CHAPTER - 4

MORPHOLOGY
CHAPTER 4

MORPHOLOGY

4.1.0 General Remarks:

Morphology deals with the internal structure of words, i.e. how words are formed. Liangmai is an agglutinative language. One of its characteristic features is that a number of morphemes can come together without involving any morphophonemic changes. The morphemes join together loosely and seldom any morphophonemic changes result. The inflection is not very rigid or compact as in inflectional languages. As a result, a construction like N+ Pl. + Case is not a closed construction as in inflectional languages; but it is relatively compact. In an inflectional language nothing can be inserted in between ‘N +Pl + C’ construction.

A morpheme may be free or bound and the bound morphemes are usually called affixes. The present analysis of morphology of Liangmai starts with the identification of morphemes and their classification as roots and non-roots on the basis of grammatical function of the morphemes. In Liangmai, there are two types of roots viz. (i) free (ii) bound roots.

4.1.1 Nominal:

Nominal are those root morphemes which are capable of taking case affixes. Nouns, pronouns are included under nominal because they take nominal affixes. Though the verbs cannot takes nominal affixes, yet they can be placed under the heading of nominal because verbs are inflected for tenses, mood, aspect etc.
4.1.2 Noun:

In Liangmai noun can be defined as a class of words that can be inflected for the categories of gender, number and case. A limited number of words are also inflected in Liangmai to show gender distinction. But gender is not a grammatical category in Liangmai because it does not have any impact on the structure of the languages.

Classification of noun: Noun can be classified as proper noun, common noun, collective noun, and abstract noun, countable and uncountable noun which are semantically defined as subclass of noun (referring to general concepts) in traditional grammar. The following is the chart of the nouns which shows the different types of the nouns:

- Countable
  - Common
  - proper
  - abstract
  - material

uncountable

Fig.4.1.

(i). Countable noun:

(a) Common Noun:

1. /čəkui/  ‘tiger’
2. /thinə/  ‘bird’
3. /maipui/  ‘woman’
(b) Proper noun:

1. /tamei/ ‘name of Town’
2. /wiluŋbou/ ‘name of person’
3. /himalaya/ ‘himalaya’

(ii). Uncountable noun:

(a) Abstract Noun

1. /nuan/ ‘sin’
2. /ćampao/ ‘news’
3. /məsənbo/ ‘pure’

(b) Material Noun:

1. /kæcľa/ ‘gold’
2. /indui/ ‘milk’
3. /ćaky/ ‘house’

A noun stem in Liangmai may end either in a vowel or in a consonant.

a) Nouns ending in vowels:

/i/ /ćapi/ ‘head’

/ ćaphi/ ‘leg’

/ə/ /ṭhiŋna/ ‘bird’

/ćamana/ ‘pumkin’

/e/ /skẹ/ ‘parrot’

/će/ ‘paper’
/a/ /kəpha/ ‘bridge’
/thiura/ ‘chilli’
/w/ /ćəlu/ ‘field’
/hu/ ‘courage’
/o/ /məraibo/ ‘love’
/məlaibo/ ‘move’

All the vowels occur as a final position in Liangmai.

b) Nouns ending in consonants:

/p/ /ćəphitop/ ‘shoe’
/h/ /ćakheb/ ‘distance between tip of the middle fingers of left and right hands’
/t/ /ćakhat/ ‘cane’
/d/ /ćolad/ ‘language’
/k/ /kəbək/ ‘pig’
/m/ /nam/ ‘village’
/n/ /ćəgən/ ‘star’
/ŋ/ /ćəməŋ/ ‘dream’
/h/ /kənəh/ ‘pus’
/g/, /ph/, /th/, /kh/, /s/, /ʃ/, /ɻ/, /ɭ/, /v/, /y/ and /z/ ending nouns are not available in Liangmai.

4.1.3 Genders:

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

On the basis of semantical-morphological criteria, nouns are primarily classified into two classes; viz. (i) animate (ii) inanimate. Both the human and non-human nouns are differentiated for masculine and feminine genders. All the inanimate nouns are considered as neuter.

![Diagram of noun classification](image)

Fig.4.2.
The gender of animate nouns in case of human beings [+human-inanimate] in Liangmai is denoted by the marker -/piu/ ‘male’ and -/pui/ ‘female’. Consider the following examples.

For example -piu:

- /maipiu/ ‘man’
- /čoluit/iupiu/ ‘male singer’
- /agatiupiu/ ‘thief male’

Consider the following examples of pui- female:

- /maipui/ ‘woman’
- /čoluit/iupui/ ‘female singer’
- /agatiupui/ ‘thief female’

In the case of animals the lexical item -/či/male and /pui/ female are used for denoting the natural sex. Illustrations are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Liangmai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/matomći/</td>
<td>‘ox’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kamići/</td>
<td>‘goat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tathići/</td>
<td>‘dog (male)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ćokonići/</td>
<td>‘male horse’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ćapuanći/</td>
<td>‘elephant (male)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tathānći/</td>
<td>‘deer (Male)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kabucići/</td>
<td>‘mithun (male)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/matompui/</td>
<td>‘cow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kānipui/</td>
<td>‘she goat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tathipui/</td>
<td>‘bitch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ćakonpui/</td>
<td>‘mare’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ćapuanpui/</td>
<td>‘elephant’ (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tathānpui/</td>
<td>‘deer’ (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kābuipui/</td>
<td>‘mithun’ (female)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, in the case of pig the suffixes -/kiu/ is used to denote male and - 
/gee/ for female which haven’t given birth to young ones.

/kabakkiu/ ‘pig (male)’     /kabakgee/ ‘not given birth’ (female pig)’

In the same way the two suffixes-/req/ and -/pui/ are used to indicate male and female for birds. For example,

/maruiren/        ‘cock’         /maruipui/  ‘hen’
/kaniuren/        ‘duck (male)’   /kaniupui/  ‘duck’ (female)

There are also some opposite words which are used for denoting the masculine and feminine gender in this language. Consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Liangmai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/apou/</td>
<td>/ape/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘grand-father’</td>
<td>‘grand-mother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/apou/</td>
<td>/snaai/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘mother’s brother’</td>
<td>‘fathers sister’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pakinah/</td>
<td>/panao/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘husband’</td>
<td>‘wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/poreŋ/</td>
<td>/politu/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘male (bird)’</td>
<td>‘female’ (bird)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pači/</td>
<td>/paree/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘male (animal)’</td>
<td>‘female’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In kinship terms gender distinction is marked lexically and morphologically. For instances, in the following noun gender distinctions are marked lexically.
(a) /piu/ ‘father’
/pui/ ‘mother’
(b) /pou/ ‘grand-father’
/pe/ ‘grand-mother’

In case of personal pronouns, Liangmai doesn’t mark any gender distinction. For examples:

/pa/ ‘he/she’
/patu/ ‘him/her’

4.1.4 Neuter Gender:

The inanimate nouns have no gender. Consider the following example:

/tata/ ‘bangle’
/zunjhab/ ‘ring’
/kocia/ ‘gold’
/rorree/ ‘pen’
/ariak/ ‘book’

4.1.5 Gender of Loan Words:

The inanimate loans nouns also do not show gender distinctions i.e. they considered as neuter.

/ophis/ ‘office’
4.1.6 Numbers:

Liangmai has two numbers-singular and plural. Plural in Liangmai is usually formed at the morphological level by suffixation of plural morphemes, such as /liu/, /dung/ and /ramai/ are added to the root or stem to form plural. The suffix –/liu/ is added to personal pronoun to form plural. Singular is not marked overtly. /liu/ is used especially to personal pronoun for forming plural as in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/i/ ‘i’</td>
<td>/liu/ ‘we’ (i&gt;e in plural formation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nαγ/ ‘you’</td>
<td>/naliu/ ‘you’ (the final sound η is lost)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pa/ ‘he/she’</td>
<td>/paliu/ ‘they’ (addition of liu)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This suffix –/liu/ can also added to proper noun to indicate plurality, for example ‘Ram and his group’. Here is the illustration:

/zosep/ ‘Joseph’ /zosep-paliu/ ‘Joseph and his group’
/sita/ ‘Sheeta’ /sheetapaliu/ ‘Sheeta and her group’
Suffix – /duŋ/ is added to the animate noun to form plural. For examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/nəmai/</td>
<td>‘child’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/maipui/</td>
<td>‘woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/piumai/</td>
<td>‘man’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təthi/</td>
<td>‘dog’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʰɪŋə/</td>
<td>‘bird’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/asathii/</td>
<td>‘fox’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/enge/</td>
<td>‘crow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aphina/</td>
<td>‘dove’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/nəmaiduŋ/</td>
<td>‘children’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/maipuiduŋ/</td>
<td>‘women’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/piumaiduŋ/</td>
<td>‘men’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təthiduŋ/</td>
<td>‘dogs’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/thinaduŋ/</td>
<td>‘birds’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/asatʰiduŋ/</td>
<td>‘foxes’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/engeduŋ/</td>
<td>‘crows’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aphinaduŋ/</td>
<td>‘doves’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Suffix -/ramai/ is used for indicating inanimate noun: For examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ariyak/</td>
<td>‘book’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/inkham/</td>
<td>‘door’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kirən/</td>
<td>‘window’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/imburŋ/</td>
<td>‘almirah’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təzi/</td>
<td>‘bed’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ariyak-ramai/</td>
<td>‘books’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/inkham-ramai/</td>
<td>‘doors’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kirən-ramai/</td>
<td>‘windows’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/imburŋ-ramai/</td>
<td>‘almirahs’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/təzi-ramai/</td>
<td>‘beds’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Other than these, there is a lexical item like -/mathiu/ ‘every’ and /pakhin\(\text{\textgamma} / ‘all’ which is generally used in the formation of plural. These words are very productive, it can occur with any noun. Let us consider the following examples:

\[
\begin{align*}
/\text{namai}/ & \quad \text{‘child’} & /\text{namai -mathiu}/ & \quad \text{‘every child’} \\
/\text{camai}/ & \quad \text{‘man’} & /\text{camai -mathiu}/ & \quad \text{‘every people’} \\
/\text{matom}/ & \quad \text{‘cow’} & /\text{matompakhian}/ & \quad \text{‘all cows’} \\
/\text{capiu}/ & \quad \text{‘medicine’} & /\text{capiu -pakhian}/ & \quad \text{‘all medicine’}
\end{align*}
\]

There are some other words which indicate a kind of collection, example /\text{kasia}/ ‘some’ and /\text{kenziu}/ for ‘many’.

For examples -/\text{kasia}/

1. /camai kasia haiga wa\(\text{\textgamma} ye/ & \quad \text{‘some people come here’} \\
2. /i kasia tek tiu lune/ & \quad \text{‘I ate some food’}

For examples -/\text{kenziu}/

1. /haiga camai kenziu wa\(\text{\textgamma} ye/ & \quad \text{‘many people come here’} \\
2. /i sir\beta\alpha\beta\gamma\beta ai kenziu tiu lune/ & \quad \text{‘I ate many papayas’}

There are some other plural markers that indicate collective form like-

(i) /padu\(\text{\textgamma} / \quad \text{‘herd’} \\
/kabui padu\(\text{\textgamma} kh\(\text{\textalpha} / \quad \text{‘a herd of cattle’} \\
/thing\(\text{\textalpha} padu\(\text{\textgamma} kh\(\text{\textalpha} / \quad \text{‘a flock of birds’}
(ii) /pahan/ ‘bundle’

/tasiq pahan khat/ ‘a bundle of firewood’

/tatao pahan khat/ ‘a bundle of sugarcane’

Keeping in view of this, we can fairly say that Liangmai is usually formed at the morphological level by suffixation of plural morphemes, such as /dung/, /liu/ and /ramai/ are added to the root or stem to form plural.

a) Singular number

(i) Nouns

/camai/ ‘man’

/namai/ ‘child’

/piumaina/ ‘son’

/tathi/ ‘dog’

/tathan/ ‘deer’

/matom/ ‘cow’

/capuwan/ ‘elephant’

(ii) Pronouns

/i/ ‘I’

/noi/ ‘you’

/pa/ ‘he/ she’

/uise/ ‘that’
b) Plural number

As we mentioned earlier, that suffix used after nouns and pronouns to form the plural in Liangmai /duŋ/ is added to the animate noun to form plural.

(i) After nouns

/čamai duŋ/  ‘men’
/children/  ‘nāmайдuŋ’
/piumainaduŋ/  ‘sons’
/tāthiduŋ/  ‘dogs’
/tāthənduŋ/  ‘deers’
/motomduŋ/  ‘cows’

(ii) After pronouns, the suffix –/liu/ is added to indicate plurality.

/aliu/  ‘we’
/naliu/  ‘you’
/paliu/  ‘they’

4.1.7 Classifiers:

Liangmai makes the use of classifiers for denoting the semantic classification of the referent on the basis of the qualities of the noun, i.e. its physical shape, size and state etc. classifiers are generally rich in this language. Classifier in this language has predominantly of mono-syllabic structure. They occur with the numbers and the classifiers precede the numerals. Classifiers usually follow the noun. The following are the examples of the classifiers of the Liangmai language.
We can divide the classifiers in Liangmai in the following tree diagram.

