CHAPTER-II

DECLARATIVE
Declarative is a term used in grammatical classification of SENTENCE types, and usually seen in contrast to IMPERATIVE, INTERROGATIVE; etc. It refers to verb forms or sentence/CLAUSE types used to express statements, e.g.

1. The girl is dancing.

A positive declarative clause is typically used to make a statement, more specifically used to make a statement, more specifically to assert the truth of a proposition.

2. She is beautiful.

A negative declarative clause is typically used to make a statement, more specifically used to make a statement, more specifically to deny the truth of a proposition.

3. She isn’t beautiful.

Here, it uttered to deny the truth of the proposition ‘She is beautiful’.

2.1 Word Order

Manipuri has the word order of SOV. The verb occurs in the final position and the preferable position of the subject is initial. The word order in Manipuri has a considerable amount of flexibility. Sentence 4 shows that Manipuri is an SOV language.

4. mohak kihom ca-y
   be pineapple eat-asp
   ‘He eats a pineapple’

English is an SVO language. The verb always occurs after the subject. It is shown below.
5. She loves you.

2.1.1 Adjective

In Manipuri, the position of the qualifying adjective in relation to noun is that it (adjective) occurs before the noun as shown in sentence 6.

6. mohak omunbo kihom ca y
   he     ripe     pineapple   eat-asp.
   ‘he eats a ripe pineapple’

In English adjective precedes the noun in ‘attributive’ position as in sentence 7 below:

7. The big man beats him.

Adjective can occur in a post-verbal or ‘predicative’ position i.e. it follows the noun. Sentence 8 shows:

8. Tomba is big.

2.1.2 Adverb

Adverb in Manipuri precedes adjective and verb as in sentence 9, 10 and 11.

9. mohak no yamna phojo phurit ca lay
   he-nom   very   nice   shirt   one   buy
   ‘He buys a very nice shirt’

10. mohak tanu t ho-w-wi
    he    slow    drive-simp. Asp.
    ‘He drives slowly’
11. mahak yamno tarpn t\textsuperscript{h}aw-wi
   he very slow drive-simp. Asp.
   "He drives very slowly"

In the case of indefinite quantifiers, like k\textsuperscript{h}ara `some`, pumnamak `loyna `all`, moyam `all`; etc. follow the noun. Examples are given below.

12. anaj [k\textsuperscript{h}ara telivijon] yen\textsuperscript{-}li
    moyam
    "Many/Some/All children are watching television"

13. mahak-na anaj [k\textsuperscript{h}ara -\textit{do}] ocapot yel\textsuperscript{-}li
    moyam -\textit{do}
    pumnomak -\textit{lo}
    he-nom child snack distribute-asp
    "He is distributing snacks to (many/some/all) children"

The suffixes -\textit{do} -\textit{ta} to the indefinite quantifiers, in sentence 13 above is a dative marker. This language has postposition as opposed to preposition of non-verb-final languages (Greenberg 1963: Universal 21).

14. mahak ka monun-\textit{do} l\textit{by}
    he room inside-loc. stay
    "He is in the room"

The main verb is always followed by the auxiliary verb as opposed to the tendency in language with dominant verb initial order where the auxiliary precedes the verb (Greenberg, 1963: Universal 16). Examples are given below:
mohak cak ca-haw-ri
he rice eat-prog.asp.

‘He is taking his meal’
(He is starting to take his meal and continuing it)

mohak isay sak-li
he song sing-prog.asp.

‘He is singing’

mohak isay sak-kre
he song sing-perf.asp.

‘He has sung’

The category **Aux** was hypothesized for English originally in syntactic structures. Although there has been much debate over the analysis in terms of English, whether other languages have a comparable category has not been investigated. Using criteria suggested by the ENGLISH analysis, an examination of a number of other languages argues that **Aux** is a universal category.

Descriptions of English Grammar have traditionally recognised that English verbs can be accompanied, and preceded by certain auxiliary elements. The elements included **do**, modals like **should, must, and might**, the negative **not** (or **n't**), and auxiliary verbs like **have, be, got, go, come**, and perhaps a few others. All, except the negative, occur with some non-finite form of the verb; at least **do** and some of the auxiliary verbs take the regular verb inflections for tense and person. The recognition of this property of ENGLISH was formalised in syntactic structure where it is claimed that certain of these elements are dominated by category **Aux**. There the **Aux** is introduced by a phrase structure rule.

\[ S \rightarrow NP \quad AUX \rightarrow VP \]
The Aux is analysed as follows, where C stands for the -s or the lack of it in the present tense or \textbf{-ed} in the past tense and M stands for the modal auxiliary.

\[ \text{Aux} = C \ (M) \ (\text{Have} + \text{en}) \ (\text{be} + \text{en}) \]

The analysis excludes at least some of the elements mentioned in the traditional descriptions. The analysis departs from the traditional descriptions more substantially; more importantly, it makes a claim that Aux is a category. This claim has since been the subject of much analysis and debate, specifically in regard to English. It is assumed that the category is justified for English.

