CHAPTER – 4

LEXICAL AND GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

4.1 NOUN

In grammar, words used as the name of things or places and persons are defined as nouns. For example, chair, table, Delhi, Calcutta, Irabot, Gandhi etc.

Traditionally nouns are of five kinds. But modern grammarians classify the five groups only in three kinds. They are given below.

i) Simple noun

ii) Derived noun and

iii) Common noun

4.1.1 Simple noun

Nouns which can stand alone without any prefix or suffix is known as simple noun. The following are some of the examples from Sadu Koireng.

Examples
a) ke  ‘leg’
b) wa  ‘bird’
c) bu  ‘rice’
d) tuy ‘water’
e) me  ‘meat’
f) la  ‘song’
g) mi  ‘man’
h) sərat ‘cow’
i) larik ‘book’
j) sona ‘gold’
k) muk ‘ink’
l) luŋ ‘stone’
m) tur ‘poison’

n) thir ‘iron’
o) delhi ‘Delhi’
p) paris ‘paris’
q) iril ‘river’
r) lanŋ ‘weed’
s) mot ‘banana’
t) be  ‘bean’
4.1.2 Derived Noun

Derived nouns are formed by affixation. In Sadu Koieng, derived nouns are formed by suffixation to the verbal roots and zero nominalizer.

1. Suffixation of - nuncən to the verbal root.

By suffixing – nuncən to the verb root derived nouns are formed in Sadu Koieng.

Examples

a) \( lam + nuncən \) > \( lam\ nuncən \)
   dance + manner > ‘manner of dancing’

b) \( pa + nuncən \) > \( pa\ nuncən \)
   read + manner > ‘manner of reading’

c) \( busnoŋ + nuncən \) > \( busnoŋ\ nuncən \)
   cook + manner > ‘manner of cooking’

d) \( ce + nuncən \) > \( ce\ nuncən \)
   go + manner > ‘manner of walking’

e) \( cak + nuncən \) > \( cak\ nuncən \)
   eat + manner > ‘manner of eating’

f) \( kerday + nuncən \) > \( kerday\ nuncən \)
play + manner > ‘manner of playing’

4.1.3 Compound Noun

Compound nouns are formed by the combination of noun + noun, noun + verb, noun + adjective, noun + Augmentative and noun + diminutive. They are being discussed below.

i) Noun + Noun > Noun

Examples

a) $ral + mi > ral-mi$
   
   war man ‘soldier’

b) $kha + mul > kha-mul$
   
   chin hair ‘beard’

c) $ar + tuy > ar-tuy$
   
   hen water ‘egg’

d) $ke + mit > ke-mit$
   
   leg eye ‘ankle’

e) $be + əru > be-ru$
   
   bean seed ‘beanseed’
(f) \( t^h \text{ey} + tuy \rightarrow t^h \text{ey}-tuy \\
fruit + water \rightarrow \text{‘fruit juice’}

g) \( bu + bel \rightarrow bu-bel \\
rice + pot \rightarrow \text{‘cooking pot’}

ii) Noun + verb > Noun

Examples

a) \( la + t^h o \rightarrow la-t^h o \\
song + sing \rightarrow \text{‘Singer’}

b) \( inkot + \eta ak \rightarrow inkot-\eta ak \\
door + guard \rightarrow \text{‘Watchman’}

c) \( kowa + ap \rightarrow kowa-ap \\
betel + cut \rightarrow \text{‘Nutcracker’}

d) \( t^h \text{ir} + sui \rightarrow t^h \text{ir}-sui \\
iron + work \rightarrow \text{‘Blacksmith’}

e) \( pon + sui \rightarrow pon-sui \\
cloth + swinge \rightarrow \text{‘Tailor’}

f) \( bu + su\text{on} \rightarrow bu-su\text{on} \\
rice + cook \rightarrow \text{‘Cooker’}
iii) Noun + Augmentative > Noun

In Sadu koireng language some specific suffixes like /-lien/ and /-pi/ are used as epithele to show the quality but this is not always the case. There are words which do not take these two suffixes i.e., /tir/. Among them /lien/ is commonly used while /- pi/ is used in cases of insects etc.

Examples

a)  *sa* +  *lien* >  *sa-lien*  
    animal big  ‘big animal’

b)  *in* +  *lien* >  *in-lien*  
    house big  ‘bighouse’

c)  *thiŋ* +  *lien* >  *thiŋ-lien*  
    tree big  ‘big tree’

d)  *ŋa* +  *lien* >  *ŋa-lien*  
    fish big  ‘big fish’

e)  *uy* +  *lien* >  *uy-lien*  
    dog big  ‘big dog’

f)  *tuy* +  *lien* >  *tuy-lien*  
    water big  ‘flood’

g)  *cikmom* +  *pi* >  *cik-mom-pi*
spider       big      ‘big spider’  

h) \textit{rul} + \textit{pi} > \textit{rul-pi}  

snake       big      ‘python’  

i) \textit{rik} + \textit{pi} > \textit{rik-pi}  

louse       big      ‘big louse’

\textbf{Noun + Diminutive > Noun}

In Sadu Koireng language, there are some peculiar terms used as suffix to denote the sense of tiny as small things. /-tel/ and /-sin/ are commonly used as suffixes. They are used in different objects. As for instance we say /\textit{uy}-tel/ in case of puppy, /\textit{kari}-tel/ in the case of small vehicle and /\textit{in}-tel/ in case of ‘hut’. Again /\textit{ka}-sin/ in case of cabin, /\textit{rəm}-sin/ in case of small land and /\textit{be}-sin/ in case of small pot. More examples are given below.

\textbf{Noun + te}

Examples

a) \textit{sərat} + \textit{te} > \textit{sərat-te}
cow  small  ‘calf’  
b)  ŋaytonŋ  te  >  ŋaytonŋ-te  
cat  small  ‘ketten’  
c)  ar  +  te  >  ar-te  
hen  small  ‘chick’  
d)  uy  +  te  >  uy-te  
dog  small  ‘puppy’  
e)  rul  +  te  >  rul-te  
snake  +  small  ‘small snake’  
f)  in  +  te  >  in-te  
house  small  ‘cottage’  
g)  kari  +  te  >  kari-te  
vehicle  small  ‘vehicle’  

Noun + sin  
i)  bel  +  sin  >  be-sin  
pot  small  ‘smallpot’  
ii)  rowa  +  sin  >  rowa-sin  
bamboo  small  ‘small bamboo’  
iii)  pon  +  sin  >  pon-sin
From the examples given above it is clearly seen that there are specific rules and regulations to be followed in adding the suffixes. Generally /-sin/ is applied in inanimate objects like small plants herbs etc and small insects like mosquito and earthworm etc. /-tel/ is used in animate objects like puppy, calf and kitten etc. Sometimes it is also used in animate objects like small house, small star and small vehicle etc. As in the case of other languages there are exceptions which do not follow rules.
4.2 PRONOUN

A word used instead of a noun is called a pronoun. A term used in the grammatical classification of words, referring to the closed sets of items which can be used to substitute for noun phrase (or single noun) (Crystal, 1985)

In Sadu Koireng language pronoun may be classified into eight kinds. They are given below.

i) Personal pronoun
ii) Possessive pronoun
iii) Demonstrative pronoun
iv) Interrogative pronoun
v) Indefinite pronoun
vi) Reflexive pronoun
vii) Emphatic pronoun
viii) Reciprocal pronoun
4.2.1 Personal Pronoun

Personal Pronouns can be classified into three groups i.e., first, second and third person. Their classifications are shown in the following table.

Table 1. Personal pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td><em>kəy</em></td>
<td><em>əyni</em> (inclusive) / <em>keyni</em> (exclusive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td><em>nəŋ</em></td>
<td><em>nəŋni</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘you (SG)’</td>
<td>‘you (PL)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person</td>
<td><em>əma</em></td>
<td><em>ənmani</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘he/she’</td>
<td>‘they’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples

1. *kəy* *larik* *ki-pa*

   I book PRO read

   ‘I read the book.’
2. ŋəŋ larik ni-pa
   you book PRO read
   ‘You read the book.’

3. ŋəŋ əŋ pa-mo ni-ni
   you what read QM PRO COP
   ‘What are you reading?’

4. əma in-nə larik ə-pa
   he house LOC book PRO read
   ‘He reads book at home.’

5. əy-ni larik kin-pa
   we book PRO(PL) read
   ‘We read the book.’

6. ŋəŋ-ni larik nin-pa
   you(PL) book PRO(PL) read
   ‘You (PL) read the book.’

7. ənma-ni larik ən-pa
   they book PRO(PL) read
   ‘They read the book.’
4.2.2 Possessive Pronoun

A possessive pronoun is the alternative term for the second possessive forms of personal pronouns. The personal pronouns and possessive pronouns are shown in the following table.

Table no. 2 personal pronoun and possessive pronoun

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Personal pronoun</th>
<th>Possessive pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>kəŋ</td>
<td>‘I’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>kəyni</td>
<td>‘we’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>əyni</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>nəŋ</td>
<td>‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>nəŋni</td>
<td>You (pl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>əma</td>
<td>She/he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ənnmani</td>
<td>They</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The personal pronouns and possessive pronouns are differentiated by suffixing /–tal/ to the personal pronouns.

Examples

a) kolom-hi kəy-ta ə-ni
pen this I GEN PRO COP
‘This pen is mine.’

b) kar-hi kəyni-ta ø-ni
car this we GEN PRO COP
‘This car is ours.’

c) hiwahai larik-hai kəyni-ta ø-ni
these book(PL) we GEN PRO COP
‘These books are ours.’

d) So - larik hai so nəŋ-ta ø-ni
DEM those book (PL) DEM you GEN PRO COP
‘Those books are yours (SG).’

e) so larik hay so nəŋni-ta ø-ni
DEM book (PL) DEM your (PL) GEN PRO COP
‘Those books are yours (PL).’

f) hiwa larik hi øma-ta ø-ni
this book DET he GEN PRO COP
‘This is his book.’

g) hiwa lairik hai so ønmani-ta ø-ni
this book PL DEM they GEN PRO COP
‘Those books are their.’
4.2.3 Demonstrative pronoun

The pronouns /hiwahi/ ‘this’, /hiwahal/ ‘that’, /hiwahaihil/ ‘these’ and /sohaisol/ ‘those’ are demonstrative pronouns.