![Classifier Tree Diagram](image)

### Fig. 4.3.

On the basis of the above tree diagram classifier, we discuss below:

i) The human nouns take the classifier /kʰəŋ/:

a. /čəmai kʰəŋ kʰət/ (man class. one) ‘one man’

b. /puimai kʰəŋ mədai/ (women class. four) ‘four women’

c. /namai kʰəŋ məkai/ (boy class. twenty) ‘twenty boys’

d. /čəbonmai kʰəŋ sum/ (youth class. three) ‘three youths’

e. /miketmai kʰəŋ čənia/ (blind man class. seven) ‘seven blind men’
ii) The nouns denoting animals take the classifier-/khou/

a) /matom khou sum/ ‘three cows’
cow class. three

b) /čapwanaŋ khou majoʃu/ ‘five elephants’
elephant class. five

c) /olui khou čanía/ ‘seven buffalo’
buffalo class seven

iii) The noun denoting insects and bird take the classifier-/pui/;

a) /tepenpui pui tćat/ ‘eight butterfly’
butterfly class. eight

b) /tekhkepui pui sum/ ‘three mosquito’
mosquito class three

c) /ake pui sum/ ‘three parrot’
parrot class. three

d) /thiŋ pui sum/ ‘three birds’
birth Class. three

iv) Noun indicating plants and tree take the classifier-/baŋ/

a) /siŋboŋ baŋ khat/ ‘one tree’
tree class. one

b) /čamiubəŋ baŋ majoʃu/ ‘five paddies’
paddy class. five

c) /komlaŋ baŋ kaikhat/ ‘hundred orange trees’
orange tree class hundred
v) The noun denoting days take the classifier-/zeq/.
   a) /naimikpui zeq nia/  two days
      day class. two
   b) /naimikpui zeq madai/  five days
      day class. four
   c) /naimikpui zeq karu/  ten days
      day class. ten
   d) /naimikpui zeq atai/  fourty days
      day class. fourty

vi) Noun indicating long things take the classifier-/taq/.
   a) /rouree taq khat/  one pen
      pen class. one
   b) /siŋtaŋ taŋ čakiu/  ten sticks
      stick class. nine
   c) /pencil taŋ kaikhat/  hundred of pencils
      pencil class. hundred

vii) Noun denoting creeper, rope etc. things take the classifier-/riag/.
    a) /čariąŋ riąŋ khat/  one rope
       rope class. one
    b) /mazibuo čariąŋ riąŋ madai/  four ropes
       rope class. four
    c) /čariąŋ riąŋ samriu/  thirty creepers
       creeper class. thirty
    d) /čariąŋ riąŋ rin-ńiu/  fifty ropes
       rope class. fifty
viii) Noun denoting leaf take the classifier-/nui/
   a) /sinñui nui kariu/ ‘ten leaves’
      leaf class. ten
   b) /sinñui nui čačat/ ‘eight leaves’
      leaf class eight

ix) Noun denoting packets box take the classifier-/buq/
   a) /ćamribuq buq sum/ ‘three boxes of matches’
      match class. three
   b) /pabuq buq mādai/ ‘four boxes’
      box class. four
   c) /ćariqpbuq buq nia/ ‘two boxes of cigarette’
      cigarette class. two

x) Noun denoting money take the classifier-/kaŋ/
   a) /raŋkaŋ kaŋ khat/ ‘one rupee’
      rupee class. one
   b) /raŋkaŋ kaŋ sum/ ‘three rupees’
      rupee class. three

xi) Noun denoting months and teeth take the classifier-/hiu/
   a) /ćahiui hiu nia/ ‘two months’
      month class. two
   b) /ćahiui hiu čania/ ‘seven months’
      month class. seven
   c) /ćahiui hiu khat/ ‘one tooth’
      teeth class. one
d) /cəhiu hiu kariu/ ‘ten teeth’
   teeth class. ten

xii) Noun denoting hairs and sticks take the classifier-/pek/

   a) /təthom pek khat/ ‘one hair’
      hair class. one
   b) /siŋ pek kariu/ ‘ten sticks’
      stick class ten
   c) /siŋ pek san'khat/ ‘thousand of sticks’
      stick class thousand

xiii) Noun denoting books take the classifier-/khuɑŋ/:

   a) /ariak khuɑŋ sum/ ‘three books’
      book class. three
   b) /ariak khuɑŋ madai/ ‘four books’
      book class. four
   c) /ariak khuɑŋ kariu/ ‘ten books’
      book class. ten

xiv) Noun indicating fruit and solid take the classifier-/puin/:

   a) /cərasi pum nia/ ‘two fruits’
      fruit class. two
   b) /cərasi pum kariu/ ‘ten fruits’
      fruit class. ten
   c) /cərasi pum riačarok/ ‘sixty fruits’
      fruit class. Sixty
d) /marbol pum sum/ ‘three marbles’

  marble class. three

e) /marbol pum madai/ ‘four marbles’

  marble class. Four

So the order of occurrence of classifiers in Liangmai is Noun+Classifier+Numeral. No other order is possible.

4.1.8 Quantifiers:


Examples:

i) /ariak keŋziu/ ‘many books’

ii) /kar keŋziu/ ‘many cars’

iii) /ŋuna keŋziu/ ‘many bananas’

iv) matomdui keŋkha/ ‘much milk’

v) /ariak inkiuziu/ ‘more book’

vi) /tadui inkiuziu/ ‘more water’

vii) /mətai kasia/ ‘some salt’

viii) /maipui khaŋsia/ ‘some woman’

ix) /çəmai pakhian/ ‘all men’

x) /təthi pakhian/ ‘all dogs’

xi) /çəmai mathiu/ ‘every one’

xii) /na-poina/ ‘little boy’

xiii) /tadui poina/ ‘little water’
4.1.9 Pronoun:

Pronoun refers to a set of items which can be used to substitute a noun or a noun phrase. The pronoun in Liangmai does not distinguish genders but it distinguishes three persons. All of these take case suffixes, but gender and number are not marked. In Liangmai, pronouns can be classified into the following categories:

1. Personal Pronouns
2. Demonstrative pronouns
3. Interrogative Pronouns
4. Reflexive Pronouns
5. Possessive pronoun
6. Indefinite Pronouns

i) Personal Pronouns

The personal pronoun is represented by separate lexical items in Liangmai. A three way distinction of person is made in personal pronoun. They are the first person, second person and third person. The first person refers to the speaker, the second person pronoun to the listener and the third person pronoun to others. In Liangmai, Personal pronouns distinguish three persons. This is illustrated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>/i/ ‘I’</td>
<td>/aliu/ ‘we’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>/nay/ ‘you’</td>
<td>/naliu/ ‘you’ (plural)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>/pa/ ‘he/she/it’</td>
<td>/paliu/ ‘they’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The personal pronouns do not show any gender sex distinction. The personal pronouns are used either independently or in suffixed form, i.e, the plural forms are formed by adding the suffix /liu/ to the singular pronouns.

(a) Various Pronoun Forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Honorific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td>i 'i'</td>
<td>we two 'ənai - khaŋnia'</td>
<td>we - 'aliu'</td>
<td>to me- 'atu' from me- 'əkhusu,</td>
<td>φ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person</td>
<td>you 'nəŋ'</td>
<td>you two 'nənai - khaŋnia'</td>
<td>you - 'naliu'</td>
<td>to you - 'nətu' from you 'nəkhusu'</td>
<td>φ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he/she 'pa'</td>
<td>they two 'panai - khaŋnia'</td>
<td>they - 'paliu'</td>
<td>to him - 'patu' from him 'pakhusu'</td>
<td>φ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The personal pronouns and possessive pronouns are shows be 4.8.1.(b).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Personal pronouns</th>
<th>Possessive pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>i 'i'</td>
<td>əgu 'mine'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>aliu 'we'</td>
<td>aliugu 'ours'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>nəŋ 'you'</td>
<td>nəgu 'yours'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>naliu 'you Pl.'</td>
<td>naliugu 'yours Pl.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Person</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>pa 'she/he'</td>
<td>pa 'his' hers/ its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>paliu 'they'</td>
<td>paliu 'their'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4.4.
ii) **Demonstrative Pronouns:**

Liangmai has no articles – definite or indefinite. But it has two determines, namely /haise/ ‘this’ and /uise/ ‘that’ denotes the object or person being spoken of is near or currently seen or known to the speaker or topic of conversation, /uise/ indicates something or someone not present at the time of speech.

Examples:

a) haise ḥgu raori e
   
   this my pen – asp.
   
   ‘This is my pen’

b) uibo thise ḥgu – e
   
   that dog my – asp.
   
   ‘That is my dog’

In the above example, /hai/ denotes when the object is nearby and /ui/ denotes the object which is somewhat far away from the speaker.

The pronouns can be suffixed with locative case marker as in the following examples:

Example

a) haige
   
   + (loc. – ga, ǀam) ‘here’

hailam
b).sigə
   + (loc.-ga) ‘there’
   uiłəm

c) sibo - gu
   + (genitive - gu) ‘that’
   uibo- gu

iii) Interrogative Pronouns:

Liangmai have two interrogative pronouns. They are /sao/ ‘who’ /de/ ‘what’. The interrogative pronoun /de/ ‘what’ is hardly used in asking the name of a person, instead /sao/ ‘who’ is used for the purpose. Illustrations are given below.

1. /nazan sao lo/  ‘What is your name?’
2. /nazan de lo/  ‘What is your name?’
3. /haibo duŋronga sao tulunilo/  ‘Who do you want among them?’
4. /haibo duŋ ronga de tulunilo/  ‘What do you want among them?’

The following are the interrogative pronouns used in Liangmai:

/de/  ‘what’
/dedao/  ‘when’
/dečiuziu/  ‘how’
/dekomziu/ ‘why’
/dekenga/ ‘how much’
/deziu/ ‘how many’
/delam/degə/ ‘where’
/sao/ ‘who’
/dekumbo/ ‘which’

Some sentences are given below to illustrate the use of interrogative pronouns in Liangmai:

/naŋən delo/ ‘what is your name’
/nəpiu dedao waŋra lo/ ‘when is your father coming?’
/dećiuziu naŋ koleg waŋlo/ ‘how do you come to college?’
/dekomziu naŋ arot din lo/ ‘why did you tell a lie?’
/nəŋ dekenga lunilo/ ‘how much do you want?’
/nagu klas ga ariakna deziu bəmlo/ ‘how many students are there in your class?’
/nəŋ delam tat ra lo/ ‘where are you going?’
/nəŋ sao lo/ ‘who are you?’
/nagu bol dekumbolo/ ‘which is your ball?’
iv) Reflexive Pronouns:

In this language, reflexive pronouns are derived by prefixation of respective pronominal markers i.e. /I/ ~ /a/ for 1st person, /na/ - for 2nd person, and pa for 3rd person. Some examples are cited below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ə + ronna → aronna</td>
<td>myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na + ronna → naronna</td>
<td>yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa + ronna → paronna</td>
<td>himself</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Illustrations:

a) /I aronna alə̄ lu-ne/

i myself cook can

‘I myself can cook’

b) /naŋ naronna uiga tatmima?/

you yourself there go been

‘Have you yourself been there?’

c) /pa paronna waŋ rabo ye/

he himself must come fut. asp

‘He himself must come’
v) **Possessive pronoun:**

Possessive pronouns are, in fact the genitive forms of personal pronouns. Thus, possessive pronouns are formed by adding the suffix /gu/ to the oblique bases of the personal pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bases</th>
<th>possessive pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>‘i’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/əliu/</td>
<td>‘we’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nəŋ/</td>
<td>‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pa/</td>
<td>‘he/she’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/əɡu/</td>
<td>‘my’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/əliugu/</td>
<td>‘our’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nəɡu/</td>
<td>‘your’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pəɡu/</td>
<td>‘his/her’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

vi) **Indefinite pronoun:**

It refers to an entity or class of entities which is not capable of specific identification. There is no clear distinction between definite and indefinite pronouns in Liangmai. The same form /məthiu/ and /pakhiaŋ/ can be used for “everything”, “all” and “anything” as in following examples:

/paliu məthiu ćaki tət mide/ ‘All of them went home’

/i wapakhiaŋ bas lunga kəməha mide/ ‘I lost everything in the bus’
In some cases /maikhāṅkhat/, /maidi/ and /wākhāt/ are also used for this purpose. But its use is limited in Liangmai.

/maikhāṅkhat āgu kāba āga mi de/ ‘someone has stolen my watch’

/maidī kām nām lāk ge/ ‘Nobody can do it’

/thainai wākhāt ra pāt sune/ ‘Something/anything can happen today’

Under these two can be treated is as ‘Negative’ pronouns because they occur only in negative environment as in the examples given below:-

/maidī/ → ‘none’

/wadi/ → ‘nothing’

ii) /cakiga maidī ha ye/ ‘None stays in the house’

iii) /kalunga wadi ha ye/ ‘Nothing is in the room’

/maidī/ generally refers to person only while /wadi/ refers to non-human.

4.1.10 Cases:

Case is a grammatical category which expresses the semantic relation between a noun phrase and predicate. The case in Liangmai is affected by using suffixes. The suffixes and post positions are added to the nouns and pronouns or to the number affixes to denote case relations and when these are used after stem, it does not affect the phonetic shape of the stem. In Liangmai language, there are nine cases. These cases for which they are inflected may conveniently be named as
Nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, locative, genitive, ablative, sociative and benefactive. And their case markers are as follow:

1. Nominative - /niu/
2. Accusative - /tu/
3. Instrumental - /niu/
4. Dative - /leŋ/
5. Locative - /ga/-/ləm/
6. Genitive - /gu/
7. Ablative - /gasu/-/ləmsu/
8. Sociative - /saisui/
9. Benefactive - /leŋ/

(a) **Nominative case:**

The most widely acceptable function of the nominative is to mark the subject of the sentence. The subject is either a noun or a pronoun. This is the case which expresses the subject. This occurs with the verbs whether they are transitive or intransitive. This case is expressed by /niu/.

**Example,**

1. i niu patu kəmsat-de

   i nom. him killed past.

   ‘I killed him’
2. Josep niu phaksi tiu ye
josheph nom. mango eat asp.
‘Josheph eats mango’

3) matom niu marian tiu ye
cow nom. grass eat asp.
‘Cow eats grass’

4) pa niu ram tu mæsen ye
he nom. ram acc. like asp.
‘He likes Ram’

b) **Accusative case:**

The noun which is directly affected by the action of the verb is called accusative case. This case denotes mainly the direct object of the transitive verb. In Liangmai language, the accusative case is marked by the suffix /tu/. Accusative marker in this language is completely obligatory.

Examples are as follows:

1) i patu lunsa ye
   i he/she acc. love asp.
   ‘I love him’

2) i øpui tu mæsen ye
   i my mother acc. like asp
   ‘I like my mother’

3) pa niu zon tu dæp ye
   he nom zon acc. beat asp.
   ‘He beats John’
Accusative marker /-tu/ is used to the object role of a noun or pronoun.

Examples

a) i čaľui tu măsen ye
   i song acc. like asp.
   ‘I like song’

b) ram niu kɔniu tu kămsat ye
   ram nom. snake ass. kill asp.
   ‘Ram kills snake’

c) i niu pa tu măsen ye
   I nom. he/she acc. like asp.
   ‘I like him’

(c) Instrumental case:

The instrumentality of an object with reference to an action is expressed by instrumental case marker. Instrumental case marker is homophonous to nominative marker. This instrumental case is expressed by /niu/. Examples are as follow:-

a) i niu thiŋŋa tu čągəmni niu kep sat ye
   i nom. bird acc. gun inst. shoot kill asp.
   ‘I killed a bird with a gun’

b) i niu təthisi tu čəhəŋ niu kepət ye
   I nom. dog acc. knife inst. kill asp.
   ‘I killed a dog with a knife’

c) pa məri niu sɪŋbəŋ hui ye
   he axe inst. tree cut asp.
   ‘He cuts tree with an axe’
d) ram niu jes̩i -tu kačai niu dap ye
   ram nom. jes̩i acc stick inst. beat asp.
   ‘Ram beats Jesse with a stick’

e) i niu č̩ahe̩ń niu alu phaŋ ye
   I nom. knife inst. potato cut asp.
   ‘I cut potato with a knife’

f) Daniel niu mæri niu siŋbaŋ hui ye
   daniel nom. axe inst. tree cut asp.
   ‘Daniel cuts tree with an axe’

g) č̩alikasembopiu hai toniaŋ niu č̩ali ta-liu ye
   potter det clay inst. pot made asp.
   ‘The Potter makes the pot with clay’

(d) **Dative case:**

Dative case is the case of the indirect object of the verb and it is usually associative with the act of giving. In the case, the animate being is affected by the verb state or action. It is realized as /leŋ/

1. i niu paleŋ raŋkaŋ pi ye
   i nom him rupee give asp
   ‘I give him money’

2. aŋpiu niu ailen raŋkaŋ laŋkhai ye
   my father nom me ruppe send past
   ‘My father has send me money’
3. I niu paleŋ kəbak pi ye
   i nom him pig give asp
   ‘I give him pig’

4. pa niu əliu len čapiu pi ye
   He nom us dat. medicine give asp
   ‘He gave us medicine’

5.  na gu rouri alen pi lo
   you gen. pen me dat pi imp
   ‘Give me your pen’

In above examples /len/ is dative case in this language.

