

THE PREDICATIVE IN TSWANA .

Submitted as

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by

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(I)

THE PREDICATIVE IN ISWANA

INTRODUCTION.

Nature and Scope of Dissertation.

Commenting on A.C. Hooley's "Sechwana Grammar" (L.M.S., 1st ed. 1905; 2nd ed., revised by J. Tom Brown (abt. 1922 ?), Prof. E.F. Lestrade observes, inter alia, that "...this book contains a wonderful mass of material extraordinarily badly arranged". (2) Prof. Lestrade goes on to say that "There is need to-day for a good up-to-date grammar taking cognisance of dialectal forms and framed with a view to assist the move for standardisation". (3)

The following Chapters represent the present writer's humble attempt at (a) re-arranging the "wonderful mass of material extraordinarily badly arranged" by Hooley and Brown, and (b) casting Tswana grammatical forms into the Bantu mould prepared for us by Prof. C.F. Doke in his epoch-making work, "Bantu Linguistic Terminology". In brief, the present writer's scope may be put in the following terms: the pouring of the old linguistic wine of Archbell and Fredoux, of Hooley and Crisp, into the new bottles of Doke and Lestrade, of Hennie and van Eeden.

In this essay the writer confines himself to the Predicative only; but he has in his possession notes, at different stages of completeness,

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(1) For a discussion of the leading dialects of Tswana and their geographical distribution, see the introduction to A.C. Tucker's "The Comparative Phonetics of the Suto-Oruana Group of Bantu Languages".

(2) See "A Preliminary Investigation into the State of the Native Languages of South Africa with Suggestions as to Research and the Development of Literature" (Bantu Studies Vol. VII No. I March, 1933) p. 77.

(3) *Ibid.* p. 22.

on the Substantive, the Qualificative, the Descriptive, the Conjunctive and the Interjective. It is the author's ambition ultimately to publish these notes as an 'Introduction' towards a more scientific study of Tšwana grammar.

Sources of Information.

(a) Field Work. Much valuable material has been gained through the writer's frequent attendance, over a period of four years (August, 1940 to the present day) at tribal meetings and Church services in Thaba 'Ntšho (Thaba 'Neno) where he has had the privilege of listening to the idiom of many an old man<sup>(1)</sup> who prides himself with speaking the undiluted tongue of his fathers. At Thaba 'Ntšho one meets with many representatives of the chief Tšwana-speaking tribes notably BaRolong (on whose idiom this essay is mainly based), BaLwena, BaHurutshe and the smaller groups e.g. BaGōja, BaFokong, BaNgoro, etc. As the Morōka Missionary Institution, Thaba 'Ntšho attracts students from as far afield as Serowe, Motšedi, Kanye, Molepolole, Mafeking and the western Transvaal, I have had the privilege of interviewing students from the above areas, and much valuable information has been gained in this way.

(b) Library Work. In the preparation of this dissertation, I have obtained much help from the following publications:<sup>(2)</sup>

Tšwana: Woorkey and Brown's "Seoana Grammar", W. Crisp's "Notes towards a Seoana Grammar", A. N. Tucker's "The Comparative Phonetics of the Suto-Chuana Group of Bantu Languages", E. F. Lestrade's "Locative-Class Nouns and Prolatives in Setso" (Bantu Studies, March, 1938).

(1) A Morōka, a Letšibō, a BaNgaga, a Keikelane, or other representative of old families in Thaba 'Ntšho.

(2) I have tried faithfully to record my indebtedness to other authors. This has been done chiefly in footnotes at the end of a page.

Southern Sotho: Jacottet's "Practical Method to Learn Sesuto", "A Grammar of the Sesuto Language" (ed. C.M. Doke, Bantu Studies, 1927), B.I.S. van Soden's "Inleiding tot die Studie van Zuid-Sotho".

Northern Sotho: C. Weirhof's "Bantu Phonology" (Chapter IV), T.L.S. Endemann's "Handleiding by die Aanleer van Transvaal-Sotho (SePedi)".

Xhosa: J. McLaren's "A Xhosa Grammar" (revised by G.H. Welsh), N.G. Bennie's "A Grammar of Xhosa for the Xhosa-Speaking".

Zulu: C.M. Doke's "Bantu Linguistic Terminology", "A Text-Book of Zulu Grammar", and "The Phonetics of the Zulu Language".

Other Grammars Consulted.

A.H. Junod's "Elementary Grammar of the Thonga-Shangaan Language", and W. Holman Bentley's "Grammar of the Kongo Language".

(c) Persons Interviewed. Helpful conversations have been held with Mr Gladstone Letele, B.A., lecturer in Sotho at Fort Hare, Mr A.C. Jordan, B.A., Xhosa and Sotho master at the Bantu High School, Kroonstad, Mr D.F. Molôto, B.A., author of the first Tswana novel, "Mokwena", and Mr S.G. Sagô, B.A., a HoRolong from Mafikeng.

Arrangement of Material.

Accidence and Syntax. For the sake of completeness, the facts of accidence and of syntax have been treated of in one continuous narrative. To illustrate: After discussing the formation of the applied stem of the verb, we naturally pass on to the use of this stem with two objects. Questions of tense-sequence are discussed and examples of them given in relevant contexts, e.g. the use of the subjunctive mood in an imperative manner is noticed under the uses of the subjunctive mood, and not in a separate chapter on the syntax of the Predicative.

Simple and Compound Tenses. In dealing with tenses of the various verbs we treat of simple and compound tenses in separate chapters. Here and there, however, we have found it advisable, for the sake of completeness, to deal with a compound tense in a chapter devoted to simple tenses. This will be found to be the case, for instance, in chapter IV on the tenses of the negative conjugation. In a tense of the positive conjugation it will be found that there are often two corresponding tenses in the negative conjugation, one a simple tense and the other a compound tense.

List of Abbreviations.

The following abbreviations have been made in footnotes:

Woolley and Brown's "Seecana Grammar" is abbreviated as "Seecana Grammar", Crisp's "Notes towards a Seecana Grammar" as "Seecana Grammar", Jacottet's "Practical Method to Learn Sesuto", his "Grammar of the Sesuto Language" as "Sesuto Grammar", E. I. C. van Roden's "Inleiding tot die Studie van Suid-Sotho" as "Suid-Sotho", Doka's "Text-book of Zulu Grammar" as "Zulu Grammar", Dennis's "A Grammar of Xhosa for the Kaffir-Speaking" as "Xhosa Grammar", and Meinhof-van Wierne's "Sante Ekonomie" as "Sante Ekonomie".

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THE PREDICATIVE IN TSWANA.CHAPTER I.

1. Definition: "A Predicative is a word which signifies an action connected with a substantive or the state in which a substantive is."<sup>(1)</sup>  
Under this fundamental part of speech are included the Verb and the Copulative.

THE VERB.

2. Definition: "A Verb is a word which signifies an action connected with a substantive or the state in which a substantive is, and is brought into concordial agreement therewith (except when used imperatively) by the subjectival verb concord."<sup>(2)</sup>

3. The Varieties of the Verb.

Taking into account the number of syllables in the stem, and the consideration whether the stem is primitive or derived, verbs in Tswana may be divided into (1) Primitive Verbs and (2) Derived Verbs.

4. Primitive Verbs: Primitive verbs usually (a) have a disyllabic stem, (b) begin with a consonant sound and (c) end in the vowel -a.

Examples: bala(read), rata(love), lôpa(ask), sala(remain).

But

(a) There are a number of primitive verbs which have monosyllabic stems e.g. ja(cat), ba(give), na(rain), sa(dawn); (b) there are a few which begin with a vowel sound, e.g. aba(give away), aga(bull), éma(stand), éta(visit), ina(dip), lia(hate), óba(bend), ôpa(strike), utlwa(hear), utšwa(steal); and (c) there are those that end in other vowels other than -a.<sup>(3)</sup>

(1) See "Zulu Grammar" p. 34.

(2) Ibid. p. 119. In Tswana this definition of the verb is unsatisfactory since it allows of the inclusion of copulatives formed from nouns, pronouns, adjectives, relatives and adverbs by pre-posing the subjectival verb concord to them. (3) These are called defective verbs.

e.g. itse(know), lara(bring), re(say), hole(deficient verb meaning "long ago" <sup>(1)</sup>), etc.

### 5. Derived Verb Stems:

Excluding those that are formed from primitive monosyllabic verb stems, derived verb stems have, generally speaking <sup>(2)</sup>, more than two syllables. Derived verbs may be of three kinds:

- (a) those that are derived from primitive verb stems.
- (b) those that are derived from stems of nouns and adjectives.
- (c) those that are derived from ideophones.

### The Structure of the Verb.

6. The Tswana verb has two component parts: (a) the verbal concords and (b) the verb stem.

### The Verbal Concords.

7. There are two types of verbal concords in Tswana: (a) the subjectival verbal concords and (b) the objectival verbal concords.

### 8. The Subjectival Verbal Concords.

The subjectival verbal concords derive their name from the fact that they are the link between the verb stem and the substantive that is the subject of the sentence. A verb stem can never be used, except in the imperative mood, without this concord. In form (except in those classes of nouns in which the prefix begins with a nasal consonant) the subjectival verb concord resembles the prefix of the noun that is subject of the sentence.

(1) See para. 371 below.

(2) The passive stem formed with suffix -wa is an exception. See para. 38 below.

9. Table of the Subjectival Verb Concordis.

|             | Singular | Plural.          |
|-------------|----------|------------------|
| I.          | ko       | re               |
| II.         | o        | Lo               |
| III. Cl. I. | o        | ba               |
| 2.          | o        | e                |
| 3.          | le       | a                |
| 4.          | se       | di               |
| 5.          | e        | di               |
| 6.          | lo       | di               |
| 7.          | bo       | a <sup>(1)</sup> |
| 8.          | go       | a <sup>(1)</sup> |

10. In the past tense the above concordis are compounded with the past tense auxiliary, a, and give us the following forms:

|             | Singular  | Plural.          |
|-------------|-----------|------------------|
| I.          | ka        | ra               |
| II.         | wa        | Lwa              |
| III. Cl. I. | a         | ba               |
| 2.          | wa        | ya               |
| 3.          | la        | a                |
| 4.          | sa        | tse              |
| 5.          | ya        | tse              |
| 6.          | lwa       | tse              |
| 7.          | jwa or ja | a <sup>(1)</sup> |
| 8.          | gwa or ga | a <sup>(1)</sup> |

11. The Phonology of the Past Tense Subjectival Concordis.

(1) The past tense subjectival verb concordis of class 7 singular is jwa or ja (some speakers use the one form and others the other) and not ba as we should expect. The reason for this change of sound is that in

(1) Not all nouns of this class have a plural prefix.



Tšwana the bilabial/velar semi-vowel, w, may not succeed a bilabial consonant. Should that become morphologically necessary, then one of two things may happen: (a) the semi-vowel is dropped or (b) the preceding bilabial consonant gives place to a pre-palatal sound as is the case above.

(2) The form of the past tense of the subjectival verb concord in classes 4, 5 and 6 plural is tsa and not dia as we should expect. It often happens in Tšwana that d before the high front vowel, i, becomes palatalized into ts, e.g. in the formation of diminutive stems of nouns pedi(goat) = potsane(kid).

12. In the subjunctive, participial, potential and habitual moods of the positive conjugation, as well as in the whole of the negative conjugation, the subjectival verb concord of the third person class I singular is a not o as in the indicative mood positive conjugation.

#### The Objectival Verb Concorde.

13. The objectival verb concord derives its name from the fact that it shows concordial agreement with the substantive that is or should be the object of the sentence. We have said above that the subjectival verb concord cannot (except in the imperative mood) be left out of a Tšwana sentence. The objectival verb concord, on the other hand, is not expressed (except for the sake of emphasis) when the substantival object is expressed. In word-order the objectival verb concord must always come immediately before the verb stem. No verbal auxiliary may come between it and the verb stem.

14. Table of the Objectival Verb Concorde.

|             | Singular | Plural. |
|-------------|----------|---------|
| I.          | (N-)     | re      |
| II.         | Go       | Lo      |
| III. Cl. I. | no, E-   | ba      |
|             | 2. o     | e       |
|             | 3. le    | a       |
|             | 4. se    | di      |
|             | 5. e     | di      |

|      | Singular | Plural |
|------|----------|--------|
| Cl.6 | lo       | di     |
| 7    | bo       | a      |
| 8    | go       | a      |

15. It will be observed from the above table that the forms of the objectival concords are the same as those of the subjectival verb concords (present tense) except in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd (class I) persons singular.

The Objectival Verb Concord First Person Singular.

16. Of special interest is the objectival verb concord first person singular, (N-)<sup>(1)</sup>, since it brings about changes of initial phones of verb stems to which it is prefixed. This type of sound mutation is traditionally known as initial strengthening of the verb stem or Nasalization. The changes are as follows:

|                       |                                |                          |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| b = p                 | e.g. bôna(see) = mpôna(see me) |                          |
| d = t                 | dusêla(believe)                | = ntusêla(believe me)    |
| f <sup>(2)</sup> = ph | fota(pass)                     | = mpheta(pass me)        |
| g = kg                | gata(trample)                  | = nkgata(trample on me)  |
| h = kh                | humisa(make rich)              | = nkhumisa(make me rich) |
| j = tš                | jêla(eat for)                  | = ntêêla(eat for me)     |
| r = th                | rata(love)                     | = nthata(love me)        |
| s = tsh               | sega(cut)                      | = ntshega(cut me)        |
| , <sup>(3)</sup> = k  | araba(answer)                  | = nkaraba(answer me).    |

(1)

(N-) signifies that the nasal (i) is homorganic with the succeeding phone and (ii) exerts phonetic influence on succeeding phones.

(2)

f is heard as h among the EsiThaping and the BaRolong(Thaba'Ntsho).

(3)

, represents a vowel sound.

17 From the above table it will be observed that when (N-) is prefixed to verb stems (i)voiced sounds become voiceless;(ii)voiceless fricatives become aspirated explosives or affricates.The latter rule applies to the rolled alveolar consonant,r,in spite of the fact that it is not a fricative sound nor voiceless.

In the case of vowel verbs the voiceless velar explosive,k,appears between the initial vowel and (N-).This fact suggests that vowel verbs originally began with a consonant sound which,in all probability,was the voiced counterpart of k.(1)

The Objectival Verb Concord Third Person(Class I)Singular.

18. When the objectival verb concord third person class I singular, mo,precedes a verb stem beginning with the voiced bilabial explosive, b,the o of mo is dropped off and the bilabial nasal,m,changes the juxtaposed b into another m.This kind of sound change is known as Assimilation.(2)

|                      |                         |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| e.g. mo + bôna(see)  | = mmôna(see him)        |
| mo + batla(seek)     | = mmatla(seek him)      |
| mo + bitsa(call)     | = mmitsa(call him)      |
| mo + lotsa(ask)      | = mmotsa(ask him)       |
| mo + betsa(beat)     | = mmetsa(beat him)      |
| mo + busa(send back) | = mmusa(send him back). |

19. Among some Tswana dialects the vowel of the concord mo is dropped

(1)Heinhof thinks this sound was  $\eta$ .See "Bantu Phonology" p.31 et seq.

(2) See "Bantu Phonology" p.62 para.15.

even before verb stems beginning with the denti-labial/ bilabial fricative f<sup>(I)</sup>; but this change is not as regular as that discussed in the above paragraph.

e.g. mo + feta(pass) = mfeta(pass him) (mhele in Rolong)  
 mo + fa(give) = mfa(give him) (mha " " )  
 mo + fonya(defeat) = mfonya(defeat him)(mhenya " " ).

#### The Verb Stem.

20. The verb stem consists of the verb less the verb concords and any verbal auxiliaries that may be used in the formation of tenses. We have said above that most primitive verbs have stems consisting of two syllables only and ending in the vowel -a. When the verb stem undergoes inflexion, the final vowel may give place to other vowels or to some derivative suffix. When the final vowel of a primitive verb stem is dropped off, what remains is the root of the verb. Generally speaking, the root of the verb is immutable. Suffixes may change, but the root remains unchanged.

| (Stem)              | (Root) |
|---------------------|--------|
| rata(love)          | rat-   |
| rat-êlu(love for)   | rat-   |
| rat-ôga(be lovable) | rat-   |

21. But this point of the immutability of the root of a verb must not be carried too far. There are to be found phonetic influences which may

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(I)

Among the BaNgwato f is pronounced as a bilabial fricative, while among the BaKgatla it is heard as a denti-labial fricative. For this information I am indebted to students from Serowe(BaNgwato) and Motshodi(BaKgatla).

result in the change of the root of a verb. Such is the case, for instance, when the passive, reflexive and perfect stems of the verb are formed.

Inflection of the Verb Stem.

22. The primitive verb stem may be inflected in the following ways:

- (a) to form the negative stem,
- (b) to form the present tense of the subjunctive mood,
- (c) to form the present tense of the habitual mood,
- (d) to form verbal derivatives,
- (e) to form the perfect stem of the verb.

The Perfect Stem.

23. The following are the chief rules governing the formation of the perfect stem of the verb in Tswana:

Rule 1: The general rule in forming the perfect stem of the verb is to suffix -ile in the place of the final vowel of the verb stem.

|                 |           |
|-----------------|-----------|
| e.g. rata(love) | = ratile  |
| batla(seek)     | = batlile |
| sama(pillow)    | = samile  |

24. Rule 2: Polysyllabic verb stems ending in -ya substitute -ile for -ya.

|                    |               |
|--------------------|---------------|
| e.g. bolaya(kill)  | = bolatile    |
| tsamaya(walk, go)  | = tsamatile   |
| ikwatlhaya(ropent) | = ikwatlhaile |

25. Rule 3: Dissyllabic verb stems ending in -ya not only drop off -ya before suffixing -ile, but the vowel of the first syllable of the stem, if open, becomes mid-open.<sup>{1}</sup>

|                 |         |
|-----------------|---------|
| e.g. naya(give) | = neile |
| raya(tell)      | = reile |
| baya(put)       | = beile |
| lôya(beat)      | = leile |

{1} This change is an example of vowel assimilation.

tlhōya(hate) = tlhoile.

N.B. But there are a few polysyllabic verb stems which fall under Rule 3 above.

e.g. apaya(cook) = apeile(not apaile).

tlhatlhaya(put pot on fire)= tlhatlheile(not tlhatlhaille).

Conversely, there are a few disyllabic verb stems which form their perfect stem according to Rule 2 above.

e.g. lays(admonish) = lailo(not leile)

tāhwaya(mark) = tāhwaile(not tāhwelle).

26. Rule 4: Most verbs which end in -ara (and are generally contactive in force) change each case of -a into -e. (2)

e.g. apara(put on clothes) = apere<sup>(1)</sup>

tāhwara(catch) = tāhwere

hupara(hold inside hand) = hupere

sikara(carry on back) = sikere

This rule applies also to the contactive verbs rwala(put on) and tāwala(put on clothes), i.e. their perfect stems are rwele and tāwele respectively.

But there are several verbs which end in -ara which form their perfect stem according to Rule 1. above.

e.g. nanara(walk stealthily) = nanarile (not nanere)

sara-sara(drizzle) = sara-sarile (not sara-sere).

(1)

The probable evolution of this form has been as follows: apere < apaire < aparile. Similarly with other forms of this type.

(2) The penultimate e is mid-open while the final e is close.

27. Rule 5: Verb stems with more than one syllable and which end in -na usually end in -nne in the perfect.

|                   |                        |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| e.g. gana(refuse) | = ganne <sup>(1)</sup> |
| tlhatuna(chose)   | = tlhatunne            |
| lina(dance)       | = lanne.               |

N.B. nna(sit), with perfect nntse, does not fall under this rule.

28. Rule 6: Most verbs ending in -ana(most of which are reciprocal in force) form their perfect stem by replacing final -a by -e(close e).

|                      |                           |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| e.g. tlhabana(fight) | = tlhabane <sup>(2)</sup> |
| rakana(encounter)    | = rakane                  |
| tlhakana(mix)        | = tlhakane                |

N.B. (1) The verb stem bona(see) falls under this rule.

(2) Among some Tswana dialects n is replaced by ny when -e is suffixed. This change is an instance of palatalization. e.g. tlhabanye.

29. Rule 7: The perfect stem of verbs ending in -nya(generally causative in force) ends in -nntse.

|                              |                               |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| e.g. tlhakanya(cause to mix) | = tlhakannntse <sup>(3)</sup> |
| kôpanya(cause to join)       | = kôpanntse                   |
| thunya(blossom)              | = thunnntse.                  |

30. Rule 8: Verb stems ending in -ala and -ela substitute -etse in the perfect.

|                     |                          |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| e.g. lala(lie down) | = letse                  |
| sala(remain)        | = setse                  |
| rôbala(steal)       | = robetse <sup>(4)</sup> |

(1) The probable evolution has been ganne < ganne < ganile.

(2) tlhabane < tlhaban(1)e.

(3) tlhakannntse < tlhakannntse < tlhakannilye < tlhakannile. Cf. "Fantu Phonology", p. 78.

(4) The suffixing of -etse has changed the open vowel of the first syllable into the mid-open variety.

II.

|                      |              |
|----------------------|--------------|
| dídimala (be quiet)  | = dídimetse. |
| rapêla (rapetse)     | = rapetse.   |
| ifêla (be heavy for) | = imetse.    |

N.B. bala (road, count) forms its perfect stem according to the general rule above. Its perfect stem is badile (1).

31. Rule 9: Verb stems ending in -ola, -ula or -ila change the final -la into -taê in the perfect.

|                       |                         |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| e.g. obola (peel)     | = obotsê <sup>(2)</sup> |
| gopola (remember)     | = gopotaê               |
| hula (open)           | = hutaê                 |
| rumula (annoy, tease) | = rumutaê               |
| sidila (massage)      | = siditaê               |
| hubila (become red)   | = hubitaê               |

N.B. Verbs ending in -ôla do not, strictly speaking, fall under this rule since they change final -la into -tse (with close e).

|                             |                  |
|-----------------------------|------------------|
| e.g. tihôla (spend the day) | = tihotse (3)    |
| gôthôla (cough)             | = gotihotse (3). |

Quite a few verbs ending in -ôla follow the general rule.

|                 |                |
|-----------------|----------------|
| e.g. bôla (rot) | = bodile (4)   |
| tihôla (peep)   | = tihodile (4) |

32. Rule 10: Verb stems ending in -ma (most of these are stative in force) substitute -e<sup>(5)</sup> for final -a.

|                  |                      |
|------------------|----------------------|
| e.g. êma (stand) | = eme <sup>(6)</sup> |
| ôbama (bend)     | = ôbame              |
| sekama (recline) | = sekame.            |

(1) l and d in Tswana belong to the same phoneme....d taking the place of l before i and u.

(2)

This form may have evolved as follows: obotsê < obodie < obodile

For d = ts, see note (2) p.4 above.

(3) Note the change in vowel quality when -tse is suffixed.

(4)

See footnotes (1) and (3) above.

(5)

close e.

(6)

This form has evolved as follows: eme < emne < emine < emile. See "Bantu Phonology" p.78.



12.

33. Rule 11: Verb stems whose final syllable has an a-sound, i.e. verb stems ending in -aa, -taa, -tāwa and -tsha (many of which are causative in force) suffix -itse in the place of the final -a of the stem.

|                  |                              |
|------------------|------------------------------|
| e.g. besa(roast) | = besitse                    |
| botsa(ask)       | = boditse <sup>(1)</sup>     |
| tihatāwa(wash)   | = tihatāwiteo <sup>(2)</sup> |
| bontsha(show)    | = bontabitse. <sup>(3)</sup> |

34. Rule 12: According to the form of their perfect suffix, monosyllabic verb stems may be divided into four categories:

(a) those that take the regular perfect suffix -ile

|                   |        |
|-------------------|--------|
| e.g. ha(give)     | = hile |
| ga(draw a liquid) | = gile |
| ya(go)            | = ile  |

(b) those that end in -elê

|              |                       |
|--------------|-----------------------|
| e.g. ja(eat) | = jelê <sup>(4)</sup> |
| sa(dawn)     | = selê                |

(c) those that end in -olê

|                 |        |
|-----------------|--------|
| e.g. nwa(drink) | = nolê |
| wa(fall)        | = olê  |

(d) those that end in -ule<sup>(5)</sup>

|                     |                       |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| e.g. tāwa(come out) | = dule <sup>(6)</sup> |
| šwa(die)            | = šule.               |

(1)

The fact that ts = d when -itse is suffixed suggests that ts is derived from an earlier l, e.g. lela(cry) has causative letaa the perfect stem of which is leaitse.

(2)

tihatāwa(wash something) is the passive stem of tihapa(wash oneself). For tā < p see para. 41 below.

(3)

bontsha is probably from earlier bonisa; after i had been elided, n+š=ntsh. cf. para. 16 p. 5 above.

(4)

jelê is probably the result of coalescence of n+ i (jjoile)

(5) It is probable that the strong back labialization of the initial consonant of the stem is responsible for the i of -ile becoming u of -ule.

(6) š is the palatalized form of d before the back vowel u.

N.B. There are a few verbs with more than one syllable which end in -ula.

e.g. butáwa (be ripe, be cooked) = budule

anya (suckle) = amule.

#### Miscellaneous Perfect Stems.

35: There are a few perfect stems which cannot be accounted for under any of the above rules. The following are examples of some of these:

kgora (be sat) = kgotsha (1)

bátâga (carry on back) = belega. (2)

#### Verbal Derivatives.

36. Different shades of meaning of the same simple verb stem may be obtained by merely changing the ending of that verb. These verbal derivatives constitute one of the most outstanding features of Bantu languages. Each of the derived forms of the verb undergoes conjugational inflexion as any primitive verb does.

According to the force of their suffix, the verbal derivatives are named as follows: (1) The Passive, (2) The Neuter, (3) The Applied, (4) the Causative, (5) the Reciprocal, (6) the Intensive, (7) the Extensive, (8) the Reversive, (9) the Perfective, (10) the Stative, (11) the Augmentative, (12) the Diminutive, (13) the Contactive and (14) the Dispersive.

#### The Passive

37. The passive form of the verb signifies that an action is performed, or a state is occurring, of which the substantival subject is the "sufferer". The agent of the action, if expressed, is in the form of a copulative.

#### Rules governing the formation of the Passive Stem.

38. Rule 1: The general rule for the formation of the passive stem of  
(1) The -il- of -ile has been elided, but only after it had palatalized r into tsh.

(2) -il- has been elided.

the verb in Tāwana is to suffix -wa in the place of the final -a of the stem.

|                  |          |
|------------------|----------|
| e.g. batla(seek) | = batlwa |
| rata(love)       | = ratwa  |
| sala(remain)     | = salwa. |

11.B. By most speakers, especially among the younger generations of Tāwana speakers, the suffixes -wa and -iwa are used interchangeably. Thus the above examples are often heard as batliwa, ratiwa, sadiwa.

39. Rule 2: Most polysyllabic verbs ending in -ya substitute -iwa for final -ya.

|                        |                      |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| e.g. tsamaya(walk, go) | = tsamaiwa           |
| bolaya(kill)           | = bolaiwa(or bolawa) |
| ōtlhaya(punish)        | = ōtlhaiwa           |

11.B. Several dissyllabic verbs also come under this rule.

|                     |            |
|---------------------|------------|
| e.g. laya(admonish) | = laiwa    |
| kaya(point)         | = kaiwa    |
| tāhwaya(mark)       | = tāhwaiwa |

40. Rule 3: Most dissyllabic verb stems ending in -ya suffix -ōwa in the place of -ya.

|                  |                       |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| e.g. baya(place) | = bōwa <sup>(1)</sup> |
| naya(give)       | = nōwa                |
| tsaya(take)      | = tsōwa               |

41. Rule 4: Verb stems the final syllable of whose stem contains a bilabial consonant replace the bilabial consonant by a pre-palatal consonant when -wa is suffixed. <sup>(2)</sup>

(1)

This form is obviously the result of coalescence e.g. baya+iwa. The semi-vowel is elided and a+iwē.

