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34 Strada Reale, Valletta.
MALTA.
1910.

## MALTESE

## POCKET GRAMMAR

BY
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## Preface.

The present work is an attempt to supply a long felt want in the shape of a grammar for the Maltese language.

The author has chosen Maltese as a type, and perhaps the most ancient, of Semitic languages.

The plan, which is followed throughout, is based on a scientific phonetical system.

The author wishes at the same time to give to his Maltese friends the opportunity of making themselves acquainted with the grammatical constructions of their language.

It is an undoubted fact, that even the best educated classes of Malta do not always understand the meaning of a great number of words, which are used by them constantly and of which they are unable to give the grammatical explanation. As an example we might mention the word "abl" - armpit, which few Maltese would understand, although "taht abti"under my armpit -is a common expression.

The author would feel satisfied if the present work would stimulate his Maltese friends to the study of the leading rules of their grammar. They would then consider such words as "andaf" "merjüa", "mtallém" etc..., which are the comparative of the Maltese "nadif", the passive participle of the Mattese "raja", and the participle of the Maltese "talllem," respectively as strictly Maltese, since they conform. to the Maltese formation. "Akbar", the comparative of "kabir" (or kbìr), "meblùa" and "mallém", the participles of "bala" and "âllém", are similar examples.

## THE ALPHABET

The transcriptions that are now used for the Maltese written language have been arranged by foreigners, whose ideas of the Maltese roots and their origin were extremely imperfect.

The first scribes tried to write Maltese words using the Italian characters-the least desirable for a Semitic transcription. For this purpose they used their personal sense of perspicacity and intelligence in capturing Maltese sounds and, by appropriating the Italian alphabet, rendered them without any claim at philological knowledge or scientific system.

Result :
I. one cannot read Maltese correctly, the transcriptions not giving the pronunciation of the words;
2. one cannot understand Maltese reading, the transcriptions having been made by people who were ignorant of the roots of this language.

Our first efforts should be directed towards giving the Maltese language a true transcription.

The Maltese language, like all Semitic languages, is very rich in vowels.

Of the European alphabets the only one, which lends itself in any way for rendering the rich Semitic sounds, is the French alphabet.
Vowels.
The Maltese have:
6 short vowels :

| a | ex: | farda, | darba |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| é | ", | kéla, | émm |
| i | ". | hisér, | kidéb |
| o | ", | ohxon, | omm |
| e | orn | ben, | meblûa, be'l-mwòd |
| u | (like the latin u | ex |  |

    5 long vowels :
    | à | ex : | hăres, | dàr |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| è | , |  | slèm |
| 1 | ,, | nadif, | slima |
| ò | ," | xobr |  |
| ù | ,, | sùq ( $=$ | , |

5 guttural vowels:

| $\hat{a}$ | ex | bâd, | âdda |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ê | ,' | mèêr, | qéêd |
| î | " | ill, | îlla |
| ô | , | ôli, | ômor |
| a | ,, | ûud, | néyna |

2 evasive vowels :

## w ex : héwa,

 y ," hal liya, bahriya, barràniy Remarks :1. Short $i$ and short $u$ become $y$ and $w$ between two vowels.
2. $w$ after $y$ becomes $u$; and $y$ after $w$ becomes $i$.
3. $w$ and $y$ between two consonants become $u$ and $i$.
N.B. The importance of the vowels and the necessity of distinguishing the short, the long, and the guttural vowels in writing is quite obvious if we compare the different meanings of the words :
suq $=$ go on ! sùq = market; $\mathrm{l} i=$ to, for $; \mathrm{l}=$ to me , for me; hal = encampment, village ; hàl = state, disposition, condition ; ad= to say, to tell ; âd=although, still, not yet; qarr $=$ to settle things ; mqàr $=$ probably etc.
Consonants.
Consonants are solar or lunar.
Solar consonants are $8: \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{z}$. Remark: consonant $x$ has to be pronounced like the English sh or the French ch.

I unar consonants are also 8: b, f. g, h, j. k, m, q. Remarks: 1. Consonant $g$ has to be pronounced like a grasseyement, or light guttural aspiration.

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2. Consonant $h$ is like the german $h$.
3. Consonant $j$ has to be pronounced :
a) like the French $j$
at the end of words; ex: hawdéj
before all consonants, except before $h$; ex: âjzénin,
b) like the English $j$ in all other cases.
4. Consonant $q$ is a guttural $k$.
N.B. 1. The Italian sounds $c i$, cio etc. do not exist in Semitic languages. Those few words in which these sounds are heard in Malte:se, are either of Italian origin, or corruptions of Semitic words with $x$ or $j$. Ex: wicc $=$ wijh ( ${ }^{*}$ ); cekcek $=$ xékxék etc.
5. $P$.does not exist in Semitic languages. Those few words, in which this sound is heard in Maltese, are either foreign words, like Petrus, Paulus etc., or corruptions of Semitic words with $b$ or $f$. Ex : dahlet ish-shilep $=$ dahlét ix-xiléf.

Such words as pxara ( = b'xara $=$ with news), phàlék ( $=$ b'hàlék = like you), pitqal ( $=$ bi tqal = with heaviness), phalkyéku ( = b'hàl kyéku = as if it were), priklu ( $=$ b'rikhlu $=$ with probability = perhaps) etc., evidently have no claim to a $p$, since the $p$ is only taking the place of the preposition $b i$, which stands for with.

Pqayla is no exception to the rule, being the diminutive of baqla, just as jnéyna is the diminutive of jénna, and should be written with a $b$.

Phonetical note. A noun, ending in short a takes a euphonic $t$, when it is followed by the article or by a noun, beginning with a vowel.

Ex: tisâa miat élf; érbâat éléf; érbâat izmna; sénâat $t$ il-qaysèn féhmat il-mara sahhat il-bnèdém sahhat ir-rajel etc.

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## THE ARTICLE

The Maltese article is il for all genders and numbers.
N.B. 1. Before nouns, beginning with one of the solar consonants, the $l$ of the article is substituted by that solar letter which it preceedes.

Ex: ix-xémx (instead of il-xémx)
ir-rajel (instead of il-rajel)
in-nàr (instead of il-nàr)
id-dàr (instead of il-dàr)
it-triq (instead of il-triq)
is-sawm (instead of il-sawm)
iz-zibél (instead of il-zibél)
il-léyl il-léyl.
But it remains unaltered before the lunar consonants as: il-qamar, il-kotba etc. . .
2. After a word, ending in a vowel, the $i$ of the article is suppressed

Ex: da 'l-kélb (instead of da il-kélb)
di 'I-libsa (instead of di il-libsa)
âtini '1-hobz (instead of âtini il-hobz)
darbu 't-tifla (instead of darbu it-tifla;
3. But, when the word preceeding the article is a noun and when the last letter of this noun is a short $a$, the $i$ of the article does not fall out, but a euphonic $t$ is added to the end of the preceeding word.

Ex: sénâat il kaysèn. . . (see phonetical note p.7)
Historical remark. In the primitive language there were two ways of making a noun definite :

1. by prefixing the article il
2. by prefixing the old pronoun he which is the original form of hua and huma.

Ex: he qsìs = the pastors; he ball = the God etc.
There is now no trace of the pronoun he used in the Maltese language as an article.

Mistakes. A mistake, which the Maltese always make in writing, is to prefix to the words $m a$ (water) ifâ (viper), "item" (orphanage), itim (urphan), isir (slave), anjàs (pear), abra (needle), buis (fine linen), isàr (sheet),-- one article, when they are indefinite : il-ma, '1-ifâ, '1-itém, '1-tim, '1-sir, '1-anjàs, '1-abra,'1-bùs, '1-izàr, -- and two articles, when they are definite: '1-il-ma, il-'1-ifâ, il-'1-itém, il-'l-tim, il-'l-sir. il-'l-anjàs, il-'l-abra, il-’l-bùs, il-'l-izàr !

Another mistake is using the article before nouns already defined by affixed pronouns.

Ex: 'l-ibni - the my son, instead of ibni my son ;
'l-omm $\ddagger u$-the his mother, instead of ommћ $u$ -- his mother.

The irregularity in the use of 'l-ibni might be explained by its resemblance to $\quad l-i b n i$ - the sons, or $b n i-$ sons; but $l^{\prime}$-omm $\ddagger u$ cannot be explained.

## THE PRONOUN

## Personal pronouns.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Singular } & \text { 1. yen } \\
& \text { 2. int' (instead of inta, inti) } \\
\text { 3.. hua, hia. } \\
\text { Plural } & \text { 1. hhna } \\
\text { 2. } & \text { intom } \\
\text { 3. huma }
\end{array}
$$

## Affixed pronouns.

Singular 1. ni (to verbs)
i (to nouns ending in a consonant)
ya (to nouns ending in a vowel)
2. k , (after vowels) ok, ek, (after consonants)
3. $\hbar$, do $\ddagger u$, do

ћa (for feminlne)
Plural i. nè or na
2. kom
3. ћom
N.B. The affixed pronouns $h, h u, h a$ and hom should, in my opinion, be written with a line over the $h$ thus ' $\hbar$ '. i, on account of its very light almost imperceptible aspiration, when it follows a consonant ; ex : ândћu; ktebtћu, bił etc.

2 , in order to make a distinction between the $h$ of the affixed pronouns and $h$ when it happens to be the last letter of a root. Ex : rùhћu his soul; férrahћa-he rejoiced her.

At any rate the $h$ of the pronouns $\hbar u$, $\hbar a$, $\hbar \% m$, should not be left out in writing, $h$ being the root
of these pronouns, and its suppression is liable to cause confusion in the construction of phrases.

Ex: minna minћa darbu darbちu darbuћu férrahu ferrahtu he has rejoiced him etc. .

Affixed pronouns may be joined to any word. I Joined to transitive verbs-they constitute the objective case : Ex : hudni ( $=$ hud + ni) $=$ take me II Joined to prepositions-they constitute the indirect case : Ex: fik ( $=\mathrm{fi}+\mathrm{k}$ )- in you; ândћu $(=\hat{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{nd}+\mathrm{hu})=$ "ches $h u i^{"}=$ he possesses.
III Joined to nouns,- the affixed pronouns have the meaning of possessive adjectives. Ex: dàri ( $=$ dar +i$)=\mathrm{my}$ house.

## Irregularities

I.) Affixed pronouns with the preposition $l i=t$, for, are irregular in the following cases:

11 instead of liya
lék instead of lik
thu instead of lith
1ha instead of liौa
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Ina } \\ \text { ilna } \\ \text { lafter vowels) } \\ \text { (after consonants) }\end{array}\right\} \text { instead of "lina" } \\ \text { ilkom (after vowels) } \\ \text { ilk consonants) }\end{array}\right\}$ instead of "likom" 1ћom instead of liћom .
Remark. One often comes across expressions peculiar to the Maltese language, consisting in the repetition of the preposition $l i$ before the affixed pronouns.
Ex : $l i l i=$ for to me, instead of $l i=$ for $m e$; lilékfor to you, instead of lék-for you etc.
2.) Affixed pronouns with the preposition $m \hat{a}=$ with, are irregular in the following cases:

| miây $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ | instead of mâya |
| :--- | :--- |
| miâk $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ | instead of mâk $\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$ |
| miâw $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ | instead of mâth |

The rest are regular: mâћa, mâna, mâkom, mâћom.
3.) Affixed pronouns with the preposition $\hat{a} l=o n$, over, are irregular: they take an $i$ between the $l$ and the affixed pronoun :
âliya, âlik, âlih, âliћa, âlina, âlikom, âliћom
This construction is evidently regular if we only remember that the Maltese $\hat{a l}$ is a corruption of the regular Semitic âlay.
4.) Affixed pronouns with the preposition $\min =$ of, from, are irregular only in Maltese orthography, where a superfluous $n$ is sometimes introduced: Minni $=\operatorname{mini} ;$ minnék = minék; minnkom=minkom ;
In $\quad m i n n u=m i n \hbar u$,
minua $=$ minћa ,
minnom $=\min$ om,
the second $n$ takes the place of the $h$ of the affixed prononns $\hbar u$, $\hbar a$ and $\hbar o m$.

Unlike the rest, minna from $u s$ is regular, but might be mistaken for "minћa=from her when the latter is written without $h$ (minna.)
5.) Words, ending in short $a$ in the singular,take the affixed pronouns through the intermediary of a
(*) Although this form is not to be found in other Semitic languages, it is, nevertheless, perfectly in accordance with the Semitic spirit of the language, which very often admits of transposition in the order and sequence of sounds. Here, instead of one $i$ which should have been between two $a \operatorname{s}$ (: mâya:) the word has been changed so that one $a$ comes between two $i$ s. (: miây).
${ }^{(* *)}$ Miák and miäze are arrangements after miáy
$(* * *)$ Mâk is sometimes used by country folk.

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euphonic $t ; a$ before $t$ is then often suppressed or transposed.