Examples

1. (a) hiwa-hi uy ø-ni
   this DEM dog PRO COP
   ‘This is a dog.’

   (b) hiwa-hi in ø-ni
       this DEM house PRO COP
       ‘This is a house.’

2. (a) hiwa-ha uy kət ø-ni
    that DEM dog one PRO COP
    ‘That is a dog.’

    (b) hiwa-ha in ø-ni
        that DEM house PRO COP
        ‘That is a house.’

3. (a) hiwa-hai-hi sərat-pi ø-ni
    this(PL) DEM cow (F) PRO COP
    ‘These are cows.’
4.2.4 Interrogative pronoun

Pronouns used for asking questions are called Interrogative pronouns. In Sadu koireng language Interrogative pronoun can be made by suffixing the question marker /–mo/ to the pronoun.

Examples

1. hiwa-hi әŋ-mo ә-ni
   this what QM PRO COP
   ‘What is this?’
2. əma khoy-mo ə-ni?
   he who QM PRO COP
   ‘Who is he?’

3. kʰoyjen mo?
   whom QM
   ‘To whom?’

4. kʰoy-ta mo?
   who GEN QM
   ‘Whose?’

5. əŋcəts rel kari-mo con-sik-ni-ni
   which train gari QM catch FUT PRO COP
   ‘Which train will you catch?’

6. əŋ əŋril mo ni-ni
   you what say QM PRO COP
   ‘What do you say?’

4.2.5. Indefinite pronoun

Indefinite pronouns used in Sadu koireng language are /kʰoymoni/ ‘someone’, /kʰoytel/ ‘nobody’, /kʰoytel/ ‘none’ and /mirinrikip/ ‘everybody’ etc.
Examples

i)  $k^h_{oy-mo-ni}$  ø-wa
    some one  PRO come
    ‘Someone comes.’

ii)  hin  $k^h_{oy-mo-ni}$  ø-wa
    here  someone  PRO come
    ‘Someone comes here.’

iii)  mi-$k^h_{ot}$  ø-wa
     man one  PRO come
    ‘Someone comes.’

iv)  $k^h_{oy-te}$  hin  wa  mək–u
    nobody  here  come NEG PL
    ‘Nobody comes here.’

v)  $k^h_{oy-te}$  hən  ləy-om  mək–u
    none  here  live  NEG PL
    ‘None of them was there.’

vi)  mi-$rikip$  $k^h_{uo-ha}$  øn-mə-jəy
    every body  village DEM  PRO(PL) left ASP
    ‘Everybody left their village.’

vii)  mi-$rikip-in$  kəyhi  øn-niŋ-ənse
everybody NOM  me  PRO(PL) love

‘Everybody loves me.’

4.2.6  Emphatic and Reflexive pronouns

The possessive pronoun myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, themselves are compounds formed from the personal pronouns.

1. Emphatic pronoun and
2. Reflexive pronoun

In Sadu koireng language Emphatic pronoun and reflexive pronoun consist of a pronominal prefix attached to the bound root /-tək\kin/ self.

In the emphatic pronoun /-təkl/ is used twice with the pronominal prefixes. But in the reflexive pronoun /-təkl/ is used only once with pronominal prefixes.

Examples

4.2.6.1  Emphatic pronoun

i) kəy ki-tək tək-kin hiwa-cuon-hə ki - ker-ʰo
I PRO self self NOM that work DEM PRO self do

‘I myself do the work.’

\[ ii) \text{kəyni kin-čk tčk kin hiwa-cuon-ha kin-ker-t\textsuperscript{h}o} \]

we PRO self self NOM that work PRO(PL) self do

‘We ourselves do that work.’

\[ iii) \text{nəŋ ni-čk tčk kin hiwa-cuon-ha ni-ker-t\textsuperscript{h}o} \]

you PRO self self NOM that work PRO self do

‘You yourself do that work.’

\[ iv) \text{nəŋni nin-čk tčk kin hiwa-cuon-ha nin-ker-t\textsuperscript{h}o} \]

you (PL) PRO(PL) self self NOM that work PRO(PL) self do

‘You (PL) yourself do that work.’

\[ v) \text{əma ə-čk tčk kin hiwa-cuon-ha ə-ker-t\textsuperscript{h}o} \]

he PRO self self NOM that work PRO self do

‘He himself does that work.’

\[ vi) \text{ənmani ən-čk tčk kin hiwa-cuon-ha ən-ker-t\textsuperscript{h}o} \]

they PRO(PL) self self NOM that work PRO self do

‘They themselves do the work.’

By repeating twice the suffix \textit{l-tčk} indicates the sense of strengthening meaning in this language.
4.2.6.2 Reflexive pronoun

A reflexive pronoun without a reflexive verb cannot indicate the reflexive meaning in the sentence.

Examples

a) *kay ki-tək  kɨn  ki-ker-tʰo*

   I  PRO self  NOM  PRO self do

   ‘I do it myself.’

b) *kəyni  kɨn-tək  kɨn  ki-ker-tʰo*

   we  PRO self  NOM  PRO(PL) self do

   ‘We do ourselves.’

c) *nəŋ  ni-tək  kɨn  ni-tʰo-ro*

   you  PRO self  NOM  PRO do COM (SG)

   ‘You do (it) yourself.’

d) *nəŋ-ni  nin-tək  kɨn  nin-tʰo-ru*

   you(PL)  PRO(PL) self  NOM  PRO(PL) do COM (PL)

   ‘You(PL) do (it) yourselves.’

e) *əma  ə-tək  kɨn  ə-ker-tʰo*

   he  PRO self  NOM  PRO self does

   ‘He does (it) himself.’
4.2.7 Reciprocal pronoun - /khət – le – khət/

The term is used to refer to classes which express the meaning of mutual relationship e.g. reciprocal pronoun; such as each other, or ‘reciprocal verbs’, such as meet. (Crystal D, 1985)

In Sadu Koireng language reciprocal pronoun is indicated by /lkʰət le kʰət/ ‘with each other or with one another’.

Examples

a) ənmani kʰət-le-kʰət ən - ker wok
they one another PRO(PL) another fight
‘They fight with one another.’

b) pətəte kin-ni kʰət-le-kʰət ən-ker wok
boy two each other PRO(PL) each other beat
‘The two boys beat with each other.’
4.3 VERB

The grammatical term ‘verb’ can be used to refer to class of words, like be, happen, and kill. It is also to refer to one part of a clause or sentence (when it is sometimes referred to us the verb phrase). This is how it is being used in the section. (Jonathan 2008, p.3)

As in the case of other languages there are two kinds of verbs in Sadu Koireng. They are pure verbs and copula verbs.

4.3.1 Pure Verbs and Copula Verbs

In Sadu Koireng pure verbs are formed by affixation to the roots as they are bound and they function as a full verb after affixation. The following affixes – 1. prefix and 2. suffix which are added to the verbal root are given below.

4.3.1.1 Pronominal prefixes First person singular prefix /ki –/

Examples

a)  kǝɣ  bu  ki-cak

I  rice  PRO eat

‘I eat rice.’
b) kəγ ca ki-in

I tea PRO drink

‘I drink tea.’

c) kəγ larik ki-pa

I book PRO read

‘I read a book.’

First person plural number /kin-/ and /ni/

Examples

a) kəγni tʰəγ kin-cak

we fruit PRO(PL) eat

‘We eat fruit.’

b) əγni bu ni-cak

we rice PRO (PL) eat

‘We eat rice.’

c) kəγni tuy kin-in

we water PRO (PL) drink

‘We drink water.’

d) əγni larik ni-i
we book PRO(PL) write

‘We write book.’

e) kəŋni kin-hoŋ
we PRO (PL) come

‘We come.’

Second person singular prefix /ni/ –

Examples

a) nəŋ tʊŋ ni-in
you water PRO drink

‘You drink water.’

b) nəŋ ŋa ni-cak
you fish PRO eat

‘You eat fish.’

c) nʊŋ komila ni-cak
you orange PRO eat.

‘You eat orange.’

d) nəŋ skul-la ni-ce
you skul LOC PRO go

‘You go to school.’
e) ⁿəŋ ca ni-in

you tea PRO drink

‘You drink tea.’

Third person plural prefix /nin/-

Examples

a) ⁿəŋni ŭ gü nin-in

you (PL) water PRO(PL) drink.

‘You (PL) drink water.’

b) ⁿəŋni komila nin-cak

you (PL) orange PRO(PL) eat

‘You eat orange.’

c) ⁿəŋni skul-la nin-ce

you (PL) school LOC PRO (PL) go

‘You (PL) go to school.’

d) ⁿəŋni ca nin-in

you (PL) tea PRO drink

‘You (PL) drink tea.’
Third person singular prefix, /ə/

a) əma tuy ə-in

he water PRO drink

‘He drinks water.’

b) əma əjə ə-cak

he fish PRO eat

‘He eats fish.’

c) əma komila ə-cak

he orange PRO eat

‘He eats orange.’

d) əma skul-la ə-ce

he school LOC PRO go

‘He goes to school.’

e) əma ca ə-in

he tea PRO drink

‘He drinks tea.’
Third person plural prefix /ənλ-

Examples

a) ənman tuy ən-in

    they water PRO (PL) drink

    ‘They drink water.’

b) ənmani ŋa ən-cak

    the fish PRO (PL) eat

    ‘They eat fish.’

c) ənmani komila ən-cak

    they orange PRO (PL) eat

    ‘They eat orange.’

d) ənmani skul-la ən-ce

    they school LOC PRO (PL) go

    ‘They go to school.’

4.3.1.2 Negative Markers

There are three negative markers 1) /-məkl/, 2) /– no/ and /-ləyl/. They are different in the usage /- məkl/ is used in realized or non-future markers, /–no/ is used in unrealized or future markers and /-ləyl/ is used in
morphological level. The negative suffix /-mək/ is followed by different suffixes according to the number of the subject. If the subject is first person singular number the negative suffix /-mək/ should be followed by /-iŋ/. In the plural number of the same person /-mək/ should be followed by /-uŋ/. In the second person singular /-mək/ is followed by /-cil/. In the plural number of the same person /-mək/ is followed by /-ci-ul/. In the third person singular number /-mək/ should not be followed any suffix. But in the third person plural number /-mək/ should be followed by /– ul/. The examples are given below.

