THE WORLD'S CHIEF LANGUAGES
THE WORLD'S CHIEF LANGUAGES
Formerly
LANGUAGES FOR WAR AND PEACE

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FOREWORD

The man who speaks another language besides his own has "another string to his bow".

In the late war, if he knew the language of the enemy, he was able to avoid capture, or, if taken prisoner, to make his escape far more easily; he could question prisoners and obtain from them valuable information, or glean such information from their notebooks and letters; he could even derive it from a military sign-post in the enemy's language. He could communicate directly with the allies whose language he knew, make things infinitely more comfortable for himself and his unit when billeted in an allied or enemy country, give and receive directions, speak the language of friendship, of command, of common everyday needs. Striking examples of the way in which linguistic training could be put to military uses appeared in the early days of the war, when German parachutists came down in Holland equipped not only with Dutch uniforms, but also with a command of the Dutch tongue, and German motorcyclists, disguised as French soldiers, swept across Belgium and northern France spreading disorder and panic in excellent French.

Now that peace is restored to a war-weary world, the benefits of linguistic training will be equally vast and far more enduring. American soldiers, scattered throughout the four corners of the globe in the post-war days while the preliminaries of a permanent peace are being worked out, need languages. Later, when world economy is put on a far more stable footing and commercial exchanges become far more intense than ever before, men and women with linguistic training will be at a premium. The demand for diplomatic and consular representatives, for government employes, for commercial
travellers with a knowledge of foreign languages will exceed anything ever known. More foreigners will come to our shores, more Americans will travel abroad. Travelling for pleasure, in the post-war world, will no longer be restricted to a few tourists. The men who have been abroad, to a hundred different lands, on a military mission, will wish to revisit those lands, to continue and tighten the bonds of friendship and comradeship and interest formed there. American commercial and industrial enterprises in foreign countries, expanding because of the imperative needs of nations whose industries have been disrupted by war, will call for American-born, American-trained skilled workers who are conversant with the language of the country to which they are destined. Politically, as well as economically, present indications are that the world will become more closely welded together than it has been in the past. In any political arrangement in which races and nationalities are drawn closely together, the need for linguistic interchange will be more keenly felt than ever before. In the world of tomorrow, political, economic and military isolation will be things of the past. Linguistic isolationism and self-sufficiency, the sort of thing that some American educators have been preaching during the last two decades, will be regarded as something just as outmoded and ridiculous as political isolationism and economic autarchy have been proved to be.

So the study of foreign languages becomes imperative. Our immediate war need was of a military nature — to equip as many members of our fighting forces as possible with a quickly acquired, practical knowledge of a few important foreign tongues, to be used in their ordinary intercourse with allied or enemy troops and populations. Our present need is to create the world-minded attitude that will lead to the proper kind of international relations, commercial, economic, diplomatic and cultural, now that the war is over, making a recurrence of the recent conflict unlikely, and to endow a considerable segment of our population with the sort of linguistic training that will enable them, to their own personal advance-
ment and to the benefit of the Nation and the world at large, to take advantage of the innumerable opportunities that peace is bringing in its wake.

How shall we go about this? What languages are to be studied, and how? The traditional method has been one of high specialization. Most high-school and college students have normally been required to choose one of an extremely limited number of languages (French, Spanish, German, occasionally Italian), to study it for a two- or three- or four-year period, mastering every intricacy of grammar and syntax, then go on with it and imbue themselves with the literature, customs and habits of life of the particular nation speaking this particular language, more or less to the exclusion of the rest of the world. There is nothing wrong with this specializing method, save the fact that it is restrictive. Let it by all means be continued. But let us also have, for the people who do not wish to become specialists and literary and cultural experts in any one language, and for those who do, but who also want to know something about other languages, a method that will enable the individual of average linguistic ability to acquire the basic facts about the world’s chief languages, where they are spoken and by whom, to identify them readily, and to handle more than just one of them in a comprehensible and acceptable fashion, even if without absolute grammatical correctness and literary style.

The purpose of the present work is to present the main facts about languages, not in the form of a philosophical or psychological or literary essay, not from the historical and scientific point of view, but as something of an immediate, practical value. The world’s main languages and their geographical distribution, the linguistic families and the elementary relationships among their members, the identification of the written and possibly the spoken form of several important tongues, and lastly the description of the sounds and grammatical structure, together with a limited vocabulary, of seven of the world’s most widely-spoken languages — all this will serve the purpose of giving the reader the elementary linguistic
consciousness that the soldier of yesterday needed in his military activities on foreign soil and that the man and woman of tomorrow will need in a world destined, by reason of the constant advances in our mechanical civilization and spiritual point of view, to become more and more a single political, economic and cultural unit.
Chapter I

LANGUAGE TYPES AND LANGUAGE FAMILIES

What languages are to be studied in connection with our post-war needs? Gray’s *Foundations of Language* (p. 418) tentatively places the total number of present-day spoken languages, exclusive of minor dialects, at 2,796—a staggering total, when we consider the amount of effort required to master even one foreign tongue. Obviously, a wise choice is imperative.

But fortunately for the practical linguist, there are “key” languages, which open up to us vast areas of the earth. *The Man Who Has Some Practical Acquaintance with English, French, German, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Russian, and Japanese Is, Roughly Speaking, in a Position to Make His Way Around the World.* If to this knowledge he adds a smattering of Arabic, Chinese, Malay, and Dutch, and the ability to identify a few other tongues, so that he can distinguish between Polish and Czech, Swedish and Danish, Finnish and Hungarian, at least in their written form, his linguistic education, for purely utilitarian purposes, is completed.

Can this be demonstrated?

The impressive total of 2,796 tongues, mentioned above, includes over a thousand American Indian languages, whose present-day speakers number a few thousand or even a few hundred each. Over five hundred “languages” are spoken by African Negro tribes; nearly five hundred more by the natives of Australia, New Guinea, and the islands of the Pacific. Several hundred others are little-known tongues spoken by isolat-
ed groups in Asia. All these can safely be disregarded for the purpose on hand.

This does not mean that they are scientifically unimportant. Some of them, though spoken by small and semi-savage groups, are of the highest interest to the professional linguist by reason of their peculiar structure, and to the psychologist and anthropologist because of the mental processes they betoken. But our present aim is immediate use. Whether from a military, economic and political standpoint, or from a cultural one, we find that the world's truly significant languages now number less than one hundred.

We also find that not all of these significant languages are of equal importance. The number of speakers has something to do with this. For practical purposes, in spite of the civilization behind it and the contribution it has made to the vocabularies of all civilized modern tongues, Greek, with its seven or eight million present-day speakers, cannot be ranged alongside of Spanish, whose speakers number well over a hundred million. Political and cultural influence also comes into play. Dutch may be the language of only some nine million speakers in Holland, but it is current, side by side with native Malay languages, in the Dutch colonial empire (Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, etc.), with over 60,000,000 inhabitants. French is a mighty and widely spoken language in its own right (42,000,000 Frenchmen, plus about six million French speakers in Belgium and Switzerland, plus the speakers of French in Canada and in the French colonial possessions); but in addition, French is also a current tongue among the more cultured classes of numerous European countries, so that it may be, and frequently is used as a means of common intercourse between, say, an American who has learned it in the schools and a native Pole or Italian or Hollander. This matter of bilingualism (one individual speaking two languages) and polylingualism (several languages spoken by the one person) will have to be taken into account as our study proceeds, particularly when we come to countries which are or have been colonial possessions. While it is true, for instance, that In-
dia's 390,000,000 inhabitants are linguistically divided among three groups (Indo-Aryan, Dravidian and Munda), it is also true that the use of English is widespread by reason of the long British occupation of the Indian Peninsula. This leads necessarily to a certain amount of duplication in enumerating the speakers of various tongues. We can list the majority of Czecho-Slovakia's former 15,000,000 inhabitants among the speakers of Slavic tongues, but it is also true that more than half of them can be reached with German. In Budapest, the Hungarian capital, it was the writer's experience that four out of every five people approached responded to German. The bold figures of the number of native speakers of a given language, therefore, very often do not tell the whole story. Certain languages spread far beyond their national or colonial borders, and can be used, with greater or lesser effectiveness, in other lands as well.

What of the matter of facility in acquiring foreign tongues for practical purposes? Are some languages inherently "easy", others inherently "difficult"? While it is true that some tongues seem to possess a more simple structure than others, no language is intrinsically difficult to its own speakers, who have acquired and used it, and only it, from childhood. Speaking Chinese is not difficult to the Chinese speaker, though writing it may be. To him, the complicated tones\(^1\) which we describe as "sing-song" and master only with the greatest difficulty are the most natural thing in the world; he has learned to produce them and use them in the proper place ever since he first began to use his vocal organs. "Ease" or "difficulty" in acquiring a language is not something intrinsic, but something which functions with reference to one's own previous linguistic habits. The more a tongue resembles our own, in sounds, in grammatical structure, in vocabulary, the "easier" it is to us; the more it diverges from our own, the "harder" it becomes. To the speaker of a language like English, the grammatical structure of a language like French is comparatively

1—Cf. p. 32.
easy ("I have laid the book on the table" can be translated absolutely word for word into French); German, which says "I have the book on the table laid", seems a little harder; Latin, requiring "Book on table laid-I", is harder still. On the other hand, German ich habe — gelegt and das Buch come considerably closer to English "I have laid" and "the book" than French j'ai posé and le livre, or Latin librum and posui, with the result that for the example in question, the advantage of similarity in French word-order is offset by the advantage of similarity in German vocabulary, and the beginner would be tempted to say: "French and German are about equally difficult". But the minute it is pointed out to him that French translates "of the book", "to the book" more or less literally, while German effects a change in the article and the ending of the noun, and omits "of" and "to", he will vote in favor of French as the "easier" language.

What governs similarity between two languages in sounds, grammatical structure and vocabulary? The answer to this question leads us into a discussion of linguistic classification. A few extremists among language scientists are of the opinion that all languages go back to one original common stock, which in the course of thousands of years and countless prehistoric migrations has evolved into the various language types of today. The process by which this took place would be, according to them, one of infinite differentiation and change. But the divergences and differences among the world's languages seem too radical and far-reaching to be accounted for by any such process, no matter how drastic or prolonged. On the other hand, it is undeniable that a somewhat comparable process has, so to speak, taken place under our eyes in the case of several languages whose history can be traced. This is true, for example, of French, Spanish, Portuguese and Italian, stemming from an original Latin during the course of the last two thousand years, or of English and German, originally far closer than they are today. This means that even if languages cannot be reduced to one single, common ancestry, they can at
least be grouped into large family units, the members of which bear enough of a fundamental resemblance to one another to be described as proceeding from a common ancestor, or “parent-language”, frequently unknown because no written trace of it has come down to us, but which can be hypothetically reconstructed.

This means that language goes through a constant process of change or evolution. The English of today is no longer the English of Shakespeare, which requires a certain amount of study and even the occasional help of a glossary to be fully understood; still less is it the English of Chaucer, or of the Anglo-Saxon days before the Norman conquest of England. Nor will the English of tomorrow be the English of today. New words, new expressions, even new grammatical constructions are constantly being added to the language, while old ones drop out, become “obsolete”, then “archaic”, and finally require the aid of a dictionary to be understood. The slang of today may become the colloquialism of tomorrow and the correct literary form of a hundred years hence. As the present-

2. Language, be it noted, comes in two forms, the spoken and the written. The former, of course, invariably precedes the other. People learn to speak before they learn to write, and spoken languages antedate their written counterparts. The latter assume varied forms. The alphabet we use in English is current in a great many languages (French, Spanish, Italian, etc.) ; in others it diverges slightly (German); the divergence is still greater in others (Greek, Russian); while in Hebrew and Arabic the alphabetic kinship is almost completely disguised. The writing of languages like Chinese and Japanese not only bears no resemblance to, but has no kinship with our own. Note also the different values of the same alphabetic symbol in different languages, or even in the same language (Eng. far, bat, fare, all, etc.). Occasionally, the same language is written in different alphabets, according to the religious or cultural background of its speakers; such is the case with Serbo-Croatian, written in Roman characters by the Catholic Croats and in Cyrillic characters by the Greek Orthodox Serbs; or with Hindustani, written in Devanagari characters (derived from Sanskrit) by its speakers of the Hindu faith (in which case it is also called Hindi), and in Arabic script by its Muhammadan speakers (in which case it is also called Urdu).
day speaker delves back into his own language of past centuries, it becomes increasingly more difficult to him, until the point is reached where it is a "foreign" tongue. The cultured English speaker can struggle backwards as far as the English of Chaucer, but when he comes to "Beowulf" he needs a course in Anglo-Saxon. The cultured French speaker can make his way back with ease to the fifteenth-century French of Villon, and with considerable difficulty to the eleventh-century "Song of Roland"; but if he goes back beyond the ninth century he finds himself in a Latin atmosphere, and has to study the language once spoken on his own soil, and from which his own language proceeds, just as he would a foreign, though related, tongue.

The present-day geographical aspect of languages within the same family bears some similarity to the historical picture of a single language throughout its evolution. Starting with English, we find sufficient striking resemblances in German, Dutch and Scandinavian to permit even the layman to classify these tongues as closely related. The resemblances are almost equally striking when we come to French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese. As we wander further afield, into Greek, Russian, and some of the languages of India, we can, if properly trained, still detect a sufficient number of similarities to enable us to class these languages as originally akin to our own.

On the other hand, we come across a certain number of languages which differ so radically in structure and vocabulary that we can safely decide they do not belong to our group. Yet some of these languages show the same striking similarities among themselves that are shown by English and German, or by French and Spanish. Such is the case, for instance, with Finnish and Hungarian, or with Hebrew and Arabic. The result is that languages have been classified into families and sub-families. The classification is imperfect, particularly in the case of the less known and less important languages. It is fairly exact for languages which have been and are the vehicles of important civilizations.

The linguistic family to which English, French, German,
Spanish, Italian, Portuguese and Russian belong is called Indo-European, by reason of the fact that its members stretch across all of Europe and west central Asia to northern India. The term “Indo-Germanic” is preferred by the Germans, ostensibly because Icelandic, the westernmost member of the family, belongs to the Germanic subdivision. The term “Aryan” has also been used, but here we run into a major difficulty. “Aryan” is also used in referring to a somewhat hypothetical race: the race which, it is supposed, originally spoke the “Aryan” parent-language. Such a race, speaking such a language, may have existed, though the evidence is far from absolute. But if there is one thing of which we are mathematically sure in the field of language, it is that race and language do not necessarily coincide; a Negro whose ancestors came from Africa, a Jew whose forebears spoke a Semitic language, can (and do) today speak perfect Indo-European English and have no recollection of their ancestral tongues; an Aztec Indian of Mexico may speak Indo-European Spanish with no memory or trace of his ancestral American Indian language. The nations or groups that today speak Indo-European languages are not at all necessarily of “Aryan” stock. The description of the ideal “Aryan” (tall, blond, long-skulled) certainly does not fit the majority of the peoples living in central or southern Europe, who nevertheless speak pure Indo-European languages. The fact of the matter seems to be that races have an inherent tendency to become mixed, and languages to be borrowed, assimilated and appropriated by people who originally did not speak them. “Aryan”, therefore, is best discarded, and Indo-European is best taken as a purely linguistic term, with no racial connotation.

It is undeniable, on the other hand, that the greatest contributions to civilization, both ancient and modern, have been

3. Save in one legitimate linguistic connection: the Indo-European languages of northern India are often described, as a group, as “Indo-Aryan”. But even this term is becoming obsolete.
made by peoples speaking Indo-European tongues, with Semitic speakers as closest rivals. It is also true that of all the language-families the Indo-European is the one which has received the most careful scrutiny at the hands of linguists, and concerning the classification and subdivisions of which we are most certain. Lastly, it is true that an absolute majority of the world’s chief present-day languages, both from the standpoint of number of speakers and that of cultural, political and economic importance, belongs to this group.

English is, in many ways, a fair representative of Indo-European. Its numerical strength and power of expansion, its influence upon civilization and the destinies of the world, are characteristic. Its vocabulary, which represents an almost equal blending of the two greatest Indo-European subdivisions, the Germanic and the Latin-Romance (with considerable additions from Greek and other sources), tends to make it international in scope. Its rich variety of sounds is such that its speakers can adapt themselves with comparative ease to the sounds of many foreign tongues. On the other hand, its alphabetic notation is far from perfect, and very distressing to the foreigner, and even to the native (the process of learning to “spell” goes on through grammar school, high school and college, and is often not quite completed by the time the student emerges with a university degree). On the structural side, modern English displays a process of simplification of orig-

4. The process is perhaps better described as one of analysis (breaking up a thought-concept into several words representing its component parts: “I” “have” “ended”) versus the old Indo-European system of synthesis (gathering together the complete concept into a single word: Latin fini-v-i). It means, in the case of nouns, using position (“Peter sees the boy”; “The boy sees Peter”) and prepositions (“to the boy”, “of the boy”) instead of case-endings indicating subject, object, “of”, “to”, etc. (as with Latin puer, puerum, pueri, puero); in the case of verbs, using pronouns (“I”, “you”, “he”, etc.) and auxiliaries (“shall”, “will”, “have”, etc.) in the place of suffixes carrying those meanings (Latin fini-v-i). Note that even in modern English the two systems, synthetic and analytic, occasionally appear side by side (“the boys’ books”, or “the books of the boys”).
inal Indo-European grammatical forms which sets it rather far away from the original Indo-European type (much farther away, for instance, than modern Russian, or even German); in this, it is accompanied, though not all the way, by the major Romance tongues.

The original Indo-European type is described as "inflectional", which means that it indicates grammatical relations by means of endings, or "suffixes", which are added on to the "roots" of words. Latin, for example, takes a root *mur-* "wall", and indicates that it is the subject of the sentence by adding *-us* (*murus*), or that it is the object by adding *-um* (*murum*); "of the wall" is indicated by the ending *-i* (*muri*); "to the wall" by *-o* (*muro*). In the case of verbs, Latin uses a root like *fini-* "end", adding an ending *-o* (*fini-o*) which at the same time marks the present tense and the first person singular ("I end"); for the future ("I shall love"), Latin adds to the root *ama-* a suffix *-b-*, indicating futurity, and another suffix *-o*, indicating "I" (*amabo*); while for the past tense ("I ended") the root *fini-* receives the suffixes *-v- and -i* (*finivi*); different personal suffixes are used throughout, eliminating the need for subject pronouns ("you ended", *fini-v-isti*; "he ended", *fini-v-it*; "we ended", *fini-v-imus*; "they ended", *fini-v-erunt*). Old English (or Anglo-Saxon) had a very similar structure, but modern English has largely discarded it ('s in the possessive case, *-s* in the third person singular of the present tense, *-d* in the past tense of verbs, are vestiges of the older system). This process of simplification has gone on, to some extent, in all Indo-European languages, but in some to a far greater degree than in others. The Romance languages, for example, have simplified their structure even more than English for what concerns the noun, but practically not at all for what concerns the verb. The Slavic languages, on the other hand, have a comparatively simplified verb, but retain a full "inflectional" system for the noun. German effects a minor degree of simplification in both, but still retains a good deal of the original inflectional structure.
From a practical standpoint, this means that the English speaker will encounter little difficulty with the Romance noun ("dog", Spanish perro; "of the dog", del perro; "to the dog", al perro; "dogs", perros; "of the dogs", de los perros; "to the dogs", a los perros); but he will meet considerable hardship with the Romance verb ("I loved", Spanish amé; "you loved", amaste; "he loved", amó; "we loved", amamos; "they loved", amaron). He will experience trouble with the Slavic noun ("dog", Russian pyos; "of the dog", psa; "to the dog", psu); but he will breathe more easily when he sees: "I loved", ya lyubil; "you loved", ty lyubil; "he loved", on lyubil. German der Hund ("dog", subject); den Hund ("dog", object); des Hundes ("of the dog"); dem Hunde ("to the dog"); and ich liebte, du liebest, er liebte for "I", "you", "he", "loved", will prove moderate stumbling-blocks.

When we come to other linguistic families, the difficulties encountered will be much greater. In the first place, the vocabulary resemblances to which we are accustomed in German, French, Spanish, Italian, and, to a lesser degree, in Russian or Greek, are largely, almost totally, absent. Secondly, we meet a grammatical structure which bears no resemblance to ours. Japanese, for instance, utterly fails to recognize our concept of gender (masculine, feminine, neuter), and has very vague notions about number (singular, plural). It does not care much for our "personal" verb ("I", "you", "we" do something), but prefers to use a different verb altogether, according as the subject is the speaker (in which case the verb is a "humble" verb), or the person addressed (in which case it is a "polite" or "respectful" verb). Hungarian attaches prepositions and possessive adjectives to the noun ("house", ház; "in the house", ház-ban; "arm", kar; "my arm", kar-om).

But here, our process of choice and elimination comes to our rescue. Of the world's chief languages, only a few that are not Indo-European combine numerical strength, cultural importance, and practical value. Very few of them are irreplaceable, in the sense that a good many of their speakers
cannot be reached through the medium of another, more accessible tongue. The chapter on geographical distribution will tell us which they are, and why they are irreplaceable.

Meanwhile, for the sake of curiosity, we present a table of the world’s chief linguistic families with their main subdivisions. This table is not exact, and it is far from complete. Nevertheless, it is imposing. Read it, but do not attempt to memorize it.

I — INDO-EUROPEAN.

Location: nearly all of Europe; southwestern Asia as far as northeastern India, inclusive; the entire western hemisphere; Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania; South Africa; spoken in the form of superimposed languages of colonization (English, French, Dutch, Portuguese, Italian, Spanish) throughout Africa, India, southeastern Asia, the islands of the Pacific.

Number of speakers: nearly 1,000,000,000.

Structure: originally inflectional and synthetic; modified to varying degrees in the direction of simplification (analysis; cf. p. 20), with the loss of inflectional endings, and the use of word-order to indicate grammatical relations.

Main branches:


Western: English, High and Low German, Dutch-Flemish.

5. A third branch of Germanic, the Eastern, represented by ancient Gothic, has disappeared.

6. Yiddish, which has no national territory, is fourteenth-century German adopted by the northern Jews (Ashkenazim) in the course of their migrations; it is written with a modified Hebrew alphabet and mingled with words borrowed from Hebrew, Slavic, English, etc.
e) Greek.
f) Albanian.
g) Armenian.
h) Iranian: Persian, Kurdish, Balochi, Afghan (or Pushtu).
i) Indo-Aryan languages of northern India and southern Ceylon; among the better known are: Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, Panjabi, Rajasthani, Marathi, Gujarati, Singhalese. The language of the Gypsies also belongs to this group.

***

7. Or Italic. Latin is the direct ancestor of all the languages of this branch; in ancient times, there was another Italic subdivision, the Oscan-Umbrian, which Latin absorbed. Additional minor Romance branches are the Rhetian (Rumanash, Ladin) of southeastern Switzerland, the Italian Tyrol and Friuli, and the Logudorese-Campidanese of Sardinia.

8. Judaeo-Spanish, also called Sephardic, Sephardi or Ladino (do not confuse with Ladin, above), is the Romance counterpart of Germanic Yiddish; it is a medieval Spanish retained by migrating southern Jews (Sephardim) after their expulsion from Spain, and carried to various localities along the Mediterranean coast, notably Salonika, Monastir and Constantinople; its borrowed elements are mainly Turkish, Greek and Hebrew; it also is written with a modified Hebrew alphabet. Some doubt exists whether Catalan should be classed with the Hispanic languages or with Provençal.
A glance at this chart shows us the varying practical importance of these branches and their languages, both from the standpoint of number of speakers and from that of political, economic and cultural worth. The total number of Armenian speakers does not exceed 4,000,000, that of Albanian speakers 2,000,000. Greek, despite its tremendous contribution to civilization in ancient times, has today perhaps 8,000,000 speakers. The Celtic languages taken together do not exceed 4,000,000 speakers, though an attempt is being made at the present time by the Irish Free State Government to reintroduce Irish Gaelic (Erse) as the spoken language of Eire. The Baltic tongues (Lithuanian and Lettish) count approximately 4,000,000 speakers, the Iranian tongues of Iran, Afghanistan and Baluchistan perhaps 30,000,000.

On the other hand, the Indo-Aryan vernaculars of India are estimated to be spoken by some 250,000,000 people, and their cultural background runs back to the Sanskrit of the sacred Vedic writings; but the colonial status of India, and the existence of an extremely large number of diverging dialects robs them of much of the importance to which their numerical strength would otherwise entitle them.

The Slavic languages number nearly 200,000,000 speakers, of whom nearly 150,000,000 are located on Soviet soil. The Romance languages with their Latin background and, approximately, 100,000,000 Spanish speakers, 70,000,000 French speakers, 50,000,000 Portuguese speakers, 50,000,000 Italian speakers, share with the Germanic branch the distinction of being, par excellence, the tongues of modern culture, civilization, and political and economic expansion. Among the Germanic tongues, English, with over 200,000,000 speakers and vast colonial and commercial influence, and German, with approximately 100,000,000 speakers, are the leaders, though Dutch, with its colonial empire of 60,000,000 and some 9,000,000 native speakers in Holland, is a tongue of considerable
importance. The total number of Scandinavian speakers is about 15,000,000.

II — SEMITO-HAMITIC.

Location: the peninsula of Arabia; Iraq, Palestine and Syria; northern Africa (Egypt, Libya, Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, the Sahara); Ethiopia, Eritrea and Somaliland; Zanzibar and Madagascar; Malta.

Number of speakers: approximately 75,000,000.

Structure: the main characteristic of this family is the word-root consisting of three consonants, with shifting vowels to carry accessory meanings; e.g., Arabic root *k-t-b, “write”; *kataba, “he has written”; *kutiba, “it has been written”; *yaktubu, “he will write”; *yuktibu, “it will be written”; *aktaba, “he has made someone write”; *kitabun, “writing”, “book”; *katabun, “writer”; *katbun, “act of writing”.

Main branches:

a) Semitic:

   Northern: Hebrew.
   Southern: Arabic, Ethiopian (Tigre, Amharic, etc.).

b) Hamitic:

   Libyco-Berber (Kabyle, Shilh, Tuareg, etc.).
   Kushitic (Somali, Galla, etc.).
   Coptic.

9. Flemish, a variant of Dutch, is spoken in Belgium by perhaps 5,000,000 people, most of whom, however, can also be reached through French. Afrikaans, the language of the South African Boers, is a dialect of Dutch. It is still used by some 3,000,000 people.

10. An Eastern branch, represented by ancient Akkadian (Assyrian, Babylonian) has become extinct. The northern branch, of which Hebrew is the modern representative, formerly comprised several important tongues which have disappeared in the course of history; among the better known are: Canaanite, Moabite, Phoenician (with a variant, Punic, spoken by the Carthaginians), Aramaic, Syriac (the last still spoken by about 100,000 people). Phoenician speakers seem to have been the initiators of the alphabet which, with considerable modifications and in different forms, is in use among most Indo-European and Semitic languages today.

11. The ancestor of medieval Coptic, still used as a liturgical language in parts of Egypt, is the ancient Egyptian of the hieroglyphic inscriptions.
Arabic, which spreads across northern Africa and the Arabian peninsula, is by far the most important of these languages, both from the standpoint of number of speakers and that of expansional power and influence. As the sacred language of Muhammadanism, it influences, linguistically and psychologically, hundreds of millions. Palestinian Hebrew is in the nature of a rejuvenated artificial language, with perhaps 1,000,000 speakers. The other tongues of this group are relatively unimportant and can, to varying degrees, be replaced by the languages of colonization (English in Egypt, Italian in Eritrea and Somaliland, etc.).

III — URAL-ALTAIC.

Location: Finland, Karelia, Estonia; northern Norway and Sweden; Hungary; eastern European Russia; Turkey; Soviet Asia, Mongolia, Chinese Turkestan, Manchukuo.

Number of speakers: about 60,000,000.

Structure: “agglutinative”; this means that the process of adding endings to a word-root, which appears in Indo-European, is carried on to a far greater degree, suffix upon suffix being attached to the root to carry a variety of meanings: Turkish at, “horse”; at-um, “my horse”; at-lar-um, “my horses”; sev, root carrying general meaning of “love”; sev-mek, “to love”; sev-dir-mek, “to make to love”; sev-me-mek, “not to love”; sev-il-eme-mek, “to be impossible to be loved”; sev-il-dir-eme-mek, “to be impossible to be made to be loved”. Another interesting characteristic of this group is “vowel harmony”; this means that if the root word contains a “front vowel”, all added suffixes must also contain front vowels; but if the root has a “back vowel”, the suffixes must do likewise: Hungarian kéz, “hand” (with the front vowel e); ház, “house”

12. The “front vowels” are the ones pronounced in the front part of the mouth; in most languages of this group, e, i, ā, ō, ū, are considered front vowels; the “back vowels” are the ones pronounced in the back part of the mouth; they are a, o, u, and Turkish i.
(with the back vowel a); "in the hand" is kéz-ben (with the suffix ben containing the front vowel e); but "in the house" is ház-ban (with suffix changed to contain the back vowel a). A third widespread feature of this group is the absence of the concept of gender (masculine, feminine, neuter).

Main branches:

a) Uralic (or Finno-Ugric): Finnish (with Karelian and Estonian).
   Lapp (with some languages of northeastern European Russia, such as Mordvinian, Cheremiss, Votyak).
   Hungarian (or Magyar), Ostyak.
   Samoyed.

b) Altaic: Turkish (allied to Turkish are various languages of the Tatars, Turcomans, and Kirghiz).
   Mongol (Kalmuk, Buryat, etc.).
   Tungus (Manchu).

***

The geographical extent of this group is imposing, since it stretches from northern and central Europe, across northern Asia, to the shores of the Pacific. But its speakers are not numerous, nor do they have great cultural, political, or economic importance. Finnish, Hungarian and Turkish are the only languages of this group to have attained statehood or cultural prestige. The Asiatic members of the group, being for the most part located on Soviet soil, are replaceable by Russian, while Manchu, the tongue of Manchukuo, is replaceable by Chinese and Japanese.

IV — JAPANESE-KOREAN.

Location: Japan, Korea. Japanese is also current in Formosa, Manchukuo, the Caroline and Marshall Islands, large sections of formerly occupied China, and, to a certain extent, in
those territories which Japan recently held (Dutch East Indies, French Indo-China, Thailand, Malaya, Burma, Philippines).

Number of speakers: over 100,000,000.

Structure: agglutinative (but to a lesser degree than the Ural-Altaic languages); no distinction of gender or number; "impersonal" verb, different terms being used in the same meaning to convey shades of respect, humility, etc. Despite similarities of structure, many linguists doubt the connection between Japanese and Korean.

Main branches:

a) Japanese.
b) Korean.

* * *

The former military, political and economic status of Japan, added to the imposing number of Japanese speakers and the areas where Japanese is current, makes this language one of primary importance.

V — SINO-TIBETAN.

Location: China; Tibet; Burma; Thailand (Siam); northern Indo-China; Manchukuo; Sinkiang.

Number of speakers: nearly 500,000,000.

Structure: monosyllabic (words of one syllable, which are invariable and do not add on endings; grammatical relations are generally indicated by the position of the word in the sentence (cf. English "give me the jack", where "jack" is understood to be a noun; "we must jack up this car", where "jack" is understood as a verb; "this is a jack-knife", where "jack" is an adjective); in addition, these languages make use of tone (the pitch, or the rising and falling inflection of the voice) to distinguish among different meanings of what would otherwise be the same word: Chinese *fu*, pronounced with a high, even pitch, means "man"; with a slight and quickly rising pitch, "fortune"; with a slowly falling and
then rising inflection, "prefecture"; with an abruptly falling inflection, "rich".

Main branches:
- a) Chinese.
- b) Tibetan-Burmese.
- c) Siamese (or Thai).

* * *

Chinese, with some 450,000,000 speakers and a rich background of ancient civilization, is probably destined to become one of the world's most important languages. The difficulties that strew the path of the student of Chinese are: 1. the extremely large number of dialects, many of them mutually incomprehensible; 2. the tone system, which runs contrary to our linguistic habits; we are accustomed to using high, low, rising and falling inflections of the voice to express emphasis and different feelings ("I have seen John"; "I have seen ohn, John"; "I have seen John"; "I have seen John"; "Jo- where are you?” “Jo- How could you?”), and find it \ohn!
very difficult to use them otherwise; 3. the complicated system of writing, with no less than 3,000 commonly used characters, which are combined to represent not sounds, but individual words. This system, with modifications, has been borrowed by the Japanese.

VI — DRAVIDIAN.

Location: southern India, northern Ceylon.
Number of speakers: nearly 100,000,000.
Structure: moderately agglutinative (e.g., noun-root, plus sign of plural, plus case-ending, which is the same for the plural as for the singular); gender not by sex, but by caste ("superior" and "inferior" beings, with women, and even goddesses, often ranged among the latter, in the same classification with inanimate objects).
Main branches: a) Tamit.
   b) Telugu.
   c) Brahui.
   d) Canarese.
   e) Gond.
   f) Bhil.
   g) Malayalam (do not confuse with Malay).

***

These languages, which share with the Indo-European tongues of northern India major control over the Peninsula’s 390,000,000 speakers, are relatively unimportant. English is superimposed as a language of colonization.

VII — MALAYO-POLYNESIAN.

Location: Malay Peninsula; East Indies (Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, Bali, etc.); Philippines; Madagascar; New Zealand (Maori); Samoa, Hawaii, Tahiti, and, generally, the islands of the Pacific.

Number of speakers: about 90,000,000.
Structure: two-syllable root; no endings attached to nouns; concept of gender and number generally absent.

Main branches:
   a) Indonesian: Dutch East Indies; Malaya; Madagascar; Philippines (Tagalog, Bisaya, etc.).
   b) Melanesian: New Hebrides; Fiji Islands; Solomon Islands; etc.
   c) Micronesian: Gilbert, Marshall, Caroline Islands, etc.
   d) Polynesian: Samoa, New Zealand, Tahiti, Hawaii, etc.

***

The extremely large number of separate languages in this family makes any kind of systematic study for practical purposes difficult. Javanese, Malayan and Hawaiian can, to some
extent, be reduced to a systematic arrangement. The languages of colonization (English, Dutch, Japanese, French, etc.) are everywhere superimposed.

VIII — AFRICAN NEGRO.

Location: Africa, south of the Sahara and west of Ethiopia.

Number of speakers: about 100,000,000.

Structure: no definite classification can be given. Some of these languages are characterized by the placing of nouns into distinct classes (man, tree, water, etc.), each of which receives a special distinguishing syllable or sound which is prefixed to nouns of that class and to adjectives associated with them, with a change of prefix to indicate the plural: Swahili *m-thu m-zuri*, “handsome man”; *wa-thu wa-zuri*, “handsome men”; *n-iumba n-zuri*, “pretty house”; *ma-niumba ma-zuri*, “pretty houses”. Adverbs often take the same prefix as the verbs they modify: *ku-fa ku-zuri*, “to die beautifully”.

Main groups:

a) Sudanese-Guinean (Nubian, Masai, Hausa, Yoruba, Mandingo, etc. Many linguists reject Sudanese-Guinean unity).

b) Bantu (Ruanda, Swahili, Zulu, Herero, Umbundu, etc.).

c) Hottentot-Bushman.

***

Because of their great variety and low cultural, political and economic status, these tongues are relatively unimportant (though two of them, Swahili and Hausa, with 8,000,000 and 13,000,000 speakers, respectively, are worthy of some attention). They are everywhere in the process of being superseded by the languages of colonization (English, French, Portuguese, etc.).

IX — AMERICAN INDIAN.

Location: Western Hemisphere.

Number of speakers: undetermined, but probably does not exceed 10,000,000 at the present time, many of whom are
bilingual (English in Canada and U. S. A., Spanish or Portu-
guese in Latin America).

Structure: enormous variations, but in the case of a large
number of these languages it is characterized by “polysynthe-
tism” (“polysynthetic”); this means that words seldom have
individual status, but become significant only when placed in
a sentence; or, to put it another way, the entire sentence forms
one word-unit, with none of its component parts enjoying true
separate existence: Oneida g-nagla-sl-i-zak-s, “I am looking
for a village”; g- carries the meaning of “I”; nagla conveys
the idea of “living”; sl is a suffix giving nagla the force of a
noun (therefore, nagla plus sl convey the idea of “village”);
i is a verbal prefix, indicating that zak is to convey a verbal
idea; zak carries the meaning of “looking for”; s is the sign
of continued action. None of these parts would convey any
very definite meaning if used by itself.

Main groups: classification is almost impossible; among
the better known linguistic tribes of North America are the
Eskimo, the Algonquian (Blackfoot, Cheyenne, Arapahoe, Cree,
Ojibwa, Delaware, etc.), the Iroquois (Huron, Wyandot, Cher-
okee, etc.), and the Uto-Aztec; Central America has, among
others, the Mayan, Mixtec and Zapotec; South America, the
Arawak, Araucanian, Carib, Chibcha, Quechua, Tupi-Guaraní,
etc.

* * *

The practical and cultural importance of the American
Indian languages is small, and they are everywhere super-
seded by Indo-European tongues of colonization which have
become the national languages of the overwhelming majority
of the inhabitants (English, Spanish, Portuguese, etc.).

X — OTHER GROUPS.

The Ainu of northern Japan (20,000 speakers, who be-
long to a mysterious white race); the Hyperborean tongues of
northeastern Siberia (a few thousand speakers); the Basque
of northeastern Spain and southwestern France (less than
1,000,000); the Caucasian group of the Caucasus region in the Soviet Union (Georgian, Lesghian, Avar, Circassian, etc.; perhaps 2,000,000); the Mon-Khmer, Annamese and Munda tongues of southeastern Asia (perhaps 20,000,000 or 30,000,000, most of them in eastern India and French Indo-China); the native tongues of Australia and New Guinea (Papuan), with a few hundred thousand apiece, all form separate linguistic groups, but have little practical importance.

Ainu has a curious duplication of the French-Celtic expression for “eighty” (“four twenties”); Basque has a structure somewhat reminiscent of the polysyntheticism of some American Indian languages (ponet-ekila-ko-are-kin, “with the one who has the cap”, literally: “cap-with-the-of-with”); the Caucasian tongues enjoy an unparalleled richness of consonant sounds and grammatical genders, together with a peculiar structure (“I make my father happy” has to be translated by “through me — contented — makes — self — father”); some native Australian tongues can count only up to three, with the result that “seven” has to be rendered by “pair-pair-pair-one”, and “fifteen” by “hand-side-side-and-foot-half”.

But while these tongues are an object of great curiosity to the scientist, their political, economic and cultural value is so small, and they are so encroached upon by neighboring and colonizing languages (Japanese for Ainu; Russian for the Hyperborean and Caucasian tongues; Spanish and French for Basque; English and French for Mon-Khmer, Annamese and Munda; English for Australian) that they can safely be disregarded by the practical linguist.

SUMMARY

Our analysis of the world’s linguistic picture for practical purposes has considerably narrowed down our search for the important languages. While it is conceivable that a situation may arise in which there is a need for Ainu, or a native Australian tongue, or an African Negro dialect, or an American Indian language, we find that the practically significant lan-
guages can be determined and isolated. "Practical significance" hinges on a number of factors; numerical strength is important, but only if accompanied by continued cultural and economic development and political unity, so that the language becomes standardized and assumes a definite current and literary form; otherwise, the rise of infinite dialects renders the language difficult of access, while political instability leads to the superimposition of another conquering or colonizing tongue. Such is the case with India's Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages, and, to a far lesser degree, with Chinese. Culture, civilization, literature are of importance, but they must be accompanied by expansive power in the political and economic fields, or the number of speakers will remain small, and the practical importance of the language low; Greek is a good example of this. Political unity and power, force of expansion and commercial and economic penetration, when accompanied by the numerical factor and a cultural background, lead to practical importance.

The languages that combine all these factors, though to varying degrees, in the Indo-European group, are "Germanic" English and German; "Romance" Spanish, French, Portuguese and Italian; "Slavic" Russian. In the Semitic group, Arabic is the only tongue that can at the present time lay claim to a first-class position; but the fact that it has been partly replaced by European languages of colonization robs it of the dominant position it has held in the past. Among the Asiatic groups, Japanese and Chinese combine the various factors that appear significant.

In a second division, we may place Dutch and, perhaps, Polish; while a third group might include, for Indo-European, the Scandinavian tongues (Dano-Norwegian, Swedish, Icelandic), Roumanian, the minor Slavic languages (Czech, Serbo-Croatian, Bulgarian), Greek, and Lithuanian; for Ural-Altaic, Finnish, Hungarian and Turkish; for the languages of the Far East, Malay.

Tongues like Albanian, Armenian, the Celtic languages,
Persian, a few vernaculars of India, Palestinian Hebrew, Siamese, Burmese, are linguistic stragglers from the standpoint of practical importance.

The key position of certain languages is now clear. English, German, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Russian and Japanese occupy these key posts. Arabic, Chinese, Malay, and Dutch, even if acquired in the form of a smattering, help to fill the gaps. The ability to identify forty or fifty of the remaining languages, so that we can distinguish between Bulgarian and Serbian, Greek and Albanian, Turkish and Persian, at least in written form, completes all that is needed for a utilitarian linguistic education.
CHAPTER II

GEOGRAPHY AND LANGUAGES

So far we have grouped languages by family units. Geographical distribution now claims our attention. What languages are current in each of the political divisions of the various continents? What secondary, auxiliary or colonial languages may we expect to be able to use, if a country's primary national tongue is not available to us? In dealing with the geographical problem, we shall find it convenient to take the world's pre-war political arrangement, regardless of military occupations, even those that occurred prior to the actual outbreak of hostilities, such as Germany's seizure of Czechoslovakia.

1. NORTH AMERICA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bermudas</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada (including Labrador and Newfoundland)</td>
<td>12,000,000</td>
<td>English, with perhaps 3,000,000 French speakers located primarily in the Province of Quebec, and to some extent in Ontario; many of them can be reached with English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenland</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>Danish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>20,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. S. A.</td>
<td>132,000,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English serves the purpose practically everywhere in North America, save in Greenland (Danish), Mexico (Spanish),
and French-speaking sections of Canada. Foreign-speech groups in the U. S. A. and Canada are picturesque and interesting, but inconsequential for practical purposes. English can to some extent be used in Mexico and Greenland, and largely in French-speaking Canada. For North America, as well as for Central and South America, little mention need be made of Eskimo or American Indian languages, the importance of which is extremely limited.

2. CENTRAL AMERICA AND WEST INDIES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Honduras</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>English and Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canal Zone</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>English and Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>4,200,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>1,600,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadeloupe and Martinique</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>French.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>3,200,000</td>
<td>French.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>1,200,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leeward Islands</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>700,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish and English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salvador</td>
<td>1,700,000</td>
<td>Spanish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virgin Islands</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>English and Danish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Windward Islands</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>English.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Spanish, English and French, in the order mentioned, are the essential languages in this area. English can to some extent be used in all Spanish and French-speaking sections.
3. SOUTH AMERICA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>13,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>3,300,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>44,000,000</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>4,600,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>8,700,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiana, British</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiana, Dutch</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiana, French</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>6,800,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>2,100,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The South American picture is one of division between Spanish (roughly 46,000,000 speakers) and Portuguese (44,000,000), with the latter concentrated in a single country, Brazil. The American Indian languages, which are on their way to complete extinction in North America, are perhaps a little more alive here (Quechua, for example, has nearly 4,000,000 speakers); but their extreme diversity and the fact that many of their speakers can be approached through the medium of the official tongue renders them of scant practical importance. English and French are current among the higher ranks of society in all Latin-American countries; Italian and German are fairly current in some sections of Brazil (São Paulo, Rio Grande do Sul); Italian to some extent in Argentina.

The Western Hemisphere as a whole shows a preponderance of English (about 145,000,000 speakers), followed by Spanish (83,000,000) and Portuguese (44,000,000). French
(8,000,000), Dutch (about 200,000) and Danish (less than 50,000) constitute hemispheric linguistic minorities.

### 4. EUROPE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
<td>Albanian (with Italian, Greek, Turkish, Serbo-Croatian to some extent current).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>8,500,000</td>
<td>French and Flemish (over one-half of the population has Flemish for its native tongue, but French is everywhere current).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>6,500,000</td>
<td>Bulgarian (with Turkish along Black Sea coast).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>15,000,000</td>
<td>Czech (of which Slovak is a variant; German everywhere current, particularly in Sudeten areas; Hungarian in southern section, and Ukrainian in extreme east).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>Danish (German fairly current, especially in southern section, Schleswig).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>Estonian (with Russian and German fairly widespread).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>Finnish (with Swedish, Russian and German fairly current).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>42,000,000</td>
<td>French (linguistic minorities, Bretons, Basques, Catalans, Alsatians, Italians, etc., normally speak French as well).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Such small political units as Andorra (6,000: Spanish, French, Catalan); Danzig (400,000: German and Polish); Gibraltar (21,000: Spanish and English); Liechtenstein (10,000: German); Monaco (24,000: French and Italian); San Marino (14,000: Italian), need not be discussed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Language Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany (including Austria)</td>
<td>76,000,000</td>
<td>German (small linguistic minorities in East Prussia, Silesia, etc., normally speak German as well).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain and Northern I</td>
<td>47,000,000</td>
<td>English (Welsh and Gaelic speakers normally speak English as well).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>7,500,000</td>
<td>Greek (small Turkish, Albanian, Bulgarian minorities).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>9,500,000</td>
<td>Hungarian (Slovak, German and Roumanian minorities; German quite current).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>120,000</td>
<td>Icelandic, Danish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland (Eire)</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>English, Erse (or Irish Gaelic; very few inhabitants of Eire fail to speak and understand English).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>45,000,000</td>
<td>Italian (linguistic minorities, Germans in Alto Adige, Slovenes in Istria, Croatians in Zara, etc., normally speak Italian as well).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>Latvian (or Lettish; Russian and German fairly current).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>Lithuanian (Russian, German, Polish current)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>German, French (population fairly bilingual).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>9,000,000</td>
<td>Dutch (a large number of Hollanders are equipped with German, French, or English).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>Norwegian (a variant of Danish); Lapp in the far north; German and English have some currency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>35,000,000</td>
<td>Polish (linguistic minorities very large: German in Polish Corridor and western provinces; Lithuanian, White Russian and Ukrainian in eastern sections; German and Russian current among a good many Poles; about 3,000,000 Yiddish speakers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal (including Azores)</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
<td>Portuguese (Spanish generally understood).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roumania</td>
<td>20,000,000</td>
<td>Roumanian (linguistic minorities very large: Hungarian and German in Transylvania; Ukrainian in Bessarabia; Bulgarian in Dobruja and Bessarabia, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet Union (in Europe)</td>
<td>130,000,000</td>
<td>Russian (linguistic minorities heavy, but scattered; Caucasian and Armenian in Caucasus; Ural-Altaic in Karelia, north and northeast, etc.; generally accessible through Russian; Russian’s kindred tongues, Ukrainian and White Russian, number 28,000,000 and 5,000,000 speakers, respectively).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>25,500,000</td>
<td>Spanish (Catalan speakers in east, Basques in northeast, normally accessible through Spanish; Galicians in northwest through Spanish or Portuguese).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>6,500,000</td>
<td>Swedish (Lapp in extreme north; German has a certain amount of currency).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>4,500,000</td>
<td>German, French, Italian, Rumansh (all four languages are official; over 3,000,000 Swiss speak German; French speakers number over 2,000,000, Italian and Rumansh speakers nearly 1,000,000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia²</td>
<td>16,000,000</td>
<td>Serbo-Croatian, Slovene (very large linguistic minorities, consisting of German, Bulgarian, Hungarian, Albanian, Turkish, Roumanian and Italian speakers; German is quite current in areas formerly forming part of Austro-Hungarian Empire).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. For Turkey, see Asia, p. 52.
A linguistic survey of Europe shows English to be officially current among some 50,000,000 speakers, and widely spoken and understood outside of its own territory. German includes over 80,000,000 native speakers, and gives access to at least 20,000,000 or 30,000,000 more, in addition to being a "cultural" language (though to a lesser degree than French). French, with some 50,000,000 speakers in France, Belgium and Switzerland, pervades the upper and middle classes of most European countries. Italian gives access to some 50,000,000 European speakers; Russian to over 100,000,000; Spanish to about 25,000,000; while perhaps 30,000,000 can be reached with Polish.

Among the minor European tongues that do not have much European currency outside of their own national territory are Hungarian (13,000,000); Dutch-Flemish (13,000,000); Serbo-Croatian and Slovene (16,000,000); Roumanian (16,000,000); Czech and Slovak (12,000,000); Swedish (7,000,000); Dano-Norwegian, Portuguese, Bulgarian and Greek, with about 7,000,000 each; and Finnish (4,000,000). But some of these languages, notably Portuguese and Dutch, have vast non-European ramifications in colonial or former colonial territories.

Europe is one of the most polylingual of continents. Outside of the general knowledge of French, German, and/or English possessed by most people of culture, many border areas are bilingual, trilingual, even quadrilingual, while the everyday necessities of peoples living together in a crowded area have led to the speaking of one or two additional languages by large segments even of uneducated people in many European countries. If you do not know the national language of the country you are in, don't give up hope; try the languages you do know; they very often work successfully.
### 5. ASIA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>12,000,000</td>
<td>Pashtu and Persian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>16,000,000</td>
<td>Burmese (with English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>6,000,000</td>
<td>Singalese (Indo-Aryan) in south; Tamil (Dravidian) in north; English superimposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>425,000,000</td>
<td>Chinese (Ural-Altaic dialects in Chinese Turkestan and Mongolia; Tibetan in Tibet; Thai dialects in southeastern sections and Hainan; Japanese to some extent current in Japanese-seized territory; European languages, especially English, in foreign concessions and coastal cities). The principal Chinese dialects (Mandarin, now the official tongue, or Kuo-yü: 280,000,000; Cantonese: 38,000,000; Wu of Shanghai: 34,000,000; Min of Fukien: 30,000,000) are not mutually intelligible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>Greek (Turkish, English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaya (including</td>
<td>5,500,000</td>
<td>Malayan (Indonesian), Chinese, and Mon-Khmer dialects (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straits Settlements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Indo-China</td>
<td>24,500,000</td>
<td>Annamese and Mon-Khmer dialects (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>Chinese (English, Japanese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>390,000,000</td>
<td>Indo-Aryan tongues (Panjabi, Bengali, Hindi, Urdu, etc.) in north; Dravidian languages (Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, etc.) in south; scattered Munda groups, mostly in northeast; English superimposed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[L05\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Language and Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>15,000,000</td>
<td>Persian, Kurdish. French is current among the upper classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>4,500,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Kurdish, Turkish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan (including Karafuto)</td>
<td>73,000,000</td>
<td>Japanese ( Ainu in Yezo and Karafuto, the southern part of Sakhalin Island).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>25,000,000</td>
<td>Korean (Japanese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manchukuo</td>
<td>43,000,000</td>
<td>Manchu (of the Ural-Altaic family; less than 500,000); Chinese (about 40,000,000); Japanese superimposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal and Bhutan</td>
<td>6,000,000</td>
<td>Indo-Aryan and Tibetan dialects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>Arabic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>Arabic (Hebrew and English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese Asia</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>Indo-Aryan dialects in Goa, Damau and Diu; Chinese in Macau (Portuguese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia (including Hejaz)</td>
<td>5,500,000</td>
<td>Arabic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet Union in Asia</td>
<td>41,000,000</td>
<td>Ural-Altaic and Hyperborean dialects (Ostyak, Samoyed, Turkoman, Kirghiz, Mongol, Tungus, Yukagir, etc.; Russian everywhere superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria and Lebanon</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan (Formosa)</td>
<td>5,500,000</td>
<td>Indonesian dialects and Chinese (Japanese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand (Siam)</td>
<td>16,500,000</td>
<td>Siamese (Thai) and Mon-Khmer dialects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transjordan</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>Arabic (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey (including European Turkey)</td>
<td>18,000,000</td>
<td>Turkish (a Ural-Altaic language; Indo-European Armenian and Kurdish in the eastern sections).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>Arabic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. British possessions in and near Arabia (Aden, Bahrein Island, Kuwait) have a total of some 300,000 Arabic speakers, with English superimposed.
The linguistic picture of Asia is at least as involved as that of Europe. Northern Asia (Siberia, Union of Soviet Republics) is almost solidly Ural-Altaic, but with a strong Russian infiltration which is particularly noticeable along the courses of the great rivers (Ob, Lena, Yenisei), and in the larger cities and towns. The Ural-Altaic tongues extend down into Chinese Turkestan, Mongolia and Manchuria.

Chinese, with its mighty mass of speakers, predominates in most of east central continental Asia. But politically Chinese territory is abundantly strewn with other linguistic groups; the Ural-Altaic dialects mentioned above, and Chinese's kindred tongues, Tibetan and Thai, in southwestern and southeastern China, respectively.

The Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages of India and Ceylon account for most of India's 390,000,000 speakers, but colonizing English forms a strong super-layer, as it does also in Burma and Malaya.

Japanese, with over 70,000,000 native speakers, also permeates Korea, Formosa, Manchukuo and, to a lesser degree, other lands of former Japanese occupation.

Arabic is current in the entire Arabian Peninsula, Iraq, Syria, Palestine and Transjordan, with English in the last two countries, French in Syria, and Hebrew in Palestine as superimposed tongues. The influence of Arabic is also strongly felt in Indo-European Afghanistan, Iran, and northern India, and, in fact, wherever the Muhammadan faith has followers.

Ural-Altaic Turkish, with Indo-European Armenian and Kurdish spoken on its national territory; Sino-Tibetan Thai, current in Siam and parts of southeastern China; Annamese in French Indo-China; Mon-Khmer dialects in Indo-China, Thailand and Malaya; Munda dialects in India; Indonesian Malay in Malaya; Indo-European Persian and Pushtu, may be said to constitute a secondary group of Asiatic tongues.

Among the languages of colonization, first place belongs to English, which pervades India, Ceylon, Burma, Malaya, Cyprus, Hong Kong, Palestine, Transjordan and sections of
Arabia (Aden, Bahrein, Kuwait). French appears in Indo-China, Syria, and one or two cities of India (Pondichéry) and China (Kwangchowan); Portuguese in Goa, Damau and Diu, on the western coast of India, and in Chinese Macau; Russian throughout the Asiatic territory of the Soviet Union, and, to some extent, in Mongolia.

6. AFRICA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic and Berber (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo-Egyptian Sudan</td>
<td>6,500,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Kushitic (Beja, etc.), and Sudanese-Guinean dialects, especially Nubian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>Bantu (Portuguese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basutoland</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bechuanaland</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgian Congo</td>
<td>14,000,000</td>
<td>Bantu, Sudanese-Guinean (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroons</td>
<td>2,600,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean and Bantu dialects (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>17,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic and Kushitic dialects (English, French, Greek, Italian superimposed). Nubian (Sudanese-Guinean) in Upper Egypt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia (including 12,000,000</td>
<td>Ethiopian (Amharic, Tigre, etc.); Kushitic dialects (Galla, Somali, etc.); Sudanese-Guinean dialects in extreme west; Italian superimposed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea and Italian Somaliland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Equatorial Africa</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean; Arabic in north; Bantu in extreme south (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French West Africa 16,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber, Sudanese-Guinean (French superimposed).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Dahomey, Fr. Sudan, Fr. Guinea, Ivory Coast, Niger, Togo, Senegal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Language(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gold Coast</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea, Portuguese</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean (Portuguese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea, Spanish Ifni</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>Bantu (Spanish superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>Berber and Arabic (Spanish superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber (Italian superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>3,800,000</td>
<td>Malagasy (Indonesian); French superimposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>4,500,000</td>
<td>Bantu (Portuguese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>22,000,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyasaland</td>
<td>1,600,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English, Afrikaans, superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodesia</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English, Afrikaans, superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio de Oro</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>Arabic (Spanish superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somaliland, British</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>Kushitic (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somaliland, French</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>Kushitic (French superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southwest Africa</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>Bantu, Hottentot-Bushman (English, German superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Morocco</td>
<td>800,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber (Spanish superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanganyika</td>
<td>5,300,000</td>
<td>Bantu (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber (French, Italian superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>3,800,000</td>
<td>Sudanese-Guinean, Bantu (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union of South Africa</td>
<td>10,700,000</td>
<td>Bantu, Hottentot-Bushman (English, Afrikaans superimposed).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Linguistically, northern Africa, as far as the Tropic of Cancer and beyond, is solidly Semito-Hamitic, with Semitic Arabic stretching from the Sinai Peninsula to the Atlantic coast, and Hamitic Berber intermingled with it in the interior, particularly in the Sahara, in Algeria and Morocco. Hamitic Kushitic and Semitic Ethiopian languages appear in the area east of the Nile and extend down to the southern borders of Ethiopia and Italian Somaliland and beyond. The rest of the continent is divided between two great African Negro groups, the Sudanese-Guinean and the Bantu, with the dividing line between them a little to the north of the Equator on the western coast and a little to the south of it on the eastern. Hottentot-Bushman appears only in a restricted section of Southwest Africa.

The languages of colonization are of particular importance in this continent. They are not everywhere equally widespread, however, ranging from the strong position which English holds in South Africa to the very thin veneer of French and Flemish in the Belgian Congo, and from the native-tongue status of French and Italian among a quarter of Tunisia’s inhabitants to the military outpost and trading-post function of English in Uganda, Kenya and Tanganyika.

English appears in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Gambia, the Gold Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Nigeria, Nyasaland, Sierra Leone, British Somaliland, Tanganyika, Uganda, and all of South Africa (the Union of South Africa, including the Transvaal, the Cape of Good Hope, the Orange Free State and Natal; Rhodesia, Swaziland, Bechuanaland, Basutoland, and Southwest Africa). In South African territory, English shares with a variant of Dutch (Afrikaans) the honor of having become a national language by virtue of white settlers who now number over one-fourth of the total population.

French is current in Algeria, the Cameroons, French Equatorial and West Africa, Madagascar, French Morocco, French Somaliland and Tunisia; in the Belgian Congo, it forms, with Flemish, the language of colonization.

Italian appears in Libya, Eritrea, Italian Somaliland, and, to some extent, in Ethiopia and Tunisia.
THE COLONIAL LANGUAGES OF AFRICA

- Former German
- Present English influence
- French
- English
- Spanish
- Portuguese
- Italian
- Former German
- Present French influence
- French and Flemish
- English and Afrikaans
- English influence
- Italian influence
- English, French and Italian influence
Portuguese appears in Angola, Portuguese Guinea and Mozambique, and is the national language in the Cape Verde and Madeira Islands (about 250,000 inhabitants each).

Spanish is current in Spanish Morocco, the Canary Islands, Ifni, Rio de Oro and Spanish Guinea.

Lastly, German very occasionally appears in Germany’s former colonial possessions of the days prior to the first world war: the Cameroons, Togoland (now divided between French West Africa and British Gold Coast), Southwest Africa, Nyasaland and Tanganyika.

Egypt (predominantly Arabic in speech) is a land where English, French, Greek and Italian are fairly current.

7. OCEANIA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate Population</th>
<th>Language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
<td>English (with native Australian languages approaching extinction).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bismarck Archipelago</td>
<td>250,000</td>
<td>Melanesian (English and German superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British North Borneo</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>Indonesian (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>Indonesian (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caroline Islands</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>Micronesian (Japanese superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook Islands</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>Polynesian (English superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch East Indies</td>
<td>60,000,000 (Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, Neth. New Guinea, Bali, Madura, Flores, western Timor, Amboina, etc.)</td>
<td>Indonesian languages and dialects (save for the interior of New Guinea, where Papuan is spoken); these are Javanese (over 20,000,000) and Sundanese (6-000,000) in Java; Balinese (3,000,000) in Bali; Madurese (3,000,000) in Madura; Dayak in Borneo; Atchin, Minangkabau and Batak in Sumatra; Macassar, etc., in Celebes; Dutch and Malay everywhere superimposed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Language Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji Islands</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Melanesian and Hindustani (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Oceania</td>
<td>45,000</td>
<td>Polynesian (French superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gilbert and Ellice Islands</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>Micronesian and Polynesian (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guam</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>Micronesian (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaiian Islands</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>Polynesian (English, Japanese, Chinese, Korean superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labuan</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>Indonesian (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marianas Islands</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Micronesian (Japanese superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshall Islands</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>Micronesian (Japanese superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Caledonia</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>Melanesian (French and English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Guinea</td>
<td>750,000</td>
<td>Papuan (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hebrides</td>
<td>45,000</td>
<td>Melanesian (English and French superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>1,600,000</td>
<td>English (Polynesian Maori on the way to extinction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palau</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>Micronesian (Japanese and German superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papua</td>
<td>275,000</td>
<td>Papuan (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippine Islands</td>
<td>16,000,000</td>
<td>Indonesian (about 50 different dialects: Bisaya - about 7,000,000; Tagalog - about 4,000,000; Ilocano - about 2,300,000; etc. English and Spanish superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>13,000</td>
<td>Polynesian (English and German superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Samoa</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>Polynesian (French superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarawak</td>
<td>450,000</td>
<td>Indonesian (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>140,000</td>
<td>Melanesian (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor (Portuguese)</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>Indonesian (Portuguese superimposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>Polynesian (English superimposed)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Oceania shows a predominance of Malayo-Polynesian, indigenous to all the Oceanic Islands with the exception of Australia (native Australian languages) and New Guinea (Papuan). The division of the Malayo-Polynesian tongues into Indonesian, Melanesian, Micronesian and Polynesian is somewhat arbitrary (being to some extent geographical and racial rather than linguistic), and not very important, in view of the innumerable diverging dialects. Indonesian Javanese, accounting for some 20,000,000 people, is the most important of these languages.

Among the languages of colonization, English is by far the most widespread, having become the language of the majority of the inhabitants in Australia and New Zealand, where colonists originally from Britain and their descendants far outstrip the native populations in number. It also forms a superimposed layer in Hawaii, the Philippines, the northern sections of the island of Borneo (Sarawak, British North Borneo), eastern Papua (New Guinea and Papua Territories), and about half of the minor islands and groups.

Dutch, current in the Dutch East Indies (Java, Sumatra, Celebes, southern Borneo, western Papua, Bali, Madura, western Timor, Amboina, etc.) is second only to English in importance.

Japanese, current in all the Japanese-mandated islands (Caroline, Marianas, Marshalls, etc.) and, to some extent, in seized territory, runs third.

French appears in Tahiti, New Caledonia, parts of the New Hebrides and Samoa, etc.; Portuguese in the eastern section of Timor. Vestiges of former colonial occupations appear in the half million Spanish speakers of the Philippines and the occasional traces of German in former German colonial possessions (Bismarck, Caroline, Marianas, Marshall Islands, Samoa, New Guinea, etc.).
CHAPTER III

LANGUAGES OF THE GERMANIC GROUP

Of the three leading Indo-European divisions (Germanic, Romance, Slavic), the Germanic holds first place in point of numbers and political and commercial importance, vying for cultural first honors with the Romance group. Its main modern subdivisions are English, German, Dutch-Flemish, Dano-Norwegian, Swedish and Icelandic. Of these, the first three belong to the West Germanic family, while the others are of the Scandinavian, or North Germanic variety.

English, with over 200,000,000 native speakers, located principally on the North American continent, the British Isles, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand, is also by far the most important and far-reaching among the tongues of colonization in Asia, Africa and Oceania. It is, furthermore, the language of commercial intercourse par excellence. During its past history, it differentiated itself from its sister Germanic tongues by the inclusion of larger numbers of borrowed words, especially from the Latin-Romance languages, and this mixture gives it a distinctive international flavor that makes it ideal for general use throughout the world.

German, with over 80,000,000 native speakers in the Reich and Switzerland, serves also as a tongue of international exchange throughout Central Europe, being used as a secondary language by large sections of the populations of countries that formerly formed part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire (Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia), and, to a lesser degree, of Poland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, etc. As a "cultural" language, German is current among large segments
of the more learned classes of other European countries and of North and South America, while German emigration to the New World and former colonization of African and Oceanic territories account for additional millions of people who can be reached with German.

Dutch, with its Belgian variant, Flemish, is the native tongue of some 13,000,000 people in Europe, while the Dutch colonial empire and the Belgian Congo comprise some 80,000,000 people in part accessible through Dutch and Flemish. Afrikaans, the South African variety of Dutch, is still in fairly general use throughout the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia and neighboring territories, side by side with English.

As compared with the West Germanic languages, the tongues of the Scandinavian group have relatively few speakers. Swedish is the native tongue of about 6,500,000, and is used by considerable segments of the population of western and southern Finland and the Aaland Islands. Danish and Norwegian have a joint speaking population of some 7,000,000, and Danish is, in addition, used to some extent in Greenland, Iceland and the Virgin Islands. Icelandic is the tongue of only 100,000 people in Iceland. The Faroe Islands, north of Scotland, use a dialect intermediate between Danish and Icelandic.

ENGLISH — DISTRIBUTION AND VARIETIES

English, the mother-tongue of over 200,000,000 people scattered all over the six continents, displays local differences which, while not so radical as those appearing in other languages concentrated in much smaller areas, nevertheless render mutual understanding difficult at times. These differences appear, for the most part, in the fields of pronunciation and vocabulary, with grammar more generally standardized in countries settled by people of Anglo-Saxon blood. Grammatical standardization does not hold, however, for lands where English has become a secondary tongue, acquired by the native populations in “Pidgin” forms.
U. S. A.

For practical purposes, it may be said that American Indian languages have disappeared from United States soil. It is estimated that less than a quarter of a million American Indians now exist in the U. S., and a considerable number of them are acquainted only with English.

The English of America’s 140,000,000 inhabitants, despite local features of intonation and pronunciation (Southern “drawl”; New England “twang”; Middle Western strongly marked r; New York *thoity-thoid* for “thirty-third”; “Bostonese”; “Brooklynite”; etc.), and occasional vocabulary and semantic divergences,¹ has become one of the world’s most standardized tongues, by reason of generally high levels of communications, transportation and education. Many of its current slang expressions and colloquialisms are unintelligible or only semi-intelligible to inhabitants of other parts of the English-speaking world.²

1. E. g., Southern “to carry” for “to take” (“he carried me to the dance”; “carry me back to Old Virginny”); “falling weather” for “rainy weather”; “you-all” for a plural “you”; East Texas “gallery” for “porch”; Mid-Western “get shut of” for “get rid of” and “to jin” for “to do odd jobs”; New England’s “tonic” for “soft drink”; New York’s “stoop” for “porch”. Among rapidly disappearing local forms may be cited the picturesque expressions for “small portion” current in the Cumberland, Great Smokies and Ozarks, respectively: *smidgen*, *canch*, *tiddy-bit*; while “cow” is *cow-beast*, *cow-brute* and *she-cow*. To *lollygag* for “to make love”, *bumbershoot* for “umbrella” and *schnicklefritz* for “German” are reported from the Ohio Valley.

2. A few examples of words and expressions for which the average non-American English speaker needs a glossary are: *ballyhoo*, *bell-hop*, *co-ed*, *bughouse*, *flivver*, *flop-house*, *four-flusher*, *go-getter*, *goo* and *gooey*, *hayseed*, *joint*, *lobbying*, *sissy*, *smart Aleck*, *sorehead*, *traffic jam*, *wisecrack*, *wise guy*; to be (two dollars) *shy*, to *bump off*, to *discombobulate*, to *get a line on*, to *get a load of*, to *get next to*, to *get stuck with*, to *get the drop on*, to *gouge*, to *hornswoggle*, to *monkey with*, to *pitch woo*, to *shoot craps*, to *smooth*, to *soak* (somebody), to *spook*, to *stay put*, to *whoop things up*; *fresh* (“he’s a fresh
GREAT BRITAIN

The population of Great Britain, including Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, is about 47,000,000. Practically all of these people, to whom may be added Eire’s 3,000,000, speak English. However, on its far more limited territory, the English of Britain displays far greater local divergences than does the English of America. The English dialects are powerful realities, based on strong features of individual pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary divergence. The following are only a few scattered examples:

The Shetland Islands pronounce “shall” and “should” as sall and soud. The western part of Scotland has ba’el for “battle” and be’er for “better”. The Braid Scots dialect uses lippen for “believe”, aboon for “above” and till for “to”. Cornwall has dafter for “daughter”. In Ulster, the demonstratives “that”, “those” appear as yon, thon; in northern England, “these” and “those” are thee, thir, and in Wexford “this” or “that” is thik; the English Midlands use chilt, ged, wod for “child”, “get”, “what”; Yorkshire has hoo for “she” and han, liven, shan for “have”, “live”, “shall”; Gloucestershire has her for “she” and thak for “that”, while the southwest of England turns “parlor” into palder. The pronunciation of a Yorkshireman is normally totally incomprehensible to the average American. We are somewhat more familiar with the Scottish “burr”, the Irish “brogue”, and the “Cockney” of London. From the standpoint of syntax, dialectal English occasionally produces a somewhat weird effect. The following signalled conversation between two Brit-

3. Celtic speakers (Irish, Welsh and Scots) in the British Isles are normally bilingual, and to a majority of them, English is more familiar than their own Celtic tongues. See p. 446-450 for the Celtic languages of the British Isles.
ish naval officers, both from Somersetshire, as their ships were about to go into action, is reported from the Mediterranean: "I be relying on you". — "Doan 'ee worry; we got they in the bag."

Outside of dialectal forms and intonations, the "King's English" itself will occasionally disturb the American speaker of English. First and foremost, there is the matter of enunciation, which in British English is normally more clipped, incisive and staccato than in its American counterpart, with far more modulation of tone and rise and fall in the pitch of the voice. The pronunciation of individual words and groups of sounds diverges (laugh, branch, bath, vase, etc., pronounced in Britain with the a of "father"). Note also the British pronunciation of "clerk" (clark), "Derby" (Darby), "schedule" (shedule), "lieutenant" (leftenant; but a pronunciation similar to our own prevails for the rank in the British Navy), "figure" (figger), etc. Many words are differently stressed (British nêcess'ry, papá, mammá, primarily, temporarily, finâncier). Many spelling divergences occur (British labour, favour, honour, connexion, inflexion, gaol, waggon, kerb, programme, jewellery, tyre, grey, cheque). In grammar, such expressions as "His Majesty's Government are in favour of this measure" occasionally come up to make us realize that there is a difference.

Of far greater interest and importance, however, are the numerous semantic differences between the two chief varieties of English. Most of these have fortunately been codified. Only a few of the most significant and important appear here.

4. Semantic — pertaining to the meanings of words.

TRANSPORTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American</th>
<th>British</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>information bureau,</td>
<td>inquiry office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ticket agent,</td>
<td>booking clerk (pron. clark)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conductor,</td>
<td>guard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right of way,</td>
<td>permanent way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freight car,</td>
<td>goods waggon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ties,</td>
<td>sleepers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleeper,</td>
<td>sleeping car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tracks,</td>
<td>metals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all aboard!,</td>
<td>take your seats!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gangway!, one side!,</td>
<td>by your leave!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on time,</td>
<td>to time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>street-car,</td>
<td>tram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subway,</td>
<td>underground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>underpass,</td>
<td>subway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfort station,</td>
<td>public convenience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>top (car),</td>
<td>hood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hood,</td>
<td>bonnet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fender,</td>
<td>wing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gas, gasoline,</td>
<td>petrol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rumble seat,</td>
<td>dickey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spark plug,</td>
<td>sparking plug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>storage battery,</td>
<td>accumulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>windshield,</td>
<td>windscreen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muffler,</td>
<td>silencer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gear shift,</td>
<td>gear lever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedan,</td>
<td>saloon car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parking-place,</td>
<td>car-park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>truck,</td>
<td>lorry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirt road,</td>
<td>unmetalled road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traffic jam,</td>
<td>traffic block</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
COMMUNICATIONS

information, inquiry
hello!, are you there?
line's busy, number's engaged
hook-up, relay
are you through?, have you finished?
you're connected, you are through

BUSINESS AND OCCUPATIONAL

employment bureau, registry office
white-collar job, black-coat job
to fire, to lay off, to stand off
salary, wage, screw
payroll, wage sheet
saloonkeeper, publican, licensed victualler

(pron. vittler)
financial editor, city editor
city editor, chief reporter
legal holiday, bank holiday
check, draft (or cheque)
istalment plan, hire system
billboard, hoarding

ATTIRE

garters, sock suspenders
suspenders, braces
wash rag, face flannel
vest, waistcoat (pron. weskit)
undershirt, vest
raincoat, mackintosh, mack
slacks, bags
run (stocking), ladder
derby, bowler
permanent, perm
nail polish, nail varnish
HOUSEHOLD

radio,
tubes,
wrench,
ash can, junk heap,
overnight bag,
baby carriage,
hot water heater,
flashlight,
thumbtack,
chicken yard,
writing desk,
sideboard,
apartment,
single room,
apartment house,
 transient,
room clerk,

wireless set
valves
spanner
dust bin
attaché case
pram
geyser (pron. geezah)
electric torch
drawing pin
fowl run
bureau
dresser
flat
apartment
block of flats
temporary guest
reception clerk (pron. clark)

AMUSEMENTS

to stand in line,
orchestra,
aisle,
to buy (ticket),
movies,
intermission,
dance-hall,

to queue up
stalls
gangway
to book
cinema
interval
dancing saloon

SHOPS

candy store,
drug store,
dime store,
chain store,
paper stand,
hardware store,
fruit store,
dry goods store,
sweet shop
chemist's
 bazaar
multiple shop
kiosk
ironmonger's
fruiterer's
 draper's
FOODS AND AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

string beans,  French beans
beets,  beet root
romaine,  cos
lima beans,  flat beans
egg-plant,  aubergine
catnip,  catmint
alfalfa,  lucerne
roast,  joint
dessert,  sweet
tart,  crumpets
muffins,  scones (pron. scawns) —,
biscuits,  muffins

EDUCATIONAL, LEGAL AND POLITICAL

private school,  non-provided (or public)
to flunk (active),  school
to bone up on,  to plough
to parole,  to swot up
to mend fences,  ticket of leave
to break into a full dinner pail,  to nurse one's constituency
to run for,  big loaf
to soap-box,  to stand for
tub-thumping

NUMBERS

billion,  milliard
trillion,  billion
wad of bills,  sheaf of notes
146 lbs.,  10 stone 6
SLANG AND COLLOQUIAL

to pick on, to drop on
roughhouse, bear garden
hick, chaw-bacon
rubberneck, nosy parker
easy mark, mug
dough, dibs
to doll up, to dress up to the nines
cute, dinky
shark, crackerjack, dab
beat it!, hop it!
hell!, 'struth!
guy, bloke, cove
wallop the guy!, biff the bloke!
dumb-bell, silly coot
to get results, to raise money, to work the oracle
to pull a boner, to make a bloomer
magistrate, judge, beak
to bawl out, to tell off
to kick about, to boggle about

MISCELLANEOUS

sidewalk, pavement
mail box, pillar box
pack of cigarettes, packet of cigarettes
in the next block, beyond the next turning
to mail, to post
to pry open, to prize open

AUSTRALIA

Australia's 7,000,000 people are almost completely of British stock and English speech (the native population is estimated at less than 100,000, and speaks a multitude of imperfectly known Australian languages). In pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary, the English of Australia is distinctive-
ly individual, but comes closer to that of the British Isles than to that of America. An entire series of localisms, mainly of the slang variety, appears. Some of the interesting expressions from the “Land Down Under”, recently codified in magazine and newspaper articles, are the following (where possible, the American slang equivalent is given):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>American</strong></th>
<th><strong>Australian</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>frontier, wilderness,</td>
<td>outback, back-blocks, never-never country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bush-hut,</td>
<td>humpy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hobo,</td>
<td>swagman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hobo’s bundle,</td>
<td>Waltzing Matilda, bluey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>riverbed pool or offshoot,</td>
<td>billabong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>food,</td>
<td>tucker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knapsack,</td>
<td>tuckerbag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canned meat,</td>
<td>tinned dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swimming-suit,</td>
<td>cossie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lamb, sheep,</td>
<td>jumbuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“rookie”,</td>
<td>drogo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferior,</td>
<td>sprog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“babe”, “gal”, ‘dame”, “jane”,</td>
<td>sheila, cliner, sninny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delectable femininity,</td>
<td>nice bit of skirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crazy about,</td>
<td>shook on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“to smooch”,</td>
<td>to smooge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high-powered lover, “yes- man”,</td>
<td>smooger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jilted “jane”,</td>
<td>battered bun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>party, “blowout”, “spread”,</td>
<td>shivoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wine,</td>
<td>bean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beer glass,</td>
<td>plonk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drunk, “plastered”,</td>
<td>butcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the D. T.’s,</td>
<td>shikkered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speakeasy,</td>
<td>in the rats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to go on a spree,</td>
<td>sly grog shop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to go on a larrikin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to go Dutch,
"to treat",
"Dutch treat",
egg,
jug,
barrel,
money,
ready cash,
copper penny,
threepence,
sixpence,
shilling,
pound (money),
to borrow, to beg,
rest period,
pal, "side-kick",
"good guy",
true blue.
nose, "beak",
hoodlum,
gang of hoodlums,
racket,
revolver, "gat",
to hit, to attack,
to steal,
"cops",
cattle-stealing,
kibitzer,
"lowdown", absolute truth,
hard work,
"stuffed shirt",
big boss,
horse,
tea-can,
the "blues",
"lip", "back-talk",
high-pressure talk,
“scram”,
“to shoot off one’s mouth”,
to get angry,
to tease,
to poke fun at,
teasing, badinage,
to take a mean advantage of,
almost mixed up,
“got a nerve”
to look over,
to brood over something,
to give up,
hard hit,
stupid, “dumb”,
half-wit,
had his day,
to go broke,
Holy Jiminy!,
great, “swell”,
bad, “lousy”, “rotten”
everything O. K.,
yes, O. K.,
thanks,
“yoo-hoo”,
within hearing distance of,
Chinaman’s chance,
Jap,
Italian, “Wop”,
Englishman,
Scotchman,
Chinese,
Anzac,
New Zealander,
imshi
to mag
to get all wet
to poke borax at
to sling off
chiacking
to show a point on
humpty do
got a hide
to take a squiz
to chew the rag
to drop the bundle
stonkered
dill
shingle-sharp
done his dash
to go bung
God stone the crows!
ding dong, dinkum, bonzer,
  bosker, boshter, slap-up
cow, (fair cow, lousy cow)
curling the moe, she’s right
ribuck
ta
cooee
within cooee of
Buckley’s chance
Nip
Dingbat
Pommy
Geordie
Chow
Digger
Enzedder

To all of this may be added a wealth of terms which
Australia shares with Britain: bloke for “guy”, dinkie for
“cute,” ta-ta for “bye-bye” are typical of these.
NEW ZEALAND

Of New Zealand’s 1,600,000 inhabitants, less than 100,000 are of native (Maori) stock. Their speech belongs to the Polynesian variety of Malayo-Polynesian. The remaining million and a half are of British stock and English speech. Intonation and pronunciation, while distinctive, are closer to American than to British (dance, path, with the a of bat, not of father). The vocabulary often coincides with America’s rather than with Britain’s (radio, pack of cigarettes, to mail, in preference to wireless, packet, to post). Localisms generally coincide with those of Australia (bosker and dinkum for “swell”, cobber for “side-kick”, wowser for “blue nose” or “stuffed shirt”, cow for “lousy”, etc.). The following list seems to have originated with New Zealand. Items marked with an asterisk are common to Australia as well, and subsequent research may reveal that this is also true of others of the terms listed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American</th>
<th>New Zealand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hut,</td>
<td>whare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lost, strayed,</td>
<td>bushed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to go native,</td>
<td>to go back to nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“atta boy!”,</td>
<td>kapai!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stranger,</td>
<td>paheka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prestige, “rep”,</td>
<td>mana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hello!,</td>
<td>tenakoe!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“big chief”,</td>
<td>rangūtira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gas, gasoline,</td>
<td>benzinz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to argue,</td>
<td>to argue the toss*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>farmer,</td>
<td>cocky*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharecropper,</td>
<td>sharemilker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>large-scale sheep farmer,</td>
<td>squatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ill, bad,</td>
<td>crook (to feel crook)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work,</td>
<td>graft (hard graft)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man,</td>
<td>joker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>candy,</td>
<td>lollies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
position,
to boast, to brag,
under, upset over something,
sure!
morning tea,
English immigrant,
girl,
penny,
to move house,
half-baked,
food,
money,
to be good at,
good luck!,
G. I., doughboy,

pozze
to skite
up the pole*
too right!
smoke-oh (or smoko)*
Homey
tart
brown
to up stick
half-pie
kai
hoot
to be pie on
kia ora!
kiwi

SOUTH AFRICA

The South African racial and linguistic situation is not quite so favorable to English as is the case with the other British Dominions. Out of a total of nearly 11,000,000 inhabitants of the Union of South Africa, it is estimated that about 2,500,000 are whites, about equally divided between the descendants of the Dutch-speaking Boers, who still use Afrikaans, and settlers of British origin. Probably a majority of white South Africans are bilingual. Naturally enough, a great many words and expressions have crept into the English of South Africa from Afrikaans, Bantu and other sources. The following "Afrikanerisms" are of interest:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American</th>
<th>South African</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>there is a flood,</td>
<td>the river is down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>town-lots,</td>
<td>stands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to steal,</td>
<td>to jump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. O. U.,</td>
<td>good-for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he threw a rock at me,</td>
<td>he threw me with a rock</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to run over,  
in the house,  
snooper, stool-pigeon,  
thief,  
loot,  
G. I., doughboy,  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>to tramp</th>
<th>tramp</th>
<th>trap</th>
<th>goniz</th>
<th>goniva</th>
<th>springbok</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(of Dutch origin)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American</th>
<th>South African</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>early dawn,</td>
<td>schimmel day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>farmyard,</td>
<td>erf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>armed camp,</td>
<td>lager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rascal,</td>
<td>schelm, skelm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to travel,</td>
<td>to trek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gulley,</td>
<td>sloot, sluit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land measure,</td>
<td>morgen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depression between hills,</td>
<td>kloof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pound (for animals)</td>
<td>schut, skit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open country,</td>
<td>veld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boss,</td>
<td>baas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precipice,</td>
<td>kranz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-bushel measure,</td>
<td>muid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fenced-off field,</td>
<td>camp, kraal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are you coming along?,</td>
<td>are you going with?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bogus, counterfeit,</td>
<td>snyde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conservative,</td>
<td>dopper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(of Bantu origin)

| army, | impi |
| gully, arroyo, | donga |
| council, pow-wow, | indaba |
| sour milk, | amasi |
| thanks, | inkosi |

6. This Zulu word, meaning “chief”, “bestower of benefits”, ultimately has become an acknowledgement of a benefit received.
(of Portuguese origin)
nursemaid, ayah
girl, nooi
straw hat, sambriero

(of Malay origin)
pickles, chutney, atjar, blatjang
stamp, tjap, chop
jacket, baatje
all-leather whip, sjambok
hut, pondok, pondhock

CANADA

Of Canada’s 12,000,000 people, some 3,000,000 are of French speech, and they are located for the most part in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario. Native American Indian and Eskimo languages account for a little over 100,000 speakers. The remaining population is of English speech, and the brand of English is so close to that of the United States that in a British-compiled dictionary of Canadianisms containing approximately one thousand terms, only some three dozen are found which are not common to both countries (subsequent research may reveal that even a few of these are):

American                Canadian
commercial traveller, drummer, bagman
gin, blue ruin
pig, Cincinnati olive
pig’s feet, Cincinnati oysters
Newfoundland, Codland
third-class coach, colonist car
farmer, “hick”, corntossle
parson, “sky pilot”, devil-dodger
beer and gin mixed, dog’s nose
church,
strong whiskey,
spoon, fork,
millionaire,
American flag, “Old Glory”,
Fourth of July,
liquor dregs
English resident of long standing,
day’s work,
half-breed,
land, real estate,
newcomer, “greenhorn”,
in fine health,
egg yolk in whiskey,
teetotaler,
small-town mayor,
to stand treat,
carpenter,
drunk, “stewed”,
iced liquor,
raisin pudding,
tramp,
to be under the influence of liquor,
dollar bill,
colored man,
doxology works, gospel factory
forty-rod
gob-stick
gold-bug
gridiron
rebel picnic
heel taps
improved Britisher
jig
metis
mud
new chum (appears in other British Dominions, notably Australia)
out of sight
prairie oyster
pump-sucker
reeve
to stand sam
shavings
slewed
snow-broth
spotted dog
sundowner
to have the sun in one’s eyes
toadskin
unbleached American

ANGLO-INDIAN (HOBSON-JOBSON)

In the course of their long occupation of British India, British soldiers, officials and residents have developed a series

7. The origin of this term used to describe the slang of India is said to be the Muhammadan rallying-cry: Ya Hassan! Ya Hussein!
of words and expressions, mostly drawn from the native languages and dialects, a few of which have found their way into the English of other lands; among colloquial expressions claimed to be of Indian origin are: *cheese*, in the expression “he’s the big cheese” (the *cheese* represents Hindustani *chīz*, “thing”); *dam* in “I don’t give a dam” (the *dām* is an Indian coin); *grassy widow*, a term said to have been coined by British officers to designate those military wives who sojourned in the cool, grassy hill-country while their husbands sheltered in the dusty plains. *Betel*, bungalow, mango, cheroot, pariah, curry, tiffin (lunch), griffin (newcomer, “greenhorn”) are among the words which have passed from native languages or officers’ slang into Anglo-Indian, and thence into common English.

Among expressions which have remained local are: *to dumb-cow*, “to browbeat” (Hindustani *dam khānā*, “to eat one’s breath”, “to be silent”, probably crossed with the English “cow”); *to foozilow*, “to flatter”; *to puckerow*, “to lay hold of”; *bahadur*, “stuffed shirt”; *bobachu*, “kitchen”; *mort-de-chien*, “cholera” (despite its French appearance, this comes from Portuguese *mordexim*, borrowed from Marathi *modwashī*); outcry, “auction”; *summer-heat*, “hat” (borrowed from Portuguese *sombrero*); *goddess*, “girl”, (borrowed from Malay *gādīs*); *gym-khana*, “athletic meet”; *country* in the sense of “local”.

Anglo-Indianisms are exceedingly numerous by reason of the fact that they vary from locality to locality, as do the native languages.

**ENGLISH AS A COLONIAL, SECONDARY AND CULTURAL LANGUAGE**

The total populations of American Western Hemisphere possessions outside of U. S. soil (Alaska, Canal Zone, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands) amount to over 2,000,000. Approximately the same figure applies to British possessions in the Western Hemisphere outside of Canada and Newfoundland
(Bahamas, Bermudas, British Guiana, British Honduras, Jamaica, Leeward and Windward Islands, etc.).

In Asia, the total populations of British dominions, colonies and dependencies run to about 430,000,000 (Burma, Ceylon, Cyprus, Malaya and Straits Settlements, Hong Kong, British India, Nepal, Bhutan, Palestine, etc.).

British African possessions and Egypt account for some 70,000,000, while in Oceania, exclusive of the white populations of Australia and New Zealand, there is a total of about 3,000,000. In our own Pacific possessions (Guam, Hawaii, Philippines, Samoa, etc.) there is a total population of about 17,000,000.

This makes English by far the most widespread of the world's colonial languages, since it affects, by reason of their colonial or semi-colonial status, a total of some 520,000,000 people. How many of these people can actually be reached with English is a matter which varies widely according to locality. A large majority of the 4,000,000 people listed for the Western Hemisphere use English as a primary or secondary language. In Cyprus, Hong Kong and Palestine, the use of English is widespread. In British India, Ceylon, Malaya and Burma, only a small fraction of the native populations has English even as a secondary tongue; but the point has been made that this small fraction includes practically all the people who are instrumental in determining their countries' policies, or who have any degree of international cultural, economic or political standing. The situation in Africa and Oceania is somewhat similar. A larger proportion of the native population in Egypt and the Union of South Africa can be reached with English than is the case in such colonies as Nigeria and Kenya. In our own Pacific possessions the use of English is quite widespread; this is particularly true of Hawaii.

For the use of English as a secondary or cultural language outside of British and American territory, no precise figures are available; but it is probable that English is at least on a
par with French and German. Considerable segments of the more cultured classes in the countries of continental Europe, Latin America and Asia are accessible by means of it.

“PIDGIN” ENGLISH

The word “pidgin” is a Cantonese corruption of the English “business”, and the term seems to have originated in the South China trade ports, where a compromise language between the natives and the English-speaking traders was deemed necessary. Broadly speaking, Pidgin is English adapted to native habits of thought, syntax, and pronunciation; but these are far from the same everywhere, and so, correspondingly, is Pidgin. 8

Chinese-English Pidgin abounds in picturesque expressions, many of which reflect Chinese syntax as applied to English words; among them are: all-same, blongey (belong), catchee (to have), chin-chin (worship), numpa one first chop (super-

8. It may be noted that there are not only numerous varieties of Pidgin English, but also Pidgins of other tongues. The most important of these is Pidgin Malay, called by the Dutch pasar (or bazaar) Malay, a compromise form of various Malayo-Polynesian dialects, which extends throughout British Malaya, the Dutch East Indies, and is understood as far as the Philippines. A petit nègre (French pidgin) appears in the French West African colonies. Several forms of Portuguese Pidgin are in existence, in Senegambia, São Tomé, Cochim, Diu, Mangalore, etc. A Tagalog-Spanish pidgin appears in the Philippines. The Negro-English of Dutch Guiana, interspersed with Dutch and Portuguese words, also falls under the Pidgin classification, as does a variety of English Pidgin current along the entire West African coast from the Union of South Africa to the Equator. (A few typical expressions from this area are: Who dat man? for “Who goes there?”; to dash for “to tip somebody”; chop-chop for “meal”; and one-time for “hurry up”). Papiamento is a picturesque Spanish Pidgin used by the native population of Curacao, Dutch West Indies. The French Creole of Haiti and Mauritius, the Dutch Creole of Georgetown and the former Danish West Indies, the Portuguese Creole of the Cape Verde Islands, may all be said to some extent to fall under the Pidgin classification.
fine), chop-chop (quickly), bull-chilo (boy), cow-chilo (girl), dlinkee (drink), flower-flag-man (American), fo what? (why), have got wata top-side (crazy), larn-pidgin (apprentice); long-side (with); one piecee (one, referring to objects); one fella (one, referring to persons); what side? (where?); top-side piecee Heaven-pidgin man (bishop); ah say (Englishman: “I say”); ah kee (Portuguese; “aqui”, “here”).

The Pidgin par excellence is the English variety current in the Melanesian Islands (Solomons, Fiji, New Hebrides, etc.). This linguistic form, which has in some localities become fully standardized and has even been reduced to rules of grammar and syntax, has forms fully as picturesque as those of China. A few of these are: put clothes belong-a table (set the table); water he kai-kai him (the water ate him up; he drowned); man belong bullamacow him stop (the butcher is here); this fellow hat belong you? (is this your hat?); what for you kinkenau knife belong me? (why did you swipe my knife?). A physician sent by the Rockefeller Foundation to the Melanesian Islands to eradicate the hookworm, quotes his own Pidgin description of his employer and mission as he gave it verbatim to the natives: “Master belong me him make im altogether kerosene, him make im altogether benzine. Now he old feller. He got im plenty too much belong money. Money belong him allesame dirt. Now he old feller, close up him he die finish. He look about. Him he tink, ‘Me like make im one feller something, he good feller belong altogether boy he buy im kerosene blonga me.’ Now gulement he talk along master belonga me. Master belonga me him he talk, ‘You, you go killim altogether senake (snake) belong bell’ (belly) belong boy belong island.’ ”

From New Guinea come other interesting samples: cut 'im grass belong head belong me (cut my hair); capsize 'im coffee 'long cup (pour the coffee); new fellow moon he come up (it’s the first of the month); skin belong you 'im stink (you need a bath); make 'im die machine (stop the machine); two clock he go finish, three clock he no come up yet (it’s half
past two); shoot 'im kaikai (serve the dinner); me cross too much along you (I'm very angry with you). Among quaint and suggestive individual expressions, we find: time belong lim-limbu (holiday); kiranki (irritable); cus-cus (office worker); dim-dim (white man); lap-lap (calico waistcloth); make 'im paper (contract); clothes-sleep (pajamas); long long along drink (drunk); machine belong talk (typewriter); cow oil (butter); turn 'im neck belong 'im (change one's mind); handkerchief (or pants) belong letter (envelope); screw belong leg (knee); pull pull (flower).

The Australian blackfellows use a variety of Pidgin that largely coincides with the Melanesian and New Guinea brands, but sometimes contributes its own special expressions: sing 'im longa dark fella (mosquito); paper-yabber longa big fella hawk (air-mail); kill 'im stink fella (disinfectant); think fella too much (intellectual); eat 'im wind cart (automobile); big fella fire snake (train); big fella talk talk watch 'im that one (high-pressure salesman).

Beche la Mer, or "Sandalwood English", is the form taken by Pidgin in the southern islands of Polynesia (Samoa, Tahiti, etc.). The addition of -um to verbs is characteristic (eatum, callum, catchum). So are expressions such as: water belong stink (perfume); apple belong stink (onion); 'im fellow coconut 'im bad (he has a headache); belly belong me walk about too much (I have a stomach-ache).

One of the favorite processes of Pidgin is that of repetition to express intensity or thoroughness: you go go go (keep on going); bamboo belong look look (spyglass); washwash (to bathe, in contradistinction to wash); talk-talk (long palaver, as against mere talk). This is reminiscent of what goes on in many more cultured tongues (Italian gli ho parlato piano piano, "I spoke to him very softly"; un uomo alto alto, "a very tall man").

Other curious parallels appear: me-fellow, you-fellow, 'em-all ("we", "you" plural, "they"); cf. Southern you-all, French nous autres, Spanish vosotros, etc.; how much clock?
(“what time is it?”; cf. German *wie viel Uhr?*); the Pidgin use of *bel* (belly) to denote the seat of the emotions corresponds to the ancient Greek belief that the stomach was the place where emotions were born and bred; while the use of *bone* to indicate courage (*'im got plenty bone*), or the lack of it (*bone belong 'im allesame water*, “he’s scared to death”), has a curious correspondence in our own use of *backbone* and *spineless*, as well as in slang *tough guy*.

The Islands, moreover, have received contributions to their Pidgin from non-English sources. A Frenchman is variously described as *man-a-wiwi* (man of “oui, oui”), *montour* (“bonjour”), *montwar* (“bonsoir”); in Java, he is known as *orang deedong* (orang is Malay for “man”, and *deedong* is the French *dites donc*). Local variations of Pidgin include such different forms as *kai-kai*, *chow-chow*, *kau-kau*, *fu-fu*, used on different islands with the meaning of “to eat”.

Hawaii supplies us with what may be described as our own American variety of Pidgin. The Hawaiian language does not permit two consonants to follow each other unless a vowel intervenes, and many consonants, including *b*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *j*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, do not appear in the language. The result is that when a Hawaiian attempts to say “Merry Christmas!” his rendition is *Mele Kalikimaka*. The names of the months, all of which are borrowed from English, appear as follows: *Ianuali, Pepeluiali, Malaki, Apelila, Mei, Iune, Iulae, Aukake, Kemakemapa, Okakopa, Nowemapa, Kekemapa*. Among native words and expressions that have crept into the English of American residents are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Hawaiian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>how are you?</td>
<td><em>pehea oe?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clever, smart</td>
<td><em>akamai</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td><em>nani</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old-timer</td>
<td><em>kamaaina</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angry</td>
<td><em>hahu</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greenhorn</td>
<td><em>malihini</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trouble</td>
<td><em>pilikia</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td><em>wahini</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
man,  
come in and eat!,  
flower,  
lie,  
hot,  
thanks,  
hello!, good-bye!,  
yes,  
crazy,  
wreath,  
verandah,  
feast, spread,  
pig,  
food,  
stomach,  
boy,  
hat,  
quick,  

kane  
hele mai e ai!  
pua  
hoopunipuni  
wela  
mahalo nui  
aloha oe!  
no  
pupule  
lei  
lanai  
luau  
puaa  
kaukau  
opu  
keikikane  
papale  
wikiwiki

IMMIGRANT DIALECTS

These partake of the nature of Pidgin, since they represent a compromise between two languages. The infiltration of words generally runs, however, from English to the immigrant’s native tongue, which in the course of time becomes honeycombed with English words and expressions. A few infiltrations run the other way, but they are comparatively insignificant. With the restriction of immigration, the immigrant dialects of the United States are in the process of extinction, since they are for the most part a first-generation phenomenon. Similar unstable immigrant dialects appear in other countries to which large numbers of immigrants have gone in the past (South America, particularly Argentina; France, etc.).

9. Kibitzer, hamburger, frankfurter, spiel, hoosegow, pickaninny, spaghetti, broccoli are a few examples. The infiltrations lead even to the coining of new words, as when English talk or gab is combined with German Fest, or English tender with the suffix of Italian maccheroni, already anglicized to macaroni (tenderoni).
THE SCANDINAVIAN TONGUES
DANISH, NORWEIGIAN, SWEDISH, ICELANDIC

General Characteristics.

While the close relationship among these three languages is evident, considerable divergences appear between Icelandic, which is extremely archaic and conservative of ancient speech-forms, and the other three. To cite a few examples:

1. In the matter of gender, Swedish, Danish and Norwegian combine masculine, feminine and common nouns into a single "gender" form, which is opposed to "neuter" nouns; Icelandic preserves the three grammatical genders, masculine, feminine and neuter, and these fall into distinct declensional schemes, with appropriate endings.

2. In the matter of declension, Swedish, Danish and Norwegian have no true declensional scheme, save for the addition of -s for the possessive and of a plural ending (-or, -ar, -er, -n in Swedish; -r, -er, -e in Dano-Norwegian; with or without "umlaut") \(^{12}\); Icelandic has a full-fledged declensional

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10. Danish was at one time the official and literary language of Norway; but popular spoken Norwegian (Landsmål) diverged considerably. The present day literary Norwegian language is largely a compromise between the former official Danish and the popular spoken tongue.

11. The distinction is based mainly on natural gender; but the "gender" class may include animals and things, such as "fish" or "book", while the "neuter" class sometimes includes persons and animals, such as "child" and "sheep". Modern Norwegian has re-established a separate feminine form, which had always been in popular use.

12. By "umlaut" is meant a change in the vowel of the root, such as appears in Eng. mouse, mice, or in German Hand, Hände, or in Swed. son, söner (son, sons), or in Danish Fod, Födder (foot, feet), or in Icelandic hjarta, hjörðu (heart, hearts). The umlaut change is said to be caused by the influence of a following front vowel, belonging to an inflectional ending or some other suffix (this vowel often disappears after causing the change of the root-vowel, as has occurred in Eng. foot, feet); it is also described as a phenomenon of "anticipation", whereby the vocal organs begin to prepare themselves for the
system, with four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative) and separate endings; compare:
Swedish: dag, “day”; possessive dags; plural dagar; possessive pl. dagars; Danish: Dag; possessive Dags; plural Dage; possessive pl. Dages;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Icelandic</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>dagur</td>
<td>dagar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>dags</td>
<td>daga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>degi</td>
<td>dögum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>dag</td>
<td>daga</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, all the Scandinavian languages agree in having a suffixed definite article, which in Swedish, Danish and Norwegian is -en (or -n) for “gender” nouns, -et (or -t) for “neuter” nouns in the singular; in the plural, -ena (or -na) in Swedish, -ene (or -ne) in Danish and Norwegian (e.g., Swed. stol, “chair”; stoln, “the chair”; bord, “table”, borde, “the table”). Icelandic has a fully inflected definite article, which is added on to the fully inflected noun; e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>heimur-inn, “the world”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>heims-ins, “of the world”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>heimi-num, “to the world”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>heim-inn, “the world” (obj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>heimar-nir, “the worlds”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>heima-nna, “of the worlds”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>heimu-num, “to the worlds”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>heima-na, “the worlds” (obj.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another general characteristic of the Scandinavian languages is a passive voice formed by changing the -r of the active

sound of the vowel of the ending while they are still engaged in pronouncing the vowel of the root.
to -s (-st in Icelandic): Swed. jag kallar, "I call"; jag kallas, "I am called"; Danish jeg kalder, "I call"; jeg kaldes, "I am called"; Icel. elskar, "he loves"; elskast, "he is loved".

Accentuation generally on the initial syllable (save in borrowed words and in verbs compounded with a prefixed preposition; but in Icelandic even the latter are stressed on the first syllable), and "strong" and "weak" verbs (as in Eng. break, broke, broken vs. love, loved, loved), being common to all the Germanic tongues, are also characteristic of the Scandinavian group.

Other points of similarity and divergence will be noted in the discussion of the individual languages. Some idea of the resemblances and differences among these tongues, and of their relationship to other Germanic languages, may be noted from the following list:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Dutch</th>
<th>German</th>
<th>Dano-Nor.</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
<th>Icelandic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>friend</td>
<td>vriend</td>
<td>Freund</td>
<td>Ven (venn)</td>
<td>vän</td>
<td>vinur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>hond</td>
<td>Hund</td>
<td>Hund</td>
<td>hund</td>
<td>hundur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
<td>meisje</td>
<td>Mädchen</td>
<td>Pige (pike)</td>
<td>flicka</td>
<td>stúlka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>moeder</td>
<td>Mutter</td>
<td>Moder (mor)</td>
<td>moder (mor)</td>
<td>módir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>vader</td>
<td>Vater</td>
<td>Fader (far)</td>
<td>fader (far)</td>
<td>faðir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daughter</td>
<td>dochter</td>
<td>Tochter</td>
<td>Datter</td>
<td>dotter</td>
<td>döttir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>voet</td>
<td>Fuss</td>
<td>Fod (fot)</td>
<td>fot</td>
<td>fótur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>night</td>
<td>nacht</td>
<td>Nacht</td>
<td>Nat (natt)</td>
<td>natt</td>
<td>nótt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cold</td>
<td>koud</td>
<td>kalt</td>
<td>kold (kald)</td>
<td>kall</td>
<td>kaldur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>large</td>
<td>groot</td>
<td>gross</td>
<td>stor</td>
<td>stor</td>
<td>stór</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>goed</td>
<td>gut</td>
<td>god</td>
<td>god</td>
<td>góður</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td>breken</td>
<td>brechen</td>
<td>bryde (bryte)</td>
<td>bryta</td>
<td>brjóta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td>vinden</td>
<td>finden</td>
<td>finde (finne)</td>
<td>finna</td>
<td>finna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>loopen</td>
<td>laufen</td>
<td>löbe (löpe)</td>
<td>springa, löpa</td>
<td>hlaupa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fall</td>
<td>vallen</td>
<td>fallen</td>
<td>falde (falle)</td>
<td>falla</td>
<td>falla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>die</td>
<td>sterven</td>
<td>sterben</td>
<td>dö</td>
<td>dö</td>
<td>deyja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>een</td>
<td>ein</td>
<td>een (ên)</td>
<td>en</td>
<td>einn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>twee</td>
<td>zwei</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>två</td>
<td>tveir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>drie</td>
<td>drei</td>
<td>tre</td>
<td>tre</td>
<td>þrír</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>vier</td>
<td>vier</td>
<td>fire</td>
<td>fyra</td>
<td>fjórir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td>vijf</td>
<td>fünf</td>
<td>fem</td>
<td>fem</td>
<td>fimm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six</td>
<td>zes</td>
<td>sechs</td>
<td>sex (seks)</td>
<td>sex</td>
<td>sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>zeven</td>
<td>sieben</td>
<td>syv (sju)</td>
<td>sju</td>
<td>sjö</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eight</td>
<td>acht</td>
<td>acht</td>
<td>otte (åtte)</td>
<td>åtta</td>
<td>åtta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nine</td>
<td>negen</td>
<td>neun</td>
<td>ni</td>
<td>nio</td>
<td>niu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ten</td>
<td>tien</td>
<td>zehn</td>
<td>ti</td>
<td>tio</td>
<td>tíu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eleven</td>
<td>elf</td>
<td>elf</td>
<td>elleve</td>
<td>elva</td>
<td>ellefu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>twaalf</td>
<td>zwölf</td>
<td>tolv</td>
<td>tolv</td>
<td>tölf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thirteen</td>
<td>dertien</td>
<td>dreizehn</td>
<td>tretten</td>
<td>tretton</td>
<td>þrettán</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>twintig</td>
<td>zwanzig</td>
<td>tyve (tjue)</td>
<td>tjugo</td>
<td>tuttugu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hundred</td>
<td>honderd</td>
<td>hundert</td>
<td>hundredre</td>
<td>hundra</td>
<td>hundrað</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(thousand | duizend | tausend   | tusind | tusen | þúsund |

(hundred) |

13. The Norwegian form appears in parentheses only where it diverges from the Danish.
SWEDISH

ALPHABETIC NOTATION — as in English, but with the following added symbols: å (== hope or oho); ä (== care or bet); ö (== French eu or German ö, long or short).

Notes on Sounds.
All Swedish vowels, including å, ä, ö, may be long (especially in stressed, open syllables) or short; o often == stool or wood; u often == French nuit.
Swedish y == French u, long or short.
g before e, i, y, ä, ö, and gj in all positions == Eng. y (göra, “do”, pronounced “yöra”; gjort, “done”, pron. “yurt”).
h is silent before j (hjul, “wheel”, pron. “yul”).
j == Eng. y.
k before e, i, y, ä, ö, and kj in all positions == t + German ich
r is trilled.
sk before e, i, y, ä, ö, and sj, skj, stj in all positions == Eng. sh
w appears only in proper names, where it is pronounced as v.
z == Eng. so.

ACCENTUATION — The stress is normally on the first syllable of the word, but in words of more than one syllable there is also a musical “pitch”, with complicated rules; e. g., flicka, cka.
“girl”, is pronounced fli /\i/

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

Articles.
Definite (Eng. “the”) - add -en (or -n) for singular gender
nouns; -et (or -t) for singular neuter nouns; -na (-a, -ena, -en) for plural nouns:

stolen (stol-en), “the chair”; gossen (gosse-n), “the boy”; flickan (flicka-n), “the girl”;
barnet (barn-et), “the child”; arbetet (arbete-t), “the work”; stolarna (stolar-na), “the chairs”; flickorna (flickor-na), “the girls”.

If an adjective precedes the noun, use the “prepositive” form of the definite article (den, det, pl. de) before the adjective, as well as the suffixed article after the noun: den dåliga gossen, “the bad boy”; det snälla barnet, “the good child”.

Nouns.

The plural is formed generally by the addition of -or, -ar, -er, or -r.14 To this ending, -na is generally added to supply the article: flicka, “girl”; flickan, “the girl”; flickor, “girls”; flickorna, “the girls”; gosse, “boy”; gossen, “the boy”; gossar, “boys”; gossarna, “the boys”.

The possessive case is formed by adding -s (no apostrophe) to the nouns, singular or plural: gossens syster, “the boy’s sister”; flickornas moder, “the girls’ mother”.

Adjectives.

The adjective normally precedes the noun it modifies. When the definite article is not used, or when the adjective is a predicate adjective (i. e., follows the verb “to be”), it takes the following endings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Gender”</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Neuter”</td>
<td>-t</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

en varm dag, “a warm day”; ett stort (stor-t) bord, “a big table”; varma dagar, “warm days”; stora bord, “big tables”; dagen är varm, “the day is warm”; dagarna äro varma, “the days are warm”.

14. Neuter nouns ending in consonants and some gender nouns take no ending in the plural; bord, “table”; bord, “tables”; the suffixed article for these nouns is -en in the plural: bordet, “the table”; borden, “the tables”. A very limited number of nouns take -n.
When the noun has the definite article, the prepositive form of the article is also used before the adjective, and the adjective has an invariable form ending in -a: *den varma dagen*, “the warm day”; *de varma dagarna*, “the warm days”.

The neuter form of the adjective, ending in -t, usually serves also as an adverb: *dålig*, “bad”; *dåligt*, “badly”.

The comparative and superlative are generally formed by adding -are and -ast, respectively: *rik*, “rich”; *rikare*, “richer”; *rikast*, “richest”; *mera*, “more”, and *mest*, “most”, are also used: *älskad*, “beloved”; *mera älskad*, “more beloved”; *mest älskad*, “most beloved”.

**Pronouns.**

**Personal:**

jag, “I”
du, “you” (sub.)
han, “he”
hon, “she”
den, det, “it”

vi, “we”
ni, “you” (sub. pl.)
de, “they”

mig, “me”
dig, “you” (obj.)
honom, “him”
henne, “her”

oss, “us”
er, “you” (obj. pl.)
dem, “them”

**Possessive:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Neuter Sg.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>min</td>
<td>mitt</td>
<td>mina</td>
<td>“my”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>din</td>
<td>ditt</td>
<td>dina</td>
<td>“your” (familiar sg.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hans</td>
<td>hans</td>
<td>hans</td>
<td>“his”, “of him”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hennes</td>
<td>hennes</td>
<td>hennes</td>
<td>“her”, “hers”, “of her”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. The plural forms *Ni*, *Er* replace the singular *du*, *dig* in polite conversation. They may or may not be capitalized.

16. Use *den* for singular “gender” nouns referring to inanimate objects, *det* for singular neuter nouns; as in Eng., there is no distinction between subject and object “it”.
LANGUAGES OF THE GERMANIC GROUP

**Demonstrative:**
denna (or den här), “this” (with gender nouns); detta (or det här), with neuter nouns.
dessa (or de här), “these”.
den (or den där), “that” (with gender nouns); det (or det där), with neuters.
de (or de där), “those”.

**Relative and Interrogative.**
som, “who”, “which”, “that”
vars, “whose”, “of which”
vad, “what”, “that”
vem?, “who?”, “whom?”
vems?, vilkas?, “whose?”, “of whom?”
vad?, “what?”
vilken?, (neuter vilket?, plural vilka?), “which?”

**Verbs.**
“to be”-Present: jag, du (Ni), han är, “I, you, he” “am, are, is”.
vi, ni, de äro, “we, you, they are”.
Past: jag, du (Ni), han var, “I, you, he” “was, were”.
vi, ni, de voro, “we, you, they were”.
“to have” -Present: jag, du (Ni), han har, “I, you, he had”.
vi, ni, de ha, “we, you, they had”.
Past: jag, du, han, vi, ni, de hade, “I, you, he, we, you, they had”.

17. These forms appear only when the possessor is the subject of the clause, but cannot be used to modify the subject: hennes far har gått ut, “her father has gone out”; hon har sett sin far, “she has seen her (own) father”; hon träffade hennes far, “she met her (someone else’s) father”.
The negative is expressed by using inte (or icke) after the simple verb (jag har inte, “I have not”; jag talar icke, “I do not speak”); or after “to have” in a compound tense (jag har icke talat, “I have not spoken”).

For the interrogative form, invert subject and verb: har jag?, “have I?”, “do I have?”, “am I having?”.

The infinitive usually ends in -a; “to” is expressed by att: att tala, “to speak”; att resa, “to travel”.

The present indicative singular usually ends in -ar or -er; the plural in -a: jag, du, han talar, reser, “I, you, he speak(s), travel(s)”; vi, ni, de talade, hörde, reste, “we, you, they speak, travel”. The use of the singular form of the verb with plural subject pronouns is frequent in the spoken tongue.

The past indicative usually ends in -ade, -de, or -te:18 jag, du, han, vi, ni, de talade, hörde, reste, “I, you, he, we, you, they spoke, heard, travelled”.

The supine (roughly corresponding to Eng. past participle) usually ends in -at, -t, -tt:19 talat, rest, sett, “spoken”, “travelled”, “seen”.

Compound tenses are formed, as in Eng., by combining “to have” with the supine: jag har talat, “I have spoken”; jag hade talat, “I had spoken”.

The future is formed by using komma att or skola followed by the infinitive: jag kommer att tala, or jag skall tala, “I shall speak”; vi komma att resa, or vi skola resa, “we shall travel”.

18. As in all Germanic languages, many verbs have a “strong” past; this means that instead of adding an ending, they change the vowel of the root; note Eng. take, took; write, wrote; hold, held; and compare the Swedish equivalents: taga, tog; skriva, skrev; hälla, höll.

19. The supine of “strong” verbs usually ends in -it: tagit, skrivit, hällit, “taken”, “written”, “held”; such verbs, however, also have a past participle ending in -en (neuter -et; plural -na): tagen, skriven, häljen; the supine, which is invariable, is mainly used to form compound tenses with att ha, “to have”; the past participle, which is declined and agrees with the subject, is mainly used with att bliva, “to become”, to form the passive.
The imperative ends in -a, or has no ending: tala!, "speak!"; hör! "listen!"; låt oss tala, "let us speak".

To form the passive, add -s to active forms, dropping the -r of the present: jag kallar, "I call"; jag kallas, "I am called"; jag kallade, "I called"; jag kallades, "I was called"; jag kommer att kalla, "I shall call"; jag kommer att kallas, "I shall be called".

The passive may also be formed by using att bliva, "to become", with the past participle, which agrees with the subject: gossen blir funnen, "the boy is found"; barnet blev funnet, "the child was found".

Man with the active is often used in a passive sense: man talar svenska (or svenska talas), "Swedish is spoken".

"By" with the passive is expressed by av: saken ordnas nu av honom, "the matter is now being arranged by him".
DANISH AND NORWEGIAN

ALPHABETIC NOTATION — as in Swedish, but with the following divergences: \( \text{aa} \) corresponds to Swedish \( \ddot{a} \); \( \text{æ} \) corresponds to Swed. \( \ddot{a} \); both \( \ddot{ö} \) and \( \\phi \) correspond to Swed. \( \ddot{o} \).

SOUNDS

For the vowels, cf. Swedish (p. 92). There are, however, numerous minor variations.

Among consonant groups, \( g\text{j} \) is generally pronounced as a hard \( g \) by the Danes, but as \( y \) (as it is in Swedish), by the Norwegians.

In the groups \( e\text{g} \), \( e\text{gl} \), \( e\text{gn} \), the \( e\text{g} \) is usually pronounced \( ai \).

\[ \text{skj} = \text{sk}, \text{not} \text{sh}, \text{in Danish (but} = \text{sh in Norwegian).} \]

Danish often drops the \( j \) even in writing (Danish \( sk\ddot{aelde} \), “to scold”, Nor. \( sk\j\ddot{elle} \), pron. \( sh\ddot{elle} \)).

\( kj \) usually \( = k \), in Danish (but like German \( ich \) in Norwegian).

\( sj = sh \), as in Swedish.

The musical pitch of Swedish appears also in Dano-Norwegian, to a greater extent in Norwegian than in Danish, where it has practically disappeared, save dialectally.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

Nouns and Articles.

The gender system and the articles are generally as in Swedish. Indefinite article - \( \text{en} \) for “gender” nouns; \( \text{et} \) for “neuter” nouns: \( \text{en Pige,}^{21} \) “a girl”; \( \text{et Bord,} \) “a table”.

20. Modern Norwegian regularly uses \( \ddot{a} \), \( \ddot{e} \), \( \ddot{o} \), though \( aa \) and \( \ddot{o} \) may be found in earlier writings. Danish capitalizes common nouns, and is more prone than Norwegian to use Gothic instead of Roman script.

21. Forms given as examples are in Danish orthography. Norwegian does not capitalize nouns; \( \text{en Pige} \) would appear in Nor. as \( \text{en pike} \), \( \text{Flaade} \) as \( \text{fl\dot{a}t} \), \( \text{Tand} \) as \( \text{tann} \), \( \text{Stole} \) as \( \text{stoler} \), etc.
Definite article (suffixed) -en (-n) for “gender”; -et (-t) for “neuter” nouns; -ne (-ene) for plural nouns: Stolen, “the chair”; Stolene, “the chairs”; Brevet, “the letter”; Brevene, “the letters”.

The plural is formed by the addition of -r, -er, -e (with or without umlaut), or by leaving the singular form unchanged: Flaade, “flee”; Flaader, “flees”; Flaaden, “the fleet”; Flaaderne, “the fleets”; Stol, “chair”; Stole, “chairs”; Stolen, “the chair”; Stoler, “the chairs”; Tand, “tooth”; Tænder, “teeth”; Tanden, “the tooth”; Tænderne, “the teeth”; Ord, “word”; Ord, “words”; Ordet, “the word”; Ordene, “the words”.

The possessive is formed, as in Swedish, by adding -s: Hus, “house”; Huset, “the house”; Husets, “the house’s”; Husene, “the houses”; Husenes, “of the houses” (Norwegian often dispenses with the possessive, replacing it by a preposition: taket på huset, “the roof of the house”, rather than husets tak, “the house’s roof”).

Adjectives.

Generally as in Swedish. When the article is not used, or when the adjective is a predicate adjective, the endings are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuter</td>
<td>-t</td>
<td>-e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

en lang Dag, “a long day”; et langt Bord, “a long table”; lange Dage, “long days”; lange Borde, “long tables”.

When the modified noun is to be used with the definite article, the prepositive form of the article (den, det, de) is used before the adjective, which is then invariable and ends in -e. In these cases, Danish prefers to omit the suffixed article, while Norwegian prefers the Swedish custom of using a double article: Danish den store Mand; Norwegian den store mannen, “the big man”.

Comparative and superlative are usually formed by the addition of -ere (-re) and -est (-st): sød, “sweet”; sødere,

Pronouns.

Personal.

jeg, “I”


du, “you” (sub.)

han, “he”

hun, “she”

den, det, “it”

mig, (N. meg) “me”

dig, (N. deg), “you” (obj.)

ham, “him”

hende, (N. henne) “her”

vi, “we”

I, “you” (sub. pl.; N. dere)

dem, “them”

os, (N. oss), “us”

jer, “you” (obj. p.; N. dere)

Possessive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Sg.</th>
<th>Neuter Sg.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>min</td>
<td>mit</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>“my”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N. mitt)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>din</td>
<td>dit</td>
<td>dine</td>
<td>“your”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N. ditt)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(fam. sg.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hans</td>
<td>hans</td>
<td>hans</td>
<td>“his”, “of him”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hendes</td>
<td>hendes</td>
<td>hendes</td>
<td>“her”, “hers”, “of her”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N. hennes)</td>
<td>(N. hennes)</td>
<td>(N. hennes)</td>
<td>“its” (use dens for “gender”, dets for “neuter” possessor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dens, dets</td>
<td>dens, dets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vor</td>
<td>vort</td>
<td>vore</td>
<td>“our”, “ours”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N. vår)</td>
<td>(N. vårt)</td>
<td>(N. våre)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jer</td>
<td>jeres</td>
<td>jeres</td>
<td>“your”, “yours”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N. deres)</td>
<td>(N. deres)</td>
<td>(N. deres)</td>
<td>(fam. pl.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. In polite conversation, De, Dem (lit. “they”, “them”), spelled with a capital and used with a singular verb, replace du, dig, I, jer: taler De det danske Sprog?, “do you speak the Danish language?”.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>deres</th>
<th>deres</th>
<th>deres</th>
<th>&quot;their&quot;, &quot;theirs&quot;, &quot;of them&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sin</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>sine</td>
<td>&quot;his&quot;, &quot;her&quot;, &quot;its&quot;, &quot;their&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(with varying usage)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demonstrative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>denne</th>
<th>dette</th>
<th>disse</th>
<th>&quot;this&quot;, &quot;these&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>den</td>
<td>det</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>&quot;that&quot;, &quot;those&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relative and Interrogative. 23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>som,</th>
<th>&quot;who&quot;, &quot;which&quot;, &quot;that&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hvis,</td>
<td>&quot;whose&quot;, &quot;of which&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvad,</td>
<td>&quot;what&quot;, &quot;that&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvem?,</td>
<td>&quot;who?, &quot;whom?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvis?,</td>
<td>&quot;whose?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvad?,</td>
<td>&quot;what?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvilken?, (hvilket, hvilke)</td>
<td>&quot;which?&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs.

"to be" — Present (all numbers and persons): er; Past (all numbers and persons): var.

"to have" — Present: har; Past: havde (all persons and numbers; Nor. uses hadde instead of havde).

Negative — ikke after verb: jeg har ikke, "I have not". The infinitive usually ends in -e: at elske, "to love".

The present indicative usually ends in -er (-r); jeg, du, han elsker, "I, you, he love(s)"; vi, I, de elsker, "we, you they love".

The past usually ends in -ede (N. -et): 24 jeg, du, etc. elskede, "I, you, etc. loved".

23. In all forms beginning with hv-, the h- is silent. Norwegian prefers hva to hvad, and hva for en to hvilken.

24. "Strong" verbs usually change the root vowel and take no ending: synge, sang, "sing, sang"; drikke, drak, "drink, drank"; give, gav (N. gi, ga) "give, gave".
The supine ends in -et: elsket, “loved”.

Compound tenses are formed by using “to have” with the supine: jeg har elsket, “I have loved”; jeg havde elsket, “I had loved”.

The future is formed by using skal (plural skal or skulle) or vil (plural vil or ville) with the infinitive: jeg skal elske, or jeg vil elske, “I shall love”.

The imperative usually has no ending in the singular: tal!, “speak!”

The passive adds -s or -es to active forms, dropping -r of the present: jeg kaldes, “I am called”; jeg kaldedes, “I was called”; der skrives meget i vor Tid, “much is written in our time”.

Or it may be formed by using bliver (N. blir; past blev), or være ("to be"), with the past participle: jeg bliver elsket, jeg er elsket, “I am loved”. “By” is expressed by af: Brevet blev sendt af Soldaten, “the letter was sent by the soldier”.

IDENTIFICATION OF SWEDISH, DANISH AND NORWEGIAN

Swedish is more apt to use å, ä, ö; Danish aa, æ, ø; a mixture of the two series of symbols (å, æ, ø) usually indicates a Norwegian written document.

Swedish often uses -a endings where Danish and Norwegian use -e; this is particularly the case with the plural of nouns and adjectives, and in many verb-forms; Swedish and Norwegian often use final double consonants which in Danish regularly appear as single consonants.

Musical patterns distinguishing otherwise identical words are found in Swedish and, to a lesser degree, in Norwegian, but not in Danish, which uses a glottal stop instead.

Note the different written form of these extremely common words, with Swedish and Norwegian using a final double consonant where Danish uses a single:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
<th>Danish</th>
<th>Norwegian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>och</td>
<td>og</td>
<td>(where it diverges from Danish)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a (neuter)</td>
<td>ett</td>
<td>et</td>
<td>ett</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
<td>icke</td>
<td>ikke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>jag</td>
<td>jeg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>av</td>
<td>af</td>
<td>av</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>up</td>
<td>upp</td>
<td>op</td>
<td>opp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>till</td>
<td>til</td>
<td>å</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>att</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>å</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**COMMON PHRASES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
<th>Norwegian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good morning</td>
<td>god morgon</td>
<td>god morgen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good evening</td>
<td>god kväll, god aften</td>
<td>god aften</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good night</td>
<td>god natt</td>
<td>god natt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good-bye</td>
<td>adjö</td>
<td>adjø (D. far vel)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how are you?</td>
<td>hur står det till?</td>
<td>hvordan står det til?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>well, thank you</td>
<td>tack, bra</td>
<td>godt, takk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>please</td>
<td>var så god och</td>
<td>vær så snill å</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you're welcome</td>
<td>ingen orsak</td>
<td>ingen årsak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(D. jeg beder)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perhaps</td>
<td>kanske</td>
<td>kanskje (D. maaske)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here is</td>
<td>här är</td>
<td>her er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there is</td>
<td>där är</td>
<td>der er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where is?</td>
<td>var är?</td>
<td>hvor er?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how do I go to...?</td>
<td>hur kommer man till?</td>
<td>hvordan kommer jeg til?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>ja</td>
<td>ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>nej</td>
<td>nei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>mycket</td>
<td>meget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how much is it?</td>
<td>hur mycket kostar det?</td>
<td>hvor meget koster det?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>why?</td>
<td>varför?</td>
<td>hvorfor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when?</td>
<td>när?</td>
<td>når?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
<td>nu</td>
<td>nu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>always</td>
<td>alltid</td>
<td>alltid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where?</td>
<td>var?</td>
<td>hvor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>därför att</td>
<td>fordi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>today</td>
<td>i dag</td>
<td>idag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yesterday</td>
<td>i går</td>
<td>igår</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tomorrow</td>
<td>i morgon</td>
<td>imorgen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tonight

to the right

to the left

what time is it?
it is 7 o'clock

I'm hungry

I'm thirsty

I'm cold

I'm warm

I'm ill

do you speak Swedish?

what is your name?
certainly
give me

show me
tell me

do you understand?

I don't understand
do you know?

I don't know

very little

excuse me!

don't mention it

what do you want?

never mind

I'm sorry!

too bad!

what is the matter?
it's fine weather

at home

come in!

stop!

listen!

look out!

your health!

i natt, i kväll

till höger

till vänster

vad är klockan?
den (or klockan) är sju

jag är hungrig

jag är törstig

jag fryser

jag är varm

jag är sjuk

talar Ni svenska?

vad heter Ni?

ja visst

giv mig

visa mig

tala om för mig

förstår Ni?

jag förstår inte

vet Ni?

jag vet inte

mycket litet

förlåt!, ursäkta!

ingen orsak

vad önskas?

det gör ingenting

så tråkigt!

det var synd!

hur är det fritt?

det är vackert vädret

hemma

stig in!, kom in!

stanna!

hör på!

se upp!

skål!

i aften, i kvell

tilhøyre

tilvenstre

hva er klokken?

eklokken er sju

jeg er sulten

jeg er tørst

jeg fryser

jeg er varm

jeg er syk

snakker De svensk?

hva heter De?

sikkert, javisst

gi meg

vis meg

fortell meg

forstår De?

jeg forstår ikke

vet De?

jeg vet ikke

meget lite

unnskyld!

ingen årsak

hva ønsker De?

det gjør ikke noe

beklager!

det var synd!

hva er i veien?

det er godt vær

hjemme

komm inn!

stopp!

hør!

vær forsiktig!

(D. pas paa!)

skål!
ICELANDIC

ALPHABETIC NOTATION — as in English, but c, q, w do not appear in native words. Additional symbols: á, é, í, ó, ú, y, æ, ö, ð, þ.

SOUNDS.

Vowels bearing the accent mark are often long, or pronounced as diphthongs (e. g., á = Eng. cow). Vowels not bearing the accent mark may be long or short.

Long é = yes (it is often spelled je: mér or mjer).

Short ù = (approximately) French feu; long ú = Eng. moon.

Y, ñ = Eng. pin, machine, not French u, as in Swedish.

æ = five; ö as in German.

ð = Eng. bathe; þ = Eng. thin.

g after a vowel and before i or j = Eng. y (kragi, “collar”, pronounced “krayi”).

g at the beginning of a word and followed by e or i = gy (gefa, “to give”, pronounced “gyefa”).

j = Eng. y.

r is trilled.

z = Eng. son.

A noteworthy feature of Icelandic pronunciation is the “interrupted” vowel; before kk, pp, tt, kl, kn, vowels are followed by an h-sound (rjetta, “to hand”, pronounced “ryeh-ta”; uppi, “up”, pron. “uh-pi”).

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

Articles and Nouns.

No indefinite article is used: bátur, “boat”, “a boat”.

The definite article is fully declined, whether it precedes or is suffixed to the noun. The latter is also fully declined. The four cases are: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative. Masculine, feminine and neuter gender appears. For the declension of a noun with suffixed article, cf. p. 89. The full declension of the prefixed article used if an adjective precedes the noun, is as follows:
Singular  
Nom.  hinn  hin  hid  hinir  hinar  hin  
Gen.  hins  hinnar  hins  hinna  hinna  hinna  
Dat.  hinum  hinni  hinu  hinum  hinum  hinum  
Acc.  hinn  hina  hid  hina  hinar  hin  

If the article is suffixed, its initial h- invariably drops out; also the i if the noun ends in a vowel, or after the -r of a nominative or accusative plural. The article is prefixed when an adjective stands before the noun, suffixed otherwise: fadir, “father”; fadirinn, “the father”; hinn riki fadir, “the rich father”.

Nouns of the three genders fall into various declensional schemes, of which the following are typical (the endings are given in the following order: Singular: nom., gen., dat., acc.; Plural: nom., gen., dat., acc.):

Generally for nouns ending in vowels:
Masculine: timi, “time” - tim-i, -a, -a, -a; tim-ar, -a, -um, -a;
Feminine: tunga, “tongue” - tung-a, -u, -u, -u; tung-ur, -na, -um, -ur;
Neuter:auga, “eye” - aug-a, -a, -a, -a; aug-u, -na, -um, -u.

