CHAPTER-IV
NEGATION
AND
INTERROGATIVE
4.0 Introduction

This chapter studies the negation and interrogative system in Hawa Nokte. The first section 4.1 briefly presents a general account of negation and interrogative from general perspective. The section 4.2 and its subsequent sub-sections study the negation in Hawa Nokte. It investigates the different types of negative markers in terms of their morphosemantic features and other syntactic manifestation of negation. The section 4.3 studies the interrogative system in Hawa Nokte. The study is concentrated to the various strategies that the language employs to form different types of questions such as content or information questions, ‘yes-no’ questions, alternative question, etc. In short, the present chapter provides a descriptive analysis of negation and interrogative in terms of the structural and functional properties.

4.1 Overview of Negation and Interrogative

Negation, in simplest term, may be defined as a kind of grammatical construction that contradicts or negates part or all of a sentence's meaning. It is an operator that reverses the truth value of a proposition. Usually, it is used to fulfill a discourse function such as denial, refusal, rejection and contradiction. In short, it opposed the affirmation. The different languages employ different mechanisms to negate the proposition. Every language has its own idiomatic sets of negative elements, and its own rules for using them. For instance, in English as shown in (1a & b), the two negative forms ‘un-’ and ‘not’ function - one as constituent and other as sentential or clausal negation respectively. The former occurs as derivational prefix which attached to the root whereas the latter occurs separately. According to Bhat (2000) the negative construction is usually considered as ‘marker’ construction as compare to that of affirmative (or positive) construction; because, there is always a kind of addition of some elements to negate the affirmative sentences. Thus, they are generally an additional element used to contradict the statement or affirmation.

(1) a. I am unhappy.
    b. I am not happy.
As far as interrogative is concerned, generally the two fundamental kinds of questions are distinguished. One of these is usually the type of questions where the speaker asks the listener to affirm or deny the truth of some statement. These kinds of questions are commonly referred as ‘yes-no questions’. They are also called as ‘polar questions’ based on the fact that they inquire about the affirmative or negative polarity of a statement. For instance, English questions like *Does she know that today is her birthday?, May I come in?*, etc., would have to be answered either in ‘yes’ or ‘no’. These questions do not require supplementary or additional information.

The second type of questions is basically used to get more elaborate response than simply an affirmation or disaffirmation. Commonly, they are called either ‘content’ or ‘information’ questions. In English, they are often called ‘wh-questions’, because in this language most of them start with *wh-* such as *who, whose, whom, which, what, why, where, and when*. For instance, English examples like *What are you doing?, What is the name of your language?, Why you didn’t tell me the truth?,* etc., are types of questions that would require more elaborate response.

In general, the languages employ different methods of forming questions such as by changing the intonation of a statement, changing word-order or the position of some grammatical elements, by using an interrogative marker or particle, employing different interrogative words (such as in English ‘who’, ‘what’, ‘where’, etc.), using tag, and so and so forth. These are the commonly found strategies or devices which the languages employ for creating the forms of questions (Saha, 1984).

### 4.2 Negation in Hawa Nokte

The negation in Hawa Nokte is usually expressed by an inflectional category which may either precede or follow the verb roots. In brief, negation is achieved by employing the different morphological forms such as /m/, /ma/, /maʔ/, /nəʔ/, /le/ and /ho/. The order of occurrence of NEG in a sentence is: VR - NEG or NEG - VR.
4.2.1 Types of negative markers

4.2.1.1 Negative marker /ma/

The negative marker /ma/ is used to express the unrealized event or action. It is equivalent to the negative expression like ‘not yet’ in English. For instance, example (2a) indicates that the event of eating the food is yet to occur or not yet occurred. That is, the event is yet to take place. This negative marker may also be used as negative response to the question. It cannot be used in past tense as shown in (2c).

(2) a. ŋa tfəm ma-tʃʰaʔ-k-əŋ
   I food NEG-eat-PRES-1SG
   ‘I have not yet eaten food’

b. nəŋ tfəm ma-tʃʰaʔ-k-o-ne
   you food NEG-eat-PRES-1SG-QP
   ‘Have you not eaten food?’

c. *ŋa tfəm ma-tʃʰaʔ-t-ok

4.2.1.2 Negative marker /le/

This negative marker is used in simple future tense. It cannot be used in case of present or past tense. To illustrate the point consider the following examples in (3).

