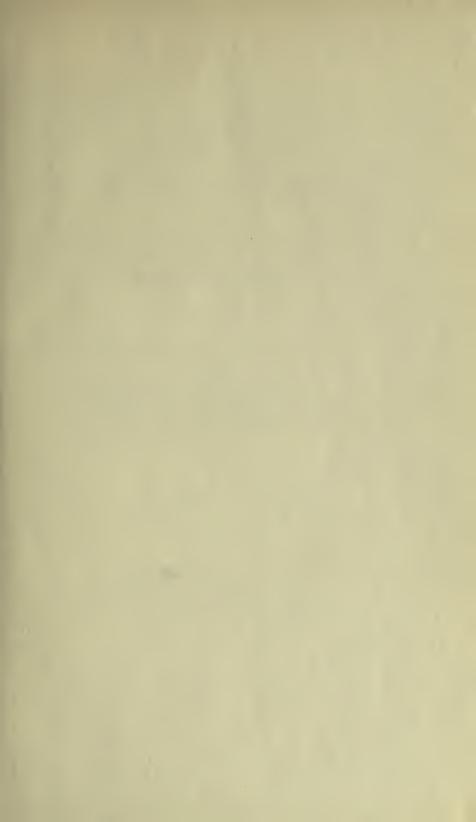
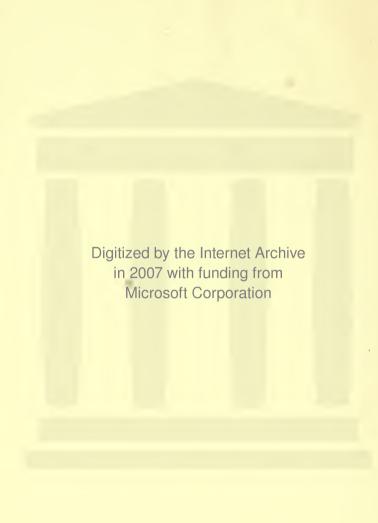


UNIV.DF TOROWTO LIBRARY







THE BRASILIAN LANGUAGE

AND

ITS AGGLUTINATION

BV

AMARO CAVALCANTI, L. L. B.

COUNSELLOR AT LAW, FELLOW OF VARIOUS LITERARY

AND EDUCATIONAL SOCIETIES, EX-INSPECTOR GENERAL OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

AND DIRECTOR OF THE LYCEUM IN THE PROVINCE OF

CEARA (BRASIL), ETC., ETC.,

767

RIO JANEIRO TYPOGRAPHIA NACIONAL 1883

1062-83

HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY,

DON PEDRO SEGUNDO

Sire!

It is a well known fact, that Your Imperial Majesty, during Your reign has been the constant Protector of the intellectual development and the general instruction of the country. Numerous institutions, which Your Majesty's private liberality has so often assisted, give the most authentic proof of our assertion in this respect. Therefore, publishing this insignificant work, presently, the object of which is to contribute to the instruction of the country and facts concerning it; I fulfil the agreeable duty of placing it, respectfully, under your Majesty's August protection,

in the hope, that your Majesty's generosity may not decline its acceptance.

It is, Sire, a sincere expression of the respect and profound veneration of Your Imperial Majesty, whom God may preserve.

YOURS VERY HUMBLY

Amaro Cavalcanti.

PREFACE

The principal object of the present elementary book is: (1) to verify if several opinions suggested by philologists and linguists, as the peculiar characteristics of the so-called « agglutinative languages » are, indeed, found in the Brazilian language;—(2) to contribute, by some informations on the grammatical elements and processes of this language, for the progress of Comparative Grammar.

« We use the terms « Brazilian language », as embracing the several dialects spoken in Brasil by the savage tribes, since the discovery of the country.

Among those dialects, the *Guarany* and the *Tupy* are the most important. They hold the same close relation, as is found between *High* and Low German. — Guarany was spoken,

principally, in the South-part of Brazil, and *Tupy*, along the coast, at the time of the discovery, and now, in the central parts of some provinces of the North, especially, in Pará, Amazonas and in the border-territories.

«— The language of cultivated people, as it is known, is the Portuguese».

Rio de Janeiro, December, 2, 1883.

KEY

TO THE PRONUNCIATION AND READING

VOWELS

a, e, i, o, u, (unmarked) have short sounds, sometimes scarcely perceptible in ending syllables.

- A (upon vowel) markes long sound.
- () ») · broad sound.
- U (upon u) a guttural sound, like the Greek v.
- (upon any vowel) markes nasal sound: am, em, im, om, um.
- markes stress of voice (accent) upon certain syllables of words.

CONSONANTS AND DIPTHONGAL SOUNDS

"will be indicated afterwards"

PRINCIPAL ABREVIATIONS USED:

Lat			•		•			Latin.
Ger								German.
Eng								English.
It.								Italian.
Fr.								French.
Sp.								Spanish.
P or	t.							Portuguese
Br.								Brasilian.

Sing	Singular.
Pl	Plural.
Pers	Person.
Prep	Preposition.
Adv	Adverb.
Conj	Conjunction.
Interj	Interjection.
Nom	Nominative case.
Gen	Genitive case.
Dat	Dative case.
Acc	Accusative.
Abl	Ablative.
i e	Id est (that is).
Adj	Adjective.
Pron	Pronoun.
Poss	Possessive.
Lang	Language.
Pref	Preffix.
Sf	Suffix.
rad	radical.
cf	confer (compare).
lit	literally.
ex:	for example.
on	onomatopaic.

BRASILIAN LANGUAGE

CHAPTER I

CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGES

1. — Glottology divides the numerous languages of the World, according to the peculiarities of their grammatical structure, into three classes: (1) Monosyllabic or Isolating; (2)Agglutinative; (3) Inflectional or Polysyllabic.

These terms also represent three periods in the growth of languages, that is to say, that language, as an organism, may pass through three stages, as follows: (1)

⁽¹⁾ Dr. R. Morris, English Accidence, pag. 2.

(I)

— The monosyllabic period, in which roots are used, as words, without any change of form.

In this stage there are no prefixes or suffixes, and no formally distinguished parts of speech.

The *Chinese* is the best example of a language in the isolating or monosyllabic stage.

- « Every word in *Chinese* is monosyllabic; and the same word, without any change of form, may be used, as a *noun*, a *verb*, an *adjective*, an *adverb* or a *particle*. Thus, *ta*, according to its position in a sentence, may mean great, greatness, to grow, very much, very.»
- « We cannot in *Chinese* (as in Latin) derive from *ferrum*, iron, a new substantive *ferra-rius*, a man who works in iron, a blacksmith; *ferraria*, an iron-mine; and again, *ferraria-rius*, a man who works in an iron-mine; all this is possible only in an inflected language. » (²)

In the languages of this last kind, the various relations of thought are declared by means of certain formative elements (suffixes and inflec-

⁽²⁾ Dr. R. Morris, English Accidence, pag. 2.

tions) joined to root or to thême, as we see in the examples above.

In Chinese, on the contrary, such relations are declared by the simple disposition of words in the sentence. Thus, $ng\dot{o}$ $t\dot{a}$ mi, means «I strike thee, » and mi $t\dot{a}$ $ng\dot{o}$ means, on the contrary, «thou strikest me; » fu, father, mu, mother, and fu-mu, parents (Fr. parents); shi, ten, eiil, two, and eiil-shi, twenty; i. e: two ten; gin, a man, kiai, many, (collection, assembly, etc.), gin-hiai, men; $k\hat{u}\hat{o}$, empire, cung, middle (or midst), $k\hat{u}\hat{o}$ -cung, in the empire; i. e:—the word, cung, joined to a noun, converts it into the locative case of the Indo-European languages. (3)

(2)

2.— The agglutinative period. — In this stage two unaltered, or scarcely modified roots are joined together to form words; in these compounds one root becomes subordinate to the other, and so loses its independence: cf:—man-

⁽³⁾ Max. Müller, Science of Language.

kind, heir-loom, war-like, which are agglutinative compounds.

So long as words keep their radical meaning, the language remains in its first period, that of roots.

But, since certain words, by losing their original or etymological import, have become mere signs of *derivation*, the language has reached to its second period, *that of desinences*, (terminations of word). (*)

The greatest portion of the languages, spoken in the World, remain in this second stage; and all of them form the so-called Turaniangroup, which, in the present condition of science, might give the explanation of most important problems, if it were better studied by the living philologists.

According to Prof. Townsend, this group of tongues is found, first and last, to have ranged from Norway almost to Behring's Straits; (5) and according to the opinion of Mr. Müller, it embraces two great divisions: that of the North that of the South.

⁽⁴⁾ Max. Muller, Science of Language, cit.

⁽⁵⁾ L. T. Townsond (Prof. in Boston Wniversity) - The Art of Speech.

The former, called sometimes the *Urdl-altaic*, is again divided into five sections: the languages of the *Tonguses*, the *Mongols*, the *Turks*, the *Finns*, the *Samoyeds*.

The latter, which occupies the South-part of Asia, is also divided into four sections: the *Tamul*, the dialects of *Tibet* and *Bhotan*, the dialects of *Siam* and those of *Malaca* and *Polynesia*.

With the group of the agglutinative languages are classed the African tongues, so-called atonic, the words of which are mostly formed by means of prefixes, a characteristic, that distinguishes them from the Ural-altaic tongues, which, as a rule, do not admit of the root of a word occupying the second place.

Still there must be considered, as belonging to the same agglutinative group, the numerous dialects or tongues of America; and among these, those, spoken by Brasilian savages, present undoubtedly all the supposed essential characteristics of an agglutinative language, as we hope to prove beyond contest by our further illustrations.

3.— It is, certainly, too difficult for the linguist to establish a distinct and uniform classification out of the speeches of those multitudes

of scattered races and tribes; but it is just this want of uniformity in their grammatical forms or in their usages and applications, which constitutes one of the fundamental reasons of this group.

« They are speeches of nomadic people and of savages, and only, by this characteristic, they destinguish themselves from the Aryan and Semitic languages. In these two families of tongues, « Aryan and Semitic » the majority of words and their grammatical forms were produced, at once, for all of them, by the creative force of one generation; and it would be very difficult to abandon them, though their primitive clearness had been obscured by further phonetic alterations.

« The transmission of a language in such conditions would be only possible among people, whose history flows, as a large river, and among whom religion, laws and poetry serve, like dams, to bound the current of speech.

« But we know, that among nomadic people there was never established a true nucleus of political, social and literary institutions.

Their, so-called, empires were no sooner founded, than they were scattered, like sand-clouds in the desert: — almost no laws, legends, stories

and songs have survived the generation, that saw them rise (6).

(3)

4. — The inflectional period. In this stage roots are modified by prefixes or suffixes, which were once independent words.

In agglutinative languages the union of words, says Dr. R. Morris, may be compared to mechanical compounds, in inflective languages to chemical compounds.

- «I call period of flections, adds Prof. M. Müller, that one, in which roots are blended in such a way, that none of them keeps a genuine and total independence, as it is found in the Aryan and Semitic families.
- « The first period does not admit of phonetic alteration, at all.
- « The second period does not admit of such alteration in the principal root, but admits of it in the secondary or demonstrative elements.
 - « The third period admits of phonetic altera-

⁽⁶⁾ Mr. Muller, w. cit.

tion, both in the principal root and in the desinences (flections). »

In most living languages we find traces of all these processes, and thus are enabled to see how one stage leads gradually to another.

Take, for example, the following.

ENGLISH

He is like God, = monosyllabic
He is God-like, = agglutinative. (*)
He is God-ly, = inflectional.

GERMAN

Mann ist frei, = monosyllabic

Er ist frei-mann, = agglutinative

Er ist frei-mannes (gen.), = inflectional.

By carefully inquiring, we should be able to discover similar instances in the Romance-languages, although not so frequently, in relation to the monosyllabic and agglutinative forms.

5. — The very learned American linguist, Prof. Whitney, in his important book — « Life

^(*) Dr. Morris, book cit. - pag. 3.

and Growth of language, » discussing on the subject-matter, says, as follows:

- « Proceeding by analogy and taking, as a starting point, the Indo-European languages, we can state,—that what the remaining languages of the World may contain about the matter of flections and of formative instruments, has all been elaborated, as in these languages, from the mass of a rude vocabulary, formed with entirely concrete words, which constitutes the primitive period of languages.
- « If, however, it were possible to demonstrate the existence of languages,—which were brought forth at once, as *inflectional*; then, this opinion should be renounced. But very rigorous proofs would be required for making good such a demonstration.
- « Language is an instrument, and the law of the simplicity of beginnings is applied to languages, as it is to any other thing.

Each root must have begun by containing, (as it is still noted, now-adays, in certain monosyllables under the character of interjections,) an affirmation, an idea, a question, an order, etc.,— and the tone and the gesture or the circumstances would complete their signification. »

THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE

Indo-European family is the only one, which has been well studied by linguists, in the present condition of our knowledge of the matter. This preference of studies, which has brought forth the best results to science, is quite justified by the capital reason, that in that family of language sare found the richest scientific and literary monuments of the three classical languages of mankind,—Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin.

«In relation to the study of the other languages, «Semitic, monosyllabic and agglutinative» we may affirm, that our scientific knowledge about it is yet entirely unsatisfactory, and does not enable the philologist to profer a conscientious decision on the very important problem of their reciprocal relations among themselves, and to the Aryan family.

« Leaving aside the group of isolating languages, represented by the Chinese and by the Indo-Chinese, who lead their lives, separately from other people; it is true, that the greatest ignorance prevails, relating to the agglutinative tongues, although these be spoken by innumerable nations in the five parts of the World.

The only circumstance, which may somewhat excuse such a fault, is the lack of literary monuments, that provoke the curiosity and wish to know them.

T.— By reading, sometimes, the best authors on the subject, we have found frequent hypotheses, the ones, suggested by mere logical inductions, the others, based on informations, not well established, and most of them, wanting of every scientific *criterium*. And although it may seem strange to some, these facts, which came under our observation, have constituted for us the primary motive for writing the present elementary book.

In comparing the grammatical forms and the logical processes of some other languages, with the usages and manners of the common speech of Brasilian savages; we arrived at the well established conclusion, that in the uncultivated language of these people, not only are there found grammatical forms, used regularly and in accordance with logical principles; but also, that the same language offers an evident confirmation of the various hypotheses, which have been ad-

vanced by philologists, when intending to characterize the agglutinative family.

We have not yet any settled fact, relating to the ethnographic origin of the Brasilian savages, nor to the particular point of their primitive or derived speech. No accurate inquiry or successful investigation exists on this very important matter.

It is, however, a fact of the easiest intuition, that an immense result would issue for history and science, if it were possible to prove, in a satisfactory way: — « from what country these millions of individuals who came to live in America emigrated; — in what century this great event happened; — and what speech, what religion, what degree of civilisation they have brought with them to the lands of their new abodes. »

For want of these important data, the only way to obtain some regular information, relating to the language of our savage tribes, is, undoubtedly, to study and analyse their forms and processes in the state and conditions, in which they have come to our knowledge and actual observation. As a guide, or as auxiliary instruments, to such work, we have nothing more, than those books of prayer or instruction, pre-

pared by missionaries, about four ou five generations ago, which have become in a great part antiquated.

Words and their uses arise to meet somewants of the time; they disappear, when no longer needed.

From all these circumstances it results, that this elementary work will be framed from no abundant materials; and, therefore, not only it will be of more difficult execution, but also, as a natural consequence, not entirely satisfactory.

Notwithstanding, we hope to be able to avoid every error in the statement of principles and their dependent facts.

THE BRASILIAN LANGUAGE AND ITS POSITION

S.— The Brazilian language exhibits itself under an aspect, quite uncultivated. The people, who speak it, do not possess, at the best, the knowledge of the aphabetic signs; they are, simply, savages, the most complete type of human ignorance.

Nevertheless, by studying all the organism or

the structure of such savage speech, and making rigorous analysis of its forms, used regularly in the expression of thoughts; it results, to envidence, that it has passed the monosyllabic period, and has kept itself, long since, in the agglutinative stage, which is owing, perhaps, to the want of indispensable culture, which enables it to reach the richest stage of a language,—that of inflection.

It is a fact sufficiently proved by experience and by the existing writings on the subject, that the morphology and the syntax of the Brazilian language have been kept unaltered, since the discovery of the country up to the present days. The grammatical elements and forms in usage, which, in this respect, were soon noted by the missionaries, at the time of their catechising among the savage tribes, so far back as the 16° century, are still almost identical with these, which may be observed in the speech of the remaining people of the same race.

It is certain, that the greatest alteration is noted in its phonetic forms, and, consequently, in its vocabulary which is, now, very different from that of the times of the discovery and the conquest of the country.

Besides the natural phonological laws, which govern the frequent changes of every vocable;

with respect to Brazilian savage people, there occurred another circumstance, that ought to influence and to increase this result, that is:—that these people were, in general, composed of nomadic tribes; and it is easy to imagine,—how gradually from differences of climate and of natural scenery,—from differences in the various objects of perception, each day renewed, whatever they might be, there should result differences of speech, especially with respect to the words, already in usage.

- D.—As a point, deserving especial remark, we must declare, now, that in various instances of usages of the Brazilian speech, there are still found certain processes, pertaining to the isolating period, as for example,— the invariable place of words in a sentence, which, as it is known, constitutes almost the entire grammar of the languages of this kind. But this circumstance, though important, is not sufficient to decide against our opinion, given before; because in Brazilian tongues are found also all the other characteristics, which are, generally, required in the very agglutinative languages.
- « Agglutination, writes Mr. Müller, does not mean only, that in the grammar pronouns

are, so to say, glued to verbs in order to form the conjugation, or prepositions to substantives to form the declension; — because it would not be a distinct character of nomadic tongues, only, for both in Sanskrit and Hebrew the conjugation and the declension were originally constituted, according to the same principles.

But that which distinguishes the *Turanian* languages (agglutinative) is, that the words, which form their conjugation and declension, are always susceptible of easy decomposition; and although in many cases the terminations keep their modificative value, as independent words, yet one sees, that these are *modificative* syllables, quite distinguished from the *roots*, to which they are joined. (7)

- The hypotheses advanced by the very learned linguist, M. Müller, are entirely identical with those, which Prof. Whitney has verified in the *Scythic tongues*, that he considered, as a complete type of the *agglutinative family*.
- « By this term, adds Whitney, one means to say, that the elements of several origins, which compose the *Scythic* words and their forms are

⁽⁷⁾ Science of lang. cit.

less blended, less closely aggregated; and that, therefore, they keep themselves more independent, than in the *Indo-European languages*.

« The *root*, as a rule, remains invariable in all derived words, and each *suffix* also keeps its form and invariable application:— and from this results, on the one side, great regularity of forms, on the other, great complication.

For instance, in Turkish, $lar(or\ ler)$ is the form of the plural;—to it are joined terminations or particle-suffixes, — which form the cases of the singular number, and there may still be inserted pronominal elements, indicative of possession; thus:—ev, house, ev-den, of a house; ev-im-den, of my house;—ev-ler, houses; ev-ler-im-den, of my houses.

- « The verb presents an analogical and still more striking example. There are a few modifying elements, that may be inserted, either isolated, or grouped in different ways, between the root and the terminations, to express passivity, reflexion, reciprocity, causality, negation, impossibility, etc.
- « The distinction between verbs and nouns is not quite so original and fundamental, as in the Indo-European languages. The words used, as verbs, are scarcely distinguished from nouns, that

are used predicatively, on their appearing combined with subjects or possessive pronouns.

- « The Scythic adjective is deprived of flection, like the English adjective; and there is the same lack of gender in nouns and pronouns, as in Persian.
- « Words, which indicate relations, and conjunctions, are almost entirely unknown; the combination of the terms of a sentence is made, as is natural, «wherein verbs are not quite distinguished,» by means of declensions and verbal nouns.» (8)
- Except this last observation, relative to the words, which express relations and conjunctions, which are very numerous in Brazilian languages; we think, we are enabled to affirm, that in this speech are clearly and, perhaps, better realised all the characteristics, that Mr. Whitney has reputed essential to every agglutinative language.

From the clearly made analysis and the explanations, which will be given in the following chapters, we hope, the truth of our proposition will be firmly established.

⁽⁸⁾ Life & Growth of Lang. cit.

CHAPTER II

PHONETIC PRINCIPLES

10.—A fact, generally noted by linguists, is —the rapidity or facility, with which the dialects and tongues of people, deprived of literary monuments, are altered or changed.

Literature serves, so to say, as the standard, after which the spoken language is modelled in order to be preserved in its integrity.

—In relation to the savage tribes of Brasil, the frequent change of their vocabulary was one of the leading circumstances, which were noted by the catechising missionaries, who, very often, expressed their admiration at the fact, that a dialect had undergone, within a short time, after it was knwon, so many alterations, as to become quite a different one.

They have observed, that the names of the most common objects themselves, as, for instance, — father, son, etc, were, sometimes, so much altered by pronunciation, that they form-

ed different words, and, sometimes, were replaced by synonyms of remote relation.

All this was, indeed, very natural.

- « One must not, says W. von Humboldt, consider a language, as a dead product formed, once for all: it is an animate being and ever creative. Human thought elaborates itself with the progress of intelligence; and language is a manifestation of this thought.
- « An idiom cannot, therefore, remain stationary.
- « It changes, it develops, it grows up, it fortifies itself, it becomes old, and it reaches decrepitude. »
- 11.— According to these principles, it is reasonable to admit, that there must be many words, used among each class of the Brasilian nomadic tribes, which were not understood by the rest.

Besides this, simpler causes, such, for instance, as result from the use of synonymous terms, would be sufficient to produce radical word-changes.

We know that, when there are several equivalent terms in a language to express the same idea or object, it is very common, that the dialects, — issuing from this language, select diversely, among such equivalent terms, and, as a rule, one of these becomes the prevailing one in one dialect, another in another, to the neglect and loss of all, but the one selected. (1)

— We insist on this point, though sufficiently proved by constant observation, as the fundamental reason, or the cause, that most contributed to the formation of the numerous dialects, which composed the Brasilian speech, at the time of the discovery and conquest of the country.

According to our humble opinion, all Brasilian tribes spoke tongues of one general family, although much altered by frequent phonetic changes, owing, principally, to the above-mentioned causes.

Among the leading reasons, which enable us to emit such a proposition on the nature of Brasilian tongues, there exists one, that, as we think, should be regarded, as of the most legitimate inference, viz:— that in all Brasilian dialects, of which there are grammars and vocabularies, some of which were composed, since the colonial period, we find the greatest agreement in gram-

⁽¹⁾ Townsond, book cit.

matical forms. Especially, with respect to the morphological and syntactical processes, their identity is an evident fact, beyond all possible contest.

