

## 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. Liangmai nouns can be defined as a class of words that can be inflected for the categories of gender, number, person and case.

#### 4.1 Nouns

Noun in Liangmai are largely monosyllabic, but bisyllabic nouns are also quite frequent in the language. Nouns in Liangmai may be divided into derived and non-derived nouns. Derived nouns are formed by means of derivational morphology and may include gender and number. Derived nouns can be further divided into two: noun derived by means of prefixation and nouns derived by means of suffixation. Non-derived nouns on the other hand, are inflectional in nature and include case marking.

##### Monosyllabic nouns

*mik*            ‘eye’

*ben*            ‘hand’

*t<sup>h</sup>am*           ‘hair’

##### Disyllabic nouns

*tət<sup>h</sup>i*           ‘dog’

*tət<sup>h</sup>an*        ‘deer’

*tsəki* 'house'

#### **4.1.1 Noun formed by means of Prefixation**

Liangmai has three possessive pronominal prefixes: *ə-* 'first person', *nə-* 'second person' and *pə-* 'third person' that are attached to kinship terms, body part and other inalienable nouns to form possessive nouns.

##### **Kinship terms**

*ə-piu* 'my father'

*nə-piu* 'your father'

*pə-piu* 'his father'

##### **Body parts**

*ə-ben* 'my hand'

*nə-ben* 'your hand'

*pə-ben* 'his hand'

##### **Other nouns**

*ə-zi* 'my bed'

*nə-zi* 'your bed'

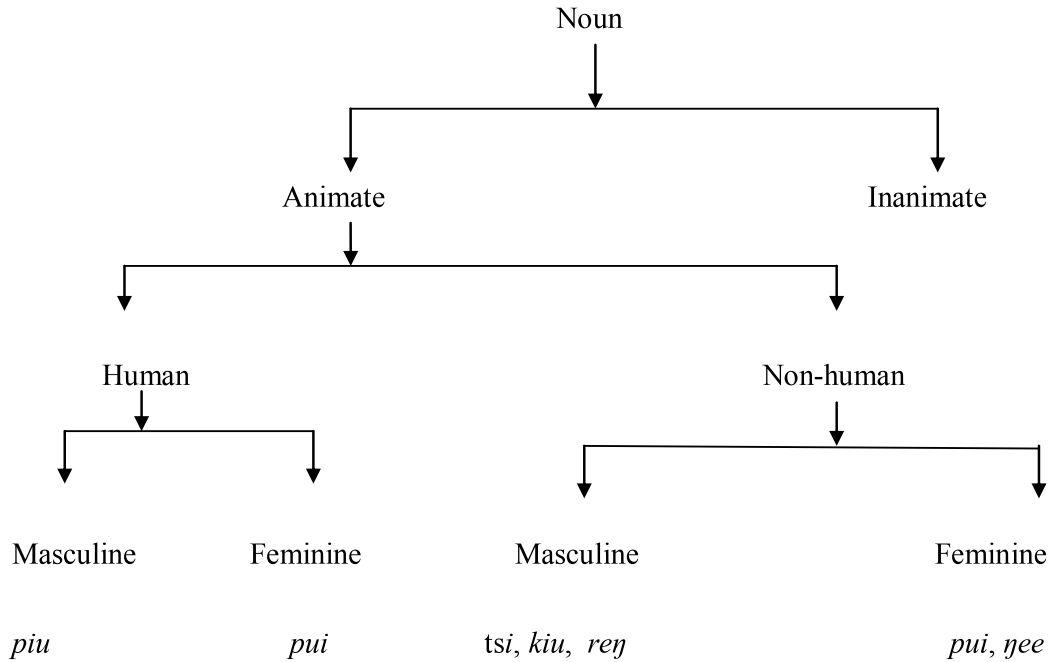
*pə-zi* 'his bed'

#### **4.1.2 Noun formed by means of suffixation**

##### **4.1.2.1 Gender**

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

groups, i, e animate and inanimate noun. Animate noun can further be divided into human (+human) and non-human (-human). All the inanimate nouns are considered as neuter. Liangmai gender can be illustrated as under the figure:



The gender of animate nouns in case of human beings (+human-inanimate) in liangmai is denoted by the gender marker *-piu* and *-pui*. Consider the following table.

Masculine	feminine
<i>piu</i> ‘male/man’	<i>pui</i> ‘female/woman’
<i>ə-piu</i> ‘my father’	<i>ə-pui</i> ‘my mother’

**Table 5: Human beings Gender Marker**

Gender in animals is marked by *-tsi* for male and *-pui* for female

Masculine	feminine
<i>kəmi-tsi</i> ‘goat’	<i>kəmi-pui</i> ‘she goat’

<i>mətom-tsi</i> ‘ox’	<i>mətom-pui</i> ‘cow’
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**Table 6: Animals Gender Marker**

However in case of pig the suffixes *-kiu* is used to marked male and *-ηee* is used to marked for female, a female pig which haven’t given birth to young ones.

Masculine	Feminine
<i>kəbak-kiu</i> ‘pig(male)’	<i>kəbak-ηee</i> ‘not given birth (female pig)’

**Table 7: Pig Gender Marker**

In same way the gender maker for hen and duck are marked differently. The suffixes *-rey* is marked for male and *-pui* is marked for female.

Masculine	Feminine
<i>kəniu-rey</i> ‘duck (male)’	<i>kəniu-pui</i> ‘duck’(female)
<i>məru-rey</i> ‘cock’	<i>məru-pui</i> ‘hen’

**Table 8: Hen and Duck Gender Marker**

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

*tsək<sup>h</sup>aminpiu* > ‘fisherman’

*ək<sup>h</sup>epiu* > ‘watchman’

*kətipow* > ‘teacher’

*tsərimai* > ‘soldier’

Some nouns in Liangmai 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.

*nəp<sup>h</sup>uŋpui* > ‘pregnant woman’

*tsəp<sup>h</sup>aidakpui* > ‘female weaver’

### Neuter Gender

In Liangmai, 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.

*tsəp<sup>h</sup>ai* ‘cloth’

*təzi* ‘bed’

*tiŋkai* ‘air’

*kəmuəŋ* ‘cloud’

### 4.1.2.2 Number

Liangmai 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 Liangmai, the singular number is unmarked. The dual form is marked by *-nai* while the plural is marked by suffixing – *duŋ* and *-liu*.

The three numbers in Liangmai are as follows in the table:

Person	Singular	Dual	Plural
First Person	<i>i</i> ‘I’	<i>ənai</i> ‘we two’	<i>əliu</i> ‘we all’
Second person	<i>naŋ</i> ‘you’	<i>nənai</i> ‘you two’	<i>nəliu</i> ‘you all’

Third person	<i>pə</i> ‘he/she’	<i>pənai</i> ‘he/she two’	<i>pəliu</i> ‘they all’
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**Table 9: Numbers**

### Singular

Singular number is unmarked. Examples are as follows:

*ariak* ‘book’

*tsəki* ‘house’

*tsəli* ‘pot’

*kətipou* ‘teacher’

*tsəgi* ‘iron’

### Dual

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

Examples of first person dual. i.e. *ənai/ənia*

a) *ənia/ənai*      *ariaki*      *tad*      *de*

I+Dual      school      go      asp

‘We two go to school’

b) *ənia/ənai*      *tsəka*      *ye*

I+Dual      friend      asp

‘We two are friend’

c) *ənai/ənai tsəlui tʰiu ye*

I+Dual song sing asp

‘We two sing a song.’

Examples of second person dual. i.e. *nənai*

a) *nənai wi ye*

you two good ASP

‘You two are good’

b) *nənai tan ne*

you two strong ASP

‘You two are strong’

c) *nənai əliu wi ye*

you two girl good ASP

‘You two are beautiful’

Example of third person dual. i.e. *pənai*

a) *pənai ariak rou bam ye*

3P two book write Prog. ASP

‘They (two) are writing’

b) *pənai way ye*

3P two come ASP

‘They two are coming’

## Plural

In Liangmai, the plural is marked by suffixing *-liu* or *-duŋ*. The plural *-liu* is used especially to personal pronoun only. The plural suffix *-duŋ* can be added to any nouns, in case of personal pronoun suffix *-duŋ* can be added after the plural marker *-liu* as in the following examples.

Addition of *-liu* and *-duŋ* to personal pronouns.

<i>i</i> 'I'	<i>əliu / əliuduŋ</i> 'we'
<i>naŋ</i> 'you'	<i>nəliu / nəliuduŋ</i> 'you' pl.
<i>pə</i> 'he/she'	<i>pəliu / pəliuduŋ</i> 'they'

**Table 10: Plurals**

suffix *-duŋ* in Liangmai is added to the animate noun to form plural. The plural suffix *-duŋ* can be added to any nouns

Consider the following example.

*tət<sup>h</sup>iduŋ* 'dogs'

*tsəkiduŋ* 'houses'

suffix *-pəliu* can also be added to proper nouns to indicate plurality. Some of the examples are as follows.

*ram pəliu* 'ram and his group'

*zon pəliu* 'john and his group'

Other than these, there is a lexical item, *mət<sup>h</sup>iu* 'every' which is generally used in the formation of plural. This is very productive, it can occur with only human being, while *-pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ* 'all' can occur with animal and inanimate. Consider the following examples in table.



Human <i>məθiu</i> ‘every’	Non- human <i>pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ</i> ‘all’
<i>nəmai -məθiu</i> ‘every child’	<i>tsəpiu-pək<sup>h</sup>aiŋ</i> ‘all medicine’
<i>tsəmai-məθiu</i> ‘every people’	<i>təθi- pək<sup>h</sup>aiŋ</i> ‘all dogs’

**Table 11: Human and Non-human**

Their occurrences in the sentences are given below:

Example of *-məθ<sup>h</sup>iu* ‘every’ (only human being).

a) *piu mai məθ<sup>h</sup>iu wang bammə*

man person every come prog ASP

‘Every men are come’

b) *pui mai məθ<sup>h</sup>iu wang de*

woman person every come PST

‘Every women had come’

c) *katiŋ mai məθ<sup>h</sup>iu bammə*

old person every prog ASP

‘Every old people are there’

d) *kik<sup>h</sup>un mai məθ<sup>h</sup>iu wang de*

family person every come PST

‘Every family had come’

Example of *-pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ* ‘all’ (animate and inanimate).

