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 studies 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

\( m\k \) ‘eye’
\( b\\en \) ‘hand’
\( t\am \) ‘hair’

Disyllabic nouns

\( t\\e\l\ i \) ‘dog’
\( t\\e\l\ a\n \) ‘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 pa- ‘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’

pa-piu ‘his father’

Body parts

ə-ben ‘my hand’

nə-ben ‘your hand’

pa-ben ‘his hand’

Other nouns

ə-zi ‘my bed’

nə-zi ‘your bed’

pa-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:

```
Noun
  ↓
  Animatie  Inanimate
    ↓
    Human  Non-human
       ↓
      Masculine  Feminine
      ↓
      ts, ki, ren
      ↓
      piu 'male/man'
      ↓
      e-piu 'my father'
      ↓
      pui 'female/woman'
      ↓
      e-pui 'my mother'
```

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>piu 'male/man'</td>
<td>pui 'female/woman'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e-piu 'my father'</td>
<td>e-pui 'my mother'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Human beings Gender Marker

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kami-tsi 'goat'</td>
<td>kami-pui 'she goat'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\textit{mọtoms} & \textit{mọtom-pui} \quad \text{‘cow’} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Table 6: Animals Gender Marker

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

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Masculine} & \text{Feminine} \\
\hline
\textit{kọbaku-kiu} \quad \text{‘pig(male)’} & \textit{kọbaku-nee} \quad \text{‘not given birth (female pig)’} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Table 7: Pig Gender Marker

In same way the gender maker for hen and duck are marked differently. The suffixes \textit{–ren} is marked for male and \textit{–pui} is marked for female.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Masculine} & \text{Feminine} \\
\hline
\textit{kọniu-ren} \quad \text{‘duck (male)’} & \textit{kọniu-pui} \quad \text{‘duck’(female)} \\
\textit{mọrui-ren} \quad \text{‘cock’} & \textit{mọrui-pui} \quad \text{‘hen’} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Table 8: Hen and Duck Gender Marker

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\textit{tsak}^b \textit{aminpiu} & \quad > \quad \text{‘fisherman’} \\
\textit{ak}^b \textit{epiu} & \quad > \quad \text{‘watchman’} \\
\textit{kọtipow} & \quad > \quad \text{‘teacher’} \\
\textit{tsarimai} & \quad > \quad \text{‘soldier’}
\end{align*}
\]
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.

\[ nəp^b \nuŋpui \quad > \quad \text{‘pregnant woman’} \]

\[ tsəp^b \ aidakpui \quad > \quad \text{‘female weaver’} \]

**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.

\[ tsəp^b \ ai \quad \text{‘cloth’} \]

\[ təzi \quad \text{‘bed’} \]

\[ tin kai \quad \text{‘air’} \]

\[ kəmuəŋ \quad \text{‘cloud’} \]

**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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Person</td>
<td>(i) ‘I’</td>
<td>(ənai) ‘we two’</td>
<td>(əliu) ‘we all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>(nəŋ) ‘you’</td>
<td>(nənai) ‘you two’</td>
<td>(nəliu) ‘you all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>әә ‘he/she’</td>
<td>әәә ‘he/she two’</td>
<td>әәі ‘they all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 9: Numbers**

**Singular**

Singular number is unmarked. Examples are as follows:

- **әәікә**  ‘book’
- **тәәкә**  ‘house’
- **тәәі**  ‘pot’
- **кәәіпәуә**  ‘teacher’
- **тәәгі**  ‘iron’

**Dual**

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

Examples of first person dual, i.e. әәі/әәі

a) әәі/әәі әәікә  тәд  әә
   I+Dual  school  go  asp
   ‘We two go to school’

b) әәі/әәі  тәәкә  әе
   I+Dual  friend  asp
   ‘We two are friend’
c) ənai/ənai  tsəlui  ūh  ye

I+Dual  song  sing  asp

‘We two sing a song.’

Examples of second person dual. i.e. ənai

a) ənai  wi  ye

you two  good  ASP

‘You two are good’

b) ənai  tan  ne

you two  strong  ASP

‘You two are strong’

c) ənai  əliu  wi  ye

you two  girl  good  ASP

‘You two are beautiful’

Example of third person dual. i.e. ənai

a) ənai  ariak  rou  bam  ye

3P two  book  write  Prog.  ASP

‘They (two) are writing’

b) ənai  wəŋ  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.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>‘I’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naŋ</td>
<td>‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pə</td>
<td>‘he/she’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

təli’duŋ  ‘dogs’

tək’iduŋ  ‘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’

ezon pəliu  ‘john and his group’

Other then these, there is a lexical item, məli‘iu ‘every’ which is generally used in the formation of plural. This is very productive, it can occur with only human being, while -pək’ian ‘all’ can occur with animal and inanimate. Consider the following examples in table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-human</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>məthiu ‘every’</td>
<td></td>
<td>pəkʰiaŋ ‘all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nəmai-məthiu ‘every child’</td>
<td></td>
<td>təapiu-pəkʰiaŋ ‘all medicine’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsəmai-məthiu ‘every people’</td>
<td></td>
<td>təthi-pəkʰiaŋ ‘all dogs’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Human and Non-human

Their occurrences in the sentences are given below:

Example of -məthiu ‘every’ (only human being).

a) piu mai məthiu wang bamme

man person every come prog ASP

‘Every men are come’

b) pui mai məthiu wang de

woman person every come PST

‘Every women had come’

c) katiŋ mai məthiu bamme

old person every prog ASP

‘Every old people are there’

d) kikʰun mai məthiu wang de

family person every come PST

‘Every family had come’

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

təlʰi pəkʰiaŋ

‘all dogs’

dog all
tsækʰou pækʰiŋ

animal all

təzi pækʰiŋ

‘all beds’

bed all

tsəki pækʰiŋ

‘all houses’

house all

tsəkui pækʰiŋ

‘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

puu-duŋ > puuduŋ ‘mothers’

mother PL

siŋnapiu-duŋ > siŋnapiu-duŋ ‘brothers’

brother PL

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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  
   /-niu/

2. Accusative  
   /-tu/

3. Genitive  
   /-gu/

4. Locative  
   /-kʰu/, /-ga/, /-ləm/

5. Instrumental  
   /-niu/

6. Ablative  
   /-gasu/, /-ləmsu/

7. Associative  
   /-nai/, /-pənai/

8. Dative  
   /-len/

9. Benefactive  
   /-len/

Nominative Case

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

Examples;

a)  paniu  Lily-tu  lungsa-ye

   he-NOM.  Lily-ACC  love-ASP
‘He loves Lily’.