SOUNDS AND LETTERS

12.— The letters of the Latin alphabet, which may be used to represent the phonetic elements of the Brasilian language, are the following:

a, b, d, e, g, h, i, k,
$$(=c, q,)$$
 m, n, o, p, r, s, $(=c,)$ t, u, x, y. $(=c,)$

« The letters — f, j, l, v, z — find no employment in this lang. »

When we have well understood and compared certain little discordances, which are found in the authors, most of them owing to diversity of characters, chosen, as representatives of sound, for instance, the one having used the *Spanish* alphabet, the other the *German*, another the

⁽²⁾ We call Latin alphabet — in the state, wherein it passed to the Romance languages.

Portuguese, and yet another, the French and so on;—we can, rightly affirm, that the alphabetic characters, above indicated, have been, as a rule, considered sufficient and quite appropriate to the phonetic usages of the Brasilian language. (3)

Consonants

13.— We preferred this letter—s, instead of —c before e, i, and c, which have been adopted by some writers.

It is observed, that the hissing of s is contrary to the savage's pronunciation. But we cannot admit of such a reason, as a good one; because it cannot be denied, that the syllables ca, ce, ci, have the same phonetic value, as, sa, se, si, in Latin pronunciation.

Moreover, the s has in itself the advantage of replacing the two characters—c, c, (the latter before e, i), and, therefore, it will be used in this book, as representative of the sound c, in the word city.

⁽³⁾ Cf:— A. G. Dias, Dict. of Tupy Lang; Montoya, Arte, Vocabulary and Treasury of Guarany Lang; Figueira, Gram. of Brasil. Lang; Dr. Couto Magalhães, The Sayage; Mamiani, Gram. of the Kiriri Lang., etc. etc.

G g, is only used, with a hard sound, before a, o, u, as in the word—garden. This letter keeps the same sound in ending syllables, and sometimes becomes nasal, as we shall see hereafter.

Hh, before a vowel, is the sign of a soft aspiration.

R r, has always a very soft sound, something like the r in the French word—j'aimerai, I will love.

X x, is pronounced, like sh in the word she, or the German sch, in the word schaf, sheep.

Y y, is used to represent a sound, like ii, as the i consonant in Italian, or the German j in the words—Jagd, $J\ddot{a}ger$, Jeder.

Nh. This compound sound is perfectly equivalent to the French gn in the word mignon, delicate.

« The other consonants, respecting which we do not make any observation, will be pronounced, as their correspondent ones in the English alphabet. »

Ba, be, bo.— These syllables, in some words, are nasal, that is, they are pronounced, as if they had an m before :=mba, mbe, mbo.

Na, ne, ni, no-are, also, pronounced with

as strong a nasal sound, as if they had a d between the consonant and the vowel :=nda, nde, ndi, ndo.

Vowels

Δ

14.— a (unmarked) has the brief sound of the Portuguese a in the preposition para = to and for, or of the final a in the word— America; ex: marika, the belly. In final syllables, this short sound sometimes becomes almost undistinguishable, as:— menaira, to marry.

 \hat{a} has a long sound, as the a of the Portuguese word fado, fate, or of the a in father; ex:— $tau\hat{a}$, the town.

à has a broad sound, almost like two aa; ex:
—parà, the sea (or a large river); abà, creature.

 \tilde{a} has, finally, a nasal sound, like the Portuguese compound am; ex:— $Tup\tilde{a}$, God; $kunh\tilde{a}$, woman.

E

e (unmarked) has a brief sound, sometimes almost undistinguishable, like the e in the word some; ex: petima, tabaco; moâme, to arm.

ê has the long sound of the French ê in the word etê, the summer; ex: ikê, here, ketê, to or for (prep.)

è has a sound, like the first è in the word where; ex: ipéka, the goose; — etè, much (excellent).

 \tilde{e} has, finally, a nasal sound, as the Portuguese compound em; ex:— $h\tilde{e}h\tilde{e}$, yes.

I

i (unmarked) has a brief sound as in the word ill; ex: ibdk, heaven.

 \tilde{i} has the nasal sound of the Portuguese compound in, ex:— $mir\tilde{i}$, small.

[See y, before.]

0

o (unmarked) has the brief sound of the Portuguese o in final syllables, almost undistinguishable, as in the verb—amo, I love; ex: ixebo, to me; — yo (particle, which expresses the reciprocal action of the verb.)

ô has a long sound, almost—u, as in the verb to go, or rather in to prove; ex: mô (particle, formative of active verbs); pô, the hand.

 δ has a sound, like the diphthong aw in the word—law; ex: $s\delta k\delta$, Brasilian bird; $ik\delta$, to be, (=Port. estar).

 \tilde{o} has, finally, a nasal sound, as the Port. compound—on; ex:— $m\tilde{o}d\dot{a}$, to steal.

U

u (unmarked) has a short sound, like u in full; ex: mu, brother.

 \hat{u} has a long sound, something like oo in too (adv.) ex: $tas\hat{u}ba$, fever.

 \ddot{u} has a very peculiar sound, something like the German \ddot{u} , or rather the Greek v; ex: $m\ddot{u}ra$, wood.

« This sound of \ddot{u} is, generally, represented by the grammarians of the Brasilian language by y, which they have called the full i. »

 \tilde{u} has, finally, a nasal sound, like the Port. compound— um; ex: $pit\tilde{u}na$, night (dark or black.)

Diphthongs

15.—The principal diphthongs of the Bras. lang. are the following: —

Ai

It sounds, like the German diphthong ai in Kaiser, the emperor; ex: mairi, city.

Au

It sounds like ow in the adverb—now; ex: aud, who?

Di

It sounds, just like the alphabetic sound of a, in the word fate; ex:—eima, spindle.

Eu

It has the sound of the Portuguese diphthong éo in the words céo, heaven; véo, veil; ex: monbéu, to confess.

Oi

It has the sound of the Italian oi in the pronouns noi, we; voi, you; ex: mokoi, two.

Ui

It has the sound, which results from the two short vowels u and i, being pronounced together; ex: $p\dot{u}i$, slight or delicate.

[We find in Brazilian words other examples of two or even three successive vowels; but they are, in general, pronounced distinctly, and, so, do not make diphthongs or triphthongs properly so-called.]

TABLE OF THE ALPHABETIC SOUNDS

Consonants

Sharp	Flat	Aspirate	Nasal	Trilled
K = (c, q) D B	T	H Y, X S	N_g,Nh N,Nd M,Mb	R

Volwels

а е і о и	â ê Ô Jû	à ề ò ŭ	ã (*) ē ī ŏ ū
-----------------------	-------------------	------------------	-------------------

(') [See Key to the pronunciation and reading,]

PHONETIC ALTERATIONS

16.—It is to be recollected, that the Brasilian language is the speech of savage tribes, destitute of every notion of letters and of their representative value in pronunciation; and, therefore, it is unnecessary to premise, that we are not able to state all the rules, which govern the phonetic developments of their language. Yet, by making a patient analysis of its vocabularies, grammars and other literary informations we could obtain; we have come to ascertain in this language some of the general principles, which are of frequent application in its phonetics.

For instance, although it is a language spoken by savage people, as we said, it is liable to general laws, which produce phonetic alterations; viz: greater facility of pronunciation, and better harmony of sounds:—the former, a physiological principle;—the latter, a euphonical principle.

From these two principles results, that harder sounds pass successively into softer, and unpleasing sounds become sonorous or euphonical.

So far as we can see in the matter, in the phonetic alterations of Brasilian languages, prevail the following rules:

PERMUTATION OF SOUNDS

(a)

17.— The savage tribes of Brasil very often confound certain consonants in pronunciation, especially, when they belong to the same organ, as p, m and b; n, and d; r, s and t.

It is also necessary to note, that the most frequent changes take place in the processes of agglutination (composition and derivation by

prefixes, and suffixes, or juxta-position); ex: $T\dot{a}p\dot{e} = Taba$, town, $+p\dot{e}$, = sup \dot{e} , (prep.) to, — to the town; — $moraukep\acute{e} = morauke$, work, labor, $+p\dot{e} = yep\dot{e}$, one or the first, — Monday, that is, the first working-day.

(e)

18. — When the pronouns of the first and second persons sing. — xe = se, (I and my); — $n\dot{e} = re$, (thou and thy) — are followed by some word beginning with t, this is changed into r; ex:— $tat\dot{a}$, fire, — se or xe- $rat\dot{a}$, my fire; $t\dot{u}ba$, father, ne-ruba, thy father.

(I)

19.— If the possessive pronoun *i*, his, her and whose, etc., is followed by a word, beginning with *s*, this is changed into *x*; ex: Siyra, aunt, —*i*-xiyra, his or her aunt; Siy, mother,—*i*-xiy, her or his mother; sò, to go, — *i*-xò, his going; sui, of, —*i*-xui, of him or of her; supè, to, — *i*-xupè, to him, etc.

 (\mathbf{o})

20.— When, however, the s is preceded by another vowel of different sound, it is frequently changed into r, ex: Saua, hair,—se-raua, my hair;—rė-raua, thy hair;—saisu, to love,— Tupā raisu, to love God.

 (\mathbf{u})

Nasal sounds are very frequent in Brasilian speech; and, as a general rule, when a preceding vowel is nasal, the following must also be nasal; ex:

 $Nah\tilde{a}$, that, $am\delta$, other; — $nah\tilde{a}$ - $\tilde{a}m\delta$, that other. As it is seen, the a of $am\delta$ becomes nasal, because of the \tilde{a} of $nah\tilde{a}$.

SUPPRESSION AND ADDITION OF LETTERS

(1)

**Parameters are dropt, very frequently, in the beginning of words.—

«Accent plays an important part in these changes; unaccented syllables, which precede the accented one, are the most liable to drop off. **

Take, for example, the following:

Urdpdra, bow, $=m\ddot{u}rdpdra$; $-«m\ddot{u}rd$, (wood) +pdra, to bow, bowed or crooked); $-p\dot{e}$, (prep. corresponding to the dative and locative case,) $=sup\dot{e}$, in, or to; $n\dot{e}$ or $r\dot{e}$ (pron.) $=in\dot{e}$ or $ir\dot{e}$, thou or thy; $-x\dot{e}$ (pron.) $=ix\dot{e}$, I or my, etc. etc.

- **22.** Syncope. There also are found various instances of letters dropt in the body of words, most usually in the agglutination of roots with suffixes or prefixes; ex: $t\tilde{a}uas\dot{u}$, a hog, = $tanh\tilde{a}u\dot{a}s\dot{u}$ (tanha, tooth + $uas\dot{u}$, long); $koatias\dot{u}$ a painting, = $koati\dot{u}$ a, + $s\dot{u}$ ba; kameriha a kneader, = kameriha + dra [38, 39].
- **23.** Apocope. The suppression of letters in the end of words is most generally noted in unaccented syllables; ex: akdn, the head, = akdnga;—men(d)dr, to marry, = menddra;—pôtdr, to wish, = pôtare; etc. etc.

(2)

24.—Prothesis. Letters, as a rule, are added at the beginning of a word, to produce a nasal or more euphonical sound; ex:—mbaė, thing, =baė;—ikatū-retė, very good, = katū, good + etė, much or very; imūra, wood, =mūra;—epýa, the heart, =pýa;—epô, the hand, =pô.

- 25.— Epenthesis. As examples of addition of letters to the body of a word, we are only able to present the cases, in which some euphonical letters are used to be intercalated, either between the root and the suffix, or between the personal prefix and the verb. These cases are, indeed, very numerous; but regularly depending on certain rules.
- Thus, in the verbs, which begin with one of these syllables—ra, re, ro, ru is intercalated the suffix $gu\dot{e}$, between the personal prefix (*) and the verb in the third person sing. of the Present Indicative; ex: xa raso, I carry; re-raso, thou carriest; o- $gu\dot{e}$ -raso, he carries; etc.
- In many other instances it is found, that a word ending in a vowel and followed by another, beginning, likewise, with some vowel, one euphonical letter is also intercalated, most commonly an r; ex.:— $s\dot{e}$, my,— δka , house;—se-(r)oka, my house; ne, thy,— $ok\dot{e}r$, to sleep, ne (r)oker, thy sleeping, etc.
- **26.** Epithesis. It can be affirmed, that the addition of letters at the end of words are, either modifying elements, as suffixes and prepositions, or some distinct words by juxta-position.

^(*) See in the n. 85 what means personal prefix.

CHAPTER III

PARTS OF SPEECH

27.—In order to give a more complete information about the grammatical forms and processes of the Brasilian language, we will treat of each class of words, separately.

According to their distinct functions in a sentence, the words of this language may be arranged under the following headings:

- (1) Noun.
- (2) Adjective.
- (3) Pronoun.
- (4) Verb.
- (5) Preposition (rather,—Postposition).
- (6) Adverb.
- (7) Conjunction.
- (8) Interjection.
- All of them are indeclinable.

There is no article, definite or indefinite.

ACCIDENCE OR THE FORMS OF WORDS

28.— The changes, which words undergo to mark case, gender, number, comparison, tense, person, etc. are called inflections.

The inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns is called — *declension*; when applied to verbs, it is called—*conjugation*.

In the inflectional languages, as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, etc, the various relations, which a word may express in a sentence, are indicated through different changes in the ending-syllable of the word.

Thus, in order to declare the various relations, in which the word—God—may appear in a sentence, as:—

- God is love;
- God's love or love of God;
- love to God;
- oh! God;
- to love God;
- love comes from God, etc; in such a language as Latin, for instance, all of them could be plainly expressed in this way:

- Deus (nominative.)
- Dei (genitive.)
- Deo (dative.)
- Deum (accusative.)
- Deus (vocative.)
- Deo (ablative.)

If, instead of these logical relations, we had to express the gender, the number and the comparison (degree of quality) of a noun, it would be, likewise, sufficient to change only the nominal inflection, as, for ex:

- Deus, God, Dei, Gods;
- Vir, a man, Viri, men;

- and so also:-

Deus, God, - Dea, Goddess;

Æquus, horse, — Æqua, mare; etc.

29.— In the modern European languages, as German, English, Italian, French, Spanish and Portuguese, although of the same stock, as the Greek and Latin, but not so thoroughly synthetical themselves, and which are, therefore, called —analytical languages, the various ideal relations of nouns in a sentence are expressed by the use of prepositions, whilst the other relations of gender and number, etc, continue, in a great many instances, to be destinguished likewise, by nominal inflections; ex:

- It. sing. amico, friend, plur. amici, friends; sing. figlia, daugther,—plur. figlie, daugthers; cf:
 - Fr. sing. ami,—plur. amis;
 - Sp. & Port. sing. amigo, -plur. amigos;
 - Fr. sing. fille, --plur. filles;
 - Sp. sing. hija,-plur. hijas;
 - Port. sing. filha,—plur. filhas.
- «The letter—s—, which we find in English, French, etc., replaces the inflection of the *original cases*.
- Gender is equally indicated, in many instances, by regular inflections, which distinguish the masc. & fem; ex:
- Ger. Gott, masc. (God); Göttin, fem. (Goddess);
 - It. amico, masc., amica, fem.; cf:
 - Fr. ami, masc., amie, fem.;
 - Sp. & Port. amigo, masc., amiga, fem. etc. [The Italian words "given as examples" have the same meaning, as those taken from the other languages; and so, it is unnecessary to repeat the corresponding translation in English to each example.]

Gender, number and case of nouns

30.— Such changes at the end of nouns, as the aforesaid of the Indo-European languages, are entirely unknown in Brasilian languages, the morphology of which is governed by quite different principles.

Nouns are always invariable; and, therefore, number, gender and case can be only expressed by adding some especial words, called—formative elements or suffixes.

- **31.** Gender. In the Brasilian speech the distinction of gender is only applied to living objects; and can be marked in two regular ways: either by different words, designating each one sex, or by the use of postpositive words, which mean essentially the male and the female.
 - (1) By distinct words, for each sex; ex: Apegaua, man, kunhã, woman; Mû, brother, rendéra, sister; Túba, father, siy, mother; etc., etc.
 - (*) By postpositive words; ex: Idudra-apegdua, the dog; Idudra kunhã,

the bitch;

Tapir-apegaua, the ox; Tapir-kunhã, the

Tapir-apegaua, the ox; $Tapir-kunh\tilde{a}$, the cow; etc., etc.

- 32.—The latter way of marking the gender is also used in the modern European languages, when the names of animals are epicene, as for ex:
- It. aquila maschio, a male eagle, —aquila femmina, a female eagle;

and likewise: -

Port. aguia macho, aguia femea, etc, etc. In English the process of agglutination in this respect is kept in its original form; ex:

— He-goat and she-goat; man-servant and woman or maid-servant, etc.

The only difference of the English form consists in placing the *demonstrative* of gender before noun, and not after, as in the Brasilian language.

33. — Number. Nouns may be applied to one or more objects, and this constitutes the singular and the plural.

In the Brasilian language the plural is expressed by the use of a postpositive particle — $\acute{e}t \mathring{a}$, which means in itself a collection or multitude of things; ex:

Oka, a house, oka-êta, houses;

Anâma, a relative or friend, anâma-êtá, some relatives or friends;

Apegaua, a man, apegaua-êta, men.

- « It must be added, that the suffix étà is undoubtedly the same word sétà (by aphœresis) which means multitude, or great quantity, as a noun, and many or several, as an adjective. »
- **34.** Cases. The noun being always invariable, as we said before, in the Brasilian language, there cannot be of course such inflections, as the cases, to express [the various ideal relations of the words in a sentence.

These relations are only expressed by means of prepositions, which are always placed after noun, and, therefore, might rather be called postpositions.

From this general rule we must except the possessive case (genitive), which is expressed, as in *English*, by placing the name of the possessor before that of the object possessed.

In the following table we give a complete illustration of cases:

	LATIN	ENGLISH	BRAS.
Nom.	Deus	God	$=Tup ilde{a}$
Gen.	Amor Dei	God's love or love of	•
Dat.	Deo	to God	=Tupā supē
Ac.	Deum	God	$=Tup\bar{a}$
Abl.	Deo	from God	=Tupā sui

« The especial relation, which is expressed in Latin by the so-called, ablativus de materia, is equally expressed in the Brasilian language by the same process, as the possession; ex:

Oha, house, ità, stone,—ità-oha, a house made out of stone, or a stone-house.»

Diminutive and augmentative

35.—In the Brasilian speech, no diminutive nouns, properly so-called, are found, as eaglet, gosling, etc; they are, however, expressed, either by means of suffixes, or by regular adjectives, placed after the noun modified.

The only suffix, which denotes diminuition is $-\tilde{y}$ or $\tilde{\imath}$, and the adjective, used with the same signification, is $-mir\tilde{\imath}$, small; ex:

Pirà, fish,—pirà, or pirà-mirì, a small fish; Putỳra, flower,—putyra-mirì, a small flower.

- « The suffix i or ỹ seems to be a contracted form of the same adjective miri: [See Aphœresis, ≥ 1.]
- **36.** The augmentative is, likewise, formed by an especial adjective, placed after the noun. This adjective is turusú, great, large or broad,

which, according to euphonical principles, takes the forms — asi, osi, uasi, goasi; ex:

Pirá, fish, — pirá-uasú, a big fish;

 $Par\dot{a}$, the sea, $-par\dot{a}$ -goasú, the Ocean, that is, a broad sea.

DERIVATION AND FORMATION OF NOUNS OR ADJECTIVES

37.— « The primary elements and significant parts of words are called *roots*. A root or radical is that part of a word, which cannot be reduced to a simpler or more original form. According to their origin, roots are, either predicative or demonstrative. (1) »

These terms correspond to the expressions verbal and pronominal roots, used by the learned linguist, F. Bopp. (2)

The root may be modified by endings, called suffixes, which form derivatives, as, rich-ly; by particles, placed before the root, called prefixes,

⁽¹⁾ Dr. Morris, English Gram.

⁽²⁾ Bopp. Gram. Comparée des laug. Indo-Europeennes v. 1.

as, for-bid, un-true; two words may be placed together to form compound-words, as, black-bird. (3)

All these processes, in the formation of words, we find operating in the Brasilian language.

Although we are not quite able to distinguish and explain the roots of many words of this speech; yet, we hope to present numerous examples, which shall illustrate the subjectmatter.

Noun-suffixes

- **38.**—Aba or àua (usually with a s, as, sàba, sàua) means the place, or the mode, and, sometimes, the time and the instrument of an action; ex:—
- « Moseróka, to baptize,— moseroka-sáua, the occasion, or the place of the baptism (baptistery);
 - « Katú, good,—katúsába, goodness ;
- « *Môeté*, to respect or to venerate,— *moetésà-ba*, respect or veneration;
- « Petybon, to help,—petybon-saba, help, or assistance, etc.

⁽³⁾ Dr. Morris, cit.

39. — Ara or uad (sometimes, also, preceded by an s,) joined to verbal root, means the actual agent or subject of an action; it corresponds to the Latin participles in ans and ens, as, amans, regens; ex:

Moseroka-sára, or moseroka-uaá, the person who baptizes.

At othertimes, it means the action itself, as the English *Present Participle*, as, for instance,—
the thinking persons, (—who think) and also the act of thinking; ex:

Morypdra (moryb = toryb, to caress), a loving man, or the act of loving itself.

- **40.** Bora or pora (b = p) means: (l) a person who lives or exists habitually in a place, or doing the same thing or office; (2) an object naturally contained in, or depending on another; ex:
- (1) Kaa, wood, —kaapora, who lives always in the wood;
- » *Mbasy*, sickness,—*mbasy-bóra*, a diseased man;
 - » Mondá, to steal,—mondápóra, a robber;
 - (2) Mondé, prison, modé-póra, a prisoner;
 - » Namī, ears,—namī-pora, ear-ring.
 - » $P\dot{y}$, foot,— $p\dot{y}$ - $p\dot{o}ra$, a foot-step.
- 41.— Râma or arama (joined to the radical of a transitive verb) forms verbal adjectives,

which correspond to the Latin participles in—rus,
— as, amaturus; ex:

Saisû, to love, — saisûrâma, about to love. If the root is of an intransitive verb, the verbal adjectives correspond to the Latin participles in dus, as, amandus; ex:

Yopućka, to revenge oneself, — Yopućka-râma, about to be revenged. — « Rama is a postposition — to or for. »

42.— Yma, joined to any predicative root, noun or adjective, expresses the want or lack of the object contained in the word; ex:—

Sesá, eye,—sesá-yma, blind;

Katú, good, — katu-yma, bad, that is, without goodness;

Moserokauára, a baptised man, — moserokauára-yma, a man not baptised;

Akanga, the head, — akanga-yma, decapitated.

