CHAPTER - 4
SYNTAX

4.1. Word order typology

There are six possible word orders that can potentially occur in human language, viz. - SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS and OSV. Some languages, such as Latin, have a relatively free word order while others such as English have a fixed one (Comrie:1981). In this section, we shall look into some of the relevant word order universals as suggested by Greenberg (1966) and see how far Inpui conforms to the arguments.

Universal 1

In declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the dominant order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object. The basic word order of Inpui is SOV. Thus, Inpui basic word order agrees with the universal 1 as suggested by Greenberg.

1. tom tui in-ne

   Tom water drink-DECL

   ‘Tom drinks water.’
Universal 2

With overwhelmingly greater than chance frequency, languages with normal SOV order are postpositional. Inpui is a postpositional language where the postposition occurs after the governing noun.

2. dip-gə teɓəl bəsan-bi əm-me
   book-DECL table above-LOC exist-DECL
   ‘The book is on the table.’

Universal 3

In languages with prepositions, the genitive almost always follows the governing noun, while in languages with postpositions it almost always precedes. Inpui genitive occurs after the governing noun as given in universal 3 of Greenberg.

3. ə-om dip
    my-GEN book
    ‘My book.’

Universal 4

If a language has dominant SOV order and the genitive follows the governing noun, then the adjective likewise follows the noun. Inpui conforms to universal 4 in that, the
genitive follows the governing noun and the adjective likewise follows the governing noun.

4. \text{tom-om} \quad \text{pʰəŋsa} \quad \text{ṭəlatʰu} \\
Tom-GEN \quad beautiful \quad shirt \\
‘Tom’s beautiful shirt.’

Universal 7

If in a language with dominant SOV order, there is no alternative basic order, or only OSV as the alternative, then all adverbial modifiers of the verb likewise precede the verb. Inpui conforms with universal 7 in that it has only OSV as its alternative word order. As shown in example 7, the adverbial modifier of the verb precedes the governing verb.

SOV

5. \text{ram-nə} \quad \text{tu-i-yə} \quad \text{in-ne} \\
Ram-NOM \quad water-DEM \quad drink-DECL \\
‘Ram drinks this water.’

OSV

6. \text{tu-i-yə} \quad \text{ram-nə} \quad \text{in-ne} \\
water-DEM \quad ram-NOM \quad drink-DECL \\
‘Ram drinks this water.’
Adv-Verb

7. man  bəɔŋ-gə  sa-ye
   he  quick-ADV  eat-DECL
   ‘He eats quickly.’

4.2. Other features of word order in Inpui

This includes the order of noun and its modifiers, viz. adjectives, numerals, relative clauses; the order of adjective and the degree words; the order of negative and verb; the order between subordinate clause and main clause and the order between conditional clause and main clause.

Adjective-noun order

The order of adjective and noun in Inpui are interchangeable. Thus we can have AdjN order and NAdj order where Adj stands for adjective and N stands for noun.

8. bəronu  ben
   big  pot
   ‘Big pot’

9. ben  bəronu
   pot  big
   ‘Big pot’
When noun and adjective combine to form a compound word, adjective always forms the final constituent of the compound.

10. Adjective + Noun                  Noun-Adjective
    k₇sennu + pʷən (red+cloth) > pʷənsen ‘red cloth’
    kʷpaknu + kʊt (wide+hand) > kʊtpak ‘palm’
    kʷt₅ənnu + t₃ (new+moon) > t₃ət₅ən ‘new moon’

In a noun phrase that contains the three modifiers, viz. adjective, numeral and demonstrative we can have the following orders.

\[Noun-adjective-numeral-demonstrative\]

11. dip   sa-nu   intʰum   hɔyə
    book  good-NMZR  NUM  DEM
    ‘This three good books.’

\[Adjective - noun - numeral -demonstrative\]

12. sa-nu   dip   intʰum   hɔyə
    good-NMZR  book  NUM  DEM
    ‘This three good books.’
**Order of relative clause and noun**

The relative clause can precede or follow the head noun. When the relative clause precedes the head noun, the noun is externally headed. On the other hand, when relative clause follows the head noun, the noun is internally headed.

13. a) [kəbomnu ṭələ不具备 ṭə不具备-u-nu] manpa-gə tom-ye
    black shirt wear-NMZR man-DET tom-DECL

   **Relative clause** **head-noun**

   ‘The man who wear black shirt is Tom.’

   b) manpa [tələ不具备不具备 kəbomnu不具备不具备 ṭə不具备-u-nu-gə] tom-ye
    man shirt black wear-REL tom-DECL

   **Head noun** **relative expression**

   ‘The man who wear black shirt is Tom.’