(e) Locative case:

The place of location of an object or event is expressed by locative case. In Liangmai locative markers are /ga/ ~ /lam/. It is not obligatory.

Examples are as follow:

a) tebal - ə əriak khat bəm me
   table loc. book one prog. asp.
   ‘A book is on the table’

b) əliu tamei ə wəŋ ye
   we. tamei loc. come asp.
   ‘We are coming to Tamei’

c) i naimačəŋ inson pun ənjiu - ə tat le
   I everyday morning hour five loc. go asp.
   ‘Every morning I go to walk at 5 O’ clock’
c) tethi khat čaki kama ga bəm me
dog one house front loc. prog. asp.
‘A dog is in front of the house’.

f) imbun̂ luŋ-ga intian̂ khat bəm -me
almirah in loc. shirt one prog. asp.
‘A shirt is in the almirah’

It is to be noted here that /ga/ is used in specific or particular area whereas
/lam/ used for wide or vast area, for examples:- / tabel ri ga/ ‘on the table’ but
never used / tabel ri lam/.

(f) Genitive case:

The genitive case typically expresses a possessive relationship of noun or
pronoun. The genitive case suffix is realized as /gu/. Examples are as follows:

a) a-gu əriak khat bəm me
my gen. book one prog asp.
‘I have a book’

b) pa gu bengia wi ye
he/she gen. handwriting good asp.
‘His handwriting is good’
c) haise a - gu  ariak ye

this my gen. book

'This is my book'

d) uise aliu  gu  čəki ye

that we  gen. house asp

'That is our house'

(g) Ablative case:

The ablative case maker is used to express separation, expulsion, source and direction of movement from one to another. The ablative case suffixes are realized as /gasu/ ~ /lamsu/. /gasu/ used at the particular or specific point whereas /lamsu/ used at the vast domain area. Examples are as follows:

a) čəmik  gasu  mikdui luan  kiu ye

eye abl. tear fall down asp.

'Tears fall from the eye'

b) tingen  lamsu  tingriu  kiu - e

sky abl. rain fall asp.

'Rain falls from the sky'

The ablative case marker /lamsu/ ~ /gasu/ is used to express out of or away from a source and direction of movement from one to another. It specifies the point in space to where something is transferred at the culmination of the action identified by the verb. Therefore, the ablative is the case of separation from the source in performing the action mentioned by the verb. This case is realized as /lamsu-gasu/ and it acts as a post-position as in the following examples:
a) məluəŋ ləmsu tədui luwaŋ – kiu ye
hill abl. water fall down asp.

‘Water is falling from the hills’

b) pa čalʉ gasu paki-لام waŋmi-ne
he/she paddyfield abl. house locative gone past

‘He has gone home from the field’

c) naŋ de ləmsu waŋ lo
you what abl. com imp.

‘Where from you are coming’

(h) Sociative case:

The Sociative case expresses the accompanying relationship (e.i. with, along with). This marker is /saisui/ is used in the sense of accompanying someone or used in sense of going together.

1. pa aliu saisui waŋ ye
   he we soc. come-esp
   ‘He is coming with us’

2. i apiu saisui tat ye
   i my father soc. go asp
   ‘I went with my father’
3. *pa niu ə-saisui wəŋ ye*

   *he nom. my soc. come asp*
   
   ‘He comes with me’

4. *pa əsaisui lu čəlen len ye*

   *he my soc. dance asp*
   
   ‘He dance with me’

5. *i əpiu saisui lu kohima tət ye*

   *i my father soc. kohima go past*
   
   ‘I went to Kohima with my father’

(i) **Benefactive case:**

This case denotes the being in whose interest the action indicated by the verb is done. This case functions in a sentence to express the notion “for the benefit of”. Benefactive case marker in Liangmai is expressed by /len/.

Examples

1. *I niu ə-nao len tiaŋ kasanbo liu-ye*

   *i nom. my wife benf. shirt new buy asp*
   
   ‘I bought new shirt for my wife’

2. *I niu əna len ginpui liu ye*

   *he nom. my son benf. ball buy asp*
   
   ‘I bought ball for my son’

3. *əpiu niu əlen čəphitop luk wəŋ ye*

   *my father nom. my benf. shoes come buy asp*
   
   ‘My father bought a pair of shoes for me’
4. paniu əlen skuter liuye

he nom my benf. scooter buy past

‘He bought a scooter for me’

In the above examples əlen is the Benefactive case.

4.2.1 Numerals:

The numerals found in Liangmai language are given below:

1. Cardinal numerals
2. Ordinal numerals
3. Multiplicative numerals
4. Aggregative numerals
5. Approximate numerals
6. Measurements
7. Fractional numerals
8. System of units
9. Distributive numerals
10. Numeral classifiers

They are discussed one by one in the followings:

1. **Cardinal Numerals:**

According to David Crystal (1985), cardinal is a traditional term retained in some grammatical model of description referring to the class of numerals: one, two, and three.... Ten etc. In Liangmai, cardinal numerals can function as an
adjective. For example namai madai mathen bamme ‘Four children are playing’

Cardinal numerals can be divided into two classes. They are

(i) Basic cardinal numerals and

(ii) Compound cardinal numerals

(i) Basic cardinal numerals:

The basic cardinal numerals in Liangmai are mono-morphemic and used in
the formation compound cardinals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k'at</td>
<td>‘one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nia</td>
<td>‘two’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td>‘three’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>madai</td>
<td>‘four’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mæjiu</td>
<td>‘five’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>čarok</td>
<td>‘six’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>čanía</td>
<td>‘seven’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tačat</td>
<td>‘eight’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>čakiu</td>
<td>‘nine’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kariu</td>
<td>‘ten’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Compound cardinal numerals:

It can be divided into two groups’ viz.

(a) Additive compound and

(b) Higher multiplicative compound.
(a) **Additive compound:**

In additive compound, the numerals are added in the form of two digits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ k³at</td>
<td>10+1= 11 'eleven'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ nia</td>
<td>10+2= 12 'twelve'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ sum</td>
<td>10+3= 13 'thirteen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ mædai</td>
<td>10+4= 14 'fourteen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ mæniu</td>
<td>10+5= 15 'fifteen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ cærok</td>
<td>10+6= 16 'sixteen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ cæniu</td>
<td>10+7= 17 'seventeen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ tocæt</td>
<td>10+8= 18 'eighteen'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kæriu+ kiu</td>
<td>10+9= 19 'nineteen'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) **Higher multiplicative compounds:**

In Liangmai, higher multiplicative compounds are multiples of hundred and thousand. Multiples of hundred starting from 200 to 900 are formed by adding a prefix /kai/ to the cardinal numerals. In the same manner, multiples of thousand are formed by the adding a prefix /saŋ/ to the cardinal numerals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kai</td>
<td>100 'hundred'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaik³at</td>
<td>100x1=100 'one hundred'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kainia</td>
<td>100x2=200 'two hundred'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaisum</td>
<td>100x3=300 'three hundred'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
kaisum 100x3=300 ‘three hundred’
kaimədai 100x4=400 ‘four hundred’
kaimənjiu 100x5=500 ‘five hundred’
kaicəroko 100x6=600 ‘six hundred’
kaicənoria 100x7=700 ‘seven hundred’
kaicəkiato 100x8=800 ‘three hundred’
kaicəkiiuo 100x9=900 ‘nine hundred’
sən 1000 ‘thousand’

2. Ordinal numbers:

It is the number used to indicate the order such as 1\textsuperscript{st} place, 2\textsuperscript{nd} place, 1\textsuperscript{st} month etc. In Liangmai, ordinal numerals are formed by adding a suffix /bo/ to the cardinal numerals. The ordinal numerals are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>karaibo</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st} ‘first’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paniabo</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} ‘second’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pasumbo</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} ‘third’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pamadaibo</td>
<td>4\textsuperscript{th} ‘fourth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>panjiubo</td>
<td>5\textsuperscript{th} ‘fifth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pačarokbo</td>
<td>6\textsuperscript{th} ‘sixth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pačaniabo</td>
<td>7\textsuperscript{th} ‘seventh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patačatbo</td>
<td>8\textsuperscript{th} ‘eight’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pačakiubo</td>
<td>9\textsuperscript{th} ‘nineth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pakariubo</td>
<td>10\textsuperscript{th} ‘tenth’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. **Multiplicative numerals:**

Multiplicative numerals are used in answering the questions like how many times? In Liangmai, multiplicative numerals are formed by adding a prefix /lon/ to the cardinal numerals.

**Example:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lon-ŋui</td>
<td>‘once’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonnia</td>
<td>‘twice’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonsum</td>
<td>‘ thrice’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonmɛdai</td>
<td>‘fourth times’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonmɛniu</td>
<td>‘five times’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonɛrɔk</td>
<td>‘sixth times’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonɛnia</td>
<td>‘seventh times’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lontɛat</td>
<td>‘eight times’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonɛakiu</td>
<td>‘nine times’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonkɛriu</td>
<td>‘tenth times’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Aggregative numerals:**

In Liangmai, aggregative numerals are formed by adding a suffix /siak/ to the cardinal numerals.

**Example:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sumsiaik</td>
<td>all the three/thrice together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mədaisiaik</td>
<td>all the four/four together</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. **Approximate numerals:**

In Liangmai, approximate numerals are formed by adding a suffix /kumbo/ to the cardinal numerals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k₃st-nia kumbo</td>
<td>'about one to two'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nia-sum kumbo</td>
<td>'about two to three'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum-madai kumbo</td>
<td>'about three to four'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>madai-magiu kumbo</td>
<td>'about four to five'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kõriu-makai kumbo</td>
<td>'about ten to twenty'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sumriu-atai kumbo</td>
<td>'about thirty to forty'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **Measurements:**

In Liangmai, system of measurement and its unit can be divided into four, viz. measurement of liquid, measurement of grain, measurement of thickness and measurement of length. They are discussed separately below:
(i) Liquid measurement:

In Liangmai, the measurement of liquid is same as like other Tibeto-Burman languages. They used only the standardized borrowed English system of unit.

- litor ‘litre’
- litor khòt ‘one litre’
- litor nia ‘two litre’

(ii) Measurement of Grain:

Traditionally, for measurement of grains in Liangmai used their own made baskets of various sizes.

Example: -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>takəm</td>
<td>15kg basket’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luə̀bu</td>
<td>‘20kg basket’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luə̀təŋəŋ</td>
<td>‘30 kg basket’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) Measurement of thickness:

In Liangmai, measurement of thickness is formed by adding the prefix /zuŋpuimin/ to the cardinal numerals.

Example: -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zuŋpuimin pəŋəŋ</td>
<td>‘1/2 inch,’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zuŋpuimin kəŋat</td>
<td>‘one inch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zuŋpuimin nia</td>
<td>‘two inches’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(iv) **Measurement of length:**

The Liangmai uses the measurement of length in a traditional way:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>čakiu/kiurọŋ</td>
<td>‘the length that lies between the thump and middle/ring finger’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kiubu</td>
<td>‘the length indicated by the thumb and index finger’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>čak'eb</td>
<td>‘the distance between the tip of the middle fingers of left and right hands is fully expanded form’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tačaw</td>
<td>‘the distance between tip of the middle finger and elbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abenpuak</td>
<td>‘the distance between the tip of the middle finger to armpit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>čak'ebphən</td>
<td>‘the distance which is half of the full expanded two arms’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abendithenọga</td>
<td>‘the length that lies between the tip of the middle finger to ridge’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tapu</td>
<td>‘knee-deep, deep enough to reach the knees’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
k'endiu ‘waist-deep, deep enough to reach the waist’
agaku ‘chest-deep, deep enough to reach the chest,
ør'èn ‘fathom, deep enough to reach the crown of the head’

(vii) Fractional numerals:

The Liangmai uses fractional number as /paphon/ half and /pumkhat/ full or one whole. Fractional numbers can be represented in mathematical system. It is the dividing method of two dissimilar numbers and should remain as fraction.

Example:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>paphon</td>
<td>‘half’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pumkhat</td>
<td>‘one whole’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dam sum gəsu dam nia</td>
<td>‘two-third’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dam mədai gəsu dam sum</td>
<td>‘three-fourth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dam mənjiu gəsu dam mədai</td>
<td>‘fourth-fifth’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may be noted here that the order of items in fractional is opposite to English. For instance in the fractional item /dəm mədai gəsu dam sum/ ‘three-fourth’ /sum/ ‘three’ follow /dəm mədai gəsu dam sum/ ‘four+ablative’. The order of item in English is that smaller number occurs first and larger number is pronounced later.
(viii) **System of units:**

The Liangmai use the system of units from one to ten thousand in their own language. And from hundred thousand onwards they borrowed from English, Hindi Sanskrit, e.g. lakhhat, crore, etc. are borrowed words.

Example:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liangmai</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kʰat</td>
<td>‘one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kəriu</td>
<td>‘ten’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaikʰat</td>
<td>‘hundred’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saŋkʰat</td>
<td>‘thousand’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saŋkəriu</td>
<td>‘ten thousand’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lakkʰat</td>
<td>‘one lakh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lakkəriu</td>
<td>‘ten lakh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kro</td>
<td>‘crore’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kro kəriu</td>
<td>‘ten crore’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ix) **Distributive numerals:**

In Liangmai, the distributive numerals are formed by reduplicating the numerals and it is followed by morphemes /thiuziu/ or /zam/ as in the following:

/khat khat thiuziu/  ‘one by one’
/sum sum thiuziu/  ‘three by three’
/nia nia zam/  ‘two each’
/magiu magiu zam/  ‘five each’
(x) **Numeral classifiers:**

The numeral classifier is a construction consisting of a numeral and a classifier. Morphologically and syntactically, numeral classifier forms a finite subclass of Liangmai. There is basically one numeral classifier with human nouns in Liangmai. The human nouns take the classifier in Liangmai /kʰɛŋ/:

a) /ɛmɛi kʰɛŋ kʰət/ 'one man'

b) /nɛmɛi kʰɛŋ məkai/ ‘Twenty boys’

c) /ɛɛbonmai kʰɛŋ sʊm/ ‘three youths’

d) /mɪktɛnmai kʰɛŋ kʰət/ ‘one bind man’

### 4.2.2 Adjectives:

Adjective in this language usually follow the head noun they qualify. It is also one of the characteristic of SOV languages, as observed by Greenberg. In Liangmai adjective is formed by using three groups:

Examples:

(a) Adjective formed with the attributive /kə/ and the nominalizer /bo/ together.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>root</th>
<th>NZR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i)  kə + ku + bo  →  kəkubə čəki</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tall building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘a tall building’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii) kə + tən + bo  →  kətənbo mai</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>strong man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘a strong man’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adjective formed with the attributive /kʰəŋ/ only.

