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# SONA

AN

AUXILIARY NEUTRAL LANGUAGE

BY

KENNETH SEARIGHT

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#### "INTERLANGUAGE"

- "The second language to everybody" (Bollack)
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#### PREFACE

The writer of this book has been working quietly for a number of years on a new language. Has he been wasting his time? That may, even to him, seem less important than the question—Will others, who take his attempt seriously, be wasting theirs?

If it is true that the value of such a language as he has made after all these years may best be judged in relation to theory, and that any new idea in the international language field may be of use to those who come after, then the answer is certainly, No!

Those who are wasting time are the makers of systems which seem to have a value for the present, for which organizations are formed to put up arguments in the papers, but which have their roots in thin air which will one day give them their death-blow. Some of these systems have had a good idea at the start. One of these is Esperanto. But the trouble was that its friends went on taking it seriously even after the countries of the East came into the front of the international picture.

The suggestion that Esperanto or Ido, Occidental or Novial, is 'neutral' for the East is like saying that if the Chinese or Japanese came to Europe with a form of Cantonese whose endings had been changed, and which was used by no one in China or Japan, though some of its roots were common to Chinese, Japanese, and certain groups in Mongolia, it would for these reasons be 'neutral' for Europe, India, Africa, and the rest of the East.

It is very necessary to make clear to the supporters of languages based on a selection of European roots that (as Captain Searight says on page 12) they are all not only mixed forms of low Latin, but of a Latin so low that its roots are frequently hard to see even in that small part of the Earth which gave them birth. That is why I, who am on other points so far<sup>1</sup> from being in agreement with him, am writing in Basic to give his interesting and well-designed little book such help as I am able.

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<sup>1</sup> Basic versus the Artificial Languages (Psyche Miniatures, Kegan Paul, 1935).

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#### LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

$\checkmark$	root,	radical
•		

	ν 100ι,	radicar	
a.	adjective.	A.	Arabic.
av.	adverb.	C.	Chinese.
c.	conjunction.	E.	English.
cf.	compare.	F.	French.
e.g.	for example.	G.	German.
ex.	except.	Gk.	Greek.
i.	interjection.	H.	Hindustani.
i.e.	that is.	I.	Italian.
iv.	intrans. verb.	I.G.	Indo-Germanic
n.	noun substantive.	J.	Japanese.
p.	particle.	L.	Latin.
pf.	prefix.	Pr.	Persian.
pn.	pronoun.	Pt.	Pushtu.
pr.	preposition.	R.	Russian.
sf.	suffix.	S.	Sona.
tv.	trans. verb.	Sc.	Scandinavian.

#### Note.

verb.

All Sona words are in italics.

In Section VIII the Primary Radicals are distinguished by italic capitals.

T.

Turkish.

#### I. INTRODUCTORY

The problem of creating a satisfactory "Interlanguage" has yet to be solved. Even its probable base is still under discussion. Is it to be an adaptation of a national language, such as English, French or Chinese? Is it to be a semi-constructed language, such as Esperanto, Ido, or Novial? Or is it to be a constructed language, such as Bishop Wilkins' "Philosophical Language," "Pasigraphy," or "Solresol"? Let us consider a few of the difficulties involved.

Of national languages English and Chinese are the most widely spoken, the most logical, terse, and free from inflexional elements; but in their orthography and ideography respectively are quite unsuitable. Mr. Ogden, the compiler of "Basic English," has simplified the structure of standard English; but although the Basic eight hundred and fifty words may be sufficient for all practical purposes, and it can be claimed that English is the language of some five hundred million people,

there is some doubt as to whether, on political grounds, English in whatever form would be acceptable to all European nationals. The adoption of Chinese seems grotesque; yet there are Chinese scholars who look forward to the time when all the world will speak their language (C. K. Ogden, Debabelization, 1931) and perhaps even think its thoughts. Indeed the genius of Chinese has much to teach us, as I shall endeavour later to show—though by no means associating myself with the aspirations of the said Chinese scholars.

A further claimant to internationality is Latin. Miss Pankhurst, in her excellent little volume Delphos, develops an interesting argument in favour of it. But even Peano's 'Latin without Inflexion 'was too cumbersome for daily use. Latin has already been internationalized as a scientific and technical medium, and as such it had best remain. Our conclusion therefore is that any national or dead language is unsuitable for our purpose if adopted complete, while at the same time recognizing the necessity for borrowing, assimilating, and even improving upon their choicest gifts. For instance, we should adopt the logical word-order of English and Chinese (almost identical) in preference to those of German or Japanese, while from the latter we may conveniently borrow the structure wherein one verb only in a clause, or series of clauses, shows the time of action. In Japanese it is the last verb; but we improve upon the idea by making it first, thereby anticipating the sense. We find that Italian, in company with Chinese and Japanese, often suppresses the personal pronouns without loss of clarity. Indeed, in telegrams, we may do the same in English to some extent. Both Arabic and Russian get on quite well without 'is' and 'are.' The English verb is analytical but irregular. Let us assimilate the method but not the irregularities. There is no reason why we should not borrow, assimilate, and methodize many of the radical elements of various languages, such as I.G.: PA (feeding), C.: TA (great), A.: RU (go), J.: TE (hand), T.: SU (water), and so on, provided they fit in to the general scheme.

We cannot get away from the fact that at various times man has endeavoured to fashion an 'Interlanguage' from elements borrowed from national languages:— Hindustani, Swahili, Pidjin English, Beach la Mar—and even soldiers' War argots.

Turning to what I have called semiconstructed languages, from 'Volapuk' to 'Novial'—Prof. Jespersen's modifications of Esperanto-Ido-we find a monotonous series of hybrid Teuto-Romanic languages having the aspect of a kind of debased Latin sprinkled with wrongly spelt English and German. As the Japan Chronicle (Kobe, 27.3.30) remarks of 'Novial':-- "Professor Jespersen lays down the rules on which an international language should be based, but they are rules which are founded on European experience. Familiarity with an Asiatic language does not make them so imperaperative." (See Ogden, op. cit., Debabelization, 1931). The criticism is just. Not one of these semi-constructed languages so much as considers the claims of Asia or Africa in spite of the millions of enlightened races speaking Russian, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic. They are not 'Interlanguages' at all, but inter-European—and very partial at that. 'Esperanto'—which has the largest following—is crude and uninspiring enough to raise a laugh. I remember once at an Esperanto conference

having the temerity to criticize the sentence:—multaj sinceraj kaj honestaj homoj kondamnas la Ligon de Nacioj kiel multekosta kaj vana carlatanajo-with a finger on the cluster of j's and the comment that except for 'kaj' and 'kiel' every word of it was distorted Latin. No one saw my point; indeed, one of the English Esperantists retorted vigorously:— "Why, it's so easy to understand! It's so like English." What might a Chinese critic have replied? "I'd rather learn Latin and have done with it!" Esperanto certainly has 'birdo' (a bird)—very like English to look at, but not to pronounce; it also has 'knabo' (a boy): Novial prefers 'fogle' and 'puero'; I don't know which is worse. And listen to some Novial:— 'Quum es tum! me vida nulum! Tum es terorisant!' To me it looks and sounds, as Prof. Jespersen has it, 'terorisant.' Ido boasts of having no more than 5,000 radicals—Chinese between four and five hundred. It is clear we do not require such an unwieldly number of elements. We do not want special radicals like knab, tabl, libr; for such words as boy, table, book are easily formed from a radical of wider scope, say

young, flat, read. Thus Arabic 'kitab' from  $\sqrt{K.T.B.}$  'he wrote' = a book; R., 'malchik,' boy, from 'little' + agentive; C., (fen) 'divide' from 'cleave' with a 'knife.' In fact these semi-constructed languages appear to have a slavish predilection for such a posteriori forms which, when all is said and done, appeal only to a small section of the language world.

