

Preface

This grammar has been written for the person who needs to acquire a working knowledge of Luo as quickly as possible, but who may have no special knowledge of linguistics or grammar. For this reason we have avoided the use of phonetic symbols or linguistic jargon. At the same time, we have tried to ensure complete accuracy, so that the material may also be of use to those making a more technical study of the language.

The layout is such that the learner will be able to work progressively through the grammar, using his knowledge right from the first page. This has meant that it has not been always possible to group all similar facts together, but the full index will enable readers to use the grammar conveniently for reference.

It is readily conceded that a good knowledge of a language can never be obtained solely from books, and the learner is strongly advised to get a Luo to read all new words to him before he attempts to read them himself, so that wrong stress patterns and pronunciation may be avoided. It is fatally easy to assign English vowel values to Luo words, and very difficult to correct them later.

Short vocabularies have been appended to the first few lessons, and if these, and the words occurring in the lesson, are mastered, it should be possible to do these exercises without recourse to the main vocabularies. The exercises are an integral part of the book, and in addition to testing knowledge gained, provide additional examples of the grammatical features in their respective chapters.

The book has been prepared over a number of years with the Luo Language Society of Maseno School; it would be impossible to name all who have helped, but particular mention must be made of J. Ndong'a Onyango, J. Mireji and J. Ochieng', of the school, Mr. J. M. Ojal and Mr. R. B. Ogendo, of the staff, and Mr. A. W. Mayor and Mr. B. Omolo. At a later stage Professor A. N. Tucker, of the School of Oriental and African Studies, London University, read over the manuscript and made a number of most valuable suggestions. The most important of these follows from his tonal analysis of the verb, and has resulted in large sections of the grammar being re-written. To him and to Miss M. Bryan of his staff, who helped me in the necessary redrafting, I am particularly indebted.

It is hoped that Luo students who are learning English may find some help in their studies, not only from the vocabularies, but also from the grammar itself.

Ng'iya, 1965

Roy L. Stafford

Introduction

Pronunciation

The only way to approach correct pronunciation is by regular conversation with Luo people, repeating each word or phrase after them, preferably with the help of a tape recorder, until it is correct. It is particularly important to learn words in a context, however simple, and not in isolation, as the pronunciation often depends on adjacent words. The following may help the beginner to develop the right sort of awareness, and it is recommended that this introduction be re-read from time to time during the course.

The alphabet differs from English only in that **q**, **v**, **x** and **z** are not used, though **v** and **z** are found in borrowed words: e.g. **divai**, *wine*; **zaburi**, *psalm*; though these are often pronounced **difai**, **saburi**.

The pronunciation of the following combinations of letters needs noting:

- ng'**, (phonetically ŋ, the velar nasal) as ng in sing.
- ng**, as ng in finger. (In words ending in **-n**, suffixed by **-go** or **-gi**, the **n** and **g** are pronounced separately, as in vanguard.)
- ny**, as in canyon. (**y** is never given a full vowel sound.)
- ch**, as **ch** in child. (**c** is only found in this combination.)
- dh**, always voiced, as **th** in then. (Often preceded by a slight **d**.)
- th**, always unvoiced, as **th** in theft. (Often preceded by a slight **t**.)

Vowels

A preliminary battle that any English person has to win is to stop using the diphthongs that are such a common feature of English, and use pure vowels. (Compare a Luo saying 'No,' with your own speech—you doubtless glide from o to u, whereas the Luo does not.)

Then, although only the five vowel symbols (**a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**) are used in written Luo, each symbol represents at least two sounds—an open and a close value. It is extremely important to note the difference between these two vowel values, as there are a large number of words, identical in print, which are differentiated only in this way. In this book all the close vowels are printed in lighter print to assist the learner. The following table indicates in terms of English the sounds represented by the Luo vowels, but it is emphasized that there is not an exact correspondence.

- a** half-way between the a in hand and the u in but
- a** almost as a in father (rare)
- e** open, as in get (**le**, *axe*)
- e** close, as in French *été*, not a diphthong as in gate (**le**, *game*, *animal*)
- i** open, as in hit (**pith**, *wealth*)
- i** close, as in feet (**pith**, *slope*)
- o** open, as in not (**dhok**, *mouth*, *language*)
- o** close, as in French *eau*, not a diphthong as in hole (**dhok**, *cattle*)
- u** open, as in full (**bur**, *boil*)
- u** close, as in pool (**bur**, *hole*)

A Luo informant will readily produce pairs of Luo words identical in spelling, but different in vowel value, for practice.

