

CHAPTER-4

Morphology

4.0 Introduction

This chapter gives the morphological analysis of noun. Morphology is generally used to refer to the study of internal structure of words. Internal structure of word can be studied broadly into derivational and inflectional Morphology. Inflectional morphology involves the creation of different forms of the same class or lexeme; past, present, future, singular, plural, masculine, feminine, neuter and so on of a single lexeme. On the other hand, derivational morphology involves the creation of new lexemes from old ones. Somdal nouns can be defined as a class of words that can be inflected for the categories of gender, number, person and case.

4.1. Morphology

Morphology studies the structure of forms of words, primarily through the use of morpheme construct. It is generally divided into two fields; the study of inflections and of word formation.

4.2. Root and Affix

Roots are the morphemes (free or bound) that carry the principal or basic concept, idea or meaning in the word. A root is a form which is not further analyzable either in the terms of derivational or inflectional morphology. Root constitutes the nuclei (or core) of all word (Nida, 1946). Affixes are bound morpheme which can only occur or attached to a root, or stem or a word. Affixes play an important role in n agglutinative language like Somdal. There are three kinds of affixes-a) Prefix b) Suffix and c) Infix. Infix is not found in this language.

4.2.1. Free Roots

Free root is a minimal grammatical unit which can be used as a word without the need for further morphological process. Free roots are those which may be uttered in isolation e.g. boy, girl, man etc. These roots are found in monosyllabic, disyllabic, and polysyllabic words. Examples:

4.2.1.1. Monosyllabic words

<i>k^hui</i>	‘village’
<i>mik</i>	‘eye’
<i>sa</i>	‘animal’
<i>p^hi</i>	‘foot’
<i>jaŋ</i>	‘strength’
<i>sam</i>	‘rice’
<i>mi</i>	‘fire’
<i>ko</i>	‘river’
<i>həm</i>	‘pot’
<i>k^hai</i>	‘fish’
<i>hok</i>	‘pig’

4.2.1.2. Disyllabic words

<i>vanu</i>	‘duck’
<i>sira</i>	‘star’
<i>mɔja</i>	‘cloud’
<i>məri</i>	‘iron’
<i>miŋsen</i>	‘glass’
<i>lipat</i>	‘mud’
<i>kəpa</i>	‘bamboo’

<i>rəmsa</i>	‘animal’
<i>senu</i>	‘milk’
<i>məsi</i>	‘air’
<i>əli</i>	‘soil’
<i>k^hoidlui</i>	‘honey’

4.2.1.3. Polysyllabic words

<i>lupasa</i>	‘silver’
<i>mikumō</i>	‘human being’
<i>liritfim</i>	‘school’
<i>maiməsur</i>	‘cheek’
<i>tuk^haik^həvai</i>	‘crusher’
<i>əjinp^hədlat</i>	‘dinner’

These roots can take suffix /*piŋ*/ ‘plural’ to distinguish between singular from plural. Such free roots can also take case suffixes, namely nominative /-*nə*/, accusative /-*tə*/, genitive /-*nao*/etc.

4.2.2. Bound Roots

Unlike free root, bound root needs further modification to occur as separate word. It never occurs in isolation, that is, are not regularly uttered alone in nominal discourse. Bound roots in Somdal can be divided into two types. They are a) Nominal bound root and b) Verbal bound root.

4.2.2.1. Nominal bound root

It consists of four sub-types. They are roots found in i) Kinship terms ii) Basic numeral iii) Body parts and iv) Non-human objects

i) Kinship Terms

Some kinship terms used in Somdal are as follows:

<i>va</i>	‘father’
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<i>wi</i>	‘mother’
<i>con</i>	‘sister’
<i>ni</i>	‘aunt’
<i>wu</i>	‘grandfather’
<i>vi</i>	‘grandmother’
<i>mi</i>	‘elder brother’
<i>dlu</i>	‘nephew’
<i>mui</i>	‘sister-in-law’

These above given roots do not give complete meaning until a formative prefix /ə- / is added to them.

Examples:

<i>əva</i>	‘father’
<i>əwi</i>	‘mother’
<i>əcon</i>	‘sister’
<i>əni</i>	‘aunt’
<i>əwu</i>	‘grandfather’
<i>əvi</i>	‘grandmother’
<i>əmi</i>	‘elder brother’
<i>ədlu</i>	‘nephew’
<i>əmui</i>	‘sister-in-law’

ii) Basic Numerals

In Somdal only three basic numerals are found in bound. Examples are given below.

<i>si</i>	‘one’
<i>ni</i>	‘two’

t^hum 'three'

These roots are found to be used with formative prefixes (FP) /-si/, /-k^hə/ and /-kə/ in Somdal.

Examples:

kəsi 'one'

k^həni 'two'

kət^hum 'three'

iii) Body Parts

Some of the nominal bound roots used in body parts are as follows:

p^hon 'belly'

mai 'face'

ha 'tooth'

kiu 'head'

p^hi 'leg'

pan 'arm'

mik 'eye'

k^həvi 'forehead'

The above given body parts in bound form are formed with the prefixation of the formative prefix /ə/.

Examples:

əp^hon 'belly'

əmai 'face'

əha 'tooth'

əkiu 'head'

əp^hi 'leg'

<i>əpan</i>	‘arm’
<i>əmik</i>	‘eye’
<i>əkʰəvi</i>	‘forehead’

This prefix is dropped in the process of derivation and compounding.

Examples:

əpan ‘arm’

<i>əpan + əja</i>	<i>panja</i>
arm right	‘right arm’

<i>əpan + əji</i>	<i>panji</i>
arm left	‘left arm’

iv) Non-human Objects

Some roots of different non-human objects are given below:

<i>ni</i>	‘leaf’
<i>dlui</i>	‘egg’
<i>pʰaŋ</i>	‘branch’
<i>ku</i>	‘insect’
<i>lu</i>	‘stone’
<i>wən</i>	‘flower’
<i>li</i>	‘soil’
<i>run</i>	‘cap’

con 'image'

These non-human objects are also used with formative prefix /ə-/.
Examples:

əni 'leaf'

ədlui 'egg'

əp^haŋ 'branch'

əku 'insect'

əlu 'stone'

əwəŋ 'flower'

əli 'soil'

ərun 'cap'

əcon 'image'

The formative prefix is dropped in the process of derivation and compounding.

Examples:

ət^hi 'fruit'

hainaot^hi 'mango'

caoplut^hi 'gooseberry'

k^hat^hopt^hi 'cucumber'

tərk^hat^hi 'grapes'

salat^hi 'walnut'

4.2.2.2. Verbal Bound Root

The verbal root may be classified into two groups as i) Dynamic and ii) Stative on the basis of their meaning difference. Those verbal roots which express the meaning of an action, a process, motion etc are grouped under dynamic verb and roots indicating the meaning of a state, quality, quantity etc are grouped under stative. Examples are given below-

4.2.2.2.1. Dynamic verbs

<i>mənui</i>	‘laugh’
<i>səkt^ha</i>	‘wed’
<i>li</i>	‘steal’
<i>mo</i>	‘drink’
<i>lipao</i>	‘stutter’
<i>k^hui</i>	‘take’
<i>p^hərak</i>	‘throw’
<i>dlat</i>	‘go’
<i>pa</i>	‘read’
<i>nur</i>	‘rub’
<i>sai</i>	‘eat’

4.2.2.2.2. Stative Verbs

<i>niu</i>	‘young’
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<i>tok</i>	‘big’
<i>t^hao</i>	‘fat’
<i>kəciu</i>	‘high’
<i>p^ha</i>	‘good’
<i>kəram</i>	‘greed’
<i>cukə</i>	‘loose’
<i>ciu</i>	‘high’
<i>niŋt^har</i>	‘honest’
<i>cəmp^ha</i>	‘kind’

4.3. Affixes

Affixes are bound morpheme which can only occur or attached to a root, or stem or a word. It plays a very important role in the process of agglutination. And the process of adding affixes to the root or stem or a word is called affixation. There are three types of affixes. They are 1) Prefix, 2) Infix and 3) Suffix. In Somdal only two types of affixes are found. They are 1) Prefixes and 2) Suffixes. And they are discussed below.

4.3.1. Prefixes

Prefix is the affix which is added before the stem or root or a word. Prefix in Somdal can be classified into two branches as, a) Pronominal Prefixes and b) Non-Pronominal Prefixes.

4.3.1.1. Pronominal Prefixes

The pronominal prefixes can be divided into two types. They are (i) Singular pronominal prefixes and (ii) Plural pronominal prefixes.

(i) Singular pronominal prefixes:

The singular pronominal prefix /i-/ for first person, /nə-/ for second person and /vai-/ for third person are used to form singular possessive pronouns. They are given in the following examples:

<i>i</i>	+	<i>va</i>	>	<i>iva</i>	‘my father’
<i>nə</i>	+	<i>wi</i>	>	<i>nəwi</i>	‘your mother’
<i>vai</i>	+	<i>vaine</i>	>	<i>vaiaine</i>	‘your brother’

(ii) Plural pronominal prefixes:

The plural suffix /-^hum/ is added to the three pronominal markers /i/, /nə/ and /vai/ to form plural pronominal prefix like, /i^hum-/, /nə^hum-/ and /vai^hum-/ are used to form plural possessive pronouns. They are given in the following examples:

<i>i^hum</i>	+	<i>wi</i>	>	<i>i^humwi</i>	‘our mother’
<i>nə^hum</i>	+	<i>va</i>	>	<i>nə^humva</i>	‘your father’
<i>vai^hum</i>	+	<i>vaine</i>	>	<i>vai^humvaine</i>	‘their brother’

4.3.1.2. Non-pronominal prefixes

Non-pronominal prefixes can be discussed under:

i) Formative prefixes

There are three formative prefixes (FP) found in Somdal. They are /ə-/, /kə-/~ /k^hə-/ and /mə-/.

/ə-/

The formative prefix /ə-/, in Somdal are found prefixed with body parts, body organs, collective nouns and other natural objects.

Examples:

a) Body parts and body organs

ə-hoi 'skin'
FP-skin

ə-k^hui 'intestine'
FP-intestine

ə-p^har 'lung'
FP-lung

ə-mai 'face'
FP-face

ə-ha 'tooth'
FP-tooth

ə-kiu 'head'
FP-head

b) Collective nouns

ə-k^hor 'piles'
FP-piles

ə-dən 'bundle'
FP-bundle

c) Other natural objects

ə-wən 'flower'
FP-flower

ə-ku 'insect'
FP-insect

ə-li 'soil'
FP-soil

ə-p^haŋ 'branch'
FP-branch

/kə-/ ~ /k^hə/

The formative prefix */kə-/* or */k^hə-/* are found prefixed to root to form persons and adjectives.

Examples

d) Persons

kə-kəpe 'writer'
FP-writer

k^hə-reo 'player'
FP-player

e) Adjectives

k^hə-dən 'weakness'
FP-weak

k^hə-mətek 'green'
FP-green

kə-cər 'white'
FP-white

kə-p^həŋa 'fifth'
FP-five

And very rarely, gender distinction can also be seen in Somdal through prefixation to stem, as shown below:

f) Gender

Example:

jaron-nao ‘boy’
FP-child

lan-nao ‘girl’
FP-child

4.3.2. Suffixes

A suffix is a letter or group of letters attached to the end of a word to form a new word or to alter the grammatical function of the original word. Suffixes are very numerous in Somdal. Most of the sentences are constructed by suffixing their respective markers. Some suffixes are added to the nominal and some are added to the verbal. According to this, suffixes can be grouped into two types i) Nominal suffix and ii) Verbal suffix.

4.3.2.1. Nominal Suffixes

Nominal suffix are those which are added to the noun only. Some of the suffixes which are added to the noun are given below:

a. Case suffixes

Case suffixes are those which are added to the noun. Some of the case suffixes found in Somdal are nominative */-nə/*, accusative */-tə/*, genitive */-nao/* or */-ji/*, locative */-lai/*, instrumental */-tə/* or */-də/*, ablative */-laidə/* or */-laitə/*, associative */-k^hənə/* and dative */-lai/* or */-də/*.

b. Number suffix

In Somdal, there are three number suffixes. They are singular, dual and plural. Singular number is left unmarked. Personal pronouns take the dual marker *ni* (*k^həni* ‘two’) and plural marker *thum* (*kə^hum* ‘three’). The plural markers *-piŋ* and *-t^hum* are also used in indicating plural in proper nouns.

c. Gender suffix

The gender distinction in Somdal is based on the natural notions like animateness and sex. Both the human natural gender and other animate beings are indicated by *-va* or *-dla* for male and *-wi* or *-dlawi* for female.

Examples:

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| i. | <i>i-va</i>
1P-father | ‘father’ |
| | <i>i-wi</i>
1P-mother | ‘mother’ |
| ii. | <i>kəfaŋa-dla</i>
rich - man | ‘rich man’ |
| | <i>kəfaŋa-dlawi</i>
rich – woman | ‘rich woman’ |

d. Particles

The different types of particles are suffixed to the noun. They are shown below:

- i) *hi* ‘this’

Examples:

- | | | |
|----|------------------------------------|----------------|
| a. | <i>fim-hi</i>
house-this | ‘this house’ |
| b. | <i>fim-piŋ-hi</i>
house-PL-this | ‘these houses’ |

- ii) *ci* ‘that’

Examples:

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------------|-------------|
| a. | <i>vanu-ci</i>
duck-that | ‘that duck’ |
|----|-----------------------------|-------------|

b. *vanu-piŋ-ci* 'those ducks'
 duck-PL-that

iii) *k^həlatkə* 'itself'
 This particle is suffixed to personal pronoun. Examples are given below:

1P	<i>i-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>i-t^hum-k^həlatkə</i>
	1P-REF	1P-PL-REF
	'Myself'	'Ourselves'
2P	<i>nə-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>nə-t^hum-k^həlatkə</i>
	2P-REF	2P-PL-REF
	'Yourself'	'Yourselves'
3P	<i>vai-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>vai-k^həlatkə</i>
	3P-REF	3P-PL-REF
	'Himself/Herself'	'Themselves'

iv) *nao* 'small'
 It is suffixed to the noun indicating the small things or young ones.
 Examples:

a. *həm-nao* 'small pot'
 pot-small

b. *hui-nao* 'puppy'
 dog-small

c. *se-nao* 'calf'
 cow-small

v) *dla* 'diminutive (DM)' and *dli* 'augmentive (AG)'

dla and *dli* is suffixed to some noun stems/roots. They indicate in size, quality etc.Examples:

a. *ko-dla* 'rivulet'
 river-small

ko-dli 'big river'
 river-big

4.3.2.1.1.Connectives

Connectives are those that connect words, phrases, clauses and sentences. They can be divided into two types, a) conjunctive suffix (suffix to the noun) and b) conjunctive particles (made of words).