(or) \( \text{pa Lily tu lungsa-ye.} \)

b) \( \text{paniu tso}^h_i-tu \text{ dab-be} \)

he-NOM dog-ACC hit-ASP

‘He hits the dog’.

(or) \( \text{pa tso}^h_i-tu \text{ dab-be} \)

c) \( \text{saoniu kamlo haisi} \)

who-NOM do-QMK this-DET

‘Who did this?’

d) \( \text{nanyiu tsapiangsi k}^h_iu-lo \)

you-NOM cup-DET wash-QMK

‘You wash the cup’.

(or) \( \text{nany tsapian}^h_i \text{ k}^h_iulo \)

e) \( \text{wilinbou niu kaiwiyan suan kubi-ye} \)

Wilinbou-NOM kaiwiyang than tall-COMP-asp

‘Wilinbou is taller than Kaiwiyang’.

f) \( \text{niu Benjamin tu arriaksi lura lan}^k_h ai-ye} \)

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;

*a*tu * (1p)-ACC

*n*atu * (2p)-ACC

*p*atu * (3p)-ACC

*jontu* * john-ACC

*ts'itutu* * dog-ACC

*ts'apuantu* * elephant-ACC

*ts'olutu* * field-ACC

*ts'okitu* * house-ACC

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

a)  *i*  *p*atu  *lugsay*e

I  he-ACC  love-ASP

‘I love her’

b)  *napui*  *n*atu  *kumamb*m*e

Your mother  you-ACC  call-EXT-ASP

‘Your mother is calling you’

c)  *pa*  *a*tu  *de*  *dni*  *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  tarea/ ‘your bag’

/pəgu/ (3p)-GEN (his/hers)

/pəgu pirun/ ‘his cap’

/zon gu kəraosin/ ‘John’s pen’

/zaogu/ ‘whose

/nədeg/ ‘of what’

a) Haitsi əgu tiaŋ-ye

This-DET i-GEN shirt-asp

‘This is my shirt’
b) \textit{Wiusi} \textit{nagu} \textit{ts\={a}hen-ye} \\
That-DET you-GEN knife-asp \\
‘That is your knife’ \\

\textbf{Locative Case}

Liangmai has three locative case markers- \textit{-k\^{h}u/}, \textit{-g\={a}/} and \textit{-lam/}. The case ending \textit{-k\^{h}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- \textit{-g\={a}/} and \textit{-lam/} are suffixed to certain post-position, determiners and proper nouns to indicate the position/location of an object, event and time.

Examples:

\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{/p\={a}ringa/} \quad on-LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}h\={a}nga/} \quad under-LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}lunga/} \quad inside-LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}tienga/} \quad outside/beside-LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}munga/} \quad beside / side-LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}taiga/} \quad side-LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}rilam/} \quad upside – LOC \\
\item \textit{/p\={a}hanlam/} \quad downside-LOC \\
\item \textit{/\={a}rilam/} \quad up/upside- LOC \\
\item \textit{/\={a}hanlam/} \quad downside-LOC
\end{itemize}
/əluŋlam/  inside-LOC  ‘inside’

/tsəkiga/  house-LOC  ‘at home’

/tsəlulam/  field-LOC  ‘at the field’

/pəkʰugə/  he-LOC-LOC  ‘with him’

/əkʰugə/  me-LOC-LOC  ‘with me’

/nəkʰugə/  you-LOC-LOC  ‘with you’

/əpiukʰugə/  my father-LOC-LOC  ‘to my father’

/silöŋə/  Shillong-LOC  ‘at Shillong’

Sentential examples:

a) suan  kəban  məniu-ɡə

Morning  hour/time  five-LOC

‘At 5 O’clock in the morning’

b) tsəwan  kəban  mədai-ɡə

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:

/kɔdrianiu/  hammer-INST  ‘with hammer’
/tajui-niu/  water-INST  ‘by water’
/kap'iu-niu/  spade- INST  ‘with spade’
/奥林iu/  boat- INST  ‘by boat’
/tat'i-niu/  dog- INST  ‘by the dog’
/karaosin-niu/  pencil-INST  ‘with pencil’
/tatu-niu/  stone-INST  ‘with stone’

Sentential examples:

a)  i  mɔri-niu  kabiu  biye  
I  axe-INST  bamboo  cut  ASP
‘I cut the bamboo with an axe’

b)  pa  tsæheyniu  tsægnniu  rome  
he  knife-INST  vegetable  cut-ASP
‘He cuts vegetables with a knife’

c)  awaŋbou  pensil-niu  ariak  rao-we  
Awangbou  pencil-INST  letter  write-ASP
‘Awangbou wrote a letter with a pencil’
d) ṣẽliu  ṣetu  ṭetu-niu  pʰen-ne

They (3p)-ACC stone–INST throw-ASP

‘They throw her with stone’

e) ṣətiu  ṣetu  tətʰun-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:

/əkʰu-gəsu/ (1p)-LOC-Abl ‘from me’

/nəkʰu-gəsu/ (2p)-LOC-Abl ‘from you’

/pəkʰu-gəsu/ (3p)-LOC-Abl ‘from him/her’

/jonkʰu-gəsu/ john-LOC-Abl ‘from John’

/tṣəki-gəsu/ house-Abl ‘from house’

/kəsienki-lamsu/ market-Abl ‘from market’

/ərî-lamsu/ up-Abl ‘from upside’

/əhən-lamsu/ down-Abl ‘from downside’

/si-gəsu/ that-Abl ‘from there’

/hai-gəsu/ here-Abl ‘from here’
/de-gəsu/  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  pəm i  (or)  Jon pənai  pəm 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)  atəpbou  pənai  pənəo  

atungbou- Assoc  (3p)-wife

‘Atungbo and his wife’

e)  tsəheŋ  pənai  əməi  

knife  Assoc  axe

‘Knife and axe’
f) *təɬi* ənai kəbak
  
dog- Assoc pig
  
‘Dog and pig’

\[pənəo\] ənai \[pəkina\]
  
(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 *-/len/*

\[pa niu əliu-len əsiu pi ye\]

he NOM us DAT. Medicine give ASP
  
‘He gave us medicine’

\[i niu pa-len təthi pi ye\]

i NOM him DAT. Dog give ASP
  
‘I give him dog’

**Benefactive case**

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

\[/əlen/\]  
(1p)-GEN (for me)

\[/nəlen/\]  
(1p)-GEN (for you)

\[/pəlen/\]  
(2p)-GEN (for him/her)
a) *pa pədi len mənən-ye*

He his country-DAT think-ASP

‘He thinks for his country’

b) *haibo arriak si Awəŋboleŋ-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) *a-ku tsəli*

i-GEN pot

‘My pot’

b) *a-ku 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal names</th>
<th>Address terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moses</td>
<td><em>tsəka</em> ‘friend’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lily</td>
<td><em>panao</em> ‘wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howangbou</td>
<td><em>piu</em> ‘father’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Natural nouns

Natural objects in Liangmai are given below.

