4

SYNTAX

Until very recently, Kannada syntax has not been thoroughly studied. In the last fifteen years, a number of doctoral dissertations have appeared (e.g., Ramanujan 1963, Nayak 1967, Ullrich 1968, Nadkarni 1970) that have treated various aspects of Kannada either in a general way or as a study of particulars of specific dialects. No thorough study of the syntax of modern Kannada has yet appeared in English, and when the first draft of this grammar was written, D. N. S. Bhatt’s kannada vaakyaagalu (1978) had not yet become available in this country. That work treats the subject of syntax in Kannada thoroughly and in a modern framework; unfortunately, because it is not in English, it is not available for reference for those knowing no Kannada. Until the appearance of this work, the task of writing about Kannada syntax in English consisted of summarizing the few existing studies; since its appearance, an adequate presentation of Kannada syntax requires a translation of his study into English. Obviously, this is not a possibility, but neither would an English summarization be sufficient.

Our solution, and we are fully aware of its deficiencies, is to present a revised version of our earlier draft of this chapter, with cross-references to Bhatt wherever pertinent. In the meantime, we await either a full translation into English of his work, so that non-Kannada speaking scholars can benefit from it, or other studies of Kannada syntax stimulated by it.

4.0.1. Word Order. The basic word order in a Kannada sentence is Subject-Object-Verb (SOV). Other orders can be found in a sentence, due to stylistic variation or for other reasons. Generally, the verb occurs as the last constituent of the sentence. However, sometimes in colloquial speech, the verb may be followed either by the subject or the object; this may be called “after-thought” word order, since the speaker may not have thought out the sentence well and wants to add something. It may also be due to extrapolation (see 4.10.1), which has the function of focusing on some element of the sentence for emphasis or other reasons.

Traditionally, a simple sentence is described as consisting of a subject and a predicate as shown below:

Subject  Predicate  Verb
avanu   paaT(h)a   oodda
he      lesson     studied
‘he studied the lesson’

4.0.1.1. Subject. The subject of a sentence is usually a noun or noun phrase. It usually occurs in the nominative case (see 2.3.1), except in certain instances where the sentence has either a psychological verb or a stative-defective verb (see 3.7), or where the sentence has the copula iru in the sense of ‘have’ (see 3.7.4). In these cases, the subject occurs with the dative case as shown below:

range tale noovatte ‘I have a headache’
to me  head aches
ringe kannada gottaa? ‘do you know Kannada?’
to you  Kannada known Q
avirig erD makL iddaare ‘he has two children’
to him two children exist
arsarig doD armane ide ‘the king has a big palace’
to the king big palace exists

The subject of a sentence is an important structural element and plays a crucial role in many grammatical processes in the language. As already noted, the subject occurs normally in the initial portion of a sentence.
It is always in agreement with the verb with respect to PNG (see 3.4.1), except in the case of those dative subjects discussed earlier.

\[
\begin{align*}
naanu & \quad \text{I} \\
nauvu & \quad \text{we} \\
niinu & \quad \text{you (sing')} \\
niivu & \quad \text{you (pl.)} \\
\text{pustaka} & \quad \text{book} \\
avaLu & \quad \text{he} \\
avaru & \quad \text{she} \\
\text{he} & \\
\text{they} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\text{oodtiini} ‘I read the book’
read
\text{oodtiini} ‘we read the book’
read
\text{oodtiin(ya)} ‘you read the book’
read
\text{oodtiini} ‘you read the book’
read
\text{oodtaane} ‘he reads the book’
reads
\text{oodtaale} ‘she reads the book’
reads
\text{oodtaare} ‘he/she/their read(s)
reads(s) the book’

When a sentence is passivized, it is the subject that is optionally moved to the object position along with the instrumental case marker in the passivized sentence (see 3.11.3).

\text{naan pustka oodde} ‘I read (past tense) a book’
\text{pustka nanninda oodalpaTtu} ‘the book was read by me’
\text{book by me read was}

Further, when a sentence contains another noun or pronoun (third person only) that is coreferential, i.e., refers to the same thing, as the subject, this noun or pronoun is replaced by the reflexive pronoun \text{taanu} (Sridhar 1979:3). This is illustrated by the following examples:

\text{av}u \quad \text{tan maneeg hoogtaane} ‘he goes to his (own) house’
\text{he his own house goes}
\text{av}u \quad \text{nang tan mane toorsda ‘he showed me his (own) he to me his own house showed house’}

In the last example, \text{tan ‘one’s own’} can only refer to \text{av}, the subject, and not to \text{nang}, the indirect object.

\text{4.0.2. Predicate.} The predicate of a sentence (in addition to the structures seen above) may consist of a noun phrase only (with no obvious verb present on the surface level). In these cases, the sentence consists of two noun phrases, one as the subject and the other as the predicate, and it is called an equational sentence; such sentences usually express the “identity” of the two nouns.

\text{av}u \quad \text{meéStru} ‘he is a teacher’
\text{he teacher}
\text{naan huDga} ‘I am a boy’
\text{I boy}

The predicate may also have only a verb:

\text{av}u \quad \text{hoogtaane} ‘he goes (somewhere)’
\text{he goes}
\text{naan bande} ‘I came’
\text{I came}

The predicate may also have a noun (phrase) and a verb as well. The two together make up the verb phrase. The object of a sentence is the noun phrase “dominated” by (affected by) the verb phrase. This can be illustrated by the following tree diagram:

\[
\text{Sentence} \\
\text{Noun phrase} \quad \text{Verb phrase} \\
\text{Noun phrase} \quad \text{Verb} \\
\text{avanu} \quad \text{pustaka} \quad \text{oodtaane} \\
\text{he} \quad \text{book} \quad \text{reads}
\]

‘he reads a book’

In this sentence there are two noun phrases, one as the subject, \text{avanu}, dominated directly by the sentence node, and one in the predicate, \text{pustaka}, dominated by the verb phrase, that is, the object of the verb.
The object of a verb generally occurs with the accusative (objective) case marker -anna (see 2.3.3), which is obligatorily present with rational nouns (see 2.1) and only optional with nonrational (neuter) nouns or noun phrases. However, when the neuter noun is marked with the accusative case marker, it has a redundant semantic nuance, namely, that it is a particular thing.

*avn meeStru nooDda
avn sinma nooDda ‘he saw a movie’
avn sinmaan nooDda ‘he saw the movie’

The basic order of a noun phrase is the same whether it be the subject or the object (or whatever) of the sentence, although they behave syntactically differently in the sentence (e.g., are marked with different case markers to indicate different functions in the sentence, etc.).

4.0.3. The noun phrase. A noun phrase is a phrase consisting mainly of a noun or pronoun, but also optionally other constituents (see 2). For example, it may consist of the following:

- a proper noun
  - raama (banda) Rama came
- a pronoun (see 2.4)
  - avn (banda) he came
- a common noun
  - huDga (banda) a boy came
- a numeral + a common noun
  - muur huDugru (bandru) three boys came
- demonstrative particle + numeral + common noun
  - iī muur huDugru (bandru) these three boys came
- demonstrative particle + numeral + adjective + common noun
  - aa naak cik manegLu (nooDde) those four small houses I saw

Sometimes a whole sentence can also occur as a relative clause before a noun, thus complicating the structure of the noun phrase even further. Some quantifiers such as ella ‘all’ and solpa ‘some’ (see 2.6.9) can also occur after the noun, as in haal-ella ‘all the milk’. In the case of plural rational nouns the quantifying adjectives also optionally take the plural suffix -ru.

- iī huDugr elru bandru ‘all these boys came’
- these boys all came
- bisī anna solpa koDi ‘give (me) a little hot rice!’
- hot rice little give

Further the noun can be followed by case markers (see 2.3), emphatic particles (see 4.11.1), emphatic markers such as kuuDa ‘also’ and maatra ‘only’, and also by the yes-no question marker -aa (see 4.3). The nominative case marker is zero, but the presence of the accusative case marker together with various noun-phrase constituents that follow the noun can be seen in the following:

- iī huDugran nooDde ‘I saw these boys’
- these boys (acc.) saw I
- iī huDugr ellam nooDde ‘I saw all these boys’
- these boys all (acc.) saw I
- iī huDugr ellam kuuDa nooDde ‘I also saw all these boys’
- these boys all (acc.) also saw I

4.0.4. The verb phrase. A verb phrase mainly consists of an optional noun phrase and a verb. As in other Dravidian languages, the verb in Kannada is much more complex than the noun. It occurs as the last constituent of the sentence or sentential clause. Verbs can conveniently be divided into finite and nonfinite forms (see 3).

A finite verb form consists mainly of the following:

- a verb stem (see 3.1) + tense marker (see 3.4.2–3) + PNG (see 3.4.1)
  - hoog- + tt + iini ‘I go’
- a verb stem + (infinitive) (see 3.2) + modal (see 3.6) hoog-a-beeku ‘must go’
- a verb stem + (infinitive) + negative (see 4.4) hoog-al-illa ‘didn’t go’
- a verb stem (past) + aspect (see 3.8) + tense + PNG hoog(i) + biT-T-e ‘definitely went’
When a modal or negative occurs, the infinitive must be attached to the verb; when aspect is chosen, the verb stem must be in the past. Also with modal or negative, PNG is absent (see 3.6.4 for exception); it is also absent when nonfinite forms of the verb occur. Other combinations of the above may occur—aspect may be followed by an infinitive and a modal, or another aspect marker, or occasionally a negative; the verb stem may be followed by various kinds of participles (see 3.5) or by the causative (see 3.9), or verbs may be conjoined in various ways. Emphatic particles (clitics, see 4.11) can also occur in the verb phrase.

4.1. Adjectives. This section concentrates on the syntax of adjectives in the noun phrase. In section 2.6, the formation and structure of adjectives was discussed, as well as the question of whether there are any ‘true’ adjectives in Kannada or whether they must be derived from other constituents. Here are some examples of noun phrases containing adjectives:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{aa } & \text{pustka } \text{oLLe pustka} \quad \text{‘that book is a good book’} \\
\text{that } & \text{book good book} \\
\text{aa } & \text{pustka } \text{oLLeedu} \quad \text{‘that book is (a) good (one)} \\
\text{that } & \text{book good one} \\
\text{ad } & \text{oLLe } \text{pustka} \quad \text{‘that (one) is a good book’} \\
\text{that one good book} \\
\text{ad } & \text{oLLeedu} \quad \text{‘that (one) is (a) good (one)} \\
\text{that one good one}
\end{align*}
\]

As we note in 2.6, adjectives may be simple (true) or derived (see 2.6.2 ff.) from nouns or verbs.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{doD } & \text{mane} \quad \text{‘a big house’} \\
\text{big } & \text{house} \\
\text{hos } & \text{daara} \quad \text{‘new thread’} \\
\text{new } & \text{thread} \\
\text{cik } & \text{pustka} \quad \text{‘a small book’} \\
\text{small } & \text{book} \\
\text{cikk-avnu} \quad & \text{‘a small male’} \\
\text{doDD-avLu} \quad & \text{‘a big (older) girl’}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{baD-avru} \quad & \text{‘poor persons’} \\
\text{hos-du} \quad & \text{‘a new one/thing’} \\
\text{ob-nu} \quad & \text{‘one male’}
\end{align*}
\]

The genitive of nouns (see 2.3.2) and pronouns (see 2.5.3.1) may also be used adjectivally:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{raaman } & \text{mane} \quad \text{‘Raman’s house’} \\
\text{nan } & \text{pustka} \quad \text{‘my book’} \\
\text{nimm } & \text{uurru} \quad \text{‘your village’}
\end{align*}
\]

4.1.1. Adjectival participles. Adjectives may be derived from verbs, in which case they are called adjectival participles (see 3.5.5-6). They consist of verb stem plus tense (present or past) plus either -oo or -a.

4.1.2. Present adjectival participle. The present adjectival participle is formed by adding -oo (from uwa; see 1.3.5.1) to the present stem of the verb (see 3.1).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{bar-oo } & \text{vaara} \quad \text{‘next week (the coming week’} \\
\text{come } & \text{week} \\
\text{nooD-oo } & \text{jaaga} \quad \text{‘the place (one is) seeing’} \\
\text{see } & \text{place} \\
\text{bar-yoo } & \text{kate} \quad \text{‘the story (one is) writing’} \\
\text{write } & \text{story} \\
\text{hoog-oo } & \text{mane} \quad \text{‘the house (to which one is) going’} \\
\text{go } & \text{house}
\end{align*}
\]

It may be noted that since English cannot freely derive adjectives from verbs, many of these adjectival participles are not equivalent to adjectives in English, but rather to phrases or clauses. There may also be some ambiguity as to whether the modified noun is the subject of the adjectival verb (baroo vaara ‘the week that is coming’) or the object (nood-oo jaaga ‘the place one is seeing’ rather than ‘the place that does the seeing’); this must be determined by the context.