(2)

For explanation of this kind of change see note(1) p.4 above.

|                       |                  |             |
|-----------------------|------------------|-------------|
| e.g. b = j            | rôba(break)      | = rôjwa     |
|                       | ôba(bend)        | = ôjwa      |
|                       | kaba(soal)       | = kajwa     |
| p = tš                | lôpa(ask)        | = lôtšwa    |
|                       | ôpa(strike)      | = ôtšwa     |
| ph=tšh                | tlhôpha(select)  | = tlhôtšhwa |
|                       | hapha(put aside) | = hatšhwa.  |
| m = ng <sup>(1)</sup> | roca(send)       | = rongwa    |
|                       | loma(bite)       | = longwa    |
|                       | awa(touch)       | = angwa.    |

N.B. The suffix -iwa does not bring about any phonetic changes of the final consonant of the stem to which it is suffixed. e.g. rôbiwa, lomwa, lopwa, etc.

42. In Tšwana, unlike in Zulu and Xhosa, palatalization does not occur when the bilabial consonant is not in the final syllable.

e.g. rôbala = rôbalwa (not rôjalwa)

lôpšla(ask for) = lôpšlwa (not lôtššlwa).

43. Rule 5: When the final syllable of the verb stem is -nya, the palatal nasal gives place to the syllabic velar nasal, ng, when -wa is suffixed.

e.g. baakanya(prepare) = baakanngwa

tlhakanya(mix) = tlhakanngwa

lekanya(compare) = lekanngwa.

44. Rule 6: When the suffix -iwa is used to form the passive stem of verbs whose last syllable contains the lateral alveolar, l, or the alveolar ejective affricate, ts, both these sounds are replaced by d<sup>(3)</sup>.

(1) This change is an instance of velarization.

(2) See "Zulu Grammar" p.128 para.325.

(3) For explanation of this change see footnote (1) p.11 and footnote(1) p.12.

|                     |                  |
|---------------------|------------------|
| e.g. lala(lie down) | = ladiwa         |
| lela(cry)           | = letsa = lediwa |
| betsa(beat)         | = bediwa         |
| bitsa(call)         | = bidiwa         |

45. Rule 7: According to the form of their passive suffix, monosyllabic verb stems may be of the following types:

(a) those that take -iwa as their passive suffix

|             |         |
|-------------|---------|
| e.g. ya(go) | = iwa   |
| ha(give)    | = hiwa  |
| tla(come)   | = tliwa |

(b) those that take -üwa

|              |                       |
|--------------|-----------------------|
| e.g. ja(eat) | = jewa                |
| sa(äawn)     | = sewa <sup>(1)</sup> |

(c) those that take -owa

|                 |        |
|-----------------|--------|
| e.g. nwa(drink) | = nowa |
| lwa(fight)      | = lowa |
| wa(fall)        | = owa  |

(d) those that take -uwa

|                     |                       |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| e.g. tšwa(come out) | = duwa <sup>(2)</sup> |
| šwa(die)            | = šuwa.               |

46. Rule 8: Other verbal derivatives form their passive forms according to rule 1 above, except the stative in -sa which follows rule 4 above.

|                               |             |
|-------------------------------|-------------|
| e.g. ratana(love one another) | = ratanwa   |
| ratêga(be lovable)            | = ratêgwa   |
| rapana(recline)               | = rapangwa. |

47. Miscellaneous Examples of the use of the Passive Stem:

(1)

This form is seldom, if ever, used in Tšwana. See also footnote (1) p. 14.

(2)

See footnote (5) p. 12 above.

Photlô e ratwa ke batho botlhe (Koncur is desired by all people)

Rrê o bolaiwa ke leru (My father has been killed by a cloud).

Lere lo ôjwa lo sa lo metse (literally: A stick is bent while it is green i.e. strike the iron while it is hot).

Mohlwane o longwa ke ntša (lit.: The boy is being bitten it is a dog.

Bana ba hiwa dijô morago ga bagalo (Children are given food after the old people).

Go duwa kwa motseng<sup>(1)</sup> (lit.: It is being come from the village).

### The Neuter.

48. The Neuter form (sometimes called the Middle or Stative <sup>(2)</sup> form) of the verb signifies an intransitive state or condition without implying any agent or "sufferer" connected with that state or condition. In fact, it may be said to signify a state or condition resulting from subjection to the state of the simple verb. An English verb which translates the Tswana neuter form usually ends in the suffixes -able, -ible. Other neuter forms express the idea of "to become" or "to get."

49. In Tswana there are three suffixes that are used to form the neuter form; these are -êga (by far the most commonly used), -agala (used interchangeably with -êga in a few verbs) and -ala which is used very seldom and is not interchangeable with the other two suffixes.

(a) Examples of the exclusive use of -êga:

|              |           |
|--------------|-----------|
| rata (love)  | = ratêga  |
| halla (seek) | = hatlêga |
| ja (eat)     | = jêga    |

(b) Examples of -êga and -agala used interchangeably:

|                 |                       |
|-----------------|-----------------------|
| dira (do, work) | = dirêga or diragala  |
| šupa (point)    | = šupêga or šupagala. |

(c) Examples of -ala

(1) cf. Latin rogatum est ad Carnas (It was fought at Carnas)

(2) See "German Grammar" p. 86.

bôna(see) = bônala  
 utlwa(hear) utlwagala<sup>(1)</sup> or utlwala.

50. There are a number of verbs ending in -êga and -ala which cannot be traced back to extent simple forms.

e.g. ônala(become worn out)  
 rôhala(sleep)  
 bôlêga(carry on the back)

51. Miscellaneous Examples of the use of the Neuter form:

Maitseô a gagwô a a ratêga(His manners are lovable).

Tau e a tshabêga(A lion is terrible).

Go no ga diragala dilô di le dintal<sup>(2)</sup>(There happened many things)

Tsela e a bônala(The road is visible).

Mo dipakeng tse no go batlêga<sup>(2)</sup> batho ba ba rutegileng.(In those times there is a need of educated people).

The Applied.

52. The Applied form has often been called the directive<sup>(3)</sup>, the relative<sup>(4)</sup> or the prepositional<sup>(4)</sup> form of the verb. The terms directive and relative signify that the action or state of the verb in this form is directed or related to a certain object. Wookey has called it the prepositional form because in English the sense of the Tswana applied form is conveyed by a preposition which follows upon the simple verb.

(1)

In other dialects of Tswana (other than Rolong of Taba'Etšho) this form is sometimes heard.

(2)

Used in this way the neuter form is transitive.

(3)

See McClaren's "A Xhosa Grammar" p.110.

(4)

See "Seswana Grammar" p.110.

Rules for the formation of the Applied form of the Verb.

53. Rule 1: The general rule in the formation of the applied form of the verb is to substitute -êla for the final vowel of the verb.

|                |          |
|----------------|----------|
| e.g. rêka(buy) | = rêkêla |
| lala(cry)      | = lelêla |
| bua(speak)     | = buêla. |

54. Rule 2: Verb stems whose final syllable contains an s-sound, i.e. stems ending in -sa, -tsa, -tšwa, -tsha, form their applied by suffixing -etsa in the place of final -a of the verb stem.

|                         |                          |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| e.g. besa(roast)        | = besetsa                |
| boisa(ask)              | = boletsa <sup>(1)</sup> |
| tihatšwa <sup>(2)</sup> | = tihatšwetsa            |
| bontsha                 | = bontshetsa.            |

N.B. Monosyllabic verb stems which have an s-sound fall under rule 1 above. e.g. sa(dawn) = sêla; tšwa(come out) = tšwêla.

55. When the interrogative enclitic -ng ? is suffixed to the applied form, it gives it the force of "why?", "for what reason?"<sup>(3)</sup>

|   |
|---|
| e.g. Ngwana e leiêla'ng ? (Why is the child crying?)          |
| Batho bao ba balaêla'ng ? (Why are those people complaining?) |
| Lo ômanêla'ng ? (For what reason are you quarrelling ?).      |

56. When the applied form is used with the reflexive affix, i, it signifies "by oneself", "of oneself", "on oneself's behalf".<sup>(4)</sup>

|   |
|---|
| e.g. Re itirêla melaô(We make laws for ourselves)                                 |
| Ha a ithapêlêla(They are praying for themselves).                                 |
| Dipodî di iphitšhile mo thabeng(The goats are hiding themselves on the mountain). |

---

(1) See footnote (1) p.12 above.

(2) See footnote (2) p.12, above

(3) See "Suid-Sotho" p.202 para.52C.

(4) Ibid.p.202 para.52I.



57. When used as a possessive derived from a class 3 noun, the applied form may signify "place" or "location"<sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. nolo ya go tšhapêla(a washing house)

Keilô ga go rapêla(a place of worship).

58. When followed by an adverb, the applied form has the force of "motion towards" a place.

e.g. Re boêla kwa gas(We are returning home).

Ea tšumaêla kwa thokô(They are walking sideways).

Mankôg, gone a tloêla mo metsing(Frogs are jumping into water)

59. The passive form of the applied (formed by suffixing the passive ending -wa to the applied form) is often used in a very idiomatic way in Tswana.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Moadi yo o êwetšwe ke ngwana(lit.: This woman is died for, it is a child i.e. This woman's child is dead).

Jeso o tšaletšwe kwa Nazareth(lit.: Jesus was born for at Nazareth).

Ke latlbegetšwe ke thipa(lit.: I am lost for, it is a knife i.e. My knife is lost).

60. There are to be found a number of verbs ending in -êla but which cannot be traced back to extant simple forms. That the applied force of these verbs is completely forgotten is borne out by the fact that they often take another applied suffix to make them applied in force.

e.g. rapêla(pray) = rapêlêla

štaêla(be drowsy) = štaêlêla

itumêla(be glad) = itumêlêla.

(1) Nouns signifying "place" are commonly derived from the applied form by prefixing bo-(class 7 singular prefix) e.g. vêkêla = borêkêlê (a market place).

(2) Cf. "Suid-Setso" p.203 para.524.

61. The Applied Form with Two Objects.

When used transitively, the applied form frequently has two objects: the first is the object of the applied idea and the second is the object of the simple form. In word-order the object of the applied form takes precedence over the object of the simple form of the verb. (1)

e.g. Ke rōkēla ngwana kobō(lit.: I buy a blanket for the child).

Ba rokēla mmō mosese(lit.: They sew for my mother a dress).

Lo tlahabetse kgaitseadi'a lona nku(lit.: You have slaughtered for your sister a sheep).

62. We have said above that the object of the applied form (the direct object) takes precedence over the object of the simple stem (the indirect object) in word-order. If, however, the two objects are represented by objectival verb concords, then this precedence is not observed. Thus Ke a mo e rōkēla and Ke a e mo rōkēla (I buy it for him) are both heard.

63. Miscellaneous Examples of the use of the Applied Form:

Nna ko ithutōla bongaka (I am learning to be a doctor).

Lo didimalōla'ng ha ke Lo buisa ? (Why do you keep silent when I am talking to you ?)

Mmō mogolo o tlahōla bana dinaane (My grandmother tells the children fables).

Motse wa rona o wetōwe ke sekgwaripane (Our village has been befallen by an epidemic of small-pox.)

Radisa ba tlaa Go kaōla teela (The shepherds will show you the way).

Re itumōlōla go Lo bōna (We are glad to see you).

---

(1)

See "Suid-Sotho" p. 201 para. 518.

The Reciprocal

64. This form signifies that an action is performed, or a state is entered upon, by two mutual actors....hence reciprocal forms are commonly used with plural subjects and plural concords.

The reciprocal form is derived from the simple form by suffixing -ana in the place of the final vowel of the verb stem.

|                 |            |
|-----------------|------------|
| e.g. rata(love) | = ratana   |
| thusa(help)     | = thusana  |
| tlhōa(hate)     | = tlhōana  |
| utlwa(hear)     | = utlwana. |

65. Some reciprocal forms carry a meaning slightly different from that of reciprocity of action; they signify "together" rather than "one another".

|                            |
|----------------------------|
| e.g. tlhāana(mix together) |
| kōpana(come together)      |
| kgatlhana(meet together)   |

66. Then there are to be found a few verbs which, though reciprocal in form as well as in function, cannot be associated with any simple extant forms. (1)

|                       |
|-----------------------|
| e.g. lekana(be equal) |
| tāhwana(resemble)     |
| ōwana(quarrel)        |

67. There are several verbs ending in -agana which are intransitive or nouter in force and which carry the idea of association. (2)

(1) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p.135 para.344.

(2) Doke says that in Lamba there is an Associative suffix -ankana or -akana still in use. See "Zulu Grammar" p.135 para.343.

|                |                                 |
|----------------|---------------------------------|
| e.g. roka(sew) | = rokagana(be sewn together)    |
| bōha(bind)     | = bōhagana(be entwined)         |
| gola(grow)     | = golagana(be linked together). |

68. It has been said in paragraph 64 above that reciprocal forms are commonly used with plural subjects and concords. It is possible, however, to use a singular subject and a singular concord with the reciprocal form, provided the other mutual actor is expressed in the form of an adverb to which is pre-placed the conjunctive formative *le*.<sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. *le lekana le wōna* (I am equal to you).

*Norwaké o ratana le morvadiō* (lit.: My son loves together with your daughter, i.e. My son is in love with your daughter).

69. Miscellaneous Examples of the use of the Reciprocal Form:

*Mabōgō a a tihapisaana*<sup>(2)</sup> (Hands wash one another)

*Batho ba tšhwanetse go thusana* (People ought to help one another).

*Mahatlha a a tšhwana* (Twins resemble one another).

*Moraho o tšhwanetse ya ithuta go agisanya*<sup>(3)</sup> *ka kagiōō* (Nations must learn to live together in peace).

*Mo ntsweng go a bolaana*<sup>(4)</sup> (In war there is mutual killing)

The Causative.

70. The Causative form of the verb expresses the idea of "to make do", "to cause to do". It may also mean "to help do", "to enable to do".

(1) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p.136 para.345.

(2) The reciprocal form is derived from the causative form by suffixing *-ana* in the place of the final *-a* of the causative form.

(3) See para. 75 below.

(4) The passive form of the reciprocal is formed according to rule I p.13 para.38 above.

Rules for the formation of the Causative Stem:

71. Rule 1: The general rule for the formation of the causative stem of the verb is to suffix <sup>(1)</sup>-isa in the place of the final vowel of the verb stem.

|                  |                           |
|------------------|---------------------------|
| e.g. batla(seek) | = batlisa                 |
| rata(love)       | = ratisa                  |
| utlwa(hear)      | = utlwisa.                |
| rōka(buy)        | = rekisa <sup>(2)</sup>   |
| tlhōka(lack)     | = tlhokisa <sup>(2)</sup> |
| bala(read)       | = badisa <sup>(3)</sup>   |

72. Rule 2: Polysyllabic verb stems ending in -ya drop off -ya before suffixing -isa.

|                    |                |
|--------------------|----------------|
| e.g. bolaya(kill)  | = bolaisa      |
| tsamaya(go, walk)  | = tsamaisa     |
| ikwatlhaya(repent) | = ikwatlhaisa. |

N.B. The verb stems apaya(cook) and tlhatlhaya(put pot on fire) have causatives apaisa and tlhatlhaisa respectively, that is, they fall under Rule 3 below (cf. N.B. p.9 above).

73. Rule 3: Dissyllabic verb stems ending in -ya drop -ya when -isa is suffixed; and if the vowel of the preceding syllable is an open vowel, it becomes mid-open.

|                   |           |
|-------------------|-----------|
| e.g. tlhōya(hate) | = tlhoisa |
| thaya(found)      | = theisa  |
| baya(put)         | = beisa   |
| lōya(bewitch)     | = loisa.  |

(1)

In his "Bantu Phonology" p.77 para.b, Meinhof gives -ya as the original Bantu causative suffix.....-isa being a later derivative of -eja + -ya.

(2)

Note the change in vowel quality when -isa is suffixed. See p.8 footnote (1) above.

(3)

See footnotes(1) p.II above.

74. Rule 4: Dissyllabic verb stems ending in -na suffix -isa but drop the l of -isa, and n + -sa = ntsha. <sup>(1)</sup>

|                |                          |
|----------------|--------------------------|
| e.g. bōna(see) | = bontsha <sup>(2)</sup> |
| nōna(be fat)   | = nontsha <sup>(2)</sup> |
| bina(dance)    | = bintsha.               |

N.B. tsōna(enter), though dissyllabic, forms its causative stem according to Rule 5 below.

75. Rule 5: Polysyllabic verb stems ending in -ana (most of these stems are reciprocal in force) form their causative stem by suffixing -nya in the place of the final -na of the stem. <sup>(3)</sup>

|                   |                         |
|-------------------|-------------------------|
| e.g. kōpana(meet) | = kōpanya               |
| kumpana(wrestle)  | = kampanya              |
| tealana(befriend) | = tealanya              |
| tsōna(enter)      | = tsenya <sup>(2)</sup> |

76. Rule 6: A number of verb stems ending in -la form their causative stem by changing l to ts. <sup>(4)</sup>

|                     |                           |
|---------------------|---------------------------|
| e.g. lala(lie down) | = latsa                   |
| atawōla(come near)  | = alawetsa <sup>(2)</sup> |
| gakgamala(wonder)   | = gakgamtsa               |
| utlwala(be audible) | = utlwatsa                |

77. But there are many verbs ending in -la which fall under the general rule above.

|                        |                           |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| e.g. bala(read, count) | = badisa <sup>(4)</sup>   |
| tshela(live)           | = tshedisa <sup>(4)</sup> |
| nyala(marry)           | = nyadisa. <sup>(4)</sup> |

(1) See footnote (3) p.12 above.

(2) Note the change in vowel quality. Cf. footnote (1) p.8 above.

(3) This is an example of the use of the Ur-Bantu causative suffix, -ya. Cf. footnote (1) p.24 above.

(4) See footnote (1) p.11 above.

78. Rule 7: Verb stems ending in -oga (many of which are reversive in force or historically so) replace g by s in the causative. <sup>(1)</sup>

|                      |             |
|----------------------|-------------|
| e.g. tloga (go away) | = tlosa     |
| tšoga (wake up)      | = tšosa     |
| hologa (come down)   | = holosa    |
| potologa (go round)  | = potolosa. |

N.š. boya (return) also falls under this rule. Its causative stem is busa <sup>(2)</sup>. The verbs apara (put on clothes) and rwala (put on) have causatives apesa <sup>(3)</sup> and rweša <sup>(4)</sup> respectively. The verb stems butšwa (be cooked, be ripe) and anya (suckle) have causatives budusa and anyusa resp. <sup>(5)</sup>

79. Rule 8: According to the form of their causative suffix, monosyllabic verb stems may be of the following types:

(a) those that take the regular causative suffix -isa.

|              |          |
|--------------|----------|
| e.g. ya (go) | = isa    |
| tla (come)   | = tliša  |
| ga (draw)    | = gliša. |

(b) those that take -esa <sup>(6)</sup>

|               |        |
|---------------|--------|
| e.g. ja (eat) | = jesa |
| sa (dawn)     | = sesa |
| na (rain)     | = nesa |

(c) those that take -osa <sup>(7)</sup>

|                |        |
|----------------|--------|
| e.g. wa (fall) | = osa  |
| nwa (drink)    | = nosa |
| lwa (fight)    | = losa |

(1) Cf. "Bantu Phonology" p. 77 para. 6.

(2) evolved as follows: busa < boisa < boya. l is elided but only after it has narrowed the preceding o to u.

(3) evolved as follows: apesa < apalisa < aparisa.

(4) evolved as follows: rweša < rwalisa < rwadisa

(5) Cf. line 1 p. 13 above.

(6) close e

(7) close o

(d) those that take -usa

e.g. tšwa(come out) = dusa<sup>(1)</sup>  
šwa(die) = šusa<sup>(1)</sup>

Causatives taking two Objects.

80. When a causative form is transitive, it may have two objects: the first is the object of the causative form (the direct object), and the second is the object of the basic stem (the indirect object). In word-order the object of the causative stem takes precedence over the other.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Ke sišisa mmê mibêlê (I help my mother grind corn).

Moruti o badisa bana lokwalê (The teacher helps the children read the book).

81. But there are instances when the indirect object is the object of the causative stem and the direct object is the object of the simple stem.<sup>(3)</sup>

e.g. Pula o itelisitse bana moruti (Pula has caused the teacher to beat the children).

Makgwa a latlhisitse Batšwana mekgwa ya bôna (The Europeans have caused the Batšwana to lose their customs).

82. There are to be found in Tšwana a number of verb stems with a causative stem but which are not connected with any extant simple stems. Their force may or may not signify causation.

e.g. dīaa (herd or shepherd).

baakanya (prepare)

lotlhanya (cause to be at enmity).

(1) This form is seldom used in Tšwana.

(2) Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p.208 para.541.

(3) Ibid. para.542.



83. Miscellaneous Examples of the use of the Causative Stem.

- Ke tsamaisa nkgononê tsela(I accompany by brother on his way).  
 Nama e e letšwai e bolaisa lenyôra(Salty meat causes thirst).  
 Re nontsha kolobê ya rona gore re tlê re e tihabê mariga.  
 (We fatten our pig so that we should slaughter it in winter).  
 Go aagô ba ba agidanyang.(Blessed are the peace-makers)  
 Ba tsile go dumedisa rkgadi(They have come to greet my aunt).  
 Lo se ka Lwa tšosa tse di lotsona(Do not wake up the sleeping(dogs).

The Intensive.

84. The Intensive form of the verb signifies intensity of the action or state of the verb. This form of the verb has no distinctive suffix, but is formed by a reduplication of the suffix of the causative, -isa + -isa = isa. Not infrequently, however, the simple causative suffix is used with intensive force as the following examples will show.

|              |                        |
|--------------|------------------------|
| utlwa(hear)  | = utlwisisa            |
| thuga(crush) | = thugisa or thugisisa |
| hudua(utir)  | = huduisa or huduisisa |
| batla(seek)  | = batlisa or batlisisa |

Examples of use:

Ga ke utlwisisa puš ya Gago(I do not understand fully what you say)

Ha Lo batlisisa lokwašô loo Lo tla lo bona(If you look for that book carefully you will find it).

.. Mosetsana ya o setšwerere o tla e thumisa ha a sila.

(A diligent girl usually grinds fine when she grinds)

The Extensive.

85. While the intensive form signifies an action done in detail and over a comparatively small area, the extensive form, on the other hand, signifies an action done and repeated not necessarily in detail, but

on a large scale and perhaps over a wide area, The extensive form is derived from the simple verb stem by suffixing -aka or its reduplicated form, -akaka, to the root of the verb.

|                |                        |
|----------------|------------------------|
| e.g. rēma(how) | = rēmaka or rēmakaka.  |
| lema(plough)   | = lemaka or lemakaka   |
| botsa(ask)     | = botsaka or botsakaka |
| roga(swear at) | = rogaka or rogakaka   |

Examples of use:

Setsēnō se nntse se rēmakaka ditlhare no tahirong.

(The madman is chopping trees extensively in the garden).

Matagwa a rogaka batho(Drunkards swear at people extensively)

Ba na ba mpotsaka dipotšō di le dintsi(They asked me many questions).

The Reversive.

86. The reversive stem of the verb signifies that an action or a state is reversed. Four suffixes are used in the formation of this stem. These are

|             |   |
|-------------|---|
| -ola.....   | the simple transitive reversive suffix,     |
| -oga.....   | the simple intransitive reversive suffix,   |
| -olola..... | the compound transitive reversive suffix,   |
| -ologa..... | the compound intransitive reversive suffix. |

87. Examples of the use of -ola:

ala(spread blankets) = alola(pack up blankets)

There are a number of verb stems which end in -ola but which cannot be connected with any extant simple forms; nor are they always reversive in force.

e.g. bolola(set out)

ogola(to snatch out of fire)

ranola(to unravel)

bogola(to bark).

88.Examples of the use of -oga:

tla(come) = tloga

raga(kick legs i.e.sit) = ragoga(jump up i.e. stand)

gata(trample on) = gatoga

nana(stretch legs) = namoga(bend legs)

There are a number of verb stems which end in -oga but which cannot be traced back to extant simple forms.

e.g. amoga(take away from one's hands)

nanoga(to jump to one's feet,to stand)

phamoga(to be snatched away)

omoga(become warm)

89.Examples with -olola:

thata(roll) = thatolola

pêga(hang) = pagolola

bôha(bind) = boholola

roka(sew) = rokolola

rêka(buy) = rekolola

There are a few verbs which end in -olola but which cannot be associated with any extant simple forms,nor is their reversive force always apparent.

e.g. simolola(begin)

90.Examples of the use of -ologa:

thata(roll) = thatologa.

pêga(hang) = pagologa

bôha(bind) = bohologa)

Here again there are a few forms which have no corresponding simple forms. e.g. simologa(begin).

91. Miscellaneous Examples of the use of the Reversive Form:

Ke tla tloga ke taaraya(I shall soon be going).

Maburu a na a alola Matobelo(The Boers defeated the Matobole).

Aré o nkamogile molamu(My father has taken the kerrie away from me). Thipé o tiholwa ke go pagologa zo pitseng(Thipé cannot dismount from the horse).

Scholola kgetse ya tsiô(Untie the bag of locusts).

Re tla simolola go lema ka mošô(We shall begin to plough to-morrow).

The Perfective.

92. The Perfective verb stem signifies that an action is done not only intensively<sup>(1)</sup> but to a point of completion or perfection.<sup>(2)</sup> The suffix of this form is -êlêla which is a reduplicated form of the applied suffix -êla.

|                 |                          |
|-----------------|--------------------------|
| e.g. aga(build) | = agêlêla                |
| boya(return)    | = boêlêla                |
| êma(stand)      | = êmêlêla                |
| hota(pass)      | = hotêlêla               |
| hitlha(arrive)  | = hitlhêlêla             |
| tšhwara(hold)   | = tšhwarêlêla            |
| utlwa(hear)     | = utlwêlêla              |
| baya(put)       | = bêêlêla <sup>(3)</sup> |

93. Examples of the use of the Perfective Form:

Ke tla ba êmêlêla go hitlhêla ba fumêla(I shall persuade them until they agree).

Motse wa Terôya o no o ageletšwe ka lorakô(The city of Troy was surrounded with a wall).

Ga go opê o ka hitlhêlêlang kwa dingaleding(Nobody can reach to the stars).

(1) Prof. E. I. C. van Seden includes these forms under the intensive stem.  
(2) Perfection is not always apparent. (3) Note change of vowel quality.

The Stative.

94. The Stative form, sometimes known as the positional form<sup>(1)</sup>, signifies position or posture. It is formed by suffixing -ama in the place of the final vowel of the verb stem.

|                |                         |
|----------------|-------------------------|
| e.g. ôba(bend) | = ôbama                 |
| šôka(twist)    | = šokama <sup>(2)</sup> |

Most of the stative forms in -ama have lost their simple forms. The following are a few examples of such:

- rapama(to lie on the side)
- sekama(to lie on the side)
- kanama(to lie on the back)
- pharama<sup>(3)</sup>(to sit on buttocks)
- kotama(to squat on haunches)
- lolama(to be perfectly straight)
- kgonama<sup>(3)</sup>(to bend with head down and buttocks in the air)
- clama(to lie over as hen over eggs)
- inama(to bend down).

95. Examples of use of the Stative Form:

Ha re rapêla re khubama ka mangôlô(when we pray we kneel down).  
 Ó ôiš a ba a ribama ka mpa(He fell and lay on his stomach)  
 Ha motho a rôbala a kaname o tla a lore mašwê(If a person sleeps on his back he usually dreams badly).

šoto a ngwana wa Gago a šokame(The legs of your child are crooked).

Batho ba kwa Thaba'Phatšhwa ga ba a siama(The people of Thaba'Phatšhwa are no good).

(1) Cf. "Secwana Grammar" p.115 para.107.

(2) Note the change in vowel quality when -ama is suffixed.

(3) used in an abusive sense.

The Augmentative.

96. This form, signifying increase in size, is very rare in Tāwana. It has no distinctive suffix, but is formed by suffixing -olola or -olog<sup>(1)</sup> in the place of the final vowel of the verb stem.

e.g. atlhama (open mouth) = atlhamolola, atlhamologa<sup>(2)</sup>  
 ata (increase) = atolola, atologa<sup>(2)</sup>

There are a few verbs with augmentative suffix and force but which are not associated with extant simple forms.

e.g. tsharolola, tsharologa (spread upon e.g. bird's wings).

