SPOKEN TELUGU

Leigh Lisker

With line drawings by Sara Lisker

Spoken Language Services, Inc.
The research and compilation of which this work is a result were brought to completion
under a subvention from the Board on Overseas Training and Research
(Ford Foundation).

Library of Congress catalog number 63-12992

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Foreword

Telugu is spoken by about forty million people living in Andhra Pradesh, one of the constituent states of the Indian Union. In view of the fact that Andhra Pradesh extends as much as four hundred miles from north to south and about the same distance from east to west, it is not surprising that Telugu shows a considerable amount of dialectal variation. Moreover, there are variations which reflect social cleavages within any one restricted geographical area. The variety of spoken Telugu that we have aimed to present in this textbook is that used by educated people living in the coastal part of Andhra Pradesh—roughly, the area drained by the Kistna and Godavari Rivers. The several speakers whose speech provided material for this grammar spent their early years in one or more of the following places: Ongole, Nellore, Guntur, Bezwada, Rajamundry. Some efforts have been made to eliminate expressions that are restricted to particular geographic or social areas, but it is to be expected that any Telugu speaker will recognize, and probably object to, still other expressions as being peculiar to a single locality or social group.

Among the more than a dozen speakers of coastal Telugu who have contributed to this Introductory Spoken Telugu I wish to acknowledge an especially heavy debt to the following: Mrs. Violet Smith, Dr. Bh. Krishnamurti and Dr. D. V. K. Raghavacharyulu.

The line drawings accompanying the text are the contribution of my wife Sara, who made use of a month’s stay in Waltair to record her observations of the local scene.

Most of the materials for this text were collected with the help of the Program in Oriental Languages of the American Council of Learned Societies, and I wish to record my lively appreciation for its long continued support. Part of the work of preparation was carried out in India on a visit made possible by the American Council of Learned Societies and the United States Educational Foundation in India.

In connection with the preparation of this book for publication I owe much to Miss Joan Dunham and Mr. Harry Lisker, who assembled the glossaries and typed the final draft, and to Dr. Gerald Kelley, who gave most generously of his time and specialist knowledge of Telugu in a detailed review of the text.

University of Pennsylvania
July, 1962

Leigh Lisker
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A Note of Procedure

This book has been designed to be used in consultation with a language guide or person whose mother tongue is Telugu. The student's job is to imitate the guide's pronunciation as closely as he can. Where the guide prefers forms differing from those given in the text, the guide is in general to be followed. The guide, however, has a duty to produce colloquial Telugu and not a spoken version of the written language. It is this writer's experience that in the classroom situation the language guide is under a continuous temptation to produce a "correct" Telugu which he may not ordinarily use in informal speech. Both the guide and the student must therefore be on their guard against departures from the text which introduce non-colloquialisms. At the same time it is important to remember that the guide rather than the text is the ultimate source for the language; where the text presents forms or sentences which the guide would not normally produce, it is the text and not the guide that requires alteration.

It is suggested that the conversations serve as primary material for drill purposes. The conversations have been kept brief so that the student may find it an easy matter to commit them to memory and at the same time fix his attention on the phonetic and grammatical features of the material to be learned. The conversations cover many of the common situations which the student may participate in or witness in the course of a stay in Andhra. They have been arranged in a kind of cumulative order—that is, essentially the same conversation may recur a number of times in the text, but in each recurrence it will have been changed somewhat in content and grammatical complexity. In studying a conversation it will be useful to review its predecessors so that the various alternative expressions which might be appropriate to the situation are immediately available for use in combinations that are not explicitly given in the text.

The drill sentences included in the grammar notes are intended primarily as examples which further illustrate the use of features found in the conversations and discussed in the notes. These drill sentences may, of course, also provide a basis for supplementary classroom drill.

The translation exercise at the end of each lesson is meant to serve as a review. The procedure recommended is to translate first the Telugu sentences into English, and then to use the English simply as cues by which to recall the Telugu sentences as given. It is suggested that the English sentences not be translated into Telugu of the student's own invention.

In the first five lessons replacement exercises are provided; these enable the student to put together new sentences by simple replacement of the parts of certain model sentences. Similar exercises might also be performed with sentences in subsequent lessons, though these are not provided in the text.

Finally, it is suggested that once a conversation and its related predecessors are well controlled by the student it may be valuable to record his attempt to engage the guide in free conversation along the same general lines so that new expressions which the guide may spontaneously produce will be available for later study. In this way the conversational materials in this text can be indefinitely enlarged upon.
A Phonetic Preface

The meanings of many of the symbols used in this text to represent the sounds of Telugu will be clear to the reader simply because they represent quite similar sounds in English. Those which require special comment will be referred to in 'Pronunciation notes' in some of the early lessons. However, for the reader's ready reference we list below all the symbols used in the text, together with descriptions of the sounds they represent. For practical reasons, description will be limited to the citation of English words which contain similar sounds (as pronounced by most Americans in the northern United States).

### VOWELS

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<th>Positions</th>
<th>Sound Values</th>
<th>Examples</th>
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</thead>
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<td>a</td>
<td>final in phrase</td>
<td>varies from u of 'cut' to a of 'father'; short</td>
<td>ekkada 'Where?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after c, s, j or y</td>
<td>between u of 'cut' and a of 'cat'; short</td>
<td>candrudu 'moon'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>before a or a or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>between u of 'cut' and a of 'father'; short</td>
<td>sani 'Saturn'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>a of 'America'</td>
<td>jañthuwu 'animal'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>å</td>
<td>after c, s, j or y</td>
<td>between a of 'cat' and a of 'father'; long</td>
<td>kalum unũ. 'There's a pen.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>before a or a or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>between a of 'father' and au of 'caught'; long</td>
<td>kana palũ leũ. 'It wasn't seen.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>a of 'father'; long</td>
<td>ikkada dábbu leũ. 'There's no money here.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>before a or a or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>varying between i of 'bit' and sound resembling both i of 'bit' and e of 'bet'; short</td>
<td>pan unũ. 'There's work.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

samācāram 'news'

nēnu pālũ leũ. 'I didn't sing.'

nālugu 'four'

cilaka 'parrot'

