CHAPTER-4

Morphology

4.0. Morphology:

Morphology deals with the structure of words, i.e. how words are formed. The variants of a morpheme are called allomorphs of that morpheme. A morpheme may be free or bound morpheme and the bound morphemes are usually called affixes. From the point of its internal structure, a word may consists of (i) a root morpheme only (ii) a root and one or more non-root morphemes and (iii) more than one root morphemes. This means that a word may consist of the root alone or a root plus one or more affixes.

Nominals are those root morphemes which take affixes or are capable of taking case affixes and other nominal affixes. Nouns, pronouns are included under nominal because they take affixes. Though the verbs cannot take case affixes, yet they can be placed under the heading of nominal, because verbs are inflected for tense, mood, aspects, etc.
4.1. Noun:

On the basis of word, Karbi noun can be classified into three: (a) Simple noun (b) Compound noun (c) Derived noun. The Simple noun is discussed below:

4.1.1. Simple Noun:

The noun of Karbi may be defined as a class of words that can be inflected for the categories of gender, number, and case.

The simple noun in Karbi can be classified into two group viz. a).Countable nouns and b).Uncountable nouns. Again, the countable can be sub-grouped into common and proper noun and uncountable into abstract and material noun. The following is the chart of the Nouns which shows the different types of the nouns.

```
Simple Noun
   ↓      ↓
Countable Uncountable
   ↓      ↓
  Common  Proper  Abstract  Material
```

Table No. 8. Types of Simple Noun
4.1.1.1. Countable Noun:

(a) Common Noun: 
/wo/  ‘bird’
/meŋkalu/  ‘cat’
/iŋŋ/  ‘hill’
/arloŋ/  ‘stone’
/towar/  ‘road’

(b) Proper Noun: 
/dipʰu/  ‘Diphu’
/silsor/  ‘Silchar’
/nogao/  ‘Nagaon’
/lamdin/  ‘Lumding’
/dilli/  ‘Delhi’
/guhati/  ‘Guwahati’

4.1.1.2. Uncountable Noun:

(a) Abstract Noun: 
/birta/  ‘message’
/kemi/  ‘newness’
/alir/  ‘color’
/iŋhon/  ‘cloud’
/kaŋtiŋ/  ‘darkness’
/tur/  ‘light’
(b) Material Noun: /hem/ ‘house’
/sok/ ‘paddy’
/pe/ ‘cloth’
/an/ ‘rice’
/laŋpoŋ/ ‘bucket’
/iŋsok/ ‘comb’
/saini/ ‘lime’
/zaŋnei/ ‘jute’
/moklaŋ/ ‘milk’
/iŋčin/ ‘iron’
/loŋle/ ‘soil’
/soi/ ‘jacket’
/kloŋ/ ‘mat’
/pʰarla/ ‘roof’
/ari/ ‘rope’

4.1.2. Noun Ending in Vowel:

A noun stem in Karbi may end in a vowel. These are illustrated below:

/i/ /onti/ ‘ear ring’
/bini/ ‘ornament maker’
/okʰi/  ‘deer’
/bi/  ‘goat’
/tʰɛŋpi/  ‘grand mother’
/ri/  ‘hand’
/saŋti/  ‘sand’
/e/  /pe/  ‘cloth’
/me/  ‘fire’
/tʰarwe/  ‘mango’
/teke/  ‘tiger’
/pirte/  ‘earth’
/tʰe/  ‘fruit’
/a/  /lama/  ‘flag’
/laha/  ‘sealing wax’
/duma/  ‘tobacco’
/sarbra/  ‘old man’
/tʰama/  ‘war’
/o/  /čiklo/  ‘moon’
/po/  ‘father’
/narso/  ‘tube’
4.1.3. Noun Ending in Consonant:

A noun stem in Karbi may end in a consonant. These are illustrated below:

/talo/  ‘ocean’
/oso/  ‘child’
/u/  /pʰu/  ‘grandfather’
/hormu/  ‘article’
/krokʰu/  ‘dimple’
/kʰu/  ‘race’

/p/  /lip/  ‘a scale of fish’
/dap/  ‘morning’
/aŋbop/  ‘maize’
/t/  /marat/  ‘animal’
/iŋlit/  ‘leech’
/musit/  ‘radish ant’
/k/  /ok/  ‘flesh’
/pʰak/  ‘pig’
/nopak/  ‘knife’
/wokak/  ‘duck’
/m/  /arnam/  ‘god’
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/čitim/</td>
<td>‘mosquito’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/him/</td>
<td>‘cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/lam/</td>
<td>‘language’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hem/</td>
<td>‘house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>/ton/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/čimun/</td>
<td>‘finger’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/an/</td>
<td>‘cooked rice’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>/laŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/okorząŋ/</td>
<td>‘unmarried woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/keŋ/</td>
<td>‘leg’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/meŋ/</td>
<td>‘cat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>/kur/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mir/</td>
<td>‘flower’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/osomar/</td>
<td>‘children’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/y/</td>
<td>/čoy/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/roy/</td>
<td>‘bangle’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

/b/, /d/, /p/, /t/, /k/, /s/, /z/, /č/, /h/, /l/ and /w/ ending nouns are not available in Karbi.
4.2. Gender:

In the Karbi language, there is no grammatical gender but has natural gender. The absence of grammatical is one of the typological features of the Tibeto-Burman family of languages shared by Karbi. Gender distinction in Karbi is determined on the natural recognition of sex. Therefore, Karbi has only natural genders. Human and animate nouns are referred to as masculine or feminine on the basis of natural sex.

Nouns in Karbi are primarily classified into two classes; viz. (a) animate (b) inanimate. Animate nouns can be differentiated for masculine, feminine and common gender. All the inanimate nouns are considered neuter in Karbi. Consider the following classification of gender.

**Karbi Gender**

```
Noun
   ↓
[animate]                [inanimate]
   ↓
[+human]                [-human]
   ↓
[masculine] [feminine] [masculine] [feminine] [unmarked]
```

Table No. 9. Classification of Gender
The gender of animate nouns in case of human beings [+human] is denoted by the markers /-pi/ ‘female’, /-po/ ‘male’ and in case of animate (non-human) nouns, the markers /-alo/ ‘male’ and /-api/ ‘female’ are suffixed to the generic noun to denote masculine and feminine gender respectively. Neuter gender is not marked by any marker in Karbi. The various ways of expressing gender differentiation in Karbi are as follows:

4.2.1. Gender of Animate (+human):

Among the kinship terms, gender is marked lexically in most of the terms; the different forms are used to indicate the two gender groups, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mas</th>
<th>Fem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/čaidu/</td>
<td>‘brother-in-law’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/korpi/</td>
<td>‘sister-in-law’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ik/</td>
<td>‘elder brother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ni/</td>
<td>‘elder sister’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/penan/</td>
<td>‘husband’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pinčo/</td>
<td>‘wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pʰu/</td>
<td>‘grandfather’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pʰi/</td>
<td>‘grandmother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/po/</td>
<td>‘father’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pei/</td>
<td>‘mother’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In other kinship terms, gender is marked by adding the attributes /-po/ ‘male’ and /-pi/ ‘female’ to free or bound base nouns, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mas</th>
<th>Fem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/zirpo/</td>
<td>‘boyfriend’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/zirpi/</td>
<td>‘girlfriend’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/sopo/</td>
<td>‘son’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/sopi/</td>
<td>‘daughter’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tepo/</td>
<td>‘brother-in-law’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tepi/</td>
<td>‘sister-in-law’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The feminine suffix /-pi/ is used to indicate feminine gender, e.g.

Mas | Fem
---|---
/roŋpi/ ‘Karbi surname for male’ | /roŋpipi/ ‘Karbi surname for female’
/teron/ ‘Karbi surname for male’ | /teronpi/ ‘Karbi surname for female’

In the case of animate (+human) nouns, the lexical item /-po/ ‘male’ and /-pi/ ‘female’ are suffixed for denoting the natural sex after the word indicating common gender, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Com</th>
<th>Mas</th>
<th>Fem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/arleŋ/</td>
<td>/arleŋpo/</td>
<td>/arleŋpi/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘human being’</td>
<td>‘man’</td>
<td>‘woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/solo/</td>
<td>/sopo/</td>
<td>/sopi/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘child’</td>
<td>‘boy’</td>
<td>‘girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/armo/</td>
<td>/armopo/</td>
<td>/armopi/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘in-law’</td>
<td>‘brother in law’</td>
<td>‘sister in law’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some nouns in Karbi have no corresponding of feminine forms, e.g.

/dudi/ ‘drummer’
/dui-an/ ‘Asstt. Drummer’
/deuri/ ‘priest’
/kurusar/ ‘head priest’
Some nouns in Karbi have no corresponding masculine forms, e.g.

/čarhepi/  ‘ritual singer’

/učepi/  ‘ritual cooker’

Gender marker /i/ is used to form the feminine gender in place of vowel ending /a/ and /o/ of the word as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mas</th>
<th>Fem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/sarbura/ ‘old man’</td>
<td>/sarburi/  ‘old woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hemopo/ ‘widower’</td>
<td>/hemopi/ ‘widow’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2. Gender of Animate (non-human):

In animate (non-human) nouns, the marker /-lo/ or /-alo/ or /-po/ ‘male’ /-pi/ or
/-api/ ‘female’ are used for denoting the natural sex. Unlike human nouns, in which
the gender marked is obligatory, the animate nouns are marked for gender only when
it is specified.

The allomorphs of the gender markers are phonologically conditioned. /-lo/,
/-po/ and /-pi/ are added to nouns ending in vowel and /-alo/ and /-api/ to nouns
ending in consonant. Examples are given below to illustrate the above mentioned processes.

a) /bi/ ‘goat’
   /bilo/ ‘male goat’
   /bipi/ ‘female goat’
   /bipo/ ‘male goat’

b) /wo/ ‘bird’
   /wolo/ ‘male bird/cock’
   /wopi/ ‘female bird/hen’
   /wopo/ ‘male bird/cock’

c) /čainoŋ/ ‘cow’
   /čainoŋalo/ ‘bull’
   /čainoŋapi/ ‘cow’

d) /siruŋ/ ‘fox’
   /siruŋalo/ ‘male fox’
   /siruŋapi/ ‘female fox’

e) /metʰan/ ‘dog’
   /metʰanalo/ ‘male dog’
   /metʰanapi/ ‘female dog’
4.2.3. Neuter Gender:

`The inanimate nouns have no gender in Karbi. As per investigation, neuter
genders found in Karbi are shown below.

/arni/ ‘sun’
/arloŋ/ ‘stone’
/iŋloŋ/ ‘hill’
/pe/ ‘cloth’
/me/ ‘fire’
/laŋ/ ‘water’
/hem/ ‘house’
/laŋroï/ ‘river’

4.2.4. Gender of Loan Word:

The inanimate loan nouns also do not show gender distinctions i.e. they are
considered as neuter, e.g.

/opʰis/ ‘office’
/doktor/ ‘doctor’
/ridio/ ‘radio’
/bas/ ‘bus’
/mobel/ ‘mobile’
4.3. Number:

Karbi has two numbers - Singular and Plural. These are illustrated in the following paragraph.

