

Dravidian Researches

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Source: The American Journal of Philology, 1929, Vol. 50, No. 2 (1929), pp. 138-155

Published by: The Johns Hopkins University Press

Stable URL: https://www.jstor.org/stable/290412

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DRAVIDIAN RESEARCHES.1

1. Sounds and symbols.

Long experience has shown that subscript dots lack legibility; that if they are set properly at first, they often disappear in the course of printing; and that where they are really printed, they may be too small to be readily seen: a fault painfully illustrated in Bloch's Formation de la langue marathe, where the tiny dot of l, a much-used letter, almost calls for a magnifying glass.

I here use a prefixt dot to mark reverted linguals: .t .d .n .s .z .l .r. The other series of consonant-symbols are labial $p \ b \ m \ f \ v \ w$; dental or alveolar $t \ d \ n \ \theta \ \delta \ s \ z \ \check{s} \ \check{z} \ l \ r \ \check{r}$ (palatalized); prepalatal c (Bohemian T') ζ (Bohemian D') \tilde{n} (Spanish \tilde{N}) ς (German CH in ECHT) j (German J) λ (Portuguese LH); postpalatal or velar $k \ g \ \eta \ x \ \gamma$; glottal ι (occlusive) and h. Special symbols for voiceless sounds are supplied by capitals, as $N \ L \ R$. The glottalized occlusives of Kolarian are written 'k' c' t' p.

Brâhui f and v are said to be labiodental; in the other Dravidian tongues v seems to be commonly bilabial, or both bilabial and labiodental indifferently, so the letter v must be understood to have either value. In dealing with the literary languages, I use c and ζ as transliterative symbols for the ancient simple sounds: modern speech regularly has instead affricates resembling those of English Charge. In spoken Telugu these affricates have become ts and dz before non-palatal vowels.

Tamil is here transliterated in accord with native spelling, which represents all occlusives as being voiceless. Spoken Tamil

¹ References:

AJPh: American Journal of Philology.

BSOS: Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies.

GC: An Elementary Grammar of the Coorg Language by R. A. Cole (1867).

GK: A Grammar of the Kui Language by W. W. Winfield (1928).

GTI: A Grammar of the Tulu Language by J. Brigel (1872).

KL: A Grammar of the Kannada Language by F. Kittel (1903).

PGT: A Progressive Grammar of the Telugu Language by A. H. Arden (1905).

TlD: Tulu-English Dictionary by A. Männer (1886).

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has a fricative, varying from s almost to c, for a single c between vowels or at the beginning of a word. Otherwise a simple Tamil occlusive-symbol now corresponds to a voiced sound between voiced sounds; between vowels the sounds are said to be commonly fricative— δ for d written as t, and γ or even h for g written as k. Spoken Tamil has alveolar ndr for written nR, and alveolar tt or ttr for written RR; intervocalic R has become voiced but is more strongly trilled than ordinary r; before a consonant either t or r may be used for written R. Modern Kanara and Telugu have r for older R.

The letter ϱ means a very open sound resembling our A in HAT, and ϱ is like our AW; \ddot{e} is like the E of BAKERY; \ddot{i} stands for a vowel apparently similar to Rumanian $\hat{1}$; \ddot{a} in theoretic forms represents vowels of unknown quality; a grave accent marks uncertain or variable length.

2. Tulu and Kodagu.

The well-known main divisions of Dravidian speech are northwestern Brâhui, northeastern Kurukh-Malto, central Gôndi-Kui, southeastern Telugu, southwestern Kanara-Tamil, and Tulu. The last of these is spoken near the southern end of the Kanara region, but its linguistic position does not agree with its place on the map. The three dialects of Tulu are markt by the wordforms $h\bar{u}-=s\bar{u}-=t\bar{u}$ (see), according to Männer (TlD). If it is right to connect these words with the equivalent Kanara $n\bar{o}.d$ -, Gôndi hu.d-, hu.r-, Kui $s\bar{u}.d$ -, $s\bar{u}.r$ -, Telugu $c\bar{u}c$ -($<*t\bar{u}.dc$ -), apparently derived from a root *snu.d which became *sNu.d outside of Kanara-Tamil, it seems clear that the likenesses can hardly be accidental: Tulu was formerly in contact with Gôndi-Kui, and probably also with Telugu, from which it is now separated by Kanara territory.

The Tulu change of dr or .dr to $d\check{z}$, as in $\bar{a}d\check{z}i$ (six), $vond\check{z}i$ (one), beside Tamil $\bar{a}Ru < *.satr\ddot{a}$ and $onRu < *o.n.tr\ddot{a} < *oro.n.t$, allows us to assume a Tulu development of *wankiatr\ddot{a} thru *bandžedži to bandži (belly, heart, inside). The same basis *wankiatr\ddot{a} is represented by Gôndi $vand\check{z}\bar{e}r$ (tongue), with r as in $s\bar{a}r = Tamil\ \bar{a}Ru$ (six), and by Kui vangosi (tongue) < *wankorci < *wankortia < *wankiatro, with s as in $s\bar{a} = Tamil\ c\bar{a}$ - (die); whereas a form *wacetr\ddot{a} < *wakiatr\ddot{a},

without a nasal, is the source of Kanara basiR later basuru and Tamil vajiRu (belly). Kui shares with Tulu the change of r to \check{z} : Kui $m\grave{u}nd\check{z}i$ and Tulu $m\bar{u}d\check{z}i$ correspond to Gôndi $m\bar{u}.n.d$, Telugu $m\bar{u}.du$, Kanara $m\bar{u}Ru$, Tamil $m\bar{u}nRu$ $<*mutr\ddot{u}$ (three).