We last consider the constructed or a priori languages. All have proved too difficult, too 'tabloid' in form, and almost impossible to speak. Some have but one letter to express a radical idea, as 'a' (animal), 'b' (feline)—'ab' = cat. Delormel's 'Decimal Language' and Sudre's 'Solresol,' based on the seven notes of the scale, were ingenious but impracticable. Roget, in his masterly 'Thesaurus' divided the whole of the English language into a thousand categories. In his preface he foresaw how good an idea it would be to allot a radical to each and so have a ready-made language. On these lines, some twenty years ago, I began to work. I found that so many categories were interlacing, opposite and redundant that it was possible to reduce the essentials from 1,000 to between 300 and 400—actually just less than Chinese. I decided finally on 360 radicals and 15 particles, and with this modest number proceeded to compile grammar and dictionary.

#### II. THE COMPOSITION OF SONA

#### § 1. ORTHOGRAPHIC

I chose the name SONA for this new 'Interlanguage,' not that it has any connection with  $\sqrt{SWEN} = \text{son-us (sound)}$ , but because its component radicals so (help, auxiliary), and na (negative, neutral, neuter) expressed 'auxiliary-neutral'. The fact that I aimed also at sonority was purely incidental. My first, and far most difficult task, was to select sufficient and appropriate radicals to cover the requisite number of categories. It was clear my radical elements must be as concise and simple as possible, consisting of sounds that all races could pronounce. Final consonants, as at, ast, ant, abl, are not easy for some, nor are initial consonant groups, such as sta, str, skl, bhru. In C. -n, -ng, in (I.) -n, in Gk. -n, -s, -x, are for instance the only final consonants tolerable. Yet to avoid such combinations involves a considerable sacrifice of possible monosyllables and our radical elements ought to be monosyllabic. Accepting n as the only consonant final that could be allowed, and with a selected alphabet of twenty-four letters (§ 8), I found that only 195 monosyllables were forthcoming of the types a, an, ta, tan-, only just more than half the required number. These were all of the simplest form, for I decided that Diphthongs must also be excluded. Such vowel shades as are found in Chinese, ai, ao, ei, eu, iao, ou, ü, iu, uei, wai, wei, and so on, are too complex and did not fit into my general scheme. There remained then the simplest forms of dis-syllable -ata, ita-, which were easy to combine. Even to these, however, there was an objection. The orderly prefixing of five vowels in rotation to the radical ta would tend to a monotonous uniformity. I therefore took only the three primary vowels a, i, u, thus producing 180 dissyllables, the remaining five being the Particles au, ua, ue, ui, uo (Monosyllables).

## § 2. THE RADICAL SCHEME

Still further to reduce the disadvantage of these recurring vowel prefixes a, i, u, I hit upon the device—similar to that of Chinese—of making these three vowels actual radical prefixes. Thus, for example,

with the radical ta I brought ata, ita, uta into direct relationship, as well as the -n form tan. In other words all five radicals containing the elementary or 'Primary' ta were brought into a 'Group' each member of which should be related visually and in meaning to the common ta. This was a great step forward, for the grouping provided a convenient aide-memoir. When we saw uta 'swell' (= onda) we knew that it belonged to the Group ta' increase.'

Thus, in graphic form:—

Primary TA augment TE grasp TO passing -n form tan bulk ten reception ton exhaust a- pf. ata extension ate tube ato senility i- pf. ita filling ite flap ito expiring u- pf. uta swelling ute pocket uto excess

A glance is sufficient to observe the inter-relationship of the members of each Group. Each of the 12 consonants has 5 such Groups, providing us with 300 radicals. The 6 aspirates have only the -n form, giving us the remaining 60. Now, just as in the chemical formula H<sub>2</sub>O the element H is constant, so must each radical be constant and indivisible in form and meaning. In other words—as if ta- in the English table, tacit, attack, iota had a common value. Thus in any polysyllable where the two letters ta come together in this order they must have some sense of augmentation.

#### § 3. THE RADICALS

Before going on to greater detail it may be as well to give a brief outline of how these radicals are employed. At the outset it should be clearly understood that a radical is the symbol of an idea, or group of ideas, and is better termed an ideogram. Just as the C. yu 'hand' is used in many compounds, often losing its primary meaning, so our te, J. te 'hand', may be used to express ideas of grasping, anything to be grasped, which protrudes and therefore can be grasped. The meaning is never obscure. We may have tebi (handle), bute (nose), tega (arm), sute (stalactite), bate (stick), and so on, the idea of te being consistent throughout. A radical is thus not a definite part of speech; da 'do', though intrinsically verbal, is also a particle like English 'to' in 'to go' = da ru, and a noun in dane'deed'. The English noun 'water' may be verbalized in the same way—' to water,' just as 'to blow' may be made the noun 'blow'. The Particle ci (relative) 'which,' is verbal in ciru 'to refer,' and a noun in cira 'someone.'

## § 4. PREFIX AND SUFFIX

The value of a radical is automatically modified according to its relative position in a word. As a pf. it is the stronger element; as a sf. the weaker. Thus combining ta 'augment' and ra 'male' we have tara 'a big man,' rata 'a giant.' The principle of this relation is that of possessor to possessed. Sona usually foregoes any formal sf. for the possessive; E. the father's brother, C. fu hiung, S. para bora. In case of ambiguity however we may add si, the equivalent of English -'s, and say parasi bora (§ 31). The epithet is always placed before its headword; E. the stern father, C. yen fu, S. jeyo para, or in one word jepara; inversely, E. the father (is) stern, C. fu yen, S. para jezi (see § 35.).

Some radicals again develop an arbitrary value when used either as a pf. or sf.; ka 'lead' as a pf. forms the causal verb, or in the adjective form kayo = chief, principle; as sf. it distinguishes a t.v.

#### § 5. RADICALS AND WORDS

A radical in isolated form may in itself be a word; e.g. fu 'external' or 'out,' kan fu 'house exterior,' fu kan 'out of the house,' on fu 'he is outside,' da fu 'to put out,' ru fu 'go out!' In combination it sometimes forms a word which becomes arbitrarily fixed, a natural development in all national languages. The I.G.  $\sqrt{AC}$  = 'sharp,' 'swift' produced Gk. ikfos, E. 'horse,' L. 'equus,' E. 'acrid,' 'acute,' 'ague,' 'eager'; the corresponding S. √ aki 'swift' produces akizu 'horse' = 'swift animal' = equus. It is true that 'swift animal' would not necessarily indicate 'horse'; it might be a hare, a greyhound, a buck. But it has become arbitrarily fixed in this sense, just as the English word 'swift' has been fixed to name a certain bird. akizu obviously has not been directly borrowed from 'equus,' though it may appear so. Likewise toreno 'train' is not a copy of Italian 'treno'; it has been built up from to 'passing,' re 'straight,' no 'carry,' derived as follows:—to J. noru 'ride,' 'carry' = S. noru. But for the moment these examples will be sufficient to show the a priori basis of Sona. Its wordforming capacity is almost unlimited and its euphony assured by the even distribution of consonants and vowels, helped in rare cases by the non-radical vowel y

(ataya for ataa) (Euphony § 8). It admits of such polysyllables as durevohuda 'the moaning of the wind in the trees' (analytically—voda vi hu po dure) and zinyasagiada Life Insurance Company, as in G. and R..