Semi-vowel or glide, u/w

This occurs between a consonant and a vowel. In most written Luo there is wide variety of spelling, and **u**, **w**, and **uw** will all be found for the same word. In this book we have adopted the convention of writing **w** before an open, and **u** before a close vowel, though this may not prove a final solution.

Introduction

Pronunciation

The only way to approach correct pronunciation is by regular conversation with Luo people, repeating each word or phrase after them, preferably with the help of a tape recorder, until it is correct. It is particularly important to learn words in a context, however simple, and not in isolation, as the pronunciation often depends on adjacent words. The following may help the beginner to develop the right sort of awareness, and it is recommended that this introduction be re-read from time to time during the course.

The alphabet differs from English only in that **q**, **v**, **x** and **z** are not used, though **v** and **z** are found in borrowed words: e.g. **divai**, *wine*; **zaburi**, *psalm*; though these are often pronounced **difai**, **saburi**.

The pronunciation of the following combinations of letters needs noting:

- ng'**, (phonetically ŋ, the velar nasal) as ng in sing.
- ng**, as ng in finger. (In words ending in **-n**, suffixed by **-go** or **-gi**, the **n** and **g** are pronounced separately, as in vanguard.)
- ny**, as in canyon. (y is never given a full vowel sound.)
- ch**, as ch in child. (c is only found in this combination.)
- dh**, always voiced, as th in then. (Often preceded by a slight **d**.)
- th**, always unvoiced, as th in theft. (Often preceded by a slight **t**.)

Vowels

A preliminary battle that any English person has to win is to stop using the diphthongs that are such a common feature of English, and use pure vowels. (Compare a Luo saying 'No,' with your own speech—you doubtless glide from o to u, whereas the Luo does not.)

Then, although only the five vowel symbols (**a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**.) are used in written Luo, each symbol represents at least two sounds—an open and a close value. It is extremely important to note the difference between these two vowel values, as there are a large number of words, identical in print, which are differentiated only in this way. In this book all the close vowels are printed in lighter print to assist the learner. The following table indicates in terms of English the sounds represented by the Luo vowels, but it is emphasized that there is not an exact correspondence.

- a** half-way between the a in hand and the u in but
- a** almost as a in father (rare)
- e** open, as in get (**le**, *axe*)
- e** close, as in French *été*, not a diphthong as in gate (**le**, *game*, *animal*)
- i** open, as in hit (**pith**, *wealth*)
- i** close, as in feet (**pith**, *slope*)
- o** open, as in not (**dhok**, *mouth*, *language*)
- o** close, as in French *eau*, not a diphthong as in hole (**dhok**, *cattle*)
- u** open, as in full (**bur**, *boil*)
- u** close, as in pool (**bur**, *hole*)

A Luo informant will readily produce pairs of Luo words identical in spelling, but different in vowel value, for practice.

Semi-vowel or glide, u/w

This occurs between a consonant and a vowel. In most written Luo there is wide variety of spelling, and **u**, **w**, and **uw** will all be found for the same word. In this book we have adopted the convention of writing **w** before an open, and **u** before a close vowel, though this may not prove a final solution.

Abbreviations

adj.	Adjective	Qualifies a noun
adv.	Adverb	Qualifies a verb or adjective
cf.	Compare	
conj.	Conjunction	Word joining sentences and clauses
esp.	Especially	
fem.	Feminine	
int.	Interjection	
lit.	Literally	
m.	Masculine	
n.	Noun	
part.	Particle	
pl.	Plural	
prep.	Preposition	Stands before a noun
pron.	Pronoun	Stands instead of a noun
v. aux.	Auxiliary verb	Stands with another verb to form tenses, etc.
v.i. ¹	Intransitive verb	Verb taking no direct object
v.r.	Reflexive verb	Verb with same object and subject
v.t. ¹	Transitive verb	Verb taking a direct object

¹ There are occasions where an intransitive verb is used with a preposition, and this combination is translated by a transitive verb. In such cases the two words together are classified for convenience as a transitive verb. Also Luo words translated by the verb *to be* plus an adjective have been classified as intransitive verbs.