97. Examples of use of the Augmentative Form:

Atlhamolola kgetae ke tshêlê kabêlê (Open the bag wide that I may pour corn into it).

Jašoha je le mo kobong ya me le anteo lu atologa.

(The tear in my blanket is becoming wider).

Nônyano e tsharolola diphuka tsa yôna ha e hoha.

(A bird spreads its wings when it flies).

The Diminutive.

98. The Diminutive form of the verb, signifying "to do a little", is formed by a reduplication of the verb stem. The rules governing such reduplication are as follows:

99. Rule I: If the verb stem is monosyllabic or dissyllabic, the verb stem is repeated.

e.g. ja (out) = ja-ja  
 nwa (drink) = nwa-nwa  
 bua (speak) = bua-bua  
 utlwa (hear) = utlwa-utlwa.

(1) Cf. para. 56 p. 29 above.

(2) Cf. "Sesuto Grammar" para. 96 p. 83.

100. Rule 2: If the verb stem is poly-syllabic, only the first two syllables of the stem are repeated before the stem.

|                   |                               |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| e.g. taboga(run)  | = tabo-taboga                 |
| tsamaya(walk, go) | = tsama-tsamaya               |
| rekisa(soll)      | = reki-rekisa or rêka-rekisa. |

101. Examples of use of the Diminutive Stem:

Emobodi o nntse a a ja-ja(The patient eats a little)  
 Kokwana ga e se e šwa, e nntao o raga-raga.  
 (The chick is not yet dead, it is kicking feebly).  
 Rôma-rôma dikgonnyana O tlê go besa mololô.  
 (Choça few pieces of wood and come to make fire).

Non-living Verbal Derivatives.

102. There are to be found in Tšwana a few non-living verbal suffixes. They are non-living because, unlike the suffixes we have noticed in the foregoing paragraphs, they can no longer be detached from the stem nor are there any extant simple stems associated with these derivatives. Two such derivatives are the Contactive and the Dispersive.

The Contactive.

103. The Contactive stem of the verb has -ara as its suffix. It signifies contact between two things.

e.g. apara(clothe i.e. make contact between body and clothes).  
 tšhwara(hold i.e. contact your hand with another body).

104. Prof. N.I.C. van Seden includes ruala(put on one or the other part of the body e.g. head, foot, finger, etc.) and tšwala(put on clothes of. apara) under the contactive stems.<sup>(1)</sup>

(1)

See "Suid-Sotho" p.215 para.564. Also para.26 p.9 above.

The Dispersive.

105. The Dispersive suffix, -alala, is non-living. It signifies dispersion or disappearance. (1)

e.g. phatlhalala (disperse)

rakalala (to sit with legs stretched and apart).

Combinations of the Verbal Derivatives.

106. Each of the verbal derivatives noticed in the above paragraphs is a complete finite verb capable of conjugational inflexion as any simple verb stem. Further, each verbal derivative stem may acquire a variety of meanings by taking on the suffixes of two, three, four or more of the other verbal derivatives. It is wise to study these combinations as one hears them from good Tswana speakers or reads them in books. They should by no means be "coined".

107. Miscellaneous Examples of Combinations of Verbal Derivatives:

aga (build),

agisa (help build)

agisana (help one another build)

agisanya (help two people build together i.e. help them make peace)

botsa (ask)

botšišiša (ask intensively)

botšišišana (ask each other intensively)

botšišišanwa (be asking each other intensively).

êna (stand)

êzôla (stand for i.e. wait for)

---

(1)

Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p.142 para.363.



emêlêlana(persuade one another).  
 ga(draw a liquid o.g. water)  
 gêlêla(put liquid into a recepticle)  
 goleledina(help put liquid into recepticle)  
 geleledisana(help one another put liquid into recepticle)  
 senya(spoil)  
 senyetsa(spoil for)  
 senyeletsa(spoil something for someone)  
 taboga(run)  
 tabogaka(run about)  
 tabogakisa(cause to run about)  
 tabogakisana(cause one another to run about)  
 roxa(to sew)<sup>(I)</sup>  
 rokwa(to be sewn)  
 rokêga(able to be sewn)  
 rokêla(sew for)  
 rokêlêla(sew on to)  
 rokisa(help sew)  
 rokisisea(sew thoroughly)  
 rokaka(to sew carelessly)  
 rokofole(pick out thread from garment)  
 roka-roka(sew a little)  
 roka-rokêla(sew a little for)  
 ithokêla(sew for oneself)  
 ithokisa(pretend to be sewing).

---

(I)

The following forms are an attempt to show the various kinds of stems that can be derived from one simple stem.

Verbs derived from Nounal and Adjectival Stems:

ICB. There are a few verbs in Tswana which are derived from noun and adjectival stems by suffixing -ha or -hala to the noun or adjectival stem. Verbs formed in this way are neuter in significance and generally intransitive in use.

## (1) Examples from nouns:

## Suffix -ha:

|                  |                     |
|------------------|---------------------|
| monate(nicety)   | = mاتهa(delight)    |
| boleo(sin)       | = leoha(sin)        |
| bogale(anger)    | = galeha            |
| botlhale(wisdom) | = tlhaleha(be wise) |
| nonohō(ability)  | = nonoha(be able).  |

## Suffix -hala:

|                   |   |
|-------------------|---|
| thata(strength)   | = thatahala(become strong)              |
| bohohu(blindness) | = bohahala(become blind)                |
| bogōlē(lameness)  | = gōlahala <sup>(1)</sup> (become lame) |
| bošula(badness)   | = šulahala(become bad)                  |
| lehilhi(darkness) | = hihala <sup>(2)</sup> (become dark)   |
| molēmō(goodness)  | = lemōhala(become good).                |

## (ii) Examples from adjectival stems:

Only the suffix -hala is used to form verbal stems from adjectival stems.

|                  |  |
|------------------|--|
| -ntsi(many)      | = ntshala(become many)                       |
| -ntlē(beautiful) | = ntlehala <sup>(1)</sup> (become beautiful) |
| -šweu(white)     | = šweuhala(become white)                     |

(1)

Note the change in quality of the final vowel of the stem.

(2)

The full form should be kihihala(from the stem -hili + hala). One of the syllables of the noun stem has been elided.

|               |   |
|---------------|---|
| -ntšho(black) | = ntšhohala(become black)               |
| -leele(long)  | = lelehala <sup>(1)</sup> (become long) |

109. Examples of use:

Ngwana o a thatahala(The child is becoming strong).

Ha letsatsi le phirimilo go a hinala(When the sun has set it becomes dark).

Kalatala a lelahetse(The days have become long).

Ntwa eno e re šulahaletsa botshelō(This war is making life dull for us).

N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that verb stems derived from nouns and adjectives have the same significance as the so-called "inceptive" verbs in Latin e.g. *creasco*(grow), *adolesco*(become old), *aboloeco*(destroy), etc.

Verbs derived from Ideophones.

110. A third variety of derived verbs are those derived from ideophones by means of various suffixes. The following are but a few examples of such verb stems:<sup>(2)</sup>

na! na! (of walking stealthily) = nana(a(walk stealthily).

šū!(of sound made by kettle)= šūna.

ta!(of hitting target with missile)= tanya(hit)

thwa!(of cracking of whip)= thwanya(make cracking noise).

othi!(of sneezing)= othikola(sneeze)

kgiri!(of sudden stopping after running)= kgiritea(stop suddenly)

mena!(of sudden turning back)=menola(transitive)menega(intr.)(turn)

(1)

The suffixing of -hala has had the effect of shortening the vowel of the first syllable of the adjectival stem.

(2)

It is not always easy to say whether a given verb is derived from an ideophone or vice versa.

### III. Examples of use:

O tlo o mpolêlêlô ha ketlele e šuca (You should tell me when the kettle is about to boil).

Maelana o tantsê pholo lonaka (The boy has hit the ox on the horn)

E rile tshêphê e nitiha ha nokeng ya thinya (When the springbok reached the river it turned suddenly).

Ha motho a tšhwerwe ka mhikêla o tla a othimole (When a person is suffering from cold he usually sneezes).

#### The Reflexive Stem.

II2. The Reflexive stem of the verb is formed by prefixing the reflexive affix, *i*, to the stem of a verb. The reflexive affix brings about the same sound changes as are brought about by the objectival verb concord first person singular, <sup>(1)</sup> but, unlike the objectival verb concord, it is invariable in form.

Examples:

|              |                           |
|--------------|---------------------------|
| bôna (see)   | = ipôna (see oneself)     |
| rata (love)  | = love oneself            |
| loma (bite)  | = itoma (bite oneself)    |
| ôua (bend)   | = ikôua (bend oneself)    |
| utlwa (hear) | = ikutlwa (hear oneself). |

II3. In paragraph 56 above the use of the reflexive affix with the applied stem has been noticed.

#### The Perfect Stem of Stative Verbs<sup>(2)</sup>

II4. "Stative verbs are those which may be used to indicate a state already achieved and still persisting." <sup>(3)</sup>

(1) See para. 16 above.

(2) These should really have been noticed in para. 23 et seq. above.

(3) See "Bantu Linguistic Terminology" p. 199.

The perfect stem of stative verbs is used in the formation of present tenses in what is known as the perfect aspect of a present tense. (1)

List of the more common Stative Verbs:

II5. In addition to the stative forms noticed in paragraphs 94 and 108 above, the following are noteworthy:

|                       |                 |
|-----------------------|-----------------|
| rôbala(sleep)         | = robotse       |
| bêlêga(carry on back) | = bolege        |
| rwala(put on)         | = rwele         |
| dula(sit)             | = dutse         |
| didimala(be quiet)    | = didiketse     |
| kgora(see sated)      | = kgotsho       |
| nôra(be fat)          | = nonnê         |
| ôta(be lean)          | = otile         |
| nyôrwa(be thirsty)    | = nyorilwe      |
| leba(look)            | = lebile        |
| nna(sit)              | = notse         |
| leta(wait)            | = letile        |
| lapa(be tired)        | = lapile        |
| eitwa(be cold)        | = eitilwe       |
| têhvara(hold)         | = têhvere       |
| latlhêga(be lost)     | = latlhegile    |
| senya(spoil)          | = senyegile (2) |

II6. The simple stem of these stative verbs is used to signify "entrance into a certain state" (3) as the following examples will show:

Ke a rôbala(I am about-to-sleep), Ke robotse(I am asleep).

Ba a nôra(They are becoming fat), Ba nonnê(They are fat).

Di a lapa(They are getting tired), Di lapile(They are tired).

(1)

See para. 175 below.

(2) *sunntšê*, another perfect form of *nna*, is not stative in force and is used in the formation of immediate past tenses.

(3) Cf. Jacottet's "Practical Method" p. 20.

CHAPTER II.Conjugation of the Verb.

117. In Tswana there are two distinct conjugations of the verb: the Positive conjugation and the Negative conjugation. Most of the tenses of the positive conjugation have corresponding tenses in the negative conjugation; but instances occur when one tense of the negative conjugation will negative two distinct tenses of the positive conjugation.

Each of the two conjugations comprises several moods and some moods have one, two or three implications. Further each mood has a number of tenses and each of these tenses may be divisible into aspects or manners.

Moods.

118. The verb in Tswana may be conjugated under the following moods: the Infinitive, the Imperative, the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Participial, the Potential and the Habitual.

119. The Infinitive mood names the action of the verb. The infinitive is mostly used as a noun of class 8, but there are instances when its use is verbal. It is the verbal nature of the infinitive that we shall consider in this essay.

120. The Imperative mood expresses commands. It differs from the other moods in that it has no concords....the verb stem alone being used. There are forms for the second person singular and plural only. The substantival subject of the imperative...usually an absolute pronoun...is more often than not understood. Prof. Doke thinks that the imperative is syntactically an interjection. (1)

(1) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p. 150 line 1.

121. The Indicative mood is used in making direct assertions and in asking direct questions. (1)

122. The Subjunctive mood. A verb in the subjunctive mood signifies an action or a state which is conceived of as consequent upon another action or state as its result. There are other uses of the subjunctive mood which will be noticed in the next chapter.

123. The Participial mood is used in conjunction with other verbs to signify the situation in which the agent performs the action named by the verb of the main clause. This mood has been wrongly referred to as a participle. (2) Other uses of the participial mood will be noticed in the next chapter.

124. The Potential mood is used to signify ability or permissibility to perform a certain action or to be in a certain state.

125. The Habitual mood signifies that an action is performed, or a state is indulged in, habitually.

#### Implications.

126. There are three implications of the action or state of the verb in Tswana. They are as follows:

(1) The Simple Implication. "The simple implication of the verb indicates an action in no way qualified, in contradistinction to the progressive and exclusive implications." (3)

(ii) The Progressive Implication. The progressive implication signifies that an action or a state indicated by the verb has been going on and is still persisting.

(1)

The subjunctive mood may also be used to ask direct questions. See para. 133 below.

(2)

Cf. "Tswana Grammar" p.104.

(3)

Cf. "Bantu Linguistic Terminology" p.196.

(iii) The Exclusive Implication signifies that an action is performed or a state is occurring which was previously not in performance or in occurrence.

#### Tenses.

127. The Bantu verb has a five-tense system: viz. the Remote Past, the Immediate Past, the Present, the Immediate Future and the Remote Future. This system is found in Tswana with the exception that there is no distinctive form of the immediate future in Tswana..

#### Aspects or Manners.

128. Tenses may further be sub-divided according to the manner in which the action or manner named by the verb by the verb is carried out. There are three such aspects in Tswana:

(i) The Indefinite Manner indicates an action or a state which is in no way qualified in contradistinction to the continuous and perfect manners.

(ii) The Continuous Manner indicates continuity in the action or state named by the verb.

(iii) The Perfect Manner, used exclusively with stative verbs, indicates completion of the state named by the verb.



## CHAPTER III.

Conjugation of the Verb (continued).The Positive Conjugation.The Infinitive Mood.

129. In Tswana the infinitive is formed by pre-placing the prefix go<sup>(1)</sup> to the verb stem.

e.g. go rata(to love)

go bitsana(to call one another)

go itbuta(to teach oneself).

Uses of the Infinitive.

130. Apart from its uses as a verbal noun of class 8, the infinitive in Tswana may be used in the following ways:

(i) As a complementary verb after certain deficient or deficiently used verbs.

e.g. Ke rata go rōbala(I want to sleep)

Ke tshwanetse go rapela ka metlha(We ought to pray always).

(ii) To express purpose.

e.g. Ba tsile go Lo bōna(They have come to see you).

Ke jela go tshela, ga ke tshelile go ja(I eat to live, I do not live to eat).

(iii) To form future tenses with the verbal auxiliary tla.

e.g. Ba tsile go tla (go) Lo bōna(They have come to see you).

131. When used with the infinitive, objectival verb concords must be placed between the prefix go and the verb stem.

e.g. go mo itee(to know him)

go di gana(to milk them).

(1) Note that the infinitive prefix is not joined to the stem.

The Imperative Mood.

132. As already stated above, the imperative has no concords. The verb stem is used as the singular form of the imperative, and the plural is formed by suffixing -ng to the singular form.

|      |                    |            |
|------|--------------------|------------|
| e.g. | Singular.          | Plural     |
|      | rata(love)!        | ratang!    |
|      | tsamaya(go, walk)! | tsamayang! |
|      | bôna(see)!         | bônang !   |
|      | lere(bring)!       | lereng !   |

133. If the objectival concord is used, it must come immediately before the verb stem; the final -a of the verb stem is replaced by the open -ê of the subjunctive mood. In the plural, however, the open -ê is narrowed to the mid-open variety as a result of the influence of the suffix -ng.<sup>(1)</sup>

|      |                      |            |
|------|----------------------|------------|
|      | Singular             | Plural.    |
| e.g. | mo ratê(love him)    | mo ratong  |
|      | e batlê(look for it) | e batleng  |
|      | se segê(cut it)      | se segeng. |

134. According to the rules of Tswana syntax, two or more imperatives cannot follow one another. Should that be syntactically necessary, then the second and other imperatives are expressed by the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Taboga O ê kwa tlung O nteretse hutshe ya me.

(Run, go to the house and bring me my hat).

Éma O tsamaê(Stand and go).

135. The use of the subjunctive mood in an imperative manner is discussed in paragraph 139 below.

(1)

The Tswana locative suffix -ng is the equivalent of the Nguni -ni. It is probable that the l of this historical suffix (latent in the Tswana -ng) is responsible for -ê becoming -e.

The Indicative Mood.

136. In the indicative mood all three implications are represented; this is also true of the aspects or manners. In this chapter we shall give forms of the simple implication only. The progressive and exclusive implications are treated of in chapter IX below.

The Present Tenses.

137. (1) The Indefinite Manner. This tense is formed by the verb stem preceded by the subjectival verb concord. Full forms of this tense are given below, but in subsequent tenses only the first, second and third person (class I) singular and plural forms will be given the rest of the forms being easily deducible.

|             | Singular        | Plural.   |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------|
| I.          | ke rēka (I buy) | re rēka   |
| II.         | o rēka          | lo rēka   |
| III. Cl. I. | o rēka          | ba rēka   |
|             | 2. o rēka       | e rēka    |
|             | 3. le rēka      | a rēka    |
|             | 4. ce rēka      | di rēka   |
|             | 5. e rēka       | di rēka   |
|             | 6. lo rēka      | di rēka   |
|             | 7. bo rēka      | (a rēka)  |
|             | 8. go rēka      | (a rēka). |

(2) The Continuous or Definite Manner.

138. This tense, frequently referred to as the long form of the present tense indicative, <sup>(1)</sup> is formed by placing the auxiliary formative, a, <sup>(2)</sup>

(1)

Cf. "Seckana Grammar" p. 52 and "Suid-Sotho" p. 91 para. 234.

(2)

Prof. van Zoden believes this a to be a shortened form of the monosyllabic verb stem ya. Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p. 91 para. 234.

between the subjectival verb concord and the verb stem. (1)

e.g. ke a rēka(I am buying).

|           | Singular  | Plural.    |
|-----------|-----------|------------|
| I.        | ke a rēka | re a rēka  |
| II.       | O a rēka  | Lo a rēka  |
| III.CI.I. | o a rēka  | ba a rēka. |

Uses of the Indefinite and the Continuous Forms of the Present Tense.

139. As both Professors Doke<sup>(2)</sup> and van Eeden<sup>(3)</sup> point out, it is not always possible to distinguish, in meaning, between the indefinite and the continuous or definite forms of the present indicative. It is in their use that the two forms are distinct, as we shall endeavour to show.

140. (i) The indefinite form is used when there is an object or some other adjunct following the verb.

e.g. Ke rēka koloi(I buy a waggon).

Ba nna kgakala(They live far away).

141. (ii) When there is no object or adjunct following the verb, the continuous form is used.

e.g. Re a tsamaya(We are going).

Ba a bua(They are speaking).

142. (iii) When, however, the adjunct is the adverb of time, jaanong(now), or a locative adverb, the continuous form is used.

e.g. Ke a rēbala jaanong(I am sleeping now).

Re a rutwa kwa sekolong(We are taught at school).

143. (iv) When there is an objectival concord the continuous tense is used.

e.g. di a re bōna(They see us).

Ntāa e a di bogola(The dog is barking at them).

(1) This formative should not be joined to the subjectival concord.

(2) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p. 307 para. 747. (3) Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p. 91 para. 236.

144.(v) The indefinite tense cannot be used when both the objectival concord and the substantival object to which it refers are expressed.

e.g. we cannot say Ke e rata nama(lit. I it love the meat).If, however, the objectival concord does not refer to the substantival object, then the indefinite tense may be used.

e.g. Kgomo e re ha maši(A cow gives us milk).

Modimo o re itšhwarêla ditloêô(God forgives us our trespasses)

145.(vi) For purposes of emphasis<sup>(1)</sup> both the objectival concord and the substantival object may be used. In this case the continuous tense is used.

e.g. Dikgomo ke a di bôna tšôna, se ke sa se boneng ke dipodi.

(The cattle I see, what I cannot see are the goats.)

#### 146. The Perfect Tenses.<sup>(2)</sup>

This tense is formed by pre-placing the subjectival verb concord to the perfect stem of a stative verb.

e.g. ke robotse(I am asleep).

|      | Singular     | Plural.     |
|------|--------------|-------------|
| I.   | ke robotse   | re robotse  |
| II.  | o robotse    | lo robotse  |
| III. | oI.o robotse | ba robotse. |

Examples:

Monongwaga ke otile(This year I am lean).

Rrê o tšobetse(My father is old).

Bana ba dutse ka hatake(The children are sitting down).

#### The Immediate Past Tenses.

#### 147. The Indefinite Tenses.

This tense is formed by the subjectival concord followed by

(1)

See para.13 above.

(2)

See para.115 above.

the perfect stem of a non-stative verb, it is the Tswana equivalent of the English perfect tense.

e.g. ke rekile <sup>(1)</sup> (I have bought).

|               | Singular  | Plural.    |
|---------------|-----------|------------|
| I.            | ke rekile | re rekile  |
| II.           | o rekile  | lo rekile  |
| III. Cl. I. o | o rekile  | ba rekile. |

#### 148. Uses of the Immediate Past Tense.

(i) It is used to signify that an action begun some time in the past is complete at the time of speaking.

e.g. Ke agile ntlo e kgolo (I have built a big house).

Bakwena ba tlhabile kgomo (The Bakwena have slaughtered an ox)

(ii) In certain contexts this tense may signify an action that took place in the remote past. <sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Re hitlhile ngôgôla mono Thaba 'Utšho (We came to Thaba 'Utšho here last year).

Ntwa eno o simologile ka ngwaga wa 1939 (This war broke out in 1939).

149. The continuous and perfect manners of the immediate past tense are compound tenses formed with the help of the deficient verb, na. They are, therefore, treated of in chapter V below.

#### The Remote Past Tense.

150. The remote past tense is a compound tense formed by the deficient verb, na (was) followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. ka na ka rêka (I bought).

|               | Singular      | Plural.        |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| I.            | ka na ka rêka | ra na ra rêka  |
| II.           | o no wa rêka  | lo no lwa rêka |
| III. Cl. I. o | o na e rêka   | ba na ba rêka  |

(1) Note change in vowel quality. (2) Cf. *Sotho-Sotho* p. 241 para. 244.

150. In the second person singular and plural as well as in classes 6 and 7 singular, the deficient verb *na* is often heard as *no*. In all probability this change is due to the influence of the concords before and after this verb. . . . an example, therefore, of syntactical harmony.

#### 151. Use of the Remote Past Tense.

The remote past tense is used to signify that an action took place in the distant past. <sup>(1)</sup> It is the Tswana equivalent of the English past tense.

e.g. Ngôgôla ka na ka lema rabêlê (Last year I planted corn).

Lo no Lwa gana go re kaêla tsela (You refused to show us the way).  
 Bosigo bo no jwa sa re e ne re hitlho (Night passed before we arrived).

152. The continuous form of the remote past tense is formed with the aid of the deficient verb *ana* (continue), and is noticed in paragraph 390 (3) below. There is no perfect manner in this tense.

#### The Future Tense.

153. This tense is formed by the subjectival verb *sonzorô*, the future verbal auxiliary *tla* and the verb stem.

e.g. ke tla rêka (I shall buy).

|            | Singular    | Plural       |
|------------|-------------|--------------|
| I.         | ke tla rêka | re tla rêka  |
| II.        | o tla rêka  | lo tla rêka  |
| III, Cl. I | e tla rêka  | ba tla rêka. |

(1) "Immediate past tenses are generally used of past actions performed to-day, yesterday and the day before." See "Tulu Grammar" p. 151 para 331.

N.B. It will be observed from the above table that the vowel of the future auxiliary, a, is short in the first and second persons, singular and plural, but long in the third person singular and plural. This latter fact is true of all classes of the third person.

Examples of use of the Future Tense.

Ke tla ya kwa gae ka morô (I shall go home to-morrow).

Ea tlaa re itse ba ba tla (They will let us know when they come).  
 Re tla boêla Thaba'Ntšho ka kgwedi ya Phatwê (We shall return to Thaba'Ntšho in August).

154. When two future tenses should follow one another, the second is rendered by the present subjunctive.

e.g. Ke tla ya gae ke bolêlêlê rrê mahoko a Gago (I shall go home and I shall tell my father your words).

155. The continuous and perfect manners of the future tense indicative are both compound tenses, and are, therefore, dealt with in chapter V below.

The Subjunctive Mood.

156. There are two tenses in the subjunctive mood: the present tense and the past tense. In this mood there are no distinctions of manner nor of implication.

The Present Tense.

157. The present tense of the subjunctive mood is formed by the subjectival verb concord and the stem of the verb which ends in -ê. <sup>(1)</sup>  
 In the third person class I singular the subjectival concord is g and not o as in the indicative mood. <sup>(2)</sup>

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(1)

Cf. para 22 (b) p.8 above.

(2)

Cf. para.12 p.4 above.



|            | Singular | Plural.  |
|------------|----------|----------|
| I.         | ke rĕkĕ  | re rĕkĕ  |
| II.        | o rĕkĕ   | Lo rĕkĕ  |
| III.C1.I.a | rĕkĕ     | ba rĕkĕ. |

Uses of the Present Tense Subjunctive.

158. The present subjunctive is used in the following ways:

(i) It is used, as the Latin subjunctive, to express purpose, intention or desire. Used in this way it is usually introduced by the conjunction *gore* (that, so that), but there are instances when this conjunction may be omitted.

e.g. Ke ja *gore* ke tshelĕ (I eat that I may live).

Re rata *gore* ba tsamaĕ gospijeno (We desire that they should go to-day).

Golola dipitse di ikhutsĕ (Outspan the horses that they may rest).

159. (ii) It is used imperatively. In Tswana two or more imperatives may not follow one another; should that be syntactically necessary, the second and following imperatives are expressed by the subjunctive mood.

In all persons commands, exhortations and entreaties are expressed by the present subjunctive. Used in this way, the subjunctive is often introduced by the verbal auxiliary, *g*, which has the significance of "let

e.g. A re rapeleng (Let us pray).

A ba tsamaĕ gospijeno (Let them go to-day).

A dikgomo di gololwĕ (let the oxen be outspanned).

But the formative *g* may be omitted. (1)

e.g. (A) Modimo O're thusĕ (May God help us).

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(1)

Cf. para. 133 above.

150. It will be observed from the above examples that commands expressed by the subjunctive mood are in the nature of exhortations or entreaties. It is this fact that may have induced Wooky and Brown to call these forms the "Polite Imperative". (1)

161. A compound form of this use of the subjunctive is found. This is formed by using the deficient verb *ka* in the subjunctive mood followed by a subordinate predicate in the same mood and tense.

e.g. A nké<sup>(2)</sup> ke bônô lokwalô loe (Let me see that book)

A Lo ko Lo rapêlê (Please pray a little).

162. Another deficient verb which is used in this kind of construction is *ma* (allow, let). (3)

e.g. Ma ke rôbalê (Allow me to sleep or Let me sleep)

Ma ba no thusê (Allow them to help him).

N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that *ma* is in the imperative mood and that the subordinate predicate is in the subjunctive mood.

163. The present subjunctive mood may be used in an interrogative manner in contexts in which permission is sought.

e.g. Re tsamê ? (May we go ?)

Di gololwê ? (May they be outspanned ?)

164. A compound form of this imperative is sometimes used in similar contexts. It is formed with the aid of the deficient verb *ka*.

e.g. A ke<sup>(4)</sup> re tsamê ? (May we go ?)

A ke di gololwê ? (May they be outspanned ?)

(1) See "Secwaka Grammar" p.121 para.117.

(2) Note that the subjectival concord used with the deficient verb *ka* is *n*- (velar nasal), and that it is prefixed to the verb stem.

(3) Cf. "Secwaka Grammar" p.120 para.114.

(4) The *e* of this *ke* is close and not open like that in para.161 above.

165. The Present Tense Subjunctive in consecutive verb construction.

Examples of the use of the present tense subjunctive in consecutive verb constructions have been given in paragraphs 134 and 134 above.

The Past Subjunctive.