Tulu commonly changes a simple l to r: $k\bar{a}r$ (foot) = Gôndi $k\bar{a}l$, Telugu $k\bar{a}lu$, Kanara $k\bar{a}l$ later $k\bar{a}lu$, Tamil $k\bar{a}l$; tare (head) = Gôndi $tal\bar{a}$, Kui $tl\dot{a}u$, Telugu tala, Kanara tale, Tamil talai < *talas (BSOS 1928 4.770, AJPh 1928 49.340); $p\bar{e}r$ (milk) = Brâhui $p\bar{a}.L$, Gôndi $p\bar{a}l$, Telugu $p\bar{a}lu$, Kanara $p\bar{a}l$ later $h\bar{a}lu$, Tamil $p\bar{a}l$. Kui has .d for l following a vowel: $k\bar{a}.du$ (foot), $p\bar{a}.du$ (milk). These similar alterations of l, lacking general parallels in the other Dravidian tongues, may imply a fairly recent close connection of Tulu with Kui.

As the result of stress-displacement Gôndi has lost the interrogative vowels, and has the interrogative-basis b-, corresponding to Kui imb-, emb-, omb-, umb-. In Kui the five vowels, i- e- a- o- u-, are used as interrogative-bases. Tulu has interrogatives from the e-basis, and also from the o-basis. The o-interrogatives have direct parallels in Kui alone; their nearest kindred in southern Dravidian seem to be the rare o-demonstratives of Kanara, $\bar{o}.tu$ and $\bar{o}su$ (so much).

Tulu has $\bar{a}r < *ahar$ (those) without a hiatus-filler; Kui has aaru < *ahar, beside the variant avaru, with an unsettled v indicating a late addition of the hiatus-filler; Gôndi has $\bar{o}.r < *awar < *ahar$ corresponding to the developments found in southern Dravidian outside of Tulu: Telugu $v\bar{a}ru < *awar < *ahar$; Kanara avar, Tamil avar.

Tulu has $\bar{\imath} < *\bar{\imath}s$ (you); Kui has $\bar{\imath}nu$ for $*\bar{\imath}u < *\bar{\imath}su < *\bar{\imath}s$, with the ending of $\bar{\alpha}nu$ (I), but without initial n; early Telugu has $\bar{\imath}vu < *\bar{\imath}su < *\bar{\imath}s$; but in preliterary Kanara-Tamil the nominative $*\bar{\imath}$ became $n\bar{\imath}$ under the influence of the general stem, as seen in the genitive $*n\dot{\alpha}$ or ni(n)na, the dative $*nakk\ddot{\alpha}$, and the accusative *nasan (BSOS 1928 4.771, AJPh 1928 49.339).

Gôndi distinguishes two simple past tenses, a preterit made with tt or t and an imperfect made with d. Similarly Tulu distinguishes $t\bar{u}te$ (he has seen) and $t\bar{u}je$ (he saw). This distinction must have once existed elsewhere, but it has been generally lost. Telugu has an aorist and Kanara and Tamil

have a single past tense corresponding in form to one of the Gondi tenses.

In early Dravidian apparently verbs were formed from the demonstratives i and a, and from the interrogative e. They must have meant 'say this', 'say that' and 'say what'; but afterward the differences were lost and 'say' became the general meaning. Kanara has two forms, an- and en-. Tamil has only en-, but a lost *an- is represented in the causative anupp-(send = cause to say [a message]). Tulu has two forms, an- and in-, but the form an- may have been borrowed from Kanara, the literary language of the Tulu region. Gôndi and Kui have in-, in accord with the Tulu form differing from those of Kanara-Tamil.

With such agreements between Tulu and one or both of the central tongues, contrary to what is found in Kanara-Tamil, it is plain that the ancient geografic position of Tulu was nearly central, adjoining that of Gôndi-Kui.

In the fourth volume of the Linguistic Survey of India, Konow discusses various features that distinguish the Dravidian tongues, and puts Kodagu and Tulu wrongly in the middle of the Kanara-Tamil group. This mistake is repeated by Grierson in the recently printed portion of the first volume (1927). The sounds d and l in Kodagu peda, Tulu pudar, Kui pada, Gôndi pa.rōl < *polar < *pudar < *pitar (name), beside derivatives of the palatal occlusive <math>c in the equivalent Kanara pesar and Tamil pejar < *pitar < *pitar, show that Kodagu and Tulu are outside of the Kanara-Tamil group. The change of *pitar to *picar seems to be a special feature of Kanara-Tamil, unless it is to be assumed for the Kurukh verb pindž- (name), which might represent *piñc- < *picar < *picar, with n taken from Aryan $n\bar{a}man$.

Tamil has $p\bar{e}r$ as a contraction of pejar. Telugu has $p\bar{e}ru$ (name), but its history was different from that of the Tamil word. Telugu has c in vacci for *warci (having come), beside s in $c\bar{e}si$ for *kieci (having done): ancient c was kept, and later changed to an affricate, after a consonant, but became a fricative between vowels. A Telugu change of *pitar to *picar would have given a form like Kanara pesar, and perhaps later *paseru or $*pr\bar{e}su$, with vowel-displacement as in Telugu

 $vr\bar{e}lu < *veral =$ Tamil viral (finger). Telugu $mr\bar{o}lu$, a variant of modalu = Tamil mudal (beginning), allows us to assume the development $p\bar{e}ru < *pr\bar{e}r < *pedar < *pitar$, with a dissimilative loss of r. Telugu *pedar represents the older form of Kodagu peda.