θǐn'nu. 'I don't eat.'
## VOWELS—cont'd

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Sound Values</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>varying between ee of 'beet' and i of 'bit'; short</td>
<td>innumu 'iron'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>manciṭi 'good'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ī</td>
<td>before a or ā or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>like i of 'bit', but with tongue more retracted; long</td>
<td>īga 'fly' (insect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>ee of 'beet'; long</td>
<td>nīl'jō 'in the shade'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>before a or ā or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>between u of 'put' and oa of 'coat'; short</td>
<td>musali 'aged'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>varying between u of 'put' and oo of 'poop'; short</td>
<td>butt 'unũ 'Is there a basket?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ū</td>
<td>before a or ā or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>between u of 'put' and oa of 'coat'; long</td>
<td>sūla 'pain'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>oo of 'poop'; long</td>
<td>ŋūkam 'weight'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ċūl'ūdū. 'I didn't see.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>before a or ā or apostrophe in following syllable</td>
<td>varying between e of 'pet' and a of 'cat'; short</td>
<td>ekkada 'where?'</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>finally</td>
<td>in some dialects:</td>
<td>meda 'neck'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>between e of 'pet' and a of 'pat'; short</td>
<td>venn' ekkada. 'Where's the butter?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>a of 'date'; short</td>
<td>āme 'she'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ginne 'cup'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>āwide 'she'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ẽ</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>a of 'date'; long</td>
<td>eppudu 'when?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in some dialects:</td>
<td>e of 'bed'; long</td>
<td>répu 'tomorrow'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>before a or ā or apostrophe in following syllable (unless ĕ or y intervenes)</td>
<td>e of 'bed'; long</td>
<td>ŋēlu 'scorpion'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>āẽ</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>varying between a of 'cat' and e of 'pet'; long</td>
<td>cēsōānu 'I'll do'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mēka 'goat'</td>
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### VOWELS--cont'd

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<th>Positions</th>
<th>Sound Values</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ã</td>
<td>in medial and final syllables of words</td>
<td>sometimes diphthongized beginning with very brief vowel like ą of 'date' and shifting rapidly to vowel like ą of 'cat'; long</td>
<td>dabb unōãʧ 'Is there money?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>before a or ŏ or apostrophe in following syllable (unless ŏ or ſ intervenes)</td>
<td>between au of 'caught' and oa of 'coat'; short</td>
<td>ðoda 'thigh'  kon'nu 'I won't buy.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>oa of 'coat'; short</td>
<td>podi 'dust'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>õ</td>
<td>before a or ŏ or apostrophe in following syllable (unless ŏ or ſ intervenes)</td>
<td>au of 'caught'; long</td>
<td>gōda 'wall'    gōl lēǒu. 'There's no wall.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>oa of 'coat'; long</td>
<td>kōdi 'chicken'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** The vowels o ŏ u ū are, at the beginning of words, usually pronounced with an initial w-sound. This w-sound, because it is not an essential feature in such words, will not be represented in the spelling. In a very few cases, though, an initial w- may be written, for example, the Telugu word for 'vote', borrowed from English, will be written wōtu, for the initial w- represents a sound that is an integral part of the word.

**Vowels in Connected Speech**

For the kind of spoken Telugu with which we are concerned—the informal language of the educated—the number of vowel sounds that must be distinguished depends on whether one is dealing with words spoken in isolation (either as one-word sentences or as citation forms) or with words as components of longer sentences. As one goes from citation forms to connected sentences the number of vowels that must be distinguished just about doubles. This follows from two facts about the language of coastal Andhra Pradesh: 1) for citation forms each non-final vowel has in general two somewhat different qualities, one when the final vowel of the word is ą or ā and another when some other vowel is in final position; (the final vowel may differentiate words of unlike meaning which otherwise share the same spelling.)

2) a word whose citation form ends in a short vowel may have a form without this final vowel when the word is part of a longer sequence, and the vowel in the final syllable of this shorter form of the word may preserve the quality appropriate to its position before the final vowel of the citation form. This is regularly the case when the vowel which is elided is in the second syllable of the citation form. Thus, for example, the é's of mēku 'nail' and mēka 'goat' are different in quality; and these differences are preserved in the two sentences mēk(u) ūnōi. 'There's a nail.' and mēk(a) ūnōi. 'There's a goat.' In fact, the difference between the two variants of é may well be greater in the sentences than in the isolated citation forms. As we see,
the two words in citation form may be adequately distinguished in writing solely on the basis of the difference in their final vowels, so that the quality difference between the two varieties of ẽ need not be explicitly marked in writing the words. When the final vowels of the words are elided in sentences, the quality difference between the two varieties of ẽ becomes of major importance to the correct identification of the words. Under the same circumstances each of the other vowels shows a similar differentiation in quality. Rather than double the number of vowel symbols in order to represent words in sentences, we shall introduce a single additional symbol, the apostrophe. Any word whose citation form includes an a in second-syllable position which is elided when the word occurs in context will be written with an apostrophe to mark the place of the elided a; elided vowels other than a will not be so marked. Thus mēku 'nail' and mēka 'goat' will be represented in our sentences as mēk unōi. 'There's a nail.' and mēk unōi. 'There's a goat.' The presence or absence of the apostrophe thus indicates the quality of the preceding vowel, and hence serves to distinguish words and sentences of different meaning. (The use of the apostrophe will be discussed further in the Grammar Notes of Lesson One, and examples will be given in the Pronunciation Notes of Lesson Three.) Where a vowel other than a has been elided, no symbol of any kind will mark its place.†

For many speakers the sound represented by ẽ is ordinarily not distinguished from the variety of ẽ which is used before a syllable containing an a or ā vowel. For such speakers, then the word for 'goat' might be written either mēka or mēka. In our text we choose to write this vowel as ẽ whenever it is followed in the same word by a syllable containing an a or ā or an apostrophe; when the following syllable contains some other vowel, then ẽ will be written.

There is one situation in which the vowel sound represented by ẽ (or by ẽ before a or ā) will be written in still another way in this text. When a word whose citation form ends in -i is followed in the same phrase by a word whose citation form begins with ā-, the place in the sentence where we might expect either simply ā- (with elision of the final short vowel -i) or the sequence -i ā- is occupied by a vowel which is phonetically equal to -ẽ-. This vowel, however, will be represented by the vowel symbols appropriate to the citation forms, and they will be separated by a space to mark the division into words. Thus, instead of bandēpu. 'Stop the vehicle.' we shall write bandi āpu. (In the case of some speakers the vowel which we shall write -ẽ- or -i ā- is everywhere more or less diphthongized, so that the symbol -ẽ- might be eliminated entirely and replaced everywhere by either -i ā- or -i ā-. However, in this text -ẽ- will be used so long as the vowel falls entirely within a single word.)

Although Telugu does not have a short vowel ẽ which is distinct from ē in the same way that ẽ is distinct from ē (before a syllable containing a vowel other than a or ā), a vowel which is phonetically ẽ does occur in one circumstance. When a word whose citation form ends in -i is followed by one whose citation forms begins with ā-, the sequence -i ā- will represent a vowel like the variety of ē which is found before a or ā in a following syllable, that is, a short vowel having the quality of ē. Thus iwi anni 'all these things' in a closer approximation to the pronunciation might be written iwnānīt.