43. — Oéra (often with some euphonical letter, before) joined to verbal roots, means a past agent, — the person who has exercized an action in a past time; ex:

Kapik, to comb, — $kapikô\acute{e}ra$, the person who has combed.

The same suffix, joined to noun, modifies it in two particular ways; either converting the noun

into an adjective, or making it express a thing, which *existed* once in a different mode or in better condition; ex:

- (1) Soérum, jealousy or distrust, soerum-oéra, a jealous or distrustful man;
- (2) Akanga, the head, akang-óéra, the skull of a dead man;
- « Pi, the skin of a living animal, pire-ra, the skin, which has taken from a killed animal.
- « Taba, a village, $tap\acute{e}ra$ (p = b) a ruined and abandoned village.
- 44.—Odra or udra, (joined to the original form of a verb) forms the Past Participle; it corresponds to the English—(e)d; ex: moserokaodra, the baptised person;—iukd, to kill, iukdudra the killed man; etc.

[The letters within() in a word are mere euphonical sounds, which are very frequently used in the processes of derivation and wordformation of Brasilian languages.]

▲S.— We have just indicated the suffixes, most commonly used in the *Tupy* dialect, almost all of which are still in use, now-adays.

In old language, « Tupy — Guarany, » we find many other formative words, the most of

which, either were totally antiquated, or are now very rarely employed.

For the better understanding of some *deriva*tive or compound-words, we will present several
instances of those other suffixes:

- Abà, means «creature», an human being.
- $Ba\dot{e}$ or $mba\hat{e}$, means «thing» = the Latin res. When joined to verbal roots, it forms the *Present Participle*. Besides, this $ba\dot{e}$ is the same demonstrative root $a\dot{e}$, which serves, now, as the pronoun of the third person singular.
- *Pyra*, joined to the *radical* of verbs, has the same meaning, as the suffix *udra*, we have spoken of before, [no. 44].

AGGLUTINATION OF WORDS

46.— RM. $A\dot{e}$ (a demonstrative) he, she, it, they, this, these, that, [those, etc.

 $A\dot{e}ba\dot{e}$ ((b) $a\dot{e}$, the same), himself, herself, themselves, etc.

The savage repeats the word to give greater energy to its meaning or his affirmation.

Aė-sui (sui, prep.), — from there, from that place.

Aèketŷ (ketŷ=to),— to that place.

Aèramê (ramê=when), - then, at that time.

 $A\hat{e}res\hat{e}$ ($res\hat{e}$ = from or for), — for this, or therefrom.

Aèrirê ($rir\hat{e} = after$), — after that or thereafter.

Aerirê-mirî (mirî=small, little),—soon after.

47.— Ral. Ar, to be born, to occur, to happen, to appear, or to fall, etc.

Ara, — time, day, hour, occasion, and also—the World.

Araaybaetê (ayba = bad, + etê, much), - storm. « This word ayba is pronounced sometimes, as— $a\ddot{u}ba$ and $a\dot{y}ua$: »

Arakatú (katú = good), - opportunity.

Arakuá (kuà = the waist), - at noon.

Arôsú (ôsú=great, much),—to fall or to grow plentifully.

Ara-(r)angaba,—watch or clock; (ang, spirit or life, + aba, thing; = a thing possessing the life of time).

- Ar, used as suffix:— to take or the act of taking.

Ara (ara=iara),—the agent, one who does an action in the present time.

Idra,—the owner, the actual possessor of some thing.

Ibytuar (ibytii, wind)—to fall the wind.

Ayurar (ayur, the neck), — to take by the neck.

 $Mar-\tilde{a}ar$, $(mar\tilde{a}=mb\tilde{a}as\dot{y}$, a pain or ache),—to fall sick or to catch sickness.

Pôdr (pô, a hand),—to take or to catch by the hands.

 $P\ddot{u}ar$ ($p\ddot{u}$ or $p\dot{y}$, the foot),—to catch by the feet.

Pitūar, (pitū=pitūna, night),—to grow dark or night.

Tékóar (tekó,—custom or manner),—to imitate or to take the manners of another.

Teoar, (teo, death or the act of fainting),— to die, or rather, to decay, to fail.

Tapeyara (ta = taba, the town $+ p\hat{e}yara$, the pratical man), — who knows the way to the town, the head, the chief or guide.

48.—Ref. $Ib\dot{y}=ip\dot{y}$,—the land (earth), origin, beginning, etc.

Ibỳkoảra (koảra, a hole),—ditch, grave, etc. Ibỳ-ketỳ (ketỳ = toward), — downward.

Ibỳoka (oka, house), — a wall, a thing made out of land.

Ibỳpeba (peba, long or flat),— a tract of low lands.

Ibỳretė (the r is a euphonical letter, + êtė, much), — main-land.

Ibỳpể $\underline{i}(p\dot{e} = \text{in, prep.}), -\text{down, on the soil,}$ the ground.

Ibỳrirī (rirī, — to shake), — an earthquake.

Ibytyra (atyra, a heap), — a hill or mount.

Ipysuigodra (sui, prep. = from, + godra = ara, by Prothesis, an agent),—original, native or primitive.

49. — RM. Ibák, (also written Iuák), — heaven, the firmament, the atmosphere.

Ibaketinga, (tinga, white), — clouds, snow.

Ibakepora (pora, somebody), —who lives in heaven.

Ibakepė-o-so (pė = to, prep. + o-so = he goes), — salvation, — i e: who goes to heaven.

Ibakepètoryba (toryba, merry), — the celestial glory, i e:— merry in heaven.

SO.—Rø. Ig, (also written—Iè), water.

Igdba (dba, suffix),—lime, a thing within the water.

Igara (ara, suffix),—a canoe.

Igapó (apó, spread), -- marshy.

Iggatú (gatú=katú, good),— fresh water.

Igsererusába (sererü = sarerü, to flow, to slip,+saba, suffix),—a channel

Igkoara (koara, a hole),—a fountain.

Igyusei (yusei, wanting),—thirsty.

 $Igot\tilde{u}$ ($t\tilde{u}$, — onomatopaic, = imitating the noise of the fall of water),—an waterfall.

Igtykir (tykir, onomatopaic,—the drip-drip of falling water),—a drop.

31. - Rid. Pê, way, track, path, etc.

Pekoameêng (koameêng, to show or declare),—to guide.

Peydra, ((y) dra=dra, suff.),—a pratical man, a guide.

Pêosú (osû, great, large),—a road.

 $P\hat{e}k\hat{u}$,— long.

Pêrupy (rupy, prep. = through), — by the way.

33. — Rad. Pô, the hand, a finger, etc.

Pôakanga (akanga, the head, or the end of the hand),—the fingers.

Pôakanga-osú (see-osú),—the thumb.

· Pôdi, — to beckon.

Pôapem, — the nail "of a finger or toe".

Pôdpar (dpar, crooked, tortuous),—crippled or lame.

Pôapyka,— the fist.

Pôpytèra, (pytèra, middle, the central portion of a thing),— the palm.

Pôôk (ok=to take),— to pick up the fruit.

33.— Rad. $p\dot{y}a$, the heart.

Pỳakatú (katu, good),—of good manners, peaceful.

Pyakatu-rupy (rupy, prep. = by),—obliging man, or affability.

Pyakatusaba, - frankness, kindness.

Pyaosù, (osù = great), -courage, audacity.

Pya-yba, — (yba = aŭba, bad, cruel),—bad affliction or rage.

Pyübarupy, (rupy=by or for), -furiously.

54. — RM. Soba = roba, — the human face.

 $Soba(a)pyra \quad (pyra = atyra, a \text{ heap}),$ — the front.

Sobasy (sy = asy, to be in pain),—spleenfull, or sorrowful.

Sobaŭba (ŭb= aŭba, bad), - pale.

Sóbaosú (osú, great),—frown, or ugly countenance.

Sóbapetéka (petéka, a blow),— a slap.

Sóbapokéka (pokeka,— to wrap),— to muffle oneself up.

55.—Rad. Tekó, mode, rule, custom, state, or condition, etc.

Tekò-asy—(asỳ, which causes pain),—rigour. Tekòaỳba (aỳba, bad, cruel, etc.),—torment, prison, peril, etc.

Tekoayba-goara (goara = ara, agent), — the guilty.

Tekòayba-moapir (mo = to make or cause, +pyr=pyre, more),—to aggravate the guilt. Tekòayba-pòra—(see pòra),—the condemned to punishment.

Tekòkatú (= good state),—peace.

 $Tek\`om\^onh\~a$ ($m\^onh\~a$, to make), to constitute, to state.

Tekôpôranga (poranga, beautiful), — good fortune or success.

Tekòpoxi (poxi, bad),—vice.

Longer -agglutinative words

56.— RM. Abá, creature, human being.

Abà-angaypàba-osù-eté,—an tyrant, a cruel man. (Abà, — creature, + ang, the soul or the spirit of man, $+a\dot{y}p = ayba$, bad, evil, +ba = aba, — suffix—meaning thing, $+os\dot{u}$, great, $+et\dot{e}$, — very or very much; — literally, = a man of too great bad soul.

Abdkuduayma, - a foolish or silly man.

(Aba, -creature, + kuauba, - learning, + yma, without; - lit. = a man without learning.

Abamenda-sarayma,—a bachelor, unmarried. (Aba — (as before) + menda = mendara, to marry, + sara = ara, an agent, + yma, not, without;—lit.=a man married not.

Abàòba-monhangàra,—a tailor. (= Aba (as before) + oba, clothing, + $monh\tilde{a}$, — to make, + $\dot{a}ra$, an agent; lit.—a man who makes clothing.

Abàporobebya(r)yma, — a proud or an arrogant man. (— Abà (as before) + poro, somebody, a person, + $be = r\hat{e}$, (prep.) to, + $b\hat{y}a = p\hat{y}a$, heart, + $\hat{y}ma$, without; lit.=a man without heart to anybody.

Abápóroiukására,— an assassin or murderer. (Abá— (as before) + pòro (idem) + iuká, to kill,+(s)ára, an agent;—lit.—a man who kills some body.

Abà-Tupã-moetêsàra, — a religious man. (Abà (as before) + Tupã, God, + moeté, to venerate, + (s)ara (as before); lit. = a man who venerates God. And again: Abà-Tupã-moêtêsara - yma, — an unbelieving, an atheist.

Abaybaosú, a destoyer. (Abá (as before)+ $\dot{y}ba$ = $a\dot{y}ba$, evil,+ osú, great; lit.=a great maker of evils.

37. RM, Ita, stone, iron or metal, in general.

Itapômonde (pô, hands, + monde, prison),—manacles.

Ità(r)eté (eté, very or excellent), - steel.

Itá-Tupã-súi (Tupã sui, from God), — an aerolite, — a stone which has fallen from God.

Itábabóka (babóka,—onomatopaic word), — millstone.

Itábebůi (bebůi, light, puffy) — the pumice stone.

Itákantim (kantim, a peak, or sharp-pointed), — boar-spear, pike.

Itá(g)oasú (see oasú),—a rock.

Ita-yia (yellow metal), - money.

Itá-yúa-yára or Itáyubayára, (*) (yára, the owner),— a rich man.

Itáyúbarerů (rerú, a vessel), — treasury, a coffer.

Itá-nimbó ($nimbo = inim\tilde{o}$, a thread), — brass-wire.

Itapeba (peba, flat),—a plate of metal.

Itápeků (peků, long) a lever, an iron-bar.

Itápuã (puã, standing up or erect), — a nail.

^(*) In very numerons instances the b is found instead of u, and erciprocally.

58.— Ral. Müra, — wood, or tree.

Măradka (dka, a point or peak), — a branch.

Mŭra-bôka, - spinning wheel, made out of wood.

 $M\ddot{u}rakamb\dot{y}$ ($kamb\dot{y} = ak\dot{a}mb\dot{y}$, the groin, $i\ e$: the angular curve between the legs),—a pitch-fork.

Mürakorèra, - brushwood.

Müra-y (y, diminutive), - sprig, or stick.

Mürapėba (peba, flat),—a board.

Mürapekú (peků, long),— a long wood.

 $M\ddot{a}ra(r)akanga$ (akanga, the head), — the shoots.

Mürayra (yra, honey), — bee honey, i e: honey of wood.

59.— *Mopya (mo*, to do or to make do, + *pya*, heart.) [53, 96]

Mopya-ayba,, — to aggravate, to offend, to make one be sorrowful.

Mopya-katú, — to console, to make one be satisfied.

Mopyá-katuaba-pupė, (pupė, prep. = in or within),— to please, to be pleased.

— Monhã or monhang, — to make, to fabricate or to create.

Monhangàba, - fabric, factory, etc.

Monhangara, — working-man, a manufacturer.

Yemonhang, — to grow, to prosper; (— ye, (particle). [See no. 97].

Moyêmonhang, —to ingender, to generate.

60.— Rad. Nhee or nheeng, to speak, to discuss, to talk, to converse, etc.

Nheeng-dýba, (aýba, bad), — to injure, to defame, or to reproach.

Nheengayba-eté, (eté, very, much, too), — to slander, to curse.

Nheeng-santán, (santan, — loud), — to speak loud.

Nheeng-sesê, (sesê = resê, prep., by), — to bind by word, to bespeak.

Nheeng-eté, (eté, much, excellent, etc.), — to speak with power or authority.

Nheenga, — speech.

Nheengaidra (idra, owner, an agent), — interpreter.

Nheenga-o-meeng, (omeeng, to give),— to promise, to compromise oneself.

Nheengapora-poranga (pora-poranga, nice or fine thing), — gallantery, corteous behaviour, polite address.

Nheenga-poxi (poxi, evil), — obscenty.

Nheengar (ar, to take), — to sing.

Nheenga-sára, — a singer.

Nheengaba, — a song.

61.—RM. Nitio, intio, ti or ni,— no, not, nor.

Nitiokangaba, the immensity; (-kang = akanga, head, top, +aba, thing); = a thing without head or end.

Nitio-paya-oaé, — an orphan; (— paya, — a corruption of the Port. word $p\dot{a}e = \text{father}$, + $oa\acute{e}$, he or she; — a person without father.

Nitiogoasú (goasú, great, difficult, etc.,),—easy.

 $Nitio(g)oat\dot{a}$ -oaé, ($(g)oat\dot{a}$, to walk or to be in motion), — immovable.

Nitio-iapys - ae' (iapys - ae'), - a deaf man.

Nitio-iporoae (ipor = poro, something residing within),—unoccupied, hollow.

Nitiomàmė (mamė, where),— no-where.

Nitio-posanga (posanga, medicine),—irremediable.

Nitio-posy (posy, heavy),—light, slight.

Nitio-oikó-katú,— to behave badly; (—oikó= to be, + katú, good, = to be not well).

62. — $P\tilde{a}na$, corruption of the Portuguese word — panno, cloth.

Pana-ayba, - clout, rags.

Pāna-monhangaba, (aba, suffix, meaning the place, the instrument of the action), — weaver's-loom.

 $P\tilde{a}na$ -monhangara, — a weaver, the maker of cloth.

Pāna-petėka (petėka, to beat),—a washingwoman,—who beats the cloth, in washing it.

63.— Rad. Tupã or Tupãna, God.

Tupāberāba (berāb, to light), — a light-ning.

Tupā-iandė-rekô-bebê-meengara, — Providence; that is, —God who gives to us the mode of living.

Tupā-nheenga (see nheenga), — the Gospel.

Tupā-nheenga-kotiasāra (kotiasāra, who discribs or paints),—an evangelist.

 $Tup\tilde{a}$ -nheenga-o-mosem (o-mosem, to publish), — a preacher.

Tupā-uatā (uatā, to walk), — a religious procession.

Tupā(r)oka (oka, house),—church.

Tupā-oka-mîrī (mirī, small),— a niche.

Tupā-rokāra (rokāra or okāra, street or a line of houses),— church-yard.

Tupã-potába (potába, a present),— alms.

Tupāratā (ratā = tatā, fire), - purgatory, place of punishment.

Tupārayra (rayra—tayra, son), a christian, a son of God.

Tupāreko (reko = teko, law, precept, etc.),—religion.

Tupā-reko-yabisaba, (yabisaba, error), — superstition.

Tupārekò-monhangara, — blessed, that is: « Tupārekò, religion, + monhangara, who exercises or makes; — a man who practises the religion. »

Tapā-yi or Tupā-yg (yg, water), — holy water.

Tapanàr (ar, to take),— to communicate, to receive the Sacrament.

64. - Rad. - Tátá, fire.

Tatá-ar, (ar, to bring forth, to take, etc.),—to set on fire, or to take fire.

Tatá-beráb,— flames.

Tata-(g)oasii, (oasii, great),—a stove or bonfire.

Tatàmirī, (mirī, small), - a spark of fire.

Tatapunha, - live coal.

Tatapünha-osú, — a fire-brand.

Tatdrendy, (rendy, to shine),— light, illumination.

Tatatinga (tinga, white) smoke, $i \notin :$ white fire.

 $Tatátinga-monh\tilde{a}$ (monh \tilde{a} , to make), — to smoke or to be smoking.

63. - Rad. Yurú, the mouth.

Yuruayba (ayba, bad), — slanderous.

Yurúkanhême (kanhême or kanhŭmo, to disappear), — to be silent, or to grow dumb.

Yuruiai (idi, interg. of admiration), — to wonder, to gaze.

Yuruyib (yib = moryib, to caress),—civility, courtesy.

Yuriosú (osú, great), — foulmouthed, hard-mouthed (horse).

Yurupoxi (poxi, bad), the same, as yuru-ayba.

Yurúrê, — to ask, to beg, to pray.

Yururê-katú (katú, good), — to intreat.

Yurûrêsesê (sêsê = resê, by or for), — to intercede.

Yururê-rurê (frequentative,—rurê=yururê, to pray),— to insist, to urge.

Yururê-rurê-katú, (katú, good),—to pray humbly.

Yururê(s)aba, — a petition, deprecation.

Yururêsàra, — one that is always begging.

Yuruseem (seem, sweet), — civil, corteous, affable; i, e: sweet mouth.

ONOMATOPAIC WORDS

66.—In the Brasilian language are, certainly, numerous words created by onomatopæia; and we offer, as examples, the following:—

Akauã,—a bird, which, when singing, repeats this word.

 $A\dot{e}$,—this or that, and there (=the voice of one, who indicates a thing).

Bêbê,—to fly, (the beating of wings).

 $G\hat{u}\hat{e}ne$,—to vomit (= the noise of one who vomits).

Idu-ara,—dog, (= idu, the barking, + ara, suffix, an agent, etc.)

Mobàbók,—to grind, (babòk, the crack of the cane crushed in the sugar-mill).

Moposok, — to shake a liquid (water) within a vessel.

Mopók,—to break, (pók,—the cracking of something, which is broken up).

Mosak,— to to dig up, (sak, the blow of a thing pulled violently).

Moták,— to beat, (the sound of a blow). Pixãna,—cat, (the cry of a cat.)

Pipik,—to sprinkle, (the sound of splashing water).

Tatà,—fire, (the crackling of flames).

Yurii-karii (yurii, mouth, + karii, the noise of mastication), — to ruminate.

CHAPTER IV

ADJECTIVES

67.—In most of the modern languages of the inflectional group, adjectives, in the same way, as nouns, have different forms of endings (flections), according to the gender and number of the substantives, with which they agree in a phrase or sentence.

The Romance languages, principally, still present almost the same inflections, corresponding to the gender, as they were in Latin, from which they are derived.

Take, for instance, the following:

Latin—bonus, masc.; bona, fem.; bonum, neutr. (good.)

Italian — buono, masc.; buona, fem.; (there is no neuter gender.) (1)

French—bon, masc.; bonne, fem.; (there is no neuter gender.)

Spanish—bueno, masc.; buena, fem.; (there is no neuter gender.)

Portuguese— bom, masc.; bôa, fem.; (there is no neuter gender.)

Latin—totus, masc.; tota, fem.; totum, neuter, (the whole).

Italian—tutto, masc.; tutta, fem.; (the neuter wanting).

French—tout, masc.; toutte, fem. (the neuter wanting).

Spanish— todo, masc.; tôda, fem. (the neuter wanting).

Portuguese — todo, masc.; toda, fem.; tudo, neuter.

Latin—iste, masc.; a, fem.; ud, neuter, (that).

Italian—questo, masc.; questa, fem.;
(the neuter wanting).

French—ce ou cet, masc.; cette fem.; (the neuter wanting).

⁽¹⁾ The neuter gender was almost quite abolished in the Romance-tongues; nevertheless we find some cases therein, as the above mentioned.

Sp.—este, masc.; esta, fem.; esto, neuter.

Port.—este, masc.; esta, fem.; isto, neuter.

We find the same equivalent forms of all Latin adjectives or pronouns of three endings, which passed into Romance tongues;—viz:—

- « Unus, a, um, one.
- « Ullus, a, um, any at all.
- « Nullus, a, um, none at all.
- « Alter, a, um, one of two.
- « Ille, a, ud, that other; etc, etc.

ACCIDENCE OF BRASILIAN ADJECTIVES

68.—But in Brasilian languages the prevailing system in this respect is quite opposite. Adjectives are, without exception, invariable, like nouns.

In this point they offer a complete likeness with the adjectives of English, from which, however, they entirely differ in relation to their place in a sentence. In English the general rule is, that the adjective is placed before the noun, whilst the Brasilian tongue proceeds just in a contrary way.

In this last language the word, expressing substance, must precede the word of quality or of relation.

Thus, for instance, this phrase: — α good friend, in Brasilian can only be said — $an\hat{a}ma$ $kat\hat{u}$, = friend good.

Gender and number

69.—For want of distinct forms to mark gender and number the adjective can appear in a sentence, with nouns of every gender and number; ex:

Mu poranga, fine brother;

Rendéra poranga, fine sister;

Oka katú, a good house; oka-êtá katú, good houses;

Kunhâ poxi, a bad (or ugly) woman; kunhâêtá poxi, bad women, etc.

Degrees of quality or comparison

70.— Comparison is called that change of form, which the adjective undergoes to denote degrees of quality or quantity.

The comparative is formed by placing the adverb-suffix—pyre, more, after the adjective, and the postposition sui, from, after the latter term of comparison; ex: Paul is better than Peter, = Paul katù pyre Peter sui,—word for word:—Paul good more Peter from.

As to the peculiar use of the postposition—sui, from, to denote the relation between the two terms of comparison, we find a very similar form in the Italian language, in which the same sentence above would be, as follows:—Paolo è megliore del Pietro,—Paul is better from Peter.

If the comparative is of inferiority, as less prudent, less fine, etc. it must be formed by means of the word mirī, small or little, followed by the same adverb pyre; ex: You are less fine than John,—penhē pē poranga mirī pyre John sui;—literally — You, yourselves, fine little more John from.