166. The past tense subjunctive has hitherto been called the Narrative Tense.<sup>(1)</sup> It is formed by the past tense subjectival verb concords<sup>(2)</sup> and the verb stem.

|            | Singular       | Plural.   |
|------------|----------------|-----------|
| I.         | ka rēka        | ra rēka   |
| II.        | ka rēka        | lwa rēka  |
| III. Cl. 1 | a rēka         | ba rēka   |
|            | 2 wa rēka      | ya rēka   |
|            | 3 la rēka      | a rēka    |
|            | 4 sa rēka      | tša rēka  |
|            | 5 ya rēka      | tša rēka  |
|            | 6 lwa rēka     | tša rēka  |
|            | 7 ŋwa rēka (3) | (a rēka)  |
|            | 8 gwa rēka (3) | (a rēka). |

Uses of the Past Tense Subjunctive.

167. (1) The past tense subjunctive is used in compound tenses as a complementary predicate after certain deficient verbs. It is used in the formation of past tenses.<sup>(4)</sup>

e.g. Ka na ka tsamaya (I went away).

Ba kile ba re ŋōla nala (They once paid us a visit).

Dikgomo tša rona di ne tša ba tša šwa (Our cattle did in the  
and die).

(1) Cf. "Seswana Grammar" p. 95 para. 84.

(2) See para. II p. 4 above.

(3) See Note (I) p. 4 above.

(4) Cf. para. 150 above.

168. The past tense subjunctive is used extensively in consecutive verb construction. It is perhaps this usage that tempted Wookey and Brown to call it a narrative tense. As a narrative tense it is used after the following tenses and moods:

(i) The immediate past tense indicative,

e.g. Ba dulê mo tlong ba ya kwa 'sakeng ba hitlha ba gana.

(They went out of the hut, went to the cattle kraal and milked)

(ii) The remote past tense indicative.

e.g. Re na ra gôrôga bošigo ra hitlha ra gotsa mme ra dira kofi.

(We arrived at night, lit a fire and made coffee).

(iii) The present tense potential mood.

e.g. Nka êna ka tsaya thupa ka Go itaya.

(I can stand, take a whip and beat you).

(iv) Compound tenses A(1) and A(4)<sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Ka metlha ba ne ba ya toropong ba tsamaya le sabentlele otlhe ba batla reise lo tee (Daily they went into town walked from shop to shop and looked for rice and tea).

Re ne re ka ya gae ra bolêlêla rra' rona (We could go home and tell our father).

(v) Compound Tenses C(2) and C(3)<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Lo ka bo lo rekile nama Lwa re ha<sup>(3)</sup> (You should have bought meat and give us some).

Re ka bo re šweditse re tsamaya (We should have finished and have gone away).

Nka bo ka ra ka tsamaya ka ya ga malomê (I should have gone and gone to my uncle's place).

(1) See paragraphs 225 and 226 below.

(2) See paragraphs 227 and 228 below.

(3) Lwa re ha (past subjunctive) should not be confused with Lwa re ha (present tense participial mood); the former has a much lower intonation than the latter.

169. The past tense subjunctive is used as a subordinated predicate in the formation of the following negative tenses:

(i) The remote past tense indicative mood.

e.g. Ga ke a ka ka rēka or ka na ka se ka ka rēka (I did not buy).

(ii) the present tense subjunctive mood

e.g. Ke ja gore ke se ka ka ōta (I eat that I may not be lean).

(iii) The imperative mood.

e.g. O se ka wa utšwa (Do not steal).

(iv) The present tense potential mood.

e.g. Nka se za ka tsamaya (I cannot go away).

(v) The compound tenses A(2) and A(4).

e.g. Ke ne ke se ka ka rēka (I did not buy).

Ea ne ba sa ka ke la bua (They could not speak).

(vi) The compound tenses C(2) and C(3).

e.g. Nka bo ke se ka ka rēka (I would not have bought).

Nka bo ka ra ka se ka ka rēka (I would not have bought).

#### The Potential Mood.

##### The Present Tense.

170. The present tense of the potential mood is formed by the subjectival verb concord<sup>(1)</sup>, the verbal auxiliary ka and the verb stem.

|             | Singular             | Plural.     |
|-------------|----------------------|-------------|
| I.          | Nka rēka (I can buy) | re ka rēka  |
| II.         | O ka rēka            | Lo ka rēka  |
| III. Cl. I. | a ka rēka            | ba ka rēka. |

Note: The subjectival concord first person singular is the velar nasal n- and it is joined to the verbal auxiliary ka. One has, however, heard ke used as concord in the potential mood e.g. ke ka rēka. This usage is, however, rare.

(1)

Cf. para. 12 above.

Examples of use:

Mka itumbôla ka C ka mpolêlêla leina ja Gago(I can be pleased if you can tell me your name)

Ea ka re tokôga ka ba rata(They can laugh at us if they like)

Di ka hôna netse jaanong(They can see the water now).

The Habitual Mood.

171. In the habitual mood, as in the indicative, potential and participial moods, there are three implications of the verb viz. the simple, the progressive and the exclusive implications.

The Present Tense.

172. The characteristic ending of the verb stem in the habitual mood is the close vowel -a. The subjectival concords are the same as those of the subjunctive and potential moods above.

|             | Singular               | Plural.  |
|-------------|------------------------|----------|
| I.          | ke reke <sup>(1)</sup> | re reke  |
| II.         | C reke                 | Lo reke  |
| III. Cl. I. | a reke                 | ba reke. |

173. When used in a simple statement, that is, in non-consecutive verbal constructions, the present tense of the habitual mood is always preceded by the deficient verb, tla, which is itself in the habitual mood. It should be noted, however, that tla takes use of the concords of the indicative mood.

e.g. Ke tle ke reke diaparô(I usually buy clothes).

Kotsamai o tle<sup>(2)</sup> a re etele(Kotsamai usually pays us a visit)

N.B. What Koopler and Brown call the 'Present Habitual' is the continuous

(1) Note that the result of the suffixing of close -a is that the open -ê- of the simple verb stem becomes mid-open.

(2) Before a concord that contains the vowel sound a, tle is more often than not heard as tla e.g. Kotsamai o tla a re etele. This is an instance of syntactical harmony.

form of the present tense of the habitual mood. This is formed in the same way as the continuous form of the present tense of the indicative mood, viz. by placing the continuous formative, a, between the verb concord and the verb stem. There seems to be no difference in the use of these two forms; one has heard them used interchangeably. <sup>(1)</sup>

|      | Singular                      | Plural.                         |
|------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| I.   | ke a tle ke reke              | re a tle re reke                |
| II.  | O a tlo O reke <sup>(2)</sup> | Lo a tlo Lo reke <sup>(2)</sup> |
| III. | Cl.I. o a tla a reke          | ba a tla ba reke                |

#### 174. Uses of the Present Tense of the Habitual Mood.

(1) The present tense of the habitual mood is used to indicate an action or a state which is habitual or customary.

e.g. Ke tle ke nwa bojalwa (I usually drink beer).

Ba tla ba re bolelele ba ba tsamaya (They usually tell us when they go).

Lo a tlo lo tse dišš tse lo sa di itseng (You usually say things that you do not know).

Diphólóhšiló di tle di ote mariga (Animals usually become lean in winter).

175. (1) The present tense of the habitual mood is used extensively in consecutive verb constructions to indicate customary happenings in the present or past.

e.g. Ha mosimane wa Botšwana a le dinyaga di le 14, e tle a rekelele kwa morakeng, a raing go ditsa dikgono, a tlhacisive go šla tlkšhó melaš yotlhe e go šiswang dikgono ka yšna. (When a Botšwana boy is 14 years of age, he is usually sent to a cattlepost, taught how to herd cattle, and informed to heed all the rules respecting the herding of cattle).

(1) See "Bechana Grammar" p.139 para.144.

(2) Lutatis matandi, see footnote (2) p.57 above.

The Participial Mood.

176. Except in third person class I. singular, the forms of the tenses of the participial mood are practically the same as those of the corresponding tenses of the indicative mood. In their intonation, however the two moods are radically different, the tones of the participial mood being much higher than those of the indicative mood. In their use, too, the two moods are quite different as we shall endeavour to show in the following paragraphs.

In the participial mood, as in the indicative, tenses are divisible according to implications and manners; there is, however, no continuous manner of the present tense in the participial mood.

Representatives of the tenses will be given for the first person and third person class I singular and plural.

The Present Tenses.177. Indefinite.

|           | Singular | Plural. |
|-----------|----------|---------|
| I.        | ke rōka  | re rōka |
| III.Cl.I. | a rōka   | ba rōka |

178. Perfect.

|           | Singular   | Plural.     |
|-----------|------------|-------------|
| I.        | ke robotse | re robotse  |
| III.Cl.I. | a robotse  | ba robotse. |

The Immediate Past Tense.179. Indefinite.<sup>(1)</sup>

|           | Singular  | Plural.    |
|-----------|-----------|------------|
| I.        | ke rekile | re rekile  |
| III.Cl.I. | a rekile  | ba rekile. |

(1)

Cf. para. 149 p. 49 above.



The Remote Past Tense.180. Indefinite <sup>(1)</sup>

Singular

I. ka na ka rêka

III.Cl.I. a na a rêka

Plural.

ra na ra rêka

ba na ba rêka.

The Future Tense.181. Indefinite <sup>(2)</sup>

Singular

I. ke tlaa rêka <sup>(3)</sup>

III.Cl.I. a tlaa rêka

Plural.

re tlaa rêka <sup>(3)</sup>

ba tlaa rêka.

182. Uses of the Participial Mood. <sup>(4)</sup>

The following are the chief ways in which tenses of the participial mood are used:

(1) The present tenses of the participial mood are used after the present, past or future tenses of other moods to indicate the situation in which the agent performs the action named by the verb of the main clause.

Examples:

Ba tsamaya ba hua (They walk speaking).

Ba tsamailo ba bua (They walked speaking).

Ba tlaa tsamaya ba bua (They will walk speaking).

183. In the above sentences the subject of the participial mood tense is the same as that of the main predicate. There are instances, however, when the subject of the participial mood tense may be the object of the main verb. <sup>(5)</sup>

e.g. Re hitlhetse bana ba robotse (We found the children asleep).

Ba utlilele motho a roa (They heard a person shouting).

(1) See para. 152 p. 50 above.

(2) See para. 155 p. 51 above.

(3) Note that unlike in the indicative mood, the vowel of the formative tlaa is long in the first and second persons, singular and plural.

(4) See also para. 123 p. 42 above. (5) Cf. „Suid-Sotho“ para. 230 p. 112.

134.(ii) Present, past and future tenses of the participial mood are used after certain conjunctions and conjunctives viz. ka(if, when), leha(although, even if), kaha(since), jaaka(ha)(as, just as), go tsamaya<sup>(1)</sup> (until), go hitlhôla<sup>(2)</sup> (till, until) to introduce subordinate adverbial clauses of time, concession, manner, etc.

e.g. Ka ke bobola ke ya kwa ngaheng(When I am ill, I go to the doctor). Leha a gana o tsamê(Even if he refuses you should go).

Kaha a tlaa botsa re tla mmolêlêla(Since he will ask, we shall tell him).

Ke Go diretse jaaka o ntiretse(I have done to you just as you have done to me).

Ke tla mô lela go tsamaya a tla(I shall wait him until he comes). Ka na ha mo itaya go hitlhêla a lela(I beat him till he cried)

#### 135. Tense Sequence.

We have said above<sup>(3)</sup> that a verb in the participial mood describes the situation under which the action or state of the main verb is carried out. It follows, therefore, that the action or state named by the verb of the participial mood occurs at the same time as the action or state named by the main predicate. In the sentence Ea tsamaya ka lela (They walk crying), both predicates (the main and the subordinate) are in the present tense. In Ea tsamalle ba lela (They went away crying), the main verb is in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood, and although the tense of the subordinate predicate is a present tense (of the participial mood), in point of time the action named by it is concurrent with that named by the main predicate. In ba hitlhoise ke robetse (They found me asleep), the state named by the subordinate predicate precedes the action named by the main verb.

(1) See para. 394 p. 131 below.

(2) See para. 386 p. 125 below.

(3) See para. 123 p. 42 above.

In *Ke itsele ka a tlaa tla maabane* (I knew that he would come yesterday), the tense of the subordinate predicate is future, but future only from the point of view of the time of the main verb.

From the above examples it is clear that in Tswana, as indeed in many Bantu languages, time harmony, in the sense of past tense followed by past tense and present by present, is not observed. Even when the time of the main verb is changed, the time of the subordinate predicate remains unchanged, as the examples in the above paragraph have shown.

186. (iii) The participial mood is also used as a subordinate predicate after many deficient verbs in Tswana. Examples of this use will be found in chapters V, VI and X below.

187. (iv) The participial mood is also used in the formation of the relative construction. Examples of this use are given in chapter VIII below.

188. The Present Tenses of the Potential and Habitual Moods used as Tenses of the Participial Mood.

The present tenses of the potential and habitual moods are used as tenses of the participial mood after certain deficient verbs notably *ne*, *tla bo*, and *ka bo*, and after the conjunction *ka* (if, when) and its derivatives *leha*, *kaba*, *jaka ka*. For examples of this use, see chapters V., VI. and VII below.

Chapter IV.Conjugation of the Verb (continued).The Negative Conjugation.

189. In European languages, e.g. English, a positive statement is, in most cases, rendered negative by merely inserting a negative formative e.g. Afrikaans Ek gaan (positive), Ek gaan nie (negative). In Tswana, as indeed in most Bantu languages, not only is there a negative formative but the verb stem itself undergoes inflexion, the final vowel of the verb stem giving place to -o. <sup>(1)</sup> In the case of class I singular in the indicative mood, the concord in the negative conjugation is a not o as in the positive conjugation. <sup>(2)</sup>

The Infinitive.

190. The negative formative of the infinitive mood is *se*. <sup>(1)</sup> It is inserted between the infinitive prefix and the negative stem.

e.g. go se reke (not to buy)  
 go se bua (not to speak)  
 go se ratwe (not to be loved). <sup>(3)</sup>

191. There is a compound form of the negative infinitive. This is formed with the help of the infinitives of the verbs *tlhōka* (to be wanting) and *bisa* <sup>(4)</sup> (not to be). These two verbs are used interchangeably. It will be noticed that the positive and not the negative stem is used.

e.g. go tlhōka go utlwa (not to hear, or, literally, to be wanting to hear).  
 go bisa go tsamaya (not to walk/go, or, literally, not to be to walk).

(1) close -e. (2) Cf. para. 12 p. 4 above.

(3) In the passive, too, the negative stem ends in -e. In this respect Tswana differs from Zulu and Xhosa. Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p. 332; p. 113.

The Imperative Mood.

192. The negative formative of the imperative mood is *se*, and it precedes the negative verb stem.

| Singular                     | Plural           |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| <i>se reke</i> (do not buy)  | <i>se rokeng</i> |
| <i>se bue</i> (do not speak) | <i>se bueng</i>  |
| <i>se je</i> (do not eat)    | <i>se jeng.</i>  |

193. There is a compound form of the negative imperative. This is formed by the negative of the deficient verb *ka*<sup>(1)</sup> followed by the past subjunctive.

- e.g. *O se ka wa utšwa*(do not steal)  
*Lo se ka lwa tsamya*(do not go).

The Indicative Mood.The Present Tenses.

194. Indefinite and Continuous.

We have said above<sup>(2)</sup> that there are instances when one tense of the negative conjugation will negative two distinct tenses of the positive conjugation. This is the case with the indefinite and continuous aspects of the present tense of the indicative mood. The negative formative is *ga*, and it precedes the subjunctival verb concord.

| e.g. Singular                       | Plural.            |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|
| I. <i>ga ke reke</i> (I do not buy) | <i>ga re reke</i>  |
| II. <i>ga O roke</i>                | <i>ga Lo reke</i>  |
| III. <i>ga a reke</i>               | <i>ga ha reke.</i> |

195. The Perfect.

The negative of the perfect manner is formed by the negative formative followed by the subjunctival concord and the formative *a* which in turn is followed by the positive (i.e. non-perfect) verb stem.

(1) It is usual in Tswana to hear the positive stem of the verb *ka* used even in the negative conjugation. (2) See para. 117 p. 41 above.

| Singular               | Plural.         |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| I. ga ke a rôbala      | ga re a rôbala  |
| II. ga O a rôbala      | ga Lo a rôbala  |
| III.Cl.I.ga a a rôbala | ga ba a rôbala. |

The Immediate Past Tense.

196.Indefinite.

The negative of the immediate past tense indefinite is formed in the same way as the present tense perfect manner in the above paragraph.

e.g. ga ke a rêka(I have not bought).

| Singular             | Plural.       |
|----------------------|---------------|
| I. ga ke a rêka      | ga re a rêka  |
| II. ga O a rêka      | ga Lo a rêka  |
| III.Cl.I.ga a a rêka | ga ba a rêka. |

N.B. It will be observed from the above two paragraphs that in the present tense perfect manner and in the immediate past tense indefinite the negative stem is not employed.

The Remote Past Tense.

197.The remote past tense negative is a compound tense.It is formed by the deficient verb na<sup>(1)</sup> followed by the past tense subjunctive mood negative.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Ka na ka se ka ka rêka(I did not buy).

| Singular                     | Plural.                   |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| I. Ka na ka se ka ka rêka    | Na na ra se ka ra rêka    |
| II. O no Wa se ka Wa rêka    | Lo no Lwa se ka Lwa rêka. |
| III.Cl.I.o na a se ka a rêka | ba ra ba se ka ba rêka.   |

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(1) Cf. para.150 p.49 above.

(2) See para.205 below.

198. There is another compound form of the past tense negative. This is formed by the deficient verb *ka* followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood. (1)

e.g. *ga ke a ka ka rēka* (I did not buy).

Singular

Plural.

|            |                           |                              |
|------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| I.         | <i>ga ke a ka ka rēka</i> | <i>ga re a ka ra rēka</i>    |
| II.        | <i>ga o a ka wa rēka</i>  | <i>ga lo a ka la wa rēka</i> |
| III. Cl. I | <i>ga a a ka a rēka</i>   | <i>ga ba a ka ba rēka.</i>   |

#### The Future Tense.

199. The future tense of the negative conjugation is a compound tense formed by the negative formative *ga* followed by the deficient verb *nka* which in turn is followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. *ga ke nka ke rēka* (I shall not buy).

Singular

Plural

|            |                            |                              |
|------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| I.         | <i>ga ke nka ke rēka</i>   | <i>ga re nka re rēka</i>     |
| II.        | <i>ga o nko o rēka</i> (2) | <i>ga lo nko lo rēka</i> (2) |
| III. Cl. I | <i>ga a nka a rēka</i>     | <i>ga ba nka ba rēka.</i>    |

200. Instead of the verb *nka* the deficient verb *ketla* is sometimes used. (3)

e.g. *ga nketla ke go bolōlōla* (I shall not tell you).

*ga ba ketla ba rata go tsamaya* (They will not want to go).

201. Occasionally the future tense of the negative conjugation is rendered by the negative of the deficient verb *na* followed by the infinitive or the present tense of the participial mood. (4)

e.g. *ga ke na go tsamaya/ke tsamaya* (I shall not go)

*Pula ga a na go na/e na gompijoro* (The rain will not fall to-day).

(1) Cf. "Bechwana Grammar" p. 86 para. 84.

(2) Before *na*? after 2 consonants that contain the vowel sound *o*, *nka* is more often than not heard as *nko*. Cf. footnote (2) p. 87 above.

(3) Cf. "Bechwana Grammar" p. 87 para. 86.

(4) Cf. "Sots-Sotho" p. 122 para. 306.

The Subjunctive Mood.202. The Present Tense.

The negative formative of the subjunctive mood is *se* and it is inserted between the concord and the negative verb stem.

e.g. *ka se reke* (I may not buy).

|            | Singular          | Plural.           |
|------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| I.         | <i>ka se reke</i> | <i>re se reke</i> |
| II.        | <i>O se reke</i>  | <i>Lo se reke</i> |
| III.Cl.I.a | <i>se reke</i>    | <i>ba se reke</i> |

203. There is also a compound form of the present tense negative subjunctive mood. This is formed by the negative of the deficient verb <sup>(1)</sup> *ka* followed by the past tense of the subjunctive.

e.g. *ke se ka ka rêka* (I may not buy).

|            | Singular                | Plural.                  |
|------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| I.         | <i>ke se ka ka rêka</i> | <i>re se ka ra rêka</i>  |
| II.        | <i>O se ka wa rêka</i>  | <i>Lo se ka lwa rêka</i> |
| III.Cl.I.a | <i>se ka a rêka</i>     | <i>ba se ka ba rêka.</i> |

The Past Tense.

204. The single form of the past tense subjunctive negative is formed by placing the negative formative *se* between the concord and the negative verb stem.

e.g. *ka se reke*

|            | Singular          | Plural             |
|------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| I.         | <i>ka se reke</i> | <i>ra se reke</i>  |
| II.        | <i>wa se reke</i> | <i>lwa se reke</i> |
| III.Cl.I.a | <i>se reke</i>    | <i>ba se reke.</i> |

(1)

See footnote (1) p.64 above.



205. There is also a compound form of the negative of the past tense of the subjunctive mood. It is formed by the negative of the deficient verb ka<sup>(1)</sup> followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ka se ka ka rēka

|            | Singular         | Plural             |
|------------|------------------|--------------------|
| I.         | ka se ka ka rēka | ra se ka ra rēka   |
| II.        | wa se ka wa rēka | lwa se ka lwa rēka |
| III.Cl.I.a | se ka a rēka     | ba se ka ba rēka.  |

N.B. The simple form of the past subjunctive negative is seldom used in Tswana. It is mainly used in conditional clauses after the conjunction hala<sup>(2)</sup>(if).

e.g. Hala ka se motse a ka bo a sa mpolēlōla (If I had not asked him he would not have told me).

The compound form is by far the most commonly used. It is used in the same contexts as the corresponding tense of the positive conjugation.<sup>(3)</sup>

#### The Potential Mood.

##### The Present Tense.

206. The negative formative of the potential mood is se and it is inserted between the verbal auxiliary ka and the negative verb stem.

e.g. Nka se reke (I cannot buy).

|            | Singular     | Plural.        |
|------------|--------------|----------------|
| I.         | Nka se reke  | ro ka se reko  |
| II.        | O ka se reke | Lo ka se reko  |
| III.Cl.I.a | ka se reke   | ba ka se reke. |

~~207. There is a compound form of the negative of the present tense~~

~~(1)~~

~~See footnote (1) p. 44 above.~~

~~(2) hala is a derivate of the simple conjunction ka (if, when).~~

~~(3) See paragraph 167 et seq. above.~~

of the potential mood. This tense is used much more frequently than the simple tense above. It is formed by the negative of the present tense of the potential mood of the deficient verb ka,<sup>(1)</sup> followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. nka se ka ba rêka (I cannot buy).

Singular

Plural.

I. nka se ka ka rêka

re ka se ka ra rêka

II. C ka se ka Na rêka

Lo ka se ka Lua rêka

III. Ci. I a ka se ka a rêka

ba ka se ka ba rêka.

208. There is yet another compound form of the negative of the present tense of the potential mood. This is formed as follows: first comes the indicative mood negative formative ga, then the subjectival verb concord, then the potential mood auxiliary ka, followed by the negative stem of the deficient verb ka (i.e. ke), and finally the past tense of the subjunctive mood.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Ga nka ke ka rêka (I cannot buy).

Singular

Plural.

I. ga nka ke ka rêka

ga re ka ke ra rêka

II. ga C ka ke Na rêka

ga Lo ka ke Lua rêka

III. Ci. I ga a ka ke a rêka

ga ba ka ke ba rêka.

#### The Habitual Mood.

#### The Present Tense.

209. The simple form of the negative of the present tense of the habitual mood is derived from the corresponding tense of the positive conjugation<sup>(3)</sup> by inserting the negative formative se between the

(1) See footnote (1) p. 64 above.

(2) Cf. "Sesons Grammar" p. 117 para. 110

(3) See para. 173 p. 57 above.

concord and the verb stem. This form is, however, seldom used in Tswana.

e.g. Ke se reke

Singular

Plural.

|             |            |            |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| I.          | ke se reke | re se reke |
| II.         | O se reke  | Lo se reke |
| III. Cl. I. | a se reke  | ba se reke |

210. There is also a compound form of the present tense of the habitual mood negative. This is formed by the present tense habitual mood negative of the deficient verb ka (i.e. ke) followed by the present tense habitual mood positive.

e.g. Ke se ke ke reke

Singular

Plural

|             |                               |                                 |
|-------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| I.          | ke se ke ke reke              | re se ke re reke                |
| II.         | O se ko O reke <sup>(1)</sup> | Lo se ko lo reke <sup>(1)</sup> |
| III. Cl. I. | a se ke a reke                | ba se ke ba reke.               |

211. There is yet another way of rendering a positive habitual mood present tense negative. This is obtained by using the indicative mood negative formative ga followed by the much-used deficient verb ka (ke in the negative); the subordinate predicate is rendered by the present tense participial mood (positive).<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. ga nke ke rēka (I do not usually buy).

Singular

Plural.

|             |                               |                                  |
|-------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| I.          | ga nke ke rēka                | ga re ko re rēka                 |
| II.         | ga O ko O rēka <sup>(1)</sup> | ga Lo ko Lo rēka <sup>(1)</sup>  |
| III. Cl. I. | ga a ka a rēka <sup>(3)</sup> | ga ba ka ba rēka. <sup>(3)</sup> |

(1) mutatis mutandis See N.B. p. 50 above.

(2) "Seswana Grammar" p. 139 para. 144.

(3) Here ke has become ka probably due to the influence of the concord a before and after it.....an example of syntactical harmony.

212. We have noticed above that the present tense habitual mood is often used in conjunction with the deficient verb *tla*<sup>(1)</sup>. This is true also of the negative tenses we have noticed in paragraphs 209 and 210 above.

e.g. *Ke tle ke se bue le matagwa*(I do not usually speak to drunkards).  
*O tlo o se ko o nwa bojalwa*(You do not usually drink beer).  
 The tense noticed in paragraph 211 above does not need the deficient verb *ka*.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. *Ga ba ke ba nwa bojalwa ka šöntaga*(They do not usually drink beer on Sunday).

*BaRolong ga ba ke ba hagola pōš mariga*(The BaRolong do not castrate a bull in winter).

#### The Participial Mood.

213. We have said above<sup>(3)</sup> that the tenses of the participial mood in the positive conjugation are, to a very great extent, similar in form to the corresponding tenses of the indicative mood. In the case of the tenses of the negative conjugation, however, the forms of the tenses of these two moods are quite distinct. We have noticed, further,<sup>(4)</sup> that the negative formative of the indicative mood is *ga* and that it precedes the subjectival verb concord. In the participial mood, on the other hand, the negative formative is *sa* and it is placed between the subjectival verb concord and the verb stem. If an objectival verb concord is used, the negative formative precedes it, since no formative can come between the objectival verb concord and the verb stem.<sup>(5)</sup>

(1) See para. 174 (1) p. 53 above.

(2) Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p. 128 para. 320.

(3) See para. 176 p. 59 above.

(4) See para. 194 p. 64 above.

(5) See para. 13 p. 4 above.

The Present Tense.214. Indefinite.

This tense is formed by placing the negative formative *sa* between the subjectival verb concord and the negative stem of the verb.

e.g. *Ke sa reko*

Singular

Plural.

I. *ke sa reke*

*re sa reko*

III.Cl.I.a *sa reke*

*ba sa reko.*

215. Perfect.

This tense is formed by placing the negative formative *sa* between the subjectival verb concord and the non-perfect or simple stem of the verb. Here again<sup>(1)</sup> the negative stem of the verb is not used.

e.g. *Ke sa rôbala.*

Singular

Plural.

I. *ke sa rôbala*

*re sa rôbala*

III.Cl.I.a *sa rôbala*

*ba sa rôbala.*

The Immediate Past Tense.216. Indefinite.

The immediate past tense indefinite is formed in exactly the same way as the perfect manner of the present tense above (see para. 215 above)

e.g. *Ke sa rêka.*

Singular

Plural.

I. *ke sa rêka*

*re sa rêka*

III.Cl.I.a *sa rêka*

*ba sa rêka.*

The Remote Past Tense.217. Indefinite.