Examples:

prefix + root

i) kʰəŋ + sia → namai kʰəŋsia
   child some
   'some children’*

Adjective formed with only nominalizer /bo/

Root + NZR

i) khiaŋ + bo khiaŋbo rasi
   sour fruit
   'a sour fruit’

ii) čunsə + bo čunsəbo ˈmari
   sad story
   'a sad story’

The following adjectives are found in this language, which expresses the inherent states- include quality, quantity, taste, colour, dimensional adjective, adjective of number, demonstrative adjective, possessive adjective and reduplication of adjective.

(i) **Adjective of quality:**

The adjective which shows the quality of the noun or pronoun is known as adjective quality. It is formed by prefix /kə/ along with the nominalizer /bo/
The adjective /kawibo/ 'good' and /kathiubo/ 'hot' are the adjective of quality.

(ii) **Adjective of quantity:**

The adjective which shows the quantity of the noun or pronoun is called the adjective quantity. In Liangmai, adjective of quantity is formed with attributive /ka/.

i) namai kasia mathen bamme
   child some play-asp.
   (N) (adj.Qn.) (V)
   'Some children are playing'

ii) tadui kapoina pikhai-lo
    water little give
    (N) (adj.Qn) (V)
    'Give a little water'

The adjective of quantity occurs only after the noun.
(iii) **Adjective of taste:**

/kɔːquito/ ‘taste’
/kɔːhumbo/ ‘sweet’
/kɔ̥khiŋbo/ ‘sour’
/kɔkhabo/ ‘bitter’

(iv) **Adjective of colour:**

/kɔtikbo/ ‘black’
/kɔkabo/ ‘white’
/kɔ̥kheŋbo/ ‘red’
/kɔmazinbo/ ‘yellow’
/mɔdabo/ ‘green’
/kɔmoubo/ ‘blue’

(v) **Dimensional of adjective:**

/kɔθeŋbo/ ‘long’
/kɔkubo/ ‘high’
/kɔrdibo/ ‘heavy’
/kɔsukbo/ ‘deep’
/kɔsiambo/ ‘small’
(vi) **Adjective of number:**

Adjective of number denotes the number of noun or pronoun.

Examples:

i) nəməi kət tədəi məthen bəmme
   child one water play cont-asp
   (N) (adj.N) (N) (V)
   ‘A child is playing water’

ii) čəməi sum tət kən-e
    man three go-asp
    (N) (adj.N) (V)

iii) thųnə mənju lem kən-e
    bird five fly-asp
    (N) (adj.Q) (V)
    ‘Five birds are flying’

From above examples, we know that the adjective of number occurs after noun.

(vii) **Demonstrative Adjective:**

The adjective that used to point out the noun or pronoun is called the demonstrative adjective. Demonstrative adjective is formed with only nominalizer /bo/. 

Page | 155
i) hai-bo ariak se wi ye
   this book det. nice-asp
   (D.adj) (N) (adj.Q)
   ‘This book is nice’

ii) ui-bo phai se wi ye
    That clothe det. nice -asp
    (D.adj) (N) (adj.Q)

The demonstrative adjective occurs only before the noun or pronoun.

(viii) **Distributive adjective:**

A distributive adjective refers to its noun giving it individuality out of a group. It is formed by its own lexical items.

a) haidunjse ariakna khat-khat gə inzan-lo
   these student each-each loc distribute-com
   (D.adj) (N) (Dis.adj) (V)
   ‘Distribute these to each student’

b) ariakna hina pakilam tat mi-de
   student every house go perf.asp
   (N) (Dis.adj)(N) (V)
   ‘Every student has gone to their home’

(ix) **Possessive adjective:**

The adjective which shows the possession of the noun or pronoun is called the possessive adjective. This possessive adjective also has its own lexical item.
From above examples, we know that possessive adjective occurs before the noun or pronoun.

(x) **Repetition/ reduplication of adjective:**

Reduplication of adjective is the recurring of the adjective which is formed with /ka/ along with nominalizer /bo/.

i) ċamai kaku-kubo mai keŋ bəmme
   man tall-tall are/is many-asp
   (N) (Rep.adj) (num)
   ‘There are many tall men’

ii) tiu wi-wibo rasi phurwəŋ-lo
   taste-taste fruit bring-com
   (rep.adj) (n) (V)
   ‘Bring tasty fruits’
(i) **positive:** it remain unmarked. Consider the following:

/katherbo/  ‘long’

/kakubo/  ‘high’

/katanbo/  ‘hard’

(ii) **Comparative:** comparative is formed by post posing-swuaŋ after suffixing genitive marker-/niu/ in comparing between the things. Consider the following examples:

a)  wibou niu  adibou swuaŋ  niŋiŋ ye

Wibou nom adibou comp. intelligent -asp

‘Wibou is more intelligent than Adibou’
b) pa niu ñ- swuan ku-e
he nom comp tall-asp
‘He is taller than me’

c) Ćapuwar) niu Ćakui swuan di-ye
elephant nom tiger comp. big-asp
‘Elephant is bigger than tiger’

(iii) Superlative:

Superlative is formed by adding common noun- /pakhiag/ ‘all’/ mathiug/ ‘every’ and suffixed –/thu/ ‘superlative’ and added with comparison-/ruag/

a) baramaputra niu singiu pakhiaŋ ruan gə theŋ thu-e
baramaputra nom river all comp loc. long sup-asp
‘The Brahmaputra is the longest river of all’

b) haibo na niu mthiu ruan gə ku thu-e
this boy nom all comp loc. tall sup-asp
‘This boy is the tallest of all’

However, the superlative is formed by suffixing-/ruanga/ after any plural noun comparison in adding superlative-/kaçag/ with the noun or pronoun.

a) Ćakhaio duŋ ruan-gə Ćapuwar) niu di-kaçag-e
animal pl comp loc elephant nom big sup
‘Elephant is the biggest among the animals’
b) maipui duŋ raŋ-ɡa ɑkau-liu niu wi-kaɛŋ-yɛ

woman-pl comp- loc. ɑkau-liu nom good sup-asp

'Akualiu is the best among the women'

As the data revealed that the superlative is also formed by suffixing- /θu/ with adjectives but without comparison. Consider the following examples:

a) haibo na niu wi thu-e

this boy nom. beautiful sup-asp

'This child is the most beautiful'

b) ɔpɯwɔŋ niu di- thu-e

elephant nom big-sup-asp

'Elephant is the biggest'

4.2.3 Verbs:

In Liangmai, all verbal roots are bound roots; the exact verb forms are derived by affixation of modality, aspect markers etc. Of the two strategies (affixation and compounding) for constructing verb, affixation is more productive than compounding.

Root + Neg./aspect marker → verb

tiu + du → tiudu 'don’t eat'

eat – Neg.mk

sɔk+mɔk → sɔkmɔk 'not drink'

drink neg. mk.

tat + khe → tatkhe ‘Let’s go’
Various categories of suffixes

There are many suffixes which will be added to the verbal roots: They are in many kinds.

A. Aspect markers:

Simple aspect (expressing the meaning of the habitual):

me -e - le

Progressive aspect: båmme

Perfect aspect: de ~ le

Unrealized aspect: rå-e ~ ne

B. Modality:

Negative markers: (Suffixes).

Expressing habitual and action Completed: me ~ e ~ le

Expressing action in futurity (unrealized) rå - e ~ ne

Negative ‘let’ - mák khe/tukhe

Prohibitive marker -du

Definitizer – de

Definite + action completed – mine ~ lune.

Compounding:

Some verbs in Liangmai are formed by combination of two or more verbal roots and they must be ended by aspect marker. These compound verbs are limited in number. They are given below:

pa+pat-e → pa-pat-e ‘has read out’

read-out-asp
Verbs in Liangmai can be defined as roots, which can take the morphemes (grammatical categories) for tense, aspect and mood. Verbs are not marked for person, number and gender in Liangmai. Verb roots may be divided according to their structures into two types- (i) Simple and (ii) derived/complex. Most of the simple roots are monosyllabic while the derived roots are formed by compounding. The following are the structures of verbs roots:

**Simple root:**

Simple root consists of a root and also with absolutely nothing else attached to it. Simple verb roots in Liangmai are free morphemes, i.e. they are capable of standing independently on their own in larger constructions. For examples:

- /tat/ 'go'
- /kəp/ 'cry'
- /nui/ 'laugh'
- /tir/ 'weather'
- /rou/ ‘write’
- /wər/ ‘come’
From the grammatical point of view, the verbs can be divided into two types, viz.

i) Transitive verb  

There are no separate markers for transitive and intransitive verbs in Liangmai language. Transitive verbs are those which can take a direct object while the intransitive are those which do not take a direct object but can have an indirect object. The following examples will clarify the situation:

i) Transitive verb:

/paliu philim phiubamme/  ‘They are watching a film’

/pa čaphai katha bəmme/  ‘She is washing clothes’

/aliu tek tiu-de/  ‘we ate rice’

ii) Intransitive verb:

/pa pat kinne/  ‘He is running’

/čako kai kiu mide/  ‘The fish fell (down)’

/glas pagroi mide/  ‘The glass broke’

/pa zi bəmme/  ‘He is sleeping’

Auxiliary verb:

The auxiliary verbs form a small set of verbs, subordinate to the main lexical verb which help to make distinctions in mood, aspect and tense. In Liangmai language, there are two types of auxiliary verbs viz. (i) main auxiliary and (ii) model auxiliary.
i) **Main auxiliary**: `/bamboi/ is the main auxiliary verb and expressed the meaning of 'be' and 'have'. It functions as a copula in non-verbal predicates and also used obligatorily in locative predicates, past tense and in stative sense of possession. Examples are given below:

i) pa čaki gə bmme
   he home loc be
   'He is at home'

ii) aliu kʊrɛŋ gə bmme
    we garden loc be
    'we are in the garden'

iii) a-gu čaki kədibɔ bmme
    my-acc house big be past
    'I had a big house'

iv) na-piunabo kʰəŋ nia bmme
    you-uncle cl. two be have
    'You have two uncles'

ii) **Modal auxiliary**: `/ŋam/ ‘can’ and `/sui/ ‘may’ are the modal auxiliaries. Modal auxiliaries in Liangmai are bound forms:

i) i təd ŋam-e
   i go mod
   'I can go'
ii) i čalui thi u ɲam- me
   i song sing mod. Asp
   'I can sing a song'

iii) tiŋsa sui-e
   rain mod-asp
   'It may rain'

On the semantic point of view, the verb can be divided into three types, viz.
(a) action verb (b) static verb and (c) precess verb.

(a) Action verb:

The action verbs are those that indicate doing something. Let us see the following examples:

a) i ken bəmme
   i read cont. asp
   'I am reading'

b) tuhoi I skul go tot bəm-me
   now i school loc. go pro.asp
   'now, I am going in school'

c) matompui piuriang gi bəm-me
   cow grass eat pro. Asp
   'A cow is grazing'

Here /pabəm/ 'reading, /tətəm/ 'going' and /gibəm/ 'grazing' are active verbs as it shows doing something.
List of action verbs are given here:

/lenbo/ ‘to fly’ /tiubo/ ‘to eat’
/dapbo/ ‘to beat’ /roubo/ ‘to write’
/giabo/ ‘to draw’ /zanbo/ ‘divide’

(b) **Stative verb:**

Static verbs are those verbs that indicate habitual facts and natural phenomenon.

a) haibo phai tik-e ‘This cloth is black’
   this cloth black-asp

b) uibo siŋtan dun-e ‘That stick is short’
   that tree short-asp

c) haibo ramluaŋ ku-e ‘This hill is high’
   this hill high-asp

In the above given examples /tik/ ‘black’, /dun/ ‘short’ and /ku/ ‘high’ are stative verb.

(c) **Process verb:**

Process verbs are those verbs that the action of the verb is not performed by an actor or a doer. The verb itself expresses the mode of action as shows in the examples below:

a) saimibo matompui tenziu bəm-me
   Dead cow rotten prog-asp
   ‘The dead cow is being rotten’

b) kariatiŋ wan ga tam tambo gu rapendulan pen ye
   spring- time loc. Varieties gen flowers bloom-asp
'In spring time varieties of flowers are blooming'

**Conjunct verb:**

A conjunct verb is a sentence of a noun + verb or an adjective + verb.

Consider the following examples in Liangmai language.

i) */kɔmbo/*

*/kɔmbo/* ‘to do’

*/c̃aŋamkɔmbo/* ‘to do work’

*/c̃alunamkɔmbo/* ‘do agriculture’

ii) */kʰaŋra/*

*/kalaŋsara/* ‘to become’

*/kalaŋkwira/* ‘to become poor’

*/kalaŋkwira/* ‘to become rich’

*/wira/* ‘to become good’

*/sara/* ‘to become bad’

*/kara/* ‘to become white’

**Finite verb:**

The finite verb takes the morphemes for tense as in the following:

i. */tiu-e/*

*/pa tek tiu-e/* ‘He eats rice’

ii. */tiu bɔmme/*

*/pa tek tiu bɔmme/* ‘He is eating rice’

iii. */tiu-e/*

*/pa nai maŋ̇ tek tiu-e/* ‘He eats rice everyday’

iv. */tiu-e/*

*/pa tek tiu-e/* ‘He ate rice’
v. /tiuziu bamme/

/pa tek tiuziu bamme/ ‘He was eating rice’

vi. /tiune/

/pa tek tiu ne/ ‘He will eat rice’

Non-finite verb:

A non-finite verb does not complete a sentence and it requires a finite verb to complete the sentence. The past participle form of the non-finite verbs is formed by adding /bo/ to the verb like the following:

/čalui thiubo thiŋna/ ‘singing bird’
/čalen lenbo nápui/ ‘dancing girl’
/saibo mai/ ‘dead man’
/čunsobo na/ ‘dejected boy’
/minmibo mai/ ‘arrested man’

Complex Base:

As we noted earlier, the complex bases of the Liangmai verbs are made up of a root followed by the derivative suffix. The following are the examples of different types of complex bases found in Liangmai.