**Demonstrative-noun order**

Inpui demonstratives can occur pre-nominal as well as post-nominal as shown in example (14 & 15) below.

**The order of demonstrative and noun**

14. ḥəyə dip sa-nu-we
    DEM book good-NMZR-DECL

    ‘This book is good.’
The order of noun and demonstrative

15. ɾəy-yə ʰpʰəŋsa-yə
    flower-DEM beautiful-DECL
    ‘This flower is beautiful.’

The order of noun and demonstrative

The demonstrative can follow and precede the head noun in Inpui as shown in (16) below.

16. həyə  dip-yə  sa-yə
    DEM  book-DEM  good-DECL
    ‘This book is good.’

The Order of numeral and noun

The cardinal number in Inpui always follows the head noun. But ordinal number on the other hand can follow and precede the head noun.

Cardinal number-noun order

17. a)  ui  kʰɔ
    dog  one
    ‘One dog.’

    b)  bɔsa  som
    bird  ten
    ‘Ten birds.’
Ordinal number-noun order

18. a) kɔninu   nausen
    second     child
    ‘Second child’

   b) nausen   kɔninu
    child     second
    ‘Second child’

Order of classifier and noun

The classifiers in Inpui always follow the head noun.

19. a) tʰiŋ   kuŋ   kʰø
    tree    CLASSF    one
    ‘A tree.’

   b) røy   gon   kʰø
    flower  CLASSF    one
    ‘A bunch of flower.’
The order of degree word and adjective

Degree word refers to the words like very, more and a bit, which are traditionally terms as adverbs. They indicate the degree denoted by the adjective. In Inpui degree words follows the adjectives.

20. a) phomša tək-e
   beautiful  DEG-DECL
   ‘Very beautiful.’

   b) həyə bərən-tək-e
   DEM     big-DEG-DECL
   ‘This is very big.’

Order of negative and verb

Inpui negative markers occur after the main verb. There are only two negative markers in Inpui, viz. -mək and -la.

21. a) man zu in-mək-e
    he     liquor  drink-NEG-DECL
    ‘He doesn’t drink liquor.’

    b) ani inswən kədəy-la-e
    we      tomorrow  play-NEG-DECL
    ‘We will not play tomorrow.’
Order of subordinate clause and main clause

The Sub-ordinate clause in Inpui precedes the main clause.

22. a) mery-nə bəzar se-nubi ɲa kəlay-yə
    mary-NOM bazaar go-when fish buy-DECL
    ‘When Mary went to bazar(she) bought fish from there.’

    b) man-nə lam-əbi bəni se-troy
    she- NOM dance-while they go-PRF
    ‘They had gone while she was dancing.’

Order of conditional clause and main clause

In Inpui, conditional clause precedes the main clause as shown in the following example.

23. a) man hən-əbi əy se- læŋzoy
    he come-if I go-FUT
    ‘If he comes, then I will go.’

    b) əni sa-əbi man sa-læŋzoy
    we eat-if he eat-FUT
    ‘If we eat, then he will eat.’
4.3. Phrase and its types

The term phrase denotes a group of words without a finite verb. In other words, it stands for a set of syntactic elements which form a constituent. Word classes and phrases are very closely linked. First of all, a phrase is named after the word class that acts as head of the phrase. A head is a word upon which everything is centered. Phrases in Inpui may be divided into four types.

1. Noun phrase
2. Verb phrase
3. Adjective phrase
4. Adverb phrase

4.3.1. Noun phrase

A phrase which consists of a noun as its head and two or more modifiers may be termed as noun phrase. It may function as the subject, direct object or indirect object depending on the valency of a verb. A noun phrase consists minimally of a single noun head and may optionally include one or more other constituents. The noun phrase head can be a lexical noun, a personal pronoun or a demonstrative pronoun. Inpui noun phrase consists minimally of the noun (or noun substitute, such as pronoun) and other words or affixes can be added. Noun phrase is structurally presented as NP.
NP → N + DET

24. a) kəpəysə yə
   boy     DEM
   ‘This boy.’

   b) kəpəysə gə
   boy     DEM
   ‘That boy.’

4.3.2. Verb phrase

A phrase where the head is a verb may be termed as a verb phrase. Verb phrase is abbreviated as VP. A verb phrase may consist of verb+NP or Adverbs+V as shown below.

   VP → V + NP

25. kəpəysə-gə-nə tʰɪŋkən-ɡə pʰəŋ-ʃəŋzoy
   boy-DEM-NOM tree-DEM see-FUT
   ‘The boy will see the tree.’

