$_{\backslash l}GRAMMAR$

OF THE

ASANTE AND FANTE LANGUAGE,

CALLED TSHI [CHWEE, TWI]:

BASED ON THE AKUAPEM DIALECT
WITH REFERENCE TO THE OTHER (AKAN AND FANTE) DIALECTS

BY

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OF THE BASEL GERMAN EVANGELICAL MISSION

ON THE GOLD COAST, W. A.



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PREFACE.

The Tshi language, of which a Grammar is presented in this book, is spoken and understood throughout the Gold Coast territories and inland countries, as will be seen in the Introduction § 1. On the name of the language, see Introd. § 3. — Though several European nations had intercourse with the natives and formed settlements on the Gold Coast since the 15th or even 14th century (French merchants of Dieppe [of the Rouen Trading Company formed in 1366], 1383-1413, and afterwards since 1578; the Portuguese, 1453 or 1471 and 1481 to 1643; the English, since 1551; the Dutch, 1595-1870; the Danes, from about 1640 to 1850; the Swedes, previous to 1652 and at the least till 1663; the Germans of Brandenburg or Prussia 1682-1720; besides the trading vessels from Spain, America, Hamburg, Bremen, &c.); and though many Negroes learned the Portuguese or Dutch or Danish or English language: yet there has almost nothing of the native language or languages been known in Europe down to the present century. The earliest specimens of the Tshi language we find in a book of the Rev. W. J. Müller, of Harburg near Hamburg, published in German 1673, containing about 500 words in the Fante dialect of Cape Coast, and another of Ch. Protten, a mulatto of the Gold Coast, educated in Denmark, who wrote a scanty grammar of the Fante and Akra languages, together with the Ten Commandments, the Apostolic Creed, the Lord's Prayer and Bible words on Baptism and the Lord's Supper, in both languages, printed in 1764. See hereafter page VI. VII.

The Rev. H. N. Riis of the Basel Mission on the Gold Coast wrote two Grammars of the Tshi language, one in German, and one in English, published in 1853 and 1854 (the full titles see below on page VIII), thereby opening, as it were, the path through an untrodden wilderness in the right direction. The author of the present work, having had the benefit of being initiated into the language by Mr. Riis at Basel in 1851 and 1852, has never ceased to apprize the masterly and at the same time modest manner in which his esteemed and beloved teacher turned to account the materials which he had been able to gather during his rather short stay in Africa (1845–1849). Though Mr. Riis himself calls his representation of the leading features of the grammatical structure of the language imperfect and initiatory, yet those two

publications sufficed so far, that his successor and his fellow labourers could do without a new grammar for a longer time, and preferred to turn their attention and apply their time and strength to practical missionary work and to the *literary cultivation* of the language at once.

The said successor of Mr. Riis in the literary branch of the Basel Missionary Society's work in the Akuapem and Akem Countries had, soon after his arrival\at Akropong in 1853, the further advantage of the assistance of young intelligent Natives, who in the Missionary Schools had already received a valuable amount of instruction in English as well as in attempts of writing their own language; with them he could proceed to translation work, discussing every difficulty and obscurity that presented itself either in the native or in the English and Bible languages. The pupils of the Catechist Institution, and assistants that had come forth from among them, were made to translate, orally and on paper, from Bible History, from the Bible itself and other English books, and to write down old stories, fables of the natives or historical facts, and essays on various subjects; public assemblies were attended, and the speeches delivered in them were dictated from memory by the native assistant and penned down by the missionary; the collection of proverbs, which Mr. Riis had brought to the number of 268, in course of time swelled to ten times that number. In these and other ways, also by intercourse with other natives, young and old, the knowledge of the language was increased, the sounds of it were more closely investigated and clearly distinguished, the laws of the language were found out more and more, and sufficient confidence was obtained that the books prepared for printing were no unripe productions. At the same time every opportunity to get information on the other dialects was eagerly embraced, and the translations in Akra or Gã (introd. § 5 B 1.), which were likewise the result of the co-operation of European missionaries, especially the Rev. J. Zimmermann, with native assistants, were compared and turned to advantage for the translations in Tshi, the more so, as the native assistants usually had a good knowledge of the Akra language besides that of their own. Thus, in the course of time, all the books contained in the list on pag. VIII. IX. were printed; many of them were prepared, by the author of the present publication, on the Missionary Stations at Akropong 1853-58, 1866-68, Aburi 1862-65, Kyebi (in the Akem country) 1865 and 66, many also were carried through the press by the same, during his stay in Europe 1858-62 and since 1869. But now the edition of a new Grammar could no longer be postponed. — Among other preliminary attempts to a new grammar, a vernacular grammar had been written in 1863, by which a grammatical terminology in

I shi was created. The manuscript was copied by native teachers for he use in the Mission Schools. Some years later, after the whole Bible n Tshi had been published, it was rewritten by its author, but instead of having it printed, it was thought better, to write first the present grammar in English, following in various arrangements the course pursued in that previous work, as it seemed to be prescribed by the peculiarities of African, compared with European languages.

The present work is intended for Missionaries and other Europeans that may be desirous of acquiring a knowledge of the chief among the native languages of the Gold Coast, as well as for educated Natives, whether they have received their education in English only, or be already acquainted with reading and writing their own language, as those trained in the Basel Missionary Institutions on the Gold Coast. It is also hoped that this work will be welcome to philologists interested and engaged in the pursuits of science concerning African and general Linguistry and Ethnology.

As to the Alphabet adopted in reducing the Tshi language to writing, Mr. Riis kept to the Rules for reducing unwritten languages to alphabetical writing in Roman characters, with reference especially to the languages spoken in Africa', laid down by the Rev. H. Venn of the Church Missionary Society in 1848, as nearly as the peculiar character of the language would permit. In 1854 these 'Rules' were superseded by the Standard Alphabet for reducing unwritten languages and foreign graphic systems to a uniform orthography in European letters' by Dr. R. Lepsius, Professor (now Privy Counselor of the Government) at Berlin, which alphabet was recommended, approved and adopted by the Church Miss. Soc., the Wesleyan Miss. Soc., the London Miss. Soc. and several other Missionary Societies in England, Germany, France and America, and in which, since 1854, a great number of books in more than twenty African and many other languages have been printed. The necessity as well as the propriety of our making we of that 'Standard Alphabet' is without question to any one acquainted with the book, a second edition of which was printed in 1863. Some sounds, indeed, occur in Tshi, which were not yet contained in the Standard Alphabet, nor in the 120 languages to which it has been applied in the second edition; but, the system, on which the Standard Alphabet has been construed, being elastic enough to admit d reduction or enlargement without alteration in its essential principles, ther a discussion on the nature of those sounds between the author # the Standard Alphabet and the writer of this, signs were provided for those peculiar sounds, and approved by the fellow labourers of he latter in Africa, so that the orthography of this language was identitely settled in 1869, previous to the printing of the entire Bible Tshi in 1870 and 1871.

Concerning the Orthography of foreign, especially biblical, proper names, we refer to § 14 of this Grammar and to the Stories from

General History, translated into the Tshi language, page IV., but have to add the following remark. In Scripture proper names we usually write the letters which the names have in the Latin, English or Ger man Bible and sound them according to the Standard Alphabet, omitt ing such letters as are not heard in pronunciation, and modifying some terminations as in the Italian Bible. To the Hebrew letter represented by the English J, we reserved the Hebrew and German sound, and consequently replaced it by the letter Y of the English and the Standard Alphabet. In the Akra, Ewe and Kru languages the vowel sign I is used in this case, as in Greek. For the sake of conformity with those languages, we should not feel disinclined to follow the same course in future publications. The letter I, besides requiring less space, will be less objectionable than Y, to eyes accusto med to the English J in such names, though the sound will actually be that of Y. (The letter J cannot be used, because the Stand. Alph replaces its German sound by Y, and its English sound by Dz; bu the latter sound ought not to be intruded upon foreign languages, in stead of the simple Y sound of the original Hebrew name.) Consistency with the principles of the Standard Alphabet, however, favours the retention of Y in the names in question.

The preceding notices on the alphabet and orthography in Tsh books are given especially with regard to the writers and readers of the 'Mfantsi Grammar' by D. L. Carr and J. P. Brown, Cape Coast 1868, of which the writer of this in 1870 obtained a copy kindly procured to him by the Rev. J. Baratt of the Wesleyan Methodis Missionary Society. This attempt of natives to reduce the Mfantse language' to writing, following after the earlier attempts of Ch. Protten W. A. Hanson and Timothy Laing, could not but be exceedingly wel come to one engaged in similar pursuits, yet only slightly acquainted with the Fante dialects. But the orthographic system of the Mfants Grammar', based on the English alphabet (only c = š or z being borrowed from H. N. Riis), is by no means satisfactory. Especially the means employed for the representation of the vowel system, which in Tshi contains more and finer distinctions than in the English of any other European language, are quite insufficient. For 10 pure and 7 nasal vowel sounds, each of them long and short, or for about 34 distinct vowels, the Mf. Gr. uses only 5 letters, 3 of them with two fold sounds; and to indicate one of those nasal (but nevertheless simple) vowels, two or three letters are used; e.g. the words efa, mfe, mpa papa, efa, mfe, mpa, papa, are written in the Mf. Gr. 'effur, mf mpa, pappur, efhur, mfhi, mphur, paphur'; and in the four last words the h ought to have an n subscribed, both together only to denote the nasalization of the succeeding vowel. In the etymological and syntactical parts of the Mfantsi Grammar it is likewise evident that the authors were under the disadvantage of being not acquainted wit the great variety of grammatical phenomena in different language besides the English and their own. The present Grammar contain references to the Mf. Gr. in several places, and they would have bee1 increased, if it had not been for want of space.

The author has never had the advantage of living among or conversing with Englishmen more than a few weeks at a time, neither could he submit the manuscript or part of it to an Englishman before it went to the press; he begs, therefore, to excuse for any deficiencies with regard to the English diction, technical terms, punctuation and the like. He is, however, indebted to a brother missionary, the Rev. J. Mack, joint author of a Tulu Grammar (Mangalore, Basel Mission Press, 1872), who had been 15 years in the East Indies and happened to take his abode for a short time in the same country-town, for his advice and corrections and the communication of some English and East Indian Grammars, the arrangements and technical terms of which contributed to the features of the present book. It is worth noticing, that Mr. Mack was surprised to find many analogies in the ways of expressing man's thoughts in the African and Dravidian languages.

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By another missionary from the East Indies the author was made acquainted with Th. Prendergast's Mastery System, which he partly followed in initiating a newly appointed missionary in the Tshi language, and which led him to hope that the manner in which examples are given in this Grammar, will prove to be useful for more than one method of learning the language. If a learner should not be inclined to follow the grammatical arrangement and definitions in this Grammar, he may pick out such sentences as he thinks to be answering to his practical purposes; only we would advice every foreign student desiring to master the language, to have the sentences, as far as possible, read or spoken to him by Natives, and to learn with his ear and tongue not less than with his eye. It remains the author's wish, to add to this publication not only a shorter Vernacular Grammar, but also more extensive lists of words and collections of sentences and well arranged proverbs serving as a 'Grammar in Examples', besides a Tshi English Dictionary. For a satisfactory preparation of the latter, he is desirous of increasing his knowledge of the Fante and Asante dialects, either personally, or by any contributions in writing that may be obtainable from natives educated in the English and German Missionary Schools on the Gold Coast.

May the new era inaugurated for the Gold Coast by the termination of the Asante war in the first months of 1874, be marked by a steady progress in every endeavour and undertaking to bring the long neglected and long benighted countries of the Gold Coast under the influences of true civilization and of its most effective agent, the light of the Gospel.

Schorndorf, Würtemberg, January 1875.

J. G. CHRISTALLER.

LISTS OF BOOKS FOR LITERARY REFERENCES.

A. Authors or Publications on Geographical and Historical Matters of the Gold Coast.

Information on the state and history of the Gold Coast since the 15th century may be drawn from the following sources:

- a. Portuguese authors, e.g. Vasconcelos in his Life of King John.
- b. French, Dutch and English authors of the 17th and 18th centuries, who had been on the Gold Coast in or about the years put in parenthesis, in books bearing the titles of a Journey to Guinea or a Description of Guinea; viz. Villault de Bellefond (1666), Burbot (1680-87), Bosman (1695-99; his book was printed in French, Utrecht 1705), Th. Phillips (1694), G. Loyer (1701), J. Alkins (1721), des Marchais (1725), W. Smith (1726); Artus of Danzig (about 1600) in de Bry's East Indies, the 6th part.
 - c. German and Danish authors of the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries:
- 1. Müller, W.J. (1662-70 a Danish chaplain at Frederiksborg, which fort in 1685 was sold to the English and named Fort Royal, now Fort Victoria, one of the detached forts of Cape Coast Castle). His book bears the title: 'Die Africanische Landschaft Fetu' [Afutu], Hamburg, 1673 (a counterfeited edition appeared at Nürnberg 1675), pages 287, besides a vocabulary of about 500 words.
- 2. Tillemann, E. (a Danish lieutenant at Christiansborg for 9 years), 'Beretning om det Landskab Guinea &c.' Kjöbenhavn, 1697. pp. 163.
- 3. Rask, J. (a Danish chaplain in Guinea, 1709-1712), 'Reisebeskrivelse til og fra Guinea', Trondhjem, 1754. pp. 320.
- 4. Römer, L. F. (a Danish merchant ab. 1735-1743), 'Efterretning om Kysten Guineu', Kjöbenhavn, 1760. pp. 348. (German ed. 1769.)
- 5. Isert, Dr. P. E. (a Danish physician general), Reise nach Guinea &c. (1783-1786), Kopenhagen, 1788. pp. 376. (He died 1789 on the Danish colony Frederiksnopel founded by him on the Akuapem mountains, near Akropong.)
- 6. Monrad, H. C. (a Danish chaplain on the Gold Coast 1805-1809); Gemälde der Küste von Guinea &c., translated from the Danish into German, Weimar, 1824. pp 388. In the preface on page XI. other Danish sources of information on the Gold Coast are mentioned.
- 7. The Missionaries of the Moravians, who died on the Gold Coast in 1736, 1768, 1769, among them Ch. Protten (see hereafter, B 2.). Some information on the peoples and languages of the Gold Coast is also found in Oldendorp's 'Geschichte der Mission der evangelischen Brüder auf den Inseln S. Thomas, S. Croix und S. Jan', Barby, 1777.

8. The Basel Missionaries, in their reports &c. since 1828.

A good deal of information concerning Asante is contained in the interesting book "Vier Jahre in Asante, Tagebücher der Missionare Ramseyer und Kühne aus der Zeit ihrer Gefangenschaft, bearbeitet von Dr. H. Gundert", Basel, 1874, 2d ed. 1875. This book has been translated into English by Mrs. Weitbrecht: "Four Years in Ashantee by the Missionaries Hamseyer and Kühne." London, J. Nisbet & Co. 1875.

- d. English authors of the 19th century, previous to the war of the English with Asante in 1873 and 74. The most important are
 - 1. Bowdich, a Mission to Ashantee; London 1819; reprinted 1874.
- 2. Beecham, Dr. J., Ashantee and the Gold Coast, London, 1841. (He mentions also the works of Mercdith, Dupuis, Hutton, &c.)
 - 3. Cruickshank, B., Eighteen Years on the Gold Coast, London, 1853.
 - 4. The Missionaries of the Wesleyan Methodist Miss. Soc. since 1835.

Compilations on the state and history of the G. C. are also found in East, D. J., Western Africa; its Condition &c. London, 1844, and in Wilson, J. L., Western Africa, its History &c. London and New York, 1856.

B. Authors furnishing information or specimens of words of the Tshi Language.

- 1. Müller, W. J., 1670. See the preceding list, A c 1.
- Protten, Ch., a mulatto of Christiansborg, studying at Copenhagen, about 1760. En nyttig Grammaticalsk Indledelse til Tvende hidindtil gandske ubekiendte Sprog, Fanteisk og Acraisk, Kjöbenhavn 1764. (A useful Grammatical Introduction into two hitherto entirely unknown Languages, Fante and Akra, Copenhagen 1764. 29 pages).
- 3. Kilham, Hannah, Specimens of African Languages.
- 4. De Graft, W., Fanti Vocabulary in Dr. J. Beecham's 'Ashantee and the Gold Coast'.
- 5. Ansa, John Owusu, and W. Owusu Kwantubisa, two Asante princes, 1836-41 in England.

The words of 3-5 are embodied in a Vocabulary of a few of the principal languages of Western and Central Africa, compiled (by the African Civilization Society with the assistance of Mr. Edwin Norris, Assist. Secr. to the Royal Asiatic Soc. of London) for the use of the Niger Expedition, London, 1841.

- Clarke, J., Specimens of Dialects, short Vocabularies of Languages, and Notes of Countries and Customs in Africa, Berwick-upon-Tweed, 1848.
- 7. Riis, H. N., 1849. See the succeeding list, C. 5. 6. 4.
- 8. Kölle, S. W., Polyglotta Africana, London, 1854.
- 9. Carr, D. L., and Brown, J. P., Mfantsi Grammar, Cape Coast, 1868.

C. Publications in the Tshi Language, prepared by the Basel Missionaries in the Akuapem and Akem Countries.

The figures 1—43 refer to the order in which the single publications followed each other. See "A Dictionary, English, Tshi (Asante), Akra", pag. XVI—XX. where the titles are also given in Tshi, and the names of the translators of the books under II. III. are added. Those marked * are still to be had or in use, the rest are out of print or replaced by new editions.

I. Grammars and Vocabularies.

- *5. Elemente des Akwapim Dialects der Odschi Sprache, enthaltend grammatische Grundzüge und Wörtersammlung, nebst einer Sammlung von Sprüchwörtern der Eingebornen, von H. N. Riis (pp. 18. 324). Basel, C. Detloff, 1853.
- *6. Grammatical Outline and Vocabulary of the Oji Language, with especial reference to the Akwapim Dialect, together with a Collection of Proverbs of the Natives, by Rev. H. N. Riis, (pp. 8. 276). Basel, C. Detloff, 1854.
- *41. A Grammar of the Asante and Fante Language called Tshi, the present book.
- *39. A Dictionary, English, Tshi (Asante), Akra, by the Rev. J. G. Christaller, Rev. Ch. W. Locher, Rev. J. Zimmermann (pp. 24. 275). Basel, Missionsbuchhandlung, 1874.

II. The Bible and Portions of it.

- *28. The Holy Bible, translated...into the Tshi Language...
 The Old Testament (p. 783), Basel, 1871, bound up with
- *27. The New Testament (p. 255), Basel, 1870.
 - 9. The Four Gospels (p. 285). London, 1859.
 - 10. The Acts of the Apostles (p. 87). Basel, 1859.
 - 18. Genesis. 19. Romans, I-III. John, Revelation. Stuttgart, 1861.
 - 20. I. II. Corinth. Galat. Ephes. to II. Thessal. Stuttgart, 1862.
 - 21. I. Timoth. to Jude. Stuttgart, 1863.
- *23. The Four Gospels, 2d ed. (p. 276.) Basel, 1864.
- *26. The Psalms and Proverbs (p. 205, 70). Basel, 1865.

III. Books for the School, Church and Fumily.

- 1-4. Spelling and Reading Books (pp. 36, 14, 159, 48). Basel, 184? 1845. 1846. 1850.
 - 13. Six large cards, for writing and reading. Basel, 1859.
- A Primer, together with a Collection of Scripture Passages (p. 68).
 Basel, 1859.
- *31. Primer for the Vernacular Schools in Akuapem, Akem . . . 2d ed. (p. 88). Basel, 1872.
 - 7. Dr. Barth's Bible Stories (p. 2. 192., with wood-cuts). Stuttgart, 1855.

- 8. Appendices: Corrections; On the Orthography of the Language; A Prayer read in Church; A Catechism of Christian Doctrine (p. 12). Stuttgart, 1857.
- *29. Dr. Barth's Bible Stories, 2d ed. (p. 2. 186. with many illustrations). Basel, 1871.
- *17. (Arnold's) Bible Stories for Little Children (p. 75, with woodcuts). Basel, 1862.
 - 16. The History of our Lord's Passion (p. 31). Stuttgart, 1861.
- 22. A Catechism of the Christian Doctrine, and Select Scripture Pussages (p. 84). Stuttgart, 1864.

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- *33. Words for Learning and Praying, containing
 I. A Catechism of the Christian Doctrine, II. Select Scripture
 Passages, III. The History of our Lord's Passion, IV—VI. Some
 Prayers at the Sunday Services, for Family and Private Worship, and for School-children (p. 2, 175). Basel, 1872.
 - 11. A Hymnbook, containing 193 Hymns (p. 328). Stuttgart, 1859.
- *24. Liturgy and Hymns containing I. Common Prayer, Litany, Order and Manner of Baptism, Confirmation (with a Catechism, called Confirmation-Book), Administration of the Lord's Supper, Solemnization of Matrimony and the Burial of the Dead; II. 236 Hymns in the Akuapem dialect, 15 native Fante Songs; p. 339). Basel 1865.
- 25. Statutes and Liturgy of the German Evangelical Mission Churches on the Gold Coast (Statutes, p. 3-43; the rest of the Liturgy, containing different Prayers and Thanksgivings in the Church and the Order of Consecration of Catechists or Deacons and Ministers or Priests, p. 44-87). Basel, 1865.
- 30. Regulations for Catechists (p. 18). Basel, 1871.
- *34. The Doctrines of the Christian Religion, based on Dr. Luther's smaller Catechism, by J. H. Kurtz, D. D., translated (with an Appendix on the Ecclesiastical Year and Lists of Bible Lessons; p. 4. 135). Basel, 1872.
- 14. Tunebook to the Otji and Akra Hymnbooks (p. 12.48.). Basel, 1860.
- 38. Tunes to the Tshi and Akra Hymnbooks, supplementary to the Choralbook for Wirtemberg, 2d ed. (p. 16.76). Basel, 1874.
- *32. Instruction in Arithmetic, (p. 3, 175). Basel, 1872.
 - 42. Examples for the School-Arithmetic in Tshi (the printing of the manuscript has been postponed).
- *15. Tables of General History (p. 24). Stuttgart, 1861.
- *37. Stories from General History (p. 11. 244). Basel, 1874.

III. Tracts.

- *40. Man's Heart, either God's Temple or Satan's Abode, represented in 10 figures (p. 55). Basel, 1874.
- *35. The Orphan's Letter to his Saviour in Heaven (p. 8). Basel, 1873.
- *36. Oguyomi, the Negro Girl at Ibadan (p. 16). Basel, 1873.
- *43. The Spread of Christianity in Germany (p. 56). Basel, 1875.

INTRODUCTORY NOTES

ON THE LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS OF THE GOLD COAST.

their Extent and Position among other Languages.

§ 1. The Dialects of Tshi: Akan and Funte. Enumeration of the Countries in which they are spoken.

The principal Language of the Gold Coast and its inland countries, of which a Grammar is presented in this book, comprehends both Akán and Fànté dialects. Akán is chiefly represented by Asànté and Akém, and in purity, extent and importance prevails so much over the Fante dialects, that we might even use this name as the common name of the Language instead of Tshì. Before discussing this question about the name (in § 3), we shall enumerate the different countries and dialects of this language, in five groups, beginning at the western corner of the Gold Coast and proceding to the east and inland.

- A. Akan Dialects are spoken in the western part of the Gold Coast in the following countries.
 - 1. Asini, Kwantiabo, Anka, Afuma, see § 6 B 1.
- 2. Amanahia (Apollonia), from the lagoons and outlets of the river Tando or Tanno to the Ankobra River.
 - 3. Awini (Awene, Aowin), to the north of Amanahia.
- 4. Ahanta, between and partly beyond the rivers Ankobra and Pra. On the coast the districts of Axim &c., Akoda and Dixcove or Mfūmá are included; Ahanta itself reaches from Busua to Secondce or Sakúnne.

The Akan dialects of these countries do not seem to be as pure as the inland dialects to the north-east of them, and in parts of Ahanta other indigenous dialects seem to be used besides.

- 5. Wasa (Wasaw), along the northern and eastern borders of Ahanta, extending to the sea-coast near Sakunde, and reaching as far as Akataki (British Commenda). The Wasas are said to have first found gold and to have once been superior to the Asantes; they belong to the Guan tribes (cf. § 5 A 1. 3.), but have adopted the Akan language.
- 6. Tshuforo (Tshiforo, Twiforo, orig. Kwiforo, also written Juffer, Tufel); this is a smaller tribe to the north-east of Wasa, speaking a genuine Akán dialect.

- 7. Dénkyéra (Dankara, Denkera, Dinkira &c.), was a once powerful tribe to the north of Wasa and south-west of Asante. The Asantes, first subject to them, subjugated them in their turn about the year 1719, when Asante became the most powerful nation of the Gold Coast countries. Reduced by subsequent wars with Asante, the Denkeras at last emigrated and settled in the Fante country between Wasa and Abora, having for their capital D wok wā (Juquah, about 12 miles north of Elmina, taken by the Asantes in 1873).
- B. The Fante Dialects, occupying the middle part of the Gold Coast, 80 to 100 miles between the rivers Pra and Sakumo, and extending 20 to 25 miles inland, are spoken in the following countries and districts.
- 1. The district of Komane (the formerly Dutch Commenda) and Aguāfo, bordering on Wasa (A 5) in the west and north-west.
 - 2. The town of Elmina or Děná (Oděná, Eděná).
 - 3. The Afutu Country, with Cape Coast or Guā (Oguā, Eguā).
- 4. Fante proper, with the capitals Anamaboe or Onomabo (Enomabow) on the coast, and Mankesém, a few miles inland.—

To the Fante country in a wider sense belong Afutu (No. 3) and the six following districts.

- 5. Aborà, to the north of Afutu and Fante proper, with the capital Abakrampa.
 - 6. Agyimako, to the north-east of No. 5.
- 7. Akomfi, to the east of No. 4-6, with the capital Tuam (Tantum) on the coast.
- 8. Gomoá (Dwommoá), with the coast-town Apám or Apá, and the capital Gomoa Asén, on the Amankwādé hills some miles inland.
- 9. The Agona Country's south-eastern part, with the coast-towns Winnebah or Simpā, Bereku, Sanyā and the capital Nsabā, 20 miles inland.
- 10. The Agona Country's north-western part with the capital Así-kūma, to the north-east of Nr. 6.

On the Akra country and language, to the east of No. 9, cf. § 5 B. On remnants of another language in the districts No. 7-9, cf. § 5 A.

- C. Akan Dialects are spoken in the following countries of the eastern part of the British Protectorate (as it was formerly called).
- 1. Asén, lying to the north of Abora (B 5) and to the east of Twiforo (A 6). One half of this tribe formerly dwelled on the northern side of the river Pra, but when they threw off the Asante rule, their country to the north of the Pra was left to lie waste, and the river was made the boundary.
- 2. Akém Kòtokú, a tribe that emigrated from Asante (after 1830) and settled within the territories of Abúakwa (No. 3). The capital is Akem Sóaduru in Western Akem, bordering on an Asante province in the north (Dadease?). Formerly part of this tribe was settled in the

north of Eastern Akem, at Gyadam, between Asíàkwa and Begoró, but king Agyeman left that town and neighbourhood in 1860, in order to terminate the quarrels with Ata II., the king of Akém Abúàkwa. Their dialect is rather Asante than Akem.

- 3. Akém Abúàkwa (Eastern Akem), borders on Asíkūma, Agona and Akuapem in the south. The king dwells at Kyebi; his dukes are the chiefs at Akyéase, far in the west (perhaps bordering on Asen, near Soaduru and Asíkuma) and at Sĕnāse near Asāman in the south, at Kukurantimi in the east, and at Asíakwa and Begoro in the north. Akem is an extensive country, but thinly populated; the tribe, once powerful and renowned, has been much reduced by former wars with Asante and the laziness of the men. Their dialect is considered the purest and nicest Akan dialect.
- 4. Akuapém, on the Akuapem mountains from Berekuso (bordering on Akra) to Krobo, and in the broad vale along their northwestern side. The people are of a threefold origin: u. Indigenous Akáns, at Aburi, Afwerase, Berekuso; b. Akans from Akem, the king with (part of) the inhabitants of Akropong and Amannokrom; c. of Guan descent (cf. § 5, A 1): aa. Mampong, in the midst between Aburi and Akropong, with four other townships, Tutu and Asantémma (Obósomase) on the Aburí side, Abotaki and Mamfe on the Akropong side; bb. two Date towns, Ahenase and Kubease; cc. five Kyerepong towns, Abiriw, Odawu, Awukugua with Abonse, Adukrom, Apirede. The towns under aa. have since about 1750 entirely exchanged their own language with Akan; those under bb. and cc. have retained their own language, besides speaking Akan. - When Akuapem goes to war, the duke of Aburi leads the van, one party of the Akropongs under their own duke forms the centre, and another party of them with the king is in the rear; the Kyerepongs under the duke of Adukrom form the right wing, and the remaining 7 townships under the duke of Date form the left wing. - A similar organisation is met with in other Akan and Fante countries, so that in every one the king has four to six chiefs of the principal towns as his dukes, and these again have the chiefs of all the minor towns subordinate to them.
- 5. Akwam', the small remnant of the once mighty and warlike Akwambu nation, now occupying the banks and especially the eastern side of the river Volta (or Firaw) from Senkye to Pese, speaking an indigenous Akan dialect.
- 6. Kāmānā, a small tribe to the north-west of, and belonging to Akwam; they are said to be the parent tribe of the Kwawu people (D II.1.), speaking an Akan dialect not acknowledged as pure and therefore called Apotokán.
- D. Akan Dialects are spoken in the confederate and subject provinces of the Asante kingdom, as it existed before the burning of Kumase by the English in 1874.
- I. The confederate provinces, which constitute Λ sante proper, are the following:

- 1. Atwoma (Atshoma, named from the red clay of which the soil consists), with the capital Kumase.
- 2. Sekyere, with the capitals D waben (Juuben) to the east, and Mampon to the north-east of Kumase.
 - 3. Kokofú, with its capital having the same name, to the south-east.
 - 4. Amanse, with the capital Bekwae, to the south-west.
 - 5. Kwabiri, with the capital Mamponten, to the west.
 - 6. Nsútá, the capital having the same name, to the north.

The five principal towns of Asante proper, which are sometimes spoken of as Akám-mane nnúm, the Fine Akan States, are Okúmase, Odwabén, Kokofú, Bekwae, and Omámpon or Nsútá.

(The prefix o- in three of these and in other names is usually omitted.)

To these provinces of Asante proper we add

- 7. Adanse, with the capital Fomana, to the south.
- II. The subject provinces, called Bronfo, having Asante law and Asante rights, are the following:
- 1. Kwawu, including Kwawu Kodiabe or Asante Akem, to the east of Asante proper, with the towns Aguago, Kodiabe, Abetifi.
- 2. Burom, capital Takiman, to the north-east, extending to the Volta, where it is joined by
 - 3. Worawora, to the east of that river (?).
- 4. Nkorán sã (which is also the name of the capital), to the N. N. E., a seven days' journey from Kumase; the people are of the same origin as the Asantes, but have antique forms in their language.

To this we probably have to join the two following provinces:

- 5. Kărákye; these people are said to be from Date (cf. C 4 c. bb.) and speak their own language besides Tshi.
- 6. Ntwumuru (Ntshimuru), of which the name already, as well as the language, points to Tshi origin. —

Turning now to the west, we find mentioned:

- 7. Abesim, to the N. W., not far from the tributary state of Gyaman.
- 8. Manosu, to the west, with gold mines.
- 9. Ahafo, to the S. W., with extensive forests, from which divers kinds of venison and also snails, all dried, are brought to Kumase.
- 10. Dadease is mentioned as a province in the south; perhaps it belongs to Kokofu (as Sokore in the east to Dwaben?).
- 11. Safwi (Sahwi, Sawee), to the S. S. W., about a week's journey or 120 miles from Kumase, bordering on Wasa and Awini and the countries on the western side of the river Tando, may rather be called tributary than subject to Asante.
- E. Akan Dialects are also spoken in countries to the north of Asante, either tributary to, or without connection with Asante.
 - 1. On the tributary countries, see § 2.
- 2. Trubi is said by J. Clarke to be a country "to the north of Ashanti and near to Moshi (cf. § 2,) among the Kong mountains;"

- or, "behind Dahomy, towards Yoruba." The numerals and other specimens of the language given by Clarke are Akán, but a few Guan words are admixed, from which we may infer, that Trubi is in a similar case as Karakye (cf. D II. 5.), if not identical with, or belonging to it.
- 3. Kyerehf, with the towns of Bowuru, Apeso, Apáfó, Bórada, Totorómà, and many others, is a country behind Worawora, to the east of the upper Volta, perhaps far to the north of Dahome, not connected with Asante, but the language is Akan.*

§ 2. Countries and Languages to the North of Asante.

Before returning to the Gold Coast Languages, we insert names and notices of other countries and languages in the steppe to the north of Asante, called Serem (Sarem), or beyond it, several of which countries, partly inhabited by Mohammedans, were tributary to Asante.

- 1. Gyámàn with its capital Buntúků, a ten days' journey to the N. N. W. of Kumase, beyond the river Tanno, bordering on Kónö (Kong) to the north, with gold mines. It has a language of its own, but Akan is largely understood from the frequent intercourse.
- 2. Banda or Banna to the north of Kumase and north-west of Nkoránsã.
- 3. Nta, a populous country with the great market-town Sàlagha or Saraha, perhaps 170, or, according to *Bowdich*, 250 miles to the north-cast of Kumase, a good day's journey from the other side of the Volta. Dabóyà is the second town in size. The numerals of Nta, as given by *Bowdich*, are nearly the same as in Tshi.
- 4. Anwā or Awonwa and Dagomba or Dagamma (Bowdich: Yngwa, Dagwumba), with the large town of Yende (Yenne, Yāne, Yāni), a 4 to 5 days' journey to the north-east of Salaga. The language is similar to that of Mōsi (see below No. 5).
- Rem. 1. The inhabitants of No. 1. 3. 4. are Mohammedans, at least in the large towns; the country people of Dagámmà may still be heathen. Gyaman, Nta and Dagomba are said by Bowdich to have been rendered tributary by Osei Opoku (1731-1742); but Gyaman especially, afterwards repeatedly rose in war against Asante, and was reported in 1866 as having become independent. In Anwa the Mohammedans in 1873 (about 1 July) treacherously blew up with gunpowder several Asante messengers. Banda is recorded as having been engaged in war with Asante under Osei Akwasi (1742-1752) and Osei Kwame

^{*}Rice is the chief food there; iron is got from the ore by melting; houses are built with long beams of the odum tree (which is also used in building by the missionaries in Akuapem). — A young man that had been brought thence, with his hand fastened to a block of wood for three months, till he arrived and was sold as slave at Akropong, was astonished to find himself, after so long a journey, among people of the same language. The writer of this spoke with him shortly before he left for Europe in 1858, but was sorry to find him no more alive when he had returned to Akropong.

(1781-1797) and as having been destroyed by the Moslem king of Ghofan (?), who was repulsed by the Asantes between 1800 and 1807.

Rem. 2. Nta has been considered by some as the place of origin of all Tshi tribes; but the Tshi people themselves use Otání, pl. Ntáfó (in contrast with Okánni, Akánfo, which denote the pure Tshi people) for the potofo of Serem and almost equally to Odoňkó or Odoňkoní, plur. Nnoňkofó, from Nnoňkó, which denotes all the nations and tribes of the interior not speaking Tshi, many of whom are Mohammedans.

Of tribes in Serem and neighbourhood, an informant in Kyebi (Akem, 1866) named the following: Pàmi, Mfúnaré, Nnōse, Mpámpama(fo). Others add as 'Ntáfó aman (countries of the Nta people)' Kónò (cf. No. 1), Kurúsì, Wóromra and even Nkoránsā (DII. 4), besides those mentioned under No. 1. 3. 4. and hereafter under No. 5 and 6.

- 5. Mósì seems to be a large country to the north of Asante and its dependencies, from which, either by wars, or by caravans coming to Sàlăga, many slaves are brought to Asante. On the language see No. 4. The people of Mósì and Sánà are said to be heathen. Other countries in the neighbourhood of Mosi are: Mōzánze, Bánò, Kúluga (Heathens) and Yàrégà (Mohammedans), speaking a different language; Gamāra (Moham.) and Gurumá. These names were obtained, in 1858, from a former slave from Mozanze, who became a Christian at Akropong.
- 6. Màríwá, Marawá, Marowa (Bowd. Mallowa), is the Tshi name for Hausa. Hausa slaves, brought by caravans to the market at Salaga, are met with also in Akuapem; some Hausas fought in the Asante war (1874) on the Asante side, whilst others, that had once been slaves in Asante, fought under the English.

§ 3. Names of the Language: Tshi, Amina, Akan.

1. As a common name of the 'Asante and Funte Language' we have put down the name 'Tshi, which, however, presents difficulties for the pronunciation and writing by Europeans. It was originally Kwi (or, with a prefix, Ekwi, Okwi); the 'k' was changed by the influence of the succeeding 'i' (sounding as in 'field') into the sound of 'ch' in 'cheese', yet mitigated by the 'w' blended with it. Hence H. N. Riis wrote in English 'Oji', in German 'Odschi', but within the language he wrote 'Tyi', which (in 1869) was changed into 'Twi'; instead of rendering this in English by 'Chwee', we preferred to write 'Tshi', in harmony with the German writing 'Tschi'. — The name 'Tshi, or Twi, is not only used by the natives themselves, but also by the Akras and the tribes to the east of the Volta, in the form Otsui' as the language of Ashanti &c.*

The prefix of Etwi, as name of the language, is better omitted. In the compounds Otwini, a Tshi mun, pl. Atwifo, and Otwikásá, Tshi

2. Another name which is found to have been used for the language in question, is Amina. Ch. Protlen in the preface to his Grammatical Introduction into Fante and Acra, Copenhagen, 1764, calls the former repeatedly the 'Fante or Amina Language', and finally resolves to use the name Fante, only on account of its being known to the Europeans. Oldendorp, in the geographical and linguistic information gathered from the slaves on the Danish islands of S. Thomas, S. Croix and S. Jan (1767, 22 Mai, to 1768, 23 Oct.), uses the name Amina instead of Asante about thirty times; only once the name Assenti is found. Cf. the list given above on page VI, Ac. 7.

He says: "With the Fante, Akkim, Akkran, Beremang, Assein, Kisseru (?), Atti (the former name of Abora?), Okkau and Adansi, they have almost continual wars, the sole cause of which is kidnapping... One tribe of the Amina, the Quahu, kills many elephants." (This 'Quahu' and the above 'Okkau' are the same name Okwawu, § 1 D II 1.) The Akkran (Akra, Gã, in those times subject to Asante), are said to belong to, and the Tambi (= Adampe, Adamme), to border with the Amina and to understand their language, beside speaking their own (cf. § 5 B).

Clarke also knows the name Amina, but places it "to the east of Ashanti" or "near to Akim". Under 'Fanti' he says: "The dialect of Fante is called Fetu, or the Amina Tongue". — To revive this name Amina, can, however, not be recommended.

3. The Funtes are likely to object to the adoption of the generic name T w i (or K w i, as they would say) as a name including Fante, because they do not use it so, and likewise to the name A k an, because they apply it only to the inland dialects in contradistinction of the 'Fanti or Mfantsi language', as they call their own dialects. But Fante and Akan cannot be considered as two distinct languages; though both of them be subdivided in secondary dialects, they are only branches of a common stem, or Akan may be considered rather as the main trunc, and Fante as a side branch. Whoever likes an unmistakable, easily pronounced name, may prefer Akan, comprising within this appellation the Fante class of dialects; but as we shrink from introducing changes which may provoke fresh criticisms, we stick to the generic appellation of the Tshi language.

lunguage (from okásá, language), the prefix is 'o', but even this often falls off. — The syllable twi is also found in the names Twuforo (foro = new), and probably Ntwumuru (§ 1 A 6; D II 6; 'i' before m, f, becomes 'u'); in Twidam (Bowdich: Tchweedam, Beecham: Chudan), the name of one of the original families of the nation; in etwi, kurótwiamánsã, names of the leopard &c.

§ 4. The Literary Dialect, based on the Dialect of Akuapem, as being intermediate between the Akan and Fante Dialects.

The chief language of the Gold Coast stands not only in want of a generic name universally recognized; the question which dialect is to have the mastery in its literature too is to be solved.

When Sir Garnet J. Wolseley addressed his summons from Cape Coast, Oct. 13th, 1873, to the king of Asante, it was at first intended to have the letter sent in Asante and English; but then only it was discovered "that no proper written representation of the Fante or Asante dialect existed." This prevented the dispatch of the summons for nearly a fortnight. But a real transliteration of the Tshi language had for some time been in existence, which, though not immediately based on the Asante or any Fante dialect, would perfectly have answered the requirements of the case. We mean the transliteration of the Akuapem dialect, which will be the most eligible foundation for a Tshi literature, though as yet hardly known, much less tried, by the educated Fantes who were hitherto accustomed only to English books and orthography. The orthography ingrafted on the English language in the course of its historical development, but inconsistent in itself and with the actual pronunciation, and defective as that of no other literate language, cannot be made the foundation for reducing a hitherto unwritten language to writing, as has been tried in the Mfantsi Grammar by D. L. Carr and J. P. Brown, Cape Coast, 1868, by which the authors thought to "confer upon the Nation the rights of having its language added to the catalogue of written languages."

Rem. The said publication and its orthography, compared with the system of sounds as represented in this grammar, may well serve as an illustration, that in writing Tshi, be it called Fante or Akan, we can confine ourselves neither to the fundamental principles of English orthography, nor to the number of letters of the English or Roman Alphabet, nor to the Missionary Alphabet proposed by Prof. Max Miller, in which Italics are employed to express additional sounds: but that we must resort either to additional letters or to diacritical signs added to the Roman letters; and in this we could certainly not have done anything better than adopt Lepsius' Standard Alphabet, which is so widely employed for African languages that it may be considered as the graphic system essential to them. That printing offices must have an additional set of letters besides those used in English, is an unavoidable consequence; but the diacritical marks are neither so copious, nor so troublesome, as those of Arabic writing.

With regard to the question, which of the existing Tshi dialects is to be chosen for literary purposes, we submit the following remarks.

It would certainly be desirable from a scientific point of view, that more than one dialect be thoroughly investigated and truly represented, yea even that different dialects be cultivated and the folklore of each (proverbs, songs, popular and historical tales &c.) diligently collected by different writers, as in ancient Greece the Ionic, Aeolic, Doric and Attic dialects did co-exist. But as these different dialects in process of time gave way to a Common Dialect, so the tribes of the Gold Coast stand in need of a common book-language, if the matter be considered from a practical point of view. The Akan and Fante dialects do not differ so much as those ancient Greek or as the different English and German dialects, neither are they spoken by as many individuals. And when more than forty millions of Germans enjoy a common booklanguage, half a million of Fantes may more easily be brought to unite with three millions of Akans in the use of a common Bible and a common medium of communication by writing.

The dialects of Fante, compared with those of Akem and Asante, are indeed deteriorated dialects of the same language, less clear and distinct than they, and, according to concurring testimonies of ancient and recent dates, less agreeable to the ear. Another point is, that within the Fante dialects there are differences greater than those obtaining between Asante, Akem and Akuapem; e. g. the word ase, under, occurs in the three forms ade, adze, ase, whilst As. and Aky. have ase and asee, and Akuap. only ase; cf. § 293, 1b. Rem. 1. 2.

The writers of the 'Mfantsi Grammar' admit the correctness of the statement of H. N. Riis, that the difference between the Akan and Fante dialects is not so great as to prevent a Fanteman conversing without difficulty with an inhabitant of Asante or Akuapem, and vice versa, and add: "There is even in the Mfantsi language so many s borrowed word or expression from the Akan language, that the purity of the former language must have been rendered questionable, or the latter may claim to be pointed to as having the radical key of the two tongues." (Preface pag. 6. 7.) Again, on the second point, viz. the differences among the Fante dialects, the same authors say (Pref. p. 13.): "The Kingdoms of Gomua, Enumabu and Abura, in oratorical skirmishes, may contest the point of a Metropolitan standard for the Mfantsi language; but the drawn sword of Provincialism, by which the Dialect of one District is bounded on each side by the Dialects of other Districts, can only have to be sheathed back again to rest in the mutual retreat of the bearers. We may as well fix our speech to the idioms of Igua, (that is, Cape Coast,) seeing that the Orthography of one District may be taken as a criterion for all the others." These words point as well to the diversity as to the jealousy obtaining among those Fante dialects, whilst the Akan dialects, though spoken on territories of much greater extent and of tribes that were for a long time hostile to each other, are less inclined to divergencies, and better agree with each other.

We grant to every existing dialect its right of existence, and are glad of every faithful representation on paper of any dialect or specimen of such, like the quoted Mfantsi Grammar, though the orthography adopted in it must be considered as a failure for practical purposes. But it seems to us, that neither the dialect of Cape Coast, nor any other Funte dialect, not even the purest of them, that of Anamaboe. is fit to form the base of a literary language for the Akan and Fante tribes. Ought we, then, not to take the Asante dialect or the Akem dialect for this purpose? The choice is made already, enforced, indeed, by casual events and circumstances, but which, after all, have something providential, - and will, for a considerable time, prove to be the best that could have been made. It is the dialect of Akuapem that has actually been made the base of a common dialect; a literary language has been created, and such a common dialect is now existing in the Bible and dozens of other printed books, as well as manuscripts and letters of many individuals since more than two decenniums. What are the merits of this dialect? It is an Akan dialect influenced by Fante, steering a middle course between other Akan dialects and Fante, in sounds, forms and expressions; it admits peculiarities of both branches as far as they do not contradict each other, and is, therefore, best capable of being enriched from both sides. H. N. Riis has truly remarked, that, if the language should receive literary cultivation, the differences of the dialects will be no impediment to its development, but they will be subservient rather to its enrichment. This is actually the case. The native missionary David Asante, who took and still takes a considerable share in the literary cultivation of the Tshi language and its development, remarks in a letter of Sept. 1874, that 'the Akuapems are accustomed to embellish their spoken dialect by blending it with Akem expressions, that Akuapem easily admits of enrichment and admixture from Akem and even Fante, and Fante also admits and receives such foreign elements; but if the same should be done in the Akem dialect, it would not sound well'.

Cf. what is said of the Akuapem dialect in 'A Dictionary, English, Tshi (Asante), Akra'; Basel, 1874, pag. IX-XI.

On the nature of the differences between the Akem, Akuapem and Fante dialects, we refer to the Appendix III. on the Dialects.

Should however a Homer arise in any of the other dialects, the Tshi tribes may all be brought to bow to him and acknowledge the superiority of his diction; in the mean time it seems the most rational way to build on the foundation laid, not by any transcendent inspiration, but by the conscientious and painful labour of those who first succeeded in writing the language and teaching thousands of Africans to use it in literary intercourse.

§ 5. Other Languages spoken in the Gold Coast Countries.

Other Languages spoken within the territories of the Gold Coast, besides Tshi, are A. the Guan language, and dialects or languages similarly circumstanced, and B. the Akra or Gā language and kindred dialects.

- A. Of a language and its dialects, or of distinct languages which in former times seem to have been extensively spoken throughout the Gold Coast countries, but were in most places supplanted and superseded by the language of the ascending Tshi tribes, the following remnants and vestiges are to be mentioned.
 - 1. The Guan language is still used
- a. In Akuapem: aa. in the two towns of Date (Ga: Late, Guan: Lete) and bb. in the five Kyerepong towns, a by-name of which, Amannuonúm, is interpreted, "amán adùonúm, fifty towns",— so many they are said once to have been—; but perhaps the interpretation "amannuá-anúm, five brother-towns" is also possible. (In the five towns between Akropong and Aburi, mentioned in § 1 C 4 c, aa, that language has been given up entirely.)
- b. In Anum, beyond the Volta, to the north-eastward of Akwam. This dialect is not much different from that of Date and Kyerepong.

The formation of nouns and their plural, in Guan, and the inflexion of the verb, agree much with those in Tshi; among the sounds used in the language we find the kp, gb, nm and l of the Akra language; the stock of words is partly different from Tshi as well as Akra, partly borrowed from these two neighbouring languages, especially from Tshi. There are scarcely any points of special contact with the Ewe.

- c. In Karakye the same language is said to exist as in Date, the people being of Date descent; but as they have been separated from each other for a long time, their dialects will now probably differ. In Trubi (§ 1 E 2) we have likewise found vestiges of a Guan dialect.
- 2. The Obutu language is found, as we are informed, in the following coast-towns of Agona, Gomoa and Akomfi (§ 1 B 9. 8. 7.): Sanyã, Afutu Bereku, Simpã (Winnchah), Apã, and probably Dago or Lagu, Elegū, near Túàm to the east-ward.
- 3. Whether the dialect or language is the same in the towns mentioned under No. 2, and in what relation Obutu stands to Guan, and likewise, whether the former language of the Wasas (§ 1 A 5) was really Guan, we are as yet unable to tell. The dialects that are spoken in the Ahanta country besides the Akan language (§ 1 A 4) are likewise unknown to us.

- B. The south-eastern corner of the Gold Coast is occupied by the Akra or Gã language.
- 1. The dialect of Gã proper, in which the Bible and many other books are printed, begins already in the eastern part of the Agona country, the coast-town of Nyênyãnò being half Fante, half Akra, and is spoken by about 40,000 people in the coast-towns Gã and Kinkã or British and Dutch Akra (in Tshi: Nkran and Kankan), Osu (Christiansborg), Lā (or Dāde), Teši and Nunwa (Ningua), and in the numerous inland villages belonging to them and extending to the borders of Akem and Akuapem. A branch of the Gã dialect is spoken at Popo and Whidah by people whose ancestors emigrated from Akra, when the Akwambus conquered and destroyed their towns in 1680, as far as they have not adopted the language of Whidah.
- 2. Adaime dialects of the Akra language are spoken by about 80,000 people a. in the coast towns Temã, Kpong (Poni), Gbugbrā (Kpukprā, Pramprum), Nuno (Ningo) and their inland villages; b. at Adā (from which the name Adāime = Adāgbe, Adā language); c. on the Šai (Siade) and Osudoku mountains; d. at Asadšale (Asutwaree) and Kpong on the Volta; e. in the Kro or Krobo country. A branch of the Adaime dialect is also spoken by the Agotime tribe to the east of the Volta, between the Aweno and Adaglu tribes of the Ewe (E φe) nation, with three principal towns.

The dialect of Krobo is the oldest, that of Ga the youngest dialect; the latter has largely borrowed from Akuapem and Fante.

§ 6. Neighbouring Languages.

Languages spoken on the borders or in the neighbourhood of the territories of the Gold Coast, besides those in the interior to the north of Asante, mentioned in § 2, are the following:

- A. In the East of the Gold Coast territories the Ewe (E\varphi\)e language is spoken in 9 towns on the western banks of the Volta between Adâ and Asutšare, and in the countries to the east of that river, by the tribes of Anlo (Anwonã, Aungla), Aweno, Adaglu, Ho, and many others. (For the countries to the east of the lower Volta, the name Krepē is used by the Europeans.) Dialects of the same language are spoken in Dahome and almost the whole territory between the Volta and the countries of the Yoruba language. Ewe is a language akin to Tshi (cf. § 7 A I b 2 and C), but not in close affinity; we find in it several words and proper names, especially those denoting the week-day of the birth of a child, borrowed from Tshi.
- B. In the West of the Gold Coast territories we find closer affinities with Tshi, than in the east.

- 1. The Asini or Atakla country, capital Kinjabo or Kwantiabo, and the inland countries Anka and Afuma, on both sides of the river Tando or Tanno, (which is one of the fetishes of the Tshi nation). From the geographical names we may conclude that the language of these countries has at least affinities with Tshi.
- G. Loyer (1701) gives a prayer of the natives at Asini, containing 23 words, of which 18 or 20 are pure Tshi. But most of other names of persons &c. are not Tshi. Loyer speaks, however, of three different tribes in Asini, and their wars and migrations in 1600 and 1670.
- 2. On the Ivory Coast we meet with several names as mentioned in the 'African Pilot' vol. I pag. 130-132., which contain unmistakably Tshi words; e. g. Brooni Rock, Ensou Point, Abrapa, Enframa Point, Drewin Ehbiensa (băroni, white man, nsu, water, mframa, wind, abiesā, three); the said names may, however, have been furnished by natives of the Gold Coast on European ships.
- 3. Avikum, is, according to Clarke, the name of the people at Grand Cape Lahou, Ivory Coast. The names of ten tribes dwelling thereabout, and of others farther inland to the source of the Joliba or Niger, have partly prefixes, and are, therefore, in affinity rather with the Tshi, than with the Kru language spoken about Cape Palmas and on the Grain or Liberia Coast; six of the Avikum numerals from 1 to 10, given by Clarke, to some degree resemble those in Tshi.

§ 7. The Position of Tshi among the African Languages.

As to the position which the Tshi language holds among the African languages in general, there is no doubt that it belongs to that great stock of languages which have been termed Prefix-pronominal Languages, the principal characteristic of which is the employment of prefixes in the formation, classification and pluralization of nouns and in representing them (before other parts of speech).

- A. These Prefix-pronominal Languages, according to Dr. W. H. I. $Bleek^*$, include the $B\bar{a}$ -ntu, Mena and $G\bar{o}r$ families.
- 1. The Bantu Family has two divisions, a. the South-African and b. the West-African.
- a. The South-African Division extends over the continent south of the equator, only the languages of the Hottentots, Bushmen and Iloigob being excepted, and some degrees to the north of it, on the west coast to the Cameroons and Romby mountains, including the island of Fernando Po. It has several branches and subdivisions.

^{*}Cf. Handbook of African &c. Philology, as represented in the Library of Sir G. Grey, vol. I. part 1. 2., by Dr. W. H. I. Bleek. London, Trübner & Co.

- b. The West-African Division has three branches: 1. the Niger Branch, comprising the Efik, Ibo, Nufi, Yoruba &c. 2. the Volta Branch. comprising the Ewe (E\varphi e) or Dahome, and the Tshi and Guan; 3. the Sierra Leone Branch, comprising the Temne, Bullom, Sherbro. The languages of the Niger and Volta branches have the prefixes no more to the same extent as the South-African division and the Sierra Leone branch, and the differences between the single languages reckoned to the same branch are greater. Whilst the Efik has preserved a good number of prefixes and the pluralization by prefixes (though the latter is already much neglected), the Yoruba has less formative prefixes and has altogether lost the formation of the plural by prefixes. The Ewe has only two prefixes left, consisting of the vowels 'a' and 'e' (of which 'a' sometimes, and 'e' usually, falls off when the noun joins a preceding word), and forms the plural of nouns by a suffix; but in Tshi the prefixes are again used for classification and pluralization; only to a very limited degree suffixes are employed in forming the plural.
- II. Whether the Akra language (§ 5 B) is indeed to be separated from the Bā-ntu and classed with the 'Gōr Fumily' (to which Dr. Bleek also reckons the Fula and Wolof and the Fumale language), may be questioned, as the existence of prefixes and the formation of the plural are found in it as in the Ewe, and many other features as in Ewe and Tshi.
- III. The Kru language, of which the Gĕdebo (Grebo) and Basa are dialects and which Dr. Bleek mentions under the 'Mena Family', has no formative prefixes at all, and the plural is formed by changes in the termination of nouns.
- B. The rest of the African languages belong to the so-called Suffix-pronominal Languages.
- I. To the Sex-denoting Fumily of them belong in South Africa the languages of the Hottentots and Bushmen, in North Africa (as the Semitic Branch) the Hausa and Temashirt (Berber), the Galla, Dankali, Somali, Harari, the Amharic and Arabic, and, besides, the Il-oigob language.
- II. To these Suffix-pronominal languages are added the *Mande-Teda languages*; e. g. in North Africa the Bornu (Kanuri) and Teda, in West Africa the Mande, Bambara, Soso and Vai languages.
- C. As far as we can see, the Yoruba, Ewe and Tshi have several features in common with the Mande and Kru languages rather than with the Southern division and the Sierra Leone branch of the Ba-ntu languages; e. g. in the verb the monosyllabic form of the stem prevails (in Yoruba even more than in Tshi), and the conjugation or inflexion

of the verb does not present the same variety of forms; especially the passive form is wanting (though not altogether in Kru). In Yoruba and Efik the noun or pronoun in the possessive case stands after the noun to which it refers, as in the South-African and Sierra Leone languages; in Ewe this is no more the case, except with the possessive pronoun of the 1st and 2d pers. sing., which may be used before or after the noun to which they belong; but in Tshi, Akra, Kru, Mande, the genitive word always precedes the noun to which it refers (the Bambara in this respect making an exception among the Mande languages). The way in which the prepositions of European languages are expressed by verbs and nouns, seems to be essentially the same in the Niger and Volta branches of the Ba-ntu languages and in the Kru and Mande languages. Such and other particulars of the family relations of the Tshi with other languages, however, would find their place in a comparative Grammar on African languages rather than in this introduction, and cannot, therefore, here be entered into at length. But it is hoped that the present Grammar will furnish materials and inducements to the prosecution of the labours of comparative philology, by which the peculiarities of the single languages will be gradually cleared up and the mastering of such languages will in consequence be more and more facilitated to Europeans.

A GRAMMAR

OF THE

ASANTE AND FANTE LANGUAGE

CALLED TSHI [CHWEE, TWI].

PART I.

OF SOUNDS AND LETTERS (PHONOLOGY).

CHAPTER I.

Pronunciation and Division of Sounds.

ALPHABET.

- 1. In accordance with the 'Standard Alphabet for reducing unwritten languages &c. to a uniform orthography in European letters'*), which has been widely employed for African languages, we make use of the following letters:
 - a (a) b d e c (e) f g h i k (l) m n n o o (o) p r s t u w w y.
- Remarks. 1. These 27 letters represent as many simple sounds. Additional sounds are: the nasal vowels, § 3, the sound of m before f, the palatal n, § 8, the sound of hy, § 10, and the compound sounds of tw, dw, fw, § 12. On 1 and some other foreign letters, see § 8. 14.
- 2. The letters a e o are only used for exact grammatical distinction; in common writing the letters a e o serve for them also.
- 3. The pronunciation of the vowels see § 2-7, that of the simple and compound consonants, § 8-14; the names of the letters, § 15.

VOWELS.

Simple Vowels.

2. There are ten principal vowels:

a a e e e i o o o o guttural, palatal, labial.

^{*)} By Dr. Lepsius, London, Williams and Norgate; Berlin, W. Hertz, 1863.

Each of them retains the same sound, whether it be short or long.

The pronunciation of these vowels is as follows:

```
a (full) sounds as a in far:
a (thin)
                 a in fat:
```

```
e (broad) = e in very, there;
                                   o (broad) = o in not, nor;
e (full) = e in bed, a in fate:
                                   o (full) = o in tobacco, note:
e (narrow) between e and i;
                                  o (narrow) between o and u;
i (close) = i in fill, ravine;
                                   u (close) = u in full, rule:
```

Examples of the short sounds are:

```
fa, to take
                    yi, to take away
kari, to weigh
                    so, to drop
se, to be like
                    so, to hold
se, to say
                    so, to carru
te, to hear; to sit; tu, to pull out.
```

Remark. The half or thin 'a' is only a modification of the broad or full 'a', produced by the influence of succeeding sounds, as i, u; but the half or narrow e and o are independent vowels, more frequent than the middle or full e and o, which occur seldom as independent vowels, but very often as modifications of the broad e and o. See § 17, 1-3.

3. The vowels are either pure or nasal. The broad e and o are seldom found nasal; the full e and o are always pure.

Nasal vowels are marked thus: ã ẽ î õ ũ.

The nasal mark is frequently omitted on vowels adjoining to nasal consonants (m, n, n, nw, ny) or other nasal vowels.

ka, to bite; to remain kã, to touch; to speak pē, to throw, strew ti, to pinch, nip sõ, to be large sũ, to weep, cry me, mo, ne, no, nom, see § 58. 63.

nam, to walk nim, Ak. ni, F. nyim, to know kum, Ak. kũ, to kill tane, to disturb pene, to consent tee, to stretch out.

4. 1. The vowels are commonly short, as in the examples § 2. 3.

2. Long vowels are marked thus: ā ē ē ī o o ū ā ē ī o ū.

In certain cases the vowel is doubled.

pā, to strike tē, to open widely mē, to satiate tā, to persecute pē, to search n win wi, to murmur ketē, brightly fòsō, moist f a, flexible ketē, strictly kùsū, dark kòni, silent. Ofii ne mmofraase yaree, he was sick from his childhood.

Very short vowels are usually marked thus: ă ĕ i ŏ ŭ.

a (pra), to sweep ă (trã), to sit e, to bring

siām, to strip off sŭa, to be small hŭā, to scrape, scratch

korokoro, to indulge birebire, talkative kŭrokŭro, prattling.

Compound Vowels.

. One kind of diphthonys consists of a principal vowel and an ssory sound, heard whilst the mouth is closing again. This termion is palatal (e=e, or i), or labial (the semi-vowel w, closer than d u, or u):

ãe ai, ce ei, oc oc õc ui ũi; ãw au, ew ew (ew) iw, ow ow (ow) uw; ao! is an interjection; eu is only used in foreign names, e. g. Europa.

hese diphthongs sound according to their single constituents. nly three of them are found in English:

=i, y, in five, fly. =ou, ow, in sour, now. Ex. asau, a fishing-net. oi, oy, in oil, boy.

Ex. ahai, beer; ai! ai! au! woe!

Ex. nsge, a thorn.

camples of the rest are the following words:

kae, to remember asãe, a hammer pee, a chisel; to chisel fei, to scarch asoi, a handle epoe, it withered gkõe, he fought tui, a brush ohũi, he saw:

saw, to dance sew, to spread out osew, mother-in-law osew, he grinds siw, to pound, obstruct pow, to polish sow, to cut, hatch sow, to bear (fruit) huw, to blow.

Disyllabic combinations of two vowels, of which the second res a wider opening of the mouth than the first, are the following:

õa

eе

o e

еe

le ie io e a ua ũa ũe ue uo oa tia, to tread sie, to reposit, bury bea, to lie across bua, to answer

õg ọg ga. pue, to appear soe, to alight tee, to stretch (out) bõe, to begin.

ne second vowel may assume palatal or labial termination:

iae iei eae uae uei oae oge eaw egw.

asici, a burying-place beae, a rafter mmuae, an answer

apuei, east asoge, a resting-place peaw, a spear.

7. Diphthongs (and triphthongs) beginning with a very short vowel have sprung from such combinations (§ 6), by reducing their first vowel to extreme shortness and thereby becoming monosyllabic:

also ĕà ĭaw. ĕā; йа йа йа**w** ŭā ŭae ŭãe ŭõ. siām, § 4; osiām, flour gua, to flay; huã, tough sŭaw, to lop (trees) siaw, to stick, be caught sian, to recoil sŭan, to bleed siān, to descend gŭan, to flee siane, to side, flank sŭane, to slit, tear siabaw, to tie, tuck ohŭãe, a broom okyčáme, a linguist m ŭ õ, to be bad.

The vowels in the compound prefixes woa-, yea-, moa-, woa- (§ 54) are likewise pronounced monosyllabic, as diphthongs.

CONSONANTS.

Simple Consonants.

S. The simple consonants are

		labial,	dental,	guttural,	palatal:
Mutes:	hard:	P	t	k	-
	soft:	b	d	g	-
Fricatives:		f	s	h	-
Semi-vowels: nasal:		\mathbf{m}	n	'n	-
	pure:	\mathbf{w}	r (l)	-	y.

The sounds of p t k, b d, f s h, m, n, y, are as in English; g sounds always hard, as in go;

h sounds strong before pure, and soft before nasal, vowels;

it is scarcely heard between in and nasal vowels: inhoma, a book.

m before f is pronounced with the lower lip only;

n before y is palatal;

 $\dot{\mathbf{n}} = ng \text{ in } sing;$

r = r in ring, trap, carry, never as in car, card, here;

l is used in foreign proper names, and in some Fante dialects for r; w is pronounced with the lips more contracted and less protruded than in the Engl. w; it has a very soft sound before o and u.

Lengthened semi-vowels.

9. The nasal semi-vowels m and n, when terminating a syllable, are in some words drawn out and continued for a short space of time, which peculiarity we express by doubling the letter.

fãn n, tough, flexible hãn n, bright, light prãn n, plainly gẽn n, gyenn, pretty much demm, dinn, silent, komm, quiet kõmm, entire, intact sonn, safe, alone.

e pure semi-vowels w and r are thus drawn out and lengthened in ww (also written berēō), gently; goroww (gorōw), weak; o kirrr (kirididi) koo kurow no mu, they rushed into the town.

Compound Consonants.

Palatalized consonants: ky, gy, hy, ny; w.

. 1. The guttural consonants k g h, when followed by palatal s, become palatal (shifting the place of contact from the soft to rd palate) and assume the accessory sound of y, whilst the tongue sing over into its position for e, e, i;

ımes y also before 'a'; and likewise we have

a palatal combination before a, e, i.

y ny are pronounced as two compound sounds (before i, i, ē y is less distinct); but the combination

isses over into a simple sound, χ' of the Stand. Alph., equal to the ital ch in German 'München', similar to ch in Scotch loch.

kye, to last kyen, to grow hard, dry kyi, to shun kyi, to squeeze out gye, to accept, rescue gyina, to stand (still)

hye, to put (on, in) hyew, to burn hyeren, to shine, glitter hyira, to bless nya, to get, obtain nyinam, to glimpse.

ot palatalized

refore e which is shortened from 'a' in reduplication (§ 19. 29, 4); refore e, e, i, when the next syllable of the same word begins with t or s, in the Asante dialect also when it begins with r.

. keka, red. fr. ka, to bite;
. kete, a mat
kese, great;
kesiw, to belch
kente, a cloth of native
manufacture;

keńkań, red. fr. kań, to read. kita, to lay hold of kisä, to turn, wither, roast kerę, As. = kyerę, to show; kurukere, kurukyerew, to scribble.

The labial semi-vowel w also assumes y before e, e, i; istead of wy we write w (since 1869).

en, to watch ere, to scrape

we, to gnaw, eat wea, to crawl

wia, to steal wie, to finish.

On kw gw hw nw; kŭ gŭ hŭ nŭ; tw dw fw nw.

11. The guttural consonants k g h n are frequently found joined with the semi-vowel w or a very short ŭ, before 'a', in Fante dialects also before e e i. See § 12, 2.

okwa, merely, in vain, for nothing nkwã, life kwaw, kokwaw, to rub, wear off ekwae, wood, forest kwae, kwati, to leave aside okwań, a way. Akwam, pr. n. of a country Okwamni (Okwamuni), a man of Akwam Akuapem, pr. n. of a country Okuapenni, an Akuapem-man gua, guan, huã, huã, ohuãe, see § 4. 7. hwanyan, to stir, scatter nwam, to roam nhwea, F. ahwea, sand nwane, to weed nhwi, F. ehwi, hair nwene, to weave.

12. 1. When the gutturo-labial combinations (§ 11) are followed by e, e, i, then both of the consonants undergo a change equal to, and exceeding, that mentioned in § 10, and we obtain the

palato-labial combinations tw dw fw nw, with w.

t w sounds as a mixture of ts (=ch in church) and w; dw is mixed up of d (formed at the palate), w and y;

fw: the f is formed by both lips, which are contracted nearly as much as for whistling. By this contraction of the lips and the simultaneous raising of the tongue for w, the original sound of h became a sort of f.

h w is equal to hwy, as w=wy.