(3) a. ŋa tfəm le-tʃʰaʔ-min
   I food NEG-eat-FUT
   ‘I will not eat food’

b. nəŋ tfəm le-tʃʰaʔ-min-ne
   you food NEG-eat-FUT-QP
   ‘Will you not eat food?’
c. นนนฟนเล-ก้า-มนน-ดน-อ-โค

you food NEG-eat-FUT COND-be-3SG-LOC
‘If you will not eat food…’

4.2.1.3 Negative marker /นก/

This negative marker is used as negative imperative marker. It is used to prohibit someone from doing something. It occurs as prefix to the verb root. In case of 3rd person, however, an additional morpheme /ฟเณ/ is added in between the negative marker and the verb root as shown in (4b). In such construction, the negative marker is obligatory. Consider the following examples in (4) for the purpose of illustration.

(4) a. นนนนก-ท้อย-อ

you NEG-speak-3SG
‘You don’t come’

b. تظนก-ฟเณ-ท้อย-ก-ﺁ

he NEG-let-speak-PRES-3SG
‘Let him not speak’

4.2.1.4 Negative marker /ม/

This negative marker usually knocks out the tense marker and then inflects for PNAgr as shown in (5). It is used in simple declarative sentences to negate the proposition. It usually denotes the straight denial of something. It occurs as suffix to the verb root followed by PNAgr. Consider the following examples in (5);

(5) a. นนนฟนต่อ-ม-อ

I food eat-NEG-1SG
‘I am not eating food’
b. \textit{ni t\textcircled{f}om t\textsuperscript{4}a?-m-i?}
we food eat-NEG-1PL
‘We are not eating food’

4.2.1.5 Negative marker /maʔ/

This negative marker usually occurs in the past tense. It occurs as suffix to the verb root. Consider the following examples (6) for purpose of illustration;

(6) a. \textit{ŋa se se-maʔ-t-ək}
I song sing-NEG-PST-1SG
‘I didn’t sing song’

b. \textit{ǝte t\textcircled{f}om t\textsuperscript{4}a?-maʔ-t-ə?}
he food eat-NEG-PST-3SG
‘He didn’t eat the food’

4.2.1.6 Negative marker /ho/

The negative marker /-ho/ generally denotes ‘nothingness’. In addition to verbs, it may also be added to the nouns and adjectives like \textit{k\textsuperscript{6}o-ho} (head-NEG) ‘headless’, \textit{sək-ho} (body-NEG) ‘bodiless/emptiness’, \textit{miʔ-ho} (people-NEG) ‘without people’, \textit{t\textsuperscript{4}iʔ-ho} (bad-NEG) ‘not bad’ or ‘good’), etc. Mostly, it is used to negate the existential propositions. In brief, it can be used with predicate existential. The negative marker also can be used as negative reply to question (with a simple utterance of the word \textit{ho}). Examples are given in (7-11) for the purpose of illustration.

Verb:

(7) \textit{ŋa əte dʒet-ho}
I he know-NEG
‘I don’t know him’
Noun:

(8) ŋa-ŋəŋ ŋun-ho  
I-DAT money-NEG
(i) ‘I have no money’
(ii) ‘I do not have money’

Adjective:

(9) əte-ŋəŋ ʧiʔ-ho  
you-DAT bad-NEG
‘There is nothing bad in him’

Negative interrogative:

(10) ŋəŋ-ŋəŋ ŋun-ho-ne  
you-DAT money-NEG-QP
‘Don’t you have money?’

Negative conditional:

(11) ŋəŋ-ŋəŋ ŋun-ho me-ŋəŋ-h-o-ko  
you-DAT money NEG-be-INVS-2SG-TOP
‘If you do not have money…’

4.2.2 Derivational negation

Derivational negation, according to Payne (1997), refered to the process by which a stem may be transformed into its ‘opposite’ by applying some derivational morphological rules. For instance, English uses prefixes like un-, in-, dis-, etc., to negate the words such as unreserved, uncensored, indiscipline, intolerable, disqualification, disfigured, etc. In Hawa Nokte, words can be negated by prefixing the root with negative forms such as /-maʔ/, /ma-/ and /le-/. The resulting form then
embodies a concept which is opposite to the concept embodied by the original root. They function as negative lexicons. Examples are given in (12):

(12) a. \( p^h \)e ‘to throw’ + ma? > /ma?p^h/e ‘to lose something’

b. hut ‘to rub’ + ma? > /ma?hut/ ‘to erase’

c. \( t^h \)ien ‘to keep’ + ma? > /ma?t^hien/ ‘to lose it by keeping’

The negated verb forms in (12) may be further added with the help of additional negative forms such as /ma/ and /maʔ/ as shown in (13a & b).