**Realized or non-future - /mək/**

a) kəy ŋa ca-mək-iŋ

I fish eat NEG(SG)

‘I do not eat fish.’

b) nəŋ ŋa ca-mək-ci

you fish eat NEG (SG)

‘You do not eat fish.’

c) kəyni ŋa ca-mək-uŋ

we(PL) fish eat NEG (PL)

‘We do not eat fish.’
d) nəŋ ŋa ca-mək-ci
   you(SG) fish eat NEG (SG)
   ‘You do not eat fish.’

e) nəŋni ŋa ca-mək–ci–u
   you (PL) fish eat NEG SG(PL)
   ‘You (PL) do not eat fish.’

f) əma ŋa ca-mək
   he fish eat NEG
   ‘He does not eat fish.’

g) ənmani ŋa ca-mək–u
   they fish eat NEG (PL)
   ‘They do not eat fish.’

h) ənmani zu–in mək–u
   they liquor drink NEG (PL)
   ‘They do not drink liquor.’

Unrealized or Future marker /– no/.

In the first person singular number the negative suffix /–no/ should
be followed by /–niŋ/. In the plural number of the same person /–no/
should be followed by /–ni-ung/. In the second person, singular number should be followed by /–tini/. In the plural number of the same person /–no/ should be followed by /–tini–ul/. In the third person singular number the negative suffix-no should be followed by /–nil/.

In the third person plural number /–no/ is followed by /–ni-ul/.

Examples are shown below.

Examples

a) kəy tuy in-no-niŋ
   I water drink NEG (SG) UNR
   ‘I will not drink water.’

b) kəyni tuy in-no-ni-ung
   we (PL) water drink NEG(PL) UNR
   ‘We will not drink water.’

c) nəŋ tuy inno tini
   you water drink NEG (SG) UNR
   ‘You will drink water.’

d) nəŋni tuy in no-tini–u
   you (PL) water drink NEG (PL) UNR
   ‘You (PL) will not drink water.’
e) əma  tøy  in-no-ni
he  water  drink  NEG (SG)  UNR
‘He will drink water.’

f) ənmani  tøy  in-no-ni-u
they  water  drink  NEG (PL)  UNR
‘They will not drink water.’

**Negative question marker - */lay/**

In Sadu Koireng language, the negative question is constructed by the suffixation of the negative marker */lay/ to the verbal roots. They are as shown below.

a) ən  larik  pa mo  ni-ni  ?
‘Do you read the book?’

b) ən  ŋa  mo  ca-mək – ci
you  fish  QM  eat  NEG (SG)
‘Don’t you eat fish?’

c) ən  larik  mo  paləy  sik-ni  ?
‘Will not you read the book?’

d) ən  kʰəbər  pa-ləy  mo  ni-ni
‘Don’t you read paper?’

e)  nəŋ ŋa  ca-ləy  mo ni-ni  ?
you  fish  eat  NEG  QM  PRO  COP

‘Don’t you eat fish?’

f)  nəŋ  larik  pa-ləy  mo nini
you  book  read  NEG  QM  PRO  COP

‘Don’t you read book?’

4.3.1.3. Imperative markers

It will be interesting to have a clear knowledge of using suffixes of imperative in the Sadu koireng language. There are two suffixes namely /–ro/ and /–ru/. /–ro/ is used in singular number and /–ru/ is used in plural number. In this language there are three types of imperatives, they are 1) command, 2) request and 3) let imperative.

1. Command

The suffix /-ro/ is added to the action verb to indicate the meaning of command or order.
Examples

a) (ŋəŋ) bu cak-ro

(you) rice eat COM (SG)

‘You(SG) eat the rice.’

b) (ŋəŋ) wa-ro

(you) come COM (SG)

‘(You) come on.’

c) (ŋəŋ) tuy in mək-ro

(you) water drink NEG COM (SG)

‘(You) Don’t drink water.’

d) (ŋəŋ) høŋ–ro

(you) come COM (SG)

‘(You) come on.’

e) (ŋəŋ) ce mək–ro

(you) go NEG COM (SG)

‘(You) don’t go.’
2. **Request**

In this language request is made through the suffixation of */–pek*/ to the verb root. It is followed by the command marker */–ro* and */–ru*.

Examples

a) \(nəŋ \ rəypar \ hi \ ni-k^e_k \ pek- \ ro\)

(you) flower this PRO pluck REQ COM (SG)

‘(You) please pluck the flower.’

b) \((nəŋ) \ ca \ ni-in \ pek-ro\)

(you) tea PRO drink REQ COM (SG)

‘(You) please drink tea.’

c) \((nəŋ) \ key \ ki-wa \ mək \ ləy-çəŋ \ hin \ ni-om \ pek-ro\)

(you) I PRO come NEG till here PRO live REQ COM (SG)

‘Please live here till I come.’

d) \(niŋsiet-əka \ dəŋka \ əlek \ ni-pek-ro\)

please money some PRO REQ COM (SG)

‘Please give me some money.’

e) \(niŋsiet- tôka \ ni-miŋ \ ni-ril \ pek-ro\)

please name PRO say REQ COM (SG)

‘Please tell me your name.’
Prohibitive /-mək-ru/

a) (nəŋni)  hoy  mək- ru
(you PL) come  NEG COM(PL)
‘(you PL) Don’t come.’

b) (nəŋni)  tʰəyhay  ca-mək- ru
(you PL) mango  eat  NEG COM(PL)
‘(you PL) Don’t eat mango.’

c) (nəŋni)  ziŋteŋ  wa  mək-ru
(you PL) to-morrow  come  NEG COM(PL)
‘(you PL) Don’t come to-morrow.’

d) (nəŋni)  mirimil  en  mək-ru
(you PL) picture  look  NEG COM(PL)
‘(you PL) Don’t look picture.’

e) (nəŋni)  tən  mək- ru
(you PL) run  NEG COM(PL)
‘(you PL) Don’t run.’

Let negative /–roy/

a) əyni  tuy  in- mək – roy
we  water  drink  NEG let
‘Let us not drink water (inclusive).’

b) əyni zu in - mək – roy
we wine drink NEG let
‘Let us not drink wine (exclusive).’

c) kəyni ca in - mək – roy
we tea drink NEG let
‘Let us not drink tea (exclusive).’

d) kəyni tʰəy ca mək – roy
we fruit eat NEG let
‘Let us not eat fruit (exclusive).’

4.3.1.4. Other Verbal Affixes

Mood /-nom/

a) kəy ə ya ki-ca-nom
I fish PRO eat MD
‘I like to eat fish.’

b) kəy me ki-ca – nom
I meat PRO eat MD
‘I like to eat meat.’

c) kəy in ki-ce-nom
I house PRO go MD
‘I like to go home.’

d)  \(kəy\)  bu  ki-ca – nom
I  rice  PRO eat MD
‘I like to eat rice.’

e)  \(kəy\)  mirimil  ki-en-nom
I  picture  PRO look MD
‘I like to look picture.’

Causative marker /–min/

a)  \(ən-pa\)  hən  ən-ca-hai  ha  ə-ləy  min wa
their father  NOM  their children  that  PRO ASP cause come
‘The father caused to come their children.’

b)  numəy-hən  ŋa  hai  ha  ə-ləy  min suŋ
women NOM  fish (PL)  that  PRO ASP cause cook
‘The women caused to cook the fish.’

c)  ənu-hən  nay- ha  ə-ləy  min cap
the mother NOM  child  that  PRO ASP  cause cry
‘The mother caused to cry the child.’
Reflexive markers /-tək/

a) kəy ki-tək kin cuon-ha ki-təho
   I PRO self NOM work that PRO do
   ‘I do the work myself.’

b) əma ə-tak kin larik ha ə-pa
   he PRO self NOM book that PRO read.
   ‘He read the book himself.’

Intensive marker /-cək/

In Sadu koireng language /-cək/ indicates intensive marker.

Examples

a) kəy ca in cək məkin
   I tea drink INTEN NEG (SG)
   ‘I drink tea oftenly.’

b) kəy ləy-ca cək mək–un
   I ASP eat INTEN NEG (PL)
   ‘I did not eat oftenly.’

c) ənmani ləy-ce cək mək–u
   they ASP go INTEN NEG(PL)
‘They did not go oftenly.’

d) əma  lay  wa- cək  mək

he  ASP  come  INTEN  NEG

‘He did not come oftenly.’

e) ənymani  lay-təo  cək  mək – u

they  ASP  do  INTEN  NEG  (PL)

‘They did not do oftenly.’

f) kəy  ki-løy-təo  cək

I  PRO  ASP  do  INTEN

‘I did oftenly.’


a)  tàn  +  əcuŋ-əŋ-ŋə  əcuŋ-əŋ-ŋə-tən

to run  upward  ‘to run up’

b)  tàn  +  ətʰoy-əŋ-ŋə  ətʰoy-əŋ-ŋə-təŋ

to run  downward  ‘to run down’

c)  wa  +  lut  wa-lut

to come  inward  ‘come in’
Verb forms

There are six verb forms in this language. They are given below.