2. In Fante dialects the gutture-labials have not yet undergone the palatal transformation.

twa, F. kwia, to cut

two, F. kwo, to pull, draw

two, F. kwo, to wait

dwo, F. kwo, to wait

fwo, F. hwo, to fall, flog

fwie F. hwo, to fall, flog

fwie F. hwo, to pour

ofwene F. ehwen, nose

nwini, to leak; cool.

odwonnini (fr. oguan, nini), ram

3. In the Akem and Asante dialects the palatal transformation has been carried farther than in the Akuapem dialect.

Ak. ed wa, market egua huã Ak. f w a, to scrape agua ad wa, seat hŭãm f wam, to smell guan dwane, to flee hŭàń f wane, to sprain oguan od wane, sheep hŭã'n fwane, to peel nnwane, "pl. nnuan hŭane to scratch. Rem. 1. The combination gua, always monosyllabic, is so frequent, that we usually omit the sign of shortness.

Rem. 2. We write ok wa..., ok wan, Ak wam, Ok wam ni, with w, but egua..., oguan, Ak uapem, Ok uapenni, with u(§ 11), — because the former words have open prefixes, which demand the writing kwa (= koa?), and the latter have half-open prefixes, which change can only be attributed to the influence of a succeeding u. See § 17.

To prove the necessity of the different writing, we give the follo-

wing affirmative and negative forms of some verbs:

owae, he fulls off, neg.oń-wae, he does not fall off.
oguae, he parts, "oń-ńuae; Ak. od wae – ońń wae;
oware, he marries, "oń-ware;
oguare, he bathes, "oń-ńuare; Ak. od ware – ońń ware;
o-ńwane, he weeds, "oń-ńuań; Ak. od wane – ońń wane.

We must also retain the ŭ in analogy with the forms sŭa, sŭaw, fŭaw, sŭane, sïaw, sìane (redupl. susŭa, susŭaw, sunsŭane, sisìaw &c.) in which the ŭ and ĭ have likewise become extremely short, so as to have lost the vocalic sound and the power of forming an own syllable. — On the other hand we must put the combinations gua (nnua), hŭa, by the side of gwa, nwa, hwa, because they are entirely consonantal in Ak. dwa (nnwa), fwa.

System of Consonants.

13. The simple and compound consonants (§ 8-12) together with some foreign letters may be arranged thus:

_		•	_			
Families:	Mutes		Fricatives		Semi-vowels	
	hard	soft	sharp	flat	nasal	pure.
I. Labials	p	b	f	[v]	m	\mathbf{w}
II. Dentals	t [ts]	d [dz]	s [ϑ]	[z]	n	· r [I]
III. Gutturals	k	\mathbf{g}	h [χ]	_	'n	_
IV. Palatals	kу	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{y}$	$hy[\chi']$] —	пy	y
			[š]	[ž]		
V. Gutturo-	$(a) \mathbf{k} \mathbf{w}$	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{w}$	h w		ń w	
$oldsymbol{labials}$	(b) k ŭ	gŭ	hŭ	_	'nŭ	
VI. Palato-lab	ials t w	d w	f w		'n w	w .

FANTE AND FOREIGN LETTERS.

14. 1. In some Fante dialects the t and d are changed into ts and dz before \mathfrak{g} , \mathfrak{g} , i. (Whether there occurs a change of ky and gy into tš and dž, as it takes place in the Akra language, remains to be ascertained.) — The 'Mfantsi Grammar by D. L. Carr and I. P. Brown, Cape Coast, 1868,' ascribes to t, before a, o, u, the sound of the Engl. sharp th in thin (\mathfrak{F} of the Stand Alph.), and to the palatal fricative hy (χ' of the Stand. Alph.) the sound of $\mathfrak{s} = sh$ in ship.

- 2. The foreign letters $v \ z$ sound as in English, z = z in azure.
- 3. In books on Geography and General History we admit some more foreign letters, e. g. the letter χ (= ch in Scotch and German), which is frequent in the neigbouring Dahome Language, called Ewe or E φ 0 (φ =f with both lips), and the German letters \ddot{a} 0 \ddot{u} ; or we give English, French, Italian &c. names in their European orthography, adding the pronunciation in parenthesis.

NAMES OF THE LETTERS IN THE ALPHABET.

15. In reciting the alphabet, or when spoken of in grammatical discussion, the single letters are not named by their English names, but the vowels are named by their own sound, and the consonants are sounded with the addition of a short e, or, where e does not agree with the consonant, with a short a or o:

be de fe go ha ka em en en pe re se te wa we ye; likewise the 6 foreign letters: χ e le še ve ze že.

But in teaching to read, only one sound must be given to a letter; thus p is only a mute sound from the lips, b likewise, but softer, f only a mute blowing between the lower lip and the upper teeth, w, w, y are gentle vocalic breathings (w between the nearly closed lips, y between the tongue and the palate, w from both of these passages) &c.

CHAPTER II.

Euphony.

16. When different sounds, of those which we have hitherto considered separately, are united into syllables, words and sentences; we observe that certain laws of euphony, together with a decided tendency of the language to quickness and fluency of speech, and dialectical variation, occasion different changes of single sounds, viz. assimilation and other permutation of sounds, elision, contraction and apocope of sounds; but we have also to note insertion and addition of sounds.

Assimilation of Vowels.

17. 1. The vowels are distinguished, concerning the degree of width of the opening of the mouth required for them, as

1. open: a e o 3. half-close: e o 2. half-open: a e o 4. close: i u.

The 1st and 3d groups form the class of the odd numbers in § 2. The 2d and 4th groups form the class of the even numbers (in do.).

- 2. In different vowels following each other the step from the 1st to the 4th degree of width is too great, the steps 1-2, 2-3, 3-4 are too small; the previous vowel is, therefore, brought into agreement with the succeeding vowel by assimilation, being made either of equal degree, or at least of equal class.
- 3. The open vowels a e o remain as they are before their classmates a e o, e o, and also before the thin a; but they are changed into the half-open vowels a e o before i, u, the full e, o, and the combinations gya, nyã, twa, and dwa Ak. = gua.

This we see, e.g. in the prefixes of the following nouns:

aba, fruit	ago, velvet	agya, father
enā, mother	opete, vulture	ogya, fire
o p e, harmattan	obonto, <i>boat</i>	ony ã, slave
\mathbf{ade} , thing	ayi, funeral custom	etwã, <i>scar</i>
e po, sea	eti, otiri, head	agua (adwa), scat
obayifo, sorcerer	osu, rain; eh ũ, fear	egua (edwa), market.

The same changes of a g o occur in those prefixes of the verb which contain these vowels (see § 89, 7.), and in compositions.

4. The narrow e and o, in three pronominal prefixes of the verb (me, wo, mo), either remain, or are changed into i, u, in the same cases, as mentioned above.

```
menam, I walk migye, I accept midi, I eat wuse, thou sayest moko, you go munyã, you get mutwam', you pass.
```

In compounds the change of narrow e, o, into i, u, though existing in pronunciation, is seldom followed in writing;

```
e.g. abufuw, anger, from bo and fuw;
but: abotu, despondency, from bo and tu;
ahõhuru, heat; ahenni, kingdom (not: ahūhuru, ahinni).
```

- 5. A narrow vowel is seldom changed into a broad vowel (still of the same class); e. g.
 - oyere, wife; ayeforo, bride; ayeware (ayeware), matrimony.
- 6. Vowels of the even number are seldom changed into vowels of the odd number, at least the change is not followed in writing, except in the syllables boro from buro (aburow?) § 39, 3a. The words ogyefo, nkurofo (from gye, kurow), sound, in quick speaking, by the influence of the syllable fo, almost as ogyefo, nkrofo.
- 7. In words that are written separately, the euphonic change of pronunciation is not followed in writing; e. g.

mafwe bi, I have beheld some (not: mafwe bi);

me ti, wo ti, ne ti, my, thy, his head (not: mi ti, wu ti, ni ti). Only yen, our, won, their, are written yen and won, before words with close sounds.

8. Whilst of two vowels usually the preceding is influenced by the succeeding vowel, we find the palatal suffix (§ 29, 3) governed by the preceding vowel, as in the diphthongs ac ge ei(§ 5); sūmī, sgṅē (§ 36).

The vowel of pronouns that are put as objects behind verbs, is also changed in pronunciation by preceding close vowels; still we write: oh u me, osi wo, otu no, oyi mo (not: mi, wu, nu, mu).

Assimilation of Consonants.

18. 1. Nasal consonants, placed, as prefixes or in composition, before another consonant, are thus adapted to it:

```
m is put before labials, except w, which prefers n;
```

- m before f wants only the lower lip for its formation;
- n dental, is put before dentals;
- n palatal, before the palatals y ny gy and tw;
- n before all the rest.
- 2. Nasal consonants before soft mutes make the latter assimilate to the former.
- 3. So we get the following junctions of nasal consonants:

```
m with p, f, m; mb change into mm;
```

- n , t, s, n; nd , , nn;
- n , tw, ny, y; ngy , nny;
- ń "k, kw, ky, h, hw, hy, ńw; ńg ""ńń;
- n, w, fw, nw, w; ndw, "nnw.

Examples see § 42, 2. 95. 96. 12. Rem. 2.

Permutations of Sounds.

19. Other interchanges of letters are to be observed, besides the cases mentioned in § 17.18.

A. Vowels.

In certain formations of stems, in reduplications and in compound words, we find shortened vowels corresponding to, and replacing, broad and full vowels; and in the way of dialectical variation, or by the influence of neighbouring sounds, vowels of different degree (§ 17) or family (i. e. place of formation, § 2) may interchange.

Vowels thus interchanging are:

- a with ă ĕ, before an inserted r or n: băra, bĕra, mănã, tĕnã; with ẹ ọ i, in reduplications: keka, popa, twitwa, nyînyã; with e o ẹ ọ, in compound words: dwetiri, from gua, Ak. dwa; odwennini, fr. oguan, Ak. odwane; kokumā = (a)ka-kumā; in dialects: okyēna, okana, to-morrow; nwonwa, As. nwanwa, wonderous; awowa, Ak. yawa, brass.
- a with e or o, in dialects: sare, grass; adare, a billhook, Ak. sere, adere; cf. 'nera or 'nara, 'nera, yesterday,

e, o, with ĕ, ŏ, before an inserted r: bĕre, pŏrow;
with e, o, in reduplications: sese, soso, kyekye, tonton;
with e, o, in dialects: ye, to be good, Ak. ye;

e, o, with i, ŭ, before an inserted r: birebire, abŭrow; with i, u, in reduplications: sise, gyigye, suso, dwudwo; with e, o, in dialects: se, to say, gye, to receive, Ak. se, gye, e, e, with o, o, in dialects: dwenku, dwonku; dwentofo, dwontofo; in the prefix of nouns, see § 35 Rem. 2.

in the 3d pers. sing. of the pronominal prefixes of verbs, § 58 Rem. 1.

also within the same dialect, e.g. in Akuapem and Akyem:

ahõgden, ahõgden, strength; anigden, anugden, auducity; anuenyam, anuonyam, (animenyam, animonyam), glory; aboeduru, abooduru, valour; nauehyew, nauehyew, hot water.

e, e, i with o, o, u, by the influence of labial letters;

cf. ben, wen, yen, won, they (§ 58 Rem. 2); wesaw, wo saw, to chew; twem, twom, altogether; adwini, skilful work, odwumfo, a workman; on wini, cool, an wummere, evening; o wira, o wura, master; o wisie Ak., o wusiw Akp., smoke.

ew, ew, iw pass over into ow, ow, uw; but we usually retain the palatal vowels, when the Akem dialect has them without the final w.

Ak. ekye, a hat, Akp. ekyew, not: ekyew;

"afweree, sugar-cane, "afwerew, "afwerow;

, t w i, to rub, , t w i w, , t w uw;

, ed w̃ie, *a louse,* , ed w̃iw, , dw̃uw; , dw̃iri, *to pull down*, , dw̃iriw, , dw̃uru.

o with i, in a sitiw = a sotiw, deafness.

B. Consonants.

Besides the dialectical interchanges of consonants mentioned in § 13. 15., we notice the following consonants as interchanging within the same dialect or in different dialects:

p, w: posow, wosow, to shake; patiriw, watiriw, to slide, slip;

b, w: awowa = awoba, a pawn; Ahawante = Ahabante;
b, m: muka = bukyia a haarth: mogya = bogya blood:

b, m: muka = bukyia, a hearth; mogya = bogya, blood;

m, n: osram, Ak. osrane, the moon; kõma, Ak. konona, the heart; s, d, dz: so, F. do, upon; asase, F. dâde, dâdze, the land, earth;

d, n: anad w o, adad w o, night; nn e = da yi, to-day; ne, de, to be;

d, r: 'nera = 'ne da, yesterday; horo, Aky. hodoo, various;

, r, n: trã, těnã, to sit; mrã, mănã, to send, transmit;

n, n: abien'=abienú, mmienú, two; nen=neno, § 53 Rem.

n at the end of words is in F. n, in Aky. often palatal n.

ny, n: nim, F. nyim, to know; ninsen, nyinsen, to conceive; opanyin, opanin, an elder, a person superior in years or rank. ny, y: yem, F. nyem, to conceive.

k, h: akekantwere, ahahantwere, a scorpion.

h, s, fw: hintiw, Aky. sunti, As. fwinta, to stumble.

h, w: ahoba, F. = awoba, awowa, a pawn.

h, y: hăra Ak., yera Akp., yew F., to be lost.

Elision of Sounds, and Contraction.

- 20. 1. Very short vowels before an inserted r are frequently elided, especially after the strong consonants p, t, k, f, s, and when the vowel after the r is open (a, e or o), or long, or when the syllable terminates in m or n. Two syllables are thereby contracted into one (§ 23, 3); e. g. pra, tra, kra, sra, fra, fre; bebrē, frem frem, mpren.
- 2. The vowel 'a' after very short i and i is elided in the reduplication sullable; e. g.

sĭaw, sisĭaw; sŭa, susŭa; sĭane, sinsĭane; guàn, gunnuan.

- 3. Two vowels coming together are either contracted into one long vowel, e.g. gyaasefo, domestics, or the preceding vowel is elided and the second remains short; so the vowels e and o are frequently elided in the pronouns me, ne, also wo, no (§ 55. 56. 58.).
- 4. Some combinations of three sounds are reduced to one or two: kwa, shortened into ko, in composition and reduplication:

akwatia, akotia, a short man; akwakwarā, akwakorā, an old man; Kwasi, Kofi (§ 41, 4); kwaw, kokwaw; kwan, konkwan.
-aba, awa, ā: tawa, tā, tobacco; toawa, toā, a small calabash.

-eba, ewa, ā: adwe, a palm-nut-kernel, pl. (nnwewa) nnwesa; nkyerekyera, a dry wilderness.

-iba, iwa, ua: aduan, Ak. adibane, food; Akosua = Akwasiba.

-oba, owa, ā: aborā = aborowa, a European lady.

-oba, owa, ā: akurā = akurowa, a village.

-ănâ, ŏnã, ōa: amõa, Ak. amănā, a hole, pit; afõa, Ak. afănă, a sword (of state); asonomfõa, asomfănã, a swallow.
-ĭnã, ã: onyã, Ak. onyĭnã, a silk-cotton-tree.

5. The semi-vowel y, which is very slightly articulated before i, may occasionally be cast out:

fwe n' 'iye = fwe no yiye! look for him (or: at it) well! ebéye 'ye = ebeye yiye, it will be well;

chaife—chavife sensorer Cf ni—ne vi

obaifo = obayifo, sorcerer. Cf. ni = ne y i, § 200, 1 Rem.

The semi-vowel w may likewise be cast out before u:

awurade, (in poetry) a'urade, lord. Cf. asawu, asau, a net; Okwawu, Kwau, pr. n. of a country; Kwaku = Kwawuku (§ 41, 4).

Apocope.

21. 1. Terminating vowels are sometimes cut off, though there be no vowels or words closely following after them. So the postposition mu is most frequently reduced to m', especially in compounds:

nsam', yam', mfem', tirim, anim, anom', asom';

twam', to pass by; paem', teem', bom' or bom', to cry out. On the objective pronouns see § 56.

Menyã m'! I shall get you! ne $\dot{n} = ne$ no, § 53 Rem.

2. Final m is cast off in Ak. kū, nī = kum, to kill; nim, to know.

[This might be expressed, in § 22: The final consonant m is added to kũ, nĩ (Ak.) in the Akp. dialect. But the written language is based on the latter dialect, and in Fante those words are: kum, nyim.]

Insertion and Addition of Sounds.

22. 1. By the insertion of r between the consonant and the vowel of a syllable (or of n, when the vowel is nasal), new stems or dialectical variations of stems are formed.

Cf. pa, to take off superficially; pra, păra, to sweep.

mã, to give; mănã (mrã), to send, remit, forward to.

horo, hoho, hohoro, to wash;

kyere, kyekye, kyekyere, to bind.

One dialect may have a form without r (or n), another the form strengthened by r (or n).

fi, Ak. firi, to proceed from; hū, Ak. hunu, to see; du, Ak. duru, to arrive; duru, Ak. du, heavy.

Insertion of r also takes place in a few inflexional forms: ba, to come, imp. běra; ko, to go, pret. koe, Ak. kore; inf. koree. § 95, 1, 9. 10. 2, 3. § 104, 4.

The insertion in most of these cases creates a new syllable. The vowel after the r is often to be considered as the original, and that before r only as an auxiliary vowel, when the latter is very short.

2. New stems, or dialectical variations of stems, or derivatives are sometimes formed by the addition of a new syllable, consisting of r (or n) with a secondary vowel:

ware, Ak. wa, to be long; ago, agoru, Ak. agoro, play; ah ũ m o bo, Ak. ah ũ m o bore, commiseration.

3. Insertion or addition of sounds is frequently met with in words taken from foreign languages:

girâse, glass; mfén'seré, a window; bénsère, a bason; kôbere, copper; sírikyì, silk; bukū F., brûkū' Akp., a book; twâku, chalk; kêsū, cheese; tôpō', a tub; sŭkū', school.

CHAPTER III.

Syllables.

STRUCTURE OF SYLLABLES.

23. 1. A principal syllable consists of a consonant, simple or compound, and a vowel or diphthong (or triphthong § 7), which may be followed by one or two nasal consonants; e. g.

ko, gye, dā, poe, sew, bĕ-ra, mă-nã, siaw, guae; som, dwen, komm, paem, kwaem.

Rem. Mute and fricative consonants never end a syllable, except in foreign names.

- 2. A secondary syllable consists
- a. of one vowel or diphthong, standing by itself:

wo a! ko e! Kwasi ē, gyina ho ō! ai! ao! ei!

- b. of one, two or three vowels and nasal semi-vowels, prefixed or affixed to principal syllables:
 - \underline{o} - $\underline{k}\underline{o}$, \underline{o} \dot{n} - $\underline{k}\underline{o}$, \underline{o} \dot{n} - $\underline{k}\underline{o}$, \underline{o} - \underline{n} - $\underline{k}\underline{o}$, \underline{e} - \underline{s} \underline{e} , \underline{a} - \underline{f} \underline{u} \underline{w} , \underline{m} - \underline{p} a, \underline{a} \dot{n} - \underline{k} \underline{a} ; \underline{t} i- \underline{a} , \underline{t} i- \underline{a} , \underline{p} e- \underline{a} \underline{w} ; \underline{o} - \underline{t} u- \underline{o} , \underline{o} - \underline{f} \check{w} e- \underline{a} \underline{m} , \underline{a} - \underline{d} u- \underline{a} \dot{n} .
- 3. A contracted syllable is made from two or three syllables by the elision of sounds in quick speaking:

pra = pă-ra; fre = fĕ-re; krom' = kŭ-rom', kŭ-row mu; o-guá-èem' = o-guáèe mú; mmo-fraa-se = m-mo-fă-ra-a-se. tā = ta-wa; a-ku-rā = a-ku-ro-wa; § 20, 1.3-5. 21, 1.

- 24. Division of syllables is generally easy; only nasal consonants may occasionally present difficulties.
 - 1. Mute and fricative consonants belong to the following syllable: $w\,a \cdot t\,\check{w}\,a\,m'\,\,a \cdot k\,y\,\underline{e}\,;\,\,\underline{o} \cdot t\,r\,\tilde{a}\,\,a \cdot b\,a\,\dot{n} \cdot k\,\underline{e} \cdot s\,e\,m'.$
- 2. Of two nasal consonants between vowels the one belongs to the preceding, and the other to the succeeding syllable:

a-hem-man, a-hen-nan, a-hen-nua, n-kom-mo.

3. A single (or double) m, n or n, when prefixed to a principal syllable beginning with the same consonant, may be considered as belonging to it:

mma-gum', nnā-dā, nnu-so, ahe-ne-mma (or: 'ma-gum' &c.) mmo-fra no mmma ha! the children shall not come here!

4. A single n between two consonants in compound words belongs to the preceding syllable:

a-ban-a-se-a-bán-a-se; amán-amán.

In formations like obene, he approached, ehone, it swelled, sone, a strainer, a division of the two last syllables is better avoided.

5. The combinations ny, nw, nw require often particular attention, whether the n or n belongs to the preceding or the succeeding syllable: o-pa-nyin; o-pan-yi-fo (from pam and yi); bo-nwoma; n-wa-nwe-ne; nwō-nwā, a-don-wo-wa (fr. dom, a-wo-wa); on-ye, he is not good; on-nye (fr. gye), he does not accept; on-yaw, he does not scold; onn-yaw, he shall not scold; but fr. gyaw: on-nyaw no, he does not leave him; onn-nyaw no, he shall not l. him. onn-wae, he shall not fall off; onn-nyaw ne, he shall not weed.

Cf. § 12 Rem. 2. and § 95.

OF TONE AND ACCENT.

Tone of Vowels and Semi-vowels.

25. Every syllable has, in comparison with neighbouring syllables, either low or high or middle tone. Syllables with long vowels or diphthongs or final m, n, n may even have two tones.

Rem. The tone must be distinguished from the accent or stress, § 26. In common writing and in books for the people we mark the tone only in cases of ambiguity; but in grammar and dictionary, and for the study of the language by foreigners, an accurate designation of the tones and the stress is necessary. Dialectical variations, however, exist in tone as well as in sounds.

These tones may be denoted by accentual marks, or by figures indicating the degree of elevation of voice, as: $\lambda d \dot{a} k \dot{a}$ (132), a box.

We give the following rules for marking the tones:

- 1. Low-toned syllables, preceding the first high tone of a word or sentence, are left unmarked; e. g. aberewá (1113), an old woman.
- 2. The first high tone in a word or sentence is marked with the acute accent; e. g. obá, child; wanyán, he is awaked; maŭie, I have finished; adé no, that thing; oyé, doing (inf.).
- 3. Subsequent middle tones, i. e. high tones abating by one step or successive steps, are likewise marked with the acute accent; e. g. obonto (132), a boat; ne bá anyán (1,3,32), his child is awaked [the à of anyãn (13) has been attracted by the preceding á and thereby made equally high, whereas the ã has become middle (32)]; ma w ie a dé no y é (144,43,3,2), I have finished doing that thing.
- 4. Low tone after or between high tones is marked with the grave accent; e. g. oba, he comes; anyan, it has become sour.
- 5. As many syllables, as follow in equal tone after a syllable marked according to the rules under 2-4, are left unmarked, so that each mark avails for all the following syllables of the same word or succeeding words, until another mark of tone or a mark of punctuation follows; e. g. Abókobi (1933); akóko ani så bŭrófúa (133,33,1,1922).
 - 6. Long vowels and diphthongs have either one or two tones:
- a. high, marked á, ã', á e; as: fé, plainly; b ã', branch; a p á e, it is split.
- b. low, à, ã, àe, as: fē, deeply; tē, straightway; apápàc, it is split.
- c. low, high, ā', ā', a é: kā', ring; epā'pàe, it splits; nkaé, remnant.
- d. high, middle, â, á', áé: nnādâ, deceit; mpāpáé, crack; nkáé, remembrance; tētê, asthma.
- e. high, low, â, á', áè: girâse, glass; kêsū, cheese; osúì, he wept.
- 7. Very short vowels may have their own tones; in printing either the accent is put after the letter, or the sign of shortness given up: bkara, soul; korow, core. In other cases the very short vowel has the tone of the succeeding vowel; e.g. goroww, weak.

8. The nasal consonants m, n, n, may have their own tones:

a. as prefixes (§ 29, 2. 40. 91, 10. 92.):

mpå (13), bed; né mpå (3,32), his bed;

nsú (13), water; ehá nsú (13, 32), the water of this place.

oyi nko (13,83)! this one shall go!

oyi n'k o (13,13), this one does not go.

né nà n'ko (3,1,33)! his mother shall go!

né nà nkó (3,1,13), his mother does not go.

wón'té (313)? do you not hear? wún'tić (3113)? do you not listen?

kóse no sè: ónn'kó (313)! go tell him that he shall not go!

b. as remnants of full syllables:

osram' Ak. osrané, moon, month;

abien' = abienú, Ak. mmienú, two.

aním' = aní mù, (in the) face; nsám' = nsá mù, in the hand; yám' = yá mù, (in the) belly; gpom' = èpo mú, in the sea.

c. as final letters of verbs in some inflexional forms:

opam' nò (113,1), he expells him; opám' no (131,1), he expelled him.

- 9. Final w may likewise have its own tone:
- a. merely as termination of a diphthong: afèraw', the clock-bird;
- b. in some inflexional forms of verbs (§ 95, 5): oséw`né kèté, he spread his mat; the sinking of the high tone might also be marked thus: osêw; in ósèw, he spreads, the w partakes of the same low tone with the e.

Word-accent or Stress on Syllables.

26. The accent or stress of a word is the emphatic pronunciation of a syllable, which distinguishes it from other syllables of the same word.

In verbs, the stress depends much on the changes of tone; it is either on prefixes, or on the stem, as we shall see in its place. § 91 Rem.

In nouns, the stress lies either on the first high-toned syllable, or on the low-toned next before it. See § 40. In the former case the stress does not want an own mark; in the latter, we may put a small perpendicular line or the grave accent after the syllable that has the stress, e. g. Onya'mé, Onyan'kópón, God. But we may as well put the grave accent on the vowel of the syllable: Onyamé, Onyankópón (113, 1132); for, as it would not be required to indicate the low tone (according to § 25, 1), its presence indicates that the syllable marked with it has low tone with a stress.

Cf. obéa, ahốsãn, adwinni, odabó, ahốhuru, ohahini, potróbòdwó, abóa, ayisã, adwuma, opapó, anibere, oyafunu, afófantó.

In nouns with low tones throughout, the first syllable of the stem usually has the stress; e. g. wofa, asafo, ananse, kontromfē.

PART II.

OF WORDS (ETYMOLOGY).

CHAPTER I.

Formation of Words in general.

27. All words, concerning their form and origin, are either primitive, or derivative, or compound.

Primitives. Primary and Secondary Stems.

- 28. 1. The real primitives of the language are what we call simple stems, all of them beginning with a single or compound consonant.
- 2. Primary stems have, beside the initial consonant, one short vowel; secondary stems have their vowel enlarged into a long vowel or diphthong, or are augmented by a final m or n (F. n), or increased by an accessory syllable which begins with r, n, or m, or seem to be compounded of two of such simple stems.
- 3. We distinguish ten forms or variations of simple stems, represented by the following verbs of 1, 2 and 3 syllables:
 - 1. pa, 2. paw, 3. pā, 4. pae, 5. pam and pan;
 - 6. pia, 7. pare, pere, 8. păra (pra), pira; 9. pata, 10. patiriw.

The last vowel of the forms under 6-8 may be enlarged or augmented as the vowel of the form under 1 is in the forms under 2-5:

- 6. peaw, tiā, f weam; 7. fanim, serew; 8. tran, tănā, yeraw, horan.
- The forms under 9. 10. seem to be compounded of two of the forms under 1-8, but are in meaning like other simple stems, i. c. the two parts do not exist by themselves with separate meanings, the uniting of which would give the meaning of the compound.
- 4. Such stems are used as verbs, adjectives and adverbs. But simple pronouns also (though they partly assume prefixes), that cannot be traced back to existing simple stems, and simple numerals (usually with prefixes) are considered as primitives.
- 5. Exotics, i. e. words borrowed from foreign languages, are also reckoned among the primitives; e. g. brū, blue; girâse, glass. (These have frequently characteristical tones; see § 22, 3).

Derivatives. Prefixes, Suffixes and Reduplication.

29. 1. Derivatives are formed from primitives by the accrument of prefixes or suffixes (besides changes in tone) and by reduplication.

2. The nominal prefixes, i. e. prefixes found in nouns, adjectives and numerals, are a, e, o, (or a, e, o, § 17), m (n, n, § 18), am (an, an). See § 35.

(The prefixes of the verb, by which not new words, but new forms of the same word are obtained in the process of inflexion, see § 89. 91. 96.)

- 3. The nominal suffixes are:
- the palatal suffix e. ē or i, ī, Ak. ce, ie; see § 36; (the suffix e or i occurs also in the inflexion of the verb, § 91, 2. 3. 103. 104, 4. 5.); the diminutive suffix wa, sometimes ma, often contained in ā; see § 37; the personal suffix ni, fo; see § 38. the plural-suffix nom; see § 42, 5.
- 4. Reduplication is the doubling of a stem by a repetition of the whole stem, or a prefixing of a shortened form of it. On the change of vowels in the latter case see § 19, a, e, o, e, o; § 20, 2.

popo, dādā, tiatia, pirapira, patiripatiriw; keka, popa, bobo, sesew, pāpae, pompan, gunnuan. The reduplicated form itself is also called a reduplication.

Almost all verbs may be reduplicated, some of them even twice; e.g. fefafefa, bebabebare, from fa, bare. Some verbs are used only in the reduplicated form, e.g. nwinwi, to murmur. Cf. § 99.

Of many adjectives once or twice reduplicated forms are used besides the simple forms, and some adjectives are only found as reduplications. See § 69, 2 a. 70.

- 5. From reduplication we may distinguish:
- a. reiteration, by which only one syllable (of two or more) is repeated: kòkŭrō, kokŭrokó, large; kránā, kránanana, silent;
- b. repetition, by which the whole word (stem and prefix) is repeated:

 nkakra-nkakra, little by little; aboabó, stony; § 69, 2 c.

 akōkō-akókó, quarellings (from kō, to fight, okō, akō, a fight, fighting; this is a repetition of a reduplication).
- 6. Derivatives may also be formed from primitives in two ways (e. g. by a prefix and a suffix) at the same time; e. g.

anome, fr. nom; adómma, fr. don; osomfó, fr. som; and from derivatives (e.g. reduplications) in one way, or in two ways at the same time; these are called: secondary derivatives; e.g.

gunnuanē, ntwintwamē, osisifo, osafoni, nnonnomma.

Rem. Derivatives in form (nouns or other words consisting of a prefix and a simple or reduplicated stem) may be considered as primitives in meaning, when no simpler word still existing in the language can be shown, from which they are evidently derived.

Compounds.

- 30. A compound word is formed of two or more words, each of which may be either primitive or derivative or even compound.
- 1. Perfect compounds are consolidated, frequently by assuming new or changed prefixes, by elision or assimilation of sounds and changes of tone; i. e. the two simple words have become completely incorporated and appear as one new word (§ 39, 59, 69, 2d, 3, 78, 80, 81, 1.); e.g.

ayeforo (= oyere foforo, a new wife), bride; ahemfi (= ohene fi. the kings home or dwelling), court; akyerekyerek wan (fr. kyere, to show, okwan, way), forefinger.

2. Imperfect compounds or loose combinations, especially of new formation, and some repetitions, are connected by a hyphen:

Owu-fida, (lit. death-friday) Good Friday; wo tumi-nsa, thy (hand of might, or) mighty hand; wo agya-ayamye, thy (goodness of a father) fatherly goodness; mmiako-mmiako, one by one. § 79.

3. Obscure compounds are apparent compounds, the single constituents of which have not yet been clearly shown; e. g.

 $nsate\bar{a}$, finger $(nsa = hand; but te\bar{a} = ?)$; \dot{n} kontompo, perfidy (konto $\dot{n} = to bend? po = ?).$

Rem. 1. In some cases different ways of writing have been used in our books, when, without impairing the sense, two words are written either separately or as imperfect or full compounds; e. g.

agya nom, agya-nom, agyanom, § 42, 5; wo ara, wo ankasa or wo ara, wo ankasa, § 59.

- 2. The term 'compound stem' may be used in a twofold way:
- a. for verbs, adjectives, adverbs or nominal stems of the forms under 9. 10 (§ 28, 3), which we might call: twin stems;
- b. for any word evidently compounded of two or more words, with the exclusion of, and in contradistinction from, its prefix:

a-hooden, strength; a-ponkokwan, a (horses' way) highway.

CHAPTER II.

The Parts of Speech.

- 31. We distinguish eight parts of speech, viz.:
 - 1. Nouns

5. Verbs

2. Pronouns

6. Adverbs

3. Adjectives

7. Conjunctions

4. Numerals

8. Interjections.

The Prepositions are spoken of as Auxiliary Verbs, and under the , head of Adverbs as Postpositions, § 108, 109, 115-131.

1. NOUNS.

- **32.** Nouns (also called substantive nouns, substantives) are names of different things, which may be:
 - 1. animate things, or persons and animals;
- 2. inanimate things, existing a as single individuals, b. as materials (substances which are not made up of individual parts);
 - 3. places, defined parts of space in general or of certain things;
 - 4. times, either time in general, or divisions of it;
- 5. quantities, also numbers, measures, weights; (nouns denoting a definite number, see Numerals, § 76-80);
- 6. qualities, whether relating to material objects, or to the mind, or to both, or also to actions;
 - 7. states and conditions of mind or body, or of things in general; 8. actions.
- 1. onípa, a man; ohéne, a king; àbóa, a beast; okóré, an eagle.
- 2. odáň, a house; duá, a tree; a ső, an ear; n sú, water; siká, gold.
- 3. osórò, the upper part or parts, heaven; wiase, world; ofie, home.
- 4. ebére, a time; edá, a day; afe, afrihyiá, a year.
- 5. dódow, multitude; sin, a piece; a fathom (of cloth); tàkú, a weight of gold-dust, worth nearly 7d.

tàpó, 20 cowries (half a string);

- kość, magnitude; teteretć, breadth; ahōofć, beauty; ayamyć, kindness, liberality; ntóm, swiftness.
- 7. abufúw, wrath; oyaré, sickness; nna, sleep; ahohuru, heat;
- 8. okó, fight; asáw, dance; aguán, flight; nsesa, exchange.
- 33. 1. Proper nouns are names of single persons, things, places, times &c. to distinguish them from others of the same kind.

Noa, Kwasi (persons); Firáw (a river); Kròbo (a mountain, country, language); Kúmase (a town); Fida, Owu-fida (days).

2. Common nouns denote whole classes of things, as mentioned in \S 32, 1-5, and any single individual, or, when referring to materials (\S 32, 2 b), any particle, belonging to such a class.

Collective nouns denote a collection of individual things forming one whole; as: oman, a people, nation; edom, an army; kwae, a forest

3. Abstract nouns denote qualities, states and actions, considered as unconnected with the substances to which they belong. § 32, 6-8. The nouns belonging to § 32, 3-5. also are generally abstracts.

Names of things that have an independent existence, as those in § 32, 1.2, are called *concrete*.

Rem. Since many nouns are used with different meanings, these meanings may pass over from one class of nouns to another, from concrete to more or less abstract, or from abstract to concrete notions. E. g. akutu, orange, nsõ, ashes, are concrete nouns; but when used

to denote a colour, they are abstract; nkataso, covering, may denote the action of covering (abstract) or a covering thing (concrete).

In the following sentences: 1. obo n'ákyi, he strikes his back,

2. ogyina n'akyi, he stands behind him,

3. ode n'a ky i gyaw ne mma, he leaves his property to his children,

4. nna no akyi oko bae, after those days a war arose, the word akyi means 1. a thing (a distinct part of a human body); 2. a place (a part of the space contiguous to a human body);

3. a collection of things left in the back i. e. at the departure or death of a person; 4. a time (indicated in Engl. by a preposition).

In 1. ne ho ye fe, he (lit. his outside) is handsome,

2. ne hõ ye den, he (his body) is strong,

3. ote ne nua ho, he sits near his brother,

4. od wen ne nua ho, he thinks of his brother,

the word ho means 1. the visible part of a body; 2. the body itself; 3. a place close to a body; 4. the things concerning somebody, or, the relation of an action to an object. Cf. § 118. 119.

STRUCTURE OF NOUNS.

- 34. In the structure of nouns we have to distinguish
- 1. the stem, which is either simple (§ 28, 3) or reduplicated (§ 29, 4) or compound (§ 30. 39);
- 2. the prefix, which to a certain degree indicates the class of things (§ 35).
- 3. The stem may also include a *suffix*, which likewise denotes some class of things. (§ 36—38.)

The simple and reduplicated stems do not want to be treated of separately. But we are now to speak of the various prefixes and suffixes used in the formation of nouns, and the classes of things indicated by them (§ 35–38), whereupon the compound nouns will be classified and explained (§ 39), and then the various tones and accents of nouns, especially of their stems, must be stated (§ 40) before the changes of nouns in the connected form (§ 49) can be co sidered.

The Prefixes of Nouns.

- 35. The prefixes, by which most nouns are formed*), are as follows:
 - 1. labial: o, o; 2. guttural: a, a; 3. nasal: m, n, n;
 - 4. palatal: e, e; 5. compound: am, an, an.

For brevity's sake we shall call them: the prefix o, a, m, c, am.

- 1. The prefix o is chiefly used in names of persons (a) and animals (b), seldom in names of single inanimate things (c) and materials (d), but often in abstract nouns (e), especially infinitives (§ 104, 1).
- a. onipa, a man (human being); obarima, obea, okunu, oyere, oba, onua, oyonkõ, owura, ohene, opanyin, see § 41. 42. 38. b. osebo, a leopard; oponko, a horse; okisi, a rat; opete, a vulture.
- c. otuo, a gun; oprae, a broom: osekan, a knife; obo, a stone.
- d. ode, yam; oto, mashed yam; ohu, a kind of pap; osu, rain. e. ohia, poverty; okom, hunger; owaw, cough; owu, death.
- *) Cf. Riis' Grammatical Outline &c. \S 22-31, espec. on the notional variations indicated by the "augments", as he calls these prefixes.

- 2. The prefix 'a' is also used in names of persons (a) and animals (b), but chiefly in names of individual things (c) sometimes in names of materials (d) and in abstract nouns (c).
- a. agya, akoa, akora, aberante, aberewa, afana, abofra, § 40.
- b. aboa, apatā (§ 42, 2); akura, a mouse; agyinamoa, a cat. c. abe, a palmtree; aben, a horn; afoa, a sword; akyene, a drum;
- akyi, the back; ani, an eye; ano, the mouth; awia, the sundabon, bark; ahai, beer; ahuru, foam, froth; amane, resin; asra, snuff; awi, meal, flour; aburow, corn; aduan, food.
- e. aboro, injury; afere, shame; agoru, play; a w i, theft.
- 3. The prefix m is used in names of materials (collective masses) (a), in names of single things that are viewed as collective multitudes (b) or consist of several parts (c), and in abstract nouns (d).
- a. nhwèá, sand; nkwan, soup; nkyéne, salt; nsu, water; nsõ, ashes. b. mfóté, nkrán, ntétéa, different kinds of ants;

nhwi, hair; nhin, a root; ntini, a bloodvessel; nsoroma, a star; ntráma, cowries; mpeté, smallpox.

c. nsa, the hand; nsenia, a pair of scales.

- d. nkáć, memory; nkać, remnant; nsew, a curse; ntam, an oath.
- 4. The prefix e has no decided character and is chiefly used before nouns with simple stems that have no other prefix.

eko, a buffalo; esóno, an elephant; edom, an army; eső, a tooth; eti, the head; epo, the sea; edin, a name.

5. The prefix am occurs seldom, and appears in some cases as a variation of the prefix 'a'.

ám pàn' Ak. ápàné, a bat; án sàm' Ak. ásàm', a guinea-hen; am pesí Ak. apesíe, boiled plantains; an t wéri, a ladder.

Remarks 1. Many nouns, especially compounds of two and more syllables and exotics, have no prefix at all.

2. The prefix ϱ is usually dropped in connection with preceding words that do not end in open vowels (a, ϱ, ϱ) ; cf. § 49, 1.

It is not much used in the Fante dialect of Cape Coast. The 'Mfantsi Grammar by D. L. Carr and J. P. Brown' has it in nouns of persons only in a few instances. replaces it in other nouns by c, and ascribes it (on page 67). only to the dialect of Gomua and thereabouts, where sit is made use of to comprehend all the vowel augments (?).

3. The prefix e is still more easily dropped than the prefix o, and is chiefly used when the word stands independent, e. g. at the head of a sentence.

Some individuals use it in this case even before the prefix m, in order to make this nasal prefix more distinctly heard.

- 1. The prefixes a, m, am, are not dropped like o and e.
- 5. On the prefixes in the plural, see § 42, 1.2.

The Suffixes of Nouns.

36. The palatal suffix (§ 29, 3) enlarges the last vowel of the stem into a long vowel or diphthong, or, with a final consonant of the stem, forms a new syllable. — It is used, together with prefixes or without such, to form nouns from verbs, either simple, or compounded with the subject or object of the action expressed by the verb.

The nouns thus derived fall under several classes. They denote

1. the agent or instrument of the action:

tui, a brush; fitae, a fan; oprae, a broom; soñē, a strainer; from tu, to brush, fita, to fan, pra, to sweep, soñ so, to strain; onofoe, a benevolent person; from fow, to moisten, ano, mouth; lit. one who moistens (makes fat) another's mouth;

ofárèbae, an author, inventor; from fa, to take, ba. to come; lit. one who took (or found out e. g. a song or play) and came with it. akasae, a tingling instrument; from kasa, to speak, talk.

2. the action itself, especially repeated action, manner of action, or a state or quality as the result of action (abstract):

nkasae, talking; mfonce, louthing, from fonc, to louthe; nneyee, doings, fr. ade, thing, ye, to do; hoae, whiteness, fr. hoa, to be white.

3. the thing produced by the action, or reduced by it to a certain state (concrete):

mpomponee, wrinkles, fr. pono, to bend, pompono, to wrinkle; mfrafrae, a mixture, fr. fra, to mix; nanhowe, dried meat, fr. nam, meat, how, to dry.

4. the place of action:

anomē', drinking-place; asoge, resting-place; mmg nē, neighbourhood.

5. the time of action:

adekyēe, adesāe, akokobońe, owigyinae, § 39, 5c.

Rem. On the low tones of such words, with high tone only at the end and the accent preceding it, see § 40, 4*.

37. The diminutive suffix, originally ba, equal to the noun oba, child, is wa; when joined to final m or n, it is ma; when joined to a final 'a', sometimes als to e or o, it is contracted with these vowels into ā. § 20, 4. It has usually high tone; preceding syllables often assume low tone.

The diminutive noun, formed from another noun by the addition of this suffix, sometimes assumes the prefix 'a'; in some cases reduplication of the original word takes place. (Cf. Riis § 36. 37.)

The diminutive suffix denotes:

1. relative littleness, or smallness in general, perhaps with some other change of meaning compared with the original word.

```
bépowa, a small mountain, a hill,
                                     from bépow, a mountain;
abóawa, aboā, a small animal,
                                          abóa, an animal:
akwaewá, underwood, bushes,
                                          ekwae, a wood, forest;
ah yemmá, a boat,
                                          ehyen, a ship;
adomma, nnonnoma, a small bell,
                                          edon, a bell, clock;
duā', a shrub, a small piece of wood,
                                          eduá, a tree; wood;
kā, kawá, a ring: toā', a small box,
                                          toa, a box;
dadewá, a nail; darewa, a fishing-hook,
                                          dadé, iron;
abasā', a withered arm,
                                          basa, an arm:
aníwa, an eye; niwa, a single cowry,
                                          ani, an eye, face.
```

2. youthful age and old age:

abarimáwá, aberantéwá, akwańkwä', abéawa, abábā' &c. akwakorā, aberewá, — see § 41, 1.

3. the female sex:

atā', awurā', okrā', aborā', Kwakyewa &c. — see § 41,3-5.

- 4. Some nouns assume the diminutive suffix in the plural form, § 42,4.
- 38. The personal suffixes ni (F. nyi), used only in the sing. number, and fo (Ak. foo), used in the sing. and plur. numbers (§ 42, 3. 4) are originally independent nouns, meaning person, people, but are so frequently, and almost exclusively, used in composition, in order to form personal nouns, that we may well call them suffixes.
- 1. When personal nouns are formed from verbs, or rather from, their infinitives, frequently compounded with their objects, the usual suffix in the singular is fo, yet the other (ni) is also found in some cases.

The verbs are most frequently taken in an active sense:

```
okyerewfo, a writer, from kyerew, to write;
otomfó, a smith,
otámfo, an enemy,
osűaní, a scholar,
oguadiní, a trader,
obantoní, a mason,
otamanwémfó, a weaver,
```

Sometimes the verb is taken in a passive sense:

osomáfó, a person sent, a messenger, from soma, to send; opiráfó, a wounded person, - pira, to wound. Sometimes both the active and the passive sense are admissible:

odófo, a loving or a beloved person, fr. do, to love.

2. When personal nouns are formed from names of countries and places, the suffix in the singular is always ni:

Ohūani, a man from the country Hùa.

Okrānni, a man from the town or country Nkran, Akra;

Okuroponní, a man from the town Akuropón.

3. When personal nouns are formed from other abstract or concrete nouns, the suffix in the singular is either ni or fo.

```
osikaní, a rich person,
                            from siká, gold;
odefó, a wealthy person,
                                ade, things:
                                ohiá, poverty;
ohiání, a poor person,
obusūání, a relation, kinsman,
                                 abusũá, family;
obusufó, a mischievous person. -
                                mmusú, mischief;
ohántanni, a proud man,
                              - ahántan, pride;
okón tomponí, a calumniator,
                                ńkóntompo, calumny;
otorófo, a liar,
                                atóro, a lie.
```

The prefix a or m of the original word is exchanged for the personal prefix o, as we see in several of these examples; yet there are exceptions, e. g.

```
mmärahyefo, a lawgiver, from hye mmära, to give a law; ikomhyefo, a soothsayer, - hye nkom, to soothsay; mpoānoni, a manfrom the coast, - mpoāno, the sea-coast.
```

Sometimes the original word is reduced to a shortened form:

```
otufó, a musketeer, from otúo, a gun;
okufó, a man full of sores and wounds, ekúru, a sore;
oninkufó, a jealous man, ninkúnu, jealousy;
onokwáfó, a truthful man, nokwáre, truth.
```

Rem. 1. The relation of the original word to the person may be as different as that of a noun in the possessive case, cf. § 193.

2. The tones of the personal suffix and of the syllables preceding it present a great variety; e. g. obofo, a hunter, obofo, a creator, obofo, a messenger (§ 40, 4.7.9).

Compound Nouns.

39. In genuine compound nouns we distinguish the fundamental and the qualifying component (each of which may be a simple word, or itself a compound, as will be shown under 8). The former, always a noun, expresses a general notion which is particularized by the latter, so that the compound denotes a particular kind of the thing denoted by its fundamental word.

Spurious compounds are also made up of two or more words, but none of them expresses the genus of the thing of which the whole compound denotes a species; such a compound, as it were, occupies the place of the qualifying word, and the general notion (person or animal, or thing) is left to be supplied. —

We make ten classes of compounds; in 1. 2. 6. 7. the qualifying component succeeds, and in 3-5. it precedes, the fundamental part; in 8. we have combinations of the cases in 1-7, and 9. 10. contain spurious compounds.

1. Compounds of a noun and an adjective.

adebòné, bad thing, i. e. evil; oponkesé, great door, i. e. gate ayeforo, § 30, 1. ohempa..., § 51. ohemforo, § 70, 2.

Some adjectives, e. g. pon, large, or certain forms of adjectives, and some verbal adjectives (§ 69, 2 d) are only used in composition: dupón = dua kese, a large tree; duwui = dua a ewui, a dead tree osennahó = asem a eda ho, a precedence, an example; anhó maguan = nhó ma a aguan, a dry or withered skin, hide.

Rem. To this class of compounds we reckon also the words bābi dabēn, dabi (§ 60, 3.4.), and the nouns compounded with numeral (§ 80), though the latter might also be taken to class 2 or 3.

2. Compounds of a noun and an appositive noun.

The qualifying component is a noun in apposition, as: obarima obea, onini, obere (§ 41, 1), otan, osae, nta, or some other compound or derivative personal noun.

obábárímá... § 41, 2. obaníntáň, a man that has children; obátáň, a woman that has children; okókotaň, a hen that has chickens oguansaé, a wether; opoňkosaé, a castrated horse, yelding. ntutá, a double-barelled yun; ňkwantá, a crossway; (fr. otúo, okwaň) osofopanyíň, a highpriest; obahúhuni, a worthless fellow; obanyansafó, obaděémmá, a wise, prudent person.

Rem. The diminutives (§ 37) originally belong to this class.

- 3. Compounds of a noun with an attributive noun in the possessive case before it.
 - a. Both components are concrete, sometimes abstract, nouns.

ohéneba, a king's son, prince; ahemfí, the king's house, court, palace, from ohéne, a king; oba, a child; ofi, a dwelling, home, residence asoùhóma, an elephant's hide; asommén, asonsé, ivory;

fr. esóno, an elephant, n hóm a, a skin, aben, a horn, ese, a tooth

Rem. Among the qualifying components we notice the word borg or buro (§ 17, 6) which is not used as an independent noun and marks the thing named by the fundamental component as coming from Europe or the Europeans.

aborónóma, a pigeon; aburogua, a chair with a back; m m orosa, rum, brandy; m m uronnó, olive-oil, sweet-oil; from anoma, a bird; agua, a seat; nsã, strong drink; nno, oi

b. The qualifying component is a verb; on dissolving such corpounds the verb must be rendered by an adjective sentence.

atúboa = aboa a otu, an animal which flies, a bird, a bat &c-t wábó, a touchstone, = obo a wode t wa sika f we, a stone by whi gold is tried; susudua, a measure, = dua a wode susuw a da stick which they take and measure things.

Rem. 1. Among the fundamental components of 3 a. b., to which also the personal suffixes § 38. originally belong, we notice as very frequent the words ade (adee), thing, asem, word, thing, matter, the former for concrete, the latter for abstract notions, and be w, bere, bea, for place, time, manner.

ahenné(e), the royal insigniae; ahensém, a king's doings; atetedé, a thing of the old time; atetesém, a story of ancient times; akyede, a thing presented, a present; atésém, a word heard, hearsay; dábew, dábere, a place to lie on; trābére, trābea, a place to sit; tebeá, state, condition; yebeá, manner of doing.

- Rem. 2. Among the compounds in 3 b. we may reckon the infinitives compounded with ye and nã, § 105, 5.
- c. The fundamental word is a noun of place and relation, § 118, and the whole compound a noun of place, sometimes of time or manner, or a concrete noun.

sårem' (serem), såresò (sereso), a prairie, steppe, wilderness; fr. såre Ak. sére, a sort of grass (lit. in or on the grass); afíase, the under part of a dwelling, a store-house, cellar, prison; mfíkyiri, the place behind the dwelling; fr. ofi, a home; mmofráase, childhood; fr. abofra, a child.
anóm', the inner parts of the mouth; asóm', do. of the ear; nsám', nsayám', the palm of the hand; yám', the cavity and contents of the chest and belly; mpoānó, the sea-shore, fr. epo, sea, and āno, border; nsanőá = sare ano nohőa, the border of the steppe.

- 4. Compound nouns of quality, made from the subject and the predicative adjective of certain sentences, the latter being turned into a noun, and the former qualifying it as an attribute in the possessive case. a h ŏ o f e, beauty, fr. ne h o y e f e, he (lit. his outside, body) is fine;
 - a sõodén, disobedience, fr. n'asõ ye den, lit. his ear is hard; aboodén, dearness, high price, fr. ebo ye den, lit. (its) stone is hard.
- 5. Compounds made from an infinitive or another verbal noun, as the fundamental component, and the subject or any complement of the corresponding verb, as the qualifying component, equal to an attribute in the possessive case.
- a. Infinitives or other verbal nouns of intransitive verbal phrases with a specific subject. Cf. § 105, 4.
 - ah õpopó, trembling; a'níwu, shame; ayamyé, liberality.
 - b. Verbal nouns of such phrases, formed by the palatal suffix. asomd woee, ahod woee (=ahodwo), peace; anifurae, blindness.
 - c. Verbal nouns of other sentences, denoting a time. ade kyee, day-break, day-light, adesae, evening, night,
 - fr. adekye, the things appear, ade sa, the things come to an end; akokobone, cock-crow; awiapuei, sunrise; owigyinae, noon, fr.owia agyina, the sun has stopped, attained its highest stand.

- d. Infinitives of intransitive verbs with a nominative complement. keséyé, being or becoming great; onípayé, being a man.
- e. Infinitives &c. of verbal phrases with a specific object or other complement.
 - ahópe, self-love; aniyiyí, neglect; asotwe, punishment.
- f. Infinitives &c. of verbs with a passive or resultive object or a specific complement.
 - aguadi, trading; d wonto, singing; asabow, drunkenness.
 - g. Infinitives &c. of verbs (verbal phrases) with locative complements. as efi, as e hy e, beginning; ā no boa, gathering; anidan, alteration; animkå, reprimand; ananmuhy e, restoration.

Rem. This formation is limited to nouns of place having the prefix 'a', and even with them the formation 6b. is more frequent.

- 6. Compounds like those in 5 f. g., but in which the infinitive comes first and the complement follows.
 - a = 5f. Exceptional formations of rare occurence.

nim de é = a denim, knowledge (of things), intelligence; a h û m o b o (re) = m m o b o rohunu, commiseration.

b. = 5 g. Verbal nouns formed by the nasal prefix.

mfiase, mfitiase, nhyease, mmoase, beginning;
nhyeso, oppression; mmoasno, gathering;
nnanani, perversion; nkaanim, reproaching;
nhyeananmù, compensation; nkekāhō, addition.

Rem. Several compounds of this kind denote not only actions, but also concrete objects and means of action; in this case they belong to the 9th class:

7. Compounds of two verbs turned into nouns, either real infinitives (§ 105) or verbal nouns denoting actions. In these compounds the two parts may be considered as co-ordinate, or, the second as an apposition to the first, as in class 2.

súfre, weeping connected with calling, i. e. imploring; odád wen, lying and thinking, i. e. meditation; aforosíān, ascending and descending, going up and down. abuadá (mm-), fasting, fr. bu a, to cover (the food) and da, to sleep. nkógu, a fighting and prostrating, i. e. defeat.

8. Twofold or manifold genuine compounds are such, in which either the qualifying or the fundamental component or both are compound.

Rem. 1. They do not, however, form an own class, but belong to any one of the preceding classes. In the following examples we separate the two components by a short line and indicate the class of the whole compound by its figure (1 to 7), adding in parenthesis the class or classes to which the single component, when viewed as word by itself, would belong.

- (3)1 osafohen-kůmā, an under-officer, subaltern officer;
- 3(1) as u-bon té n, a river (nsu, water, abontén = boron tenten, a street); (3.1)3 as u bonté n ā nò, the bank of a river;

(1) 3 oguanten - hóma, a sheep-skin;

- (1,3)3 oguantenhoma-hyefo, a dresser of sheep-skins, a tawer; (1)3(1) abonten-námpān, a house with an open front towards the
 - (1) 5 ayeforo-hyìá, a new-wife's meeting i. e. a wedding. [street.
 - 5(5 g) bo-asété, patience, fr. eto ne bo ase, lit. he puts his heart

5(6) abo-toasé, down, sets it at rest, i. e. he is patient; ani-dasó, hope, fr. n'ani da...so, his eye rests on..;

- (3)5(6) a nim-guasé, shame, confusion; fr. n'anim guase,
- (3.5.6)3 animguase-de, disgraceful acts; lit. his face falls down;
 - 5(6.3) abo-toyám, satisfaction, contentment, heart's ease;
 - 5(7) abo-dwokyére, long suffering; fr. ne bo dwo kye;
 - 5(7.6) ahome-tetrasó, excessive trouble (ahometew a etra so);
 - 7(6) mfákāhō, addition; mmotohó, postponement.
- Rem. 2. In woko nnákránná, they go to sleep with valediction for sleeping, i. e. they are on friendly terms with each other, we have three verbs combined. In apesemadí the verbal noun pe has its object sem = asem (as in cl. 6) and besides, a dependent verb in the consecutive form (adi): lit. liking a palaver to settle, i. e. litigious disposition, intermeddling. In apese (ne) nkónyã the verbal noun pe has for its object a noun-sentence introduced by the conj. se: lit. a liking that (he) alone gets, i. e. selfishness, greediness.
- 9. Spurious compounds from adjective sentences of which some member or members are omitted. The remaining parts, united in the compound, are:
- a. an attribute of the subject, and the verb: ankónam = nea ne nko nam, one who walks alone, a lone traveller.
- b. a verb (active or causative), and its object or locative complement: 2b ó ad é e = nea obóò adée, he who created the things i.e. the creator. 2t vease, aboa a ot vease neho ase, a beast sneaking on the ground, snake. bòn su (aboa a obo nsu gu, the beast that spurts water) a whale. agyenk wà (nea ogyenk wà, he who preserves life) a saviour. ab on ua (ade a wode bonnua, the thing with which they strike trees) an axe. Amosú (nea oma osu, he who gives rain), the Rain-giver (God). an kóbéa (asafo a wonko bābi), the king's body-guard. od asó (ade a eda so, a thing lying above) a coverlet; abotíri (ade a ebo tiri) a diadem; abosó, abomú, a belt.

A great number of compound verbal nouns are equal to infinitives in form, but denote concrete things (cf. above 6 b. Rem.):

nkyekyeremú (ade a wode kyekyere won mu), a belt, girdle; nkatasó, nnurahó, covering, a cover; mmuānó, a seam.

c. two verbs:

nnikae (nea wodii mã ekae), things left uncaten, remains; ntodii (ade a woto dii) things bought and eaten, i. e. expenses. afirihyia (ebere a efi hyia, a time which goes forth and meets), a year. o bacanko (nea obac a wanko bio), one who came and did no more go.

d. an adjective sentence preceded by a subordinate adverbial sentence: an sééyì (osekan a woansew a eyi, a knife which, though you have not sharpened it, takes off), a razor. teasé(a)ènam (ade a wote ase a, enam, a thing which moves while you are sitting), a carriage.

e. the object of an adjective sentence:

onamonténten (nea owo on., one that takes long steps), a long-shanks.

10. Spurious compounds, consisting of (or containing) complete (imperative) sentences, used in peculiar phrases.

Omã no hyệden, he gives (i.e. tells) him: be-strong, i.e. he condoles him. Wáyệ kố fa bèra, he has grown (to an age in which he can be told:)
go take (it) come, i.e. as it were, a fetch-something.
Ehố yệ krabếtwe, there is such a marvel that it makes one send word
to others (kra), saying: come and look!

The sentence twe ma mentwe, draw that I may draw, i. e. do what you please, and let me do what I please, has been made the qualifying component of a genuine compound in 'Wodi twemamentwede, they are disunited, at variance.'

Tone and Accent of Nouns.

40. Concerning the various tones and accents of nouns, we notice first, that in the independent form the prefix has usually low tone without stress; and with regard to the tones and stress of the stem, we arrange them under the following 12 classes.

A. Stems beginning with low tone.

- 1. Stems with low tone throughout, of 1 to 5 syllables:
 èpo, wòfa, adàmfo, kòntromfi, abòbonua, kyèrebenkuku.
- 2. Stems with low tone throughout, leaving the principal accent to the prefix: àbogye, ònoko.

The prefix has high tone in

ádèsā, ámàrã (ámònā), A'bà (F. = Ayaba? Ak. Yawá, Akp. Yā').

3. Stems with low and high tone, of 2—6 syllables; the accent coincides with the high tone on the last syllable or on the last but one (seldom the last but two).

akoá, aberewá,* abotokurá, akyerekyerekwáń; ohahíni, osafohéne, ahenniakyíri; osafohenkúnini.

* Most diminutives ending in wa have such tones.

4. Ditto of 1-5 syllables, with the stress immediately before the (first) high tone.

kā', ankā*, nkaé*, onùá, awurā'*, odesāní, awurakwā', agyinamòá; akwādwéro, wofāséwa, nkonsònkónson, osafohèmpányin; dòmpónini.

In some few words the prefix has high tone and a decided accent: ákō', ánsàm', áfèraw', ánkòrá.

- * Most diminutives ending in ā, and nouns formed by the palatal suffix and ending in ē, ī, ae, ai, ee, oe, oi, ui, have the stress on the first part of these long vowels and diphthongs, and end with high tone on the final part.
- 5. Stems with low, high and middle (or low) tone, of 2-5 syllables, with the stress on the first high syllable:

ntātâ, abarimā, ohiání, obosonsóm fó, akyenkyénnúru.

6. Ditto with the accent immediately before the high tone: op godo, obarima, okyigylnafó, omansôboafó,

An addition to the classes 5 and 6 are:

Stems with low, high, low, high (and perhaps again low) tones, of 3-7 syllables, in which two of the preceding cases 1-6 are combined:

mfinímfiní, asepâteré, kwasíàmaňkwā', ňhwēáňhwěabó.

- B. Stems beginning with high tone.
- 7. Stems with high tone throughout, of 1-4 syllables, with the accent on the first syllable:

aba, oba, agya, obéa, obábea, akókonini.

In nouns consisting of a prefix and a monosyllabic stem, the latter has so regularly high tone, that it does not want an accentual mark.

8. Ditto with the accent on the prefix:

ānó, àbóa, ànómmane, àníberesem.

9. Stems with high and middle (or low) tone, of 1-5 syllables, with the principal accent on the first high, and a secondary accent on the only or second middle-toned syllable:

nkáé (remembrance), okóré, ogyigyefő, okóntomponi, obósomaketéw; owúrá, sirikyì, mânó; ntétéa.

10. Ditto with the principal accent on the prefix and a secondary accent on the middle-toned syllable:

òkărá, òkórów, n'kórón, abákán.

11. Stems with high, low and high tone, of 3-5 syllables, with the principal accent on the first high syllable and a secondary accent on the high syllable subsequent to the low tone:

mfénsèré, asómfàná or asónomfðá, akítèrekú, akékàntwére, opántweðníni.

- 12. Ditto of 2-4 syllables, with accents on low tones, either
- a. only before the last high tones, or
- b. also before the first high tone, i. e. on the prefix.
 - a. dúkū', tộpō', mânō', pántànt wèré.
 - b. àbába, àbódð, àhóhòw, àfófàntó,

An addition to the classes 7-12 are:

Stems with high, low, high, low (and perhaps again high) tones, of 4-6 syllables, in which two of the cases 7-12 are combined, with two principal accents:

dábòdábò, nsákyìnsáyam', ahúnàníànkánsa.

Rem. Stems with a very short vowel before an inserted r or n followed by a high-toned vowel, are considered as beginning with a high tone, though the very short vowel, when not suppressed, have rather low tone:

(cl. 7) obărá, ńkărá, atŏró (or obrá, ńkrá, atóro), ntráma; (cl. 9) prákò, ńkăráń', abŏrónóma, ńkŭrónnúa, aturúkùku.

GENDER.

- 41. Gender, as the distinction of sex, is limited (in Tshi Grammar) to some common names and proper names of persons, and, if wanted, to names of animals.
 - 1. The male or female sex is distinguished by different words:

obarímá, F. obanyin, a man; oníni, the male of animals; akorá, akwakorā', an old man; aberánté, akwańkwā',

a young man; aberantéwá, aberantékwá,

a youth, lad; abarimáwà, a boy; akoá, a male slave; agya, (Ak.) ose, father; okúnu, a husband; obéa, obã, o(bā)basia, a woman. obérè, the female of animals. aberewá, an old woman. abábã, abeafó, a young woman.

abāwá, a maiden. lass,

abéawa, a girl. afănā', a female slave. gnā, oni, awo, mother. oyére (Ak. oye), a wife.

2. It is distinguished by compounding some of the nouns mentioned above with nouns of common gender:

obábarimá, obábanin, a son; onuabarímá, a brother; oponkoníni, a stallion; nant winíni, a bull; od wenníni, a ram; okókonini, a cock; ohéne, a king;

obábā, obábea, a daughter.
onuabéa, a sister.
oponkobéré, a mare.
nant w ibéré, a cow.
oguamméré, a ewc.
akókoberé, a hen.
ohémmea, a queen.

Or such nouns are added in apposition, e. g. abofra, a child; abofra barimá, a boy; abofra bea, a girl.

3. The feminine form is distinguished from the masculine by adding the diminutive suffix to the latter, often with an additional change of the prefix:

ata, a male twin; atá, a female twin; owúrà (Ak. owira), master; awurā (Ak. awirawa), mistress; okara, a male slave, okarā, a female slave, destined to accompany the master in death.

Obŭròni, a European; aborā (aborowa), a female European. Of this kind are some proper names of persons, e. g.

Kwakyé, Ofori, Oben; Kwakyewa, Oforiwa, Obénewa; Korántén or Ténkoran; Korántémma, Ténkoramma.

4. Proper names of persons, according to the week-day of their birth:

**Masculine:* Feminine:*

Kwàsí;
Kwàdwó, F. Kogyo,
Kwàběná, F. Kobena,
Kwàkú,
Yàw, F. Kwaw,
Kofí,
Kwāmé, F. Kwamena,
Kwāmé, F. Kwamena,
Kwāmé, F. Kwamena,
Akòsúa (Akwasiba), fr. Kwàsída, Sunday.
Dwóda, Monday.
Běnáda, Tuesday.
Wùkúda, Wednesday.
Yáw'da, Thursday.
Fída, Friday.
Méméneda, Saturday.

5. Proper names of persons given them according to the number of children:

Mensā — Mānsā, the third child;

Anan - Manan, the fourth child;

A son & Bot we, the 7th & 8th child, are common to both genders;

Akron — Nkromma, the 9th child; Bàdú — Baduwa, the 10th child.

Ata — Atā (Atawa), a twin;

Tawia — Tawia, a child born after twins.

NUMBER.

- 42. The plural is formed in the following ways:
- 1. Nouns with the prefixes o- e- or without a prefix assume the prefix a-:
 - ohéne, a king, ahene; ekuw, a heap, akuw; gyàtá, a lion, — agyata; nantwi, an ox, a cow, — an antwi.
- 2. Nouns with the prefixes o, e, a, am (an, an), or without a prefix, assume the prefix m or n, n, according to the initial consonant of the stem (§ 18):
 - oba, a child, offspring, mma; apatā, a fish, mpatā; okwasea, a fool, nkwasea; ampan, a bat, mpan; eda, a day, nna; kuku, a pot, nkuku; abóa, a beast, animal, mmoa; tumpan, a flask, ntumpan.
- §41, 1-3. obarima, obea, aberante, ababā, akoa, afanā, abofra, ata, mmarima, mmea, mmerante, mmabā, nkoa, mfanā, mmofra, nta.

3. Nouns with the suffix ni, denoting persons (§ 38), assume the suffix fo instead of ni, besides changing the prefix o- into a-: obibiní, a negro, — abibifo; obantoní, a mason, — abantofo.

The plural-prefix may be wanting, or it is nasal, following the prefix of the noun from which the noun in question is derived:

Oburòni, a European, - Aburòfó or Bròfó;

Ofanteni, a Fante-man, — Mfantefo;

- Okranní, an Akra-man, Nkranfo (from Nkran, Akra).
- 4. Some nouns assume the suffixes fo and wa or ma, besides the change of their singular prefix:

ománní, a country-man, acquaintance, — amannifo; afe, a mate, companion, — mfefo;

oyaré, a sickness, — nyarewá; sáfé, a key, — nsafēwá. ade (Ak. adee), a thing, — nnewá, nneéma.

ad w e, a palm-nut-kernel, - n n w e a.