4.3.1. Singular Number:

The singular forms of the nouns are always unmarked. Thus, the absence of a plural suffix always denotes the singular number in Karbi. The examples of singular noun are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular number:</th>
<th>(Φ-unmarked)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/oso/</td>
<td>‘boy’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/wo/</td>
<td>‘bird’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/teke/</td>
<td>‘tiger’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/monit/</td>
<td>‘man’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pʰak/</td>
<td>‘pig’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/čainoŋ/</td>
<td>‘cow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/bi/</td>
<td>‘goat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/laŋ/</td>
<td>‘water’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mir/</td>
<td>‘flower’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʰenpi/</td>
<td>‘tree’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/arloŋ/</td>
<td>‘stone’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.2. Plural Number:

The nouns and pronouns are made plural usually by adding the plural morpheme to the singular form of nouns (human or non human and inanimate). Such plural morphemes are /-tum/, /-atum/, /-mar/, /-ahur/, /-heihui/, and /-an/. All the plural morphemes are added to noun but the plural morpheme /an/ can be added to both noun and verb to convey the idea of plurality. The possible classifications of plural numbers are indicated in the table below:

Karbi Plural Number

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[unmark]</td>
<td>[mark]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[animate]</td>
<td>[inanimate]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[+human]</td>
<td>[-human]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Table No. 10. Classification of Plural Number

The noun and verb is made plural usually by adding the plural morpheme to the singular form of human or non human and inanimate nouns. The plural morphemes realized as /-tum/, /-atum/ and /-mar/ occurs with human, and /-ahur/
occurs with animate non-human nouns. Other plural suffixes i.e. /-heihui/ occurs with animate non-human neuter nouns or inanimate nouns, /-an/ occurs with all nouns and verbs, /-o/ and /-pik/ occur only with verb. The following are the examples of plural formation.

i. The plural marker /-tum/ is simply added to the personal pronoun. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td>/ne/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/neli/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person</td>
<td>/naŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/naŋli/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person</td>
<td>/alaŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/alaŋli/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ii. The plural marker suffix /-atum/, /-mar/ are added to the animate (+human) nouns only. It is also noted that the suffix /-mar/ is added with the noun indicating young only e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/po/</td>
<td>/po-atum/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘father’</td>
<td>father-Pl.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
iii. The plural suffix /-ahur/ is added with a noun denoting animate non human nouns e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/čainoŋ/</td>
<td>/čainoŋ-ahur/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘cow’</td>
<td>cow-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/iŋnar/</td>
<td>/iŋnar-ahur/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘elephant’</td>
<td>elephant-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/bi/</td>
<td>/bi-ahur/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘goat’</td>
<td>goat-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/wo/</td>
<td>/wo-ahur/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘bird’</td>
<td>bird-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tike/</td>
<td>/tike-ahur/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘tiger’</td>
<td>tiger-Pl.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
iv. The plural marker suffix /heihui/ is added with the animate (-human) and inanimate neuter nouns to denote plural form e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/meŋ/</td>
<td>/meŋ-heihui/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘cat’</td>
<td>cat-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/metʰan/</td>
<td>/metʰan-heihui/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘dog’</td>
<td>dog-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/arloŋ/</td>
<td>/arloŋ-heihui/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘stone’</td>
<td>stone-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/iŋloŋ/</td>
<td>/iŋloŋ-heihui/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘hill’</td>
<td>hill-Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/saŋti/</td>
<td>/saŋti-heihui/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘sand’</td>
<td>snad-Pl.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

v. The plural marker /-an/ ‘all’ is posited with noun and verb to mark plurality e.g.

a. Posited with Noun:

| /monīt/ | /monit-an/ | ‘all men’ |
| ‘man’   | man-Pl.    |
/hem/ /hem-an/ ‘all houses’
‘house’ house-Pl.

/palon/ /palon-an/ ‘all beds’
‘bed’ bed-Pl.

/bap/ /bap-an/ ‘grasses’
‘grass’ grass-Pl.

b. Posited with Verb:
/do/ /do-an/ ‘to have all’
‘to have’ to have-Pl.

/dam/ /dam-an/ ‘to go all’
‘to go’ to go-Pl.

/wan/ /wan-an/ ‘to bring all’
‘to bring’ to bring-Pl.

vi. The plural markers /-o/ and /-pik/ ‘more’ posited only with verb to denote plurality as presented in the examples below:

/čo/ /čo-o/ ‘to eat more’
‘to eat’ to eat-Pl.

/čo-pik/ ‘to eat more’

‘to eat’ to eat-Pl.
/klem/ /klem-o/ ‘to do more’
‘to do’ to do-Pl.
/klem-pik/ ‘to do more’
to do-Pl.
/dam/ /dam-o/ ‘to go more’
‘to go’ to go-Pl.
/dam-pik/ ‘to go more’
to go-Pl.
/moŋ/ /moŋ-o/ ‘to smoke more’
‘to smoke’ to smoke-Pl.
/moŋ-pik/ ‘to smoke more’
to smoke-Pl.
/zun/ /zun-o/ ‘to drink more’
‘to drink’ to drink-Pl.
/zun-pik/ ‘to drink more’
to drink-Pl.

vii. Other than the above, there are lexical items like- /asap/ ‘some’ and /kadokawe/ ‘all’ to indicate plurality. These are given below:
/asap/ ‘some’

i. /ne asap an čo/
   I some rice eat-Pre.
   ‘I eat some rice’

ii. /ne hem asap sok do/
    I house some paddy have-Pre.
    ‘I have some paddy in my home’

iii. /ne-pʰan asap han pi-tʰa/
     I-Dat some curry give-Imp (pre.)
     ‘Give me some curry’

iv. /ne-pʰan laŋ asap wan-tʰa/
    i-Dat water some bring-Imp (pre.)
    ‘Bring me some water’

v. /birik asap wan-tʰa/
   chilli some bring-Imp (pre.)
   ‘Bring some chillies’

vi. /ne-pʰan iŋti asap pi-noi/
    I-Dat. salt some give-Imp.
    ‘Give me some salts’
/kadokawe/ ‘all’

1. /kadokawe a-monit/
   all Poss.-man
   ‘Of all men’

2. /kadokawe zun-oi/
   all drink-Imp.
   ‘Drink all’

viii. The reduplication also denotes plurality in Karbi, e.g.

   /apeŋ apeŋ/ ‘bundles’
   bundle bundle

ix. However, the plural marker is dropped if the noun or noun phrase follows numeral two or more and the classifier precedes the numeral. In such case, the idea of more than one is expressed by the numerals. For example:

   i. /monit baŋ-hini/
      man Clf.-two
      ‘Two men’

   ii. /zir-t'om tomo/
       Clf.-three story
       ‘Three stories’
iii. /pak-pʰli lo/  
     Clf.-four leaf  
     ‘Four leaves’

iv. /čin hoŋ-ni/  
    stick Clf.-two  
    ‘Two sticks’

v. /tʰarwe tʰe-po/  
   mango Clf.-five  
   ‘Five mangoes’

4.4. Numeral:

4.4.1. Cardinal Numeral:

The cardinal numerals can be divided into two classes as-

(i) Basic numerals

(ii) Derived numeral

4.4.1.1. Basic Numeral:

There are a few basic forms of cardinal numerals without affixes. The basic numerals are given below:-

/isi/ ‘one’
4.4.1.2. Derived Numeral:

To derive numerals, following processes are employed in Karbi.

(a) Additive Compound

(b) Multiplicative Compound

(c) Subtractive Compound

(d) Multiplicative and Additive Compound and

(e) Multiplicative, Additive and Subtractive Compound
4.4.1.2.1. Additive Compound:

The numbers ‘seven’, ‘eleven’ to ‘sixteen’, ‘twenty one’ to ‘twenty six’, ‘thirty one’ to ‘thirty nine’ etc. are formed by addition. The numeral ‘seven’ is formed by adding the numeral for ‘six’ and ‘one’ e.g.

/ tʰrok-si/ ‘seven’ (6+1)

The numerals 11 to 16 and 21 to 26 are formed by adding the numerals 10 (1 to 6) and 20 (1 to 6) respectively.

/kre+isi/ ‘eleven’ (10+1)
/kre+tʰrok/ ‘sixteen’ (10+6)

The numeral twenty is /iŋkoy/ and whiles counting from twenty, the combinatory marker for addition /-ra- / is added to the numerals e.g.

/iŋkoi-ra-hini / ‘twenty two’ (20+2)
/iŋkoi-ra-pʰo / ‘twenty five’ (20+5)

4.4.1.2.2. Multiplicative Compound:

The multiples of ten except twenty and hundred, multiples of hundred and thousand are formed by multiplying ten, hundred and thousand with other numerals e.g.

/̱om-kep/ ‘thirty’ (3x10=30)
/pʰo-kep/ ‘fifty’ (5x10=50)
/pʰaro-pʰli/ ‘four hundred’ (100x4=400)
4.4.1.2.3. Subtractive Compound:

The numerals /eight/ and /nine/ are formed by subtracting, two and one form ten respectively. eg.

(ner-kep) ‘eight’ (2-10)
(sir-kep) ‘nine’ (1-10)

4.4.1.2.4. Multiplicative and Additive Compound:

The numerals 31 to 37, 41 to 47, 51 to 57, 61 to 67, 71 to 77 etc. are formed by multiplying and adding base numerals e.g.

/h°omkep-ra-t°roksi/ ‘thirty seven’ (3x10 + 6 + 1)
/p°likep-ra-isi/ ‘forty one’ (4x10 + 1)
/p°okep-ra-p°o/ ‘fifty five’ (5x10 + 5)
/h°rok-kep-ra-p°li/ ‘sixty-four’ (6x10 + 4)
/p°aroisi-ra-p°okep/ ‘one hundred fifty’ (100 + 5 x 10)
/čuri-p°o-kep/ ‘fifty thousand’ (1000 + 5 x 10)

4.4.1.2.5. Multiplicative, Additive and Subtractive Compound:

Some numerals in karbi are formed by multiplying, adding and subtracting e.g.

/h°omkep-ra-nerkep/ ‘thirty eight’ (3 x 10 + [2 less 10])
4.4.1.2.6. The Allomorphic Variation:

i. /isi/ ‘one’ freely varies with /esi/. /isi/ has four allomorphs. /isi/ is a free form which is used when no classifier is added. The other allomorphs are bound forms. /i ~ e / occurs only with a classifier. /-si/ is used to form the numeral ‘seven’ and /sir/ to form the numeral ‘nine’. /isi/ and /i-/ are more common than /si/ and /e/ respectively.

/mek isi/ ‘one eye’

eye one

/arnan i-hong/ ‘one ring’

Finger ring one-Clf

/arnan e-hong/ ‘one ring’

Finger ring one-Clf

tʰrok-si ‘seven’
sir-kep ‘nine’
ii. /hini/ ‘two’ has three allomorphs- /hini/, /ni/, /ner/. The allomorph /hini/ is a free form and it occurs without a classifier or with the classifier /baŋ/ only. The other two are bound forms- /ni/ occurs with other classifiers and /ner/ is used to form the numeral ‘eight’, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ri</th>
<th>hini/</th>
<th>‘two hands’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hand</td>
<td>two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| /woti | pum-ni/  | ‘two eggs’ |
| egg   | Clf.-two |             |

| /ner-kep/ | ‘eight’ |

iii. /ket\textsuperscript{b}om/ ‘three’ has two allomorphs-/ket\textsuperscript{b}om/, /-t\textsuperscript{b}om /. The allomorph /ket\textsuperscript{b}om/ is a free form and occurs without a classifier or with the classifier /baŋ/ only. /-t\textsuperscript{b}om / is a bound form which occurs with other classifiers and numerals thirty to thirty-nine, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/onti</th>
<th>ket\textsuperscript{b}om /</th>
<th>‘three ear rings’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ear ring</td>
<td>three</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| /monit | baŋ-ket\textsuperscript{b}om/ | ‘three men’ |
| man   | Clf.-three                  |             |

| /him  | planj-tom/  | ‘three flat cakes’ |
| cake  | Clf.-three  |             |

Page | 176
iv. /kep/ ‘ten’ has two allomorphs, /kep/ and /kre/. /kre/ is a bound form and is used to form the numeral eleven to nineteen. /kep/ is a free form and occurs elsewhere, e.g.

/kep/ ‘ten’

/ner-kep/ ‘eight’

/sir-kep/ ‘nine’

/kre-isi/ ‘eleven’

/kre-p’o/ ‘fifteen’

/kre-t’roksi/ ‘seventeen’

v. /iŋkoy/ ‘twenty’ has two allomorphs /iŋkoy/ and /iŋkor/. /iŋkor/ is a bound form and occurs optionally with /iŋkoy/ and numerals twenty-one to twenty-nine, e.g.

/iŋkoy/ ‘twenty’

/iŋkoy rahini/ ‘twenty two’

/iŋkor rahini/

/iŋkoy rap’o/ ‘twenty five’

/iŋkor rap’o/
vi. /sirkep/ ‘nine’ has two allomorphs viz. /sirkep, throksir/. The bound form /throksir/ occurs with numeral ninety to ninety nine and /sirkep/ is a free form which occurs with all, e.g.