- *naimik* ‘sun’
- *tsəhiu* ‘moon’
- *kəmuəŋ* ‘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.

- *pəri ga* ‘upward’
- *pəhanə ga* ‘down’
- *pəsai ga* ‘behind’

Compound nouns

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

\[\text{siŋ} + \text{bəŋ} > \text{siŋbəŋ} \quad \text{‘tree’}\]

firewood plant

\[\text{ariak} + \text{ki} > \text{ariakki} \quad \text{‘school’}\]

book house

a) \text{ram niu tasìn bəŋ bi ye}

ram NOM firewood plant cut ASP

‘Ram cut a tree’

Noun + Augmentative

\[\text{tət}^{h}\text{i} + \text{di} > \text{tət}^{h}\text{id}i \quad \text{‘big dog’}\]

dog big

\[\text{tət}^{h}\text{aŋ} + \text{di} > \text{tət}^{h}\text{aŋd}i \quad \text{‘big deer’}\]

deer big

In case of Noun+augmentative, \textit{di} ‘big’ will change into \textit{dibo} by suffix \textit{-bo} to the root. Consider the following example:

a) \text{tət}^{h}\text{i dibo khat bamme}

dog big one prog ASP

‘One big dog is there’

b) \text{tom niu tət}^{h}\text{aŋ dibo kep ye}

tom NOM big shoot ASP
‘Tom shoot a big deer’

Noun+Verb root

\[ ts\text{"elat} + \text{maniui} > ts\text{"elatmaniui} \] ‘question’

\text{word} \quad \text{ask}

\[ ts\text{"elat} + ts\text{"epk}\text{"ai} > ts\text{"elattsepkhai} \] ‘decision’

\text{word} \quad \text{stand}

\begin{itemize}
  \item a) \textit{pa atu ts\text{"elat maniui ye} }
  
  he/she 1p ACC word ask ASP
  
  ‘He/She ask me a question’
  
  \item b) \textit{ram ts\text{"elat ts\text{"epkhai mide} }
  
  ram word stand PST-tense
  
  ‘Ram make a decision’
\end{itemize}

4.3 Classifier in Liangmai

The principle classifiers in Liangmai are given below.

\textit{ta\text{"en}: It indicates that the object is long and solid. It is stick like object.}

\[ tas\text{"en} \quad ta\text{"en} \quad k\text{"at} \] ‘one wood’

\text{wood} \quad \text{cls.} \quad \text{one}

\textit{ba\text{"en}: This classifier is used only for trees or plants.}

\[ tas\text{"en} \quad ba\text{"en} \quad k\text{"at} \] ‘one tree’

\text{wood} \quad \text{cls.} \quad \text{one}
pum: It is used after nouns and it indicates that the object is round in shape.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{mana} & \text{pum} & k^h\text{at} \\
pumpkin & \text{cls.} & \text{one}
\end{array}
\]

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

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{riaŋ} & \text{pum} & k^h\text{at} \\
\text{bamboo} & \text{cls.} & \text{one}
\end{array}
\]

kow: Anything which can hold something like, container.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{tek} & \text{kow} & k^h\text{at} \\
\text{rice} & \text{cls} & \text{one}
\end{array}
\]

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

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{tasinį} & \text{kiaŋ} & k^h\text{at} \\
\text{wood} & \text{cls} & \text{one}
\end{array}
\]

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.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{tasinį} & \text{daŋ} & k^h\text{at} \\
\text{wood} & \text{cls} & \text{one}
\end{array}
\]

k^h\text{aŋ}: It is used after noun to indicate the human being only.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{maipui} & k^h\text{aŋ} & k^h\text{at} \\
\text{women} & \text{cls} & \text{one}
\end{array}
\]

kaŋ: This classifier indicates any objects which are solid and irregular in shape.
**miti**  
**kan**  
**kʰat**  
‘one piece of charcoal’

charcoal  
cls  
one

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

**talʰam**  
**key**  
**kʰat**  
‘one piece of hair’

hair  
cls.  
one

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

**gunglim**  
**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’.

**təlʰi**  
**poi**  
**kʰat**  
‘one puppy’

dog  
cls.  
one

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

**magaina**  
**kem**  
‘cucumber plant’

cucumber  
cls

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

**bui**  
**niaŋ**  
‘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.
*malu*ŋ  
*but*  
‘mountain top’

mountain  
cls.

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

*ta*siŋ  
*han*  
‘bundle of wood’

wood  
cls.

**pʰi:** It signifies any object which are piled together in specific position i.e. they are place one over the other in steps.

*makhu*i  
*pʰi*  
‘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.

**pʰom:** It indicates that an object is in group or in heaps, it signifies things which are kept together. It may be animate or inanimate.

*ta*siu  
*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.

*tsʰri*ŋ  
*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’

tatʰi tikbo

dog black

‘Black dog’

relu ŋauwibo

girl beautiful

‘Beautiful girl’

tsəriŋ ʰeybo

bird red

‘Red bird’

Numeral adjectives follow the noun they qualify.

a) relu ŋauwibo kʰat
4.4.1 Kinds of Adjectives

Adjectives in Liangmai can be broadly classified into the following kinds:

1. Adjective of Quality.

b) tsəmai dimai kʰat

man big one

‘One big man’

4.4.1.1 Adjective of Quality

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

nəmai wimai ‘good boy’

tsepʰ ai timbo ‘wet cloth’

tətsa thubo ‘hot tea’

tətʰi hubo ‘brave dog’
əliu ɲauwibo ‘beautiful girl’

4.4.1.2 Adjective of Quantity

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

tsərapen kəsia ‘some flower’
tətʰi poìna ‘little dog’
tek keŋbi ‘more rice’
əriak pəkʰianna ‘many books’
tətʰi 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’
kʰəbo ‘bitter’
kʰiŋbo ‘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’
tinpu k rimmai ‘blue sky’

pʰituap mazinbo ‘yellow shoe’