- 5. Some nouns, expressing family relation, friendship and other association, assume the appositive pronoun or suffix nom, frequently without changing the singular prefix:
 - agya, father, agyá-nom; enå, mother, enã-nom; naná, a grand-parent, nana-nom, nena-nom; okúnu, a husband, okunu-nom; oyére, a wife, oyere-nom; onùá (= oni ba), a brother, sister, onua-nom, anua-nom; owúrà (owira), master, owura-nom, awura-nom; oyònkô, adàmfo, a friend, oyonkô-nom, nnamfo-nom; Kwàsí (§ 41, 4) Kwasi-nom, Kw. and his followers. S. § 63. téférew, a cockroach, nteferew-nom, cockroaches and other beetles.
- 6. Some compounds assume a plural prefix also, or only, before their second component part:

osofopanyin, a highpriest. — asofo-mpanyin; ohéneba, a child of a king, — ahene-mma; aburuwába, a child of a slave, vile person, — mmuruwa-mma; hyiádán, a house of assembly, hyia-adan;

homédá, the day of rest, — home-nna. 7. Sometimes the plural form is repeated:

ekuw, a heap, — akuwakúw; epow, a knot, — apowapów; efi, a shcaf, — afiafi; etow, a lump, — ntowntów.

The repetition sometimes signifies all the different sorts of a thing: mmoawa-mmoawa, insects and animalcules of all kinds.

8. Some nouns have two or more plural forms:

ohéne, a king, — ahene, ahemfo; opanyin, a grown person, elder, — mpanyin, mpanyimfo; obirempón, a man of wealth or high rank, ab..., ab...fo; okwaseá, a fool, stupid fellow, — nkwasea, nkwaseafo; oman, a nation, — aman, amánamán; ade, a thing, — ade, nnewá, nnewa-nnéwa, nneéma, nneema-nnéema.

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- 43. Many nouns have only one form for the singular and plural:
- 1. Nouns formed with the nasal prefix, denoting
- a. individual things, perhaps consisting of several parts: mpa, nnae, a bed, couch; nsa, the hand; nsenia, a pair of scales.
- b. collective multitudes:

mfóté, nkrán', ntétéa, different kinds of ants.

2. Names of parts of the human body:

ani, the face, eye; anim', the face; àniwa, the eye; asõ, the ear; āno, the mouth; àfóno, the cheek; ef wéne, the nose; esê, a tooth; tekremá, the tongue; kõmá (Ak. kononá), the heart.

There are exceptions: eti, otiri, the head; atiri, heads of couries; enan, the foot, pl. nan, anan; onammon, the sole, pl. anammon; dompé, Ak. kasae, a bone, pl. nnompe, nkasae.

3. Several other nouns:

esono, an elephant; batafo, a wild boar; edom, an army; asafo, a company; aban, a house of stone; edin, a name.

Rem. The singular or plural number of such nouns may be shown a. by numerals or adjectives:

mfote biako, a white ant; nsa abien, two hands; aniwa koro, one eye; tekrema apem, a thousand tongues; esono bebre, many elephants; edin horow, different names.

- b. by the single or reduplicated form of the verb:

 wótò abán, they build a house; wototó abán, they build houses;
 okyeréw nhôma, he writes a letter;
 okyerékyèrew nhôma, he writes letters.
 - 44. Nouns admitting no distinction of singular and plural are:
 - 1. Nouns denoting collective masses or materials:

siká, gold; dàdé, iron; sany ã', tin; aŭówá, brass; asíkrè, sugar; aburow', corn, maize; emõ, rice; ahai, beer; nsõ, ashes.

Rem. When dade means: an iron tool, sanyā: a tin-plate, pewter-dish, a wowa: a brass-basin, — then they have a plural number: nnade, nsanyā, nwowa. — A single grain of corn is indicated by the adjective fua, single: b ŭ rofua, plur. m m ŭ rofua.

Different words may be used for the same thing concerning number:

ntráma, serewá, cowries (as a collective mass, no sing.); niwa, a single cowry; niwa du (nuodú), ten cowries.

2. Names of actions, states and qualities (abstract nouns): osa, war; okõ, fight; ohīa, poverty; okom, hunger; aguare, bathing; ahõoden, strength; tumi, power; nkwã, asetrã, life; nsew, curse.

Instead of plural forms of such words, as: wars, fightings, powers, curses, thefts, we may use reduplications, or the adjectives horow (Ky. hodoo), different, be brē, much, many, or the nouns ahorow (ahodoo), kinds, or composition with asem, word, doing, mpen, times.

okõ, akõ, fighting, — akõkõ-akókó, repeated fightings, quarrels; okotow, bowing down, — akotokótów, repeated bows; asafo horow, (different) companies; osá bèbrē, many wars; tumi ahorow, (kinds of) powers; aŭifosém, thieving, thefts; wakõ ńkõpeń du, he has fought ten battles.

As a kind of plural formation we may also consider the infinitive forms with nasal prefix and palatal suffix: mmae, nkoe, § 104, 4.5.

CASE.

- 45. The case of a noun is the relation in which it stands to other words in the same sentence.
- 1. A noun is in the nominative case, or is called a nominative, when it denotes the subject of a sentence, answering the question: who? what?
- 2. A noun is in the vocative case, when used in calling or addressing a person or thing.
- 3. A noun in the possessive (or genitive) case denotes the owner or possessor, or the author, origin, home, source, place, time, stuff or material, contents &c. of another thing, or the whole of which another thing is a part or member &c. (See § 193.) It answers the questions: whose? of whom? of what?
- 4. A noun in the objective case is the object of an action. It is called accusative, when it denotes a person or thing affected or produced or otherwise concerned by an action, answering the questions: whom? what? It is called dative or terminative, on the questions: to whom? for whom? also: from whom? (Cf. § 200-206.)
- 5. We add to these the *locative* case, on the question: where? referring to nouns of place which form the necessary complements of certain verbs. (Cf. § 207. 208.)
- 46. In Tshi these different relations are either indicated merely by the position of the nouns, or they require their own verbs.

The latter case must be reserved for the Syntax; the former would also belong thither, but, on account of the changes of tone and elisions of prefixes frequently connected with it, we bring it here.

- 1. The position of a noun in the nominative case is usually before the verb, the subject of which it is; in some cases it stands after the verb, especially when the noun is not the subject, but the nominative complement of the verb. Only when standing after the verb, the form or tone of the noun may be changed, under certain conditions which will be stated in § 49.
- 2. A noun in the vocative case usually stands before the words spoken to the addressed person, not closely connected with them, but separated by a comma, and is not changed by them in its form.

 M mofrá, múntiè! Children, listen! O wúrà, mini! Master, here I am!

Exceptionally the vocative may be placed behind, and, not from the connection, but by the impassionate feeling, the tone may be altered:

Yeayè wo dén', owurá? What have we done thee, O master?

The vocative assumes the exclamatory particle ē (in F. also ō) behind, when a person is called at a distance; e. g. Kwasi-ē!

This (full) ē has middle tone; it may cause the low tone of the preceding syllable to become high, and may even produce a change of that vowel itself; e. g. a wé-é! from à we, friend.

The vowels a and o are sometimes elided; e.g.

Adwo'ē! Afor'ē! fr. Adwoa, A'fòro (female proper names).

- 3. A noun in the possessive case stands always before another noun which may be in the nominative or objective or locative or likewise in the possessive case; yet not the former, but that other noun, undergoes changes under certain conditions, stated in § 49.
- 4. A noun in the objective case follows its governing verb and may be changed in this connection, as will be stated in § 49. When the dative and accusative cases are governed by one verb, the dative case precedes the accusative and is liable to the changes alluded to.
- 5. A noun in the localive case is connected with, and may be changed by, the verb, like a noun in the objective case.

Remark. A connection of two words in equal case, called apposition, may produce similar changes in the prefix and tone of the second word, as in the position after a possessive case. (Cf. § 190. 191.)

Independent and Connected Form of Nouns.

- 47. 1. The independent form of a noun is that form and tone which it has when pronounced by itself alone, or as the first word of a sentence.
- 2. The connected form of a noun is that which, under certain conditions (§ 49), it assumes
- a. after a noun or pronoun in the possessive case;
- in apposition, i. e. after a noun or pronoun to which the connected noun forms an apposition;
- c. in the position of an object or a locative complement immediately after the governing verb.
- 3. The changes, which a noun may undergo in the connected form, concern the prefix and its tone, and the tone of the stem.

Rem. When a noun is connected with a preceding word in any of those three positions without such changes, we do not call its form connected, but say, the connected noun has retained its independent form.

- 48. In the independent form of nouns we observe these three points:
- 1. the noun either has a prefix, or it has none;
- 2. the tone of the prefix is low, with few exceptions (§ 40, 2.4.);
- 3. the tone of the stem or of its first syllable or syllables is
- a. low (perhaps followed by high or by high and low tones);
- b. high (perhaps followed by middle or low or low and high tones).
 Cf. § 40.
 - 49. In the connected form the following changes occur:
- 1. The prefixes \underline{e} , \underline{e} , \underline{o} , o, are usually dropped, except the preceding vowel be open (a \underline{e} \underline{o}); after full \underline{e} , o, the prefix o may be retained.
- 2. The prefix of the connected word, o (after a, e, o), or a, m, am, joins the preceding word in equal tone; when, therefore, the preceding word ends in low tone, no change takes place; but when it ends in high tone, the tone of the prefix becomes high likewise.
- 3. The tone of the stem of the connected word does not change when the preceding word ends in low tone; but when the preceding word (for which, in the following examples, we substitute the pronoun ne) ends in high tone, we have the following five cases:
- a. the low tone of the stem remains low: abogye n'abogye.
- b. " " " " becomes high: oyònkó nè yónkô.
- c. the high tone of the stem becomes low: en a né nà.
- d. " " " " " " middle: ohéne né héne.
- e. , , , , , , , , , , {

 remains high after nouns and pronouns,

 becomes middle after verbs:

obá — ne bá; ohéne ba; onní bá.

The first case (a.) is the most usual with low tone.

The 2d case (b.) comprehends a small number of words, the first syllable of which has low tone, partly with stress, in the independent form, viz. oyonkó, ohonám, basá, bakón, batwéw, mmatí &c. onammón, nantín, nantú &c. oyafúnu. In kokurobetí the first syllable becomes likewise high: ne kókurobetí.

The 3d case (c.) comprehends a small number of words, viz. agy a, enã, ese, āno, akyi, emu, eso, eto, nsóno, núfù, osórò. The words osékán, súnsúm, are changed into sèkan, sûnsum.

The 4th case (d.) prevails in the Akuapem dialect over the 5th.

The 5th case (e.) may be the prevailing rule in the Akem dialect, but comprehends only a limited number of nouns in the Akp. dial., viz. oba, eti, ani, asõ, ekón, yám, asen, nsa, enan, nkyén, ehõ, ase, nkã, enē, edín, su, ban, oyére, efwéne, mfinímfiní, and compounds of them, as: obábea, atífī, atíko, àníwa, aníase, ànígye, nánase, nánkróma, nánsin, nánsóā &c.

50. When the possessive case, preceding the connected noun, is that of a personal pronoun, this pronoun has high tone (mé, wó, né, yeň, mó, woň) and produces in the connected word the changes mentioned in § 49, 1. 2. 3. a. c. d.; but in the cases 3, b. e. the pronoun, giving up its own high tone, assumes low tone.

Other changes of the original tone of nouns.

- 51. The high tone of nouns often becomes low
- 1. by the connection with certain succeeding adjectives, chiefly such as have constant high tone; in some cases, especially when elision and assimilation of letters takes place, the two words are written together as one compound word.
 - ohéne ohene mú, ohempá, ohemmòné, ohenkesé; nsú — nsu krónkron, nsu pá, nsuohyéw, nsuonwíni.
 - 2. in derivatives formed by diminutive or personal suffixes:
 - ohéne ohenewá; siká osikaní; otúo otùfó.

Exceptions: asúwa, a brook; aberantéwá, abarimáwá, § 41, 1. and many nouns ending in ni and fo with middle tone. § 38.

Nouns formed by the palatal suffix have usually low tone throughout, except the final sound, which is high and has the accent (or stress) before it. See § 36. 40, 4.

3. in composition (cf. § 194):

ohéne — ahemfí, ahennán, ahenné (e), ahenní, ahensém ; nsú — suká, osukóm, sukráman, nsukurúwá.

2. PRONOUNS.

52. A pronoun is a word which supplies the place of a noun.

As we have hitherto spoken only of substantive nouns, we now speak of substantive pronouns, reserving the adjective pronouns to be mentioned with the adjectives.

We divide the pronouns into personal, interrogative, demonstrative, indefinite and relative pronouns.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

- a. Independent nominative forms.
- 53. The personal pronouns, including one impersonal that is put for things, are in the nominative case as follows:

Singular			•	Plural	
1st	person:	me, I	1. p.	yen, we	•
2d	n	wo, thou	2. p.	mo, you	
3d	n	ono, he, she	3. p.	won, they (only for persons)	
		eno, it;		eno, enonom, they (for things	в).

Rem. When ono or eno follows after the verb ne (§ 102, 1) as a nominative complement, it does not only loose its prefix (as in the objective case § 56), but is even reduced to a mere final n, viz. ne n = ne no. § 199, 1. — Ono nkō, he alone, may be shortened into ne nkō.

b. Prefixed nominative forms.

54. When prefixed to the verb (§ 89), the nominative case appears in the following shortened forms:

before a (a) e o e o in the verb: me-wo- o- e- ye- mo-wobefore gya, nyã, twa, e, o, i, u: mi-wu- o- e- ye- mu-wotogether with the prefix a-: ma-woa-wa-a-yea-moa-woa-

Rem. 1. In woa- yea- moa- woa- the vowel before a- is almost lost in pronunciation, and the prefix e- is entirely lost with a-.

2. The prefix e- serves not only to indicate things, but is also sometimes used instead of the personal pronoun we-, e. g.

Mpanyimfo na ebuu be, the elders made a proverb.

c. Possessive forms.

55. In the possessive case (§ 45, 3) ono, eno are changed into ne:

1. p. me, my

yen, our

p. wo, thy
 p. ne, his, her, its,

mo, your won, their (of persons).

their (of things);

With de after them $(\S 62) = mine$, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.

Rem. 1. Before i, u &c. they are pronounced mi, wu, ni, yen, mu, won, but only yen and won are written so.

2. Before the prefix a- the vowels in me, (wo), ne, are lost, and we write: m' (w'), n'; e. g. m'ani, my eye; n'ano, his mouth.

3. After the verb we write: nó sò, nổ mù, nò hồ=ne so, ne mu, ne hỗ.

4. On the tone of these pronouns in the possessive case, see § 50.

d. Objective forms.

56. In the objective case (§ 45, 4) the prefix of ono, eno, is dropped.

1. p. me, me

yęn, us

2. p. wo, thee

mo, you

3. p. no, him, her, (it), won, them (of persons).

(them, of things);

Rem. 1. When referring to a thing which is easily understood from the context, the pronoun no is usually omitted. § 202, 4.

Wabisanò, he has asked him (her). Ye no yiyé! make it well!

Wabisanò, he has asked him (her). Ye no yiyé! make it well! Akutú no wò hé? Kwàsi afà de ámà Kofi, na Kofi adì, where is that orange? Kw. has taken (it) and given to Kofi, and K. has eaten (it).

Rem. 2. In quick speaking me, wo, no, mo, occasionally drop their vowel, or no is shortened into ne.

Wádà m'ase, he has thanked me. Mónye n' 'iyé, do it well! Míyì w' ayé, I praise thee. Ményã m'! I shall get you!

Ne hó ayè ne den, he has recovered.

Ne hố n'yế nè den, he is unwell.

57. When the pronouns in the objective case are *reflexive*, they are compounded with the noun $h \delta = self$:

mehő, wohő, nehő, yeńhő, mohő, wońhő, myself dec. Odo nehő, he loves himself; yedo yeńhő, we love ourselves.

When the action expressed by the verb is reciprocal, either this compound form of the objective pronoun, or only the last part of it, or the verb, is doubled:

Wodo wonhó-wonhō, or wodo wonhó-hō, or wododo wonhó, they love each other.

58. A comparative view of the personal pronouns:

!	a. Indepen- dent forms:	b. Prefix forms:	with a-	c. Possessive forms:	Objec forn	
1.	m é	me-, mi-,	ma-	mé, mè, m'	me, m',	mehó
2.	wó	w o-, w·u-,	woa-	wó, wò, w'	wo, w',	wohō
3.	o n ó	Q-, O-,	wa-	né, nè, n'	no, n',	nehõ
		e -, e-,		né, nè, n'	(no, n')	nehõ
1.	y é n	уе-, уе-,	yea-	yeń', yèń	yęń,	yenhõ
2.	mó, (hom)			mó, mò	mo, m',	mohõ
3.	wóń, (yeń)	₩ o-, wo-,	woa-	woń', wòń	woń,	wonhõ.
1	enónom	e∙, e-	a-	né, nè, n'		

Rem. 1. In the Fante dialect of Cape Coast we have them thus:

1.	e m e	me, mi, m'	me	me, m'	, meh õ
2.	e w o	e, e, e wo (a)	wo	wo,	wohõ
	ono	<u>o</u> , o	ne	no,	nehő (nohő)
1.	ehyen(nom)	nye	nyere		nyerehő
2.	ehom(nom)	· (e)h o m	hom	hom,	homhõ
3.	ewon(nom)	wo	wore	won,	worehõ.

The 3rd pers. sing. does not distinguish persons and things (cf. § 89,7), and the prefix e-before the verb is used for the 2d pers. sing. instead of wo-. The full forms of the plural may be added before the prefixed and possessive forms. The 2d and 3d pers. plur. (hom and hwon) seem to be sometimes nearly equal in sound.

Rem. 2. In the Akem and Asante dialects the pronouns of the singular number are as in § 53-57. The 2. pers. plur. is hom and mo; the 1. and 3. pers. plur. are alike: yene, ye-, yere, yen.

This latter circumstance is very inconvenient, but is explained thus: the original form of the 3. pers. plur. is ben (still found in the dialect of Aburi, a town of Akuapem); it was changed into wen, and now either the vowel was made labial, to suit the labial consonant: won, in Fante and Akuapem; or, the consonant was palatalized, to suit the palatal vowel: wen (which is retained in Okwawu), and then passed over into merely palatal y: yen, in Akyem and Asante.

59. The personal pronouns are made emphatic by adding or suffixing the particles ara or ankasa, or both together.

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méara, mànkása, méara ankasa, even I, I myself; wóara, woànkása, woànkása ara, thou thyself; onóara, onóankasa, nànkása, he himself, she herself; enóara, even that, just that, the same. yénara, yenànkása, we ourselves; móara, moànkása, you yourselves; wónara, wonànkása, they themselves. n Fante: emeara, m'ara; ewoara, w'ara; noara, n'ara;
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(In Fante: emeara, m'ara; ewoara, w'ara; noara, n'ara; (e)hyen ara; (e)homara; wonara; ankasa may be added.)

These compound forms may be placed before the prefixed or possessive or objective forms:

méara mafà, I myself have taken (it); wóara woakà, thou thyself hast said (it); méara me dán, my own house; nànkása ne fí, his own home;

masópa mànkása mehő, I have disgraced my own self; wododo wónara wonhő, they love (only) their own selves.

II. INTERROGATIVE, DEMONSTRATIVE and INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

60. The following (substantive) pronouns denote

1. persons, 2. things, 3. places, 4. times,

5. manner and quantity (including measure, weight, number):

1. ehéna (hōna, Ak. hwana, nhwae, F. wana), who? pl. ehénanom, ehéfo? who? oyi, this one, pl. eyinom, these men or persons;

oyiara, this very person.

obi, some one, another; ebinom, some or other people;

obiara, any one, any body.

ónìkó, óyākổ (pl. yānom), the (single) person concerned (used chiefly in indirect questions; cf. § 74, 1).

nea (= ono a, Ak. dea, he who) is a subst. pron. compounded with the relative particle 'a'. § 65.

2. dén' (Ak. déebèn, deen, sen)? what (what thing)?

dekõdé, what, which thing (in indirect questions).

eyi, adi (=adé yi), this thing; eyinom, these things.

ebi, biribí, some (of it), something.

ebiara, biribiara, anything;

fwe, fwefwe (Ak. fwete), anything, with negative verbs: nothing; e. g. fwe nnim' korā, fwefwe nnim', ebiara nnim' fwerede, there is nothing in it at all.

nèa (Ak. dea, = ade a), that which. § 65.

3. ehē (Ak. ehene)? where (= which place)?

eha, ehayi, ehaara, ehanom (Ak. néhā), here, just here, hereabout; eho, ehono, ehoara, ehonom (Ak. doha), there, just there, thereabout.

(Sometimes eho denotes time: ehono, ehobere no, at that time.)

nèa (Ak. dea), the place where. § 65.

Cf. bābí (Ak. beabi), somewhere; pl. mmeámmèá, in different places, mmā' nnytnā' (nhīnā), in all places, everywhere. § 125, 1. ~~îkō, which place (in indirect questions); the place concerned. § 125, 2.

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- 4. dábèn (Ak. dabene)? when? lit. what day? ene, nne (a contraction of edá yi, this day), to-day. dàbí, some day; dà, with negative verbs: never; dàbí = no, § 146, 3. dá, dá dā, dāpem, dáyi, F. dabā, often, always. 5. den (Ak. sen)? how? in what manner or quality?
- ahē (Ak. sen)? how? in what manner or quality?

 ahē (Ak. sen)? how much? how many? what quantity, price, number?

 sa, sā', sē' (=sā yi, se eyi), in this manner, quality or quantity,

 so, such, thus.
- 61. Most of these pronouns (§ 60) may be used in the nominative 1), or possessive 2), or objective 3), or locative 4) case, and are, concerning their independent and connected form, treated like nouns.
- 1. Ehéna nà ówo họ? who is there? Mó mù héna nà oním? which of you knows (it)? Né dện nà ayéra? (lit. his what i. e.) what or which of his things is lost? Né bìribíara n'yeráè e, (lit. his anything was not lost yet, i. e.) nothing of his things is lost.

Wohé yè wo yàw'? (thy where makes thee pain) where do you feel pain? Me hà yè me yà w sê, (lit.) my here pains me very much.

Né sá n'yé! (lit. its so is not good i. e.) it is not good so.

2. Ehena tam ni (= ne yi)? whose cloth is this?

Eye oyi dèa, it is this one's (thing, § 62).

Den asem ni? (lit. what-things matter i. e.) what matter is this? Ahé aburów ni? how-much (money's) i. e. for how much (money) corn is this?

Sā' onipa yi, (lit. such-quality's man this i. e.) such a man.

3. Woákofré héna? whom did you (go to) call? Mafré eyinom, I have called these (people).

4. Wágyè me hó sìká, he has taken money from me (lit. my there).

62. The *indefinite pronoun* de (Ak. dee, = ade, adee, *thing*) is put after a possessive case instead of a noun mentioned before, to avoid its repetition, or with a general (indefinite) meaning.

Ehá (Abibirim ha) ńkóko n'só sò Abrokyíri dé, the fowls here (in Negro-land) are not so large as those of Europe.

Ohéne no nsrâfó n'yé nnám sè oyí dé, that king's soldiers are not so brave as this one's (thing=soldiers).

Méhū mèdé ānò, I shall see my things' end, i. e. I shall see how to arrange or settle my matters.

Eye me dé, wo dé, ne dé, yen dé, &c. it is mine, thine &c. § 55.

Sometimes the emphatic particle 'a' (§ 75, 2) is added to de:

Otám yi yè me déà! this cloth is mine, lit. my thing (indeed)!

(Ak. Otám yi wò me, this cloth [sticks, i. e.] belongs to me.)

Rem. The indefinite pronoun de, compounded with the relative particle 'a', without reference to a noun mentioned before, see § 65.

63. The plural pronoun nom is added to names of persons, in order to mark in an indefinite way the followers and companions of that person, himself included.

Paulo nom tu fii Pafo, Paul and his company loosed from Paphos.

Acts 13, 13.

This nom is also used in apposition or as a suffix with nouns and pronouns to provide for, or strengthen, their plural form; see § 42, 5. and enonom, ehomnom, ehenanom, eyinom, ebinom, yānom, ehanom, ehonom, § 53. 58 Rem. 1. 60, 1. 3. and yinom, binom, § 74.

III. Pronouns in connection with the relative particle 'a'.

(Relative Pronouns.)

- 64. The relative pronouns of the English and kindred languages are expressed in Tshi by the invariable particle 'a' (equal to the uninflected Hebrew relative ¬♥♠) and a subsequent pronoun, which, however, in some cases is wanting.
- 1. The particle 'a' is called relative (=referring), because it refers to some previous word, a noun or pronoun, termed the antecedent; but it points also forward, and connects with the antecedent a subordinate adjective sentence (§ 257), in which a pronoun in the nominative 1), or possessive 2), or objective 3), or locative 4) case, answering to the antecedent, is contained, or at least understood, viz. when it refers to a thing 5) not a person, or sometimes also to a place 6).
- 2. The antecedent may have a distinguishing adjective, yi, no, bi and kõ (§ 74) before the relative particle, or yi, no, bi, at the end of the adjective sentence, or even in both places.

Rem. The case of the correspondent pronoun is independent from that of the antecedent.

1. Obí à ókò asú ni! there is one that goes for water.

Abofrá à óreko asú yi(ara) abò ahiná 'ne,

this (very) boy going for water has broken a pot to-day.

Yedo wón à wódo yen, we love them that (or those who) love us. 2. Onípa bi wò hó à ne nsá a wú,

there is (or was) a man whose hand is (or was) withered.

Obarimá à ne nán apira no(ara) asán abà,

the (same) man, whose foot is wounded, has come again.

Mé à me ntí ohữů amané no, mèdo no,

I, for whose sake he suffered, love him.

3. Mihúù obí à owó aká no,

I saw somebody whom a snake has bitten.

Wáht obéa (no) à owó aká no no,

he has seen the (that) woman whom a snake has bitten.

Wó à owó aká wo no, wúsùró sùnsón,

thou whom a snake has bitten, fearest a slow-worm.

4. Adé à ompé ni, this is a thing (which) he does not like.

Adé à mémpé no ni, this is the thing (that) I don't like. Atemmú kô à móde bu no, wòde bébu mò,

with what judgment ye judge, ye shall be judged. Mat. 7, 2.

Wakyére mè afíri à minhúù bí dà.

he has shown me an engine an equal of which I have never seen. 5. Odúù akurá à ósogè hó kán no,

he arrived at the village where (in which) he had put up formerly. 6. Yebéfi wiase à yébaé yi akó biò,

we shall leave this world, into which we came, to go away again.

- 65. Nea, Ak. dea, is an indefinite or demonstrative substantive pronoun, denoting a person or thing or place or manner, with which the relative particle 'a' is compounded, pointing forward to a sentence by which the person, thing, place or manner is defined. Serving instead of ono a, ade a, bābi a, it combines the antecedent and the connective power of the relative pronouns and adverbs of European languages, answering to: he who, she who, he that, what (=that which), (the place) where, the manner (extent &c.) in which; but in the words following after it, a correspondent pronoun must be used or understood, to make up the sense conveyed by the said relatives in English.
- 1. Nea ókò asú nà óbò ahina, he who goes for water breaks the pot.
- 2. Dea émmaé da suà, what has never yet come to pass is not much.
- 3. Nea ába pén na esán ba, what has happened once, happens again.

4. Nea owó aká no sùró sùnsón,

he whom a snake has bitten fears a slow-worm.

5. Nea okóm gye ne m'è, what hunger desires is saliating.

6. Nea n'aní akyéw nà óf wè toám',

he whose eye is squint, looks into the calabash.

- 7. Nea ówuí no ba ni, this is the son of him who died.
- 8. Kyerew nea wóyeé no hō asém, write the story of what they did. 9. Nea ónná nà ónìm nèa ónná,

he who does not sleep knows him who does not sleep.

- 10. F we nea wóyè! look what they do!
- 11. Obí n'k o nea w o bekum' no, nobody goes where they will kill him.
- 12. Nea wónóm (ho), wònnuaré ho, where they drink, there they don't wash, i.e. a place of drinking (water) is not used for washing.

The antecedent pronoun contained in nea stands in the nominative in the sentences 1, 6, 9a, — in the possessive case, in 7, 8, — in the objective case, in 9b, 10, — in the locative case, in 11, — in the locative case put absolutely (like a nominative) at the head of the sentence, in 12. The corresponding pronoun in the adjective sentence is in the nominative in 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, — in the possessive, in 6, — in the objective, in 4, 5, 8, 10, — in the locative, in 11, 12; it is not expressed, but left to be supplied in 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, (12).

3. ADJECTIVES.

66. An adjective is a word added to a noun, in order to mark or distinguish it more accurately. We speak of I. adjective nouns, II. adjective pronouns, III. distinguishing particles.

I. ADJECTIVE NOUNS. (Qualifying Adjectives.)

67. Adjective nouns denote quality, i. e. any distinguishing feature of a thing; e. g.

onipa pa, a good man; odan kese, a large house.

Some denote quantity and indefinite number; e. g.

kakra, little, few; bebrē, pī, much, many; nnyīnā (nhīnā), all. Some of these have adjective pronouns and particles added to them:

kakrābi, ketewābi, kūmābi, some few, few only;

pi noara, most, the greater number; nhinā 'ra, all together.

Rem. The word for all, in the F. dial. of Děnā (Elmina) hīnā, is probably a noun (=totality); we prefer to write \dot{n} hīnā, instead of nnyīnā; on the mute h, cf. \dot{n} hōma, \dot{n} hwi, § 8. 11.

The definite numerals, denoting some exact number, see § 76-84.

- 68. The adjective of quality (or quantity) is used in two ways:
- a. attributively, e. g. adésoa dùrudúru, a heavy load;
- b. predicatively, e. g. adésoa no yè duru, that load is heavy.

When predicative, the adjective is subjoined to a verb of existence, as: ye, to be, dan, to become, nyin, to grow.

Rem. Many adjective nouns are also used as substantive nouns and as adverbs. § 70, 4.5. 71. 133.

- 69. Concerning their structure, adjectives are
- 1. Primitives:
- a. Some have the form of simple or seemingly compound verbal stems: de sweet; fe, fine; de n, hard; duru, heavy; fua, single; kese, great.
- b. Some have their last sound lengthened:

ny ã', slow; pì, much; sã', tough; tễ', straight; kómm, quiet; há n n, light, bright; fò ky ệ, wet, moist; kã n w ễ, fresh.

- 2. Derivatives:
- a. Many different forms are obtained by simple or double reduplication of primitive stems, by reiteration and repetition: dódo, numerous; fòfō, fat; gyewgyéw, rude, rough; nyínyãnyinyã, sour; kránanana, silent.
- b. Some are derived from nouns without any change of form:
 nso, ash-coloured; akutu, orange-yellow; ankāhono, lemon-coloured.
- c. Some are the repeated plural forms of nouns: aboabó, stony; apowapów, knobby; nsoensóe, thorny.
- d. Some adjectives, formed from verbs, chiefly by the palatal suffix, are almost exclusively compounded with their nouns:

namprowé, rotten meat; nanhowé, dried meat; okwanfuwi, an overgrown way; duwui, § 39, 1. senkyéné = asém à ékyèn só, an atrocity; adesoakyéně, an excessive burden. aburów gunnuané, gunnuan, guannuan, dry corn, ripe maize;

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- e. In ànhômaguan, a dry skin, we have an other adjectival derivation from the verb guàn, red. gunnuán, to wither.
- 3. Compounds:

These are few in number, and their component parts can often not be plainly reduced to other existing words.

kókodőmű, red; kontonkyé, crooked; abońkyiabónkyi, uneven.

70. Some adjectives are used in only one form:

either simple, as: bòné, bad; buň, unripe; hunu, empty; § 69, 1 b. or reduplicated and compound. § 69, 2.3.

The adj. po n, large, great, is only used in compounds. § 39, 1. Others have two or more forms, making different use of them: fè (few), fefé, feféfefe, feféfe, fine, handsome; pá, pápa, good; kò kurō, ko kŭrokó, large; krána, kránanana, silent.

We distinguish:

- 1. an attributive form, frequently reduplicated, after a noun: mfoníni fèfé, a fine picture; obó dènnén, a hard stone; atadé fòforó, a new garment; odé mòmonó, raw yam.
- 2. an attributive form, usually simple, compounded with a noun: agoruféw, a fine play; nkodén, a hard fighting; odé-amóno, unboiled yam; anámmóno, raw meat; ohemfóro, ohemfófóro, a new king; ayèfóro, a bride.
- 3. a predicative form, simple or reduplicated:
 duá yi yè fe, this tree is fine; dadé yè den, iron is hard;
 odé no yè mómóno, that yam is unboiled;
 atadé no yè fófóro, that garment is new.
- 4. an adverbial form, frequently reduplicated, sometimes twice, and often with contraction of the middle members:

wógòru feféfe (fefé(f)efe), they play very nicely; óhyèno denné(nn)ennen, he forces him very hard.

5. a substantive form:

né féw, its beauty; ne hố fé, his handsomeness; né dén, his hardness; né fòforó à éye, its newness; pápa, goodness; kesé, kokŭrokó, greatness, largeness.

71. Besides the nouns of quality (§ 68 Rem. 70, 5), nouns for persons are derived from adjectives by the prefixes of a -:

obòné, a wicked man; ofófóro, another (a new) person; ofúfu, okokō', okesé, oténten, a white, red, stout, tall person; akétewa, akúmā, akwadā', atiā' (akwatiá), a little man.

72. Some adjectives have a plural form, simple or repeated: kesé, large, pl. akesé; abó akèséakèsé, large stones; kétewa, small, pl. ńketewa; mmoā ńketéńkètewá; akúmā, little, pl. ńkūmā; mmofrá ňkūmańkúma.

73. 1. The notion of more and most in some qualities is, after predicative adjectives, expressed by the verbs kyen and sen, to surpass:

Dadé yè den sen kôbere, iron is hard surpasses copper.

Ne hố yè fế kyện nế nừ á, she is handsomer than her sister.

- Mé dán ne wo dé sò; na ne dé (sò or ye kokurō) sen ne nhìná (sen n'abien nhìnā, or, sen adan nhìnā), my house and thine are large; but his is the largest (the largest of the three, or, the largest of all houses).
- 2. The quality may also be expressed by a noun put after a verb of comparison in an adverbial way:

Siká kyèň ň kránté nnàm, gold surpasses a sword (in) sharpness, i. e. gold is sharper (effects more) than a sword. Biribí ňkyéň ogyá kòko, anything not excells fire (in) redness,

i. e. nothing is redder than fire.

3. When a high degree of some quality is to be expressed without comparing another object, it is done by reduplication, or by adverbs:

Mádì aduá bi, dèdédede, I have caten a fruit, exceedingly sweet. Aduan' no yè de sê, that food is very palatable.

Duá kèsé pa, duá kòkŭrō sê, a very large tree.

Eye den dodo, it is very hard, or too hard.

4. The notion of most is also expressed

a. by noara added to attributive adjectives of quantity:

Nnípa př nóara abà ofíe, most of the people have come home. Mmofrá dódow noara kà akyíri, most children remain behind.

b. by a predicative adjective, especially after the verb ne, referring to other objects of comparison with the postposition mu (=among).

Eye abá nhìná mù kétewa, it is the least of all seeds.

E'ne kèsé wò fán nhìna mù, it is the greatest among herbs.

Enyé wone akúmā wò n'ás à fohéne mù, thou art not the least among his captains. (Cf. Mat. 13, 32, 2, 6.)

c. by the verb ne and a predicative adjective or noun (generally preceding the verb), without mentioning other objects for comparison.

Okesé no ne wo, thou art the greatest. Cf. § 199, 1.

Akúmā ne me wò m'ágyà ofi, I am the least in my father's house. (Jud. 6, 15.)

5. The notion of comparative smallness, without mentioning another object of comparison, is expressed in some adjectives of quantity by the diminutive termination, with the addition of bi or $s\hat{\varrho}$:

Mádì nấm ketewā sè, I have eaten very little meat. Wámà me kakrá bi, he has given me very little.

II. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS. (Distinguishing Adjectives.)

74. Adjective pronouns denote distinction, by pointing out some particular thing or things of a class.

They are interrogative¹), or demonstrative²), or indefinite⁸), and are used either simple, or compounded with the particle ara, which increases the particularizing power of the former ¹) ²) and the generalizing power of the last ³).

ben? which? what? used in direct questions;
 kõ (=one), which, what, in indirect questions, points out the single (respective) person or thing in question.

- 2. yi, pl. yi, yinom, this, these, point out something present or near; no, that, those, the, points out something in a distance, or something mentioned and known already; in many cases it answers to the definite article in English. (nom, plural pronoun, see in § 63.)
- 3. bi, pl. bi, binom, a, a certain, another, some; biara, any.
- 1. Abofrá bèn na wásoma no? which boy has he sent? Minním àbofrá kõ, I do not know (the single boy) which. Wátò ntamá bèn? which (or what) cloth has he bought? Wankyeré mè ntama kố à wátó, he did not show mc which (or what kind of) cloth he has bought. Onípa kèsé bén ni! what a great man is this! O'dì dwúma bénara? what kind of occupation has he? Bisanó dà kố à óbeba, ask him which day he will come.
- 2. A bofrá yi yàré dã, this child is always sick.
 O dán yiara wò no (ye ne déà), just this house is his.
 O béa no bá no wò hé? where is the child of that woman?
 A bofrá noara ni! this is just that boy (that very or the same boy).

3. Obófó bi abà, a (certain) messenger has come. Woátù abófó bi, they have dispatched some messengers. Wańka nò asém biara, he did not tell him anything.

III. Distinguishing Particles.

- 75. 1. The relative particle 'a', which also serves for distinction by pointing out an individual from a class, see in § 64.
- 2. The same particle 'a', when not followed by a sentence belonging to it, is no more called relative, but *emphatic*.

Otám yi yè wo déà, this cloth is thine! Eye me bá atàdé à! it is my son's coat! Gen. 37, 33. Onyé wo kúnu à! he is not thy husband. John 4, 18. Wó à! wóyè abofrá! as for you, you are a boy!

3. Emphatic particles, commonly classed with the adverbs, are often ound added to a noun or pronoun, to render the distinction of the espective person or thing from others more prominent:

ira, ankása, even, self (cf. § 59.74); nkõ, nkutõ, nkutō-kore, alone; le, taken apart, concerning, as for; nmò m', rather, especially; pó, mpo, even; nso, also; héne ankasa, the king himself. Onó nkõ, ne nkó, he alone; wo nkútō, thou alone. Mé dé, méko, as for me, I shall go. panyín mmò m' nà ése no, for an elder especially it is fit. Thène po, even the king; okyéámé nso, the linguist also.

NUMERALS.

- 76. Numerals denote the number of things.
- 1. The indefinite numerals, which do not denote any exact number, are classed among the adjectives, see § 67. 73, 4.5. 74, 3. unipa pì, many men; nnipa nhìná, all men; nnipa bi, some men.
- 2. The definite numerals, denoting some exact number (e. g. nnipa dú, ten men), are treated of in this place. They are always used after, or compounded with nouns, but may be considered rather as abstract nouns (of number), which have a noun before them in the possessive case (or, which are in apposition to that noun), than as adjectives.

Concerning their form, we distinguish primary and compound numerals; concerning their use, we speak of cardinal numerals (§ 77-79), and of iterative and multiplicative (81), distributive (82), ordinal (83) and fractional (84) numerals.

Whilst in English &c. the form of the cardinals is changed for the ordinals &c.. we have in Tshi not to state a difference of form, but only a difference of use.

CARDINAL NUMERALS.

Primary Numerals.

77. The twelve primary numerals, from which all the rest are formed by composition, are the following:

èkõ, ekoro, one anán, nnan, four anúm, nnum, five èsä, nsã, three asiá, nsia, six edú, ten: òha, hundred;

asón, nson, seven awotwé, nwotwe, eight akrón, nkron, nine; apém, thousand.

The three first of these numerals are used in their simple form in counting and in composition with some nouns (§ 80); in other cases, forms compounded with bi, denoting any individual of a kind, are used:

biakó, Aky. biekő, Akp. bākó, one; abień (= abienú), Ak. mmienú, two;

abiesá, Ak. mmiensá, three.

nkó, alone, only, is an adjective (§ 75) and an adverb; kóro stands also as an adjective, for single, only.

Compound Numerals.

- 78. Real compounds, in which two or three primary numerals are made up into one word, are the following:
- 1. The numerals from eleven to nineteen are formed by composition of edu with the units, the latter, except biak \tilde{o} , having the nasal prefixes and the tone of the connected form:
 - 11. edúbiakő, dúbàkő, 12. edúmień, dúmienú,

14. edúnnán 15. edúnnúm 17. edúnsón 18. edúnwotwé

13. edúmiensá,

16. edúnstá

19. edúnkróň.

2. The tens from twenty to ninety are formed by composition of adu, plural of edu, with the units, the latter having the vowel prefixes, with some euphonic changes, and the tone as in composition:

adùonu, twenty aduanán, forty ad adùasā, thirty aduonúm, fifty ad these two words have low tone throughout, when standing alone.

aduosón, seventy aduòwót we, eighty aduakrón, ninety.

3. The hundreds are formed by composition of aha, plural of oha' with the units, having the nasal prefix, except ahasa (ahaasa):

ahànnu, two hundred ahàsã, three hundred ahánnán, four hundred ahánnúm, five hundred ahánstá, six hundred ahánsón, seven hundred ahánwót vé, eight hundred ahánkrón, nine hundred.

Observ. The words ahanu, ahasā, when unconnected, have low tone throughout.

4. The thousands, by composition of mpem, plural of apem, with the units, having the nasal prefix and the tone of the connected form:

mpènnu, two thousand mpènsã, three thousand mpémnán, four thousand mpémnúm, five thousand mpémnstá, six thousand mpémnsón, seven thousand mpémnwòt wé, eight thousand mpémnkrón, nine thousand.

5. By composition of a pem in the shortened form ope-with edu, oha, a pem, are formed:

opedu, ten thousand, opeha, hundred thousand, opepem, a million; and the ten-thousands, hundred-thousands and millions, by composition of opedu, opeha, opepem, with the units, in the same form and tone as the tens, hundreds and thousands. But cf. § 79, 2.

èpeduonu, twenty thousand
èpeduasä, thirty thousand
epeduanán, forty thousand
epeduonúm, fifty thousand

opeduosía, sixty thousand opeduosón, seventy thousand opeduòwót we, eighty thousand opeduakrón, ninety thousand.

òpehanu, òpehasã, opehánná h &c. òpepènnu, òpepènsã, opepémná h &c.

So we may also form:

opèpédu, ten millions; opèpéha, hundred millions;

opepepém, thousand millions, a milliard; opepepepém, a billion.

But we may also say:

mpem du, mpem aduonu, mpem ha, mpem ahannu... mpepem du, mpepem ha... Cf. § 79, 2.

6. For indefinite numbers of thousands and millions, we have the following expressions:

mpém-mpém, thousands; mpém à horów mpém, thousands of thousands; opehuháà, mpém mpém hùhâ, opepehâ, opepetô, many thousands, hundred-thousands, millions.

- 79. All the remaining numerals are not expressed by perfect compounds (§ 30, 1.2.), but by combination of the higher numeral with the lower, the former always preceding the latter; the units are joined to the tens, and the tens to the hundreds, by a hyphen and by the tone of connection (in aduonu, aduasā, ahanu, ahasā the last syllable is then likewise high); e. g aduonú-bìakó, twenty one, aduanán-abień, forty two, aduakrón-abiesá, ninety three, ahasá-adùosía-anúm, three hundred and sixty five.
- 2. When the thousands, ten-thousands, hundred-thousands &c. are not given in single round numbers, as above (§ 78, 4.5), the plural forms mpem, mpepem &c. are used; e.g. mpém dúnsón, 17000; mpém àhannú-adùanán-anúm, 245000; mpepém àduasá-akrón, 390000000; mpepém ahánnán-adùosía, 4600000000.
- 3. Between the thousands and the lower numerals, and between the hundreds and units, when there are no tens, the conjunction nè may be used; e. g. mpém dunnúm nè ahannu nè asón, 15207.
 - Cf. Twi Kenkan Nhoma, Primer for the Vernacular Schools in Akuapem, Akem &c. pag. 84. 85.

Nouns compounded with Numerals.

80. 1. When the numerals from one to ten refer to persons, they may be compounded with ba = oba, person, but the 'a', coalescing with the prefix of the simple numeral, is long:

bākó, bànu, bàsã, bānán, bāsía, bāsón, bāwótwe, bākrón. These compound forms are put in apposition after names of persons or pronouns, and are also used as complements of verbs:

Nnípa bàsã, three men, as it were: men, a triad of persons. Won bāson nhinā awuwu, all the seven have died.

Yesi bānán, we are four (persons). Wonam bānu, they walk two together.

- 2. Obākō, obiakō, obiakōfo, one man, a single person, are used substantively without another uoun.
- 3. Compound nouns, denoting the place which a person according to his birth takes among other children, so that the numeral has the value of an ordinal numeral (§ 83), are the following:

abákán, a firsthorn child; Mānu, name of the second child; ten names mentioned in § 41, 5; Dukó, name of the eleventh child. Wáwò abaduasā, she has born thirty i. e. plenty of children.

4. From odon, bell, clock, we have the following compounds:

dón kóro. one o'clock 'nón-ablen', two o'clock 'nón-ablesá, 'nonnán, 'nonnúm, 'nonsiá, 'nonsón, seven o'clock 'nonwotwé, eight o'clock 'nonkrón, 'nondú, 'non-dúbàkó, 'non-dúmlen'.

- 5. From eda, day:
 dàkóro (dafua), dá bìakó, one day, nnanú, two days,
 nnansá, nna'nán, nna'núm, nnansiá, nnansón, 3-7 days;
 nnaawótwe, 8 days, a week; nnankrón, dadú, 9, 10 days;
 dadú-dàbakó, dadú-nnà'mien', dadú-nnà'miensá, 11-13 d.
 dadú-nnà'nán, 14 days, dadu-nna'num, 15 days, a fortnight;
 dadú-nnansiá, dadú-nnansón, dadú-nnanwòtwé, 16-18 days;
 àdadùonu, àdadùasā, adaduanán... 20, 30, 40 days &c.
- 6. From afe, year:
 mfènsà = mfrih yiá abìesá, three years.
- From ofā, side, purt: fākô, one side, afānu, afāsā, afānān, 2, 3, 4 sides; nkranté ànofānu, a two-edged sword.
- 8. From hin, edge, corner:
 a hinasá, three-cornered, triungular;
 a hinasá, four-cornered, quadrangular, quadrate, square;
 a hinasiá, hexagonul, sexangular;
 a hin w o t w é, octagonul, octangular.
- 9. From own, death:
 àwuonu=owu-perennú, second death;
 awudùasā, 30 deaths, all possible kinds of death.

Iterative and Multiplicative Numerals.

81. Definite frequency (in answer to the question: how many times?) is expressed by composition or combination of the definite numerals with the noun pen(pěren), a single attempt, stroke or time, pl. mpen, times:

pen, pènkoro, preko, once, one time, at once; mperènnu, mpén ablen, twice; mperènsa, mpén ablesa, thrice; mpén anan, anum ..., four, five ... times.

2. In answer to the questions: how many times? (in multiplication) and: how manifold? the nouns a horow, kinds, and mmoho, doubling, addition, are used; e. g.

Edu ahorow abień ye aduonu, 2 times 10 are 20; Osii me ananmu mmohō anan, he replaced (it) to me fourfold.

Distributive Numerals.

82. The equal distribution of the same number of a thing to several subjects or objects is expressed by the repetition of the numeral; in this case biakò has a plural form. In combinations of higher and lower numerals, the repetition of the latter is sufficient.

Wốn nhình bì shà no mmia kố-mmìa kố sè: Eye mé ành? they all asked him, one by one, saying: is it I?

Obisá a won mmiakó-mmiakó, he asked them one by one.

Omáž mmofrá dú no nhìná mmán dú dú, he gave those ten boys each of them ten strings.

Mátò dábò dábò anán, mmán adùonú-anúm-anúm, I have bought four ducks, each for 25 strings.

Ordinal Numerals.

83. The ordinal numerals of European languages, denoting the place which any thing holds in a series, do not exist in Tshi. The want is supplied (besides compositions like those mentioned in § 80, 3. [4?] 9.) chiefly by verbal phrases:

di kań, di họ, tĩa or to so abień, abiesã, anań...

1. The first (person), nea odl kán; he or she is the first, odl kán; the first (thing), firstly, nea edi kan; it is the first; edi kan.

Explanation. The verb di has many meanings: to move, to act, to occupy &c. &c.; its complement kan is a noun, denoting the first or foremost (or former) place or time in a series of places or events; it is also found like an adjective in compounds.

O'di kán = he occupies the first place; obà kán, he comes first. abákán, a firstborn child, adekán, aduankán, firstfruits.

2. The second (person), nea odí ho; he or she is the second: odi ho, lit. he occupies the (next) place there; the second (thing), secondly, nea edi ho; it is the second, edi ho.

3. The 2d, 3rd, 4th &c. person:
nea ótia or ótò só abien. abiesa, anan...,
nea ótia wòn or ótò wónsò bānu, bāsa, bānán;
the 2d, 3rd, 4th... (thing), secondly, thirdly, forthly...,
nea etia or eto so abien, abiesa, anan...

Expl. These phrases may be explained thus:

 $tia = to \ add$ (in order to fill up or make up a sum),

to so = to lay (or lie) above or upon;

ctīá anán = it adds (or is added, and) makes up (the sum of) four; otīá wòn bāsón = he augments them (to a) seven of persons; ótò m mofrá yi sò dú = he lays upon, or adds to, these boys (one to whom in counting belongs the number) ten.

4. "He is the last" is expressed by:

ódì akyíri, he occupies the back-part; oka akyiri, he remains behind;

otwa to, he cuts off the hind end;

okatá mpá, he covers the hind part (said of a train of persons).

5. The interrogative adjective pronoun which (of the number)? what (number)? is circumscribed in a similar way:

Woákan nhóma anúm yi mù nea éwo hê? or nea éto sò ahé? which of these five books have you read?

Mákàn nea étia anán, I have read the fourth.

Rem. The 'Mfantsi Grammar' of Carr and Brown gives as ordinals, beside the cardinal forms, compositions of the cardinals with dze=de, yet without examples of their actual use. The use of this de is to be explained as in § 62, and confirms the observation that the cardinal numerals are nouns, § 76, 2. E. g. If instead of the last example given in this §, we should say: Makan anan de, it would signify: I have read that (book) which belongs to (or makes up) the number of four.

Fractional Numbers.

84. The whole of a thing is expressed by emū, plur. amū amū, which words may be considered as nouns, or, when added to, or compound with, another noun, as adjectives. Sometimes ihinā (nnyinā), ull, is added besides.

Omań-mũ no nhinā behyiae, the whole people assembled.

The half of a thing is expressed by the noun ofā, plur. afāafā.

One fourth may be expressed in the following ways:

nkyem' or abupén à étia or étò só anán, the fourth part; nkyem' ánán mù biakó, one among four parts;

nkyem'-anán blakó, one fourth-part.

Three fourths:

nkyem' anan mu abięsā, or: nkyem'-anan abięsā. For tenth=tithe, tithing, we use: ntosó dú, plur. ntotosó dú dú.

5. VERBS.

85. A verb is a word by which we ascribe doing or being (action or state and quality) to a person or thing called the subject.

The action or state expressed by the different verbs may be

- 1. an action of the subject, concerning an object; e. g. bo, to strike; di, to eat &c., ka, to bite; tow, to throw; hū, to see; dwen, to think; sow, to bear (fruit); wo, to bear (a child).
- 2. an action (or motion) confined to the actor:
- a. an active state:
 - sū, to weep; nam, nantéw, to walk; gòru, to play; guań, to flee. [didí, to eat; tòno, to forge, are also used without mentioning an object, though these actions are not confined to the subject.]
- b. a change of state:

nyin, to grow; guàn, nyam, to wither; bere, to redden, ripen.

- 3. an inactive state:
- a. a temporary state or condition:

da, to lie; gyina, to stand; hòmé, to rest; yàré, to be sick.

b. a lasting quality:

sõ, to be large; sŭa, to be small; wàre, to be long; bèré, to be red.

Transitive, Intransitive and Locative Verbs.

- 86. 1. Verbs requiring an object or two objects are called trunsitive; some examples see in § 85, 1.
 - 2. Verbs not requiring an object are called intransitive, § 85, 2 3.
- 3. Many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively, the meaning in the two cases usually showing some difference.

- 4. The same idea may be expressed in both ways by different verbs. didí, dì aduan', to eat (food); kasá, kå asém, to speak (words).
- 5. Verbs expressing motion to or from a place (direction), or rest in a place, and requiring a complement of place, are called locative (§ 208).

fi, to come (forth) from; ko, to go (somewhere);

te, to sit, live (in a place).

87. Other kinds of verbs will be spoken of hereafter, viz. impersonal verbs, § 157, 2; auxiliary verbs, § 106—111; so also the different objects or complements of verbs, § 200—209, and certain stationary combinations of verbs with specific subjects or objects and other complements, § 210—220.

General Structure of the Verb.

88. 1. The verb in its bare form is a primary or secondary or seemingly compound stem, simple, with 1 to 3 syllables (§ 28, 2.3.),

or reduplicated, with 2 to 6 syllables (§ 29, 4).

- 2. By inflexion, various prefixes and a suffix are joined to the stem, to indicate: a. the subject (person and number), b tense and mood, c. negation, also d. previous going or coming for the performance of an action. A passive voice does not exist in Tshi. It is supplied by the active verb with suitable subjects, or by intransitive verbs. § 165 Rem.
- 3. Monosyllabic and disyllabic (the latter with the trisyllabic and polysyllabic) verbs are different in tone.

INFLEXION OF THE VERB.

Person and Number. Pronominal Prefixes.

- 89. 1. Person and number are indicated by the personal pronouns prefixed to the verb in the forms shown in § 54.
- 2. In the third person, singular and plural, the pronominal prefix is omitted, when the subject is expressed by a noun or independent pronoun. In the imperative form for the 2d pers. sing. the pronoun is always omitted. Cf. § 245, 2.
- 3. When of two or more successive verbs the first has a pronominal prefix, it is not repeated with the following verbs, excepting that of the 1st pers. sing.
- 4. The tone of the pronominal prefix varies in the different tenses and other forms of the verb, being either low or high, either equal to, or in contrast with, the tone of the adjoining syllable.
- 5. But it is to be remarked that the pronouns of the 2d person, singular and plural, usually have high tone, even when the other pronouns in the same forms have low tone. See in §98 the small figures.

- 6. In the stem of the verb, we have no change regarding person or number, except reduplication (§ 99), by which a plurality of subjects or objects or places, or frequency of an action, may be indicated; but the simple stem does not exclude such plurality or frequency.
- 7. The pronominal prefixes being the same in all forms (except tone), we give them all only here, in their threefold form (before open sounds, before close sounds, according to § 17, and together with the prefix a-) and shall afterwards only mention the 3rd pers. sing., or occasionally the 1st and 2d pers. sing.

1. pers. sing. 2. " "	mènam, <i>I walk</i> wónàm, <i>thou walkest</i>	mátè, I have heard woátè, thou hast heard
3. " "	onam, mou wainest on am, he or she walks	wate, he (she) has heard
1. pers. plur.	èwom', <i>it is true</i> yènam, <i>we walk</i>	asow, it has born (fruit) yeate, we have heard
2. , ,	mónàm, you walk	moate, you have heard
3. , ,	wònam, they walk. mìnim, I know	woate, they have heard. mahū, I have seen
1. pers. sing. 2. "	wunim, thou knowest	woah ũ, thou hast seen
3. , ,	onim, he or she knows ennim, it is not true	wahũ, he (she) has seen adu, it has arrived
1. pers. plur.	yènim, we know	yeah ũ, we have seen
2. " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	múnìm, <i>you know</i> wònim, <i>they know</i> .	moahü, you have seen woahü, they have seen.

These two groups of examples we give also in Akan and Fante.

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1. j	ers.	sing.	Ak	.minî	F. minyim	Ak.mahunu	F. mah ũ
2.	77	77	77	wuni	"enyim	"woahunu	
3.	77	,			"onyim	"wahunu	
					"onnim'	"aduru	
		plur.			, nyenyim	"yeahunu	
2.	77	٠,			"ehomnyim	" moahunu	
3.	77	,,	n	yeni	"wonyim.	"yeahunu	"woahŭ.

Moods and Tenses.

- 90. 1. The Infinitive, usually counted among the moods, is in fact no more a verb, but converted into a noun; yet it will be treated under the head of 'Verbs' in § 104. Participles do not exist in Tshi. The only true verbal forms are those which assert (or deny), command (or wish, entreat, forbid), or ask a question.
- 2. The *Indicative Mood*, containing those forms which assert directly, has seven different forms, in which we find distinguished:
- a. the time of the action indicated by the verb, with reference to the time of the speaker or of another action, and
- b. the completion or incompletion of the action, or the continuance of the action or of the state resulting from an action.

- 3. For conditional and indirect assertion, or for the Conditional and Subjunctive Mood of European languages, we have not to state peculiar forms, besides those of the Indicative, the condition or supposition being expressed by separate particles which are conveniently reckoned among the conjunctions. Cf. § 255, 3. 276—278.
- 4. Only one form mentions an action in the form not of an assertion, but of a mere conception, as the expected or intended, natural or usual consequence of a previous action. See § 91, 8.
- 5. The Imperative Mood has two forms, one for a direct (seldom indirect) command (or wish, petition, warning, forbiddance) to the 2d pers. sing., used without any prefix (except the negative), also without its pronoun, and another with pronominal and nasal prefixes for the indirect command to the 1st pers. sing. and plur. and sometimes the 2d pers. sing., and for the direct and indirect command to the 2d pers. plur. and the 3d pers. sing. and plur.
- 6. Questions are asked by the same forms (including those of the Imperative), usually with the addition of interrogative pronouns or particles. § 153.
- **91.** The ten forms mentioned in § 90, 2. 4. 5. are distinguished by the following names and characteristics:

(We give as examples, also regarding the tone, verbs of one and two syllables, with the prefix of the 3d pers. sing.) Cf. § 165-182.

- 1. The Present tense marks doing or being in the present time, at any indefinite time, or at all times. The stem is in its bare form, i c. without any prefix (except the pronominal and the negative prefix, § 92). of à, he takes; obis à, he asks.
- 2. The Continuative form marks continuance of (active or inactive) state in the present or past time. It is distinguished from the present by its different tone; sometimes, especially in reduplication, it has the palatal suffix. Cf. § 103.

òwo, he has or had; òkura, òkurae, he holds or held.

3. The Preterit tense marks action performed in the past time. It is distinguished from the present by the tone, and by the palatal suffix, which, when followed by an object, is dropped and compensated by the lengthening of the final vowel.

ofáè, he took (il); obisáè, he usked; ofáà no, he took him; obisáà no, he usked him.

In the negative form, we frequently find the vowel e appended to the verb or at the end of the sentence. § 170.

4. The Perfect tense marks action completed in the past time, but

whose result is present as a state, or whose consequences extend to the present time. It is formed by the prefix a.

wáfà, he has taken; wabisa, he has asked.

5. The *Progressive form* marks action in the progress of performance. It is formed by the *prefix* re-.

oréfà (orefá), he is taking; orebisá, he is asking.

6. The first Future marks action in the time to come.

It is formed by the prefix be- (be-):

òbéfa, he will take; òbébisà, he will ask.

The prefixes of the 1st pers. sing. mebe- are contracted into me-: méfa, I shall take; mébisà, I shall ask.

7. The second Future, or Fut. proximate, marks action in the next future. It is formed by the prefixes rebe.

orebefá, - orebebísà, he will take - ask - in the next time.

8. The Consecutive form marks an action which is consecutive to another action, as the expected or intended result from it, or as merely following after it.

It is formed by the prefix a-, like the Perfect, but with different tones. na wafá, — na wabìsá, that the may take, — ask.

9. The first Imperative form marks an action desired by the speaker to be done by the addressed person. It has no prefix, not even the pronominal.

fá! take! fà no, take him! bìsa! ask! bìsa nó, ask him.

10. The second Imperative form marks an action which some other subject desires to be done by the subject of the verb (in the 1st or 3d pers. sing. or plur. or 2d pers. plur.) It is formed by the nasal prefix, (§18) and has high tone on the prefixes and the first syllable of the stem.

ómfa, he shall take; ómmisà, he shall ask.

In the 2d imperative, preceded by the 1st imp. of mã (which form is called the *compound imperative*, cf. § 107, 25 Rem.), the prefixes have low tone; but after the 2d imp. of mã, they have high tone, as in the simple form.

Mã omfá, let him take; mã ommísà, let him ask!
mómmã omfa, let (pl.) him take; mómmã ommisà, let (pl.) him ask.
ómmã yemfa, may he let us take; mómmã momfa? shall I let you t.?
wómmã mimmisà, may they let me ask.

yémmã wummisà? shall we let thee ask?

Rem. The accented syllable is the first high-toned syllable of any verbal form, with the following exceptions:

a. the low-toned pronoun has the stress in the forms 2.5.6.

b. in disyllabic verbs the first syllable of the stem, though low-toned, has the stress in the affirmative forms 1.5.8.9.

Other distinctions of the same forms.

- **92.** All these forms are used either in the affirmative or in the negative way. The Negative is unexceptionally formed by the nasal prefix (m-, n-, n-, according to § 18). From the negative Present, the 2d Imp. (§ 91, 10) is distinguished by the tone, and, when negative, by the doubling of the nasal prefix.
- 93. Most of these forms have additional ingressive forms, expressing a previous going or coming for the performance. See § 96. 107 (11).
- 94. All these forms (§ 91-93) have different tones in the independent and in the connected form. See § 97. 112.

Examples.

- 95. The following examples show the ten forms (§ 91) in the affirmative and negative way (§ 92) in the independent position (§ 94) of some verbs:
- 1. ba, to come. (The Imp. affirmative has exceptionally an 'r' inserted).

Affirmative.

1. Pres. obà, he comes

2. Cont. owo há, he is here

3. Pret. obád, he came obád há, he came here

4. Perf. wábà, he is come

5. Progr. orébà, he is coming

6. Fut. I. obéba, he will come

7. Fut. II. orebebá, id. (directly)

8. Consec. na wabá, that he may c.

9. Imp. I. bě'ra! come!

10. Imp. II. omměrá! he shall come! Comp. Imp. må ommérá,) let him mómmã ommerá,) come! Negative.

ommá, he does not come onní ha, he is not here ommáè(è), he has not (yet) come

ommád há(è) he has not come here wammá, he has not come

oremmá, he will not come ommebá, ómm'má, id.

(órèmmebá, id.)

.. na wammá, that the may not c. mmá! do not come!

ommmá! he shall not come! mmá ommmá, mómm'má ommmá, do not let him come!

2. Ko, to go. (The forms 2-4 show some peculiarities of meaning.)

1. Pres. oko, he goes

2. Cont. oko, he is away

3. Pret. okóè, okórè, he went away, okóò hó, he went there

4. Perf. wakd, he has gone or been

5. Progr. orékò, he is going

6. Fut. I. obeko, he will go

7. Fut. II. orebekó, id. (forthwith, directly)

8. Consec. na wakó, that he may go

9. Imp. I. kó! go! kò hó! go there!
10. Imp. II. ónko! he shall go!

Comp. Imp. mã onko! het him go!

onkó, he does not go (away, or, to some place. expressed or understood). onkóè(è), he did not (yet) go onkóò hó(è) he did not go there wankó, he has not gone orenkó, he will not go onhkó, id.

na wankó, that he may not go nkó! do not go! onnkó! he shall not go! mmá onnkó mómm'má onnkó let him not go! 3. ye, to do, make, become, grow, Contin. to be, connected with a noun.

1. O'yè adé, he does something

2. dye onipa, he is a man

3. oyéè, he dit (it)

oyéè adé, he did somethiny

4. wáyè adé, he has done s.th.

5. oréyè adé, he is doing s.th.

6. obéye adé, he will do s.th.

7. orebeyé adé, (forthwith)

8 na wayé adé, that he may do s.th.

9. yé! do (it)! yè adé no! do that!

10. ónye adé no! he shall do that!

9. mã onyé adé no let him

10. mómmã onye a. n.) do that!

Onyé adé no, he does not do that onyé abóa, he is not a heast onyéè, he did not do (it) onyéè adé no è, he has not yet done it wanyé adé no, he has not done it orenyé adé no he will not do that onn'yé , ,

na wanyé adé no, that he may not...
nyé adé no! don't do that!
onnyé adé no! he shall not do that!
mmá onnyé adé no | don't let
momm'má onnyé... | him do it!

4. gu, to cast (Contin. to lie) and its reduplication gugu, the latter showing the tones of a disyllabic verb by the side of a monosyllable, and at the same time the prefix n- before g).

5. susuw, to measure, think, shows likewise the tone of disyllables and, by the mark after w, the cases in which trisyllables and polysyllables assume low tone; e. g. 1. wopatipatiriw, they slip repeatedly.

1. O'gù osusúw' ogugú 2. ègu ègugu ogugúi 3. ogúì osusúwi wasúsuw` 4. wágù wagúgu 5. orégù oregugú oresusúw' 6. obégu obégugù obésusùw orcbegú orebegúgù orebesúsùw 8. nà wagú – wagugú -wasusúw` 9. gú! (gù mố!) gùgu! sùsuw! 10. ónnu! ónnugù! ónsusùw 9. mà onnú! mã onnúgù! -onsúsùw!

onsusúw' onnugú onnú ennú ennugú oṅṅúì onnugúi onsusúwi wannugú wansusúw` wannú órènsusúw' orennú órènnug**ú** ónn'nú ónn'nugú ónn'susúw'

8. nà wagú - wagugú - wasusúw'
9. gú! (gù mố!) gù gu! sù suw!
10. ón hu! ón hugù! ón susùw
9. mà on hú! ón hugù! on susùw!
10. mómmã on hu - on hugù - on susùw!
10. mómmã on hu - on hugù - on susùw!
10. mómmã on hu - on hugù - on susùw!
10. mómmã on hu - on hugù - on susùw!
10. mómmã on hu - on hugù - on susùw!

96. The ingressive forms have the prefix be- or ko- (be- or ko-), expressive of coming or going; they are either (a) preceded by the corresponding verb ba, to come, or ko, to go, in which case the pronoun is repeated only in the 1st pers. sing., or (b) the coming or going for the performance of the action is expressed only by the prefix of the ingressive form. (This prefix must not be confounded with that of the Future tense; the tone is different in obefa, but not in ore befa.)

a. Obá (or orebá) abetá n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) to take his things b. Obetá (or orebetá) n'adé, the comes (or is coming) the coming) the comes (or is coming) th

a. Mekó (or merekó) makòfá mè bá, (I go (or am going) to take my child. b. Mekofá (or merekofá) mè bá,

Excluding the continuative form, of which no ingressive form is

possible, the following examples show the ingressive form of the 9 remaining principal forms,

I, in the Affirmative, II, in the Negative;

a. combined with ba or ko, b. by itself.