In English the auxiliary verb precedes the main verb. The main auxiliaries are \textbf{do}, \textbf{be} and \textbf{have}.

\subsection{2.2.1 Do}

The auxiliary \textbf{do} has the following forms:

\begin{tabular}{llll}
  & Non-Negative & Uncontracted Negative & Contracted Negative \\
  Present & do, does & do not & don't \\
  Past & did & did not & didn't \\
\end{tabular}

\textbf{Do} as lexical verb ('perform' etc.) and as pro-verb has the full range of forms, including the present participle \textbf{doing} and the past participle \textbf{done}.

\textbf{What has she been doing here?}

\begin{enumerate}
  \item A. You said you would complete it.
  \item B. I have done so.
\end{enumerate}

\subsection{2.2.2 Have}

\textbf{Have} has the following forms:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Base</td>
<td>have, 've</td>
<td>have not, 've not</td>
<td>haven’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-s form</td>
<td>has, 's</td>
<td>has not, 's not</td>
<td>hasn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past</td>
<td>Had, 'd</td>
<td>had not, 'd not</td>
<td>hadn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing form</td>
<td>having</td>
<td>not having</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed form</td>
<td>had (only as lexical verb)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In dynamic senses (receive, take, experience, etc.), lexical have in both AmE and BrE normally has the **do** construction.

Does she have tea with her breakfast?

Did you have any problem getting here?

The **do** construction is required in such expressions as:

Did you have a good lunch?

### 2.2.3 Be

The lexical and auxiliary verb **Be** is unique among English verbs. It has eight different forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Base</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person singular</td>
<td>am, 'm</td>
<td>am not, 'm not</td>
<td>ain’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person singular</td>
<td>is, 's</td>
<td>is not, 's not</td>
<td>isn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st, 2nd, &amp; 3rd person plural</td>
<td>are, 're</td>
<td>are not, 're not</td>
<td>aren’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st and 3rd person singular</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>was not</td>
<td>wasn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st, 2nd &amp; 3rd person plural</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>were not</td>
<td>weren’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing form</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed participle</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
a] Aren't 1 is widely used in BrE, but there is not generally acceptable contracted form for am not in declarative sentences. Ain't is substandard in BrE is so considered by many in AmE, as well as serving as a contracted am not. it is used also for isn't, aren't, hasn't and haven't.

b] The lexical verb be may have the do construction in persuasive imperative sentences and regularly has it with negative imperatives.

Do be quit!
Don’t be silly!

The lexical and auxiliary verb be in English in present continuous tense also indicates futurity as shown below:

18 I am going to London tomorrow.

English has also auxiliaries called modal auxiliaries. It is given below:

Non-Negative          Uncontracted Negative          Contracted Negative

| can, could          | cannot, can not; could not               | can’t, couldn’t
| may, might          | may not, might not                     | mayn’t
| shall, should       | shall not, should not                  | shan’t, shouldn’t
| will, ‘ll, would, ’d | will not, ’ll not; would not, ’d not   | won’t; wouldn’t
| must, ought to, used to | must not, ought not to; used not to | mustn’t, oughtn’t to; didn’t use to
| need                | need not                               | needn’t
| dare                | dare not                               | daren’t

a] Mayn’t is restricted to BrE, where it is rare.

b] Shan’t is rare in AmE.

c] Ought regularly has the to-infinitive, but AmE occasionally has the bare infinitive in negative sentences and in question (although) should is common in both cases):
You ought not drink so much: Ought you drink so much?

(Used always takes the to infinitive and occurs only in the past tense. It may take the do construction, in which case the spellings didn’t used to and didn’t use to both occur). Example is given below.

I used to read a lot when I was a student.

Dare and need are ‘marginal’ or ‘semi-auxiliaries’. i.e verbs which display some but not all the properties of the auxiliary class as shown in the sentences below.

How dare you say such rude things about me?

She needn’t go there.

