

UNIVERSAL AUXILIARY LANGUAGE

BABM

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BY THE AUTHOR HIMSELF

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an element the numeral is to be added after its elemental symbol, as *fcodj* (carbonic acid gas).

4. In case where an element is the chief influence in making up a compound, the suffix *v* may be used to indicate such element in the compound as *fcv* (chloride) or *fkcv* (potassium chloride), and *fsv* (sulfide) or *fhgsv* (mercury sulfide). Especially in oxide or oxygen acid, *v* may serve in its ordinary compound as *fnov* (nitric oxide) or *fhclov* (chloric acid), *y* may serve in "per~" as *fnoy* (nitrogen peroxide) or *fhcloy* (perchloric acid), *ev* may serve in "hypo~ic" as *fhgpdœv* (hypophosphoric acid), *x* may serve in "~ous" as *fnœx* (nitrous oxide) or *fhclox* (chlorous acid), and *êx* may serve in "hypo~ous" as *fhcloêx* (hypochlorous acid).

5. In any compound *z* may denote radical or the group of elements, in case of necessity to show many times the quantity of it, the numeral is to be added before the coinage of the radical or group mediated by *ê*, to avoid confusion as *fscêdnhêz* [$\text{SC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ — thio-urea].

6. A noun of an alloy may be coined in a similar way to the noun of compounds, changing only the ending letter *j* into *q* as *fcuznq* (brass).

7. As the result of these rules, a special chemical technology is conducted by *f* and ends in *j, q, v, x, y* or *z*. Otherwise even a chemical technology is coined as an ordinary word following general rules.

Reading these explanations as well as the rules governing compound words, which begin from page 21, the general public may be astonished at the difficulties facing them in the rules of coinage; however these rules, necessary only to those persons who will engage in the formation of words, will enable them to completely make up the simplest coinage of all matters whatsoever, including even the most complicated technics. And then naturally there will indeed be nothing troublesome for any one in using such coined words of Babm according to the truly simplified grammar.

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GRAMMAR

I. LETTERS AND PRONUNCIATIONS

In Babm Roman letters and Arabic figures are used. For simplicity Roman letters are named and unexceptionally pronounced as follows:

- a [a:] as a in *arm* [a:m],
- b [bɔ] exceedingly short as bo in *boil* [bɔil],
- c [kɔ] exceedingly short as co in *coin* [kɔin],
- d [de] exceedingly short as de in *dense* [dens],
- e [e:] much longer than e in *every* [evri],
- f [fu] exceedingly short as fu in *full* [ful],
- g [ga] much shorter than ga in *garden* [ga:dn],
- h [ha] much shorter than ha in *hard* [ha:d],
- i [i:] as e in *even* [i:vən],
- j [zi] exceedingly short as zi in *zinc* [ziŋk],
- k [ke] exceedingly short as ke in *kettle* [ketl],
- l [le] exceedingly short as le in *leg* [leg],
- m [mu] much shorter than mo in *move* [mu:v],
- n [na] much shorter than na in *nasty* [na:sti],
- o [ɔ:] as o in *order* [ɔ:də],
- p [pe] exceedingly short as pe in *pen* [pen],
- q [ku] exceedingly short as coo in *cook* [kuk],
- r [ra] much shorter than ra in *rather* [ra:ðə],
- s [se] exceedingly short as se in *sense* [sens],
- t [tɔ] exceedingly short as to in *toy* [tɔi],
- u [u:] as ou in *wound* [wu:nd],
- v [vi] exceedingly short as vi in *visit* [vizit],
- w [wa] much shorter than wa in *waft* [wa:ft],
- x [ki] exceedingly short as ki in *king* [kiŋ],
- y [ju] much shorter than you in *youth* [ju:θ],
- z [zɔ] exceedingly short as zo in *zoril* [zɔril].

As indicated in this table, *a, e, i, o* and *u* are called long-sound letters, being pronounced with long sound, and the other letters are called short-sound letters, being pronounced with short sound. The pronunciation of Arabic figures which corresponds to their names in Babm, is shown in the section of numerals. There are occasions when a short-sound mark [·] is put against the long-sound letter, while a long-sound mark [~] or [·:] is put against the short-sound letter. In future sound-changing mark[^] will be put against a short-sound letter or its compound to permit the pronunciation of any and every voice whatsoever.

II. KINDS OF BASIC WORDS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

For the purpose of simplicity and clearness, Babm has neither article nor auxiliary verb and strictly avoids any inflection of a basic word itself. In case where words of other languages are used, retaining their original pronunciation, single quotation marks ' ' may be used and pronounced *r r*. Therefore *r r* may take the place of quotation marks, especially where only one word is involved, that word to be preceded by *r*, as in *r Tokyo*.

NOUNS. Four letters make up a noun as a rule, commencing with a short-sound letter, which indicates the sort of noun by meaning, and facilitates the finding of necessary words in the dictionary. The second or third is a long-sound letter, which is pronounced long and strong with accent. The second short-sound letter shows the sort of noun subdivided by meaning. The ending short-sound letter specifies the noun, so that it must be pronounced slightly strong and distinctly. If a noun has two long-sound letters in the middle, the former is accentuated.

Examples: *babm* [bɔ́:ɔ̀mù] — a universal language, *rpoit* [rabɔ́:i:tò] — father and mother.

If it is possible, proper nouns in Babm are to follow the rule of four letters commencing with a capital. But one long-

sound letter or one short-sound letter may be added before or after, for examples: *Fisk Okmot* (author's name) and *Dbabb*. Those proper nouns which are shortened from the original names in other languages and commonly used in Babm, will be compiled in the general dictionary.