*təθ<sup>h</sup>i pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ*

‘all dogs’

dog all

*tsək<sup>h</sup>ou pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ* ‘all animals’

animal all

*təzi pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ* ‘all beds’

bed all

*tsək<sup>h</sup>ki pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ* ‘all houses’

house all

*tsək<sup>h</sup>kui pək<sup>h</sup>iaŋ* ‘all tigers’

tiger all

### Pluralisation of kinship terms

In Liangmai, the pluralisation of kinship terms is marked by suffixing *-duŋ* to the kinship terms. The examples are as follows:

*napiu-duŋ* > *napiuduŋ* ‘sons’

son PL

*piu-duŋ* > *piuduŋ* ‘fathers’

father PL

*pui-duŋ* > *puiduŋ* ‘mothers’

mother PL

*siŋnapiu-duŋ* > *siŋnapiuduŋ* ‘brothers’

brother PL

### 4.1.2.3 Case

Case is a grammatical category which establishes a relation that a noun or pronoun has with some other word in a sentence or a phrase.

Liangmai has nine case markers. Among them nominative, genitive and locative case ending are not obligatory sometimes, they can be dropped or deleted.

The case markers/endings present in Liangmai are:-

- |                 |   |
|-----------------|---|
| 1. Nominative   | <i>/-niu/</i>                           |
| 2. Accusative   | <i>/-tu/</i>                            |
| 3. Genitive     | <i>/-gu/</i>                            |
| 4. Locative     | <i>/-k<sup>h</sup>u/, /-gə/, /-ləm/</i> |
| 5. Instrumental | <i>/-niu/</i>                           |
| 6. Ablative     | <i>/-gəsu/, /-ləmsu/</i>                |
| 7. Associative  | <i>/-nai/, /-pənai/</i>                 |
| 8. Dative       | <i>/-leŋ/</i>                           |
| 9. Benefactive  | <i>/-leŋ/</i>                           |

#### Nominative Case

The nominative case is use to mark the subject of a sentence. In Liangmai, the subject takes a case ending */-niu/* and is found not obligatory.

Examples;

- |    |              |                |                  |
|----|--------------|----------------|------------------|
| a) | <i>paniu</i> | <i>Lily-tu</i> | <i>lungsa-ye</i> |
|    | he-NOM.      | Lily-ACC       | love-ASP         |

‘He loves Lily’.

(or) *pa Lily tu lungsa-ye.*

- b) *paniu tət<sup>h</sup>i-tu dab-be*  
he-NOM dog-ACC hit-ASP

‘He hits the dog’.

(or) *pa tət<sup>h</sup>itu dab-be*

- c) *saoniu kamlo haisi*  
who-NOM do-QMK this-DET

‘Who did this?’

- d) *naŋniu tsəpiangsi k<sup>h</sup>iu-lo*  
you-NOM cup-DET wash-QMK

‘You wash the cup’.

(or) *naŋ tsəpiaŋsi k<sup>h</sup>iulo*

- e) *wilinbou niu kaiwiyang suaj kubi- ye*  
Wilinbou-NOM kaiwiyang than tall-COMP-asp

‘Wilinbou is taller than Kaiwiyang’.

- f) *i niu Benjamin tu arriaksi lura lan<sup>k</sup>ai-ye*  
I-NOM benjamin-ACC book-DET take- send-asp

‘I send Benjamin to collect the book

## Accusative Case

Accusative case is used to mark the object of a verb. It is expressed by adding case ending *-tu* to the object (noun or pronoun) of a sentence.

Some examples are as follows;

<i>atu</i>	(1p)-ACC
<i>nətu</i>	(2p)-ACC
<i>pətu</i>	(3p)-ACC
<i>jontu</i>	john-ACC
<i>tə<sup>h</sup>itu</i>	dog-ACC
<i>tsəpuəntu</i>	elephant-ACC
<i>tsəlutu</i>	field-ACC
<i>tsəkītu</i>	house-ACC

[Noun/pronoun]+tu [noun/pronoun]-ACC

a) *i pətu luŋsa-ye*

I he-ACC love-ASP

‘I love her’

b) *nəpui nətu ku-bam-me*

Your mother you-ACC call-EXT-ASP

‘Your mother is calling you’

c) *pa ətu de din lo*

He me-ACC what say-QMK

‘What did he said to me?’

### Genitive Case

Liangmai has one genitive markers- /-gu/. The basic function of the genitive is to indicate the relationship between two substantives. It is expressed by adding case ending /-gu/ to the object of a sentence. The case ending /-gu/ is used to indicate the ownership/ possessor of an object.

Examples;

/əgu/	(1p)-GEN (mine)
/əgu ariak/	‘my book’
/nəgu/	(2p)-GEN (yours)
/nəgu tək <sup>h</sup> aw/	‘your bag’
/pəgu/	(3p)-GEN (his/hers)
/pəgu pirun/	‘his cap’
/zon gu kəraosiŋ/	‘John’s pen’
/saogu/	‘whose
/ndegu/	‘of what’

a) *Haisi əgu tiaŋ-ye*

This-DET i-GEN shirt-asp

‘This is my shirt’

b) *Wiusi*      *nəgu*      *tsəheŋ-ye*

That-DET      you-GEN      knife-asp

‘That is your knife’

### Locative Case

Liangmai has three locative case markers- */-k<sup>h</sup>u/*, */-gə/* and */-lam/*. The case ending */-k<sup>h</sup>u/* is suffixed to pronominal and proper noun (name of a person) and is usually occurs together with other locative case ending. The other two locative case endings- */-gə/* and */-lam/* are suffixed to certain post-position, determiners and proper nouns to indicate the position/location of an object, event and time.

Examples:

<i>/pərigə/</i>	on-LOC
<i>/pəhaŋgə/</i>	under-LOC
<i>/pəluŋgə/</i>	inside-LOC
<i>/pəliəŋgə/</i>	outside/beside-LOC
<i>/pəmuŋgə/</i>	beside / side-LOC
<i>/pətaigə/</i>	side-LOC
<i>/pərilam/</i>	upside – LOC
<i>/pəhaŋlam/</i>	downside-LOC
<i>/ərilam/</i>	up/upside- LOC
<i>/əhaŋlam/</i>	downside-LOC

<i>/əluŋlam/</i>	inside-LOC	‘inside’
<i>/tsəkigə/</i>	house-LOC	‘at home’
<i>/tsəlulam /</i>	field-LOC	‘at the field’
<i>/pək<sup>h</sup>ugə/</i>	he-LOC-LOC	‘with him’
<i>/ək<sup>h</sup>ugə/</i>	me-LOC-LOC	‘with me’
<i>/nək<sup>h</sup>ugə/</i>	you-LOC-LOC	‘with you’
<i>/əpiuk<sup>h</sup>ugə/</i>	my father-LOC-LOC	‘to my father’
<i>/silongə/</i>	Shillong-LOC	‘at Shillong’

Sentential examples:

- a) *suan*      *kəbaŋ*      *məŋiu-gə*  
Morning      hour/time      five-LOC  
‘At 5 O’clock in the morning’
- b) *tsəwan*      *kəbaŋ*      *mədai-gə*  
Evening      hour/time      four-LOC  
‘At 4 O’clock in the evening’

### **Instrumental Case**

The instrumental case marker */-niu/* which is homophonous to nominative marker is used to expressed the instrumentality of an object with which an action of a verb is performed.



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 */-niu/* to the object.

Examples:

*/kədia-niu/* hammer-INST 'with hammer'

*/tədui-niu/* water-INST 'by water'

*/kəp<sup>h</sup>iu-niu/* spade- INST 'with spade'

*/əliam-niu/* boat- INST 'by boat'

*/tət<sup>h</sup>i-niu/* dog- INST 'by the dog'

*/karaosin-niu/* pencil-INST 'with pencil'

*/tətu-niu/* stone-INST 'with stone'

Sentential examples:

a) *i məri-niu kabiu bi-ye*  
 I axe-INST bamboo cut ASP  
 'I cut the bamboo with an axe'

b) *pa tsəheiy-niu tsəganniu rom-me*  
 he knife-INST vegetable cut-ASP  
 'He cuts vegetables with a knife'

c) *awangbou pensil-niu ariak rao-we*  
 Awangbou pencil-INST letter write-ASP  
 'Awangbou wrote a letter with a pencil'

d) *pəliu pətu tətuniu p<sup>h</sup>en-ne*  
 They (3p)-ACC stone-INST throw-ASP

‘They throw her with stone’

e) *əpiu ətu tət<sup>h</sup>un-niu dab-be*  
 (1p)-father (1p)-ACC stick-INST beat-ASP

‘My father beat me with a stick’

### Ablative Case

The ablative case is the case of separation from source. The case-ending */-gəsu/*, */-lamsu/* is added/suffixed to the object to expressed separation, expulsion and direction of movement from one to another.

Examples:

<i>/ək<sup>h</sup>u-gəsu/</i>	(1p)-LOC-Abl	‘from me’
<i>/nək<sup>h</sup>u-gəsu/</i>	(2p)-LOC-Abl	‘from you’
<i>/pək<sup>h</sup>u-gəsu/</i>	(3p)-LOC-Abl	‘from him/her’
<i>/jonk<sup>h</sup>u-gəsu/</i>	john-LOC-Abl	‘from John’
<i>/tsəki-gəsu/</i>	house-Abl	‘from house’
<i>/kəsienki-lamsu/</i>	market-Abl	‘from market’
<i>/əri-lamsu/</i>	up-Abl	‘from upside’
<i>/əhaŋ-lamsu/</i>	down-Abl	‘from downside’
<i>/si-gəsu/</i>	that-Abl	‘from there’
<i>/hai-gəsu/</i>	here-Abl	‘from here’

*/de-gasu/*                      where-Abl                      ‘from where’

### Associative Case

The associative case marker in Liangmai */-nai/* and */-pənai/* are used to denote that the action has been performed in conjunction with another.

Examples:

a) *Jon nai pət<sup>h</sup>i*                      (or)    *Jon pənai pət<sup>h</sup>i*  
John-Assoc                      (3p)-dog                      John-Assoc                      (3p)-dog  
‘John and his dog’                      ‘John and his dog’

b) *əpui nai əpiu*  
(1p)-mother- Assoc                      (1p)-father  
‘My mother and my father’

c) *əpao nai əpe*  
(1p)-grand father                      Assoc                      (1p)-grand mother  
‘My Grandfather and my grandmother’

d) *atunbou pənai pənao*  
atunbou- Assoc (3p)-wife  
‘Atungbo and his wife’

e) *tsəheŋ pənai məri*  
knife Assoc                      axe  
‘Knife and axe’

f) *tət<sup>h</sup>i pənai kəbak*

dog- Assoc pig

‘Dog and pig’

g) *Pənao nai pəkina*

(3p)-wife- Assoc (3p)-husband

‘Husband and wife’

### **Dative case**

Dative case is the case of the indirect object of the verb and it is usually associative with the act of giving. In the case, the animate being is affected by the verb state or action. It is realized as */-leŋ/*

*pa niu əliu- leŋ tsəpiu pi ye*

he NOM us DAT. Medicine give ASP

‘He gave us medicine’

*i niu pa- leŋ tət<sup>h</sup>i pi ye*

i NOM him DAT. Dog give ASP

‘I give him dog’

### **Benefactive case**

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

*/əleŋ/* (1p)-GEN (for me)

*/nəleŋ/* (1p)-GEN (for you)

*/pəleŋ/* (2p)-GEN (for him/her)

a) *pa pədi leŋ mənɪŋ-ye*

He his country-DAT think-ASP

‘He thinks for his country’

b) *haibo arriak si Awangboleŋ-ye*

This- NOM book-DET Awangbou-DAT-ASP

‘This book is for Awangbou’

#### 4.2 Kinds of Nouns

This section discussed five kinds of nouns. There are common nouns, proper nouns, natural nouns, locative nouns and compound nouns.