4.3.2.1.1.1.Conjunctive suffix

Conjunctive suffix is a morpheme that helps to join two words, in a sentence. Conjunctive suffix *-lə* is used to every noun.

Examples:

nə-lə *vai-lə* *va-dlei*

2P-CONJ 3P-CONJ go-IRL

'You also she also will go'

kim-lə *nihorla-lə* *tom-lə* *liu* *va-dlei*

kim-CONJ ninghorla-CONJ tom-CONJ field go-IRL

‘Kim also Ninghorla also will go to field.’

In the above sentence the conjunctive suffix */-lə/* can occur repeatedly with the nouns.

4.3.2.1.1.2. Conjunctive Particles

Conjunctive particles are more in number than conjunctive suffixes and they cannot occur repeatedly with every nouns or pronouns or phrase or clause like the conjunctive suffix */-ta/*.

Co-ordinating conjunctions can join two main clauses that to emphasize equally. There are many conjunctive particles in Somdal. They are given below:

- i. *kʰənə* ‘and’
- ii. *kʰə* ‘but’
- iii. *civaŋdə* ‘so’
- iv. *mənimkʰə* ‘therefore’
- v. *mənimirukʰə* ‘otherwise’
- vi. *lə* ‘also’
- vii. *laitə* ‘then’

4.3.2.1.1.3. Specifier

The specifier */-mə/* is added to the nominal which denotes specific, definite and agentive nature.

Example:

ramu-mə *ra-dlei*
ramu-SP come-IRL
‘Ramu will come’

4.3.2.1.1.4. Topic Marker

Topic marker /-və/ is suffixed to the noun.

Example:

nə-və *mə-rio* *ra-lou*
2P-TOP NEG-play come-IMP
'You don't play.'

4.3.2.2. Verbal Suffixes

Many kinds of verbal suffixes are found in Somdal. They are a) Aspect suffixes, b) Interrogative suffixes, c) Imperative suffixes, d) Suggestive suffixes, e) Adverbial suffixes, f) Intensifier suffixes, g) Reciprocal, h) Honorific suffix, i) Directional suffix and k) Reflexive suffixes.

a) Aspect Suffixes

Aspect markers /-je/, /-dlei/, /-jei/ etc are suffixed to the verbal roots.

Examples:

tom *uru-jei*
tom arrive-RL
'Tom has arrived'

vai i-va-nei
3P 1P-father-ASP
'He is my father'

b) Interrogative Marker

In Somdal, the interrogative suffixes are /-la/ as a yes/no question marker and /-kə/ for Wh-question marker.

Examples:

vai t^hu-kə
3P who-Q(WH)
'Who is he?'

nə *sam-la*
2P name(person)-Q(Y/N)
'Are you Sam?'

c) Imperative Marker

The suffix *-lou* is used as imperative marker.

Examples:

hi *fai-lou*
DEM eat-COM
'Eat this'

hi-vak *mə-ra* *ra-lou*
DEM-side NEG-come come-COM
'Don't come this side'

d) Suggestive Marker

In Somdal, suggestive marker is *-sei*

Example:

i-mə *t^hi* *fai-sei*
1P-PL fruit eat-SUG
'Let us eat fruit'

e) Adverbial Suffixes

The suffix *lakkə* is the adverbial suffix in Somdal.

They are added on different verb.

Example:

t^hak-lakkə *ra-lou*
quick-ADV come-COM
'Come quickly'

f) Intensifier

There are numerous number of intensifier found in Somdal.

Examples:

vai *dlat* *lakkai*
3P go INTSF
'She goes very much.'

vai-wi *ci* *p^ha-nai-jei*
3P-mother DEM good-INTSF-ASP
'Her mother is too good.'

g) Honorific Suffix

In Somdal, Honorific suffix */-cei/* can be used with the command markers.

Example:

ra-pəm-lou cei
Come-sit-IMP HON
'Please come and sit'

h) Reciprocal

In Somdal, the reciprocal marker is /*kəsik^hə k^hənə kəsik^hə*/ meaning 'one and one'.

Example:

vai-t^hum kəsik^hə k^hənə kəsik^hə con-dlui
3P-PL one CONJ one help-ASP
'They help each other.'

i) Directional

Four types of directional suffixes in Somdal are found. They are /-ka/ for 'upward', /-tu/ for 'downward', /-luŋ/ for 'inward' and /-fo/ for 'outward'.

Examples:

ja-ka-lou
look-up-IMP
'to jump up'

tu ra-lou
down come-IMP
'to push down'

non-luŋ-wui
push-in-NMZ
'to push in'

k^hun-fo-wui
pull-out-NMZ

‘to pull out’

j) Reflexive Suffix

The reflexive suffix *k^həlatkə* ‘itself’ is suffixed to personal pronoun.

Examples:

1P	<i>i-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>i-t^hum-k^həlatkə</i>
	1P-REF	1P-PL-REF
	‘myself’	‘ourselves’
2P	<i>nə-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>nə-t^hum-k^həlatkə</i>
	2P-REF	2P-PL-REF
	‘yourself’	‘yourselves’
3P	<i>vai-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>vai-k^həlatkə</i>
	3P-REF	3P-PL-REF
	‘himself/herself’	‘themselves’

4.4. WORD FORMATION

Word formation deals with the creation of new words. It is the process of morphological variation in the constitution of words. It is done through derivational process in this language. The figure showing word formation and its classification is shown below:

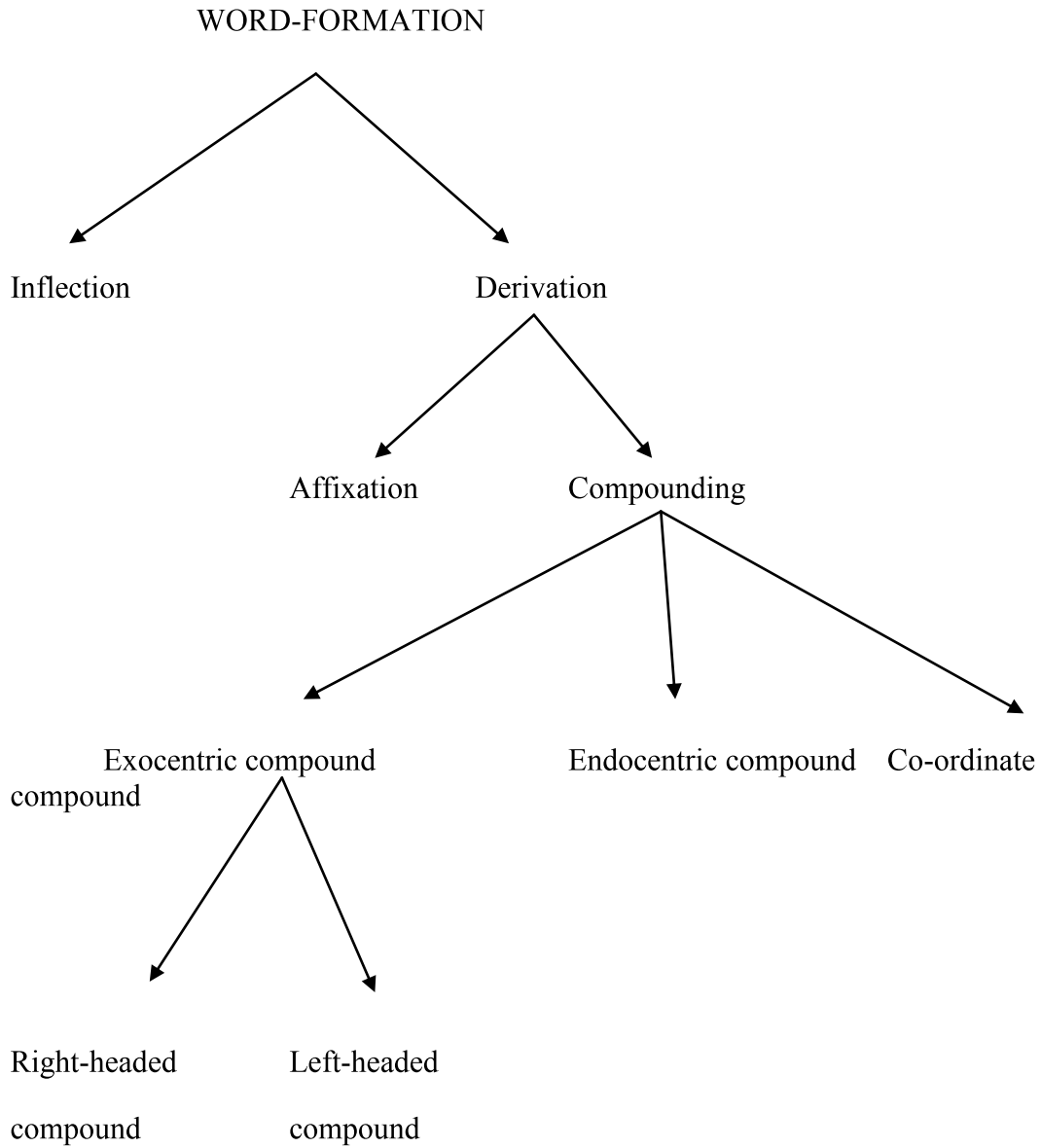


Figure No.3: Word Formation and its Classifications

4.4.1. Derivation

Derivation is a morphological process by which words are derived from different word-classes by affixation method. It involves many variables in an open class.

Derivational process can be divided into two types. They are discussed below:

4.4.1.1. Affixation

See number 4.3 of this chapter.

4.4.1.2. Compounding

The process of combining two or more roots is compounding. It is one of the means for the formation of new words in words is formed by combination of two or more roots. It basically means that complex words are formed from smaller into units which otherwise can function independently. In short, it is the act of combining things to form a new whole on the otherhand, compounding is also a process of making composite words or compound words. It is a very common process in most languages of the world (especially among synthetic languages). “The compound words occurring in a language can be studied either from the point of view of their own structure (for examples, the kind of constituent elements that occur in them, or the function that these elements are found to carry out in establishment of opposite words) or form the point of view of their underlying structures” (Bhat and Ningomba, 1986).

4.4.1.2.1. Types of compounding

There are three types of compounding in Somdal. They are 1) Endocentric compounds 2) Exocentric compounds and 3) Co- ordinate compounds.

1) Endocentric compounds

An endocentric compounds is a compound word or phrase where one of the words links the other words syntactically this linking word is called head. There are two kinds of endocentric compounds. They are i) right-headed compounds and ii) left-headed compounds.

i) Right-headed endocentric compounds

In right-headed compounds, the second element is the head whereas the first element is the attribute.

Examples

Noun + Noun

<i>pan + hop</i>	>	<i>panhop</i>
hand + glove		‘handglove’

<i>ʃe + ʃim</i>	>	<i>ʃeʃim</i>
cow + shed		‘cowshed’

Noun + Derived Noun

<i>sək + kəsa</i>	>	<i>səkkəsa</i>
loom + make		‘weaver’

<i>wot + kəsa</i>	>	<i>wotkəsa</i>
work + do		‘worker’

The underlying structures of the constituent of the right-headed compound can be related each other i) by possessive relation and ii) by verbal relation

a) Possessive relation

Example

<i>tʰiŋ-nao + əni</i>	>	<i>tʰini</i>
wood-GEN + leaf		‘leaf’

<i>kʰai-nao</i>	+	<i>ʃik</i>	>	<i>kʰaiʃik</i>
fish-GEN	+	basket		‘fish basket’

b) Verbal relation

Example

sək *kasa* *mi* > *səkkasami*

handloom make man ‘weaver’

p^hihop *kasa* *mi* > *p^hihopkasami*

shoe make man ‘cobbler’

ii) Left-headed Endocentric Compounds

In left-headed endocentric compounds there exist two elements. They are, the first element is the noun whereas the second element is the adjective.

Example

kəci + *kət^hi* > *kəci kət^hi*
moon old ‘old moon’

wot + *k^hərit* > *wotk^hərit*
thing heavy ‘heavy thing’

k^hoi + *dlui* > *k^hoidlui*
bee liquid ‘honey’

4.4.1.2.2. Exocentric Compounds

A type of compound word in which one element modifies or restricts the other and the whole denotes an entity which is a hyponym of an unexpressed semantic head. In other words, composite words which neither of the two constituent elements function as the head.

They are categorized into two types- purposive and resultatives, depending upon the type of relationship that exists between the constituent elements.

Examples are given below:

a. Purposives

p^hifonrui ‘anklet’

kət^hau ‘bracelet’

b. Resultatives

kan^ha ‘quilt’

otkəsak^hui ‘load’

4.4.1.2.3. Co-ordinate Compounds

The co-ordinate compounds consist of two elements. They function jointly as head which are made up of two different nouns. In the underlying structures of co-ordinate compounds, the two elements can be related with each other by a connective such as *k^hənə* ‘and’ in Somdal-Tangkhul.

Examples from word:

miŋ k^hənə jaŋ > *miŋjaŋ* ‘thought and strength’
thought CON strength

p^hi k^hənə pan > *p^hipan* ‘hand and feet’
feet CON hand

kəciu k^hənə k^hənem > *kəciuk^hənem* ‘high and low’
high CON low

ədlet k^hənə əsan > *ədletəsan* ‘breadth and length’

breadth CON length

4.4.1.3. Formation of Verbs

See number 4.17. of this chapter.

4.4.1.4. Formation of Adverbs

See number 4.14. of this chapter.

4.4.1.5. Formation of Adjectives

See number 4.13. of this chapter.

4.4.1.6. Form-Class compound:

It is the process of compounding depending on form class.

Some examples are given below

[Noun + Noun] > Noun

i) *luŋ* + *kovər* > *luŋkovər*
pillow cover 'pillowcover'

ii) *t^haomi* + *kum* > *t^haomikum*
lamp shade 'lampshade'

[Noun + Verb] > Noun

i) *sina* + *kəsemə* > *sinakəsemə*
gold make 'goldsmith'

[Noun + Adjective] > Noun

i) *vanu* + *nao* > *vanunao*

duck small ‘duckling’

4.4.1.7. Equational compounds

In this type of compound, the two words forming the compound noun have identical or very close meaning. The two constituents may differ in some basis attributive feature.