Chapter One

Pronouns; The Verb, Present Tense; Pronoun Objects; Questions.

The Personal Pronouns

When the personal pronouns stand alone, they take the following form.

an	<i>I</i>
in	<i>you</i> (sing.)
en	<i>he, she, it</i>
wan	<i>we</i> ¹
un	<i>you</i> (pl.)
gin	<i>they</i> ¹

This form is used as the subject of a non-verbal sentence, corresponding to the verb *to be* in English.

An Ruoth.	<i>I am the Chief.</i> (Lit., <i>I Chief.</i>)
En Jaluo.	<i>He is a Luo.</i>
Onyango en Japuonj.	<i>Onyango is a teacher.</i> (Lit., <i>Onyango he teacher.</i>)
Gin rabolo.	<i>They are bananas.</i>

¹ The plural pronouns are used slightly differently from English. *Wan gi Ochieng'*, lit. *We and Ochieng'*, also means *Ochieng'* and *I*. Similarly *Gin gi Ochieng'* may be translated as *He and Ochieng'*.

Vowel changes

It is particularly important for the student to be aware that the vowels in any given word may change in different contexts:¹ e.g. when certain suffixes are added, or whether or not the verb is followed by an object. It is a feature of Luo that a number of affixes are added to words. Some of these affixes vary their vowel value to 'harmonize' with the vowels in the main word; others have a fixed value, and resist such change; a few actually cause a change in the vowels of the main word. The extent of such change, or resistance to change, varies with the speed of speech and the dialect of the speaker. These points are noted in the text, and the vowel values shown represent fairly slow, deliberate speech.

Consonants

Only the following need comment:

- g is always as in good, except in combinations **ng'** and **ng** already noted, never as in rage.
- f is often pronounced using the two lips instead of the lower lip and top teeth as in English, and then sounds more like **h**.
- s is always as in sell, never as in raise.

Stress

The stress is normally on the last-but-one syllable, and does not move when suffixes are added.² In many disyllabic words, however, the first syllable is a prefix. This prefix is never stressed, so the stress then falls on the last syllable: e.g. **apár**, *ten*; **adék**, *three*; **ombóng'**, *ankle*; **nyathí**, *child*). Words borrowed from other languages are often restressed to obey this rule: e.g. **kaméra**, **mtóka**.

Tone

It is often stated that tone, though used to differentiate words with the same spelling, is not an important factor in Luo, and this misconception is aggravated by the fact that differences of tone are not shown in written Luo.

¹ **Akomo** bel. *I plant millet*. But: **Akomo**. *I am planting*. **Oda**. *my house*. But: **Odi** *your house*.

² The plural imperative suffix **-uru** is an exception, and does bear stress.

The tonal structure of Luo is beyond the scope of an elementary book, and we can only warn the student that tones are of particular importance in distinguishing the aspects of the verb. An appendix deals briefly with this matter. A full treatment will be found in Professor A. N. Tucker's *Luo Grammar*.

Use of Vocabularies

Considerable care has been taken to ensure that the 'Parts of Speech' of words in the vocabularies have been correctly stated, as inaccuracies in earlier works have caused some confusion. It is to be noted however that this 'correctness' is in terms of the English meanings, as Luo words do not necessarily fall neatly into the same categories as exist in English. Indeed the student needs to be on his guard against assuming that there is an exact correspondence.

Meanings that are synonymous are separated by commas; some difference in meaning or usage is indicated by the use of a full stop or colon. In brackets after many nouns will be found the plural or plural ending.

e.g. **Agwata** (-**etini**) means that the plural is **agwetini**

Mabor (-**yo**) means that the plural is **maboyo**

Words borrowed from Swahili and English have been included in the vocabularies where they are in common use: in very remote areas some of these may not be known.

There is as yet no 'Standard Spelling' of Luo, and the following hints may help the student find words which appear at first not to be in the vocabularies. If a Luo word starts with, or contains:

F ,	look under	H ,	and vice versa
Y ,	„	I ,	„
Th ,	„	T ,	„
W ,	„	U ,	„
Ki ,	„	O ,	„

as these are common variants of spelling. Also the prefixes **Ma-**, **Mi-**, **Mo-**, **Ka-**, **Ki-**, **Ko-**, are very common, and words with these and other prefixes may need 'beheading' before they can be found.