Different linguists studied on the English Modal Auxiliaries. F.R. Palmer (1974) is a well developed as any, suggesting some meanings for the individual modals that are not present in the writings of others, as, for instance, the use of can for what Palmer (1974: 117) calls ‘sensation’ Palmer described over-riding generalization for the modals such as the categories of ‘discourse oriented’ and ‘subject oriented’ modals (1974: 100) and ‘epistemic’ and ‘non-epistemic’ uses of the modals (1974: 102-103). After establishing such categories, Palmer proceeds to write about the differing uses of the modals as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Palmer’s Assignment of meanings to the modals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Futturity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Volition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation (remote future)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will Futurity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would Volition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be going to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Futurity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Insistence

Characteristic

Inference

Deductive

Conclusion

Characteristic

Habitual activity

Will

*Probability

*Predictive
*Epistemic modals

Of even greater difficulty with Palmer's approach to the modals is the tendency which has been designated as the over-differentiation of the system. Palmer establishes a class for the characteristic use of *can* and *could* to accommodate instances such as the following:

23 (a) He can tell awful lies.
(b) She can be very catty at times.

(Palmer 1974: 117)

Then he sets up a category called the generalisation use of *can* and *may* to accommodate instances such as the following:

25 A situation like this can occur from time to time.
26 A situation like this may occur from time to time.

(Palmer 1974: 118)

Palmer's system of over-differentiation may be found in the discussion of *can* which has both the meaning of ability (1974: 115) and sensation attached to it. It would appear from the discussion that the example sentence *I can see the moon* is simply a case of the temporal aspect of a verb interacting with the modal to
produce an apparent differentiation of meaning of can from its meaning of ability in sentences such as - *I can lift 20 kg*. The difference in meaning between *I can see the moon* and *I can lift 20 kg* appears to reside in the verb and not the modal.

R. Lakoff (1972) has described the difference in meaning between can and may when they are used to express possibility, in one epistemic environment, the perfect, may functions quite adequately, but can will not function at all; producing an ungrammatical sentence as in (27) and (28).

27 He may have left the country already.
28 He can have left the country already.

Here, the meaning of can and may diverges to a certain extent and as a result may is acceptable in the environment for sentence (27) but can is not. Similarly, it is generally recognised that in request for permission, may is the proper, polite form whereas can is not as in sentences given below:

29 Can I leave the room?
30 May I leave the room?

The epistemic reading of can does not occur in simple active declarative sentences with the perfect tense marker, but the epistemic meaning of may does. Thus, sentence 31(a) is not grammatical but sentence 31(b) is (Bolinger 1968).

31 (a) John can have tasted the pie. (Possibility)
(b) John may have tasted the pie. (Possibility)

Strangely enough, when the sentences (31) are in the question form, the reverse is true. The sentence with may and the perfect is ungrammatical; the sentence with can is grammatical.
2.2.4 **Could and Would**

*Could* expresses ability; *would* expresses habituality (Ehrmann 1966: 47) are acceptable with past tense markers in the verb phrase as in -

32 (a) He could lift one hundred pounds last month.
(b) He could walk by the river on a rainy season.

2.2.5 **Will and Shall**

Newmeyer (1975: 83) raises the possibility that stressed *will* indicates volition also seems to admit that unstressed *will* indicates the same thing as in sentence -

33 John refuses (will not agree) to confess his crime.

The verb phrase is future when *will* and *shall* are the modal auxiliaries and the verb is marked for the perfect tense as in the sentences

34 (a) By tomorrow, I will have forgotten the unpleasantness that is today.
(b) I shall have finished all the work next week.

Palmer (1974: 105) restricts the meanings of futurity (here, future prediction) to sentences with *I* and *We* as subject pronouns in sentences with *shall*. Although Palmer does permit *shall* with non-first person pronouns and other meanings, the usage strikes this observer as being rather British.

2.2.6 **May and Might**

Leech (1971: 68) points out, *may* cannot be used with the epistemic meaning in questions. *May* in questions is reserved for the meaning of permission.
35 (a)* May he have gone to the movie? (perfect possibility)
(b)* May he be going to join his wife? (progressive possibility)

May in questions cannot be used for expressing possibility with the perfect and progressive, may is used to express possibility in affirmative statements: can cannot be used in this environment for this meaning.

36 (a) He [*can/may] have gone to the movie. (perfect possibility)
(b) He [*can/may] be going to the doctor (progressive possibility)

With questions, the reverse is true since with questions may should express permission but cannot when the environment in which it should occur requires the epistemic reading.