Generally for nouns ending in consonants:
Masculine: heimur, “world” - heim-ur, -s, -i, -; heim-ar, -a, -um, -a (but many such nouns have -ar in the genitive singular, -ir or -ur in the nominative plural);
Feminine: tid, “time” - tid, -ar, -; tid-ir, -a, -um, -ir (many have -ar or -ur in the nominative plural);
Neuter: skip, “ship” - skip, -s, -i, -; skip, -a, -um, -.

There are numerous deviations from these schemes.

Adjectives.

These normally precede and agree with the noun they modify. They have a “strong” and a “weak” declension, according as they are used without or with the article. The “strong” declension employs different series of endings somewhat akin to those of the nouns, while the weak, which is more commonly used, generally follows this scheme:
The comparative is formed by the addition of -ri or -ari (-ra or -ara in the neuter singular); the superlative by the addition of -stur or -astur, feminine -st or -ust, neuter -st or -ast; rikur, “rich”; rikari (neuter singular rikara), “richer”; rikastur (fem. rikust, neut. rikast; fully declined, with a “strong” and a “weak” scheme), “richest”.

The adverb usually ends in -a: víður, “wide”, víða, “widely”.

Pronouns.

Personal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Dual 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. jeg</td>
<td>vid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. min</td>
<td>okkar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mjær</td>
<td>okkur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mig</td>
<td>okkur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. hann</td>
<td>hún</td>
<td>þad</td>
<td>þeir</td>
<td>þaer</td>
<td>þau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. hans</td>
<td>hennar</td>
<td>þess</td>
<td>þeirra</td>
<td>þeirra</td>
<td>þeirra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. honum</td>
<td>henni</td>
<td>þvi</td>
<td>þeim</td>
<td>þeim</td>
<td>þeim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. hann</td>
<td>hana</td>
<td>þad</td>
<td>þá</td>
<td>þaer</td>
<td>þau</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25. The “dual” number refers to two: “we two”, “you two”.
Possessive.

\( \text{minn},^{26} \text{“my”, “mine”} \quad \text{okkar, “our”, “ours”} \\
\text{pinn},^{26} \text{“your”, “yours”} \quad \text{ykkar, ydar, “your”, “yours”} \\
\text{hans, “his”} \quad \text{heirra, “their”, “theirs”} \\
\text{hennar, “her”, “hers”} \quad \text{heirra, “their”, “theirs”} \\
\text{bess, “its”} \\
\text{sinn},^{26} \text{“his”, “her”, “their” (own)} \)

Demonstrative.

\( \text{bessi, bessi, betta, “this”; plural: bessir, bessar, bessi, “these”; sá, sú, þad, “that”; plural: þeir, þuer, þau, “those”} \).

These demonstratives are fully declined; only the nominative forms are given here, in the masculine, feminine and neuter.

Relative.

\( \text{sem (indeclinable), “who”, “which”, “that”} \)

Interrogative.

\( \text{hver?, or hvor?, “who?”, “whom?”} \)
\( \text{hvad? (indeclinable), “what?”} \)
\( \text{hvada? (indeclinable), “which?”} \)

Verbs.

\( \text{“to be”: Present - er, ert, er, erum, eruð, eru.} \)
\( \text{Past - var, varst, var, vorum, voruð, voru.} \)

\( \text{“to have”: Present - hefi, hefir, hefir, höfum, hafði, hafa.} \)
\( \text{Past - hafði, hafðir, hafði, höfðum, höfðuð, höfðu.} \)

The infinitive usually ends in -a or -ja: elska, “to love”:

\( \text{Present: elska-a, -ar, -ar, -um, -ía, -a.} \)
\( \text{Past: elska-adí, -adir, -adí, “unpn-} \).

26. Fully declined; only the nominative masculine singular form is given here. The other possessives are invariable.

27. Strong verbs change the root vowel and add no ending: finn, fann, “find, found”; gef, gaf, “give, gave”. Note that there are many other patterns besides the conjugational scheme outlined above.
Compound tenses are formed by combining hafr, "to have", with the supine, which frequently ends in -ad: hefi kallad, "I have called"; hafrf elskad, "I had loved".

The future is formed by combining munu or skulu with the infinitive: mun kalla or skal kalla, "I shall call".

The imperative singular adds -a or has no ending; the imperative plural adds -id.

The passive is formed by adding -st, dropping the -r of active forms; kallast, "I am called". It may also be formed by using vera, "to be", or verða, "to become", with the past participle.

IDENTIFICATION

Written Icelandic is easily identified by its symbols ð, þ, which do not appear in any other modern language; also by the typical -ur ending of many masculine nouns and adjectives.

SAMPLES OF THE
WRITTEN SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES — John 3.16

Swedish: Ty så älskade Gud världen, att han utgav sin enfödde Son, på det att var och en som tror på honom skall icke förgås, utan hava evigt liv.

Danish: Thi saaledes elskede Gud Verden, at han gav sin Søn den enbaarn, for at hver den, som tror paa ham, ikke skal fortabes, men have et evigt Liv.

Norwegian: For så har Gud elsket verden at han gav sin Sønn, den enbærne, forat hver den som tror på ham, ikke skal fortapes, men ha evig liv.

Icelandic: því að svo elskadí Guð heiminn, að hann gaf son sinn eingetimm, til þess að hver, sem á hann trúir, glatist ekki, heldur hafr eilíf lif.

("For God so loved the world that he gave his only-begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in him may not perish, but may have everlasting life.")
DUTCH

ALPHABETIC NOTATION — as in English; q, x, y appear only in foreign words. Vowel quality (not length) is indicated by doubled vowels (maan, “moon”, vs. man, “man”).

SOUNDS

All vowels are short, save occasionally before r.

aa and a²⁸ = father (raad, “advice”);
ee and e²⁸ = fate (heet, “hot”);
oo and o²⁸ = over (over);
ie and i²⁸ = machine (ziek, “ill”);
uu and u²⁸ = French tu (uren, “hours”);
a²⁹ = cot (kat, “cat”).
e²⁹ = neck (nekk)²⁰.
o²⁹ = coffee (koffie).
i²⁹ = pit (pit).
u²⁹ = buck (stuk, “piece”).
oe = book (boek).
eu = French eu or German ö (deur, “door”).
au, ou, auw, ouw = how (paus, “pope”; oud, “old”; gauw, “quick”; vrouw, “woman”.
ei, ij = pain (hij zei, “he said”).
ui = Fr. deuil.

28. The double vowel always has the value described above. For the single vowel, the value described normally occurs when the vowel is followed by a consonant which is followed by another vowel (ra-men, gelo-ven). There is no difference of sound between the aa of raam and the a of ramen, or between the oo of kool and the o of kolen. See also spelling rules on p. 111.

29. The second value described for the single vowel normally occurs when the following consonant is final in the word (gek), or when the vowel is followed by a double consonant (gek-ken) or by two different consonants (straf-te).

30. e = bacon, in prefixes (be-, ge-, ver-); in suffixes and inflectional endings (-en, -de, -ten, etc.); and in articles (de, het, een).
ieuw = leeway (nieuw, "new").
eeuw = wayward (leeuw, "lion").
g and ch = German ach, but more quickly and energetically pronounced (gebracht, "brought").
sch = s + Dutch ch; (schip, "ship"); but in final position, = Eng. hiss (flesch, "bottle").
j = yes (jullie, "you").
sj = sure (alsjeblieft, "please").

A double vowel before a final consonant is usually spelt single when an ending beginning with a vowel is added (raam, "window", plural ramen); this does not reflect any change of sound.

A single final consonant following a single vowel as described in n. 29 is spelt double when an ending beginning with a vowel is added (gek, "crazy", plural gekken); this does not reflect any change of sound.

Final f and s usually change to v and z, respectively, when an ending beginning with a vowel is added, and this change in spelling does reflect a change in sound (huis, "house", plur. huizen; duif, "dove", plur. duiven). Final -b and -d are sounded as -p and -t, respectively.

The stress is usually on the first syllable (save for words with the prefixes be-, ge-, er-, her-, on-, ont-, ver-, which are never stressed).

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

Articles and Nouns.

There are three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter; but many inanimate objects are masculine or feminine. The spoken language makes no distinction between masculine and feminine, the definite article de being used for both and remaining uninflected in speech. The written language displays
traces of a case-system similar to that of German, with so-called "nominative", "genitive", "dative" and "accusative"; the spoken tongue, however, has reduced these forms to a state very similar to that of English.

The definite article is *de* for masculine and feminine singular nouns and for all plural nouns, *het* (ʼt) for neuter singulars.

The indefinite article is *een* (pronounced the new) for all nouns.

Proper names and some other nouns denoting persons have a genitive (or possessive) form ending in -s or -es; this is often replaced by the uninflected noun preceded by *van* (the father’s daughter, the daughter of the father: *de vaders dochter* or *de dochter van de vader* (colloquially, a form like *de man z’n dochter*, the man his daughter, is sometimes heard).

While the written language has traces of an old dative, the spoken tongue indicates the indirect object exactly as English does, either by placing it before the direct object (I have written Uncle John a letter, *ik heb Oom Jan een brief geschreven*; note the position of the participle); or by using the preposition *aan* (I have written a letter to Uncle John, *ik heb een brief aan Oom Jan geschreven*).

The plural is formed in most cases by the addition of -en, less frequently by that of -s (-s appears in the plural of nouns ending in -je*31, -el, -em, -en, -aar, -ier, -er, -erd, -aard*).

**Adjectives.**

The only inflectional ending of the adjective is -e: good, *goed*; the good man, *de goede man*.

An adjective used with a neuter singular noun does not take the -e unless the definite article or a demonstrative precede: *een groot huis*, "a large house"; *het groote huis*, "the large house".

If the adjective is used as a predicate it takes no ending:

---

31. -je is a diminutive suffix, conferring neuter gender upon all words to which it is added. Note also that in the word-list (pp. 119-121) neuter nouns are indicated thus: (n.).
het huis is groot, "the house is large"; de huizen zijn groot, "the houses are large".

Comparative and superlative are formed by adding -r (or -er) and -st, respectively: warm, warmer, warmst, "warm, warmer, warmest"; meer ("more") and meest ("most") may also be used.

The adjective without an ending is often used as an adverb: zij is mooi, "she is beautiful"; zij zingt mooi, "she sings beautifully". Note - zool - als, "as - as"; niet zool - als, "not so - as"; dan, "than". See page 91 for Numerals (note: 14 — veertien; 40 — veertig; 80 — tachtig), and note the following: drie paar handschoenen, "three pairs of gloves"; vijf en dertig huizen, "35 houses"; (lit. "five and thirty"); zes voet hoog, "six feet high"; (lit. "six foot"); hoe laat is het?, "what time is it?"; (lit. "how late is it?"); het is zes uur, "it is 6 o'clock"; (lit. "it is six hour"); het is tien minuten voor (over) zeven, "it is ten to (past) seven"; het is half zes, "it is 5:30"; (lit. "it is half six").

Pronouns.

Personal.

- *ik* (I), 'k, "I"
- *jij* (you)32, *je*, *U*, "you"32
- *hij*, "he"

mij, me, "me"
- *jou*, *je*, *U*, "you" (obj.)
- *hem*, "him"

32. Where alternative forms in -ij, -e appear (wij, we), the first is more, the second less emphatic. For the second person "you", *jij*, *je* are used as familiar forms in the singular (je bent, "you are"; a singular "you", familiarly addressed); *jullie* and *jelui* are plural familiar forms, and take the verb in the second or third person plural (jullie hebt or hebben, "you have"; more than one person addressed, familiarly); the polite form of address is *U* with the second or third person singular of the verb, and no distinction between singular and plural (*U* bent or *U* is, "you are"; one or more people, politely addressed); if a distinction between singular and plural is desired, use *de dames*, "the ladies" or *de heeren*, "the gentlemen", with the third plural verb: *de heeren hebben*, "you gentlemen have".
zij, ze, “she”       haar, “her”
het, ’t, “it”         het, ’t, “it”
wij, we, “we”         ons, “us”
jullie, jelui, U, “you” jullie, jelui, je, U, “you” (obj.)
zij, ze, “they”       hen, “them”; hun, “to them”

Possessive.
mijn, “my”, “mine”     onze, ons, “our”, “ours”
jouw, “your”, “yours”   uw, “your”, “yours” (plural possessor)
zijn, “his”            hun, “their”, “theirs”
haar, “her”, “hers”    

These appear without the article if they are used as adjectives, with the article if they are used as pronouns: mijn zusters en de uwe, “my sisters and yours”; dit boek is het mijne, “this book is mine”.

Demonstrative.
deze, (neut. sg. dit), “this”, “these”
die, (neut sing. dat), “that”, “those”

Interrogative and Relative.
welke?, “which?” (neut. sg. welk?)
wat voor een?, “what kind of?”
wie?, “who?”
wiens?, “whose?”
wat?, “what?”
die, (neut. sg. dat), “which”, “that”, “who”, “whom”
wiens, “whose” (fem. and plural wier)
wie, “he who”
wat, “that which”

Note that wat changes to waar when used with a preposition, and that the latter is suffixed: waarin, “in which”, “wherein”.

Note also: elkander, “each other”; zelf, “self”; dezelfde (neuter hetzelfde), “the same”; zulk or zoo een (often contract-
ed to *zoon*), “such”, “such a”; *zich*, “himself”; “themselves”; *iemand*, “somebody”; *iets*, “something”; *niets*, “nothing”; *then*, “one”; “they”; *elk*, “each”; *ieder*, “every”; *iedereen*, “everybody”; *niemand*, “nobody”.

**Verbs.**

*zijn* or *wezen*, “to be”: Present: *ik ben*, “I am”; *jij bent* (fam.), *U is* (polite), “you are”; *hij, zij, het is*, “he, she, it is”; *wij, jullie, zij zijn*, “we, you, they are”. Past: singular *was*, plural *waren*.

*hebben*, “to have”: Present: *ik heb, jij hebt* (*U heeft*), *hij (zij, het) heeft*; *wij, jullie, zij hebben*. Past: singular *had*, plural *hadden*.

The infinitive normally ends in *-en*: *voeren*, “to lead”.

The present indicative normally has no ending in the first person singular, *-t* in the second and third singular, *-en* in the plural: *ik voer*, “I lead”; *U voert*, “you lead”; *hij voert*, “he leads”; *wij, jullie, zij voeren*, “we, you, they lead”.

The past has the endings *-de* (sg.), *-den* (plural): *ik voerde, hij voerden*, “I”, “he”, “we” “led”. The *d* of the past ending becomes *t* if the root of the verb ends in *-ch, -f, -k, -p, -t, -s or -sch*: *straffen*, “to punish”; *ik strafte, “I punished”*.

The past participle normally ends in *-d* or *-t* (see above; also note 33), with the prefix *ge*: *voeren*, “to lead”; *gevoerd*, “led”; *straffen*, “to punish”; *gestraft*, “punished”.

Compound tenses are formed, as in English, by combining the verb “to have” with the past participle: *hij heeft gebroken*, “he has broken”. But many intransitive verbs use “to be” as an auxiliary: *hij is gestorven*, “he has died”; *ik ben geweest*, “I have been”.

33. Strong verbs change the root vowel and add no ending in the singular of the past; they also add *-en* in the past participle instead of *-d* or *-t*: *breken*, “to break”; *brak*, “broke”; *gebroken*, “broken”; *drinken*, “to drink”; *dronk*, “drank”; *gedronken*, “drunk”; *geven*, “to give”; *gaf*, “gave”; *gegeven*, “given”.
The future is formed by using zal (plural zullen) with the infinitive: *ik zal voeren*, “I shall lead”. The conditional is formed by using zou (plural zouden) with the infinitive: *ik zou voeren*, “I should lead”.

The imperative singular consists of the simple root of the verb: *voer!*, “lead!”; for the plural, add -t (*voert!*).

The passive is formed by using worden, “to become”, with the past participle; the present of worden is word (plural worden); the past is werd (plural waren): *ik word gestraft*, “I am punished”; *zij werden door mij gestraft*, “they were punished by me”.

The negative is formed by using niet after the verb. Note the position of niet in the following examples: *ik leer mijn les niet*, “I do not learn my lesson”; *ik heb mijn les niet geleerd*, “I haven’t learnt my lesson”.

**IDENTIFICATION**

Written Dutch is easily identified by its use of certain vowel groups: aai, ooi, oei, eeuw, uw, auw, ouw, ieuw, ij. Note that no accent marks or diacritic signs appear in standard modern Dutch. In the spoken language, perhaps the most characteristic trait is the guttural sound of g and of ch in the sch group; the latter is similar to a quick clearing of the throat immediately following an s-sound.

**SAMPLES OF WRITTEN DUTCH AND AFRIKAANS**

Dutch: Want alzoo lief heeft God de wereld gehad, dat Hij zijn eengeboren Zoon gegeven heeft, opdat een ieder, die in hem gelooft, niet verloren ga, doch eeuwig leven hebbe.

Afrikaans: Want so lief het God die wêreld gehad, dat Hy sy eniggebore Seun gegee het, sodat elkeen wat in Hom glo, nie verlore mag gaan nie, maar die ewige lewe kan hê.
Dutch shows a very pronounced difference between “written language” and “spoken language”. The latter is not to be confused with slang; it is perfectly legitimate Dutch, spoken by well-educated people, who would feel silly or pedantic expressing themselves in the words of the written tongue (to cite an example from English, the literary “the fire was extinguished” would normally appear in speech as “the fire was put out”). Similarly, Dutch has two expressions for each of thousands of meanings. A few striking ones follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Written Dutch</th>
<th>Spoken Dutch</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good morning</td>
<td>goedemorgen</td>
<td>goeiemorgen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good afternoon</td>
<td>goedemiddag</td>
<td>goeiemiddag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good evening</td>
<td>goedevenond</td>
<td>goeienavend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good night</td>
<td>goedenecht</td>
<td>goeienacht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good-bye</td>
<td>vaarwel</td>
<td>dag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thank you</td>
<td>ik dank U</td>
<td>dank U wel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you’re welcome</td>
<td>tot Uw dienst</td>
<td>niet te danken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>please</td>
<td>als het U beliest</td>
<td>alsjeblief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very gladly</td>
<td>zeer gaarne</td>
<td>heel graag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perhaps</td>
<td>wellicht</td>
<td>misschien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here is</td>
<td>alhier is</td>
<td>hier is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there is</td>
<td>aldaar is, er is</td>
<td>daar is, er is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where is?</td>
<td>waar is?</td>
<td>waar is?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how do I go to?</td>
<td>hoe ga ik naar?</td>
<td>hoe kom ik naar?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34. The root of this difference lies in the fact that the written language has its roots in the Flemish of Flanders and Brabant, which, down to the sixteenth century, were economically and politically, as well as culturally, on a higher plane than the provinces that today constitute Holland; but it is the dialects of the latter that gave rise to spoken Dutch. Reference has already been made to the declensional scheme of written Dutch, which resembles German, while spoken Dutch has discarded it, and achieved a grammatical structure somewhat similar to that of English. In vocabulary, the differences are even more glaring. The formal expressions of the written tongue are jokingly referred to as *stadhuiswoorden*, “city hall words”, or what Americans would describe as “three-dollar words”.
yes
no
how are you?
very well
how much is it?
why?
when?
where?
because
today
tomorrow
yesterday
now
on the right
to the right
on the left
to the left
straight ahead
what time is it?
it is now - o'clock
I'm hungry
I'm thirsty
I'm cold
I'm warm
I'm ill
what's your name?
my name is -
do you speak - ?
certainly

give me
let me see
tell me
do you understand?
I don't understand
do you know?
I don't know (it)
very little
excuse me
don't mention it
what do you want?
ja, jawel
neen
hoe gaat het met U?
zeer wel
wat is de prijs?
waarom, weshalve?
wanneer?
waar?
daar
heden
morgen.
gisteren
thans
aan de rechtszijde
naar rechts
aan de linkerszijde
naar links
rechtuit
hoe laat is het?
het is thans - uur
ik heb honger
ik heb dorst
ik ben koud
ik ben warm
ik ben ziek (ongesteld)
hoe is Uw naam?
mijn naam is -
spreekt U - ?
welzeker; zeker
geef mij
toon mij
zeg mij
verstaat U?
ik versta (het) niet
weet U?
ik weet (het) niet
zeer gering
verschoon mij
het beteekent niets
wat is er van Uw
dienst?; wat wenscht
wat blijft U?
ja
nee
hoe gaat 't er mee?
heel goed
wat kost 't?
waarom?
wanneer?
waar?
ook
vandaag
morgen (silent -n)
gisteren (silent -n)
u, nou
aan de rechterkant
rechtsaf
aan de linkerkant
linksaf
rechtuit
hoe laat is 't?
't is nu - uur
'k heb honger
'k heb dorst
'k heb 't koud
'k heb 't warm
'k ben ziek
hoe heet U?
'k heet -
spreekt U - ?
zeker, en of! (and
how!)

gef me
laat me - zien
vertel me
begrijpt U?

ik begrijp 't niet
weet U?
'k weet ('t) niet
heel weinig
pardon, neem me niet
kwali

't beteekent niets
wat wilt U?,
it's fine weather
never mind
I'm sorry
I'm glad
too bad!
what's the matter?
already.
home
wheel
kiss
brother
to turn
face
to think
you
to marry
food
gladly
to die
beautiful
but
to throw
entirely
to get
quickly
soon
to try
to leave
to send
profession
to show
often
to weep
bicycle
het is schoon weder
het komt er niet op aan
ik betreurt het
het verheugt mij
ocharme!
lekker weertje
't komt er niet op aan
't spijt me
'k ben blij
o jee!, 't is me toch
wat!, 't is zonde!
wat is er aan de hand?
reeds
woning
rad (n)
kus
broeder
wenden
gelaat (n)
meenen
gij
huwen
spijs
gaarne
sterven, overlijden
schoon
doch
werpen
geheel
ontvangen
snel, vlug
weldra
pogen
vertrekken
zenden
beroep (n)
toenen
vaak
weenen
rijwiel (n)
wat scheelt eraan?
al
huis (n)
wiel (n)
zoen
broer
draaien
gezicht (n)
denken
jii, je
trouwen
eten (n)
graag
doodgaan
mooi
maar
gooiën
heelemaal
krijgen
gauw
probeer
weggaan
sturen
vak (n)
laten zien
dikwijls
huilen
fiets

ADDITIONAL WORDS AND PHRASES

waiter!, aannemen! a cup of coffee,
there's a wind blowing, 't waait 'n kop (kopje) koffie
it's raining, het regent come in!, binnen!

35. In spoken Dutch, this word means “clean”.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Dutch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>knife, mes (n.)</td>
<td>hat, hoed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spoon, lepel</td>
<td>coat, jas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fork, vork</td>
<td>handkerchief, zakdoek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>napkin, servet (n.)</td>
<td>shoe, schoen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dish, bord (n.)</td>
<td>brush, borstel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meat, vleesch (n.)</td>
<td>sign, teken (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bread, brood (n.)</td>
<td>place, plaats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wine, wijn</td>
<td>interprêter, tolk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>milk, melk</td>
<td>language, taal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>breakfast, ontbijt (n.)</td>
<td>trouble, last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dinner, middagmaal, middageten (n.)</td>
<td>bath, bad (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supper, avondmaal, avondeten (n.)</td>
<td>match, lucifer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman, vrouw</td>
<td>fire, vuur (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>child, kind (n.)</td>
<td>paper, papier (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl, meisje (n.)</td>
<td>tree, boom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy, jongen</td>
<td>cow, koe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family, gezin (n.)</td>
<td>horse, paard (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>war, oorlog</td>
<td>animal, dier, beest (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peace, vrede</td>
<td>city, stad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>army, leger (n.)</td>
<td>village, dorp (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>navy, vloot</td>
<td>street, straat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rifle, geweer (n.)</td>
<td>way, weg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soldier, soldaat</td>
<td>train, trein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enemy, vijand</td>
<td>newspaper, krant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eye, oog (n.)</td>
<td>shop, store, winkel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elbow, elleboog</td>
<td>office, kantoor (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouth, mond</td>
<td>money, geld (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear, oor (n.)</td>
<td>guilder, gulden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leg, been (n.)</td>
<td>¼ guilder, kwartje (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>head, hoofd (n.)</td>
<td>1/10 guilder, dubbeltje (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arm, arm</td>
<td>1/20 guilder, stuiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finger, vinger</td>
<td>work, werk (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooth, tand, kies</td>
<td>church, kerk</td>
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<tr>
<td>neck, hals</td>
<td>country, land (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>people, nation, volk (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>police, politie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
box, doos
bag, zak
pack, parcel, pak (n.)
to live, leven
to work, werken
to put, zetten
to make, maken
to want, willen
to write, schrijven (ee-e)
to take, nemen (a-o)
to look, kijken (ee-e)
to stand, staan (stond, gestaan)
to go, gaan (ging, gegaan)
to come, komen (kwam, gekomen)
to say, zeggen (zei, gezegd)
to do, doen (deed, gedaan)
to see, zien (zag, gezien)
to eat, eten (at, gegeten)
to buy, koopen (kocht, gekocht)
to keep, houden (hield, gehouden)
to ask, vragen (vroeg, gevraagd)
nice, aardig, leuk
awful, erg
strong, sterk
tired, moe
ture, waar, echt
wet, nat
dry, droog
empty, leeg
alone, alleen
other, ander
dear, lief
high, hoog

low, laag
dark, donker
dirty, vuil
difficult, moeilijk
dead, dood
enough, genoeg
bad, slecht
young, jong
old, oud
small, klein
white, wit
green, groen
red, rood
yellow, geel
black, zwart
blue, blauw
brown, bruin
still, nog
always, altijd
again, weer
very, erg
so, zoo
also, ook
or, of
for, want
if, als
without, zonder
with, near, met, bij
through, door
to, towards, naar
at, aan
for, before, voor
on, op
against, tegen
of, from, van
after, na
Chapter IV

German

Speakers and Location

(All population figures are approximate)

Europe — Germany (including Austria and Sudeten areas) — 80,000,000; Switzerland — 3,000,000; scattered groups in Luxembourg, Belgium (Eupen and Malmedy), France (Alsace-Lorraine), Italy (Alto Adige, Asiago), Polish Corridor, Danzig, Russia (Saratov region and Ukraine), Roumania (Transylvania), Hungary, Yugoslavia — perhaps a total of 5,000,000.

Used widely as a secondary language in the Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia.

As a cultural and commercial language, widely spoken and understood throughout Europe.

Africa — Language of former colonization in Togoland, Cameroon, Southwest Africa, Tanganyika.

Oceania — Language of former colonization in Bismarck, Caroline, Marianas, Marshall, Solomon Islands, Palau, New Guinea, Samoa.

Western Hemisphere — Spoken by several millions of German immigrants and their descendants in North and South America, particularly the U. S. A., Brazil (São Paulo, Rio Grande do Sul), Argentina, Chile.

As a cultural language, spoken and understood by some millions of people in North and South America.
# ALPHABET AND SCRIPT


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aa</th>
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Notes on ū, ă, ū ĕ, š, ژ.

ă is used at the end of a word or stem-syllable; ĕ in all other cases: es, was, auslachen, hinan őgehen: but bist, sehen, Unsinn, Nase, stehlen.

ł is regularly used for ss; it is however, changed to ū inside the word after a short vowel when an ending beginning with a vowel is added: Schlössl, castle, pl. Schlösser (short ő); but Fuß, foot, pl. Füße (long ū); stößen, to push (long ū), but lassen, to let (short ő).

t and ą are always joined together (ş): jetzt, now; trotzdem, although.

SOUNDS

Vowel sounds: usually short when followed by a double consonant: Wässer, Bett, ū hand; otherwise long, especially if doubled or followed by ł: Bater, Boot, wohl.

Long

a = father (Bater)
e = they (john)
i = machine (ihnen)
ö = bore (löben)
u = rule (guß)
ä = there (wählen)
ö = sound intermediate between German o and German e; like French eu

Short

aha (Wässer)
met (Fenster)¹
pin (bin)
son (völl)
put (Mutter)
met (Männer)

öö = sound intermediate between German u and German i; like French u

¹. Final unstressed e = bacon (Ćčfe).
äu, en = toil (Säujer, treu)
eti = mine (einf)
ien = machine (viel)

Consonant sounds: b, d, f, h, l, m, n, p, q, t, r, approximately as in English.
c: before a, o, u, or consonant, = k (Cafe, Creme),
before e, i, ä, ö = ts (Cicero, Cäsur).
d: after a, o, u = Scots loch (Nacht, junken); harsh guttural
sound; after e, i, or consonant = sound intermediate be-
tween k and sh (nicht, mandi); the nearest English equi-
valent is huge.
g: when final, especially after e or i, pronounce like German
d below; otherwise, like Eng. go.
i: = Eng. yet (ia).
r: gutturals, as in French, or trilled, as in Italian.
f: at beginning of words, or between vowels = zeal (fehen,
Rose); before t and p at beginning of syllable = Eng.
shore, sure (fiehen, fierce); elsewhere, = Eng. sit
(was).
fö: = Eng. shore (Schiff).
fi before vowels, = Eng. tsy (Nation).
v: = Eng. f (Vogel).
wü: = Eng. v (wir).
ö: = Eng. ts in hearts (Serz).

Sounds not appearing in native German words: all English
vowel sounds outside of the above listed; chair, jest, plea-
sure, thin, this, water, American r. German sounds not
appearing in English: ö, ü, aß, ich, German r.

CAPITALIZATION, SYLLABIFICATION, ACCENTUATION,
PUNCTUATION.

Use capitals for all nouns, proper or common (der Bater;
bas Bett); also for Sie (polite "you") Ihr (polite "your").
Do not use capitals for ich ("I"), or for adjectives of nationali-
ty, unless used as nouns (ein Deutscher, “a German”; ein deutscher Knabe, “a German boy”).

Divide compound words according to their component parts (hin-aus, Dienstag); otherwise, a single consonant sound between two vowels goes with the following vowel, not with the preceding (Bücher, ei-nen).

The accent regularly falls on the first syllable of the word, save in words having as a prefix be-, emp., ent-, er-, ge-, miß-, ver-, zer. (anfangen, arbeiten, Buchstabe; but bekannt, Entwicklung, gehört, zerbrechen).

Use commas to set off subordinate clauses: der Mann, der diesen Brief geschrieben hat, ist angekommen, “the man who wrote this letter has arrived”.

Use exclamation mark in imperative sentences and at the beginning of letters: Kommen Sie her!, “Come here”; Lieber Karl!, “Dear Charles.”

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN GERMAN; USE FOR PRACTICE READING.

Ja, es war wirklich so. Der General wußte es denn auch bereits seit zwei Tagen; es waren drei Fälle von Influenza unter den Soldaten ausgebüft. Man hatte erst an Hinterhalt gedacht; die Leute waren in einem Manöver gewesen, die Sonne hatte heiß gebrannt, als schöse sie mit mörderischen Pfeilen. Aber nun schüttelten die Ärzte die Köpfe: wo hatten sich die Kerls nur die Krankheit geholt? Jedenfalls außerhalb des Lagers. Die strengsten Absperrungsmaßregeln wurden auf der Stelle durchgeführt. Urlaub gab’s nicht mehr; kein Soldat durfte das Lager verlassen; die Posten wurden verdoppelt; keinem Fremden wurde es erlaubt, einen Soldaten zu besuchen. Auf diese Weise suchte man, die Verbreitung der Pest zu verhindern.
GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

1. Nouns and Articles.

German has three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter. Nouns denoting males are usually masculine, those denoting females feminine. Nouns which in English are neuter, however, may be masculine or feminine in German (der Löffel, "the spoon", masculine; die Gabel, "the fork", feminine; das Messer, "the knife", neuter). Nouns with the diminutive suffixes -chen and -lein must be neuter even if they indicate persons (das Mädchen, "the girl"; das Fräulein, "the miss", "the young lady", both neuter). Abstract nouns are usually feminine (die Liebe, "love"; die Freiheit, "freedom", both feminine). Learn nouns with their respective articles, der for masculines, die for feminines, das for neuters.

There are four cases in German, nominative, genitive, dative and accusative. The nominative and the accusative correspond, respectively, to the English subjective and objective; the genitive indicates possession and often translates the English "of", while the dative translates "to" with verbs of saying, giving, etc.

Definite Article ("the")

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2. "To" indicating motion towards, however, is usually translated by a preposition (nach with the dative, auf with the accusative, etc.), while "to" meaning "in order to" is translated by um...zu: ich gehe nach Hause, in die Schule, auf das Land, "I am going home, to school, to the country"; ich bin gekommen, um den Brief zu schreiben, "I came to write the letter". Note also: meines Vaters Geld, "my father's money", or das Geld meines Vaters, "the money of my father"; ich gab dem Knaben (dat.) einen Pfennig (acc.), "I gave the boy a penny".
Indefinite Article ("a", "an")

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Declension of Nouns.

In the genitive singular, most masculine and neuter nouns add -s (-e if monosyllabic; a few masculines ending in -e add -n), while feminine nouns remain unchanged: der Bruder, "the brother", des Bruders, "of the brother", "the brother's"; der Mann, "the man", des Mannes, "of the man", "the man's"; der Knabe, "the boy", des Knaben, "of the boy", "the boy's"; die Tochter, "the daughter"; der Tochter, "of the daughter"; die Frau, "the woman", der Frau, "of the woman".

The dative and accusative singular usually have the same form as the nominative: dem Bruder, "to the brother", den Bruder, "the brother" (objc.); dem Mann(e), "to the man", den Mann, "the man" (objc.); der Tochter, "to the daughter", die Tochter, "the daughter".

Plural endings are: nothing or -e (with or without umlaut); -er (with umlaut if the vowel permits); -en (without umlaut). Nouns that have the first three plural endings take on an additional -n in the dative plural: Bruder, plural nom. die Brüder, gen. der Brüder, dat. den Brüdern, acc. die Brüder; Mann, pl. nom. die Männer, gen. der Männer, dat. den Männern, acc. die Männer; Tochter, plural 1. m. die Töchter, gen. der Töchter, dat. den Töchtern, acc. die Töchter; Bank, plural Bänke in nom., gen.

3. In nouns of one syllable, addition of -e is customary in the dative: dem Mann or dem Manne, "to the man". Nouns that add -n in the genitive do so also in the dative and accusative: dem Knaben, "to the boy"; den Knaben, "the boy" (objc.).
and acc., Bänken in dat.; Boot, plural Boote, with Booten in the dat.; Frau, plural Frauen; Bett, plural Betten.  

2. Adjectives and Adverbs.

The adjective usually precedes the noun, and is declined. The ending of the adjective is determined by the presence or absence of a declensional ending on a preceding word, such as the definite or indefinite article, the demonstrative and possessive adjectives. If such preceding word has no ending, or if there is no preceding word, the adjective takes an ending in accordance with the following scheme:

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<th>Masc. Sg.</th>
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<th>Neut. Sg.</th>
<th>Plural (all genders)</th>
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Manѣ guter Mann, "many a good man" (manѣ) is indeclinable in this use, and has no ending; hence the adjective gut takes on the masc. sg. -er ending); welch güteũ̯ Kind! "what a good child!" (welch has no ending, hence gut takes on the neuter sg. -eũ̯); ein jungeũ̯ Mädenenn, "a young girl" (ein, in the neuter singular form, has no ending; hence jungeũ̯); die Gibe

4. Nouns given in the vocabulary appear, with their article, in the nominative singular form; the genitive singular ending, if any, follows; then the nominative plural ending, if any, with indication of umlaut where the latter occurs; from these key forms, the entire declension of the noun can be determined; thus der Brüder, -ũ̯, "—; this indicates -ũ̯ in the genitive singular, no plural ending, save the universal -n in the dative plural, but umlaut throughout the plural; die Lũ̯r, -ũ̯, -ũ̯; this indicates a single form throughout the singular, -ũ̯ and no umlaut throughout the plural.

For practical purposes, don't be too terrified about making a mistake in an ending or gender; the chances are you will still be understood, and probably corrected; the Germans themselves occasionally make a slip of this kind.

5. This set of endings, characteristic of adjectives and most pronouns, is worth memorizing.
guter Männer, "the oaths of good men" (there is no article or pronoun preceding guter, which therefore takes the -er genitive plural ending).

If the preceding word has a declensional ending, the ending of the adjective is -e in the nominative singular masculine, feminine and neuter, and in the accusative singular feminine and neuter, -en in all other cases: der gute Mann, "the good man" (der has characteristic masc. sg. nom. ending, hence the weak -e instead of the strong -er is used for gut); jedes deutsche Mädchen, "every German girl" (-es on jedes; therefore only -e for the adjective); jenes gute Kind, "that good child"; meines guten Bruders, "of my good brother" (-es on the possessive, therefore -en on the adjective); einer schönen Frau, "of" or "to a beautiful woman" (-er of article causes the adjective to take weak -en instead of strong -er ending); die Worte der tapferen Soldaten, "the words of the brave soldiers" (der causes "brave" to take on -en; if the expression were "the words of brave soldiers", der would disappear, and tapferen would change to tapferer). Remember again that for practical purposes an error of ending is usually inconsequential.

The predicate adjective is invariable, and takes no ending: die Männer sind gut, "the men are good"; die Mädchen sind schön, "the girls are pretty".

The invariable adjective without any ending is generally used as an adverb: er ist gut, "he is good"; er lernt gut, "he learns well".

The comparative and superlative are formed by adding -er (-r) and -est (-st), respectively, usually with umlaut: alt, "old", älter, "older", ältst, "oldest"; kurz, "short"; kürzer, "shorter"; kürzest, "shortest"; frei, "free", freier, "freer", freiest, "freest". Comparative and superlative adjectives are regularly declined: ein kürzeres Buch, "a shorter book"; des freiesten Staates, "of the freest state".

6. When used after the verb "to be", without a clause or phrase following, the superlative is preceded by am instead of the definite article, and takes the ending -en: dieses Haus ist am höchsten, "this

a) Cardinal (indeclinable outside of ein (for which see p. 129), and Million)

| 1 — ein (eins when not followed by noun) | 13 — dreizehn |
| 2 — zwei | 14 — vierzehn |
| 3 — drei | 15 — fünfzehn |
| 4 — vier | 16 — sechzehn |
| 5 — fünf | 17 — siebzehn |
| 6 — sechs | 18 — achtzehn |
| 7 — sieben | 19 — neunzehn |
| 8 — acht | 20 — zwanzig |
| 9 — neun | 21 — einundzwanzig |
| 10 — zehn | 22 — zweiundzwanzig |
| 11 — elf | 30 — dreißig |
| 12 — zwölf | 40 — vierzig |
| 60 — sechzig | 50 — fünfzig |
| 70 — siebzig | |
| 80 — achtzig | |
| 90 — neunzig | |
| 100 — hundert | |
| 200 — zweihundert | |
| 1000 — tausend | |
| 5000 — fünftausend | |
| 1,000,000 — eine Million | |
| 3,000,000 — drei Millionen |

house is the highest”; but dieses Haus ist das höchste in der Stadt, “this house is the highest in the city”.

Note: ebenso...wie, “as...as”; als, “than”; diese Arbeit ist ebenso schwer wie die beinige, “this work is as hard as yours”; meine Arbeit ist schwerer als die beinige, “my work is harder than yours”.

b) Ordinal (add -te to cardinal up to 20th, save for exceptions below; -ste from 20th on; ordinal numerals are declined like adjectives).

1st — der erste        8th — der achte
2nd — der zweite       10th — der zehnte
3rd — der dritte        12th — der zwölfte
4th — der vierte       20th — der zwanzigste
5th — der fünfte      100th — der hunderste

c) Others.
die Hälfte (noun), halb (adjective), “half”: die Hälfte des Buches, “half of the book”; eine halbe Seite, “half a page”
einmal, “once”; zweimal, “twice”; dreimal, “three times”;
viertundertmal, “a hundred times”; das erste Mal, “the first time”;
zuweilen, “sometimes”; anderthalb, “one and a half”; dreieinhalb, “three and a half”.

ein Glas Wasser, “a glass of water”; eine Tasse Kaffee, “a cup of coffee”; sieben Pfund Fleisch, “seven pounds of meat”;
drei Duend Gier, “two dozen eggs”; drei Fuβ hoch, “three feet high”; voll Kartoffeln, “full of potatoes”.

4. Pronouns.
a) Personal.

Singular
Dat. mir, “to me”; dir, “to you”; ihm, “to him”; ihr, “to her”;
ih, “to it”

7. In polite address, singular or plural, use Sie (nom. and acc.), Ihnen (dat.), with the third person plural of the verb: du bist gut, “you are good”, familiar singular; ihr seid gut, “you are good”, familiar plural; Sie sind gut, “you are good”, polite singular or plural.

8. The German pronoun must be of the same gender as the noun it stands for: ich habe den Fisch gegessen; er ist gut, “I have eaten the fish; it (lit. “he”; Fisch is masculine in German) is good.

9. The genitive is omitted, as it is usually supplied by the possessive adjective-pronoun.
Plural

Nom. wir, "we"; ihr, "you"; sie, "they" (all genders)
Dat. uns, "to us"; euch, "to you"; ihnen, "to them"
Acc. uns, "us"; euch, "you"; sie, "them"

An object pronoun, dative or accusative, follows the verb; in compound tenses, it is placed immediately after the auxiliary; if two object pronouns are used together, the accusative comes before the dative: er zeigt es, "he shows it"; er hat es mir nicht gezeigt, "he did not show it to me".

If the pronoun in English is the object of a preposition and refers to things (not to persons), omit it altogether in German and use instead *da(r)* combined with the preposition: darauf, "on it"; daraus, "out of it"; damit, "with it"; but mit ihm, "with him".

b) Possessive.

mein, "my", "mine"   unser, "our", "ours"
dein, "your", "yours"   euer, "your", "yours"
sein, "his", "its"   ihr, "their", "theirs"
ihr, "her", "hers"   ihr, "your", "yours" (polite.
singular or plural)

When used as adjectives before the noun, these possessives are declined like *ein* (p. 129): *ich* habe meinen Hut nicht, "I haven't my hat"; *ich* habe es meinem Vater gegeben, "I gave it to my father".

When used as pronouns, they usually take the definite article and are declined like adjectives in a "weak" position (p. 131); that is to say, they take -en throughout, save in the nominative singular of the three genders and in the accusative feminine and neuter, where the ending is -e. They may also insert -ig- before these endings: diese Bücher und die deinen (or die deinigen) "these books and yours"; hier ist mein Hut, aber den Ihren (or den Ihrigen) fann ich nicht finden, "here's my hat, but I can't find yours".
c) Demonstrative.

dieser, “this”, “these”; jener, “that”, “those”. They are declined like the definite article der (p. 128), save that the neuter singular nominative and accusative has -es instead of -as (dieses, jenes).

derselbe, “the same”, derjenige, “the one”, are declined as though article and adjective were separate: denselben Manne, “to the same man”; diejenigen auf dem Tische, “the ones on the table”. “The one” may also be expressed by der, die, das, but in this meaning the genitive forms are dessen (masc. and neut. sg.), deren (fem. sg.), deren (plural), and the dative plural is denen. der or welcher, “who”, “which”, “that”.

d) Relative.

The relative der is declined like the definite article, but with a genitive dessen for masc. and neut. sg., and deren for fem. sg. and all plurals, and a dat. plural denen. Welcher is declined like the definite article, but with -es in neuter nom. and acc. (welches): das Haus, das (or welches) ich gekauft habe, “the house I bought”; die Frau, die (or welche) ich sah, “the woman I saw”; der Knabe, dessen Hut ich fand, “the boy whose hat I found”; der Held, den (or welchen) ich kenne, “the hero whom I know”. Note that the relative pronoun must be used in German, even where it is understood in English.

was, “what”, “that” (the latter meaning only after neuter adjectives and pronouns): ich sah, was du getan hast, “I saw what you did”; das Beste, was ich habe, “the best I have”. It is also used after etwas (something), alles (everything), nichts (nothing): alles, was du hast, “all that you have”.

When the English relative pronoun follows a preposition and refers to objects (not to persons), it is customary to omit the relative and use instead wo(r), combining it with the preposition: das Haus, worin ich wohne, “the house in which I live” (das Haus, in dem ich wohne is permissible).

e) Interrogative.

Hut gegeben?, "to whom did you give my hat?"; wen hast du gesehen?, "whom did you see?"; wessen Hut ist das?, "whose hat is that?"
was, "what": was hast du gesehen? "what did you see?" (as object of preposition, referring to things, use wo(r): womit hast du es getan?, "with what did you do it?")
welcher (declined like the relative welcher), "which?": welches Buch meinen Sie?, "which book do you mean?"
was für ein, "what kind of?": was für einen Hut trug er? "what kind of a hat was he wearing?" (omit ein in the plural: was für Waffen sind das? "what kind of weapons are those?"

5. Verbs.

German verbs fall into two categories, "weak" and "strong". The weak verbs form their past tense by the addition of endings and effect no change in the root vowel, while the strong generally add no ending in the first and third persons singular, and regularly change the vowel of the root. In the past participle, weak verbs add -(e)t, strong verbs -en. Some strong verbs also effect a change in the root vowel of the present tense, in the second and third persons singular. Verbs appearing in the vocabulary are given only in the infinitive form if weak (e.g. lieben); if strong, the third person singular of the present is given, if a root-vowel change appears in the second and third singular (remember that whatever root-vowel change appears in the third singular appears also in the second singular); also the past, first person singular, and the past participle (e.g. sprechen, spricht, sprach, gesprochen); if no root-vowel change occurs in the present, only the infinitive, past and past participle are given (e.g. bringen, brachte, gebracht; finden, fand, gefunden).

The infinitive regularly ends in -en: lieben, "to love"; sehen, "to see"; sprechen, "to speak".

The present participle regularly ends in -end: liebend, "loving"; gehend, "going". It is most frequently used as an adjective, and agrees with the noun it modifies: ein durch die Stadt fließender Fluß, "a river flowing through the city". It
is *never* used with the verb "to be", as in Eng. "I am going", "I was going"; translate such expressions by the ordinary present or past: *ich gehe, ich ging*. The Eng. "do" of questions is likewise omitted: *sche ich?*, "do I see?"

1. Present Indicative (meaning: I love, am loving, do love)

**Weak:** lieben, "to love"  
*ich lieb-e,* I love  
*du lieb-est,* you love (fam. sg.)  
*er lieb-t,* he loves  
*wir lieb-en,* we love  
*ihr lieb-t,* you love (fam. pl.)  
*sie lieb-en,* they love

**Strong:** sehen, "to see"  
*ich seh-e,* I see  
*du seh-est,* you see  
*er seh-t,* he sees  
*wir seh-en,* we see  
*ihr seh-t,* you see  
*sie seh-en,* they see

*Sie lieb-en,* you love (pol. sg. or pl.)  
*Sie seh-en,* you see (pol. sg. or pl.).

Irregular:¹¹ sein, "to be"  
*ich bin,* I am  
*du bist,* you are (fam. sg.)  
*er ist,* he is  
*wir sind,* we are  
*ihr seid,* you are (fam. pl.)  
*sie sind,* they are

*haben,* "to have"  
*ich habe,* I have  
*du hast,* you have (fam. sg.)  
*er hat,* he has  
*wir haben,* we have  
*ihr habt,* you have (fam. pl.)  
*sie haben,* they have

10. A few verbs the stem of which ends in a cluster of consonants require the insertion of *-e* before the *-t* of the second singular and the *-t* of the third singular and second plural: warten, *du wartest,* er wartet, *ihr wartet.*

11. The so-called modal auxiliaries (for the use of which see p. 142) dürfen, "may", "be permitted"; können, "can", "be able"; mögen, "may", "like to"; müssen, "must", "have to"; sollen, "shall", "to be to"; wollen, "will", "want to" are conjugated like regular weak verbs in the plural of the present indicative and throughout the past; in the singular of the present they take the following forms: dürfen - darf, darft, darf; können - kannst, kannst, kann; mögen - mag, magst, mag; müssen - muß, mußt, muß; sollen - soll, sollst, soll; wollen - will, willst, will.

*Werben,* "to become", used as an auxiliary in the formation of the future and of the passive, has werde, *wirb*, wird, with a past *wurbe.*
2. Past Indicative (meaning: I was seeing, used to see)

Weak: lieben
ich lieb-te, I used to love
du lieb-teft, you used to love
er lieb-te, he used to love
wir lieb-ten, we used to love
ihr lieb-tet, you used to love
sie lieb-ten, they used to love
Sie lieb-ten, you used to love (polite)

Strong, sehen
ich sah, I was seeing, used to see
du sahst, you were seeing
er sah, he was seeing
wir sahen, we were seeing
ihr saht, you were seeing
sie sahen, they were seeing
Sie sahen, you were seeing (pol.)

Irregular: sein

ich war, I was, used to be
du warst, you were (fam. sg.)
er war, he was
wir waren, we were
ihr wert, you were (fam. pl.)
sie waren, they were

haben

ich hatte, I had, used to have
du hatten, you had
er hatte, he had
wir hatten, we had
ihr hatten, you had
sie hatten, they had

3. Future (meaning: I shall speak) and Conditional (meaning: I should speak)

The future is formed by combining the present of werden, "to become", with the infinitive; the conditional by the past

12. The German past (ich liebte, ich sah) generally indicates the sort of continued or repeated past action that English normally indicates by using "used to" or "was" with the present participle. The normal English past ("I loved", "I saw") is best translated by the German present perfect, which translates also the English present perfect: ich habe geliebt, "I loved" or "I have loved"; ich habe gesehen, "I saw" or "I have seen".
subjunctive of werden with the infinitive. The infinitive stands at the end of the clause: ich werde dieses Buch nicht lesen, “I shall not read this book”; ich würde Deutsch sprechen, wenn es leichter wäre, “I should speak German if it were easier”.

**Future**
- ich werde sprechen, I shall speak
- du wirst sprechen, you will speak
- er wird sprechen, he will speak
- wir werden sprechen, we shall speak
- ihr werdet sprechen, you will speak
- sie werden sprechen, they will speak

**Conditional**
- ich würde sprechen, I should speak
- du würdest sprechen, you would speak
- er würde sprechen, he would speak
- wir würden sprechen, we should speak
- ihr würdet sprechen, you would speak
- sie würden sprechen, they would speak

4. Compound Tenses (meaning: I have, had, shall have, should have spoken)

These are formed, as in English, by using the auxiliary haben (“to have”) with the past participle; the latter stands at the end of the clause or sentence: ich habe deinen Bruder nicht gesehen, “I didn’t see your brother”. Many intransitive verbs indicating motion (gehen, “to go”, kommen, “to come”, etc.) and change of state (sterben, “to die”, werden, “to become”), also sein, “to be” and bleiben, “to remain”, use sein, (“to be”) as an auxiliary instead of haben: ich bin gegangen, “I went”; er war gekommen, “he had come”; sie ist geworden, “she has become”; sind Sie gewesen?, “have you been?”; such verbs are indicated in the vocabulary thus: kommen, kam, gekommen (sein).

The past participle ends in -(e)t in the case of weak verbs, -en in the case of strong verbs; with ge- prefixed in both cases unless the accent fails to fall on the initial syllable (see page 127): lieben, p. p. geliebt; haben, p. p. gehabt; sehen, p. p.
geschen; sein, p. p. gewesen. The past participle used with an auxiliary is invariable, but if it is used as an adjective, it agrees with its noun: ein gut geführteres Buch, "a well written book". Present Perfect: ich habe geliebt, "I have loved"; ich habe gesehen, "I have seen"; ich bin gegangen, "I have gone"; "I went"; ich bin gewesen, "I have been"; "I was". Past Perfect: ich hatte gesprochen, "I had spoken"; ich hatte geübt, "I had praised"; ich war gewesen, "I had been"; ich war gegangen, "I had gone". Future Perfect: ich werde geliebt haben, "I shall have loved"; ich werde gewesen sein, "I shall have been". Perfect Conditional: ich würde gesehen haben, "I should have seen"; ich würde gegangen sein, "I should have gone".

5. Imperative (meaning: see!)

The second singular (familiar singular) normally is the same as the second singular of the present with the final -st removed: höre! or hör! (from hören), "listen!"; sieh!, "see!" (second singular present of sehen is siehst).

The second plural (familiar plural), and the polite form with Sie have the same form as the corresponding persons in the present: liebt!, lieben. Sie!, "love!"; seht!, sehen Sie!, "see!"

"Let us" is translated by las (fam. sg.), lasst (fam. pl.) or lassen Sie, followed by uns and the infinitive: las uns gehen, "let us go"; lassen Sie uns sprechen, "let us speak".

6. Reflexive verbs.

The reflexive is more extensively used in German than in English. The reflexive pronouns are the same as the

13. Exceptional is sei!, "be!", from sein (2nd sg. present bist).
14. E. g., mich freuen, "to rejoice": ich freue mich, du freust dich, er freut sich, etc. The reflexive is also generally used in expressions referring to parts of the body, which take the definite article instead of the possessive, and a dative reflexive pronoun with the verb; ich habe mir das Bein gebrochen, "I broke my leg" (lit. "I broke the leg to myself").
accusative pronouns (mir, dir, uns, euch), save in the third person, where ihr is used for both numbers and all genders. The dative pronoun is occasionally called for by the sense of the expression (ich) denken, “to imagine”; literally, “to think to oneself”), and in this case the dative pronouns are used (mir, dir, uns, euch), but ihr is still used in the third person.


The passive voice is formed by using werden (“to become”) with the past participle;\(^{15}\) ich werde geliebt, “I am loved”; ich wurde geliebt, “I was loved”; ich werde geliebt werden, “I shall be loved”; ich bin geliebt worden,\(^ {16}\) “I have been loved”; ich war geliebt worden, “I had been loved”; ich werde geliebt worden sein, “I shall have been loved”.

“By” is normally translated in the passive by von with the dative: ich werde von meiner Mutter geliebt, “I am loved by my mother”.

Man (“one”, “somebody”) with the active often replaces the passive when the doer of the action is not expressed: man fragte dich, you were asked”; hier spricht man Deutch, “German is spoken here”.

8. Subjunctive.

The German subjunctive has six tenses, one corresponding to each tense of the indicative. Its forms frequently coincide with those of the indicative; in the present tense and past tense the endings are normally -e, -est, -e, -en, -et, -en, and in the past tense of strong verbs there is a tendency to take umlaut wherever possible (Pres. Subj. of sehen: seh-e, -est, -e, -en, -et, -en; Past Subj. säh-e -est, -e, -en, -et, -en). The subjunctive is often

15. Distinguish carefully between the two uses of werden as an auxiliary: with the infinitive to form the future (ich werde sehen, “I shall see”), and with the past participle to form the passive (ich werde gesehen, “I am seen”). In the future passive, both uses appear (ich werde gesehen werden, “I shall be seen”).

16. The normal past participle of werden is geworden, but the form worden is used instead in the formation of the passive.
used in subordinate clauses, especially after verbs of saying, thinking, asking, and the like: er glaubte, daß ich krank sei, “he thought I was ill”; er sagte, daß ich kein Geld hätte, “he said I had no money”. Using the indicative instead of the subjunctive form is not an unforgivable crime.\(^\text{17}\)


See note 11 for the conjugation of these verbs. In their compound tenses, these verbs use a form which resembles the infinitive instead of the past participle: ich werde sprechen dürfen (instead of gedürft), “I shall be allowed to speak”; ich habe schreiben können (instead of gekonnt), “I have been able to write”.

In translating the English “will”, wollen normally indicates willingness, werden simple futurity: er wird morgen schreiben, “he will write tomorrow”; but willst du für mich arbeiten? “will you work for me?”; wollen wir jetzt nach Hause gehen?, “shall we go home now?”

Mögen, especially with gern, has the meaning of “to be glad to, happy to”: ich mag gern mit Ihnen gehen, “I’ll gladly go with you”.


Verbs compounded with the prefixes be-, emp-, ent-, er-, ge-, mifl-, ver-, zer-, (the same ones that do not take the accent; see p. 127) normally do not take ge- before the past participle: verstanden, “to understand”, past participle verstanden, “understood”; erzählen, “to tell”, p. p. erzählt, “told”.

Verbs compounded with all other prefixes separate the prefix from the verb in the simple tenses, and place it at the end of the clause; anfangen, “to begin”: present, ich fange an,

17. Note that the würde used to form the conditional (ich würde fehen, “I should see”) is the past subjunctive of werden. The present subjunctive of sein is irregular: sei, seiest, sei, seien feiert, feien. The past subjunctive is regular: wäre. Haben has hab and hätte, both regular.
“I begin”; past, ich fing an, “I began”; ich fange heute diese Arbeit an, “I am beginning this work today”.

In the past participle, these verbs insert -ge- between the prefix and the verb (angefangen, “begun”), while if the infinitive is used in a construction requiring zu, the latter is also inserted between the prefix and the verb: er wünscht heute anzuftingen, “he wishes to begin today”.

11. Word Order.

If the subject does not begin the sentence, the subject and verb are usually inverted (save after aber, und, and relative pronouns): jetzt bin ich fertig, “now I am ready”; einen guten Hut suche ich, “I’m looking for a good hat”.

In dependent clauses, the verb usually comes at the end of the clause: ich weiß nicht, wo Sie Ihren Hut gekauft haben, “I don’t know where you bought your hat”.

If the dependent clause precedes the main clause, both the above rules normally apply: als ich ihn sah, ging er nach Hause, “when I saw him, he was going home”.

VOCABULARY

Nouns are given with their respective article (indicating gender) in their nominative singular form, followed by the genitive ending (if any), followed by the plural ending (if any), with indication of umlaut change where this occurs.

Verbs are given in the infinitive form alone, if they are “weak”; thus, to love, lieben, indicates a past liebte and a past participle geliebt. If the verb is “strong”, the third person singular of the present indicative appears (indicating that the same change takes place in the second singular), provided there is a change of root vowel in those two forms; the past and past participle are then given; if the verb is conjugated with sein, the latter appears in parentheses at the close; thus, to fall, fallen, fällt, fiel, gefallen (fein).


world, die Welt, -; -en
earth, die Erde, -
air, die Luft, -; -e
gear, das Werk, -
fire, das Feuer, -
light, das Licht, -es, -er
sea, das Meer, -es, -e
sun, die Sonne, -; -n
moon, der Mond, -es, -e
star, der Stern, -es, -e
sky, heaven, der Himmel, -s, -
wind, der Wind, -es, -e
weather, das Wetter, -s, -
snow, der Schnee, -s

to snow, schneien
rain, der Regen, -s, -
to rain, regnen
cloud, die Wolke, -n, -n
cloudy, bewölkter
fog, der Nebel, -s, -

mud, der Schlamm, -es
time, die Zeit, -en,
year, das Jahr, -es, -e
month, der Monat, -s, -e
week, die Woche, -n, -n
day, der Tag, -es, -e
hour, die Stunde, -n, -n
minute, die Minute, -n, -n
morning, der Morgen, -s, -
noon, der Mittag, -es, -e
afternoon, der Nachmittag, -es, -e
evening, der Abend, -s, -e
night, die Nacht, -e, -e
midnight, die Mittag, -e, -e

Sunday, der Sonntag
Monday, der Montag

Tuesday, der Dienstag

Wednesday, der Mittwoch
Thursday, der Donnerstag
Friday, der Freitag
Saturday, der Samstag,
der Sonnabend

January, der Januar, -s
February, der Februar; -s
March, der März, -es
April, der April, -s
May, der Mai, -es
June, der Juni, -s
July, der Juli, -s
August, der August, -s
September, der September, -s
October, der Oktober, -s
November, der November, -s
December, der Dezember, -s
Spring, der Frühling, -s, -e
Summer, der Sommer, -s, -
Fall, der Herbst, -es, -e
Winter, der Winter, -s, -
North, der Norden, -s
South, der Süden, -s
East, der Osten, -s
West, der Westen, -s

“It is warm”, “it is cold”, etc. are literally translated: es ist warm, es ist kalt.

(On) Monday we went home, (am) Montag gingen wir nach
Hause; (on) the first of January, 1943, den (or am) ersten Januar
neunzehnhundertvierundvierzig.

The genitive form of days of the week, ending in -s, indicates
customary action: Montag’s kommt er hierher, he comes here Mondays.

2. Family, Friendship, Love.

family, die Familie, -n
husband, der Gatte, -n, -n; der
Mann, -es, -er
wife, die Gattin, -n, -nen; die Frau,
en
parents, die Eltern
father, der Vater, -s, -
mother, die Mutter, -
son, der Sohn, -es, -e
daughter, die Tochter, -
brother, der Bruder, -s,
sister, die Schwester, -n
uncle, der Onkel, -s, -
aunt, die Tante, -n

...
nephew, der Neffe, -n, -n
niece, die Nichte, -n

cousin, der Better, -s, -n; die
cekte, -n

grandfather, der Großvater, -s, -
grandmother, die Großmutter, -
grandson, der Enkel, -s, -
granddaughter, die Enkelin, -en
teacher-in-law, der Schwiegervater,
-mutter, -mutter, -
sen-in-law, der Schwiegersohn,

-daughter-in-law, die Schwiegertoch-
ter, -

-brother-in-law, der Schwager, -s, -
sister-in-law, die Schwägerin, -

-man, der Mann, -er, -er
woman, die Frau, -en, -en; das
Weib, -es, -er
child, das Kind, -es, -er
boy, der Knabe, -n, -n; der Junge,

-girl, das Mädchen, -s, -
sir, Mr., der Herr, -n, -en (in
direct address, unless name
follows, mein Herr)
lady, Madam, Mrs., die Dame, -
-n; die Frau, -en (in direct
address, unless name follows,

Miss, young lady, das Fräulein,
-in, -en (in direct address, unless
name follows, gnädiges Fräulein)

dread, der Freund, -er, -e; die
Freundin, -en

-servant, der Diener, -s, -; der Be-
diente, -n, -n; das Dienstmädchen,

-to introduce, vorstellen
to visit, besuchen
love, die Liebe, -
to love, lieben
to fall in love with, sich verlieben
in (acc.)
to marry, heiraten
sweetheart, darling, der Schatz,
-es, -e; das Liebchen, -s, -;
der Liebling, -s, -e
kiss, der Kuß, -es, -e
to kiss, küssen

3. Speaking Activities.

word, das Wort, -es, -er (-e)
language, die Sprache, -n

to speak, sprechen, spricht, spricht,
gesprochen
to say, sagen
to tell, relate, erzählen
to inform, berichten; sagen
to call, rufen, rief, gerufen
to be called, one’s name is, heißen,
hief, geheißen (my name is
William, ich heiße Wilhelm)
to greet, grüßen
to name, nennen, nannte, genannt
to listen to, zuhören (fol. by
dative)
to hear, hören
to understand, verstehen, verstanden

to mean, meinen, bedeuten
to ask (for something), bitten, bat,
geben (um etwas)
to answer, antworten; erwidern
to thank, danken (I thank you for
that, ich danke Ihnen dafür)
to complain (about), sich beklagen
über
to cry, shout, schreien, schrie, ge-
shrien
gold, das Gold, -es
silver, das Silber, -s
iron, das Eisen, -s
steel, der Stahl, -es
copper, das Kupfer, -s
lead, das Blei, -es
tin, der Zinn, -es
oil, das Öl, -es
gasoline, das Benzin, -s
coil, die Kohle, -n
fuel, der Brennstoff, -es, -e
wood, das Holz, -es, -er

5. Animals.
animal, das Tier, -es, -e
horse, das Pferd, -es, -e
dog, der Hund, -es, -e
cat, die Katze, -n
bird, der Vogel, -s, -en
donkey, der Esel, -s, -en
mule, das Maulwurf, -es, -e; der
Manlesel, -s, -en
cow, die Kühe, -en, -e
ox, der Ochse, -n, -n
pig, das Schwein, -es, -e
chicken, das Huhn, -es, -en
hen, die Henne, -n
rooster, der Hahn, -es, -en

6. Money, Buying and Selling.
money, das Geld, -es, -er
coin, das Münze, -n, -n; das Geld-
stück, -es, -e
dollar, der Dollar, -s, -en
cent, der Cent, -s, -en
mark, der Mark, -s
pfennig, der Pfennig, -es, -en
bank, die Bank, -en
check, das Konto, -es, -en; die
Bankscheine, -en

money order, die Postanweisung, -en
to earn, verdienen
to gain, to win, gewinnen, gewann,
gewonnen
to lose, verlieren, verlor, verloren
to spend, ausgeben, gibt aus, gab
aus, ausgegeben
to lend, leihen, lieh, geliehen
to owe, schulden; schuldig sein
7. Eating and Drinking.

to eat, essen, isst, aß, gegessen
breakfast, das Frühstück, -s, -e
to eat breakfast, frühstück't
lunch, dinner, das Mittagessen, -s, -
to eat lunch, to dine, zu Mittag
effen
supper, das Abendbrot, -es, -e
to eat supper, Abendbrot essen; zu
Abend essen
meal, die Mahlszeit, -en
dining-room, das Zimmer, -s, -
der Speisesaal, -s, -e
menu, die Speisekarte, -n
waiter, der Kellner, -s, -
waitress, die Kellnerin, -nen
restaurant, das Restaurant, -s, -e;
das Gasthaus, -es, -er

box, die Schachtel, -n, -n; die Dose,
-, -en
basket, der Korb, -es, -es, -e
goods, die Ware, -r, -n
to go shopping, einkaufen gehen
to sell, verkaufen
to buy, kaufen (- a ticket, eine
Fahrkarte lösen)
cost, die Kosten (pl.); der Preis
to cost, kosten
to be worth, wert sein; gelten.
gilt, gilt, galt, gegolten
to rent, hire, mieten, vermieten
to choose, wählen
thief, robber, der Dieb, -es, -e;
der Räuber, -s, -
to steal, stehlen, stiehlt, stahl,
gestohlen
police, die Polizei, -
policeman, der Polizist, -en, -en;
der Schuh, -s
honest, redlich; ehrlich; zuverlässig
dishonest, unehrlich

bill, die Rechnung, -en
to pass, reisen
tip, das Trinksiegel, -es, -er
to drink, trinken, trank, getrunken
water, das Wasser, -s, -e
wine, der Wein, -es, -e
beer, das Bier, -es, -e
coffee, der Kaffee, -s, -
tea, der Tee, -s, -e
milk, die Milch, -
bottle, die Flasche, -n
spoon, der Löffel, -s, -
teaspoon, der Teelöffel, -s, -
knife, das Messer, -s, -
fork, die Gabel, -n
glass, das Glas, -es, -er
cup, die Tasse, -n
napkin, die Serviette, -n
salt, das Salz, -es, -e
pepper, der Pfeffer, -3, -
plate, dish, der Teller, -3, -
bread, das Brot, -es, -e
butter, die Butter, -
roll, das Brötchen, -3, -
sugar, der Zucker, -3, -
soup, die Suppe, -n
rice, der Reis, -es
potato, die Kartoffel, -n
vegetables, das Gemüse, -3, -
meat, das Fleisch, -es
beef, das Rindfleisch, -es
steak, das Rumpfstück, -es, -e
chicken, das Huhn, -es, -es der
chop, das Rosett, -3, -
mutton, das Hamsellsfleisch, -es
lamb, das Lammfleisch, -es
veal, das Kalbsfleisch, -es
pork, das Schweinesfleisch, -es
sausage, die Wurst, -er
ham, der Schinken, -3,
bacon, der Speck, -es
egg, das Ei, -es, -er
fish, der Fisch, -es, -e
fried, gebraten
cooked, gefecht
boiled, gedämpft
roast, geröstet
baked, gebacken
sauce, die Soße, -n (die Sauce)
salad, der Salat, -es, -e
cheese, der Käse, -3, -
fruit, das Obst, -es
apple, der Apfel, -3, -
pear, die Birne, -n
grapes, die Weintrauben
peach, der Pfirsich, -es, -e
strawberry, die Erbseere, -n
nut, die Nuss, -e
orange, die Apfelsine, -n
lemon, die Zitrone, -n
juice, der Saft, -es, -es der
cherry, die Kirsche, -n
dessert, der Nachtisch, -es, -e; die Nachtisches, -n
pastry, das Gebäck, -es; das Bäckerwerk, -es
cake, der Kuchen, -3,

8. Hygiene and Attire.
bath, das Bad, -es, -es der
to bathe, baden
shower, das Stehbad, -es, -es der; das Brausebad, -es, -es der; die Dusche, -n, -n
to wash, (fich) waschen, wäscht, wascht, gewaschen (I wash my hands, ich wasche mir die Hände)
to shave, (fich) rasieren
barber, der Friseur, -3, -e
mirror, der Spiegel, -3, -
soap, die Seife, -n, -n
razor, das Rasiermesser, -3, -
safety razor, der Rasierapparat, -3, -; das Sicherheitsrasiermesser, -3, -
towel, das Handtuch, -es, -es der
comb, der Kamm, -es, -es der
brush, die Bürste, -n
toothbrush, die Zahnbürste, -n, -n
scissors, die Schere, -n, -n
to wear, tragen, trägt, trug, getragen
to take off, ausziehen, zog aus, ausgezogen (one's hat, den Hut abnehmen)
to change, (fich) umziehen, zog um, umgesogen
to put on, (fich) anzühen, zog an, angesogen (I was putting on my coat; ich zog den Rock an)
clothes, die Kleider
hat, der Hut, -es, "-e
suit, der Anzug, -es, "-e
coat, der Rock, -es, "-e
suspenders, die Hosenträger
vest, die Weste, -, -n
pants, die Hosen
underwear, die Unterwäsche,
glove, der Handschuh, -es, -e
socks, die Socken
stocking, der Strumpf, -es, "-e
shirt, das Hemd, -es, -en
collar, der Kragen, -s, -
tie, die Krawatte, -, -n; der
Schlips, -es, -e
overcoat, der Mantel, -s, "-; der
überzieher, -s, -
raincoat, der Regenmantel, -s, "-
pocket, die Tasche, -, -n
handkerchief, das Tuchentuch, -s, "-er

purse, die Handtasche, -, -n
button, der Knopf, -es, "-e
shoe, der Schuh, -es, -e
boot, der Stiefel, -s, -
pocket-book, die Brieftasche, -, -n
pin, needle, die Nadel, -, -n
tie-pin, die Krawattenpin, -, -n
safety-pin, die Sicherheitnadel, -, -n
umbrella, der Regenschirm, -es, -e
watch, die Uhr, -, -en
chain, die Kette, -, -n
ring, der Ring, -es, -e
eyeglasses, die Brille, -, -n
slippers, die Hauschuhe; die Pantoffeln
bath-robe, der Bademantel, -s, "-
dressing-gown, der Schlafrock, -es, "-e


head, der Kopf, -es, "-e
forehead, die Stirn, -, -en
face, das Gesicht, -es, -er
mouth, der Mund, -es, -e
hair, das Haar, -es, -e
eye, das Auge, -s, -n
ear, das Ohr, -es, -en
tooth, der Zahn, -es, "-e
lip, die Lippe, -, -n	nose, die Nase, -, -n
tongue, die Zunge, -, -n
chin, das Kinn, -es, -e
cheek, die Wange, -, -n
mustache, der Schnurrbart, -es, "-e
beard, der Bart, -es, "-e
neck, der Hals, -es, "-e
throat, die Gurgel, -, -n
stomach, der Magen, -s, -

arm, der Arm, -es, -e
hand, die Hand, -, -e
elbow, der Ellbogen, -s, -
wrist, das Handgelenk, -es, -e
finger, der Finger, -s, -
nail, der Nagel, -s, -
shoulder, die Schulter, -, -n
leg, das Bein, -es, -e
foot, der Fuß, -es, "-e
knee, das Knie, -es, -e
back, der Rücken, -s, -
chest, breast, die Brust, -, "-e
ankle, das Kniegelenk, -es, -e
body, der Körper, -s, -; der Leib,
es, -er
blood, das Blut, -es
skin, die Haut, -s, -
heart, das Herz, -en, -en
bone, der Rachen, -s, -
10. Medical

doctor, der Docteur, -s, -en; der Arzt, -es, -e
drug-store, die Apotheke, -n, -n
hospital, das Spital, -es, -er; das Krankenhaus, -es, -er
medicine, die Medizin, -en, -en; die Arznei, -en
pill, die Pillle, -n
prescription, das Rezept, -es, -e
bandage, der Verband, -es, -e
nurse, die Krankenschwester, -n, -n
ill, krank
fever, das Fieber, -s, -
ilness, die Krankheit, -en
swollen, geößwollen
wound, die Wunde, -n, -n
injury, die Verletzung, -en, -en
wounded, verwundet
injured, verletzt
head-ache, das Kopfweh, -es; die Kopfschmerzen (pl.)
tooth-ache, das Zahnwel, -es; die Zahnschmerzen (pl.)
cough, der Husten, -s, -
to cough, husten
lame, lahm
burn, die Brandwunde, -n, -n
pain, der Schmerz, -es, -en
poison, das Gift, -es, -e

11. Military.

war, der Krieg, -s, -e
peace, der Friede(n), -es, -e
ally, der Verbündete, -n, -n
enemy, der Feind, -es, -e
army, die Armee, -n, -n; das Heer, -es, -e
danger, die Gefahr, -en
dangerous, gefährlich
to win, siegen; gewinnen, gewannen
to surround, eintreifen; umzingeln; umgeben, gibt um, gab um, umgeben
to arrest, verhaften
to kill, töten
to escape, entkommen (with dative)
to run away, fliehen, floh, geflohen (fein); sich reißen; davонrrennen, rannte davon, davongerannt (fein)
to lead, führen
to follow, folgen (fein); he followed me, er ist mir gefolgt
fear, die Angst, -en, -e; die Furcht, -en
prison, das Gefängnis, -es, -e
prisoner, der Gefangene, -n, -n
comrade, “buddy”, der Kamerad, -en, -en
battle, die Schlacht, -en
to fight, kämpfen
to take prisoner, gefangen nehmen (nimmt, nahm, genommen)
to capture, einfangen, nimmt ein, nahm ein, eingenommen
to surrender, sich ergeben, ergibt sich, ergab sich, sich ergeben; sich aufgeben, gibt sich auf, gab sich auf, sich aufgegeben
to retreat, sich zurückziehen, zog sich zurück, sich zurückzogen
soldier, der Soldat, -en, -en
private, der Gemeinzel, -en, -en
corporal, der Gefreite, -n, -n
sergeant, der Feldwebel, -s, -lieutenant, der Leutnant, -s, -er
(1st, -er der Oberleutnant)
captain, der Hauptmann, -es, -er
major, der Major, -s, -e; der Kommandant, -en, -en
colonel, der Oberst, -en, -en
general, der General, -s, -e (Lt., Maj., Col.-Gen., Generalleutnant, Generalmajor, Generaloberst)
officer, der Offizier, -s, -e (staff, der Stabsoffizier; non-com., der Unteroffizier)
squad, die Rotte, -n
company, die Kompanie, -n
battalion, das Bataillon, -s, -e
regiment, das Regiment, -s, -er
brigade, die Brigade, -n
division, die Division, -en
troops, die Truppen
reinforcements, die Verstärkungen
infantry, die Infanterie
 cavalry, die Kavallerie
 artillery, die Artillerie
 engineers, die Ingenieure
 Alpine troops, die Gebirgstruppen
 tank corps, die Panzerdivisionen
 the Panzertruppen
 motorized, motorisierte
 mounted, beritten
 fortress, die Festung, -en
 sentinel, die (Wach)wache, -n
to stand guard, Wache halten; auf (dem) Posten stehen
guard, die Wache, -n
to be on duty, den Dienst haben
 sign-post, der Stellposten, -s, -e
 das Stellbild, -es, -er; der Wegweiser, -s
 headquarters, das Hauptquartier, -s, -e
 staff, der Stab, -es, -e
 retreat, der Rückzug, -es, -e
 advance, der Vormarsch, -s, -e
 forced march, der Eilmarsch, -es, -e
 to quarter, einquartieren
to forage, maulern; Proviant beischaßen
 casualties, die Verluste (pl.)
wounded, die Verwundeten
 missing, die Vermissten
 dead, die Toten
 militia, die Landwehr
 military police, die Feldgendarmen
 truce, der Waffenstillstand, -es
 navy, die Marine, -; die Flotte, -n
 sailor, der Matrose, -n, -en
 marine, der Marinesoldat, -en, -en
 naval officer, der Seeoffizier, -s, -e; der Offizier-zur-See
 engineer, der Ingenieur, -s, -e
 cadet, der Kadett, -s, -en
 lieutenant, der Leutnant-zur-See
 captain, der Kapitän, -s, -e
 admiral, der Admiral, -s, -e
 warship, das Kriegsschiff, -es, -e
 battleship, das Schlachtschiff, -es, -e
 cruiser, der Kreuzer, -s
 aircraft carrier, das Flugzeugtragerschiff, -es, -e
 destroyer, der Fregatten, -s, -e
 submarine, das U-Boot, -s, -e
 das Unterseeboot
 transport, das Truppentransportschiff, -es, -e
 mine-sweeper, der Minensucher, -s, -e
 auxiliary, das Hilfsschiff, -es, -e
 convoy, das Geleit, -es, -e; das Schiffsgleit; der Geleitzug, -es, -e
 escort, die Begleitung, -en
 weapon, die Waffe, -n
 rifle, das Gewehr, -s, -e
 revolver, der Revolver, -s, -e
 bayonet, das Seitengewehr, -s, -e
das Bajonett, -es, -e
cannon, das Gewehr, -es, -e
ammunition, die Munition, -en, -en
supplies, die Borräte
cartridge, die Patrone, -n, -n
bullet, die Kugel, -en
belt, der Gürtel, -es, -e
knapsack, der Rucksack, -es, -e
tent, das Zelt, -es, -e
map, die Landkarte, -en, -n
camp, das Lager, -es, -e
rope, der Seil, -es, -e; das Seil, -es, -e
flag, die Fahne, -n, -n
helmet, der Helm, -es, -e
uniform, die Uniform, -en, -en
truck, der Lkw, -en, -en
shell, das Geschoss, -es, -e
tank, der Tank, -es, -e; der Panzer (wagen)
to load, laden, laden, geladen
to bomb, shell, bombardieren; befehlen, befehlt, befohlen
to fire, shoot, feuern; schießen, schoß, geschossen
fire!, Feuer!
attention!, Aufmerksamkeit!
forward!, Vorwärts!
halt!, Halte!
bomb, die Bombe, -en, -n
to shoot (military execution), hinrichten

12. Travel.
customs, das Zollamt, -es, -er
passport, der (Reise)pass, -es, -e
ship, das Schiff, -es, -e
steamer, der Dampfer, -es, -es
stateroom, die Kajüte, -en, -n; die Kabine, -n
berth, die Schlafstelle, -en, -n
to travel, reisen (sein)
trip, voyage, die Reise, -en, -n
to leave, depart, abfahren, fährt
spy, der Spion, -es, -e
help, aid, die Hilfe, -en, -n
airplane, das Flugzeug, -es, -e
fighter plane, das Jagdflugzeug
bomber plane, das Kampfflugzeug
dive-bomber, das Sturzkampfflugzeug (das Stuka)
glider, das Gleitflugzeug
airport, der Flughafen, -en, -en
landing field, der Landungsplatz, -es, -e
emergency landing, die Notlandung, -en, -en
gasoline, der Benzin, -es, -e
pilot, der Pilot, -en, -en
machine-gun, das Maschinengewehr, -es, -e
machine gunner, der Maschinengewehrfeuerer, -en, -en
parachute, der Fallschirm, -es, -e
paratroopers, die Fallschirmtruppe, -en, -en
to take off, abfliegen, flog ab, abgelassen (sein)
to land, landen
anti-aircraft gun, die Flak
air wardens, die Luftschutzwache, -en, -en
air-raid shelter, der Luftschutzturm, -es, -e; die Luftschutzstelle, -en

ab, fuhr ab, abgefahren (sein); gefahren (sein)
to arrive, ankommen, kam an, angekommen (sein)
to ride (a conveyance), fahren, fährt, fuhr, gefahren
railroad, die Eisenbahn, -en, -nenation, der Bahnhof, -es, -e
platform, der Bahnsteig, -es, -e
track, die Schiene, -n, -n; das
13. Reading and Writing.

to read, lesen, liest, las, gelesen
newspaper, das Zeitung, -en
magazine, die Zeitschrift, -en
book, das Buch, -es, -er
to write, schreiben, schrieb, geschrieben

to translate, übersetzen
pencil, der Bleistift, -es, -e
chalk, die Krita, -en
blackboard, die Tafel, -en
ink, die Tinte, -en
pen, die Feder, -en
fountain pen, der Füllfederhalter, -es, -e; die Füllfeder, -en


to smoke, rauchen
cigar, die Zigarre, -en
cigarette, die Zigarette, -en
tobacco, der Tabak, -es
match, das Streichholz, -es, -er
give me a light, geben Sie mir bitte Feuer
theatre, das Theater, -es
movies, das Kino, -es
dance, der Tanz, -es, -e
to dance, tanzen
to have a good time, sich amüsieren, sich gut unterhalten

trunk, der Koffer, -es, -er
toilet, der Handtucher, -er, -e
baggage, das Gepäck, -es
port, der Gepäckträger, -er
bus, der Omnibus, -es, -er
street-car, die Straßenbahn, -en
bus, der Omnibus, -es, -er
automobile, das Automobil, -(e)s, -es; der Kraftwagen, -es
taxi, die Taxi, -en
driver, der Chauffeur, -er, -e
to drive, fahren, fahren

toilet paper, das Papier, -(e)s, -e
writing paper, das Schreibpapier, -(e)s, -e
post-card, die Postkarte, -en
envelope, der Briefumschlag, -es, -e; das (Brief) Kuvert, -es, -e
letter, der Brief, -es, -e
post-office, das Postamt, -es, -er; die Post, -en
stamp, die Briefmarke, -en; die Freimarke, -en
letter-box, der Briefkasten, -en
to mail, einstecken; absenden
address, die Adresse, -en

ticket, das Billet, -es, -e; die Eintrittskarte, -en
pleasure, das Vergnügen, -en
to play, spielen
to sing, singen, fangen, gefangen
song, das Lied, -es, -er
to take a walk, spazierengehen, ging spazieren, spazierengegangen (fein)
ball, der Ball, -es, -e
beach, der (Meeres) Strand, -en, -e
to swim, schwimmen, schwamm,
15. Town and Country.

place, spot, der Platz, -es, 'e; der Ort, -es, -e
city, die Stadt, -'e
country, das Land, -es, 'er
country, das Land, -es, 'er
city, die Stadt, -'e
country, das Land, -es, 'er
street, die Straße, -'n
sidewalk, der Bürgersteig, -es, -e; das Trottoir, -s, -
intersection, die Kreuzung, -en
block, der Häuserblock, -es, -s; das (Häuser) quadrat, -es, -e
school, die Schule, -'n
church, die Kirche, -'n
building, das Gebäude, -s, -
cathedral, der Dom, -es, -e
corner, die Ecke, -'n
harbor, der Hafen, -s, -er
hotel, das Hotel, -s, -s; der Gasthof, -es, -er
office, das Büro, -s, -s; das Amt, -es, -er
river, der Fluß, -es, -e
bridge, die Brücke, -'n
country, das Land, -es, -er
country, das Land, -es, -er
road, die Landstraße, -'n; die Autobahn, -'en; der Weg, -es, -e
mountain, der Berg, -es, -e
(grass, das Gras, -es, -er
haunt, der Hof, -es, -e
hill, der Hügel, -s, -
forest, wood, der Wald, -es, -er
field, das Feld, -es, -er
flower, die Blume, -'n
stone, der Stein, -es, -e
rock, der Felsen, -s,


doors, die Türen, -en
to open, öffnen; aufmachen
to close, schließen, schloß, geschlossen; zumachen
key, der Schlüssel, -s

to go in, eintreten, tritt ein, trat ein, eingetreten (sein)
house, das Haus, -es, -er (at home, zu Hause; he is going home, er geht nach Hause)
to go out, hinausgehen, ging hinaus, hinausgegangen (sein)
cottage, das Landhaus, -es, -er
hut, die Hütte, -'n
to live (in), wohnen
stairs, die Treppe, -'n
to go up, hinaufsteigen, stieg hinauf, hinaufgestiegen (sein)
to go down, hinuntersteigen, stieg hinunter, hinuntergestiegen (sein); hinuntergehen (sein)
room, das Zimmer, -s, -
toilet, der Abort, -es, -e; die Toillette, -'n
kitchen, die Küche, -'n
table, der Tisch, -es, -e
chair, der Stuhl, -es, -e
to sit down, sich setzen; Platz
17. Miscellaneous Nouns.

people, die Leute (pl.); die Men-

haf en (people say so, man sagt

e)  

thing, das Ding, -es, -e; die Sache,

- en  

name, der Name, -es, -en  

number, die Nummer, -en; die

18. Verbs — Coming and Going.

to come, kommen, kam, gekommen

(sein)  
to go, gehen, ging, gegangen (sein)  
to be going to (use present or future of following verb; I am going to speak to him to-
morrow, morgen spreche ich mit

ihm, or morgen werde ich ihn

sprechen)  
to run, rennen, rannte, gerannt

(sein); laufen, läuft, lief,
gelaufen (sein)  
to walk, (zu Fuß) gehen  

to go away, fortgehen, ging fort,
fortgegangen (sein); weggehen

(sein)  
to fall, fallen, fällt, fiel,
gefallen (sein)  
to stay, remain, bleiben, blieb,
geblieben (sein)  
to follow, folgen (dat.)  
to return, zurückkehren (sein);

(com back, zurückkommen; go

back, zurückgehen) (sein)  
to arrive, ankommen, kam an,
angefommen (sein)

to see, sehen, sieht, sah, gesehen
to look (at), ansehen (he is looking at me, er sieht mich an);
blicken; schauen
to look for, suchen (I am looking for him, ich suche ihn)
to look, seem, appear, scheinen, schien, gesehen; aussehen,

19a. Verbs — Mental.

to make a mistake, sich irren
to hope, hoffen
to wait (for), warten (auf); erwarten
to think (of), denken, dachte, gedacht (an with acc.)
to believe, glauben (I believe him, ich glaube ihm; I believe it, ich glaube es)
to like, gern(e) haben; gefallen, gefällt, gefiel, gefallen (I like him, er gefällt mir)
to wish, wünschen
to want, wollen, will, wollte, gewollt
to need, brauchen
to know (a person), kennen, kannte, gekannt
to know (a fact), wissen, wußte, gewußt
to know how to, können, kann, konnte, geschehen

to see, sehen, sieht, sah, gesehen
to look (at), ansehen (he is looking at me, er sieht mich an);
blicken; schauen
to look for, suchen (I am looking for him, ich suche ihn)
to look, seem, appear, scheinen, schien, gesehen; aussehen,
to recognize, erkennen, erkannte, erkannt
to take for, nehmen für, nimmt für, nahm für, für — genommen
to laugh, lachen
to smile, lächeln
to laugh at, auslachen

to understand, verstehen, verstand, verstanden
to remember, sich erinnern an
to forget, vergessen, vergißt, vergaß, vergessen

to permit, allow, let, lassen, läßt, ließ, gelassen; erlaubte (he permitted me to do it, er hat es mir erlaubt)
to promise, versprechen, verpflicht, versprochen

to forbid, verbieten, verbot, verboten

to learn, lernen
to feel like, Lust haben (I feel like doing it, ich habe Lust, es zu tun)
to fear, be afraid, fürchten (I am afraid of my brother, ich fürchte mich vor meinem Bruder)
to be right, recht haben
to be wrong, unrecht haben


to live, leben
to die, sterben, stirbt, starb, gestorben (fein)
to work, arbeiten
to have just (use eben; I have just read the book, ich habe
eben das Buch gelesen)
to give, geben, gibt, gab, gegeben
to take, nehmen, nimmt, nahm, genommen
to begin, anfangen, fängt an, fing an, angefangen
to finish, beenden; aufhören
(he finished reading, er hörte auf zu lesen)
to continue, keep on, fortfahren;
weitermachen; (I kept on reading, ich las immer weiter)
to help, helfen, hilft, half, geholfen
(he helps me, er hilft mir)
to lose, verlieren, verlor, verloren
to find, finden, fand, gefunden
to try, versuchen
to leave (an object), lassen, läßt, ließ, gelassen
to show, zeigen
to meet, begegnen (dat.); treffen, trifft, traf, getroffen
to do, tun, tat, getan
to make, machen
to have done, machen lassen: (he had a letter written, er hat einen Brief schreiben lassen)
to be able, can, können, kann, konnte, gekonnt
to put, stellen; legen; setzen
to carry, tragen, trägt, trug, getragen
to keep, behalten, behält, behielt, behalten
to hold, halten, hält, hielt, gehalten
to bring, bringen, brachte, gebracht
to stop (self), stehen bleiben, blieb, geblieben (sein)
to stop (another) aufhalten, hält auf, hielt auf, aufgehalten
to stop doing, to cease, aufhören
to cover, bedecken
to get, obtain, bekommen, bekam, bekommen
to get, become, werden, wird, wurde, geworden (sein)
to hide, verschränken; verbergen, verbirgt, verbarg, verborgen
to break, brechen, bricht, brach, gebrochen; zerbrechen
to hurry, eilen; sich beilegen
to deliver, liefern
to catch, fangen, fängt, fing, gefangen
to belong, gehören
to lay, legen
to send, schicken; senden, sandte, gefunden

22. Adjectives.¹⁸

small, klein
large, tall, groß
high, hoch (use höher, -e, -es before a noun; comp. höher; sup. höchst)
short, kürz (opposite of long);
klein (opposite of tall)
low, niedrig
long, lang
wide, broad, breit; weit
narrow, eng
deeep, tief
heavy, schwer
light (in weight), leicht
clean, rein; sauber
dirty, schmutzig
fresh, frisch
cool, kühl
cold, kalt
warm, warm

¹⁸ Note the tendency of adjectives to take umlaut in the comparative and superlative where the root vowel presents the umlaut possibility: groß, größer, größt; lang, länger, längst; kürz, kürzer, kürzest.
hot, heiß
damp, feucht
ewt, naß, feucht
dry, trocken
full, voll (full of wine, voll Bein)
empty, leer
dark, dunkel
light, bright, clear, hell; klar
fat, stark; dick
thick, dick
thin, dünn
round, rund
square, viereckig
flat, flach
soft, weich
hard, hart
quick, schnell
slow, langsam
ordinary, gewöhnlich
comfortable, bequem
uncomfortable, unbequem
near, nah(e) (comp. näher; sup. nächst)
distant, entfernt; weit
right, recht
left, links
poor, arm
rich, reich
beautiful, schön
pretty, hübsch; nett; niedlich
ugly, häßlich
sweet, süß
bitter, bitter
sour, sauer
salty, salzig
young, jung
old, alt
new, neu
goood, gut
better, besser
best, best
bad, schlecht
worse, schlimmer
worst, schlimmst
fine, “regular”, fein; echt
first, erst
last, letz
trong, stark; kräftig
weak, schwach
tired, müde
alone, allein
same, derselbe (dieselbe, dasselbe, pl. dieselben)
true, wahr; richtig; treu
false, wrong, falsch; unwahr
sure, sicher
easy, leicht
hard, difficult, schwer; schwierig
happy, lucky, glücklich (to be lucky, Glück haben)
unhappy, unlucky, ungünstlich (to be unlucky, Unglück haben)
glad, merry, fröhlich; lustig
sad, traurig
free, frei
stupid, dumm
silly, blöde; unsinnig
crazy, verrückt
drunk, betrunken
polite, höflich
good-natured, gemütlich
rude, unhöflich
kind, liebenswürdig
pleasant, angenehm; nett
unpleasant, unangenehm
lonesome, einsam
foreign, fremd; ausländisch
friendly, freundlich
hostile, unfreundlich; feindlich
charming, reizend; halb
afraid, ängstlich (to be - Angst haben)
ready, bereit; fertig
hungry, hungrig (to be - Hunger haben)
thirsty, durftig (to be - Durst haben)
funny, komisch; lächerlich; amüsant
possible, möglich
impossible, unmöglich
brave, tapfer
cowardly, feig

23. Colors.

white, weiß
black, schwarz
red, rot
green, grün
blue, blau

yellow, gelb
gray, grau
brown, braun
pink, rosa
purple, purpurrot, lilac

24. Nationalities.19

American, amerikanisch; der Amerikaner, -s, -; die Amerikanerin
English, englisch; der Engländer, -s, -; die Engländerin
French, französisch; der Franzose, -n, -n; die Französin
German, deutsch; der Deutsche, -n, -n; die Deutsche, -n, -n
Spanish, spanisch; der Spanier, -s, -; die Spanierin
Russian, russisch; der Russe, -n, -n; die Russin
Italian, italienisch; der Italiener, -s, -; die Italienerin
Japanese, japanisch; der Japaner, -s, -; die Japanerin
Chinese, chinesisch; der Chines, -n, -n; die Chinesin
Dutch, holländisch; der Holländer, -s, -; die Holländerin
Norwegian, norwegisch; der Norweger, -s, -; die Norwegerin
Swedish, schwedisch; der Schwede, -n, -n; die Schwedin
Finnish, finnisch; der Finnländer, -s, -; die Finnländerin
Belgian, belgisch; der Belger, -s, -; die Belgierin
Polish, polnisch; der Pole, -n, -n; die Polin
Danish, dänisch; der Däne, -n, -n; die Dänin
Swiss, schweizerisch; der Schweizer, -s, -; die Schweizerin
Portuguese, portugiesisch; der Portugiese, -n, -n; die Portugiesin
Yugoslav, jugoslawisch; der Jugoslawe, -n, -n; die Jugoslawin

19. The adjective is given first, then the noun, in masculine and feminine form (all feminines in -in form their plural in -innen). Note the difference in the use of these forms: the American Navy, die amerikanische Flotte; I am an American, ich bin Amerikaner. Note also the fact that the noun is capitalized, while the adjective is not. For names of languages, use the adjective form as a noun, capitalizing it save after the preposition auf, "in": English (the English language), das Englisch(e); to speak German, Deutsch sprechen; in German, auf deutsch; into German, ins Deutsche.
Bulgarian, bulgarisch; der Bulgare, -n, -n; die Bulgariin
Czech, tschechisch; der Tscheche, -n, -n; die Tschechin
Greek, griechisch; der Griech, -en, -n; die Griechin
Turkish, türkisch; der Türke, -n, -n; die Türkin
Roumanian, rumänisch; der Rumän, -en, -n; die Rumänin
Hungarian, ungarisch; der Ungar, -s, -en; die Ungarin
Austrian, österreichisch; der Österreicher, -s, -; die Österreicherin
Malay, malaiisch; der Male, -n, -n; die Malayin
Persian, persisch; der Perser, -s, -; die Perserin
Arabian, Arab, Arabisch; der Araber, -s, -; die Araberin
Jewish, Hebrew, jüdisch; hebräisch; der Jude, -n, -n; die Jüdin; der
Hebräer, -s, -; die Hebräerin
Australian, australisch; der Australier, -s, -; die Australierin
African, afrikanisch; der Afrikaner, -s, -; die Afrikanerin
Canadian, kanadisch; der Kanadier, -s, -; die Kanadierin
Mexican, mexikanisch; der Mexikaner, -s, -; die Mexikanerin
Cuban, kubanisch; der Kubaner, -s, -; die Kubanerin
Brazilian, brasilianisch; der Brasilianer, -s, -; die Brasilianerin
Argentinian, argentinisch; der Argentinier, -s, -; die Argentinerin
Chilean, chilenisch; der Chilene, -n, -n; die Chilenin
Peruvian, peruanisch; der Peruana, -s, -; die Peruanaerin
Puerto Rican, portorikanisch; der Portorikaner, -s, -; die Portorikanerin

25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, heute
yesterday, gestern
tomorrow, morgen
day before yesterday, vorgestern
day after tomorrow, übermorgen	onight, heute Abend; heute Nacht
last night, gestern Abend (Nacht)
this morning, heute Morgen
in the morning, morgens; am Morgen
in the afternoon, nachmittags; am Nachmittag
in the evening, abends; am Abend in the night, nacht; in der Nacht
this afternoon, heute Nachmittag
tomorrow morning, morgen früh
tomorrow night, morgen Abend (Nacht)
early, früh
late, spät
already, schon
no longer, nicht mehr
yet, still, noch (one more, noch ein;
something more, noch etwas;
many more, noch viele)
not yet, noch nicht
now, jetzt
then, dann; da
afterwards, nachher
just now, jetz
before, earlier, vorher
never, nie, niemals (never again,
nimmermehr)
always, immer
forever, (auf) ewig
soon, bald
often, oft
sometimes, manchmal
seldom, selten
usually, gewöhnlich; meistens
from time to time,
von Zeit zu Zeit; ab und zu
occasionally, gelegentlich
fast, quickly, schnell
slowly, langsam
long ago, längst
here, hier; her
there, da
over there, dort; da über
down there, drinnen
here and there, hier und da;
hin und wieder
to and fro, hin und her
near by, in der Nähe; nah
far away, in der Ferne; weit
treffen.
up (stairs), oben
down (stairs), unten
ahead, in front, vorne
behind, in back, hinten
forward, vorwärts
back, backward, rückwärts
outside, draußen
inside, drinnen
everywhere, überall
also, too, auch
therefore, also; folglich
yes, ja
no, nein
not, nicht
very, much, sehr
little, not much, wenig
good, gut
badly, schlecht
better, besser

worse, schlimmer
only, nur
more, mehr
less, weniger-
as - as, so - wie
as much (many) - as, so viel(e)
wie
how much?, wieviel?
how many? wie viele?
how?, wie?
too much (many), zu viel(e)
really, truly, wirklich
about, approximately, ungefähr
rather, ziemlich
somewhat, etwas
so much (many), so viel(e)
as, like, wie
besides, außerdem
finally, in short, endlich; kurz
almost, fast; beinahe(e)
quite, altogether, ganz
gladly, gerne(e)
certainly, gewiß; sicherlich
at once, gleich; sofort
at all, irgend (anything at all,
irgend etwas; not at all, gar
nicht)
hardly, kaum
aloud, laut
of course, natürlich
suddenly, plötzlich
perhaps, maybe, vielleicht
a little, ein wenig
together, zusammen
again, wieder (again and again
repeatedly, immer wieder)
at least, wenigstens
for lack of, aus Mangel an
and, und  
but, aber  
or, oder  
why?, warum?  
why!, na! (boch! to refute a negative statement)  
because, weil; da  
if, wenn (as if, als wenn, als ob)  
whether, ob  
before, ehe; bevor  
when, as, than, als  
as long as, so lange (wie)  
where, wo (whence, woher; whither, wohin)  
until, bis  
although, obgleich; obwohl; oh Schön  
unless, wenn nicht; ausgenommen;  
es sei denn das  
while, indem; während  
when?, wann?  
that, das  
for, denn; weil  
after, nachdem  
as soon as, so bald  

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.  
such, solch (such a soldier, solch ein Soldat)  
all kinds of, allerlei  
all, everything, all; alles (everything good, alles Gute)  
all, whole, entire, ganz (all the world, die ganze Welt)  
everyone, alle (all the men, all die Leute)  
something, etwas (something bad, etwas Schlechtes)  
someone, jemand  
nothing, nichts (nothing new, nichts Neues)  
no one, niemand  
no (adjective), kein  
either - or, entweder - oder  
neither - nor, weder - noch  
each, every, jeder (jede, jedes) (an)other, (ein) anderer  
much, lots of, viel (lots of good, viel Gutes)  
some, einige  
few, wenige  
many, viele (many a soldier, manch ein Soldat)  
several, a few, mehrere  
little, not much, wenig (not much new, wenig Neues)  
both, beide (both the men, die beiden Männer)  

20. Note that in all dependent clauses the verb is placed at the end of the clause, and if a compound tense is used, the auxiliary follows the participle: he must come, because I’m going home, er muss kommen, weil ich nach Hause gehe; I came before he went home, ich bin angekommen, ehe er nach Hause gegangen ist.

21. Usually takes the subjunctive when English uses “should” or “would”: if I had time, I should do it, wenn ich Zeit hätte, so fände ich es (so würde ich es tun).

22. Usually takes the subjunctive after verbs of saying, thinking, asking: he thought that I was sick, er glaubte, dass ich kranf sei; he asked me whether I was sick, er fragte mich, ob ich kranf sei.
28. Prepositions.

of (use the genitive case); von is occasionally used: the streets of Paris, die Straßen von Paris from, out of, von (d.); aus (d.) to (use the dative case, unless motion is implied); zu (d.); an (d. or a.); nach (d.): I go to him, ich gehe zu ihm; I go to the window, ich gehe an das Fenster; I go to Berlin, ich gehe nach Berlin; I go home, ich gehe nach Hause; to school, in die Schule.

at, an (d. or a.); at the window, am Fenster; at school, in der Schule; at the post-office, auf der Post; at home, zu Hause.

with, mit (d.) without, ohne (a.) in, in (d. or a.); in the country, auf dem Lande; in the streets, auf den Straßen; in German, auf deutsch

on, upon, auf (d. or a.); on Sunday, am Sonntag; on foot, zu Fuße

over, above, across, über (d. or a.) for, für (a.) until, up to, as far as, bis (a.); bis zu (d.); until four o'clock, bis vier Uhr; as far as the school, bis zur Schule

since, seit (d.) toward, zu; an; bis; bis an; bis zu; wider (a.) between, zwischen (d. or a.) among, unter (d. or a.) near, nahe (d.); bei (d.); he stands near me, er steht nahe bei mir

by, von (d.); it was done by him, es wurde von ihm getan far from, weit von before, in front of, vor (d. or a.) after, nach (d.) opposite, gegenüber; opposite me, mir gegenüber

back of, behind, hinter (d. or a.) under (neath), below, unter (d. or a.) instead of, (an)statt (g.) beside, next to, neben (d. or a.); bei (d.) inside of, innerhalb (g.) outside of, außerhalb (g.) at the house of, bei (d.) on account of, because of, wegen (g.)
through, by means of, durch (a.) against, gegen (a.); wider (a.) on the other side of, jenseits (g.) on this side of, diesseits (g.) in spite of, trotz (g.) about, around, um (a.) concerning, von (d.); über (a.) in order to, um - zu during, während (g.)

23. The case required by each preposition (genitive, dative or accusative) is indicated thus: (g.), (d.), (a.). Prepositions taking either the dative or the accusative are used with the former when place where, but no motion, is implied, the latter when there is motion: he stood in the room, er stand im Zimmer; he was going into the room, er ging in das Zimmer. Note am for an dem, im for in dem, ins for in das, aufs for auf das, etc.; these combinations are optional.
29. Special Expressions and Idioms.

good morning, guten Morgen!
good day, guten Tag!
good evening, guten Abend!
good night, gute Nacht!
good-bye, auf Wiedersehen!
I’ll see you later, bis auf Weiters!
I’ll see you tomorrow, bis (auf) Morgen!
I’ll see you tonight, bis zum Abend!; bis heute Abend!
just now, gerade jetzt
hello, hallo! (on the telephone - hier Herr followed by speaker’s name)
how are you?, wie geht’s?
I’m (very) well, es geht mir (sehr; ganz) gut
I’m (much) better, es geht mir (viel) besser
what time is it?, wieviel Uhr ist es?; wie spät ist es?
it’s six o’clock, es ist sechs Uhr
at six o’clock, um sechs (Uhr)
at about six, ungefahr um sechs (Uhr); um sechs Uhr ungefähr
at half past six, um halb sieben
at a quarter to six, um dreiviertel sechs; um viertel vor sechs
at a quarter past six, um viertel nach sechs
last year, letztes Jahr
next year, nächstes Jahr
every day, jeden Tag; täglich
all (the whole) day, den ganzen Tag
please, bitte!
tell me, sagen Sie mir!
bring me, bringen Sie mir!
show me, zeigen Sie mir!
thank you, danke (schön)
don’t mention it, bitte schön; bitte sehr; nichts zu danken; gern gesehn
will you give me?, wollen (würden) Sie mir -(bitte) geben?
pardon me, entschuldigen Sie (bitte)! ; verzeihen Sie!
it doesn’t matter, es macht nichts aus
never mind, lassen Sie es gut sein!
I’m sorry, es tut mir leid
I can’t help it, ich kann mir nicht helfen (I can’t help doing it, ich kann nicht umhin es zu tun)
it’s nothing, es ist ja wirklich gar nichts
what a pity!, wie schade!
it’s too bad, das ist schade
I’m glad, es freut mich; ich freue mich
I have to, ich muss
I agree (all right; O. K.), das ist mir recht; (ich bin) einverstanden where is (are) ?, wo ist (find) ?
there is (are) (pointing out), da ist (find)
there is (are) (stating), es gibt; es ist (find)
where are you going?, wohin gehen Sie?
which way? (direction), wo?; wohin?; (fashion), wie?; auf welche
Weise?
this (that) way (direction), in dieser (jener) Richtung; hierher; da
über
this (that) way (fashion), auf diese (jene) Weise; so
to the right, nach Rechts
to the left, nach Links
straight ahead, gerade aus
come with me, kommen Sie mit (mir)!
what can I do for you?, womit kann ich dienen?; wie kann ich Ihnen
helfhich sein?
what is it?, what is the matter?, was ist los?; was geht denn da vor?
what is the matter with you?, was fehlt Ihnen?
what do you want?, was wünschen (wollen) Sie?
what are you talking about?, wovon reben Sie?; was erzählen Sie
denn da?; womit handelt es sich eigentlich?
what does that mean?, was heißt das?
what do you mean?, was wollen Sie damit sagen? ; wie meinen Sie?
how much is it?, wieviel kostet es?
anything else?, what else?, noch etwas?, was noch?
nothing else, nichts mehr
do you speak German?, sprechen Sie Deutsch?
a little, ein wenig
do you understand, verstehen Sie?
I don’t understand, ich verstehe nicht
speak more slowly, sprechen Sie langsamer!
do you know?, wissen Sie?
I don’t know, ich weiß nicht
I can’t, ich kann nicht
what do you call this in German?, wie heißt das auf deutsch?
I’m an American, ich bin Amerikaner
I’m (very) hungry, ich bin (sehr) hungriß; ich habe (großen) Hunger
I’m (very) thirsty, ich bin (sehr) durstig; ich habe (großen) Durst
I’m sleepy, ich bin schlafig
I’m warm, mir ist warm (I’m cold, mir ist kalt)
it’s warm (cold, windy, sunny, fine weather, bad weather), es ist
warm (kalt, windig, sonnig, schönes Wetter, schlechtes Wetter)
it’s forbidden, es ist verboten (unterfagt); no smoking, Nicken
verboten
luckily, fortunately, glücklicherweise
unfortunately, unglücklicherweise; leider
is it not so?, nicht wahr? (use this invariable expression wherever
English repeats the question: you are going, aren’t you?; he is,
 isn’t he?)
not at all, gar nicht; nicht im geringsten
how old are you?, wie alt sind Sie?
I’m twenty years old, ich bin zwanzig Jahre alt
how long have you been here?, wie lange sind Sie (schon) hier?
how long have you been waiting?, wie lange warten Sie schon?
as soon as possible, so bald wie möglich
come here, kommen Sie (hier) her!
come in! eintreten!; herein!
look!, sehen Sie!
look out!, careful!, Vorsicht!; Achtung!
just a moment!, einen Augenblick!
darn it!, verdammt!; verflucht!
darn the luck!, zum Teufel noch mal!
for heaven’s sake!, um Gottes Willen!
gangway!; one side!, aufpassen, bitte!; passen Sie auf!; Achtung!
Vorsicht!
as you please, wie es Ihnen beliebt
listen!, hören Sie mal!
look here!, say!, sagen Sie mal!
may I introduce my friend?, darf ich meinen Freund vorstellen (bekannt
machen?)
glad to meet you, es freut mich Sie kennen zu lernen; sehr angenehm
no admittance, kein Eingang!; Eintritt verboten!
notice!, Bekanntmachung!
nonsense!, Unfinn!
to your health!, pro sit!; pro sit!
I should like to, ich möchte (geru)
as quickly as possible, so schnell wie möglich
stop!, halte!
keep right (left), rechts (links) fahren!
entrance, Eingang
exit, Anschlag
hurry!, beseilen Sie sich!
warning!, Achtung!; Vorsicht!
Chapter V

Languages of the Romance Group

This large and important language group, vying with the Germanic for first place in number of speakers and cultural importance among the Indo-European families, is characterized by descent from a common and almost fully known ancestor, Latin, in its Classical and Vulgar varieties. Of the five national languages of this group (French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Roumanian) the first four are numerically and culturally of somewhat comparable importance, each within its own sphere.

French, the native tongue of nearly 60,000,000 people in France, Belgium, Switzerland, Canada and Haiti, is also an extremely widespread cultural and secondary tongue (it has been estimated that perhaps 50,000,000 additional people throughout the world can be reached with it), and a language of colonization second only to English in importance (the colonial populations under French rule amount to over 80,000,000 people).

Spanish, the national tongue of Spain (over 25,000,000) and the official tongue of the Spanish colonies (about 1,000,000), is also the primary language of Mexico, most of Central America and the Antilles, and of South America outside of Brazil and the Guianas. The total number of Spanish speakers in the Western Hemisphere is over 30,000,000.

Portuguese serves Portugal (about 8,000,000) and the Portuguese colonies (nearly 11,000,000). As the national tongue of Brazil (44,000,000), Portuguese reaches a total population of over 60,000,000.

Italian, the national tongue of Italy (45,000,000), is usable in Italy’s colonial empire (Dodecanese, Libya, Italian
East Africa, etc. — about 13,000,000), and is current among large immigrant groups in North and South America, totalling perhaps 10,000,000.

The rich cultural background of all these languages gives them added importance.

Roumanian, the fifth tongue of the group, serves perhaps 16,000,000 of pre-war Roumania’s 20,000,000 inhabitants, with additional small and isolated groups on Russian, Yugoslav, Hungarian, Greek and Italian territory.

Rumansh (Ladin, Rhetian), in its Engadine-Grisons variety, may be termed a sixth national tongue, its use having recently been made official in Switzerland. Swiss native speakers of Rumansh, however, number less than 50,000, and a far larger number of Rumansh speakers (about 1,000,000) is located on Italian soil, in the plain of Friuli and the valleys of the Trentino.

Among non-national Romance varieties which nevertheless possess a cultural and literary background are Provençal (once a fairly unified, literary language spoken throughout southern France; today only a series of local dialects); Catalan (spoken in Catalonia, Andorra, the southeastern Pyrenean region of France, the Balearic Islands, and extending, with slight variations, into the Spanish region of Valencia); Sardinian (spoken in central and southern Sardinia, and differing so radically from Italian that it can in no way be classed as an Italian dialect); Galician (used in the extreme northwest of Spain and forming part of the Portuguese rather than of the Spanish dialectal system). Some dialects of French (Picard, Norman, Walloon, Lorrain, etc.) and of Italian (Sicilian-Calabrian, Neapolitan-Abruzzese, Venetian, and the so-called Gallo-Italian dialects — Piedmontese, Lombard, Emilian and Ligurian) display such strong divergences from the national tongues that one may safely assert that political circumstances alone have prevented them from developing into national languages.

The following series of words will serve to illustrate the
major points of similarity and divergence among the national Romance languages, and their relationship to the original Latin and to one another. Other resemblances and differences will become evident in the course of the discussion of the individual languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Spanish</th>
<th>Portuguese</th>
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<td>ocho</td>
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<td>nueve</td>
<td>nove</td>
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<td>dez</td>
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<td>cent</td>
<td>cento</td>
<td>cento</td>
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<td>mille</td>
<td>mil</td>
<td>mil</td>
<td>mille</td>
<td>mie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional points of resemblance and difference may be gathered from the following translations of John 3.16 (For God so loved the world that He gave His only begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in Him should not perish, but have everlasting life):

Latin: Sic enim Deus dilexit mundum, ut Filium suum unigenitum daret, ut omnis, qui credit in eum, non pereat, sed habeat vitam aeternam.

French: Car Dieu a tellement aimé le monde, qu’il a donné son Fils unique, afin que quiconque croit en lui ne périsse point, mais qu’il ait la vie éternelle.

Provençal (modern; Grasse): Car Diéu a tant ama lou mounde que i’a dona soun Fiéu soulet, per que tout ome que créi en éu noum perigue, mai ague la vida eternalo.

Catalan: Car talment ha estimat Déu el món, que donà son Fill unigènit, a fi que tot el qui creu en ell no es perdi, ans tingui vida eterna.

Spanish: Porque de tal manera amó Dios al mundo, que dió a su Hijo unigénito, para que todo aquel que cree en él, no perezca, mas tenga vida eterna.

Portuguese: Porque assim amou Deus ao mundo, que lhe
deu seu Filho unigénito, para que todo o que crê nêle não pereça, mas tenha a vida eterna.
Italian: Infatti Dio ha talmente amato il mondo da dare il suo Figliuolo unigenito, affinché chiunque crede in Lui non perisca, ma abbia la vita eterna.
Roumanian: Fiindcă atât de mult a iubit Dumnezeu lumăa, că a dat pe singurul Lui Fiu, pentru că oricine crede în El, să nu piară, ci să aibă viaţa vecinică.
Rumansh (Lower Engadine): Perche cha Deis ha tant amâ il muond, ch’el ha dat seis unigenit figl, acio cha scodùn chi craja in el non giaja a perder, ma haja la vita eterna.
Among grammatical characteristics common to all the Romance languages may be mentioned: a) the reduction of grammatical genders to a masculine-feminine system, with the old Latin neuter gender generally discarded, and Latin neuter nouns becoming either masculine or feminine;¹ b) the disappearance of the Latin inflectional system for nouns and adjectives, so that there are today no separate “cases” for nouns in the Romance languages, which indicate case-relations, even more exclusively than English, by means of word-order and prepositions;² c) retention of the inflectional system for verbs, which are generally used (save in French) without the subject pronoun, since distinctive endings for persons and numbers still appear.

1. A few traces of the Latin neuter appear today, in some Italian and Roumanian irregular plurals (It. il braccio, le braccia; Roum. brațul, brațele); in the Spanish “neuter” article lo and the Spanish and Portuguese “neuter” demonstrative pronouns (esto, eso, aquello; isto, isso, aquilo); in a few French forms like ceci and cela; etc. But for practical purposes, it may be asserted that the neuter gender has disappeared from the Romance tongues.

2. Roumanian is an exception to this, having retained a separate nominative-accusative and genitive-dative, as well as occasional vocative forms. Roumanian also distinguishes itself from its sister Romance tongues by using a definite article which is added on to the noun, instead of being used before the noun. Considerable trace of the Latin inflectional system still appears in Romance personal pronouns (e. g., French il, le, la, lui; ils, les, leur, eux, elles).
In syntax, word-arrangement within the sentence, use of verb-tenses and moods, the Romance languages, possessing a common point of departure and having enjoyed very close cultural relations throughout their history (with the exception of Roumanian), are fairly close to one another, so that literal word-for-word translation from one to another is usually possible; this applies more to the literary and cultivated than to the lower-class language.

Vocabulary resemblances are fairly common, as may be seen from the list of words in ordinary use given above. Striking divergences also appear, however. The vocabularies of Spanish and Portuguese have borrowed extensively from Arabic, those of French and Italian from Germanic, and that of Roumanian from Slavic.

Some degree of mutual comprehensibility, especially among the more cultured classes, is fairly general for Spanish, Portuguese and Italian, but does not extend to French and Roumanian without special study.

Distinctive of the written languages are the symbols ç in Portuguese and French; ū in Spanish; ā, ą, lh, nh in Portuguese; ă, ş, ţ in Roumanian.

Distinctive of the spoken tongues are the nasal sounds of French and Portuguese; the middle vowels (represented in writing by u, eu, oeu) of French; the ā, ĩ of Roumanian (a sound which Roumanian shares with Russian, and the closest English approximation to which is the y of “rhythm”); the clearly audible double consonant sounds of Italian; the guttural j of Spanish; the uvular r of Parisian French, in contrast to the trilled r of the other languages (the trilled r is quite common in provincial French).

3. The word for “bat”, for instance, is chauve-souris in French, murciélago in Spanish, pipistrello in Italian; while negro may be used for “black” in Portuguese, the more common word is prêto, which would be incomprehensible elsewhere save in Spanish (prieto), where it is far less commonly used.
ROUMANIAN

ALPHABETIC NOTATION — as in English; k, q, w, y appear only in foreign words. Additional symbols: ā, â, ĕ, ĕ, ş, ţ.

SOUNDS

a = father; ā = bacon; both â and ĕ = sound somewhat similar to Eng. rhythm; there is no difference between â and ĕ;
ĕ is used initially (în); ā generally within the word (cânta).

e initially often = yes; elsewhere, = met; i = machine; o = or; u = food.
c before a, o, u or consonant (and also ch before e, i) = cold.
c before e, i = chill.
g before a, o, u or consonant (and also gh before e, i) = go.
g before e, i = gin.
j = pleasure.
s = so, never rose.
ş = sure.
ţ = hearts.

There is no definite rule of accentuation; the accent generally falls on the last, second from last, or third from last syllable; words of two syllables are generally accented on the first; words ending in -ar, -at, -el, -esc, -et, -ent, -ez, -os, are generally stressed on the last syllable. The only written accent is ` used on the final vowel of verb-forms when no other diacritic mark appears (cântă, “to sing”).

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

Articles and nouns.

There are in Roumanian two cases, a nominative-accusative and a genitive-dative (separate vocative forms also appear).
There are only two genders, masculine and feminine. Outside of natural gender, nouns ending in consonants are generally masculine, those in -ă generally feminine. The indefinite article is un (gen.-dat. unui) for the masculine; o (gen.-dat. unei) for the feminine: un amic, "a friend"; unui amic, "to, of a friend"; o mamă, "a mother"; unei mame, "to, of a mother".

The definite article is added on to the noun. Masculine nouns ending in -e add le (rege, "king"; regele, "the king"); masculine nouns ending in consonants add -ul (domn, "gentleman"; domnul, "the gentleman"; cal, "horse"; calul, "the horse"). Feminine nouns ending in -ă change -ă to -a (mamă, "mother"; mama, "the mother"; soră, "sister"; sora, "the sister"); feminine nouns ending in -e add -a (carne, "meat"; carnea, "the meat"; servitoare, "maid"; servitoarea, "the maid").

The genitive-dative case is indicated in the masculine by adding the article -lui if the noun ends in a vowel, -ului if it ends in a consonant (regelui, "of, to the king"; domnului, "of, to the gentleman"; calului, "of, to the horse"). In the feminine, it is indicated by changing -ă or -e to -ei (mamei, "of, to the mother"; sorei, "of, to the sister"; servitoarei, "of, to the maid").

In the plural, masculine nouns ending in -e change -e to -i, while those ending in consonants add -i (domn, pl. domni, "gentlemen"; rege, pl. regi, "kings"). To this -i, another -i is added for the article (domnii, "the gentlemen"; regii, "the kings"); but to form the genitive-dative, the second -i is replaced by -lor (domnilor, "of, to the gentlemen"; regilor, "of, to the kings"). Feminine nouns in -ă change to -e in the plural (mamă, pl. mame, "mothers"; those in -e remain for the most part unchanged: servitoare, pl. servitoare); the definite article is then suffixed by adding -le (mamele, "the mothers"; servitoarele, "the maids"), or -lor if the genitive-dative form

4. But see end of n. 5.
is desired (mamelor, “of, to the mothers”; servitoarelor, “of, to the maids”.

Adjectives.

These agree with their nouns, both in the attributive and in the predicate position (câi sunt buni, “the horses are good”). In the attributive position, the adjective may precede or follow the noun; if the adjective precedes, it takes the definite article instead of the noun: fratele bun or bunul frate, “the good brother”; fratele bun or bunul frate, “of or to the good brother”; mama bună or buna mamă, “the good mother”; mamelor bune or bunele mame, “of or to the good mothers”.

The comparative is formed by prefixing mai to the positive (mai bun, “more good”, “better”); the superlative by using cel (fem. cea, masc. pl. cei, fem. pl. cele) before the comparative: cel mai bun, “best”. așa de...ca, “as...as”: boul este tot așa de tare ca și calul, “the ox is as strong as the horse”. de cât, “than”: boul este mai tare de cât calul, “the ox is stronger than the horse”.

The adjective without an ending is generally used as an adverb: el scrie grozav, “he writes horribly”.

Numerals.

1 — un (fem. una) 5 — cinci
2 — doi (fem. două) 6 — șase
3 — trei 7 — șapte
4 — patru 8 — opt

5. There are many exceptions to the above rules (e. g., soră, “sister”, pl. surori; carne, “meat”, pl. cărnuri; cal, “horse”, pl. cai). The rules are further complicated in the case of many nouns by the change of final -t, -d, -s to -f, -z, -și, respectively, before the plural -i (frate, “brother”, pl. frați; urs, “bear”, pl. urși). Several nouns that are masculine in the singular become feminine in the plural (brațul, “the arm”; brațele, “the arms”; and since these are derived mainly from Latin neuters, some Roumanian grammarians choose to describe them as forming a third, “ambigen”, or “neuter” gender.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Romanian</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Romanian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>nouă</td>
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<td>trei-zeci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>zece</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>patru-zeci</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>un-spre-zece</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>o sută</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>doi-spre-zece</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>două sute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>două-zece</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>o mie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>două-zece și trei</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>două mii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,000,000 — un milion</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
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**Pronouns.**

**Personal.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
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<th>Second Person</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
<td><strong>Second Person</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> eu, “I”</td>
<td><strong>tu, “you”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> mie, “to me”</td>
<td><strong>ți, “to you”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(mi, îmi)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(ți, îți)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> mine, pe mine (mă), “me”</td>
<td><strong>tine, pe tine (te), “you”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Third Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>el, “he”</strong></td>
<td><strong>ea, “she”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>lui, “to him”</strong></td>
<td><strong>ei, “to her”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(’i, ți)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(’i, ți)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>pe el, “him”</strong></td>
<td><strong>pe ea, “her”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(îl)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(o)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>First Person</strong></td>
<td><strong>Second Person</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> noi, “we”</td>
<td><strong>voi, “you”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> nouă, “to us”</td>
<td><strong>vouă, “to you”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(ni)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(vî)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> pe noi, “us”</td>
<td><strong>pe voi, “you”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(ne)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(vă)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Third Person</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>ei, “they”, m.</strong></td>
<td><strong>ele, “they”, f.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>lor, “to them”</strong></td>
<td><strong>lor, “to them”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(li)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(lî)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>pe ei, “them”, m.</strong></td>
<td><strong>pe ele, “them” f.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>(’i, îi)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(le)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The subject pronouns may be omitted: *el a auzit*, or *auzit*, “he has heard”. The forms given above in parentheses are used as direct or indirect objects with verb-forms, which they normally precede, save in the imperative. Often both the prepositive object pronoun and the longer form following the verb are used: *Dumneia-Voastră nu m'ăți văzut pe mine*, “you didn’t see me”. *Dumneia-Voastră* (“Your Lordship”) with the second person plural of the verb is generally used in polite address. In writing, it is generally abbreviated to *Dv.* or *Dvs.*

Possessive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“my”, “mine”</td>
<td>meu</td>
<td>mea</td>
<td>mei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“your”, “yours”</td>
<td>tău</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>tăi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“his”, “her”</td>
<td>său</td>
<td>sa</td>
<td>săi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“our”, “ours”</td>
<td>nostru</td>
<td>noastră</td>
<td>noștri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“your”, “yours”</td>
<td>vostru</td>
<td>voastră</td>
<td>voștri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“their”, “theirs”</td>
<td>lor</td>
<td>lor</td>
<td>lor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The article is used with the noun when the possessives are used as adjectives: *amicul tău*, “your friend”. When they are used as pronouns, prefix *al, a, ai, ale*: *calul vecinului vostru și al meu*, “your neighbor’s horse and mine”.

Demonstrative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“this”, “these”</td>
<td>acest</td>
<td>această</td>
<td>acești</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“that”, “those”</td>
<td>acel</td>
<td>acea</td>
<td>acei</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relative and Interrogative.

care or *ce*, “who”, “which”, “that”; *cine?*, “who?”; *pe cine?*, “whom?”; *cui?, “to whom?”*; *a cui?* “whose?”; *ce?, “what?”*; *care?, “which?”*. 
Verbs.

a fi, "to be": Present: sunt, ești, este, suntem, sunteți, sunt
   Imperfect: eram, erai, eră, eram, erați, erau
a avea, "to have": Present: am, ai, a (or are), avem, aveți, au.
   Imperfect: aveam, aveai, avea, aveam, aveați, aveau.

There are four conjugations, ending respectively in -ă, -i, -e, -ă: cântă, "to sing"; dormi, "to sleep"; tăceă, "to be silent"; vinde, "to sell".

The present indicative normally has no ending in the first singular and third plural (dormi, "I or they sleep"); -i in the second singular (dormi, taci); -ă for -ă verbs, -e for others in the third singular (cântă, tace, vinde); -ăm for -ă verbs, -im for -i verbs, -em for others in the first plural (cântăm, dormim, vindem); -ați, -iți, -eți in the second plural (cântați, dormiți, vindeți).

Other tenses include an imperfect; a past; a future (which is formed with "to want": voi, vei, va, vom, veți, vor, followed by the infinitive: voi cântă, "I shall sing"); compound tenses formed with avea, "to have", followed by the past participle (am cântat, "I have sung"); am dormit, "I have slept"; am tăcut, "I have kept silent"); subjunctives, regularly preceded by să (să aud, "that I hear"); and conditionals (aș, ai, ar, am, ați, ar followed by the infinitive: aș cântă, "I should sing"). The passive is formed by "to be" with the past participle (sunt lăudat, "I am praised"; fui lăudat, "I was praised"). A reflexive conjugation appears, similar to that of other Romance languages, with dative or accusative pronouns (see pages 176-7) and se in the third person: se spală, "he washes himself"; pentru ce nu te speli?, "why don't you wash yourself?"; spală-te!, "wash yourself!"

IDENTIFICATION

The symbols ă, ș, ț are characteristic of Roumanian. Typical are also the -ul, -lui, -lor endings of nouns.
SAMPLE OF WRITTEN ROUMANIAN

Limba Românească

Mult e dulce și frumoasă
Limba, ce vorbim!
Altă limbă armonioasă
Ca ea nu găsim!
Sală inima 'n plăcere,
Când o ascultăm,
Și pe buze aduce miere,
' Când o cuvântăm.
Românașul o iubește
Ca sufletul său,
O! vorbiți, scrii românește,
Pentru Dumnezeu!

The Roumanian Language

Very sweet and beautiful is
the language that we speak!
Another harmonious language
like it we do not find!
The heart leaps up in pleasure
when we listen to it,
And to the mouths it brings honey,
when we speak it.
The Roumanian loves it
as his own breath (of life),
Oh! speak, write Roumanian,
for (the love of) God!

VOCABULARY

(Mainly of Latin origin, but with strong Slavic infiltrations; note synonyms from two sources: față or obraz, “face”; timp or vreme, “time”).

și, “and”
că, “that”
sau, “or”
când, “when”
pentru ce?, “why?”
pentru că, “because”
despre, “about”
bucuros, “gladly”
astăzi, “today”
ieri, “yesterday”
mâine, “tomorrow”
acolo, “there”
aproape, “near”
a da, “to give”
cât?, “how much?”
mult, “much”
foarte, “very”
da, “yes”
nu, “not”, “no”
nimic, “nothing”
bine, “well”
acum, “now”
lă dreapta, “to the right”
lă stânga, “to the left”
jos, “down”
acasă, “at home”
apă, “water”
cuțit, “knife”
o, “egg”
vă, “wine”
ceaiu, “tea”
frânciță, “fork”
pâine, “bread”
poame, “fruit”
bere, “beer”
lingură, “spoon”
ceașcă, “cup”
unt, “butter”
lapte, “milk”
cafea, “coffee”
a sta, “to stand”
poate, “perhaps”
cu, “with”
fiără, “without”
in, “in”
în loc de, “instead of”
sub, “under”
ruă, “bad”, “badly”
unde?, “where?”
aci, “here”
sus, “up”
afară, “out”
amână, “to eat”
a se jucă, “to play”
imi place, “I like”
mi-e frig, “I’m cold”
mi-e cald, “I’m warm”
mi-e somn, “I’m sleepy”
mi-e bine, “I’m well”
mi-e foame, “I’m hungry”
vă rog, “please”
cât e ceasul? “what time is it?”
ce seară frumoasă! “what a beautiful evening!”
totdeauna, “always”
niciodată, “never”
înainte de, “before”
in fața, “in front of”
in dosul, “behind”
albastra, “blue”
roșu, “red”
alb, “white”
galben, “yellow”
bună dimineața, “good morning”
bună ziua, “good day”
bună seara, “good evening”,
“good night”
la revedere, “good-bye”
ce mai faceți?, “how are you?”
multumesc, “thank you”
noroc!, “your health!”, “good luck!”
scuzați-mă, “excuse me”
cât costă?, “how much is it?”
prea scump, “too much”
vorbiți engleză?, “do you speak English?”
îmi pare rău, “I’m sorry”
ați înțeles?, înțelegeți?, “do you understand?”
nu înțeleg, “I don’t understand”
vorbiți mai încet, “speak more slowly”
cum vă numiți?, “what is your name?”
mă numesc —, “my name is —”
adu-mi, “bring me”
puteți să-mi dați?, “can you give me?”
cât timp?, “how long?”
la șase și jumătate, “at half past six”
la șase fără un sfert, “at a quarter to six”
sunt bolnav, “I am ill”
care este drumul spre —?, “which is the way to —?”
nu e așa?, “isn’t it so?”
unde este?, “where is?”
pe aici, “this way”
poștiți înăuntru!, “come in!”
domnule, “sir”
domnișoară, “miss”, “young lady”
destul!, “enough!”
CHAPTER VI

FRENCH

SPEAKERS AND LOCATION

(*All population figures are approximate*)

Europe — France — 42,000,000; Belgium — 4,500,000; Switzerland — 2,000,000; scattered groups of French speakers in extreme northwestern Italy (Val d’Aosta, Pinerolo); spoken side by side with German, but not so extensively, in Luxembourg. Widely used as a secondary, cultural, diplomatic and commercial language throughout continental Europe, particularly in Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Poland, Russia.