# § 6. GRAMMATICAL PRINCIPLES

The grammar of Sona should be regarded more as a guide indicating how the 36 Auxiliary Radicals or 'Indicators' are used to mark normal grammatical distinctions of gender, number, case, noun, verb and particle. I have adopted the Arab grammarian's division into three categories (i) Noun, (ii) Particle, (iii) Verb. An 'Indicator' is a radical (always monosyllabic) employed to indicate a grammatical category. Sona does not always follow European models. It discards all redundencies. In English we say "two boys came yesterday"; in Sona "two boy come yesterday." It is clear that more than one boy is already indicated by 'two,' while 'yesterday 'shows the time, or tense of the verb. In the Introductory I have explained that a radical is an Ideogram and not necessarily a noun, particle or verb, unless it be so fixed either by its relative position, or by

another radical. Thus para 'father' (Nominative) becomes a Genitive, or Possessive, in para kan 'the father's house'; or an Accusative in on se para 'he sees the father;' or a Particle in parau' like a father;' or a Verb in da para 'to father.'

#### § 7. SUGGESTED METHOD OF TEACHING

How is Sona to be taught? This is looking very far ahead—perhaps into the realms of Utopia. Yet the author must hope that his off-spring is the best, that he has solved the problem where others have failed, and taking it for granted with the majority of mankind that a good Interlanguage would be useful and timesaving, must then assume that it will be taught. If every nation agrees to accept Sona as its second language it follows that the language will be taught first in the elementary schools of the world. How then should it be taught? Not, I hope, in the way I was taught Latin, French, Greek, and German.

Its lack of real grammar may prove a difficulty to the teacher. It has few hard and fast rules. He must at least have imagination and ingenuity, as well as a sense of humour, to lead his flock into

these new fields of word-making which he might well turn into a game more diverting than a cross-word puzzle. At any rate he will be bringing up a race of young philologists with minds widened beyond mensa, mensae, mensam. I have no doubt that Sona will at first seem strange, and to an English child, for instance, nothing like English. This cannot be helped. It does not clain to be like English, but to contain sufficient English methods to appeal to his reason. The teacher of an English class should demonstrate what similarities of method there are with their own language; the analytical verb, one form often for both singular and plural, as sheep, fruit, man (Sona has nothing so strange as mouse, mice!), the position of the oblique pronounmi se tu 'I see you '-not like the French 'je vous vois'. While touching on these three monosyllables he might show that mi I, me and tu you, thou, thee, are not unlike English me, thee, and how common are the two consonants throughout the languages of the world in forming the first and second persons. The radical se is of Teutonic origin; (E.) 'see,' (G.) 'sehen,' (Swed.) 'se,' (Dan.) 'see'. Then there is

the English method of word-agglutination; side-way, wayside; water-pipe, pipe-water; eye-glass, glass-eye; firewood, wood-fire. Few other languages can do this so simply.

In this way the teacher should try to overcome the initial strange look of the language. Indeed, it looks very much like Japanese, which has pleasant looking words like 'sayonara,' 'meigin,' 'aratamaru'. Having prepared the ground, and it is hoped interested the class, he should begin with a few simple 'Primaries,' such as da 'do,' ru 'go,' su 'water,' explaining their origin, I.G., A., and T. respectively. "If you care to look at a map of Turkey or Central Asia you will see that most of the rivers are called 'Su'. Somehow it almost sounds like running water, doesn't it?" Now, it seems to me that a simple method of teaching these radicals would be to have 375 cards, about three inches square, on each of which is printed one radical in bold type. These, when pinned to the black-board, would clearly be seen across the class room. He selects an easy one—let us say SU—pins it to the board and explains what it means and how it is pronounced. "No! you must not call it 'syu'; that letter is an 'oo'as

in our English word 'rule'." The class see the word as an entity, never broken or changed (unless of course he cut the card!): that is important. No less important is it to explain that although the radical displayed on the board means 'water' when it stands alone, its intrinsic value is to express all ideas of liquidity, fluidity, as he will presently illustrate by attaching other cards either in front of or after it. Why has su been chosen instead of Esp. akvo, Nov. aque, Gk. hydro, A. maya, C. shui, J. sui (the last two mentioned speak for themselves)—why? Because it is simple and because it fits into the Radical Scheme. "Now," says the teacher, taking out the card RU and for the while removing the former, "we have another radical meaning 'motion'. As you see it by itself it means 'to go'. It is found in Arabic and Persian. An Arab says 'ruh!' a Persian 'beru' when he sends you away. The French have 'rue' meaning a street; we have 'rush,' 'run,' 'route,' which remind us of the sound if not the derivation. I am going to put the first card in front of this." The class see the combined cards thus:- SU RU"What does this mean—water-motion?

Flowing of course. No! not 'syu-ru' but soo-roo—don't drop your last sound."

He may then point out that there is an I.G. 

✓ SRU also implying 'to flow,' and that the A. word is actually 'suru'. He now reverses the order of the cards. The class see the combination RU SUWhat now? Motion-water? "We know what a motion picture is. A stream of pictures. This is merely a stream, a river. It sounds like one, too. It does mean a river." The class are beginning to progress. I suggest that this method be continued daily, taking perhaps ten radicals a day, but always going back to the old ones and combining them with the new. It will have been noted that so far the teacher has not touched on the subject of the new language's phonetics, nor I, for the matter of that. The alphabet of our 'Interlanguage' presented many problems. No alphabet that can be invented can satisfy the claims or idiosyncracies of all nationals. J. has no 'l,' 'v': C. no 'b,' 'd,' 'r,' 'g': A. no 'p': F., I., R. no sounded 'h.' The Persian sounds the letter 'wau' like 'v,' the Arab like 'w'. The German sounds 'w' like 'v' and 'v' like 'f'. Our 'Inter-language' must strike a happy medium.

#### III. THE ALPHABET

#### § 8. THE LETTERS

The alphabet has twenty-four letters:

Six vowels a, e, i, o, u, y.

Six aspirates c, j, x, f, v, h.

Six consonants (i) g, d, z, m, b, l.

Six consonants (ii) k, t, s, n, p, r.

These are 'named' by adding the vowel y (which does not occur in any radical form) in the case of the vowels as ya, ye, yi, yo, yu, y: in the case of the remaining letters as cy, gy, ky, etc.

VOWELS. The vowels a, e, i, o, u are sounded as in Italian; E. fast, fete, machine, fort, rule. i and u are naturally shortened before another vowel. y is the neutral vowel of Welsh, A. a, F. e in 'me'. Before another vowel it has the value of E. y in yard, yea, ye, yore, yule. y has been included in the alphabet (i) to provide an euphonic, separating two like vowels, or two hard vowels (a, e, o) e.g. ta-ata = tayata, ta-o = tayo, (ii) to separate an -n radical from a following vowel: e.g. tan-o = tanyo, avoiding confusion

with ta-no = tano; (iii) with the help of an euphonic e to separate a vowel radical prefixed to a Primary radical: e.g. a-ta = ayeta, avoiding confusion with the radical ata. This however is not necessary when the Primary has an initial aspirate: e.g. a-ci = aci (there is no radical form aci). Note the difference between such combinations as ia (i-a), ya (ya), sania (sa-ni-a), sanya (sa-nia); ua, ue, ui, uo (wa, we, wi, wo), yua (yu-a). There are no diphthongs.

ASPIRATES. f, v offer no difficulty; h is aspirated; x (f = sh in 'shin') has a similar value in Portuguese and Maltese. It has the advantage of expressing this sound by one letter, as in R., A., Pr. etc; f may be sounded as in E. d3 or F. f = sh; f (f = ch in 'chin'). Prof. Jespersen in his 'Novial' rightly calls 'c' the mischief-maker of language, for its sounds vary between s, k, ch, ts; yet curiously enough he retains 'ch', which has four sounds in E. alone. Sona, which has a separate 'k' sound (f), uses this letter f consistently to distinguish the 'ch' sound throughout.

CONSONANTS. Only three consonants require particular attention. These are g,

z, s. The first, (g) is always hard, as in E. 'get,' never as in 'gem'; the second, (z) is sounded as in E. 'zeal', but may have the Italian variation of dz, or the German ts; the third, (s) is always sharp, as in R., never as in E. 'as'. The remaining nine consonants are sounded as in E. There is no q, w. Sona has no double consonants, nor digraphs (but see ELISION below).