1. Pronominal + root > verb
   a) \( ki + ce \) > \( ki-ce \)
      PRO go ‘(I) go’
   b) \( ki + wa \) > \( ki-wa \)
      PRO come ‘(I) come’
   c) \( ki + ca \) > \( ki-ca \)
      PRO eat ‘(I) eat’

2. Pronominal + root + aspect > verb
a) \( ki + ca + jəy \) > \( ki-ca-jəy \)
   PRO eat asp ‘(I) ate’

b) \( ki + tʰo + jəy \) > \( ki-tʰo-jəy \)
   PRO do aspect ‘(I) did’

c) \( ki + ləy + wa \) > \( ki-ləy-wa \)
   PRO ASP come ‘(I) came’

3. Pronominal + aspect + root > verb
   a) \( ki + lə + cak \) > \( ki-lə-cak \)
      PRO + prog. eat ‘(I am) eating’
   b) \( ki + lə + ce \) > \( ki-lə-ce \)
      PRO prog. go ‘(I am) going’
   c) \( ki + lə + wa \) > \( ki-lə-wa \)
      PRO prog. come ‘(I am) coming’

4. Root + NEG > verb
   a) \( wa + mək \) > \( wa-mək \)
      come NEG ‘not come’
   b) \( tʰo + mək \) > \( tʰo-mək \)
      do NEG ‘not do’
c) $in + mək > in-mək$

drink NEG ‘not drink’

5. Root + aspect + intensive suffix – verb

a) $ce + jəy + cək > ce-ləy-cək$

go ASP INTEN ‘Let me go’

b) $en + jəy + cək > ən-ləy-cək$

look asp INTEN ‘Let me look’

c) $mu + ləy + cək > mu-ləy-cək$

see ASP INTEN ‘Let me see’

d) $pa + ləy + cək > pa-lə-cək$

read ASP INTEN ‘Let me read’

Root + imperative > verb

a) $ce + ro > ce-ro$

go COM(SG) ‘go (COM IMP)’

b) $tʰo + ro > tʰo-ro$

do COM(SG) ‘do it (COM IMP)’
4.3.1.5 Copula Verb

The types of verb that connects a subject with its complement is called a copula verb. In the sentence Tom became angry the ‘became’ is copula. In this sentence the subject Tom and subjective complement angry is linking by the copula verb ‘became’. The copula in Sadu Koireng is /-ni/

Examples

a)  kəy zon  ki-ni

I    john    PRO COP

‘I am john.’

b)  kəyni oca    kin-ni

we   teacher PRO (PL) COP

‘We are teacher.’

c)  nəŋ satra    ø-ni
you student PRO COP

‘You are student.’

d) _overlay

you (PL) teacher (PL) PRO(PL) COP

‘You (PL) are teachers.’

In the examples given above (a) /nil/ is a copula and is used as a linking verb such as ‘kəy zon kini’, in this sentence the subject John and subjective complement John is linked by the copula /–nil/.

4.4 ADJECTIVE

An adjective is a word that describes a noun or pronoun e.g., red, clever, depressed, betered etc. In Sadu Koireng language adjective can be used either before or after of a noun e.g., /əciŋ miriŋ/ ‘wise man’ and /mi kinnil/ ‘two persons’. Here /əciŋ/ is used before the noun /miriŋ/ ‘man’ and /kinnil/ ‘two’ is used after the noun /mil/ ‘man’.

Exmaples

a) _overlay

I he ACC dead body PRO ASP found
‘I found him dead.’

b) əmanu hi ətʰə-sieta ki-mu

she DET lazy PRO sees

‘She seems to be lazy.’

c) ənma - hi əciŋŋa ki-mu

they DET clever as PRO sees

‘They seem to be clever.’

d) əma-hi ətəm - rata ki-mu

he DET very brave PRO sees

‘He seems to be very brave.’

In the sentence (a) dead is adjective. It qualifies the pronoun him. In Sadu Koireng language /kəyin əmako ətʰisa kiləyban/. Here /ətʰisə/ ‘dead body’ is adjective and /əmako/ ‘him’ is pronoun.

In sentence (b) /ətʰəsietə/ ‘lazy’ is adjective and /əmanu/ is pronoun.

In sentence (e) /əciŋŋal/ ‘as a wise’ is adjective and /ənmal/ ‘they’ is pronoun. Here adjectives are used after pronouns.

Adjective following a noun /mi-kʰətl/ ‘one man’

a) mi-kʰət
man  one  
N   ADJ
‘one man’

b) *pasəl-kin-*\textsuperscript{th}um

man  three  
N   ADJ
‘three man’

Adjective phrase can be used only before a noun

c) *əciŋ - mi*

wise  man  
ADJ   N
‘wise man’

**Kinds of Adjectives**

In Sadu Koireng language there are six kinds of adjectives. They are as follows.

i) Adjective of quality (white, black, red etc.)

ii) Adjective of quantity (e.g. some, many, little few etc.)

iii) Adjective of numerals (e.g. one, two, three etc.)
iv) Adjective of demonstrative (e.g. that, this, those etc.)

v) Adjective of possessors (e.g. Tom’s, the population of Imphal etc.)

vi) Adjective of comparison (e.g. better, greater wiser etc.)

4.4.1 Adjective of quality

Those adjectives which tell us what kind of persons or things are called adjectives of quality.

Examples

a) əciŋ-mirin ‘wise man’

b) əsa-posél ‘good boy’

c) əsa-larik ‘good book’

It is to note that if the noun is followed by adjective the prefix is deleted.

Examples

a) mirin-ciŋ ‘a wise man’
man wise

b) *uy-lien* ‘a big dog’

dog big

c) *pəsəl-lien* ‘a big man’

man big

The pronominal prefix /ki-/, /ni-/ and /ə-/ can be added to the verb for making adjective.

Examples

a) *ki-pa-sik*  

PRO read FUT paper

‘The paper which I have to read.’

b) *ni-pa-sik*  

PRO read FUT lesson

‘The lesson which you have to read.’

c) *ə-pa-sik*  

PRO read FUT lesson

‘The lesson which he/she shall read.’
Adjective formation without pronominal prefix /-ə/

Examples

a)  *pa-ləy - sik*  *para*
    read NEG FUT  lesson
    ‘The lesson which is not to be read.’

b)  *pa - sik*  *para*
    read FUT  lesson
    ‘The lesson which is to be read.’

c)  *in - ləy - sik*  *tuy*
    drink NEG FUT  water
    ‘The water which is not to be drunk.’

d)  *in  sik  tuy*
    drink FUT water
    ‘The water which is to be drunk.’

In a sentence the position of adjective and noun can be interchanged along with the other morphological suffixes, either to the noun or adjective. They are as follows.
Examples

a) əsa nay – paŋ  hai  hi

good  boy  (PL)  DET

‘These good boys.’

b) nay - paŋ  əsa - hai –hi

boy  good  (PL)  DET

‘These good boys.’

In the above examples (a) /əsal/ ‘good’ is an adjective denoting quality where the suffix /hai/ ‘plural’ /-hil/ ‘this’, directly occurs after the noun /ŋaypaŋ/ ‘boy’. The adjective /əsal/ ‘good’ occurs before the noun /nay pəŋ/. In the sentence (b), the adjective occurs after the noun /naypəŋ/ and takes all the suffixes that the noun take (i.e., əsa haihi).

4.4.2 Adjective of quantity

Adjective of quantity may express a definite number like two, seven or twenty or an indefinite number or amount like few, some, several, much or many.
In Sadu Koireng language there are some words expressing adjective of quantity e.g. /ətəml/ ‘many’ /əlek/ ‘some’ these words are used before the noun.

a)  

\[
\text{mi} - \text{ətəm} \quad \text{ən-wa}
\]

man many PRO come.

‘Many man come.’

b)  

\[
\text{mi} - \text{əlek} \quad \text{ən-wa}
\]

man some PRO come

‘Some man come.’

In the above example (a) and (b) the adjectives /əlek/ occur after the modified noun /mi/ ‘man’

### 4.4.3 Adjective of Numeral

Cardinal number means whole number representing quantity and ordinal number means any number showing position or order.

For example, 1, 2, 3, 4 etc are cardinal numbers and 1\(^{\text{st}}\), 2\(^{\text{nd}}\), 3\(^{\text{rd}}\) etc. are ordinal numbers.
In Sadu Koireng language /kʰətl/ ‘one’, /kinni/ ‘two’, /kinitʰum/ ‘three’ etc are cardinal numbers and /məsəkbəkl/, /kinni Sunal, /kinitʰum sunal/ are ordinal numbers.

Examples

a) kəy larik kin-ni ə-ni
   I book two PRO COP
   ‘I have two books.’

b) əma kin-ni sunə ə-ni
   he two ORD PRO COP
   ‘He is the 2nd one.’

Here, ‘two’ in the first sentence /kinni/ is cardinal adjective and /kinni sunal/ in the second sentence is ordinal adjective.

a) ənmani som larik ən-ni.
   They ten book PRO(PL) COP
   ‘They have ten books.’

b) kəy car- kʰət ki-om
   I car one PRO have
   ‘I have one car.’
4.4.4 Adjectives of Demonstrative

Adjectives used to point out something or somebody is called Adjectives of demonstrative.

Examples

a) hiwa nəy  hi

this  child  DEM

‘This child.’

b) hiwa  larik  ha

this  book  DEM

‘That book.’

c) hiwa  larik  hai-hi

this  book  (PL) DEM

‘These books.’

d) so  nay  so

that  child  that

‘That child.’

In Sadu Koireng language there are five demonstrative adjectives.

They are /hiwahil/, /hiwahal/, /hiwa hai hil/, /hiwahai hai/ and /so hai sol/. 
In such context noun which they modify are inserted in between the two morphemes –/hiwal and /hil/ or /hiwal/ and /hal/ and /sol/ and /sol/.

Examples

a) hiwa larik-hi
   this book DEM
   ‘This book.’

b) hiwa nay - ha
   this child DEM
   ‘That child.’

c) hiwa larik - hai- hi
   this book (PL) DEM
   ‘These books.’

d) hiwa uy hai - ha
   this dog (PL) DEM
   ‘These dogs.’

e) so - nay - hai - so
   DEM child (PL) DEM
   ‘Those children.’
4.4.5 Possessive adjective

Adjectives showing possessor or desire to own is known as possessive adjective. For examples my, mine, our, ours, their, theirs they are generally used before nouns and mine, ours, these are used after nouns.

Examples

a) hiwa-hi  kəy-tə  larik ə-ni
   this DEM 1 POSS  book PRO COP
   ‘This book is mine.’

b) hiwa-hi  kəy-ta  kolom ə-ni
   this DEM 1 POSS  pen PRO COP
   ‘This pen is mine.’

In the examples given above /kəytəl/ ‘mine’ /nəytəl/ ‘your’ and /əmtəl/ ‘his’ are possessive adjective.

4.4.6 Comparative adjective

Adjectives denoting the sense of comparison are known as comparative adjective. This adjective can be divided into positive, comparative and superlative degrees. Specific rules for example, in English,
are there to form comparative and superlative from positive, by adding –er, 
ier comparative and by adding –est or iest superlative degree is formed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>higher</td>
<td>highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry</td>
<td>drier</td>
<td>driest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy</td>
<td>happier</td>
<td>happiest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More and most are use in the comparative and superlative degree when the adjective in the position is more than one syllable.

Examples

Intelligent

More intelligent

Most intelligent

In Sadu Koireng language there are three forms of comparison.