In general, the difference between the short and the long vowels is important for the proper identification of words. In the case of word-final vowels, however, the feature of length does not serve as a distinctive characteristic of words. Instead, final vowels are highly variable in length, generally short when the word is not final in a phrase, longer when it is in phrase-final position. When the word-final vowel is at the end of a phrase, it is marked not only by increased length, but also by those pitch (and sometimes pause) features discussed in the section on Intonation.

† There are at least two exceptions whose citation forms end with a long vowel that is often elided. The words are bāgā 'good; well; nice' and inkā 'still; yet', whose shortened forms, written bāg and ink, are rare instances in which an apostrophe represents a vowel other than a.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Sound Values</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>( k ) of 'market'</td>
<td>kottu 'shop'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>intervocally (in rapid pronunciation)</td>
<td>lax, like ( c ) of 'bicycle' in rapid pronunciation</td>
<td>intiki weļļedu. 'He went home.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>( g ) of 'get'</td>
<td>gadapa 'threshold'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>intervocally (in rapid pronunciation)</td>
<td>lax, like ( g ) of 'cigarette' in rapid pronunciation</td>
<td>ɪga 'fly'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>tch of 'catch'</td>
<td>çima 'ant'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>j of 'just'</td>
<td>jëbu 'pocket'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ç</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>ts of 'tsetse'</td>
<td>çũdu. 'Look.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>dz of 'adze' or ( z ) of 'zebra'</td>
<td>ĵalubu 'head cold'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like ( t ) of 'top', often with tongue tip touching roof of mouth well behind front teeth.</td>
<td>māta 'word'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wanta 'cooked food'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>intervocally</td>
<td>like ( dd ) of 'ladder', often with tongue tip touching roof of mouth well behind front teeth.</td>
<td>godugu 'umbrella'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>( d ) of 'welder' or 'murder'</td>
<td>dabbu 'money'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like ( n ) of 'learn' with tongue tip curled up and back in mouth</td>
<td>anālu 'annas'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ð</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>( ð ) of 'berthed'</td>
<td>ðappu 'mistake'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ð</td>
<td>intervocally</td>
<td>( ð ) of 'weather' or ( ð ) of 'breathed'</td>
<td>gashi 'room'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>( ð ) of 'breathed'</td>
<td>ðummu 'dust'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>panði 'pig'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>varies between ( n ) of 'ten' and ( n ) of 'tenth'</td>
<td>nēnu 'I'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>before ( k ) or ( g )</td>
<td>( n ) of 'sink'</td>
<td>bangāru 'gold'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>Positions</td>
<td>Sound Values</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>before t or d</td>
<td>n of 'burnt'</td>
<td>pandu 'fruit'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>final in phrase</td>
<td>nasalization of preceding vowel</td>
<td>ān 'yes'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>p of 'canopy'</td>
<td>pālu 'milk'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mārpu 'change'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>f of 'fee'</td>
<td>kāli 'coffee'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>b of 'bag'</td>
<td>bāg' unōi. 'It's nice.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>initially</td>
<td>m of 'man'</td>
<td>māta 'word'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>before p or b</td>
<td>m of 'jump'</td>
<td>kampu 'stench'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adjacent to another m</td>
<td>m of 'time machine'</td>
<td>tōmmiōi 'nine'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
<td>like w of 'cow', but with nasalization</td>
<td>āmiti 'what?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>kastām 'difficulty'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>m of 'comic'</td>
<td>sāmānu 'luggage'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>y of 'yes' or of 'say'</td>
<td>yābhāy 'fifty'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ayēē 'then'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like t of 'cavity', but with tongue tip making contact with roof of mouth just behind upper front teeth</td>
<td>mīru 'you'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>l of 'light'</td>
<td>lābhām 'profit'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after t or d</td>
<td>tongue tip in same position as for t or d</td>
<td>bandlō 'in the vehicle'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like l of 'barley', but with tongue tip turned up and back to touch roof of mouth well behind front teeth</td>
<td>mallī 'again'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like v of 'very', but lower lip is not drawn in</td>
<td>wintādu. 'He'll hear.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>following a or ā and before pause or another consonant</td>
<td>w of 'cow'</td>
<td>ēm' antāw† 'What do you say?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>cawka 'cheap'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONSONANTS—cont'd

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Sound Values</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>š</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like sh of 'ship', but with tongue tip behind lower front teeth</td>
<td>ṡēgaṃ 'country'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>like s of 'sugar', but with tongue tip curled up and back in mouth</td>
<td>kaṣṭam 'difficulty'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>s of 'see'</td>
<td>sēpu 'length of time'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>generally</td>
<td>h of 'ahead'</td>
<td>palaḥāram 'snack'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after consonants</td>
<td>strong aspiration as in 'pin', t of 'tin', k of 'kin'</td>
<td>ṣhara 'price'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p t θ k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>kharīdu 'expense'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above listed consonant symbols are not all equally important for representing the colloquial Telugu of some speakers.

ɕ; ç

For many speakers these represent two distinct speech sounds, but the identity of an immediately following vowel determines which of them may be used; before i ī ē ē ā ē only ç is used; before u ū o ō a ā only ĺ is used.

-ɕ-; -θs-

Intervocically -ɕ- is usually not distinguished from θ + s .

ʃ; ʃ

Like ɕ and ç, these represent sounds that are restricted to positions before certain vowels; ʃ is found before u ū o ō a ā; ʃ before i ī ē ē ā ē ā ē .

ʂ; ş

The distinction between these is frequently blurred in the speech of many Andhras; before the vowels i ī ē ē many speakers will use either indifferently, while before ē they will use only ş.

n ; n

These nasals are distinct in the speech of most educated speakers, but only in intervocalic position. Before t d θ ṭ ç j ʃ ç ʃ only a single nasal consonant is found. This nasal will be represented as n , although it may be argued that before t and d the nasal is phonetically closer to intervocalic n than to intervocalic n .

m ; m

The need for two symbols to represent bilabial nasals is restricted to the speech of those Andhras whose bilabial nasals are regularly produced with complete lip closure in word-initial position and regularly produced without closure in word-final position.
INTRODUCTION TO SPOKEN TELUGU

Such speakers have both varieties of bilabial nasal in intervocalic position. On the basis of phonetic similarity, we might write 'm' for the fully closed m and 'w' for the other variety; because most of the intervocalic bilabial nasals are of the unclosed variety, we prefer to write this variety as simply 'm', reserving 'm' for the closed variety of intervocalic bilabial nasal consonant.

ks ; ts

Certain words of Sanskrit origin contain a consonant sequence -ks- in the language from which they were derived. In Telugu the sequence is rendered either -ks- or -ts-; most speakers regularly use -ts-, but those with some education will say that -ks- is the correct form.

h after stops (p, th, k, b, ñ, d, g)

Certain words, which in the main are Sanskrit in origin, are pronounced with aspirated stop sounds in the careful speech of persons acquainted with the Sanskrit forms. In normal colloquial style, however, the aspiration is usually not present, particularly if the stop sound is not at the very beginning of a phrase.

h for emphasis

In emphatic utterance a word may be given prominence by aspirating the first consonant; such emphatic aspiration does not affect the basic meaning of the word. Generally this feature is to be found in the pronunciation of negative sentences.