Syntactically, adjectival participles occur when two sentences are combined. That is, what underlies the adjectival participle baroo in baroo vaara is a phrase (or clause or sentence) such as ondu vaara baratte ‘a week comes’ that is combined with another clause (phrase,
sentence) in which vaara becomes the subject or object of another verb:

(a) ondu vaara baratte + (b) aa vaaradalli hoogtiini

‘one week comes’ ‘in that week I go’

By the process of ‘embedding’, the verb of (a) becomes baroo, its noun phrase ondu vaara is deleted, and a new sentence is created with the verb of (a) modifying the noun vaara in (b):

baroo vaaradalli hoogtiini ‘I will go in the coming week’

This process is treated in section 4.9 (see also Bhatt 1978: 377 ff.).

4.1.3. Past adjectival participle. The past adjectival participle is formed by adding -a to the past stem of the verb (see 3.1.1. and 2.6.2).

band-a huDga ‘the boy who came’
hood-a mane ‘the house (to which one) went’
hood-a vaara ‘the week that went, last week’
kOtt-a pustka ‘the book that one gave, the given book’

4.1.4. Perfect adjectival participles. Perfect (or perfective) adjectival participles can be formed by adding adjectival endings -oo or -a to a verb aspectually marked with -iru, the perfective aspect marker (see 3.8.9). Since -iru can be marked for either present or past tense, we can get forms like the following:

band-ir-oo huDga ‘the boy who has come’
kOtt-ir-oo pustka ‘the book that has been given’
bard-ir-oo kate ‘the story that has been written’
band-idd-a huDga ‘the boy who had come (and stayed)’
kOtt-idd-a pustka ‘the book that had been given (and kept)’
bard-idd-a kate ‘the story that had been written’

4.1.5. Denominal adjectival participles. Adjectives can also be derived from nouns by the addition of the past adjectival participle of aagu ‘become’, aada, plus optionally the present adjectival participle of iru, iroo. When iroo is used, it must be attached to the past participle of aagu, aag(i). The difference in meaning is not so much one of tense, but of alienable versus inherent qualities.

kemp-aad baTTe ‘red cloth’
ettarvaad huDga ‘tall boy’
kemp-aag-iroo baTTe ‘red cloth’
esttarvaag-iroo huDga

kemp-aada is an inherent or inalienable red, whereas kemp-aag-iroo is a red that has been added, for example, to cloth, and can be removed, such as a red spot. ettaravaada ‘tall’ is an inalienable quality of the boy; in other words, he cannot be made more or less tall.

The relation of the adjective to the noun it qualifies seems to be closer than that of the adverb to the verb. Participles such as emphatic markers, yes/no question markers, and so forth, cannot occur between the adjective and the noun (see example below), whereas they can occur between the adverb and the verb (see example d).

(a) aa oLLe huDgn-aa bandiddu? ‘is it that good boy who came?’
    that good boy Q coming
(b) *aa oLLeeyaa huDga banda?
    that good Q boy came
(c) aa oLLe huDga ninne banda ‘that good boy came yesterday’
    yesterday
(d) aa oLLe huDga ninnenaa bandiddu? ‘was it yesterday that that
    good boy came?’
(e) aa oLLe huDga maatra banda ‘that good boy alone came’
    only
(f) *aa oLLe maatra huDga banda
(g) aa oLLe huDga ninne maatra banda ‘that good boy came
    yesterday only’

In sentences (a) and (d), when constituents other than the verb are questioned, clefting, that is, converting the verb to a verbal noun, is obligatory; extrapoing the questioned item is optional (see 3.5.8, 4.10).

4.2. Adverbs. Generally, the adverb immediately precedes the verb in Kannada. Adverbs may be either simple or derived from nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Examples of simple adverbs are:
tumba ‘very’
beega ‘quickly’
punaa ‘again’

Adverbs can be classified according to their meaning as adverbs of place, of time, and of manner (Andronov 1969:66).

Adverbs of place:
  munde ‘in front of’
  duura ‘away, far’
  naDuwe ‘in the middle’
  madye ‘in the middle’

Time expressions:
  iiga ‘now’
  naaLe ‘tomorrow’
  saayankaala ‘evening’

Adverbs of manner:
  beega ‘quickly’
  spaaSTa ‘clearly’
  innnu ‘more’
  bahaLa ‘very, much’

Adverbs can also be formed from demonstrative roots (see 2.6.6). Adverbs of quantity are formed by prefixing demonstrative prefixes i-, a-, and e- to -STu: iSTu ‘this much’, aSTu ‘that much’, eSTu ‘how much’. Manner adverbs are formed by prefixing demonstrative prefixes (see 2.6.6) to -ge: hiiue ‘this way’, haasge ‘that way’, heege (or hage) ‘how’. Adverbs of place are formed by prefixing demonstrative prefixes to -lli: eili ‘here’, alli ‘there’, eili ‘where’.

4.2.1. Derived adverbs. Nouns can be made into adverbs by the addition of the suffix -aagi:

  vippiriitaa ‘excess’ + aagi → vippiriivaagii ‘excessively’
  curuku ‘sharpness’ + aagi → curkaagii ‘sharply’
  doDDadu ‘big thing’ + aagi → doDDaadgii ‘largely’

Some of these nouns can be nominalized adjectives (see 2.6.5) such as the last example. Some other adverbs end in -e or -ge; many of them are also postpositions (see 2.4).

  mettage ‘softly’
  taNNage ‘coolly’

The adverbial marker -ce is added to the demonstrative adjectives (see 2.6.6) ii and aa to get iiice ‘this side’, and aace ‘that side’. It must be noted that the adverbial marker -ge can be added to these adverbial forms to indicate specificity, that is, iiicege ‘this very side, place’, aacege ‘that very side, place’.

The adverbial suffix -aagi is added to onomatopoeic words such as joor- to get jooraagi ‘loudly’. Onomatopoeic expressions can also occur alone, or reduplicated:

  gaDaba Da ‘noisily, hastily’
  bhag-bhaga ‘of burning’

Single onomatopoeic forms can occur before the quotative marker -anta (see 4.5) to form adverbs (Ramanujan 1963:147):

  phakk-anta ‘suddenly’
  thaTT-anta ‘all at once’
  phaTT-anta ‘quickly’
  ghoLL-anta ‘of laughter, guffaws’

-aagi added to reduplicated forms indicates intensity:

  joor-joooraagi ‘very loudly’

Sometimes -aagi is optional with simple adverbs:

  beega ‘quickly’

4.2.2. Sentential adverbs. Some adverbs in Kannada have to be distinguished as sentential, that is, as modifying the whole sentence, rather than just the verb phrase.

  nijvaaghi, avm illig banda ‘truly, he came here’
    truly he here came

  avm nijvaag illig banda ‘he truly came here’
    he truly here came

  avm beega illig banda ‘he came here quickly’
    he quickly here came

With sentential adverbs, it is possible to form a kind of sentence called a cleft sentence, which is not possible with nonsentential adverbs. With cleft sentences, the sentential adverb is moved to the end of the sentence, after the verb; and the verb is nominalized (see 3.5.8, 4.9.5).
avn illig bandad nija ‘that he came here is true (it is true that he came here)’

This is not possible with nonsentential adverbs:

*avn illig bandad beega ‘that he came here is quick’

Although adverbs generally occur near the verb, they can be moved around in the sentence (so-called scrambling) for stylistic effect. Furthermore, emphatic participles and yes/no question markers can occur with adverbs.

avn maneeg nidhaanvaag banda
avn nidhaanvaag maneeg banda
nidhaanvaag avn maneeg banda
avn nidhaanvaag-y-aa maneeg banda? ‘did he come home slowly?’
avn maneeg nidhaanvaag-taane banda ‘he came home slowly indeed’

Adverbs formed from nominalized adjectives (see 2.6.5) contrast with identity statements (see 4.0.2) in the following way:

ad hosdu ‘that is new (permanently)’
ad hosd-aag-ide ‘that one is (now) new’

In the last example, the nominalized adjective + aagi must be followed by a form of the copula iru. This use indicates nonhabitualness, a temporary state, whereas identity statements indicate an habitual or permanent state, unlimited by time.

Since English speakers often are unclear as to when Kannada iru is the equivalent of English ‘be’, and when it is not, it is perhaps well to summarize briefly. In equational sentences (see 4.0.2) expressing the identity of two nouns, iru is not present. ‘I am a doctor’ is translated simply naan DaakTaru. This expresses the notion that the state of being a doctor is permanent. If this state is not permanent, but temporary, then –aag iru is required: naan DaakTar-aag-iddini ‘I am serving as a doctor (at the moment)’. Sentences with English ‘be’ in the sense of ‘being located’ are always expressed with iru: naan may-suermall-iddini ‘I am in Mysore’ (Bhatt 1978: 150 ff.).

4.3. Interrogatives. Questions or interrogative sentences are formed in Kannada in a number of ways. Any sentence can be made interro-
tive by adding the yes/no question marker –aa to almost any constituent, although the most general way is by adding it to the last constituent, usually the finite verb. When –aa is added to any other constituent, that particular item is focused upon and questioned. In general, intonation rises on –aa.

avn naaLe uurg hoogtaane ‘tomorrow he will go to town’
he tomorrow to town goes
avnnaa? naaLe uurg hoogoodu? ‘is he who is going to town tomorrow?’

avn naaLenaa? uurg hoogoodu? ‘is he going to town tomorrow?’
avn naaLe uurgaag? hoogoodu? ‘is he going to town tomorrow?’
avn naaLe uurg hoogtaanaa+? ‘is he going to town tomorrow?’

Note that whenever a constituent other than the verb is questioned, the verb must be clefted (see 4.10), that is, converted into a verbal noun (see 3.5.8). It must be noted that the yes/no question marker cannot be added to any constituent of the noun phrase except the noun itself.

aa oLLe huDga uurg banda ‘that good boy came to town’
that good boy to town came
*aa oLLeAaa huDga uurg banda?
avn kate barda ‘he wrote a story’
he story wrote
avnnaa kate bardiddu? ‘did he write a story?’
avn kateyaa bardiddu? ‘did he write a story?’

naan kate(en) barda hudgan nooDde ‘I saw the boy who wrote
I story wrote boy saw the story’
nan kate(en) bard huDgannaan nooDiddu? ‘did I see the boy who
wrote the story? (is it
the boy who wrote the
story that I saw?)’

*naan kateeanaa bard huDgan nooDde?

4.3.1. WH-interrogatives. Kannada, like many other languages, has another kind of question, called in transformational grammar ‘WH-
questions’ (because the English question words often begin with ‘wh-’,
such as 'who, what, where', and so forth). In Kannada these question words usually begin with *e-, ee- or yaa-, such as *elli 'where', *ennu 'what', *yaaru 'who', *eSTu 'how much', *yaavdu 'which one'. These words often form sets (see 2.5.2) with noninterrogative demonstrative pronouns and adverbs; for example, *elli 'where' is part of a set with *illi 'here' and *alli 'there'. These interrogative words then ask questions about the location, time, amount, manner, identity, substance, and so forth, of things, and the answer to such a question is the corresponding demonstrative pronoun/adverb in -i and -a. That is, every constituent in the sentence can be replaced by an *e-word, in asking questions about those constituents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>avr he</th>
<th>ninne</th>
<th>nange</th>
<th>erDu</th>
<th>pustka</th>
<th>koTru</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yaaru?</td>
<td>yavvaga?</td>
<td>yaarge?</td>
<td>*eSTu?</td>
<td>'two books'</td>
<td>gave</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*eenu?*

*eenu maaDidru?*

'yesterday he gave to me two books' (when) (who) (did what) (to whom) (how many) (what)

In the above sentence, it is possible to replace *erDu 'two' with *eSTu 'how many', or to replace *erDu *pustka 'two books' with *ennu 'what', or to replace *erDu *pustka *koTru 'he gave two books' with *eenu *maaDidru? 'what did he do?'. Also, more than one interrogative pronoun/adverb can occur in a sentence, as in:

*yaarnt el nooDidri 'whom did you see where?'

whom where you saw

In general, when *e-words occur in a sentence, interrogative -aa cannot occur, unless it is a sort of secondary question in which one asks a question about another question:

"*een?" ant *heeLidnaa? 'did he say, "What"?"

"what" quotative he said Q

Usually, in such double interrogatives, intonation, which usually rises on -aa, will fall.

4.3.2. Reduplicated WH-interrogatives. When *e-words are reduplicated (repeated twice in succession) the meaning is 'distributive'.

*ell-elli? 'where all'
*een-ennu? 'what all'
*yaar-yaaru? 'who all'
*ell-el hoogidi? 'where all did you go? (to what different places did you go?)'