We have said above that the negative tenses of the participial

(1)

Cf. footnote (1) p. 54 above.

mood are distinct from the corresponding tenses of the indicative mood.<sup>(1)</sup> This fact does not, however, apply to the remote past tense of the participial mood since in form this tense is the same as the corresponding tense of the indicative mood.<sup>(2)</sup> Needless to repeat,<sup>(3)</sup> in their intonation the two moods are radically different.

e.g. (Ka) ka na ka se ka ka rêka.

Singular

Plural.

1. ka na ka se ka ka rêka

ra na ra se ka ra rêka

III.Cl.I.a na a se ka a rêka<sup>(4)</sup>

ba na ba se ka ba rêka.

#### The Future Tense.

##### 218. Indefinite.

The future tense of the participial mood negative is a compound tense made up as follows: the negative of the present tense participial mood of the deficient verb nka is used followed by the (positive) present tense of the participial mood. The participial mood negative formative, sa, becomes se in this tense.

e.g. Ke se nke ke rêka.

Singular

Plural.

1. ke se nke ke rêka

re se nke re rêka.

III.Cl.I.a se nke a rêka

ba se nke ba rêka.

N.B. Here again the deficient verb nka is used interchangeably with the deficient verb ketla.<sup>(5)</sup>

e.g. Ke se ketla ke rêka, a se ketla a rêka, etc.

##### 219. The Participial mood-form of the Present Tense Potential Mood.

Sometimes a participial mood-form of the present tense of the potential mood negative is used as a future tense. This is especially

(1) See para. 213 p. 71 above. (2) See para. 197 p. 55 above.

(3) See para. 176 p. 59 above. (4) Note, however, that the concord of the third person class I singular is a not o as in the indicative mood.

(5) Cf. para. 200 p. 56 above.

the case after the conjunction ha(if)and its derivatives leha,kaha,etc.<sup>(1)</sup>

o.g. Loha nka se ka ka rēka sepē,ke tla tšoga ke ya kwa  
toropong ke mošō(Although I shall not be able to buy anything I shall  
go to town to-morrow).

CHAPTER V.Conjugation of the Verb(continued).Compound Tenses.The Positive Conjugation.

220. A compound tense is a tense formed of more than one verb one or more of which may be deficient. Each verb usually has its own concord, and this fact is the chief distinguishing feature between deficient verbs and verbal auxiliaries. Deficient verbs are verbs which cannot stand by themselves but must needs have a subordinated predicate to complete them. It is these verbs which hitherto have been erroneously referred to as "auxiliary verbs". In truth deficient verbs are the main verb of a sentence in which they occur and the verb that follows upon them is auxiliary in function. In a case where there are two deficient verbs following one another, the second deficient verb is subordinated to the first and in turn it (the second deficient verb) has a verb subordinated to it.

221. Most deficient verbs are followed by tenses of the participial mood, or participial mood-forms of other moods; but there are some which take the infinitive mood after them.

Among the tenses which we have discussed in the foregoing two chapters, we have noticed that quite a few are compound tenses formed of deficient verbs followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.<sup>(1)</sup> In the following pages of this chapter we shall notice only those compound tenses which are formed of the deficient verbs ne, tla ho and ka ho followed by tenses of the participial mood or participial mood-forms of other moods. The tenses formed by these three deficient verbs are, in point of time, closely related to the tenses discussed in

(1) An exception to this rule is the future tense of the participial mood negative, and the subordinated predicate is participial mood.



III and IV above. It is for that reason that they are singled out for special consideration here. Other deficient and deficiently used verbs are noticed in chapter X below.

A. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb na. <sup>(1)</sup>

222. There are five tenses formed with the deficient verb na. This verb signifies "was", that is, it is used in the formation of past tenses; but the subordinate predicate usually gives the exact time of the occurrence of the given action or state.

Although their subordinate predicates are in the participial mood, the first three of the following tenses must be regarded as past tenses of the indicative mood. When, however, they are used in subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction ka (if, when) and its derivatives <sup>(2)</sup>, or when they are used in the relative construction <sup>(3)</sup>, the first three of the following tenses must be regarded as tenses of the participial mood. The fourth tense below is a past tense of the potential mood while the fifth is a past tense of the habitual mood.

(I) na + the Present Tense of the Participial Mood.

(The Immediate Past Tense Continuous) <sup>(4)</sup>

223. Representatives of the forms of this tense, as of the following tenses in this chapter, are given for the first, second and third (class I) persons only. The forms of classes 2 to 6 are easily deducible.

e.g. Ke ne ke rēka (I was buying).

Singular

Plural.

I. ke ne ke rēka

re ne re rēka

II. o no o rēka <sup>(5)</sup>

Lo no Lo rēka <sup>(5)</sup>

III. Cl. I. o na e rēka <sup>(6)</sup>

ka na te rēka <sup>(5)</sup>

(1) This form is probably the perfect of na (cf. para. 150 p. 49 above).

(2) Cf. para. 134 p. 61. (3) See Chapter VIII below.

(4) Cf. para. 149 p. 49 above. (5) See N.B. p. 50 above.

(6) *mutatis mutandi* See N.B. p. 50 above.

224. Examples of use.

(1) The immediate past tense continuous is used to signify actions that took place in the immediate or the remote past. It indicates that such actions were persisting.

e.g. Maobane pula e ne e na (Yesterday the rain was falling).

Ka ntwaga wa 1933 go no go le leuba ja legolo (In the year 1933 there was a great drought).

(11) This tense may also be used to indicate habitual or customary actions that took place in the past. <sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Bogologolo Batšwana ba na ba apara katlalô a dipôlônôlô.

(Long ago the Batšwana used to wear skins of animals).

Matebele a ga Moselekatsê a na a bogisa ditšê tsa Batšwana.

(The Matebele of Moselekatsê used to persecute the tribes of the Batšwana).

225. (2) ne + Immediate past tense of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Ke ne ke rekile (I had bought) <sup>(2)</sup>

Singular

Plural.

I. ke ne ke rekile

re ne re rekile.

II. O no O rekile

Lo no Lo rekile

III. O. I. o na a rekile

ba na ba rekile.

226. Examples of use.

(1) This tense is used in contexts in which the pluperfect tense would be used in English, that is, to indicate an action that was done and completed in the past.

e.g. Ke ne ke ile kwa Thata' Ntšho ke le nosi (I had gone to Thata' Ntšho alone).

Ba na ba boleletse mmabô ba ba tsamaya (They had told their mother when they went away).

<sup>(1)</sup> Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p. 141 para. 355 N. 2.

<sup>(2)</sup> This tense is the equivalent of the English pluperfect tense.

(1) This tense may also be used in a past statement of unfulfilled intention.

e.g. Ke ne ke ratile go hua le ōna me ka tihōka setaka(I had wanted to talk to him but I lacked the opportunity).

227. The use of this tense in hypothetical clauses introduced by the conjunction ka(if,when)is noticed in Chapter VII below.

228. When followed by the perfect of a stative verb,ne indicates a state which was complete and continuous in the past.It is the perfect manner of the immediate past tense. (1)

e.g. Ke ne ke robeta ha ha hitlha(I was asleep when they arrived).

229. (3) ne + Future Tense of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Ke ne ke tlaa rōka(I would buy).

Singular

Plural.

I. ke ne ke tlaa rōka

re ne re tlaa rōka

II. O ne O tlaa rōka

Lo ne Lo tlaa rōka

III. Si I o na a tlaa rōka

ba na ba tlaa rōka.

230. This tense is used to indicate an action or a state which would or should occur or have occurred but for certain conditions which hindered its occurrence. (2)

e.g. Ke ne ke tlaa rōka pitse ha ke ne ke na le madi(I would buy a horse if I had money).

Ha O ne O ne kopile, o na a tlaa go thusa(if you had asked him,he would help you).

kana ke gōwē ta na ba tlaa rōna ha ba na ba a ma unā.

(Her children would be fat if they drank milk).

Re ne re tlaa no adina madi jannong o re rojile(he would

buy his horse, but now he has sworn at us).

(1) see para.123 p.43 above. (2) Hockley and Croun have called this tense the 'Intentional Mood'. See "Seckana Grammar" p.132 para.133.

231. (4) ne + the Participial mood-form of the Potential Mood Present. (1)

(The Past Tense of the Potential Mood)

e.g. Ke ne nka rêka(I could buy).

Singular

Plural.

I. ke ne nka rêka

re ne re ka rêka

II. O no O ka rêka

Lo no Lo ka rêka

III. Cl. I. o na a ka rêka

ba na ba ka rêka.

232. Examples of use.

This tense is used in hypothetical clauses to indicate an action or a state which would or could have taken place in the past.

e.g. Diphole di ne di ka gôga koloi ha di na di le lešomê(The oxen would have drawn the waggon if they were ten).<sup>(2)</sup>

Mariga a na a ka nna bogale ka pula e ne o sa na(The winter could be severe if the rain had not fallen).

Ka-Zulu a na a ka benya MaBuru ha a na a na lo ditlhošo.

(The Zulus could overcome the Boers if they had guns).

233. (5) ne + the Participial mood-form of the Present Tense of the Habitual Mood.

(The Past Tense of the Habitual Mood)

e.g. Ke ne ke tle ke reke(I used to buy)<sup>(3)</sup>

Singular

Plural.

I. ke ne ku tle ke reke

re ne re tle re reke

II. O no O tlo O reke

Lo no Lo tlo Lo reke

III. Cl. I. o na a tla a reke

ba na ba tla ba reke.

(1) Cf. para. 128 p. 62 above.

(2) In Tswana no distinction is drawn between what could happen and what would happen. Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p. 147 para. 561.

(3) It will be observed that in this tense there are two deficient verbs following one another. See para. 220 p. 75 above.

234. Examples of use.

This tense is used to dignify an action or a state which used to occur in the past.

e.g. Ke ne ke tle ke e kwa gae bosigo (I used to go home at night).  
 Mariga rrê o na a tla a re tlhabele kgomo (In winter my father used to slaughter an ox for us).

Bana ba na ba tla ba sis ha ba mmôna (Children used to run away when they saw him).

235. In consecutive verb construction the past tense of the habitual mood is usually followed by the present tense of the same mood.

e.g. Katebele a na a tla a tlhabele Matšwana, a ba bolae, a gape 'kgomo tsa bona, mme a tšhabe metse ya bona (The Katebele used to attack the Matšwana, slaughter them, carry away their cattle, and burn their villages).

B. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo. <sup>(1)</sup>

236. The deficient verb tla bo is composed of the verb stem ba (heard as bo when used as a deficient verb and signifying "be") preceded by the well-known future verbal auxiliary tla. <sup>(2)</sup> There are four tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo followed by various tenses of the participial mood or participial mood-forms of other moods. The first two tenses below are tenses of the indicative mood; the third tense is used to signify future possibility while the fourth, which is rarely used, indicates future habitual action or state.

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(1) bo is sometimes heard as be probably due to the influence of Southern Sotho.

(2) The vowel of tla is pronounced short in the first and second persons singular and plural, and long in all classes of the third person both in the singular and in the plural.

237. (1) tla bo + Present Tense of the Participial Mood.(The Future Tense Continuous Manner) <sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Ke tla bo ke rēka(I shall be buying).

Singular

Plural.

I. ke tla bo ke rēka

re tla bo re rēka

II. O tla bo O rēka

Lo tla bo Lo rēka

III. Cl. I. o tlaa bo a rēka <sup>(2)</sup>ba tlaa bo ba rēka. <sup>(2)</sup>238. Examples of use.

The tense in the above paragraph indicates that at a certain point of time in the future a given action or state will be in continuous occurrence.

e.g. Ka kgwedi ya Phatwê re tla bo re lema(In the month of August we shall be ploughing).

Ka nakô ya lešonô ba tlaa bo ba rēbala(At ten o'clock they will be sleeping).

Pula e tlaa bo e na saltsiboya(The rain will be falling this evening).

239. (2) tla bo + Immediate Past Tense of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Ke tla bo ke rekile(I shall have bought).

Singular

Plural.

I. ke tla bo ke rekile

re tla bo re rekile

II. O tla bo O rekile

Lo tla bo Lo rekile

III. Cl. I. o tlaa bo a rekile

ba tlaa bo ba rekile.

240. Examples of use.

The tense in the above paragraph is used to indicate that a given

(1) See para. 155 p. 51 above.

(2) Not infrequently bo in this class is heard as ba. This fact is true of the succeeding tenses of tla bo and ka bo. This change is, in all probability, due to the influence of the a-sounds before and after bo.....an example of syntactical harmony. See also footnote (6) p. 75 above.

act or state will have been accomplished at a definite point of time in the future. This tense is the Bwana equivalent of the English future perfect tense.

e.g. Ka matlhatšō ba tlaa bo ba lemile tshimo ya me yotlwa (On Saturday they will have ploughed the whole of my field).

Ka mošō o monjwe ke tla bo ke itoile mōšō a jagwē (Day after to-morrow I shall have known his condition).

241. With stative verbs this tense signifies a state that will be persisting at a certain point of time in the future.<sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Ka nakō ya 10 re tla bo re robotso (At ten o'clock we shall be asleep).

Kariga dikgomo di tlaa bo di otile (In winter the cattle will be lean).

242. (3) tla bo + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Potential Mood.

e.g. Ke tla bo nka rēka (I shall (then) be able to buy).

Singular

Plural

I. ke tla bo nka rēka

re tla bo ro ka rēka

II. o tla bo o ka rēka

lo tla bo lo ka rēka

III. OI. I o tlaa bo a ka rēka

ba tlaa bo ba ka rēka.

243. Examples of use.

The above tense is used to indicate that an action or a state will be possible at a definite point of time in the future.

e.g. Isago re tla bo ke agile ntlo mme ke gōma o tlaa bo o ka tla go gōtšela (Next year I shall have built a house and it is then that you can come to pay me a visit).

244. (4) tla bo + Present Tense Participial Mood-form of the Habitual Mood.

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(1) See para. 156 c. 31 above.

e.g. Ke tla bo ke tle ke reke(I shall(then)be in the habit of buying).

|      | Singular                 | Plural.                   |
|------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| I.   | ke tla bo ke tle ke reke | re tla bo re tle re reke  |
| II.  | O tla bo O tle O reke    | Lo tla bo Lo tle Lo reke  |
| III. | o tla bo a tla a reke    | ba tla bo ba tle ba reke. |

245. Examples of use.

As pointed out above<sup>(1)</sup>, this tense is rarely used in Tswana. When used it signifies that at a definite point of time in the future, a given action or state will be in habitual occurrence.

e.g. Ha sekole se simologa gupê, ke tla bo le nna ke tle ke loko go bala (When the school re-opens, I shall also(then) be in the habit of trying to read).

C. Compound tenses formed with the deficient verb ka bo<sup>(2)</sup>

246. The deficient verb ka bo is composed of the verb stem ba (heard as bo when used as a deficient verb and signifying "be") preceded by the well-known verbal auxiliary of the potential mood, ka. As with na and tla bo, the tenses that follow ka bo are either tenses of the participial mood or participial mood-forms of the potential and habitual moods. There are altogether six tenses which may be formed with the deficient verb ka bo. All these tenses are used in the construction of conditional clauses for which see Chapter VII below.

247. (1) ka bo + Present Tense of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Eka bo ke rêka(I would buy).

|      | Singular       | Plural.           |
|------|----------------|-------------------|
| I.   | nka bo ke rêka | re ka bo re rêka  |
| II.  | O ka bo O rêka | Lo ka bo Lo rêka  |
| III. | o ka bo a rêka | ba ka bo ba rêka. |

(1) See p.236 above

(2) cf. footnote (1) p.30 above.



248. Examples of use.

Nka bo ke raka pitse ha ke ne ke na le rahi(I would buy a horse if I had money).

Ea ka bo ba go bolêlêla ha rrahô a na a šule(They would tell you if their father were dead).

249. It will be observed from the above examples that this tense is used in much the same way as the tenses noticed in paragraphs 229 and 231 above.

250. (2) ka bo + Immediate Past Tense<sup>(1)</sup> of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Nka bo ke rekile(I would have bought).

Singular

Plural.

I. nka bo ke rekile

re ka bo re rekile

II. O ka bo O rekile

Lo ka bo Lo rekile

III. A ka bo a rekile

ba ka bo ba rekile.

251. Examples of use.

This tense is used to indicate an action which would(could)<sup>(2)</sup> have occurred in the past .

e.g. Nka bo ke rekile pitse ha ke ne ke na le rahi(I would(could) have bought a horse if I had money).

Ea ka bo ba go boleletse ha rrahô a na a šule(They would have told you if their father were dead).

252. Used with stative verbs this tense indicates a state which could have occurred(and persisted)in the past.

e.g. Dikgomo di ka bo di nonrê ha pula e ne o nolê(The cattle would be fat if the rain had fallen).

Dikoko di ka bo di tšogile ha bosigo bo ne bo selê(The fowls would be up if the night had passed).

(1) Present tense perfect manner in the case of stative verbs.

(2) See p.79 footnote (2) above.

253. (3) ka bo + Remote Past Tense of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Nka bo ka na ka rēka(I would have bought).

Singular.

Plural.

I. nka bo ka na ka rēka

re ka bo ra na ra rēka

II. O ka bo O no Ya rēka

Lo ka bo Lo no Lwa rēka

III.Cl.I.a ka bo a ra a rēka

ba ka bo ba ra ba rēka.

254. Examples of use.

This tense is used in much the same way as the tense noticed in paragraph 250 et seq. . . . above. It indicates an action or a state which would have occurred in the remote past.

e.g. Nka bo ka na ka mōna ha a na a hetile ka tsela e(I would have seen him if he had passed by this way).

Dinku di ka bo tsa na tsa šwa ka di ne di jela setlhatshana seo(The sheep would have died if they had eaten that bush).

255. (4) ka bo + Future Tense of the Participial Mood.

e.g. Nka bo ke tlaa rēka(I would buy).

Singular

Plural.

I. nka bo ke tlaa rēka

re ka bo re tlaa rēka

II. O ka bo O tlaa rēka

Lo ka bo Lo tlaa rēka

III.Cl.I.a ka bo a tlaa rēka

ba ka bo ba tlaa rēka.

256. Examples of use.

This tense is used to indicate that an action or a state would occur at a definite point in the future but for a given hindrance.

e.g. Nka bo ke tlaa tsamaya le ōra ha e na a tsamaya ka mošš(I would go with him if he were going to-morrow).

Ea ka bo ba tlaa tla ha re ne re ba laeditse(They would come if we had invited them).

257. It will be observed from the above examples that the use of this tense is similar to that noticed in paragraph 229 above.

258. (5) ka bo + Participial Mood-form of the present tense of the Potential Mood.

e.g. Ika bo nka rêka(I could(then)buy).

Singular

Plural.

I. nka bo nka rêka

re ka bo re ka rêka

II. O ka bo O ka rêka

Lo ka bo Lo ka rêka.

III.Cl.I.a ka bo a ka rêka

ba ka bo ba ka rêka.

259. Examples of use.

This tense is used in pretty much the same way as that noticed in paragraphs 255 et seq. above, but the degree of uncertainty is greater in the latter than in the former as the following examples will show.<sup>(1)</sup>

Nka bo nka tsaraya le êna ha a na a tsaraya ka moôô(I could (perhaps) go with him if he were going to-morrow).

Ba ka bo ba ka tla ha re ne re ba laleditse(They could (perhaps) come if we had invited them).

260. (6) ka bo + Participial Mood-form of the present tense of the Habitual Mood.

e.g. Nka bo ke tle ka reke(I would habitually buy).

Singular

Plural

I. nka bo ke tle ke reke

re ka bo re tle re reke

II. O ka bo O tle O reke

Lo ka bo Lo tle Lo reke

III.Cl.I.a ka bo a tla a reke

ba ka bo ba tla ba reke.

261. Examples of use.

This tense is used to indicate that an action or a state would habitually occur, but the occurrence of which would depend upon certain given circumstances.

e.g. Nka bo ke tle ke no gokolole ha a na a se tihôgô e thata(I would always advise him if he were not obstinate).

<sup>(1)</sup> Cf. "Suid-Botno" p.155 para.394.

D. Miscellaneous Compound Tenses.

262. Several of the compound tenses noticed in the fore-going paragraphs of this chapter can be rendered more compound by getting one of the deficient verbs *ne, tla bo* or *ka bo* to follow upon another.

e.g. *Ha ke ne ko ile kwa Maseru ke ne ke tlaa bo ke bôné Egcsigadi-Agolo ya Basotho*(If I had gone to Maseru I would(at length) see the paramount Chieftainess of the Basuto).

*Nka bo ke ne ke tlaa mo thusa ha ke ne ke mo utlwile*(I would help him if I had ... heard him).

263. The use of the compounds of *ne, tla bo* and *ka bo* with the deficient verbs *ntso*(perfect of *nna*(sit)) and *setse*(perfect of *sala*(remain)) is noticed in chapter IX below, while their use with other deficient verbs is noticed in chapter X below.

Compound Tenses as Tenses of the Participial Mood.

264. The compound tenses of *ne, tla bo* and *ka bo* noticed in the fore-going paragraphs of this chapter can be used as tenses of the participial mood. This is the case when they are used as subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction *ha*(if, when) and its derivatives<sup>(1)</sup>, or when used in the relative construction, or when they are preceded by another deficient verb as in the examples given in paragraph 262 above.

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(1) See para.184 (ii) p.61 above.

CHAPTER VI.Conjugation of the Verb (continued).Compound Tenses.The Negative Conjugation.

265. When the compound tenses noticed in the previous chapter are rendered negative, it is not the deficient verb that undergoes inflexion but the verb of the subordinate predicate. Since the subordinate predicate is always a tense of the participial mood or a participial mood-form of the potential and habitual moods, the negative formative that is employed is *sa*, and, as already observed, <sup>(1)</sup> it is inserted between the subjectival verb concord and the verb stem.

Representatives of the tenses will be given for the first and third (class I) persons singular and plural. No examples of the uses of the compound tenses of the negative conjugation will be given since these are easily deduced from the uses of the corresponding tenses of the positive conjugation noticed in the fore-going chapter.

A. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb, *ne*.

266. (1) *ne* + Present Tense of Participial Mood.

I.            *ke ne ke sa reke*                      *re ne re sa reke*

III. CI. I. o *na a sa reke*                      *ba na ba sa reke.*

267. (2) *ne* + Immediate Past Tense <sup>(2)</sup> of Participial Mood.

Singular

Plural.

I.            *ke ne ke sa rêka*                      *re ne re sa rêka.*

III. CI. I. o *na a sa rêka*                      *ba na ba sa rêka.*

(1)

See para. 253 p. 71 above.

(2)

Present tense perfect manner in the case of stative verbs.

268. (3) ne + Future Tense of Participial Mood.

Singular Plural.

I. ke ne ke se nke<sup>(1)</sup> ke rēka re ne ro se nke re rēka

III.Cl.I.o na a se nka a rēka ba na ba se nka ba rēka.

269. (4) ne + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Potential Mood.

Singular Plural.

I. ke ne nka se ka ka rēka re ne re ka se ka ra rēka

III.Cl.I. o na a ka so ka a rēka ba na ba ka so ka ba rēka

270. (5) ne + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Habitual Mood.

Singular Plural.

I. ke ne ko tle ke se ke ke reke re ne ro tle re se ke re reke

III.Cl.I.o na a tla a se ke a reke ba na ba tla ba se ke ba reke

B. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo.271. (1) tla bo + Present Tense of the Participial Mood.

Singular Plural.

I. ke tla bo ke sa reke re tla bo re sa reke

III.Cl.I. o tlaa bo a sa reke ba tlaa bo ba sa reke.

272. (2) tla bo + Immediate Past Tense<sup>(2)</sup> of Participial Mood.

Singular Plural.

I. ke tla bo ke sa rēka re tla bo re sa rēka

III.Cl.I.o tlaa bo a sa rēka ba tlaa bo ba sa rēka.

273. (3) tla bo + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Potential Mood.

Singular Plural.

I. ke tla bo nka se ka ka rēka. re tla bo re ka se ka ra rēka

III.Cl.I.o tlaa bo a ka se ka a rēka. ba tlaa bo ba ka se ka ba rēka.

(1) Instead of the verb nka the verb betla may be used.

(2) Present tense in the case of stative verbs.

274. (4) tla bo + Participial Mood-forms of the Present Tense of the Habitual Mood.<sup>(1)</sup>

I. ke tla bo ke tle ke se ke ke reke

III.Cl.I.e tlaa bo a tla a se ke a reke.

D. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ka bo.

275. (1) ka bo + Present Tense of the Participial Mood.

Singular

Plural.

I. nka bo ke se reke

re ka bo re sa reke

III.Cl.I. a ka bo a sa reke

ba ka bo ba sa reke

276. (2) ka bo + Immediate Past Tense<sup>(2)</sup> of the Participial Mood.

Singular

Plural.

I. nka bo ke sa rōka

re ka bo re sa rōka

III.Cl.I. a ka bo a sa rōka

ba ka bo ba sa rōka.

277. There is also a more compound form of the negative of the tense noticed in the above paragraph. This is formed by ka bo followed by the negative of the deficient verb ka, and this in turn followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. nka bo ke se ka ka rōka

a ka bo a se ka a rōka.

278. (3) ka bo + Remote Past Tense of the Participial Mood.<sup>(1)</sup>

I. nka bo ka na ka se ka ka rōka

III.Cl.I.e ka bo a na a se ka a rōka.

279. (4) ka bo + Future Tense of Participial Mood.<sup>(1)</sup>

I. nka bo ke se nke<sup>(3)</sup> ke rōka

III.Cl.I.a ka bo a se nke a rōka.

(1) Since the forms of this tense are long, only the singular is given; the plural forms are easily deduced.

(2) Cf. footnote (2) p. 88 above.

(3) See footnote (1) p. 89 above.

280. (5) ka bo + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Potential Mood. (1)

I. nka bo nka se ka ka rêka

III.Cl.I. a ka bo a ka se ka a rêka.

281. (6) ka bo + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Habitual Mood. (1)

I. nka bo ke tle ka se ke ke reke

III.Cl.I. a ka bo a tla a se ke a reke.

N.B. Not infrequently ka bo is shortened into koo. Thus tense (1) in paragraph 267 above is sometimes heard as follows:

Singular

Plural.

I. ntoç ke rêka

re koo re rêka

II. O koo O rêka

Lo koo Lo rêka

III.Cl.I. a koo a rêka

ba koo ba rêka.

This shortening of ka bo is found in all compounds of ka bo in both the positive and the negative conjugations.

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(1)

Cf. footnote (1) p. 90 above.



CHAPTER VII.The Construction of Conditional Clauses.

282. Both Crisp<sup>(1)</sup> and Woolley and Brown<sup>(2)</sup> treat of a 'Conditional Mood' in Tswana. Upon closer scrutiny, however, it is evident that what they call a 'Conditional Mood' is but one of the many ways of constructing conditional clauses in Tswana. In the following paragraphs of this chapter we shall notice how conditional clauses may be constructed by using certain conjunctions and conjunctives followed tenses of the various moods that have been discussed in chapters III to VI above.

283. The Indicative Mood in Conditional Clauses.

The conjunctive *ha e le go re* (lit. if it being to say, if) followed by a tense of the indicative mood is used in the construction of a conditional clause. If the result of the action or the state named by the verb of the conditional clause is reasonably definite, that is, not hypothetical, then the verb of the main clause is expressed in the indicative mood.

e.g. *Ha e le go re o tlaa heta ka tsela e, re tla mōna* (if he will pass by this road, we shall see him).

*Ha e le go re ba bona sebaka, ba tlaa tsamaya* (if they see a way through, they will go).

284. The Potential Mood in Conditional Clauses.

The present tense of the potential mood can be used in a conditional clause introduced by the conjunctive *ha e le go re*. If the result of the action or state named by the verb of the conditional clause is reasonably definite, then the main verb is expressed in the indicative mood.

e.g. *Ha e le go re o ka ntswa, ke tla go abela* (if you can help me,

(1) See "Seswana Grammar".

(2) See "Seswana Grammar" p. 131.

I shall pay you).

Ha e le go re ba ka tla, re tla ba bolélêla (if they can come, we shall tell them).