ēmī lēdu. It's nothing.
ēmhi lēdu. It's absolutely nothing.

Consonants in Connected Speech

Words in connected speech frequently differ from their citation forms not only in their constituent vowels; their consonants too may exhibit such "sandhi" variation. The two most noticeable variations affect the pronunciation of words whose citation forms either begin with k, c, ñ, ð or end with mu. In rapid speech when words with initial k, c, ñ or ð are not themselves first in a phrase, those sounds are often changed, as follows:

k becomes g

æ  j

æ  ñ

Less frequently, a p in similar circumstances is replaced by b. These changes are more frequently found when the immediately preceding word ends in m or n.

Words whose citation forms end with mu are in rapid speech often pronounced with final n before words beginning with k, g, c, ñ, ñ, æ, j, ð, ñ, r, or l.

Intonation

In addition to the symbols representing the vowel and consonant sounds, a number of marks of punctuation will be used to represent features of pronunciation which both show the location of boundaries between phrases or sentences and also distinguish among different sentences. These features of pronunciation are pause (or slowing in speed of pronunciation) and intonational or pitch patterns. Different pitch patterns occurring in combination with pause sometimes distinguish sentence types that we are
accustomed to call statements, questions, exclamations, and so forth. There is, however, no fixed relation between pitch pattern and sentence type; the marks of punctuation will therefore indicate primarily the pitch movement and only secondarily the sentence type.

Variations in voice pitch are used by Telugu speakers (just as by English speakers) to convey many more meanings than those that may be attached to the various sentence types. For examples, certain intonations may convey attitudes of irony, politeness, carelessness, menace, and the like. Unlike the vowel and consonant symbols, which represent features that the Telugu speaker may regularly pronounce in repetitions of the same sentence, the marks of punctuation that would adequately represent all the various intonation patterns used would include many that the average speaker is not able to reproduce at will. Speakers differ individually in their ability to produce pitch patterns under circumstances where they are inappropriate, so that many patterns heard in ordinary conversation may not be heard in the classroom situation. We shall therefore use only a small number of punctuation marks, sufficient to indicate those patterns that many speakers can repeat at will, given the appropriate sentences.

Despite its importance for the understanding of the spoken language, the detailed variation of the voice pitch throughout a sentence will not be indicated by the punctuation mark. Only the general movement of the pitch immediately before pause will be symbolized, for it is in this place in a phrase or sentence that the various pitch patterns are characteristically different. Two types of pitch indicators are used; one marks the place of sentence-final pause, the other marks a non-final pause in a sentence.

The line drawings which follow represent typical movements of the voice pitch during the production of certain Telugu sentences which have been chosen to exemplify the marks of punctuation used in this text.

'Period' Pattern (.)

Sentences marked with a period are characterized by a non-abrupt fall in pitch before the final pause.

ém - andi.
Hello.

-a w n l é.
Yes, of course.

i ë é m i t i.
What's this?

manninčandi.
Forgive me.

pillal ekkad ādēaru.
Where do the children play?
bandi ɢisuku randi.
Please fetch a vehicle.

wāṇni cātuku pilic ceboām.
Let’s call him aside and tell him.

nānnagār rā lēōu.
Father didn’t come.

Sometimes sentences occur with a pattern in which the pitch of the final syllables falls as it does in the above sentences, but the last syllable ends on a level tone slightly higher than the terminal note of the period pattern. This happens with sentences ending with suffixes of address -andi and -amma, and sometimes with sentences which are followed by another sentence by the same speaker. For the purposes of this textbook this pattern will be taken simply as a variant of the period pattern and marked in the same way.

namaskāram -andi.
Greetings, sir.

Mid-level or slightly rising pitch (−)

iō ēmiti −
What’s this?

elāg unnār -andi −
How are you?

enni gantalak oṣōaru −
At what time will you come?

pillal ekkad ādōaru −
Where do the children play?
akka! lēśi ēm -ō-
I don't think it's there.

nān nagār rā lēśē -
Father didn't come.

mīk eppudu wīl awūnūi -
When will you get a chance?

Steeply rising pitch (†)

iś ēmiti †
What's this?

bāg' unnār -ā †
Are you well?

iśi mī pus thakam -ā †
Is this your book?

pillal ekkaäd ādōāru †
Where do the children play?

nān nagār rā lēśē -ā †
Father didn't come?

inti pēr antē †
What does 'inti pēr' mean?

ōintānik ēm unūi intlō †
What's there to eat in the house?
Those sentences written with † may sometimes be heard with only a moderate pitch rise at the end, so that — would also be an appropriate mark of punctuation. Such sentences are all questions: with — they are casual, with † more animated. Questions of this kind will regularly be marked with † in our text to distinguish them from sentences which occur with — but not †, as for example, in abbē lēś-andī — (which is not a question, see Lesson Two, Conversation F).

Falling or Abruptly Terminated Pitch (†)

We shall use a single mark (†) to indicate two somewhat different patterns, one used with sentences terminating in a long vowel, the other with sentences ending in a short vowel.

With sentences ending in a long vowel, † indicates a pattern in which the pitch rises and falls on the last syllable. This last syllable may also be somewhat prolonged and stressed.

\[\text{iṓ emiti †} \]

What’s this?

\[\text{bandī thīsukurandi †} \]

Go fetch a vehicle?

\[\text{wā́d osū́dā †} \]

He’ll come, all right.

(followed by: rāk’ ēn jēśūādu†
'What would he do if he didn’t come?! ‘)

With sentences ending in a short vowel, † will indicate that the final syllable is stressed and abruptly terminated. The pitch may or may not drop noticeably just before the final pause. This variety of the (†) pattern is largely restricted to the informal imperative (Lessons 17 and 30) and to the infinitive in its optative use (Lesson 18).

\[\text{pṓšā m pā́sā †} \]

Come, let’s go!
'Comma' Pattern (.)