Passive base:

The passive base is formed by adding the morphemes /leŋ/ and it is prefixed by /bo/ or /ra/ as in the following examples:

/taliura/ ‘to make’
/taliurabo leŋ/ ‘to be made’
\[1\]kenra/ 'to read'
\[2\]kenrabo leq/ 'to be read'
\[3\]ηaoabo/ 'to see'
\[4\]ηao rabo leq/ 'to be seen'
\[5\]tiubo/ 'to eat'
\[6\]tiurabo leq/ 'to be eaten'
\[7\]mathenra/ 'to play'
\[8\]mathenrabo leq/ 'to be played'

**Causative:**

Causative are causal verb in Liangmai language is morphologically marked. The most productive type of forming a causative base is by the addition of the causative morpheme /bo/ to the verb. The following are some of the examples of Liangmai causative verb bases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-causative</th>
<th>Causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ηao/ 'see'</td>
<td>/ηao-bo/ 'to see'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ciu/ 'hear'</td>
<td>/ciu-bo/ 'to hear'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tiu/ 'eat'</td>
<td>/tiu-bo/ 'to eat'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/toliu/ 'make'</td>
<td>/toliu-bo/ 'to make'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/zi/ 'sleep'</td>
<td>/zi-bo/ 'to sleep'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/nui/ 'laugh'</td>
<td>/nui-bo/ 'to laugh'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ζap/ 'stand'</td>
<td>/ζap-bo/ 'to stand'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.4 Tense

The term ‘tense’ is derived from a Latin translation of a Greek word “khronos” which means time (Lyons 1968). Comrie defined tense as grammatically expression of location in time. The category of tense is not the same in all the languages. The primary distinction that the verbs make is between realis and irrealis form. The indistinctiveness of tense is one of the structural features of TB languages. Tense in Liangmai is not very distinct and is not so clear. As such, in Liangmai, there is no clear morphological analysis for denoting tense. This is supported by the following example given below:

a) pa dainai Imphal lom tæd e
   he yesterday Imphal loc go asp.
   ‘He went to Imphal yesterday’

b) Peter thainai Imphal lom tæd ne
   Peter today Imphal loc. go Asp
   ‘Peter goes to Imphal today’

c) Peter sonnai Imphal tæd ne
   Peter tomorrow Imphal go Asp
   ‘Peter will go to Imphal tomorrow’

The above three sentences show that the verbs ending in sentence (a), (b) and (c) are same though they occur with different adverbial time dainai ‘yesterday’ thainai ‘today’ and sonnai ‘tomorrow’ respectively. In other words, no specific agreement is shown between the adverbial time and the verb endings (time reference is not grammaticalized).
Tense indicates the time of action mentioned by the verb with reference to the time of the speech act. Taking the time of the speaker’s utterance as reference, whatever happens during the utterance is the present, whatever happened before that is termed past and whatever will happen after the time of utterance is termed future. These basic tenses can be established in Liangmai on the basis of the usage of different suffixes or aspect markers. Each tense is marked by separate suffixes, i.e, the verb is inflected by separated markers. The tense distinction in liangmai is found to be between future and non-future which is very typical of Tibeto-Burman languages, especially of Kuki-Naga Chin group. Consider the following example:

1. akhon čə sak mine  
   akhon tea drink (very definite)

2. akhon čə sak lumide  
   akhon tea drink (completed)

3. akhon čə sak mibam raəboi  
   akhon tea drink (but not sure)

4. akhon čə sak raəboi  
   akhon tea drink (Will continue)

It is here to be noted that the mentioned above are occurred the different verbal suffixes in the sentences 1, 2, 3 and 4. The suffix mine in sentence 1 indicates definite-action-completion while another suffix in sentence 2 lumide denotes action already completed. The mibamraəboi indicates ‘doubt of an action’. The last point i.e. raəboi it expresses ‘continuation of the action’. Here the treatment of mine and lumide as past tense marker by the traditional grammar will be unlogical.
4.2.5 Aspect:

Aspect denotes the manner in which the action identified by the verb is regarded or experienced. Hence, aspect indicates the temporal distribution of the action. Aspect is more prominent than tense in this language. Aspects are different way of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation or an event. In other words, Aspect indicates the internal structure of an event or situation. Aspect is no concerned with relating the time of the situation to any other time point, but rather with the internal temporal constituency of the one situation. Hopi also makes a statement of three tenses: One used is statement of several timeless truth (‘Mountains are high’), a second used in reports of known or presumably known happenings (‘I saw him yesterday’, ‘I’m on my way their right now’), and a third used of events still in the realm of uncertainty, hence often where we would think of the event as the speaker’s future (‘He’s coming tomorrow’). The grammatical devices which are use for denoting temporal distribution of internal temporal structural events and states are regarded as Aspect. The following types of aspect are found in Liangmai.

(i) Simple Aspect
(ii) Progressive Aspect
(iii) Perfect Aspect
(iv) Irrealis or Unrealized Aspect:
(i) **Simple Aspect:**

In this language, it expresses simple statement, universal truth and habitual meaning. This simple aspect is expressed by /ye/, /bamme/ and /le/ in the sentences. Consider the following sentences.

- We need money in life
  
  *aliu rinninga rəŋkəŋ pəŋəŋ bəmme*  
  *we life-loc money need S.Asp*

- He sings a song
  
  *pa čəlui thiü ye*  
  *he song sing-Asp*

- He goes to play
  
  *pa məthenra tat le*  
  *he play go S.Asp*

- The sun rises in the east.
  
  *naimikpot lamsu naimik pətle*  
  *east loc sun rise S.asp*

- Fire is hot
  
  *čəmise thiü ye*  
  *fire hot S.asp*

(ii) **Progressive Aspect:**

It shows the nature or continuity of an action. This may be present, past or future. Liangmai shows a three way contrast in tense as far as the progressive aspect is concerned.

a) Present progressive

b) Past progressive

c) Future progressive
(a) **Present progressive**

/pa tɔt bəmme/  ‘He is going’

/pa inpao bəmme/  ‘She is talking’

/peter tuhoi əriak ken bəmme/  ‘Peter is reading a book now’

/pa čəmenj gia bəmme/  ‘He is painting a picture’

/aliuəriak ken bəmme/  ‘We are reading a book’

(b) **Past progressive**

/pa tɔt bəm de/  ‘He was going’

/pa inpao bəm de/  ‘She was talking’

/peter tuhoi əriak ken bəm de/  ‘Peter was reading a book now’

/pa čəmenj gia bəm de/  ‘He was painting a picture’

(c) **Future progressive**

/pa tɔt sune/  ‘He will be going’

/pa inpao sune/  ‘She will be talking’

/peter tuhoi əriakpə sune/  ‘Peter will be reading a book now’

/pa čəmenj gia su ne/  ‘He will be painting a picture’

(iii) **Perfect Aspect:**

The present perfect tense refer to the present result of an activity or experience in the past. The chief interest is not in the past but in the present. This is expressed by the suffix *de ~ le* as in the following sentences:
a) pa čərasi tiu mide
   he fruit eat (very definite)
   ‘He has taken fruit’

b) pa məkidi təd le
   he Imphal go (very definite)

There is a suffix – *lumide* which indicates certainty of the completion of an action, as in the following sentence.

pa čərasi tiulu mide Thee has taken the fruit
he fruit eat (completed)

The speaker is very much sure about the completion of the action of taking fruit. Let us examine the semantic difference between the following two sentences.

a) wipibou ariakki tədsu mide Wipibou has started going to school
   wipibou school go started

b) pa ariakki təd lumide He has gone to school
   he school go (completed)

The (a) expresses that ‘wipibou’ has started going to school after absence from school for a few days, it does not mean that the action of going is completed; today he may go to school. But (b) indicates that he has gone to school (right at this moment he is not at home).

This aspect marker can also be used in a very specific situation, say reporting an action and informing of departure. Consider the following sentences.
(i) Happens in such a situation that in the midst of the conversation of ‘a person’ (say Mr. wipi). Mr. wipi is seen going by one of the members, and then informed. Mr. wipi is going there; (b) is used in the very context of taking leave, saying a the time of departure, informing ‘I am leaving’.

(iv) **Irrealis or Unrealized Aspect:**

This is used for action which will take place in the near future. The relevant aspect marker is ra – boi – ne as in the sentence.

a)  
\[ \text{pa senki l̄am t̄ad raboi} \]

he market loc go un rl. mk.

‘He will go to market’

b)  
\[ \text{əliu sonnai məluwaŋ l̄am khaŋ -ne} \]

we tomorrow hill loc.climb S. ASP

‘We will climb to hill tomorrow’
Aspect is more prominent than tense in this language. Now notice that there are four aspects. More and above it is not possible to forget aspects in this language, and the suffix ra - e ~ ne is treated as irrealis or unrealized aspects, then the question of tense does not arise at all.

4.2.6 Completive

When the objective of an action is completed, it is said to be a completive aspect. It refers to the object of the action. In Liangmai, /loi/ is used before the verb to indicate the completive aspect.

/i čəŋəm kəm loi mide/ ‘I completed the work’

/pa ari təd su mide/ ‘He has started going to school’

/i pi su mide/ ‘I started to give’

/pa čəŋəm kəm su mide/ ‘He began to do the work’

4.2.7 Inceptive

It refers to the aspectual relationship in which the beginning of the action is specified. This is indicated in Liangmai by using /su/ before the verb as in the following sentences.

/i čəŋəm kəm loi mide/ ‘I completed the work’

/pa ari təd su mide/ ‘He has started going to school’

/i pi su mide/ ‘I started to give’

/pa čəŋəm kəm su mide/ ‘He began to do the work’
4.2.8 Habitual

It indicates of an action that is repeated almost regularly at the regular interval of time. In Liangmai, an adverb /naimǎːŋ/ “daily” is used before the object to indicate this aspect.

/pa naimǎːŋ čōlem len ye/ ‘She dances everyday’
/i naimǎːŋ čōka tii ye/ ‘I eat fish everyday’
/i naimǎːŋ oriakpə ye/ ‘I read the book everyday’

4.2.9 Mood

Mood expresses the attitudes on the part of the speaker towards the factual content of the utterances such as uncertainty, possibility etc. Liangmai has some number of moods which are discussed below:

4.2.10 Imperative mood

This mood expresses the command to the subject by the speaker to perform certain functions identified by the verb in the concerned sentence. The imperative mood maker in Liangmai is /lo/ and it is suffixed to the verb. This mood occurs only with the action verb as in the following examples:

/patu ku lo/ ‘(you) call him’
/nəmaï duŋ tu phuilə/ ‘see the boys’
/tiulo/ ‘(you) eat’
Imperative mood in Liangmai expresses request on the one hand and the command on the other. The imperative of command is expressed simply by the bare verb root while the imperative of request is expressed by the polite imperative (pol.Imp.M) realized as –'khai’ added to the verb root. Consider the following examples:

a)  tao khai lo!
    go- pol.Imp.m
    ‘Please go!

b)  tiu- khai lo
    eat-pol.Imp.m
    ‘please eat’

c)  Ćaluņsaziu ălen ąriak pi khai lo!
    please for me book give Imp.m
    ‘please give me the book’

d)  Ćaluņsaziu tek tiu khai lo
    kindly food-eat pol.imp.m
    ‘Please have rice’

4.3.1 Capability:

The ability or capability is expressed by adding the modal auxiliary-ńomme to the verb followed by tense marker.

Examples:

i)  pā čņąm kam ńam-me
    he work do ability-pres.
    ‘He can do the work’
ii)  
i tad ŋam-me
i go ability-pres
‘I can go’

iii)  
paliu čolui thi u ŋam-me
they song thi u ability-pres.
‘They can sing a song’

4.3.2 Necessity:

The mood of necessity is expressed by the word ‘pagaŋ’ meaning ‘need’ followed by aspect markers are added to it. Examples:

a)  
i tad len pagen bəmme
i go need-asp
‘I need to go’

b)  
naŋ- haiga wəŋ len pagen bəmme
you here come need fut-asp
‘You will need to come here’

c)  
paliu niu kəm len pagen bəmme.
they –nom do need-asp
‘They needed to do it’

d)  
pa niu čariu sak len pagen bəmsune
he –nom medicine drink need- prog-fut-asp
‘He will need to drink medicine’
4.3.3 Probability:

The mood of probability is expressed by the modal auxiliary-/sui/ followed by aspect.

a) tīŋ riu sui-e
   rain fall prob-asp
   ‘It may rain’

b) i uigo tət sui-e
   i there go prob.-asp
   ‘I may go there’

c) pa čəŋəm kəm sui-e
   he work do prob-asp
   ‘He may do the work’

d) čəməi wəŋ sui-e
   man come prob-asp
   ‘The man may come’

4.3.4 Conditional mood:

The conditional mood is expressed by- sai ‘if’ to the verb root. Sai does not occur in isolation, it is always bound to verbs.

Examples:

a) nəŋ wəŋ sai
   you come-cond.m
   ‘if you come’
b) pa haigwə wəŋ sai
   he here come cond.m
   ‘If he comes here’

c) i pa-tu adao sai
   i he-acc met cond.
   ‘If i meet him’

4.3.5 Permissive:

The permissive is expressed by using -/suikhai/ and the aspect is added.

Examples:

i) pa-tu tat rə suikhai-lo
   he-acc go inf. allow-Req.
   ‘Allow him to go’

ii) pa-tu phui lenj suikhai de
    he acc see inf. allow- p
    ‘You are allowed to see’

iii) atu ariak khoi lenj suikhai lo
    i-acc book take inf. allow- Req.
    ‘Allow me to take the book’

4.3.6 Interrogatives:

Interrogatives in Liangmai can be classified into two types Yes/No questions which ask for the confirmation or negation of the statement, and Wh- questions.
4.3.7 Yes/ No:

Yes/No question in Liangmai is formed by adding the question marks- /ma/ to the verb. An affirmative statement can be converted in to an introgative sentence without the question markers- /ma/, /lo/ but by means of intonation. The markers /ne/ and /ge/ may be optionally used when the introgative is expressed by the rising intonation. Examples are given below:

/nəŋ tiu ne ma/ ‘Will you eat?’
You eat-Fut Int
/nəŋ tiu ne/ (rising intonation) ‘Will you eat?’
/nəŋ tat lək ge ma/ ‘Do not you go?’
You go Neg-Fut Int.
/nəŋ tat lək ge/ (rising intonation) ‘Do not you go?’
/paliu čərapen liu ne ma/ ‘They will buy a flower’
They flower buy Fut. Int
/paliu čərapen liu ne/ (rising intonation) ‘They will buy a flower’
/nəŋ čəlui thi u lək ge ma/ ‘Will you not sing a song?’
You song sing Fut Int.
/nəŋ čəlui thi u ne/ (rising intonation) ‘Will you not sing a song?’