Examples:

lirit + *ſim* > *liritſim* ‘school’

book house

tʰiŋ + *ni* > *tʰini* ‘leaf’

tree leaf

4.5.Nouns

Nouns in Somdal are largely monosyllabic, but disyllabic nouns are also quite frequent in the language. Nouns in Somdal may be divided into derived and non-derived nouns. Derived nouns are formed by means of derivational morphology and may include gender and number. Non-derived nouns on the other hand, are inflectional in nature and include case marking. It also includes diminutive, numerals, quantifiers etc.

This section also discussed nouns which are classified on the basis of meaning and forms. They are common nouns, proper nouns, collective nouns, material nouns, abstract nouns, concrete nouns, countable and uncountable nouns.

4.5.1.Common nouns

Common nouns often express concrete and physical entities. Most common nouns can occur with all constituents in noun phrase. Some examples of common nouns in Somdal are paitu ‘bag’, mi ‘fire’ etc. Examples are given below:

se ‘cow’

<i>vanu</i>	‘duck’
<i>ſim</i>	‘house’

4.5.2. Proper nouns

Somdal use personal names to address and identify particular persons. Some of the examples of personal names and address terms are given below:

Personal names	Address terms
Tom	<i>məfit</i> ‘friend’
Veronica	<i>wi</i> ‘mother’
Angam	<i>va</i> ‘father’

4.5.3. Material nouns

Examples:

<i>cek</i>	‘brick’
<i>t^hij</i>	‘wood’
<i>sina</i>	‘gold’

4.5.4. Abstract nouns

Examples:

<i>mahuvatwi</i>	‘anger’
<i>məfun</i>	‘truth’
<i>ſewi</i>	‘pain’

4.5.5. Concrete nouns

Examples:

<i>liu</i>	‘field’
<i>məci</i>	‘salt’
<i>pi</i>	‘earring’

4.5.6. Countable nouns

Examples:

ko 'river'

duimik 'sun'

lik^hur 'cave'

Countable nouns can be classified as, singular and plural.

Examples:

hui kəfik^hə 'a dog'

dog one

hui-pij 'dogs'

dog -PL

4.5.7. Uncountable nouns

Examples:

lipat 'soil'

senu 'milk'

dlui 'water'

Structurally, nouns in Somdal can be sub-divided into three types. They are i) Primary ii) Derived and iii) Compound.

4.6. Primary Noun Stems

Primary noun stems can further be sub-divided into two types. They are simple and complex. The terms free form and bound form are used to differentiate between 'simple' and 'complex' primary noun stems. One free morpheme is consisting in a 'simple' stem which can occur in isolation and one bound morpheme is consisting in a complex stem which cannot occur in isolation plus a formative prefix. The formative prefix may or may not be deleted in the process of derivation and compounding.

4.6.1.Primary Simple Noun Stems

A primary simple noun stem consists of one root which is a free form and can occur in isolation without any affixes. Monosyllabic and disyllabic stems are found in large number whereas polysyllabic stems are found very rare. Examples of simple noun stems are given below:

i) Monosyllabic nouns

<i>pan</i>	‘hand’
<i>mik</i>	‘eye’
<i>ʃim</i>	‘house’
<i>pi</i>	‘earring’
<i>t^ho</i>	‘bridge’

ii) Disyllabic nouns

<i>t^hiru</i>	‘seed’
<i>t^hiro</i>	‘tree’
<i>k^hari</i>	‘intestine’
<i>kapim</i>	‘needle’
<i>ak^hon</i>	‘sound’

iii) Polysyllabic nouns

<i>ʃairanrui</i>	‘sweat’
<i>t^haypeola</i>	‘ornaments’
<i>t^hin^hunliuvatot</i>	‘agriculture’

varivara

‘god’

4.6.2. Primary Complex Noun Stems

The formation of many primary complex noun stems is to prefix a formative or naturalizing element to the root which is a bound form. The bound forms cannot occur in isolation, that is, they always take a formative prefix to function as a full word. There are three formative prefixes in Somdal. They are /ə/, /kə/ ~ /k^hə/ and /mə/. Often these suffixes are dropped in the process of derivation and compounding.

FP + root

FP dropped in

derivation/compounding

<i>əha</i>	‘hair’	<i>hat^hao</i>	‘hair oil’
<i>kəp^hu</i>	‘hills’	<i>p^hudli</i>	‘mountains’
<i>məkəp^ha</i>	‘bad’	<i>kəp^ha</i>	‘good’

The formative prefix /ə/ can be optionally prefixed to a number of concrete noun stems/roots. Thus there is no difference between the bound roots and the /ə/ prefixed forms. Examples are given below:

<i>hoi ~ əhoi</i>	‘skin’	<i>p^hay ~ əp^hay</i>	‘branch’
<i>k^hri ~ ək^hri</i>	‘intestine’	<i>p^har ~ əp^har</i>	‘lungs’
<i>mai ~ əmai</i>	‘face’	<i>kiu ~ əkiu</i>	‘head’

Derived noun is formed by prefixing the nominalizer *kə ~ k^hə* to the verb.

Examples:

$kə + sa > kəsa$

NMZ-do 'doer'

$k^hə + reo > k^həreo$

NMZ-play 'player'

There are also three other types of constructions of derivational processes. They are a) Diminutive/Augmentative b) Agent Noun Formation and c) Suffixation.

a) Diminutive /dla/ and Augmentive /dli/

/dla/ and /dli/ are suffixed to the stems/roots. They indicate difference in size, quality, etc.

Examples:

Primary stem	Derived stem	Gloss
k^hui 'village'	k^huidla	'small village'
	k^huidli	'big village'
ko 'river'	$kodla$	'small river'
	$kodli$	'big river'

b) Agent Noun Formation

The agentive marker /mi/ can be suffixed to any stem in the nominalized or non-finite form. Its phonologically conditioned allomorphs are /ma/, /ta/, /t^he/, /pe/, /kə/, /ra/, /va/, /wa/.

Examples:

<i>sək-kə-sa-mi</i>	<i>səkkəsami</i>	‘weaver’
cloth-NMZ-make-AG		
<i>k^həmoi-kə-fem-ma</i>	<i>k^həmoikəfemma</i>	‘backer’
bread-NMZ-make-AG		
<i>k^hə-dlət-ta</i>	<i>k^hədlətta</i>	‘goer’
NMZ-go-AG		
<i>təm-k^hə-mə-t^he</i>	<i>təmk^həmət^he</i>	‘teacher’
teach-NMZ-ASP-AG		
<i>lirit-k^hə-kə-pe</i>	<i>liritk^həkəpe</i>	‘author’
book-NMZ-write-AG		
<i>k^hə-jek-kə</i>	<i>k^həjekkə</i>	‘painter’
NMZ-paint-AG		
<i>lirit-k^hə-jo-ra</i>	<i>liritk^həjora</i>	‘book seller’
book-NMZ-sell-AG		

4.6.3. Compound nouns

There are nouns which are formed by combination of two or more nouns. They are treated as compound nouns. Somdal compound nouns are given below.

i) Noun+Noun > Noun

Examples:

se + *fim* > *sefim* 'cowshed'

cow house

lirit + *fim* > *liritfim* 'school'

book house

Its occurrence in sentence is shown below:

1) *hi* *i-rəm-nao* *liritfim-nei*

DEM 1P (pl)-village-GEN school-ASP

'This is the school of our village'

ii) Noun+Verb root > Noun

Examples:

p^hi + *kar* > *p^hikar* 'foot step'

Foot walk

tiu + *lep* > *tiulep* 'answer'

news response

Its occurrence in sentence is shown below:

p^{hi}-kar *t^hakmi-kə* *rat-lou*

foot-step fast-ADV go-ASP

‘Make your footstep faster’

iii) Noun + Augmentative > Noun

fim + *dli* > *fimdli* ‘big house’

house big

t^hu + *dli* > *t^hudli* ‘big hill or mountain’

hill big

Its occurrence in sentence is given below:

hi *fim-dli-nei*

DEM house-AUG-ASP

‘This is a big house’

iv) Noun + Dimi(nutive) > Noun

Examples:

se + *nao* > *senao* ‘calf (cow)’

cow small

hui + *nao* > *huinao* ‘puppy’

dog small

Its occurrence in sentence are given below:

se-nao *kəsik^hə* *pi-le*

Cow-DIM one (only) sleep-ASP

‘One calf is sleeping’

4.6.3.1.Nouns formed by means of prefixation

Somdal has three possessive pronominal prefixes: /i-/ ‘first person’, /nə-/ ‘second person’ and /vai-/ ‘third person’ that are attached to kinship terms, body parts and other inalienable nouns to form possessive nouns.

4.6.3.1.1.Kinship terms

i-va ‘my father’

1P-father

nə-va ‘your father’

2P-father

vai-va ‘his/her father’

3P-father

i-wu

‘my grandfather’

1P-grandfather

nə-wu

‘your grandfather’

2P-grandfather

vai-wu

‘his/her grandfather’

3P-grandfather

4.6.3.1.2.Body parts

i-mik

‘my eye’

1P-eye

nə-mik

‘your eye’

2P-eye

vai-mik

‘his eye’

3P-eye

.i-p^hon ‘my belly’

1P-belly

nə-p^hon ‘your belly’

2P-belly

vai-p^hon ‘his/her belly’

3P-belly

4.6.3.1.3. Other nouns

*i-*fim** ‘my house’

1P-house

*nə-*fim** ‘your house’

2P-house

*vai-*fim** ‘his house’

3P-house

i-t^hak^ho ‘my plate’

1P-plate

nə-tʰakʰo ‘your plate’

2P-plate

vai-tʰakʰo ‘his/her plate’

3P-plate

4.6.3.2.Noun form by means of suffixation

4.6.3.2.1.Gender

Gender are the classes of nouns reflected in the behavior of associated words to qualify as gender system, the classification must be exhaustive and do not involve much in intensive intersection, that is every noun must belong to one of the classes and very few can belong to more than one (Hockett, 1958).

Gender and sex are often associated together. “The traditional names for the three genders found in classical Indo-European language – masculine, feminine and neuter which clearly reflect the association with traditional grammar established between sex and gender. But the term “gender” itself derives from an extremely general word meaning ‘class’ and ‘kind’ (Latin *genus*). The three genders of Greek and Latin were the three main noun-classes recognized in the grammar. From the grammatical point of view, the nouns of Greek and Latin were classified into three genders in order to account for two distinct phenomena (a) pronominal reference and (b) adjectival concord or agreement. For the same reasons, the nouns of French, Italian and Spanish are classified into two genders, the nouns of Russian and German into three genders, the nouns of Swahili into at least six genders and so on” (Lyons, 1968)

Gender in Somdal is based on natural distinction of sex and therefore it is applied only to the animate nouns. Nouns in Somdal can be broadly divided into two groups, i, e animate

and inanimate noun. Animate noun can be further divided into human (+human) and non-human (-human). All the inanimate nouns are considered as neuter.

Somdal gender can be illustrated as under the figure:

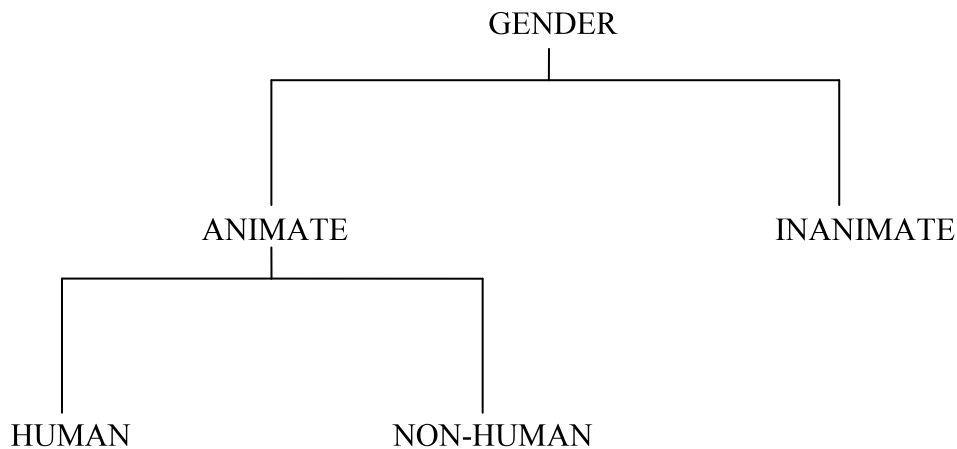


Figure No.4: Classification of Gender in Somdal

4.6.3.2.1.1. Gender in animate nouns

The gender of animate nouns in case of human beings (+human -inanimate) in Somdal is denoted by the gender marker *-dla/-va* for male, where *-dla* is used in specified things and *-va* for general and *-dlawi/-wi* for female, where *-dlawi* is used in specified things and *-wi* for general.

Consider the following table:

Masculine	Feminine
<i>dla/va</i> 'male/man'	<i>dlawi/wi</i> 'female/woman'
<i>i-va</i> 'my father'	<i>i-wi</i> 'my mother'

Table No.4: Human beings Gender Marker

Gender in animals for male is marked by *-va* in domestic animals and *-əva* in wild animals whereas for female, gender is marked by *-wi* in domestic animals and *-əla* in wild animals.

Consider the examples given below for domestic animals:

Masculine	Feminine
<i>hui-va</i> ‘male dog’	<i>hui-wi</i> ‘female dog or bitch’
<i>seloi-va</i> ‘male buffalo’	<i>seloi-wi</i> ‘female buffalo’

Table No.5: Domestic Animals Gender Marker

Also consider the examples given below for wild animals:

Masculine	Feminine
<i>saŋom-əva</i> ‘male bear’	<i>saŋom-əla</i> ‘female bear’
<i>powi-əva</i> ‘male elephant’	<i>powi-əla</i> ‘female elephant’

Table No.6: Wild Animals Gender Marker

Some nouns do not have corresponding feminine form. Consider the following examples:

k^hai-kəp^ha-mi > *k^haikəp^hami*
 fish-catch-person ‘fisherman’

rai-mi > *raimi*
 war-person soldier

honka-k^hop-mi > *honkak^hopmi*
 cloth-stitch-person ‘tailor’

Some nouns in Somdal do not have corresponding masculine form. This is perhaps due to the fact that some of the professions are reserved only for woman. Some social and physical conditions are attributed only to women. Consider the following examples:

naok^həvai-wi > ‘pregnant woman’

pregnant-woman

səkkəsa-wi > 'female weaver'
weaver-female

4.6.3.2.1.2. Gender in inanimate nouns

In Somdal, the inanimate nouns do not have gender, that is, there is no classification for masculine and feminine gender. Thus they are considered as neuter gender. Consider the following examples:

p^hihop 'shoe'
k^həmoi 'bread'
ərun 'cap'
k^hui 'village'
mala 'arrow'

4.7. Number

Somdal personal pronoun differentiates three persons, namely; (i) Singular, (ii) Dual and (iii) Plural. Only nouns show the distinctions, while verbs and adjectives do not have different form for a different numbers. In Somdal, the singular number is unmarked. The dual form is marked by *-ni* while the plural is marked by suffixing *-^hum*.