If case markers are added, they are added to only the last of the doublet:

*yaar-yaarg koTr? to what different persons did you distribute (it)?'

4.3.3. Tag questions. In tag questions speakers follow a declarative sentence with the equational negative particle *alla* (see 4.4.1) plus interrogative -aa: *allaa*. This is used to verify all kinds of propositions, equational and others.

*nii bandidri, alva? 'you came, didn't you?'
*nii shivrao, alva? 'you are Shivarao, aren't you?'

Unlike English, where the verb or auxiliary verb must be repeated, with a pronoun, in Kannada *allaa* is used with any utterance, even if the original utterance is negative.

*avn uuTa maaDililla, alva? 'he didn't eat, did he?'

4.3.4. Adjectival use of WH-interrogatives. When *e-words are used adjectivally, they impart an exclamatory rather than interrogative meaning:

*ad eST cennaag-ide! 'how good (beautiful) that is!'

that how much good is

*avl een kaSTa paTLu! 'what trouble she had!'

she what trouble felt

In such exclamations, intonation usually falls and then rises slightly toward the end of the sentence. In some cases *gottaa? 'do you know?' is added after the exclamatory sentence:

*ad eST cennaag-ide, gottaa? '(do you know) how good (beautiful) that is!'
4.3.5. WH-interrogatives with clitics and concessive. When clitics and the concessive aadaruu (see 4.8.8) are added to WH-interrogatives, the notion of interrogation is not present.

_allig yaaroo bartaar-ante 'I've heard/it seems someone's there to someone will come quote coming there'

_allig yaranaadruu haLsu 'send someone there'

4.3.5.1. WH-questions with -oo. When the clitic -oo is added to the interrogative pronouns/adverbs, the interrogative meaning is replaced by a meaning equivalent to 'some-wh- or other'.

_yaar-oo 'someone or other'
_ell-oo 'somewhere or other'
_een-oo 'something or other'
_est-oo 'some amount or other'

_yaar bandru? 'who came?'
_yaaroo bandru 'someone or other came'

Both examples presuppose that someone came, but in the first, the speaker requests information about who it was, while in the second a statement is made that some person, probably not known to the speaker, came. Further, the implication is not only that he does not know, but does not care to know—the information is not important. Often gottiLLa '(I) don't know' occurs with such sentences:

_yaaroo bandru, gottiLLa 'someone or other came, I don't know who'
_avn elligoo hoog beeku, gottiLLa 'he has to go somewhere or other,
I don't know where'

*_avL elligoo hoog beeku, gottiide 'she had to go somewhere or other,
other, I know where'

*_naan elligoo hoogtiLLa '*I didn't go somewhere or other'

Note that WH-interrogatives with -oo cannot occur in negative sentences. In such cases, -uu would be used instead (see 4.3.5.4).

_naan elliguu hoogtiLLa 'I didn't go anywhere'

4.3.5.2. WH-interrogatives + Verb₁ + -oo, a-word + Verb₂. When the particle -oo is added to a verb following a WH-interrogative,

followed by the corresponding remote demonstrative pronoun/adverb and another verb, a kind of comparative construction is formed:

_avn eST koTNoo, aST tinde 'I ate as much as (whatever)
he how much gave that much I ate he gave (me) (however
much he gave, I ate)'

_avL el hoofLoo, al naamuu hoofLoo 'I went wherever she went
she where went there I too went (wherever she went, I also
went)'

These sentences can also be translated 'no matter wh- X did, Y also
did', in addition to 'wh-ever X did, Y did' (see Bhatt 1978: 425 ff.).

4.3.5.3. WH-interrogatives with aadaruu. The concessive (see 4.8.8) of the verb aagu 'become', aadaruu (literally, 'even if it becomes') may be added to e-words to mean 'some-wh-' or 'some X'. Use of this form makes things more specific and less doubtful than use of -oo (see 4.3.5.1). It refers to some one or thing in a presupposed set, whereas with -oo nothing is presupposed or even known.

_yaaroo bartaare 'someone or other (not known) will come'
_yaar-aadruu bartaare 'someone (known/expected) will come'

*_naan gottiroo yaaroo bartaare
to me known someone or other will come

*_some unknown person known to me will come

*_naan gottiroo yaaraadruu bartaare 'someone known to me will
to me known someone will come come'

Note that aadaruu cannot be used with interrogative pro-forms in negative or past tense marked sentences.

*_illig yaaraadruu barolla *'someone will not come here
illig yaaruu barolla 'no one will come here'

*_nimne naan elaadruu hoofLoo *'yesterday I went anywhere'

_nimne naan elloo hoofLoo 'yesterday I went somewhere'

With the negative, -uu is used, and with the past, -oo would be used. It may be used in the interrogative, however.

_naaLe niu elgaadruu hoogtiLLa? 'are you going somewhere
tomorrow you somewhere are going? tomorrow?'
4.3.5.4. **WH-interrogatives with -uu.** The clitic -uu (see 4.11.4) can be added to WH-interrogatives to indicate totality, that is, 'every-wh-': 'everyone, everywhere, everything, always', and so forth. Most of these, however, are used only with the negative, to mean 'no-wh-': 'nowhere, no one, never', and so forth. Only *yaavaagluu* 'always' may be used either positively or negatively in a declarative sentence.

\[
\begin{align*}
yaaruu & \quad \text{´everyone´ + illa + yaaruu illa ´nobody, no one´} 
eliguu & \quad \text{´everywhere´ + illa + eliguu illa ´nowhere´} 
eeenuu & \quad \text{´everything´ + illa + eenuu illa ´nothing´} 
\end{align*}
\]

*yaavaagluu bartaa* 'he always comes'
*yaavaagluu bortaa* 'he never comes'
*elggu hoooglatta* 'he doesn’t go anywhere'
*elggu hoooglatta* 'he goes everywhere'

Some dialects do permit the use of *yaavudu* as a positive quantifier in the sense of ‘each, all, every’ but not this one. The above negative sentences can also be interrogativized:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{yaavaagluu bortaa?} & \quad \text{ ´doesn’t he ever come?´} 
niiv elggu hoooglatta? & \quad \text{ ´didn’t you go anywhere?´} 
il yaaruu bortlla? & \quad \text{ ´didn’t anyone come here?´}
\end{align*}
\]

4.4. **Negation.** Negative forms in Kannada have been classified as synthetic and analytic (Andronov 1959:60). The analytic forms have been found to be more prevalent in colloquial speech while the synthetic forms are more common in literary Kannada. In modern SK the synthetic forms do occur in limited cases, such as negative finite forms, negative participial nouns, and so forth. In these forms it is difficult to isolate a negative particle or morpheme; in many cases the absence of some other marker or morpheme signifies negative (for example, see negative modals 3.6.1 ff.). The analytic forms, by contrast, are more transparent and obvious, and there is usually a negative particle, often (*i*)llaa present to mark negation. Sometimes the analytic and synthetic forms coexist, but with contrasting meaning. As noted earlier (see 3.6.7), negative and affirmative (or positive) forms do not match one-to-one in Kannada, so that it is not always possible to say that one form or sentence is the negative of some other form or sentence. Often it is necessary to determine the scope of the nega-

tive, that is, what part of the sentence is being negated, before determining what the negative form is.

Negation in SK has not been thoroughly studied. Some sources (Biligiri 1959) list only two negatives; others, such as Upadhyaya and Krishnamurthy (1972) give three or four forms but do not contrast their semantics sufficiently to give an adequate idea of what is what. Sources disagree, for example, as to whether the present-future negative is with *-alla* (Bright 1958, Biligiri 1959) or *-alla* (Upadhyaya and Krishnamurthy 1972)—although it is quite possibly just a sociological difference; they also disagree over whether it is a present or future form. All the forms I have been able to isolate are given below, and I try to distinguish semantically among them as sharply as possible, recognizing also that there is a great deal of variation in the system, so that not all speakers recognize all forms and distinctions possible in the system. This is clearly an area that needs more work before a definitive statement can be made.

4.4.1. **Finite negative forms.** A synthetic negative form is formed by adding PNG (see 3.4.1) directly to the verb stem (Spencer 1950:67).

\[
\begin{align*}
nanu maaD-enu & \quad \text{ ´do/will not do (it)´} 
avanu maaD-anu & \quad \text{ ´he does/will not do (it)´} 
avLu maAD-aLu & \quad \text{ ´she does/will not do (it)´}
\end{align*}
\]

Most of these forms occur only in LK, but sometimes the first person singular form will occur in SK, especially without the *-nu.*

\[
\begin{align*}
nan maaDe & \quad \text{ ´I will not do (it)´}
\end{align*}
\]

More commonly, the analytic negative is used; it is formed by adding the negative markers *illa/alla* to the verb. *illa* is the negative of the copula *iru* whereas *alla* is the negative of *aagu* 'become'. *illa* negates propositions, whereas *alla* negates identity statements (equational sentences) (Amritavalli 1979). Analytic negative forms are the same for all persons, that is, they do not agree with subjects in PNG.

\[
\begin{align*}
av maaSTr alla & \quad \text{ ´he is not a teacher´} 
id hosd alla & \quad \text{ ´this is not (a) new (one)´} 
nan inDyaadal-illa & \quad \text{ ´I am not in India´} 
avn uurg hooogl-illa & \quad \text{ ´he didn’t go to the town´}
\end{align*}
\]
4.4.2. Past negative. When *illa is added to the infinitive (in *al) (see 3.2) a past tense negative form results. These forms cannot occur with *nnaLe ‘tomorrow’ although they can occur with *ivattu ‘today’ because there is usually some time that has elapsed between the beginning of the day and the speech event.

avn ninne/*ivat nan maneeg barlilla ‘he didn’t come to my house yesterday/today’

*aavn nnaLe nan maneeg barlilla ‘he didn’t come to my house tomorrow’

4.4.3. Present-future (habitual) negative. This nonpast negative is formed in LK by adding *illa to the verbal noun (see 3.5.8). In SK this form is shortened as follows:

LK maaDu+vu+du + *illa → SK maaDood illa → maaD-olla ‘doesn’t/ won’t do’

LK hoogu+vu+du + *illa → SK hoogood illa → hoog-olla ‘doesn’t/ won’t go’

By various phonological rules (see1.4.5.1 ff.), these sequences are reduced from *wudilla to *oodilla to *olla (and for some speakers, *alla; see Upadhyaya and Krishnamurthi 1972). For most speakers, forms in *oodilla are felt to be more formal (closer to LK) than in *olla, but with no difference in meaning (other than ‘social’ meaning). For some speakers, the more formal forms are felt to be more emphatic or more universal than more contracted forms in *olla (*alla).

naan uurg hoogoodilla/hoogolla ‘I don’t usually go to town/ I won’t (be) going to town’

avn ii kelsa maaDoodilla/maaDolla ‘he doesn’t usually do this work/he won’t (be) doing this work’

When forms like these are emphasized, the underlying verbal noun (nominalized verb) appears:

naan uurg hoogood-*e-illa ‘I almost never go to town’

Habitual action can also be iterative, that is, repeated, in the sense that a number of repeated actions (or instances of failure to repeat) can be construed as habitual; ‘habitually not going’, for example, consists of repeated acts of not going, starting in the past and continuing through the present into the future. Such statements of habitual action often then refer to characteristic qualities of the subjects, or to universal truths regarding them.

hasu maamsa tinoodilla/tinnolla ‘cows don’t eat meat’

4.4.4. Perfective negative. When *illa is added to the past participle (past stem, in most cases, see 3.5.2), a perfective negative is formed. This is because *illa is the negative of *uru, which can be used as a perfective aspect marker (see 3.8.9).

avn band-*illa ‘he hasn’t come’

avL heeL-*illa ‘she hasn’t said (something)’

avr koTT-*illa ‘they haven’t given (something)’

Since the past participle is the past stem minus *d-, the short vowel *i- is also deleted (see 1.3.6); the resultant form may with some verbs be very close in form to the past negative:

heeL-*illa ‘hasn’t said’

heeL-lilla (which becomes heeLLilla) ‘didn’t say’

For verbs whose past participle is not the same as their past stem, such as hoogu ‘go’, the form is hoogilla ‘hasn’t gone’.