1. Ex. of monosyllables: tu, to pull out.

$\mathbf{I}a.$	$\mathbf{I}\boldsymbol{b}$.	IIa.		$\mathbf{II}b.$	
1. obá (a)bètú,	obetú	ommá	mmètú,	ommetú	
3. obá' bètúl,	obetúì	ommá'	mmètúì,	ommetúì	
4. wabá abètú,	wabétu	wammá	ammètú,	wammetú	
5. grebá "	orebetú	órèmmá	mmètú,	órèmmet ú	
6. obéba "	i				
7. orebebá "					
8. (na) wabá "	wabetú	wammá	ammètú,	wammetú!	
9. bĕrá bétu!	bétu!	mmá	mmètú!	mmetú!	
10. ómměrá mmetu!	ómmetu!	ommmá	mmmètú!	ommmetú!	
2. Ex. of dis	yllables: tuti	ı, redupl.	, redupl. of tu, to pull out.		
Ia.	1 <i>b</i> .	•	Ia.	IIb.	
1. okó (a)kòtútù	okotútù	ońkó	ńkòtútù,	ońkotútù	
3. oko' kòtútúl		ońkó'	nkòtútùi	ońkotútùi	
4. wakó akòtútù	wakótutù	wankó	ańkòtútù	wankotútù	
5. orekó "	orekotútù	oreńkó	nkòtútù	oreńkotútù	
6. obéko "					
7. grebekó "					
8. (na)wakó "	wakotútù	wanko	ańkòtútù	wańkotútù	
9. ko kotutů!	kótutù!	nkó	ňkotútů!	ńkotútù! ! 🎮	
10. óńko ńkotutù!	óńkotutù!	onn k ó	nnkòtútù!	onnkotútů!	

- 97. The connected forms (used e.g. after the relative particle à in adjective sentences § 257) are different in tone from the independent forms.
 - 1. Pres. oyé à óyé a. s. ónyé, a doing which he does or does not.

2. Cont. chéne à cyé a. s. ónyé, a king that he is or is not.

- 3. Pret. adé à oyeé a. s. onyeé, a thing which he did or did not.
- 4. Perf. , wayé , wanyé, a. th. wh. he has or has not done.
- 5. Progr., " oreyé orenyé, a. th. wh. he is or is not doing.
- 6. Fut. I., " obéye onnyé, a. th. wh. he will or will not do.
- 7. , II. , , orebeye oremmeye, (ditto in the next future.)
- 8. Consec. e. g. obésan ayé, he will return to do=he will do it again.
- 9. Imp. I. nea oká sè yé no, what he suys thou shalt do,

 """nyé no, """""""""""""not do.

 10. Imp. II. nea osè onye no, what he suys he shall do,
- 10. Imp. II. nea osè onye no, what he says he shall do,

 "onn'yé no, """""""not do.

We observe in most cases, that in the connected form

1. low tones after high tones become middle, and

2. low tones before high tones become high, with the effect that succeeding high tone frequently becomes middle. — It would lead too far, to repeat all the forms contained in § 95. 96. in the connected form.

- **98.** A Synoptical View of the Ten Principal Forms in the independent form of the Affirmative (I) and Negative (II), and in the connected form of ditto (III, IV).
 - A. In Figures, before the comma denoting the tones of the prefixes, after it, those of the stems.*)

	a. with monosyllabic stems:					b. with disyllabic stems:			
	I. III.	. II.		IV.	I.	II	I. II.	IV.	
1.	3,1 — 3	$3,2 \mid 1,$	3 —	3,2	1,13		33 1,13	3,13	
		1 -	3		3,13				
2.	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	3,3 de).	77 17		3,3	, ,	— 3,33	
	3,1	.,3			3,11		3,31		
3.	, -		31	3,32	1,131	- 3,33	32 1,131	- 3,332	
	3,31						, ,		
4.	3,1 — 3			3,2			33 1,13	3,13	
		1	2		1 .	8,2	,		
5.	13,1(11,3)3	33,2 $31,$	3 —	33,2	,		31,13	- 33,13	
_	33,1 31,3	_			31,13		_		
6.			n	יי מ		— 13,3		יו יו	
_	33,3 33	- 1			, ,	88,8		224.02	
7.	111,3 —333	,3 ∤311,	3 —	331,3		333,3	311,31	331,32	
	311,3				311,31	0.1		0.40	
8.	1,3 3			3,2		- 3,1		— 3,13	
_	3,2		2		3 13	_	3, 18		
9.	()	,		1,3			1 '	1,13	
10.	3,3(1,3) 3	$3,3 \mid 1,$	3 —	31,3	3,31(1,31) 3,3	$32 \mid 1,13$	— 31,13.	

*) The smaller figures denote the tones of the 21 pers. sing. and plur. in those cases in which the tones of the pronominal prefixes, and sometimes of the succeeding stem, differ from those of the 1st and 3d persons. § 89,5. E. g. II. 1. mintú, wún'tú; 3. yentúì, mún'túì.

B. In Examples: tu, to pull out; tua, to put or fix (somewhere); for the contin. form: so, to be small; kura, to hold, have in hands.

	I <i>a</i> .	I <i>b</i> .	IIa.	IIb.
1.	ótù	otuá	ontú	ontuá
2.	òsõ	òkura	o ns ố	ońkúrá
3.	otúì	otuáè	ontúì	ontuáè
4.	wátù	watúa	wantú	†)– tuá
5. 6.	orétù	oretuá	órèntú	– tuá
6.	obétu	†)– tuà	ónn`tú	– tuá
7.	orebetú	– túà	órèmmetú	
8.	(na) watú	– tuá	(na) wantú	– tuá
9.	tú! tù no	! tùa!	ntú!	ntuá!
10.	óntu!	-tuà!	onntú!	-tuá!

†) The hyphen before tua replaces those prefixes which are the same in sounds and tones as before tu, e.g. in form 7: orebetúà, órèmmetúà, and on pag. 61., nea órebetuá, nea óremmètúá.

	IIIa	•	111 <i>b</i> .]	Va.	IVb.
ı.	(nea)	ótú	otúa	(nea)	óntú	óntùá
2.	77	oső	ókurà	,,,	ónsố	óṅkura
3.	"	ótuí	ótuaé	,,	óntuí	óntuaé
4.	77	wátú	wátua	,	wántú	– tùá
5.	n	óretú	– tua	, ,	órentú	– tùá
6.	77	obétu	– tuá	, ,	óuntú	– tùá
7.	" ó:	rebetu	– tuá	" ór	emmètú	– túá
8.	(ná)	watú	– tùá	(ná)	wantú	– tùá
9.	nea óká	á sè tú	túa		ntú .	ntùá
10.	(nea) óntu	– tuá.	(nea)	ónntú	-tùá.

Reduplication of Verbs.

(Iterative and frequentative forms.)

- 99. 1. Almost all verbs may be doubled, some even twice, to denote a successive or a simultaneous frequency of action, viz.
- a. a plurality or repetition of actions, or
- b. a plurality of the subject, or
- c. a plurality of the object or other complement.

teem', to cry out (once); teeteem', to cry out (repeatedly);

wu, to die (of one or several persons); wuwu, to die (in numbers). bo, to beat, break; bobo, to knock repeatedly, to break into many pieces, to shatter; to break many things (e.g. pots).

bu, to bend, break; bubu, to bend or break a thing in many places; to break many things (e.g. sticks).

nno gùgu fám', palm-oil is spilt on various spots on the ground.

2. Sometimes even the simple verb denotes an action which is a complex of repeated subordinate actions; but a reduplicative form may exist beside the simple one, and each of them may have its proper use:

di and didi, to eat; di is used with an object, didi, without. 202,2.4. horo, to wash (clothes); hoho, to wash (the face, hands, feet); hohoro (kuruwam', tirim), to wash (the inside of a vessel, one's head).

3. Some verbs assume a somewhat different meaning by reduplication:

fwe, to look at, fwefwe, to seek, to look for; pono, to bend, pompono, to wrinkle;

si, to place, put, sisi, to deceive;

sie, to lay up, preserve, sie sie, to put in order, arrange.

4. Some verbs are no more used in their simple, but only in their reduplicated form:

dādā, to deceive, nwinwi, to murmur, susuw, to measure, think.

- 5. On the form of reduplication, see § 29, 4.
- 6. By reduplication, monosyllabic verbs become disyllabic, also in tone, and disyllabic (and trisyllabic) verbs become trisyllabic or polysyllabic.

100. The tone of trisyllabic and polysyllabic verbs follows that of dissyllables, the 3d, 4th and 5th syllables usually sinking into law tones, though the 2d syllable, have high tone, as has been indicated in the verb susue, given as an example in § 95, 5.

E. g. né káw adore, his dehl hes increased; n'ákáw adodore or adodododore, his dehls have increased.

Different tone and reduplicated form of certain revise.

- 101. 1. Certain monosyllabic verbs are like dissyllables in tone, viz. all verbs that have a long vowel or a diphthong with palatel termination, and part of the verbs ending in m or n. § 28, 3, 3, 4.5.
 - E. g. ota nò, he persecules him; oseé nò, he spoils him; onan dàdé, he mells iron. See 11 examples in \$24. H.
- 2. Certain dissyllabie verbs are like monosyllables in tone, viz. part of those in which the vowel-part is augmented by an accessory syllable beginning with r or n (§ 28, 3, 7.), of the forms:

are, anc, ere, ore; ere, ene, iri, ini; oro, ono, uru, unu! E.g. ohare korow, he rows a canoe; akoko kwane, the her ruckles; oforo dua, he climbs a tree. See 6 examples in 3.4.1.

3. Several pairs of verbs exist, which contain the same letters, but are, notwithstanding, as of different meaning, so of different tone.

The following list shows I. verbs with the tone of monosyllables, II. verbs with the tone of dissyllables, a, in the simple, b, in the reduplicated form.

Id.

oddin, he applies to, dennán; oddin, he turns; danímin.

oddin, he souks, donnón; oddin, he turns; danímin.

oddin, he souks, donnón; oddin, he turns; danímin.

oddin, he souks, donnón; oddin, he turns; danímin.

obyčin, he blows (a horn) hyenhyén; ohygň, he turns; granímian.

opam, he sews, joins, pompán; opam, he awakes, myanímyán.

opam, he sews, joins, pompán; opam, he drives away, pam pám.

osan, he drives away, pam pám.

osan, he infects; sansán.

ofere, he swings, fefére; oferé, he shans, oferéfere.

opère, he goes along, popére; operé, he defends, perépère.

osore, he prays, sosore; osoré, he rises, sorédire.

oware, he is long, tull, woware; owaré, he marries, sovádore.

4. Similar verbs, in which there is a difference of single sounds, besides that of tone, are:

Verbs used in the Continuative Form.

102. Not all verbs have a continuative form; but there are verbs that are only used in this form, and have none besides.

The latter are partly correlatives of verbs having no continuative form, both of them mutually filling up their deficiencies.

We give a list of the verbs used in this form, adding some remarks and examples, and marking those, that have no other form besides, with an asterisc.

1. Substantive verbs, denoting existence and requiring a complement of distinction, quality, or number (a noun, pronoun, adjective or numeral in the nominative):

*ne, to be (identical with), to consist in.
ye, to be (to have the quality or function of).
si, gu, nam, to be (existing or present in the number of).

2. Verbs that denote a state of holding or possessing, and require a passive object:

wo, to have, to be in the possession of; Neg. nni (from di); correl. nyā, to get.

de, to hold, have (in hand, in thought), possess; correl. fa, to take (also for the neg.).

kura, to have, hold, contain; kita, fua, to have (in hand). se, siane, to have hanging about, to wear.

bo, to have fastened about, to wear.

fura (otam, ntama), hye (atade, kyew), mô (amōase), to wear (a country-cloth; a garment, a hat; a waist-cloth).

*so, to have on the head, to carry; correl. so a, to carry. turu, to have (a child) on the arm or back, to carry.

*nim, Ak. ni, F. nyim, (to have in one's head or mind,) to know; correl. h ü, Ak. hunu, to see.

Rem. Most of these verbs may also occasionally have the thing possessed, held, worn, as their subject; e.g.

mewo odáń bi, I have a house;

odán yi wo me, this house belongs to me;

awów de no, cold seizes him, i.e. he is (feels) cold;

okura pomá, or, pomákurá ne nsám', he hás a stick in his hand; ohye mpaboá, or, mpaboá hyèhye n'anán, he wears sandals.

3. Verbs that denote existence in a place (in general, or in particular situations), and require a complement of place:

"wo, to be somewhere; neg. nni; correl. ba, to come, ko, to go. fi, to belong to a place, to have one's origin from;

wabefi ho, he has appeared or emerged there. *te, to sit, live; correl. trā, to sit.

da, gu, bew, bea, boa, sam, butuw, to lie.

tā, bum, to sit; kotow, to squat, sit cowering, kneel.
gyina, si, to stand; si, to perch (of birds); tweri, to lean.

hye, tim, tua, to stick; sen, siane, konkon, to hang. så, mantam, to be fastened somewhere.

san, to be drawn (of a line);

etwa san n'ani ase, a scar crosses his cheek.

The following verbs imply motion in a place:

tene (fam), to creep along; ten (ani), to float, be afloat; sen, to flow; *nam, to walk; correl nantew, to walk (used without reference to a place); fa, to take (a road, a turn, used with a complement of place). The verbs sen and nam may also be used without a complement of place.

4. Verbs that denote a mode of existen e or a quality:

*te, to be (in some state); it wants a complement of manner. see § 215. Correl. ye, to become.

*ye, to be good; correl. expression: ye yiye.

*m ŭ o, to be bad; correl. expression: y e bone.

so, to be large; sua, to be small; ware, to be long.

Some dissyllabic verbs denoting quality have the tone of the present tense:

bèré, to be red; bìrí, to be black; hoá, to be while; teréw, lo be broad, wide.

5. Verbs that denote a state implying comparison:

se, to be fit, equal, alike; sen, kyen, boro, to surpass, be more than; sono, to be different; fanim, to be less bad.

(These two are used with an impersonal pronoun, see § 157, 2.)

6. Verbs that denote a state of mind concerning an object: pe, do, to like, to lore; kyi, tan, to delest, to hate. Mark these differences: odo no, he loves him (always, con'inually); ódò no, he loves him (now and then); odóò no, he loved him (formerly).

103. The continuative form has sometimes, in some of these verbs (§ 102), espec. in reduplication, the pulatal suffix, like the preterit tense, but with different tone; e.g.

wòyiyei, wòsõsõe, wòsusŭac, wòwowarce, wòscsce, they are good, large, small, long, equal.

Infinitive Mood. Verbal Noun.

104. The infinitive mood, called so because it expresses an action or state in its most general or indefinite meaning (not confined to an agent, in Tshi also not to time), is a verb converted into a noun.

Rem. Whilst in English, e. g. of the verb to die, we have different forms, viz. the proper infinitive, in "let him die, I wish to die," the gerund, in "Shall we be consumed with dying?" Numb. 17, 13. 2 Cor. 4, 10. — and the verbal noun death: there is no decided difference in Tshi between the forms of the infinitive and those of other verbal nouns, which even pass over into concrete nouns.

The infinitive is formed from the stem

1. by the prefix o- (which is dropped in the connected form); e.g. oba, coming, oko, going; obu, breaking; oko, fighting, fight; owu, dying, death; okenkán, reading; okásá, speaking, language.

- 2. by the prefix a- (limited to certain verbs and compound infinitives): adow, tilling (the ground); asaw, dancing; aguare, washing; adidi, eating; awo, birth, bringing forth; ago, agoru, pluying, play: akasakásá, akamekámé, aperepéré, strife, quarrel.
- 3. by the prefix m- (n-, n-) (limited to certain verbs):
 nna, sleep; nsisi, nnādâ, deceit; nkyiá, greeting; nhyiá, meeting;
 nhyirá, blessing; nnomé, cursing; nkamfo, praise; nsopa, slander.
- 4. by the palatal suffix (of rare occurence):

Onim me koree nè me bae, he knows my going and coming. Dā ikwā da nnipa ihinā dae, eternal life lies ready for all men.

5. by the nasal prefix and palatal suffix, chiefly used in a compound inflexional form of the verb, see § 107, 22.

Wanyā ho nkoe, he has often gone there.

Manya no fo ntui, I have often admonished him.

Nea wányà nhũi no, ônyà nkãć, he who hus (repeutedly) seen a thing, knows to speak of it.

Woannyá n'hūí a, woannyá n'kãé, as long as onc has not known a thing, he cannot talk of it.

- 105. Compound infinitives (which, concerning their meaning and use, are also equal to other verbal derivatives in English) are formed:
- 1. Of two verbs: a. with or without the prefix o-;
 b. with the prefix a- or m-; c. with the nasal prefix and palatal suffix.
 a. sofwe, tempting, temptation; suffre, odadwen, § 39, 7.
 - b. nkotosere, begging, supplication; abyemfiri, going in and oul.
 - c. Mányà no nkã kyerec, I have often told him (§ 107, 22).
- 2. Of a verb and its complement of place, with the nasal prefix: mfiasé, mfitiasé, nhyeasé, mmoaānó, nnananí &c. see § 39, 6h. nkyereasé, explanation; nkosó, going on; mfomsó, transgression; ntotohó, comparison; nhūmú, insight; nhyeanánmù, restitution.

Complements of place that have the prefix a-, may be the first part if of the compound:

asefi, asehye, asekyere, anoboa, anidan, anán mùhyé, § 39,5 g.

3. Of a verb and its object (or specific complement), the latter forming the first part:

Wagyáe asénká, he has ceased preaching (fr. kā asem, to preach). Woagyáe dwóntó, they have left off singing (fr. to dwom, to sing). Wanhú aguádí, he did not understand trading (di gua, to trade). Onim abebú, he knows to tell proverbs (fr. bu be, to tell proverbs). Obí ú'kyeré agyìnamoá akròmmó, nobody teaches a cat to steal (fr. bo kroň, to steal).

Rem. 1. When the object has any attribute, before or behind it, t must be written as a separate word; e.g.

Onnyaé dwóm no tó, he does not leave off singing that hymn.

Rem. 2. When the object and the infinitive are not phonetically united, they may be written as separate words; e. g.

Onípa ànnyaé mmòbo yé à, wonnyaé nó mmobo hú, as long as a man does not cease to be miserable, they don't cease to commiserate him. Prov. Cf. mmoborohunu, ahumobo, § 39, 5.

4. Of a verb and its subject:

ahopopó, trembling; ahód wiriw, amazement; anigye, joy; abótú, despondency; ayamhyehyé, compassion. § 39, 5 a.b.

Rem. Combinations of the cases 1-4, see § 39, 8.

5. Of a verb and the noun nã, marking difficulty of doing, or ye, marking easiness of doing.

Adé no vè oye-ná, that thing is not easily done.

Nsóm no ase yè ohū-ná, those words are not easily understood. O'fá abufúw à, wódì no pata-ná, when he gets angry, he is not easily pacified.

Obényā n'adé àye-yé, he will be able to do his things well. Onnyánsém no ase akyère-yé, he cannot well explain these words.

COMBINATIONS OF VERBS.

- 106. Many combinations of a principal verb with one or two maxiliary verbs are used to express various modifications and relations of actions (seldom of states). We consider these combinations as a kind of compound inflexional form, and have their numbers follow those of the ten simple forms, § 91. In most of them either the auxiliary, or the principal verb, or both, are used in some or all of those simple forms. We give only one form in the 3rd pers. sing.
- 107. The first class of verbal combinations contains auxiliary verbs which may be applied to any, at least any active, verb. We take ye as a representant of the principal verb.
- 11. Obá bèyé, shortened: obeyé, he comes to do; okó kòyé, "okoyé, he goes to do. (Ingressive form.)

When a previous going or coming, required for the performance of an action, is expressed by the independent verb ba or $k_{\mathfrak{Q}}$, this verb must be repeated with the principal verb in the form of the prefix $k_{\mathfrak{Q}}$; but, by way of shortening, the prefix alone will do. See § 96.

- t. Opé ayé (= ope sê óyé), he sceks, desires, wishes to do. (Desiderative form) Cf. § 203 Rem. 256 Rem. (The Future obéye, he will do, may also express: he wishes to do, yet in a less degree.)
- 12. Oyé ayé, he is about to do, is in preparation for doing. (Preparative form.)

- 14. O'n y à y e, lit. he gets does, i. e. he gets to the point of doing, he does already. This form is very frequently used in the preterit negative: onnyá n'y é è (e), he has not yet done. § 230, 3.
- 15. Ofi(asé) yè, ofití asé yè, he begins does, (oboé yé, he begins doing) i.e. he begins to do. (Inceptive or inchoative form.) § 230,3.
- 16. Qdà só yè, he 'lies on' does on' does on' does on' does otoa só yè, he 'joins upon' does and continuation.) § 230, 4.
- 17. Qyé kyè, he does deluys;
 Qyé mã ékyé, he does, causes it to lust (long); i. e. he does continuing for a long time. Cf. § 231, 3.
- 18. Qkyé yé (inf.), he delays doing, i.e. he does not do for a long time. Cf. Q'kyè né bá, he delays his coming; obáè ákyè, he came. it has become long, i.e. 1. he came a long while ago; 2. he did no more come since a long time. § 231, 2. 4.
- Qyé wìé. he does finishes; o wìé yé (inf.) he finishes doing;
 i. e. he does to the end, completely.
 § 230,5.
- 20. Osáň yè, he returns (repeats) does osím yè, he puts in " " i.e. he does again, repeatedly; osím yè, he puts in " " $= \circ y$ è bíò. (Iterative form). § 230, 2.
- 21. Qta' yè, he persecutes does, i. e. he does often = oyè di. (Frequentative form.) § 230, 2.
- 22. Wanya nyee, (inf.) he has got doings, i. e. he has often done, has become used to do. See § 230, 2.
- 23. Otumí yè, he is able does, i. e. he can do, is able to do. § 203 Rem.
- 24. O'hù yé, onim yé (inf.) he knows doing, i.e. he can do, knows or understands to do.
- 25. Womá oyè, they give (or cause) he does, i. e. they cause him to do, make or let him do, he is caused or made, suffered or permitted to do. (Causative form.) § 91, 10. 255, 3. Rem.

Rem. In the Akyem Dialect the subject of the principal verb is made the object of the auxiliary; e.g. Womá okoe, Ak. womāā no korc, they made him go. Mã onko, Ak. mã no ko! let him go!

- 108. A second class of verbal combinations are such, in which the auxiliary verb de or corresponding verbs (fa, gye, yi,...) are used.
- 26. Qde..ye, he holds or uses .. does, i. e he does by, with, he makes of; the auxiliary verb de stands for the Engl. prepositions by, with, in, for and of, introducing, as its object, the means or instrument or material for the action of the principal verb. Cf. § 237. E. g. Qde adáre twà dubã, with a bill-hook he cuts a branch.

Ode duá sèn aguá, of wood he carves a stool.

O'mfa n'asów nkodow, he shall go to work with his hoe.

27. Qnam.. so ye, he walks over (somebody or something) does, i.e. he does by or by means of; nam with the postposition so is also used to express the way, means or mediator of an action; in the imperative and negative forms, nam is replaced by fa. E. g.

Qnam ne bá sò fré yèn, he calls us by his son.

Qnam nnādā só nyāe, he got (it) by deceit.

Mamfankontompo so mannyé obi biribi, I did not take any thing from any man by false accusation.

28. Qde.. mā, kye, kyere, bere.., (he takes..) gives, presents, shows, brings. The auxiliary supplies the want of distinction between two objective cases (dative and accusative), introducing the direct (immediate) object and leaving the indirect (remote) object to the principal verb. Cf. § 206, 2. E. g.

Ode akutú ma abofrá no = Oma abofrá no akutú, be gives the child an orange.

Ode mfonini kyèré nè bá = Qkyeré nè bá mfònini, he shows his child a picture.

Woámífá fěd ammeré mè, you brought me nothing.

29. Qda.. ba, ko, fa, trā, si... (bābi), he brings, takes, puts... somewhere; Qdo.. hyia (obi), foro, siān (bepow), san...

The auxiliary introduces an object which is caused by the subject to take the direction or occupy the place indicated by the principal verb (and its object or complement of place). Thus the intransitive principal verb assumes a transitive meaning by its connection with the auxiliary. Cf. § 206, 3. 4. E. g.

Ohaa ofie, he came home. Agua bi sì ho, a stool stands there.

Odenó bad ofie, he brought him home. Odesgud si ho, he places a stool there.

Wode ntrama gù adakam, they put couries into a box.

Ode ne nnipa fòro bépow, he ascends a mountain with his men. Fand kò fie, take him (go) home. Fako! away with it!

- 109. A third class of verbal combinations are such in which the auxiliary adds the expression of direction to the principal verb. (Such directive verbs supply the place of the directive prepositions in Engl.) We may distinguish 3 cases:
- 39. Two or three locative and at the same time directive verbs are combined. Cf. § 223, 2. 4. E. g.

fi (= from).. ba, ko, f we, si, duru...

fa = (= through) ... ba, ko.

Ofi dua sò fié è fam' he coming from on the tree fell to the ground, i. e. he fell down from the tree.

Ofii Galilea faa Samaria koo (or baa) Yudea, he proceeded from Galilee took (his way) through Samaria went (or came) to Judea, i. e. he went from G. to J. by way of S.

Rem. Not directive, but merely locative, is the auxiliary verb wo; see § 117.

31. Directive verbs, either locative or objective, are added to intransitive verbs. Cf. § 223. 224. E. g.

tu (fi).. ba, ko, betra, kotra..., to remove (from..) to... guan (fi).. ba, ko (loc.), to flee (from..) to some place;

" " do, to a (ebj.), " " " " " " person; guare (fi).. twa (obj.), ba, ko (loc.), lo swim (from .) over.. lo.. huruw tra (obj.) si (loc.), lo leap (bound) over.. upon..

twa.. ho si, hyia, to cut around.. stand or meet, i e. to surround, koto sere.., to supplicate beg (somebody). [encompass.]

sũ fre.. to weep call, i.e. to implore.

kasa kyere.. to speak address, i. e. to admonish, instruct.

Otú fii Asanté bètrá Akyém, hē removed from As. to Akem. Ofii Dodi guaré twa a Firaw ba a Awurahai, he swam from Dodi over the Volta to Awurahai.

32. Directive verbs are added to transitive verbs. Cf. § 206, 3. 223, 4. E.g. ye.. mã, fa, to do or make for...

kyerew.. běre, mănā, komā, to write to ..

hũ mã, te mã, sũ mã, to sympathize, have compassion with..

ye.. tia, hye, gu.. so, to do against...

kā (asem) kyere, to speak to; kā. si so, to speak.. make up; kā (nnuan) ko (danmu), to drive (sheep) into (the stable); kā.. bom', bo hō, toam', kū hō, bo anim, to join together: bo.. gu, fwete, petē, pansam; pam.. gu, to scatter, disperse:

fwie.. gu, to pour out; tow.. gu, kyene, to cast away; fre.. ba, hyia.. ba, to call, bid (to come), to invite.

Mépam trôs memā Kofi, I sew trousers for K. Ménwène keté mafá, I weave a mat for myself.

Wakyérew nhóma abére mè, na mé nso mèkyeréw bi mèkomáano, he has written a letter to me, and I also wrote one to him.

110. A fourth class of verbal combinations are such in which

33. two transitive verbs are combined so as to express one notion. The former of the two, as the principal verb, is followed by the object; the second verb makes up the sense of the former and refers to the same object without repeating it, or may have its own object in the form of a sentence introduced by the conjunction segue (asem) di; gye..tie, to believe. [Cf. gye (aduan) di, to receive food (and) eat; gye nom! take (and) drink!]

kā. fwe, so. fwe, hūām. tie, to taste, try. Migyé no midì, I believe (in) him. Wagyé atie, he has obeyed. Maka aduan no mafwe, I have tasted that food.

Méso (mèhó) mafwé sè métumino àná?

I will try whether I shall be able to overcome him.

O'huam ta' no atie sè eyé ana?

He smells at the tobacco to see whether it is good or not.

Rem. Between this and the following class, we might mention the combination of a principal verb with auxiliaries of (comparison and) gradation: (se,) sen, kyen. See § 117, 3(b.)c. 269. 271.

111. A fifth class of verbal combinations are such in which

34. a subordinate verb (taking the lead) is used to express an adverbial circumstance of the principal action; cf. § 233, 3. 234. E. g.

Opatuw ye, he does (it) suddenly, unexpectedly;

Ohintáw yè, onam asé yè, he does (it) secretly, clandestinely;

Onam só yè, he does (it) forthwith, straightforward.

Onam anámsò ye, he does (it) undauntedly.

112. In most of these verbal combinations (§ 106-111), either the auxiliary, or the principal verb, or both of them, may be used in some or all of those simple forms mentioned in § 91, 1-10. Two or more single combinations may be united in one complex combination. In all these cases of connected forms, the tones often differ from those of the simple forms, but it would lead us too far, to specify the different combinations and tones in this place.

[Foreign students of the language will do well in having sentences and periods read to them by natives, and marking the tones for their own use, until they have become accustomed to the ways in which the tones are adapted to the different combinations.]

An observation that will go pretty far in this respect, is this: Two verbs frequently join in high tones; e.g. instead of mékò na mabá, we say: mekò mabà, I go (with the intention) to come (again). Instead of: mígyè mídì, we say: migyé midì, I believe (it).

113. Many verbal notions that are expressed by simple verbs in the English and other European or Asiatic languages, are expressed by syntactical combinations of verbs with specific subjects or objects and other (adverbial) complements. We call them verbal phrases, and do not treat them here as 'compound verbs', but refer them to the syntax (§ 210-220) and the dictionary.

6. ADVERBS including POSTPOSITIONS.

111. An adverb shows place, or time, or manner and degree, or cause and similar circumstances of an action or state.

Rem. Together with the adverbs that are more adjuncts to predicates, we speak here also of the complements of place.

Adverbs are usually added to verbs (whence their name). When the verb has an object or other complement, the adverb stands after it. (Some adverbs are also put before the subject, c. g. gyama, § 133.)

O'bà há dã, he always comes here. Menkó họ dà, I never go there.

Q'yè n'ád wuma yíyé, he does his work well.

Ode ahené abò ne nsá féwsò kwa, he wears beads round his wrist only for finery.

Sometimes adverbs are added to adjectives of quality, showing degree.

Eye duá kèsé pa, it is a very large tree.

Obo no yè duru sê, that stone is very heavy.

113. A word that denotes place, time, manner, cause &c. not by itself alone, but with reference to, and in connection with, other things or notions, expressed by nouns or pronouns, is, in the English and many other languages, called a preposition or postposition, and may show, not only the relation of an action or state to a thing, but also (by omission of a verbal notion) the relation of a thing to a thing; e. g. a cloth lies on the table; the cloth on the table (=the cloth which lies on the table) is white. In Tshi this class of words does not exist, and we must show here the way in which they are supplied partly by verbs, partly by nouns which are also used as adverbs, and partly by both of them.

116. We shall, therefore, speak under the head of 'Adverbs':

- I. Of prepositions and postpositions in general;
- II. of nouns of place and relation, serving as adverbs and postpositions;
- III. of other nouns, pronouns and adverbs of place;
- IV. of nouns and adverbs of time;
 - V. of nouns and adverbs of manner and degree;
- VI. of nouns and adverbs of cause;
- VII. of English adverbs expressed otherwise in Tshi.

I. Prepositions and Postpositions.

- 117. The prepositions of European and other languages are expressed in Tshi
- a. by a class of auxiliary verbs, which we may call prepositional verbs, combined with the principal verb of the sentence, as has been shown in § 108.109.
- b. by postpositions, which are in fact nouns (of place and relation).
 - A. The prepositional verbs are used for the following relations:
 - 1. Relations of place.
- a. Rest in a place (in answer to the question where?) is indicated by wo (§ 102, 3). This verb introduces a place where the subject or object is, or an action goes on; the place itself is indicated by nouns of place, part of which, when referring to certain objects, are also called postpositions (§ 118-127). Together with such postpositions, wo may stand for the prepositions in, on, at, by, with; upon, over, above, under, below, amongst, between, before, behind, about, near.
- b. Direction from a place (whence?) is expressed by fi, firi, to come or proceed from, answering to the preposition from and (especially together with the postposition mu) out of. § 109, 30. 31.

- c. Direction to or towards a place (whither?) is indicated by the verbs ko, to go, ba, to come, and the same as ingressive prefixes (ko, ko, bo, bo, bo, bo, before other verbs, as: si, du, kā, pem, trā &c., also by gu, kyene, petē, kyere, &c. § 109, 31. 32. Together with nouns of place or postpositions, those verbs express the preposition to, unto, towards, into, up, down; upon, over, above, under, below, amongst, between, before, behind, about, near.
- d. Other movements in space (where?) are expressed by the verbs nam, fa, for motions in, through a place, along, opposite to an object; twa for motion across (a river, way &c.); with mu: athwart; twa (hō) hyia or si, for motions around, round about an object; tra, for motions over and beyond an object. Cf. § 109, 30. 31. 223.
 - 2. Relations of time.
- a. wo, b. fi, c. besi, kosi, bedu, kodu, are also employed to indicate relations of time, answering to the questions a. when? b. since when? c. till or until when? Cf. § 227, 2. 229.
- 3. Relations of manner, degree, instrumentality, also accompaniment and exclusion.
- a. wo may introduce an expression showing manner by the postpositions so, ano, = agreeing with, according to.
- b. se, to be like, indicates equality or similarity by comparison; as, like.
- c. boro, kyen, sen, to surpass, excell, expresses the prep. above = more than. Cf. § 269. 271.
- d. de, fa, introduce the material, instrument, means, accompanying object, when in Engl. the prepp. of, by, with, are used; § 108, 26. 29.
- e. nam..so, fa..so, are also used for by, by means of, showing the way or mediation of action; § 108, 27.
- f. fra, to mix, serves for the prep. among; § 237 c.
- g. gye, to accept, answers also to the Engl. prep. except, save, but; cf. Rem. 1.2. § 133. 235 b.
- h. kwati, kwae, gyaw, siane, to omit, leave aside, pass by, answer to the prep. without; § 237 b.
 - 4. Relations of cause, concern, aim, intention, purpose.
- u. wo may introduce expressions showing cause and reference to, by the postpositions nti, so, hō, = the prepositions for the sake of, touching, concerning, about; § 200, 3. 201, 2.
- b. mā, to give, answers to the prepp. for, in behalf of, on account of; fa, to take, answers to for, when a person does or makes something for himself; komā, bere, to bring, mănā, to send by opportunity, answer to the prepositions for, to, in connection with verbs implying an intended communication. Cf. § 206, 3. 243 b.

- c. må, to give, gye, to receive, sesä, to exchange, answer to for, instead of, used in buying or selling or exchange; § 237b.
 - si or hye ananmu, to step or put in the foot-mark, answer to instead of, in the place of; § 237 b.
- d tia, to kick, hye, to fix upon, gu (so), to cast upon, express: a-quinst (a person); § 243 b.
- r. sie, to reposit, preserve, expresses: for, against (an event); adv. previously; § 243b.
- Rem. 1. Most of these prepositional verbs are conjugated, i. e. they assume pronominal and negative prefixes, and the prefixes and suffixes of the tenses and moods; they are, therefore, to be treated as verbs, and are mentioned here only for the sake of comparison with the English prepositions. Yet the verbs wo, se, and gye (except), have so far stripped off their verbal character and have become mere particles, as they do not assume any prefixes, not even the pronominal prefix me, nor the negative prefix, except when they are used, not as prepositional or auxiliary verbs or particles, but as principal verbs. (The negative of wo is then replaced by that of di.) This use of wo and se without any inflexion may, in literal translation, be indicated by the Engl. participle; e. g.

Wanyé fwè wo Osú, he has not done anything (being) at Osu. Méyè ad wú ma sè onó, I do work equalling him, i.e. like him. Obí n'ní fíe, gye mé nã, nobody is at home, except my mother. Mintié obí, gye m'ágyà, I listen to none but (except) my father.

Rem. 2. The particles so and gye, or both united, may also be considered as conjunctions, and the word governed by them as the subject or object of an elliptical sentence; e.g.

Onyć ad wuma se me, he does not (do) work like me, = se me-

ye, as I do.

Onnom five se nsú nko [na onom], he drinks nothing but (only) water [he drinks].

Obí àmmá, se gyé nnipa bànú pe [supply: na ebae], nobody came except only two men [came].

Manhú obí, se gyé nnipa bànú no [supply: na mihúù won],

I saw nobody, except [that I saw] those two persons.

In other cases we reckon gye simply among the adverbs; e.g.

Gye Onyamé (nkô) nà onim, only God knows (il).
(This is in fact only another kind of ellipsis, a previous thought "Obinnim, nobody knows" being left out.)

B. The postpositions are the nouns of place and relation specified and explained in § 118-122. They express the English prepositions a. by themselves, when the reference of a thing or action to the place (or time &c) of another thing is implied in the verb or in the attributive position of the postposition, or when it is plain from other reasons;

b. together with an auxiliary or prepositional verb, of those mentioned under A, when that reference is not included in the principal verb.

- a. Osékáň bi dà póň no sò, a knife is lying on that table. Fa opóň no sò sékáň no, take the knife [that lies] on that table! Ohéne Hèródè bére só no wowóò Yésù, Jesus was born in the time of king Herod.
- b. Mihúù sékán no wò pón no sò, I saw the knife on the table.

 Otów' sékán no kyènéè abránnà' sò, he flung the knife upon
 the gallery; (the verb tow does not imply a direction to a place;
 this direction, therefore, is indicated by the auxiliary kyene.)
- C. The conjunction nè, originally equal to the verb de (§ 139), is often used for the Engl. preposition with, denoting accompaniment, sometimes also for: on account of.

Mé nè nó baé, I came with him. Yé-nè wón koè, we went with them. Omáå yen mó nè kô, he gave us "hail!" and fighting, i. c. he expressed his congratulation on account of our successful fighting.

II. NOUNS OF PLACE AND RELATION serving as Adverbs and Postpositions.

118. The chief nouns of place and relation (which are also frequently used in composition, like most of the original prepositions in English) are the following eight:

eso (osoro), asc, emu, chō, ano, ani, anim, akyi (akyiri). Their manifold meanings and uses, also as names of things, may be arranged thus: — They denote:

1. A place which is at the same time a part of a thing; - then they are simply to be considered as names of things.

Pomá no ase abù, the under part or piere of the stick is broken.

2. A place without relation to a particular thing, though with reference to the general space in which we live, to the universe or to the upright human body (-indefinite relation). Then they are nouns of place, which are frequently used as adverbs.

O'te ase, he lives, exists (on the ground or earth).

Tra ase! sit down! Wafwe ase, he has fallen down, to the ground. Meda (no) ase, I lie down (to or for him, in his behalf),

i. e. I thank (him).

3. A place with reference to a thing, a place contiguous to a certain thing (or person) that is (usually) mentioned before it in the position of an attribute in the possessive case. Sometimes time or other relation is expressed by the same word; see § 129, 1-5. 121, 2. In this case we call such a noun of place a postposition or a noun of relation, because it shows the relation of another thing, or of its action or state, to the thing to which the postposition is added.

Oguán bi dà duá no ase, a sheep lies under that tree. (The postposition ase shows the relation of the sheep, or its lying, to that tree.)

When the noun, to which the postposition refers, is mentioned before, it is replaced by a pronoun; e. g.

Akókotan no bùtuw ne mmá sò; wón nhìná hyè n'asé, that hen sits over her chickens; they all are under her.

But when it is an inanimate thing, the pronoun is omitted and the noun of relation stands absolute, though the reference to that certain thing is understood; e.g.

Ohúù duá bi, na okodáà asé, he saw some tree and went to lie under (it).

4. Those nouns may also, by a kind of ellipsis, denote, in a collective manner, the things contained in a place, as described under 3. In this case they may be considered as collective names of things.

Wotasétàse duá no ase (scil. nneéma), they gather (the things) under that tree.

Akóko no ase afée, that hen's posterity has increased.

5. From the meanings given under 1-1, others may be derived, which make such nouns equal to other nouns of things, concrete or abstract.

Kyère me asém no ase, show me the meaning (sense) of that word. M'ákwántu ase ni, this is the reason for my journey. Métrã mù makodú asé, I shall endure unto the end.

- 119. We now give the meanings of the above mentionel 8 nouns of place and relation (§ 118), 1. as parts of things, 2. as parts of space, 3. as postpositions, translating these by the Engl. prepositions and adding the Engl. adverbs.
- eso, osoro: 1. the upper part; 2. the upper parts, the space above; (osoro, heaven;) 3. on, up, over, upon, above, upward, on high; used of time: in, at, during; of other relations: on, at, concerning, in, from, with.
- ase: 1. the nether or lower part or end (or beginning); 2. the nether or lower parts, the way down; 3. down, under, below, beneath, downward; of time: in, at, under, during.
- emu, the interior: 1. the inner or middle part, inside (also the middle part of the human body, and of an expanded surface &c. any point within the circumference; 2. the inner parts, the space within or inside; 3. in, at, into, through, within, inward, inside; of time: in, at, during; of a plurality of things: among, amongst, under; in connection with certain verbs (as fi, to proceed from): out, from.
- ehō, the exterior: 1. the outer or outward part, outside, (also the human frame, the whole body, the whole person, cf. § 33 Rem. § 57. 217, 1. 218, 1a. 2. the outward parts, the space without or outside, nearness, proximity; 3. at, by, near, sidewards, about, around; of other relations: at, about, touching, concerning.
- ano: 1. the edge, brink, brim, tip, utmost end, margin; also the mouth, esp. the lips as the borders of its opening, and the bill of a bird,

also a heap or number of things (being defined by a margin or end); 2. the space along or at the utmost end; 3. on, at, along; of other relations: according to.

ani: 1. the face (also the human face, espec. the eye), the surface; 2. the space above a surface; 3. on, upon, over, above.

anim': 1. the face (also the human face), the front, frontside, forepart; 2. the space in sight, in front of, before;

3. before, forwards, on, onward(s).

akyi, akyiri (Ak. akyire): 1. the back (akyi, the back of the human body), the back part, hind part, also the outside of hollow vessels; 2. the space behind or outside (of hollow vessels and enclosed spaces); akyiri, akyirikyiri, remote distance;

3. behind, outside, without; opon akyi, before i. e. outside the door; backwards; far off, far away; of time: after, afterwards,

Cf. § 33 Rem.

Rem. The tone of so, mu, and of the stem of ano, akyi, is low, as often as these four words are joined to a pronoun in the possessive case ending with high tone; in other cases the tone is high, and that of the prefix low.

The tone of ho and of the stem of ase, ani, is high, whether that of the preceding syllable be high or low; when high, the prefix a- is high likewise. When ase is not a postposition, it has sometimes low

tone, e.g. in te ase, to live, da ase, to thank.

- 120. 1. The words eso, emu, ehō, retain their prefix almost only at the beginning of a sentence, separated from a preceding sentence or clause of a sentence, and the prefix may be taken as a substitute for the pronoun which is left out when referring to a thing, not a person.
- 2. The word mu very easily drops its u, and is then written together with the preceding word, usually with an apostrophe; but the tone of this m' is always in contrast to that of the syllable which it has joined, e. g. èpom', nsám'. Cf. § 119 Rem.
- 3. Osoro is used when it does not refer to a special thing, but to space in general.
- 4. Akyiri is used for akyi, when it stands without a possessive case before it, e. g. when a pronoun, referring to a thing, is omitted.

Okwań à onam so no, eso ye trotro, the way on which he walks, it (its upper part) is smooth; or:

em ú ayè pátoropatoro, it has become slippery.

O'f we osord, he looks up, upwards.

Otwam' (= otwa mu), he cuts (or pursues a line lying in) the middle (part of the space in which we live) i.e. he passes by.

(The compound verbs teem', to cry out, bom' = bo mu, to cry, roar, thunder, must in a similar way be explained as the straightforward penetrating of the space by the voice or other sounds.)

Osíi m' kóè, he departed = Osíi kwán mù (or: kwán sò) kóè, he stepped in (or on) the way, he set out, started.

Odán yi anim' ye fe; akyiri dé, enté sa,

the front-side of this house is fine; the back-side is not so. Ogyina akyirikyiri, he stands in a remote distance, far away.

121. 1. One noun of relation or postposition, viz. at i, is exclusively used to indicate cause. It seems to be related to eti, Ak etiri, head, and originally to signify the upper end as the place or source from which an action proceeds.

It has nouns or pronouns (or even sentences, § 255, 64) as defining attributes in the possessive case before it (§ 240, 243, a.); if not, we write enti—enonti. Cf. § 120, 1, 140, 252, b.

Nitán nti wò kúm' no, out of enny they killed him.

Nsan' nti dyaré, through contagion he is si k.

Sika nti na odéhyé dan akoá,

on account of money a freem in becomes a slive.

Enó nti, eyi nti, therefore, for this reason; edénnti? why?

This postposition, with its possessive case before it, usually precedes the subject and verb of the sentence, and is often followed by the conjunction na. When it stands at the end, the vowel 'a' is added. In Akan it is also used without the prefix, and before the final 'n' the letter r is inserted.

Edén ntià (Ak. sen'tira)? why? Den 'ti na wókó? why do yen yo?

2. The postpositions so and ho are also used to express cause. Cf. § 240, a. 243, a. Rem. 1.

Yèdano n'áyàmyé sò asé, we thank him for his kindness. Matúanò nébònésò káw, I have rewarded him for his evil deed. O'sù né nùá hō, he weeps on account of his brother.

122. Other nouns of place, frequently serving as postpositions (and adverbs), are the following:

atifi: 1. the top (of the human head, of a house, mountain);

2. the place above.

eti: 1. the head, the upmost part; 2. the chief place. mfinimfini, the midst, the centre of a thing or place.

nkyén, nkyénmů, the side-part; the place by the side of a thing.

Oko ne nkyén, he goes to him. Ote ne nkyén, he lives with him.

Ofinenkyén kò, he goes away from him.

(nsa) nifá, nifá so, on the right hand or side;

(nsa) benkum, benkum so, on the left hand or side. .

agya, the part beyond; agyá-nohò (or -nohôa), beyond:

aboutén no agyá, the other side of the street; asuogyá, the other side of the river;

ayanny a, the backside of the human body (lit. of the belly).

ntám', the space between; between, betwixt. ntentènsó, the place opposite; over against. nsrènsó, the place at a distance; aloof. anánmù, in the feet i. e. footsteps; instead of.

III. OTHER NOUNS, PRONOUNS AND ADVERBS OF PLACE.

123. 1. Of the names of the different members or parts of the human body, we have had some among the nouns of place and relation (§ 119.122), viz. emu, ehō, ano, ani, anim, akyi, atifi, eti, nkyen, nifā, benkum. But some of these and other such names are considered as things having their own dimensions, and may be combined or compounded with mu, so, and other postpositions; e. g.

tí sò, tíri sò, tírim'; aním'; asóm'; anóm'; esém' (the inner substance of the teeth, but also the space of the mouth inside the teeth); esé akyì (the outside of the teeth, revealed by withdrawing the lips); kónmù; nkyénmù, mfém'; yám'; nsám', nsáyam' (the palm of the hand), nsáakyì (the back of the hand), nsá ānò, nsáteā anò.

Some such names are only used as compounds, as if they were mere places:

mpampám', momasó, atāsó, dodōm', mmotoam', yám', ayáase, ayannyá.

2. Others are named as things, but may be treated as places, without assuming the postposition mu or so; e. g.

Ode bó toò ne mmáti, he put a stone (on) his shoulder.

Dyaré ne se, né kômá, né mmèrebó,

he is sick (concerning or in) his teeth, his heart, his liver. Oso nensá, he seizes his hand, holds him by the hand. Otím no amenewá, he took him (by) the throat.

124. 1. The following names of things also in a direct way denote a place, without having a noun of place added to them:

ofi, ofie, a dwelling, home; akurā', a village; sukū, school; adi, adiwo, adiwo ho, the space outside the room, yard.

Běra mé fi! come (into) my house! Cf. Běra mé dán mù! come into my room! — Wábà ofíe, he has come home; but: Wahyén ofí bim', he has entered some dwelling. — Ote adíwo ho, Mat. 26, 69.; but: ogyina abannuá no sò, Ester 6, 5. — Oko akurā', he went to the plantation-village; but: Oko n'áfúw mù, he went into his plantation. — Ofi sukū' baè, he came from school; but: Oko sukū'dán mù, he goes into the school-house (not for the purpose of learning).

2. Proper names of countries and towns want no postposition; some, however, are used or compounded with mu, so, ase, kurom' (= kurow mu); e. g.

Ofii Abrokyíri baà Abibirim', he came from Europe to Africa. Ofi Nkraň fáà Krobo nè Akwam' kóò Hūam', ansánà osáň faà Akyém kóò Asanté, na ofi Kúmase faà Prásò báà Oguā', he went from Akra through Krobo and Akwam to Krepe, then he returned and went by way of Akem to Asante, and from Kumase (he went) by Praso to Cape Coast. Ote Děná, he lives at Elmina. Mereko Adukurom', I am going to Adukrom.

3. Nouns compounded with a noun of place, though they may partly be considered as names of things, cannot well assume a new post-position of place; e. g.

wiase, the world; a fiase, a cellar, store, prison; mpoānó, the seashore; fam'=fá mù, in the ground, usually: on the ground, at the bottom. Oda afiase, he lies in prison. Cf. Oda duám', he lies fastened to a block. But: Oko aguasém'=oko guám', he goes into the assembly, council.

125. Mere names of place (not at the same time names of relation or of things) are:

1. bā, baw, bea, bew, bere, amere; all these signify a place, but are (with the exception of baw) only used with some addition, as: bābí, Ak. beabí, pl. mmeá-mmèá, mmá nhìná, ameré(à), § 60, 3. or in composition with verbs, as: gyinabeá, trābére, dábere, dabew, a place to sland, sit, lie (there).

Adé yi, mình à ne tobew, I know not where to lay this thing. 2. of ă, (the one) side (also meaning the half or part of a thing), and af ā, a separate, unoccupied part of some space.

Wokód bépow bi sò fá bàbí, they went on a mountain apart. Oda afá, he sleeps on the other side (of the room).

Minnim fåko à owo, I don't know (the place) where he is.

Wonam afãsā koò kurów no mù, they went into the town from three sides.

3. Nouns derived from verbs by the palatal suffix (§ 36, 4).

adidií, eating-place; ote adidii, he sits at table;
anomē', drinking-place; aguareé, washing-place;
akõe', a field of battle; anisiei, burial-place; asutwareé, a ford;
mmenē', mmenkyenē', nearness, neighbourhood.

4. All these nouns of place do not take postpositions of place, with the exception of bere, when it means time, see § 129, 1., and fā, which is often compounded with m' = mu.

Owo mé fám', he is on my side, belongs to my party.

5. The four chief points of the compass have the following names: apuei, apuei-fām', anim-fām', (anafó, bokā), east; atoe, atoe-fām', akyíri-fām', (atífi, anai), west; késē-fām', nifá-fām', (epom'), south; kùsū-fám', benkúm-fām', (eham', kwaem'), north.

Rem. The names in parenthesis do well for the Gold Coast, but cannot be applied to other countries and parts of the globe.

126. Nouns of action may be used like nouns of places. As ko usu means to go to the water (place), to go for water, so some other phrases have been formed, as:

ko anyán (Ak. F. ko nnyina), to go for wood, fuel;

ko asika, to go for digging and washing gold.

These seem to be exceptional formations. But more frequently we find an infinitive, often with its object before it, or compounded with it into one word, as a complement of place. See § 280, 2.

O'kò adidí, aguaré, asóre, he goes to dinner, to take a bath, to prayer (or to church). Okóò aduan'-tó, he went to buy food.

127. Instead of nouns of place, the *pronouns* ehe, ha, ho &c. (§ 60, 3) may be used. We must add to them:

nó hò, no hõa (nó hòà), the place beyond, behind.

The pronouns ha and ho are often added to nouns of place in apposition, or just as no or yi is added to names of persons and things; yet no or yi may be added besides.

Qwo turóm' hó, he is in that garden.

Yete dán (yi) mù há yi, we dwell in this house here.

Qko Nnon kom' no ho tonn, he went far into the inland countries.

128. As a proper adverb of place, not derived from nouns or pronouns, but from a verb with a postposition, we have to mention: fahófàhó, in the expression: Wòfa fahófàhó, they sail (or row) along the shore; whilst Wofa ānóànó means: they walk (or ride, drive) along the shore (by land).

IV. NOUNS AND ADVERBS OF TIME.

- 129. Nouns of time, used in answer to the question when? dábèi?, either have postpositions, or they have none.
- 1. For the entirely abstract notion of time in general, as in "Time flies", there is no proper word; all expressions are somehow definite.

Ebére, time (cf. § 125) wants a definition by an attributive word or sentence, and can take the postposition so (or mu).

Adagyéw, leisure, can have mu after it.

Ohéne no bére sò, in the time of that king.

Ebére à Kolombo kohúŭ Amerika no mu, at the time in which Columbus discovered America.

M'adàgyéw mù ad wuma ni, this is a work of my leisure-time.

2. Nouns expressive of the ages of human life are:

ňkokóābére, babyhood; mmérantebére, mmabābere, youth; ňkwakorābére, mmerewabére, old age;

they may have mu after them; but

mmofráase, childhood, admits no postposition.

- 3. Afe, afrihyiá, year, osram', obosóm', month, and the native and European proper names of the months, also eda, day, may have mu or so after them; but not so the proper names of the days of the week, § 41, 4.
- 4. The nouns for the seasons of the year usually take mu after them. opé(bére), ofúpé, apenimmá, opepón, the harmattan and its divisions, àsúsow(bére), adom (adómmére, adommŭrow'), the rainy seasons. [Fefew-bere, spring; ahõhurubere, summer; a wow bere, winter.] Exception: mpenõa, autumn, or rather (Ak.) the end of the harmattan.
- 5. Dapén, week, takes mu after it.
- 6. The following nouns for the different times of the day (partly combined with adjectives) are mostly used without postpositions:

 adekyēé nè adesāé; akokoboné, ahéma, ahemadakyé, anopahéma, anopatútu, adekyēé, awiapuei, anopá, awiá, owigyinaé, awia kétē, betwabére, mfaretúbére, anwummebáwmù, anwummére, awiatoé, anadwofá, anadwofá fòmm, adesãé, anadwo, odasú konkon, odasúm.

Likewise the words for the twelve hours: donkoro... § 80, 4.

- 7. Other nouns of time are formed by the palatal suffix (§ 36,5.) or by composition with bere, ase, akyiri; e.g. adidií, adidíbére, meal-time; adidiíase mpáe, prayers at meals; adidiikyíri asèdá, thanksgiving after meals.
- 130. Other expressions of time are the following nouns, nouns with additions, proper adverbs and particles:
- 1. For the present time:

ené, nné (= edá yi), mpren, to-day; ené da yi (ara) sò, this very day; nnansá yi, nná yi mù, in these days; áfèi, now; sesē (sèse, when at the end), just now, this moment; [at once; sesēi ara, mpren, mprémpren (ara), prèkõ, immediately, forthwith,

2. For the past time:

'néra (mispronounced: 'nara, 'nora, = ene da), yesterday.
'né-nnànsá, 'ne-nnannan,...'ne-dadu, three, four,...ten days ago.
nnansá ni à..., it is three days since...; afedán ni, a year ago;
nná no, nná no bi, the other day; da bi, once, one day;
dabího, formerly; ehóbere no, then, at that time;
tète, tètebēme, tete-ntérède, anciently, of old;
dèdaw, dedàdedaw, already, long ago.

3. For the future time:

okyéna (okána), to morrow; okyéna kyì, the day after to-morrow; okyéna bi, dakyé bi, some day to come, some time, hereafter; da se 'né (Kwasi, Dwo,...) this day week (on Sunday, Monday); afedán sèse, a year hence.

4. For an indefinite time:

pen, once; da, dàbí, dabíara, dabíaradà, dàkóro bi, some day, one day, one time, any day, ever, after a negative verb: never; étò-dabí-à, sometimes; (lit. it falls i. e. happens some day that).

5. For succession (and simultaneousness):

prèkō, at the same time, at once; cf. 1.
ntem, ntémara, (quickly, § 131, 3), soon;
amónom' (hó)ara, on the spot;
kan, ekán no, (at) first, formerly; kán ansā, beforehand;
kánkyerekyere, first of all, at the very first;
ntam' (no), in the mean time;
[ennà (enó nà), then; ansá-nà, whereupon; these are conjunctions];
akyi (postposition of nouns), after; akyiri, behind, afterwards;
the time after; enó akyì, eyí akyì, akyiri no, akyiri yi, sànkyiri yi, after that, hereafter, afterwards.

6. For repetition:

mpén ahé? how often? see § 81; bio (bíòw, Ak. biem'), again; nná nná, nnàkóro-nnàkóro, on single days; dá, often; dá nnàawót we, dá sràm', dá afé, every week, month, year.

7. For duration:

nná ahé? how many days? how long? dàkóro &c. § 80, 5. 6. dá (F. dabā), dáyi, dāpem, dā dā, always, continually, eternally. dàbídàbí, a long time; ara, on and on, continually, continuously.

V. NOUNS AND ADVERBS OF MANNER AND DEGREE.

1. Nouns, singly or with postpositions.

131. Nouns of quality without postpositions, but more frequently such or other (also personal) nouns together with the postpositions mu or so, may denote manner in an adverbial way.

- 1. Abstract nouns added to the verbs se, to be equal, kyen or sen, to surpass, showing the manner or concern in which a subject equals or surpasses an object, see § 235 c. Concrete nouns, used adverbially to show the means of an action, see § 237 a.
- 2. Some nouns are not or scarcely used otherwise than in an adverbial way; e.g.

abia, to one's aid or assistance; abirá, the wrong way, turned the other way.

Méyèno adwúma abía, I work for him in the way of helping him. Mísò no mú abía, I set my hand to it assisting him.

Wáhyè n'átàdé à birá, he has put on his garment the wrong way.

Wábò (or wákà) asém no àbirá, he has reversed the matter (in stating it), altered it to the contrary.

Rem. In bo abira, di adannan, di nnyigye, the nouns may called specific complements of the verbs bo, di; on the other hand,

many nouns, appearing as complements of verbs in specific verbal phrases (§ 210), may be considered as adverbs of manner.

bo piriw (bo pirim), bo mpunimpú, to startle; bo bum, bo twi, bo wi, to start, be alarmed; to beraw, to dobosã, to piti, to faint or swoon (from exhaustion, sunstroke, hunger).

- 3. The noun ntem, quickness,* is used as an adverb either singly or doubled, or (as ohare, lightness, swiftness) compounded with so. Běra ntém! come quickly! Obáè ntémntém, he came very quick. Wobáà no ntémsò, they came with haste. Luk. 2, 16. Ove n'ádé nhīnā oháresò, he does all his things swiftly.
 - *Cf. Akyekyeré sè: ntém ye nà ogóm ye, the tortoise says: quickness is good and slowliness is good. (Prov.)
- 4. Other nouns compounded with so or mu, sometimes also ase, ano, to express manner, are the following:

kwáńsò-kwáńsò, akwáńsò-akwáńsò, orderly, properly; aberáńsò, akakabéńsò, akokobírisò, violently; anibiannásosò, asőbiannásosò, carelessly; mpàsompaso, mpáase, mpofirím, unawares, unexpectedly; mmarímám, mmarímásò, in a manly way, manfully; nnípam, after the manner of men; onyàmémù, in a godly way; brofóm, bròfó nsa ānò, after the fashion of the Europeans. Okáž asém no àbufúw sò, he spoke that word in anger.

2. Proper Adverbs of Manner,

derivative (from pronouns, adjectives, verbs), primitive, or compound.

- 132. Proper adverbs, besides the nominal adverbs in § 131, show
- 1. manner, in a demonstrative or descriptive way (the former by comparison, the latter by naming a quality);
- 2. degree, or quantity, intensity and extent;
- 3. certainty and uncertainty, affirmation and negation.
- 183. 1. Adverbs of a pronominal character, showing manner of an action or state in a demonstrative way or implying comparison, are the following:
 - sa, sā, sē (=sā yi), se (=se eyi), so, thus; sāara, just so.

Ete sa, so it is. Woyeno se! it is done thus!

Etc sáara, it is just so, still so, always the same.

Mentéè asém à éte se pèn, I never heard such a thing.

- 2. An adverb showing degree in a similar way is
- sệ (= se biribi) very, very much. Eyé sệ, it is very good. Qye hú sê, he is very cowardly.
- 3. Adjectives denoting quality and indefinite quantity are frequently used as adverbs of manner (a) and degree (b), either in equal form with the adjective, or, when several forms exist, in a reduplicated, sometimes in the simple form. Cf. § 67-70.

E.g. nyā', slowly; te', straightway; kómm, quietly; bòné, badly; yíyé, pá, pápa, pápapa, well, very well, much: kesé, dennén, bebrē, pì, dódo, very, much, very much; kakrá, kakrábi, kakrás<u>è,</u> ketewábi, *a little, very little.*

a. Onam nyã, he walks slowly. Oda hó komm, he lies there quietly. Duá no asì fromm, that tree is in a flourishing state. Okasá kronkron, he speaks with purity. Ote yíyé, he is well. Minim no yíyé, I know him well.

Mikyiánò pápāpa, I greet him most heartily.

b. Mframá bò kesé, the wind blows vehemently. Oprânna' bòm' dennén, the thunder rolls loud.

Osuró bèbrē, bebrebé, pì, dódo, he is very much (or too much) afraid.

4. Adjectives denoting a certain quality are added as adverbs of intensity to verbs expressing the same quality; e.g.

Eső kokurő, it is very large; eyé papa, it is very good; ebèré kò, ebìrí tùmm, ehoá fitā, ákyèn kyénkyeren, it is very red, -black, -white, -hard or stiff; ébòn kánkan, it stinks very much.

134. 1. Proper descriptive adverbs, mostly primitives, not (or only seldom) used as adjectives, but showing quality (or degree) like those in § 133, 3., are found in the following sentences:

O'f wè no do (or hã, = dínn, kómm), he looks at him staringly.

M'aní tùá à no fánn, my eye discerned him distinctly. Emú dà hó fé, it lies open and plain (before us).

Eda nsú ase fē, it lies deep under the water.

Wáh yè no ke'tē (kyenkyenkyen), he has commanded him strictly. Awia afi kete (ketekete), the sun has come out shining brightly.

Nkuròfó no abóabòa wonhớ ānò pepé, pítipiti, the people are gathered thick together. Luk. 11, 29.

Wofwéeno pitipiti, they flogged him much.

O'yè n'á dé bàsabasa, bìsibasā, sàkasaka, sèsasesa, potorópòtoró, he does his things in a disordely, confused manner.

2. Imitative adverbs show the manner of an action by describing the effect as a particular noise or other impression on the senses.

Obód me bam (bambam), he gave me a lash (some lushes).

Efwéè fám' ara bàm, it fell to the ground with a clap.

Of wéè ase brim, he fell down plump.

O'sì pim (pim pim), he steps firmly, takes firm steps.

Otiá fám' twem twem, he treads on the ground strongly.

Ohurúw' twent twent, or, fent fent, he jumps about nimbly. Nsú sò ko(ko), water drops audibly.

Aduan' no hùru kùtukútù, the food boils lustily.

Anomá no pèré kitikiti, pùtuputu, the bird struggles desperately. Ogyá dèw fràfra, fràmframfram, kitikiti, kyirikyirikyiri, the fire burns brightly.

Dàdé no adò sràmsrām, srànsrān, the iron is red-hot.

3. Proper adverbs of degree or extent (primitives, derivatives and compounds) show the extent of an action or state in various ways:

a. Adverbs *limiting* the action to itself or to some subject or object (excluding others) are the following:

nkő, nkútō, nkútō-kòré, only, alone; ára, just, even, merely; kwa, téta, hùnu, Ak. hun, F. gyan, gyennyan, merely, solely; téta ara kwà, without any thing else.

Mmofrá nkö nà éwuí, children only died. Mátù no fó nkö, I have only admonished him.

Wámà me nsú teta, he gave me only water.

Woagyaw me nkúto-koré, I have been left quite alone.

b. Adverbs stating addition (inclusion) and prominency or exclusion (with regard to other actions or subjects or objects that might come into consideration) are the following:

nso (nsoso), bi, nso bi, besides, likewise; also, too; mpo, po, even; mmom, rather, much more; de, taken apart, concerning; titiriw, especially, chiefly (adj. fr. ti, tiri, head).

O'di hiá, na gyaré nso, he is poor, and sick too.

Mé nso, méko bì, I also, I shall go likewise.

Fre onó nso bì, call him also.

Wabisa ohene po, he has even asked the king.

Mé nùá po ànhữ mè, even my brother has not known me.

Eyí m mồm' n'yé, this is all the worse. Mé dé, méko, as for me, I shall go.

Mmofrá nà gyaré no kùm wón titíriw, children especially die of that sickness.

The following adverbs are derived from verbs:

gye, except, save, but; wants a complement after it. § 117 Rem. 235 b. Gyè o bǔròní na óbetúmi ayé, only a European could do (if). (enó) gyàbaw, leaving (that) aside; nolwithstanding, nevertheless; (eyí nhìná) nkãmfűaw, beside (all this); these two words want a complement before them. § 242. 237 c. Luk. 16, 26.

énkánká, nkántóm' (akántom se), to say nothing of, not to mention (that...); these two words want a complement after them, which forms part of a sentence that follows or is to be supplied.

M mofrá yi y m mofra boné, na énkánká nà oyí dé (ồnyé), these children are (all) bad, but especially this one (is not good). N kran héne as o nteè, na nkántóm Buroní, the king of Akra was not apprized of it, much less the European (governor).

Rem. The adverbs under $a.\ b.$ may be called distinguishing adverbs; cf. § 75.

c. Adverbs extending the action to an indefinite or a more or less definite degree or number, or to completeness.

ara*, on and on, by degrees; arā, continually, continuously, uninterruptedly;

ára g(y) en n, pretty much; pránn, (plainly,) pretty much.

pé*, pépe, exactly, completely; pése*, perfectly;

Wamā me dare du pe, he gave me exactly or only ten dollars. korā (=kwa ara), entirely, completely, totally, thoroughly, with neg. verb: (not) at all;

búruburu, boroboro, t wém, twébo, dwé, entirely, totally &c. dwè, dwènh, dwèrébē, completely &c. (of burning, destroying).
*The words ára, pé, pésē, are often joined to other adverbs.

185. Adverbs of certainty or uncertainty (contingency, possibility, probability).

nokwárèm', in truth, truly (cf. § 131, 4). See also § 236.

pì, ampá, truly, indeed; ampáara, verily; ampanèampá, really; ewom' pì, ete sā' àmpá, it is quite true;

de, mmom' dé, certainly, indeed, to be sure;

dabí, dabídà, no, never, by no means. (On these and other particles of affirmation and negation, see § 146, 3.)

gyámà, Ak. gyaméà, perhaps, possibly;

ebià, some of it (may be) that, i.e. perhaps, peradventure;

 $\operatorname{ses} \bar{\operatorname{e}}'$, perhaps ($=\operatorname{se}' \operatorname{se}', like this, § 133, 1. cf. 130, 1.);$

sésekwã (bi), perhaps, perchance, by chance.

Gyama wádà, perhaps he sleeps. Sesē wáfi adi, perhaps he is gone out. Ebíà oyaré, ebí nso à wáwù, perhaps he is sick or perhaps he is dead. Kóbisà sésekwã bi na yenfwe, go and ask at random, that we may see.

VI. NOUNS AND ADVERBS OF CAUSE.

- 136. 1. The postpositions nti ('ti, ntia, ntira), so, hõ, indicating cause, see § 121. 240. 243 a.
- 2. The adverbs kwà, téta, hùnu (hun, gyan, gyennnyan) § 134, 3a, have also the meaning: without cause, for nothing, in vain. § 240 a.

VII. English Adverbs expressed by Verbs and otherwise.

137. English adverbs of *time* expressed by (auxiliary) verbs, see § 107, 13.14.16-22.; adverbs of *manner*, ditto, § 111. Others are expressed otherwise; e. g.