The three numbers in Somdal are illustrated in the table given below:

Person	Singular	Dual	Plural
First Person	<i>i</i> 'I'	<i>ini</i> 'we two'	<i>it^hum</i> 'we all'
Second Person	<i>nə</i> 'you'	<i>nəni</i> 'you two'	<i>nət^hum</i> 'you all'
Third Person	<i>vai</i> 'he/she'	<i>vaini</i> 'he/she two'	<i>vait^hum</i> 'they all'

Table No.7 : Numbers in Somdal

4.7.1.Singular

Singular number is unmarked. Examples are given below:

ʃim ‘house’

tʰij ‘tree’

kʰai ‘fish’

kʰui ‘village’

seloi ‘buffalo’

4.7.2.Dual

In Somdal, the dual form is marked by suffixing *-ni* to the noun. It is derived from the numeral *-ni* which means ‘two’. Some of the speakers of Somdal used *-ni* especially in first person. Consider the following examples:

a) *ini kʰəni baʃar-lai va-je*

1P(dual) two market-LOC go-RL

‘we two went to market’

b) *nəni connaoni-nei*

2P (dual) sisters-ASP

‘You two are sisters’

c) *vaini kʰəni reo-lei*

3P (dual) two play-ASP

‘They two are playing’

d) *ini məjerra kʰəni li*
 1P (dual) son two COP
 ‘We two have two sons’

e) *nəni lawi kʰəni li*
 2P (dual) daughter two COP
 ‘They two have two daughters’

4.7.3.Plural

In Somdal, the plural suffix found are *-tʰum*, *-mə*, *-piŋ* and *-kʰədla*. The plural suffix *-tʰum* is suffixed especially to personal pronoun only and the plural suffix *-mə* can be added only to the first person personal pronouns.

Addition of *-tʰum* and *-mə* to personal pronouns are shown in the table given below:

<i>i</i>	‘I’	<i>itʰum/imə</i>	‘we’
<i>nə</i>	‘you’	<i>nətʰum</i>	‘you(pl)’
<i>vai</i>	‘he/she’	<i>vaitʰum</i>	‘they’

Table.No.8 : Plurals in Personal Pronouns

According to the table given, the plural suffix *-tʰum* can be added to all the personal pronouns whereas the suffix *-mə* can be added only to the first person personal pronoun instead of *-tʰum*.

Suffix *-piŋ* in Somdal is added to the animate noun, inanimate noun and abstract nouns to form plural. The plural suffix *-piŋ* can be added to any nouns.

Consider the following examples:

nao + *piŋ* > *naopiŋ*
 child PL ‘children’

<i>t^hiro</i>	+	<i>piŋ</i>	>	<i>t^hiropiŋ</i>
tree		PL		‘trees’
<i>lirit</i>	+	<i>piŋ</i>	>	<i>liritpiŋ</i>
book		PL		‘books’
<i>rao</i>	+	<i>piŋ</i>	>	<i>raopiŋ</i>
servant		PL		‘servants’

suffix *-t^hum* can also be added to proper nouns to indicate plurality. Some of the examples are given below:

<i>priti t^hum</i>	‘Preety and her group’
<i>caoba t^hum</i>	‘Chaoba and his group’
<i>faini t^hum</i>	‘Shiny and her group’
<i>tombi t^hum</i>	‘Tombi and his group’
<i>linda t^hum</i>	‘Linda and her group’

Suffix *-kətoŋə* ‘all’ can also be added to animate and inanimate nouns to indicate plurality.

Example of *-kətoŋə* ‘all’(animate and inanimate).

<i>vanu kətoŋə</i>	‘all ducks’
duck all	
<i>wot kətoŋə</i>	‘all works’
work all	
<i>liu kətoŋə</i>	‘all fields’

field all

sa kətoŋə ‘all animals’

animal all

kəp^huŋ kətoŋə ‘all hills’

hill all

4.7.4. Pluralisation of kinship terms

In Somdal the pluralisation of kinship terms is marked by suffixing *-k^hədla* to the kinship terms. Consider the following examples:

naolawi + *k^hədla* > *naolawik^hədla* ‘daughters’

daughter PL

vaine + *k^hədla* > *vainek^hədla* ‘brothers’

brother PL

va + *k^hədla* > *vak^hədla* ‘fathers’

father PL

wi + *k^hədla* > *wik^hədla* ‘mothers’

mother PL

4.8.Numerals

Numeral is a word or a phrase which is used to name a number. All the numerals are adjectives, likewise numerals of Somdal are adjectives and followed the noun. Somdal has a numeral which may be cardinal or ordinal numbers.

Numerals in Somdal can be sub-classified as follows:

They are discussed one by one in the followings:

4.8.1.Cardinals

The numerals 1 to 10 are composed of a numerical stem and a prefix. Some examples of cardinal numerals are as follows:

<i>kəsi</i>	‘one’
<i>k^həni</i>	‘two’
<i>kət^hum</i>	‘three’
<i>pəti</i>	‘four’
<i>p^həŋa</i>	‘five’
<i>t^həruk</i>	‘six’
<i>ʃini</i>	‘seven’
<i>cisət</i>	‘eight’
<i>ciku</i>	‘nine’
<i>t^həra</i>	‘ten’
<i>məkui</i>	‘twenty’
<i>t^humra</i>	‘thirty’
<i>həpəti</i>	‘forty’

<i>həp^həŋa</i>	‘fifty’
<i>hət^həruk</i>	‘sixty’
<i>həfɪni</i>	‘seventy’
<i>həcisət</i>	‘eighty’
<i>həciku</i>	‘ninety’
<i>sak^hə</i>	‘hundred’
<i>t^hij^hk^hə</i>	‘thousand’

In the above examples, numerals 1 and 3 are formed by prefixing *kə-* to its root *si* and *t^hum* and for the numeral 2, the prefix *k^hə-* is added to the root *ni*. And the numerals from 11 to 19 are formed by suffixing its respective numerals to the root *t^həra* which means ‘ten’.

Examples are given below:

<i>t^həra kəsi</i>	‘eleven’
<i>t^həra p^həŋa</i>	‘fifteen’
<i>t^həra t^həruk</i>	‘sixteen’
<i>t^həra fɪni</i>	‘seventeen’
<i>t^həra ciku</i>	‘nineteen’

Likewise, the numerals from 21 to 29 are formed by prefixing *məkui-* ‘twenty’ to its respective numerals i.e., from 1 to 9 and the numerals from 31 to 39 are also formed by prefixing *t^humra-* ‘thirty’ to its respective numerals i.e., from 1 to 9.

Examples are given below:

<i>məkui kəsi</i>	‘twenty one’
-------------------	--------------

<i>məkui pəti</i>	‘twenty four’
<i>məkui t^həruk</i>	‘twenty six’
<i>məkui fini</i>	‘twenty seven’
<i>məkui ciku</i>	‘twenty nine’
<i>t^humra kəsi</i>	‘thirty one’
<i>t^humra k^həni</i>	‘thirty two’
<i>t^humra t^həruk</i>	‘thirty six’
<i>t^humra fini</i>	‘thirty seven’
<i>t^humra cisət</i>	‘thirty eight’

The numerals 40, 50, 60, 70, 80 and 90 are formed by prefixing /hə-/ to the numerals 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. Consider the following examples.

<i>hə-k^həni</i>	‘twenty’
<i>hə-kət^hum</i>	‘thirty’
<i>hə-pəti</i>	‘forty’
<i>hə-p^həŋa</i>	‘fifty’
<i>hə-t^həruk</i>	‘sixty’
<i>hə-fini</i>	‘seventy’
<i>hə-cisət</i>	‘eighty’
<i>hə-ciku</i>	‘ninety’

The numerals from 41 to 49, 51 to 59, 61 to 69, 71 to 79, 81 to 89 and 91 to 99 are formed by prefixing /hə-/ and suffixing /-pa/ to the root (numeral) 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9, followed by numeral 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9.

Examples are given below:

<i>həpətipa pəti</i>	‘forty four’
<i>həpətipa ciku</i>	‘forty nine’
<i>həp^həŋapa k^həni</i>	‘fifty two’
<i>həp^həŋapa t^həruk</i>	‘fifty six’
<i>hət^hərukpa kəsi</i>	‘sixty one’
<i>hət^hərupa kət^hum</i>	‘sixty three’
<i>həfinipa k^həni</i>	‘seventy two’
<i>həfinipa cisət</i>	‘seventy eight’
<i>həcisətpa kəsi</i>	‘eighty one’
<i>həcisətpa pəti</i>	‘eighty four’
<i>həcikupa k^həni</i>	‘ninety two’
<i>həcikupa ciku</i>	‘ninety nine’

Some examples of numerals from 100 found in Somdal are as follows:

<i>fakə</i>	‘hundred’
<i>fakəpa kəsi</i>	‘hundred and one’
<i>faciku</i>	‘nine hundred’
<i>facikupa ciku</i>	‘nine hundred and nine’
<i>t^hinj^hə</i>	‘one thousand’
<i>t^hinj^həfa p^həŋa</i>	‘one thousand five hundred’
<i>t^hinj^hciku</i>	‘nine thousand’

<i>tʰiŋkʰəfa cikupa kəsi</i>	‘one thousand nine hundred one’
<i>lak</i>	‘lakh’

4.8.2.Ordinal

In Somdal, ordinal numerals are expressed by adding the prefix /kə-/ to the cardinal numbers, except in the case of first, i.e. *kʰərə*. Examples are given below:

<i>kʰərə</i>	‘first’
<i>kəkʰəni</i>	‘second’
<i>kəkətʰum</i>	‘third’
<i>kəpəti</i>	‘fourth’
<i>kəpʰəŋa</i>	‘fifth’
<i>kətʰəruk</i>	‘sixth’
<i>kəfiŋi</i>	‘seventh’
<i>kəcisət</i>	‘eighth’
<i>kəciku</i>	‘ninth’
<i>kətʰəra</i>	‘tenth’

4.8.3.Multiplicatives

Multiplicative numeral in Somdal can be expressed by suffixing /-fi/ at the end of the cardinal forms of the numerals except in the case of ‘once’, it is not so. Examples:

<i>kəsikkʰəfi</i>	‘once’
<i>kʰənifi</i>	‘twice’
<i>kətʰumfi</i>	‘thrice’

4.8.4. Aggregative

Aggregative numeral is formed suffixing /-kətoŋa/ ‘all’ to the basic cardinal.

Examples:

<i>ciku kətoŋa</i> nine all	‘all the nine’
<i>vajur kətoŋa</i> bird all	‘all the birds’
<i>əwi əva kətoŋa</i> parents all	‘all the parents’

4.8.5. Approximate

Approximate numerals in Somdal are formed by suffixing the free morpheme /-suk^hə/ which means ‘about’ to the basic cardinal. Examples are given below:

<i>t^humra suk^hə</i>	‘about thirty’
<i>sak^hə suk^hə</i>	‘about hundred’
<i>t^həra p^həŋa suk^hə</i>	‘about fifteen’

4.8.6 Fractional

Some of the examples of fractional numerals found are as follows:

<i>təŋk^hai</i>	‘half’
<i>pətilai kəsik^hə</i>	‘one-fourth’
<i>t^həralai kəsik^hə</i>	‘one-tenth’

4.8.7. Indefinite

Some examples of indefinite numerals found in Somdal are as follows:

<i>kətenao</i>	‘little’
<i>kəcuŋkʰə</i>	‘many’
<i>kʰor</i>	‘pile’

4.8.8. Distributive

Distributive numerals are formed by suffixing /-rip/ meaning ‘each’ to cardinal numerals. Examples are given below:

<i>kəsi rip</i>	‘one each’
<i>pəti rip</i>	‘four each’
<i>tʰəra rip</i>	‘ten each’

4.8.9 Restrictive

Restrictive numerals are formed by prefixing /-kəssə/ meaning ‘only’ to the cardinals, except in the case of ‘only one’, i.e. the first one, the restricted form is used by adding the suffix /-kʰə/.

Examples:

<i>kəsik kʰə</i>	‘only one’
<i>pʰəŋa kəssə</i>	‘only five’
<i>ciku kəssə</i>	‘only nine’

4.9. Measurements

There are several types of traditional measurements found in Somdal. Some of them which are used till today are as follows:

4.9.1.Space Measurement

They are the measurements of length, distance etc. In the below given examples, /*k^hə*/ means ‘one’ Examples are given below:

p^hikar k^hə ‘one footstep’

k^hap k^hə ‘one span’

p^hit k^hə ‘one feet’

4.9.2.Salt Measurement

They are the measurements of things in the form of powder with index finger and thumb and likewise. Examples:

Sup k^hə ‘one pinch’

Pər k^hə ‘one fistful’

4.9.3.Liquid Measurement

Some of the examples of liquid measurement found in Somdal are as follows:

litər kəsik^hə ‘one litre’

litər p^həŋa ‘five litres’

litər ciku ‘nine litres’

4.9.4.Grain Measurement

Some of the examples of grain measurement found in Somdal are as follows:

pansum k^hə ‘one fistful’

luk k^hə ‘one basket’

4.9.5. Thickness Measurement

Some of the examples of thickness measurement found in Somdal are as follows:

inci k^hə ‘one inch’

inci kəsik^hə mək^hai ‘one and half inch’

4.10. Classifiers in Somdal:

In Somdal, classifiers are rarely found, one example is shown below:

k^hə: It indicates that the object is long and solid.