/throksir-kep/ ‘ninty’ (6+3x 10)
/throksir-kep-ra-sirkep/ ‘ninty nine’

4.4.2. Ordinal Numeral:

In Karbi, the ordinal is different from the cardinal only in case of the two numerals ‘one’ and ‘two’. We have found only two ordinal numerals which are given below:

/kečen/ ‘first’
/adun/ ‘second’

4.4.3. Multiplicative Numeral:

In Karbi, multiplicative numerals are formed by adding a prefix / batai-/ to the cardinal forms of the numerals, e.g.

/batai-isi/ ‘once’
/batai-hini/ ‘twice’
/batai-ketom/ ‘thrice’
/batai-p’li/ ‘fourth’
4.4.4. Lexical Fractional Numeral:

In Karbi, a few numbers of Lexical fractional numerals have been found, e.g.

/čitim/ ‘half’

/deŋlim/ ‘quarter’

4.4.5. Approximate Numeral:

In Karbi, approximate numerals are formed by adding a suffix /bak/ to the cardinal numerals. For example,

/baŋ-kep-bak monit/ Clf-ten-Aprx. man ‘About ten men’

/pʰokep-bak a-kitap/ fifty-Aprx. Poss-book ‘About fifty books’

4.5. Classifier:

The Karbi language makes use of classifiers to classify the nouns on the basis of the qualities of the object that is identified by the noun. The qualities include the physical shape, size, state etc. When the numeral is added to a noun, the noun takes a classifier. The Classifier in this language has predominantly a mono-syllabic
structure. They occur with the numeral. The numeral ‘one’ precedes the classifier and the other numerals follow it. The following are the examples of the classifier of the Karbi language:

/\textbf{nut, baŋ}/: The human nouns including ‘god’ take two classifiers viz, /-nut/ which occur with the numeral ‘one’ and /baŋ-/ which is used with other numerals, e.g.

\begin{enumerate}
\item /monit\ i-nut/
  \begin{itemize}
  \item man one-Clf.
  \item ‘One man’
  \end{itemize}
\item /monit\ baŋ-p'\ o/
  \begin{itemize}
  \item man Clf.-five
  \item ‘Five men’
  \end{itemize}
\end{enumerate}

/\textbf{zon}/ is the classifier of non-human animated nouns, e.g.

\begin{enumerate}
\item /meŋkalu\ i-zon/
  \begin{itemize}
  \item cat one clf.
  \item ‘One cat’
  \end{itemize}
\item /čainoŋ\ zon-ni/
  \begin{itemize}
  \item cow Clf.-two
  \item ‘Two cows’
  \end{itemize}
\end{enumerate}
/pak/ occurs with nouns which refer to flat objects, e.g.

i. /kitap  pak-tʰom/
   book  Clf.-three
   ‘Three books’

ii. /ččiti  i-pak/
   latter  one-Clf.
   ‘One letter’

/zeŋ/ occurs with nouns which denote long and flexible objects, e.g.

i. /pʰelaŋ  i-zeŋ/
   thatch  one-Clf.
   ‘One thatching grass’

ii. /hon  zeŋ-tʰom/
   thread  Clf.-three
   ‘Three strings of threads’

iii. /sokpun  zeŋ-tʰom/
    rice stem  Clf.-three
    ‘Three rice stems’
iv. /ziŋtʰak zeŋ-pʰli/

split bamboo  Clf.-four

‘Four split bambooes’

/honŋ/ occurs with ornament, long and hard objects, e.g.

i. /arpan i-honŋ/

ring  one-Clf.

‘One finger ring’

ii. /zaŋsai honŋ-tʰom/

ear ring  Clf.-three

‘Three ear rings’

iii. /tʰenŋ honŋtʰom/

firewood  Clf.-three

‘Three firewoods’

iv. /inči honŋ-tʰom/

rod  Clf.-three

‘Three iron rods’
/planj/ occurs with nouns having flat top and bottom surfaces, e.g.

i. /čabun e-planj/
čabon one-Clf.
‘One soap’

ii. /biskud e-planj/
biscuit one-Clf.
‘One biscuit’

iii. /iŋhap planj-ni/
door Clf.-two
‘Two doors’

/dum/ occurs with round objects without any hole, e.g.

i. /betari i-dum/
betari one-Clf.
‘One battery’

ii. /hon i-dum/
pack of thread one-Clf.
‘One pack of thread’
/roŋ/ occurs with trees and creepers, e.g.

i. /tʰeŋpi/ roŋ-ni/

   tree       Clf.-two

   ‘Two trees’

ii. /ček/ i-ron/

   bamboo    one-Clf.

   ‘One bamboo’

iii. /lotʰe/ i-ron/

   banana    one-Clf.

   ‘One banana tree’

iv. /bitʰi/ roŋ-ni/

   Bettlenut leaf Clf.-two

   ‘Two bettlenut leaves creepers’

/tʰe/ occurs with fruits, vegetables and words, e.g.

i. /tʰarwe/ tʰe-tʰom/

   mango    Clf.-three

   ‘Three mangoes’
ii. /lam  i-tʰe/
   word one-Clf.
   ‘One word’

iii. /purui  i-tʰe/
    potato one-Clf.
    ‘One potato’

iv. /hipi  iʰe-ni/
    brinjal Clf.-two
    ‘Two brinjals’

/pʰu/ is used with flowers, e.g.

i. /mir  pʰu-ni/
   flower Clf.-two
   ‘Two flowers’

ii. /golap  mir  i-pʰu/
    rose flower one-Clf.
    ‘One rose flower’

iii. /arni  mir  i-pʰu/
    sun flower one-Clf.
    ‘One sun flower’
/pum/ is used with egg and a kind of bamboo, e.g.

i. /woti/ pum-ni/

egg Clf.-two

‘Two eggs’

ii. /ček/ e-pum/

bamboo one-Clf.

‘One bamboo’

/ro/ is used for branch of tree, e.g.

i. /tʰarwe/ ro-ni/

mango Clf.-two

‘Two branches of mango tree’

ii. /nok/ ro-ni/

sugarcane Clf.-two

‘Two sugarcanes’

iii. /tʰenpi/ ro-ni/

tree Clf.-two

‘Two branches of tree’
/mu/ occurs with nouns denoting paddy, rice and seed, e.g.

i. /sok I -mu/
paddy one-Clf.
‘One paddy’

ii. /saŋ mu-ni/
rice Clf.-two
‘Two pieces of rice’

iii. /lek i-mu/
seed one-Clf.
‘One seed’

iv. /hanzaŋ i-mu/
muster seed one-Clf.
‘One mustar seed’

/beŋ/ denotes piece, e.g.

i. /ita beŋ-ni/
brick Clf.-two
‘Two pieces of brick’
ii. /ček/ i-ben/

bamboo one-Clf.

‘One piece of bamboo’

iii. /biri/ i-ben/

biri one-Clf.

‘One biri’

/čum/ occurs with things that can be burnt, e.g.

i. /tʰeŋ/ i-čum/

fire wood one-Clf.

‘One firewood’

ii. /sigaret/ i-čum/

cigarette one-Clf.

‘One cigarette’

/čaŋ/ is used for necklace, e.g.

i. /lek/ čaŋ-tʰom/

necklace Clf.-three

‘Three necklaces’
/hum/ occurs with nouns denoting house, e.g.

i. /hem i-hum/
   house one-Clf.
   ‘One house’

/tʰan/ occurs with nouns denoting meat, e.g.

i. /ok e-tʰan/
   meat one-Clf.
   ‘One piece of meat’

/kroŋ/ is used with nouns denoting road, e.g.

i. /towar i-kroŋ/
   road one-Clf.
   ‘One road’

/zai/ and /loŋ/ occur with flat and broad things like field, e.g.

i. /hidi e-zai/
   field one-Clf.
   ‘One field’

ii. /hidi loŋ-ni/
    field Clf.-two
    ‘Two fields’
/roï/ occurs with the river, e.g.

i.  /laŋroï  e-roï/
    river        one-Clf.
    ‘One river’

/bi/ is used for tank or pond, e.g.

i.  /loŋ  bi-ni/  
    pond        Clf.-two
    ‘Two ponds’

/čo/ is used with the cigarette, e.g.

i.  /sigaret  i-čo/
    cigarette  one-Clf.
    ‘One cigarette’

/hom/ and /dop/ are used with nouns meaning ‘packet’, e.g.

i.  /sigaret  e-dop/
    cigarette  one-Clf.
    ‘One packet of cigarette’

i.  /sigaret  e-hom/
    cigarette  one-Clf.
    ‘One packet of cigarette’
/zir/ is used with the story, e.g.

i. /tomo i-zir/
   story one-Clf.
   ‘One story’

4.6. Quantifier:

/menəŋ/ ‘some’, /kadokave/ ‘all’, /keoŋ/ ‘much/more’, /penəŋ/ ‘many’, /asap/ ‘some’, and /komhek/ ‘little’ are used as quantifiers in Karbi. Consider the following examples:

i. /menəŋ apel/
   some apple
   ‘Some apples’

ii. /kadokave a-monit/
    all Poss.-man
    ‘Of all men’

iii. /kadokave a-met³an/
     all Poss.-dog
     ‘Of all dogs’
iv. /kakir keoŋ/  
milk much  
‘Much milk’

v. /keoŋ kitap/  
more book  
‘More books’

vi. /laŋ keoŋ/  
water more  
‘More water’

vii. /penaŋ kitap/  
many book  
‘Many books’

viii. /penaŋ kar/  
many car  
‘Many cars’

ix. /asap iŋti/  
some salt  
‘Some salt’
4.7. Case:

The case in Karbi is indicated by prefix and suffix. They are added to the subject and object to denote case relation and when the prefix /a-/ is added to stem that begin with /i/, sometimes affect the phonetic shape of the stem.

Eight cases can be recognized in the Karbi language. The eight cases are - Nominative case, Accusative case, Dative case, Possessive case, Locative case Instrumental case, Associative case and Ablative case. These are illustrated below with examples:

4.7.1. Nominative Case:

The nominative case is the case of the subject of sentence. The subject is either a noun or a pronoun. It is not marked in this language, e.g.

i. /moni-Φ  tʰi-wekzi/  
   man-Nom  die-parti.
   ‘Man is mortal’

ii. /ne-Φ  an  čo-bom/  
    I-Nom.  rice  eat-Pre.Prog.
‘I am eating rice’

iii. /čainoŋ-Φ bap čo/

cow-Nom. grass eat-Pre.

‘The cow eats grass’

iv. /meŋ-Φ ok čo/

cat-Nom. meat eat-Pre.

‘The cat eats meat’

4.7.2. Accusative Case:

The noun which is directly affected by the action of the verb is called accusative case. In Karbi, the subject is marked with /-pʰan/ and /apʰan/. The accusative case marker /-pʰan/ is posited with singular personal pronoun and when other than singular personal pronoun becomes the subject of the sentence, /-apʰan/ is posited. Consider the following examples:

i. /wo apʰan meŋhapa nepček-lo/

bird Acc. fox catch-S.Pst.

‘Fox had caught the bird’

ii. /ne naŋ-pʰan niŋdok/

I you-Acc. love-S.Pre.

‘I love you’
iii. /netum apʰan an naŋ pi-tʰa/

we Acc. rice you give-Imp. (Pre.)

‘You give us rice’

iv. /latum ne-pʰan arzu-po/

ey they I–Acc. ask-S.Fut.

‘They will ask me’

4.7.3. Dative Case:

The basic role of the dative case is to distinguish the recipient of something given, transferred, etc. The dative case is expressed by adding /-pʰan/ and /-apʰan/ like Accusative case. For example:

i. /alaŋ-pʰan tomo i-zir tʰan-tʰa/

he- Dat. story one-Clf. tell-Imp. (Pre.)

‘Please tell him a story’

ii. /keduk -apʰan dan pi-noi/

poor -Dat. donation give-Imp. (Pre.)

‘Please give donation to the poor’

iii. /alaŋtum -apʰan laŋ pi-tʰa/

they-Dat. water give-Imp. (Pre.)

‘Please give them water’
iv. /dokani -ap^h^an t^h^aŋka pi-t^h^a/

shop keeper -Dat. money give-Imp. (Pre.)

‘Please give money to shopkeeper’

v. /ne naŋ-p^h^an kitap pi-zil/

I you-Dat. book give-S.Fut.