Nil nsú dé à éye, enyé anó bi ni (lit. the Nile's water's sweetness which it has, there is not 'any border is here', i. e.) the water of the Nile is exceedingly sweet.

M'aní gyé à égyei n'yé à dewá (lit. my eye's delighting which it delighted was not a small thing, i. e.) I was highly delighted.

7. CONJUNCTIONS.

138. Conjunctions are particles, or little words without inflection, by which words and sentences are joined together. They are either primitive, or more or less plainly derived from verbs, nouns or pronouns. We divide them into four classes, § 139-142.

139. (1.) Conjunctions that connect words or single co-ordinate parts of sentences are the following:

nè, and, with, from the v. de, to have, hold, possess.

Mé nè wó beko (orig. mede wó beko, I taking you shall go),

I and you shall go, I shall go with you.

Wafre me ne mo, he has called me and (or together with) you. ene is used instead of ne, when a slight pause interrupts the close connection between the preceding and the subsequent word;

e = the prefixed pronoun of the 3d pers. sing. § 54.

aná, anásè, sê, or; cf. § 140 Rem. 2. .. $\bar{0}$, .. $\bar{0}$, be it... or; cf. § 140 Rem. 3.

Kofí ana(se) Yaw n'ko asú, Kofi or Yao shall go for water. Mmarímá ó, mméa ó, mmofrá ó, wón nhìná mměrà, (be it) men or women or children, they all shall come.

140. (2.) Conjunctions that connect co-ordinate sentences:

na, and, but, yet; na, for (=because);

(na [sometimes printed in italics: na] with the consecutive form of the verb: in order that, with the intention to; see § 141, 6);

n'so (nsoso), also; but, besides, yet, however; moreover;

nanso, and also, but also, but, yet, however, notwithstanding; de (a concessive particle at the end of a sentence), with nanso

(following in the next): it is true, take it for granted, but..;

ànkã.., na.., it would have been.., but..;

enyé...nkő, nan'so (na..nso), not only.., but also..;

enonti, eyinti, enti, enti nà, na enti,

hence, therefore, on that account;

énesè, that is; so it came that ..;

énnà (=enó nà), then, upon that, after that; én'dé (=enó dé), én'dé nà, then, in that case.

Rem. 1. The conj. na has usually low tone, but high tone when it connects imperative sentences. On na see § 141, 7. After single words at the head of a sentence, na serves as an emphatic particle, s. § 247.

Rem. 2. The conj. and at the end of a question, the alternative

being omitted, serves as an interrogative particle, see § 142.

The conj. anāse, or (§ 139), connects also co-ordinate sentences.

Oyaré anásè wádà, he is sick or he sleeps.

Rem. 3. The conj...ō, ...ō, whether..., or..., connects sentences that are co-ordinate to each other, but subordinate to a succeeding sentence. Opené ò, ompené ò, oyé nà méye ara,

whether he agree or not, I shall do (it) by all means.

141. (3.) Conjunctions that connect subordinate sentences with principal sentences, are simple or compound, and stand between the principal and the subordinate, or the subordinate and the principal sentence. In the latter case, i. e. when the subordinate sentence comes first with a conjunction at the end, others may stand at the same time at the head of the subordinate or of the principal sentence.

(Examples see after 1-10.)

- 1. The explanatory particle so, that, whether, if (probably derived from so, to say; F. do, Ga: ako).
- A. When simple, it is used in the following ways:
 - a. It is joined to a principal sentence and, usually after some incision marked by the falling tone of voice (se) or even a little pause (which in longer sentences is indicated by a comma or colon), connects with it or introduces
 - α. a noun-sentence that supplies the subject or a complement or an attribute in the preceding sentence; § 255, 1b. 2. 3b. 4. 6b.
 - β . an adverbial sentence of manner (extent); so that, § 273, 1 b. γ . an adverbial sentence of purpose; that, in order that, § 279, 1.
 - b. It stands at the head of a conditional or concessive sentence (Ga: ke); § 276, 3. 278, 2.
 - c. It stands at the head of an adverbial sentence of cause, cf. B, e.
- B. It is combined or compounded with other words (verbs):
- a. kyere se, (in order to see) whether, if (is rather obsolete, = se ebia).

b. gye se (or se gye), except that.., § 277.

c. kyen se, sen se, more than (that..), § 270, 3.

d. efi se, since; § 265, 1.

e. efise, esiane se, or se alone (A, c.), with nti or ntia at the end of an adverbial sentence of cause, which precedes or succeeds the principal sentence, because; § 275, 1b. 2.

f. besi se, kosi se, kodu se, kopem se &c. till, until; § 265, 2. g. kānsese, though, even if, § 278, 2. Cf. A, b. [273, 2.

- 2. The comparative particle se, as (from se, to be like, Gā: tamo), and combinations with it: te se, as if; senea (se-dea, lit. like that which), just as (Gā: take, take boni), introduce
- a. a noun-sentence; how (relat.); § 255, 1 c. d. 3 b. 5. § 268, c.

b. an adverbial sentence of place (extent); as far as; § 260.

- c. an adverbial sentence of manner or degree, succeeding or preceding the principal sentence (which in the latter case begins with sā na, sā ara na, sā nso na, or has sā ara at the end); as, just as; § 268 a.b. 270, 2.
- d. a member of an abbreviated or elliptical adverbial or adjective sentence, § 248, 6. 269.
 - 3. The relative particle 'a', always with low tone, connects
- a. a succeeding adjective sentence with an antecedent in the principal sentence; it is, together with a pronoun expressed or understood in the adj. sent., translated in Engl. by the relative pronouns and adverbs who (whom, whose,) which, that, where, when &c. § 64. 257.

b. an adverbial sentence of manner, degree, extent, (Engl. so that,) with a preceding sentence or some part of it; § 273, 1 a.

- c. a preceding adverbial sentence of time, § 262, or condition, § 276, or concession, § 278, with a succeeding principal sentence; in this case it has usually a comma after it.
- 4. The disjunctive particle ō is used for 'a' in double or manifold conditional or concessional sentences; § 276, 4. 278, 3.

- 5. The distinguishing adjectives no and yi (§ 74, 2) serve as connecting particles, answering to the Engl. conjunctions when, after, as.
- a. The demonstrative particle no is used at the end of adverbial sentences of time with the verb in the continuative, past, progressive and future forms, § 264, also at the end of an adv. sent. of proportion, § 272.

b. The demonstr. part. yi is used in the same cases, with the verb also in the present and perfect forms; § 263.

- c. The particles ara pe, as soon as, may stand with or without no or yi. § 264, 1. 2.
- 6. The conjunction na with the verb in the consecutive or imperative form, that he may or shall, might or should, connects an adv. sentence of purpose with a preceding principal sentence; § 279, 2.
- 7. The conjunction nâ (with high and low tone) indicates simultaneousness or concomitance, or emphasis, and is used at the head of the principal sentence, when the action or state in it coincides with a state or action in the preceding subordinate sentence; § 262, 2. 276, 2. It is not translated in English.
- 8. The particle ank a, eventually, then, in that case, is put at the head of the principal sentence after a conditional sentence, the predicate of which is conceived as not real, but only imaginary. § 276, 5. (cf. § 251 Rem. 2.)
- 9. The particle ansā, before, combined or compounded with na, introduces an adverbial sentence of time stating an event subsequent to that of the principal sentence; § 266, 1. The same particle at the end, together with the conj. na at the head of a sentence joined to an antecedent principal sentence, may be translated by till, until; § 266, 2.
- 10. The verb mã serves as a causative particle, = so that, connecting an adverbial sentence of extent, by which an effect or consequence is stated, with a preceding principal sentence; § 273, 1 c.

Examples of the use of these conjunctions, with the verbs ba and ko, one in the subordinate, the other in the principal sentence.

 A. a. α. Qkóè kokáè se abofrá no abà (or mměrà), he went to tell that the boy has come (or shall come).

- β. Okóč ntémtém se * obi rèmmá n'akyì mmetíw` no, he wentvery quick, so that nobody will come after him pursuing him. * or better: à, cf. 3b.
- y. Qkóè sễ, osán bà a, ode ne bá besan abà, he went that in returning he might bring his child back with him.

Qkóò hó sè ne bá mměrá ho bì,

he went to that place that his son might also come thither.

- b. Se wókò hó à, méba ho bì, if you go there, I shall come there too. c. Se wókò nso a, obí beba, though you may go, another will come.
- B. a. Ko kofwe kyèré sè (= se ebià) obéba, go and look whether perhaps he will come.

b. Merenkó gyè sệ woábá ànsã,

I shall not go except (or until) you have come first.

c. Oběko asánom mmom sèn sê oběba abětié asém, he will rather go to drink wine (strong drink), than come to listen.

- I. Efi sê obáà kuróm' há, onkóò bābí dà, since he came into this town, he never went anywhere.
- 2. Efisê óbà há dā nti, mentā' mènkó ne fí,

because he often comes hither, I do not often go to his house.

- f. Obéko n'àním ara akòsí se n'ádàmfo béba abèhyianò, he will go onward until his friend will come to meet him.
- 7. Se obà a, méko, if (it happens that) he comes, I shall go. Kānsese obà a, méko ara, though he come, I shall go still.
- . a. Meko makof wé senèa wó de ponko no fi hyén mù bébafám, I am going to look how the horse will be brought from the ship to the land.
- b. Sénèa Kristosóm abéteréw nhìná, wonkó nikosóm abósóm biò, as far as Christianity has spread, they do not serve the fetishes any more.
- c. Sé(nèa) yeamfa fwé àmma wiase no, sā' nso nà yeremfa fwè nkó (or: se yeremfa fwè nkó nen), as we have brought nothing into this world, so we shall also take nothing with us in going.
- .a. Onípa à wówoó no baà wíase yi, obéfi mù akó biò, a man that has been born into this world will go out of it again.
- b. Wanko ntemntem à obi rentumi mma n'aky mmetiw nò nto nò, he did not go so very quick that nobody could come after him to pursue and overtake him.
- c. Wố bá ara pệ à, ye bé si m' a k ó, as soon as you come, we shall start. Wố bà me n k yến à, mé nè wố bệ kọ m'a fú w mù, when (or if) you come to me, we will go together into my plantation.
 - O'bà me nkyén nso à, merenkó né fí dà, though he come to me, I shall never go into his house.
- 4. Se óbá d, se ommá d, mé dé, méko, whether he come or not, I for my part shall go.
- La. Obáé no, mekóè, when he came, I went away.
 - Akôfo foforo toa so reba abegu mu no, nanso woreko won anim akopam dom no, the more new champions came for reinforcement, the more they went onward, repulsing the enemy. b. Wába yi, méko, as he has come, I shall go.
- Le Obáé ara pe, na mekéé, as soon as he came, I went away.
- L Merékò 'né nà okyéna masán mabà,
 - I am going to-day that I may come back to-morrow.
- Ko na ofófóro mměra! go that another may come!
- . Orébá no (or yi), nâ merek<u>ó,</u> whilst he was (or is) coming, I was (or am) going away.
 - Se obà a, an kã mé ko, if (or in case that) he should come, then I would go.
 - Mekóè ansá-nà obáè, I went away before he came.
 - (Perhaps better: Onnyá mmaé no, na mekóè. Cf. Mekóé no, na onnyá mmaè, when I went away, he had not yet come.)
 - Méko må ofófóro abèsí m'ànánmù, I shall go that another may take my place.

142. (4.) Interrogative particles are the following:

a. at the head of a sentence: so, eno, asa;

b. at the end of a sentence: ana? anā? a?

So gremmá korā? will he, then, not come at all?

Enó dábèn na obéba? at what time, then, will he come?

Asa ehé nà wóreký nà wóbòábòa wohó?

but where will you go, preparing yourself?
Obéba yèn nkyén àná? will he come to us (or, scil. not)? Kófwe se owo fie ana? go and look whether he is at home.

Yebénya adùan wò kwán mù a? shall we get food on the way!

8. INTERJECTIONS.

143. Proper interjections are exclamatory sounds expressing an sudden emotion of the mind or wish that has not grown into a definit thought.

We add to them a number of improper interjections, consisting of single words or even short sentences and contractions of such, the are used in colloquial intercourse. -

Imitative sounds of processes in nature or of actions have bee treated under the head of adverbs, § 134, 2.

144. Enclitic sounds giving emphasis are:

ē (after names); ō (after sentences); e (after a wish or command see also § 91, 3. 170); a (after an emphatic assertion or wish; § 75, 2. The three former usually absorb a previous 'a'. E.g.

Kwad wó é! Ad wó' é! § 45, 2. Ber'ō! móm mer' ó! móm mer'è! com Kó ó! mónko ó! kó è! mónko è! qo! Wókò à! they are gone!

- 145. 1. The following exclamations are expressive of feeling. viz. pleasure, joy, admiration, satisfaction, exultation (cf. 146, 2):
- â, hâ, hahâ, ê, yê, ô; wíè, áyō, osémpa! displeasure, annoyance, regret, abhorrence:

ă, â, ô, ô, áò, kòse!

sorrow, grief, pain:

ál, ál, bóé, bóboé, agy'ē, mírewu(ó)!

surprise, astonishment:

hái, (móyệ dện' ní!) ao, (se woáyệ no ni!) éi, (ade bện' ní!) boë Shouts: hó, hū, wó, yé, mẽ!

2. The following acclamations express also a desire concerning others Calls for attention: ha! fwe! fweofweo! the! munti'o! Expressions of contempt: à, hâ, twea, twea! of challenge: fê'!

Utterances in chasing: háe, háe! in cursing: kál! Hushing words: gyàe! gyàe a! múnnyaè!

- 146. The following particles and phrases may be called colloquial interjections:
- 1. Interrogative particles, see § 142.
- 2. Replies of affirmation, approbation, assent, consent:

yíw', yíè, w íè, ē, e h'ē, b ó é! yes! cf. § 145,1.

two (twew), twebew, twem, twebem, of course, exactly! ampa! wommoa! F. wuntwa apaw! Ky. etera (= ete sa),

ampa! wommoa! f. wuntwa apaw! Ky. etera (= ete sa) indeed, truly, really! you are right! you speak true! so it is! n'ànkā! what else? pâ fěi, be it so!

3. Replies of negation:

dàbí, no, orig. never; this word stands as the only remnant of a whole negative sentence, e.g. wokóù hó pện àná? (menkóù hó) dàbí! have you ever been there? no (viz. I did not go there any day)! dàbídà, no, never (= dabíaradà)! n'nòó! éhèé F. óhòó! no!

. Interjections of politeness, to introduce a saying by way of excuse: tàfarakye, sébé(w), sébéō.

147. Salutations and their replies:

. In approaching to a dwelling &c. (by night): \(\dag{a}g\bar{o}!\) reply: \(\dag{a}m\bar{e}!\)

LAt meeting in the morning, about noon, in the evening:

makyé! mahá! mad wó! = mémà wo akyé, ahá, ad wó, I give you good morning, good day, good evening! Or:

duénèawó! duénè wiá, duénèn wín'ō!

. I pity you concerning the cold - the sun - the coolness!

At parting in the night: nnopá, nnop'ô (mémà wo nnapá), (1 wish you) good sleep! reply: da yíyé, mónna yiy'ó! sleep well! At parting after a visit: mekó mabà (§ 112);

minnyáw w' àse, I don't leave you alone!

At parting for a journey: ménkyé! I shall not stay long!

reply: nantew yiyé, farewell! nkyé! nkyer ō! don't stay long!

For welcoming: abo (aba o)! akwába!

At meeting on the way: ahyia! reply: ahyiahyia!

to or of one that went before: àdikan ó!
At sitting: atrãase (ō)! at eating: aguare ō!

At ealing or at work: kitam'! lay hold of it!

eply: mifuánò! I hold it!

Congratulations: mó! mó mo! woáy(è) adé! wo tíri nkwá!

Condolations: kòse! dùe! hyèden! dárekaná!

Polies on different salutations: yà aberáw! (or, yā ahénewa, yā prado, yā obere, yā amū! to the members of different families, finguished by the worship of different family fetishes); yā on ù á; ad wó! (orig. to one born on Monday, as yā ayísi! to one on Sunday, yā bená, yā wukú, yā-ó, yā afí, yā amén! to one on Tuesday, Wednesday &c. cf. § 41, 4).

PART III.

OF SENTENCES (SYNTAX).

148. A sentence is a complete thought expressed in words. — In every such expression there is 1st, a thing of which we speak, the subject, and 2dly, what we say of it, the predicate.

Different Kinds of Sentences.

149. The predicate may assume the form of an assertion, or a wish, or a command, or a question, or an exclamation, each of which forms may be affirmative or negative.

Accordingly we distinguish: 1. indicative, 2. optative, 3. imperative, 4. interrogative and 5. exclamatory sentences.

- 150. (1.) Indicative sentences contain an assertion; as, Onyankôpón bóò adé, God created (all) things. Duá blakó n'yé kwáe, one tree does not make a forest.
- 151. (2.) Optative sentences express a wish, either in the form of an indicative sentence, usually with the addition of certain particles; as,

Wóbewu! mayest thou die! Se wóbekum' obonéfó à! Ps. 139, 19.

Se ankā wunim nea efa wo asomdwoee ho a! Luk. 19, 42.

Se ankā okari na wokari m'awerehow e! Job 6, 2.

O, se mewo ntabán sè abronoma de é! Ps. 55, 4. A, ankā woatwitwa won agu po! Gal. 5, 12.

Mányà tekremá apém é! O for a thousand tongues!

or, in the form of an imperative sentence, § 152.

152. (3.) Imperative sentences contain a command, exhortation, wish or permission, in the negative way a warning, wish or prohibition; as,

Do wo yónkõ sò wohó! love thy neighbour as thyself! Kó, na nkoyé bòné biò! go, and sin no more! Mmá wo wère mmfi mè! do not forget me! Me bá, fà wó kòmá mà me! my child, give me thy heart!

153. (4.) Interrogative sentences contain a question, which requires either a. an affirmative or negative reply to the whole sentence, or b. the statement of the subject, object or any other member of the sentence. In both cases the collocation of words is the same as in indicative sentences; but in the former case interrogative particles are used, see § 142, in the latter, interrogative pronouns, see § 60.61. E.g.

a. Wo ágyà wo ofie àná? is your father at home? So oremmá ha? will he not come here?

b. Héna nà ábà? who is come? O'sè dén'? what does he say? Woátò ntamá bèn? what kind of stuff have you bought? Wórekò hé? (or: ehé nà wórekò?) whither are you going?

The interrogative tone of the sentence alone may suffice, or the last sound of the sentence is lengthened and sinks into the low tone. E. g.

Wóbeye yén kwankyerefó ako Wasa? will you lead us on to Wasa? Onó nà múbù no fó-ò? him you pronounce guilty?

Sometimes an assertion is expressed in the form of a question, which, then, requires no answer. E. g. Mat. 6, 25. 7, 16.

Okă'rá n'sén aduan' àná? is not the life more than meat? So wotetéw brodomá wo akraté so? do men gather figs of thistles?

Imperative sentences also may be interrogative, in which case an antecedent sentence may be considered as omitted; as,

Mémměrà aná? shall I come? So yénko bí? shall we go too? Cf. Ose mémměrà aná? does he say, I shall come? So wópè sê yénko bì? do you wish us to go likewise?

154. (5.) Exclamatory sentences express a feeling (of joy, grief, regret, displeasure, astonishment &c.) in the form either of an indi-

Nhyirá ne ohéne à onam' Awuradé din so réba! Luk. 19, 38. Onyamé ayamyé so dén ara! how great is God's goodness!

Structure of Sentences.

155. Sentences are either simple or compound.

cative or of an interrogative sentence; as,

1. A simple sentence usually contains one subject and one predicate. When both are simple, the subject consisting merely of a noun or pronoun, and the predicate merely of a verb, we have a bare simple entence; e. g. Onipa kàsá, (a) man speaks. Obi sù, somebody weeps. When one of them or both are enlarged, the subject by an attribute or attributes (§ 183-197), and the verb by one or more complements or adjuncts (§ 198-243), we have an enlarged simple sentence. Rem. Two or more subjects, two or more verbs (one the principal, the other an auxiliary verb), and several complements or adjuncts, may be combined in the same sentence, which is called contracted, then any of the combined parts, together with the other members the sentence, might form an independent sentence. Such sentences treated as simple sentences. § 245.

3. A compound sentence is a combination either (a) of two or more **ordinate** sentences (§ 249-253), or (b) of one or more subordinate sentences with a principal sentence; the latter kind is also called a lex sentence (§ 254-280).

SECTION I. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

CHAPTER I.

The Subject.

The Simple Subject.

156. The simple subject is a noun or pronoun in the nominative case, which usually precedes the predicate. E. g.

Obófó abà, a messenger has come. Osú tò, rain falls, i. e. it rains. Obí sèréw, somebody laughs. Eyí n'yé, this is not good.

When the subject is one of the personal pronouns mentioned in § 53, it is prefixed to the verb. E. g.

Oye abofrá, he is a boy. Yesuró, we are afraid. Wósů, they weep.

- 157. The impersonal pronoun e (prefixed to the verb) stands for the subject (besides the cases in wich it naturally stands for a previous name of a thing or things or persons) —
- 1. When the thing in question, though it turn out to be a person or persons, has not been clearly known or stated before; e.g.

Héna nà onám họ? eye ohéne, who walks there? it is the king. Dén nà ekeká nèhố wò wúrá nom' hó? eye mmofrá bi, what moves there in that bush? it is some children.

2. Before certain verbs, called impersonal, the real subject of which is expressed after the verb, or is left indefinite; e. g.

Esono adwuma (nko), na esono agoru,

work and play are different things. Cf. § 199, 5.

Efanim eyí, na emfánim enó, this is comparatively less bad than that E'pà anyinam, it lightens. Eye anadwó, it is night.

A'kà mẻ, I am left; ákà nấm, meat is wanting. Cf. § 54 Rem. 1. 'Ese wo anigye, nà enyé aniwu, joy becomes you, not shame.

Etwa nó sè ókò, he must go. Etware no, he faints.

(Cf. Adúru no atware no, the medicine hus made him faint.) Ehia me, (it straitens me) I am in a strait, in distress.

Rem. 1. In the two last examples the subject in English has become the object in Tshi. This is also the case in some other phrases, e. 1

Okóm (osukóm, awów) dè me, lit. hunger (thirst, cold) holds (seizes) : e. I am hungry (thirsty, I feel cold).

Ehú akà me, feur has struck me, I am afraid.

and when the verb in Engl. is in the passive form (§ 165 Rem.), e. 1 Woafré no, they have called him = he has been called.

Rem. 2. In examples like the following: Ehiá mè siká, I am in word of money; A'kà me biribi, I am wanting something, — it may be questioned whether sika and biribi are subjects or adverbial adjunction.

158. The subject of the verb ne (§ 102, 1) may exchange its position for that of the nominative complement of the predicate (§199,1), i. e. the subject may stand before or after the verb. E.g.

O'ne ohéne, or: ohéne nen = ne no, he is the king.

Oyí ne héne, or: ohéne ni = ne oyi, this (one) is the king.

Double Expression of the Subject.

- 159. 1. The subject is expressed by the pronoun e, prefixed to the verb, and a noun after the verb, in part of the cases mentioned in § 157.
- 2. The subject is put by itself, preceding the sentence to which it belongs, and afterwards taken up by its corresponding pronoun, by way of emphasis; see § 247, 1.
- 3. When in the utterance of a sentence a pause or interruption intervenes between the mentioning of the subject and of the verb belonging to it, the corresponding pronoun is prefixed to the verb.

Onípa no, ommád e, that man, he has not yet come.

Omission of the Subject.

- 160. 1. The personal pronoun we before the (first) imperative is emitted. § 90, 5. 91, 9.
- 2. The pronoun e-falls off before the prefix a- of the perfect tense and the consecutive form. § 54 Rem. 1. 58, b. 89, 7.
 - 3. The pronoun e- is sometimes omitted by negligence; e.g. before me impers. verb ka; cf. § 276, 5 Rem. E.g.

Ka (= Eka) me nkô à, ankã méko,

if I alone was left, i. e. as for me, I should go.

Oyaré bebod no, kokumā (= ka-kumā, ekaa kumā) mā owu, a sickness befell him, that he almost died.

4. The pronoun e- (or wo-) is also omitted in beye (sè), beboro, troducing an approximate number, weight or measure. § 175, 2. E. g. Nnipa beye du behyiaa ho, about ten persons assembled there. Qwo nkóko beborò aduonu, he has probably more than twenty fowls. 5. On the omission of the subject before successive verbs belonging

the same subject (in contracted sentences), see § 245, 2. (253.) 253a **3,2-5.** 276^a, 2.

Compound Subjects.

161. 1. The subject may be enlarged by attributes, see § 183-197. A peculiar kind of compound subject are the specific subjects of la phrases mentioned in § 215. 217.

Rem. The subject may be expanded into, or expressed by, a sen-; see § 255, 1.

The subject is twofold or manifold, when two or more co-ordi**subjects** are united and have a common predicate; see § 245, 1.

CHAPTER II.

The Predicate.

162. The predicate of a sentence asserts of the subject: wha it is, how or in what state it is, what it does or shall do, or all this in the negative. For such assertions, verbs are used, either alone, or together with other words, called complements and adjuncts, by which also the objects concerned by the action, and the place, time, manner and cause of doing or being, are indicated.

The Simple Predicate.

- 163. 1. The simple predicate consists of one intransitive verb which by itself conveys the complete sense of an action 1), state 2) or quality 3).
 - 1. Mmarimá kò, men are fighting. Mmofrá gòru, children play. Anomá tù, a bird flies. O'sù, he weeps. Woseréw, they laugh.
 Ne nkó nàm, he walks lonely. Onantéw, he walks, goes on fool
 2. Oyaré, he is sick. Wádà, he sleeps. Wáwù, he is dead.

- 3. Okwáń ware, the way is long. Siká bèré, gold is red. Eyé, it is good Rem. Intransitive verbs not only admit adverbial adjuncts of any kind (§ 221-243), but occasionally they admit also objective 1), loca tive 2) or qualitative 3) complements.
- 1. O'sù né nùá, he bewails his brother. Woseréw nò, they laugh at him
- 2. Onam hó, he walks there. Onantéw fám', he walks by land. 3. Woko nkodén, they fight a hard fight. Oyaré yarepa, he is sick of a real sickness. Owun wu-yawyaw, he died a painful death.

N'anim' hoá oyàrehóà, his face is pale with a sickly paleness.

2. The simple predicate consists of one transitive verb, when the object is not expressed, but easily understood, e.g. when it should be a pronoun which is omitted (§ 56 Rem. 1. 202, 3). E. g.

Minim, I know (it). Wáhů, he has seen (it). Ofáè, he took (it).

Compound Predicates.

- 164. 1. The predicate may be a combination of a verb will another word (a noun, adjective, numeral or adverb, single or con nected with other words), by which the predicate is (a) completed o (b) extended.
 - (a) The different kinds of complement see § 198-220.
 - (b) The different kinds of adjunct see § 221-243.
- 2. The predicate may contain two verbs, of which one is the prin cipal and the other an auxiliary verb, each of which may, or may not, have (a) a complement or (b) an adjunct after it. The auxiliar: either precedes or succeeds the principal verb. There may also be two or more auxiliaries to one principal verb. Cf. § 108-111. 245, 2a.

- 3. Any complement or adjunct consisting of, or containing, a noun, may be enlarged by an attribute or attributes. § 183-197.
- 4. A complement or adjunct of the predicate, or an attribute in it, may also be expressed by (or expanded into) a sentence. § 254-280.

Uses of the Inflected Verbal Forms.

165. As the verb either contains the whole predicate, or is the prominent part of it, we review here its inflexional forms. Cf. § 90-93.

Rem. The passive voice of the English and many other languages is supplied in the following ways:

 by active and transitive verbs, having for their subject a. the noun mentioned as the agent of the verb 1);

b. the pronoun of the 3d pers. plur. 2);

c, the pronoun of the 1st pers. plur. or 2d pers. sing. 3);

d. the specific subject of verbal phrases 4);

2. by intransitive verbs 5).

Ohéne asóma nò, he has been sent by the king.
 Onyankôpón nìm no, he is known of God. 1 Kor. 8, 3.
 Onyamé ahà mo, ye are known of God. Gal. 4, 9.

2. Wofre nò, he is called. Woahd me (mù), I am known (1 Kor. 13, 12). Wowoò Yesu wo Betlèhem, Jesus was born at Bethlehem.

- 3. Yéhù adidí ànsá-nà yéhù adé pé, eating is known before acquiring of riches is known. Wúklsá odé bèbrebé à, epirím', when yam is rousted too much, it gets hard.
- 4. Aní ampá won mù biakó sò, not one of them has been forgotten.

5. Ne bá ayéra, his child has been lost.

Ehó nněéma nhìná sákráè, every thing was changed there.

Biribíara nséeè e, nothing has been spoiled yet.

Duá à étò năm nà anó hyèw, of the stick by which meut is roasted, the foremost part is burned.

Present Tense and Continuative Form.

- **166.** 1. The *present tense* denotes an action or state *present* to the speaker:
- u. an action passing at the time in which it is mentioned (actual present).

 Okàsá, he speaks. Onantéw, he walks. Ofré mè, he calls mc.
 Okyeréw nhóma, he writes (or: is writing) a letter.

b. an active or passive state; e.g.

- Ohòmé, he breathes, rests. Oyaré, he is sick.
- 2. It denotes an action or state not confined to the present time, but taking place always or at any indefinite time (indefinite present); so in the subjunctive, conditional or suppositive mode of speaking. E. g. Onyankópón fwe nnipa so, God looks after (or cares for) men.

Osú tò a, asasé bà aduan', when it rains, the earth produces food. Wóyàré à, wófwèfwé adúru, when you are sick, you look for medicine. Se obà a, fre me, when or if he comes, call me.

Obisá mè a, anka méma nò, if he would ask me, I should give him.

3. It denotes an action repeated at any given occasion, in contradistinction from a continuous action or state (iterative present). E. g.

O'bà há dā, he always (or often) comes here. O'dà há, he uses (to lie down) to sleep here.

O'tan no, he hates him now and then. Cf. § 102, 6.

4. The present tense is also used in describing habitual actions of a past time, especially in connection with $d\bar{a}$. E. g.

Tete Hellafo agóru à dá mfrihyiá anán nà wóbegorù wo Olímpía no mù, wode nhweá pì gugú bàbí, na mmeranté tù tú mmìriká fà só kò botáe bi hō, na nea ódù hó kán no nyà abotíri..., na nkurofó bèbrē nó dè ayeyí bò osé fà ne hó. (Abasem &c. pag. 21.)

5. The present tense is used for the preterit (in narration) in the word se (mise, wuse, ose &c.), introducing the words spoken by somebody.

We high a no so: which and a na ded with make !

Wobisáa no se: wóbeko aná? na ósè: yíw', měko!

they asked him saying, Wilt thou go? and he said, Yes, I will go.

Rem. The tone of the present tense is different in the Akem dialect;
e. g. Akuapem: Mísè, Akyem: meséè, I say.

167. The continuative form denotes a continuous (imperfect) action, state or quality, without regard to the beginning or end of it, either in the time present to the speaker, or in the past time. E.g. Oda hó, he lies (is lying) there. Otan no, he hates him (uninterruptedly). Mekof wéé no no, òda hó, when I visited him, he lay (was lying) there. Kán à oté nè nkyén no, òtan no, na áféi dé, òdo no, formerly, when he lived (was living) with him, he hated (was hating) him, but

168. The negative forms of the present tense and the continuative form are not distinguished from each other in tone, as the affirmative forms. E. g.

now he loves him.

Onyé abóa, he is not a beast. Onyé adwuma, he does not work.

Preterit and Perfect Tense.

169. The preterit tense expresses an action performed and finished in (a point of) the past time, previous to the time present to the speaker (Engl. past tense) or previous to an action of the past time (Engl. past perfect). E. g.

Obác 'néra, he came yesterday. Obác no, n'ábusuafo behyiad ho, when he came (or had come), his relations assembled there.

170. The negative form of the preterit implies that the action has not yet been performed in the time present to the speaker, or in the time of another action of the past time, but leaves the question open, whether it will be or was performed afterwards.

Ommáè e, he has not yet come (but may come still).

Wowód Yésú nó, nâ Heróde nwúl e, when Jesus was born, Herod kad not yet died.

- 171. 1. The perfect tense expresses an action performed and completed in the past time, but continuing in its results or effects in the time present to the speaker (Engl. perfect tense, perfect or complete present tense), or in the time of another action of the past time (Engl. pluperfect, perfect or complete past tense).
- 2. Sometimes it represents a past and completed action as a real fact present in memory.
- 3. Sometimes it represents a present state with reference to a previous completed action.
- 4. It denotes habitual action, in the description of the manner in which some procedure is performed.
- 1. Wábà 'né, he has come to-day (and is now here). Wako asu preko, he has gone (and returned, or, has been) for water once.
- Odúù hó no, na owiá apúe, when he arrived there, the sun had risen.

 2. Osufó káé sè: Káno yen na yeatwa nnuá, na yen yérenom asoa nwòra, na yede ahyéw ama Osúbrofó, na wode sráa abán no ho.

3. Ne hõ atew, he is (=has become) holy, is said of a sinner; but we say:
Onyankõpon hõ tew, God is holy (he having never been otherwise).

- 4. Tete Misrifo kà efúnu àkyenkyennúru à, na woayi ne tírim hón nè n'áyàmdé afì né mù, na wode nkyéne bi nè nnúru a hyè amú no, when the ancient Egyptians embalmed a corpse, they took the brains and bowels out of it, and put a kind of salt and spices into the corpse.
- 172. The negative form of the perfect tense implies that the non-performance of the action is a decided fact in the time present to the speaker.

Wammá, he has not come (and the time for his coming is now past). Obíara anká no asém bi, nobody told him any thing. Mat. 22, 46.

Progressive Form.

- 173. The progressive form represents an action
- a in its beginning at the time actually present to the speaker;
- b. in immediate succession to another action;
- a in the progress of performance in the present time or simultaneous with the occurrence of another event (or performance of another action) in the present or past time.
 - a. Osú rebà, rain is coming. Osú retò, it is beginning to rain.
 - b. Merébà, I shall come immediately. Opété tè funu nkã à, nã orebá, when the vulture perceives a carcase, it comes (forthwith).
 - c. Orekyeréw nhóma, he is writing a letter.
 - Mebáa ne nkyén no, na orckán nhóma,

when I came to him, he was reading a book.

- Meréyè adwúma, na wó nso, wúregóru! whilst I am at work, you are playing!
- 174. The negative form of the progressive is also used as a nepative form of the future; see § 177.

Future Tenses.

175. 1. The first future represents an action that will be performed in some time to come, or an action intended. E.g.

Osú beto 'ne, it will rain to-day.

Okáè se obéba okyéna, he suid he would come to-morrow.

2. It expresses also probability in estimating the number of something: Nnípa 'beye sè chá nà ewó ha, men, it will be (something) like i.e. about a hundred are here.

Wáto nkóko bebord aduonu, he has bought fowls (that) will surpass (i. e. that are likely to exceed) twenty.

176. The second future, or future proximate, denotes a future action as coming on certainly and immediately. E.g.

Worebebá mprémpren, they will come immediately.

177. As the negative forms of the 1st future (ommeyé, or contracted onn'y e) and of the 2d future (oremmeye) may be easily confounded with the ingressive forms having the prefix be in the negative, or with the neg. present, or with the affirm. and neg. imperative, the neg. form of the progressive may be substituted for them. E.g.

Osú rentó ne, there will be no rain to-day.

Consecutive Form.

178. The consecutive form expresses an action consecutive to, or resulting from, a previous action, either as the natural, or expected, or intended result and consequence.

It is most frequently used after future forms; in stating a series of future acts, only the first verb is used in the future form, and all the rest have the consecutive form. Cf. § 250, 2.

But the consecutive form is also used after any other form of the verb, and expresses then always an intention or expectation. § 279, 2. (In the following examples the preceding forms are arranged as in § 91.)

1. Yeseré wo amà ahiáfó, we entreat thee for the poor.

2. Wôtê hó ayê (or ágyè) dên? you are sitting there to do (or to receive) what? i. e. for what are you sitting there?

3. Qyéè na wanyā hố asém bi akā,

he did it, that he might have to talk of it.

4. Wode nó abà ofie nà woanya no afweyé, they have brought him home, that they might be able to tend him well.

5. Yeréyè adwúma nà yeanyã biribí adí, we are working, that we may get something to eat.

6. Yebétu abófó afré wòn abá,

we shall despatch messengers to call them. Cf. § 280, 1b.

7. Worebekó akokyére no, they will now go to catch him.

8. Fwe yíyé nà woásiw no asém no sò, na né bó àntú, take care to hide that matter from him, that he be not dismayed. 9. Sakra me kórā, nà masom wo dá,

change me entirely, that I may serve thee for ever.

10. Wómmeso yèn mú, na yeatumí awie,

they shall come and help us, that we can finish it.

179. The negative form of the consecutive is not distinguished in tone from the negative of the perfect. E. g.

Woásiw no kwán, nà wantumí àmmá, they have prevented him, that he may not be able to come; or: and he has not been able to come.

Rem. Verbs joined to negative progressive or future forms without an intervening na, do not assume the a- of the consecutive form.

Obésaw nsú anóm, he will scoop water to drink; Orensáw nsú nnóm biò, he will no more draw water to drink.

Imperative Forms.

- 180. The imperative forms express or contain a command, exhortation, permission, wish or entreaty, implying that not the subject of the action, but some other subject, desires or permits, or, in the negative form, prohibits the action expressed by the verb. By the first imperative a single person spoken to, is addressed directly. The second imperative in all persons, sing. and plur., expresses an indirect, in the 2d. pers. plur. also a direct, command &c.
 - 1. pers. O'sè: ménko (yénko) asú, he says: I (we) shall go for water.
 - 2. pers. O'sè: Ko (monko) asú! he says: go (you shall go) for water. 3. pers. Ose: onko (wonko) asú, he says: he (they) shall go for water.

In a question, the second imperative may also be used in the 2d p. sing. Ménko àná? Shall I go (according to the will of the person asked, or of a third person)?

Wonko ana? Shalt thou go (according to the will neither of the person asking, nor of the person going, but of a third person)?

181. A causative imperative form, compounded with ma is frequently used (cf. § 91, 10. 107, 25.); e.g.

Mà menkó, lit. give or grant I may go, i. e. let me go.

Om'ma menko! he shall let me go!

Mémmã wonko àná? (shall I give you muy go) shall I let thee go?

O'mmã wonko àná? shall he let thee go?

Mã yenko! bera ná yenko! bera má yenko! let us (two) go! mómmã yenko! mómměrá mmã yenko! let us (more than two) go! ómmã monko! he shall let you go! wómmã monko they shall l. y. g.

ómmã (wómmã) wonko! he (they) shall let them go.

Má menkása, let me speak; ómmã menkasa, he shall let me speak &c. In the Akem dialect the construction of this compound imperative is different: The subject of the principal verb is made the object of the auxiliary verb mã, and the principal verb is without the nasal prefix of the imperative (at least after the 2d pers. sing.). E. g.

Mã no ký! let him go! ómmã no ko (or nko?)! he shall let him go!

182. All negative imperative forms add a nasal prefix to the affirmative forms. E. g.

O'sè: mennkó (yennkó) asú! he says, I (we) shall not go for water. Ose: nkó asú! he says, thou shall not go for water. Wósè: mónnkó asú! they say, you shall not go to the water. Mennkó aná? shall I not go? Wónnkó aná? shall thou not go? Mmá měnnkó! let me not go, or, don't let me go! Ommmá měnnkó! he shall not let me go!

CHAPTER III.

Attributes.

- 183. The subject, when consisting of a noun, may be enlarged by attributes; but also any other noun in the sentence, be it a complement or adjunct of the predicate, or even itself an attribute, may be enlarged by attributes.
- 184. Attributes of nouns are 1. the adjective and numeral; 2. the noun in apposition; 3. the noun or pronoun in the possessive case; to the latter belong nouns with postpositions.
 - 1. The Attributive Adjective and Numeral.
 - 185. The adjectival attributes of nouns are
 - a. adjectives of quality and quantity; b. numerals;
 - c. distinguishing adjectives; d. emphatic particles.
 - They are put after the noun to which they are referred. E. g.
 - a. bépow kèsé, a large mountain; nnuá bèbrē, many trees;
 - b. nnípa ohà, a hundred men; nhuán dú, ten sheep;
 - c. duá yi, this tree; odán no, that house; asú bèn, what (which) river.
 - d. ohéne nko, the king only (or alone); abofrá po, even a child.
- 186. When several of these four kinds of attributes are used, they follow each other in the given order a. b. c. d. E. g.

duá kòkurō yi, this large tree; abofrá béň ara, whatever child; nnipa trẽnẽ' bàsá no, those three righteous men; adé foforo abìeň' no nkō, those two new things only.

187. 1. The adjective of quality is often so closely connected with its noun, that it changes the tone of the noun, and assimilates its nasal termination, if it has any; the noun may also lose its terminating syllable, or the adjective, else used in a reduplicated form, its first reduplicated syllable. In such cases the noun and adjective are considered as compounds (either perfect or imperfect, § 30, 1. 2.). E. g-

Apān-nédáw = apám dedaw', the old covenant; odé-amóno = odé mòmonó, raw, unboiled yam; anámmóno, enám mòmonó, fresh, raw meat 5

ohenkesé = ohéne kèsé, a great king; ohemforo, see § 70, 2.

2. Nouns and numerals compounded in a similar manner, see § 80.

- 3. Nouns or pronouns and adjective pronouns compounded, see § 60viz. onīkõ, oyākō, deeben, dekode, adī, ehayi, ehono, bābi, fākō, daben, dabi, dāyi, sē.
- 4. Substantive and adjective pronouns compounded with ara, see § 60.74.
- 188. 1. When two attributive adjectives of quality are referred to the same noun, they are either merely put together, or connected by the conjunctions nè or anase. E. g.

Odán kèsé fofóro bị sì hó, a large new house stands there. Ohúù biribí tùntúm nè fítā, he saw something black and white. Wóbeto ntàmá kòkō' anásè tuntúm? will you buy the red or the blue cloth?

Rem. Not to be confounded with this juxtaposition of two adjectives is the case when an adjective has an adverb after it (as an adjunct); as, duá kökurō pá, a very large tree; nnípa pì pá, a great many people.

2. Sometimes the second of two adjectives is expressed by an adjective sentence; e. g.

To ntama pá à éyè fé (or: ntama féfe à eyé) mầ me, buy a good and fine (piece of) cloth for me.

189. 1. In the place of an attributive adjective, we may also have an adjective sentence (besides the case mentioned in § 188, 2). See § 257.

2. An attributive numeral may have the words beye (se) or (be)boro before it, denoting approximate estimation; e. g. nnipa beye se du = mipa a wobeye se du, about ten persons. § 160, 4. 175, 2. 229, 2. 258, 6.

3. On appositive nouns in the place of English adjectives, see § 191.

2. The Appositive Noun.

190. 1. A noun in apposition is put after the noun or pronoun, to which it is referred, and stands always in the same case with it.

2. Of two nouns combined by apposition, the former is, generally, of a wider sense (a generic name), and the appositive noun gives a specific name, limiting the former to some individual; as,

Ohéne Dáwid, king David; mé wurà ohéne, my lord the king; abóa anànse, the animal 'spider'.

3. Two or more appositive nouns of equal value may be joined to me noun, one after the other (without a comma); as,

Qseé Kwaku Duá Fedu A'gyeman, the king (of Asante) Kwaku D.F. A.

4. Appositive nouns of different value, or an apposition bearing a rider sense than the noun preceding it, or an apposition to a personal ronoun, may be separated in writing by a comma; as,

Israel héne Sálòmo, Dáwid bá, Solomon the son of David, king of Isr.
Yésu Nasarení, I'srael héne, Jesus of Nazareth, the king of Israel.
Wo, Kòfi, na woáyè adé no! thou, Kofi, hast done it!

16, Akuapemfó, moáká akyíri! you Akuapem people stay behind.

191. Nouns of persons, as obarímá, obanín, obéa, and such as are formed by the personal suffix fo or ni, are frequently put in apposition to other nouns, where in Engl. adjectives are used; e.g.

Abofrá obarímá, lit. a child a man, a male child, a boy; abofrá obéa, a girl; akoá sisífó, lit. a fellow a deceiver, a deceitful fellow.

Such nouns often form compounds with the nouns to which they are added (which is seen especially from the changed tone, the principal noun often losing its own high tone); e.g.

Obábarimá, obábanin, obábea, onuabárímá, onuabéa, ohémmea; § 41, 2. Obanimdefó, a cunning person; anomaníferefo, a keensighted bird.

3. The Attributive Noun and Pronoun.

192. The attributive noun or pronoun, or, the noun or pronoun in the possessive case (§ 45, 3), is placed immediately before the word which is qualified by it, in close connection, by which not the attribute, but the word qualified, is often caused to exchange its independent form with its connected form (§ 47-49). E. g.

Esóno wère, the elephant's skin; onipa hônam, man's body; tekremá anò, the tip of the tongue; ofic kwán, the way home; ehó adán, the houses there; obí akùrā', another man's village; yen' kùrów, our town; ehéna sèkan' ni? whose knife is this?

- 193. The attributive noun (or pronoun), in its relation to the noun qualified by it, denotes
- the possessor of that other thing, or a personal or social connection: yen asasé, our country; ohéne aban, the kings palace; mé nùá oba, my brother's son; akoá no wurà, that slave's master.
- the author of a thing, or the subject of an action: <u>o</u>héne mmărá, the king's law; amrâdo nhóma, the governor's letter; bānú adwúma, two men's work; abofrá no agóru, the child's pluying.

3. the object of an action:

asasé no tón ànyé nò de, the selling of the land displeased him.

4. the whole, of which the other thing forms a part:
osekan no fweti, the point of the knife; nnua ase, roots of plants.

 the material of which the thing is made: dwete atere, a silver spoon; kuntu ntade, woollen clothes.

6. the contents of a thing:

agyán kòtokú, a bag for arrows, a quiver; nkyéne páe, a bag of sall.

- 7. the place where a thing is, from which it comes, to which it tends:
 okwańkych dùa, a tree by the wayside; cho ade, the things there;
 Abrokyiri kente, a sort of country-cloth from Europe;
 osórò kwań, the way to heaven.
- 8. the time of an action:

anadwó adwúma, work by night; awia adidi, a meal at noon.

9. the quality ascribed to a thing, or the manner of some action: nokware Nyankopon, the true God; nokware ahonu, true repentance.

10. the cause or origin, the purpose or end and aim of an action: odó mmòdénbó, lubour of love; siká adwúma, a work for money.

Rem. The place or other relation is frequently stated by a noun or pronoun with a postposition, so that the latter is the direct attribute to the noun qualified, and has the noun, to which it belongs, as an attribute before it; e. g.

opóń sò ntàmá, the cloth upon the tuble; okwáń mù asém, a word (heard) in (or on) the way; né nùá hō ňkòmmó, the anxiety for his brother.

In this manner all the nouns of place and relation appear in the possessive case, when the English prepositions corresponding to them show the relation of one noun or pronoun to another noun; e. g.

me hố asóm, a matter about (or concerning) me; odán akyì duá no, the tree behind the house.

194. In many of the cases stated above, the attributive combination passes over into real *compounds*, indicated by changes of tone and of sounds, especially dropping of prefixes; e. g.

anyamesém = Onyamé asém, the word of God; see also § 51, 3. sikadwúma, akwanmusém, § 193, 10. Rem. anadwobóa, night-animal (nocturnal bird &c.); cf. § 193, 8.

195. Double expression of the attribute is met with in some cases:

1. When the attributive noun is the name of a person, especially a proper noun, the pronoun ne may be added to it; e.g.

Nóà n'ágyà né hena? who was Noah's futher? Yósèf né nùánom baè, Joseph's brethren came.

Rem. The Mfantsi Grammar (pag. 10. 89.) makes it a rule that the possessive case "is distinguished by a personal pronoun in the possessive case annexed to the noun", e. g. anoma ne ntekere, bird its feathers; nnoma wore ntekere, birds their feathers. This seems to be a singularity of that Fante dialect; in other dialects it would sound rather childish, and 'anoma ntakara, nnoma ntakara' is quite sufficient.

2. When the emphatic particles ara, ankasa are added to the attributive pronoun, the single pronoun is repeated; e.g.

méara me fi, my own house; nànkasa ne na, his own mother.

196. 1. When the word, to which an attribute is referred, has been mentioned before, the pronoun de or dea is put for it. § 62. Mat. 22, 31. 32.

Asów yi n'yé wò dé, nà eye me déà! this hoe is not yours, but mine! But even this may be omitted; e. g.

Héna ba ne no? Dáwid. Whose son is he? David's. Mat. 22, 42.

Rem. The emphatic particle de (§ 75, 3) must be distinguished from the pronominal de; both may be used together; e.g.

Mé sèkan' yè nnam; na wó dé dé, ènyé nnàm, my knife is sharp; but as for yours, that is not sharp.

2. A subordinate sentence may stand in the place of an attributive noun; see § 255, 6.

4. Different Attributes added to one Noun.

- 197. Two or all three kinds of attribute (§ 184) may be used at the same time for only one noun, be it a subject 1) or object 2 or other complement or adjunct of a verb, or be it an attributive noun 3
 - 1. Me nua kũmā Kofi Badu adan foforo abien no ahyew,

those two new houses of my youngest brother K. B. are burned. The subject addn (6) has three different adjectival attributes (7,8,7) after it, and before it an attributive noun (2), which again has a attributive pronoun (1) before it, and an attributive adjective (3) and two appositive nouns (proper names) after it.

2. When we say, Woahyew me nua... adan... no, they have burned those... houses of my... brother..., then we have the subject of the former sentence (adan) as an object, being a complement of the

verb (ahyew), to which a new subject (wo-) is prefixed.

3. When we say, Me nùá...adán...no hyéw (à éhyewé no) yè me yáw sê, the burning of those..houses of my..brother..grieres me much,— then we have the word adan as an attribute to the new subject hyew.

In these three sentences the different attributes are always the same.

CHAPTER IV.

Completion of the Predicate.

198. The predicate is completed, when the verb alone does not suffice to express a complete thought.

The different kinds of complements of the verb are:

- 1. nominative complements (of identity, character, quality, number);
- 2. objective complements, or objects, one or two for a verb;
- 3. locative complements, or complements of place;
- 4. adverbial complements of manner;
- 5. specific complements of verbal phrases (equal to any of those mentioned under 1, 2, 3 or 4).

All these are integrant or necessary parts of the predicate.

1. The Nominative Complement.

199. Certain verbs of existence (§ 102, 1) require nominative complements, consisting of a noun or pronoun, adjective or numeral.

1. Identity of existence is expressed by the verb ne (old: de), and a noun or a pronoun. The subject and the complemental noun signifying the same person or thing, the position of both can be interchanged without materially altering the sense. E. g.

Mé nùá ne Kòfi (Kofi ne me nùá) my brother is Kofi (K. is my br.)-

Ohiání asòmmén ne bàtafósě, a poor man's ivory is a hog's tooth Boné akàtuá ne wú, the wages of sin is death.

Yehówà né Nyànkôpón, the Lord, he is the God. 1 Kings 18, 39. Okesé no ne wo, the great one art thou = thou art the greatest. Nhyirá ne mo, blessing i.e. all blessed are you.

Rem. When the pronouns yi or no are made the complement of ne, ey are contracted with the verb into ni, nen (Ak. di, de no, do no).

g. Mé nằ ní = me nã ne oyi (oyi ne me nà), this is my mother; m'ágyà nen = m'agya ne no (óne) m'ágyà, he is my father; owó ni! this or here is a serpent, also: this (picture) represents a. s. Míni! here I am; wúni! here thou art: óni (éni)ō! here he (it) is; yến ni! here we are; múni! here you are; wón ni! here they are! Onen, it is he; onóara nen, he is the very same person.

Existence in a distinct individuality, or in appurtenance to a certain class of things, is indicated by the verb ye in the continuative form, = to be, and a complemental noun or pronoun. E.g.

Eye héna? who is it? èye onipa bèn? what (or which) man is it? èye mé, Kòfi, it is I, K.; eye wón nà éyeé, it is they who dit it. Eye ohéne, it is the king; eye ohéne bi, it is a certain king; òye ohéne, he is a king; one héne (no), he is the (that) king; odd héne, he is (rules as) king.

Eye dén na ótón? what is it that he sells? eye nkóko, it is fowls. Enyé bìribí, it is (also: it makes) nothing; eye asenkesé, it is an important matter. Eye siká, enyé awówa, it is gold, not brass. Patú yè anomá, the owl is a bird (is of the class of beings called b.). Anomá yi yè patú, this bird is an owl (of a class of birds called o.). Onípa no yè otorófo, that man is a liar. Eye me déà, it is mine.

Existence in a certain quality, state or condition, is indicated by the verb ye, to be, and a complemental adjective. E. g.

Nkóko bi yè fúfu, ebí yè tuntúm, some fowls are white, others black. Sûmpi' yè duru, led is heavy; asáwá yè hare, cotton is light. Okwán yi yè tetere, osá no yè hihiā',

this way is broad, that path is narrow.

Rem. Quality, espec. colour and dimension, and state or condition, refrequently expressed by verbs. § 85, 3, 102, 4.

Existence in a certain number is indicated by the verbs ye, si, gu, nam, boro (in the continuative form) and a numeral (or adjective of quantity).

Asố yè abien, ānó yè biakố pe, the ears are two, the mouth is only one. Dáwid nuánom si ahé? wòsi asón, David's brothers were how many? seven. Ntráma ahé nà égu họ? èsi atíri dú, how many cowries are lying there? there are ten heads. Qdé ahórow gù ahé? eboro aduonu, there are how many kinds of yam? more than twenty. Yenam bāsía, we are six of us.

Indefinite number is better expressed by verbs, than by adjectives; b.g. Wosna (woye kakrábi), they are few; wonnoso, they are not many; wodoso (wosi bebre), they are many; edoso, it is enough. The verbs ye, si, boro, are also used in the future tense; cf. § 175,2. Wobéye (se) dú, they will be (about) ten.

Wobési hà, they will amount to hundred.

Odé ahorów no, ebéborò aduasă, the different kinds of yam may be more than thirty. Ennú sà, they are not so many.

5. Difference of existence is indicated by the verbs sono, fanim (usually with the impersonal prefix e), and a noun or pronoun (after the verb), which, however, is rather to be called the subject than a complement. Cf. § 157, 2. E. g.

Esono asém yi mù, na esono eyi mù, the contents of these two stories are different. 1 Mos. 40, 5. Ezek. 22, 26. Acts 15, 9. Aniwu nè wù, nâ efanim wù, of shame and death, the latter is preferable. (Prov.) Cf. § 248, 5. 102, 5. Mat. 11, 22, 24.

6. Change of existence is indicated by the verbs ye (in all its forms except the continuative), to become, grow; dan, to turn, become; nyin, bo, to grow. The new kind of existence is expressed by a noun or adjective. E. g.

Wáyè ohéne, he has become king; wáyè kesé, he has become stout. Duá hyèw a, edań gyàbíriw nè nsó, when wood burns, it is turned into coal and ashes. Edáň woň ámáň abìeň no kó, it turned out into a war between those two nations. Qmamfraní n'nyíň króňkroň, a foreign settler does not become pure i. e. a perfect native. Wányìň or wábò akwakorá (aberewá), he (she) has grown an old man (woman).

2. The Objective Complement, or Object.

- **200.** 1. Transitive verbs require complements in the objective case, briefly called objects. The object is
- a. the thing (or person) that suffers the action, or is affected or otherwise concerned by it,—the passive object. § 201-203. 204, 1-3. Or it is b. the thing produced by the action,—the resultive object. § 204, 4.
- c. Or it is the person (or thing) interested or concerned in the action to whose benefit or detriment something is done, to whom something
 - is given, or from whom something is taken; we call it the terminative or (as it stands after many verbs that imply giving) the dative object. Cf. § 45, 4. 46, 4.
 - 2. Some transitive verbs take two objects:
- a. a passive and a resultive (or factitive) object, § 205.
- b. a dative and a passive object, § 206.

In both cases we call the passive object the direct, and the other the indirect object.

3. A few intransitive verbs also may occasionally have an object joined to them, concerning which the action takes place, or which gives occasion to it or calls it forth; we call it the object of concern. It is

not a necessary, but an accessory complement (because the verb gives a complete sense without it), and is, therefore, equal to an adjunct of cause (§ 240, 1a, b.); e.g.

O'sù né nùá, he bewails his brother; — ôsù né nùá hō, he weeps about (or on account of) his brother, — ôsú mà né nùá, he weeps for his brother.

Oseréw` ne bá, he derides (laughs at) his child; — oseréw` ne bá hō, he laughs about (i. e. at) his child, — ne bá nti òseréw, he laughs on account of his child.

- 4. Intransitive and transitive verbs occasionally have their infinitive form, simple (without or with an attribute) or compound, joined to them like an object, which serves either to give emphasis to the verb a), or to express the manner (quality or degree) of the action b), or to form verbal phrases conveying a new notion c).
- a. Nná nà wádá, nà wańwú, he sleeps a real sleep, but he is not dead. b. Wáda owú nna, he sleeps the sleep of death.

Wádà maho, he sleeps a deep sleep.

O'kò nkōdén, he fights a hard fight.

Obó ara nà óbó me, with continued striking he strikes me.

- c. O'bò mmodén, he exerts himself. O'bò mmòfóro, he begins afresh.
- 5. Locative complements, specific complements of verbal phrases and various adjuncts may be found combined with objects. Cf. § 246.

On the Form and Position of the Object.

201. 1. The object is expressed by a noun, pronoun or any other word or combination of words equivalent to a noun. It may be simple or compound like the subject. (§ 156, 161, Co-ordinate objects, see § 245, 3. Sentences in the place of objects, see § 255, 3.)

When verbs take two objects, each of them may be simple or compound.

2. When the object has a postposition after it, we may in some cases call it a (compound) object of concern (cf. § 200, 3); e. g.

O'dwen né nà hó, he thinks of his mother (d w en is transitive, cf. ódwen asem; this word asem might even be supplied, whereby the words né nà hó would appear as the compound attribute of the object). O'dwen né dàé no sò, he meditates on his dream.

Cf. Acts 10, 19. Luk. 2, 19. and: susuw hō, susuw so, Acts 12, 12.

But in most cases we take the postposition either as a localire complement relative to, and defined by, the noun (or pronoun) before it, § 207, b., or as a specific complement of a verbal phrase, § 213.

3. The position of the object is usually immediately after the verb to which it is the complement; attributes of the object in the possessive case must, of course, intervene. E. g.

O'bò me, he strikes me; wábò n'aní, he has knocked out his eye. Obòò ahiná, he broke a pot; obòò né nùá ahiná,.. his sister's pot. 4. When necessary, the object assumes the connected form, § 47,2c. § A Fa obó no, take that stone! tow bó no, throw that stone! Wáto odé (31,13), he has bought yam.

Wafúa odé (133, 32), he has planted yam.

5. The object may be put by itself at the head of the sentence, by way of *emphasis* or from other reasons (§ 247), and is, then, in its proper place after the verb, either indicated by a corresponding pronoun (no, won), or understood. E. g.

Onípa, wón'nó nò nná nhìná, you do not always lore (the same) man. Okyēkyéfó adé, nkurá nà édí, a miser's goods the mice eat.

Omission of the Object.

202. 1. An indefinite passive object of transitive verbs, which is omitted in English, is not equally omitted in Tshi, but indicated by ade, thing, or onipa, man. E. g.

Osékán twa adé, a knife cuts (things). Okromfó wiá adé, a thief steals (things). Owó ka onípa, a serpent bites (man).

Ānkā meye onifuraefo, na áfèi míhū ade, whereas I was blind, now I see. Oseréserè ade, he begs. Joh 9, 7, 25, 39, (41.)

2. In other cases it may be omitted (though in English it be indicated), when it can be guessed from the nature of the verb, from the context, or from circumstances. E. g.

Aníwa nyà a, na fwéne anyà, if the eye gets (a thing), the nose

gets (it too). Prov.

Wo nsá dàm' à, wonní n'nyáw wò, if your hand is in (the dish), they will not eat (viz. the food contained in it) leaving you aside. Wonní à, wonnōá, if they do not eat (a thing), they do not cook (it).

Rem. The simple verb di, to eat, is always transitive, relative to an object, but the reduplication didi is intransitive. § 99, 2. E. g.

Wuntumi n'ko nè nkyén; odidi; you cannot go to him, he is at med

3. When the object is a person or animal that has been mentioned just before, it is, as in English, denoted by a pronoun. E.g.

Oguán no atèw, kókyerè no, the sheep has broken loosé, go catch il.

4. But when the object is an inanimale thing, the pronoun is usually omitted. E. g.

Wódè nắm no beye dèn? ménõa madí, what will you do with that meat? I will cook (it and) eat (it).

The Object an Infinitive.

203. 1. Several verbs may take an infinitive as their object; e.g. sũa, to learn; kyere, to show, teach; hũ, nim, to know, understand; tumi, to be able, can; bõe, to begin; kye, to delay; gyae, to leave off; wie, to finish, complete.

An infinitive of a transitive (or locative) verb has its object or obects (or locative complement) before it, like an attribute in the posessive case; a noun, being a single object, and the infinitive are often nade up into one compound word. E. g.

Osūá okènkán or nhôma kán or nhômakán, he learns to read.

Okyeré nò (nhôma) kyeréw or nhômakan, ne tearns to read.
Okyeré nò (nhômakán) ntém, he will soon understand to read.
Onim kô, he knows to fight; onim ntráma kán (ntramakán), he can count cowries; minním aduan yi dí, I cannot eat this dish (having never eaten it before). Ehofo tumi ahoho five, the people there are able (are so bold or impudent as) to flog strangers. Onnyaé sú, he does not leave off weeping; wagyáe nò fivé, he has left off beating him; wannyaé nò yiyé yé, he has not left doing him well. Ruth. 2, 20. Wawie n'asém no ká, he has finished (to deliver) his speech. Owiéè n'ásūáfó no kàsakyeré, he made an end of commanding his disciples.

Mat. 11, 1.

2. In the compound frequentative verbal form wanyā nyee (§ 107, 22) we have likewise an infinitive as the object of the verb nyā, and such an infinitive may have one or two objects, or a locative complement, or even an adjunct, before it, like an attribute. E. g.

Wányà hộ nkoè, he has often gone there. Wányà no số nkãè, he has often told it so.

Mányà no nkãkyeree, I have often told him.

Mányà no fó ntuì, I have often admonished him.

Wonyáž no mpokyeré nnui, he had been often bound with fetters.

Mark. 5, 4.

Rem. The verb pe, to seek, desire, like, love, be fond of, wish for, and the verb tumi, to be a match for, be equal to, are construed with a passive object, which may also be an infinitive. E. g.

Kópe apàfó bi běra, go seek some (hired) labourers (or carriers)

and come with them. Wope oko, they are fond of war.

Ope agoru sèn adivimaye, he likes playing better than working.

Ope n'ásém, he likes him. Ope no, he loves her.

Mepe hó mmòm' sèn há, I like that place better than this.

Métumi no, I shall be able to match or to overcome him.

Otumi no, he is a match for him, is equal to him.

Woantumi won, they could not withstand or overcome them.

Ontumi adivuma no, he is unequal to this business.

Otumí sā yò, he often does so, is well versed in doing so, is accustomed, knows well to do it (sā is a complement of manner turned into an attribute before the infinitive yo = ye).

Other constructions of pe, to wish, be willing, will, tumi, to be able, can, see § 256 Rem. Cf. § 107, 12. 23.

Passive and Resultive Objects.

204. 1. Of passive objects, examples are found in § 201, 3. 4. 202. 1. **203.** and elsewhere.

2. We add some which we may call reciprocal objects (Riis' Outline &c. § 189, 1 a), the action expressed in the verb being conceived as mulual between the subject and the object, so that we may transfer the object to the place of the subject, and the subject to that of the object, without materially altering the sense; or both of them may be made co-ordinate subjects or united into one pronominal subject. E.g.

Abofrá yi sè n'ágyà, this boy is like his father; agyá no sè ne bá, that father is like his son; abofrá yi nè n'ágyà se, this boy and his father are alike; agyá no nè ne bá sè, that father and his son are alike; ose no, ó-nè nó sè, wòse or wòsesec, they are alike.

Ose owú, or owú sè no, he deserves death (or death becomes him).

Atadé yi fàtá nò, this garment suils him.

A se moné fatá öhim.

a bad deed sits (is likely to be committed by) a poor man. (Prov.) Mihyiáà no wo kwán mù. I met him on the road; ó-nè mé hyiáb a or yehyiáè (wo) hó, he met with me or we met coume together) there.

3. Another kind of passive object is found with predicates expressing to

a bodily or mental affection, and taking a pronoun as an object, which denotes the person affected. E. g.

Me tí bèn me, my head arhes. Né sẽ tutúw nò, he has an aching took. Me hó dŵiríw mè, I am astonished, shocked, I shudder. Me hó yèráw mè, I am in anxiety or perplexity.

4. A resultive object we have in the following sentences:

Otomfó bò asów, the smith forges a hoe (-cf. the passire object in: Otomfó bò dadé, the smith hammers iron).
O'nwène tám, he weares cloth; ósèn akonnuá, he carres a chair; ókà asém, he delivers a speech; ósì apiní, he utters a groan; éyè ahúrn, it produces foam; duá sòw abá, the tree bears fruit; asasé bà aduan, the earth produces food.

Direct and Indirect Objects.

A passive with a resultive object.

205. 1. A direct or passive object is, by the action expressed in some verbs, made or turned into, or appointed or considered as, or called, something else, expressed by the indirect or resultire object, which is, in this case, called the factilitie object. E. g.

Woygo no safohéne, they made him captain; wosh no héne, they set him (up as) king; cf. 5. wohygo no sófó, they appointed him (to be) priest; obàyífo dàn nèhó osebó, a sorcerer transforms himself into a leopard.

2. After the verb bu, to reckon, esteem, consider, the particle se, us, may introduce the second object; e.g.

Wobúù no (se) opanyín, they esteemed him (as) an elder; obúù no (se) onyansafó, he counted him (as) a wise man. Onyankópón apaw mó se n'ádwùmayedé, God has chosen you (as) his instruments.

3. The indirect object may also be an adjective, before which a noun, eviously mentioned or referred to, may be understood; e. g.

Obůù no kesé = onipa kesé, he esteemed him great = a great man; ohyiráà homédá no, na oyéè no króňkroň = da króňkroň,

he blessed the day of rest and made it holy = a holy day; chyée ntamá no kèkē', he dyed the cloth red; obóè dadé no tère, he hammered the iron flut; wáyè họ pasā, he has made there desolute, laid the place waste; wáyè won pásā, he has ulterly destroyed them.

4. The verbs expressing to call, to give a name to, have usually o objects; e.g.

Wofré no Kofi, they call him K.; wotóo no A'dow, they named him A. In 'wofré ne dín se Kofi' we have two verbs, each with a single object; 'wotóo no dín Adow, they gave him the name A.', we have two jects like those in § 212, and Adow is an apposition to din; 'wotoo ne din Adow', we have one object, din, with an attributive onoun and an apposition.

5. In some of the above mentioned cases, the passive object may so have its own verb de (or fa in the imperative and negative forms), that we have two co-ordinate predicates, each with its complement. : § 245, 2a.

Wode nó yeè osafohéne; wode nó siì héne; wode nó hyeè osófó. Wode nó toò A'dòw; another construction would be:

Wode né wòfa A'dòw dín toò no, they named him after his uncle A. Item. We might call an indirect object or a complement of comparison the object with which a direct object, introduced by the verb de or fa, is compared; e. g. Obi m'fá abérekyi n'tó guàntén hō, nobody compares a goat with a sheep. Cf. § 253°, C. what we shall find mentioned in § 235 c. as an adjunct of extent

or concern.

