They went on till they reached the house. Sometimes one hears the forms tsama, tsamè, instead of tsamaea, tsamaèè.



#### ENOUGH.

- 102. The verb go lekana (to be equal) is used to express enough; e.g. Li tla mo lekana, They will be enough for him; Li mo lekanye, They are enough for him; Go lekanye, It is enough (notice the perfect tense); Ga goa lekana, It is not enough. Go ntsé is often used for it is enough. If you were pouring out water for some one he could say, A ntsé, It is enough (metsé, water, understood).

# "IN THE NICK OF TIME."

103. The following form expresses the above :-

Ke yasile ke tlè, I have come O yasile o tlè, You have come O yasile a tlè, etc., He has come

Notice that the verb after yafile is in the subjunctive mood. The writer can give no hint as to the derivation of yafile. The word must have existed independently of the idiom at some time, for a child is often named Mayafi, to express the delight of its parents.

#### ABOUT THIS SAME TIME.

104. There is a curious form of words which is used to express the above phrase. The writer does not understand it, but puts it down as he has heard it used. Erilé maabane ea be none re bolola (or ra bo none re bolola), It was at this same time yesterday that we set out; Etlaré kgotsa isago ka nako eno e be none ke tsamaea, Perhaps I may go at this time next year.

### IN VAIN.

ros. Lefèla, used with the verb in the relative form, expresses in vain; e.g. Ke liretse lefèla, I have worked in vain; Ke ne ka buèla lefèla, I spoke in vain; Ke lemetse tshimō lefèla, I have ploughed the field for nothing; Ke mo rutetse lefèla, I have taught him in vain. Sometimes ka lefèla is used with the verb in the simple form; e.g. Ke go lómile tsèbè ka lefèla, I have warned you in vain. N.B.—Go lóma tsèbè (to bite the ear) is used as an idiom for to warn.

#### YES

106. Eè expresses yes. Sometimes one hears the following forms:—Ga o aké, Ga a aké, Ga lo aké, Ga ba aké, literally meaning, Thou dost not lie, He does not lie, You do not lie, They do not lie, but used as a strong expression of agreement with what you, he, or they are saying.

#### NO-NOT-NEVER.

107. No is expressed by 'nya, or by nyaea, which is a more determined negative. 'Nañ is a negative used by children.

Not is expressed by &séñ; e.g. E tseè yalo—éséñ yalo, Take it so—not so. See page 53 for the use of the negative ga se.

Ga, sa, and se, are also used as negatives with the verb; the paradigm of the verb and § 49 will already have thrown light on this.

Legoka is used to express "not a bit of it."

Never may be expressed by ba, used as an auxiliary to the negative form of the verb; e.g. Ga nka ke ba ke bua naè, I will never speak to him again; Ga a ka a ba a leka go e palama. He never tried to ride it again; Ga a nka a ba a 'makèla, He will never forsake him. (Compare tenses 54 and 55, p. 38.)

# AND-BUT-ALSO-EVEN.

ré ke mothó eo o molemo le boikanyo, He praised me, he said I was a good and faithful man. Le is also used to express and before the infinitive mood: e.g. O na a ea koa molapoñ go itlhapisa, le go tlhacoa likhäi tsa gagoè, He went to the river to wash himself and to wash his clothes. But 'Me is used before the nominative pronoun to a verb; e.g. O na a ya bogōbè, 'me a noa metsé, He ate bread and drank water. Still if the pronoun be a relative, le is used; e.g. Ke mothó eo o kgoetsañ sentle, le eo o itseñ mekgoa ea lipitsé, He is a man who drives nicely, and who knows the ways of horses.

'Me is also used to express but, and this double use of the same conjunction is very puzzling. The only help one can offer is by saying that 'me means but whenever it is found in any of the positions stated above, in which and would be expressed by le. Where we say but the Mocoana often says "except"; e.g. Ga kea ka ka tla go go bitsa, faese (§ 67) go se go bólelèla, I have not come to call you, but to tell you about it.

Also is expressed by le followed by the emphatic pronoun. When also refers to a substantive or pronoun, this emphatic pronoun must agree with it; e.g. Le ènè o tla ea, He also will go; Ntla se rèka le shōnè, I will buy it also; Beola linku tseo le cōnè, Shear those sheep also; A le bōnè ba tsamaile, have they also gone. But when also refers to a verb, gōnè is the Emphatic pronoun used. Contrast the following:

—Le ènè o na a bua yalo, he also spoke so; le gōnè o na a bua yalo, also he spoke so; Isa lekuka ye koa morakeñ, 'me le gōnè o èè le pitsé e ke letse ke e palame, Take this milk-sack to the cattle-post, and also take the horse which I rode yesterday. Isa lekuka ye koa morakeñ, le pitsé e ke letse ke e palame le eōnè o èè naeō, Take this milk-sack to the cattle-post, and the horse which I rode yesterday take it also.

Even is expressed by elen, or ebon; e.g. Likgomó tsa gagoè li shule bobe, elen linku, ga goa sale epe, literally, His cattel have died exceedingly, even the sheep, not one remains.

# INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

go no go sa nna yalo? Was it not so? A o mothó? Are you a man? A mosali oa gago o ile go ga metsé? Has your wife gone to draw water? A ke oèna? Is it you?