<i>t^hiŋ</i>	<i>kəsi</i>	<i>k^hə</i>	‘one stick’
wood	one	cls	

4.11. Quantifiers:

Some of the quantifiers found in Somdal are as follows:

kətoŋa ‘all’

kətenao ‘little’

kəcuŋk^hə ‘many’

kai k^hə ‘some part of’

4.12. Case

Case is a “grammatical category used in the analysis of word classes to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence through such contrasts as nominative, accusative etc.” (Crystal, 1985). In the words of Hockett (1985) says “Cases are inflected

forms of nouns which fit them for participation in key construction relative to verb”. Somdal has eight case markers. They are discussed below:

4.12.1. Nominative /-nə/

Nominative marker is to mark the subject of the sentence. It is to differentiate the agent from the object of the sentence.

Examples:

<i>i-nə</i>	(1p)-NOM
<i>nə-nə</i>	(2p)-NOM
<i>vai-nə</i>	(3p)-NOM
<i>ʃjam-nə</i>	shyam-NOM
<i>tom-nə</i>	Tom-NOM
<i>wi-nə</i>	mother-NOM

Sentential examples:

vai-nə i-də vi-jei
 3P-NOM 1P(sg)-DAT feed-ASP
 ‘She feeds me’

vai-nə liŋ kʰənə i-nə pəm-me
 3P-NOM stands and IP-NOM sit-ASP
 ‘He stands and I sit’

vai-nə vanao-ci-da pʰi-tei

3P-NOM bird-DEM-LOC hit-ASP

‘He hits the bird’

hui-ci-nə *laŋeo-da* *fɯ-i*
dog-DEM-NOM cat-LOC bark-ASP

‘The dog barks at the cat’

4.12.2. Accusative /-tə/

Accusative case is used to mark the object of a verb. It is expressed by adding the suffix /-tə/ to the object (noun or pronoun) of a sentence. Examples are given below:

<i>itə</i>	(1p)-ACC
<i>nətə</i>	(2p)-ACC
<i>vaitə</i>	(3p)-ACC
<i>p^hiliptə</i>	Philip-ACC
<i>setə</i>	cow-ACC
<i>k^huitə</i>	village-ACC
<i>liritfimtə</i>	school-ACC

[Noun/pronoun]+tə [noun/pronoun]-ACC

i-nə *saina-tə* *hən-ŋai*
1P-NOM Saina-ACC like-ASP

‘I like Saina’

i-nə *vai-tə* *con-ne*
IP-NOM her-ACC help-ASP

‘I help her’

tomba-nə *hari-tə* *con-ne*
person-NOM person-ACC help-ASP

‘Tomba helps Hari’

i-nə *se-tə* *fao-we*
1P-NOM cow-ACC beat-ASP

‘I beat the cow’

i-nə *vai-tə* *fitkə-sai*
1P-NOM 3P-ACC trust-ASP

‘I trust him’

4.12.3. Genitive */-nao/*

Somdal has one genitive marker- */-nao/*. The basic function of the genitive is to indicate the relationship between two substantives. It is expressed by

adding case ending */-nao/* to the object of a sentence. The case ending */-nao/* is used to indicate the ownership/possessor of an object.

Examples:

<i>/inao/</i>	(1p)-GEN (mine)
<i>/inao p^hihop/</i>	‘my shoe’
<i>/nənao/</i>	(2p)-GEN (yours)
<i>/nənao məli/</i>	‘your tongue’
<i>/vainao/</i>	(3p)-GEN (his/hers)
<i>/vainao pi/</i>	‘her earring’
<i>/ʃinminao kəcon/</i>	‘Shinmi’s cloth’
<i>/hit^hunao/</i>	‘whose’
<i>/t^hucinao/</i>	‘for what’

Sentential examples:

1) *hi i-nao liu-nei*
DEM IP-GEN field-ASP

‘This is my field’

2) *paitu ci Jon-nao-nei*
bag DEM person-GEN-ASP

‘That bag belongs to John’

3) *hi i-nao ʃim-nei*

DEM 1P-GEN house-ASP

‘This is my house’

4) *nə-nao* *majera-hai* *hi*

2P-GEN son-COP LOC

‘Your son is here’.

5) *i-nao* *lawi* *kəsik^hə* *li*

1P-GEN daughter one COP

‘I have one daughter’

4.12.4. Locative */-lai/*

In Somdal locative is marked by the suffix */-lai/* and it is added to nouns. It is used to indicate in different senses as spatial orientation of an action or a state and spatial end point of a direction or motion. Examples are given below:

/tuŋlai/ on-LOC

/luŋlai/ inside-LOC

/əyarlai/ outside-LOC

/ədiŋlai/ downside-LOC

/əraplai/ side-LOC

/t^hanulai/ behind-LOC

/kop^helai/ near-LOC

/ak^hoklai/ above-LOC

<i>/fɪmlai/</i>	house-LOC
<i>/kalai/</i>	‘at the room’
<i>/liritfɪmlai/</i>	‘at school’
<i>/iwilai/</i>	‘to my mother’s
<i>/delhilai/</i>	‘at delhi’

Sentential examples:

1) <i>wilep-ci</i>	<i>teibəl</i>	<i>tuŋ-lai</i>	<i>li</i>
knife-DEM	table	on-LOC	RL

‘The knife is on the table’

2) <i>vai</i>	<i>vai-yi</i>	<i>sətnao-yi</i>	<i>fɪm-lai</i>	<i>vai</i>
3P	his-GEN	friend-GEN	house-LOC	RL

‘He went to his friend’s house’

3) <i>i-nao</i>	<i>lawi</i>	<i>lahon-lai</i>	<i>li</i>
1P-GEN	daughter	garden-LOC	ASP

‘My daughter is in the garden’

4) <i>i-nao</i>	<i>wi</i>	<i>liu-lai</i>	<i>li</i>
1P-GEN	mother	field-LOC	ASP

‘My daughter is in the field’

4.12.5. Instrumental /-tə/ and /-də/

In Somdal, Instrumental case is indicated by the suffix /-tə/ and /-də/ which are added only to the object. The case of the inanimate force or object casually involve in the action or state identified by the verb. Only inanimate objects can be used for instruments. The primary function of this marker is to indicate the instrument that the agent uses while carrying out an activity. It is expressed by the addition of case ending /-tə/ and /-də/ to the object.

Examples:

<i>/tədlui-də/</i>	water-INST	‘by water’
<i>/t^hiŋ-də/</i>	stick-INST	‘with stick’
<i>/lasinao-də/</i>	knife-INST	‘with knife’
<i>/hui-tə/</i>	dog-INST	‘by the dog’
<i>/p^hi-də/</i>	foot-INST	‘by foot’
<i>/p^hikari-tə/</i>	cycle-INST	‘by cycle’
<i>/əfəm-də/</i>	lid-INST	‘with lid’

Sentential Examples:

tədlui-də *p^heo-lou*
 water-INST wash-IMP
 ‘Wash with water’

vai *p^hi-də* *ra-je*
 3P foot-INST come-ASP
 ‘He came by foot’

vai-nə seloi-ci t^hiŋ-də fao-we

3P-NOM buffalo-DEM stick-INST beat-ASP

‘He beats the buffalo with the stick’

vai p^hikari-tə fim dlei-je

3P cycle-INST house go-RL

‘She went home by cycle’

vai-nə həm-ci əfəm-də fəm-mei

3P-NOM pot-DEM lid-INST cover-ASP

‘He cover the pot with lid’

4.12.6. Ablative /-laidə/ or /-laitə/

The ablative case marker in Somdal are /-laidə/ or /-laitə/. It defines separation from the source. The case suffixes are added to the object to express separation, expulsion and direction of movement from one to another. Examples are given below:

<i>/i-laitə/</i>	(1P)-LOC-Abl	‘from me’
<i>/nə-laitə/</i>	(2P)-LOC-Abl	‘from you’
<i>/vai-laitə/</i>	(3P)-LOC-Abl	‘from him/her’
<i>/sita-laitə/</i>	sita-LOC-Abl	‘from sita’
<i>/liu-laidə/</i>	liu-LOC-Abl	‘from field’
<i>/t^hiŋ-laidə/</i>	t ^h iŋ-LOC-Abl	‘from wood’

/əyar-laitə/	əyar-LOC-Abl	‘from outside’
/ədiŋ-laitə/	ədiŋ-LOC-Abl	‘from below’
/ci-laitə/	ci-LOC-Abl	‘from there’
/hi-laitə/	hi-LOC-Abl	‘from here’
/kai-laitə/	kai-LOC-Abl	‘from where’

Sentential Example:

1) *i kohima laitə ra-jei*

1P Kohima ABL come-ASP

‘I came from Kohima’

2) *cini-hi ətu laitə sem-mei*

sugar-DEM sugarcane ABL make-ASP

‘Sugar is made from sugarcane’

3) *nə liritfim laitə ra-jei*

2P school ABL come-RL

‘You came from school’

4.12.7. Associative /-k^hənə/

The associative case marker in Somdal is the suffix /-k^hənə/. It is used to denote that the action has been performed in association with one another.

Examples:

a) *meri k^hənə vai-wi*

meri ASS 3P-mother

‘Mary and her mother’

b) *i-va* *kʰənə* *i-wi*

(1P)-father ASS 1P-mother

‘My father and my mother’

a) *i-pan* *kʰənə* *i-mik*

(1P)-hand ASS 1P-eye

‘My hand and my eye’

b) *krisna* *kʰənə* *vai-lirit*

krisna ASS 3P-book

‘Krishna and his book’

c) *tədlui* *kʰənə* *kʰui*

water ASS rum

‘Water and rum’

d) *i-wi* *kʰənə* *va-i*

1P(sg)-mother ASS go-RL

‘I went with my mother’

3) *nə-nə* *i-də* *k^hoit^hui* *mi-je*
 2P-NOM 1P-DAT honey give-RL

‘You gave me honey’

4) *i-nə* *vai-lai* *va-je*
 1P-NOM 3P-DAT go-ASP

‘I go to him’

i-wi-nə *i-də* *k^hai* *kəsik^hə* *mi-je*
 1P-mother-NOM 1P-DAT fish one give-ASP

‘My mother gave me a fish’

4.12.9. Benefactive case

The case ending */-nao/* is used to denote the beneficiary of an object.

/i-nao/ (1P)-GEN (for me)

/nə-nao/ (2P)-GEN (for you)

/vai-nao/ (3P)-GEN (for him/her)

Sentential example:

1) *hi* *t^hij* *vai-nao-nei*

DEM wood 3P-BEN-ASP

‘This wood is for him’

2) *hi lirit-ci tombi-nao-nei*

DEM book-DEM tombi-BEN-ASP

‘This book is for Tombi’

4.13. Adjectives

An Adjective is a class of word which describes or qualifies a noun. Adjective follows the noun they qualify. Adjectives undergo no changes for gender, number and person and they follow the noun in a noun phrase or any other grammatical construction. They specify value (good, bad); age (old, new); human propensity (happy, sad, angry); physical, properties (light, sweet, bitter, ugly), dimension (small, big, long), speed (fast, slow), numerals (first, second), color (white, black etc) and so on are described by common nouns adjectively.

The following examples show adjectives as modifier of noun.

wi kateonao

woman small

‘Small woman’

vanao mætek

bird green

‘Green bird’

lawi t^hao

girl fat

‘Fat girl’

wən cəɾ

flower white

‘White flower’

Numeral adjectives follow the noun they qualify.

Examples:

a. *jaiŋəŋ wən kəsi*

yellow flower one

‘One yellow flower’

b. *əlu kətionaŋ kəsi*

stone small one

‘One small stone’

4.13.1.Kinds of Adjectives

Adjectives in Somdal can be classified into the following kinds:

1. Adjective of Quality.
2. Adjective of Quantity
3. Adjective of Taste
4. Adjective of Colour
5. Adjective of Dimension
6. Adjective of Demonstration
7. Adjective of Comparison

4.13.1.1 Adjective of Quality

Adjective of quality describes the quality of nouns shown below:

seloi-va

‘male buffalo’

buffalo-male

kəhər-nao 'married person'

married-person

mi-kəciuwa 'tall man'

man-tall

mə-kəp^ha-lanao 'bad girl'

NEG-good-girl

kəp^ha məjernaο 'good boy'

good boy

4.13.1.2 Adjective Quantity

Adjective of quantity described the quantity of the noun it modifies:

Some examples of adjective of quantity found in Somdal are given below:

lirit kətoŋa 'all books'

book all

t^hiŋ kəcuŋk^hə 'many trees'

tree many

k^hui kətenaο 'little wine'

wine little

tʰəmi miwui 'more intelligent'

more intelligent

4.13.1.3 Adjective of Taste

Adjective of taste described the taste the noun it modifies. Some examples of adjective of taste found in Somdal are as follows:

nəmfiŋai 'pungent'

fiŋnai 'sweet'

kʰanai 'bitter'

tʰurnai 'sour'

jumwui 'tasty'

4.13.1.4. Adjective of Colour

Adjective of colour describes the colour of the noun it modifies:

kʰəməŋa wən 'blue flower'

blue flower

tər kʰatʰi hə 'red grape'

grape red

seko i kəcera 'white cat'

cat white

t^hini k^hamatekə ‘green leaf’
leaf green

confi kədlɪk ‘black umbrella’
umbrella black

p^hihop jaiŋəŋməcu ‘yellow shoe’
shoe yellow

4.13.1.5. Adjective of Dimension

Adjective of dimension describes the size of the noun it modifies:

Some examples of adjective of dimension found in Somdal are as follows:

luk kətoka ‘big basket’
basket big

k^horum veŋwui ‘light slipper’
slipper light

pamk^ho kətiowui ‘small bench’
bench small

əlu ritwui ‘heavy stone’
stone heavy

4.13.1.6 Adjective of Demonstration

Somdal has two demonstratives, proximate and remote depending on whether the listener near or far away from the speaker. The demonstrative pronouns are also added as adjectives to modify nouns. Some examples of demonstrative pronoun are as follows:

1) *hui* *hi*
dog DEM
‘This dog’

2) *mi-piŋ* *hi*
man-PL DEM
‘These men’

3) *se* *ci*
cow DEM
‘That cow’

4) *kəp^hu-piŋ* *ci*
hill-PL DEM
‘Those hills’

4.13.1.7 Adjective of comparison

The degrees of comparison are comparable with the adjective in that they modify a noun. There are three degrees of comparison: a) Positive b) Comparative c) Superlative.