   VP → ADV+V

26. bəɾəp-gə se-ro
    Slow-ADV go-COM
    ‘Go slowly.’
4.3.3. Adjective phrase

A phrase which has an adjective as its head can be referred to as adjective phrase. In Inpui the formative particle kə- is prefixed to the verb root to derived adjective. Examples of adjective phrase are as follows.

\[ \text{AdjP} \rightarrow \text{Adj} + \text{N} \]

27. kə-sa-nu nausen

ADJ-good- NMZR child

‘Good child.’

\[ \text{AdjP} \rightarrow \text{Adj} + \text{V} \]

28. kə-sa-nu din-ye

ADJ-good- NMZR seem-DECL

‘It seems good.’

4.3.4. Adverb phrase

An adverb phrase consists of two or more words operating adverbially. In an adverb phrase the head is an adverb. It may be accompanied by modifiers or quantifiers. It can modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb. An adverb phrase is presented as AdvP.
**Adv P ➞ V+Adv**

29. a) :bgan-tok-gə  
  slow-DEG-ADM  
  ‘Slowly.’

b) :kəup-gə  huŋ-ŋo  
  frequent-ADV  come-COM  
  ‘Come frequently.’

**4.4. Clause and its types**

A clause is the natural language counterpart of the predicate calculus, i.e., it consists of a predicate and arguments. As such, a clause is the domain of a verb and nouns that are associated with it (K. Brown and J. Miller: 1999). A clause is defined in traditional grammar as an expression which contains (at least) a subject and a predicate, and which may contain other types of expression as well (e.g. one or more complements and/or adjuncts) (Andrew Radford: 2004).

There are two major types of clauses in Inpui.

a) Independent clause or main clause

b) Subordinate clause or dependent clause
4.4.1. Independent clause

An independent clause (or main clause) is a clause that can stand by itself. Hence, it is sometimes known as a simple sentence. An independent clause contains a subject and a predicate as shown below.

30. a) ǝy bɔ-diŋ kɛlɛl-ɔŋzoɔ y
I he-ACC meet-FUT
‘I will meet him.’

b) man cɔp-ɛmai
She cry-PROG
‘She is crying.’

4.4.2. Subordinate clause or dependent clause

A subordinate clause, on the other hand, cannot stand on its own. It adds more information to the main clause. A subordinate clause may function as a noun, adjective and adverb in a sentence. A subordinate clause may be divided into three types.

a) Noun clause

b) Adjective clause

c) Adverb clause
4.4.2.1. Noun clause

A dependent clause that functions as a noun in a sentence is called noun clause. It performs the same function as a noun in a sentence. Noun clause is generally formed by a factive element *dinnu* as shown below.

31. oy  𝑡̣′ei-ye  man  sa-ye  dinnu
   I know-DECL  he  good-DECL  fact
   ‘I know that he is good.’

4.4.2.2. Adjective clause

A dependent clause that functions as an adjective is termed as an ‘adjective clause’. It modifies a noun or a pronoun in a sentence. A relative pronoun is required to form an adjective clause in a sentence shown below.

32. a) man  sa-ye  dinnu  këmt-ḥ an-go  sa-ṭak-e
    he  good-DECL  fact  news-DEM  nice-DEG-DECL
    ‘The news that he is good is very nice.’

b) man-nə  pi-nu  ṭalat-ḥ u -go  ṭanak-rwən-nə  bət-ḥ ai-ye
    he-NOM  give-NMZ  shirt-DEM  girl-PL-NOM  like-DECL
    ‘The shirt that he gave is liked by the girls.’
Here in example (32. a) the clause \textit{man sa-ye dinnu ‘that he is good’} qualifies the noun \textit{cəmtə} ‘news’. Similarly in example (32.b) also the clause \textit{man-nə pi-nu ‘he gave’} qualifies the noun \textit{tələfə} ‘shirt’, therefore such clause is regarded as an adjective clause.

4.4.2.3. Adverb clause

A dependent clause that functions as an adverb in a sentence is called adverb clause. Like an adverb such clause modifies a verb, adjective or other adverb in a sentence.

Causal clause

In Inpui \textit{bʊrəm} indicates the cause and the adverb marker \textit{-gə} is added to form causal clause as shown in the following examples.

33. a) man na-nu \textit{bʊrəm-gə əniya iskul se-la-roy}  
he sick-NMZR since-ADV today school go-FUT.NEG-DECL  
\textit{‘Since he is sick, he will not go to school.’}

b) in-nu \textit{sa-nu bʊrəm-gə naosen-gə pum-sa-ye}  
sleep- NMZR good-NMZR since-ADV child-DEM body-good-DECL  
\textit{‘Since the child sleeps well, he is healthy.’}
Note that when the causative marker -baran is absent, the adverb marker -gə can function as a causal clause as shown in the example below.