285. If the result of the action or state named by the verb of the conditional clause is doubtful or hypothetical, then the verb of the main clause is expressed in the present tense of the potential mood.<sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Ha e le go re O ka nthosa nka go duêla (if you can help me, I can pay you).

Ha e le go re ba ka tla, re ka ba bolélêla (if they can come, we can tell them).

#### 286. The Habitual Mood in Conditional Construction.

The present tense of the habitual mood can be used in a conditional clause introduced by the conjunctive ha e le go re. The verb of the main clause is expressed in the indicative mood if the result is definite, or in the present tense of the potential mood if the result is doubtful.

e.g. Ha e le go re O tlo O bué jalo, O tla tšhwarwa (if you usually talk like that, you will be arrested).

Ha e le go re ba tla ba mame, ba tla no itse (if they usually see him, they will know him).

287. If the result of the action or state named by the verb of the conditional clause is doubtful, then the main verb is expressed by the present tense of the potential mood.

e.g. Ha O tlo O sire jalo, O ka bolawa ke batho (if you usually act that way, you can be killed by people).

#### 288. The Subjunctive Mood in Conditional Clauses.

The past tense of the subjunctive mood may be used in conditional clauses after the conjunction hala or hale. The main predicate is

rendered in one or the other of the compound tenses formed with the  
(1) Cf. "Suda-Sotho" p. 203 para. 424.

deficient verb ka bo. (I)

e.g. Hala ka róbala ba ka bo ba mpolaiile (If I had slept they would have murdered me).

Hala tsa se ka tsa ja mabêlê a matala di ka bo di se ka tsa šwa (Had they not eaten green kaffir corn, they would not have died).

N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that there is a certain amount of uncertainty in the condition signified by the verb of the conditional clause.

### 289. The Participial Mood in Conditional Clauses.

Tenses of the participial mood, or participial mood-forms of the present tenses of the potential and habitual moods, preceded by the conjunction ka (if, when) or its derivate leha (although) are employed in the formation of conditional clauses. If the result of the action or state named by the verb of the conditional clause is reasonably sure, then the verb of the main clause is expressed in the indicative or the habitual moods.

e.g. Ha nariga a tešwa bojang bo a šwaba (When winter sets in the grass withers).

Ka O tšhwara molelô O tla ša (if you handle fire you will burn). Ha dikokwana di bone phakwe di tle di tshabele kwa go matšô (When the chicks have seen a hawk, they usually run to their mother). Ha ba ka nhlusa ke tla šwetsa ka bonakô (If they can help me, I shall finish quickly).

Ha O tlo O bue jalo O tla tškwarwa (If you usually talk in that way, you will be arrested).

290. If the result of the action or state signified by the verb of the conditional clause is doubtful, the verb of the main clause is rendered

(I) See para. 226 et seq. above.

in the potential mood.

e.g. *Ha O ka nthusa nka šwetsa ka bonakō*(If you can help me,I can finish quickly).

*Lcha a iphitlhibile ba ka mōna*(Even if he has hidden himself, they can see him).

291. The conjunction *ha*(if,when)and the conjunctive *e bo e le gore*(lit. it is to say) or its future form *e tlaa bo e le gore*(lit. it will be to say) are often used correlative in conditional clauses in which the outcome of the action or state named by the verb of the conditional clause is fairly certain.

e.g. *Ha bojang bo šwaba e bo e le gore mariga e tsene*(When the grass withers,then winter has set in).

*Ha Pulane a sa tla dipinang e tlaa bo e lo gore o a lwala*(If Pulane has not come to the dance,it will be because she is ill).

#### Compound Tenses in Conditional Clauses.

292. In paragraph 250 above we have noticed the use of tense A.(3)(*ne + Future Tense of Participial Mood*)in the main clause,and tense A.(1) (*na + Present Tense of Participial Mood*)in the conditional clause introduced by *ha*(if,when).

e.g. *Ke ne ke tlaa rēka ntlo ha ke ne ke na le rādi*(I would buy a house if I had money).

*Ba na ba tlaa ya kwa košatō ha pula e ne e sa ne*(They would go to the chief's place if rain were not falling).

293. In paragraph 232 above the use of tense A.(4)(*ne + Participial Mood-form of the Present Tense of the Potential Mood*)in the main clause and tense A.(1) or tense A.(2) in the conditional clause has been noticed.

e.g. *Mariga a na a ka naa bogalo ha pula o ne o nolō*(The winter could be severe if the rain had fallen).

Ngwana o na a ka nōna ka a na a ja sentlō (The child could get fat if it fed properly).

U.S. It is possible also to use tense A.(4) in the conditional clause.

e.g. Ke ne nka itumela ka e na a ka nthusa(I would be glad if he could help me).

294. In paragraph 248 above we have noticed the use of tense C.(1) ( ka bo + Present Tense of the Participial Mood)in the main clause, and tense A.(1) or tense A.(2) introduced by the conjunction ka(if,when)in the conditional clause.

e.g. Nka bo ke rēka pitse ba ke ne ke na le madi(I would buy a horse if I had money).

A ka bo a Go bolōlōla ha rragwē a na a šulo(He would tell you if his father were dead).

295. In paragraph 251 above the use of tense C.(2)(ka bo + Immediate Past Tense of Participial Mood)in the main clause with tense A.(1) or tense A.(2)introduced by the conjunction ka(if,when)in the conditional clause.

e.g. Nka bo ke mone ka a na a bolega ntšā(I would have seen him if he was killing the dog).

A ka bo a Go bokeletse ha rragwē a na a šulo(He would have told you if his father were dead).

N.B. The past tense of the subjunctive mood may also be used in this kind of conditional clause.

e.g. Dintša di ka bo di mo lomile bala tea mōna(The dogs would have bitten him if they had seen him).

296. From the examples given in paragraphs 292 to 295 above it will be observed that the circumstances upon which the fulfilment of the action or state named by the verb of the conditional clause depends are doubtful or hypothetical.

## CHAPTER VIII.

The Construction of Relative Clauses.

297. Some Bantu grammarians treat of a relative mood or even a relative conjugation.<sup>(1)</sup> In Tšwana, however, there is no distinct relative mood nor is there a relative conjugation. A relative clause there is, but it is in the participial mood. In the place of the subjectival concord of the participial mood, use is made of the so-called relative concord.<sup>(2)</sup> But this kind of construction is found only when the antecedent is also the subject of the relative clause. A verb in the relative clause ends in -ng. If, however, there is a deficient verb in the clause, the ending -ng is suffixed to it rather than to the subordinate predicate.

298. The Relative Concord.

Strictly speaking there is no relative concord in Tšwana. What we shall call the relative concord in this chapter is really a combination of the forms of the demonstrative pronouns of the first set followed by the subjectival verb concords of the present tense of the indicative mood. Both the forms of the demonstrative pronouns and of the subjectival concords agree with the antecedent.

299. Table of Relative Concords.

|        | Singular | Plural. |
|--------|----------|---------|
| Cl. I. | yo o     | ba bu   |
| 2.     | o o      | e e     |
| 3.     | jo lo    | a a     |
| 4.     | so se    | tse di  |

(1) Cf. Junod's "Elementary Grammar of the Tšonga-Shangana Language".

(2) The term "relative concord" is as unquitted to Tšwana as the term "relative pronoun" used by Mookéy and Brown in "Sotho Grammar." Its use here is merely tentative. Cf. Prof. Lestrade's "Locative-Class Nouns and Formatives in Sotho."

| Singular | Flural.              |
|----------|----------------------|
| 5. e e   | taa di               |
| 6. lo lo | taa di               |
| 7. jo bo | (a a) <sup>(I)</sup> |
| 8. go go | (a a) <sup>(I)</sup> |

N.B. Since there are no distinctive forms of demonstrative pronouns in Tswana for the first and second persons, the forms of the third person class I are used in these persons and are followed by forms of the subjectival verb concords of the first and second persons respectively.

e.g. 1st pers. (nna)yo ke (rona) ba re  
 2nd pers. (wêna)yo o (Lona) ba Lo.

300. The construction of relative clauses may be studied under the following headings: <sup>(2)</sup>

(1) When the antecedent is also the subject of the relative clause.

(2) When the antecedent is virtually the object of the verb of the relative clause.

(3) When the antecedent is brought into possessive relationship with the relative predicate.

(4) When the antecedent is brought into copulative relationship with the relative predicate.

(5) When the antecedent is brought into adverbial relationship with the relative predicate.

When the Antecedent is also Subject of the Relative Predicate.

301. When the antecedent is also the subject of the verb of the relative clause, it is linked up with that predicate by the relative concord.

e.g. Batho ba ba ratang pakô ba bantsi (People who love praise are many).  
 Ngwana yo o utlwang batsadi ba gagwê o tlaa tshegôhala (A child who obeys his parents will be blessed).

(1) Cf. footnote (1) p.3 above.

(2) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p.290 para.712.

Ntša e e bogolang ga se e e lonang(The dog that barks is not that which bites).

Lokwalô lo lo nong lo lathegile lo bonwe(The book which was lost is found).

Podi e e ka bong e tihabilwe e šule(The goat that would have been slaughtered is dead).

Lona ba Lo dutseng hao, tlang kwano(You who are sitting there come here).

302. If the antecedent is a copulative formed from an absolute pronoun, then the corresponding subjectival concord is used without the demonstrative pronoun preceding it. (1)

e.g. Ke nna ke bojaleng ntša ya Gago(It is I who have killed your dog).

Ke Lona Lo re dileng(It is you who have delayed us).

When the Antecedent is virtually the Object of the Relative Predicate.

303. In this case there is no relative concord used(this is also true of the following kinds of relative construction).The antecedent is followed by the simple demonstrative which agrees with it;then follows the subject of the relative construction which may be expressed or merely indicated by its subjectival concord.In the relative construction the antecedent is represented by the objectival concord which,as usual,must come immediately before the verb stem.

e.g. Batho ba (nna)ke ba bōnang zu nakgaa(The people whom I see are Europeans).

tsela e (Lona)Lo e tsamayang e mokong(The road which you walk is steep).

Egatsa e bana ba e tškaraganetseng e tletse tsiš(The bag which the children are holding together is full of locusts).

(1) Cf. "Suid-Sethe" p.169 para.427.



304. There are rare instances when the antecedent is represented in the relative clause by an absolute pronoun rather than by an objectival verb concord.

e.g. Mosadi yo o nnelong ōma ke ōra o ntehisitaeng( The woman whom you have given me it is she has caused me to err).

When the Antecedent is brought into possessive relationship with the Relative Predicate.

305. In this construction, as in the foregoing, the antecedent is followed by the simple demonstrative pronoun, while in the relative clause it is represented by a possessive formed from the corresponding absolute pronoun. The subject of the relative clause precedes the possessive representing the antecedent and the verb after it.

e.g. Eatho ba rasimo a bōna a nang lo mherō ba bobōu( People whose lands have weeds are lazy).

Haga e bojang jwa yōna bo botala ke ya rakgoa(The veid the grass of which is green is the Europeans'.)

Setlhare se matlhare a šōna a sa tlhoithorengeng ke sa matlhare(The tree whose leaves do not fall off is an olive(tree)).

306. Instances there are when the possessive qualifies a substantive that is object of the relative clause and not the antecedent. <sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Eatho ba ke bōhang matlo a bōna ke Matetole(The people whose houses I see are the Matetole).

Setlhare se ba jang loungō lwa šōna ke sa ga rrē(The tree whose fruit they eat is my father's.)

Xgomo o lo bolalleng nanane ya yōna ke ya ga Pula( The cow whose calf you have killed is Pula's.)

(1) Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p.170 para.459.

When the Antecedent is brought into Copulative relationship with the relative predicate.

307. In this construction the antecedent is followed by the simple demonstrative pronoun agreeing with it; this in turn is followed by the subject of the relative clause (which may or may not be expressed) and the verb (which is, of course, passive) is followed by a copulative formed from an absolute pronoun referring to the antecedent.

e.g. Ntša e ke lomilweng ke yōna ke ya Gago (The dog by which I have been bitten is yours).

Mmutlwa o ke tshabilweng ke ōna ke wa mooka (The thorn by which I have been pricked is of a mimosa (tree)).

Thipa e o segulweng ke yōna ke ya Gago (The knife by which he is cut is yours).

When the Antecedent is brought into Adverbial Relationship with the Relative Predicate

308. This construction is much the same as the fore-going, the only difference being that instead of a copulative, the locative formative <sup>(1)</sup> go, or the conjunctive formative le (with), or the instrumental formative ka (with) or other adverbial formatives precede the absolute pronoun agreeing with the antecedent.

309. (a) Locative relationship.

Mosikane yo ke go romang kwa go ōna ke Mosala (The boy to whom I am sending you is Mosala).

Motse o re yang kwa go ōna ke wa BaKgatlā (The village to which we are going is the BaKgatlā's.)

Thota e lo ehang mo go yōna ke ya bogologolo (The hill on which you are standing is an old one).

(1) Depending on the force of the verb, go may mean to whom, from whom, etc

Moza e Tlalê o agileng ha go yêna ke ya Tlkwê (The river near which Tlalê lives is the Sand (river)).

U.B. It will be observed from the above examples that the locative formative, go, is often preceded by the locative adverb kwa or by the locative-class prefix ka or mo.<sup>(1)</sup>

310. (b) Conjunctive relationship.

Mosikane yo ke tsamayang le êna ke nnake (The boy with whom I am walking is my younger brother).

Mosadi yo ke buang le êna ke Motshidisi (The woman with whom I am speaking is Motshidisi).

311. Instead of the conjunctive formative le, the proclitic na- may be used. This formative is prefixed to the short form<sup>(2)</sup> of the absolute pronoun from which the adverb is formed.

e.g. Eanna ba ke tlaa tsamayang nabô ba tlaa tia ka mošô (The men with whom I shall go will come to-morrow).

Mosetsana yo Lo rakaneng naê kwa toropong ke Modiegi (The girl with whom you met in town is Modiegi).

Lokwalê lo ba tlaa tleng malê ka mošô ke lwa ga Plaatje (The book which they will bring to-morrow (lit. with which they will come to-morrow) is Plaatje's).

312. (c) Instrumental relationship.

Thipa e a mo tshabileng ka yêna ke ya mo (The knife with which he has stabbed him is mine).

Kgwedi e re bônang pula ka yêna ke ya Sedimothole (The month during which we get rain is that of December).

Taela o ba tsamayang ka yêna e motšopodia (The road by which they are travelling is round-about).

<sup>(1)</sup>Cf. Prof. Lestrade's "Locative-class Nouns and Formatives in Sotho".

<sup>(2)</sup>This short form is also used to form possessives from absolute pronouns.

## 313. (d) Manner-comparison Relationship.

Pitso e e tahogang jaaka ya Gago ke ya ga Kgomo (The horse that runs like yours is Kgomo's).

Ntlo e ya mo e ka na ka yona ke ya ga Mmutlê (The house as big as which mine is, is Mmutlê's).

## 314. (e) Positional Relationship.

Sethare se nōnyane e letang mo godimo ga šona ke ea mooka (The tree on top of which a bird is singing is a mimosa).

Tafole e katse o dutseng ka ha tlase ga yona ke ya ga mmê (The table under which the cat is sitting is my mother's).

Ntlo e baetseng na tlase ga yona e agalwe ka dikgoro (The house near which they are sitting is built of wood).

315. Examples of the Correlative use of the conjunctive hašhera and gōna (there/and) ka ha, ..., ka gōna (i.e. ha and gōna preceded by the adverbial conjunctive kušhera and after relative clauses).

Ke tla šwela ka ha tla šwelang gōna (I shall die where they will die).

Re itse na re emisitšeng gōna (We know where we have stopped).

Dira tirō e ka ha ke Go rutšeng ka gōna (Do this work in the manner I have taught you).

Ga re itse ka ha re ešeng ka gōna mo mahokong a (We do not know the manner in which we stand in regard to this matter).

N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that ha, ..., gōna signify the "place where" while ka ha, ..., ka gōna signify "manner in which".

CHAPTER IX.The Progressive and Exclusive Implications.

316. We have observed in Chapter II, above that some moods may be sub-divided into three implications viz. the simple, progressive and exclusive implications. In Chapters III to VI above examples of the conjugation of the verb in the simple implication have been given. In this Chapter we shall notice briefly the conjugation of the verb in the progressive and exclusive implications. Since fuller forms of the various tenses of the different moods have been given in the simple implication, it will not be necessary to repeat them here; nor will it be necessary to make translations of the examples given since these are easily deduced from the corresponding tenses of the simple implication above. Representatives of the various tenses will, therefore, be given for the first person singular only.

The Progressive Implication.

317. The progressive implication is derived from the corresponding simple implication form by inserting the progressive verbal auxiliary *sa* (still) between the subjunctival verb concord and the verb stem. Another way of forming the progressive implication is by using *ntae* the perfect form of the verb *na* (sit) as a deficient verb to signify continuity. The auxiliary *sa* is then inserted between the concord and the stem of this deficient verb. The subordinate predicate is usually in the participial mood or in a participial mood-form of the present tenses of the potential and habitual moods. (1)

The Indicative Mood.

318. The Present Tenses: (1) Continuous: (2) *Ke sa rēka* or *Ke sa ntae ke rēka.*  
 (1) Perfect: *ke sa robetae* or *ke sa ntae ke robetae.*

(1) Crisp calls this implication the Emphatic Progressive Mood.

The Immediate Past Tense: ke sa rekile or ke sa nntse ke rekile (I have still bought).

The Future Tense: Ka sa nntse ke tlaa rêka (I shall still buy).

218. It will be observed from the above examples that (1) there is no remote past tense form in the progressive implication; (2) the verbal auxiliary ga cannot be used alone (without the deficient verb nntse) in the future tense of the indicative mood.

319. The present and immediate past tenses of the indicative mood (progressive implication) may be used in an idiomatic manner to signify "for a while" or "for the time being". (3)

e.g. Ke sa itapolosa or Ke sa nntse ke itapolosa (I am resting for a little while).

Barutwara ba sa talle go bôna batsadi ba bôna (The pupils have come to see their parents for a short while).

#### The Potential Mood.

320. In the potential mood it is not possible to use ga alone. The subordinated predicate is in the participial mood-form of the present tense of the potential mood.

e.g. Ke sa nntse nka rêka (I can still buy).

#### The Habitual Mood.

321. As in the potential mood above so in the habitual mood it is not possible to use ga alone. The subordinate predicate is a participial mood-form of the present tense of the habitual mood.

e.g. Ke sa nntse ke tle ke reke (I am still in the habit of buying)

#### The Participial Mood.

322. Present Tenses: (a) Continuous: (2) (na) (4) Ke sa rêka or Ke sa nntse ke rêka. (b) Perfect: (1) (ka) (4) Ke sa robeitse or Ke sa nntse

(2) The continuous idea of the progressive implication precludes the existence of the indefinite manner.

(3) cf. "Soid-Sotho" p.174 para.445.

(4) See para.154(11) p.61 above.

ke robeise.

Immediate Past Tense: Ke sa rekile or Ke sa nntse ke rekile.

Future Tense: Ke sa nntse ke tlaa rêka.

N.B. In the participial mood, as in the indicative mood, (1) there is no remote past tense in the progressive implication and (2) the verbal auxiliary sa cannot be used alone in the future tense of the participial mood.

323. As we have stated in paragraph 156 above, in the subjunctive mood there is only one implication viz. the simple implication.

#### Compound Tenses.

N.B. The letters and the figures used in the following paragraphs correspond with those used in numbering tenses in Chapters V and VI above.

#### 324. A. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ne.

(1) Ke ne ke sa rêka or Ke ne ke sa nntse ke rêka (I was still buying).

(2) Ke ne ke sa rekile or Ke ne ke sa nntse ke rekile (I had still bought).

(3) Ke ne ke sa nntse ke tlaa rêka<sup>(1)</sup> (I was still going to buy).

(4) Ke ne ke sa nntse nka rêka (I could still buy).

(5) Ke ne ke sa nntse ke tlo ke reko (I was still in the habit of buying).

#### 325. B. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo.

(1) Ke tla bo ke sa rêka or Ke tla bo ke sa nntse ke rêka (I shall still be buying).

(2) Ke tla bo ke sa rekile or Ke tla bo ke sa nntse ke rekile (I shall still have bought).

(3) Ke tla bo ke sa nntse nka rêka (I shall still be able to buy).

(4) Ke tla bo ke sa nntse ke tlo ke reko (I shall still be in the habit of buying).

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<sup>(1)</sup> See N.B. (2) above.

326. C. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ka bo.

- (1) Nka bo ke sa rōka or Nka bo ke sa nntse ke rōka(I would still be buying).
- (2) Nka bo ke sa rekile or Nka bo ke sa nntse ke rekile(I would still have bought).
- (4) Nka bo ke sa nntse ke tlaa rōka<sup>(1)</sup>(I would still be going to buy).
- (5) Nka bo ke sa nntse nka rōka(I would still be able to buy).
- (6) Nka bo ke sa nntse ke tlo ke rōka(I would still be in the habit of buying).

The Negative Conjugation of the Progressive Implication.

327. The negative tenses of the progressive implication are formed either by the help of the auxiliary sa alone or by sa and the negative of the verb tlohla(spend the day)which,when used as a deficient verb signifies "no longer".The subordinate predicate is either in the participial mood or in a participial mood-form of the present tenses of the potential and habitual moods.As in the corresponding tenses of the positive conjugation of this implication,there are instances when the auxiliary sa cannot be used alone.

The Indicative Mood.

328.Present Tenses: (i)Continuous: ga ke sa rōka or ga ke tlohe ke rōka(I no longer buy).

(ii)Perfect: ga ke sa robetse or ga ke tlohe ke robetse(I am no longer asleep).

329.Immediate Past Tense: ga ke sa rekile or ga ke tlohe ke rekile ( I no longer have bought).

330.Future Tense: ga nke ke tlohla<sup>(2)</sup> ke rōka(I shall no longer buy).

(1) See N.E.(2) p.106 above.

(2) Because the negative of the deficient verb nka has been used here, it is not necessary to use the negative of the deficient verb tlohla,...hence the positive form.



The Potential Mood.

331. Present Tense: ga ke tlhole nka rêka(I can no longer buy).

The Habitual Mood.

332. Present Tense: ga ke tlhole ke tle ka reke(I no longer am in the habit of buying).

The Participial Mood.

333. Present Tense:(1)Continuous: ke sa tlhole ke rêka.

(11)Perfect: ke sa tlhole ke robetse.

334. Immediate Past Tense: ke sa tlhole ke rekilo.

335. Future Tense: ke se<sup>(I)</sup> nke ke tlhola ke tlas rêka.

Compound Tenses.

336. A. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ne.

(1) Ke ne ke sa tlhole ke rêka(I was no longer buying).

(2) Ke ne ke sa tlhole ke rekile(I had no longer bought).

(3) Ke ne ke sa tlhole ke tlas rêka(I was no longer going to buy).

(4) Ke na ke sa tlhole nka rêka(I was no longer able to buy).

(5) Ke ne ke sa tlhole ke tle ke reke(I was no longer in the habit of buying).

337. B. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo.

(1) Ke tla bo ke sa tlhole ke rêka(I shall no longer be buying).

(2) Ke tla bo ke sa tlhole ke rekile(I shall no longer have bought).

(3) Ke tla bo ke sa tlhole nka rêka(I shall no longer be able to buy).

(4) Ke tla bo ke sa tlhole ke tle ke reke(I shall no longer be in the habit of buying).

338. C. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ka bo.

(1) Ka bo ke sa tlhole ke rêka( I would no longer be buying).

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(1) The sa used with the tenses of the participial mood negative should not be confused with the progressive implication auxiliary sa. The former is the usual negative formative of the participial mood. See para. 215 p. 71 above. For sa becoming se cf. para. 213 p. 73 above.

(2) Nka bo ke sa tlhole ke rekile(I would no longer have bought).

(4) Nka bo ke sa nke ke tlhōla ke tlaa rêka(I would no longer be going to buy).

(5) Nka bo ke sa tlhole nka rêka(I would no longer be able to buy).

(6) Nka bo ke sa tlhole ke tle ke reke(I would no longer be in the habit of buying).

#### The Exclusive Implication.

339. The exclusive implication is derived from the corresponding simple implication by using the perfect of the verb sala(remain)viz. setse as a deficient verb signifying "now", "already". Tenses of this implication are, therefore, compound tenses. The subordinate predicate is in the participial mood or in a participial mood-form of the present tenses of the potential and habitual moods.

#### The Positive Construction.

##### The Indicative Mood.

340. Present Tense: (1)Indefinite: Ke setse ke rêka(I am now buying).

(ii)Perfect: Ke setse ke rototse(I am already asleep).

341. Immediate Past Tense: Ke setse ke rekile(I have already bought)

342. Future Tense: Ke setse ke tlaa rêka(I shall soon buy).

343. (1) It will be observed from the above examples that there are only two moods in the exclusive implication...the indefinite and the perfect.

(2) In the future tense of the indicative mood, setse signifies "soon", "in a short time" rather than "now", "already".

##### The Potential Mood.

343. Present Tense: Ke setse nka rêka(I can now buy).

##### The Habitual Mood.

344. Present Tense: Ke setse ke tle ke reke(I am now in the habit of buying).

The Participial Mood.

345. Present Tense: (1) Indefinite: Ke setse ke rēka.

(11) Perfect: Ke setse ke robotse.

346. Immediate Past Tense: Ke setse ke rekile.

347. Future Tense: Ke setse ke tlaa rēka.

Compound Tenses.

348. A. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ne.

(1) Ke ne ke setse ke rēka (I was already buying).

(2) Ke ne ke setse ke rekile (I had already bought).

(3) Ke ne ke setse ke tlaa rēka (I was already going to buy).

(4) Ke ne ke setse nka rēka (I was already able to buy).

(5) Ke ne ke setse ke tle ke reke (I was already in the habit of buying).

349. B. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo.

(1) Ke tla bo ke setse ke rēka (I shall already be buying).

(2) Ke tla bo ke setse ke rekile (I shall already have bought).

(3) Ke tla bo ke setse nka rēka (I shall then be able to buy).

(4) Ke tla bo ke setse ke tle ke reke (I shall already be in the habit of buying).

N.B. In the exclusive Application there is a fifth compound tense formed with the deficient verb tla bo. This is tla bo + the verb setse followed by the future tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ha ba gōrōga ke tla bo ke setse ke tlaa rēka (When they arrive I shall already be on the point of buying).

350. C. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ka bo.

(1) Nka bo ke setse ke rēka (I would now buy).

(2) Nka bo ke setse ke rekile (I would now have bought).

(4) Nka bo ke setse ke tlaa rēka (I would now be going to buy).

(5) Nka bo ke setse nka rēka (I would now be able to buy).

(6) Nka bo ke setse ke tle ke reke (I would now be in the habit of buying).

The Imperative Construction.

351. The negative tenses of the Indicative Mood of the exclusive implication are formed (with the exception of the future tense) by the deficient verb *se* which signifies "be not yet" preceded by the negative formative *ga* and followed by the present tense of the habitual mood. Not infrequently a close *e* is inserted between the verb *se* and its concord.

352. Present Tenses: (i) Indefinite: *ga ke se ke rake* or *ga ke e se ke rake* (I am not yet buying).

(ii) Perfect: *ga ke se ke rōbale* or *ga ke u se ke rōbale* (I am not yet asleep).

353. Immediate Past Tense: *ga ke se ke rake* or *ga ke e se ke rake* (I have not yet bought) (I)

354. Future Tense: *ke setse ke sa tloho ke tlaa rōka* (I am now no longer in the position to go to buy).

N.B. The future tense is formed differently from the other tenses of the exclusive implication negative. It is formed by the deficient verb *setse* followed by the negative of the present tense of the participial mood of the verb *tloho*, and the latter is in turn followed by the future tense of the participial mood positive.

The Potential Mood.

355. The present tense of the potential mood exclusive implication is formed in much the same way as the future tense in the above paragraph with only this difference that in the latter case the subordinate predicate is in the participial mood-form of the present tense of the potential mood.

e.g. *Ke setse ke sa tloho nka rōka* (I can now no longer buy).

The Habitual Mood.