Positive is not overtly marked in Somdal for example:

ə^hao ‘fat’

<i>hork^hui</i>	‘bright’
<i>nimk^hui</i>	‘wet’
<i>mik^hui</i>	‘dark’
<i>kəhor</i>	‘light’

Adjective of Comparison in Somdal is formed as shown below:

<i>kəsaŋ</i>	long
<i>saŋk^həme</i>	longer

<i>kəsa</i>	hot
<i>sak^həme</i>	hotter

<i>məkəp^ha</i>	bad
<i>məkəp^hame</i>	worse

The superlative degree is used when something is compared with the rest of the thing of the same kind.

Examples:

<i>tokmit^hoiwui</i>	big
<i>tokmikət^hoiya</i>	biggest

<i>suimkət^hoiwui</i>	short
<i>suimkət^hoiya</i>	shortest

<i>niumit^hoiwui</i>	young
<i>niumikət^hoiya</i>	youngest

4.14. Adverb

An adverb is a lexical category whose members are usually grammatical adjuncts of a verb. Most typically adverbs are expressed by affixes which are added to the roots and occurring in appropriate sentential constructions.

Adverbs in Somdal are formed by

- a) suffixation of adverbial particles to roots
- b) reduplication of the roots of suffixes (particles) or by compounding the suffixes.

4.14.1. Suffixation of Adverbial Particles

There are several adverbial particles which are suffixable to particular types of roots. The following are the most productive particles in the dialect, Somdal.

- i) */-kə/* : This is the most productive adverbializer which can be suffixed to stative verb, as in

rit-kə
heavy-ADV
'Heavily'

- ii) */-tə/*: This is also the most productive adverbializer which can be suffixed to any root, as in

t^hak-tə *ra-lou*
quick-ADV come-IMP
'Come fast'

- iii) */-də/*: This instrumental marker is suffixed to modified stems or nominal roots.

Example:

tədlui-də *p^heo-lou*
leg-INST go-IMP
'walk with leg'

- iv) */-taitə/*: This conjunctive particles meaning 'and' or 'and then' can be suffixed to any root.

Example:

<i>vai</i>	<i>kolkata</i>	<i>vari-je</i>	<i>taitə</i>	<i>delhi</i>	<i>vanao-wei</i>
3P	kolkata	go-RL	and (then)	Delhi	go-RL

‘He went to Kolkata and (then) to Delhi’

v) */-lik^hə/*: This conjunctive particles meaning ‘while’ can be added to any root.

Example:

<i>lum-lik^hə</i>	<i>mo-lou</i>
warm-while	drink-IMP

‘Drink while its warm’

vi) */-vak/*: This direction marker indicates oppositeness of direction.

Example:

<i>ci-vak</i>	<i>va-lou</i>
that-DIR	go-IMP

‘Go that side’

vii) */-fu/*: This direction or location marker can be added to any nominal stem and it does not indicate any oppositeness.

Example:

vai-vak-fu

3P-DIR-LOC

‘Towards him’

viii) */-ləm/*: This is a temporal direction/location marker. It occurs in varied types of constructions.

Example:

ə^hor-ləm

morning-DIR

‘in the morning’

əjɪŋ-ləm

evening-DIR

‘in the evening’

ix) */-fon/*, */-t^hai/*: These particles indicate ‘complete time’ and ‘night time’ respectively.

Example:

i əja pa-t^hai dlei

1P night read-whole IRL

‘I will read the whole night’

i kəcon su-fon dlei

1P cloth wash-whole (with day) IRL

‘I will wash the whole day’

x) */-fon/*: This suffix indicates habitual of unchanging action or state.

Example:

meri-va hərsa sai-jai fon-nei

Mary-NOM chicken eat-NMZ always-RL

‘Mary always like to eat chicken’

xi) */-lai/*: This suffix indicates repetition of an action, as in

mi-lai-lou

give-again-IMP
'Give again'

pa-lai-lou
read-again-IMP
'Read again'

xii) /-laiʃit/: It indicates the meaning 'all over again' as in

sa-laiʃit-lou
do-again-IMP
'do all over again from the beginning'

mo-laiʃit-lou
drink-again-IMP
'drink all over again from the beginning'

xiii) /-ser/: Again /-ser/ can only indicate the meaning 'all' as in the example

pi-ser-lou
sleep-all-IMP
'Sleep all'

va-ser-lou
Go-all-IMP
'Go all'

xiv) /-p^halu/: It is an emphatic particle which occurs in negative construction and denotes the meaning 'not at all'.

Example:

i *mə-vao* *p^halu* *mi-dlei*
1p NEG-break at all NEG-IRL
'I will not break at all'

xvi) /-mə/: This means ‘just as expected’.

Example:

toni ra-ra-sa-mə-dlei
person come-expect-IRL
‘Tony will come as expected (don’t worry)’

xvii) /-liucamp/: It indicates the meaning ‘just now’.

Example:

meri liu-camp ra-mei
person now-just come-RL
‘Mary came just now’

xviii) /-la/: These indicate the meaning ‘also’ and ‘too’ as in

i-la va-ŋai-je
1P-also go-want-IRL
‘I also want to go’

vai-hi p^ha-la-kai
3P-DEM good-too-RL
‘He was too good’

xix) /-mə/: This particle is used in forming negative adverbials.

Examples:

mə-ti-k^hə faiwi-nei
NEG-know-ADV do-RL
‘(I) did (it) unknowingly’

Some complex adverbials are formed by combining two or more grammatical morphemes or roots. These types of morphemes or roots are hard to identify their internal structure is hard to comprehend. Some of the complex adverbials found in Somdal are given below:

k^hivanŋ ‘why’

<i>kai</i>	‘where’
<i>kədlan</i>	‘when’

4.14.2.Reduplication of Adverb

Reduplication is productive process for forming adverbials in Somdal. In the process of reduplication, the root or affix is reduplicated completely. Examples are given below:

liu-liu

now-now

‘just now’

kum-kum

year-year

‘Yearly’

4.14.3.Kinds of Adverb

In Somdal, adverbs can be classified into eight kinds on the basis of their meaning. They are given as: (i) Adverbs of Manner (ii) Adverbs of Place (iii) Adverb of Time (iv) Adverbs of Order (v) Adverbs of Degree and (vi) Adverbs of Number (vii) Adverbs of Affirmation and (viii) Interrogative Adverb. They are illustrated one by one below with examples.

4.14.3.1.Adverb of Manner

Adverbs of manner denote how an action is performed or how an event takes place. These are derived from adjectival (verbal) roots through the suffixes /-kə/

.Examples:

<i>vai</i>	<i>tʰaklak-kə</i>	<i>ra-je</i>
3P	quick-ADV	come-RL

‘He came quickly’

<i>vai</i>	<i>nəluvat-kə</i>	<i>ra-je</i>
3P	angry-ADV	come-RL

‘She came angrily’

4.14.3.2. Adverb of Place

The adverb of place /hi/ ‘here’ and /ci/ ‘there’ etc are used in this dialect.

Examples:

hai-hi	ra-lou
DEM-LOC	COME-ASP

‘Come here’

hai-ci	va-lou
DEM-LOC	go-ASP

‘Go there’

4.14.3.3. Adverb of Time

The Adverb of Time references in Somdal are *liucu* ‘today’, *ifa^hi* ‘yesterday’, *k^hənama* ‘tomorrow’, etc. Sometimes, the locative suffix /-lai/ can also be suffixed to the hours, names of days, months and years to derive adverbs denoting time. They also can function as temporal adverbs.

Examples:

<i>vai</i>	<i>əcu</i>	<i>wot</i>	<i>sa-dlei</i>
3P	today	work	do-IRL

‘He will work today’

<i>vai</i>	<i>pu</i>	<i>p^həŋa-lai</i>	<i>ra-dlei</i>
3P	time	five-LOC	come-IRL

‘he will come at five’o’clock’

Temporal adverbs can be classified into three types. They are (a) point of time, (b) Extent or duration of the event or the state and (c) Goal or source of a given event or state.

a) Point of time

In this dialect, the point of time of a given event or state can be indicated by the suffixation of locative suffix */-lai/*

Example:

<i>i-t^hum</i>	<i>wot</i>	<i>pu</i>	<i>p^həŋa-lai</i>	<i>kup-dlei</i>
1P-PL	work	o'clock	five-LOC	finish-IRL

‘We will finish our work at five o’clock’

b) Extent or Duration

The temporal adverbs can indicate extent or duration of the event or state.

Example:

<i>i-nə</i>	<i>pu</i>	<i>k^həni</i>	<i>ra-je</i>
1P-NOM	time	two	wait-RL

‘I waited for two hours’

<i>i</i>	<i>silcər-laitə</i>	<i>ra-je</i>
1P	silchar-ABL	come-RL

‘He comes from Silchar’

c) Goal or Source

Goal or source is denoted by suffixes *laitə* ‘since’ and *taitəkə* ‘upto’ can function as a temporal adverb indicating goal or source of the event or state.

i-nə pu p^həŋa taitəkə ka-lai ra-dlei
 1P-NOM o'clock five upto room-LOC wait-IRL

'I will wait upto five o'clock in the room'

i-nə pu t^həruk laitə ka-lai ra-jei
 1P-NOM o'clock six since room-LOC wait-RL

'I waited in the room since six o'clock'.

4.14.3.4. Adverbs of Order

Adverb of order is derived from the ordinal numbers.

vai kək^həne-lai ra-je
 3P second-LOC come-ASP

'He comes in the second'

sila kəfine-lai ra-je
 sila seventh-LOC come-ASP

'Sila comes in the seventh'

4.14.3.5. Adverbs of Degree

Adverb of degree is denoted by suffixing *-nai* and *-lak* to adjectives.

rita niu-nai-je
 person young-DEG-ASP

'Rita is too young'

vai *niu-lak-kai*
 3P young-DEG-ASP
 ‘He is very young’

4.14.3.6. Adverb of Number

Adverb of number is denoted by the number of times in which action is performed. They are formed by suffixing *-fi* to the cardinal numbers.

Examples:

kəsikk^həfi ‘once’
k^hənifi ‘twice’
kət^humfi ‘thrice’
pətifi ‘four times’

4.14.3.7. Interrogative Adverb

The words *kai* ‘where’, *kədlan* ‘when’, *k^hivan* ‘why’ denote adverb of place, adverb of time and adverb of reason respectively. But, they have been used to ask question, so they are interrogative adverb.

Examples:

nə *kədlan* *t^hiu-kə*
 2P when wake-Q.MK

‘When do you wake up?’

nə kai pəm-kə
 2P where live-Q.MK

‘Where do you live?’

nə kʰivan̩ ra-kə
 2P why come-Q.MK

‘Why do you come?’

4.14.3.8. Adverb of Affirmation

Adverb of affirmation is formed by the words like *məfoilar* ‘sure’ and *huito* ‘exact’ etc.

Examples:

vai mə-foi-lar mə-ra-dlei
 3P NEG-sure-ADV NEG-come-IRL

‘He will not come surely’

vai huito-ne tʰe-je
 3p exact-ADV know-RL

‘He knows exactly’

4.15.Pronoun

Pronoun forms are distinct class of substantives. It has been used in grammatical classifications of words to refer to a closed set of lexical items that can be substitute for noun or noun phrase. In Somdal case suffixes can be added to pronouns. In this language it is divided into several distinct classes, including personal pronouns, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, indefinite and interrogative pronouns. All these pronouns takes case suffixes but gender and number are not marked.

4.15.1.Personal Pronouns:

The first person singular pronoun is- *i* ‘I’ and opposite of it is *-it^hum* or *imə* ‘we’. Where *imə* can only be used first person plural in place of *it^hum*. There is no question of inclusive or exclusive in the first person plural form. There is also dual form *-ini* (*i*-1st person pronominal, *ni* - ‘two’). It has also objective singular form *i-lai* ‘to me’, *i-laitə* or *i-laidə* ‘from me’. The second personal pronouns are *nə* ‘you’ (singular), *nət^hum* ‘you’ (plural) and the dual form *nəni* ‘you two’ (*nə* – 2nd person pronominal and *ni* -‘two’).

The third personal pronouns are *vai* ‘he/she’ and *vait^hum* ‘they’, dual form is *vaini* (*vai*-3rd person pronominal, *ni*- ‘two’); the objective singular is *vai-lai* ‘to him’ and *vai-laitə* or *vai-laidə* which means ‘from him’. The plurality is expressed through suffixation of *-t^hum/* to the first, second and third personal pronouns. Various forms of pronouns are shown in the table given below:

	Singular	Dual	Plural	Object	Honorific
First Person	<i>i</i> ‘I’	<i>ini</i> ‘we two’	<i>it^hum/imə</i> ‘we’	<i>i-lai</i> ‘to me’ - <i>ilaitə/ilaidə</i> ‘from me’	-
Second Person	<i>nə</i> ‘you’	<i>nəni</i> ‘you two’	<i>nət^hum</i> ‘you’	<i>nə-lai</i> ‘to you’ <i>nə-laitə/nə-laidə</i> ‘from you’	-
Third Person	<i>vai</i> ‘he/she’	<i>vaini</i> ‘they two’	<i>vait^hum</i> ‘they’	<i>vai-lai</i> ‘to him/her’ <i>vai-laitə/vai-laidə</i> ‘from him/her’	-

Table no. 9 : Various Forms of Pronoun in Somdal.

4.15.2. Possessive Pronoun:

Possessive Pronoun is formed by suffixation of genitive suffix /-*nao*/ to the first, second and third personal pronouns. Examples are given below in the table

PERSON	Number		
	Singular possessive	Dual possessive	Plural possessive
1 st PERSON	<i>inao</i> 'mine'	<i>ininao</i> 'ours'	<i>it^humnao</i> 'ours'
2 nd PERSON	<i>nəni</i> 'yours'	<i>nəninao</i> 'yours'	<i>nət^humnao</i> 'yours'
3 rd PERSON	<i>vainao</i> 'his/her'	<i>vaininao</i> 'theirs'	<i>vait^humnao</i> 'theirs'

Table No.10. : Various Forms of Possessive Pronoun in Somdal

Some examples of possessive pronoun found in Somdal are as follows:

1) *hi i-nao paitu-nei*

DEM IP(sg)-POSS bag-ASP

'This is my bag'

2) *hi ini-nao fim-nei*

DEM 1P(dual)-POSS house-ASP

'This is our (dual) house'

4.15.3. Reflexive Pronoun:

In Somdal, the reflexive meaning is expressed by the adverbialized stem - *k^həlatkə* ‘reversely’. It may be noted that a reflexive pronoun without a reflexive verb cannot indicate the reflexive meaning in the sentence. Their morphological structures are given below:

	Singular	Plural
1P	<i>i-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>i-t^hum-k^həlatkə</i>
	1P-REF	1P-PL-REF
	‘myself’	‘ourselves’
2P	<i>nə-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>nə-t^hum-k^həlatkə</i>
	2P-REF	2P-PL-REF
	‘yourself’	‘yourselves’
3P	<i>vai-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>vai-k^həlatkə</i>
	3P-REF	3P-PL-REF
	‘himself/herself’	‘themselves’

It may be noted that only a reflexive pronoun with a reflexive verb cannot indicate the reflexive meaning in a sentence.