Ex: nahla,-nahlati or nahalti nahlaték or nahalték
$\begin{array}{cll}\text { sida, - sidati } & \text { or } & \text { sidti } \\ \text { sidana } & \text { or } & \text { sidna } \\ \text { mara, - marati } & \text { or } & \text { marti } \\ \text { maraték } & \text { or } & \text { marték etc. }\end{array}$
6.) Words, in the dual and plural forms ending in eyn, ayn and in, lose the final $n$ before the affixed pronouns. Ex: dirâyn-dirâyh, dirâyk; âjzènin —ajzènih, ajzènik, etc.
7.) The words tand tiâ, taking affixed pronouns, have the sense of mine, thine etc. .
$T \hat{a}$ is a barbarism; it is an abreviation of the arabic $m t a \hat{a}$-belongings.

Tiâ is an original Maltese form, being the adjective from tâ or âta-to take (: Tiâ-what is takenbelonging to :)

The following are pure Maltese forms: tiây, tiâk, tiâw (instead of tiâћ)
The following are adopted from the North African coast:
tahha (=tâha), tahhom (=tâhom), tâna, takom. Interrogative pronouns
I. $X i\binom{\dagger}{\dagger}=$ what, is generally followed by another word.

Ex: x'hin - what time?
x'ândék - what have you got?
xi trid - what do you want?
x'tâmél biћ (or $x^{\prime} t a ̂ m^{\prime} b i \hbar$ ) :-what do you make of it, or of him?
$\operatorname{xin} u(=x$ 'in $\hbar u)=$ what is it ? etc.
2. Men $=$ who for all genders and numbers.
( $\ddagger$ "Xi" is the contraction of "xéyn" (arabic "xéy un)"small thing" or "thing".

Men can be affixed to prepositions. Ex: limen -to whom? mimmen ( $=$ min men)-from whom? mamen-with whom etc.

Men can be used with the affixed pronoun $\hbar u$ Ex: menћu-who is it? (=who is he?)

In writing, mentiu must be written as one word, hu being an sffixed pronoun. If, on the other hand, it is written in two words, then $h u$ ceases to be an affixed pronoun and must therefore be written hua (: inen hua). Both expressions are correct.

## Relative pronouns

## A. Indefinite.

$M a=$ that. Ex: koll ma naâfu--all that we know Men = who.

Mistakes. In the Maltese Pater noster books make the following mistake: ahna nagfru Lilmin $y a h t i$ alina, although country people and even sometimes those of Valletta pronounce ahna nagfru LIMEN yahti alina. Men is indefinite, and prefixing the article to a pronoun, and especially to one which shows the indefinite sense is certainly a mistake and is not excusable on the strength of habit, as this habit does not exist among country folk.

## B. Definite.

Illi which is often spelt ' $l l i$ and is a barbaric contraction of the regular illadi, illadìn, illadin.

This pronoun can only be used after a definite noun or a personal pronoun.

Ex: yen hua 'lli-1 am the one who..
Allah hua 'lli - It is God who..
particulars in using "illi" 1. In the Nominative Case
ir-rajel, lli darabhu... the man who has wounded
[him
ir-rajel, 'lli darab da't-tifèl - the man who has [wounded that boy * ir-rajel, 'lli darab...the man who has wounded * 2. In the Objective Case
ir-rajel, 'lli darab da't-tifel ... the man, whom this [boy has wounded* ir-rajel, 'lli darab ..the man, whom he has wounded* ir-rajel, 'lli drobt... the man, whom I have wounded ir-rajel, 'lli drobna...the man, whom we have [wounded il-kotba, 'lli yisraq ...the books, which he will steal 3. In the Indirect Case without Preposition
ir-rajel, 'lli drobt thu it-tifèl...the man whose boy I have wounded
il-jnèn, tlli bèbћu qoddèm bèb dàrna...the garden, [the door of which is opposite our house door. 4. In the Indirect Case with Prepositions ir-rajel, 'lli hrejna miâw...the man with whom we came out il-huènet, 'lli dahlu fifom ... the shops in which they entered il-mara, 'lli ktebt tha ... the woman to whom I have written
il-jnèn, 'lli harjét mintu il mara...the garden from which this woman came out.
N.B. When the relative pronoun refers to an indefinite noun, it is not translated.

Ex: he has a house the rooms of which are big ... ândtuu dàr byùtia kbàr.
he has written a book which I did not understand ... kitéb ktèb ma fhemthu-x.'
${ }^{(*)}$ These maltese constructions differ from the modern arabic constructions.

## Demonstrative pronouns

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { masculine: } & \text { da, dak } \\
\text { feminine: di, dik } \\
\text { plural: } & \text { daw, dawk }
\end{array}
$$

Ex: mqàr ikun dak...probably this will come. The same are demonstrative adjectives, when followed by a definite noun.

Ex: da 'lkélb; di 'libsa; dawk in-nisà.
N.B. The words dan and daun, which are often found in Maltese books, are unknown to the people of Malta; at any rate dan is the dual of $d a$ and cannot be used in the singular number, although Maltese books always use it for $d a$, and $d i$ in the singular.

Daun, which is arranged after dawk is entirely unknown to the people of Malta, its meaning in other Semitic languages being meanness, rveakness, being down.

Before going any further it is well that we should add a few words about the way in which the sense of possession or belonging may be expressed in Maltese.

We have already referred to the manner of expressing possession by means of affixed pronouns.

There are yet two other ways:
נ. by means of two or several nouns following each other, the last being determinate either by the article or by the affixed pronoun.

Ex: moftèh bèb id-dar...the key of the house door. moftèh bèb dari ... the key of my house door . bèb id-dàr ... the house door (...door of the house) bèb dàri ... the door of my house

Remark. A house key,... undeterminate, ...would be moftèh dàr.

This way of determining possession or relation is the old, primitive Semitic way.
2. by means of the word tâ, put bctween two substantives.

Ex: Is-slàtin tâ Malta ... the knights of Malta
In Maltese books one comes across expressions, where $t a$ is used instead of the euphonic $t$ (see page 7 ). For example: môdiyat iz-zmén is written môdiya ta 's-zmèn.

## SOME PARTICLES AND SOME CONTRACTIONS

## USED AS PARTICLES

I. alléx or âlix...why? Is made up of âl éy xi over... what...thing.
The educated classes of Malta use âlex also for because, being accustomed to use the Italian perchè both for why and because
The people say quite correctly $\hat{a} x=\hat{a} n+x i$ for because. In the streets of Malta one hears children sing: il-lùm ( $=\mathrm{il}-$ yùm) la tsayar $1 \mathrm{l}-\mathrm{x}$ il-lèyla ma niji-x âx ommok ma tridni-x

II éyn ... where? Is never used alone. It is always affixed to:
1.) the preposition $f:$ féyn ... where in?
2.) the preposition ila contracted in l: leyn... where to?
3.) the preposition $\min :$ mineyn and sometimes minfeyn.. where from, and where from in? Ex: féyn int'? ... where are you?
$\underset{\text { minfégn }}{\min }\} \quad$ tiji?... where de you come from?
III ila-towards. It is used:
I.) in the contracted form of $l$ with ènn (see above II, 2)
2.) in the contracted form il': il' füq = upstairs (towards above); sèir il' béld...going to town
3.) in the contracted form ' $l a$, and also in another form where ' $l a$ is transposed in order to make $a l$ '. Ex: nmur 'la Slima ... I go to Sliema nmur al' tâ Slima - I go towards what belongs to Sliema

IV $i i$ may be:
I. an independent conjunction, corrupted from the Semitic law = if.
a) In conditional phrases it is generally followed by the preterit of the verb kèn.
Ex: li kont niji miâk, kyèku ma tibzâ min had b) sometimes it is followed by darba and is then spelt $l a$
Ex: la darba klèmi mux mesmùâa = if my words are not listened to..
2. a conjunction prefixed to verbs:
a) to express a wish, a desire

Ex: liyitaqaddes ismék $=$ thy name be sanctified! b.) to express a purpose, and it is then preceded in Maltese by the substantive hàl.
Ex: jèyt b'hàl linistàd... I have come to fish. the same phrase in good arabic : jeyt linistad. the same phrase in vulgar arabic : jeyt bèx nistad.
3. a preposition prefixed to nouns and pronouns, meaning to, for.
Ex: li...to me, for me ; lék...to you, for you; li'rrajel $=$ to the man etc.
Remark: li preposition is sometimes corrupted in il
Ex: ktébt ilkom $=I$ have written to you
ilàla ma jè-x' $=$ why did he not come? ilala $=i l \cdot($ or $l i)+e y+l a=$ for $\ldots$ what $\ldots$ not
N.B. The form lima = why?, which is made up of $l i=$ for, and the interrogative pronoun $m a=$ what is completely forgotten, although Agius de Soldanis pretends that the words of the gospel: Ili, Ili, limà xabaqtani are intelligible to the Maltese.
4. a preposition preceding the negative particles $m a \ldots x$; it then has the meaning of for that or as if.

Ex: yù:i li ma yaâfni-x-he pretends that he does not know me.
N.B. In writing care should be taken not to misuse the words:
li .-. to me, for me
li - prefixe to nouns and verbs
'lli - relative pronoun.
V in

1. as a particle it is used to amplify the significance of the subject; it is prefixed to pronouns and takes a double $n$.
Ex: kif iuntu? - how dues he do? kii innék? - how do you do? [*]
2. as a conjunction, it is used :
a) in the contracted form yek or $e k$ meaning if [yèk $=i n+y a k u=$ if it is]
b) in the contracted furm kyèku=as if it were (kyèku $=k a+i n+y a k u) ;$ kyèku is used:
(*) The same particle in used with affixed pronouns other than $K$ and $\hbar u$ is not understood by the Maltese, since no attention is paid to the grammatical sense of each word in the phrase. Thus: inni marid - it is I who am ill is unintelligible and yet grammatical.

Another example may be found in Kallayamar = ka .. Allah..yamar = as God orders. But if one were to say ka inni namar = as I bid, as I order, the Maltese will find it unintelligible.

Yet another example may be found in taht abti which means under my armpit and yet the word abt used isolated is also unintelligible, although a mere repetition of the word $a b t i$ without the affixed pronoun.

As a last example one may quote the following: $b^{\prime} h \grave{a} l=$ like; $\hat{a} d a=$ custom. But if one says $b$ 'hàl il $\hat{a} d a=a$ s it is costumary, the phrase becomes unintelligible, because the Maltese are not accustomed to this construction, the usual phrases being! b'hàl ma ahna mdorriin, or kif dàri (dàri the active participle of dara-yidra to accustom.)
aa) in a conditional phrase, in opposition to the corresponding phrase with yek.
Ex: yèk il-hmèt tinjèb mâ 'l-kénna kyéku 'l-jhénna sèrét jénna
[if the mother in law agrees with the daughter in law it is as if the hell would become a $p$ radise] bb.) in a conditional phrase in opposition to the corresponding phrase with $l i=l a z$.
Ex: li kont niji miâk, kyéku ma tibzâ min had cc.) in optative phrases, when the wish is unattainable; it has then the meaning of if only !
Ex: kyèku niji miâk!-If only I could come with you! [I wish I could come.]
3. as an independent conjuction, meaning that, it always preceedes the aorist and is generally not translated at all.
Ex: yèk in nzid lèk... if I add to you
yèk it trid [=yèk in trid] - if you like
mali in nharsu $\left[^{* *}\right] \ldots$ as soon as we look etc.
N.B. Maltese dictionaries state that in-nzid, it trid, in nharsu etc. . are special forms of the Semitic verb, whereas they are morely the simple form used with the conjunction $i n$, the $n$ being s!tb stituted by $t$ in the 2 d . person.
VI màl a contraction of ma zàl - it did not cease.
This contraction is usually translated as still.
Ex: mà hayyen - he is still among the living [ = he did not cease to be alive]
In a combination with the conjunction $i d a n=$ then $m \dot{a l}$ is always wrongly written mallidana, although pronounced mal idan

Ex: màl idan wasal fùqna b'la hsè $b=$ in that interval he came upon us unexpectedly [mal=it did not cease ; idan $=$ then ; wasal $=$ he arrived; füqna $=$ upon us ; b'la = with no; hsèb = warning, cogitation :]
(**) The Maltese Books and the Maltese Newspapesr write it Malli inharsu!
N.B. -These expressions, in which mal is a contraction of mazàl should not be mistaken for others, which, although written in a similar way by the educated classes of Malta, are in reality quite different. Thus:

1) mallidaka belli domna = mali daka be'lli domna $=$ on account of the time we delayed (mali $=$ quantity, as much as; dàka = of that; be'lli= with what; domna = we delayed)
2) malli inharsu $=$ mali in nharsu $=$ as soon as we look (see above $\mathrm{V}, 3$ ) etc.

In these expressions mali, which is wrongly written malli, is derived from the verb méla yimla $=$ to fill $u p$. In semitic characters it is written: $m+l+a$ and is pronounced mila =quantity, as much as, and is another example of the transposition of sounds already several times referred to.
VII. aldakshèk - is a good Maltese contraction, meaning accordingly ( $\mathrm{al}=\mathrm{on}$; daks = measuring hèk =thus); aldakstant which is often used in maltese books, is a mixture of the maltese words $\hat{a l}$ and daks together with the Italian tanto.
VIII. f'ost is not a preposition, as the Maltese think. $F^{\prime}$ 'ost is made of two words: $f=i n$ and ust= middle. The French expression au milieu gives exactly the sense of the maltese f'ost.
IX. ilu; zmèn ilu = some time ago, is a good expression, often used by the people.
X. $b i-a$ preposition, retains its $i$ only before words, beginning with two consonants; otherwise it is written:
a) with $e$, when followed by the article;
b) without a vowel in all other cases.