They are (i) positive (ii) comperative and (iii) superlative. Comparative and superlative degrees are formed by adding \textit{l–dedl} and \textit{l–tekl} to the positive forms.
Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. alien</td>
<td>aliended</td>
<td>alienest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. esa</td>
<td>esaded</td>
<td>esatok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. esan</td>
<td>esanched</td>
<td>esantok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tall</td>
<td>taller</td>
<td>tallast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ecin</td>
<td>ecined</td>
<td>ecintok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wise</td>
<td>wiser</td>
<td>wisest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. etom</td>
<td>etomet</td>
<td>etomtak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheaper</td>
<td>cheapest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. eday</td>
<td>edaydet</td>
<td>edaytak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cold</td>
<td>cooler</td>
<td>coolest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5. ADVERB

An adverb is a word that modifies how the action is done or in other words an adverb is a modifying word to the verb, adjective and adverb. Adverbs are categorized on the basis of information it provides.
Generally adverbs are of five kinds. They are as follows:

1. Adverbs of manner
2. Adverbs of place
3. Adverbs of time
4. Adverbs of degree
5. Interrogative adverbs

4.5.1. Adverbs of manner

These adverbs tell us that in which manner the action occurs or how the action is done.

Examples

(1) He writes badly. (2) He spends the money foolishly.

Here badly and foolishly are adverbs of manner.

In Sadu Koireng language examples of adverbs of manner are given below.

a) ṣma zam-ma ṣ-ca
   he slow-ly ADV PRO eat
   ‘He eats slowly.’

b) ṣma-nu ruk-ka ṣ-cap
   she quiet-ly ADV PRO cry
‘She cries quietly.’

c) \( \text{ram} \quad \text{ənək-təka} \quad \text{ən-uy} \)

\( \text{ram} \quad \text{loud-ly ADV} \quad \text{PRO(PL) laughing} \)

‘Ram is laughing loudly.’

d) \( \text{əma} \quad \text{ərap-təka} \quad \text{ə-ca} \)

\( \text{he} \quad \text{quick-ly ADV} \quad \text{PRO eat} \)

‘He eats quickly.’

e) \( \text{ənnu} \quad \text{əlok-təka} \quad \text{ə-ce} \)

\( \text{she} \quad \text{very fast ADV} \quad \text{PRO go} \)

‘She goes very fast.’

In the above examples (a) /zammal ‘slowly’ functions as an adverb modifying the verb /əcal ‘eat’ and expresses how the action is done. (i.e. slowly). /zammal is derived from the adjective /zam/ ‘slow’ by the suffixation of /mal/. In the sentence (b) /rukka ‘quietly’ functions as an adverb modifying the verb /əcapl ‘cry’ and is derived from the adverb /ruk/ ‘quiet’ by the suffixation of adverbial marker /-kal/. More examples of these kinds are given below.

a). \( \text{zam-ma} \quad \text{‘slowly’} \)
b). \( \text{ərap-təka} \quad \text{‘quickly’} \)
c). \( \text{əciŋ-ŋa} \quad \text{‘wisely’} \)
4.5.2. Adverb of place

Adverb of place will indicate the place of action or where the action is performed or will perform.

Examples

a. The train stops at Gauhati station.

b. We would go to Calcutta next year.

In these sentences Gauhati and Calcutta are adverbs of place.

Examples from Sadu Koireng are given below.

a) əŋə-ni  hiwa-hən  ce-ro

you (PL)  there  go COM

‘You (PL) go there.’

b) əma  senapəti-ya  ə-om

he  senapati ADVP  PRO live

‘He lives at Senapati.’

c) əma  kʰu-o-wa  ə-ce

he  village ADVP  PRO go
‘He goes to the village.’

In the above sentences (a) /hiwahən/ ‘there’ (b) /senapətiyal/ ‘senapati’ and (e) /khuowal/ ‘village’ are adverb of places.

4.5.3. Adverb of time

The adverb of time indicates the time of action for example, ‘now’, ‘then’, ‘tomorrow’ etc.

Examples

1. The train will start at 7 p.m.
2. Get up early in the morning.

Here 7 p.m. and early are adverbs of time.

In Sadu Koireng language examples are given below.

a) əma puy səri-ya wa ə-te
   he   hour 7 a.m. ADVT   come   PRO FUT
   ‘He will come at 7 a.m.’

b) tomba wen wa-ə-te
   tomba today ADVT   come   PRO FUT
   ‘Tomba will come to-day.’

c) əma nithouka -ni wa ə-te
He will come on Monday.

d) kay ziŋteŋ cey-ŋ ki-te
   I to-morrow ADVT go(SG) PRO FUT
   ‘I will go to-morrow.’

In the examples given above- /səriyal/ ‘7 a.m.’, /wen/ ‘today’,
/nithouka nil/ ‘Monday’, and /ziŋteŋ/ ‘to-morrow’ are adverbs of time. Some
more examples of adverbs of time are given below.

   a. ziŋteŋ           ‘to-morrow’
   b. wen              ‘to-day’
   c. ətun             ‘now’
   d. nijan            ‘day before yesterday’
   e. yanteŋ           ‘yesterday’
   f. puŋ               ‘hour’
   g. kum              ‘year’
   h. nitak            ‘evening’
   i. nikʰuo           ‘day’
4.5.4. Adverb of degree

Adverb of degree indicates about the intensity or degree of an action, an adjective or another adverb. Common adverbs of degrees in English are ‘almost’, ‘nearly’, ‘quite’, ‘just’, ‘hardly’, ‘very’, ‘extremely’ etc.

In Sadu Koireng language /ətəm/ ‘very’, /ələk/ ‘little’ and /ətəle/ ‘extra or excess’ etc are adverbs of degree.

Examples

a) əma ətəm ə-sa
   he very DEG PRO good
   ‘He is very good.’

b) əma-hi əlek sa
   he DET little DEG good
   ‘He is little good.’

c) ətəle ni-pe-ro
   extra DEG PRO give IMP
   ‘Give me extra.’

d) hiwa - hi ətəm ədəy
   It is quite DEG cool
   ‘It is quite cool.’
In the above given sentences a) /ətəm/ ‘very’, /əlekl/ ‘little’ /ətələl/ ‘extra’ etc are used as adverbs of degree.

4.5.5. Interrogative adverbs

Adverbs which are used for asking questions are known as interrogative adverbs. In Sadu Koiyeng the following examples are illustrative of them.

Examples

(a) \( nən \ \eta\text{tik}-\text{mo} \ \text{wa-sik} \ \text{ni-ni} ? \)

you when come FUT PRO COP

‘When will you come?’

(b) \( nən \ \text{hona-mo} \ \text{ce-sik} \ \text{mo-ni} \)

you where go FUT QM COP

‘Where will you go?’

(c) \( nən \ \text{ni-nay-nu} \ \eta\text{jət} \ \text{mo} \ \eta\text{n-ni} \)

you PRO sister how many QM PRO(PL) COP

‘How many sisters do you have?’

(d) \( nən \ \eta\text{jara} \ \cap \ \text{mo} \ \text{ni-ni} \)

you why cry QM PRO COP

‘Why are you crying?’
In the above given examples /əŋtikmol/ ‘when’, /honamol/ ‘where’, /əŋjət/ ‘how’ and /əŋjaral/ ‘why’ are interrogative adverbs.

4.6 CASE

Case is a grammatical category used in the analysis of a word classes to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence through such contrasts as nominative, accusative, etc. (Crystal D, 1985, p.42)

Cases are inflected forms for nouns which fit them for participation in key constructions relative to verbs. (Hockett, p - 234).

4.6.1 Classification of case

In Sadu Koireng there are seven classes of case suffixes. They are given below.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>-in ~ - n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>-ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>-in ~ -a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4.| Genitive | a) – ta  
<p>|   |   | b) Pronoun + ø possessive |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>c) Noun + Ø possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>lə-phut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Locative</td>
<td>-ə, -hən, -lə, -ŋa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Associative</td>
<td>-le, -wum, yum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.6.2 NOMINATIVE: /-in ~ -n/ 

Nominative marker is indicated by /-in ~ -n/.

The morpheme [in] is manifested as [n] when the preceding sound is /a, u, i/. This is illustrated by the following examples.

- a) *kəy-in ŋa ki-cur*
  
  I NOM fish PRO catch

  ‘I catch fish.’

- b) *kəy-in əma ki-wok*
  
  I NOM he PRO beat

  ‘I beat him.’

- c) *kəyni-n əma kin - mu*
  
  we NOM he PRO(PL) see

  ‘We see him.’

- d) *əma-n kəy ə-mu*
he NOM I PRO see

‘He sees me.’

e) ənu-n ə-ca ha ə-ŋo

mother NOM PRO child DET PRO scold

‘The mother scolds her child.’

f) əma-n bu ə-cak

eath NOM rice PRO eat

‘He eats rice.’

g) saratpi-n sərnutuy ə-pek

cow NOM milk PRO give

‘The cow gives milk.’

h) əmanu-hə-n kəy ə-ni-mu

she DET NOM I PRO COP see

‘She sees me.’

i) naypənte- hə-n kəy ə-ni-mu

child DET NOM I PRO COP see

‘The child sees me.’

j) ənmani - hə-n ə-ŋə ə-ni-mu

they DET NOM you PRO COP see

‘They see you.’
k) $k^h$upson- $\text{in} \quad \text{tom} \quad \text{ha} \quad \text{ŋəsə}$

$k^h$upson NOM tom ACC PRO love

‘Khupsong loves Tom.’

l) $\text{ŋnu-}n \quad \text{ŋ-ca} \quad \text{ha} \quad \text{ŋ-yo}$

mother NOM her child ACC PRO scold

‘The mother scolds her child.’

4.6.3. **Accusative**

Accusative case suffix in Sadu koiireng is – $\text{ha}$.

a) $k\text{əy} \text{in} \quad \text{ram-} \text{ha} \quad \text{ki-mu-} \text{jəy}$

I ram ACC PRO see ASP

‘I saw Ram.’

b) $k\text{əy-} \text{in} \quad \text{səloyp}i \quad - \quad \text{ha} \quad \text{ki-mu}$

I NOM she buffalo ACC PRO see

‘I see the she-buffalo.’

c) $\text{ŋnu-}n \quad \text{ŋ-ca} \quad \text{ha} \quad \text{ŋ-kəy}$

mother NOM her child ACC PRO call

‘The mother calls her child.’

d) $k^h$uprel- $\text{in} \quad \text{tom} \quad - \quad \text{ha} \quad \text{ŋəsə}$

Khuprel NOM tom ACC PRO love
‘Khuprel loves Tom.’