This adjective *mirī* is equally employed, as an adverb, in sentences, like these: —I slept little, — xa ker an mirī; I walked little, —xa uatā an mirī, etc.

The superlative is, likewise, formed, by placing the particle $\dot{e}t\dot{e}$, very or much, which takes the euphonical letter r, if it is preceded by some vowel; ex: poranga, pretty, — poranga(r) $\dot{e}t\dot{e}$,

very pretty; katú, good, -katu(r)eté, very good, etc.

— It is unnecessary to observe, that these manners of forming the *comparative* and the *superlative* are, in general, used in the modern European tongues.

But the placing of the particle (adverb of quantity) after the adjective is an idiomatic usage, of which we will speak further on.

NUMERALS

- 71.—Comparing the authors, we find some discordances of opinion in relation to the *nume-rals*, which were used by Brasilian savages. The question is this:—up to what number could they count?...
- It appears, however, for sure, that, in general, they did not count objects, individually, above the number five, which was expressed, among several tribes, by the word pô,—a hand or the five fingers.

In the old documents, concerning this point,

the writers affirm, that the savages used only the following numbers:

BRAS.	ENGL.
Iepė or oiypė	one
Mokoī or mokuen	two
Mosapur or mosapeire	three
Irundy or mokoī-mokoin (repeated).	four
$P\hat{o}$, $xep\hat{o}$ (properly,—my hand)	five

By repeating these numerals they could express greater quantities of objects, as, for instance: pômokoī, ten,—two hands; xepô—xepy, tventy,—my hands and my feet.

72.— Nevertheless we must add, that some living tribes in North-Brasil, owing, perhaps, to their commerce with white people, use, at present, the numerals of greater quantity, as we can see in the following examples:

BRAS.	ENGL.
<i>Oaxiny</i>	five
Mosûny	six
Seie (apparent corruption of the	
Portuguese—sete—)	seven
Oisé (apparent corruption of the	
Portuguese—oito—	eight
Oisepé (=oisé, eight,+iepé, one)	nine
Peyė	ten
Peivéiepé	eleven

After ten begins the process of repetition, as in Latin; ex: twelve — peyé-mokoī; — thirteen, — peyé-mosapür; — twenty, mokoī-peyé; thirty,—mosapür-peyé; etc, etc.

Iepė papasaua, one hundred, (properly a great quantity) — and again: — mokoī-papa-saua, two hundreds; — peyė-papasaua, one thousand, and so forth......

ORDINALS

73. — The *ordinals* are formed out of the *cardinals*, by the suffix—*uara* [44]; ex:

BRAS.	ENGL.
Iepė(r)uàra	first
Mokoīuara	second
Mosapŭruára	third
Irundyuára	fourth
Oaxinyuára	fifth
Mosunyuara	sixth
Seyéuara	seventh
Oisèúara	eighth
Osepéúdra	ninth
Peyeudra	tenth
And	so forth.

CHAPTER V

PRONOUNS

- 74.— In the Brasilian language there are found the pronouns—personal, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, possessive and indefinite, perfectly distinct, both in forms and in uses; the most important peculiarities of which we are about to note.
- **75.**—Personal pronouns. These have no distinction of gender.

There are three persons:—the person who speaks, called the first person;—the person spoken to,—called the second person;—the person (or object) spoken of, called the third person.

These persons are represented by the pronouns:

RRAZILIAN	ENGLISH
Ixè or xè	I
Indė, inė or nė	Thou
Iandė or ianė (=ia, I +nė	
thou)	We, = I and thou
Orė (exclusively)	We, and not you
Peë or penhē	You
Aêtá or aitá	They (*)

^(*) This second form of the plural — ore or ore is a poculiarity of Brasilian languages, or rather of all American tongues; it means —we exclusevely, that is, we without you.

These forms of the personal pronoun are kept identical, whether they be the subject or the object of a sentence. It is true, that sometimes the particle—bo is found, joined to the pronouns of the first or of the second persons singular, denoting the relation of the dative case;—ex: $Ix\dot{e}bo$, to me; — $ind\dot{e}bo$, to thee.

But this particle — bo —, we suppose, to be the same contracted preposition $p\hat{e}$ (postposition), which is used to express such a relation; cf:— $ixup\hat{e}$, to him or to her, =i, his, her or hers, $+p\hat{e}=\sup$, (by Apheresis) — to; — $k\hat{o}p\hat{e}$, to the plantation, =ko, — plantation, $+p\hat{e}$, to; $tap\hat{e}$, to the village, =taba, village, (by Syncope) $+p\hat{e}$, to; and also:— $oreb\hat{e}$ (b=p) to us, =ore, we without you, and $b\hat{e}=p\hat{e}$, to; etc.

That which remains to be observed on personal pronouns, will be treated of in a proper way, when we have to speak of verbs.

76.— Demonstrative pronouns. There are three demonstrative pronouns:—

Koahd, this; $= k\hat{o}$, here, + ahd = uad, an agent,—the person here;

 $Nh\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}$, that ; = ni, not,+ $ah\dot{a}$ = $koah\dot{a}$,-not this.

Nhãhã amô, that other; = nhãhã, that, +amô, -another.

These pronouns correspond exactly to the Latin pronouns—hic, iste, ille, or to the Portuguese—este, esse, aquelle, which keep their original Latin signification. They have no distinct gender, but they take the plural form by the postpositive particle— $\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, like nouns; ex:— $koah\dot{a}\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, these; $nh\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}-\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, those: $nh\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}-am\delta\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, those others.

When the *demonstratives* are employed, as adjectives, they do not take the suffix of the plural number; because, in this case, they are always invariable and must be placed before the substantive, with which they agree in the sentence; ex:

Koahá (r)óka, this house;—koahá (r)oka-êtà, these houses;

 $Nh\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}$ kunhã, that woman; — $nh\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}$ ku- $nh\tilde{a}\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, these women;

Nhahâamô kisé, that other knife; — nhahã amô kiséětá, those other knives.

37.—Interrogative pronouns. The interrogative pronouns of this language are:

Aud, who?—It is only applied to person, like its correspondent in English, and is invariable in every case;

Mad, what?—It is also invariable, and only applied to things.— « Mad means, precisely, thing = Latin res, or Italian— cosa.

It is known that in Italian the word cosa may be used, as interrogative pronoun; ex: cosa fate, or cosa dite, = what are you doing, or what are you saying? = in Bras. — maà-ta peêmônhã, or maà-ta pê nehēē?.

The particles $t\dot{a}$, $tah\dot{a}$, $ser\dot{a}$ are used, as mere signs of interrogation.

78. — Relative pronouns. As relative pronoun is found only this word — uad, who; it is invariable and serves for all genders and numbers.

Uad is the same suffix, which means an actual agent, as the Latin ans, ens, or it is the subject of an action, as we may see in the instances, given before; [no. 39].

The relative $ua\dot{a}$ has yet another idiomatical application: it is always placed at the end of the sentence; ex:—have you the arrow which my brother sent? = re- $rek\dot{o}$ ser \dot{a} $\ddot{o}\ddot{u}oa$ se \dot{e} mu $mund\dot{u}$ -an $ua\dot{a}$? — word for word, — you have the arrow my brother sent which?

39.—Possessive pronouns. These are identical with the personal pronouns, as follows:

Sé or xé, my and mine.

Në or rè, thy and thine.

Aè or i, his and her (s), its.

Iané, our and ours.

Penhē or peē, your and yours. Aêta or aitā, their or theirs.

« The possessive of the third person is very frequently represented by an i, which seems to be a contracted form of $a\dot{e} = a\dot{i}$, he, she, or his, hers, its, as was seen in the foregoing example ...

Possessive pronouns must be placed before the noun, with which they agree; but they do not undergo any particular change to correspond in gender and number. —[See no. 68]

**O.—Indefinite pronouns. It is our opinion, that most of the suffixes, which are agglutinated to predicative or verbal roots, are, undoubtedly, indefinite pronouns. It is certain, that some of them have lost their original signification, but many others keep it still in a clear and independent way. Thus, for example:

Aua, used also as interrogative pronoun, means, precisely, a person or human being; cf:—

- « Inti-aud, nobody; = inti, not, +aud, body;
- « $Mau\dot{a}$, whoever:= $ma\dot{a}$, aught,+ $au\dot{a}$, body.
- « Yepėaua, each one, = yepė, one, +aua body.

Aba, creature. We think this word, identical with—aua, scarcely modified by pronunciation; cf:

« $Nitio-ab\dot{a}$, nobody, = nitio, not, + $ab\dot{a}$, person;

« $Am\hat{o}ab\dot{a}$, another; = $am\hat{o}$, other, + $ab\dot{a}$, person.

- —As *indefinite pronouns*, properly so-called, we now find these:
- $Am\hat{o}$, other, others. From this are formed the following phrases:

« $Am\hat{o}$ -ara- $pup\hat{e}$, on another occasion, = $am\hat{o}$, other, +ara, time, $+pupe = \hat{o}pe$, on or at.

« $Am\^o$ - $m\`am\`e$, in another place, =amo, + $m\^am\`e$, where.

Amôrupy, to the contrary, = amô, + rupy, to, by, (prep.)

« $Am\delta$ - $ram\dot{e}$, sometimes, $=am\delta$, + $ram\dot{e}$, when, other when.

« $Am\delta$ -iby-sui, from another land, $=am\delta$, +iby, land, +sui, from.

- Yabé, each. From this are derived or formed the following:
- « $Yabe-yab\acute{e}$, each one, $= yep\acute{e}-yep\acute{e}$, one by one;
 - « Amô-yabé, so much or so many.
- Mad, aught, something. From this are formed:
- « Intimad, naught, nothing, = inti, not, + mad, thing;

- « Yepėmaa, some-body, = yepė, one,+maa thing:
- $Mira \tilde{y}$, few, a few; = mira, people, + $\tilde{y} = mir\tilde{i}$, small, little. [35]

Pabe or opai, all, all together.

These indefinite pronouns are, as a rule, invariable.

CHAPTER VI

VERBS

S1. — According to their meaning, the verbs of the Brasilian language may be classified, as *transitive* and *intransitive*.

By the use of some regular particles (prep. or suffix) the *transitive* may become *intransitive*, as well as, the intransitive may pass into transitive.

Transitive verbs are also used reflexively and reciprocally, by means of certain particles, joined to them.

There are found, yet, a few verbs, which may

be rightly considered, as causative, in view of their grammatical functions in the sentence.

- All these classes of verbs are invariable words, like the other parts of speech, that is to say: that their radical does not undergo any change of form to express the various relations of voice, mood, tense, number and person of conjugation.
- **S2. Voice. (a) We think, we may affirm, that in this language there are wanting, not only the passive verb, but also the passive voice itself. First, the Brasilian language does not possess the especial verb, so-called substantive, as the Latin esse, to be. Sentences, such as; Paul is good, are expressed in Brasilian by the simple words, Pâul, hatû, that is, Paul good, or Paul has goodness. [104]

In order, then, to denote something, like the passive voice, it is, as a rule, sufficient to place certain words, which have themselves the meaning of passive participles, after the substantive or pronoun serving, as the subject; ex:

- « Paul was killed, = Paul iukauara, or Paul iuka-pyra; = iuka, to kill, + uara or pyra, suffix denoting the object of the action, as killed.
 - « Thou art baptised; = ine remoserok-

 $\dot{u}\dot{a}ra$; = re, personal prefix of the second person sing., + moserbka, to baptise, + $u\dot{a}ra$, suffix, as the before said. [44].

- **83.** (e) Reflexive or reciprocal verbs are formed from the transitive by particles placed, as infixes, between the personal prefix and the verb. The most used of those particles are ye, yo (sometimes, $nh\hat{e}$ or $nh\hat{o}$) equivalent to the Latin and Portuguese pronoun se (acc.); ex:
- « *Pê-iukā*, you kill, *pê-yo-iukā*, you kill yourselves, one another;
- « Moapara, to crook,—ye-moapara, to bend oneself.

When the subject is a pronoun of the first or of the second person, it is usual to express the reflexive form by the mere repetition of the those pronouns, as in the Romance-tongues; ex:

- « Thou killest thyself, = $r\dot{e}$ ine iuka, or $r\dot{e}$ y\(\text{e}\)-iuka; lit. thou thee killest.
- « We kill ourselves, = ore-oro ye-iuka; lit. we us kill, etc.
- S4.— (i) Transitive verbs can, as a general rule, be formed from the intransitive by the use of the prefix mô, which sometimes works, as a causative, and sometimes has the particular function of converting nouns and adjectives of quality into regular verbs; ex:

- (1) « A-in, (or xa-in) I lay down,—a-mô-in, I place or I cause to sit down;
- « Xa-ropare, I lose myself,—xa mô-ropare, I make somebody go astray;
- « Xa-puam, I rise or arise,— xa-mô-puam, I cause something or somebody to arise;
 - « Sêm, to go out, mô-sêm, to make go out;
- « Tiy, to tremble, $m\hat{o}$ - $ti\hat{y}$, to make tremble;
- (2) « Abaeté, renowned, mô-abaeté, to renown, or to make renowned;
 - « Abyk, needle, mô-abykik, to sew;
- « Apára, crooked, mo-apàra, to crook or to make crooked;
 - « $A\dot{y}ba$, evil, $m\hat{o}$ - $a\dot{y}b$, to offend, to injure;
- « $P\dot{e}b$, flat, $m\hat{o}$ - $p\dot{e}b$, to flatten.
- « Poxi, bad, evil, $m\hat{o}$ -moxi (m = p), to viciate, to adulterate.
 - [This prefix $m\hat{o}$, we suppose to be a contracted form of the verb $m\hat{o}nh\tilde{a}$, which means, exactly, to do or to make.]

From the foregoing illustrations we may judge, how frequent must be the employment of this prefix or root $m\hat{o}$, which, indeed, is found in most Brasilian verbs.

PRONOMINAL SUBJECTS AND PERSONAL PREFIXES

**S. — We call **personal prefixes ** certain particles, which are invariably affixed to verbs with the same signification, as the personal suffixes of the Latin verbs.

In the following table we make a complete enumeration of such *personal prefixes*, indicating their corresponding signification in Latin:

В	RAZILIAN	ENGLISH
Pers. pron.	Pers. pref.	Meaning.
Ixé or xé	α	= I or me.
Indè, ìné or n	\vec{e} $r\vec{e}$	= Thou, thee.
Aè	0	= He, she, it, or him,
		her.
Iandé or iané	(*) ia	=We, us.
Penhē or pez	p3	= You, ye,
Aêtà or aità	o	= They, them.
LATIN		ENGLISH
Pers suffixes.	Cf:-	Meaning
0	amo	= I love.
S	amas	= Thou lovest.
t	amat	= He loves.
mus	amamus	= We love.
tis	amatis	= You love.

nt

amant = They love.

[(*) It must be repeated, that in Brazilian languages, as in most American tongues, there are two forms for the pronoun of the first person plural, the one *inclusive*, the other *exclusive*.

« The *inclusive* form is that presented above — $iand\acute{e}$ or $ian\acute{e}$ (= ia, I + $n\grave{e}$, thou, = we), the exclusive is — ore or oro, (we, without or minus you); ex: we (exclusive of you) kill, oro $ia-iuk\acute{a}$.]

- As we see, the personal prefixes represent the pronominal subject of the verb; but, while they can be used alone without the personal pronouns, these, on the contrary, can never appear, without them: We could say, for instance: amamus, = ia-saisi, we love, wherein is not expressed the personal pronoun iandé or iané = we; but we cannot say: iandé or iané saisi, without the personal prefix ia.
- The leading rule, in relation to pronominal subjects, is this:—in the first person sing. it is always expressed, and takes the contracted form xa, = xe + a. In the second and the third persons sing. they are regularly omitted, being in this case substituted by the afore-said personal prefix; ex: amas, = re-saisi; amat = o-saisi, thou lovest, he loves.

In the plural, the *pronominal subjects* need not be, particularly, expressed.

MOOD

**S6.— The most original form, in which the verb appears in the Brasilian speech, is one affirming the action or existence of an indefinite subject; that is to say, it has not the *Infinitive mood*, properly so-called*, and always expresses the action of a subject, — "determinate or indeterminate". The word, or rather the particle, which comes joined to the verb, as its indefinite subject, is the prefix — o, and has a meaning, just like that of the German man, or the French — on in these phrases, — man spricht, on parle = o-nhēē, to speak, that is, one speaks.

Now it must be remembered, that this concrete mode of speech is, doubtless, more natural to savage people, who deal, very seldom, with abstract ideas.

In the grammars and vocabularies of their language, it is certain, that we find the verbs used, as in the *Infinitive mood*; but, when we pay better attention to the practical applications,

it results, that the savages do not know the use of such a mood.

[An example of this kind is found in Arabic, wherein the third person sing. of the Perfect is the simplest form of the verb; and this is also liable to change into transitive or intransitive, active or reflexive, by means of some particles, used as prefixes, as in Brasilian.] (*)

Nevertheless, as it facilitates the understanding of the examples, which illustrate the matter, we continue, likewise, to consider that indefinite form of Brasilian verbs, as being their Infinitive mood; ex: — Saisú or o-saisú, to love; — iuká or o-iuká, to kill, etc.

From this simple form, which is always invariable, are formed — moods, tenses and participles, or verbal adjectives, by the regular use of some special particles, which occur, either isolated or grouped together.

TENSES

87. — The simple tenses are: — Present, Past (= the Latin Perfect) and Future.

^(*) William Wright, Arabic Gram. (Dublin, 1859.)

Present tense

The Present is formed by adding the pronominal subjects, or the personal prefixes alone, to verbs; ex:

BRAS.	ENGLISH
$Xa = xe + a$) $meh \hat{e}n$.	I give.
Re-mehên	Thou givest.
Aè o-mehên	He, she or it gives.
Ianė ia-mehên	We (I and thou) give.
Ore ia-mehên	We (minus you) give.
Penh? pê-mehên	You give.
Aità o-mehên	They give.

The «Imperfect Present» can be also formed by placing the verb $ik\delta$, to be [104] with its pers. prefixes, after the other verb, to which it serves, as an auxiliary; thus:

BRAS.	ENGLISH
Xa mehên-xa ikö	I am giving, = Igive+ I am.
Re-mehên-re(r)ikö	Thou art giving,—thou givest—thou art.
Aè o-mehên-o-iko	He is giving, = he gives+he is.
Ianè ia-mehên-iaikó.	We are giving, = we give+we are.
Pē-mehen-pēiko≀	You are giving,—you give+you are.
Aita o-mehen-o-iko	They are giving,—they give+they are.

—Another way of expressing the same thought is to add the suffix ara (or $ba\dot{e} = a\dot{e}$) to the verbal root and to place it after the substantive or pronoun, serving, as the subject; ex:

- « Mehen-dra who gives at the present time;
- « Paul mehen-dra, Paul gives or is giving now [no. 39]

Past or perfect tense

**S.— If we had to translate the Latin term -amavimus, we loved, into Brazilian, it would be necessary to employ the following words, — Iané ia-saisú-an, or at least, — ia-saisú-an.

The postpositive an properly means the past time. Although it is added to verbs, as a suffix, it still keeps its independent form and import, as may be seen in the following instances:

LATIN	BRAS.	ENGLISH
Amavi	Xa-saisu-an	I loved.
Amavisti	Indé re-saisu-an.	Thou lovedst.
Amavit	Aė o-saisu-an	He loved.
Ámavimus	Ianè ia-saisu-an .	We loved.
Amavistis.	Penhē pe-saisu-an	You loved.
Amaverunt	Aità o-saisu-an	They loved.

Future

89.— Now, let us suppose, that we wish to express an action in a coming time, as the expression, — *amabimus*, we will love, which is translated into Brasilian = $Ian\acute{e}$ ia-sais\acute{u}-kurì.

The above postpositive *kuri* is used, and it means, when joined to the verb, that the action will take place in a coming time, and therefore it is the sign of the *Future* of verbs; ex:

LATIN	BRAS.	ENGLISH
Amabo	Xa saisù-kuri	I will love
Amabis	Inė re-saisù-kuri	Thou wilt love
Amabit	Aè o-saisú-kuri	He will flove
Amabimus	Ianè ia-saisù-kuri	We shall love
Amabitis	Penhē-pe-saisù-kuri	You will love
Amabunt	Aità o-saisù-kuri	They shall love

THE NEGATION AND INTERROGATION

90. — (1) The negative form of verbs is rendered by placing the particle inti (=nitio) or intimaa (=inti, + maa, thing, = nothing) before the subject of the sentence; ex:

- « I wish, xa pôtare; I do not wish, inti, or inti-mad xa potare; word for word: = not or nothing I wish.
- (2) The interrogative form of verbs is rendered by the use of one of these particles—ta, $tah\dot{a}$ or $ser\dot{a}$, which may be placed, either before or after the verb; ex:
 - « Have you some bread? = $p\bar{v}$ -reko serk meape?
 - « Who is there? = aud тана o-ikò apé? [See no. 99, 2 і,]

ANOMALOUS VERBS

91.— We call « anomalous », certain Brazilian verbs, that undergo alteration in the root, which is contrary to the general system of their conjugation.

In our state of knowledge on the matter, this kind of verbs is of rare occurrence; and to speak the truth, the only ones, the forms of which are used irregularly, are the following:

(1) - The verb so, to go, which in the Impe-

rative mood presents the anomalous forms: — ikô-en, go thou; — pê-ikô-en pez, go you.

(II) — The verb *nehe*? (in some grammars we find — a?), to say, or rather, just equivalent to the Latin — aio, is, I say yes, which changes the radical in the *Perfect* and *Future*; ex:

Perfect

BRAS.	ENGL.
$Xa \ in$ - an	I said.
Re-in-an	Thou saidst.
$A\dot{e}$ -o-in-an	He said.
Yanė ia-in-an	We said.
Per pe-in-an:	You said.
Aità o-in-an	They said.

Future

Xa in-kuri	I will say.
Re-in-kuri	Thou wilt say.
Aé o-in-kuri	He shall say.
Yane ia-in-kuri	We will say.
Penhë pe-in-kuri	You will say.
Aêta o-in-kuri	They will say.

[In these two tenses the verb, properly so-colled, is the monosyllable — *in*, and this is the form used by the ling tribes of North-Brasil].

92.— Now it is to be noted:— that in the conjugation of Brasilian verbs the following elements concur regularly:—(1) the personal pronoun, as the subject;—(2) the prefixes, corresponding to the personal suffixes of the Indo-European-tongues;—(3) the verb, or rather, the verbal or attributive root; (4) the postpositive particles an and huri, when the action is expressed in the Past or in the Future.