34. a) man na-nu-gə əniya iskul se-la-roy

    he sick-NMZR-ADV today school go-FUT.NEG-DECL

    ‘Since he is sick, he will not go to school.’

    b) in-nu sa-nu-gə naosen-gə pum-sa-ye

    sleep-NMZR good-NMZR-ADV child-DEM body-good-DECL

    ‘Since the child sleeps well, he is healthy.’

**Conditional clause**

The conditional suffix -bi is added to the main verb to derive a conditional clause as shown in the examples below.

35. a) tom hun-je-bi nəŋ se-nu za-ye

    Tom come-DECL-COND you go-NMZR allow-DECL

    ‘If Tom comes, you can go.’

    b) man nət-gə kəran-je-bi pərikʰ a nəm-ləŋqoy

    he hard-ADV work-DECL-COND exam pass-FUT

    ‘If he work hard, he will pass.’
4.5. Causativisation

Causativisation is a way of expressing the idea of causing somebody to do something or making something as desired. A causative construction shows that a subject causes someone to perform an action or one causes a change in state of a non-volitional event. Shibatani (2001) lists three criteria for entities and relations that must be encoded in linguistic expressions of causation.

1. An agent causing or forcing another participant to perform an action, or to be in a certain condition.

2. The relation between [the] two events [the causing event, and the caused performing/being event] is such that the speaker believes that the occurrence of one event, the "caused event," has been realized at t2, which is after t1, the time of the "causing event."

3. The relation between causing event and caused event is such that the speaker believes the occurrence of the caused event depends wholly on the occurrence of the causing event, the dependency of the two events here must be to the extent that it allows the speaker a counterfactual inference that the caused event would not have taken place at a particular time if the causing event had not taken place, provided that all else had remained the same. (1976a: 1-2).
Inpui has one causative affix *pi*-. This causative prefix when attach to the verb root gives a sense of causation. Causative verbs have a characteristic argument structure since they are the only ones which subcategorizes for an agent and a patient. Inpui has three kinds of causatives as shown in the table below.

**Table No.10 - Arguments taking causatives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causative with two argument</th>
<th>make X cry</th>
<th>agent, patient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Causative with three argument</td>
<td>make X break Y</td>
<td>agent, patient, theme or Agent, experience/goal or patient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative with four argument</td>
<td>make X give Y to Z</td>
<td>agent, patient, goal, theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.1. Causative with two arguments

Causative with two arguments includes agent and patient. The following examples in (36. a & b) illustrates causatives with the agent and the patient as their arguments.

36. a) man-*nọ* naup*ọ*-*di*ŋ pi-*ẹ*-*e*

   he-AGN child-PAT CAU-cry-DECL

   ‘He makes the child cry.’

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4.5.2. Causative with three arguments

Causative with three arguments subcategorizes for an agent, patient and a theme as shown in (37. a & b) or an agent, a patient and an experience/goal as in (c). Causative verbs mostly affect the patients while themes are secondarily affected by the action. The following examples in (37. a-c) support the given statement.

37. a) əy-nə ɾam-dinə tebəl-bi dip-gə pi-tʰəŋ-ye
   I-AGN Ram-PAT table-LOC book-DEM CAUS-keep-DECL
   ‘I made Ram keep the book on the table.’

   b) əy-nə ɾam-dinə rəkwən pi-tʰou-we
      I-AGN Ram-PAT horse CAUS-ride-DECL
      ‘I made Ram ride the horse.’

   c) tom-nə ɾam-lən bə-om səkəmaiśmyə-dinə pi-pʰəŋ-ye
      Tom-AGN Ram-LOC he-GEN daughter-PAT CAUS-treat-DECL
      ‘Tom caused his daughter to be treated by Ram.’
4.5.3. Causatives with four arguments

Causatives with four arguments include one who instigates the giving, the one who is made to do the giving, the entity transferred and the person who receives the entity. Thus causatives with four arguments subcategorize for an agent, patient, theme and goal as shown in (38) below.

38. ǝy-nǝ ram-diŋ tom-ıp siŋ pi-pi-we
    I-AGN Ram-PAT Tom-LOC money CAUS-give-DECL
    ‘I made Ram give the money to Tom.’

Example (38) shows the agent, patient, theme and goal. However, the patient can be omitted as in (39. a) and the patient and theme can be omitted as in (39. b) as exemplified below.