Brâhui uses $-\bar{a}$ (the) as a suffix with attributive adjectives. The other Dravidian tongues have a or \bar{a} (that) as an ordinary adjective, except that in most varieties of Gôndi the corresponding pronoun is used instead. In Dravidian, as in English, two nouns may be combined with or without a genitive-ending. Apparently the oldest Dravidian genitive-ending is -a or $-\bar{a}$, representing the demonstrative just mentioned. In Kanara the genitive-ending is $-\dot{a}$, $-d\dot{a}$, -na, -na or -ra. Kodagu has -.da and -ra: the form -.da stands for *-.l.da < *-.lda, generalized from ava.da < *ava.lda (her) and the ordinary plural-ending -a.da < *-a.lda.

Much of the vocabulary of Kodagu is like that of Kanara or Tamil. In Kodagu $n\bar{a}nu$ (I), acc. jenna, dat. $jenak\ddot{i}$, gen. $j\bar{e}.da$, and $n\bar{n}nu$ (you), acc. ninna, dat. $ninak\ddot{i}$, gen. $n\bar{i}.da$ and ninna.da, we find forms similar to those of Kanara, aside from the genitives. Evidently ninna.da may be the Kanara genitive ninna combined with the Kodagu suffix. But $j\bar{e}.da$ and $n\bar{i}.da$ lack parallels in Kanara-Tamil.

The loss of final consonants is common in Kodagu, which has peda for *pedar, and ava.l-, nom. ava (she), avan-, nom. avi (he), ibbar-, nom. ibba (two persons), corresponding to Tamil ava.l. avan, iruvar. Kodagu nānu and nīnu, with some of their inflectional forms, were taken from Kanara. The older Kodagu words were probably $*\bar{e} = \text{Telugu } \bar{e}nu$ (I), with the genitive * $n\bar{e}$ for * $n\bar{a}$ = Telugu $n\bar{a}$ < *ena; and * \bar{i} = Telugu $\bar{i}vu$ (you), with the genitive $*n\bar{i} = \text{Telugu } n\bar{i} < *ini < *ina$. The change of *ina to nī, a distinctive feature of Telugu and Gôndi-Kui (AJPh 1928 49.341), led to the use of -i as a genitive-ending in Telugu and Kui. A differently directed influence of $*n\bar{\imath}$, beside the nominative *i, produced Kodagu $*n\bar{e}$ for $*n\bar{a}$ as the genitive of $*\bar{e}$. Kodagu $n\bar{i}.da$ is $*n\bar{i}$ with the usual ending added; * $n\bar{e}$ likewise became * $n\bar{e}.da$, and then $j\bar{e}.da$ under the influence of jenna and jenaki. Gondi or Kui would explain Kodagu nī.da; and Kui might explain peda, but it would not

account for $j\bar{e} \cdot da$, unless we go back to the time when Kui had \bar{e} in $\bar{a}nu < *\bar{e}n$ (I). Apparently the basis of Kodagu is Telugu.

Corresponding to Kanara $k\bar{\imath}.r$ and Tamil $k\bar{\imath}.r$ (under), Kodagu has $k\bar{\imath}$ and $k\bar{\imath}da$ (GC 20). We might try to explain $k\bar{\imath}$ as coming from $k\bar{\imath}.r$, with the sound .r simply dropt because it is unknown in Kodagu. But it is hard to explain $k\bar{\imath}da$ from Kanara or Tamil; and as a native formation we should expect .da, the common genitive-ending, instead of .da. Telugu has $k\bar{\imath}$ and kinda (under). Kodagu $k\bar{\imath}$ may be Telugu; $k\bar{\imath}da$ looks like a blend of the two Telugu forms.

3. Voicing.

Brâhui has $\bar{e}d$ as a variant of \bar{e} (that); in the plural $\bar{e}fk$, k is the regular plural-ending of nouns. The history of the word \bar{e} is not known, but the endings of $\bar{e}d$ and $\bar{e}fk$ correspond to those of the Kanara equivalents adu and avuga.l. Kanara has avu as the older plural of adu, perhaps belonging to a period earlier than the distinction of adjectives and substantives (BSOS 1928 4.771); avuga.l has taken on the ordinary plural-suffix of neuter nouns.

Brâhui and Kurukh-Malto seem to agree with the other Dravidian tongues in voicing (or not unvoicing) a simple But from Brâhui bi.t- (throw), occlusive after a nasal. $p\bar{o}k < *p\bar{o}ki$ (lost) beside Kanara bi.d- (throw), $p\bar{o}gi < *p\bar{o}ki$ (gone), and from Kurukh-Malto $\bar{e}k$ - Telugu $\bar{e}g$ -, Tamil $\bar{e}k$ -(go), it appears that the northernmost tongues lack the voicing of intervocalic occlusives which is regularly found in central and southern Dravidian, including Tamil as spoken tho not as written. The neuter-ending -d, kept in Brâhui with a loss of meaning, just as Latin case-endings are kept with a loss of function in French son files < svym filivs, shows that final consonants do not generally become voiceless in Brâhui, as occlusives and fricatives commonly do in Catalan, Dutch, German and the Slavonic tongues. The f of Brâhui xaf (ear), beside v in Gôndi kavī, Telugu cevi, Kanara kivi (ear), is analogic, taken from the plural xafk, which has normal f for vbefore k, in accord with $\bar{e}fk$. The normal Brâhui form of the singular would be *xau, parallel with kulau (message) beside the plural kulavāk.