4.6.4. Instrumental

The instrumental suffix in Sadu Koireng is /-in ~ - al/. When the instrumental suffix is followed by a word with vowel /ə-,/ then it is changed to /-al/ in the examples (e) and (f). The following examples illustrate this.

Examples

a) \textit{kəyni}n \textit{zotpak-}in \textit{nəypil} \textit{kin-ca}y

we spade INST ground/field PRO(PL) dig.

‘We dig with a spade.’

b) \textit{kəy} \textit{kolom-}in \textit{ki-i}

I pen INST PRO write

‘I write with a pen.’

c) \textit{kəy} \textit{ki-kʰut-}tin \textit{bu} \textit{ki-ca}

I PRO hand INST PRO eat.

‘I eat with my hand.’

d) \textit{əma-n} \textit{mol-}in \textit{rul} \textit{ə-tʰət}

he stick INST snake PRO kill.

‘He kill the snake with a stick.’

e) \textit{ram} \textit{əma} \textit{molla} \textit{ə-wok}
Ram he stick INST PRO beat

‘Ram beats him with a stick.’

f) ṣma-n thiŋkuŋ-ha ṛy-ya ṛ-tən
   he NOM tree DET axe PRO cut.

‘He cuts the tree with an axe.’

4.6.5 Genitive

The uses of possessive pronoun like my, mine, your, yours, their, theirs etc. carry different expressions in the Sadu Koireng language. In the case of sentences using my, your, his/her and our there will be no possessive markers. Examples are given in the following sentences.

1. First person singular
   a) larik kəy-larik
      book I GEN book
      ‘my book’
   b) kari kəy- kari
      I φ GEN car
      ‘my car’
   c) skul kəy- skul
      ‘school’ I φ GEN school
‘my school’

d) mersa  

\[ \text{kɔy- mersa} \]

bag  

I  \( \phi \) GEN bag  

‘my bag’

Some more examples are given below.

a) hiwa-hi  

\[ \text{naŋ} \text{ larik} \ ə-ni \]

this DEM  

you  

book  

PRO COP  

‘This is your book.’

b) hiwa-hi  

\[ \text{naŋ-ta} \text{ larik} \ ə-ni \]

this DEM  

you GEN  

book  

PRO COP  

‘This book is yours.’

c) hiwa-hi  

\[ \text{kɔy-ni} \text{ in} \ ə-ni \]

this DEM  

our GEN  

house  

PRO COP  

‘This is our house.’

d) hiwa-hi  

\[ \text{kɔy-ta} \text{ in} \ ə-ni \]

this DEM  

our GEN  

house  

PRO COP  

‘This house is ours.’

e) kɔy-ta-n  

\[ \text{əsa-ded} \]

I GEN NOM  

good DEG
'Mine is better.'

Again it is required to note that in cases of noun, possessive ideas can be expressed without adding any possessive marker.

Examples

a) $sərat$-$peti$

‘Cow’s belt’

b) $tom$-$larik$

‘Tom’s book’

c) $zon$-$uy$

‘Jhon’s dog’

d) $reŋlien$-$əca$

‘Renglien’s son’

e) $ram$-$in$

Ram house

‘Ram’s house’

f) $zoy$-$kari$

joy car/bicycle

‘Joy’s car/bicycle’
(II) First person plural

(a) table $kɔy-\ nɪ\ table$

‘table’ I (PL) GEN table
‘our table’

(b) skul $kɔy-\ ni\ skul$

‘school’ I (PL) GEN school
‘our school’

(c) kari $kɔy-\ ni\ kari$

‘car/bicycle’ I (PL) GEN car/bicycle
‘our car/bicycle’

(d) in $kɔy-\ ni\ in$

I (PL) GEN house
‘our house’

(e) ca $kɔy-\ ni\ ca$

tea I (PL) tea
‘our tea’

(III) Second person singular

a) table $nɔŋ\ tebəl$

you (GEN) table
(IV) Second person plural

a) in

`nəŋ-ni in`

‘house’ you(PL) (GEN) house

‘your house’

b) rəm

`nəŋ-ni rəm`

‘land’ you(PL) (GEN) land
‘your land’

c) bu  nəŋ-ni  bu
‘rice’  you(PL) (GEN)  rice
‘your rice’

d) pon  nəŋ-ni  pon
‘clothe’  you(PL) (GEN)  clothe
‘your clothe’

e) məy  nəŋ-ni  məy
‘fire’  you(PL) (GEN)  fire
‘your(PL)  fire’

(V) Third person singular

a) larik  əma  larik
‘book’  he (GEN)  book
‘his  book’

b) bel  əma  bel
pot  he (GEN)  pot
‘his pot’

c) kek-hup  əma  kek-hup
‘shoe’  əma (GEN)  shoe
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<th>$t^h\omega y$</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘fruit’</td>
<td>he (GEN)</td>
<td>fruit</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘his fruit’</td>
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(VI) Third person plural

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<table>
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<td>book</td>
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<td>‘their book’</td>
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<td>‘pot’</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
<td>pot</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘their pot’</td>
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<td>‘shoe’</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>‘their shoe’</td>
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<tr>
<th>d)</th>
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<th>enmani</th>
<th>$t^h\omega y$</th>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘fruit’</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
<td>fruit</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘their fruit’</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
4.6.6 Animate

(VII) First person singular

a) uy  
   kəy uy
   ‘dog’ I (GEN) dog
   ‘my dog’

b) sa  
   kəy sa
   ‘animal’ I (GEN) animal
   ‘my animal’

c) ar  
   kəy ar
   ‘hen’ I (GEN) hen
   ‘my hen’

d) saipi  
   kəy saipi
   ‘elephant’ I (GEN) elephant
   ‘my elephant’

e) wok  
   kəy wok
   ‘pig’ I (GEN) pig
   ‘my pig’

(VIII) First person plural

a) uy  
   kəy-ni uy
b) *sa*  
\[ kəy-ni \quad sa \]

‘animal’  
I (PL)  animal

‘our animal’

c) *ar*  
\[ kəy-ni \quad ar \]

‘hen’  
I (PL)  hen

‘our hen’

d) *saipi*  
\[ kəy \quad saipi \]

‘elephant’  
I (GEN)  elephant

‘our elephant’

e) *wok*  
\[ kəy \quad wok \]

‘pig’  
I (GEN)  pig

‘our pig’

(IX)  Second person singular

a) *səratpi*  
\[ nəŋ \quad səratpi \]

‘cow’  
you (GEN)  cow

‘your cow’

b) *səkhi*  
\[ nəŋ \quad səkhi \]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Tzotzil</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘deer’</td>
<td>you (GEN)</td>
<td>deer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘your deer’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) ηα</td>
<td>n.gateway</td>
<td>ηα</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘fish’</td>
<td>you (GEN)</td>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘your fish’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) səkor</td>
<td>n.gateway</td>
<td>səkor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘horse’</td>
<td>you (GEN)</td>
<td>horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘your horse’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) bak</td>
<td>n.gateway</td>
<td>bak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘bat’</td>
<td>you (GEN)</td>
<td>bat</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘your bat’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(X) Second person plural.

a) səratpi | n.gateway | səratpi |
| ‘cow’     | you (PL) (GEN) | cow    |
|           | ‘your cow’    |

b) səkhi   | n.gateway | səkhi  |
| ‘deer’    | you(PL) (GEN) | deer   |
|           | ‘your(PL) deer’ |

c) ηα      | n.gateway | ηα    |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘fish’</th>
<th>you (PL) (GEN) fish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘your fish’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) səkor</td>
<td>nəŋ səkor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘horse’</td>
<td>you (GEN) horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘your(PL) horse’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) bak</td>
<td>nəŋ bak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘bat’</td>
<td>you (PL) (GEN) bat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘your bat’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (XI) Third person singular

<p>| a) wok | əma wok |
| ‘pig’ | he (GEN) pig |
| ‘his pig’ | |
| b) artok | əma artok |
| ‘duck’ | he (GEN) duck |
| ‘his duck’ | |
| c) nay | əma nay |
| ‘child’ | he (GEN) child |
| ‘his child’ | |
| d) səkor | əm səkor |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'horse'</th>
<th>he (GEN)</th>
<th>horse</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'his horse'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>e) uy</strong></td>
<td>əma uy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'dog'</td>
<td>he (GEN)</td>
<td>dog</td>
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<tr>
<td>'his dog'</td>
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</table>

(XII) Third person plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a) wok</th>
<th>ənmani wok</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'pig'</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
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<tr>
<td>'their pig'</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>b) artok</strong></td>
<td>ənmani ar-tok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'duck'</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'their duck'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>c) nay</strong></td>
<td>ənmani nay</td>
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<tr>
<td>'child'</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
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<tr>
<td>'their child'</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>d) səkor</strong></td>
<td>ənmani səkor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'horse'</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'their horse'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>e) uy</strong></td>
<td>ənmani uy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'dog'</td>
<td>they (GEN)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
‘their dog’

4.6.7 ABLATIVE

In Sadu Koireng language ablative case is indicated by the suffix – $l\omega$ phut.

Examples

a) kəy pha-ya- phut ə-hoŋ ki-ni

I imphal ABL PRO come PRO COP

‘I come from Imphal.’

b) kəy skul-la phut ki-hoŋ

I skul ABL PRO come

‘I have come from school.’

c) əma senapati-ya phut ə-hoŋ

he senapati ABL PRO come

‘He comes from Senapati.’

d) kəy in-na phut ki-wa

I house ABL PRO come

‘I have come from home.’
4.6.8 **Associative Case**

In Sadu Koireng associative case is denoted by suffix /–le/, the action which has been performed in conjunction with another person may be marked by this marker /–le/.

Examples

- \(a\) \(kəy \ əma-le \ larik \ kin-pa\)
  
  I  he  ASS  book  PRO (PL) read
  
  ‘He and I read the book.’