Non-final pause, which will be marked by comma, is typically preceded by a rise in voice pitch. However, considerable variation in pattern may be observed: the rise may be slight and accompanied by prolongation of the syllable just before the pause; the rise may be sharp with no observable pause following it; the rise may be sharp and followed by a fall in pitch and a relatively long pause.

abbē, lēs - an di.
Oh, no.

osērā, pōsē pō -
If you're coming, come; if you're going, go.

iśi mī pěr - ā, inti pěr - ā.
Is this your personal name or your family name?

iśi mī pěr - ā, inti pěr - ā -
Is this your personal name or your family name?

ṣaṭram antē, Ṇmiti -
What's a 'satram'?

ṣaṭram antē, saṭramē -
A 'satram' is a satram.
saθram antē, saθramē
A 'satram' is a satram.

intlō, θintānik ēm unōi
What is there to eat in the house?

Almost all Telugu sentences begin with a moderate rise in voice pitch, no matter what the pitch movement may be in the neighborhood of a pause. In longer sentences the pitch movement usually consists of a number of such rises before the terminal pattern. These rises generally coincide with the ends of noun phrases within the sentence, and they may or may not be followed by non-final pause. We shall follow the practice of writing a comma whenever there is likely to be a pause or a slowing in normal colloquial pronunciation, and wherever the rise of pitch is greater in extent or more abrupt than the kind of rise that marks the end of noun-phrases.

anθā kulāsenā
t
Is everyone well?

rēp poṣōuna paṇi gantālak kalusukunōām.
Let's meet tomorrow morning at 10 o'clock.

wāll anθārīki ī pērē wāduggā oṣōunōi.
Customarily they all get this same name.

rondu pettalu, oka butta cālā sāmān-ā
t
Are two boxes and a package a lot of luggage?
A Note on Telugu Writing

Although the system of writing used by speakers of Telugu will not be used or even presented in this text, the line drawings which accompany it have been provided with captions in the Telugu orthography so the student may become familiar with the general appearance of the script. A transliteration of each caption has been furnished for the student who might want to try 'sounding out' the individual 'letters'. Unlike the letters of our transcription, the letters (akṣarālu) for the most part represent syllables consisting of a consonant and a following vowel or of a lone vowel (when initial in a word). Typically an akṣaramu consists of two parts: a prominent part which represents the consonant together with a secondary element for the vowel, which is usually added to the right or just above the consonantal part. The writing is from left to right.

As an illustration of Telugu writing, the title of the first drawing in the book, ज्ञान, is composed of the following akṣarālu:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>akṣaramu</th>
<th>phonetic value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ज्ञ</td>
<td>na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ज्ञा</td>
<td>ma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ज्ञेय</td>
<td>skā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ज्ञे</td>
<td>ra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ज्ञो</td>
<td>mu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This example illustrates several characteristics of the Telugu writing system. First of all, if we compare the symbols for ma and mu, it appears that mu is identical with ma except for an extra loop which is added to the right, so that the element common to the two symbols represents the syllable ma when standing alone and the consonant m when some additional vowel sign is added. A second characteristic is exemplified by the third akṣaramu, which represents a syllable beginning with more than a single consonant. This akṣaramu consists of the element ज्ञ, k, and a. The second consonant is represented by an element placed below the line, while the sign for a is added to the k. This arrangement is followed in the writing of very many sound combinations, but it is not the invariable rule; sometimes the second consonant is written on the line (when the first consonant is m, n or n), and sometimes the vowel sign is attached to the second rather than to the first consonant.
దీని తంగబడే సారం
Lesson I

Introduction

CONVERSATION OPENERNS

namaskāramu
-andi

amma

ēmi
-ōy
-rōy
-rō
-rā

namaskāram-andi.
namaskāram-amma.
ēm-andi.
ēm-amma.
ēm-ōy.
ēm-rōy.; ēn-rōy.
ēm-rā.; ēn-rā.
ēm-and-ōy.

Greetings, sir.
Greetings, ma'am.
Hello, sir.
Hello, ma'am.
Hiya.; Hey.
Hiya.; Hey.
Hello.

Vocabulary Notes: Terms of Address

1. namaskāramu is used both at meeting and parting, and the word refers to the gesture of placing the hands together with palms touching. Sometimes the word is accompanied by the gesture.

2. The expressions consisting of ēmi and one or another of the suffixes of address are used at the beginning of a conversation by way of greeting. They serve also as 'attention-getters' when one attempts either to engage someone in conversation or to introduce a new turn to a conversation in progress.

3. The suffixes -ōy, -rō, -rōy, -rā are used between intimates, or where the status of the person addressed is decidedly inferior to the speaker's. They are as a rule only used in addressing males.

4. ēm-and-ōy is somewhat less formal than ēm-andi. It is a frequent mode of address by a woman to her husband.

5. amma is sometimes used in addressing females, particularly by an older to a younger person; more formally, though, -andi is used in addressing females as well as males.

Pronunciation Note

Some speakers pronounce the expression ēm-andi as one word, that is, they use a lowered variety of ē appropriate to the position before a syllable containing a, so that the expression is perhaps better written ēmandi.
LEAVE TAKING

ika
weŋəamu
mari
malli; malli
çusənu
welli
wasənu
șalawu; şelawu; selawu
randi

namaskāram-andi.
iha wedəm mari.
malli çusənu.
welli osən-andi.
selaw.
welli randi.; wel randi.

Vocabulary Notes

1. weləamu may be rendered with the non-citation forms weləam, weləam or wedəam. Some speakers consider the last form too informal to be acceptable.
2. iha with its citation form ika is one of a very few words showing an alternation between k and h.

Pronunciation Note

Types of elision – The citation form of a word may be considered its basic form; the others may be described as modifications of this basic form. So far we have found the following kinds of modifications:

a. Loss of final short vowel before a following vowel:
   ēmi + andi
   welli + wasənu
   wasənu + andi
   ēmi + òy
   ēm-andi
   welli osənu
   wasən-andi
   ēm-òy

b. Loss of final short vowel and (sometimes) change of preceding consonant before a following consonant:
   ēmi + rō
   welli + randi
   ēn-rō
   wel randi

c. Replacement of initial wa- by o-
   wasənu
   osənu

d. Shortening of final long vowel with loss of following vowel:
   rā + andi
   randi
   (rā is the informal imperative. Some speakers use the expression rāndi instead of randi.)

There are at least two cases in which we must distinguish between citation forms and forms used as independent sentences. One of these involves words whose citation forms end in -mu, and the other involves words beginning with wa-. Words of the first kind may be cited with final -mu, but will be pronounced without the final vowel when used as sentences in conversation. In a similar way, words whose citation forms begin with wa- may, as isolated sentences in conversation, be pronounced with initial o-
instead of wa-. For example, many speakers will cite forms like namaskāramu and wasţānu, but will otherwise use namaskāram and osţānu in conversation.