‘I will give you book’

4.7.4. Possessive Case:

This case indicates the possessive relationship of the noun or pronoun. So, basically it reflects a possessor - possessed relationship. The prefix /-a/ is a possessive case marker in Karbi.

The use of /a-/ with words in the possessive case is a peculiar characteristic of Karbi. This, instead of being added to the subject, stands before the object to indicate case relationship. When the subject in a sentence is first or second person singular pronoun, it is not marked. But if the subject is first or second person plural, third person or any noun, then it is always marked with /a-/ prefixed to the object. Given below are the examples of above mentioned processes.

i. /monit a-hem/

‘man Poss.-house’

‘Man’s house’
ii. /loŋki a-kitap/

Langki Poss.-kitap’

‘Longki’s book’

iii. /arni a-tʰur/

sun Poss.-light

‘Light of sun’

iv. /ne-Ø roŋ/

I-Nom. village

‘My village’

v. /ne-Ø po/

I-Nom. father

‘My father’

4.7.5. Locative Case:

The locative case indicates the location of a person, animal or thing in space or time. It is marked with /-loŋ/. The possessive marker /-a/ is prefixed with locative case when the subject is plural personal pronoun and proper noun. This process has been exemplified with the following examples.
i. /ne dakoŋ do/
   I here-Loc. have-S.Pre.
   ‘I am here’

ii. /laŋroi a-loŋ ok do/
    river Poss.Loc. fish have-S.Pre.
    ‘There is a fish in river’

iii. /hem a-loŋ ko-mat do/
     home Poss-Loc. Int.Pro-who have-S.Pre.
     ‘Who is in the home?’

iv. /ne-loŋ ḏ̣aŋka awe/
    I-Loc. money no (Pre.)
    ‘I have no money’

v. /Raju silchar a-loŋ dam-po/
    Raju silchar Poss.-Loc. go-S.Fut.
    ‘Raju will go to silchar’

4.7.6. Instrumental Case:

The instrumental case indicates the instrument that is used in carrying out the action identified by the verb. The instrumental is indicated by the suffix /-pen/ which
expresses the meaning of ‘by means of’ followed by emphasis particle /-si/ as an optional element as in the following examples:

I. /ne kolom-pen-(si) tok/
   i pen-Inst-Part. write-S.Pre.
   ‘I write with pen’

II. /ne bas-pen-(si) skul dun/
   I bus-Inst-Part. school go-S.Pre.
   ‘I go to school by bus’

III. /naŋ alaŋ-pen kam klem-noi/
     you he-Inst. work do-Imp. (Pre)
     ‘You work with him’

IV. /Kasaŋ Amp\^u-pen hit\^{i}i dun/
     Kasang Amphu-Inst. market go-S.Pre.
     ‘Kasang goes to the market with Amphu’

V. /ne laŋok-pen an čo/
   I fish-Inst. rice eat-S.Pre.
   ‘I eat rice with fish curry’
4.7.7. Associative Case:

The associative case expresses the accompaniment of a person or an animal with the subject in doing the action mentioned by the verb. In Karbi, the suffix /-loŋ/ is the marker of this case. Like locative case marker, in associative case also the possessive marker /a/ is prefixed to the associative case marker when the personal pronoun is third person, plural form of all persons, and when proper noun becomes subject of sentence as in the following examples:

i. /aləŋ ne-loŋ waŋ-po/
   he I – Ass. come-S.Fut.
   ‘He will come with me’

ii. /mətʰaŋ ne-loŋ waŋ/
    dog I – Ass. come-S.Pre.
    ‘The dog comes with me’

iii. /naŋ ne-loŋ waŋ-tʰa/
     you I – Ass. come-Imp (Pre.)
     ‘Please come with me’

iv. /hemo a-loŋ tʰəŋka do-pik/
    Pro.N Poss.- Ass. money have-Pl. (Pre.)
    ‘Hemo has lots of money’
v. /alaŋ-li a-loŋ čelaŋ dun-ri/

he-Hon Poss.-Ass. company go-Neg. (Pre.)

‘Don’t accompany him’

vi. /alaŋ-li a-loŋ dun-ri/

he-Hon Poss.-Ass. go-Neg. (Pre.)

‘Do not go with him’

4.7.8. Ablative Case:

The ablative case marker is used to express separation, expulsion, source and direction of movement from one to another. The ablative case suffix is realized as /-pensi/. Consider the following examples:

i. /िन्युङ-पेंसी arwe man/

sky-Abl. rain fall-S.Pre.

‘Rain falls from sky’

ii. /सर्मन-पेंसी ne kitap loŋ/


‘I get the book from Sarmen’

iii. ram ne-pensi kolom pon-etlo/

ram I-Abl. pen take-Pst.Perf.

‘Ram had taken the pen from me’
iv. /alaŋ-li opʰis-pensi waŋ-etlo/

he-hon office-Abl. come-Pst.Perf.

‘He had come from office’

v. /ne skul-pensi waŋ-bom/

I school-Abl. come-Pre.Prog.

‘I am coming from school’

4.8. Pronoun:

Pronoun is a sub-class of nominal refers to a set of items which can be used to substitute for a noun or a noun phrase. The pronoun in Karbi does not distinguish gender but it distinguishes the three persons. It is seen that in Karbi, there are Personal pronoun, Demonstrative pronoun, Interrogative pronoun, Reflexive pronoun.

4.8.1. Personal Pronoun:

Each personal pronoun has separate lexical items in karbi. The first person pronoun refers to the speaker, the second person pronoun to the listener, and the third person pronoun to others. The plural forms are formed by adding the suffix / -tum / to the singular pronoun. Honorific distinction is made in both the singular and plural forms in the three persons. The honorific marker / -li / is added directly to the singular and plural forms. The plural marker follows the honorific in all persons. Various personal pronouns of Karbi are illustrated below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>/ne/ ‘I’</td>
<td>/netum/ ‘we’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honorific</td>
<td>/neli/ ‘I’ (hon)</td>
<td>/nelitum/ ‘we’ (hon)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>/naŋ/ ‘you’</td>
<td>/naŋtum/ ‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honorific</td>
<td>/naŋli/ ‘you’ (hon)</td>
<td>/naŋlitum/ ‘you’ (hon)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>/alaŋ/ ‘he/she’</td>
<td>/alaŋtum/ ‘they’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honorific</td>
<td>/alaŋli/ (hon)</td>
<td>/alaŋlitum/ (hon)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8.2. Demonstrative Pronoun:

The karbi demonstrative pronoun can be sub-divided into two groups, viz proximate pronouns and remote pronouns. The proximate demonstrative pronouns are / -la /, /-labanṣo/ ‘it, this’ in singular and /lahuy-/ /labanṣotum/ ‘these’ in plural as in the following examples:

i. /la metʰan/  
   
   this (pro.Dem.)  dog  
   
   ‘This is a dog’

ii. /labanṣo metʰan/  
   
   this (Pro.Dem.)  dog  
   
   ‘This is a dog’
The remote demonstrative pronouns are / hala /, /halabəŋso/ ‘that’ in singular and / halahe /, halabəŋsotum / ‘those’ in plural, e.g.
There are a few other demonstrative pronouns that indicate pronoun of place, e.g.

/dak/  ‘here’

/ladak/  ‘here’

/hadak/  ‘there’
Similarly, the following pronominal forms in Karbi are used as demonstrative pronoun of time, e.g.

/penap/     ‘tomorrow’
/penap dik/ ‘day after tomorrow’
/tumi/      ‘yesterday’
/adap/      ‘morning’
/pedap/     ‘this morning’
/paniŋwe/   ‘tonight’
/non/       ‘now’
/nonhet/    ‘just now’
/mo/        ‘after’
/malomso/   ‘after few times’
4.8.3. Interrogative Pronoun:

In Karbi, the interrogative root / ko- / is prefixed to from interrogative pronoun in Karbi. The following are the interrogative pronouns used in karbi.

/(ko) pi, (ko)pi(lo), (ko)pima/ ‘what’
/(ko)nat, (ko)nat(si)/ ‘where’
/(ko)mat(lo), (ko)mat(si)/ ‘who’
/(ko)lo/ ‘which’
/(ko)son/ ‘how’
/(ko)an /koan(si)/ ‘how many’
/(ko) nantu (lo), (ko) nantu, nantu (si)/ ‘when’

It may be noted from the above that /ko/ is an optional element and so can express interrogation without the interrogative marker /ko/ and the numeral /-si/ can be added optionally.

4.8.4. Reflexive Pronoun:

The reflexive pronominal forms in Karbi are only two / metʰaŋ / ‘self’ and /binoŋ/ ‘own’, these are illustrated below:

i. /ne metʰaŋ/ I Rlf.Pro.

‘Myself’
ii. /nang metʰanŋ/

you Rlf.Pro.

‘Yourself’

iii. /la metʰanŋ/

he/she Rlf.Pro.

‘Himself’/Herself

iv. /ne metʰanŋ an tuŋ/

I Rlf.Pro rice cook S.Pre.

‘I myself cook rice’

v. /naŋ-li metʰanŋ hadak dam/

you-Hon Rlf.Pro. there go S.Pre.

‘You go there yourself’

vi. /alaŋ-li metʰanŋ waŋ-wek-zi/

S/he-Hon Rlf.Pro. come-Part-S.Fut.

‘He will come himself’

vii. /binoŋ a-kam klem-noi/

Rlf.Pro.-own Poss.-work do-Imp. (pre)

‘Please do your own work’
4.9. Verb:

Verb roots in Karbi may be broadly classified in two types: 1) Simple and (2) Derived root. The simple roots are free morpheme while the derived roots are formed by prefixation. The verb of Karbi is either transitive or intransitive and the derived verbs are causative and reflexive. The following are the structures of verb roots.

4.9.1. Simple Verb Root:

The simple verb is composed of a single verb root. Simple verbs are free morphemes. For example:

a) Monosyllabics:

\[ /\text{an}/ \quad \text{‘to try’} \]
\[ /\text{i}/ \quad \text{‘to put on’} \]
\[ /\text{u}/ \quad \text{‘to make smoke’} \]
\[ /\text{e}/ \quad \text{‘to plant’} \]

b) Disyllables:

\[ /\text{ari}/ \quad \text{‘to wish’} \]
\[ /\text{aru}/ \quad \text{‘to elope’} \]
\[ /\text{arlu}/ \quad \text{‘to climb’} \]
\[ /\text{iŋzar}/ \quad \text{‘to fly’} \]
\[ /\text{iŋnek}/ \quad \text{‘to smile’} \]
4.9.2. Transitive and Intransitive Verb:

Karbi verb can be transitive and intransitive. The transitive verb is that which can take direct object while intransitive verb does not take direct object but can have indirect object. The transitive and intransitive verbs are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitive verb</th>
<th>Intransitive verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/dam/ ‘to go’</td>
<td>/tʰok/ ‘to write’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/do/ ‘to have’</td>
<td>/injar/ ‘to fly’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/zun/ ‘to drink’</td>
<td>/tʰi/ ‘to die’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/taŋ/ ‘to finish’</td>
<td>/arzap/ ‘to stand’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/čiru/ ‘to cry’</td>
<td>/laŋ/ ‘to see’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʰak/ ‘weave’</td>
<td>/iŋnek/ ‘to smile’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/up/ ‘to boil’</td>
<td>/iŋni/ ‘to sit’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 11.Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

4.9.3. Causative Verb:

The causative verb is a derived verb in Karbi. The causative verb roots are formed by prefixing /pa-/ , /pe-/ and /pi-/ , to the verb root.
If the verb root has initial vowel /i, a/, then the initial vowel of the root is deleted when the prefix /pa-/ is added to the verb root as in the following:

\[ /\text{iŋkai}/ /\text{pa-}\text{iŋkai}/ /\text{paŋkai}/ \]

‗to fence‘ ‘cause someone to fence‘

\[ /\text{iŋčam}/ /\text{pa-}\text{iŋčam}/ /\text{paŋčam}/ \]

‗to cool‘ ‘cause someone to make cool‘

\[ /\text{arbak}/ /\text{pa-}\text{arbak}/ /\text{parbak}/ \]

‗to embrace‘ ‘cause someone to embrace‘

\[ /\text{arkli}/ /\text{pa-}\text{arkli}/ /\text{parkli}/ \]

‗to worship‘ ‘cause someone to worship‘

When the /pa-, pe- and pi-/ are prefixed to the verb root of initial consonant phoneme the root shape remain unchanged e.g.

\[ /\text{pa-}/ \text{klem}/ /\text{pa+}\text{klem}/ /\text{paklem}/ \]

‗to do‘ ‘cause someone to do‘

\[ /\text{waŋ}/ /\text{pa+waŋ}/ /\text{pawan}/ \]

‗to come‘ ‘cause someone to come‘

\[ /\text{pe-}/ \text{čo}/ /\text{pe+čo}/ /\text{pečo}/ \]

to eat ‘cause someone to eat‘

\[ /\text{tan}/ /\text{pe+taŋ}/ /\text{petan}/ \]
to end 'cause someone to end'

/lun/ /pe+lun/ /pelun/

to sing 'cause someone to sing'

/pi-/ /tʰi/ /pi+tʰi/ piti

‘to die’ ‘cause someone to die’

/wirdet/ /pi+wirdet/ piwirdet

‘to loss’ ‘cause someone to loss’

When causative verb is formed, it is inflected like any other simple verb root/stem. It is found in two types. For example:

1. Causative prefix + verb root +past tense e.g.

i.  /alaŋ čiru pi-lem-detlo/

s/he pretend Caus.v-cry-Pst.Perf.