356. The present tense of the habitual mood exclusive implication is formed in the same way as the potential mood tense above save for the

(\*) The difference between this tense and the equivalent present tense in paragraph 352 above depends on the context in which it is used.

fact that the subordinate predicate of the latter is in a participial mood-form of the present tense of the habitual mood.

e.g. Ke setse ke sa tlhole ke tle ke reke(I now am no longer in the habit of buying).

357. There are alternative forms of the present tenses negative of the potential and habitual moods.

e.g. Potential Mood: Ke setse ke sa ka ke ka rēka(I can now no longer buy).

Habitual Mood: Ke setse ke tle ke se ke ke reke(I now am no longer in the habit of buying).<sup>(1)</sup>

#### The Participial Mood.

358. The Present Tenses of the participial mood are formed by the verb se followed by the present tense habitual mood.

e.g. (1) Indefinite: ke se ke reke or ke o se ke reke.

(11) Perfect: ke se ke rōbale or ke o se ke rōbale.

359. Immediate Past Tense: ke se ke reke or ke o se ke reke.<sup>(2)</sup>

360. Future Tense: ke setse ke sa tlhole ke tlaa rēka.<sup>(3)</sup>

#### Compound Tenses.

361. A. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ne.

(1) Ke ne(ke setse)ke sa tlhole ke rēka(I was no longer buying).<sup>(4)</sup>

(2) Ke ne(ke setse)ke sa tlhole ke robetse(I was no longer asleep).

(3) Ke ne(ke setse)ke sa tlhole ke tlaa rēka(I was no longer going to buy).

(4) Ke ne(ke setse)ke sa tlhole nka rēka(I was no longer able to buy).

(5) Ke ne(ke setse)ke sa tlhole ke tle ke reke(I was no longer in the habit of buying).

(1) Cf. "Suid-Sotho" p.173 para.460.

(2) See footnote (1) p.171 above.

(3) Cf. N.S. para.354 p.111 above.

(4) One has heard the verb setse used with these tenses. Since its use is not regular, we shall put it in brackets.

362. B. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb tla bo.

(1) Ke tla bo(ke setse) ke sa tihole ke rēka(I shall then be no longer buying).

(2) Ke tla bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke robetse(I shall then be no longer asleep).

(3)Ke tla bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole nka rēka(I shall then be no longer able to buy).

(4)Ke tla bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke tle ke reke(I shall then be no longer in the habit of buying)

N.B. As in the corresponding positive,<sup>(1)</sup> there is a fifth compound tense formed with the deficient verb tla bo + the negative of the participial mood of the verb tlašla followed by the future tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke tlaa rēka(I shall then be no longer on the point of going to buy).

363. C. Compound Tenses formed with the deficient verb ka bo.

(1)Kka bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke rēka(I would no longer buy).

(2)Kka bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke robetse(I would no longer be asleep)

(4)Kka bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke tlaa rēka(I would no longer be going to buy).

(5)Kka bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole nka rēka(I would no longer be able to buy).

(6)Kka bo(ke setse)ke sa tihole ke tle ke reke(I would no longer be in the habit of buying).

(1) See para. 349 N.B. above.

CHAPTER X.DEFICIENT VERBS. (1)

364. In Chapters V and VI above we have discussed the deficient verbs *ne, tla* *be* and *ka be*, and shown how they are followed by tenses of the participial mood or by participial mood-forms of the present tenses of the potential and habitual moods. In Chapter IX above we have dealt with the deficient verbs *nntse* (perfect of *nna*), *otse* (perfect of *sala*) and *tlhōla* (and its negative stem *tlhōre*) and shown how they are used in the formation of the progressive and exclusive implications. In this chapter we shall notice a few more deficient verbs found in Tšwara. We shall divide them into two groups: (a) Those that are used exclusively as deficient verbs i.e. Primary Deficient Verbs, and (b) those verbs which in addition to their use as finite verbs may be used as deficient verbs i.e. Secondary Deficient Verbs. When used as deficient verbs the latter verbs usually carry a meaning quite different from that which they carry when they are used as finite verbs.

(a) Primary Deficient Verbs.

365. ba: According to the context in which it is used this verb may mean "and", "again", "and further", "at length", "even".

The following are the chief contexts in which *ba* may be used:

(I) It may be used in the present tense of the participial mood preceded by the present tense (indefinite or continuous) of the indicative mood and followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. C *ja a ba a nwa* (He eats and he drinks).

Ha ngwana a nwa *maši, o a gola a ba a nōna* (When a child drinks milk he grows and becomes fat).

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(-), For a description of deficient verbs see para. 220 p. 75 above.

(2) The perfect form of ba(viz.bile) may be used in the indicative mood in which case it is preceded and followed by either the indefinite or the continuous manner of the present tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Ke ja nama ke bile ke nwa maši(I eat meat and I drink milk).

Re a ja re bile re a nwa(We eat and we drink).

N.B. In the place of the subjectival concords, the impersonal concord, e, may be used before the stem bile.

e.g. Re a ja e bile re a nwa(We eat and we drink).

(3) The immediate past tense of the indicative mood may precede and succeed bile.

e.g. Ba rekile ba bile ba šweditse(They have bought and they have finished).

N.B. It will be observed from the examples given in (2) and (3) above that bile may be used with present tenses as well as with past tenses.

(4) In the remote past tense of the indicative mood ba may be used followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba na ba mpha bogôbê ba ba ba mpha nama(They gave me porridge and they gave me meat).

(5) ba may be preceded by the future tense of the indicative mood and followed by the present tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ke tla mo leta a bê a tlê(I shall wait for him until he comes).

(6) The future tense(indicative mood) of ba(usually heard as bo<sup>(1)</sup>) may be used followed by the present tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ke tla bo ke mmônê(I shall at length see him).

Ba tlaa bo ba utlwê se ba se bolêlêlwang(They will at length understand what they are told).

(1)

Cf. para. 236 p. 80 above.



(7) The present tense of the potential mood of ba may be followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ha a ka tla nka ba ka mmôna (If he can come I can even see him).

(8) The present tense of the habitual mood of ba may be followed by another present tense of the habitual mood.

e.g. O tla a be a tsamae le êna (He usually even walks with him).

(9) ba may also be used in compound tenses.

e.g. Ba na ba ba ba tsamaya le êna (They at length went with him).

Re ne re bile re na le moruti (We were even with the teacher).

E tlaa bo e ba e mo itse (It will at length know him).

366. In the negative conjugation it is often the subordinate predicate that is rendered negative.

e.g. Ga ke je e bile ga ke nwe (I do not eat and I do not drink).

Ga ba ka ba mpha bogôbê e bile ga ba ka ba mpha nama (They did not give me porridge and they did not give me meat).

367. When introduced by the conjunction ha (if, when) and its derivatives,<sup>(1)</sup> the tenses noticed in (2), (3), (6), (7) and (8) above become tenses of the participial mood.

e.g. Nka nôna ha ke ja nama ke bile ke nwa maši (I can become fat if I eat meat and drink milk).

O tlo O mpolêlêlê ha ba rekile ba bile ba šweditse (You should tell me when they have bought and have finished).

368. Before closing our discussion of ba, we must notice its peculiar use to indicate that an habitual action or state is in continuous occurrence at a given time. Wookey and Brown call this use of ba the 'Progressive Mood',<sup>(2)</sup> while Crisp terms it the 'Progressive Mood (habitual)',<sup>(3)</sup>

(1) Cf. para. 184(11) p. 61 above. (2) See "Secwana Grammar" p. 134.

(3) See "Secoana Grammar"

e.g. Ke a bo ke rēka(I am buying as usual).

O a bo O tagilwe(You are drunk as usual).

Ba a bo ba tlhabile kgomo(They have slaughtered an ox as is their wont).

N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that bo is used in the present tense(continuous manner)of the indicative mood followed by a tense of the participial mood.

369. bisa: The infinitive of bisa(not to be)is used to form the negative of the infinitive mood.The subordinate verb is also in the form of an infinitive. <sup>(I)</sup>

e.g. go bisa go utlwa(not to hear).

go bisa go bōna(not to see).

370. boka: Depending on the context in which it is used,boka may mean "but after all","rather","instead".

Present Tense Indicative : MaJêrêmane a boka a hentšwe leha a gana go inêšla(The Germans are defeated although they refuse to give in).

Future Tense Indicative : Ha pula e na ke tla boka ke tsamaya ka mošô(If the rain is falling,I shall rather go to-morrow).

Present Tense Subjunctive: Ke tla lala mono gore ke bokê ke tsamaê ka mošô(I shall spend the night here so that I may rather go to-morrow).

Past Tense of Subjunctive: Ka na ka boka ka tsamaya(I did go at length).

Present Tense Potential: O ka boka wa tsamaya(You can rather go).

Present Tense Habitual : Ea na ba tla ba boke ba tsamae le êna go na le go mo tlogêla a le esi kwa gae(They used rather to go with him than leave him alone at home).

<sup>(I)</sup> Cf. para.191 p.63 above.

With Compound Tenses: Ke ne ke boka ke mmotsa hêla(I was just(for no special reason)asking him).

N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that no special mood follows after the deficient verb boka.The participial or the present or past subjunctive or the habitual mood may follow,all depending on the context in which the deficient verb is used.It is thus not possible in Tšwana to classify deficient verbs according to the mood of the subordinate predicate as Doke does in Zulu.<sup>(1)</sup>

371. bolo: Indicates "long ago" and is followed by an infinitive.

e.g. Ga ke bolo go Go êmêla(I have for long been waiting for you).

Ba na ba sa bolo go šwetsa ha ke hitlha(They had finished a long while . . . when I arrived).

N.B. It will be noticed from the above examples that the deficient verb bolo is used with the negative formatives ga(in the indicative mood) and sa(in the participial mood).

372. ka: Signifies "once","a little","for a moment".

(1) It is used in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.<sup>(2)</sup>

BaNgwato ba kile ba tlabana le BaKwena(The BaNgwato once fought with the BaKwena).

Re kile ra êtêla kwa Thaba'Ntšho(We once visited Thaba'Ntšho).

(2) In the remote past tense kile may be used with more or less the same meaning as the immediate past tense above.

e.g. Kabêlê a na a ka a nna mantsi monongwaga(Corn was for once plentiful this year).

(3) In the future tense ka(heard here as ke) may be used followed by the present tense of the subjunctive mood.

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(1) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p.187 et seq.

(2) Wookey and Brown call this tense the 'Past Tense Emphatic'.

e.g. Pana ba tlaa ke ba ikhutsê gompijeno(The children will rest a little to-day).

(4) In the present tense of the potential mood ka may be used followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Barobi ba ka ka ba itapolosa(The reapers can rest a little).

(5) In the present tense of the habitual mood ka is used followed by the same tense.

e.g. Moruti o ke a rapelele babobodi(The minister occasionally prays for the sick).

(6) In the subjunctive mood present tense ka is used followed by the same tense.

e.g. A re kê re rapêlê(Let us pray for a moment).

(7) ka is also used in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke kile ka bua le êna(I had once spoken to him).

### 373.ka used to help form negative tenses.

The deficient verb ka is used to form the negative tenses listed below:

- (1) The remote past tense of the indicative mood(See para.197 above)
- (2) The present tense of the subjunctive mood(See para.203 above).
- (3) The present tense of the imperative mood(See p.64 above).
- (4) The present tense of the potential mood(See para.207 above).
- (5) Compound tense A.(4) (See para.269 above).
- (6) Compound tense A.(5) (See para.270 above).
- (7) Compound Tense B.(3) (See para.273 above).
- (8) Compound tense B.(4) (See para.274 above).
- (9) Compound tense C.(2) (See para.277 above).
- (10) Compound tense C.(3) (See para.278 above).
- (11) Compound tense C.(5) (See para.280 above).
- (12) Compound tense C.(6) (See para.281 above).

374. mma: Signifies "let", "allow".

The following are the chief contexts in which this deficient verb is used:

(1) It is commonly used in the imperative mood followed by the present tense of the subjunctive mood. <sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Mma ke hetê(Let me pass).

Mma di nwê metae(Allow them to drink water).

(2) It may be used in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. O mma ke Go bitsa ka leina je e seng ja Gago go re'ng ? (Why do you allow me to call you by a name that is not yours ? )

(3) It may be used in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba mmile a tsamaya a sa ba duêla(They allowed him to go without paying them).

(4) It is used in the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba na ba mma a tsamaya a sa ba duêla(They allowed him to go without paying them).

(5) In the future tense of the indicative mood mma is used followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Lo tla mma a heta(You will allow him to pass).

(6) In the present tense of the subjunctive mood mma may be used followed by the same tense.

e.g. Ba batla gore Lo mmê ba hetê(They want you to allow them to pass).

(7) In the present tense of the potential mood mma is used followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. O ka mma a heta(You can allow him to pass).

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(1) See para. I62 p. 53 above.

(8) In the present tense of the habitual mood *mma* is used followed by the same tense.

e.g. Lo tlo Lo mme a heta(You usually allow him to pass).

(9) *mma* may also be used in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke *mma* a heta(I was allowing her to pass).

Ba ka bo ba *mma* O heta(They would allow you to pass).

375. In the negative conjugation, it is the deficient verb *mma* that is rendered negative. If, however, there is another deficient verb preceding it, it is the latter that is rendered negative.

e.g. O se mme a heta(Do not allow him to pass).

Ga ba nke ba *mma* a heta(They will not allow him to pass).

376. na: Signifies "always", "at all times". It is used in exhortations or entreaties. The subordinate verb is one of the participial mood tenses.

e.g. O no O besa molelô ha letsatsi le phirima(You should always make a fire when the sun sets).

Lo no Lo re kwalêla(You should always write to us).

Ba tlaa na ba re êmêla(They will always wait for us).

377. nka: Signifies "can", "will" and is used primarily in the formation of tenses of the negative conjugation.

(1) In paragraph 199 above *nka* is used in the formation of the future tense negative of the indicative mood.

(2) In paragraph 268 above *nka* is used to form the negative of tense A.(3).

(3) In paragraph 279 above the use of *nka* to form tense C.(4) is shown.

378. nta: Signifying "let" "allow", is used in much the same contexts as mma in paragraph 374 above.

Lo se ka Lwa nta a heta a sa Lo duêla (Do not allow him to pass without paying you).

Re tla nta dikgomo di ikhutsa gompjenc (We shall allow the oxen to rest to-day).

Ba ka nta a Go bolaya (They can let him kill you).

(b) Secondary Deficient Verbs.

379. The following is a list, by no means exhaustive, of finite verbs which may be used as deficient verbs. The finite meaning of a verb is given in brackets immediately after it.

aga (build): Signifies "continually", "always". It is used

(1) in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke aga ke Go thusa mme ga O nteboge (I continually help you, but you do not thank me).

(2) in the immediate pst tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Lo agile Lo mo gakolola mme a sa Lo reetse (You advised him continually without him listening to you).

(3) in the future tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Re tla aga re Lo bolêlêla boleele bo le kae? (For how long shall we always tell you).

(4) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Bana ba batla gore ba agê ba kgalemêlwa (Children want to be continually admonished).

(5) in the present tense of the potential mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ba ka aga ba Lo aketsa(They can always tell you lies).

(6) in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke aga ke kôpana le êna kwa kerekeng(I met him continually at church services).

380. atisa<sup>(1)</sup> (cause to increase): Signifies "often", "many times". It is followed by the infinitive. It may be used

(1) in the present tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Ke atisa go mmôna kwa kerekeng(I often see him at church services).

(2) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Ba atisitse go re êtêla maitsiboya(They have many a time paid us a visit in the evening).

(3) in the future tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Mariga dikgomo di tla atisa go tla gae motshegare (In winter the cattle will most of the time come home at midday).

381. batla (seek): Indicates "nearly", "on the point of"

(1) It is used in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by either the present tense of the participial mood, or the infinitive

e.g. Ke batla ke lebala/go lebala gore ka mošô ke Šontaga(I nearly forget that to-morrow is Sunday).

(2) In the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by either the present tense of the participial mood or the infinitive.

e.g. Ba batlile ba Go bôna/go Go bôna(They nearly saw you).

(3) In the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by either the present tense of the participial mood or the infinitive.

e.g. Ba na ba batla ba bolawa/go bolawa ke tau(They were nearly killed by a lion).

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(1) atisa is causative stem of ata(increase).



(4) In the present tense of the potential mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood or the infinitive.

e.g. Re ka batla re bōna/go bōna motse wa Mangaung (We can nearly see the town of Bloemfontein).

(5) In the present tense of the habitual mood followed by either the present tense of the participial mood or the infinitive.

e.g. Ke tle ke batle ke ngwêga/go ngwêga(I often am on the point of stealing away).

(6) In compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke batlile ke mmōna/go mmōna(I nearly saw him).

Lo no Lo batlile Lo mo itse/go mo itse(You nearly knew him).

382. boya(return): Signifies "again", "do next". It is used

(1) in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Lo boya Lo nkopa etšwa ke Lo hile(You ask me again in spite of the fact that I have given you).

(2) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the same tense.

e.g. Ke boile ke tsile(I have come again).

(3) in the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ka na ka boya ka bua le êna(I spoke to him again).

(4) in the future tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla boya ke tla(I shall come again).

(5) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood followed by the same tense.

e.g. O boê O tlê(You should come again).

(6) in the present tense of the potential mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ha Lo mpatla nka boya ka tla (If you want me I can come again)

(7) in the present tense of the habitual mood followed by the same tense.

e.g. Ke tle ke boe ke mo thuse (I usually help him again).

(8) in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke boile ke tsile (I had come again).

Lo ka bo Lo boile Lo mo hitlhetse ha Lo no Lo itlhaganetse  
(You would have found him again if you had hastened).

383. dulê (perfect of tšwa (come out)<sup>(1)</sup>): Signifies "for a while" and is used only in the immediate past tense.

e.g. Banna ba dulê ba sa tlhotse mo gae (The men have remained at home for a while).

N.B. The subordinate predicate used after dulê (as after tšwa) is a tense of the participial mood).

384. hitlha (arrive) Indicates "to do first" and is used "to take off abruptly,"<sup>(2)</sup> from a statement that is made.

In the following two sentences it will be observed that while the meaning is more or less the same, the statement in the second sentence is perhaps not as abrupt as in the first.

Ke tla bolêlêla mmê (I shall tell my mother).

Ke tla hitlha ke bolêlêla mmê (I shall tell my mother).

385. hitlha is chiefly used

(I) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

(1) See para. 34 (d) p. 12 above.

(2) See Bennie's "A Grammar of Xhosa for the Xhosa Speaking" p. 129.

e.g. Ke hitlhile ka mmolêlêla(I told him).

(2) in the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba na ba hitlha ba mmolêlêla(They did tell him).

(3) in the future tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla hitlha ke mmolêlêla(I shall tell him).

(4) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood followed by the same tense.

e.g. Lo hitlhê Lo ipegê kwa kgosing(You must report yourselves to the Chief or at the Chief's place).

(5) in the present tense of the potential mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Nka hitlha ka bolêlêla mmê(I can tell my mother).

(6) in the present tense of the habitual mood followed by the same tense.

e.g. Re tle re hitlhe re bolelele mmê(We usually tell our mother).

(7) in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke tle ke hitlhe ke bolelele mmê(I used to tell my mother).

386. hitlhêla(the applied stem of hitlha) Signifies "until" and is used as an infinitive followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla mo leta go hitlhêla a tla(I shall wait for him until he comes).

387. hêla(become finished) Signifies "again", "in truth".The following are the chief ways in which it is used:

(I) It is used in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

Ba hêla ba huduga mo Thaba'Ntšho(They are in truth trekking from Thaba'Ntšho).

(2) In the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ba hedile ba tsamaya ka mošô(They are in truth going to-morrow).

(3) In the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba na ba hêla ba tsamaya maabane(They did in truth go away yesterday).

(4) In the future tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Re tla hêla re tsamaya ka mošô(We shall in truth go away to-morrow).

388. lala(Lie down) Signifies "the whole night", "during the night", "yesterday". It is used

(1) in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke lala ke longwa ke matsêtsê(I am bitten by fleas all night).

(2) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by either the present tense or the immediate past tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ba letse ba longwa ke matsêtsê(They were bitten by fleas during the night).

Re letse re lemile tshimo yotlhe(Yesterday we ploughed the whole field).

(3) in the future tense of the indicative mood followed by either the present or the immediate past tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Dipholo di tlaa lala di hula(The oxen will browse all night).

Pula e tlaa lala e nelê(The rain will fall during the night).

(4) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood followed by either the present or the immediate past tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla apaya bogôbê gore ke lalê ke ja(I shall cook porridge so that I may eat all night).

Re tla itlhaganêla gore re lalê re šweditse(We shall make haste so that we should have finished by to-night).

(5) in the present tense of the potential mood followed by either the present or the immediate past tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Lo ka lala Lo bina(You can dance all night).

Nku e ka lala e tlhabilwe(The sheep can be slaughtered before the night).

(6) in the present tense of the habitual mood followed by either the present tense or the immediate past tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ba tla ba lala ba bina(They usually dance the whole night).

Nosetsana o tla a lala a tlhatšwitse dijana(A girl usually has utensils washed before the night i.e. before she retires).

(7) in compound tenses.

e.g. Lo no Lo ka lala Lo bina(You could dance the whole night).

Nka bo ke lala ke bala(I would spend the night reading).

389. nama(stretch legs): Signifies "for a while", "for the time being". It is followed by either the present tense of the participial mood or the immediate past tense of the same mood. This deficient verb is used

(1) in the imperative mood.

e.g. Nama O sa nntse(Sit down for a while).

(2) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Ba namile ba sa ile gae(They have gone home for a time).

(3) in the remote past tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Ka na ka nama ke sa reeditse(I listened for a while).

(4) in the future tense of the indicative mood.

e.g. Lo tla nama Lo sa nntse(You will sit down for a while).

(5) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Lo namê Lo sa eme(You should stand for a time).

(6) in the present tense of the potential mood.

e.g. Dipholo di ka nama di sa golotšwê(The oxen can be outspanned for a while).

390. nna(sit) Signifies "continue", "persist". This verb is used

(1) in the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke nntse<sup>(1)</sup> ke tshela(I am continuing to live).

(2) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba nnile<sup>(2)</sup> ba bua le êna(They continued to talk to him).

(3) in the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ra na ra nna ra lema(We continued ploughing).

(4) in the future tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Pula e tla nna e na(The rain will continue to fall).

(5) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood followed by the present tense of the same mood.

e.g. Ke ja gore ke nnê ke tshelê(I eat so that I may continue to live).

(6) in the present tense of the potential mood followed by the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba ka nna ba ôpêla(They can continue singing).

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(1) nntse is the stative perfect of nna...hence a present tense.

(2) nnile is the non-stative perfect stem of nna.

(7) in the present tense of the habitual mood followed by the same tense.

e.g. Ke tle ke nne ke mo thuse(I always help him).

(8) in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke tlaa nna ke mo thusa(I would continue to help him).

Nka bo ke tlaa nna ke lema(I would continue to plough).

Ba na ba nntse ba tshameka(They were continuing to play).

(9) in the infinitive.

e.g. Lo rata go nna Lo bua(You want to continue speaking).

391. sala<sup>(I)</sup> (remain) Signifies "afterwards", "during absence". It is used

(1) in the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Re setse re štšlwa ke makgoa Lo tsamaile(We were visited by Europeans during your absence.

(2) in the future tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla sala ke rōbala(I shall sleep afterwards).

(3) in the present tense of the subjunctive mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Re tla Lo kopa gore Lo salê Lo re lemêla(We shall ask you to plough for us during our absence).

(4) in the present tense of the potential mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Ha re ka tsamaya rotlhe, dikgomo di ka sala di tsōna mo masimong a rona(If we can all go, the cattle can enter our lands during our absence).

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(I) setse(the perfect stem of sala) is used in the formation of the exclusive implication of the verb. See para. 339 et seq. above.

(5) in the present tense of the habitual mood followed by the present tense of the participial mood.

e.g. Lo tlo Lo sale Lo roka(You usually remain sewing).

(6) in compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne ke tle ke sale ke lebeletse mo gae ha batsadi ba me ba se yô(I used to look after the home during the absence of my parents.

392. Another use of sala(in this case heard as sale) is to indicate an action or a state that occurred some time in the past.<sup>(1)</sup>

e.g. Ke sale ke gôrôga maabane(I arrived as long ago as yesterday).

Ba sale ba huduga mono ga re e se re ba bone(Since the time they trekked from here we have not seen them).

393. tla(come): Signifies "usually" and is used only in the habitual mood.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Ke tle ke reke nama(I usually buy meat).

Ba tla ba re etele(They usually visit us).

394. tsamaya(go,walk): The infinitive of the verb tsamaya is used in much the same way as the infinitive of the verb hitlha(arrive)<sup>(3)</sup> viz. to signify "until".The subordinate verb is in the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tla mo leta go tsamaya a tla(I shall await him until he comes). Ba na ba nna le rrabô go tsamaya a šwa(They lived with their father until he died).

395. tlhôla<sup>(4)</sup> (spend the day): Signifies "always".

e.g. Ke tlhôla ke Go bolêlêla(I always tell you).

Lo tlhôla Lo re sêba(You always back bite us).

(1) Cf. "Secwana Grammar" para.147 p.142.

(2) See para.174 p.58 above.

(3) See para.386 p.126 above.

(4) The negative stem of the verb tlhôla is used in the formation of the negative tenses of the progressive implication. See para.327 p.107 above.



N.B. It will be observed from the above examples that the verb that follows on tlohla is in the participial mood.

396. tloga<sup>(I)</sup> (go away): Signifies "soon", "in a short time", "just now".

e.g. Ke tloga ke tsamaya(I (shall)go soon).

Ea tlogile ba tsamaya(They went away after a short time).

Lo no Lwa tloga Lwa rōbala(You slept within a short time).

Le tsatsi le tlaa tloga le phirima(The sun will set within a short time).

Lo tlogê Lo tsamaê(You should go away soon).

Nka tloga ka Go raga(I can soon kick you).

Ba tla ba tloge ba rōbale(They usually sleep after a short time).

397. tšhoga(become frightened): Signifies "suddenly", "unexpectedly", "perhaps".The subordinate verb is usually in the participial mood.

e.g. Ke tšhoga a mpotsa leina ja ka(He all of a sudden asks me for my name).

Ea tlaa tšhoga a tsēna(They will see him appear/enter unexpectedly).

Re tšhogile a tsēna a sa apara(We saw him appear suddenly and naked).

Ba ka tšhoga ba re êtêla gompijeno(They can perhaps pay us a visit to-day).

Ke tle ke tšhoge a setse a tlhaga(I usually see him appear unexpectedly).

398. tšoga(wake up): Signifies "to-morrow", "this morning", "the next day",The subordinate predicate is usually one of the participial mood.

e.g. Moruti o tšoga a tsamaya(The minister is going to-morrow).

Nku e tšogile e šule(A sheep is dead this morning).

Re tla tšoga re lema(We shall plough to-morrow).

---

(1) tloga is the simple intransitive reversive stem of tla(come).

Lo tlo Lo tšogê Lo tla go re thusa(You should come to help us to-morrow.)

O tlo O tšoge O robetse ha balekane ba Gago ba ile go lema

(You habitually sleep till late in the morning when your equals have gone to plough).

Nka bo ke tšoga ke simolola go a ga ha pula e ne e sa ne( I would begin building to-morrow if the rain were not falling).

Ba na ba tšoga ba hodile(They were well the next day).

399. tšwa<sup>(I)</sup> (come out): Signifies "just now", "in the mean time", "for a while". Except in the present tense of the indicative mood (where the infinitive follows) the verb that comes after tšwa is in the participial mood.

e.g. Re sa tšwa go hitlha(We have just arrived).

Ba tlaa tšwa ba sa dutse(They will sit down for a while).

Tšwang Lo sa eme(Stand for a while).

Thibogang re tšwê re heta(Give way that we may(in the mean-time)pass):

Dipholo di ka tšwa di sa ikhutsitse(The oxen can rest for a while).

\* 400. re(say): Depending on the context in which it is used this verb may mean "to want", "to intend", "to think", "to do". The following are some of the ways in which this defective verb is used as a deficient verb:

(I) In the present tense of the indicative mood followed by the same verb in the same tense of the participial mood.

e.g. E re ke re ke a êma ke tsêwa ke sedidi(When I intend to stand I feel dizzy).