Grammar Notes

1. The word

In the writing of Telugu, space is used in the same way as in English to separate sequences which are called words (in Telugu, mātaalu). However, to an even greater extent than in English, writers in Telugu are not always consistent in their use of space. In this text the practice will be to follow Telugu orthography where this is at all established, except where there is some phonetic or grammatical reason to do otherwise.

The parts of which a Telugu sentence (or for that matter, an English sentence) consists may be classed as either free or bound, depending on whether or not they may be used individually as sentences or not. From among the bound forms we may further distinguish a sub-class of affixes, which are elements found in certain fixed positions relative to the free forms in the sentence. As a rule, affixes will not be written separately, while free forms (together with any attendant affixes) will be treated as words. Bound forms other than affixes will be for the most part treated in the same way as the free forms.

2. Citation forms

In Telugu the boundary between words is very often not reflected in normal conversational speech. Instead, entire phrases are more or less run together 'as though they were one word'. In this situation the form of a word is often different from its form as quoted in isolation. In this text, new words will be cited first as they are pronounced in isolation (or in very slow speech, such as the foreigner may encounter in the early stages of learning the language). In ordinary colloquial style, however, such pronunciation is considered stilted and indicative of the fact that the speaker is a foreigner who has learned Telugu from books.

3. The apostrophe

As has been already stated in the phonetic preface, the apostrophe will be used in this text to mark a word whose citation form has an a in the second syllable. As is the case in English spelling, the presence of an apostrophe will also indicate that the forms on either side of it should be pronounced without an intervening pause. If the apostrophe precedes an independent word, then it will be followed immediately by space; bound elements (suffixes) will follow the apostrophe directly.

4. The hyphen

The hyphen will be used in two situations: to join two independent words which act as a compound word, and to join certain elements (such as -andi) which are neither independent words nor completely dependent affixes. (The use of the hyphen will be discussed in greater detail in the notes of Lessons III and V.)
Lesson II
The noun-phrase sentence

CONVERSATIONS

A.  anθā
    kulāsa; kulāsā
    -ē
    
    -ā
    awnu
    mīru

    mēmu
    namaskāram-andi. anθā kulāsēn-ā†
    awn-andi. mīru†
    mēm anθā kulāsēn-andi.
    Hello. Is everyone well?
    Yes. And you?
    We're all well.

B.  nīwu; nuwwu

    namaskāram. anθā kulāsēn-ā†
    awn-ōy. nuwwu†
    anθā kulāsē.

    Greetings. Is everyone well?
    Yes. And you?
    Everyone's fine.

C.  wāru
    ewaru
    -gāru
    
    mēṣtaru
    mī
    
    abbē

    all
    health; well-being
    (suffix emphasizing words
to which it is added;
perhaps because it is so
often used its value as
an emphatic is some-
times almost nil)
    (suffix added to phrases to
make questions requir-
ing 'yes' or 'no' in reply)
    yes
    you (used in addressing
person of higher status
or an equal not in-
timately acquainted)
    we
    
    you (used in addressing
person of lower status
or an equal intimately
acquainted)
    that person (refers to one
of superior status)
    who? (refers to one of supe-
rior status)
    (honorific suffix added to
certain words denoting
persons, e.g., personal
names and some occu-
pational terms)
    teacher (i.e. 'master')
    your (to persons of higher
status or equals not in-
timately acquainted)
    (exclamation of negation)
LESSON II

lēdu
mā
snēhiθulu

wār ewaru†
wāru mēstrugāru.
mī mēstrugār-ā†
abhē, lēd-andi. wāru mā snēhiθulu.

Who is that?
He’s a teacher.
Is he your teacher?
Oh no. He’s a friend of ours.

D. āyana
nānna

āyan ewaru†
wāru mā nān nagāru.†

Who is that?
He’s my father.

E. aθanu

anna
-ayya

aθan ewaru†
aθanu mā annayya.

Who’s that?
He’s my elder brother.

F. wādu

ewadu
θammudu
nī

gumāsθa; gumāsθā

wād ewadu†
wādu mā θammudu
nī θammudu gumāsθān-ā†
abhē lēd-andi. aθanu mēstaru.

Who’s that?
He’s my younger brother.
Is your younger brother a clerk?
Oh no. He’s a teacher.

G. a∑i
ēmitti
pusθakamu

a∑ ēmitt-andi†
a∑i pusθakam.

What’s that?
That’s a book.

H. i∑i
kādu
pαθrika

i∑ ēmitti† i∑i pusθakam-ā†
kād-andi. i∑i pαθrika.

What’s this? Is it a book?
No. It’s a newspaper.

† In referring to certain relatives the Telugu speaker usually prefers to say mā 'our' rather than nā 'my'.
I. nā
   iō emit-andi†
   iōi nā pusθakam

   my
   What's this?
   This is my book.

J. illu
   ekkada
   cālā
   ōuru mu
   enθa
   sumāru; sumāru
   ara
   maylu

   mī ill ekkada†
   cālā ōuru-andi.
   enθa ōuru.
   sumār ara maylu.

   house; home
   where?
   very; much
   distance; far
   how much?
   approximately
   half
   mile

   Where is your house?
   Very far.
   How far?
   About half a mile.

K. gudi
   inkā
   ō
   enθō
   rendu
   farlāṇgulu

   temple
   still; yet
   (exclamation)
   not much (with word of
   negation)
   two
   furlongs (one furlong =
   1/8 mile)

   gudi inkā enθa ōuru†
   ō, enθō ōuru kādu. rendu farlāṇgulu.†
   How much further is the temple?
   Oh, it's not far at all. Two furlongs.

Vocabulary notes: levels of formality, intimacy and respect

1. The selection of certain words and suffixes is determined by the 'social distance' between the speaker and the person he is addressing, and, at times, by his relation to a person spoken of. On this basis speakers use either mīru or nuwwu; -andi or -ōy and wāru or wādu. In conversations A, C, G, H, I and J the use of the forms -andi, mīru, mī indicates that the speaker is at some social distance from the person addressed, that is, he is either in a socially inferior position or, if of equal status, he is not a close friend of the person addressed. In conversations B and F the forms nuwwu, -ōy, nī show that the speaker is either the social superior of the person addressed or that he is a close friend of the latter. The use of the words wāru, ewarzu āyana and the suffix -gāru shows that the speaker either is socially inferior to the person referred to or is not an intimate friend of the latter.

2. māṣṭaru in some places (Rajamundry, for example) is not combined with -gāru; instead, an honorific form māṣṭaru is used.