Examples are given below:

1) <i>i-k^həlatkə</i>	<i>mətiu-we</i>
IP(sg)-REF	speak-ASP
‘I speak myself’	

2) *nə-k^hələtəkə* *rai-je*
 2P(sg)-REF come-ASP

‘You came yourself’

3) *vai-k^hələtəkə* *lahon-lai* *va-je*
 3P-REF kitchen garden-LOC go-RL

‘She herself went to kitchen garden’

4.15.4. Demonstrative Pronoun:

In Somdal there is no article -definite or indefinite, but has determiner /hi/, which denote the object or person being spoken of. Base on the determiner there are three pronouns. They are – /hi/ (this), /hi/ (it is) and /ci/ (that). /hi/ (this) denotes the objects or person in question whereas /hi/ (it is) and /ci/ (that) are the pronouns which refer to the proximity or distant of an object. Consider the following examples:

hi *i-nao* *ka-nei*
 DEM IP(sg)-GEN room-ASP

‘This is my room.’

hi *nə-nao* *ʃim-nei*
 DEM 2P(sg)-GEN house-ASP

‘It is your house.’

ci *vai* *lahon-nei*

DEM 3P(sg) garden-ASP

‘That is his garden.’

From the above examples, we can conclude that the pronoun occurs together with the determiner.

When the locative case marker is suffixed to these pronouns an adverb is formed.

Examples:

ci + *lai* > *cilai* ‘there’

that LOC

hi + *lai* > *hilai* ‘here’

this LOC

hi + *vak* > *hivak* ‘this side’

this side

ci + *vak* > *civak* ‘that side’

that side

4.15.5. Indefinite Pronoun:

Indefinite pronouns do not mark or point out any particular person or thing. As a rule the pronouns of this class are also inflected for all the cases but not for number. The following are the indefinite pronouns in Somdal.

Examples:

k^hik^hə + *mə-nimnei* > *k^hik^həmənimnei* ‘nothing’

one NEG-exactly

k^hi k^hə + *mə-limnei* > *k^hi k^hə məlimnei* ‘none’

one NEG-exactly

kətoŋ + *nimnei* > *kətoŋnimnei* ‘everything’

all exactly

These two words can be treated as negative polarity pronoun because they occur only in negative environment. One example from sentence is given below:

vai *i-tə* *k^hi-k^hə* *mə-nim-nei*
3P 1P-DAT what-ONE NEG-mind-COP

‘He is nothing to me.’

vai *i-vaŋ* *kətoŋ-nim-nei*
3p 1p-DAT all-mind-COP

‘She is everything to me.’

4.15.6. Interrogative Pronoun:

Interrogative pronouns in Somdal are *t^hu* ‘who’, *kəci* ‘which’ and *k^hi* ‘what’ consisting of question marker *-kə*. Consider the following examples:

vai-ji *dij^hkum* *kəjakk^hə-kə*
3P(sg)-GEN age how much-Q.MK

‘What is her age?’

<i>nə</i>	<i>kətʰəwi</i>	<i>la</i>	<i>nica-kə</i>
2P(sg)	which	song	like-Q.MK

‘Which song do you like?’

<i>tʰu-nə</i>	<i>tʰi-kə</i>
who-NOM-	know-Q.MK

‘Who knows?’

4.16.Compounds

The compounds refer to the paired constructions in which the second word is not an exact repetition of the first but has some similarity or relationship to the first word either on the semantic or on the phonetic level. It is to be noted that each constituent of a compound has a meaning of its own and hence can be used independently in a sentence. However when combined in a compound formation, the two constituent words retain their original meaning to some extent more often than not, the paired construction has new meaning and new reference. Compounding is a very important factor in word formation process for Somdal.

4.16.1.Compound Nouns:

Nouns which are formed by combination of two or more nouns are called compound nouns.Both the compound of two semantically identical words and two semantically related words are found in Somdal.

Examples of these types of compounds in Somdal are given below:

Examples :

<i>kiu</i>	+	<i>ərun</i>	-	<i>kiurun</i>
head		cover		‘hat’

<i>se</i>	+	<i>ʃim</i>	-	<i>seʃim</i>
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cow		house		‘cowshed’
<i>əwən</i>	+	<i>həm</i>	-	<i>əwənhəm</i>
flower		pot		‘flowerpot’
<i>mi</i>	+	<i>t^hij</i>	-	<i>mit^hij</i>
fire		wood		‘firewood’
<i>jubi</i>	+	<i>t^hao</i>	-	<i>jubit^hao</i>
coconut		oil		‘coconut oil’
<i>hok</i>	+	<i>sa</i>	-	<i>hoksa</i>
pig		meat		‘pork’
<i>pan</i>	+	<i>mit</i>	-	<i>panmit</i>
hand		towel		‘hand towel’
<i>net^har</i>	+	<i>pi</i>	-	<i>net^harpi</i>
nose		earring		‘nose ring’
<i>məli</i>	+	<i>kədlat</i>	-	<i>məlikədlat</i>
heart		disease		heart disease -
<i>vat</i>	+	<i>t^ha</i>	-	<i>vatt^ha</i>
cotton		seed		‘cotton seed’

4.16.2. Associative compounds:

In associative compounds, two nouns incorporating the extreme limiting referents of the same semantic field (representing a polar relationship), or two nouns incorporating the salient characteristics of that semantic field (in a less extreme association) form compounds whose referential range includes the whole semantic field.

Examples:

<i>i</i>	<i>vai-k^hənə</i>	<i>liritʃim vai-je</i>
1P	3P-ASS	school go-ASP

‘I go to school with him’

<i>i</i>	<i>i-wi</i>	<i>k^hənə</i>	<i>va-je</i>
1P	my-mother	ASS	go-RL

‘I went with my mother’.

4.16.3. Reduplication in Somdal

Reduplication is the repetition of all or part of a lexical item (Abbi, 1992). According to Abbi, duplicating a morpheme or a word to coin new words and express various grammatical aspects is a common phenomenon with the languages of the Tibeto-Burman family. Sapir (1921: 76) observes that, “words, the repetition of all parts of the radical element”. According to the nature of repeated part, reduplication can be divided as partial and complete which functions as a single lexical unit. Expressive is a type of reduplication which includes onomatopoeic, mimics, imitative and sound symbolism. Onomatopoeic or imitative is a sub-type of reduplication that represents any kind of natural sound, action, manner, etc. Onomatopoeic words may or may not be reduplicated. Another type of reduplication is echo word which is reduplicated partially that either the initial phoneme or the syllable of the base is replaced by another phoneme or the syllable. Onomatopoeic and echo words are used to give more enhancement to the nature of characters in stories, novels, drama etc and to the speech. Reduplication according to Abbi, can be divided into two types, namely; morphological reduplication and lexical reduplication. Morphological reduplication is where the minimally meaningful and segmentally indivisible morphemes are constituted of iterated syllable which constitutes a single morpheme. Morphological

reduplication is further divided into expressive in which onomatopoeic, sound symbolisms, mimic words, imitative and ideophone are included. Lexical reduplication can be constructed into three different types. They are echo formation, compound word and word reduplication.

4.16.4. Expressive

Expressive can be complete or partial. They are illustrated below.

4.16.4.1. Complete reduplicated expressive

Complete reduplicated expressive are those which do not allow morphemic division, that is, they always occur in reduplicated forms.

Examples:

/fat fat/ ‘prickling skin or eye’

/rin rin/ ‘chill fever’

4.16.4.2. Partially reduplicated expressive

There are few number of partially reduplicated expressive in Somdal. They are described below:

sina lupa ‘wealth’

kaceo kacang ‘suffering pain’

4.16.5. Onomatopoeic and Imitative

Onomatopoeic or imitative denotes a sound or an object which gives out a sound (Bloomfield, 1935). In this the sound are imitative, like imitation of natural phenomenon as well as actions. Both of them are examples of complete reduplication.

Examples:

Root + E

/ɲur ɲur/ ‘burning of fire’

/fat fat/ ‘prickling skin or eye’

/rin rin/ 'chill fever'

Expressive sound also indicates the five sense of perception-hearing, touch, smell, taste and sight. Examples:

4.16.5.1.Sense of hearing

This category includes acoustic sound made by animals, humans, natural phenomenon, and sounds made by miscellaneous inanimate object.

i) Animal sounds

/ɲiao ɲiao/ 'cats mewling'

ii) Human sounds

/hao hao/ 'laughing sound'

iii) Sounds made by natural phenomenon

/p^hek p^hek/ 'crackling sound of burning'

iv) Sounds produced by inanimate objects

/bup bup/ 'falling of things like book'

4.16.5.2.Sense of sight

It is the flickering, glittering, shimmering of certain objects

Examples:

/p^hik p^hik/ 'twinkling'

4.16.5.3.Sense of smell and taste

It is the expression good or bad taste or smell

/ha ha/ 'burning sensation of hot chilly'

4.16.5.4. Other senses imotional or physical

It is the expression of feelings like happiness, anxiety, loneliness, anger etc

/tuk tuk/ ‘beating of heart ’

4.16.6. Echo Words

It refers to a situation where the second word in the paired construction does not have any meaning of its own, when it is attached to the first word, an idea of generality is obtained. It is rarely found in Somdal. Examples are given below:

Examples

cəm ərəm ‘character’

Its occurrence in sentence is given below:

<i>vai</i>	<i>cəm ərəm</i>	<i>mə-p^həmi-nei</i>
3P(sg)	character	NEG-good-ASP

‘His character is bad’

4.16.8. Compound words

Compound words are the repetitors at the semantic level in the sense that the two words are conjoined to form a compound.

Examples:

awi ava ‘parents’

məfe məja ‘day night’

kəsu k^hariŋ ‘dead alive’

4.17.2. Intransitive Verb

Kinds of intransitive verb in Somdal is shown in the table given below:

Human propensity	Sense	Dimension	Motion	posture	Physical sensation
<i>uk^hənəwi</i> ‘sad’	<i>k^hanai</i> ‘bitter’	<i>ət^het</i> ‘width’	<i>pamidei</i> ‘reading’	<i>pasalei</i> ‘reading’	<i>məkiuk^hui</i> ‘cold’
<i>riŋp^ha</i> ‘happy’	<i>fimnai</i> ‘sweet’	<i>k^hərui</i> kəsəŋkə ‘long’	<i>rarei</i> ‘coming’	<i>pikalilei</i> ‘sleeping’	<i>sak^hui</i> ‘hot’
<i>mənui^hui</i> ‘laugh’	<i>t^hurnai</i> ‘sour’	<i>fui^hui</i> ‘short’	<i>semmei</i> ‘cooking’	<i>kəpilei</i> ‘writing’	<i>tork^hui</i> ‘burn’

Table No.12: Intransitive Verb in Somdal.

Their occurrence is shown in the following sentences :

jaodla-ci loi

boy-DEM fall

‘The boy falls’

vanao-piŋ pai

bird-PL fly

‘The birds fly’

4.17.3. Compound Verbs

Combining two root morphemes together forms compound verbs. Some examples of compound verbs found in Somdal are shown below:

p^həniŋ-wui > *p^həniŋwui* ‘remember’
 think-come

u-k^hənəwui > *uk^hənəwui* ‘be sad’

live-sad

sit-sa-wui

>

'sitsawui'

'trust/believe'

count-put

ʃaŋ-wui

>

'ʃaŋ-wui'

'be rich'

live-good

nij-wotwui

>

'nij-wotwui'

'imagine'

think-work

4.17.4. Conjunct Verb

A conjunct verb is a sequence constituted with either a noun + verb or an adjective + verb. Let us take the following examples from Somdal..

ha-wui

'to cook'

cook-NMZ

sam-wui

'to rest'

rest-NMZ

t^hak-lakkə

'quickly'

quick-ADV

məluvət-lakkə

'angrily'

angry-ADV

4.17.5.Causative

When the agent performs an action through another agent the verbs is in the causative. The second is realized as the object. The causative verb is formed by suffixing /-sak/ to the verbal root irrespective of whether the verb is intransitive or transitive. For example:

Non-causative		Causative	
<i>səmwui</i>	‘to run’	<i>səmsakwui</i>	‘cause to run’
<i>mowui</i> drink’	‘to drink’	<i>mosakwui</i>	‘cause to
<i>lowui</i> jump’	‘to jump’	<i>losakwui</i>	‘cause to
<i>capwui</i>	‘to cry’	<i>capsakwui</i>	‘cause to cry’
<i>k^hunwui</i>	‘to pull’	<i>k^hunsakwui</i>	‘cause to pull’

4.17.6.Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are specialized verbs or in other words auxiliary verbs refer to the set of verbs, subordinate to the main verb. Some examples of auxiliary verbs found in Somdal is shown below:

i) *nə va-dlei*
 2P go-AUX
 ‘You(sg) shall go’

ii) *vai ra-pai*
 3P come-AUX
 ‘He may come’

iii) *ra-pai*
1P come-AUX
'I may come'

4.17.7. Kinds of verbs on semantic basis.

Verbs can be divided into three types in Somdal on semantic ground, viz i) Action verb
ii) Static verb iii) Process verb.

i) Action Verb

Action verbs are those that indicate an action. Examples are given below:

nao-ci pəm-lei
child-DEM sit-ASP
'The child is sitting'.

i ra-rei
1P come-ASP
'I am coming'

List of action verbs in Somdal are listed below and in the following examples, /wui/ is the nominalizer.

<i>t^haowui</i>	'to swim'
<i>towui</i>	'to jump'
<i>kunwui</i>	'to pull'
<i>namwui</i>	'to push'
<i>samwui</i>	'to run'

cant^hirwui ‘to talk’

t^hiuwui ‘to move’

ii) Static Verb

Static verbs are those verbs that indicate habitual facts and natural phenomenon.