Africa — Language of colonization in the following countries: Algeria (8,000,000); Belgian Congo (14,000,000); Cameroon (2,500,000); French Equatorial Africa (3,500,000); French West Africa (16,000,000); Madagascar (4,000,000); Morocco (7,000,000); Tunisia (3,000,000); French Somaliland (50,000). Widely used as a secondary and cultural language in Egypt.

Asia — Tongue of colonization in French Indo-China (24,500,000); Syria and Lebanon (4,000,000); French cities on the coasts of India and China (Pondichéry, Kwang-chow, etc. — about 500,000). Used as cultural language in other Asiatic countries, notably Turkey, Iran, Japan, China.

Oceania — Tongue of colonization in French Pacific possessions (French Oceania, New Caledonia, New Hebrides, West Samoa, etc. — about 250,000).

Western Hemisphere — Canada (Quebec and Ontario) —
3,000,000 (an additional 1,000,000 in New England); Haiti — 3,000,000. Tongue of colonization in French American possessions (Guadeloupe, Martinique, French Guiana — about 750,000). Widely used as a cultural, secondary and diplomatic tongue in all countries of Latin America, especially Argentina and Mexico, and as a cultural language in the U. S. A. and English-speaking Canada.

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, x, y, z (k and w appear only in a few words of foreign origin: képi, kilo, wagon).

Vowel sounds: usually short (never as short as English short vowels), but occasionally prolonged in stressed syllable; length is to be learned by observation.

a = hat (this is the more usual value: là); or
  = father (this is less frequent: pas; but it is normal when the vowel bears the circumflex accent: âge).

e = met, when the vowel bears the grave or circumflex accent (père, fenêtre), also when it does not come at the end of the syllable (cf. Syllabification, p. 187: let-tre, intérêts-sant, aler-te, a-mer);
  = first part of a in Eng. gate when the vowel bears the acute accent (fermé); also in final -er and -ez of verb forms (aimer, aîmez);
  is completely silent in -e and -es endings of words of more than one syllable (amie, balle, portes); also in the third plural endings of verbs (portent);
  = the (with a slight projection of the lips) in most other positions (le, remettre).

i = machine (vie, il).

o = bought (mode); or
  = first part of o in Eng. go (nos; the latter value is rarer, but always appears when the vowel is the last sound in the word, or bears the circumflex accent:
nôtre, with closed sound, as opposed to notre, with open sound).

u = sound intermediate between feed and food (mur, tu). Place tongue in position for feed, lips in position for food.

ai, at the end of a verb-form = first part of gate (j’aurai).

ai, in other positions, and ei in all positions = met (faire, avait, neige).

au, eau = first part of go (aussi, beau).

ou = food (oublier).

eu, oeu = sounds intermediate between gate and go, or between met and mud; the first sound (gate, with projected lips) occurs more frequently when it is the final sound in a word (peu, voeu); the latter (met, with projected lips) when another sound follows in the same word (heure, seul).

oi = wasp (moi); went if nasalized (moins).

Nasal Vowels: these occur, usually, when the vowel is followed by m or n in the same syllable (bon, in-téressant; cf. Syllabification, p. 187); but not if the m or n is doubled (bonne, homme), in which cases the vowel is pronounced by itself, at the close of the syllable, and the double m or n is joined to the next vowel (bo-nne, ho-mme). To produce the nasal vowel sound, shut off partly the passage between nose and mouth as the vowel is uttered, and refrain completely from pronouncing the n or m:

an, am, en, em = father, with nasal connection partly shut off (an-glaiss, champ, en-core, em-bèter).

on, om = go, with nasal connection partly shut off (on, ombre).

in, im, ain, aim, ein = hat, with nasal connection partly shut off (fin, im-possible, main, sein).

un, um = met, with projected lips, and with nasal connection partly shut off (un, lun-di, par-fum).

Consonant sounds: b, d, f, l, m, n, p, s, t, v, x, y, z, approx.
imately as in English;¹ (d and t, however, are pronounced with tip of tongue touching back of upper teeth, not the palate).

c: before a, o, u or consonant, = cold (comment).
c: before e, i = ice (ici); ç always = ice (ça).
ch: = sure (charbon).
g: before a, o, u or consonant, = go (gonon).
g: before e or i, = pleasure (gilet).
 gn: = canyon (agneau).
h: is normally silent (homme).
j: = pleasure (jeune).
ill, and final -il preceded by a vowel = machine quickly followed by you (fille, travail).²

r: is rolled, with the uvula vibrating toward the palate, like a gentle clearing of the throat in its upper part: rare.

q: as in English, but a following u is normally silent (qui pron. kee; quatre pron. katr); u is also generally silent after g (guerre).

th: = tea (thé).

1. The final consonant of a word is generally silent (finit, pron. fini), but final c, f, l, r are usually sounded (lac, neuf, tel, par); -r, however, is silent in the infinitive ending -er (parler, pron. parlé) and in the ending -ier; the addition of -s does not change the sound of the final consonant (petit or petits, both pron. peti); but the addition of an -e does, causing an otherwise silent final consonant to be pronounced (petite or petites, both pron. petit); laid (ugly) and its masc. pl. form laid are both pronounced lè; but the fem. sg. and pl., laide, loid, are both pronounced lèd.

A final consonant, which would otherwise be silent in accordance with the above, is often carried over to the next word if the latter begins with a vowel or h and forms part of the same thought-unit; les hommes avaient pris cette énorme table is pronounced lé zom zavè pri sè ténorme table. In such linking, final s and x are pronounced as z when carried over, d is pronounced as t, f occasionally as v (les by itself is lé, but les hommes is lé zom; grand by itself is grà, but grandhomme is grà tom; neuf is nöf; but neuf hommes is nö vom).

2. Important exceptions, in which the ill is sounded like machine followed by lamb, are: mille (one thousand); tranquille (quiet); ville (city); village (village).
CAPITALIZATION, SYLLABIFICATION, ACCENTUATION

Do not capitalize je (I), names of days and months (lundi, janvier); adjectives of nationality (français), even if used as names of languages (le français; il parle français); but capitalize if the adjective of nationality refers to people: le Français, the Frenchman; les Français, the French.

In dividing a word into syllables, make sure that a single consonant between two vowels goes with the following, not with the preceding vowel (gé né ral, as against Eng. gen er al); this rule, of great importance in all Romance languages, is doubly important in French, because upon it often depends the nasalization or non-nasalization of the preceding vowel: main, with nasalized ai, and silent n; but lai-ne, with no nasalization and n fully pronounced; in-té-res-sant, with nasalized i and a, and neither n pronounced, but i-nu-ti-le, with no nasalization of i and n fully pronounced with the following u.

French stresses all syllables of a word about equally; this means more emphasis on the final syllable than appears in English, and gives the impression that French stresses the last pronounced syllable in the word. The accent marks of French have already been described (acute: '; grave: '; circumflex: ^). They do not indicate stress on the vowel over which they appear, but serve only to differentiate among the various possible sounds for that vowel. The circumflex may appear on any vowel, which is then often long. The acute and the grave usually appear over the vowel e; but the grave is also occasionally used on other vowels to distinguish between two words having the same pronunciation but different meanings: où, where; ou, or; là, there; la, the.

The cedilla (ç) appears only with c and indicates that the c is sounded like s before a, o or u (reçu).

The diaeresis (¨) is used over a vowel to prevent it from combining with the preceding vowel (Noël, pron. No el, not Nöl).

The apostrophe indicates that a vowel has been dropped
before another vowel or an h (l’assiette for la assiette; l’homme for le homme).

English sounds not appearing in French: all vowels save above; church; gin; thin; this; American r.

French sounds not appearing in English: eu, œu; u; nasalized vowels; French r.

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN FRENCH; USE FOR PRACTICE READING.

Coûte que coûte, il fallait donner le signal aux avions anglais, qui ne pouvaient pas tarder à apparaître dans le ciel sombre et orageux de la nuit. Le tas de bois était là, tel que l’avait soigneusement arrangé la mère François avant la tombée du soleil. Mais comment s’en approcher? Comment y mettre le feu avec ces précieuses allumettes qu’on avait si longtemps conservées pour la besogne? Cette sentinelle allemande, placée à cet endroit où l’on n’avait jamais placé de sentinelle auparavant, restait là, debout, immobile. Pierrot prit une résolution soudaine. La main droite dans la poche de son pantalon, les doigts crispés autour du manche du couteau, il se dirigea lentement, en sifflant, vers le Boche, qui, sans ouvrir la bouche, sans faire un mouvement, le regardait venir. — Bonsoir, monsieur, — lui dit Pierrot, — Est-ce qu’il me serait permis de ramasser quelques morceaux de ce bois? On a froid là-bas. — L’autre fit un vague geste de consentement, lui tourna le dos, et se mit à regarder attentivement du côté de la mer. On connaissait bien Pierrot, depuis les premiers jours de l’occupation; et d’ailleurs, ce n’était qu’un garçon de quinze ans.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

1. Nouns and articles.

French has only two genders, masculine and feminine. Nouns denoting males are normally masculine, those denoting females feminine. For nouns which in English are neuter, the
article, definite or indefinite, indicates the French gender. The
definite article is *le* for masculine singular nouns, *la* for femi-
nine singulars; both masculine and feminine singular nouns
beginning with vowels and (usually) *h* take *l*; the plural of
the definite article is *les*, used without exception for all plural
nouns. The indefinite article is *un* for masculine nouns, *une*
for feminine nouns. Most French nouns form their plural by
the addition of a silent *-s*.4

*le livre*, the book  *les livres*, the books  *un livre*, a book
*la porte*, the door  *les portes*, the doors  *une porte*, a door
*l’homme*, the man  *les hommes*, the men  *un homme*, a man
*l’eau*, the water  *les eaux*, the waters  *une eau*, a water

2. Adjectives and Adverbs.

French adjectives take the same gender and number as the
nouns they modify, regardless of position. Normally, the
adjective adds *-e* for the feminine singular (unless it already

3. *Le* and *les* (but not *la* or *l’*) combine with the prepositions *de*,
“of”, and *à*, “to”, in the following forms: *de le* become *du*; *de les*
become *des*; *à le* become *au*; *à les* become *aux* (*du père*, of the father;
*des hommes*, of the men; *de la mère*, of the mother; *des femmes*, of the
women; *au colonel*, to the colonel; *aux officiers*, to the officers).

*Du*, *de la*, *de l’*, *des* are used with the meaning of “some”, “any”:
*donnez-moi* *de l’eau*, give me (some) water; *avez-vous* *du* *vin*?, have
you (any) wine?; *il a vu* *des hommes*, he saw some men. If the
sentence is negative, however, *de* alone, without the article, is used to
express “some”, “any”: *je n’ai pas de vin*, I haven’t any wine, I have
no wine; *nous n’avons pas de lait*, we haven’t any milk, we have no
milk.

4. Nouns ending in *-s*, *-x*, *-z* remain unchanged in the plural (*le
nez*, the nose; *les nez*, the noses; *la voix*, the voice, *les voix*, the
voices). Most nouns ending in *-al* change *-al* to *-aux*: *le cheval*, the
horse, *les chevaux*, the horses. Most nouns ending in *-au*, *-eu*, *-ou*, add
*-* instead of *-s* to form the plural: *le bateau*, the boat; *les bateaux*, the
boats; *le feu*, the fire; *les feux*, the fires; *le bijou*, the jewel; *les
bijoux*, the jewels.
ends in -e, like triste; fem. same); silent -s for the masculine plural;\textsuperscript{5} -es for the feminine plural.

le grand homme, the great man
les grands hommes, the great men
la grande femme, the great woman
les grandes femmes, the great women
la femme est grande, the woman is great
les hommes sont grands, the men are great

Adjectives usually follow the noun, but a few commonly used ones precede (bon, good; mauvais, bad; petit, small, grand, large, great, tall).

The comparative is generally formed by placing plus (more) before the adjective; the superlative by using the definite article before the comparative: un gros livre, a big book; un plus gros livre, a bigger book; le plus gros livre, the biggest book; un garçon intelligent, an intelligent boy; un garçon plus intelligent, a more intelligent boy; le garçon le plus intelligent de la classe, the most intelligent boy in the class.\textsuperscript{6}

The adverb is generally formed by adding -ment to the feminine singular form of the adjective: grand, great; fem. sg. grande; adverb grandement, greatly; facile, easy, fem. sg. the same; adverb facilement, easily.


a) Cardinal.\textsuperscript{7}

\begin{tabular}{ll}
1 & - un, une \\
2 & - deux \\
3 & - trois \\
4 & - quatre \\
\end{tabular}

5. But the same rules that apply to the plural of nouns generally apply to the plural of adjectives (see note 4). Remember that the addition of -s does not change the sound of the preceding consonant, that of -e does: laid, laids, pron. lè; laide, laides, pron. lèd.

6. Note the double use of the definite article, also the use of de for “in” after a superlative.

7. Use these in dates, save for “the first”: le premier juin, June 1st; le vingt-cinq juin, June 25th.
5 — cinq
6 — six
7 — sept
8 — huit
9 — neuf
10 — dix
11 — onze
12 — douze
13 — treize
14 — quatorze
15 — quinze
16 — seize
17 — dix-sept
18 — dix-huit
19 — dix-neuf
20 — vingt
21 — vingt et un
22 — vingt-deux
30 — trente
40 — quarante
50 — cinquante
60 — soixante
70 — soixante-dix
71 — soixante et onze
72 — soixante-douze
80 — quatre-vingts
81 — quatre-vingt-un
90 — quatre-vingt-dix
91 — quatre-vingt-onze
92 — quatre-vingt-douze
100 — cent
101 — cent un
200 — deux cents
205 — deux cent cinq
1000 — mille (mil in dates)
5000 — cinq mille
1,000,000 — un million (de)
1,000,000,000 — un milliard (de)

8. *Et* connects the two parts of 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71; hyphens connect the two parts of other compound numerals. Use -s in 80 and plural hundreds unless other numerals follow. The final -q of cinq and the final -t of huit are usually sounded. The -x of six and dix is silent when a following noun begins with a consonant; sounded like -z when the following noun begins with vowel or h; sounded like hard -s when there is no following noun.
b) Ordinal.

1st — premier (fém. première) 9th — neuvième
2nd — second or deuxième 10th — dixième
3rd — troisième 11th — onzième
4th — quatrième 19th — dix-neuvième
5th — cinquième 21st — vingt et unième
7th — septième 22nd — vingt-deuxième

(Drop final vowel of cardinal and add -ième, changing f of neuf to v, and q of cinq to qu; use second for the second of two, deuxième where more than two are involved).

c) Others.

half — la moitié (noun): la moitié de ma classe, half of my class;
half — demi (adjective); invariable before the noun, and attached by a hyphen: une demi-heure, half an hour; adds -e if it follows a feminine noun: une heure et demie, an hour and a half.
a pair of — une paire de; a dozen eggs — une douzaine d’œufs; a score of men — une vingtaine d’hommes;
one — une fois; twice — deux fois; three times — trois fois; the first (last) time — la première (dernière) fois.

4 Pronouns.

a) Personal — Subject.

I, je we, nous
you, tu you, vous
he, it, il they (masc.), ils
she, it, elle they, (fem.), elles

These are regularly used with the verb: il parle, he speaks.

9. Use tu with the second singular of the verb only in familiar conversation; vous with the second plural of the verb is the general polite way of addressing either one or more people. Il translates “it” when the noun is masculine in French, elle when it is feminine. voyez-vous le livre? Il est sur la table, do you see the book? It is on the table; où est la table? Elle est dans la salle, where is the table? It is in the room.
b) Personal; Direct and Indirect Object.

me, to me, *me*  
you, to you, *te*  
him, it, *le*  
er, it, *la*  
to him, to her, *lui*

us, to us, *nous*  
you, to you, *vous*  
them, *les*  
to them, *leur*

These precede the verb (*je le vois*, I see him; *il me donne le livre*, he gives me the book), save in the imperative affirmative, where the object pronouns are attached to the verb by a hyphen, and *moi* and *toi* replace *me* and *te* (*prenez-le*, take it; *donnez-moi le livre*, give me the book). In the imperative negative, the general rule holds (*ne le prenez pas*, don’t take it; *ne me donnez pas le livre*, don’t give me the book). If the direct and indirect object pronoun are used together, put the indirect before the direct (*il me le donne*, he gives it to me; *je vous les donne*, I give them to you), unless both are third person (*je le lui donne*, I give it to him; *vous les leur donnez*, you give them to them), or the imperative affirmative is used (*donnez-les-nous*, give them to us; but *ne nous les donnez pas*, don’t give them to us).

Y, “there”, “in that place”, “to that place”, and en “of it”, “of them”, “some”, “any” (the latter meanings when the noun does not appear), follow the same rules of position, being placed after all other pronouns: *je l’y ai vu*, I saw him there; *il m’en a donné*; he gave me some. Y also means “to it”, “to them”, referring to inanimate objects: I am going to it, *j’y vais*.

c) Personal (with prepositions or alone).

I, me, *moi*  
you, *toi*  
he, him, *lui*  
she, her, *elle*

we, us, *nous*  
you, *vous*  
they, them (masc.), *eux*  
they, them (fem.), *elles*

*avec moi*, with me; *sans toi*, without you; *pour eux*, for them; *qui avez-vous vu? Eux*, whom did you see? Them; *qui est là? Moi*, who is there? I.
d) Possessive.

1. *With the noun (adjectives):*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc. Sg.</th>
<th>Fem. Sg.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>my,</td>
<td>mon</td>
<td>ma</td>
<td>mes</td>
<td>our,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your,</td>
<td>ton</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>tes</td>
<td>your,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his,</td>
<td>son</td>
<td>sa</td>
<td>ses</td>
<td>their,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>its,</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*mon frère, my brother; ses soeurs, his sisters; nos parents, our parents; leurs livres, their books; leur soeur, their sister; ma mère, my mother.*

2. *Without the noun (pronouns):*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mine,</td>
<td>le mien</td>
<td>les miens</td>
<td>les miennes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yours,</td>
<td>le tien</td>
<td>les tiens</td>
<td>les tiennes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his,</td>
<td>le sien</td>
<td>les siens</td>
<td>les siennes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hers,</td>
<td>la sienne</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>its,</td>
<td></td>
<td>lès siens</td>
<td>les siennes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*mon frère et le tien, my brother and yours; ses livres et les vôtres, his books and yours.*

e) Demonstrative.

1. *With noun (adjectives):*

this, that,\(^{10}\) *ce, cet* (both forms are masc. sg.; use *ce* before a consonant, *cet* before a vowel or (usually) h: *ce livre*, this or that book; *cet homme*, this or that man;...
cette (fem. sg.): cette femme, this woman, that woman;
these, those,\textsuperscript{10} ces: ces hommes, these or those men; ces femmes, these or those women.

2. Without noun (pronouns):
this, that, this one, that one, the one,\textsuperscript{11} celui (masc.), celle (fem.);
these, those, the ones,\textsuperscript{11} ceux (masc.), celles (fem.).
mon livre et celui qui est sur la table, my book and the one which is on the table; tes soeurs et celles de ton ami, your sisters and those of your friend (your friend’s).
this (referring not to a specific person or thing, but to a general situation or idea), ceci: ceci ne me plaît pas, this does not please me;
that (general situation or idea), cela or ça: cela va bien, that’s all right.

f) Relative.

who, which, that (subject), qui: l’homme qui est arrivé, the man who came; le livre qui est sur la table, the book which is on the table.
whom, which, that (object), que: l’homme que vous avez vu, the man (whom) you saw; le livre que vous avez pris, the book (which) you took.\textsuperscript{12}
whose, of which, of whom, dont: l’homme dont vous avez parlé, the man of whom you spoke; l’homme dont vous avez pris le livre, the man whose book you took (note that the word-order calls for a shift from “whose” to “of whom”: the man of whom you took the book).

\textsuperscript{11} Append -ci or -là to these forms unless a preposition or relative pronoun follows: tes livres et ceux-ci, your books and these.
\textsuperscript{12} Note that the relative pronoun cannot be omitted in French.
which (generally used after prepositions, referring to things; use qui after prepositions referring to persons), lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles: la maison dans laquelle je demeure, the house in which I live (observe that the le- and les- of these forms combine with a preceding de and à: duquel, desquels, auquel, auxquelles, etc.).

g) Interrogative.

who?, qui? or qui est-ce qui?: qui (est-ce qui) est arrivé?, who arrived?

whom?, qui? or qui est-ce que?: qui avez-vous vu? or qui est-ce que vous avez vu?, whom did you see?

what? (subject), qu’est-ce qui?: qu’est-ce qui s’est passé?, what happened?

what? (object), que? or qu’est-ce que?: qu’avez-vous vu? or qu’est-ce que vous avez vu?, what did you see?

which?, which one?, which ones?, lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles?: laquelle de ses soeurs connaissez-vous?, which one of his sisters do you know?

5. Verbs.

French verbs fall into four main classes, distinguished by the infinitive endings -er, -ir, -re, -oir, respectively (parler, finir, vendre, recevoir). The infinitive is the form generally used after prepositions (pour parler, in order to speak; sans finir, without finishing). A present participle, ending in -ant (-issant for -ir verbs) is used after the preposition en with the meaning of “by”, “while” (en vendant, by or while selling). This form cannot be used with “to be” in the English sense of “I am speaking”, which is translated by the simple present (je parle). The subject pronoun is normally used in French.

1. Present Indicative (meaning: I speak, am speaking, do speak).
to speak, parler

I speak, je parl-e
you speak, tu parl-es
he speaks, il parl-e
we speak, nous parl-ons
you speak, vous parl-ez
they speak, ils parl-ent

to sell, vend-re

I sell, je vend-s
you sell, tu vend-s
he sells, il vend
we sell, nous vend-ons
you sell, vous vend-ez
they sell, ils vend-ent

to finish, fin-ir

I finish, je fin-is
you finish, tu fin-is
he finishes, il fin-it
we finish, nous fin-issons
you finish, vous fin-issez
they finish, ils fin-issent

to receive, rec-ev-oir

I receive, je reçois
you receive, tu reçois
he receives, il reçoit
we receive, nous rec-evons
you receive, vous rec-evez
they receive, ils reç-oivent

to be, être: je suis, tu es, il est, nous sommes, vous êtes, ils sont.
to have, avoir: j’ai, tu as, il a, nous avons, vous avez, ils ont.
to go, aller: je vais, tu vas, il va, nous allons, vous allez, ils vont.
to know, savoir: je sais, tu sais, il sait, nous savons, vous savez,
ils savent.
to say, dire: je dis, tu dis, il dit, nous disons, vous dites, ils disent.
to do (make), faire: je fais, tu fais, il fait, nous faisons, vous faites, ils font.

2. Negative and Interrogative Forms.

The negative is normally formed by placing ne before the verb and pas after it: je ne parle pas, I don’t speak. If a compound tense is used, pas is placed between the auxiliary and the past participle: je n’ai pas parlé, I haven’t spoken. Other negative particles (point, at all; jamais, never; personne, nobody; rien, nothing) may replace pas: je ne parle point, I’m not speaking at all; je ne l’ai jamais vu, I have never seen him;
je n'ai rien vu, I have seen nothing; but personne follows the past participle: je n'ai vu personne, I have seen no one.

The interrogative may be formed by inverting subject and verb, if the subject is a pronoun: vous parlez, you are speaking; parlez-vous?, are you speaking?\textsuperscript{13} If the subject is a noun, this is usually isolated by a comma at the beginning of the sentence, and the question is then formed with the appropriate pronoun: votre frère, parle-t-il français?, does your brother speak French? An alternative method, which works for both noun and pronoun subjects, is to prefix est-ce que (literally, “is it that?”) to the declarative form: est-ce qu'il est ici?, is he here (lit. is it that he is here?); est-ce que votre frère parle français?, does your brother speak French? (lit. is it that your brother speaks French?).

3. Imperfect (meaning: I was speaking, used to speak).

The endings, for all verbs, are -ais, -ais, -ait, -ions, -iez, -aient (je parlais, tu parlais, etc.; je vendais, tu vendais, etc.); -ir verbs insert -iss- throughout before the ending (je finissais, tu finissais, etc.); -oir verbs use the full stem (je recevais, tu recevais, etc.). Etre has j’étais, etc.; dire has je disais; faire has faisais.


This tense seldom appears save in books, being replaced in conversation by the present perfect. Its forms are:

parler: je parlai, tu parlais, il parla, nous parlâmes, vous parlâtes, ils parlaient.

finir: je finis, tu finis, il finit, nous finîmes, vous finîtes, ils finirent.

vendre: je vendis, tu vendis, il vendit, nous vendîmes, vous vendîtes, ils vendirent.

13. Note the hyphen used in these cases of inversion, also the letter -t-, inserted between the verb and the pronoun when the former ends and the latter begins with a vowel: a-t-il?, has he?; parle-t-il?, does he speak?
rec-veauir: je reç-us, tu reç-us, il reç-ut, nous reç-ûmes, vous reç-ûtes, ils reç-urent.

être has je fus; avoir has j'eus; savoir has je sus; dire has je dis; faire has je fis; aller is regular (j'allai).

5. Future and Conditional (meaning: I shall speak, I should speak).

The future endings are: -ai, -as, -a, -ons, -ez, -ont. These are added not to the stem, but to the full infinitive (je parler-ai, I shall speak; tu finir-as, you will finish); -re verbs, however, lose the final e (je vendr-ai, I shall sell), while -oir verbs lose the oi (je recev-r-ai, I shall receive).

The conditional endings are precisely the same as those of the imperfect: -ais, -ais, -ait, -ions, -iez, -aient; but they are added to the full infinitive instead of to the stem, with loss of e for -re verbs and loss of oi for -oir verbs; whatever irregularities appear in the future will also appear in the conditional: je parler-ais, I should speak; tu finir-ais, you would finish; il vendr-ait, he would sell; nous recev-r-ions, we should receive.

The future and conditional of être are je serai and je serais; of avoir, j'aurai and j'aurais; of aller, j'irai and j'irais; of savoir, je saurai and je saurais; of faire, je ferai and je ferai; of dire, je dirai and je dirais.

6. Compound Tenses.

These are formed, as in English, by using avoir, "to have", with the past participle. The latter ends in -é for -er verbs, (parl-é, spoken), in -i for -ir verbs (fin-i, finished), in -u for -re and -oir verbs (the latter, however, drop -ev-: vend-u, sold; reç-u, received).

A certain number of intransitive verbs denoting motion (aller, to go, venir, to come, etc.), change of state (devenir, to become; mourir, to die, etc.), also rester, "to remain", "to
stay”, and *tomber*, “to fall”, (but not *être*, “to be”) take *être* as an auxiliary instead of *avoir*.

Present Perfect: I have spoken, I spoke, *j'ai parlé*, tu *as parlé*, il a parlé, nous avons parlé, vous avez parlé, ils ont parlé; I have come, je suis venu, tu es venu, il est venu, nous sommes venus, vous êtes venus, ils sont venus (and note elle est venue, elles sont venues; je suis venue if a woman is writing).

Past Perfect: I had spoken, *j'avais parlé*, etc.; I had come, *j'étais venu*, etc.

Future Perfect: I shall have spoken, *j'aurai parlé*; I shall have come, *je serai venu*.

Conditional Perfect: I should have spoken, *j'aurais parlé*; I should have come, *je serais venu*.

7. Imperative. (meaning: speak!; let us speak).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Familiar Singular</th>
<th>Plural and Polite Sg.</th>
<th>“let us”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-er verbs:</td>
<td>parl-e</td>
<td>parl-ons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-ir verbs:</td>
<td>fin-is</td>
<td>fin-issons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-re verbs:</td>
<td>vend-s</td>
<td>vend-ons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-oir verbs:</td>
<td>rece-ois</td>
<td>rece-eons</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. The past participle conjugated with *avoir* is invariable if the direct object follows, but agrees with the direct object if the latter precedes: *j'ai vu les hommes*, I saw the men; but *je les ai vus*, I saw them; *les hommes que j'ai vus*, the men I saw. When *être* is used, the past participle agrees with the subject: *elle est arrivée*, she arrived; *ils sont sortis*, they went out. Incorrect agreement of the past participle is not an unforgivable crime, particularly since the agreement appears in writing, but not in speech, the endings being normally silent.

15. Remember: 1. that object pronouns follow the imperative affirmative and are attached by hyphens, with *moi* and *toi* replacing *me* and *te*: *parle-moi*, speak to me; *donnez-moi*, give me; *lave-toi*, wash yourself; 2. that the direct object always precedes the indirect object pronoun in the imperative affirmative: *vendez-le-moi*, sell it to me; *vendons-les-leur*, let us sell them to them; 3. that in the negative imperative object pronouns precede the verb in the more customary indirect-direct order (unless both are third person): *ne me le donnez pas*, don’t give it to me; *ne le lui donnez pas*, don’t give it to him.
8. Reflexive.

French uses many verbs reflexively which are not so used in English (je me suis levé ce matin, I got up this morning: se lever, to get up, lit. to get oneself up). The reflexive pronouns are:
myself, to myself, me
yourself, to yourself, te.
ourselves, to ourselves, nous
yourselves, to yourselves, vous
himself, herself, itself, themselves, to himself, to herself, to itself, to themselves, se

These pronouns may be direct or indirect: je me lave, I wash myself; but je me lave les mains, I wash to myself the hands (I wash my hands).

The auxiliary used with reflexive verbs is être, but the past participle agrees as though avoir were used; that is, agreement is not with the subject, but with the preceding direct object, which may or may not be the reflexive pronoun: elle s’est lavée, she washed herself; elle s’est lavé les mains, she washed her hands (no preceding direct object; se is indirect); les mains qu’elle s’est lavées étaient couvertes de sang, the hands she washed were covered with blood (agreement not with elle, subject; nor with se, indirect object, but with que, direct object, which refers to “hands”, feminine plural).

In the plural, reflexive forms may have a reciprocal meaning (each other, to each other, one another, to one another): they saw each other, ils se sont vus; they shook hands, ils se sont serré la main.

This is formed, as in English, by être, “to be” with the past participle. The latter agrees with the subject: il est puni, he is punished; elle sera punie, she will be punished; elles ont été punies par leur père, they have been punished by their father. The passive is often avoided, however, especially when “by” does not appear, by using: 1. on (“one”, “man”, “somebody”) with the active: ici on parle français, French is spoken here (lit. one speaks French here); 2. the reflexive: ces choses ne se font pas, these things aren’t done (lit. these things don’t do themselves).

10. Subjunctive.

The French subjunctive has four tenses, and is frequently used in subordinate clauses. For the present subjunctive, the endings are: -e, -es, -e, -ions, -iez, -ent (-ir verbs insert -iss- throughout; -oir verbs have -oiv- in the singular and third plural, -ev- in first and second plural): that I speak, que je parle, que tu parles, qu’il parle, que nous parlions, que vous parliez, qu’ils parlent; that I finish, que je finisse; that I sell, que je vende; that I receive, que je reçoive.

The present perfect subjunctive is formed with the present subjunctive of avoir (or être) and the past participle: that I have spoken, que j’aie (tu aies, il ait, nous ayons, vous ayez, ils aient) parlé; that I have come, que je sois (tu sois, il soit, nous soyons, vous soyez, ils soient) venu (venue, venus, venues). The other two tenses are normally avoided in conversation and ordinary writing.
16. The gender of nouns is indicated by the article (le, la); nouns beginning with vowels or h and taking the article l’ are masculine unless otherwise indicated.

Note that nouns and masculine adjectives ending in -s, -x, -z, remain unchanged in the plural (la voix, les voix); that most nouns and masculine adjectives ending in -au and -al change to -aux in the plural (beau, beaux; le cheval, les chevaux); that nouns and masculine adjectives ending in -eu add -x in the plural (le feu, les feux).

Note that adjectives ending in -e remain unchanged in the feminine (triste); that adjectives ending in -x change to -se in the feminine (heureux, heureuse); -en to -enne (italien, italienne); -el to -elle (naturel, naturelle); -ier to -ière (premier, première); -j to -ve (neuf, neuve). The plurals are then independently formed (heureux, plu. heureux; heureuse; plu. heureuses).

Other exceptional irregularities in feminine and plural formation are separately given in the vocabulary.

Verbs ending in -er which have e-mute as the last vowel in the stem change it to è whenever another e-mute appears in the ending (mener; Pres. mène, mènes, mène, menons, menez, mènent; Fut. mènerai). Verbs ending in -eler and -eter, however, more generally double the l or t under the same circumstances (appeler; Pres. appele, appelles, appelle, appelons, appelez, appellement; Fut. appellerai).

Verbs ending in -er which have è as the last vowel in the stem also change it to è when e-mute appears in the ending, but not in the future and conditional (espérer; Pres. espère, espères, espère, espérons, espérer, espèrent; but Fut. espérerai).

Verbs ending in -cer change c to ç when a or o follows (avancer; 1st pl. nous avançons; Impf. j’avançais; etc.).

Verbs ending in -ger insert -e- when a or o follows (manger; 1st pl. nous mangeons; Impf. je mangeais; etc.).

Most verbs ending in -yer change y to i before e-mute (ennuyer; Pres. ennuye, ennuyes, ennue, ennuyons, ennuyez, ennuent; etc.).

Other important verbal irregularities are given in the vocabulary; note that the conditional always follows the future, so that a future fera for the verb faire implies a conditional faire. There is never any irregularity in the endings of these two tenses.

If a verb is conjugated with être, the latter appears in parentheses; thus, to stay, rester (être). This indication is not given in the case of reflexive verbs, which are always conjugated with être.

world, le monde
earth, la terre
air, l'air
water, l'eau (fem.)
fire, le feu
light, la lumière
sea, la mer
sun, le soleil
moon, la lune
star, l'étoile (fem.)
sky, le ciel
wind, le vent
weather, time, le temps
snow, la neige
to snow, neiger
rain, la pluie
to rain, pleuvoir (Pres. pleut;
Fut. pleuvra; P. p. plu)
cloud, le nuage
cloudy, nuageux, couvert
fog, le brouillard
ice, la glace
mud, la boue
morning, le matin, la matinée
noon, midi
afternoon, l'après-midi
evening, le soir
night, la nuit
midnight, minuit
North, le nord
South, le sud, le midi

East, l'est
West, l'ouest
year, l'an
month, le mois
week, la semaine
day, le jour, la journée
hour, l'heure (fem.)
minute, la minute
Sunday, le dimanche
Monday, le lundi
Tuesday, le mardi
Wednesday, le mercredi
Thursday, le jeudi
Friday, le vendredi
Saturday, le samedi
January, janvier
February, février
March, mars
April, avril
May, mai
June, juin
July, juillet
August, août
September, septembre
October, octobre
November, novembre
December, décembre
Spring, le printemps
Summer, l'été
Fall, l'automne
Winter, l'hiver

For “it is warm”, “it is cold”, etc., see p. 224.
No capitals for seasons, months, days of week.
I shall see him on Monday, je le verrai lundi; last Monday, lundi dernier; next Monday, lundi prochain; every Monday, tous les lundis; on May 5th, 1943, le cinq mai dix-neuf cent quarante-trois.

2. Family, Friendship, Love.

family, la famille
husband, le mari
wife, la femme

parents, les parents
father, le père
mother, la mère
son, le fils
daughter, la fille
brother, le frère
sister, la soeur
uncle, l’oncle
aunt, la tante
nephew, le neveu
niece, la nièce
cousin, le cousin (fem. la cousine)
grandfather, le grand-père
grandmother, la grand’mère
grandson, le petit-fils
granddaughter, la petite-fille
father-in-law, le beau-père
mother-in-law, la belle-mère
son-in-law, le beau-fils, le gendre
daughter-in-law, la belle-fille, la bru
brother-in-law, le beau-frère
sister-in-law, la belle-soeur
man, l’homme
woman, la femme
child, l’enfant
boy, le (petit) garçon
girl, la jeune fille, la (petite) fille
lady, la dame
young lady, la demoiselle
sir, Mr., gentleman, monsieur
madam, Mrs., madame
Miss, mademoiselle
friend, l’amie (fem. l’amie)
servant, le ou la domestique, la servante, la bonne
to introduce, présenter
to visit, visiter, faire une visite
love, l’amour
to love, aimer
to fall in love with, tomber amoureux de (être)
to marry, épouser, se marier avec
sweetheart, l’amoureux (fem. amoureuse), le fiancé (la fiancée), le bien-aimé (la bien-aimée), l’amie (l’amie)
kiss, le baiser
to kiss, embrasser
beloved, darling, chéri (-e)

3. Speaking Activities.
word, le mot, la parole
language, la langue
to speak, parler
to say, dire (Pres. dis, dis, dit, disons, dites, disent; Impf. disais; P. p. dit; Impv. dis, dites)
to tell, dire, raconter, conter (I told him, je lui ai dit)
to inform, communiquer à, renseigner
to call, appeler
to be called, one’s name is, s’appeler (my name is John, je m’appelle Jean)
to greet, saluer
to name, nommer
to cry, shout, s’écrier
to listen to, écouter (I listen to him, je l’écoute)
to hear, entendre
to understand, comprendre (Pres. comprends, comprends, comprend, comprenons, comprenez, comprennent; Impf., comprenais, P. p. compris)

17. These terms are abbreviated in writing to M., Mme and Mlle, respectively. In speaking directly, the name which in English normally follows is generally left out: Mr. Smith, have you a book? Monsieur, est-ce que vous avez un livre?
to mean, vouloir dire (Pres., veux
dire, veux..., veut..., voulons...,
voulez..., veulent ...; P. p.
voulu)
to ask (someone), demander (à);
to ask a question, poser une
question
to ask for, demander (he asked
me for a pencil, il m’a demandé
un crayon).

gold, l’or
silver, l’argent
iron, le fer
steel, l’acier
copper, le cuivre
tin, l’étain, le fer-blanc
lead, le plomb
oil, l’huile (fem.)
gasoline, l’essence (fem.)
coal, le charbon

wood, le bois
silk, la soie
cotton, le coton
wool, la laine
cloth, l’étoffe (fem.), le drap
to cut, couper
to dig, creuser
to sew, coudre
to mend, raccommoder

5. Animals.
animal, l’animal
horse, le cheval
dog, le chien
cat, le chat
bird, l’oiseau
donkey, l’âne
mule, le mulet
cow, la vache
ox, le bœuf
pig, le cochon
chicken, le poulet
rooster, le coq

hen, la poule
sheep, le mouton, la brebis
goat, la chèvre
mouse, la souri·
snake, le serpent
fly, la mouche
bée, l’abeille (fem.)
mosquito, le moustique
spider, l’araignée (fem.)
louse, le pou
flea, la puce
bedbug, la puce à

6. Money, Buying and Selling.
money, l’argent
coin, la pièce (de monnaie)
dollar, le dollar
cent, le sou
bank, la banque

check, le chèque
money order, le mandat (de
poste), le mandat-poste
to earn, to gain, to win, gagner
to lose, pordre
to spend, dépenser
to lend, prêter
to borrow, emprunter (I borrowed 10 francs from him, je lui ai emprunté dix francs)
to owe, devoir (Pres. dois, dois, doit, devons, devez, doivent; Impf., devais; P. p. dû)
to pay, payer
to give back, rendre
exchange, le change (exchange office, bureau de change)
to change, exchange, changer
change, small change, la monnaie
(change me a dollar, faites-moi la monnaie d’un dollar)
honest, honnête
dishonest, pas honnête, voleur
price, cost, le prix
to cost, coûter
expensive, cher
cheap, bon marché
store, le magasin, la boutique
(department store, grand magasin)

7. Eating and Drinking.
to eat, manger
to eat breakfast, to eat lunch, déjeuner
breakfast, le petit déjeuner
lunch, le déjeuner
supper, le souper
to eat supper, souper
dinner, le dîner
to dine, dîner
meal, le repas
dining-room, la salle à manger
waiter, le garçon
waitress, la servante, la serveuse
restaurant, le restaurant
menu, le menu
bill, check, l’addition (fem.)
to pass (a dish), passer

tip, le pourboire
to drink, boire (Pres. bois, bois, boit, buvons, buvez, boivent; Impf. buvais; P. p. bu)
water, l’eau (fem)
wine, le vin
beer, la bière
coffee, le café
tea, le thé
milk, le lait
bottle, la bouteille
spoon, la cuillère (pronounced cuillère)
teaspoon, la cuiller à thé
knife, le couteau
fork, la fourchette
glass, le verre
cup, la tasse
napkin, la serviette
salt, le sel
pepper, le poivre
plate, dish, l’assiette (fem.), le plat
bread, le pain
roll, le petit pain
butter, le beurre
sugar, le sucre
soup, le potage
rice, le riz
potatoes, les pommes de terre
vegetable, le légume
meat, la viande
beef, le bœuf
steak, le bifteck
chicken, le poulet
chop, la côtelette
veal, le veau
lamb, l’agneau
pork, le porc
sausage, le saucisson, la saucisse
ham, le jambon
bacon, le lard

egg, l’œuf (-f pron. in sg., silent in pl. les œufs)
fish, le poisson
fried, frit
boiled, bouilli
roast, rôti
roast beef, le rosbif
baked, au four (baked apple, une pomme cuite)
broiled, grillé
sauce, la sauce
salad, la salade
cheese, le fromage
fruit, le fruit
apple, la pomme
pear, la poire
peach, la pêche
grapes, le raisin
strawberries, les fraises
nut, la noix, la noisette
orange, l’orange (fem.)
lemon, le citron
juice, le jus
cherries, les cerises
dessert, le dessert
pastry, le gâteau, la pâtisserie

to wear, porter
to take off, ôter
to change, changer de
to put on, mettre (Pres. mets, mets, mettons, mettez, mettent; Impf. mettais, P. p. mis)
clothes, les habits, les vêtements
hat, le chapeau
suit, le complet
coat, la jaquette, le veston
vest, le gilet
pants, le pantalon
undershirt, la sous-chemise
drawers, le caleçon
glove, le gant
socks, les chaussettes
stockings, les bas
shirt, la chemise
collar, le faux-col
tie, la cravate
overcoat, le pardessus
raincoat, l'imperméable
pocket, la poche
handkerchief, le mouchoir
button, le bouton
shoe, le soulier
boot, la botte
pocket-book, le porte-monnaie

purse, la bourse
pin, l'épingle (fem.)
safety pin, l'épingle de sûreté
needle, l'aiguille (fem.)
 umbrella, le parapluie
watch, la montre
chain, la chaîne
ring, la bague
eyeglasses, les lunettes, les
lorgnons
slippers, les pantoufles
dressing-gown, la robe de chambre

9. Parts of the body.

head, la tête
forehead, le front
face, le visage, la figure
mouth, la bouche
hair, les cheveux
eye, l’œil (pl. les yeux)
ear, l’oreille (fem.)
tooth, la dent
lip, la lèvre
nose, le nez
tongue, la langue
chin, le menton
cheek, la joue
mustache, la moustache
beard, la barbe
neck, le cou
throat, la gorge
arm, le bras
hand, la main

elbow, le coude
wrist, le poignet
finger, le doigt
nail, l’ongle
leg, la jambe
foot, le pied
knee, le genou
back, le dos
shoulder, l’épaule (fem.)
chest, la poitrine
ankle, la cheville
body, le corps
bone, l’os (-s pron. in sg., silent
in pl. les os)
skin, la peau
heart, le cœur
stomach, l’estomac
blood, le sang

10. Medical.

doctor, le médecin, le docteur
drug-store, la pharmacie
hospital, l’hôpital, la clinique
first-aid station, le poste de secours
medicine, le médicament
pill, la pilule
prescription, l’ordonnance (fem.)
bandage, la bande, le pansement

nurse, l’infirmier, l’infirmière, le
(la) garde-malade
ill, malade
illness, la maladie
fever, la fièvre
swollen, enflé
wound, la blessure
wounded, blessé
head-ache, le mal de tête (I have a head-ache, j'ai mal à la tête)
tooth-ache, le mal de dents
cough, la toux
to cough, tousser
lame, crippled, boiteux, estropié
burn, la brûlure
pain, la douleur, le mal
poison, le poison

11. Military.

war, la guerre
peace, la paix
ally, l’allié
enemy, l’ennemi
army, l’armée (fem.)
danger, le danger
dangerous, dangereux
to win, triompher, gagner, remporter (la victoire)
to surround, entourer
to arrest, arrêter
to kill, tuer
to escape, échapper, s’échapper, s’évader
to run away, se sauver
to lead, mener, conduire
to follow, suivre (Pres. suis, suis, suit, suivons, suivez, suivent; Impf. suivais; P. p. suivi)
to surrender, se rendre
to retreat, se retirer, battre en retraite
to bomb, shell, bombarder
fear, la peur
prison, la prison
prisoner, le prisonnier
to take prisoner, faire prisonnier
(Pres. fais, fais, fait, faisons, faites, font; Impf. faisais; Fut. ferai; P. p. fait)
to capture, s’emparer de, prendre
help, aid, le secours
help!, au secours!
comrade, buddy, le copain, le camarade, le compagnon
battlement, la bataille
battle, le soldat
to fight, combattre, se battre
to private, le (simple) soldat
to corporal, le caporal
to sergeant, le sergent
lieutenant, le lieutenant
captain, le capitaine
major, le commandant
colonel, le colonel
general, le général
officer, l’officier
colony, la compagnie
battalion, le bataillon
regiment, le régiment
brigade, la brigade
division, la division
troops, les troupes (fem.)
reinforcements, les renforts
fortress, la forteresse
sentinel, la sentinelle
guard, la garde
to stand guard, to do sentry duty,
etre de garde, être de faction
to be on duty, être de service
sign-post, le poteau indicateur
navy, la marine
sailor, le marin
marine, le soldat de marine, le fusilier marin
warship, le vaisseau (navire) de guerre, le cuirassé
cruiser, le croiseur
destroyer, le (contre-) torpilleur
convoy, le convoi
escort, l'escorte (fem.), le convoy
weapon, l'arme (fem.)
rifle, le fusil
machine-gun, la mitrailleuse
cannon, le canon
ammunition, les munitions
supplies, les vivres, le ravitaillement (supply service, l'intendance, fem.)
cartridge, la cartouche
bullet, la balle
belt, la cartouchière, la giberne
knapsack, le havresac
tent, la tente (put up a tent, dresser une tente)
camp, le camp
map, la carte, le plan (topographical)
rope, la corde
flag, le drapeau (naval, le pavillon)
helmet, le casque
bayonet, la baïonnette

uniform, l'uniforme
airplane, l'avion
bombing plane, l'avion de bombardement, le bombardier
pursuit-plane, le chasseur, l'avion de poursuite (chasse)
shell, l'obus
bomb, la bombe
truck, le camion
tank, le tank, le char d'assaut
to load, charger
to shoot, to fire, faire feu, tirer, décharger
to shoot (military execution), fusiller
to fire!, feu!, faites feu!
to attention!, attention!, gardez à vous!
forward, en avant!, marche!
halt!, halte!, halte-là!
air-raid shelter, l'abri
spy, l'espion

12. Travel.
customs, la douane
passport, le passeport
ship, le vaisseau, le navire, le paquebot
steamer, le vapeur
stateroom, la cabine
berth, la couchette
to travel, voyager
trip, voyage, le voyage
to leave, partir (Pres., pars, pars, part, partons, partez, partent);
(être)
to arrive, arriver; (être)
to ride (a conveyance), aller en
(Pres. vais, vas, va, allons, allez, vont; Impf. allais; Fut. irai); (être)
railroad, le chemin de fer

station, la gare
track, la voie, le rail
train, le train
platform, le quai
ticket, le billet
compartment, le compartiment
all aboard, en voiture!
dining-car, le wagon-restaurant
sleeper, le wagon-lit
car, le wagon, la voiture
trunk, la malle
valise, la valise
baggage, les bagages
porter, le porteur
bus, l'autobus, l'omnibus
street-car, le tramway, le tram
automobile, l'auto, l'automobile
(fem.)
taxi, le taxi
driver, le chauffeur, le conducteur
to drive (car), conduire (Pres. conduis, conduis, conduit, conduisons, conduisez, conduisent; Impf. conduisais; P. p. conduit)

13. Reading and Writing.
to read, lire (Pres. lis, lis, lit, lisons, lisez, lisent; Impf. lisais; P. p. lu)
newspaper, le journal
magazine, la revue
book, le livre
to write, écrire (Pres. écris, écris, écrit, écrivons, écrivez, écrivent; Impf. écrivais; P. p. écrit)
to translate, traduire (Pres. traduis, traduis, etc., like conduire above)
pencil, le crayon
chalk, la craie
blackboard, le tableau (noir)
ink, l’encre (fem.)
pen, la plume (fountain-, le stylo)
envelope, l’enveloppe (fem.)
paper, le papier (writing—, le papier à écrire)
letter, la lettre
post-office, la poste
stamp, le timbre, le timbre-poste
letter-box, la boîte aux lettres
to mail, mettre à la poste
address, l’adresse (fem.)
post-card, la carte postale
to sing, chanter
song, la chanson
to play (a game), jouer à
game, le jeu, la partie
ball, la balle
to take a walk, se promener, faire une promenade
beach, la plage
to swim, nager
sand, le sable
refreshment, le rafraîchissement
saloon, le bar, le bistro
picnic, le pique-nique, l’excursion (fem.)

14. Amusements
to smoke, fumer
cigar, le cigare
cigarette, la cigarette
tobacco, le tabac
match, l’allumette (fem.)
give me a light, du feu, s’il vous plaît
theatre, le théâtre
movies, le cinéma
dance, la danse, le bal
to dance, danser
to have a good time, s’amuser
ticket, le billet
pleasure, le plaisir
to play (music), jouer de

to sing, chanter
song, la chanson
to play (a game), jouer à
game, le jeu, la partie
ball, la balle
to take a walk, se promener, faire une promenade
beach, la plage
to swim, nager
sand, le sable
refreshment, le rafraîchissement
saloon, le bar, le bistro
picnic, le pique-nique, l’excursion (fem.)

15. Town and Country.
place, spot, le lieu, l’endroit
city, la ville
street, la rue
sidewalk, le trottoir
road, la route, le chemin
intersection, le carrefour
harbor, le port
block, l’îlot, le pâté de maisons
school, l'école (fem.)
church, l'église (fem.)
cathedral, la cathédrale
building, l'édifice, le bâtiment
corner, le coin, l'angle
hotel, l'hôtel
office, le bureau
river, le fleuve, la rivière (small stream)
bridge, le pont
country, la campagne

mountain, la montagne
grass, l'herbe (fem.)
yard, la cour
hill, la colline
lake, le lac
forest, la forêt, le bois
field, le champ
tree, l'arbre
flower, la fleur
rock, le rocher, le roc
stone, la pierre


house, la maison (at home, à la maison; to go home, aller à la maison)
roof, le toit
doors, la porte
key, la clé
to open, ouvrir (Pres. ouvre, ouvres, ouvre, etc.; Impf. ouvrâis; P. p. ouvert)
to close, fermer (to lock, fermer à clef)
to go into, entrer dans (he entered the room, il est entré dans la salle); (être)
to go out, sortir (Pres. sors, sors, sort, sortons, etc.; Impf., sortais); (être)
to go home, rentrer; (être)
to live in, habiter, demeurer dans
staircase, l'escalier
to go up, monter (to go up to, à l'étage)
to go down, descendre; (être)
cottage, la maisonnette
room, la pièce
toilet, les cabinets, le W. C. (pronounced double ve cê)
wall, le mur
window, la fenêtre
bedroom, la chambre à coucher

bed, le lit
pillow, l'oreiller
cover, blanket, la couverture
sheet, le drap
mattress, le matelas
clock, la pendule
alarm-clock, le réveille (-matin)
candle, la bougie, la chandelier
to stand, se tenir debout, être debout
to rest, se reposer
to go to bed, to lie down, se coucher
to sleep, dormir (to fall asleep, s'endormir) Pres. dors, dors, dort, dormons, etc., Impf. dormais, etc.
to wake up, se réveiller
to get up, se lever
to get dressed, s'habiller
kitchen, la cuisine
table, la table
to sit down, s'asseoir (Pres. assieds, assièdes, assiéda, asseyons, etc.; Impf. asseyais; Fut. assièrai; P. p. assis)
chair, la chaise
lamp, la lampe
closet, l'armoire (fem.)
17. Miscellaneous Nouns.

people, les gens, le monde, on
thing, la chose
name, le nom
luck, la (bonne) chance (to be
lucky, avoir de la chance)
bad luck, la mauvaise fortune, la
guigne

number, le nombre, le numéro, le
chiffre
life, la vie
death, la mort
work, le travail (pl. travaux)

18. Verbs—Coming and Going.

to come, venir (Pres. viens, viens,
viens, venons, venez, viennent;
Impf. venais; Fut. viendrai;
P. P. venu); (être)
to go, to be going to, aller (Pres.
vais, vas, va, allons, allez, vont;
Impf. allais; Fut. irai); (être)
to stay, rester; (être)
to return, retourner, rentrer, re-
venir; (être for all three)
to run, courir (Pres. cours, cours,
court, courons, courez, courent;
Impf. courais; Fut. courrai;
P. p. couru)
to walk, marcher, aller (être) à
pied
to fall, tomber; (être)
to follow, suivre (Pres. suis, suis,
suit, suivons, suivez, suivent;
P. p. suivi)
to arrive, arriver; (être)
to go away, to leave, to set out,
partir (Pres. pars, pars, part.
partons, etc.; Impf. partais);
(être) s’en aller


to see, voir (Pres. vois, vois, voit,
voys, voyez, voient; Impf.
voyais; Fut. verrai; P. p. vu)
to look at, regarder. (I am look-
ing at him, je le regarde)
to look for, chercher (I am look-
ing for her, je la cherche)
to laugh, rire (Pres. ris, ris, rit,
rions, riez, rient; Impf. riais;
P. p. ri)
to laugh at, se moquer de, (se)
rire de
to smile, sourire (like rire)
to look, seem, sembler, avoir l’air
(he looks ill, il a l’air malade)
to recognize, reconnaître (like
connaître)
to take for, prendre pour

20. Verbs—Mental.

to make a mistake, se tromper
to hope, espérer
to wait for, attendre
to think, penser (—of, penser à;
I am thinking of him, je pense
à lui)
to think of (have an opinion).

to believe, croire (Pres. crois,
crois, croit, croyons, croyez,
croient; Impf. croyais; P. p.
cru).
to like, aimer (I like this hat, j’aime ce chapeau)
to wish, désirer (I should like, je voudrais)
to want, vouloir (Pres. veux, veux, veut, voulons, voulez, veulent; Fut. voudrai; P. p. voulu; Impv. veuillez, have the kindness to..)
to know (a fact), savoir (Pres. sais, sais, sait, savons, savez, savent; Fut. saurai; Impv. sache, sachez; P. p. su). Use je savais for “I knew”, j’ai su for “I found out”
to know how, savoir (plus infinitive); I know how to dance, je sais danser
to know (a person), connaître (Pres. connais, connais, connait, connaissions, etc.; Impf. connaissais; P. p. connu; use je connaissais for “I knew”, j’ai connu for “I met”, socially)
to remember, se souvenir de (like venir), se rappeler (I remember it, je m’en souviens)
to forget, oublier
to permit, allow, permettre (like mettre)
to forbid, défendre (I forbid him to come, je lui défends de venir)
to promise, promettre (like mettre)
to learn, apprendre (like prendre)
to feel like, avoir envie de (I feel like going, j’ai envie d’aller)
to understand, comprendre (like prendre)
to be afraid, avoir peur (he is afraid of it, il en a peur; he is afraid of her, il a peur d’elle)
to be right, avoir raison
to be wrong, avoir tort
to need, avoir besoin de


to live, vivre (Pres. vis, vis, vit, vivons, vivez, vivent; Impf. vivais; P. p. vécu)
to survive, survivre (like vivre)
to die, mourir (Pres. meurs, meurs, meurt, mourons, mourez, meurent; Impf. mourais; Fut. mourrai; P. p. mort); (être)
to work, travailler
to give, donner
to take, prendre (Pres. prends, prends, prend, prenons, prenez, prennent; Impf. prenais; P. p. pris)
to show, montrer
to begin, to start, commencer, se mettre à
to finish, finir, achever
to continue, to keep on, continuer (à)
to help, aider
to hide, (se) cacher
to lose, perdre
to find, trouver, retrouver
to leave (a thing), laisser (a place), quitter, partir de; (être)
to try, essayer de, chercher à
to meet, rencontrer
to put, place, mettre (Pres. mets, mets, met, mettons, mettez, mettent; P. p. mis)
to do, to make, faire (Pres. fais, fais, fait, faisons, faites, font; Impf. faisais; Fut. ferai; P. p. fait). Faire venir, to send for
(send for the doctor, faites venir le médecin)
to have done, faire faire (have the letter written, faites écrire la lettre)
can, to be able, pouvoir (Pres. peux, peut, peuvent; Impf. pourrais; Fut. pourrai; P. p. pu)
to carry, porter
to bring (things), apporter
to bring (people), amener
to stop, arrêter (s’arrêter for self; to stop writing, cesser d’écrire)
to cover, couvrir (P. p. couvert)
to get, obtain, obtenir
to hold, tenir (Pres. tiens, tiens, tient, tenons, tenez, tiennent; Fut. tiendrai; P. p. tenu)
to get, become, devenir (like venir); (être)
to break, rompre, casser, briser
to hurry, se dépêcher
to send, envoyer
to belong, appartenir (like tenir)
to have just, venir de (he has just finished it, il vient de le finir); (être)
to accept, accepter
to refuse, refuser

22. Adjectives.

small, petit
big, large, tall, grand
short (stature), petit, bas
short (length), court (brief, bref, fem. brève)
low, bas (fem. basse)
heavy, lourd
light (weight), léger (fem. légère)
long, long (fem. longue)
fat, bulky, gros (fem. grosse)
wide, large
narrow, étroit

thin, mince, maigre, svelte
round, rond
square, carré
flat, plat
deep, profond
soft, mou (mol before vowel or h, fem. molle)
hard, dur
quick, lively, rapide, vif
slow, lent
ordinary, ordinaire, commun, quelconque
comfortable, confortable, com-
mode (I am —, je suis bien)
uncomfortable, incommode, gê-
nant
near, prochain
distant, lointain
right, droit
left, gauche
poor, pauvre
rich, riche
beautiful, beau (bel before vowel or h; fem. belle)
pretty, joli
ugly, laid
sweet, doux (fem. douce)
bitter; amer (fem. amère)
sour, aigre
salt, salé
young, jeune
old, vieux (vieux before vowel or h; fem. vieille); âgé
new, neuf (fem. neuve), nouveau (nouvel bef. vowel or h; fem. nouvelle)
good, bon (fem. bonne)
better, meilleur (best, le . . . .)
bad, mauvais
worse, pire (worst, le . . . .)
fine, excellent
first, premier (fem. première)
last, dernier (fem. dernière)
strong, fort
weak, faible
tired, fatigué
alone, seul
same, même
easy, facile
hard, difficult, difficile, pénible
happy, lucky, heureux
sad, triste
merry, gai
free, libre
crazy, fou (fem. folle)
silly, sot (fem. sotte)
drunk, ivre, gris, grisé, soul (saoùl)
polite, poli
rude, impoli, grossier (fem. -ère)
pleasant, agréable
unpleasant, désagréable
lonesome, solitaire
upset, agité, ému, bouleversé
true, vrai
false, faux (fem. fausse), hypocrite
foreign, étranger (fem. -ère)
friendly, amical
kind, aimable
hostile, hostile, ennemi
unlucky, unhappy, malheureux
charming, charmant
afraid, timide, peureux
ready, prêt
hungry, affamé (to be hungry, avoir faim)
thirsty, (to be—, avoir soif)
right, (to be—, avoir raison)
wrong, (to be—, avoir tort)
afraid, (to be—, avoir peur)
funny, drôle, comique
possible, possible
impossible, impossible
brave, courageux, hardi, brave
cowardly, lâche, poltron
quiet, calme, tranquille
noisy, bruyant
living, vivant
death, mort
suitable, convenable

23. Colors.

white, blanc (fem. blanche)
black, noir
red, rouge
green, vert
blue, bleu (to feel blue, avoir le cafard)
yellow, jaune
gray, gris
brown, brun, marron
rose (pink), rose
purple, pourpre

Use no capital for the adjective or for the language. Use capital for people.

Names of languages are used with the article unless they immediately follow the verb parler or the preposition en; he speaks English, il parle anglais; he speaks English well, il parle bien l’anglais; English is difficult, l’anglais est difficile; he answered me in English, il m’a répondu en anglais.

American, américain
English, anglais
French, français
German, allemand
Spanish, espagnol
Russian, russe
Italian, italien
Japanese, japonais
Chinese, chinois
Dutch, hollandais
Norwegian, norvégien
Swedish, suédois
Finnish, finnois, finlandais
Belgian, belge
Polish, polonais
Danish, danois
Swiss, suisse (fem. suissesse)
Portuguese, portugais
Yugoslav, yougoslave
Bulgarian, bulgare
Czech, tchécoslovaque
Greek, grec (fem. grecque)

Turkish, turc (fem. turque)
Roumanian, roumain
Hungarian, hongrois
Austrian, autrichien
Malay, malais
Persian, perse
Arabian, Arabic, Arab, arabe
Jewish, Hebrew, juif. hébreu, israélite
Australian, australien
Canadian, canadien
Mexican, mexicain
Brazilian, brésilien
Argentinian, argentin
Chilean, chilien
Peruvian, péruvien
Cuban, cubain
Egyptian, égyptien
Tunisian, tunisien
Algerian, algérien
Moroccan, marocain

25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, aujourd’hui
yesterday, hier
tomorrow, demain
day before yesterday, avant-hier
day after tomorrow, après-demain
tonight, ce soir
last night, hier soir
this morning, ce matin
in the morning, le matin
all morning, toute la matinée
tomorrow morning, demain matin
in the afternoon, l’après-midi
tomorrow afternoon, demain (dans l’)après-midi
in the evening, le soir
all evening, toute la soirée
tomorrow evening, demain soir
early (at an early hour), de bonne heure; (ahead of time), en avance
on time, à l’heure
late (at a late hour), tard; (delayed), en retard
already, déjà
yet, still, encore
no longer, ne...plus (he is no longer working, il ne travaille plus)
not yet, pas encore (he hasn’t come yet, il n’est pas encore arrivé)
now, maintenant, à présent
afterwards, then, puis, alors
never, jamais (use ne before verb; he is never here, il n’est jamais ici)
always, toujours
forever, à jamais, pour toujours
soon, bientôt
often, souvent
seldom, rarement
usually, d’ordinaire
fast, vite, rapidement
slowly, lentement
here, ici
there, là
over there, là-bas.
near by, tout près
far away, loin, très loin
up, en haut
down, en bas
ahead, en avant
behind, en arrière
forward!, en avant!
back, en arrière
outside, dehors
inside, dedans
opposite, en face
here and there, ça et là, par-ci, par-là
this way, par ici, de ce côté
everywhere, partout
where, où
also, aussi (but at beginning of sentence means “therefore”)
yes, oui
no, non
very, très
much, very much beaucoup
(never use très with it)
well, bien
badly, mal
better, mieux
worse, pis (so much the worse, tant pis!)
more, plus (with adjectives and adverbs)
more than, plus que (before numbers use plus de)
less, moins (less than, moins que; with numbers use moins de)
as - as, aussi - que (he is as strong as I, il est aussi fort que moi)
as much - as, as many - as, autant que (he has as much money as I, il a autant d’argent que moi)
how much?, how many?, combien (de), (how many soldiers?, combien de soldats?)
how?, comment?
too much, trop (de), (he has too much money, il a trop d’argent)
too many, trop (de); (she has too many friends, elle a trop d’amis)
so much, so many, tant (de)
as, like, comme
so, ainsi
besides, furthermore, d’ailleurs, de plus, en outre
finally, enfin
only, seulement
almost, presque (but when something almost happened, manquer; il a manqué de tomber, he almost fell)
gladly, volontiers
certainly, certainement, sans doute
at once, tout de suite, immédiatement
at all, du tout
hardly, à peine
aloud, à haute voix, tout haut
of course, naturellement, bien entendu
suddenly, tout à coup
about, vers, à peu près (with numerals: about ten, à peu près dix; with time: about six o'clock, vers six heures)
perhaps, maybe, peut-être

a little, un peu
again, encore (once again, encore une fois)
really, truly, vraiment
together, ensemble
at least, au moins
for lack of, faute de
a long time ago, il y a longtemps
repeatedly, maintes fois
therefore, par conséquent, donc
farther away, plus loin
occasionally, de temps en temps
entirely, altogether, tout à fait

and, et
but, mais
if, si
or, ou
why, pourquoi
because, parce que
why! par exemple!, comment!
before, avant que
when, quand, lorsque
than, que (use de before numbers)
where, où
until, till, jusqu'à ce que
although, bien que, quoique

unless, à moins que
while, pendant que
that, que
for, since, because, puisque
after, après que
as soon as, aussitôt que, dès que
as long as, pendant que, tandis que
provided that, pourvu que
so that, pour que, afin que
without, sans que

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.
such a, un tel
all kinds of, toutes sortes de
everything, tout
everyone, tout le monde
all, tout, tous
each, every, (adj. chaque, pron. chacun)
something, (quelque chose)
(something interesting to read, quelque chose d'intéressant à lire)
someone, quelqu'un
some, quelques (plus noun; he has some friends, il a quelques

18. The subjunctive is used after these conjunctions; before he comes, avant qu'il vienne.
19. When these conjunctions refer to future time, the future must be used: I shall see him when he comes, je le verrai quand il viendra.
amis; in a partitive sense use de plus article: we bought some coffee, nous avons acheté du café; when referring to a noun previously mentioned, use en: has he any money?; yes, he has (some), oui, il en a a few, quelques (adj.); quelques-uns (pron.) enough, assez de enough! assez!, ça suffit! nothing, rien (like quelque chose); nothing good, rien de bon; nothing to do, rien à faire no one, personne (in sentence it is placed after verb, and the verb itself is preceded by ne: (je ne vois personne, I don’t see anyone, I see no one) neither...nor, ne...ni...ni (he has seen neither my baggage nor my ticket, il n’a vu ni mes bagages ni mon billet) another (additional) encore un (different one), un autre much, many, lots of, beaucoup de both, les deux, tous les deux several, plusieurs little, few, peu de (he has little money, il a peu d’argent; he has few friends, il a peu d’amis)

28. Prepositions.

of, from, de (with masc. sing. article le contracts to du; il parle du garçon, he speaks of the boy; with plural article les contracts to des: il parle des hommes, he speaks of the men) to, at, à (with masc. sing. article le contracts to au: il va au musée, he goes to the museum; with plural article les contracts to aux: il parle aux femmes, he speaks to the women. — Must be used with noun indirect object: he gives John the money, il donne l’argent à Jean) in (within), dans, en on, sur under, sous above, au-dessus de below, au-dessous de for, in order to, pour (c’est pour moi, it is for me; il travaille pour réussir, he works in order to succeed) by, par without, sans until, jusqu’à since, depuis towards, vers between, entre among, parmi near, près de far from, loin de before, avant in front of, opposite, devant after, après back of, derrière through, across, à travers against, contre by means of, au moyen de
in spite of, en dépit de, malgré next to, beside, à côté de
about, around, autour de facing (opposite), en face de
because of, on account of, à cause instead of, au lieu de
de on the other side of, de l’autre
during, pendant côté de

29. Special Idioms and Expressions.

good morning, good afternoon, good day, bonjour
good evening, good night, bonsoir (to one retiring, bonne nuit)
good-by, au revoir (to one whom you expect not to see for a long
time, or again, adieu)
see you later, à bientôt, à tout à l’heure
see you to-morrow, à demain
see you tonight, à ce soir
just now, tout à l’heure (just a moment ago, il y a un instant)
hello!, hola! (on the telephone: allô!)
how are you?, comment allez-vous?, comment vous portez-vous?
how goes it?, comment ça va?, ça va?
I’m well, je vais bien
I’m (much) better, je vais (beaucoup) mieux
what time is it?, quelle heure est-il?
it is two o’clock, il est deux heures
it is twelve (noon), il est midi
it is twelve (midnight), il est minuit
it is half past two, il est deux heures et demie
it is a quarter past two, il est deux heures et quart
it is ten past two, il est deux heures dix
it is a quarter to two, il est deux heures moins le quart
it is five to two, il est deux heures moins cinq
at two o’clock, à deux heures
at about two, vers deux heures
last year, l’année dernière
next year, l’année prochaine
every day, tous les jours
the whole day, toute la journée
please, s’il vous plaît (preceding or following any request)
tell me, dites-moi, ayez la bonté de me dire
bring (to) me, apportez-moi (will you give me?, voulez-vous me
donner?)
show (to) me, montrez-moi, indiquez-moi (will you point out to me.
voulez-vous m’indiquer?)
thank you, merci (....very much, merci bien)
don't mention it, il n'y a pas de quoi (usually shortened to pas de quoi), de rien
pardon me, pardon, pardonnez-moi, excusez-moi
it doesn't matter, n'importe, cela ne fait rien (I don't care, ça m'est égal, je m'en fiche, je m'en moque)
I'm sorry, je le regrette, j'en suis désolé
I can't help, je ne peux m'empêcher de (infinitive)
it's nothing, ce n'est rien
what a pity!, too bad!, quel dommage! c'est dommage!
I'm glad, cela me fait plaisir, j'en suis content
I have to, il me faut (I have to leave, il me faut partir)
I agree (all right, O. K.), d'accord, entendu
where are you going?, où allez-vous?
where is?, où est?
where are?, où sont?
here is, here are, voici
there is, there are, il y a (use voilà if pointing out)
which way?, par où?, par quel chemin?, de quel côté?
to the right, à (la) droite
to the left, à (la) gauche
straight ahead, tout droit
this way, (direction), par ici, de ce côté
this way, (manner), de cette façon
that way, (direction), par là
come with me, venez avec moi, accompagnez-moi (follow me, suivez-moi)
what can I do for you?, que désirez-vous?, que puis-je faire pour vous?
what is it?, qu'est-ce que c'est? (what is the matter?, qu'est-ce qu'il y a?)
what is the matter with you?, qu'avez-vous?
what do you want?, que voulez-vous?, que désirez-vous?
how much is it?, combien?
anything else?, rien d'autre?, encore quelque chose?, c'est tout?
nothing else, rien d'autre, c'est tout
do you speak French?, parlez-vous français?
a little, un peu
speak (more) slowly, parlez (plus) lentement, s'il vous plaît
do you understand?, comprenez-vous?
I don't understand, je ne comprends pas
do you know?, savez-vous?
I can't, je ne peux pas (I don't know (how), je ne sais pas)
what do you call this in French?, comment s'appelle ceci en français?
how do you say .... in French?, comment dit-on ... en français?
what does that mean?, qu'est-ce que ça veut dire?
what do you mean?, que voulez-vous dire?
what are you talking about?, de quoi parlez-vous?
I am an American, je suis Américain
I'm (very) hungry (thirsty, sleepy, warm, cold), j'ai (bien) j'aime
(soif, sommeil, chaud, froid)
it's warm (cold, windy, sunny, fine weather, bad weather), il fait
chaud (froid, du vent, du soleil, beau temps, mauvais temps)
it's forbidden, c'est (il est) défendu (no smoking, défense de fumer)
luckily, heureusement
unfortunately, malheureusement
is it not so?, n'est-ce pas? (use this invariable phrase wherever English
repeats the verb: you went, didn't you?; he is here, isn't he?)
not at all, pas du tout
how old are you?, quel âge avez-vous?
I'm twenty years old, j'ai vingt ans
how long have you been here?, depuis quand (combien de temps)
êtes-vous ici?
how long have you been waiting? depuis combien de temps (quand)
attendez-vous?
as soon (quickly) as possible, le plus tôt possible, au plus tôt
come here!, venez ici!
come in!, entrez! (stop!, arrêtez!)
look!, regardez!
careful!, look out!, prenez garde!, attention!, gare!
for heaven's sake!, par exemple!
in any case, en tout cas
let me hear from you, donnez-moi de vos nouvelles
glad to meet you, enchanté (de faire votre connaissance)
no admittance! défense d'entrer!
notice!, avis (au public)!
nonsense!, allons donc!
it was in fun, c'était pour rire
I'm in a bath of perspiration, je suis en nage
I have no change, je n'ai pas la (petite) monnaie
what else?, quoi encore?
you don't say so!, pas possible!, sans blague!
listen!, look here!, say!, dites donc!
just a second!, un instant!
gangway!, one side!, circule , attention!, laissez passer!
your health!, à votre santé! (reply: à la vôtre!)
I should like to, je voudrais
hurry!, dépêchez-vous!
keep right (left), tenez la droite (gauche)
entrance, entrée (exit, sortie)

30. Slang Words and Expressions.

e fellow, “guy”, type (“nice guy”, bon type, bon zig; “awful guy”,
sale type, sale zig; “what a guy!”, quel type!)
nerve, “crust”, culot, toupet (“what a nerve!”, quel culot!)
soundrel, “louse”, canaille, salaud, saligaud
greenhorn, “sucker”, “dumb-bell”, cornichon, veau
old fogy, vieille momie
soldier, doughboy, poilu; pioupiou (infantry only)
fatty, “greaseball”, gros patapouf, boule-de-suif
captain, “boss”, “old man”, vieux, capiston
joint, “dump”, cambuse, boîte (“what an awful dump!”, quelle sale
boîte!)

drunkenard, “boozehound”, biberon, soulot, soulard
to have a “swell” time, to “get plastered”, faire la bombe
substitute, “sub”, bouche-trou
“jalopy”, bagnole, vieux clou
“bike”, bécane
“gadget”, machin
money, “dough”, pognon, du pèse
tobacco, perlot
cigarette, “butt”, sèche, mégot
pay-day, sainte touche
luck, veine, filon
noise, quarrel, potin, tapage
coffee, cahoua (bad coffee, bain de pied, lavasse)
smart, calé
funny, rigolo
wonderful, “swell”, épatant, formidable
to have the blues, avoir le cafard (moon, la cafarde)
don’t bother me!, “scram!”, fiche-moi la paix!
get the devil out of here!, fiche le camp!
it’s all the same to me, c’est kif-kif
to crack a smile, faire risette
cheese it, the cops!, vingt-deux les flics!
hell!, zut!
give me a ring, donnez-moi un coup de téléphone
Chapter VII

Spanish

Speakers and Location

(All population figures are approximate)

Europe — Spain (25,500,000).
Africa — Canary Islands (650,000); Rio de Oro (30,000);
Spanish Guinea (150,000); Spanish Morocco (800,000).
North America — Mexico (20,000,000).
Central America — Canal Zone (50,000); Costa Rica (600,000); Guatemala (3,000,000); Honduras (1,000,000); Nicaragua (1,100,000); Panama (700,000); Salvador (1,700,000).
West Indies — Cuba (4,200,000); Dominican Republic (1,600,000); Puerto Rico (2,000,000).
South America — Argentina (13,000,000); Bolivia (3,300,000); Chile (4,600,000); Colombia (8,700,000); Ecuador (3,000,000); Paraguay (1,000,000); Peru (6,800,000); Uruguay (2,100,000); Venezuela (3,500,000).

Current to some degree in other areas, including Philippine Islands and southwestern U. S. (New Mexico, Texas, Arizona, California).

Alphabet and Sounds

a, b, c, ch, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, l, ll, m, n, ñ, o, p, q, r, rr, s, t, u, v, x, y, z (k and w do not appear in native Spanish words).

Vowel sounds: a=far; e=first part of a in gate; i, y=ma-
chine; o=or; u=food.
Consonant sounds: ch, f, l, m, n, p, x, y, approximately as in English.

b or v: at beginning of word (bien, vaca), or after a consonant (corbata, enviar) = strongly pronounced b;
between vowels (caballo, bravo) = v, pronounced not by placing lower lip in contact with upper teeth, but by placing lips almost together, as for Eng. w; lips are held back, however, not protruded. Note that in words beginning with b or v, the sound may vary accordingly as the word is preceded or not by another word ending in vowel: vaca = baca, but la vaca = lavaca.

c: before a, o, u or consonant, = k (caballo, cosa, criado);
before e or i, = thin (cielo).

d: between vowels, = this (amado); elsewhere, as in Eng., but with tip of tongue touching back of upper teeth, not palate (bondad).

g: before a, o, u or consonant, = go (gabán, lago, gritar);
before e or i, = strongly aspirated house (general, giro).

h: is always silent, as in honest (hierro).

j: = house, strongly aspirated (jinet, joven).

ll: = million (lleno, caballo).

ñ: = onion (año).

q: as in Eng.; used only before ue, ui, in which groups the u is silent (que, quien = ke, kyen), as it is also in the groups gue, gui (guerra, guisar).

r: trilled, as in British very (caro).

rr: more strongly trilled, as in Irish begorra (carro).

s: always as in this, never as in rose.

t: as in Eng., but tip of tongue touches back of upper teeth, not palate (tengo, matar).

z: = thin.

Sounds not appearing in Spanish: all Eng. vowel sounds outside of five listed above; shame, pleasure, jest, rose, vat, American r.

Spanish sounds not appearing in English: b or v between vowels; note differences between Sp. and Eng. t, d, r, rr.
SPELLING, SYLLABIFICATION, ACCENTUATION, PUNCTUATION

No double consonants appear in Sp., save ll, rr (special sounds); nn (rare), cc (first c=k, second c=th; acción = akthyon).

In dividing a word into syllables, a single consonant between two vowels goes with the following vowel, not with the preceding; pronounce Sp. general as ge ne ral, not gen er al, as in Eng.

The only written accent of Sp. is the acute: '. If a word ends in a vowel, in n or in s, the stress is on the next to the last syllable, and the accent is not written: caballo, tienen, pesos. If a word ends in any consonant but n or s, the stress is on the last syllable, and the accent is not written: azul, primer. If a word is stressed otherwise than in accordance with the above two rules, the accent is written: pidió, carbón, francés, dólar, cárcel, último, dólares.

Punctuate as in Eng., save that Sp. uses inverted question and exclamation marks at beginning of interrogative or exclamatory sentences: ¿Cómo está usted?; ¡Cómo me gusta!

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN SPANISH; USE FOR PRACTICE READING

¡Buenos días, Don José! ¿Cómo está usted?—¡Hola, Manuel! ¿Cómo estás?—Muy bien, gracias; ¿y su señora esposa?—Está en Guatemala con mis dos hijos, pero escribe que todos, gracias a Dios, están bien. ¿Qué tal en tu casa?—Bastante bien. Pero, dígame, ¿ha leído usted esto? Es un artículo en el periódico de hoy, la última edición de esta ma-

1. The accent mark appears on a few words to distinguish them from other words similar in appearance and pronunciation, but different in meaning: sé (I know), se (self); este (this, adjective), éste (this one, pronoun); also to separate two vowels that would otherwise combine into a diphthong (vacio, empty, would without the accent mark be pronounced vacio = bathyo).
ñaña, anunciando que ha estallado la guerra en Europa.—Pero, ¿tú crees\textsuperscript{2} todo lo que lees\textsuperscript{2} en los periódicos?—Esta vez parece que dicen la verdad. Las tropas alemanas ya están invadiendo a Polonia. Francia e Inglaterra amenazan con declararle la guerra a Alemania. Todavía no se sabe lo que van a hacer las demás naciones.—Pero, ¡parece mentira! ¿Cómo es posible? ¿Para esto van a servir los adelantos de nuestra civilización?—Pues, ¡así es! Ya no hay remedio.

**GRAMMATICAL SURVEY**

1. **Nouns and Articles.**

Sp. has only two genders, masculine and feminine. Nouns denoting males are masculine, those denoting females feminine. For nouns which in Eng. are neuter, the Sp. ending often helps to determine the gender. Nouns ending in \(-o\) (plural \(-os\)) are usually masculine, those in \(-a\) (plur. \(-as\)) feminine. The gender of nouns ending in \(-e\) (plur. \(-es\)), and of those ending in consonants (plural formed by adding \(-es\) to the final consonant) will be determined by observation.\textsuperscript{3}

The definite article is \(el\) (plur. \(los\)) for masculine nouns, \(la\) (plur. \(las\)) for feminines. The indefinite article is \(un\) (masc.), \(una\) (fem.). \(Unos, unas\) may be used to mean “some”.

\begin{align*}
\text{la casa, the house} & \quad \text{los libros, the books} \\
\text{el libro, the book} & \quad \text{las casas, the houses} \\
\text{el hijo, the son} & \quad \text{los hijos, the sons} \\
\text{la hija, the daughter} & \quad \text{las hijas, the daughters} \\
\text{el padre, the father} & \quad \text{los padres, the fathers} \\
\text{la madre, the mother} & \quad \text{las madres, the mothers} \\
\text{el general, the general} & \quad \text{los generales, the generals} \\
\text{la mujer, the woman} & \quad \text{las mujeres, the women}
\end{align*}

2. Pronounce both e’s separately: \(cre\ es, le\ es\).

3. Nouns ending in \(-ión, -d\) or \(-z\) are usually feminine. Nouns ending in \(-z\) change to \(-c\) before adding \(-es\) for the plural: \(vez, plural, veces\).
un libro, a book
una casa, a house
unos hijos, some sons
unas hijas, some daughters
un padre, a father
una madre, a mother
unos generales, some generals
unas mujeres, some women

2. Adjectives and Adverbs.

Adjectives agree with the nouns they modify. Like nouns, they have the endings -o (fem. -a; masc. plur. -os; fem. plur. -as); or -e (no difference between masc. and fem.; plur. -es); or consonant (plur. -es). Agreement with the noun does not necessarily mean identical endings; the adjective may be of the -e (plur. -es) type, while the noun is of the -o (plur. -os) type. Adjectives usually follow the noun, though a few common ones precede:

el libro rojo (red); los libros rojos
la casa roja; las casas rojas
el libro verde (green); los libros verdes
la casa azul (blue); las casas azules

To form the comparative degree, Sp. usually places más (more) before the adjective; to form the superlative, the definite article is placed before the comparative; un libro claro (a clear book); un libro más claro (a clearer book); el libro más claro (the clearest book).

The adverb is generally formed by adding -mente to the feminine singular form of the adjective: claro; adverb: claramente (clearly). If two or more adverbs appear together, -mente is added only to the last one, while the others retain the form of the feminine singular adjective: he spoke clearly and distinctly, habló clara y distintamente.

a) Cardinal⁴.

1—uno⁵ (fem. una) 22—veinte y dos (or veintidós)
2—dos 30—treinta
3—tres 40—cuarenta
4—cuatro 50—cincuenta
5—cinco 60—sesenta
6—seis 70—setenta
7—siete 80—ochenta
8—ocho 90—noventa
9—nueve 100—ciento⁶
10—diez 200—doscientos⁷
11—once 300—trescientos
12—doce 400—cuatrocientos
13—trece 500—quinientos
14—catorce 600—seiscientos
15—quince 700—setecientos
16—diez y seis (or dieciséis) 800—ochocientos
17—diez y siete 900—novecientos
18—diez y ocho 1000—mil
19—diez y nueve 2000—dos mil
20—veinte 100,000—cien mil
21—veinte y uno 1,000,000—un millón (de)⁸
(or veintiuno)

4. Use these in dates, save for “the first”: el primero de mayo, May first; el dos de mayo, May 2nd; also generally instead of ordinals beyond 10th: calle cincuenta y tres, fifty-third street.

5. Use un before a masc. sing. noun: tengo un libro, I have one book; there is no distinction between “one book” and “a book”.

6. Cien if used immediately before the noun: cien dólares, $100; but ciento sesenta dólares, $160.

7. Plural hundreds change -os to -as if used with feminine nouns: doscientas mujeres.

8. Un millón de dólares, $1,000,000; dos millones de dólares, $2,000,000.
b) Ordinal.

1st—primero
2nd—segundo
3rd—tercero
4th—cuarto
5th—quinto
6th—sexto
7th—septimo
8th—octavo
9th—noveno
10th—décimo

c) Others.

half—mitad (noun), or medio (adjective): media naranja, half an orange; la mitad de mi clase, half of my class.
a pair of—un par de a dozen—una docena de
once—una vez twice—dos veces three times—tres veces
the first time—la primera vez sometimes—algunas veces
next time—la próxima vez again—otra vez

4. Verbs.

Sp. verbs fall into three main classes, with the infinitive ending respectively in -ar, -er, -ir (to take, tomar; to sell, vender; to live, vivir).

Only the most frequently used tenses are given below. In the present indicative ("I take, am taking, do take"), present subjunctive ("I may take") and singular imperative ("Take!") of a large number of verbs, there is a change in the last vowel of the root\(^\text{10}\) whenever that vowel is stressed (this happens in the first, second and third persons singular and third person plural of the present indicative and present subjunctive, and in the singular imperative); such verbs are called radical-changing. They are otherwise regular, save that a few of them effect a change in a few other forms (3rd sing. and 3rd plur. of the past tense, etc.). Radical-changing verbs appearing in the vocabulary are indicated by the changed vowel in parentheses: to count, contar (ue); this means that whenever the o is stressed,

9. Use primer, tercero, before masculine singular noun: el primer libro or el libro primero.

10. Root - what is left of the verb when the infinitive ending is removed; the root of sentir is sent-.
it changes to *ue*, and that the first singular present indicative, consequently, is *cuento*. Other important irregularities are also noted in the vocabulary.

1. Present Indicative (meaning: I take, am taking, do take)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regular:</th>
<th>Radical-Changing:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to take, <em>tomar</em></td>
<td>to count, <em>contar</em> (<em>ue</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I take</td>
<td>I count, <em>cuent-o</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you take</td>
<td>you count, <em>cuent-as</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she takes,</td>
<td>he, she counts, <em>cuent-a</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(you take)</td>
<td>(you count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we take</td>
<td>we count, <em>cont-amos</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you take</td>
<td>you count, <em>cont-áis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they (you) take,</td>
<td>they (you) count, <em>cuent-an</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regular:</th>
<th>Radical-Changing:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to sell, <em>vender</em></td>
<td>to lose, <em>perder</em> (<em>ie</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sell (am selling),</td>
<td>I lose, am losing, <em>pierd-o</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (familiar) sell,</td>
<td>you (fam.) lose, <em>pierd-es</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she sells,</td>
<td>he, she loses, <em>pierd-e</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (polite) sell,</td>
<td>you (polite) lose, <em>pierd-emos</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we sell,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (plur. fam.) sell,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they, you sell,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Ordinarily Sp. makes no use of subject pronouns (cf. p. 241), since the endings supply the meaning “I”, “he”, etc. The pronouns may be used for stress (*yo tomo, I am taking*), or for clearness (*ella toma, “she is taking,” as against “he is taking”*). The Sp. present may have the meaning “I take”, “I am taking”, “I do take”.

12. The second person singular is used in addressing intimate friends, relatives, children, inferiors, animals. The more normal way of addressing people with whom one is not on an extremely familiar basis is to use the third singular of the verb with *usted* (abbreviated in writing to *Ud., Vd.*). The same remark applies to the plural, where the second person is even more generally avoided: you (several persons) are taking, *ustedes toman*; in preference to *tomaís*. 
Regular:                  Radical-changing:

to live,                to feel,                     to sleep,         to ask for,
  vivir                          sentir (ie)                   dormir (ue)       pedir (i)
  viv-o                        sient-o                      duerm-o          pid-o
  viv-es                       sient-es                     duerm-es         pid-es
  viv-e                        sient-e                      duerm-e          pid-e
  viv-imos                     sent-imos                    dorm-imos        ped-imos
  viv-is                       sent-is                      dorm-is          ped-is
  viv-en                       sient-en                     duerm-en         pid-en


to be,                 ser\textsuperscript{13}           estar\textsuperscript{13}  to have,        tener\textsuperscript{14}  haber\textsuperscript{14}

I am,                   soy                          estoy             I have,       tengo          he
you are,               eres                        estás             you have,     tienes         has
he, she is,             es                          está              he, she has,  tiene          ha
we are,                somos                       estamos           we have,     tenemos        hemos
you are,               sois                        estáis            you have,     tenéis          habéis
they are,              son                         están             they have,    tienen         han

13. Ser must be used to translate “to be” whenever:

a) a predicate noun follows: he is a general, es general;
b) material or origin is indicated: the watch is of gold, el reloj
es de oro;
c) time is expressed: it is one, it is two, es la una, son las dos.

Estar must be used to translate “to be” whenever:

a) health is involved: he is well, está bien;
b) location is expressed: he is here, está aquí.

If a predicate adjective follows, ser expresses a more permanent
or inherent, estar a more temporary or occasional quality; she is pretty,
es bonita; she is young, es joven; she is merry, está alegre; the milk
is hot, la leche está caliente. Hence, either verb may be used with certain
adjectives: ice is cold, el hielo es frío; the water is cold, el agua está
fría.

14. Haber is “to have” used as an auxiliary: I have slept, he dormido.
Tener indicates possession: I have a book, tengo un libro; it also has
a variety of idiomatic uses (cf. p. 266): I am hungry, tengo hambre
(literally, I have hunger); I am 20 years old, tengo veinte años
(literally, I have 20 years).
2. Imperfect Indicative\(^{15}\) (meaning: I was taking, I used to take).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ar verbs</th>
<th>-er and -ir verbs</th>
<th>ser(^{16})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was taking, tom-(a)ba</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(a)</td>
<td>era (I was, used to be)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you were taking, tom-(a)bas</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})s</td>
<td>eras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she was taking, tom-(a)ba</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(a)</td>
<td>era</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we were taking, tom-(\tilde{a})bamos</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})mos</td>
<td>(\tilde{e})ramos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you used to take, tom-(a)bais</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})is</td>
<td>erais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they used to take, tom-(a)ban</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})n</td>
<td>eran</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ar verbs</th>
<th>-er and -ir verbs</th>
<th>radical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I took, tom-(\acute{e})</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(i)</td>
<td>changing(^{17})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you took, tom-(\acute{a})ste</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})ste</td>
<td>ped-(\tilde{i})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she took, tom-(\acute{o})</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{o})</td>
<td>ped-(\tilde{io})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we took, tom-(\acute{a})mos</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})mos</td>
<td>ped-(\tilde{imos})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you took, tom-(\acute{a})steis</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{a})steis</td>
<td>ped-(\tilde{isteis})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they took, tom-(\acute{a})ron</td>
<td>vend- or viv-(\tilde{i})eron</td>
<td>ped-(\tilde{ieron})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. In the imperfect, future and conditional, radical-changing verbs never have the radical change.

16. *Estar, tener, haber are regular: estava, tenía, había. Only three verbs have irregular imperfects: *ir, to go, iba; *ser, to be, era; *ver, to see, veía.*

17. *-ir* radical-changing verbs which change *e* to *ie* when stressed also have *i* instead of *e* in the third singular and third plural of the past: *sentí,* but *sintió,* *sintieron;* *-ir* verbs which change *o* to *ue* have *u* in the same forms: *dormí,* but *durmíó,* *durmieron;* *-ar* and *-er* radical-changing verbs are regular in the past tense.
SPANISH

I was
you were,
he, she was,
we were,
you were,
they were,

ser        estar      tener    haber
fui        estuve18  tuve19   hube19
fuiste      estuviste  tuviste  hubiste
fué         estuvo     tuvo     hubo
guimos      estuvimos  tuvimos  hubimos
fuisteis    estuvisteis tuvisteis hubisteis
fueron      estuvieron tuvieron hubieron

4. Future (meaning: I shall take), and Conditional (meaning: I should take).20

Future          Conditional
I shall take,   tomaré        I should (would) take, tomaría
(sell, live),   (vender)-é     (sell, live), (vender)-ía
(vivir)-é
you will take,  tomarás       you would take, tomarías
he, she will take, tomará    he, she would take, tomaría
we shall take,  tomar-emos    we should (would) take, tomar-íamos
you will take,  tomaréis      you would take, tomaríais
they will take,  tomar-án      they would take, tomar-ían

5. Compound Tenses (meaning: I have, had, shall have, should have taken).

Compound tenses are formed by using haber with the past participle of the verb (ending in -ado for -ar verbs, -ido for others: taken, tomado; sold, vendido; lived, vivido); thus:

Present Perfect: I have taken, he tomado; you have taken, has tomado, etc.
Past Perfect: I had taken, había tomado; you had taken, habías tomado, etc.

18. For “I was” and “I had”, the imperfects era, estaba, tenía, which indicate continued action in the past, occur more frequently than the pasts fui, estuve, tuve. Fuí is also used as the past tense of ir: “to go”.
19. Nearly all irregular pasts ending in unaccented -e have this set of endings: -e, -iste, -o, -imos, -isteis, -ieron.
20. Note that future and conditional endings are added to the entire infinitive, not to the stem alone. Radical-changing verbs are quite regular in these tenses. Ser and estar are regular (seré, estaré; sería, estaría); haber has habré, habría; tener has tendré, tendría.
Future Perfect: I shall have taken, habré tomado, etc. Conditional Past: I should (would) have taken, habría
tomado, etc.

Many past participles are irregular; some will be given
in the vocabulary; none of the verbs given so far has an
irregular past participle.

6. Imperative (meaning: take!).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-ar</th>
<th>-er</th>
<th>-ir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiar Singular</td>
<td>tom-a</td>
<td>vend-e</td>
<td>viv-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar Plural</td>
<td>tom-ad</td>
<td>vend-ed</td>
<td>viv-id</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polite Singular</td>
<td>tom-e</td>
<td>vend-a</td>
<td>viv-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Polite imperative forms are normally followed by usted)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polite Plural</td>
<td>tom-en</td>
<td>vend-an</td>
<td>viv-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Polite plural forms are normally followed by ustedes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-ar</th>
<th>-er</th>
<th>-ir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiar Singular</td>
<td>cuent-a</td>
<td>pierd-e</td>
<td>sient-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar Plural</td>
<td>cont-ad</td>
<td>perd-ed</td>
<td>sent-id</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polite Singular</td>
<td>cuent-e</td>
<td>pierd-a</td>
<td>sient-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Polite singular forms are normally followed by usted)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Polite plural forms are normally followed by ustedes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Negative.

This is regularly formed by prefixing no (not) to the
verb: tomo, I take; no tomo, I do not take; tome Ud., take
(imperative); no tome Ud., do not take.
8. Reflexive verbs.

Eng. uses some verbs reflexively (I see myself, I speak to myself). In Sp., the number of reflexive verbs is much larger (Eng. I bathe, but Sp. me baño, lit. I bathe myself).

Reflexive forms, in the plural, are often used with a reciprocal meaning (each other, one another, to each other, to one another).

The reflexive pronouns are:
me, myself, to myself  
te, yourself, to yourself  
se, himself, herself, themselves, yourself, yourselves (polite); 
to himself, etc.

Reflexive pronouns, like all object pronouns (cf. p. 241), come directly before the verb (I bathe, me baño), except in the infinitive (to bathe, bañarse), gerund (bathing, bañándose), and imperative affirmative, both familiar and polite (bathe!, baño, fam.; baño Ud., pol.); but not imperative negative (do not bathe! no te bañes, no se baño Ud.).

I see myself,  
you see yourself,  
he (she) sees himself (herself),  
we see ourselves, or each other,  
you see yourselves, or each other,  
they see themselves, or each other,  
I do not speak to myself,  
you do not speak to yourself  
he (she) does not speak to himself (herself)  
we do not speak to ourselves, or each other,  
you do not speak to yourselves, or each other,  
they do not speak to themselves, or each other,
me veo  
te ves  
se ve  
nos vemos  
os veis  
se ven  
no me hablo  
no te hablas  
no se habla  
nos hablamos  
no os habláis  
no se hablan

21. The gerund (or present participle) is formed by adding -ando to the root of -ar verbs, -iendo to that of -er and -ir verbs: taking, tomando; selling, vendiendo; living, viviendo. It may be used alone, with the meaning of “by” or “while” (by taking, while taking, tomando), or

The reflexive is often used in Sp. where a passive would appear in Eng. This is particularly true when the subject of the Eng. passive verb is a thing: books are sold here, aquí se venden libros (lit. books sell themselves here). Otherwise, the passive is generally formed with the verb “to be” (ser); and the past participle, being used as a predicate adjective, agrees with the subject: my parents were killed by the robbers, mis padres fueron matados por los ladrones.

10. Subjunctive.

The Sp. subjunctive has four tenses, and is frequently used in subordinate clauses. For the present subjunctive, the ending are normally:

for -ar verbs: -e, -es, -e, -emos, -éis, -en; I may take, tome, etc. for -er and -ir verbs: -a, -as, -a, -amos, -áis, -an; I may sell, venda, etc.

The imperfect subjunctive ends in -ase or -ara for -ar verbs, -iese or -iera for the others: I might take, tomase or tomara. The present perfect subjunctive uses the present subjunctive of haber (haya), with the past participle (haya tomado, I may have taken); the past perfect subjunctive has the imperfect subjunctive of haber (hubiese or hubiera) with the past participle (I might have taken, hubiese tomado or hubiera tomado).

with the verb estar to form a progressive conjugation (I am taking, estoy tomando); but the progressive meaning can also be rendered by the plain verb (tomo, I am taking).

22. Note that it is really the third person singular and plural of the present subjunctive that are used as polite imperatives: tome Ud., tomen Uds. The second person singular and plural of the subjunctive are used as familiar imperatives in the negative: do not take, no tomes.
5. Pronouns.

a) Personal Pronouns (Subject).

I, yo
you (fam.), tú
he, él
she, ella
you (pol.), usted

we, nosotros
you (fam. plur.), vosotros
they (masc.), ellos
they (fem.), ellas
you (pol. plur.), ustedes

These are generally used only for emphasis or clarification: I take, tomo; I take, yo tomo; she takes (in opposition to "he takes"), ella toma.

b) Personal Pronouns (Direct Object).

me, me
you (fam.), te
him, you (pol.), le
her, la"

us, nos
you, (fam. plur.), os
them, you (pol.), les
them (fem.), las"
them (plural of lo ), los

Indirect object pronouns are the same as the direct (to me, me, etc.), save that le is generally used with the meanings of "to him", "to her", "to it", "to you" (pol.), and les with the meaning of "to them" in all connections and "to you" (pol. plur.).

Direct and indirect object pronouns precede the verb, save in the infinitive, gerund and imperative affirmative: me ve, he sees me; lo tiene, he has it; le da el libro, he gives him the book; but quiero tomarlo, I wish to take it; ¡tómalo!, take it!; estoy tomándolo, I am taking it. If a direct and an indirect object pronoun are used together, the indirect normally precedes the direct (he gives it to me, me lo da; he wishes to give it to me, quiere dármelo); and if the indirect is le or les, it is changed to se (he gives it to him, se lo da, instead of le lo da).

23. Use la and las referring to nouns which in Sp. are feminine; I see it (the house), la veo; I see it (the book), lo veo.
c) Personal Pronouns with Prepositions.

These are the same as the subject pronouns, save that mi replaces yo, and ti replaces tú; for me, para mí; for you, para ti; for him, para él; for her, para ella; etc.

d) Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns.

Adjectives.

my, mi, plur. mis: (mi libro, mi casa, mis libros, mis casas)
your (fam.), tu, plur. tus: (tu libro, tus casas)
his, her, your, their\(^{24}\): su, plur. sus
our, nuestro (nuestra, nuestros, nuestras): (nuestra casa)
your, vuestro (vuestra, etc.): (vuestras casas)

Pronouns.

mine, el mío, la mía, los míos, las mías: (your books and mine,
tus libros y los míos)
yours, el tuyo, la tuya, los tuyos, las tuyas.
his, hers, theirs, yours (pol.), el suyo, la suya, los suyos, las
suyas\(^{25}\)
ours, el nuestro, la nuestra, los nuestros, las nuestras
yours, el vuestro, la vuestra, los vuestrros, las vuestras

The article is usually omitted after the verb ser: el libro es mío.

e) Demonstrative Adjectives and Pronouns.

Adjectives.

this, these, este, esta, estos, estas: (this book, este libro, these
houses, estas casas)
that, those (near you), ese, esa, esos, esas: (that house of yours,
that house near you, esa casa)

24. Distinguish by using de él, de ella, de Ud., de ellos, de ellas,
de Uds., if necessary: her book, su libro or el libro de ella; their
books, sus libros or los libros de ellos.

25. Distinguish by using de él, etc.; my books and hers, mis libros
y los suyos or mis libros y los de ella.
that, those (yonder), aquel, aquella, aquellos, aquellas: (those men over there, aquellos hombres)

Pronouns.

this one, these, éste, ésta, éstos, éstas: (your book and this one, tu libro y éste)
that one, those (near you), ése, esa, éses, éses: (my book and that one by you, mi libro y ése)
that one, those (yonder), aquél, aquélla, aquellos, aquéllas: (our books and those over there, nuestros libros y aquellos)

"Neuter" pronouns, esto, eso, aquello are used to refer not to specific objects, but to a general situation or state of affairs: this pleases me, I like this, esto me gusta; I don't like that (what you have said), eso no me gusta.

To translate "the one", "the ones", Sp. generally uses the definite article (el, la, los, las): my book and the one which is on the table, mi libro y el que está en la mesa; my book and my brother's (the one of my brother), mi libro y el de mi hermano.

f) Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

who, whom, that, which, que; the man who is here, el hombre que está aquí; the letter you wrote, la carta que Ud. escribió. whom (after prepositions), quien: the man to whom I spoke, el hombre a quien hablé.

whose, cuyo, cuya, cuyos, cuyas: the man whose house I saw, el hombre cuya casa he visto.

who?, quién? (plur. quiénes?): who is here? ¿Quién está aquí?; who are those men? ¿Quiénes son aquellos hombres? whom?, ¿a quién? (pl. ¿a quiénes?): whom did you see? ¿A quién vió Ud.?

what?, ¿qué?: what did you write?, ¿Qué escribió Ud.?

26. El cual, la cual, los cuales, las cuales, or el que, la que, los que, las que, are occasionally used instead of que to refer to the more distant of two possible antecedents: I spoke to the boy's mother, who came to see me, hablé con la madre del muchacho, la cual vino a verme.

27. Note that the relative pronoun cannot be omitted in Sp.
which?, which one?, which ones?, ¿cuál? (plur. ¿cuáles?): to which one of my friends did you give the book? ¿A cuál de mis amigos dió Ud. el libro?

whose?, ¿de quién?: whose house is that? (whose is that house?), ¿De quién es aquella casa?

**AMERICAN VARIETIES OF SPANISH**

The Spanish used in the various countries of Spanish America has local peculiarities of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. These differences, while interesting and striking, are not so fundamental as those found in some other languages (e.g., Italian, with its numerous dialects, many of which are mutually incomprehensible). Several of the Spanish-American peculiarities of pronunciation are current in Spain itself, notably the southern part of the country (Andalusia), and seem to have been imported by original Spanish settlers coming to America from various sections of Spain. Only a few major peculiarities of Spanish-American speech are listed, and many of them are common to the vulgar pronunciation of Spain as well.

**PRONUNCIATION.**

Spanish America generally discards the Castilian sound of *th* in *thin* (represented by *z*, or by *c* before *e* and *i*), and replaces it with the sound of *s* (*cielo*; Castilian *thyelo*; Sp. Am. *syelo*). This leads to occasional confusion of words which in Castilian would be differentiated by sound (*casa*, "house"; *caza*, "hunt"), and to the replacement of one member of the pair by another word (*cacería*, "hunt", in Sp. Am.)

28. In Spain, local dialects (Andalusian, Asturian, Aragonese, etc.) do not diverge from standard Castilian any more than do our southern, middle western or New England forms of speech from standard "American" English. Galician, Catalan and Basque are notable exceptions; but Galician (spoken in the northwestern corner of Spain) is really a dialect of Portuguese, not of Spanish; Catalan (eastern Spain) is rated as a separate Romance language; Basque (northeastern corner of Spain, southwestern corner of France) not only is not a Romance language, but does not even belong to the Indo-European family.
2. The Castilian sound of ll is usually y in Sp. Am. (caballo; Cast. kavallyo; Sp. Am. kavayo). In sections of Argentina, etc., this sound further changes to that of s in "pleasure", or even to that of g in "gin" (kavazo, kavajo).

3. The sound of g before e or i, or of j, which is in Castilian a harsher guttural than English h, is in most Spanish American countries pronounced more weakly, so as to be very similar to Eng. h (general: Cast. kheneral, Sp. Am. heneral). The j of reloj ("watch", "clock") is often silent in Sp. Am., so that the word sounds as though spelled reló.

4. At the end of a word, s, which is strongly pronounced in Castilian, either becomes h or disappears in most Sp. Am. countries (dos pesos sounds like doh pesos or doh pesoh).

5. Between vowels, d, which in Castilian sounds like th of "this", often disappears altogether in Sp. Am. and Spain (amado pronounced amao).

6. Pa for para (pa nada or pa naa instead of para nada); gweno for bueno; guevo for huevo, etc. are occasionally heard in Sp. Am. as well as in Spain.

7. Sections of Argentina have a habit of stressing object pronouns which are added on to verbs: vamonós, digalé for vámonos ("let's go", "let's get out"), digale ("tell him"). Other sections of South America, and even of Spain, share this peculiarity.

GRAMMAR.

1. Considerable confusion appears in forms of address in various Sp. Am. countries. While vosotros with the second person plural of the verb is generally avoided, so that a mother who would address one of her children as tú (with the second singular verb) addresses more than one of them as ustedes (with the third plural), Argentina prefers vos in addressing one person, ustedes more than one.

2. Mosotros, mos, are sometimes heard in the place of nosotros, nos ("we", "us"). The uneducated of Spain, however, often use these same forms.
3. Argentina tends to avoid the future (tomaré, “I shall take”), using in its place voy a tomar (“I am going to take”). Colombia prefers voy y tomo (“I go and take”), or voy ir tomando (“I am going to go taking”).


VOCABULARY.

Local words (frequently of Indian origin) are current in one country and not in others; many of them designate local objects. Only a few examples can be given. An illiterate farm hand is a peón in Mexico, but a guaso or roto in Chile, a guajiro in Cuba, a jíbaro in Puerto Rico. “Dairy” (Spain lechería) is tambo in Argentina. Chile uses donde (“where”) in the sense of “at the house of”, and goes so far as to combine, in the same meaning, donde está, donde estaba (literally “where was”) into ontá, ontaba. Colombia has desecho for senda (“jungle trail”). Cuba uses tabaco (“tobacco”) in the sense of “cigar” (Spain cigarro), and cigarro in the sense of “cigarette” (Spain cigarrillo). Monte, which in Spain has rather the meaning of “mountain”, is used in Sp. Am. in the sense of “jungle”, “wild country”, while Chile uses cerro (Spain “hill”) for mountain (Spain montaña, monte). Papa for patata (“potato”), manteca (which in Spain would mean “fat”, “grease”) for mantequilla (“butter”) are in general use. A la pampa, “in the open”; es muerto, es nacido, instead of ha muerto, ha nacido (“he died”, “he was born”); achicar (“to kill”, slang for matar); cada nada (“every little trifle”); hasta cada rato (“in a little while”, instead of Castilian en un rato, dentro de un rato); pararse (literally “to stop”) used for levantarse (“to get up”); truje for traje (“I brought”; past tense of traer, “to bring”); vido for vió (“he saw”; third singular past tense of ver), are among forms frequently used in Spanish America. A few of them (cigarro, monte, papa, manteca, truje, vido, es nacido, ontaba) occasionally appear also in the speech of the illiterate in Spain.

world, el mundo
earth, la tierra
air, el aire
water, el agua (fem.; el used for euphony before stressed a)
fire, el fuego
light, la luz (pl. luces)
sea, el (la) mar (masc. or fem.)
sun, el sol
moon, la luna
star, la estrella
sky, el cielo
wind, el viento
weather, time, el tiempo
snow, la nieve
to snow, nevar (ie)
rain, la lluvia
to rain, lllover (ue)
cloud, la nube
cloudy, nublado
fog, la niebla
ice, el hielo
mud, el barro, el fango, el lodo
morning, la mañana
noon, el mediodía
afternoon, evening, la tarde
night, la noche
midnight, la medianoche
North, el norte
South, el sur
East, el este
West, el oeste
year, el año
month, el mes
week, la semana
day, el día (masc.)
hour, la hora
minute, el minuto
Sunday, el domingo
Monday, el lunes (pl. los lunes)
Tuesday, el martes (los -)
Wednesday, el miércoles (los -)
Thursday, el jueves (los -)
Friday, el viernes (los -)
Saturday, el sábado
January, enero
February, febrero
March, marzo
April, abril
May, mayo
June, junio
July, julio
August, agosto
September, septiembre
October, octubre
November, noviembre
December, diciembre
Spring, la primavera
Summer, el verano
Fall, el otoño
Winter, el invierno

29. Irregularities in the plural of nouns are indicated: la luz (pl. luces). Radical-changing verbs are indicated by (ue), (ie), (i), according to the nature of the change. Important verbal irregularities are given in parentheses.

Note that verbs ending in -car change c to qu before e-endings (buscar, Past 1st sg. busqué, Polite Imperative busque); verbs ending in -gar insert u after g before e-endings (entregar, Past entregué, Pol. Impv. entregue); verbs ending in -zar change z to c before e-endings (empezar, Past en pecé, Pol. Impv. empiece).
For "it is warm", "it is cold", etc., see p. 266.
No capitals for seasons, months, days of week.
I shall see him on Monday, le veré el lunes; last Monday, el lunes pasado; next Monday, el lunes que viene; Monday morning, el lunes por la mañana; every Monday, todos los lunes; on May 5th, 1943, el cinco de mayo de mil novecientos cuarenta y tres.

2. Family, Friendship, Love.

family, la familia
husband, el marido
wife, la mujer, la esposa
parents, los padres
father, el padre
mother, la madre
son, el hijo
daughter, la hija
brother, el hermano
sister, la hermana
uncle, el tío
aunt, la tía
nephew, el sobrino
niece, la sobrina
cousin, el primo, la prima
grandfather, el abuelo
grandmother, la abuela
grandson, el nieto
granddaughter, la nieta
father-in-law, el suegro
mother-in-law, la suegra
son-in-law, el yerno
daughter-in-law, la nuera
brother-in-law, el cuñado, el her-

mano político
sister-in-law, la cuñada
man, el hombre
woman, la mujer
child, el niño
boy, el muchacho
girl, la muchacha
sir, Mr., el señor\textsuperscript{30}
madam, Mrs., la señora\textsuperscript{30}
Miss, young lady, la señorita\textsuperscript{30}
friend, el amigo, la amiga
servant, el criado, la criada
to introduce, presentar
to visit, visitar
love, el amor
to love, amar, querer (ie) (Past, quise; Fut. querré)\textsuperscript{31}
to fall in love with, enamorarse de
to marry, casarse con (he married her: se casó con ella)
sweetheart, el novio, la novia
kiss, el beso
to kiss, besar
dear, beloved, querido; amado

30. Use the definite article with señor, señora, señorita, save in speaking directly to the person: Mr. Lopez has a book, el señor López tiene un libro; Mr. Lopez, have you a book? Señor López, ¿tiene Ud. un libro?

31. Whenever there is an irregularity in the future, the same irregularity appears in the conditional: querer, Fut. querré, Cond. querría.
3. Speaking Activities.

word, la palabra
language, la lengua; el idioma

to speak, hablar

to say, decir (Pres., digo, dices, dice, decimos, decís, dicen;
Past, dij-e, -iste, -o, -imos, -isteis, -eron; Fut., diré; Impv., di, diga)

to tell, decir, contar (ue)

to inform, informar; comunicar
(see n. 29)

to call, llamar

to be called, one's name is, llamarse (my name is John, me llamo Juan)

to greet, saludar

to name, nombrar

to cry, shout, gritar

to listen to, escuchar (I listen to her, la escucho)

to hear, oír (Pres., oigo, oyes, oye, oímos, oís, oyen; Impv., oye, oiga)

to understand, comprender, entender (ie)

to mean, querer decir (see p. 257 for querer; I don't know what you mean, no sé lo que Vd. quiere decir), significar (see note 29; do not use when the subject is a person)

to ask for, pedir (i), (He asked me for a pencil, me pidió un lápiz)

to ask (a question), preguntar

to answer, responder, contestar

to thank, dar las gracias (I thanked him for the book, le di las gracias por el libro)

to complain, lamentarse, quejarse


gold, el oro
silver, la plata
iron, el hierro
steel, el acero
copper, el cobre
tin, el estaño
lead, el plomo
oil, el aceite, el petróleo
gasoline, la gasolina, la bencina, la nafta

crude oil, la nafta

clean oil, el aceite

crude oil, la gasolina

clean gas, la bencina

crude paraffin, la nafta

crude asphalt, la gasolina

crude benzine, la bencina

5. Animals.

animal, el animal
horse, el caballo
dog, el perro
cat, el gato
bird, el pájaro
donkey, el burro, el asno
mule, el mulo

cow, la vaca
ox, el buey
pig, el cerdo, el puerco, el cochino
chicken, el pollo
hen, la gallina
rooster, el gallo
sheep, la oveja
goat, la cabra
mouse, el ratón
snake, la culebra
fly, la mosca
bee, la abeja

mosquito, el mosquito
spider, la araña
louse, el piojo
flea, la pulga
bedbug, la chinche

6. Money, Buying and Selling.

money, el dinero
coin, la moneda
dollar, el dólar, el peso, el duro
(Spain, 5 pesetas make 1 duro)
cent, el centavo, el céntimo
bank, el banco
check, el cheque
money order, el giro postal
to earn, to gain, to win, ganar
to lose, perder (ie)
to spend, gastar
to lend, prestar
to borrow, pedir (i) prestado (he borrowed $2 from me, me pidió dos dólares prestados)
to owe, deber
to pay, pagar (see n. 29)
to give back, devolver (ue); P. p. devuelto
change, la vuelta
to change, exchange, cambiar
honest, honrado, sincero
dishonest, poco honrado, falso
price, el precio
cost, el coste, el costo
to cost, costar, (ue)

expensive, caro, costoso
cheap, barato
store, la tienda
piece, el pedazó, el trozo
slice, la tajada, la rebanada
pound, la libra
package, el paquete, el bulto
basket, la cesta, la cesta
box, la caja
bag, el saco
goods, las mercancías
to go shopping, ir de compras, ir de tiendas
to sell, vender
to buy, comprar
to rent, to hire, alquilar, arrendar
to be worth, valer (Pres. valgo, vales, etc.; Fut. valdré)
to choose, escoger (Pres. escojo, escoges, etc.; Pol. Impv. escogía)
thief, robber, el ladrón
to steal, robar
police, la policía
policeman, el agente de policía,
el policía, el guardia

7. Eating and Drinking.

to eat, comer
breakfast, el desayuno
to eat breakfast, desayunarse
lunch, el almuerzo
to eat lunch, almorzar (ue and see n. 29)
supper, la cena
to eat supper, cenar
dinner, la comida
to dine, comer
meal, la comida
dining-room, el comedor
waiter, el mozo, el camarero
waitress, la camarera
restaurant, la fonda
menu, la lista de platos
bill, la cuenta
to pass (a dish), alcanzar (note 29)
tip, la propina
to drink, beber
water, el agua (fem.)
wine, el vino
beer, la cerveza
coffee, el café
tea, el té
milk, la leche
bottle, la botella
spoon, la cuchara
teaspoon, la cucharita, la cucharilla
knife, el cuchillo
fork, el tenedor
glass, el vaso
cup, la taza
napkin, la servilleta
salt, la sal
pepper, la pimienta
plate, dish, el plato
bread, el pan
roll, el panecillo
butter, la manteca
sugar, el azúcar
soup, la sopa
rice, el arroz
potatoes, las patatas, las papas
vegetable, la legumbre
meat, la carne
beef, la carne de vaca
steak, el bistec
chicken, el pollo
chop, la chuleta
veal, la ternera
lamb, el carnero
pork, el cerdo, el puerco
sausage, el chorizo, la salchicha
ham, el jamón
bacon, el tocino, la tocineta
egg, el huevo
fish, el pescado
fried, frito
to cook, cocinar, guisar
boiled, cocido
stewed, guisado
roast, asado
roast beef, el rosbif
baked, al horno
broiled, en parrilla, a la parrilla
sauce, la salsa
salad, la ensalada
cheese, el queso
fruit, la fruta
apple, la manzana
pear, la pera
peach, el durazno, el melocotón
grapes, las uvas
strawberries, las fresas
nuts, las nueces
orange, la naranja
lemon, el limón
juice, el jugo, el zumo
cherries, las cerezas
dessert, el postre
pastry, las pastas, los pasteles

8. Hygiene and Attire.
bath, el baño
to bathe, bañarse
shower, la ducha
to wash, lavarse
to shave, afeitarse
barber, el barbero
mirror, el espejo

soap, el jabón
razor, la navaja (de afeitar)
safety razor, la máquina de afeitar
towel, la toalla
comb, el peine, la peineta
brush, el cepillo
scissors, las tijeras
to wear, llevar

to take off, quitarse

to change, mudarse, cambiarse

to put on, ponerse (Pres. me pongo, te pones, etc.; Fut. me pondré; Past me puse; Impv., ponte, póngase).

clothes, la ropa

hat, el sombrero

suit, el traje

coat, la chaqueta

vest, el chaleco

pants, los pantalones

underwear, la ropa interior

undershirt, la camiseta
drawers, los anconzillos

glove, el guante

socks, los calcetines

stockings, las medias

shirt, la camisa
collar, el cuello

tie, la corbata

overcoat, el sobretodo, el abrigo, el gabán

raincoat, el impermeable

pocket, el bolsillo

handkerchief, el pañuelo

button, el botón

shoe, el zapato

boot, la bota

pocketbook, el portamonedas

purse, la bolsa, la cartera

pin, tie-pin, el alfiler

needle, la aguja (de coser)

umbrella, el paraguas (pl. los -)

watch, clock, el reloj

chain, la cadena

ring, la sortija

eyeglasses, los anteojos

slippers, las zapatillas

dressing-gown, bathrobe, la bata (de baño)

9. Parts of the body.

head, la cabeza

forehead, la frente

face, la cara

mouth, la boca

hair, el pelo

eye, el ojo

ear, la oreja

tooth, el diente, la muela

lip, el labio

nose, la nariz (pl. narices)
tongue, la lengua

chin, la barba

cheek, la mejilla, el carrillo

mustache, el bigote

beard, las barbas

neck, el cuello

throat, la garganta

arm, el brazo

hand, la mano

elbow, el codo

wrist, la muñeca

finger, el dedo

nail, la uña

leg, la pierna

foot, el pie

collar, la rodilla

back, la espalda

chest, el pecho

ankle, el tobillo

body, el cuerpo

bone, el hueso

skin, la piel

heart, el corazón

stomach, el estómago

blood, la sangre

shoulder, la espalda, el hombro

32. Note: he put on (took off) his hat, se puso (se quitó) el sombrero.
10. Medical.

doctor, el médico, el doctor

drug-store, la botica, la droguería, la farmacia

hospital, el hospital

medicine, la medicina, el medicamento

pill, la pildora

prescription, la receta

bandage, la venda, el vendaje

nurse, la enfermera, el enfermero

ill, enfermo

illness, la enfermedad, el mal

fever, la fiebre

swollen, hinchado

wound, la herida

wounded, herido

head-ache, el dolor de cabeza

tooth-ache, el dolor de muelas

cough, la tos

to cough, toser

lame, cojo

burn, la quemadura

pain, el dolor

poison, el veneno

11. Military.

war, la guerra

peace, la paz

ally, el aliado

enemy, el enemigo

army, el ejército

danger, el peligro

dangerous, peligroso

to win, vencer (Pres. venzo, vence, etc.; Pol. Impv. venza)

to surround, rodear

to arrest, arrestar, detener (see tener, p. 258)


to kill, matar

to escape, escaparse (de), evadirse

to run away, escapar, huir (Pres., huyo, huyes, huye, huimos, huís, huyen).

to lead, guiar, ir a la cabeza de, conducir (see p. 255)

to follow, seguir (i), Pres. 1st sg. sigo, Pol. Impv. siga


to surrender, rendirse (i)

to retreat, retirarse, retroceder

to bomb, shell, bombardear

fear, el miedo

prison, la prisión, la cárcel

prisoner, el prisionero

to take prisoner, hacer prisionero

to capture, capturar, apresar

help, la ayuda, el socorro

comrade, buddy, el compañero

battle, la batalla, el combate, la lucha

to fight, combatir, pelear, luchar con

soldier, el soldado

private, el soldado (raso)

corporal, el cabo

sergeant, el sargento

lieutenant, el teniente

captain, el capitán

major, el comandante

colonel, el coronel

general, el general

officer, el oficial

company, la compañía

battalion, el batallón

regiment, el regimiento

brigade, la brigada

division, la división

troops, las tropas

reinforcements, los refuerzos

fortress, la fortaleza
sentinel, el centinela; (to do sentry duty, estar de centinela)
to be on duty, estar de guardia
guard, el guardia
sign-post, el letrero
navy, la marina (de guerra), la armada
sailor, el marinero
marine, el soldado de marina
warship, el buque (el barco) de guerra
cruiser, el crucero
destroyer, el cazatorpedero, el destructor
convoy, el convoy
escort, la escolta, el convoy
weapon, el arma (fem.)
rifle, el rifle, el fusil
machine-gun, la ametraladora
cannon, el cañón
ammunition, las municiones
supplies, las provisiones, los pertrechos
cartridge, el cartucho
bullet, la bala, el proyectil
belt, el cinturón (cartridge-belt, la canana)
knapsack, la mochila
tent, la tienda
camp, el campo, el campamento
map, el mapa, el plano topográfico
rope, la cuerda
flag, la bandera
helmet, el casco
bayonet, la bayoneta
uniform, el uniforme
airplane, el avión, el aeroplano
bombing plane, el avión de bombardeo
pursuit plane, el avión de caza
shell, la granada, la bomba
bomb, la bomba
truck, el camión, el autocamión, la camioneta
tank, el tanque, el camión blindado
to load, cargar (note 29)
to fire, to shoot, tirar
to shoot (military execution), fusilar
spy, el espía
fire!, ¡fuego!
attention!, ¡atención!, ¡firmes!
forward!, ¡adelante!
halt!, alto!, ¡alto ahí!
air-raid shelter, el refugio antiaéreo

carriage, el vagón
station, el estación
ticket, el billete

12. Travel.

passport, el pasaporte
customs, la aduana
ship, el buque, el vapor
steamer, el vapor
stateroom, el camarote
berth, la litera
to travel, viajar
trip, voyage, el viaje
to leave, depart, partir, salir (Pres. salgo, sales, etc.; Fut. saldré, Impv. sal, salga)
to arrive, llegar (note 29)
to ride, (a conveyance), ir montado en, ir en
railroad, el ferrocarril
station, la estación
track, el carril, los rieles
train, el tren
platform, el andén
ticket, el billete
compartment, el compartimiento, el departamento
all aboard, ¡viajeros al tren!
dining-car, el coche comedor
sleeper, el vagón cama
car, coach, el coche
trunk, el baúl
valise, la maleta
baggage, el equipaje
porter, el mozo (de equipajes)
bus, el autobús, el ómnibus
street-car, el tranvía

13. Reading and Writing.

to read, leer
newspaper, el periódico
magazine, la revista
book, el libro

to write, escribir (P. p. escrito)
to translate, traducir (for all verbs
in -ducir, see conducir, above)
pencil, el lápiz (pl. lápices)
chalk, la tiza
blackboard, la pizarra, el tablero
ink, la tinta


to smoke, fumar
cigar, el cigarro
cigarette, el pitillo, el cigarrillo
tobacco, el tabaco
match, el fósforo, la cerilla
give me a light, déme Ud. lumbré
theatre, el teatro
movies, el cine
dance, el baile
to dance, bailar
to have a good time, divertirse
(ie), pasar un buen rato
ticket, el billete
pleasure, el placer, el gusto
to play (music), tocar (note 29)

15. Town and Country.

place, spot, el lugar, el sitio
city, la ciudad
street, la calle

automobile, el automóvil
taxi, el taxi (el taxímetro)
driver, el chófer, el conductor
to drive (car), manejar, guiar,
conducir (Pres. 1st sg. conduz-
co, Past conduje, Pol. Impv.
conduzca)

pen, la pluma (fountain-pen, plur
majuente, pluma estilográfica
envelope, el sobre
paper, el papel
letter, la carta
post-office, el correo
stamp, el sello
letter-box, el buzón
to mail, echar al correo
address, la dirección
post-card, la tarjeta (postal)

to sing, cantar
song, la canción
to play (a game), jugar (ue, and
see note 29)
game, el juego, la partida
ball, la pelota
to take a walk, pasearse, dar un
paseo
beach, la playa
to swim, nadar
sand, la arena
refreshment, el refresco
saloon, la cantina, el bar, la ta-
berna
picnic, la escursión, la partida de
campo

sidewalk, la acera
road, la carretera, el camino
intersection, la bocacalle

door, la puerta
roof, el tejado, el techo, la azotea
to open, abrir (P. p. abierto)
to close, cerrar (ie)
key, la llave
to go in, entrar en (he entered the room, entró en el cuarto)
to go out, salir de (Pres., salgo, sales, etc.; Fut. saldré; Impv. sal, salga)
house, la casa (at home, en casa, to go home, ir a casa)
cottage, la casita (de campo)
hut, la choza, la cabaña
to live in, vivir en, habitar en staircase, la escalera
to go up, subir
to go down, bajar
room, el cuarto, la habitación
toilet, el retrete
kitchen, la cocina
table, la mesa

17. Miscellaneous Nouns.

people, la gente (with sg. verb)
thing, la cosa
name, el nombre
luck, la suerte (bad luck, la mala suerte)

village, el pueblo
mountain, la montaña
grass, la hierba
yard, el patio, el corral
hill, la colina
lake, el lago
forest, el bosque
field, el campo
flower, la flor
tree, el árbol
rock, stone, la piedra
jungle, la selva

chair, la silla
to sit down, sentarse, (ie)
to stand, be standing, estar de pie
wall, la pared
lamp, la lámpara
candle, la bujía, la vela
closet, el armario, la alacena
window, la ventana
bed, la cama
bedroom, la alcoba
blanket, el cobertor
sheet, la sábana
mattress, el colchón
alarm-clock, el despertador
pillow, la almohada
to rest, descansar
to go to bed, acostarse (ue)
to go to sleep, fall asleep, dormirse (ue)
to sleep, dormir (ue)
to wake up, despertarse (ie)
to dress, vestirse (i)
to get up, levantarse

number, el número
life, la vida
death, la muerte
work, el trabajo
18. Verbs — Coming and Going.

to come, venir (Pres. vengo, vienes, viene, venimos, venis, vienen; Past. vine; Fut. vendré; Impv. ven, venga)
to go, ir (Pres. voy, vas, va, vamos, vais, van; Impf. iba; Past fui, fuiste, fué, fuimos, fuisteis, fueron; Fut. iré; Impv. ve, vaya)

(ir a, to be going to: I am going to eat, voy a comer)
to go away, irse, marcharse

to stay, remain, quedarse, permanecer (Pres. permanezco, Pol. Impv. permanezca)
to return, volver (ue); P. p. vuelto (volver a, to do again; he writes again, vuelve a escribir)
to run, correr
to walk, andar, caminar, marchar, ir a pie
to fall, caer (Pres. caigo, caes, etc.)
to follow, seguir (i); Pres. 1st sg. sigo, Pol. Impv. siga


to see, ver (Pres. veo, ves, etc.; Impf. veía; P. p. visto)
to look at, mirar (I am looking at it, lo miro)
to look for, buscar (see note 29; I am looking for it, lo busco)
to laugh, reír (Pres. río, ríes, rie, reímos, reís, ríen; Past 3rd sg. rió, 3d pl. rieron; Impv. rie, ría)

to laugh at, make fun of, reírse de, burlarse de
to smile, sonreír
to look, seem, parecer (Pres. parezco, parece, etc.; it seems to me, me parece)
to recognize, reconocer (Pres. reconozco, reconoces, etc.)
to take for, tomar por

20. Verbs — Mental.

to make a mistake, equivocarse, (note 29)
to hope, esperar
to wait (for), esperar, aguardar (I am waiting for her, la espero)
to think, pensar (ie), -of, pensar en (I am thinking of him, pienso en él)
to believe, creer
to like. (lit. to please). gustar (I like this book. este libro me gusta, lit. this book pleases me)
to wish, desear querer (ie)

to want, querer (ie); Fut. querré, Past quisí

to know (a person), conocer (Pres. conozco, conoces, etc.; use conocía for “I knew”, conocí for “I met” (socially)
to know (a fact), saber (Pres. sé, sabes, etc.; Past. supe; Fut. sabré; use sabía for “I knew”, supé for “I found out”; I know how to write, sé escribir)
to understand, comprender, entender (ie)
to remember, recordar (ue),
21. Verbs — Miscellaneous

to live, vivir

to die, morir (ue) (P. p. muerto)
to work, trabajar
to give, dar (Pres., doy, das, etc.; Past di)
to take, tomar
to show, mostrar (ue), indicar (note 29)
to begin, to start, empezar (ie), comenzar (ie) (note 29), ponerse a

to finish, acabar (acabar de, to have just: I have just written, acabo de escribir)
to continue, continuar, seguir (i) (he kept on reading, siguí leyendo)
to help, ayudar
to hide, esconderse, ocultarse
to lose, perder (ie)
to find, hallar, encontrar (ue); encontrar also means to meet, casually, as in the street

to leave, salir, partir (use dejar for leaving objects or people)
to try, tratar de

to meet, encontrar (ue), encontrarse con; (use conocer for the social sense: la conocí ayer, I met her yesterday)
to put, place, meter, poner (Pres. pongo, pones, etc.; Past puse;
tienes, tiene, tenemos, tenéis, tienen; Past. tuve; Fut. tendré; Impv. ten, tenga)
to fear, be afraid, tener, tener miedo (he’s afraid of his uncle, le tiene miedo a su tío)
to be right, tener razón
to be wrong, estar equivocado, no tener razón

to do, to make, hacer (Pres. hago, haces, etc.; Past hice; Fut. haré; Impv. haz, haga; P. p. hecho)
to have done, mandar hacer (I have the letter written, mando escribir la carta)
can, to be able, poder (ue); (Past pude; Fut. podrá)
to carry, llevar, transportar
to stop, parar (pararse or detenerse for self; use dejar de, or cesar de for “to stop doing”)
to bring, traer (Pres. 1st sg. traigo; Past traje, Pol. Impv. traiga)
to cover, cubrir (P. p. cubierto)
to get, obtain, conseguir (i), obtener (like tener, below)
to hold, tener (Pres. tengo, tienes, tenemos, tenéis, tienen; Past tuve; Fut. tendré; Impv. ten, tenga)
to get, become, ponerse (he became pale, se puso pálido)
to break, quebrar, romper (P. p. roto)
to hurry, apresurarse, darse prisa

to deliver, entregar (note 29)
to send, mandar, enviar, (Pres.
envío, enviás, envía, enviamos, enviáis, envían; Impv. envía, envíe
to belong, pertenecer (like cono-
cer)
to accept, aceptar
to refuse, rehusar

22. Adjectives.

small, pequeño, chiquito, chico
large, great, grande (gran before
a sg. noun, masc. or fem.)
big (bulky), grueso
tall, high, alto
short, corto, breve
low, short (stature), bajo
heavy, pesado, grueso
light, (weight) ligero
long, largo
wide, ancho
narrow, estrecho
clean, limpio
dirty, sucio
cool, fresco
cold, frío
warm, hot, caliente
damp, húmedo
wet, mojado
empty, vacío
dry, seco
full, lleno
soft, blando, muelle
hard, duro
quick, rápido, veloz (pl. veloces)
slow, lento
ordinary, ordinario, común
comfortable, cómodo
uncomfortable, incómodo, desa-
gradable
near, cercano
distant, lejano, distante
right, derecho
left, izquierdo
poor, pobre
rich, rico
beautiful, hermoso, bello

pretty, lindo, bonito
ugly, feo
sweet, dulce
bitter, amargo
sour, agrio, acre
salt, salado, salobre
young, joven
dark, obscuro
light, bright, clear, claro
fat, gordo
thick, grueso, grueso
thin, delgado
round, redondo
square, cuadrado
flat, plano
deep, hondo
strong, fuerte
weak, débil
tired, cansado
alone, solo
same, mismo
easy, fácil
hard, difficult, difícil
happy, contento, feliz (pl. felices)
merry, alegre
sad, triste
free, libre
crazy, loco
silly, tonto, bobo, necio, estúpido
drunk, borracho
polite, cortés
rude, descortés, mal educado
pleasant, agradable, amable
unpleasant, desagradable
lonesome, solitario, triste
ture, verdadero, cierto, exacto
false, falso, postizo
foreign, extranjero, ajeno
old, viejo
new, nuevo
good, bueno (buen before a masc. sg. noun)
better, mejor (best, el -)
bad, malo (mal before masc. sg. noun)
worse, peor (worst, el -)
fine, óptimo, muy bueno (for health use muy bien)
first, primero
last, último
friendly, amigable, amistoso, amigo
hostile, hostil, enemigo
lucky, afortunado, dichoso

unlucky, desdichado, desgraciado
charming, encantador (fem. encantadora)
afraid, temeroso, tímido
ready, listo, preparado
hungry, hambriento, (to be- tener hambre)
thirsty, sediento (to be- tener sed)
funny, cómico, curioso, gracioso
possible, posible
impossible, imposible
brave, valiente
cowardly, cobarde
quiet, tranquilo
noisy, ruidoso, estrepitoso
living, vivo
dead, muerto

23. Colors.
white, blanco
black, negro
red, rojo
green, verde
blue, azul
yellow, amarillo
gray, gris
brown, pardo, castaño
rose, rosa, color de rosa
purple, morado


Use no capital for the adjective or for the language.
Names of languages are used with the article unless they immediately follow the verb hablar or the preposition en: he speaks English, habla inglés; he speaks English well, habla bien el inglés; English is difficult, el inglés es difícil; he answered me in English, me contestó en inglés. (Adjectives of nationality ending in consonant add -a to form feminine: inglés, fem. inglesa, masc. pl. ingleses, fem. pl. inglesas)

American, americano, norteamericano
English, inglés
French, francés
German, alemán
Spanish, español
Russian, ruso

Italian, italiano
Japanese, japonés
Chinese, chino
Dutch, holandés
Norwegian, noruego
Swedish, sueco
Finnish, finlandés
Belgian, belga
Polish, polaco
Danish, danés
Swiss, suizo
Portuguese, portugués
Yugoslav, yugoeslavo
Bulgarian, búlgaro
Czech, checo
Greek, griego
Turkish, turco
Roumanian, rumano
Hungarian, húngaro
Austrian, austriaco
Malay, malayo
Persian, persa
Arabian, Arabic, Arab, árabe
Jewish, Hebrew, judío, hebreo
Australian, australiano
Canadian, canadiense
Mexican, mejicano (mexicano)

Brazilian, brasileño
Argentinian, argentino
Chilean, chileno
Peruvian, peruano
Cuban, cubano
Puerto Rican, puertorriqueño
Colombian, colombiano
Venezuelan, venezolano
Bolivian, boliviano
Uruguayan, uruguayo
Paraguayan, paraguayo
Ecuadorian, ecuatoriano
Costa Rican, costarricense
Honduran, hondureño
Salvadorian, salvadoreño
Guatemalan, guatemalteco
Dominican (of Santo Domingo). dominicano
Panamanian, panameño
Nicaraguan, nicaragüense

25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, hoy
yesterday, ayer
tomorrow, mañana
day before yesterday, antes de ayer
day after tomorrow, pasado mañana
tonight, esta noche
last night, anoche
this morning, esta mañana
in the morning, por la mañana
in the afternoon, por la tarde
in the evening, in the night, por la noche
tomorrow morning, mañana por la mañana
tomorrow afternoon, mañana por la tarde
tomorrow evening, mañana por la noche
early, temprano, pronto

on time, a tiempo
late, tarde
already, ya
no longer, ya no (he is no longer here, ya no está aquí)
yet, still, todavía
not yet, todavía no
now, ahora
afterwards, then, después, entonces
never, nunca, jamás (use no before verb: he never comes, no viene nunca)
always, siempre
forever, para siempre
soon, pronto
often, a menudo
seldom, rara vez, raramente
usually, comúnmente, generalmente
fast, de prisa
slowly, despacio
here, aquí
there, allí, allá, ahí
over there, allá, por allí, allá abajo
near by, cerca (near here, aquí
cerca, cerca de aquí)
far away, a lo lejos, lejos
up, arriba
donw, abajo
ahead, in front, por delante
behind, in back, por detrás
forward, adelante
back, para atrás (go back, ¡vuelva
Ud. para atrás!)
outside, fuera, afuera
inside, dentro
opposite, en frente
here and there, aquí y allá
everywhere, en todas partes, por
todas partes
where?, ¿dónde?, ¿a dónde?
(use “¿a dónde?” if there is
motion)
where, donde, adonde, (use adon-
de for motion)
also, también
yes, sí
no, not, no
very, muy
much, mucho (very much, mu-
chísimo)
well, bien
badly, mal
better, mejor
worse, peor
more, más (more than, más que;
but use más de before nume-
rals)
less, menos
as - as, tan—como
as much - as, tanto—como
as many—as, tantos—como
how many?, ¿cuánto?
how?, ¿cómo?
too much, demasiado
too many, demasiados
so much, tanto
so many, tantos
as, like, como
so, así
besides, furthermore, además
finally, finalmente, en fin, por fin
only, solamente, sólo
almost, casi
gladly, de buena gana
certainly, seguramente, sin duda
at once, en seguida
at all, no por cierto, de ninguna
manera
unfortunately, por desgracia, des-
graciadamente
hardly, apenas
aloud, en voz alta, alto
suddenly, de repente, de pronto
about, de, alrededor de
perhaps, maybe, tal vez, quizá,
acaso (subjunctive; perhaps he
will write, tal vez escriba)
a little, un poco
again, otra vez, de nuevo
really, truly, de veras, verdadera-
mente


together, juntamente, juntos (they
left together, salieron juntos)
at least, por lo menos, al menos
for lack of, por falta de
a long time ago, hace mucho
tiempo
repeatedly, again and again, re-
petidas veces
therefore, por eso, por lo tanto
further away, mas allá
of course, por supuesto, claro, na-
tural(mente)
occasionally, de vez en cuando
and, *y*  
but, *pero*  
if, *si*  
or, *o*  
why?, *¿por qué?*  
because, *porque*  
why!, *¡cómo!, ¡qué!, *pués*  
before, *antes que*  
when, *cuando*  
than, *que* (before number use *de*)  
where, *donde, adonde*  
until, till, *hasta que*  

although, *aunque*  
unless, *a menos que, a no ser que*  
while, *mientras (que)*  
that, *que*  
for, since, *pués*  
after, *después de que*  
as soon as, *luego que*  
as long as, *mientras (que)*  
provided that, *con tal que*  
in order that, *para que*  
so that, *de manera que*  
without, *sin que*  

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

everything, *todo*  
everyone, *todos*  
all, *todo*  
each, every, *cada uno, todos*  
something, *algo, alguna cosa*  
some, *algunos, unos*  
little (not much), *poco*  
few, *pocos*  
a few, *unos cuantos*  
enough, *bastante, suficiente*  
enough!, ¡*basta!, ¡no más!*  
such a, *tal*  
all kinds of, *toda clase de*  
someone, *alguien*  
nothing, *nada*  
no one, *nadie*  
no.. (adj), *ninguno* (ningún before masc. sg. noun)  
either - nor, *ni - ni*  
(an) other, *otro*  
much, (lots of), *mucho, muchos*  
many, *muchos*  
several, *varios, diversos*  
both, *ambos, los dos* (fem. *las dos*)  

28. Prepositions.
of, from, *de* (with masc. sg. article *el* contracts to *del*)  
to, at, *a* (with masc. sg. article contracts to *al*; *must* be used with a noun indirect object: I give John the book, *doy el libro a Juan*; also with a noun direct object if it is a person: I see John, *veo a Juan*; but not with *tener*: I have two brothers,  

33. The subjunctive is used after these conjunctions *if* they express purpose, condition, supposition, concession or indefinite future time.