39.  a) ǝy-nǝ tom-ıŋ siŋ pi-pi-we
    I-AGN Tom-LOC money CAUS-give-DECL
    ‘I had the money given through Tom.’ (to someone)

   b) ǝy-nǝ tom-ı  pi-pi-we
    I-AGN Tom-LOC CAUS-give-DECL
    ‘I had (money) given through Tom.’
4.6. Relative clause

A relative clause is a kind of subordinate clause, one of whose arguments shares a referent with a main clause element on which the subordinate clause is grammatically dependent. Typically, a relative clause modifies a noun or noun phrase and uses some grammatical device to indicate that one of the arguments within the relative clause has the same referent as that of noun or noun phrase. Inpui exhibits both internally headed as well as externally headed relative clause.

4.6.1. Internally headed relative clause (IHRC)

According to Keenan 1985, IHRCs are found only in those languages whose basic word order is SOV. Inpui being a verb final language also exhibits IHRCs that contrast with EHRCs in their syntactic behavior. (Cole et.al. 1982) refers to internally headed relative clause as a headless relative clause where the head (the NP that is being relativized) does not occur in the matrix clause, but only in the embedded sentence. In IRCs, the head NP occurs within the embedded relative clause.

40. [ŋeŋ-uo i kələy-łam-nu-gə] kəsanu (ui)-ye
   you-NOM dog sell-PRF-NMZR-DEM good dog-DECL
   ‘The dog that you sold is good.’

In Inpui the direct, indirect, instrumental, locational, goal and ablative can be relativized as shown in the following examples.
Direct object as a head

41. นี่-นบ ดิป ปานุ-โภ ซาย
    you-NOM book read-NMZ-DEM good-DECL
    ‘The book that you read is good.’

Indirect object as head

42. นี่-นบ แม่นา-แป แซ่ใน-หี่ยอก-นู-โภ บสาน-ตอก-เอ
    you-NOM man-DAT letter write-NMZ-DEM tall-very-DECL
    ‘The man who you wrote a letter to is very tall.’

Instrumental PP as a head

43. นี่-นบ เลมนบ ตอปลา-ตอก-นู-โภ แซ่ใน-ไว-ตอก-เอ
    you-NOM knife-INS fruit cut-NMZ-DEM beautiful-very-DECL
    ‘The knife with which you cut the fruit is very beautiful.’

Locative PP as a head

44. นี่-นบ ซินทัน-บี้ ดิป ทัน-นู-โภ ทัน-นบ บัตนำ-นู-เย
    you-NOM table-LOC book keep-NMZ-DEM wood-INS made-NMZ-DECL
    ‘The table on which you kept the book is made of wood.’
Goal as a head

45. น้ํา-น้ํา ประกอบ se-nu-go นอมแลตึก-e
    you-NOM field-LOC go-NMZ-DEM far-very-DECL

    ‘The field you go to is very far.’

Ablative PP as a head

46. น้ํา-น้ํา น่า บ่อซาร์-บิน่า ก่อเลย-lam-nu-go ผาแตก-e
    you-NOM fish market-ABL buy-PRT-NMZ-DEM taste-very-DECL

    ‘The fish you brought from the market is very tasty.’

4.6.2. Externally headed relative clause

In externally headed relative clause, the head occurs in the matrix clause for the entire positions namely direct object, instrumental, locative, goal and ablative. The position of the head can be changed i.e. the RC can precede as well as follow the head noun.

Direct object as a head

47. น้ํา-น้ํา ผานุ dip-go sa-ye
    you-NOM read-NMZ book-DEM good-DECL

    ‘The book that you read is good.’
Locative PP as a head

48. nəŋ-ŋə dip tʰəŋ-nu simhəŋ-gə tʰəŋ-nə bəca-nu-ye
   you-NOM book keep-NOM table-DEM wood-INS made-NMZ-DECL
   ‘The table on which you kept the book is made of wood.’

Instrumental PP as a head

49. nəŋ-ŋə tʰəkra tocət-nu cem-gə cəŋtʰai-tək-e
   you-NOM fruit cut-NMZ-DECL knife-DEM beautiful-DEG-DECL
   ‘The knife with which you cut the fruit is very beautiful.’

Goal as a head

50. nəŋ-ŋə se-nu ʃəu-ʃə nəmla-tək-e
   you-NOM go-NMZ-DECL field-DEM far-DEG-DECL
   ‘The field you go to is very far.’

Ablative PP as a Head

51. nəŋ-ŋə bəzar-bina kələy-ləm-nu ɳə-gə pəsə-tək-e
   you-NOM market-ABL buy- PRF-NMZ-DECL fish-DEM taste-DEG-DECL
   ‘The fish you bought from the market is very tasty.’
Relative clause following the head

Direct object as a head

52. dip nəŋ-na pa-nu-gə sa-ye
    book you-NOM read-NMZ-DEM good-DECL

    ‘The book that you read is good.’