Present, Past and Future, the savages yet use other secondary ones, which correspond to the various and distinct relations of time in Latin verbs. They do so, by means of some other special suffixes, (conjunctions and adverbs), which express condition, mode, time, etc; ex:

Amabam. Xa saisù-yepê-î =Iwas loving (once).

Amavero. Xa saisù-mairamé =When I will love.

Amem. Xa saisù-huŭre =I may love (now).

Amarem. Xa saisù-ramê =I might love.

[The various particles, or modifying elements, used to express the verbal relations, may differ in forms from those above mentioned; but, as a rule, all of them are identical in their functions and usual applications].

94.— It is a notable idiom of the Brasilian language the use of the auxiliary verb potare, (to wish) which does not take any personal prefix, and is always placed after the principal verb in the sentence; ex: I wish to go, = xa so pôtare; word for word: — I to go wish.

The same rule is applied to causative verbs, or rather, to some verbs in causative phrases, like these: — I bid make, = xa mônhā kāri; — literally: = I make bid; — you can go, or you know how to go, = pē-só kuāu; — word for word: — you go can or you to go know. [106]

[The verb kudu means, at the same time, to know how and to be able or can; in Brasilian the ideas — knowledge and power are identical ones].

Except this especial use of the verbs potare and of the causatives, the general rule for two or more verbs appearing in the sentence is, that the personal prefixes must be repeated; that is to

say, — the verbs must be used, as if they were quite independent of one another; ex:—

- « I am speaking, $= xa \text{ nehe} \bar{z} xa \text{ iko}$; i. e:— I speak I am; [\bar{z}].
- * I have nothing to do, = intimad xa reko xa mônhã arāma; literally: = nothing I have I make to.

[For better illustration on this point, see the chapter "Rules and Remarks".]

FORMATION OF VERBS

As a general rule, all predicative roots may be converted into verbs, — by affixing to them the personal prefix, by itself, or with — the pronoun, as subject; — ex: sêm, the act of going out or appearing, — xa-sêm,—I go out; — kêr, sleep, — o-kêr, to sleep, that is, — he sleeps; — tog, the act of covering,—re-tog,—thou coverest, etc.

Besides this, there are certain formative elements, which occur, very frequently, in the formation or derivation of a great many verbs. The formative elements, most ordinarily used, are the two following:—

96.— *Mô*, particle, (prefix) which works, either as a *causative verb*, or converts any *predicative roots* into transitive verbs.

It may, likewise, be joined to intransitive verbs to transform them into transitive ones. [84]

Examples:

 $Ak\dot{u}$, warm; — $mo-ak\dot{u}$, to warm or to make hot.

Asúk, the act of taking a bath; — mo-asúk, to bathe somebody.

Asy, pain, or ache; — $mo-as\dot{y}$, to ache or to be in pain.

Aýba, bad; — mo-aýba, to ruin, to waste, to demolish, etc.

 $P\hat{e}$, road, way, track etc; — $mo-p\hat{e}$, to level the path or the way.

Pekü, long; - mo-pekü, to lengthen.

Porânga, fine or beautiful; — mo-poranga, to trim or to attire.

Sai, sour; — mo-sai, to make sour, to embitter.

Seem, sweet; — mo-seém, to sweeten.

Saray, jest; - mo-saray, to jest.

Tapy, deep; — mo-tapy, to sink.

Yaseon, to weep or to mourn; — mo-yaseon, to make weep.

Ye-mombéu, to confess oneself; — mo-ye-mombeu, to avow.

Ye-nong, to lie down; — mo-ye-nong, to put down.

Yo-yabê, to pair, or to make oneself equal to; —mo-yo-yabê, — to equal, to adjust, to compare. Yokôk, to lean upon; — mo-yo-kok, to uphold. Ye-menara, to marry; — mo-ye-menara, to make marry.

97.— Ye or yo (also nhê or nhô), particle-prefixes, denoting that the predicative root expresses a reflexive, intransitive or reciprocal action. — [83]

Examples:

Kapik. to comb; — ye-kapik, to comb oneself.

Komeeng, to indicate; — ye-komeeng, to appear, to expose oneself.

Koêma, dawn or morning; — ye-koêma, to dawn or to grow day.

Moasuk, to bathe somebody; — ye-moasuk, to take a bath.

Mo-ayba, to ruin something;— ye-mo-ayba, to ruin oneself.

Mosaêm, to divulge; — ye-mosaêm, to be divulged.

Meeng, to give or to deliver; — ye-meeng, to deliver or to render oneself up.

Mo-tykan, to dry or to wipe; — ye-mo-tykan, to dry oneself.

Participles

The rules, by which in Brasilian the several participles are, in general, formed, will be found in the chapter on nouns. [38 to 44]

CHAPTER VII

POSTPOSITIONS

98.—The usual relations, expressed by prepositions, as we see in the modern European languages, are denoted in Brasilian languages by means of *postpositions*. — They are various in form and number, and correspond, in their

applications and meaning, to prepositions, in general.

The principal postpositions of the Brasilian language are:

Sui — denotes separation or removal from one place to another, or derivation and motion from the interior of an object; it is equivalent to the Latin prepositions— a or ab and e or ex; ex: I came from the city,—xa iùr-an mairỳ sui; lit:— I came city from.

 $Op\dot{e}$, — in, (sometimes = upon and within) denotes position of an object; it corresponds to the Latin prep. in with ablative; ex: In the Church, = Tupan (r)oka $\delta p\dot{e}$; lit: — God's house in.

Supé—denotes relation to an object, that is, limitation or destination, «= to or for, as in the phrases—to me or for you»—; it expresses a relation equivalent to the Latin dative; ex: Give this hat to my friend, = re-mehen iné koahá xapéua kamarara supé; lit: give thou this hat friend to;—love to God, = saisù Tupân supé; lit: =love God to.

Arâma — denotes also the relation to an object, but is especially employed, when we desire to express a « destination or purpose », as will be better understood from the following

Latin example: — Exitio est mare nautis, (the sea is for a destruction to sailors), = parà porarasaba igatinyba arāma; — word for word: the sea, a torment pilots to; — I want her for my wife, = xa pôtare aè se xemerikò arāma; lit: I want her my wife for.

 $P\hat{o}p\dot{e}$ — denotes interior position, = within; ex: Within thy house, = $re(r)\dot{o}ha\ p\hat{o}p\dot{e}$; lit:—thy house within.

Yma signifies without, as the Latin sine; ex: Woman without her husband, $= kunh\tilde{a}$ i $m\hat{e}na-yma$; word for word: = woman her husband without.

Irômo — denotes company, as the Latin cum, with; ex:—With my brother, = se mû irômo; lit:= my brother with.

[From this postposition irômo is derived irômo-ara, fellow, companion.]

Kêtê or $k\hat{e}ty$ — denotes motion to a place, as the Latin ad, to; ex: I go to thy house, = xa-sò $r\hat{e}(r)\delta ka$ $k\hat{e}t\hat{e}$; lit: = I go thy house to.

[In phrases such as:—eo ad te, adiit regem, etc. the postposition, mostly used, is piri = to; ex: Paulus adiit fratrem, = Paulu o-sò-an i mu piri; lit: = Paul went his brother to].

Aarpe or aripe - are used with the signifi-

cation of « upon »; ex: Upon the table, = murapeua aripe; lit: = table upon.

Sesê or resê—denotes a cause or reason, « on account of, for the sake of »; ex: For the sake of God, = Tupan resê;— on account of bad weather, = dra ayba sesê; lit: = weather bad because of.

Rupy—denotes cause, instrument, and in a limited sense,— « through either in space or in time »; a it corresponds to the Latin per; ex: He goes through the street, — aé-o-sò ohàra rupy; — in jest,— mosaràya rupy; lit: he goes street through; — jest in.

Uérpe or uyrpe — are used with the signification of the Latin prep. sub, under; ex: Under the table, = murapéua uèrpe; lit: = table under.

Renoné or tenondé (r = t, n = d), = coram or ante, before; ex: Before me, = xe renondè; lit: = me before.

Rekuidra, = « instead of »; ex: Thou art playing, instead of working, = re-poraukê re-kuidra, re-yo-mosdrai re-iko, — word for word: = thou working instead of, thou playing thou art.

[We find yet other simple or compound-words used as postpositions; but we think, they may be considered with greater reason, as pure adverbs.]

CHAPTER VIII

ADVERBS

99. — According to their signification, adverbs may be divided into the following classes: — (1) adverbs of place; (2) adverbs of negation, affirmation and interrogation; (3) adverbs of time, "determinate or indeterminate"; (4) adverbs of manner, degree of quality, etc.

(1)

ADVERBS OF PLACE

Mamé "ubi, where" generally used, as interrogative; ex: Where is your land, = mamėtad nė (*) retâma?

« This mamé is a derivative from mad, thing, in its most absolute meaning, — as the Latin res = an object, place, occasion, action, etc. $+ m\acute{e} = p\acute{e}$, in; therefore, $mam\acute{e} = maap\acute{e}$, in a thing or place. » The following adverbs will give further illustration:—

 $Ma\vec{a}$ -sui ($ma\vec{a}$ + sui, postp.= from), "unde,

^(*) Retama or tetama means properly native country.

whence"; ex: Whence do you come, = mad-sui tad re-iur?

Mad-kety (maa + kety, postp. = to), "quo, whither"; ex: Whither are you going, = mad-kety penhē pe-sò?

Mad-rupy (= mad + rupy, postposition,= through), "qua, in what way"; ex: In what way does flow the river, = mad-rupy parand td o-nhdna?

Ikê, and also $k\hat{o}$, "hic, here (by the speaker)"; ex: Here is our land, $=ik\hat{e}$ yanė rėtâma.

- « From ikê are derived:
- « Kisiy, = ikê+ sui, "hinc, from hence (from the speaker)";
- « Ki- $kit\hat{e}$,= $ik\hat{e}$ + kety, "huc, hither, (to the speaker)".

 $A\dot{a}p\hat{e}$, "istic, there, (by the person addressed)"; ex: He was there, $= o-ik\hat{o}-an$ aapė.

Mime, "ibi, there"; ex: See my dog there, = $mime\ pe-mah\bar{e}\ se\ iau-ara$.

- « From mime are derived:
- « Mi-xihy, = mime + sui, "istinc, from thence, (from the person addressed)";
 - « Mi-kité, = mime + kité, "eo, thither".

 Arpe, "above, upwards".

Uerpe, "below, down".

[These two adverbs are also used, as postpoistions, of which we treated before.]

Okar-pe, "foris or foras, out, without," (= okara, street, + pe, in); ex: I was out, okar-pe xa iko-an.

Sakakoéra, "pone or retro, hehind"; ex: It is behind, = sakakoéra o-ikô.

Ape-katu, "longe, far"; ex: Far from the city, = ape-katu tauā sui; lit: far city from. Poiterpe or pyterpė, "between, amidst".

(2)

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION, NEGATION, ETC.

 (\mathbf{a})

Affirmative or concessive particles

Hēhē, "etiam, yes".
Empò, "quippe, of course".
Hēhē-empò, "in this way perhaps".
Katu-ente, "so so, or verily".
Aè-katù, "recte, quite right".

(e)

Negative particles

Nitio, intio, inti,ti or ni, "non, no, not, nor".

« All these forms are found, either in the negation of verbs, or as prefixes of other words; ex:

Nitio-aba, nobody; nitio-mame, no where;—
inti-maa, nothing; — inti-ape-katu, not far;
—inti or ti xa-pôtare, I will not; — ni-amoara, never; (= ni, nor + amô, other + ara,
time.)

Yma, "minus, without. [See the postpositions.]

(i)

Interrogative particles

One of these particles, serd, taha, ta or pd must always occur in the interrogatives phrases, which is to be placed after the verb in case this be the modified word; ex: Iné re-rehò serd meape? = have you some bread?

In case, another be the modified word, the particle must be placed after that one and before the verb; ex: Mad meapé tahá re-reko? = what bread have you?

These particles may also be joined to a simple noun, as for ex: mad, thing; and mad tahd? = what?

(3)

ADVERBS OF TIME

Mair-rame, "quum or quando, when."

Ara-pôkú-saua, "semper, always".—«Ara
time, +poku-saua, length; = length of time.»

Inti-an-kuri, "never". «Inti, not, +an,
particle denoting the Past, + kuri, another
particle denoting the Future; = neither in the
Past nor in the Future.»

Ni-amô-ara, "never". — «Ni, nor, + amô, other, + ara, time; = in no other time. »

Aramê or ramê, "tunc, then," at that time. *Ramè is also the sign of the Imperfect, as in the Latin verb, amabam, facerem, I was loving, I was making; = xa saisù ramè, xa monhã ramè.»

Kuŭr, — "nunc, now, on this occasion." « It is also used, as the sign of the the Present Subjunctive, as, for instance: — the Latin verb amem, that I love, — xa saisù kuŭr.»

 $Am\hat{o}$ -ara,— " in the coming time". « $Am\hat{o}$, other, +ara, time.»

Ana, "now, just now";— and its derivative—inti-ana, not yet.

 $Ranh\bar{e}$, or $ra\bar{\imath}$, "still, till the present".

Oiy,- " hodie, to day".

Oiypė-i,-"once."

Kuisê, — "heri, yesterday"; — and its derivative — amô-kuisê, before yesterday, that is, another yesterday.

Kuri, "after, presently". « It is the sign of the Future;— and its derivative — kuri-mirī, soon after, — a little after. »

An,—" already". « It is the sign of the Past.» $Ret\dot{e}$ -an, "too late,"— « $R\dot{e}te$, much or too,—an.»

Riri or rirê, "post, postea, after, afterwards." « Rirê is also used, as a postposition. »

(4)

ADVERBS OF MANNER, DEGREE, QUALITY, ETC.

Iaué, — " ita, so."

Tenhē, "item, itidem, likewise," in the same manner.

Katu-ente,— " so so."

Etè or rete, "much, very much."

Pau or paué, "so much, or so many."

Myure, "as, how much or how many".

Pyre, "magis, more."

Amô-yre, a little more; « amo,+pyre,= other more.»

Xinga,- "minus, less, or hardly".

Anhū, nhôn or nhonte, "alone, only, solely."

May, "as, so."

Teipo, "at last."

- There are yet many other words, used as adverbs, which we have not mentioned.

The place of the adverb in the sentence may be before or after the verb; but always after the adjective or another adverb; ex: I go to-day, = xa-so oiy, or oiy xa-so; — very good, = katu-retė; much more, = pyr-ètė; etc.

CHAPTER IX

CONJUNCTIONS

100. — The particles, which may be classed, as conjunctions, are the following:

Aa-resė (aa = mad, + resė), "ideo, quamobrem," for that reason, because of, etc.

A-suỳ, "ergo, therefore,"— $(a\hat{e}, + sui, = from that)$.

Ni, "nor". [n. 61]

Arery, "autem, however or but."

Aramé, "enim, etenim for, for indeed."

Yôur, "neither, nor."

May, - "quare, why, on account of"?

CHAPTER X

INTERJECTIONS

- 101.— The particles or words used, as interjections, are numerous; among others we will mention the following:—
 - (1) Of astonishment: âh!....
 - (2) Of inquiring: an?.. = what?
 - (3) Of pain: un un!...
 - (*) Of satisfaction and of praise: apė!....
 - (5) Of encouragement: éré!....
 - (6) Of calling: hôhô!....
 - (1) Of reprobation: athié!....
- (*) Of profound disgust: araan!= oh tempora!!

(9) Of compassion: tuté! aua-teité!

(10) Of doubt : i d!

(11) Of approbation: heém!
(12) Of interrogation: será?

(13) Of sending away: atimbora! = be off!....

CHAPTER XI

MISCELLANEOUS RULES AND REMARKS

as was noted before, have no inflections to mark "gender, number and case"; and therefore can appear in a sentence, as the subject or the object of verbs, without change of forms.

Syntax of the subject

(1) As a general rule, the subject "noun or pronoun" is placed before the verb. The only real exception to it, we know, is the peculiar use of the relative pronoun— $u\hat{a}a$ —, that occurs invariably after the verb of the dependent sentence; ex: hast thou the arrow which my brother sent me? = re-reko sera añoa se mu

mundù uad ixè arâma? —« word for word: == thou hast the arrow my brother sent which me to? » [n. 78]

- (II) When the subject is of the third person and the object of the verb is a pronoun of the first or second person, and the verb is of the *Imperative* or *Subjunctive mood*, the subject is regularly placed after the verb; ex: that John kill thee, = t-inė iukė John; [tinė = inė, thou or thee, by Prothesis].
- (III) When it is necessary to use greater energy in the assertion, or in the expression of feeling, they repeat the pronoun-subject and the personal prefix; ex: Ixè xa-reko, I, myself, have; inè re-reko, thou, thyself, hast, etc.
- (iv) In the sentences, in which verbal-phrases occur, such as: Lat. eo petitum (ad petendum),—Port. vou pedir, I am going to ask; Lat. venio auditum (ad audiendum),—Port. venho ouvir, I come to hear; the repetition of the pronoun, as the subject joined to each verb, is indispensable; ex: xa-so xa senoi se mira,—I go to call my people;—literally: I go + I call my people.
- (v) The same rule applies to the auxiliary verb $ik\dot{o}$, to be, in the formation of the *Imperfect Present*, as was said before [87]; ex: I am

making, = $x\dot{a}$ monhã xa $ik\dot{o}$; i. e: I make+I am; - she is working, = $a\dot{e}$ o-paraukê o- $ik\dot{o}$; - literally: she works+she is, etc.

The syntax of the object

- **103.—** In respect to the *object*, we find the following rules:
- (1) When it is a pronoun of the first or second person, it must be placed between the subject and the verb; ex: I kill you, $= xa \ p\tilde{e}\tilde{e}$ $iuk\dot{a}$; —thou killest me, $= r\dot{e} \ iuk\dot{a}$, etc.
- (II) But when the *object* is a substantive, or pronoun of the third person, the most regular use in the speech of the living tribes is to place it after the verb; although it seems, that the general rule in past times, was to place the verb always after its object; ex: thou hast the knife, rè kisé reko, (old order) or re-reko kisé (new order); —the serpent bites him, boia o-sôù aé, (new order) or boia aè o-sôù, (old order).

Sytatax of the verb

104.— In the Brasilian speech, as in many other savage languages, there is not the so-called, « auxiliary verb », as the Latin esse,

to be, [32] i. e:— a verb, which stands, as a mere connective of assertion between a subject and some word discribing this subject, and so has no meaning of its own, except that of indicating assertion, coupling together two words in the relation of subject and predicate.— In this language the simple union of a subject to a predicate supplies the corresponding value of such a verb; ex: xè katù, means—I am good, I have goodness, or more strictly, my goodness;—rè porànga, means—thou art beautiful, thou hast beauty, or simply,—thy beauty.

For better illustration we present below other examples of the kind:

BRAS.	ENGL.
Saku sera inė?	Are you warm? lit: warm
[90,2]	you?
Ixè sakú	I am warm; i. e: I warm.
Ixè intimad sakù.	I am not warm; lit:
» » »	I nothing warm.
Inė ruỳ será?	Are you cold? lit:
» » »	you cold?
Ixè inti-ma à se ruy	I am not cold? i.e:
» »	I nothing+I cold
Rė sekŭiė serd?	Art thou fearful? lit:
» » »	thou fearful?
Hēhē ixè xa sekŭiè	Yes, I am fearful? i.e:
	yes, I myself, fearful.

- » The verb *iko* which has been considered by some writers, as an equivalent to the » auxiliary verb to be, meaning mere assertion, is not so; it signifies, on the contrary, a particular condition or situation of the subject, that is; it expresses a concrete mode of being and the actual relation of the subject with the predicate in a definite way.
- » In English there is want of this special verb; because the verb—to stand,—which seems like it, keeps, in general, the same particular meaning of the Latin stare, to be erect.
- » But in the Romance languages this verbstare has not kept such a limited signification, and, in general, means the existence of a subject in a certain state or condition at a certain time. From the following examples will be better understood what is its proper use and import; ex:
- » It.—stò benè, Sp.—stoy bien, Port.—estou bom, » original Latin words »—sto bene, which means precisely I stand well; whilst the actual meaning of this sentence in the above Romance languages is: I am well, or rather, I feel well now.
- » The meaning of the Brasilian verb *iko* is entirely identical with the aforesaid *stare* of the Romance languages; and, therefore, if

we had to express the foregoing sentences,—

xè katù, rè poranga, combined with such
a verb, saying, for instance,— xà-ikò katù,
re-ikò poranga, their signification, now, would be,
precisely, this:— I am well or I feel well, at this
moment, and thou lookest pretty, at this moment,
— which would be different from their previous
meaning.

« In short, the verb *iko* always implies the idea of a certain state at the time spoken of. »

105.—Another fact, which we consider, as deserving especial remark, is the use of adjectives agreeing with verbs in the same way, as if these were true substantives; ex: $-p\dot{a}k$, to awake, $-x\dot{e}\ p\dot{a}k$, my waking; $-k\dot{e}r$, to sleep, $-r\dot{e}\ k\dot{e}r$, thy sleeping; -so, to go, -i- $x\dot{o}$, =i- $s\dot{o}$, his going, etc.

In such a usage we discover manifest relics of the preceding period of the language, when words had yet no grammatical distinction among them, that is; when all words were the original expressions of feelings and ideas, scarcely distinguished, as predicative and demonstrative roots.

The peculiar construction of some verbs

106.—A very notable idiom of the Brasilian language is the peculiar construction of certain verbs, which appear governing another verb, as their object. Thus, for instance:—

« Lat. — volo videre, I wish to see, = Br. — xa mahē pôtare; literally, = Ito see wish; —

« Lat.— jubetis illum occidi, you order him to be killed, = Br.— pê-iukā kāre aè, or pē aṭ pê-iukā kāre; lit. = you to kill order him, or you him to kill you order.

« Lat.— scimus Tupy loqui, we can speak Tupy, = Br.— ianė ia-neheż kudu Tupy; lit: we speak can Tupy, &, &.

The verbs, which usually require this especial construction of the sentence, are: potare, to wish or will; kuau, to know or can;—maasy, to need or to feel uneasy about; kare, to make or to bid make. [94]

— The sentences formed with these verbs also constitute an exception to the general rule of pronouns, as subjects, which we have treated of already in the foregoing. [102]

To need and (to) will

distinction, made by our savage people, between the two ideas, — expressed by the verbs (to) will and to need. They express them by the words « pôtare, and masy » — The latter is derived from the root — asy, to feel pain or grief; cf: — mô-asý, to be sick or to feel hurt; — ye-môasý, to be stimulated or aggravated; — mã-asy, to grow sick; etc.