Ex: bi tqal; be'l-mwòd; b'hàl; b'la; b'rijléyћ
XI. êmm=here or there. In semitic original writing it is spelt alif $+\mathrm{mim}+\mathrm{mim}$. In maltese it is pronounced émm (Ex: kèn émm). Why then is an $h$ used in writing? (hemm ! !)
XII. $a d$ invariable particle. According to constructions it has different meanings:

1) $\hat{a} d$ with affixed pronouns
a) in a phrase without negation it means still

Ex : âdna âl ùrà $=$ we are still behind adthu 'l-hin = there is still time
b) in a negative phrase it means not yet

Ex : âdła ma jèt-x' = she has not yet arrived.
2) $\hat{a} d$ when alone, has the meaning of although

Ex: âd,ahna midnebi., = although we are sinners ahna niju âd ma tridnè-x' = we shall come, although you do not want us.
N. B. $--\hat{a} d$ is not to be mistaken for the verb $a d=t o$ tell, to say which has no guttural vowel, being spelt in all semitic languages $a l i f+d a l+y a$ (ada).
XIII. ôdu (in arabic: âyn + dàd + waw)
a) $\hat{o} d u$ with affixed pronouns means almost. Ex:
$\hat{o} d u \hbar$ ћ $k e l=$ he has almost eaten;
ôdu九 zoasal iz-smèn = it is almost time;
kèn ôdu $\hbar$ zeaqa or ) he was almost falling kèn ôduћ sèrr yaqa down;
ôduћom sèirin il $l^{\prime} \hbar a l a=$ they are almost going to ruin etc.
b) $\hat{d} u u$ with the article means morning.

Ex: il-bèrah fi' $l$-ôdu $=$ yesterday morning (il-bèrah $=$ yesterday, fi'l-ôdu $=$ in the almostness).
XIV
Sa

1) $S a$, imperative of the verb $s a-i s a=$ to mun, is used with an other imperative.
Ex: Sa murr = go and run = go quiclily.
2) $S a$, prefixed to the aorist, indicates the future.

Ex: yiji=he comes; sayiji=he will come.
3) Sa, before nouns and particles, means as long as, until etc.

Ex: Sa kém tâix = as long as you live
sa féyn, sa hawn sa henna sa émm
sa 'l-ahhar 'lanqas fo the last, to the end
sa'ssa=sa is-sa= till now
sa 'd-dar = as far as the house
sa $m a y i j i=$ till he comes
N.B.-sa ma yiji = tlll he comes
sayiji = he will come
XV: ka-a particle, meaning like, as; it is always prefixed to nouns, pronouns and particles.

1) kallayamar = ka Allatı yamar = as God orders
2) kyéku =ka in yaku=as if it were
3) trabakiom = there they are
tràakhu $=$ there he is
tràakћa = there she is
tràakék = there you are
tràakna = there we are
there, all of a sudden

Tràakћom is made up of ircia $=$ il se montra, $k a=$ comme quoi, hom $=$ ils.
Ex : tràahhom is-slatin min ix-xrùq jèu urusalim* u yuidu: féynhu' $1-m u l u d$ sultàn tâ 'l-i申ıud?

* It would be a pity to use Gerusalem, Annibal etc., for Urusalim, Hamubal etc., which are Semitic or Maltcse names.
tràakћu 'l-mléyka tâ muléyna déhér lhu f'néwmћu u qàl: qum, u hu is-sabi u ommћu u ahrab al Masar u kun émın sa ma néyd lék.
Out of these combinations $k a$ is not understood; even ka ma trid = as you like, is unintelligible to the Maltese, although only a repetition of the word $k a$ with the particle $m a^{*}$
XVI. Malay-an adverb, meaning quick.

Malay is derived from the verb mala-yamla which is forgotten in Maltese, and whose meaning is to advance at a quick pace. It is difficult to understand why some Maltese books write malay with an $r$ (malayr! ! )
XVII. feys, meaning the act of hurrying, is derived from the verb fàs-ifis.

People say: min actar fis $=$ zvith greater hast, using fis instead of féys.
XVIII. qad, corroborative particle, preceeding the verb, is generally used with yèk $(=1 f)$, and can be translated: ever, should, would
Ex: yèk qad tsibћu, hudћu miâk = if you ever find him, take him with you; yèk qad yiji il-léyla= if he comes to night or should he come tonight; li (law) kont naâf li qad tismâni=if I could know that you would hear me etc.
XIX. qatt, negative particle meaning never, is always following the verb.
Ex: Ma rani qatt=he has never seen me; atar 'lli ma imut qatt $=a$ monument which never dies ect.

[^1]
## THE VERB

Semitic verbs are defined in two ways:

1. by the third person singular of the preterit, which is the verb's shortest form and
2. by the third person singular of the aorist which is the verb's complementary form.

If the first vowel in the complementary form is suppressed, the fundamental form becomes at once apparent. Ex:
shortest form complimentary form fundamental form

| jè | yiji | iji |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ra | yara | ara |
| âf | yaâf | â̂f |
| kén | ikun | kun |
| bèâ | ibiâ | biâ |
| lâb | yilâb | ilâb |
| âdd | yôdd | ôdd |
| habb | ihobb | hobb |
| méxa | yimxi | imxi |
| kitéh | yiktéb | ikteb |
| kisér | yiksér | ikser |
| rajâ | yarjâ | arjấ |
| âmél | yâmél | âmel |
| waqâ | yaqâ | aqâ |
| wayaf | yéqaf | éqaf |
| âllém | yâllém | allem |
| tâllém | yitallém | itâllem |
| stahréj | yistahréj | istahrej |
| inféna | yinféna | inféna |
| infétah | yinfétah | infétah |
| intésa | yintésa | intésa |
| intiféd | yintiféd | intifed |
| hdàr | yihdàr | ihdàr |
| hdèl | yihdèl | ihdèl etc. |

## TABLE OF CONJUGATIONS



## IMPERATIVE

Singular
Plural u

Remarks 1.) The straight lines ( --- ) stand for the verb's shortest form.
2.) The pointed lines ( $\ldots .$. ) stand for the verb's fundamental form.
3.) The prefix $n$ of the first person singular in the aorist is a corruption of the old Semitic prefix w(=hamza fatha or hamza damma). Traces of the regular prefix for the first person singular of the aorist may be found in such maltese expressions as: marrid- $x$ ' $=m a$ rorid- $-x^{\prime}=$ I do not want, etc.

Verbs may be devided into four classes:
I To the first class belong all simple verbs, as contrasted with derived verbs.
II To the second class belong such derived verbs as are considered simple verbs in Semitic languages. E. g. habb, bèâ, waqâ.
III To the third class belong all true derived verb;
IV To the forth class belong all verbs, which are not derived, but are made up of two or more different words, so intimately connected with each other by usage, that they miay be almost considered as one.

* Aorist $=$ present and future sense.

First Class. The simple verbs are:

1. All verbs of two letters in their shortest form
2. All verbs of three, four or five letters in their shortest form,
a) if they have no double consonant
b) if they have no long vowels
c) if they do not begin with a vowel

The following verbs, although beginning with a vowel, belong to the first class:
awa * = to become populous
aya = to come on
aya $=$ to be wearied, to be tired
êwa $=$ to howl
The roots of these verbs being $a$ or $e$, it is obvious that they can have no consonant in their simple form.

## First conjugation.

1. With the exception of the third persons of the preterit all the forms of the first conjugation are derived from the fundamental form
2. Verbs, whose fundamental form begins with a short vowel lose this vowel in the preterit's first and second persons.
Ex: kitéb-yiktéb-ikteb; preterit -ktebt, ktebna, ktebtu; âm - yaôm - aôm; preterit ômt etc.
Verbs, the fundamental form of which begins with two vowels, lose the first of these vowels in the imperative.
Ex: âm-yaôm-aôm; imperative ôm.
Verbs, the fundamental form of which begins with $i$, change this $i$ into $e ́$ in the imperative, if the last letter is a vowel.
Ex; samâ - yismâ - ismâ; imperative-ésmâ talâ - yitlâ - itlấ; do étlâ. But: kitéb - yiktéb- $i$ kte $b$ do $i$ kte $b$.

[^2]3. Verbs, the fundamental form of which ends in a short vowel, change this vowel:
into ey if the vowel was $i$
into $a y$ if the vowel was $a$
before the flexion-affixes of the first and second persons of the preterit. Ex:
méxa-yimxi-imx $i$;-preterit: mxéyt etc.
ra-yara-ar $a ;$ preterit: rayt etc.
4. Verbs, the fundamental form of which ends in $i$ lose the $i$ before the flexion-affixes of the aorist and imperative. Ex: méxa-yimxi-imx $i$; aor. - nimx $u$, timxu, yimxu(instead of nimxiu, timxiu etc.)
imp.-imxu (instead of imxiu)
5. If : new syllable is affixed to the verbs shortest form, the short vowel of the last syllable is dropped, provided it is not the last letter of the word.
Ex: darab-darbu (instead of darabu) ; but: rarau, béda-bédau, méxa-méxau etc.
The active participle is formed from the shortest form by the addition of a long $\grave{a}$ or $\dot{e}$ after the first letter and a short $i$ before the last letter. Ex: rahabràhib; rajâ-rájiâ; kitéb-kètib.
1.) Verbs, having the second letter $e$ or $i$ generally take the suffix $\dot{e}$
Ex: méxa-méxi; réma-rèmi; béda-bèdi nixéf - nèxif; nizél - nèzil
But: rahab-ràhib; haréj-hàrij; dahel-dàhil ; bata-bàti etc.
2.) When the second letter of the shortest form is a short vowel, this falls out after suffixes $\grave{a}$ or è. Ex: méxa-mèxi; rahab-ràhib etc., instead of mèéxi, ràahib.
3.) When a vowel exists before the last letter of the shortest form, it is suppressed after the suffix $i$. Ex: haréj - hàrij, instead of hàreij.
4.) In verbs, ending in a short vowel, the vowel is omitted after the suffix $i$, which becomes $y$, when following a vowel
Ex : rèma - rèmi (instead of rèmia); béda - bèdi
(instead of bèdia)
\[

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { râa } & \text { - ràây } & \text { (instead of ràâia) } \\
\text { dâa } & \text { - dàây } \\
\text { nanstead of dàâia) } \\
\text { náa } & \text { - nàây } & \text { (instead of nàâia) }
\end{array}
$$
\]

The passive participle is formed from the fundamental form by the addition of the prefix $m$ before the first letter and the introduction of the suffix it before the last letter.

Pref ix $m$
1.) The prefix $m$ is joined to the first consonant of the fundamental form by means of the vowels: $a$ if the first consonant is guttural. Ex:mahrùt, * $e$ in all other cases.
The $e$ having no equivalent in the Italian alphabet, the first Maltese scribes used $i$ instead of $e$ mute, causing confusion amongst those people who could read and those who could only speak correctly.

Ex: mefsuid is written mifsùd, etc.
2.) If the verb ends in a short vowel, the prefix $m$ is joined to the first letter of the fundamental form by means of $i$. Ex: mibdi, mibki, mibni, midhi, midri, midwi, mifli, mifni, mihdi, miji, mijli, mijri, mijzi, n:ikri, miksi, mikwi, milwi, mimli, minki, minsi, mirqi, mirgi, misbi, misfi, mishi, miswi, mitki, mitli, mitni, mitwi, mixli, mixwi, milqi, $\ddagger$ minqi $\ddagger$ etc.

* The passive participle of awa is mawi; awa having no consonant in the root the suffix $m$ is joined to the first letter of the fundamental form (awa - mawi; aya - mayi; êwamêwi.)
$\ddagger$ Milqi passive participle from laqa and minqi passive participle from naqa should not be mistaken for melqùâ passive participle from laqâ and menquiâ passive participle from naqä.

Suffix it
1.) If a vowel precedes the last letter of the fundamental form, the vocal is assimilated to the suffix ii. Ex : kitéb - yiktéb - iktéb - mektùb. qâd-yoqôd-oqôd; maqûd. qaléb-yaqlébmaqlùb. But: laq $\hat{a}$-melquâ; manâa - memnù $\hat{a}$; naq $\hat{a}$ - menqù $\hat{a}$ etc.
2.) If the verb ends in a short vowel, the suffix iv is left out and the last vowel becomes $i$ Ex; béda - yibda - ibd $a$ - mibdi; râ $a$ - mirâ $i$; nâ $a$ $\operatorname{minâ} i ;$ dâ $a$ - midâ $i$ etc.
N.B.-Some verbs have the prefix $m$ joined by means of the vowel $o$; of such there are in Maltese only 16: mohfi, mohmi, mohxi, mohbi, mohli, mohri, mohsi, mohwi, mohyi, moqdi, moqli, moqri, mogli, mogni, mogwi, mormi.