4.4.1.5 Adjective of Dimension

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

tɔsingban dibo ‘big tree’

həri tʰukmai ‘deep ring well’

impuiky mazibo ‘straight road’

tatu ripbo ‘heavy stone’

impuiky 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 lat 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

\begin{align*}
suanmai & \quad \text{‘weak’} \\
duŋbo & \quad \text{‘short’} \\
kaŋmai & \quad \text{‘thin’} \\
dibo & \quad \text{‘big’} \\
wibo & \quad \text{‘good’}
\end{align*}

Adjective of Comparation is formed by post posing \textit{–bi} to the adjectives as shown below:

\begin{align*}
suanmai & \quad \text{‘weak’} \\
suan-bi-mai & \quad \text{‘weaker’} \\
duŋmai & \quad \text{‘short’} \\
duŋ-bi-mai & \quad \text{‘shorter’} \\
kaŋmai & \quad \text{‘thin’} \\
kaŋ-bi-mai & \quad \text{‘thinner’} \\
dimai & \quad \text{‘big’} \\
di-bi-mai & \quad \text{‘bigger’} \\
wimai & \quad \text{‘good’}
\end{align*}
wi-bi-mai ‘best’

The marker comparation is expressed by adding -pusuan ‘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 -pusuan suanbi -ye

he him than weak -ASP

‘He is weaker than him’

b) pa se -pusuan dibi -ye

he him than bigger -ASP

‘He is bigger than him’

c) tom jack -pusuan 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’

suanlaj-mai ‘weakest’

duŋmai ‘short’

duŋbi-mai ‘shorter’
duilan-mai ‘shortest’

kaŋmai ‘thin’

kaŋbi-mai ‘thinner’

kaŋlan-mai ‘thinnest’

dimai ‘big’

dibi-mai ‘bigger’

dilan-mai ‘biggest’

wimai ‘good’

wibi-mai ‘batter’

wilan-mai ‘best’

a) pəhai ʦəki -ga suangthu -e

he house -LOC weakest -ASP

‘He is the weakest in the house’

b) pəhai kʰaŋmatʰiuna ruangasu pamai sathu -e

he all among thinnest -ASP

‘He is the thinnest among all’

c) himalaya maluŋ hina gasu kuʰu 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.

\( k^h \text{ät} \)  
\( \text{nia} \)  
\( \text{sum} \)  
\( \text{mødai} \)  
\( \text{møjiu} \)  
\( \text{tsørük} \)  
\( \text{tsønia} \)  
\( \text{tøtsat} \)  
\( \text{tsøkiu} \)  
\( \text{køriu} \)  
\( \text{møkai} \)  
\( \text{sømriu} \)  
\( \text{øtai} \)  
\( \text{røniu} \)  
\( \text{kai} \)  
\( \text{søj} \)

‘one’
‘two’
‘three’
‘four’
‘five’
‘six’
‘seven’
‘eight’
‘nine’
‘ten’
‘twenty’
‘thirty’
‘forty’
‘fifty’
‘hundred’
‘thousand’
lok  ‘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-tsənía  ‘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 follows:

kəriu  ‘ten’

kəriu-kʰət  ‘eleven’

kəriu-nia  ‘twelve’

kəriu-sum  ‘thirteen’

kəriu-mədai  ‘fourteen’

kəriu-mənju  ‘fifteen’

kəriu-tsəruk  ‘sixteen’

kəriu-tsənía  ‘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.

\[ \text{məkai-}k^h_{\text{et}} \quad \text{‘twenty-one’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}n\text{i}a \quad \text{‘twenty-two’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}s\text{um} \quad \text{‘twenty-three’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}mə\text{dai} \quad \text{‘twenty-four’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}mə\text{nəiu} \quad \text{‘twenty-five’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}tsə\text{rük} \quad \text{‘twenty-six’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}tsə\text{n\text{i}a} \quad \text{‘twenty-seven’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}t\text{ətsat} \quad \text{‘twenty-eight’} \]

\[ \text{məkai-}t\text{səkiu} \quad \text{‘twenty-nine’} \]

\[ sə\text{mriu} \quad \text{‘thirty’} \]

\[ sə\text{mriu-}k^h_{\text{et}} \quad \text{‘thirty-one’} \]

\[ sə\text{mriu-}n\text{i}a \quad \text{‘thirty-two’} \]

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.

\[ kai-k^h_{\text{et}} \quad \text{‘one-hundred’} \]

\[ kai-n\text{i}a \quad \text{‘two-hundred’} \]

\[ sə\text{n}j-k^h_{\text{et}} \quad \text{‘one-thousand’} \]

\[ sə\text{n}j-n\text{i}a \quad \text{‘two thousand’} \]
`lok-kaat`  
‘one-lakh’

`lok-nia`  
‘two-lakh’

### 4.5.1 Ordinals

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

- `koraibo`  
  ‘first’

- `po-niabo`  
  ‘second’

- `po-sumbo`  
  ‘third’

- `po-medaibo`  
  ‘forth’

- `po-maŋiubo`  
  ‘fifth’

- `po-tsərubbo`  
  ‘sixth’

### 4.5.2 Multiplicative

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

- `luan-kaat`  
  ‘once’

- `luan-nia`  
  ‘twice’

- `luan-sum`  
  ‘thrice’

- `luan-mada`  
  ‘four times’

- `luan-maŋiu`  
  ‘five times’
4.5.3 Aggregative Numerals

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

mōdai-siak  ‘all the four/four together’

tsērok-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.

kʰet-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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liquid measurement</th>
<th>Grain measurement</th>
<th>Thickness measurement</th>
<th>Length measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>literal kʰat ‘one litre’</td>
<td>Luāŋbū ‘20kg basket’</td>
<td>zungpiimin phën ‘1/2 inch’</td>
<td>abēnpuak ‘the distance between the armpit to tip of middle finger’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>literal nia ‘two litre’</td>
<td>luāŋfēj ‘30kg basket’</td>
<td>zungpiimin kʰat ‘one inch’</td>
<td>kūbu ‘the length indicated by thumb and index finger’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 -\(^{4}\)\text{\textit{iu}}\text{\textit{iu}} as in the following.

\(k^{\text{\textit{b\text{\textit{at}}}}} k^{\text{\textit{b\text{\textit{at}}}}} \text{\textit{ti}}\text{\textit{iu}}\text{\textit{iu}}\) ‘one by one’

\(n^{	ext{\textit{ia}}} n^{	ext{\textit{ia}}} \text{\textit{ti}}\text{\textit{iu}}\text{\textit{iu}}\) ‘two by two’

4.5.7 Fractional Numerals

Liangmai used fractional number as /\text{\textit{p\text{\textit{e}}}\text{\textit{ph\text{\textit{o}}}}}\text{\textit{n}}/ ‘half’ and /\text{\textit{p\text{\textit{umk}}}\text{\textit{b}}}\text{\textit{at}}/ ‘full/whole’. Fractional numbers can be represented in mathematical system. It is dividing method of two dissimilar numbers and should remain as fraction.