When a pronoun is the subject of a verb, however, it takes a shortened form, and is prefixed to the verb. These forms are:

a-	I
i, i-	you
o-, o-	he, she, it
wa-	we
u-, u-	you
gi-, gi-	they

The vowels of the pronouns 'harmonize' with the vowels of the verb. If the verb has open vowels, the pronoun will also be open, and vice versa.

Isomo kitabu. *You are reading a book.* But **Isomo**. *You are reading.*

The Verb

There are two aspects of the Luo verb: the Incomplete Aspect for an action still in progress (and also for a regular or habitual action¹), and the Complete Aspect for a simple action completed at the time of reference.

When the subject of the verb is a pronoun, these two aspects can only be distinguished tonally. When the subject is a noun, **o-**, **o-** is prefixed to the verb in the complete aspect only. (This prefix is not the third person singular pronoun, but a sign of the complete aspect.)

gi-chiemo may mean *they are eating, or they have just eaten.*

ji chiemo means *the people are eating, but*

ji ochiemo means *the people have just eaten.*

There are several tenses in each aspect, the distinction of the aspects always being shown, by the same basic tone pattern,² and the prefix **o-**, **o-** when the subject is not a pronoun.

¹ In some areas **-nga**, **-ga** is suffixed to the verb to indicate habitual or regular reaction.

Aparonga Maseno. *I always remember Maseno.*

² The student should get a Luo to say the two aspects, and note the difference in tonal patterns. If difficulty is experienced in getting the complete aspect, use the verb **hero**, *to love*, which is only used in this aspect.

The infinitive is the form in which verbs are given in the vocabulary, and consists usually of the stem of the verb plus **-o**, **-o**, or **-yo**, **-yo**.

e.g. **kelo** *to bring* (cf. **kel!** *Bring!* the Imperative¹)

goyo *to beat* (cf. **go!** *Beat!*)

In verbs ending in consonants, the stem is also the infinitive, e.g. **wuok**, *to go out.*

The Present Tense

There is a present tense¹ in each aspect. In the incomplete aspect it is the equivalent of both the English present simple (*I bring*) and the present continuous (*I am bringing*). In the complete aspect it is almost the equivalent of the English present perfect (*I have (just) brought*).

When the subject is a pronoun, the two aspects are distinguished by tone only.²

The present tenses are formed as follows:

1 With pronoun subjects, by prefixing the shortened form of the personal pronouns to the infinitive of the verb.

	Incomplete	Complete
a-keko	kom <i>I bring, am bringing</i> a chair	<i>I have just brought</i> a chair
i-keko	kom <i>you bring, are bringing</i> a chair	<i>you have just brought</i> a chair
o-keko	kom <i>he, she, it brings, is bringing</i> a chair	<i>he, she, it has just brought</i> a chair
wa-keko	kom <i>we bring, are bringing</i> a chair	<i>we have just brought</i> a chair
u-keko	kom <i>you bring, are bringing</i> a chair	<i>you have just brought</i> a chair
gi-keko	kom <i>they bring, are bringing</i> a chair	<i>they have just brought</i> a chair

¹ See page 22

² See Appendix, page 89

2 With noun subjects.

(a) In the incomplete aspect, the noun is directly followed by the verb in the infinitive form.

Ouma kelo rabolo. *Ouma is bringing bananas.*
 loluo chamo rabwon. *The Luo eat potatoes. (i.e., it is their custom.)*

(b) In the complete aspect the noun is followed by the verb with o-, o- prefixed.

Ouma okeio rabolo. *Ouma has just brought bananas.*
 li ochamo rabwon. *The people have just eaten the potatoes.*

The sentence order is normally subject, verb, object, and the student should distinguish the aspects in the following examples, where possible.

Adwara chiemo. *I want food.*
 Wachamo rabwon. *We eat potatoes, or we are eating potatoes.*

Ji biro. *People are coming.*
 Ji obiro. *People have just come.*
 Luo nago leke. *The Luo extract teeth. (i.e., it is their custom.)*

Achieng' ting'o dapi. *Achieng' is picking up a water pot.*
 Achieng' oting'o dapi. *Achieng' (has picked up and) is carrying a water pot.*

There ^{are} is a number of Luo verbs, many of them denoting state or condition, which are normally only used in the complete aspect: many of these correspond to adjectives in English. + verbs to be

Barupe oial. *The letters are lost.*
 Pala odik. *The knife is blunt.*
 Nyasay ohero piny. *God loves the world.*

(Nyasaye hero piny would give the idea that God is still in the process of loving the world, but does not yet fully do so.)