Remark. Two-letter verbs form the passive participle from their shortest form by prefixing $m a$ to its first letter and by changing its vowel: into $i$ if the verb ends into a vowel, into $u$ if the verb begins with a vowel. Ex: ra-mari, âm-mầm.

## Irregular verbs of the first conjugation

I. ad-yaid = to say, to tell, is spelt in all Semitic languages: $a l i f+d a l+y a=a d a$. In Maltese $a d$ is pronounced without any guttural aspiration. There appears then no logical reason for writing it ghad as the Maltese books do.
The conjugation of this verb is made up partly from the root $a d$ and partly from the root $a d a$. Aorist: naid, taid, yaid, naidu, taidu, yaidu.

Preterit: adt (idt), ad, adét, adna (idna), adtu (idtu), adu.
Imperative: id, idu. This form is pronounced

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aid or éyd * by some educated maltese, who write it ghid. But country folk at Méliha and Musta pronounce it quite correctly id (id $\hbar \mathrm{h}=$ tell him )
Participles: active - àdi; passive-màdi (from ada)
2. af $-y a \hat{a} f=$ to know. Aorist and preterit regular

Imperative: af, afu. Participles-from araf
3. ha-yehu= to take. Aorist-regular.

Preterit: hadt, ha, hat, hadna, hadtu, hadu.
Imperative; hu, or hud; hudu, passive participle: mohùd, or muhùd or méhùd. The forms mohùd and muhùd, which are derived from the Semitic ahad show clearly that ahad is not a simple verb, as usually represented in all Semitic grammars.
4. $k e e^{l}-y e k o l=$ to eat.

Aorist: nékol and nikol; tékol and fikol; yékol; néklu and niklu; téklu and tiklu; yéklu
Preterit: kélt, kél, kélét. kélna, kéltu, kélu. Imperative: kul, kulu. Passive Participle: mékùl.

## Special note on the form "jèb"

Jèb is made up of two words: $\ddot{e}=$ to come, and $b i=$ with. It means to come zoith $=$ to bring
In the old books (Agius de Soldanis) one may find such constructions as gebc sctuhdem, which grammatically should be written jë bek xi tahdem and means did you bring some zoork? ( $\mathrm{j} \mathrm{e}=$ did come, hek = with you, $\mathrm{xi}=$ something, tahdém = to work)

In Valletta one often hears now a days jebt xi tahdem, which is the barbaric Algerian construction where $j e+h i$ is considered as a single word $j e \dot{b}=$ to bring. But country people say:

[^3]a jéyt bix tahdem meaning
a jéyt $=$ did you come; bix $=$ with something; tahdem = to work;
jèi bita mi'l-âyn = I brought it from the well (=I am coming with it from the well);
ara, jèi bī̄a mi'l-âyn;
jeyt b'xara $=I$ have come with news $=I$ bring news, etc.

Second class To the second class belong such derived verbs, as are considered simple verbs in semitic languages. These are:

1. all three-letter verbs with a long vowel in the middle;
2. all four and five-letter verbs, beginning with:
a short vowel
a guttural vowel
a diphthong of short vowels;
3. all verbs ending in a double consonant.

The Arabic grammar considers these verbs as simple verbs because their primitive simple forms have heen forgotten.

But this does not appear to be a scientific reason for a grammar of the Maltese language, where some of the primitive simple forms have been preserved unadulterated. (kél and ha simple forms of akal and ahad)

In Arabic one might obtain indications of the primitive simple forms of verbs of this class by comparing
r.) the imperative forms kul, mur, hud with their respective shortest forms akal, amar, ahad and
2.) such verbs as
zuaka (to lean the back upon. .) akk (to be hot and windless) kaka (to draw back.)

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wata (to level, to :soft) watt (to creak) tata (to be lower, to be depressed) wasa (to be defiled) asa (to leave a thing) sa (to run; to purpose) wéra (to show) ara (to show) ra (to see) etc.
Other indications to the same effect are also found:
1.) in the aorist of the assimilated verbs (wasal etc.)
2.) in the aorist of the verbs, beginning with a guttural vowel: they have in the second syllable the characteristic ketsra of the derived verbs,
3.) in the aorist of the hollow verbs (verbes concaves) when they are preceeded by the particles of the jezm.

## Second conjugation.

I.) The fundamental form ef the verbs of this class is found by suppressing the first vowel of the complementary form.
Ex: kèn-ikun - kun; sàr-isir -sir; bèâ-ibiâ -biá, habb-ihobb -hobb; amar-yamar -amar; âmel-yâmel -- âmel âraf-yâraf -araf; wiléd-yiled -iléd waqaf-yiqaf - iqaf; waq̂̀-yaqâ -aqâ
2. The aorist is formed regularly from the fundamental form.
3. The preterit
a) Verbs, beginning with a diphtong or with a vowel, form the preterit from the shortest form.
b) Verbs, ending in a double consonant take the diphthong éy before the affix-flexion of the first and second persons. Ex: habb-habbeyt; médd-méddéyt etc.
c) All the other verbs form the preterit regularly from the fundamental form.
4. The imperative
a) Verbs beginning with a diphthong, form the imperative by suppressing the diphtong. Ex: waqaf-qaf; waqâ-q̂̂, etc.
b) All the other verbs form the imperative regularly from the fundamental form.
5) If a new syllable is affixed to the verb, the short letter of the second syllable is dropped provided it is not followed by 2 consonants Ex: wiléd wil(e)du, wil(e)uét: but: wilédna.

## The active participle.

a) Verbs, beginning with a diphthong, form the active participle by changing the second letter of the diphthong into $\dot{e}$.
The suffix $i$ comes regularly in.
Ex: wiléd-wèlid; waqaf-wéqif; waqâ-wèqiâ etc.
b) Verbs, beginning with a short or a guttural vowel, change these vowels into the corresponding long sounds. Ex: âla-àli; âmelàmil ete.
c) All the other verbs form the active participle regularly. Ex: qàm-qàim.

The passive participle.
a) Verbs, beginning with a diphtong, form the passive participle: by prefixing $m$ to the first letter of the diphthong, which then becomes $u$; by suppressing the second letter of the diphtong, and by taking the suffix ì regularly. Ex:waqaf-muqùf; waqâ-muquâ ; wera-muri etc.
b) Verbs, ending in a double consonant, form the passive participle from their shortest form. Ex: âss mâsưs.

But when the first letter is a consonant, a transportation of letters takes place between the first and the second letters. Ex: habb-mahbùb; médd-mémdùad-
c) All the other verbs form the passive participle quite regularly from the fundamental form, but with the following peculiarites: the prefix $m$ in verbs, beginning with a vowel, is joined directly to the vowel.
Ex: âraf - mârùf ; âlém - mâlùm ;
the suffix it does not assimilate the $i$ of the three-letter verbs, which is only changed into $y$.
Ex: bèà-ibiâ - biâ, passive participle mebyùuã; sàb mesyùb; sàh - mesyuĭ ; sàr - mesyùr; zèd mezyud etc.
Remark. The Maltese dictionaries, in mentioning the participle form muitd, make the mistake of considering this form as the participle of wèd. This is a quite wrong derivation, the participle of weêd being mzeêed (3rd conjugation) Muûd is in reality the participle of reaád, a form which must have been forgotten by the Maltese

## Irregularities of the second conjugation.

These are only found in the passive participle of the following verbs:
âta, êma, gèt, hàn, qàl, and jèâ, which make: môti (instead of mâti), mônii $(=$ mêmi), mogitt ( = magủt $)$, mohùn ( $=$ mahùn), moqùl ( $=$ maqùl $)$ mojùâ ( = mejûâ).
These irregularities are only an evidence that these verbs of the second conjugation are not simple verbs, the $o$ or $u$ after prefix $m$ in the participle being characteristic of all semitic derived verbs.

Third class. To the third class belong all other derived verbs.

Derivations are made from the verb's shortest form:
A. by repeating the simple form
B. by doubling the middle letter
C. by introducing new letters.
A. The repeating

This form consists of repeating the primitive three-letter form of simple verbs. Ex:bélbél, karkar, farfar, gargar etc.
B. The doubling
a) Three-letter verbs of the first conjugation have the second letter doubled. Ex: âya - Âya
b) Verbs, ending in a double consonant, have the first of these consonants doubled and take a euphonic $a$ or $\dot{e}$ after it. Ex: âss - âssas, habb - habbab, médd - méddéd etc.
c) Verbs of four or ftve letters, beginning with a consonant, have their third letter doubled: Ex: séwa - sewwa; rajâ - rajjâ;kisér - kissér.
d) Verbs, of four or five letters, beginning with a vowel or a diphthong, have their first consonant doubled. Ex: amar - ammar; émén émmén; * waqaf - waqqaf; wébes - wébbes; yasar - yassar.*
N. B. The doubling of the middle-letter gives to the verb the meaning of to make to do (in French $=$ faire faire.)
C. The introducing of new letters.

1. The suffixing of letters

Long vowels $\dot{a}$ or $\dot{c}$ are introduced after the first letter. Ex: qâd-qèêd; mâr-mèêr ; méra; - mèra; jéléd - jèléd; jénéb - jènéb ; wiléd - wèléd etc.

[^4]Remarks. Short vowels are omitted after long suffixed vowels. (méra-mèra; jéléd-jèléd; wiléd-wèléd). Guttural $\hat{a}$ becomes $\hat{e}$ after long suffixed vowels (qâd-qéêd; mâr - mèêr).

Evasive vowels $y$ or $w \dot{\dagger}$
a) In three-letter verbs they are put after the second letter and take a euphonic $a$ or $e ́$ when followed by a consonant: Ex: bè béyâ; dèa - déwa; dar - dawar; sèr - séyér.
b) In four or five-letter verbs, heginning with a consonant, $y$ or $w$ are introduced after the second letter. Ex: hatél - hawtél; xélahxéwlah; mélaq - méylaq; mana-mayna.
c) In verbs, ending in a double consonant, $y$ or $w$ are introduced so, as to make a new syllable: either by repeating the first two letters of the original form, or simply interposing a cuphonic $\dot{e}$ after the first of the doubled consonats. Ex: qabb - qawqab; haxxhaxzéx.

Consonant $n$ (sometimes $m$ )
a) The consonant $n$ (or $m$ ) is introduced at the end of the first syllable in: five-letter verbs, where three consonants alternate with two short vowels. Ex: hazar-hanzér;

[^5]hédél - héndél; hédém - héndém; hebél-henbél; qazah - qanzah.
b) To verbs, ending in a doubled consonant, $n$ or $m$ aré suffixed by means of repeating the first two letters of the verb. Ex: sarr samsar; qall - qanqal; déll - déndél.
N.B. The suffixes, introduced to the simple verb, give it a general sense of intensity of action.
2. The affixing of letters.

The letters, used as affixes for purpose of derivation, are:
$n$ Ex: qarab - qarben; jéléb - jélbén
$m$ Ex: qatar - qatram; hésér - hésrém
$q$ Ex: térat - tértaq; fiséd-fesdaq; zérén |zérnaq
They are affixed to three-consonant verbs and give them a general sense of iatensity.
3. The prefixing of letters.

To simple verbs (first and second conjugation)

1. Prefix $s t \ddagger(\mathrm{~s} \in \mathrm{~m}$ itic $i s t)$. Ex: âgéb - stâjeb haqq - sthaqq; mérr - stmérr: edén - stédén énés - sténés.
Remarks. a) When prefixed to a verb of two syllables, beginning with a consonant, st produces a transposition between the first consonant and the following vowel.
Ex : nébah - sténhah; gana - stagna; haya - stahya. b) The verbs, beginning with a diphthong,

[^6]have the vowels of the diphthong transposed.
Ex: wouqar-stawqar; yéqer - stéyqér.
2. Prefix in. Ex: qutấ - inqatâ; bèâ - inbèâ; bidél - inbidél.
The prefix in gives the verb a passive or reflexive meaning.

To derived verbs (third conjugation).
Prefix $t$ is the prefix of the cierived verbs. It gives a general passive meaning to the derived verb, or a sense of reciprocity.
a) prefix $t$ to repeated forms (A.) bélbél-tbelbel; farfar-tfarfar.
b) prefix $t$ to doubled forms (B.) faraj - farraj - tfarraj
raqq - raqqaq - traqqaq waqaf - waqqaf - twaqqaf
c) prefix $t$ to the suffixed forms (C. I.) féhém - fèhém - tfèhém
mèt - méwét - tméwét habel - hambel- thambé
d) prefix $t$ to the affixed forms, (C. 2.) qarab - qarben - tqarben

- fised - fesdaq - tfesdaq

4. The prefixing and suffixing of letters.

Prefix $i$ before and suffix $t$ after the first letter of a verb give it a passive or a reflexive meaning. Ex: xara - ixtara; xedd - ixtedd; sa - ista; xeha - ixteha; laqâ - iltaqâ; hèj ihtèj; hàr-ibtảr.
N.B. 1. The suffix $t$ is changed into $d$ when following a $d$ or z. Ex: dà - idda; (for idta); zèd - izdèd (for iztèd).
2. In verbs, beginning with a vowel, the $t$ is joined as prefix, together with the $i$, and
is then doubled. Ex: âmel - ittâmel ( = iâtmel; ad - ittad (iatd); âraf - ittâraf (= iâtraf); âzaq - ittâzaq; âzel - ittâzel; ekel - * ittekel; ehed -* ittehed; esef -* ittesef; ata -*ittata**
Extra derivation.
An extra derivation is made from the comparative form of the adjectives, by suppressing the first vowel and by prolonging the last vowel. Ex: abyad-byàd $a \mathrm{kbar}$ - kbàr; ihdar-hdàr.