Locative PP as a head

53. sinʰən-bi nəŋ-na dip tʰən-nu-gə tʰən-na bəca-nu-ye
    table-LOC you-NOM book keep-NMZ-DEM wood-INS made-NMZ-DECL

    ‘The table on which you kept the book is made of wood.’

Instrumental PP as a head

54. cem nəŋ-na tʰəkra tocət-nu-gə cəŋtʰai-ək-e
    knife you-NOM fruit cut-NMZ-DEM beautiful-DEG-DECL

    ‘The knife with which you cut the fruit is very beautiful.’

Goal as a head

55. ləu nəŋ-na se-nu-gə namla-tək-e
    field you-NOM go-NMZ-DEM far-very-DECL

    ‘The field you go to is very far.’
Ablative PP as a head

56. ɳa ɳeŋ-ŋe  bəzər-bɪnə  kələy-ɬəm-nu-gə  pəsa-tək-e

  fish  you-NOM  market-ABL  buy-PRF-NMZR-DEM  taste-very-DECL

  ‘The fish you bought from the market is very tasty.’

4.7. Complementation

Complementation is the grammatical process by which sentences are formed to function as the arguments of matrix sentence. Inpui has three complementizers.

**The nominalizer -nu as a complementizer**

The nominalizer -nu is added to a verb to form nominal complements.

57.  a) əy-ŋə  pək-nu  bəzəŋ-ŋə

  I-NOM  run-NMZR  slow-DECL

  ‘I run slowly.’

  b) əy  pək-nu  bətʰai-ye

  I  run-NMZR  like-DECL

  ‘I like to run.’

**The determiner-nugə as a complementizer**

It is the combination of nominalizer and a determiner such as -nuyə or -nugə as illustrated below.
58. man-ŋə tui in-nugə əy-ŋə tʰŋŋ-ye
   he-NOM water drink-DCOMP I-NOM stop-DECL
   ‘I stopped him from drinking water.’

The quotative as a complementizer

Quotatives are based on the verb din ‘say’. It can occur with nominalizer -nu. It indicates that the speaker has some evidence about the truth of the proposition expressed in the complement.

59. a) tom sa-mək-e din-nu əy tʰei-ye
   Tom good-NEG-DECL say-NMZR I know-DECL
   ‘I know that tom is bad.’

   b) man bu swəŋ-ŋə din-nu əy tʰei-mək-e
   he rice cook-DECL say-NMZR I know-NEG-DECL
   ‘I don’t know that he cooks.’

4.8 Types of Sentence

Inpui sentences may be divided into seven types as explained below.
4.8.1 Declarative sentence

A declarative sentence makes a statement or an assertion. The declarative sentence in Inpui is expressed by suffixing the declarative marker -e to the verbal root. The declarative marker -e has different allomorphs: ye~we~ŋe~ne

60. a) oy bu sa-ye

   I    rice    eat-DECL

   ‘I eat rice.’

b) oy tui in-ne

   I    water    drink-DECL

   ‘I drink water.’

c) man hɔynŋu sa-roy-ye

   he    mango    eat-PRF-DECL

   ‘He just ate a mango.’

d) man pwɔŋ kɔsin-roy-ye

   he    cloth    wash-PRF-DECL

   ‘He just washes cloth.’

The above example (a) and (b) show habitual action while in (c) and (d) refer to completed action.
4.8.2 Optative sentence

An optative sentence expresses a speaker’s desire or intention to perform an action. Such sentences frequently indicate future tense. An optative sentence in Inpui is marked by suffixing the optative marker -nom to the verbal root. This suffix is generally added to dynamic verbs.

61. a) øy dip pa-nom-me
    I book read-OPT-DECL
    ‘I want to read the book.’

   b) øy tui in-nom-me
    I water drink-OPT-DECL
    ‘I want to drink water.’

4.8.3 Imperative Sentence

Imperative sentence is a sentence which expresses a command and request. Command is indicated by the suffix -o~ro~go.

62. a) dip pa-o
    book read-COM
    ‘Read it (the book)’
b) nəŋ  se-ro
   you  go-COM
   ‘You go’

c) nəŋ  hun-ŋo
   you  come-COM
   ‘You come’

d) dip  pa-mək-o
   book  read-PROHB-COM
   ‘don’t read the book.’

e) tui  in-mək-o
   water  drink-PROHB-COM
   ‘Don’t drink water.’