4.3.8 Wh- question:

Wh- questions in Liangmai are formed by substituting the constituent that is being questioned by using Wh- element /lo/. Consider the following examples:
i. /nazən  de lo/ ‘What is your name?’
   your name what Int.

ii. /azən  ram  ku-e / ‘My name is Ram’
    my Ram affirmative marker

iii. /pa dekəmziu kap lo? ‘Why is he/she crying?’
    he-why cry Int.

iv. /pawan mariubo zeŋniu kap e / ‘He is crying because he is
    stomach hungry because cry asp
    hungry’.

v. /nəŋ  deləm tat ralo/ ‘Where are you going?’
   you where go fut Int.

vi. /i  ariakki tatne / ‘I am going to school’
   i school go-asp

vii. /ariak dega lo/ ‘Where is the book?’
    book where Int.

viii. /ariak takhou lun{gə bəmme/ ‘The book is inside the bag’.
      book bag inside loc Asp

N.B. (In Liangmai language there are two types of where /deləm/ one indicating
place and other indicating position)

i. /paliu dedou tat ralo/ ‘When are they going?’
   they when go Int.

ii. /paliu sonnai tat-ne/ ‘They are going tomorrow’.
   they tomorrow go-asp
iii. /dedou nāpiu wəŋ lo/  ‘When is your father coming?’
    when father come Int.

iv. /thainai apiu wəŋ e/  ‘My father is coming today’.
    today father come Asp.

v. /takəm lunɡə basi deziu bom lo/  ‘How many mangoes
    basket inside mango how many Int.
    are there in the basket?’

vi. /takəm lunɡə basi atai bamme/  ‘There are forty mangoes
    basket inside mango forty asp
    inside the basket’

vii. /nəŋ patu deziugə lunəə lo/  ‘How much do your love her?’
    you her how much love Int.

viii. /i patu lunəə čəŋ lunəə e/  ‘I love her very much’
    i her love very much love asp

ix. /nəŋ sou lo/  ‘Who are you?’
    you who Int.

x. /i kaisibou e/  ‘I am kaisibou’
    I kaisibou asp

xi. /pa sou lo/  ‘who is he?’
    he who Q.

xii. /pa wilubou ye/  ‘He is wilubou.’
    he wilubou affir.
4.3.9 Non-finite verbs:

Non-finite verbal formations in Liangmai language can be classified under three heads viz. (i) Infinitive (ii) Gerund and (iii) participles
(i) **Infinitive:**

The infinite verbal construction in Liangmai is realized as -len which is suffixed to the verb root. The use of the infinitive marker /len/ is obligatory otherwise without any marker to the root expressed the imperative. Examples:

i) na- gu ćəŋam loi len pawan ha-e
   you gen. work finish inf. time neg.asp
   ‘You have no time to finish your work’

ii) paliu ćəŋam kəm len hao mide
    they work do inf. sart-asp
    ‘They have started to do work’

iii) paliu gauhati go riak liu len tad-e
     they gauhati loc. book buy inf. go-asp
     ‘They went to Gauhati to buy a book’

(ii) **Gerund:**

A gerund is the ‘ing’-form of a verb that acts partly as a noun and partly as a verb. The general or verbal noun is formed by adding-sai to the verb root. Consider the following examples:

i) son tadsai ćapum len wi-e
   morning go health for good-asp
   ‘Walking in the morning is good for health’

ii) prikha go aga-sai sa-e
    exam loc. copy bad-asp
    ‘Copying in examination is bad’
The participle in this language falls into three groups, viz- adjectival, conjunctives and adverbials.

Adjectival participles are formed by suffixing-mai with the verb root and the verbal noun. This can be used in both present perfect and non-perfect. Examples:

/tətbo-mai/ ‘the one who goes/ the man who has gone’
/kapbo-mai/ ‘the one who has cried’
/waŋbo-mai/ ‘the one who has came’
/koubo-mai/ ‘the one which fell’

Conjunctive participles:

Conjunctive participle is formed by adding-ziu to the verb root. It is used to express the meaning of sequential action, related action, cause effect relationship and adverbial. Examples;

i) /i ɕəŋam loilu-ziu senky təd-ne/
   i work finish conj.P market go-fut
   ‘Having finish the work I will go to the market’

ii) /i təd ziu ˁariak khai-ne/
    i go conj.P book keep-fut
    ‘I will go and keep the book’

iii) i waŋ ziu phui-ne
    i come conj.P see-fut
    ‘I will come and see’
Stative:

Stative verbs are those that indicate habitual facts and natural phenomenon.

Stative verb in the form of adverb:

a) /pase koina tat kin-e/
   he slowly go asp
   (pro) (adv) (v)
   ‘He goes slowly’

b) /pa koi- koina tat kine/
   he slowly -slowly go asp
   (pro) (Redv.adv.) (v)
   ‘He goes slowly and slowly’

c) i) /pase tat mton kin-e/
   he. go strong asp
   (pro) (V) (adv)
   ‘He goes fast’

d) /pase tat mton tan kin-e/
   he. go strong strong asp
   (pro) (V) (Redv. adv)
   ‘He goes fast energetically’

Action verbs are those that indicate doing something. Action verb in Liangmai adds /ziu/ to form adverb. Examples are cited below:
(a) /zon kapziu tat-kin-e/

John cry go-asp

(N) (Adv) (V)

‘John goes cryingly’

(b) /zon kapziu kapziu tat kin-e/

John cry cry go-asp

(N) (Redv. adv.) (V)

‘He goes cryingly’

(c) /pa tek lànziu čalui thiú bəmme/

he rice cook song sing prog.asp

(pro) (N) (Adv) (N) (V)

‘He sing a song while he is cooking food’

(d) /pa tek lànziu lànziu čalui thiú bəmme/

(pro) (N) (Redv. adv) (N) (V)

‘He sings a song while he is cooking food’

Process verbs are those that the action of the verb is not performed by an actor or a doer. The Examples of process verb are listed below:
4.4.1 **Kinds of adverb:**

The following are the kinds of adverb found in Liangmai, they are:

1. Adverb of manner
2. Adverb of place
3. Adverb of time
4. Adverb of degree/quantity
5. Reduplicative adverb
6. Durative adverb

They are discussed one by one in the followings:

(i) **Adverb of manner:**

The adverb which shows the manner of the verb is called an adverb of manner. Examples:

(i) /pa wiziu tiu bɔmme/ ‘He is eating nicely’
   He- nice eat prog-asp
   (Pro) (Adv.M) (V)

(ii) /pa čəlui thiu mɔwi-e/ ‘He sings a song sweetly’
    he song sing sweet-asp
    (Pro)(N) (V) (Adv.M)

(iii) /ɔwɔŋ tɔnziu nui-e/ ‘Awang laugh loudly’
     awang loud laugh-asp
     (N) (adv.M) (V)

In Liangmai, the adverb of manner occurs before verb or between the verb and aspect as in example (ii).

(ii) **Adverb of place:**

The adverb which shows where some action is done is called adverb of place. Examples:
i) /pa haigə wəŋ-ne/        ‘He will come here’
he- here    come-fut.asp
(pro) (Adv.P) (V)

ii) /őnəm haise uigə kəm lo/  ‘Do this work there’
work this there do-com     
(N)    (D.adj.) (adv.P) (V)

iii) /aliu kəmə ləm məthen khe/  ‘Let us play outside’
we outside Loc play-sugg
(pro) (adv.P) (V)

In Liangmai, the adverb of place always occurs before the verb.

(iii) **Adverb of time:**

The adverb which shows when the action is done is called an adverb of
time. There are some lexical adverbs in Liangmai. They can be categorized into
two according to the time reference:

a) Lexical items indicating past time, i.e.: /dənəi/ ‘yesterday’ /dəkəm ‘last year’
/tətmiəbiəu/ ‘last month’, etc.

Examples:

i) /pa dənəi wəŋ mine/  ‘He came yesterday’
he-yesterday com-asp
(Pro)(adv.T) (V)

ii) /paliu tətmiəbiəu hiu gə tət mide/  ‘They had gone last month’
They lastmonth  loc  asp
(Pro) (adv.T) (go)
b) Lexical items indicating future time, i.e. /sonnai/ ‘tomorrow’ /məkum/ ‘next year’, /thɔinai/ ‘today, etc:

Examples:

i) /nɔŋ ɔŋɔm haise tuhoi kam lo/ ‘You do this work now’
   you work this now do-com
   (pro) (N) (D.adv.) (adv.T) (V)

ii) /Carspe haise pətənbohui go penpət-ne/ ‘This flower will bloom next month’
   flower this next month loc. bloom-fut.asp
   (N) (D.adj.) (adv. T) (V)

iii) /pa thɔnai ɔkha min-ne/ ‘He will catch fish today’
    he- today fish catch-fut-asp
    (Pro) (adv.T) (N) (V)

In this language, the adverb of time also can occur before the verb only.

(iv) Adverb of degree/ quantity:

Adverb of d degree increases or decreases the effect of the verb.

Examples:

i) /i niu kiuziu pimi-de/ ‘I have given more’
   i-nom more give perf.asp
   (pro) (adv.D) (V)

ii) /pa tek lɔŋ matən mide/ ‘He cooks rice in less quantity’
    He- rice cook less.q -asp
    (pro) (N) (v) (adv.D)
iii) /pa wi čəŋ wiziu tat-e/ ‘He goes very nicely’
    he- very nice go-asp
    (pro) (adv.D) (adv.M) (V)

Here, ‘very’ expresses excellent, so some words get repeated as we shown in example (iii), i.e./ wičəŋ-wiziu/ where /wi/ is added before / čəŋ/ ‘very to express excellent.

(v) Reduplicative adverb:

This type of adverb is formed by repeating the adverb. In Liangmai, repetition is occurred partially.

Examples:

i) /pa koi-kōina tat le/ ‘He goes slowly’
   he slow-slow go-asp
   (pro) (Redv.adv) (V)

ii) /pa tek lnŋ-lnŋziu čəlui thiu bəmme/ ‘He sings a song while he cooking rice’
    he rice cook-cook song sing prog-asp
    (pro) (N) (Redv.adv) (N) (V)

iii) /pa wəŋ məzi-zi-e/ ‘He comes early’
    he come early-early-asp
    (pro) (V) (Redv.adv)
The reduplicative adverb which gives the meaning of ‘slightly’ is given as follows:

Examples:

i) /tədui-se  læŋ lumhun-hun lo/ ‘Make the water warm’
   water-det cook warm-com
   (N) (V) (Redv.adv)

ii) /zou-se humtun-tun-e/ ‘The liquor tastes slightly sweet’
   liquor-det slightly-sweet-asp
   (N) (V) (Redv.adv)

Thus, the reduplicative adverb can occur before the verb or between the verb and aspect.

(vi) **Durative adverb:**

The adverb which shows the duration of an action is called durative adverb.

Examples:

i) /əɡu ɡərapen pen-ziu bəmme/ ‘My flower is blooming’
   my flower bloom-asp
   (Pro) (N) V-(Dur.adv)

ii) /matomdui lænziu bəmme/ ‘The milk is still boiling’
   milk boil(Dur.adv)-asp
   (N) (V)
This type of adverb occurs mainly to the action and process verbs expressing duration.

**Position of adverb:**

The adverb in Liangmai language can occur before the verb or between the verb and aspect. Such an occurrence of an adverb can be found in the following examples:

a) /pa koina tad kine/ ‘He goes slowly’
   he slowly go –asp
   (pro) (adv) (V)

b) /pa wiziu tiu bomme/ ‘He is eating nicely’
   he nicely eat-asp
   (Pro) (adv) (V)

Here, in these above two examples the adverbs /koina/ ‘slowly’ and /wiziu/ ‘nicely’ occur before verb/ tad/ ‘go’ and tiu ‘eat’. So from these, it is known that the adverb can occur before the verb.

(a) /pa tat matan kine/ ‘He goes fast’
   he go fast asp
   (pro) (V) (adv)

In this example (c), the adverb /matan/ ‘fast’ occurs between the verb /tat/ ‘go’ and the aspect- /kine/. From this, we know that adverb can also occur between verb and aspect in this language.
4.4.2 Post-position:

In Liangmai language post-position fairly marked the syntactic group of invariables semantically serving the group of invariables, semantically serving the some purposes as is served by a case suffix. They invariably take their place after te substantives, some of these follow adverbial stems as well. In such a construction they form a part of an adverbial phrase. Semantically, the use of a post-position is of a great significance. The language use position with locative, genitive and ablative suffix. It can be divided into directional and non-directional.

1. Non-directional post-position is limited. They are as follows:

i) /len/ ‘for’

ii) /yo/um / ‘except’

iii) /saisui/ ‘accompany with’

(i) Example of /len/

a) /i - niu čaphai haisi ñpui - len liu-e /
i nom. clothe this mother for buy-asp.
‘I buy this clothe for my mother’

b) /pa delhi len imphal tatpat mi-de/
he Delhi for Imphal left asp.
‘He left Imphal for Delhi’

(ii) makjiu : /except/

a) /dinibou makjiu maikhatdi waŋ mək - ge /
dinibou except no one come neg-asp.
‘No one came except Dinibou’
b) /nəŋ - məkziu məikhamədi pərikha ɡə pas - thiumək-ge /
you except no one exam. loc pass neg. asp.
‘No one can pass exam except you’

(iii) **Accompany with’/saisui/**

Example:

a) /pa wipibou saisuilu məluan ɡə khan-e /
he wipibou dative hill loc. climb asp.
‘He climbs the hill along with wipibou’

b) /wiliŋbou niu wibuibou saisuilu senki tət de /
wiliŋbou ass. Wibuibou bazaar go asp.
‘Wilungbou goes to bazaar along with wibuibou’.

2. **Directional:**

Directional post – positions go with case markers which are suffixed to
them.

(i) /luŋ / ‘in – inside’

Example

a) /Dibon kəluŋə bəmme /
dibon inside loc.prog asp
‘Dibon is inside the room’

b) /ariak ḱat imbuŋ lungə bəmme/
book one almirah inside loc. prog.asp.
‘A book is inside the almirah’
(ii) **outside /kama/**

Examples:

a) /pa čəki kama ga čap bəmme/
   
   he/she house outside loc.stand prog. asp.
   
   ‘He is standing outside the house’

b) /pa kama- gasu kəluŋ lam ŋət-e/
   
   he/she outside abl. inside loc. come asp.
   
   ‘He is coming inside the room from outside’

(iii) **On /ri/**

Examples:

a) /tebol ri ga əriak khət bəmme /
   
   table on loc.book one prog. asp.
   
   ‘A book is on the table’

b) /zon əbəm ri go təo bəmme /
   
   John chair on loc. sit prog. asp.
   
   ‘John is sitting on the chair’

(iv) **Under, below’ /haŋ/**

Example

a) /tazi haŋ - ga ŋəoŋə khət təo bəmme/
   
   bed under loc.cat one sit prog. asp.
   
   ‘A cat is sitting under the table’

b) /uibo əriakse tebol haŋ go bəmme/
   
   that book det table under loc asp
   
   ‘That book is under the table’
(v) **Front /Sog/**

Example

a) /pa-gu čaki mason-ga pukhri khat bɔmme /

he gen. house front loc. pond one prog. asp.