Now, let us see the distinction: potare is used, when they mean to express a desire or want, the satisfaction of which depends on human power, as, for instance: I wish to go, = xa so potare, or I desire to eat fish, = xa \hat{u} -potare pira, & &. But when, instead of a simple desire, depending on their free-will or choice, they speak of a natural necessity, as of drinking, eating, sleeping, etc., they never use the verb - potare, - but the verb masy only, which expresses a necessity imposed on man.

Indeed, we can rightly say: — we wish to eat fish, or to eat bread, &; but we must say, — we need eating, as it is a thing indispensable to life.

And it is for this reason, that sentences, such as, —I need eating, and drinking, are usually expressed in Brasilian by the verb masy; namely: $xa-i\hat{u}$ $mas\hat{y}$; — lit:—I eating or drinking need.

« As is seen from the preceding example, this verb or verbal root masy is liable to the same grammatical construction of the verbs—potare, kuau, etc. [See 106]. »

Est meum, est tuum, etc.

108.— As it is natural to their intellectual conditions, savage people, in the most ordinary way of speaking, use only concrete names. It is clear, that abstract words denote a certain degree of mental culture, to which, in general, they cannot attain by their simple way of living restricted to eating, drinking, hunting and the like.

Hence results, that phrases like these: Lat.—
est meum, = Fr. — c'est a moi, — it is mine;
and again: Lat.—est tuum, = Port.— e' teu, it is
thine; —can only be expressed in Br. lang. by

the possessive agreeing with a noun, clearly expressed, namely: $s\dot{e}$ $ma\dot{a}$, $n\dot{e}$ $ma\dot{a}$, = my thing, thy thing.

« The copula est (=is) is omitted, because such a verb does not exist in Brasilian». [104]

DIVISION OF TIME

- **109.**—Brasilian savage tribes did not divide time into months and weeks; at the most, they indicated the space between the one moon and the other, by the word $yac\dot{y}$, which means, properly, the moon.
- a) But, afterwards, through being catechised, or through dealing with white people, they have come to designate the days of the week with special names, as follows:

ENGLISH	BRAS.
Sunday	(1) Motôù or metuù.
Monday	(2) Morauke-pé.
Tuesday	(3) Morauke-mokoī.
Wednesday	(4) Morauke-mosapur.
Thursday	(5) Sûpapaú.
Friday	(6) Iúkuakú.
Saturday	(1) Saurú.

- (1) $Mot\delta\dot{u}$,= $m\delta$ (formative element of verbs), [96] + $tu\dot{u}$ = $potu\dot{u}$, rest, repose;=the restingday.
- (2) Moraukepé, = morauke, to work, + pé = yepé, one; = the first working day.
- (3) Morauke-moko \hat{i} , = morauke, + moko \hat{e} , two;=the second working day.
- (*) Morauke-mosap $\ddot{u}r$, = morauke, + mosap $\ddot{u}r$, three;=the third working-day.
- (5) Sûpapau, sû=sôô, meat, + papau=opau, to be finished;—the day in which the eating of meat is finished.
- (°) Iúkuakú,=ukúakú, to fast, i. e:-iú, to eat or the eating, + kuakú, to put a stop to;= a day, in which eating is suppressed.
- (7) Sauru, = sabaru, is a corruption of the Portuguese word sabbado, Saturday.

Days and nights

b) The savages divide day and night into several portions of time, after the position of the sun in the day-time, after the course or the rising and setting of the moon or the stars, at night.

We give, in the examples below, a complete idea of this usage:

and the state of t

Space of time Names

From the sun-rise to 9
o'clock Kôêma (morning).
From 9 o'clock to noon. Koarasy-uaté, (sun
high).
- Noon Saié, or iand àra (ian-
dara,=iandė,our,
+ <i>dra</i> , time,= our
time.)
From noon to 5 o'clock.— Ara, (time).
From 5 o'clock to 7
o'clock in the evening Karûka, (darkening.)
From 7 o'clock to mid-
night Pitûna, (quite dark).
- Midnight Păsaie.
From midnight to 4
o'clock Pitûna pokû (long
From 4 o'clock to 6 in night.)
the morning Koêma piranga (mor-
From 6 o'clock to 9 ning red.)
o'clock Koêma.

SALUTATION OR GREETING

- 110.— The words used by the savages, as greeting, which may correspond to our "good morning, good evening" etc, are these:— Iané koéma, good morning, that is, literally:—our morning;—Iané karûka, good evening, i. e:—our evening;—iané pituna, good night,—literally:—our night.
- The person, the salutation is addressed to, ought to reply in each one of these cases:— $Indau\dot{e}$, that is,— thine also. This word $indau\dot{e}$ is $= Ind(\dot{e})$, thine, $+ au\dot{e}$ also.

COLOURS

111 Those, which they distinguish ordi-
narily, are the following:-
White Murútinga (in compound
words— $tinga$, only.
Yellow Taua, (also yuba).
Black Pixuna or pitûna (in
comp. words—ûna,only.
Red Piranga.
Azure Suikŭra.
Green Iakŭra.
Grey Tuŭra.

REVIEW OF VARIOUS AGGLUTINATIVE FORMS

(I). - To mark number:

112

Kurumī, a boy	Kurumī-eta, boys	s.
Kisé, a knife	Kisé-éta, knives.	
Meapé, a loaf	Meape-êta, loave	es.
$P\hat{o}$, the hand	Pô-étá, hands.	
Putýra, a flower	Putyra-étá, flowe	ers.
Sesa or tesa (t=s)		
anteye	Tesá-êtá, eyes.	
Taina, a child	Taīna-êta, childre	en.
Kôahá, this	Kôahá-êta, these.	
$N\tilde{a}h\dot{a}$, that	Nahã-etá, those.	
Nahā-amô, that other	Nahã-amô-êtá,	those
	others.	
Amô, other	Amo-êta, others.	
Sè-maá, mine	Sè maa-èta, mine	(plur).
Nè-mad, thine	Nè-mad-êtd, thine	(plur).
I-mad, his or hers	I-mad-êta, theirs	, ,
Yané mad, our	Yanè-mad-etd, or	
Aè, he, she, it	Aétà, they [33].	

(II). - To mark gender:

(a)

Apegaua, man... (*) Kunhã, woman. Kurumī, boy..... Kunhã-tên, girl. Mû, brother..... Rendêra, sister. Tùba, father..... Sý, mother.

(e)

Anâma-apegaua, a	
male relation	Anama-kunhã, a female relation.
Ydudra-apegdua,dog	Yauara-kunhã, bitch.
Pixâna-apegaua, he-	
cat	$Pix\tilde{a}na$ - $kunh\tilde{a}$, she cat.
Suasúmè apegaua, he	
goat	Suasùmè-kunhã, she
	goat.
Tapýra-apegáua, an	
0X[31, 32]	Tapýra-kunhã, a cow.

 $^{(\}mbox{\ensuremath{^{^{\prime}}}})$ — This form, as we see, is not agglutinative; the gender is rendered by distinct names.

(III) .- To form augmentatives and diminutives

(a)

Apegaua, man... Apegaua-uasú, a tall man, (=Port.—homenzarrão.

Kunhā, woman.. Kunhā-uasú, a big woman, (=Port.—mulherona.

Kurumī, boy..... Kurumī-uasú,a big boy,(= Port.—rapagão.

Oka, house Oka-uasii,a large house, (=Port.—casão.

(e)

Apegaua, man... Apegaua-mir \tilde{i} , a short man, (= Port. - homensinho.

Kunh \tilde{a} , woman... Kunh \tilde{a} -mir $\tilde{\imath}$, a short woman, (=Port.—mulher-sinha.

Kurumī, boy.... Kurumī-mirī, a little boy (= Port. - rapa-zinho.

Oka, house..... Oka-mir $\bar{\imath}$, a small house. [35, 36]

(IV).—To mark degree of quality or to express comparison

(a)

Katù, good Kutu-pyre, better.

Turusù, great,
large, broad.... Turusu-pyre, greater, larger, broader.

Poxi, bad Poxi-pyre, worse.

Mirī, small or little Mirī-pyre, less, lesserPoku, long Poku-pyre, longer.

Poranga, fine,
pretty Poranga-pyre, finer, prettier.

(e)

Katú, good...... Katu(r)êté, very good.
Maraáre, tired... Maraáre(r)êté, very tired.
Poranga, fine.... Poranga-êté, very fine or the finest.
Turusú, great.... Turusu-êté, very great, the greatest. [70]

(V). — To express state, condition, business or office, etc.

[37 to 65,+95 to 97]

Kauī, brandy.... Kauî-piranga, wine, (piranga, red.

Kunhã, woman... Kunhã-koâra-yma, a virgin, (= koāra, "foramine,+ yma,sine",= an intact or untouched woman,intrega filia.

» Kunhā-imêna-momoxikarā, an adulteress, (imena, married, + momoxi=mopoxi, to ruin or to viciate,+(k)ara, an agent, or person; = a woman, who viciates matrimony.)

. Kunhã-dba, a gown, (oba, clothes.

Meapé, bread.... Meapé-monhangara, a baker, (monhang, to make, +ara, an agent;=a person, who makes bread. Mendara, to marry

or matrimony... Mendasara-yma, a bachelor; « — mendara, + (s)ara, an agent, + yma, without or not; = a man not married.

Mendûba, father in-law; «
mendara, + uba == tuba,
father; i. e: the father
of matrimony.

Mira, people.... Mira-resa-pé, publicly; « mira, + resa = sesa, eyes, + pè (prep.) in; = in the eyes of the people.

Mirà-reapi, an uproar, a mob; « mirà, + reapi = teapi, noise; = the noise of people.

 $Mira-rekò-rup\grave{y}$, popular, common; «mira, + $rek\grave{o}$, custom, + rupy, by (prep.); = according to the popular custom.

 $M\hat{o} = monh\tilde{a}$, to

make....... Mo-apyre-saba, increase, augment « mo, + (a) pyr = pyre, more, +(s) aba, a suffix, like the English ness in the word goodness; = to make something become more.

Mokaua or mo-

kaba, musket. Moka-oka-mirī, garrison; « mokáua, +oka, house;

+miri, small; = a place, where - in there are soldiers with muskets.

Mokaua or mo-

, 1000 x 2 2 0 1 1

kaba, musket.. Moka-oka-osu, fortress, « moka-oka, + osu, great;i e: a place where-in there are a great many muskets.

Okuau = kuau, to know, or to be

learned....

Okudu-yma-osú, a savage man : « okuau, + yma without, + osu, great; = a great ignorant man.

 $Oyab\acute{y} = yab\grave{y}$, to miss, to mistake.

Oyapy-akanga-pupé, to commit a blunder; « ya $p\dot{y} = yab\dot{y}, + akanga,$ head, $+pup\hat{e}$, in (prep.); = to miss with the head.

0-y $\dot{o}k = yok$, to separate.,....

O-yoka-iakanga-sui, to dissuade; « yok, + iakanga = akanga, + sui, from (prep.); = to remove outof the head.

O-pisik, to hold, to

grasp...... O-pisik-taýra-ráma, to adopt; «o-pisik, +taýra, son, + râma or arâma, to or for (prep.); i e: to take for a son.

(*) Paýa, priest or

friar Paýa-êtà-roka, a convent;

« paya-êtà, (plural)

friars, + (r)oka, house;

i, e: a house of friars.

» » Paýa-nongara, step-father;

« paýa, + nongàra, like

or alike; = a man, like

father.

Potare, to wish... Potare-uasic or potareopai, ambition, covetousness; « potare, + uasic
great, or opai, everything; = to covet all.

^(*) Corruption of the Port. word pae, father.

Taba, village or town Taba-pora, free-man, citizen ; « pora, person [40]; = who lives in the town. Taýra-angába, a god-son; $Ta\acute{y}ra$, son..... « taýra, + ang spirit, + aba, (suffix) thing; = a son by the spirit. Timiù, meal, re-Timiù-mônhangara, a past..... cook; « timiù, + monhangara, who makes. Tinoaba, the beard. Tinodba-monhangdra, a barber.

(VI). - To mark tenses of verbs:

Xa monok, I cut.. Xa monok-án, I have cut.

Re-kuáu, thou
knowest...... Re-kuáu-án, thou knewst.

Aē o-potáre, he desires....... Aē o-potáre-an, he desired.

Iandė ia-páu, we finish..... Iandė ia-páu-an, we finish.....

Pe-z-pê-saharu,you	
wait	Pez pe-saharù-an, you have waited.
Aita o-mahē, they	
look	Ait \dot{a} o-mah \ddot{z} -an, they looked.
-	
Xa monhã, I make	Xà monhã-kuri, I will make.
Re-mo-akù, thou	
warmest	Re-mo-aku-kuri, thou wilt warm.
Aê o-iko ikê, he is	
here	Aê o-ikô-kuri iké, he will be here
Iané ia-ú, we eat	
or we drink	Ianė ia-û-kuri, we will eat or drink.
Pê-raso, you take	
out	<i>Pê-rasò-kuri</i> ,you will take out.
Aêta o-mondû,they	
send	Aêta-o-mondù-kuri, they will send. [87 to s9]

(VII) To express the present, past, future agent, or subject:

 $Monh\tilde{a}$, to make... $Monh\tilde{a}$ -sara, who makes, now.

Monhã, to make.. Monhã-uảra or monhã pyra, that who has made.

Kanhem, to fly, to

run away..... Kanhem-bora or kanhempora, who runs away
very often or continually,
— a fugitive man.

Raso, to take away Raso-râma, about to take away.

— [For further illustration on these last words, see the nos. 41, 43, 44]

ORIGINAL WORDS

113.—The list below contains several terms of Brasilian speech, that we suppose to be, with a few exceptions, original ones, both in form and meaning.

^{- [}Besides, see "onomatopaic words" - no. 66].

A

A, formerly, the pronoun of the first person sing. and now used, as the *personal prefix* of the same person. [85]

 $A\tilde{a}n$ (interjection), I say not.

Ab, to open, to cut, to divide, to turn up; cf: -iby-ab, to break up the soil, (=iby, soil, +ab); -o-ab putyra, the flower expands, (=o, pers. prefix +ab, +putyra, flower).

Abá, creature, human being; cf: abd- $n\bar{e}\bar{e}$, human speech, that is, — the speech of the natives of the country, (= abd, + $n\bar{e}\bar{e}$, speech); — abd- $rek\dot{o}$, the state or natural condition of man, (= abd, + $rek\dot{o}$), state, condition, custom), [55];—abdr $b\hat{o}$ 0, human flesh, (= abd, + $rb\dot{o}$) = $s\hat{o}\hat{o}$ 0, flesh).

 $Ab\dot{y}$, to miss, that is, not to hit the mark, not to reach or to attain.

 $A\dot{e}$, he, this, that, etc. [46]

Aib or ayba, bad, evil, also an interjection, = unfortunate! poor-devil!

Aka, point; — cf: akudi, pointed; — akab, to fight, that is, — to turn the point of lance against somebody, (=aka,+ab, to turn).

Akú, warm, to warm.

Am, to be up, to stand firm, to rise up, to be over-placed or to over-rule.

Ambū (on.), sonorous, sounding, to sound.

Ami, to squeeze, to hold fast, to clinch, etc.

Ang, spirit, life, or the origin of life; — cf:
— $m\hat{o}$ -ang, to think, (= $m\hat{o}$, particle [n.96],
+ ang, spirit); and again: — mo-ang, to engender, to give life to.

 $Ap\dot{y}k$ or apig, to sit down, seated, steady, to be quiet, etc.; $cf:ib\dot{y}-apik$, to sit down, that is, to sit upon the soil, (=iby, land or soil, +apyk).

Ar, to be born, to occur, to fall, to bring forth, etc. [47]

 $As\dot{y}$, to be in pain, to ache.

Asi, great, large, big, tall, etc.

Atir, hill, heap, pile.

в

 $Ba\dot{e} = a\dot{e}$, thing, this, that, etc., etc. [45, 46] Bag, to turn, to move the body; ef: bang, turned up.

Bêbê (on.), to fly. [66]

 $B\dot{o}g$ (on.), to cleave, to crack, to be parted by force, etc.

Bobog (frequentative), to shoot, to burst with great noise.

Bùr (on.), to spout, to spurt, to spring up or to rouse, to gush out with noise.

E

 $\hat{E}\bar{e}$, (or $a\bar{e}$), yes, I say yes; — cf: $nh\bar{e}\bar{e}$, to tell, to speak, or the speech.

 \dot{E} , (contracted form of $a\dot{e}$), the third person, = another; cf: $ab\dot{a}\dot{e}$, a distinct or different person, (neither I, nor thou), $(ab\dot{a}, +\dot{e} = a\dot{e})$.

Em or $\hat{e}ma$, to empty, to become void.

Endi, to call, to name, to call upon.

 $E\tilde{o}$ or $t\tilde{e}\tilde{o}$, to die, to finish, to succumb or to yield, to fail.

Éu, (on.), to belch, or belching.

G

Goêne or guêna(on.), to vomit.

 $Gu\hat{e}y$ or $h\hat{e}y$ (on.), to toast, or rather, to frolic, frolicking.

Guegue (on. frequentative), to be hoarse, or having a rough voice, — raucus, or husky.

H

 $H\tilde{a}\tilde{a}ng$, to measure, to compare, to confer. $Hes\dot{a} = ses\dot{a}$, eyes.

Hiù, to depress, to lower.

 $H\dot{o} = s\dot{o}$, to go, to go away.

1

Iby, land, earth, origin. [48]
Ikê or ikỳ, here, to come in.

Ir or yr, to get loose, to leave off, and also (used as suffix) to raise, to pick up; cf: $ak\bar{a}$ -bir, to raise the head; -kaa-pir, to clear, to remove herbs or trees; -supir = tupir, to take up, to lift; -tipy-kuir, to distil, to take out the liquid, etc.

Iar (= ar), to take away, to take by force; cf: - iara, the owner.

Isig, to glue, to stick, to unite, to adhere, and also to hold, to catch.

Ita, stone, metal, in general. [57]

Iy or yg, water, to flow. [50]

« Arabic (Oriental Asia).....

T 11.1.1 / O 1 A 1 1	i;
« Koriaikish (Oriental Asia)	
« Semoyedish (Siberia)	ï, or iý;
« Kamtchakish (Oriental Asia).	iỳ, or ya;
« Mandingoish (Central Africa)	yì;
« Erse	uisg;
« Irish	isg;
« Albanean (South Europe)	ui;

[L'étude comparative des langues par le Baron de Merian, Pariz 1828.] K

Kaā, herb, wood, leaves of tree,; cf: ipėkakuānha or pekaā-guāna, medicinal herb, (pė =peb, flat, low,+kaā, herb,+guāna, to vomit; =an herb, which makes vomit, an emetic agent).

 $K\dot{a}b$, to wound, to strike, to hurt, to fight. [See — $ak\dot{a}b$].

Kar = kari, to order, to force to make, to constrain, etc.

Kau or kau, wine, $(ha\dot{a}, herb, +\hat{u}, drink, potion)$.

Kér, to sleep, sleeping.

Kuau, to know, to understand, etc.

 $Ku\bar{z}ku\bar{z} - «See - gu\bar{z}gu\bar{e} ».$

Kái, to burn, to be ardent.

 $K\hat{o}$, the plantation, (the place planted).

Kiiî, far, at great distance

Kuïr or kuir-kuir (on. frequentative), to rain, to drop, to trickle.

 $Ku\dot{a}$, the waist; $cf: ku-\dot{a}r$, to tie about, to gird, to embrace, etc.

Kuk (on.), to beat, to crack.

M

Maa, thing.

 $Ma\vec{e}$, (or $mah\vec{e}$) to see, to look, (the voice of one who indicates or shows a thing.

Mbaė, - « See baė ».

Mâmâ=maāmaā (frequentative), to file, to roll, to put a thing upon others, to make a bundle.

Mêmê, the same; that is, continuous, uninterrupted, as the two syllables repeated — mê-mê.

Mēen or meeng, to give.

Mi or mimi, to hide, or to abscond oneself.

Mô, to make. [96]

 $M\hat{u}$, brother, a relation.

N

 $Nh\bar{e}\bar{e}$, to speak. (See $\bar{e}\bar{e}$). To $nh\bar{e}\bar{e}$ belong the derivatives:

- « $N\bar{e}\bar{e}$ -gi, to swallow the word, or to be reticent...
 - « Neēg-ûrú (on.), to mutter, to whisper;
- « $N\bar{e}\bar{e}g\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, to speak too long, (— $ne\bar{e}g$, + $\hat{e}t\dot{a}$, much, many);
- « $N\bar{e}\bar{e}$ -taby, to speak incorrectly or to speak non-sense.

o

Ob = tob, leaves, in general; when is used as verb, it means to spread, to stretch, and also, to cover.

 $Og = \delta k$, (on.), to take by force, to pull, to pluck off, and also, which is squeezed out or sprung forth from one thing squeezed.

P

 $P\tilde{a}$ (on.), to sound, toned, sonorous, etc.

 $Pa\hat{a}$ (on.), to entangle oneself, (the voice of one who has something in the throat), to choke, etc.

Pab or pau, to finish, all is finished, completed; — cf: $pab\dot{e}$, all, all together, $(pab = p\dot{a}u + \dot{e} = a\dot{e}$, this or that thing).

Pag or pak, to awake, awaked.

Panpan (on.), to spring, to shoot out, to rebound.

 $P\dot{e}$, way, path, track, course; and from this: $p\dot{e}_{\dot{i}}\dot{a}r$, to cross, to athuarta place, to hinder. [47]

Peb, flat, low.

« Pebùr (is a derivative of peb), to swell, swollen,—to become flat.

Petėg or petėk (on.), to beat, that is, the clapping of hands.

Pi, the skin.

Pig, to cease, to leave off, to give over, to stop.

 $Pind\dot{a}$ or $pin\dot{a}$, to harpoon, or every thing which is harpooned;— $(pind\dot{a}$ is, precisely, the hook or fish-gig).

Pipig (on.), to boil, to gush violenty, and also to scintillate.

«Piròg (it is a derivative), to peel or to skin, etc; (pi, skin, $+ròg = \grave{o}g$, to take, to pull off).

Pitá, to stay, to rest in a place.

Piu, soft, smooth.

Pô, hand.

Pog = pok (on.), to break into pieces, to burst with great noise.

Puka (on.), to laugh, that is, to expand, to open one's heart.

Pong (on.), to sound, to beat, sounding.

 $P\hat{u}g$ (on.). to shoot out, to crack.

 $P\hat{u}p\hat{u}$ or pupur (on.), to boil, that is, the water of the pot boiling with noise.