‘s/he had pretended to weep’

ii. /alaŋ wo pi-thi-detlo/

s/he bird Caus.v-kill-Pst.Perf.

‘s/he had killed the bird’
2. Causative prefix + verb root + Imp e.g.

i. /alaŋ oso an pa-čo-tʰa/
   s/he child rice Caus.v-eat-Imp.
   ‘S/he feeds rice to child’

ii. /hala monit pa-wan-τʰa/
    that (D.Pro) man Caus.v.-come-Imp.
    ‘Let come that man.’

4.9.4. Reflexive Verb:

The reflexive verb is formed with the prefix /či-/ and it indicates that the subject itself is the object. The reflexive occurs only with the transitive and causative verbs. For example,

/įŋhon/ /či-ŋhon/ ‘love oneself’
‘to love’ ‘Refl.v-love’

/kitʰi/ /či-kitʰi/ ‘kill oneself’
‘to die’ ‘Refl.v-die’

/kipu/ /ci-kipu/ ‘say oneself’
‘to say’ ‘Refl.v-say’

/klem/ /či-kiklem/ ‘do oneself’
‘do’ ‘Refl.v-do’
4.9.5. Compound Verb:

The compound verbs are formed by combining two root morphemes together. Compound verbs in Karbi are exemplified below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root Verb</th>
<th>Root Verb</th>
<th>Compound Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/do/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/dodun/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to have’</td>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to accompany’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/klem/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/klemdun/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to work’</td>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to work all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/huŋ/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/huŋdun/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to follow’</td>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to drive away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hoi/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/hoidun/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to blame’</td>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to complain’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.9.6. Auxiliary Verb:

The auxiliary verb is a small set of verbs, subordinate to main verb, which help to make distinctions in mood, aspect and tense etc. In Karbi the existential and the possessive verb /do/ ‘be, have’ and the nominal predicates and the descriptive predicates are the Auxiliary verb. Following given are the examples of auxiliary verb in Karbi.

i. /ne opʰi-s-alon  do/  
I office-loc be –Aux.V
‘I am at office’

ii. /konat-si do?/
where-Part be-Aux.V

‘Where are you?’

iii. /hidi along baŋ-hini monit do/
field-Loc Clf-two man be (M.Aux)

‘There are two men in the field’

iv. /ne-tum kitap do/
I-tum book have –Aux.V

‘We have (a) book’

v. /la-pen hem kethe do/
he-Loc house big have-Aux.V

‘He has big (a) house’

4.10. Tense and Aspects:

There are three tenses in Karbi, viz. i) present, ii) past and iii) future tense. These three tenses are usually marked by separate markers added to the verb. In Karbi, verbs are not marked for person, number and gender.
4.10.1. Present Tense:

Present tense indicates that the action mentioned by the verb takes place at the time of the speech act. It also indicates the state at the time of the speech act. /-bom/ and /-et/ are the present progressive and perfective tense markers. It is also worth mentioning that no marker is posited in the simple present aspects. These are given below:

4.10.1.1. Present (Simple):

Simple present tense is marked by zero markers in Karbi language, e.g.

i. /ne an čo-Φ/
   I rice (N) eat-S.Pre.
   ‘I eat rice’

ii. /alaŋ an čo-Φ/
    he (Pro.) rice (N) eat-S.Pre.
    ‘H/she eat rice’

iii. /monit an čo-Φ/
    man (N) rice (N) eat-S.Pre.
    ‘Man eats rice’

iv. /ne laŋ zun-Φ/
    ‘I (Pro) water (N) drink-S.Pre.
    ‘I drink water’.
v. /čainoŋ/ bap  čo-Φ/
    cow (N)    grass(N)   eat-S.Pre.

    ‘The cow eats grasses

vi. /hadak/ metհan  do-Φ/
    there (D.Pro.) dog(N)    be-S.Pre.

    ‘There is (a) dog’

But the hounorific marker /ik/ is added to the verb if the pronoun becomes hounorific, e.g.

vii. /ne-li/ laŋ  zun-ik/
    I – Hon.   water       drink-Hon-S.Pre.

    ‘I drink water’

viii. /alaŋ-li/ ča  zun-ik/
    s/he –Hon.   tea       drink-Hon-S.Pre.

    ‘S/he drinks tea’

ix. /naŋ-li/ hor  zun-ik/
    you –Hon.   rice beer   drink-Hon-S.Pre.

    ‘You drink rice beer’
4.10.1.2. Present Progressive:

The present progressive aspect is marked by /-bom/ added to the verb. This indicates that the action of verb is continuing at certain time in the present. Examples are given below:

i. /ne dam-bom/
   
   I go-Pre.Prog.
   
   ‘I am going’

ii. /naŋ čiti tok-bom/
   
   you letter write-Pre.Prog.
   
   ‘You are writing (a) letter’

iii. /alaŋ an čo-bom/
   
   s/he rice eat-Pre.Prog.
   
   ‘S/he is eating rice’

iv. /netum klem-bom/
   
   we do-Pre.Prog.
   
   ‘We are doing’

v. /wo iŋzar-bom/
   
   bird fly-Pre.Prog.
   
   ‘The bird is flying’
4.10.1.3. Present Perfective:

The present perfective is realized by adding /-et/ to the verb in Karbi. This indicates the action mentioned by the verb is performed and completed before the speech. Consider the following examples:

i. /ne loso a-kam klem-et/

I this Poss.-work do-Pre.Perf.

‗I have done this work‘

ii. /ne an čo-et/

I rice eat-Pre.Perf.

‗I have eaten rice‘

iii. /alaŋ dilli dam-et/

he delhi go-Pre.Perf.

‗He has gone to Delhi‘

iv. /alaŋ-li tʰi-et/

he -(Hon) die-Pre.Perf.

‗He has died‘

v. /ompʰu skul dun-et/

omphu school go-Pre.Perf.

‗Amphu has gone to school‘
4.10.2. Past Tense:

In Karbi, the past aspects are marked with the suffix /-lo, -bomlo, -etlo/ for simple past, past progressive and past perfetive respectively. The past tense has three aspects- they are simple past, past progressive and past perfective. These are illustrated below:

4.10.2.1. Past (Simple):

The simple past aspect is marked by /-lo/ to the verb and when the time adverb is present in the sentence of simple past, the marker /-lo/ is optionally added as in the following examples:

i.  /ne an čo-lo/

    I rice eat-S.Pst.

    ‘I ate rice’

ii. /ne alanj-p\^an t\^ekloŋ-lo/

    I he-Acc. see-S.Pst.

    ‘I saw him’

iii. /ne bozar dun-lo/

    I market go-S.Pst.

    ‘I went to the market’
iv. /atumi alan ladak waŋ-(lo)/

Yesterday he here come-S.Pst.

‘Yesterday he came here’

4.10.2.2. Past Progressive: The past progressive aspect is formed by adding /-bomlo/ to the verb. For example:

i. /Nihang an čo-bomlo/

Nihang rice eat-Pst.Prog.

‘Nihang was eating rice’

ii. /ne waŋ-bomlo/

I come-Pst.Prog.

‘I was coming’

iii. /alan klem-bomlo/

s/he work-Pst.Prog.

‘S/he was working’

iv. /Ram laŋ zun-bomlo/

Ram water drink-Pst.Prog.

‘Ram was drinking water’
4.10.2.3. Past Perfective:

The past perfective is realized by adding /-etlo/ to verb. This indicates the action of the verb is completed before the speech act. Consider the following examples:

i. /ne la a-kam klem-etlo/

   I this Poss.-work do Pst.Perf.

   ‘I had done this work’

ii. /alaŋ dam -etlo/

   s/he go -Pst.Perf.

   ‘S/he had gone’

iii. /naŋ la kam keklem-etlo/

   you this work do-Pst.perf.

   ‘You had finished this work’

iv. /alaŋ kedamtaŋ ačiklo t'i-etlo

   s/he last month die-Pst.Perf.

   ‘He/she had died last month’
4.10.3. Future Tense:

In Karbi, the future tense is realized by the marker -/zi and -po/ in simple future and /-bompo/ and /-bomzi/ in future progressive. The suffix /-po/ indicates that the action will begin now and will continue for sometime in the future, while the suffix /-zi/ indicates that the action will be commenced later on. The future tense is found in two aspects, Simple and Progressive. Examples are shown below:

4.10.3.1. Future (Simple):

In Karbi, the simple future aspect is indicated by suffixing /po, zi/ to the verb root, e.g.

i. /ne dam-po/
   I go-S.Fut.
   ‘I shall go’

ii. /naŋ waŋ-po/
    you me-S.Fut.
    ‘You will come’

iii. /ne lem-zi/
    I do-S.Fut.
    ‘I will work’
iv. /ne an čo-zi/  
I rice eat-S.Fut.  
‘I will eat rice

4.10.3.2. Future Progressive:

The future progressive aspect indicates that the action referred to by the verb will progress at certain point of time in future. It is expressed by adding /-bompo, -bomzi/ immediately after the verb base. Consider the following examples:

i. /ne waj-bompo/  
I come-Fut.Prog.  
‘I shall be going’

ii. /naŋ tok-bompo/  
you write-Fut.Prog.  
‘You will be writing’

iii. /alaŋ laŋok čo-bompo/  
s/he fish eat-Fut.Prog.  
‘S/he will be eating fish’

iv. /ne hit̄i dam-bomzi/  
I market go-Fut.Prog.  
‘I will be going market’
4.11. Mood:

4.11.1. Imperative Mood:

In Karbi, three forms are used to mark the imperative e.g. /-tʰa/, -non and -tʰu/.

The markers /-tʰa/ and -non/ are polite forms of imperative and the marker /-tʰu/ is a command form. Consider the following examples:

i. /dam-tʰa/
   
go-Imp.
   
   ‘Please go’

ii. /kolom pi-tʰa/
   
   pen give-Imp.
   
   ‘Please give the pen’

iii. /la alam kroi-tʰa/
   
   this order obey-Imp.
   
   ‘Please obey this order’

v. /alaŋ ne-phan thanḳa pi-bomzi/

S/he I –Dat. money give-Fut.Prog.

S/he will be giving money to me’
vi. /kat-tʰa/  
Run-Imp.  
‘Please run’

vii. /klem-tʰa/  
do-Imp.  
‘Please do’

viii. /dam-non/  
go-Imp.  
‘Please go’

ix. /čo-non/  
eat-Imp.  
‘Please eat’

ix. /waŋ-tʰu/  
come-Imp(comd)  
‘Come’

x. /zun-tʰu/  
drink-Imp(comd)  
‘Drink’
4.11.2. Capability Mood:

The ability or capability is expressed by adding the morpheme /-un/ meaning ‘can’ to the verb root as in the following examples:

i. alaŋ kam klem-un/

s/he work do-Cap.

‘S/he can do the work’

ii. /ne iŋzar-un/

I fly-Cap.

‘I can fly’

iii. /latum kan-un/

they dance-Cap.

‘They can dance’

iv. /la tok-un/

s/he write-Cap.