Note: *c, lr* and *qw* are not used in the beginning of a noun, while *l* and *w* are avoided in the ending.

VERBS. Three or four letters make up a verb as a rule commencing with a short-sound letter, which indicates the sort of verb by meaning, and facilitates finding of necessary words in the dictionary. Verbs end also in a short-sound letter, and one or two long-sound letters are in the middle. One long-sound letter and the short-sound ending are similar to those of the corresponding noun, as shown in the dictionary. Some special verbs have three long-sound letters. In any case, the first long-sound letter and the third long-sound one, if any, are accented, while the final short-sound letter is pronounced slightly strong and distinctly.

Examples: *bean* [bɔ́:e:a:nà] — harmonize (*mzan* — harmony), *gaein* [gá:e:i:nà] — go in and out (*mpaen* — going in and out).

COMPLEMENTS. A complement consists of less than three letters conducted by *c* as a rule. Both adjective and adverb are called complement in the same form. It is an adjective in the case of modifying a noun or pronoun, and an adverb in the case of qualifying another word. In the latter case *w* may be suffixed to make clear that the complement is serving as an adverb (cf. sentence example 1).

A complement ends generally with a short-sound letter, except in a few cases, which are shown as special complements ending in long-sound letter from page 130 of this book. The first short-sound letter conducted by *c* indicates the sort of complement by meaning, and facilitates finding of necessary words in the dictionary. When there is a long-sound letter prior to the ending short-sound letter, these letters are similar to those of the corresponding noun, so that the long-sound letter is accen-

usually pronounced and the ending short-sound letter slightly strong and distinctly. If a complement of different form has short-sound letters only, the first short-sound one indicating the sort of complement by meaning, is pronounced accentually, and the ending one slightly strong and distinctly. In case there are one or two long-sound letters between the conducting *c* and the ending short-sound letter, the first long-sound letter is accentually pronounced long and strong, and the ending short-sound letter slightly strong and distinctly. If the letter *w* is suffixed as an adverb, this *w* is to be distinctly pronounced somewhat strong as another syllable.

Examples: *cefd* [kóé:fudè] — white (*devd* — whiteness), *cln* [kolénà] — adaptable, *coip* [kóó:i:pè] — excellent, *coipw* [kóó:i:pè-wà] — excellently, *cie* [kóí:e:] — as yet, *cmo* [kómuó:] — large.

Note: The use of *l* or *w* as the ending letter of complements is avoided.

PRONOUNS. The pronoun is arranged in four classes: personal pronoun, impersonal pronoun, relative pronoun and interrogative pronoun.

(1) **Personal pronouns.** If *V* or *Y* is used alone, it is capitalized.

The first person *V* — I, *va* — we; *ov* — I (male), *ova* — we (male); *iv* — I (female), *iva* — we (female).

The second person *Y* — you (singular), *ya* — you (plural); *oy* — you (male), *oya* — you (plural); *iy* — you (female), *iya* — you (plural).

The third person *x* — he or she, *xa* — they; *ox* — he, *oxa* — they (male); *ix* — she, *ixa* — they (female).

(2) **Impersonal pronouns.** *z* — an object, *za* — objects; *ez* — that object, *eza* — those objects; *iz* — this object, *iza* — these objects.

The beginning long-sound letter is accented while the short-sound letter is pronounced slightly strong and distinctly. The plural suffix *a* is lightly accented as a separate syllable. Each pronoun mentioned here is used as the subject or object (direct or indirect), the variation of which may be made clear by using a

prepositional conjunction prepared specially (cf. sentence example 20).

(3) **Relative pronouns.** *lr* — some (object) which, *lra* — some (objects) which; *le* — that (object) which, *lea* — those (objects) which; *li* — this (object) which, *lia* — these (objects) which; *lo* — either (object) which, *lou* — whichever, *lu* — whatever.

(4) **Interrogative pronouns.** *qw* — what (singular)?, *qwa* — what (plural)?; *qwe* — is that which?, *qwea* — are those which?; *qwi* — is this which?, *qwia* — are these which?; *qwo* — which?, *qwou* — whichever?, *qwu* — whatever?

The relative and interrogative pronouns are used as the subject or object, and serve as complementary ones when they come before a noun. The beginning short-sound letter and the first long-sound letter are accented, while other long-sound letters are pronounced somewhat strong and distinctly with a short pause.

Note 1: *U* in *lru* or *qwu* means ever, so that *lrau*, *leu*, *leau*, *liu*, *liau*, *qwau*, *qweu*, *qweau*, *qwiu*, and *qviau* may be understood.

Note 2: Such so-called indefinite pronouns as all, every and some are prepared in the form of nouns having the corresponding complements.

Examples: *mawb* (*ca*) — all, *mtac* (*cpa*) — every, *mvid* (*cdi*) — other, *mved* (*cpe*) — some.

PREPOSITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS. The prepositional conjunction may be only one letter, but as a rule it consists of one or two long-sound letters before or after one short-sound letter; it may be placed before any word, clause or sentence, and serves to connect them, so that it may be named a conjunction. The first long-sound letter is pronounced accentually long, while the short-sound letter slightly strong and distinctly.

Examples: *am* — around, *da* or *a* — and, *isi* — after all.

Note: The prepositional conjunction may be used alone omitting successive words; it must not be commenced with *c*, and *v*, *w*, *x*, *y* and *z* are always avoided in the beginning and the ending.

EXCLAMATIONS. An exclamation consists of two long-

sound letters, and *w* may be added to the middle or end. Any long-sound letter is accented according to the need of feeling.