From Kui prāu < *pràsu < *pràs, corresponding to Malay

bëras (rice), we may perhaps infer a general unvoicing of occlusives in ancient central Dravidian. If we can trust the evidence of native spelling, all occlusives were voiceless in early Tamil. Apparently preliterary Kanara shared with Tamil the unvoicing of occlusives; but afterward simple occlusives became voiced between voiced sounds, so that the basic voiced or voiceless quality is hard to make out. Tamil kutirai (horse) is presumably derived from kuti- (jump). In Kanara kudure (horse), as in the spoken form of Tamil kutirai, now pronounced kudire(i) or $ku\delta ire(i)$, the former t has changed to a voiced sound. The old t of Kanara-Tamil, or of some other Dravidian tongue which had voiceless occlusives between vowels, is kept in the word-form $kurt\bar{a}$ (horse), found in Savara, a Kolarian tongue which has also borrowed other Dravidian words.

From Brâhui murū, Gôndi malōl, Kui mrā.du, Telugu kundēlu, Kanara mola, Tamil mucal, mujal, Kurukh mūjā, Tulu muger, muger, mujer (hare), we may infer a basic *midal. Brâhui has $\bar{i} < *\bar{e}n$ (I); apparently Brâhui likewise changed \bar{o} to the closer vowel \bar{u} in $mur\bar{u}$, which looks like a loan-word from Gôndi. In Gôndi $mal\bar{o}l < *molal < *mudal < *midal$ we find sound-changes similar to those of Gondi pa.rol < *polar<*pudar < *pitar (name). Kui has i.du or i.d.du corresponding to Tamil il (house), and ari = Telugu adi (that): $mr\bar{a}.du$ is a normal development from *midal, with the stressdisplacement that is a common feature of central Dravidian. Telugu probably formed * $mad\bar{e}l < medal < midal$, parallel with $vr\bar{e}lu < *veral = Tamil viral$ (finger). In $kund\bar{e}lu$ *kumadēl the prefix may be connected with a lost equivalent of Tamil kuti- (jump), now represented by Telugu kudiñc-(shake up = cause to jump); the voicing of k to q in Telugu qurramu (horse) could have come from the intervocalic position in nā *kutrà (my horse), nī *kutrà (your horse). For Kanara we should expect *mosal corresponding to the Tamil forms; mola was constructed from the plural molaga.l < *molaka.l, which was taken from an earlier form of the Gondi plural malohk, perhaps *molahka.l. Gôndi is now spoken about a hundred miles from the northern end of Kanara territory. Kurukh $m\tilde{u}j\bar{a}$ seems to represent an ancient borrowing from The loss of final consonants caused *asan (he) and *asa.l (she) to be confused in Kurukh, with the result that the neuter $\bar{a}d$ was taken to express the feminine (BSOS 1928 4.774); similarly $m\tilde{u}j\bar{a}$ has lost its final l.

The Tamil variation between mujal and mucal marks the existence of two ancient dialects: one of them voiced c between vowels, while the other changed c to an affricate early enough for it to escape voicing. In Tamil pejar < *picar < *pitar (name) and mujal < *mical < *mital < *midal, the different vowels may indicate differing stress, altho there is little or no evidence of stress-displacement in early Kanara-Tamil; or perhaps, since the forms mujal and mucal indicate two dialects, we should assume that pejar represents a third ancient dialect. From the common Tulu change of l to r it is clear that Tulu mujer might be merely a naturalized form of the Tamil word. But muger and mugger are native developments; they agree with Tulu avu or au (that), the formal equivalent of Kanara adu, in showing that ancient intervocalic d is lost in Tulu, wheras ancient t has become d in Tulu pudar < *pitar (name). Beside hiatus-filling v < w in southern Dravidian we find also g < gw < w and gg < gw < w: thus Telugu has $m\bar{u}guru$, muguru, mugguru (PGT 325), as variants of mūvuru = Tamil $m\bar{u}var < *muhar$ (three persons). Apparently *midal developt thru *muwal or *muwar to mug(g)er in Tulu, with hiatus-filling w in the place of the lost d. Thus Tulu, probably alone among the southern tongues, contains evidence of the ancient distinction between voiced and voiceless occlusives. Parallel evidence is perhaps to be found, for central Dravidian, in Kui pada < *pitar (name) beside $mr\bar{a}.du < *midal$; but pada was probably derived from *pitar thru *prda, and the retention of d might be explained by the dissimilative influence of contact with r, if *prda was contemporary with the change of d to r between vowels.

4. The past tense.

In Kurukh a past participle is made with $-k\bar{a}$, as $esk\bar{a}$ from es-(break). The corresponding past tense lacks k in the third person, and in the feminine of the first person: 1 eskan, f. esnan, 2 eskai, $f. isk\bar{i}$, 3 esnas, $f. esa\bar{a}$; plural 1 eskam, f. esnam, 2 eskar, f. esnam, f. esn

beside ānkan (I said), kēras (he went) beside kirkan (I went). The *i*-suffix is sometimes given with ij or j, as $\bar{a}nijas$ or $\bar{a}njas$. Many verbs have an added suffix between the stem and the ordinary endings: bartškan from bar- (come); xottkan from xos- (dig into), with normal tt for st; usskan from ui- (plow). There seem to be three general forms of such suffixes: we may call them the c-suffix, which has become $t\check{s}$ or $d\check{z}$; the t-suffix, which becomes d after n; and the s-suffix. In Brâhui, Gôndi-Kui and southern Dravidian we find s as a derivative of c, but evidence of such a change seems to be lacking in Kurukh-Malto, so the s-suffix can hardly be a variant of the c-suffix. The latter, however, may represent a palatalized form of the t-suffix. otškan beside $h\hat{o}$ - (take) we find a remarkable stem-variation: apparently h was at first added to the emfatic imperative *o, and later extended to the entire present-future stem. The same variation appears in khè- (die), with the past kettškan. Kurukh x represents an ancient k, the k of the past-suffix may stand for older q, or for kk, which seems to escape the change to a fricative in Kurukh-Malto: Kurukh mōx- (eat) has the past mokk(h)-.