34. If these expressions appear *after* the verb, *no* is required before the verb: no one came, *no vino nadie* or *nadie vino*.
29. Special Expressions and Idioms.

good morning, good day, buenos días

good afternoon, good evening, buenas tardes

good night, buenas noches

good-by, adiós, hasta la vista

see you later, hasta luego

see you tomorrow, hasta mañana

just now, ahora mismo (just a moment ago, hace poco)

hello!, ¡hola! (on the telephone, ¿qué hay?, ¡diga!, ¡al aparato!)

how are you?, ¿cómo está Ud.?

how goes it?, ¿qué tal?

I'm well, estoy bien

I'm (much) better, estoy (mucho) mejor

what time is it?, ¿qué hora es?

it's six o'clock, son las seis

at six o'clock, a las seis

at about six, a eso de las seis

at half past six, a las seis y media

at a quarter past (to) six, a las seis y (menos) cuarto

at ten minutes past (to) six, a las seis y (menos) diez

last year, el año pasado

next year, el año que viene, el año próximo

every day, todos los días

viendo dos hermanos

with, con, (with me, contigo; with you, contigo)
in, on, at, en

over, above, sobre

for, por, para (use para to indicate purpose or destination.
por for exchange: I paid $2 for this book; it's for you, pagué dos pesos por este libro; es para Ud.)

by, por

without, sin

until, up to, hasta

since, desde

toward, hacia

between, among, entre

near, cerca de

far from, lejos de

before, antes de

after, después de

in front of, opposite, delante de, frente a

in back of, behind, detrás de

under (neath), bajo

through, across, por, a través de

against, contra

by means of, por medio de

in spite of, a pesar de, no obstante

about, around, alrededor de

because of, on account of, por, a (or por) causa de

during, durante

instead of, en lugar de, en vez de

beside, al lado de, junto a

on the other side of, del otro lado de
each day, cada día
the whole day, todo el día
please, will you?, hágame Ud. el favor (de), sirvase, tenga la bondad (de)
tell me, diégame (please tell me, hágame Ud. el favor de decírmelo)
will you give me?, ¿quiere Ud. darme?
bring (to) me, tráigame
show (to) me, muéstreme, indíqueme
thank you, gracias
don’t mention it, no hay de que, de nada
pardon me, dispense Ud., perdone Ud.
it doesn’t matter, never mind, no importa
I’m sorry, lo siento
I can’t help, no puedo menos de (I can’t help saying, no puedo menos de decir)
it’s nothing, no es nada
what a pity!, it’s too bad!, ¡qué lástima!, ¡es lástima!
I’m glad, me alegra, tengo mucho gusto (to, en plus infinitive)
I have to, tengo que
I agree (all right, O. K.), (estoy) de acuerdo, estoy conforme
where are you going?, ¿a dónde va?
here is (are), aquí tiene Ud.
there is, there are, hay (use ahí está, ahi están, if pointing out)
which way?, ¿por dónde?
where is?, ¿dónde está?
this way, (direction), por aquí (that way, por allá)
this way (in this fashion), de este modo, de esta manera
to the right, a la derecha
to the left, a la izquierda
straight ahead, adelante
come with me, venga contigo
what can I do for you?, ¿en qué puedo servirle?
what is happening?, ¿qué pasa?, ¿qué ocurre?, ¿qué sucede?
what is it?, what is the matter?, ¿qué hay?, ¿qué pasa?
what is the matter with you?, ¿qué tiene Ud.?, ¿qué le pasa a Ud.?
what do you want?, ¿qué desea Ud.?
how much is it?, ¿cuánto?, ¿cuánto cuesta?
anything else?, ¿algo más?
nothing else, nada más
do you speak Spanish?, ¿habla Ud. español?
a little, un poco
speak (more) slowly, hable Ud. (más) despacio
do you understand?, ¿comprende Ud.?
I don't understand, no comprendo, no entiendo
do you know?, ¿sabe Ud.?
I don’t know, no sé
I can't, no puedo
what do you call this in Spanish?, ¿cómo se llama esto en español?
how do you say - in Spanish?, ¿cómo se dice - en español?
what does that mean?, ¿qué quiere decir eso?
what do you mean?, ¿qué quiere Ud. decir?
what are you talking about?, ¿de qué habla Ud.?

I’m an American, soy norteamericano
I’m hungry (thirsty, sleepy, warm, cold), tengo hambre (sed, sueño, calor, frío) 35
It’s warm (cold, windy, fine weather, bad weather), hace calor (frío, viento, buen tiempo, mal tiempo) 35
It’s forbidden, prohibido (no smoking, prohibido fumar)
luckily, afortunadamente, por fortuna, por suerte
is it not so?, ¿no es verdad?, ¿verdad? (use this invariable phrase
wherever English repeats the verb: you went, didn’t you?; he is here, isn’t he?)
not at all, de nada
how old are you?, ¿cuántos años tiene Ud.?
I’m twenty years old, tengo veinte años
how long have you been waiting?, ¿desde cuándo espera Ud.?
how long have you been here?, ¿desde cuándo está Ud. aquí?
as soon as possible, lo más pronto posible, cuanto antes
come here!, ¡venga acá (aquí)!
come in!, ¡pase adelante!, ¡adelante!, ¡entre Ud.!
look!, ¡mire!, ¡vea!
careful!, ¡con cuidado!
look out!, ¡cuidado!, ¡tenga cuidado!
for heaven’s sake!, ¡por Dios!
heck!, darn it!, ¡caramba!
as you please, como Ud. quiera, como Ud. guste
tlisten!, look here!, say!, ¡oiga!
just a second!, ¡un momento!
what kind of?, ¿qué clase de?
gangway!, by your leave!, ¡con permiso de Ud.!, ¡paso!, ¡allá voy!
in any case, at any rate, en cualquier caso
glad to meet you, ¡muchísimo gusto!
you don’t say so!, ¡parece mentira!
notice!, ¡aviso!

35. With these expressions, translate “very” by mucho (mucha with hambre and sed, muy with buen tiempo and mal tiempo).
to your health!, ¡a su salud!
I should like, quisiera
stop!, ¡pare!
hurry!, ¡apresúrese (usted)!
keep to the right, guardar la derecha
entrance, entrada (exit, salida)
right now, ahora mismo
there it (he, she) goes!, ¡ahi va!
good luck to you!, ¡que lo pase usted bien!, ¡buena suerte!
he was successful, le salió bien, tuvo éxito
of course!, you bet!, ¡claro!, ¿cómo no?, ¡ya lo creo!
don’t worry!, ¡pierda usted cuidado!
stop your fooling! quit your kidding!, ¡déjese de bromas!
really?, honest?, ¿de veras?
what nonsense!, ¡qué tontería!
man, you don’t say so!, ¡hombre! ¡no me diga!
it’s all the same to me, lo mismo me da
what a disappointment!, what a break! (ironical), ¡qué chasco!
there is no doubt, no cabe duda (I have no doubt, no me cabe duda)
what do you think?, ¿qué le parece? (how do you like this, ¿qué le parece a usted esto?)
of course I did it!, you bet I did it!, ¡sí que lo hice!
to get angry, enfadarse; Spanish America: ponerse bravo (he got sore, se puso bravo)

30. Slang Words and Expressions.

to die, to “kick the bucket”, espichar, estirar la pata
to kid one along, tomar el pelo a uno
to have pull, tener buenas aldabas
to get drunk, coger un tablón
to sleep like a log, dormir a-pierna suelta

pal, compinche
goint, dive, garito
fatty, gordíflón
colored man, morenito
wishful thinker, ojalatero
“dumb”, pelmazo
“sissy”, marica
face, “mug”, jeta

policeman, “cop”, guinda
annoying person, “pest”, calamidad
quack, matasanos
money, parné
wild time, parranda
greenhorn, pipiolo
nerve, “gall”, tupé
bully, matón
CHAPTER VIII

PORTUGUESE

SPEAKERS AND LOCATION

(All population figures are approximate)

Europe — Portugal (including Azores) — 8,000,000; Galician, a dialect of northwestern Spain, spoken by some 3,000,000 people, is closer to Portuguese than it is to Spanish.

Asia — Goa, Damão and Diu, on the western coast of India; Macau, in southeastern China — total population, 900,000.

Africa — Angola — 4,500,000; Portuguese Guinea — 400,000; Mozambique — 4,500,000; Cape Verde and Madeira Islands, São Tomé and Príncipe, off the western coast of Africa — total population, 500,000.

Oceania — Portuguese Timor — 500,000.

South America — Brazil — 44,000,000.

North America — nearly a quarter of a million Portuguese immigrants and their descendants in the U. S. A., located mainly in California and Massachusetts.

Portuguese is also spoken in "Pidgin" or "Creole" variet-
ties in Zanzibar, Mombasa and Melinde, on the eastern coast of Africa; in Ceylon, Mangalore, Cochin, Coromandel and other localities, in India; a Malay-Portuguese pidgin appears in Java, Malaya and Singapore.
ALPHABET AND SOUNDS

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, x, z, â, ô, ç; (k, w and y do not appear in native Portuguese words).

Vowel sounds: there is a tendency, more noticeable in Portugal than in Brazil, to prolong stressed vowels somewhat and to pronounce unstressed vowels indistinctly.

a: = father (unstressed, it tends toward the e of the) (água);

e: = met (terra), or the first part of a in gate (mesa);

initial and followed by s plus consonant, it is almost silent (escudo, pron. 'shkudu); final, even though followed by s, = pin in Brazil, the in Portugal (dente, dentes);

i: = machine (filho);

o: = cup (nove), or the first part of o in go (novo); final, even though followed by s, = look (amigo, amigos);

u: = pool (mutro);

â: = father, but followed immediately by closure of the passage between nose and mouth (irmã);

ô: = cup, but followed immediately by closure as above (botões);

ou: = go; but in certain words it is pronounced and even spelt oi (dous or dois);

ei: = late (leite);

Consonant sounds: b, d, f, l, m, n, p, t, v, z, approximately as in English. (Note, however, that a final -m nasalizes a preceding vowel, and is not itself pronounced: bom, bem, fim, algum).

c = before a, o, u, or consonant, = cat (casa);

before e, i, = lace (cidade);

ç = (used only before a, o, u) = lace (caçador);

ch and x: usually = sure (chamar, caixa);

gh: = before a, o, u, or consonant, = go (gula, grande);

before e, i, = measure (geral);

h: always silent (hora, pronounced ora);

j: = measure (janela);
lh: = million (filho);

nh: = onion (nínho);

q: appears only before u, and = Engl. q, but the u is silent if e or i follow; the same applies to the gue, gui groups (quadro, pron. kwadru, but querela pron. kerela);

r: trilled, as in British very;

s: = sure when final or followed by a consonant (escala, pron. 'shkala; dedos, pron. dedush);¹
    = present when between two vowels (presente);¹
    = sun elsewhere (sol).

Sounds not appearing in Portuguese: all English vowel sounds outside of the ones mentioned above; church; jest; American r, thin, this (but d between vowels (dado) comes close to this).

Portuguese sounds not appearing in English: ā, ō, Portuguese r.

**SPELLING, SYLLABIFICATION, ACCENTUATION**

The spelling of Portuguese is now fully standardized (at least in theory), both in Portugal and Brazil, by mutual agreement between the two countries (1943). Alternative spellings, however, occur in such words as quási, quáse (almost), ouro, oiro (gold), and especially in words containing cc (dire-(c)ção, address), where the first c (= k) is not pronounced, or its pronunciation is optional, depending on local variations. Older printed works deviate considerably from the 1943 rules, especially in the matter of accents and double consonants (sahir for sair; secco for the modern sêco; janella for janela). The only double consonants permitted in the modern orthography are: -ss- between vowels, indicating the sound of sun (nosso), whereas single -s- = rose (desejo); -rr- and -nn- (the latter only in a few compounds: connosco).

¹. Note the double pronunciation of a final -s, according as a consonant or a vowel begins the next word: as casas, pron. ash kazash; but as amigas, pron. az amigash.
A single consonant between two vowels goes with the following, not with the preceding vowel: pronounce geral as ge ral; reparar as re pa rar; primeiro as pri mei ro.

The accent regularly falls on the next to the last syllable in words ending in vowels (except -á, which is usually stressed when final: irmã), -m or -s (amigo, viagem, mulheres); otherwise, on the last syllable (jantar). Deviations from these rules require written accents. The acute (´) is used if the vowel has an open sound (o = cup, e = met, etc.); the circumflex (^) if the vowel has a closed sound (o = go, e = gate, etc.); thus, in café, the acute accent indicates not only that the stress falls on the last syllable, but also that the e has the sound of met; while in Você, the circumflex accent shows the place of the stress and also the fact that the e has the sound of the first part of gate. The accent marks, acute and circumflex, are also used to distinguish between two words that would otherwise have the same spelling (pôr, “to put”; por, “for”, “by”; e, “and”; é, “is”). The grave accent (¨) is always used on an unstressed syllable, serving merely to indicate that the open sound of a vowel is kept in compound words in one of the main elements of which the acute accent appears (adverbs, augmentatives, diminutives, etc.): má, mãe, ca, cafèzinho; pálido, pàlidamente. It is also used to show the combination of the preposition a (to) with the definite article or a demonstrative pronoun (a, “to” plus as, feminine plural article, contract to às; a plus aquele, “that”, contract to àquêle.

The diaeresis is used to show that the u of the groups qu, gu before e or i is to be sounded, not silent (consequência, tranquilho); it is also optionally used to separate two unstressed vowels that would otherwise form a diphthong (saídar or saudar; proibido or proíbido). If one of the two vowels that are to be separated is stressed, the acute accent must be used (saúde, baía).
“Senhor, pode dizer-me se esta rua conduz à praça do comércio?” — “Não, senhor. O senhor afastou-se do verdadeiro caminho; a praça acha-se no centro da cidade, numa das ruas principais, e esta estrada, em que estamos, conduz numa direcção inteiramente oposta.” — “Que caminho é preciso então que eu tome?” — “Vá todo direito até à primeira ruazinha à esquerda, siga-a, ela o conduzirá a uma grande praça; quando o senhor lá tiver chegado, volte à direita e achar-se-á em face de uma grande rua ao fim da qual verá um magnífico edifício; este é o palácio da praça do comércio; o senhor não pode errar.” — “Que distância pode haver daqui?” — “ Pouco mais ou menos meia hora de marcha, pois eu indiquei-lhe o caminho mais curto.” — “Fico-lhe muito obrigado, senhor.” — “Não há de quê.”
1. Nouns and Articles.

There are only two genders in Portuguese, masculine and feminine. Nouns denoting males are masculine, those denoting females are feminine. For nouns which in English are neuter, the ending -o usually denotes masculine gender, -a feminine gender. The gender of nouns ending in -e or consonants must be determined by observation; learn these nouns with their definite articles. The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding -s to the singular if the latter ends in a vowel, -es if it ends in a consonant. The definite article is o (plural os) for masculine nouns, a (plural as) for feminine nouns. The indefinite article is um for masculine nouns, uma for feminines.

2. Nouns ending in -l usually change -l to -s or -is: animal, pl. animais; fuzil (“rifle”), pl. fuzis; nouns ending in -m generally change -m to -ns: homem, “man”, pl. homens; nouns ending in -ão usually change -ão to -ães or -ões: capitão, pl. capitães; coração, pl. coraçãoes; note in this connection that -ão, pl. -ães usually corresponds to a Spanish -án, pl. -anes, while -ão, pl. -ões normally corresponds to a Spanish -ón, pl. -ones; the Spanish for “nation” being nación (pl. naciones), what is the plural of Portuguese nação?

3. The definite article combines with certain prepositions: de (of, from) in combination with o, a, os, as, becomes do, da, dos, das; a (to) in the same combinations becomes ao, à, aos, às; em (in) becomes no, na, nos, nas; por (for) becomes pelo, pela, pelos, pelas; the woman’s house, the house of the woman, a casa da mulher; the women’s houses, as casas das mulheres; I am speaking to the man’s daughter, falo à filha do homem; he went into the house, entrou na casa; by the fruit one knows the tree, pelos frutos se conhece a árvore.

The indefinite article combines only with em (num, numa): in a house, numa casa. This combination is optional (em uma casa).
2. Adjectives and Adverbs.

The Portuguese adjective, whether attributive or predicate, agrees with the noun that it modifies; this does not necessarily mean identical endings (o homem cruel, the cruel man; os homens cruéis, the cruel men; a mulher bonita, the pretty woman; as mulheres bonitas, the pretty women). Adjectives usually follow the nouns they modify.

Adjectives ending in -o change -o to -a in the feminine singular, to -os in the masculine plural, to -as in the feminine plural (novo, nova, novos, novas); those ending in -ão normally change to -ã in the fem. sg., to -ãos in the masc. pl., to -ãs in the fem. pl. (temporão, temporã, temporãos, temporãs); those ending in -e or consonant usually remain unchanged in the feminine; in the plural, -e adjectives add -s for both genders, consonant adjectives add -s or -es (breve, breve, breves, breves; jovem, jovem, jovens, jovens; feliz, feliz, felizes, felizes). 4

4. Adjectives ending in -ès, -ol, -or, -um, -u usually add -a in the feminine, especially if they denote nationality: português, portuguesa, portugueses, portuguesas; espanhol, espanhola. Adjectives ending in -l normally change -l to -is, -es or -eis in the plural: fácil, pl. fáceis; azul, pl. azuis; civil, pl. civis; while adjectives ending in -m form their plural in -ns. Note the combination of these two exceptional formations in several adjectives: espanhol, espanhola, espanhóis, espanholas; algum, alguma, alguns, algumas.
The comparative is usually formed by prefixing *mais* (more) to the positive: *esta rapariga é mais bonita que aquela*, this girl is prettier than that one. The superlative is formed by using the definite article before the noun or before *mais*: *é a mais bela*, she is the most beautiful; *ela é a moça mais bela que eu conheço*, she is the most beautiful girl I know.

tão - como, as - as; tanto (tanta) - como, as much - as; tantos (tantas) - como, as many - as; menos que - less than.

The adverb is generally formed by adding *-mente* to the feminine singular form of the adjective: *justo*, just, fem. *justa*, adverb *justamente*, justly.


**Cardinal**

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>um, uma</td>
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<td>dois, duas</td>
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<td>90</td>
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5. Use these in dates, save for "the first": *o primeiro de maio*, May 1st; *o cinco de maio*, May 5th.
100 — cem (cento)
200 — duzentos
300 — trezentos
400 — quatrocentos
500 — quinhentos
600 — seiscentos
700 — setecentos
800 — oitocentos
900 — novecentos
1000 — mil
2000 — dois mil
1,000,000 — um milhão (de)

Ordinal.

1st - primeiro; 2nd - segundo; 3rd - terceiro; 4th - quarto; 5th - quinto; 6th - sexto; 7th - sétimo; 8th - oitavo; 9th - nono; 10th - décimo; 11th - décimo primeiro; 12th - décimo segundo; 20th - vigésimo; 30th - trigésimo; 40th - quadragésimo; 50th - quinquagésimo; 60th - sexagésimo; 70th - septuagésimo; 80th - octogésimo; 90th - nonagésimo; 100th - centésimo; 1000th - milésimo.

Others.

half - a metade (noun), or um meio (adjective): a metade da classe, half of the class; meia hora, half an hour.

um par de - a pair of; uma dúzia de - a dozen; uma vez - once; duas vezes - twice; a primeira vez - the first time.

6. Use cem immediately before the noun, or if mil or milhão follows: cem homens, 100 men; cem mil, 100,000; use cento if a numeral smaller than 100 follows: cento e doze homens, 112 men.

7. Plural hundreds change -os to -as if used with feminine nouns: duzentas mulheres, 200 women.
4. Pronouns.

a) Personal (Subject)§

I, eu  
you (fam.), tu§  
he, êle  
she, ela  
you (polite), Vôcê§

we, nós  
you (fam. pl.), vós§  
they (masc.), êles  
they (fem.), elas  
you (pol. pl.), Vôcês§

b) Personal (Direct and Indirect Object).

me, to me, me  
you, to you, te  
him, it, o  
her, it, a  
to him, to her, to it, to you

us, to us, nos  
you, to you, vos  
them (masc.), os  
them (fem.), as  
to them, to you (pol. pl.), lhes

(pol.), lhe

These normally precede the verb:¹⁰ êle me conhece, he

8. These are used especially for emphasis or clarification: I speak, falo; I speak, eu falo; I should speak, eu falaria; he would speak, êle falaria.

9. Tu and vós, with the second singular and second plural of the verb, respectively, are used only in familiar conversation. One polite form of address, especially in Brazil, is Vôcê, with the third singular of the verb, for a single person addressed, and Vôcês with the third plural, for more than one person. The written abbreviation for the singular form is V. An even more common form of address, especially in Portugal, is o senhor (a senhora, os senhores, as senhoras) likewise with the third persons of the verb: o senhor tem o livro?, have you the book?; os senhores falam português?, do you (pl.) speak Portuguese?

10. But usage varies considerably in this respect: digo-lhe a verdade, I tell him the truth; Vôcê enganou-o, you deceived him. In the future and conditional tenses, the pronoun is often inserted between the infinitive root and the ending: chamarei, I shall call; chamá-lo-ei, I shall call him. The negative always requires the pronoun before the verb: não se deve fazer, it must not be done. The use of the object pronoun at the very outset of the sentence is generally avoided: vendo-lho or eu lho vendo, I sell it to him (not lho vendo).
knows me; eu lhe falo, I am speaking to him. The negative não ("not") may appear before or after the object pronoun: êle não me quer pagar or êle me não quer pagar, he does not want to pay me. With the infinitive, the object pronoun regularly follows, and is attached by a hyphen: tenho uma graça a pedir-lhe, I have a favor to ask you; if the object pronoun is o, a, os, or as, the -r of the infinitive is dropped, -l is prefixed to the pronoun, and the final vowel of the infinitive takes a circumflex accent for -er verbs, an acute for -ar and -ir verbs: quero vender o livro, I want to sell the book; quero vendê-lo, I want to sell it; quero comprá-lo, I want to buy it.

c) Compound (Direct and Indirect Combined; see p. 288, no. 3).
it to me, them to me, mo, ma, mos, mas: êles mo darão, they will give it to me.
it to you, them to you, to, ta, tos, tas: quem to prometeu? who promised it to you?
it to him, it to her, it to you (pol.), it to them,11 lho, lha: quero lho dar, I want to give it to him.
it to us, them to us, no-lo, no-la, no-los, no-las: êles no-las darão, they will give them to us.
it to you, them to you, vo-lo, vo-la, vo-los, vo-las: posso vo-lo escrever, I can write it to you.
them to him, them to her, them to you (pol.), lhos, lhas: quero lhos dar, I want to give them to him.11

While a single object pronoun normally follows the infinitive (quero vendê-lo), a compound one more usually precedes: quer mo dar? Não, quero vo-lo emprestar, do you want to give it to me? No, I want to lend it to you.

d) Personal Pronouns with Prepositions.

11. Distinguish by adding a êle, a ela, a V., a êles, a elas: vendo-lho a V., or vendo-o a V., I sell it to you; vendo-lho a êle or vendo-o a êle, I sell it to him. This is done only when necessary.
These are the same as the subject pronouns, save that mim replaces eu, and ti replaces tu: fala de mim, he is speaking about me; lembravam-se de ti, they remembered you. With the preposition com (with), the forms mig, tigo, nosco, vosco are used instead of mim, ti, nos, vos: fala comigo, he is speaking with me; vai connosco, he is going with us.

e) Possessive.

my, mine, (o) meu, (a) minha, (os) meus, (as) minhas
your, yours, (o) teu, (a) tua, (os) teus, (as) tuas
his, her, hers, its, their, theirs, your, yours (pol.), 12 (o) seu, (a) sua, (os) seus, (as) suas
our, ours, (o) nosso, (a) nossa, (os) nossos, (as) nossas
your, yours, (o) vosso, (a) vossa, (os) vossos, (as) vossas

These forms are used both as adjectives and as pronouns. The definite article may be used, but is more often omitted, when the possessive is an adjective: (o) meu relógio, my watch; it is regularly used when the possessive is a pronoun, save after the verb “to be”: meu relógio é melhor que o vosso, my watch is better than yours; esta casa é minha, this house is mine.

f) Demonstrative.

this, these, êste, esta, êstes, estas: êste livro, this book; que flor é esta?, what flower is this?
that, those (near you), êsse, essa, êsses, essas: essa casa, that house of yours; que casa é essa? what house is that?
that, those (yonder), aquêle, aquela, aquêles, aquelas: quer o senhor aquêle vinho? do you want that wine?

“Neuter” pronouns, isto, isso, aquilo, refer to a general situation or state of affairs: isto não é possível, this is not possible; isso não pode ser, that can’t be.

“The one”, “the ones” are usually translated by the de-

12. Clarify, if necessary, by adding de éle, de ela, de V., de éles, de elas: suas filhas de éle, his daughters; suas filhas de V., your daughters; or as filhas de éle, as filhas de V.
finite article (o, a, os, as), referring to persons, by aquêle referring to things: o que fala é meu tio, the one who is speaking is my uncle; êste vinho é bom, mas aquêle que lhe dei ontem é melhor, this wine is good, but the one I gave you yesterday is better.

g) Relative and Interrogative.

who, whom, that, which, que:\ a mulher que canta, the woman who is singing; a mulher que êle ama, the woman he loves;\ o navio que sai, the ship that is leaving; o navio que V. comanda, the ship you command.

whom (after prepositions), quem: diz-me com quem andas, tell me with whom you go.

whose, cujo (cuja, cujos, cujas): o rapaz cujo pai é capitão, the boy whose father is a captain.

who?, whom?, quem?: quem fala português?, who speaks Portuguese?; a quem havemos de falar?, to whom are we to speak?

whose?, de quem?: de quem é êste livro?, whose book is this? what?, que?: que quer o senhor?, what do you want?; que lições tem aprendido?, what lessons have you learned?

which? which one? which ones?, qual? quais?: qual dos irmãos morreu? which of the brothers died?

5. Verbs.

Portuguese verbs fall into three main classes, with the infinitive ending respectively in -ar, -er, and -ir (to love, amar; to yield, ceder; to leave, partir). A considerable number of -ir verbs undergo changes in the vowel of the root (u changing to o when the ending has an e: subir, 3rd sg. sobe; e changing

13. o qual, a qual, os quais, as quais, or o que, a que, os que, as que, are occasionally used to refer to the more distant of two possible antecedents: são os amigos de seu pai os quais saem para o Brasil, they are his father's friends, who are leaving for Brazil.

14. Note that the relative pronoun cannot be omitted.
to i when the ending has a or o: servir, 1st sg. sirvo; etc.). Numerous other irregularities appear, some of which are given in the vocabulary.

1. Present Indicative (meaning: I love, am loving, do love)

to love,  am-ar  to yield,  ced-er  to leave,  part-ir

I love,  am-o  I yield,  ced-o  I leave,  part-o
you love,  am-as  you yield,  ced-es  you leave,  part-es
he loves,  am-a  he yields,  ced-e  he leaves,  part-e
we love,  am-amos  we yield,  ced-emos  we leave,  part-imos
you love,  am-aís  you yield,  ced-eis  you leave,  part-ís
they love,  am-am  they yield,  ced-em  they leave,  part-em

to be,  ser\textsuperscript{15}  to have,  estar\textsuperscript{15}  to be,  ter\textsuperscript{16}  to have,  haver\textsuperscript{16}
I am,  sou  estou  I have,  tenho  hei
you are,  és  estás  you have,  tens  hás
he is,  é  está  he has,  tem  há
we are,  somos  estamos  we have,  temos  havemos
(yemos)
you are,  sois  estais  you have,  tendes  haveis
they are,  são  estáo  they have,  têm  hão

15. Ser indicates a permanent or inherent quality, and must be used when a predicate noun follows; é homem, he is a man; é Brasileiro, he is a Brazilian. Estar indicates a temporary quality, location or state of health: está triste, he is sad; está cansado, he is tired; está no Rio, he is in Rio. Ser is used with the past participle to form the passive: é louvado, he is praised; estar is used with the gerund to form the progressive: está falando, he is speaking. Note that the ordinary present indicative also expresses the progressive idea, however. The gerund is formed by adding -ando to the root of -ar verbs (amar, amando); -endo to the root of -er verbs (ceder, cedendo); -indo to the root of -ir verbs (partir, partindo).

16. Ter is used with the past participle to form compound tenses; this applies to all verbs, including intransitive and reflexive forms,
2. Imperfect (meaning: I was loving, used to love)

- **-ar verbs**  - **-er verbs**  - **-ir verbs**

I used to love,  
you used to love,  
he used to love,  
we used to love,  
you used to love,  
they used to love,  

am-ava  
am-avas  
am-ava  
am-avamos  
am-áveis  
am-avam  

ced-ia  
ced-ias  
ced-ia  
ced-amos  
ced-ieis  
ced-iam  

part-ia  
part-ias  
part-ia  
part-amos  
part-ieis  
part-iam  

**ser:** era, eras, era, éramos, éreis, eram;  
**estar:** regular (estava, etc.);  
**ter:** tinha, tinhas, tinha, tínhamos, tínheis, tinham;  
**haver:** regular (havia, etc.).

3. Past (meaning: I loved)

- **-ar verbs**  - **-er verbs**  - **-ir verbs**

I loved,  
you loved,  
he loved,  

am-éi  
am-aste  
am-ou  

ced-i  
ced-este  
ced-eu  

part-i  
part-iste  
part-iu  

and the past participle so used is invariable: **tenho sido**, I have been;  
éle os tem tido, he has had them;  
ela tem chegado, she has arrived;  
temos falado, we have spoken;  os meninos se têm divertido, the children have had a good time. **Ter** is also used to indicate possession (tenho um bom amigo, I have a good friend); with **que** and the infinitive to indicate necessity (have to): **tenho que sair**, I have to go out; and in expressions of physical feelings (tenho fome e frio, I am hungry and cold).

**Haver** is restricted in use to **haver de** followed by the infinitive  
(heio de falar, I am to speak), and impersonally in the sense of “there  
to be” or “ago”: **havia momentos terríveis**, there were terrible  
moments; **haverá cem vapores no pôrto**, there will be (or must be) a  
hundred steamers in the harbor; **há mais de quatro meses**, more than  
four months ago.
we loved, am-ámos ced-emos part-imos
you loved, am-astes ced-estes part-istes
they loved, am-aram ced-érnam part-iram

ser: fui, foste, foi, fomos, fostes, foram;
estar: estive, estiveste, esteve, estivemos, estivestes, estiveram;
ter: tive, tiveste, teve, tivemos, tivestes, tiveram;
haver: houve, houveste, houve, houvemos, houvestes, houveram.

4. Future (meaning: I shall love), and Conditional (meaning: I should love).

The endings of these tenses are added to the entire infinitive, not to the stem:
amar- (ceder-, partir-) -ei, -ás, -á, -emos, -eis, -ão (amarei, I shall love);
amar- (ceder-, partir-) -ia, -ias, -ia, -iamos, -ieis, -iam (amaria, I should love).
ser, estar, ter and haver are regular in these tenses (serei, estarei, I shall be; seria, estaria, I should be; terei, haverei, I shall have; teria, haveria, I should have).

5. “Personal” infinitive.

This is a form peculiar to Portuguese, and consists of the infinitive to which are added the following personal endings: nothing in the first and third singular, -es in the second singular, -mos in the first plural, -des in the second plural, -em in the third plural: ser, seres, ser, sermos, serdes, serem; amar, amares, amar, amarmos, amardes, amarem. Its chief uses are: 1. in exclamations: sermos nós ricos!, for us to be rich! (if we only were rich!); 2. after prepositions where English would use a gerund: foram castigados por serem travêssos, they were punished for being naughty; 3. after a conjunction, to replace a clause: parti depois de terem falado, I left after they had spoken.
6. Compound Tenses.

These are formed by combining ter with the past participle of the verb (ending in -ado for -ar verbs, -ido for the others); the past participle is invariable.

Present Perfect: I have loved, tenho amado; I have arrived, tenho chegado;

Past Perfect: I had spoken, tinha falado; they had left, tinham partido;

Future Perfect: I shall have yielded, terei cedido;
Conditional Perfect: they would have gone, teriam ido.

7. Imperative.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-ar verbs</th>
<th>-er verbs</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Familiar Singular:</td>
<td>am-a</td>
<td>ced-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Person Plural (let us)</td>
<td>am-emos</td>
<td>ced-amos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar Plural:</td>
<td>am-ai</td>
<td>ced-ei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polite Singular:</td>
<td>am-e V.</td>
<td>ced-a V.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Polite Plural:</td>
<td>am-em Vocês</td>
<td>ced-am Vocês</td>
</tr>
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-ir verbs

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fam. Sg.:</td>
<td>part-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Pl.:</td>
<td>part-amos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fam. Pl.:</td>
<td>part-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pol. Sg.:</td>
<td>part-a V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pol. Pl.:</td>
<td>part-am Vocês</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the negative, the familiar singular and familiar plural are replaced by corresponding present subjunctive forms: não ames, não cedas, não partas; não ameis, não cedais, não partais.

8. Reflexive verbs.

These are conjugated with ter; the participle is invari-
able; the reflexive pronouns used are me, te, se, nos, vos, se: "ele se queixa" or "queixa-se", he complains (queixar-se, to com-
plain, lit. to bemoan oneself); os meninos se têm divertido, the children had a good time (amused themselves).


The passive is formed with the verb ser combined with the past participle, which agrees with the subject. "By" is translated by de if the action is predominantly mental, by por if physical: o rapaz foi castigado de seu mestre e batido por seu pai, the boy was punished by his teacher and beaten by his father.

10. Subjunctive.

The Portuguese subjunctive has six tenses, and is fre-
quently used in subordinate clauses. For the present sub-
junctive, the endings normally are: for -ar verbs: -e, -es, -e, -emos, -eis, -em: que eu ame, that I love; for -er and -ir verbs: -a, -as, -a, -amos, -ais, -am: que eu ceda, that I yield.

The imperfect subjunctive ends in -asse for -ar verbs, -esse for -er verbs, -isse for -ir verbs: que eu amasse, that I should love.

The present perfect subjunctive is formed by combining the present subjunctive of ter (tenha) with the past participle: que eu tenha amado, that I may have loved; the past perfect subjunctive combines the imperfect subjunctive of ter (tivesse) with the past participle: que eu tivesse chegado, that I might have arrived.

The future corresponds in form to the personal infinitive in regular verbs, and is formed by adding -r to the past in others; it is used for the most part after se (if) and quando (when), to refer to a future possibility: se eu partir, o diria, if I were to leave, I should say so.
BRAZILIAN VARIETIES OF PORTUGUESE

The Portuguese of Brazil not only differs from that of Portugal in certain points of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but has local varieties of its own. Two main Brazilian varieties are recognized, the Carioca (indigenous to Rio de Janeiro) and the Paulista, current in the south of the country. In the matter of pronunciation, Brazilian appears to be more conservative of older speech-forms than Portuguese, and is characterized by a clearer, slower, and more harmonious enunciation, due in large part to the conservation of the timbre of unstressed vowels, which Portugal tends to slur and even drop (m'ñino for menino; pont' for ponte; ad'vinha for adivinha). In vocabulary, on the other hand, Brazilian is distinguished not merely by archaic words, but also by numerous words borrowed from the languages of the Tupi-Guaraní Indians and the African slaves. Only a few of the major differences between Portuguese and Brazilian are listed.

PRONUNCIATION.

1. Brazilian retains the e in the diphthong ei and in the nasal diphthong em, while in Portugal ei tends toward aí and final em toward aí. Brazilian, however, tends to drop the i of the ei (beijo, pron. bâijo in Portugal, bejo in Brazil; também, pron. tambeim in Brazil, tambái in Portugal).

2. Brazilian tends to add an i-sound to a final stressed vowel followed by -s or -z (voz, pron. voíz; gás, pron. gáis).

3. The normal Portuguese diphthongs ai, ei, ou, tend to lose their final element in Brazilian pronunciation (baxo, pron. baxo; primeiro, pron. primeiro; tirou, pron. tiró).

4. In Portugal, a stressed e followed by nh, lh, j, ch, x tends to take the sound of a; this does not occur in Brazil (tenho, pron. tanho in Portugal; espelho, pron. espalho).
5. Brazilian tends to drop a final -r, while Portugal tends to add an -i, thus forming an extra syllable (falar, pron. falarí in Portugal, falá in Brazil; doutor, pron. doutori in Portugal, doutó in Brazil).

6. In the Carioca (Río), but not the Paulista pronunciation of Brazil, te, ti tend to be pronounced che, chi, and de, di tend to be pronounced je, ji (antes, pron. anches; tio, pron. chio; dia, pron. jía).

GRAMMAR.

1. The position of the object pronoun is more flexible in Brazil than in Portugal, with a greater tendency on the part of Brazilian speakers to place the pronoun before the verb (Portugal o Senhor deve-me dinheiro, Brazil o Senhor me deve dinheiro).

2. Brazil uses êle, ela, éles, elas, lhe, lhes as direct object pronouns (vi êle, or eu o vi; eu lhe vi ontem na avenida; conheço ela, or eu a conheço).

3. The combination pronouns mo, to, lho, etc. (it to me, it to you) are avoided in Brazil (eu lhe dei isso, or eu lho dei). The direct pronoun is often altogether omitted in these cases (quer dar-me a bola? Quero dar-lhe instead of quero dar-lha).

4. The preposition em is often colloquially used for a in Brazil with verbs of motion (eu ía na cidade, or eu ía à cidade).

5. In several other cases, a is avoided by the use of other prepositions (consente com muita pena; pescavam de linha; tenho medo de pobreza; responda palavra por palavra). But many of these forms are common to Portugal as well.

6. The preposition para tends to govern an object pronoun instead of a subject pronoun as subject of a following infinitive (é muito para mim fazer instead of é muito para eu fazer).

7. The progressive form with estar is more frequently used in Brazil than in Portugal, which prefers estar with a and the infinitive (estou lendo in Brazil, estou a ler in Portugal).

8. In Brazil, têr and haver are used interchangeably in the
impersonal construction "there to be" (não tem alunos. or não há alunos).
9. In Brazil, mais occasionally replaces já in negative use (não quero mais, or já não quero). Brazil also tends to double negatives (não tem nada não).
10. In a relative clause, Brazil often shifts the preposition to the end of the clause and adds a personal pronoun (o livro que falei dêle, or o livro de que falei).

VOCABULARY.

1. Many words in common use in Brazil are of Tupi-Guaraní origin. A few of the most common ones are: mandioca (a vegetable); abacaxi (pineapple); sabiá, urubu (birds); ipé (a tree); jacá (basket); caipora (an unlucky person); caipira (a "hick"); carioca (pertaining to Rio); estar na pindaiba (to "be broke").
2. Words of African Negro origin are also numerous in the tongue of Brazil: senzala (slave quarters); quilombo (communities of Negroes); maxixe (a dance); samba (a dance); zumbi (ghost).
3. A few archaic Portuguese forms survive in Brazil: mas porem, or mas or porem; pro mó de, or por amor de; depois for depois.
4. Brazilian has a particular fondness for diminutive forms, especially the ones formed with the suffix -inho: doentinho (sick); agorinha (right now); pertinho (quite close); até loguinho (see you later); fique quietinho (keep quiet); está dormidinho (he is asleep).
5. Among words which differ in Portugal and Brazil, the following are of interest:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
<td>rapariga</td>
<td>moça</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trolley</td>
<td>carro elétrico</td>
<td>bonde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motor-man</td>
<td>guarda-freio</td>
<td>motorneiro</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
police station  esquadra  delegacia
grocery store  mercearia  venda

The moço which means “young man” in Brazil has rather the meaning of “waiter” in Portugal; while the fumo which in Portugal means “smoke” has in Brazil the meaning of “tobacco”, and “smoke” is fumaça.

It may be emphasized that a good many of the so-called “characteristics” of Brazilian appear also in Portugal, though locally and to a lesser degree.

world, o mundo  
earth, a terra  
air, o ar  
water, a água  
fire, o fogo  
light, a luz  
sea, o mar  
sun, o sol  
moon, a lua  
star, a estrela  
sky, o céu  
wind, o vento  
weather, time, o tempo  
snow, a neve  
to snow, nevar  
rain, a chuva  
to rain, chover  
cloud, a nuvem  
cloudy, nublado  
fog, o nevoeiro  

cold, o gêlo  
mud, a lama  
morning, a manhã  
noon, o meio dia  
afternoon, a tarde  
evening, a tarde, a noite  
night, a noite  
midnight, a meia noite  
North, o Norte  
South, o Sul  
East, o Leste (Este)

West, o Oeste  
year, o ano  
month, o mês  
week, a semana  
day, o dia  
hour, a hora  
minute, o minuto  
Sunday, o domingo  
Monday, a segunda-feira  
Tuesday, a terça-feira  
Wednesday, a quarta-feira  
Thursday, a quinta-feira  
Friday, a sexta-feira  
Saturday, o sábado  
January, janeiro  
February, fevereiro  
March, março  
April, abril  
May, maio  
June, junho  
July, julho  
August, agosto  
September, setembro  
October, outubro  
November, novembro  
December, dezembro  
Spring, a primavera  
Summer, o verão (pl. -ões)  
Fall, o outono  
Winter, o inverno

17. The gender of nouns is indicated by the article (o, a,). Note that nouns and masculine adjectives ending in -m regularly form their plural by changing -m to -ns (homem, man, pl. homens; viajem, trip, pl. viagens; algum, any, pl. masc. alguns, but fem. alguma, pl. algumas); nouns and adjectives ending in -l preceded by a stressed vowel normally form their plural by changing -l to -is (animal, animais; papel, papéis; sol, sóis; cruel, cruéis); but those
2. Family, Friendship, Love.

family, a família
husband, o espôso, o marido
wife, a espôsa, a mulher
parents, os pais
father, o pai
mother, a mãe, a mãe
son, o filho
daughter, a filha
brother, o irmão
sister, a irmã
uncle, o tio
aunt, a tia
nephew, o sobrinho
niece, a sobrinha
cousin, o primo, a prima

grandfather, o avô
grandmother, a avó
grandson, o neto
granddaughter, a neta
father-in-law, o sogro
mother-in-law, a sogra
son-in-law, o genro
daughter-in-law, a nora
brother-in-law, o cunhado
sister-in-law, a cunhada
man, o homem
woman, a mulher
child, a criança
boy, o rapaz (Port.), o moço (Brazil)

ending in -l preceded by an unstressed vowel normally change -el or -il to -eis (automóvel, automóveis; projéctil, projécteis; fácil, fáceis). Other important irregularities in the formation of the plural are individually noted.

Important verbal irregularities are noted. Remember that the conditional always follows the future, so that a future farei for a verb fazer implies a conditional faria; there is never any irregularity in the endings of these two tenses.

Verbs ending in -car change c to qu before e (ficar, to remain; Past fiquei Pol. Impv. fique). Verbs ending in -gar change g to gu before e (pagar, to pay; Past paguei, Pol. Impv. pague). Verbs ending in -cer change c to ç before a and o (conhecer, to know; Pres. 1st sg. conheço, Pol. Impv. conheça). Verbs ending in -ear usually change e to ei when the stress falls upon it (cear, to dine; Pres. ceio, ceias, ceia, ceamos; ceais, ceiam; Impv. ceia (familiar), ceie (polite). Verbs ending in -ir which have u as the last vowel of the stem change u to o when there is an e in the ending (cubrir, to cover; Pres. cubro, cobres, cobre, cubrimos, cubris, cobrem; Impv. cobre, cubra). Verbs ending in -ir which have o as the last vowel in the stem change o to u when there is an a or an o in the ending (dormir, to sleep; Pres. durmo, dormes, dorme, etc.; Impv. dorme, durma). Verbs ending in -ir which have e as the last vowel in the stem change e to i when there is an a or an o in the ending (seguir, to follow; Pres. sigo, segues, segue, etc.; Impv. segue, siga).
girl, a rapariga (Port.), a moça (Brazil)
sir, Mr., o senhor
Madam, Mrs., a senhora
Miss, young lady, a menina, a senhorinha (Brazil)
friend, o amigo
servant, o criado, a criada
to introduce, apresentar
to visit, visitar

3. Speaking Activities.
word, a palavra
language, a língua
to speak, falar
to say, dizer (Pres. digo, dizes, diz, dizemos, dizeis, dizem; Past diss-e, -este, -e, -emos, -estes, -eram; Fut. direi; Impv. diz, diga; P. p. dito)
to tell, relate, contar
to inform, informar
to call, chamar
to be called, one’s name is, chamar-se (my name is John. chamo-me João)
to greet, saudar (Pres. saúdo, saúdas, saúda, saúdamos, saúdais, saudam; Impv. sauda, saúde)
to name, nomear
to cry, shout, chorar, gritar

to listen to, escutar (escutar a only if one listens to a person)
to hear, ouvir (Pres. ouço, ouves, etc.; Pol. Impv. ouça)
to understand, compreender, entender
to mean, significar, querer dizer (use latter for persons)
to ask (a question), perguntar, perguntar
to ask for, pedir (Pres. peço, pedes, etc.; Pol. Impv. peça; he asked me for a pencil, pediu-me um lápis)
to answer, responder
to thank, agradecer, ficar agradecido (he thanked me for the book, agradeceu-me o livro)
to complain, queixar-se, lamentar

gold, o ouro (oiro)
silver, a prata
iron, o ferro

steel, o aço
copper, o cobre
lead, o chumbo

18. Regularly used with the article, save when a title follows; do you speak Portuguese?, o senhor fala português?; good morning, doctor, bons dias, senhor doutor.
tin, a folha
oil, o óleo
gasoline, a gasolina
coal, o carvão
wood, a madeira
silk, a sêda
cotton, o algodão

5. Animals.

animal, o animal
horse, o cavalo
dog, o cão (pl. cães), o cachorro
cat, o gato
bird, a ave
donkey, o burro
mule, a mula
cow, a vaca
ox, o boi
pig, o porco
chicken, a galinha, a franga
hen, a galinha

rooster, o galo
sheep, a ovelha
goat, a cabra
mouse, o rato
snake, a cobra, a serpente
fly, a mósca
bee, a abelha
mosquito, o mosquito
spider, a aranha
louse, o piolho
flea, a pulga
bedbug, o percevejo


money; o dinheiro
coin, a moeda
dollar, o dólar
cent, o centavo
bank, o banco
check, o cheque
money order, o vale postal
to earn, to gain, to win, ganhar
to lose, perder
to spend, gastar
to lend, emprestar
to owe, dever
to pay, pagar (note 17)
to borrow, pedir emprestado (he
borrowed $2 from me, pediu-
me dois dólares emprestados)
to change, exchange, cambiar,
trocar (note 17)

change, o troço
to give back, restituir
price, o preço
expensive, dear, caro
cheap, barato
store, shop, a loja, a tenda
piece, o pedaço
slice, a fatia, o pedaço
pound, a libra
package, o pacote
basket, o cesto
box, a caixa
bag, a mala, a bolsa
goods, as mercadorias
to go shopping, fazer compras,
ir às compras
to sell, vender
to buy, comprar
to rent, hire, alugar
to be worth, valer (Pres. valho,
    vales, vale, valemos, etc.)
cost, o custo
to cost, custar
to choose, escolher
thief, robber, o ladrão (pl. -ões)

to steal, roubar
police, a polícia
policeman, o polícia, o guarda
civil (pl. civis)
honest, honesto
dishonest, deshonesto

7. Eating and Drinking.

to eat, comer
breakfast, o (primeiro) almôço

to eat breakfast, almoçar
lunch, o almôço, o lanche
to eat lunch, almoçar, lanchar
supper, a ceia
to eat supper, cear
meal, a comida
dinner, o jantar
to eat dinner, jantar
dining-room, a sala de jantar
waiter, waitress, o criado, a criada
restaurant, o restaurante
menu, a lista, a ementa
bill, a conta
to pass, passar
tip, a gratificação (pl. -ões)
to drink, beber
water, a água
wine, o vinho
beer, a cerveja
coffee, o café
tea, o chá
milk, o leite
bottle, a garrafa
spoon, a colher
teaspoon, a colher de chá
knife, a faca
fork, o garfo
glass, o copo
cup, a chávena, a chícara
napkin, o guardanapo
salt, o sal

pepper, a pimenta
plate, dish, o prato
bread, o pão (pl. pães, "loaves")
butter, a manteiga
roll, o pãozinho
sugar, o açúcar
soup, a sopa
rice, o arroz
potatoes, as batatas
vegetables, os legumes
meat, a carne
beef, a carne de vaca
steak, o bife
chicken, a galinha
chop, a costela
veal, a carne de vitela
lamb, a carne de cordeiro
pork, a carne de porco
sausage, a salsicha
ham, o presunto
bacon, o toucinho
egg, o óvo
fish, o peixe
fried, frito
cooked, cozido
boiled, fervido
roasted, roast, assado
baked, broiled, assado no forno
sauce, o molho
salad, a salada
cheese, o queijo
fruit, a fruta
apple, a maçã
pear, a pêra
peach, o pêssego
grapes, as uvas
strawberries, os morangos
nuts, as nozes
orange, a laranja

8. Hygiene and Attire.

bath, o banho
to bathe, tomar banho
shower, o chuveiro, o banho de chuva
to wash, lavar
to shave, barbear-se, fazer a barba
barber, o barbeiro
mirror, o espelho
soap, o sabão
razor, a navalha de barba
safety-razor, o aparelho de barbear
towel, a toalha
comb, o pente
brush, a escova
scissors, a tesoura (tesoura)
to wear, usar
to take off, tirar
to change, mudar
to put on, vestir (see n. 17), pôr
(see p. 303); he put on his hat, ele pôs o chapéu; he put on his coat, ele vestiu o casaco; he put on his gloves, ele calçou as luvas
clothes, a roupa
hat, o chapéu
suit, o fato
coat, o casaco


head, a cabeça
forehead, a testa

lemon, o limão (pl. -ões)
cherries, as cerejas
juice, o sumo
dessert, a sobremesa
pastry, os pastéis

vest, o colete
pants, as calças
underwear, a roupa de baixo
gloves, as luvas
socks, as meias, as meias
stockings, as meias
shirt, a camisa
collar, o colarinho
overcoat, o sobretudo
raincoat, a gabardina
pocket, a algibeira, o bolso
handkerchief, o lenço
button, o botão (pl. -ões)
shoes, os sapatos
boot, a bota
purse, a bolsa
pocket-book, a carteira
tie, a gravata
pin, o alfinete
tie-pin, alfinete de gravata
safety-pin, alfinete de dama
needle, a agulha
umbrella, o guarda-chuva
watch, o relógio (de algibeira)
chain, a cadeia
ring, o anel
eyeglasses, as lunetas, os óculos
slippers, as chinelas
dressing-gown, bath-robe, o chambré

face, a cara
mouth, a bôca
hair, o cabelo  wrist, o pulso
eye, o olho    finger, o dedo
ear, a orelha  nail, a unha
tooth, o dente shoulder, o ombro
lip, o lábio    leg, a perna
nose, o nariz   foot, o pé
tongue, a língua knee, o joelho
chin, o queixo  back, as costas
cheek, as faces  chest, o peito
beard, a barba  ankle, o tornozelo
mustache, o bigode  body, o corpo
neck, o pescoço blood, o sangue
throat, a garganta  skin, a pele
arm, o braço    heart, o coração (pl. -ões)
hand, a mão (pl. as mãos)  stomach, o estômago
elbow, o cotovelo bone, o osso

10. Medical.

doctor, o médico, o doutor  swollen, inchado
drug-store, a loja de droguista  wound, a ferida
hospital, o hospital  wounded, ferido
medicine, a medicina  head-ache, a dor de cabeça
tpill, a pílula  tooth-ache, a dor de dentes
cprescription, a receita  cough, a tosse
tbandage, a atadura  to cough, tossir
nurse, o enfermeiro, a enfermeira  lame, coxo
ill, doente  burn, a queimadura
illness, a doença  pain, a dor
fever, a febre  poison, o veneno

11. Military.

war, a guerra  to escape, escapar
peace, a paz  to run away, fugir (Pres. jujo.
ally, o aliado  fogen, etc.; see note 17; Impv.
enemy, o inimigo  fuge, fuja)
army, o exército  to lead, conduzir (3rd sg. Pres.
danger, o perigo and Fam. Impv. conduz)
dangerous, perigoso  to follow, seguir (see note 17)
to win, ganhar  to surrender, render-se
to surround, cercar, rodear  to retreat, retirar-se
to arrest, prender  to bomb, to shell, bombardear
to kill, matar
fear, o medo
prison, a prisão (pl. -ões)
prisoner, o prisioneiro
to take prisoner, fazer prisioneiro
to capture, capturar (caturar)
help, aid, o auxílio
comrade, buddy, o camarada
battle, a batalha
to fight, combater
soldier, private, o soldado
corporal, o cabo
sergeant, o sargento
lieutenant, o tenente
captain, o capitão (pl. -ões)
major, o major
colonel, o coronel
general, o general
officer, o oficial
company, a companhia
battalion, o batalhão (pl. -ões)
regiment, o regimento
brigade, a brigada
division, a divisão (pl. -ões)
troops, as tropas
reinforcements, os refôrços
fortress, a forteza, o forte
sentinel, a sentinela
guard, a guarda
to stand guard, to do sentry duty,
guardar
to be on duty, estar de serviço
sign-post, a taboleta
navy, a marinha
sailor, o marinheiro
marine, o soldado de marinha
warship, o navio de guerra
cruiser, o cruzador
destroyer, o torpedeiro, o destró-
ier, o contra-torpedeiro
convoy, o combóio
escort, a escolta
weapon, a arma
rifle, a espingarda, o fuzil (pl. -is)
machine-gun, a metralhadora
cannon, o canhão (pl. -ões)
ammunition, as munições
supplies, os abastecimentos
cartridge, o cartucho
belt, o cinturão (pl. -ões)
knapsack, a mochila
tent, a tenda
camp, o arraial (pl. -ais)
map, o mapa
rope, a corda
flag, a bandeira
helmet, o capacete
bayonet, a baioneta
uniform, o uniforme
airplane, o avião (pl. -ões)
bombing-plane, o avião bombar-
deiro (de bombardeio)
pursuit-plane, o avião de caça
shell, a granada
bomb, a bomba
truck, o camião (pl. -ões)
tank, o tanque
to load, carregar (note 17)
to shoot, to fire, atirar, disparar
to shoot (military execution),
juízar, executar
fire!, jogo!
attention!, sentido!
forward!, avante!, em frente!
halt!, alto!
air-raid shelter, o abrigo
spy, o espião (pl. -ões)

12. Travel.
customs, a alfândega
passport, o passaporte
ship, o navio
stateroom, o camarote
13. Reading and Writing.

to read, ler (Pres. leio, lês, lê, lêmos, ledes, lêem; Past li, lêste, leu, lêmos, lestes, leram; Impv. lê, leia)
newspaper, o jornal (pl. -ais)
magazine, a revista
to write, escrever (P. p. escrito)
to translate, traduzir¹⁹
pencil, o lápis (pl. os lápis)
ink, a tinta
pen, a pena
fountain-pen, a caneta-tinteiro
paper, o papel

evelope, o sobrescrito
letter, a carta
post-office, o correio
stamp, o sêlo, a estampilha (de correio)
letter-box, a caixa do correio
to mail, mandar pelo correio
address, a direcção (direção), o endereço
post-card, o bilhete postal
book, o livro
chalk, o giz
black-board, a pedra


to smoke, fumar
 cigar, o charuto
cigarette, o cigarro
tobacco, o tabaco, o fumo (Br.)

match, o fósforo
give me a light, dê-me lume
theatre, o teatro
movies, o cinema

19. Verbs ending in -uzir drop the -e in the 3rd sg. of the present and the familiar imperative: conduz, traduz.
dance, *a dança*, *o baile*
to dance, *dançar*
to have a good time, *divertir-se*
ticket, *o bilhete*
pleasure, *o prazer*
to play (music), *tocar* (n. 17)
to sing, *cantar*
song, *a canção* (pl. *-ões*)
to play (games), *jogar* (n. 17)
to take a walk, *dar um passeio*
ball, *a bola*
beach, *a praia*
to swim, *nadar*
game, *o jogo*
sand, *a areia*
refreshment, *o refresco*
saloon, *o bar*, *a taberna*
picnic, *o piquenique*

15. Town and Country.

place, spot, *o sítio*, *o lugar*
city, *a cidade*
intersection, *o encruzamento*
street, *a rua*
sidewalk, *o passeio*
block, *a quadra*, *o quarteirão* (pl. *-ões*)
harbor, *o pôrto*
school, *a escola*
church, *a igreja*
building, *o edifício*
cathedral, *a catedral*
corner, *a esquina*
hotel, *o hotel*
office, *o escritório*
river, *o rio*

bridge, *a ponte*
country, *o campo*
village, *a aldeia*
road, *a estrada*, *o caminho*
mountain, *a montanha*
grass, *a erva*
yard, *o quintal*
hill, *a colina*, *o monte*
lake, *o lago*
forest, *o bosque*
field, *o campo*
flower, *a flor*
tree, *a árvore*
rock, stone, *a pedra*
jungle, *a selva*, *o sertão*


to close, *fechar*
to open, *abrir* (P. p. *aberto*)
door, *a porta*
key, *a chave*
to go in, *entrar* (em)
to go out, *sair* (de); Pres. *saio, sais, saí, saímos, saí, saíem*;
Pol. Impv. *saia*
house, *a casa*
cottage, *a casa de campo*
hut, *a cabana*
to live (in), *morar* (em)
staircase, *a escada*
to go up, *subir*
to go down, *descer* (note 17)
room, *o quarto*
toilet, *o retrete*, *a latrina*
kitchen, *a cozinha*
table, *a mesa*
chair, *a cadeira*
to sit down, *sentar-se*
to stand, *estar de pé*
wall, *a parede*, *o pé*
bedroom, *o quarto de cama*
lamp, *o candeeiro* (*candeiro*), *laâmada*
candle, *a vela*
closet, *o compartimento*
window, *a janela*
to rest, *descansar*
bed, *a cama*
sheet, *o lençol* (*pl. -óis*)
pillow, *a almofada*

cover, blanket, *o cobertor*, *a coberta*
to go to bed, *deitar-se*
mattress, *o colchão* (*pl. -ões*)
to go to sleep, *adormecer* (*n. 17*)
to sleep, *dormir* (*n. 17*)
to wake up, *despertar*
to get up, *levantar-se*
clock, *o relógio* (*de parede*)
alarm-clock, *o despertador*

17. Miscellaneous Nouns.

people, *a gente* (always singular);
how many people are coming?
*quantas pessoas vêm?*
thing, *a cousa* (*coisa*)
name, *o nome*; (family name, *o apelido*)
luck, *a sorte*
bad luck, *a pouca* (*má* *sorte*
number, *o número*
life, *a vida*
death, *a morte*
work, *o trabalho*

18. Verbs — Coming and Going.

to come, *vir* (*Pres. venho, vens, vem, vimos, vindes, vêm; Impf. vinha; Past vim, vieste, veio, viemos, viestes, vieram; Fut. virei; Impv. vem, venha; P. p. vindo*)
to go, *ir* (*Pres. vou, vais, vai, vamos, ides, vão; Impf. ia; Past fui, foste, foi, fomos, fostes, foram; Impv. vai, vâ*)
to be going to, *ir* plus infinitive
(I am going to dine, *vou jantar*)
to run, *correr*
to walk, *andar*
to go away, *ir-se*
to fall, *cair* (*Pres. caio, cais, cai, caímos, caís, caem; Impf. caía; Past, cai; Impv. caí, caia; P. p. caído*)
to stay, remain, *ficar* (*note 17*)
to follow, *seguir* (*note 17*; *u* falls out before *a* and *o*; *Pres. sigo, segues*, etc.; Pol. Impv. *siga*)
to return, to come back, *voltar*
to arrive, *chegar* (*note 17*)
to go back, *regressar, voltar*


to see, *ver* (*Pres. vejo, vês, vê, vemos, vêdes, vêem; Impf. via; Past vi; Fut. verei; Impv. vê, veja; P. p. visto*)
to look at, *olhar*
to look for, *procurar, buscar* (*n. 17*)
to look, seem, *parecer* (*note 17*)
to recognize, reconhecer (note 17)
to laugh, rir (Pres. rio, ris, ri, rimos, rides, riem; Impv. ri, ria; P. p. rido)

to smile, sorrir-se (like rir)
to laugh at, make fun of, rir de, rir-se de

to take for, confundir por

20. Verbs — Mental.

to make a mistake, enganar-se

to hope, esperar

to wait for, esperar

to think (of), pensar (em); use pensar de for "to have an opinion about"; I am thinking of him, eu penso nêle; what do you think of him?, que pensa o senhor dêle?

to believe, acreditar, crer (Pres. creio, crês, crê, cremos, credes, crêem; Impf. cria; Past cri, créste, creu, cremos, crêstes, cream; Impv. crê, crea)
to like, gostar de (I like this book, gosto deste livro)

to wish, desejar

to need, necessitar

to know (a person), to meet (socially), conhecer (note 17)
to know (a fact), saber (Pres. sei, sabes, sabe, etc.; Past soube, soubeste, soube, etc.; Impv.
sabe, saiba)
to know how, saber plus infinitive (I know how to read, sei ler)
to want, querer (Pres. 3rd sg. quer; Past quis, quiseste, quis, etc.; Impv. quer, queira)
to remember, lembrar-se de

to forget, esquecer de (note 17)
to permit, allow, permitir

to promise, prometer

to understand, entender, compreender

to learn, aprender

to feel like, ter vontade de (I feel like eating, eu tenho vontade de comer)
to fear, be afraid, temer, recear (note 17)
to be right, ter razão

to be wrong, não ter razão, estar enganado, enganar-se

to find out, descobrir (no. 17)
to forbid, proibir 20


to live, viver

to die, morrer (P. p. morto, with ser or estar, morrido with ter;
he is dead, éle está morto; he died, éle tem morrido)
to work, trabalhar

to give, dar (Pres. dou, dás, dá, damos, dais, dão; Past dei, deste, deu, etc.; Impv. dá, dé)
to take, tomar

to begin, começar, principiar (to begin doing, começar a fazer)

20. The diaeresis may be used to keep in two separate syllables two unstressed vowels; proibir = pro i bir; if one of the two contiguous vowels is stressed, it takes the acute accent (saído).
to finish, **terminar**, **acabar**
to have just, **acabar de** (I have just written, **acabo de escrever**)
to continue, keep on, **continuar** (I kept on writing, **continuei a escrever or continuei escrevendo**)
to help, **ajudar**
to lose, **perder** (Pres. **perco, perdes**, etc.; Impv. **perde, perca**)
to find, to meet (casually), **encontrar**
to try to, **procurar**
to leave (a thing), **deixar** (use **sair de** for a place; **sair like cair**, p. 301)
to show, **mostrar**
to hold, **conter** (like **ter**)
to do, to make, **fazer** (Pres. **faço, fazes, faz, fazemos, fazeis, fazem**, Past **fiz, fizeste, fêz, fizermos, fizerestes, fizeram**; Fut. **farei**; Impv. **faz, faça**, P. p. **feito**)
to be able, can, **poder** (Pres. **posso, podes, etc.; Past pude, pudeste, pôde, pudemos, etc.; Impv. pode, possa**)
to put, **pôr** (Pres. **ponho, pôes, põe, pomo, pondes, põem**; Impf. **ponha**; Past **pus, puseste, pôs, pusemos, pusestes, puseram**; Impv. **põe, ponha**; P. p. **pôsto**)
to carry, **levar**
to bring, **trazer** (Pres. **trago, trazem, traz**, trazemos, etc.; Fut. **trarei**; Past **trouxes, trouxeste, trouxe, etc.; Impv. traz, traga**)
to stop (self), **parar**; (another). **fazer parar**
to cover, **cobrir** (n. 17; P. p. **coberto**)
to get, obtain, **obter** (like **ter**)
to get; become, **tornar-se**
to hide, **esconder**
to break, **quebrar**
to hurry, **apressar-se** (a before an infinitive)
to deliver, **entregar** (note 17)
to catch, **apanhar**
to belong, **pertencer** (note 17)
to have something done, **mandar fazer** (he had a letter written, **mandou escrever uma carta**)
to lay, **pôr, colocar** (n. 17)
to send, **mandar, enviar**
to accept, **aceitar**
to refuse, **recusar**

22. Adjectives.

small, **pequeno**
large, big, great, **grande** (larger, **maior**, largest, **o maior**)
high, tall, **alto**
long, **comprido**
short (opp. of high), low (person) **baixo**
short (opp. of long), **curto**
heavy, **pesado**
light (weight), **lev**
wide, **largo**
narrow, **estreito**
clean, **limpo**
dirty, **sujo**
cool, **fresco**
cold, **frio**
warm, **tépido**
hot, **quente**
damp, **úmido**
wet, **molhado**
dry, **seco**
full, **cheio**
empty, vazio
dark, moreno, escuro
light, bright, clear, limpto
fat, gordo
thick, grosso, espesso
thin, magro, delgado
round, redondo
square, quadrado
flat, plano
deep, fundo
soft, mole
hard, duro
quick, ligeiro
slow, vagaroso
ordinary, ordinário
comfortable, cómodo, confortável
 (note 17)
uncomfortable, inconfortável
near, próximo, cercante
distant, distante
right, direito
left, esquerdo
poor, pobre
rich, rico
beautiful, belo, formoso
pretty, lindo
ugly, feio
sweet, doce
bitter, amargo
sour, ácido
salt, salgado
young, new, novo
old, velho, antigo
good, bom (fem. boa)
better, melhor
best, o melhor
bad, mau (fem. má)
worse, pior
worst, o pior
fine, “regular”, ótimo, bom
first, primeiro
last, último
strong, forte
weak, fraco
tired, cansado
alone, só (fem. só)
same, mesmo
easy, fácil (pl. -eis)
hard, difficult, difícil (pl. -eis)
happy, glad, feliz
sad, triste
free, livre
silly, simples, pateta, tolo, bobo
crazy, louco, doido
drunk, embriagado
polite, cortês (fem. same)
rude, rude, doido
pleasant, agradável (pl. -eis)
unpleasant, desagradável
lonesome, solitário
true, verdadeiro
false, falso
foreign, estrangeiro
friendly, amigável, amistoso, amigo
hostile, hostil
lucky, feliz
unlucky, infeliz
charming, encantador (fem. -a, pl. -as, -as)
afraid, medroso
ready, pronto
hungry, esfomeado (to be—, ter fome)
thirsty, sequioso, sedento (to be—, ter sede)
right (to be), ter razão
wrong (to be), não ter razão, estar enganado
funny, cómico
possible, possível (pl. -eis)
impossible, impossível
brave, corajoso
cowardly, cobarde
quiet, quieto, sossegado
noisy, ruidoso
living, vivo
dead, morto
23. Colors.

white, branco
black, prêto
red, vermelho
green, verde
blue, azul (pl. azuis)

yellow, amarelo
gray, cinzento
brown, castanho
pink, côr de rosa
purple, roxo

24. Nationalities.²¹

American, americano
English, inglês
French, francês
German, -alemão (fem. alemã; mas. pl. alemães; fem. pl. alemãs)
Spanish, espanhol (espanhola, espanhóis, espanholas)
Russian, russo
Italian, italiano
Japanese, japonês
Chinese, chinês
Dutch, neerlandês, holandês
Norwegian, noruego
Swedish, sueco
Finnish, finlandês
Belgian, belga (fem. same; pl. belgas)
Polish, polonês, polaco
Danish, dinamarques
Swiss, suíso (suíço)
Portuguese, português
Yugoslav, iúgoslavo

Bulgarian, búlgaro
Czech, checo-eslovaco
Greek, grego
Turkish, turco
Romanian, rumeno
Hungarian, húngaro
Austrian, austríaco
Malay, maláio
Persian, persa
Arabian, Arab, Arabic, árabe
Jewish, Hebrew, hebreu (fem. hebraia), judeu (fem. judia)
Australian, australiano
African, africano
Canadian, canadiano
Mexican, mexicano
Cuban, cubano
Brazilian, brasileiro
Argentinian, argentino
Porto Rican, portorriqueño
Chilean, chileno
Peruvian, peruano

²¹ Adjectives of nationality ending in a consonant add -a (-ês loses the accent) in the feminine: inglês, fem. inglesa, masc. plur. ingleses, fem. plur. inglesas. No capital is used, unless “Englishman” is meant. For names of languages, use no capital, and use the definite article except after em (in), and, usually, falar (to speak), entender (to understand), traduzir (to translate): o português é uma língua fácil; eu falo português; ele responde em português.
25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, hoje
yesterday, ontem
tomorrow, amanhã
day before yesterday, ante-ontem
day after tomorrow, depois de amanhã

tonight, esta noite
last night, a noite passada
this morning, esta manhã
in the morning, de manhã
in the afternoon (evening), de tarde
in the night, de noite
this afternoon, esta tarde
tomorrow morning, amanhã de manhã
tomorrow afternoon, amanhã à tarde
tomorrow night, amanhã à noite
early, cedo
late, tarde
already, já
no longer, já não (he is no longer here, ele já não está aqui)
yet, still, ainda
not yet, ainda não
now, agora
then, então
afterwards, depois
never, nunca, jamais (he never comes, nunca vem or não vem nunca)
always, sempre
forever, para sempre
soon, em breve
only, somente, só
often, muitas vezes, a miúdo
usually, usualmente
fast, depressa
slowly, vagarosamente
here, aqui
there, acolá, lá
over (down) there, lá-baixo
near by, perto
far away, longe
up (stairs), para cima, em cima
down (stairs), em baixo
ahead, in front, adiante
behind, in back, atrás
forward, para diante, em diante
back, backward, atrás, para trás
outside, fora, para fora
inside, dentro
opposite, in front, oposto, em frente
here and there, aqui e acolá
everywhere, em toda a parte
where, onde
also, too, também
yes, sim
no, not, não
very, much, muito
little, not much, pouco
well, bem
badly, mal
better, melhor
worse, pior
more, mais
less, menos
so, tão
as - as, tão - quanto (como);
as much - as, tanto - como
as many - as, tantos - como
how much?, quanto?
how many?, quantos?
how?, como?
too much, demasiado
too many, demasiados
so much, tanto
so many, tantos
as, like, como
besides, além disso
finally, in short, *finalmente, em fim, por fim* 
am almost, *quase* (quase) 
gladly, *de boa vontade* 
certainly, of course, *certamente* 
unfortunately, *infelizmente* 
at once, *de repente, já* 
at all, *de todo, absolutamente* 
hardly, *apenas* 
aloud, *em voz alta* 
suddenly, *repentinamente, de repente* 
about, *à cerca de, cerca de* 
perhaps, maybe, *talvez, acaso* 


and, *e* 
but, *mas* 
or, *ou* 
why?, *porque?* (porquê? if not followed by clause) 
why!, *pois!* 
because, *porque* 
that, *que* 
where, *onde* 
than, *que, de que, de* (before numerals) 
since, *pois que, desde* 
so that, *de maneira que* 
for, *pois* 
if, provided that, *se* 

a little, *um pouco* 
again, *outra vez* 
really, truly, *realmente* 
together, *juntos* 
at least, *pelo menos* 
again and again, *a miúdo, repetidas vezes* 
ocasionally, *casualmente* 
from time to time, *de quando em quando* 
therefore, *portanto* 
for lack of, *por falta de* 
long ago, *há muito tempo* 
entirely, altogether, *inteiramente* 

while, as long as, *enquanto* 
as soon as, *logo que, assim que* 
when, *quando* 
unless, *a menos que, a não ser que* 
provided that, *contanto que, desde que* 
without, *sem que* 
in order that, *para que* 
until, *até que, até* 
although, *ainda que, a pesar de* 
before, *antes de* 
after, *depois de* 

22. These call for the future subjunctive if future time is implied: if he doesn’t come, I won’t go, *se ele não vier eu não irei;* as long as he stays here, I shall stay, *enquanto ele aqui estiver, também estarei;* I shall see him when he comes, *hei-de vê-lo quando ele vier.*

23. These normally take the subjunctive: although he may do it, I shall not be angry, *ainda que o faça, não ficarei zangado;* unless he comes, I shall not go, *a não ser que ele venha eu não irei;* I did it so that he might read the letter, *fi-lo para que ele pudesse ler a carta;* he came without my seeing him, *ele veio sem que eu o tivesse visto.*

24. These are *prepositions* in Pt., and call for the personalized infinitive: I shall see him before they come, *hei-de vê-lo antes de eles*
27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

such, tal (pl. taís)
all kinds of, toda a qualidade de
everything, tudo
everyone, todo o mundo, toda a
gente, todos
something, qualquer coisa
someone, alguém
nothing, nada
no one, ninguém
no (adj.), nenhum
neither - nor, nem - nem
several, vários
each, every, cada, todo
all, todo, todos
(an) other, outro
much, lots of, muito
few, poucos, uns (fem. umas)
many, muitos
little (not much), pouco
both, ambos
enough, bastante, suficiente
some, algum (fem. alguma, pl.
  alguns, algumas)

28. Prepositions.

of, from, de (contracts with ar-
ticles; see p. 274, n. 3)
out of, fora de
to, at, a (contracts with articles;
see p. 274; must be used with a
noun indirect object: I give
John the book, dou o livro a
João)
with, com
in, em (p. 274)
without, sem
on, sobre, em
over, em cima de
above, acima de
for, por (for the sake of, on
account of, in exchange for; p.
274); para (purpose, destina-
tion)
until, up to, até
since, desde
toward, para
between, among, entre
near, perto de
far from, longe de
before, antes de
by, por, de (por if action is
physical, de if mental)
after, depois de
opposite, in front of, em frente de
in back of, behind, atrás de
under (neath), debaixo de
instead of, em vez de, em lugar de
beside, além de
at the house of, em casa de
through, através, por

chegarem; I saw him before they came, vi-o antes de êles virem;
although he did it, I wasn’t angry, a pesar de êle o fazer, não fiquei
zangado; I saw him after we came, vi-o depois de chegarmos. Note
cases where both subjunctive and infinitive may be used: I shall wait
until he comes, esperarei até que êle venha or esperarei até êle vir.
25. If these are used after the verb, use não before the verb: I see
nothing, nada vejo or não vejo nada.
by means of, por meio de
against, contra
across, através
on the other side of, no outro lado
de
in spite of, a pesar de

about, à cerca de, cerca de
around, à (em) volta de, ao redor de
during, durante
because of, on account of, por causa de

29. Special Expressions and Idioms.

good morning, bom dia, bons dias
good afternoon (evening), boa tarde
good night, boa noite, boas noites
good-bye, adeus
I’ll see you later, até logo, até mais tarde
I’ll see you tomorrow, até amanhã
I’ll see you tonight, até esta noite
just now, agora mesmo
hello, aí (on telephone, olá, está lá; the latter especially in Portugal)
how are you?, como está?
I’m well, bem, estou bem
I’m (much) better, estou (muito) melhor
how goes it?, como vai tudo?
what time is it?, que horas são?
it’s six o’clock, são seis horas
at six o’clock, às seis horas
at about six, perto das seis
at half past six, às seis e meia
at a quarter to (past) six, a um quarto para as (depois das) seis
at ten minutes to (past) six, a dez minutos para as (depois das) seis
last year, o ano passado
next year, o ano que vem
every day, todos os dias
the whole day, o dia inteiro
please, jaz o obséquio, por favor, tenha a bondade
tell me, diga-me
bring me, traga-me
show me, mostre-me
thank you, obrigado, muito agradecido
don’t mention it, não por isso
will you give me?, quer me dar?
pardon me, perdão
it doesn’t matter, não faz diferença
never mind, não se incomode
I’m sorry, eu sinto muito, eu lamento muito
I can’t help, não posso deixar de (infinitive)
it’s nothing, é nada
what a pity!, too bad!, que lástima!, que pena!
it’s too bad, é pena
I’m glad, estou contente (satisfeito)
I have to, eu tenho que, eu tenho de
I’m agreeable, estou de acordo
where is (are)?, onde está (estão)?
where are you going?, onde é que vai?
here is (are), eis aqui (here it is, ei-lo)
there is (are), há (pointing out, eis ali)
which way?, para que lado?
this (that) way (direction), por aqui (ali)
this way (fashion), desta maneira
come with me, venha comigo
what can I do for you?, o que posso fazer para o senhor?
what is it?, o que é?
what is the matter?, que é isso?, que há?
what is the matter with you?, que tem o senhor?
what do you want?, o que quer o senhor?
what are you talking about?, em que está falando?, que está dizendo?
what does that mean?, o que quer dizer isso?
how much is it?, quanto custa?
anything else?, mais alguma coisa?
nothing else, nada mais
do you speak Portuguese?, fala o senhor português?
a little, um pouco
how do you say - in Portuguese?, como se diz - em português?
do you understand?, compreende o senhor?
I don’t understand, eu não compreendo
do you know?, sabe o senhor?
I don’t know, eu não sei
I can’t, eu não posso
what do you call this in Portuguese?, como se chama isto em português?

I am an American, sou norteamericano
I’m (very) hungry, tenho (muita) fome
I’m (very) thirsty, tenho (muita) sede
I’m (very) sleepy, tenho (muito) sono
I’m (very) warm, tenho (muito) calor
I’m (very) cold, tenho (muito) frio
it’s (very) warm, faz (muito) calor
it’s (very) cold, faz (muito) frio
it's windy, faz vento, está ventando
it's sunny, faz sol, o sol brilha
it's fine (bad) weather, está (or faz) bom (mau) tempo
it's forbidden, é proibido (no smoking, é proibido fumar)
luckily, fortunately, afortunadamente
unfortunately, infelizmente
is it not so?, não é verdade?, não é assim? (use where English repeats the question: he is here, is he not?, you wrote, didn't you?)
not at all, de nenhuma sorte, por nenhum modo
how old are you?, que idade tem?
I'm 30 years old, eu tenho trinta anos
how long have you been here?, há quanto tempo está o senhor aqui?
how long have you been waiting?, há quanto tempo espera o senhor?
as soon as possible, tão pronto quanto possível, logo que seja possível
come here!, venha aqui!, venha cá!
look!, veja!
look out!, careful!, cautela!, cuidado!
come in!, entre!, venha para dentro!
to the right, à direita
to the left, à esquerda
straight ahead, em frente
just a second!, um momento!
what do you mean?, que quer dizer?
as you please, como quiser
speak (more) slowly, faça favor de falar (mais) devagar
listen!, ouça! (ouça!)
look here!, say!, olhe!
gangway!, by your leave!, atenção!, com sua licença!
for Heaven's sake!, credo!
darn it!, oh, diabo!
darn the luck!, que má sorte!
to your health!, à sua saúde!
I should like to —, eu quisera (eu desejaria)
as quickly as possible, o mais depressa possível
stop!, pare!
hurry!, depressa!
keep to the right (left), siga pela direita (esquerda)
entrance, entrada
exit, saída
ITALIAN

OFFICIAL AND NATIONAL

WIDELY spoken

LANGUAGES OF

EMIGRATION

EGYPT
LIBERIA
LIBYA
ERITREA
ETHIOPIA
TESSALONICA
CHAPTER IX

ITALIAN

speakers and location

(all population figures are approximate)

Europe — Italy (45,000,000); Switzerland (southern section: about 300,000); also spoken in Corsica and in extreme southeastern section of France, up to, but not including, Nice; widely spoken and understood, as a secondary and cultural language, along the eastern Adriatic coast (Yugoslavia, Albania, Greece), in Malta, and in the Dodecanese Islands.

Africa — colonial language of Libya (1,000,000); of Eritrea, Italian Somaliland, and, to a more limited extent, of Ethiopia (total native populations about 12,000,000); widely spoken and understood, as a secondary and cultural language, in Tunisia, Egypt, and, generally, along the European, African and Asiatic Mediterranean coast.

Western Hemisphere — spoken by large Italian immigrant groups in United States, Argentina, Brazil and Chile, amounting, with their descendants, to a total of perhaps 10,000,000.

alphabet and sounds

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, z. (The symbol j is very occasionally used with the value of y, and is generally replaced by i; the symbols k, w, x, y occur only in foreign words).
Vowel sounds: Italian vowels have, whether stressed or unstressed, equal length.

- **a:** = father (padre, donna)
- **e:** = met (ferro, bene); or = initial part of *a* in Eng. gate (freddo, bene)\(^1\)
- **i:** = machine (birra)
- **o:** = cup (forte, donna); or = initial part of *o* in Eng. go (mondo)\(^1\)
- **u:** = food (luna)

Consonant sounds: b, d, f, l, m, n, p, q, s, t, v, approximately as in English.

- **c:** before a, o, u or consonant, and ch before e, i = cat (caro, credo, chi).
- **c:** before e, i = church (in the groups cia, cie, cio, ciu, the i is almost silent: ciascuno, pronounced chaskuno).
- **g:** before a, o, u or consonant, and gh before e, i = go (gusto, làgrima, larghi);
- **g:** before e, i = gin (in the groups gia, gie, gio, giu, the i is almost silent: già, pronounced ja).
- **gn:** = onion (agnello, pronounced annyello).
- **gl:** = million (megliò, pronounced mellyo).
- **h:** is completely silent (hanno, pronounced anno); but note its uses in the ch and gh combinations above.
- **r:** is trilled as in British very.
- **sc:** before e, i = sure (in the groups scia, scio, sciu, the i is almost silent: sciacallo, pronounced shakallo). Before a, o, u or consonant, sc = Eng. scone.
- **z:** = dz or ts (mezzo, pronounced medzo; pezzo, pronounced petso). Learn by observation; the ts pronunciation generally prevails in groups of zi followed by another vowel (giustizia, pronounced justìtsya).

\(^1\) The closed pronunciation (initial part of *gate* and of *go*) is always used for *e* and *o*, respectively, when unstressed. Either the open or the closed pronunciation may appear when the vowel is stressed. Learn by observation and remember that if an error is made, you will probably still be understood.
Double consonants are more strongly pronounced than single consonants: note distinction between fato (pron. fa-to) and fatto (pron. fat-to); between aceto (pron. a-che-to) and accetto (pron. at-chet-to).

English sounds not appearing in Italian: all vowel sounds save the ones described above; h; pleasure; thin; this; w; American r.

Italian sounds not appearing in English: closed sounds of e and o; Italian r; all double consonants.

CAPITALIZATION,
SYLLABIFICATION, ACCENTUATION

Do not capitalize io ("I"); capitalize Lei, Ella, Loro, when they mean “you” (polite), Suo and Loro when they mean “your” (polite). Do not capitalize adjectives of nationality (inglese, “English”) even when used as the name of a language (parlo inglese, “I speak English”); to indicate people, use your own choice (gli americani or gli Americani, “the Americans”).

In dividing words into syllables, a single consonant between two vowels goes with the following, not with the preceding vowel: generale is to be divided and pronounced ge ne ra le.

The only written accent is the grave (̀); this appears whenever a word of more than one syllable ending in a vowel is stressed on the final vowel: città, perché, tornerò. The accent mark is also occasionally used on words of a single syllable to distinguish them from similar words having different meanings: e, “and”; è, “is”; da, “from”; då, “gives”. Otherwise, no written accent appears, and words are generally stressed on the next to the last or third from the last syllable; in these cases, the place of the accent is to be determined by observation. For the convenience of the student, the accent will be indicated when it falls elsewhere than on the second syllable from the end.

The apostrophe is used to indicate the fall of a vowel before another vowel: l’uomo (for lo uomo); t’amo (for ti amo).
SAMPLE OF WRITTEN ITALIAN;
USE FOR PRACTICE READING.


GRAMMATICAl SURVEY

1. Nouns and Articles.

Italian has only two genders, masculine and feminine. Nouns denoting males are usually masculine, those denoting females feminine. For nouns which in English are neuter, the ending often helps to determine the gender. Nouns ending in -o (plural changes -o to -i) are usually masculine; those ending in -a (plural changes -a to -e) normally feminine; the gender of nouns ending in -e (plural changes -e to -i) must be determined by observation.

The indefinite article is un (uno before s followed by

2. A considerable number of nouns which in the singular are masculine and end in -o become feminine in the plural, with change from -o to -a: il labbro, “the lip”, pl. le labbra; il ditò, “the finger”, pl. le dita; such nouns are indicated in the vocabulary thus: arm, il braccio (pl. le braccia).
consonant and before z) for the masculine; una (un’ before vowels) for the feminine:

a brother, un fratello; a man, un uomo; a father, un padre; a mirror, uno specchio; an uncle, uno zio;
a woman, una donna; a mother, una madre; an idea, un’idea.

The definite article takes the following forms:³

Masculine singular: l’ before vowels: the man, l’uomo;
lo before s plus consonant, or z: the mirror, lo specchio; the uncle, lo zio.
il in all other cases: the brother, il fratello; the father, il padre.

3. This system applies also to quello, ‘that’, “those”, and to bello, “beautiful”, “fine”, when used as adjectives before the noun: that father, quel padre; those fathers, quei padri; that mirror, quello specchio; those mirrors, quegli specchi; that idea, quell’idea; that man, quell’uomo; a fine boy, un bel ragazzo; fine boys, bei ragazzi; fine men, begli uomini; a fine mirror, un bello specchio; fine idea, bell’idea; fine man, bel-l’uomo.

It applies also to the article when combined with the prepositions di, “of”; a, “to”; da, “from”, “by”, “at the house of”; in (changed to ne- in combination), “in”; su, “on”; con (changed to co- in combination), “with”; per (changed to pe- in combination), “for”, “by”. This combination is compulsory with the first five prepositions mentioned, optional with the last two:
of the father, del padre; of the man, dell’uomo; of the uncle, dello zio; of the woman, della donna; of the idea, dell’idea; of the fathers, dei padri; of the men, degli uomini; of the women, delle donne;
to the brother, al fratello; to the mirror, allo specchio; to the mirrors, agli specchi; to the uncle, allo zio;
from the son, dal figlio; from the daughter, dalla figlia; from the sons, dai figli; from the men, dagli uomini;
in the wall, nel muro; in the soul, nell’anima; in the trees, negli alberi;
on the tree, sull’albero; on the trees, sugli alberi; on the walls, sulle mura;
with the relatives, coi parenti or con i parenti;
for the children, dei figli, or per i figli.

Del, della, dei, etc. also translate “some” or “any”, save in negative sentences: I have some bread, ho del pane; I have no bread, non ho pane.
Feminine singular: l' before vowels: the idea, l'idea.
la before consonants: the woman, la donna; the mother, la madre.
Masculine plural: gli before vowels, s plus consonant, or z: the men, gli uomini; the mirrors, gli specchi; the uncles, gli zii.
i in all other cases: the brothers, i fratelli; the fathers, i padri.
Feminine plural: le: the mothers, le madri; the women, le donne; the ideas, le idee.

2. Adjectives and Adverbs.

Adjectives agree with the nouns they modify. Like nouns, they have the endings -o (feminine -a, masc. pl. -i, fem. pl. -e); or -e (no difference between masculine and feminine; plural -i); agreement with the noun does not necessarily mean identical endings; the noun may be of the -a (pl. -e) variety, while the adjective is of the -e (pl. -i) type: the strong woman, la donna forte; the strong women, le donne forti. Adjectives usually follow the noun, though a few common ones precede:

the red book, il libro rosso
the red house, la casa rossa
the green tree, l'albero verde
the green house, la casa verde

the red books, i libri rossi
the red houses, le case rosses
the green trees, gli alberi verdi
the green houses, le case verdi

The comparative degree is formed by prefixing più, "more", to the positive; for the superlative, the definite article is placed before più or the noun: an easy book, un libro facile; an easier book, un libro più facile; the easiest book, il libro più facile; the greatest general, il più grande generale. "Than" is usually translated by di: an easier book than this, un libro più facile di questo.

The adverb is generally formed by adding -mente to the feminine singular of the adjective: clear, chiaro; clearly, chiaramente; strong, forte: strongly, fortemente.

a) Cardinal⁴

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<td>2000</td>
<td>duemila</td>
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<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>un milione (di)</td>
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b) Ordinal.

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<td>2nd</td>
<td>secondo</td>
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<td>3rd</td>
<td>terzo</td>
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<td>4th</td>
<td>quarto</td>
<td>10th</td>
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<td>5th</td>
<td>quinto</td>
<td>11th</td>
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<tr>
<td>6th</td>
<td>sesto</td>
<td>20th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Beyond 11th, ordinals are formed by dropping the final vowel of the cardinal and adding -ésimo: 34th, trentaquattresimo.

c) Others.

half -- la metà (noun), or mezzo (adjective): mezza mela, half an apple; la metà della compagnia, half the company.

4. Use these in dates, save for “the first”: May first, il primo maggio; May 10th, il dieci maggio.

5. Note the fall of the final vowel of venti, trenta, etc. in ventuno, ventotto, trentuno, trentotto.
a pair of — un paio di
a dozen — una dozzina di
once - una volta
twice - due volte
three times - tre volte
the first time — la prima volta
sometimes — qualche volta

4. Pronouns.

a) Personal (Subject). 

I, io
you (familiar), tu
he, egli or lui
she, ella or essa or lei
you (polite), Ella or Lei

we, noi, noialtri
you (fam. pl.), voi, voialtri
they (masc.), essi, loro
they (fem.), esse, loro
you (pol. pl.), Loro

b) Personal (Direct Object)

me, mi
you (fam.), ti
him, it (standing for an It. masc. noun), lo, l'
hers, it (It. fem. noun), la, l'
you (pol. sg.), La

us, ci
you (fam. pl.), vi
them (It. masc.), li
them (It. fem.), le
you (pol. pl.), Li, Le

c) Personal (Indirect Object)

to me, mi (me)
to you, ti (te)


to us, ci (ce)
to you, vi (ve)

6. Generally used only for emphasis or clarification: you don’t know how to do it, non sai farlo; you don’t know how to do it, tu non sai farlo.

7. In polite address, use Ella or Lei with the third person singular of the verb for a single person, Loro with the third plural of the verb for more than one person: tu sei forte, you (fam. sg.) are strong; Lei è forte, you (pol. sg.) are strong; voi siete forti, you (fam. pl.) are strong; Loro sono forti, you· (pol. pl.) are strong.

8. If two object pronouns appear together, the indirect pronoun precedes the direct, and the form in parentheses ending in -e is used for the indirect instead of the form ending in -i: he gives me the book, mi dà il libro; but “he gives it to me”, me lo dà; give him the book, dagli il libro; give it to him, dàglielo.
to him, gli (glie) ⁹ to them, loro ¹⁰
to her, le (glie) ⁹ to you (pol. pl.) Loro ¹⁰
to you (pol.), Le (glie) ⁹

Direct and indirect object pronouns precede the verb (he sees me, mi vede; I give him the book, gli do il libro), save with the familiar affirmative forms of the imperative (take it!, prendilo!); the infinitive (I want to see him, voglio vederlo or lo voglio vedere); and the gerund (I am speaking to him, sto parlando o gli sto parlando), to all of which forms they are appended (note the double possibility when the infinitive or gerund depend on another verb). With the imperative polite or negative, the pronoun precedes: take it! (pol.), lo prenda!; don’t take it! (fam.), non lo prendere!; (pol.), non lo prenda!

“Of it”, “of them”, “some” or “any” as a pronoun are expressed by ne, which follows other object pronouns and conforms to all the above rules: he gives me two of them, me ne dà due; I spoke to him of it, gliene ho parlato.

d) Personal (after a preposition)

me, me us, noi
you, te you, voi
him, lui them, loro, essi, esse
her, lei you (pol. pl.), Loro
it, esso, essa
you (pol.), Lei

With me, con me; for him, per lui; before them, prima di loro.

9. Glie, in writing, is always joined to a following direct object pronoun: I give it to him, glielo do.

10. Loro is an exception to all rules of position; it always follows the verb, and is never joined to anything else: I give them the book, do loro il libro; I give it to them, lo do loro.

11*
e) Possessive.

my, mine, il mio; la mia; i miei; le mie
your, yours (fam. sg.), il tuo; la tua; i tuoi; le tue
his, her, hers, its, il suo; la sua; i suoi; le sue
our, ours, il nostro; la nostra; i nostri; le nostre
your, yours, il vostro; la vostra; i vostri; le vostre
their, theirs, il loro; la loro; i loro; le loro
your, yours (pol. sg.), il Suo; la Sua; i Suoi; le Sue
your, yours (pol. pl.), il Loro; la Loro; i Loro; le Loro

These agree with the noun they modify or replace, and regularly appear with the article, whether used as adjectives or pronouns: my book, il mio libro; I want mine, voglio il mio. The article is, however generally omitted after the verb “to be” (this book is mine, questo libro è mio); and before nouns of relationship in the singular, but not in the plural (my sister, mia sorella; my sisters, le mie sorelle); also in direct address (my friend!, amico mio!).

f) Demonstrative.

this, these, questo (-a, -i, -e): this woman, questa donna; here are your books; I want these, ecco i Suoi libri; voglio questi.

that, those, the one, the ones, quello; see note 3 for its forms when used as an adjective (that book, quel libro; those books, quei libri; those mirrors, quegli specchi); when used as a pronoun, the scheme is regular (quello-a-i-e): my books and the ones on the table, i miei libri e quelli sulla tavola.

g) Relative and Interrogative.

who, whom, which, that, che: the man I saw, l'uomo che ho visto (note that the relative cannot be omitted); the woman who came, la donna che è venuta. Il quale (la quale, i quali, le quali), and cui are generally used after prepositions: the gentleman with whom I dined, il signore con cui (or col quale) ho pranzato.
whose, di cui; il (la, i, le) cui; del (della) quale (pl. dei or
delle quali): the man whose sister I saw yesterday, l'uomo
di cui ho visto ieri la sorella; l'uomo la cui sorella ho visto
ieri; l'uomo del quale ho visto ieri la sorella; l'uomo la
sorella del quale ho visto ieri (note the different word-
orders used with each expression).

who?, whom?, chi?: who came?, chi è venuto?; whom did you
see? chi hai visto?
what?, che? or che cosa?: what happened?, che (or che cosa)
é successo?; what did you do?, che (or che cosa) hai
fatto?
which?, which one?, which ones?, quale (pl. quali)?: which
books do you want?, quali libri vuoi?
whose?, di chi?: whose house is that?, di chi è quella casa?

5. Verbs.

Italian verbs fall into three main classes, with the infinitive
ending respectively in -are, -ere, 11 and -ire 11.

1. Present Indicative.

to speak, parl-are

I speak (am speaking, do parl-o
    speak), 12
you speak, parl-i

11. -are and -ire verbs have the stress on the -a and -i, respectively;
some -ere verbs have the stress on the first e of the ending (godere),
others have it on the preceding vowel of the stem (ricèvere), but no
difference appears outside of the infinitive. A considerable number of
-ire verbs have the following scheme of present indicative endings:
fin-isco, -iscì, -isce, -iamo, -i', -iscono. The inserted -isc- reappears
in the subjunctive and imperative singular and third plural. They
are otherwise regular, and appear in the vocabulary thus: finire (-isc-).

12. A progressive conjugation, formed with stare, "to stand", "to
be", followed by the gerund, corresponds in use to the English "I
am speaking", "I was speaking", etc. The gerund is formed by adding
-ando to the stem of -are verbs, -endo to the stem of other verbs, and is
he, she speaks,  parl-a
we speak,        parl-iamo
you speak,       parl-ate
they speak,      parl-ano

to receive,     ricèv-ere
I receive,      ricev-o
you receive,    ricev-i
he, she receives, ricev-e
we receive,     ricev-iamo
you receive,    ricev-ete
they receive,   ricèv-ono

to sleep,       dorm-ire
I sleep,        dorm-o
you sleep,      dorm-i
he, she sleeps, dorm-e
we sleep,       dorm-iamo
you sleep,      dorm-ite
they sleep,     dòrm-ono

to be, èssere: sono, sei, è, siamo, siete, sono.
to have: avere: ho, hai, ha, abbiamo, avete, hanno.
to know (a fact), to know how, sapere: so, sai, sa, sappiamo, sapete, sanno.

invariable; used by itself, it carries the meaning of "by", or "while" (by speaking, one learns, parlando, s'impara; while speaking, we left the house, parlando, siamo usciti dalla casa). The present of stare is: sto, stai, sta, stiamo, state, stanno; imperfect, future and conditional are regular (stavo; stardò; starei). Parlo and sto parlando are interchangeable in the sense of "I am speaking"; parlavo and stavo parlando in the sense of "I was speaking".
to go, andare: vado, vai, va, andiamo, andate, vanno.
to give, dare: do, dai, dà, diamo, date, dànano.
to do, to make, fare: faccio, fai, fa, facciamo, fate, fanno.
to come, venire: vengo, vieni, viene, veniamo, venite, vengono.
to want, volere: voglio, vuoi, vuole, vogliamo, volete, vogliono

2. Imperfect Indicative (meaning: I was speaking, used
to speak):

parl-avo, -avi, -ava, -avamo, -avate, -àvano, I was speaking,
used to speak
ricev-evo, -evi, -eva, -evamo, -evate, -èvano, I was receiving,
used to receive
dorm-ivo, -ivi, -iva, -ivamo, -ivate, -ìvano, I was sleeping, used
to sleep
“to be”, èssere: ero, eri, era, eravamo, eravate, èrano, I was, etc.
“to have”, avere, is regular: av-evo, etc.; so are other verbs
with an irregular present: sapevo, andavo, davo, venivo,
volevo; but fare has fac-evo.

3. Past Indicative (meaning: I spoke):

parl-ai, parl-asti, parl-ò, parl-ammo, parl-aste, parl-àrono, I
spoke, etc.
ricev-ei, ricev-esti, ricev-è (or ricev-ette), ricev-ammo, ricev-este,
ricev-èrono (or ricev-èttero), I received, etc.
dorm-ìi, dorm-isti, dorm-ì, dorm-immo, dorm-iste, dorm-ìrno,
I slept, etc.
èssere: fui, fosti, fu, fummo, foste, fùrono, I was, etc.
avere: ebbi, avesti, ebbe, avemmo, aveste, èbbero, I had, etc. 13

13. Note carefully the irregular scheme of the past of avere; most
verbs with an irregular past follow the same scheme; the irregular
forms are the first singular, third singular and third plural, while the
remaining three forms are quite regular; thus: to write, scriv-ere;
I wrote, scrissi; he wrote, scrisse; they wrote, scrissero; but you wrote
(sg.) scriv-estì, (pl.) scriv-este; we wrote, scriv-ammo. Whenever a
past is irregular according to this scheme, only the first singular
appears in the vocabulary (to write, scrivere; Past, scrissi).
4. Future and Conditional (I shall write; I should write). parl-erò, -erai, -erà, -eremo, -erete, -eranno, I shall speak, etc. ricev-erò, -erai, -erà, -eremo, -erete, -eranno, I shall receive, etc. dorm-irò, -irai, -irà, -iremo, -irete, -iranno, I shall sleep, etc. essere: sarò, sarai, sarà, saremo, sarete, saranno, I shall be, etc. avere: avrò, avrai, avrà, avremo, avrete, avranno, I shall have, etc.

For the conditional of any verb, retain the form of the future down to the -r- and add: -ei, -esti, -ebbe, -emmo, -este, -èbbro; thus: I should speak, parler-ei; he would speak, parler-ebbe; we would sleep, dormir-emmo; they would be, sar-èbbro. It being understood that the conditional invariably follows the future in any irregularity the latter may have, the first person of the future alone in the vocabulary indicates that both tenses are irregular; thus: to come, venire (Fut. verrò); this indicates that the conditional is verrei.

5. Compound Tenses.

These are formed as in English, by using the auxiliary "to have" (averre) with the past participle. 14 Many intransitive

14. The past participle ends in -ato for -are verbs, -uto for -ere verbs, -ito for -ire verbs (spoken, parl-ato; received, ricev-uto; slept, dorm-ito). Many past participles are irregular, and individually given in the vocabulary. The past participle is normally invariable (we have spoken, abbiamo parlato), but changes its endings like an adjective in the following cases:
1. when used as an adjective: the spoken tongue, la lingua parlata;
2. when used with the auxiliary "to be", in which case it must agree with the subject; this occurs: a) with intransitive verbs of motion, etc. as described above: the men have come, gli uomini sono venuti; b) in the passive: we are loved by our parents, noi siamo amati dai nostri genitori; c) in the reflexive: they got up, si sono alzati;
3. when used with "to have", to agree with the direct object; this agreement is compulsory if the object is a personal direct object pronoun: I have seen them, li ho visti; optional in all other cases: the women we saw, le donne che abbiamo viste (or visto); we saw those women, abbiamo visto (or viste) quelle donne.
verbs of motion (to go, andare; to come, venire), change of state (to become, divenire; to die, morire) and essere itself use essere as an auxiliary instead of avere; in this case, the past participle changes its ending to agree with the subject, just as though it were an adjective: he went, è andato; she went, è andata; we went, siamo andati; the ladies went, le signore sono andate.

Present Perfect: ho parlato, hai parlato, etc., I have spoken, I spoke;
sono andato (-a), I went; siamo andati (-e), we went;

Past Perfect: avevo ricevuto, I had received; avevi dormito, you had slept; ero stato, I had been; eravamo tornati, we had come back;

Future Perfect: avrò scritto, I shall have written; sarà partito, he will have left;

Past Conditional: avrei perduto, I would have lost; sarebbe andato, he would have gone.

6. Imperative. (meaning: speak!; let us speak)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fam. Sg.</th>
<th>-are</th>
<th>-ere</th>
<th>-ire</th>
<th>essere</th>
<th>avere</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>parl-a</td>
<td>ricev-i</td>
<td>dorm-i</td>
<td>sii</td>
<td>abbi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Fam. Pl.  | parl-ate | ricev-ete | dorm-ite | siate | abbia 
| Pol. Sg.  | parl-i | ricev-a | dorm-a | sia | abbia |
| Pol. P.   | parl-ino | ricèv-ano | dòrm-ano | siano | òbbiano |
| “let us”  | parl-iamo | ricev-iamo | dorm-iamo | siamo | abbia |

15. The familiar singular form is never used in the negative, being replaced by the infinitive: don’t speak!, non parlare!; don’t sleep, non dormire! Object pronouns are attached to the familiar imperatives in the affirmative (speak to him! parlagli!; parlategli!; let us speak to him, parliàmogli); but precede the polite forms (speak to him!, gli parli; gli pàrlino), and all negative forms, familiar or polite (don’t speak to him!; non gli parlare; non gli parlate; non gli parli; non gli pàrlino!; let us not speak to him!, non gli parlia-
mo!)
7. Reflexive Verbs.

The reflexive is more extensively used in Italian than in English. Reflexive pronouns are: *mi, ti, si, ci, vi, si*. The auxiliary used in compound tenses is *essere*, and the past participle agrees with the subject: they saw each other, *si sono visti*.  

I wash myself, *mi lavo* we wash ourselves, *ci laviamo*  
you wash yourself, *ti lavi* you wash yourselves, *vi lavate*  
he washes himself, *si lava* they wash themselves, *si lavano*  

I washed myself, *mi sono lavato (-a)*; we washed ourselves, *ci siamo lavati (-e)*  
you washed yourself, *ti sei lavato (-a)*; you washed yourselves, *vi siete lavati (-e)*  
he washed himself, *si è lavato*; she washed herself, *si è lavata*; they washed themselves, *si sono lavati (-e)*


This is formed as in English, by using “to be” with the past participle; the latter agrees with the subject: we are loved by our parents, *noi siamo amati dai nostri genitori*; I was punished, *fui punito*.

A second passive form with *venire* instead of *essere* indicates more intensive and immediate action: the sentinels were killed, *le sentinelle vènnero uccise*.

The reflexive often replaces the passive, especially when the subject is a thing: Italian is spoken here, *qui si parla italiano*; these books are sold at two dollars apiece, *questi libri si vèndono a due dollari l’uno*.

16. Note that the -i of all these forms changes to -e if another object pronoun follows: *se lo mette*, he puts it on (himself).

17. Note that in the plural, the reflexive may mean not only “ourselves”, “yourselves”, “themselves”, but also “each other”, “one another”.

The Italian subjunctive has four tenses, and is frequently used in subordinate clauses. The endings of the present subjunctive are:

-are verbs: parl-ì, -i, -i, -iamo, -iato, -ino
-ere and -ire verbs: ricev- or dorm-a, -a, -a, -iamo, -iato, -uno.

The imperfect subjunctive ends in -ssi, -ssi, -sse, -ssimo, -ste, -ssero, with a preceding -a- for -are verbs (parl-assì), -e- for -ere verbs (ricev-essì), -i- for -ire verbs (dorm-issì).

The present perfect subjunctive uses the present subjunctive of “to have” (abbia, abbia, abbia, abbiamo, abbiate, abbiano) or “to be” (sia, sia, sia, siamo, siate, siano), with the past participle (abbia parlato, sia venuto); while the past perfect subjunctive uses the imperfect subjunctive of avere (avessì) or essere (fossì), with the past participle (avessì parlato, fossì venuto).

I think he is speaking (will speak), credo che parli;
I think he spoke, credo che abbia parlato;
I thought he was speaking, (would speak), credevo che parlassè;
I thought he had spoken, credevo che avessè parlato.

DIALECTS

Italian has an extremely large number of widely diverging dialects, many of them mutually incomprehensible. Generally speaking, however, the standard literary speech has currency everywhere, and can be used with reasonable assurance.

The northern Italian dialects are generally identifiable by their lack of the characteristic Italian double consonant sounds and by the fall of many vowel endings (fatto, for example, may appear as fato, fat, fait). A clear, staccato pronunciation is usually indicative of northern origin. Piedmontese, Genoese, Venetian and Emilian are among the best-known dialects of this group.

The dialects south of Rome, down to the heel and toe of the boot (Neapolitan, Abruzzese, etc.) are characterized by heavy stress and prolongation of accented vowels and a general
deadening of final vowels to the sound of e in the (beelle for Italian bello, bella, belli, belle). A sing-song cadence is also fairly general.

Calabria and Sicily change most o-sounds to u, and most e-sounds to i (prufissuri for professore); and change ll to a sound resembling Engl. drink (bedru for bello). A sharp, explosive pronunciation is also fairly general.

The central section of the country (Florence, Rome, etc.) generally approaches the literary standard.

VOCABULARY


world, il mondo  star, la stella
earth, la terra  sky, il cielo
air, l’aria  wind, il vento
water, l’acqua  weather, time, il tempo
fire, il fuoco (pl. fuochi)  snow, la neve
glow, la luce  to snow, nevicare
sea, il mare  rain, la pioggia
glare, il sole  to rain, piövere\textsuperscript{19} (Past piovve)
moon, la luna  cloud, la nuvola,\textsuperscript{19} la nube

18. Irregularities in the plural of nouns are indicated thus: il braccio (pl. le braccia); this means that the plural is feminine and takes an -a instead of an -i ending. Spelling changes are also noted: fuoco (pl. fuochi).

Verbs of the -ire type that take -isc- between the root and the ending are indicated thus: to finish, finire (-isc-). Other important irregularities are also noted in parentheses. An irregular first singular in the past tense implies the same irregularity in the third singular and third plural, with the other persons regular; thus scrivere Past scrisse indicates the scheme: scrisse, scrivi\textit{st}, scrissi, scrivemmo scriveste, scrissero (cf. note 13). Verbs requiring essere as an active auxiliary appear thus: to become, divenire (essere). This indication is not given in the case of reflexive verbs, which are all conjugated with essere.

19. In words of more than two syllables, if the accent falls elsewhere than on the next to the last syllable, its place is indicated thus piövere, nùvola. A few other irregular accents are also indicated (polizia). Note, however, that this is done only for the convenience of the student, and that Italian does not indicate the place of the accent in writing save when it falls on a final vowel (metà, città).
cloudy, nuvoloso, coperto  
Monday, il lunedì  
it fog, la nebbia  
Tuesday, il martedì  
ice, il ghiaccio  
Wednesday, il mercoledì  
mud, il fango  
Thursday, il giovedì  
morning, il mattino, la mattina  
Friday, il venerdì  
noon, il mezzogiorno  
Saturday, il sabato  
afternoon, il dopopranzo; il pomeriggio  
January, gennaio  
evening, la sera  
February, febbraio  
night, la notte  
March, marzo  
imidnight, la mezzanotte  
April, aprile  
North, nord, settentrione  
May, maggio  
South, sud, mezzogiorno  
June, giugno  
East, est, levante, oriente  
July, luglio  
West, ovest, ponente, occidente  
August, agosto  
year, l'anno  
September, settembre  
month, il mese  
October, ottobre  
week, la settimana  
November, novembre  
day, il giorno  
December, dicembre  
hour, l'ora  
Spring, la primavera  
minute, il minuto  
Summer, l'estate (fem.)  
Sunday, la domenica  
Fall, l'autunno  
Winter, l'inverno  
For “it is warm”, “it is cold”, etc. cf. p. 350.
No capitals for seasons, months, days of week.
I shall see him on Monday, lo vedrò lunedì; last Monday, lunedì scorso; next Monday, lunedì prossimo; every Monday, tutti i lunedì (nouns ending in stressed vowels usually do not change in the plural: the city, la città; the cities, le città); on May 5th, 1943, il cinque maggio mille novecento quarantatre.