## § 9 ELISION

When a radical with a vowel prefix is followed by its own Primary or -n form (see Table, § 2) the common vowel is dropped: e.g. ata-ta = atta, ata-tan = attan.

## § 10. FOREIGN SOUNDS

In cases where the Sona alphabet cannot render a foreign sound the phonetic symbol is used.

FOREIGN WORDS are written with a capital. The name of this language Sona is the only Sona word spelt with a capital.

For technical and scientific terms—Greek and Latin, as already in universal use; chemical terms according to formula (Cu = Copper); Sona has names for the

## § 11. STRESS

The tonic accent is evenly distributed, as in (F.), (T.), (J.).

## § 12. PUNCTUATION

Oriental languages are not so tied by formal rules as occidental in the devices of punctuation. It is therefore desirable that we leave the matter more or less open to choice. The total absence of any form of punctuation in Chinese and Arabic is obviously a great defect in the eyes of an European. The interrogative ke of Sona does not require the question mark?—though it may be used.

Note. The few minor irregularities of Sona are due partly to its phonetic principles, as just explained, and partly to the almost mathematical

form of its radicals, which allows no ambiguity.

There are but three irregularities:-

(a) the arbitrary use of the sf. vowels -i, -a, for the inhabitants of countries instead of the regular ra, zan (§ 14).

(b) the arbitrary use of ci as an 'isolator' separating a noun of place in -a from a suffixed Primary consonant, thus avoiding confusion with the pf. vowel a- (§ 15),

(c) the so-called 'Defective' verbs da, zi

(§ 35).

#### IV. THE NOUN

## § 13. ARTICLE

The Definite Article is en 'it'; c.f. Gaelic an. It is used only for emphasis, and not generally as in E., F., G., I., etc., i.e. ra may stand for man, the man, a man;  $en \ ra = the \ (very) \ man; \ alter$ natives are in 'this,' 'the latter,' un 'that,' 'the former' (§ 24). There is no Indefinite Article. enna = 'one,' he = 'any,' cien = 'a certain'. Sona has a special form of Article called the Honorific, borrowed from J. This is the vowel o; cf. J. o mimosa san, o kodomo shu. It is used before names, words of address, and verbs as an expression of politeness. Thus we have :- o ra, '(honorable) man,' 'gentleman,' o hara 'sir,' o tu jiko 'your (honour's) children, o toru 'please pass,' o min '(please) come in!' We meet with so many ways of address in national languages, ranging from the flowery honorifics of the East to the laconic 'Say bo' of the new West, that we must have some such mechanism to satisfy all tastes.

The Italian has no less than three forms of address—tu, voi, lei; the haughty Pathan but one—' ty '—whether to prince or pauper. In English we write Mr. to our tailor, but Esq. to our friends—yet neither word can we use in address. We have no happy way of calling the waitress. We hover between a furtive 'Miss' or a self conscious cough. In Sona the simple little vowel o solves all our difficulties. The word hara, both in writing and address, means 'Mister,' whether tailor or friend, while o hara covers all the complications of Sir, Dear Sir, Respected Sir, Your Honour, and so on. Likewise tu 'you' is exalted to o tu in polite address, and solves the problem of 'Yours truly,' 'Yours faithfully,' 'Your obedient Servant,' and all the rest.

NAMES. A further Article form is provided by the radical ha- 'name' (see also Vocative, Interjection, Imperative). This radical pf. converts another into a name, thus often expressing 'The' followed by a capital letter. hara, Mr. Monsieur, Signor, Herr, hari, Time, Kronos, Aleksander hata Alexander The Great, hapi Harpy, hatazu elephant, hama locality.

Inanimate objects have no gender. Sex is marked by:

ra male, man; cf. I.G. sf. -or, -ir.

zan female, woman; cf. Pr. zan, R. zhen, Pt. jinei.

As pf. these radicals distinguish sex; e.g. rako male-child, zanko female child, rapi cock, zanpi hen, rane manhood, zanne womanhood; ra man, zan woman.

AGENT. As sf. the same radicals distinguish the male and female agent; e.g. kora boy, kozan girl, pira bird-man (man who tends birds, keeper), pizan (f.), hara Mr., hazan Mrs.

Relationship is also marked by these radicals, together with:— -nin child of; cf. R. suf. -nin.

e.g. nuzapara great-grandfather, nuzauma greatgrandmother, zapara grandfather, zauma grandmother, para father, uma mother, gepara fatherin-law, geuma mother-in-law, nupara stepfather, nuyuma step-mother, nura uncle, nuzan aunt, nubora male cousin, nubozan female cousin, bora brother, bozan sister, boranin nephew, bozannin niece, ranin son, zannin daughter, geranin son-in-law, gezannin daughter-in-law, nuranin step-son, nuzannin step-daughter, varanin grandson, vazannin grand-daughter, nuvaranin g.-gr.-son; nuvazannin g.gr.-daughter, gera husband, gezan wife, gerazan husband and wife, nagera bachelor, nagezan spinster, gekira bridegroom, gekizan bride, kira youth, kizan maid; hara Mr., hazan Mrs., haranin Master, hazannin Miss (The last four words may be abbreviated to h, hz, hn, hzn).

The Agent whose sex is not specified is expressed by:—

-ci who, which does; cf. C. chi, R. -chi, Pr. che.

-ji person, who is; cf. T.-ji, J.-jin The former is really a Participle:—ruci which (who) goes, a goer, the going one. It therefore implies action; one who does something. The latter merely signifies a person of unspecified sex. The following three words formed with the radical ka' leading' will illustrate the difference between

-ra, -ci, -ji:—kara officer, kaci leader, guide, kaji chief(tain); less clear are:—bora brother, boci butcher, boji blood-relative.

In expressing military ranks ra distinguishes a commander, -ci an executive officer.

THE INHABITANTS OF COUNTRIES are distinguished by :—

-i Male; Cf. Irani, Bengali, Chinee. e.g. Angli, Rusi, Arabi, Sini (Chinaman)

-a Female; Cf. Italiana, Russkaya. e.g. Fransa, Itala, Irana (Persian woman), Doica (German woman).

These two suffixes are arbitrary and not the radicals *i.a.* We now pass to nouns that are inanimate and have no gender.

## § 15. NEUTER NOUNS

The neuter noun may simply be rendered by a radical; e.g. bo flesh, di part (of), mo fruit, te hand, pe foot. But there are occasions when a distinguishing affix is required to mark a noun from a verbal radical. We have then:—

-na neuter, thing; inorganic.

-ga- neuter, thing; organic.

e.g. tena projection, tega arm; cena lock, cega sinew; dina piece, diga limb; bona (cooked) meat, boga flesh.

As pf. the second radical implies physical, of the body:—

e.g. gabi a physical organ, gase eye; cf. T. gyüze eye, gace the muscular system.

INSTRUMENT. Nouns denoting instruments, utensils, gadgets: --bi 'use'; cf. A. bi, E. by, G. bei.

e.g. rabi male organ, cebi key, tebi handle, gabi organ.

PLACE. Nouns denoting places, shops, areas, buildings.

-a fixed place; cf. I. -ia, R. -ya, J. -ya.

-ma locality; cf. A. ma-, mi-.

-ca area, rectangle, sheet, square (see NUMERALS).

-kan house, building; cf. Pr. khan.

e.g. dia room, compartment, dima district, dica area, dikan appartment, flat; kaya head-quarters, kama point d'appui, kaca Province,

kakan or kayokan headquarter building, town hall, pia nest, pima henrun, place where birds are found or kept, pica bird preserve, pikan aviary. The form -cia indicates the place where a business is carried on :- bocia a butcher's shop.