Malto verbs distinguish genders in the singular of the second and third persons. If the transcriptions given in the Linguistic Survey are trustworthy, Malto has lost the glottal occlusive. Otherwise the Malto treatment of the past tense agrees closely with the Kurukh treatment. Malto has -ken, and often -eken, corresponding to Kurukh -kan. Probably Kurukh usskan came from something like *uřsekken or *uřsegen, s being kept because the contraction to usskan was later than the change of st to tt in xottkan.

Brâhui has a present participle in -isa, but is said to lack a past participle. The formant of the affirmative past is usually \bar{a} or \bar{e} , sometimes s, rarely k or g; the negative past has t. The \bar{a} -suffix probably corresponds to the \bar{a} of the Kurukh third person; \bar{e} may be a contraction of ia, as found in Kurukh \bar{a} nias and other verbs. The s-suffix is derived from c in kask- (died), bass- (came), tiss- (gave), mass- (became) beside Kurukh $kett\tilde{s}k$ -, $bart\tilde{s}k$ -, $t\tilde{s}it\tilde{s}k$ -, $mand\tilde{z}k$ -, and in ass- (was) beside Gôndi $\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ (been). The retention of suffixal k in kask- is explained by the Kurukh participle $kett\tilde{s}k\bar{a}$: the common use of

the word as an adjective favored the preservation of the k. Aside from the words just mentioned, the Brâhui s-suffix commonly follows a weak vowel, as in bisis- from bis- (ripen): it may represent c, or ancient s, which seems to be kept between vowels in Brâhui, as in Kurukh-Malto. The older use of t to form the affirmative past, in accord with the other Dravidian tongues, is shown by Brâhui xutt- (dig) < *khust-, cognate with Kurukh xott-: it is a past which has been taken for the general verb-stem, like lend in English (for older lene).

In Kui the suffix of the past is commonly t, rarely d or s: -i is added to form the past participle. Gondi has an imperfect formed with d; a preterit formed with tt; a past participle in in $-t\check{s}i$, $-d\check{z}i$, -si; and another past participle, intransitive or passive, in -tal. The participle in -ī may take a second suffix, -kun; likewise -tal is a compound, its older element being t, which is a common formant of the past participle in Kanara and Tamil. Gondi has the preterit hatt- (went) from han-, beside the imperfect hand-. The suffix of the imperfect is properly d, but the normal loss of n before tt, in hatt-, itt- from in- (say), titt- from tin- (eat), and other commonly used verbs, caused nd to be considered the general suffix of the imperfect, and produced kind- from ki- (do), guhand- from guh- (seize), vānd- from va- (come), beside the preterits kīt-, guht-, vāt-, where t has replaced tt after a consonant or a long vowel. Gôndi verb-stems ending in n have extended the d of the imperfect to the present, the future and the infinitive. In many verbs the tt or t of the preterit may be added to the entire stem, as in nitt-, a variant of nil- = Tamil nil- (stand), and likewise in tatt- (bring) except for the stem of the imperative and of the negative, ta.r = Kanara tar. Gondi nitt- (< *niltt-) is the formal equivalent of the Telugu agrist nilut-, where tt has become t after a weak vowel.

Brigel divides Tulu verbs into six conjugations (GTI), represented as having the following suffixes of the imperfect and perfect in the masculine singular of the third person: (1) -te and -tide, (2) -de and -ide, (3) -je and -de, (4) -je and -te, (5) -de and -te, (6) -ije and -te. Tulu is rather closely connected with Gôndi-Kui, but has long been under the influence of Kanara, the literary language of the Tulu region. It has lost checking nasals except after a main-strest short vowel, so the

distinction of d and t in the 5th class may be said to agree with a Gôndi distinction of nd and t. The 4th and 6th classes likewise have t in the perfect; the j or ij of the imperfect corresponds to a past participle in -i, presumably connected with the i-participle of Kui. The forms of the other three classes seem to show a confusion of the tense-suffixes. In the 1st class the perfect is evidently a new formation made by adding one suffix to the other.

Telugu has a past participle in -i, from which the stem of the past tense is made by adding t (< tt); and an aorist made with d or t, corresponding in form to the past tenses of Gôndi. Many verbs have a past participle in -ci or -si (with s < c), and its added consonant is extended to various forms belonging to the present.

In Tamil the past participle, forming the basis of the past tense, is commonly made by adding -i or a t-suffix (-tu. -ttu. -ntu), rarely by doubling the last consonant of a stem. Where the past participle ends in -i, the consonant n is added before the endings of the past tense. The Kanara formations are mostly parallel with those of Tamil, except that d is added instead of n after -i. As the result of normal sound-changes Kanara generally has d where Tamil (as written) has nt or tbetween vowels: Kanara has nd after a main-strest short vowel. The doubling of a stem-consonant seems to represent two historic developments. It is found in connection with k(g) or a consonant made with the tip of the tongue, in both languages. Kanara $nakku = Tamil \ nakku$ (having laught), beside the stems Kanara nag = Tamil nak, the suffix seems to be a kcorresponding to the northern k-suffix of the past mentioned above. With other sounds the doubling probably came from assimilation of a t or d. Thus in Kanara i.t.tu (having put) beside the stem i.d. < *i.t., we see the usual Dravidian adaptation of a dental to a reverted lingual. In Kanara eccu (having thrown), with the general stem is-<*ic-, we may assume ecc - < *icc - < *itt- and *ic - < *it-, t being palatalized by i as in pesar < *picar < *pitar (name). If the Kanara form tavutappu (having ended) is rightly quoted (KL 102), it is presumably an analogic innovation; no other verb with a final labial admits doubling in Kanara or Tamil.