Third conjugation. All derived verbs of this class form their conjugation in the same way.

1. The fundamental form is found by suppressing. the first letter of the complementary form.
2. The aorist and imperative are formed from the fundamental form. In the imperative the vowel of the last syllable is changed into $e$ mute (dawar-dawer)
3. The preterit is formed from the shortest form.
4. The rules about the last letter-vowel are to be followed in all cases.
5. If a new syllable is affixed to the verb, the short letter in the last syllable falls out, if not preceeded or followed by two consonants. Ex: hàres - nhàr (e) su, ihàr (e) su ; but: kisser kisseru.
6. The derived verbs have only one participle form, which is obtained by prefixing $m$ or sometimes $m u$ to the shortest form. Ex: werrekmwerrek; xarraf - mxarraf; xètt-muxètt.
[^7]Remarks on the participle.
I. Derived verbs, beginning with $m$ take a euphonic $e$ before the prefix $m$ of the participle. Ex: mawar - emmawar, mexxah - emmexxah, meyel-emmeyel, mèri-emmèri. mèêr-emmèêr.
2. Verbs, ending in a short vowel, change their last vowel into $i$. Ex: idda - middi, wella mwelli, wikka - mwikki, wissa - mwissi, wittamwitti.
3. Verbs of the doubled form, ending in a short vowel, change their first short vowel into 0 , if it is an $a$. Ex: halla - mholli (= mhalli), darra - mdorri ( $=$ mdarri), rabba-mrobbi, gabba - mgobbi, qalla - mqolli, galla - mgolli, qarra-mqorri, naqqa - mnoqqi, saffa - msoffi; tarra - mtorri, âbba - môbbi, âdda - môddi, âlla-môlli, gatta - mgotti, gaxxa - mgoxxi etc.
4. In the derived verbs of the prefix st form, $m i$ is substituted for the participial prefix $m$. Ex: stahrej - mistahrej, stâgeb-mistâjeb, stenbehmistenbeh etc.
N.B. It may be mentioned that the participial prefix $m i$ is perfectly natural in this form, where st is only a corruption of the primitive semitic ist.
5. In the extra-derived form " $m o$ " is substituted for the prefix $m$. Ex: hyàr-mohyàr; hdàrmohdàr; hràr-mohràr.
6. The verbs ihtar and integ, although they do not belong to the class of extra-derivation, nevertheless form their participles thus: mohtar, and mohtèj.

## Irregular verbs of the third conjugation.

1. Stenna $=$ stena
2. itka = ittaka (from wika)
3. tewaq $=$ weqa (egyptian dialect)
4. ittewaq $=$ itteqa (egyptian dialect)
5. tentex $=$ tnettex
6. lenbeb $=$ lebbeb
7. xemnak $=$ xennaq
8. sthayel $=$ sthàl
9. dèra-yidèra $=$ tèra or twera.

The sister-verb of dèra, tràa, is derived from ra-yara quite regularly, but is used only in connection with the particle $k a$ and the corresponding affixed pronouns, forming with them one single word: tràakna, tràakћom, tràakћu (see particles.)
10. In mistohbi and mistoqsi (participles of stahba and staqsa) $o$ stands for $a$.
11. staqsa and sagsa have both the same meaning to ask; staqsa is regularly derived from qasa; but saqsa is a combination of two verbs: $s a+q a s s=$ to run and to tell = to ask.
12. stahya and stha are both from the root $h$; stha $=$ to be achamed, is derived from $h a ;$ stahy $a=$ to revive, is derived from the suffixed form of ha-haya.

Forth class. To this class belong verbs, formed of two or more different words, so intimately connected by usage, that they are almost considered as one word.

1. With the preposition bi

| bahrad $=b i+$ harad | $(=$ with disturbance $)=$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| to trifle |  |
| belgen $=b i+$ legem | $(=$ with foam $)=$ to foam |
| berfel $=b i+$ refel | $(=$ with train $)=$ to trim |
| bixkel $=b i+$ xekel | ( $=$ with doubt) = to em- |

berkel $=$ bi + rekla ( $=$ with green vegetable) $=$ to flower
bermej* $=$ bi + remej ( $=$ with spoiling) $=$ to
berged $=\mathrm{bi}+$ reged $\quad(=$ with free pasturage $)$
(= with free pasturage)
$=$ to become full of flees
berbaq $=\mathrm{bi}+$ rebaq $\quad(=$ with throwing into $)$ $=$ to dissipate
2. With the preposition $f$
seksef $(=$ seqsef $)=$ saqsa $+f_{i}$
qartaf $=$ qarat +fi
haxlef $=$ haxal + fi
fixkel $\quad=\mathrm{fi}+$ xekel $(=$ bixkel $)$
3. With the particle $k a$
kanfar $\ddagger=$ ka + nafar $=$ to reproach
karmas $=k a+$ ramas $($ concealing $)=$ to produce small abortive fruits kardax $=$ ka + radas (casting stones) $=$ to speak ill
kasbar $=k a+$ asbar (to make something become bitter) = to spoil kaxkar $=k a+x a k a r($ tamiser $)=$ to sift much kermed $\dagger=k a+$ ermed (to fall into destitution) $=$ to blacken, to dirty kerkes $^{* *}=\mathrm{ka}+$ rekes $($ reverse $)=$ to disappoint, to displease

[^8]4. With the particle $x i$
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { xenxel }=x i+\text { nesel } ; \text { xandar }=x i+\text { andar } ; \\
& \text { xaqleb }=x i+q a l a b ; \text { tenfex }(o r \text { denfex })=\text { adnaf }+x i \\
& \text { ferkex }=\text { to scrope something; } \\
& \text { harfex }=\text { to work rudely (haraf }=\text { to bring forth) } \\
& \text { harbex }=\text { to scratch something. }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

5. Several words.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{aligned}
& \text { zebleh }=\text { zey }+ \text { beleh } \\
& \text { xeblek }=\text { xebel }+ \text { xellek } \\
& \text { sardan }=\text { sar +dan } \\
& \text { sarbat }=\text { sar +batt } \\
& \text { qusdar }=\text { qass + dar } \\
& \text { qarnas }=\text { qaran +as } \\
& \text { tarbax }=\text { tar }+ \text { bi }+x=\text { to hare the belly } \\
& \text { swollen with something }=\text { to be hydropical }
\end{aligned} \\
& \text { qabras }=\text { alga-bi- ras } \\
& \text { mexwar }=\text { mexa-wara } \\
& \text { saqsa }=\text { sa + qass }
\end{aligned}
$$

In their conjugation these verbs follow the rules of the verbs of

1) the first conjugation, if they are like the verbs of the first class (e.g. rahal),
2) the second conjugation, if they are like the verbs of the second class (e.g. fàs),
3) the third conjugation in all other cases; these can have only one derivation-through prefixing the letter $t$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Ex: } & \text { belgen - tbelgen } \\
& \text { haxlef - thaxlef } \\
& \text { kasbar - tkasbar }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^9]
## PASSIVE FORM.

Every active verb can be made into a passive one without using the prefixes in and $t$ (see third conjugation), but simply by changing the original vowels of its simple form into 0 s.

The Maltese language has five verbs, which have retained both forms, the active and the passive.

$$
\left.\begin{array}{ll}
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 1. hataf }=\text { to snatch away } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { hotof }= \\
\text { to become empty } \\
\text { holoq }=
\end{array} \\
\text { 2. halaq be created }
\end{array} \\
\text { to create } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { roqos }=
\end{array} \\
\text { 3. raqas }=\text { to dance } & \text { to rise and to sink }
\end{array}\right\}
$$

Ex: ôni li in imurru (ôni $=$ it was agreed; $\mathrm{li}=$ for me; in iniurru = that they should go)
Out of these five, the Maltese language has 17 passive verbs, whose original active forms have been forgotten.

1. ôjob ...to please (âjab...to wonder at)
2. ôkos ...to decline(âkas...to change, to reverse)
3. ôrok ...se gratter (ârak...to scrub)
4. ôrox ...to become lame (ârax...to raise)
5. ôtob ...to become paralitic (âtab...to be soft)
6. herom ...to be lustful (haram...to forbid, to prevent)
7. holom ...to be dreamt (halam...to dream)
8. hola ...to become sweet (hela...to be sweet)
9. hobol ...to become pregnant (habal...to conceive)
10. korob ...to be distressed (karab...to tighten)
11. korom...to be productive (karam ..to overcome in generosity)
12. kotor ...to become numerous(katar...to exceed)
13. 
14. qorob ...s' approacher (qarab...approcher)
15. romol ...to become a widow or to become sprinkled with sand (ramel...to sprinkle with sand).
16. rohos ...to become cheap(: rahas...to be tender)
17. forog ...to become empty (farag...to emptify)

## MIXED FORMS

r. Some Maltese verbs have the active form in the preterit, and in the aorist-the passive form, although their sense is not really passive.

Ex: harej-yohroj; qâd - yoqôd.
2. Some other verbs have the passive form in the preterit and in the aorist the active form, although their sense is not active.
Ex: xôf - yixôf = to be sorry, to be repentent.
3. Other verbs have the active form in the aorist and in the preterit the passive form, although their sense is not passive.

Ex: xurob - yixrob.
4. Lastly some verbs have the passive form in the aorist and the active form in the preterit although their sense is not in any way active

Ex: feraq - yofroq...to be separated.

## $-48-$ <br> GENDERS AND NUMBERS OF THE PARTICIPLES.

The feminine is obtained by adding a short a to the masculine.

The plural is obtained by adding
in (masculine) or èt (feminine)
The dual form is obtained by affixing eyn to the masculine singular teyn to the feminine singular.

Kemark. Some participles of the simple verbs, by losing their primitive sense of adjective verbal become irregular in the plural. Thus, we have:
a) passive participles:
maqrùt, plural-mqàret etc.
b) active participles: sèheb (sàhib), plural - ashàb** hàkem (hàkim), plural-ahkàm, ihkàm or ihkma.

[^10]
## THE NOUN

Nouns may refor to A) actions, B) qualities, C) persons and things.

In the first case they are verbal nouns;
in the second case qualifying nouns;
in the third substantive nouns.

## A. Verbal nouns.

Verbal nouns are formed froni the verb's shortest form.
I. The following take ad additional $y$ or $z$ to the verb's shortest form.

1. verbs of two letters of the first conjugation,
2. verbs of three letters of the first and second conjugations, beginning with a consonant.
Ex: ât (to shout) --âyt
âj (to turn aside) -awj
âm (to swim) - âwm

| dâa | -dâwa |
| :--- | :--- |
| râa | -râya |
| nâa | -nâya |

bèâ
sàm
nàm
sàt
-beyâ
-sawm
-nawm
sàq
xèk

- sawt
-xawq
-xewk
tàb
-tayb
tàf -tayf
med
xèd
xèl
jèz -jeyz etc.
II. The following change the vowels of their shortest form:

1. Verbs of three letters, of the first and second conjugations, beginning with a vowel.
2. Verbs of four letters of the flrst conjugation.
3. Verbs of four letters of the second conjugation: those beginning with a dephthong, and those ending in a double consonant.

| Ex: âya | êya |
| :---: | :---: |
| êwa | âwi |
| êra | îra |
| âta | ôti |
| âla | ôli |
| âdd | ôdd |
| âss | ôss |
| êll | îll |

hela helu

beda | bidi |
| :---: |
| bidu |

lewa liwi
tewa tiwi
kewa kiwi
mexa mixi
mela mili
qara qari
sewa siwi
haya hayi
wasâ wisâ
weta witi
wera wiri
weêd wêda (with transposed vowels, from qvaêd)
waqâ uqiâ (with transposed vowels from
wiqa)
wajâ ujiâ (with transposed vowels form
fejj fijj
habb hobb
baxx bexx
jedd jidd
gamm gomm
berr barr
senn $\sin n$
III. The following drop the last vowel of their shortest form

1. Verbs of four letters of the second conj:igation, beginning with a vowel.
2. Verbs of five letters of the second conjugation, beginning with a dephthong.
3. Verbs of five letters of the first conjugation, whose vowels are: $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{a} ; \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{e} ; \mathrm{o}-\mathrm{o}$.