4.4.5. Durative negative. The durative negative is formed by negating *uru following the durative aspect marker *ttaa (see 3.8.10) either in the present or perfective (see 4.4.4).

bartaa illa (bart-*illa) ‘isn’t coming’

hoogttaa illa (hoogt-*illa) ‘isn’t going’

bartaa-iddilla (bart-*iddilla) ‘wasn’t coming’

hoogt(aa) iddilla ‘wasn’t going’

4.4.6. Negative of *uru. Since *uru has some tense forms that other verbs do not have (see 3.4.1.2, 3.4.5.5), it also has some negative forms not shared by other verbs.

illa as a general negative has already been mentioned (see 4.4.1). In addition, there is a past tense formed by adding *illa to *uru: *iralilla
'wasn’t’. Future-habitual is formed by adding -uvudilla, which shortens to -oodilla and then -olla (-alla): irolla ‘won’t be’ (see 4.4.3).

naan baroo varSa inDyaadal-irolla ‘I won’t be in India next year’

Perfective negative is formed by adding illa to the past of iru: iiddilla ‘hasn’t been’.

naan nim maneel iiddilla ‘I haven’t been in your house’

4.4.7. Negative participles. There are both adjectival and verbal negative participles in Kannada. They are tenseless, in contrast to the affirmative (positive) participles (see 3.5), although some distinctions of tense can be made by the use of aspectual verbs.

4.4.7.1. Adjectival negative participles. A negative adjectival participle is formed by adding -ada to a verb stem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative Participle</th>
<th>Negative Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bar-oo huDga</td>
<td>bar-ad huDga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘the boy who comes’</td>
<td>‘the boy who does not come’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A past negative adjectival participle can be formed by adding -ada to the perfective negative (see 4.4.4).

band huDga
‘the boy who came’

bandillad huDga
‘the boy who didn’t come’

A durative negative adjectival participle can be formed by adding -ada to the durative negative (see 4.4.5).

bart(aa) iiroo huDga
‘the boy who is coming’

bart(aa) illad huDga
‘the boy who isn’t coming’

The negative adjectival participle of iru is simply the negative stem ill-plus -ada, and can be translated ‘not being’ as well as ‘without’.

4.4.7.2. Negative verbal participle. The negative verbal participle is marked by adding -ade to the verb stem. This form has a meaning of ‘not doing/having done such and such’ or ‘without doing something’. It is tenseless, although aspectual distinctions can be made by using the perfective aspect marker iru (see 3.8.9) in the negative (that is, by attaching illade to the past positive verbal participle (see 3.5.2).

naan tinde hoode ‘I went without eating’
niiv ciila tand-ilD-ide, naanee koDtiini ‘if you haven’t brought a bag, I’ll give you one’

Usually the main verb following a negative participle is positive, but sometimes it may be followed by a negative aspectual verb, in which case the two negatives cancel each other out. That is, the two following sentences are roughly equivalent in meaning (D.N.S. Bhat 1977:5):

raaju aa sinma nookDe biDilla ‘Raju managed to see Raju that movie without seeing did not leave that movie with great effort’

raaju aa sinma nookD biTTa ‘Raju managed to see that Raju that movie having seen left movie with great effort’

In these usages, the aspect marker biDu (see 3.8.2) gives a meaning here of doing something with great effort, but only if the two verbs are either both positive or both negative.

4.4.8. Negative modals. For a discussion of the negative forms of modal verbs, see 3.6.1–6.

4.5. Quotative verb. Kannada has a verb annu, which has a number of special phonological, syntactic, and semantic properties not shared by other verbs. It is essentially a quotative verb, that is, what precedes it is meant by the speaker to indicate that he or she is not the person who originally said something, but is quoting some other source. The quotative verb can occur as a main verb, instead of verbs such as heeLu ‘say, speak, tell’, maataaDu ‘speak, converse’, or as a verbal participle marking the end of the quotative material, followed then by a main verb such as heeLu, maataaDu, keeLu ‘hear, ask’, and so forth.

avn bartini anda ‘he said, “I will come”’
he I come said
avn bartini anta heeLda ‘he said, “I will come”’
he I come having said said
beesgeel haN beeg keT-hoogatte antaare
summer in fruit soon bad goes they say
beesgeel haN beeg keT-hoogatte ant heeLtaare
having said they say

‘they say fruit spoils quickly in summer’
When *anta* occurs in the participle form before another verb, its translation is redundant (even though many grammars will translate it as ‘having said’ or ‘thinking thus’, etc.). It merely serves to set off quoted material from nonquoted material, and acts thus as a sort of overt quotation mark, the way some English speakers may say “unquote.”

*anta* also occurs in many other constructions that are in structure like quotative sentences, but in some of these no direct or indirect quotation is meant. These will be dealt with below.

*annu* is unusual phonologically in that its initial vowel is often deleted following a word ending in a vowel, and this preceding vowel is then lengthened. Thus for example *beeku + anta* often becomes *beekuu-nt(a)*, as in the examples (a) and (b) in 4.5.3.

### 4.5.1. Reported speech.

When speakers want to report that some unidentified source has said something, they use a slightly different form, *ante*, following the (last) finite verb in the sentence. *ante* may be translated in a number of ways: ‘it seems’, ‘it is reported that’, ‘apparently’, ‘allegedly’, ‘I guess (that)’, ‘it looks like . . .’, ‘supposed to’, ‘they say (that)’, and so forth.

- *avv naaLe kelsa maaDtaar ante* ‘apparently he’ll work tomorrow’
- *avv meeSTr ante* ‘it seems he is a teacher/he seems to be a teacher’
- *avv il bar-bood ante* ‘they say he may come here’
- *niiVo naaLe hoog-beek ante* ‘you’re apparently to go tomorrow’
- *avv inglNDnal profesar aag-iddaar ante* ‘he’s supposed to have been a professor in England’

### 4.5.2. Direct and indirect speech.

In Kannada there is no marked difference between direct and indirect speech. Unlike English, where the verb of the quoted sentence agrees in tense with the verb in the quoting sentence, and/or modals change to a subjunctive form (‘will’ to ‘would’, etc.), only pronouns + PNG markers of the embedded sentence change.

- *[naan bartiiNi] ant heeLde* ‘I said, “I will come”’ or ‘I said I would come’
- *[naan bartiiNi] ant heeLde* ‘he said, “I will come”’

Since the two subjects in the first example are the same, it can be either direct or indirect. The following is of course not grammatical:

*naan bartaane ant heeLda*

In this example the subject *naanu* does not agree with either of the verbs. When the subject of the main verb and of the embedded verb are the same, one may be deleted, and the other may occur either before or after the embedded sentence as in:

- *[naan bartiini] ant heeLde* or *[bartiini] ant naan heeLde*
  - ‘I said I would come’ or ‘I said, “I will come”’

When subjects of the two sentences are not the same, then scrambling the order of the sentence in the following way is not possible:

*naan bartaane ant avn heeLde*

### 4.5.3. Intent.

Instead of using a lexical verb such as *manassiru* or *nirdharisu* to express intent, Kannada usually uses one of a number of different constructions involving modals, the quotative marker *anta*, and sometimes the copula *iru*.

- (a) *naan uurg hoogoONa-nt-idde* ‘I intended to go to the town’
- (b) *naan uurg hoog-beekuu-nt-idde* ‘I intended to go to the town’
- (c) *naan uurg hoog-beekuu-nt-iddiini* ‘I intend to go to the town’
- (d) *naan uurg hoogoONa-nt-iddiini* ‘I intend to go to the town’
- (e) *naan uurg hoog-beekuu-nt-ide* ‘I intend to go to the town’

These sentences differ in that some use *annu* as a lexical (main) verb—as in *antiddi* ‘I said’—whereas others use it as a quotative marker, followed by forms of *iru*. Some use a PNG and tense-marked verb, while others use modals *beeku* ‘must’ and *ooNa* ‘may, let’s’. Finally, (e) uses a dative (impersonal) construction ‘to me it is that I must go’. In meaning these forms differ primarily in the degree of certainty involved in the intent. Some might be translated merely ‘I feel like doing X’ or ‘I have a notion to X’ while others are more ‘I definitely intend to do X’. Sentence (a) is more definite than the others, for example; those with modals are less certain than those with PNG marked verbs, and the modal *beeku* makes things stronger than the modal *ooNa*. 
Less certain would be constructions like the following:

\[
\text{avn bar-beeku } \bigg\{ -nt-ir-boodu \right\} \quad \text{‘he may be thinking about the possibility of coming’}
\]

\[
\text{avn bar-baarduu-nt-ir-boodu \{ ‘he’s probably intending not to come/he’s probably not intending to come’}
\]

\[
\text{avn bandru bar-boodu \ ‘he may just possibly come’}
\]

Intent constructions may also use lexical verbs such as \text{yoocane maaDu} ‘brood over, cogitate’, \text{tiirmaana maaDu} ‘decide’, \text{nene ‘think’}, as well as nouns such as \text{yoocane ‘thought’} and \text{tiirmaana ‘decision’}.

\subsection{4.5.4. Limit on embedded sentences.}
By the use of \text{anta} one sentence can be contained or “embedded” in another. There is theoretically no limit to the number of sentences that can be embedded in another sentence, just as in English one can theoretically get infinitely long strings like ‘I said that he said that I said that he said...’

\[
(((\text{avn bartiini-nt})_{S_1} \text{ heeLdaa-nt})_{S_2} \text{ heeLidluu-nt})_{S_3} \text{ heeLtaare}_{S_4}
\]

‘they said that he said that he would come’

In this example, three sentences, \(S_1\), \(S_2\), and \(S_3\) are embedded in \(S_4\).

There are some restrictions on the tense markers and pronouns that occur in such embeddings—they must make sense; for example, the following is slightly strange:

\[
[\text{naan bartiini-nt}]_{S_1} [\text{heeLtiini-nt}]_{S_2} \text{ heeL-beeku}_{S_3}
\]

‘I must say that I am saying that I am coming’

whereas the following, with an embedded past tense, is acceptable:

\[
\text{naan\{ bartiini-nt } \text{ heeLdee-nt heeL-beeku}
\]

‘I must say that I said that I am coming/came’

If such sentences seem strange, one might imagine these kinds of assertions being called for in a court of law; the general limit on embeddings has more to do with speakers’ limits of patience and/or memory than on any inherent limits in the language.

\subsection{4.5.5. Obstinate negative.}
Usually quotative sentences with \text{annu} or \text{anta} require rational subjects, because usually only rational beings can speak. There are some cases where quotative verbs occur in sentences with nonrational subjects; since there can be no question of quotation with nonrational subjects, we must consider these constructions not to be quotative, but to have some other meaning, such as personification.

\[
\text{kaar hoogollaa-ntide \ ‘the car refuses to move’}
\text{car won’t go it says}
\]

The literal meaning here is ‘the car says it won’t go’, but since cars cannot speak, we must interpret this and other sentences like it to mean ‘X refuses to Y’. This kind of construction I call “obstinate negative”.

Other examples:

\[
\text{huDga skuulq hoogollaa-ntaane \ ‘the boy refuses to go to school’}
\text{baTTe oNgollaa-ntide \ ‘the clothes refuse to dry’}
\]

In the first, the subject is indeed rational, so there is no restriction on the rationality or nonrationality of the subject.

\subsection{4.5.6. Specific purpose.}
When quotative \text{anta} occurs following the dative case of a noun or verbal noun (see 2.3.4), the meaning is that something is specifically reserved for or dedicated to the use of some group or individual. As such, \text{anta} ought to be considered a postposition used with the dative case (see 2.4.2) since it is very close in meaning to the postposition \text{ooskara ‘for the sake of’}.

\[
\text{makL aaT-aadiikk-ant ond tooTa all-ide}
\text{children playing for one garden there is}
\text{‘there is a garden there especially for children to play in’}
\]

In the example just given, the dative suffix is attached to the infinitive (see 3.2), itself originally a verbal noun form.

\[
\text{arasru tam heNtiig-ant ond aramane kaTdaru}
\text{king his wife for one palace built}
\text{‘the king built a palace especially for his wife’}
\]

With \text{beeku}, \text{anta} may also occur to indicate purposefulness:

\[
\text{avn beekuu-nt maaDda \ ‘he did it on purpose’}
\]
The modal must be in the affirmative, otherwise this meaning is not found:

*avīg beeDaa-nt maaDda *‘he did it on unpurpose’

4.5.7. Other uses of anta. The quotative particle anta is used also in relative clause constructions (see 4.9), with onomatopoeic expressions, and with adverbs (see 4.2). It is useful to remember that it functions very much like the English complementizer (relative pronoun) ‘that’, as in ‘I know that he is coming’. It can therefore be used with any verb that can take a complement following ‘that’, that is, the Kannada equivalents of ‘know, suppose, think, feel, realize, say, tell, teach’, and so forth.

avīg kannaDa barattee-nt gott-ide *(I) know that he knows to him Kannada comes that is known Kannada’

üi mane nimdee-nt tiL-kʊND bartaa ir-beeku this house yours that knowing/considering coming be must ‘you must consider that this house is yours and come often’

ad mundin tingLu mugyaattee-nt iT-kʊLLooNa it next month finishes that let us assume ‘let us take for granted that it will be over by next month’

haag maaDuu-nt heeL-beeku ‘we must say that (one should) do thus do that say must (like) that’

4.6. Imperative sentences. Imperative sentences function to make commands or requests of the person spoken to. Generally, second person pronouns are considered to be the subjects of these imperative sentences and the verbs are never marked for tense or PNG on the surface level. They are in most cases identical to the verb stem (see 3.1) with additional suffixes for politeness or lack of it. The use of the bare stem alone is equivalent to the nonpolite imperative, for example, hoogu ‘go!’. In addition, there is also what we might call an impolite or casual form consisting of verb stem plus the suffix -oo (for masculine) or -ee (for feminine), for example, hoogoo ‘go on, get out!’. These forms are used only with small children or between intimate friends; otherwise their use is demeaning and insulting. The polite or plural form consists of verb stem plus suffix -i, for example, hoogi ‘please go’ or ‘you (plural) go’. Beyond this, there is an even more polite form consisting of verb stem plus the suffix -ri, for example, hoogri ‘please go’. Finally, for very polite entreaties, the reflexive pronoun taavu may be used with -ri: taavu hoogri ‘I beg of you most humbly to go’.1

When the verb stem ends in -i, as many verbs do, there is no nonpolite form in -u, so the bare stem in -i is used. For politeness the form in -ri is used.