Examples: *ao* — praise, *awe* — dearness, *owi* — surprise, *u* — sorrow.

NUMERALS. The pronunciation and notation of Arabic numerals which serve as nouns or complements are decided as follows:

1 — <i>ḥ</i> [bɔ:]	9 — <i>m̃</i> [mu:]
2 — <i>ḍ</i> [de:]	0 — <i>o</i> [ɔ:]
3 — <i>ḥ</i> [fu:]	10 — <i>ā</i> [ɑ]
4 — <i>ḡ</i> [ga:]	100 — <i>ō</i> [ɔ]
5 — <i>h̃</i> [ha:]	1,000 — <i>ū</i> [u]
6 — <i>j̃</i> [zi:]	1,000,000 — <i>ñ</i> [na:]
7 — <i>k̃</i> [ke:]	1,000,000,000 — <i>p̃</i> [pe:]
8 — <i>l̃</i> [le:]	1,000,000,000,000 — <i>q̃</i> [ku:]

Further counting by the decimal system may be possible by changing the scale note until *z̃* in every thousand, enabling the reckoning of even ultraastronomical figures, that will be shown with various other ways of notation in the last part of the general dictionary. Here is treated only the ordinal number which is indicated by suffixing *r* to the cardinal number or scaling figure.

Examples: *ḥr* [bɔ:·rā] — the first, *ḍr* [de:·rā] — the second, *ār* [ɑ·rā] — the tenth.

In the pronunciation of numerals, every cardinal number with its decimally scaling figure, which is pronounced slightly strong and distinctly, is treated as one syllable, in the accenting of the cardinals. Consequently, the next cardinal number is another syllable having a short pause. But it is permitted to enumerate cardinal numbers only.

Examples: 987 — *mōlāk* [mú:ḥ·lé:ā·ké:] or *m̃l̃k̃* [mú:lé:·ké:] 9,876 — *m̃l̃ōk̃āj̃* [mú:ū·lé:ḥ·ké:ā·z̃i:] or *m̃l̃k̃j̃* [mú:lé:·ké:·z̃i:].

Note: The numeral serving as complement, may have the complementing *c* for the sake of explicitness.

Examples: *cḥ* [kəbɔ:] — one (adjective), *cā* [kodé:] — two (adjective), *cḡār* [kəgá:ā·rā] — fortieth (adjective).

III. AFFIXES

Prefixes and suffixes are dealt with as grammar, except special suffixes and other fixing words such as the contraction of nouns, which are shown in the dictionary. Every affix may be used conveniently so far as no confusion arises. To avoid some misunderstanding, it is preferable to insert *é*, *l* or *l̃* before the suffix in the simplest but clearest manner. Such is often necessary in coining a complicated compound word.

(1) GENERAL AFFIXES OF NOUNS

Prefix *u* means negative fixing after the initial letter of a noun and is pronounced distinctly strong and long.

Examples: *babm* — a universal language, *buabm* — a non-universal language; *mzan* — harmony, *muzan* — disharmony.

When the negative of a noun has more than two meanings, the prefix *u* denotes mere negation, suffixing *cq*, a complement, denotes nothingness, and *iq*, a special suffix, denotes differing or something else, as shown in the general dictionary with double parentheses «*»*), for example: *nvid* («*nuvid*, *nvidcq*, *nvidiq*»). *Nvid* means measurement, *nuvid* indicates intentionally not doing mensuration, *nvidcq* signifies idle nothingness in mensuration and *nvidiq* implies some observation other than measurement.

Suffix *a* denotes the plural, slightly accented as a separate syllable, but it is usually omitted unless there is special need to show plurality.

Example: *bcet* — a person, *bceta* — persons.

Suffix *e* changes a noun into complement.

Examples: *bcete* — of a person, *bcetae* — of persons.

Suffix *i* changes a noun into a complement in the sense of possession.

Examples: *bcoti hdat* — a man's house, *bcotai hdat* — men's house.

Suffix *o* changes a noun into a verb, which means affirmation

of the reality or action implied in the noun. In this case, there may be a noun alone, or another subject beside it.

Examples: (1) *Bodno*. — It is a flower. Can *bodno*. — There are many flowers. (2) *Bnop mopfo*. — A dog scampers.

Suffix *ou* changes a noun into a verb, which means negation of the reality or action implied in the noun.

Examples: *Bcetou*. — A person is not. *Iz hdatou*. — This is not a house.

Suffix *eo* (*eou*), *aeo* (*aeou*); *io* (*iou*), *aio* (*aio*) These suffixes alter the complement which derived from a noun into verbs, so that they may be understood as cases of the general affix of complement; accordingly it may be enough to mention here merely their possibility. In these cases it is preferable to insert *l* to avoid the succession of many long-sound letters as already noticed.

Examples: *Iz bodneo*. — This is (the smell) of flower. *Hda bcotailou*. — The house is not men's.

Every suffix is treated as a separate syllable, analyzing as *bcot-a-il-ou*, of which all long-sound letters are accented slightly and distinctly with a short pause.

Note: The general suffix of noun is possibly used with the noun which changed from verb or complement unless confusion arises.

(2) GENERAL AFFIXES OF VERBS

Prefix *u* means the negative of an act which a verb mentions

Examples: *gof* — to fly, *ugof* — not to fly.

Suffix *a* changes a verb into a complement which means preparation for the action.

Example: *gofa bpeb* — a bird preparing to fly.

Suffix *ao* (*aou*) causes reversion to a verb of affirmative (or negative) which means the action is being prepared.