The above examples in (a-c) indicate simple imperative sentences while those in (d-e) gives the meaning of prohibitive.

Request on the other hand is expressed by the suffix -rəŋ as shown below.
63. tui in-tɔŋ-ŋo

water drink-REQ-COM

‘Please have water.’

4.8.4. Supplicative sentence

Supplicative sentences allow the speaker to propose or urge some course of action where the speaker will be a participant in the action. The supplicative is marked by the suffix -zo.

64. a) øni la to-zo

we song sing-SUPPL

‘Let us sing.’

b) øni se-zo

we go-SUPPL

‘Let us go.’

To form supplicative negative, the negative marker ‘-mɔk’ is added to the root verb.

65. a) øni la to-mɔk-zo

we song sing-NEG-SUPPL

‘Let us not sing.’
b. ənî  se-маk-zо
    we  go- NEG-SUPPL

‘Let us not go.’

4.8.5 Interrogative sentence

An interrogative sentence in Inpui is divided into four types - Yes-No question, alternative question, tag-question and WH-question.

Yes-No Question

Inpui Yes-No question is formed in two ways

i) By suffixing the interrogative suffix -bo to the noun root.

ii) By suffixing the interrogative suffix -bo to the verb root.

By suffixing the interrogative suffix -bo to the noun root

The interrogative suffix -bo can be added to the noun root in three ways as explained in the following examples.

Directly to the noun root

66. a) man  tom-bo

   he  Tom-QM

   ‘Is he Tom?’
b) inzan soti-bo

tomorrow holiday-QM

‘Is tomorrow a holiday?’

Noun phrase where the determiner -yɔ precedes the yes or no question –bo

67. a) dip-yɔ-bo

book-DEM-QM

‘Is this book?’

b) pwɔn-yɔ-bo

cloth- DEM -QM

‘Is this a cloth?’

Noun root followed by a case marker

68. a) bɔzar-ɔ-bo

bazaar-LOC-QM

‘at bazar?’

b) ram-om-bo

Ram-GEN-QM

‘Is it Ram’s?’
By suffixing the interrogative suffix -bo to the verb root

Verbs in Inpui do not form interrogatives unless they are first nominalized as illustrated below.

69. a) ɲəŋ ɲa sa-nu-bo
    you fish eat-NMZ-QM
    ‘Do you eat fish?’

    b) ɲəŋ ca in-nu-bo
    you tea drink-NMZ-QM
    ‘Do you drink tea?’

Alternative question

An alternative question in Inpui is formed by putting the interrogative marker on both the alternatives which may be positive or negative as in the following examples.

a) Positive

70. a) təlatʰu kʰət-bo kəni-bo
    shirt one-QM two-QM
    ‘Is it one shirt or two shirt?’

    b) dip-bo kolom-bo
    book-QM pen-QM
    ‘Is it a book or a pen?’
b) Positive-negative

71. a) ǝy to-bo to-mǝk-bo
    I do-QM do-NEG-QM
    ‘Shall I do it or not?’

    b) ǝy sa-bo sa-mǝk-bo
    I eat-QM eat-NEG-QM
    ‘Shall I eat or not?’

Tag Question

Tag question words serve to seek confirmation whether explicitly or rhetorically. Inpu tag question is formed by suffixing the nominaliser -nu between the verbal root and Yes or No question.

72. a) man pʰaŋsa-ǝm-k-e phaŋsa-nu-bo
    she beautiful-NEG-DECL beautiful-NMZ-R-QM
    ‘She is not beautiful, isn’t she?’

    b) man ǝn kǝbiya-ǝm-k-e kǝbiya-nu-bo
    She word speak-NEG-DECL speak-NMZ-R-QM
    ‘She doesn’t speak, doesn’t he?’
Reversed tag

Such tag is employed to obtain confirmation of the speaker’s feeling. Here a speaker intends that the proposition is true but wants the hearer to confirm it. The reverse tag Q is always formed by the negative marker \(-mₙk\) between the verbal root and Yes or No question marker.

73. a) ɲa swəŋ-nu-gə pəsə-e, pəsə-mək-nu-bo
    fish cook-NMZR-DEM taste-DECL taste-NEG-NMZR-QM
    ‘The fish cooks tasty, isn’t it?’

b) gencen to-nu-gə sa-ye, sa-mək-nu-bo
    exercise do-NMZR-DEM good-DECL good-NEG-NMZR-QM
    ‘Doing exercise is good, isn’t it?’

Question words/ WH Questions

Inpui uses six basic forms of WH question.