Kana or ana often prefaces a question when it is desired to attract special notice to it; but in this case the a is not dispensed with; e.g. Kana mothó eo a ga se eo o kileñ a ruta bana ba ga moñ-oa-go? Is not that man he who once taught your master's children? Ana mosali eo a ga se eo o na a nyecoe ke 'ra-ñoanago? Is not that woman she who was married to your uncle?

See § 18 for the use of the affixed  $\bar{n}$ , and other interrogative pronouns.

# TRUE-TRULY-REALLY.

110. Ruré, amaruré, and nnetè express true and truly, as follows:—A amaruré (or only ruré) o na a ré yalo? Did he really say so? Amaruré go ntsé yalo, Indeed it is so; Ke nnetè, It is true; Ga se nnetè, It is not true; Ka nnetè, Truly (or ka mannetè). Gamaruré is a strong affirmation of the truth of a thing.

Ntlhomane is sometimes used to express believe me; e.g. Ntlhomane, erilé ke 'mólelèla a gana, Believe me, when I told

him he refused.

# INTERJECTIONS.

111. Ao expressses surprise and deprecation.

Oāi ,, doubt.

"You don't say so!"

| surprise and alarm. Iya is a man's interjection,

Iya, Iyo ,, surprise and alarm

Noafo , hear, hear!

Coècoè ,, please. Hè, hèla ,, ho there!

Bu is a call for help.

Tshikhi, How cold it is. Chóchó, How hot it is.

Pula (literally, rain) is used as follows, to signify assent:— At the end of an agreement or consultation the head man will sometimes say A go no pula (literally, Let there be rain), to which the others will give assent by saying pula.

# OH, THAT!

ti2. The above is expressed by Ao ntla or nkéte, followed by the conditional mood, or by Gōla tlhè, followed by the subjunctive; e.g. Nkéte le nna nkabo ke ntsé yalo! Oh, that I also were so! Ao ntla nka bo ke tsamaile! pula ga e ne, Oh, that I had gone! there is no rain (after all); Gōla tlhè ke humè! Oh, that I were rich! Gola tlhè ke bè ke bōnè noanakè! Oh, that I might see my child again!

The particle the used in gola the is an enclitic often used

with a verb in the imperative mood. It adds an off-hand and imperious form to the verb; e.g. 'Mitsè tlhè, may be translated Call him, do. But when a vocative noun is added, this force is softened, and 'Mitsè tlhè, noanaka, Call him, my child, is rather a kind way of speaking. Again, with the Secoana salutation Lumèla (hail), it is not respectful to say lumèla tlhè, but when the vocative is added as in lumèla tlhè, Morèna, the disrespect vanishes. Then is used with the plural imperatives. He and heñ are used in the same way, but with a parting greeting, that is to say, Lumèla he or Lumelañ heñ are only heard on bidding good-bye.

# "LET ME."

113. Let me or allow me is expressed by 'Ma, which has the form of the imperative mood (see p. 41); e.g. 'Ma, ke go thuse, Let me help you; or again, Ke 'mè ke go thuse.

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# APPENDIX.

THE principle of final permutation referred to in §§ 5 and 10 is more arbitrary than that of the initial. Examples of it are given below, principally affecting the terminations of nouns, and the change from the active to the passive voice in verbs. It is interesting to note also the light which these throw upon what otherwise seems anomalous in the form of certain of the pronouns and genitival particles.

h p	ermute	es in	ito y	thèbè, a shield; diminutive, thèyana. tlhaba, to pierce; passive voice, tlhayoa. bōgōbè ya me yo, this my bread.
1	11	17	y.	(kgō/è, a thong; diminutive, kgōyana. leitlhō ya me ye, this my eye.
N	,,,	,,	ts	póli, a goat; diminutive, potsane. So bilitse is found as the perfect tense of go bitsa. likgomó tsa me tse, these my oxen.
lu	m d	9		khulu, a tortoise; diminutive, khucoana. pululu, blue; feminine diminutive, pulucoana. bulule, perfect tense of go bucoa, to become ripe. lule, perfect tense of go coa, to come forth.
111	vi	**	ñ	kgomó, an ox; diminutive, kgoñoana. go lóma, to bite; passive, lóñoa. lomôcana, a small gulley; plural, liñōcana.
n	.,		ny	ñoana, a child; diminutive, ñoanyana. go bōna, to see; perfect, bonye.
•	in.	n	c	molapo, a river; diminutive, molacoana. go tlhapa, to wash one's self; go tlhacoa, to wash a thing. go bipa, to hide; passive, bicoa.
ph	11.			tshephe, a springbok; diminutive, tshechoana.
,	**	,,		setlhare, a tree; diminutive, setlhatshana. go kgōra, to be satisfied; perfect, kgōtshe.

botsa, ask; poco, a question.
golotse, has set free; passive pft., golocoe.
khutshane, small; diminutive, khuchoanyane.
mogatsè, his wife; mogaco, your wife.
ke conè lilo tsa rona tse, these are our things.

Lomota, a gulf, which makes lomocana, is an instance of permutation which the writer has not hitherto found in any other word. The example given above under m,  $\bar{n}$ , of  $li\bar{n}\bar{o}cana$ , is a case in which this final permutation trenches on the initial.

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