Examples: *Bpeb gofao* — A bird is preparing to fly. *Bpe gofaou*. — A bird is not preparing to fly.

Suffix *e* changes a verb into a complement.

Examples: *gofe bpeb* — a bird which flies, *ugofe bfeb* — a bird

which does not fly.

Suffix *eo* (*eou*) causes reversion to a verb which affirms (or negates) the meaning implied in the complement.

Examples: *gofeo* — to be one which flies, *gofeou* — to be one which does not fly.

Suffix *i* changes a verb into a complement which means progression of the action.

Examples: *gofi bpeb* — a flying bird, *ugofi bpeb* — a bird not flying.

Suffix *io* (*iou*) causes reversion to a verb of affirmative (or negative) which means the action is progressing.

Examples: *Bpeb gofio*. — A bird is flying. *Bpeb gofiou*. — A bird is not flying.

Suffix *ll* changes a verb or verbal complement into a noun.

Examples: *gofll* — flight, *gofall* — preparation to fly, *gofill* — progression of flying.

Note: The above-mentioned general suffixes hold good in the verb derived from a noun or complement so long as there is no ambiguity.

Examples: *kefgoe rcon* — a dirty-making son, *cetnoa rayb* — a society preparing to be peaceful.

Every long-sound affix of the verb is accented slightly and distinctly, and is treated as a separate syllable, as in the case of a noun.

(3) GENERAL AFFIXES OF COMPLEMENTS

Prefix *u* means negative fixing after the conducting letter *c*.

Examples: *capm* — of universal language, *cuapm* — of non-universal language; *coj* — free, *cuoj* — not free.

When the negative of a complement has more than two meanings, it will be shown in the general dictionary as «*cukag*, *ckagcq*, *ckagiq*» as in the case of a noun, distinguishing inactive, actionless and other than activity.

Suffix *a* intensifies the meaning of a complement.

Examples: *coja* — free enough, *cuoja* — not free enough.

Suffix *ao* (*aou*) changes the intensified complement into a

verb which affirms (or negates) the meaning of the former.

Examples: *cojao* — to be free enough, *cojaou* — to be not free enough (cf. sentence example 2).

Suffix *e* intensifies the meaning of a complement in the comparative degree.

Examples: *coje* — freer, *cuoje* — not freer (cf. sentence example 3).

Suffix *eo* (*eu*) changes the comparatively intensified complement into a verb which affirms (or negates) the meaning of the former.

Examples: *cojeo* — to be freer, *cojeou* — to be not freer.

Suffix *i* intensifies the meaning of a complement in the superlative degree.

Examples: *coji* — freest, *cuoji* — not freest.

Suffix *io* (*iou*) changes the superlatively intensified complement into a verb which affirms (or negates) the meaning of the former.

Examples: *cojio* — to be freest, *cojiou* — to be not freest (cf. sentence example 4).

Suffix *o* (*ou*) changes a complement into a verb which affirms (or negates) the meaning of the former as it is.

Examples: *cojo* — to be free, *cojou* — to be not free.

Suffix *ll* changes a complement into a noun.

Examples: *cojll* — freedom, *cojall* — much freedom, *cojell* — freedom in higher grade, *cojill* — freedom in the highest grade.

Note: The complement changes into a noun or verb by adding *ll* or *o* as mentioned here, but it remains a complement in spite of any other additional words such as the contraction of a noun or a special suffix.

Examples: *calm* — relative, *calmt* — of a person related, *calmard* — of a group related.

Every long-sound affix of the complement is accented slightly and distinctly, and is treated as a separate syllable with a short pause.

(4) GENERAL AFFIXES OF PERSONAL AND IMPERSONAL PRONOUNS

Prefix *u* may indicate another person or thing, but is reserved because of intricacy, so it is better to avoid it.

Examples: *uv* — a person other than me, *uez* — a thing other than that.

Suffix *l* intensifies meaning as a reflexive pronoun.

Examples: *vl* — myself, *yla* — yourselves, *oxl* — himself (cf. sentence example 5).

Suffix *e* By this suffix a pronoun is to serve as a complement.

Examples: *ve kagg* — my hand, *ixlae nilk* — their own (female) contrivance.

In this case, if the pronoun serves as an adverb, the letter *w* may be added at the end to make clear its adverbial function (cf. sentence example 6).

Suffix *i* By this suffix a pronoun is to serve as a subject or object in the possessive case.

Examples: *yi* — yours, *izli* — this thing's self, *izlai* — these things' selves (cf. sentence example 7).

Suffix *o* (*ou*) By this suffix a pronoun serves as an affirmative (or negative) verb in its own respective meaning.

Examples: *vao* — to be us, *yeo* — to be your, *ixlailèou* — to be not themselves (female) (cf. sentence example 8).

The impersonal pronoun may be suffixed with the following short-sound letters to denote the respective meaning.

d — thing, *g* — method, *h* — hour, *k* — matter, *m* — reason, *n* — quantity, *p* — place and *r* — circumstance.

Examples: *zd* — a thing, *ezlg* — that own method, *izgae* — of these methods.

Note: Every long-sound affix of a pronoun is accented slightly and distinctly, and treated as a separate syllable with a short pause.

(5) GENERAL AFFIXES OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

The relative pronoun commencing with *lr* and the interrogative pronoun begun with *qw* may be suffixed with the following short-sound letters to denote the respective meaning.

d — thing, *g* — method, *h* — hour, *k* — matter, *m* — reason, *n* — quantity, *p* — place, *r* — circumstance and *t* — person.

They may also be suffixed with *j* [as *tj*] in honorific sense, with *n* [as *tn*] in petting sense, and with *z* [as *tz*] in disdaining sense.