Example:

\(\text{\textit{p\text{\textit{e}}}\text{\textit{ph\text{\textit{o}}}}}\text{\textit{n}}\) ‘half’

\(\text{\textit{p\text{\textit{umk}}}\text{\textit{b}}}\text{\textit{at}}\) ‘one whole’

\(\text{\textit{d\text{\textit{em}}} \text{\textit{sum} g\text{\textit{asu}}} \text{\textit{d\text{\textit{em}}} \text{\textit{nia}}}\) ‘two-third’
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: -əkʰuə ‘to me’ and -əkʰu-gəsu ‘from me’.

The second personal pronouns are naŋ ‘you’ (singular), nəliu ‘you’ (plural) and the dual form nənai ‘you two’ na- 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 pəkʰuə ‘to him’ pəkʰu-gəsu ‘from him’. The plurality is expressed through suffixation of /-liu/ to the first second and third personal pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
<th>object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>I ‘me/myself’</td>
<td>ənia ‘1p+two’</td>
<td>əliu ‘we’</td>
<td>əkʰuə ‘to me’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13: Personal pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>Nəuya ‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nənai ‘2nd’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nəliu ‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nəkuga ‘to you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>pə ‘he/she’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pənai ‘3rd’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pəliu ‘they’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pəkuga ‘to him’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.2 Possessive Pronouns

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>əgu ‘mine’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ønai ‘ours’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>øliu ‘ours’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>nəgu ‘yours’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nənai ‘yours’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nəliu ‘yours’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>pəgu ‘his/her’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pənai ‘theirs’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pəliu ‘theirs’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: possessive pronoun

Considering the following examples:

haise agu ariak ye  
this 1POSS book ASP

haise anaigu tethi ye  
this 2POSS dog ASP

‘This is my book’  
‘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 1st person, nə- for 2nd person and pə- for 3rd person, to the root -ronə ‘alone/only’. Thus literally would mean ‘only me’ or ‘I alone’ etc. And the respective word øtu, 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, -pummoahak ‘real body’. Thus literally would mean ‘my real body’ or ‘my body as such’ etc.

Consider the following examples:

a)  i  øtu ørona  kam-øzam- me
    I  to-me myself  cut  ASP

‘I cut myself’

b)  pa  øtu øronna  dab-ye
    he  to-him himself  hit ASP

‘He hit himself’

c)  i  øpumsiak  sigø  tæd-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 – haïsi (this), sisi (it is) and wiïsï/wiïbô (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)  haïsi ø-gu øriak ye
    this  1stp+GEN  book ASP

‘This is my book’
b) \(sisi\ n\_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}\_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}\) ye

\(\text{It} \ 2\text{ndp+GEN} \ \text{bag} \ \text{ASP}\)

‘It is your bag’

c) \(\text{wi}usi\ \text{ram-} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}\) me

That ram ASP

‘That is Ram’

d) \(\text{tẹ̀či}si\ \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}\) \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}

dog Det 1p GEN ASP

‘The dog is mine’

e) \(\text{wi}ubọ̀či}si\ \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}\) \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#} \_\text{\#}

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 –
\(bọ̀\) (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,

\(\text{hái}+gọ\) \(\text{ha}igọ\) ‘here’

\(\text{sí}+gọ\) \(\text{sigọ}\) ‘there’
wi+gə  wigə  ‘there (distal)’

hai+lam  hailam  ‘this side’

si+lam  silam  ‘that side’

wi+lam  wilam  ‘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  maidi  ‘none’

wa+di  wadi  ‘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  maidi  ha  ye

house-LOC  none  not available  ASP

‘There is nobody at home’

b) təkʰəu  luŋ  gə  wadi  ha  ye

bag  insideLOC  nothing  not available  ASP

‘There is nothing inside the bag’

c) danai  office  gə  maidi  waŋ  mak  ge

yesterday  officeLOC  none  come  NEG  ASP

‘Nobody came to office yesterday’

d) sigə  wadi  bam  lak  ge
there nothing available NEG ASP

‘Nothing will be there’

_maidi_ 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.

_maik₄at_ ‘someone’

_wak₄at_ ‘something’

These words –_maik₄at_ and _wak₄at_ can occur only in the positive environment. _maik₄at_ refers to person and _wak₄at_ refers to the material objects. For examples,

a) _maik₄at_ əki _luŋ_ go _gut_ mi _de_

someone my house inside LOC in PST ASP

‘Some one went inside my house’

b) _wak₄at_ əək₄aw _luŋ_ go _bam_ me

something bag inside LOC EXT ASP

‘Something is inside the bag’

c) _tsəki_ _luŋ_ go _maik₄atra_ _bam-me_

house inside LOC someone QMK EXT ASP

‘There is someone inside the room’

d) _haiga_ _wak₄at_ _mawbo_ _bam-me_

here something wrong EXT ASP

‘Something is wrong here’
The word *maikt* and *wak* can be suffixed with the enclitic *di* ‘also’ but the meaning will be the same as *maidi* and *wadi* respectively. When *maikt* and *wak* 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’, *kosia* ‘something’, *kanxiamai* ‘some person’, *mathiu* ‘all’ etc. For examples,

a) *saokummai tædwi tæri mai bəm ma*

 anybody  water  thirsty person  there  QMK

‘Is there anybody who is thirsty?’

b) *ətu kosia pi lo*

 1p  ACC  some  give  QMK

‘Give me some’

c) *mətiu tsəp suke*

 all  stand  rise  lets

‘Let’s all rise-up’

d) *kanxiamai 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) nəzan sao- lo *nəzan de -lo

2nd p+name who+QMK 2nd 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

2nd p friend name who QMK

‘What is your friend’s name?’

d) haiši de lo

this what QMK

‘What is this?’

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

sao who

saotu to whom (by adding ACC case ending-tu)

saoniu by whom (by adding NOM case ending-niu)

saolen for whom

saogu whose (by adding GEN case ending-gu)
saokʰugə  with whom/ to whom

de  what

degə  where (by suffixation of LOC case ending-go)

delam  where (by suffixation of case marker -lam)

dedao  when (suffixed dao to the basic interrogative)

delen  for what (by suffixation of case ending -lent)

dekamzə  why (by suffixation of the word -kamzə)

degu  of what (suffixed GEN case – gu)

degəsu  from where (suffixed case marker -gəsu)

delamsu  from where (suffixed case marker-lamsu)

Examples of interrogative sentences:

haisi sao len lo  for whom is this?