##### 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 Liangmai are *tsəli* ‘pot’, *təzi* ‘bed’ etc.

a) *ə-gu tsəli*

i-GEN pot

‘My pot’

b) *ə-gu təzi*

i-GEN bed

‘My bed’

### **Proper nouns**

Liangmai uses personal names to address and identify particular persons. Some of the Liangmai personal names and address terms are given below.

Personal names	Address terms
Moses	<i>tsaka</i> ‘friend’
Lily	<i>panao</i> ‘wife’
Howangbou	<i>piu</i> ‘father’

### **Natural nouns**

Natural objects in Liangmai are given below.

<i>naimik</i>	‘sun’
<i>tsəhiu</i>	‘moon’
<i>kəmuəŋ</i>	‘cloud’

### **Locative nouns**

These nouns behave rather like postpositions, because they are a closed class and take nouns as arguments. Locative nouns in Liangmai are given below.

<i>pəri ga</i>	‘upward’
<i>pəhəŋ ga</i>	‘down’
<i>pəsai ga</i>	‘behind’

### **Compound nouns**

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

### Noun + Noun

*siŋ* + *bəŋ* > *siŋbəŋ* 'tree'

firewood plant

*ariak* + *ki* > *ariakki* 'school'

book house

a) *ram niu tasij bəŋ bi ye*

ram NOM firewood plant cut ASP

'Ram cut a tree'

### Noun + Augmentative

*tət<sup>h</sup>i* + *di* > *tət<sup>h</sup>idi* 'big dog'

dog big

*tət<sup>h</sup>aŋ* + *di* > *tət<sup>h</sup>aŋdi* 'big deer'

deer big

In case of Noun+augmentative, *di* 'big' will change into *dibo* by suffix *-bo* to the root.

Consider the following example:

a) *tət<sup>h</sup>i dibo khat bamme*

dog big one prog ASP

'One big dog is there'

b) *tom niu tət<sup>h</sup>aŋ dibo kep ye*

tom NOM big shoot ASP

‘Tom shoot a big deer’

**Noun+Verb root**

*tsəlat* + *maniu* > *tsəlatmaniu* ‘question’

word ask

*tsəlat* + *tsəpk<sup>h</sup>ai* > *tsəlattsəpkhai* ‘decision’

word stand

a) *pa atu tsəlat maniu ye*

he/she 1p ACC word ask ASP

‘He/She ask me a question’

b) *ram tsəlat tsəpkhai mide*

ram word stand PST-tense

‘Ram make a decision’

**4.3 Classifier in Liangmai**

The principle classifiers in Liangmai are given below.

*taŋ*: It indicates that the object is long and solid. It is stick like object.

*tasij taŋ k<sup>h</sup>at* ‘one wood’

wood cls. one

*baŋ*: This classifier is used only for trees or plants.

*tasij baŋ k<sup>h</sup>at* ‘one tree’

wood cls. one



*pum*: It is used after nouns and it indicates that the object is round in shape.

*mana pum k<sup>h</sup>at* 'one pumpkin'

pumpkin cls. one

*pum*: is also used for things which are round and long in shape.

*riaŋ pum k<sup>h</sup>at* 'one bamboo'

bamboo cls. one

*kow*: Anything which can hold something like, container.

*tek kow k<sup>h</sup>at* 'one tiffin'

rice cls. one

*kiak*: This classifier signifies any broken piece of object which are solid and irregular in shape.

*tasin kiak k<sup>h</sup>at* 'one piece of wood'

wood cls. one

*daŋ*: This classifier is used for any object which are short but longer than its wide or breadth. An object may be round, flat or in any shape.

*tasin daŋ k<sup>h</sup>at* 'one piece of fire wood'

wood cls. one

*k<sup>h</sup>aŋ*: It is used after noun to indicate the human being only.

*maipui k<sup>h</sup>aŋ k<sup>h</sup>at* 'one women'

women cls. one

*kaŋ*: This classifier indicates any objects which are solid and irregular in shape.

*miti*      *kaŋ*      *kʰat*      ‘one piece of charcoal’

charcoal      cls      one

*keŋ*: It indicates that an object is long or short but thin in shape, ropelike structure which are thin.

*taʰam*      *keŋ*      *kʰat*      ‘one piece of hair’

hair      cls.      one

*muai*: It signifies any things which are in a state of powder.

*gunlim*      *muai*      ‘turmeric powder’

turmeric      cls

*poi*: This classifier indicates both animate and inanimate size and age. This classifier ‘poi’ is usually followed by the suffix ‘na’.

*taʰi*      *poi*      *kʰat*      ‘one puppy’

dog      cls.      one

*kem*: This classifier is used to signifies any creepers plant.

*magaina*      *kem*      ‘cucumber plant’

cucumber      cls

***nian***: This classifier signifies anythings which are in the form of powder or paste.

*bui*      *nian*      ‘muddy paste’

mud      cls.

***but***: This classifier indicates any objects which are mountain like in structure. It has a top which is higher than the base.

*maluaŋ*                      *but*                      ‘mountain top’

mountain                      cls.

**han:** It signifies an object which are in bunches or in bundle.

*tasin*                      *han*                      ‘bundle of wood’

wood                      cls.

**p<sup>h</sup>i:** It signifies any object which are piled together in specific position i.e. they are place one over the other in steps.

*makhui*                      *p<sup>h</sup>i*                      ‘plate of honey comb’

bee                      cls.

**siu:** It signifies an object which are round and pointed in shape and which are solid.

*gammi*                      *siu*                      ‘bullet’

gun                      cls.

**p<sup>h</sup>om:** It indicates that an object is in group or in heaps, it signifies things which are kept together. It may be animate or inanimate.

*tasiu*                      *phom*                      ‘heaps of rice paddy’

paddy                      cls

**kui:** This classifier signifies a rounded bend, a curve line or stick, anything which are in sloping position in shape.

*tsəriaŋ*                      *kui*                      ‘bended rope’

rope                      cls

#### 4.4 Adjectives

Adjective is a class of word 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 used adjectively. The following examples show adjectives as modifier of noun.

*tsəmai dimai*

man big

‘Big man’

*tət<sup>h</sup>i tikbo*

dog black

‘Black dog’

*reliu ηauwibo*

girl beautiful

‘Beautiful girl’

*tsəriaŋ heŋbo*

bird red

‘Red bird’

Numeral adjectives follow the noun they qualify.

a) *reliu ηauwibo k<sup>h</sup>at*

girl beautiful one

‘One beautiful girl’

b) *tsəmai dimai k<sup>h</sup>at*

man big one

‘One big man’

#### 4.4.1 Kinds of Adjectives

Adjectives in Liangmai can be broadly 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 Demonstrate
7. Adjective of Comparison

##### 4.4.1.1 Adjective of Quality

Adjective of quality describes the quality of nouns as shown below:

*nəmai wimai* ‘good boy’

*tsəp<sup>h</sup>ai timbo* ‘wet cloth’

*tətsa thubo* ‘hot tea’

*tə<sup>h</sup>i hubo* ‘brave dog’

*aliu ηauwibo* 'beautiful girl'

#### 4.4.1.2 Adjective of Quantity

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

*tsərapen kəsia* 'some flower'

*tə<sup>h</sup>i poina* 'little dog'

*tek keŋbi* 'more rice'

*əriak pak<sup>h</sup>ianna* 'many books'

*tə<sup>h</sup>i hina* 'all dogs'

#### 4.4.1.3 Adjective of Taste

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

*suaimai* 'pungent'

*humbo* 'sweet'

*k<sup>h</sup>əbo* 'bitter'

*k<sup>h</sup>iŋbo* 'sour'

*tiuwibo* 'tasty'

#### 4.4.1.4 Adjective of Colour

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

*tsərapen henbo* 'red flower'

*ŋiaunə kabo* 'white cat'

*tasiŋnui diakbo* 'green leaf'

*tinpuk rimmai* 'blue sky'

*p<sup>h</sup>ituap mazinbo* 'yellow shoe'

#### 4.4.1.5 Adjective of Dimension

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

*təsingban dibo* 'big tree'

*bəri t<sup>h</sup>ukmai* 'deep ring well'

*impui ky mazibo* 'straight road'

*tatu ripbo* 'heavy stone'

*impui ky dibo* 'wide road'

#### 4.4.1.6 Adjective of Demonstration

Liangmai has two demonstratives proximate and remote depending on whether the listener is near or far away from the speaker. The demonstrative pronouns are also added as adjectives to modify nouns.

a) *hai se ə laupuk ye*

this my-field ASP

'This is my field'

b) *haibo lət dung se wi mak ye*

these word pl mrk good neg ASP

'These words are not good'

c) *sipiu se nuai ye*

man that fat ASP

‘That man is fat’

#### 4.4.1.7 Adjectives 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 and c) superlative. Positive is not overtly marked in Liangmai For example

*suanmai* ‘weak’

*duŋbo* ‘short’

*kaŋmai* ‘thin’

*dibo* ‘big’

*wibo* ‘good’

Adjective of Comparison is formed by post posing *-bi* to the adjectives as shown below:

*suanmai* ‘weak’

*suan-bi-mai* ‘weaker’

*duŋmai* ‘short’

*duŋ-bi-mai* ‘shorter’

*kaŋmai* ‘thin’

*kaŋ-bi-mai* ‘thinner’

*dimai* ‘big’

*di-bi-mai* ‘bigger’

*wimai* ‘good’



*wi-bi-mai* 'best'

The marker comparison is expressed by adding *-pusuaŋ* 'than'. It serves as the marker of comparison. It is to be noted here that in a sentence *suanbi-mai* is not used instead *suanbi* is used to form comparison.

a) *pa se -pusuaŋ suanbi -ye*

he him than weak -ASP

'He is weaker than him'

b) *pa se -pusuaŋ dibi -ye*

he him than bigger -ASP

'He is bigger than him'

c) *tom jack -pusuaŋ wibi - ye*

tom jack than better ASP

'Tom is better than Jack'

The superlative degree is used when something is compared with the rest of the things of the same kind. It is formed in Liangmai by adding *laŋ* to the middle of the word which shows the nature of agglutinating. But in sentence the suffix *-bi* is not used.