A dative with a passive object.

206. 1. The dative object stands after verbs expressing that someting is given or imparted to or bestowed on the object (the subject eing the giver and the object the receiver), or, that something is taken relicited from the object (so that the object is the giver). Such verbs are: mā, to give; kye, to present; kyere, to show, teach; here, to bring; ye, to do (good or harm), to cause; gyaw, to leave to yi, to hand out, give out to, and: to call forth from; gye, to take from; bisa, to ask from; bua, to answer.

The thing given, the passive or direct object, follows after the dutive indirect object. E. g.

Omáa me sékán, he gave me a knife;

okyée me dûkū', he presented me with a handkerchief;

pkyeréè me mfonini, he showed me a picture. Cf. 2.

Widi né nhìna, wannyaw mè bi, he has eaten all and left me nothing.

Máyè wo boné, I have done thee wrong, evil. waye me yiye, he has done me good, shown me kindness. Eve me anigve, it gives me joy; cf. évè me fe, it makes me alad: éyè me yaw, awerehow, it gives (causes) me pain, grief. O'vi me abufúw, he provokes me to (calls forth from me) anger; óyì me awerehów da, he always causes me grief; oyì me ntén, he prefers a charge against me, expostulates with me. Woyl ohene tow, they pay tribute or taxes to the king; ohene yl won tow, the king raises tribute, taxes, from them. Woagyè me sika pi, they have taken much money from me. Okáa me asém bi, he told me something; obisáa me asém bi, he asked me something; mammuá no five, I answered him nothing.

2. In some of the above-mentioned cases, the passive object may also have its own (auxiliary) verb de (or fa, § 108), and then precedes the principal verb with its dative object, so that we have two coordinate predicates, as in § 205, 5.

Ode sékán no mãå me; ode dûkū vi kyeè me; ode mfoníni bi kyeréè me. Ode ne bá běrež me, he brought me his child. Mede asém no mibisáà no, I asked him about that matter: ode nsém vi buaà me, he answered me with these words.

In other cases the indirect object is introduced by a directive verb as an auxiliary, following after the principal verb and its passive object, - so that we again have two co-ordinate predicates, of which we call the second an auxiliary. Cf. § 243 b.

Okáž asém bi kyèréè me, he told me something. Ogyáw' né sìká mãà me = ogyáw' me né s., he left me his money. Other [co-ordinate] auxiliary verbs may be used besides; e.g. Wakyérew nhóma dè abére mè = wakyérew mè nhóma, he has wrillen me a letter. Mé nso měkyeréw bi (mã wode) komát no = mekyeréw no bi, I also wrote one to him.

- 3. The Locative Complement, or Complement of Place.
- 207. Locative verbs, i. e. verbs implying rest or motion in, or direction to or from a place, require a complement of place.

The place forming the complement is indicated

- a. in an absolute way, without express reference to another object, by a noun or pronoun or adverb of place; § 118, 2. 119. 122. 123, 2. 124-128.
- b. as referring to some other thing (or person), by a noun or pronoun with a postposition; § 118, 3, 119, 122, 123, 1, 124, 125.
- E. g. a. Owo fie, he is at home; ote ho, he sits or lives there. b. Owo dán mù, he is in the house; ote ne bá hõ, she sits by her child.
 - **208.** Such *locative verbs* are the following:
 - 1. Verbs denoting rest in or at a place:
 - wo, neg. nni, to be; te, to sit, be, dwell, live (at a place);

ka, to remain, be left (at a place); di, to occupy (a place); trã, tĕnã, to stay (cf. 4); kye, to stay long.

Siká bi wò mé fotó mù, there is some gold in my bag.

Onui dán mù na onni turóm, he is neither in the house nor in the Ote n'águá sò, he is silting on his chair. [garden.

Akyém héne tè Kyebí, the king of Akem resides at Kyebi.

Wákà bābí, he has remained somewhere i.e. he is dead.

Obétrá ha nnànnú, he will stay here two days.

Orenkyé ha biò, he will no more stay long here.

Obédi ho nnànsá, he will pass there three days. [In this sentence, ho may be taken as an adjunct of place (§ 225, 3), but in odi ho, he is the second (§ 83, 2), it is a complement.]

2. Verbs denoting motion in a place:

nam, to walk, kyin, kyini, to move round, run about, rove, roam; fa, to take one's way (through, over, along).

Onam (or onennam) abontén sò, he is walking on the street. Obommofó kylni wúrám', the hunter roves through the bush. Wáfa mfikyiri, he has taken his way behind the house.

3. Verbs denoting rest in a place in the continuative form, and tion to a place in all the remaining forms, used either intransitively, causatively after the auxiliary verb de (or fa):

gyina, si, tā, to stand, to place; tweri, to lean against; da, to, gu, bew, bea, boa, sam, butuw, to lie, to lay, cast &c. sisi, to sit, perch; kotow, to stoop, kneel; sen, to hang, to squat; konkon, to hang, soar; tene, to creep, lie lengthway; ben, benkye, pini, Ak. pinkye, to approach, be near, draw, neur. Ogyina hó, he is or was standing there; okogyináà hó, he went and stood there; gyìna họ! stop! ode nó gyinaà họ, he placed him there. Duá bi sì né dán anim', a tree stands before his house. Orésì bóntó no mù, he is stepping into the boat. Nsú tà mfikyiri, water stands behind the house. Qyaré dà mpá sò, he lies sick on his bed. Okodáà duá bi ase, he lay down under a tree. Qwó bèa okwánmù, a serpent is lying in the way. Nhuán bi bòa abontén sò, some sheep are lying in the street. Akóko bùtuw n'ábá sò, the hen sits hatching. Ode né túo twèrn duá, he leaned his gun against a trec. Okotów nè nankroma anim', he is kneeling. Yéabèn kurów no hō, we are now near the town.

4. Verbs denoting motion to a place, either intransitive, or causative ith de (or fa):

ba, to come; ko, to go; du, to arrive; duru, to descend, come down; so, to reach; kā, to touch at; pem, to knock at; trā, to sit; f we, to, to fall; f we, to look; kyere, to show, turn, direct to or towards; kyene, to throw, hurl towards; t wa, to cut across, pass; tra, to leap, jump, pass over; mia; to press upon; huw, fita, to blow upon, at, into; fiti, to bore, prick; hyen, to enter.

M'ádamfo bí aba me nkyén, a friend of mine has come to me. Manyá madù fie ni! now at length I have arrived at home! Trà ase! sit down! Qtráa oponkó no sò, he sat upon the horse. Wáto (or wáfwe) amoam', he has fallen into a pit. Né mfénsèré kyéré apùei, his window shows eastward. Wotów' Yónà kyenéè pom', they cast Jonah forth into the sea. Ohurúw traà oká no, he leaped over the ditch. Adésoa no miá mè tí sò, the load presses my head. O'hùw ne nsám', he blows into his hands. Ofitá ogyá mù, he funs the fire. Ofitíl or ohyén dán mú ara pe nà omáž akyé, us soon as he entered the room, he greeted.

(Infinitives appearing like locative complements, see in § 126, 280,2)

5. Verbs denoting motion from a place:

fi (firi), to proceed or come from; gyaw, to leave.

The verb fi (firi) in the continuative form denotes appurtenance to a place: to be from; in other forms, especially in the ingressive forms (with the prefix be or ko), it denotes, as the verb pue, lo appear, come forth, make one's appearance somewhere. E.g.

Abófó bi fil Kúmase baè, messengers came from Kumase. Osafohene yi fi Akyem, this captain is from Akem. Onipa yi abéfi mè mu, this man has come to me unawarcs. Wáfi mensá or wáfi mensám aguán, he has escaped from me. Wabefi me nsam', he has come to me, I have got him. Wanue abontén sò, he hus shown himself in the street. Ogyaw ho koe, he departed from thence. Mat. 16, 4. Joh. 4, 3. 43. [Cf. Ogyáw no hó koè, he left him there and went away. Here gyaw is used transitively and ho is an adjunct of place.

4. The (adverbial) Complement of Manner.

209. 1. A mode of existence is expressed by the verb te (§ 208,1) and a complement of manner, consisting in a pronoun (den? sa, sā, sā ara, se) or the adverb yiye, well for a comparison expressed by the conjunction se with a noun or pronoun or a sentence, cf. § 255, 5]. E.g.

Ote dén'? ne hố tè dén? how is he? ote yíyé, ne hố tè yíyé, he is well.

Oda só tè sáara, he is still in the same state.

Ote sé(nèa eté) 'néra, he is us (he was) yesterday.]

Ete sa, sa nà cté, sé cté ara ne no, se 'te nen, se 'te ni,] so il is.

Ote sé ono (tè), he is like him, similar to him.

Onyamé asém tè sê ogyá, the word of God is like as u fire. Jer. 23, 29.

2. The verb ye, to become, making up for the verbal forms wanting in the verbs te (see 1) and ye, to be good, assumes the same complements of manner. E.g.

A'yè yiyè, it is well now. Ebéye sà, it will be so. Wo hố beye yiyé biò, thou wilt be well again.

Rem. The complement of manner may be enlarged by an adverb of degree. E. g. Ote yiyê pése; aye yiyê kóra; etc sa' pe.

The examples in 1. 2. may also be taken to § 233, 234.

3. Other complements of manner, showing similarity, instrument, also cause or origin of an action, are found among the specific complements of verbal phrases, § 211. 212. E. g.

O'di no nyá, he treats him like a bought slave, he illtreats him. O'kà no mma', he touches him (with) sticks, i. e. he flogs him. Wábow nsá, he has become weak from strong drink, i. e. he is intoxicated.

5. Specific Complements of Verbal Phrases.

210. A verb expressing the notion of an action in a wide and general sense, may take a specific complement, so that both words together denote one new idea, which in the English and other languages is usually expressed by a single verb. Such peculiar combinations we call verbal phrases. (By other Grammarians they are called compound verbs; but in a vernacular grammar, such phrases must needs be treated as syntactical combinations, not as mere verbs.)

Seven different kinds are to be enumerated in § 211-220.

- 211. The first kind of verbal phrases contains such in which the specific complement has the nature either of an object, or of a complement of manner. Some of the nouns used as complements are scarcely used otherwise but in connection with the peculiar verb to which they belong; the real meaning of them is often obscure, so that we cannot easily discern between the objective and adverbial complement. But we distinguish
- 1. intransitive combinations, denoting actions or states confined to the subject; some of them become transitive, when the verb is used causatively;
- 2. transitive combinations, taking a passive or dative object between the verb and its specific complement.
 - 212. (1.) Intransitive verbal phrases are e. g. the following: bo dam, to go mad; trans. (with a pass. obj.): to drive mad; wabo dam, he is mad; ebébo mè dám, it will drive me mad. bo gua (cf. agua, seat, egua, market, assembly), to assemble; caus (often with a dative object) to call together an assembly; weábò guá, they hold a council. Brohéne no baé no, ohéne boò no guá, when the governor came, the king convoked an assembly in his behalf.

bo tuo, lo shoot one's self; bow nsa, to be intoxicated;

da adagyaw, to be nuked; da nsow, to be distinguished by a mark; di bata, di gua, to barter, to trade;

ódì ntamá guá, he trades in cloth (attribute of the complement).

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di bem, to be (found) innocent, to be acquitted;
di fo, to be (found) guilty, to be condemned;
 odi kum fo, he is guilty of death, condemned to be killed;
di nim, di nkonim, to be victorius, to triumph;
di pā, to go or work for hire;
 odi no pā, he does mercenary work for him;
dinse w, to curse, swear; di obosom, to take an oath (by a fetish);
nom abosom, to enter into a confederacy;
wo abosom, to be confederate;
to nko, to full asleep, sink into a slumber: huane nkorom, to snore;
tu agyina, to consult, confer, deliberate; trans. to give advice;
twa adwo, agyadwo, bo bena, bo abubuw, to lament.
(2.) Transitive verbal phrases are e.g. the following:
bo dua, hye nsew, to curse; bo fe, to wound (in the head);
bo pā, to hire; bo koko, to forewarn; bo sobo, to blame;
bu bem, to acquit; bu fo, to condemn;
di kusum, to cheat; di amim, to over-reach;
dini, to honour; di atem, to scold, revile; di awu, to murder;
gye (abofra) tātā, to lead (a child) in walking;
gye atū, ve atū, to embrace; gye awo, to welcome;
hũ m mobo, to see with commiseration, to pily, commiserate;
hye mã, to fill; hye baninha, hye nkuran, to encourage;
kã hyew, to warm; kã mmã, fwe mpire, to flog;
tu fo, to admonish, exhort, give an advice;
twa adafi, to reveal, discover, disclose to;
twa dwow, to rob; twa twetia, to circumcise;
yi ad w o, to kidnap; yi hū, to frighten; yi ahī, to frighten; to mock at.
yi apra, to warn; yi nten, to remonstrate with, to reproach.
Some of these may be used without a passive object, though an
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indefinite object is understood; e.g.

Wakobo pa', he has been out to hire (people, carriers, labourers);

wábò woń apa' he has hired them.

Wádì awú, he has committed a murder (on somebody);

wádì no awú, he has murdered him.

Rem. In all cases in which both the verb and the complement are used in a plain sense which they have elsewhere, we do not speak of specific verbal phrases; as, bo kuw, to make a heap, to put in heaps.

213. The second kind of verbal phrases, having a noun of place and relation for their specific complement, may be distinguished from the combinations of locative verbs with common locative complements (§ 207), when the verb acquires a new meaning in connection with the specific complement.

E. g. in "oda duá no ase, he lies under the tree; offi duá no ase bae, he came forth from under the tree" the verbs da and fi have locative complements, as spoken of in § 207; but in "oda Onyamé ase, he thanks God; offi n'adwuma ase, he began his work" we have the specific verbal phrases: "dà ase, to thank; fi asé, to begin."—

Other examples, referring also to § 201, 2. 207b., are the following:

Oftwe mfonini, he beholds (looks at) a picture; oftwe nhuán, he tends sheep; — here we have simple objects.

O'fwe hó, he looks there; ofwe ne wurd nsa and, he looks unto the

hand of his master; - here we have locative complements.

O'fwe adwumayeso so, he superintends the labourers;

offwe asasé no so, he governs that country; — here we take f we.. so as a verbal phrase in which so is the specific complement, and ad wumaye fo or asase no is its attribute.

The noun of place and relation may be used as a specific complement, either absolutely, as a mere adverb (of place), or with relation to another object, as a postposition. In both cases the verbal phrases are either 1. intransitive or 2. transitive (with passive or dative objects) See the examples in § 214.

214. (1a.) Intransitive verbal phrases with an absolute locative complement are the following:

Ko so, to go on; da so, to a so, to continue (see § 107, 16); te ase (in the continuative), trã ase (in other forms), to live.

Rem. 1. In "wote n'áhènní ase dwodwō, they live quietly under his reign" te alone is sufficient, because a common postpositional complement follows.

Rem. 2. The combinations te ase and trā ase, with an attributive noun, mean also: to sit under, and trā ase, without an attribute, to sit down; e.g.

ote duá bi ase, he sits (is sitting) under a tree; trã ase! sit down!

bamu, bam', to come in, i. e. to be fulfilled, realized;

bo mu, bom', 1. lit. to strike (emit a loud sound) in or through (the space in which we live) i. e. to cry, roar, thunder; 2. lit. to strike (together) in (the common space), i. e. to unite, agree, be reconciled, make friends.

tee mu, teem', (lit. to stretch in, to emit a sound straightway penetrating the space in which we live,) to cry out. Cf. § 120, 4. twa mu, twam', (lit. to cut in or through the space,) to pass by.

Rem. 3. In bam', bom', bobom', teem', teetem', twam', twitwam', the specific complement mu has dropped its vowel and is written together with its verb in one word; yet the preterit tense may be written with a doubled vowel; as,

Né dàé no báhm' pé, his dream was exactly fulfilled.

Wotěéèm' se: fa nổ ko! they cried: take him away! away with him! Nnannú no twaám' no, ofíi hộ koè, after those two days he departed.

Rem. 4. Not to be confounded with this specific locative complement is 1. the postpositional locative complement whose attribute is omitted; as, Ahiná bi sì hó, fa nsú gùm'! there is a pot, pour water into (it)!

2 the case of m being not an abbreviation of mu, but belonging to the verb by original formation, as in bàm, fàm, to embrace; pàm, to join, sew; pām, to confederate; pēm, to knock at; sōm, to serve.

(1b.) Intransitive verbal phrases with a relative locative complement i. e. a complement to which an attribute is expressed or understood, are:

di so, to rule, govern; hye so, to oppress;

fi asé, fiti ase, hye ase, bo ase, tu ase, to begin.

E.g. Odi mán no sò, he rules over the country.

Ohye nkurofó no sò, he oppresses the people. Off asé retò abán, he begins to build a house.

Otúù asé kāā asém no, he related the story from the beginning. Rem. 5. In these phrases ase is rather a name of a thing (= the der end anderwork part foundation beginning) than a name of

under end, undermost part, foundation, beginning), than a name of a place. Cf. hyè abanto no ase, he begins that building, and: ehye obo no ase, it sticks under that stone.

gye só, to reply to, to answer; ógyè né fré sò, he replies to his call. so mú, to lay hold of; so pón no mù, lay hold of that table! kã hõ, (lit. to touch the outside) to accompany; mékà no hố, I am with him.

These phrases may take a dative object, and at the same time the attribute to which the complement refers, may be left out; c. g.

O'gyè no só, he replies, answers him (= ógyè no n'ásém sò, he replies him to his word).

So nó mù (= so né mù, so onipa no mù), lay hold of him (of that man)! But: So no mù (= so n'ádwuma mù mã no), help him in (his work), i. e. put a helping hand for him in or to his work.

Měkā no hố (= ne hố, § 55 Rem. 3), I shall be with him. But:

Mékā nò hố = mede (bí) mékā (n'adé) hỗ mamā no, I shall add (something) for him to (what he has already).

Rem. 6. The phrase $k\tilde{a}$ h $\dot{b} = to$ add, is causative, and the thing added is usually introduced by de (or fa); e.g. ode nnipa hà káž dóm no hõ, he added a hundred men to the host.

(2.) Transitive verbal phrases with specific locative complements are: mã só, to lift up (so is absolute, without reference to an attributive object). Mã wo nan so, lift up they feet i.e. go quick!

tu só, to depose, dethrone. Wotúú no adé sò, they dethroned him. bĕre ase, to humble, subdue (with passive object; ase is absolute); da ase, to thank (with dative object; ase is absolute);

hye ase, to promise (with dative object; ase is relative, usually followed by a noun-sentence introduced by the conj. se; cf. § 255, 6b.

E.g. Abofrá no afwè ase, mã no só! the child has fullen, lift him up!

Obíara à ómã nehó so no, wobéberè no ase, na nea óberé nèhó asé
no, wobémã nò só, whosoever exalteth himself shall be abased,
and he that humbleth himself shall be exalted.

Woáhyè me asé sè wóbeba yi, mèda wo ase, as you have (thus) promised me to come, I thank you.

215. A third kind of verbal phrases is that in which a specific subject, being a noun of place, usually referring to some noun or pronoun in the possessive case, gives a specific meaning to the succeeding verb. E. g.

ehō or emu or ano da họ, it is or lies open; emu dọ, it is deep; emu gow, it is spacious; emu terew, it is wide; emu ye den, it is difficult, different from eye den, it is hard; emu ye duru, it is important, diff. fr. eye duru, it is heavy; emu ye hare, it is easy; diff. fr. eye hare, it is light.

Afúw no hō dà hó, that plantation lies open, presents free access.

Asém no mù da hó, the matter lies open or plain (before us).

Odán no ānò da hó, the door or entrance of the house is open.

Asubontén no mù dọ, that river is deep.

Odan yi mu gow, this room is spacious.

Adáká no mù teréw, that box is wide.

Asém yi mù ye den, this matter is hard to be settled.

Emú (or asém yi mù) sìw me kakrá or ntéw mè yíyé,

216. 1. The fourth, fifth and sixth kind of verbal phrases express some bodily or mental action or affection, state or condition, and have this peculiarity, that some part of a person's body is mentioned as the grammatical subject or object of the sentence, to which the noun or pronoun denoting the person (the logical subject or object) forms an attribute in the possessive case.

it (or this matter) is not quite or not sufficiently plain to me.

2. Those phrases, which have such a specific compound subject (§ 217) do not seem to belong into this chapter on the complements of the predicate, like those with such a specific compound object (§ 218); but the former ought not to be separated from the latter, and, in fact, the notion of the predicate is completed by the notion put in the place of the subject. E. g.

Onipa no awù, that man has died. Onipa no ani awù, that man's face has died, i.e. that man is ashamed.

- 3. In § 219 we shall find both cases combined with each other or with some other specific complement.
- 4. The nouns that are used in such verbal phrases, as the grammatical subject or object, are the following:

chō, the outward part, frame, body, also the whole person or self; eti, tíri, tírim', the head, the interior of the head; ani, the eye, face; anim, the face; nton, the cyebrows; ano, anom, the mouth; asō, asōm, the ear; kon, konmù; the neck, throat; menewám', the gullet; bo, kōmá, the breast, heart; wère, the heart, mind, memory; yám', the bosom, the interior of the chest and belly; nsa, nsam, the hand, hands; basá, abasám', abaw, the arm, arms; enan, anan, the foot, feet; anánmù, the foot-steps, foot-prints.

217. The fourth kind of verbal phrases has a specific compound subject (a personal noun or pronoun in the possessive case, and the name of some part of that persons body). E.g.

- 1. Ne hố hìm, pòpó, sàw, (his frame shakes) he trembles, quakes, shivers; ne hố yè den, he is (bodily) strong (oye den, he is hard in his dealings); ne hố pìrím, yè, tè yíyé, áyè yíyé, he is strong, healthy; ne hỗ hàru no, he feels hot; ne hỗ bon, he stinks; ne hỗ ye fĩ, ye nữini, ye tan, he is dirty, nasty, ugly; ne hỗ ye fe, he is fine, handsome, beautiful; ne hỗ từa, ye hare, ye kàmkam, ye ữé ve, he is quick, nimble; ne hỗ afom no, hĩa no, kyère no, yeráw no, he is in a strait, in distress, ne hỗ dữiriw no, he is amazed, terrified. [trouble, perplexity; ne hỗ hàw no, père no, nsén no, tití nò, he is impatient; ne hỗ ad vo, agow (no), kã nehỗ, ásán nò, sepew no, ato (no), atu no, he is at ease, valm, composed, happy, joyful contented &c.
- 2. Ne tírim' ye den, he is cruel; ne tirim nye, nye no yiye, he has a bad conscience, is troubled in his mind; ne tirim nye, nye no yiye, kã (no), ye bàsabasa, ye sàkasaka,
 - he is deranged, crazed, crazy; ne tirim kyère no, twetwe no, ye no késekese, ye no kèserenenene, he is in anguish, perplexity.
- 3. N'aní bèré, (his eye reddens,) he corets; he is angry; he is grieved; n'ani bu, he is tired of wailing; n'ani kum, he is sleepy; n'ani afi, apae, atew, he is intelligent, shrewd, cunning; n'ani gyìna (ne nã, ne kurom), he longs for (his mother, his home); n'ani so (mc), he respects, honours (me); n'ani gye, kã, he rejoices, is glad, is merry; n'ani dwo, he is tame, mild; (odwo, he is meek;) n'ani da ho, kã fam', kã ase, he is sober, modest, quiet; n'ani ye den, ye hyew, ye krămākrāmã, he is bold, fierce, unruly, wild; n'ani wu, n'anim gu ase, he is ashamed.
- 4. N'anim' ye duru, he is serious, renerable; n'anim ye hare, he is lightminded.
- 5. N'aní sò birí nò, he is qiddy; n'ani so da ho, he is awake; n'ani so atew, he has recovered, come to himself (from a swoon); n'ani so kā (= ne tirim kā), he is crazy; n'ani so ye krakra, he is in anquish, anxiely; n'ani so ye sàkasaka, he is bewildered; n'ani so atërew no, aye no tètere, he is absent, wandering; n'ani so ye no yā, he is astonished; n'ani so nye, n'ani so aye yie, he is tipsy.
- 6. N'ánò ye den, bírebire, kŭrókŭro, pérepere, he is quarrelsome, n'ano ye duru, he is not talkative; [talkative; n'ano tew, awo (wósē), he is eloquent; n'ano ye dew, dékē, frémfrem, he is a flutterer; n'anom ye no de(w), he likes dainties, is dainty-mouthed, lickerish; n'anom akum, he has lost his appetite; n'anom atew, he has recovered his appetite.
- 7. N'asố yè den, ányìn, asen, asiw, asorow, awu, he is disobedient; n'asốm' ádwò no, he is peaceful, happy.

- 8. Ne kón dò, his neck (throat) loves (deepens?), i.e. he covels, lusts for; ne kon asen, he is stiffnecked, stiffheurted, headstrong, stubborn; ne kónmù ye den, he is strong, powerful.
- 9. Né bó abù, he is out of breath;
 ne bo fono no, he feels inclined to vomit;
 ne bo afuw, ahuru, he is angry;
 ne bo adwo, he is appeased, composed, sedute, contented;
 ne bo ato (ne yam), he is contented, well pleased;
 ne bo ye duru, he is brave, courageous.
- 10. Né wère ahow, he is sorrowful; ne were fi, he forgets; ne were akyekye, he has been comforted.
- 11. Ne yám' hyehyé nò, twitwá nò, he is compassionate; ne yam ye no hyeewhyeew, his conscience torments him; ne yám' yé, he is good-hearted, benign, benevolent, liberal, charitable; ne yám' ye nwene; he is illiberal, stingy, niggardly.
- 12. Ne nsam' ye den, he is illiberal, near, close, hard-fisted, fast-handed; ne nsam tee, he is liberal, generous, bountiful, munificent; ne nsa ka, (his hand touches,) he obtains, receives; ne nsa n'na, (his hand does not rest,) he is diligent.
- 13. N'abásam' átù, he has been discouraged, disheartened.
- 218. The fifth kind of verbal phrases has a specific compound object (a personal noun or pronoun in the possessive case, and the name of some part of that persons body).
- 1. In some of these phrases, the person denoted by the attribute in the compound object is identical with the subject. In this case we give the examples only with pronouns of the 3d pers. sing.
- a. We first mention the verbs made reflexive by taking the reflexive pronoun, which belongs to this kind of objective complements. E. g.

Ohyehyé nèhố, ohoáhòa nehố, okyeré nèhố, ómå nehố so, he boasts, brags, vaunts, shows himself, exalts himself; ókå nehố, he moves, stirs, is active; onữ nehõ, he repents; osakrá nèhố, he disguises himself; otwa nehõ, he turns round.

Some intransitive verbs may thus be made reflexive with almost the same or with an altered meaning; as,

Odán koò nifá, he turned to the right; odán nehố koè, he turned and went off; odan nàn nehố, he does some business, he trades, traffics.

b. Phrases in which other nouns (of those mentioned in § 216, 4) occur, are the following:

Wáfà ne tírim' (he has taken in his head,) he recollects, remembers; śfwè ne tírim', (he looks in or into his head,) he tries to recollect; śbò ne tírim (pów), he (ties a knot in his head,) devises, plans out; otu ne tirim agyina, he (goes to council in his head,) devises, deliberates; he examines himself.

Rem. In the two last phrases ne tírim' is not an object, but an adjunct of place, or an attribute of the object pow and agyina.

O'gyè n'aní, he rejoices, amuses himself; ototó or ótwà n'aní, he looks about; oyiyí (n')àní, he is heedless, careless; otew or otetéw n'aní, he opens his eyes; he is cautious; odwo n'ani, he moderates his haste, his demand. Omuná or ókům n'anim, he durkens or disfigures his face; otew n'anim, he is friendly, gracious, cheerful; oyi (n')anim (with a succeeding verb), he has the decided intention (to do something), he does it openly, frankly. Oyi n'ano, he speaks or pleads for himself. Oyi n'asõ, he is heedless, careless; okyea n'aso, he (bends his ear.) perverts judgment; oseren n'aso, he prieks up his ears, listens to a sound from a distance: owen n'asô, oye asô, oye n'asô demm, komm, he listens attentively. Ototo ne kon, he looks about in a haughty, impudent, contemptions manner; obo ne kon, he talks, gives utlerance to his thoughts. Osi ne bo, he dares, attempts (se o-nè no bekō, to fight with him); ota ne bo, he sets his heart at rest, composes his mind. Oyi ne yam (with a succeeding verb) he does from his heart, sincerely, Oyi ne nsa (a decent expression - odidi), he eats. Ogow ne nsam, he is liberal, munificent; he is slack in working. Wapa abaw, he has drawn off his hands, has given it up in despair.

2. In some of those phrases, the *object* refers to a person different from the subject. In this case we give the examples with the pronoun of the 1st pers. sing. for the object; as,

Onim (or wahû) me tirim, he knows my mind (my faithfulness).
Oso m'ani, he pleases me; eyi m'ani, il displeases me.
Okyi m'anim, he dislikes, shuns, detests me;
otiatia m'anim, he abuses, contemns, scorns me.
Aduañ no agye m'anom, this food has become my farourite dish.
Nsem no aka m'ano, I can repeat the words fluently.
Otôtô m'ano, he accuses me falsely. Okasa m'ano, he is my spokesman.
Otŵe m'asô, he pulls me by the car, i. e. he punishes me.
Ofuw me bo, ohuru me bo, (oyi me abufuw,) he excites my anger;
otu me bo, he disheartens, discourages, frightens, appals me.
Ohow me were, (oyi me awerehow,) he grieres me;
okyekye me were, he comforts, consoles me.
Otu m'abasam, he discourages, disspirits me.

219. In the sixth kind of verbal phrases, a specific compound subject or object, and some similar or other specific complement, are combined, some of them containing two verbs. (Any of the kinds mentioned in § 211-218, 220, is combined with any other of them, or with any complement or adjunct). E.g.

Ne hố abà ne hố biò, he has revovered from his sirkness; ne hố kử ne hố, he is happy, content, well pleased; ne hố hyiá nè hố, he has all he wants; ne hỗ tua ne hỗ, he is fut, well fed, corpulent;

, **suppl**emental verb.

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òda nehố sò, he is on his guard;
ode nehô tò mé sò, he commits himself to me, consides in me,
Ne tí n'số nò soá, he is lightminded.
N'aní bà mé sò, he remembers me;
n'ani ba nehô so, he comes to himself; Act. 12, 11. Luk. 15, 17.
n'ani bo me so, his look fulls on me:
n'ani da me so, he hopes, confides in me;
n'ani da nehô so, he is cautious, heedful, wary:
n'aní akà mé sò, n'aní atò mé sò dwen, he stures at me;
n'ani aka m'anim, he has become considential or familiar with me;
n'ani apa me so, he has forgotten me;
n'aní atrá nè ntón, he is supercilious;
n'aní atú atò ne nsám', n'aní yè no ntiréntiré, n'aní yè no totòtoto,
 eye no aniani, he is in anxiety, grief, confusion, perplexity, con-
 sternation &c.
ode n'ani tò mé sò, he consides in me, sets his trust in me;
fa wo ani to m'anim ye ma no, do him this farour for my suke;
obu n'ani gu(..) so, he winks at (it);
oka n'ani gu so, he shuts his eyes (for sleep, in death);
omūá n'àní tèw, he twinkles;
okoyí n'àní sò kakrá, he is going to take a nap;
odwudwó n'ani akyi nantéw, he or she has wanton eyes:
ogych or otu or otutu n'ani fwe me, he fixes his eyes on me, regards
 me fixedly, steadfastly;
opupúw n'ani (kasá) kyereg me, he spoke roughly to me; Gen. 42.7.30.
wáyì m'aní ahyè me nkyénmù, he has disappointed me;
ontwá n'àní n'fwé n'akyì, he is constant, steadfast;
esi n'ani so, il comes into his mind;
nsa atew n'ani so, he hus become sober from his intoricution.
Obere n'ano ase, he moderates his speech:
on(to)to n'ano ase, he does not hold his tonque;
ontow n'anom toā mã, he did not speak a word;
wonkasá wonhó and, they don't speak with each other;
otutu m'ano sisi, he distorts, confounds what I am saming.
Oprapráh n'asố akyl (de gúù só), he did not listen to, would not
 hear or look no heed of it at all.
Né bó dà ne yám', he is of good cheer or courage, easy, cureless;
ne bo ato ne yam, he is of good cheer, happy, well content, his heart
 is at ease;
ne koma apae ne yam, he is utterly terrified;
obere ne bo ase, he relaxes his anger;
oto (or oto) ne bo ase, he is patient;
oto ne bo ase kye, he is longsuffering;
otwa me bo to me yam, he appeases me.
Ne nsá hylá nè hó, he provides with his own hand for all his wants.
220. A seventh kind of verbal phrases consists of a principal and
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1. The supplemental verb enlarges the notion of the principal one so as to form a new notion.

A common objective complement is joined (or understood) either to the principal verb, as in

gye di, gye tie, to believe;

kā fwe, so fwe, huām tie, lo laste, try (§ 110);

or to the supplemental verb, as in

koto sere, to supplicate; sù fre, to implore;

kasa kyere, to instruct (§ 109, 31).

hũ mã, te mã, to sympathize with:

di mã, kasa mã, to act or speak for, interrede for, defend, advorate.

2. The supplemental verb adds some particular circumstance or general relation to the notion of the principal verb, like an adjunct of manner or time. E. g.

kasa san mu, kasa ti mu, to speak with repetitions; (Wókàsá sàn mú pì, you repeat too often what you have said already.) kasa sie, to make a previous agreement;

kā sie, to foretell, predict; di sie, to selle before-hand.

Adiasie (= asem à wadi asie) n'ye 'dì-nā, a matter settled beforehand is not difficult to be adjusted.

The verb sie may thus be added to other verbs, and it may have the *lime* or *event*, for or against which something is done, after it as a *complement*, constituting with it a *lerminalive adjunct* to the principal verb; see § 243b. and *Rem*.

CHAPTER V.

Extension of the Predicate.

221. The predicate, whether it consist of a single verb (§ 163) or have complements with it (§ 198), may be extended by adjuncts, i. e. by words which express any circumstances of 1. place, 2. time, 3. manner, 4. cause &c.

These adjuncts are not necessary to complete the sense of the verb, but are accessory parts of the predicate.

Rem. In the following paragraphs (222—243) we treat the circumstances of place, time, manner, cause dec. more in their logical, than in their grammatical relation to the principal verb of the sentence, i.e. we confine ourselves not only to such expressions as are obviously adjuncts of a predicate, but mention also those cases in which an adjunct in the English language is expressed in Tshi by an additional predicate, co-ordinate (mostly in the form of a contracted sentence) to the principal one. Cf. §. 245, 2a. 253a.

We call the verb which in such cases expresses the principal action of the subject the principal verb, and the verb which expresses any circumstance of that action in the form of a co-ordinate predicate, an auxiliary. In some cases, the verb expressing only a circumstance of an action is even the only predicate of the sentence taking the infinitive of the verb that contains the action itself, as its grammatical

complement.—It is thought convenient to have the different ways of expressing the circumstances in question put together in this place; only the cases in which they are expressed by subordinate sentences will be reserved for the §§ 260—280.

1. The Adjunct of Place.

- 222. 1. Adjuncts of place, attached to the predicate, show a circumstance of place in answer to the questions: where? whither? whence?
- 2. They are expressed by nouns of place (absolute or with relation to things and persons) or by pronouns and adverbs of place (§ 118. 122-125.127.) either a. entirely equal in form to complements of place (§ 207.208), i.e. merely added to the predicate, without an additional verb, the only difference is, that the adjunct is not necessary to the verb —; or b. they are introduced by auxiliary verbs [co-ordinate to the principal], which take them as their complements.

We consider the latter case (b) as the rule, § 223. 224, and the omission of the auxiliary verb (u) as the exception, § 225.

223. These [co-ordinate, or] auxiliary verbs, alone or together with the postposition used in the adjunct, in many cases answer to English prepositions, cf. § 117, A.; in others, they have no equivalent in English, the latter rendering the adjunct merely by an adverb.

They are taken from the locative verbs specified in § 208, viz.

1. wo; 2. nam, fa; these verbs refer the action, or the subject or object of the predicate, to a place, is going on or being there, (ul, in, on &c.) without showing a direction.

3. si, gyina, combined with ananmu; these either refer to rest in a place, or imply a direction.

4. ba, ko, used alone or as ingressive prefixes (§ 96) with the verbs si, du, sõ, kã, pem and others; f we, to, gu, kyene; these verbs express direction to a place. Other directions are expressed by kyere—towards; t w a—across; tra—over, beyond; fi—from; &c.

Rem. The auxiliaries fi, nam, and sometimes fa, with their complements, precede, the others succeed, the principal verb and its complement.

- 1. O'dì né dwúma wò ofie, he carries on his business at home. O'dì né guá wò bābí, he is pursuing his trade somewhere. Nwúrá refùw wo tǔróm', weeds are shooting up in the garden. O'nyà aduan' pì wo n'ásàsé sò, he obtains much food on his land. O'tùru ne bá wò n'ákyì, she carries her child on her back.
- 2. Onam mfénsérém' kóò dán mù, he got into the room through the window. Ofáà bón mù guánè, or: oguán faà bón mù, he fled through the valley. Menam fám' mebáè, mamfá nsúani, I came by land, not by water.
- 3. Yesu sii yen ananmu wui, Jesus stood in our place died, i. e. Jesus died in our stead.
- 4. Miguaréè mebáà mpoānó, I swam to the shore. Oguán koò ahabán mù, he fled into the bush. Otutúù mmiriká kòdúù kurotía, he ran on to the end of the town.

Otów' duá no fwce ho, he felled the tree (to the ground). Ohurúw fiì hyện mù tớg pom', he sprang from the ship into the sea. Wobúù ne nsá guù n'akyi, they tied his hands behind his back. Wotów nò kyenéè táre no mù, he was cast into the lake. Wotów wòn giù nsu no mù, they were cast into the water. Opetée wó no too gyá mù, he shook off the snake into the fire. Oteréw' ne nsám' kyerég no, he spread forth his hands toward him. Miguarée mitwáa asú no, I swam through that river. Ohurúw traà amôá no, he leaped over the pit.

Mifi Kúmase na merebá, I am coming from Kumase.

Offi duá sò fiéè fám he fell down from a tree.

Ofii (or ofi?) né dán mù frée me, he called me from his house, i. e. he. being in his house, called me.

Ofrée me fir m'adwuma and, he called me (away) from my work; but it seems more correct to use wo in such cases:

Ofrée me wo m'adwuma and, he called me, being at my work.

Rem. Verbs like yi, gye, to take out, off, away from, to rescue, sare from, may have the auxiliary wo or fi joined to them. E.g. Oyn me fil m'ahôhiam', he took me out of my trouble. Gye mé wò m'atamfo nsam', deliver me from my enemies!

- 224. Two or more adjuncts of place may be combined. E.g. Ofré mè fi há bà ne nkyén, he calls me from here to him. Oguán faà Daté koò Osú, he fled by (or via) Date to Osu. Ofii Osú guán koò Adã', he fled from Osu to Adā. Otúù kwán fiì hó faà Akyém koò Dwabén wò Asanté, he travelled from thence through Akem to Dwaben in Asante. Oguán baà me nkyén wò mé fí, he tled to me into my house.
- 225. The auxiliary wo, sometimes also ko, is omitted (§ 222, a.) 1. after the principal verb, when the sense is plain without it, especially in the Akem dialect. E.g.

Mmofrá gòru (wo) abontén sò, children are playing in the street. Woagyaw no (wo) ho, they have left him there. Woáyi no hó, they have removed him thence (i. e. killed him).

Osomád no (kód) n'áfúw mù, he sent him into his plantation.

2. When the adjunct of place, especially one of the pronouns ehe? gha, gho, is emphatically put at the head of the sentence, followed by na (§ 247, 4. Rem.), the auxiliary wo is always omitted. E.g.

Ehá nà méyè adiwuma, here I am working. Ehế nà éyè wo yáw'? where do you feel pain?

(In 'Wo he yè wo yaw? lit. thy where i. e. what place of your body causes you pain? the adjunct of place is converted into the subject.)

3. The adjunct of place may (without wo) precede the object of the verb, and is then like an attribute to that object. E.g.

O'dwen né kômam asemmoné = ódwen asemmoné wo né kômam, he devises evil in his heart.

Osěré mě hý adé = osěré adé wý me nkyén, he begs things of me

2. The Adjunct of Time.

226. Adjuncts of time, attached to the predicate, show

- 1. Some particular point or period of time, answering to the question: when? (In a general way the time of an action is expressed by the tenses.)
- 2. Duration of time, answering to the questions: how long? since when? till when?
- 4. Beginning, continuance or continuation and end of an action (without specifying a time).
 - 3. Repetition, answering to the question: how often?

227. Circumstances of time are expressed

- 1. by nouns and adverbs of time, including nouns with postpositions, as specified in § 129. 130.
 - 2. by [co-ordinate] auxiliary verbs introducing such nouns; viz.

wo is sometimes used to introduce postpositional phrases answering to English phrases with the prepositions at, in, on, after &c.

fi answers to the Engl. prepositions from, since;

kosi, kodu, besi, bedu, answer to the Engl. prep. till, until. (The auxiliary fi usually precedes, the others succeed the principal verb.)

- 3. by co-ordinate verbs or verbal phrases combined with the principal verb as auxiliaries, before or behind, or with its infinitive, in which case the verb expressing time is the only verb of the sentence.
 - 4. by adverbial sentences, on which see § 261-266.
- 5. sometimes by a co-ordinate predicate, beside those auxiliaries (2.3.), in a contracted or connected or unconnected sentence; see in § 253^a. 265, 1 Rem. a.
- 228. Examples with merely adverbial adjuncts of time (§ 227, 1), put before or after the subject with its predicate.
 - 1. Adjuncts denoting a point or period of time, or a succession of such.

Ené yèbédu fie, to day we shall arrive at home.

Osú atò pi 'né, it has rained much to-day.

Enéra nà ne bá koyareè, yesterday his child fell sick.

Edén 'ti nà wamma 'nera? why did he not come yesterday?

Né-nnànsá nà mihúù no, three days ago I saw him.

(= Miháu no, né mansá ni, or: nnansá ni à míhúu no.)

Okyéna andpá mesim', to-morrow morning I shall start.

Yển đế, yèbéko okyénakyi, we shall go the day after to-morrow.

Merébà mprémpren (Ak. seseara), I shall come immediately.

Mprémpren òdan' nèhố bà háyi, na mprémpren òdan' nèhố kò háyi biò, he turns now here, now there.

Wóammá ntém 'ne, you did not come soon to-day.

Menkoo Akwam da or pen, I have never been in Akwam.

Né mmòfráase wànsūá bìribí pa bi, he learned nothing in his youth.

Né kánkyerekyere no, abó nà wodé tów, akyíri yi ànsá nà áfèi wòde dadé akòrábó pòmáè tów, at the very first, stones were discharged, but afterwards iron bullets.

2. Adjuncts denoting duration.

Mintumí měnyé aděúma dá, I cannot always work.

Mekohomé kàkrá, I am going to rest a little.

Obětrá ha nnànsá bi, he will stay here some days.

Obědi ho nnànnú se nnansá, he will pass there two or three days.

Wáyè aděúma àdesáé, he has worked all day (till night).

Móbehű amàne dadú, ye shall have tribulation ten days.

3. Adjuncts denoting repetition.

Wóyè sa' da, they often (or always) do so. Dá afé wohyè fá, every year they celebrate a festival. Wókò Yerusalem dá afrihyiá, they went to Jerusalem every year. Mákò hó m'pón abien', I have been there twice.

4. Mixed examples.

Opránná akyi na osú tò dá, after thunder it always rains. Ené wakò asú prèkố pe, to-day she has been for water only once.

229. Adjuncts of time introduced by auxiliary verbs (§ 227, 2),

1. denoting duration by stating the time of beginning or end: Off né mmòfráase yàré, he is sick from his infancy.

Enéra misi anopá meyee ad vúma koduu an vúnnere, ené nso maye si nuonsón mabesi nnonnúm, na okyéna meye masi nuonsón makosi nuonsiá, yesterday I worked from morning till evening, to-day from 7 to 5 o'clock, and to-morrow I shall work from 7 to 6 o'clock. Di nokwáre kodu wum', be faithful unto death.

2. denoting approximate duration (cf § 160, 4):

Wáyè adwuma beye sè dadu, he has worked about ten days. Wádi (bé)boro m'frihyiá adùosia, he is more than sixty years old.

230. Adjuncts of time expressed merely by verbs ($\S 227, 3.226, 2.3.4$.)

- 1. Indefinite duration of action expressed by kyg, see § 231 (107, 17.18.)
 - 2. Repetition of action (§ 107, 20-22).

Asantefo nè Akyemfo anyà nkōe, the Asantes have repeatedly fought Ota' kò Nkran, he often goes to Akra. [with the Akems. Monsan mmu akonta' no bio, east up that account again. Meká mitim' sè: manhú, I repeat that I have not seen it.

3. Commencement of action (cf. § 107, 14. 15; the following examples partly belong to § 229, 1.)

Woanyã rebo don, they are already ringing the bell.

Minnyá minnúù hó è, I have not yet arrived at that point.

Wáfi asé rekyèréw ne nhóma, he has begun to write his letter. (§214,1b.)

Ofí ban há ènyé 'ne, lit. he begun came here it is not to-day i.e.
it is not only since to-day that the came here.

Efi hó ara E'nyiresifó tumi mù fí yeù den, from that time the English became more and more powerful.

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Efi hó nà wófiì asé nyāà túmì de-bepém 'néyi, from that time they began to obtain the power which they have unto this day. Efi hó ara nà Napólèon túmi fi yeg kesé dā kóg só, from that time

the power of Napoleon was continually increasing.

4. Continuance and continuation of action (§ 107, 16).

Oda só dà, he sleeps still. Méko sò magóru, I shall go on in playing. Wotoa só kèká asém, they continue their speeches.

5. Completion of action (§ 107, 19).

Okán 'nhóma no wiei, or: owiée nhóma no kán, he read the book to the end, or he finished reading the book.

Wáyè n'ád wúma a wie, or: wa wie n'ad wúma yé, he has finished his

work.

- **231.** The verb kye, to last (long), to be long i. e. of long duration, is used in different ways:
- 1. As an independent intransitive werb, it expresses, in a general way, some duration of existence or of a stay in some place, whence it may take a complement of place. E.g.

Wókò a, ńkyć! when you go, do not stay away long!

Dá okỳ hộ à, ókyệ hộ sê, as often as he goes there, he stays there rery long.

Merenkyé ha biò, I shall no more be here a long time.

Okóż kurów bi sò kokyéż, he went to some town and staged out long.

2. As an independent causative and, therefore, transitive verb, it takes an infinitive as its object, and expresses that the action denoted by that infinitive will not soon, or not easily, come to pass, or if it is put in the negative, that it will soon, or easily, take place. E.g.

Okyég né bá, he delayed his coming, did not come for a long time. Póré yi kyè bó sèn kurúwá no, this jar delays breaking surpasses that jug, i.e. this jar is more durable than that jug.

Kurúwá à éte sè yi nkyé bó, such a jug as this here does not de-

lay breaking, i.e. casily breaks.

3. When following after a principal verb as an auxiliary for coordinate | verb in the same tense (or after a future tense in the consecutive form), it denotes some duration of the state or action expressed by the former. E.g.

Oda kye, he sleeps long. Ote hó kyè, he is sitting there a long while. Otráž hó kyce, he remained there a good while.

Wantrá họ ànkyé, he did not remain there long.

Mekó makýtrá ho makyé, I go to stay there for a long time.

4. When following after the affirmative preterit form of a verb, in the affirmative perfect tense or in the negative preterit tense, forming a sentence by itself, yet dependent from the preceding verb, it denotes that the event of that verb has passed long or not long ago. E.g.

Miháŭ no ákyè (pī, kakrá), I saw him a (long, short) while ago. Oháŭ me eńkyéė e, he saw me not long ago.

Obán ha ákyě, he came here long ago, or he is here since a long time. Wobán ákyě, il is long since you came (and have not come again).

5. When forming a sentence by itself, preceding another, it denotes the long, or not long, *interval* between the succeeding event and the presence of the speaker or a previous event. E. g.

Ebékye ansá na wahú, it will be long before he finds (it).

Obáć no, ekyée ansá na okóć (or oreko) biò, when he had come, he did no more go for a long time.

Wábá yi, erenkyế nà óbeko (or wako, oko?) bio, having come now,

he will soon go again.

Owúí no, ankyć na ne yére baè, when he had died, his wife came soon afterwards.

Rem. In the cases 3.4.5. the verb kyc stands in the place of the adjunct of time in English.

3. The Adjunct of Manner.

- 232. Adjuncts of manner, attached to the predicate, answer to the questions: how? how much? in what manner? by what means? &c. and denote
 - 1. manner, either quality, or mode, way in which;
 - degree and extent; 3. certainty or probability;
 - 4. manner, implying other circumstances:
 - a. means of action; b. price, exchange and substitution;
 - c. accompaniment or exclusion.

233. Circumstances of manner are expressed

- 1. by nouns (without or with postpositions) and adverbs of manuer and degree; § 131-134.
- 2. by [co-ordinate] auxiliary verbs having such nouns as their complements;
- 3. by [co-ordinate] verbs or verbal phrases combined with the principal verb, and commonly preceding it;
 - 4. by adverbial sentences; see § 267-273.
- 5. sometimes by co-ordinate predicates, not auxiliaries, in contracted or connected sentences; see in § 253a.
 - 234. (1.) Adjuncts of quality or mode and way in which.

Examples of the case mentioned in § 233, 1. see in § 131, 2. 3. 4. 133, 1. 3. 134, 1. 2. Adding some more, we put expressions according to § 233, 2. 3. together with some of them.

O'som no nokwarem', he serves him truly, indeed (cf. § 236).

Osòm no nokwaresò, he serves him faithfully.

Osom no sesekwāsóm or mpasompaso, he serves him carelessly, not earnestly or seriously; = onfwé sò nsóm no yíyé.

- ¹ Ofaà no oberansò, he took it by force, forcibly; ² ode ntintimaním' gyéè ne nsám' adé, he took his things from him by violence.
- Anuánom no gyeè yen féw sò, the brethren received us gladly;
- ² wode féw gyeè n'ásém no, they gladly received his word.
- ² Ode anígye koò né kwan, he went his way rejoicing.
- ½ Qkóò ne ňkyéň nnámsò, he went to him courageously;
 2 ode nnam pá hyiáà woň, he met them with good courage;
- 3 onam nnámsó kóo ne nkyén, he went in boldly unto him.
- ¹ O'yè no brofóm'; ³ osūá Bròfó yè; or: ófwè Brofó de sò ye, he does it in the European fashion; he imitates the Europeans in doing it; he copies it from the Europeans.

² Yiyê à óyeê won no, wode yêê no sā'ara, or: ³ wosusúw só yeê no bi, the good he had shown them, they showed him likewise

(requited it to him).

- 1 Obád mé sò mpofirím', 3 opatúw bad mé sò, } he came upon me unawares.
- 1 Öwúl prekó pe or afréső, 2 opatúw wul, he died suddenly;

owúù awusin, he died a sudden death.

2 Ofréè me wo kokoám'
 3 ohintáw or onam asé freè me,

1 Ofwée no dínn, § 134, 1.

- 3 ogyén' n'ani fwee no, he looked closely at him.
- ¹ Kã no péfē! ³ Pae mú kã! speak it out, tell it plainly!
 ¹ Kã no yíyé! ² Tew w'ánò kasa! tell or speak it distinctly!
- ³ Săn wo né mù kasa! ⁴ Kasa mã wonté! speak distinctly!

Onyamé na odóm yeg no sa (maa me), God graciously made it thus (for me).

³ Míyi me yám' meda wo ase, I thank you heartily.

² ³ Ne yére dè odó yil ne yám' fwéè no,

his wife nursed him with loving and self-denying care.

O'dù n'anim' nkakrá-nkàkrá, he gets on by degrees, by little and little.
 Ode sáara nyāð wón sò túmi, thus he gradually got power over them.

The examples in § 209, 1.2. may also be taken here.

235. (2.) a. Adjuncts of degree, showing the intensity of an action, state or quality. Examples of § 233, 1. see § 133, 2. 3b. 4. § 134, 3c.

Osúi pi, he wept much. (Osúi dennén, he wept aloud.)

Màbére kàkrá, I am a litlle tired.

Okwan no ware dodo, the way is very or too long.

Ensonó ne kyèré yi dódo biara, his doctrine differs not very much. Woanyé wòn boné dodo bi, they did not trouble them very much.

Woawie won ase tore kora, they were utterly extirpated.

Kurów no ahyèw dwerebe, the town is completely burned down.

3 Okasá à, yekamé atè, when he speaks, we scarcely hear it.

Dahomefo nnèyeé kāmé ayè se Asantefo dé, the doings (manners) of the Dahomeans are almost the same as those of the Asantes. Ekamé mà aye dú (Ak. okāmá mā n'áyè dú), it makes nearly ten.

Ekamé må anka wawie n'afuw nhina dow,

he has almost completely cut his whole plantation. A'kà kakrá nà woámà madán Kristòní, Acts 26, 28. 29. Wofwee no mã gká à kúma sẽ na otóe, they flogged him nearly to death.

A'kà-kúmā nà afé no awie dú no, gkáà kakrá sẽ mã wokô faà omán no nhìná, towards the end of that year they had already conquered almost the whole country.

Wórekó no, ekád kúmä (F. ekaa d $\underline{e} = s\underline{e}$) mà won nsa kã ohéne,

in the battle they almost caught the king.

b. Adjuncts of extent, showing the extent or limitation of a statement to a certain action, subject, object, place, time &c.

Examples see § 134, 3 a. b. Cf. § 277.

Mintumi memmá, gyé kyéna, I cannot come except to-morrow.

Gyé há nkô nà yési dán à ebéye yiyé,

only here we may conveniently build a house.

r. As Adjuncts of extent (or concern) we mention also

abstract nouns added to the verbs se, to be equal, kyen or sen, to surpass, showing the quality, state or action in which the subject equals or surpasses the object. E. g.

Ose no ahōodén, he equals him in strength. Okyen no ahōofé, he surpasses him in beauty.

Wosen me adidí à, mesen wo nna, if you surpass me in cating, I surpass you in sleeping. (Prov.)

Rem. The noun of relation so may be used by itself as a complement (of comparison) to the same and some other verbs, forming specific verbal phrases (§ 213, 214); as:

ese só, ebo só, it is equal; eboro só, ekyen só, it excells.

236. (3.) Adjuncts of certainty or contingency.

Examples see also § 135.

Máhů no nokwárem', I have seen him indeed, certainly.

Wákà sa' àmpá, he has really said so.

Ebià (or sese) onni fie, may be he is not at home.

Sesekwá bi menyã nsá matổ aná?

shall I perchance get palmicine to buy?

237. (4.) Adjuncts of manner denoting the instrument or means of action. Cf. § 108, 26, 27, 131, 1.

Obóg me kůtruků, kutrumbá, těgré, he struck me with his jist &c. Oponký too no anankotí, a horse kicked him.

Here we have rather an object, or a specific complement.

Of wée no mpiré, okát no mmá, he flogged him (with a whip, a rod).

Ode pomá boò me, he struck me with a staff.

Onam atoro so yil nehô fil asem no mù, he extricated himself from the matter by a lie (or lies).

Yede tów yi yì yen kónmù afoá, by this tribute we avert the sword impending on our necks.

Okáň sa dè kyékycè mé wère, by saying this he comforted me. b. Adjuncts of manner implying price, exchange, substitution.

Metoo odé yi aboodén, I bought this yam dearly (at a high price).

Wányà no fow or abogméréw, he has got it cheap or at a low price. Mányà no kwa or teta, I got it for nothing.

Mátổ nhó (mamã) dáre asiá, I have bought oil for six dollars.

Ode dwoasuru tóo ntamá, he hought cloth for four uckies.

Otóù asasé no mâè béye sè dwòa, he bought the land for about cight ackies.

Mede siká při metée, I bought it for a good deal of money.

Wátòn aburow' (agyè) dárě anán, he has sold corn for four dollars. Otón` ka' no maa ne yónko gyeè dárè fá, he sold the ring to his friend for half a dollar.

Mámà no abérekyi masésa oguàntén, I have given him (or exchan-

ged with him) a goat for a sheep.

Mede dárè dú mesesañ siká mfuturu, I exchanged ten dollars for gold-dust.

Omáň me kyéw dè síi dúků ananmů, or: ode kyéw sii me dúků ananmů, instead of a handkerchief he gave me a cap.

Oye abotrá no, né na díi héne no mà no, whilst he was young, his mother reigned for him i.e. in his stead.

Agyenkwá no wú mãà yen, the Saviour died for us.

Yesu síi yen anánmu wúi, Jesus died in our stead.

c. Adjuncts of manner implying accompaniment (of objects, states, actions) or exclusion and omission (of objects).

Ode dóm kèsé tuù wóń sò sá, he went to war against them with a great army.

Ne bá nso wò m' (= wò mù) koè, his son also went in it (or, with them). Okóè bì, he went likewise. Okáà won hó koè, he went with them. Ne hó yè fe, na owo siká kà hó, he is handsome and rich to o.

Philem 19.

Wogyéè wiase tumi kāā hā, they obtained worldly power besides. Eyi nhina nkāmfuaw, gyare nso, beside all this, he is also siek. § 134b. Mede awerchów yi ara mcko odá mù, with this grief I shall go into the grare (or, I will go down into the grave mourning).

O de anigye kèsé wui, he died with great joyfulness.

Anomá de akonèabá na énwène berebuw, by going and coming a bird weaves its nest.

Wofán sa' tran ofie, they took (it) so (scil. as they had it) remained at home i.e. thus they rather stayed at home.

Wofráà wón à wóbá no mù báà aduan tó, they came to buy corn among those that came. Gen. 42, 5.

O'hùw fám' da, he blows (off what is on) the ground lies down, i.e. he sleeps on the bare ground. Yeda ntúw, we sleep without tire. Woanyā wohō a, to wo poù mu da, if you are rich, shut your door sleep, i.e. sleep with your door shut.

Woadi agyàw me, they have eaten (have left me i. e.) without me. Obi nkwati (nkwaé, nnyáw, nsiané) kokurobeti m'mó pów, nobody leaves aside (omits, passes by) the thumb lies a knot, i. e. nobody ties a knot without the thumb.

Dua biara nsow nnyā nfwiren da, no tree ever bears without (having had) flowers.

4. The Adjunct of Cause.

- 238. Adjuncts of cause, attached to the predicate, answer to questions corresponding to the local questions whence? whither? viz. the questions: from what cause or reason? why? of what material? to what purpose? for what? for whom? They denote:
- 1. a real cause, being either (a.) the natural cause, the origin or occasion of an event in nature or history, called the effect, result or consequence; or (h.) the motive of an action; or
 - 2. a material which is used up for obtaining the designed thing;
 - 3. a possible cause, or condition;
 - 4. an adversative cause, or concession;
 - 5. a final cause, or an intention or purpose (aim, end, design).

239. Circumstances of cause are expressed

- 1. by nouns (or pronouns) with the postpositions nti (sometimes introduced by the auxiliary verb sinne or fi with the impersonal prefix e-beginning the sentence), so, hõ, mu, (sometimes introduced by the auxiliary v. wo or fi); § 136, 1.
 - 2. by a few adverbs, as, kwa, teta, hunu &c. § 136, 2.
 - 3. by the conjunction nè (from the verb de) in a few cases.
- 4. by [co-ordinate] auxiliary verbs or verbal phrases, usually connected with complements and either preceding or succeeding the principal verb;
- 5. by a noun-sentence with the postposition nti. § 255, 6 a. 275, 1 Rem. 2. 279 Rem. 2. 3.
 - 6. by adverbial sentences. § 274-280.
- 7. by co-ordinate predicates, not auxiliaries, in contracted or connected sentences; see in § 253a.

240. (1.) Adjuncts containing a real cause.

 a. Awów no nti òkoyaréè, from or on account of the cold weather he fell sick.

N'áhôfěí 'ti odi hiá, by his debauchery he has become poor. Esiane ne nneyee nti, wotan no, because of his doings they hate him. Nkoasém sò na okó no fi baè, out of the slavery question that war arose.

Wokóè wo só, they quarreled about it. Oda no n'áyàmyé sò asé, he thanks him for his kindness.

Mabére no hó, I am tired of him.

Wannyá aguádí no hõ mfàsó bi, he had no prosit from the trade. Owó dè ahōyeráw na óká, the snake bites when being troubled. Ode ahometéw di nehó dóm, from despondency he killed himself. Oboo ne nua din bae, lit. he made mention of his brother came, i.e. he came on account of his brother.

O'kà no sá kwà, he spoke so without foundation in reality. Wòtan me kwa, they hate me without reason. Cf. § 243 c.

b. Nitán nti wòkúm' no, through hatred they killed him. Ahántan nti o-nè bí n'ká, out of pride he agrees with nobody. Ehú nti wòkohintáwè, for fear they hid themselves Cf. § 255, 6a. Woremfi mmăra nhwuma mu mmu onipa biara bem, by the deeds of the law there shall no man be justified. (Rom 3, 20)

Wón mèneasé retòw nè sukóm, their throat languishes (pants, gapes) with or from thirst.

Womáž won mó nè kó or due nè kó, they congratulated or condoled them on account of the fighting.

Munnue ne adwumaye, be pilied on account of your working.

c. Ntakărá nà wóde hù anomá, a bird is known by its feathers. Won ábá nà móde behũ wón, by their fruits ye shall know them. Mmăra so na wonam hũ bone, by the law is the knowledge of sin. Rom. 3, 20.

241. (2.) Adjuncts denoting a material.

Oyég kanéaduá no nhiná siká, or, ode siká yge kanéaduá no nh., he made the whole candlestick of gold.

Wode ntamá agówagów yè nhóma, paper is made of rags.

242. (3.) Adjuncts containing a condition.

Abofrá no hō n'tó nò, gyé ne nà ńkyén, the child does not feel at ease, except (when it is) with its mother.

(Here the adjunct is elliptical, standing for a sentence = gye sê ówo ne nà nkyén.)

The adjunct of condition is usually expressed by adverbial or elliptical sentences, see § 276.

(4.) Adjuncts containing a concession.

Eyí nhìná gyàbaw, oda só tè họ, nothwithstanding all this, he is still there.

The adjunct of concession is usually expressed by a co-ordinate sentence, see § 278.

- **243.** (5.) Adjuncts implying purpose or intention are chiefly expressed by adverbial sentences (§ 279. 280); but here we give examples of such cases
- a. in which a noun with a postposition denotes the thing to be obtained by the action; or
- b. in which an auxiliary verb, usually with its complement, shows the object for which the action is intended, towards or against which it is directed (the terminative adjunct);
 - c. in which adverbs show the absence of purpose.
- a. N'ánòduań nti osòm no, he serves him for his daily food.
 M'átàdé sò na wóbò ntonto, for my vesture they cast lots.
- b. Wókyè mé ntàmá mù fa, they part my garments among them.
 Okyéè aduan' no mù máž won, he served out the food to them.
 Woyéè nhōmatów mãž obodamfo, card-playing was invented for a madman.

Yeseré wo ama ahiato, we entreut thee for the poor.

O'yè adwuma mà nó nua, he works for his brother.

Wôyè adé yi amà héna? for whom do you make this thing? Meyé mafa, I make it (that I may take it, i.e.) for my self.

Adwuma yi hố n'ní mfàsó m'má mò.

there is no profit from this work for you.

Nea ónim pápaye na onyé no, èye boné mà no,

to him that knows to do good and does is not, to him it is sin. Wonsièsie wonhô noiè nea ébeba no, they shall prepare themselves for (or against) the things that will come.

Oboáboa aburow and sie okómbere, he gathers corn against the (expected) time of scarcity. Maká masíe, I have told it before.

Wokasá hyeè no or tiaa no, they spoke against him.

Wamina ah yè me, he has darkened (his face) i. e. he froms

upon me.

Wotow the kyere berghene, they fire guns in honour of the governor.

Otów' túo boò né nùá, he fired a gun hit his brother; = otów' né nùá túo, he shot his brother.

otow ne nua tuo, *ne snot nis brother.* Okáž ntám guù nó sò, *he conjúred him.*

Yesu bóò nnípa ogyé din bah asasé sò,

Jesus came on earth for the salvation of men.

c. Wasée ne sìká téta ara kwà, he spoiled his money for nothing, to no purpose.

Rem. 1. The terminative adjunct may sometimes interchange with a simple object, or with an adjunct of cause (§ 240); e.g.

Nó bó afuw ahyè me = né bố afuw me, nó bỏ afuw (wo) me hố, he is anaru with me.

Osú mà né nùá = ósử né nùá, ósử né nùá hỗ, he weeps for his brother.

Rem. 2. In some of the sentences under b. and Rem. 1., c. g. okyér aduan' no mù máa won, osa ma ne nua, we might be inclined to consider 'won' or 'ne nua' as a complement of the principal verb (an indirect object, dative or terminative object, object of concern and direction, cf. § 200, 1c.), introduced by the auxiliary verb ma, in other cases by sie, hye, tia, — and not as an adjunct; but this would not do throughout, and we prefer calling every enlargement to a predicate, which is not a necessary complement of the verb, an adjunct. Cf.

Máyè kyéw mama no, I have made a cap for him; máyè kyéw mafa, I have made a cap for myself.

If we would call 'mamano' a dalive object, introduced by an auxiliary, we cannot apply the same expression to 'mafa'; again, we cannot consider 'mamano' as a principal sentence, only co-ordinate to the preceding, which would be 'mede mamano, I have given it to him'; so nothing remains but to designate both additions to the sentence 'maye kyew' as adjuncts.

CHAPTER VI.

Subordinate and Co-ordinate Parts of Simple Sentences. Order of Words. Emphasis. Ellipsis.

- 1. Subordinate Parts of Simple Sentences.
- **244.** The principal parts of a sentence (the *subject* and the *predicate*, § 148.155, 1) may have accessory parts subordinate to them.
- 1. In the predicate, when it does not consist of a verb only, the complements and the adjuncts are subordinate to the verb.
- 2. The attributes are subordinate members of the subject, or of the complement, or of a noun in the adjunct, or of another attributive noun.

Rem. The subordination may be of the first, second, third or fourth degree, according to the distance from the superordinate word. E. g.

Me wura apāfo akatua sõ, the wages of my master's labourers are considerable.

Ote Farao abrafo mu panyin fi, he was in the house of the chief among Pharaoh's executioners.

2. Co-ordinate Parts of Simple Sentences.

245. 1. Two or more *subjects*, having the same predicate, are *co-ordinate*. (The single nouns or pronouns are then members of a compound subject; § 161, 2.) They are connected by the conjunctions nè, and; ana, anase, or.

In a succession of more than two members, the conjunction nè may be omitted, except before the last member.

a. The combination is essential for a given sentence, when the predicate referring to it could not properly be applied to a single member. E. g.

Anán nè anúm yè akrón, four and five are nine.

O-nè Yaw nè Kofi sè (or sesee), he and Y. and K. are like each other. Kwasi nè Kofi ye tipenfo, Kw. and K. are equal in size.

Ye-nè won abom' bio, we and they are united (reconciled) again.

b. The combination is accidental, when the predicate is true of every single member. In this case two (or more) sentences are contracted into one. E. g.

Kofi nè ne nua aba, Kofi and his brother have come.

Ne yére, nè mmá nè ne yónkônom wò hó,

member.

his wife, children and friends are there.