When a verb is used without an object, there is often a change in pronunciation: see page 74.

Pronoun Objects

When a pronoun is the object of the verb, the order is still subject, verb, object, and a shortened form of the pronoun is suffixed to the verb.¹ The final -o of the verb is usually dropped before the singular pronouns. As will be seen from the following table, the pronouns are the same as those used for subjects except for the third person singular.

-a	me
-i ²	you (sing.)
-e, -e	he, she, it (vowel harmonizes with verb)
-wa	us
-u ²	you (pl.)
-gi	them
Akele. [A-kel(o)-e]	<i>I am bringing it or I have brought it.</i>
Onyango kelogi.	<i>Onyango is bringing them. O.</i>
Otieno omiyowa chiemo.	<i>Otieno has just given us food.</i>

Questions

To ask questions which are not introduced by an interrogative, the same order of words is used as in a statement. When an alternative is implied or stated, the word koso is usually added.

Isomo kitabu koso? *Are you reading a book? (or not?)*

Vocabulary One

	Verbs		Noun
biro, v.i.	<i>to come, come to</i>	barua	
dhiyo, ³ v.i.	<i>to go, go to</i>	chiemo	
dwaro, v.t.	<i>to want, look for</i>	dhoot	<i>por</i>
hero, v.t.	<i>to like, love</i>	japuonj	<i>teacher</i>
kawo, v.t.	<i>to take</i>	kikombe	<i>cup, cups</i>
kelo, v.t.	<i>to bring</i>	<u>kitabu</u> buk	<i>book</i>

¹ It is common practice in Luo to omit a pronoun suffix when it can be understood from the context.

Wakawo kijiko, waketo e pi. *We take a spoon (and) put (it) in water.*

² Second person object pronouns -i, -u are always close vowels and cause all vowels in the verb also to become close.

Compare OIwoke. *He washes it.* with Oluoki. *He washes you.*

³ Often used in a shortened form dhi.

miyo, v.t. to give . . . to	mesa (pl. mese) table
loso, v.t. to prepare, mend	ng'ato ¹ (pl. ji) man (men)
ndiko, v.t. to write	rabolo banana(s)
ncno, v.t. to see	rabwon potato(s)
ng'eyo, v.t. to know	Other useful words
somo, v.i. to read, go to school	gi, conj. and (joining nouns)
somo, v.t. to read	
yawo, v.t. to open	

EXERCISE ONE

- 1 Osomo.
- 2 Gindiko kitabu koso?
- 3 Wadwaro chiemo.
- 4 Otieno gi Nyanjom kelo rabwon.
- 5 Gin kikombe.
- 6 Anene: onena.
- 7 Oberowa.
- 8 Wang'eyogi.
- 9 Onyango yawo dhoot.
- 10 En kitabu.
- 11 Gin Luo.
- 12 Auma oting'o kitabu.

- 1 Onyango is reading a book.
- 2 A man has just come.
- 3 Is she giving them a letter?
- 4 The men have prepared the food.
- 5 Akelo and Awiti are looking for the cups.
- 6 We are going to Nairobi.
- 7 The teacher loves them.
- 8 They take the bananas.
- 9 I want you (pl.).
- 10 I am a teacher.
- 11 It is a table.
- 12 A man has brought a letter: the teacher is reading it.

¹ The -o is often dropped before an adjective.

Chapter Two

Plurals, Class One; Adjectives; Interrogative Adjective; Numerals; Greetings.

Plurals

There are a number of ways in which plurals are formed, and these usually involve a change in ending and of open vowels to close. With the exception of Class One, the change depends on the last consonant, and is unaffected by the vowel following that consonant. The nouns have therefore been grouped into classes determined by their last consonant. Most plurals end in -e.