*suanmai* 'weak'

*suanbi-mai* 'weaker'

*suanlaŋ-mai* 'weakest'

*duŋmai* 'short'

*duŋbi-mai* 'shorter'

<i>duilaŋ-mai</i>	‘shortest’
<i>kaŋmai</i>	‘thin’
<i>kaŋbi-mai</i>	‘thinner’
<i>kaŋlaŋ-mai</i>	‘thinnest’
<i>dimai</i>	‘big’
<i>dibi-mai</i>	‘bigger’
<i>dilaŋ-mai</i>	‘biggest’
<i>wimai</i>	‘good’
<i>wibi-mai</i>	‘batter’
<i>wilaŋ-mai</i>	‘best’

a) *pəhai tsəki -ga suangthu -e*

he house -LOC weakest -ASP

‘He is the weakest in the house’

b) *pəhai k<sup>h</sup>aŋmat<sup>h</sup>iuna ruangasu pamai sathu -e*

he all among thinnest -ASP

‘He is the thinnest among all’

c) *himalaya maluaŋ hina gasu ku<sup>h</sup>u e*

himalaya mountain of all LOC highest -ASP

‘Himalaya is the highest of all mountains’

#### 4.5 Numerals

Numeral system in Liangmai is decimal. There are basic forms of cardinal numerals with and without affixes. The numeral denoting the numbers from one to ten, twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, hundred, thousand, lakh and so on. The numerals are derived from compounding these basic numerals. The basic numerals are as follows.

<i>k<sup>h</sup>ət</i>	‘one’
<i>nia</i>	‘two’
<i>sum</i>	‘three’
<i>mədai</i>	‘four’
<i>məŋiu</i>	‘five’
<i>tsəruk</i>	‘six’
<i>tsənia</i>	‘seven’
<i>tətsat</i>	‘eight’
<i>tsəkiu</i>	‘nine’
<i>kəriu</i>	‘ten’
<i>məkai</i>	‘twenty’
<i>səmriu</i>	‘thirty’
<i>ətai</i>	‘forty’
<i>riŋiu</i>	‘fifty’
<i>kai</i>	‘hundred’
<i>səŋ</i>	‘thousand’

*lək* 'lakh'

The cardinal numerals such as 60, 70, 80, and 90 are formed by prefixing *riak-* to the numerals 6, 7, 8, and 9 respectively. Consider the following examples.

*riak-tsəruk* 'sixty'

*riak-tsənia* 'seventy'

*riak-tətsat* 'eighty'

*riak-tsəkiu* 'ninety'

The numerals denoting numbers from 11-19 are formed by adding the numeral 1-9 after 'ten' /*kəriu*/.

Examples are as bellows:

*kəriu* 'ten'

*kəriu-kʰət* 'eleven'

*kəriu-nia* 'twelve'

*kəriu-sum* 'thirteen'

*kəriu-mədai* 'fourteen'

*kəriu-məŋiu* 'fifteen'

*kəriu-tsəruk* 'sixteen'

*kəriu-tsənia* 'seventeen'

*kəriu-tətsat* 'eighteen'

*kəriu-tsəkiu* 'nineteen'

*məkai* 'twenty'

The numerals from 21-29, 31-39, 41-49.....91-99 are formed by adding the respective numerals 1-9. Examples are as follows.

<i>məkai-k<sup>h</sup>ət</i>	‘twenty-one’
<i>məkai-nia</i>	‘twenty-two’
<i>məkai-sum</i>	‘twenty-three’
<i>məkai-mədai</i>	‘twenty-four’
<i>məkai-məŋiu</i>	‘twenty-five’
<i>məkai-tsəruk</i>	‘twenty-six’
<i>məkai-tsənia</i>	‘twenty-seven’
<i>məkai-tətsat</i>	‘twenty-eight’
<i>məkai-tsəkiu</i>	‘twenty-nine’
<i>səmriu</i>	‘thirty’
<i>səmriu-k<sup>h</sup>ət</i>	‘thirty-one’
<i>səmriu-nia</i>	‘thirty-two’

Numerals beyond hundred and thousand are also follow the same pattern. i.e. cardinal one to nine is compounded to the hundred, thousand and lakh. Consider the following example.

<i>kai-k<sup>h</sup>ət</i>	‘one-hundred’
<i>kai-nia</i>	‘two-hundred’
<i>saŋ-k<sup>h</sup>ət</i>	‘one-thousand’
<i>saŋ-nia</i>	‘two thousand’

*lək-kʰət* ‘one-lakh’

*lək-nia* ‘two-lakh’

#### 4.5.1 Ordinals

The ordinals are formed by prefixing *pə-* and suffixing *-bo* to the cardinals except in the word ‘first’ which has its basic form. Examples are as follows:

*kəraibo* ‘first’

*pə-niabo* ‘second’

*pə-sumbo* ‘third’

*pə-mədaibo* ‘forth’

*pə-məŋiubo* ‘fifth’

*pə-tsərukbo* ‘sixth’

#### 4.5.2 Multiplicative

Multiplicative numerals are formed by prefixing *luan-* to cardinals. Examples are given below:

*luan-kʰət* ‘once’

*luan-nia* ‘twice’

*luan-sum* ‘thrice’

*luan-mədai* ‘four times’

*luan-məŋiu* ‘five times’

### 4.5.3 Aggregative Numerals

Suffix *-siak* is added to the cardinal numerals to form aggregative numerals in Liangmai.

*mədai-siak* ‘all the four/four together’

*tsərok-siak* ‘all the six/six together’

### 4.5.4 Approximate Numerals

In Liangmai, approximate numerals are formed by adding a suffix *-kumbo* to the cardinal numbers.

*k<sup>h</sup>ət-nai kumbo* ‘about one to two’

*nia-sum kumbo* ‘about two to three’

### 4.5.5 Measurements

In Liangmai, the system of measurement and its unit can be divided into four categories, viz. measurements of liquid, measurement of grain, measurement of thickness and measurement of length.

Liquid measurement	Grain measurement	Thickness measurement	Length measurement
<i>liter khət</i> ‘one litre’	<i>Luanbu</i> ‘20kg basket’	<i>zuŋpuimin phən</i> ‘1/2 inch’	<i>əbenpuak</i> ‘the distance between the armpit to tip of middle finger’
<i>liter nia</i> ‘two litre’	<i>luan<sup>h</sup>ey</i> ‘30kg basket’	<i>zuŋpuimin k<sup>h</sup>ət</i> ‘one inch’	<i>kiubu</i> ‘the length indicated by thumb and index finger’

			<i>kiurəŋ/cəkiu</i> ‘the length that lies between the thumb and middle/ring finger’
			<i>təcəw</i> ‘the distance between tip of the middle finger and elbow’

**Table 12: Measurement of liquid, grain, thickness and length**

#### 4.5.6 Distributive Numerals

The distributive numerals are formed by reduplicating the numerals and it is followed by suffix *-t<sup>h</sup>iuziu* as in the following.

*k<sup>h</sup>ət k<sup>h</sup>ət t<sup>h</sup>iuziu* ‘one by one’

*nia nia t<sup>h</sup>iuziu* ‘two by two’

#### 4.5.7 Fractional Numerals

Liangmai used fractional number as /pəphən/ ‘half’ and /pumk<sup>h</sup>ət/ ‘full/whole’. Fractional numbers can be represented in mathematical system. It is dividing method of two dissimilar numbers and should remain as fraction.

Example:

*pəphən* ‘half’

*pumk<sup>h</sup>ət* ‘one whole’

*dəm sum gəsū dəm nia* ‘two-third’



*dəm mədai gəsə dəm sum* ‘three-fourth’

it may be noted that the order of items in fractional is opposite to English. The order of item in English is that smaller number occurs first and larger number is pronounced later.

## 4.6 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 Liangmai 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.

### 4.6.1 Personal Pronouns

Liangmai personal pronoun differentiates three persons: first person, second person and third person. These three persons can be distinguished into three numbers: singular, dual and plural.

The first person singular pronoun is *-i* ‘I’ and opposite of it is *-əliu* ‘we’. There is no question of inclusive or exclusive in the first person plural form. There is also dual form- *əniah*, *əne*, *ənai* (*ə*-first personal pronouns, *-nia*, *-ne* ‘two’). It has also objective singular form: *-ək<sup>h</sup>ugə* ‘to me’ and *-ək<sup>h</sup>u-gəsə* ‘from me’.

The second personal pronouns are *naŋ* ‘you’ (singular), *nəliu* ‘you’ (plural) and the dual form *nənai* ‘you two’ *nə*- second person pronominal, *nai* - pertains to two.

The third personal pronouns are *-pə* ‘he/she’ and *pəliu* ‘they’ and the dual form is *pənai*. *pə*-third person pronominal, *nai* - Pertains to two; the objectives singular is *pək<sup>h</sup>ugə* ‘to him’ *pək<sup>h</sup>u-gəsə* ‘from him’. The plurality is expressed through suffixation of */-liu/* to the first second and third personal pronouns.

	singular	dual	plural	object
First person	<i>I</i> ‘me/myself’	<i>ənia</i> ‘I <sup>p</sup> +two’	<i>əliu</i> ‘we’	<i>ək<sup>h</sup>uga</i> ‘to me’

Second person	<i>Nəŋ</i> 'you'	<i>Nənai</i> '2 <sup>nd</sup> p+two'	<i>Nəliu</i> 'you'	<i>nak<sup>h</sup>uga</i> 'to you'
Third person	<i>pə</i> 'he/she'	<i>pənai</i> '3 <sup>rd</sup> p+two'	<i>pəliu</i> 'they'	<i>pak<sup>h</sup>uga</i> 'to him'

**Table 13: Personal pronouns**

#### 4.6.2 Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronoun is formed by suffixation of genitive suffix /-gu/ to the 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> personal pronouns. Illustrations are given below:

Person	Number		
	Singular possessive	Dual possessive	Plural possessive
First person	<i>əgu</i> 'mine'	<i>ənəigu</i> 'ours'	<i>əliugu</i> 'ours'
Second person	<i>nəgu</i> 'yours'	<i>nənəigu</i> 'yours'	<i>nəliugu</i> 'yours'
Third person	<i>pəgu</i> 'his/her'	<i>pənəigu</i> 'theirs'	<i>pəliugu</i> 'theirs'

**Table 14: possessive pronoun**

Considering the following examples:

*haise agu ariak ye*

this 1POSS book ASP

'This is my book'

*haise ənəigu tethi ye*

this 2POSS dog ASP

'This is our (two) dog'

#### 4.6.3 Reflexive Pronoun

In Liangmai, there is no definite word as such for the reflexive pronouns. There are two ways of forming reflexive pronouns.