Ex: âtex âtx - darab darb
êrek êrk - dahak dahk
âraq ârq - marad mard
âkes âks - farad fard
âlef âlf - talab talb
âjel âjl - fasad fasd
âjen ajn - qasam qasm
âmel âml - amar amr - xorob-xorb

- holom-holm
- qorob-qorb
- hodon-hodn

| iled | wild | kiser - kisr and ksir (trans- |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wirek | wirk | position of letters) |
| wiret | wirt | bidel - bidt - bdil |
| wisaq | wisk | fised - fisd - fsid |
| widen | widn | kiseb - kisb - ksib |
| wizen | wizn | fired - fird - frid |
| wahad | wahd | rifes - rifs - rfis |
| waq f | waqf | firex - firx - tiix |
| W:asal | wasl | hireq - hirq |

IV. Verbs of five letters of the first conjugation, whose lowels are $a-\dot{e}$; $\dot{e}-e ; \dot{e}-a$, drop the first vowel of their shortest form and change the last one.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ex: clahel - dhul } \\
& \text { harej - hrui } \\
& \text { cafel - qfil } \\
& \text { xegel - xgol }
\end{aligned}
$$

fejar - fjir
fetah - ftuh
fetaq - ftuq
feraq - fruq

- Some rerbs of this class form the verbal noun by dropping their secend vowel, like the verbs of the preceding class.

Ex: halef - half
halej - halj
V. The following verbs of the third conjugation take prefix $t^{*}$ before the first letter and a long $i^{* *}$ before the last letter.

1. repeated verbs
2. doubled verbs (they have the doubled letter omitted)

[^11]3. suffixed verbs
4. affixed verbs

| Ex: | keskes - tkeskis |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | qarrab - taqrib |
| fehem - tfèhim | habbab - tahbib |
| hendem - thendim | kattar - taktir |
| hawtel - thawtil | qattâ - taqtiâ |
| kewkeb - tkewkib | sewwa - tatliâ |
|  | heyya - tehwia |
|  | qarben - tqarbin |
|  | qawam - taqwim |
|  | âwad - tâwid |
|  | tawal - tetwíl |
|  | hamma - tahmia |

VI. Verbs of the third and fourth conjugations, having $t$ as prefix, form the verbal noun by suffixing a long $i^{* *}$ to the last letter.

Ex: tferfer - tferfir tfehhem -tfehhim tqabras - tqabris tkabbar - tkabbir
VII. Verbs of the third conjugation, having st, in and $i-t$ as prefixes form the verbal noun by suffixing long $i, \dot{e}$ or $\grave{a}$ to the last letter.
Ex: stâjeb - stâjib inqasar - noqsàr (corrupted from ingsàr)
stahraj - stahrij
stenbeh - stenbih
intebah - intbib
stagdar - stagdir iftehem - ftehim(iftehim) stenna - stennia intebaq - intbèq
Remarks. 1. The verbal noun in some cases occurs in two forms:
âql from âqal; ârf $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { êrf }\end{array}\right\}$ from âraf $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { ârs } \\ \text { ôrs }\end{array}\right\}$ from âras; $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { âqd } \\ \text { ôqd }\end{array}\right\}$ from âqad âdr (âdra)
ôdr (môdria) from âder

[^12]2. Three verbal nouns are irregular in the Maltese language, although their regular forms are sometimes used:
fis for féys. Ex: min aktar fis! = with greater hurry féysa! = quick!
qim for qéym
üra $=$ the state of being behind (not to be mistaken for the adverb varà $=$ behind).

The noun of unity. The verbal noun expresses the mere action, state or being of the verb, and is unaffected by subject, object and time.

But should it express number or kind, it is substituted by the noun of unity, which is formed by affixing $a$ to the verbal noun.

The dual and the plural are then formed regularly: the dual-by addition of tégn, and the plural-by changing $a$ into èt.

| Ex: âyt | (crying) | âyta | (a cry) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| îll |  |  |  |
| ôdd |  | ôdda |  |
| âjl |  | âjla |  |
| darb |  | darba |  |
| fijj |  | fijja |  |
| hobb |  | hobba |  |
| sinn |  | sinna |  |
| fird |  | firda |  |
| fisd |  | fisda |  |
| kisb |  | kisba |  |
| hirq |  | hirga |  |
| xorb |  | xorba |  |
| holm |  | holma |  |
| taqrib |  | taqriba | etc. |

Remarks. 1. Verbs of five letters of the first conjugation, whose vowels are: $a-\dot{e} ; \dot{e}-a, \dot{e}-e$, form the noun of unity from the shortest form by dropping the second vowel

Ex: dahel - dahla
harej - harja
fetah - fetha
2. Verbs of the third conjugation, ending in a double consonant form the noun of unity from the shortest form and not from the verbal noun.

Ex: stmerr - stmerra (instead of stemràra) ixtarr - ixtarra (instead of ixtràra)
3. Some three-consonant verbs of the first and second conjugations have an independent form for the noun of unity: they drop their first vowel and take a long $\dot{a}$ or $\dot{e}$ before the last consonant.

Ex: hnèna=mercy, from hann $=$ to be merciful, to pity
hràfa $=$ fable, from haréf $=$ to dote, to talk nonsense
qbèla $=$ rent $\quad$ from $q a h e ́ l=$ to receive, to accept
The plural of these nouns is formed by dropping the last short vowel and suffixing $i$ before the last consonant.

Ex: hnèna - hnèin; hràfa - hràif; qubèla - qbèil etc.

## B. Qualifying nouns.

The noun of quality is generally formed from the neuter verbs and takes in Maltese the following forms:
I. Forms resembling the active participle of the simple verbs

1. Form in $i$. This form is obtained from the active participle by changing the va-

Iue of the vowels. Thus the long $\dot{a}$ becomes short, and the short $i$ becomes long.
Ex: nàdif - nadif; màrid - marłd; ámil - âmil.
2. Form in iv. This form is obtained by substituting a long ù or $\dot{o}$ to the second vowel of the shortest form.*
Ex: âjaz - âjùs; rasal - rasinl; fiséd - fisùd
3. Form with a double consonant. This form is obtained by doubling the consonant before $i$ or $\dot{u}$ in the preceeding forms. This doubling adds power to the noun. Thus fisid $=$ spoiled and fissiud $=$ very spoiled; élill $=$ sharp and éllul=very sharp; samit = haughty and zammit $=$ very haughty; qusis =herdsman and qassis $=$ good herdsman $=$ priest.

Remarks. I. Verbs, ending in a double consonant take a long $i$ before the last consonant of the shortest form. Ex: habb - habib; tabb - tabib; âzz - âziz
2. Verbs, beginniner with a diphthong omit the second letter of the diphthong and take the long $i$ or $i$ in a regular manner: Ex: wiled-ulid; wizén - uzin; waqâ - uqiâ; wajâ - ujiâ; wahad - uhid.
3. Verbs, ending in a vowel, have no qualifying nouns in Maltese: the active participle is used instead.
4. The difference between the qualifying noun of the form nadif, marid, etc. and the verbal

[^13]noun of the form nfih, nhir, nfid, shiq etc., is in vowel $a$ which is omitted in the Maltese verbal noun. This $a$ should be invariably written in qualifying nouns, even when not always distinctly pronounced: kabir ( kbir ) sahih (shih) sagir (sgir) etc.

The feminine is obtained by adding $a$ to the masculine.

The feminine plural and dual are obtained regularly, by changing a into et and by ađding téyn.

## The masculin plural.

r. In qualifying nouns with long $i$, the masculine plural is obtained by transposing the vowels Ex: kabir - kibàr; nadif - nidàf.
In pronouncing one does not hear the short $i$ of this plural form. Talking quickly people always say: kbảr, ndàf...
2. In qualifying nouns with long $i t$ the masculine plural is generally obtained by affixing in to the singular
Ex: rasul - rasulin (arabie rosol) âjuz - âjuzin (arabic ôjoz)
3. In qualifying nouns with double consonant, the masculine plural is obtained by affixing in to the singular.
Ex: qassis - qassisin.
Remarks. 1. The qualifying noun, derived from verbs, beginning with a diphthong, form the masculine plural by changing the long $i$ into a long $\dot{e}$. Ex: ulidulèd.
2. When connected with the guttural consonant $h$ the short vowel $i$ of the masculine plural is ofen omitted.

Ex: habib - hbàb (arabic ahbàb)

- 3. Some qualifying nouns, having lost their primıtive qualifying sense, have alse a different masculine plural:
a) nouns having a long $i$ (tabib, qaidil) take an $o$ after the first letter it it is a consonant, or change the first letter into 0 if it is a vowel; the long $i$ is then dropped and a long $\dot{d}$ is affixed to the last letter.

Ex: tabib - tobba; qabil-qobla (often transformed into oqbla); antir - omra;
b) nonns, having a long ì form the masculine plural by transposing the $\dot{u}$ from the end to the beginning of the word; it is changed into $w$ before the vowel that follows, which then becomes $\dot{e}$ or $\grave{\alpha}$. A euphonic e takes the place of $\dot{u}$ at the end.

Ex: nadùr - nwèder; hanùt - hwènet.
4. Some qualifying nouns having both the meaning of an adjective and that of a substantive have two plural forms for the masculine gender:

Ex: nadif $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { nidàf (ndàf) ; } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { nodfá }\end{array} \quad\right.$ qarib $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { qiràb } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { qorbà }\end{array}\right.$ (qràb)
II. An independent form of the qualifying noun is obtained by affixing $\dot{e} n$ or $\dot{a} n$ to the verbal noun.
Ex. férah - férh $=$ férhàn
âtéx - âtx $=$ âtxèn
haya - hayi $=$ hayyèn
The feminine is formed by adding $a$. Ex: férhàna The plural and the dual forms are regular:
in and eyn for the masculine èt and teyn for the feminine.

Remark. Some nouns of this form, having lost their primitive meaning as adjectives, are irregular in the plural; they drop the first short vowel, transpose the long $\dot{a}$ with the consonant which precedes it, and take a euphonic $i$ or $e$ in place of the transposed $\grave{a}$.

Ex: Sultàn - slàtin; sikràn - skarin.
The noun of superiority (comparative) is formed from the verb's shortest form by prefixing a (or $i$ ) and omitting the vowel after the first consonant in those verbs, which begin with a consonant; by prefixing $\dot{e}$ and changing the first vowel in those beginning with a vowel.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Ex: } & \text { kabar }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { akbar; gana - agna } \\
\text { ikbar ; } \\
\\
\\
\\
\text { ala - éêla; âzz - êézez }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Feminine and piural.

1. In five-letter words the feminise is formed from the masculine comparative by means of the alternation of the vowels with the consonants: which follow.
Ex: akbar - kabrà; andaf-nadfà; amrad - mardà.

The plural for both genders is obtained from the feminine by changing the first vowel into o and dropping the last vowel.
Ex. kabra - kobr (or kobor) marda - mord.
2. In the case of words, ending in $a$, the feminine is obtained from the masculine by means of the alternation of the first vowel with the consonant which follows; $y$ is then suffixed to the last vowel.
Ex: agna - ganya; agla - galia.
The plural for buth genders is obtained by changing the first vowel of the masculine comparative form into e.
Ex: agna - ogna; agla ogla.
3. In the case of words, beginning with two vowels, and ending in a vowel, the feminine is obtained from the masculine by means of changing the first two vowels into 0 and by suffixing $y$ to the last vozel.
Ex: ôlya (from éêla)
The plural for both both genders is formed by omitting the $y$ of the feminine singular comparative.
Ex: ôlya - ôla
4. In the case of words, beginning with two vowels and ending in a consonant, the feminine is obtained from the masculine comparative by changing the first two vowels into $o$ and affixing $\dot{d}$; should there be a vowel before the last consonant it is omitted.
Ex: éézer - ôzzà (from ôz(a)za).

The plural for both genders is obtained from the feminine by suffixing a short $o$ to the last consonant and dropping the last vowel:
Ex: ôzza - ôzoz
Remarks 1. In three-letter verbs having a long vowel, the noun of superiority is formed from the verbal noun.

Ex: hàr - hayr = ahyar...
2. Some nouns of quality have the form of the noun of superiority without having its meaning. Ex: abyadd; ahdar...
3. Three adjectives have irregular nouns of superiority:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ohxon } & \text { (instead of ahxan) } \\
\text { orhos } & \text { (instead of arhass } \\
\text { ohla } & \text { (instead of ahlat) }
\end{array}
$$

Of these, ohxon has two plural forms: hoxon and hoxnìn.

Mistake. Some Maltese dictionaries consider such regular plural forms as ogna, oglu, éêla as varteties of the singular forms agna, agla, éêla (sic!)

At the same time they do not give any other form for their plural.

Such an error can on!y be due to an insufficient knowledge of the language and its grammar.

## C. Substantive nouns.

I. Nouns of profession (nom de métier) are formed from the verbs shortest form by doubling the middle letter,-if it is a consonant or an evasive vowel,-and adding a long $\dot{a}$ or $\dot{e}$;
the first vowel is $a$ if the long vowel is $\dot{a}$; and it is $\dot{e}$ if the long vowel is $\dot{e}$.
Ex: kisér
kassàr
zibél -to manure; zébbèl -dustman
habaz -to make bread; habbaz --baker
âxaq -to love; âxxàq -lover
naxar - to saw; naxxár -sawyer
bazâ -to fear; bézzèâ fearful
Remarks . 1. Verbs,ending in a short vowel, change this vowel into $y$.

Ex: séwa - séwwèy; néda - neddèy; béna - bénnèy.
2. Verbs, of three letters whose second letter is a long vowel, do not double this vowel, but change it into éyyè or azwzà.