A noun of place in sf. -a cannot be further suffixed by another radical with initial consonant without inserting the isolator -ci- between them. e.g. pia- piga = piacipiga a nest egg. Without this isolating -ci- there would be confusion with pi + api + ga (see also § 35).

NAMES OF COUNTRIES. The names of countries are formed by suffixing the vowels -ia, already in use to a great extent throughout the world;

e.g. Anglia (An-gli-a), Fransia, Doicia (Germany), Russia, Irania (Persia), Sinia (China).

The Continents remain unchanged:— Europa, Asia, Afrika, Amerika. Geographical names—national spellings:— Praha, Wien, Napoli, Moskva.

## § 16 ABSTRACT NOUNS

Nouns denoting time, state, action, quality;

- -ri Time; cf. J. ori. (Divisions of Time see § 20).
- -ne From (abstraction); cf. R. sf., -nye. Noun of state.

- -da Do; cf. I.G. √ DHA, E. do, R. dye. Verbal noun.
- -vi Quality; cf. R. -vy, E. -y. Noun of Quality.

e.g. diri day, dine division, dida dividing, divi particularity; kari noon, kane leadership, kada leading, kavi superiority.

Combined with ci the three last named radicals express:—

-cine the theory of, study of, -ism; e.g. jo (God), jocine theology.

-cida the practice of a trade, profession; e.g. jocida evangelism.

-civi the art of, science of, -ism; e.g. jocivi priestcraft.

## § 17 DEGREE

Augmentives, diminutives, approbation, disapprobation.

- -ta- Augment; cf. C. ta big, Gk. sf. -tatos.
- -ko- Diminutive; cf. J. ko, I.G. -ok, -ik, -kin; T. juk, jik.
- -xa Approbation; R. sf. -sha, -ushka, (I.) -uccio.
- -ze Disapprobation. Arbitrary radical; cf. I. -accio, R. -ichka.

As pf. the first two radicals indicate the Size or Degree of a noun; as sf. importance or unimportance, full grown or undeveloped, much of or little of. As sf. the last

or displeasing. -xa may also express beauty, and is used in naming flowers, birds, ornaments. Thus we form:—
tara a big man, a great man, rata giant, man of importance, kora boy, rako male child, with the combinations:—tarata a huge giant, korata a well grown boy, kokora a small boy, korako a small male child; raxa a nice, or handsome man, raze an unpleasant, or ugly fellow, takoraxa a fine big boy, takoraze lout. Note also paraxa Papa, Daddy, raninxa 'Sonny boy,' abexa lily, jexa jewel, daxa a kind act, donxa tip, pourboire, mancia.

#### § 18. NUMBER

The number of a noun is not always distinguished. In English we may speak of sheep, fruit, fish, man, tiger in both singular and plural sense, as 'man goes after tiger.' So in Sona—ra uke taxe. Plural number is never marked after a numeral or the radical e 'number' = 'many,' or when a noun stands as predicate to a plural pronoun: e.g. ti (zi) ra 'they are men, mie (zi) pan kora we are all boys.' A PLURAL, however, may be formed with the sf. e 'number,' 'many'; e.g. mie 'we,' (from mi 'I,') koraye 'boys.' As pf. this radical means quantity, many, frequency, multi-; e.g. ekora ' many boys,' eri 'often,' ena every, each. (also see § 22, Comparison).

## § 19. NUMERALS

The numeric system is based on the twelve cardinals: - 1 enna, 2 do, 3 tin, 4 ca, 5 pen, 6 xi, 7 zun, 8 atu, 9 nun and 10 dici (i.e. 'the divider'), 100 son, 1000 tan. From 11 to 19 numbers are formed by combining 1 to 9 with dici; e.g. 11 ennadici or endici, 12 dodici etc. 'Tens' from 20 to 90 are formed by combining 2 to 9 with edi, (i.e by their multiplication by 10). e.g. 20 doyedi, 26 doyedixi; 'Hundreds' and 'thousands' are formed similarly; e.g. 442 cason cayedido (which may be written in one word), 1934 tan nunson tinyedica, 10,000 dicitan, 100,000 sontan; a century sontori, a thousand and one nights tanyenna vandi. Zero naci; a million tanta a billion dotanta.

ENUMERATIVE. As in Chinese and Japanese Sona employs an enumerative

particle corresponding to 'pieces of,' 'head of'; -na;

e.g. dodicina a dozen, doyedina a score xina half a dozen; cana ibo four head of cattle, atuna velen eight sheets of paper, dicina usu ten pieces of silver.

COLLECTIVE. A collective number is formed by the radical -gi;

e.g. dodicigi a party of twelve, songi a company of a 100, engina unit, singleton. In adjectival form this radical distinguishes a multiple; e.g. engio single, xigio sixfold, dogio double, tingio treble; both pando, all three pantin. Proceeded by the radical particle po we have:—po engi by ones, one at a time, po dodicigi by twelves, twelve at a time.

DIVISION. Decimals and fractional numbers are expressed by ko 'small,' which as pf. stands for the decimal point with -na-for a 'nought,' and as sf. for the fraction;

e.g. kotin .3, konatin .03, konanatin .003, etc; tinko one third, tincako three-quarters, zunyatuko seven-eighths. Note do di two parts. A 'half' is diko, one and a half engediko, piece, bit kodi.

ORDINALS. The ordinals are formed from the cardinals by the sf. -o (§ 22) e.g. enyo first, doyo second, dicio tenth, cayedio fortieth. Their corresponding adverbs are formed by changing -o to -u (§ 32).

FREQUENCY. 'Times' is expressed by the pf. e- 'many' (§ 18); e.g. eyenna or eyen once, edo twice, etin three times

Clock hours are named by the cardinals 1 to 24, the word *ori* (o'clock) being added if required; e.g.

e.g. enna (ori) 1 a.m., tindici (ori) 1 p.m., ke ori what is the time? An 'hour' is hori; one hour enna hori, an hour and a half horigediko, half an hour dikohori or tinyedi kori thirty minutes.

Note --- iroki dawn, kiri morning, kari noon, hinkari afternoon, niri evening, irofin sunset, kavan midnight.

Parts of the clock hour are named by using the numerals in two groups—hour—minutes;

e.g. dici cayedipen 10.45 a.m., xidici cayedi 4.40 p.m. (16.40). A minute is kori, a 'second' riko.

A day is irodi, night vandi, a day of 24 hours diri. Note:—irovandi day and night, indiri to-day, invandi to-night, vadiri to-morrow, vavandi to-morrow night, unvadiri the day after to-morrow, hindiri the following day, zadiri yesterday, zavandi last night, unzadiri the day before yesterday, unzavandi the night before last; odi the day of the week, odiri the date; zi diri six days, po zi diri for six days, va zi diri in six days, pan zi diri all six days, ena zi diri every six days, ena zio diri every sixth day, po e zi diri for another six days, ili zi, about six, ili enna diri or ili dirina about a day, pan diri all day, ena diri every day, enu diri every other day.

A week is ridi; day of the week odi, week-day riodi, holiday alodi, this week inridi, next week varidi, last week zaridi.

The days of the week are formed by suffixing -odi to the numbers 1-7; e.g. enyodi Monday, doyodi Tuesday, tinyodi

Wednesday, cayodi Thursday, penyodi Friday, xiodi Saturday, zunyodi Sunday.

Note: Both the Arabs and Persians count Sunday as the first day of the week (A. el ahadd, Pr. yekshamba). The Greeks call Thursday  $\pi \epsilon \mu \pi \tau \eta$  fifth day, while the Russians count Friday 'pyatnitsa' the fifth day; cf. Hung. pentek, Lith. penktadienis.

A month is mendi. The L. names are used. A season is uri. kiuri spring, kauri summer, niuri autumn, finyuri winter; inkiuri this spring (see Day). A year is tori which also expresses age, how old:—ketori 'how old?,' ketoritu 'how old are you?,' mi xidici tori 'I am 16'.