‘S/he can write’

v. /monit azad kam-tə kam-t\text{\text Dag} el klem-un/

man everything work-Imp. do-Cap.

‘Man can do everything’
4.11.3. Necessity Mood:

The mood of necessity is expressed by the word /naŋ/ meaning ‘need’ followed by future tense markers /-po/ and /-zi/. Consider the following examples:

i. /ne hitʰi dam naŋ-po/

I market go need-Fut. (Nes.)

‘I need to go to the market’

ii. /naŋ dak waŋ naŋ-zí/

you here come need-Fut (Nes.)

‘You need to come here’

iii. /alaŋ laŋ zun naŋ-zí/

s/he wter drink need-Fut (Nes)

‘S/he needs to drink water’

iv. /alaŋtum la kam klem naŋ-zí/

they this work do need-Fut (Nes)

‘They need to do it’

v. /alaŋ tʰaŋka naŋ-zí/

S/he money need-Fut (Nes)

‘S/he needs money’
4.11.4. Probability Mood:

The mood of probability is expressed by adding / tʰahai/ meaning ‘may’ to the verb. It indicates that the subject may perform the action mentioned by the verb. Consider the following examples:

i. /arwe zaŋ-tʰahai/
   
   rain all-Prob.
   
   ‘It may rain’

ii. /alaŋ waŋ-tʰahai/
   
   s/he come-Prob.
   
   ‘S/he may come’

iii. /ne hidi-aloŋ kat-tʰahai/
   
   I field-Loc. ran-Prob.
   
   ‘I may run in the field’

iv. /Ram ne hem waŋ-tʰahai/
   
   Ram i-Poss.(Φ) house come-Prob.
   
   ‘Ram may come to my house’
4.11.5. Conditional Mood:

The conditional mood is expressed by suffixing /te/ ‘if’ to the verb root. Consider the following examples:

i. /netum dam-te/

we go-Cond.

‘If we go’

ii. /ne lunlun-te/

I sing-Cond.

‘If I sing’

iii. /ne richo-te/

I king-Cond.

‘If I were a king’

iv. /alaŋ apor do-te alaŋ guwahati dam-zi/

s/he time have-Cond s/he guwahati go-S.Fut.

‘If s/he get time, s/he will go to Guwahati’

v. /naŋ rap-te alaŋ klem-un/

you help-Cond s/he do-Cap.

‘If you help, s/he can do’
4.11.6. Permissive Mood:

The permissive mood is expressed by using causative verb and the Imperative suffix /tʰa-/ is added to the causative verb. Consider the following examples:

i. /la-pʰan pa-dam-tʰa/
   s/he-Acc. Caus-go-Imp. (Per.)
   ‘let her/him go’

ii. /alaŋ-pʰan pa-waŋ-tʰa/
    s/he-Acc. Caus-come-Imp. (Per.)
    ‘Allow him/her to come’

4.11.7. Certainty Mood:

It is marked by adding /-wek/ to the verb base and optionally future tense marker follows it. Consider the following examples:

i. /ne waŋ-wek-(zi)/
   I come-Cert-(Fut.)
   ‘I shall come certainly’

ii. /alaŋ čo-wek/
    s/he eat-Cert.
    ‘S/he eats certainly’
iii. /Ram dun-wek-(po)/

Ram go-Cert-(Fut.)

‘Ram will go surely’

4.12. Non-finite Verb:

Non-finite verbal formation in Karbi is discussed under two heads, namely (i) Infinitive, (ii) Gerund

4.12.1. Infinitive:

In Karbi, infinitive is formed by adding /apʰan/ to the future form of verb as in the following examples.

i. /han kenemzi apʰan netum hitʰi dam/  
   vegetable buy Inf. we market go-Pre.

   ‘We go to the market for buying vegetable’

ii. /ne čiŋlugi apʰan laŋroi dam-ło/  
   I bathe Inf. river go-Pst

   ‘I went to the river to bathe’
4.12.2. Gerund:

The gerund is a non-finite verb that can function as a noun. In Karbi, the gerund is formed by prefixing /ke- ka-/ to the verb root as in the following examples.

i. /arni kaŋsam ke-zui eokepran mesen/
day evining Ger.-walk health good
‘Walking in the evening is good for health’

ii. /alaŋ-pʰan ka-rzu naŋi/
s/he-Acc. Ger.-ask need-Pre.
‘Asking him is necessary’

4.13. Adjective:

In Karbi, the adjectives may be classified into two types viz. loan and derived. The derived adjectives are formed by prefixing /ke-, ki-, ka-/ to the verb roots and the loan adjectives are primarily borrowed from other languages. There is no original native primary adjective in Karbi language. The adjective does not show the gender, number or case difference in Karbi. Most of the adjective precede or follow the noun. The different types of adjectives are discussed below:

4.13.1. Loan Adjective:

The primary adjectives used by native speakers are mainly loan adjectives taken from other languages like Assamese. A few loans adjective that are used by the native speakers are given below:
4.13.2. Derived Adjective:

The derived adjective of Karbi is formed by adding the adjectival prefixes /ki-, ke-, ka- to the verbal root. It is shown with the following examples.

i. Adjective formed with the attributive /ki-/

Prefix + Root → Adjective

/ki/ + /duk/ → /ki-duk/

to be poor' 'poor'
ii. Adjective formed with the attributive /ke-/.

Prefix + root → adjective

/ke/ + /ik/ → /ke-ik/

‘to be black’ ‘black’

/er/ → /ke-er/

‘to be red’ ‘red’

/me/ → /ke-me/

‘to be good’ ‘good’

/dok/ → /ke-dok/

‘to be sweet’ ‘sweet’

iii. Adjective formed with the attributive /ka-/.

Prefix + root → adjective

/ka/ + /ardi/ → /ka-rdi/

‘to be heavy’ ‘heavy’
The following adjectives of Karbi, which expresses the inherent states, include quality, taste, colour and imensional adjectives are derived adjective in Karbi.

4.13.2.1. Adjective of Quality:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ke-me/</th>
<th>/keme/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be good</td>
<td>‘good’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ke-tʰe/</th>
<th>/ketʰe/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be big</td>
<td>‘big’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ke-hino/</th>
<th>/kehino/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be bad</td>
<td>‘bad’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ki-mi/</th>
<th>/kimi/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be new</td>
<td>‘new’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ke-plaŋ/</th>
<th>/keplaŋ/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be rich</td>
<td>‘rich’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ka-arom/</th>
<th>/karom/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be hot</td>
<td>‘hot’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ka-iŋtʰir/</th>
<th>/kaŋtʰir/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adj.Pref.-to be pure</td>
<td>‘pure’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.13.2.2. Adjective of Quantity:

/ke-oŋ/ /ke-oŋ/
Adj.Pref.-to be many ‘many’

/ke-zum/ /kezum/
Adj.Pref.-to be some ‘some’

/ke-kom/ /kekom/
Adj.Pref.- to be little ‘little’

4.13.2.3. Adjective of Taste:

/ke-laŋ/ /kelanŋ/
adj.Pref-to be tasty ‘tasty’

/ke-dok/ /kedok/
Adj.Pref.-to be sweet ‘sweet’

/ke-tʰor/ /ketʰor/
Adj.Pref.-to be sour ‘sour’

/ka-ho/ /kaho/
‘Adj.Pref-to be bitter’ ‘bitter’
4.13.2.4. Adjective of Color: In Karbi, the adjective of color is formed by prefixing the adjective marker /ke-/ to the verb roots. Examples are given below with illustration.

/ke-ik/        /ke ik/
Adj.Pref-to be black  black

/ke-lok/        /kelok/
Adj.Pref-to be white  ‘white’

/ke-er/        /ke er/
Adj.Pref-to be red  ‘red’

/ke-et/        /ke et/
Adj.Pref-to be yellow  ‘yellow’

/ke-lir/        /kelir/
Adj.pref-to be green  ‘green’

4.13.2.5. Dimensional Adjective:

/ke-dinj/        /kedinj/
Adj.Pref-to be long  ‘long’

/ka-awar/        /kawar/
Adj.Pref-to be wide  ‘wide’
It is also worth mentioning that the most of the adjectives precede or follow the noun and when the adjective proceeds, the noun takes possessive marker /-a/. These are given below:

/osø keme/  
boy  
‘Good boy’

/keme a-osø/  
‘good Poss-boy’

/hem ke-tʰe/  
‘house Adj.Pref-big’
4.13.3. Comparison of Adjective: There are three comparisons of degree in Karbi. These are namely- (a) positive (b) Comparative and (c) Superlative.

4.13.3.1. Positive:

In Karbi, it remains unmarked. Examples are presented below:

/kediŋ/ ‘long’

/ket³i/ ‘short’

/kaŋteŋ/ ‘thick’

/ket³e/ ‘big’

4.13.3.2. Comparative:

The comparative is formed by adding comparative marker /mu/ in comparing between the things with the adjective. Consider the following examples:

/kediŋ-mu/ ‘longer’

Long-Comp.
4.13.3.3. Superlative:

Superlative is formed by adding /-nei/ to the positive adjective in Karbi. Consider the following examples:

/kediŋ-nei/ ‘longest’
long-Sup.

/ketʰi-nei/ ‘shortest’
short-Sup.

/kaŋtəŋ-nei/ ‘thickest’
thick-Sup.

/ketʰe-nei/ ‘biggest’
big-Sup.
4.14. Adverb:

An adverb is a class of word that specifies the mode of action of the verb. In Karbi, the adverbs qualify the verb. They indicate the time, place and manner of action mentioned by the verb. They are broadly classified into two kinds, viz. Simple and Derived Adverb. The simple adverb consists of single root morpheme and derived root is formed by adverbial suffix.

4.14.1. Simple Adverb:

Simple Adverb consists of a single root morpheme.

/no/  ‘now’
/pini/  ‘today’
/penap/  ‘tomorrow’
/kaita/  ‘always’
/ladak/  ‘here’
/hadak/  ‘there’

4.14.2. Derived Adverb:

The derived adverbs are derived from adjectives or nouns by suffixing the adverbial suffix /-pen/ e. g.

/kičir-pen/  

careful -Adv.Pref

‘Carefully’
4.14.3. Classification of Adverb:

In Karbi, adverbs can be divided into different semantic group, viz., Time, Place, Manner, Order, etc. The following is the classification of adverbs according to their meaning as they express.
4.14.3.1. Adverbs of Time:

/non/  ‘now’
/non malom/  ‘now a days’
/mosi/  ‘later’
/nonhet/  ‘just now’
/mo aphi/  ‘after’
/pini/  ‘today’
/penap/  ‘tomorrow’
/čuhet/  ‘before few days’
/adap/  ‘morning’
/anarlo/  ‘afternoon’

4.14.3.2. Adverbs of Place:

/arum/  ‘inside’
/iŋtan/  ‘out side’
/lapu/  ‘this side’
/hapu/  ‘that side’
/dak/  ‘here’
/arlo/  ‘under’
/aŋsoŋ/  ‘above’
4.14.3.3. Adverbs of Manner:

/prapzin/ ‘speedly’

/pezo/ ‘slowly’

/serak/ ‘quickly’

/toŋ/ ‘immediately’

4.14.3.4. Adverb of Order:

/ap^hi/ ‘backward’

/adun/ ‘secondly’

/aŋboŋ/ ‘medially’

/kečeŋ/ ‘firstly’

/kezit/ ‘lastly’

4.15. Negation:

The various way of negative formation in Karbi is illustrated below:

4.15.1. Negation by Negative Word:

In Karbi, the verb /do/ ‘have’ and /kalan/ ‘is’ and /naŋzi/ ‘need’ indicate positive sense. The verb /awe/ ‘have not’ and /kali/ ‘is not’ and /naŋne/ ‘no need’ indicate the negative sense. In this language, /awe/ and /kali/ replace the verb /do/ and /kalan/ respectively to indicate negative sense. Consider the following examples:
i. /hadak ok do/
there fish have-Pre.
‘There is a fish’

ii. /hadak ok awe/
thereen fish no-Pre.
‘There is no fish’

iii. /la čainoŋ kalan/
this cow is-Pre.
‘This is a cow’

iv. /la čainoŋ kali/
this cow not-Pre..
‘This is not cow’

v. /ne-pʰan tʰanka nanj/
I -Dat money need-Pre.
‘I need money’

vi. /ne-pʰan tʰanka nanje/
I - Dat money no need-Pre.
‘I need no money’
4.15.2. Negation by Reduplication:

In Karbi, the negative verb is formed by partial reduplication of phoneme. The initial phoneme of verb is repeated and the negative suffix /-e/ is added to it. Consider the following examples:

/čo/ /čo-če/ ‘to eat’ ‘do not eat’
/zun/ /zun-ze/ ‘to drink’ ‘do not drink’
/dam/ /dam-de/ ‘to go’ ‘do not go’

But in case of bi or multi syllable verb, the negative verb is formed by repeating the first phoneme of final syllable and the negative suffix /-e/ is added to it. Consider the following examples:

/iŋzer/ /iŋzer-ze/ ‘to fly’ ‘does not fly’
/iŋčam/ /iŋčam-če/ ‘to cool’ ‘does not cool’
/iŋzir/ /iŋzir-ze/ ‘to dissolve’ ‘does not dissolve’
4.15.3. Negation by Suffixation:

Karbi has two negative marker suffixes viz. /-e/ and /-ri/. The marker /-e/ is added to the verb that begins with a vowel phoneme and the suffix /-ri/ added to other verb to give negative meaning. Consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Suffixation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/en/</td>
<td>/en-e/</td>
<td>‘to make’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/un/</td>
<td>/un-e/</td>
<td>‘to able’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/klem/</td>
<td>/klem-ri/</td>
<td>‘to do’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/zun/</td>
<td>/zun-ri/</td>
<td>‘to drink’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/laŋ/</td>
<td>/laŋ-ri/</td>
<td>‘to find out’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.15.4. Negative Copula:

The negative copula /kali/ and /awe/ ‘not’ is used to express negative in locative predicates and possessive sentences. Consider the following examples:
i.  la wokak kali/
    this duck not-Pre
    ‘This is not a duck’

ii. /Ram klem kali/
    Ram do not-Pre
    ‘Ram is not doing’

iii. /laŋroi-loŋ ok awe/
    river-Loc fish no-Pre
    ‘There is no fish in the river’

4.16. Postposition:

The postposition is formally different from case form in that they can occur independently whereas case form does not occur independently. They are posited immediately after the noun, pronoun and case and the particle /-si/ can occur after the postposition in the phrase. The postpositions in Karbi are listed below.

i. /-tʰak/ ‘on, above’
   i. /ne- thak/
      I -Post.P
      ‘On me, above me’
ii. /netum a-thak/

we Poss-Post.P

‘On us, above us’

iii. /ne pʰu-tʰak/

I head-Post.P

‘On my head, above my head’

iv. /netum a-pʰu-tʰak/

we Poss-head Post.P

‘On our head’

ii. /-rum/ ‘below, under’

i. /pirte činiŋ-rum do/

earth sky-Post.P is - Pre

‘The earth is below the sky’

ii. /alaŋ ne-rum-si kam klem/

he I -Post.P-parti work do -Pre

‘He works under me’

iii. /la rum-si bi-non/

this/it Post.P-parti keep-Imp (Pre)

‘Keep it below’
### iii. /-arło/  ‘inside’

i. /hiti arło dukan do/

market Post.P shop is - Pre

‘There is shop inside the market’

ii. /wokek ayum arło do/

parrot cage Post.P is -Pre

‘The parrot is inside the cage’

iii. /naŋ arło warj-non/

you Post.P come-Imp (Pre)

‘You come in’

### iv. /-asar/  ‘away’

i. /alan teŋpi asar-si arzap/

he tree Post.P-Parti stand -Pre

‘He stands away from the tree’

ii. /alan asar dam-lo/

he Post.P go-Pst

‘He went away’
v. /-aray/  ‘near’

i. /ne tʰeŋpi aray do/

I tree Post.P is -Pre

‘I am near the tree’

ii. /alɑŋ ne aray-si do/

he I Post.P-Parti is -Pre

‘He is near by me’

vi. /-aŋsoŋ/  ‘above, up’

i. /alɑŋ iŋloŋ aŋsoŋ dam-lo/

he hill Post.P go-Pst

‘He went up the hill’

ii. /tʰeŋpi aŋsoŋ wo kanzer/

tree Post.P bird fly -Pre

‘The bird flies above the tree’

vii. /aduŋ/  ‘near’

i. /ne tʰeŋpi aduŋ do/

I tree Post.P have -Pre

‘I am near the tree’
ii. /ne-aduŋ iŋnar do/

I Post.P elephant have -Pre

‘The elephant is near me’

viii. /roytan/ ‘outside’

i. /naŋ roytan dam-non/

you Post.P go-Imp(Pre)

‘You go outside’

ii. /ne roytan-si waŋ-lo/

I Post.p-Parti come-Pst

‘I came from outside’

iii. /hem-pensi roytan dam-non/

house- Abl Post.P go-Imp(Pre)

‘Go out from the house’

ix. /iŋno/ ‘in front of’

i. /ne iŋno arzap-ri

I Post.P stand- Neg (Pre)

‘Don’t stand in front of me’
ii. /alaŋ  iŋno  dam-ri/
    s/he  Post.P  go-Neg (Pre)
    ‘Don’t go in front of him/her’

x. /nuŋ/  ‘behind’

i. /alaŋ  ne-nuŋ  iŋni-lo/
    s/he  I-Post.P  sit-Pst
    ‘S/he sat behind me’

xi. /pʰi/  ‘after’

i. /ne-phi  naŋ  loŋ-po/
    ‘I –Post.P you get-Fut
    ‘You will get after me’

xii. /aŋboŋ/  ‘middle’

i. /alaŋ  hidi  aŋboŋ-si  dam-lo/
    he fiel Post.P-Parti  go-Pst
    ‘He went through the middle of the field’

4.17. Particle:

The majority of the particles occur in sentence-final position, only few of them may occur after NPs and initial position of sentence. The particle does not have
its own meaning; it is a function word that is associated with other word to impart meaning.

i. **Emphatic Particle /-ti/, /si/:**

The emphatic particle /-ti/ occurs at the end of a sentence with verb and the emphatic particle /si/ occurs with object of the sentence to show emphasis and optionally with locative and accusative marker, e.g.

a. **Emphatic Particle: /-ti/**

i. \(/ne\) horlan\text{-}zun\text{-}ti/

I rice-beer drink-E.Part. -Pre

‘I drink rice beer only’

ii. \(/ala\text{n} monit henodak-lo\text{-}ti/"

he man bad-Pst-E.Part.

‘He was a bad man’

iii. \(/Raju hem dam-etlo\text{-}ti/"

Raju house go-Pst-perf-E.Part.

‘Raju had gone home’

b. **Emphatic Particle: /-si/**

i. \(/ne hem-si do/"

I house-E.Part. is -Pre
‘I am at home’

ii. /ne naŋ-pʰan-si han/  
I you-Acc-E.Part. call –Pre.

‘I am calling you only’

**ii. Vocative Particle */o/*:**

The vocative particle is used before the name or kinship term when calling for somebody, e.g.

i. /o pʰunu/  
Voc.Part. uncle

‘Hello uncle’

ii. /o ni/  
Voc.Part. sister (elder)

‘Hello sister’

**iii. Permissive Particle: */zo/***

The permissive particle */zo/* occurs at the end of a sentence. Consider the following examples:

i. /ne la en-zo/  
I this take- Per.Part. -Pre

‘I take this’ (with permission)
ii. /ne an čo-žo/

I rice eat-Per.Part. -Pre

‘I eat rice’ (with permission)

iv. Particle of Acceptance: /-to/

It expresses an acceptance before the action is done and posited before a verb or in the initial position of a sentence, e.g.

i. /to zun-tha/

A.Part. drink-Imp. –Pre.

‘Yes, please drink’

ii. /to dam-tʰa/

A.Parti. go-Imp. –Pre.

‘Yes please go’

4.18. Word Formation:

It is concerned with those words which consist of more than one morpheme. The common morphological processes found in word formation are Compounding, Derivation and Reduplication. The possible processes of word formation in Karbi are discussed below.
4.18.1. Compounding:

Compounding is a word formation process which is made up of at least two or more than two constituent bases. The various types of compounds in Karbi are presented below.

4.18.1.1. Noun Formation:

This may be classified in terms of the semantic relationship held by the constituent nouns. Two main semantic relationships hold between constituent nouns as presented below.

i. **Endocentric Compounds:** It is a compound which contains an element that functions as head. Examples:

   i. /arnimir/ ‘sunflower’

      arni-mir
      sun-flower

   ii. /tomonarwe/ ‘climate’

      tomon-arwe
      air-rain

   iii. /okreŋ/ ‘dry fish’

      ok-reŋ
      fish-dry
ii. Exocentric compounds: Compounds without a head are known as exocentric compound. Nominal compounds such as noun + noun compounds, given below are headless compound in the sense that neither of the two elements can function as the head.

i. /lothe/ ‘banana’

lo -the

leave-fruit
The compounding in Karbi can also be classified on the basis of the role of the head in the compounds. These types of compounding are as follows:

**a. Tatpurusa (Determinative) compounds:**

In this type, the head of the compound is on the side i.e. the second member is the head of the compound e.g.

/\text{pinso-}zirpo/ \text{ ‘boy friend’}

\text{boy-friend}

/Karbi-}aŋloŋ/ \text{ ‘Karbi hills’}

\text{Karbi-hill}

**b. Karmadharay compounds.**

This type of compound is a combination of an adjective and a noun in which the nouns is the head of the compound e.g.
c. Dvandva compounds:

This type of compound is also available in Karbi where both the elements are head e.g.

/po-pei/ ‘parent’
father-mother
/zon-arni/ ‘day and night’
day-night
/loŋle-aŋklen/ ‘earth and cloud’
earth-cloud

iii. Other Compounds: Other than above mentioned compounds, the compound of nouns are formed by combination of two or more nouns, adjectives and verb roots. These are given below:

a. Noun + Noun > Noun

/keŋ/ /phu/ /keŋphu/
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘leg’</td>
<td>‘head’</td>
<td>‘knee’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/keŋ/</td>
<td>/mun/</td>
<td>/keŋmun/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘leg’</td>
<td>‘finger’</td>
<td>‘toes’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ri/</td>
<td>/anŋaŋ/</td>
<td>/riaŋaŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘hand’</td>
<td>‘line’</td>
<td>‘line of hand’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/laŋ/</td>
<td>/ok/</td>
<td>/laŋok/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘water’</td>
<td>‘meat’</td>
<td>‘fish’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/keŋ/</td>
<td>/op/</td>
<td>/keŋop/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘leg’</td>
<td>‘cover’</td>
<td>‘shoe’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Noun + Adjective > Noun

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/hoŋtu/</td>
<td>/ket/e/</td>
<td>/hoŋtuket/e/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘room’</td>
<td>‘big’</td>
<td>‘big room’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/čin/</td>
<td>/kidin/</td>
<td>/činkidin/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘stick’</td>
<td>‘long’</td>
<td>‘long stick’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/čin/</td>
<td>/kit/i/</td>
<td>/činkit/i/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘stick’</td>
<td>‘short’</td>
<td>‘short stick’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/arloŋ/</td>
<td>/ket/e/</td>
<td>/arloŋket/e/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘stone’</td>
<td>‘big’</td>
<td>‘big stone’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c. **Verb** + **Verb** $\rightarrow$ **Noun**

/čom/ /kan/ /čomkan/
‘to gather’ ‘to dance’ ‘a Karbi festival’

/čo/ /zun/ /čozun/
‘to eat’ ‘to drink’ ‘religious ceremony’
4.18.1.2. Verb Formation:

In Karbi, the verb forming by compounds of noun+verb and verb+verb are found. These types of compounding are shown below:

a) **Noun**  +  **Verb**  →  **Verb**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Transliteration</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/nin/</td>
<td>/wan/</td>
<td>/nĩwan/</td>
<td>‘heart’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to come/</td>
<td>‘to vomit’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mek/</td>
<td>/zang/</td>
<td>‘mekzang’</td>
<td>‘eye’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to fall’</td>
<td>‘to sleep’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ok/</td>
<td>/huŋ/</td>
<td>/okhuŋ/</td>
<td>‘flesh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to follow’</td>
<td>‘to hunt’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) **Verb**  +  **Verb**  →  **Verb**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Transliteration</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/do/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/dodun/</td>
<td>‘to have’  ‘to go’  ‘to accompany’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to accompany’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/klem/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/klemdun/</td>
<td>‘to work’  ‘to go’  ‘to work all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to work all’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/huŋ/</td>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/huŋdun/</td>
<td>‘to follow’  ‘to go’  ‘to drive away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to drive away’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/hoi/</td>
<td>/dam/</td>
<td>/hoidam/</td>
<td>‘to blame’  ‘to go’  ‘to complain’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘to complain’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.18.1.3. Adjective Formation: The adjective formations with compounding are mainly of two types in Karbi, i.e. Verb + Adjective and Noun + Adjective. Following are the examples of Adjective formation:

a) Verb + Adjective → Adjective

/ık/ /rimrim/ /ıkrimrim/
to be black like ‘blackish’

/lok/ /rimrim/ /lokrimrim/
to be white like ‘whitish’

b) Noun + Adjective → Adjective

/rasen/ /keme/ /rasenkeme/
face good ‘beautiful’

/tʰuŋ/ /kelir/ /tʰuŋkelir/
dove green ‘green dove’

4.18.2. Derivation:

With the help of derivation process, new class of word is formed from a different class. In Karbi, it is done by the addition of derivational prefix and suffixes. The processes are state below:
4.18.2.1. Derivation of Agentive Noun:

The singular agentive noun is formed from verb by adding the derivative suffixing /aban/ e.g.