Ex: bèâ - béyyèâ; qàs - qawwàs.
3. Verbs, whose second letter is a guttural vowel do not double this letter, but follow it by a long $\dot{u}$ or $\dot{e}$.

Ex: dâa - dâày; nâl - nâàl ; nâs - nâàs.
The feminine is formed by adding $a$ to the masculine.

The plural and dual forms are formed regularly for the feminine by changing $a$ into $\grave{e} t$ and atéyn, for the masculine by adding in and eyn.
II. Nouns of places are formed from both transitive and intransitive verbs by prefixing ma to the verh's shortest form; the next short vowel is dropped.
Ex: lata (to take refuge) Malta; talab-matlab; darab madrab; jara - majra; dahal - madhal.

Verbs, whose second letter is a long vowel, verbs, beginning with a vowel and verbs, ending in a double consonant, prefix $m$ instead of $m a$.
Ex: kèn - mkèn; jarr - mjarr.
A short $a$ is sometimes affixed without any special meeting.

Ex: nadar-mandar and mandra.
III. Nouns of instruments have three forms in Maltese:

1. The first form is obtained by prefixing $m o$ to the first and suffixing long $\dot{a}$ or $\dot{e}$ to the last letter; the first short vowel after the prefix is dropped.
Ex: fètah - moftèh; sébah - mosbèh; h rat - mohrèt; harr - mohràr; tarab - motràb; samar - mosmàr.
2. The second form is obtained by prefixing $m i$; the short vowel after the prefix is then dropped.
Ex: téraq-mitraq; rifés-mirfés; nizél-minzél; dinéb - midnéb.
3. The third form constitutes nouns of unity, which are obtained from the plural form of these nouns by the addition of an $a$; the last vowel is dropped and the first long vowel changed into a short one.
Ex: migraf pl. mgàraf - mgarfa (spoon) mitraq pl. mtèraq - mtèrqa (hammer).

Remark. In ordinary language nouns of instruments are sometimes used for nouns of places and vice versa.

Ex: manzil-minzél; madhal-midhal; majramijra; mafrad - mifrad etc.

The plural for both nouns of places and nouns of instruments is formed by the transposition of letters: the first vowel takes the place of the consonant, which follows and become:; loug $\dot{d}$ or $\dot{e}$; the last vowel becomes short.
Ex: mosbèh - msèbeh (or msèbah) mijmâ - mjèmâ moftèh - mfèteh (or mfètah) mitraq-mtèraq mohrèt - mhàrét mirfés- mrèfés mandar - mnàdar

Remarks 1. Some nouns, which stand for persons acting instrumentally in the production of certain effects, have irregular plurals.

Ex: midné $=$ instrumental in sinning $=$ sinner;
pl. midnebin (instead of mdèneb);
misir* $=$ instrumental in generating $=$ father; pl . misiriyèt etc.
2. Some words have the meaning of notins of places although they have the form of the "independent" noun of unity.
Some of these nouns keep the final $a$ of the noun of unity; others drop it.

Ex: kitèb = to write
$k$ tèb $=$ a place for writing $=$ book;
xamar $=$ to tuck up clothes
xmára=a place where the clothes are tucked
up before crossing = river, etc.
The forms with the final $a$ have the plural formed by dropping this letter and suffixing $i$ before the last consonant.

Ex: xmàra-xmảir.

[^14]The forms without the final $a$ form their plural as those qualifying nouns in $i$, having the meaning of substantives.

Ex: ktèb - kotba; jnèn - jonna.
3. Some words, which in reality are participles take the form of nouns of intstruments.
Ex: midyèn = indebted; midyéq = narrowed,grieved; midlèl $=$ delicate $;$ midwàl $=$ illuminated

These nouns generally form their plural like all participles; their feminine is formed in accordance with the rules for participles.
N.B. miskin = pauper, has two plural forms: msèken (regular plural for six-letter nouns) and miskinin (regular plural form for participles:)
4. Some words which in reality are verbal nouns have the form of nouns of instruments.

Their plural is like the regular plural of nouns of instruments.
Ex: mijlés = a sitting (sitting of the court, sitting of the parliament), plural-mjèles.
5. Nouns of places derived from verbs, ending in $a$, form their plural by the transposition of letters: the first vowel takes the place of the preceding consonant and becomes long $\dot{a}$ or $\dot{e}$; the last vowel becomes $i$.
Ex: rasa = to. lay at anchor;
marsa = anchorake, port, pl. mràsi.
jara $=$ to run, to happen ;
majra = place of running, mouth of a river, pl. mjảri.
lata $=$ to shelter ;
malta $=$ place of shelter; pl. mlèti or mlàti.
6. Nouns resembling nouns of places are formed from the verbal noun (and not from the shortest form) by prefixing $m$ or $m a$ and affixing ( $a$, but have the sense of nouns of unity.
Ex: âda (âdda) = to pass, $\hat{o} d i=$ passing, môdia $=$ a passing; gafér = to forgive, gafr = forgiving, magfra = forgiveness, pardon; âder = to excuse, $\hat{o} d r=$ excusing, $m o ̂ d r a$ and $m o ̂ d r i y a=$ an excuse.

These form their plural by changing the last letter $a$ into èt.
IV. Nouns of time. The only noun of time in Maltese is miled = time of birth, from the verb ziled.
V. Independent nouns, although derived fiom the same roots as the verb, have meanings independent from those of their corresponding verbs.

1. Two-letter words. They have spectial plurals. mà- $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mawèt; âr (shame) } \\ \text { miyèt; }\end{array}\right.$ âwra $\begin{array}{l}\text { âwrèt }\end{array}$ $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { hu } \\ \text { ah }\end{array}\right\}$ ahuà
2. Three-letter words without a long vowel.

They have likewise special plurals.


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3. Three-letter words, whose second letter is a long vowel, form their plural by changing the long vowel into ià (iè) or uà (uì).
bit - biàr bèb - buèb tùr - tuàr
âàr-âyàr rib - rièh rùh-ruèh dàr- diàr

Some nouns of this class simply affix en in the plural and change their long vowel into a short $i$.
Ex: nàr - nirèn; jar - jirèn; fair - firèn.
4. Four-letter words, beginning with and ending in a consonant, form the plural by suffixing a long $\dot{e}$ or $\dot{a}$ to the last letter, the first short vowel being dropped.
Ex: bent - bnèt
gin - snèn

5. Four-letter words, beginning with a vowel and ending in a consonant, change their last vowel into a long $\dot{u}$ in the plural.
Ex: âsar - âsùr; ômor - ômùr; ônoq - ônùq.
6. Four - letter words, whose second letter is a long vowel and whose last letter is a short $a$, form their plural by changing: the long vowel into wa or wed, and the last vowel into $i$.

Sometimes they only take an additional $t$.
Ex: tèqa - twèqi and tèqàt
néqa - nwèqi
hàra - hàràt
Remark: hája makes hwèij (instead of hwèji).
7. Four-letter words with a diphthong in the middle transpose, in the plural, the vowels of the diphthong, changing the last one into a long corresponding vowel or into $i u$.
Ex: keyl-kyèl
mewt - mwèt keyd-kyèd
beyt - byùt caws- qwàs
hayt-hyùt ciawr-dwàr séyf - syùf

Remark: leyl makes lyèli; xawn makes xwèn and xini; * qaws makes quàs and qisi.
8. Four-letter nouns, beginning with a diphthong, forn the plural by dropping the second letter of the diphthong and suffixing a long vowel to the last letter.
Ex: wild - ulèd; wijh - ujèh; wirk - urèk or urùk.
9. Four-letter words ending in $i$ take the affix in in plural.
Ex: nabi - nabiin. ${ }_{\text {+ }}$
10. Four or five-!etter words with a long vowel before the last letter form their plural by changing this vowel.

Ex: hmàr - hmir; harùf-hrèf.
They have special plural forms, when the long vowel is $\dot{e}$.

Ex: Isèn - ilsna; zmèn - izmna and zméniyèt.

* The Maltese dictionaries consider xini as a singular form. If xini were really a singular form, the meaning of the locality mjarr xini would become illogical: landing place of a boat, whereas it has been always known to be the landing place of boats.
$\ddagger$ The arabic plural form for nabi has been kept in gar il-émbi $=$ grot of the prophets (sometimes pronounced gar il-enbya

11. Five-letter words (three consonants alternating with two short vowels) form the plural by dropping the first vowel and changing the last vowel into a long one.
Ex. rajel-rjàl; rijel-rjèĺ; dahar - dhùr.
Besides this regular form, some nonns of this class have also another plural form, which is obtained by prefixing $o$ or $i$ and affixing $a$ to the consonants of the noun. These are:
habar - hbàr or ahbàr and ohbra
hatar - htar and ohtra
qamar - qmàr and oqmra
qosom (sonetimes qasam) - qsàm and oqsma
qofol - qfăf and oqfla
qabar - qbùr and oqbra
bahar - bhàr or bhùr and ibhra
satal - stal or stul and istla
fahal - fhul and ifhla
saqaf - sqùt and isqfa
jemel - jmèl and ijmla
hemel - hmèl and ihmla
kefen - kfën and ikfna
seqer - sqèr and isqra
12. Five-letter nouns, the second letter of which is a long vowel, form the plural by taking w before the long vowel.

Ex: zèmel-zwèmel
xèreb - xwèreb
hàtem - hwàtem
Should such a no'm end into a short $a$, this letter is omitted in the plural and a euphonic $e$ is suffixed to the last consonant.
Ex: qàbla - què̀bel.

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$$

13. Six-letter nouns, having a long vowel before the last consonant, transfer, in the plural, the accent from the last syllable to the first, and transpose the first vowel with the consonant which follows.

| Ex: sendúq | - snèdaq | hannùs | - hnènes |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hartùm | - hràtem | barmil | - bràmel |
| fardà | - fràdal | sikkin | - skèken |

14. Independent nouns, ending in a long $\dot{a}$ generally take the affixes wèt or yèt in the plural. Ex: sémà - smawèt; mà $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masèt } \\ \text { mayèt }, \text { miyèt }\end{array}\right.$
15. Independent nouns ending in a short $a$ form their plural by changing this $a$ into èt in all cases, except those mentioned in number 6 .
Ex: jébla - jéblèt
harifa - harifèt

## Irregular plurals.

I. xawn $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { xini } \\ \text { xwèn }\end{array}\right.$
3. haja - hwèij
5. leyl-lyèli 6. qolla-qlèl †
7. drèâ, dual - dirâyn, plural - idrâ.

Mistakes. The Maltese dictionaries give the word dreèb as the plural of debba. Dwèb is the plural of dib $=$ wolf; the plural of $d e b b a=$ beast of burden, is debbett.

They also give snèn as the plural of sinna. Snèn= teeth, is the plural of $\sin n=$ tooth; the plural of sinna $=$ one tooth, is sinnet.

[^15]
## VI. Relative roun.

Relative nouns are formed from any noun or participle by affixing $y$ or $i y$ after depriving it of the $a$ feminine termination, and the signs of the dual and plural forms, when present.


The feminine and the plurals are regular.
Remarks. i. The feminine singular forms: mistoqslya, qlubiya, etc., have two meanings: that of the feminiue singular of mistoqsiy, qlubiy etc., and that of an independent abstracted noun, which, as such, can have no plural.
2. The feminine plural of the relative noun is used for the plural of nouns of action, which, as such, can have no plural.

Ex: xgoliyèt (xgoliy), hsébiyèt (hsébiy) etc.
3. Maltese often use the feminine plural of the relative noun for the plural of its corresponding noun: smeniyet (from zmeniy) instead of ismna (from zmèn), nhàr - ihariyèt, dlàm-dlamiyèt (for nhír, dlum).

## VII. Nouns of quantity or collective nouns have

 four forms in Maltese.1. One implies a multitude and has no singutar Ex: nisà ; dahlét, * mnèher, ${ }^{* *}$ faldèt ${ }^{* * *}$ (corrupted into faldetta) etc.
2. The other-implies a multitude and forms the singular by affixing a
Ex: nahal - nahla; toffèh - toffèha
3. A third form is made up from nouns of profession by affixing $a$ to the masculine singular: Ex: masc. s. haddèm (pl. haddèmin) collective noun haddèma ( $=\mathrm{f}$. s. of haddèm) masc. s. bennèy (pl. bennèyin) collective noun bennèya ( $=\mathrm{f}$. s. of bennèy)
4. The fourth form is obtained from relative nouns by changing the final $y$ into a short $a$.
Ex: bahriat-sailors, (from bahriy - bahriyin) qâqia $\uparrow^{*}$-ravens (from qâqiy-qiâqiyin) hamria $=$ red faced (from hamriy-hamriyin) etc.

* dahlet with a shoti $e$ and the aceent on the first syllable is not to be mistaken for diblet with a long e and the accent on the second syllable. Dahlet=shalow water (dahlet ix-xilef); dahlèt $=$ entrances (plural of dahla).
** mnèher = nostrils (nose), is the plural of minhar =instrument for snoring, from the verb nahar-yonhor, to snore. Minhar has been forgotten.
*** faldet $i$ s the plural of falda $=$ a loose garment with folded pleats (from the Arabic verb falad = to fold). The word, which town people use now instead of old faldet, is ghonella (corruption of the Italian gonnella $=$ skirt).
+ bahria-collective noun of bahriy is not $t$, be mistaken for bahriya which ls the femine of bahriy.
$t^{*}$ qâqia has bcen preserved as surname of one of theold maltese families, whereas qaqiy has been entirely forgotten. Qaqia = ravens, is not to be mistaked for kâka (= kâk $k$ = cake.