əriaksi sao gu lo  whose book is this?

nən dedə bam lo  where do you stay?

nən delam tat lo  where did you go?

nən dedao tad ra lo  when will you go?

nən delam su wən lo  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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pow</th>
<th>pe</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>powpe</th>
<th>‘ancestor’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>grandfather</td>
<td>grandmother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kɔbaŋ</th>
<th>ky</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>kabاةkя</th>
<th>‘prison’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>slave</td>
<td>house</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tsәheŋ</th>
<th>tsәniu</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>tsәheŋ-tsәniu</th>
<th>‘weapons’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dagger</td>
<td>spear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Katiu</th>
<th>kata</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>katiukata</th>
<th>‘ornament’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>necklaces</td>
<td>bangles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tsәpʰai</th>
<th>tsәni</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>tsәpʰaitәni</th>
<th>‘dresses’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shawl</td>
<td>pant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tиŋ</th>
<th>kәði</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>tиŋkәði</th>
<th>‘universe’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sky</td>
<td>earth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tасиŋ</th>
<th>banь</th>
<th>&gt;</th>
<th>тасиңbanь</th>
<th>‘trees’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

102
wood  plant

\textit{Dui} \quad di \quad > \quad duidi \quad ‘flood’

water  big

\textit{Lad} \quad rien \quad > \quad ladrien \quad ‘promise’

language  fixed

\textit{Pui} \quad piu \quad > \quad puipiu \quad ‘parent’

mother  father

\textit{Ariak} \quad nah \quad > \quad ariaknah \quad ‘student’

book  child

\textit{zeŋ} \quad p^h_i \quad > \quad zeŋp^h_i \quad ‘wages’

day  earn

\textit{Magian} \quad na \quad > \quad magianna \quad ‘orphan’

sorrow  child

\textit{Naupui} \quad naupiu \quad > \quad naupuinaupiu \quad ‘couples’

bride  groom

\textit{tsun} \quad diŋ \quad > \quad tsundiŋ \quad ‘midnight’

night  straight

\textit{Wan} \quad tsak \quad > \quad wantsak \quad ‘watch’

time  count

\textit{tsari} \quad mai \quad > \quad tsharimai \quad ‘soldier’
war  man

Tadui  riaŋ  >  taduiriaŋ  ‘canal’
water  rope

tsawanŋ  ky  >  tsawanŋki  ‘palace’
king  house

Ruŋ  di  >  ruŋdi  ‘multitude’
gather  big

tsapiu  ky  >  tsapiuki  ‘dispensary’
medicine  house

Mak’hui  dui  >  mak’huidui  ‘honey’
bee  water

Pi  run  >  pirun  ‘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:

/tlainai-sonnai/  ‘now-a-day’
today tomorrow

/taqʰəo-kadį/ ‘animal kingdom’

animal earth

4.7.3 Endocentric Compounds

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

Examples:

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
  \text{Naimik} & \text{rapen} & \text{naimik+rapen} & \text{‘sunflower’} \\
  \text{‘sun’} & \text{‘flower’} & \\
  \text{tʰiura} & \text{bəŋ} & \text{tʰiura+bəŋ} & \text{‘chilli tree’} \\
  \text{‘chilli’} & \text{‘tree’} & \\
  \text{siŋbaŋ gu} & \text{pamen} & \text{siŋbaŋmen} & \text{‘root’} \\
  \text{Tree} & \text{GEN} & \text{root} & \\
  \text{siŋbaŋ gu} & \text{rasi} & \text{siŋbaŋrasi} & \text{‘fruit’} \\
  \text{Tree} & \text{GEN} & \text{fruit} & \\
\end{array}
\]

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:

\[
\text{Purposive – } /pot/ \text{ ‘object or thing’ denote to form the word in purposive.}
\]
/ćohen gə mətakʰ 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.

/cəpʰai kətʰabo 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

\[\text{tinsin \ kluŋ kluŋ \ bəmme}\]

thundering \ sound \ PROG – ASP

‘It is thundering by making noise’

/hoː hoː/ sound of water flowing’ as in

\[\text{tədui \ luan \ hoː hoː \ bəmme}\]

water \ flow \ sounds \ PROG – ASP

‘The water is flowing making a sound’

Noises made by human beings.

/prumː prumː/ ‘Clapping sound’ as in
tsöben kapʰi 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

phon trut trut məra bəmme

phone sound shouts PROG – ASP

‘The phone is ringing making a sound’

/tuŋ: tuŋ:/ ‘Sound of drum’ as in

/intsəm 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:

/prin̂ riŋ/ ‘sparkling’ as in
naylan priŋ riŋ ye

2p + earing sparkling sparkling ASP

‘Your earring is sparkling’

/pʰɪŋ pʰɪŋ/ ‘glittering’ as in

naymik 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 bəmme

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 stiky 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

haibo tə hum hum

Det + NOM tea sweet sweet

‘This tea is very sweet’

/kha kha/ ‘very bitter’ as in

haibo tsərasi 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 ye

perfume smell aroma aroma ASP

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‘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

kəbək  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

təlalan  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
   *tsəkʰa* _duŋ_ *siam siam*
   fish PL small small
   ‘fish are very small’

b) /di/ ‘big’ (adj) /di di/ (adj) as in
   *tsəkʰa* _duŋ_ *di di/
   fish PL big big
   ‘the fish are very big’

c) /kəl/ ‘white’ (adj) /kə kə/ (adj) as in
   *tsərapən* _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_ pien_ – _də/
   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) /liŋ/ ‘shake’ (v) /liŋ liŋ/ (adv) as in
   tsəki liŋ liŋ 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affect</th>
<th>Placement</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Utterance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kəhiło ‘touch’</td>
<td>kʰaibo ‘put’</td>
<td>pįbo ‘fear’</td>
<td>dinbo ‘tell’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 tətʰ-i-tu dəb ye
I NOM dog ACC beat ASP

‘I beat the dog’