Verbs are listed below in ascending order of politeness:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness Level</th>
<th>Impolite, casual</th>
<th>Nonpolite</th>
<th>Polite, plural</th>
<th>Very polite</th>
<th>Ultrapolite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kuDyoo (mas.)</td>
<td>kuDyee (fem.)</td>
<td>kuDi</td>
<td>kuDiiri</td>
<td>taavu kuDiiri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hoogoo (mas.)</td>
<td>hooge (fem.)</td>
<td>hoogu</td>
<td>hoogi</td>
<td>taavu hoogri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pronoun that would be used (is understood) with the impolite and the nonpolite imperatives is nii(nu) ‘you (sing.)’, whereas with the polite and very polite, the pronoun niiuv ‘you (plural, polite)’ is understood. With the ultrapolite, taavu is explicitly indicated.

Reduplication of imperative forms intensifies the forcefulness of the command:

hooghoogu ‘go, go!’ or ‘get going!’
hoogri hoogri ‘please go!’

4.6.1. Negative imperative. The negative imperative, or prohibitive, is formed by adding baardu (historically a negative form of the verb baa/bar- ‘come’), beeDa (the negative of the modal beeku must; see 3.6.1.4) or kuwDuu (‘prohibitive’; see 3.6.2) to the infinitive (with loss of -al) as shown below.

hoog-baardu ‘don’t go’ (impersonal: ‘one doesn’t do it’)
hoog-beeDa ‘don’t go’ (more personal: ‘you shouldn’t do it’)
hoog-kuwDuu ‘you mustn’t/shouldn’t go’

These forms can be made polite by adding -i, -ri, and taavu... -ri:

bar-beeDi ‘please don’t come’
bar-beeDri ‘I beg you not to come’
taavu bar-beeDri ‘I most humbly beseech you not to come’
Some scholars consider the hortative form in -ooNa ‘let’s do (such and such)’ to be an imperative. I prefer to treat it as a modal (see 3.6.6).

4.7. Reduplicatives. Reduplication (repeating a word more than once) is a process used in Kannada (as in many South Asian languages) to provide various semantic functions such as intensification, emphasis, addition, distribution, enumeration, and so forth. The reduplication may be partial (only part of a word is repeated) or full (the whole word is repeated) with or without any other intervening morpheme.

4.7.1. Intensification or emphasis. When adverbs such as jooru ‘fast’ are reduplicated, this emphasizes the qualities of the constituent modified. (This is particularly common in women’s speech, especially with tumba ‘much’.)

- avn joor-joor-aagi ooDda ‘he ran very fast’
- avn tumb-tumb keTTtvnu ‘he is a very bad person’
- avr beeg-beeg bandru ‘he/she came very quickly’

Verbs (but usually only in the affirmative) can also be reduplicated for emphasis by taking the stem (see 3.3) form of the finite verb, adding emphatic marker -ee (see 4.11.1), and then the finite verb.

- avL hoogee hoogtaaLe ‘she will definitely go’
- avn maaDee maaDiyaane ‘he will definitely do it’

Modal verbs (see 3.6) can also occur reduplicated, but if they have infinitive forms, that form is what is repeated:

- niin hoog beeD _vee_ beeDa
  you go not wanted emphatic not want
  ‘you shouldn’t go at all; you definitely shouldn’t go’
- nii barkuDi-ee kuuDdu ‘you definitely shouldn’t come’
- nang beek-beeku ‘I just want it, that’s all’

However, those modals that are truly defective (see 3.7) and therefore do not have infinitives simply reduplicate the root (beeDa, bee-). To indicate prolonged duration, duratively marked verbs (see 3.8.10) can be reduplicated, but usually in an adverbial clause modifying the action of the main clause.

avn hoogtaa hoogtaa tidaaGa, daariil ond bhaawii siku
he going going being then road in one well found
‘as he kept on going, he found a well on the way’
avn gaal maaataaDtaa maaataaDtaa, suuuya muLugda
‘as she kept on talking, the sun set’

Imperatives can also be reduplicated, as in section 4.6.

4.7.2. Distribution. Pronouns (see 2.5), demonstrative pronouns (see 2.5.1), and other demonstrative pro-forms (see 2.5.2) can be reduplicated to give a sense of ‘distribution’, that is, that there is a set of things, qualities, locations, manners, and so forth, that are found in different times and places.

- een-een beeku? ‘what all do you need? (what different varieties of things . . . ?)’
- yaar-yaar bandru? ‘who all came? (what different people came?)’
- eST-eST koTr? ‘what different amounts did you give?’
- elg-elg hoordru? ‘where all did they go? (to what different places?)’
- avr-avr makL avr-avr muddu ‘each one’s child is lovable to him/her’

4.7.3. Enumeration. When numerals (see 2.7.1) are reduplicated, it has the function of enumerating pairs, sets, and so on, of things.

  - il erD-erD jana bar-beeku ‘have people come in pairs’
  - here two two people come must
  - makL ini ayd-ayd miTaayi koDi ‘give five candies to each child’
  - to children five five candies give

4.7.4. Echo-word reduplication. When a word is partially reduplicated with another syllable—usually gi(i) or pa(a)—before the partially reduplicated portion, the meaning is ‘X and things like it’.

- huli gili ‘tigers or other animals (like them)’
- aTa giTa ‘games or other diversions’
- mane gine ‘houses or other buildings’
- uuTa giTa ‘food or other edibles’

When the word begins with any syllable other than gi, then gi(i) is the syllable prefixed to the partially reduplicated form: hu-li gi-li (‘tigers
and other animals'). When the word begins with gi, pa(a) is the syllable used on the reduplicated portion:

\[
\begin{align*}
giLi &\text{ 'parrots or other birds'} \\
giTu &\text{ 'lines or other markings'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Note that if the vowel of the first syllable is long, the vowel in the reduplicated syllable will also be long (gii or paa). Sometimes pa(a) is also used with words that do not begin with gi(i) in which case there is a difference of disjunction versus conjunction:

\[
\begin{align*}
uuTa &\text{ 'food and other edibles'} \\
puTa &\text{ 'food or other edibles'} \\
tiNDi &\text{ 'snacks and other munchies'} \\
tiNDi &\text{ 'snacks or other munchies'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.7.5. Reduplication of onomatopoeic forms. Kannada (like most South Asian languages) has onomatopoeic forms that can be reduplicated before the quotative verb (see 4.5) to form adverbial expressions.

\[
\begin{align*}
avn &\text{Tak-Tak ant hooda 'he went mechanically'} \\
calvi &\text{yinda chaL-chaL ant hoDda 'he hit briskly with the whip'} \\
nir &\text{kut-kuta ant kudiitu 'the water was about to boil'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.8. Conditional. Conditional or 'if' clauses are formed in Kannada by the addition of \textit{are} to the past stem (see 3.10). The conditional ('if') clause precedes the result ('then') clause, which simply has a finite verb. Since \textit{are} is added to the past stem, no tense distinctions are possible in this formation; the tense of the conditional verb is determined by the tense of the main verb in the 'then' clause. NoPNG is possible with these formations, either, so conditionally marked verbs are the same for all persons, numbers, and genders.

\[
\begin{align*}
bandre &\text{'if one comes/if you come/if he comes, etc.'} \\
koTRe &\text{'if one gives/if she gives/if they give, etc.'} \\
avv &\text{bandre, avv-jote hoogtini 'if he comes, I will go with him'} \\
nan &\text{keeLidre, niin heeL-beeku 'you must answer if I ask (you)'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.8.1. Future conditional. A future conditional can be formed by affixing the conditional of \textit{aagu} 'become' (\textit{aadre}) to a verbal noun (see 3.5.8).

\[
\begin{align*}
koDood-aadre &\text{'if (it comes about that) one has to give'} \\
brarood-aadre &\text{'if (it happens that) one (has to) come(s)'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.8.2. Conditionally marked aspectual verbs. Aspectually marked verbs (see 3.8) may also be conditionaled, in which case the aspect marker (marked for past tense) carries the conditional marker \textit{are}.

\[
\begin{align*}
avn &\text{band-biTre niin hoog-beedDa 'if it turns out that he comes, you needn't go'} \\
niuv &\text{mugsiddre nang koDi 'if you have finished (it), then give (it) to me'} \\
niuv &\text{koDtaa iddre, naan togootiini 'if you are giving (things), I'll take (some)'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.8.3. Conditional of modals. Modals may be conditionaledly marked by adding the conditional of \textit{aagu} 'become'.

\[
\begin{align*}
beek-aadre &\text{'if (you) like'} \\
avv &\text{bar-beek-aadre naan barolla 'if he must come, I won't come'} \\
avv &\text{rig beek-aadre naan koDttini 'if he needs (them), I will give (them)'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Note that in the second sentence, dative subject sentences may also be conditionaled.

4.8.4. Conditional of quotative verb. Instead of \textit{aadre} (which incidentally also means 'but') the conditional of the quotative verb \textit{annu} (see 4.5) may also be used to conditionalyze other verbs.

\[
\begin{align*}
avv &\text{rig beek-andre naan koDttini 'if he needs (them), I'll give (them)'} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.8.5. Topics, factives, focus. This form (\textit{andre}) may also follow regular finite verbs as well as modals, and it may be used as a topicalizer or focus marker. When a finite verb precedes \textit{andre} the meaning is often 'factive', that is, 'if it is true that X'. When a noun phrase precedes \textit{andre} the focusive meaning can often be translated 'as far as X is concerned, regarding X' as well as the more literal 'if (someone) says X'.

\[
\begin{align*}
sinma &\text{andre nang huccu 'I'm just crazy about movies (concerning movies. . . )'} \\
\end{align*}
\]
makL andre avLig tumba priiti 'now (as for) children, she really loves (them)'

kelsa maaDood-andre avnig aagoll an 'when it comes to working, he doesn’t perform'

hoog-baard-andre, hoop-baardu 'if I say you shouldn't go, don't go'

avn kelsa maaDtaan-andre, duD koDtiimi
'I will give him the money if it is true that he is going to work'

4.8.6. Conditional + emphatic. When the conditional marker is followed by the emphatic taanee the implication is that the speaker has some doubt about the truth of the proposition.

avn bandre-taanee naav hooghoodu (but I doubt he will)

vennao oodidre-taanee paas aagoodu
'one can pass (the exam) only if one studies well (not the way yourself is studying)'

4.8.7. Negative conditional. The negative conditional is formed by taking the negative verbal participle (see 4.4.7.2) followed by the conditional of iru (Spencer 1950:230; Upadhyaya and Krishnamurthy 1972:175).

maaDde iddre 'if (someone) doesn’t do'
koDde iddre 'if (someone) doesn’t give'

Sometimes instead of iru, the aspectual verb hoogu (see 3.8.3) is used instead:

maaDde hoodre 'if one doesn’t do (it)'
nooDde hoodre 'if one doesn’t see (something)'

Sometimes a verb may be aspectually marked with the negative participle of iru in its perfective sense (see 3.8.9, 4.4.7.2) or (following the present participle) in its durative sense (see 3.8.10), and then followed by iru marked for conditional:

maaDtaa idle iddre 'if (someone) is not doing (something)'

In rapid speech by short vowel deletion (see 1.3.6) and other rules, such strings (itaa illade iddre) may be reduced to -tildidre.

maaD(s)i(taa)i(la)d(e)id(da)re + maaDtiliddre

illade iddre (or iliddre) may also occur as a sentential adverb meaning ‘otherwise’ or ‘if not’.