(a). The reflexive pronouns are derived by prefixing of respective pronominal markers, i.e. *ə-* for 1<sup>st</sup> person, *nə-* for 2<sup>nd</sup> person and *pə-* for 3<sup>rd</sup> person, to the root *-ronnə* 'alone/only'. Thus literally would mean 'only me' or 'I alone' etc. And the respective word *ətu*, *nətu* and *pətu* are used before the derived reflexive pronoun.

(b).The reflexive pronouns are also formed by prefixing of the respective pronominal markers to the root *-pumsiak*, *-pumməhak* ‘real body’. Thus literally would mean ‘my real body’ or ‘my body as such’ etc.

Consider the following examples:

a) *i ətu ərona kam-əzam- me*  
 I to-me myself cut ASP  
 ‘I cut myself’

b) *pa pətu pəronnə dab-ye*  
 he to-him himself hit ASP  
 ‘He hit himself’

c) *i əpumsiak sigə tad-le*  
 i body as such there go ASP  
 ‘I myself went there’

#### 4.6.4 Demonstrative Pronouns

In Liangmai there is no article –definite or indefinite, but has determiner *-si*, which denote the object or person being spoken of. Base on the determiner there are three pronouns. They are – *haisi* (this), *sisi* (it is) and *wiusi/wiubo* (that). *Si* denotes the objects or person in question whereas *hai-*, *si--*(1st component) and *wiu-* are the pronoun which refer to the proximity or distal of an object. Following are the examples,

a) *haisi ə-gu əriak ye*  
 this 1<sup>st</sup>p+GEN book ASP  
 ‘This is my book’

b) *sisi nəgu tək<sup>h</sup>aw ye*  
 It 2ndp+GEN bag ASP

‘It is your bag’

c) *wiusi ram- me*

That ram ASP

‘That is Ram’

d) *tət<sup>h</sup>isi əgu ye*

dog Det 1p GEN ASP

‘The dog is mine’

e) *wiubət<sup>h</sup>isi əgu ye*

that dog+Det 1p+GEN ASP

‘That dog is mine’

From the above examples, we can conclude that the pronoun occurs together with the determiner. When the pronoun and determiner are split the pronoun takes the suffix – *bə* (nominative) and the Det. –*si* is suffixed to the object which occurs in between them.

These pronouns can take locative case markers. When the locative case marker is suffixed to these pronouns an adverb is formed.

For examples,

*hai+gə haigə* ‘here’

*si+gə sigə* ‘there’

*wi+gə*      *wigə*      ‘there (distal)’

*hai+lām*      *hailām*      ‘this side’

*si+lām*      *silām*      ‘that side’

*wi+lām*      *wilām*      ‘there (distal)’

#### 4.6.5 Indefinite Pronoun

In this language, indefinite pronouns are formed by the combination of noun and the enclitic *-di* ‘also’, noun plus *kʰət* ‘one’.

*mai+di*      *maidī*      ‘none’

*wa+di*      *wadī*      ‘nothing’

These two words can be treated as negative polarity pronouns because they occur only in negative environment as in the following sentences.

a) *cəki gə*      *maidī*      *ha*      *ye*  
house-LOC    none            not available    ASP

‘There is nobody at home’

b) *təkʰau luŋ gə*      *wadī*      *ha*      *ye*  
bag    insideLOC            nothing      not available    ASP

‘There is nothing inside the bag’

c) *danai*      *office gə*      *maidī waŋ*      *mak*      *ge*  
yesterday    officeLOC    none    come    NEG    ASP

‘Nobody came to office yesterday’

d) *sigə*      *wadī*      *bam*      *lak*      *ge*

there nothing available NEG ASP

‘Nothing will be there’

*maid* generally refers to person only, whereas *wadi* indicates the material object. When these words are used in the positive environment, the sentence is grammatically incorrect.

*maik<sup>h</sup>ət* ‘someone’

*wak<sup>h</sup>ət* ‘something’

These words –*maik<sup>h</sup>ət* and *wak<sup>h</sup>ət* can occur only in the positive environment. *maik<sup>h</sup>ət* refers to person and *wak<sup>h</sup>ət* refers to the material objects. For examples,

a) *maik<sup>h</sup>ət əki luŋ gə gut mi de*  
someone my house inside LOC in PST ASP

‘Some one went inside my house’

b) *wak<sup>h</sup>ət tək<sup>h</sup>aw luŋ gə bam me*  
something bag inside LOC EXT ASP

‘Something is inside the bag’

c) *tsəki luŋ gə maik<sup>h</sup>ətrə bam-me*  
house inside LOC someone QMK EXT ASP

‘There is someone inside the room’

d) *haigə wak<sup>h</sup>ət mawbo bam-me*  
here something wrong EXT ASP

‘Something is wrong here’

The word *maik<sup>h</sup>ət* and *wak<sup>h</sup>ət* can be suffixed with the enclitic *-di* ‘also’ but the meaning will be the same as *maid* and *wad* respectively. When *maik<sup>h</sup>ət* and *wak<sup>h</sup>ət* are used in the negative environment it no longer means ‘someone’ and ‘something’, but it means ‘one person’ and ‘one thing’ respectively.

Other indefinite pronouns are *saokummai* ‘anybody’, *kəsia* ‘something’, *k<sup>h</sup>aŋsiamai* ‘some person’, *məthiu* ‘all’ etc. For examples,

- a) *saokummai tədui tsəri mai bam ma*  
 anybody water thirsty person there QMK

‘Is there anybody who is thirsty?’

- b) *ətu kəsia pi lo*  
 1p ACC some give QMK

‘Give me some’

- c) *mət<sup>h</sup>iu tsəp suk<sup>h</sup>e*  
 all stand rise lets

‘Lets all rise-up’

- d) *k<sup>h</sup>aŋsiamai tad rai mi de*  
 Somebody go first PST ASP

‘Some went ahead’

#### 4.6.6 Interrogative Pronoun

In Liangmai, there are two basic or principal interrogative pronouns. They are *-sao* ‘who’ and *-de* ‘what’. All other interrogative pronouns are formed by adding different case ending or other suffixes to the basic interrogatives. The interrogative pronoun

/de/ ‘what’ is never used in asking the name of a person, instead –*sao* ‘who’ is used for the purpose. Illustrations are given below.

a)	<i>nəzan</i>	<i>sao- lo</i>	<i>*nəzan</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>-lo</i>
	2 <sup>nd</sup> p+name	who+QMK	2 <sup>nd</sup> p+name	what+QMK	
	‘What is your name?’		‘What is your name?’		

b) *tsəki luŋ gə de bam lo*

house inside LOC what EXT QMK

‘What is there inside the house?’

c) *nəkapiu zan sao lo*

2<sup>nd</sup> p friend name who QMK

‘What is your friend’s name?’

d) *haisi de lo*

this what QMK

‘What is this?’

Some other interrogative pronouns derived from the basic interrogatives are as follows:

<b>sao</b>	<b>who</b>
<i>saotu</i>	to whom (by adding ACC case ending-tu)
<i>saoniu</i>	by whom (by adding NOM case ending-niu)
<i>saoleŋ</i>	for whom
<i>saogu</i>	whose (by adding GEN case ending-gu)



<i>saok<sup>h</sup>ugə</i>	with whom/ to whom
<b>de</b>	<b>what</b>
<i>degə</i>	where (by suffixation of LOC case ending-gə)
<i>delam</i>	where (by suffixation of case marker –lam)
<i>dedao</i>	when (suffixed dao to the basic interrogative)
<i>delen</i>	for what (by suffixation of case ending -leng)
<i>dekamzə</i>	why (by suffixation of the word -kamzə)
<i>degu</i>	of what (suffixed GEN case – gu)
<i>degəsu</i>	from where (suffixation of case marker -gəsu)
<i>delamsu</i>	from where (suffixation of case marker-lamsu)

Examples of interrogative sentences:-

<i>haisi sao len lo</i>	for whom is this?
<i>əriaksi sao gu lo</i>	whose book is this?
<i>naŋ degə bam lo</i>	where do you stay?
<i>naŋ delam tat lo</i>	where did you go?
<i>naŋ dedao tad ra lo</i>	when will you go?
<i>naŋ delam su waŋ lo</i>	where did you come from?

#### 4.7 Compounds

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 word 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 liangmai.

#### 4.7.1 Compound noun

The most common types of compounds are the compound nouns. Both the compound of two semantically identical words and two semantically related words are found in liangmai. Examples of these types of compounds in liangmai are mentioned below:

<i>Pow</i>	<i>pe</i>	>	<i>powpe</i>	‘ancestor’
grandfather	grandmother			
<i>Kəbaŋ</i>	<i>ky</i>	>	<i>kabaŋky</i>	‘prison’
slave	house			
<i>tsəheŋ</i>	<i>tsaŋiu</i>	>	<i>tsaheŋ-tsaŋiu</i>	‘weapons’
dagger	spear			
<i>Katiu</i>	<i>kata</i>	>	<i>katiukata</i>	‘ornament’
necklaces	bangles			
<i>tsəp<sup>h</sup>ai</i>	<i>tsəni</i>	>	<i>tsəp<sup>h</sup>aitsəni</i>	‘dresses’
shawl	pant			
<i>Tiŋ</i>	<i>kədi</i>	>	<i>tiŋkədi</i>	‘universe’
sky	earth			
<i>Tasiŋ</i>	<i>baŋ</i>	>	<i>tasiŋbaŋ</i>	‘trees’

wood	plant			
<i>Dui</i>	<i>di</i>	>	<i>duidi</i>	‘flood’
water	big			
<i>Lad</i>	<i>rien</i>	>	<i>ladrien</i>	‘promise’
language	fixed			
<i>Pui</i>	<i>piu</i>	>	<i>puipiu</i>	‘parent’
mother	father			
<i>Ariak</i>	<i>nah</i>	>	<i>ariaknah</i>	‘student’
book	child			
<i>zen</i>	<i>p<sup>h</sup>i</i>	>	<i>zenp<sup>h</sup>i</i>	‘wages’
day	earn			
<i>Magian</i>	<i>na</i>	>	<i>magianna</i>	‘orphan’
sorrow	child			
<i>Naupui</i>	<i>naupiu</i>	>	<i>naupuinaupiu</i>	‘couples’
bride	groom			
<i>tsun</i>	<i>dij</i>	>	<i>tsundij</i>	‘midnight’
night	straight			
<i>Wan</i>	<i>tsak</i>	>	<i>wantsak</i>	‘watch’
time	count			
<i>tsari</i>	<i>mai</i>	>	<i>tsharimai</i>	‘soldier’

war	man			
<i>Tadui</i>	<i>riaŋ</i>	>	<i>taduiriaŋ</i>	‘canal’
water	rope			
<i>tsawaŋ</i>	<i>ky</i>	>	<i>tsawaŋki</i>	‘palace’
king	house			
<i>Ruaŋ</i>	<i>di</i>	>	<i>ruaŋdi</i>	‘multitude’
gather	big			
<i>tsapiu</i>	<i>ky</i>	>	<i>tsapiuki</i>	‘dispensary’
medicine	house			
<i>Mak<sup>h</sup>ui</i>	<i>dui</i>	>	<i>mak<sup>h</sup>uidui</i>	‘honey’
bee	water			
<i>Pi</i>	<i>run</i>	>	<i>pirun</i>	‘cap’
head	wear			

#### 4.7.2 Associative Compounds

In this type of compound word, 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:

*/l<sup>h</sup>ainai-sonnai/* ‘now-a-day’

today tomorrow

*/tsak<sup>h</sup>ao-kadi/*

‘animal kingdom’

animal earth

### 4.7.3 Endocentric Compounds

It is a compound which contains an element that functions as head.