2. Family, Friendship, Love.

family, la famiglia  
uncle, lo zio
husband, il marito  
aunt, la zia
wife, la moglie (pl. mogli)  
nephew, grandson, il nipote
parents, i genitori  
niece, granddaughter, la nipote
father, il padre  
cousin, il cugino, la cugina
mother, la madre  
grandfather, il nonno
son, il figlio (pl. figli)  
grandmother, la nonna
daughter, la figlia  
father-in-law, il suocero
brother, il fratello  
mother-in-law, la suocera
sister, la sorella  
son-in-law, il genero
daughter-in-law, la nuora
to visit, visitare
brother-in-law, il cognato
love, l’amore (masc.)
sister-in-law, la cognata
to love, amare, voler bene
man, l’uomo (pl. gli uomini)
(she loves him, lo ama, gli vuol bene)
woman, la donna
to fall in love with, innamorarsi di
child, il bambino, la bambina
to marry, sposare
boy, il ragazzo, il fanciullo
to get married, sposarsi
girl, la ragazza, la fanciulla
tsweetheart, il fidanzato, la fidanzata
sir, Mr., il signore
kiss, il bacio (pl. baci)
madam, Mrs., la signora
to kiss, baciare
Miss, young lady, la signorina
dear, beloved, caro
friend, l’amico, l’amica (pl. gli amici, le amiche)
servant, il servo, la serva
to introduce, presentare

3. Speaking Activities.

word, la parola
language, la lingua

to speak, parlare

to say, dire (Pres. dico, dici, dice, diciamo, dite, dicono; Impf. dicevo; Fut. dirò; Past dissi; P. p. detto; Impv. di, dite, dica)
to tell, relate, dire, raccontare
to hear, sentire, udire (Pres. odo, odi, ode, udiamo, udite, odoño)
to inform, informare
to understand, capire (-isc-), comprendere (Past compresi, P. p. compreso)
to call, chiamare
to mean, voler dire (cf. p. 342 for volere)
to be called, one’s name is, chiamarsi (my name is John, mi chiamo Giovanni)
to ask (for), domandare, chiedere (Past chiesi, P. p. chiesto);
the person asked is an indirect object, the thing asked for is direct: I asked him for a pencil,
gli ho domandato (chiesto) un lapis
to call, chiama
to answer, rispondere (Past risposi, P. p. risposto); the person
to cry, gridare
to listen to, ascoltare (I listen to

20. Use the definite article with signore, signora, signorina, save in speaking directly to the person; signore usually becomes signor when the name follows: Mr. Bianchi has a book, il signor Bianchi ha un libro; Mr. Bianchi, have you a book?, signor Bianchi, ha un libro?:
sir, have you a book?, signore, ha un libro?

answered is an indirect object: him for the book, l’ho ringraziato del libro
to thank, ringraziare (I thanked to complain, lagnarsi, lamentarsi

gold, l’oro
silver, l’argento
iron, il ferro
steel, l’acciaio
copper, il rame
tin, lo stagno, la latta
lead, il piombo
oil, il petrolio
gasoline, la benzina
coal, il carbone

wood, il legno
silk, la seta
cotton, il cotone
wool, la lana
cloth, la tela, il panno
to cut, tagliare
to dig, scavare
to sew, cucire
to mend, rammendare

5. Animals.
animal, l’animale (masc.), la bestia
horse, il cavallo
dog, il cane
cat, il gatto
bird, l’uccello
donkey, l’asino
mule, il mulo
cow, la vacca (pl. vacche)
ox, il bue (pl. buoi)
pig, il porco, il maiale
chicken, il pollo
hen, la gallina
rooster, il gallo
sheep, la pecora
goat, la capra
mouse, il topo
snake, il serpente
fly, la mosca (pl. mosche)
bee, l’ape (fem.)
mosquito, la zanzara
spider, il ragno
louse, il pidocchio (pl. pidocchi)
flea, la pulce
bedbug, la cimice

6. Money; Buying and Selling.
money, il danaro
coin, la moneta
dollar, il dollaro
cent, il soldo
lira (ab. 1 cent), la lira
centesimo (1-100th of a lira), il centésimo
bank, la banca, il banco (pl. -che, -chi)
check, l’assegno
money order, il vaglia (pl. i vaglia)
to earn, gain, guadagnare
to win, vincere (Past vinsi, P. p. vinto)
to lose, perdere (Past persi, P. p. perso; or regular, persei, perduto)
to spend, spendere (Past spesi, P. p. speso)
to lend, prestare

to borrow, chiedere (prèndere) in préstito: I borrowed $2 from him, gli ho preso in préstito due dollari

to owe, dovere (Pres. debbo or devo, devi, deve, dobbiamo, dovete, dèbbono or dèvono; Fut. dovrò)

to pay, pagare
to give back, restituire (-isc-)
rendere (Past resi, P. p. reso)
to change, exchange, cambiare (small) change, gli spicchioli change (of a bill), il resto

honest, onesto
dishonest, disonesto

price, il prezzo
cost, il costo
to cost, costare (èssere)

expensive, dear, caro
cheap, ragionèvole, a buon mercato

store, shop, negozio, bottega (pl. -ghe)
piece, il pezzo

slice, la fetta

pound, la libbra

package, il pacco (pl. pacchi)
basket, il canestro, il cesto
box, la scatola

bag, il sacchetto

goods, la mercanzia, la merce
to go shopping, andare a far comperare (cf. p. 341 for andare), far la spesa
to sell, vendere
to buy, comprare
to rent, hire, affittare, prendere in affitto (a conveyance, noleggiare)
to be worth, valere (Pres. 3rd pl. vèlgono; Fut. 3rd sg. varrà) (èssere)
to choose, scègliere (Pres. 1st sg. scelgo, 3rd pl. scèlgono; Past scelsi; P. p. scelto; Pol. Impv. scelga)
thief, robber, il ladro
to steal, rubare

police, la polizia

policeman, l'agente di polizia, il poliziotto, il carabiniere

bill, il conto
to pass (a dish), to hand, favorire (will you pass me the bread?, mi vuol favorire il pane?)
tip, la mancia
to drink, bere (Pres. bev-o, -i, -e, -iamo, -ete 'ono; Fut. berrò; Past bevvi; P. p. bevuto; Impv. bev-i, -ete, -a)

water, l'acqua

wine, il vino

beer, la birra

coffee, il caffè
tea, il tè

7. Eating and Drinking.
to eat, mangiare

breakfast, lunch, la colazione
to eat breakfast, lunch, far colazione (cf. p. 342 for fare)
supper, la cena
to eat supper, cenare
dinner, il pranzo
to dine, pranzare
meal, il pasto
dining-room, la sala da pranzo

waiter, il cameriere

waitress, la cameriera

restaurant, il ristorante, la trattoria

menu, la lista delle vivande, il menù
milk, il latte
bottle, la bottiglia
spoon, il cucchiaino
teaspoon, il cucchiaino
knife, il coltello
fork, la forchetta
glass, il bicchiere
cup, la tazza
napkin, la salvietta, il tovagliolo
salt, il sale
pepper, il pepe
plate, dish, il piatto
bread, il pane
roll, il panino
butter, il burro
sugar, lo zucchero
soup, la zuppa, la minestra
rice, il riso
potatoes, le patate
vegetables, i legumi, le verdure
meat, la carne
beef, il manzo, la carne di bue
steak, la bistecca (pl. -che)
chicken, il pollo
chap, la cotoletta
veal, il vitello
lamb, l’agnello
pork, il maiale
sausage, la salsiccia
ham, il prosciutto (American-style
   ham, prosciutto cotto)
bacon, la ventresca
egg, l’uovo (pl. le uova)
fish, il pesce
cooked, cucinato, cotio
fried, fritto
boiled, bollito
roast, roasted, arrosto
baked, al forno
broiled, ai ferri
sauce, la salsa
salad, l’insalata
cheese, il cacio, il formaggio
fruit, la frutta
apple, la mela
pear, la pera
peach, la pesca (pl. -che)
grapes, l’uva
strawberries, le fragole
nuts, le noci
orange, l’arancia
lemon, il limone
juice, il sugo
cherries, le ciliege
dessert, il dolce
pastry, le paste

8. Hygiene and Attire.
bath, il bagno
shower, la doccia
to bathe, fare un bagno
to wash, lavarsi
to shave, radersi (Past mi rasò,
   P. p. raso)
barber, il barbiere
mirror, lo specchio (pl. specchi)
soap, il sapone
razor, il rasoio
safety razor, rasoio di sicurezza
towel, l’asciugamano
comb, il pettine
brush, la spazzola
scissors, le forbici
to wear, portare, indossare
to take off, levarsi, togliersi (Pres.
   1st sg. mi tolgo, 3rd pl. si tolgono; Past mi tolsi; P. p. tolto) 22

22. Note: he puts on his hat, si mette il cappello; I took off my overcoat, mi sono tolto il soprabito.
to change, mutarsi, cambiare di pocket, la tasca (pl. -che)
to put on, indossare, mettersi
(Past mi misi; P. p. messo) clothes, i vestiti, gli abiti
hat, il cappello
suit, il vestito, l’abito
coat, la giacca (pl. -cche)
vest, il gilet, il panciotto
pants, i calzoni, i pantaloni
undershirt, la maglia
drawers, le mutande
glove, il guanto
socks, i calzini
stockings, le calze
shirt, la camicia
collar, il colletto
tie, la cravatta
overcoat, il soprabito
raincoat, l’impermeabile


head, il capo, la testa
forehead, la fronte
face, la faccia, il volto, il viso
mouth, la bocca (pl. le bocche)
hair, i capelli
eye, l’occhio (pl. gli occhi)
ear, l’orecchio
tooth, il dente
lip, il labbro (pl. le labbra)
nose, il naso
tongue, la lingua
chin, il mento
cheek, la guancia
mustache, i baffi
beard, la barba
neck, il collo
throat, la gola
arm, il braccio (pl. le braccia)
hand, la mano (pl. le mani)
elbow, il gomito
wrist, il polso
finger, il dito (pl. le dita)
nail, l’unghia
leg, la gamba
foot, il piede
knee, il ginocchio (pl. le ginocchia)
back, il dorso, la schiena
chest, il petto
ankle, la caviglia
body, il corpo
bone, l’osso (pl. le ossa)
skin, la pelle
heart, il cuore
stomach, lo stomaco (pl. gli stomaci)
blood, il sangue
shoulder, la spalla
10. Medical.
doctor, il medico, il dottore
drug-store, la farmacia
hospital, l'ospedale
medicine, la medicina
pill, la pillola
prescription, la ricetta
bandage, la fasciatura
nurse, l'infermiere, (-a)
il, malato
illness, la malattia
fever, la febbre
swollen, gonfio, gonfiato

wound, la ferita
wounded, ferito
head-ache, il mal di capo, il dolore di testa
tooth-ache, il mal di denti
cough, la tosse
to cough, tossire (reg. or -isco)
lame, zoppo
burn, la bruciatura, la scottatura
pain, il dolore
poison, il veleno

11. Military.
war, la guerra
peace, la pace
ally, l'alleato
enemy, il nemico (pl. i nemici)
army, l'esercito
danger, il pericolo
dangerous, pericoloso
to win, vincere (Past vinsi, P. p. vinto)
to surround, circondare
to arrest, arrestare
to kill, uccidere (Past uccisi, P. p. ucciso), ammazzare
to escape, sfuggire (essere)
to run away, fuggire (esser), scappare (esser)
to lead, condurre (Pres. condurco, -i, -e, -iamo, -ete, 'ono, Past condussi, -ducessi, etc., Fut. condurro; P. p. condotto)
to follow, seguire
to surrender, arrendersi (Past mi arresi, P. p. arreso)
to retreat, ritirarsi
to bomb, shell, bombardare
fear, la paura, il timore
prison, la prigione
prisoner, il prigioniero
to take prisoner, far (or prendere) prigioniero
to capture, catturare
help, l'aiuto, il soccorso
comrade, "buddy", il compagno
battle, la battaglia
to fight, combattere, battersi
soldier, il soldato, il militare
private, il soldato semplice
corporal, il caporale
sergeant, il sergente
lieutenant, il tenente
captain, il capitano
major, il maggiore
colonel, il colonnello
genral, il generale
officer, l'ufficiale
company, la compagnia
battalion, il battaglione
regiment, il reggimento
brigade, la brigata
division, la divisione
troops, le truppe
reinforcements, i rinforzi, le truppe di rinforzo
fortress, la fortezza
sentinel, la sentinella
to stand guard, to do sentry duty,
   far da sentinella, essere di fa-
   zione (essere)
to be on duty, essere di servizio
guard, la guardia
sign-post, l'insegna (stradale)
navy, la marina
sailor, il marinaio
marines, fanteria di marina, com-
pagnie da sbarco
warship, la nave da guerra
cruiser, l'incrociatore (masc.)
destroyer, il cacciatorpediniere,
   il caccia (pl. same)
convoys, il convoglio
escort, la scorta
weapon, l'arma (pl. le armi)
rifle, il fucile
machine-gun, la mitragliatrice
cannon, il cannone
ammunition, le munizioni
supplies, i rifornimenti
cartridge, la cartuccia
bullet, la pallottola, la palla
belt, la cintura
knapsack, lo zaino
tent, la tenda
camp, l'accampamento, l'attendam-
mento

map, la carta
rope, la corda
flag, la bandiera
helmet, l'elmo, l'elmetto
bayonet, la baionetta
uniform, l'uniforme (fem.)
airplane, l'aeroplano, l'apparec-
chio
bomber, il caccia
pursuit plane, l'apparecchio da
   caccia
shell, la granata
bomb, la bomba
truck, l'automobile, l'autoveicolo,
   il camion
tank, l'armoured car (corazzato)
to load, caricare
to fire, shoot, sparare, far fuoco
to shoot (military execution), fu-
cilare
fire!, fuoco!
attention!, attenti!
forward!, avanti!
halt!, alt!, alto là!
air-raid shelter, il ricovero anti-
aereo
spy, la spia

12. Travel.

passport, il passaporto
ship, la nave, il bastimento
steamer, il piroscafo, il vapore
stateroom, la cabina
berth, la cuccetta
to travel, viaggiare
trip, voyage, il viaggio
to leave, depart, partire (essere)
to arrive, arrivare (essere)
to ride (a conveyance), andare in
   (cf. p. 341 for andare)
railroad, la ferrovia

station, la stazione
track, il binario
train, il treno
platform, il marciapiede
ticket, il biglietto
compartment, lo scompartimento
all aboard!, partenza!, in vettura!
dining-car, il vagone ristorante
 sleeper, il vagone letto
car, coach, il vagone
trunk, il baule
valise, la valigia
13. Reading and Writing.

to read, leggere (Past lessi, P. p. letto)
newspaper, il giornale
magazine, la rivista
book, il libro
to write, scrivere (Past scissi, P. p. scritto)
to translate, tradurre (cf. p. 337 for all verbs in -durre)
pencil, il lapis (pl. same), la matita
chalk, il gesso
blackboard, la lavagna


to smoke, fumare
cigar, il sigaro
cigarette, la sigaretta
tobacco, il tabacco
match, il fiammifero
give me a light, mi fa accendere?
théatre, il teatro
movies, il cinema
dance, il ballo
to dance, ballare
to have a good time, divertirsi
ticket, il biglietto
pleasure, il piacere
to play (music), suonare

to sing, cantare
song, la canzone
to play (a game), giocare a (insert h before -e and -i endings)
game, il giuoco (pl. i giuochi)
ballet, la palla
to take a walk, fare una passeggiata, andare (esser) a passeggiare
beach, la spiaggia
to swim, nuotare
sand, la sabbia, l’arena
refreshment, il rinfresco
saloon, l’osteria, il bar, la mescita
picnic, la scampagnata

15. Town and Country.

place, spot, il luogo (pl. -ghi) il posto, il sito
city, la città (pl. le città)

automobile, l’automobile (masc. or fem.)
taxi, la macchina da noleggio
driver, il conducente, l’autista (pl. gli autisti)
to drive (car), guidare, condurre

ink, l’inchiostro
pen, la penna (fountain - , penna stilografica)
envelope, la busta
paper, la carta (writing - , - da scrivere, da lettere)
letter, la lettera
post-office, la posta, l’ufficio postale
stamp, il francobollo
letter-box, la cassettina postale
to mail, impostaare
address, l’indirizzo
post-card, la cartolina (postale)

street, road, la strada, la via
sidewalk, il marciapiede
harbor, il porto
block, l’isolato
text, l’incrocio
school, la scuola
church, la chiesa
cathedral, la cattedrale, la basilica,
Il duomo
building, l’edificio
corner, l’angolo, il cantone
hotel, l’albergo (pl. -ghi)
office, l’ufficio
river, il fiume
bridge, il ponte
country, la campagna

door, la porta
to open, aprire (P. p. aperto)
to close, chiudere (Past chiusi, P. p. chiuso)
key, la chiave
to go in, entrare (he entered the room, entrò nella stanza) (essere)
to go out, to leave, uscire (Pres. esco, esci, escè, usciamo, uscite, ècono; Impv. esci, uscite, esca; he left the room, è uscito dalla stanza) (essere)
house, la casa
roof, il tetto
cottage, la casetta
hut, la capanna
to live in, abitare in
staircase, la scala, le scale
to go up, salire (Pres. 1st sg. salgo, 3rd pl. salgono; Pol. Impv. salga) (essere)
to go down, scendere (Past scesi, P. p. sceso) (essere)
room, la stanza, la camera
bedroom, la stanza (camera) da letto
bathroom, il cesso, il gabinetto
kitchen, la cucina

village, il villaggio, il paese
mountain, la montagna
grass, l’erba
yard, l’aiu, il cortile
hill, la collina
lake, il lago (pl. laghi)
forest, wood, la foresta, il bosco (pl. -chi)
field, il campo
tree, l’albero
flower, il fiore
rock, stone, la pietra, il sasso

table, la tavola, il tavolo
chair, la sedia, la seggiola
to sit down, sedersi (change sed- to sied- whenever it is stressed), mettersi a sedere (Past misi, P. p. messo)
to stand, be standing, stare in piedi (Past stetti, stessi, stette, stemmo, steste, stettero)
wall, il muro (pl. i muri or le mura)
lamp, la lampada
candle, la candela
closet, l’armadio
window, la finestra
bed, il letto
pillow, il cuscino, il guanciale
blanket, la coperta
sheet, il lenzuolo (pl. le lenzuola)
mattress, il materasso, la materassa
to rest, riposare, riposarsi
to go to bed, andare a letto (essere)
to go to sleep, addormentarsi
to sleep, dormire
alarm-clock, la sveglia
to wake up, svegliarsi, destarsi
to get up, alzarsi, levarsi
to get dressed, vestirsi
17. Miscellaneous Nouns.

people, la gente (with sg. verb)
thing, la cosa
name, il nome
luck, la fortuna

number, il numero
life, la vita
death, la morte
work, il lavoro

18. Verbs — Coming and Going.

to come, venire (Pres. vengo, vieni, viene, veniamo, venite, vengono; Past venni; Fut. verrò; P. p. venuto; Impv. vieni, venga) (esser)
to go, andare (Pres. vado, vai, va, andiamo, andate, vanno; Fut. andrò or anderò; Impv. va, andate, vada) (esser)
to be going to, use future of follow verb (I am going to do it tomorrow, lo farò domani)
to run, correre (Past corsi, P. p. corso) (esser)
to return, to go back, ritornare (esser)

to walk, camminare, andare a piedi (esser)
to go away, andàrsene (me ne vado)
to fall, cadere (Past caddi, Fut. cadrò) (esser)
to stay, remain, stare (Pres. sto, stai, sta, stiamo; state, stanno; Past stetti, stesti, stette, stessero, stette, stettero), restare, rimanere (Pres. 1st sg. rimango, 3rd pl. rimangono; Past rimasi, P. p. rimasto, Fut. rimmarrò) (esser for all)
to follow, seguire


to see, vedere (Past vidi, Fut. vedrò, P. p. veduto or visto)
to look at, guardare (I am looking at him, lo guardo)
to look for, cercare (insert h before e and i endings; I am looking for it, lo cerco)
to laugh, ridere (Past risi, P. p. riso)
to laugh at, to make fun of, ridere

si di, burlarsi di
to smile, sorridere (like ridere)
to look, seem, sembrare, parere (Pres. 1st sg. paio, 3rd pl. paiono, Fut. parrò, Past parvi, P. p. parso) (esser)
to recognize, riconoscere (Past riconobbi, P. p. riconosciuto)
to take for, prendere per (cf. p. 342 for prendere)

20. Verbs — Mental.

to make a mistake, sbagliarsi, fare uno sbaglio

to hope, sperare
to wait (for), aspettare, attendere (Past attesi, P. p. atteso): I

am waiting for him, lo attendo
to think, pensare (I am thinking of him, penso a lui)
to believe, credere
to like, piacere (the thing liked
is the subject, the person who likes is the indirect object: I like this book, questo libro mi piace; he likes me, gli piaccio; Pres. piaccio, piaci, piace, piacciono; Past piacqui; P. p. piaciuto) (essere)
to wish, desiderare
to want, volere (Pres. voglio, vuoi, vuole, vogliamo, volete, vogliono; Past voleva; Fut. vorrà)
to know (a person), conòscere (Past conobbi, P. p. conosciuto)
to know (a thing, to know how), sapere (Pres. so, sai, sa, sapiamo, sapete, sanno; Past sep- pi; Fut. saprò; use sapevo for "I knew", seppi for "I found out", "I learned")
to remember, ricordare, ricordarsi di


to live, vivere (Past visse, Fut. vivrò, P. p. vissuto) (essere)
to die, morire (Pres. muoio, muori, muore, moriamo, morite, muòiono; Fut. morirò or morrò; P. p. morto) (essere)
to work, lavorare
to give, dare (Pres. do, dai, dà, diamo, date, danno; Past diedi, desti, diede, demmo, deste, diedero; Impv. Pol. dia)
to take, prendere (Past presi, P. p. preso)
to show, mostrare, far vedere
to begin, to start, cominciare, iniziare
to finish, finire (-isc-)
to continue, keep on, continuare, seguitare (He kept on speaking, continuò a parlare)
to help, aiutare
to hide, nascòndere (Past nasconsi, P. p. nascosto)
to lose, perdere (Past persi, P. p. perso, or both regular)
to find, trovare
to leave, lasciare
to try, provare
to meet, incontrare (use conòscere for the social sense)
to put, place, mettere (Past misi, P. p. messo)
to have done, far fare (I have the letter written, faccio scrivere la lettera)
to do, make, fare (Pres. faccio, fai, fa, facciamo, fate, fanno; Impf. facevo; Past feci, fecesti, etc.; Fut. farò; Impv. fa, fate, faccia)
to be able, can, potere (Pres. posso, puoi, può, possiamo, potete, possono; Fut. potrò)
to lay, posare
to carry, bring, portare
to stop, fermare (fermarsi for self), arrestare, arrestarsi (use cessare di fare for “to stop doing”)
to cover, coprire (P. p. coperto)
to get, obtain, ottenere (like tenere, below)
to hold, tenere (Pres. tengo, tieni, tiene, teniamo, tenete, tengono;
Past tenni; Fut. terrò; “Here! Take it!”, tieni!, tenga!)
to get, become, diventare, divenire (like venire, cf. p. 341)
(èssere)
to break, rompere (Past ruppi, P. p. rotto)
to hurry, affrettarsi, sbrigarsi
to deliver, consegnare
to send, mandare, spedire (-isc-)
to belong, appartenere (like tenere) (èssere)
to accept, accettare
to refuse, rifiutare

22. Adjectives.

small, piccolo
large, great, grande (gran before a sg. noun)
big, grosso
tall, high, alto
short, corto
low, short (stature), basso
heavy, pesante
light (in weight), leggero
long, lungo (pl. -ghi, -ghe)
wide, largo (pl. -ghi, -ghe)
narrow, stretto
clean, pulito
dirty, sporco (pl. -chi, -che)
cool, fresco (pl. -chi, -che)
cold, freddo
warm, hot, caldo
damp, umido
wet, bagnato
dry, secco (pl. -chi, -che), asciutto
full, pieno
empty, vuoto
dark, scuro, oscuro
light, bright, clear, chiaro
fat, grasso
thick, spesso, grosso
thin, magro, fino, sottile
round, rotondo
square, quadrato, quadro
flat, piatto
deep, profondo
soft, morbido, soffice
hard, duro
quick, veloce
slow, lento
ordinary, ordinario
comfortable, comodo
uncomfortable, scorodo
near, vicino
distant, lontano
right, destro
left, sinistro
poor, povero
rich, ricco (pl. -chi, -che)
beautiful, bello (cf. p. 317)
pretty, grazioso, carino
ugly, brutto
sweet, dolce
bitter, amaro
sour, aspro, acre
salt, salato
young, giovane
old, vecchio (pl. vecchi)
new, nuovo
good, buono (buon before masc. sg. nouns unless they begin with z or s + consonant; buon’ before fem. sg. nouns beginning with vowels)
better, migliore (best, il -)
bad, cattivo
worse, peggiore (worst, il -)
fine, “regular”, òttimo
first, primo
last, ùltimo
strong, òrte
weak, dèbole
tired, stanco (pl. -chi, -che)
alone, solo
same, stesso, medèsimo
easy, fàcile
hard, difficult, difficile
happy, glad, contento, felice
merry, allegro
sad, triste, addolorato
free, libero
crazy, pazzo, matto
silly, stúpido, cretino, imbecille
drunk, ubriaco
polite, cortese, gentile
rude, scortese, villano, maleducato
pleasant, piacèvole

unpleasant, spiacèvole
lonesome, solitario, solo
true, vero
false, falso
foreign, straniero
friendly, amichèvole, amico (pl. -ci, -che)
hostile, ostile, nemico (pl. -ci, -che)
lucky, fortunato
unlucky, sfortunato, disagiato
charming, incantèvole
kind, gentile
afraid, pauroso, timoroso
ready, pronto
hungry, affamato
thirsty, assetato
funny, buffo, còmico (pl. -ci, -che)
possible, possibile
impossible, impossibile
brave, bravò, coraggioso
cowardly, vigliaccò (pl. -chi, -che), vile, codardo
quiet, tranquillo, quieto
noisy, chiassoso, rumoroso
living, vivo, vivente
dead. morto
suitable, adatto

23. Colors.
white, bianco (pl. -chi, -che)
black, nero
red, rosso
green, verde
blue, turchino, azzurro, celeste

yellow, giallo
gray, grigio, bigio
brown, marrone, bruno
pink, rosa
purple, viola, violàceo


Use no capital for the adjective or for the language: the English army, l’esército inglese; he speaks French, parla francese. When used as a noun to indicate people, the capital may or may not be used: an American, un americano, un America-
no; the Germans, *tedesco, Tedeschi*. It is perhaps more usually not used.

Names of languages are used with the article unless they immediately follow the verb *parlare* or the preposition *in*: he speaks English, *parla inglese*; he speaks English well, *parla bene l'inglese*; English is a difficult language, *l'inglese è una lingua difficile*; he answered me in English, *mi rispose in inglese*.

American, *americano*
English, *inglese*
French, *francese*
German, *tedesco* (pl. *-chi, -che*)
Spanish, *spagnuolo*
Russian, *russo*
Italian, *italiano*
Japanese, *giapponese*
Chinese, *cinese*
Dutch, *olandese*
Norwegian, *norvegese*
Swedish, *svenske*
Finnish, *finlandese*
Belgian, *belga* (fem. *-a*, masc. pl. *-gi, fem. pl. *-ghe*)
Polish, *polsko* (pl. *-chi, -che*)
Danish, *danske*
Swiss, *svizzero*
Portuguese, *portoghese*
Yugoslav, *jugoslavo*

Bulgarian, *bulgaro*
Czech, *ceco*
Greek, *greko* (pl. *-ci, -che*)
Turkish, *turco* (pl. *-chi, -che*)
Roumanian, *rumeno*
Hungarian, *ungherese*
Austrian, *austriaco* (pl. *-ci, -che*)
Malay, *malese*
Persian, *persiano*
Arabian, *Arab, Arabic, àrabo*
Jewish, *Hebrew, ebreo, ebràico* (pl. *-ci, -che*)
Australian, *australiano*
Canadian, *canadese*
Mexican, *messicano*
Brazilian, *brasiliano, brasileno*
Argentinian, *argentino*
Chilean, *cilenio*
Peruvian, *peruviano*
Cuban, *cubano*

25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, *oggi*
yesterday, *ieri*
tomorrow, *domani*
day before yesterday, *avantieri, ieri l'altro*
day after tomorrow, *dopodomani*
tonight, *stasera, stanotte*
last night, *ieri sera, ieri notte, la notte scorsa*
this morning, *stamane, stamattina*
in the morning, *di mattina*
in the afternoon, *di dopopranzo*
in the evening, *di sera*
in the night, *di notte*
this afternoon, *oggi dopopranzo*
tomorrow morning, *domani mattina*
tomorrow afternoon, *domani dopopranzo*
tomorrow night, *domani sera*
early, *presto*
on time, *a tempo*
late, tardi
already, già
no longer, non più
yet, still, ancora, tuttavia
not yet, non ancora
now, adesso, ora
then, allora
afterwards, poi, in seguito, dopo
never, mai (use non before verb: he is never here, non è mai qui)
always, sempre
forever, per sempre
soon, presto
often, spesso
seldom, di rado, raramente
usually, di solito, per solito
fast, presto
slowly, piano, lentamente
here, qui, qua
there, lì, là
over (down) there, laggiù
near by, vicino
far away, lontano
up (stairs), su, sopra, di sopra
down (stairs), giù, sotto, di sotto
ahead, in front, davanti
behind, in back, di dietro
forward, avanti
back, backward, indietro
outside, di fuori, fuori
inside, dentro, di dentro
opposite, in front, di fronte
here and there, qua e là
everywhere, dappertutto, dovunque
where, dove
also, too, anche, pure
yes, sì
no, no
not, non
very, much, molto (very much, moltissimo)
well, bene
badly, male
better, meglio
worse, peggio
only, solo, soltanto, solamente
more, più
less, meno
as - as, tanto - quanto (come)
as much - as, tanto - quanto
as many - as, tanti - quanti
how much?, quanto?
how many?, quanti?
how?, come?
too much, troppo
too many, troppi
so much, tanto
so many, tanti
as, like, come
so, così
besides, inoltre, per di più
finally, in short, finalmente, infine
almost, quasi
gladly, volentieri
certainly, certo, certamente
at once, subito
at all, affatto
hardly, appena
aloud, forte
of course, naturalmente, ben inteso
suddenly, d'improvviso
about, circa
perhaps, maybe, forse, chissà
a little, un poco, un po
again, di nuovo, ancora, nuovamente
really, truly, veramente
together, insieme
at least, almeno
for lack of, per mancanza di
a long time ago, molto tempo fa
again and again, ripetute volte
therefore, quindi, perciò
occasionally, di quando in quando

and, e
but, ma, però
if, se
or, o
why?, perché?
because, perché
why!, ma!
before, prima che
when, quando
than, di (use che before an adjective),
where, dove
until, finché

although, benché, quantunque
unless, a meno che (use non before the verb)
while, mentre
that, che
for, since, poiché
after, dopo che
as soon as, appena
as long as, fin tanto che
provided that, purché
so that, affinché
without, senza che

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.
such a, un tale
all kinds of, ogni sorta di
everything, tutto, ogni cosa
everyone, tutti
all, tutto
each, every, ogni, ciascuno
something, qualche cosa (something good, qualche cosa di buono)
someone, qualcuno
some, alcuni, qualche, (indef.)
enough, abbastanza
nothing, niente, nulla (nothing good, nulla di buono)
no one, nessuno
no (adj.), nessun (-a), alcun (-a)
neither - nor, nè - nè
(an) other, (un) altro
much, lots of, molto
meny, lots of, molti
several, parecchi, diversi
little (not much), poco
few, pochi
both, entrambi, ambedue, tutti e due

28. Prepositions.
of, di
from, by, since, at the house (or place of business) of, da
out of, fuori di
to, at, a

with, con
without, senza
in, in
on, over, above, su, sopra
for, per

23. These take the subjunctive.

24. If these expressions appear after the verb, non is required before the verb: nothing has been done, nulla si è fatto or non si è fatto nulla; no one came, nessuno è venuto or non è venuto nessuno,
until, up to, fino a
toward, verso 25
between, among, tra, fra
near, vicino a
far from, lontano da
before, prima di
after, dopo di
under (neath), sotto 25
instead of, invece di
beside, oltre a
through, across, attraverso 25
against, contro 25
by means of, per mezzo di
on the other side of, dall’altro
lato di
in spite of, malgrado
about, around, attorno a
during, durante
because of, on account of, a cau-
sa di, per causa di
opposite, in front of, davanti a,
di fronte a
back of, behind, dietro 25

29. Special Expressions and Idioms.

good morning, good afternoon, good day, buon giorno
good evening, buona sera
good night, buona notte
good-bye, arrivederci, addio, ciao (the latter is also used for “hello!”)
I’ll see you later, a più tardi
I’ll see you tomorrow, a domani
I’ll see you tonight, a stasera
just now, proprio adesso, proprio ora
hello! (on the telephone), pronto!
how are you?, come sta?
how goes it?, come va?
I’m well, sto bene
I’m (much) better, sto (molto) meglio
what time is it?, che or’è?, che ore sono?
It’s six o’clock, sono le sei
at six o’clock, alle sei
at about six, verso le sei
at half past six, alle sei e mezzo
at a quarter past (to) six, alle sei e (meno) un quarto
at ten minutes past (to) six, alle sei e (meno) dieci
last year, l’anno scorso (passato)
next year, l’anno venturo (pròssimo, che viene)
every day, ogni giorno, tutti i giorni
the whole day, tutto il giorno, tutta la giornata
please, per favore, per piacere, La prego
tell me, mi dica

25. These require di after them if their object is a personal pronoun:
without my brother, senza mio fratello; without him, senza di lui.
bring me, mi porti
show me, mi faccia vedere
thank you, grazie
don’t mention it, prego, non c’è di che, niente
will you give me?, vuol darmi?
pardon me, scusi
it doesn’t matter, never mind, non importa, non fa niente
I’m sorry, mi dispiace, mi rincresce
I can’t help, non posso fare a meno di
it’s nothing, non è niente
what a pity!, it’s too bad!, che peccato!
I’m glad, mi fa piacere
I have to, debbo
I agree (all right, O. K.), (sono) d’accordo; siamo intesi
where is (are)?, dov’è (dove sono)?
where are you going?, dove va?
there is (are), ecco (if pointing out), c’è (ci sono)
which way?, da che parte?
to the right, a destra
to the left, a sinistra
straight ahead, dritto
this (that) way (direction), di qua (là), da questa (quella) parte
this (that) way (fashion), così, in questo (quel) modo
come with me, venga con me
what can I do for you?, in che posso servirla?
what is it?, what is the matter?, che c’è?
what is the matter with you?, che ha?
what is happening?, che succede?
what do you want?, che (cosa) vuole (desidera)?
what are you talking about?, di che parla?
what does that mean?, what do you mean?, cosa vuol dire?
how much is it?, quanto costa?
anything else?, altro?
nothing else, nient’altro
do you speak Italian?, parla italiano?
a little, un po’
speak (more) slowly, parli (più) piano (lentamente)
do you understand?, capisce?, comprende?
I don’t understand, non capisco (comprendo)
do you know?, sa?
I don’t know, non so
I can’t, non posso
what do you call this in Italian?, come si chiama questo in italiano?
how do you say — in Italian?, come si dice — in italiano?
I'm an American, sono americano
I'm hungry (thirsty, sleepy, warm, cold), ho fame (sete, sonno, caldo, freddo)²⁶
it's warm (cold, sunny, fine weather, bad weather), fa caldo (freddo, sole, bel tempo, cattivo tempo)²⁶; it's windy, tira vento
it's forbidden, è proibito (vietato); no smoking, vietato fumare
luckily, per fortuna
unfortunately, per disgrazia
is it not so?, non è vero? (use this invariable phrase wherever English repeats the verb: you went, didn't you?; he is here, isn't he?)
not at all, niente affatto
how old are you?, quanti anni ha?
I'm twenty years old, ho venti anni
how long have you been here?, da quanto tempo si trova qui?
how long have you been waiting?, da quanto tempo aspetta?
as soon as possible, al più presto
come here!, venga qua!
come in!, avanti!
look!, guardi!
look out! careful!, attenzione!, attento!
for heaven's sake!, per carità!
darn it!, accidenti! (darn the luck!, accidenti alla fortuna!)
gangway!, by your leave!, permesso?
as you wish, come vuole
listen!, look here!, say!, senta! stia a sentire!, dica!
just a minute!, un momento!
in any case, at any rate, in ogni caso
may I introduce?, permette che Le presenti?
glad to meet you, fortunatissimo, piacere
no admittance!, vietato l'ingresso
notice!, avviso!
you don't say so!, possibile?
to your health!, salute!
I should like to, vorrei
as quickly as possible, al più presto possibile
stop!, ferma!
hurry!, (faccia) presto, si sbrighi
keep right (left), tenere la destra (sinistra)
entrance, entrata
exit, uscita

26. With all these expressions, translate "very" by molto, save with fame and sete (molta): ho molta sete, ho molto sonno.
CHAPTER X

LANGUAGES OF THE SLAVIC GROUP

This imposing group, extending from the shores of the Baltic and the Adriatic, across central and eastern Europe and all of northern Asia, to Kamchatka, Behring Strait and Vladivostok on the Pacific coast, comprises Russian, with its kindred East Slavic tongues, Ukrainian and White Russian; a Northwestern group that takes in Polish, Czech, Slovak, and a few minor languages (Wend or Lusatian, Kashub); and a Southern division which includes Serbo-Croatian, Slovenian and Bulgarian. The distinction among the three Slavic groups (eastern, northwestern and southern) is perhaps more geographical than linguistic.

Russian (or Great Russian) is the official and principal language of the Soviet Union, with its 130,000,000 inhabitants in Europe and 41,000,000 more in Asia. While not all of these 171,000,000 people speak Russian as a primary language, the majority of them can be reached with it. The actual number of Great Russian speakers is estimated at over 100,000,000. Ukraiñian (also called Ruthenian or Carpatho-Russian in its westernmost varieties) is the tongue of some 35,000,000 more people located in southeastern Poland (formerly Galicia), the Carpathian section of Czechoslovakia, and the Russian Ukraine, as far east as the Kuban Valley and the Caucasus. About 8,000,000 more, situated in west central Russia and eastern Poland, speak White Russian. The remaining populations of the Soviet Union speak a multitude of tongues, mostly of the Ural-Altaic variety, but Russian has imposed itself as a colonizing tongue across all of Siberia, particularly along the
upper courses of the great rivers and on the Pacific coast, in Transcaucasia, and in Turkestan.

Polish is the official tongue of Poland, with its 35,000,000 inhabitants, to about 25,000,000 of whom the Polish tongue is native and primary (the remainder of Poland’s population speaks White Russian, Ukrainian, German, Yiddish, Lithuanian and Kashub). Some 3,000,000 Polish speakers and their descendants, incidentally, are located in the U. S. A., mostly in the mining and industrial districts of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois and Michigan.

Czech, the official tongue of Czechoslovakia, is native to over 7,000,000 inhabitants of Bohemia and Moravia, while its variant, Slovak, is spoken by about 3,000,000 (the rest of Czechoslovakia’s 15,000,000 inhabitants have German, Hungarian, Ruthenian and Yiddish as primary tongues). Nearly 2,000,000 Czechs and Slovaks have come to the U. S. A.

Wend (or Lusatian) is spoken by perhaps 150,000 people entirely surrounded by German speakers in the heart of the Reich, at Cottbus and Bautzen.

Approximately 12,000,000 of Yugoslavia’s 16,000,000 people speak Serbo-Croatian, while 1,500,000 more use Slovene (or Slovenian), which appears also in the extreme northeast of Italy (Istria, Gorizia, Carso Plateau, Venetia northeast of Udine) and the border districts of Austria. Linguistic minorities in Yugoslavia consist of German, Hungarian, Albanian, Roumanian and Italian speakers.

Bulgarian is the language of Bulgaria’s 6,500,000 inhabitants, and crosses the political borders into Yugoslav and Greek Macedonia, Roumanian Dobrudja and southern Bessarabia.

The distributional aspects of the Slavic tongues point to Russian as of primary importance; numerically, politically, economically and culturally. Polish is a somewhat distant second, while Czech and the South Slavic languages are of tertiary rank.
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS, COMMON FEATURES, AND OUTSTANDING DIFFERENCES.

By comparison with the Germanic and Romance groups, the Slavic tongues present an archaic and conservative aspect, much closer than either of the other major groups to what must have been the original Indo-European state of affairs. Most of the Slavic languages are distinguished by a full-bodied richness of consonant sounds, with practically all consonants appearing in a double series, non-palatal and palatal (e. g., Polish ć, ć; Serbo-Croatian n, nj; Czech t, č). Often the palatal series is used before front vowels, the non-palatal before back vowels or where no vowel follows (e. g., Czech druž, comrade, but druži, comrades; voják, soldier, but vojaci, soldiers). In grammar, the Slavic languages, with one exception, Bulgarian, have retained almost all of the original Indo-European system of noun declension, which means that nouns must often be learned in as many as seven cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, locative or prepositional, and vocative). The three grammatical genders, masculine, feminine and neuter, appear, but the majority of inanimate objects are masculine or feminine. The verb-system is relatively simple, only three true tenses (present, past and future) appearing in most cases, but this apparent simplicity is counterbalanced by the fact that many verbs appear in complicated double "aspects", "imperfective", to denote the action as occurring repeatedly or continually, and "perfective", to indicate that it occurs only once (e. g., Russian стучать (stuchat'), to knock repeatedly, continually; постучать (postuchat'), to knock once; to translate "he knocked on the door", the past of the compounded verb must be used; to translate "he was knocking when I came in", the past of the uncompounded verb appears). The Slavic languages also make abundant use of gerunds and participles, active and passive, present and past, which are often used where Germanic or Romance languages would use clauses (e. g., "he resembled a man who was losing his last hope and had left everything behind" may be translated into Russian by
changing the construction to “he resembled a man losing his last hope and having left everything behind”).

In sounds, in grammatical structure, and especially in vocabulary, the Slavic languages are far closer to one another than are the tongues of the Germanic or Romance groups. This similarity, in the spoken languages, is often so striking that they are to a considerable degree mutually comprehensible, and that it takes a trained ear to tell them apart. Accentuation is perhaps the best norm of general distinction. While Czech and Slovak normally accentuate on the first syllable of the word, the Polish stress regularly falls on the next to the last; the other languages, notably Russian, have a free accent, which means that words may be stressed, more or less unpredictably, on any syllable, and that the place of the accent for every given word must be individually learned. Serbo-Croatian tends to avoid final accentuation, distinguishes between long and short vowels, and has a certain amount of musical pitch; Czech and Slovak distinguish with extreme care between long and short vowels, and it is perfectly possible to have a short accented vowel and a long unaccented vowel in the same word; Polish, Bulgarian and Russian make no particular distinction between long and short vowels, but in Russian unstressed vowels tend to have a slurred and indistinct pronunciation. Polish preserves nasal vowels (a, e) which the other Slavic languages have changed to non-nasal sounds. Polish and Czech have a palatalized r (rz, ř) which does not appear in the other tongues.

The comparative similarity of the spoken Slavic tongues is offset by striking differences in their written appearance. Those Slavic nations which received Christianity, directly or indirectly, from Byzantium (Russians, Ukrainians, Serbs, Bulgars) have adopted a modified form of the Greek alphabet called Cyrillic, while the others (Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Croats, Slovenes), who became Roman Catholics, use the Roman alphabet. This leads to such anomalies as a single, fairly unified spoken tongue like Serbo-Croatian appearing in written form in two alphabets (Yugoslav railway stations and postage stamps bear the identical names and inscriptions, first in
Cyrillic, then in Roman characters). The situation is further complicated by the fact that the peoples using either set of characters have devised entirely different arrangements to represent identical sounds; thus, the ch of church is represented by cz in Polish, by ě in Czech and Croatian; the ny of canyon is nj in Croatian, ň in Czech, ň in Polish. There is a little more uniformity among the nations using the Cyrillic characters, but here too striking discrepancies appear (Russian нЂ‚ Serbian Њ, to represent ny; Russian тЂ‚ Serbian Ћ, to represent a palatalized t; while ѣ, appearing in both Russian and Bulgarian, has the value of Ashchurch in the former, of Ashton in the latter).

THE CYRILLIC ALPHABETS

The letters R, S, B, in parentheses indicate that the character in question appears in Russian, Serbian, or Bulgarian; thus, Б, б (RSB) indicates that all three languages make use of the symbol; Я, ў (RB) shows that the symbol is used in Russian and Bulgarian, but not in Serbian; ћ (S), that it appears only in Serbian. OR indicates that the symbol was in use in Russian prior to the Soviet orthographical reform, and that it may be encountered in pre-Soviet writings, or occasionally even today, in the writings of conservatives. Ukrainian uses Russian orthography, with Є replacing Є, and й used to soften a preceding consonant. The values given are the more usual ones; other values will be presented under the headings of the individual languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Languages using it</th>
<th>Customary Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>А а</td>
<td>(RSB)</td>
<td>father (R unstressed the)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Б б</td>
<td>(RSB)</td>
<td>but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>В в</td>
<td>(RSB)</td>
<td>voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Г г</td>
<td>(RSB)</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Д д</td>
<td>(RSB)</td>
<td>dear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ђ ћ</td>
<td>(RSB)</td>
<td>did you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Е е</td>
<td>(S)</td>
<td>yet (R) ; met (SB)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ё (R) yore
ж ж (RSB) pleasure
з з (RSB) zealous
и и (RSB) machine
йй (RB) boy
і і (OR, Ukr) machine
ж ж (S) young
к к (RSB) kiss
л л (RSB) leave
љ љ (S) million
м м (RSB) man
н н (RSB) not
њ њ (S) canyon
о о (RSB) or (R unstressed the)
п п (RSB) peel
р р (RSB) British very
с с (RSB) soon
т т (RSB) take
ћ ћ (S) hit you
у у (RSB) pool
ф ф (RSB) father
х х (RSB) German ach
ц ц (RSB) its
ч ч (RSB) church
џ џ (S) John
ш ш (RSB) sure
щ щ (RB) Ashchurch (R); Ashton (B)
Ђ ћ (OR, B) silent (R); but (B); silent when final
Ыы (R) rhythm
Ъъ (RB) silent, but palatalizes preceding consonant.
Ђ ћ (OR, B) yet (R); yet, met, yard (B)
Э э (R) met
Ю ю (RB) use
Я я (RB) yard
It will be noted that Serbian uses the single characters ђ, љ, ћ, ћ, where Russian uses the combinations Дь, й, й, Џь, Џь. Croatian uses the following combinations дј, (or д), лј, нј, ћ.

* * *

Points of similarity and divergence will be noted in the discussion of the individual languages. Some of the resemblances and differences among the major national Slavic tongues may be gathered from the following list (Russian and Bulgarian are given in Cyrillic characters; Serbo-Croatian is given in the Croatian form (Roman alphabet); Polish and Czech appear in their respective Roman alphabets).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Russian</th>
<th>Polish</th>
<th>Czech</th>
<th>Serbo-Croatian</th>
<th>Bulgarian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bird</td>
<td>птица</td>
<td>ptak</td>
<td>ptńk</td>
<td>ptica</td>
<td>птица</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>чёрный</td>
<td>czarny</td>
<td>чернý</td>
<td>crn</td>
<td>чернь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>хлеб</td>
<td>chleb</td>
<td>chleb</td>
<td>hljeb</td>
<td>хлбь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>носить</td>
<td>nosić</td>
<td>nositi</td>
<td>nositi</td>
<td>нося</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>брат</td>
<td>brat</td>
<td>bratr</td>
<td>brat</td>
<td>брать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bull</td>
<td>бык</td>
<td>byk</td>
<td>býk</td>
<td>bik</td>
<td>бикь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clean</td>
<td>чистый</td>
<td>czysty</td>
<td>чистý</td>
<td>čist</td>
<td>чисть</td>
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<td>day</td>
<td>день</td>
<td>dzień</td>
<td>den</td>
<td>dan</td>
<td>день</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>death</td>
<td>смерть</td>
<td>śmięć</td>
<td>smrt</td>
<td>smrt</td>
<td>смрт</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>пёс</td>
<td>pies</td>
<td>pes</td>
<td>pas</td>
<td>куче</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>пить</td>
<td>pić</td>
<td>piti</td>
<td>piti</td>
<td>пия</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eagle</td>
<td>орёл</td>
<td>orzęł</td>
<td>orel</td>
<td>orao</td>
<td>орель</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear</td>
<td>ухо</td>
<td>ucho</td>
<td>ucho</td>
<td>uho (uvo)</td>
<td>ухо</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>earth</td>
<td>земля</td>
<td>ziemia</td>
<td>zemę</td>
<td>zemla</td>
<td>земя</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>field</td>
<td>поле</td>
<td>pole</td>
<td>pole</td>
<td>polje</td>
<td>поле</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fire</td>
<td>огонь</td>
<td>ogień</td>
<td>oheń</td>
<td>ogranj</td>
<td>огнь</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>нога</td>
<td>noga</td>
<td>noha</td>
<td>noga</td>
<td>нога</td>
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<tr>
<td>free</td>
<td>свободный</td>
<td>swobodny</td>
<td>svobodný</td>
<td>slobodan</td>
<td>свободень</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gold</td>
<td>золото</td>
<td>złoto</td>
<td>złato</td>
<td>złato</td>
<td>злато</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>добрый</td>
<td>dobry</td>
<td>dobrý</td>
<td>dobar</td>
<td>добъръ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grass</td>
<td>трава</td>
<td>trawa</td>
<td>tráva</td>
<td>trava</td>
<td>тръва</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Czech</td>
<td>Slovak</td>
<td>Slovene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
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<td>---------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td>зелёный</td>
<td>zielony</td>
<td>zelený</td>
<td>zelen</td>
<td>zelen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SAMPLES OF THE WRITTEN SLAVIC LANGUAGES (RUSSIAN, WHITE RUSSIAN, UKRAINIAN, BULGARIAN ARE GIVEN IN CYRILLIC CHARACTERS; SERBO-CROATIAN IS GIVEN IN THE CROATIAN VERSION, IN ROMAN CHARACTERS; POLISH, CZECH, SLOVAK, SLOVENIAN, WENDISH APPEAR IN THEIR RESPECTIVE ROMAN ORTHOGRAPHIES).

John 3.16: “For God so loved the world that He gave His only-begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in Him may not perish, but may have everlasting life”

RUSSIAN: Ибо так возлюбил Бог мир, что отдал Сына Своего единородного, дабы всякий, верующий в Него, не погиб, но имел жизнь вечную.

WHITE RUSSIAN: Бó так палюбіў Бóg сьвет, што аддаў Сына Свайго Адзінароднага, каб усякі, хто веруе ў Яго, ня згінуў, але мэў жыццё вёчнае.

UKRAINIAN: Так бо полюбив Бог сьвіт, що Сина свого Єдинородного дав, щоб кожен, віруючий в Него, не погиб, а має життя вічнє.

POLISH: Albowiem tak Bóg umiłował świat, że Syna swego jednorodzonego dał, aby każdy, kto weń wierzy, nie zginął, ale miał żywot wieczny.

CZECH: Nebo tak Bůh miloval svět, že Syna svého jednorozého dal, aby každý, kdož věří v něho, nezahynul, ale měl život věčný.

SLOVAK: Lebo tak miloval Bôh svet, že svojho jednorodeného Syna dal, aby každý, kto verí v neho, nezahynul, ale mal večný život.

WEND (or LUSATIAN): Pschetož tak je Boh ton Sswjet luboval, so won ssojego jeniczkeho narodzeneho Ssyna dal je, so bychu schizty, kij do njego wjerja, shubeni nebyli, ale wjeczé žiwenje mjeli.
SLOVENIAN: Kajti tako je Bog ljubil svet, da je dal Sina svojega edinorojenega, da se ne pogubi, kdorkoli veruje vanj, temuč da ima večno življenje.
BULGARIAN: Защото Богъ толкозъ обикна свъта, че отдаде Своя Единороденъ Синъ, та всъкой, който върва въ Него, да не погине, а да има животъ въчень.
ALPHABETIC NOTATION — a, ą, b, c, č, d, e, é, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, ł, m, n, ŋ, o, ó, p, r, s, ś, t, u, w, y, z, ż, ż, ch, cz, dz, dź, dż, sz, rz, szcz.

NOTES ON SOUNDS — Vowels are of approximately equal length; a, e, i, o, u (ó) = respectively father, met, machine, or, moon. ą = nasalized or; é = nasalized met (shut passage between nose and mouth at the same time that vowel is pronounced).

c = its;
č, ci, cz = church (there are differences; church is only an approximation);
g = go;
j = yes;
l = million;
ł = milk; in sections of Poland, = war;
ń = canyon;
w = vain;
y = pin;
ź (zi), ź = measure (two variants of approximately same sound);
ch = German ach, but less guttural;
dź (dzi), dż = jump (two variants of approximately same sound);
rz = s in measure;
sz (si), sz = ash (two variants of approximately same sound);
szcz = Ashchurch.
The Polish stress normally falls on the next to the last syllable.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.

Nouns.

As in all Slavic languages there are three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter; but many inanimate objects are masculine or feminine. There is no article, definite or
indefinite: \textit{król} may mean "king", "a king", "the king". Generally, nouns ending in consonants are masculine, those ending in -a feminine, those ending in -o or -e neuter.

Polish has seven cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, instrumental and locative). These cases appear in nouns, adjectives and pronouns, and there is no way of avoiding them. Polish nouns fall into several distinct declensional schemes, of which only a few samples can be given.\(^2\)


1. \textit{ten} (fem. \textit{ta}, neut. \textit{to}) is sometimes used with the value of "the", but it is more often translated by "this".

2. The endings of the seven cases will be given in the following order: nominative (case of subject): genitive (or possessive; translated into English by "of" or 's); dative (translated into English by "to"); accusative (case of the direct object); vocative (used in direct address: "Oh, my friend!"); instrumental (used with a variety of prepositions, especially "by", "by means of"); locative (used to denote place where, "in", "at"). These seven cases appear in all Slavic languages, with the exception of Bulgarian. The vocative for the most part has the same form as the nominative, while the accusative normally has the same form as the genitive in the case of \textit{animate} persons or animals, as the nominative in the case of \textit{inanimate} things. Cases are very much alive in the Slavic languages, and while an occasional slip may be forgiven, complete ignorance of case-endings is not tolerated.

3. Note that in this noun, denoting an \textit{animate} person, the accusative has the same form as the genitive; if the noun denoted an \textit{inanimate} object, even though masculine in gender, the accusative would have the same form as the nominative: \textit{e. g. piec} (masc.) "stove", acc. \textit{piec}, not \textit{pieca}. Note also that in Polish, when case endings are added the accent may shift from the root to the ending: thus, \textit{wuja}, but \textit{wujowie} (italics indicate syllable to be accented). This is due to the fact that the Polish rule of accentuation is to stress the next to the last syllable, regardless whether it is part of the root or of the ending.
Example of the declension of a feminine noun: *baba*, “old woman”.

*bab-a, -y, -ie, -e, -o, -q, -ie*; plural: *bab-y, -y, -om, -y, -ami, -ach*.

Example of the declension of a neuter noun: *pole*, “field”:

*pol-e, -a, -u, -e, -e, -em, -u*; plural: *pol-a, pobl, pol-om, -a, -a, -ami, -ach*.

**Adjectives.**

These agree in gender, number, and case with the noun to which they refer. They also fall into distinct declensional schemes, of which only one type can be given here: *dobry*, “good”:

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Comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives are also fully declined. The comparative usually inserts *-sz-* between the root and the ending, while the superlative normally prefixes *naj-* to the comparative: *star-y*, “old”; *star-sz-y*, “older”; *naj-star-sz-y*, “oldest”.

The adverb is generally formed by replacing the *-y* or *-i* of the masculine singular nominative adjective ending by *-o* or *-e*, respectively: *wolny*, “slow”; *wolno*, “slowly”.

**Pronouns.**

These are all fully declined, in seven cases. Where the declension is given, the order of the cases is the same as for nouns.
Personal.

“I”, “of me”, “to me”, “me”, etc.: ja, mnie, mnie, mię or mnie, -, mną, mnie;
“we”, “of us”, etc.: my, nas, nam, nas, -, nami, nas;
“you” (familiar singular): ty, ciebie, tobie, ciebie or cię, ty,
tobę, tobie;
“you” (fam. pl. and polite sg.): wy, was, wam, was, wy, wami,
was;
“he”, “his”, “to him”, etc.: on, jego, jemu, jego, -, nim, nim;
“she”, “her”, “to her”, etc.: ona, jej, jej, ją, -, nią, niej;
“it”, “its”, “to it”, etc.: ono, jego, jemu, je, -, nim, nim;
“they”, “of them”, etc. (masc. and fem.): oni, ich, im, ich, -, 
nimi, nich;
“they”, etc. (neuter): one, ich, im, je, -, nimi, nich.

Possessive (fully declined, in seven cases).

“my”: mój, fem. moja, neut. moje;
“your” (fam. sg.): twój, twoja, twoje;
“his”, “her”, “its”, “their”: swój, swoja, swoje;
“our”: nasz, nasza, nasze;
“your” (plural and polite singular): wasz, wasza, wasze.

Demonstrative (fully declined, in seven cases).

“this”, “these”: ten, ta, to; plural: ci, te, te;
“that”, “those”: tamten, tamta, tamto; plural: tamci, tamte,
tamte.

Relative and Interrogative (fully declined).

“who”, “whose”, “whom”: kto (gen. kogo, dat. komu, acc.
kogo, instr. and loc. kim);
“what”, “which”, “that”: co (gen. czego, dat. czemu, acc. co,
instr. and loc. czym).

Verbs.

These display the customary Slavic poverty of tenses, 
coupled with the complication of “aspects”. The infinitive 
usually ends in -ć: kochać, to love.
The present indicative generally adds the endings -m, -sz, -, -my, -cie, -(j)ą to the root, which is found by dropping the -ć of the infinitive: kocham, kochasz, kocha, kochamy, kochacie, kochodzą, I love, you love, etc. The present of być, “to be”, is: jestem, jesteś, jest, jesteśmy, jesteśmy, sq.

The past participle is formed by adding to the stem the suffixes -ł (masc.), -ła (fem.), -ło (neut.), -li (masc. plural), -ły (fem. and neut. pl.): kochał, kochała, kochoło, kochali, kochały, loved.

The past tense is formed by adding the suffixes -m, -ś, -, -śmy, -ście, -, to the past participle in the appropriate form: thus, I loved (masculine “I”), kochałem; (feminine “I”), kochałam; he loved, kochał (past part. without ending); she loved, kochała; it loved, kochoło; we loved, kochalismy (fem. kochalśmy); they loved, kochali or kochały.

The past tense of być is: byłem (fem. byłałam); byłeś (f. byłaś); był (f. była, neut. było); byliśmy (neut. byłyśmy); byliście (byłyście); byli (były).

A present perfect tense is formed by combining the past of the verb with the past of być: kochałem był (fem. kochalab była), I have loved.

The future of być is: będę, będziesz, będzie, będziemy, będzieszcie, będę. Other verbs form their future by combining this future of być with their past participle or infinitive (both forms are current): I shall love, będę kochał (kochala), or będę kochać.

Other tenses include a present and a past conditional (the former is formed by inserting -by- between the participle and the personal ending: kochał-by-m, I should love; the latter by adding to the present conditional the past of być: kochałbym był, I should have loved); an imperative (kochaj, love thou!; kochajcie, love ye!, kochajmy, let us love); and several participles (kochając, loving; kochał, loved; kochawszy, having loved; kochany, being loved; mając kochać, about to love); and a gerund (kochanie, loving).

A complete passive voice appears, formed by means of
the verb być combined with the passive past participle, which ends in -ny or -ty: jestem kochany, I am loved; byłem bity, I was beaten; będę chwalony, I shall be praised.

IDENTIFICATION

In spoken form, Polish can be isolated from its kindred Slavic languages by reason of its constant accent on the next to the last syllable, as well as by its nasal sounds (ą, ę), which appear in no other modern language of the group. In written form, Polish is distinguished: 1. by the fact that it uses the Roman alphabet; this distinguishes it at once from Russian, Ukrainian, Serbian, Bulgarian, and restricts the possibility of confusion to Czech, Slovak, Croatian or Slovenian; 2. by its distinctive characters, ą, ę, ł, which appear in no other Slavic tongue; other fairly distinctive symbols of Polish are ń, ś, ż, ść; 3. by certain fairly distinctive consonant combinations: dz, dz, dź, rz, szcz. Polish alone, among the national Slavic tongues, uses w.

WORDS AND PHRASES

pan, pani, panna, "sir" (Mr.), "madam" (Mrs.), "Miss" czy Pan mówi po polsku?, "do you speak Polish?"
rozumiem trochę, "I understand a little"
tak, "yes" nie, "no", "not" proszę, "please"
dziękuję, "thank you"
dzień dobry, "good morning"
dobranoc, "good night"
jak się Pan ma?, "how are you?"
jak się Pan nazywa?, "what is your name?"
przepraszam, "excuse me"
dobry wieczór, "good evening"
do widzenia, "good-bye"
która godzina teraz?, "what time is it?"
jest trzecia godzina, "it is three o'clock"
niema za co, “don’t mention it”
czy pan rozumie?, “do you understand?”
nie rozumiem, “I don’t understand”
ilo (to kosztuje) ?, “how much?”
to za drogo, “too much”
bardzo, “very much”
jak się idzie do —?, “which is the way to —?”
gdzie jest —?, “where is —?”
na zdrowie!, “to your health!”
przynieś mi, “bring me”
mów powoli, łaskawie mówić powoli, “speak more slowly”
dobrze, “all right”
jestem chory, “I am ill”

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN POLISH; USE FOR PRACTICE READING


TRANSLATION

“Waiter, please give me the bill of fare; I am very hungry.” — “I’ll bring it at once, (please) Sir.” — “Please bring me some cabbage soup and boiled beef; I want the beef well done.” — “The meat is tough today, (please) Sir.” — “Have you roast chicken?” — “Yes, Sir, we have.” — “And now bring me some beer.” — “Please make out the bill. How much is it?” — “Ninety cents.” — “Here is something for you.” — “Thank you, Sir.”
CZECH

ALPHABETIC NOTATION — a, á, b, c, č, d, d’, e, ě, f, g, h, ch, i, í, j, k, l, m, n, ň, o, ó, p, r, ř, s, š, t, ř, u, ú, ů, v, y, ý, z, ž.

NOTES ON SOUNDS — Vowels bearing the accent mark are definitely long; the others are definitely short. There is not much difference in quality between any long vowel and its corresponding short; sound a, e, i, o, u as father, met, machine, obey, pool, prolonged or shortened, according as they bear or do not bear the accent mark.

c = its;
č = church;
d’ = did you;
ě = yes;
g = go;
ch = German ach;
j = year;
ň = canyon;
ř = r combined with s in measure;
š = sure;
t’ = hit you;
ů, ů = food;
y = rhythm, long or short, according as it bears or does not bear accent mark;
ž = measure.

The Czech accent is normally on the initial syllable of the word. The accent mark indicates length of a vowel, not the place where the stress falls.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.

The grammatical structure is very similar to that of Polish. The same seven cases appear, for nouns, adjectives and pronouns, and they very frequently correspond to the Polish forms. The same holds true for verb-forms.
There is no article, definite or indefinite.
Example of the declension of a masculine noun: had, “snake”: had, -a, -ovi (or -u), -a, -e, -em, -ovi (or -u); plural: had-i (or -ovi), -ů, -ům, -y, -i (or -ovi), -y, -ech.
Example of the declension of a neuter noun: město, “town”: měst-o, -a, -u, -o, -o, -em, -u; plural: měst-a, - , -ům, -a, -a, -y, -ech.
Example of the declension of an adjective: dobrý, “good”:

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The verb být, “to be”:
Present: jsem, jsi, jest (je), jsme, jste, jsou;
Past Participle: byl (fem. byla, neut. bylo; mas. pl. byli, fem. pl. byly);
Past: byl jsem, byl jsi, byl (byla, bylo); byli jsme; byli jste, byli (byly);
Future: budu, budeš, bude, budeme, budete, budou;
mluviti, “to speak”:
Present: mluví-m, -š, - , -me, -te, -;
Past: mluvil jsem; Future: budu mluviti.

**IDENTIFICATION**

In spoken form, Czech is identified by its initial stress and by long but unaccented vowel-sounds. In written form, Czech is distinguished: 1. by the fact that it uses the Roman
alphabet; 2. by its distinctive characters č, ų, ř, which do not appear in Polish or Croatian; 3. by the large number of characters with hooks over them; Croatian shares this characteristic (č, š, ž), but note that Czech has dě, ř, č, while Croatian has dj (or đ) nj, č. It is easy to distinguish Czech from Polish by the distinctive characters of the two languages (Polish q, e, ł, ż; Czech č, ų, ř); by the fact that Polish uses accents over consonants (ć, ň, š, ž), while Czech uses hooks (č, ř, š, ž); by the fact that Polish uses consonant combinations (cz, dz, sz, rz, szcz) which never appear in Czech; and by the Polish use of w as against the Czech use of v.

WORDS AND PHRASES

dobrý den, “good day”; dobré ráno, “good morning”
dobrou noc, “good night”; dobrý večer, “good evening”
nazdar, “to your health, good luck”
mám hlad, “I am hungry”
kolik je hodin?, “what time is it?”
jest šest hodin, “it is six o’clock”
děkuji, “thank you”; bud’te vítán, “you’re welcome”
prosim, “please”
pán, “sir”; paní, “madam”; slečna, “miss”
jak se máte?, “how are you?”; velmi dobré, “very well”
sebohem, (or se Bohem) “good-bye”
dovolte, promiňte, “excuse me”
rozumíte?, “do you understand?”
nerozumím, “I don’t understand”
ano, “yes” ne, “no”
kolik?, “how much?”
kudy se jde do —?, “which is the way to —?”
kde je —?, “where is —?”
mluvíte anglicky?, “do you speak English?”
mluvte pomaleji, “speak more slowly”
SERBO-CROATIAN

ALPHABETIC NOTATION\(^4\) — a, b, v, g, d, dj (đ), e, ž, z, i, j, k, l, lj, m, n, nj, o, p, r, s, t, ć, u, f, h, c, č, dž, š.

NOTES ON SOUNDS — Vowels in Serbo-Croatian are long or short, but the fact is not usually indicated in writing. The following accent marks are occasionally used to indicate two degrees of length plus a rising or falling intonation: ‘’, ‘‘, ‘‘. g = go; dj = did you; ž = measure; j = yes; lj = million; nj = onion; ć = hit you; c = its; č = church; dž = John; š = sure.

There is no definite rule of accentuation in Serbo-Croatian, but in words of more than one syllable the stress never falls on the last, although the vowel of the last syllable may be quite long, especially in genitive plural endings and in certain verb-forms.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.

The general structure is similar to that indicated for Polish. The cases of nouns, adjectives and pronouns often correspond in form and use, as also do verb-forms.

Example of the declension of a masculine noun: jelen, “deer”: jelen, -a, -u, -a, -e, -om, -u; plural: jelen-i, -a, -ima, -e, -i, -ima, -ima.

Example of the declension of a feminine noun: žena, “woman”: žen-a, -e, -i, -u, -o, -om, -i; plural: žen-e, -a, -ama, -e, -e, -ama, -ama.

Example of the declension of a neuter noun: polje, “field”: polj-e, -a, -u, -e, -e, -em, -u; plural: polj-a, -a, -ima, -a, -a, -ima, -ima.

4. This is given in the Croatian version (Roman alphabet); Serbian uses Cyrillic characters, as follows: a, b, v, g, d, đ, e, ž, z, i, j, k, l, љ, m, n, њ, o, п, р, с, т, њ, у, ф, х, п, ч, љ, ш.
Example of the declension of an adjective: *dobri*, "good":

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The verb *biti*, "to be":

Present: *(je)*sam, *(je)*si, *(je) (or jest)*, *(je)*smo, *(je)*ste, *(je)*su.
Past: *beh, beše, beše, besmo, beste, behu*; or *sam bio (bila), si bio, etc.*

Future: *bicu, bicęš, biće, bicemo, bicete, bicé.*

The verb *čitati*, "to read":

Present: *čita-m, -š, -, -mo, -te, -ju.*
Past: *čita-h, -še, -še, -smo, -ste, -hu.*

Present Perfect: *sam, si, je čitao (čitala); smo, ste, su čitali (čitale).*

Future: *ću, češ, če, čemo, ćete, će čitati; or čitaću, čitaćeš, čitaće, etc.*

### IDENTIFICATION

A more melodious intonation than appears in other Slavic languages is noticeable in Serbo-Croatian. An accentuation which is never final, often (but not exclusively) initial, never exclusively penultimate, also serves to identify the spoken form. In writing, Croatian uses the Roman alphabet; it may be distinguished from Polish and Czech by its use of the combinations *dj, lj, nj*. Serbian uses the Cyrillic alphabet, and can be distinguished from Russian and Bulgarian by its use of the symbols *ђ, ћ, Ђ, џ, ћ, j.*
WORDS AND PHRASES

govorite li srpski?, “do you speak Serbian?”
dobar dan, “good day”
ne govorite tako brzo, “don’t speak so fast”
dobro jutro, “good morning”
kako ste, gospodjice?, “how are you, young lady?”
vrlo dobro, “quite well”
lijepo je vrijeme, “it’s fine weather”
dobra večer, “good evening”
imate li dobrovino?, “have you some good wine?”
laku noć, “good night”
ručak je gotov, “dinner is ready”
u vaše zdravlje, “to your health”
koliko je sati?, “what time is it?”
sad je osam sati, “it is 8 o’clock”.
izvinite, “excuse me”
z Bogom, “good-bye”
molim vas, “please”
hvala, “thank you”
nema zašto, “don’t mention it”
koliko ovo iznosi?, “how much is this?”
to je i suviše, “it’s too much”
razumete li?, “do you understand?”
ne razumem, “I don’t understand”
da (ne), gospodine, “yes (no), sir”
kuda se ide ka —?, “which is the way to —?”
gde je —?, “where is —?”
donesite mi, “bring me”
zar ne?, “isn’t it so?”
govorite polako, “speak more slowly”
slobodno, “come in”
žao mi je, “I’m sorry”
možda, “maybe”
bolestan sam, “I’m ill”
BULGARIAN

ALPHABETIC NOTATION (in Cyrillic script; see Cyrillic chart, p. 355-357):

а, б, в, г, д, е, ж, з, и, й, к, л, м, н, о, п, р, с, т, у, ф,
х, ц, ч, ш, щ, ъ, ы, ю, я, ж.

NOTES ON SOUNDS — Vowels have no distinctive length or shortness.
г = go; ж = measure; е = there; ц = its; ч = church;
ш = sure; щ = Ashton; ъ = but; however, it is silent at the end of a word; Ъ is always silent; ё = yes (occasionally yard); я = yard; ю = you; ж = but.

There is no special rule of accentuation, but, unlike Serbo-Croatian a word may have the accent on the last syllable. The syllable on which the accent falls is not indicated in writing, and must be learned for each separate word.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.

Bulgarian differs radically from all other Slavic tongues: 1. in having a full-fledged definite article; 2. in having reduced all case-forms to a single form (with, often, a separate vocative, and a few traces of other old cases).

The Bulgarian article is placed after the noun, and is attached to it. Its forms are: masc. sg., тъ; fem. sg., та; neut. sg., то; plural: masc., тъ; fem., тъ; neut. та.

предатель, friend, a friend; предательствъ, the friend;
предатели, friends; предателитъ, the friends;
глava, head, a head; главата, the head; глави, heads;
главитъ, the heads;
село, village, a village; селото, the village; села, villages; селата, the villages.

Adjectives follow these schemes, and if they precede the noun, the article is attached to them: добриятъ братъ, the good brother; братъ е добъръ, the brother is good;
добрата майка, the good mother; майката е добра,
the mother is good; доброто вино, the good wine; виното е добро, the wine is good; in the plural a single form is used for all genders, even the article assuming a single form: добрите приятели, the good friends; добрите майки, the good mothers; добрите вина, the good wines.

The Bulgarian verb has all the complications that appear in other Slavic tongues, plus a number of tenses, both simple and compound, which no longer appear in the others (Imperfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect, etc.). The verb “to be” has the following present tense:
съмъ, си, е, сме, сте, съм
The verb “to call” has the following present:
викамъ, викашъ, вика, викаме, викате, викатъ

IDENTIFICATION

Bulgarian appears in Cyrillic characters. It may be distinguished from Russian by the presence of the symbols ъ, ъ, which modern Russian has discarded, and, particularly, of the symbol ж. The constant appearance of the endings -тъ, -та, -то, -тъ, -та (suffixated definite articles) also serves to inform the reader or hearer that he is dealing with Bulgarian. In speech, the fairly frequent final stress of Bulgarian will serve to distinguish it from Polish, Czech and Serbo-Croatian, though not from Russian.

WORDS AND PHRASES
азъ говоря български, “I speak Bulgarian”
все едно, “it’s all the same to me”
колко е часътъ, “what is the time?”
часътъ е три, “it’s 3 o’clock”
кажи де, “tell me”
внимавай!, “look out!”
сбогомъ, “good-bye”
добъръ денъ, “good day”
добро утро, “good morning”
добра вечеръ, “good evening”
лека нощъ, “good night”.
CHAPTER XI

RUSSIAN

SPEAKERS AND LOCATION

(All Population Figures Are Approximate)

Russian is the chief language of the Soviet Union, with a population of 171,000,000 (131,000,000 in Europe, 40,000,000 in Asia). Russian proper (or Great Russian) is spoken as a primary language by about 100,000,000, and if its kindred tongues, Ukrainian and White Russian, are included, by over 130,000,000. It is spoken as a secondary language by over half of the remaining population of the Soviet Union, and by large numbers of people in territories once subject to Russia (Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Bessarabia).

The liberal linguistic and cultural policy of the Soviet Union has made many lesser tongues of the Union co-official with Russian (Ukrainian, White Russian, Georgian, Armenian, etc.). Russian settlers have, however, spread the use of Russian throughout Asiatic Russia, particularly along central Siberia, to the far eastern provinces and Vladivostok. The number of nationalities in the Soviet Union is listed at 49 basic ones (over 20,000 members), and 100 smaller ones (less than 20,000). Ukrainian speakers account for some 28,000,000; White Russian speakers are about 5,000,000. Both these languages are at least partly comprehensible to Russian speakers. The number of Russian speakers outside of Europe and Asia is not considerable, though some millions of people of Russian origin have settled in the Western Hemisphere (they come, however, largely from territories where Great Russian is not the primary tongue).
ALPHABET AND SOUNDS

Аа Бб Вв Гг Дд Ее ё
Аа Бб Вв Гг Дд Ее ё
Жж Зз Ии Кк Лл Мм
Мм Нн Оо Пп Рр Сс Тт
Нн Оо Пп Рр Сс Тт
Уу Фф Хх Цц Чч Шш
Уу Фф Хх Цц Чч Шш
Щщ Ээ Юю Яя Ьь Ыы Ьь Ьь
Щщ Ээ Юю Яя Ьь Ыы Ьь

1. The older Russian alphabet, used under the Tsars, contained also: the letter i, interchangeable in value, but not in use, with н; i was used regularly in connection with another vowel (Россия, today spelled Россия); the letter ъ, which was silent, but served to indicate a “hard”, or non-palatal pronunciation of the preceding consonant; it appeared for the most part at the end of words, very seldom within the word; in the latter position, which is exceedingly rare, it has been retained; the letter ъ, interchangeable in value, but not in use, with е; the letters в and е, interchangeable in value, respectively, with н and ф, and used in religious words borrowed from the Greek (сунод. synod; каѳедра, pulpit). See also Cyrillic alphabet, p. 355-357.
Vowel Sounds.

a = father (stressed); bacon, (unstressed): карандаш, pencil;
e = yes (more or less distinct, according as it is stressed or unstressed): есть, to eat; еда, food;
ё = Yorick: мед, honey;
и = machine: имя, name;
й = May (this character is never used after a consonant).
Май, May;
о = or (stressed); bacon (unstressed): хорошо, well;
y = food: ухо, ear;
ы = rhythm (this sound has no exact equivalent in English; it is best described as an attempt to pronounce feed with the front part of the mouth and food with the back of the tongue, at the same time): был, was;
э = met: этот, this;
ъ has no value of its own, but serves to palatalize the preceding consonant: говорить, to speak;
ю = you: люблю, I love;
я = yard: ярмарка, village fair; язык, tongue.

It is to be noted that all Russian vowels tend to have a less distinct enunciation when unstressed than when stressed; this is particularly noticeable in the case of a and о, which have practically the sound of the when unstressed (they are clearer in the syllable immediately preceding the stressed syllable).

2. The position of the accent does not appear in written Russian; the stressed vowel, in words of more than one syllable, is indicated throughout this chapter, for the convenience of the reader, by the use of heavy type.

3. ĕ is always stressed; the stress will therefore not be indicated on words containing ĕ; written Russian (save in children's books) does not generally use the double dot on ĕ, with the result that beginners are often left in doubt whether ĕ or e is indicated.
Consonant Sounds.

б, в, д, з, к, л, м, н, п, т, ф, approximately like English b, v, d, z, k, l, m, n, p, t, f, respectively.4

γ = go: много, much, many;5
ж = measure: жена, wife;
р = British very: Россия, Russia;
с = so, in all positions: союз, union, alliance;
х = German ach: храбрый, brave; худой, bad;
ц = its: церковь, church;
ч = chill: черный, black;
ш = sure: шесть, six;
щ = Ashchurch; борщ, beet soup; щека, cheek; женщина, woman.

There is no rule for Russian accentuation, and the place of the accent is not ordinarily indicated in writing. The stress may fall on any syllable, and each word must be learned with its own stress; furthermore, the stress in the same word often changes position according to the case-form used (мужик, peasant; but мужика, of the peasant), and from the singular

4. Russian consonants, however, tend to become palatalized when followed by vowels containing the y-sound as their first element (е, е, и, и, ю, я). In many cases the palatalization is instinctive for an English speaker; thus, в followed by a “hard” vowel (а, о, у, ы, э) will naturally assume the sound of invoke, while if it is followed by a “soft” vowel (е, е, и, и, ю, я) it will naturally assume the sound of view; 6 will be pronounced as in booty or as in beauty, respectively; п as in pat or in pure, etc. In the case of т, д, л, н, the “soft” pronunciation, when one of the “soft” vowels follows, will go as far as hit you, did you, million, onion, respectively (теперь, now; делать, to do; любовь, love; день, day).

5. Final voiced consonants (б, в, г, д, з, ж) tend to assume the corresponding unvoiced pronunciation (п, ф, к, т, с, ш); thus, зуб, tooth, is pronounced zweep; Романов (a family name), Románov; друг, friend, drook; дед, grandfather, dyet; раз, time, ras; муж, husband, moosh.
to the plural (вода, water, but воды, waters). While a misplaced accent is not an unforgivable crime, some care should be taken to avoid too many wrong accentuations.

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN RUSSIAN; USE FOR PRACTICE READING.

Мальчик рано начал учиться и с ранних лет полюбил книги, в которых описывались войны и походы. Пятнадцати лет молодой Суворов поступил на военную службу, и девять лет прослужил простым солдатом. Не было солдата исправнее его: он вставал раньше других, сам чистил себе сапоги и платё и стоял на часах во всякую погоду. Жил он вместе с простыми солдатами и ел солдатские щи и кашу; был всегда смел и весел и смешил своих товарищей весёлыми шутками и рассказами. Все любили его. Когда он стал офицером и начал командовать солдатами, всюду на войне он побеждал неприятеля. "Ребята," говорил Суворов солдатам, "всегда идите вперёд на врага. Не беспокойтесь о том, сколько перед вами неприятелей. Вы ведь пришли бить их, а не считать."

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

1. — Nouns.

Russian has no article, definite or indefinite; друг means "friend", "a friend", "the friend".

There are three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter; but inanimate objects are often masculine or feminine. The ending generally helps to determine the gender of a noun. Nouns ending in consonants or -й are generally masculine, those ending in -а or -я (and most of those ending in -б) feminine, those in -о, -е or -мя neuter.
Russian has six cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, and locative or prepositional (a separate vocative appears in a few words only, and need not be considered). These cases and their endings are alive, and have to be reckoned with; while an occasional error in case or ending is forgivable, too many such errors will make the language incomprehensible to the native.

There are numerous declensional schemes, but the following are the most common. The endings are given in the order indicated above.

Masculine Nouns.

Singular: —, -а, -у, -а or —, -ом, -е;
Plural: -ы, -ов, -ам, -ов or -ы, -ами, -ах.
(Decline thus: офицер, офицера, etc., officer; стол, стола, etc., table; отец, отца, etc., father).

Singular: -й, -я, -ю, -я or -й, -ем, -е;
Plural: -и, -ев, -ям, -ев or -и, -ами, -ях.
(Decline thus: герой, героя, etc., hero).

Singular: -ь, -я, -ю, -я or -ь, -ем, -е;
Plural: -и, -ей, -ям, -ей or -и, -ами, -ях.
(Decline thus: приятель, приятеля, etc., friend; рубль, рубля, etc., ruble).

Feminine Nouns.

Singular: -а, -ы, -е, -у, -ою (-ой), -е;
Plural: -ы, —, -ам, — or -ы, -ами, -ах.
(Decline thus: женщина, женщины, etc. woman; война, войны, etc.; plural войны, etc., war).

6. Masculine nouns in both singular and plural, and feminine nouns in the plural only make their accusative form coincide with the genitive if a living person or animal is denoted, with the nominative if an inanimate object appears; thus, the accusative of офицер and отец is офицера and отца, respectively; but the accusative of стол is стол.
Singular: -я, -и, -е, -ю, -ею (-ей), -е (if nominative has и before я, dative and prepositional have -и instead of -е); Plural: -и, -ъ, -ям, -ъ or -и, -ами, -ях.
(Decline thus: пустыня, пустыни, etc., desert; Россия, Russia).
Singular: -ъ, -и, -и, -ъ, -юсь, -и;
Plural: -и, -ей, -ям, -ей or -и, -ами, -ях.
(Decline thus: постель, постели, etc., bed; дверь, двери, etc.; plural двери, but дверей, дверям, etc., door).

Neuter Nouns.
Singular: -о, -а, -у, -о, -ом, -е;
Plural: -а, —, -ам, -а, -ами, -ах.
(Decline thus: масло, масла, etc., butter; место, места, etc., plural места, etc., place; село, села, etc., plural сёла, etc., village).
Singular: -е, -я, -ю, -е, -ем, -е (-и if nom. ends in -и);
Plural: -я, -ей (-ий if nom. sg. ends in -и), -ям, -я, -ями, -ях.
(Decline thus: море, моря, etc., plural моря, etc., sea; поле, поля, etc.; plural поля, etc., field; здание, здания, etc., building).
Singular: -мя, -мени, -мени, -мя, -менем, -мени;
Plural: -мена, -мен, -менам, -мена, -менами, -менах.
(Decline thus: время, времени, etc.; plural времени, времён, etc., time; имя, имени etc.; plural имени, имени, etc., name).

These schemes are perhaps less complicated than they appear at first glance. Note that in neuter nouns, and in masculine nouns denoting inanimate objects, the accusative has the same form as the nominative, while in masculine nouns denoting living things it has the same form as the genitive; note also the almost invariable -ом, -ем of the instrumental singular, the -е of the prepositional singular, the -ам or -ям of the dative plural, the -ами or -ями of the instrumental plural, and the -ах or -ях of the prepositional plural. Note
also that in neuter nouns the accent of the plural is usually on a different syllable from that of the singular.

2. — Adjectives and Adverbs.

Adjectives agree in number, gender and case with the nouns they modify. The following is the most common scheme of adjective declension:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural (all genders)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. -ый</td>
<td>-ое</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. -ого</td>
<td>-ого</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. -ому</td>
<td>-ому</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. -ого</td>
<td>-ое Genitive or Nominative, according as the noun is living or inanimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or -ый</td>
<td>-ым -ым</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instr. -ым</td>
<td>-ым -ым</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loc. -ом</td>
<td>-ым -ым</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Decline thus: старый, old; трудный, difficult).

Two common variants of this scheme are: -ий, -яя, -ее (the “hard” vowel changes to the corresponding “soft” one throughout: a becomes я, ы becomes и, 0 becomes ё, у becomes ю; decline thus: ранний, early); and -ой, -ая, -ое, genitive -ого, -ой, -ого, etc., like the -ый type, save that the stress is on the ending (decline thus: простой, simple).

If the adjective is used after the verb “to be”, it assumes the following forms: masc. sg., —; fem. sg. -а; neut. sg., -о; plural (all genders), -ы: стар, стара, старо, plural стары, old; труден, трудна, трудно, plural трудны, difficult;

7. In the genitive endings -ро, -еро, -оро of adjectives and pronouns, the г is always pronounced as ы.

8. If the adjective root ends in г, ж, к, х, ч, ш, ц, the following replacements must be made: н for ы, а for я, у for ю; if it ends in и, я and ю must be replaced by а, у; if it ends in ж, ц, ч, ш, ц, о must be replaced by е; thus, великий, великая, великое, great; горячий, горячая, горячее, hot. These replacements appear not only in adjectives, but in nouns, pronouns and verbs as well.
прост, просто, plural простоы, simple. The verb “to be” in the present tense is omitted: она—старая, she is old.

The comparative degree is generally formed by changing the ending of the adjective to -ее, which is not declined: красивый, beautiful; красивее, more beautiful; умный, intelligent; умнее, more intelligent. “Than” is expressed by чем with the nominative, or by the genitive without чем: он умнее чем я, or он умнее меня, he is more intelligent than I; железо полезнее чем серебро, or железо полезнее серебра, iron is more useful than silver. If the verb “to be” is not involved, the comparative is more usually formed by prefixing более (more) to the positive: более красивый стул, a more beautiful chair.

The superlative, both relative and absolute, is usually formed by prefixing самый to the positive: самый умный the most intelligent, extremely intelligent.

The adverb generally consists of the neuter predicate form of the adjective: хорошо, good; хорошо, well; умный, intelligent; умно, intelligently; жаркий, warm; жарко, warmly.

3. — Numerals.

a) — Cardinal.

Outside of один, one, these are treated as nouns, are fully declined, and are followed by the genitive of the noun to which they refer (genitive singular after 2, 3, 4; genitive plural after all others): один дом one house; два дома, two houses; пять домов, five houses. Один, одна, одно, plural одни (meaning “alone”, “some”), is otherwise declined like этот (see p. 388), but with the accent on the ending. Два, fem. две, has gen. двух, dat. двум, instr. двумя, loc. двух; три has трёх, трём, тремя, трёх; четыре has -ёх, -ём, -ым, -ых. Numerals ending in -ь are declined like feminine nouns in -ь; others are declined like nouns of the corresponding classes, according to their endings.

13*
1 = один (одна, одно)  
2 = два (две, два)  
3 = три  
4 = четыре  
5 = пять  
6 = шесть  
7 = семь  
8 = восемь  
9 = девять  
10 = десять  
11 = одиннадцать  
12 = двенадцать  
13 = тринадцать  
14 = четырнадцать  
15 = пятнадцать  
16 = шестнадцать  
17 = семнадцать  
18 = восемнадцать  
19 = девятнадцать  
20 = двадцать  
21 = двадцать один

30 = тридцать  
40 = сорок  
50 = пятьдесят  
60 = шестьдесят  
70 = семьдесят  
80 = восемьдесят  
90 = девяносто  
100 = сто  
200 = двести  
300 = триста  
400 = четыреста  
500 = пятьсот  
600 = шестьсот  
1000 = тысяча  
2000 = две тысячи  
5000 = пять тысяч  
1,000,000 = миллион  
7635 = семь тысяч шестьсот тридцать пять

b) — Ordinal (declined like ordinary adjectives).

1st = первый  
2nd = второй  
3rd = третий  
4th = четвёртый  
5th = пятый  
6th = шестой  
7th = седьмой  
8th = восьмой  
9th = девятый  
10th = десятый  
11th = одиннадцатый  
20th = двадцатый  
21st = двадцать первый  
30th = тридцатый  
40th = сороковой  
50th = пятидесятый  
60th = шестидесятый  
70th = семьдесятый  
80th = восьмидесятый  
90th = девяностый  
100th = сотый  
145th = сто сорок пятый

Use these in dates, either in the genitive, or in the neuter nominative: десятого мая or десятое мая, May 10th.
once - раз  
twice - два раза  
five times - пять раз  
the first time - первый раз  
every time - всякий раз  
the last time - последний раз

4. — Pronouns.

a) — Personal.

"I", "of me", "to me", etc. - я, меня, мне, меня, мною or 
mной, мне.

"you" (familiar), "of you", etc. - ты, тебя, тебе, тебя, 
tобою or тобой, тебе.

"he", "his", etc. - он, (н)его, (н)ему, (н)его, (н)им, 
нём.

"she", "her", etc. - она, (н)ея, (н)ей, (н)её, (н)ею, ней.

"it", "its", etc. - оно, (н)его, (н)ему, (н)его, (н)им, 
нём.

"we", "of us", "to us", etc. - мы, нас, нам, нас, нами, нас.

"you" (fam. pl. and polite sg. or pl.) - вы, вас, вам, вас, 
вами, вас.

"they" - они, (н)их, (н)им, (н)их, (н)ими, (н)их.

"self", "oneself" - (no nom.), себя, себе, себя, собою 
or собой, себе.

b) — Possessive.

"my", "mine" (masc. and neut.) - мой (neut. моё), моего, 
моему, nom. or gen., моим, моем; (fem.) 
моя, моей, моей, мою, моёю or моей, моей; 
(plural, all genders) - мои, моих, моим, мои or 
моих, моими, моих.

Твой, "your", "yours" (fam.), and свой, one's own, 
are declined in the same fashion. Наш (наша, наше), 
"our", "ours", and ваш (ваша, ваше), "your", "yours", 
are similarly declined, but with the accent always on the root. 
For "his", "her", "its", "their", use the genitive of the per-

9. The forms его, него; ему, нему, etc., are not interchangeable; 
use forms with н- when the pronoun is governed by a preposition: 
у него хлеб, he has bread; but у его отца хлеб, his father has bread.
sonal pronoun: ег о, of him (his); её, of her (her, hers); ег о, of it, (its); их, of them (their, theirs).
c) — Demonstrative.

this, these - эт о (neut. эт о), эт ого, эт ому, (gen. or nom.), эт им, эт ом; Fem. - эт а, эт ой, эт ой, эт у, эт ой, эт ой; Plural - эт и, эт их, эт им, эт и or эт их, эт ими, эт их.

that, those - то т (neut. то), то го, то м у, (nom. or gen.), тем, том; Fem. - та, то й, то й, ту, то й, то й; Plural - те, тех, тем, те or тех, теми, тех.

d) — Relative and Interrogative.

who, which, that - котор ий (fully declined as a regular adjective; may also be used as an interrogative);

who?, whose?, to whom?, whom? - кто, ко го, ко м у, ко го, кем, ком (may also be used as a relative);

what?, which? - что, чег о, чем у, что, чем, чём (may also be used as a relative);

whose? - чей (fem. ч ё я; neut. ч ё ; declined like мо й);

what sort of? - как ой (declined as a regular adjective).

NOTES ON THE USE OF THE CASES.

The nominative is the case of the subject; it is also used in the predicate nominative, after the verb “to be” (the latter is generally understood, not expressed, in the present tense): ваш сын—не маленький мальчик, your son is not a young boy; где ваш отец?, where is your father?

The genitive expresses possession: дом моего брата, the house of my brother, my brother’s house. To translate the English “to have” in the sense of “to own”, Russian generally uses the preposition у with the genitive case: у меня большой дом, I have a large house (literally, to me (is) a large house); есть ли у мужика хлеб?, has the peasant the bread? (literally, is to the peasant the bread?; ли is an untranslatable interrogative particle used in questions when
no other interrogative word appears). The genitive is regularly used in negative sentences, replacing the accusative: я не знал дома, I didn’t know the house; у меня - нет хлеба, I have no bread (literally, to me (is) not of bread). It is used to translate “some”, “any” (дайте мне хлеба, give me bread, some bread; as against дайте мне хлеб, give me the bread); and after adverbs of quantity (много хлеба, lots of bread, literally, much of bread). It appears with several prepositions, chief among them the y mentioned above; без, without (без книги, without a book); для, for, for the sake of (для меня, for me, for my sake); из, from, out of (из России, out of Russia); от, away from (especially a person: от моего друга, from my friend).

The dative indicates the indirect object after verbs of saying, giving, etc.: я дал мужику хлеб, I gave the peasant the bread. It is also used after certain prepositions, chief among them к (ко before troublesome consonant groups), toward: к мужику, toward the peasant; ко мне, toward me, to my house.

The accusative is the case of the direct object. Note that a separate accusative form appears only in the feminine singular; in the masculine and neuter singular, and in all plurals, the accusative takes the form of the nominative for inanimate objects, of the genitive for living persons and animals. It is also used with certain prepositions after verbs of motion, particularly в (во), in, into; на, on, onto, upon; за, behind. Note that several of these prepositions take the accusative if motion is involved, but the locative or instrumental if no idea of motion appears: он пошёл в огород, (acc.), he went into the garden; but он был в огороде (loc.), he was in the garden; он сел на стул, he sat down on the chair (acc.), but он сидел на стуле, he was sitting on the chair (loc.).

The instrumental denotes means or instrument (with, by means of): он писал карандашом, he was writing with a pencil. It is used with several prepositions, notably с (co), with, in company with: с офицером, with the officer; со
мною, with me; за, behind; перед, in front of. It also appears idiomatically in certain expressions of time: завтрапутром, tomorrow morning.

The locative or prepositional is always used with prepositions, and frequently denotes place where or in which (not place to which; the accusative denotes that): о (об, обо), about: о тебе, about you; об офицере, about the officer; обо мне, about me; на, on, upon: на столе, on the table; в (во), in: в городе, in the city; во мне, within me.

5. — Verbs.

The Russian verb has only three tenses: present, past and future. On the other hand, most verbs have a double "aspect": the "imperfective", indicating an action that is, was, or will be going on, and the "perfective", denoting an action that happened once and was completed, or that will be begun and completed; the imperfective verb is usually a simple verb, the perfective verb often (but not always) has a preposition prefixed to it (писать, to be writing; написать, to write once). The perfective verb, by its nature, cannot have a present tense, but only a past (action that was begun and finished) and a future (action that will be begun and finished); and while the past of a perfective verb is quite similar in form to the past of an imperfective verb, the perfective future has a set of endings similar to those of the present of an imperfective verb; or, to word it differently, the present form of the perfective verb has a future meaning. Thus, писать, to be writing, has a present, пишу (I am writing); a past, писал (I was writing, I used to write); and a future, буду писать (I shall be writing); but написать, the perfective counterpart of the imperfective писать, has only a past, написал (I wrote once, and finished writing); and a future with present form, напишу (I shall write once, and be finished).

The infinitive of Russian verbs usually ends in -ть (a certain number of verbs have -чъ or -ти): делать, to do; говорить, to speak; жечь, to burn; нести, to carry. Its
use is similar to that of the English infinitive: я хочу, говорить, I wish to speak.

1. — Present Indicative.

The normal endings are: -у (or -ю), -ешь, -ет, -ем, -ете, -ут (or -ют); or: -у (-ю), -ишь, -ит, -им, -ите, -ат (-ят).

I do, дела-ю
you do, дела-ешь
he does, дела-ет
we do, дела-ем
you do, дела-ете
they do, дела-ют

I speak, говорю
you speak, говоришь
he speaks, говорит
we speak, говорим
you speak, говорите
they speak, говорят

There are many deviations from these two fundamental schemes; нести and verbs of its type have: несу, несёшь, несёт, etc.; several verbs in -ть, with stress on the last vowel, follow this scheme (жить, to live, has живу, живёшь, живёт, etc.).

Note carefully that the future of perfective verbs has precisely the same form and endings as the present of imperfective verbs; thus, написать to write (once, and be through writing), has no present, while its future (I shall write once, and be through) runs: напишы, напишешь, напишет, etc.

The verb “to be”, быть, has a present as follows: есмь, еси, есть, емы, есть, суть. These forms, however, are generally understood, not expressed (я—болен, I am ill); the third person singular only is regularly used in interrogative sentences expressing possession: есть ли у вас рубль?, have you a ruble? (lit. is there to you a ruble?).

10. The second person singular is used only in intimate conversation; the second plural is regularly used in addressing a single person politely, and in addressing more than one person, familiarly or politely. The subject pronoun is generally used, but is sometimes omitted.
2. — Past Indicative.

This tense is formed by adding to the stem of the verb the endings -л, -ла, -ло, according to the gender of the subject (-ли in the plural, for all genders). This so-called past tense is really only a past participle, with predicate adjective endings, and agreement in gender and number with the subject.

I spoke, я говорил (fem. говорила)
you spoke, ты говорила (fem. говорила)
he spoke, он говорил
she spoke, она говорила
we spoke, мы говорили
you spoke, вы говорили
they spoke, они говорили

Note that this tense functions as an imperfect (I was doing, used to do) in the case of imperfective verbs; but as a past, present perfect or past perfect in the case of perfective verbs: я писал, I was writing, used to write; я написал, I wrote, have written, had written.

The past tense of быть is был (была, было, plural были). It is regularly used, not omitted as is the case with the present: я был болен, I was ill.

3. — Future.

For the future of perfective verbs, see under Present Tense. The future of imperfective verbs is formed by using the future of быть (to be), followed by the infinitive:

I shall speak, я буду говорить
you will speak, ты будешь говорить
he will speak, он будет говорить
she will speak, она будет говорить
we shall speak, мы будем говорить
you will speak, вы будете говорить
they will speak, они будут говорить

The future of perfective verbs does service for our future perfect.
4. — Conditional and Subjunctive.

The conditional idea (should, would) is normally expressed by the past tense of the verb followed by the particle бы: он делал бы, he would do, he would have done.

The subjunctive idea is generally rendered by the past tense introduced by чтобы: он написал, чтобы он купил сад, he wrote in order that he might buy the garden.

5. — Imperative.

The imperative generally ends in -й, -и, -ь (singular), and -йте, -ите, -ьте (plural): сделай, сделайте, do!; говори, говорите, speak!; несите, несите, carry!; будь, будьте, be!

6. — Participles and Gerunds.

Russian has two indeclinable gerunds, present and past: говоря, by or while speaking; говорив, or говоривши, having spoken.

There are four participles declined like adjectives: present active, говорящий, speaking; present passive, делаемый, being done; past active, говоривший, having spoken; past passive, читанный, having been read.

The use of gerunds and participles is quite complicated, and all the forms given above do not appear for all verbs. Generally speaking, they are very frequently used where other languages would use a subordinate clause (сказанное слово, the word that was spoken).

7. — Passive and Reflexive.

There is no true passive in Russian, save for the participial forms above indicated. The passive concept is generally rendered: 1. by a passive participle; 2. by an indefinite third person plural active (мне сказали, I was told; lit. they told me); 3. by the reflexive (это делается, this is being done, lit. this does itself).

Reflexive verbs are quite numerous. They are formed,
for all persons, by the addition of -ся (an abbreviated form of себя; -сь after vowels, except ь): умываться, to wash oneself: я умываюсь, ты умываешься, он умывается, мы умываемся, вы умываетесь, они умываются; past: я умывался (fem. я умывалась; pl. мы умывались); fut.: я буду умываться.

VOCABULARY

Nouns are generally given in their nominative singular form, with the root\textsuperscript{11} separated from the ending (if any); the genitive singular ending follows, then the nominative plural ending (where a plural form is in common use); thus, язык, -а, -и, indicates a declensional scheme: -а, -у, -ье, -ом, -е; plural, язык-и, -ов, -ам, -и, -ами, -ах; мор-е, -я, -я indicates a declensional scheme мор-е, -я, -ю, -е, -ем, -е; plural, мор-я, -ей, -ям, -я, -ями, -ях. See regular declensional tables, p. 382-383.

Adjectives are given only in their attributive nominative singular masculine form. For declensional schemes, see p. 384. For the formation of the predicate forms, where these are commonly used, (1) after the adjective indicates regular formation and accentuation (thus, здоровый (1), indicates the following predicate forms: здоров, здоровь, здоров, plural здоровы); (2) after the adjective indicates shift of stress from the root of the attributive adjective to the ending of the predicate adjective (thus, добрый (2) indicates the following predicate forms: добр, добра, добр, plural добр); (3) after the adjective indicates stress on the root in the masculine singular, neuter singular, and plural predicate

\textsuperscript{11} The term “root” as applied to both nouns and verbs in this vocabulary, is practically, not scientifically used; the true etymological root of ветер, for example, is ветр-, not ветр-; but the latter supplies a convenient makeshift for appending genitive and plural endings -ра, -ры; the true root of the verb приходить is приход-, not приход-; but the latter permits us to append the endings -жу, дишь, without entering into complicated explanations.
forms, on the ending in the feminine singular predicate form (thus, новы́й (3) indicates нов, нова, ново, plural новы; молодо́й (3) indicates молод, молода, молодо, plural молоды. Exceptional insertion of a vowel in the masculine singular predicate form is indicated thus: бедны́й (-ён; 3); this means that the predicate forms are беден, бедна, бедно, plural бедны.

Verbs are given, in a few cases, in whichever aspect (perfective or imperfective) better suits the English translation, or is in common use. For most verbs, however, both aspects are necessary to render the English meanings. In such cases, the imperfective aspect appears first, the perfective follows. Where the perfective aspect simply involves the addition of a prefix, with no difference in the conjugational forms of the two verbs, only the prefix is given; otherwise, all significant forms for both verbs appear. Remember that the imperfective infinitive normally means "to do something repeatedly, continually, or without reference to time"; the perfective infinitive "to do something once, at a given moment". The imperfective present is a true present, in meaning as well as in form; the perfective present has a future meaning, with reference to a particular point of future time; the imperfective future, formed by means of буду with the infinitive, refers to future action without a definite point of time; the imperfective past is an imperfect, usually meaning "I was doing, used to do" something; the perfective past is an absolute past, meaning "I did, have done, had done" (see p. 392). The forms given are the infinitive, with the root indicated; and the first and second person singular present endings, which are to be attached to the root. Formation and accentuation of the other forms of the present normally follow those of the second singular, not those of the first singular (note that the third plural normally ends in -ут (-ют), if the second singular ends in -ешъ or -ешь; in -ат (-ат), if the second singular ends in -ишь): thus, to come, прихо́дить (-жу, ’-дышь) indicates that endings on the basis of ’-дышь are to be attached to the working-root прихо-,
and that the full present is: прихо-жу, прихо-дишь, прихо-дит, прихо-дим, прихо-дите, прихо-дят.

The accented vowel is indicated throughout by heavy type (язык), save in cases where ё appears (ё is always stressed). Watch for shifting accents on different forms of the same word!


world, свет, -a; мир, -а
earth, земля, -и, 'и
air, воздух, -а
water, вода, -ы, 'ы
fire, огонь, -ня, -ни
light, свет, -а
sea, море, -я, -я
sun, солнце, -а
moon, луна, -ы; месяц, -а
star, звезда, -ы, 'ы
sky, небо, -а (pl. небеса, -еса)
winter, ветер, -ра, -ры
weather, погода, -ы
snow, снег, -а, -а
it is snowing, снег идёт
rain, дождь, -и, -и
it is raining, дождь идёт
cloud, облако, -а, -а
cloudy, облачный (it's cloudy today, облачно сегодня)
fog, туман, -а, -ы
ice, лёд (льда, льды)
mud, грязь, -и, -и
morning, утро, -а, -а
noon, полдень, -я, -ни
evening, вечер, -а, -а
afternoon, день (дня, дни) (in the afternoon, днём; пополудни)
night, ночь, -и, -и
midnight, полночь, -и
North, север, -а
South, юг, -а
East, восток, -а
West, запад, -а
time, время, -ени, -ена
year, год, -а, -ы
month, месяц, -а, -ы
week, неделя, -и, -и
day, день (дня, дни)
hour, час, -а, -ы
minute, минута, -ы, -ы
Sunday, воскресенье, -я, -я
Monday, понедельник, -а, -и
Tuesday, вторник, -а, -и
Wednesday, среда, -ы, 'ы
Thursday, четверг, -а, -и
Friday, пятница, -ы, -ы
Saturday, суббота, -ы, -ы
January, январь, -я
February, февраль, -я
March, март, -а
April, апрель, -я
May, маи, -я
June, июнь, -я
July, июль, -я
August, август, -а
September, сентябрь, -я
October, октябрь, -я
November, ноябрь, -я
December, декабрь, -я
Spring, весна, -ы, 'ы
Summer, лето, -а, -а
Fall, осень, -и, -и
Winter, зима, -ы, 'ы
On Monday, в понедельник
On Mondays, по понедельникам
Next Monday, в будущий понедельник
Last Monday, in the previous week.
On Monday, May 10th, 1892.

**2. Family, Friendship, Love.**

family, семья, -я, -и, 'и
husband, муж, -а, -ъ
wife, жена, -ы, "-ы
parents, родители, -ей
father, отец, -ца, -цы
mother, матерь, -ери, -ерии
son, сын, -а, -овья
daughter, дочь, -ери, -ерии
brother, брат, -а, -ья
sister, сестра, -ы, "-ы
uncle, дядя, -и, -и
aunt, тетя, -и, -и
grandfather, дедушка, -и, -и
grandmother, бабушка, -и, -и
grandson, внук, -а, -и
granddaughter, внучка, -и, -и
grandchildren, внучат, -а, -и
nephew, племянник, -а, -и
niece, племянница, -ы, -ы

cousin (masc.), двоюродный брат
cousin (fem.), двоюродная сестра

father-in-law (father of wife), тестя, -я, -и; (father of husband), свекора, -ры
mother-in-law (mother of wife), теща, -и, -и; (mother of husband), свекровь, -и, -и
son-in-law, зятя, -я, -ъя
daughter-in-law, невестка, -и, -и
brother-in-law, (sister's husband), зять, -я, -ъя; (husband's brother), деверь, -и, -и
sister-in-law (husband's sister), золовка, -и, -и; (brother's wife), невестка, -и, -и
man (individual), мужчина, -ы, -ы; (human being), человек, -а (pl. людь, -ей, people)
woman, женщина, -ы, -ы
child, дитя, -яти (pl. дети, -ей)
ребёнок, -ка (pl. ребёнок, -и)
boy, мальчик, -а, -и
girl (small), девочка, -и, -и (young), девушка, -и, -и; девица, -ы, -ы
sir, Mr., 12 гостоподин, -а (pl. гостопода)

Madam, Mrs., 12 госпожа, -и, -и
Miss, young lady, 12 барышня, -и, -и; госпожа
friend (masc.), друг, -а (pl. друзья, -ей); (fem.), подруга, -и, -и
servant (masc.), слуга, -и, 'и; (fem.), служанка, -и, -и
to introduce, знакомить (-лю, -льш); perfective, познакомиться

to visit, посетить (-лю, -льшь);

perf., посветить (-щу, -тешь);

love, любовь, -ви, -ви
to love, любить (-лю, -лишь)

12. The abbreviations for господин and госпожа are Г. or Г-и, and Г-жа, respectively (there is no abbreviation for барышня).

Under the Soviets, it is more customary to address a man as гражданин, -а (pl. гражданин, -а citizen); or товарищ, -а, -и (comrade), and a woman as гражданка, -и, -и (citizenship).
to fall in love with, влюб-яться (-юсь, -яешься); perf., влюб-иться (-люсь, -'ишься)

to marry, жен-ться (-юсь, -'ишься) на; выхо-дить (-жу, -'дышь) замуж за; perf. вый-ти (-ду, -дешь) замуж за

kiss, поцелу-й, -я, -и
to kiss, цел-овать (-ую, -уешь)

perf. по-целовать
dear, beloved, дорогой(3); любимый
sweetheart, (masc.), мил-ый, -ого, -ые (fem.), мил-ая, -ой, -ые

3. Speaking Activities.

word, слов-о, -а, -а
language, язык, -а, -и
to speak, говор-ить (-ю, -ышь)
to say, ска-зать (-жу, -'жеешь)
to tell, relate, рассказывать (-аю, -аешь); perf. рассказ-ать (-жу, -'жеешь)
to inform, сообщ-ать (-ю, -ешь); perf. сообщ-ить (-у, -ышь)
to call, звать (зову, зовёшь); perf. по-звать
to be called, one’s name is, звать-ся (зовусь, зовёшься); what is your name, как ваше имя?; my name is John, моё имя Иван
to greet, здорова-ться (-юсь, -ешься); perf. по-
to name, называ-ть (-аю, -аешь)
to cry, shout, кричать (-у, -ышь) perf. по-
to listen to, слуш-ать (-аю, -аешь); perf. по-
to hear, слыш-ать (-у, -ышь);

perf. у-
to understand, поним-ать (-аю, -аешь); perf. по-нять (-иму, -имешь)
to mean, означ-ать (-аю, -аешь); хо-теть (-чу, -'чешь) сказать
to ask (question), спрашива-ть (-ю, -ешь); perf. спро-сить (-щу, -'сиць); I am asking you where Red Square is, я Вас спрашиваю, где Красная Площадь
to ask for, про-сить (-шу, -'сиць); perf. по-; he asked me for 3 books, он попросил у меня три книги
to answer, отвеч-ать (-ю, -ешь); perf. отве-ть (-чу, -тышь)
to thank, благодар-ить (-ю, -ышь) (for, за with acc.): perf. по-
to complain, жал-оваться (-юсь, -уешься); perf. по-

gasoline, бензин, -а
coil, уголь, -ля
wood, дерев-о, -а
silk, шёлк, -а
cotton (raw), хлопок, -ка;
(material), бумага, -а
wool, шерсть, -и
cloth, сукно, -а
to cut, ре-зать (-жу, -жешь);  
perf. на -
to dig, коп-ать (-аю, -аешь);  
perf. на -
to sew, ш-ить (-ью, -ьешь);  
perf. сшить (сошью,
сошьешь)
to darn, штопа-ть (-ю, -ешь);  
perf. по -
to mend, чин-ить (-ю, -ишь);  
perf. по -

5. Animals.

animal, животн-ое, -ого, -ые  
horse, лошад-ь, -и, -и; кон-ъ,  
-я, -и
dog, собак-а, -и, -и; п-ёс, -са,  
-сы
cat, кош-к-а, -и, -и
bird, птиц-а, -ы, -ы
donkey, ос-ёл, -ла, -лы
mule, мул, -а, -ы
cow, коров-а, -ы, -ы
ox, вол, -а, -ы; бык, -а, -и
pig, свинь-я, -и, -и
chicken, цыплёнок, -ёнка, -ята

hen, куриц-а, -ы, куры
rooster, петух, -а, -и
sheep, овц-а, -ы, -ы
goat, коз-ёл, -ла, -лы
mouse, мыш-ь, -и, -и
snake, зме-я, -и, -и
fly, мух-а, -и, -и
bee, пчел-а, -ы, -ы
mosquito, комар, -а, -ы
spider, паук, -а, -и
louse, вонь-ь, -и, -ши
flea, блок-а, -и, -и
bedbug, клоп, -а, -ы

6. Money, Buying and Selling.

money, деньги, денег (pl.)
coin, монет-а, -ы, -ы
dollar, доллар, -а, -ы
cent, цент, -а, -ы
national currency (large), рубл-ь,
-я, -и (small), копейк-а, -и, -и
bank, банк, -а, -и
check, чек, -а, -и
money order, почтовый перевод,
-а, -ы
to earn, зарабаты-вать (-ю,  
-ешь); perf. заработ-ать (-аю,  
-аешь)
to gain, выруч-ать (-аю, -аешь);  
име-ть (-ю, -ешь) прибыль;
perf. выруч-ить (-у, -ишь)
to win, выигрыва-ть (-ю, -ешь);  
perf. выигр-ать (-аю, -аешь)
to lose, тер-ять (-ю, -яешь);  
perf. по -
to spend, тра-ть (-чу, -тишь);  
perf. по -
to lend, да-вать (-ю, -ешь)
взаймы; одолж-ать (-аю,  
-аешь); perf. одолж-ить (-у,  
'-ишь)
to owe, быть должным (lit., to be  
indebted)
to pay, плат-ить (-чу, -тишь);  
perf. за -
to borrow, заним-ать (-аю,  
-аешь); perf. зани-ть (-йму,  
-ймешь); he borrowed 3 rubles  
from me, он занял у меня три  
рублля
change, мелоч-, -и
to change, exchange, мен-ять  
(-яю, -яешь); perf. раз -
to give back, return, отда-вать  
(-ю, -ёшь); perf. отда-ть
7. Eating and Drinking.

to eat, есть (ем, ешь); past ел, ела, ела; perf. no -; кушать (-ю, -ешь); perf. с-
breakfast, утренний завтрак lunch, завтрак, -а, -ы to eat breakfast, lunch, завтрака-
tь (-ю, -ешь); perf. по - supper, ужин, -а, -ы to eat supper, ужинаетъ (-ю, -ешь); perf. по -
dinner, обед, -а, -ы to eat dinner, to dine, обедать (-ю, -ешь); perf. по -
meal, ед, -а, -ы dining-room, столовая, -ой, -ые waiter, слуга, -и, 'и waitress, служанка, -и, -ы restaurant, ресторан, -а, -ы menu, меню (invariable)
bill, счёт, -а, счета to rent, hire, нанимать (-аю, -аешь); perf. нанять (-иму, -имешь)
to be worth, стоить (-ю, ишь); it is worth while writing to him, стоит ему написать cost, стоимость, -и, -ы to cost, стоить (-ю, -ишь) to choose, выбирать (-аю, -аешь); perf. выбирать (-еру, -ерешь)
thief, robber, вор, -а, -ы to steal, воровать (-ую, уешь); perf. с -
policeman, полицейский, -ого, -ие; милиционер, -а, -ы police, полиция, -и, -ы; милиция, -и honest, честный (-тен, 1) dishonest, нечестный (-тен, 1)
napkin, салфетк-а, -и, -и
salt, соль-ъ, -и
pepper, пер-ец, -ца
plate, dish, блюд-о, -а, -а
bread, хлеб-а, -а
butter, масл-о, -а, -а
roll, булк-а, -и, -и
sugar, сахар-а
soup, суп-а, -ы
rice, рис, -а
potatoes, картофел-ъ, -я
vegetables, овощ-и, -ей (pl.)
meat, мяс-о, -а
beef, говядин-а, -ы
steak, бифштекс, -а, -ы
chicken, цыплёнок, -ёнка, -ята
chop, отбивная котлет-а, -ы, -ы
lamb, баранин-а, -ы
veal, телятин-а, -ы
pork, свинин-а, -ы
sausage, колбас-а, -ы, -ы
ham, ветчина-а, -ы
bacon, сал-о, -а

egg, яйц-о, -а, -а
fish, рыб-а, -ы, -ы
fried, жареный
cooked, приготовленный
boiled, варёный
roasted, broiled, жареный
baked, печёный
sauce, соус, -а, -а
salad, салат, -а, -ы
cheese, сыр, -а, -ы
fruit, фрукт, -а, -ы; плод, -а, -ы
apple, яблонк-о, -а, -и
pear, груш-а, -и, -и
grapes, виноград, -а
peach, персик, -а, -и
strawberry, земляника-а, -и, -и
nut, орех, -а, -и
orange, апельсин, -а, -ы
lemon, лимон, -а, -ы
juice, сок, -а, -и
cherry, вишн-я, -и, -и
dessert, сладк-ое, -ого
pastry, пирожн-ое, -ого

8. Hygiene and Attire.

bath, ванна-а, -ы, -ы
bathe, купаться (-юсь, -аешься); perf. вы -
shower, душ, -а, -и
to wash, мыться (-юсь, -аешься); perf. у -
to shave, брить (-юсь, -аешься); perf. по -
barber, hairdresser, парикмахер, -а, -ы
mirror, зеркало-о, -а
razor, бритва-а, -ы, -ы
(safety razor, безопасная бритва)
soap, мылом-о, -а

egg, яйц-о, -а, -а
fish, рыб-а, -ы, -ы
fried, жареный
cooked, приготовленный
boiled, варёный
roasted, broiled, жареный
baked, печёный
sauce, соус, -а, -а
salad, салат, -а, -ы
cheese, сыр, -а, -ы
fruit, фрукт, -а, -ы; плод, -а, -ы
apple, яблоко-о, -а, -и
pear, груша-а, -и, -и
grapes, виноград, -а
peach, персик, -а, -и
strawberry, земляника-а, -и, -и
nut, орех, -а, -и
orange, апельсин, -а, -ы
lemon, лимон, -а, -ы
juice, сок, -а, -и
cherry, вишня-я, -и, -и
dessert, сладкое, -ого
pastry, пирожное, -ого

to wear, но-сить (-шу, -сишь)
to take off, снимать (-яю, -аешь); perf. снимать (-иму, -имешь); I took off my coat, я снял пиджак
to change, менять (-яю, -яешь);
perf. менять (-ю, -ешь)
to put on, надевать (-яю, -аешь); perf. надеть (-ену, -енешь); I put on my coat, я надел пиджак
clothes, одежда-а, -ы
hat, шляп-а, -ы, -ы
suit, костюм, -а, -ы
coat, пиджак, -а, -и
vest, жилет, -а, -ы
pants, брюки-и, - (pl.)
underwear, нижнее бельё, -я
glove, перчатка-а, -и, -и

head, голова, -ы, головы
forehead, лоб, -об, -ба, -бы
face, лицо, -а, -ы
mouth, рот, -от, -ты
hair, волос, -а, -ы
eye, глаз, -а, -ы
ear, ухо, -ха, -ши (gen. pl. -шей)
tooth, зуб, -а, -ы
lip, губа, -ы, -ы
nose, нос, -а, -ы
tongue, язык, -а, -ы
chin, подбородок, -ка, -ки
cheek, щека, -и, -ы
mustache, усы, -ы, -ов (pl.)
beard, бородка, -ы, бороды
neck, шея, -и, -ы
throat, горло, -а, -ы
stomach, желудок, -ка, -ки

10. Medical.
doctor, доктор, -а, -а; врач, -а, -ы
drug-store, аптека, -и, -ы
hospital, госпиталь, -я, -я;
больница, -ы, -ы
medicine, лекарство, -а, -а

pill, пиллюля, -и, -ы
prescription, рецепт, -а, -ы
bandage, бинт, -а, -ы
nurse, сестра, -ы, -ы
ill, больной (2; болен)
fever, лихорадка, -и, -и
illness, болезнь, -и, -и
swollen, распущий
wound, рана, -ы, -ы
wounded, раненный (1)
head-ache, головная боль, -и, -и
tooth-ache, зубная боль

cough, кашель, -ля

to cough, кашлять (-ю, -ешь)
lame, хромой
burn, ожог, -а, -и
pain, боль, -и, -и
poison, яд, -а, -ы

to fight, сражаться (-юсь, -еешься); perf. сражаться (-юсь, -еешься)
to take prisoner, брать (-еру, -ерёшь) в плен; perf. взять (-возму, возмёшь)
to surrender, сдаватьсь (-юсь, -ёшься); perf. сдаться (-амся, -ашься)
to retreat, отступать (-аю, -ашь); perf. отступить (-лю, -ншь)

to arrest, арестовать (-ую, -уешь)
to kill, убивать (-аю, -аешь); perf. убить (-ью, -ьешь)
to escape, избегать (-аю, -аешь)
to run away, убегать (-аю, -аешь); perf. избежать (-егу, -ежьшь)
to lead, вести (-ду, -дёшь); perf. по -; past вёл, вела, вели
to follow, следовать (-ую, -уешь); perf. по -
to fear, бояться, -а, -и
prison, тюрьма, -ы, -ы
captivity, плен, -а
prisoner, арестант, -а, -ы
war prisoner, плениный, -ого, -ые
comrade, "buddy", товариш, -а, -и
fight, битва, -ы, -ы
battle, сражение -я, -я

to fight, сражаться (-аюсь, -аешься); perf. сражаться (-аюсь, -аешься)
to take prisoner, брать (-еру, -ерёшь) в плен; perf. взять (-возму, возмёшь)
to surrender, сдаватьсь (-юсь, -ёшься); perf. сдаться (-амся, -ашься)
to retreat, отступать (-аю, -ашь); perf. отступить (-лю, -ншь)
soldier, private, солдат, -а, -ы
corporal, капраи, -а, -ы
sergeant, сержант, -а, -ы
lieutenant, лейтенант, -а, -ы
captain, капитан, -а, -ы
major, майор, -а, -ы
colonel, полковник, -а, -ы
general, генерал, -а, -ы
officer, офицер, -а, -ы
company, рота, -ы, -ы
battalion, батальон, -а, -ы
regiment, полк, -а, -ы
troops, войска, - (pl.)
brigade, бригада, -ы, -ы
division, дивизия, -и, -и
reinforcements, подкрепления, -е, -я
fortress, крепость, -и, -и
sentinel, часовой, -ого, -ые
to stand guard, to do sentry duty,
сто-ять (-ю, -ишь) на часах;
perf. по -
guard, страж, -и, -и
to be on duty, нести (-су, -сёшь)
sлужбу; perf. по -; past нёс, несла, несли
sign-post, указательный столб
(-а, -ы)
navy, флот, -а, -ы
sailor, матрос, -а, -ы
marine, моряк, -а, -и
warship, военное судно, -на, -а
cruiser, крейсер, -а, -ы
destroyer, истребитель, -я, -и;
минонос-ек, -и, -ы; миннонос-
ец, -ца, -цы
convoy, конво-й, -я, -и
cruise, охрана, -ы, -ы
weapon, оружие, -я, -ы
rifle, винтовка, -а, -и; ружьё,
-я, -я
machine-gun, пулемёт, -а, -ы
cannon, пушка, -и, -и
ammunition, вооружение, -я, -я
supplies, снаряжение, -я, -я
cartridge, заряд, -а, -ы
bullet, пуля, -я, -и
belt, пояс, -а, -ы

12. Travel.

passport, паспорт, -а, -а
customs, таможня, -и, -и
steamer, пароход, -а, -ы
ship, судно, -а, суда
stateroom, каюта, -ы, -ы
berth, койка, -и, -и
to travel, путешествовать
(-ую, -ешь)
trip, voyage, путешествие, -я,
kapsack, ранец, -ца, -цы
tent, палатка, -и, -и
map, карт-а, -ы, -ы
spy, шпион, -а, -ы
air-raid shelter, убежище-е, -а, -а
camp, лагерь, -я, -я
rope, канат, -а, -ы
flag, флаг, -а, -и
helmet, каска, -и, -и
bayonet, штык, -а, -и
uniform, мундир, -а, -ы
airplane, аэроплан, -а, -ы;
cамолёт, -а, -ы
bomber, бомбардир, -оваться (-ую, -уешь)
truck, грузовик, -а, -и
shell, снаряд, -а, -ы
tank, танк, -а, -и
to load, заряжать (-аю, -аешь);
perf. зарядить (-чу, -дышь)
bomb, бомба, -ы, -ы
to fire, to shoot, стрелять (-яю,
-ешь); perf. выстрелить
(-ю, -ишь)
(military execution) расстрели-
вать (-ю, -ешь)
fire!, огонь!
attention!, внимание!; смирно!
forward!, вперёд!
halt!, стой!

-я, -я
to leave, depart, уезжать (-аю,
-аешь); perf. уехать (-ду,
-дешь)
to arrive, приезжать (-аю,
-аешь); perf. приехать (-ду,
-дешь)
to ride (conveyance), ехать
(-ду, -дешь)
railroad, железная дорога, -и, -ы
station, станция, -и, -ы
platform, платформа, -ы, -ы
track, колея, -и, -ы; путь, -и, -ы
train, поезд, -а, -ы
ticket, билет, -а, -ы
to buy (a ticket), в-звать (-озьму,
-озьмёшь) билет; куп-ить
(-лю, -щишь) билет
compartment, купе (indecl.)
all aboard!, третий звонок!
car, coach, вагон, -а, -ы

dining-car, вагон-ресторан, -а
sleepers, спальный вагон
trunk, сундук, -а, -ы
valise, чемодан, -а, -ы
baggage, багаж, -а
porter, носильщик, -а, -ы
taxi, такси (indecl.)
bus, автобус, -а, -ы
street-car, трамвай, -я, -ы
automobile, автомобиль, -я, -ы
driver, шофёр, -а, -ы
to drive (car), ездить (-жу,
-дышь)

13. Reading and Writing.
to read, чит-ать (-ию, -аешь);
perf. про-
newspaper, газета, -ы, -ы
magazine, журнал, -а, -ы
book, книга, -и, -и
to write, пи-сать (-шу, -шьшь);
perf. на

to translate, перево-дить (-жу,
-дышь); perf. переве-сти
(-ду, -дёшь); past перев-ёл,
-ела, -ели
pencil, карандаш, -а, -и
card, карта, -а
blackboard, чёрная доска, -и, -и
ink, чернила, - - (pl.)
pen, перо, -а, -ъя

to smoke, кур-ить (-ю, -щишь);
perf. по

cigar, сигара, -ы, -ы
cigarette, папироса, -ы, -ы
tobacco, табак, -а, -ы
match, спичка, -и, -и
give me a light, дайте мне огонь
theatre, театр, -а, -ы
movies, кино (indecl.)

dance, танец, -ца, -цы
to dance, танц-овать (-ью.
-шесть)
to have a good time, весел-иться
(-юсь, -ышься); perf. по

ticket, билет, -а, -ы
pleasure, удовольствие, -я, -ы
ball, мяч, -а, -ы

to play (music), игр-ать (-ию,
15. **Town and Country.**

place, spot, мест-о, -а, -а

city, город, -а, -а
city, город, мест-о, -а, -а

to sing, петь (-ю, -ёшь)
song, песня, -и, -и
to take a walk, гулять (-ю, -ёшь)

16. **House.**

door, дверь, -и, -и
to open, открывать (-ую, -шею)
to close, закрывать (-ую, -шею)
key, ключ, -а, -и
to go in, входить (-жу, -дишь)
to go out, выходить (-жу, -дишь)

-ёшь) na with prepositional
-йдешь) past вышел, вышла

beach, взморье, -я; берег, -а, -а
to swim, плавать (-ю, -ёшь)
game, игра, -ы, -ы
sand, песок, -ка, -ки
refreshment, угощение, -я, -я
saloon, тракти́р, -а, -ы; пивная,
пикник, пикник, -а, -и

bridge, мост, -а, -ы
(on the bridge, на мосту)
country, деревня, -и
country, сёл-о, -а, -а
country, дорога, -и, -и
country, гора, -ы, -ы
country, трава, -ы, -ы
country, двор, -а, -ы
country, холм, -а, -ы
country, озеро, -а, -а
country, лес, -а, -а
country, поле, -я, -я
country, дерево, -а, деревья
country, скала, -ы, -ы
country, камень, -и, -и
country, джунгли, -ей (pl.)