- \(b\) \(kəy \ ki-u-le \ bazaar \ kin-ce\)
  
  I  PRO bother ASS  bazaar  PRO (PL) go
  
  ‘I go bazaar with my brother.’

- \(c\) \(Kəy \ əma-le \ ke-roya \ kin-wa\)
  
  I  he  ASS  PRO with  PRO(PL) come
  
  ‘I come with him.’

4.6.9 **Locative**

The locative case is to indicate the location of an object or event. In Sadu Koireng /–la/ indicates locative marker. This marker has got two more realizations depending on the preceding consonants. The different realizations of locative marker /–la/ are /-rə ~ -nə/. 
Examples

a) kəy skul-ə ki-wa
   I school LOC PRO come
   ‘I come to school.’

b) kəy bazara ra ki-ce
   I bazaar LOC PRO go
   ‘I go to bazaar.’

c) kəy in-nə ki-om
   I house LOC PRO live
   ‘I live in to my house.’

4.7 MOOD

Mood is a grammatical category which expresses the degree or kind of reality of a proposition as perceived by the speaker. Mood distinctions appear to be universally present in languages; they are variously expressed, often by inflection of the verb or by the use of specialized lexical items called modals. (Trask. 1993 p. 174)

In Sadu Koireng mood is expressed by adding the suffix /-nom/ and /cəlk/ to the verbal root. Examples are given below.
a) kəy ŋa  ki-ca  nom

I  fish  PRO  eat  DES

‘I like to eat fish.’

b) kəy mirimin  ki-en  nom

I  picture  PRO  look  DES

‘I like to look picture.’

c) kəyni  kin-ce  nom

we  PRO  (PL)  go  DES

‘We like to go.’

d) əma  ə-kerday  nom

he  PRO  play  DES

‘He likes to play.’

e) kəy  ki-saŋ  nom

I  PRO  tall  DES

‘I like to be tall.’

f) əma  ə-wa  nom

he  PRO  come  DES

‘He likes to come.’

g) nay  ha  ə-cap  nom

child  DET  PRO  cry  DES
‘That child feels crying.’

h) \(kəy\ tuy\ ki\ - in\ nom\)

I water PRO drink DES

‘I like to drink water.’

i) \(nay\ ha\ bu\ ø-ca\ nom\)

child DET rice PRO eat DES

‘The child likes to eat rice.’

j) \(kəy\ tʰəyah\ ki-ca\ nom\)

I mango PRO eat DES

‘I like to eat mango.’

\(/-cək/\) is indicated intensive marker in this language.

Examples

a) \(kəy\ zu\ ləy\ in\ cək\ məkiŋ\)

I wine ASP drink often NEG (SG)

‘I did not drink wine often.’

b) \(kəy\ tʰəy\ ləy-ca\ cək\ məkiŋ\)

I fruit ASP eat often NEG (SG)

‘I did not eat fruit often.’

c) \(kəy\ ki-ləy\ ce\ cək\)
I PRO ASP go often

‘I went often.’

4.8 GENDER

Sadu Koireng nouns are not marked for grammatical gender but there is a semantic classification system indicating human and non-human (were particularly animates). This is marked by biological gender. In the preceding chapter (section 3.2.2.1.3), some preliminary discussion of the gender suffixes has already been done. On the basis of natural sex human and animal nouns are referred to as masculine and feminine. The suffix /-pa/ indicates male and /-nu/ indicates female.

Exmaples

1. *ki-pa* ‘my father’
2. *ki-nu* ‘my mother’
3. *sok-pa* ‘male helper’
4. *soknu* ‘female helper’
5. *miri min-yekpa* ‘male artist’
6. *miri min-yeknu* ‘female artist’
In the case of animal, male and female are marked by suffixing markers namely, /cəl/ for male which has horns and /–pi/ for female. However, in the case of male animals like pig, tiger and cat the marker /–təŋ/ is used while /–pi/ is used for marking female counterparts.

Examples

- sa-cəl ‘bull’ səpi ‘cow’
- səloy-cəl ‘male buffalo’ səloy-pi ‘female buffalo’
- wok-təŋ ‘male pig’ wok-pi ‘female pig’
- humpi-təŋ ‘male tiger’ humpi-pi ‘tiger female’
- ηaitoŋ-təŋ ‘male cat’ ηaitoŋ-pi ‘female cat’

In the case of birds, male and female are indicated by suffixing markers namely, /–bar/ and /–pi/ respectively. However, it is to note that in the suffix /–koŋ/ is used to indicate only cock. The same suffix /–təŋ/ used for tiger, cat and pig is also used to indicate male owl and male bat.

Examples

- kirkibar ‘male parrot’ ki-ki-pi ‘female parrot’
- waəkkoŋ ‘cock’ ar-pi ‘hen’
- artok ‘duck male’ ar-tok-pi ‘female duck’
It is interesting to note that the same suffix \(-cəl\) used for male animals with horns is also used for indicating male insects while the suffix \(-pi\) indicates female insects. It may also be noted that the same suffix used for denoting male birds \(-bar\) is also used for male fly.

Examples

- $k{^h}ay-cəl$ ‘grass hopper’ (M)  
- $k{^h}ay-pi$ ‘grasshopper’ (F)

- $mit{^h}əy-bar$ ‘fly’ (M)  
- $mit{^h}əy-pi$ ‘fly’ (F)

Another interesting observation is that the suffix \(-cəl\) used for indicating male animals with horns is also used for indicating plants that do not bear fruits and the morpheme \(-pi\) is for female plants.

Examples

- $t{^h}əyhay-cəl$ ‘mango (M)’  
- $k{^h}aypi$ ‘grasshopper (F)’

- $əwat{^h}əpi-cəl$ ‘papaya (M)’  
- $əwat{^h}əpi$ ‘papaya (F)’
4.9 NUMBER

Sadu Koireng has two numbers only singular and plural and there is no grammatical agreement in number. Singular number is not marked while plural is marked by /–hai/ or /–ni/.

a) Addition of /–hai/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nay</td>
<td>‘child’</td>
<td>nay-hai ‘children’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mi</td>
<td>‘man’</td>
<td>mihai   ‘men’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ηα</td>
<td>‘fish’</td>
<td>ηα-hai  ‘fishes’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uy</td>
<td>‘dog’</td>
<td>uy-hai  ‘dogs’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wa</td>
<td>‘bird’</td>
<td>wa-hai  ‘birds’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Addition of /–ni/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kəy</td>
<td>‘I’</td>
<td>kəyni     ‘we’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>əma</td>
<td>‘he’</td>
<td>ənmani    ‘they’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nəŋ</td>
<td>‘you’</td>
<td>nəŋni     ‘you PL’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.10 CONNECTIVE SUFFIX

There are two connective suffixes in Sadu koireng. They are /–le/ ‘and’ or ‘with’ and /–wum~ -yum/ ‘also’. It is to note that if the preceding sound is /y/ then [wum] becomes [yum].

a) *tom-le caoba -le skula ṣn-ce*

Tom CON caoba CON school PRO go
‘Tom and Chaoba go to school.’

b) *zon wum ṣma wum ṣn-ca-jəy*

He also CON he also CON PRO eat R M
‘He and John have eaten.’

c) *ənu - wum kəy- yum nay - yum rikip ce-sik kin-ni*

mother also CON I also CON child also CON all go FUT PRO(PL)
COP
‘I also mother also and child also will go.’

d) *əma-wum zon - wum ca-sik ṣn-ni*

he also CON John also CON eat FUT PRO(PL) COP
‘He also John also will eat.’
4.11 NUMERALS

Numerals indicate precise quantity of entities. Sadu Koireng has a distinctive nature of numeral system of their own. The following are the types of numerals found in Sadu Koireng.

1. Cardinals
2. Basic cardinals
3. Compound cardinals
   i) Lower multiplicative compound
   ii) Higher multiplicative compound
4. Ordinal numerals
5. Approximate numerals
6. Aggregative numerals
7. Fractional numerals
8. Fractional numerals
9. Indefinite numerals
10. Distributive numerals
11. Restrictive numerals

They are as follows.
4.11.1 Cardinals

It is interesting to note that cardinal numbers like 2, 3 and 6 in Sadu Koireng language are used with prefix like /kin/, /lin/ 2 and 3 and /kul/ in 6. Their root are respectively /-nil/ ‘2’, /-thum/ ‘three’ and /-ruk/ ‘six’. Cardinal numerals are of two kinds,

1. Basic Cardinal
2. Compound Cardinal

4.11.2. Basic cardinals

In Sadu Koireng there are twelve basic numerals.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{khat} & \quad \text{‘one’} \\
\text{kin-ni} & \quad \text{‘two’} \\
\text{kin-thum} & \quad \text{‘three’} \\
\text{min-li} & \quad \text{‘four’} \\
\text{riŋa} & \quad \text{‘five’} \\
\text{ku-ruk} & \quad \text{‘six’} \\
\text{kiret} & \quad \text{‘eight’}
\end{align*}
\]
Compound numerals we mean the numerals formed by mixing basic numerals. Compound numerals have two aspects.

1. Additive compound numeral
2. Multiplicative compound numeral

4.11.3.1 Additive compound numerals

The numerals from eleven to nineteen are additive compound numerals. They formed by connecting the decimal som ‘ten’ and the basic numerals from one to nine with the connective marker /ləy/. But in the cases of forming all higher numerals the prefix /kin-/ and /ku-/ of basic numerals 2, 3 and 6 will be deleted.

Examples
The decade numerals from twenty to ninety, the century numerals from one hundred to nine hundred numerals, from one thousand to ten thousand are multiplicative compound numerals. They divided into two types

1. Lower multiplicative compound numerals.
2. Higher multiplicative compound numerals.

4.11.3.2.1 Lower Multiplicative numerals

Decade numerals from twenty to ninety are known as lower multiplicative numerals. They can be expressed as $10 \times$ basic cardinals.