Examples:

*Naimik*      *rapen*                      *naimik+rapen*              ‘sunflower’

‘sun’              ‘flower’

*t<sup>h</sup>iura*      *bəŋ*                      *t<sup>h</sup>iura+bəŋ*              ‘chilli tree’

‘chilli’              ‘tree’

*siŋbaŋ gu*      *pamen*                      *siŋbaŋmen*              ‘root’

Tree              GEN      root

*siŋbaŋ gu*      *rasi*                      *siŋbaŋrasi*              ‘afruit’

Tree              GEN      fruit

### 4.7.4 Exocentric Compounds

In this type of compound word, one element modifies or restricts the other and the whole denotes an entity which is a hyponym of an unexpressed semantic head.

They can categorize into two types - purposive and resultatives depending upon the type of relationship that exist between the constituent elements.

Examples:

Purposive – */pot/* ‘object or thing’ denote to form the word in purposive.

*/cəben gə mətak<sup>h</sup> aibo pot/* ‘type of bangles to wear in the hand’

Hand LOC wear thing

‘Thing to wear in the hand’

Resultatives- /piu/ ‘man or person’ denote to form the word in resultatives.

*/cəp<sup>h</sup> ai kət<sup>h</sup> abo piu/* ‘washer man’

cloth wash man

‘A person who wash cloth’

#### 4.7.5 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:

*siŋ* ‘wood’+ *meŋ* ‘root’ > *siŋmeŋ* ‘root’

*ariak* ‘book’ + *ki* ‘house’ > *ariakki* ‘school’

#### 4.8 Reduplication

Various types of repetition in the structure of a word are reduplication (David Crystal). In historical linguistics, the term refers to the way a prefix/suffix reflects certain phonological characteristics of a root.

Sapir (1921:76) observed that:

Nothing is more natural than the prevalence of reduplication, in other words, the repetition of all or part of the radical element. The process is generally employed with self-evident symbolism, to indicate such concept as distribution, plurality, repetition, customary activity, and increase in size, added intensity, and continuance.

Liangmai language also uses various reduplication processes for the sole purpose of creating new words by either repeating a syllabus or the whole word. Different processes of reduplication like expressives that includes onomatopoeias, sound symbolism, idiophones and imitative, word reduplications are also used in Liangmai.

#### 4.8.1 Expressive in Liangmai

The expressives are used in Liangmai to convey all the five senses of perception i.e. the sense of smell, sight, touch hearing and taste. Examples are given below.

##### 4.8.1.1 Acoustic Noises

It includes noises of natural phenomena, noises made by human, and noises by miscellaneous inanimate objects etc that the Liangmai copy audibly to describe that particular object. The reduplication can be either complete or partial, consider the following examples in Liangmai

Noises of natural phenomena:

*/kluŋ kluŋ/* ‘thundering sound’ as in

*tiŋsin          kluŋ kluŋ          bəmme*

thundering    sound          PROG – ASP

‘It is thundering by making noise’

*/ho: ho:/* ‘sound of water flowing’ as in

*tədui    luanŋ    ho: ho:    bəm me*

water    flow    sounds          PROG – ASP

‘The water is flowing making a sound’

Noises made by human beings.

*/prum: prum:/* ‘Clapping sound’ as in

*tsəben kəp<sup>h</sup>i prum: prum: bəmme*

hand claps sound PROG – ASP

‘There is sound of clapping hands’

*/tsin: tsin:/* ‘noisy sounds made by people’ as in

*tsəmaina duŋ tsin: tsin bəmme*

people PL sounds PROG – ASP

‘People are making noisy sounds’

Noises by miscellaneous inanimate objects.

*/trut trut/* ‘sound of phone ringing’ as in

*phɔn trut trut məra bəmme*

phone sound shouts PROG – ASP

‘The phone is ringing making a sound’

*/tuŋ: tuŋ:/* ‘Sound of drum’ as in

*/intsɔm biu tuŋ: tuŋ: bəmme*

drum beat sounds PROG – ASP

‘There is a sound of beating drum’

#### **4.8.1.2 Sense of Sight**

These kinds of expressives are used in Liangmai to refer to the glimmering, sparkling or glittering aspects of an object. Examples are given below:

*/priŋ riŋ/* ‘sparkling’ as in



*naylan priŋ riŋ ye*

2p + earring sparkling sparkling ASP

‘Your earring is sparkling’

*/p<sup>h</sup>iŋ p<sup>h</sup>iŋ/* ‘glittering’ as in

*nəŋmik siu phiŋ phiŋ ye*

2p + eye cl. Glittering glittering – ASP

‘Your eye is glittering’

*/plik plik/* ‘clicking or twinkling’ as in

*tsəmaina duŋ kemera kep plik plik bəmmə*

people PL camera shoot clicking clicking PROG – ASP

‘People are clicking camera’

#### 4.8.1.3 Sense of Touch

These kinds of expressives are used in Liangmai to indicate the sense of feeling while touching the objects. They occur only in complete reduplication. Examples from liangmai are given below.

*/nəp nəp/* ‘sticky’ as in

*əben nəp nəp ye*

1p + hand sticky sticky ASP

‘My hand is sticky’

*/ni ni/* ‘slippery’ as in

*puiki ni ni*

road slippery slippery

‘The road is slippery’

#### 4.8.1.4 Sense of Taste

These kinds of expressives are used in Liangmai to describe the taste of a particular item. It indicates that the degree of taste is in high degree or extreme. They occur in complete reduplication.

Examples

*/hum hum/* ‘very sweet’ as in

*həibo          tsə          hum hum*

Det + NOM    tea      sweet sweet

‘This tea is very sweet’

*/khə khə/* ‘very bitter’ as in

*həibo          tsərasɪ          kʰə kʰə*

Det + NOM    fruits    bitter bitter

‘This fruit taste very bitter’

#### 4.8.1.5 Sense of Smell

Liangmai makes use of expressives for good and bad smells. It can be consider as examples of complete reduplication examples are given below in Liangmai.

*/hun hun/* ‘smell or aroma’ as in

*perfium    rim    hun hun    y e*

perfume    smell    aroma aroma    ASP

‘There is a fragrance or aroma of perfume’

*/hun hun/* ‘odour’ as in

*nəmsa bo rim hun hun ye*

sniff + bad NOM smell odour odour ASP

‘There is a bad smell or odour around’

#### 4.8.2 Onomatopoeias and Imitative

Onomatopoeias are these words that are used to imitate sound. It is a kind of figure of speech in which the sounds tries to reflect the sense. There are many words of this type found in Liangmai language and the function of these words is to reflect as accurately as possible those natural phenomena. Onomatopoeias and imitative are also examples of complete reduplications. Consider the following onomatopoeia and imitative words in Liangmai.

*/we: we:/* ‘crying sound of pig’ as in

*kəbak we: we: məra bəmme*

pig sound sound shout PROG – ASP

‘The pig is crying making a sound’

*/huŋ huŋ/* ‘barking sound of deer’ as in

*tə<sup>h</sup>an məra huŋ huŋ bəmme*

deer shout bark bark PROG – ASP

‘The deer is barking making a sound’

#### 4.8.3 Word Reduplication

Word reduplication means the repetition of the base word either partially or completely. Reduplication can be of either a syllable or a larger constituent of a word

or of the whole word. Abbi (1992) divided complete reduplication into two types and the division was based on functional criteria. The two sub-types are a) class maintaining type, referring to these words, which remain in the same grammatical class even after reduplication and b) class changing type, refers to those reduplicated words which change its grammatical class after reduplication from its non-reduplicated counterpart. Both the types are discussed below:

#### 4.8.3.1 Class Maintaining

- a) /siam/ ‘small’ (adj) /siam siam/ (adj) as in  
*tsək<sup>h</sup>a duŋ siam siam*  
 fish PL small small  
 ‘fish are very small’
- b) /di/ ‘big’ (adj) /di di/ (adj) as in  
*tsək<sup>h</sup>ə duŋ di di/*  
 fish PL big big  
 ‘the fish are very big’
- c) /kə/ ‘white’ (adj) /kə kə/ (adj) as in  
*tsərapen kə kə*  
 flower white white  
 ‘very white flower’

#### 4.8.3.2 Class Changing

- a) /sək/ ‘drink’ (v) /sək sək/ (adv) as in  
*/sək sək piən – de/*  
 drinking drinking satisfied – ASP  
 ‘satisfied while drinking’
- b) /pək/ ‘run’ (v) /pək pək/ (adv) as in  
*pək pək tsəriu – ye*  
 running running tired – ASP  
 ‘got tired while running’

- c) /liɑŋ/ ‘shake’ (v) /liɑŋ liɑŋ/ (adv) as in  
 tsəki liɑŋ liɑŋ bəmme  
 house shaking shaking PROG – ASP  
 ‘the house is shaking’

## 4.9 Verbs

### 4.9.1 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Liangmai verbs can be divided into two types: Transitive and intransitive verb. Transitive verb denotes an action; it passes from the subject to somebody or something. Transitive verbs are those which can take a direct object. On the other hand intransitive verb doesn’t take an object in order to complete its sense. The action stops with the verb and doesn’t pass to any object and do not take a direct object.