Plurals, Class One: the -ni Class

Nouns in this class, which all end in a vowel, drop that vowel and add -ni. In many cases a euphonic -i- is heard between the noun and the suffix, and many people write it in all plurals of this class.¹ It does not cause a shift of stress.

abc	pala	pelni,	pelini	knife
id	higa	higni,	higini	year
	law	lewni,	lewini or hitemhini	cloth, dress
	agulu	agulni,	agulini	cooking pot
	oganda	ogendni,	ogendini	crowd, tribe, nation
	sigana	sigendni,	sigendini (sigenini) ²	story, fable

¹ This euphonic -i- is not, however, written in other places where it occurs, e.g. demonstrative adjectives.

² Plurals in brackets are alternative forms used in some areas. Alternatives are numerous, and only the commonest ones have been noted.

adita	aditni,	aditini	basket
lwanda	lwendni,	lwendini	rock, boulder
ndiga	ndigni,	ndigini (ndike)	bicycle, wheel
sawo	sewni,	sewini (sepe)	feast (religious)
bugo	bugni,	bugini	hole

It will be noticed that where an **-a-** precedes the final consonant, it changes to **-e-**, and that all open vowels in the singular become close in the plural.

Adjectives

There is in Luo a group of words, basically nouns, which may also be used as adjectives.

ber	<i>goodness</i>
rach	<i>wickedness, evil</i>

1 Predicative Adjectives. (Adjectives which in English follow the verb to be.)

In this use the word is preceded by a subject, which may be a noun or a pronoun. Note that no verb to be is required, and that some adjectives have plural forms.

a-ber	<i>I am good</i>
i-ber	<i>you are good</i>
o-ber	<i>he, she, it is good</i>
wa-beyo	<i>we are good</i>
u-beyo	<i>you are good</i>
gi-beyo	<i>they are good</i>
Sunga rach.	<i>Pride is evil. (Lit., Pride evil.)</i>
Ji nok.	<i>The people are few. (Lit., People few.)</i>

Occasionally the word may stand alone, the subject being understood.

Tek!	<i>It is difficult!</i>
-------------	-------------------------

2 Qualifying Adjectives. (Adjectives which describe a noun.)

In this use the word takes the relative prefix **ma**, *who*, *which*, and follows the noun it qualifies. It is in this form that most adjectives will be found in the vocabularies.¹ Most adjectives do not change when plural; among those that do, are:

¹ Many adjectives can also be used adverbially: see page 18. We have tried to be consistent and write **ma** separately when it clearly introduces a relative clause, and joined when the word is clearly an adjective or adverb.

<i>mabill</i>	<i>mabitho</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	
maber	mabeyo	<i>good (from ber, goodness)</i>
marach	maricho	<i>bad (from rach, evil)</i>
maduong'	madongo	<i>great (from duong', greatness)</i>
matin	matindo	<i>small (from tin, smallness)</i>
mabor	maboyo	<i>tall, far (from bor, height, length)</i>
machiek	machieko	<i>short</i>
marachar	marachere	<i>white</i>
marateng'	maratenge	<i>black</i>
Nyathi matin chiemo.		<i>The small (young) child is eating.</i>
Giting'o aditni madongo.		<i>They are carrying large baskets.</i>

There are also some verbs which are used with the relative where in English an adjective would be required. Many of these are verbs of state, and the **ma-** contracts to **m-** before the **o-**, **o-**, of the complete aspect.

Compare	Pala odik.	<i>The knife has become blunt.</i>
		<i>(i.e. the knife is blunt.)</i>
with:	pala modik	<i>The knife which has become blunt.</i>
	(ma odik).	<i>(i.e. the blunt knife.)</i>

Note the difference between:

motwo [m(a)otwo]	<i>dry (lit., which has dried)</i>
ma two	<i>which is drying</i>
motho (m-otho)	<i>dead (lit., which has died)</i>
ma tho	<i>which is dying (or which dies=mortal)</i>

There are also a few adjectives that do not require **ma-**.

duto	<i>all</i>
moro (pl. moko)	<i>certain, other, some, more</i>
Ji duto ong'eya.	<i>Everybody knows me. (Lit. All people...)</i>
Ng'ato moro obiro.	<i>A certain man has come. Or, Another man has come.</i>

Wang'iewo aditni moko. *We are buying some (more) baskets.*

Interrogative Adjectives

There are three interrogative adjectives:

mane? (pl. mage)	<i>which?</i>
-------------------------	---------------