The k-suffix of the past, found in the northernmost tongues, is not properly a tense-mark. In Kui the ending of the infinitive is -pa, -ba, -va or -a. From Winfield's account of Kui (GK) we learn that most verbs form a derivative indicating multiple or repeated action: I will call it the multiplex. It is generally made, where the infinitive-ending is -a, by adding k to the verbstem; and where the infinitive-ending includes a labial, by adding that labial; a few verbs take a double suffix pk. Examples are $k\bar{u}r$ - (fall), with the infinitive $k\bar{u}ra$, having the multiplex $k\bar{u}rk$ -, with the infinitive $k\bar{u}rka$; ves- (speak), with the infinitive vespa, having the multiplex vesp-, with the infinitive vespa. Every infinitive in -pa or -ba or -va belongs, as a matter of form, to a multiplex-stem. This is natural enough, since an infinitive commonly does (or may) include the sense of multiple or repeated action. The k-suffix of the past, in northern Dravidian, is evidently a mark of the multiplex; but it happened to go out of use except in the past, and thus has become a tensesuffix. In Gôndi the participial suffix -kun, mentioned above. is perhaps a remnant of the multiplex. In Kanara-Tamil the future tense is made with p or b or v, a multiplex-suffix which has, like the k-suffix of the northern tongues, gone out of use except for a single tense. In Tamil the labial-suffix of the future is replaced by k in the neuter of the third person: a puzzle which is explained by the equivalence of the k-suffix and the p-b-v-suffix as marks of the multiplex in Kui. An older state of affairs is seen in Kanara, where the suffix -ku or -qu (earlier -kum or -qum) is used for the third person without any distinction of tense (KL 146). In Tamil the infinitive-ending is sometimes -a and sometimes -ka: like its Kui equivalent, it may exclude or include the mark of the multiplex.

The Kurukh-Malto treatment of verb-forms is sufficiently illustrated above. For the other languages examples will make clearer the foregoing statement of general principles.

Brâhui tix- (put), present tixi-, future $tix\bar{o}$ -, past $tix\bar{a}$ -, negative present-future tixp(a)-, negative past tixta-. The suffix of the negative is properly a (< a), but it has disappeared from a few forms of the present-future tenses, where p is the historic formant of the multiplex. Similarly bis- (ripen), bisi-, $bis\bar{o}$ -, bisi-, bisp(a)-, bista-; ka- (die), $kah\bar{e}$ -, $kah\bar{o}$ -, kask-, kasp(a)-,

kasta-, with the s of the past added to the negative. The lost past participle is represented by $p\bar{o}k$ (lost) = Kanara $p\bar{o}gi$ < * $p\bar{o}ki$ (gone).

Gôndi $k\bar{\imath}$ - (do), imperfect $k\bar{\imath}nd$ -, preterit $k\bar{\imath}t$ -, past participle $k\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}(kun)$, passive participle $k\bar{\imath}tal$. Kui gi- (do), past git-, attributive past participle giti, infinitive giva; multiplex gipk-, past gipkit-, attributive past participle gipkiti, infinitive gipka.

Telugu $c\bar{e}j$ - (do), aorist $c\bar{e}jud$ -unu or $c\bar{e}t$ -unu, past $c\bar{e}s(i)t$ -ini, past participle $c\bar{e}si$; kon- (buy), aorist kon(u)d-unu or ko.n.d-unu, past konit-ini or ko.n.t-ini, past participle koni, present kon(u)cunn- $\bar{a}nu$, present participle kon(u)cunu, attributive present participle kon(u)cunna, abstract noun konu.ta or ko.n.ta; nil- (stand), aorist nilut-unu, past nilicit-ini, past participle nilici, present nilucucunn- $\bar{a}nu$, present participle nilucucunu, attributive present participle nilucucunna, abstract noun nilucu.ta. The c of the past participle nilici has been added to the forms of the affirmative present, making the apparent stem niluc-, except for the infinitive and the imperative.

Tulu $t\bar{u}$ - (see), imperfect $t\bar{u}j$ -, perfect $t\bar{u}t$ -, past participle $t\bar{u}ji$; $b\bar{u}r$ - (fall), imperfect $b\bar{u}rij$ -, perfect $b\bar{u}rud$ -, past participle $b\bar{u}ri$.

Kanara ir- (be), past ird-, past participle irdu, future irp-, indefinite third person irku(m); gej- (do), past gejd-, past participle gejdu, future gejv-; nil- (stand), past nind-, future nilv-; $n\bar{o}.d$ - (look at), past $n\bar{o}.did$ -, past participle $n\bar{o}.di$, future $n\bar{o}.duv$ - or $n\bar{o}.rp$ -, with normal .r for .d before a consonant. Tamil ir- (be), past irunt-, past participle iruntu, infinitive irukka, future irupp-, with irukkum as the neuter of the third person; cej- (do), past cejt-, future cejv-; nil- (stand), past ninR- <*nilnt-, infinitive niRka, future niRp-; $n\bar{o}kk$ - $<*n\bar{o}.dg$ - (look at), past $n\bar{o}kkin$ -, past participle $n\bar{o}kki$, infinitive $n\bar{o}kka$, future $n\bar{o}kkuv$ -.