Kinds of intransitive verb in Liangmai

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human propensity</th>
<th>sense</th>
<th>dimension</th>
<th>motion</th>
<th>posture</th>
<th>Physical sensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>məłabo ‘happy’</td>
<td>Humbo</td>
<td>kubö ‘tall’</td>
<td>pəkbo ‘running’</td>
<td>cəpbo ‘standing’</td>
<td>azambo ‘hurt’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kəpbo ‘cry’</td>
<td>dumbo</td>
<td>‘short’</td>
<td>kiubo ‘climbing’</td>
<td>dəybo ‘sitting’</td>
<td>masəkbo ‘itching’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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) tələ niu ʻan 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:

\[ \text{lu} + \text{wua} \]  \quad \text{‘to bring’}  
\text{take come}  
\text{taki} + \text{tat} \quad \text{‘to visit’}  
\text{inspect go}  
\text{tey} + \text{su} \quad \text{‘to work’}  
\text{work do}  
\text{tiu} + \text{sak} \quad \text{‘to feast’}  
\text{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

\[ \text{kambo} \]  \quad \text{‘to do’}  
\[ \text{tseŋam} + \text{kambo} \]  \quad \text{(work+do)}  \quad \text{‘to (do) work’}  
\[ \text{tsəlu} + \text{kambo} \]  \quad \text{(cultivate+do)}  \quad \text{‘to (do) cultivate’}  
\text{guan} \quad \text{‘to become’}  
\text{dun} + \text{guan} \quad \text{(short+come)}  \quad \text{‘to become short’}  

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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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-causative</th>
<th>Causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tui ‘eat’</td>
<td>pi-tuibo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zuan ‘sell’</td>
<td>pi-zuanbo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lim ‘cut’</td>
<td>pi-limbo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kʰai ‘put’</td>
<td>pi-kʰaibo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sai ‘die’</td>
<td>pi-saibo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŋau ‘see’</td>
<td>pi-ŋaubo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 mətompu kʰət 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, *ŋamme* ‘can’ and *suiye* ‘may’.

a) *i kam ŋamme*

i do can mod.aux

‘I can do’

b) *pə tsaliu thiŋ ŋamme*

she song sing mod.aux

‘She can sing’

c) *tiŋə 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) pre cess verb.
4.8.5.2.1 Action Verb

Action verbs are those that indicate an action.

a)  *niu* *bamme*

I laugh PRO.ASP

‘I am laughing’

b)  *sak* *bamme*

I drink PRO.ASP

‘I am drinking’

c)  *təŋ* *pək* *bamme*

deer  run  PRO.ASP

‘Deer is running’

List of action verbs in Liangmai are listed below:

/ *tiu*bo/*  ‘to eat’

/ *də*p*bo/*  ‘to beat’

/ *zən*bo/*  ‘to distribute’

/ *nu*bo/*  ‘to laugh’

/ *gi*bo/*  ‘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) wiibo phai dun 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 kami tenziu hôme

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 tsolu təd ye

I yesterday field go ASP

‘I went to field yesterday’

b). i tʰai tsolu təd ye
I today field go ASP

‘I went to field today’

c). \( i \) sonni \( təlu \) \( təd-\text{rəbəi} \)

I tomorrow field go pro ASP

‘I will 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 – /\text{danəi}/ ‘yesterday’ and /\text{\textipa{inh}ai}/ ‘today’ respectively. But in sentence (c), since the time adverbial is different i.e. /\text{sonnai}/ ‘tomorrow’, the verb ending is also changed into -/\text{ne}/ or /\text{rəbəi}/. This shows that there is a grammatical agreement between /\text{danəi}/ ‘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 -/\text{ne}/ or /\text{rəbəi}/. 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 kʰuga bamme*

john we LOC   ASP

‘John is with us’

(d)  *pa wan*   *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) "liu tsiui inkia kinne
   We song listen PRG ASP
   ‘we are listening song’

b) pa waŋ kinne
   he come PRG ASP
   ‘He is coming’

c) sitaɔlaŋ hamme
   sita cook PRG ASP
   ‘Sita is cooking’

d) nan delam ted 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) \( pa \ ts\text{\`e}lu \ t\text{\`e}d \ mi \ ye \)

he field go PERF ASP

‘He has gone to the field’

b) \( pa \ ts\text{\`e}piu \ tiu \ lu \ de \)

he medicine eat PERF ASP

‘He had taken the medicine’

c) \( ti\text{\`e}riu \ sao \ mi \ de \)

rain stop PERF ASP

‘The rain had stopped’

d) \( i \ \etau \ lu \ de \)

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/\text{\`i}. The negative particle, */lak/ indicates negation plus future, therefore the unrealized negation does not take any imperfective marker.

Examples:
a) *pa ʦəlu  təd  ne/raboi*

he field go FUT

‘He will go to the field’

b) *aliuntʰai  tsəwan  mətʰen ne*

we today evening play FUT

‘We will play this evening’

c) *əpiu  soʊnai əpʰis  təd  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- /ra/ 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 –/rabɔ/, 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 pʰutbol məkʰen mək de
    i football play NEG ASP
    ‘I had not played football’

d)  pa deli təd-ɾə mək ge
    3P delhi go+INF NEG ASP
    ‘He will not go to Delhi’

e)  nən sonnai kətiu tiu mək robo we
    you tomorrow food eat NEG+ DEF ASP
    ‘You shall not eat/ take food tomorrow’.

f)  pa sɪɡə tad mək robo de
    3P there go NEG + DEF ASP
    ‘She shall not have gone there’.

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

a) \( i ~ \text{ariaki} ~ tæd ~ læk ~ ge \)

\( i \) school go \( \text{NEG} \) ASP

‘I will not go to school’

b) \( \text{ram} ~ \text{ba?si} ~ tïu ~ læk ~ ge \)

\( \text{ram} \) mango eat \( \text{NEG} \) ASP

‘Ram will not eat mango’

c) \( \text{zon} ~ \text{meritu} ~ ku ~ læk ~ ge \)

\( \text{john} \) Mary+ACC \( \text{marry} \) \( \text{NEG} \) ASP

‘John will not marry Mary’

d) \( nəη ~ \text{sigə} ~ kəzao ~ læk ~ rəbo ~ lam ~ de \)

\( \text{you} \) there join \( \text{NEG} \) +DEF supposed to be \( \text{ASP} \)

‘You are not supposed to join their’.

\(/\text{ma}/\): the negative particle – \(/\text{ma}/\) is used in imperative negation. The word always follows the verb and takes the suffix \(-/\text{ne}/\) in the imperative sentence.