Examples: *lreak* — those matters which, *lretn* — that dear person who, *lroh* — either hour when, *lrut* — whoever; *qwip* — is this place where? *qwom* — which reason? (cf. sentence example 9).

Note: Without any suffixing short-sound letter, it is the basic word itself of a relative or interrogative pronoun, and the meaning is not clearly indicated. If any of these pronouns are used solely or with other complement before a noun, it serves as a complementary one.

Examples: *lrt hatj* — whose book, *qw can hdat* — how many houses?, *qwo bodn* — which flower?

(6) EXECUTIVE SUFFIXES OF VERBS

Suffix *ab* (*abu*) makes an asking verb in desiderative sense.

Examples: *lodab* — ask for coming, *lodabu* — do not ask for coming.

Suffix *ay* (*ayu*) makes a passive verb.

Examples: *loday* — be acted by another's coming, *lodayu* — be not acted by another's coming.

Suffix *eb* (*ebu*) makes clear that a verb serves intransitively.

Examples: *bakeb* — flow, *bakebu* — does not flow.

Suffix *er* (*eru*) makes a verb in the future tense.

Examples: *loder* — will come, *loderu* — will not come.

Suffix *ik* (*iku*) makes a verb starting an action.

Examples: *lodik* — start to come, *lodiku* — do not start to come.

Suffix *ip* (*ipu*) makes a verb in the past tense.

Examples: *lodip* — came, *lodipu* — did not come.

Suffix *ir* (*iru*) makes a presumptive verb.

Examples: *lodir* — presumably come, *lodiru* — do not presumably come.

Suffix *oj* (*oju*) makes a recognitory verb in the sense of auxiliary may.

Examples: *lodoj* — may come, *lodoju* — may not come.

Suffix *ok* (*oku*) makes a possible verb in the sense of auxiliary can.

Examples: *lodok* — can come, *lodoku* — can not come.

Suffix *om* (*omu*) makes a continuative verb.

Examples: *lodom* — continue coming, *lodomu* — do not continue coming.

Suffix *on* (*onu*) makes a repetitive verb implying the sense of correction.

Examples: *madon* — cognize again, *madonu* — do not cognize again.

Suffix *op* (*opu*) makes a causative verb in the sense of urging.

Examples: *lodop* — urge to come, *lodopu* — do not urge to come.

Suffix *or* (*oru*) makes clear that a verb serves transitively.

Examples: *bakor* — float something off, *bakoru* — do not float anything off.

Suffix *x* (*xu*) makes a verb in the perfect tense. In case a verb consists of three letters, the medium *é* is required.

Examples: *haosx* — have returned home, *haosxu* (*uhaosx*) — have not returned home; *lodèx* — have come, *lodèxu* (*ulodèx*) — have not come.

These examples being in the present perfect tense, the suffix *ipx* is used for the past perfect tense, and *erx* for the future perfect tense. The executive suffix of verbs is treated as a separate syllable, of which the long-sound letters are accented, while the short-sound letters are pronounced slightly strong and dis-

tinctly. These executive suffixes may have the general suffixes of verbs so long as there is no ambiguity. Moreover it is permitted to use continuously more than two executive suffixes of a verb; then the order depends upon the meanings, but from the forms, the complicated suffix precedes the simple, and the long-sound letter before the short-sound.

Examples: *gegipa bnop* — a dog that was preparing to run, *gofike bpeb* — a bird which starts to fly, *pajomiŋe kcon* — a boy who continued to read, *pajomerll* — the state in which one will continue to read.

Note: These executive suffixes are possibly used with a verb altered from a noun or other by adding *o*, but it is preferable to insert *é* in case of ambiguity, or to avoid such coinage.

Examples: *mivqox* — have become inverse, *cdefoëip* — was momentary.

Using the executive suffixes of verb, somewhat complicated compositions are shown in the sentence examples 10, 11, 12, 13, 40 and 41.

(7) SUFFIXES WHICH CHANGE NOUNS INTO SPECIAL VERBS

By adding the following suffixes, a noun is changed into a verb so far as meaning can be understood.

Suffix *ab (abu)* makes an asking verb in desiderative sense of what the noun means.

Examples: *rwejab* — ask for convenience, *rwejabu* — do not ask for convenience.

Suffix *aq (aqu)* makes a verb of suffering from a certain disease that the noun means.

Examples: *loqbaq* — suffer from typhus, *loqbaqu* — do not suffer from typhus.

Suffix *ay (ayu)* makes a passive verb of what the noun means.

Examples: *rwejay* — be made convenient, *rwejayu* — be not made convenient.

Suffix *er (eru)* makes a future tense verb of the action or state implied in the noun.

Examples: *rwejer* — will be convenient, *rwejeru* — will not be convenient.

Suffix *ik (iku)* makes a verb starting the action or state implied in the noun.

Examples: *raghik* — start setting the table, *raghiku* — do not start setting the table.

Suffix *ip (ipu)* makes a past tense verb of the action or state implied in the noun.

Examples: *raghip* — set the table, *raghipu* — did not set the table.

Suffix *ir (iru)* makes a presumptive verb of the action or state implied in the noun.

Examples: *ragjir* — presumably match-make, *ragjiru* — presumably do not match-make.

Suffix *og (ogu)* makes a verb of the action implied in the noun.

Examples: *dvohog* — flame, *dvohogu* — do not flame.

Suffix *oj (uju)* makes a recognitory verb in the sense of auxiliary may of the meaning implied in the noun.