From the foregoing it appears that early Dravidian had past participles in *-i, *-si, *-ci; the formant of the imperfect was t (< d?), which was doubled to express a more limited past or perfect. In the northernmost tongues a loss of final i, as seen in Brâhui xaf beside Gôndi kavi (ear), caused s and c to become formal equivalents of t. Elsewhere the general loss of medial s reduced the three participial suffixes to two. Telugu is remark-

able in keeping both -i and -ci. Gôndi has $-t\check{s}\bar{\imath}$, $-d\check{z}\bar{\imath}$, $-s\bar{\imath}$, representing *-ci as modified by preceding sounds. Kui has -i nearly always, -si < *-ci being restricted to the few verbs that have adopted s as the suffix of the past tense. The southernmost tongues, Kanara, Tamil and Tulu, have lost *-ci; the $-t\check{s}u$ of the spoken Tamil past tense is unconnected, being merely a palatalized variant of the neuter ending -ttatu after i, parallel with ancient *picar < *pitar (name). Gôndi alone keeps up the historic formal distinction of two past tenses; Tulu keeps the distinction of meaning, but shows confusions of form.

The Telugu agrist, corresponding in form to the past of the other languages, is commonly translated 'would ——' or 'might ——'. This change of meaning has a close parallel in Spanish, where the old pluperfect has become a past future (DIERA — DARÍA) and subjunctive past (DIERA — DIESE).

5. Dravidian *ke.

Brâhui ka-, Kurukh khè-, ke-, Malto kei-, kej-, Gôndi sai-, sā-, Kui sā-, Telugu cà-, Tulu sai-, Kanara sāj-, sà-, Tamil cā-, ce-, Kodagu tšà- (die).

The oldest of these forms seems to be kei-, kej-, or ke-. Kurukh has added h to the stem of the present and future, probably in analogy with the variable $h\bar{o}$ -, o-, explained above. Brâhui has normal a for e, as in ant — Tamil enatt- (what). Before vowel-suffixes the Brâhui stem becomes kah-: it is not clear whether the h—an extremely unstable sound in Brâhui—is a mere hiatus-filler or represents sn as found in the dialectal variant kasn-; Brâhui has initial h for sn in hur- (see) from the root *snu. d. Outside of Brâhui and Kurukh-Malto the verb changed to kie-, $ki\bar{a}$ -: these forms are kept in Savara, the Kolarian tongue mentioned above. The change of a lengthened e to \bar{a} is common in Dravidian, the lengthened nominative from the en-basis making Gôndi $an\bar{a}$ (<* $\bar{e}n\bar{e}n$), Kui $\bar{a}nu$, Tulu $j\bar{a}n$, Kanara $\bar{a}nu$, Tamil $j\bar{a}n$ (I).

The forms with vowel-breaking are represented by Tamil ce-, $c\bar{a}$ -: Tamil has the past cett- $\bar{e}n$, the past participle cettu, and $c\bar{a}$ - elsewhere. In Tamil $c\bar{a}k$ -, used before vowel-suffixes, k is derived from hiatus-filling g < gw < w, as in $m\bar{u}kku = \text{Malto}$ muso (nose), where the doubling seems to have come from

end-position ($m\bar{u}kk < *m\bar{u}k < *mug\ddot{a} < *muw\ddot{a} < *mus\ddot{a}$). In Gôndi, Kui, Tulu, Kanara, former initial c has regularly become s. Gôndi has sai- before vowels, $s\bar{a}$ - before consonants, and similarly Kanara has $s\bar{a}v$ - as a variant of the future $s\bar{a}jv$ -. In Telugu and Kanara the influence of forms with \bar{a} has altered e to a: Telugu has the past participle cacci for *cecci corresponding to Kurukh $kett\check{s}$ -, and the aorist catt-unu for *cett-unu = Tamil cett- $\bar{e}n$; Kanara has satt- for older *cett-= Tamil cett-. Kodagu has a likewise in the past $t\check{s}att$ -, apparently taken from Kanara; its irregular imperative $t\check{s}\bar{a}.l$ - has borrowed .l from $b\bar{a}.l$ - (live).

In most of the Kolarian tongues, except Savara, we find go'c (dead) or something similar; the isolated Kurku of central India has $g\bar{o}en$. From forms used in other Austric tongues, it appears that the root was *et or *it, which became *goit by combination with a prefix in Kolarian. Initial consonants seem to be free from changes of voicing in Kolarian. If Kolarian *goit or any other g-form was the source of the Dravidian verb, it would seem to imply for early Dravidian in general a condition like that of modern Tamil, which lacks initial voiced occlusives in the isolated form of native words.

The initial consonant of *ke differs from that of Brâhui xaf, Kurukh $xebd\bar{a}$, Malto $xe\delta vu$, Gôndi $kav\bar{\imath}$, Kui kriu, kiru, Telugu cevi, Tulu kebi, Kanara kivi, Tamil $k\bar{a}tu$ (ear), of Brâhui xan, Kurukh xann, Malto xanu, Gôndi kan, Kui kanu, Telugu kannu, Tulu $ka.n.n\bar{\imath}$, Kanara ka.n(.nu), Tamil ka.n (eye), and of Brâhui xal, Kanara kal(lu), Tamil kal (stone). The nearer source of the northern x is presumably kh; a further source might be gh. Singhalese has, like most or all of the Dravidian tongues, lost the ancient aspiration of occlusives, so that Dravidian *khal and Singhalese gala (rock) may have the same basis, *qhal.

6. Dravidian *ätai, *äti.

Kurukh tai-, Malto tei-, tej- (send), Brâhui at-, Gôndi ta-, Kui ta-, Telugu tè-, Kanara tà- (bring), Tamil tà- (give); Brâhui ti-, Kurukh tši-, Malto tši-, Gôndi sī-, Kui sī-, Telugu ì-, Kanara ì-, Tamil ī- (give).