For example:

a) \( \text{nia} ~ \text{ma} ~ \text{ne} \)

touch \( \text{NEG} \) ASP

‘Do not touch’

b) \( \text{sitiu} ~ \text{məl′en} ~ \text{ma} ~ -\text{ne} \)
DET play NEG ASP

‘Don’t play like that’.

c)  kətïng-mai-tu sïtiu 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 –/kʰe/. Without the suffixes the sentence of these types are incomplete. In let negation –/du-kʰe/ is mostly used.

Consider the following examples:

a)  məlʰen du-lo məlʰen ma ne

play NEG+IMP play NEG ASP

‘Don’t play Do not play’

b)  ñliu maitu kəsa kam du kʰe

we other people+ACC evil do NEG –SUG

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

c)  ñliu kəpʰuam gə kəzəo du kʰe

we group LOC join NEG+SUG

‘Let’s not join the group’

d)  wiubo təkʰausi 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  kə  ye

i  delhi  go  never  NEG ?  ASP

‘I’ve never been to delhi’

d)  i  kʰupiu  tup  zət  mək  ge

i  tobacco/ cigarette  smoke  never  NEG  ASP

‘I never smoke’

c)  i  kʰupiu  tup  mək  ge

i  tobacco/ cigarette  smoke  NEG  ASP

‘I don’t smoke’
The words /wadaodi/ and /zati/ are treated as negative polarity item as they are restricted to occur in a negative environment.

\[ a) \quad \text{i} \quad k^\text{h}upiu \quad \text{tup} \quad \text{lak} \quad \text{ge} \]

\[ i \quad \text{cigarette} \quad \text{smoke} \quad \text{NEG} \quad \text{ASP} \]

‘I will not smoke’

\[ b) \quad I \quad k^\text{h}upiu \quad \text{wadaodi} \quad \text{tup} \quad \text{lak} \quad \text{ge} \]

\[ i \quad \text{cigarette} \quad \text{never} \quad \text{smoke} \quad \text{will+NEG} \quad \text{ASP} \]

‘I will never smoke’

\[ c) \quad *I \quad k^\text{h}upiu \quad \text{wadaodi} \quad \text{tup} \quad \text{ne} \]

\[ i \quad \text{cigarette} \quad \text{never} \quad \text{smoke} \quad \text{ASP} \]

‘I will smoke’

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

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

\[ a) \quad \text{i} \quad \text{wadi} \quad \text{nia} \quad \text{mək} \quad \text{ge} \]

\[ i \quad \text{nothing} \quad \text{touch} \quad \text{NEG} \quad \text{ASP} \]

‘I didn’t touch anything’

\[ b) \quad \text{i} \quad pəliu \quad \text{maiditu} \quad \text{si} \quad \text{mək} \quad \text{ge} \]

\[ i \quad \text{they} \quad \text{none} \quad \text{ACC} \quad \text{know} \quad \text{NEG} \quad \text{ASP} \]
‘I knew none of them’

c) \( t\dot{a}k^h \text{ou} \ l\u{u}ng\dot{a} \ w\dot{a}di \quad h\alpha \quad y\varepsilon \)

bag  inside  nothing  not available  ASP

‘Nothing is inside the bag’

d) \( t\dot{s}\dot{\varepsilon}k\dot{i} \text{-g\varepsilon} \quad m\text{aidi} \quad h\alpha \quad y\varepsilon \)

home\text{+ACC}  no one  not available  ASP

‘Nobody/no one in at home’.

c) \( ^{*}t\dot{a}k^h \text{au} \ l\u{u}ng\dot{a} \ w\dot{a}di \quad b\alpha m \quad m\text{e} \).

bag  in\text{+ACC}  nothing  available/exist  ASP

(nothing is there in the bag)

f) \( ^{*}t\dot{s}\dot{\varepsilon}k\dot{i} \text{-g\varepsilon} \quad m\text{aidi} \quad b\alpha m \quad m\text{e} \)

home\text{+ACC}  nobody  available  ASP

(no body is there at home)

The sentences e and f are not possible in Liangmai as \( /w\dot{a}di/ \) and \( /m\text{aidi}/ \) cannot occur in a positive environment (i.e without another negative particle) or without the word ‘\( h\alpha \)’ in the sentence. If the suffix \( /di/ \) is deleted from sentence e and f, the sentences will become.

g) \( t\dot{a}k^h \text{au} \ l\u{u}ng\dot{a} \ w\dot{a}l \quad b\alpha m \quad m\text{e} \)

bag  inside  something  exist/available  ASP

‘There is something inside the bag’

h) \( t\dot{s}\dot{\varepsilon}k\dot{i} \text{-g\varepsilon} \quad m\text{i} \quad b\alpha m \quad m\text{e} \)

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home+ACC person/people available /present ASP

‘Somebody is at home’

So, in the negative polarity items */wadi/* and */maidì/* the suffix */di/* polarizes a word to negation. The words like */ha/* (not present/not available), */wadi/* (nothing), */maidì/* (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)  *apìu  tsàki-gə  ha  ye
    my father  home+ACC  not avail  ASP

‘My father is not at home’.

b)  *apìu  tsàki-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  wany  mək  ge
Tom come NEG ASP

‘Tom did not come’

b) \( \text{tom wən mək mək ge} \)

tom come NEG-NEG ASP

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

(which means Tom did came).

c) \( \text{tom wən mək ge} \)

tom come NEG ASP

‘Tom did came’

a) \( \text{pa danai məl^h en mək ge} \)

3P yesterday plays NEG ASP

‘He did not play yesterday’

b) \( \text{pa danai məl^h en mək-mək ge} \)

3P yesterday play NEG-NEG ASP

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

(He played yesterday)

c) \( \text{pa danai məl^h en ne} \)

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 /ne/ 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 /ləg/ 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) \[\text{ram bol mət\textsuperscript{h}} en lak ge}\]
ram ball play NEG ASP
‘Ram will not play football’.

b) \[\text{ram bol mət\textsuperscript{h}} en mək-lək ge}\]
ram ball play NEG-NEG ASP
‘Ram may not avoid playing football’.

c) \[\text{ram bol mət\textsuperscript{h}} en su- rabo we}\]
ram ball play Impf+INF ASP
‘Ram may play football’

d) \[\text{mark tek tiu mək su e}\]
mark rice eat NEG may ASP
‘mark may not eat rice’

d) \[\text{mark tek tiu mək lək ge}\]
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 pʰuŋkam 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). /mak-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) mə₁k en mək du kʰe
play NEG-NEG SUG

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

a) ṣmənəmək həm- tədi partì-ɡə ɡəo mək du kə

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) naj tsi\textsuperscript{h} mase ma mase mak lo

You dog want QMK want NEG COM

‘Do you want dog or not?’