/patʰu+aban/ /patʰuaban/ ‘player’

to play + Ag.N.Suff.

/zun+aban/ /zunaban/ ‘drinker’

‘to drink’ + Ag.N.Suff.

/dun+aban/ /dunaban/ ‘one who comes’

‘to come’ + Ag.N.Suff.

/tok+aban/ /tokaban/ ‘writer’

‘to write’ + Ag.N.Suff.

The plural is formed by suffixing the plural marker /atun/ to the agentive noun.

/dun-bañ atun/ ‘those who goes’

go - Ag.N.Suff. Pl.

/čo-bañ atun/ ‘those who eats’

eat - Ag.N.Suff. Pl.

/ṭokbañ atun/ ‘those who writes’

write - Ag.N.Suff. Pl.
4.18.2.2. Derivation of Verbal Noun:

The verbal noun in Karbi is derived from the verb by prefixation /ke-, ka-, ki-/ e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/kor/</td>
<td>/ke-kor/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to bit’</td>
<td>‘act of biting’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/han/</td>
<td>/ke-han/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to call’</td>
<td>‘act of calling’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dam/</td>
<td>/ke-dam/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to go’</td>
<td>‘act of going’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/čarli/</td>
<td>/ka-čarli/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to study’</td>
<td>‘act of studying’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dun/</td>
<td>/ki-dun/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to come’</td>
<td>‘act of coming’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.18.2.3. Derivation of Adverb:

The adverbs are derived from adjectives or nouns by adding the adverbial suffix /-pen/ e.g.

/ahuk-pen/ ‘happily’

happy – Adv.suf.
4.18.2.4. Derivation of Verb:

The causative verb is a derived verb in Karbi. The causative verb roots are formed by prefixing /pa-/ to the verbs root subject to morphophonemic conditions.

The causative prefixes are /pa-/ /pe- / and /pi-. /pa-/ is added to the verb root with an initial vowel phoneme /i, a/. When the prefix /pa-/ is added to the verb root the initial vowel /i, a/ is lost, e.g.

/pa-/ /iŋkai/ /paŋkai/

Caus.Pref. to fence ‘cause to someone to fence’
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caus.Pref.</th>
<th>‘to embrace’</th>
<th>‘cause someone to embrace’</th>
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</thead>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caus.Pref.</td>
<td>‘to worship’</td>
<td>‘cause someone to worship’</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

i. When the /pa, pe and pi/ are prefixed to the verb root starting with initial consonant, the root shape remains unchanged e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caus.Pref.</th>
<th>‘to do’</th>
<th>‘cause someone to do’</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>Caus.Pref.</td>
<td>‘to come’</td>
<td>‘cause someone to come’</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caus.Pref.</td>
<td>‘to eat’</td>
<td>‘cause someone to eat’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caus.Pref.</td>
<td>‘to end’</td>
<td>‘cause someone to end’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caus.Pref.</td>
<td>‘to sing’</td>
<td>‘cause someone to sing’</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caus.Pref.</td>
<td>‘to die’</td>
<td>‘cause someone to die’</td>
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</table>
4.18.2.5. Derivation of Adjective:

The derived adjectives are derived by adding the adjectival prefix or suffix /ki-, ke-, ka-, -zot/ to the verbal roots. Consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adj.Pref.</th>
<th>+</th>
<th>Root</th>
<th>→</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ki/</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>/duk/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ki-duk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be poor’ ‘poor’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ti/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ki-ti/</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be die’ ‘dead’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mi/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ki-mi/</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be new’ ‘new’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ke/</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>/ik/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ke-ik/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be black’ ‘black’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/er/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ke-er/</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be red’ ‘red’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/me/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ke-me/</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be good’ ‘good’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dok/</td>
<td></td>
<td>/ke-dok/</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘to be sweet’ ‘sweet’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.18.3. Reduplication:

The Karbi, reduplication can be divided into the following types: (a) Complete Reduplication and (b) Partial Reduplication.

4.18.3.1. Complete Reduplication:

Complete reduplication means repeating of the base word completely, e.g.

/prapzin/ prapzin/ ‘speedily’

speed speed

/apʼraŋ/ apʼraŋ/ ‘in front of’

front front

/kezoi/ kezoi/ ‘secretly’

secret secret
4.18.3.2. Partial Reduplication:

Partial reduplication means repeating of some parts of the base word. For example:

\[ /pe \quad pa/ \quad \text{‘cloth and like’} \]

cloth – Red.

\[ /me \quad ma/ \quad \text{‘fire and like’} \]

fire – Red.

\[ /hem \quad ham/ \quad \text{‘house and like’} \]

house – Red.

\[ /monit \quad monat/ \quad \text{‘man and like’} \]

man – Red.

\[ /so \quad su/ \quad \text{‘child and like’} \]

child – Red.

\[ /wo \quad wa/ \quad \text{‘bird etc.’} \]

bird – Red.

\[ /mir \quad mur/ \quad \text{‘flower etc.’} \]

flower – Red.

/pizo \quad pizo/ \quad \text{‘slowly’}

slow \quad slow
Various types of reduplication include morphological and lexical reduplication. Morphological reduplication is further divided into expressive, echo formations and word-reduplications. (Abbi, 1987)

The compounds have already been discussed in the previous section. Now, discussion will be on the (a) Expressive, (b) Echo formations and (c) Word Reduplications.

4.18.3. Expressive:

Expressives are examples of morphological reduplication. It includes onomatopoeias, sound symbolism, idiophones and imitative. The expressives might or might not have phonological symbolism.

Expressives are used to denote all the five senses of perception, i.e. of smell, sight, touch, hearing and taste. A few examples cited below are to indicate the range and the depth of the perceptive powers of human beings. They are mentioned below:

4.18.3.1. Acoustic Noises:

(a) Animal voices:

/kuek kuek/  
‘noise of pig’

/bak bak/  
‘noise of dog’

/mizao mizao/  
‘noise of cat’

/ambe ambe/  
‘noise of calf’
(b) Noise of natural phenomena:

/sor sor/  ‘sound of water fall’

/čir čir/  ‘flowing sound of water’

/čawok čawok/  ‘sound of walking over water’

/kʰrai kʰrai/  ‘sound of dried leaf’

/kloi kloi/  ‘sound of cutting tree’

/wur wur/  ‘sound of blowing air’

c. Noise made by human:

/krok krok/  ‘sound of drinking water’

/ha ha/  ‘roar of laughter’

/plak plak/  ‘sound of claping’

/sib sib/  ‘sound drinking tea’

(d) Noise by Miscellaneous inanimate objects:

/kliŋ kliŋ/  ‘ringing of bell’

/krum krum/  ‘beating of drum’

4.18.3.2. Sense of Smell:

/hi hi/  ‘rotten’

/hok hok/  ‘burnt smell’

/peŋ peŋ/  ‘smell of bed odor’
/sik sik/ ‘sweet smell’
/kesek kesak/ ‘smell of burnt rice’

4.18.3.3. Sense of Sight:
/ri ri/ ‘glittering’
/plak plak/ ‘reflecting’

4.18.3.4. Sense of Touch:
/hum hum/ ‘sticky’
/rak rak/ ‘hard’
/zom zom/ ‘soft’

4.18.3.5. Sense of Taste:
/hotʰi tʰi/ ‘biter taste’
/sekhok hok/ ‘burnt taste’
/dokloi loi/ ‘salty taste’
/rʰorzor zor/ ‘sour taste’

4.18.3.4. Echo Word Formation:
‘An echo word has been defined as a partially repeated form of the base word- partially in the sense that either the initial phoneme (which can either be a consonant or vowel) or the syllable of the base is replaced by another phoneme or another syllable. The ‘replaced’ (phoneme or syllable) sound sequences are more or less fixed and rigid. The replaced sound sequences may not necessarily be unique but may never be numerous (Abbi, 1991)’
The base word is followed by an echo word in an echo construction. The echo word has no individual occurrences and it also does not have any meaning on its own in the concerned language. The word acquires the status of a meaningful element only after being attached to the base. The echo word gets the meaning of ‘etcetera’ and thing similar to ‘associated with that’ after its addition to the word.

In the echo word formation in Karbi, a vowel is replaced by another vowel and the echo word is formed. No consonant replacement is found in Karbi. This can be represented in the following commonly used formula.

(A) Set 1

In the formation of the echo words, the phoneme of the first component changes in the second component of the word that is formed with the replacement of the vowel of the stem. In this set, the vowel /o/ of the first part becomes /u or a/ in the second part e.g.

/ok ak/ ‘fish and like’
/sok sak/ ‘paddy and like’
/so su/ ‘child and like’

(B) Set 2

In this type, the vowel /a/ of the first part becomes /u/ in the second part e.g.

/an un/ ‘rice and things similar to’
/han hun/ ‘vegetables and things similar to’
/laŋ lun/ ‘water and things similar to’
(C) Set 3

In this type, the vowel /e/ of the first part becomes /a/ in the second part e.g.

/pe pa/ ‘cloths and things similar to’

/me ma/ ‘fire and things similar to’

/hem ham/ ‘house and like’

(D) Set 4

In this type, the vowel /i/ of the first part becomes /a/ in the second part e.g.

/monit monat/ ‘man and like’

4.18.3.5. Word Reduplication:

Word reduplication refers to the total or partial reduplication, and repetition of the base of the word or the stem. Reduplication can be of either a syllable or a large constituent of a word or whole word. Whatever be the unit of reduplication, the result is a new word which has no parallel in its non-reduplicated counterpart. (Abbi: 1987)

“From the functional point of view complete word reduplication can be subdivided into: (i) class maintaining and (ii) class changing type” (Abbi: 1991). Consider the following discussion of word reduplication of noun, adjective, adverb in Karbi.
i. Class maintaining word reduplication:

i. /hem/ ‘house’(N) /hem hem/ ‘houses’(lit. house-house) used as pl. noun

/latum aroŋ-loŋ hem hem kezui-lo/

they village-Loc house house visit-past

‘They visited many houses in this village’

ii. /alum/ ‘top’ (N) /alum alum/ ‘tops’ (lit. top-top) use as pl. noun

/tʰɛŋpi alum alum wo-ahur iŋzar-lo/

tree top top bird-Pl fly-Past

‘The birds flew above the tree.’

ii. Class changing word reduplication:

i. /pizo/ ‘slow’ (Adj) /pizo pizo/ ‘slowly’ (Adv)

/sarbura pizo pizo bozar-pensi dam-etlo/

oldman slow slow market-Abl go-Pst.Perf

‘The old man had gone from the market slowly’

ii. /prapzin/ ‘speed’ (V) - /prapzin prapzin/ ‘speedily’ (AdV)

/oso-mar towar-pen prapzin prapzin saikor kewek dun-bom/

child-Pl. road-Int speed speed bi-cycle ride go-Pre.Prog

‘The children are riding the bi-cycle speedly on the road’