 $P\tilde{u}p\tilde{u}$ or $p\tilde{u}pung$ (on.), to wound with blows, to strike buffets.

Py, foot, base, seat, sitting, etc.

Pya, heart, and also the thorax.

R

Ra, marked, painted, with stripes.

Rab, to loosen, to unbind or unfasten.

Ry = tiy, the liquid, the humor, sweat, or the current of water, etc.

Ririy, (frequentative) to tremble, to shake with cold or on account of fear.

 $R \delta b$, bitter, to embitter or to be embittered. $R \delta g = tog$, to cover, covering, etc., and also to stop.

S

Sãang, to ape, to imitate the voice of some-body.

Sa-sai (frequentative), to spread, to scatter about, etc.

Sem, to go out, to be off. — [See Em.]

 $Ses\dot{a} = tes\dot{a}$, eyes or sight, the sense of seeing.

 $S\hat{e}$ -sem (frequentative of Sem), to shed, to be dispersed, to empty.

 \hat{Sey} , to need. — [See Asy, 107].

Sir, sharp-pointed, keen-edged.

Sog = sol k (on.), to pluck off, to draw violently, etc.

So, to go.

 $S\hat{o}o$, animal, game, flesh or meat; and also, to feed or to give for food.

« $S\hat{o}\hat{u}$ (it is a derivative), to bite, that is, to eat meat; ($s\hat{o}\hat{o}$, meat, $+\hat{u}$, to eat).

 $S\dot{y}$ or sig, spring, fountain, origin, mother, a well. [See Ig].

T

 $T\dot{a}$, to abound, to exist in plenty, etc.

Tag=tak (on.) to beat, to make noise.

Tai = sai, acid ou sour, piquant.

Tang (it is a derivative), new, vigorous, fixed, hard; (ta, plentous, + ang, life or spirit).

 $T\dot{a}r$, to take or to catch. [47]

Tata (on.), fire; = the noise of fire burning wood.

 $T\tilde{a}t\tilde{a}$, (on.), strong, solid, having the sound of a well strung chord.

Tōtō (on.), to palpitate, palpitation.

Torib, merry, joyful, to rejoice, etc.

 $T\hat{u}$ or $t\hat{u}k$ (on.), to strike a blow.

 $T\hat{u}t\hat{u}$ (frequentalive), to wound somebody with blows.

Tùba, father. "From this word, we think,

was derived: Tupain, God; Tupa = tuba, father +an, elevation, superiority, or elevated, overruling,—i. e: the $father\ above$:"

Têtê or tutê, body, the human body. Tim, the nose.

U

U, to eat and drink.

Ub, to lie down, to rest in peace; (ub means, precisely, the thigh.)

Un, black or negro; $cf:-pit\bar{u}na$, night. $Ung\dot{a}$, to hand, to touch, to handlle, etc. Ur=tur, to come, to arrive.

X

Xaxa (on.), to tear, to cut asunder, etc.

CHAPTER XII

BRASILIAN COMPOSITIONS

114.— Under this head we arrange "the Lord's prayer" and a few legends of the Indians, written in Brasilian by Dr. Couto de Magalhães in his excellent work, O Selvagem, to which we

are already indebted for other references made in this book.

We have endeavoured to be literal injour translation imitating, as nearly as possible, the originals, and the only alterations made are owing to the orthography, that we have, especially, adopted.

It is unnecessary to be recollected, that with such a *translation* we mean, principally, to give — "more complete instances" of the usual speech of the Brasilian tribes and thus to enable the reader to appreciate, by himself, the correct application of the rules, we have stated before.

Accordingly, we will present: firstly, the original Brasilian compositons,— secondly, the English translation,— thirdly, the explanation of the grammatical construction and the meaning of each term separately.

NHANĖ RÚBA

- 115.— (¹) Nhanè Ruba o-iko uaa nahã ŭuák opė;
 - (2) Nè réra o-yo-moeté (t)o-ikó;
- (3) Re-mehē ianė arama ŭuaka, mamė reiko;

- (*) Nė remimutara (t)o-oyo-monhã ŭuaka-pė, ioŭr (*) ỹŭpe;
- (5) Ré-mehê oiy ianê arama ianê remiû ara yepê yepê sui-uàra;
- (°) Re-mehē ne gron iane angaipaua rese, may-aue ia-mehē kurt iane yron aita supe inti o-monhā-na katu uaa iane arāma;
- (1) Inti rexàre, ianè Iarà, ia-monhã poxì maà-étà;
 - (8) Repüsürú ianė opaī mad aŭa suì; Amen.

TRANSLATION

The Lord's prayer

Our Father which art in heaven;
Hallowed be thy name;
Thy will be done in earth, as it is in heaven;
Give us this day our daily bread;
And forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors;

And lead us not into temptation; But deliver us from evil; Amen.

(*) Iour moans either, or, and also, meither, nor. [100]

Literal EXPLANATION

- (¹) Nhanè=ianè, our; Ruba=tuba, father; o-iko, is; uad, who [78]; nahã, that; ŭudk or ybdh, heaven; opė, in.
- (2) Nė, thy; rėra, name; o, pers. prefix, yo, particle [97] moète, to venerate; to-ikė = o-ikė, be (the t is used to denote the third pers. of the Imperative), that is, be hallowed.
- (3) Re-mehē, give; ianė, us, arâma, to or for; ŭuäk, heaven; mamė, where; re-iko, Thou art;
- (*) Nè, thy; remimutara, will; (t sign of the Imperative) o (pers. pref.), yo-monhã, be done; ŭuaka-pè, in heaven; iuŭr, as well as; yŭpè = ibypè, in earth.
- (5) Re-mehē, give; oiy, today; ianė arâma, to us; ianė remiù, our bread; ara yepe yepė suiudra, day each one of.
- (6) Re-mehē, give; ne yron, thy forgiveness; ianè angaipaua resè, our debts for; maŷ-auè, as well as; ia-mehē kuri, we will give; ianè yron, our forgiveness; aita supè, them to; inti o-monhã, not do; katù, well; uad, who; ianè arâma, us to.

- (1) Inti re-xare, not leave; ianė Iara, our Lord, ia-monhā, we to do; poxi maa-eta, bad actions.
- (8) Re-pŭsŭrů, deliver; ianè, us; opaĩ, all; $ma\tilde{\alpha}$, things; $a\tilde{u}a = a\tilde{y}ba$, evil, that is, all evil things. Amen.
 - « May pituna o-yo-kudu an....»

116. Iupirungàua ramè, inti-maà pitūna; ara anhō opaī àra opè.

Pitūna o-kėri o-iko i vrupy-pė.

Inti-mad soô-e-td; opaī mad o-nhez.

Boia-Uasii membyra, ipaha, o-yo-menar yepê kurumî-uasii irûmo.

Koahá hurumi-uasú o-rekó masapŭr miasua katu-rêté.

Oiepė ara ôpė, o-senôi mosapur miasua, o-nheē aita supė:

« Pekor pe-uata, se remireko inti o-keri potare se irûmo.»

Miasua o-so-an.

Aramé aè o-senôi xemireko okèri arâma aè irûmo.

Xemireko o-suaxara: Inti rãi pitūna.

— Inti-mad pitūna; dra anhõ.

«Se ruba o-reko pituna.

Re-keri potare ramè se irûmo, re-mondii piamo aé parana rupy.

-Aè o-senôī musapur miasua;

Xemireko o-mundù aita i ruba oka piri oso o-piamo arâma yepê tukuman-rainha.

Aita o-săka ramè Boia-Uasù oka ôpé, koaha o-mehē aita supė tukuman-rainha, oyo-sikinau retė, o-nheē:

« Kusukùi āna ;— re-raso tenhē ; inti pepirari kuri;pe-pirari ramè, pe-kanhŭmo-kuri!

Miasûa o-sô-an; o-senon teapù tukuman rainha pépè: ten, ten, ten... = tukûra-êtà reapù, iùi-êtà irûmo, o-nhēēg-ar uaa pitūna ramė.

Miasùa o-iko rame ana apekatu, oiepe suiudra o-nhee i irômo-udra-etd supe: «Mad-td koakd teapu?

« Ia-so ia mahē?»

Iakumāŷua o-nheē; «Inti-mad;— kurumū tahdia kanhūmo kuri;—pe-apukui,ia-so āna!» Aitd o-so ān.

Aita o-senon o-iko teapu; inti o-kudu mad nhãhã teapu uad.

Aità o-ikò apekatu rete ana rame, aità o-yo-

mo-atiri igàra-pitera pê, opirari arâma tukuman rainha, o-mahē arâma mad o-iko i pôpè;

Oiepė o-modyka tatė, — aitė o mo-yotyku iraity, osikinau oikė uaė tukuman rainha; o-kėnar.

Aita o-pirari ramé, kuruty-uara pitûna-uasû ana!

Aramé iakumāyua o-nheī : « Ia-kanhămo ! «Kunhā mokù (s)öka ôpè o-kudu-an iané iapirāri koahā tukuman-rainha ! »

Aitá o-só an.

Kunhã moku sởka ôpè o-nheẽ i mêna supè : « Aitả opirari pitūna. Kuỳr ia-sở ia-sarú koêma ».

Aramé opaī maā, o-sāin oikā uaa kaā rupy, oysereo soo arama, uyrā arama.

Opaī maā, o-sàin oikō paranā rupy, oyerèo ipēkā arâma, pirā arâma;

Uru-sakanga o-yeréo idudra-eté arâma; pirakasdra oyseréo i igdra irūmo ipeka arâma: i akanga ipèk-akanga arâma;— i igâra ipèka setè arãma; i apukuitàua oyerèo ipèka-rétima arâma.

Boia-Uasu membyra o-mahē ramė yasi-tātauasu, o-nheē i mēna supė: «Koēma o-iur oiko; xa so xa moin ara pitūna sui.» Aramè aè o-maman inimô, o-nheē: «Inde cuyubī kuri,o-nheēgar arāma,koêma o-iur ramè kuri.» Koai o-monhā cuyubī: o-mo-piranga i setima uruku irûmo, o-motinga i akanga tabatinga irumo; — o-nheē ixupė: «Re-nheēgarkuri opaī arā opė, koēma o-iur ramė!

Ariré aè o-mamán inimô, o-nheê: — «Indé inambu kurî.»

O-pisika tanimuka, omburi sesè, o-nheè i-xupè:—«Inè inambu kuri, onheèngar arama kuruka ramè,pitūna ramè,pŭsaie rame,pituna-poku ramè, koêma piranga ramè.» [100, b]

Ad-sui uyrd-êtâ o-nheīgār ara katu ôpē, koêma o-ur ramè, omorôri arama ara.

Mosapŭr miasua o-sŭka ramė, kurumī-uasu o-nheë aita supė: «Penhë inti pe-supi-uâna! «Penhē pe-pirari pituna; Penhē pe-monhā uān opaī maa okā-yma! Aarsė pe-yerėo makakai arâma opaī ara opė;— pe-uata mŭra-rakanga rupy eatire....

HOW NIGHT BEGAN >

In the *beginning* there was no night; — day only was all time;

The night was sleeping in the depth of waters; There were no animals; all things spoke; The daughter of the *Great Serpent*, they tell, had married to a young-man;

This young-man had three faithful servants.

One day he called these three servants and said to them.

— « Go and walk, because my wife is unwilling to sleep with me; »

The servants went away; and then he called his wife to sleep with him;

The daughter of the *Great Serpent* replied to him:

"It is night not yet".

The young-man said to her: — There is no night; day only is all time;

The young-woman spoke:— « my father possesses the night.

« If you want to sleep with me, bid seek it there on the river. »

The young-man called the three servants;

The young woman ordered them to go to her father's house and to bring a stone of tucumãn; (*)

The three servants went out, arrived at the house of the *Great Serpent*; — this gave them a stone of tucuman, completely closed, and said to

^(*) It is a Brasilian palm-tree.

them: — « Here it is; take it. — Take care! Do not open it, otherwise all of you shall perish!»

The servants returned, and were hearing noise within the stone of tucumán, thus: -tin, tin, tin, xi... xi, xi..., it was the note of the cricket and of the small frogs, who sing at night.

When they were far already, one of them said to his companions: — « Let us see what noise is this? »

The pilot observed: «No; else, we shall be lost. Let us go away; — pull the oars!»

They went on, and continued to hear that noise within the stone of tucuman, and could not understand what noise was that;

When they were far off, they assembled in the middle of the canoe, — lighted a fire, melted the pitch, which covered the stone, and opened it.

Suddenly all grew dark!

The pilot, then, said: « We are lost! The young-woman, at home, knows already, that we opened the stone of tucuman! »

They went on their voyage.

The young-woman at home said then to her husband: —

« They delivered night; Let us wait for the morning. »

At this time all the things, which were scattered throughout the wood, became transformed into animals and birds;

The things, which were scattered throughout the river, were transformed into goose and fish.

From the basket was engendered the panther; the fisher with his canoe was transformed into a goose:— from his head sprang the head and bill of the goose; — from the canoe sprang the body of the goose; — from the oars sprang the legs of the goose.

— The daughter of the *Great Serpent*, when she saw *Venus* (star), said to her husband: « Dawn approaches; I go to separate the day from the night. »

Then she rolled up a thread, and said: «Thou shalt be a cuyubin. » So she made the cuyubin. She painted the head of the cuyubin white with tabatinga (clay); she painted his legs red with urucii (a red fruit), and, then, she said: «Thou shalt sing, for ever, when morning breaks. »

- She rolled up, again, the thread, scattered ashes over it, and said: « Thou shalt be *inambü*, to sing during the whole time of the night and of the dawn. »
 - Thenceforward, all birds have sung at

their determined times, and all together sing at dawn to rejoice the beginning of day...

— When the three servants arrived, the young-man said to them:— « You were not faithful; you opened the stone of tucumân; you set free [night; all things were lost, — and you, yuorselves, who shall be transformed into monheys, — and shall walk, for ever, climbing on the branches of trees!

Literal TRANSLATION

Iupirungdua ramè, inti-mad pitūna; ara anhō opaī dra opė.

Beginning when, nothing night: day alone all time at.

Pitūna o-kėri o-iko iy rupy-pė. Night slept it was water's-depth within. Inti-mad soô-ėtd; opaī mad o-nheē. Nothing animals; all things spoke. Boia-Uassú membỳra, ipahá, o-yo-menar yepė kurumi-uasú irimo.

Serpent-Great's daughter, they tell, married one boy big with.

Koaha kurumi-uasii o-reko mosapur miasia katu-retė.

This boy big had three servants faithful very.

Oiepè ara ôpè, o-senôi mosapŭr miasùa, o-nheē aita supè:

One day at, he called three servants, said them to:

" Pēkoē, pê-uata; se remireko inti o-kèri potare sė irûmo."

« Go, walk; my wife not sleep will me with.» Miasua o-so-an.

Servants went.

Aramè aè o-senôi xemirekó okeri arâma aè irûmo:

Then he called his wife sleeping for, him with.

Xemireko o-suaxara: Inti raī pitûna.

Wife replied: Not yet night.

Inti-mad pitūna; ara anhõ.

Nothing night; day alone.

Se ruba o-reko pitûna.

My father has night.

Re-keri polare ramè se irumo, re-môndu piâmo aè parana rupy.

Thou sleep to wantest if me with, bid seek it river on.

Aè o-senõi mosapŭr miasua;

He called three servants;

Xemirekó o-môndu aitá i ruba oka piri, o-só opiamo arãma yepė tukuman rainka.

Wife bade them her father's house to, to go to seek for one tucuman-stone.

Aità o-săka ramè, Boia-Uasu oka ôpè, koahd o-mehē aità supė oiepė tukuman-rainha oyo-sykindu reté, o-nheē:

They arrived when, Serpent-Great's house at, this gave them to one tucuman-stone closed quite, she said:

- "Kusukui ãna ; re-raso tenhē ; inti pē-pirarihuri; pē-pirari ramė, pê-kanhŭmo kuri"
- « Here it; take with you; not open shall; open if, you be lost shall. »

Miasúa o-só àn, o-senoñ teapú tukuman-rainha pôpè: — ten-ten, ten-ten... = tukùraétá reapú iùì-étá irūmo, o-nheēgar uad pitûna ramè.

Servants went away, they heard noise tucuman-stone within:—tin-tin, ten-tem...—cricket's noise small-frogs with, sing who night when. Miasùa o-ìko rame âna apekatú, oiepe suiuara o-nhez i irumo-uara-eta supe: " Maa ta koaha teapú? — Ia-so ia-mahz?

Servants were when already far off, one of them said his companions to: — " What this noise? We go we see?

Iakumâỳua o-nheĩ: "Inti-mad; kurumữ tahá ta-kanhŭmo kuri; — pĩ-apukůt, ia-sò ana!

Pilot said: "Never; otherwise we be lost shall; pull the oars, let us go away!

Aīta o-so an.

They went away.

Aitá o-senon o-ikó teapú; inti o-kuáu mad nhahã teapú uda.

They hear they were noise, not they understood that noise what.

Aita o-iko apekatů-rete an rame, aita o-yomoatiri igara-pitéra opé, opiràri arama maa oiko i pôpé...

They were far off when, they grouped canoe-middle in, open to tucunam-stone, see to what was its inside.

Oiepė o-modýk tatá; aitá o-moyotikŭ iraitỹ, o-sikìndu o-ikỏ uaâ tukuman-rainha; — o-kēnar.

One lighted fire; they melted the pitch, covering was which tucuman-stone; they opened...

Aitá opirări ramé, kuruty-uara pitūna-uasú âna!

They opened when, suddenly night every where!

Aramé iakumáyua o-nheī: "Ia-kanhŭmo! Kunhã-mohù söka ôpè — o-kuáu-an ianè ia-pìrari ko-aká tukuman-rainha!"

Then pilot said: "We are lost! Young woman house at knew already we opened this tucuman-stone!"

Aità o-so an...

They went on.

Kunhã-mokù soka ôpè o-nheð i mēna supè:

« Aita o-pirari pitûna.

Young-woman house at, said her husband to: « They opened night.

- « Kuŭr ia-so ia-sarù koêma. »
- « Now, we go we wait morning. »

Aramè opaī mad o-sain, o-ikó uad kad rupy, oyeréu soô arāma, uyrd arāma.

Then all things scattered, were which wood throughout, transformed animals into, birds into.

Opaī-mad o-sain, o-ikỏ uad parand rupy, oyerėu ipėka arãma, pird arãma.

All things scattered, were which river throughout, transformed goose into, fish into.

Uru-sakanga oyeréu idudra-eté arâma; pirdkasdra oyeréu i igdra iromo ipeka arâma: i akanga, ipeka akanga arâma; — i igdra, ipeka-seté arama; — i apukuitdua oyeréu ipeka retima arâma.

Basket became transformed panther into; fisher was transformed his canoe with goose into: his head goose'shead into; his canoe goose's body into; his oars were transformed goose's legs into.

Boia-Uasù membyra o-mahē ramė yasi-tatáuásu, o-nheē i mena supė: «Koėma o-iùr o-iko; xa so xa moin ara pitūna sui.»

Serpent-Great's daughter saw when star-fire great, said her husband to: « Dawn comes it is, I go I divide day night from.»

Aramé ai o-maman inimô, o-nheē: « Indé cuyubī kuri, o-nheēg-ar arâma koéma o-ur ramè kuri. » Koai o-monhā cuyubī: —

Then she rolled up a thread, said: « Thou cuyubin shalt, sing to morning come when shall ». So she made cuyubin.

O-mopiranga i setima urukú irûmo, — omotinga i akanga tabatınga irumo; o-nheē i-xupè: —«Re-nheēg-ar kuri opaī ara opė koema o-iur ramė.»

She whitened his head white clay with, she reddened his legs uruci with; she said him to:

« Thou sing shalt all time at, morning comes when.

Aramė aė o-maman inimô, o-nheē: « Indė inambū kuri.»

After she rolled up the thread, said: « Thou inambú shalt.

O-pisika tanimuka, ombúre sesé, o-nhev i-xupė: « Inė inambù kuri, onhevg-ar arâma, karuka ramė, pitûna ramė, păsaiè ramė, pitûna-poků ramė, koema piranga ramė [109, b].

She took ashes, scattered on it, said him to: « Thou inambu shalt, sing to, evening at, and during the whole night... [109, b].

Aà-sui uyrd-età o-nhezgar ara katú ôpė, kosma o-iúr ramė, omorory arâma ara.

Thenceforward birds sing times determined at, and morning comes when, rejoice to day.

Mosapăr miasua o-săka ramė, kurumî-uasů o-nheē aita supė: « Penhē inti pe-supi-uân! « Penhē pe-pirari pituna. Penhē pe-monhā uân opaī-maā okayma; aarsė pe-yerėu makakai arāma opaīara opė; pe-uata măra-rekanga rupy eatire!....»

Three servants arrived when, young-man said them to: « You not faithful were! You delivered night. You made all things be lost; therefore you shall become monkeys into, ever for; you shall walk tree-branches over climbed!...»

KUNHÃ-MOKU O-SÔ UAA O-SIKARI MENA

1

Kunhã-môků, Mykùra

117. Oiépè kunhã-moků o-nhèë i sy supė : « Xa sỏ xa sìkari se mêna ;

« Xa purardre rêtè iu-masy! »

Aè o-sỏ ãn ; o-sửka o-ăn, mamé o-ikỏ môsapừr pê, o-puranù : maà-tả Inayê pê ? (*)

Oiepè pê ôpe, aè o-mahī inambu-raua ; aramē aè o-maité-oān : — Koahā Inayē pê.

O-sò-ãn aè rupy.

Opausàpe, o-yo-iùanti òka, mamè o-ìkò yepè uàimi ô-apyk-oikò uad tatà remehupe; o-nhēc:

Inė serd Inayė sy ? Udimi o-suaxdra : — Ixė aė tenhē .

^(*) Inagé is the Brasilian name of a sparrow-hawk, very beautiful and rapacious. And as it seems natural, what is fine and able to get plonty of food is considered by the savage, as the richest and the best one.

Kunhã-mokù o-nhēē: Xa iùr aè piri xa menar arâma aè irùmo.

Udimi o-nhēē: — se mbyra mira poxi-retė aė; aa-resė xa sò xd iumimi inė.

Kônhả uảmi inti Inayê sy; Mykùra (*) sy aè.

Karuka ramė i mbyra o-sŭka-oân; o-rure- : an xemidra, = uird-etd.

I sy o-mongaturù aità o-ù arama.

Aità o-ù o-ikò ramè, i sy o-puranù i-xui: O-sŭka ramè oiepè amo tetama-udra, mdy tahà re-reko aè?

Mykùra o-suaxdra : Xa senòi aè o-ù arâma ianè irûmo.