avn bartaane; iliddre naan bartaani ‘he will come; otherwise I will come’

4.8.8. Concessive. The concessive is a form based on the conditional but with the clitic -uu added; the meaning is ‘even if X’ or ‘although X’. When -uu is added the vowel -e of -are is deleted. Concessives may be either positive or negative.

avn bandruu naan hoogolla ‘even if/though he comes, I won’t go’
niiv koTruu nag beeDa ‘even if you give (it), I don’t want/need it’
naan borde hoodruu avn bartaane ‘even if I don’t come he’ll come’
niiv kelsa maaDtaa ilididruu naan keeLilla ‘even though you weren’t working I didn’t ask (you about it)’

4.8.8.1. The quotative marker annu + concessive. The quotative marker annu (see 4.5 and 4.8.4-5) can also be made concessive and can follow modal verbs and nouns.

ning beek-andruu avn koDolla ‘even if you need it he won’t give it’

duD hoogattee-ndruu avn suL heeLolla ‘even though he’ll lose money, he won’t tell a lie’

4.8.8.2 Concessive clauses following an interrogative pro-form. Concessive clauses following an interrogative pro-form (see 2.5.2) have the meaning ‘no matter wh-’ or ‘wh-ever’:

yaar bandruu naan barolla ‘no matter who comes, I won’t come’
yaaavaag hoodruu avn maneel sikkolla ‘no matter when you go, he won’t be at home’

avn eST prayatna maaDidruu saalolla ‘no matter how hard he tries, it won’t be sufficient’
Instead of or in addition to -uu, the postposition kuuDa ‘also’ can be added, in which case the main clause is usually negative.

\[
\text{avn} \begin{cases} \text{bandre kuuDa} \\ \text{bandruu} \end{cases} \text{naan hoogolla ‘even if he comes I won’t go’}
\]

4.9. Relative clause construction. Relative clauses are formed in English by adding a clause whose subject is identical (coreferential) to another noun phrase in the main sentence, with ‘that’, ‘who’, or ‘which’ (and some others such as ‘when’, ‘where’, etc.) as the relative pronoun linking the two clauses. For example, ‘the boy came’ and ‘the boy is my brother’ can be made into one sentence (if the two ‘boys’ are coreferential) by deleting one ‘boy’ and adding a relative pronoun.

‘the boy (the boy came) is my brother’ → ‘the boy (who came) is my brother’
‘the boy (the boy is my brother) came’ → ‘the boy (who is my brother) came’

Sometimes in English two sentences can be combined by converting the verb of one of them into an adjective and placing it before the noun.

‘the house is infested with rats’ and ‘the house must be torn down’
→ ‘the (house is infested with rats) house must be torn down’
→ ‘the (rat-infested) house must be torn down’

In Kannada, this process of converting the verb into an adjective and placing the whole sentence in front of the coreferential noun is the principal method used to make relative clauses. The process involves removing PNG markers from the verb and adding an adjectival -a. In the past the past tense marker is kept, but in the present the old LK future stem (see 3.4.4) in -v is used. The sequence -u-v-a is converted into -oo by phonological rules (see 1.3.6).

\[
\text{baru-}v-a \rightarrow \text{baroo (huDga) ‘(the boy) who is coming/will come’}
\]
\[
\text{band-}a \text{ huDga ‘the boy who came’}
\]

The adjectival forms thus produced are called adjectival participles (see 3.5.4). Relativization of two separate sentences thus proceeds as follows:

\[
ninne \text{ huDga banda and aa huDga nan tamma}
\]
\[
‘the boy came yesterday’ ‘that boy is my younger brother’
\]

\[
\rightarrow \text{aa ninne huDga banda/ huDga nan tamma}
\]
\[
\rightarrow \text{aa ninne banda/ huDga nan tamma}
\]
\[
\rightarrow \text{aa ninne band huDga nan tamma ‘that boy who came yesterday is my younger brother’}
\]

Since one of the nouns is going to be deleted when these sentences are relativized, if the noun is case-marked, it will be deleted with its case-markings, and ambiguity will then result.

\[
\text{naan maneeg hoode and mane aa rasteel ide}
\]
\[
‘I went to the house’ ‘the house is in that street’
\]
\[
\rightarrow \text{[naan maneeg hoode] mane aa rasteel ide}
\]
\[
\rightarrow \text{[naan hooda] mane aa rasteel ide}
\]
\[
\rightarrow \text{naan hooda mane aa rasteel ide ‘the house I went to is in that street’}
\]

In English the preposition ‘to’ is not deleted, but the Kannada dative case marker ige is; therefore, there may arise some ambiguity, since the deleted case marker could also have well been -inda ‘from’ or some other one. In fact the case relationships in the relative clause may have either nominative, accusative, allative (‘to the side of’), instrumental, or locative function with respect to the following head noun. Of course if the case-marked noun is not coreferential with another noun in another clause, it will not be deleted and will appear in the relative clause unchanged.

(a) \[
\text{vasanta silambug maneel pustkadind paaT(h)a heelkoTLu ‘Vasanta taught lessons to Silambu from a book at home’}
\]
(b) \[
\text{vasanta silambug maneel pustkadind heelkoTL(Ta) paaT(h)a ‘the lessons that Vasanta taught Silambu from a book at home’}
\]
(c) \[
\text{vasanta silambug maneel paaT(h)a heelkoTL(Ta) pustka ‘the book that Vasanta taught Silambu lessons from at home’}
\]
(d) \[
\text{vasanta silambug pustkadind paaT(h)a heelkoTL(Ta) mane ‘the home in which Vasanta taught Silambu lessons from a book’}
\]
(e) \[
\text{vasanta maneel pustkadind paaT(h)a heelkoTL(Ta) silambu ‘Silambu to whom Vasanta taught lessons from a book at home’}
\]
(f) \[
\text{silambug maneel pustkadind paaT(h)a heelkoTL(Ta) vasanta ‘Vasanta who taught lessons to Silambu from a book at home’}
\]

Sometimes deleted case relationships will cause ambiguity for non-
Indian readers but not for Indian readers. For example, in the following sentence, it is clear to Indian readers that there is a locative relationship to the leaf.

*silambu uuTa maaDid ele* the leaf that S. ate on’ (not: ‘the leaf that S. ate’)

Sentence (e) above, with an indirect object (dative case) marker removed in the relativization process, is somewhat questionable grammatically. In LK this sentence could be passivized, and *silambu* would become the subject, but since passivization is uncommon in SK, there is a degree of unacceptability here.

4.9.1. Relativization of aspect-marked verbs. Verbs that are aspectually marked can also be relativized. Usually these are the perfective aspect marker *iru* (see 3.8.9) and durative aspect marker *ttaa iru* (see 3.8.10), attached to a main verb.

al band-*iroo huDga* ‘the boy who has come there’
al band-*id huDga* ‘the boy who had come there’
al bartaa *iroo huDga* ‘the boy who is coming there’
al bartaa *id huDga* ‘the boy who was coming there’

4.9.2. Modally marked verbs. Verbs with modals can be relativized by affixing the verbalizer *aagu* (see 3.11.2) and by relativizing it, but only in the past, or with *iru* (see 3.8.9) attached.

al bar-peek-*aad huDga* ‘the boy who should come there’
al bar-peek-*aag-id huDga* ‘the boy who should have come there’
al bar-peek-*aag-iroo huDga* ‘the boy who should be coming there’

*al bar-peek-*aagoo huDga*

4.9.3. Equational sentences. When a sentence lacks a verb, as is the case with equational sentences (see 4.0.2), the sentence can be relativized by adding *aagu* in the same manner as in section 4.9.2.

(a) ad *beeku* and ad *pustka* ‘that is necessary’ ‘that is a book’ → ad *beek-*aad *pustka* ‘the book that was needed’
(b) ad *beek-*aagid *pustka* ‘the book that had become necessary’

Some adjectives that are formed from nouns, of course, have what amounts to the past adjectival participle of *aagu*, that is, *aada*, added to them, without which they cannot occur.

(c) sundara-*v-aad huDgi* ‘the girl who is beautiful’
(d) ettar-*v-aad mara* ‘the tree that is tall’
(e) ettar-*v-aag-id mara* ‘the tree that was tall’
(f) ettar-*v-aag-iroo kaTTaDa* ‘the tall building’

Sentences (a) and (b) are distinct from a simple equational sentence such as

(g) ad oLLee kaarya ‘that matter is good’

in that (a) and (b) have a way of marking tense/aspect, whereas (g) is an unmarked present. The use of *aada* with adjectives indicates an inalienable or intrinsic quality or relationship; when an alienable or temporary or nonpermanent (extrinsic) quality is indicated, the adjectival participle of *iru* is used instead:

duDD-*iroo jaaga* ‘the place that (temporarily) has wealth’

4.9.4. Complement clauses. There are some dependent clauses that do not bear any case relationship to nouns in main clauses; they have been called complement clauses. They are often used to express fact, in which case often the adjectival participle *annoo* (+*annuu*) of the quotative verb (see 4.5) is used.

avn band-*id viSyaa* ‘the fact that he had come’
goopaal *biidii kuNda annoo sangti nija* ‘the proposition that Gopal danced in the street is true’

When it is present, a full sentence precedes it; but in its absence, the verb of the embedded sentence is made into an adjectival participle:

goopaal *biidii kuNda sangti nija* ‘the report that Gopal danced in the street is true’

4.9.5. Nominalizations. When a pronoun occurs with a relative clause in front of it, we get nominalized verbs (verbal nouns; see 3.5.8), such as *maaDidadu* (+*maaDidddyu*) ‘that which (someone) did’, *maaDid-avanu* (+*maaDid-oonu*) ‘the man who did (something)’.
The meaning of the neuter-marked verbal noun such as maaDidadu can either be ‘that which did’, ‘that which was done’, ‘the act of doing’, or ‘the fact of doing’. Sometimes to make it expressively factive annoodu (annu-t-ada) is present, but if it is absent, verbal nouns are formed.

goopal biidiil kuNda annood nija ‘(the fact) that Gopal danced in the street is true’
goopal biidiil kuNdad nija ‘that Gopal danced in the street is true’

4.9.6. Negative relative clauses. Relative clauses with negative verbs can be formed by using the negative adjectival participle (see 3.5.7), formed by the addition of -ada to the stem: maaD-ada ‘the (one) who did not do X’.

il kelsa maaDad huDga yaaru? ‘who is the boy who did not/does not work here?’

Since there is no tense marking of the negative participle, it can be used with any adverbial time expression and takes its tense from the context of the sentence:

naaLe

iuvattu

ninne

kelsa maaDad huDga yaaru?

‘who’ {is} the boy who {will not} work(ing) {tomorrow}
‘was’ {is not} {did not} {today} {yesterday}

However, these forms can be given aspectual (perfect) meaning by the addition of the negative adjectival participle of iru (see 3.8.9).

ninne kelsa maaD-illad huDga yaaru? ‘who is the boy who has not worked yesterday?’

ninne il band-illad huDgi yaaru? ‘who is the girl who has not come yesterday?’

Sometimes the verb hoogu can be used with the negative participle to express the notion ‘past’.

kelsa maaDde hood huDga yaaru? ‘who is the boy who didn’t work (went without working)’

4.10. Clefted sentences. In Kannada, as in English, there is a kind of sentence called a cleft sentence. The process of clefting adds a degree of semantic focus to some word or phrase that is singled out by the process. Clefting in English involves taking a sentence like ‘I saw him yesterday at my house’ and extraposing (moving to one end of the sentence, in this case the beginning) some element of this sentence while adding ‘it is/was’.

‘it was I who saw him yesterday at my house’
‘it was yesterday that I saw him at my house’
‘it was he whom I saw yesterday at my house (it was him I saw . . . )’
‘it was in my house that I saw him yesterday’

In Kannada, clefting involves changing a verb marked for PNG (in agreement with the subject; see 3.4) to neuter marking (see 2.1). Thus, if the verb were (naan) nooDidde ‘I saw (something)’ it would be changed to (naan) nooDiddu ‘it was I that saw’. If the verb is in the present, it is changed to a verbal noun (see 3.5.8); then in either case the focused part of the sentence is usually moved to the end of the sentence, after the (neuter marked) verb.

naan avnan nan maneel ninne nooDde

I him my house in yesterday saw
‘I saw him in my house yesterday’

naan avnan nan maneel nooDidd ninne

‘it was yesterday that I saw in my house’

naan avnan ninne nooDid nan maneeli

‘it was in my house that I saw him yesterday’

naan nan maneel ninne nooDid avanna

‘it was him that I saw in my house yesterday’

avnan nan maneel ninne nooDid naunu

‘it was I that saw him yesterday in my house’

Since any constituent can be clefted, it moves to the end of the sentence with all its case markings, attributive words (adjectives), and so forth. But not more than one major constituent can be clefted at a time:
*naan nooDid avnan nan maneeli ‘it was him in my house that I saw’

For further emphasis, the extraposed constituent can have emphatic particles or words added:

naan avnan nooDid nan maneeli ‘it was right in my house that I saw him’

avnan nooDid naan-#aatra ‘it was I alone who saw him’

4.10.1. Optionality of extraposition. Clefting in Kannada usually involves two processes, extraposing and changing the verb to neuter, but sometimes extraposing (particularly in the case of interrogative sentences) can be omitted. It should also be noted that interrogative cleft sentences, particularly in the present tense, are often translated with ‘can’ or ‘should’ or ‘supposed to’ rather than ‘what it is that…’.

naan een maadDoodu? (instead of naan een maadDitiini?) ‘what can/should I do?’

naan maadDood eenu? ‘what am I supposed to do? (what can/should/shall)’

naan een maadDde? ‘what did I do?’

naan maadDid eenu? ‘what is it that I have done?’