Examples: *mdomoj* — may fill stomach, *mdomoju* — may not fill stomach.

Suffix *ok (oku)* makes a possible verb in the sense of auxiliary can of the meaning implied in the noun.

Examples: *mejjok* — can have a way (method), *mejjoku* — cannot have a way (method).

Suffix *om (omu)* makes a continuative verb of what the noun means.

Examples: *mehhom* — continue to be carefree, *mehhomu* — do not continue to be carefree.

Suffix *on (onu)* makes a repetitive verb implying the sense of correction of the action meant in the noun.

Examples: *ndamon* — consult again judiciously, *ndamonu* — do not consult again judiciously.

Suffix *op (opu)* makes a causative verb of urging what the noun means, further by suffixing *opay (opayu)* makes a pas-

sive causative verb of an analogous meaning.

Examples: *rwejop* — urge convenience, *rwejopu* — do not urge convenience; *rwejopay* — be urged to be convenient, *rwejopayu* — be not urged to be convenient.

Note 1: The above-mentioned suffixes are also treated as separate syllables, of which the long-sound letters are accented while the short-sound letters are pronounced slightly strong and distinctly. By these suffixes the noun is changed into a verb, which may of course have every suffix of the verb itself as far as the meaning is understood.

Examples: *logbaqe rcon* — a son suffering from typhus, *logbaqio* — be suffering from typhus.

Note 2: In the case of reversion of such a verb affixed as above-mentioned to a noun, it requires the addition of *ll* in the end.

Examples: *logbaql* — the state of suffering from typhus.

IV. EXECUTIVE COMPLEMENTS TO VERBS

cak makes a verb of goodwill by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *cak lod* (*lodëcak*) — have the goodwill to come, *cak ulod* (*ulodcak*) — have not the good will to come.

car makes a mutual verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *car dig* (*digëcar*) — stimulate mutually, *car udig* (*udigcar*) — do not stimulate mutually.

cf makes a verb indifferent to a condition by preceding.

Examples: *cf lod* — even if one comes, *cf ulod* — even if one does not come (cf. sentence example 14).

cg makes a conditional verb by preceding.

Examples: *cg lod* — when one comes, *cg ulod* — when one does not come (cf. sentence example 15).

ch makes a subjunctive verb in the sense of supposition by preceding.

Examples: *ch lod* — if one comes, *ch ulod* — if one does not come (cf. sentence example 16).

cih makes a presumptive verb by preceding or suffixing in a weaker sense than *ir*.

Examples: *cih foap* (*foapcih*) — might satisfy, *cih ufoap* (*ufoapcih*) — might not satisfy.

cik makes a necessary verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *cik kiaj* (*kiajcik*) — must compare, *cik ukiaj* (*ukiajcik*) — must not compare.

cit makes an obligatory verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *cit kaik* (*kaikcit*) — ought to repent, *cit ukaik* (*ukaikcit*) — ought not to repent (cf. sentence example 17).

cj makes a polite verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *cj lod* (*lodëcj*) — please come, *cj ulod* (*ulodcj*) — please do not come.

ck makes a requesting verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *ck heq* (*heqëck*) — request to reproach, *ck uheq* (*uheqck*) — request not to reproach (cf. sentence example 18).

coh makes a hoping verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *coh jeip* (*jeipcoh*) — should like to drink, *coh ujeip* (*ujeipcoh*) — should not like to drink.

cor makes an expectant verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *cor lod* (*lodëcor*) — expect to come, *cor ulod* (*ulodcor*) — do not expect to come.

cr makes an imperative verb by preceding.

Examples: *cr lod* — come!, *cr ulod* — do not come!

ct makes a verb disregarding a condition by preceding.

Examples: *ct lod* — in spite of coming, *ct ulod* — in spite of not coming.

cw makes an interrogative verb by preceding.

Examples: *cw lod* — do come?, *cw ulod* — do not come? (cf. sentence example 19).

cy makes a supplicatory verb by preceding or suffixing.

Examples: *cy loic* (*loiccy*) — bless me!, *cy ufag* (*ufagcy*) — may be not angry! (cf. sentence example 20).

V. VERBS IN COMMON USE

bad explains the meaning of a noun or the like to be mutual as in sentence example 21.

beg means to become, if there is only a complement, but expresses the sense of causing to be, if there are an object and a

complement as in sentence example 22. These two cases are concerned with the natural action, but as to human deeds, *de* is to be used.

bej affirms the meaning of a noun or the like to be likely as in sentence example 23.

bop indicates the meaning of a noun or the like to exist.

deb affirms the meaning implied in a noun or the like more clearly and strongly than the suffix *o* as in sentence example 24.

dek indicates a human deed as in sentence example 25.

kig explains the meaning of a noun or the like to be necessary as in sentence example 26.

kij indicates choosing of what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 27.

kog indicates hoping for what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 28.

koj affirms recognizably what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 29.

kug negates objectionably what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 30.

lak indicates the request of what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 31.

lop indicates the urging of what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 32.

man indicates the meaning of a noun or the like to be quite proper as in sentence example 33.

meg indicates the meaning of a noun or the like which ought to be done as in sentence example 34.

mij indicates the admission of what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 35.

mob affirms the meaning of a noun or the like to be as in sentence example 36.

mok indicates possibility as to what a noun or the like means as in sentence example 37.

muq negates the meaning of a noun or the like to be nothing as in sentence example 38.

sig indicates the meaning of a noun or the like to be an obligation as in sentence example 39.