Observ. The attributive pronoun is repeated before every single

- 2. When two or more verbs, not connected by conjunctions, have the same subject, we distinguish two cases:
- a. Essential combinations. One verb is the principal, and another is an auxiliary verb, supplying, as it were, an adverb of time or manner (§ 230, 231, 233, 3, 234.), or forming or introducing a complement (§ 205, 5, 206, 2, 3, 208, 3, 4.) or adjunct (§ 223, 224, 229, 243b); or the second verb is supplemental, forming part of a verbal phrase (§ 110). The actions expressed by both verbs are simultaneous and in an internal or inseparable relation or connection. In this case, the auxiliary or supplemental verb is co-ordinate only in form, but subordinate in sense, whether it be preceding or succeeding the principal verb. E. g.

Oguaré baà mpoāno, he swam to the shore. § 223.

O'yè adwuma ma ne na, he works for his mother. § 243b.

Wonni n'àním' n'twa nko ashogya noho, they shall go before him (over the lake) unto the other side. Mat. 14, 22.

Pae mu kă kyere me, lit. splil in (i. e. cut it open) speak show me, i.e. tell me plainly!

When the subject is the pronoun of the 1. pers. sing., it is prefixed to every single verb. E.g.

Meguaré mebaè, I swam hither. Meyé memà no. I do it for him. Midíi n'aním' mitwáè mekóò agyá nohò,

I went over before him unto the other side. Mepaeem' mekà mekyerge no, I told him plainly.

b. Accidental combinations. Two or more predicates (verbs with, or without, complements or adjuncts), expressing different successive actions, or a state simultaneous with another state or action, but having the same subject, are merely joined together without conjunction and without repeating the subject. In this case two (or more) sentences are thrown or contracted into one, and the verbs are co-ordinale in sense as well as in form. Cf. § 253. E. g.

Osoréè guaréè sráè, he arose, washed (and) anointed himself. Yesoréè ntém koò ofie, we arose quickly (and) went home. Otrát né pònkó sò guánè, he sat upon his horse (and) fled.

Sometimes one action or state is simultaneous to the other, in which case we often have a single verb in English, together with a parliciple or adjective. E. g.

Wote hó resů, they sit there weep = weeping.

Oyaré dà mpá sò, he is sick lies on the bed, = he lies sick.

When the pronoun of the 1. pers. sing. is the subject, it is prefixed to every single verb (as in the case under a.). E. g.

Mesoréè miguaréè mesráè. Mesoréè ntém mekoò fie. Metráž mé pònkó sò miguánè, *I fled on my horse*.

Mete hó mìresú. Meyaré medà mé mpá sò, I lie (lay) sick.

3. Co-ordinate complements are for the most part accidental combinations. E. g.

Moáyè nó sò kwankyérefő nè n'áwùdífő,

ye have been now his betrayers and murderers. Act. 7, 52.

Wonton no ne ne yére ne ne mmá ne nea ówo nhìna,

they shall sell him and his wife and children and all that he has. Waton ne fi, n'asasé ne ne nneéma nhìna,

he has sold his house, his land and all his things.

Some essential combinations are written as imperfect compounds; e.g.

Anomá dè ako-nè-abá nà énwène berebúw,

by going and coming the bird weares its nest. § 237c.

4. Co-ordinate adjuncts are likewise accidental combinations. E. g. Mefwefwég no (wo) offe nè wúrám',

I sought him in the house and in the field.

Obác Dwóda ne Yaw'da ne Fída,

he came on Monday, Thursday and Friday.

Wobác ntém ne féwso, they came quickly and gladly.

Co-ordinate adjuncts are also found without an intervening conjunction, especially when one of them is like an apposition to the other, or expresses a part of the place or time denoted by the other. E. g.

Wohyiáà ayéforo wò Kánà wo Galiléà,

there was a marriage in Cana of Galilee.

Miyfi wo (miffi) Misri asasé sò wo nkoáfi mù, I brought three out of the land of Egypt, from the house of bondage. Deut. 5, 6. Obáà 'néra anadwofá, he came yesterday evening.

- 5. Co-ordinate attributes.
- a. Co-ordinate adjective attributes, see § 188.
- b. Co-ordinate appositions, with or without conjunction. E.g.

Múńkyià Androníkò nè Yúnia, m'ábùsũafó nè me yóńkō-pokyerefó salute Andronicus and Junia, my kinsmen and my fellowprisoners. Rom. 16, 7. — § 190, 3. 4.

c. Co-ordinate attributive nouns are found before subjects, complements, adjuncts, attributes. E. g.

Ne yére nè ne bá wú amà né wère áhòw sê,

his wife's and child's death have grieved him much.

Ote né nà nè n'agyà asém, he hears his mother's and father's word, i. c. he is obedient to father and mother.

Wosiéè Yákòb wo Abraham nè Isak asici,

Jacob was buried in the burying place of Abraham and Isuac.

Sweden nè Norwegen héne dín dè Os'kar,

the name of the king of Sweden and Norway is Oscar.

- 3. Regular Order of Words. Combination of Different Complements, Adjuncts and Attributes.
 - 246. 1. The usual succession of the parts of a sentence is:

10

1. subject, 2. verb, 3. complement, 4. adjunct.

Altributes closely join the noun to which they belong, either preceding or succeeding it. § 185, 190, 192.

Rem. 1. Adjuncts of time often, and adjuncts of cause with the postposition at always, precede the subject.

Rem. 2. Adjuncts of place or time sometimes precede the complement, like an attribute in the possessive case. Cf. § 225, 3.

Dadewá atèw m'átàdém' tókuru, a nail has torn a hole in my coat. O'dì afé noara sòfopanyín, he was the high priest that same year.

2. Of two complements of the same verb, the datine precedes the passive object, and the passive precedes the factitive object. § 205. 206. But when the passive object is introduced by the auxiliary de (or fa), it precedes the principal verb with a datine object as well as with a factitive object. E. g.

Obuán me asém bi, or ode asém bi bůán me, he returned me a answer. Wosfi no héne, or! wode nó siì héne, they made him king.

3. Of different adjuncts, that of manner usually precedes that of place, and both precede that of lime, if the latter be not put at the head of the sentence. On the adjunct of cause with nti, see 1. Rem.1.

Wosúi sê wo hó, they wept there much.

Osú atò pi 'né, it has rained much to-day.

M'aní gyet sê wo hó 'néra, I rejoired there very much yesterday. Ené m'aní agyè há sê, to-day I have been very glad here.

(In this sentence ha is rather a complement.)

Edá no, oběré ně kóm nti otób píti wò 'kwánmů,

that day he fainted on the way, from weariness and hunger. Ne uti maha amané pi wo daé ma'né, I have suffered many things

this day in a dream because of him. Mat. 27, 19.

When the auxiliary verb de or fa introduces an adjunct of manner (instrument or accompaniment), or of cause (motive, reason, material), it precedes the principal verb with its passive object. § 237. a.c. 240. a.c.

The auxiliary fi, with adjuncts of place, usually precedes, — but the auxiliaries wo, ba, ko, besi, kodu, and others, with their adjuncts, always succeed the principal verb (and its complements). § 223.224.

4. Emphasis.

2.17. Any part of a sentence may be made emphatic by placing it before the sentence in an absolute way, as if it were a sentence by itself, and supplying it in its regular place by a pronoun (which however, is omitted in some cases, § 202, 4).

The word, which is thus rendered prominent, is followed either by the conjunction na, or by one or two of the emphatic particles demmom, nko, ara, with or without na, or merely by a short pause. marked in writing by a comma. It may even be expanded into a proper sentence, by adding the words we ho yi, or by premising the word eye, it is, it was. In negative sentences enyé, it is not, is used, and the verb of the real predicate of the sentence follows in the affirmative form. E.g.

1. The *subject* rendered prominent.

Méara nà merebeyé, I myself shall do it. Móara monfive! see ye (lo it)! Mut. 27, 24. Enyé me, eye wón na ékaé, not I, (but) they told it. On' dé, wanyi wòn ayé, he did not praise them (as others did). Enó mmòm' nà ényé korā, that is even worse. Enó nkō ara nà edôsō, that alone is sufficient.

Amán abien yi tumí nso, ete sệ esé; na wọn abràbu nà csono nó korā, the power of these two nations was nearly equal, but their manners were entirely different.

Boné wo ho yi, enó nà esée mán, it is sin that spoils a nation. Enyé abópae nko ne adwúma, not only digging stones is work. Asé à mété yi, enyé eno nà éhia; nà adwumaye nà chia, that I live is not necessary, but to do work is necessary.

- 2. The verb is made prominent by premising its infinitive form. Oyáw nkô ara nà wote hó yàw, they live in continual quarreling. Wáwú no, nà owú ara nà wáwú, having died, he was dead. Nnípa nhìná pệ Abrokyíri ako, na onyá nà wónnyá, all men wish to go to Europe, they only do not attain to it. Atadé dé, otú nà wótú hō, na wontwiw, as for a coat (or any garment), it is brushed, but not cleaned (as shoes).
- 3. Complements made prominent.
- a. The nominative complement.

Wohii se eye ohène no nen, they saw that it is the king. Enyé ohéne no nen, it is not the king,

b. The objective and locative complement. See § 201, 5.

Yíyé bến nà mmărá yi yeé? what good was effected by these laws? Nsú ani wo ho yi, nea woáfá ho, wóbà a, wún'hú ho biò, the way you have taken on the surface of the water, you do not

see again in returning.

Prussifo mpoāno ho na Foinisifo kofaa eton fi, it was from the coast of Prussia that the Phoenicians fetched amber.

4. Adjuncts of place, time, manner, cause, made prominent.

Băbiara à óbedu nà wasée ho nnèéma nhìná, whithersoever he came, he destroyed everything. Wón kômám dé, wòda só yệ abosonsómfó,

in their hearts they were still heathen.

Kán no nà wón bànú yi yè biakó,

formerly these two men were on good terms. Né bére sò na nkurofó no hữu amané pì,

in his time the people were sorely afflicted.

Enyé ohônam ani nyàmesóm kwa sò na onipa nam benyã ňkwå, na Awuradé Yesù ňkó sò, na wonám nyà ňkwá, it is not by mere outward worship that a man will be saved, but only by the Lord Jesus (are we saved).

Edén nà onó dé, woámmá no?

why didst thou not give (anything) to him?

Nnipa ogye na Yesu boo din wui,

it was for the salvation of men that Jesus died.

Yen ananmu na owu' sii, il was in our stead that he died.

5. Attributive nouns made prominent.

Okwascá nà né guán tèw mpén abìch,

a fool it is whose sheep breaks loose twice.

Rem. All interrogative pronouns, substantive and adjective, are often found in this emphatic position at the head of the sentence, and take na after them, whether they stand in the place of the subject, or of a complement, adjunct or attribute. (Before the verb ne they do not take na after them.) E. g.

Héna nà ábà? who has come?

(Héna ni? who is this? Eden ni? what is this?)

Adé bỳú or đếu (== deébèu) nà wótòu? wótòu đếu? what do you sell? Nuípa ahé nà éwo ho? how many persons are there?

Wúhữ ahé? (ahé nà wúhú won?) how many do you see?

Héna guán nà ayéra? (héna nà né guán ayéra?) whose sheep is lost? Ehé nà wúhũù no? (wúhũù no wọ hé?) where did you see hìm?

Ellipsis.

- 248. A part of a sentence may be omitted, when it can easily be supplied from the context, whether it be mentioned before, or not, and in proverbs or sententious and impassioned expressions.
 - 1. The subject being omitted, see § 160.
 - 2. The object being omitted, see § 202.
 - 3. The verb may be omitted in some cases, as ---
- a. the verb ye, in descriptions before nominative complements, especially adjectives; e.g.

Okura pomá bi à chố àpowapów, *he had a knobbed stick*.

Húnnífo yè nnípa bi à won ásém áham'sém, won aní ákyewakyéw, wón kòko atetreté, the Huns were people of savage manners, with squint eyes, broad chests.

Teaségnam a ne nán ablen' ablen' mù na wóthè won yérenom nè wọi mmá, on two-wheel carriages they drew their wives and children.

Won adé mmobo! lit. their things [cause or more to] pity, i.e. poor people!

b. any verb, with complements; e.g.

Asém nkô, nyánsá nkô, matter alone, wisdom alone, i. e. the matter (in question) is one thing, and wisdom (or the right judgement of it) is another thing. Prov.

4. A whole sentence with the exception of the last word is sometimes omitted; e.g.

Wókò, na krána! they are gone and [since every thing is] silent, i.e.

nothing has been heard since.

Na nnaawótwe no dui, yéfwè a, - kórā! the eighth day came, when we looked out, [we saw nobody] at all! i.e. nobody came

Ohempón no rèpe otó ató okó no anò, nso okwa, the emperor desired to fall in the battle, but [he sought it] in vain.

On dabi, no, see § 146, 3.

5. Entire sentences too are left out; e.g.

Wó dé, gye sê wótè! as for thee, [I shall not be satisfied] except thou die!

E'bà sá dá nso à, [ammá] gye sê Fráns dàn' n'ámán no mù bí de mà Napólèon, as often as this came to pass, [it did not come to pass | except Francis ceded some part of his countries to Napoleon. Aniwu ne wu -, na efanim wu, shame and death, if I had to choose between them, then [I should say] death is less bad. Cf. § 199, 5. Se yeamfa abodo ntia! *Mat. 16, 7.*

6. Subordinate sentences are in some cases shortened and contracted with their principal one by the omission of their verb (with its complement) and of other parts or particles. Cf. § 269.

Da se 'ne Yaw yebesim', this Thursday week we shall start. Da se 'ne Yaw, lit. day like to-day Thurstday), may be said to be shortened from da a etc se 'ne Yawda yi [te], or the like. Cf. Da se 'ne nti na woaye bowerew. (Prov.)

SECTION II. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

CHAPTER I.

Co-ordinate Sentences.

249. A compound sentence (§ 155, 2a) may contain two or more principal sentences co-ordinate with each other, the connexion of which is either 1. copulative, or 2. adversative, or 3. causative (illative), and is indicated by conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs or phrases, or lies only in the sense.

1. Condutive Co-ordination.

250. In copulative combinations, a second assertion is added to first, so as to give greater extent of meaning to the whole.

3. When the first verb is negative, the co-ordinate verb is usually made negative too. E. g.

Onni bābi nte or ntrā = onni bābi te, see above under 2.

Onnyá bìribí nni = biribi a odi or obedi, he gets nothing to cat.
Woanhú fô-pá bi àntú nò, they found no good advice to give him.
Wonnyá ebí nto biò = wonnyá ebí à wóbeto biò, they do not get
anuthing to buy again, they get nothing to buy any more.

4. The abbreviation may also take place, when the subject of the adjective sentence is the object of the principal sentence.

Wonnyā obi nto bio = wonnyā obi a obeto bio, they do not get any one to buy again, they get no buyer any more.

5. Other examples of co-ordination of a negative predicate, where we might expect an adjective sentence with an affirmative predicate, are the following proverbs:

Obí ntùtú anòmá ù'kokyeré opànyín — obí nt. anomá à óde kokyere op., a person does not pluck a bird (does not go to show i. c.) which he is going to show to an old man (to inquire for its name). Obi nye yiye nnyã bone, see in § 253° B 1.

Rem. Instead of an adjective sent, after a negative verb and nominative complement implying a comparison, a sentence with the conjunction na and the verb in the consecutive is used. Cf. § 250, 2. 279, 2.

Afisem nye ntama na woasi ahata gua so,

a family matter is not a cloth that it might be (== which might be) washed and spread out in a public place (to dry).

Nkramfoá n'yé nám bi nà apofofó abô dín aforo po,

the nkramfana are no such fishes that fishermen would launch into sea on account of them.

6. The relat. particle and the subject of an adject. sent. are also omitted before beye (se), beboro, introducing a number, weight or measure approximately estimated. Cf. § 160, 4, 175, 2, 189, 2, 229, 2.

3. Adverbial Sentences.

259. An adverbial sentence qualifies the predicate of the principal one like an adjunct of place, time, manner or cause.

We might consider those adjuncts, which are introduced by auxiliary verbs, as adverbial sentences, having the same subject in common with the principal verb; but, as we have treated of them already in § 223, 224, 227, 229, 233, 228, 239, 239, 239, 239, 239, 230, 239 and it is a subject of the auxiliary is different from that of the principal verb, together with adverbial sentences of other descriptions.

a. Adverbial Sentences of Place.

260. 1. Adverbial sentences of place, introduced in English by where, whither, whence, are expressed in Tshi by relative sentences attached to certain pronouns or nouns of place by the relative particle 'a', viz. nea = a place where (§ 65), bābi a, some place where,

Ode mnuantén no begyinà no nífa, na ode mpapó no agyina benkúm. Mat. 25, 33.

Onípa ba no behů amàné pì, na mpanyimío nè asófó-mpànyíň nè kyeréwfó no àpa no na woakum no, na dá à éto sò mansá no wanyáň. Luk. 9, 22. 44. 18, 31–33. cf. Mat. 16, 21. 17, 22. 23. 20, 18. 19. Mark. 8, 31. 9, 31. 10, 33. 34.

2. Adversative Co-ordination.

251. In adversative combinations a second assertion is put in opposition to the first, either negativing ita), or leaving one of the two assertions to be accepted and the other to be negative 1b, or granting the first, but presenting a limitation of or a contrast d to it.

a. Wankó Akyém, na osán bah Nkran,

he did not go to Akem, but returned to Akra.

Nyệ nyất, ná từ mmiriká nt<u>émntém, be not slow, but run fast.</u> Mempé wò boné, na m<u>éye</u> wò yíyé,

I do not wish to hurt you, but I shall do you good.

Wansiw no kwán, na mmòm oboáh no,

he did not hinder him, but even helped him.

b. Ko ne úkyéň, anásě kyerew no úhôma, go to him, or write him a letter.

Fwe kúru no yiyé, anyé sá à, ebétu,

attend well to this wound, else it will ulcerate.

Wádà, anásè wáfi adi, he sleeps or has gone out.

c. Eye fe, na enyé aufbere, il is fine, but excites no desire.

Wányin, na onnyá mfuw dwen è,

he is old, but still has no grey hairs yet.

Mede mo dé, na menné mo úliná, *I mean you, but not all of you.* Mafré no dé, na mamfré mo úliná,

I have called him, but not all of you.

d. Woafré mnípa běbré, na kakrá bi na woápaw won. Mat. 20, 16. Abofrá bộ nwáw, na ommó akyèkyeré,

a child breaks a snail, but not a tortoise.

Asó si abien', na enté nsem abien', (man's) cars arc two, but they don't hear two words (the same word in two different ways).

Pae mú se' ye feré, nso eye ahódňo, "Speak it out freely (tell it plainly)" causes shame, but brings case of mind.

Rem. 1. There are sentences which may as well be reckoned to $\S 250$, as to $\S 251$. E. g.

Habel yég oguanfwéfo, na Kain (nso) yég okuafó, Abel was a keeper of sheep, and (or but) Cain was a tiller of the ground.

Rem. 2. In sentences like the following, the second contains a cause. Anka mebáè ákyè (or má lù há dèdaw), na osú no nti àmmá mànnyá ntém, I should be here (or should have arrived) long since, but on a count of the rain I was delayed.

Anka introduces an event not real, but only imaginary; cf. § 141,8. 276, 5. The second sentence is adversative to the first, giving the reason for the non-reality of the event mentioned therein. Cf. § 252.

3. Causative and Illative Co-ordination.

252. In causative combinations, one sentence gives the logical reason or cause, and the other the inference (logical conclusion) or result (effect or consequence). When the second sentence expresses the reason or cause a), it has the conj. nà, and when it expresses the inference or result b), it has the words na enti, eyi nti, eno nti, ene se, before it E. g.

a. Nkó turóm', nà fám' áfòw,

do not go into the garden, for the ground is wet.

Asasé no yè, nà ébà aduan' pì,

this land is good, for it produces much food.

Nhyirá ne mmòborohúnufó; nà wón nà wobéhu wòn mmóbò,

blessed are the merciful: for they shall obtain mercy.

Mé dóm no dò wo sõ; nà mé túmi vié pệ yệ wò méréw mu, my grace is sufficient for thee: for my strength is made perfet in weakness. 2 Cor. 12, 9.

Mónn'nádà mohó; Onyamé m'má wonsí no atwetwe, be not deceived; God is not mocked. Gal. 6, 7.

Rem. 1. The cause is more frequently expressed, in the same succession, by effise, introducing a subordinate sentence. § 275, 2.

b. Ahéne nè mpanyimfó tumí fi Nyańkópóń; énti ètwa sê móbèré mòhó ase hyè woń asé. Rom. 13, 5.

Onipa nti ná wóyce homédá; na enti onipa ba no ye homédá nso wurà, the sabbath was made for man; therefore the Son of man is Lord also of the sabbath. Mark. 2, 28.

Mún'ním' don kó à mó wurà béba; énti mónwen! you do not know

what hour your master will come: therefore watch!

Rem. 2. The cause is also expressed (in the same succession) by a subordinate sentence having nti for its last word. E. g.

(Se or estate se or efise) műnním dòn kó à óbeba nti, mónwen! because (or as) you do not know what hour he will come, watch! See § 275, 1.

- 4. Contraction and Abbreviation of Co-ordinate Sentences.
- 253. 1. When two co-ordinate sentences have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or the same complement, or the same adjunct, the parts common to both sentences are not expressed twice, and the two sentences are contracted into one, and regarded as a simple sentence with a compound subject or predicate or complement or adjunct, consisting of co-ordinate members. Examples see § 245, 1-5.

When such co-ordinate members consist of nouns or pronouns, they are connected by the conjunction nè or anase; when consisting of, or introduced by verbs, no conjunction is used.

2. This applies to copulative sentences; to adversative sentences only when two subjects or complements connected by anase have a common verb. E. g.

Kwasi anásè Kofi mměrà, Kwasi or Kofi shall come.

Wato oguanten anase aberekyi? has he bought a sheep or a goat? Rem. In a second copulative sentence, in which the pronoun, and an adversative sentence in which also the verb can be omitted in

in an *adversative* sentence, in which also the verb can be omitted in English, both must be expressed in Tshi; e.g.

Kwasi baè, no oko biò, Kwasi came, but went away again.

Mempé ne nùá, nà mepe Kofi,

I don't want his brother, but (I want) Kofi himself.

Mányà odé, na mannyá aburow', I have got yam, but no corn.

3. An adversative sentence may be abbreviated, when only a single part in it, either the subject, or an object, or an altribute, is opposed to the corresponding part of the preceding sentence. The verb and other parts common to both sentences, are then not repeated; but that part of the second sentence, which is put in contrast to a part of the first, is mentioned alone (or with such words as necessarily belong to it), introduced by eye or enye. E. g.

Enyé me nà mékáč, na eye wó, not I said it, but thou (saidst it). Enyé ne bòné nti nà owůi, na eye yén bòné ntià,

not on account of his own sins he died, but for our sins.

Yến nà woásoma yện, na guyệ mó, we have been sent, not you. Obarímá bi wù a, né wòfaséwa nà ódì n'ádé, enyệ nề mmá, when a man dies, his nephew inherits his goods, not his children.

- Okwáň wàré à, wode woň náň na étwá, na enyé abonuá (or, na wonné ab.), if a way is long, it is shortened by the feet, not by an av.
- 1. A co-ordinate sentence expressing a *cause* cannot be abbreviated; but the cause can be expressed by a subordinate sentence, which may be abbreviated into a mere adjunct. See § 275, 240, 1b.
- **253a.** In § 245, 2a, we spoke of simple sentences in which two (or three) verbs are co-ordinate in form like those in the contracted sentences of § 245, 2b., yet only one of those verbs is the principal verb, and the other, or also the third, an auxiliary, is subordinate in meaning, forming or introducing some complement or adjunct to the principal verb. In a similar way, subordinate thoughts, for the expression of which, in English, subordinate sentences or participles are used, are often found expressed in the conciser form of co-ordinution, either 1, in a contracted sentence, when the subject is expressed only once; or 2, in a compound sentence with the co-ordinative conjunction na, especially when there are different subjects. This way of expression is found in many proverbs, seldom with affirmative, but very frequently with negative predicates. Though the form of the two predicates be the same, their mutual relation, or the logical form of the thoughts expressed by them, is different, as the following examples will show.

- A. Sentences with affirmative predicates, 1. contracted, 2. compound
- 1. Ehia batani hia 'pani, when the trader is in want (of food &c.), his carrier (hired person who accompanies him carrying his goods) is it too. The first predicate is equal to an adverbial sentence of time (§ 262, 1), or of manner (comparison, § 269), or of cause, (either real cause or condition, § 275, 276, 1).
- Dua bata 'bo ye otwa-nă, a pie c of wood lying close to a stone, is difficult to be cut. The 1st pred. an adv. sent. of time or condition § 276, 276a): dua bata bo a, eye otwa-nă; or an adjective sent. (§ 258, 2): dua a ebata bo ye otwa-nă.
- 2. Onipa nam na osíane amoa, whilst a man walks, he walks by the side of a pil, i.e. is always near the grave. The 1st pred. = an adv. sent. of time; § 262. 263.
- Momono tew na guannuan tew, fresh (leaves) fall off and dry (ones) fall off, i. e. fresh leaves fall off as well as dry leaves. One of the two predicates is equal to an adv. sent. of manner (comparison); § 268.
- B. Sentences with negative predicates, 1. contracted, 2. compound.
- Nsátéawa n'yé pòno-ná n'yé tènc-ná (Ak., = 2. nsátéa nye pono-nã nso enye tèe-nã, Akp.), a finger is not difficult to bend (and) not difficult to stretch out, i. c. a finger may be as easily stretched as bent. One of the two predd. = an adr. sent. of manner (comparison); § 268.
- Obi nye yiye nnyâ bone, (lit.) one does not good does not receive evil; the 1st pred. = an adj. sent. (§ 258,5): obi a oye yiye nnyâ bone, one doing good does not receive evil; or = an adv. sent. of time or condition (§ 276a): obi ye yiye a, onnyâ bone, when or if one does good, he is not requited with evil; or the 2d pred. = an adv. sent. of cause (purpose, § 279, 1a.): obi nye yiye se obenyâ bone, nobody does good that he may obtain evil.
- 2. Akoa nni awu na woùkum owura, if a slave commits a murder, the master is not killed (for it). The 1st pred. an adv. sent. of condition. Obi nto akokonini na (or, mmå) ommoù obi akura, nobody buys a cock that he may crow at another man's village. The 2d pred. an adv. sent. of purpose; § 279, 1b. (§ 271, 1c.)
- C. For the sake of comparison we add the following proverbs as further examples with negative predicates.
- Obi mfa aberekyi nto guanten hō, nobody compares a goal with a sheep. The 1st pred. —: a direct object; § 205, 5. Rem.
- Obi mme mma obi, nobody is satisfied for another. The 2d pred. = an indirect object, § 206, 3., or rather a terminative adjunct, § 243b. Obi nhu nipa dakoro use no se: woafon, nobody seeing (or, having seen) a man one day (for the first time), says to him (on the same day): you have become lean. The 1st pred. == an adjunct of time (with a relative sent.) or an adv. sent. of time; § 226, 1.262, 1.
- Obi hhintaw mmo waw, nobody coughs secretly. The 1st pred. == an adjunct of manner; § 233, 3, 234, 3.
- Obi mfa ne nan abien nsusuw asu, nobody measures (the depth of) a water with both legs. The 1st pred. : : an adjunct of manner (means); § 237a.

i'nsusuw sono yám' m'mú ahàban', nobody plucks a leaf measuring n clephants belly, i.e. reflecting what will satisfy an elephant. The st pred. = adjunct of manner (accompanying circumstance); § 237c. i nkwati kokurobeti mmo pow. Dua biara nsow nnyā nfŵiren da. 237c. The 1st or the 2d pred. = an adjunct of manner (exclusion). i mmūa n'ano nni fo, nobody shuts his mouth so that (in consequence f it) he would appear as guilty.

ii midi mu nehō, nobody cats so that he repents (of it). The 2d red. = an adv, sent. of manner (consequence); § 273, 1a.

n inhu 'bi kwaberan nhuruw nsi, nobody jumps (with joy, or exults) n seeing another man's strong slave. The 1st pred. = an adjunct r adv. sent. of cause (motive); § 240 b. 255, 6 a. 275, 1. 2.

i ntu mmere nsie siw so, $\S 276^a$, 2. with a second example. The st pred. = an adv. sent. of condition.

bi nyi mmusu mfa mmusu, nobody removes woe in order to get woe. The 2d pred. = an adv. sent. of cause (purpose); § 279, 1a.

bi ntutu anoma nkokyere opanyin, § 258, 5.

The 2d pred. = an adjective sentence. Cf. also § 258, 3. 4.

Obi mpra na obi nsesaw, § 276a with a second example.

The 1st pred. == an adv. sent. of time or condition.

bi ntwa poma na ensen no (tenten), nobody cuts a slick longer than kimself. The 2d pred. = an adjective sentence.

binto akoa na onsen ne wura, nobody buys a slave that he surpasses his master, i.e. that he might rule over him (-- an explanation to the preceding proverb).

More than the Mills of the Akem dialect. Cf. § 271, 1c.

CHAPTER II.

Subordinate Sentences.

254. Subordinate sentences form parts of the principal sentence with which they are compounded into one complex sentence (§ 155, 2), i.e. they stand in the place of a subject, or complement, or adjunct, attribute. There are three kinds of subordinate sentences: 1. the the sentence, 2. the adjective sentence, 3. the adverbial sentence.

Rem. Subordinate sentences are, besides the connective particles in with them, distinguished from principal sentences by their lone, tones being frequently exchanged with high tones at the begining, and low or high tones, with middle tones at the end.

1. Noun Sentences.

- **255.** A noun-sentence is equivalent to an abstract noun, and stands for a subject, or complement, or attribute.
- 1. A noun-sentence standing in the place of a subject, either precedes the predicate of the principal sentence, as the subject usually does a), or the subject is indicated by the pronoun e, prefixed to the verb of the principal sentence, and its statement in a sentence follows behind, being introduced by the conjunction se, from se, to say b), or by se or senea, from se, to be alikee (§ 141.) In the latter case, the noun-sentence may also precede the predicate d).
- a. Pae mú se yè feré, cul (il) open say i. e. open confession causes shame. Ko wó kuróm' nyé oyáw, go into your (own) country, is no insult. Som wohó n'yé akòá, serve thyself is not slavery.
- b. Eye sê woábá, it is well that you are come.

 Etwa sê wókó, it is necessary that you go i.e. you must go.

 Eyée no fé se óbeye adwúma no, it pleased him that he should do
 that work, i.e. he liked to do that, he did that work gladly.

 Ensé ahéne se wóbenom nsá, it is not for kings to drink wine.

 Eye Onyamé mmärá se obí nn'wiá ne yónko adé,
 it is a dirine law that none shall steal his neighbour's things.
- c. Eyéè no sé osô dàé, it appeared to him as if he was dreaming.
 Esóno se eté wè Germanefó asàsé sò hébere nè 'néyi,
 the condition of the Germans' country at that time was different
 from what it is now.

Esono sénèa wofwefwéé no faè kôrā, the manner in which they sought it, was altogether different.

- d. Se g-nè won dii no ye hũ, how he dealt with them, was frightful. Senea gyee no fac no ye nwônwâ, how he performed it, is wonderful.
- 2. A noun-sentence standing in the place of a nominative complement is likewise introduced by se. E.g.

N'ásém mù nokwáre ne sè onní sìká,

the truth in his story is, that he has no money.

- 3. A noun-sentence stands in the place of an object
- a. without conjunction, after the verb se, to say, when a person's words (or thoughts) are quoted in a direct or indirect way;
- b. introduced by se or senea, after several transitive verbs, expressing some perception or its manifestation, or a desire to do something or that it be done. In the latter case, the succeeding verb stands in the imperative form.
- a. Oníhafo sè: okyéna meye, the sluggard says, to-morrow I will do il. Akura' ho osè orénòm nsú, na wannyá bì,
- in that village he thought to drink water; but he got none. b. Mate se waba, I have heard that he is come.

Múntiè sénèa ôyeé no faé, listen how he performed it. Ohúi se ontumi n'yé adé no, he saw that he could not do it. Múnim sénèa oté 'ne àná? do you know how he is to-day?
Misusúw' se oda só yàré, I think he is still sirk.
Kókā kyere no sè méba, go (and) tell him that I shall come!
Kyere sénèa ónye no mfa! show how he shall do it!
Osuróè se obéko ho, he was afraid to go there.
Kóbisa no sè obéba àná? ask him whether he will come.
Ose (okáè se, obuáà me se) ommá (ómm'má, órèmmá),
he says (he said, he answered me) he will (would) not come.
Oseréè me se mémmo nò bósea, he begged me to lend him some moncy.
Meseré wo sè běra, I beg you to come.

Rem. As a noun-sentence standing in the place of an object, we must also (grammatically) consider what follows after the verb mã in the meaning to let, to cause, to permit, to have (something done), in the compound imperative as well as in any other form. Cf. § 91, 10. (§ 95.) § 107, 25.; but see also § 273, 1e. E. g.

Ohiá nà émã odéhyé ye akoá, poverty causes a freeman to become a slave.

4. A noun-sentence stands in the place of a complement of place after the verb fi; but we consider eff se and eff se as compound conjunctions of time and cause. See § 265, 275.

Efi sệ mébaà há yi, meyaré, since I came here, I am sièk. O'yàw no, chisệ waguán, he scolds him, because he has fled.

5. A noun-sentence [or adverbial sent. of comparison, § 268a.269], introduced by se or sénèa, stands in the place of a complement of manner after the verb te and its corresponding verb ye (§ 209, 1).

Ete sé (or sénèa) wókāé no, it is as thou saidst.

Ebéye se mokâé no, it will be as you said.

Etc sê wawia, it is as if he had stolen (it).

Ete sê osuró, it is as if he was afraid.

An abbreviation of such noun-sentences, and contraction with the principal sentence, takes place, when the predicate of the noun-sentence would be the same as that of the principal sentence, and is, therefore, left out. E. g.

Ote sé ne nùá [te], he is as his brother [is]. Yete sé wón [= se wote], we are as they [are]. Onyamé asém tè sê asâé, the word of God is like a hammer. Jer. 23, 29. Cf. § 209, 1.

- 6. A noun-sentence stands in the place of an attribute in the possessive case
 - a. before the postposition nti, cf. § 239, 4. 275, 1 Rem 2.
 - b. introduced by se, after some verbal phrases.
- a. Ohûfo sùrô dôm nti otwà abrodô, the coward deserts, because he is afraid of the enemy. Onyaûkôpoù mpe asemmone nti na okye din mmiakô-mmiakô, because God does not like misdeeds, he gave a name to everybody.

Huw m'ani so mã me nti na atwe abien nam, lit. for the sake of blow upon my eye for me' two antelopes walk (in company), i.e. that one may blow upon the other's eye etc. Cf. 279, 2. Rem. 2.3.

b. Wobúù no fó sẽ wónkum nò (= wobúù no kúm fó),

they condemned him to be killed.

Mituù no fó sẽ ónko số (= mituù no né nkôsó hỗ fó),

I admonished him to go on.

Ohyéè me asé sè obeboá me (= ohyéè me né bóa ase),

he promised me to help me. Cf. § 214, 2.

Osíw me kwáń sę mennyé m'adwúma, or: osíw me m'ádwúma hô kwáń, he prohibited me from doing my work.

Héna nà ógycè mo asabawmú sẽ műnnítić nokwáre, who did hinder you, that you should not obey the truth?

Abbreviation and Contraction of Noun-sentences.

256. In noun-sentences introduced by se, with the following verb in the future tense, the conjunction may be omitted, and the verb is then subordinated to the preceding verb in the consecutive form, or co-ordinated in the negative form. E. g.

Obénya ho kwáń ayę sénea opé, he will have liberty (or permission) to do as he likes.

Ofwefwe biribí aye, he seeks something to do.

Onnyá hô kwán n'yé senèa opé, he is not permitted to do as he likes. Rem. The verbs pe, to desire, be willing, will, wish, intend, f'we fwe, to seek, and tumi (Ak. timi), to be able, can, are construed

a. with a noun-sentence introduced by se (§ 255, 3b.);

b. with another finite verb in the consecutive form; the verb pe then takes the complement of the second verb for itself;

c. the verb turni in the negative is followed by the second verb likewise in the negative.

a. Mepe sê mésoa adésoa, I wish to carry a load (or loads).

Ope sệ ogóru mmòm' sèn sê óbeye adwuma,

he likes rather to play than to work. Onyamé pè sê yékyi (or yénkyi) bòné,

God desires that we [might] abhor sin.

Métumi sê mésoa adésoa, I shall be able to carry a load.

Mobétúmi sệ mónòm kurúwá no ànásè wóde asúbo no bò mo asú? are you able to drink of that cup or to be baptized with that baptism? Mat. 20, 22.

b. Mepe adésoa bi masóa, I seek a load to carry.

Ofwefwe adwuma bi aye, he seeks some work to do.

Mempé obí tí matwa, I do not desire to cut off any man's head.

Merempé ho matrá dà, I shall never like to direll there.

Wobétůmi aye děn? what are you able to do?

Métúmi masoa adésoa yi, I shall be able to carry this load.

c. Mintumí měnsoá hamáňká, I cannol carry hammock.

Wantumi ànsoá adésoa no, he could not carry that load.

Constructions of pe and turni with simple complements, see § 203 Rem. Cf. § 107, 12, 23.

2. Adjective Sentences.

257. An adjective sentence takes the place of an attributive adjective and may be attached to any noun or pronoun (or other words equivalent to a noun), be it the subject, or a complement, adjunct or attribute. It is connected with the noun to which it belongs, and which is called its anteredent, by the relative particle 'a' (which has always the low tone, but no comma after it, as the conjunctive particle 'a' § 262. 276). E. g.

Adé à ényé (= ade boné) na wóyè no yíyé, a thing which is not good (a bad thing) is made good.

Duá à éyè dén (duá dènnén) nkyé afúw sò, a hard tree does not stand long on a plantation (it will soon be cut).

stand long on à plantation (it will soon be cut). O'di aduan' à éyè dé (aduan' dèdé), he eats palatable food.

Nnípa bànú à wókó nò sẽ pé,

the two men, who are walking there, are like each other.

Wón à wódiť no sò nhiná peè n'ásém, all his superiors liked him. Onípa à méboò ne dín mekyereé wo no abà,

the man whom I mentioned to you, has come.

Asém à wókãé no n'té sà, the matter which you related is not so.

Kyere me nea gfáè, tell me which way he took.

Minuím fàkô à ókoć, I don't know in which direction he went off. Cf. § 260, 1. 265, 1 Rem. b.

More examples see in § 64. and adj. sentences after nea in § 65.

Rem. 1. Such adjective sentences are very frequent in Tshi, on account of the scarcity of adjectives and the entire want of participles. Even nouns are supplied in this way; e. g. nea wopé (nye), that which thou will i. e. thy will (be done).

Rem. 2. On two or more adjective sentences in succession, see § 282, 1.

Abbreviation of Adjective Sentences.

258. 1. The first step towards the abbreviation of an adjective sentence joined to a complement, is the *omission of the relative particle* 'a' E. g.

Wouhh asem ko woka, they do not find a word to say, or the single (peculiar) word (which) they might say.

2. The *subject* of the adjective sentence is *omitted*, beside the relat, particle, when it is the same as that of the principal sentence; the two verbs then appear as *co-ordinate*. E. g.

Onní bàbí té — onni bābi a ote *or* obetrà, *he has not where to dwell.* Nea wónyà dii sŭa — nea wonyãe a wodii *or* wobedi sŭa,

what they got to cat was not much.

Ohène no nyàà opanyim-pà bi tràà ne hô, the king had an excellent minister silling at his side, i.e. with him. [In this case tràà may be taken in a causative sense, or the case is the same as under 4.]

Dua bata bo ye otwa na, § 253° A 1. [In this example not the second, but the first of the two predicates may be explained by an adj. sent.]

3. When the first verb is negative, the co-ordinate verb is usually made negative too. E. g.

Onni bābi nte or ntrā = onni bābi te, see above under 2.

Onnyá biribí nni --- biribi a odi or obedi, he gets nothing to cat. Woahhá fò-pá bi àntá nò, they found no good advice to give him. Wonnyá chí nto biò --- wonnyá chí à wóbeto biò, they do not get anuthing to buy again, they get nothing to buy any more.

4. The abbreviation may also take place, when the subject of the adjective sentence is the object of the principal sentence.

Wonnyâ obi nto bio == wonnyâ obi a obeto bio, they do not get any one to buy again, they get no buyer any more.

5. Other examples of co-ordination of a negative predicate, where we might expect an adjective sentence with an affirmative predicate, are the following proverbs:

Obi ntùtú anòmá n'kokyeré opànyin sobi nt. anomá à óde kokyere op., a person does not pluck a bird (does not go to show i. e.) which he is going to show to an old man (to inquire for its name). Obi nye yiye nnyà bone, see in § 253° B 1.

Rem. Instead of an adjective sent, after a negative verb and nominative complement implying a comparison, a sentence with the conjunction na and the verb in the consecutive is used. Cf. § 250, 2. 279, 2.

Afisem nye ntama na woasi ahata gua so,

a family matter is not a cloth that it might be (- which might be) washed and spread out in a public place (to dry).

Nkramfőá n'yé nám bi nà apofotó abò dín aforo po,

the nkramfana are no such fishes that fishermen would launch into sea on account of them.

6. The relat. particle and the subject of an adject. sent. are also omitted before beye (se), beboro, introducing a number, weight or measure approximately estimated. Cf. § 160, 4, 175, 2, 189, 2, 229, 2.

3. Adverbial Sentences.

259. An adverbial sentence qualifies the predicate of the principal one like an adjunct of place, time, manner or cause.

We might consider those adjuncts, which are introduced by auxiliary verbs, as adverbial sentences, having the same subject in common with the principal verb; but, as we have treated of them already in § 223, 224, 227, 229, 233—235, 237, 239, 243, we are only to mention such cases as have not yet been specially eases in which the subject of the auxiliary is different from that of the principal yerb, together with adverbial sentences of other descriptions.

a. Adverbial Sentences of Place.

260. 1. Adverbial sentences of place, introduced in English by where, whither, whence, are expressed in Tshi by relative sentences attached to certain pronouns or nouns of place by the relative particle 'a', viz. nea = u place where (§ 65), bābi a, some place where,

bābiara a, any place where, fākō a, the place where. Such relative sentences must be considered as adjective sentences belonging to nc(a), bābi, fākō, and these expressions are either locative complements a) or adjuncts b). E. g.

a. Meba nea owo, I shall come where he is. John 7, 34. 12, 26. 14, 3. Nea woko no, meko, whither thou goest, I will go. Ruth 1, 16. § 65, 11.

b. Mframa bo wo nea epe, the wind bloweth where it listeth. John 3, 8. Nea wobewn no, mewn, where thou diest, will I die. Ruth 1, 17. Bābiara a wobeko no, medi wo akyi, I will follow thee whithersoever thou goest. Mat. 8, 19. § 65, 12.

Rem. When the sentence introduced in English by where &c., is not an adverbial sentence, but a noun-sentence (§ 255), the expressions ne(a), bābi(ara), fākō, are subjects a) or attributes b) or objective complements (e. g. after the verb hū, nim, bisa, kyere,) c), and the relative sentence is likewise an adjective sentence. E. g.

- a. Nea ofi (ho) bae no nea oreko ahintaw won, whence he came and whither he was going, was hidden from them.
- b. Waka me nea okoe ho nsem, he told me stories of (the place) where he had been.
- c. Kyere me nea ofae. Minnim fākō a okoe. § 257. Mat. 8, 20.

 John 14, 3. 4. 5.
- 2. An instance of real adverbial sentences of place (showing extent), introduced by senea (cf. § 255, 1. 3. 5. 268.), is the following:

Senea Filip tumi kosõ ühinā, obo mmoden se ankā oretore Protestantefo no ase, as far as Philipp's power reached, he endeavoured to extirpate the Protestants.

b. Adverbial Sentences of Time.

- **261.** 1. By an adverbial sentence of time, an event or state is mentioned, to show the time of the event or state expressed by the predicate of the principal sentence. We call the former the subordinate, and the latter the principal event (or state).
- 2. The subordinate event (or state) shows either (a.) some point or period of time, answering to the question: when? at what time? or (b.) duration of time, answering to the questions: how long? during what time? since when? till when? or (c.) repetition, answering to the question: how often?
- 3. The two events (or states) may be simultaneous, or the one may be antecedent and the other subsequent. The time shown may be either indefinite, or definite (present, past, or future to the speaker).
- 262. 1. When the time of the subordinate event (or state) is indefinite, i. e. when the case may happen (or be repeated) at any present or future time, the particle 'a' (with a comma after it) is added to the adverbial sentence. E. g.

Owiá puć à, yebésim', when the sun rises, we shall start.

Owiá rebepúe a, yenhú nsóroma biò,

when the sun is about to rise, we do no more see the stars.

Obí yàré à, ofwefwe aduru, when one is sick, he seeks for medicine. Oyaré à, obéfwefwe aduru, when he is sick, he will seek for medicine. Ohianí bu bé à, enhyé,

when a poor man makes a proverb, it does not spread.

Oyaré n'sáé à, wonnyé ayàresadé, when (or as long as) a sickness is not yet over, no reward for curing it is asked.

Rem. 1. A condition is expressed in the same way (§ 276, 1), so that often the sense only decides whether a time shall be indicated or a condition, or both views are equally admissible.

Rem. 2. On time (or condition) expressed by co-ordination see § 253a.

276a.

2. Sometimes the conjunction na precedes the principal sentence. Cf. § 276, 2. E. g.

Okyeré wòn a, nâ ó-nè wón nàm abránă' bi sò, when he was teaching them, he walked with them in a certain porch. Opété tè funu nká à, nâ orebá,

when the vulture smells a carcase, it comes (forthwith). Edóm no n'nyá nnù won nkyén à, nâ woaguán dèdaw,

when the enemy has not yet arrived at them, they are fled ulready, or, they are fled ere the enemy arrives.

Amanehunu dòsó à, na Onyame boá no bèn, when distress is greatest, God's help is nearest.

3. When a repetition of the same case is to be expressed, the words dā or da biara are used in the adverbial sentence. E. g.

Dá oretňam' à, oman hó kòdídì, as oft as he passed by, he turned in thither to eat bread. 2 Ki. 4.8.

Dá owusihyén bà a, woberé no nhóma,

as often as the steamer comes, he receives letters.

O'bà da biara à, na woaguan, whenever he comes, they flee.

263. When the subordinate event (or state) is in progress, or continuing, at least in its result, in the time present to the speaker, the demonstrative particle yi is added to the adverbial sentence. E. g.

Mewo wiase yi, méne wiase hánn, as long as I am in the world,

I am the light of the world. John 9, 5.

Mete asé yi, méyi Yehówà ayé, while I live will I praise the Lord. Woányá abá yi, trà ase, as you have come now, sit down!

Wórèkyeréw yi, merekán nhóma, whilst you are writing, I am reading;

-- mékan nhôma yi, -- I shall read this book;

- mākān nhóma yi mawie, - I have read this letter to the end.
 O'sóm yi nhìná, na nsrâtó rekyin rètwefwe no, all the while he was thus serving, soldiers were going about seeking for him.

264. 1. When the time of the subordinate event is known to the speaker as pust, or when it is represented as future, but expected

with full certainty, the demonstrative particle no is added to the adverbial sentence. E. g.

Edóm baé (or rebá) no, nkurofó no guanè,

when the enemy came (or was in coming), the people fled.

Ohéne no wuí no, ne bá bediì n'ádé,

when the king (nad) died, his son succeeded him.

Obáé ara pe no, misíim', just when he came, I started.

Owia n'nya mpuei no, yesiim', before he sun rose, we slarted.

Yesu béba no, né nnàmfo aní begye,

when Jesus will come, his friends shall rejoice. Cf. Mat. 25, 31.

Adam wúi no, nâ n'aséfó dòsõ bebrē,

when Adam died, his descendants were very numerous.

Lot dúù Sóàr nó, nâ a iá apúe,

the sun was risen when Lot entered into Zoar.

Wotón' Yósèf nó, na wádì mfé dunsón,

Joseph was seventeen years old when he was sold. Cf. Gen. 41, 46.

2. After ara pe, just, exactly, occasionally also in other cases, the particle no is omitted; the adverbial sentence is then distinguished from a principal sentence only by the higher tones. E. g.

Ohúú no ara pe, oyáw` no, as soon as he saw him, he scolded him. Otráá ase, onyáå akó nniì, he had many wars to fight in his life. Otráá ase, wanseréw ara dà, he never laughed in his lifetime.

Dhéne no wui, wannyá obi annyám no,

when the king died, nobody mourned for him.

Rem. When the particle no is wanting and the principal sentence begins with na, the adverbial sentence of time also appears as a principal sentence; and the case is rather that of co-ordination. § 250,1c. E. g.

Oréyè eyinom nhìna, na wonhú nò,

whilst he was doing all this, he was not found out. Ebéye m'fé ahánán ni, na Portugésifó báa Nkran kán,

about 400 years ago the Portuguese came first to Akra.

Wanní mfé dú, na né nà de nó kofwed ne néna anim', he was not yet ten years old, when his mother brought him to his grandfather. Eyéd sā' ànkyé nà owúl, not long after this he died.

Wanwu nà offi asé porowè, alive he began to putrify.

Owo n'agyà osi ara, na osi teè Kristòsó hō àsempá, whilst he was still living in his fathers house, he had already heard a good report of the Christians.

265. 1. When the adverbial sentence states the *beginning* of a time of some duration, it commences with efi se, *since*, frequently ends with no or yi, and precedes the principal sentence. E. g.

Efi sê wowóó me, manyaré pèn, since I was born, I was never sick.

Efi sệ obáh há yi, mihút no prekố pe,

since he came here, I saw him only once.

Efi sệ okotráá hó no, oyaré ara,

since he settled there, he is continually sick.

- Rem. Duration since a certain event or of a certain state is also expressed by a principal sentence (with the verb ne) having the event either a preceding it in a co-ordinate principal sentence, or b. succeeding it in an adjective sentence joined to the nominative complement yi (which is usually contracted with the verb ne into ni). E.g.
- a. Obae, n'afe ni, lit. he came, its year is this, i.e. he came a year ago; or better:

b. Afe ni a obae, lit. a year is this that he came, i.e. it is a year since he came.

a. Okoyaree, ne dadu ni, he fell sick (its tenth day is this, i.e.) ten days ago;

b. (Ne) dadu ni a oyaree, it is ten days since he fell sick.

a. Oyare (beye) osram ni, he is sick (will be, i. e. about) a month now. b. Ebeye osram ni a oyare ara,

Ebeye osram m a oyare ara,

it is now about a month that he is sick continually.

2. When the adverbial sentence states the end of a time of some duration, it is introduced by besi se, kosi se (kopem se, kodu se &c.), till, until, also in the past, consecutive and imperative forms (co-ordinate to the predicate of the principal sentence), sometimes combined with the auxiliary verb de, and succeeds the principal sentence. E. g.

Otúù 'miriká besií sè ohúù yen, he run until he saw us. On'trã họ nkosi sè méba, he shall stay there till I come. Ofwéè no ara kosî se owù, he flogged him till he died. Mmusú yi betiw wò de-akosí sè wóbesée, this mischief will pursue thee until thou perish. (Deut. 28, 20. 22. 24.)

266. 1. When the subordinate event sets in after or during the principal one, the adverbial sentence is introduced by the compound conjunction ansá nà (or ansá-nà), before. E. g.

Wowóò Yésù ansá-nà Heródè wúì,

Jesus was born, before Herod died.

Woán'ká wo anò ansá-nà wóde mãa me,

thou didst not taste it, before thou gavest it me.

Onyamé wò hó ansá-nà biribíara rebà,

God existed before any thing (came into existence).

Woká bergè ansá-nà óretie, lit. they spoke were tired, before he listened, i.e. only by continued entreuties he was persuaded.

Edíi nná př ansá-nà worekohů n'amů,

lit. it took (or lusted) many days, before they found his corpse, i.e. after several days his corpse was found.

Múrèn wié ànsá-nà mó wurà abá,

you will not finish, till your master be come. (Mat. 10, 23.)

Rem. Such an adverbial sentence may be added to another, the verb of which is omitted by way of ellipsis. E.g.

Nnannu [twaam'] ansa-na wohūū no, two days [passed] before they found him, i.e. after two days he was found.

Mfé ohà nè dumlensá ànsá-nà wórewò Krístò nó, Gérmànefó nè Rómàfó kobô<u>éè</u> kố, 113 years before Christ was born, the Germans began to fight with the Romans.

2. When the principal event is lasting until the subordinate event sets in or is finished, the adverbial sentence begins with na and ends with ansã (after which a new action replacing the principal event may be supplied). E. g.

Trā há, na me nùá mmĕrà ansã [na woákā wo ásém], stuy here till my brother comes [and then you muy tell your story]. To wó bó ase, ná meṅkyerew` me ṅhóma ànsã, have putience till I have written my letter [and then I shall be at your disposal].

Rem. We may as well consider the sentence introduced by na as a second (co-ordinate) principal sentence, and the word ansa as an adverbial adjunct of time, meaning before or meanwhile.

c. Adverbial Sentences of Manner.

- **267.** Adverbial sentences express the manner or degree or extent of the action or state expressed in the principal sentence in various ways:
- 1. by comparison, showing a manner and quality, as to likeness, similarity or equality; b. degree, as to equality, inequality (extent or deficiency) or proportion;
 - 2. by stating an effect or consequence (showing extent.)
 - (1a.) Adverbial Sentences of Comparison showing Manner.
- **268.** The adverbial sentence of comparison regarding manner is introduced by te se, se, or senea, and may have no or yi at the end. It either succeeds the principal sentence a), or it precedes it, and the latter is then usually introduced by sā na, sāara na, sā nso na, or has sāara at the end b), or a second subordinate sentence (noun-sentence), likewise introduced by se, is made the complement to the verb ne (preceding it)c).
- a. Quantéw tè sê wabére, he walks as if he were tired.

Wanyi wòn ayé sè ebinom yé no,

he did not praise them, as others did. Ebáè sé(nèa) mékãé no, it came as I said.

Oyéè sénèa orékò n'aním',

he made as though he would have gone further. Luk. 21, 28.

Oyè won sénèa agyá yè mmá, he treats them as a father his children.

Mónye pe, senèa mo ágyà a ówo sóro no yé pe,

be perfect, as your Futher that is in heaven is perfect. Other examples see § 255, 5.

b. Nká sè: Sé oyeé me no, sã nà méye no, say not, I will do so to him as he has done to me. Prov. 24, 29. Cf. Judy. 1, 7.

Sénèa otwěkyéw yerah mpoanó no, sa nso na borokyéw yerah kwaém, as it happened to a hat of an antilope's skin to be lost on the

seaside, so it happened to a hat of European manufacture to be lost in the bush. Prov.

Se doté tè wo onwemfó usam' no, sa'ara nà mó uso motè wo me usam', as the clay is in the potters hand, so are ye in mine hand. Jer. 18,5. Sénèa mópe sè nnípa nye mó no, mó nso monye wòn sáara,

as ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them like-

wise. Luk. 6, 31.

c. Sénèa mo ágyànom yéé no, sé nso moyé nen, as your fathers did, so do ve.

Se wóvè adwúma no, sé metuà wo káw nen,

as you work, so I will reward you.

Se owó nám no, sé odá ara nen, as the snake walks, so it sleeps. Rem. Manner of a predicate (compurison) may also be expressed by co-ordination of another predicate. See in § 253ⁿ. Ehia batani hia pāni. Momono tew na guannuan tew. Nsateā nye pono-na nye tee-na.

Abbreviated Sentences of Comparison showing Manner.

269. When the adverbial sentence has the same predicate as the principal one, they both are contracted, the predicate being expressed only once. E. g.

Ohéne asõ tè sê esóno asõ [tè],

the ear of a king is like that of an elephant.

O'yè nnám sè gyatá [yè nnam], he is as bold as a lion.

Wóbù wón brá sè abosonsómfó bù wón dé],

theu behave themselves as heathen.

Wósòm won adéhyé no sè nkoa [sòm won wuranom],

they serve their noblemen like slaves.

Wotontón wòn se [wótòn] nkoá [or: se wónye nkòá],

they sell them as slaves.

Pápá nso fôm adé sò se nnípa nhìná [fôm só],

the pope also is fallible, as all men are.

O'dì mán no sò se [odn so] kán no,

he rules over the people as formerly. Wopé weè biò se [wope wee] kan no ara,

they were repulsed again, just as before.

Other examples see § 255, 5.

Rem. Such abbreviated sentences of comparison may as well be considered as adjuncts of manner, introduced by se or to se; e.g. Oye hú sè akóko, he is cowardly like a hen.

Onantéw te se oyarefo, he walks like (similar to) a sick man.

When they were parts of elliptical adjective sentences and belong only to a noun, not to a predicate, we may even call them attributes of manner; e.g.

Da se 'né, a day similar to to-day. Cf. § 248, 6.

- (1b.) Adverbial Sentences of Comparison showing Degree.
- 270. 1. Equal degree is expressed in the same way as manner in § 268 c. E. g.

- Se osórd ware sen asasé no, se n'áddé so wo wón à wósuro no so né no, as the heaven is high above the earth, so great is his mercy toward them that fear him. Ps. 103, 11. 12.
- 2. A lower degree is expressed by a negative verb in the principal sentence and an adverbial sentence with se. E. g.

Owusihyéň n'nám ntém sè anomá tù,

a steamer does not run so swiftly as a bird flies.

3. A higher degree expressed in the principal sentence requires the use of kyen or sen before the adverbial sentence with se. E. g.

Oye okwaseá sèn sê oye boné, he is more stupid than wicked.

Anomá từ ntém seň sẽ oponkó từ 'miriká, a bird flies swifter than a horse runs.

Mé bòné sò adé sò kyen sệ métumí masoa,

my punishment is greater than I can bear. Gen. 4, 13.

Abbreviated Sentences of Comparison showing Degree.

271. When the predicate is the same in both sentences, the adverbial sentence is unvariably shortened, and nothing remains but the conjunction se for equal or lower degree, or the verb kyen or sen (in the affirmative or negative form), with the subject or object or attribute different from that of the principal sentence. Cf. § 269.

Odo no se [odo] nankása ne kărá, he loved him as his own soul. Mepe há se [mepe] hó, I like this place as well as that.

Akuropón ne Mampon ntám' kwáń ware se Aburi ne Mampon, the way from Akropong to Mampong is as far as that from Aburi to Mampong.

Mepe sê memã okyikafó yi sè wó ara,

I will give unto this last, even as unto thee. Mat. 20, 14. Susóno n'só sè sóno, the riverhorse is not so large as the elephant. Esóno só sen susóno, the elephant is larger than the hippopolamus. Israel do Yosef sen ne mmá nhìná,

Israel loved Joseph more than all his children. So minyé mèmmá wò mensén mmabarima dú?

am not I better to thee than ten sons?

Mepe sệ metrá ha mmòni sèn hó,

I should rather prefer to stay here than there.

Wope sám mmòm kyện hánh no,

they love darkness rather than light.

Adverbial Sentences of Proportion.

272. The degree of an action, state or quality, is stated as being in proportion to another action &c. in the form of an adverbial sentence of time, expressing an action simultaneous with that of the principal sentence. E. g.

Wórèforó bepow tenten no, nà awów no mù reyé dèn, the higher you ascend a high mountain, the colder it becomes. Rómàfó nè Kartágòfó nhìná, worenyá wònhó bá no, nánso wòrepé nsàsé fofóro akyì kwán, both the Romans and the Carthaginians, the richer they grew, the more they sought for new countries.

(2.) Adverbial Sentences of Extent.

- 273. 1. An adverbial sentence showing the extent of an action by stating its effect or consequence, succeeds the principal sentence and is joined to it
 - a. by the relative particle 'a'; b. by the conjunction se;

c. by the auxiliary verb mā, to give, occasion, cause. E.g.

u. Nkránté woò ne mfém' à anní dàbí òwúì,

the sword cut his side so that he died soon after.

O-nè wón kõè pam wón à éfi họ woàmmá biò, he fought with them and defeated them so that from that time they came no more.

Ese sê múdi mpanyin ní à, se worekasá à, můmùá mò ánò, you ought to honour old people, so that, when they speak, you forbear talking. Cf. Gen. 41, 19. such as.

Rem. Two examples converted into contracted sentences with coordinate negative predicates, see in § 253^a C 1.

Obi mmũa n'ano nni fo = obi mmũa n'ano a obedi fo.

Obi nnidi nnũ nehỗ = obi nnidi a obenũ nehỗ.

b. Nnaé no n'waré sè obí beteè némù wo só, na mmuatám no n'só sè óde bebùm nó sò, the bed is shorter than that [lit. not (so) long that] a man can stretch himself on it, and the covering narrower than that he can wrap himself in it.

c. Otěém' mà éyè hú, he cries (so that it causes fear, i. c.) fearfully.

Okáž asém no mž eyée nwónwž,

he spoke the word (so that it caused wonder, i.e.) wonderfully. Sā' ahòhórá yi yeò no yáw mã etráà só, this ignominy grieved him (so that it went beyond, i.e.) excessively.

Obóg no mã otóg, he struck him so that he fell (dead).

Okáž dóm no guì mã wode hú nè suró guane,

he defeated the enemy so that they fled with fear and terror.

Ankyé nà woatútu dóm no agù mã wode mmiriká aguàn,

they had soon repulsed the enemy and put them to hasty slight. Edom no did asasé no sò nneéma nhìna mà esae, mà okom kum nnipa pì, the host ate up everything in the country, so that many persons died from hunger. (Odi mã esa, he eats causes to be consumed, i e. he eats up.)

Otumí tòw bó à éye đứru mà édù akyíri, he is able to throw a heavy stone (so that it arrives behind, i. e.) very far.

2. The extent of an action may also be expressed by an adv. sent. introduced by kosi se, kodu se &c. (equal to an adv. sent. of time, § 265, 2). E. g.

Wokuńkúm' woń kosń se wogúù woń asé, they smote them until they had destroyed them. Josh. 11, 14.

d. Adverbial Sentences of Cause.

274. Adverbial sentences of cause indicate

- 1. a real cause, occasion, motive, ground or reason (cf. § 238, 1);
- 2. a condition; 3. a concession; 4. an intention or purpose.
- 275. (1.) A real cause, molive or reason is expressed by adverbial sentences in the following ways:
- 1. The adverbial sentence, preceding the principal, is introduced by the words esiane se, or efi se, or se alone, and has the postposition (or conjunctive particle) nti at the end. E. g.

Esiane sê óyè aném dá di nokwáre nti, aŭkyé nà ónyan opanyín bi dií, because he was always diligent and faithful, he was soon entrusted with an office.

Esiane sệ wósil wón bó nà gyéé nti, Onyankópón nhyirá ammá sò, as they had done it in selfwill, God's blessing was not upon it.

Efisê wótan nó nti, wokúm' no,

because they hated him, they killed him.

So mafro na mokame nti, meremfro mo bio, because I have called and ye refused, I will not call you again. (Prov. 1, 24-26.)

- Rem. 1. The verb sinne means to go alongside, or like fi, to procede from, and nti may be considered as meaning the starting-point (§ 121). This word, after the omission of the verb, denotes causality by itself, as a mere postposition. Cf. § 240 a.b.
- Rem. 2. When the words estane se, effise or se are dropped, e. g. wotan no nti, wokum no, the remaining subordinate sentence with nti at the end may still be considered as an adverbial sent. of cause, and the postposition nti might then be taken for a subordinative conjunction (not mentioned as such in § 141, but cf. 1 Be), as we call enti—eno nti, at the head of a principal sentence, a co-ordinative conjunction, § 140. But we may also consider the subordinate sentence 'wotan no' as a noun-sentence belonging to the postposition nti and forming with it an adjunct of cause (§ 255, 6a) nitan nti (§ 240b). The latter view agrees better with the case of an imperative sentence before nti, as in 'Huw m'ani so mã me nti', wherefore we adopt it also for the other cases in § 255, 6a. § 279, 2 Rem. 2.3.
- 2. The adverbial sentence, introduced by efise, or se alone, succeeds the principal; it may also have ntia added at the end. E.g.

Wasópa mè, efisê miyîî né bòné adi ntià, he has slandered me, because I revealed his wickedness. — Cf. Mat. 16, 7. 8.

Yeányà aburow pì, efisê asasé no yé,

we got much corn, because the land is good.

Odé abò yíyé, efisê osú atò pī,

yum has grown well, because it has rained much.

Da no asé sê wábóa wo, thank him that he has helped you.

Won an' gyel se wawù, they rejoiced that he was dead.

Minnue! se mabesoe Mesek! Ps. 120, 5. Cf. Mat. 23, 13-15. 23. 25.

Woká boóm' sê wó-nè Napólèon ányã, they entered into a confederacy, (the motive of which was) that they and Napoleon had got

(scil. a figthing, war) i. c. they united against Napoleon.

Rem. In the sentence "Ahéne bàsá no kã boom' sẽ wó-nè omán no nè kõ, the three kings joined (and declared, or,) in declaring war to the country", the conjunction nè stands in the place of a verb; we may call it an adverbial sentence of manner or of purpose.

3. The adverbial sentence, preceding the principal, has the particle 'a' or yi at the end. E.g.

Mannyấ gtó mantù wo mé dóm aním à, mede mé nkránté mèreberé wò, as I did not fall at the head of my army, I am bringing you my sword.

Yeave no sá yi, nà asém bi n'ní hỗ biò, as we have thus managed it, there is nothing to be said (or done) concerning it any more.

Oda só yè méréw yi, ontumí n'tú kwán no, as he is still weak, he cannot undertake that journey.

Rem. The cause expressed by a co-ordinate sentence, see § 252.

276. (2.) A possible cause or condition is expressed

1. by an adverbial sentence preceding the principal, with the particle 'a' at the end (which has always the low tone and a comma after it, distinguished by the latter from the relative particle 'a'); cf. § 257). E. g.

Wóyè abofrá à, nseréw akwàtiá,

if you are a child, do not deride a short man.

Woányà wohổ à, to wó pón mù dá,

if you are rich, shut your door (when you) sleep.

Wótổ adúr' à, ebí kà w'ánò,

if you administer poison, some of it touches your mouth.

·2. In certain cases, when some *emphasis* is laid on the condition, the principal sentence begins with na. Cf. § 262, 2.

Obi do wo a, na osere wo ho ade,

if anybody loves you, (then) he will beg of you.

Wudi bi ade a, na wofere no,

if you get food of any one, (then) you respect him.

3. Sometimes the conjunction se is put at the head of the conditional sentence. (The word eba or eto, it comes, happens, chances, is to be supplied before se.) E. g.

Se okóm dè wo támfo à, mã no aduan'; se osukóm dè no a, mã no biribí nnom, if thy enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink. Rom. 12, 20.

Rem. In these sentences, introduced in English by the conjunction if, the conditional action is conceived as doubtful. In others it is conceived as actually taking place, though at an indefinite time, — introduced by when, § 262, — and in others again as adversative to the consequential action, the latter taking place in spite of the former, introduced by though, § 278.

4. When a twofold condition is given, the disjunctive particle 'ô' is used instead of the final 'a'. Cf. § 278, 3. E. g.

Se yete ase ō, se yéwù ō, yeye Awuradé deà, whether we live, or die, we are the Lord's. Rom. 14, 8.

5. When the condition is conceived as merely imaginary (when the case is known to be not real), the principal sentence takes the conjunction ankā, then, in this case. E. g.