Aramè uaimi o-senoi kunhã moků, o-iumimi o-ikò uaâ.

Kunhā-moku o-ù-ān aita irûmo.

Mykūra sorib o-iko, maa-resė kunhā-mokū poranga rête.

Pitùna opè, mykùra o- sỏ ramè, okèr arâma kunhã mokù irûmo, aè ompù-ân aè o-nhêē:

Inti xa ieno potáre nè irùmo, maa-resè inêma rêtè inè.

Koêma ramê, uaimi o-mondû ramê kunhã mokû o-iuûka iepea, kunhã mokû o-iaudu-an.

^(*) Animal like a fox.

H

Kunhã mokú, Urubú

O-săka mosapăr pê ôpè, o-só amô rupy;
O-săka òka ôpè, o-iăuanti amô udimi irûmo;
O-puranû t-xui: Indè serd Inayé sy?
Udimi o-suaxara: — Ixè aè tenhē.

Kunhã moků o-nhēē: xa ùr aè piri, xa menar arâma aè irûmo.

Uàimi onhēč: Xa só xa iumimi indė, sė mbỳra poxi retė sesė.

Koahá uàimi urubú sy.

Karuka ramė, i mbyra o-sŭka; o-rūre xemidra, = itapuru mirīėta, onhēhē i sy supė:

« Kusukui pirā mirītā, se sy. »

I sy o-mongaturú ximidra.

Aità o-ù oikò ramè, aè o-puranù:

Aud supè o-sŭka uad amô tetâma sul, mad-td re-monhã i-xupé ?

Urubú o-suaxára: xa senoi aè o-u arâma ianè irûmo.

Aramė i sy o-senoi kunhā-moku.

Urubů sorib-etė an, kunhã-moku poranga retè resè.

Pitûna ôpè, aè o-so ramé o-yenõ aè irumo, kunhã-mokù ompù-àn, inēma resé aè.

Amô koēma ôpė, udimi o-mondu ramė kunhã moků o-iuuka arama iaped, kunhã-moků o-iauau-ãn....

III

«Kunhã-moků, Inayé»

Aè o-sŭka ramè mosapŭr pê ôpè, o-so amô rupy.

O-sŭka oka ôpė, o-mahē yepė udimi poranga-retė, o-puranù i-xui:— Inė Inayè sy serà?

Udimi o-suaxara : Ixè aè tenhè.

Kunhã-moku o-nhêž: xa-ur aè piri xa menar arama aè irumo.

Uaimi o-nhēē: xa só xa-iumimi indė; sė mbyra mira poxî-retė!

Karuka ramė, mbyra o-săka; o-rûre ximidra, = uirā-mirī-tā.

I sy omon-gaturů uřra mirîtá aitá où arāma. Aitá où o-iko rame, i sy o-puranù i-xui:

Aud supè o-săka uaă rame amô tetâma sui, maâ ta re-monhă i-xupe?

Inayê o-suaxdra : — Xa-senoi aè oû arâma ianê irûmo.

Aramè uâimì o-senoi kunhã-mokú.

Inayè sorib reté, kunhã mokú poranga reté resè.

Aeta o-keri-an iepe-uasu.

Amo ara-ôpė, Uribii o-săka Inayè oka ôpė, o-sikari arāma kunhā mokú.

Aità omara-monhã-oan retê kunhã-mokû resê.

Inayè ompûk-ân Urubû akanga.

I sy omo-akù iy, mo-asûk i akanga.

Iy saku retė oan; aaresė i akanga-saua-yma opita ara opė.....

"THE YOUNG-WOMAN WHO GOES TO SEEK HUSBAND"

I

"The Young-woman and the Fox"

One day, a young-woman said to her mother: "I go to seek my husband; I am feeling great hunger".

She went away; arrived wherein there were three paths, and asked:— which is the Inaye's path?....

In the one path, she saw some feathers of inambù; then she thought:— This must be the Inaye's path.

She went along this.

At last, she met a house, where was an old woman seated at the fire-side, and asked to her: "Are you the Inaye's mother?"

The old-woman replies: — I, myself, yes.

The young-woman said: I come to marry with him.

The old woman said:— "My son is a very troublesome fellow! Therefore I go to hide you."

This old woman was not the mother of Inaye, but she was the Fox's mother.

In the evening, her son came back, and brought his game, = birds.

His mother tempered them for eating; and when they were eating, the mother asked to son:— if now somebody came here from other land, how should you treat him?

The Fox replied:— I would call him to eat with us.

Then the old woman called the young-woman, who was hidden.

This ate with them.

The Fox became very content, because she was very beautiful.

At night, the Fox went to sleep with the youngwoman; but this expelled him, saying, that he was too stinking.

When in the morning the old woman bade the young-woman seek fuel, this went away, and...

II

« The Young-woman and the Carrion-Crow. »

She arrived at three paths, and went through another...

At last, she arrived at a house, where she met other old woman, to whom she asked:—Are you the Inayè's mother?

The old woman replied: Yes, I am.

The young-woman said: I come to marry with him.

The old-woman said: I go to hide you, because my son is a very troublesome fellow!

This old-woman was the Carrion-crow's mother.

At evening, her son arrived; he brought small worms, and said to his mother: "Here is small fish, mother".

His mother tempered the prey.

When they were eating, she spoke: — If somebody came now from other land, how should you treat him?

The Carrion-crow replied: I would call him to eat with us.

Then his mother called the young-woman.

The Crow became very content, because she was very fine.

At night, he went to sleep with the youngwoman, but this expelled him on account of his stinking.

In the other morning, when the old-woman bade the young-woman seek fuel, she run away...

I.III our no our

«The Young-woman and the Sparrow-hawk.»

She arrived, again, at three paths, and she went through another...

She arrived at a house, where she met a fine old-woman, to whom she asked: Art thou the Inaye's mother?

The old-woman replied; Yes, I am.

The young-woman said: I come to marry with him.

The old-woman said: I go to hide you, because my son is a very troublesome fellow!

At evening, the son arrived and brought his game, = many small birds.

His mother prepared the birds for their eating; and when they were eating, she asked to him: « If somebody came from other land, how should you treat him? »

Inaye replied: I would call him to eat with us. Then the old-woman called the young-woman.

Inayè became very glad, because she was very fine.

They slept together.

In the other day, the Carrion-crow arrived at Inaye's house, looking for the young-woman. They fighted much on account of the young-woman.

Inayé brake open the head of the Crow.

The mother of the latter warmed water, washed his head; but the water was too warm, and, therefore, his head became bald, since then...

Literal TRANSLATION

I

« KUNHÃ-MOKU, MYKURA »

« The Young-woman and the Fox »

Oiépè kunhã-mokú o-nhēē i sy supè: « Xa só xa sìkari se mêna ;

A young-woman said her mother to: « I go I seek my husband;

« Xa purardre rêtè iu-masy! »

«I feel great hunger.»

Aè o-sỏ ãn; o-sŭka o-ăn, mamé o-ikỏ môsapŭr pê, o-puranù: — Mai-ta Inayé pê ? (°)

« She went away; arrived, where there were three paths, she asked: — Which Inayé's path? Oiepè pê ôpe, aè o-mahē inambu-raua; ara-

mé aè o-maité-oan: — Koaha Inayé pê.

One path in, she sees inambu's feathers; then she thought: This Inayé's path.

O-sò-an aè rupy.

She went along this through.

^(*) Inayé is the Brasilian name of a sparrow-hawk.

Opausàpe, o-yo-iùanti óka, mamé o-ikó yepè udimi ô-apik-oikó uad tatà remehŭpe; o-nhēē:

At last, she met a house, where was one old woman seated was who fire-side at; she said:

- « Inè será Inaye sy? »
- « You Inayé's mother? »

Udimi o-suaxdra: — Ixè aè tenhè

The old-woman replied: — I myself yes.

Kunhã-moků o-nhẽc: Xa iùr aè piri xa menar arâma aè irùmo.

The young-woman said: — I come him to, I to marry him with.

Uaimi o-nhēē: — se mbyra mira poxi-retė aė; aa-rėsė xa sò xa iumimi inė.

The old woman says: my son bad very he; therefore I go I hide you.

Kôahā udimi inti Inaye sy; Mykùra (*) sy aè. This old woman not Inayè's mother; Fox's mother she.

Karuka ramè, i mbyra o-sŭka-oân; o-rurean xemiàra, — uira-età.

Evening when, her son came back; he brought his game, — birds.

^(*) Animal like a fox.

I sy o-mongaturu aità o-u arama.

His mother tempered them eating for.

Aità o-ù o-ikò ramè, i sy o-puranù i-xui: O-sŭka ramè oiepė amô tetama-uara, may tahà re-rekò aè?

They eating were when, his mother asked him to: Arrives when one other land from, how you treat him?

Mykùra o-suaxàra : Xa senòi aè o-ù arâma ianè irùmo.

Fox replies: I call him eating for us with. Aramè uaimi o-senoi kunhã mokú, o-iumimi o-ikô uad.

Then the old-woman calls the young-woman, hidden was who.

Kunhā-moku o-ú-ān aitā irûmo.

The young-woman ate them with.

Mykùra sorib o-ikô, maa-resè kunhã-mokû poranga rête.

Fox content was, because young woman fine very.

Pitina opė, Mykūra o-só ramė, okėr arâma kunhã mokū irûmo, aè ompū-ân aė o-nhēē:

Night at, the Fox went when sleep to, the young woman with, she expelled him, she said:

Inti xa-ienő potàre né irûmo, maa-resè inèma rétè inè.

Not I to sleep will you with, because stinking very much you.

Koêma ramê, uaimi o-mondù ramè kunhã moků o-iuuka iepea, kunhã moku o-iaudu-ãn.

Morning when, the old woman ordered when the young woman to seek fuel, the young-woman went away....

11

«KUNHÃ MÔKU, URUBU »

« The Young-woman and the Carrion-crow »

O-sŭka mosapŭr pê ôpė, o-só amo rupy; She arrived three paths at, she went another through;

O-săka òka ôpė, o-iăuanti amô uaimi irûmo; She arrived house at, met other old-woman with:

O-puranû t-xui: Indè serd Inayè sy?

She asked her: You Inaye's mother?

Udimi o-suaxdra: — Ixè aè tenhē.

The old-woman replies: I myself yes.

Kunhā mokū o-nhēē: xa ūr aè piri, xa
menar arâma aè irūmo.

The young woman said: I come him to, I marry him with.

Uàimi onhēē: Xa so xa iumimi indé, se mbyra poxi reté sesé.

The old-woman said: I go I hide thee, my son creature rude very because.

Koahá uàimi Urubú sy.

This old-woman Carrion-crow's mother.

Karuka ramė, i mbyra o-sŭkà; o-rure xemiara,—itapuru mirieta, onhee i sy supė:

Evening when, her son arrived; he brought game, = worms small, he said his mother to:

« Kusukui pira mirīta, se sy. »

«Here is small fish, my mother.»

I sy o-mongaturu ximidra.

His mother tempered the prey.

Aità o-u-oikò ramè, aè o-puranù :

They eating were when, she asked:

Aud supė o-sŭka wad amô tetâma sui, mad-td re-monhã i-xupé?

Him to arrives who other land from, how do you him with?

Urubu o-suaxara: xa senoi aè o-u arama ianè irûmo.

The Crow replies: I call him eating for us with.

Aramė i sy o-senoi kunkā-moku.

Then his mother called the young-woman.

Urubû sorib-etê an, kunhã-moku porangu
retê resê.

The Crow glad very was, young-woman fine very because of.

Pitûna ôpè, aè o-só ramé o-yenõ aè irumo ; kunhã-mokú ompú-àn inēma resé aè.

Night at, he went when, to sleep her with; the young-woman expelled him, stinking for his.

Amô koēma ôpė, uaimi o-mondù ramė kunhã moků o-iuuka arama iaped, kunhã-moků o-iauau-ãn....

Other morning at, the old-woman ordered when, the young-woman seek to fuel, the young-woman went away....

III

≪ KUNHÃ-MOKU, INAYÉ »

« The Young-woman and the Sparraw-hawk »

Aè o-săka ramê mosapăr pê ôpė, o-só amô rupy.

She arrived when three paths at, she went other through.

O-săka oka ôpė, o-mahē yepė udimi poranga-retė, o-purani i-xui:—Inė Inayė sy serd?

She arrived a house at, saw one old-woman fine very, she asked her: Thou Inaye's mother?

Udimi o-suaxara: Ixè aè tenhē.

Old-woman replies: I myself yes.

Kunhã-moku o-nhéð: xa-ur að piri xa menar arama að irumo.

Young-woman said: I come him to, I marry to him with.

Uaimi o-nhēē: xa so xa-iumimi indė; sė mbyra mira poxî-retė!

Old-woman says: I go I hide thee; my son a fellow troublesome very!

Karuka ramė, mbyra o-săka; o-rure ximidra, = uira-mîrī-sêtd.

Night at, the son arrived; he brought game, = birds small many.

I sy omon-gaturú uïra mirītā aitā où arāma. His mother prepared the birds small their eating for.

Aitá où o-ikó ramè, i sy o-puranu i-xui:

They eating were when, his mother asked him:

Aud supè o-săka uad rame amô tetâma sui, maâ tà re-monhã ixu-pè?

Him to arrives who if other land from, how you do him to?

Inayé o-suaxàra: — Xa senoi aè où aràma iané irûmo.

Inayé replied: I call him eating for us with.

Aramè uâimi o-senoi kunhã-moku.

Then the old woman called the young-woman.

Inayè sorib reté, kunhã moku poranga reté resè.

Inayé glad very, the young-woman fine very for.

Aetà o-ker-an iepe-uasù.

They slept together.

Amo ara-ôpė, Urubú o-sŭka Inayè oka ôpė, o-sikari arāma kunhā moků.

Other day at, the Crow arrived Inayé's house at, looking for the young-woman.

Aità omara-monhã-oan retè kunhã-mokû resè.

They fighted much, the young-woman because of.

Inayè ompûk-ân Urubû akanga.

Inayè brake open the Crow's head.

I sy omo-akú iy, mo-asúk i akanga.

His mother warmed water, washed his head.

Iy sakú reté oàn ; aaresé i akanga-saua-yma opità arà opė....

The water was too warm; therefore his head bald became, since then.....

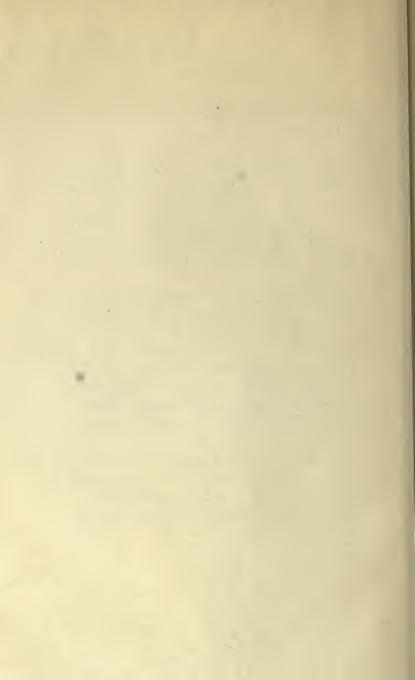
CHAPTER XIII

CONCLUSION

- 118.—From all that has been said before, we think, we are enabled to draw the following general conclusions:
- (i) That in the Brasilian language all the words are invariable; [27]
- (II) That the distinction of number and gender in nouns, adjectives, and pronouns (except the personal) are indicated, either by special words or by postpositions, and other formative elements; [30 to 34, 67 to 69, 74 to 80]
- (III) That the persons of verbs are designated by means of prefixes which are, so to say, glued to them, with the same value and signification, as the personal suffixes of the Latin language; [85]
- (IV) That the moods and tenses (the Present Indicative excepted) are expressed by the use of

special particles, which are placed after the verbal root; [se to so]

- (v) That, although a noun or an adjective of quality may be used, as a verb, and vice-versa, still we find, in general, quite distinct, all the parts of speech, such as: noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, postposition (prep.), conjunction and interjection; [27, 95, 106]
- (vi) That predicative roots are entirely distinct from demonstrative ones, and that they are never confounded in their applications.
- (VII) That in derivative or compound-words it is always easy to make the decomposition of the radical and of the formative elements, although there may occur frequent euphonical letters.
- —Therefore, we consider these facts and other which were presented before, as a proof, quite sufficient, that the Brasilian speech ought to be rightly classed, as belonging to the family of agglutinative tongues.



CORRIGENDA

Pags.	Ns.	ERRATA	CORRECTED
6	3	dostingulsh =	distinguish
40	6	languago sare =	languages are
11	7	indu-ctions =	
19	10	knwon ==	known
23	12	can, rightly =	can rightly
30	16	the-refere =	there-fore
34	· · · · · · · · · · · ·	gono-ral =	
38	29	distinguished =	
45	38	a s =	
5 7	57	orciprocally =	
59	59	(particle) =	
64	66	to to dig	
68	69,	kunhâ =	
71	71	tventy	•
74	75	that =	
80	s2	baptised; =	
81	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	the those	
94	91	so-coll =	
96	96	liing = equal o =	
100	98	a it	
103	99	postpo-istions	
140	102	t-inė iuka	
111	103	ixè iuki	
113	104	au-xialiary	
*	3	vorbstare	
121	110	lite-rally	
125	112	lossor	
140	113	violenty	
145	115 (*)	either, or,	
>		meither	= neither
147	116	pekoī =	= nekoī.
148	*	pêpè	= pôpè
154	*	yuorsolves	
457		maã:	
459	*	shead	
			- G HOWA



INDEX

CHAPTER I

CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGES	4
(i) The monasyllabic period	2
(2) The agglutinative period	3
(3) The inflectional period	7
The study of language	40
The Bras. lang. and its position	13
CHAPTER II	
FHONETIC PRINCIPLES	49
Sounds and letters	22
Consonants	23
Vowels	25
Diphthongs	28
Table of the alphabetic sounds	29
Thonetic alterations	30
Permutation of sounds	31,
Suppression & addition of letters	33
CHAPTER III	
PARTS OF SPEECH	36
Accidence or the forms of words	37
Gender, number and case	40
Diminutive and augmentative	43
Derivation and formation of nouns etc	44
Noun-suffixes	45
Agglutination of words	49
Longer-agglutinative words	55
Onomatopaic words	64

CHAPTER IV

ADJECTIVES	65
Accidence of Bras. adjectives	67
Gender and number	68
Comparison	63
Numerals	70
Ordinals	72
CHAPTER V	
CILILI IIII V	
PRONOUNS	73
Personal pronouns	73
Domonstrative pron	74
Interrogative pron	75
Relative pronouns	76
Possessive pron	76
Indefinite pron	77
radonnico pron	11
CHAPTER VI	
VERBS	79
Voice of verbs	80
Reflexive verbs	81
Transitive verbs	81
Prono. subjects & pers. prefixes	83
Mood	84
Tonses	85
The negation and interrogation	89
Anomalous verbs	90
Remarks	92
Formation of verbs	94
Participles	97
CHAPTER VII	
OHAPIEN VII	
POSTPOSITIONS	97

1-15%

CHAPTER VIII

Adverbs of place
Adverbs of affirmation, etc, etc. 403
Adverbs of manner, quality, etc
Adverbs of manner, quality, etc
CHAPTER IX CONJUNCTIONS
CHAPTER X INTERJECTIONS. 408 CHAPTER XI MISCELL, RULES & REMARKS. 409 Syntax of the subject. 409 Syntax of the object. 411 Syntax of the verb. 411 The construction of some verbs. 415
CHAPTER X INTERJECTIONS
CHAPTER XI
CHAPTER XI MISCELL, RULES & REMARKS. 409 Syntax of the subject. 409 Syntax of the object. 414 Syntax of the verb. 411 The construction of some verbs. 415
MISCELL. RULES & REMARKS. 409 Syntax of the subject. 409 Syntax of the object. 414 Syntax of the verb. 411 The construction of some verbs. 415
Syntax of the subject. 409 Syntax of the object. 414 Syntax of the verb. 411 The construction of some verbs. 415
Syntax of the object. 414 Syntax of the verb. 411 The construction of some verbs. 415
Syntax of the verb
The construction of some verbs
To need and (to) will
10 hour and (10) will
Est meum, est tuum
Division of time
Salutation or greeting
Colours
Review of agglutinative forms
Original words
CHAPTER XII
BRAZILIAN COMPOSITIONS
Nhanè Rùba
May pituna o-yo-kuáu-an 147
Kunhã mokú o-só uaá &
CHAPTER XIII
CONCLUSION 478
CORRIGENDA

7 12 25 15

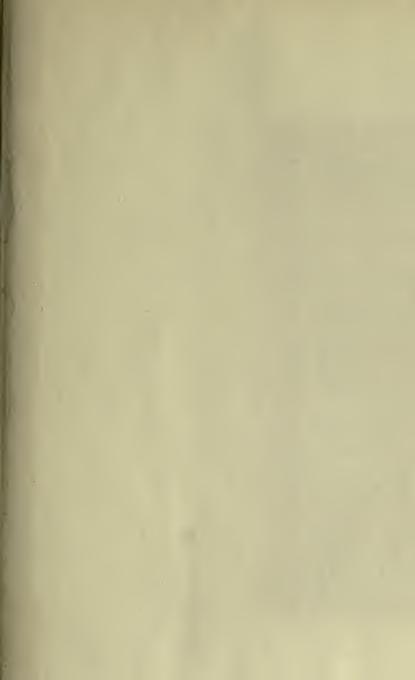
The transfer of the transfer of

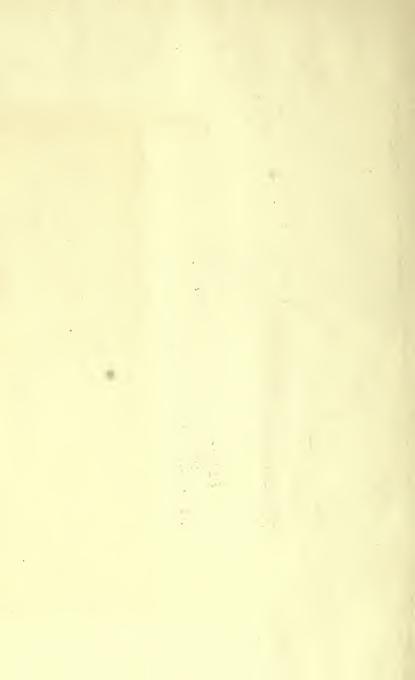
the management of the contract of

The said of the

The second secon

and the second of the second





University of Toronto Library

DO NOT
REMOVE
THE
CARD
FROM
THIS
POCKET

Acme Library Card Pocket LOWE-MARTIN CO. LIMITED