‘There is a pond in front of my house’

b) /mari amsor ga tao bɔmme /

mary front loc. sit asp.

‘Mary is sitting front of me’

(vi) **Behind /sailam/**

Example

a) /laibrer'i sailam lam meths department bɔmme /

library behind loc. maths Dept. prog. asp

‘Maths department is behind the library’

b) /athuibo asailam čap bɔmme /

athuibo behind stand prog.asp.

‘Athuibo is standing behind me’

(vii) **Beside’/mun/**

Example

a) /uibo bas sorok mun ga bɔmme /

that bus road beside loc. prog. asp.

‘That bus is beside the road’

b) /čaki uise maluan mun ga thiue /

house that hill beside loc. built asp.

‘That house is built beside the hill’
viii) Middle /ingəŋ/

Example
a) /karen ɡəŋ - ɡə basi bəŋ  khot  bəmme/
garden middle loc.mango-tree one grow asp.
‘There is a mango tree in the middle of the garden’
b) /pui ɡəŋ - ɡə kəniu saibo khot  bəmme /
road middle loc. snake dead one prog. asp.
‘There is a dead snake in the middle of the road’

4.4.3 Negative markers:

Negative markers in Liangmai follow the verb and precede the aspect marker. There are five negative markers- (i) mak (ii) lak (iii) du (iv) /ma/ (v) mane (vi) tukhe. All these negative markers precede the aspect marker. They are discussed one by one below:

i. /mak/: This is used to negate a sentence in present tense.

a. /i niu liu mak ge/ Vs /I niu liu ye/
i nom purchase neg asp m I nom purchase asp
‘I do not purchase’ ‘I purchase’.
b. /pa tadiu sak mak ge/ /pa tadiu sak ye/
he water drink Neg asp he water drink asp
‘He does not drink water’ ‘He drink water’

ii. /lak/: This negative marker obtaining future negative follow the verb.

Some of the examples are given below:

a. /nəŋ zi lak ge/ Vs /nəŋ zi ne/
You sleep Neg asp you sleep fut
‘you will not sleep’ ‘you will sleep’.

b. /I sinema phui lak ge/ /I sinema phui ne/
   i cinema look Neg Asp I cinema look fut
   ‘I will not watch cinema’ ‘I will watch cinema’.

iii. /du/: This is used to make a prohibitive negative marker to the main verb. /du/ is used to make command where there is not much need for politeness. Some of the examples are given in the following page:
   a. /čalui thiu du lo/ Vs /čalui thiu lo/
      song sing Neg Imp song sing Imp
      ‘Do not sing a song’ ‘Sing a song’.
   b. /tekti du lo/ /tekti lo/
      rice eat Neg Imp rice eat Imp
      ‘Do not eat rice’ ‘Eat rice’.

iv. /ma/: This negative marker is mainly use in conversation of question and answer type.
   a. /pa wəŋ ma wəŋ ma lo/ Ans. /wəŋ ma ge/
      ‘has he come or not’. Come not Asp
   b. /tekti ma tiu ma lo/ /tiu ma ge/
      ‘had (your) food or not’ eat not Asp

v. /mane/: This negative marker is used in imperatives or commands. Here it occurs in the final position of the sentence.
   a. /sibo əriak ken mane/ ‘Do not read that book’
      That book read Neg Com
   b. /kəp mane/ ‘do not cry’
cry Neg Com

c. /sibo ṇamsi kam mane/ ‘Do not do that work’

that work do Neg Com

vi. /tukhe/: This negative marker is used for making a request or suggestion. Some of the examples of ‘Let’ negative marker in Liangmai are shown below:

a. /aliu ća sak tukhe/ ‘let us not drink tea’. we tea drink Neg Sug.

b. /aliu tek tiu tukhe/ ‘Let us not eat rice’ we rice eat Neg Sug.

Negative copula:

This negative copula-/haye/ is used to express negation in existential constructions, locative predicates and possessive sentences. Consider the following examples:

a. /singiu ćakha haye/ ‘There is no fish in the river’.

river loc. fish Neg. Cop

b. /pa gu ṭəŋkan haye/ ‘He had no money’

he gen. rupee Neg. Cop

c. /puiki gə čəkui haye/ ‘There is no tiger in the road’.

road loc tiger Neg. Cop

/hai/ is the free nagator which is used only in informal conversation.
4.4.4 WORD FORMATION

"The term word formation refers to the whole process of morphological variation in the constitution of words that is including the two main divisions of inflection (word variation signaling grammatical relationship) in a restricted sense; word formation refers to the later process only." Crystal (1985)

The common morphological process used in word formation of Liangmai has compounding, derivation and reduplication.

4.4.5 Compounds:

Compounds are made up of at least two or more than two constituent bases which are root morphemes and are members of the categories of noun, adjective, verb etc. compounding is highly productive morphological processes.

Types of compounds in Liangmai language are as follows:

Compound nouns:

Compound nouns are the most common type of compounds in this language. This may be classified in the terms of semantic relationship held by the constituent nouns. Two main semantic relationships hold between constituent nouns are:

(a) Equational compounds:

In this type of compound, two words forming the compound noun have identical or very close meaning.
The two constituents may differ in some basis attributive feature. For examples:

\[ /\text{siqbaŋ} / \]  ‘tree’
\[ /\text{siq} / \]  ‘firewood + baŋ ‘plant’
\[ /\text{siqmeŋ} / \]  ‘root’
\[ /\text{siq} / \]  ‘firewood + meŋ ‘root
\[ /\text{ariyaky} / \]  ‘school’
\[ /\text{ariyak} / \]  ‘book’ + ky ‘house’
\[ /\text{kabaktek} / \]  ‘food of pig’
\[ /\text{kabak} / \]  ‘pig’ + tek ‘rice’

(b) **Associative compounds:**

In this type, two nouns incorporating the extreme limiting referents of the same semantic field (representing a polar relationship), or two nouns incorporating the salient characteristics of that semantic field (in a less extreme association) form compounds whose referential range includes the whole semantic field.

Examples:

\[ /\text{tinjai-dui} / \]  ‘climate’
\[ /\text{tinjai} / \]  ‘air’ + /dui/  ‘water’
\[ /\text{thainai-sonnai} / \]  ‘now-a-day’
\[ /\text{thainai} / \]  ‘today’ + /sonnai/  ‘tomorrow’
\[ /\text{cakhaokadi} / \]  ‘animal kingdom’
\[ /\text{cakhao} / \]  ‘animal’ + kadi  ‘earth’
The compounds in Liangmai can also be classified on the basis of the role of the words as head in the compounds. These types of compound include the following examples:

(c) **Endocentric compounds:**

Right-headed compound: in the right headed compounds, both the constituent elements are generally found to be nominal base. The two nouns might be related with one another by possessive suffix -gu.

(i) /siŋbaŋ -gu rasi/ > siŋbaŋrasi ‘fruit’
   
   tree - posse. fruit

(ii) /siŋbaŋ -gu panui/ > siŋbaŋnui ‘leaf’
   
   tree - posse. Leaf

It is a compound which contains an element that function as head:

Examples:

/čəmiubəŋ/ ‘paddy plant’
/čəmiu/ ‘paddy’ + /bəŋ/ ‘plant’
/naimikrapen/ ‘sunflower’
/naimik/ ‘sun’ + /rapen/ ‘flower’

There is another type of possessive relationship in Liangmai that of directional.

(i) čəki- gu ri > čəkiri
   
   house gen top ‘roof’

(ii) saŋbaŋ -gu ri> saŋbaŋri
   
   tree - gu top ‘top of tree’
(iii)  čaphai- gu  ri > čaphairi

cloth – gen border ‘lace’

**Verbal relation:**

\[
\text{tānaimiu khopbo ki > tānaiki}
\]

thatch-inst. Covered-NZR house ‘thatch house’

Again, this verbal relation can be categorized into some groups depending upon the kind of ending that these verbal nouns take in the underlying structures.

a) Resultatives (ending with the nominalizer-bo)

\[
\text{čingen-ga bām-bo mai > čingenmai ‘tribal people’}
\]

hill-loc live nzr people (hill people)

\[
\text{tānijdi-ga bām-bo mai > tānijdimai ‘valley people’}
\]

valley loc. live nzr people

b) purposive (ending with rā+bo)

\[
\text{čaki thiurābo bām > cakibām ‘housing site’}
\]

house build for site

‘site for building house’

\[
\text{čərapen līn-rābo ren > čərapenren ‘garden’}
\]

flower plant for place

‘place for growing flower’

\[
/\ tāsi kātirābo bām/ > tāsikatibām ‘educational institution’
\]

Edn.learn for place school

‘Place for studying’
c) relational (ending with bogu)

/cəphi - niu təd- bogu pui/ > cəphi pui  ‘footpath’

foot – inst. go of path

‘path of walking’

/cəbən kətha-bogu dui/ > cəbəndui  ‘leftover water’

rice wash of liquid

‘Liquid of washing rice’

There are some compound words in this language which the verb in the middle relates the two nouns. In other words, it is a kind of compound word which made of the combination of three roots.

/cəphaizonbo bəm/ > cəphaizonbəm  ‘cloth centre’

‘place for selling cloth’

/cərasizonbo bəm/ > cərasizonbəm  ‘fruit store’

fruit sell place

‘Place for selling fruit’

/cəra kəhumbo bəm/ > cərakəhumbo bəm  ‘church’

God pray place

‘place for praying god’

/cəmai riurabo ki/ > cəmairiuki  ‘sheltering house’
Man arrive for house inn

‘house for staying by traveller’

There are some compound nouns which made up of noun + noun.

Examples:

/čərapen – gu padiu/ > čərapendiu ‘nectar’

flower  gen liquid

‘liquid of flower’

/tiŋriu – gu puak/ > tiŋriupuak ‘rain drop’

rain  -gen-drop

‘drop of rain’

/məkhui – gu padui/ > məkhuidui ‘honey’

bee  - gen liquid

‘liquid of bee’

There are some compound nouns which composite of noun + action oriented bound root. Examples:

/inkeq bm saibo/ > inkeqIMSai ‘death in other place’

outside-loc. to die  (wild death)

/čəratu kəhumbo/ > čəratukəhum  ‘prayer’

‘praying the god’
There are some right headed compounds having the nouns (substantive) root bam or ki placed as the second constituent element and an action oriented bound root as the first element.

/khiu rabo bam/ki/ >khiubam/ khiuki ‘bathroom’

bath for place house

‘place for bathing’

/aləŋ rabo bam/ki/ >aləŋbam/ ki ‘kitchen’

cook for house

‘place for cooking’

Left headed compound:

In the left headed compound the second constituent element as the head is a noun. There are different types of left headed compound.

Reversing order: Some compounds are formed by reversing the order of the underlying structure and simultaneously root of the first element is retained.

Examples:

/kəhəŋbo ćərapen/ > ćərapen kəhəŋbo ‘red flower’

Red flower

/kəsənbo mai/ > maikəsənbo ‘new person’

/tiəŋkəhəŋbo/ > ʰəŋbo tiəŋ ‘red cloth’ (dropping of /kə/ is optional)
/kasanbo nam/ > namkasanbo ‘new village’

There are some directional left headed compounds. Examples:

/haŋ laŋ hiu/ > hiuhŋ ‘lower teeth’
lower be teeth
‘tooth in the lower gum’

/ri laŋ hiu/ > hiuri ‘upper teeth’
upper be teeth
‘tooth in the upper gum’

/pamasŋ laŋ ḋen/ > pamasŋen/pamaŋen ‘fore leg’
front loc leg
‘leg which is in the front’

**Exocentric compound:**

In this type of compound word, one element modifies or restricts the other and the whole denotes an entity which is a hyponym of an unexpressed semantic head. In other words, composite words which neither of the two constituent elements function as the head. These compounds are generally made of a noun and an action oriented bound root. Since neither of them can function as the head there is a need to introduce a count element such as /pot/ ‘thing or object’, /mai/ ‘man’ and /pui/ ‘woman as the head for these compounds.
They can categorize into two types – purposive and resultatives depending upon the type of relationship that exist between the constituent elements.

a) Purposive:

/čaŋen – go m̥ata khaibo pot/ > čaŋen ta ‘a type of ring used to wear in the ankle’

leg- loc wear thing
‘thing for wearing to the leg’

/ŋena zikai pot/ > ŋenazikai ‘cradle’

baby lull thing
‘thing for keeping the child to sleep’

b) Resultatives:

/čaki thiubo mai/ > čakithiubo/cakithumai ‘builder’

house build man
‘man who build house’

/čaphai kəthabo mai/ > čaphaikəthamai ‘washer man’

cloth wash man
‘man who wash cloth’

/čagum zonbo pui/ > čagumzonpui ‘banana leaf seller’

‘woman who sells banana leaf’

4.4.6 Co-ordinate compound:

Here, both element functions jointly as heads which are generally of two different nouns joined together through the associative suffix /nai/
/čaki – nai koren/ > čaki koren ‘estate or property’
house ass. plot

/tek – nai tədui/ > tektdui ‘meal’
rice ass. water

/pano nai pata/ > pana-pata ‘issues’

his son ass. his grand child

**Form class compound:**

i) Noun + noun > Noun
/čəmi  bəm/ > čəmibəm ‘fire place’
Fire place
/čari  bəm/ > čəribəm ‘battle’
War place

ii) Noun + verbal > noun
/tasın  kəmbo/ > tasinkəmbo ‘carpenter’
wood work
/čaki  thiubo/ > čakithiubo ‘builder’
House build

**4.4.7 Extended compound:**

There are some compounds which are overtly present in more than two roots. In this language we find this type of compound which consists of three roots.

Examples:
Affixo compound:

In affixo compound, words are formed by involving the two process of word formation- affixation and compounding. Hence, it is named as affixo compounding. In Liangmai such type of compound is also found.

\(/\text{ka/} - \text{prefix}\)

\(/\text{taliu/} - \text{make}\)

\(/\text{man/ - price}\)

\(/\text{kataliuman/} \quad \text{‘the price of making’}\)

Steps for formation:

a) ka + taliu > katliu

b) katliu + man > kataliuman ‘price of making’

The middle element indicate the ‘price of the action’
Other examples:

/k’aɛruiʌm/ ‘stitching charge’
/k’akətim/ ‘tuition fee’

From all these above we find that compounding is more prominent comparing with affixation.

4.4.8 Affixation:

It is a kind of strategy for the formation of word. Here, a dependents element (affix) is attached to an independent one. The study of word-formation through affixation can be divided into two:

(a) Derivation from bound roots and
(b) Derivation from free roots.

(a) Derivation from bound roots:

New words belonging to kinds of word class can be formed by affixation (prefix or suffix) to a bound root.