VI. NORMAL RULES OF COMPOSITION

A sentence may suffice, if the meaning is clearly understood in speech or writing, and it is rather desirable that it be free from many rules of composition. The fore-going grammar is concerned mainly with the coinage, about which there are many other rules, that are exclusively necessary to those persons who will engage in the formation of words, and these will be exactly explained in the theoretical learning of Babm. Among these rules, only the most important one which treats of the method of making compound words, is mentioned in the next place (cf. the ending of introduction).

However there must be some normal rules of composition. Generally speaking, a sentence is to be commenced with a noun or pronoun as the subject, preceded by a complement or numeral if any. Next comes a verb after the subject as the predicate, which may have a preceding complement explicitly denoted by suffixing *w* as an adverb, if there is some fear of misunderstanding that this complement qualifies the subject. When the verb has an object serving transitively, this object is to follow the verb, preceded by a complement if any. As to the normal rules of composition, these descriptions though simple, may be sufficient.

Nevertheless, there are many complicated sentences having various phrases and clauses with conjunctions, relative pronouns and the like, so that several special prepositional conjunctions are prepared in Babm to distinguish clearly the subject, direct object or dative. After all, it is desirable to follow the superb examples of writing and speaking. For this purpose many experts in Babm are expected to appear one after another, who will present abundant and excellent examples of literary works. In short, nothing but simplicity, clearness and fluency are needed

in sentence and conversation. The following sentences fall short of being such a model as they express only grammatical usage. Readers are earnestly requested to produce many superb works.

Here allow me to say a little about how to learn Babm by oneself. It is surely impossible to cram a quite new and extremely large vocabulary in a hurry, but in the beginning it is enough to find the necessary words in the dictionary, and use them with the grammar, when the often-repeated words will gradually come to be memorised. What a miracle it is that we Japanese can keep in memory such difficult Chinese characters, possessing printing type, simplified writing and in-between styles with several different pronunciations for every one of more than ten thousand characters. As to the native Japanese language, there are many different meanings to one and the same sound, which is also the case with English and other existing languages. In comparison with these, including even Esperanto, Babm is so exceedingly simple that anyone can begin writing on the first day after taking a general view of the grammar and dictionary, and without great effort can master alone this universal language. Notwithstanding such simplicity, of course it needs long practice to write or speak freely. Consequently, the regular practice of one sentence every day will bring in one year three hundred and sixty five sentences, increasing enormously year after year. If these sentences are arranged properly in a note-book, they will serve in friendly conversation and bring about unconscious mastery by oneself.

How difficult it is to learn some foreign language in school! Boys and girls are reluctantly compelled to cram unfamiliar vocabularies for examinations. On the other hand, is it not great pleasure to read aloud at leisure the sentences that are one's own work? If this work is full of pure beauty, love and truth, which are really the human nature, the pleasure of reading aloud may promote the consummation of the human conscious entity. May we not expect universally in such serious sense the spread, far and wide of Babm, by the strenuous propulsion of men and

women who are most wise in utilizing their leisure, which will increase more and more in accordance with the advancement of industrial techniques and organization, causing shortened working hours successively?

Let me make an apology here, about the insufficient compilation of the dictionary in this booklet. Many important words are not inserted as nouns, but corresponding verbs or complements only are given. So that to find *mimr* (conversion) in the dictionary, one must search for *kior*, its corresponding verb. Such is not any defect of the theoretical Babm as its system; in the general dictionary every word will be shown repeatedly in all places with some relation of meaning as noun, and at the same-time as verb and complement. Moreover a perfect list of contractions of nouns will be provided.

VII. RULES OF COMPOUND WORDS

1. A verb, complement and numeral may be connected with other word unless confusion arises. A contraction of the noun and a special suffix, mentioned in the end of the dictionary, may likewise be connected. The nature of the compound word is determined by the first word, except in other cases indicated especially in the grammar because of a suffix and so on; for instance, if the first word is a verb, any compound word connected with it as a whole is also a verb. Simple numerals may be connected directly before a noun as it is, but *ḃr* and the like must not be conjoined before other word or in the middle. *Ce* or *ci* also must not be conjoined with another complement.

2. If a word to which another word is connected has a long-sound letter or *c* as its ending, or in any other ambiguous case, it requires to be mediated by *é*.

Example: *dolcéadn* — molecular weight.

3. It is the normal order to connect words in such manner as the ending word conveys the principal meaning, limited by the preceding words; on the contrary, the reverse order is that

in which a word of the principal meaning begins the connection of a compound word, its meaning limited by succeeding words. The normal order is to be practiced as the general rule of the compound coinage, so far as there is no possibility of hindering this order. The reverse order is only to be used, in case of impossibility to practice the normal order, or when the inverse coinage is especially allowed.

4. If there is no such distinction as the principal meaning and its limiting sense among the words to be joined, the one word which has the most important significance precedes others.

Examples: *dopj* (*opj*) — gold, *depj* (*epj*) — silver, *dopjepj* — gold and silver; *pjon* (*cmn*) — good, *pjaq* (*cmag*) — bad, *pjoncmag* — good and bad.

5. If there is no difference in treatment according to the meanings of words, the alphabetical order should finally decide the manner of connection.

Example: *dajk* (*ajk*) — east, *dojr* (*ojr*) — south, *dajkojr* — south-east.

6. To connect a noun after another word, firstly the contraction of this noun, secondly its corresponding complement, and thirdly its corresponding verb are to be used instead of this noun itself. However, in case the corresponding complement is coined from three short-sound letters, the corresponding verb (to the noun) may be used in compound coinage preceding the complement. Such manner of selection is called the rule of choosing word in the compound coinage.