37 (a) [Can/May] he have gone to the movie? (perfect possibility)
(b) [Can/May] he be going to the doctor? (progressive possibility)

Hirman (1966: 39) feels that permissive might can occur in indirect discourse as the sequence of tense form of may but admits that "... there are no examples in the corpus used ..." Might with the reading of permission is allowed only in questions, in indirect questions, might is allowed only in reported questions.

2.2.7 Must and Should

Must and should can be used in epistemic environments with the meaning of hypothesis.

38 He must have finished the job by now. (hypothesis)
39 He should have finished the job by now. (hypothesis)

Must and Should are read as expressing the root meanings of necessity in the sentences at 40( a-c). a reading that they share with the quasi modal have to.
40 (a) They must finish the job immediately. (necessity)
(b) They have to finish the job immediately. (necessity)
(c) They should finish the job immediately. (remote necessity)
(d) Must they finish the job immediately? (necessity questioned)
(e) Should they finish the job immediately? (remote necessity)

When there is a negative in the sentence, however, the semantic split between **have to** and **must** is obvious, a split noticed by Moulton (1966). Here, the split is described by assigning the meaning of prohibition to **must** and **should** with the negative and retaining the term, necessity, to describe the meaning of **have to** with the negative.

-41 (a) They must not (mustn’t) finish the job immediately. (prohibition)
(b) They do not (don’t) have to finish the job immediately (necessity)
(c) They should not (shouldn’t) finish the job immediately
   (remote prohibition)

Manipuri has very limited auxiliary i.e. the markers like -y -mi -li -ji -pit which can indicate the routine work and habitual action; -li -ri which expresses the continuation of action; other marker like -re -le expresses the action is completed and marker like -gani -kani is used in expressing the action is to be done in the next moment. These markers are suffixed to the verb, as in examples (42). There is one verb **haw** ‘grow/start’ which can be added to another verb. Then this **haw** functions as an auxiliary indicating the meaning of ‘start’ or an action is ‘continuing’ as in the following.

42 mohak eak ca-haw-ri
he rice eat-start-prog.asp.
‘He is continuing to take his meal’
2.3 Determiner

Manipuri has no articles like a, an, and the in English. But for denoting indefiniteness, the numeral \textit{ôma} 'one' is supplied and definiteness is denoted by means of demonstrative pronoun \textit{ôdu} or \textit{ôadu} 'that' and \textit{asi} or \textit{ôasi} 'this'. They can be added as suffix to the noun by deleting the first syllable \textit{a-} and \textit{ma-} as in the following examples.

43 huy-si yam-no caw-y (huy asi . . .)
dog-det very big
'The dog is very big'

44 ònam-du kôp-le (ònam ôdu . . .)
child-det cry-prog.asp.
'The child is crying'

These determiners (-du - ôdu; si - òsi) follow the noun.

Determiners have played a main role in English. It comes before a noun to show how the noun is being used. The main role is to \textit{co-occur} with nouns to express a wide range of \textit{semantic} contrasts, such as \textit{quantity} or \textit{number}. The \textit{articles}, when they occur in a language, are the main subset of determiners (e.g. \textit{the a} in English).

Other words which can have a determiner function in English include each/every, this/that, some/any etc., all of which a distribution which include the article position as shown below.

45 She's a friend of mine.

46 The boy whom I saw yesterday stood first.

47 Each man can decide his own decision.
His every word is very valuable.
This is really a good example.
That girl is very pretty.
Some of the students passed in the examination.
I've got hardly any money.

2.4 Tense

Tense is not distinctive in Tibeto-Burman languages. In Manipuri also such indistinctive use of tense is found. Action related to time is expressed by adverb of time such as ṭəsi 'today', ṭəran 'yesterday', ṭəsai 'that moment' etc. as shown in sentence 53.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{53} \\
\text{\begin{tabular}{c|c}
\text{ṭəran} & \text{ny pao adu ta-y} \\
\text{ṭəsai} & \\
\end{tabular}}
\end{array}
\]

'Yesterday, day before yesterday that moment I heard the news.'

The form of the verbs remains unchanged even though the action takes place in past or present. The verb form does not show the distinction of time.

Tense is very distinct in English. English has a clear distinction of present verb form and past and participle verb forms though there is some exception (past formation by addition of -\text{ed}, t or change of form etc.). It is adhered to the verb. Tense is grammaticalised expression of location in time. Grammaticalisation refers to integration into the grammatical system of a language. For instance, Tom sang and \textbf{Tom sings} in English is one of tense and \textbf{John sings} and \textbf{John is singing} is not, but rather of aspect. In English tense shows the correspondence between the form of the verb and the concept of time. Examples are given below.
54 He arrives just now.
55 He arrived yesterday.