74. Ʉəm  ‘what’
    tu  ‘who’
    indəmnu  ‘which’
    ingai  ‘where’
    inpʰa  ‘when’
    bəɾəmba  ‘why’

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4.8.6 Negative sentence

A negative sentence is a sentence which states that something is not true or incorrect. Like many Kuki-Chin languages, VNeg is the only order found in the language. Inpui has two negatives -mǝk and -la which occur post verbally. The negative -mǝk is clearly cognate with the Proto Tibeto-Burman *ma.

The negative suffix -mǝk is used to negate declarative, imperative, interrogative and proposal sentences in Inpui.

Simple declarative sentence

Simple declarative sentences are negated by -mǝk as shown below.

75. a) man zu in-mǝk-e
    he liquor drink-NEG-DECL
    ‘He doesn’t drink liquor.’

       b) oy bu sa-mǝk-e
       I rice eat-NEG-DECL
       ‘I do not eat rice.’

       c) oy tǝmǝm pa-mǝk-e
       I poem read-NEG-DECL
       ‘I do not read poem.’
Imperative sentence

Imperative sentences can be negated by placing -мəк between the verbal root and the imperative marker as shown below.

76. a) тəкʰу-гə тʰəт-мəк-о
    tiger-DEM kill-PROHB -DECL
    ‘don’t kill the tiger.’

    b) ʰпəто-гə ʰпə̱н-мəк-о
    photo-DEM look-PROHB -COM
    ‘don’t look the photo.’

Interrogative sentence

Interrogative sentences can be negated by suffixing the negative marker -мəк between the verbal root and the Q.marker.

77. a) нəњ мəк-бо
    you NEG -QM
    ‘isn’t it you?’

    b) нəњ ʰпутбол кəлəй-мəк-бо?
    you football play-NEG-QM
    ‘don’t you play football?’
Proposal sentence

Proposal sentences are negated by placing the negative marker -mək between the verbal root and the proposal marker -zo.

78. a) əni se-mək-zo

we go-NEG-SUG

‘let us not play.’

b) əni bɔnui-mək-zo

we laugh-NEG-SUG

‘let us not laugh.’

Sentence indicating future

The suffix -la when added to the verbal root gives a future negative sentence.

79. a) oy inswən iskul se-la-e

I tomorrow school go-NEG-DECL

‘I will not go to school tomorrow.’

b) əni inswən kɔdəy- la-e

we tomorrow play-NEG-DECL

‘We will not play tomorrow.’
Negative strengthening

Negative sentences in Inpui are made emphatic by the occurrence of $k^h\text{etc\rlap{\hphantom{\text{c}}}le}$ which may be loosely translated as ‘at all’ or ‘never’. Note here that $k^h\text{etc\rlap{\hphantom{\text{c}}}le}$ occurs between the nominal and the verbal head.

Negative  

80. a) əy zu in-мək-e  
      I liquor drink-NEG-DECL  
      ‘I do not drink liquor.’

Strengthening  

b) əy zu $k^h\text{etc\rlap{\hphantom{\text{c}}}le}$ in-мək-e  
      I liquor at all drink-NEG-DECL  
      ‘I do not drink liquor at all.’

The suffix -мək functions as a lexicalized negator. Like the English lexicalized negator *not*, -мək is use to indicate the lexicalized negator as explained below.

81. a) man əmos мək-e  
      he Amos not-DECL  
      ‘He is not Amos.’
Morphological negation

Morphological negation occurs whenever the negative morpheme must be considered to form part of the derivation morphology of the verb. (Yashwanta: 2002:149). It is formed in two ways.

i) by adding the nominalizer -nu to the negative marker -mək as shown in the following examples.

\[
\begin{align*}
82. & \\
\text{a)} & \text{sanu ‘to eat’} & \text{sa-mək-nu ‘not to eat’} \\
\text{b)} & \text{innu ‘to drink’} & \text{in-mək-nu ‘not to drink’} \\
\text{c)} & \text{senu ‘to go’} & \text{se-mək-nu ‘not to go’} \\
\text{d)} & \text{cəpu ‘to cry’} & \text{cəp-mək-nu ‘not to cry’}
\end{align*}
\]

ii) by adding the adverb marker -go to negative marker -mək as in the following example

\[
\begin{align*}
83. & \\
\text{a)} & \text{sagə ‘by eating’} & \text{sa-mək-go ‘without eating’} \\
\text{b)} & \text{ingə ‘by drinking’} & \text{in-mək-go ‘without drinking’} \\
\text{c)} & \text{segə ‘by going’} & \text{se-mək-go ‘without going’} \\
\text{d)} & \text{cəpgə ‘by crying’} & \text{cəp-mək-go ‘without crying’}
\end{align*}
\]