-йдешь) past вышел, вышла

house, дом, -а, -а
cottage, дача, -и, -и
hut, изба, -ы, -ы
to live in, жить (-ву, -веешь)
to go up, подниматься (-аюсь, -аешься)
to go down, спускаться (-аюсь, -аешься)
ститься (-шусь, -стишься)  
bed, кроват-ъ, -и, -и; постель, -и, -и
room, комната, -ы, -ы
bedroom, спальня, -и, -и
toilet, уборная, -ой, -ые
blanket, одеяло, -а, -а
kitchen, кухня, -и, -и (gen. pl. кухонь)
sheet, простынь, -и, -и
table, стол, -а, -ы
timber, дерево, -а, -а
chair, стул, -а, -ы
pillow, подушка, -и, -и
to sit down, садиться (-жусь, -сидишься); perf. сесть (-иду, ядешь); past сел, села, сели
to go to bed, ложиться (-усь, -и́шься) спать; perf. ль́чь (-лую, якешь), past лёг, легла, легли
to be sitting, сидеть (-жу, -дийшь)
to go to sleep, итти (-ду, -дёшь) спать; засыпать (-аю, -аешь)
to stand, быть в стоя́ть (-ю, -ишь); perf. стои́ть (-ану, -анешь)
to stand up, вста́ть (-ану, -анешь)
to wake up, просыпаться (-аюсь, -аешься); perf. проснуться (-усь, -ешься)
to get up, вста́ть (-ю, -ешь); perf. вста́ть (-ану, -анешь)
to dress, одеваться (-аюсь, -аешься)
to dress, одеваться (-аюсь, -аешься)
to dress, одеваться (-аюсь, -аешься)
to dress, одеваться (-аюсь, -аешься)
to dress, одеваться (-аюсь, -аешься)
clock, часы, -ы (pl.)
alarm-clock, будильник, -а, -и

17. Nouns — Miscellaneous.

people, люд-и, -ей (pl.)
number, числ-о, -а, -а; номер, -а
thing, вещь, -и, -и
life, жизнь, -и, -и
name, имя, -и, -ена
death, смерт-ь, -и, -и
luck, счастье, -я
work, работа, -ы, -ы; (labor), труд, -а, -ы

18. Verbs — Coming and Going.

to come, приходить (-жу, -дишь); perf. прийти (-ду, -дёшь)
пойти (-ду, -дёшь)
to be going to, (use future of perfective verb; we are going
to win, мы победим)
to walk, гулять (-яю, -яешь);

13. The past of итти, to go, and all its compounds (which normally
appear as -йти or -и́ти) is irregular: шёл, шла, шли.
perf. no -
to go away, ухо-дить (-жу, 'дышь); perf. уйти
to fall, пада-ть (-ю, -ешь); perf.
упа-сть (-ду, -дёшь); past упал
to run, бега-ть (-ю, -ешь); perf.
убе-жать (-гу, -жишь)
to stay, remaин, оста-ваться
(-юсь, -ёшься); perf. оста-
tься (-нусь, -нёшься)
to follow, след-овать (-ую,
-уешь); - somebody, за with
instrumental: follow me,
следуйте за мной; perf. no -
to return, come back, возвращ.
аться (-аюсь, -аеишься); perf.
возвра-титься (-щусь,
-тишься)
to arrive, приез-дать (-аю,
-аешь); perf. прие-даться (-ду,
-дешь)
to depart, уез-даться (-аю, -аешь); perf.
де-ять (-ду, -дешь)

to see, вид-еть (-жую, -дышь);
perf. y -
to look (at), смотр-еть (-ю,
-ишь); perf. no -
to look for, искать (-шу,
-щешь); perf. no -
to look, seem, выгля-деть (-жу,
-дышь)
to recognize, узна-вать (-ю,
-ёшь); perf. узна-ть (-ю,
-ешь), with added meaning of
"to find out".
to take for, приним-ать (-аю,
-аешь) за with acc.; perf. при-
нять (-му, 'мешь); past принял
to laugh, сме-яться (-юсь,
-ёшься); perf. no - or за-
to smile, улыб-аться (-аюсь,
-аешься)
to laugh at, сме-яться, посме-
яться (-юсь, ёшься) над with
instrumental

20. Verbs — Mental.
to make a mistake, ошиб-аться
(-аюсь, -аешься); perf. ошиб-
иться (-усь, -ёшься)
to hope, наде-яться (-юсь,
-ёшься)
to wait (for), жду-ть (-у, -ёшь);
perf. подо -
to think (of), дума-ть (-ю,
-шь); pf. по-
(I am thinking of him, думаю
о нём; what do you think of
him?, что Вы думаете о нём?;
какого Вы о нём мнения?)
to believe, вер-ить (-ю, -ишь);
perf. no -
to like, люб-ить (-лю, 'ишь);
perf. по -
to wish, жел-ать (-аю, -аешь),
perf. по -
to want, хо-теть (-чу, 'чешь);
perf. за -
to need, нуж-даться (-аюсь,
-аешься); I need help, я
нуждаюсь в помощи; мне
нужна помощь
to know (person or fact), зн-ать
(-аю, -аешь)
to understand, поним-ать (-аю,
-аешь); perf. по-нять (-иму,
-имёшь)
to know how to, уме-ть (-ю, -ешь)
to remember, помн-ить (-ю, -ишь); perf. за -
to forget, забы-ть (-аю, -аешь); perf. забы-ть (-уду, -удешь)
to permit, allow, позвол-ять (-яю, -яешь; dative of person allowed); perf. позвол-ить (-ю, -ишь)
to promise, обещ-ать (-аю, -аешь; dative of person promised)
to forbid, запрещ-ать (-аю, -аешь; dative of person for-

to live, жи-ть (-ву, -вешь)
to die, умир-ать (-аю, -аешь);
 perf. умереть (умру, умрёшь); past умер, умерла, умерли
to work, работа-ть (-ю, -ешь)
to give, да-вать (-ю, -ешь);
 perf. да-ть (-м, -ыш)
to take, б-рать (-еру, -ерёшь);
 perf. взять (возьму, возьмёшь)
to begin, начин-ать (-аю, -аешь);
 perf. нач-ать (-ну, -нёшь)
 (I began reading, я начал читать)
to finish, конч-ать (-аю, -аешь);
 perf. конч-ить (-у, -ишь)
 (he finished writing, он кончил писать)
to continue, keep on, продолж-ать (-аю, -аешь)
 (he kept on writing, он продолжал писать)
to help, помог-ать (-аю, -аешь)
dat. of person); perf. помо-чь

bidden); perf. запр-ть (-шу, -тшишь)
to learn, учить-ся (-усь, -ишься); perf. на -
to feel like, хотеть-ся (I feel like working, мне хочется работать; lit., it feels to me like working)
to fear, be afraid, бо-яться (-юсь, -ишься)
to be right, быть правым
 (I am right, я прав; make the predicate adjective agree in gender and number with the subject)
to be wrong, быть неправым
 (she is wrong, она неправа)

(-гу, -жешь); past, помог, помогла, -и
to lose, тер-ять (-яю, -яешь);
 perf. по -
to find, нахо-дить (-жу, -дышь);
 perf. найти
to try, проб-овать (-ую, -ушь);
 perf. по -
to leave (something), остав-ять (-яю, -яешь);
 perf. остав-ить (-лю, -лишь)
to show, показы-вать (-ю, -ешь);
 perf. показ-ать (-жу, -жешь)
to meet, встреча-ть (-ю, -ешь);
 perf. встр-еть (-чу, -тшишь)
to do, make, дела-ть (-ю, -ешь);
 perf. с -
to be able, can, мо-чь (-гу, -жешь); perf. с -; past мог, могла, могли
to put, lay, кла-сть (-ду, -дёшь);
 perf. полож-ть (-у, -ишь)
to carry, нес-ти (-у, -ешь); perf. по -; past нёс, несла, несли
to bring, прино-сить (-шу,
-сишь); perf. принести

to stop (another), останавливать (-ю, -еши); perf. остановить (-лю, -нишь)

to stop (self), останавливаться (-ъсь, -ешишь); perf. остановиться

to cover, покрывать (-аю, -аешь); perf. покрыть (-ю, -оешь)

to get, obtain, получать (-аю, -аешь); perf. получать (-у, -иши)

to get, become, становиться (-ъсь, -ишишь; generally followed by instrumental; to become obstinate, становиться упрямым); perf. стать (-ну, -неши)

to hide, пряять (-чу, -чешь); perf. с -

to break, ломать (-аю, -аешь); perf. с -

22. Adjectives.

small, маленький; маль (2)

cold, холодный (холод-ен, -на, -о, -ы)

great, великий (3)

warm, теплый (-ел, 3)

large, большой

tall, high, высокий (2)

warm (warm day, жаркий день)

short (opp. of tall), маленький

tall, высокий (-ок, 3)

hot, горячий (2); жаркий

low, низкий (-ок, 3)

-dок, сухой (3)

short (opp. of long), короткий

(empty, пустой (3)

damp, сырой

dark, тёмный (-ен, 2)

easy, удобный (-ен, 2)

fat, жирный (-ен, 3)

hard, твёрдый (2)

fat, толстый, толст (2)

thin, тонкий (-ок, 2); худой (3)

round, круглый (3)
square, квадратный
flat, плоский (-ок, 3)
deep, глубокий (2)
soft, мягкий (-ок, 2)
hard, твёрдый (3)
quick, быстрый (3), скорый (1)
slow, медленный (-ен, 1)
ordinary, обыкновенный
comfortable, удобный (-бен, 1)
uncomfortable, неудобный
near, близкий (-зок, 2)
distant, далёкий (2)
right (direction), правый (3)
left, левый
poor, бедный (-ен, 3)
rich, богатый (1)
beautiful, красивый (1)
ugly, некрасивый (1)
pretty, хорошенький
sweet, сладкий (-док, 3)
bitter, горький (-рек, 3)
sour, кислый (-сел, 3)
salty, солёный (-лон, 3)
young, молодой. (молод, 3)
old, старый (3)
new, новый (3)
good, хороший (2); добрый (2)
better, лучший
best, самый лучший
bad, плохой (3); худой (3)
worse, худший
worst, самый худший
fine, “regular”, хороший (2)
first, первый
last, последний
strong, сильный (2)
weak, слабый (3)
tired, усталый (1)
alone, один (одна, одно)
same, самый
ture, правдивый (1)

false. неверный (-ен, 3);
ложный
easy, лёгкий (-ок, 2)
hard, difficult, трудный (-ен, 3)
happy, glad, довольный (-ен, 1)
sad, грустный (-тен, 3)
free, свободный (-ден, 1)
silly, глупый (3)
crazy, помешанный (1)
brave, храбрый (3)
cowardly, трусливый (1)
quiet, тихий (3)
oisy, шумный
kind, любезный (-ен, 1)
drunk, пьяный (2)
polite, вежливый (1)
impolite, rude, грубый (3)
pleasant, приятный (-ен, 1)
unpleasant, неприятный (-ен, 1)
lonesome, одинокий (1)
foreign, иностранный
friendly, приветливый (1);
дружественный (-ен, 1)
hostile, враждебный (1);
неприятельский
lucky, счастливый (1)
unlucky, несчастливый (1)
charming, очаровательный
afraid, боязливый
(I am afraid, мне страшно)
ready, готовый (1)
hungry, голодный (-ен, 3)
thirsty (I am), мне хочется пить
funny, смешной (-ен, 2)
possible, возможный (-жен, 1)
impossible, невозможный (1)
living, живой (3)
dead, мёртвый (2)
right (correct), правый (3)
(I’m right, я прав)
wrong, неправый (3)
(I’m wrong, я неправ)
23. Colors.
white, белый (3)
black, чёрный (-ен, 3)
red, красный (-ен, 2)
green, зелёный (3)
blue, синий
(light blue, голубой)
yellow, жёлтый (2)
gray, серый (3)
brown, коричневый
pink, розовый
purple, пурпурный; лиловый

24. Nationalities.\textsuperscript{14}
American, американский; американец, -ка, -цы
English, английский; английчан-ин, -ка, -е
French, французский; француз-а, -женка, -зы
German, немецкий; немец, -ка, -цы
Spanish, испанский; испанец, -ка, -цы
Russian, русский; русский-а, -ая, -ие; советский (pertaining to the Soviet Union; not interchangeable with русский, and never applied to the language)
Italian, итальянский; итальянец, -ка, -цы
Japanese, японский; японец, -ка, -цы
Chinese, китайский; китайец, -янка, -йцы
Dutch, голландский; голландец, -ка, -цы
Norwegian, норвежский; норвежец, -ка, -цы
Swedish, шведский; швед, -ка, -ы
Finnish, финский; финн, -ка, -ы
Belgian, бельгийский; бельгиец, -яка, -йцы
Polish, польский; польск, -ька, -яки
Danish, датский; датчан-ин, -ка, -е
Swiss, швейцарский; швейцарец, -ка, -цы
Portuguese, португальский; португалец, -ка, -ицы
Yugoslav, югославянский; югославян-ин, -ька, -е

14. The first form given is the adjective, to be declined as such, and to be used in connection with a noun: the American Navy, американский флот. The second form is the noun, meaning a person of the stated nationality: he is an American, он — американец; she is an American, она — американка; they are Americans, они — американцы. The name of the language is indicated by the adjective with язык: the Russian language, русский язык; after the verb “to speak”, however, the masculine singular form of the adjective, preceded by no and minus the -ъ of the ending, is used: I speak Russian, я говорю по-русски; do you speak French? говорите ли Вы по-французски? Nouns and adjectives of nationality are not usually capitalized, though names of countries are.
25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, сегодня
eyesterday, вчера
tomorrow, завтра
day before yesterday, третьего дня
day after tomorrow, послезавтра
tonight, сегодня вечером
last night, вчера вечером
this morning, сегодня утром
in the morning, утром
in the afternoon, днём
in the evening, вечером
in the night, ночью
this afternoon, сегодня днём
tomorrow morning, завтра утром
tomorrow afternoon, завтра днём
tomorrow night, завтра вечером
all day, весь день
all morning, всё утро
all night, всю ночь
every day, каждый день
every morning, всякое (каждое) утро
every night, каждую ночь
every day, каждый день
every morning, всякое (каждое) утро

early, рано
late, поздно
already, уже
yet, still, ещё
no longer, больше не
not yet, нет ещё
now, теперь
then, тогда
afterwards, после
never, никогда
always, всегда
forever, навсегда
soon, скоро
often, часто
seldom, редко
usually, обыкновенно
fast, быстро
slowly, медленно
here, здесь
there, там
near by, близко
far away, далеко
up (stairs), наверху; наверх
(motion)
down (stairs), внизу; вниз
(motion)
ahead, in front, впереди; вперёд
(motion)
forward, вперед
behind, in back, сзади
back, backward, назад (motion)
outside, снаружи; наружу
(motion)
inside, внутри; внутрь (motion)
opposite, in front, напротив
here and there, тут и там
everywhere, всюду, везде
where, где; куда (motion)
also, too, также; тоже
yes, да
no, нет
not, не
very, much, очень
little, not much, мало; не очень
well, хорошо
badly, плохо
better, лучше
worse, хуже
only, только
more (than), более (чем),
больше
less, менее, меньше
as - as, так - как
as much - as, столько же -
сколько (with genitive sg.)
as many - as, столько же -
сколько (with gen. pl.)
how much?, сколько (with gen.
sg.)?
how many?, сколько (with gen.
pl.)?


and, и
but, но; а
if, provided that, если
(if with conditional usually =

how?, как?
too much, слишком много
(with gen. sg.)
too many, слишком много
(with gen. pl.)
really, truly, действительно
so much, столько (with gen. sg.)
so many, столько (with gen. pl.)
as, like, как
besides, кроме того
finally, in short, наконец;
в конце концов
almost, почти
gladly, с удовольствием
certainly, непременно
at once, сразу
at all, вовсе
hardly, с трудом, едва не
aloud, вслух
of course, конечно
suddenly, внезапно; вдруг
about, около
perhaps, maybe, может-быть
a little, немного; немного
(with gen.)
again, опять
together, вместе
at least, по крайней мере
for lack of, за недостатком
(with gen.)
long ago, давным давно
repeatedly, часто; неодно-
кратно; повторно
therefore, поэтому
occasionally, случайно; иногда
entirely, altogether, слишком;
совсем

если бы with past)
or, или
why?, почему?
why!, ну что!; ну да!; что же!
because, for, потому что before, прежде чем; до того как when, when?, while, когда than, чем; лучше чем; genitive case where, where?, где; куда (motion) whence, whence?, откуда until, пока не; до тех пор пока не although, хотя unless, если только that, что after, после того как as soon as, как только as long as, пока не without, без того чтобы (more often, he with gerund: without knowing this, не зная этого)

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

such, такой of all kinds, всякого рода everything, всё everyone, все something, что-to someone, кто-to nothing, ничто no one, никто no (adj.), нет (with gen.; I have no bread, у меня нет хлеба) some, некоторые or gen.: give me some bread, дайте мне хлеба; some men, некоторые люди a few, several, несколько with gen. neither - nor, ни - ни each, every, каждый; всякий all, весь (вся, всё, pl. все) (an) other, другой much, lots of, много (with gen.) few, немного (with gen. pl.) many, много (with gen. pl.) little, not much, мало (with gen.) both, оба (обе, оба) with gen. sg. enough, довольно; достаточно (with gen.) not enough, недостаточно (with gen.)

28. Prepositions (the cases taken by each preposition are indicated).

of, из (gen.); or genitive alone from, away from, от (gen.) outside of, вне (gen.) to, dative: в (acc.); к (dat.); на (acc.); до (gen.) at, у (gen.) with, с (instr.) as far as, until, up to, до (gen.) without, без (gen.) in, в (prep.) into, в (acc.) on, на (acc. or prep.) over, above, над (instr.) for, for the sake of, для (gen.) since, с (gen.) toward, к (dat.) between, among, средь; посреди (gen.) near, next to, близ (gen.); рядом с (instr.) below, beneath, под (instr.); ниже (gen.) by, (instrumental case) far from, далеко от (gen.) before, до (gen.) after, после (gen.)
opposite, in front of, впереди (gen.)
back of, behind, позади (gen.)
under (neath), под (instr.)
instead of, вместо (gen.)
beside, кроме (gen.)
at the house of, в доме (with gen.); у (gen.)
through, сквозь (acc.)
by means of, instr.; посредством (gen.)
against, против (gen.)

across, через (acc.)
on the other side of, на другой стороне (with gen.)
in spite of, несмотря на (acc.)
about, около (gen.)
around, кругом (gen.)
during, во время (gen.)
because of, on account of, из за (gen.); на основании того что
in order to (inf.), для того чтобы (past)

29. Special Expressions and Idioms.

good morning, доброе утро; здравствуйте (often pronounced здрасте)
good afternoon, good day, добрый день; здравствуйте
good evening, добрый вечер
good night, спокойной ночи
good-bye, до свидания; прощайте
I'll see you later, до скорого свидания
I'll see you tomorrow, до завтра
I'll see you tonight, до вечера
just now, только - что
hello! (on telephone), слушаю!; алло!
how are you?, как Вы поживаете?
I'm well, хорошо; мне хорошо
I'm (much) better, мне (гораздо) лучше
how goes it?, как дела?
what time is it?, который час?
it's six o'clock, шесть часов
at six o'clock, в шесть часов
at about six, около шести; часов в шесть
at half past six, в половина седьмого
at a quarter to six, без четверти шесть
at a quarter past six, в четверть седьмого
at ten minutes to six, без десяти шесть
at ten minutes past six, в десять минут седьмого
last year, в прошлом году
next year, в будущем году; на будущий год (for next year)
every day, каждый день
the whole day, весь день
please, пожалуйста (pronounce пожалста)
tell me, скажите мне
bring me, принесите мне
show me, покажите мне
teach you, спасибо; благодарю (Bac)
do not mention it, не за что; пожалуйста
will you give me?, дайте мне, пожалуйста
pardon me, извините; простите
it does not matter, never mind, ничего
I am sorry, виноват
I cannot help, ничего не могу (with inf.)
it's nothing, это ничего
what a pity!, как жаль!
it's too bad, ужасно!
I'm glad, я рад
I have to, мне надо; мне нужно; я должен
I agree (all right, O.K.), я согласен
here is (are), вот
there is (are), вот; там
where is (are) ?, где?
where are you going?, куда Вы идёте?
which way?, по какой дороге?; в какую сторону?
this (that) way (fashion), этим путём
this (that) way (direction), в этом направлении; по этой стороне;
в эту сторону
to the right, направо
to the left, налево
straight ahead, прямо
come with me, идите со мной
what can I do for you?, что я могу для Вас сделать?; чем я могу помочь?; что Вам угодно?
what is it?, что это такое?
what is the matter?, в чём дело?
what is the matter with you?, что с Вами?
what do you want?, что Вы хотите?
what are you talking about?, о чём Вы говорите?
what does that mean?, что это значит?
what do you mean?, что Вы подразумеваете?; что Вы хотите этим сказать?
how much (is it) ?, сколько (это стоит)?
anything else?, что ещё?; что больше?
nothing else, больше ничего
do you speak Russian?, говорите ли Вы по-русски?
a little, немного; немного
speak more slowly, говорите медленнее
do you understand?, понимаете ли Вы?

14*
I don't understand, я не понимаю; я не понял
do you know?, знаете ли Вы?
I don't know, я не знаю
I can't, я не могу
what do you call this in Russian?, как это называется по-русски?
how do you say - in Russian?, как говорится - по-русски?
I'm an American, я — американец (американка, fem.)
I'm (very) hungry, я (очень) голоден
I'm thirsty, я хочу пить
I'm sleepy, я хочу спать
I'm warm, мне тепло
I'm cold, мне холодно
it's warm, жарко
it's cold, холодно
it's windy, ветрено
it's sunny, солнечно
it's fine weather, хорошая погода
it's bad weather, плохая погода
it's forbidden, запрещено (no smoking, курить воспрещается)
luckily, fortunately, к счастью
unfortunately, к несчастью
is it not so?, don't you?, aren't you? (etc.), не так (ли)?; не правда (ли)?
not at all, совсем нет; совсем не так
how old are you?, сколько Вам лет?
I'm — years old, мне — лет (replace лет with rod for “one” and compounds of “one”, with года for 2, 3, 4, and compounds)
how long have you been here?, давно ли Вы здесь?, Вы давно здесь?
how long have you been waiting?, сколько времени Вы ждёте?
as soon as possible, возможно скорее; поскорее
come here!, идите сюда!
come in!, войдите!
look!, посмотрите!
look out!, careful!, будьте осторожны!; осторожно!
darn it!, чорт возьми!; это — возмутительно!
for heaven's sake!, ради Боже!
glad to meet you!, очень приятно!; я очень рад!
no admittance, вход запрещён!: входить воспрещается!
otice!, объявление!
nonsense!, пустяки!; ерунда!
listen!, look here!, say!, послушайте!; скажите!
just a second!, одну минуту!
gangway!, one side!, посторонитесь!
Chapter XII

OTHER EUROPEAN TONGUES

The languages of Europe that do not belong to the three major branches of Indo-European (Germanic, Romance, Slavic) are fairly numerous, but relatively unimportant, from a practical standpoint. Greek and Albanian form two separate branches of Indo-European. The former is the national tongue of some 7,000,000 people in Greece and of perhaps one or two million more, located on Turkish, Bulgarian and Albanian territory, and in the politically Italian Dodecanese Islands, while the latter is spoken by over 1,000,000 people in Albania and by scattered minorities in Yugoslavia, Greece, and even in southern Italy and Sicily. Finnish, Hungarian, Turkish and Estonian belong to the great Ural-Altaic family of northern Asia, and bear some resemblance to one another in structure, though they have so diverged in vocabulary as to be mutually incomprehensible (save in the case of Finnish and Estonian). Finnish is spoken by some 4,000,000 people in Finland and by scattered minorities in Russian Karelia; Estonian by about 1,000,000 in Estonia; Hungarian, or Magyar, by over 13,000,000 people, located in Hungary and in countries bordering on Hungary (Czechoslovakia, Romania, Yugoslavia); while Turkish is the national tongue of Turkey’s 18,000,000 inhabitants, located mainly in Asia Minor, but also in European Turkey and adjacent territories (Bulgaria and Greece; Turkish linguistic minorities are to be found as far west as Albania, and as far north as Roumanian Dobrudja). The Celtic group of Indo-European appears in Ireland (Eire), where Irish (occasionally called “Erse”, but not by the Irish themselves) is the official tongue, though more English than
Irish is spoken among Eire’s 3,000,000 inhabitants; in the highlands of Scotland; in Wales; and in French Brittany; the number of people speaking Scots Gaelic does not exceed a hundred thousand; Welsh speakers may run up to 1,000,000, but English is current among them; Breton is spoken by over 1,000,000 people in Brittany, but most of them use French as well. Lithuanian and Lettish are the national tongues of two countries having populations of about 3,000,000 and 2,000,000, respectively; they belong to the Baltic branch of Indo-European, which is frequently joined to the Slavic in a Balto-Slavic classification. Basque, a language with no known affiliations, is spoken by perhaps half a million people in the extreme northeastern corner of Spain and the extreme southwestern corner of France, astride the Pyrenees; most Basque speakers can be approached with either Spanish or French.

From a practical standpoint, the majority of speakers of all these languages may be reached with other tongues. French and Italian are fairly current in Greece; Italian and Serbo-Croatian in Albania. Large numbers of Finns are acquainted with Russian, German and Swedish. Estonians, Latvians and Lithuanians are generally acquainted with Russian, German or Polish. Most Hungarians speak German. Celts and Basques can generally be reached with English, French and Spanish. Even in Turkey, the educated classes are generally acquainted with French, English and Italian.
GREEK

From a cultural standpoint, the most important of these minor European tongues is Greek, which has behind it a glorious past of civilization and tremendous contributions made to the world’s progress. From a linguistic standpoint, Greek has made an equally vast contribution to all other civilized languages, whose scientific and literary vocabularies are replete with words borrowed from Greek. The modern Greek language differs far less from the ancient Greek of classical times than modern Italian differs from Latin, so that it is quite possible for one trained in ancient Greek to read modern Greek. Most of the innovations have been in the fields of pronunciation and vocabulary; but while the modern tongue has borrowed considerably from Turkish, Italian and other sources, the bulk of the Greek vocabulary still remains what it was in the days of Homer and Aristotle, and the student of modern Greek finds himself constantly faced with words in current popular use which have given rise to cultural terms in his own tongue (e.g. στράτευμα, pron. strátevma, army; compare “strategy”; ἀριθμό, pron. arithmò, to count; compare “arithmetic”). There is a certain divergence between literary modern Greek, which consciously and proudly adheres to traditional forms, and the colloquial or “Demotic” variety, which introduces foreign (particularly Turkish) words, and displays a relaxation of grammatical standards and a simplification of grammatical forms (e. g. literary ποτήριον οίνου vs. popular ποτήρι κρασί, “glass of wine”).

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Α α</td>
<td>father (ἀνά, pr. aná, “by”, “over”; cf. analyze).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Β β</td>
<td>vase (βλέπω, pr. vlépo, “I see”).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Γ γ</td>
<td>longer, before γ, κ, ξ, χ; (ξυγγόνος, pr. égonos, “grandson”).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
= yes, before ε, η, ι, υ, αι, ει, οι, ωι; (γη, pr. yee, "earth"; cf. geography);
= voiced German ich in all other positions; (γάτα, pr. ghata, "cat").

Δ δ = this, (εδώ, pr. edhó, "here").
Ε ε = met (ἐλα, pr. éla, "come!").
Ζ ζ = zinc (τζώνη, pr. zónee, "belt"; cf. zone).
Η η = me (ήμερα, pr. eeméra, "day").
Θ θ = think (θέλω, pr. théló, "I want").
Ι ι = me (δίδω, pr. dheéðho, "I give").
Κ κ = king (κακός, pr. kakós, "bad"; cf. cacophony).
Λ λ = low (κάλος, pr. kalós, "good"; cf. calisthenics).
Μ μ = moon (μόνος, pr. mónos, "alone"; cf. monosyllabic).
Ν ν = new (νόμος, pr. nómos, "law").
Ξ ξ = fix (ξίω, pr. ékso, "out").
Ο ο = obey (πόλεμος, pr. pólēmos, "war"; cf. polemic).
Π π = pat (πόδι, pr. pódeee, "foot"; cf. tripod).
P ρ = British very (παρά, pr. pará, "than"; cf. parallel).
Σ σ = us (σώμα, pr. sóma, "body"; cf. somatic).
(ζ final)
Τ τ = tall (ποταμός, pr. potamós, "river"; cf. hippopotamus).
Υ υ = very, in diphthongs (αυ, ευ, ηυ), when a vowel or a voiced consonant follows (αυρίων, pr. ávrión, "tomorrow");
= father, in diphthongs (αυ, ευ, ηυ), when an unvoiced consonant follows (αυτός, pr. aftós, "this");
= me, in all other positions (ωνη, pr. éeelé, "material").
Φ φ = father (φωνή, pr. foneé, "voice"; cf. telephone).
Χ χ = German ach, before α, ο, ω, or consonant (χάνω, pr. kháno, "I loose");
= German ich, before ε, η, ι, υ; (χέοι, pr. chéree, "hand"; chiropractor).
Ψ ψ = perhaps (ψυχή, pr. pseecheé, "spirit"; cf. psychology).
Ω ω = obey (ζωή, pr. zoeé, "life"; cf. zoology).

Special Groups:

αι = met (πηγαίνω, pr. peeyéno, "I go").
ει, οι, υι = me (εινε, pr. eeéne, "is"; oinoz, pr. énos, "wine":
= vióz, pr. eeós, "son").
ου = food, (δουνό, pr. voonó, "mountain").
\( \mu \varepsilon = \text{bend or ember (\( \mu \pi \alpha \omega \mu \mu \varepsilon \rho \varepsilon \), pr. barb\'ees, "barber": \( \mu \pi \omicron \mu \alpha \), pron. b\'omba, "bomb")}. \\
\( \nu \tau = \text{do or undo (\( \nu \tau \omicron \nu \nu \), pr. d\'omino, "domino": \( \nu \tau \mu \mu \zeta \), pr. \'endeemos, "honored")}. \\

Special characters, called breathings (\( ' \), \( ' \)), appearing over the initial vowel of a word, have no value in modern Greek (note, however, that the second symbol had the value of \( h \) in the ancient language, and that English words derived from Greek words beginning with a vowel that has this symbol over it appear with an \( h \): \( \upsilon \nu \omicron \zeta \), pr. e\'epnos, "sleep"; cf. hypnotism). Three accents appear in Greek, the acute (\( ' \)), the grave (\( ' \)) and the circumflex (\( \tilde{\nu} \)). All three of them indicate the position of the stress, but there is no difference among them in the modern tongue.\(^1\) A semicolon (\( ; \)) is the Greek equivalent of a question mark: \( \varepsilon \iota \nu \varepsilon \kappa \alpha \zeta \omicron \nu \), is it bad?

**GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.**

**Nouns and Articles.**

Greek has three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter (but inanimate objects are often masculine or feminine): and five cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and vocative. There is no indefinite article, so that \( \alpha \nu \theta \rho \omega \omicron \omicron \zeta \) may mean "man" or "a man". The definite article is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>( \dot{o} )</td>
<td>( \dot{\eta} )</td>
<td>( \dot{t} )</td>
<td>( \dot{\omega} )</td>
<td>( \dot{\alpha} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{o} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\eta} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{t} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\omega} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\alpha} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{o} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\eta} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{t} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\omega} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\alpha} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\omega} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\alpha} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{t} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\omega} )</td>
<td>( \tau \dot{\alpha} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. In the ancient tongue, only a long vowel could bear the circumflex accent; the latter may therefore appear on \( \eta \) and \( \omega \) (invariably long vowels in ancient Greek), but not on \( \epsilon \) and \( \omicron \) (invariably short vowels); in modern Greek there is no difference of length in vowels, all vowel sounds being of medium length and clearly enunciated, whether stressed or unstressed.
There is a large number of declensional schemes, of which the following three are samples:
Masculine: λαός, "people": λα-ός, -οῦ, -ῶ, -όν, -έ; plural: λα-οί, -ῶν, -οίς, -ούς, -οὶ.
Neuter: ἔξολος, "wood": ἔξολ-ον, -οῦ, -φ, -ον, -όν; plural: ἔξολ-α, -ον, -οῖς, -α, -ά.

The nominative case is primarily the case of the subject or of the predicate nominative; the accusative the case of the direct object; the genitive indicates possession. The dative is the case of the indirect object, but there is a tendency in the spoken tongue to replace it by using the preposition εἰς ("to") with the accusative; this preposition tends to lose its initial vowel sound and to combine its final s-sound with a following definite article: δίδω στὸν (for εἰς τὸν) ἀνθρωπον, I give to the man, in substitution for a more literary δίδω τῷ ἀνθρώπῳ.

Adjectives and Adverbs.

Adjectives agree in gender, number and case with the nouns they modify, and follow complex declensional schemes similar to those of the nouns: ὁ σοφός ἀνθρωπός, the wise man; τοῦ σοφοῦ ἀνθρώπου, of the wise man; τῷ σοφῷ ἀνθρώπῳ (colloquial: στὸν σοφὸν ἀνθρώπον), to the wise man; etc.; ἥ σοφή φίλενάδα, the wise girl friend; τῆς σοφῆς φίλενάδας, etc.

The comparative is generally formed by replacing the ending of the positive with -τέρος or -ῶτερος; the superlative by replacing the ending of the positive with -τατος (-τατος); or by prefixing the article to the comparative: σοφός, wise; σοφότερος, wiser; σοφότατος or δοσφότερος, wisest. In colloquial Greek, πειδο and πειδο preceded by the definite article are also used for the comparative and superlative, respectively; πειδο μεγάλος, larger; δοσφό καλός, the best.

The adverb is usually derived from the adjective by changing the ending of the latter to -ος: σοφός, wise; σοφῶς, wisely. A few adjectives change -ος to -α: καλός, good; καλά, well.

Numerals.

“One”, “three” and “four”, their compounds and plural hundreds are declined. The others are invariable.
Pronouns.

Personal.

I, ἐγὼ; me, to me, ἐμένα (μου); we, ἐμεῖς; us, to us, ἐμᾶς (μᾶς).

you, σὺ; you, to you, ἐσένα (σοῦ); plural nom. σεῖς, acc. ἐσάς (σᾶς).

he, she, it, αὐτὸς (τοῦ), αὐτή (τῆς), αὐτό (regularly declined).

(Forms in parentheses are used before a verb as direct or indirect objects; but τὸν, τὴν, τὸ are more commonly used as direct objects).

Possessive (follow a noun or adjective, and are unaccented).

my, mine, μου; our, ours, μας.

your, yours (sg.), σου; (pl.) σας.

his, her, hers, its, their, theirs, τοῦ, τῆς, τῶν.

(my brother, ὁ ἀδελφὸς μου; his father, ὁ πατήρ του).

Interrogative and Relative.

who?, τίς; ποιός;
what?, τί; ποίο;
whom?, τίνα; ποίων;
whose?, of whom?, τίνος;

As a relative pronoun, ποῦ is generally used in all connections: ὁ ἄνθρωπος ποῦ ἠδρα, the man whom I saw.

Verbs.

The Greek verb appears in a complicated scheme of tenses and moods, with a present, an imperfect, several possible future formations, an aorist (or past), a perfect (or present perfect), and a pluperfect; the conditional is treated as a
mood rather than a tense, and appears in four possible forms; there are two forms of the subjunctive, and various forms of the imperative, infinitive and participle. A full-fledged passive appears, formed in most of its tenses by the addition of endings (τιμῶ, I honor; τιμώμαι, I am honored). In a verb such as λῶ, loose, the present indicative assumes the following forms: λῶ-ω, -είς, -ει, -ομεν, -ετε, -ουν. The imperfect is ἔλυνον; the future (I shall be writing) is θα λῶ, or (I shall write, at some specified time), ἃ λυσο; the aorist is ἔλυσα; the perfect ἔγαν λύσει; the pluperfect ἔλχον λύσει.

IDENTIFICATION

In written form, Greek is very easily identified by means of its distinctive alphabet. In spoken form, the distinctive sound of the Greek s, which is almost a sharp hiss, is of help. Distinctive words, similar to English words known to be of Greek origin, frequently appear in speech.

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN GREEK

Διότι τόσον ἢγάπησαν ὁ Θεὸς τὸν κόσμον, ὡστε ἐδωκε τὸν Υἱὸν αὐτοῦ τὸν μονογενῆ, διὰ νὰ μὴ ἀπολεσθῇ πάς ὁ πιστεύων εἰς αὐτόν, ἀλλὰ νὰ ἔχῃ ἥμην αἰώνιον.

WORDS AND PHRASES

good morning, καλὴ ἡμέρα (καλημέρα)
good evening, καλὴ ἑσπέρα (καλησπέρα)
how are you? πῶς εἶσθε; τι κάνετε; very well, πολὺ καλὰ
much better, πολὺ καλίτερα good night, καλὴ νύχτα
please, παρακαλῶ and, καὶ yes, νὰ no, not, ὃι thank you very much, εὐχαριστῶ παρὰ πολὺ
I am very glad, καὶρῶ παρὰ πολὺ
I am hungry, πεινῶ I am thirsty, διψῶ
I am sorry, λυποῦμαι to your health!, εἰς ὑγείαν σας!
where are you going?, ποῦ πάτε;
do you speak Greek?, ὁμιλεῖτε Ἑλληνικά;
very little, πολὺ ὄλιγον
I understand, ἔννοο I have not, δὲν ἔχω
what time is it?, τι ὥρα εἶνε; it is 3 o’clock, εἶνε τρεῖς ὥρα
it is bad weather, εἶνε κακὸς καιρὸς
it is warm, καὶμεῖ ζέστη it is cold, καὶμεῖ κρύο
it is a fine night, εἶνε ὥραι ἀνά νύχτα
give me. δόσετε μοι come here, ἐλατε ἔδω
so long (lit. health to you!), γειά σου.
ALBANIAN

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS — There is little uniformity in the orthography of the various Albanian dialects, of which the principal two are Gheg, spoken in northern Albania, and Tosk, spoken in the south. In a form of standardized orthography adopted by the Albanian Committee in 1908, Roman characters are used, with an alphabet lacking the letter w. The seven vowels are: a, e, ē, i, o, u, y; these have approximately the sound of father, met, French feu, machine, obey, food, and French sur, respectively. Consonants and consonant groups are approximately as in English, with the following modifications: dh = this; gj = hog-yard; j = yes; nj = onion; q = stock-yard. The accent of Albanian usually falls on the next to the last syllable, but there are numerous words in which it falls on the last or third from the last.

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE — Albanian has two genders, masculine and feminine, with traces of a former neuter appearing only in the plural. The indefinite article is një, “a” or “an”: një shtëpi, a house. The definite article is suffixed to the noun: mik, friend, miku, the friend. The case-system of Albanian includes a nominative, a genitive-dative, and an accusative: mik, friend; miku, the friend; mikut, of or to the friend; mikun or miknë, the friend (object).

The adjective is normally not declined, but requires a prefixed form of the article: një njeri i mirë, a good man (lit. a man the good). The adjective often serves as an adverb: unë jam mirë, I am well.

The numerals are as follows: një, dy, tre, katër, pesë, gjashtë, shtatë, tetë, nëntë, dhjetë; një-mbë-dhjetë (11); njëzët (20); një-qint (100); një-mijë (1000).

The verb shows considerable complexity of tenses and moods. The present indicative of a regular verb such as hap, to open, is as follows: hap, hap, hap, hapim, hapni, hapin. The verb “to be” has: jam, je, është, jemi, jini, janë. The verb “to have” has: kam, ke, ka, kemi, kini, kanë.
The interrogative form of the verb is formed by prefixing *a*: *a jam?*, am I?; *a išhin*, are they? The negative is formed by prefixing *s’* or *nuk*: *s’jam*, I am not; *nuk do tël jem*, I shall not be.

The vocabulary of Albanian indicates considerable borrowing from neighboring tongues (Latin, Italian, Greek, Serbo-Croatian, Turkish). “Gold”, for example, is *ar*, and “silver” *ergjënt*; “dog” is *qen*, and “meat” *mish* (Slavic *myaso*); “bad” is *i keq* (Greek *kakós*), along with a more indigenous *i lig*; “body” is *trup* (Slavic); “cup” is *fildxhán* (Turkish *filjan*), or *kupë* (Latin *cuppa*).

**SAMPLE OF WRITTEN ALBANIAN (John 3.16)**

*Sepse Perëndia kaq e deshi botën, sa dha Birin’ e tij tël-vetëmlindurin, që të mos humbasë kushdó që t’i besojë atij, po të ketë jetë tël-përjetëshme.*

**WORDS AND PHRASES**

greetings, hello, *t’u ngjat jeta*
good day, *mirë dita*
good evening, *mirë mbrëma*
good night, *natën e mirë*
good-bye, *lamtumiřë, ditën e mirë*
thank you, *ju falem nderit*
excuse me, *më falni*
please, *ju lutem*
do you understand?, *a më kuptoni?, a mer vesh?*
I don’t understand, *unë s’kuptój, unë nuk kuptój*
do you speak English?, *a flisni inglísht?*
yes, *po*
no, *jo*
how much?, *sá bën?, sá kushtón?*
EUROPEAN LANGUAGES OF THE
URAL-ALTAIC GROUP

Finnish, Hungarian and Turkish form the three westernmost European spearheads of the great Ural-Altaic family of northern and central Asia. Other languages of this group are spoken in northern and eastern Europe (Lapp, Estonian, Livonian, Permian, Mordvinian, Cheremiss, etc.), but they have few speakers and scant cultural or commercial importance.

While a fairly close bond exists between Finnish, Estonian and Livonian, the unity among the other members of the family is more a matter of certain peculiarities in sound and grammatical structure than of vocabulary. Indeed, some linguists reject the fundamental unity of the Ural-Altaic family, and prefer to classify the Finno-Ugric languages separately from the Altaic. Illustrative of the vocabulary differences among the three main European tongues of the group are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Finnish</th>
<th>Hungarian</th>
<th>Turkish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>apple</td>
<td>omena</td>
<td>alma</td>
<td>elma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arm</td>
<td>käsivarsi</td>
<td>kar</td>
<td>kol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fire</td>
<td>tuli</td>
<td>tüz</td>
<td>ateş</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>yksi</td>
<td>egy</td>
<td>bir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>kaksi</td>
<td>kettő</td>
<td>iki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>kolme</td>
<td>három</td>
<td>üç</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>neljä</td>
<td>négy</td>
<td>dört</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td>viisi</td>
<td>öt</td>
<td>beş</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six</td>
<td>kuusi</td>
<td>hat</td>
<td>altı</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>seitsemän</td>
<td>hét</td>
<td>yedi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eight</td>
<td>kahdeksan</td>
<td>nyolc</td>
<td>sekiz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nine</td>
<td>yhdeksän</td>
<td>kilenc</td>
<td>dokuz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ten</td>
<td>kymmenen</td>
<td>tiz</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eleven</td>
<td>yksitoista</td>
<td>tizenegy</td>
<td>on-bir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>kaksitoista</td>
<td>tizenkettő</td>
<td>on-iki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>kaksikymmentä</td>
<td>húsz</td>
<td>yirmi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one hundred</td>
<td>sata</td>
<td>száz</td>
<td>yüz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one thousand</td>
<td>tuhat</td>
<td>ezer</td>
<td>bin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Languages of this group generally agree in using the singular after any numeral: Finnish kolme poikaa, three boys; Hungarian öt fa, five trees).

In the matter of sounds, the languages of this group generally agree in having some measure of "vowel harmony". This means that the vowel sounds are divided into two or three classes (front, pronounced in the front part of the mouth, such as ö or ü; back, pronounced in the back part of the mouth, such as a, o, u; and neutral, pronounced in the middle part of the mouth, such as e); if the root of the word has a "back" vowel, added suffixes must also contain back vowels; if a front vowel appears in the root, the vowel of the suffix must be changed so as to conform; the "middle" or "neutral" vowels, where they exist, may work with either front or back vowels. This in turn means that practically all suffixes appear in double form, with a front or neutral vowel to conform with a front vowel of the root, and with a back or neutral vowel to conform with a back vowel of the root.

In grammatical structure, these languages generally agree in rejecting the concept of gender, and in indicating noun and verb relations by the piling on of suffix upon suffix (the so-called "agglutinative" process), to a far greater degree than is the case in the Indo-European tongues.

The following is a sample of the same Biblical passage (John 3.16) in the three main Ural-Altaic tongues, with a few minor European languages of the group added for purposes of comparison:

Finnish: Sillä niin Jumala on rakastanut maailmaa, että hän antoi ainokaisen Poikansa, jotta kuka ikinä häneen uskoo, se ei hukkuisi, vaan saisi iankaikkisen elämän.

Estonian: Sest nõnda on Jumal maailma armastanud, et tema oma ainusündinud Poja on annud, et ükski, kes tema sisse usub, ei pea hukka saama, waid et igawene elu temal peab olema.
Livonian: Sīepierast ku Jumal um nei māilmō ārmastōn, ku um andōn āinagisyndōn Pūoga, algō amšti, kis uskōbōd tām pāl, milykš ukkō lāgō, aga amadōn volgō igani jelami.

Lapp: Tastko nū rakisti Ibmil mailmi, atti son addi aidnu riegadam Parnis, amas oktage, kutte šudnji osku, kaļutussi šaddat, muttu vai son ožuši agalaš aellim.

Hungarian: Mert úgy szereté Isten e világot, hogy az ō egyetlenegy szülött Fiját adná, hogy minden, valaki hiszen ō benne, el ne veszszen, hanem örök életet vegyen.

Turkish: Zira Allah dünyayı öyle sevdi ki biricik Oğlunu verdi, ta ki ona her iman eden helāk olmayıp ancak ebedi hayata malik olsun.
FINNISH

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS: a, d, e, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, t, u, v(w), y, ä, ö.

Vowels are short unless doubled.

a = hut; aa = father; e = met; ee = first part of late; i = bit; ii = machine; o = obey; oo = first part of hope; u = bull; uu = boot; y = Fr. tu; yy = Fr. sûr; ä = hat; ää = had (prolonged); ö = Fr. feu; öö = Fr. peur. Consonants are approximately as in English; j = yes; h = Germ. ach. All double consonants must be sounded double, as in Italian.

The Finnish stress is always on the first syllable of the word.

By the process of vowel harmony, the vowels are divided into: back (a, o, u); neutral (e, i); front (ä, ö, y). If the first syllable of the word has a back vowel, all other syllables must have back or neutral vowels; if a front vowel appears in the first syllable, the others must have front or neutral vowels. This means two forms to practically all endings; the ablative termination, for example is -ltä or -ltä, the first reserved for words having a, o, u in their roots, the latter for words having ö, ä, y: maa, land; ablative maalta; but työ, work; ablative työltä.

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE.

Finnish has two numbers, but no gender distinction. Fifteen cases appear; nominative (subject); partitive (denoting "some"); genitive-accusative (denoting possession or the direct object); inessive (denoting "in"); elative (denoting "from"); illative (denoting place to which); adessive (denoting place on which, or means by which); ablative (denoting motion "from"); allative (denoting motion towards); abessive (denoting absence of, "without"); prolative (denoting motion along); translative (denoting a change of state); essive (denot-
ing a continued state of being); comitative (denoting accom-
paniment, "with"); instructive (denoting means by which).
Each case has its own ending, which is the same in the singular
and in the plural. The latter is formed in the nominative by
adding -t to the root, but in all other cases by adding -i to the
root, then adding the same ending as in the corresponding
cases in the singular; thus puu, "tree", has a nominative plural
puut, but in all other plural cases puî-, followed by the ending
of the particular case; while the ablative singular is puu-lta,
the ablative plural is puî-lta. The complete declension of puu,
is as follows, with the cases appearing in the order outlined
above:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>puu</td>
<td>puut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>puu-lta</td>
<td>puu-lta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>puu-ka</td>
<td>puut-ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>puu-ka</td>
<td>puut-ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocative</td>
<td>puu</td>
<td>puut</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Finnish adjective is completely declined, by a process
similar to that of the noun. The comparative stem is formed
by adding -mpa (-mpä) to the positive; the superlative stem
by adding -impa (-impä); huono, bad; huonompa-, worse;
huonoimpa-, worst. These comparatives and superlatives are
fully declined, as are also the numerals (see p. 429).

The personal pronouns, also fully declined, are: minä, I;
me, we; sinä, you (singular); te, you (plural); hän, he,
she, it; he, they.

The possessive is usually expressed by suffixes added to
the inflected noun; these suffixes are: -ni, my, mine; -mme,
our, ours; -si, your, yours; -nne, your, yours (pl.); -nsa (-nsä),
his, her, its, their; e. g. puu, tree; partitive plural puîta, of the
trees; puitamme, of our trees.

Demonstratives are tämä (pl. nämät, näitä, etc.; fully
inflected), this, these; tuo (pl. nuot, noita, etc.), that, those;
se (partitive sitä; plural ne, niitä, etc.), that, those.

Interrogatives are kuka and ken, "who?", mikä, "what?",
and kumpi, "which?". The chief relative is joka, who, which,
that; all are fully inflected.
The Finnish verb has several moods and tenses, with a passive which is used only impersonally, and a negative conjugation which differs completely from the affirmative (saavat, they receive; but eivät saa, they-do-not receive). The personal endings are usually as follows: -n, -t, -, -mme, -tte, -vat (-vät). Saa, to receive, has, in the present indicative: saan, saat, saa, saamme, saatte, saavat; with a negative: en saa, et saa, ei saa. emme saa, ette saa, eivät saa.

IDENTIFICATION

Finnish is identified in written form by its double vowels and double consonants, by its umlauted vowels ü and ö, by its frequent -en endings, and by the absence of certain letters (b, c, f, q, x, z).

SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS

good morning, hyvää huomenta
how are you?, kuinka voitte?
very well, thank you, vallan hyvin, kiitoksia kysymästä
good bye, hyvästi
do you understand me?, ymmärrättekö minua?
what did you say?, mitä te sanoitte?
what do you want?, mitä te tahdotte?
I beg your pardon, minä pyydän anteeksi
excuse me, suokaa anteeksi
don’t mention it, ei ansaitse
never mind, se ei tee mitään
I am glad, se ilahduttaa minua
I am sorry, se pahoittaa minua
can you tell me?, voitteko sanoa minulle?
no, ei
yes, kyllä
now, nyt
at once, heti (soon, pian)
always, aina
enough, riittää
yet, vielä
the weather is fine, *ilma on kaunis*

it is very cold, *on kovin kylmä*

what time is it?, *mitä kello on?*

it is five o'clock, *kello on viisi*

thank you, *kiitoksia*

which is the shortest way, *mikä on lyhin tie?*

go straight, *suoraan eteenpäin*

to the right, *oikeaan*

to the left, *vasempaan*

please, *olkaa hyvä*

good day, *hyvää päivää*

good evening, *hyvää iltaa*

good night, *hyvää yöä*

I don't understand, *en ymmärrä*

how much?, *kuinka paljon?*

it's too much, *se on liikaa*

which is the way to — ?, *mitä tietä pääsen — ?*

where is — ?, *missä on — ?*

bring me, *tuokaa*

your health!, *terveydeksenne!*

I should like, *tahtoisin (I want, tahdon)*

this way, *tätä tietä*

speak more slowly, *puhukaa vähän hitaanmin*

do you speak English?, *puhutteko englantia?*

all right, *hyvä on*

I am ill, *olen sairas*

stop!, *seis!*

hurry!, *kiirehtikää!*

careful!, *varokaa!*

listen!, *kuulkaa!*

keep to the right, *oikealle*

entrance, *sisäänkäytävä*

exit, *uloskäytävä*

perhaps, *ehkä*

never, *ei koskaan*
HUNGARIAN

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS — a, á, b, c, d, e, é, f, g, h, i, í, j, k, l, m, n, o, ó, ö, ŏ, p, r, s, t, u, ú, ű, ű, v, x, y, z, cs, cz (tz), ds (dzs), gy, ly, ny, sz, ty, zs.

Vowels bearing the accent mark are long; other vowels are short.
a = not; á = father; e = met; é = fate; i = pin; í = machine; o = obey; ó = go; ö = Fr. feu; ŏ = Fr. peur; u = bull; ú = food; ű = Fr. tu; ű = Fr. sûr.
c, cz, tz = its; g = good; s = sure; cs = church; ds, dzs = gin; gy = did you; ly = million, or, more commonly, yard; ny = onion; sz = so; ty = hit you; zs = measure.

Double consonants must be pronounced double, as in Italian. Long vowels must be pronounced long, even though unstressed. The Hungarian stress is always on the first syllable of the word. Accent marks do not indicate stress, but vowel-length.

For purposes of vowel-harmony, a, á, o, ó, u, ú, are considered back vowels; é, i, í neutral; and e, ö, ŏ, ű, ű front. The vowel of the root determines the nature of the vowel of the suffix: ház, house; ház-ban, in the house; but kert, garden; kert-ben, in the garden.

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE.

Hungarian has two numbers and no concept of gender. Unlike Finnish and Turkish, however, Hungarian has both a definite and an indefinite article; the former is a (before consonants), az (before vowels), for all nouns, singular or plural: a ház, the house; a házak, the houses. The indefinite article is egy, which also means “one”.

The plural is generally formed by the suffix -k, preceded by various vowels (-ak, -ok, -ek, -ök). Officially, Hungarian has four “cases”, nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative; in reality, since all ideas of place where, to which, from which, etc. are indicated not by prepositions, but by suffixes, or postpositions, the actual number of possible case-forms in Hunga-
rian equals or surpasses that of Finnish; as in Finnish, these case-endings or postpositions are added on to the plural suffix: a ház, the house; a ház-ak, the houses; a ház-ak-nak, to the houses; a ház-ak-ban, in the houses; a ház-ak-ból, from the houses; etc.

The adjective is invariable, unless used predicatively, in which case it takes the plural suffix, but no case-suffix: a nagy asztal-ok, the large tables; az asztalok nagyok, the tables are large. The comparative is formed by the suffix -bb (-abb, -ebb), added to the positive; the superlative by prefixing leg- to the comparative: jó, good; jobb, better; lejjebb, best.

Personal pronouns are as follows: én, I; nekem, to me; engem, me; mi, we; nekünk, to us; minket, us; te, you (sg.); neked, to you; téged, you (acc.); ti, you (pl.); nektek, to you; titeket, you (acc.); ő, he or she; neki, to him or her; őt, him, her; Ők, they; nekik, to them; Őket, them.


The chief demonstratives (used with the article when they are adjectives) are ez (pronoun: emez), this, and az (pronoun: amaz) that: ez az ember, this man; az az ember, that man; ezek az emberek, these men.

Interrogative pronouns are: ki, who?; mely, which?, what?; melyik, which?; mi, what? These are turned into relatives by prefixing a: aki, who; amely, which, that, etc.

The Hungarian verb appears in numerous tenses and moods, with the object pronoun normally incorporated in the verb: thus, verni, to beat, has the following present indicative if no definite object pronoun is implied: verek, versz, ver, verünk, vertek, vernek, I beat, you beat, etc.; but if the meaning is “I beat it”, “you beat it”, etc., the forms become: verem, vered, veri, verjük, veritek, verik. Furthermore, the Hungarian verb may assume a variety of aspects: ir, he writes; irat, he causes to write; irogat, he writes (repeatedly); irkál, he scrib-
bles, plays at writing; irhat, he may write, etc. The negative is formed by prefixing nem, not, to the verb: nem ir, he does not write.

IDENTIFICATION

Hungarian is readily identified in written form by its long and short umlauted vowels (ö, Ő, ü, ű), and, to a lesser degree, by certain consonant groups (cs, gy, zs, dzs). In spoken form, stress on the first syllable, together with long vowels further on in the word, and the abundance of middle vowel sounds (ö, ü), as well as the frequent endings in -ak, -ok, -unk, -ek, -ik, and the relative length of Hungarian words, caused by the piling on of suffixes, give clues to the nature of the language.

SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS

please, legyen szíves, kérem; thank you, köszönöm
you’re welcome, szívesen; kérem szépen
don’t mention it, szívesen; nincs mit; nem jelent semmit;
  nem baj
yes, igen; no, nem
excuse me, bocsánat, bocsánatot kérek, bocsásszon meg
give me, adjon kérem
tell me, mondja kérem
do you speak Hungarian?, beszél ön magyarúl?
a little, egy keveset
what is the matter?, mi a baj?, mi történt?; nothing. semmi
pleased to meet you, örvendek
I am sorry, sajnálom; I am glad. örülök
how are you?, hogyan érzi magát?, hogy van?
very well, thanks, and you?, köszönöm, nagyon jól, és ön?
I am ill, beteg vagyok
good morning, jó reggelt
good afternoon, jó napot
good evening, jó estét
good night, jó éjszakát
good-bye, viszontlátásra, Isten vele
how much is it?, mennyibe kerül?
that is too much, az drága, tul drága
it is late, késő van
what time is it?, hány óra van?
it is ten o’clock, tiz óra van
what a beautiful day!, milyen gyönyörű nap!
perhaps, talán
here is, (here are), itt van (itt vannak)
there is, (there are), ott van (ott vannak)
how do I go to...?, hogy juthatok.....re(ra)?
straight ahead, egyenesen előre
to the right, jobbra; to the left, balra
why?, miért?
when?, mikor?
where?, hol? (where is?, hol van?)
because, mert
today, ma
yesterday, tegnap
tomorrow, holnap
I’m hungry, éhes vagyok
I’m thirsty, szomjas vagyok
I’m cold, fázom; it’s cold, hideg van
it’s warm, meleg van; I’m warm, melegem van
what is your name?, mi az ön neve?
certainly, persze
show me, mutassa nekem
do you understand?, érti ön?
I don’t understand, nem értem
do you know?, tudja ön?
I don’t know, nem tudom
very little, nagyon kevés, nagyon keveset
what do you want?, mit kíván ön?; mit parancsol?; mi tetszik?
too bad!, kár; igazán sajnos; igazán sajnálom
it’s fine weather, szép idő
your health!, egészségére!
TURKISH

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS — a, b, c, ç, d, e, f, g, ğ, h, i, ı, j, k, l, m, n, o, ö, p, r, s, ş, t, u, ü, v, y, z.¹

a = father; e = met or hand; i = machine; ı = Russian И; o = obey; ö = Fr. feu; u = food; ü = Fr. mur; c = John; ç = church; g = good; ğ is the voiced counterpart of the unvoiced German ach; h = hot or German ach; j = measure; s = son; ş = sure; y = yes.

A circumflex accent is occasionally used on a vowel, usually to indicate palatalization of a preceding k or g (in Arabic and Persian loan-words): kâmil, pron. kjamil, “complete”. The stress of Turkish is usually on the last syllable of the word.

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE

Turkish has no article, definite or indefinite, and no concept of gender. For purposes of vowel-harmony, a, o, ı, u are considered back vowels; e, i, ö, ü front vowels.

The plural suffix is -lar if the preceding syllable contains a back vowel, -ler if it contains a front vowel; baba, father; babalar, fathers; gün, day; günler, days. Officially, Turkish has six “cases” (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative, locative); but since postpositions, instead of prepositions, are used to indicate all sorts of relations (up to, with, on, without, instead of, about, etc.), and since many of these are added on to the noun in the plural as well as in the singular, it may almost be said that Turkish has as many separate cases as it has postpositions. Like Finnish and Hungarian, Turkish has identical suffixes in the singular and in the plural for its six official cases: -n preceded by whatever vowel may be required by vowel harmony is fairly universal in the genitive of both numbers;

¹. This is the modern romanized Turkish alphabet, devised by Mustafa Kemal in 1928; before his time, Turkish was written in a modified version of the Arabic alphabet.
the dative has -a or -e, according to the nature of the root-vowel; the accusative usually ends in i, i, u, ü; while -dan or -den is universal in the ablative, and -da or -de in the locative. A typical Turkish noun, dil, language, has the following scheme: Singular: dil, -in, -e, -i, -den, -de. Plural: dil-ler, -ler-in, -ler-e, -ler-i, -ler-den, -ler-de. The adjective is completely indeclinable: güzel at, a fine horse, güzel atlar, fine horses; güzel atlara, to the fine horses. The comparative is formed by placing daha, the superlative by placing en, before the positive: güzel, fine; daha güzel, finer; en güzel, finest. Personal pronouns, which are declined by the same system of endings as nouns, are: ben, I; biz, we; sen, you (fam. sg.); siz, you (pl.); o, he, she, it; onlar, they. The possessive is indicated, as customary in Ural-Altaic languages, by a suffix: baba, father; babam, my father; baban, thy father; babası, his (her) father; babamız, our father; babanız, your father; babaları, their father. These forms are then completely declined (babam, my father; babamin, of my father; babama, to my father; babalarım, my fathers; babalarımın, of my fathers; babalarıma, to my fathers, etc.). The chief demonstrative pronoun is bu (bunun, buna, bunu, etc.), this, that, these, those. The chief relative is ki, who, which, that; the chief interrogatives are kim, who?; ne, what?; hangi, which? The Turkish verb has an infinitive ending in -mek or -mak. The passive is formed by means of the suffix -l, the negative by means of -ma- or -me- (sevmek, to love; sevmek, to be loved; sevmemek, not to love; sevilmemek, not to be loved). Reciprocal, causative, reflexive, and many other forms of conjugations appear, including the "impossible" one (sevmemek, to be unable to love). Numerous tenses and other forms appear, corresponding roughly to the various tenses, and to the indicatives, optatives and subjunctives of the Indo-European languages. A typical "present", that of sevmek, runs as follows: sev-erim, -ersin, -er, -eriz, -ersiniz, -ler.
IDENTIFICATION

Turkish, in its modern written form, may be identified by its two distinctive characters, ı and ş. The characteristic plural in -lar and -ler, and ablatives in -dan, -den are also useful.

SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS

good morning, good afternoon, günaydın
good evening, günaydın

good night, geceniz hayir olsun, allah rahatlık versin

how are you?, nasılsınız?; certainly, elbet, tabii, şüpesiz

well, thank you, iyiim, teşekkür ederim

please, lütfen; you’re welcome, bir şey değil

here is, here are, İşte burada (here is the book — İşte kitap burada); there is, there are, vardır

where is?, nerededir?; what is the matter?, ne var?

how do I go to İstanbul?, istanbul’a nasıl giderim?

yes, evet; no, hayır, yok

how much is it?, kaç? fiyatı kaç?

why?, niğin? neden?; when?, ne zaman?; where, nerede?

today, bugün; yesterday, dün; tomorrow, yarın

to the right, sağa; to the left, sola

straight ahead, doğru, doğru

what time is it?, saat kaçtı?; it is 6 o’clock, saat altındır

I’m hungry, açım, acıktım, Karnım aç

I’m thirsty, susadım; I’m ill, hastayım

do you speak Turkish?, Türkçe konuşmuşunuz?

a little, biraz; very little, çok az, pek az

tell me, bana söleyiniz; show me, bana gösteriniz

do you understand?, anlıyormusunuz?

I don’t understand, anlamıyorum

do you know?, biliyormusunuz?; I don’t know, bilmiyorum

excuse me, afedersiniz; don’t mention it, birşey değil

what do you want?, ne istiyorsunuz?; never mind, zarar yok

too bad!, çok fena, çok yazık; I’m sorry, müteesirim

give me, bana veriniz; I want, istiyorum

good bye, allaha ışmarladık; (reply) güle güle
THE BALTIc LANGUAGES — LITHUANIAN, LETTISH

From a practical standpoint, these tongues are of little importance, being spoken by about 3,000,000 and 2,000,000 people, respectively. They are often linked to the Slavic tongues, from which, however, they diverge to a considerable degree. Their relationship to each other and to the languages of the Slavic group may be inferred from the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Lithuanian</th>
<th>Lettish</th>
<th>(Russian)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>brólis</td>
<td>brālis</td>
<td>(brat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>house</td>
<td>nāmas</td>
<td>nams</td>
<td>(dom)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>mótna</td>
<td>māte</td>
<td>(mat’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>tēvas</td>
<td>tēvs</td>
<td>(otēts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
<td>žuvis</td>
<td>zivs</td>
<td>(rýba)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heart</td>
<td>širdis</td>
<td>sirds</td>
<td>(sérdtse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land</td>
<td>žēnē</td>
<td>zeme</td>
<td>(zemlyā)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fire</td>
<td>ugnis</td>
<td>uguns</td>
<td>(ogón’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>výras</td>
<td>vīrs</td>
<td>(mužčina)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>vienas</td>
<td>viens</td>
<td>(odīn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>dū</td>
<td>divi</td>
<td>(dva)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>trīs</td>
<td>trīs</td>
<td>(tri)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>keturī</td>
<td>četri</td>
<td>(četýre)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td>penkī</td>
<td>pieci</td>
<td>(pyat’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six</td>
<td>šešī</td>
<td>sešī</td>
<td>(šest’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>septynī</td>
<td>septini</td>
<td>(sem’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eight</td>
<td>aštuonī</td>
<td>astonī</td>
<td>(vósem’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nine</td>
<td>devynī</td>
<td>devini</td>
<td>(dēvyat’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ten</td>
<td>dēšimt</td>
<td>desmit</td>
<td>(dēsyat’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eleven</td>
<td>vienuolika</td>
<td>vienpadsm</td>
<td>(odinnadtsat’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>dvįlika</td>
<td>divpadsmit</td>
<td>(dvěnádtсаt’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>dvidešimt</td>
<td>divdesmit</td>
<td>(dvádtsat’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hundred</td>
<td>šimtas</td>
<td>simts</td>
<td>(sto)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both languages are heavily inflected, with a declensional system for nouns which in Lettish includes nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and locative, and which in Lithuanian in-
cludes the same five cases with the addition of vocative and instrumental. A sample of the declensional system of the two languages is as follows:

Lithuanian: širdis, heart: Singular: Nom. širdis; Gen. širdiēs; Dat. širdžiai; Acc. širdį; Voc. širdiē; Instr. širdimi; Loc. širdyjė; Plural: Nom. & Voc. širdys; Gen. širdžių; Dat. širdims; Acc. širdis; Instr. širdimis; Loc. širdysė.

Lettish: sirds, heart: Singular: Nom. sirds; Gen. sirds; Dat. sirdij; Acc. sirdi; Loc. sirdī; Plural: Nom. sirdis; Gen. siržu; Dat. sirdim; Acc. sirdis; Loc. sirdis.

The verb system is fully developed in both languages, with a wealth of tenses and moods, and copious participles, gerunds, and other verbal forms.

IDENTIFICATION

Distinctive of Lithuanian are the following characters: ą, ģ, ė, ė, ė, š, ū, ū, ź, in addition to the letters of the English alphabet outside of q, w. Lithuanian uses three accent marks to indicate an accentuation which is not merely stress, but also intonation: the grave accent (') is used only over short vowels; the acute ('') indicates a long vowel with a falling tone of the voice; the circumflex (") indicates a long vowel with a rising tone of the voice. If a short vowel is followed in the same syllable by n, m, l or r, it is customary for the consonant to bear the circumflex accent: dviem pūštam, with two fingers. While these accent marks do not usually appear in the written language, they are fully characteristic; so are the four vowels with the hook beneath, indicating a former nasalization which today no longer exists (ą, ģ, ė, ū; Polish has only two such symbols: ą, ę).

Distinctive of Lettish is the fact that four vowels, if long, bear the mark of length (ā, ė, ė, ū). The following symbols appear: č, dz dž, ģ, k, l, ņ, ņ, š, ž. The spoken accent of Lettish is invariably on the first syllable of the word, unlike that of Lithuanian, which may fall anywhere.
SAMPLES OF THE WRITTEN LANGUAGES

Lithuanian (without accent marks): Taip Dievas mylejo pasauli, kad savo viengimusij sunu davete, kad visi ji tikintieji nepraztu, bet turetu amzinaji gyvenima.

Lettish: Juo tik luoti Dievs pasauli miljesis, ka viNs savu vienpiedzimuNuo delu devis, lai neviens, kas vinam tie, nepazustu, bet dabatu mUztgu dzivibu.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Lithuanian</th>
<th>Lettish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good day, miss</td>
<td>labt dien, panele</td>
<td>labdien, jaunkundz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good morning</td>
<td>labas rytas</td>
<td>labrit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good evening</td>
<td>labas vakaras</td>
<td>labvakar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good night</td>
<td>labankantis</td>
<td>ar labunakti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good-bye</td>
<td>sus Diev</td>
<td>ar Dievu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>please</td>
<td>prasa</td>
<td>luzu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thank you</td>
<td>achiu labai</td>
<td>pateicos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>don't mention it</td>
<td>ners uzh qa</td>
<td>nav par ko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excuse me</td>
<td>dovanokite,</td>
<td>luzu atvainot, loti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aLspraasu</td>
<td>atvainojos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes, sir</td>
<td>taip, Tamsta</td>
<td>ja, kungs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no, madam</td>
<td>ne, ponia</td>
<td>ne, kundze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how much?</td>
<td>kiek?</td>
<td>cik?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it's too much</td>
<td>tai per daug</td>
<td>tas ir par daudz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give me</td>
<td>dukit man</td>
<td>dodat man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring me</td>
<td>atneskt</td>
<td>atnesat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do you understand?</td>
<td>ar Tamsta supranti?</td>
<td>vai Jus saprotiet?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't understand?</td>
<td>nesuprantu</td>
<td>es nesaprotu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do you speak English?</td>
<td>ar Tamsta kalbi</td>
<td>vai runajiet anglu?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all right</td>
<td>angliikai?</td>
<td>labi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which is the way to</td>
<td>gera</td>
<td>ka es varu noklut uz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where is — ?</td>
<td>kuris keliais —?</td>
<td>kur ir —?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak more slowly</td>
<td>kur —?</td>
<td>runajiet lenak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careful!</td>
<td>kalbekit leciau</td>
<td>uzmanaties!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE CELTIC LANGUAGES

These consist of Irish, the official language of Eire, with its approximately 3,000,000 inhabitants, most of whom, however, speak English as well; Scottish Gaelic, spoken by perhaps a hundred thousand people in the Highland region of Scotland; Manx, the dialect of the Isle of Man; Welsh, spoken by perhaps 1,000,000 people in Wales, who also normally speak English; and Breton, spoken in French Brittany by probably not more than 1,000,000 people most of whom also speak French. Cornish, the former Celtic tongue of Cornwall, is extinct.

While these tongues all belong to the Celtic division of Indo-European, Irish, Gaelic and Manx form part of the Goidelic group of Celtic, while Welsh, Breton, and Cornish belong to the Brythonic group. The divergences between Irish and Scottish Gaelic are less pronounced; those between Welsh and Breton more striking. In all the Celtic languages, without exception, the student is faced with exceedingly intricate rules of pronunciation, which in the Goidelic group are complicated by an orthography which is archaic and no longer corresponds to the actual pronunciation. Goidelic consonants frequently assume a double sound (described as "broad" and "slender"), according to the nature of the following vowel; all this means is that before the front vowels, e, i, there is a tendency for the consonant to assume a palatalized sound (Irish cailín, girl, pronounced kolyin). But in addition to this, the Celtic tongues often undergo aspiration or mutation ("eclipse" or "lenition") of initial consonants in accordance with the final sound of the preceding word (Scots Gaelic tarbh géal, white bull, but bó gheal, white cow; teine, fire, but ar dyeine, pronounced ar deine, our fire; Irish fuil, blood, but ar bhfuil, pronounced ar wil, our blood; Welsh pen, head, but fy mhen, my head; Breton kalon, heart, but me halon, my heart, é galon, his heart; these are only a few easy examples of an extremely complicated system).

The Celtic languages share with the Romance group the feature of having only two genders, masculine and feminine,
and of having the adjective more frequently after than before the noun. But while Irish and Scots Gaelic have four distinct cases (nominative, genitive, dative, vocative), Welsh and Breton have practically reduced the noun to a single case. The verb system is elaborate, with abundant tenses and moods. The Brythonic tongues favor accentuation on the next to the last syllable, save for one dialect of Breton, which prefers final accentuation. The Irish accent is initial.

The relationship of the three major Celtic tongues to one another and to the other languages of the Indo-European family may be inferred from the following list of common words, and from the translations of John 3.16 which follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Irish</th>
<th>Welsh</th>
<th>Breton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arm</td>
<td>brac</td>
<td>braich</td>
<td>bréac’h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>móir</td>
<td>mawr</td>
<td>meûr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>dubh</td>
<td>du</td>
<td>dû</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>bráthair</td>
<td>brawd</td>
<td>breûr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family</td>
<td>teaghlach</td>
<td>teulu</td>
<td>tiégez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fire</td>
<td>teine</td>
<td>tân</td>
<td>tân</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friend</td>
<td>cara</td>
<td>câr</td>
<td>kâr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>full</td>
<td>lán</td>
<td>llawn</td>
<td>leûn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>aon</td>
<td>un</td>
<td>un, an, eunn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>dó (or dá-)</td>
<td>dau</td>
<td>daou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>trí</td>
<td>trí</td>
<td>trî</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>ceathair</td>
<td>pedwar</td>
<td>pédér</td>
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<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td>cúig</td>
<td>pump</td>
<td>pemp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six</td>
<td>sé</td>
<td>chwêch</td>
<td>c’houéac’h</td>
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<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>seacht</td>
<td>saith</td>
<td>seic’h (seiz)</td>
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<tr>
<td>eight</td>
<td>ocht</td>
<td>òwyth</td>
<td>eiz</td>
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<tr>
<td>nine</td>
<td>nai</td>
<td>nàw</td>
<td>naô</td>
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<tr>
<td>ten</td>
<td>deich</td>
<td>dèg</td>
<td>dèg (dèk)</td>
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<tr>
<td>eleven</td>
<td>aondéag</td>
<td>un-ar-ddeg</td>
<td>unnék</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>dódhéag</td>
<td>deuddeg</td>
<td>deuzek</td>
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<tr>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>fiche</td>
<td>ugain</td>
<td>ugent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eighty</td>
<td>ceithre fichid</td>
<td>pedwar ugain</td>
<td>péder ugent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hundred</td>
<td>céad</td>
<td>cant</td>
<td>kaînt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irish (in transcription): òir do ghrádhuigh Dia an saoghal chómh mór sin, go dtug sé a Aon-Mhac féin, ionnas, gach duine creidfeadh ann, nach gcaillfidhe é, acht go mbéadh an bheatha shiórraidhe aige.

Scots Gaelic: Oir is ann mar sin a ghràdhaich Dia an saoghal, gu'n d’thug e 'aon-ghin Mhic féin, chum as ge b’e neach a chreideas ann, nach sgriosar e, ach gu’m bi a'bheatha shiórruidh aige.

Manx: Son lheid y ghraih shen hug Jee da’n theihill, dy dug eh e ynrycan Vac v'ær ny gheddyn, nagh jinnagh quoi-erbee chredjagh aynsyn cherraghtyn, agh yn vea ta dy bragh farraghtyn y chosney.

Welsh: Canys felly y carodd Duw y byd fel y rhoddodd efe ei unig-anedig Fab, fel na choller pwy bynnag a gredo ynddo ef, ond caffael ohono fywyd tragwyddol.

Breton: Rag Doue hen deuz karet kement ar bed, ma hen deuz roet he Vab-unik, abalamour da biou benag a gredo ennhan na vezo ket kollet, mes ma hen devezo ar vuez eternel.

**SAMPLE OF PRINTED IRISH**

Óir vo śnáidir Dia an raoşal cóm móir pin, 50 ucug ré a Aon-Mac féin, ionnar, gad vume dereo-feadh ann, naç gcaillfréde é, acu 50 mbéad an beata riopparde aige. Óir ni cum beintearnar vo tabairt an an raoşal vo cumh Dia a Mac uair; acu cum 50 raoşparde an raoşal crio. An cè dereoear ann ni tüsçar beirt ari : an nè nàc genoro-eann aig beirt tabairt aig ñeana féin, coirc nàp diero ré i n-ann Aon-Mic Ò. Agur ir i peo an beirt, 50 údairg an polar aig an raoşal, agur guair annra leir na vaoimh an vorcact 'nà an polar; coirc a ngniomanta beirt 50 n-oic. Óir gad vume cleactar an t-oic bionn fuat aige vo'n trolar, agur ni cìg ré cum an trolar, an eagla 50 noccoarde a ngniomanta.

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
IRISH

ALPHABET — a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, t, u.

An accent mark over a vowel indicates length: móir, big. A dot over a consonant indicates aspiration; this aspiration never corresponds to the sound of the original consonant followed by h; an aspirated t, for example, has the sound of ordinary h: teine, fire; but mo theine (pronounced mo heine), my fire; an aspirated m, due to the loss of the nasal, has the sound of v: mo mháthair (pronounced mo vaher, my mother). The difficulties of Irish pronunciation, with its aspirated and eclipsed consonants and broad and slender vowels, are illustrated by the Lord’s Prayer, with a guide to pronunciation:

Ar n-Athair, atá ar neamh, (go) naomhthar t’ainm;
(Ar nahir, etah er nav, gu naev-har th-an-am;)
(go)tigidh do riogacht;
(gu dig-ee.dhu riachth;)
(go) n déantar do thoil ar an talamh mar do-ghnithear ar
neamh.
(gu naenthar dhu hel er an tholav mor nihar er nav.)
Tabhair dhúinn a niugh ar n-arán laetheamhail,
(Thouar ghoon inyoo ar naraun laehooil)
agus maith dhúinn ar bh-fiacha
(agus mah ghoon or viacha)
mar mhaithmid-ne dar bh-féicheamhnaibh féin;
(mor wahamid dhar vaehooniv faen;)
agus na léig sinn a gathughadh,
(ogus nau laeg shin a gohoo)
áchd saor sinn ó olc. Amen.
(ochth saer shinn o ulk. Omaen.)

GRAMMATICAL NOTES — The definite article in Irish is an in the singular, na in the plural. The plural of nouns is often formed by the addition of -a, -ta, -e. Four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, vocative) are still in use.
WELSH

ALPHABET — a, b, c, ch, d, dd, e, f, ff, g, ng, h, i, l, ll, m, n, o, p, ph, r, rh, s, t, th, u, w, y.

Vowels may be long or short. Welsh u = busy or me; w = good or boon; y = fur or curl; both u and y often = Fr. u. Among the consonants, c = cat; ch = German ach; dd = this; f = eve; ff = fire; = go; ll = emphatic l; rh = aspirated r; s = so.

The accent of Welsh is generally on the next to the last syllable.

GRAMMATICAL NOTES — There is no indefinite article. The definite article is yr before vowels, y before consonants, for both genders and both numbers. The most common plural endings are -au, -on, -aid, -ydd. There are no cases in Welsh.

SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS

please, os gwelwch yn dda (lit., if it seems good to you)
thank you, diolch i chwi(chi); diolch
you’re welcome, croeso i chi
yes, ie, do, oes
no, na, nage, nac oes
excuse me, esgusodwch fi
do you understand?, a ddeallwch chwi?, a ydych yn deall?
I don’t understand, ni ddeallaf, nid wyf yn deall
do you speak Welsh?, a siaredwch Gymraeg?, a ydych yn siarad Gymraeg?
a little, ychydig
tell me, dywedwch imi
give me, rhoddwch imi, rhowch imi
too bad!, rhy ddrwg!, gresyn!
how much?, faint?
how are you?, sut hwyl?, shwd y’ch chi?, sut ‘dach chi?
very well, da iawn, o’r goreu
I am ill, yr wyf yn sal, nid wyf yn dda
good morning, bore da
good day, dydd da
good afternoon, prynhawn da, p’nawn da
good evening, dywetydd da
good night, nos da; nos dawch
what time is it?, beth yw’r amser?; faint o’r gloch yw hi?
it is five o’clock, y mae hi’n bump o’r gloch, pump o’r gloch yw hi

BRETON

ALPHABET — a, b, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, ñ, o, p, r, s, t, u, ù, v, z, ch. The sounds are generally as in French (e. g. j = measure). But g = go; ñ = nasal sound of n; s = so; ù = sound intermediate between u and v.
The Breton accent is usually on the last syllable.

GRAMMATICAL NOTES — The definite article is en, (in Vannes; ar in other dialects), for both numbers and genders. The most common plural endings are -ez, -en, -el. There are no cases in Breton.

IDENTIFICATION OF THE CELTIC LANGUAGES.

Irish is very easily identified by its distinctive alphabet. Welsh is identified by its use of w and y as vowels and by some of its consonant groups (ch, ll, dd). Breton may be distinguished from its sister Celtic tongues by its frequent -ek ending, and by the fact that its aspirated consonants are not marked in writing by such combinations as mh, bh, th, etc.
BASQUE

This mysterious language of northeastern Spain and southwestern France, totally unrelated to any other European tongue, appears in several dialects, spoken by perhaps 1,000,000 people on both sides of the Pyrenees.

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS — There is a standardized alphabet for Spanish Basque, now used also by the French Basques. Roman characters are used, with the five vowels pronounced approximately as in Spanish (the Soule French Basques have a tendency to give u its French value); g = go; z = so; tx = church; j = harsh guttural h in Spain, yes in France; k = cat; h is generally silent in Spain, pronounced like hot in France. The Basque accent is extremely indefinite, and best described as evenly distributed on all syllables of the word.

GRAMMATICAL NOTES.

The definite article of Basque is a, suffixated to the noun: etxe, house; etxea, the house. Suffixes indicating case-relations are added on to the noun with its article: gizon, man; gizona, the man; gizonagandik, for the man.

The concept of gender is wanting in Basque. The plural number is generally indicated by the suffix -k: gizonak, the men.

Case relations are indicated by a large variety of suffixes, which are added on to the noun, forming a single word with it: zaldia, the horse; zaldiaren, of the horse; zaldika, on horseback; gizonakaz, with the men; etxeetan, in the houses.

The adjective is invariable, and follows the noun: gizon eder bat, a fine man (lit. man fine a). The comparative is formed by the suffix -go plus the preposition baño, the superlative by the genitive plural ending -en followed by the article -a; handia, great; zu handiago baño (zu baño handiago), greater than you; handiena, greatest.
The Basque numerals from one to thirteen are as follows: bat, bi, hirur, laur, bortz, sei, zazpi, zortzi, bederatzi, hamar, hamaika, hamabi, hamahirur. “Twenty” is hogeit, “thirty” hogeit ta hamar, “forty” berrogei, “hundred” ehun.

The Basque verb, despite the fact that it has only two true tenses, present and past, is somewhat complicated by reason of the fact that it incorporates both subject and object pronoun: thus, ekarri, to bear, present d-akar-t, I bear it (lit. it bear I), d-akar-k, you bear it; n-akar-zu, you bear me.

A sample of Basque syntax will appear from the following literal translation of Luke 1.62 (“Then they made signs to his father how he would have him called”):

Ordun keinu egin ziezoten haren aitari,
Then sign making they were of him to the father,
nola nahi luen hura dei ledin.
how wish he would have he named he should be.

Two additional samples of Basque, one from the Spanish side of the Pyrenees (Guipuzcoa), the other from the French side (Labourdin) illustrate the nature of the language: (John 3.16):

Guipuzcoan: Zergatik aĩn maite izan du Jaungoikoak mundua, non eman duen bere Seme Bakarra beragan fedea duan guzia galdu ez dedin, baizik izan dezan betiko bizia.

Labourdin: Ezen hala Iainkoak onhetsi ukan du mundua, non bere Semé bakoitza eman ukan baitu, hura baithan sinhesten duenik gal eztadin, baina bizitze eternala duenzát.

IDENTIFICATION

The frequent recurrence of z and tz is characteristic of Basque.
CHAPTER XIII

LANGUAGES OF THE MIDDLE AND FAR EAST

Asia is a vast linguistic world in its own right. The tongues of this great continent are as varied and picturesque as are their speakers, and run into the number of several hundreds, distributed among most of the world’s great language families: Indo-European, Semitic, Ural-Altaic, Sino-Tibetan, Japanese-Korean, Dravidian, Malayo-Polynesian, Caucasian, Mon-Khmer, Hyperborean, Ainu.

Fortunately for the practical linguist, not all of these numerous tongues are of equal importance. The linguistic explorer in the Asiatic continent finds himself indeed faced with tongues of primary rank, numerically, commercially, politically and culturally. He also finds himself face to face with a myriad minor languages whose speakers are comparatively few in number, and which have never attained a very lofty cultural status.

Such is the case, for example, with the Ural-Altaic tongues

1. Limitations of time and space make it impossible at the present time to give the languages of Asia the treatment which the growing practical importance of many of them warrants. It is planned in the near future to offer, in separate booklets of the “World Languages Series”, a presentation of Chinese, Hindustani, Arabic and Malay which will be in all respects as thorough as is that of Japanese in the present volume. A second volume of “Languages for War and Peace” is in preparation, in which will appear a more comprehensive outline of several of the Asiatic tongues cursorily treated in this chapter (notably Palestinian Hebrew, Persian, Hindustani, Bengali, Tamil, Telugu, Siamese, Burmese and Korean), as well as of certain native African tongues of strategic and commercial importance (Amharic, Swahili, Hausa, Fanti).
of Asiatic Russia, Mongolia and Manchukuo (Bashkir, Uzbeg, Turkoman, Mongol, Buryat, Yakut, Kalmuk, Manchu, Tungus, etc.). These tongues, which are members of the Altaic branch of the family, cover a tremendous extent of territory; but their speakers are relatively few, and they are divided into such a vast number of diverging and mutually incomprehensible dialects that the study of any one of them can repay only the specialist interested in their linguistic structure or in the particular area where they are spoken. Their speakers, furthermore, are partly accessible through other tongues which may be termed languages of colonization (Russian in the Soviet Union in Asia, Chinese in Mongolia and Manchukuo, Japanese in Manchukuo). Turkish, the only Asiatic tongue of this group to present a solid body of speakers and a certain amount of cultural, political and commercial importance, has already been discussed under a European heading (see p. 440).

Even less important are the mysterious Hyperborean tongues of Kamchatka and northeastern Siberia, with a few thousand speakers, and the Ainu of Japan’s northern islands (Yezo and Karafuto). Here again, Russian and Japanese, respectively, supply most practical needs.

The Caucasian tongues of the Caucasus, between the Black Sea and the Caspian, are extremely picturesque and interesting from a linguistic point of view, including such languages as Georgian, Avar, Lesghian, Circassian, Mingrelian, Laz, etc. Little practical advantage is to be derived from their study, however, in view of the limited number of their speakers, their numerous dialects, and the fact that Russian may be used with comparative ease in their area.

The Mon-Khmer, Annamese and Munda groups of southeastern Asia are imperfectly known; their speakers are relatively few, while their dialectal divisions are numerous. It is even doubtful that they are related, and various linguistic affiliations are claimed for them.

Two of Asia’s tongues belong to the Semitic branch of the Semito-Hamitic group, which also stretches across northern
Africa almost to the Equator on the west, slightly below it on the east. They are Hebrew, which has a rejuvenated Palestinian variety, and Arabic. Palestinian Hebrew is the ancient tongue of the Scriptures and the Mishnāh, to which the status of a living and official language has been restored by the various Jewish groups participating in the Zionist experiment, with a modernization of vocabulary, and the inclusion of such non-Biblical terms as "telephone" and "telegraph". Palestinian Hebrew is the official tongue of less than a million Jewish settlers in Palestine, and as such its practical importance is limited, particularly as many of these Jews are accessible through European tongues. It is also, however, the key to the vast treasure-house of Hebrew tradition and learning, and it may be used as a secondary cultural tongue in all Jewish communities throughout the world, particularly among the more cultured elements.

Of far greater practical importance in the Semitic group is Arabic, the sacred tongue of Islam, and the popular tongue of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Syria, Iraq and Arabia. As a religious and written language, Arabic is unified and traditional, and extends far beyond the confines of the spoken tongue, being used wherever the Muhammadan faith has followers, in the Balkans, Turkey, Iran, India, China, central and eastern Africa, Malaya and the Dutch East Indies, and even in the Philippines. As a popular spoken tongue, in the countries where it is so used, Arabic shows a series of fairly strong dialectal divergences. The spoken Arabic of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya may be described as a western variety; Egypt and the Egyptian Sudan may be said to form a central group of spoken Arabic dialects; while Syria and Palestine, Iraq, and Arabia constitute three diverging eastern groups.

The Indo-European tongues of Asia (outside of tongues of colonization, such as Russian in Asiatic Russia, English in India, Burma and Malaya, French in Indo-China and Syria, etc.) include: 1. Armenian, the ancient and highly cultivated
languages of a relatively small group of speakers located astride the Russo-Turkish frontier; 2. modern Persian, the language of some 15,000,000 speakers in Iran and Afghanistan; 3. the so-called Indo-Aryan languages of Afghanistan (Pushtu; about 10,000,000), southern Ceylon (Singhalese, about 4,000,000), and northern and central India (Hindustani, Bengali, Punjabi, Rajasthani, Marathi, etc.). Indo-Aryan speakers are very numerous, comprising over two-thirds of India’s 390,000,000 inhabitants. It is estimated, however, that India’s approximately 290,000,000 Indo-Aryan speakers are divided among seventeen major languages, not to mention numerous minor dialects.

The chief of these languages, with their approximate number of speakers, are:

Hindustani (including both Hindi and Urdu; north central India) — 130,000,000
Bengali (northeastern India: Bengal and the Calcutta region) — 60,000,000
Bihari (northeastern India, west of Bengal) — 30,000,000
Marathi (western India: the Bombay region) — 20,000,000
Punjabi (northern India: Punjab region) — 20,000,000
Rajasthani (northwestern India, south of Punjab; Rajputana) — 15,000,000
Gujarati (western India, north of Bombay) — 13,000,000
Oriya (eastern India, southwest of Calcutta; Orissa) — 10,000,000

The Dravidian speakers of southern India and northern Ceylon are estimated at nearly 100,000,000, apportioned among sixteen major languages. Chief among these are:

Tamil (southeastern India, northern Ceylon) — 22,000,000
Telugu (southeastern India, north of Tamil; region of Madras) — 27,000,000

2. Because of the disagreeable connotations with which “Aryan” has been invested by certain racial theories which have nothing to do with language, “Indo-Iranian” is perhaps a better term; “Indo-Iranian”, however, also includes the Iranian, or Persian branch of Indo-European.
Canarese (southwestern India, south of the Bombay region) — 13,000,000
Malayalam (southwestern India, south of Canarese) — 10,000,000

The vast Sino-Tibetan linguistic world includes Chinese, Siamese (or Thai), Burmese, Tibetan and, according to some scholars, Annamese and Cambodian. Of these languages, Chinese, with its vast mass of perhaps 450,000,000 speakers (subdivided, however, into several often mutually incomprehensible dialects), its ancient culture, and its growing commercial and political worth, is by far the most important. The Tibeto-Burmese and Thai members of the family may be estimated to have some 20,000,000 to 30,000,000 speakers each. Political, economic and cultural factors all point to Chinese, in its expanding standardized national form (Kuo-yü), as a tongue of coming primary importance.

The Japanese-Korean group (assuming that there is a connection between Japanese and Korean, which many scholars deny) is represented by Korean, the tongue of some 25,000,000 people in Korea, who are for the most part accessible by means of Japanese; and the latter language, which has some 75,000,000 native speakers and has recently been to some degree current in territories having a total population of over 400,000,000. The future of Japanese as a world language is at present in considerable doubt; however restricted its use may be outside of Japan proper, it will still remain the tongue of a large population which has displayed great ingenuity and adaptability in assimilating the mechanical aspects of western civilization.

The Malayo-Polynesian group, subdivided into an impressive number of languages and an almost infinite variety of dialects, is represented by the Malay-speaking portion of the population of British Malaya, and by the entire vast island world that stretches from Madagascar across the Indian and Pacific Oceans to Easter Island, and from Formosa on the north to New Zealand on the south (exclusive, however, of
Australia, Tasmania, and the interior of New Guinea). The trade language known as Pidgin (or Bazaar) Malay is generally current throughout Malaya, the Dutch East Indies and, to some extent, the Philippines, and this fairly standardized lingua franca, which gives access to a total population of perhaps 80,000,000 (many of whom are also accessible through tongues of colonization, such as Dutch, English and Spanish) is of great practical importance in the reconquest of this section of the world from the Japanese and in the eventual reconstruction of the entire Pacific area.

In the complex linguistic picture of the Middle and Far East, four tongues stand out as of primary practical importance at the present moment: Japanese, Chinese, Arabic and Malay.

The following comparative table of a few fundamental words in some of the major Asiatic languages will be of interest in its indications of similarities and differences among and within the various groups.

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<th>hundred</th>
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3. It is of interest to note that in all these languages, outside of the Indo-European and Semitic ones (Sanskrit, Hindustani, Bengali, Persian, Arabic) an entirely different word is used for “brother” and “sister” according as it is an older or a younger brother or sister that is being referred to. The forms given above under Dravidian, Sino-Tibetan, Khmer, Japanese, Korean and Malay headings all indicate an older brother or sister.
THE NATIVE SCRIPTS

Asia is a land of many tongues and many writings. The two Semitic languages, Hebrew and Arabic, employ types of script which, although derived from the same original source as ours, the Phoenician alphabet, now differ widely both from ours and from each other. They both have, however, certain characteristics in common, being written from right to left and consisting of consonants only, with the vowel sounds mostly indicated by separate markings above or below the line.

The Hebrew characters, with which a good many American Jews are familiar because they are also used in printed Yiddish, are of a square type. A few letters (k, m, n, etc.) assume a different form if they occur in the final position in the word, but for the most part each letter remains uniform, while "vowel points" are optionally placed below, above, or to the left of the consonants. In Yiddish (used by Central and East European Jews, and derived for the most from medieval German), and in Ladino (used by southern or Sephardic Jews and derived from medieval Spanish) certain of the original consonants (though not the same ones in both languages) have changed their function to act as vowels, and the number of vowel-points in use has accordingly been reduced.

The Arabic script may have four separate forms for each consonant, according as it comes at the beginning, the middle or the end of a word, or is used by itself. Vowel-sounds are indicated by short oblique bars and hooks above or below the consonants, but are very frequently left out altogether, and the vowel-values are left to be supplied by the reader (this practice is also current in Hebrew texts, and is an indication of the secondary function of vowels in the Semitic languages). The Arabic script, with certain modifications, is used by a number of other tongues, and generally appears where the speakers are members of the Muhammadan faith. Among the languages often appearing in Arabic characters are the Fula, Hausa and Swahili of Central Africa; the Malay, Javanese and Sundanese of the Dutch East Indies; the Moro of the Philippines; the Urdu
variety of Hindustani; other languages of India, such as Malayalam, Brahu, Tamil and Punjabi; the Persian of Iran; the Balochi of Balochistan; and several of the Turkic (Altaic) tongues of Asiatic Russia. Turkish formerly used a modified Arabic script, but discarded it in favor of Roman characters under Mustapha Kemal Ataturk.

The languages of India make use for the most part of alphabets derived from the ancient Devanagari (or Nagari) in which Sanskrit was written. Many of these languages, in fact, still use the unmodified Devanagari characters today (Hindi, to cite one example, is the Hindu version of Hindustani, while Urdu is the Moslem version; Hindi uses Devanagari in writing, rejects Arabic and Persian loan-words and retains the more ancient Sanskrit terms, but the language is fundamentally one and the same). Bengali is not only the closest numerical rival of Hindustani, but also the language whose script, while differing, diverges least from the Devanagari. In the alphabets of southern India (Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, etc.), and even of tongues outside of India, like Siamese and Burmese, descent from the Nagari characters is largely disguised. Devanagari is read from left to right. Each consonant carries inherently with it the following sound of a short a, while other vowel-values are indicated by separate symbols above or below the line, or by separate characters within the line.

The Chinese characters are of the ideographic variety, and are separately described under the heading of Chinese (see p. 489-492). They have been adopted, with modifications, by the Japanese, who have in part adapted the borrowed characters to a syllabic instead of an ideographic system (see p. 526-530).

Samples of some of the languages of Asia in their own characters are presented (see pp. 463, 478, 479, 480, 481, 485, 486, 490, 504, 505, 506, 529).
THE SEMITIC LANGUAGES — ARABIC, HEBREW

The two modern Semitic languages display the typical Semitic arrangement of three-consonant roots, with the vowels relegated to an internal flexional role (see p. 29); two genders, masculine and feminine, with inanimate objects distributed between them; a dual number, indicating two objects, especially ones that naturally go in pairs (hands, feet, etc.). The verb is fully inflected, with numerous separate masculine and feminine forms, especially in the third person.

SAMPLE

وزي مارفع موسى التمباش في الجبل اهووك الأزم

يترفع اين الإنسان عاشان ما يشك كل الليا من به

لكن تبقى له الحياة الأبدية لان الله حب العالم درجه انه

وهي انه الوحدان عاشان ما يشك كل الليا من به لكون تبقى له الحياة الأبدية

SAMPLE OF PRINTED HEBREW

כְּכֹהַ צְּרֵי לַעֲלֹם: צְּרֵי לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ

אֶלְּעָלְמֵנָה לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה הַאָדָם כְּכֹהַ לָא

אֵרּוֹב כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה

כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם: כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה

כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם: כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה

כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם: כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה

שָׁם נָהֲגַה כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם: כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה

לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם: כְּכֹהַ לָא לַעֲלֹם כְּכֹהַ לָא לְהָאָדָם שָׁם נָהֲגַה

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
The following comparative table will serve to give an indication of the resemblances and differences between spoken Egyptian Arabic and spoken Palestinian Hebrew.

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<td>thousand</td>
<td>′alf</td>
<td>′elef</td>
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</table>
ARABIC

SOUNDS AND TRANSCRIPTIONS

Vowel Sounds.

ā = father (this sound is of comparatively rare occurrence: khālīṣ, “pure”); or, much more commonly, = mad (māt, “he died”).
a = cat (malḥ, “salt”).
e = first part of a in late (fēn, “where”).
e = the man (menaggim, “astrologer”); or = met (betna, “our house”).
i = machine (mīn, “who?”).
i = tin (bint, “daughter”).
o = all (kūra, “ball”); or = obey (ōda, “room”).
o = going (odtna, “our room”); or = got (būṭāl, “evil”).
u = food (šūf, “look”).
u = good (’ult, “I said”).

Consonant Sounds.

Approximately as in English: b, t, g (go in Egypt; general in other localities), h, z, r, s, d, f, k, l, m, n, y, w.

t = t vigorously uttered, with blade of tongue pressed against palate (ṭīn, “mud”).

ḍ = d, as above (ḍēf, “guest”).
ṣ = s, as above (ṣūf, “wool”).
ẓ = z, as above (ẓahr, “dice”).

4. The form of Arabic here given is not the literary language (standardized throughout the entire Arabic world and strongly conservative), but the Egyptian spoken tongue, comprehensible, but with difficulty, in the countries to the east (Palestine, Transjordan, Iraq, Arabia) and to the west (Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco). This form has been selected because of its central position, which gives it the nature of a compromise between the eastern and the western dialects, and also because it gives direct access to more Arabic speakers than any other spoken dialect. The Arabic script, in which the literary tongue is written, is discussed elsewhere (see p. 461-462).
ś = sure (šēkh, "sheik").
ḥ = h, stronger and more emphatic than h, but not rasped (ḥusan, "horse").
‘ = like ḥ, but with vibration of vocal cords (‘id, "feast").
kh = guttural German ach-sound, or Spanish j (khēr, "good").
gh = like kh, but with vibration of vocal cords; somewhat similar to French uvular r (gharb, "west").
’ = catch in voice, as between the two o’s of English cooperate, or between the article and the noun in German die Eier (su‘āl, question).

Many Arabic consonants are emphatic, or guttural, or both. No precise English equivalent appears for ț, ķ, ś, ẓ, all of which call for an unfamiliar position of the tongue coupled with energy of articulation. Note the three guttural gradations in h (English h); ḥ (the same, but with greater force, and yet no rasping of the throat); and kh (vigorous and rasping); as well as in the voiced g (English go); ‘ (the voiced counterpart of ḥ); and gh (a gargling sound, with vibration of the vocal cords).

Long vowels must be pronounced long. Double consonants must be pronounced double (‘izzayyak?, how are you?, pronounced ‘iz-zay-yak).

The accent of Arabic tends to be on the next to the last syllable; but a long vowel elsewhere in the word tends to draw accentuation to itself.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.
Nouns and Articles.

There are only two genders in Arabic, masculine and feminine. Nouns denoting males are usually masculine, those denoting females feminine (man, rāgil, masc.; girl, bint, fem.). Nouns denoting inanimate objects are in part masculine, in part feminine; the ending -a usually denotes a noun of feminine gender (table, torōbēza; watch, sā‘a).

There are three numbers, singular, plural and dual (the latter denotes two objects, and is especially used for things
that normally occur in pairs, such as hands, feet, etc. The dual ending is -ën: hand, ʾid; two hands, ʾidēn. Feminine nouns ending in -a change -a to -tēn to form the dual: table, ʾtörōbēza; two tables, ʾtörōbēztēn.

Feminine nouns in -a form their plural by changing -a to -āt: table, ʾtörōbēza; tables, ʾtörōbēzāt; watch, sāʾa; watches, sāʾāt.

Masculine nouns have so-called “broken plurals”, which means that the plural form is irregular, and follows no set rules that can be easily codified; they are therefore best learned in their double form, singular and plural; there is, however, very frequent change of the internal vowels: book, kitāb; books, kutub; boy, waład; boys, ʾawlād; dog, kalb; dogs, kilāb.

The definite article for all nouns, masculine and feminine, singular, dual and plural, is il: the book, il kitāb; the girl, il bint; the books, il kutub; the girls, il banāt.

The l of il is assimilated to a following s, š, ū, z, ẓ, t, ð, d, n, r; so that il sāʾa, “the watch”, becomes is sāʾa; il dulāb, “the cup-board”, becomes id dulāb.

A noun used with the definite article and placed immediately after another noun often indicates the possessor: the man’s house, bêt ir-raqīl.

There is no indefinite article, although waḥid, “one”, may be used with the sense of “a certain”.

Adjectives and Adverbs.

The adjective follows the noun, and agrees with it in gender and number: a nice book, kitāb gamīl; a nice watch, sāʾa gamīla. If the noun has the definite article, this is repeated before the adjective: the nice book, il kitāb ig gamīl; the nice watch, is sāʾa ig gamīla.

The feminine singular of the adjective is formed by adding -a: large, great, kībir; fem. singular kībīra. The dual does not appear in adjectives, being replaced by the plural: two good men, rāgilēn kuwayyīsīn. The plural is formed by adding -īn, for both genders: good boys, ʾawlād kuwayyīsīn; good girls, banāt kuwayyīsīn. But if the noun denotes an
inanimate object, the feminine singular form of the adjective, ending in -a, is used with it: big books, kutub kibira (or kutub kubar; a few adjectives, kibir among them, also have broken plurals).

A predicate adjective follows the noun just like an attributive adjective, and the verb “to be” is generally understood; but in this case, only the noun has the definite article: the great man, i' rāgīl il kibīr; the man (is) great, i' rāgīl kibīr.

The comparative of the adjective resembles a noun plural of the “broken” type; for most adjectives, the following scheme will work: kibīr, big; akbar, bigger; ṣaghir, small; aṣghar, smaller; ṭawīl, long, tall; aṭwal, longer, taller; the superlative is formed by placing the article before the comparative: great, kibīr; greater, akbar; greatest, il akbar; nice, gamīl; nicer, agmal; nicest, il agmal. The superlative form is seldom used colloquially, being replaced by the comparative, or by the positive with khāliṣ, “pure”, or 'awi, “very”.

“Than” is expressed by using either the positive with ‘an (a preposition meaning “about”, “over”); or the comparative with min (a preposition meaning “of”): greater than, kibīr ‘an or akbar min.

There is no true adverb in Arabic. Adverbial expressions are usually formed by a preposition with a noun: easily, birrāha; hardly, biz-zūr; quickly, bil 'agal.

Numerals.

Cardinal

\[
\begin{align*}
1 &= wāhid \\
2 &= 'itnēn \\
3 &= talāta \\
4 &= 'arba'a \\
5 &= khamsa \\
6 &= sitta \\
7 &= saba'a \\
8 &= tamanya
\end{align*}
\]

5. The singular form of the noun is used with “one”: one book, kutāb wāhid (or, more commonly, simply kitāb). The dual is used with “two”: two books, kutābēn 'itnēn (or, more commonly, simply kitābēn). The plural appears with numbers from 3 to 10: three books,
9 = tis‘a
10 = ‘ašara
11 = ḥidāšer
12 = itnāšer
13 = talatāšer
14 = ’arba’tāšer (etc.)
20 = ‘išrīn
21 = wāḥid we ‘išrīn
22 = itnēn we ‘išrīn
30 = talatīn
3000 = talāt Ᾱlāf

Ordinal.
1st = il ’awwal
2nd = it tānī
3rd = it tālit
4th = ir rābi‘
5th = il khāmis
6th = is sātit
7th = is sābi‘
8th = it tāmin
9th = it tāsi‘
10th = il ‘āṣir

Others.
half = nuss
one-fourth = rub‘a
once = marra wāḥda
twice = marratēn
three times = talāt marrāt
the first time = il marra il ’ūla, or ’awwil marra
the last time = il marra il ’ākhīra, or ’ākhir marra

Pronouns.
Personal, Subject.
I, ana
you (masc. sg.), inta, enta

*talāt(a) kutub; but the singular form of the noun is used with numbers above 10: twenty books, ‘išrīn kitāb. The final -a of numerals from 3 to 10 is often dropped, especially before feminine nouns and nouns beginning with vowels.*
you (fem. sg.), inti, enti
he, it, huwwa
she, it, hiyya
we, ihna, ehna
you (plural), intum, entum
they, humma, hum

These are used alone, or as subjects of verbs. The verb is generally used without the subject pronoun, however, unless emphasis is desired.

Direct Object.

me, -ni
you, (masc. sg.), -ak (-k after vowels)
you, (fem. sg.), -ik (-ki after vowels)
him, it, -u (-h after vowels)
her, it, -ha
us, -na
you, (pl.), -kum
them, -hum

These forms are attached to verbs: he beat, darab; he beat me, darab-ni.

Possessive.

These are the same as the direct object pronoun forms given above, save that (1) they are attached to nouns; (2) -i, "my", replaces -ni, "me"; (3) attached to the preposition li, "to", they serve as indirect objects: lik, "to you"; lihum, "to them".

After consonants After vowels

my, -i
your (masc. sg. possessor), -ak
your (fem. sg. possessor), -ik
his, -u
her, -ha
our, -na
your (plural possessor), -kum
their, -hum

-ya
-k
-ki
-h
-ka
-na
-kum
-hum

Father, āb (in combination, abū); my father, abū-ya; your father, abū-k; her father, abū-ha.

These possessive forms are also used as object pronouns after prepositions: with, ma‘a; with me, ma‘āya; with you, ma‘-ak. When combined with the prepositions li, ma‘a or ‘and, the possessive forms acquire the meaning of “I have”, “you have”, etc.: I have a book, ‘andi kitāb (lit. a book(is) at me); I have a house, lī bēt; have you a match?, ma‘ak kabrit?; she has an umbrella, ‘andaha šamsīyya (li is generally used for big, precious or important objects, ma‘a for small objects).

Some common prepositions are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>of, from, min</td>
<td>for, ‘alašān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to, for, li</td>
<td>in, fi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with, ma‘a, ‘and, wayya</td>
<td>over, on, ‘ala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>without, min ghēr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demonstrative.

this, these, da (masc. sg.); di (fem. sg.); dōl (pl.)
that, those, dukha (masc. sg.); dikha (fem. sg.); dukham (pl.)

These normally follow the noun if used as adjectives: this house, il bēt da. If they precede, they are pronouns, and the verb “to be” is understood: this (is) a house, da bēt.

Relative.

The general relative pronoun is illi; the house which I saw, il bēt illi šuftu (lit. the house which I saw it: šuftu = šuft, I saw + -u, it).

If the antecedent has no definite article, illi is omitted: a house which I saw, bēt šuftu (lit. house I saw it). Illi may also mean “the one who”: the man I saw yesterday was ill, illi šuftu embāriḥ kān ‘ayyān.
Interrogative.
who?, whom?, whose?, min: whom did you see?, suft min? (lit. you saw whom?); whose book?, kitāb min? (lit. book whose?)
what?, eh?: what (is) this?, eh da?: what did you say?, ult eh? which?, anho (masc. sg.); anhe (fem. sg.); anhum (pl.)

Verbs.

The Arabic verb is a root consisting of three consonants (K-T-B, write). Internal vowels, and prefixed and suffixed vowels and consonants provide the conjugational scheme. This three-consonant root is sometimes disguised by the fact that one of the three consonants is a “weak” consonant, such as w or y, which is absorbed by neighboring vowels. The verb is then called “weak”, in contrast with the “strong” verb, in which the original three consonants stand out clearly.

The basic form of the verb, selected by Arabic grammarians to designate the verb itself (as we designate the infinitive, “to write”) is not the infinitive, but the third singular of the past tense; thus, the verb “to write” would be designated by katab, “he wrote”.

The three basic forms are the “imperfect” (usually translated by a present or future); the “perfect” (usually translated by a past), and the imperative. A more specific future may be formed by using the imperfect with a prefixed ha-.

Strong Conjugation: “to write”, katab (lit. “he wrote”).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect (Past)</th>
<th>Imperfect (Pres.)</th>
<th>Imperative Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>katab-t</td>
<td>’a-ktabl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (masc. sg.)</td>
<td>katab-t</td>
<td>ti-ktabl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (fem. sg.)</td>
<td>katab-ti</td>
<td>ti-ktabl-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>katab</td>
<td>yi-ktabl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>katab-it</td>
<td>ti-ktabl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>katab-na</td>
<td>ni-ktabl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (plural)</td>
<td>katab-tu</td>
<td>ti-ktabl-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>katab-u</td>
<td>yi-ktabl-u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An active participle, “writing”; a passive participle, “written”; and a verbal noun, “act of writing”, also appear. The participles are declined like adjectives.
Active participle, “writing”: masc. sg. kātīb; fem. sg. katb-ā; pl. katb-īn.
Passive participle, “written”: masc. sg. ma-ktūb; fem. sg. ma-ktūb-ā; pl. ma-ktūb-īn.
Weak Conjugation: “to see”, šāf (lit. “he saw”)

Perfect (Past) Imperfect (Pres.) Imperative Future

I  šuf-t  ’a-šūf  ḥa-‘ašūf
you (masc. sg.)  šuf-t  ti-šūf  šūf  ḥa-tišūf
you (fem. sg.)  šuf-ti  ti-šūf-i  šūf-i  etc.
he  šāf  yi-šūf
she  šāf-īt  ti-šūf
we  šuf-na  ni-šūf
you (plural)  šuf-tu  ti-šūf-u  šūf-u
they  šāf-u  yi-šūf-u

Active participle, “seeing”: masc. sg. šāyif; fem. sg. šayfa; pl. šayfīn.
Passive participle, “seen”: none appears in this verb.

The role played by shifting internal vowels in the conjugation of the Arabic verb is obvious. Note the difference between the strong and the weak verb appearing in the third singular and third plural of the past, where the weak verb changes the internal vowel, while the strong verb does not.

Subject pronouns are normally omitted, but may be used for emphasis or clarity: I saw, ana šuft; you (masc. sg.) saw, inta šuft; he saw, šāf; he saw, huuwā šāf.

Object pronouns are added on to the verb (see p. 470): he saw me, šāf-ni; I saw him, šuft-u; I saw you, šuft-ak (šuft-ik, if “you” is feminine); he saw us, šāf-na; we saw them, šufna-hum.
Negative and Interrogative.

To form the negative, use ma before the verb and -š as a suffix: he did not write, ma katab-š; I do not see, ma ’ašuf-š. With the active and passive participles, a single word, muš, is placed before the participle: not writing, muš kātib; not written, muš maktūb.

Interrogation is usually conveyed by the tone of the voice, or by an interrogative word: where is the city?, il balad fēn? (lit., the city where?).

“To Be”

In simple sentences, “to be” is generally understood: this (is) a book, da kitāb; the man (is) great, ir rāgil kibīr. This is particularly the case with the participles: it (is) written, maktūb; I (am) not writing, ana muš kātib.

“To be” is also expressed, however, particularly in tenses other than the present, by the verb kān (lit. “was”; note the contraction of ḥa- with the present in the future of this verb):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperative Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>kun-t</td>
<td>’a-kūn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (masc. sg.)</td>
<td>kun-t</td>
<td>ti-kūn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (fem. sg.)</td>
<td>kun-ti</td>
<td>ti-kūn-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>kān</td>
<td>yi-kūn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>kān-īt</td>
<td>ti-kūn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>kun-na</td>
<td>ni-kūn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (plural)</td>
<td>kun-tu</td>
<td>ti-kūn-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>kān-u</td>
<td>yi-kūn-u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“To Have”.

This is generally expressed by “to be” (kān) with the prepositions ‘and, lī or ma’a (see p. 471), followed by a pronoun indicating the possessor (cf. French un livre est à moi): he had a book, kān ‘andu kitāb (lit. “there was with him a book”); I had a house, kān lī bēt; I had a match, kān ma‘āya kabīrīt.
Progressive.

The imperfect (present) with the prefix b- conveys a progressive meaning: I am writing, b-aktib.

WORDS AND PHRASES

good morning, sabāh il khēr
good afternoon, nahārak saʿīd (to a woman, nahārik saʿīd)
good evening, good night, lēltak saʿīda (to a woman, lēltik saʿīda)
good-bye, maʿa is salāma
thank you, kattar khērak
you’re welcome, ʿahlan wa saḥlan; marḥaba
please, min faḍlak
very gladly, bi kull surūr
perhaps, yimkin
here, here is, hina, ʿaho (here is the book, il kitāb aho)
there, there is, hināk
where?, where is?, fēn?
how do I go to..., ʿizzāy ʿarūḥ li...
yes, naʿam; aiwa
no, la
how are you?, ʿizzayyak? (to fem. ʿizzayyik?; to pl. ʿizzaykum?)
very well, kuwayyis
how much is it?, bi kām da?
why?, lēh?
when?, emta
because, ʿalašān
today, in naharda
tomorrow, bukra
yesterday, ʿimbāriḥ
to the right, ʿal yimīn
to the left, ʿaš šimāl
straight ahead, ʿala ṭūl; dughri
what time is it?, is sāʾa kām?
it is now six o’clock, dilwōʾti is sāʾa sitta
I'm hungry, ana ga‘ān
I'm thirsty, ana ‘ōtšān
I'm cold, ana bārdān
I'm warm, ana ḥarrān
I'm ill, ana ‘ayyān
what is your name?, 'ismak ēh? (to fem. 'ismik ēh?)
my name is..., 'ismi...
how old are you?, kām sana 'umrak? (to fem. kām sana 'umrīk?)
do you speak Arabic?, 'inta bitiktallim (il) ‘arabi?
certainly, ṭab‘ān; ma‘lūm
very little, šuwayya
give me, 'iddīni
show me, warrīni
tell me, 'ullī
do you understand?, ('inta) fāhim?
I don't understand, ana muš fāhim
do you know?, ('inta) 'ārif?
I don't know, ana muš 'ārif
excuse me, wala mu'akhza; matakhiżniš
don't mention it, il 'afw
what do you want?, 'inta ‘āwiz ēh?
it's fine weather, il gaw gamīl
never mind, ma‘lēš
I'm sorry, ana muta‘assif; ana 'āsif
I'm glad, ana mabsūt
too bad!, zayy īz zift!; ya salām!; ya khšāra!
what is the matter?, gāra eh?; ḥaṣal ēh?
come in!, khūš!; 'iʃfoddal!
get out!, imši!; ʃlā' barra! (fem. ʃlā'i barra!; pl. ʃlā'u barra!); 'ukhrug barra!
gangway!, riglak!; 'iw'a!
PERSIAN

Persian normally makes no distinction of gender. The plural is formed by adding -hā to the singular (man, mard; men, mardhā). A special suffix -ra is used to indicate a definite direct object (the man, object, mardra). Possession is indicated by placing the possessor (noun or pronoun) after the thing possessed, with -e- or -ye- between (my money, pūl-e-man, lit. money-of-I). The same arrangement is generally used for attributive adjectives (the left hand, dast-e-chap, lit. hand-left). The comparative and superlative are usually formed by adding to the adjective the suffixes -tar and -tarin (cold, sard; colder, sardtar; coldest, sardtarin).

The Persian verb is relatively simple, the common endings being: -am, -i, -ad, -im, -id, -and. These are added to the two roots of the verb, present and past: to take, gereft-an; present root, gir (with a prefix mi-); past root, gereft; present, mi-gir-am, mi-gir-i, mi-gir-ad, mi-gir-im, mi-gir-id, mi-gir-and; past, gereft-am, gereft-i, gereft (-ad normally omitted), gereft-im, gereft-id, gereft-and. The prefix mi- used with the past turns it into an imperfect: I was taking, used to take, mi-gereft-am. The negative is formed by prefixing na (I did not take, na gereftam); the past participle, which is used in compound tenses, is formed by adding -é to the past root (taken, gereft-é). The verb usually comes at the end of the sentence.

WORDS AND PHRASES

good night, shab be-khair
what is the matter?, ché khabar ast?
where is?, kujāst?; there is, ānjāst; here is, injāst
how much?, chagadr?, how many?, chand?
I want, mikhāham; gangway!, bi-zahmat rāh bedehid!
give, bedeh; water, āb; bread, nān; bring, biavār; and, va
hot, garm; one, yak; two, dō; three, sih; four, chahar; five, panj
six, shesh; seven, haft; eight, hasht; nine, noh; ten, dah
SAMPLE OF PRINTED PERSIAN

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES OF INDIA

Numerically, the most important of these are Hindustani and Bengali, spoken in northern and northeastern India, respectively. Hindustani is subdivided into Urdu and Hindi, but the differences are more a matter of script and certain sections of the vocabulary than of geographical location.

SAMPLE OF PRINTED HINDI
(Nagari characters)

किउसनेघरोपाना एकलौता पुनः दे दिया कि जो कोई
उस पर विश्वास करे वह नाश न हो परंतु जीवन
पाए। परमेश्वर ने अपने पुत्र की जगत में इसलिये
नहीं भेजा कि जगत को दोषी ठहराए पर इसलिये कि
जगत उस के द्वारा उद्धार पाए। जो उस पर विश्वास
करता है वह दोषी नहीं ठहरता पर जो विश्वास नहीं
करता वह दोषी ठहर जुका इसलिये कि उस ने परमे-
श्वर के एकलौते पुत्र के नाम पर विश्वास नहीं
किया। श्रीर दोषी ठहरने का कारण यह है कि ज्योति
जगत में १६
श्राई है श्रीर मनुष्यों ने ज्ञानकार को ज्योति से अथातः
प्रेम किया इसलिये कि उन के काम बुरे थे। क्योंकि जो
२० कोई बुराई करता है वह ज्योति से और रहता है और
ज्योति के निकट नहीं श्राई न हो कि उस के कामों पर
दोष लगाया जाए। पर जो सच्चाई पर चलता है वह २१
ज्योति के निकट श्राई है इसलिये कि उस के काम
प्रगट है कि परमेश्वर की श्रीर से किए गए हैं।}

इस के पीछे यीशु श्रीर उस के चेते यहदिया देश २२

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)

Generally speaking, the Indo-Aryan tongues of India
display a tendency to reduce the ancient Indo-European cases
to a single, or at most a double form (nominative and oblique),
to use prepositions to replace the older case-endings, and to
merge the old grammatical genders. Similar tendencies, to an even greater degree, are displayed by Persian.

The following table is of interest as indicating a few vocabulary divergences between the Hindi and the Urdu forms of Hindustani, along with the Sanskrit forms to which Hindi is partial and the Persian and Arabic forms from which Urdu has borrowed. It must be understood, however, that both Urdu and Hindi forms are generally comprehensible to all Hindustani speakers and are often interchangeably used. Sanskrit is the ancient sacred tongue of northern India, from which all Indo-Aryan tongues are at least partially derived. The Persian and Arabic elements in Urdu are due to the religious factor of Muhammadanism. Persian itself, though strictly an Indo-European tongue, is a very heavy borrower from Arabic.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>Urdu</th>
<th>Persian</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arm</td>
<td>bāhu</td>
<td>bāṁh</td>
<td>bāṁh</td>
<td>bāżū, saʿid</td>
<td>sāʿid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>bhrātā</td>
<td>bhāʿi</td>
<td>birādar</td>
<td>birādar</td>
<td>ʾakḥ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>death</td>
<td>mṛtyuḥ</td>
<td>mṛityu</td>
<td>maut</td>
<td>marg</td>
<td>maut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deep</td>
<td>gambhirah</td>
<td>gambhir</td>
<td>ʿamiq</td>
<td>ʿamiq</td>
<td>ʿamiq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear</td>
<td>karnah</td>
<td>kān</td>
<td>gosh</td>
<td>guşh</td>
<td>ʿuzn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eye</td>
<td>nayanam</td>
<td>nayan</td>
<td>āŋkh</td>
<td>chashm</td>
<td>ʿayn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fire</td>
<td>agniḥ</td>
<td>agni</td>
<td>āťash</td>
<td>āťash</td>
<td>nār</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>pādaḥ</td>
<td>paṅw</td>
<td>qadam</td>
<td>pāi</td>
<td>qadam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friend</td>
<td>mitram</td>
<td>mitra</td>
<td>dost</td>
<td>dūst</td>
<td>ḥābib</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fruit</td>
<td>phalam</td>
<td>phal</td>
<td>bar</td>
<td>bar</td>
<td>fākiha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SAMPLE OF PRINTED URDU**

(Persian-Arabic characters)

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
HINDUSTANI

Hindustani (including both Urdu and Hindi) is the native language of some 65,000,000, but is used as a sort of *lingua franca* throughout India, particularly in the north; it has been estimated that nearly 140,000,000 can be more or less satisfactorily reached with it.

Hindustani has only two genders. Nouns denoting males are masculine, those denoting females feminine; names of inanimate objects are usually feminine if they end in -ī, -sh, or -t, otherwise masculine. The plural is regularly indicated by the suffix *-ōn*¹ in all cases save the nominative plural; the latter is the same as the nominative singular for masculine nouns ending in consonants (*mard*, man; *mard*, men); changes -ā or -a to -e in the case of masculines ending in -ā or -a (*beṭā*, son; *beṭe*, sons); adds -ān for feminine nouns ending in -ī or -ū (*beṭī*, loaf; *beṭīān*, loaves); adds -ēn for other feminine nouns (*bāt*, word; *bāteīn*, words).

Suffixes, or postpositions, to indicate case-relations are added on to both the singular and the plural form of the noun, as follows: agent case ("by") or instrumental ("with"): -ne; genitive ("of"): -kā, -ke, -kī; dative ("to"): -ko; accusative (direct object): -ko or same as nom.; ablative ("from"): -se; locative: -men ("in") or -par ("on").² The declension of *mard*, "man", is as follows: Singular - Nom., *mard*; Agent or Instr., *mard-ne*; Gen., *mard-kā* (*mard-ke, mard-kī*)³; Dat.,

1. Masculines in -ā or -a drop this vowel before adding the -ōn plural oblique suffix (*beṭā*, son; *beṭe-ōn-ne*, by the sons).

2. Masculine nouns in -ā or -a change this ending to -e before adding the case-suffixes in the singular (*beṭā*, son; but *beṭe-ko*, to the son).

3. The noun in the genitive is treated like an adjective and must, like the adjective, precede and agree in gender and number with the noun it modifies; -kā is therefore used before masculine nouns in the nom. sg. (*mard-kā beṭā*, the man’s son); -kē before all other masculine noun-forms, singular or plural (*mard-ke beṭe*, the man’s sons; *mard-ke*
mard-ko; Acc., mard-ko or mard; Abl., mard-se; Loc., mard-men, mard-par; Plural - Nom., mard; Agent or Instr., mard-oň-ne; Gen., mard-oň-kā (-ke, -kī)^3; Dat., mard-oň-ko; Acc., mard-oň-ko or mard; Abl., mard-oň-se; Loc., mard-oň-men, mard-oň-par.

Adjectives immediately precede the noun modified, and are uninflected, unless they end in -ā, which then changes to -e and -ī under the same circumstances as the genitive ending -kā (see note 3): khūb kitāb (fem. nom. sg.), a fine book; khūb kitābeň (fem. nom. pl.), fine books; khūb larḵā (masc. nom. sg.), a fine boy; khūb larke (masc. nom. pl.), fine boys; barā mard (masc. nom. sg.), a great man; bare mard-kā (masc. gen. sg.), of a great man; bare mard (masc. nom. pl.), great men; barī kitābeň (fem. nom. pl.), great books. There is no change in form to express degrees of comparison, but the comparative is expressed by putting the word with which the comparison is made in the ablative (by adding the postposition -se): wuh barā hai, he is great (lit., he great is); wuh sultān-se barā hai, he is greater than a king (lit., he king-than great is). The superlative is formed by prefixing to the adjective expressions like sab-se, “than all”: wuň sab-se barā hai, he is the greatest of all (lit., he all-than great is).

Verbs have only one conjugation. The infinitive always ends in -nā (gīrnā, to fall; root: gīr-); the present participle in -tā (gīrtā, falling); the past participle in -ā (gīrā, fallen). An “indefinite” present (I fall, I may fall) is formed by using the present participle with the subject pronouns^4: I may fall, maĩn gīrtā (gīrtī)^5; you may fall, tū gīrtā (gīrtī);

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^3 bete-se, from the man’s son); -kī before all feminine nouns, singular or plural (mard-kī beštī, the man’s daughter; mard-kī beštān, the man’s daughters).

4. These are: I, maĩn; you (sg.) tū; he, she, it, wuh; we, ham; you (pl.), tum; they, wuh.

5. Participles agree with the subject in gender and number: masc. sg., -ā; fem. sg., -ī; masc. pl., -e; fem. pl., -ū; they (masc.) may fall, wuh girte; they (fem.) may fall, wuh girtūn.
etc. A more definite present (I am falling) is formed by adding to the participle the present of the verb honā, “to be”:⁶ main girā hūn, I am falling. The imperfect is formed by adding thā (fem. sg. thī; masc. pl. the; fem. pl. thīn) to the present participle: main girā thā, I was falling. The past is formed by using the subject pronoun with the past participle (main girā or main girī, I fell); the pluperfect by adding thā to the past participle (main girā thā, I had fallen). The future has the following forms: gir-ūngā, gir-egā, gir-egā, gir-ēnge, gir-ogē, gir-ēnge (change -ā to -ī, -e to -īn for the feminine). The imperative has the endings: -ūn, -e, -e, -e, -o, -e. The verb usually comes last in the sentence, with the subject or agent first, followed by the object, each immediately preceded by its modifiers.

The numerals from one to ten are: ek, do, tīn, chār, pānch, chha, sāt, āṭh, nau, das. 100 is sau or sai, 1000 is hazār.

COMMON WORDS AND EXPRESSIONS

what is your name?, tumhārā kyā nām hai?
what is the matter?, kyā hai? what else?, aur kyā?
do you speak Hindustani?, tum Hindūstānī bolte ho?
a little, wājibī do you understand?, tum samajhte ho?
to the right, dā'ēn to the left, bā'ēn
darn it!, balā se! I’m hungry, mujhe bhūk lāgī hai
please tell me, mihrbānī kar-ke bolo thank you, taslīm
what do you call this in Hindustani?, is-ko Hindūstānī-men
kyā kahte ho?

it’s raining, pānī partā hai here, yahān
when?, kab?
today, āj yesterday, kal always, hamesha
quickly, turant, jald no, nahīn not, na enough, bas
more, ziyāda how much?, kitnā?

6. I am, hūn; you are, hai; he, she, it is, hai; we are, haiṇ; you are, ho; they are, haiṇ.
THE DRAVIDIAN LANGUAGES OF INDIA

These languages, which predominate in southern India, with a total speaking population of approximately 100,000,000, are numerous. Chief among them are Tamil, Telugu, Canarese and Malayalam. It is believed that they are the descendants of the original languages of India, spoken throughout the Peninsula before the coming of Indo-Aryan-speaking invaders.

They are written in native alphabets which, while related to the Devanagari of the Indo-Aryan tongues, are so modified as to appear at first glance totally different.

SAMPLE OF PRINTED TELUGU

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
SAMPLE OF PRINTED TAMIL

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
A few of their distinctive features are: reluctance to permit consonants to appear in groups within the word (a group such as skr or str, for example, will not occur); double consonants, on the other hand, are frequent, but consonant sounds at the end of words are rare. The accent is not very well defined, but mostly initial. The root of a word normally remains unchanged, and suffixes (postpositions and detached particles) are added at the end. Distinction among the various parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, verbs) is not very well defined. Something corresponding to gender appears, but it is based on caste rather than sex, with rational beings in a “high-caste” classification and irrational beings and inanimate objects in a “casteless” one (women are sometimes regarded as irrational beings and placed in the casteless classification). Distinction between masculine and feminine appears only in third person pronouns. The plural is usually undetermined in the case of “casteless” objects. The adjective is undeclined. The pronoun displays a difference between “we” including the person addressed (Tamil nām) and “we” which excludes the person addressed (nāngal). The verb has an affirmative and a negative voice (Canarese, I did, madid-enu: I did not, mad-enu). Great use is made of participles, which normally take care of all subordinate clause functions.

LANGUAGES OF THE SINO-TIBETAN GROUP

CHINESE, THAI (SIAMESE), BURMESE, TIBETAN, ANNAMESE.

The languages of the Sino-Tibetan group are said to be monosyllabic (consisting of one-syllable words). Recent research, particularly in the Tibetan and Burmese fields, casts some doubt upon monosyllabism as the original state of these languages (there seem to be remnants of former inflectional prefixes and suffixes in both Tibetan and Burmese).

In a monosyllabic tongue, the number of possible sound-combinations is limited. If the language is rich in varied
sounds, and consonant as well as vowel-sounds are allowed to appear at the end of the word, the combinations may run into the thousands.

If the language is relatively poor in consonant sounds, and the majority of these are excluded from the final position in the word, the number of possible combinations gets to be quite limited: such is the case with North Mandarin, the dialect on which the official Chinese language is based. Only about 420 combinations of sounds are possible in monosyllabic Mandarin, with the result that the same combination must do service for many different ideas, expressed in writing by totally different characters.

Tones, however, add diversification to these combinations. The fact that North Mandarin has four possible tones for each of its 420 sound-combinations immediately raises the number of possible spoken "words" to 420 x 4.

The additional fact that the monosyllabic tendency of these languages does not preclude them from putting together two or more monosyllabic words to form a "compound" which carries a different meaning from those of its constituent parts\(^1\) adds greatly to the vocabulary.

Lastly, since the same word, in the same tone, may acquire several different meanings according to its position and use in the sentence, this process of multiplication of meanings is carried on to a point where the language has an adequate supply of words to express all necessary concepts.

Chinese being by far the most important of the Sino-Tibetan languages, and its tone system and grammatical arrangement being to some extent typical of the entire group, further clarification of these tongues will appear from the outline of Chinese.

1. E. g., Chinese \(\text{hsia} \) (under) \(\pm \sqrt{\text{wu}} \) (noon) = "afternoon"; note the identical process in the structure of the English word \(\text{after} \pm \text{noon}\).
CHINESE

THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE

Chinese writing is largely pictographic and ideographic, with symbols representing complete objects, words and ideas, rather than sounds. In their origin, the Chinese characters appear to have been pure picture-writing. The symbols for "sun" and "moon", for instance, were pictured representations of the objects in question ("sun" was originally a circle with a straight line in its center; "moon" was the picture of a crescent with or without a line running through it). In rapid brush-

2. Requirements of space and time preclude our giving, in this volume, the treatment that this extremely important language calls for. In the forthcoming "World Languages Series" it is planned to extend to Chinese the identical treatment that is here given to German, French, Spanish; Italian, Portuguese, Russian and Japanese.

3. The same picture-writing, though with different forms, gave rise to the ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs, the Babylonian cuneiform inscriptions, and even the Phoenician system of writing from which our own alphabet is derived, as well as to the picture-writing of the Mayas and Aztecs, which never got beyond the picture stage. People at first convey their ideas in pictorial representations of objects, and the association of a picture-symbol with the spoken sounds representing the identical object is unconscious and not at all deliberate. It is only as a certain picture-symbol gets to be constantly associated with a certain sound or set of sounds that it gets to acquire a phonetic value. In the ancient Egyptian system, for instance, the symbol for "sun" (the spoken word for "sun" was ra) got to be associated with the value of the initial r of ra, until ultimately it came to be employed whenever the sound r was to be represented. In Phoenician, the symbol for a house (the word for "house" was beth) ultimately came to have the value of the initial b of beth, and the symbol for camel (the spoken word was gimel) got to have the value of the initial g of gimel. The process frequently runs from a pictorial symbol representing a word to the value of a syllable (usually the initial) in that word, then to the value of the consonant in that syllable. Chinese has not advanced very far along this road, though many characters are used with a phonetic value to clarify the pronunciation of another character which might itself be ambiguous.
新約全書，約翰福音
第三章
一百九十六

沒有上帝同在，無人能行。耶穌回答說：「我實實在在的告訴你們，人若不信生，就不能見上帝的國。」

凡從靈生的，是如此；尼哥底母問他說：怎能有這事呢？耶穌回答說：「你是以色列人的先生，還不明白這事？我是從水和靈生的，就不能再進母腹生出来。耶穌說我實實在在的告訴你們，人若不是從水和靈生的，就不能進上帝的國。」

我說你們必須重生，你們要以種希奇的風，聽見風的響聲，卻不曉得從那裏來。凡從靈生的，也是這樣；祂風隨著意思吹，你聽見風的響聲，卻不曉得從那裏來，這樣的事情，沒有生員能問其來源。

你們知道，我們所見證的，是我們見過的，你們卻不領受我們所說的是我。你們說天上的事，尚且不信，若說地上的事，如何能信呢？

在天的人子升過天，臨在曠野怎樣高舉，祂也在地的人子，也必照樣被高舉。祂命令，將一切信他的人，都得永生，不至滅亡，反得永生。祂就是那獨生的子，是上帝獨生的，不是定罪不信的人罪已經定了。因祂不信上帝獨生子的名，來到世間世人。

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
writing, these symbols became conventionalized in shape, "sun" assuming the form of an upended oblong with a horizontal line through it, "moon" that of the same oblong, but open at the bottom with two horizontal lines inside. The combination of these two symbols ("sun" followed by "moon") conventionally stands for the adjective "bright", which has a pronunciation totally unrelated to that of either "sun" or "moon", while "sun" shining through "tree" gives, conventionally, the character for "east", which in the spoken language has no pronunciation connection with either "sun" or "tree".

The drawbacks of such a system of writing, largely unconnected with pronunciation, are enormous. It is estimated that to read an ordinary Chinese newspaper one must be acquainted with at least 3000 separate characters, while for works of literature and philosophy the characters run into several additional thousand.

There are corresponding advantages. The written language (especially literary) is standardized throughout China, regardless of spoken dialectal variations. A document written in literary Wen-li can be read anywhere, though if it is read aloud, local pronunciations may differ to the point of being mutually incomprehensible. The symbol for "man" is the same throughout China, though it is variously pronounced jên, nyin, nên, lên, yên in different provinces. It is as though the western nations were to generalize their own limited system of numerical and other symbols: "1000" is "one thousand" to the English-speaker, "tysyach" to the Russian, "mille" to the Frenchman; "$10" is "ten dollars" to the American, "diez dólares" to the Spanish speaker; "lb." is "pound" to the American, "livre" to the Frenchman; "NaCl" is "sodium chloride" to the American chemist, "cloruro di sodio" to the Italian; all who know the symbols in question understand their meaning, even though the spoken renditions of them diverge radically.

Wen-li, China's standardized, petrified literary language (which may be said to be an unspoken tongue, since its symbols carry no definite phonetic value, but only ideographic connota-
tions, differently rendered in sound in different parts of the country) is in process of replacement by Kuo-yü, the "National Tongue", which uses the written symbols of Wen-li, but assigns to each of them a definite spoken value.

**KUO-YÜ AND THE DIALECTS — SPEAKERS AND LOCATION**

Kuo-yü is to some extent an artificial national tongue, based primarily upon the spoken North Mandarin dialect in its Peiping variety (North Mandarin, with comparatively slight local variations, was the language of the majority of China's population even before the advent of Kuo-yü). It is now estimated to be the language of common use of some 280,000,000 of China's 425,000,000 inhabitants, and tends to encroach more and more upon the local dialects as the tendency toward national unity grows stronger.

The main Chinese dialects which diverge to such an extent from Kuo-yü as to be practically unintelligible are: Wu, around the Yang-tze delta (Shanghai, Soochow), about 34,000,000; Yüeh of Kwang-tung (Cantonese)⁴, about 38,000,000; Min of Fu-kien province, about 30,000,000. The Miao and Hakka of southern China, with several million speakers apiece, are rated as separate dialects of the Sino-Tibetan group. Sub-dialects (Swatow, Amoy, Ning-po, etc.) are extremely numerous, but they are declining in use and importance. For practical purposes, at least two-thirds of China’s population can be reached with Kuo-yü⁵.