(i) Root + Aspect/mood > verb
/tiu/ + bamme> tiubamme [eat + progressive]
‘eating’
/sak/ + bamme> sakbamme [drink + progressive]
‘drinking’
/ken/ + lune > kenlune [read +perfect]
has read’
/sak/ + ne >sakne [will drink] ‘drink + irrealis’
These kinship terms are all bound roots (as they cannot give the clear meaning), just for convenience, the referent terms are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinship Term</th>
<th>Referent Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pui</td>
<td>a-pui 'my mother'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piu</td>
<td>a-piu 'my father'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pe</td>
<td>a-pe 'my grand mother'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pao</td>
<td>a-pao 'my grand father'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ci</td>
<td>a-ci 'my sister'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinship Term</th>
<th>Referent Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>na-pui</td>
<td>'your mother'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na-piu</td>
<td>'your father'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na-pe</td>
<td>'your grand mother'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na-pao</td>
<td>'your grand father'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinship Term</th>
<th>Referent Term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pao</td>
<td>pao-pai 'his mother'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pao-piu</td>
<td>pao-piu 'his father'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pao-pe</td>
<td>pao-pie 'his grand mother'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pao-pao</td>
<td>pao-pao 'his grand father'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Derivation by prefixation of non-pronominal marker pao: examples

Abstract
- /biu/ 'bright'
- /pabiu/ 'light'

Contract
- /han/ 'bind'
- /pahan/ 'bundle'

- /bam/ 'sit'
- /pabam/ 'place'

Page 219
4.4.9 Derivation of nouns from verbs:

Like many other Tibeto-Burman languages, verbal nouns in Liangmai are derived from the verbs by adding the derivative suffix /zai/. It is productive and can be prefixed to any action oriented bound root. It indicates the manner, or the way of, or the act of and the nature, as in the following examples.

i) tiubo ‘eat’ tiubo-zai ‘manner of eating’
tenbo ‘read’ kenbo-zai ‘manner of reading’
tadbo ‘go’ tadbo-zai ‘manner of going’
dinbo ‘speak’ dinbo-zai ‘manner of speaking’
zibo ‘sleep’ zibo-zai ‘manner of sleeping’
raobo ‘write’ raobo zai ‘act of writing’

ii) Agentive nouns are also derived from verbs by adding the derivative suffix /mai/. Examples:
tiubo ‘eat’ tiubomai ‘eater’
lenbo ‘dance’ lenbomai ‘dancer’
thiubo ‘sing’ thiubomai ‘singer’
kenbo ‘read’ kenbomai ‘reader’

4.4.10 Derivation of adverbs from adjectives:

Adverbs are derived from adjectives by adding the derivatives suffixes- /ziu/. 

Page | 220
Adj. | adv.
--- | ---
masэнbo | 'clear'
humbo | 'sweet'
koinа | 'slow'
ripbo | 'heavy'
ŋaowibo | 'beautiful'
masэнzию | 'clearly'
humzию | 'sweetly'
koinazium | 'slowly'
ripzium | 'heavily'
ŋaowizium | 'beautifully'

From the above examples, it becomes clear that when the adjective contains a nominalizer /bo/, it is dropped in the corresponding adverb.

4.5.1 Reduplication:

Reduplication is the repetition of lexical item. It is a morphological process and it allows the natives speakers to form new words by adjoining the latter in it’s entirely or some recognizable and definable part of it to itself. Reduplication thus, can either be partial or complete (Abhi, 1992)

The Liangmai reduplication can also be divided into the following types: (i) complete reduplication and (ii) partial reduplication.

(i) **Complete Reduplication:** Complete reduplication means repeating of base word completely. Complete reduplication refers to the phenomenon when a single word or clause is repeated once in the same sentence without any phonological or morphological variations. For examples:

/koi/ 'slow' /koi koi/ 'very slow'
/thiu/ 'hot' /thiu thiu/ 'very hot'
/tin/  ‘wet’  /tin tin/  ‘get wet in rain’

/ka/  ‘white’  /ka ka/  ‘very white’

/hum/  ‘sweet’  /hum hum/  ‘very sweet’

Noun:

a)  čaki  čaki  ‘house to house’
    house  house

b)  pabam  pabam
    place  place

There is also reduplication in adjective. The paired construction in which the first is a base while the second repeated form is a complete adjective (attributive) form (i.e. /-bo/ is added to the second while it is not in the case of first), as given below here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) kohen</td>
<td>kohen – bo /kohen kohen – bo/  ‘very red’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) kaka</td>
<td>kaka – bo /kaka kaka – bo/  ‘very white’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white</td>
<td>white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) kathiu</td>
<td>kathiu – bo /kathiu kathiu – bo/  ‘very hot’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hot</td>
<td>hot</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adverbs: Here are some examples

a)  kenjiu  kenjiu
    very  very

‘Very much in quantity/quality’
(ii) Partial reduplication:

Partial reduplication means not repeating the base word completely but some part of it. In Liangmai, this partial reduplication can be possible. For examples:

- /tir)S3 sa/ ‘heavy raining’
- /maisourjha ha/ ‘miracle acts’
- /wičəŋ wiziu/ ‘very nice’
- /hum tun tunbo/ ‘slightly sweet’
- /lumhun hunbo/ ‘slightly warm’

Various types of reduplication include morphological and lexical reduplication. Morphological reduplication is further divided into expressive and lexical reduplication into three types, viz. echo and words reduplications (Abbi, 1987)

Here some examples of partial reduplication are:

Example:

a) tatpat tat gut
   go out go in
   ‘going and coming’

b) lepat legut
‘Opening and closing’

c) phun phat phun gut

‘Bringing out, bringing in’

As they occur in sentences:

a) pa tat tat gut ŋamlak mine
   he go go unable asp.

   ‘He is unable to move here and there’

b) lepat lagut tulo.

   open close proh. asp

   ‘Don’t play the door’

4.5.2 Expressive:

Expressive belong to the category of morphological reduplication. It always
refers to the minimally meaningful and segmentally indivisible morphemes which
are constituted of iterated syllable.

Expressive are the example of morphological reduplication. It includes
onomatopoeias, sound symbolism, idiophones’ and imitative. Expressive in
Liangmai are used to emote all the five senses of perception, i.e of smell, slight,
touch, hearing and taste. A few words are cited below to indicate the range and the depth of the perceptive powers of human beings.

i) Acoustic noises:

a) Animal voices:

/ŋəŋ əŋ/ ‘barking of dog’
/biː biː/ ‘humming of bee’
/mio mio/ ‘mewing of cat’
/ga ga/ ‘crowing of crow’

b) Noises of natural phenomena:

/kɾuŋ kɾuŋ/ ‘thundering sound’
/ɾiɾi/ ‘blowing gently (air)’
/gu gu/ ‘flowing sound of river’
/kak kak/ ‘sound of cutting tree’
/tak tak/ ‘sound of boiling’

c) Noises made by human:

/kak kak/ ‘laughing sound’
/puak puak/ ‘sound of clapping’
/kut kut/ ‘sound of drinking water’

d) Noises by miscellaneous inanimate objects:

/kəŋ kəŋ/ ‘ringing of bell’
/tuŋ tuŋ/ ‘beating of drum’
/gu gu/ ‘falling of rain’
/rak rak/ ‘cracking sound of bamboo’
ii) Sense of sight:

/ran ran/ ‘glittering’
/ba ba/ ‘sparkling’
/ban ban/ ‘reddish’
/mazin re rebo/ ‘yellowish’

iii) Sense of touch:

/masak riak riak/ ‘aching’
/nap nap/ ‘sticky’
/thuŋ thuŋbo/ ‘fully dry’

iv) Sense of smell:

/mɔnɔm hum tun tunbo/ ‘sweet smelling’
/mɔnɔm khɔri khɔri/ ‘bitter smelling’

v) Sense of taste:

/khari khari/ ‘bitter taste’
/hum tun tun/ ‘salty taste’
/khian tian tian/ ‘sour taste’

4.5.3 Echo formations:

“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 ‘replacer’ (phoneme or syllable) sound sequences are more or less fixed and rigid. The replacer 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 echo 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” or “associated with that” after its addition to the base word.

The echo word formation is a very productive phenomenon in Liangmai, and makes use of this feature in order to form words. Examples are given below:

/masuisui/ ‘leg and etc’
/mskitap tap/ ‘divided by biting’
/makum kum/ ‘feeling’

4.5.4 Word reduplication:

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

Word reduplication is one of the most important and intriguing types of reduplication under lexical reduplication. “From the functional point of view complete word reduplication can be sub-divided into: (i) class maintaining and (ii) class changing type” (Abbi, 1991). Consider the following discussion of word reduplication of nouns, adjectives adverb in Liangmai language.
4.5.5 Class maintaining complete word reduplication

/čaki/ ‘house’ (N) čaki čaki ‘houses’ (lit. house-house) use with pl. nouns.

/impui / ‘road’ (N) -impui impui (lit. road-road) use with pl. nouns

kadibo ‘big’ (adj) kadibo kadibo ‘big-big’ (pl.adj) use with pl. nouns

/sembo/ ‘small’ (adj) sembo sembo ‘small small’ (pl. adj) use with pl. nouns

/nuibo/ ‘smilling’ (n) nuibo nuibo ‘very smilling’ (lit. smilling-smilling)

/kakibo/ ‘other’ (Adj) kakibo kakibo ‘others’ (lit. other-other)

/kahenbo/ ‘red’ (adj) kahenbo kahenbo (pl.adj) use with pl. nouns

4.5.6 Class changing complete word reduplication:

/koina/ ‘slow’ (adj) koina koina ‘slowly’ (adv)

/čaka/ ‘friend’ (N) čaka čaka ‘friendly (adv)

/tiŋkum/ ‘year’ (N) tiŋkum tiŋkum ‘yearly (adv)

/čaliuthuibo/ ‘to sing (V) čaliuthuibo čaliuthuibo ‘singing (adv)

/tam/ ‘different’ (adj) tam tam ‘differently (adv)

/mazibo/ ‘true’ (Adj) mazibo mazibo ‘truly’ (Adv)
4.5.7 Noun formation

Liangmai use some suffixes for the purpose of derivation of nouns from other word classes. The derivation suffixes are added to the base word.

i. Agent noun formation: In Liangmai it is formed by the addition of /mai/ to the verb root + nominalizer. For example:

/læmbo/ to dance
/læmbo mai/ dancer
/zonbo/ to sell
/zonbo mai/ seller
/alænbo/ to cook
/alænbo mai/ chef

ii. /kæribo mai/ It forms agent noun from common noun:

/gæri/ vehicle
/gæri kæribo mai/ driver
/alem/ boat
/alem kæribo mai/ boat man

iii. /mai/ forms nouns from adjectives, verbs and noun:

/nuan/ sin
/nuan mai/ sinner
/mænæm ronbo/ hunt
/mænæm ronbo mai/ hunter

iv. /kæsembø mai/ form noun from common noun:

/kæcia/ gold
/kæcia kæsembø mai/ goldsmith
/gari/ vehicle
/gari kasembo mai/ /mechanic/

v. /thoibo mai/ from agent noun from common noun:
/ţathoi / magic
/ţathoi thoibo mai/ magician

vi. /bam/ form nouns from verbs:
/zibo/ to sleep
/zibo bam/ bedroom
/tiubo/ to eat
/tiubo bam/ eating place

4.5.8 Dvandva (Copulative compound):

Dvandva types of compounds are also found in Liangmai language where both the elements are clubbed as head for the purpose of noun formation. For examples

/əpu + apiu/ mother- father parents
/əčipiu+ əčipui/ brother-sister sibling
/nen čun/ day- night day and night

Adjectives are also formed by the same method.

Adjective + Adjective

/čunwi + čunsabo/ ‘happiness and sorrow’
/tik+ kabo/ black and white
/ţen + dunbo/ tall and short
/di + sembo/ big and small

To form a verb by combining two verbs produces the following:
**Verb + Verb**

/luk + thon/  
/remove/

/adou+ tat/  
/visit/

/molon + wəŋ/  
/return/

**Verb + Noun**

/pi + run/  
/cap/

/mik + run/  
/spectacle/

**Adjective + Noun**

/kibo + čəkha/  
/dry fish/

/mariu + poina/  
/chick/

### 4.5.9 Adjective formation:

The adjective in Liangmais are basically individual lexical items. Only few of them are derived from different word classes by suffixation. They are illustrated below:

/pamən/  
/price/

/pamən kurjbo/  
/expensive/

/riŋtiŋ/  
/life/

/riŋtiŋbəmbo/  
/alive/

/manəm/  
/forest/

/manəmə/  
/wild/

### 4.5.10 Participial constructions

Participial constructions in Liangmais are used to modify noun and they are derived from verb stems by means of participial suffixes.
i) Present participle modifies a noun in Liangmai and it represents an ongoing action or process and it can occur attributively in Liangmai. The suffixes used for this purpose are /wəŋkin/ and /kʰəŋkin/ and the last /ne/. For examples

/wəŋ/ come /wəŋkin:ne/ coming
/təmai wəŋ kin:ne/ coming man
/məwui/ grow /məwui kʰəŋkin:ne/ growing
/nəmai məwui kʰəŋkin:ne/ growing child

ii) Past participle expresses an accomplished state. The suffix used for this purpose in Liangmai is /de/ which is added to the verb base /wəŋ/.

/wəŋ/ come /wəŋde/ arrived
/təliu/ make /təliude/ made
/sai/ die /saide/ dead

4.6.1 Intensifiers

Gradation of adjectives which indicates increase or decrease of the inherent adjectival attribute is expressed in Liangmai by means of quantifiers and other morphological device.

a) Morphological devices denoting intensity:

The intensity of primary adjectives is attenuated in Liangmai by reduplicating the adjectives. For examples

/poi/ few /poi poi/ very few
/sem/ small /sem sem/ smallish
b) **Quantifiers denoting intensity:**

Few quantifiers are used in Liangmai to increase the degree of attribution expressed by the adjective. Examples are listed below:

- /make ke/ very lazy
- /mun mun/ very ripe
- /di di/ very big
- /tinthiu thiu/ very hot
- /čunwi wi/ too happy

From the above examples, it becomes clear that if the base word is monosyllabic, the whole word is repeated otherwise, only the last syllable is repeated.

### 4.6.2 Verb formation:

Verb in Liangmai are derived from nouns, adverbs and adjective by adding nominalizer /bo/. Examples are given below:

- /lumpom/ anger /lumpombo/ to angry
- /luŋsa/ love /luŋsabo/ to love
- /pam/ embrace /pambo/ to embrace
- /aga/ cheat /agabo/ to cheat
- /mana/ birth /manabo/ to get birth
- /phui/ watch /phuibo/ to watch
4.6.3 Adverb formation:

Adverbs in Liangmai are formed by adding affixes to noun or adjectives and by compounding.

By adding prefix /ziu/:

/luŋzaziu/ kindly
/simokdakziu/ suddenly
/masanziu/ cleanly
/ŋouwiziu/ beautifully
/koinaziu/ slowly