4.10.2. Clefting and interrogative pro-forms. When interrogative pronouns and other pro-forms (see 2.5.1-2) occur as modifiers of head nouns in interrogative sentences, only the modifying interrogative pro-form can be clefted; adjectives in particular cannot be clefted without the nouns they modify.

avm eST kelsa maadDda? ‘how much work did he do?’

avm kelsa maadDid eSTu? ‘how much work was it that he did?’

avm maadDid eST kelsa? ‘how much work was it that he did?’

avm oLLLe kelsa maadDda ‘he did good work’

avm maadDid oLLLe kelsa ‘it was good work that he did’

*avm kelsa maadDidd oLLLe

SYNTAX

When an interrogative pronoun is present and any other constituent is extraposed, emphatic or fociisive clefting does not result. Instead, only stylistic variation, or afterthought word order, is the result.

naan al eST-uTuTa tinde? ‘how much did I eat there?’
aan al eST-uTuTa tindiddu? ‘how much did I eat there?’

4.11. Clitics. Clitics are particles that can be added to any constituent of a sentence, with different semantic effect depending on the constituent. Kannada has a number of such clitics, such as the yes/no question marker -aa (see 4.3), the emphatic particles -taanee and -ee, the inclusive or additive suffix -uu, the indefinite or “doubtful” suffix -oo, and maatra meaning ‘only’. Clitics may also include the deictic demonstrative prefixes (see 2.5.2), but here we only deal with suffixes. The grammatical category to which the clitic is suffixed is called the host; clitics themselves are the same no matter which host they are attached to; they never, however, occur in isolation.

4.11.1. The emphatic particle -ee. The clitic -ee is used to express emphasis. Ramanujan (1963:70) calls it an “exclusive” particle (in contrast with -uu, which is inclusive). The addition of -ee to a host emphasizes the character of that host to the exclusion of other things or presuppositions or possibilities.

naan il bande ‘I came here’
aan-ee il bande ‘I myself (I alone) came here’

The addition of -ee to naanu indicates that the possibility that others also came is excluded. Emphatic -ee, like all clitics, can be added to all constituents of the sentence, except to adjectives and finite verbs. When it is added to finite verbs, at the end of the sentence, the meaning is that the speaker feels that the addressee’s presupposition or behavior is inappropriate. In such cases, the intonation pattern is also different, that is, it falls, then rises and falls again, but not completely.

*ammu ninne hos maneeg band-idlee ‘Ammu came to the new house yesterday (so why are you acting as if she hadn’t?)’
This seems to indicate that adjectives, as we have noted earlier, are not constituents in deep structure, but only appear in surface structure.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ammu ninne hos maneeg bandidlu} & \quad \text{‘Ammu came to the new house yesterday’} \\
\text{ammu-n-ee} & \quad \text{ninne hos maneeg bandidlu} \quad \text{‘Ammu herself came to the new house yesterday’} \\
\text{ammu ninne-n-ee} & \quad \text{hos maneeg bandidlu} \quad \text{‘Ammu came to the new house yesterday’} \\
\text{ammu ninne hos maneeg-ee} & \quad \text{bandidlu} \quad \text{‘Ammu came to the new house yesterday’} \\
\text{ammu ninne hos maneeg bandee idlu} & \quad \text{‘Ammu came indeed to the new house yesterday/Ammu did so come...’} \\
\ast \text{ammu ninne hosee/hosavee maneeg bandidlu} & \quad \text{‘Ammu came to the new house yesterday’}
\end{align*}
\]

When -ee is used with time expressions, it emphasizes that the time indicated is earlier than the time stipulated or expected by the speaker.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{avn ayd g(h)aNTeeq-ee} & \quad \text{bandbiTTa} \quad \text{‘he came at five o’clock (rather than later)/he was here already at five o’clock’} \\
\text{avn ayd g(h)aNTeeq band-biTTa} & \quad \text{‘he came at five o’clock (as expected’)}
\end{align*}
\]

In negative sentences, when the act referred to by the verb is emphasized, usually -ee is added to the verbal noun before -illa is added (see 3.5.8, 4.4.6).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{avLi\l\l ad aagood-ee-illa} & \quad \text{‘it doesn’t suit her at all’} \\
\text{ammu al hoogood-ee-illa} & \quad \text{‘Ammu doesn’t go there at all’}
\end{align*}
\]

In positive sentences, the past participle (see 3.5.2) is reduplicated with -ee added, followed by the finite verb:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{naan bandee bartiin\i} & \quad \text{‘I will certainly come/I promise I will come’} \\
\text{avn hoog-ee hoogtama} & \quad \text{‘he will most certainly go’}
\end{align*}
\]

Note that when -ee is added to the past participle, verbs that have past participles in -i (such as hoogu ‘go’ and maaDu ‘make’) delete this before -ee. If the verb has a modal auxiliary, either the verb, in its infinitive form, or the modal reduplicated, has the emphatic particle added:

\[
\begin{align*}
ni\l\l\l hoo\l\l\l o\l\l\l hoo\l\l\l o\l\l\l ee\l\l\l beek\l\l u\l\l\l & \quad \text{‘you must definitely go’} \\
ni\l\l\l hoo\l\l\l o\l\l\l o\l\l\l beekee\l\l\l beek\l\l u\l\l\l & \quad \text{‘you absolutely have to go’} \\
avn hoo\l\l\l g-kuuDL-ee\l\l\l ku\l\l\l u\l\l\l D\l\l\l\l u\l\l\l & \quad \text{‘he shouldn’t go at all’}
\end{align*}
\]

4.111. The ‘verificatory’ -oo. When the clitic -oo is added to a constituent, it indicates that the speaker has some doubt or uncertainty about the host of the clitic, or is trying to clarify some uncertainty or express surprise he has about some element of the proposition. Also, it may indicate that the speaker has just realized that some presupposition he had about the situation has now been confirmed.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{vasanta naaLe uurg hoogtaaLe} & \quad \text{‘Vasanta goes to the village tomorrow’} \\
\text{(oohoo) vasanta-oo naaLe uurg hoogoodu} & \quad \text{‘(oh, now I understand) it’s Vasanta that’s going to the village tomorrow, is it?’} \\
\text{(oohoo) vasanta naaLeen-oo uurg hoogoodu} & \quad \text{‘(oh, now I get it) it’s tomorrow that V. is going to the village, is it?’} \\
\text{(oohoo) vasanta naaLe uurgoo hoogoodu} & \quad \text{‘(oh, now I get it) it’s to the village that V. is going tomorrow, is it?’} \\
\text{(oohoo) vasanta naaLe uurg hoogtaaLoo} & \quad \text{‘oh, so Vasanta is going to the village tomorrow, is she?’}
\end{align*}
\]

The difference between the use of -oo and interrogative -aa in these sentences is that with -aa the speaker is asking for information about the truth value of the sentence or its constituents, whereas here he is asking for confirmation of his belief about something. When the sentence is negative, the opposite of the proposition is believed by the speaker, who wants to confirm his belief.

-oo can also be added to a constituent as a topicalizer, in which case that constituent is extrapolated to the beginning of the sentence. In this sense it can often be translated into English as ‘as for X’ or ‘well/now, X’.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{avnoo, erD doose tinda} & \quad \text{‘as for him, he ate two pancakes’} \\
\text{uurgoo, vasanta naaLe hoogtaaLe} & \quad \text{‘as for the village, V. is going tomorrow’}
\end{align*}
\]
4.11.3. Dubitative and disjunctive -oo. When two or more of the same type of constituent have -oo added to them, the meaning is 'either...or'.

avn-oo naan-oo naaLe nim maneeg bartiivi 'either he or I will come to your house'

avn dooseenoo iDLiinoo tinda 'he ate either pancakes or rice cakes.'

*avnoo naanoo ninne bandvi '?either he or I came yesterday (I'm not sure which)'

Note that this cannot be used in the past when the facts of the situation are already known. In some dialects, when -oo is added to case-marked nouns, case markings, especially accusative, are obligatory. When -oo is added to interrogative pro-forms, indefinite pro-forms are created having the meaning 'some wh- or other' or 'wh- ever' (see 2.5.2).

ninne yaar-oo bandru 'yesterday somebody or other came'
naaLe yaar-oo bartaa're someonoe or other will come tomorrow'

*ninne yaar-oo barllila '*someonoe or other didn’t come yesterday'

Note that -oo may not be used with negative past forms.

4.11.4. The additive/inclusive particle -uu. When -uu is added to a constituent of a sentence, it gives the meaning 'too' or 'also'.

ammu ninne dooseen-uu tindlu 'Ammu ate dose also'

This presupposes the presence of something in addition to the host constituent.

-uu can be added to any constituent except adjectives or to finite verbs.

ammuun-uu ninne doose tindlu 'Ammu also ate dose yesterday'
ammu ninneen-uu doose tindlu 'Ammu ate dose yesterday also'
*ammu ninne doose tindl-uu
ammu ninne hosaa baTTe haak-kOndlu 'Ammu wore a new dress yesterday'

*ammu ninne hosa-uu baTTe haak-kOndlu *Ammu wore a new also dress yesterday'

The particle -uu is used to conjoin two similar constituents with the meaning 'and'. Usually these are nouns only. When verbs or sentences are conjoined, the first verb is in the form of the past participle (see 3.5.2), but no -uu is used.

ammuun-uu silambuu-uu ninne doose tindlu 'Ammu and Silambu ate dose yesterday'

ammu ninne dooseen-uu iDLiin-uu tindlu 'Ammu ate dose and idli yesterday'

When -uu is added to interrogative pro-forms in negative sentences (see 2.5.2), the meaning is 'no-wh'.

avn ell-uu hooglii 'he didn’t go anywhere'
yaar-uu il bartilla 'no one came here'
*avn ell-uu hoogtaane '*he went anywhere'

However, when -uu is added to yaavaaga 'when' (yaavaagl-uu) it may occur in affirmative sentences.

When added to nouns preceded by numerals (see 2.7), or to other quantifiers such as ella 'all', this notion of 'inclusion' extends to all members of the set under discussion.

avn ayy puskagL-(-ann)-u ooddal 'he read all five books'
ninne ibr-uu bandru 'yesterday both of them came'
ellru maisuurg bandru 'everybody came to Mysore'
sarkaa ellaa uurg-uu ayd-ayd lakSa ruupaayi koTTIdaaare 'the government has given Rs 500,000 to each town'

When -uu is added to a conditional form of the verb (see 3.10), the resultant combination means 'even if', or 'no matter if/whether' ('concessive').

avn nan up tindruu, drooha bagda 'he betrayed me even after eating my food (salt)'

This may be emphasized by adding kuuDa after -uu.

avn bandruu-kuuDa naan barolla 'even if he comes, I won't come'

4.11.5. Substitution of kuuDa. Generally, kuuDa may be substituted in all places that -uu is used, except when -uu is used twice for conjunction.

(a) avn-uu naan-uu bartiivi 'he and I will come'
(b) *avn-kuuDa naan-kuuDa bartiivi
4.11.6. The clitic -taaneem. To assert emphatically or unambiguously the identity of things, persons, time, location, and so forth, the clitic -taaneem is used in SK. This -taaneem is different from reflexive taanu (see 2.5) and its variants, which can only occur with third person subjects. Like all clitics -taaneem is invariant, no matter what the case or number of the subject, whereas reflexive taanu can vary with case. Furthermore, reflexive taanu always refers to an animate noun, whereas clitic -taaneem goes with any kind of noun; -taaneem immediately follows the host, whereas taanu is flexible in its position.

ava-taaneem bandu ‘he himself came/he's the one who came/he personally came’

If a pause occurs between the noun phrase and taanu, it is inferred that taanu is an occurrence of the reflexive pronoun taanu plus emphatic -ee. In such cases the subject must be third person, otherwise the sentence is ungrammatical.