# § 21. COMPOUND NOUN

All nouns formed by more than one radical are actually compounds. There is no limit to the building up of such compounds, so long as they are logically constituted. In the Introductory I have given examples of how polysyllables may also be split up analytically. The governing radical, or group of radicals, stands first as in English 'ice-breaker' and not as in Italian 'rompighiaccio'. An adjective is frequently compounded with the noun it qualifies:—zorovelo a red flower (zoroyo velo), or a Possessive with the

possessed:—korakadi a boy's head (but see § 31). We may compound two nouns:—
parauma father and mother, or two adverbs:-akayani high and low, akaliani up and down. We may form more fanciful compounds such as irovuda dawn—cf. Russian razsviet—the gradual disposal of light, fanvasini fairy-faced, akisamene quickness of understanding, with the adroitness of ancient Greek.

Just as certain radicals assume a fixed value, so certain radical compounds play a similar role:—

hama local, hedi civil, kayo principle, basu naval, kaida government, official, haida state, kaisa political, heida civilization, kaidakacia government official's office, kaisadin political party.

## § 22. ADJECTIVES

One noun placed before another qualifies or defines it; e.g. a big house, a boat house, a country house; S. takan, sucanya, vecaya. But a true adjective is formed by the sf. -(y)o, 'quality' (§ 13); cf. I.G. -o, Franko-Prussian, I. -o, R. -oi; e.g.:- tayo great, big, kanyo domestic, suo of water, watery. Note also the ORDINALS, § 19. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES:—

-vio of the quality of, ravio virile; -bio useful for, used for, rabio phallic; -dio of, belonging to, radio male, masculine; -lio able to, -able, ralio potent; -sio like, -ish, rasio manly; -kio beginning to, -escent, rakio adolescent; -fio not quite, hardly,

-ish, rafio mannish, effeminate; -cio or -ci Participle adjective, raci(o) who acts like a man, brave; -nio or -ni Passive adjective, rani(o) virilized. There are also the forms:—-beyo without, less, rabeyo without a man; -noyo bearing, ferous, ranoyo bearing sons; -panyo full of, -ful, rapanyo manful.

In PREDICATE form, when the radical sense is adjectival, o is omitted; e.g. ra aka the man (is) tall, in raye ta these men (are) big. (§ 35.).

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES. In some oriental languages comparison is implicit rather than explicit. For instance a Persian says: in az un buzurg ast (this than that high is) = This is higher than that; a Japanese: —Fuji ga takai (Fujiyama is high) = higher. So in Sona it may be rendered by using ne' from ' = ' than '; e.g. in ne un aka—exactly like Persian—this (is) higher than that (in this, ne than, un that, aka high), the Superlative being implied by ne pan than all, un aka ne pan that is the highest of all.

Explicit comparison is expressed by:—
e- as pf. to the adjective (Comparative);
en 'the' before the Comparative (Superlative);

e.g. eta more, greater, eko less, en eta most, en eko least, eyaka ra a taller man, en eyaka ra the tallest man, en ekoya ra the smallest man, un en eko(zi) that (is) the smallest, inye en eko(zi) ne pan these (are) the smallest of all, Fuji en eta

akama di Nihonia Fuji (is) the highest (greatest) mountain in (of) Japan. Note:—ta-very, korather; e.g. tayaka very high, kokoyo rather small, kotayo rather big.

COLOURS. Colours and their shades are formed with the radical ro colour.

The simple colours are:—naro black, jero grey, jenaro slate, suro blue, huro azure, usuro silver, viro opal, puro yellow, urro gold, puvero yellow green, vero green, vemuro olive, muro brown, jemuro dun, garo pink, boro carmine, zoro red, umoro cream, bero white

The use of adjectival -(y)o is optional:—
zoro(yo) red. Shades of colour are rendered by:—
azi- vivid, ta- bright, -ta deep, -van dark, -ko
light, -fi pale, -ki slightly, -nan dull.

Compounds are:-

suzoro bluish-purple, zosuro reddish purple, suvero bluish green, vesuro greenish blue.

#### § 23. PRONOUNS

The pronouns are as follows:-

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
mi	I, me, my.	mie	we, us, our.
tu	you, your.	tue	ye, your.
on	he, him, his.	onye	they, their, (masc.).
an	she, her.	anye	they, their, (fem.).
en	it, its.	enye	they, their, (neut.).
			they, their, (general).
in	this (latter).	_	these.
un	that (former).	unye	those.
ena	each, every.	pan	all.
inu	other.	enu	every other.
asi	the same.		one another.
si	one, ones, self,		selves.

own.

The pronoun si is also REFLEXIVE and may refer to any person or number; e.g. on abu si para he loves his (own) father, on sa on para he knows his (another's) father, ti sa si uene they know their (own) duty, xoti anye uene show them their duty (where 'their' refers to women), si abu pan jiko one loves all children, ti abuisi they love one another, ti abusi they love themselves. For the use of -si as a possessive sf. see § 31. There is no distinctive POSSESSIVE form, but the pronoun may, as in A., Pr., be suffixed to the noun possessed; cf. A. ras-i, Pr. sar-am = my head;

e.g. kadi head, mi kadi or kadimi my head, kadieti their heads.

Myself, yourself, etc. take the forms:—
simi, situ; simikadi or kadisimi my own head.
Mine, yours, etc. take the forms mina, tuna;
plurals as:— tina theirs, anyena theirs (fem.),
miena ours. Note:—un sina that is his, un on
that is he, en ti it is they (§ 35).

Pronouns precede, or are prefixed to, and follow, or are suffixed to, a verb according as they are subjective or objective; e.g. mi sa ti or misati I know them; tu sa an or tusayan you know her. As in I. direct and indirect objective pronouns follow, or are suffixed to, the verb in this order; e.g. xo en mi or xoyenmi show it to me,

ka mi on or kamion lead me to him; but to avoid an ugly sound li 'to' (§ 29) may precede indirect on, an, en; e.g. xo inye li on show these to him.

Sona does not use the personal pronouns so frequently as European languages.

In E. we may often dispense with them in telegraphic messages or military reports. In I., C., J. they are sometimes omitted when the sense is clear without them. Thus *keli* 'whither?' is sufficient to express 'where are you going?', *ke dai* (what doing) 'what are you doing?'

The RELATIVE pronoun is ci' which'. As in Pt. it may refer to Person, Thing, Place, Time, Manner, Kind, Quantity; e.g:—ra ci the man who, ti ci they who, kan ci the house which, a ci the place which = where, ri ci the time which = when, u ci the manner which = how, vi ci the quality which = which; taci as much as, e ci, as many as; as pf. this radical expresses 'some,' 'so;' e.g. cira some man, ciji someone, cina something, cia somewhere, ciri sometime(s), ciu somehow, civi some kind (of), cita so much, cie so many; cina a thing, (plural) cigi things. Note:—cieta some more, cisi whose, cidi some (of).

#### V. THE PARTICLE

## § 24 DEMONSTRATIVES

The two following particles have a special use; cf. G. her-, hin-, Pt. ra-, war-:—

in This (here) the latter; Pr. in.

un That (yonder) the former; Pr. un.

We have already noted their use as Indefinite Pronouns (§ 23) and as indicators of Time (§ 20), but they have still a more important function. They mark an action or state towards or away from the sense of the radical to which they are joined. From no 'carry' we form:—inno bring here (towards the speaker), unno take away; from ru 'go':-inru come, unru go away. An equivalent to this construction is found in Pt.:-tilal 'to go,' ratilal 'to come,' wartilal 'to go there' (away). We may also form:—from ibi 'trade,' inyibi buy, unyibi sell; from dan 'value,' indan income, credit, undan expenditure, debit. in this, un that.