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Remark. Amongst the collective nouns one may range also the feminine singular of ahmar $=$ red, when this adjective is used as an independent noun and takes the article. Il hamra has then the meaning of foreigners in comparison with the semits, because the non semits are fair (red) faced (in opposition to the semits, who are dark faced)

There are still some more adjectives, the feminine singular forms of which must have had independent meanings in by gone days.

As an example one may quote zèd is-sezoda or hajar is-sewda; these names cannot be translated as the black valley or the black stone which would have been il-wèd is-seroda or il-hajar is-sewda. They can neither be translated as black valley or black stone, which would have been zèd sezoda, hajar sezoda.

With our still very poor knowledge of the past we ca, only try to translate these names as valley of the black and stone of the black, both constructions, having at least the advantage of a grammatically correct translation.

## The numerals.

The cardinal numbers from 3 to 10 govern the plural of the objects numbered.

The ordinal numbers are formed in the same way as the active participle fo: simple verbs and agree in gender with the noun.

Multiplicative numerals-(single, double, triple etc.) are formed from participles of the corresponding doubled verb.

The fractions are formed from the corresponding ordinal forms by changing the first vowel into $u$ or 0 and dropping the $i$ when present.

Special forms exist for: one, first, single, last, half.


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## Diminutives.

Diminutives can be formed from every noun or particle (in Arabic even from verbs.)

The diminutive is formed:

1. by sufflxing a short $u$ to the first letter, if the word begins with a consonant (this $u$ is seldom pronounced in maltese), or by changing the first letter into $u$ if the word begin with a vowel;
2. by dropping the second-letter, if it is a short vowel.
3. by suffixing $a y$ or éy to the second letter, if it is a consonant, or by changing it into ay or éy if it is a long, guttural or evasive vowel; a euphonic $a$ is affixed when required.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ex: tifel - tufayel }=\text { tfayel } \\
& \text { tifla - tufayla }=\text { tfayla } \\
& \text { tfäl - tufayal = thayal } \\
& \text { rahal - ruhaya! }=\text { rhayal } \\
& \text { hanex - huneyex = hneyex } \\
& \text { mandar - munaydar }=\text { mnaydar } \\
& \text { mandra - munaydra }=\text { mnaydr } a \\
& \text { âyn -.. ûayn }=\text { ûayn } \alpha \\
& \text { dàr -- duayr }=\text { duayra } \\
& \text { ismar - usmayar } \\
& \text { wiri (verbal noun)--uréy } \\
& \text { hdà (preposition)-hdéy etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Remarks. I. Qualitying nouns in $\grave{i}$ or $\grave{u}$ form their diminutives in a regular manner; they only change the long $i$ into $a$ and the long $\dot{u}$ into $e$.

Ex: katir - kutayar
sagir - sugayar = sgayar (wrongly written
shùn - suhayen $=$ shayen
2. Plural forms in $\grave{a} i$ or $\grave{e} i$ (like xmàir hnèin, hràif etc.) form their diminutives in a regular manner; they only drop their $\dot{a}$ or $\dot{e}$.

Ex: xmàir - xmayir
hràif - hrayif etc.
Mistakes. In the Maltese dictionaties one comes across mistakes in analysing such forms as hraif, hrayef, hrayif; xmàir, xmayar; zhayra, sgayra etc.

Grammatically
a) hrait -is the plurai of hràfa
hrayef - is the diminutive of haruf hreyef - is the diminutive of hrèf hrayif -is the diminutive of hraif
b) xmair -is the plural of xmara xmayir - is the diminutive of xmair xmayar-is the diminutive of xamir which means in Maltese expeditious.
c) shayra is the diminutive of zahra $=$ small flower
d) sgayra-is the feminine of sgayar, which is the diminutive of sagir = small (=sagir) sàgir or sagir $=$ small
e) zayar-is a verb = to pay calls, to visit (derivated form from zìr $=$ to pay calls) zair-is the act. part. of zàr.

## CASES.

The cases exist in the Maltese language only in some names:
nom. b $u$ bakra $=$ father of a vergin; $\mathrm{b} u$ hajar $=\mathrm{fa}-$ ther of stones and all Maltese names, beginning with $b u=$ nom. of $a b=$ father gen. bâlbi=father's God or father's land
These must have been imported by the Saracens, declensions being unknown in the primitive semitic language. Thus bu bakra and all the Maltese names beginning with $b u$ (nominative of $a b=$ father) are distinctly of Mahometan origin. Balbi-a family name, is believed to be of Spanish (moorish) origin.

Remark: hiya $=$ my brother (not to be mistaken for hia $=$ she) cannot be considered as a genitive, the Maltese using hiya in all cases for huya, hiya and haya.

## SEMITIC ROOTS.

Semitic roots are made up:
a.) of vowels only
b.) of consonants only.

The following are Maltese words, derived from vo-wel-roots:
root a:
I. $a=$ interrogative particle
2. aze (=haw)
azon (=hawn) here aronèk ( = hawnèk)
3. awa $=$ to become populous
mawi, mawiy = peuplé; mawiya $=$ peuplèe"
4. aya = to come on
5. âya = to be wearied
6. ya=exclamation (ya hasra!)
root e:

1. éy = what; yes.
2. éw yéw or
3. êwa = to howl
root u:

- $1 . \quad u=$ and; by(in swearing: éywah $=$ é $y+w a+\hbar)$

With the exception of the above quoted words, all maltese words are derived from counsonant-roots, and take
simple forms, contracted forms compound forms


Simple forms are those, where the consonants of the root are combined with vowels

Ex: rajâ, méxa, kitéb, béâ, dawar etc.
Contracted forms are made up of two or more different words, so intimately connected with each other by usage, that they may be almost considered as one.

Ex: sfarjél = asfar + jéll.
Compound forms are those, where the consonants of the root are combined with other consonants, which expand the root.

The cons $\quad$ nants, used for this purpose, might be called servile letters. They are: $n, m, t, s, k$ and $q$.

The servile consonants are used as prefixes, suffixes and affixes.

The consonants $n, m$ and $t$ are used as servile prifixes, suffixes and affixes.

Ex: sar; âsar $=$ to press, to compell;ânsar $=$ origin qad; âqad $=$ to stick to; ânquid-bunch of grapes hazar - hanzér; sarı - samsar
ad (= to say) $\}$ adan (widén) $=$ to hear yéd (=hand)
The consonant $s$ is used as servile prefix in connection with $t$.

Ex: stâjeb, sthaqq etc.
The sound $k(k$ or $q)$ is used as servile affix only. Ex: da, dak hamba, hambaq
Remarks: 1. Used as affixes, the servile letters are addec:
each consonant separately (da-dak)
two consonants one after the other (bu, ben, bent; haw, hawn, hawnèk)
two consonants one after the other with a repetition of the first (hu, oht, haten, htint)
2. Servile prefixes, suffixes and affixes are also combined together. E.g: in participle forms of the verbs with $i-t$.
in the plural for participle forms of the verbs with $i$ - $t$ etc. (mixtèq - mixteqin; mixtèqa - mixteqèt)
Transposition of letters. Transposition of letters is a common thing in all semitic languages.-E.g: mìây = mây $a ;$ i $l a=a l ; \quad$ dih $a l=$ dàh $i l ;$ wihad $=$ wathid; $\hat{a}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{b}=\hat{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{ab} ; \operatorname{laq} x \quad(\operatorname{laqqax})=\operatorname{laxk} ;$ fosda $=$ sadfa etc.

## APPENDIX

Those few foreign words, which are now constantly used instead of the national semitic expressions in the Maltese language could easily be eliminated by simply applying those maltese rules of deriving words which have been already mentioned. Thus:

1. hikim means Governor in Maltese and is the active participle of hakém $=$ to govern.

The place of governing = the ministry or department would be mahkam or mahkama.
2. qaddi means judge in maltese and is the active participle of $\operatorname{gada}=$ to decide, to judge.

The place of judgment $=$ the court, would be maqda.
3. hallef means to swear them in.

A jury would be $m$ halléf = participle of halléf.
4. dar il-imarra means the house of the Government = government's house, and is a place near bir sébbùj.

As a logical consequence of this combination imdra appears to be the Maltese word for government.
5. kiléb $=$ to write.

The place of zeriting, or school, would be maktab. etc.

## ERRORS.

| Page | number | line | written | should be |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7 | 4 | I | a guttural $k$ | a heavy guttural $k$ |
| , | Phonetical note | 7 | sériâaltt | sénâat |
| 10 | Affixed pronouns | 6 | (for feminithe) | (for feminine) |
| 12 | 4) | 7 | min om | tinintoóm |
| 23 | 2) | 2 | âd, ahna | âd abina |
| 25 | XIX | 5 | ect. | etc. |
| 30 | 1) | 3 | is guttural | is $g, \hbar$, or $q$ |
| 38 | Evasive vobwels | 3 | bềa | bèâ |
| 39 | b) | 2 | aré | are |
| 43 | 7 |  | xemnak | xemnaq |
|  |  |  | Forth class | Fourth class |
| 45 | 5 | 9 | alga-bi-ras | alḍa bi ras |
| 49 | Ex. | 11 | sàq | xaq |
| 50 52 | ** | 2 | dephtong | diphthong |
| 53 |  | 10 | tetwil | tetwil |
| 57 | The feminine | 2 | et | èt |
| 73 | pl. ard dual | 12 | hajar | hajra |
| 73 |  | 14 | il-wèd is-sewda | l-wèdil-iswad |
| 73 |  | 14 | hajar | hajra |
| 73 |  | 16 | wed serwda | zoed iswad |
| 73 |  | 16 | hajar | hajra |

I. preceding and precedes have been often written with $2 e$ s after $c$
II. the accent aigu has sometimes been omitted over $e$ owing to its scarcets at the typography.

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[^0]:    $\left(^{*}\right)$ The verb wéjjeh, coming from wijh is always written correctly by the Maltese.

[^1]:    * Country folk often say ki yirid $=$ as he likes, thus using $k i$ instead of ka ma.

[^2]:    * Awa is kncwn to the maltese in its participial form mawi Ex: xâra mawiya koll xibr yiswa mia. (The proverb originated with the foundation of Valletta in 1566).

[^3]:    * eyd is the plural of yed or yid=hand. People say in the country: éyd $i=m y$ hands; min yédhu=from his own hand, quite correctly. But the Maltese dictionaries are faithful to the erroneous forms $i d$ for hand and eyd for the imp. of ad; aid $=$ holiday, feast.

[^4]:    * The Maltese have the forms émmén and yassar, derived from émén and yasar (arabic asar); but they have forgotten émén and yasar.

[^5]:    + I do not keep to the usual artificial divisions, adopted by arabic grammars, which consider the verb dazuar, séyer etc., as redoubled forms. I do not think, that, from a logical point*of view, awa could be considered as a redoubled $a$ or $u$, and eyé as a redoubled $\dot{e}$ or $i$. Further, from the point of view of meaning these forms do not convey the impression of faire faire, but rather of intensity of movement, typical of the suffixed forms.

[^6]:    $\ddagger s t=i s t$ is an abreviation of ista-yista $=$ to can, to be able to (: from the root $s a-i s a=$ to run.)

[^7]:    * The forms "ékél", "éhé l", "éséf", "ata" do not exist in Maltese, although "ittékel", "ittéhéd", "ittéséf", "ittata" are regular derivations of these forms.
    ** "ittata" = to befall, to occur, to happen, is often wrongly written "intghata" ( sic"!)

[^8]:    * "bérméj" is wrongly written "bermec"
    \# "kanfar". is wrongly written "canfar."
    t "kermed" is wrongly written "gernied"
    ** "kérkés" is wrongly written "gerǵes."

[^9]:    * "tarbax" is wrongly written "tarbac". In Arabic the coiresponding verb is"itrawra" (from "tara")

[^10]:    ** "ashàb" = friends, is not to be mistaken for "shàb" = cloud; (collective noun).

[^11]:    * to vowels; ta-ta guttural consonants; to to all other consonants. The first short vowel is dropped after the prefixes $t a$ and $t e$.
    ** $i$ assimilates the short vowel, which precedes it.

[^12]:    ** $i$ assimilates the short vowel, which precedes it.

[^13]:    * Adòn from the punic salutation hew'adoni is a regnlar noun of quality, formed according to the above rules from aden $($ widen $)=$ to hear, and means hearer; adoni $=\mathrm{my}$ hearer; hew'adoni = be happy my hearer! The Hebraic Adonài is a corruption of the Arabic adoni or adimi.

[^14]:    * Country folk pronounce sometimes iniser inste id of misir.

[^15]:    ** obdod, plural of ôdda, is not to be mistaken for êdàd, which is the plural of $\hat{e} d d$ (number).

    + qlèl-the plural of qolla is not to be mistaken for qlà (or qilàl), the plural of qalil= destitute, small.