*naan...taaneem bandu
naan-taaneem avnig ii viSya heeLiddu ‘it was I who told him this/I myself told him this’

naav ninne-taaneem uurg hoogidu ‘we went to town only yesterday (just yesterday)’

4.11.7. Multiple clitics in one sentence. Normally each clitic particle occurs only once with a host; that is, no host usually has more than one clitic at a time. But there may be more than one clitic in a sentence, and the same clitic may occur twice, as in the case of -oo...-oo meaning 'either...or', or -uu...-uu meaning 'and'. Usually -ee is not found in multiples in a sentence. When more than one clitic, such as -ee and maatra, are to be added in the same sentence, they occur as follows:

\[
\text{ammu maatra-v-ee maisuurg bandlu} \quad \text{only Ammu alone came to Mysore} \\
\]

1 2

The additive particle -uu and the isolative particle maatra do not co-occur because of the semantic anomaly; similarly, -ee and -oo do not co-occur. When -uu and -ee co-occur their preferred order is as in the following example:

\[
\text{ammuun-uu-v-ee al hoodlu} \quad \text{Ammu also went there} \\
\]

4.12. Consecutive action. Kannada has a number of ways in which to express one action following another. They differ slightly depending on the nature of the consecutive action, that is, whether the action is immediate, the result of the previous action, sequential, simultaneous, delayed, or whatever. Usually the first verb is in the form of the past participle (see 3.5.2), followed by an aspect marker (see 3.8), various postpositions (see 2.4), adverbs (see 4.2), or other verbal suffixes. For the formation of the verbal participle, see 3.4.3 and 3.5.

4.12.1. Sentence conjunction. Any two sentences in Kannada can be conjoined by removing the PNG markers of the first verb and making it past tense (i.e., a past verbal participle, see 3.5.2), then following this sentence with the second sentence. In English this is usually done by adding 'and' and deleting some portion of the second sentence, usually the noun phrase if they are identical.

\[
\text{naan bariini + naan nimman nooDtiini} \rightarrow \\
\text{‘I will come’} \quad \text{‘I will see you’} \\
\text{naan band nimman nooDtiini} \\
\text{‘I will come and see you’} \\
\text{naan bande + naan nimman nooDde} \rightarrow \text{naan band nimman nooDde} \\
\text{‘I came’} \quad \text{‘I saw you’} \quad \text{‘I came and saw you’} \\
\]

4.12.2. Manner. Two sentences in Kannada can be conjoined to show the manner in which two actions occur.

\[
\text{naan maneeg ooDde + naan maneeg bande} \rightarrow \\
\text{‘I ran to the house’} \quad \text{‘I came to the house’} \\
\text{naan maneeg ooD bande} \\
\text{‘I came running to the house’} \\
\]

In the first sentence, the actions of running and coming are simultaneous, running being the manner of coming.
4.12.3. Causation. In some cases, where the subjects of the two sentences are different, a cause and effect relationship is shown:

\[\text{maLe band kuLa tumbtu} \quad \text{‘the rain came and (therefore) the tank}
\]
\[\text{rain came tank filled filled’}
\]
\[\text{mara bidd avn kai murd-hoomytru} \quad \text{‘the tree fell and his hand broke}
\]
\[\text{tree fell his hand broke (and it broke his hand)’}
\]

In such causal relationships, the action that causes another must occur first in the sentence.

4.12.4. Sequential relations. More often than not the conjunction of two sentences implies that the action of the first sentence happens in time before the action of the second.

\[\text{avn avn nooD bande} \quad \text{‘I came after I saw him’}
\]
\[\quad \text{I him seen came}
\]
\[\text{naan ii pustka ood tilkOnde} \quad \text{‘after I read the book, I}
\]
\[\quad \text{this book having read understood understood’}
\]

In the initial example, the sequence, either immediate or delayed, of the two actions is implied. In the second, it can be understood that reading caused understanding, that the means of understanding was through reading, or that reading preceded understanding. When sentences are conjoined that have the same subject, as in both examples, the subject may be deleted, but presence or deletion of the subject makes no difference in meaning, and either the subject of the first or of the second sentence may be deleted:

\[\text{naan avn nooDde} + \text{naan bande} = \text{naan avn nooDi, bande}
\]
\[\quad \text{I him saw} \quad \text{(or avn nooDi, naan bande)}
\]
\[\quad \text{‘I came after seeing him’}
\]

However when the action of the first verb indicates the manner in which the second action is carried out, or where there is a conceptual unity involved, then the object occurs before the two verbs:

\[\text{avn pustka tegd ooddha} \quad \text{‘he opened the book and read/opening}
\]
\[\quad \text{he book opening read the book, he read’}
\]

When the two actions are consecutive but there is a conceptual discreteness then the object occurs after the first verb in its participial form:

\[\text{avn tegd pustka ooddha} \quad \text{‘he opened the book and then read it’}
\]
\[\quad \text{he opening book read}
\]

It is possible (though very rarely) to pronominalize the second of two objects in this construction (i.e., the second of the deleted objects):

\[?avn pustka tegd adan ooddha \quad \text{‘he opened the book and read it’}
\]

If one object is deleted, this does not imply that it is the same as another object in the other sentence, however. Kannada has much more freedom of deletion of objects than does English, which can be seen from many other examples in this volume where Kannada lacks an object in the surface structure of the sentence in places where the English translation of the Kannada sentence must have one.

\[\text{kaLDrusu mane biiga tegd oLag nooDiddru}
\]
\[\quad \text{thieves house lock opened inside look}
\]
\[\quad \text{‘The thieves opened (broke) the house lock and looked inside}
\]
\[\quad \text{(the house)’}
\]

In this sentence, the object of looking is the house, not the lock. When one of the verbs of a conjoined sentence is intransitive and the other is transitive, there are a number of possible placements of the object noun (and some impermissible placements):

\[\text{avn avLhatra hooa + avn avLan nooDda}
\]
\[\quad \text{he her to went he her saw}
\]
\[\text{avn avLan hoog nooDda}
\]
\[\quad \text{he avn avLan nooDda}
\]
\[\quad \text{*avn nooD avLan hooda}
\]
\[\quad \text{‘he went and saw her’}
\]

4.12.4.1. Sequential relations with meeL. When a small amount of time elapses between two actions, this may be expressed with a postposition such as meeL ‘after, whereupon’ (see 2.4). Postpositions must follow the adjectival participle (see 3.5.5-6). Usually the past adjectival participle is required after these postpositions.

\[\text{avn band-meel niiv banni} \quad \text{‘please come after he comes’}
\]
\[\text{naan hooD-meel niin hoogu} \quad \text{‘go after I go’}
\]

4.12.5. Delayed sequential relations. When the aspect marker biDuu
\[\text{‘completive’ (see 3.8.2) is attached to the first verb, it indicates that}
\]
the first action is definitely complete before the second begins. The use of \textit{biDu} with certain transitive and intransitive verbs also has some other connotations, such as whether the action was deliberate and difficult to achieve, whether it was accidental, or unintentional, undesirable, and so forth (see 3.8.2).

\textit{avv kuDid-biTTu, bariiataa-idda} ‘he was writing after having been drinking/he drank (alcohol) and then went on writing’

\textbf{4.12.6. Simultaneous action.} When two actions are simultaneous, starting and ending at the same time, the durative aspect marker \textit{ttaa} (see 3.8.10) is added to the present stem of the first verb.

\textit{naan adan nooDt aa bande} ‘I came (while) seeing it’
\textit{avv yoocone maaDtaa kuutidda} ‘he was sitting, (all the while) thinking (about it)’

When the action of one sentence is iterative, that is, repeated several times during the time span of the action, then the past participle of the aspectual verb \textit{koLLu} (see 3.8.8) is added to the past participle of the first verb.

\textit{naan adan nooD-koNDee bande} ‘I came looking at it’
\textit{avv tin-koNDee maataaDda} ‘he spoke (to us) while eating something’

In such cases the emphatic clitic \textit{ee} is added to the participle \textit{koNDu: koNDee}.

\textbf{4.12.7. Immediate consecutive action.} The postpositions \textit{oDane}, \textit{kuk Dale}, or \textit{takSNa} may be used to express an action that follows immediately on the heels of another. These must follow the adjectival participle (see 3.5.4).

\textit{naan nooDid takSNa horTe} ‘I left as soon as I saw (it)’
\textit{niiv baay biTT oDane avr nakru} ‘he laughed as soon as you opened your mouth’
\textit{naan nooDid kukDle avr hooDa} ‘as soon as I saw (him) he left’
\textit{avv oLag band kukDle siinda} ‘as soon as he came in he sneezed’

\textbf{4.12.8. Prior sequential action.} When action A clearly precedes action B and this precedence is emphasized, rather than indicating in an unmarked way that B merely follows A, the postposition \textit{munee} ‘before’ is used. The verb to which it is suffixed must be in the form of the verbal noun (see 3.5.8) or the infinitive (see 3.2), both with optional dative, since the infinitive is itself originally a nominal form. Thus, for a verb like \textit{nooDu} ‘see’, the verbal noun is \textit{nooDu+nu+du(takte ‘dative’) + nooDood(akke) + nooDo(kke) + munee ‘before seeing’}; the infinitive of \textit{nooDu} is \textit{nooDalu}, which (particularly in the northern dialect, McCormack 1966:85-86) has the dative form \textit{nooD(a)likke + munee}, giving us forms such as:

\textit{nooDok-munee or nooDalik-munee} ‘before seeing’
\textit{naan nooDok-munee avr hooDa} ‘he went away before I saw (him)’
\textit{avr tinlik-munee kai toLkoNDru} ‘he washed his hands before he ate’

\textbf{4.12.9. Wholly included simultaneous action.} If one action is completely contained within the time span of another, beginning no sooner than the other begins and/or ending before the other ends, the adverb \textit{-aaga ‘at that time’} is used. It is attached to the present or past adjectival participle (see 3.5.5-6).

\textit{naan bengLurug hooq-idaaga avr sikk-idru}
I Bangalore to went when he was available
‘I met him when I went to Bangalore (during the time I was there and stayed in B.)’
\textit{niiv baroo-v-aaga adan tanni}
you come when that bring
‘you must bring that (to me) when you come’
\textit{naav maNDyaddall-idd-aaga naayi saakidvi}
‘we kept a dog while we were living in Mandya’

Another way of expressing an action taking place within the time span of another is by using the adverbial expression \textit{aST-ar-oLage} ‘before (some other occurrence)’, within that (much) time’, ‘while’. It is attached to an adjectival participle (see 3.5.5).

\textit{naan baroo aSTroLge magu galiij maaDbiTTittu}
I coming while child mess had made
‘The child had made a mess before I could get back’
4.12.10. **Illustration of various sequential relations.** The sequential relations of the two actions discussed above can be illustrated in the following table: the symbols '11111' refer to the first action; the symbols '22222' refer to the second; and their relative lengths indicate the duration of action.

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<td>222222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12.7</td>
<td>takSNa, oDane</td>
<td>111111</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'immediately following'</td>
<td>222222</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.12.4</td>
<td>past participle</td>
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<td>meele</td>
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<td></td>
<td>'after'</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.12.5</td>
<td>biDu</td>
<td>111111</td>
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<td>'completive'</td>
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</table>

**NOTES**

Chapter 1: Phonology

1. The best over-all statement of the phonetics of SK is to be found in Upadhyaya (1972).

2. Traditional grammars of Kannada and modern grammars following the traditional model (Rajapurohit 1975b:95) describe the palatal sounds as "true" palatals; but other descriptions indicate that the palatal stops are phonetically apico-alveolar or blade-alveolar with affricated offset (Sreekantaiya 1954:548).

   It should be noted that for some speakers (of northern dialects) of Kannada, the affricated portion of the palatal stops is not blade-alveolar, but tip-alveolar. Thus in these dialects, c and j are phonetically [ts] and [dz] respectively, rather than [tʃ] and [dʒ] (Rajapurohit 1975b:95). This seems to be a feature more typical of those northern dialects spoken in Bijapur, Belgaum, and Dharwar; according to Sreekantaiya (1954:550), the tip-alveolar articulation is found only before back vowels, and before a and aa medially. Before front vowels, initially before a and aa, and in loan words (especially in words borrowed without change from Sanskrit, so-called tattvas) the blade-alveolar articulation occurs.

3. Earlier forms of Kannada had two other continuants, sometimes transcribed as r (L) and r (R). r, presumably a retroflex frictionless continuant, merged with other sounds (primarily with L) beginning in the eighth century (Gai 1946: 17); the alveolar r (presumably) remained distinct from present r until the twelfth century (Narasimhia 1941:25), although earlier cases of its merger with r and even r are attested from the eighth century (Gai 1946:15, 17).