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(I) See dule in para. 383 p. 125 above.

N.B. It will be observed from the above example that the first *re* is preceded by the impersonal invariable concord *e*. This construction is much more common than that in which the subjectival concord is used.

(2) In the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by a copulative.

e.g. Ke rile ke wêna O e jeleng(I thought it was you who had eaten it).

(3) In the immediate past tense of the indicative mood followed by the same verb in the past tense of the subjunctive mood.

e.g. Ba rile ka<sup>(1)</sup> re ba a mo rapêla a gana(They tried to persuade him but he refused).

(4) In the remote past tense of the indicative mood followed by the present tense(continuous manner) of the indicative mood.

e.g. O no Wa re O a gana a ba a Go kgôna(You tried to refuse but at length he prevailed upon you).

(5) In the future tense of the indicative mood followed by either the present tense(continuous manner) or the immediate past tense of the same mood.

e.g. Ha re sa e kwa moletlong wa bôna, ba tlaa re re a ikgopolêla

(If we do not attend their party, they will think we are proud).

(6) In the present tense of the habitual mood.

e.g. Ke tle ke re Matebele a thata go gaisa merahe e mengwe( I usually think that the Matebele are stronger than the other tribes).

(7) In compound tenses.

e.g. Ke ne nka re ke wêna(I would think it were you).

#### 401. The Use of *re* before Ideophones.

The defective verb *re* is extensively used before ideophones as the following sentences will show.

Mabogô a gagwê a re tlere!(His hands are covered red with blood).

(1) This *ka* is often heard as *ko* in Tswana.

Bosigo bo nntse bo re tšhoo!(The night is pitch black).

Ke bone morwa a re thušu!(I saw a Bushman appear suddenly).

#### 402. The Use of re as a Conjunction.

In the following sentences the use of re as a subordinating conjunction is shown.

Ke ja go re ke tshelê(I eat that I may live).

E re O hitlhêla pina e binwa le Wêna O e binê(When you find a song being sung sing it too i.e. When you are in Rome do as Rome does).

E rile re mmôna ra sia(When we saw him we ran away).

E ne ya re Lo mmôna Lwa sia(When you saw him you ran away).

E tlaa re ba re bôna ba sie(When they see us they will run away).

E ka re ke mmôna ka sia(When I see him I can run away).

E tle e re ke mmôna ke sie(Whenever I see him I always run away).

E ne e tle e re ke mmôna ke sie(Whenever I used to see him I used to run away).

E kile ya re ke mmôna ka sia(Once when I saw him I ran away).

N.B. It will be observed from the above sentences that re is used with the invariable impersonal concord e preceding it. It is possible, however, to substitute the subjectival concord agreeing with the subject of the subordinate clause.

e.g. O re O hitlhêla pina e binwa.....

Re rile re mmôna.....

Lo no Lwa re Lo mmôna....

Ba tlaa re ba re bôna.....etc,etc.

## CHAPTER XI.

THE COPULATIVE.

403. A Copulative is a word which does the work of a predicate, and which is formed directly from some other part of speech by pre-placing some copulative-forming element to that part of speech. <sup>(1)</sup>

Copulatives carry more or less the same significance as the English verb "to be". Copulatives as such are used only in the present tense of the indicative mood. In the other tenses of this mood, as well as in all tenses of other moods, copulative verbs take the place of copulatives. <sup>(2)</sup> It is important to notice that copulatives and copulative verbs are mutually exclusive; that is, when a copulative is used, then a copulative verb cannot be used and vice versa.

404. Copulatives may be formed from nouns, pronouns, adjectives, relatives, adverbs and conjunctions.

The Formation of Copulatives from Nouns.

405. Impersonal copulatives are formed from nouns by pre-placing the impersonal and invariable copulative formative ke <sup>(3)</sup> to a noun.

e.g.

| Singular                             | Plural.      |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|
| Class I. Ke' motho (It is a person)  | Ke' batho    |
| 2. Ke' motse (It is a village)       | Ke' metse    |
| 3. Ke' lentšwê (It is a stone)       | Ke' majê     |
| 4. Ke' setlhare (It is a tree)       | Ke' ditlhare |
| 5. Ke' kgomo (It is an ox/cow)       | Ke' dikgomo  |
| 6. Ke' lokwalô (It is a letter/book) | Ke' dikwalô  |
| 7. Ke' bojang (It is grass)          | Ke' majang.  |
| 8. Ke' go ja (It is to eat)          | ke' majô.    |

(1) Cf. "Zulu Grammar" p.199 para.502. (2) Notice, however, that in the progressive implication a verb is used even in pres.tense indicative. (3) Usually written with acute accent ˘ to distinguish it from ke(1).

Examples of use:

Rrê ke' mothudi wa ditlhako(My father is a shoemaker).

Sethlare se ke' mocka(This tree is a mimosa).

Dilô tse ke' diolo(These things are antheaps).

406.The Negative: In negative copulative expressions, the indicative mood negative formative, ga is used and is followed by se.

| e.g.  | Singular                         | Plural.     |
|-------|----------------------------------|-------------|
| Cl.I. | Ga se motho(It is not a person)  | Ga se batho |
| 2.    | Ga se motse(It is not a village) | Ga se metse |
| 3.    | Ga se lentšwê(It is not a stone) | Ga se majê. |
|       | etc.                             | etc.        |

Examples of use:

Ga se batho botlhe ba ba jang nama(It is not all people who eat meat). Ga se molato wa rona(It is not our fault).

407.Personal Copulatives: Personal copulatives may be formed by pre-placing subjectival verb concords of the first, second and (rarely) third person class I to a noun.

| e.g.       | Singular                    | Plural.      |
|------------|-----------------------------|--------------|
| I.         | Ke motšomi(I am a hunter)   | Re batšomi   |
| II.        | O motšomi(You are a hunter) | Lo batšomi.  |
| III.Cl.I.o | botlhale(He is wise)        | ba botlhale. |

N.B. It should be noticed that in the third person class I, only nouns which signify a person or persons who is/are in a certain state or who possesses a certain quality may be used to form personal copulatives. The noun motšomi, signifying agent, cannot be used in this connection.

Examples of use:

Rona re balemi(We are farmers).

Wêna O moruti(You are a teacher/minister).

Mmê o motsetse(My mother is in child confinement).

Banna ba dihohu(Men are blind).

408. The Negative: The negative of these personal copulatives is formed by placing the negative formative, ga, before the subjectival verb concord.

e.g. Ga re batšomi(We are not hunters).

Ga ba bothale(They are not wise).

409. The Copulative after Passive Verbs.

After a passive verb the copulative is often used to express the agent of the action.

e.g. Ke lomilwe ke' nōga(lit. I have been bitten, it is a snake i.e. I have been bitten by a snake).

Dinku di bolailwe ke' leru(lit. The sheep have been killed, it is lightning i.e. The sheep have been killed by lightning).

N.B. This usage is true also of copulatives formed from pronouns.

The Formation of Copulatives from Pronouns.

410. Copulatives are formed from pronouns in much the same way as they are formed from nouns, namely by pre-placing ke'(in the positive) and ga se(in the negative) to the pronoun.

(a) From Absolute Pronouns.

Modiri wa tirō eo ke' nna(The doer of that work is I).

Ke' wēna O ba boleletseng(It is you who has told them).

Ga se tšōna di jeleng nama(It is not they that have eaten the meat). Ga se jōna bo di bolaileng(It is not it that has killed them)

411. Examples of Personal Copulatives formed from Absolute Pronouns:

A O Pula ? Ee, ke' ũna.(Are you Pula ? Yes, I am he.)

A Lo bana ba ga Thipa ? Nnya, ga re bōna.(Are you Thipa's children ? No, we are not they).

412. (b) From Demonstrative Pronouns:

Ke'yo (It is this one or Here is he).

Ke'bao (It is those or There they are).

Ke'tseele (It is those yonder or There they are yonder).

Ga se tse (It is not these or They are not these).

Lokwalô ga se loo(The book is not that one).

Personal Copulatives:

Rona re ba(We are these)

Lona Lo bao(You are those).

413. More emphatic copulatives are derived from demonstrative pronouns by pre-placing copulatives formed from corresponding absolute pronouns to them. Such forms signify "it is this very one", "it is that very one", "it is that very one yonder", etc.

e.g. Ke'rona ba(Here we are in our persons).

Ke'wêna yoo(It is your very person).

Ke'tšôna tse(It is these very ones).

Ke'jôna joolé(It is that yonder selfsame).

Ga se bôna bao(It is not those selfsame)

Ga se jôna joolé(It is not that yonder selfsame).

414. (c) Copulatives formed from Enumerative Pronouns:

To form impersonal copulatives from enumerative pronouns, the enumerative pronoun is preceded by a copulative formed from the corresponding absolute pronoun.

e.g. Ke'nna nosi (It is I alone).

Ke'wêna Wesi(It is you alone).

Ke'bôna botlhe (It is they all).

Ke'Lona Loo-babedi(It is both of you).

Ga se tšôna tšosi(It is not they all).

Ga se ôna otlhe(It is not it all).



N.B. The enumerative pronominal stems -sele(other,different) and -pê (used only in the negative and signifying "no one","none") pre-place ke or ga se directly, that is, without making use of the corresponding absolute pronoun.

- e.g. Motse o ke' osele(This village is a different one).  
 Selô seo ke' sesele(That thing is a different one).  
 Kgomo e ga se esele(This ox/cow is not a different one).  
 Ga se sepê(It is nothing).  
 Ga se opê(It is no one).

415. Personal copulatives are formed from enumerative pronouns by pre-placing the corresponding subjectival concords to them. In the negative ga is placed before the concord.

- e.g. Ke nosi(I am alone). Ga ke nosi (I am not alone).  
 Lo Lotlhe(You are all). Ga Lo Lotlhe(You are not all).  
 Ba boo-babedi(They are both). Ga ba boo-babedi(They are not both).  
 Dikgomo di tšosi(The cattle are alone).  
 Dinamane ga di tšotlhe(The calves are not all).

416. (d) Copulatives formed from Qualificative Pronouns.

Impersonal copulatives are formed from qualificative pronouns in exactly the same way as they are formed from absolute and demonstrative pronouns above, viz. by pre-placing ke' in the positive and ga se in the negative.

- e.g. Ke' yo mogolo(ngwana) <sup>(I)</sup> (It is the big one(child))  
 Ke' je legolo(lentsê) (It is the big one(stone)).  
 Ke' lo lo sephara(logong) (It is the flat one(wood)).  
 Ke' sa lekgoa(selepê) (It is the white man's(axe)).  
 Ke' jwa ga Pula(bogôbê)(It is Pula's(porridge)).  
 Ga se ba bantsi(: - - - batho)(It is not many(people)).

---

(I) The nouns in brackets indicate the noun signified by the pronoun.

417. Personal Copulatives.

Only the first and second persons subjectival concords can be used to form personal copulatives from qualificative pronouns.

- e.g. Ke yo mogolo(mosimane) (I am the big one(boy)).  
 Re ba ba thata(batho) [We are the strong ones(people)].  
 Lo ba ga Morôka(basadi) (You are Morôka's(wives)).  
 Ga O yo montlê(motho) (You are not a fine one(person)).

418. (e) Copulatives formed from Interrogative Pronominal Stems -he ? (which ?), -kae ? (what race ?), -ng ? (what sex ? what ?).

These are formed in the same way as copulatives from qualificative pronouns above.

- e.g. Ngwana yo ke' ohe ? (Which child is this ?)  
 Metse e ke' ehe(Which are these villages ?).  
 Monna yoo ke' mokae ? (To what race does that man belong ?)  
 Ngwana wa Gago ke' mong ? (Of what sex is you child ?)  
 Selô seele ke' eng ? (What is that thing yonder ?)

Personal Copulatives:

- A re ke mokae ? (Of what race does he say I am ?)  
 Ba re Lo bahe ? (Which ones do they say you are ?)

The Formation of Copulatives from Adjectives.

419. Copulatives are formed from adjectives by replacing the demonstrative pronoun which constitutes the first part of the adjectival concord<sup>(1)</sup> by the subjectival concord.

- e.g. Mosadi yo montlê(A beautiful woman)  
 Mosadi o montlê(The woman is beautiful).

Further Examples:

Motho yo mogolo = Motho o mogolo(The person is big).

(1) For examples of the use of the adjectival concord in Southern Sotho see "Suid-Sotho" p.65 para.164.

|                    |  |
|--------------------|--|
| molapô o mosesane  | = molapô o mosesane(The stream is narrow).         |
| lehatshe je lentlê | = lehatshe le lentlê(The country is fine).         |
| dilô tse dintsi    | = dilô di dintsi(The things are many).             |
| hutshe e ntšho     | = hutshe e ntšho(The hat is black). <sup>(1)</sup> |
| nna yo moleele     | = nna ke moleele(I am tall).                       |
| Lona ba bašweu     | = Lona Lo bašweu(You are white).                   |

420. The negative of copulatives formed from adjectives is formed by pre-placing the negative formative *ga* to the subjectival concord.

e.g. Ga re bantsi(We are not many).

Mosese ga o moša(The frock is not new).

Polêlô ga e kgologolo(The story is not old).

421. There are instances when the subjectival concord is omitted and only the adjective(pronounced with a relatively low tone)is used.<sup>(2)</sup>

e.g. Batho ba bantsi(These people are many) instead of Batho ba ba bantsi. Lehatshe je legolo(This country is big) " " Lehatshe je le legolo.

#### The Formation of Copulatives from Relatives.

422. Copulatives are formed from relatives in the same way as from adjectives, viz. by replacing the relative connective by the subjectival concord. In the negative *ga* precedes the subjectival concord.

e.g. Pitse e e tlhaga = Pitse e tlhaga(The horse is wild).

Nama e e tala<sup>(3)</sup> = Nama e tala(The meat is raw).

Tsela e e kgôpô = Tsela e kgôpô(The road is winding).

Dinaô tse di sephara = Dinaô di sephara(The feet are flat).

Letlalô je le thata = Letlalô ga le thata(The skin/hide is not tough).

(1) The *e* of the adjectival concord is mid-open while that of the subj. concord is close.

(2) Cf. the equivalent construction in Zulu; See "Zulu Grammar" para. 517.

(3) *tala*(raw) is a relative stem while *-tala*(green) is an adjectival stem

Formation of Copulatives from the Numeral stem -ngwe. (1)

423. Copulatives may be formed from the numeral stem -ngwe (some, certain) by pre-placing ke (in the positive) and ga se (in the negative) to the stem to which is prefixed the prefix of the noun to which -ngwe refers.

e.g. Banna ba ke' bangwe ba bôna (These men are some of them).

Ke' dingwe tsa dinku tsa Lona (It is some of your sheep).

Ga se longwe lwa dikwalô tsa ga Plaatje (It is not one/It is none of the books of Plaatje).

The Formation of Copulatives from Adverbs.

424. Copulatives are formed from adverbs by pre-placing to them ke in the positive and ga se in the negative.

e.g. Ke' sentlê ha O tsile (It is good that you have come).

Ke' kwa motseng (It is in the village).

Ga se mono (It is not here).

425. By pre-placing the appropriate subjectival concord personal copulatives may be formed from locative adverbs as well as from certain adverbs of manner e.g. jaana (in this manner), jalo (in that way), jang ? (how ?), etc.

e.g. Re gauhi (We are near).

Ea kgakala (They are far).

Dipitse ga di mono (The horses are not here).

Dipuô tsa rona di jalo (Our languages are like that).

Lo jang ? (How are you?)

426. Copulatives formed with go.

The impersonal and invariable concord go may be used to form impersonal copulatives from adverbs.

e.g. go gauhi (It is near)

go kgakala (It is far)

---

(1) -ngwe (some, certain) is a numeral stem, but -ngwe (one, alone) is an adjectival stem and forms its copulatives according to para. 419 above.

Go gontlê(It is fine).

Ga go jalo(It is not so).

Ga go bosigo<sup>(1)</sup> (It is not night).

The Formation of Copulatives from Conjunctions.

427. Copulatives are formed from conjunctions by pre-placing to them ke in the positive and ga se in the negative.

e.g. Ke'gonne a tsile(It is because he has come).

Ke'ka ntlha ya gagwê re itellwe(It is for his sake that we have been beaten).

Ga se gore O a nthata(It is not that you love me).

Gompijenc ke motlhang re tlaa iteiwang(To-day is the day when we shall be beaten).

428. Here mention must be made of conjunctions which are, by their nature, copulative in force.

e.g. E ka re go tsididi(It seems as if it is cold).

E kete o a bobola(It seems as if he is ill).

E se re ba letse ba tsamaile(It should not be(that)they went away last night/yesterday).

The Conjugation of the Copulative.

Copulative Verbs.

429. We have said above that copulatives are used only in the present tense of the indicative mood, and that in other tenses of this mood, as well as in all tenses of other moods copulative verbs take their place.

There are three copulative verbs in Tswana, viz. nna, le and na.<sup>(2)</sup> All three of these verbs carry the significance of the English verb "to be".

(1) Bosigo(night) is a noun of class 7 singular which is commonly used as an adverb of time e.g. Ke hitlile bosigo(I arrived at night).

(2) The Ur-Bantu equivalents of these copulative verbs are -va, -li and -na respectively.

nna is used in all moods(except in the present tense of the participial mood)in both the positive and negative conjugations; le<sup>(1)</sup> is used only in the present tense of the participial mood in the positive conjugation only(se taking its place in the negative conjugation) while na,<sup>(2)</sup> followed by le is used in compound tenses of the copulative conjugation. 430. To illustrate the conjugation of the copulative,the adverb gôna (there,present)has been selected.The examples given are(except,of course,in the infinitive and imperative moods)of the third person class I singular;other forms are easily deduced.In the conjugation of the copulative there are the usual three implications,but there are no distinctions of manner as in the conjugation of the verb.

Example of Copulative Conjugation.

431. Infinitive Mood.

| Positive                  | Negative.  |
|---------------------------|--|
| go nna gôna (to be there) | { go se nne gôna<br>{ go bisa go nna gôna <sup>(3)</sup><br>{ go tihôka go nna gôna <sup>(3)</sup> |

432. Imperative Mood.

| Positive            | Negative.   |
|---------------------|---|
| nna gôna (be there) | { se nne gôna<br>{ O se ka Wa nna gôna <sup>(4)</sup> |

433. Indicative Mood.

| Positive                     | Negative                |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Present: o gôna(he is there) | ga a yô. <sup>(5)</sup> |

(1)Wookey and Brown include leeo among copulative verbs; but this form is probably a combination of the verb le + the shortened form of the adverb gôna viz. yô. See footnote 5 below.

(2) The same verb used in para. 222 et seq. above. (3) See para. 191 above

(4) See para. 193 above.

(5) In the negative conjugation the adverb gôna is often shortened to yô. But this happens only in the present tenses of the indicative and participial moods.

| Positive                                 | Negative.                                |
|--|--|
| Imm.Past: o nnile gôna                   | ga a nna gôna.                           |
| Rem.Past: o na a nna gôna <sup>(1)</sup> | { o na a se ka a nna gôna <sup>(2)</sup> |
|  | { ga a ka a nna gôna <sup>(3)</sup>      |
| Future: o tlaa nna gôna                  | { ga a nke a nna gôna                    |
|  | { ga a ketla a nna gôna <sup>(4)</sup>   |

434. The Subjunctive Mood.

| Positive            | Negative.                           |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Present: a nnê gôna | { a se nne gôna                     |
|                     | { a se ka a nna gôna <sup>(5)</sup> |
| P a s t: a nna gôna | { a se nne gôna                     |
|                     | { a se ka a nna gôna <sup>(6)</sup> |

435. P The Potential Mood.

| Positive               | Negative.                              |
|------------------------|--|
| Present: a ka nna gôna | { a ka se nne gôna                     |
|                        | { a ka se ka a nna gôna <sup>(7)</sup> |

436. The Habitual Mood.

| Positive                   | Negative.                                  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Present: (o tla)a nne gôna | { (o tla)a se nne gôna                     |
|                            | { (o tla)a se ke a nne gôna <sup>(8)</sup> |
|                            | ga a nka a nna gôna <sup>(9)</sup>         |

437. The Participial Mood.

| Positive                  | Negative                |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Present: a le gôna        | a se gôna               |
| Imm.Past: a nnile gôna    | a sa nna gôna           |
| Rem.Past: a na a nna gôna | a na a se ka a nna gôna |
| Future: a tlaa nna gôna   | a se nke a nna gôna     |

(1) Here the copulative verb na is followed by the copulative verb nna.

(2) See para.197 above.

(3) See para.198 above.

(4) See para.200 above.

(8) See para.210 above.

(5) See para.203 above.

(6) See para.205 above.

(7) See para.207 above.

(9) See para.211 above.

438.

Compound Tenses.A. Compound Tenses formed with ne.

| Positive                  | Negative                       |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| (1) o na a le gōna        | o na a se yō                   |
| (2) o na a nnile gōna     | o na a sa nna gōna .           |
| (3) o na a tlaa nna gōna  | o na a se nka a nna gōna       |
| (4) o na a ka nna gōna    | o na a ka se ka a nna gōna     |
| (5) o na a tla a nne gōna | o na a tla a se ke a nne gōna. |

439

B. Compound Tenses formed with tla bo

| Positive                       | Negative                            |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| (1) o tlaa bo a le gōna        | o tlaa bo a se yō                   |
| (2) o tlaa bo a nnile gōna     | o tlaa bo a sa nna gōna             |
| (3) o tlaa bo a ka nna gōna    | o tlaa bo a ka se ka a nna gōna     |
| (4) o tlaa bo a tla a nne gōna | o tlaa bo a tla a se ke a nne gōna. |

440

C. Compound Tenses formed with ka bo.

| Positive                     | Negative                          |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| (1) a ka bo a le gōna        | a ka bo a se yō                   |
| (2) a ka bo a nnile gōna     | a ka bo a sa nna gōna             |
| (3) a ka bo a na a nna gōna  | a ka bo a se ka a nna gōna (I)    |
| (4) a ka bo a tlaa nna gōna  | a ka bo a se nka a nna gōna       |
| (5) a ka bo a ka nna gōna    | a ka bo a ka se ka a nna gōna     |
| (6) a ka bo a tla a nne gōna | a ka bo a tla a se ke a nne gōna. |

The Progressive Implication.

441.

Indicative Mood.

| Positive                | Negative.             |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Present: ( o sa le gōna | ga a tlhole a le gōna |
| { o sa nntse a le gōna  |                       |

(I) The full form of this tense is : a ka bo a na a se ka a nna gōna.



## Positive

Fut.: o sa nntse a tlaa nna gôna.

442. Potential Mood.

## Positive

Pres. o sa nntse a ka nna gôna

443. Habitual Mood.

## Positive

Pres. o sa nntse a tla a nne gôna

444. Participial Mood.

## Positive

Pres. { a sa le gôna

{ a sa nntse a le gôna

Fut.: a sa nntse a tlaa nna gôna

445. Compound Tenses.

## Positive

Tense A(I): { o na a sa le gôna  
{ o na a sa nntse a le gônaTense B.(I) { o tlaa bo a sa le gôna  
{ o tlaa bo a sa nntse a le gôna.Tense C(I): { a ka bo a sa le gôna  
{ a ka bo a sa nntse a le gôna.

## Negative

ga a nka a tlhola a nna gôna.

## Negative.

ga a tlhole a ka nna gôna

## Negative

ga a tlhole a tla a nne gôna

## Negative

a sa tlhole a le gôna

{ a se nka a tlhola a nna gôna  
{ a sa tlhole a tlaa nna gôna

## Negative.

o na a sa tlhole a le gôna

o tlaa bo a sa tlhole a le gôna

a ka bo a sa tlhole a le gôna.

N.B. (1) There are no progressive implication forms of the immediate and remote past tenses of both the indicative and the participial moods

(2) To indicate continuity in the subjunctive mood, the deficient verb nna (simple stem of nntse and nnila) is used. e.g. gore a nnê a nnê gôna (so that he may continue to be there). See also para. 390 (5) above.

The Exclusive Implication.446. Indicative Mood.

Positive

Negative

Present: o setse a le gōna

ga a e se a nne gōna

447. Potential Mood.

Positive

Negative.

Present: o setse a ka nna gōna

o setse a sa ka ke a nna gōna

448. Habitual Mood.

Positive

Negative

Present: o setse a tla a nne gōna

o setse a a sa tlhole a tla a

nne gōna.

449. Participial Mood.

Positive

Negative

Present: a setse a le gōna

a e se a nne gōna.

450. Compound Tenses.

Positive

Negative.

Tense A(I): o na a setse a le gōna

o na a e se a nne gōna

Tense B(I): o tlaa bo a setse a le gōna. o tlaa bo a e se a nne gōna

Tense C(I): a ka bo a setse a le gōna a ka bo a e se a nne gōna.

451. Miscellaneous Examples of use of Copulatives and Copulative Verbs.

Ke tla nna gōna mo phuthegong(I shall be present at the meeting).

Lo nnile botlhašwa ka madi(You were careless with money).

Ba simolotsê go nna botlhale(They have begun to be wise).

O rile o tlaa leka gore a nnê gauhi(He said he would try to be near

Dilô tse ga di a nna jaaka re ne re lebeletse(These things are not as we had expected).

Moruti o rile a ka nna gōna kgotsa a ka se nne gōna(The teacher said he could be present or he could not be present).

Leha a le mogolo ditirô tsa gagwê ke tsa ngwanyana (Although he is old his actions are those of a little child).

A ka bo a se mo maragarageng ao ha a na a reetsa kgakololô (He would not be in that mass if he heeded advice.)

O setse O le monna (You are already a man).

Ke ne ke e se ke nne motho ka ntwâ eo (I was not yet a person (i.e. I was not yet born) at the time of that war).

452. The use of e as Copulative concord.

The impersonal and invariable concord e<sup>(I)</sup> is sometimes used (except in the present tense of the indicative mood) instead of the subjectival concord in copulative constructions.

e.g. Letsatsi ja ka mošô e tla nna je legolo (The day of to-morrow (it) will be a great one)

Ha Pula e le kgosi nka itumêla (If Pula is chief, I can be glad)

Leha motho yo e se mmê ke a mo tlotla (Although this person is not my mother, I respect her).

The Copulative Verbs na and le used to signify "have", "be with".

453. In Tswana the copulative verbs na and le are used (following upon one another) to signify "have", "be with"; "possess". This construction is, however, confined only to the present tenses of the indicative and participial moods.

e.g. Ke na le mosadi (I have a wife).

Dikgomo di na le dinaka (Cattle have horns).

Ha a na le êna O mmitsê (If he is with her, call him).

Leha ba na le lehatshe ga ba le leme (Although they have land they do not cultivate it).

Ha Lo se na dipitse Lo re bolêlêlê (If you have no horses you should tell us).

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(I) close e.

454. In the negative of the above tenses, the verb *le* is omitted in the indicative mood tense while in the participial mood it is replaced by *se* which precedes *na*.

e.g. *ga ke na mosadi* (I have no wife).

*Ha Lo se na dipitse Lo re bolêlêlê* (If you have no horses you should tell us).

455. In other tenses of the above moods (i.e. the indicative and participial moods), as well as in all tenses of the other moods, the copulative verb *nna* is used.

e.g. *go nna le pitse* (to have a horse)

*nna le pitse* (have a horse)

*Se nne le pitse* (do not have a horse).

*Ke tla nna le pitse* (I shall have a horse).

*Nka nna le pitse* (I can have a horse)

*Re tle re nne le pitse* (We usually have a horse).

*Ba tla ba se ke ba nne le dipitse* (They usually have no horses).

456. In paragraph 426 above we have noticed how the impersonal and invariable concord *go* may be used to form copulatives from adverbs. The same concord may be used with or without the copulative verbs *na* and *le* to signify "there is".

e.g. *Go na le batho mo tlung* (There are people in the house).

*Go na le baloi mono* (there are wizards here)

*Ga go na metse mo molapong oo* (There is no water in that stream).

(without *na le*):

*Go batho mo tlung.*

*Go baloi mono.*

*Ga go metse mo molapong oo.*

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