Kurukh has the adverbs $ajj\bar{a}$ (there), $ijj\bar{a}$ (here), corresponding to the demonstrative adjectives \bar{a} and $\bar{\imath}$. If these or

similar words were combined with * $\ddot{a}t$, slight sound-changes could have produced the verbs in the list given here, having the apparent bases * $\ddot{a}tai$ and * $\ddot{a}ti$. In Brâhui, aside from the past $\ddot{e}s$ -, which might have come thru * $\ddot{e}ts$ - from * $\ddot{a}taic$ - or * $\ddot{a}tais$ -, we find ata-, ati-, as variants of at-: the oldest of the three forms is probably ata-. The meaning of Tamil $t\dot{a}$ - (give) may have developt under the influence of Aryan da-, which would have necessarily become ta- in ancient Tamilian utterance. It is true that Kanara $t\dot{a}$ - sometimes means 'give' also; but preliterary Kanara probably shared with Tamil the general unvoicing of occlusives, so that the Aryan word, mispronounced with t, could have influenced both languages.

Brâhui ti- has the present $\bar{e}ti$ -, with a parallel imperative $\bar{e}te$: these forms may have come from $*\ddot{a}ti$, with a stress differing from that which produced ti-. Kurukh has $t\check{s}itt\check{s}$ corresponding to Gôndi kis, Kanara kiccu (fire). We should expect $*kitt\check{s}$: apparently $*kicc\ddot{a}$ became $*cicc\ddot{a}$ by assimilation. Likewise Kurukh has $t\check{s}itt\check{s}kan$ (I gave) for $*titt\check{s}kan$: *ticc- became *cicc-, and produced *ci- for *ti-, so that the Kurukh stem is now $t\check{s}i$ -. The same development produced Malto $t\check{s}i$ -. In Gôndi-Kui the past participle *tici became *cici by assimilation and changed the general stem to *ci-, which has developt normally to $s\bar{i}$ -. Gôndi keeps $s\bar{i}s\bar{i}<*cici$; Kui has lost it, having $s\bar{i}t$ - as the past of $s\bar{i}$ -. Savara, a Kolarian tongue, has borrowed ti- (give): it was perhaps taken from Kui before the initial t was changed to c.

In southern Dravidian apparently the imperfect *itid- or *itit-, with the first vowel assimilated to the second if they were originally different, contracted to itt-, which had the form of a perfect and produced the general stem i-. Kanara has the past itt-; Telugu has the aorist itt-, and a parallel past participle icci, which may be a contraction of an ancient *itici. Tamil has changed the past to int-, probably under the influence of tant- (gave). Telugu shows many lines of connection with Gôndi and Kui, but the development of *äti separates it from them and puts it beside Kanara-Tamil. Tulu seems to have lost *äti; the basis of its tarpā- (cause to bring) may have been taken from Kanara.

From Winfield's work (GK) we learn that Kui verb-stems take a special suffix if the object of the verb is 'me' or 'us'

or 'you'. The simplest form of the suffix is a; a presumably older one is ara. The r-suffix is partially attacht to Tamil $t\grave{a}$ - and several of the verbs meaning 'bring' in the list given above. Brâhui has atar- for ata- before vowel-suffixes. Gôndi has ta.r- in the imperative and negative, .r being the normal representative of ancient r after a vowel: Gôndi $ma.r\bar{a}$ — Tamil maram (tree). Telugu has $t\bar{e}$ -, with the variant $t\bar{e}r$ -, in the infinitive, imperative and negative. Kanara has the future tarp-; the imperative $t\bar{a}(ra)$, plural tarri; and the negative $t\bar{a}r$ -. Tamil $t\dot{a}$ - has the past tant-, and the imperative $t\bar{a}$, plural $t\bar{a}rum$; otherwise the stem is tar-, not only for the future and negative, but also for the present. Tulu has r in the causative $tarp\bar{a}$ -. And Brâhui changes ti- to tir- before vowel-suffixes.

7. Dravidian *po.

Brâhui $p\bar{o}k$ (lost), Kurukh-Malto pol- (be unable), Telugu $p\bar{o}$ -, pa-, Tulu $p\bar{o}$ -, Kanara $p\bar{o}$ - later $h\bar{o}$ -, Tamil $p\bar{o}$ - (go).

Some of the Kolarian tongues have a verb $s\bar{i}n$ -, $s\bar{e}n$ -, $s\bar{e}n$ -(go), apparently derived from *sln, and the same root is represented in Dravidian: Brâhui hin-, Gôndi han-, Kui sal- (go). The more general Dravidian word is *po. Its meaning is somewhat changed in the northern tongues; the l of pol- is a negative-suffix. Telugu has po-, pa-, as variants of the usual $p\bar{o}$ -, in the imperative. Kurku, a Kolarian tongue, has $b\varrho$ - (go), evidently borrowed from Dravidian. This word, used in a language containing few Dravidian elements, was probably based on the Dravidian imperative, and seems to imply a form with initial b as the older Dravidian basis. In that case we have further evidence of a general unvoicing of initial occlusives in early Dravidian, corroborating the slender evidence of *ke.

Modern Kanara commonly has h for older p not in contact with a consonant. This development was apparently connected with the Kanara change of initial v to b. In early Kanara probably all occlusives were voiceless, as in Tamil. When initial v changed to b, the difference between b and p became distinctive in certain word-forms. In order to make the difference clearer, many persons strengthened p to ph, which later developt thru f to h. A spread of the use of h made it so general that it was finally adopted in literary Kanara. It is noteworthy that the

neighboring Marâti, as spoken, has f corresponding to written ph: a development perhaps connected with the Kanara formation of f from ph, just as the change of f to h in Gascon and Spanish seems to be connected with the general absence of f in Bask.

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