7. In case two words are connected, if the resulting compound word has two significances or more, of which the most important one may be expressed by using a contraction or the like of a noun in the ending, then this contraction or the like is to be used as the end of the compound word conveying the principal meaning of the most important significance. In this way, the ending contraction may be connected with all words of the same kind which serve to limit that principal meaning. For instance *bodn* (a flower) having *odn* (its contraction), may be connected

with all words of flower-bearing plants joining its contraction *odn* in the end, as *bfobodn* (a flower of a cherry-tree), *bfonodn* (a flower of a camellia) and so forth. This way of connecting is called the rule of polycoinage. As a result, it is preferable to form at first the compound word of the most important significance with a contraction or the like of a noun in the end, practicing the rules of choosing word and polycoinage so far as possible, and then to coin other compound word of less important significance in a different form, practicing also the rule of choosing word where possible.

Examples: *bodn* (*odn*) — a flower (its contraction), *begb* (*egb*) — a tree (its contraction); firstly, *begbodn* — a flower of some tree; secondly, *bodnegb* — a flower-bearing tree.

8. A contraction, a corresponding verb and complement to some word seldom occur, so that if the same form of a compound word is required to express two different meanings, a particular suffix *él* is to be connected at the end of the compound word, in which the initial word conveys the principal meaning following the reverse order. If a contraction of other noun is additionally to be connected with such compound word, this suffix *él* may be omitted unless confusion arises.

Example: *bomj* — a goat, *kojj* (*ojj*) — milk, *bonc* (*onc*) — young; *bomjojj* — goat's milk, *bomjojjél* — a milking goat, *bomjojjonc* — a milking goat's young.

9. A special suffix, complement or numerals of less than three letters may be connected as an ending word even though in the reverse order, unless confusion arises.

10. To avoid the repetition of verbs or complements in a compound word, the order may be altered as long as no misunderstanding ambiguously arises.

11. In case where three words are connected, it is begun by joining two words as mentioned in the preceding articles, after that the third word is conjoined with thus-decided coinage of two words, practicing the rules of choosing word and polycoinage so far as possible. Likewise four words or more may be

connected.

12. Except in ambiguous cases, an existing compound word as it is, may be used to coin a more complex one at its beginning or end, in the normal order so far as possible.

13. To coin a compound verb or complement, it is begun by forming a corresponding compound noun, of which the first word may simply be changed into a verb or complement to obtain the needed compound word, if the initial noun has a corresponding verb or complement. When there is no such corresponding word to the initial noun, but another word in the compound noun has a corresponding verb or complement, it may be used as the first word of the needed compound verb or complement even in the reverse order. In this coinage, however, if any misunderstanding is likely to arise, such compound verb or complement must be avoided.

14. To join verbs together, a verb of limiting sense precedes other verb of the principal meaning as in the normal order; if this is not possible, they are to be connected according to the above-mentioned rules 4 and 5. In any case, it must be mediated by *é* to connect one verb to another verb of three letters containing one long-sound letter.

Example: *hog* — burn, *ges* — throw away, *doir* — change in quality; *hogéges* — throw away burning, *hogédoir* — change in quality by burning.

15. Joining together of nouns as they are should be avoided but if inevitably necessitated, it may be allowed in such manner as in the normal order, or following above-mentioned rules 4 and 5, by the medium *é*.

Examples: *bgip* — a pine tree, *dhaq* — a precipice, *dhaqébgip* — a pine tree of a precipice; *bnin* — a cat, *binq* — a rat, *matm* (*atm*) — relation, *bninébinqatm* — the relation of cat and rat.

16. A prepositional conjunction which commences with a long-sound letter may be connected with a contraction of a noun, complement or other prepositional conjunction, unless confusion arises.

SENTENCE EXAMPLES

- (1) Bpeb gof. A bird flies.
Cmo bpeb cgedw gof. A large bird flies wildly.
- (2) Bcet cojao op clob rayb. In a civilized society, persons are quite free.
- (3) V fabip caje bpeb aj bodn. I saw a bird more beautiful than a flower.
- (4) Rces cuojio. A slave is least free.
Cojill deb cdid pjob. The greatest freedom is an eternal ideal.
- (5) Vli cqéo. I have nothing of myself.
- (6) Pabjt vew laiip pigm. The teacher explained the theory to me.
- (7) Vi cec bhatjo. Mine is one book only.
- (8) Ci kagg yleo. This hand is your own.
- (9) Y habip op cmo hdat, lred V wider. I will purchase the large house in which you dwelt.
Qwh Y lod? When do you come?
- (10) V pajio ci hatj, lrid cga coig pegayx pe bamb ak cop pbagt. I am reading this book, which is very interestingly written in Babm by a predominant scholar.
- (11) Qwt pegip ce hatj, lred Y pajipio decnodcbod op hotbe hotpovh? Who wrote that book which you were reading the day before yesterday in the library of the school?
- (12) Op codgoc jadn gbat baot, ci gbat vahayip ah cdobod dicn; od gbatvaon shat gian godjodc in jadn, lrid godjadfe kbesidco. Ci reyd deb cgi celq Japne cvabixp pgot aj Europ da Amerc, im cpe mexj shat vaonabtao op jadn, im cdi mexj xa gairvoeb bdajodc op jdak. In the field of early summer wheat which was sown during last autumn ripens. Before the harvest of wheat, farmers insert in the field the seedlings of sweet potatoes which are the young germs of potato runners. This circumstance is an extraordinarily different fact of Japanese agricultural villages than Europe and America, in the one direction farmers prepare to harvest wheat in the field, while in the other they transplant rice seedlings in a paddy-