The Interrogative is formed in two ways by -ke-' What?'(?); cf. J. -ka?, I.G. k-, h-, ch-; ke = what? As pf. this radical is a direct interrogative;

e.g. keji who? kena (or ke) what? keci which? kesi whose? keya where? keri when? keori (at) what time? keu how? keua why? keta how much? keye how many? kevi what kind of? As sf. this radical questions the preceding word; cf. R. li? A. hal? J. -ka? e.g. rake a man? tusake 'do you know?' It thus automatically isolates a word in a phrase:—onke ari vadiri 'is he coming to-morrow?'

on arike vadiri (or somebody else?)

'is he coming to-morrow?'

(or is he not?)

on ari vadirike 'is he coming to-morrow?' (or some other day?)

There are two useful forms combined with the Negative: - ke na 'or not?' Pt. ka na? na ke 'is it not so?' F. n'est ce pas? Note keha 'what a...!' G. 'was fur ein!'

## § 26. NEGATIVE

The negative is distinguished by the radicals—na-, non-.

na- not, no, un-; Universal, ne-, na, no, non. (Simple Negative);

e.g. naci nothing, nought, zero (§ 19), nayo no, nau in no way, nohow, nadi none (of), naua not at all, naui yet, notwithstanding, naue ought not,

nauo must not, nali cannot; minasa 'I do not know,' tunasake 'do you not know?,' na tu na mi sa 'neither you nor I know.' non- (Reversal); e.g. nondinyo non-party.

## § 27. INTERJECTION

Exclamations, Vocatives and Imperatives may be formed by -ha 'name' (cf. § 13); e.g. baha bang! joha O God! ruha go!

The following are the more common exclamations. When required polite o or -ha may be added.

Absurd lun, absolutely asipan, alas vo, behold haua, be off ruhasi, rusi, be quick akisi, be quiet inisi, beware asesi, bah pu, bang ba, bump udu, bis eha, blast baze, ude, bless you xahatu, bother ja, bravo xaba, bring (me) inmi, inno(mi), carry it nohayen, catch te, certainly asa, come back innusi, come here insi, come in min, come out infusi, crack ide, crash coba, crunch con, curse zeha, curse you zehatu, damn zeba, damn you zebatu, down with utiha, don't mention it na po ci, don't speak nalaba, don't trouble najasi, encore eha, excuse (me) fen(mi), forget (it) fime(yen), exactly ika, forgive (me) von(mi), follow (me) hin(mi), forward! vali, get out fusi, get up akasi, get down anisi, go away unsi, ru(ha), go to hell zelisi, go on eru, good day juri, good morning jukiri, good evening juniri, good night juvan, good bye aireseda, ajo, good luck xafatu, God bless you jolatu, God be with you jolitu, O God joha, by God po jo, my God jomi, halt! man, have done itosi, help soka, here! (look) se, (calling a waiter etc.) oha, heave aru, hurrah juha, hurry up akisi, indeed zike, it is forbidden ubani, it is impossible nali, just so ika, asi, just tell (me) laki(mi), keep on iresi, keep quiet einisi, keep still cesi, let (me) da (mi), lead

on ekasi, leave (it) kaman, left turn zelisi, lie down kusi, look here inse, look out asesi, long live (the King) zinha (ran), march peli, never mind na po ci, never nari, never again naire, no na, no doubt be ken, no chance be fa, no luck be xafa, no smoking na huka, now nu, now then ha nu, of course sameni, of course not naua, open (the door) lo (mindu), out of the way alisi, asesi, pass on torusi, please o cu, o, pull aru, push ruba, put mate, quietly ini, quite so panyasi, quick iki, rather eui, really zike, right ure, right turn urelisi, save (me) soka (mi), send (me) ruka (mi), send for (it) kayari(en), show (me) xo (mi), shut (the door) cen (mindu), sit down kunsi, slowly azasi, stand still cesi, man, stand aside alisi, stand up ukasi, stop cen, man, take (it) teka (yen), take (it) away unno (yen), take (some) ima (di), take (my) place ama mi, take care aseki, thanks xan, thank (you) very much ta xan, that way unli, this way inli, there you are (I. ecco) haua, (I told you so) asiha, to arms bali, to your places (en voiture) kunyeli, too much uto, too fast utoyaki, too long utori, too slow utoyaza, trust (me) aso (mi), try (it) ibuki (en), try again euke, turn round gosi, turn (it) round goru (en), turn over gonusi, undo this lobain, undress yourself besi, understand sameua, very much ta cu, very well ta xa, wait mansi, wait for (me) mansi (mi), wake (me) kila (mi), welcome juari, well fake, well done xadani, what a pity keha vo, wish (me) luck cu (mi) xafa, with pleasure cu ui, without fail be fi, would that cu ua, would you kindly o cu, yes ui, you are right ureua, you are wrong fen ua, you may, can (do something) si alo, you must tu uo, you are early tu kizi, you are late tu aza (zi).

#### § 28. EMPHASIS

The following four particles are emphatic. ua for, as for, in order to; cf. J. wa, Gk.  $\mu \epsilon \nu$ , R. zhe, F. quant a;

e.g.:—tu ua for you, as for you, on ua ci sa it is he who knows. Note:—geua and now, ciua about, concerning, asiua da so as to (intention), koua the less, taua the more, ua na (wa-na) lest, unaua only, hin ua therefore; also:—biua by it, diua of it, F. en, liua to it, F. y, soua with it, neua from it, enua for it, aua at it, naua not at all.

AFFIRMATION. Affirmation, Approval, Assent, is expressed by ui yes, assent, F. oui:—ui yes, sameniui of course. It also indicates encouragement, exhortation:—lakamiui tell me now!

OBLIGATION. Obligation is expressed by two Particles:—

ue ought, should, it behoves: - tu ue ari you ought to come.

uo must, it is necessary:- tu uo ari you must come.

The latter also forms the executive word of command:—

bazo-uo fire!, ureli-uo right-turn!, ase-uo attention!

#### § 29. DIRECTION

Movement towards, direction is indicated by:—

li to, towards cf. A. li. As pf. it signifies 'to' (Dative): li mi to me, li kan to the house; As sf. it means 'towards,'-wards; e.g. inli hither, unli thither, keli whither? neinli hence, nekeli whence, kanli home-wards; Note the form dili for; cf. R. dlya.

The same radical forms adverbs of motion;

e.g. akali up, anili down, combined akaliani up and down; fuli out, lifu to and fro.

It also marks the Points of the Compass:—

N	poli	S	zoli	
NNE	popokili	SSW	zozonili	
NE	pokili	SW	zonili	
ENE	kipokili	WSW	nizonil <b>i</b>	
$\mathbf{E}$	kili	W	nili	
ESE	kizokili	WNW	niponili	
SE	zokili		ponili	
SSE	zozokili	NNW	poponili	
Note:	-polia the	north (pole		pola

#### § 30. PREPOSITIONS

regions, polio northern.

Sona has a general preposition po 'cover;' on, by, at, in, for; cf. R. po, Pt. pa, Esp. ye. It is extensively used in cases where the prepositional sense is indefinite, as in 'at last,' on purpose,' by day,' in case' etc. e.g. po xi diri for six days, po ki at first, po ke at what (price)? = how much?

Each radical used as a Prepostion has its Adverbs of Rest and Motion, which are formed as follows:—a-at, place (§15):—afu outside, ayeza (§ 8.) in rear, behind. -li Direction (See § 29.):—fuli, out, zali back, backwards.

The following is a list of the principle PREPOSITIONS, PREFIXES, AD-VERBS, CONJUNCTIONS.