Se mewo siká à, ankã méto otúo,

if I had money, I should buy a gun. Enyé n'adàmfo ntí à, ankã woákùm no,

but for his friend, he would have been killed.

.'Ka akyekyeré nè nwáw nkô à, ankã otúo n'tów wúrám' da, if there were only snails and tortoises, no gun would ever be fired in the bush.

To támfo nkô à, ankā woákum me,

if I had only enemies, I should have been killed.

'Ka nea ókò Äburokyíri ňkō à, aňkā Abibimáň abò, if he who went to the white man's country alone were concerned, Negroland would have been ruined.

Rem. The words ka and to in the three last examples stand for eka...a, if there would remain, eto or etoo...a, if it would full or if it fell (to...).

276^a. 1. An adverbial sentence of (time or) condition in English, especially when connected with a negative principal sentence, may often be found expressed in Tshi by co-ordination; the conditional sentence is then delivered as a principal sentence negatived like the other. E. g.

Obi m'prå, nà obi n'sesaw', one does not sweep, and another does not take up, i. e. when one person sweeps, another does not take up (the sweepings and carry them out), or: the same person, who sweeps, will carry out the sweepings.

Akosúa m'mó mmùsú nà Akuá m'fá, Akosua does not do mischief and Akua does not take i.e. suffer it, i.e. when Akosua causes mischief, it will not fall on Akua, or, Akua does not answer (and is not punished) for it.

Other examples, also with affirmative predicates, see in § 253a.

2. When two sentences, standing in such or similar relation to each other, have a common subject, the conjunction na is omitted, and both are contracted into one sentence with co-ordinate negative predicates. Cf. § 253a 258, 5.

Obí n'tú mmeré n'sié síw sò, one does not gather mushrooms does not reposit them on an anthill, i.e. when one gathers m., he does not reposit them &c.

Obí n'so gyá foforo m'fá n'waw ntóm', when one kindles a new sire,

he does not put snails into it.

277. An adverbial sentence stating an exception, or a condition under which the negation of a predicate is annulled, is introduced by gye se (or se gye) and succeeds the principal sentence. E. g.

Wúrènnú, gye sệ wútù mmiriká (= se wuntu 'mirika a, wurennu, or, se wutu 'mirika a, wobedu), you will not arrive, except you run. Meremmá wònkó, gye sệ wúhyrá mè,

I will not let thee go, except thou bless me. Gen. 32, 26.

Orenhomé, gye sê owié asém yi dì 'né, he will not be in rest, until he have finished the thing this day. Ruth 3, 18.

Wontwe adewia hó asó, gye sê nea owiah adé no hihú wia, they do (or usually did) not inflict punishment for theft except the thief did not understand to steal, i.e. was not cunning enough.

- 278. (3.) A concession or adversative cause, i. e. a circumstance which might seem adverse to the predicate of the principal sentence, is expressed:
- 1. by an adverbial sentence with 'a' at the end and an emphatic particle (po, nso, ara) in it. E.g.

Minnyấ mù fwe pó à, méye ara,

though I profit nothing by it, I shall do it still.

Míhữ mú amàné nso à, mékurám' ara,

even if I must suffer by it, I shall keep to it.

Oso se dén ara à, métumi no,

however great he may be, I shall be a match for him.

Nso menam owú-sùnsumá bón mù a, minsuró bòné bi, yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil.

Rem. A condition may be understood as adversative without an emphatic particle. E. g.

Okóm đề wó à, wóm'fá wò nsá ablen' n'nidí,

though you are hungry, you do not cut with both hands.

2. Sometimes the concessive sentence is introduced by se (cf. § 276,3), or by the compound conjunction kānsese. E. g.

Se mé-nè wó bewu po à, merempá wò,

though I should die with thee, yet will I not deny thee.

Se kánsesè éware sè ehéara à, nâ orebá,

however far it might be, he was sure to come.

Se édù nea ése sè wóyè yíyé, na kánsesè chố wò bèré po à, wammá ànyé nò ahometéw, when occasion was given to do good, though trouble might have been connected with it, he was not dismuyed.

3. Instead of the final 'a', the disjunctive particle 'ō' is used when a twofold concession is stated. Cf. § 276, 4.

O'dì bém ò, ódì to ò, okum ara nà wobékum nò, whether he be innocent or guilty, by all means they will kill him.

279. (4.) A final cause, i. e. a cause conceived as the aim, purpose or intention of an acting or directing subject, is expressed by an adverbial sentence succeeding its principal one.

- 1. The adverbial sentence is introduced by se,
- a. with the verb in the progressive or future or ingressive present form, when its subject is the same as that of the principal sentence;
- b. with the verb in the *imperative* form, when the *subject* of the adverbial sentence is *different* from that of the principal one, and the purpose is represented as a decided *desire*. E. g.

a. Yésù Kristò báà wiase sè óbegye nnipa nkwá, Jesus Christ came into the world to save men (or, that he might save men).

Odéhyé bi koò asasé bi sò se orekogyé n'ahènní, a certain noblemun went into another country to receive for himself a kingdom. (Luk. 19, 12.)

Ode dóm akohye wòn kwán wò hó sè ommá wòntwám', there he hus stopped the way against them with an army, not suffering them to pass.

Wobehyiae se wóbetra ho asé afwe se wóbeye no,

they assembled to deliberate, how they would manage it.

Oguán koò Osú sè okofá pò aní akò Ogua,

he fled to Christiansborg in order to go to Cape Coast by sea. Otrát kórów mù se orefi hyén nom" asi fám,

he sat into a boat that he might come from the ship to the land. b. Onyamé somáà ne bá baà wíase sè ómmegye nnípa nkwá, God sent

b. Onyamé somáň ne bá baň wíase se ommegye nnipa ňkwň, God sent his son into the world to save men (that he might come to save men). Yúdáfó serée Piláto se ommã woňkokum Yésù,

the Jews entreated Pilate, that he should have Jesus killed.

Omán mma apáw wón sè wónye won ananmusifo,

the citizens have chosen them to be their representants.

- 2. The adverbial sentence is introduced by the conjunction na
- a. with the verb in the consecutive form, when the purpose is represented more as an expectation or natural consequence, than as a decided desire;
- b. with the verb in the affirmative form of the (2d) imperative, after a 1st or 2d imperative.
- e. When, after an imperative, the verb of the accessory sentence is negative, the consecutive form is used, as in the cases under a.
- a. Mankása meye, na moásusuw só ayè bi, I myself shall do it, that you may imitate it (lit. think on it and do it likewise).

Wohyè nam nkyéne na amprów ntém,

meat is salted, that it may not soon be spoiled.

Fránsè héne bi à óboò dấm nti nà wóde nhõmatów baè, nà ode agye n'ani, on account of a certain king of France that was mad, card-playing was invented, that he might amuse himself.

Onyamé dè ne bá koro mãé, na obíara à óbegyé no adí no anyerá, nà wanyã dá nkwá, God gave his only son, that whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have everlasting life.

Cf. § 258, 5 Rem.

b. Kóbisá nò, ná yenhũ mù nokwáre! go ask him, that we may learn the truth of it! A'fèi gyà no kwán na onko fie! now dismiss him, that he may go home! Mônye komm, ná minnyã nná menna!

be silent, that I may find sleep!

Fá ogyátén di n'aním' ná onhũ kwán (or: c. na wanyerá okwán), go before him with a torch, that he may find the way (or: that he may not go astray).

c. Kóse nò, na wanní nkwaseasém,

go, tell him, in order that he do not commit a folly.

Fwe wohó yiyé nà obí ànnādâ wo,

take care of yourself, that nobody deceive you. Mat. 6, 1; 7, 1.6.

Rem. 1. When the accessory sentence with na and the verb in the consecutive form might be mistaken for a co-ordinate principal sentence with na and the perfect, the verb ye may be used before it. E. g.

Mpanyimfó no boo mmodén yee sénea nkurofó pé no, de yée na omanfó no ho ató won, the elders endeavoured to do as the people desired, in order that the citizens might be contented.

Rem. 2. When the purpose shall be mentioned before the principal sentence, the adverbial sentence with n a and its verb in the consecutive form takes a form of the verb ye (in the present or future) before it, and is thus made an attribute of the postposition nti, forming with it an adjunct of cause. § 255, 6a.

Wóyè na mmarimáwá no ahů bémmatów nti, Spártàfó mà won nkoá, na wode wón sửá yè, that the boys might learn to shoot with the bow, the Spartans gave them slaves at whom they exercised it.

Oyé nà asém bi àmmá akyíri nti, omá wokum wòn, to cut off any consequences, he had them killed.

Nea ebéye na woanya siká nti, wosh omán no apempém gyed siká sénda wonara pe, in order to get money, they wilfully extorted money from the people.

Rem. 3. A (complex) noun-sentence before the postposition nti, forming with it an adjunct of cause (cf. § 255, 6 a. 275, 1 Rem. 2.), which expresses a circumstance of purpose, we have also in the following proverb:

Yepe a yebehû nti na yekyekyere boa, in order that we may find

(a thing) when we wish (it), we tie bundles.

Abbreviated Sentences of Purpose.

280. 1. A contraction of the principal sentence and the adverbial sentence of purpose into one sentence with co-ordinate verbs takes place, when (in the case mentioned in § 279, 1a.) the conjunction se and the subject of the adv. sent. is omitted.

a. The verb of the adv. sent. is joined to the principal sentence in co-ordination, retaining its form. E. g.

Prússifó asícsic wònhó dèdaw rekokó — se worekokó, the Prussians had prepared themselves already to fight. b. The verb or verbs of the adv. sent. is or are joined to the principal sentence in the consecutive form; cf. § 250, 2. E. g.

Yebésĭān akỳtó adùan abèré wò,

we shall go down to buy food for thee. N'ásùafó kò kurów no mù akotó nnùan',

his disciples were gone away unto the city to buy meat. John 4.8.

Mekó maba, I go (with the intention) to return again.

Mesoré matèg me mù, *I rise to stretch my back*. Mesoré adùan madì. Mesoré nsú kàkrá manòm.

Mihuam' ta' matie(or mafwe) se eye ana. Mese aduan' mafwe.

Cf. Riis, Outline &c. § 213, 3.

c. When the verb of the principal sentence is negative, that of the adv. sent. (co-ordinate to the former) is made negative too. E.g.

A'fèi yenkó akurā' n'kotó nkèsuá biò,

now we shall no more go to the village to buy eggs.

Yenntrá ho n'nyé enó ho akyinnyé adesaé, we shall not sit there

disputing about that until evening (or, all day).

Obi n'nyaw asutén n'konóm otáre, (one does not leave i.c.) nobody leaves a flowing water (does not go to drink i.c.) in order to drink from a pool.

2. After locative verbs implying direction, the verb of the adv. sent. is put in the infinitive, so that it forms, as it were, a locative complement to the principal verb; and such an infinitive of a transitive verb is preceded by its object, as if it were an allribute in the possessive case, or forms a compound with it. Cf. § 126. 208, 4. E. g.

Wokód afów, they went a-foraging.

Okóg aburow' tó = okóg se orekotó aburow', he went to buy corn. Masóma no nkóko tó = se ónkoto nk., I sent him to buy fowls.

Aduantó nà yebáè = yebáè se yébeto aduan, we came to buy food. [Yebáà há bètóò aduan (Gen. 43, 20) expresses that they obtained their purpose: we came here (and) bought food.]

Onipa ba no amma ammesee nnipa kara, na obegyee won. Luk. 9, 56.

CHAPTER III.

Manifold Compound Sentences.

281. Of co-ordinate principal sentences (§ 249-253), more than two may be joined together in the one or other way (copulative, or adversative, or causalive, or illative), and any of them may be complex. E. g.

Béreyé yè nnādâ, na ahōofé yé ahúhude; obéa à ósuro Yehówà na wóbeyi nò ayé. Prov. 31, 30.

We forbear giving many examples, as they would not present any new features, but only combinations of such as have been treated of already.

In reviewing the various combinations in the subsequent paragraphs, we mark the principal sentences by the capital letters A for independent or copulatively co-ordinate sentences, B for adversative, and C for causative or illative sentences.

282. Any principal sentence may have two or more subordinate sentences, not only of the same kind, but also of different kinds, as described in § 254-280.

We shall, in § 282-284, mark the noun-sentences by a, the adjective sentences by b, and the different kinds of adverbial sentences by c. When a sentence is interrupted by the insertion of another, we mark it twice by the same letter, before and after the insertion, with the addition of a hyphen after and before the letter, to indicate that other members of the sentence are found after or before the intervening words.

We distinguish several cases:

1. Two or more subordinate sentences of the same kind belong to the same principal sentence or the same single member of it. In this case they are vo-ordinate among themselves, and connected by the copulative conjunction na or the disjunctive conj. anase; the particles introducing or ending them, are generally put only once (the particle se may occasionally be repeated); but the relative part. 'a', connecting an adjective sent. with any member of a principal (or of a subordinate) sentence, may be repeated with every new adjective sentence, instead of the conj. na. E.g.

Kóbisá no sè óbeko afúm anásè óbetrá ofie, go (und) usk him whe-

ther he will go to the plantation or stay at home. (A a a.) Okrámaň à óbaè 'néra na wopam' no no, wasán abà, the dog that came yesterday and was driven away, has come again. (A- b \ddot{b} , -A.) M'ágyà mã me kwán nà me hố yệ me đén à, mệko Ogua, when my father gives me leave and I am well, I shall go to Cape Coast, (cr. A.) Wún'ní nà ná wokò obí fí agóru, ná otù ne mmá fó à: wóde tù wo ho bi, if thou hast no mother and goest into one's house to play and she gives her children an admonition, thou takest it for the self also. Prov. (c c c, A.)

Anantwí à wọn hố yệ tán nà woafómfon no diì asón à won hố yệ tế nà won hố từá wòn hố no. Gen. 41, 4. (A-bb-Abb.)

Obéa bi à ne dín de Lidia a óton tankoko à ofi Tiatira kurów mù a ófèré Nyànkốpón téè. Acts 16, 14. (A-bbbb-A.)

2. Two or more subordinate sentences of different kinds (a. b. c.) may belong to the same principal sentence. E.g.

Onípa rèbá à, wonsé nò se: bera,

when a man is coming, you do not bid him come. (c, A: a.)

Mihúu no no, miguáne, efisê misuróe,

when I saw him, I fled, because I was afraid. (c, A, c.)

Nneéma yi refl asé abá à, mónfwe osórò ná momma mò tí sò, efise mó gyể rebèù. Luk. 21, 28. (c, A A, c.)

3. A subordinate sentence may have another sentence subordinate to it, and the latter again another. We mark the distance from the principal sentence by adding the figures ², ³, for the second and third degree, the first degree wanting no such distinction. E. g.

Eye me sê, ónòm mmorosá dá nti, n'áděvénem' asée, it seems to me that his senses are deranged because he is always drinking rum. $(A, c^2, a.)$

Abofrá à ókura nhóma à éfi Aburòkyíri no baé no, mibisáà no se ofi Osú àná? when the boy with the letters from Europe came, I asked him, whether he was from Christiansborg. (c-b²b³-c, A a.) Fárào bisá mò se: Mo ádwúma ne dén? à, múnse no sè: Wó nkòá ye mmóafwefo fi yen mmòfráase dè bedú 'ne:— na moatrā Gósèn asasé sò, when Pharao asks you saying: what is your occupation, (then) tell him saying: Thy servants are shepherds from our youth until now: that ye may dwell in the land of Goshen. Gen. 46,33.34. (c: a², A: a: -c.)

Se múhù Yerúsalem se dóm atwà hố ahyía à, enó nà múhủ sê né bó abèn. Luk. 21, 20. (c u², A a.)

Ese nea óbà Onyankópón nkyén no sè: ógye dí sè ówo ho nà oye wón à wófwefwe n'akyl kwán no kàtuáfó. Heb. 11, 6. (A b: a a^2 a^2 - b^3 - a^2 .)

283. A succession of well arranged sentences forming one whole, especially when a concatenation of subordinate sentences is embodied in it, is called a period. In every period there is a multipartite former part, which is completed by the apodosis.

Instead of entering into the different kinds of manifold compound sentences and periods, we only point out some passages from the Bible, containing such, and indicate the different sentences according to § 281. 282., together with their punctuation, and showing, by the sign ||, where the apodosis of the period begins.

Se nyansa ba wo kõmam na ohū so wo kăra ani a, || adwempa befwe wo so, na ntease abo wo hõ ban. Prov. 2, 10. (c c, A, A.)

Prov. 1 (v. 24) c, c, c, c, (25) c, c: \parallel (26) A; c, A. (v. 27) c c, c: \parallel (28) A, B; A, B; (v. 29) c, c, (30) c c: \parallel (31) A, A. (32) C, C. (33) B, B. Prov. 2 (v. 1) A-, c c, (2) c c: (3) c c, (4) c c: \parallel (5) -A, A. (6) C, C. Ps. 107 (v. 10) A-bb: (11) c^2 c^2 , (12) b, b, b: (13) b, b; (14) b, b: \parallel (v. 15) -A: (16) c, c.

Whilst these 7 verses are only one principal sentence in the form of a period, the former part of which is built up of 9 adjective sentences, the following 6 and 10 verses form periods of similar content, but which are built up of 10 and 16 principal sentences.

Ps. 107 (v. 17) A; (18) A A: (19) A, A; (20) A A: \parallel (21) A, (22) A, A. Ps. 107 (v. 23) A-bb, (24) -A: (25) A a, a; (26) A A, A; (27) A, A; (v. 28) A, A, (29) A a a; (30) A c, A b: \parallel (31) A, (32) A, A. Ps. 1 (v. 1) A b, b, b: (2) b, b: \parallel (3) A b b, b; A-b-A. (4) B: B b. (v. 5) C, C. (6) c, c.

284. Not only subordinate, especially adjective, sentences are often found inserted between the members of other (principal or subordinate) sentences, but principal (and even complex and co-ordinate) sentences also may be thrown in between the parts of another sentence, interrupting their connection. They are usually put in parenthesis; sometimes the dash is used before and after such a sentence, instead of the parenthesis.

Se meko m'agya nkyen na abofra yi nkã yen hỗ a, (nso ne kăra fam abofra yi de hỗ,) ebeba se: se ohũ se abofra yi nkã yen hỗ a, obewu. Gen. 44, 30. 31. (c c, (A,) $A = c^2 u^3$, -a.)

Cf. Luk. 1, 55. 70. 23, 51. Joh. 6, 23. Acts 1, 15. 12, 3. 13, 8. Rom. 4, 17.7, 1. 1 Cor. 8, 1—3. 9, 21. Col. 4, 10. Heb. 7, 11. 19. 20—22. 9, 1—12. 12, 20. 21. 1 Joh. 1, 2. 3 Joh. 1. 5.

APPENDIX I.

On Subjects connected with Orthography.

A. PUNCTUATION.

- 285. We may comprise the main principles of punctuation in some simple rules.
- 1. The parts of a simple sentence, subject, predicate, complements and adjuncts, being either simple, or enlarged by attributes or by adjective sentences, are not separated from each other by any point whatever, except the following cases:
- a. When such a member is put at the head of the sentence, for the sake of emphasis or perspicuity, and is not followed by na, it is usually marked off by a comma, espec. when the emphatic and restrictive particle de is used with it (en' de, on' de, me de, won de). The comma may, however, be omitted, when the sentence is short and the sense plain without it. Examples see § 247. 201, 5.
- b. The vocative is stopped off by a comma. Many interjections also have comma (or note of extamation) after them.
- c. Nouns in apposition are in some cases separated from each other by a comma. § 190, 4.
 - 2. In contracted sentences,
- a. co-ordinate subjects, complements or adjuncts are separated from each other by a comma, as far as they are not connected by the conj. nè; § 245, 1.3-5. cf. Gen. 10. 25, 15. 32, 14. 15. Exod. 1, 2-4. 20, 10.
- b. complements or adjuncts of different kinds are usually not separated from each other by points. § 246, 3.

- 3. Co-ordinate principal sentences are separated
- a. by a comma, when they are simple and short, and copulative or adversative to each other, connected by the conjunctions na, nanso, nso; § 250. 251.
- b. by a semicolon, when they are enlarged, especially when the one or the other is complex; when they are co-ordinate without a conjunction; when the co-ordination of three or more sentences is partly copulative and partly adversative (§ 281); also before illative conjunctions (§ 252);
- c. by a colon, when the succeeding sentence is explanatory to the preceding, or when, after several copulative sentences, one or more sentences are illutive or adversative, stating a reason, inference or consequence, or a strong contrast.

The general principle that regulates the choice of either, is the closeness of the connection between the parts of the compound sentence. — Examples are easily found in the Proverbs of Solomon (chap. 10—29) and in proverbs of the natives (cf. Primer for the Vernac. Schools in Akuap., 1872, pag. 40—58.

- 4. Subordinate sentences, preceding the principal one:
- a. Adverbial sentences having a, no, yi, at the end, are separated by a comma, when they are single or not more than two (§ 262-265, 1), and by a colon, when they are three or more.
- b. Adv. sentences having nti at the end, are usually stopped off by a comma. § 275, 1.
 - 5. Subordinate sentences, succeeding the principal one:
- a. Noun-sentences introduced by se (that), either have not any point before them, espec. when they are simple or short; or they have a comma, or better a colon, before them, which is inserted after se,—when the noun-sentence is of a wider extent, or of a complex nature. § 255, 1b. 2. 3b. 6. 256 Rem.
- b. Noun-sentences introduced by se, or direct quotations, have a **colon** before them (after se); but if the quotation is indirect, no point is used. E. g. Asum wo: soa me (Prov). § 255, 3.
- c. Noun-sentences or adverbial sentences introduced by se or senea (= how) have not any point, or, at the most, a comma, before them. § 255, 5. 268. 270.
- d. Adverbial sentences introduced by ansa-na, na..ansa, besi se, kosi se, may have a comma before these compound conjunctions, or not. § 266, 1. 2. 265, 2.
- e. Adv. sentences introd. by efise, esiane se, se, or by na with the verb in the consecutive form, have a comma before them; before the consecutive na, however, it is often omitted. § 275, 2. 279, 2. Before se, introducing an adverb. sentence of purpose, the comma is omitted, because the little pause in speaking is rather after, than before it. § 279,1.

- 6. Adjective sentences, joined to the subject or to any other noun or pronoun in the midst or at the end of a sentence, are not marked off by any point. § 257.64.65.
- 7. Subordinate sentences, co-ordinate among themselves, are separated from each other only by the comma, and even this is omitted, when they are simple and short and connected by the conj. na, or when in a succession of adjective sentences the relative particle 'a' is repeated. § 282, 1.
- 8. The note of interrogation is used at the end of interrogative sentences with direct questions, whether they be independent, or forming part of another sentence (as subordinate noun-sentences standing in the place of an object). § 153. E. g.

Wobisá mè se: Ne dín dè dén? à, dén nà mínse won? when they ask me, What is his name? what shall I say unto them? Exod. 3, 13.

- 9. The note of exclamation is used
- a. after many interjections, § 144-147.
- b. after vocatives, when the enclitic c (§ 144) is appended, and when a sentence spoken to the addressed person does not closely follow.
 - c. after an optative sentence, § 151.
- d. after direct imperative sentences, § 152, espec. when they are short or uttered with some affection, not in the quiet way of instruction.
 - e. after exclamatory sentences, § 153.

Rem. The note of exclumation may also be used in an objective noun-sentence inserted into another; e. g. Oséè won se: mini! no, wòpin'i nkyirinkyiri, na wofwefwéè ase. Joh. 18, 6.

- 10. The full stop is used
- a. at the close of a complete sentence (when no note of interrogation or of exclamation takes its place);
- b. after abbreviations of single words, also after figures standing for ordinal numerals; e.g.
 - Afe 1873. Yan. 9. Napoleon III. wui = afe a eto so apem ahanwotwe aduoson-abiesa mu Yanuari da a etia akron no so, Napoleon a eto so abiesa no wui.
- 11. The parenthesis () is used a to mark a sentence thrown in between the parts of another sentence, neither necessary to the grammar, nor to the accuracy of the sense (§ 284); b to add an explanation or equivalent of the expression after which the parenthesis is inserted.
- 12. Brackets [] indicate a. a parenthetic sentence, which occasionally may contain another parenthesis in curves, or which is contained within such other parenthesis; b. explanations or equivalents of single expressions; c. in the Tshi Bible also words not contained in the Hebrew or Greek text, but inserted in the translation for the sake of distinctness.

- 13. The dash is made use of in various ways:
- a. it marks a sudden break or transition;
- b. it marks an unexpected or an emphatic pause;
- c. it marks a considerable pause, greater than the stops used require;
- d. it is used before and after a purenthesis, instead of the curves or brackets in 11. and 12. § 284.
 - e. between two numbers it represents the numbers that intervene.

Some other marks used in writing and printing are the following:

- 14. The apostrophe (') is used to indicate the elision of one or more letters of a word.
- 15. The quotation points (" " and ' ') mark words as quotations. The single quotation points are used to mark off a quotation within a quotation, or a quotation in sense, but not in exact words, or a single unconnected word or letter.
- 16. The hyphen (-) is used to connect loosely compounded words (§ 30, 2), to divide a word into syllables (§ 23. 24.), and, when placed at the end of a line, it shows that one or more syllables of a word are carried to the next line.
 - 17. The ellipses (-) or (...) mark the omission of letters or words.
- 18. The hyphen, or the dash, or the double quotation points are also put when words or figures, that stand above them, are to be repeated or understood. In hymns the mark:, shows that the word or words preceding it in the same line, or the words included between two such marks, are to be repeated.
- 19. The paragraph or section (§) marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter. In the Bible the sign ¶ is used to mark the commencement of a new subject.
- 20. The asterisk, or little star (*), and the obelisk, or dagger (†), or doublings of the two, and the paragraph or section (\S or \P), are used as marks of reference.

B. CAPITAL LETTERS.

- **286.** The use of large or capital letters in Tshi is more restricted than in English. We employ them at the beginning of the following words:
- 1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing, but not necessarily the first word in every line of poetry.
- 2. The first word after a full stop, also, after a note of interrogation or explanation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.
- 3. The first word of a direct quotation, excepting very short ones that stand in the place of an object or are inserted in another sentence

Onihafo se: okyena meye, the sluggard says, To-morrow I shall do it. Mise m'akoa se: ye eyi! a, oye. Luk. 7, 8.

4. Every proper name (of persons, places, streets, rivers, ships, mountains, days, months, &c.); also common nouns when personified.

Rem. 1. In the second part of imperfect compounds (§ 30, 2) a small letter may suffice; e. g. Nord-amerika, New-york, Betlehem-yuda (Judg. 19, 18.), Harun-al-rasid. On the contrary we write: Yosua ben-Nun, W. de-Graft, Filip d'Orleans, Otto von-Bismark.

Rem. 2. Names of Divine persons, that are taken from common nouns, begin with capital letters only when they have no attribute in the possessive case before them. E. g.

Agya nè Oba nè Honhom kronkron. Mat. 28, 19.

Yen agya Onyankopon, God our Futher; Onyame ba, the Son of God; m'awurade nè m'agyenkwa, my Lord and Saviour; abagye honhom, the Spirit of adoption. Rom. 8, 15.

5. Every noun and principal word in the titles of books and the heads of their principal divisions.

C. ABBREVIATIONS.

- 287. To save time, space and trouble, certain well known and frequently recurring words may be abbreviated in writing. E.g.
- 1. The proper names of male and female persons, formed from those of the seven days of the week (§ 42, 4), when standing before another name; viz. Kws. Kwdw. Kwb. Kwk. Y. Kf. Kwm.; Akos. Adw. Ab. Ak. (Yā;) Af. Am. Likewise the christian names, as in English.
- 2.a. The names of the days of the week: Kwsd. Dwd. Bd. Wd. Yd. Fd. Md. b. The European names of the months: Yan(uari). Feb(ruari). Mar(si). Apr(ili). (Mai, Yuni, Yuli, are written in full.) Aug(usti). Sept(embere). Okt(obere). Nov(embere). Des(embere). The native names of the months are not much known, and for some of them different names are used by different persons.
- 3. Abbreviations for the names of the different books of the Bible, see in the Primer (Twi Kenkan Nhoma) of 1872. pag. 83.
- 4. Some abbreviations of the names of countries and towns, and at the same time of languages and dialects, see in § 292. and in 'a Vocabulary, English, Tshi (Asante), Akra', pag. XXIV.
- 5. The following abbreviations of frequently recurring words are used in printed books:
 - Nfw. = nfwgso, example (= e.g.); s. = sg, as; a. s. = anase, or; e. s. = gnesg, that is, therefore; n. a. = ne ade, and so on;
 - n. bb. = nè bābi, and elsewhere; n. bn. = nè binom, and others.
- 6. Other abbreviations that may be adopted in writing, we leave to the ingenuity of the writer or reader, or to a future Vernacular Grammar. E. g. Hh. Krkr., yn agy. Ony. ba, m'aw. n' m'agyk. § 286 Rem. 2.

APPENDIX II.

On Prosody and Kindred Subjects.

- **288.** (1.) a. On ORTHOEPY, as to the pronunciation of letters, their quantity, and the accent and tone of syllables, see § 2-22.
- b. Emphasis is given to some particular word or words in a sentence not so much by the stress of voice laid on such words (because the emphatical stress would often be in conflict with the accent and tones inherent in the words), as by their position and by additional words. See § 247.
- c. Pauses or Rests, i. c. cessations of the voice, shortly interrupting the flow of speech, in some cases serve to give emphasis; but usually they serve to distinguish the sense, in which cases they are generally indicated by points. § 285.
- d. Intonation, i. e. the change or modulation of the voice in whole sentences or periods, is to be distinguished from the high or middle or low tones inherent in every syllable in every word (§ 25), and, as it were, includes them within its range, so that e. g. in the beginning of a longer sentence or complex of sentences, those alternate tones, proportioned to each other, are higher throughout, than they are towards the close. The different passions of the mind also are expressed by different tones of the voice, or by the more or less forcible utterance of the sounds.
- **289.** (2.) NATIVE POETRY mostly consists of short songs of different character, either mournful, or rejoicing, confident and exulting, or praising, or disparaging and defying, or historical, descriptive and didactic. All such songs are, or originally were, improvisations at given occasions. The facts to which they refer, or the thoughts conveyed by them, are often rather intimated by a few hints or merely touched at, than bespoken in plain words. Cf. 1 Sam. 18, 7.

Several kinds are accompanied by drums and other time-beating or musical instruments, chanted by a precentor, and repeated or responded by a chorus. In playing parties, consisting either of males by themselves or of females by themselves, sitting or dancing or promenading, many songs of the same kind may be used in succession.

The natives distinguish the following kinds of songs: Kwadwom, onníbiamànédwom, dwaedwom, odákudwom, sankūdwom, akúrododwom, agyemannare, antorepira, gbadwom (nnwonkoro) n.a.

Two short specimens of native songs are the following:

Agyeman Kofi a okokaa ne ko te ho;
 Akyene, manuya Hama a, anka Asante de me koe.

(This song refers to the invasion of the Asantes in 1863, to the king of Akem-Kotoku, as an originator of it, and to the king of Tuam (Tantum) with his valiant captain Hama.)

2. Adwo'ē! :,: :,: Woko aware amma ntem! :,: ō! Wo abusũa awie sã ō! Adwo'ē!

O Adyowa! Thou hast gone to marry hast not come soon (i.e. hast stayed away too long); thy family has finished dying away (has died out entirely)! O Adyowa!

(This song warns daughters that are married abroad, not to forget their family, as Advowa did.)

Other specimens would require more explanation than our space admits. Ten Christian Fante Songs are contained in our Tshi Hymnbook of 1865, and the native tunes of the two first of them are found in the Tune-book of 1860.

Rem. The native tunes chiefly consist of the tones inherent to the spoken words, but raised to the proper height for singing, and varied according to the tones in mere speaking and the intonation mentioned in § 288 d. The following may serve as a specimen of a native tune:

85666, 67855, 54345, 2343. :,:

The fat cyphers are long notes. In new lines repeating the tune of foregoing lines, two short notes may stand for a long one.

- 290. (3.) VERSIFICATION after the analogy of that in English and German, with accented and unaccented (or heavy and light) syllables in Jambic, Trochaic, Dactylic &c. metres, with or without rhyme, does not meet with any serious obstacle in Tshi; cf. the Hymns No. 1-230 in the Tshi Hymnbook of 1865. But the application of the European tunes to such hymns after the German or English fashion is often adverse to the tones inherent in the words, and the endeavour to avoid such conflicts, renders versification with regard to a given tune more difficult than it is without such regards.
- 291. (4.) RHETORIC is cultivated in civil and criminal lawsuits and in political transactions, most of them being held in public. -Peculiar phrases and cuphemistic expressions are employed on grounds of politeness or superstition, in order to remove apprehensions and ill omens, or to mitigate and paralyze the hideousness or atrocity of notions and facts or deeds. Proverbs are very frequently resorted to, and now and then the speaker's view of the matter is illustrated by a parable.

The following example is taken from a public report of several hours' length, delivered by Kwabena Kumi, a messenger sent by Kwadade, the king of Akropong. to Akra, during the quarrels of the English with the people of Osu and La, which led to the bombardment and destruction of Osu (under Fort Christiansborg) by an English man-of-war, in 1854.

'Mibuù Kankanfo nè Enyircsífo be sè: "Duá bi sì sáresò a chố resè nsú. Na Obobé kã kyerge Twitón se: mã yenkosa ne yaré. Na Twitón sè: dabí; na wogyácè. Na ankyé, wokofwé dùá no à, énnà áwù a chố ayỳ fítā yi! na nnípa bepeč. Na wotwitwál ogyá no wieí no, oyí fà há à, ósè: mányl twitón! oyí fà há à, ósè: mányl obobé! na wode kyekyeréè ogyá no bal ofíe. Wode báé no, na woasán ayíyi gyá no kỳ 'fíe; na obobé no nè twitón no gù awiám', eremommóm. Na Obobé ká kyereỳ Twitón sè: Asém à meká mekyereệ wo no ni! Meká mekyèrèỳ wo sè: mã yenkóto adúru nhosa Onylnkyerén yaré; wúsè: dabí; énnl áwú ayỳ ogyá, na wode yén akyékye; na woabésãn yèn ágù awiám', na woatáse ne gyá no koè." — Na meká mekyèrèỳ Kankanfó sè: "Mún'ním Osúfo asém yi à, sé eté ni!" — Na oyí hyèn mú à, na wátù nsí abère me, na oyí hyèn mú à, na wátù nsá abère me. Na wósè: "Wo ásém à wóká yi, wóm'moá!"'

'I told the people of Dutch and English Akra a parable saying: "A tree was standing in the wilderness, and water was dropping from it. And Obobé (a kind of wild vine) said to Tshitong (a plant with long flexible leaves used for tying bundles): Let us go and heal its sickness. But Tshitong said: no; so they left off. But it did not last long, when the tree was looked at, it, having died, had become bleak (or bare, deprived of the bark &c.), and men came and found it (in seeking for fuel). And when they had finished chopping the wood, one, taking this way, said: I have got a tshitong; another, taking that way, said: I have got an obobe; and they bound the fuel together with them, and took (it) home. When they had brought (it home), they unlosened (the bundles) and took the fuel (by pieces) into the house; but the obobe and the tshitong, lying in the sun, shrivelled together. And Obobe spoke to Tshitong saying: This is the matter I told thee of! I told thee: Let us go (and) buy medicine to heal Onyangkyereng's nickness; thou saidst: no; so it has died and become fuel, and we have been used for tying it; then we have been loosened and cast into the sun, and the fuel has been taken off." - And I told the people of Dutch Akra, saying: "If you do not understand the matter of the Osu people, - that is it." And one entering (his dwelling) brought me liquor, and another entering (his dwelling) brought me liquor. And they said: "As to the word which thou sayest — thou does! not lie!" -

APPENDIX III.

A Comparison of the Leading Dialects of the Tshi Language.

292. The following comparison will show that the literary dialect of Tshi, based on the dialect spoken at Akropong, the capital of the Akuapem country, stands between the Akua dialects (of Akem and Asante) and the Fante dialects, following the former more in the initial sounds, and the latter more in the terminations.

Rem. Since the literary dialect took its rise and has been chiefly cultivated at Akropong, we mark it by the abbreviation Akr. The names Akan, Akyem, Asante, Fante, we mark by Ak. Aky. As. F.

293. Dialectical differences are found both in grammatical and lexicographic points, which we bring under the following twelve heads.

- 1. Transformation of commencing consonants of stems takes place in the following syllables and words.
- a. Akr. (te) te ti (de) de ne, to be; nè, and; ne ni; Ak. de dze dzi И. nye nyi; nye tse tsi nye.
- so § 19 B. 119. b. Akr. se § 141, 1.2. ase § 119. asase § 19 B. Aky. (asee f asasce (soo $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}$. lase asase (dade)) so F. ase, ade, (asase, dade, se, de so, do. adze ladade, dadze
- (kwa) twe twe twi; gua; dwe dwe dwi dwo Aky. dwa; (džŭa; džŭe džŭe džu As. F. kwe kwe kwi; gwa; gwe gwe gwi gwio
- d. Akr. hŭa, hwa; fwe fwe, twe, fwi, ٨k. fiňa F. hwa hwe hwe hwi
- e. Akr. wosaw wura yera yem awowa Ak. awoba hăra yem \§ 19. w esa wira -F. wura. ahoba. yew nyem wosaw

wo- won; (ben) won yeń yeych; ye-Ak. (wen) yene yeyere; yene yere F. (hwon) won wo- wore; hyen nye-

Rem. 1. The transformation of t, d, into ts, dz, before e, i (yet not before e), is of recent origin and does not seem to extend to all Fante dialects. There is no vestige of it in the 500 words of the Afutu or Cape Cape Coast dialect of 1668, given by W. J. Müller, nor in the writings of Ch. Protten, 1760. The Mf. Gr. and Mr. W. de Graft have it throughout; in the words obtained from the latter by the Rev. J. Beecham, the sounds ts, dz, are erroneously expressed by ch, j.— The transformation of n into ny before e, i, was not known to Müller and Protten, nor is it found in the words of de Graft; but the Mf. Gr. extends it even to words in which the n stands for an original d, as in nè, and, ne, to be, F. nye (written nyi in the Mf. Gr.).

It would not bring any advantage to the literary dialect, if these transformations of simple into compound consonants were received in it; the disadvantage, on the contrary, is singulary apparent in the

following example:

Akr. ade, a thing, plur. nneema (besides ade and nnewa), things;

Ak. ade, adee, "nneema (= nnee-mma);
F. adze [adzi], "nnye(e) ma [Mf. Gr. nyemba, mb = mm]. In Akr., nneema appears as the regular plural formation of Ak. adee with the addition of the diminutive suffix, cf. § 42, 2. 4.; but who would recognize the singular form adze [adzi] in the plural form nnyem[b]a?

Rem. 2. In the words under b., not even those Fante dialects that have d for s, use it consistently. Akr. as e, bottom, in F. occurs in three forms, ase (so it was in 1668 and 1760), ade, adze; but these two last forms are likely to be confounded with a de, a dze, a thing.

F. dadze = Akr. asase, ground, earth, is not, or only by the tone, distinguished from F. dadze = Akr. dade, iron. (Müller, 1668, has aradde = adade, but Protten, 1760, writes it asase.)

Rem. 3. The compound consonants kw and gw have in F. been retained throughout; in Ak. and Akr. they have been transformed into tw, dw, before e, e, i; gw has been transformed also before 'a' in Ak., but not in Akr., which therein occupies an intermediate position between Ak. and F. — Akr. Ak. twa is a transformation of F. kwia, Mf. Gr. khwa, khwia, de Graft: chua, to cut (Protten: kya, y = wi). The combinations twe, twi, dwe, dwi, with the final w (§5) or before m, have changed into two, twu, dwo, dwu; cf.

Akr. As. Dwoda (= Dwewda), Aky. Dweada, Mf. Gr. Gwioda, Pr. Gioda;

Akr. Ak. adwini, odwumfo, F. agwini, gwimfo.

Rem. 4. The compound consonants hw have been retained in F. and transformed into fw in Ak.; but Akr. sides with Ak. only before g, e, i, and with F. before a and partly before ê, î (especially after the nasal prefix, as in nhwea, sand, nhwi, hair).

- Rem. 5. The labial consonant w has been palatalized before e, e, i (§ 10, 2), and in Ak. it has even been transformed into y, in the pronoun of the 3d pers. plur. (§ 58 Rem. 2), whilst on the contrary Akr. and F. have retained the consonant as purely labial, and transformed the palatal vowels into labial ones, in the said pronoun (§ 58) and in wosaw, wura, wusiw = wesa, wira, wisie, § 19. In Ak. yawá, Akr. F. awówá, brass, an original y seems to be transformed into w.
- Rem. 6. The palatal simple consonant y of Akr. and Ak. has been transformed in F. either into hy or h, or into ny, in the pronoun of the 1st pers. plur. (§ 58); the latter transformation is also found in the verb yem, Akr. Ak., nyem, F., to conceive. In the verb yera, to be lost, Akr. has the commencing consonant as it is in F. (yew), and the termination, as it is in Ak. (hăra).
- 2. Variation of the vowels and especially the final sounds and syllables of stems is frequent, so that we find the variations of simple stems recorded in § 28, 3. interchanging within the same dialect or in different dialects. We shall now review those ten forms or variations, mentioning the cases in which the three compared dialects agree or differ, and then subjoining some examples under a-o.

Variation 1 (pa) in all dialects numbers more stems than any of the variations 2-10. In some verbs which in Akr. have full e or o, we find in Ak. e, e or o for it a). Ak. has more verbs with one simple vowel than F. and Akr., because Ak. omits the final w of var. 2(d), in two verbs the final m of var. 5(9), and in other words the accessory syllables of var. 7(l); on the other hand it uses accessory syllables (var. 7) where Akr. and sometimes also F. have single vowels b).

Nouns in e, i, o, u, in Λk . frequently assume the additional vowels e, e, o, of var. 6e).

Var. 2 (paw) is peculiar to F. (as early as 1668) and Akr. In Ak. it is chiefly replaced by var. 1 or 7 in verbs and nouns d), or also by var. 6 (confined to nouns).

Var. 3 and 4 (pā, pae) in verbs are used nearly alike in Akr. Ak. and F.; some interchanges, however, take place f). In nouns, Akr. has often the ā of contracted diminutive forms, where Ak. and F. still use incontracted forms f).

Var. 5 (pam, pan). Akr. has many verbs and nouns ending in n (and a few ending in m) instead of accessory syllables of var. 7 in Ak. 9) Akan has, therefore, less verbs and nouns ending in m and n or n, than Λkr., but F. has more verbs and nouns ending in n (1668 and 1760 we find n), and besides them, it has many ending in r or l, which in Akr. and Λk. have the accessory syllables of var. 7 and 8. k. ly

Var. 6 (pia) is pretty much alike in Akr. Ak. F., as far as verbs are concerned; but accessory vowels in nouns are more frequent in Ak., cf. var. 1c), and some exchanges take place with var. 3. 7. 8. h)

Var. 7 (pare, pini) is more frequent in Ak. than in Akr., and more frequent in Akr. than in F. (cf. var. 1.5.); in some cases the vowels only are different?). In Ak. the final vowel may assume an additional vowel (which sometimes supplants the former so that the form belongs to var. 8, as in akyire, aduro), whilst in Akr. the accessory syllable may assume a final w; but in F. more frequently the final vowel of the accessory syllable is lost, and then the form, ending in r or l, rather belongs to var. 5 k). — Sometimes Ak. has var. 1 or 5 or 6 instead of Akr. var. 7 l).

Var. 8 (păra, pira) is used nearly alike; Ak. has some forms equivalent to var. 7 in Akr. and F. (as akyire, aduro, have been mentioned under var. 7 in parenthesis), but the reverse also takes place *).

Var. 9 and 10 (pata, patiriw) are used nearly alike, with few interchanges n). —

Examples of the said deviations of Ak. and F. from Akr.

- a. Akr. ye dwo edwom gye se $\Lambda \mathbf{k}$. уę gye sę dwo edwom F. gwc (?) ye gye 86
- ehē b. Akr. sŭa kye fi kyi du hũ mmobo Aky. sŭere kyere ehene firi kyiri mmoboro duru hunu kye,kyere hê,hene firi As.ธนัล kyi mmoboro duru hū,hunu F. mmobore du sŭare kyere ehene fi, firi hũ
- c. Akr. ade dote ofi, ofie ayi ewi obo osofo 80, nsu Aky. (adee nnotee ofic ayie ewio oboo osofoo soo nsuo owuo Λs. obo osofo so nsu F. adze detse efi, efie ayi ewi ebo sofo do, so nsu OWE

- d. Akr. saw dew tew siw fow gow tow fuw suw kyew Ak. sa. de te si fo gono to fn suru bere kyea F = Akr.
- e. Akr. nwaw ekyew ehyew esiw asow afuw; eyaw ńwa ekye chyee esie aso afuo eya $F_{\cdot} = Akr_{\cdot}$ yew
- f. Akr. tā bābi kā akurā onyã dā tā Ak. beabi tawa kawa akŭrowa onyinà dā F. ehinã etaba (1668) kaba akŭroba dabā
- q. Akr. dan kyen sen kyin ton; oman aben edin opon Aky. dane kyene sene kyini tono omane abene edini epono ebunu (dare) edin (epőrő) F. sen kyin ton eman aben edzin epon dan ebun · Akr. osram, obosom; nim kum Aky. osrane, (nĩ (kũ ĺkum As. obosome nim F. kum bosom nyim osran (1668)
- h. Akr. obea afõa amõa i. Akr. sare tče adare Aky. tene afănã Ak. obā amănă adere sere As. afŏrã amĕrã As. F. F. adar tsen (basia) afona amona?
- k. Akr. těeri bere atere akyiri osoro aduru goru Aky. atoo (akyirie (aduruo (go " " As. laduro akyire (goro " atere akyiri esoro adur gor F. kwer bel latel akyil gol esol adul
- l. Akr. duru afwerew ware oyere ohene boro hunu Aky. wa ∫oye ∫gheṁ bo du huń afiveree As. ware loyere lohene duru hunu ahwere F. wal dul hun ahwel eyel ehen bor
- m. Akr. hena, hona sere yera twerew) werew) Aky. nhwãe seree hăra (twere ((were | As. ltwere **l** were hwana lsere F. wana sere yew kwerew
- n. Akr. sekyi patiriw taforo
 Aky. sekyere patiri tafere
 As. wati tafo, tafara
 F. tsiruw tafer, tafel
- o. F. likes to insert m in compound words after nasal vowels; as,
 Akr. nifā onipa Onyankõpon
 Ak. " " Onyankoropono
 F. nyimfā enyimpa Nyankõmpon

We see that Akr. on the one hand often has shorter forms than Ak., as far as the enlargement (of var. 1.5. into var. 6.7.) is of no value for the meaning or distinction of words; but it goes not so far in shortening the Akan forms as F., which reduces most forms of var. 7

to the var. 5, casting off even the vowel of accessory syllables beginning with r (which then in some F. dialects changes into 1). On the other hand Akr. uses the final w of the F. (var. 2), where Ak. has only a simple vowel (var. 1). Thus Akr. sets the variations 1.2.5.7. against 1.7. in Ak. and 1.2.5. in F., and thereby has the advantage of distinguishing words of different signification, written alike in Ak. or F. — E. g.

Akan: Akropon or the literary dialect:

= bo, to cast down; bow, to intoxicate; boro, to beat, surpass.

bobo = bobo, to strike (repeatedly); bobow, to roll up.

= bu, to bend, break; buw, to cover, to watch, lie in wait. = do, to love, be deep; to multiply; dow, to till the ground.

dwa = dwa, to jut out; gua, to carve; kyia, to salule.

dwo = dwo, to cool; dwow, to cut (to pieces).

= fe, to be smooth; fe, to vomit; to yearn; few, to kiss.

go(gono) = gow, to relax, soften;

go(goro) = goru, to play.

gya = gya, to lead; to bring an offering; gyaw, to leave.

hye = hye, to spread; hye, hyew, to burn.

= ka, to bite; to remain; to be common; kaw, to ferment. ka

= kū, to bend or be bent towards; kūm, to kill. kũ

= pa, to strip, denude, renounce &c. paw, to choose. = po, to growl; pow, to rub, polish, be proud. pa

po

= sa, to cut, lance, geld, take out; saw, to draw, scoop; to dance. sa

= se, to be alike, to fit, become; to crack; sew, to spread out. se

= se, to say; sew, to grind, sharpen.

= si, to stand or place upright; siw, to pound; to obstruct. = so, to drop, to kindle, to be tough; sow, to catch, pick. si

so

= so, to lay hold of; sow, to cut, to hatch; so so, to carry; sow, to set, stud, bear fruit.

= tew, to transplant; to abide, waylay; tā, to level.

= te, to hear, understand, feel; to sit, live; tew, to tear. rend.

= to, to lay, cast; tow, to shoot. to

= twi, to push, thrust about; twiw, to move; to rub, clean, scour. těi

= waw, to support, ward off; ware, to marry; ware, to be long. wa

= wo, to have; to be (in a place); to pierce; wow, to stamp, pound, kick.

= ye, to do, perform &c., to be; ye, to be good; yaw, to scold.

bea = bew, to cross, to impede; bea, to lie (across).

bare = baw, to cover over, besmear; bare, to sling, wind, twist round.

duru = du, to arrive; duru, to descend.

= fi, to proceed from; firi, to give or take upon trust.

fwane=huàn, to snap, sprain, withdraw; huãn, to peel; huãné, to scratch.

gyene gyen, to be clear (of water);

gyene (nehõ), to surrender one's life. hini = hie, to open; hini, to shut (a door).

hunu = hu, to see, perceive, feel; hunu, to hollow out.

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Akropon or the literary dialect:
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sene = sen, to carve; sen, to flow, to pass, surpass;

sene, to cut in slices; to exchange.

tane = tan, to hate; tane, to disturb, be disturbed.

tene = tee, to straighten, to be straight, righteous;

tene, to lie or creep lengthwise.

hăra = yera (F. yew), to go astray, be lost; yeraw, to trouble.

twere = kyerew, to write; twerew (were, werew) to scrape, grate, scratch. Of nouns also a list of Akan words might be got up, for the different meanings of which Akr. has different forms; e. g. the infinitives

kuro = kurow, a town; kuru, a sore, an ulcer.

of the preceding verbs, and others besides, as —

ebo = ebo, a promise; ebow, a mist, cloud; a hand (of tobacco).

In Fante we likewise find verbs and nouns written alike, but expressing different notions, for which Akr. has different forms; e.g.

F. hwan = Akr. huàn, huãn', huãné (see above under fwane)

, sen sen, sen, sene tan, tane tane)

"adze = dade, asase see above Rem. 1. 2. $_{n}$ dadze =

3. Different use or form of the prefixes.

- a. In the prefixes of nouns, the following differences may be stated:
- 1. The vowel prefix o- is used in nearly the same way in Ak. and Akr. In the Fante dialect of Cape Coast (if we will judge from the Mf. Gr.) it is now commonly replaced by e-, whilst it was o- in 1668. (Müller has o- in more than 50 words; Prollen, 1760, has 5- in okra, soul, but e- in enipa, ekwang = onipa, okwan.)
- 2. The vowel prefixes as or es and the nasal prefix me are sometimes interchanging. (The prefix a- before i and u is usually written e- by Müller and in the Mf. Gr.)

enu, abień, esã, abiesã, anań,...akroń; } § 77. nnu, mmiennu, nsã, mmiensã, nnań,...ikroń. Akr. F. enu, abień,

Akr. nhoma ńhwi efwene nhwea

e-

Ak. ehwî ehwen, nhwen

F. ahwēa ńhwen lahõma anhwea 1840 egwene 1668.

3. The Akr. prefix am- (in nouns) is in Ak. and F. replaced by a-; e.g. in Akr. ámpáň antweri (ladder). ansam

Ak. ápàné akweri asam F. atweri, akweri.

b. 1. On the pronouns prefixed to verbs, cf. § 54. 58b.

Akr. me-, I wo-, thou o-, he, she e, it ye-, we mo-, you wo-, they. Ak. mo-,homwoeyeye-

Ō-

nye-

joogle Digitized by

wo-

hom-

It is obvious that the pronouns in the forms used in Akr. deserve the preference before those in Ak. and F. on account of their harmony with each other and with the independent and possessive forms, as well as on account of their simplicity and distinctness.

2. In the prefixes of verbs in the perfect tense and the consecutive form, the progressive form, the 1st and 2d future tense, the 2d imperative and all negative forms, there is scarely any difference, except that F. in the negative future forms uses the prefix k.g. instead of b.g.

Concerning the changes of vowels of these prefixes by a greater degree of assimilation, see hereafter the 5th point.

- 4. Different form of the suffixes.
- a. In the palatal suffix (§ 36), Ak. has usually \underline{e} or e in addition to, or instead of, the e or i of Akr. and F.

b. The personal suffix ni (Akr. Ak.) is nyi in F. — The personal suffix fo (Akr. F.) in Ak. usually, though not always, assumes an additional ϱ ; e. g.

Akr. Ofanteni, Mfantefo; owudifo pl. a - Cf. § 38. 42, 3. 4. Ak. Mfantefoo owudifoo

F. Fantsenyi, Mfantsefo wudzifo.

c. The diminutive suffix (§ 37) is, in most cases, contracted in Akr. ($\bar{a} = awa$, and even = cwa, owa, § 20, 4), whilst Ak. and F. usually preserve it as a syllable by itself (wa, ba, besides ma; ba in 1668 was, and still is, the prevalent form in F.). After a nasal consonant it is ma in Akr. Ak. F. (the Mf. Gr. writing mba, but pronouncing mma).

Akr. aniwa afanã akurā ahyemma nsateā Ak. aniwa nsateawa afanawa akurowa ahyenma F. 1868 anyua nsatseaba afanaba akuroba ehyemba 1668 aniba nsateaba

- 5. Differences in the assimilation of joining sounds.
- a. In the assimilation of neighbouring vowels, F. goes farther than Akr. and Ak., especially in the prefixes be and ko of the verb (§ 91, 6. 96.). The vowels of these prefixes are made alike, approaching as nearly as possible to the vowel of the verb. Cf. Mf. Gr. pag. 58. 59.

Akr. {bĕra befa, — beye, — bemene, — bepan, — bepun, — bebu, Ak. {ko kofa, — koye, — komene, — kopan, — kopun, — kobu; băfa, — beye, — bemen, — băpan, — bopun, — bobu, {ko kafa, — keye, — kemen, — kapan, — kopun, — kobu.

The prefixes me (or mi) of the present, and me (or me) of the future tense (§ 91, 6) are likewise represented in more than two forms in the Mf. Gr. pag. 58.

Akr. \(\int Pres. \) meba meye meko mepan mibu, memene Ak. \Fut. meba meye meko mepan mebu; memene IPres. m'ba meye memen măko m'pan mubu. Wat. măba manan mobu. meye moko memen

b. In the assimilation of joining consonants, Akr. is more consistent and decided, whilst Ak. and F. frequently preserve the original sounds. The Mf. Gr. writes mb, nd, ng, though the pronunciation be mm, nn, in.)

Akr. ahyemma adomma, nnonnomma dennen, dennénnen denden dendendenden F. ehyemba adonba, adondonba dzendzen

6. Transformation and loss of original sounds in composition und reduplication.

Original sounds, especially in compounds, are more or less fully preserved. The decay of original sounds, by the processes of shortening, assimilation, elision and contraction, in compound and reduplicated words, seems to be least in Ak. and perhaps most in Akr.; in some cases F. has the shortest forms (cf. 2. var. 7).

Akr. aduan anuonyam onyā osrāni harehare duruduru Aky. fadibane animenyam onyina dudu As. laduane animonyam (onyirā) osorāni "

F. adziban animnyam sorodānyi hahare duduru

F. Akosua (Abrāba Kobena Kwaw Aaba Kwamena Amba (of Kwayaw, Ayaba)

Akr. kõmá, Aky. kononá, As. koroná, F. akõma, heart.

7. Differences of the tone of words and inflexial forms.

In the tone there are differences between Akr. and Ak. alluded to in § 25 Rem. 49, 3. d. e. 166, 5 Rem.

Of F. we know too little in this respect.

- 8. Differences in the construction of words and sentences.
- a. After the verb mã, to give, in the meaning to cause, to let, the pronoun follows it in the objective form in Ak., whilst it is prefixed to the succeeding verb (as its subject) in Akr. and F. Cf. § 106, 25 Rem. and § 181.— The same verb mã is used in F. as an auxiliary to the negative imperative, where Akr. and Ak. do not want it. E. g.

Akr. Wunyi me aye a, nsee me din. Prov.

- F. Enyi m' aye a, mmã nsee me dzin.
- b. After nouns in the nominative and possessive cases, the corresponding pronouns are added in F., but not in Akr. and Ak. E. g.

Akr. m'agya odan Kwadwo koe Yaw nè Yā bae Ak. agya odane Kwadwo koree Yaw nè Yawa bace F. m'agya ne dan. Kogwo okoe. Kwaw onye Aaba wobae.

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c. F. impairs the distinctness of pronunciation by frequently suppressing the vowels of the pronouns me and no, or other vowels, more than Akr. and Ak. do. Examples from the Mf. Gr. pag. 166. 172. 176.

Akr. Mekyen no nantew; Ade benara a wode beko no, orennye;

Ak. Mekyene no nante; Adee ben'ara a wode bekoro, orennye; F. Mekyene n' nants'w. Eben' adz'ara na edz' bekor a, onkegye.

Akr. Mete wo yaw memā wo; wote me yaw mā me

Ak. , , ya , , , , ya , , ,

F. M'tse wo yew m'mā wo; etse m'yew mã m'.

9. Different signification of the same word in different dialects.

The same word may be used in a narrower sense in one dialect and in a wider sense in another a), or in a sense altogether different b). E. g.

a. Akr. enan, the foot, is also used in a wider sense, including gyaw, gyā', Ak. gyawa, the leg, and sere, Ak. seree, the thigh.

Akr. otam, the cloth round the loins, waistcloth, = amóase, danta, is also used = ntama, Ak. ntoma, cloth (in general).

- b. Akr. afuw, Ak. afuo, a plantation = F. ekwã, ham; F. afuw, weeds, = Akr. wúrá, nwúrá, Ak. wira, nwira.
- 10. Different words or phrases for the same things or thoughts.

 The same thing has often several names, of which one is used more in this, another more in that dialect. E. g.

Akr. F. agya, father, ena, mother. In Ak. the speaker uses both words only of his own parents (omitting the pronoun me before them); for the parents of others, the words ose, father, on i, mother, are used.

Akr. onuabea, Ak. onuabā, As. onuawá, F. akyèréwa, akyiriba, sister.

Akr. akyi ba, Ak. áma'rā, F. ámona, next younger brother or sister.

Akr. aberekyi, Ak. F. amponkye, goat.

Akr. opapo, Aky. aberekyinini, he-gout.

Words peculiar to Ak. will, in general, be readily admitted in Akr. Words peculiar to F. will less readily be admitted, if there are words in Ak. or Akr. expressing the same thing or notion.

Akr. hintiw, Aky. sunti, F. purow, to stumble;

Akr. purow, to challenge; to loathe.

Akr. ode, Ak. odee, F. edwo, yam. (Akr. dwokórów, the core of a yam).

Akr. Ak. kokoam, F. dodom, in the corner, secretly.

Akr. hunu, Ak. hun, F. gyan, gyennyan, in vain.

Akr. Ak. trā ase, tenā ase, F. tenā ase, ko fam, sit down.

Akr. éhèé, F. óhòó, no; Akr. wóm'moá, F. wún'twá apáw, you are right.

Akr. ne yam ye nwene, óyè ayamonwéne, F. óyè káne, he is slingy.

Akr. atu me abasam, amã mapa abaw, F. eye me abagow, il has discouraged me.

Akr. waliye me bo, waliye me ase, wasi me anowowa,

F. waliye m'ase, walio me anolioba, he has given me a promise.

Akr. ode ne hô ato wo so, he trusts in thee;

F. ode ne were abye wo mu, he has put his confidence in thee.

11. Foreign words in the Akropong and other Tshi dialects.

The Tshi language influences (and lends to) neighbouring languages much more than it is influenced by (and borrows from) them, and shows no tendency to grasp foreign words for its own enrichment. Yet there is a number of words borrowed from neighbouring and European languages, viz. a. Guan, b. Akra or Gã; c. Portuguesc, d. English, e. Dutch, f. Danish, g. German. The words of a. b. f. g. may be said to be peculiar to the Akropong or Akuapem dialect, but are few in number; the words of c. d. e. are common to the Tshi dialects in general. (Words from European languages frequently have double tones in single syllables; cf. § 22, 3).

a. Of the Guan language we find less words in the Akuapem dialect, peculiar to it, than might have been expected from the facts mentioned in the Introduction § 1 C 4c. They are chiefly proper names, and names of less known plants and animals. E. g. Tête and Tete (Teté and Tète are Akra names for the first and second son; Tète is the Tshi name of an Akem town; te'te is a Tshi word = ancient time); pādêdê = siwabiri, a certain plant.

b. Of the Akra (Gã) language may have been taken: frofrow, native

fricassee, G. flou, flouflou, from fo, fro, flo, flou, to cut.

The phrase 'odi ne hō few' is suspected to be taken from Gã (eye ehe feo) = ogoru ne hō, he mocks at (or plays about) him, though few is a Tshi word received in Gã.

- c. Of the Portuguese language, though it was used as the medium of conversation in the trade on the Gold-Coast by Negroes and Europeans, at least the Dutchmen and Danes, for more than hundred years after the expulsion of the Portuguese, not many words have been received in the language of the natives; e. g. prako (G. kplôtō'), P. porco, a pig; kāmísā', P. camisa, camisão, a shirt; asepāteré, F. asupatsel, P. çapato, shoe; krātā', P. carta, a sheet of paper; pānō', P. pāo, bread; tabow, P. taboa, a board; kôbere, P. cobre, copper; sedā, P. sedų, silk.
- d. English words are more frequent; e.g. brûkū', a book; tôpō', a tub; bén'seré, a bason; pénsèré, a pencil; girâse, a glass; prâse, plaster; prête (= taforoboto), a plate; srête, a slate; pen, a pen; sírikyì, silk; samăna, to summon; konsèbre Akr., konsòmiri Aky., a conslable; sísè (= akwanhyede), subsistence; sirin, F. sideri, a shilling.
 - e. To the Dutch lang. we may ascribe: mfensere, D. venster, a window.

 f. To the Danish language: dagire. Dun lak. seuling-wax: hagire.
- f. To the Danish language: dagire, Dan. lak, scaling-wax; hagire, Dan. hayel, hail-shot; dare, F. dadare, Dan. daler, a dollar.
 - (To e. or f. krakum, Dutch: kalkoen, Dan. kalkun, a turkey.)
- g. Of the German language are taken: brête, pl. mmĕrête, F. tabow, G. brett, a board; hanspā, G. handspaten, a spade.
 - 12. New words in the literary dialect.

A good number of words have been formed and introduced into the literary dialect by the translation of the Bible and various other books.

New words of this kind are either derived from, or compounded of words already existing in the language a), or taken from other languages b). (This borrowing from other languages has been limited to names of foreign things, as persons, animals, plants, commercial objects, coins, weights and measures, instruments, a. s. f.) E. g.

a. adubiri, ink (fr. aduru, any medicine, drug or chemical preparation, biri, to be black or of any dark colour). odufrafo, a chemist, apothecury, fr. aduru, medicine, fra, to mix. adufrasem, phurmacy; kāfranyansā, chemistry. botohuhuw-afiri, steum-engine; adabankwan, railroad; mframatoa, ahunmuhyen, an air-balloon; akyirikyerewfo, a telegraph;

okanea-mframa, illuminating-gas; fa-nno, asase-mu-nno, petrolcum; hann-mfonini, a photograph; okyin-nsoroma, a planet.

amănãe, post-office; amănâde, things sent by the post; amănăde-fwefo, post-master, fr. mana, to send (by opportunity), to forward to. adonnyade, means of grace, fr. dom, grace, nya, to get, ade, thing (something by which grace is obtained).

adominanade, sacrament (something by which grace is conveyed). odivito, a prophet, fr. yi adi, reveal, disclose, bring forth, manifest. abotanforofo (lit. rock-climber), the wild gouts of the rock. Job 39,1. akutuguâ, an apple (tree), fr. akutu, an orange and oguáwa, a quava.

b. Kaesare (or hempon), Cæsar, emperor; tsar, sar, czar; súltan, kalife, šah, kān, paša, hospodar; kurfürst, or pawhene, elector; her-zog, or sahene, duke. Pāpa, pope; episkopo, or asafo-so-fwefo, bishon: &c. Aristokratefo (omananiwafo), liberalefo (ahofadipefo), demokratefo &c. behemot [susono]; lewiatan [odenkyem]; Job 40, 15, 41, 1. anoma-kasida (hasida), a stork, Lev. 11, 19. Job 39, 13. Ps. 104, 17.

allon-dua, ēlā-dua or terebinte-dua, elon-dua, (or odum, okum, dupon), oak, terebinth, teil tree, &c. Gen. 12, 6. 35, 4.8. Judg. 9, 6. 37. Is. 6, 13. 44, 14. gofer-dua, dībō-dua (fr. deal-board), kuprési, fir tree, cypress &c. sitimdua, Ex. 25, 10; sikomore-dua; granate (-akutu, atoropo), pomegranate. kófer, nárde, kárkom, kānē, kínamon, míre, áloë; Sol. Song 6.7.

soham-bo, onyx stone; sardio, topasio, yaspi-bo &c. (or bogyanam-bo, akrate-bo, afwefwebo &c. E.c. 28, 17-20); margarite [ahenepá], a pearl; denare, Lat. denarius, δηνάριον; talente, Mat. 17, 24.27; 18, 24.; sékel; gerä; hómer, kör (körokese, opodo, 1 Ki. 5, 11), bat, efä, hin, gomer, &c. sambuka-sankū, (sackbut?) Dan. 3, 5, fr. oaußvzn and osankū, a kind of string-instrument; kompase, a compas; a pair of compasses.

Rem. Expressions of mathematics and natural or other sciences are translated into Tshi as far as possible. Some such translated expressions are found in Ch. Bellon's "Instruction in Arithmetic", pag. 174. 175. Other new or foreign words, besides those in the Bible, are found in the Stories from General History translated by D. Asante. Cf. the list C. No. 32, 37, on page XI, of this Grammar.

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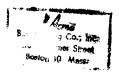
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CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS.

Page 29 line 14 read: longsuffering. P. 56 (line 10 from below): Cf. \S 245, 2. belongs to \S 89, 3 (not 2). P. 71 l. 9: he (takes...) P. 94 in \S 144: móńko ó. P. 95 in \S 147, 4: ńkyć. P. 111 l. 9: (one m'agya), P. 119 in the midst: lengthways, lengthwise. P. 135 l. 3: fi (for fi). P. 139 l. 15: dúků or dûkū'; l. 19: wu kyeç yeň (owu mãã me = he died that I may die likewise). P. 155 last line of \S 253: 273 (not 271). P. 165 in \S 67, 1 read: excess (for extent).

P. 50 l. 1 add 4. before Numerals. P. 118 l. 21 add 3. before In other cases... P. 63 in § 98 A 10 under 1, 13 add 31, 13. P. 47 add to § 70, 2: (Wódi anámmono, they eat meat; wódi nám mòmonó, they eat raw meat). P. 89 add to § 137: Cf. § 273, c. in the examples: fearfully, wonderfully, excessively, very far.

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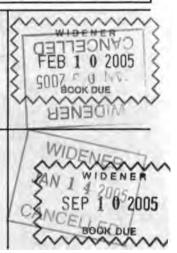




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