Examples

- $\text{som ni} = 10 \times 2 = 20$ ‘twenty’
- $\text{som thum} = 10 \times 3 = 30$ ‘thirty’
- $\text{som minli} = 10 \times 4 = 40$ ‘forty’
- $\text{som riŋa} = 10 \times 5 = 50$ ‘fifty’
- $\text{som ruk} = 10 \times 6 = 60$ ‘sixty’
- $\text{som səri} = 10 \times 7 = 70$ ‘seventy’
- $\text{som ret} = 10 \times 8 = 80$ ‘eighty’
- $\text{som kuo} = 10 \times 9 = 90$ ‘ninety’
4.11.3.2.2 Higher Multiplicative Compound Numerals

Higher multiplicative compound numerals may be expressed as the multiples of hundred and thousand by placing /ruy/ ‘hundred’ and /lisín/ ‘thousand’ before cardinal numerals. The number /lisín/ ‘one thousand’ is a borrowed word from Manipuri.

Examples

ruy ni = 100 x 2 = 200 ‘two hundred’

ruy thum = 100 x 3 = 300 ‘three hundred’

ruy minli = 100 x 4 = 400 ‘four hundred’

ruy riŋa = 100 x 5 = 500 ‘five hundred’

ruy ruk = 100 x 6 = 600 ‘six hundred’

ruy səri = 100 x 7 = 700 ‘seven hundred’

ruy riet = 100 x 8 = 800 ‘eight hundred’

ruy kuo = 100 x 9 = 900 ‘nine hundred’

ruy khət = 1000 x 1 = 1000 ‘one thousand’
ruy som = 1000 x 10 = 10000 ‘ten thousand’

4.11.4 Ordinal Numerals

In Sadu Koireng, ordinals are formed by suffixing sunə/cəŋnə to the cardinal except the first which has special form i.e., /məsəktək/. But now khət /sunə/cəŋnə/ is also used in addition to it. The examples are given below.

məsəktək

or ‘first’

khət-sunə ~khət cəŋnə

kin-ni sunə ~kinni cəŋ-nə ‘2nd’

kin-tʰum sunə ~ cəŋ-nə ‘3rd’

miŋli-sunə ~ cəŋ-nə ‘4th’

riŋə-sunə ~ cəŋ-nə ‘5th’

kuruk-sunə ~ cəŋnə ‘6th’

səri-sunə ~ cəŋnə ‘7th’
In a noun phrase with a ordinal number in Sadu Koireng, the ordinal number precedes the noun.

Examples

kinni cəŋnə in ‘the 2nd house’

ON house

minli cəŋnə para ‘the 4th lesson’

ON leion

kuruk cəŋnə ka ‘the 6th room’

ON room

4.11.5 Approximative Numerals

Approximative numerals is formed by suffixing /tuk/ ‘about’ to the cardinal numerals.
Examples

\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text{numɔyːt} & \text{somthum tuk} & \text{‘about thirty girls’} \\
\text{girl} & \text{thirty about} & \\
\text{satɾa} & \text{som sɔɾi tuk} & \text{‘about seventy students’} \\
\text{student} & \text{seventy about} & \\
\text{miriŋ} & \text{riŋa tuk} & \text{‘about five person’} \\
\text{person} & \text{fiv eabout} & \\
\text{wa} & \text{som tuk} & \text{‘about ten birds’} \\
\text{bird} & \text{ten about} & \\
\text{bukheŋ} & \text{kho tuk} & \text{‘about nine dishes’} \\
\text{dish} & \text{nine about} & \\
\end{array}
\]

4.11.6 Aggregative Numerals

In order to express the meaning ‘two together or both’ ‘three together’ or ‘all the sevens’, all the tens etc. the word /ɔnɾeŋ-khu-wal/ ‘all’ is added to the cardinal numerals.
Examples

\[ \text{numəy-səri ənrey-khuwa} \quad \text{‘all the seven girls’} \]
girl seven all

\[ \text{satra som ənrey-khuwa} \quad \text{‘all the ten students’} \]
student ten all

\[ \text{pəsəlte ənrey-khuwa} \quad \text{‘all the boys’} \]
boy all

\[ \text{wa ənrey-khuwa} \quad \text{‘all the birds’} \]
bird all

4.11.7 Fractional numerals

Fractional numerals are expressed by the following words.

\[ \text{əwer} \quad \text{‘piece’} \]

\[ \text{her-kət} \quad \text{‘half’} \]

\[ \text{wer-kət} \quad \text{‘quarter’} \]
kin-thum-so  ‘three fourth’

kiriet-soka  ‘one eight’

khət-tum-wer-khət  ‘one and quarter’

khət tum-her-khat  ‘one and a half’

### 4.11.8 Indefinite numerals

The following words are used for indefinite numerals.

Examples

əleک  ‘some’

ətəm  ‘many’

khət-duk  ‘any one’

mi-tən  ‘group’

əbuk  ‘heap’

əbom  ‘bunch’
4.11.9 Distributive numerals

In Sadu Koireng distributive numerals are formed by reduplicating the cardinal numbers. For example, /khət-khət/ ‘one one’, /kin-ni-nil/ ‘two two’.

Examples

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{khət-khət-} & \text{-pe-ro} & \text{‘give one each’} \\
\text{kin-ni-ni-} & \text{-pe-ro} & \text{‘give two each’}
\end{align*} \]

4.11.10 Restrictive numerals

Restrictive numerals is formed by adding the suffix \(-bəy\) to the cardinals.

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{kin-ni-} & \text{-bəy} & \text{‘only two’} \\
\text{kin-thum-} & \text{-bəy} & \text{‘only three’} \\
\text{minli-} & \text{-bəy} & \text{‘only four’} \\
\text{som-} & \text{-bəy} & \text{‘only ten’} \\
\text{somni-} & \text{-bəy} & \text{‘only twenty’}
\end{align*} \]
4.12 ASPECTS

Aspect is a grammatical category which relates to the internal temporal structure of a situation. Aspect is most commonly reflected in the form of the verb, and in many languages the expression of aspect is alternately bound up with the expression of tense, from which, whoever, aspect must be distinguished. In English, for example, the form I did it, was doing it and I used to do it are all past tense, but they express different is languages are perfective, imperative, perfect, progressive habitual, punctual and interative (Trask. P.21)

In Sadu Koireng language there are four aspect suffixes.

Simple Ø
Progressive lə
Relized jəy
Unrealize future te

The first is the simple habitual expression of the event, the second indicates about the event which is going on, the third expresses the event
which is completed and the fourth one is about the event that will be performed in the near future.

4.12.1 Simple Aspect

It expresses simple statement, habitual meaning and universal truth.

Examples

a) \textit{ni kol-\textit{tə} ě-hoŋ - suok}
   sun east ABL PRO come out
   ‘The sun rises from the east.’

b) \textit{e\textit{ma} }\textit{tʰəy ě-cak.}
   he fruit PRO eat
   ‘He eats fruit.’

c) \textit{e\textit{ma-}n \textit{tʰiŋkəŋ ě-tuk}}
   he NOM tree PRO cut
   ‘He cuts the tree.’

d) \textit{tom ŋa ki-cak}
   tom fish PRO eat
   ‘Tom eats fish.’

e) \textit{e\textit{ma} }\textit{bu ě-suŋə}
he  rice  PRO cook
‘He cooks rice.’

f)  zon  rikoŋ  a-hol
john  boat  PRO sail
‘John sails boat.’

g)  wa  ənj-øŋ
bird  PRO fly
‘Bird flies.’

h)  əma  ən-wa
he  PRO come
‘He comes.’

4.12.2 Progressive Aspect

The suffix /lə/ is used as progressive aspect marker in Sadu Koireng language.

Examples

a)  kəy əa  ki-ə-cak
I  fish  PRO PROG eat
‘I am eating fish.’

b) əma-pon ə-la-som

he clothe PRO PROG wash

‘He is washing the clothe.’

c) əma-tʰəy ə-la-cak

he fruit PRO PROG eat

‘He is eating fruits.’

d) ram bu ə-la-ca

ram rice PRO PROG eat

‘Ram is eating rice.’

e) kəy skul ki-lə-ce

I school PRO PRO PROG go

‘I am going to school.’

4.12.3 Realized (Perfect) Aspect

In Sadu Koireng /-jəy/ marks the realized aspect.

a) kəy bu ki-ca-jəy

I rice PRO eat RM

‘I have taken rice.’

b) əma larik ə-pa-jəy
He book PRO read RM
‘He has read the book.’

c) kay ṣa ki-ca-jøy
I fish PRO eat RM
‘I have eaten fish.’

d) ama bu a-ca-jøy
he rice PRO eat RM
‘He has eaten rice.’

e) ram skul-lə a-ce-jøy
ram school LOC PRO go RM
‘Ram has gone to school.’

4.12.4 Unrealized Or Future Aspect

In Sadu Koireng unrealized aspect is expressed by a suffix /–sik/ which is directly added to the verbal root or stem.

Examples

a) kay in-nə ce-sik – ki-ni
I house LOC go UNR PRO COP
‘I will go to home.’
b) əma  bu  ca - sik  ə-ni

he  rice  eat UNR  PRO COP

‘He will eat rice.’

c) kəy  tʰəyhay  ca- sik- ki-ni

I  mango  eat UNR  PRO COP

‘I will eat mango.’

d) kəy  ca  in-sik  ki-ni

I  tea  drink UNR  PRO COP

‘I will drink tea.’

4.12.5 The Different Functions of Aspect Markers

a) ənu əpan ənca  hay  ha əniŋ ənse

his mother  his  father PRO(PL)  child (PL)  DET PRO(PL)love

b) patʰieniŋ ənyi əphat  rikipa əniŋ ənise

god  us  forever PRO  love PRO love

‘God loves us forever.’

The progressive aspect /-lə/ is also used for the action which is to be
done within a short period but not at the present moment.
Examples

a) *ki-lə-mu* - ‘to be seen’
b) *ki-lə-ca* - ‘to be eaten’
c) *ki-lə-pa* - ‘to be read’
d) *ki-lə-in* - ‘to be drink’
e) *ki-lə-suŋ* - ‘to be cook’

**CONCLUSION**

Chapter four has discussed about the lexical and grammatical categories of the language. It includes noun and categories of nouns, pronouns and its classification, pronominal prefixes, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, gender, number, case, etc. There is no grammatical gender in this language. It is denoted by the natural gender suffixes. The gender suffixes /*/nul/, /*pal/, /*pul/, /*pəsəl/ and /*numəyəl/ etc. indicate human noun and /*təŋ/, /*lcəl/ and /*kəŋəl/ etc., indicate animate nouns respectively. Then it is followed by discussion on number, case, connective and numerals. The above given are the analysis of the chapter four.