Kinds of transitive verb in Liangmai

Affect	Placement	Mental	Utterance
<i>kəhibo</i> ‘touch’	<i>k<sup>h</sup>aibo</i> ‘put’	<i>piŋbo</i> ‘fear’	<i>dinbo</i> ‘tell’

**Table 15: Transitive verb**

Examples of transitive verbs are illustrated below:

- a) *i-niu lily-tu luŋsa-ye*

i NOM lily ACC love ASP

‘I love lily’

- b) *aliu tek tiu mide*

we rice eat PST

‘We ate rice’

- c) *i niu tət<sup>h</sup>i-tu dəb ye*

I NOM dog ACC beat ASP

‘I beat the dog’

Kinds of intransitive verb in Liangmai

Human propensity	sense	dimension	motion	posture	Physical sensation
<i>mət<sup>h</sup>abo</i>	<i>Humbo</i>	<i>kubo</i> ‘tall’	<i>pəkbo</i>	<i>cəpbo</i>	<i>əzambo</i>
‘happy’	‘sweet’		‘running’	‘standing’	‘hurt’
<i>kəpbo</i> ‘cry’	t <sup>h</sup> iubo ‘hot’	<i>dumbo</i>	<i>kiubo</i>	<i>duŋbo</i>	
		‘short’	‘climbing’	‘sitting’	<i>masəkbo</i>
					‘itching’

**Table 16: Intransitive verb**

Their occurrence in the following sentence are shown as follows:

a) *pa zi bamme*

he sleep prog ASP

‘He is sleeping’

b) *glas pəroi mide*

glass broke PST

‘The glass broke’

c) *tət<sup>h</sup>i niu t<sup>h</sup>aŋ ye*

dog NOM bark ASP

‘The dog bark’

### 4.8.2 Compound Verbs

Combining two root morphemes together forms compound verbs. Compound verbs in Liangmai are exemplified below:

*lu + wuaŋ* 'to bring'

take come

*taki + tat* 'to visit'

inspect go

*teŋ + su* 'to work'

work do

*tiu + sak* 'to feast'

eat drink

### 4.8.3 Conjunct Verb

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

*kambo* 'to do'

*tsəŋam + kambo* (*work+do*) 'to (do) work'

*tsəlu + kambo* (*cultivate+do*) 'to (do) cultivate'

*guan* 'to become'

*duŋ + guan* (*short+come*) 'to become short'

#### 4.8.4 Causative

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

Non-causative		Causative	
<i>tui</i>	‘eat’	<i>pi-tuibo</i>	‘cause to eat’
<i>zuan</i>	‘sell’	<i>pi-zuanbo</i>	‘cause to sell’
<i>lim</i>	‘cut’	<i>pi-limbo</i>	‘cause to cut’
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ai</i>	‘put’	<i>pi-k<sup>h</sup>aibo</i>	‘cause to put’
<i>sai</i>	‘die’	<i>pi-saibo</i>	‘cause to kill’
<i>ηau</i>	‘see’	<i>pi-ηaibo</i>	‘cause to see’

#### 4.8.5 Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are specialized verbs or in other words auxiliary verbs refer to the set of verbs, subordinate to the main verb. In Liangmai, there are two types of auxiliary verbs, viz.(i) main auxiliary and (ii) modal auxiliary.

##### 4.8.5.1 Main Auxiliary

In Liangmai, the main auxiliary verb expresses the meaning of ‘be’ and ‘have’. This auxiliary verbs function as copulas in non-verbal predicates and also used in locative predicates and static sense of possession. Consider the following examples:

a) *əgu pirun kədibo bamme*

my cap    big    POSS.ASP

‘I had a big cap’



b) *pa tsəki ga bamme*

He home LOC EXT.ASP

‘He is at home’

c) *əgu mətompui k<sup>h</sup>at bamme*

1p GEN cow one POSS.ASP

‘I have one cow’

#### 4.8.5.2 Modal Auxiliary

There are two modal auxiliary in Liangmai viz, *ɲamme* ‘can’ and *suiye* ‘may’.

a) *i kam ɲamme*

i do can mod.aux

‘I can do’

b) *pə tsaliu thiu ɲamme*

she song sing mod.aux

‘She can sing’

c) *tɪŋsə suiye*

rain mod.aux

‘It may rain’

Verb can be divided into three types on semantic ground, viz (i) action verb (ii) static verb (iii) precess verb.

#### 4.8.5.2.1 Action Verb

Action verbs are those that indicate an action.

a) *i niu bamme*

I laugh PRO.ASP

‘I am laughing’

b) *i sak bamme*

I drink PRO.ASP

‘I am drinking’

c) *tət<sup>h</sup> aŋ pak bamme*

deer run PRO.ASP

‘Deer is running’

List of action verbs in Liangmai are listed below;

*/tiubo/* ‘to eat’

*/dəpbo/* ‘to beat’

*/zənbə/* ‘to distribute’

*/nuibo/* ‘to laugh’

*/giabo/* ‘to draw’

#### 4.8.5.2.2 Static Verb

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

a) *haibo tsəki ku ye*

This house high ASP

‘This house is high’

b) *wiubo phai duŋ ye*

that cloth short ASP

‘That cloth is short’

#### 4.8.5.2.3 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 examples given below:

*Saimibo kəmi tenziu bəmme*

Dead goat rotten PRO.asp

‘the dead goat is being rotten’

#### 4.10 Tense and Aspect

The term is derived from a Latin translation of Greek word “khronos” which means time (Lyons 1968). Tense in Liangmai is not very distinct and is not so clear. It is an empirical claim that tense is one of the grammatical categories that express the location in time. No clear morphological analysis for denoting tense in Liangmai. Let us examine the following sentences.

a). *i dannai tsəlu təd ye*

I yesterday field go ASP

‘I went to field yesterday’

b). *i t<sup>h</sup>ai tsəlu təd ye*

I        today        field    go ASP

‘I went to field today’

c).    *i        sonnai tsəlu    tad-raboi*

I        tomorrow       field    go pro ASP

‘I wil go to the field tomorrow’

From the above three sentences we noticed that the verb ending in sentence (a) and (b) are the same though they occur with different time adverbial – /*danai*/ ‘yesterday’ and /*int<sup>h</sup>ai*/ ‘today’ respectively. But in sentence (c), since the time adverbial is different i.e /*sonnai*/ ‘tomorrow’, the verb ending is also changed into *-/ne/* or */raboi/*. This shows that there is a grammatical agreement between /*danai*/ ‘tomorrow’ and the verb ending in 1(c), while in 1(a) and 1(b) time difference is not grammaticalized. In Liangmai the only tense distinction grammatically is future and non-future, where the simple past and present is not marked while the future is marked by the auxiliary *-/ne/* or */raboi/*. Thus it would be more feasible to discuss ‘Aspect’ instead of ‘tense’ in this language.

The aspect, in Liangmai, can be categories into four kinds depending on the kind of action in terms of its distribution over a period of time.

#### **4.10.1 Aspect**

Aspect is no concerned with relating the time of the situation to any other point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of the one situation. Aspect denotes the manner in which the action identified by the verb is regarded or experienced. Aspect is more prominent than tense in this language. Types of aspect found in Liangmai are given below.

- (i)    Simple aspect
- (ii)    Progressive aspect
- (iii)    Perfect aspect
- (iv)    Irrealis or unrealized aspect

#### 4.10.1.1 Simple Aspect

It expresses simple statement, habitual aspect and universal truth. Simple aspect is marked by /-ye/, /me/, / bamme/, le, and /kinne/ is suffixed to the verb depending on the phonological condition.

Examples:

a) *kədi*      *pom me*

Earth      round ASP

‘The Earth is round’

b) *ram*      *skul*      *tad*      *le*

Ram      school go      ASP

‘Ram goes to school’

(c) *zon aliu k<sup>h</sup>uga bamme*

john we LOC      ASP

‘John is with us’

(d) *pa waŋ*      *kinne*

he come PRO.ASP

‘He is coming’

#### 4.10.1.2 Progressive Aspect

This indicates action which is limited in duration and is in progress. It is generally marked by suffixing /-kinne/ to the verb. Sometimes, in certain cases, the progressive

is also expressed by adding /-bam/ and /-ra/ to the verb. And the future progressive may be or may not be mark. Illustrative examples are as follows.

Examples:

a) *əliu tsəlui inkiŋ kinne*

We song listen PRG ASP

‘we are listening song’

b) *pa waŋ kinne*

he come PRG ASP

‘He is coming’

c) *sitaəlaŋ bamme*

sita cook PRG ASP

‘Sita is cooking’

d) *naŋ delam təd ra lo*

You where go FUT QMK

‘Where are you going?’

e) *pa waŋ ra boi*

he come FUT ASP

‘He will be coming’

#### 4.10.1.3 Perfective Aspect

The perfective aspect is marked by the suffixes /-mi/ and /-lu/. Since the past tense is not marked, these would be for both present perfective and past perfective. The

markers take the element /-ye/ and /-de/, in some case, to indicate present perfective and past perfective respectively. However, there is no formal difference between them.

Examples:

a) *pa tsəlu təd mi ye*

he field go PERF ASP

‘He has gone to the field’

b) *pa tsəpiu tiu lu de*

he medicine eat PERF ASP

‘He had taken the medicine’

c) *tiŋriu sao mi de*

rain stop PERF ASP

‘The rain had stopped’

d) *i ŋau lu de*

I see PERF ASP

‘I have seen’

#### 4.10.1.4 Irrealis or Unrealized Aspect

This is used for action which will take place in the near future. This is marked by /-ne/ or /rabo/. The negative particle, /lak/ indicates negation plus future, therefore the unrealized negation does not take any imperfective marker.

Examples:

a) *pa tsəlu təd ne/rəboi*

he field go FUT

'He will go to the field'

b) *əliunt<sup>h</sup>ai tsəwan mət<sup>h</sup>en ne*

we today evening play FUT

'We will play this evening'

c) *əpiu sonnai op<sup>h</sup>is tad lak ge*

my father tomorrow office go NEG+FUT ASP

'My father will not go to office tomorrow'

#### 4.11 Negations

There are four negative particles in Liangmai. They are – /*mək*/, /*lək*/, /*ma*/ and /*du*/ any affirmative and interrogative sentences can be transformed into simple negative, imperative negative or an interrogative negative sentence by selecting and placing the appropriate negative particles in the word order of the affirmative sentence.

The negative marker, as a rule, follows the verb and never precedes it. The distribution or occurrences of different negative particles in different aspects of a sentence are stated below:

**/mək/:** The negative marker – /*mək*/ is used in realized aspect (perfective tense). However, if the infinitive- /*rə*/ is suffixed to the verb and is followed by the negative particle, it is used also in the unrealized aspect. And if the negative particle is followed by –/*rəbo*/, which is definitive, it is used in both the realized and unrealized aspect.

For example:



a) *i deli tad mək ge*

i Delhi go NEG ASP

'I do not go to delhi'

b) *ram basi tiu mək ge*

ram mango eat NEG ASP

'Ram does not eat mango'

c) *i p<sup>h</sup>utbol mət<sup>h</sup>en mək de*

i football play NEG ASP

'I had not played football'

d) *pa deli təd-rə mək ge*

3P delhi go+INF NEG ASP

'He will not go to Delhi'

e) *nəŋ sonnai kətiu tiu mək rəbo we*

you tomorrow food eat NEG+ DEF ASP

'You shall not eat/ take food tomorrow'.

f) *pa sigə tad mək rəbo de*

3P there go NEG + DEF ASP

'She shall not have gone there'.