Chinese speakers abroad are estimated at about 8,000,000, of whom about 6,500,000 (largely Min speakers) are in

4. Cantonese is of special interest to Americans because the majority of Chinese residents in the U. S. A. are from the Cantonese-speaking region. It distinguishes itself from Mandarin especially by its use of a larger number of tones, and by permitting such consonant sounds as -t and -p to stand at the end of a word.

5. The term "Chinese" as used henceforth is to be understood as referring to Kuo-yü.
other countries of Asia and in the islands of Oceania (notably Thailand, Malaya, Indo-China and the Dutch East Indies), and some 250,000 in the Western Hemisphere.

SOUNDS.⁶

Vowel sounds.

\begin{align*}
a &= fathcr \\
e &= me \\
ê &= us \\
i &= machine \\
i &= pin \\
o &= more \\
u &= rude \\
ü &= French u \\
ũ &= the; is often completely silent \\

\end{align*}

Diphthongs.

\begin{align*}
ai &= aisle \\
ao &= how \\
ei &= eight \\
ia &= yard \\
ĩ &= yes \\
iu &= you \\
ou &= toe \\
ua &= quantity \\
ui &= we \\
uo &= war \\
iao &= yowl \\
tuo &= way \\

\end{align*}

Consonants.

\begin{align*}
ch &= Italian cielo \\
ch' &= church \\
f &= four \\
h &= house \\
hs &= house quickly followed by house \\
j &= pleasure, with a strong mixture of r \\
k &= sky \\
k' &= cat \\
l &= low \\
m &= moon \\
n &= new⁷ \\
ng &= king⁷ \\

\end{align*}

⁶ In Chinese to an even greater extent than in other tongues; the English equivalents given are only approximations to the native sounds, which can accurately be acquired only from a speaker.
p = spin
p' = pin
s = soul
sh = shore
sz = loss quickly followed by zeal
t = stem
t' = tale
ts = that's all
ts' = its
tz = store quickly followed by zeal
tz' = tale quickly followed by zeal

English consonant sounds not appearing in Chinese: b, d, g, r, v, z, thing, this (a sound approximating r appears in \erh, and in words containing j). Note: where consonants and combinations appear with and without the accent (ch, ch'; k, k'; p, p'; t, t', etc.), the consonant with the accent is aspirated; that is, it is given the slight puff after it which is characteristic in English when the consonant begins the word (pin = p + hin; tale = t + hale). Where the accent does not appear, the puff is missing, as is the case in English when the consonant follows an s (spin, state). Or, to put it another way, the consonants without the accent have the sounds they normally would have in Romance languages, like French or Italian (It. cielo vs. En. church; Sp. perro vs. En. pet); this softened pronunciation of the unaspirated unvoiced consonants (ch, k, p, t, ts) occasionally makes them sound to the English ear somewhat like the corresponding voiced consonants (j, g, b, d, dz).

The fact that Chinese writing has only partial phonetic value deprives spoken Chinese of a good deal of the visual support and stabilizing influence which western tongues normally derive from their written counterparts, with the result that Chinese pronunciation with respect to many consonant-sounds is somewhat vague and fluctuating. There is confusion.

7. -n and -ng are the only consonant-sounds permitted at the end of a word, save in the word \erh (two).
for example, among the ch, k and ts sounds, with k tending
toward the sound of ch, and ch' toward the sound of ts (Chung
King may be heard pronounced Tsung Ching).

TONES.

Chinese has four distinct tones. They are indicated by
symbols used in front of each word:
− indicates that the vocable is to be pronounced on a fairly high,
level note: “shī,” “to lose”;
/ indicates a rising inflection: /shī, “ten”;
√ indicates a slight fall followed by an immediate rise: √shī,
“history”;
\ indicates an abrupt fall: \shī, “city”, “market”.
(The vocable shī has been selected because it has all four tones;
but note that in addition to the meanings given, there are several
other totally unrelated meanings for this same word in each
one of the four tones, depending upon special use, position in
the sentence, etc.).

Of interest is the fact that a few words in very common use
change their tone if they precede another word having the
same tone: the word for “I”, for example, is √wo; but “I
write” is /wo √hsieh, with √wo shifting its tone because the
following word has the same tone.

Tones are, of course, best learned by contact with native
speakers. Limited comprehensibility may be achieved by a
foreigner even without a mastery of tones, provided there is
mastery of word-order and the use of certain syntactical make-
shifts, such as noun-classifiers (see p. 499).

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY.

In outlining Chinese grammar, it is necessary to eject from
one’s mind, to some extent, the Indo-European grammatical
classifications (nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, prepositions,
etc.). The same Chinese word, according to its position and
use, may translate an English noun, adjective, verb, or preposi-
tion; \hsia, for instance, may mean “under” (preposition), “to descend” (verb), “bottom” (noun); the “down” concept, it will be noted, is common to all the translations. There is a striking similarity to the English process whereby “mail” can, according to its position and use, be a verb (“to mail a letter”), a noun (“by mail”), or an adjective (“mail-clerk”). In Chinese, as in English, words acquire their full significance only by reference to their position and function in the sentence.

An interesting theory advanced by some linguists is that at one time Chinese was a fully inflected, polysyllabic tongue, but that prehistorically it went through the same process that English has undergone during the last fifteen centuries and is still undergoing at present, the falling off of inflectional endings, the tendency to use one-syllable words (as evidenced by some of our popular newspaper headlines), and the consequent reliance upon word-order to clarify meanings. Whether this theory be true or not, the fact remains that there are remarkable points of contact between modern Chinese and modern American newspaper-headline English.

Word-order is of paramount importance in Chinese, and must be strictly observed. The modifier regularly precedes the modified word (adjective before noun; adverb before verb). The subject-verb-object order is rigidly adhered to.

Chinese compounds are numerous and varied; as many as four monosyllabic words sometimes go into the rendering of one idea. Two-word compounds are extremely frequent: \k'\an \chie\en, literally “look-see”, for “to see”; \chin \t\ien, “now-day” for “today” (note the similarity of formation in English; “yester-day” is “past-day” in Chinese, and “to-morrow” is “next-day”).

Nouns and Articles.

Chinese has no definite article; the demonstrative \dz\u however, often approaches the value of “the” rather than “this”. The numeral “i (“one”) may be used with the value of “a”, “an”.

The Chinese noun has no distinction of gender, number
or case; /jên may mean "man" or "men", according to the context.

The fact that a noun is in plural use may, if necessary, be indicated by (a) the use of a numeral; (b) the use of a plural demonstrative; (c) the use of an indefinite adjective, such as "many", "some"; (d) the plural suffix "mên, /mên: eight men, "pa /jên; these men, "chê "hsiê /jên; many men, "to /jên; men, /jên "mên. The last form, however, is normally avoided (except in general statements), "mên being preferably reserved for personal pronouns.

"ti, placed after the noun, indicates a genitive or possessive function, and may be said to correspond to English 's, -s': the man's house(s), the men's house(s), /jên "ti /fang √'tzü.

The fact that the noun is the subject of the sentence is indicated by its position before the verb; the fact that it is the object of the verb is indicated by its position after the verb: this man sees the child, "chê /jên "k'an "chien /hai √'tzü (this man look see boy the); this boy sees the man, "chê /hai √'tzü "k'an "chien /jên.

Other case-relations are indicated by separate words serving as prepositions or postpositions, placed before or after the noun they govern: to the man, √'kei /jên; under the bridge, √'ch'iao √'hsia (lit. bridge under).

Adjectives and Adverbs.

The position of a word used as an attributive adjective is before the noun it modifies: the good man, √'hao /jên.

If the adjective appears after the noun, it has the value of a predicate adjective: the man (is) good, /jên √'hao. The verb "to be" is normally omitted in this construction.

The position of a word used as an adverb is usually before the verb: to write well, √'hao √'hsiê (lit., well!, or good, to write). The same form is normally used for both adjective and adverb: slow, slowly, √'man.

To form the comparative of adjectives and adverbs, the prefix √'kêng is used: slower, more slowly, √'kêng √'man.
To form the superlative the prefix \( tsui \) is used: slowest, most slowly, \( tsui \) \( man \).

**Pronouns.**

**Personal.**

I, \( \sqrt{wo} \) (before verb)  me, \( \sqrt{wo} \) (after verb)
you (sg., subj.), \( \sqrt{ni} \) (bef. verb) you (sg., object), \( \sqrt{ni} \) (after verb)
he, she, \( \sqrt{t'a} \) (bef. verb)  him, her, \( \sqrt{t'a} \) (after verb)
we, \( \sqrt{wo} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) (bef. verb) us, \( \sqrt{wo} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) (after verb)
you (pl. subj.), \( \sqrt{ni} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) (bef. verb) you (pl. obj.), \( \sqrt{ni} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) (after verb)
they, \( \sqrt{t'a} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) (bef. verb)  them, \( \sqrt{t'a} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) (after verb)

**Possessive.**

Add \( \sqrt{ti} \) to personal pronoun: our, ours, \( \sqrt{wo} \)  \( \sqrt{m'en} \) \( \sqrt{ti} \).

**Demonstrative.**

this, \( \sqrt{chê} \)  these, \( \sqrt{chê} \)  \( \sqrt{hsiê} \)
that, \( \sqrt{na} \)  those, \( \sqrt{na} \)  \( \sqrt{hsiê} \)

**Interrogative.**

who?, whom?, \( \sqrt{shui} \)
whose?, \( \sqrt{shui} \) \( \sqrt{ti} \)
which?, \( \sqrt{na} \)
which one?, \( \sqrt{na} \)  \( \sqrt{i} \)  \( \sqrt{ko} \)

**Relative.**

There is no true relative pronoun in Chinese; an expression such as “the mountain which is at the center of the country” is rendered by “at country’s center mountain”, \( tsai \) \( \sqrt{kuo} \)  \( \sqrt{chung} \)  \( \sqrt{hsin} \)  \( \sqrt{ti} \)  \( \sqrt{shan} \).

**Numerals.**

1 \( \sqrt{i} \)  5 \( \sqrt{wu} \)
2 \( \sqrt{erh} \)  6 \( \sqrt{liu} \)
3 \( \sqrt{san} \)  7 \( \sqrt{ch'i} \)
4 \( \sqrt{szü} \)  8 \( \sqrt{pa} \)
9 \(\checkmark\) chiu 20 \(\checkmark\) erh / shǐ
10 / shǐ 100 \(\checkmark\) pai
11 / shǐ -i 1000 -ch’ien
12 / shǐ \(\checkmark\) erh 10,000 \(\checkmark\) wan

A digit before “ten” multiplies it, after “ten” is added to it: “14” is “ten four”; “40” is “four ten”; “45” is “four ten five”; “565” is “five hundred six ten five”.

An ordinal numeral is usually formed by prefixing \(\overset{\text{th}}{\text{ti}}\) to the cardinal: fourth, \(\overset{\text{th}}{\text{ti}} \overset{\text{szǔ}}{\text{szǔ}}\).

**Classifiers.**

Classifying words are often prefixed to certain classes of nouns in Chinese, particularly after numerals. The classifier indicates that the noun specifically belongs to a certain class of objects, and removes whatever doubt might be caused by phonetic similarities; the entire expression is thereby made more definite (compare the English “five head of cattle”). In Pidgin English, the native tendency to use classifiers transpires in the constant use of such words as “fellow”, “piecee” (“two fella man”; “five piecee shirt”). A few examples of classifiers are:

\(\overset{\text{kē}}{\text{kē}}\) or \(\overset{\text{ko}}{\text{ko}}\) (for human beings): three men, \(\overset{\text{san}}{\text{ko}} \overset{\text{jēn}}{\text{jēn}}\).
\(\overset{\text{chǐ}}{\text{chǐ}}\) (for animals, hands, feet, etc.): five hands, \(\overset{\text{wu}}{\text{wu}} \overset{\text{chǐ}}{\text{chǐ}} \overset{\text{shou}}{\text{shou}}\).
\(\overset{\text{chien}}{\text{chien}}\) (for things, clothes, etc.): four coats, \(\overset{\text{szǔ}}{\text{szǔ}} \overset{\text{chien -i}}{\text{chien -i}}\).

If an adjective is used with the noun, it goes between the classifier and the noun: five large hands, \(\overset{\text{wu}}{\text{wu}} \overset{\text{chǐ}}{\text{chǐ}} \overset{\text{ta}}{\text{ta}} \overset{\text{shou}}{\text{shou}}\).

Somewhat similar in nature, but not in position, to the classifier is \(\overset{\text{tžǔ}}{\text{tžǔ}}\), which follows the noun and is an indication of a concrete object: house, /fang, or /fang \(\overset{\text{tžǔ}}{\text{tžǔ}}\). This “concretizer” has been compared to a definite article.

**Verbs.**

The Chinese verb has no tense, mood, person or number, and simply indicates the action: to write, \(\overset{\text{hsîē}}{\text{hsîē}}\).
Present.

"I write", "you write", "he writes", etc. are formed by prefixing the personal pronoun to the verb: \( /wo \sqrt{hsie}; /ni \sqrt{hsi}; \) etc.

Past.

The force of a past is often given to a verb by adding \( \sqrt{liao} \) (lit. "finish"; compare Pidgin "he die finish" for "he died", "he is dead"): I wrote, \( /wo \sqrt{hsi} \sqrt{liao} \).

A secondary past, corresponding in value to the present perfect, is sometimes formed by adding \( \sqrt{kuo} \) (experience): I have written, \( /wo \sqrt{hsi} \sqrt{kuo} \). (I have had the experience of writing).

Note, however, that even without \( \sqrt{liao} \) or \( \sqrt{kuo} \), a verb may receive past force from the appearance in the sentence of a word indicating past time, such as "yesterday" or "last year". The adverbial expression of time in such cases must, in accordance with the rule for the position of adverbs, immediately precede the verb: "I wrote yesterday" becomes "I past day write", \( \sqrt{wo} /tso \sqrt{tien} \sqrt{hsi} \).

Future.

There is no specific future form, future force being given to the verb by the use in the sentence of some expression indicating future time: "I shall write tomorrow" becomes "I next day write", \( \sqrt{wo} /ming \sqrt{tien} \sqrt{hsi} \).

Conditional.

\( /ju \) or \( \sqrt{jo} \), "if", or \( /ju \sqrt{kuo} \), "if really" are the nearest approximation to a conditional; if no subject appears, \( /ju \) or \( \sqrt{jo} \) comes first in the sentence; otherwise, the subject precedes: if he does not come, "t'a \( \sqrt{jo} \sqrt{pu} \sqrt{lai} \).

Negative.

The negative form of the verb is produced by prefixing \( /mei \) or \( /pu \) to the verb: I do not eat, \( \sqrt{wo} /pu \sqrt{ch'i} \).
/mei/ is especially used with the verb √yu, "to have", "there to be": √mei √yu, there is not, there are not. √Pu is never used in the past.

Interrogative.

No change in word-order occurs in an interrogative sentence, but the interrogative particle "ma (less frequently "ni) appears at the end: do you see?, √ni √k'an √chien "ma.

A question may also be formed, however, by stating the verb first in the affirmative, then in the negative: √ni √k'an √chien √k'an √pu √chien, lit. "you see not see" (do you see or don't you see?).

Reflexive.

A reflexive pronoun is formed by adding √tzū √chi to the personal pronoun: I see myself, √wo √k'an √chien √wo √tzū √chi.

WORDS AND PHRASES

good morning, √ni √hao; √tsao "an
good afternoon, √ni √hao; √hsia √wu √p'ing "an
good evening, good night, √ni √hao; √wan "an
good-bye, √tsai √chien; √tsai √hui; (au revoir) √hui "t'ou √chien
thank you, √hsiê √hsiê
you're welcome, √pu √yao √k'ê √ch'i
please, √ch'ing
very gladly, √hên √hsi ḷhuan; √hên "kao √hsing "ti
perhaps, √ye √hsü
here is, √chê √li √yu
there is, √na √li √yu (pointing out); √yu (stating)
where?, where is?, (subject) √tsai √na √li
how do I go to...?, √wo √tsen "mo √tao...?
yes, √shî (in reply to "is" questions); √yu (in reply to "have" questions)
no, /pu /shì (in reply to “is” questions); /mei √yu (in reply to “have” questions)
how are you?, /ni √hao /pu √hao
very well, /hèn √hao
how much is it?, /chê /kê “to √shao /ch’ien
why?, /wei /shèn “mo
when?, /shèn “mo /shî /hou
because, “yîn “wei
today, “chîn “t’ien
tomorrow, /ming “t’ien
yesterday, /tso “t’ien
to the right, /yu /pien
to the left, √tso /pien
straight ahead, “chî “ti
what time is it?, /chî √tïen “chung; /shèn “mo /shî /hou
it is now six o’clock, /hsien /tsï /liu √tïen
I’m hungry, √wo /è “la
I’m thirsty, /wo √k’è “la
I’m cold, /wo √lêng
I’m warm, /wo √nuan “ho
I’m ill, /wo √ping “la; /wo √yu √ping
what is your name?, /ni √kuei √hsïng (very polite); /ni √hsïng /shèn “mo; /ni √chiao /shèn “mo /ming “tzû
my name is..., /wo √hsïng...; /wo √pi √hsïng; /wo √ming “tzû /shî
do you speak...?, /ni √hui “shuo... “mo
certainly, “tzû /jan
very little, /hèn √hsiao
give me, /kei √wo
show me, /kei √wo /k’an
tell me, /kao /su √wo
do you understand?, /ni √tung “pu √tung
I don’t understand, /wo /pu √tung
do you know?, /ni “chî “tao “mo
I don’t know, /wo “pu “chî “tao
excuse me, \textit{tui \textasciitilde pu} \textit{ch'i}

don't mention it, \textit{pu \textasciitilde yao} \textit{t'i}

what do you want?, \textit{ni \textasciitilde yao} \textit{shên -mo}

it's fine weather, \textit{t'ien -ch'i} \textit{hao}

never mind, \textit{pu \textasciitilde yao} \textit{chin}

I'm glad, \textit{wo \textasciitilde hsi -huan} \textit{chi -lo}

too bad!, \textit{t'ai \textasciitilde k'ê -hsi}

what is the matter?, \textit{tsen -mo -la}
OTHER LANGUAGES OF THE SINO-TIBETAN GROUP
SIAMESE, TIBETAN, BURMESE

Siamese is a monosyllabic tongue and has five tones. Its system of writing is derived from the Devanagari of India and is quite complicated, with 44 consonants, 32 vowels, and the five tones mentioned above (the tones and some of the vowel-values are indicated above or below the written line.)

SAMPLE OF PRINTED SIAMESE

เพราะว่าพระเจ้าทรงรักโลก, นั้นได้ประทานพระบุตรองค์เดียวของพระองค์, เพื่อทุกคนที่วางใจในพระบุตรนั้นจะมีได้พิมาส, แต่มีชีวิตช้ากว่านั้นเถอะ. เพราะว่าพระเจ้ามิได้ทรงใช้พระบุตรของพระองค์เข้ามาในโลกเพื่อจะพักพิงโลก, แต่เพื่อจะให้โลกรอดได้เพราะพระบุตรนั้น. ผู้ใดได้วางใจในพระบุตรไม่ต้องถูกพักพิง, แต่ผู้ใดมีได้วางใจก็ต้องถูกพักพิงอยู่แล้ว, เพราะเขามีได้วางใจในนามพระบุตรองค์เดียวของพระเจ้า.

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)

There is no gender or inflection. Possession is generally indicated by the simple expedient of placing the possessor immediately after the thing possessed (my ring, wen k’ha, lit. ring-me; this device appears also in Malay; see p. 511). Determinatives or classifiers are abundantly used, especially after numerals (“tiger two head” for “two tigers”; “knife three blade” for “three knives”). The adjective, which is invariable, as are all parts of speech, usually follows the noun. The numerals from one to ten are: nung, sang, sam, si, ha, hoh, chet, pêt, kau, sip. Verbs have no tense or mood, such accessory
ideas being conveyed by adverbial expressions. Samples of Siamese sentence-structure are:

*Rao* *dek-chai sam kon cha pai chap pla*
we boy three person future go catch fish
*sam-rap hai paw kin.*
for-to give father eat (We three boys will go and catch fish in order to feed our father).

*Me* *tan yu ti nai.*
Mother you live place where (Where does your mother live?).

*Me* *pai ta-lat leao.*
Mother go bazaar finish (Mother went to the bazaar).

A very similar structure appears in Burmese and Tibetan, which are monosyllabic and make use of word-order and tones to distinguish meanings. Traces of ancient prefixes, dropped by the modern tongues, are said to be in evidence. There is in these tongues no gender (save for an added “male” or “female”
where necessary); no number (save for the use of words like “many”, “heap”, with the single form of the noun); and no distinction among the various parts of speech (“I go” is translated by “my going”).

(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
MALAY

by

Rev. William E. Lowther, Litt. D.¹

The Malay language is understood over a wider geographical extent in the Eastern Archipelago than any other language. It is used in the whole of the Malay Peninsula; Siam, in some of the southern parts; Indo-China, along some coasts and in some river valleys; the Straits Settlements; Sumatra; Java, in considerable part; Borneo; Celebes; Flores; Timor; and in islands too numerous to mention.

Whatever variations there may be in these regions, the Malay speaker masters in a short time. Some of the languages that bear other names are so nearly akin to Malay that the task of learning them is like the task of a Spaniard who undertakes to study Portuguese.

When the Malays became Muhammadans, in the thirteenth century, they adopted the Arabic alphabet with some modifications, and use it to this day, though there is an increasing amount of teaching and writing done with the Roman alphabet. The Arabic writing is such a poor guide to pronunciation that the student should not undertake it till he is using the language with some comfort.

The loan words of Malay are chiefly from Sanskrit and Arabic. The Malay language is dissyllabic. Monosyllables are few. Words of more than two syllables are also rare. A glance at a page of Malay will show many words that look as though they were polysyllables, but in the overwhelming majority of cases they are dissyllables with affixes. Malay is among the "easier" languages. The verb has few irregularities; there are no conjugations or declensions.

¹ Forms in parentheses, preceded by the letters D. M., are Malay variants current in the Dutch East Indies which diverge from the Malay of British Malaya. They have been supplied by Mrs. Claire Holt, of Columbia University.
ACCENT.

The accent ordinarily falls on the syllable next to the last, but if that syllable is open and contains the vowel ě the accent generally falls on the last syllable. Accent is lighter in Malay than in English:

makan, eat: pronounce má-kan;
bēsār, great: (ĕ in open syllable); pronounce bē-sār;
dēndam, longings: (ĕ in closed syllable); pronounce dēṅ-dam.

As a rule the addition of affixes to a word does not change the place of the accent:

makan, eat; mákanan, food;
bēsār, great; kēbēsāran; greatness.

PRONUNCIATION.

Vowel Sounds.

a = father
e = they
i = police
o = hope
u = crude
ua = wad

ĕ represents a sound such as the one between the k and the n in German Knabe, Knecht (bēsār, pronounced bsār; dēndam, pron. dū-dam; bētūl, pron. btūl).

Consonant Sounds.

Generally as in English. Final k is a glottal stop. G is always hard. R is trilled more than in English. S in always hissed, never like Z. Ng as in singer; ngg as in finger.

We shall now proceed to a study of the Malay language by using the Lord's Prayer as our textbook. From the fifty-nine words in it, we shall develop by far the greater part of the Malay grammar.
PERMINTAAN TUHAN
PRAYER      LORD'S

1  2

1. Ya Bapa kami yang di-shurga,
0 Father our who in heaven,
3  4  5  6  7  8

2. tērhormat-lah kira-nya nama-mu.
be hallowed we pray name your.
9  9 10 11 12 13

3. Datang-lah kērajaan-mu.
Come kingdom your.
14 15

4. Jadi-lah kēhēndak-mu, di-atas bumi sépērti di-shurgo
 Become will your, at on earth as in heaven.
16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

5. Bēri-lah akan kami pada hari ini makanan yang
Give to us at day this food which
25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32
sa-hari-harian.
one day(after) day.
33 34 35

6. Maka ampunkan-lah hutang-hutang kami
( ) forgive debt-debt our
36 37 38 39

7. sépērti kami sudah mēngampuni orang yang bērhutung
as we have forgiven men who owing
40 41 42 43 44 45 46
pada kami.
to us.
47 48

8. Jangan-lah mēmbawa kami masok pēnchobaan,
Don't bring us enter temptation,
49 50 51 52 53

9. mēlainkan lēpaskan-lah kami dari-pada yang jahat.
but deliver us from who evil.
54 55 56 57 58 59
NOUNS.

Malay words do not always fit into our English grammatical classifications. The noun does not change form to denote number, gender or case. (44) Orang means man, men, people. Like our word "sheep," it depends upon the context to reveal its number. When it is necessary to indicate plurality with more exactness, the words sëgala and sëmua, all, and banyak, many, may be added to the word: sëmua orang, sëgala orang (compare French tout le monde).

Some nouns have the faculty of indicating plurality, and also variety, by reduplication:

(44) Orang, man; orang-orang, men, mankind.
(38) Hutang, debt; hutang-hutang, debts.
(34) Hari, day; sa-hari-hari, every day, daily.
       Kuda, horse; kuda-kuda, horses.
       Budak, child; budak-budak, children.

Only observation of Malay usage will guide the student in learning the nouns that can be reduplicated. There is no rule that is fixed, other than to say that the names of living creatures may be reduplicated, and that undefined nouns standing alone may be treated as plural.

DERIVATIVE NOUNS.

The Malay system of prefixes and suffixes can change verbs and other parts of speech into nouns.

Prefix P, often with a "bridge letter," usually indicates an agent. When used with the suffix an, an abstract noun is formed:

Bunoh, kill; Pëmbunoh, murderer; Pëmbunohan, murder.
Ajar, teach; Pëngajar, teacher; Pëngajaran, teaching, doctrine.

(53) Choba, attempt; Pënchoba, tempter; Pënchobaan, temptation.

The suffix an generally denotes the thing that is affected by the action expressed by the verb:

(31) Makan, eat; Makanan, thing eaten, food.
       Minum, drink; Minuman, thing drunk, beverage.
The Prefix K forms nouns from verbs:

(17) Hēndak, wish; Kēhēndak, will, desire.

The prefix k with the suffix an forms nouns, generally abstract, from other nouns and from other parts of speech:

(15) Raja, king; kērajaan, kingdom.
(59) Jahat, wicked; kējahatan, wickedness.

The suffix an with reduplication may express multiplicity:

(34, 35) Hari, day; (sa-) hari-harian, daily.

When two nouns stand together, the second is in the possessive case:

(31, 44) Makanan orang, man’s food (also orang punya makanan).

(5, 31) Makanan kami, our food (also kami punya makanan).

The word punya makes any noun a possessive. The punya possessive must stand before its object.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

There is no variation in the form of the pronouns to indicate case:

sahaya, saya, aku,
ēngkau,
dia,
kita, kami,
kamu,
dia, dia-orang,

I, me, my (5, 27, 41, 51, 56)
thou, thee, thine
he, she, it,
him, her, his, its.
we, us, our
you, your
they, them, their

The personal pronouns are often shortened or changed in the possessive case.

(12, 13) Nama kamu, or nama-mu, your name.
(15) Kērajaan kamu, or kērajaan-mu, your kingdom.
(17, 18) Kēhēndak kamu, or kēhēndak-mu, your will.
Nama aku, or nama-ku, my name;

Dia becomes nya;
Nama dia, or nama-nya, his, her, its or their name.
Kira-nya (pray, prithee), changes an imperative to a request or prayer.
RELATIVE PRONOUN.

There is only one, yang. It means who, which, that, what. (6, 32, 45, 58)

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

(30) Ini, this, these; itu, that, those.

There are no articles, a, an, or the. The demonstratives substitute for them.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Siapa, who? (44, 30): Siapa orang ini?, who is this man?
Apa macham, what kind of? (31, 30): Apa macham makanan ini?, what kind of food is this?
Mana, where? (interrogative adverb): (15) Di-mana raja itu?, where is the king?

By adding the suffix -kah, we make any word interrogative: Datang-kah orang itu?, is that man coming?

ADJECTIVES.

The adjective normally follows the noun it qualifies.

(44, 59) Orang jahat, the wicked man.
Orang yang jahat, the man who (is) wicked.

For reasons of emphasis it may stand elsewhere.

Comparison of adjectives:
lēbeh, lagi, more; kurang, less; dari-pada, than, from;
sama....dēngan, sēpērti, equally....with, as....as;
sa-kali (one time, i. e. uniquely), most, superlative degree, frequently used with the relative yang.

(59, 44, 15.)
Lēbeh jahat orang ini dari-pada raja.
More evil man this than (the) king.
Kurang jahat orang ini dari-pada raja.
Less evil man this than (the) king.

(30, 44, 58, 59)
Ini-lah orang yang jahat sa-kali.
This (is the) man who(is) evil most.
Orang ini sama jahat dēngan raja.
Man this equally evil with (the) king.
Orang ini sama jahat sēpērti raja.
Man this as evil as (the) king.

ADVERBS.
Pula, again; pun, also; juga, likewise, nevertheless.
Time: sēkarang, now; tadi, just now; kēlmarin, yesterday; ini hari, today; besok, tomorrow.
Place: sini, here; sana, situ, there; luar, outside; dalam, inside; (20) atas, on, above; bawah, below, under.

PREPOSITIONS.
(7) di-, at, in; (20) atas, on, on top of; di-atas, upon;
(26) akan, to; (47) pada, to; (28) pada, to (time);
(57) dari-pada, from (persons); dari, from (places), ka-, to (motion).

CONJUNCTIONS.
(54) mēlainkan, but (German sondern); tētapi, but (German aber); dan, and; atau, or; kalau, if; sēbab. because; supaya, in order that.

PUNCTUATION WORDS.
In Malay, when written in the Arabic characters, there are no punctuation marks. Certain words help with the work of punctuation, introducing new sentences and paragraphs, and breaking into sentences themselves. They need not be translated. Yet they are carried over bodily into Romanized editions of Malay works and do double duty alongside the modern punctuation system.
(36) maka, may be translated, if at all, by the word “and”. bahwa introduces narration.
ada pun, introduces a parenthetical clause, or calls the reader back to the main story after a digression.
bērmula, takes up a new subject, paragraph, chapter.
dan lagi, continues the same subject.
These and others will become familiar in reading.
INTERJECTIONS.

There are many as in all languages.
(3) Ya, O!, from the Arabic, used in prayer and in addressing holy persons.

NUMERALS.

(33) Sa- is a shortened form of the numeral satu meaning one.

1 — satu, or sa-
2 — dua
3 — tiga
4 — émpat
5 — lima
6 — ēnam
7 — tujoh
8 — dēlapan
9 — sēmbilan
10 — sa-puloh (satu puloh, one ten)

Bēlas is another word for puloh

11 — sa-bēlas (satu added to bēlas)
12 — dua-bēlas, and so on up to 19, when puloh returns.

With puloh the first number is a multiplier.

20 — dua-puloh
21 — dua-puloh-satu
32 — tiga-puloh-dua
43 — émpat-puloh-tīga
54 — lima-puloh-ēmpat
100 — sa-ratus (satu ratus)
101 — sa-ratus satu
200 — dua-ratus
1000 — sa-ribu
2000 — dua-ribu

And so on to 99.

ORDINAL NUMBERS.

Ordinal numbers are formed by adding the prefix kē to the cardinal numbers, and putting the relative pronoun before the new word.

3 — tīga 3rd — yang kētīga
1st — yang pērtama (irregular)
2nd — yang kēdua
4th — yang kēēmpat
5th — yang kēlima

Without the yang, groups are meant. Collectives: kēdua, both; kētīga, all three; kēlima, all five, etc.
FRACTIONS.

The prefix pĕr added to the cardinal numbers gives the corresponding fractions. Note following the two exceptions, tĕngah and suku.

1/2 — sa-tĕngah (tĕngah means “a half”)
2/3 — dua pĕrtiga
3/4 — tiga pĕrĕmpat, or commonly tiga-suku (suku means a “quarter” in Malaya, ½ guilder or 35 cents in Java; D. M. ¼ — sa pĕrapat; ¾ — tiga pĕrapat).
4/5 — ĕmpat pĕrlima
6/10 — ĕnam pĕrpuloh

VERBS.

The verb is not inflected. It cannot show number, person, or tense.

Verbs are either primitive or derivative. The primitives are verbs in their original signification (14, 16, 25, 52). The derivative verbs are made from primitive verbs, nouns and adjectives and adverbs by the application of particles (37, 43, 50, 55). Transitive verbs are formed from all other parts of speech by the addition of -kan and -i.

(37) Ampun, pardon (noun); ampunkan, pardon (verb)
(55) Lĕpas, after (preposition), free, loose; lĕpaskan, deliver (verb)
(43) Ampun, pardon (noun); mĕng-ampun-i, pardon (verb)
      Jalan, walk; jalankan, cause to walk.

THE PREFIX M

The Malays use the prefix M (with a bridge letter where needed) with transitive verbs in the active voice. Exception is made when the verb is in the imperative mood, in which case the particle of intensity lah is added. In communication between Malays and foreigners the prefix M is largely left unemployed.

(50) Mĕmbawa, bring; bawa-lah, bring (imperative; 14, 16, 25, 37, 49, 55)
BRIDGE LETTERS WITH THE PREFIX M

None before l, m, n, r, w, y:
Lihat, see; mēlihat, see
Makan, eat; mēmakan, eat, etc.
M before b and p; but the p drops out:
Bunoh, kill; mēmbunoh, kill
Padam, extinguish; mēmadam, extinguish
N before t, d, j, ch; but t drops out:
Dapat, mēndapat, find.
Churi, mēnchuri, steal
Taro, mēnaroh, put.
Tidor, mēnidor, sleep.
Ng before k, g, h, or any vowel; but k drops out:
(43) Mēngampuni, from ampun, pardon
kēpit, mēngēpit, to carry under the arm
gigit, mēnggigit, to bite.
Ny before s; but s drops out:
Suroh, mēnyuroh, order
Note: it is the unvoiced consonant that is dropped.
Exceptions are extremely rare.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

The passive is formed by the prefix di-:
(25) Bēri, give; di-bēri, is given.
The preposition oleh governs the agent:
(31, 25, 44, 26, 15) Makanan di-bēri oleh orang akan
Food was given by the man to the
raja.
king.

A passive may also be formed by using the verb kēna before another verb. It also translates the English word get. 
Dia kēna bunoh, he was (got) killed.
Dia kēna hukum, he was (got) punished.
Dia kēna sakin, he got sick.
Kēna standing alone means “hit the mark”.
THE PREFIX TĒR

This prefix provides a past participle, but its various uses cannot be gathered up in a single term.

(9) Hormat-lah, honor (imperative)
Tērhormat-lah, may be called a past participle, yet in this case it is used in the imperative mood. Hence, honored be, or hallowed be.
Buka, open; tērbuka, opened.

THE PREFIX BĒR

We call the forms with bēr present participles, but they do not direct the thought so much to the action itself as to the state of the persons who perform the actions.

A verb with this prefix can be expressed by our present participle:
(44) Orang bērlari, the man is running.
Lari, run; bērlari, running.
A noun with this prefix has in it the idea of possession:
(44, 45, 46) Orang yang bērhutang pada kami, the man who is having a debt toward us.
Hutang, debt; bērhutang, having a debt.
(44, 15) Orang bērraja, a man who has a king.
Verbs with this prefix may be reflexive or reciprocal.

AUXILIARIES.

(42) Sudah. This word indicates past time. To translate it into English, the context must tell whether to use was, did, has, or had.

The verb habis: Sudah expresses completed action in the past. Habis expresses more emphatically that the action is finished, utterly, entirely, once for all.
Orang sudah makan, the man has eaten.
Orang sudah habis makan, the man has completely finished eating.

Following is a list of auxiliaries with a list of English
words that will translate them. The context must guide in the choice.

Ada, is, are, was, were, possess.
Tiada, is not, will not
Akan, will, shall, would, should
(17) Hëndak, will, shall, would, should
Mau, will, shall, would, should
Boleh, can, could, may, might
Dapat, can, could, may, might
Patut, ought
Mësti, must
Nanti, will, shall

Raja ini boleh bëri makanan pada kami, this king can give food to us.

Orang ini mau datang pada bapa, this man will come to father.

Kami patut mëngampuni hutang-hutang, we ought to for-give debts.

The Verb ADA, “to be”

Ada, to be, existence in time or place.
It asserts presence or existence:

Ada orang di-atas bumi, there are people on the earth.

Ada may be used as the equivalent of “to be” when adverbs of place follow or are understood. It is never the equivalent of “to be” followed by adjectives. The Malays join their adjectives to nouns without a copula.

It expresses progressive action when joined to another verb:
Orang ada makan, people are eating.

It asserts possession in the form that we call the Dative of Possession:
Pada orang ada makanan, the man has food
47 44 31. (to the man is food).

Colloquially this pada is usually suppressed, and the sentence becomes: Orang ada makanan, the man has food.
Ada in conversation expresses our verb to have, (to possess). Thus the object of a preposition becomes the subject of the sentence, and the real subject becomes the object. In good writing the verb ada is seldom the equivalent of the English to have; the pada is not omitted.
Ada may serve as a “Punctuation Word”, introducing sentences without being necessary to their meaning. It may then be ignored in translation, or translated by some English introductory word such as “now”, “there”, etc.
Ada-lah nama raja itu, Raja Da’ud, now the name of that king (was) Raja Da’ud.

Ada pun pada masa itu datang-lah raja itu dari Hindi, now at that time came the king from India.
Ada may be used to round off and close a sentence with emphasis, expressing some sentiment like, “And this is the truth”, or, “And this is a fact”. In this case the syllable nya is added, ada-nya.

Sêgala pêrbuat}-nya baik ada-nya.
All works his good (and that is a fact).

NEGATIVE AUXILIARIES.

Tidak: Kami tidak boleh makan, we cannot eat.
Bukan: Orang ini bukan raja kami, this man is not our king.

Bêlum: Not yet. Very frequently used. In a multitude of cases where we give a direct negative answer, the Malays say “not yet”. Is he married? English answer: No. Malay answer, Bêlum, not yet.
WORDS AND PHRASES.

Good morning, good evening, good-by, farewell, (a general greeting), tabek.

How do you do, how are you, how goes it, etc., apa khabar? (literally, what's the news?)

I am well, khabar baik (literally, the news is good).

What time is it?, pukul bërapa? (literally, how many strikes?).

It is two o'clock, pukul dua (literally, it has struck twice).

half past two o'clock, pukul dua sa-tengah (lit., strikes two and a half; D. M., sa-têngah tiga).

Noon (midday), têngah hari.

Midnight, têngah malam.

It is five minutes to six, kurang lima minit pukul anam.

It is a quarter to five, kurang suku pukul lima (D. M., pukul lima kurang sa-pêrapat).

Next year, tahun datang.

Last year, tahun lalu.

Next month, bulan datang.

Last month, bulan lalu.

Every day, daily, sa-hari-hari.

The whole day, all day long, sa-panjang hari.

Please (try), choba; minta (more polite).

Tell me, bilang pada sahaya (D. M., kasih (or bêri) tahu pada saya).

Bring, bawa.

Show, tunjok.

Thank you, têrima kaseh.

Pardon me, sahaya minta ampun (D. M., maap; maaf).

I am glad, sahaya bêrsuka.

I have to, I must, sahaya mësti.

Where are you going?, pêrgi mana? (D. M., ka-mana?; pêrgi ka-mana?).

Which way?, jalan mana?

To the right, ka-sêbêlah kanan.

On the right, di-sêbêlah kanan.

To the left, ka-sêbêlah kiri.
Straight ahead, maju; tērus.
Here, di-sini.
There, di-situ.
In that way (manner), bagitu.
In this way (manner), bagini.
Come with me, datang-lah sama sahaya (D. M., ikut saya; turut sama saya).
What do you wish?, apa tuan mau?
What is that?, apa itu?
What is the matter with you?, apa salah?
What is the price?, bērapa harga?
Do you speak Malay?, tuan tahu chakap Mēlayu?
A little, sēdikit.
Speak slowly, chakap pēlan-pēlan (D. M., minta bichara pēlahan-pēlahan).
Do you understand?, mēngērti-kah? (D. M., apa mēngērti?).
I do not understand, sahaya tidak mēngērti.
Do you know?, tahu-kah? (D. M., apa tahu?).
I cannot, sahaya tidak boleh (D. M., saya tida bisa).
I can, sahaya boleh (D. M., saya bisa).
What is the name of that in Malay?, apa nama itu dēngan bahasa Mēlayu?
I am an American, sahaya orang Merican.
I am thirsty, sahaya dahaga, sahaya haus.
I am hungry, sahaya lapor.
How old are you?, bērapa 'umur?
I am twenty years old, 'umur sahaya dua-puloh tahun.
How long have you lived here?, bērapa lama-kah tuan dudok di-sini?
Come here, mari sini.
Come in, masok.
Look!, tengok!
Look out!, Be careful!, jaga baik-baik! (D. M., awas!; ati-ati!).
Don’t, jangan.
Don’t forget, jangan lupa.
Don’t run, jangan lari.
Go, pěrgi.
Go away, pěrgi sana (D. M., pěrgi-lah).
Go quickly, pěrgi lěkas.
That is correct, itu bětul.
There is no more, tiada lagi.
Where is there a restaurant?, di-mana rumah makan?
I do not know, sahaya kurang pěreksa (D. M., tidak tahu;
bělum tahu; kurang těrang).
Call on me when you pass, singgah sambil lalu.
They are all alike, sa-rupa sahaja sěmuanya.
What does it contain?, apa isi-nya?
Have you a room vacant?, ada bilek kosong? (D. M., apa ada
kamar kosong?).
Where does this road lead?, jalan ini sampai ka-mana?
I feel ill, sahaya sakit (D. M., saya rasa sakit).
What are you looking for?, apa tuan chari?
I think it is going to rain, sahaya fikir mau hujan.
Close the windows and the door, tutup jěndela dan pintu.
I do not want to get wet, sahaya ta’mau kěna hujan.
You ought to, pautu ŏngkau (D. M., patut kamu).
What is your occupation?, pěkerjaan tuan? (D. M., pěkerjaan
tuan apa?; tuan pěkerjaannya apa?).
He has never seen a tiger, dia bělum pěrnah mělihat harimau.
I shall remove to Singapore next month, sahaya mau běrpindah
ka-Singapura lain bulan.
He is writing (continuous), dia ada tulis, dia těngah tulis.

to day, ini hari
tonight, ini malam
tomorrow, besok
tomorrow morning, besok
last night, malam tadi,
pagi
sěmalam
late, lambat
early, siang
afterwards, lěpas
now, sěkarang
slowly, pělan-pělan
fast, lěkas
no, tidak
yes, ya
how much, how many?,
very much, banyak
běrapa?
yesterday, kělmarin
too much, too many, těrlam-
pau
small, kēchil
poor, miskin
beautiful, elok
young, muda
good, baik
strong, kuat
white, puteh
red, merah
blue, biru
house, rumah
cigarette, rokok
army, tēntēra
head, kēpala
mouth, mulut
ear, tēlinga
arm, lēngan
foot, leg, kaki
blood, darah
to drink, minum
money, wang
expensive, mahal
to sell, jual
horse, kuda
ox, lēmbu
to speak, chakāp
to ask, tanya
man, orang
child, anak
to come, datang
to see, lihat
to want, mau
to live, hidup
to give, bēri
to lose, hilang
to do, to make, buat
at once, sēkarang ini
large, bēsar
rich, kaya
ugly, odoh
old, tua
bad, jahat
weak, lēmah
black, hitam
green, hijau
yellow, kuning
doors, pintu
cigar, chērutu
enemy, musoh
face, muka
eye, mata
tooth, gigi
hand, tangan
bone, tulang
to eat, makan
meat, daging
to pay, bayar
cheap, murah
to buy, bēli
dog, anjing
chicken, ayam
to say, kata
to answer, jawab
woman, pērēmpuan
water, ayer
to go, pērgi
to like, suka
to know, tahu
to die, mati
to take, ambil
to find, dapat
to carry, bawa
CHAPTER XIV

JAPANESE

BY RALPH WALKER SCOTT, PH. D.

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SPEAKERS AND LOCATION.

(All population figures are approximate)

Asia and Oceania — The population of the Japanese Empire prior to the seizure of Manchukuo was estimated at about 100,000,000, distributed as follows: Japan proper, 72,000,000; Korea, 25,000,000; Taiwan (Formosa), 5,500,000; Karafuto (the southern part of the island of Sakhalin), 500,000. It is fairly safe to assume that practically all of these populations may be reached with Japanese. To these may be added the mandated Bismarck, Caroline, Marianas, Gilbert and Marshall Islands, with a total population of slightly over 500,000.

The Manchukuo conquest brought about 43,000,000 people, mostly of Chinese stock and speech, under Japanese domination. The areas of China overrun and dominated by Japan (including the important cities of Peiping, Tientsin, Nanking, Hankow, Shanghai, Hangchow, Wenchow, Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, and Canton) may be estimated to have well over 100,000,000 inhabitants. Japanese was to some extent current in all this territory.

With Japan’s entry into the war, Nippon’s temporary territorial acquisitions included Thailand (16,000,000); French Indo-China (24,500,000); British Malaya (5,500,000);
Burma (16,000,000); Hong Kong (1,500,000); the Netherlands East Indies (60,000,000); the Philippines (16,000,000); British possessions on the islands of Borneo and New Guinea (about 2,000,000); Portuguese Timor (500,000); and various South Pacific islands (Guam, New Hebrides, northern Solomons, etc. — about 250,000). To what extent the Japanese language has penetrated these now liberated populations totaling nearly 140,000,000 is a matter of conjecture.

Japanese speakers are fairly numerous in Hawaii, while small Japanese communities exist in various parts of North and South America. Exact figures are not available, but it is unlikely that the total number of Japanese speakers outside of Japanese-held territory exceeds 2,000,000.

THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE

The Japanese language proper has no relation whatever to Chinese. They are as far apart as English and Japanese. However, many Chinese words have entered into the Japanese, just as Norman French words came into English.

Chinese literature was introduced into Japan about 300 A.D. and the Japanese adopted the Chinese system of writing. In Chinese, the written characters are symbols of ideas, or of things. In other words, the Chinese and Japanese use ideograms, or picture-words, to express ideas or concepts. There are many thousands of these ideograms, and in order to read a newspaper or non-technical book, the student must learn three or four thousand ideograms, at least. To read literature, he will need six or seven thousand ideograms. Now Japanese is an inflected language and phonetic symbols are necessary to indicate the inflections. Hence at a very early date the Japanese began to use some ideograms phonetically. These few phonetic characters are simplified forms of the ideograms from which they evolved and are known as kana. These kana characters, although phonetic, are not alphabetic, but syllabic. That is, each kana character represents a syllable, such as ru, ju, mu, fu, etc. There are two sets of these kana
characters, one known as the kata-kana and the other as the hira-gana. Each set has 48 syllabic characters in common use. The kata-kana is written in a square style and is now used chiefly in formal documents, in transliterating foreign names and in writing telegrams. The hira-gana syllabary is written cursive and is more complicated than the kata-kana, but is nevertheless the syllabary most commonly used by the Japanese.

The hira-gana syllabary is used in two ways. First, it serves to express the inflections, that is, the changing portions of Japanese parts of speech, such as verb endings. Again, in popular publications, such as newspapers and magazines, it is printed alongside of and to the right of the Chinese ideograms, in order to aid the less educated reader in making out the pronunciation of the Chinese ideogram. An example may make this clearer.

As we have just said, the Chinese ideogram is the symbol of an idea, a word picture. For example, the character ɔ means river. It was originally the picture of a river, the currents of water being pictured thus .Requires . Now the ideogram is read as “river” in English and as kawa in Japanese. There is no way of indicating the genitive case, “of the river” (kawa no in Jap.) or the accusative case (kawa wo in Jap.). Hence we use the hira-gana syllabic character  to denote “of” (no in Jap.) and “  ” to denote wo the Japanese sign of the accusative case or direct object. Thus kawa no  ; kawa wo . In modern, written Japanese, these hira-gana characters are found interspersed among the Chinese ideograms in order to indicate particles, modifiers and syntactical terminations.

As we have indicated above, the hira-gana may also be printed to the immediate right of a more difficult Chinese ideogram in order to indicate its correct pronunciation. Thus, we may take this same ideogram  , although it is not a difficult one, and write the hira-gana to the right of it, :  , ka and wa, both spelling out the word kawa. river.
In writing Japanese, the ideograms and accompanying kana symbols begin at the upper right-hand corner and run down the page. The next vertical line of writing begins to the left of the first line and runs down, and so on. Japanese is thus read from top to bottom, and from right to left.

Japanese can of course be written in the Latin alphabet. The Japanese themselves have been interested in giving up the difficult and cumbersome Chinese characters and in adopting the Latin alphabet of the west. A society known as the Rōmajikwai (Roman Letter Society) was organized in 1885 to encourage the use of our alphabet in the place of the Chinese characters. However, the influence of custom and history have so far proved too strong, and Japan is still far from accepting our alphabet. The military defeat of Japan may well hasten the movement, however.
言ふ。いかで斯る事どものあり得べし。イエス答えへ言ひ給ふ。なんぢはイスラエルの師にして猶かかる事どもを知らない。誠にまことと汝に告ぐ。我を知るこ
とを語り。また見しことを説ず。然るに汝らその談を受けず。われ地のことを言
ふに汝ら信ぜずば、天のことを言はんに争で信ぜんや。天より降りし者、御ち
人の子の他には、天に昇りしものなし。モーセ荒野にて蛇を舉げしと、人
子もたず必ず挙げらるべし。すべて信ずる者の彼によりて永遠の生命を得ん
為にあらず。彼によりて世の救はれん為なり。神の獨子の名を信ぜざりし為
者は既に審かれたり。光にきたりしに、人その行為の悪しきによりて、光
よりは暗黑を愛したり。その行為の篤められざらん為なり。真をおこなふ者は光にきたる。その行為の神によりて行ひたることの顯れ
(Courtesy of American Bible Society)
THE JAPANESE SYLLABARIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hiragana Katakana</th>
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This arrangement of the Japanese syllabaries is the work of a ninth-century Buddhist priest, and spells out a complete poem on the frailty of human affairs.

In the Hiragana syllabary, no distinction in common usage is made between syllables beginning with k and those beginning with g, so that the symbols given above for ka, ke, ki, ko, ku
may represent also the sounds _ga, ge, gi, go, gu_; the same lack of distinction appears between the _s_ and the _z_-sounds, the _t_ and the _d_-sounds, the _h_, _b_ and _p_-sounds, and between the syllables _chi_ and _ji, shi_ and _zhi, tsu_ and _duz_, _fu, bu_ and _pu._

The Katakana syllabary distinguishes between unvoiced and voiced consonants by placing a double stroke, somewhat like our ”_, above and to the right of the character if this is meant to designate a voiced consonant, so that the symbols for _ka, ke, ki, ko, ku_, when accompanied by this double stroke, represent _ga, ge, gi, go, gu_, etc. Furthermore, in the Katakana, the symbols for _ha, he, hi, ho, fu_, if accompanied by a small circle above and to the right, stand for _pa, pe, pi, po, pu_, respectively. With a double stroke instead of a circle, the _h_ and _f_-symbols represent _b_-sounds.

**PRONUNCIATION.**

Vowel Sounds.

- _a_ = cot;
- _â_ = far;
- _e_ = met;
- _ê (ei) = eight;
- _i_ = big (short _i_ has a feeble sound, and tends to disappear, most frequently _within_ the word, seldom at the _end_ of the word; _Yamashita_ is pronounced _Yamash'ta_);
- _î (ii) = machine;
- _o_ = obey;
- _ö_ = holy;
- _u_ = push (short _u_ has a feeble sound, and tends to disappear, both within and at the end of a word (_kusa_, “grass”, pron. _k'sa_; _desu_, pron. _des’_; it does not disappear, however, in _-ru_ verb-endings);
- _û_ = rude.

Distinguish carefully between short and long vowels; many words are alike, save for long or short vowels (compare: _tori_, “bird”; _tōri_, “street”; _toki_, “time”; _tōki_,”registration”; _yuki_, “snow”; _yūki_, “courage”). The most frequently recurring long vowels are _ö_ and _û_. Pronounce the former like holy in an
exclamation (Holy Jiminy!); the latter like food, likewise in an exclamation (We want food!).

If two vowels appear together, pronounce them separately (ataeru, “to give”, pron. a-ta-e-ru).

**Consonant Sounds.**

\[
\begin{align*}
b &= \text{bed;} \\
d &= \text{debt;} \\
f &= \text{food, produced, however, by bringing the lower lip against the upper lip, not against the upper teeth, as in English;} \\
g &= \text{gave; often sing} \\
h &= \text{he; this sound in the Tōkyō dialect approaches she (hito, “human being”, pron. shito or shʻto);} \\
j &= \text{joy;} \\
k &= \text{keep;} \\
m &= \text{man;} \\
n &= \text{name; before g, = finger; before k, = banker;} \\
p &= \text{pen;} \\
r &= \text{British very; the trill is so slight that the listener is often in doubt whether the sound is r or l;} \\
s &= \text{see;} \\
t &= \text{tale;} \\
w &= \text{wave;} \\
y &= \text{yard;} \\
z &= \text{zeal;} \\
ch &= \text{church;} \\
sh &= \text{shore;} \\
ts &= \text{its;} \\
dz &= \text{adze.}
\end{align*}
\]

Double consonants (kk, nn, pp, mm, ss, ssh, tch, tt, tts) are fully pronounced.

In compound words, the first consonant of the second half of the compound often undergoes a change, as follows:

k becomes g (ko, "small", plus katana, "sword", to kogatana, "pen-knife");
s, ts become z (kan, "can", plus tsume "packed", to kanszume, "canned goods");
sh, ch become j (chika-chika, "soon-soon", to chikajika);
t becomes d (Benten plus tōri, "street", to Bentendōri, Benten Street").

Accent.

The strong tonic accent of English is not found in Japanese. all the syllables of a word being stressed about equally, thus not "Yokohāma", as in English, but Yōkōhámá, every syllable having equal stress.

Long vowels and vowels before double consonants tend to be stressed, thus; (jochu "maidservant" (the ū being long is emphasized); jōdan "joke" (the ō being long is slightly stressed); máppira "earnestly" (the syllable má is stressed as it precedes a double consonant).

When the vowels i or u, which are by nature weak, drop out entirely from a word, in pronunciation, which very frequently happens, the preceding or following vowel is stressed, in compensation for the lost vowel; thus, General Yamashita's name is pronounced Yamáshta, (not Yamashīta) the preceding a being stressed in compensation for the lost i. Taksán "much" for takusan, the san being stressed in compensation for lost u.

Within the sentence, case particles (postpositions) are especially stressed: Watakushi wá hon wó motte imasu, I have a book.

GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

1. — Nouns.

a) — Number.

The Japanese mind is not so much interested in number or quantity as ours; consequently the Japanese seldom make a distinction between singular and plural. Hana means "flower"
or “flowers”. If a distinction must be made, it is done, especially in the case of human beings, by adding domo, tachi or gata to the word, by repeating the noun, or by adding an auxiliary numeral to the noun, thus: ko, child; kodomo, children; watakushi, I; watakushidomo, we; danna, master; dannagata, masters; hito, man, hitobito, people, hito sannin, three persons.

b) — Gender.

There is no grammatical gender in Japanese, such as is found in French and German. The gender of Japanese words is determined by sex, as in English. Sex can be distinguished in three ways: by a sex prefix; by prefixing another word indicating gender; by using a quite different word, as in English.

The masculine prefix is o- (sometimes on-) thus:

ushi, “cow”
o-ushi, “bull”
inu, “dog”
o-inu, “male dog”
tori, “bird”
ondori, “cock”

The female prefix is me- (sometimes men-) thus:

tori, “bird”
mendori, “hen”
inu, “dog”
me-inu, “bitch”

One may prefix the word otoko no, “male” (lit., man-of), or onna no, “female” (lit. woman-of): ko, “child”; otoko no ko, “boy”; onna no ko, “girl”.

Generally a different word is used as in English; thus:

otoko, “man”
onna, “woman”
musuko, “son”
musume, “daughter”
chichi, “father”
haha, “mother”
oji, “uncle”
oba, “aunt”
shinshi, “gentleman”
shukujo, “lady”
otto, “husband”
tsuma, “wife”

c) — Articles.

d) — Case.

Japanese may be said to have five “cases”¹. These are not indicated by real declensional endings, but by particles placed after the noun. They are as follows:

absolute: *niwa wa*, “the garden”, “gardens”
nominitive: *niwa ga*, “garden”, “gardens” (as subject of verb)
genitive: *niwa no*, “of garden”, “of gardens”
dative: *niwa ni*, “to”, “for garden”, “gardens”
accusative: *niwa o*, (often written *wo*, but always pronounced *o*), “garden”, “gardens” (object of a verb)

The case particles call for some comment. *Wa* and *ga* both may be used after the subject of a verb. *Wa* is frequently used when the verb is negative, *ga* when it is affirmative: *hon ga arimasu*, there are books, (literally, books there-are); *hon wa arimasen*, there are no books (literally, books there-are-not).

*Wa* emphasizes the predicate and *ga* emphasizes the subject. *Doko e ikimasu ka?*, where are you going? (*doko* = “where”; *e* = “to”; *ikimasu* = “go”; *ka* is an interrogative particle, the sign of a question; note that “you” is left to the hearer’s understanding). *Watakushi wa Yokohama e iku*, I am going to Yokohama, not to some other city. That is, the particle *wa* after *watakushi* emphasizes the predicate “to Yokohama”. *Dare ga ikimasu ka?*, who is going? (*dare* = “who”). *Watakushi ga iku*, I am going. That is, I, not some one else, am going.

*Wa* may also be used when the Japanese wish to isolate the subject and then ask a question about it. *Ano hito wa, dare desu ka?* As for that man, who is he? (cf. French, *cet hommela*, qui est-il?).

*No* is the usual particle used to express possession, and

1. The word “case” is not scientifically used, since Japanese could be said to have as many “cases” as there are separate postpositions, and these are numerous; it is employed merely as a practical make-shift, designed to clarify unfamiliar Japanese syntax through familiar Indo-European terminology.
as such is often attached to a proper noun or a pronoun: Brown San no, Mr. Brown’s (San, “Mr.”); dannasan no, “of the master”, “master’s”; watakushi no, “my”, “mine” (literally, “of me”)

Ni is the case particle used to indicate the indirect object: Hon wo Suzuki san ni yarimasu, I give the book to Mr. Suzuki. (hon = “book”; yarimasu = “give”)

The dative case may denote possession. Watakushi ni oji ga arimasu, I have an uncle (literally, to me uncle there-is; cf. French, ce livre est à moi).

With verbs of existence it denotes the locative. Tôkyô ni takusan arimasu, there are many at Tokyo. Tsukue no ue ni hon ga takusan arimasu, there are many books on the top of the table (ue = “top”; tsukue = “table”; hon = “books”; takusan = “many”)

Some Japanese verbs govern the indirect object, while these same verbs in English would call for some other construction, thus — Itsu Tanaka San ni aimashita ka?, when did you meet Mr. Tanaka? (itsu = “when”; aimashita = past of verb au). Ii or i (long i) o tenki ni narimasu, the weather is turning fine (ii = “fine”; o = “honorable”; tenki = “weather”; narimasu = “is becoming”).

2. — Personal Pronouns.

There are no real personal pronouns in Japanese, but certain expressions may be used as pronouns. Even these pronominal expressions are but little used, since Japanese is an impersonal language. The meaning is made clear by the use of humble or honorific words, or by the context. Expressions which are used as personal pronouns are as follows:

Watakushi or watashi = I
Anata = you (singular)
Ano o kata (that honorable person); ano hito (that person); ano onna (that woman); ano otoko (that man) may all be used for “he” or “she”.
Are = it, of a thing far off.
Watakushi-domo or watashi-domo = we
Anata-gata = you (plural)
Ano hito-tachi (of persons); are (of things) = they.

3. Postpositions.

Japanese has no prepositions, but instead employs postpositions, that is, it uses particles placed AFTER the noun or pronoun. In speaking, these postpositions are commonly stressed or accented. Some common postpositions are —
De — denotes means, instrument, measure, value, time.
yūbin de, by post (literally, mail by).
takushi de, by taxi
pen de kaku, to write with a pen.
dāsu de kau, to buy by the dozen (dāsu - dozen)
go sen de katta, I bought it for five cents: (go = “five”; sen = “cents”; katta = past tense of kau, to buy)
ni fun de hachi ji, two minutes to eight (ni = “two”; fun = “minute”; hachi = “eight”, ji = “hour” or “o’clock”; hence, literally, two minute by eight o’clock).
Kara — denotes “from”, “after”, and, with the gerund of the verb, “since”.
kuni kara, from home
sore kara, after that
kore kara, after this, henceforth
Yokohama kara, from Yokohama
Tōkyō e kite kara, since coming to Tokyo (kite = “coming”, gerund of verb kuru, to come)
E — denotes “to”, “towards”, “into”
hoteru e ikimasu, I am going to the hotel.
doko e ikimasu ka, where are you going? (literally “where to”, “whither”)
Made — denotes “up to”, “as far as”.
Yokohama kara Tōkyō made, from Yokohama to Tokyo.
doyōbi made, till Saturday
suteishon made, as far as the station
To — denotes, among other things, “with”, “in company with”,
ano hito to sampo ni ikimasu, I am going for a walk with
that person (sampo = “walk”; ano = “that”; to = “with”, “in the company of”; ni = “for” or “on”)

Ni — denotes “in”, “into”, “for” of purpose or end.

uchi ni, in the house, at home

sampo ni, for a walk

Chicago ni, in or at Chicago. Cf. Chicago e, to or into Chicago.

Eigo ni yaku suru, to translate into English.

Kono mono wa nani ni tsukaimasu ka?, what do you use this thing for? (Literally, as for this thing, what for do you use it? Mono = thing; nani = what; ni = for; tsukaimasu = use)

4. — Verbs.2

The Japanese verb is completely “impersonal”. It does not indicate person or number, but only tense and mood; it does, however, include the notion of familiarity, politeness, or extreme (honorific) politeness. A so-called present indicative, such as kakimasu, may be translated by “I, you, he, she, we, they write or writes” (the real meaning is “there is an action of writing going on”). It is possible to “personalize” it by using a subject pronoun (watakushi wa kakimasu, lit. “so far as I am concerned, there is a writing”); but subject pronouns are seldom employed, it being left to the hearer or reader to figure out who does the writing from the trend of the conversation or the context. On the other hand, the use of the form kakimasu implies a certain amount of politeness toward the hearer; the form kaku has precisely the same meaning as kakimasu, but implies familiarity. The honorific form is seldom used (at least by foreigners), and often consists of an entirely different verb (taberu, “to eat”, familiar; tabemasu, “to eat”, polite; meshiagaru, “to eat”, honorific). The familiar form would

2. The Japanese verb system is exceedingly intricate, and an extensive treatment is outside the scope of this chapter. Only those verbal forms are presented which are essential to an elementary and practical knowledge of the language.
seldom be used by a foreigner, save for the fact that it normally appears in dependent clauses, even though the verb of the main clause is polite. There is no verb form in Japanese that really corresponds to our infinitive, although for convenience’s sake we shall occasionally translate the familiar present as an English infinitive.

1. — Present Tense (familiar form).

The familiar present form ends in -u or -ru. Verbs ending in -u have stems ending in consonants: yob-u, calls (stem yob); ka(f)-u, buys; kak-u, writes; nar-u, becomes; hanas-u, speaks; mats-u, waits. Most, but not all, present tense forms ending in -eru and -iru have vowel stems, the e or the i of the endings -eru, -iru, forming the vowel-stem: mi-ru, sees; de-ru, goes out; shirase-ru, informs. Since these forms indicate tense only, not person, they may refer to any person: hanasu, I, you, he, she, we, they, speaks or speak.

This familiar form is used only between members of a family or between close friends. It is given here because this familiar form of the present is the one that will always be used in a subordinate clause, even in polite conversation.

2. — Present Indicative (polite, but not honorific).

This is formed by adding -imasu to the stem: kak-imasu, I, you, we, they, write; he, she writes (in polite, but not honorific speech). If subject pronouns are really needed, they may be used, with wa or ga: watakushi wa kakimasu, I write; anata wa kakimasu, you (sg.) write; ano hito wa kakimasu, he writes; watakushi-domo wa kakimasu, we write; anata-gata wa kakimasu, you (pl.) write; ano hito-tachi wa kakimasu, they write. It must again be stressed, however, that this is not the customary practice in Japanese. If the verb-stem ends in a vowel, only -masu is added: mi-masu, I, you, etc. see. If the

3. The final -f of verb stems is no longer pronounced, and is generally omitted in writing.

4. The real stem is mat-; t before u is regularly changed to ts.
stem of the verb ends in *t*, this is changed to *ch* before the *i* of -*imasu*: *matsu*, to wait (stem *mat*-*), present *mach-imasu*. If the stem of the verb ends in *s*, this is changed to *sh* before the *i* of -*imasu*: *hanasu*, to speak (stem *hanas*-*), present *hanashimasu*.

3. — Past Indicative (polite, but not honorific).

This is formed by adding -*imashita* (-*mashita* if the stem ends in a vowel): *kaku*, to write; past *kak-imashita*; *ka(f)u*, to buy; past *ka-imashita*; *yob-imashita*, called; *nar-imashita*, became; *hanash-imashita*, spoke; *mach-imashita*, waited; *mi-mashita*, saw; *de-mashita*, went out.

4. — Future.

There is no true future tense in Japanese, the present being used with a future meaning as well: *kakimasu*, I, you, etc. write or will write.

A “future of probability” is formed by adding *deshō* to the familiar present: *kaku deshō*, I, you, etc. will probably write; *ashita hon wo kau deshō*, tomorrow he will probably buy the book (books).

Another future of probability may be formed by adding -*ō* (-*yō* if the stem ends in a vowel) to the stem: *kak-ō*, will probably write; *ka-ō*, will probably buy; *mi-yō*, will probably see.

5. — Conditional.

A “present conditional” is formed by adding -*imasureba* (-*masureba* if the stem ends in a vowel), or -*eba* (-*reba* if the stem ends in a vowel). It is used with the meaning of “if” or “when” in the dependent clause, but never in the main clause: *watakushi ga kakimasureba* (*kakeba*), if (when) I write (shall write); *ano hito-tachi ga hanashimasureba* (*hanaseba*), if

5. These changes of *t* to *ch* and *s* to *sh* before *i* are general, and apply to all tenses and, indeed, to all words. The same is true of the change of *t* to *ts* before *u*. See *Katakana*, p. 530-531.
(when) they speak (will speak). The main clause in these
cases takes whatever tense is called for by the meaning: Tōkyō
e ikimasureba, hoteru ni tomaru, if (when) I go to Tokyo, I
shall put up at a hotel (tomaru is the familiar present-future,
the conversation here being between intimate friends; note the
complete lack of subject pronouns; the sentence could mean
not only “I”, but also “you”, “he”, “she”, “we”, “they”;
Tōkyō e ikimasureba (ikeba), o miyage wo motte kitte kudasai,
when you go to Tokyo, please bring me a present (motte kitte
kudasai being the polite imperative of motte kuru, “to bring”,
the subject here is obviously “you”).

A “past conditional” is formed by adding -imashitara
(-mashitara if the verb-stem ends in a vowel), and conveys the
meaning of “if” or “when” with reference to the past: anata ga
kaimashitara, when you bought; anata ga machimashitara, when
(if) you waited. The past indicative usually appears in the
main clause.

A more specific “if” may be formed by using the present
or past with moshī before the verb and nara after it: moshī
watakushi ga kakimasu nara, if I write, were I to write; moshī
anata ga ikimashita nara, if you went, if you had gone.

6. — Participle.

A familiar present participle is formed by adding -ite
(-te if the verb-stem ends in a vowel): hanasu, to speak;
hanash-ite, speaking; miru, to see; mi-te, seeing. This familiar
participle is of importance in polite conversation because it has
two important polite uses: 1. with the present and past of
various verbs meaning “to be”, to form progressive present and
past tenses: hanashite orimasu (oru, to be), am, is, are speak-
ing; mite orimashita, was, were seeing; 2. with kudasai,
“please”, to form a polite imperative: hanashite kudasai,
please speak (lit. speaking, please). 6

6. The following contractions take place in the formation of the
participle:

If the verb-stem ends in (f)-, r- or t-, -tte replaces -ite, -rite, -chite:
7. — Imperative.

The ordinary way to express a polite command is by using the familiar participle with kudasai, “please”, as described above: yonde kudasai, please call (lit. calling, please); katte kudasai, please buy (buying, please).

“Let us” is expressed by adding -imashô (-mashô if the verb-stem ends in a vowel): yob-imashô, let us call; ka-imashô, let us buy; kak-imashô, let us write. With the addition of the interrogative particle ka, this form serves also as a first person future interrogative, singular or plural: yobimashô ka?, shall I (we) call?; ikimashô ka?, shall I (we) go?

8. — Conjugation with suru, “to do”.

Chinese words, which have entered the Japanese language from the fifth century on, are generally conjugated with the irregular verb suru, to do (make), which has the following forms:
Present, shimasu; Past, shimashta; Pres. Cond., shimasureba; Past Cond., shimagiitara; Participle, shite.

Kenkyû suru, to study (lit. study to do); jödan suru, to jest (lit. joke to make); shûzen suru, to repair (lit. repair to make); sôji suru, to clean: Pres. sôji shimasu, I, you, etc. clean; Past sôji shimashta, I, you, etc. cleaned; Pres. Cond. sôji shimasureba, if (when) I, you, etc. clean; Participle, sôji shite, cleaning; Imperative, sôji shite kudasai, please clean.

9. — Familiar Forms.

The polite forms so far described are the ones most commonly used. When used with reference to the first person, they

ka(f)u, to buy; katte (for kaite), buying; naru, to become, natte (for narite), becoming; matsu, to wait; matte (for machite), waiting.
If the verb-stem ends in b-, -nde replaces -bite: yōbu, to call; yonde (for yobite), calling.
If the verb-stem ends in k-, -ite replaces -kite: kaku, to write; kaite (for kakite), writing.
do not cast honor upon the speaker, but upon the person spoken to.

The familiar form of the verb is used within the family circle or among intimate friends and children, or to inferiors. Its present and past tenses, however, are also used in polite conversation in dependent clauses.

The familiar present has been described (verb-stem plus -u or -ru), while the familiar past is obtained by changing the -e of the participle to -a:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>to call</th>
<th>yobu, to call</th>
<th>yobu, call, calls</th>
<th>yonda, called</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to buy</td>
<td>kau, buy, buys</td>
<td>kaku, to write</td>
<td>katta, bought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to write</td>
<td>kaku, write, writes</td>
<td>naru, become, becomes</td>
<td>kaita, wrote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to become</td>
<td>hanasu, to speak</td>
<td>hanasu, speak, speaks</td>
<td>natta, became</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to speak</td>
<td>matsu, to wait</td>
<td>matsu, wait, waits</td>
<td>hanashita, spoke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to see</td>
<td>miru, to see</td>
<td>miru, see, sees</td>
<td>matta, waited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to go out</td>
<td>deru, to go out</td>
<td>deru, go out, goes out</td>
<td>mita, saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>deta, went out</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Outside of their use in familiar conversation, these two familiar tenses are used in polite speech to replace relative clauses. Japanese has no relative pronoun, and no true relative clause. The present or past of the familiar is used instead like an adjective before the antecedent: kinō mita hito, the man I saw yesterday (lit. yesterday saw man; compare Eng. “the shipwrecked man” for “the man who was shipwrecked”); kaita tegami, the letter I (you, he, etc.) wrote (lit. wrote letter).7

Familiar forms are used whenever the verb is subordinate to the principal verb, especially in temporal or causal clauses: ii o tenki ni natta kara, ikimashō, since the weather has turned fine, let us go (ii, fine; o, honorable; tenki, weather; ni natta, familiar past of ni naru, to become; kara, since (conjunction); ikimashō, let us go, from iku, to go. See Imperative, p. 542);

7. This use of the past familiar could perhaps be compared to that of a past participle used as an adjective, and the expressions above be translated as “the yesterday seen man”, “the written letter”.

hon wo katta kara, since I (you, etc.) bought the book; chichi ga matte imasu kara, since my father is waiting; sore ga okotta toki, when that happened (sore ga, that, demonstrative pronoun in the nominative case; okotta, familiar past of okoru, to happen; toki, when, conjunction of time).

10. — The verb “to be”.

There are three verbs meaning “to be”: aru, oru, iru. The latter two are generally used when there is an animate subject (person or animal), aru when the subject is inanimate. The stem of iru is i-, that of oru is or-; both verbs are used with the familiar participle to form a progressive present and past: yonde imasu, I (you, etc.) am calling (yonde, fam. part. of yobu; imasu, present of iru); matte imashita, I (you, etc.) was waiting (matte, fam. part. of matsu; imashita, past of iru); kaite orimasu, I (you, etc.) am writing (kaite, fam. part. of kaku; orimasu, present of oru); hanashite orimashita, I (you, etc.) was speaking (hanashite, fam. part. of hanasu; orimashita, past of oru).

The verb aru, used for inanimate subjects, means “to be” when a predicate noun appears; all predicate nouns used with aru must be followed by the postposition de: kore wa hon de aru, this is a book. The meaning “to have” is implied when only the subject appears, without a predicate noun: pen ga aru, I (you, etc.) have a pen (pens); the literal meaning, however, is “there is (are) a pen (pens)”; tsukue no ue ni pen ga aru, there is (are) a pen (pens) on top of the table (lit. table-of top-on pen is; compare the use of French avoir in il y a une plume sur la table). In the sense of “to have”, aru may be used even with animate subjects: I have many friends, tomodachi ga takusan arimasu; I have children, kodomo ga arimasu.

The postposition de which must accompany predicate nouns contracts with some of the forms of aru. The conjugation of aru, with and without a preceding de, is:
Polite Pres. arimasu desu is, are Familiar Pres. aru da is, are (which is, are) Polite Past arimashita deshita was, were Familiar Past atta datta was, were (which was, were) Probable Future arimashō deshō will probably be Probable Past arimashita deshō deshita deshō probably was, were Present Cond. arimasureba desureba if (when) is, are, will be Past Cond. arimashitara deshitara if (when) was, were Participle atte de (datte) being

11. — Interrogative.

A question is indicated by the use of ka following the verb: hon ga arimasu ka?, are there books?; doko desu ka?, where is it?; ikimasu ka?, are you going?

Ne instead of ka is used if an affirmative answer is expected (cf. English “isn’t it?”, “aren’t you?”, or French n’est-ce pas?): iō o tenki, desu ne?, lovely weather, isn’t it?

12. — Negative.

All Japanese verbs have special negative forms. The negative forms of aru, “to be”, and de aru, “to be” with a predicate noun, are:

Polite Pres. arimasen de wa arimasen is, are not Familiar Pres. nai de wa nai (which) is, are not Polite Past arimasen de wa arimasen was, were not Fam. Past nakatta de wa nakatta (which) was, were not

18*
Probable Fut.  nai deshō  de wa nai deshō  probably
(Polite)  arimasen  de wa  won’t be
deshō  arimasumai
Probable Past  nakatta  de wa nakatta  probably was,
deshō  deshō  were not
Present Cond.  nakereba  de (wa) nake-reba  if (when) is
Past Cond.  nakattara  de (wa) nakattara  (are) not
Participle  nakute  de (wa) nakute  if (when) was
  were) not
  not being

The negative of the polite forms of other verbs is formed by adding the following suffixes to the stem (with i if the stem ends in a consonant, without i if the stem ends in a vowel):

Present  -i)masen
Past  -(i)masen deshita
Probable Future  -(i)masen deshō
Probable Past  -(i)masen deshitarō

Yobimasen, does not call; machimasen deshita, did not wait; kakimasen deshō, probably will not write; mimasen, does not see.

The negative of the familiar forms of these verbs is made by adding the familiar negative forms of aru, “to be”, given above, with a prefixed a, if the stem ends in a consonant, to the stem of the verb: yob-a-nai, is (are) not calling; kak-a-nai, does (do) not write; mi-nai, does (do) not see; yob-a-nakatta, did not call; kak-a-nakatta, did not write; mi-nakatta, did not see.

The familiar negative participle is the familiar present negative plus de (the participle of de aru): yob-a-nai de, not calling. Another familiar negative participle is formed by adding -(a)nakute to the stem: yob-a-nakute.


The suffix -areru (-rareru if the stem ends in a vowel) forms the passive: korosu, to kill; korosareru, to be killed;
miru, to see; mirareru, to be seen. These passive forms are then conjugated throughout: taberu, to eat; taberareru, to be eaten, it is eaten; miraremashita, was (were) seen. The passive is not so frequently used in Japanese as in English.

14. — Desiderative.

The suffix -itai (-tai for verbs whose stem ends in a vowel) denotes a wish, particularly of the first person: kakitai, I want to write; tegami wo kakitai, I want to write a letter; kaitai, I want to buy; mitai, I want to see. For the negative forms, change -(i)tai to -(i)taku nai.

15. — Honorifics.

Some nouns and verbs are humble or plain in themselves, while others are honorific. In speaking of your own (and therefore humble) mother, you would use the word haha, but in speaking of your friend’s (and therefore honorable) mother, you would use okāsama.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Humble</th>
<th>Honorific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>chichi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>haha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>husband</td>
<td>shujin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wife</td>
<td>kanai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son</td>
<td>segare, musuko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daughter</td>
<td>’musume</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In like manner, some verbs are honorific, such as meshiagaru for the usual taberu, to eat; itadaku, to receive (from honorable you), for the usual morau. Gozaru is the honorific verb meaning “to be” and takes the place of the usual aru. It is a combination of go, honorable, and aru, to be. This verb is often preceded by the particle de, as is the case with its more usual form aru, (de aru, desu, etc.): ikaga de gozaimasu

3. Observe the suffix -san or sama (sir, Mr., Madam, Mrs., Miss) in these words, and compare with Spanish su señor padre, or French madame votre mère.
ka?, how are you?; bōshi wa doko de gozaimasu ka?, where is your hat? (note that in both these sentences, “you” and “your” are to be inferred from the honorific nature of the verb).

5. — Adjectives.

In Japanese the adjective partakes of the nature of a verb; consequently all true adjectives can be conjugated. This is because the signification of “to be” or “being” is inherent in every adjective form.

Real adjectives end in -ai, -ii, -oi and -ui: takai, expensive; yoroshii (ii, yoi), good; kuroi, black; samui, cold.

These adjectives are used as attributives, just as in English: takai uchi, an expensive house; yoi hito, a good person; kuroi hon, a black book.

When used in the predicate with the honorific verb gozaru, “to be”, such adjectives take the following forms: takō; yoroshiū; kurō; samū: samū gozaimasu, it is cold or it is a cold day; takō gozaimasen, it is not expensive.

True adjectives when used as simple predicates partake of the nature of a verb and can be conjugated. The attributive form of the adjective is the present tense. Thus, kuroi = is black; hana wa shiroi = the flowers are white. Other tenses are formed by adding the following suffixes to the stem of the adjective (when one removes the final -i of a real adjective, one has the stem: shiroi, white; stem shiro; samui, cold; stem samu):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>-katta</td>
<td>takakatta, was expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable Future</td>
<td>-karō</td>
<td>takakarō, will probably be expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable Past</td>
<td>-kattarō</td>
<td>kurokattarō, was probably black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Cond.</td>
<td>-kereba</td>
<td>kurokereba, if it is black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Cond.</td>
<td>-kattara</td>
<td>yoroshikattara, if it was good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the adverbial suffix -ku to the stem of the adjective:
The negative forms of the adjectival conjugation are made by combining the adverb formed from the adjective with the familiar negative forms of the verb aru, “to be”, producing such forms as takaku nai, it is not expensive; shiroku nai, it is not white; yoroshiku nakatta, was not good; samuku nai deshō, it will probably not be cold; kinō samuku nakatta, it was not cold yesterday, yesterday was not a cold day.

Many nouns take the suffix na or no to form an adjectival phrase: gin no, of silver; kin no, of gold, golden; ki no, wooden; kirei na, of beauty, beautiful.

These phrases may be used as attributive adjectives: gin no tokei, a silver watch; kirei na uchi, a beautiful house; ki no hako, a wooden box.

6. — Numerals.

a) — Cardinal.

For the first ten numbers there are two sets of cardinal numerals (the short forms, ichi, ni, etc., are originally Chinese, the longer ones, hitotsu, futatsu, etc., are Japanese):

<p>| 1 ichi | hitotsu | 12 jū-ni |
| 2 ni | futatsu | 20 ni-jū |
| 3 san | mitsu | 21 ni-jū-ichi |
| 4 shi | yotsu | 22 ni-jū-ni |
| 5 go | itsutsu | 30 san-jū |
| 6 roku | mutsu | 40 shi-jū (yon-jū) |
| 7 shichi | nanatsu | 50 go-jū |
| 8 hachi | yatsu | 60 roku-jū |
| 9 ku | kokonotsu | 70 shichi-jū |
| 10 jū | tō | 100 hyaku |
| 11 jū-ichi | | 200 nihyaku |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Digit</th>
<th>Japanese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>sambyaku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>roppyaku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>happyaku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>sen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>ni-sen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000</td>
<td>san-zen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>ichi-man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>hyaku-man</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Japanese has an elaborate set of auxiliary numerals in addition to the cardinal numerals. Most nouns need the first set of cardinals plus the auxiliary numeral. The order is, noun, cardinal numeral, auxiliary numeral. There are many auxiliary numerals, of which a few of the most common are given here:

**Hon**, for round things, such as trees, cigars, pens:
- 1-ippom: 2-nihon; 3-sambon; 4-shihon; 5-gohon; 6-roppon;
- 7-shichihon; 8-hachihon; 9-kyuhon; 10-jippon, etc. Hamaki sambon = three cigars; pen ippon = one pen.

**Mai**, for flat things such as letters, tickets, rugs, etc.:
- 1-ichimai; 2-nimai; 3-sammai, etc. Kippu nimai = two tickets.

**Nin**, for persons:
- 1-hitori; 2-futari; 3-sannin; 4-yottari;
- 5-gonin; 6-rokunin; 7-shichinin, etc. Hito gonin = five men or persons.

**Hiki**, for animals, except birds:
- 1-ippiki; 2-nihiki; 3-sambiki;
- 4-shihiki; 5-gohiki; 6-roppiki; 7-shichihiki, etc. Inu sam-biki = three dogs.

**Wa**, for birds:
- 1-ichiwa; 2-niwa; 3-samba; 4-shiwa; 5-gowa, etc. Tori niwa = two birds.

**Soku**, for pairs of shoes, boots, socks, etc.:
- 1-issoku; 2-nisoku;
- 3-sanzoku; 4-shisoku; 5-gosoku, etc. Kutsu sanzoku = three pairs of shoes.

**Fuku**, for sips of tea, coffee, whiffs of tobacco, doses of medicine, etc.:
- 1-ippuku; 2-nifuku; 3-sambuku; 4-shifuku;
- 5-gofuku, etc. Tabako sambuku = three whiffs of tobacco.

**Dai**, for carriages, rikishas, taxis, automobiles, etc.:
- 1-ichidai;
- 2-nidai; 3-sandai, etc. Takushi nidai = two taxis; jinrikisha ichidai = one jinrikisha.
Hai, for cupfuls, glassfuls, etc.: 1-ippai; 2-nihai; 3-sambai; 4-shihai, etc. Chawan nihai = two tea-cupfuls.
Satsu, for books: 1-issatsu; 2-nisatsu; 3-sansatsu, etc. Hon sansatsu = three books.

b) — Ordinal.

Use *dai* before the Chinese cardinal numeral, or *me* after the Japanese cardinal numeral: first, *dai ichi* or *hitotsu me*; second, *dai ni* or *futatsu me*; etc. The cardinals are often used instead of the ordinals.

c) — Fractional.

- **hambun**, a half
- **sambun no ichi**, a third (literally, one of three parts: *sam = 3; bun = part; no = of; ichi = one.)*
- **shibun no ichi**, a quarter
- **shibun no san**, three quarters.

7. — Demonstrative Pronouns

this, *kore*; that (by you), *sore*; that (far away), *are*

*Demonstrative Adjectives*

this, *kono*; that (by you), *sono*; that (far away) *ano*

*Interrogative Pronouns*

who, *donata?* which, *dore?*

*Interrogative Adjectives*

what kind of?, *donna?* which?, *dono?*

8. — Adverbs of Place

here, *koko*; there (near you), *soko*; there (far), *asoko* where?, *doko*, *dochira?*
VOCABULARY


world, sekai
earth, land, tsuchi, riku
air, kūki
water, mizu
fire, hi
light, hikari
sea, umi
sun, tairyō
moon, tsuki
star, hoshi
sky, sora
wind, kaze
weather, tenki
snow, yuki
to snow, yuki ga furu
rain, ame
to rain, ame ga furu
cloud, kumo
cloudy, kumotta
fog, kiri
ice, kōri
mud, doro
morning, asa
noon, hiru
afternoon, gogo
evening, yūgata
night, yoru, ban
midnight, yonaka
North, kita
South, minami
East, higashi
West, nishi
time, jikan (o’clock, ji)
year, toshi, nen (in combination)
month, tsuki, gatsu (in combination)
week, shūkan
day, hi, nichī (in combination)
hour, jikan
minute, fun
Sunday, nichiyōbi
Monday, getshuyōbi
Tuesday, kayōbi
Wednesday, suiyōbi
Thursday, mokuryōbi
Friday, kinyōbi
Saturday, doyōbi
January, shōgatsu, ichigatsu
February, nihigatsu
March, sangatsu
April, shigatsu
May, gogatsu
June, rokugatsu
July, shichigatsu
August, hachigatsu
September, kugatsu
October, jūgatsu
November, jūchigatsu
December, jūnigatsu
Spring, haru
Summer, natsu
Fall, aki
Winter, fuyu

9. Most, but not all, verbs ending in -eru, -iru are vowel-stems, and fall for the shorter endings described on p. 539. In the vocabulary, these vowel-stem verbs are indicated thus: to inform, shiraseru (v. s.); verbs not thus marked (e. g. to relate, kataru) are consonant-stems, and take the longer endings.
2. Family, Friendship, Love

family, kazoku
husband, shujin (humble); go-
shujin (polite)
wife, tsuma, kanai (humble);
okusama (polite)
brother, nisam (elder, polite)
sister, nesan (elder, polite); your
brother, your sister (polite), go
kyoda
father, chiichi (fam.); otosama
(pol.)
mother, haha (fam.); okasama
(pol.)
son, musuko (humble); musuko
san (polite)
daughter, musume (humble);
ojisam (polite)
parents, oyatachi
uncle, ojisam
aunt, obasan
grandfather, ojisam
grandmother, obasan
nephew, o
niece, mei
cousin, itoko
grandson, mago
granddaughter, mago-musume
father-in-law, yofu
mother-in-law, yobo
son-in-law, muko
daughter-in-law, yome

brother-in-law, gi-kyoda; gi-kei
(older); gi-tei (younger)
sister-in-law, gi-kyoda; gi-shi
(older), gi-mai (younger)
man, otoko
woman, onna
cchild, kodomo
boy, otoko no ko
girl, onna no ko
sir, Mr., sama, san; Mr. Tanaka,
Tanaka san
Madam, Mrs., sama, san; Mrs.
Tanaka, Tanaka san no oku-
sama.
Miss, young lady, sama, san; Miss
Hanako, Hanako san
friend, tomodachi
maid-servant, jochu
to introduce, shokai suru
to visit, homon suru
love, ai
to love, ai suru
to fall in love with, ai suru
to marry, kekkan suru
sweetheart, koibito
kiss, seppun
to kiss, seppun suru
dear, beloved, sai ai no followed
by name of speaker; ai suru
followed by name; chan (after
name)

3. Speaking Activities

language, kotoba, gen-go, -go (in
compounds); English lan-
guage, ei-go; Japanese lan-
guage, nihon-go
to speak, hanasu
to say, yu
to tell, relate, hanasu, kataru
to inform, shiraseru (v. s.)
to call, yobu
to be called, one’s name is,
moshimasu (my name is Suzu-
ki; watakushi wa Suzuki to
moshimasu; watakushi no na
wa Suzuki desu).
to greet, aisatsu suru
to give a name to, nazukeru (v. s.)
to name, to indicate, nazukeru, shimesu
to cry, shout, sakebu, donaru
to listen to, kiku
to hear, kiku
to understand, wakaru, ryōkai suru
to mean, imi suru
to ask (question), kiite miru (v.s.), kiku
to ask for, motomeru (v.s.)
tazuneru (v.s.)
to answer, kotaeru (v.s.), henji wo suru
to thank, orei wo yū, kansha suru
to complain, fuhei wo yū, kujō wo yū

4. Materials
gold, kin
silver, gin
iron, tetsu
steel, hagane
copper, akagane, dō
lead, namari
tin, suzu
oil, sekiyū
gasoline, gasorin, kihatsuyū
coal, sekitan
wood, ki
silk, kini

cotton, wata
wool, yōmō, ke
cloth, kire, nuno
to cut, kiru
to dig, horu
to sew, nuu
to mend, naosu

5. Animals
animal, dobutsu
horse, uma
dog, inu
mule, raba
cat, neko
bird, tori
donkey, roba
monkey, saru
chicken, niwatori, hiyoko
hen, niwatori, men-dōri
rooster, niwatori, on-dōri
sheep, kutsuji
mouse, nezumi
snake, hebi
goat, yagi
bee, hachi
cow, me-ushi
ox, o-ushi
pig, buta
insect, mushi
fly, hai
mosquito, ka
spider, kumo
louse, shirami
flea, nomi
bedbug, nankin mushi

6. Money, Buying, Selling
money, kane
coin, kahei.
dollar, doru, dara
ant, sento
(national currency; large), yen
(national currency; small), sen
bank, ginko
check, kogitite
money order, kawase
to earn, kasegu, mōkeru (v. s.)
to gain, to win, mōkeru (v. s.)
eru (v. s.), uru
to lose, nakusu, makeru (v. s.)
to spend money, kane wo tsuiyasu
(tsuukau)
to lend, kasu
to owe, kari ga aru
to pay money, kane wo harau
to borrow, kariru (v. s.)
to change, exchange, torikaeru
(v. s.)
to give back, kaesu
price, nedan
expensive, dear, takai
cheap, yasui
change, tsurisen
store, shop, mise
piece, kire, kake
slice, kire
pound, ei-kin, pondo

package, tsutsumi
basket, kago
box, hako
goods, shinamono
to go shopping, kaimono ni iku
to sell, uru
to buy, kau
to buy (a ticket), kippu wo kau
to rent, hire, yatou, kariru (v. s.)
to be worth, neuchi ga aru
cost, nedan, genka
to cost, kakaru; suru (it cost $30,
    sanju doru kakarimashita, sanju
doru shimashita)
to choose, erabu
thief, robber, dorobō
to steal, nusumu
policeman, junsa
police, keisatsu
honest, shōjiki
dishonest, fushōjiki

7. Eating and Drinking
to eat, taberu (v. s.)
breakfast, asa no shokuji, asa no
    meshi, asa no han
to eat breakfast, asa no shokuji
    wo suru, asa han wo taberu
lunch, hiru no shokuji, hiru-han
to eat lunch, hiru no shokuji wo
    suru
supper, ban-meshi, yū-han
to eat supper, ban-meshi wo
    taberu, yū-han wo suru
dinner (in the evening), yū-meshi,
enkai
to eat dinner, yū-meshi wo suru
    (taberu)
meal, shokuji, meshi, han (in
    combination)
dining-room, shokudō
card, konda ate

waiter, kyūjinin, waitress, jokyū
restaurant, ryōri-ya
bill, kanjō
to pass something, mawasu (please
    pass the bread, pan wo mawas-
    shite kudasai
tip, kokorozuke, chippu
to drink, nomu
water, mizu
wine, budōshu, sake
beer, biru
coffee, kōhī
tea, cha
milk, gyūnyū
bottle, bin
spoon, saji
teaspoon, cha-saji
knife, naifu
fork, fōku
glass, koppu
chop-sticks, hashi
cup (teacup), chawan
napkin, najukin
salt, shio
pepper, koshō
plate, dish, sara
bread, pan
butter, bata
roll, chii sai pan
sugar, satō
soup, soppu, suimono, shiru
rice, kome (raw), gohan, meshi
potatoes, imo, jagaimo
vegetables, yasai
meat, niku
beef, gyūniki
steak, bijuteki
chicken, tori
chop, choppu
lamb, ko-itsuji no niku
veal, koushi no niku
pork, tonniku, buta-niku
sausage, chōzume, soseiji
ham, hamu
bacon, beikon
egg, tamago
fish, sakana
to fry, furai ni suru, ageru
fried, abura de ageta, furai shita
cooked, ryōri shita
boiled, yudeta
broiled, yaita
roasted, roast, yaita, rōsu
baked, yaita
sauce, sōsu
salad, sarada
cheese, chizu, kanraku
fruit, kudamono
apple, ringo
pear, nashi
grapes, budō
peach, momo
strawberries, ichigo
walnuts, kurumi
orange, mikan
lemon, remon
juice, shiru, tsuyu
cherries, sakurambō
dessert, dezāto
pastry, seiyo-gashi
cake, kashi

8. Hygiene and Attire

bath, furo
shower, shawa
to bathe, yu ni hairu, furo ni hairu
to wash, arau
to shave, soru, hige wo soru
barber, toko-ya
mirror, kagami
soap, shabon, sekken
razor, kamisorī
safety razor, anzen-kamisorī
towel, tenugui
comb, kushi
brush, burashi
scissors, hasami
to wear (a hat), kaburu
to wear (a coat), kiru
to wear (trousers, shoes), haku
to take off, nugu
to change (clothes), kikaeru (v. s.)
to put on (a hat), kaburu
to put on (a coat), kiru
clothes, yōfuku (western), ifuku (Japanese)
hat, bōshi
suit, mitu zoroi no yōfuku
coat, uwagi
vest, chokki
trouser s, zubon
underwear, shitagi
glove, tebukuro
socks, kutsu-shita
stockings, naga-kutsu-shita
shirt, shatsu
collar, kara
tie, nekutai, erikazari
overcoat, gaitō
raincoat, amagappa, ame no gaitō
pocket, poketto, kakushi
purse, saifu, kane-ire, kin-chaku
handkerchief, hankechi
button, botan
shoe, kutsu
boot, naga-gutsu

pocket-book, satsu-ire
tie-pin, nekkutai pin
pin, pin, tome-bari
safety pin, anzen-pin
needle, hari
parasol, higasa
umbrella, kōmori-gasa
watch, kaichū-dokei
wrist watch, ude-dokei
chain, kusari
ring, yubiwa
eyeglasses, megane
slippers, uwa-gutsu, surippa
dressing-gown, dotera
bath-robe, yukata
kimono, kimono

9. Parts of the Body

head, atama
forehead, hitai
face, kao
mouth, kuchi
hair, ke, kami
eye, me
ear, mimi
tooth, ha
lip, kuchibiru
nose, hana
tongue, shita
chin, ago
cheek, hō
mustache, kuchi-hige
beard, hige, ago-hige
neck, kubi
throat, nodo
stomach, i, hara (colloquial)

arm, ude
hand, te
elbow, hiji
wrist, te-kubi
finger, yubi
nail, yubi no tsume
shoulder, kata
leg, ashi
foot, ashi
knee, hiza
back, senaka
chest, mune
ankle, ashi-kubi
body, karada
blood, chi
skin, hifu
heart, shinzo
bone, hone

10. Medical

doctor, isha
drug-store, kusuri-ya
hospital, byōin
medicine, kusuri
pill, ganyaku

prescription, shohōsen
bandage, hōtai
nurse, kangoju, kanbyōju
ill, byōki
fever, netsu
illness, byōki
to cough, seki wo suru, seki ga
deru (v. s.)
swollen, hareta
lame, bikko
wound, kizu, kega
burn, yakedō
wounded, kizu shita, kega shita
pain, kutsū, itami
head-ache, zutsu
poison, doku
tooth-ache, ha no itami
cough, seki

11. Military

war, sensō
sailor, suiju, suihei
peace, heiwa
marines, kaihei
ally, dōmei-koku (nation),
warship, gunkan
enemy, teki, teki-gun
battleship, sentō-kan
army, guntai
crusier, jun-yō-kan
danger, kiken
destroyer, kuchiku-kan
dangerous, abunai, ayauai, kiken-NA
convoy, gosō
to win, katsu, shōri wo eru (v. s.)
escort, keibo
to surround, kakomu, torimaku
weapon, buki
to arrest, kōin suru, tsukamaeru
rifle, raifurujū
(v. s.)
machine-gun, kikanjū

to kill, korosu
cannon, taihō

to escape, to run away, nigeru
ammunition, danyaku
(v. s.)
provisions, hyōrō

to lead, michibiku, annai suru
cartridge, jitsudan
to follow, tsuite kuru, shitagau
bullet, dangan
fear, osore
belt, obi
prison, kangoku, keimusho
knapsack, hainō
comrade, buddy, gun-yū, tomodachi, doryō, nakama
soldier, private, heitai, heisotsu
battle, ikusa, sentō
provisional, gōchō

to fight, tatakau, sento suru
sergeant, gunsō

to take prisoner, toriko ni suru,
lieutenant, shō-i
horyo ni suru

to surrender, kōsan suru, kōfuku suru

to retreat, taikyaku suru
sailor, sentai

to capture, bundori suru (booty),
senryō suru (gun, tank, etc.), senryō suru (city, fort)
corporal, gōchō

to bomb, shell, bakudan wo tōka
 colonel, taisha

to surround, kōsan suru, kōfuku suru
general, taishō

company, chutai
brigade, ryodan
division, shidan
reinforcements, enpei, zōentai
fortress, shiro, yōgai
sentinel, bampei, hoshō

bayonet, jūken
uniform, gunpuku
airplane, hikoki
bombing plane, bakugeki-ki
pursuit plane, tsuigeki-ki
bomb, bakudan
truck, kamotsu-jidosha
shell, ryūdan
tank, tanku, sensha
to load, (tama wo) sōten suru
to fire, shoot, hassha suru
to shoot (military execution), jūsatsu suru
fire!, utte!
attention!, kiotsuke!
forward!, mae e!, susume!
halt!, tomare!
air raid shelter, bōkūgo

12. Travel

passport, ryoken
ship, fune
steamer, kisen
stateroom, senshitsu
berth, shindai
to travel, ryokō suru
trip, voyage, ryokō, kokai
to leave, dekakeru (v. s.), deru (v. s.), shuppatsu suru
to arrive, tsuku
to ride (conveyance), noru
railroad, tetsudō
station, teishajō, suteishon
platform, purattohōmu
track, senro
train, kisha
ticket, kippu
to buy (a ticket), kippu wo kau

compartment, kyakusha no shiki-tta-SEKI tokubetsu-SEKI
all abord!, ohayaku negaimae
Dining-car, shokudō-sha
Sleeper, shindai-sha
custom-house, zeikan
car, coach, kyakusha
trunk, toranku
valise, kaban
baggage, nimotsu
taxi, takushi
porter, akabō
bus, basu
street-car, densha
automobile, jidōsha
driver, untenshu
to drive, unten suru

13. Reading and Writing

to read, yomu
newspaper, shimbun

magazine, zasshi
book, hon, shomotsu
to write, *kaku*
to translate, *honyaku suru*
pencil, *empitsu*
chalk, *hakuboku*
blackboard, *kokuban*
ink, *inki*
pen, *pen*
fountain pen, *mennenhitsu*
paper, *kami*

writing paper, *hakushi, tegami no kami*
envelope, *jūtō*
letter, *tegami*
post-office, *yūbin kyoku*
stamp, *kitte*
letter-box, *yūbin-bako*
to mail, *yūbin wo dasu*
address, *banchi, jūsho, atena*
post-card, *hagaki*

14. Amusements

to smoke, *kitsuen suru, tabako wo nomu*
cigar, *hamaki*
cigarette, *maki-tabako*
tobacco, *tabako*
match, *matchi*
give me a light, *hi wo kudasai*
theatre, *gekijō*
movies, *katsudō shashin, eiga*
dance, *odorō, dansu*
to dance, *odoru*
to have a good time, *tanoshimu*
ticket, *kippu*

pleasure, *tanoshimi*
to play (music), *hiku*
to play (games), *asobu*
to sing, *uta*
song, *uta*
to take a walk, *sampo suru*
baby, *tama*
beach, *kaigan*
to swim, *oyogu*
game, *yūgi, asobi*
sand, *suna*
refreshment, *inshoku-motsu, chaka*
saloon, *sakaba, sakaya*
picnic, *pikunikkō, noasobi*

15. Town and Country

place, spot, *tokoro, basho*
city, *shi*
street, *machī, chō* (in combination)
harbor, *minato*
block, *chō*
sidewalk, *jindō*
intersection, *yōtsukado*
school, *gakkō*
church, *kyōkai*
building, *tatemono, birujingu*
cathedral, *dai-kaidō*
corner, *kado*
hotel, *hoteru, ryokan*
office, *jimushō*
river, *kawa*

bridge, *hashi*
country, *inaka*
village, *mura*
road, *dōro, michi*
mountain, *yama*
grass, *kusa*
yard, *naka-niwa*
hill, *oka, ko-yama*
lake, *mizuumi, ko* (in comb.)
forest, *wood, hayashi, mori*
field, *hatake, nōhara, hara*
flower, *hana*
tree, *ki*
rock, stone, *iwa, ishi*
jungle, *mitsurin, yabubayashi*
16. House

door, to

to open, akeru (v. s.)
to close, shimeru (v. s.)
key, kagi
to go in, hairu
to go out, deru (v. s.), dekakeru (v. s.)
	house, ie, uchi
cottage, inaka-ya
hut, koya
to live (in), sumu
staircase, kaidan, hashigoden
to go up, noboru, agaru
to go down, kudaru, oriu (v. s.)
room, heya
bed-room, nema, shinshitsu
toilet, benjo
kitchen, daidokoro
table, teiburu, tsukuye
clock, hashira-dokei
alarm-clock, mezamashi-dokei
to get dressed, kimono wo kiru

chair, isu
to be sitting, suwatte iru (v. s.)
to sit down, kakeru (v. s.), suwaru
to stand, tatsu
wall, kabe
lamp, rampu
light, akari
candle, rōsoku
closet, oshiire, todana
window, mado
to rest, yasumu
bed, toko
pillow, makura
to go to bed, neru (v. s.)
to be asleep, neiru (v. s.)
to sleep, nemuru
to wake up, me ga sameru (v. s.)
to get up, okiru (v. s.)
blanket, mōfu
sheet, shikifu, shitsu
mattress, matoresu

17. Miscellaneous Nouns

people, hito, hitobito
thing, mono
name, na, namae
luck, un
bad luck, aku-un, ju-un, ju-kō

ummer, ban, kazu
life, inochi, seimei
death, shi
work, shigoto, hataraki
good luck, ko-un, saiwai

18. Verbs — Coming and Going

to come, kuru
to go, iku, yuku
to be going to, shite iru (I am going to write, kaku, kakō to shite iru)
to run, hashiru, kakeru (v. s.)
to walk, aruku
to go away, tachisaru, itte shimau
to fall, korobu
to stay, remain, tomaru, todomaru
to follow, shitagau
to return, kaeru, modoru.
to go back, kaette yuku
to come back, kaette kuru
to arrive, tsuku, tōchaku suru
19. Verbs — Looking

to see, miru (v. s.)
to look (at), miru, goran nasaru

to look for, sagasu

to look, seem; kao wo suru, mieru (v. s.)
to recognize, mitomeru (v. s.)

mioboeru (v. s.)
to take for, kangaeru (v. s.), omou
to laugh, warau
to smile, hohoemuru, nikki warau
to laugh at, make fun of, azawarau, baka ni suru

20. Verbs — Mental

to make a mistake, machigai wo suru, machigaru (v. s.)
to hope, nozomu, kibô suru
to wait (for), matsu

to think (of), omou, kangaeru (v. s.)
to believe, shinjiru (v. s.), shinkô suru
to like, suki, suki de aru
to wish, -(i) tai added to stem of verb - see p. 547.
to want, hossuru, hoshigaru
to want (lack), kaku, kaite iru (v. s.); tarinai (negative verb; money is lacking, he lacks money, kane ga tarinai)
to need, iru (with thing needed)
as subject)
to know (person), shitte iru
to know (fact), shiru
to know how to, dekiri (v. s.)
to remember, obo eru (v. s.)
to forget, wasureru (v. s.)
to permit, allow, yurusu, saseru
to promise, yakusoku suru
to forbid, kinzuru
to learn, narau
to feel like, kanzuru
to fear, be afraid, osor eru (v. s.), kowagaru
to be right, tadashii desu, tada-shi-ku aru
to be wrong, machigatte iru, machigai desu

21. Verbs — Miscellaneous

to live, ikiru (to have life; v. s.);
iki te iru

to die, shinu, nakunaru
to work, hataraku, shigoto wo suru
to give, ataeru (v. s.), ageru (v. s.)
to take, toru

to begin, hajimeru (v. s.; trans.;
began to write, kaki hajimeta)
to begin, hajimar u (intr.)
to finish, to end, shimau, owaru (finished writing, kaki owatta)
to continue, keep on, tsuzukeru (v. s.; trans.; kept on writing, kaki tsuzuketa)
to continue, tsuzuku (intr.)
to help, tetsudau
to lose, nakusu
to lose, to be beaten, makeru (v. s.)
to find, mitsukeru (v. s.)
to try, yatte miru (v. s.); koko- romiru (v. s.)
to leave (something), oku
to show, miseru (v. s.)
to meet, au
to do, suru
to make, koshiraeru (v. s.)
to be able, can, dekiru (v. s.)
to put, oku
to carry, hakobu, motte iku
to forbid, kinzuru
to understand, rikai suru, wakaru
to bring, motte kuru
to stop, tomaru (trans.; v. s.)
to stop, tomaru (intrans.)
to cover, kabuseru (v. s.), ōu
to get, obtain, morau, eru (v. s.)
to get, become, naru
to hide, kakureru (intrans.; v. s.)
to hide, kakusu (trans.)
to hold, motsu, tamotsu
to break, kowasu (trans.); kowareru (intr., v. s.)
to hurry, isogu (intrans.)
to deliver (hand over), todokeru (v. s.)
to belong (use possessive form with verb "to be"; kore wa watakushi no desu, it belongs to me)
to have (something) done, suru yō ni natte iru
to lay, deposit, oku
to end, owaru (intrans.)
to end, shimau (trans.)

22. Adjectives

small, chiisai, chiisana
big, large, ōkii, ōkina,
great. idai na, ōkina
tall, high, takai
short (opp. of tall), low, hikui
heavy, omoi
light (weight), karui
long, nagai
short (opp. of long), mijikai
wide, hiroi
narrow, semai
clean, kirei na
dirty, kitanai
cool, suzushii
cold, samui, tsumetai
warm, atatakai
hot, atsui
damp, shimeppoi
wet, nureta
dry, kawaïta
full, ippai
empty, kara
dark, kurai
light, bright, clear, akarui, hareta
fat, futotta
thick, atsui
thin, yaseta (of persons); usui (of flat things)
round, marui
square, shikakui
flat, hiratai, taira na
deep, jukai
soft, yawarakai
hard, katai
quick, hayai
slow, osoi
ordinary, futsū no, atarimae no
comfortable, raku na, kimochi yoi
uncomfortable, kokochi yoku na,
kimochi warui
kind, shinsetsu na
right, tadasii
wrong, machigatta
near, chikai
distant, tōi
right, migi
left, hidari
poor, bimbō na, mazushii
rich, kane-mochi na, yutakana,
tonda
beautiful, utsukushii
pretty, kirei na.
ugly, minikui, iyana
sweet, amai
bitter, nigai
sour, suppai
salty, shio-karai
young, wakai
old, toshiyori na, toshitotta (persons); furui (things)
new, atarashii
good, yoi, ii
better, motto ii, issō yoi, motto yoi
best, ichi-ban ii, ichi-ban yoi, mottomo yoi
bad, warui
worse, issō warui, motto warui
worst, mottomo warui, ichi-ban warui
fine, “regular”, yoi, ii
first, hajime no, daiichi no
last, owari no, saigo no
strong, tsuyoi
weak, yowai
tired, tsukareta
alone, hitori
same, onaji
true, makoto no
false, itsuwarī no, uso no
easy, yasashii
hard, difficult, muzukashii
happy, glad, saiwai na, yorokobashii, ureshii
sad, kanashii
free, jiyyu na
silly, baka na
crazy, kichigai no
drunk, yopparatta
polite, teinei na
rude, burei na
pleasant, yukai na, tanoshii
unpleasant, ju yukai na
lonesome, samushii, sabishii
foreign, gaikoku no
friendly, shitashii, yūjō aru
hostile, tekii aru
lucky, kōun na
unlucky, juun na
charming, kawaii
afraid, kowai
ready, yōi no dekita
hungry, himoji, kūfuku na (to be hungry, hara ga hetta)
thirsty, nōdo ga kawaita
funny, okashii, kokkei na
possible, deki uru, dekiru, kanō na
impossible, deki nai, fukanō na
brave, yukan na
cowardly, okubyō na, hikyō na
noisy, yakamashii, sōshii
quiet, shizuka na
living, ikita
dead, shinda

23. Colors

white, shiroi
black, kuroi
red, akai
green, midori no
blue, aoi
yellow, ki iro no
gray, nezumi iro no, hai iro no
brown, cha iro no
pink, momo iro no
purple, murasaki iro no
24. Nationalities

American, Beikoku no
English, Eikoku no
French, Furansu no
German, Doitsu no
Spanish, Supei’n no
Russian, Rossha no
Italian, Itari no
Japanese, Nippon no
Chinese, Shina no
Dutch, Oranda no
Norwegian, Noruwei no
Swedish, Sueiden no
Finnish, Finrando no
Belgian, Berugi no
Polish, Poroando no
Danish, Demmaku no
Swiss, Suisu no
Portuguese, Porutogaru no
Chilean, Chiri no
Peruvian, Peru no
Yugoslav, Yagosurabia no
Bulgarian, Burugaria no
Czech, Chekku no
Greek, Girisha no
Turkish, Toruko no
Roumanian, Rumania no
Hungarian, Hangarii no
Austrian, Osutoriya no
Malay, Marei no
Persian, Perusha no
Arabian, Arab, Arabic, Arabiya no
Jewish, Hebrew, Yudaya no
Australian, Goshu no
African, Ajurika no
Canadian, Kanada no
Mexican, Mekishiko no
Cuban, Kyuba no
Brazilian, Buraziru no
Argentinian, Arujentina no
Puerto Rican, Poruto Riko no
Indian (Hindu), Indo no

25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions

today, kyō, konnichi
yesterday, kunō, sakujitsu
tomorrow, asu, myōnichi
day before yesterday, ototoi
day after tomorrow, asatte
tonight, konban
last night, sakuban
this morning, kesa
in the morning, asa no uchi ni
in the afternoon, gogo ni
in the evening, yugata ni
in the night, ban ni, yachū ni
this afternoon, kyō no gogo
tomorrow morning, asu no asa
tomorrow afternoon, asu no gogo
tomorrow night, asu no ban
eyearly, hayaku
late, osoku
already, mō
no longer, mō (followed by neg. verb, p. 545)
yet, still, ima-motte, nao

10. The forms given, with no, literally mean “of America” “of England”, etc. (Furansu no budōshu, wine of France, French wine). The suffix -koku denotes “country”; for languages, drop -koku, if it appears, and add -go (shina-go, the Chinese language); for people, add -jin, “man”: Beikoku-jin, an American; Itari-jin, an Italian; if hito is used, retain no: Beikoku no hito.
not yet, mada
now, ima
then, sono-toki
afterwards, atokara
never, kesshite
always, itsu de mo, tsune ni
forever, eikyū ni, itsu made mo
soon, sugu ni
often, shiba shiba, tabi tabi
seldom, metta ni, mare ni
not, nai (see negative form of
verb, p. 545)
very much, taihen ni, takusan
little, not much, sukoshi, chotto
well, yoku
badly, waruku
better, issō yoku
worse, issō waruku
only, wazuka ni, tada, dake
more, motto
less, issō sukunaku
as - as, he is as tall as I, ano hito
wa watakushi to onaji gurai
sei ga takai:
literally, that man (ano hito),
and (to), I (watakushi), same
(onaji), about (gurai), height
(sei ga), high are (takai)
as much - as (as many - as)
possible, dekiru-dake takusan
how much?, ikura
how many?, ikutsu
how?, donna fū ni shite, dō shite
too much, ammari, ōsugaru
too many, ammari takusan
really, truly, honō ni
usually, jutsū ni, taitei
fast, hayai, hayaku
slowly, osoku, noroku
here, koko ni
there, asoko ni
over (down) there, mukō ni
near by, chikaku ni
far away, tō, tōku ni
up (stairs), nikai ni
down (stairs), kaika ni, shita ni
ahead, in front, mae ni, saki ni
behind, in back, ushiro ni, ato ni
forward, zenpō e, mae ni
back, backward, ushiro e, kōhō e
outside, soto ni
inside, naka ni
opposite, in front, mae ni, han
tai ni
here and there, koko kashi-ko
everywhere, dokoni mo
where, doko ni
also, too, mata, yahari
yes, sayō, hai
no, iie
for lack of, (something) ga nai
node
occasionally, toki doki
all day, ichinichi-jū
all morning, gozen chū
all afternoon, gogo jū, maru han
nichi
all night, yo jū
why?, dōshite
very much, taihen
like, no gotoki, no yōna
besides, sono hoka ni
finally, saigo ni
in short, yōsuru ni
almost, taitei, hotondo
gladly, yokonnde
certainly (it is so), tashika ni
at once, sugu ni, tadachi ni
at all, sukoshi mo
hardly, hotondo . . . de nai
aloud, takagoe ni
of course, mochiron
suddenly, kyū ni, totsu-zen ni
perhaps, maybe, tabun, osoraku
a little, sukoshi
again, mata, futatabi
together, issho ni
at least, sukonaku tomo
long ago, zutto mae, mukashi
again and again, ikudo mo,

shiba shiba
from time to time, tokidoki
therefore, yue ni, dakara

26. Conjunctions

and, (between nouns) to
but, ga
if, moshi (also see conditional of
verb, p. 540)
or, ka
why, naze
because, kara, yue ni
before, izen ni, mae ni
when, toki, sono toko ni
than, yori
where, doko ni, doko

whither, doko e
until, made
although, tatoe—to iedomo, keredomo
unless, de nakereba
while, aida ni, uchi ni
when, itsu
that, to yū koto, to
after, ato ni
as soon as, ya ina ya, suru to
sugu ni
as long as, no aida, kagiri

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives

such (adj.), sō yū yō na, sono
yō na
such (pron.), konna mono, sonna
hito
all kinds of, iroiro na
everything, nan de mo
everyone, dare de mo
something, nani ka, aru mono
someone, dare ka, aru hito
nothing, nani mo (with neg.)
no one, dare mo (with neg.)
no (adj.), sukosho mo—nai, nani
mo—nai
some (pron.), sukosho, ikuraka
neither—nor, —mo—mo dochira-
mo nai (I have neither fish nor
rice, sakana mo kome mo dochiramo nai)
some (adj.), aru, nani ka
all, mina(n), mina no (adj.)
other, another, hoka no
much, takusan no (adj.)
much, takusan (pron.)
few (adj.), sukonai, shō-sū no
many, takusan
several, iro-iro no
little (not much), sukoshi
both, dochi mo, ryōhō tomo
neither, dochi mo (with neg.)
足够的, jubun
each, every, onoono no, subete no

28. Postpositive particles and Expressions

of, no
from, kara
out of, kara
to, toward, e
on, —no ue ni
over, —no ue ni
above, —no ue ni
for (the sake of)—no tame ni
for (of price), de
until, up to, made
since, kara
toward, —no hō e
between, —no aida ni
among, —no naka ni
near, —no chikaku ni
before, —no mae ni (of place)
after, —no ato ni
opposite, in front of, —no
mukai ni
back of, behind, —no ushiro ni
under (neath), below, —no shita
ni
at, de, —no tokoro ni
with, de (means); issho ni (in
company with)
without, —no soto ni, —nashi ni
in, ni
instead of, no kawari ni
beside, —no soba ni

at the house of, —no uchi ni
through, —wo tōshite; -jū
next to, —no tsugi ni, —no tonari
ni
by means of, —ni yotte, de
against, —ni taishite
across, —no mukō ni
in spite of, —ni mo kakawarazu
in order to, —no tame ni, —suru
tame ni
about, concerning, —ni tsuite
about, round about, —no mawari
ni
around, —no shūi ni
during, —no aida, -jū
because of, on account of, —no
tame ni
by (agent), —ni yotte
by (place), —no soba ni
by (means), de

29. Special Expressions and Idioms

good morning, ohayō
good day, good afternoon, konnichi wa
good evening, komban wa
good night, oyasumi nasai
good-bye, sayōnara
I’ll see you later, ato de o me ni kakarimashō
I’ll see you tomorrow, myōnichi o me ni kakarimashō
I’ll see you tonight, komban o me ni kakarimashō
just now, tadaima
how are you?, ikaga desu ka?
I’m well, watakushiwa jōbu desu, genki desu.
I’m (much) better, taihen yoku narimashita
how goes it?, dō desu ka?
what time is it?, ima nanji desu ka?
it’s six o’clock, roku-ji desu
at six o’clock, roku-ji ni
at about six, roku-ji goro ni
at half past six, roku-ji han ni
at a quarter to six, roku-ji jū-go-fun mae ni
at a quarter past six, roku-ji jū-go-fun sugi ni
at ten minutes to six, roku-ji jippun mae ni
at ten minutes past six, roku-ji jippun sugi ni
last year, sakunen, kyonen
next year, rainen, myōnen
every day, mai-nichi
the whole day, ichi-nichi-jū
please, dōzo, kudasai (following participle of verb)
bring me, motte kite kudasai
show me, misete kudasai
thank you, arigatō
don’t mention it, dō itashimashite
will you give me?, kudasaimasu ka?
pardon me, gomen nasai
it doesn’t matter, kamaimasen
never mind, kamaimasen
I’m sorry for you, okinodoku desu
I can’t help it, watakushi wa dō suru koto mo deki masen, shikataga-nai
it’s nothing, nan de mo nai
what a pity!, oshii koto desu
it’s too bad, oshii koto desu
I’m glad to hear it, sore wa nani yori de gozaimasu
I have to, (neg. present conditional of verb followed by nara-nai)
I must (have to) go, ika nakereba nara-nai
I’m agreeable, shōchi shimashita, yoroshii
where is (are)?, doko desu ka, doko ni arimasu ka?
where are you going?, doko e yukimasu (or mairimasu) ka?
there is (are), arimasu (of inanimate things), orimasu (of living things)
there is (are), with noun or pronoun as predicate, ga aru
which way (to a place)?, (place) e iku michi wa dochira desu ka?
this (that) way (fashion), kō yū yarikata de, kō
this direction, kochira e
that direction, achira e
what can I do for you?, nani ka hoshii (onozomi) desu ka? nani ka
itashimashō ka?
what is it?, dō shita no desu ka?, nan desu ka?
what is the matter?, nani ga okotta no desu ka?, nanigoto desu ka?,
dō shita no desu ka?
what do you want?, nan no goyō desu ka?
what are you talking about?, nani wo hanashite iru (irassharu) no
desu ka?
what do you mean?, what does that mean?, sore wa dō iu wake
desu ka?
how much is it?, ikura desu ka?
anything else?, hoka ni nanika iriyō desu ka?
nothing else, mō nai, mō hoka ni nani mo arimasen
do you speak English?, eigo ga dekimasu ka?, eigo wo hanashimasu ka?
a little, sukoshi dake
do you understand?, wakarimasu ka?
I don’t understand, wakarimasen
do you know, shitte imasu ka?
I don’t know, shirimasen
I can’t, dekimasen
what is your name?, anata wa nan to osshaimasu ka?; anata no o
nanae wa?
what do you call this in Japanese?, kore wa nihon-go de nan to
īmasu ka?
I’m an American, watakushi wa Beikoku-jin desu
I’m hungry, hara ga hette iru
I’m thirsty, nodo ga kawakimashita
I’m sleepy, nemutai, nemuku nari mashita (I want to sleep, nemuritai)
I’m warm, watakushi wa atatakai
I’m cold, watakushi wa samui
it’s warm, atsui, atatakai
it’s cold, samui
it’s windy, kaze ga juiteiru
it’s sunny, hi ga tetteiru
it’s fine weather, ii o tenki desu
it’s bad weather, warui (iyana) o tenki desu
it’s forbidden, dekimasen
no smoking, please, tabako goenryo kudasai
luckily, fortunately, un yoku, saiwai ni
unfortunately, ainiku, un waruku
is it not so?, don’t you?, aren’t you?, desu ne?, deshō?
not at all, by no means, sukoshi mo (with negative), chitto mo (with
negative)
how old are you?, o toshi wa ikutsu desu ka?
I’m eight years old, toshi wa yattsu desu (use second set of numerals:
hitotsu, futatsu, mittsu, etc.)
how long have you been here?, dono-gurai nagaku koko ni orimashita
(oide deshita) ka?
how long have you been waiting?, dono-gurai nagaku matte imashita
ka?
as soon as possible, dekiru-dake hayaku
come here!, koko e oide nasai
come in!, o hairi nasai
look!, goran nasai
look out!, abunai!
for heaven's sake!, sore wa taihen da!
what is the matter with you?, dō shita no desu ka?
how do you say - in Japanese?, ....nihon-go de nan to iimasu ka?
gangway!, by your leave!, o doki nasai!, gomen nasai! doite kudasai
as you please, anata no ii yō ni, gojiyū ni
listen!, look here!, say!, ano ne!, chotto!
hello! (at telephone), moshi-moshi
just a second!, chotto matte kure (kudasai)
to the right, migi e
to the left, hidari e
straight ahead, massugu ni
what do you mean by this?, kore wa dō iu wake desu ka?
speak (more) slowly, dōzo yakkuri hanashite kudasai
just right, chōdo yoi
here is (are), koko ni — aru
there is (are), asoko ni — aru
no admittance!, iru bekarazu!
notice!, chūi
nonsense!, baka na, detarame
what else?, sore kara, sono hoka
glad to meet you, o meni kakarete saiurai (ureshii) desu
stop!, tomare!, mate!
SAMPLE JAPANESE SENTENCES AND PHRASES ILLUSTRATING THE STRUCTURE OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE.

1. **Anata wa ikaga de gozaimasu ka?**
   1. How are you? or How do you do? **Anata wa** - you; **ikaga** - how; **de** - a particle used in conjunction with the verb **gozaimasu** (see page 547); **gozaimasu** = present tense of polite verb **gozaru**, to be; **ka** = interrogative particle.

2. **Okusan wa ikaga de gozaimasu ka?**
   2. How is your wife? **Okusan** (polite) = your wife, (**kanai** humble = my wife); **wa** = a postposition meaning "as for". As for your wife, how is she?

3. **Taihen yoku narimashita.**
   3. I feel very much better. **Taihen** = very; **yoku** = well (adv.); **narimashita**, past tense of **naru**, to become; literally: I have become very well.

4. **Eigo ga dekimasu ka? Sukoshi dake.**
   4. Do you speak English? A little only. **Ei** = English; **go** = language; **ga** postposition, sign of subject; **dekimasu** = present of **dekiru**, to know how, to be able. Literally: Is there a knowing-how (to speak) English? **Sukoshi** = little; **dake** = only.

5. **Wakarimasu ka? Wakarimasen.**
   5. Do you understand? I don’t understand. **Wakarimasu** = present of **wakaru**, to understand. **Wakarimasen** = present negative of same verb.

6. **Eigo ga wakaru hito.**
   6. A man who understand English, (lit. English understanding man). On this use of the plain present see pg. 544. The postposition **ga**, sign of subject, is used, since **wakaru** is not transitive in Japanese.

7. **Eigo ka Fransugo ga wakaru hito wa imasen ka?**
   7. Is there anyone here who understands English or French? **Ei** = English; **go** = language; **ka** = either; **Fransu** = French; **ga** = sign of subject; **wakaru hito** = understanding person (a person who understands). See pg. 543 for the
use of the plain or familiar form of a verb as the equivalent of a relative clause in English. *Imasen* = present negative of verb *iru*, to be; *ka* = sign of interrogation; *imasen ka* = is there not present? The sentence, word for word goes thus = English language or, French language, subject sign, understanding person, as for, is there not?

8. *Eigo wa sukoshi dekimasu ga Fransugo wa dekimasen.*

8. I speak a little English, but I don’t speak French. Literally = English language as for, little I speak, but (ga) French language as for, I speak not


9. I am studying Japanese. *Nihon* = Japanese; *go* = language; *benkyō* = a studying; *shite* = doing; *imasu* = I am. *Shite* is the present participle of *suru*, to do. *Imasu* is present of *iru*, to be. The two words together form a progressive present, I am doing. *Benkyō suru* forms a so called Chinese conjugation, (see pg. 542).

10. *Ano hito wa san-nen Nihongo benkyō shimashita.*

10. He studied Japanese three years. *Ano* = that; *hito* = person; *san* = three; *nen* = years.

11. *Ano hito wa Nihon-jin desu ka?*

11. Is he a Japanese? *Jin* = man; *desu* = is. *Desu* is one of the combinations of *de aru* (see pg. 544).

12. *Hawaii ni ni-nen sunde imashita, sorekara kochira e kimashita.*

12. I lived in Hawaii for two years and then I came here. *Ni* = in; *ni-nen* = two years; *sunde* = present participle of *sumu*, to live; *imashita* = past of *iru*, to be; *sorekara* = afterwards (*sore* = that; *kara* = after); *kochira* = here, this place; *e* = to, toward; *kimashita* = past of *kuru*, to come.

13. *Anata wa dare desu ka?*

13. Who are you? *Anata* = you; *wa* = as for; *dare* = who; *desu* = are; *ka* = question. A more polite word for “who” is *donata*.

14. *Anata no nanae wa?*

14. What is your name? Literally = You of name as for? *o nanae* would be a more polite word.
15. *O toshi wa ikutsu desu ka?*
16. *Koko ni o kake kudasai.*
17. Please explain this. *Kore = this; wo = sign of object; setsumei = explanation; shite = making (pres. participle of suru, to make); kudasai = please (polite). The verb setsumeisuru means “to explain”.
18. *Mado wo akete kudasai.*
19. *Please don’t open the window. Akenai de = pres. participle negative. Akenai de kudasai = please do not open.*
20. *Nodo ga kawakimashita.*
21. *Kōhi ga aru ka?*
22. *Mizu wo motte kudasai.*
23. *What is your age? O = honorable; toshi = age; ikutsu = how many (years).*
25. *Ano hito wa nani wo motte imasu ka?*
26. *Please sit down here. Koko = here; ni = at; o = honorable; kake = sitting (stem of kakeru); kudasai = please (polite). On the use of kudasai, see pg. 541.*
having, is he? *Motte imasu* is the present progressive form of the verb *motsu*, to have in the hand. See “Participles” pg. 541.

26. *Sandwich wo motte kimashita ka?*
26. Did you or he or she bring a sandwich? *Kimashita* = past of *kuru*, to come. Literally: Sandwich having (or bringing) came he?

27. *Kore wa Nihongo de nan to iimasu ka?*
27. What do you call this in Japanese? *Kore* = this; *wa* = as for; *Nihongo* = Japanese language; *de* = in, by; *nan* = what; *to* = as; *iimasu ka* = pres. tense of *iu*, to call.

28. *Kore wa nan de koshiraete arimasu ka?*
28. Of what is this made? *Nan* = what; *de* = of, from; *koshiraete* = pres. part. of *koshirae ru*, to make, prepare; *arimasu ka* = pres. of *aru*, to be. Literally: This as for, what of, making, is it?

29. *Motto ōkii no ga arimashitara, motte kite kudasai.*
29. If there should be a larger one, please bring it. *Motto* = more; *ōkii* = big; *no* = one; *ga* = sign of subject; *arimashitara* = past conditional of verb *aru*, to be (should there be); *motte* = bringing; *kite kudasai* = come please.

30. *Kono tegami wo yakushite kudasaimasen ka?*
30. Won’t you please translate this letter for me? *Kono* = this; *tegami* = letter; *yakushite* = pres. part. of *yakusu* to translate; *kudasaimasen ka* = couldn’t you favor me, (present tense negative, of verb *kudasaru*). *Kudasaru*, to favor me by doing, is an honorific verb used politely of the 2nd person.