Examples:

t^hiq^h-hi *ciu-we*

tree-DEM tall-ASP

‘The tree is tall’

t^hiro-ci *k^hənai-we*

fruit-DEM bitter-ASP

‘That fruit is bitter’.

iii) Process verb:

Process verbs are those verbs that the action of the verb is not performed by an actor or a doer. The verb itself expresses the mode of action as shows in the example given below:

jao mə-kəp^hadla-ci-tə *fao-mer*

boy NEG-good-DEM-DAT beat-RL

‘The bad boy is being beaten’

4.18.Tense

The term tense is derived from a Latin translation of Greek word “Tempus” which means time (Lyons 1968). Comrie defined tense as ‘grammatically expression of location in time’. According to Hockett, “tenses typically show different locations of an event in time”. The category of tense is not the same in all the languages. It is an empirical claim that tense is one of the

grammatical categories and claims that tense is not found in all the languages. In this case we can remember the word of Comrie that "a language may have a grammatical category that express time reference, in which case we say that the language has tenses. Many languages lack tense i.e. do not have grammatical time reference i.e. have temporal adverbials that locate situation in time". It means that if the time reference is not grammaticalized there is no tense.

Let us consider the following examples:

a) *vai ifak^hi market-lai vai-je*

3P yesterday market-LOC go-RL

'He went to *bajar* yesterday'

b) *vai liucu market-lai vai-je*

3P today market-LOC go-RL

'He went to *bajar* today'

c) *vai k^hanama market-lai va-re*

3P tomorrow market-LOC go-IRL

'He will go to *bajar* tomorrow'

In the above examples, the two verbs of a) and b) indicates that there is no change and there is no addition or deletion of any elements for denoting time reference. It is indicated by the use of temporal adverbs i.e. *ifak^hi* 'yesterday', *liucu* 'today', *k^hanama* 'tomorrow', in the examples.

Whereas in the example c); the action of the verb is not being performed. This situation is likely not to have taken place as of yet, and is therefore strongly associated with future reference.

From the above examples, it is seen that Somdal does not have grammaticalized time reference to give tenses. If tense is by no means an obligatory grammatical category, languages can locate situations in time by recourse to other linguistic means.

4.18.1. Tense Distinction

In Somdal one might say that the only tense distinction grammatically is future and non-future. Future will have future time reference contrast with non-future that has no future time reference. They are illustrated below:

4.18.1.1. Irrealis

The future does not favour either periphrastic or inflectional expression. Some of the common lexical sources for the future are the following;

An auxiliary with the former meaning of ‘want’ (will), in the Western Roman language a verb meaning ‘*tu-we*’, but in Somdal, future is formed by adding the suffix *-dlei* to the verbal roots or stems.

Examples:

vai-t^hum va-dlei

3P-PL go-IRL

‘They will go’

i nə-k^hənə wot kə-sa va-dlei

1P 2P-ASS work NOM-work go-IRL

‘I will go with you to work’.

In the above sentences the suffix *-dlei* indicates futurity.

4.18.1.2. Realise

The realis tense is formed by a morpheme with the simple aspect marker *-je*.

Examples:

tina ca mo-je

person tea drink-RL

‘Tina drinks tea’.

i niŋ *para-je*

1P confuse get-RL

‘I get confused’.

In the above sentences the suffix *-je* indicates non-future.

4.19. Aspects

Aspects are different way of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation or an event. In other words aspect indicates the internal structure of an event or a situation. Aspect is not concerned with relating the time of the situation to any other time point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of the situation. Aspects in Somdal can be discussed in four ways: the first is the simple habitual expression of the event; the second discusses about the event is going on; the third expresses t5he event is completed and the fourth talks about the event will be performed in the next moment. So it will be more convincing to say that there are four aspects in the language. They are discussed below:

4.19.1. Simple Aspect

It expresses simple statement, habitual meaning and universal truth. The markers are */-lei/, /-nei/, /-je/, /-ne/, /-we/ and /-jei/* in Somdal. Examples are given below:

Example:

vai i-wi-nei

3P 1P-mother-ASP

‘She is my mother’

4.19.2. Progressive Aspect

Progressive aspect indicates that the action is continuing. The suffix markers of progressive aspect is */-jei/ or /-dlei/* to verb.

Example :

i ca mosa-jei

1P tea drink-RL

‘I was drinking tea’

4.19.3.Perfect Aspect

Perfect aspect indicates the completion of an action. In Somdal, it is expressed by the suffix */-jei/*.

Examples are given below:

Jon uru-jei

John arrive-RL

‘John has arrived’

4.19.4.Irrealis or Unrealized Aspect

This irrealis or unrealized aspect is the action which will take place in the near future. It is expressed by the marker */-dlei/*. Examples are given below:

vai pisa-dlei

3P sleep-IRL

‘He will be sleeping’

4.19.5.Habitual Aspect

Habitual aspect in Somdal is denoted by the marker */sadlat/* ‘always’.

Example:

vai-va vanao-piη sadlat fon-nei

3P-DEM bird-PL HAB kill-ASP

‘He always kills birds’

4.20.Mood

We will consider only those which are morphologically distinguishable such as imperative, interrogative, hortative, optative, subjunctive, dubitative, permission, obligatory, etc. The various forms and function of these may be presented as under

4.20.1. Indicative /-mə/

Indicative or declarative /-mə/ is marked only in negative constructions such as negative declarative or negative yes/no question.

<i>i</i>	<i>mə-ra</i>	<i>mi-dlei</i>
1P	NEG-come	IND-PROG

‘I am not coming’

<i>nə</i>	<i>mə-vam-la</i>
2P	NEG-go-Q.MK

‘Didn’t you go?’

4.20.2.Imperative /-lo/

Imperative is marked by the suffix /-lou/, as in

<i>nə</i>	<i>va-lou</i>
2P	go-IMP

‘You go’

<i>tʰak-tə</i>	<i>ra-lou</i>
fast-ADV	come-IMP

‘Come fast’

4.20.3.WH-question /-kə/

Interrogative /-kə/ is used with ‘wh-words’ (pronominals and adverbials) and non-words (verbs). With verbs it occur in negative constructions. Examples

nə *tʰu-kə*

2P who-Q(WH)

‘Who are you?’

nə *va-mətə* *mə-va-mikə*

2P go-Q.MK NEG-go-Q.MK

‘Did you go or not?’

4.20.4.Yes/no question /-la/

In a ‘yes/no’ question /-la/ is suffixed to the verb or nominal, as in

nə *rara-la*

2P name (person)-Q(Y/N)

‘Are you Rara?’

vai *fontim* *mə-ni-mə-la*

3P name (person) NEG-be-IND-Q(Y/N)

‘Is not she Shontim?’

4.20.5.Hortative /-se/

/-se/ is suffixed to express an exhortation, as in

i-t^hum *va-se*
1P-PL go-HOR
'Let's go'

t^hak-se
quick-HOR
'Let's be quick'

4.20.6. Entreative /-tei/

/-tei/ is suffixed to verbs to express request of offering etc, as in

i *va-tei*
1P go-ENTR
'Let me go (request or offer)'

i-nə *sa-mi-tei*
1P-NOM do-give-ENTR
'Let me do (it) (for you)'

4.20.7. Optative /səklou/

The optative suffix /-səklou/ expresses realizable wishes or hopes, as in

vare-nə *so-mi-səklou*
God-NOM bless-give-OPT
'May god bless you'

ci *tʰə-səklou*

DEM so-OPT

‘Let that be so’

4.20.8. Dubitative /-pai/

The dubitative suffix /-pai/ expresses the meaning ‘perhaps it is so’, ‘it is likely to’, etc.

Examples:

vai *ra-pai-la*

3P come-DUBI-NFUT

‘He might come’

ci *tʰa-pai-lə*

DEM so-DUBI-Q

‘Can that be so?’

4.20.9. Potential/Capability

The verbs *rər* ‘can’, ‘be able’, *səp* ‘can’, ‘be fit’, ‘be enough’ and *tʰuk* is preferably used to express ability; *səp* is often ambiguous as it may express ability of a doer in respect of an action, or the quantity/quality of the object.

Example:

i *hi* *sai-sap-ə*

1P DEM eat-POT-NFUT

‘I can eat this’

i *hi* *kʰaŋ-tʰuk-kei*

1P DEM lift-POT-NFUT

‘I can lift this’

4.20.10. Permission/possibility/pai/

The verb /-pai/ ‘be easy’ is used to express either permission or possibility or both. Examples are

1) *nə və-pai-yə*

2P go-POSB/PERM-NFUT

‘You can /may go’

2) *nə i-li sao-pai-rə*

2P IP-DAT beat-PERM-FUT

‘You can beat me’

4.20.11. Probability /lə-pai/

Probability may be expressed by infixing the adverbial participle /lə/ ‘also’ between the modal verb /pai/ ‘be easy’ and the main verb or the nominal stem, as in

(1) *vai Aton-lə-pai-yə*

3SG person-also-PROB-NFUT

‘She might be Aton’

4.20.12. Desiderative /ŋai/

The auxiliary verb /ŋai/ ‘want’ is suffixed to verbal stems to express the sense of ‘wanting’ or ‘desire’. Examples:

i ra-ŋai-jei

1P come-DSIR-FUT

‘I want to come’

4.20.13. Obligatory/necessitative /p^həluŋ/, /ŋəji/

/p^həluŋ/ ‘must’ expresses obligation or compulsion; /ŋəji/ ‘ought to’ expresses obligation, or necessity, thus consider the following examples:

i *va-p^həluŋ-rə*

IP go- OBLG-FUT

‘I must go’

nə *va-ŋəji-jə*

2P go-OBLG-NFUT

‘you ought/ need to go’

4.20.14. Impudency /reŋ/ ‘dare’

This modal suffix express the meanings such ‘to be brave enough to do something difficult or dangerous’, or ‘to be rude or foolish enough to something that one has no right yo do’.

Examples:

i-maŋ *pi-reŋ-ə*

1P-only sleep-IMPU-NFUT

‘I dare to sleep alone’

i *mə-haŋ-reŋ-mə-nə*

IP NEG-say-IMPU-IND-COP

‘I dare not speak’

4.20.15. Advisability/Suggestive /t^hu/

This suffix expresses advice or suggestion indicating the sense of ‘do this thing instead of wasting time in other things’. Examples:

pa-t^hu-lou

read-SUG-IMP

‘Study!’

vare-nao

wuŋrəm

pa-t^hu-lou

God-GEN

kingdom

seek-SUG-IMP

‘Seek the kingdom of God’

4.20.16. Prohibitive /mi/

This suffix expresses the meaning of prohibition, as in

i wot-ci mə-sa-mi-dlei

1P work-DEM NEG-do-PROH-IRL

‘I will not do the work’

4.20.17. Presumptive /pai/

The presumptive marker /mə/ expresses believing something to be true because it is very likely, as in

i va-pai

IP go-PRESUM-FUT

‘I may go’

4.20.18. Subjunctive /ni/, /si/, /ki/, /lu/

These are various subjunctive forms used in subordinate clauses or independent clauses to express hypothesis of no factuality /ni/, /si/, /ki/, /lu/ are some of the most commonly used contracted form of combining the subjunctive marker /i/ with modal auxiliaries.

- (1) /ni/ This is the contracted form of combining the copula /nə/ and subjunctive /i/. /ni/ is suffixed to nominals to express condition or concession. Thus compare (1), (2) and (3)

(1) *hi sina-ne*
DEM gold-COP
'This is gold'

- a) /si/ is a contracted form of combining the hortative /sə/ and conjunctive /i/. It is used in clauses of hypothetical condition and is suffixable to any verbal stem/root, and the reference is to non-future or future time. Thus, examine the following

1. *i-t^hum va-se*
1P-PL go-HOR
'Let's go'

i-t^hum va-si-la
1P-PL go-HOR-SBJNC-Q(Y/N)
'Shall we go?'

/ki/ is formed by combining entreative /kə/ and subjunctive /i/. It is suffixed to verbal root or stem to express command suggestion or possibility. Thus, compare (1), (2) and (3).

i va-kə
1P go-ENTR
'Let me go'

nə va-ki-la
 2P go-ENTR+SBJNC-Q(Y/N)
 ‘Do you want to go?’

nə va-ki
 2P go-ENTR-SBJNC
 ‘You are to go’

/lu/ is a contracted form of combining imperative /lu/ and subjunctive /i/. It occurs in reported/ quotative speech.

Example:

nə ra-lou
 2P come-IMP
 ‘You come!’

4.20.19. Definition and types of mood.

‘Mood is an inherent verbal category. Its function is to describe an event in terms of whether it is necessary, possible, permissible, desirable and the like.’ (Katamba, 1993)

It can be divided into three types. They are namely; Subjunctive Mood, Optative Mood and Imperative Mood

4.20.19.1. Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood is denoted by suffixing *-k^hə* to verb. It expresses the meaning of ‘if’ in the following examples.

<i>nə</i>	<i>va-k^hə</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>va-dlei</i>
2P	go-SUBJ	1P	go-IRL

‘If you go, I will go’

<i>nə</i>	<i>sa-k^hə</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>sa-dlei</i>
2P	eat-SUBJ	1P	go-IRL

‘If you eat, I will eat’

4.20.19.2. Optative Mood

Optative mood is used to express a desire or intention. It is denoted by suffixing *-lapai* 'may' to the verb.

Example

i fai lapai
1P eat OPT
'I may eat'

vai va lapai
3P go OPT
'He may go'

4.20.19.3. Imperative Mood

Imperative mood goes with second personal pronouns as underlying structure. It can be divided into three types which are illustrated below.

i) Command

Command is denoted by suffixing *-lou* and *-l* to the verbs. Here subject (2P) 'you' is omitted in the following examples.

Example
fai-lou
Eat-COM
'Eat'

fai-l
Eat-COM
'Eat'

ii) Prohibitive Command

Prohibitive command is denoted by adding suffix *-mə* to verb root.

Examples

mə-fai-lou
NEG-eat-COM
'Don't eat'

iii) Request

Request command is denoted by *-cei* which means 'please'. And negative request is denoted by suffixing negative suffix *-mə* to the verb.

Examples

fai-lou cei

eat-COM REQST

'Please eat'

mə-fai-ra-lou cei

NEG-eat-come-COM REQST

'Please don't eat'.