**/lək/**: The negative marker- /lək/ is used in the unrealized aspect (imperfective tense). When a definitive marker- /rəbo/, which express obligation, is suffixed to the negative element, it is used in realized aspect also.

For example:

- a) *i əriaki təd lək ge*  
i school go NEG ASP

‘I will not go to school’

- b) *ram ba?si tiu lək ge*  
ram mango eat NEG ASP

‘Ram will not eat mango’

- c) *zon meritu ku lək ge*  
john Mary+ACC marry NEG ASP

‘John will not marry Mary’

- d) *nəŋ sigə kəzao lək rəbo lam de*  
you there join NEG +DEF supposed to be ASP

‘You are not supposed to join their’.

**/ma/**: the negative particle – */ma/* is used in imperative negation. The word always follows the verb and takes the suffix *–ne/* in the imperative sentence.

For example:

- a) *nia ma ne*  
touch NEG ASP

‘Do not touch’

- b) *sitiu mət<sup>h</sup>en ma -ne*

DET play NEG ASP

‘Don’t play like that’.

c) *kətinŋg-mai-tu* *sitiu* *pou* *ma* *ne*

old man ACC DET+ like talks NEG ASP

‘Do not talk to elders like that’

**/du/**: it is used in ‘let’ negative and prohibitive sentence. The particles *-/du/* occurs with an imperative suffix *-/lo/* in the imperative sentence. However, both the markers occur with the proposal (suggestive) suffix *-/k<sup>h</sup>e/*. Without the suffixes the sentence of these types are incomplete. In let negation *-/du-k<sup>h</sup>e/* is mostly used.

Consider the following examples:

a) *mət<sup>h</sup>en du-lo* *mət<sup>h</sup>en ma* *ne*

play NEG+IMP play NEG ASP

‘Don’t play Do not play’

b) *əliu maitu* *kəsa kam* *du k<sup>h</sup>e*

we other people+ACC evil do NEG –SUG

‘Let’s not commit sin (evil) to others’.

c) *əliu kəp<sup>h</sup>uam* *gə kəzao* *du k<sup>h</sup>e*

we group LOC join NEG+SUG

‘Let’s not join the group’

d) *wiubo tək<sup>h</sup>ausi* *nia ma* *ne*

that bag+DET touch NEG ASP

‘Do not touch that bag’

#### 4.11.1 Negative Strengthening and Negative Polarity

Negative is strengthened by the addition of a word like - /wədaodi/ or /zət/ (never) before the verb in the sentence. /wədaodi/ takes a place before the verb whereas /zət/ follows the verb in the word order of the sentence.

a)    *pa*    *sigə*    *wədaodi*    *tət*    *lək*    *ge*  
3P    there    never            go    NEG    ASP

‘He will never go there’.

b)    *i*        *sisi*    *wədaodi*    *ten*    *lan*    *lək*    *de*  
i        that/it    never            do    again    NEG + IMP

‘I’ll never do it again’.

c)    *i*        *deli*    *təd*    *zət*    *mək*    *k<sup>h</sup>a*    *ye*  
i        delhi    go        never    NEG ?        ASP

‘I’ve never been to delhi’

d)    *i*        *k<sup>h</sup>upiu*                    *tup*    *zət*    *mək*    *ge*  
i        tobacco/ cigarette    smoke never    NEG    ASP

‘I never smoke’

e)    *i*        *k<sup>h</sup>upiu*                    *tup*    *mək*    *ge*  
i        tobacco/ cigarette    smoke    NEG    ASP

‘I don’t smoke’

The words /wədaodi/ and /zət/ are treated as negative polarity item as they are restricted to occur in a negative environment.

a) *i k<sup>h</sup>upiu tup lək ge*

i cigarette smoke NEG ASP

‘I will not smoke’

b) *I k<sup>h</sup>upiu wədaodi tup lək ge*

i cigarette never smoke will+NEG ASP

‘I will never smoke’

c) *\*I k<sup>h</sup>upiu wədaodi tup ne*

i cigarette never smoke ASP

‘I will smoke’

Sentence a and b are grammatically correct where as sentence c is ungrammatical because /wədaodi/ cannot be used in positive environment.

Other negative polarity items such as /wadi/ (nothing), /maidil/ (no one) occurs with another negative particles /mək/ or /lək/ or another word /ha/ (not available) to show their negative polarity in their sentences.

a) *i wadi nia mək ge*

i nothing touch NEG ASP

‘I did’nt touch anything’

b) *i pəliu maiditu si mək ge*

i they none ACC know NEG ASP

‘I knew none of them’

- c) *tək<sup>h</sup>ou luŋgə wadi ha ye*  
bag inside nothing not available ASP

‘Nothing is inside the bag’

- d) *tsəki-gə maidi ha ye*  
home+ACC no one not available ASP

‘Nobody/no one in at home’.

- e) *\*tək<sup>h</sup>au luŋgə wadi bam me.*  
bag in+ACC nothing available/exist ASP

(nothing is there in the bag)

- f) *\*tsəki-gə maidi bam me*  
home+ACC nobody available ASP

(nobody is there at home)

The sentences e and f are not possible in Liangmai as /wadi/ and /maidi/ cannot occur in a positive environment (i.e without another negative particle) or without the word ‘ha’ in the sentence. If the suffix /di/ is deleted from sentence e and f, the sentences will become.

- g) *tək<sup>h</sup>au luŋgə wa bam me*  
bag inside something exist/ available ASP

‘There is something inside the bag’

- h) *tsəki-gə mai bam me*

home+ACC person/people available /present ASP

‘Somebody is at home’

So, in the negative polarity items *-/wadi/* and */maidi/* the suffix *-/di/* polarizes a word to negation. The words like */ha/* (not present/not available), */wadi/* (nothing), */maidi/* (no-one) and */wadaodi/* (never) are not treated as a negative particle because-with their addition/inclusion in the affirmative sentence does not transform the sentence into a negative one.

a)     *əpiu*            *tsəki-gə*        *ha*            *ye*  
my    father home+ACC not avail    ASP

‘My father is not at home’.

b)     \**əpiu*            *tsəki-gə*                    *ye*  
my father        home+ACC            ASP

‘My father (is at) home’

#### 4.11.2 Double Negation

When two negatives refer to the same idea or word the result is invariably positive. The negative elements seem to cancel each other as it is in the case of mathematics and algebra. Though there are four negative particles in Liangmai, all of them do not involve in double negation process. The occurrence of the negative elements in the process is discussed below.

i). **/mək-mək/**: The element */mək/* is reduplicated in the double negation where the idea means positive. It is used preferably in the verbal expression and is used to rectify the given negative expression as it is not so.

For example:

a)     *tom*    *waŋ*    *mək*    *ge*

Tom come NEG ASP

‘Tom did not come’

b) *tom waŋ mək- mək ge*

tom come NEG-NEG ASP

‘It is not the case that tom did not come’

(which means Tom did come).

c) *tom waŋ mək ge*

tom come NEG ASP

‘Tom did come’

a) *pa danai mət<sup>h</sup>en mək ge*

3P yesterday plays NEG ASP

‘He did not play yesterday’

b) *pa danai mət<sup>h</sup>en mək-mək ge*

3P yesterday play NEG-NEG ASP

‘It is not that he did not play yesterday’.

(He played yesterday)

c) *pa danai mət<sup>h</sup>en ne*

3P yesterday play ASP

‘He played yesterday’.



The sentences c and c are the results of sentences b and b when the negative particles cancel each other. In these we find that the aspects /ge/ changes to /ŋe/ and /ne/. it is due to assimilation of the last sound of the preceding word.

ii). /mək-lək/: The negative particles –/mək/ and /lək/ are placed in juxtapose in the double negation. When the negative element /mək/ is followed by the other negative particle /læg/ the idea is positive and is used to rectify the negative expression/ action of the non-past (future). And when the word- /mək/ is preceded by the word /lək/ it rectifies the impossibility of the action being performed in the non-past.

Consider the following examples:

a) *ram bol mət<sup>h</sup>en lək ge*

ram ball play NEG ASP

‘Ram will not play football’.

b) *ram bol mət<sup>h</sup>en mək-lək ge*

ram ball play NEG-NEG ASP

‘Ram may not avoid playing football’.

c) *ram bol mət<sup>h</sup>en su- rabo we*

ram ball play Impf+INF ASP

‘Ram may play football’

d) *mark tek tiu mək su e*

mark rice eat NEG may ASP

‘mark may not eat rice’

d) *mark tek tiu mək lək ge*

mark            rice    eat    NEG-NEG    ASP

‘It is not that mark will not eat rice’

(which means mark will eat rice)

e)    *zon            tek    tiu    su    rabo    we*

john            rice    eat    Impf+INF    ASP

‘john may eat rice’

f)    *pa    kam    lu    lək-    mək    ge*

3P    do    can    NEG-    NEG    ASP

‘It is not that she cannot do (means she can do it)’

g)    *zon    p<sup>h</sup>uŋkam    lək-    mək    ge*

john    carries all    NEG-    NEG    ASP

‘It is not that john cannot carry everything’.

(means John can carry everything)

In all cases we find that negative particle immediately follows the verb and is placed just before the aspect which is the penultimate element in the sentence.

iii). /**mək-du**/: As the element *-/du/* is used only in lets negation, the double negation */mək-du/* is used in requesting not to avoid / keep away from performing the action. The element *-/du/* occurs only with */mək/* which precedes the former negative particle.

Consider the following examples:

a)    *mət<sup>h</sup>en mək    du    k<sup>h</sup>e*

play NEG-NEG      SUG

‘Let us play’ (Lit: It is not the case that we would not play)

- a)      *əmənmək      bam- tədi      parti-gə      zao      mək du k<sup>h</sup>e*  
unhappy      even if      party+ACC      join      NEG-NEG SUG

‘Even if we are not happy let us join the party’.

#### 4.12 Interrogatives

Position of YES/NO, Question and tag question marker.

In Liangmai, YES/NO and tag Question marker occurs pre-verbally:

YES/NO Question:

- a)      *naŋ      zon tu      si      ma*

You    john ACC    know QMK

‘Do you know john?’

- b)      *naŋ      ətu      si      ma*

You    1P+ACC    know    QMK

‘Do you know me?’

- c)      *naŋ      pəliu      tu      si-ma*

You    them      ACC know QMK

‘Do you know them?’

**Alternative question:**

- a)      *naŋ      bəksi      mase      ma      mase      mak      lo*

You mango want QMK want NEG COM

'Do you want mango or not?'

b) *naŋ təl<sup>h</sup>i mase ma mase mak lo*

You dog want QMK want NEG COM

'Do you want dog or not?'