In the above examples because of the adverb of time yesterday the verb arrive changed into arrived, there is agreement between the adverb and the verb. But in Manipuri such agreement is not found, the verb remains unchanged. In Manipuri tense is not distinctive: aspect is dominant (Yashawanta, 1995). Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded (for example as completed or in progress).

2.5 Aspect

Aspect is very distinct in Manipuri but English has only progressive and perfect aspect as shown in the sentences.

56 She is writing a letter.
57 She had written a letter.

Aspect in Manipuri is divided into four:

2.5.1 Simple Aspect

It is used in expressing habitual routine work etc. It has allomorphs (-y -pi -li -ni -mi).

58 ṭaṅa ḍu kāp-pi
   baby that cry-simp.asp.
   'The baby cries'

59 ṭoᶇ ṭa tʰoṅ-ȵi
   today fish cook-simp.asp.
   'We cook fish today'
2.5.2 Progressive Aspect

It expresses the action is continuing. It is expressed by the marker -li -ri.

60 sita isay sok-li
Sita song sing-prog.asp.
‘Sita is singing’

These aspect markers have their respective allomorphs as shown below:

tʰak-y ‘drinks/drink’
cst-li ‘going’
kap-pi ‘cries/cry’
tʰonŋ-ŋi ‘cooking’
tʰam-mi ‘keep/keeps’

2.5.3 Perfect Aspect (-re -le)

It expresses the action is completed; it is expressed by the marker -re
-le.

61 mahak cak ca-re
he rice eat-perf.asp.
‘He has eaten/taken rice’

62 rita isay sok-le
Rita song sing-perf.asp.
‘Rita has sung’

2.5.4 Unrealised Aspect

It indicates that the action is to be realised in the next moment; it is expressed by the marker -gɔni -kɔni.
63 məhak iruʃa-gəni
ebath-unreal.asp.
'He will take bath'

64 tombə məsəm kək-kəni
Tomba his-hair cut-unreal.asp.
'Tomba will have his hair cut'

But English has only two aspects—perfect and imperfect (progressive).

2.6 Agreement

2.6.1 Number

In English there is an agreement in number between the verb and subject as in sentence 65.

65 He goes to the market.
    They go to the market

But Manipuri has no agreement in number between the verb and the subject as shown in sentence 66 and 67.

66 məmək  않았 ca-y
    he fish eat
    ‘He eats fish’

67 məkə oy 畎 ca-y
    they fish eat
    ‘They eat fish’

2.6.2 Gender

English makes very few gender distinctions. Gender distinctions are neither made by suffixes nor article. But some pronouns are gender-sensitive (the personal
pronoun he, she, it and the relative pronoun who, which) as shown in sentences 68-72.

68 He is a good boy.
69 She is a beautiful girl.
70 It is good to use.
71 Who is the person standing there?
72 Which is better, the red colour or green?

Sentences 68 and 69 show that ‘He’ stands for masculine gender and ‘She’ stands for feminine. But sentence 70 shows that ‘It’ stands for an inanimate object. In 71, ‘Who’ stands for a person and ‘Which’ in 72 is used for an inanimate object. But in all the above sentences the forms of the verbs remain unchanged. In Manipuri also the form of the verbs remain unchanged in both genders as in the following sentences.

73 nupimæca cak ca-ri
   girl     rice  eat-asp (prog.)
   ‘The girl is eating/having rice’
74 nupamæca cak ca-ri
   boy     rice  eat-asp. (prog.)
   ‘The boy is eating/having rice’

It is found that the form of the verbs remain unchanged in both the languages.

2.6.3 Person

In English there is an agreement between the verb and the subject in all persons as in the sentences below:

75 I am a good lady.
76 We are good girls.
You are a boy.
He is good in health.
They are always together.

In all the sentences given above the subjects agree with the verbs. If the subject is ‘I’ the verb is ‘am’. If the subjects are ‘We’, ‘You’, ‘They’ the verbs must be ‘are’ and if the subject is ‘He’ the verb must be ‘is’. But in Manipuri there is no question of agreement between the verb and subject in all persons.