31. *Dono gurai nagaku koko ni orimashita ka?*
31. About how long have you been here? *Dono* = how; *grai* = about; *nagaku* = long (adverb formed from adjective *nagai*, long); *koko* = here; *ni* = at; *orimashita ka* = have you been? (past tense of *oru*, to be).

32. *Tenisu wo nasaimasu ka?*
32. Do you play tennis? *Nasaimasu* = do you do, that is, do you play? (present of honorific verb *nasaru*).

33. *Hanako san wa piano wo nasaimasu ka?*
33. Does Hanako play the piano? *Hana* = flower; *ko* =
sign of feminine gender; san = Miss; Hanako san = Miss Flower (girl's name).
34. Koto wo shite irasshaimasu ka?
34. Do you play the koto (a Japanese stringed instrument)?
Shite = pres. part. of suru, to do; irasshaimasu, present of irassharu, polite verb, to be. The two verb forms together mean "are you doing or playing?"
35. Mae ni shite imashita ga ima wa shite imasen.
35. Formerly I played it, but now I do not play it. Mae ni = formerly; ga = but; ima wa = as for now; shite imasen = present negative of shite iru, to be doing. Literally = Formerly I was doing it, but now I am not doing (it).
36. Kono hen wa tori ga orimasu ka?
36. Are there not birds around here? Kono = this; hen = region; wa = as for; tori = birds; ga = sign of subject; orimasu ka = are there not (present negative of oru, to be.
37. Kono hon wo agemashō.
37. I shall give you this book. Hon = book; agemashō = future of ageru, a polite verb meaning humbly to present on my part, to you, an honorable person.
38. Ikitai desu.
38. I want to go. Ikitai = a wanting to go, the desiderative form of iku, to go (see page 547); desu = there is. Literally: There is a wanting to go.
39. I want to see. Mitai = I want to see, desiderative of verb miru, to see.
40. Dare ka yonde kudasai.
40. Please call somebody. Dare ka = somebody; yonde kudasai = please call, imperative of yobu, to call.
41. Yūbin-kyoku wa doko ni arimasu ka?
41. Where is the post-office? Yūbin-kyoku = post-office; doko ni = where; arimasu = is there, present tense of aru, to be.
42. Takushi wo yonde kite kure.
42. Go and call a taxi. Takushi = taxi; wo = sign of object of verb; yonde = calling, pres. part. of yobu; kite = coming,
pres. part. of kuru, to come; kure = please, imperative of verb kureru. (Kure is used only to one’s inferiors; cf. kudasai, please, the polite verb.) The combination yonde kite kure = to go and call (spoken to a servant).
43. Mukō no jidōsha wa dare no desu ka?
43. Whose automobile is that over there? Mukō = over there; no = of; desu ka = is it. Literally: Yonder of, auto as for, whom of, is it?
44. Koko kara suteishon made densha ga arimasen ka?
44. Is there not a tram-car from here to the station? Koko = here; kara = from; suteishon = station; made = toward; densha = tram-car (den = electricity, sha = carriage).
45. Ano hito wa mada Kanada ni imasu ka?
45. Is he still in Canada? Ano = that; hito = man; mada = still; Kanada = Canada; ni = in; imasu = is he; ka = sign of question.
46. Ii o tenki desu ka? Warui o tenki desu.
46. Is the weather fine? The weather is bad. Ii = fine; o = honorable; tenki = weather; desu ka = is it; warui = bad.
47. Ame ga futte imashita kara, ikimasen deshita.
47. Since it was raining, he did not go. Ame = rain; ga = sign of subject; futte = coming down, pres. part. of furu, to come down; imashita = was, past tense of iru, to be; kara = since; ikimasen deshita = he did not go, past tense negative of iku, to go.
48. Myōnichi o uchi ni irasshaimasu ka?
48. Will you be at home tomorrow? Myōnichi = tomorrow; o = honorable; uchi = house; ni = in; irasshaimasu ka = will you be. The verb is the present (used as the future) of the honorific verb irassharu, to be.
49. Have you flowers in your garden? I have none. Niwa = garden; ni = in; hana = flowers; ga = sign of subject; arimasu ka = are there, polite present of aru, to be.
50. Motto arimashita ka?
50. Was there any more? Motto = more; arimashita = was there, past of aru.
51. Mō arimasen deshita.
52. There was no more. Mō = more; arimasen deshita = past negative of aru.
53. Misete kudasai.
54. Show it to me. Misete kudasai = polite imperative of miseru, to show.
55. Kore ikura desu ka?
56. How much is this? Kore = this; ikura = how much.
57. Pen wa teburu no ue ni arimasu.
58. There is a pen on the table. Literally, Pen as for, table of, top on, there is. Ue = top.
59. Pen ga sambon arimasu.
60. There are three pens. Sambon = three (san is three, bon is for hon, the auxiliary numeral for long, cylindrical things; see page 550).
61. Kippu ga ikumai arimasu?
62. How many tickets are there? Kippu = tickets; ikumai = how many (iku means "how many" and mai is the auxiliary numeral for flat things; see page 550).
63. Hyakushō wa warui kodomo wo shikarimashita.
64. The farmer scolded the bad boy. Hyakushō = farmer; warui = bad; kodomo = boy; wo = object sign; shikarimashita = scolded, past of shikaru, to scold.
65. Warui kodomo wa hyakushō ni shikararemashita.
66. The bad boy was scolded by the farmer. Ni = by, to denote agent; shikararemashita = was scolded, past tense passive of shikaru.
67. Tōkyō ni Smith san no ie ga arimasu.
68. Mr. Smith’s house is in Tokyo. No = of, possessive; ie = house.
69. Kesa Suzuki san ga irasshaimashita ka?
70. Did Mr. Suzuki come this morning? Kesa = this morning; irasshaimashita = past of irassharu, polite verb, to come.
71. Hon wo mi-ni ikimashita.
72. He went to see the books. Hon = books; mi-ni = to see. Mi is the stem of the verb miru, to see. Ni is a postposition that denotes purpose when used as a suffix to a verb stem.
62. *Shitte imasu ka?*

62. Do you know? *Shitte* = pres. part. of *shiru*, to know. Literally: Knowing are you?

63. *Okinodoku desu.*

63. I am sorry. *O* = honorable; *ki* = spirit; *no* = of; *doku* = poison. Literally: It is honorable poison of spirit.

64. *Kamaimasen.*

64. It doesn’t matter. *Kamaimasen* = pres. negative of *kamaau*, to matter.
APPENDIX A - ESPERANTO

by G. Alan Connor, Director of the Esperanto Interlanguage Institute in New York, and Doris Tappan Connor, Teacher of the International Cseh Institute of Esperanto, the Hague, Netherlands.

* * *

1 AUTHOR'S NOTE — In addition to the national languages, it was thought appropriate to offer the readers of the second edition of "Languages for War and Peace" a description of one fully constructed international language (not a national tongue adapted for international use, like Basic English). Esperanto was selected because of all the languages answering that description, it is the only one having today a world-wide body of living speakers and a world-wide press, and the only one to have been widely used in international congresses. Attention may be called to other constructed languages, such as Schleyer's Volapük, Peano's Interlingua (or Latino sine Flexione), Jespersen's Novial, and the latest comer in this field, Hogben's Interglossa; but with the exception of Volapük, which for practical purposes came to its end before the close of the last century, none of them has advanced very far beyond the blue-print stage.

Inclusion of Esperanto in this work is not to be interpreted as signifying advocacy or endorsement by the author of its principles or method of construction, but simply as an effort on his part to introduce his readers to the entrancing field of interlanguage construction and planning for the adoption of a universal means of communication for international use, as well as to supply them with the elements of a tongue which occasionally proves of very direct, practical use under the most unexpected circumstances.

Mario A. Pei.
SPEAKERS AND LOCATION

Esperanto is spoken and understood by some few millions who are scattered widely throughout the entire civilized world. Accurate estimates are extremely difficult to obtain because no census is possible in the usual sense of the term. The Esperanto movement is divided into many international, national and local groups. The two largest international organizations are the International Esperanto League, with headquarters in London, and the Universal Esperanto Association, with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. Besides these two general bodies, there are many sectional groups organized for special applications of the language, such as science, medicine, art, literature, religion, labor, teaching, etc. Then there are the national organizations with their metropolitan and local groups.

An estimate of speakers and users of Esperanto, based upon the best available authorities from all these organizations, places the number of Esperantists more or less accurately at anywhere from 6,000,000 to 8,000,000, although some estimates would place it at considerably higher figures.

The outstanding fact about the use of Esperanto throughout the world today, in comparison with the many international language projects which have claimed consideration in the past, is that Esperanto has steadily progressed since its construction in 1887, to where it is practically the only international language used and spoken in the world today. It is active and growing, with some millions of speakers, and has a considerable literature and press, whereas other projects remain in the realm of academic discussion, without a comparable literature or body of speakers.

Esperanto is described as an international auxiliary language, or more briefly as an *interlanguage*. It does not aim to
replace the national tongues, but only to serve as a bridge-
language between language-groups, for international inter-
change such as commerce, tourism, short-wave radio, export
films, international conferences, world government, and the
like. It presents a new concept of easy, neutral inter-
communication, on a basis of equal participation.

Europe — Esperanto was constructed in Poland in 1887, by
Dr. L. L. Zamenhof, “from the fittest elements of occi-
dental tongues, and with an agglutinative grammatical
structure”. It is chiefly a Latin-Germanic language. From
Poland and Russia it spread abroad by way of Upsala
University, Sweden, first throughout Europe, then to the
rest of the world.

By far the largest number of Esperanto speakers are
found in Europe today. And it is the small nations, more
conscious of the language barriers, which have the greatest
number. The Netherlands, Czechoslovakia, Denmark,
Sweden, Austria, Switzerland, Hungary, Yugoslavia, and
Italy show largest percentages. Then France, Germany
and Great Britain.

Greatest growth during the present war is shown in
Great Britain, Sweden, Switzerland and Portugal. It is
interesting to note that with the recent proposal that “Basic
English” be adopted as the “international language”,
Esperanto has made considerable progress in Great Britain
itself, as a result of the discussion of the problem.

Africa — Esperanto comparatively little used, except in parts
of South Africa and in the northern tier of Mediterranean
countries.

Asia — Most remarkable development in Japan and China,
where universities spread the movement, and a consider-
able literature and press existed before the war. Chinese
Esperantists continue to use Esperanto in new ways in the
war against Japan, and a Chinese Esperanto journal is
regularly published in Chungking.
Australia, Oceania, etc. — Australia and the Dutch East Indies developed Esperanto movements of some importance before the war. Various south sea islands have isolated groups, and several British officials have issued small journals from these island outposts.

Western Hemisphere — By far the largest group of Esperantists are found in Brazil, and one nation-wide governmental department uses Esperanto officially. Other countries with good showings are Uruguay, Argentina, Chile and Cuba. Development to a lesser extent in the United States, Canada and Mexico.

ALPHABET AND SOUNDS

a, b, c, č, d, e, f, g, ĝ, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, š, t, u, ŭ, v, z. (The symbol h is also used infrequently, with the value of Scottish ch in loch. It is being generally replaced by the symbol and sound of k. For example: arhitekturo becomes arhitekturo, etc.) There is no q, w, x, or y in Esperanto.

Vowel sounds: a, e, i, o, u, have the vowel sounds heard in bar, bear, bier, bore, boor. They are like the sounds of English ah, eh, ee, oh, oo, (the eh like the first part of a in gate).

Consonant sounds: Pronounced as in English, except the following:
c: is not sounded like s or k, but like ts in bits.
j: has the international phonetic sound of y in yes.
r: is slightly rolled, being stronger and clearer than in English. č, ĝ, ĵ, š, and ŭ: are heard immediately following the ee sounds in leech, liege, leisure, leash, and leeway. They are like the sounds of English ch, j, zh, sh, and w.

SPELLING, SYLLABICATION, ACCENTUATION

Esperanto is scientifically phonetic — one letter, one sound (approximating the basic symbols of the International Phonetic
Alphabet). Every word is pronounced as it is spelled. To name the letters, simply add o to the consonants.

There are no double consonants and no double vowels (save in compound words, where they are separately pronounced).

Each vowel constitutes a syllable, even if two or three of them are placed together. In dividing a word into syllables, a single consonant between two vowels goes with the following, not the preceding vowel. A consonant followed by l or r goes with the l or r. Otherwise, the syllable division is made before the last consonant of the group. Examples: a-e-ro, his-to-ri-o, a-ta-ki, an-gla, fin-gro, sank-ta.

The accent or stress is always on the next to the last syllable. Here, as in all other rules for Esperanto, there are no irregularities and no exceptions.

SAMPLE OF WRITTEN ESPERANTO;
USE FOR PRACTICE READING

Facila Paragrafo

La inteligenta persono lernas la interlingvon Esperanto rapide kaj facile. Esperanto estas la moderna, kultura, neŭtrala lingvo por ĝenerala interkomunikado. La interlingvo estas simpla, fleksebla, praktika solvo de la problemo de globa interkomenco.

Anekdoto pri Profesoro kaj Studento

La telefono de la lernejo sonoris. La profesoro iris al la telefono. (Profesoro) "Jen, Profesoro Martelo." (Telefonanto) "Mi deziras informi vin, ke Karlo ne povas viziti la lernejon hodiaŭ, ĉar li estas malsana." (Profesoro) "Tion mi tre bedaŭras, mi deziras bonan resaniĝon! — Kiu estas ĉe la telefono?" (Telefonanto) "Mia patro."
GRAMMATICAL SURVEY

The grammar of Esperanto has only sixteen fundamental rules, which have no irregularities and no exceptions.

(1) There is no indefinite article; there is only a *Definite article, la*, alike for all sexes, cases, and numbers.

\[
\begin{align*}
libro &= \text{book or a book} & \text{la libro} &= \text{the book} \\
pomo &= \text{apple or an apple} & \text{la libroj} &= \text{the books} \\
frato &= \text{brother, a brother} & \text{la fratinoj} &= \text{the sisters} \\
l a fratoj amas la fratinon &= \text{the brothers love the sister.}
\end{align*}
\]

(2) The *Noun* ends in *o*. To form the plural *j* is added. There are only two cases: nominative and accusative; the latter is obtained from the nominative by simply adding *n*.

\[
\begin{align*}
tablo &= \text{table} & \text{tabloj} &= \text{tables} & \text{la tabloj} &= \text{the tables} \\
ideo &= \text{idea} & \text{ideoj} &= \text{ideas} & \text{la ideoj} &= \text{the ideas}
\end{align*}
\]

*La lernanto havas krajonon kaj plumon en la pošo.*
The pupil has a pencil and a pen in his (the) pocket.

(3) The *Adjective* ends in *a*. It agrees in case and number with the noun. The *comparative* is made by the word *pli*; the *superlative* by *la plej*; with the comparative the conjunction *ol* is used.

\[
\begin{align*}
bona &= \text{good} & \text{bela} &= \text{beautiful} & \text{dolĉa} &= \text{sweet}
\end{align*}
\]

*La inteligenta studento legas bonajn librojn.*
The intelligent student reads good books.

*La etaj infanoj havas belan patrinon.*
The little children have a beautiful mother.

*La pordo estas alta, la fenestro estas pli alta ol la pordo, kaj la muro estas la plej alta.*
The door is high, the window is higher than the door, and the wall is the highest.

(4) The fundamental *Numerals* (not declined) are: *unu, du, tri, kvar, kvin, ses, sep, ok, naŭ, dek, cent, mil*. Tens and
hundreds are formed by simple junction of the numerals. To mark the ordinal a is added; for the multiple, obl; for the fractional, on; for the collective, op.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>unu</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>unua</th>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>dua</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>dek</td>
<td>15th</td>
<td>dek-kvina</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>dek-kvar</td>
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<td>tridek-sesa</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>dek-kvin</td>
<td>127th</td>
<td>cent-dudek-sepa</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>dudek</td>
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<td>mila</td>
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<td>dudek ses</td>
<td>2x2</td>
<td>4-duoble du estas kvar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>tridek sep</td>
<td>3 times</td>
<td>trioble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>cent</td>
<td>many times</td>
<td>multoble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108</td>
<td>cent ok</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>duono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>149</td>
<td>cent kvardek nau</td>
<td>1/12</td>
<td>dekduono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>mil</td>
<td>1/1000</td>
<td>milono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>kvinnmil</td>
<td>by two’s</td>
<td>duope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>centmil</td>
<td>by 6’s</td>
<td>sesope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>miliono</td>
<td>in pairs</td>
<td>duope</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) Personal Pronouns: mi, I; vi, you; li, he; ŝi, she; ĝi, it (thing or animal); si, (reflexive pronoun of third person); ni, we; vi, you (plural); ili, they; oni, one, people, they, we (indefinite pronoun of the third person); possessives are formed by adding a. Declensions as for nouns.

Li amas ŝin. He loves her. Ŝi amas lin. She loves him.
mia libro, my book nia patro, our father
Lia patro portis liajn paperojn en sia poŝo.
His father carried his (son’s) papers in his (father’s) pocket.

(6) The Verb undergoes no change with regard to person or number. Forms of the verb: time being (Present) takes the termination -as; time been (Past) -is; time about-to-be (Future) -os; Conditional -us; Imperative -u; Infinitive -i. Active Participles, -ant, -int, -ont. Passive Participles, -at, -it, -ot.
estas = is, are, am  
estis = was, were  
estos = will be  
estus = should or would be  
estu = be  
esti = to be  
amas = loves, is loving  
amis = loved  
amos = will love  
amus = should or would love  
amu = love  
ami = to love  
amanta = loving  
aminta = having loved  
amonta = about to love

estas amanta = is (am, are) loving  
estas aminta = was (were) loving  
estas amonta = is (am, are) about to love  
amata = (being) loved  
amita = having been loved  
amota = about to be loved  
estas amata = is (am, are) (being) loved  
estas amita = has, (have) been, was (were) loved  
estas amota = is (am, are) about to be loved

The negative is formed by placing ne before the verb: mi ne komprenas, I don’t understand.

The interrogative is formed by prefixing the interrogative particle ĉu to the affirmative statement (do not invert the subject and the verb), unless another interrogative word (such as “who?”, “when?”, “why?”) appears: ĉu vi komprenas?, do you understand?; but kion ĝi signifas?, what does this mean?

(7) The Adverb ends in e; comparison as for adjectives.

rapide = rapidly; bele = beautifully; bone = well; persone = personally, in person; plezure = with pleasure. Mi kantas bone. Li kantas pli bone ol mi. Ŝi kantas la plej bone. I sing well. He sings better than I. She sings the best.

(8) All Prepositions govern the nominative.

sur la arbo  en la ĝardeno  apud la domo
on the tree  in the garden  beside the house

(9) Every word is pronounced as it is spelled.

unu litero, unu sono = oo-noo lee-teh-ro, oo-noo so-no
(10) The Accent or Stress is always on the next to the last syllable.
universo = oo-nee-VEHR-so  historio = hees-toh-REE-o

(11) The Compound Words are formed by simple junction of the words; the chief word stands at the end. Grammatical terminations are also regarded as independent words.

bonintenca = bon-intenc-a = well-meaning
remalsano = re-mal-san-o = a return of illness, a relapse
katidineto = kat-id-in-et-o = a tiny female kitten
kato, cat; ido, offspring; ino, female; eta, tiny; o, substantive ending.

(12) When another Negative Word is present the word ne is left out.

Li ne havas ian sperton. = He has not any experience.
Li havas nenian sperton. = He has no experience.

(13) In order to show Direction towards, words take the termination of the accusative.

Li maršis en la ĉambro. He walked (about) in the room.
Li maršis en la ĉambron. He walked into the room.
Mi iras Parizon, or al Parizo. I am going to Paris.

(14) Each Preposition has a definite meaning; but if the direct sense does not indicate which it should be, we use the preposition je, which has no meaning of its own. Instead of je we may use the accusative without a preposition.

al la domo = to the house  en la taso = in the cup
apud la pordo = by the door  dum la tago = during the day
de la urbo = from the city  kun amiko = with a friend
je la dua de Majo = May 2nd  
la duan de Majo = May 2nd  
longa je tri futoj = 3 ft. long  
longa tri futojn = 3 ft. long  
dum unu horo = during 1 hour  
unu horon = during 1 hour

(15) The so-called *Foreign Words*, those which the majority of languages have taken from one source, undergo no change in Esperanto, beyond conforming to its orthography.

teatro = theatre  
ĉambro = chamber  
geografio = geography  
kemio = chemistry  
ekonomio = economy  
kvanto = quantity

(16) The *Final Vowel* of the noun and of the article may sometimes be dropped and be replaced by an apostrophe.

*Kiel ofte al stel’, en la nokta ĉiel’,  
Sub la bril’ de l’ brilanta trezor’.*  
How oft at a star, in the night sky,  
’Neath the brilliance of the glittering treasure.

**PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES**

The prefixes and suffixes provide great richness and flexibility in Esperanto. They are regarded as independent words, and they are combined with roots and other word-elements by simple junction. Try combining them with roots in the various lists of this section. They will augment your vocabulary and facility in Esperanto.

dis- separation, dispersal: *doni*, to give; *disdoni*, to distribute.  

ek- beginning, brief action: *krii*, to cry, shout; *ekkrii*, to exclaim.

eks- ex-, former: *prezidanto*, president; *eksprezidanto*, ex-president.

ge- both sexes together: *patro*, father; *gepatroj*, parents.

mal- opposite ideas: *alta*, high; *malalta*, low.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ac</td>
<td>contempt, disgust: hundo, a dog; hundaço, a cur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ad</td>
<td>continuation of action: kanto, a song; kantado, singing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-aj</td>
<td>concrete ideas: heredi, to inherit; heredaĵo, heritage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-an</td>
<td>inhabitant, member, adherent: Parizo, Paris; Parizano, Parisian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ar</td>
<td>a collection of things: libro, a book; libraro, a library.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-abl</td>
<td>possibility, -able, -ible: vidi, to see; videbla, visible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ec</td>
<td>abstract ideas: libera, free; libereco, liberty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eg</td>
<td>enlargement, intensity: domo, a house; domego, a mansion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ej</td>
<td>place specially used for: lerni, to learn; lernejo, a school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-em</td>
<td>inclination, disposition: kredi, to believe; kredema, credulous.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>unit, one of a collection: sablo, sand; sablero, grain of sand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-estr</td>
<td>chief, leader, ruler: ŝipo, ship; ŝipestro, captain (of ship).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-et</td>
<td>diminution of degree: monto, mountain; monteto, a hill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-id</td>
<td>descendant, young of: kato, cat; katido, a kitten.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ig</td>
<td>causing something to be: blanca, white; blankigi, to whiten.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ig</td>
<td>action of becoming: pala, pale; paligi, to turn pale.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-il</td>
<td>tool, instrument: razi, to shave; razilo, a razor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-in</td>
<td>feminine gender: koko, a rooster; kokino, a hen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ind</td>
<td>worthy of: admiriri, to admire; admirinda, worthy of admiration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>holder of one object: glavo, sword; glavingo, a scabbard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ism</td>
<td>“ism”, theory, system: idealo, an ideal; idealismo, idealism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ist</td>
<td>trade, profession, occupation: dento, tooth; dentisto, dentist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-uj</td>
<td>that which contains: mono, money; monujo, a purse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ul</td>
<td>person characterized by: sağa, wise; sağulo, a sage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-um</td>
<td>general suffix: kruco, a cross; krucumi, to crucify</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VOCABULARY


world, mondo
earth, tero
air, aero
water, akvo
fire, fajro
light, lumo
sea, maro
sun, suno
moon, luno
star, stelo
sky, čielo
wind, vento
weather, vetero
time, tempo
snow, neĝo
to snow, neĝi
rain, pluvo
to rain, pluvi
cloud, nubo
cloudy, nuba
fog, nebulo
ice, glacio
mud, koto
morning, mateno
noon, tagmezo
afternoon, posttagmezo
night, nokto
midnight, noktmezo
North, nordo
South, sudo
East, oriento
West, okcidento

year, jaro
month, monato
week, semajno
day, tago
hour, horo
minute, minuto
Sunday, dimanĉo
Monday, lundo
Tuesday, mardo
Wednesday, merkredo
Thursday, jaŭdo
Friday, vendredo
Saturday, sabato
January, januaro
February, februaro
March, marto
April, apriilo
May, majo
June, junio
July, julio
August, aŭgusto
September, septembro
October, oktobro
November, novembro
December, decembro
Spring, printempo
Summer, somero
Fall, aŭtuno
Winter, vintro
it is warm, estas varme
it is cold, estas malvarme

I shall see him on Monday, Mi vidos lin lunde; last Monday, pasintan lundon; next Monday, sekvontan lundon; Monday morning, lunde matene; every Monday, ĉiulunde; on May 5th, 1943, la kvinan de majo, mil naŭcent kvardek tri.
2. Family, Friendship, Love.

family, familio
husband, edzo
wife, edzino
parents, gepatroy
father, patro
mother, patrino
son, filo
daughter, filino
brother, frato
sister, fratino
uncle, onklo
aunt, onklin
nephew, nevo
niece, nevino
cousin, kuzo, kuzino
grandfather, avo
grandmother, avino
grandson, nepo
granddaughter, nepino
father-in-law, bopatro
mother-in-law, bopatrino
son-in-law, bofilo
daughter-in-law, bofilino
brother-in-law, bofrato
sister-in-law, bofratino
man, viro; (generic) homo
woman, virino
child, infano
boy, knabo
girl, knabino
sir, Mr., gentleman, sinjoro
madam, Mrs., lady, sinjorino
Miss, young lady, fraülino
friend, amiko, amikino
servant, servisto, servistino
to introduce, prezenti
to visit, viziti
love, amo
to love, ami
to fall in love with, enamiĝi
to marry, edziĝi
sweetheart, amato, amatino
kiss, kiso
to kiss, kisi
dear, beloved, kara

3. Speaking Activities.

word, vorto
language, lingvo
to speak, paroli
to say, diri
to tell, diri, rakonti
to inform, informi
to call, voki
to greet, saluti
to name, nomi
to cry, shout, krii
to listen to, aŭskulti
to hear, aŭdi
to understand, kompreni
to mean, voli diri
to ask for, peti
to ask (a question), demandi
to answer, respondi
to thank, danki (I thanked him for the book, mi dankis lin pro la libro)
to complain, plendi


gold, oro
silver, argento
iron, fero
steel, ŝtalo
copper, kupro
tin, stano
lead, plumbo  
oil, oleo  
gasoline, petrolo  
coal, karbo  
wood, ligno  
silk, silko  
cotton, kotono  

5. Animals.

animal, besto  
horse, ĉevalo  
dog, hundo  
cat, kato  
bird, birdo  
donkey, azeno  
mule, mulo  
cow, bovino  
ox, bovo  
pig, porko  
chicken, kokido  
hen, kokino  

rooster, koko  
sheep, ŝafo  
goat, kapro  
mouse, muso  
snake, serpentaro  
fly, mušo  
bee, abelo  
mosquito, moskito  
spider, araneo  
louse, pediko  
flea, pulo  
bedbug, lutcimo

6. Money, Buying and Selling.

money, mono  
coin, monero  
dollar, dolaro  
cent, cendo  
bank, banko  
check, ĉekol  
order, mandato, poste-mandato  
to earn, to gain, to win, gajni  
to lose, perdi  
to spend, elspezi  
to lend, alprunti  
to borrow, deprunti  
to owe, suldi  
to pay, pagi  
to give back, redoni  
change, moneto, restajo  
to change, monerigi  
price, prezio  

cost, kosto  
to cost, kosti  
expensive, multekosta  
cheap, malmultekosta  
store, butiko  
piece, peco  
slice, tranĉaĵo  
pound, funto  
package, pakajo  
basket, korbo  
box, skatolo  
bag, sako  
goods, komercaĵoj, (wares) varoj  
to go shopping, iri por aĉetadi  
to sell, vendi  
to buy, aĉeti  
to rent, to hire, lui  
to be worth, valori  
to choose, elektri
thief, robber, štelisto
to steal, šti
honest, honesta
dishonest, malhonesta
police, polico
policeman, policano

7. Eating and Drinking.

to eat, manĝi
breakfast, matenmanĝo
to eat breakfast, matenmanĝi
lunch, tagmanĝo, (small) manĝeto
to eat lunch, tagmanĝi, manĝeti
supper, vespervanĝo
to eat supper, vespervanĝi
dinner, manĝo, ĉefmanĝo
to dine, manĝi
meal, manĝo
dining-room, manĝoĉambro, manĝejo
waiter, kelnero
waitress, kelnerino
restaurant, restoracio
menu, manĝokarto, menuo
bill, kalkulo
to pass (a dish), doni, transdoni
tip, dankmono, trinkmono
to drink, trinki
water, akvo
wine, vino
beer, biero
coffee, kajo
tea, teo
milk, lakto
bottle, botelo
spoon, kulero
teaspoon, kulero, tekulero
knife, tranĉilo
fork, forko
glass, glaso
cup, taso
napkin, buŝuko
salt, salo
pepper, pipro
plate, dish, plado
bread, pano
roll, bulko
butter, butero
sugar, sukero
soup, supo
rice, rizo
potatoes, terpomo
vegetable, legomo
meat, viando
beef, bovajo
steak, viandtranĉajo, bijstekoj
chicken, kokido
chop, kotlo
veal, bovdajo
lamb, šafidajo
pork, porkajo
sausage, kolbaso
ham, šinko
bacon, lardo
egg, ovo
fish, fiŝo
fried, fritita
to cook, kuiri
boiled, boligita
stewed, stufta
roast, rostajo
roast beef, rostbovajo
baked, bakita
broiled, kradrostita
sauce, saŭco
salad, salato
cheese, fromago
fruit, frukto
apple, pomo
pear, piro
peach, persiko
grapes, vinberoj
strawberries, fragoj
nuts, nuksoj
orange, orango
lemon, citrono
juice, skulo

8. Hygiene and Attire
bath, bano
to bathe, bani
shower, sprucbano, dušo
to wash, lavi
to shave, razi
barber, razisto
mirror, spegulo
soap, sapo
razor, razilo
safety razor, sendangera razilo
towel, tuko
comb, kombilo
brush, broso
scissors, tondilo
to wear, porti
to take off, demeti
to change, sanĝi
to put on, surmeti
clothes, vestaĵo
hat, ĉapelop
suit, kompleto, vesto
coat, jako
vest, veŝto
pants, pantalono
underwear, subvesto
undershirt, subĉemizo
drawers, kalsono

cherries, ĉerizoj
dessert, deserto
pastry, pastajo
glove, ganto
socks, strumpeatoj
stockings, strumpoj
shirt, ĉemizo
collar, kolumo
tie, kravato
overcoat, palto
raincoat, pluwpalto, pluvmantelo
pocket, poŝo
handkerchief, nazuko, poŝuko
button, butono
shoe, ŝuo
boot, boto
pocketbook, manpoŝo, monujo
purse, monujo
pin, tie pin, pinglo, kravatpinglo
needle, kudrilu
umbrella, ombrolo
watch, poŝhorloĝo
wristwatch, manumhorloĝo
chain, ĉeno
ring, ringo
eyeglasses, okulvitroj
slippers, pantoflaj

dressing-gown, ĉambrobo,
tualet-robo
bathrobe, banrobo

head, kapo
forehead, frunto
face, vizago
mouth, bušo
hair, haroj
eye, okulo
ear, orello
tooth, dento
lip, lipo

nose, nazo
tongue, langulo
chin, mentono
cheek, vango
mustache, lipharo
beard, barbo
neck, kolo
throat, gorĝo
arm, brako
hand, mano
elbow, kubuto
wrist, man-radiko
finger, fingro
nail, ungo
leg, kruro
foot, piedo
knee, genuo
back, dorso

chest, brusto
ankle, maleolo
body, korpo
bone, osto
skin, haüto
heart, koro
stomach, stomako
blood, sango
shoulder, šultro

10. Medical.
doctor, kuracisto
drug-store, apoteko, drogejo
hospital, malsanulejo, hospitalo
medicine, medikamento, kuracilo
pill, pilolo
prescription, recepto
bandage, bandago
nurse, jlegistino, jlegisto
ill, malsana
illness, malsano
swollen, švelinta

wound, vundo
wounded, vundita
head-ache, kapdoloro
tooth-ache, dentdoloro
cough, tuso
to cough, tusi
lame, lava
burn, brulvundo
pain, doloro
poison, veneno

11. Military.
war, milito
peace, paco
ally, kunligano
enemy, malamiko
army, armeo
danger, dangero
dangerous, dangera
to win, venki
to surround, čirkaüi,
to arrest, aresti, kapti
to kill, mortigi
to escape, liberiği, eviti
to run away, forkuri
to lead, konduki, antaüiri
to follow, sekvi
to surrender, cedi
to retreat, retiriği, returnemarşi
to bomb, shell, bombardi
fear, timo

prison, malliberejo
prisoner, militkapitito
to take prisoner, kapti, ekkapti
to capture, kapti
help, helpo
comrade, buddy, kamarado, kunulo
battle, batalo, barakto
to fight, batali, barakti
soldier, soldato
p.ivate, soldato, simpla soldato
corporal, kaporalo
sergeant, sergento
lieutenant, leütenanto
captain, kapitano
major, majoro
colonel, kolonelo
general, generalo
officer, oficiro
company, roto
battalion, bataliono
regiment, regimento
brigade, brigado
division, divizio
troops, soldataro, trupoj
reinforcements, refortigantoj,
    helptrupoj
fortress, fortikajo
sentinel, gardstaranto, gardsoldato
to do sentry duty, garde stari
to be on duty, dejori
guard, guardio
sign-post, signa stango, vojmontrilo
navy, militisparo, militmaristaro
sailor, militmaristo
marine, marsoldato
warship, militisipo
cruiser, krozisipo
destroyer, detruosipo
convoy, sirmita kunisparo, konvojo
escort, kondukisipoj
weapon, armilo, batalilo
rifles, jusilo
machine-gun, mašinpafilo
cannon, kanono
ammunition, municio
supplies, provizo, provizado
cartridge, kartoco
bullet, kuglo
belt, zono
cartridge belt, kartocozono
knapsack, tornistro
tent, tendo
camp, tendaro
map, karto, geografia karto,
    topografia karto
rope, šnuro
flag, standardo
helmet, kasko
bayonet, bajoneto
uniform, uniformo
airplane, aeroplano
bombing plane, bombadoplano,
    bombard-aeroplano
pursuit plane, ĉasoplano, ĉas-aeroplano
shell, obuso
bomb, bombo
truck, šargauuto, šargauutomobilo
tank, kiraveturilo
to load, ŝargi
to fire, to shoot, pafi
to shoot (military execution)
    ekzekuti per pafado, fusilekzekuti
spy, spiona
fire! pafu!
attention! atentu!
forward! antauen!
halt! haltu!
air-raid shelter, rifugejo kontraŭ
    aeratako

to arrive, alveni
to ride, (a conveyance), rajdi,
    veturi
railroad, jervojo
station, stacio
track, relvojo
train, vagonaro
platform, perono
ticket, bileto

12. Travel.

passport, pasporto
customs, dogano
ship, šipo
steamer, vaporŝipo
stateroom, kajuto
berth, šiplito
to travel, vojaĝi
trip, voyage, vojaĝo
to leave, depart, foriri
compartment, kupe
all aboard!, envagonigu!
dining-car, manqvagono
sleeper, litvagono
car, coach, vagono
trunk, kofro
valise, valizo
baggage, pakajoj

13. Reading and Writing.
to read, legi
newspaper, jurnalalo
magazine, gazeto, revuo
book, libro
to write, skribi
to translate, traduki
pencil, krajono
chalk, kreo
blackboard, nigra tabulo
ink, inko

ten, plumo (fountain pen, jontplumo)
 envelope, koverto
to play, ludi (music or game)
to sing, kanti
song, kanto
game, ludo
ball, pilko
to take a walk, promenadi
beach, marboro
to swim, nagi
sand, sablo
refreshment, refrejigoj
saloon, trinkejo
picnic, pikniko, ekskurso

to smoke, jumi
cigar, cigaro
cigarette, cigaredo
tobacco, tobako
match, alumetlo
give me a light, donu al mi ekbruligon
theatre, teatro
movies, moviganta filmo, kino
dance, dancu, balo
to dance, danco
to have a good time, amuzigi
ticket, bileto

to smoke, jumi
pleasure, plezuro
to play, ludu (music or game)
to sing, kanti
song, kanto
game, ludo
ball, pilko
to take a walk, promenadi
beach, marboro
to swim, nagi
sand, sablo
refreshment, refrejigoj
saloon, trinkejo
picnic, pikniko, ekskurso

15. Town and Country.
place, spot, loko
city, urbo
street, strato
sidewalk, trotuaro
road, vojo
intersection, interkrucigoro
harbor, haveno
block, kvadrato
16. **House.**

- door, pordo
- roof, tegmento
- to open, malfermi; to close, fermi
- key, šiosilo
- to go in, eniri; to go out, eliri
- house, domo (at home, hejme, to go home, iri hejmen)
- cottage, dometo, kabano
- hut, kabano
- to live in, logi en
- staircase, šuparo
- to go up, supren iri
- to go down, malsupren iri
- room, ĉambro
- toilet, necesejo
- kitchen, kuirêjo
- table, tablo
- chair, sego
- to sit down, sidiĝi
- to stand, be standing, stariĝi, stari
- wall, muro
- lamp, lampo
- candle, kandelon
- closet, vesteo
- window, fenestro
- bed, lito
- bedroom, litoĉambro
- blanket, kovriulo, lankovriulo
- sheet, litotuko
- mattress, matraco
- alarm-clock, vekhorlogo
- pillow, kapkuseno
- to rest, ripozi
- to go to bed, enlitiĝi
- to go to sleep, fall asleep, endormigi
- to sleep, dormi
- to wake up, vekiĝi
- to dress, vesti sin
- to get up, levi sin

17. **Miscellaneous Nouns.**

- people, popolo
- thing, ajo, afero
- name, nomo
- luck, bonŝanco (bad luck, mal-bonŝanco)
- number, numero
- life, vivo
- death, morto
- work, laboro
18. **Verbs — Coming and Going.**

to come, veni  
to go, iri  
to go away, foriri  
to stay, remain, resti  
to return, reveni  
to run, kuri  
to walk, marši  
to fall, jali  
to follow, sekvi

19. **Verbs — Looking and Seeing.**

to see, vidi  
to look at, regardi (I am looking at it, mi regaras ĝin)  
to look for, serĉi  
to laugh, ridi  
to smile, rideti  
to look, seem, sajni (it seems to me, sajnas al mi)  
to recognize, rekoni  
to take for, supozi esti

20. **Verbs — Mental.**

to make a mistake, erari  
to hope, esperi  
to wait (for), atendi  
to think, pensi  
to believe, kredi  
to like, šati  
to wish, to want, deziri  
to know (a person), koni  
to know (a fact), sci  
to understand, kompreni  
to remember, memori  
to forget, forgesi  
to permit, allow, permesi  
to forbid, malpermesi  
to promise, promesi  
to learn, lerni  
to feel like, emi (I feel like sleeping, mi emas dormi, mi estas dormema)  
to fear, be afraid, timi  
to be right, pravi  
to be wrong, malpravi

21. **Verbs — Miscellaneous.**

to live, vivi  
to die, morti  
to work, labori  
to give, doni  
to take, preni  
to show, montri  
to begin, to start, komenci (transitive); komenciĝi (intransitive)  
to finish, fini (tr.); ĝi (intr.)  
to continue, daŭri (intr.); daŭrigi (tr.)  
to help, helpi  
to hide, kaŝi (tr.); kaŝigi, sinkaŝi (intr.)  
to lose, perdi  
to find, trovi  
to leave, foriri (use forlasi for leaving objects or people)  
to try, peni  
to meet, renkonti  
to put, place, meti  
to do, to make, fari  
to have something done, ĝi (or use suffix -ig.); I had a letter written, mi ĝis leteron skribinta or mi skribigis letteron; I had them sing, mi ĝis ĝis kanti, or mi kantigis ĝis ĝis.
can, to be able, povi

to carry, porti

to stop, halti (use ĉesi for “to stop doing”)

to bring, alporti, venigi

to cover, kovri

to get, obtain, akiri

to hold, teni

to get, become, īģi (he became

canary, kristo

to break, rompi

to hurry, rapidi

to deliver, liveri

to send, sendi

to belong, aparteni

to accept, akcepti

to refuse, refuzi

to do again, ĝenerovare

22. Adjectives.

small, malgranda, eta

large, great, granda

big (bulky), ampleksa

tall, high, alta

short, malalta

heavy, peza

light (weight), malpeza

long, longa

wide, larĝa

narrow, mallarĝa

clean, pura

dirty, malpura

cool, malvarmeta

cold, malvarma

warm, hot, varma

damp, malseketa

wet, malseka

empty, malplena

dry, seka

full, plena

soft, mola

hard, malmola

quick, rapida

slow, malrapida

ordinary, ordinara

comfortable, komforta

uncomfortable, malkomforta

near, proksima

distant, malproksima

right, dekstra

left, maldekstra

poor, matriĉa

pale, li īģis pala, li paliĝis)

to break, rompi

to hurry, rapidi

to deliver, liveri

to send, sendi

to belong, aparteni

to accept, akcepti

to refuse, refuzi

to do again, ĝenerovare

rich, riĉa

beautiful, bela

pretty, beleta

ugly, malbela

sweet, dolĉa

bitter, amara

sour, acida

salt, sala

young, juna

dark, malhela

light, bright, hela

clear, klaro

fat, grasa

thick, dikata

thin, maldika

round, ronda

square, kvadrata

flat, plata

deep, profunda

strong, forta

weak, malforta

tired, laca

alone, sola

same, sama

easy, facila

hard, malfacila

happy, felika

merry, gaja

sad, malgaja, malgoja

free, libera

crazy, frenoza

silly, malsprita, malprudenta
drunk, ebria
polite, ĝentila
rude, malĝentila
pleasant, agrabla
unpleasant, malagrabla
lonesome, soleca
true, vera
false, malvera (spurious, falsa)
foreign, fremda
old, maljuna
new, nova
good, bona
better, pli bona (best, la plej bona)
bad, malbona
worse, pli malbona (worst, la plej malbona)
fine, bela, bona
first, unua

last, lasta
friendly, amika
hostile, malamika
lucky, bonŝanca
unlucky, malbonŝanca
charming, ĉarma
afraid, timema
ready, preta
hungry, malsata
thirsty, soфа
funny, komika, ŝerca
possible, ebla
impossible, neebla
brave, kuraĝa, brava
cowardly, malkuraĝa
quiet, kviesta, trankvila
noisy, brua
living, viva
death, morta

23. Colors.

white, blanka
black, nigra
red, ruĝa
green, verda
blue, blua

yellow, flava
gray, griza
brown, bruna
rose, rozkolora, roza
purple, purpura


Use no capital for the adjective or for the language, except in the case of Esperanto, which is capitalized because it originated as a pseudonym from the word esperanto, meaning “one who hopes”.

Names of languages are used adverbially, or with the preposition: angle or en la angla lingvo — both mean “in the English language”.

The forms given are nouns, indicating a person of the nationality mentioned. To form the adjective, change the ending -o to -a (French wine, franca vino).

U. S. A. citizen, usonano
American, amerikano, nordamerikano, sud-amerikano
English, anglo
French, franco
German, germano

Spanish, hispano
Russian, ruso
Italian, italo
Japanese, japano
Chinese, ĉino
Dutch, nederlandano
Norwegian, norvego
Swedish, svedo
Finnish, finlandano
Belgian, belgo
Polish, polo
Danish, dano
Swiss, suiso
Portuguese, portugalo
Yugoslav, jugoslavo
Bulgarian, bulgaro
Czech, čecho
Greek, greko
Turkish, turko
Roumanian, rumano
Hungarian, hungaro
Austrian, aüstro
Malay, malajano
Persian, perso
Arabian, Arab, arabo
Jewish, Hebrew, judo, hebreo
Australian, australiano
Canadian, kanadano
Mexican, meksikano
Brazilian, brazilano
Argentinian, argentinano
Chilean, chilano
Peruvian, peruano
Cuban, cubano
Puerto Rican, portorikano
Colombian, kolombiano
Venezuelan, venezuelano
Bolivian, boliviano
Uruguayan, urugvajano
Paraguayan, paragvajano
Ecuadorian, ekvadorano
Costa Rican, kostarikano
Honduran, hondurano
Salvadorean, salvadorano
Guatemalan, guatemalano
Dominican (of Santo Domingo), dominikano
Panamanian, panamano
Nicaraguan, nikaraguano

25. Adverbs and Adverbial Expressions.

today, hodiau
yesterday, hieraü
tomorrow, morgaü
day before yesterday, antaü hieraü
day after tomorrow, post morgaü
tonight, hodiaü nokte
last night, hieraü nokte
this morning, hodiaü matene
in the morning, matene
in the afternoon, posttagmeze
in the evening, vespere
in the night, nokte
tomorrow morning, morgaü matene
tomorrow afternoon, morgaü posttagmeze
tomorrow evening, morgaü vespere
tomorrow night, morgaü nokte
early, frue
on time, akurate
late, malfrue
already, jam
no longer, ne plu
yet, still, ankoraü
not yet, ne ankoraü
now, nun
afterwards, then, poste
never, neniam
always, čiam
forever, por čiam
soon, baldaü
often, ofte
seldom, malofte
usually, kutime
fast, rapide
slowly, malrapide
here, či tie
there, tie
over there, tie
near by, apude
near here, proksime
far away, malproksime
up, supre
down, malsupre
ahead, in front, antaŭe
behind, in back, malantaŭe
forward, antaŭen
back, malantaŭen
outside, ekstere
inside, interne
opposite, kontraŭe
here and there, tie kaj aliloke
everywhere, ĉie
where?, kie? (motion, kien?)
where, kie, (motion, kien)
also, ankaŭ
yes, ĵes
no, not, ne
very, tre
much, multe (very much, tre multe)
well, bone
badly, malbone
better, pli bone
worse, pli malbone
more, pli (more than, pli ol; but use pli da before quantity connotations)
less, malpli
as - as, tiel — kiel
as much - as, tiom—kiom
as many - as, tiom multe—kiom
how much?, kiom?
how?, kiel?
too much, tro multe
too many, tro multe, tro multaj
so much, tiom multe
so many, tiom multe, tiom multaj
as, like, kiel
so, tiel
besides, furthermore, plie, plue
finally, fine
only, sole
almost, preskaŭ
gladly, ĝoj, volonte
certainly, certe
at once, tuj
not at all, tute ne
unfortunately, bedaŭrinde
hardly, apenaŭ
aloud, laŭte
suddenly, subite
about, ĉirkaŭ
perhaps, maybe, eble
a little, iomete
again, denove
really, truly, vere
together, kune
at least, almenaŭ
for lack of, pro manko de
a long time ago, longe antaŭe
repeatedly, again and again,
multfoje
therefore, do, tial
further away, pli malproksime
of course, kompreneble
occasionally, kelkfoje


and, kaj
but, sed
if, se
or, aŭ
why?, kial?
because, ĉar

why, tial, pro tio ke
before, antaŭ
when, kiam
than, ol
where, kie
until, till, ĝis
although, kvankam
unless, krom se, se - ne
while, dum
that, ke
for, since, de kiam, ĉar
after, post, post kiam
as soon as, tuj (post) kiam
as long as, dum
provided that, kondiĉe ke
in order that, por ke
so that, tiel ke
without, sen, sen ke

27. Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

everything, ĉio
everyone, ĉiu
all, ĉio, ĉiu
each, every, ĉiu
something, io
some, iuj, kelkaj
little (not much), malmulta
few, unuj, kelkaj
enough, sufiĉa
enough!, sufiĉe, ne pli!
such a, kia
all kinds of, ĉiaj
someone, ĉu
nothing, nenio
no one, neniu
no...(adj.), neniu..., nenia..
neither - nor, nek - nek
(an) other, alia
much (lots of), multa
many, multaj
several, kelkaj, diversaj
both, ambaŭ

28. Prepositions.

of, from, by, de
out from, out of, el
to, at, al
with, kun
in, en
on, sur
at, ĉe
over, above, super
for, por
without, sen
until, up to, ĝis
since, de post, depost
toward, al (or final -n as accusative of direction)
between, among, inter
near, proksima al
far from, malproksima de
before, antaŭ
after, post
in front of, opposite, kontraŭ
in back of, behind, malantaŭ
under (neath), sub
through, tra
across, trans
against, kontraŭ, apud
by means of, per
in spite of, spite de
about, around, ĉirkaŭ
because of, on account of, pro
during, dum
instead of, anstataŭ
beside, apud
on the other side of, aliflanke de

29. Special Expressions and Idioms.
good morning, bonan matenon
good day, good afternoon, bonan tagon
good evening, bonan vesperon
good night, bonan nokton
good-by, adiaŭ
see you later, ĝis revido
see you then, ĝis la revido
see you tomorrow, ĝis morgaŭ
just now, ĵus nun
just a moment ago, ĵus antaŭ momento
hello! saluton! (on the telephone, saluton!)
how are you? kiel vi ĵertas?
how goes it? kiel ĝi ĵiras
I'm well, tre bone, mi ĵertas bone
I'm (much) better, (multe) pli bone
what time is it? kioma horo?
it's six o'clock, estas la sesa
at six o'clock, je la sesa
at about six, proksimume je la sesa
at half past six, je la sesa kaj duono
at a quarter past (to) six, je la sesa kaj kvartoĉ, kvarono post (antaŭ) la sesa
at ten minutes past (to) six, je la sesa kaj dek minutoj, dek post (antaŭ) la sesa
last year, pasintan jaron
next year, venontan jaron
every day, ĉiutage
each day, ĉiun tagon
the whole day, la tutan tagon
please, will you? mi petas, bonvolu
tell me, diru al mi (please tell me, bonvole diru al mi)
will you give me? ĉu vi bonvole donos al mi?
bring (to) me, portu al mi
show (to) me, montru al mi
thank you, dankon, mi dankas
don't mention it, tute ne, estas nenuo
pardon me, pardonu, pardonu min
it doesn't matter, never mind, ne gravas, tute ne gravas
I'm sorry, mi bedaŭras
I can't help, mi ne povas ne (I can't help saying, mi ne povas ne diri)
it's nothing, estas nenio
what a pity!, it's too bad!, kia domaĝo!, estas domaĝe!, domaĝe!
I'm glad, mi ĝojas (to, the same plus infinitive)
I have to, mi devas
I'm agreeable, mi konsentas
where are you going?, kien vi ĵiras?
here is (are), jen estas, jen!
there is, there are, estas, (use tie estas, if pointing out) which way?, kien?, kiun direkton?
where is?, kie estas?
this way (direction), ĉi tien (that way, tien)
this way (in this fashion), tiel, tiamaniere
to the right, dekstren
to the left, maldekstren
straight ahead, rekten, rekta antaŭen
come with me, venu kun mi
what can I do for you?, kiel mi povas vin servi?
what is happening?, kio okazas?
what is it?, what is the matter?, kio estas?, kio okazas?
what is the matter with you?, kio malestas al vi?, kio okazas al vi?
what do you want?, kion vi deziras?
how much is it?, kiom?, kiom kostas?
anything else?, ion pli?, ĉu ion pli?
nothing else, nenion pli
do you speak Esperanto?, ĉu vi parolas esperante?
a little, iomete
speak (more) slowly, parolu (pli) malrapide
do you understand?, ĉu vi komprenas?
I don’t understand, mi ne komprenas
do you know?, ĉu vi scias?
I don’t know, mi ne scias
I can’t, mi ne povas
what do you call this in Esperanto?, kiel oni nomas. ĝin esperante?
how do you say — in Esperanto?, kiel vi diras — esperante?
what does that mean?, kion ĝi signifas?
what do you mean?, kion vi volas diri?
what are you talking about?, pri kio vi parolas?
I’m an American (citizen of U. S. A., Esperantist), mi estas amerikano 
(usonano, esperantisto)
I’m hungry (thirsty, sleepy, warm, cold), mi estas malsata (soifaj, 
dormema, varma, malvarma)
It’s warm, (cold, windy, fine weather, bad weather), estas varme 
(malvarme, vente, bona vetero, malbona vetero)
It’s forbidden, estas malpermesite (no smoking, ne fumu, malpermesite 
fumi)
luckily, bonŝance, felice
is it not so?, ĉu ne? (use this invariable phrase wherever English 
repeats the verb: you went, didn’t you?; he is here, isn’t he?)
not at all, tute ne
how old are you?, kian ago vi havas?, kiom da jaroj vi havas?
I’m twenty years old, mi havas dudek jarojn
how long have you been waiting? *kiem longe vi atendis?*
how long have you been here?, *kiem longe vi estis ĉi tie?*
as soon as possible, *kiel eble plej baldaŭ*
come here!, *venu!, venu ĉi tien!*
come in!, *envenu!*
look!, *rigardu!*
careful!, *atentu!, zorgu!*
look out!, *zorgu vin!, gardu vin!*
for heaven's sake!, *pro Dio!, Dio mia!*
heck!, darn it!, *damnu!, kondamnu je infero!, diable!*
as you please, *kiem plaĉas al vi*
listen!, look here!, say!, *atentu!*
just a second!, *momenton!*
what kind of?, *kia?, kia speco de?*
gangway!, by your leave!, *pasejon!, kun via permeso!*
in any case, at any rate, *ĉiaokaze*
glad to meet you, *kun plezuro, mi ĝojas konatiĝi kun vi*
you don't say so!, *ĉu vere!, nekredeble!*
notice!, *avizo!*
APPENDIX B

ENGLISH

SPEAKERS AND LOCATION¹

(*All population figures are approximate*)

Western Hemisphere — U. S. A. — 132,000,000; Canada, Newfoundland and Labrador — 12,000,000; Alaska 70,000; Bermudas — 30,000; Bahamas — 30,000; Jamaica — 1,200,000; Leeward and Windward Islands — 400,000; British Guiana — 350,000. Official and secondary tongue in British Honduras (60,000); Canal Zone (50,000); Puerto Rico (2,000,000); Virgin Islands (25,000). Widely spoken in Mexico, Greenland, Cuba, Haiti, Dominican Republic, and Spanish and Portuguese-speaking countries of Central and South America.

Europe — Great Britain and Northern Ireland — 47,000,000; Eire. — 3,000,000. Official and secondary tongue of Gibraltar (21,000); Malta (270,000). Widely spoken in Iceland and on the European continent, particularly in Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. Between four and five million continental Europeans speak English.

Asia — Language of colonization in Burma (16,000,000); Ceylon (6,000,000); Cyprus (400,000); Malaya and Straits Settlements (5,500,000); Hong Kong (1,500,000); British India (390,000,000); Palestine (1,500,000);

¹. See English map, p. 62.
². Including some 3,000,000 French Canadian speakers in Quebec and Ontario, most of whom speak English as well.
Transjordan (500,000), etc. It is estimated that English is spoken by over 22,000,000 people in India and Ceylon, 1,200,000 in Burma and Malaya, 1,000,000 in Japan, 3,000,000 in China, 500,000 in the Near East.

Africa — Official, but not primary language of Liberia (2,000,000, of whom 200,000 speak English) and the Union of South Africa (10,700,000, of whom 2,150,000 speak English). Language of colonization in Anglo-Egyptian Sudan (6,500,000); Basutoland (600,000); Bechuanaland (300,000); Gambia (200,000); Gold Coast (4,000,000); Kenya (3,500,000); Nigeria (22,000,000); Nyasaland (1,600,000); Rhodesia (3,000,000); Sierra Leone (2,000,000); British Somaliland (350,000); Southwest Africa (300,000); Swaziland (150,000); Tanganyika (5,300,000); Uganda (3,800,000). Widely spoken in Egypt. The total number of English speakers throughout the African continent is estimated at over 4,170,000.

Oceania — Official and primary language of Australia (7,000,000) and New Zealand (1,600,000). Language of colonization in insular possessions of U. S. and Great Britain having total populations of 2,600,000,\(^3\) exclusive of Hawaii (500,000) and the Philippines (16,000,000); in the former, most of the population speaks English, while in the latter over one-fourth (4,260,000) of the population speaks English.

3. Including the Bismarck Archipelago, British North Borneo, Brunei, the Cook, Fiji, Gilbert and Ellice Islands, Guam, Labuan, New Guinea, some of the New Caledonia and New Hebrides Islands, Papua, Samoa, Sarawak, the Solomon Islands, Tonga, etc.
APPENDIX C

MILITARY SLANG

Words and expressions coined by men in the armed services are picturesque, but extremely unstable, being frequently recast, dropped or added to. Some of these terms, however, may easily survive in the post-war period and become part and parcel of the spoken English of one or another section of the English-speaking world. A few such terms that have recently appeared in the press are:

U. S. FORCES (MOSTLY AIR FORCE AND MARINES)

to stew in one’s own juice,
to wait for food,
stupid,
object, thing,
a complete miss,
to score a hit,
field shoes,
prisoner,
cigarette makings,
O. K. ,
yes-man,
girl friend,
necktie,
hand,
candy,
stop it!,
Messerschmidt,
double fighter-plane attack on bomber,
to sweat out
to sweat out a chow line
knucklehead
gizmo
Maggie’s drawers
to lay it in the black
boon dockers
brig rat
blanket and freckles
ding hau
ear banger
Fifi
field scarf
glom
pogie bait
knock it off!
tailpecker
sister act
BRITISH (MOSTLY R. A. F.)

plane,
bomb,
torpedo bomb,
depth-bomb,
machine-gun bullets,
enemy planes at 10,000 feet,
non-flying airman,
canteen-loving flier,
girl friend,
two-turret tank,
commando knife,
target,
fed up with,

to crash,
here's to you!,
to be skeptical,
real truth,
wrong steer,
not to have something,

kite
egg
fish
ash-can
confetti
bandits at ten grand
penguin
canteen cowboy
target for tonight
Mae West
smatchet
rhubarb
browned off, brassed off
cheesed off
to prang
cheers!
to take a dim view
pukka gen
duff gen
to have had it

AUSTRALIAN

wife,
children,
walk,
street,
tea,
to play piano,

trouble
godfors
whisper
field
rosie
to fancy fanny
NEOLOGISMS

Definitely linked with the war, but of more widespread application by reason of civilian as well as military use, are terms like G. I. (originally “General Issue”, applied to articles of military equipment, now used indifferently as a noun to apply to the soldier himself or as an adjective to describe any of his belongings or multifarious activities); jeep (said to be from G. P., “general purpose”; this word has recently given rise to such derivatives as jeepable, unjeepable, jeepability, applied to roads and jungle trails); gremlin; blitz (noun, adjective and verb); paratroops and paratrooper; fifth column; Quisling (with a verb, to quisle); selectee; war of nerves; black market (with a derivative, blacketeer, in which the influence of racketeer is clearly perceptible); flak (an abbreviation for the German Flugzeugabwehrkanonen, anti-aircraft guns) and ak-ak. To liaise (from liaison; “to liaise between Washington and New York”), to do a Dunkirk (to retreat hurriedly), and to coventrize (from Coventry; to demolish completely) have also been reported. Pill-box, fox-hole, bazooka, bulldozer are well known.

The language of the underworld on the one hand, that of swing-crazy youthful generations on the other, are rich in neologisms the continued existence of most of which is extremely doubtful. Such innovations consist in part in the coining of new words, but to a much greater degree in changes in the meaning of existing words and combinations.

Three terms from the shady side of life which have recently come to the writer’s attention are mooch, used not in its older slang acceptance of “to beg”, but as a noun to replace sucker, the prospective victim of a swindle; pitch, the salestalk
of an aggressive salesman or confidence man; and to run someone (in the sense of "to chase someone") with a knife.

From the youthful and swing-loving angle there is a choicer assortment: what gives? ("what’s up?"; "how are you?"); the influence of German was gibt’s? seems perceptible here); apple-polishing (currying favor); corny, or off the cob (silly or sentimental; to spout corn, or to slide one’s jib, is to sentimentalize or to talk too much); to collapse (to sit down); to be cooking with gas (or on the front burner: to be doing well); to blitz the cold-storage plant (to raid the frigidaire); AWOL (no longer “absent without leave”, but “a wolf on the loose”; wolf and wolverine are themselves new acceptances of age-old terms to denote the more sexily inclined of the two sexes); burnt to a crisp (up-to-date); gruesome twosome (a pair keeping steady company); to ice up (to give the cold shoulder to); to woof (to kid or to tease); to nix (to get rid of); do you dig me? ("do you get me?"). Expressions of approval are legion: on the beam, in the groove, groovy, hard, murder, mellow, on fire, has his boots on, etc. etc. etc.

From the more professionally musical end of the swing movement come expressions such as jameroo or barrelhouse (swing session); ’gators and hepcats (fanciers of the new vogue in music); fave (favorîte); jive or jam anthems (pieces of swing music); killer-diller (musical hit); black-stick or agony-pipe (clarinet); voodoo boilers (drums); woodpile (xylophone); and to lather the moth-box (to play the piano).

Terms like boondoggle and gobbledigook represent the recent contribution of politics to the language.

All that can be said of the above items is that they are illustrative of the growth and decay of language. The overwhelming majority of them are destined to an ephemeral life, being replaced almost as soon as they are born by new expressions that quickly gain and lose popularity. A few will find literary favor in the eyes of newspapers and magazines, become generalized throughout the English-speaking world by reason of the press, movietone and radio, and ultimately pass into the vocabulary of the standard English of the future.
A GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL AND
LINGUISTIC TERMS
(with partial index)

ablative — see case
absolute — see case
abstract — see noun

accent — voice-stress or voice-energy bearing upon a given part
of the word; in a word like “absolute”, the accent falls on the first syllable; in “European”, on the next to the last; in “delay”, on the last.
Frequently a sentence-stress appears as well as a word-stress; in the sentence “I have done it, not you”, the words “I” and “you” bear a special stress. Some languages have more stress than others; English, for instance, has a stronger stress than French. For the accentuation of various languages, see pp. 67, 89, 127, 173, 187, 229, 272, 315, 323, 330, 354, 361–2, 366, 368, 371–2, 374–5, 379–81, 384, 396, 423, 427, 432, 436, 438, 440, 444, 447, 451, 465, 487, 508, 533. Pitch, or pitch-accent, is simply a musical rise in the tone of the voice, as when an Englishman says: “Did you really?” Pitch and stress are usually both present in any given tongue, but in different proportions. For the significant value of pitch in some languages, see pp. 92, 98, 102, 354, 372, 444. See also tone.

accent-mark — the written symbol used, in some languages, to indicate where the stress falls (as in Spanish acción, Italian città), or to show that the vowel over which it appears is to be given a special sound (as in French parlé, fête, fidèle). The more usual accent marks are the acute (´), the grave (´) and the circumflex (˘). For the different values of accent marks in various tongues, see pp. 105, 173, 184, 187, 229, 272; 302, 315, 330, 361, 366, 368, 370–1, 423, 432, 436, 440, 444–5, 449, 494. See also diacritic.

accusative — see case
active — see voice

address, forms of — in English, it is customary to use the same form of address in the singular and in the plural, familiarly or politely (you have seen it); in many languages, however, a distinction is made between a singular and a plural “you” (French tu l’as vu; vous l’avez vu, or archaic English thou hast seen it; ye have seen it); a distinction
is also made in many languages between a person or persons whom one wants to address familiarly, and a person or persons whom one wants to address politely; often the polite singular form coincides with the familiar plural (French vous l’avez vu can serve as a familiar plural, as when a mother addresses two of her children; as a polite singular, as when a tourist addresses a stranger; or as a polite plural, as when a tourist addresses two or more strangers); in other languages, special polite forms appear, generally with a form of the verb other than the second person (Spanish usted lo ha visto, for which the closest English literal equivalent would be “Your Honor, your Grace, has seen it”; or German Sie haben es gesehen, literally, “they have seen it”; or Italian Lei, or Ella l’ha visto, literally, “she has seen it”; the capitalization of Sie and Lei is merely a written-tongue convention). For the forms of polite address in various languages, see pp. 94, 100, 113, 133, 177, 192, 205, 234, 245, 248, 278, 391, 397, 538, 542–3. Certain languages, like Japanese, have, in addition to a familiar and a polite form of address, also an honorific one, reserved for cases where one wishes to be superlatively polite (see pp. 536, 538, 547). Compare with the various gradations of politeness implied in French ton père, votre père, monsieur votre père; in Italian tuo padre, vostro padre, Suo padre, il Suo signor padre; etc. The Japanese use of completely different verbs to express familiarity, politeness or special honor might be remotely compared with such English expressions as: “Buddy, did you get a look at the enemy?”; “Lieutenant, did you see the enemy?”; “Did your Excellency discern the enemy?”

adjective — a word used with a noun to describe it (in which case it is called a descriptive adjective: “the large book”) or to limit it (in which case it may be demonstrative: “this book”; possessive: “my book”; indefinite: “any book”; interrogative: “which book?”). In some languages, the possessive adjective is accompanied by the definite article (Italian il mio libro, literally, “the my book”; see pp. 280, 322). Numerals (“two books”) and articles (“a book”, “the book”) may also be said to fall under the heading of adjective insofar as they limit nouns. Participles are frequently used as adjectives (“the speaking man”, “the spoken word”). For the peculiarities of adjectives in certain language-groups, see pp. 24, 35, 42.

The descriptive variety of adjective may modify its noun directly (in which case it is called attributive: “the strong man”); or indirectly, through the verb “to be” (in which case it is called predicate: “the man is strong”; see pp. 112, 131, 188, 231, 235, 384, 394, 437, 468, 497, 548). Furthermore, it may appear in three degrees: positive (strong, beautiful); comparative (stronger, more beautiful); superlative (strongest, most beautiful); for the formation of the comparative and superlative
in various tongues, see pp. 175, 276, 318, 363, 385, 424, 433, 441, 452, 468, 477, 497–8, 512.

In English, the adjective, save for the degrees of comparison described above, is invariable; that is, it does not change its form to conform with the gender and number of the noun (compare English strong man, strong woman, strong men, strong women with French homme fort, femme forte, hommes forts, femmes fortes). In many languages, notably of the Indo-European and Semitic groups, agreement prevails (see agreement); in some languages, the adjective agrees in the attributive, but not in the predicate position (German guter Mann vs. der Mann ist gut); most Germanic languages have two different forms for the attributive adjective, a “strong” and a “weak” form, according to what precedes the adjective (German ein guter Mann vs. der gute Mann; see pp. 93–4, 99, 106–7, 112, 131, 134).


In many languages, there is no clear-cut difference in form or use between certain adjectives and related nouns (English “put this letter in the mail”; “put this letter in the mail-box”); or even between adjectives and related verbs (pp. 496, 548).

See also: agreement, case, classifier, declension, ending, gender, inflection, number.

adverb — a word that modifies a verb (“he walked slowly”), an adjective (“a very good book”), or another adverb (“he walked very slowly”); the adverb usually shows time (tomorrow), place (here) or manner (badly). In English, many adverbs are formed from adjectives by the addition of the adverbial suffix -ly (slow, slowly); in other languages, similar suffixes are added (French lent, lentement); while others make no distinction of form between the adjective and the adverb (German er ist langsam, “he is slow”; er geht langsam, “he goes slowly”; see pp. 131, 175, 385, 427, 497); this occurs occasionally in English (“shoot straight”; “go slow”). For the formation of adverbs in various languages, see pp. 35, 190, 231, 276, 318, 363, 424, 497.

adverbial expression — a group of words fulfilling the same function as a single adverb (“from time to time” = “occasionally”: “over there” = “there”; “in a poor way” = “poorly”).

affiliation — see classification

affirmative — see conjugation

affix — see prefix, suffix, and pp. 507–8

agglutination — the process of adding suffixes to roots to indicate various relations of gender, number, case, etc. In English, this process is carried on to a moderate degree (empir-ess-es, where -ess- indicates feminine gender and -es plural number; or sky-wards, where -wards indicates direction). In the languages properly described as
agglutinative, the process goes much further, with the added feature that the suffixes have greater independence, individuality and mobility (Hungarian Magyar–ország–ban, literally "Magyar–land–in", "in Hungary"), See pp. 24, 30, 32-3, 430, 437-8, 440-1.

Agreement — the process whereby one part of speech, used in conjunction with another, changes its form to conform with the other; this applies especially to adjectives which, in many languages, "agree" in number and gender with the noun they modify (French le haut mur, la haute maison, les hauts murs, les hautes maisons); and to verbs, which agree with the subject in number and person, occasionally in gender (Spanish yo hablo, ellos hablan; English I am, you are, he is). In English, the adjective does not agree, while the only form of the verb that normally shows a change of ending to indicate agreement is the third person singular of the present (he comes vs. I, you, we, they, come). In languages, like Chinese, which do not use endings, there is no agreement of any kind. For various forms of agreement, see pp. 132, 136, 190, 203, 326, 384, 424, 467-8; for non-agreement, see p. 441.

Alphabet — a set of letters or symbols purporting to represent in writing the sounds of a language; an alphabet differs from a syllabary in that the symbols of the alphabet are supposed to represent single vowel and consonant sounds, while the symbols of a syllabary represent complete syllables. The ideal, or phonetic alphabet is one in which each symbol has only one possible sound, and each separate sound is represented by a symbol; some alphabets, like the Spanish and Finnish, come close to this ideal state; others, like the English or French, are far removed from it, with individual symbols having several different sound-values (English a in bat, ball, fare, father), and single sounds represented by combination of symbols (English shoot, this). The alphabetic notation used by most western nations is called Roman. For various alphabetic notations, see pp. 19, 25, 27, 92, 98, 105, 110, 124-5, 172-3, 184-5, 227-8, 270-1, 313-4, 354-61, 368, 371, 378, 422, 426, 432, 436, 450-2, 461-2, 479, 528, 583. For individual alphabetic system, see:

Arabic, 440, 461-2, 507, 513
Canarese, 461
Cyrillic, 354-60, 371-2, 374-5, 378
Devanagari, 19, 461-2, 485, 504
Gothic, 98, 124-5
Greek, 354, 422, 426
Hebrew, 25, 27, 461-2
Irish, 448-9
Phoenician, 461, 489
Roman, 98, 354-5, 357, 366, 369, 371-2
Romanized, 461-2, 507, 513, 528
Tamil, 461, 485-6
Telugu, 461, 485
See also picture-writing, syllabary.
  analysis — see simplification
  animate — see noun
  antecedent — see pronoun (relative), and pp. 243, 471, 543
  aorist — see tense
  apostrophe — a mark indicating, usually, the omission of a letter
  (English mother o' mine; French l'homme); see pp. 187, 315.
  apposition — see noun
  archaic (obsolete) — ancient or antiquated; no longer in use; as
  applied to a word or form, it means that the latter was once in current
  use, but has now dropped from the language (English loveth for loves;
  forms like 'sblood!, 'sdeath!). An obsolete form is one which is not
  yet obsolete, but is falling into disuse (English graveyard, generally
  replaced by cemetery). See pp. 19, 287, 289, 353, 446.
  article — a form used with a noun, to give it a definite or an
  indefinite value (the man, a man); in English, the is the definite, a or an
  the indefinite article. Most western languages have the equivalents
  of both, though the rules for their use are far from uniform (English,
  "liberty is precious"; French, "la liberté est précieuse"; English, "Span-
  ish is an easy language"; Spanish, "el español es una lengua fácil";
  English, "he is a doctor"; Italian, "è medico"). Some languages, like
  Russian, dispense with both; others, like Greek, have a definite, but no
  indefinite article (see pp. 361, 368, 381, 423, 440, 450, 496, 534). In
  several languages (Swedish, Roumanian, Bulgarian, etc.), the definite
  article, instead of coming before the noun, follows it and is attached
  or "suffixed" to it in writing (Roumanian cal-ul, literally "horse-the";
  see pp. 89, 170, 174, 374-5, 427, 452, 467). In many languages, the
  article combines with certain preceding prepositions (French du livre.
  "of the book", with du representing a contraction of de le, "of the":
  see pp. 163, 188, 221, 272, 274, 317). In some languages, the article is
  used before the possessive adjective or pronoun (Italian il mio libro, lit.
  "the my book"; voglio il mio, lit. "I want the mine"; see pp. 134, 280,
  322).
  aspect — in several languages, notably the Slavic, verbs are divided
  into two classes: perfective (indicating an action as completed) and
  imperfective (indicating an action as uncompleted). This may be
  somewhat remotely compared to English "I spoke to him yesterday"
  (where it is implied that the action of speaking was finished at the
  time mentioned) vs. "I was speaking to him when you came in" (where
  the action of speaking was left suspended). See pp. 353, 364, 390.
  395, 437.
aspiration — the pronouncing of a consonant with a puff of breath immediately following it, as in English pin (p + hin) as against spin; see pp. 446, 449-51, 494.

assimilation — the change whereby one sound becomes identical with another; especially in the case of a consonant preceding another, and changing so as to conform with the other, as happened when Latin septem, octo became Italian sette, otto; see p. 467.

attributive — see adjective

auxiliary — a “helping” word, usually a verb, which helps another verb to show time, mood, etc. (English have in “I have spoken”, will in “he will go”, be in “to be heard”; see pp. 22, 139, 235, 517-8). Modal auxiliary is a term used especially in the grammar of the Germanic tongues to indicate all the verbs used to show the manner of the action shown by the main verb (English can, may, ought, must; German dürfen, sollen, wollen, werden, etc.; see pp. 137, 142). For auxiliary numeral, see classifier.

back vowel — see vowel

bilingual — speaking two languages, as a French Canadian who speaks English in addition to his native French, or a Belgian speaking both French and Flemish, or a South African speaking both English and Afrikaans; see pp. 16, 47, 49, 77.

borrowed words — see loan-words

breathings — special marks used in ancient Greek to indicate the aspiration or non-aspiration of certain vowels and consonants; see p. 422.

capital — while capitals exist in all languages using the Roman or similar alphabets (Cyrillic, Greek, Gothic, etc.), and are generally used at the beginning of the sentence, they are not always used identically in other connections; German, for instance, capitalizes all nouns, common as well as proper (der Hund, “the dog”); French does not capitalize adjectives of nationality (un livre français, “a French book”). For the different use of capitals in various languages, see pp. 98, 124, 159, 187, 218, 248, 260, 305, 331, 344, 412-3.

cardinal — see numeral

case — broadly, the grammatical function of a noun or pronoun in the sentence, as when we say that in the sentence “the boy is here”, “boy” is in the nominative or subjective case, while in “I see the boy”, “boy” is in the accusative or objective case. But often the distinction is one of form as well as of function or use; a case-form is a specific variant of the noun, adjective or pronoun, specifically indicating by its appearance (usually by its ending) the function which it is supposed to have in a sentence (subject, direct object, indirect object, etc.). English has no separate case-forms for adjectives; only two forms for nouns that differ from the general form (the possessive,
or genitive, singular and plural: "the boy's book", "the boys' books", as against the general forms boy, boys); and as many as three for some pronouns (nominative or subjective, I, who; genitive or possessive, my, whose; accusative or objective, me, whom). Certain languages, particularly of the Indo-European group, have numerous case-forms for nouns and adjectives; where these exist, the following are the most common:

**nominative** (or **subjective**) — usually indicates that the noun or pronoun is the subject or a predicate nominative; Latin "puer est bonus", "Romulus est puer"; see pp. 23, 128, 388, 479-80.

**genitive** (or **possessive**) — indicates, among other things, ownership; English "the boy's house"; Latin "domus pueri".

**dative** — generally indicates that the noun or pronoun is an indirect object; English "I give the boy the book" (but note that in this sentence it is the position of "the boy", not its form, that tells us it is an indirect object); English often marks the dative by the preposition to ("I give the book to the boy"); Latin "puerum libro do".

**accusative** (or **objective**) — indicates, usually, the direct object; in English "I see the boy", it is only the position of "the boy" that tells us it is a direct object, but in "I see him" we have the specific accusative form him, as well as the position; Latin "puerum video".

**vocative** — the form used in direct address; Latin "quid agis, Petre?" ("what are you doing Peter?"); see pp. 362, 374.

**ablative, instrumental** and **locative** indicate a variety of functions which English generally expresses by the use of prepositions; the ablative, originally, indicated removal from, or direction away from ("I took the book from the boy"); the instrumental, means by which ("I write with a pencil"); the locative, place where ("he is in the city"). These functions are merged in many languages (Latin, where the ablative takes over both instrumental and locative functions). The use of case-endings originally permitted Indo-European speakers to dispense with prepositions, but in many languages today both case-endings and prepositions are used.

The **prepositional** case of the Slavic languages is another term for the locative, used because, while prepositions appear in connection with other cases, the locative is the only one which cannot be used without a preposition.

The **absolute** case of Japanese (see p. 535) isolates the noun grammatically from the rest of the sentence (English "your brother, did he come today?").

The **oblique** case, in certain languages, represents a merger or falling together of the former cases outside of the nominative, which remains distinct in form (see pp. 479-80).

When the terms case and case-forms are applied to languages
outside of the Indo-European group, they are generally loosely used to indicate something analogous or similar, but not quite identical (see pp. 432–3, 436, 535).


caste — a hereditary social class; for the influence of the caste-system on language, see pp. 33, 487.

causative — see conjugation

cedilla — a mark placed under the letter c (ç) to indicate that it is to be given a special sound, usually that of s (pp. 187, 270), but occasionally another (p. 440). For the use of the cedilla under letters other than c, see pp. 173, 440. It is a curious fact that the cedilla was first used in Spanish, which later dropped it.

classification (or affiliation) of languages — the process of establishing the family relationship of a language, the larger group to which it belongs; see pp. 18–39, 455.

classifier (or determinative) — in certain languages, notably Chinese, a word which accompanies other words for the purpose of clarifying their meaning and identifying them as belonging to certain groups, like English "head" in "fifty head of cattle"; see pp. 495, 499, 504, 550–1.

clause — a simple sentence which serves as part of another, longer sentence; in a sentence such as "I spoke to the man whom I met yesterday", "I spoke to the man" is the main or principal clause, "whom I met yesterday" the subordinate clause, while the sentence as a whole is described as complex. Occasionally the two clauses are not one subordinate to the other, but equally independent; they can be detached from each other and each used separately as a complete simple sentence, as in "I met the man yesterday and I spoke to him". In this case, the sentence is called compound and the two clauses are described as co-ordinate; see pp. 127, 203, 220, 240, 263, 286, 329, 347, 353, 540–1, 543.

collective — see numeral

colloquialism — see slang

colonizing language (or language of colonization) — the tongue of a colonizing nation, which implants itself in another country, and is spoken by a minority composed of officials, soldiers, traders, missionaries, etc. Where the native population is sparse, and the colonizing tide heavy, the colonizing language may become the tongue of the majority of the inhabitants, as is the case with English in the United States, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. Elsewhere, it may remain a minority language, as is the case with English in
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British India. See pp. 25, 35-9, 40, 43, 49, 51, 53, 55-64, 81-7, 122-3, 167, 182-3, 226-7, 244-6, 268-9, 312-3, 351, 376-7, 455-6, 459, 524-6, 609, 610.

common — see gender, noun
comparative — see adjective
complex — see clause, sentence
compound forms — words like steam-boat, railroad, upgrade, etc., where two separate elements enter into the composition of the one word; see pp. 353, 487-8, 496, 532.

compound object pronoun — see pronoun
compound sentence — see clause, sentence
compound tense — see tense

crétte — see noun

conditional — see tense

corjugation — either an arrangement of the forms of a verb, or a set of verbs having the same inflections. English has only two conjugational types, the strong and the weak (see verb); in other languages, notably the Romance, verbs are divided up among several distinct conjugational types (Spanish -ar, -er, -ir; see pp. 178, 196, 233, 281, 323, 425, 472, 507). In addition to conjugational types, we may speak of a verb as being conjugated, or presented, in many ways:

affirmative (states) — I see, you see, he sees, etc.; see p. 487.
negative (denies) — I do not see, you do not see, etc.; see pp. 434, 441, 545-6, 549.

interrogative (questions) — do I see?, do you see?, etc.; see pp. 428, 474, 501, 512, 535, 545.

progressive (indicates an action going on) — I am speaking, I was speaking, I shall be speaking, etc.; see pp. 137, 239, 282, 288, 323, 475, 518, 541.

reflexive (indicates that the subject acts on himself) — I see myself, etc.; see pp. 178, 201, 239, 285-6, 328, 335, 393, 441, 501.

reciprocal (two or more subjects acting on each other, therefore can be used only in the plural) — we see each other, etc.; see p. 441.

causative (indicates that the subject causes something to be done, or somebody to do something) — see p. 441.

conjunction — a word which connects other words or clauses, like English and, but, if, since, though; see p. 513.

consonant — a sound characterized by friction, squeezing, or stoppage of breath in some part of the mouth, or a letter representing such a sound; 21 of the 26 letters of the English alphabet (omitting a, e, i, o, u) are loosely described as consonants; see pp. 29, 37, 86, 126, 186, 228, 353, 361, 380, 461-2, 487-8. For aspirated consonants, see aspiration, and p. 494; for broad and slender consonants, in Irish, see pp. 446, 449; for emphatic consonants, in Arabic, see pp. 465-6; for palatal consonants, see pp. 353-4, 380, 446. For double consonants, see
pp. 172, 270, 315, 329, 432, 434, 436, 466, 467, 532 (note that in some languages the written double consonant is pronounced single, as in English butter; in others, it is definitely given a double, or "long" pronunciation, as in Italian otto). For voiced and unvoiced consonants, see pp. 380, 494, 531 (the voiced consonant is pronounced with, the unvoiced without vibration of the vocal cords; there is no difference between t and d, p and b, k and g, save that the first member of each pair has no vibration of the vocal cords, while the second has).

coordinate — see clause, sentence

copulative — see verb

cultural language — see secondary language

cuneiform — wedge-shaped; the type of writing used by the Babylonians, Assyrians and ancient Persians, who pressed wedge-shaped writing instruments into wet clay; see p. 489.

dative — see case

declension — the various forms taken by a noun, adjective or pronoun to indicate case, number, gender, etc.; see pp. 88, 353, 362, 369, 382, 394, 423-4, 443-4, 507; see also case, ending, gender, inflection, number.

definite article — see article

demonstrative — a form that indicates or points out, like this, that; see adjective, pronoun.

derivative — a word that comes from another, as undo from do, machinist from machine, etc.; see p. 515.

descriptive — see adjective

desiderative — see voice

determinative — see classifier

diacritic mark — a mark accompanying a letter of the alphabet to indicate that it is to be given a special pronunciation. The accent marks (q. v.) are diacritics; so is the tilde of Spanish appearing over the n (ñ), the hook appearing under a and e in Polish to indicate nasalization (ą, ę), etc.; see pp. 366, 370, 440, 444, 531, 583.

diaeresis — two dots over a vowel to indicate that it is to be separated from the preceding or following vowel, and not to form a diphthong with it, as in French naïf, Noël, Spanish averigüe, English zoölogy, etc.; see p. 187.

dialect — a local form of speech, differing to a greater or lesser degree from the standard national or literary language; see pp. 33, 38, 51, 61, 64-7, 85-6, 168, 170, 172, 244-6, 268-70, 329-30, 427, 451-2, 455-8, 465, 488, 491-3, 507, 532. See also standardization.

diminutive — a derivative form indicating, usually by means of a special suffix, a small or dear variant of the object in question, as English lambkin (from lamb), eaglet (from eagle), kitten (from cat), or Spanish cigarrillo (from cigarro). Some languages, like Dutch,
Spanish and Italian, are more prone to use diminutives than others; within the same language, some sections are occasionally more prone to use diminutives (Mexico, for example, uses more than Spain). See pp. 128, 289.

diphthong — "two vowels pronounced as one", either for what concerns sound (as in French ai, which is equivalent in sound sometimes to è, sometimes to é; but this is more exactly described as a digraph); or for what concerns the combination of the two vowel-sounds in the same impulse of the voice (as in Spanish hierro, where there are two separate sounds, but pronounced in one syllable). See pp. 184, 287, 493. See also syllable.

direct object — see object
dissyllabic — consisting of two syllables, like English pretty; see p. 507.
dual — see number
eclipse — a phenomenon appearing especially in the Celtic tongues, whereby an initial consonant changes by reason of the original final sound of the preceding word, which is generally lost; see pp. 446, 449. See also lenition.

emigrant language (or language of emigration) — the tongue carried by emigrants from one country to another, and continuing to be spoken in communities made up of emigrants, like Italian in New York's Little Italy. See pp. 122–3, 312–3, 352, 377, 492, 526.

ending — that part of the word which does not belong to the root, but indicates gender, number, case, person, tense, mood, etc., like the -s in "he takes", the -d in "I loved", the -en in "oxen", French -es in grandes; see pp. 18, 30, 32, 88, 131, 170, 381, 394, 426, 434, 451, 496. Case-endings appear in languages where a case-system is used, like Latin murus, muri, muro, murum, mure, muro; see pp. 22, 33, 89, 362, 382, 479–80, 535; see also case, conjugation, declension, gender, inflection, number, possession, suffix, tense, voice.

familiar form of address — see address
feminine — see gender
fraction, fractional — see numeral
front vowel — see vowel
future, future anterior, future perfect — see tense

gender — the classification of nouns according to sex, real or fancied, or according to their denoting animate or inanimate objects, or according to other concepts, such as that of caste. English has a "natural" system of gender (male beings are masculine, female beings feminine, inanimate objects neuter, while the common gender is a rather vague entity including animate beings whose sex is unknown to the speaker). Some languages (Latin, German, Russian) have "grammatical" gender, whereby, even though a masculine-feminine-
neuter classification exists, inanimate objects may be masculine or feminine as well as neuter (note a survival of this in English when a ship is referred to as "she"); other languages (Romance, Celtic, Semitic) have reduced their gender system to a masculine-feminine classification, with inanimate objects divided up between those two genders; others (Dutch, Scandinavian) make, in practice, only a division of animate (common) and inanimate (neuter), but with numerous animate objects in the "neuter" gender and inanimate objects in the common gender; others (Hungarian, Japanese) make no distinction of gender whatsoever; while others (Dravidian) have a gender system based on social caste (pp. 33, 487). See pp. 24, 31-3, 37, 88, 128, 170-1, 173, 175, 188, 230, 274, 316, 353, 361-2, 381, 423-4, 427, 430, 432, 436, 440, 446, 452, 463, 466, 477, 480, 487, 496, 504-5, 510, 534.

**genitive** — see case

**gerund** — a form of the verb used as a noun. In English the gerund ends in -ing, and there is no distinction in form between the gerund (walking is good exercise, I like walking) and the present participle (he is walking, the walking man), though the functions are quite distinct (the gerund is used as a noun, the present participle as an adjective). Other languages use distinct forms (Italian parlando, siamo usciti, "while speaking, we went out"; but l'uomo è un animale parlante, "man is a speaking animal"). The English gerund may be used alone, as subject or object (walking is good; I like walking) or after prepositions (without walking); in many languages, notably of the Romance group, these functions are taken over by the infinitive (Spanish el hablar me gusta; sin hablar); and the only function left for the gerund is to translate "by" or "while" doing something, as in the Italian example above. See pp. 239, 282, 321, 323, 353, 393, 444.

**glottal stop** — a "catch in the voice", or a complete shutting off of the breath-stream, usually before a vowel (German die Eier, der Arme). The glottal stop appears as a regular sound (phoneme) in Arabic and Malay (pp. 466, 508). It appears occasionally and accidentally in English (coöperate).

**grammatical structure** — the sum total of the features of a language (other than its sounds and its vocabulary), such as the way in which it forms and arranges its parts of speech, etc. See pp. 64, 67, 245, 353-4, 419, 429-30, 495.

**hieroglyphic** — the system of picture-writing of the ancient Egyptians. See pp. 29, 489, and picture-writing.

**hiragana** — one of the two Japanese syllabaries; see pp. 527-31, 539.

**honorific** — see address

**identification of languages** — the process of determining with what language, spoken or written, we are faced; see pp. 13, 15, 67, 72-3, 76,
GLOSSARY


**ideograph** — see picture-writing

**idiom** (or idiomatic expression) — a construction peculiar to one language, which cannot be directly or literally translated into another, and the meaning of which cannot be gathered from its component parts; e. g., English “look out” in the sense of “be careful”; literally translated into most other languages, it will convey only its primary meaning of “look outside”.

**imperative** — see mood

**imperfect** — see tense

**imperfective** — see aspect

**impersonal** — see verb

**inanimate** — see noun

**indeclinable** — see invariable

**indefinite** — see article, adjective, pronoun

**indicative** — see mood

**indirect object** — see object

**infinitive** — the form of the verb which indicates the action without reference to a subject. In English, the infinitive consists of the verb-root preceded by to (“to go”; to is omitted after certain verbs, like *can, may*). Other languages use a specific ending (*French aimer, finir, vendre*); others do not have a specific infinitive, but make use of other forms of the verb when they want to indicate the action in general (pp. 472, 539). For certain constructions with the infinitive, see pp. 233, 279, 321. Portuguese has a “personal” infinitive, with personal endings, corresponding roughly to such expressions as “for me to do”, “for you to do”, etc.; see pp. 284, 307. For the use of the infinitive in many languages as the equivalent of the English gerund, see gerund.

**inflection** — the process of change of endings in those forms (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs) which are composed of a root and an ending. English, for instance, inflects a noun like *boy* by adding ‘s for the possessive, –s for the plural, –s’ for the possessive plural; it inflects a pronoun like *I* by changing it to *my* or *mine* in the possessive, *me* in the objective, *we* in the subjective plural, *our* or *ours* in the possessive plural, *us* in the objective plural; it inflects an adjective like *strong* by adding –er for the comparative, –est for the superlative; it inflects a verb like *love* by adding –s in the third person singular present, –d in the past, –ing in the present participle. Some languages, like Latin or Russian, inflect the noun, adjective and pronoun to a far greater degree than does English; others, like Chinese, have no inflection at all, but indicate all relations by separate words; such languages are called isolating, since no two meanings are combined
in any single word, but each meaning is “isolated” in a separate word; compare the English isolating “I” “shall” “love” with the Spanish inflected amaré. See pp. 23, 25, 89, 170, 353, 463, 487-8, 496, 504, 507, 526-7. For various types and forms of inflection, see also adjective, case, conjugation, declension, ending, gender, mood, noun, number, possession, pronoun, tense, verb. For the change from inflection to isolation, see simplification.

instrumental — see case

interjection — a word isolated from the rest of the sentence, and used as an exclamation, like English “ah!” “oh!” “golly!” etc. See p. 514.

international language — either a language deliberately built for international use (like Esperanto, Volapük, Interglossa, etc.) or a national language adapted for international use (like Basic English or Interlingua); see p. 580.

interrogative — see adjective, conjugation, pronoun. Interrogation or inquiry is indicated in English by an interrogative word (“who did it?”); by an inversion of verb and subject (“is it?”); by the use of do as an interrogative auxiliary (“do you see it?”); or simply by a note of the voice (“you went there yesterday?”). Many languages use the first two and the last of these devices (the use of do as an auxiliary is typically English). For the written languages, note the Spanish use of an inverted question mark at the beginning of an interrogation (¿lo vió Ud.?), and its use of a written accent on many interrogative words (¿cuándo lo vió?). Some languages, like Chinese and Japanese, use special interrogative words and constructions (see pp. 501, 545).

intonation — see pronunciation

intransitive — see verb

invariable (or indeclinable) — unchanging in form. The adjective in English is invariable for what concerns gender and number (but not for what concerns degree), whereas in French it is variable, or inflected (haut, hauteur, hauts, hautes). In isolating languages, like Chinese, all words are invariable. See pp. 437, 441, 452, 504.

isolating — a type of language, like the Chinese, consisting exclusively of roots to which no suffixes or endings are added, so that each word is “isolated” and depends for its meaning on its position in the sentence.

kana — the Japanese system of writing, particularly the syllabaries (hiragana, katakana). Kana majiri is the full system of writing, combining Chinese ideographs and the syllabaries. See pp. 526-31.

katakana — one of the two Japanese syllabaries; see pp. 527-31, 540.

letrition (or mutation) — changes undergone by consonants,
particulars in Celtic, by reason of position between vowels. See p. 446. **See also eclipsis.** For another meaning of **mutation, see umlaut.**

**liaison — see linking**

**lingua franca —** in the Middle Ages, a term describing a language spoken in the Mediterranean basin, consisting of Italian, with additions from other sources (Arabic, French, Greek, etc.), and serving as a tongue of general intercourse for the peoples in that area, especially traders and soldiers. Today the term is applied to any language of general intercourse serving a wide multilingual area (Pidgin English, Malay, etc.). See p. 459 and **trade language.**

**linguistic minorities —** groups of speakers of one tongue, living in a political subdivision in which another tongue has more speakers. The tongue of the linguistic minority may, however, be co-official with the majority language, as is the case with Romanish in Switzerland, French in Canada, and Spanish in New Mexico; or it may be spoken in a section of the country, without official recognition, like Slovenian in northeastern Italy; see pp. 47–8, 122–3, 352, 376–7, 419.

**linking (or liaison) —** the carrying over of the final consonant of one word to the initial vowel-sound of the next, as in French *les amours*, or Italian *con essi*; the two words are thereby pronounced as a single word, with syllabic division accordingly (*lé za mour; co nes si*). Linking occurs most frequently in the Romance languages, with the added feature in French that it causes a final consonant to be pronounced that would otherwise be silent (see p. 186). In German, linking is normally prevented by the *glottal stop* (q. v.); in English, incorrect linking is occasionally heard (*Long Island*, pronounced *Long Gisland*).

**literal translation —** a word-for-word rendering of one language into another; often possible, in simple constructions and in related languages; generally more difficult as the construction becomes longer and more involved, and as the languages diverge; see pp. 18, 172.

**literary language — see written language**

**liturgical —** pertaining to religious service. Latin is used as a liturgical language in the Roman Catholic Church, regardless of the country’s spoken tongue; classical Arabic is similarly used among Moslems; Sanskrit among Buddhists, even in Japan. See p. 29.

**loan-word (or borrowed word) —** a word which one language has taken from another. Some languages are relatively free of loan-words; others, like English, Persian, Albanian, Armenian, have borrowed over 50% of their total vocabulary. Depending on the time and circumstances of the borrowing, the loan-word assumes a more or less native appearance in the borrowing tongue; English, borrowing Italian *balcone* in the Renaissance, turned it into *balcony*, and the memory of the borrowing is popularly lost; *spaghetti* and *broccoli*, on the other hand,
are recent arrivals, and their foreign, unmodified form easily identifies them as loan-words; the same word is sometimes borrowed twice, at
different periods, like macaroon and macaroni (Italian maccheroni), or
saloon and salon (French salon). See pp. 63, 77-9, 80-87, 90, 172, 378,

locative — see case
main clause — see clause
masculine — see gender
middle vowel — see vowel
military influence — the coming into the language of words having
their origin in warfare and soldiers’ slang, like English G. I., jeep,
bazooka, or French poilu; see pp. 225, 528, 611.

modal auxiliary — see auxiliary
monogenesis — the theory that all the world’s languages go back
to a single common ancestor; originally embodied in the Biblical
account of the Tower of Babel, it was popularly held for a long time,
with Hebrew as the supposed original language, and led to very strange
eytomyologies and derivations of words and grammatical forms on the
part of medieval and Renaissance linguistic scholars; discarded in the
19th century, it has recently reappeared in the writings of a few
linguists, notably A. Trombetti, but has not met with much favor in
linguistic circles. See p. 18.

monosyllabic — consisting of a single syllable, like English do, go,
for, what. Some languages, like Chinese, in their present state, consist
exclusively of monosyllabic roots (which may, however, be combined
into two, three and even four-word compounds having a single mean-

mood (or mode) — distinction of form or meaning in a verb to
express the manner in which the action denoted is thought of (see pp.
172, 425-6, 434, 437, 499, 538). In English, we speak of an indicative
mood (representing the action as a definite fact: “I am”, “he loves”); a
subjunctive mood (representing the action as hypothetical or sub-
ordinated to another action: “whether he be”, “if I were”); and an
imperative mood (expressing a command or an exhortation: “write to
him”, “let us go”). The subjunctive mood in English is to a large
degree a grammatical name rather than an actuality, because outside
of the verb to be, the overwhelming majority of subjunctive forms
coincide with their indicative counterparts; this is not true of many
other languages (see pp. 141, 203, 220, 240, 263, 286, 329, 347, 393).
For the imperative, see pp. 127, 472, 542. Some languages boast of an
optative mood, used primarily to express a wish (“would that he were
here!” see p. 441). It may be added that in the case of languages
having desiderative, causative and other similar forms, the assigning
of such forms to mood, voice or conjugation is not always easy (see
conjugation, voice).

mutation — see lenition, umlaut

nasal sounds — sounds appearing in practically all languages, in
the production of which the connection between mouth and nose is
wholly or partly shut off, with the soft palate lowered and the voice
resounding in the nose; for some special nasal sounds of French,
Portuguese, Polish, etc., see pp. 172, 184, 187, 270, 354, 361, 366, 444.

negation — denial; in simplest form, “no”; in connection with
other words, represented in English by “not” and other devices (note
the characteristic English use of do as a negative auxiliary for verbs:
“I do not write”). Other languages use a variety of negative devices
which do not always correspond to ours (e. g., the French double
negative particle in je ne vois pas); see pp. 278, 289, 321, 327, 428, 474,
477, 487, 500-1, 518, 585). Some languages, like Finnish and Japanese,
instead of using negative particles with affirmative verbs, use a
negative conjugation, which differs in form from the affirmative (see
conjugation).

neuter — see gender

neuter article and pronoun — forms peculiar to some Romance
languages, which have in other respects given up the neuter gender
(Spanish lo hermoso, “that which is beautiful”; French je n’aime pas
 cela, “I don’t like that”); see pp. 170, 280.

neutral vowel — see vowel

nominative — see case

nucleus — the name of a person, place, thing or quality (John, France,
bread, beauty). In English, nouns are divided into proper (the name
of a specific person or locality; these are capitalized: Roosevelt, Rome),
and common (names of things and qualities: iron, intelligence). Com-
mon nouns may further be subdivided into concrete (denoting tangible,
material things: bread, iron), and abstract (denoting intangible concepts
and qualities: freedom, beauty; see p. 128).

From the standpoint of use in the sentence, a noun may be used
as subject (“John is here”; direct object (“I see John”); indirect ob-
ject (“I give John the book”); object of a preposition (“I went with
John”); in apposition (describing another noun directly: “John the
apostle”); or as a predicate noun (describing the subject through the
verb to be: “John is an apostle”).

From the standpoint of structure, a noun has gender, number and
case, which means that in languages with full declensional systems,
like Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and Russian, we may get as many as 24
different forms for the same noun, each marked by a different ending
(see pp. 32, 170). Note the distinction made in some languages (Slavic,
pp. 362, 382-3) between animate nouns (denoting a living person or
animal) and *inanimate* nouns (denoting lifeless things or abstract qualities). See also case, declension, ending, gender, inflection, number, object, possession, predicate, subject.

**number** — the distinction in form or meaning of a noun, adjective, pronoun or verb to denote "one" or "more than one" of the objects named (see pp. 24, 32, 88, 188-9, 230-1, 247, 274, 463, 466-7, 496, 499, 506, 510, 533, 538). English has two numbers, *singular* (denoting one) and *plural* (denoting more than one). The more ancient Indo-European languages and the Semitic tongues also have a *dual* number (indicating two; Latin *duo, ambo* are survivals of the ancient Indo-European dual form; see pp. 463, 466-7). Certain Melanesian languages are said to have separate forms, especially for the pronouns, to indicate three and four of the objects in question ("we-three", "you-four"). Some tongues, like Chinese and Japanese, indicate the difference between singular and plural only when strictly necessary (see pp. 497, 510, 533-4). For the formation of the plural, regular and irregular, in various languages, see pp. 23-4, 33, 35, 88, 170, 189, 230-1, 247, 274, 449-50, 452, 477, 487, 497, 510, 533-4 (in English a "regular" plural would be one formed by the addition of -*s*, such as *boys, girls*; an "irregular" plural, one formed by other devices, such as *oxen, children, men, women, sheep, deer, mice*). For the "broken" plural forms of Arabic, see pp. 467-8.

**numeral** — a word indicating a number, like *three, third*, etc. The *cardinal* numeral is the primary number itself (*one, two, three*; it may be used as an adjective or as a noun). The *ordinal* numeral shows the order or numerical position of the noun it defines (*first, second, third*), and is used primarily as an adjective. A *collective* numeral indicates a round number, like *dozen, score* (see p. 514). A *fractional* numeral indicates a part of one, like *half, third, quarter*. See pp. 37, 132, 169-70, 175, 190, 232-3, 276-7, 319-20, 358-9, 385-6, 424-5, 427, 429-30, 433, 447, 452, 464, 468-9, 498-9, 504, 514, 549. For auxiliary numerals, see p. 550 and classifier.

**object** — the recipient of the action shown by the verb. In "I struck the man", "the man" directly receives the action of my striking, and is the *direct object*. In "I gave the man the book", there are two recipients involved, "the book" being primary or *direct* (what is given), "the man" being secondary or *indirect* (to whom is given). An easy way of distinguishing the indirect object from the direct is to determine before which of the two objects the preposition to may be correctly used ("I give the book to the man", "I give the book to him"). Different languages use different devices to mark the direct and the indirect object (position in the sentence, case-endings, prepositions, postpositions, etc.; see pp. 22, 23, 536).
object pronoun — see pronoun
objective — see case
oblique — see case
obsolete — see archaic
optative — see mood
ordinal — see numeral
orthography — see spelling
orthographical reform — a change in the system of spelling or writing of a language, usually aimed at obtaining a closer correspondence between symbol and sound. Turkish (see p. 440) and Russian (see pp. 355, 378, 462) have recently undergone official orthographic reforms which have made both languages far more accessible to foreign learners and far easier to their own school-children. Similar reforms have been advocated for English (notably, in recent times, by G. B. Shaw in England and former Senator R. L. Owen in the U. S.), but without success thus far. For a similar attempt in Japanese, see p. 528.

parent language — the language from which other tongues are descended; Latin is, for example, the parent language of the Romance tongues. In the case of many groups, a parent language, though unknown because no direct record of it has come down to us, can be more or less hypothetically reconstructed from a comparison of the known members of the group; see pp. 19, 27.

participle — a form of the verb used as an adjective. English has a present active participle (ending in -ing) which coincides in form with the gerund (see gerund) and a passive (incorrectly called past) participle which in weak verbs has the ending -d (loved), in strong verbs a variety of forms (the ending -en often appears: written, spoken, broken, but bound, found, swum, sung, etc.). Many languages have similar forms; others have additional ones (Latin, future active participle, amaturus, “about to love”). See pp. 353, 393, 444, 473, 487, 516-7, 541.

particle — a subordinate word, not inflected (such as a preposition, conjunction or interjection). Interrogative, negative, emphatic and other particles appear in many languages: see pp. 487, 501, 527, 533, 535.

passive — see voice
past, past absolute, past definite, past indefinite, past perfect — see tense
perfect — see tense
perfective — see aspect
person — the distinction between speaker (first person: “I”, “we”); person addressed (second person: “you”); and person or thing spoken of (third person: “he”, “she”, “it”, “they”). In many languages, the distinction of person appears in the form of the verb (then called a personal verb), being conveyed by a special suffix (Spanish amo, amas,
ama); in others, it is primarily conveyed by a subject pronoun, as happens for the most part in English, where only the third singular present: (loves) carries a personal suffix (“I love”, “you love”, “they love”). Some languages, like Japanese, generally leave the person to be inferred from the context (the Japanese verb is described as impersonal; see p. 538). Other languages, like the Dravidian, distinguish between inclusive and exclusive first person plural (“we” meaning “you and I”, and “we” meaning “I and he, but not you”; see p. 487). See also pp. 23, 499, 515.

personal verb — see person, verb
personal infinitive — see infinitive
personal pronoun — see pronoun
phonetic writing — see orthographic reform, spelling
pictograph — see picture-writing
picture-writing — a writing system whereby objects have a pictorial representation, like a round disk for “sun”, a crescent for “moon”, etc. This seems to be the original form of all writing-systems (see p. 489). A pictograph is a symbol denoting a definite object, as described above; an ideograph is a conventional symbol representing something not so obvious, as when Chinese combines pictographs representing “sun” and “tree” into an ideograph representing “east” ("the sun shining through trees"), or when we use the symbol $ to represent “dollars”. See pp. 19, 33, 461-2, 488-92, 526-7.

pitch — see accent
pluperfect — see tense
plural — see number
polite address — see address
polylingual — speaking many tongues, like a Swiss speaking all four of the official languages of Switzerland (German, French, Italian, Rumansh); see pp. 16, 49.

polysyllabic — consisting of more than one syllable, such as the word in-tel-li-gent; see pp. 496, 507.

polysynthetic — a type of language characterized by the fusion of many semi-independent elements into a single word; see pp. 36-7.

positive — see adjective
possessive — see case, adjective, pronoun
possession — ownership, or the denoting of ownership, as in “John’s hat”. For the denotation of possession in various languages, see pp. 23, 88, 467, 470-1, 477, 497-8, 504, 511, 518, 535-6.

postposition — a particle placed after a noun to indicate a case relation, like the Japanese  wol denoting that the preceding noun is a direct object. See pp. 436, 440, 487, 497, 533, 535, 537. A postposition differs from a case-ending in that it is a completely separate and independent word.
**predicate** — what is said about the subject, including the verb and any complements (such as objects). A noun, pronoun or adjective describing the subject through the verb to be (or another copulative verb: *to seem, to become*, etc.) is said to be a **predicate noun, predicate pronoun, or predicate adjective** (“he is a general”; “it is I”; “he is good”; see noun, adjective). The case of a noun in the predicate after a copulative verb is said to be the **predicate nominative** (see p. 424).

**prefix** — an element placed before the root of a word to modify its meaning, like in “in-”, in “invoice”, or the “re-” in “regain”; see pp. 35-6, 127, 142, 395, 477, 487, 505, 510-1, 515-7, 534, 589-90.

**preposition** — a particle showing the relation of a noun or pronoun to another element in the sentence, and indicating a relation of position, direction, time, means, etc., like in, of, to, from, by; see pp. 22, 24, 170, 288, 424, 471, 479, 497, 513; see also case.

**prepositional** — see case

**present** — see tense

**present perfect** — see tense

**principal clause** — see clause

**progressive** — see conjugation

**pronoun** — a word used instead of a noun. The various classes of pronouns are:

**personal** (standing for the name of a person or thing, as *I, you, it*);

**possessive** (indicating ownership, as *mine, yours*);

**demonstrative** (pointing out, as *these, those*);

**relative** (referring to some person or thing previously mentioned, as *who, which, that*; the person or thing referred to is called the **antecedent**; in “I saw the man who came yesterday”, “man” is the antecedent of “who”);

**interrogative** (asking a question, as “who” in “who did it?”);

**indefinite** (like *someone, anyone*);

**reflexive** (like *myself, themselves* in “I see myself”, “they speak to themselves”).

From the standpoint of use in the sentence, the pronoun has the same functions as the noun (*q. v.*); a personal pronoun especially may be used as **subject** (“I am here”); **direct or indirect object** (“he sees me”; “he gives me the book”); **object of a preposition** (“he comes with me”); **predicate nominative** (“it is I”), etc. While practically all languages have subject personal pronouns, many often dispense with them, because the form of the verb makes it clear who the subject is (Spanish “quiero” vs. English “I love”; see pp. 22, 170, 177, 192, 234, 241, 278, 320, 391, 473, 538). With object personal pronouns, usage is still more varied; many languages customarily place the object pronoun **before** the verb (French “il me voit” vs. English “he sees me”; see pp.
177, 193, 200, 241, 278). At times the object pronoun is attached to
the verb-form (Spanish “quiere verme”, “he wants to see me”; see pp.
470, 473, 477). In some languages, notably Portuguese, two object
pronouns (direct and indirect) are compounded, thereby appearing
as a single form (see pp. 279, 288, 320-1). Other languages “in-
corporate” the object pronoun in the verb (see pp. 437, 453). For the
“inclusive” and “exclusive” pronouns of Dravidian, see p. 487.

Note that many pronouns, particularly demonstrative and inter-
rogative, may also be used as adjectives (“I want these”, “I want these
books”; “what do you want?”, “what books do you want?”); in some
languages this double use of a single form extends also to the posses-
sives (Italian “voglio il mio”, “I want mine”; “voglio il mio libro”, “I
want my book”).

See also case, declension, ending, gender, inflection, number, ob-
ject, possession, predicate, subject.

pronunciation (or enunciation) — articulate utterance, with the
proper sound and accent. Intonation is pronunciation with reference
to the pitch or modulation of the voice. See pp. 65-7, 72-3, 76, 83, 287,
329-30, 379, 421, 423, 446.

proper — see noun

punctuation — the use of periods, commas, etc. The rules of
punctuation are not identical in all languages using our own or a
similar alphabet; for some outstanding differences, see pp. 229, 423.

punctuating words — particles used in some languages to express
a break in the meaning; see pp. 513, 518.

race — the anthropological affiliation of human beings, as distinct
from their linguistic affiliations. Despite certain politically inspired
beliefs to the contrary, it is a universally recognized scientific fact
that there is no connection between the two; see pp. 21, 36, 457.

reciprocal — see conjugation

reduplication — in certain Indo-European languages, a device for
forming tenses by doubling the first consonant or syllable of the root
of the verb; this occurs most frequently in the formation of the perfect
tense (Latin cu-curri, perfect of curro; de-di, perfect of do). The term
is also applied, however, to the doubling of any word (usually a noun)
to indicate plural number or frequent occurrence see pp. 85, 510-1,
534.

reflexive — see conjugation, pronoun

relative — see pronoun

religion — the influence which religious beliefs exert on language,
particularly in its written form, is sometimes far-reaching; see pp. 19,
30, 53, 80, 354, 496, 461-2, 480, 507, 530.

root (or stem) — a primitive word-form, without prefix, suffix, or
inflectional element, as go, wall, good. In inflected languages, the root
is frequently accompanied by an inflectional ending (as aim-s, aim-ing, aim-ed); isolating languages, like the Chinese, permit no inflectional endings, and every word consists of a pure root (roots may, however, be combined into groups). The roots of Indo-European languages normally consist of both consonants and vowels, and the vowels are especially subject to modification (see pp. 88, 136, 143, 233, 430, 432, 436). Semitic languages have, generally, roots consisting of three consonants, with the vowels consigned to a secondary role (see pp. 29, 463, 472). See also pp. 23, 30, 33, 394, 477, 487, 539-40, 552.

secondary (or cultural) language — an acquired tongue, gained either through a cultural medium, such as a school, or through intercourse with the speakers; German, for example, is a widespread secondary and cultural tongue in countries like Czechoslovakia (where it is spoken by nearly 40% of the population), the Netherlands (20%), Hungary (15%), Sweden and Denmark (over 10%), etc. See pp. 41, 43, 45, 47-9, 52, 62-3, 81-7, 122-3, 167, 182-3, 312-3, 352, 376-7, 420, 456, 507.

semantic — pertaining to meaning; a semantic change in a word is a change in its meaning, as when Latin mittere, “to send”, became French mettre, “to put”. Words like English knave and German Knabe (“boy”), English knight and German Knecht (“serv”), English rent and French rente (“income”) are illustrative of semantic differentiation of what was originally one and the same word in different languages; English dame (feminine of sir) and American slang dame illustrate semantic differentiation within the same language. See pp. 65, 67, 290.

sentence — a combination of words expressing a complete thought, as “I am here”. For the various types of sentence, see clause.

simple sentence — see clause

simplification (or analysis) — the process whereby a language replaces inflectional endings with separate words conveying the meanings previously conveyed by the inflectional suffixes, as when Vulgar Latin replaces Classical genitive muri (“of the wall”) with de illo muro, which later becomes Italian de lo muro, del muro. The opposite of analysis is synthesis (q. v.), whereby several concepts are gathered into a single word by the use of endings. The utmost in simplification is achieved by “isolating” languages, like Chinese, where every word is an unchanging, uninflected root. See pp. 22-3, 25, 421, 479-80.

singular — see number

slang — the jargon of a particular class, comprehensible only to members of that class; the use of new words and phrases, or of old words and phrases in a new and arbitrary, or figurative sense. Colloquialisms differ from slang only in degree, being more widely current and more acceptable to the more cultured speakers of a language, at least in spoken form. The dividing line between slang,
colloquialism, and literary language is invariably vague and shadowy, since the slang and colloquialisms of today often supply the material for the literary language of tomorrow. Slang appears in practically all languages that boast of a literary or even a written form, though to varying degrees. See pp. 19, 65–6, 72–87, 225, 246, 267, 611, 613.

spelling (or orthography) — the written form of a spoken word (see alphabet). The spelling of some languages, like English and French, is quite complicated, in the sense that there is only a partial correspondence of written symbol and spoken sound (note the different sounds that the symbol a has in father, all, bat, fare, or the symbol s in silly, rose, measure; the fact that often a single symbol represents a double sound, like the u in unite (yu-nite); and the fact that often a single sound is represented by a double symbol, as is the case with the th of this or the sh of shore). Other languages, like Spanish, have a more “simple” spelling; that is, there is a closer approach to symbol-for-sound correspondence. Several languages have deliberately gone about securing a closer correspondence of this type, though no language has completely achieved it (see orthographic reform). Most languages are said to have phonetic writing, that is, writing which to a greater or lesser degree represents sounds (for non-phonetic writing see pp. 491, 493, 526, and picture-writing), but true phonetic writing, with absolute symbol-for-sound correspondence, has so far been achieved only through the International Phonetic Alphabet, and even there with qualifications and room for discussion. See pp. 22, 67, 103, 229, 271, 314, 446, 583.

standardization of language — the process whereby local and dialectal varieties of a language are done away with, usually through conscious governmental effort, and a uniform language, at least in written form, is imposed upon the population of a given area; see pp. 65, 465, 491

stem — see root

strong — see adjective, verb

subject — the word, or group of words, about which something is said; in the sentence “I am here”, “I” is the subject; in “to run fast is good exercise”, “to run fast” is the subject. In languages having declensional forms, the noun or pronoun which is the subject goes into the nominative case (see case, declension); where declensional forms are wanting, position before the verb usually indicates the subject; in “the boy sees the man”, the only thing that indicates that “the boy” is the subject and “the man” the object of the action of seeing is their relative position before and after “sees”; but in Latin the words may be arranged in any order (virum videt puer), since puer definitely informs us by its form that it is the subject, and virum that it is the object. See pp. 22–3.
subject pronoun — see pronoun
subjective — see case
subjunctive — see mood
subordinate — see clause
suffix — a letter or syllable added to the end of a word to modify its meaning; in “boys’”, s is a plural suffix; in “boy’s”, ’s is a possessive suffix; in “warmly”, ly is an adverbial suffix. See pp. 22–3, 30–1, 36, 85, 88, 128, 430, 432–3, 436–7, 440, 452, 470, 477, 487, 497, 510–1, 539, 549, 589–90. See also ending.
superlative — see adjective
supine — a verbal noun, or uninflected adjective, which does not exist in English. In the modern languages, like the Scandinavian, where the supine appears, it acts as a secondary past participle to form compound tenses in the active (“I have spoken”), while the past participle is used with a verb corresponding to to be to form the passive (“I am seen”); see pp. 96, 102.
syllable — a combination of sounds uttered with a single impulse of the voice, like each of the four voice-groups in in–tel–li–gent. In some languages, all words are monosyllabic (q. v.). In polysyllabic languages, syllabification, or syllabic division, is the dividing of words into syllables. This process, though unconscious in the spoken tongue, gives the language an individual flavor, marking it predominantly as a “vocalic” or “vowel” language, in which most syllables end in vowels (open syllables), or “consonantal”, where most of the syllables end in consonants (closed syllables). English definitely belongs to the latter type, while Spanish and Italian just as definitely belong to the former. A good deal of the pronunciation difficulty which the English-speaking student encounters in connection with foreign languages is due to his instinctive incorrect syllabic division, which he carries over unconsciously from his native tongue; dividing the Spanish ge-ne-ral as we divide the English gen-er-ai, we are bound to get incorrect vowel-sounds. A useful exercise in this connection is to take long foreign words, divide them correctly into syllables according to the rules of syllabification of the language in question, pronounce the syllables separately, at first very slowly, with a distinct break between each syllable, then faster and faster till the breaks are eliminated, but the correct tonality of the vowels remains. See pp. 35, 127, 187, 229, 272, 315, 462, 489, 508, 526–32.
syllabary — a table of indivisible syllabic characters, such as appears in Japanese; see pp. 462, 489, 527–32; see also kana. In many western languages of a predominantly “open-syllable” nature (see above), children are taught to syllabify rather than to spell (a, e, i, o, u; ba, be, bi, bo, bu; da, de, di, do, du; etc.).
synonym — a word having the same meaning as another word;
shun, for example, is a synonym of avoid ("I avoid his company", "I shun his company"). Languages whose vocabulary is made up from various sources (like English, which is composed of Anglo-Saxon, Norman-French, Latin, Greek, etc.), are particularly rich in synonyms (Spanish escorpión, from the Latin; alacrán, from the Arabic; both meaning "scorpion"). See p. 179.

**syntax** — the structure of the sentence, or the arranging of words in their proper relation; the placing of the subject before, and of the object after the verb, is a matter of syntax. See pp. 83-4, 172, 495-7, 527.

**synthesis** — combining, or putting together, numerous subsidiary meanings in one word; opposed to **analysis** or **simplification** (q. v.); see pp. 22, 25.

**tense** — the modification of verb-forms to express time. The fundamental divisions of time are **present** ("I do", "I am doing"); **past** ("I did"); and **future** ("I shall do"); and many languages, like Russian, go no farther; some even combine the future with the present ("I am going there tomorrow"); while others dispense with tenses altogether, save where a special word (yesterday, now, next year) conveys the time of the action. In the modern western languages, tense-forms are generally covered by the following scheme, with some tenses lacking in some tongues:

**present** (indicates what happens habitually, or what is happening now: "I go there every day"; "I am going there now");

**imperfect** (indicates what was happening, or used to happen: French "j'y allais quand vous êtes entré"). There is no specific form for the imperfect in English, but the meaning is conveyed by the **past progressive** ("I was going"), or by a circumlocution like "I used to go";

**past** (indicates what happened: "I went there yesterday"). This tense goes by many different names in the grammars of various languages. The German past corresponds in form to the English, but is often used an imperfect; the French past is called "**past definite**", and is used for the most part in book narration, being replaced in conversation by the **present perfect** or **past indefinite** ("I have done"); the Spanish past, called "**past absolute**", and the Italian past ("passato remoto") are similar to the English in use. Latin called this tense "**perfect**", and Greek "aorist" (see p. 425);

**future** (indicates what will take place: "I shall go there tomorrow"). In English and German, the future is formed by means of an auxiliary verb (shall, will, werden + infinitive); this makes it, in a broad sense, an analytical, or "compound" tense, since it consists of two combined, but independent elements; in the Romance languages, the future is a simple, or synthetic tense (je ferai, haré, farò); see pp. 23, 178, 245, 390-1, 472, 500, 540;
Compound Tenses (see pp. 178, 282) are generally formed by means of an auxiliary (to have, to be; see auxiliary) + the past participle (supine in some languages; see supine); in English they are:

**present perfect** (indicating what has happened: "I have done it"). French calls this tense the "past indefinite", and both French and German use it colloquially to translate both the English present perfect and the English past; in Spanish and Italian its use is very similar to English;

**past perfect** (indicating what had happened prior to something else that took place: "I had seen him before he went out"). It is often called "pluperfect". The Romance languages have two past perfect tenses, one formed with the imperfect, the other with the past of the auxiliary (French pluperfect j'avais parlé; past anterior j'eus parlé; both mean "I had spoken", but the second is used primarily in a subordinate clause when there is a past in the main clause).

**future perfect** (indicating what will have taken place: "I shall have finished the work by tomorrow"). Sometimes called "future anterior".

There is some dispute as to whether the conditional present ("he would go if I asked him") and the conditional past ("he would have gone if I had asked him") are to be considered as tenses of the indicative or as a separate mood. They appear in most western languages, being analytical forms in the Germanic, synthetic forms in the Romance tongues (see pp. 393, 425, 500, 540–1).

The tenses of the indicative, outlined above, are largely duplicated in the subjunctive, where the latter exists. German and Portuguese have six subjunctive tenses; French, Spanish and Italian have four (the future and future perfect subjunctive having disappeared from modern Spanish).

A tense distinction may also appear in the infinitive ("to do"; "to have done"); "to be about to do"); and in the participles ("doing"; "having done", "being about to do"); "done", "having been done", "being about to be done").

See pp. 23, 172, 353, 364, 375, 425–6, 499, 515, 538; see also conjugation, mood, voice, verb.

**tilde** — the sign used in Spanish over n (ñ) to indicate its palatal pronunciation; the same symbol is used by other languages over various letters to indicate various modifications of sound; see pp. 228, 270.

**tone** — the intonation or pitch of the voice; in certain languages, notably Chinese, tone serves to distinguish meaning; see pp. 17, 32–3, 459–60, 487–8, 492, 495–505. See also accent.

**trade language** — a tongue used as a medium of common intercourse among speakers of various languages in multilingual areas, like German in Central Europe, Malay in the Dutch East Indies, Pidgin in
the Melanesian Islands, Hausa and Swahili in sections of Africa, etc. See pp. 65, 83-7, 268-9, 454, 459; see also lingua franca.

transitive — see verb

umlaut — the change of a root vowel under the influence of the vowel in the final syllable, which later often disappears; the term mutation is also used for this phenomenon, but lends itself to another meaning (see lention). The phenomenon is particularly apparent in the languages of the Germanic group (English mouse, mice; foot, feet). The double dot over the umlauted vowel is often called the umlaut, particularly by students of German; it is, however, properly speaking, only an orthographical indication of the phenomenon itself. See pp. 88, 99, 130, 280-1, 292, 434, 438.

unvoiced — see consonant

verb — a word expressing an action (like see, hear, go), or a mode of being (like be, seem, become). In some languages, like Chinese, the verb is not particularly segregated from other parts of speech (this often happens in English, where the verb to mail, for example, is distinguished from the noun mail only by its use in the sentence). In other languages, the verb assumes an unequivocal form, with specialized endings (Latin amare, French finir, German sprechen). Verbs may be classified as transitive (where the action can be carried over to a recipient, or object: “I see him”); intransitive (where the action cannot be carried over to an object: “we have succeeded”); and copulative (where the verb simply links the subject to a modifier: “he is (seems, becomes) a soldier”). Note that in English many verbs may be used transitively or intransitively (“he has just passed”, intransitive; “he has just passed me”, transitive; “the swallow flies”. intransitive: “he flies a plane”, transitive). In some languages (French, German, Italian) many intransitive and copulative verbs form their compound tenses with “to be” instead of “to have” (il est allé, er ist gegangen, è andato; see auxiliary; see also pp. 139, 199, 326).

Verbs, in English and most Indo-European languages, have person, number, tense, voice and mood (see each item); a form like “he goes”, for instance, would be described as third person, singular number, present tense, indicative mood, active voice. But in many non-Indo-European tongues, all or some of these distinctions are missing; the Japanese verb, for instance, has tense, voice and mood, but no person or number (see pp. 24, 32, 536, 538); the Chinese “verb” is an uninflected root having none of these distinctions, and can generally be used also as a noun, adjective, or other part of speech (see pp. 495-6, 499-501).

Many languages divide their verbs into classes according to forms and endings (see conjugation). The English (and, in general, the Germanic) division is into two classes, weak and strong; the weak
verbs are characterized by the addition of a suffix (-d, -ed) in the past and passive participle (love, loved, loved); the strong by a change in the root vowel in these two forms (write, wrote, written; speak, spoke, spoken); see pp. 90, 101, 108, 115, 136). The Semitic languages have a similar classification, though different in form (see pp. 472–3). It is interesting to note that in English all the separate verb-forms that need be learned are four in the case of weak verbs (love, loves, loving, loved), five in the case of strong verbs (speak, speaks, speaking, spoke, spoken), all other forms being obtained by combining these with a few unchanging auxiliaries (have, had, will, etc.). See pp. 22–3, 32, 353, 463, 538. For the polite, familiar, and honorific verbs of Japanese, see pp. 24, 536, 538, 542–4, 547–8; see also address. See also aspect, conjugation, ending, inflection, mood, tense, voice.

verbal noun — a form of the verb syntactically used as a noun; that is, as subject (“to walk is good”; “walking is good”); direct object (“I like to walk”; “I like walking”); etc. See gerund, infinitive, supine; see also p. 473.

verbal adjective — a form of the verb syntactically used as an adjective, like “the singing man”, “the written word”; see participle.

vernacular — the current spoken language of a given area, as opposed to its written or literary tongue. The vernacular is frequently characterized by colloquialisms and slang (q. v.).

vocabulary — the total stock of words in a language, or within the range of a given speaker. There is extreme variation in the vocabulary range of speakers of the same tongue. See pp. 24, 65–87, 172, 179–80, 246, 289–90, 354, 419, 421, 428–9, 456, 479, 487–8; see also loan-word.

vocative — see case

voice — a modification in the form of the verb to indicate whether the subject does the action (active voice: “I strike”), or receives it (passive voice: “I am struck”). In some languages, this is indicated by an inflectional ending (Latin timeo, active, “I fear”; timeor, passive, “I am feared”); in other languages, like English or German, by the use of an auxiliary (to be, werden) combined with the past participle. Some languages, particularly the Romance, tend to avoid the use of the passive by replacing it with an active equivalent (French on le fera, “it will be done”) or by using the reflexive (Spanish aquí se habla español, “Spanish is spoken here”). In some languages the passive is completely wanting. The middle voice, which appeared in some of the older Indo-European languages, notably Greek, represents the subject as acting on or for himself, a function which has generally been taken over by the reflexive. Certain forms of the verb appearing in some languages (like the desiderative; see p. 546) may be described as voices, or as conjugations. For the impersonal passive of Finnish,
see p. 434. See pp. 89, 141, 178, 202, 240, 286, 328, 353, 366, 393, 425-6, 434, 441, 516, 546-7. See also verb.

voiced consonant — see consonant

vowel — a sound produced without friction or stoppage; or a letter purporting to represent such a sound. The written vowels of English are a, e, i, o, u; but the number of spoken vowels is much greater (a of father, bat, all, fare, etc.; e of let, her, even, etc.; i of it, machine, etc.; o of not, orb, etc.; u of cut, rude, etc.). Note also that many so-called vowel-sounds are diphthongs (q. v.: a of fate; i of tide; o of note; u of unity). Many vowel-sounds that appear in English do not appear in other tongues, and vice-versa (see pp. 29, 86, 184-5, 227, 314, 361, 461-3). For the middle (or front rounded) vowels of French, German, etc., see pp. 172, 185, 437. Vowels may be stressed or un-stressed (see pp. 268-9, 287, 314, 329-30, 354, 379), and modify their sound accordingly. They may be long or short (though some languages minimize this difference); see pp. 125, 354, 368, 371, 423, 436, 444, 450, 466, 531, 533. For the vowel-harmony of the Ural-Altaic tongues, whereby the vowel of the ending changes to harmonize with that of the root, see pp. 30-1, 430, 432, 436, 440; for the division of vowels in such languages into front, back and “neutral” (the last-named appearing only occasionally and functionally), see pp. 30-1, 430, 432, 436, 440. For the influx of front and back vowels in other language-groups, see pp. 88, 353. For the Indo-European (particularly Germanic) umlaut change, whereby the vowel of the root is modified by the influence of the vowel of the ending, see umlaut. For the vowel-points of the Semitic languages, see p. 461.

weak — see adjective, verb

word-order — the arrangement of words in the sentence (see syntax). In some languages with scanty or non-existent flectional endings (English, Chinese) word-order is of paramount importance for intelligibility. Where flectional endings are more abundant, the importance of word-order is usually secondary. See pp. 18, 22, 25, 32, 141-3, 162, 170, 172, 193, 200, 278-9, 288, 320-1, 447, 467, 488; 495-501, 505.

written (or literary) language — the inscribed, legible form assumed by a tongue which has achieved a certain cultural level. Many languages of primitive groups are unwritten, and consequently highly fluctuating both in time and space, with numerous dialectal variations, a rapid rate of change, and an undetermined standard form. Where a written form, particularly of the semi-phonetic type, is achieved, the result is generally a greater stability in the spoken language, although the process of change never comes to a full stop. When the language becomes a vehicle for literature, the process of standardization, unification and stabilization goes even farther. The
written tongue is, in due course of time, modified by spoken-language changes; on the other hand, the spoken tongue is often influenced by the written form. See picture-writing, spelling, and pp. 19, 29, 117, 127, 172, 180, 421, 424, 427, 444, 446, 456, 461–2, 465, 487–93; 504–7, 526–31.
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