Ab-ne-, about (concerning) ciua (approx.) ili, above ayaka, according to po, across

(rest) ano, (motion) anoli, ad- li-, after hin, -wards hinli, again eu, ire, against ana, ahead vali, all the same isoua, almost illi, already kiua, along lin, although nan, also ge, alternately poyenu, altogether pange, always panyeri, enari, amid aimi, ambi- go-, among imi, an- na-, ana-(on) apo-, ante-kiva-, anti- ana, (inversion) non-, and ge, -now geua, -then gehin, -yet geui, apart aidi, ayedi, archi- kayo-, around (rest) ayego, (motion) goli, as asi, as if (quasi) asiua, as...as asi...ci, as...so asi...siu, -for ua, -far as arili, -little as ko ci, -much as ta ci, many as e ci, -soon as akiri ci, -well as geua, aside ayali, astride ayapo, asunder aude, at a, po, -first po ki, -last po ito, -least po ko, -most po ta, -once ikiri, -hand auli, away neli, auto si-, back zali, barely beli, because kin, poua, before (in front) va, (of time) kiva, below ayani, beside auli, -s (extra to) efu, (moreover) ireua, between imi, beyond uti, bi- do-, both...and pando...ge, but au, (on the contrary) poyana, -way of via, by bi, po, chance po fa, -force bi ura, -means of bi, -way of (means) bia, - the way po ciua, cata- ani-, certainly eui, circum- go-, circuitously goliu, close by auli, con- so-, concerning ciua, completely panyu, pan-,

conditionally usoyu, consequently po hin, contra- ana-, contrary to ana po, de-(down) ani-, (apart) dine, demi- diko, diade-, directly reli, directly (of time) inkori, dis- idi-, disregarding naciu (pron. na-chiu), down anili, -stairs ania, during man, ri, dys- fi-, either...or nu...nu, else inu, where inua, en- min-, enter- imi-, epiapo-, eso- vi-, eu- xa-, equally isoyu, even siui, -ly ikuyu, eventually itoriu, ever heri, where- ciahe, ex- fu-, except nen, -ionally efuyu, externally fuyu, extra- uti, far away auti, firstly enyu, po ki, for- (out) fu-, for -li, dili, ua, -ever panyeri, -certain asaua, -the use of bili, (c.) poua, forekiva-, formerly zariu, forwards vali, following hinyu, from ne, -out nefu, further ireli, eli, generally heua, gradually cinyu, greatly tau, hardly fi, hence nein, here inya, hetero- inu-, hither inli, hither to kivain, high up ayaka, holo- pan-, homo- asi-, hyper- uti-, hypo- ani-, how u ci, how? keu, -much? po ke, -ever naui, if ken, if...then, ken...hin, -not ken na, -possible ken ni, ken fa, In- (neg.) na-, inter- imi-, intro- min-, in min, -to minli, -wards mindili, -side amin, -the presence of po uli, -contact with poyage, -case po fa, -comparison to unu po, -order to ua da, -place

of ama, -spite of anaui, -that case po un fa, -any case po he fa, -the same way asiu, -use biu, -want beu, -the wake of ahin, -the midst of aimi, -pieces aidi, -company of po so vi, -accordance with usi po, -line ayere, -front ava, -rear ayeza, -vain fiua; just (at the moment) ikari, (exactly) ika, indeed poyaso, in fact ziu, only just fiui, just as assi, just like ikayasi: jointly geu, latterly inzariu, juxta-uli-, less than ko ne, the less koua, lest ua na, level with iso po, likely valiu, little ko, koyu, literally leziu, low down ania, mal-ze-, meanwhile imiri, merely fiui, meta-sonu-, mis-fen-, monouna-, multi- e-, more than ta ne, the more taua, -over ireua, ne-na-, near ili, -by ilia, -ly illi, fi, neither...nor, na...na, never nari, -the less naui, next uli, -day hindiri; no non, na (i.) na, naha, o na, -how nau, -where naya, -less nakoua, -more nataua, naire, not na, -at all naua, -only...but na...au, -withstanding naui, now inri, (Fr. or) eua, -adays indirie, ob- po-; of vi, (partitive) di, some- ci di, none - nadi, - course sameni, -necessity po uo, often eri, omni- pan-; on po, (with contact) apo, -to apoli, -top ayapo, - account of pokin, -condition that po uso, - the contrary poyana, -the right aure, -the left ayeze,

-this side indi, -that side undi, -all sides apandi, -both sides apando, - the way to po via -purpose itiua, -the point of poika, -the one hand indiua, -the other hand undiua, only unaua, -just ikaui, otherwise poinu, out- fu-, opposite ayana, overapo-; part of di, pan- pan-, para- uli-, (shield) upo-, per- de-, peri- go-, perhaps fazi, permanently demanyu, please po cu, o cu, possibly faliu, poly- e-, post- hin-, pre- kiva, pro- va, (instead) ama-, protoki-, probably valiu, purposely itiu, quickly akiu; quite ita, pan, -so itaui; rarely rifi, rather ko, re- ire-, retro- za, really ziu, asoua (i.) ziha, recently ilizari, repeatedly eri, ireu, respecting ciua, -ively isiua, round goli, seemingly xoyu, separately diu, engiu, scarcely fi, sideways alli, similarly asiu, simultaneously isoriu, since neri; so inyu, asiu, -and -jihe, -as to asiuada, -far liin, -little asiko, -many asie, -much asita, (this amount) inta; soon ilivari, somewhat ko, some (of) ci di, -times ciri, -where cia, -how ciu; still riui, (yet) naui, -more eta, -less eko, straight reli; sub- ani-, super- amo-, supra- uti, such asi-, like ciasi, -and- -heyasi, syn- so-; than ne, thanks xan, -to (F. grace a) xan po, that (c.) ua (as in English sometimes omitted);

temporarily akoriu, then hin, thence neunli, there unya, - is (are) zia, -after hinli, - at aua, - fore hinyu, po hin, -from neua, - in mindiua, - to liua, -upon hin ua; though nan, through de, -out deua thoroughly deu, thus inyu, to li, -wards ayeli, -li, - the right ureli, - the left zeli, - the front li va, - the rear li za, - the top li aka, li amo, - the bottom li ani, - the side li ali; together soyu; trans- ano-, ultimately poito, ultra-uti-, un-na-, (reversal) ina-, under- ani- unless nen; under ani, -neath ayani, - the circumstances po rima, unintentionally naitiu, until arili, up (wards) akali, -on apo; very ta-, -well ta xau, vice- ama-, -wards -li, well xau, -done! (bravo) xabaha, whether ken, -or ken...nu, -or not ken...na; when ri ci, when? keri; whence? nekeya, nekeli, whither? keli, where keya, why ua ci, why? keua, wholly panyu, with- ana-, with (together) so, (agency) bi, without be, yet naui, (till now) inli, inyarili.

## § 31. CASE

There are twelve cases formed as follows:—

Nominative. n. before v. misa I (know).

Vocative. -ha miha Ah me!

Accusative. n. after v. sami (knows) me.

Directive. -li mili for me.

Motive

Motive. dili dili mi for my sake. Dative. li li mi to me.

Locative. ayemi at my house. a-Ablative. ne mi from me. nebiInstrumental. bi mi by me. Genitive.(1) vivi mi of me. Partitive. di mi of me. Possessive. n. before n. mi kan my house.

In cases where ambiguity might arise -si may be suffixed to the Possessor noun; e.g. rasi nin the man's child (ranin means

' son ').

(1) e.g. dili fo vi mi for fear of me.

## § 32. ADVERB

Adverbs may be formed by a radical or radicals alone; e.g. ta very, nari never. Other adverbial combinations are:—

-(y)u	Manner	e.g. irau	strongly
bi	Means	e.g. bi ira	by force
po	(General)		in strength
a-	Rest	e.g. afu	outside
-li	Motion		out(wards)
-i	Gerund	e.g. fui	while (putting) out
-ua	Emphatic	e.g. naua	not at all
-ui	Affirmative	e.g. naui	yet