2.7 Verb ‘be’

A sentence which consists of a subject and a predicate, verb ‘be’ serves as a linker between the two, it is called copula. Equatives include identification, class inclusion and class membership. Examples of Manipuri are given below:

A. Identification

80. məhak sita-ni
she Sita-be
‘She is Sita’

B. Class membership

81. jon oja-ni
John teacher-be
‘John is a teacher’

C. Class inclusion

82. məhak nupa əma-ni
he man one-be
‘He is a man’

In English ‘is/was’ functions as copula, as in sentence ‘He is a doctor’ and can be used like Manipuri in identification, class membership and class inclusion. Manipuri has other form of verb ‘be’ that is negative verb ‘be’ form
natte (see for detail in Negation). Interrogative verb ‘be’ form -ra -la (see for detail in Interrogative).

2.8 Preposition

A preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by another part of the sentence. The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase, a nominal Wh-clause, or a nominal -ing clause.

Prepositional Phrase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>on</td>
<td>the chair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from</td>
<td>what she said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>signing a bond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in terms of</td>
<td>money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at variance with</td>
<td>the official report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Manipuri does not follow this i.e. it has no preposition but has post positions. They are manun-da ‘inside/in’, mapan-da ‘outside’, makha-da ‘under’, mathek-to ‘on’ manam-da ‘front’, manja-da ‘rear’, nakha-da ‘side’ etc. The locative case marker -da -ta is also with the preposition. Manipuri is called a post positional language. Some examples are given below.

83 mahak ka manun-da tum-li
he room in/inside sleep-prog.asp.
‘He is sleeping in the room’

84 tombi-na kalam ama teba mathek-to tam-mi
Tombi-nom pen one table on-loc keep-simp.asp.
‘Tombi keeps a pen on the table’
85 makb oy turel mapan-da cel-li
they river side-loc run-prog asp
'They are running by the bank of the river'

As opposed to the postposition of Manipuri, English is a prepositional language, it has many prepositions.

There are several points of similarity between prepositions and other word classes and constructions in English grammar, in particular conjunctions and adverbs, but also participles and adjectives.

Both prepositions and conjunctions have a relating or connecting functions:

The day when he arrived (when conjunction)
The day of his arrival (of preposition)

In certain cases, the same items can function both as prepositions and conjunctions. e.g. after, as, before, since, until.

The day before he arrived [before conjunction]
The day before his arrival [before preposition]

One distinguishing criterion between the two word classes is that prepositions introduce complements which are nominal or nominalised, whereas the corresponding conjunctions (subordinators) introduce a subordinate clause.

The situation is however complicated in the case of non-linte clauses, since -ing clauses are permitted after a preposition in English.

86 On arriving he took a taxi.
The word **after** can be used either as a conjunction or a preposition, **when** can only be a conjunction, and **by** can only be a preposition. The table below shows the constructions after prepositions and conjunctions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>when - conjunction only</th>
<th>after - conjunction or preposition</th>
<th>by - preposition only</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>when he spoke</td>
<td>after he spoke</td>
<td>&quot;by he spoke&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>when speaking</td>
<td>after speaking</td>
<td>&quot;by speaking&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>*when his speech</td>
<td>after his speech</td>
<td>&quot;by his speech&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the common English prepositions consist of one word such as **at**, **in** and **for** are simple and other prepositions, consisting of more than one word, are called complex. A list of the most common simple prepositions is given below. In view of the different stress patterns, they have been divided into mono and polysyllabic (monosyllabic prepositions are normally unstressed; polysyllabic prepositions are normally stressed. However, stressed monosyllabic prepositions are by no means uncommon, especially in coordination.

87    Trains both **to** and **from** Mumbai are late this morning.

88    ... **government** of the people, **by** the people, and for the people.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monosyllabic prepositions</th>
<th>Polysyllabic prepositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>down</td>
<td>against</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition to the prepositions given above, there are some words which behave in many ways like prepositions, although they also have affinities with other word classes such as verbs or adjectives. They are known as marginal prepositions. Marginal prepositions with verbal affinities are given below:

bar, 'barring, excepting, excluding;
save: formal: concerning, formal:
considering, regarding, respecting, touching: formal or literary:
'tailing, 'wanting, 'following, 'pending
formal: 'given, 'granted, in'cluding.

Less, minus, plus, times and over form a special group in their use with numerals, e.g.

89 2 + 1 is read as ‘two plus one’.

In informal style minus and plus can also occur in non-numerical contexts:

90 She came minus her husband yesterday ['without']
91 He’s had mumps plus measles. ['and']

Plus can also be used as a conjunction.

92 You can have what you want, plus you can save money.
<esp. AmE> ['and in addition', 'also']