3. Instead of guṃasθān-ā one may also hear guṃasθāw-ā

Pronunciation notes

1. The nasal consonant m

   In initial position in a word, m represents the same sound as the 'm' of English spelling. When m is found in Telugu words either finally or medially before any sound other than 'b', 'p' or 'm' it symbolizes a somewhat different sound, one that is quite

† The sequence ōuru mu + kādu might also be rendered ōuru kādu or ōuru gādu. In a context where such free variation is found we shall choose one of the possible spellings in random fashion, rather than adopt any one consistent representation. (See note on consonants in connected speech, page xiv.)
like initial m except that the lips do not close completely. It might be described as a nasalized w sound. The vowels in the immediate neighborhood of this variety of m are also heavily nasalized. When the sequences mb mp mm are written, m represents a sound produced with complete closure of the lips, just as in the case of m in initial position. mm represents a fully closed m which is both longer and more energetically articulated than the initial variety.

For educated speakers whose medial m's are generally produced without lip closure there are certain words containing a medial m which is commonly pronounced with closed lips. These few medial closed m's, found mostly in words of Sanskrit or foreign origin, will be underlined in our transcription. However, failure to distinguish the two varieties of medial m will in most cases not result in any confusion between words (but see grammar notes of Lessons XVII and XX): in fact, it is very likely that a speaker will give citation forms in which m is everywhere closed.

In dialects outside coastal Andhra Pradesh m sounds are pronounced with complete closure of the lips in all positions in the word. Many speakers everywhere will say that this is the 'correct' mode of pronunciation, even if they themselves ordinarily pronounce medial and final m without closing the lips.

Listen to your guide's pronunciation of the following words and observe whether he completely closes his lips in producing m's in the various positions in which they occur. If he invariably closes his lips, this may mean that he does not use the nasalized w sound, but it may also mean that he is giving citation forms which are not proper samples of his normal colloquial speech. Even where two guides distinguish the closed from the open m they may not show complete agreement in their usage of the two varieties in particular words.

wimānam airplane
θamāsā show; spectacle; entertainment
pramāsam accident; danger
sinimā cinema
samayam occasion
sāmānu luggage
gumāsēa clerk
grāmām village
padamara west
ramārami approximately
māmagāru maternal uncle
samwaṣaram year
edama; edama left
ēm-andi pardon; I say
simham lion
māmidi mango
nemali peacock
rāmudu Rama
wāmi stack
θōmatam; θōmadam cleaning
weḷḷam annāru. He said he wouldn't go.
weḷḷam annāru. He told me to stay.

2. The stops θ ṭ ṭ d

θ and ṭ are produced by bringing the tongue tip into contact with the upper front teeth or with the roof of the mouth just behind the upper front teeth. Such sounds are produced in English as varieties of t and d in the immediate neighborhood of the th sounds, as for example, in sabre-toothed and breathed. Intervocally ṭ is often pronounced like the medial consonant of either.
and d are produced by having the tongue tip make contact with the roof of the mouth well back of the upper front teeth. Some speakers also curl the tongue tip up so that a bit of the underside of the tongue makes contact with the roof of the mouth. Telugu speakers regularly identify the English t and d with their ā and ē, although they are by no means the same.

3. The  ý pattern with the interrogative suffix -ā

Sentences ending with this suffix frequently are pronounced with a variant of  ý in which the final syllable begins at a pitch lower than that of the preceding syllable (see Phonetic Preface). Since in sentences which contain a 'question word' (enēla, ekkada, ēmi, etc.) the pitch rise of the  ý pattern begins with that word, we may say simply that  ý has its place of onset determined by the position of the interrogative element, either the suffix -ā or the prefix e- (or ē-).

4. The  ý pattern with the interrogative suffix -ā

Sentences ending in -ā (and some others) are sometimes produced with a high pitch at the beginning of the final syllable, after which the pitch falls rapidly (see Phonetic Preface). In most cases this pattern can be replaced by  ý, and your guide will say that no change in meaning has been effected. However, there are situations where only  ý is likely to be used.

5. The period and  ý patterns with question words

Sentences containing question words may occur with period (,) as well as with  ý (or →). There is not a clearcut meaning difference between the two patterns in this context. With period the question is perhaps a bit peremptory, but your guide will probably insist that they mean the same thing.

Grammar note

The sentences in the conversations of this lesson are for the most part composed entirely of noun phrases or of noun phrases to which certain affixes have been added. Noun phrases are groups of words which may be replaced in sentences by single nouns. Nouns are a class of words which may be distinguished in a number of ways—chiefly by the fact that they may be followed by certain suffixes (Lessons VI, VIII, and XII. In the lessons immediately following this we shall be concerned with nouns and noun phrases.

In subsequent lessons the section which includes notes on the grammar of sentences found in the conversations will also include a certain number of isolated sentences which further illustrate the grammatical points under discussion. These additional sentences will also include new vocabulary items. Although it is suggested that the student's main effort go to mastering the conversational materials, these sentences of the grammar section may also serve as drill material to provide practice in the use of both new grammatical constructions and new vocabulary.

Replacement drill

In this section we have sentences identical in construction with sentences already encountered in the conversations; they differ only insofar as they may contain some new words. Sentences in this section are to be used in several kinds of exercise: oral translation from Telugu to English and from English to Telugu; the construction of new
sentences by word substitution; inclusion of these new sentences in place of similar sentences within the conversations of the first section of this lesson.

In the first lessons of this book these replacement exercises will be spelled out. Later on the drill sentences that may be derived by simple substitution will be many more than those actually included in the text. It will be up to the student, the instructor and the guide to invent the sentences which are possible but not supplied by the text. Of course it will be necessary for the guide and the instructor to point out, and for the student to note carefully, those sentences which are derivable by simple substitution but which, though possibly 'correct' grammatically, no speaker of Telugu would spontaneously produce.

1. >içi balla.  This is a table.
    kurci  chair
    kalam  pen
    cāku; cēku  knife
    bandi  vehicle
    manḍu  medicine

   a♯ dīpam.  That's a lamp.
    kāncam  plate
    ceθga  trash
    badi  school
    dābbu  money
    godugu  umbrella

   a♯ īstam-ā†  Is that pleasing?
    kāstam  difficult
    nījam  true
    θappu  wrong
    sulabham  easy

wādu θōta-māli.  He's a gardener.
    dārji†  tailor
    cākali  washerman
    wadranjī  carpenter
    mangali  barber
    bāntrōhu  porter

āyana mā wakīlu.  He's our lawyer.
    pakk'-intiwāru  neighbor
    dēsasθudu  countryman
    alludu  son-in-law
    māmagāru  father-in-law
    θāθagāru  grandfather

kāraṇam ēmiti†  What's the reason?
    pēru  name
    cinθa  worry
    abhiprāyam  opinion

a♯ enθa†  How much is that?
    iści  this
    jīθam  salary
    aābe  rent

†miṣanwādu is used in Rajamundry.
2.

A. iō ēmit-andi†
    مجرم
   balla table
   kurci chair
   pette box
   kalam pen
   pusθakam book
   kančam plate
   dabbu money
   wennu butter
   hōtalu† courthouse
   kaccēri market
   bajāru temple
   gudi school
   badi shop
   angadi

B. aō ēmit-andi† aōi pusθakam-ā†
    مجرم
   kāō -andi. aōi paθrika.

C. āyana mī nānagār-ā†
   .Manifest
   snēhiōdu friend
   mēstrugāru teacher
   wakīlu lawyer
   pakk'-intwāru neighbor
   māmagāru uncle
   alludu son-in-law

   abbē lēō-andi. mā annayya.

D. mī ill ekkada†
   ।
   hotel
   gudi temple
   badi school
   angadi shop
   ċālā ōūram-andi.
   ।
   one
   enθa ōūram.
   ।
   one quarter
   sumār ara maylu.
   ।
   three quarters
   oka one and a half
   pāθika
   mup-pāθika
   okatinn-ara

Translation drill

This section is in two parts: one of Telugu sentences to be read aloud and translated into English, and the other of English sentences to be rendered in Telugu. If you are working with a language guide, have the guide pronounce the Telugu sentences at normal speed even if at first this makes it especially hard to translate them. In the English to Telugu part of the exercise strive for the same kind of fluency in your own Telugu.

For the convenience of students working without a guide, in order that they may check on the accuracy of their translations, each sentence found in one part has

†The form hōtal is also common.
its exact translation in the other. The number placed after each sentence refers to this corresponding sentence.

A.

1 aṉē ēmit-ammat
2 iṉē cāḷā ṭappu
3 ṭhōagāru kulaśēn-āḷ
4 iṉē mī kalam-āḷ
5 cākāl ekkada
6 mā illu cāḷā ṭūram-āndī
7 iṉē anṭā ċēṇṭā
8 mē pēr ēmit-āndīṭ
9 mangal ekkada
10 aḷanu ṭarjēṭ
11 nī alludu wadrangetic. nījām-āḷ
12 iṉē nā godug gāḍu
13 aṉē nā ṭappu
14 mē pakk'-intiwāru mā ṭēṣasṭhūl-āḷ
15 nā ṭammudu bantrōṭu

B.

1 Is he a tailor? 10
2 Our house is very far away, sir. 6
3 What is that, ma'ām? 1
4 That's my fault. 13
5 My younger brother is a porter. 15
6 Is grandfather well? 3
7 This is all trash. 7
8 Your son-in-law is a carpenter. Is that true? 11
9 Is this your pen? 4
10 Where's the barber? 9
11 Is your neighbor a countryman of mine? 14
12 This is a big mistake. 2
13 What is your name, sir? 8
14 This is not my umbrella. 12
15 Where is the washerman? 5

Word list

The following words have been encountered in Lessons One and Two. They are arranged according to the order that prevails in Telugu dictionaries, that is: a ā ī ū e ē ā o ō k g c j ğ t d ň ŏ n p f b m y r l ⽩ s s h. Although these letters do not represent all the characters of the Telugu writing system, familiarity with their order should help the student when he begins to read Telugu written materials and finds a need to consult dictionaries of the language.

aḷanu he; that male person
aḍi that; that thing
aḍṭē rent
angadi shop
-andi (honorisific suffix)
anṭā all; everything
anna; annayya elder brother
abbē (negative exclamation)
abhiprayamu opinion
amma mother; ma'ām
-ayya (honorisific suffix)
ara half
alludu | son-in-law
awnu | yes
-ā | (interrogative suffix)
āyana | he; that male person
ika | then
iḍi | this; this thing
inkā | still; yet
illu | house; home
iṣṭamu | pleasing; desirable
ekkada | where?
edama; edama | left
enθa | how much
enθō | so much
ewadu | who? (refers to male person of inferior status)
ewaru | who? (respectful)
-ē | (suffix of emphasis)
ēmi | what?
ēmiti | what?
oka | one
okatinn-ara | one and a half
ō | exclamation
-ōy-ara | (informal suffix of address)
kaccēri | courthouse
kančamu | plate
kamsāli | goldsmith
kalamu | pen
kastamu | difficulty
kāðu | is not; no
kāraṇamu | cause
kurči | chair
kulāsa; kulāsā | health; well-being
-gāru | (honorific suffix added to names of persons and occupations)
gudi | temple
gumāsθa;
gumāsθā | clerk
godugu | umbrella
grāmamu | village
čaku; cēku | knife
cinθa | worry; grief
cēθa | salary
jīθamu | trash
čākali | washerman
cāḷa | very; much
čūsθanu | I see; I'll see
dabbu | money
θappu | mistake; wrong
θammudu | younger brother
θāθa | grandfather
θōta-māli | gardener
θōmatamu; 
θōmadamu | cleaning

bārji | tailor
bīpamu | lamp
būramu | distance
bēsasθudu | countryman
namaskāramu | greetings
nā | my
nānna | father
nijamu; nijamu | truth
nī | your (informal)
nuwwu; nīwu | you (informal)
nemali | peacock
pakī'-intiwaru | neighbor
padamara | west
paθrika | newspaper
pāθika | one fourth
pette | box
pēru | name
pusθakamu | book
pramāθamu | accident; danger
farīŋulu | furlongs
bajāru | market; bazaar
badi | school
bantrōθu | porter; 'peon' (as used in India)
bandi | vehicle; cart; train; car
balla | table
mangali | barber
manū | medicine
maylu | mile
mari | then; else
mālī; maḷī | again
mā | our; my
māma | maternal uncle; father-in-law
māmidī | mango
mī | your (formal)
mīru | you (formal)
mup-pāθika | three fourths
mēmu | we; I
māgstaru | teacher
ramārami | approximately
-ṛā | (suffix of informal address)
rāmudu | Rama
rendu | two
-ṛō; -röy | (suffix of informal address)
lēdu | no; there isn't
wakīlu | lawyer
wadragi | carpenter
wāθanu | I come; I'll come
wādu | he; that male person
(Referring to person of inferior status)
wāmi | stack
wāru  that person (refers to person not of inferior status)

wimānamu  airplane
wenna  butter
weḻāmu  we go; we'll go; I go; I'll go
weḻi  having gone
śalawu;  leave; departure
selawu;
selawu  occasion
samayamu

samwaṅsaram year
sāmānu  luggage
sinimā  cinema
simham  lion
sumāru;
śumaru  approximately
sulabhamu  easy
snēhiṭudu  friend (informal)
snēhiṭulu  friend (formal)
hōtalu  hotel;
restaurant