(13) a. \( nə\eta\text{-}mə \eta\eta\text{-}kə\text{-}h\text{-}əŋ kolom\text{-}pa mə\text{-}mə\text{-}p^h\text{-}k\text{-}əŋ \)
you-ERG I-DAT give-PST-INVS-1SG pen-DEF NEG-lose-PRES-1SG
‘I have not yet lost the pen you gave me’

b. \( \eta\text{-}mə\text{-}ma\text{-}hut\text{-}mə\text{-}t\text{-}ək \)
I-ERG erase-NEG-PST-1SG
‘I didn’t erase it’

The derived nouns (or agentive nouns) can be negated by prefixing negative forms such as /le/ and /ma/ as shown in (14a & b).

(14) a. \( dʒ\text{-}apte \) ‘one who talks’ [le + dʒapte] /le[dʒ]apte/ ‘one who doesn’t talk’

b. \( ʧ\text{-}a[t]e \) ‘one who eats’ [ma + ʧ\text{-}a[t]e] /ma[ʧ]a[t]e/ ‘one who is yet to eat’

4.2.3 Clausal negation

The sentential or clausal negation is expressed by suffixing a negative marker to the main verb as shown in (16). The negative marker /maʔ/ knocks out the tense marker as shown in (16a).
Affirmative:

(15) ɾəŋ pat-k-a

sky fall-PRES-3SG
‘It is raining’

Negative:

(16) a. ɾəŋ pat-ма?

sky fall-NEG
‘It is not raining’

b. ɾəŋ pat-ма?-т-a?

sky fall-NEG-PST-3SG
‘It didn’t rain’

To negate the nominalized clause, verb /дη/ ‘to be’ is introduced which is immediately suffixed by the negative marker /m/ as shown in (18).

Affirmative:

(17) ɲa boŋ-te

I dance-NOMZ
‘I am a dancer’

Negative:

(18) a. ɲa boŋ-te дη-m-ək

I dance-NOMZ be-NEG-1SG
‘I am not a dancer’

b. ɲe ɲapehə-te ɲə-m-a?

he teach-NOMZ be-NEG-3SG
‘He is not a teacher’
### 4.2.4 Negative indicatives

The adjectives usually assume the role of a postpositional modifier of noun in indicative construction, as /ŋək/ ‘black’ does in (19a). In such case, adjective functioning as modifier cannot be negated.

(19)  \[ huˌŋək-pa-ma  \]
\[ miʔva-ko  \]
\[ kək-k-a \]

\[ \text{dog black-DEF-ERG man-OBJ bite-PRES-3SG} \]

‘The black dog bites the man’

However, when the adjective doesn’t function as modifier of the noun; the adjectives can also be negated or take negative markers. In such case, the negative can either be directly attached to the adjective as in (20a) or it may be attached to the verb ‘be’ as shown in (20b). The meaning of the sentences remains the same.

(20) a.  \[ əɾe \]
\[ muɫ'ulari-pa  \]
\[ tu-maʔ \]

\[ \text{this orange-DEF sweet-NEG} \]

‘This orange is not sweet’

b.  \[ əɾe \]
\[ muɫ'ulari-pa  \]
\[ tu  \]
\[ dəŋ-maʔ \]

\[ \text{this orange-DEF sweet be-NEG} \]

‘This orange is not sweet’

Indicative affirmative clause such as in (21) can be negated by adding negative marker /maʔ/ and /m/ to the verb root as shown in (22a & b).

**Affirmative:**

(21)  \[ ŋə \]
\[ kʰo \]
\[ tfʰa-k-a \]

\[ \text{I head pain-PRES-AFV} \]

‘My head aches’
Negative:

(22) a. \( \eta a \, k^h o \, t^b a \text{-} \text{ma}? \)
    I head pain-NEG
    ‘My head doesn’t ache’

b. \( \eta a \, k^h o \, t^b a \text{-} m^\text{-}k \)
    I head pain-NEG-1SG
    ‘My head doesn’t ache’

4.2.5 Negative transport

In Hawa Nokte, the matrix clause of the verbs such as ‘think’, ‘believe’, etc., cannot be negated, but only the embedded clause can be negated. In such case, the negation has scope only over the embedded clause and not over the matrix clause. For example, in (23b), the verb ‘think’ is not negated, but it is the verb ‘come’ which is negated. In the case of English, however, the negative occurs with the verb ‘think’ of matrix clause as in (23a), whereas in Hawa Nokte, it occurs with the verb ‘come’ of embedded clause and negation has the scope over the verb ‘come’ and not over the verb ‘think’. In meaning wise, both the sentences carry the same meaning, however, they differ in the placement of the negative. Thus, in Hawa Nokte, example (23c) is grammatically unacceptable.

(23) a. I don’t think he will come.

b. \( \eta a \text{-} \text{ma} \, t^\text{o} \text{phun-k\text{-}k}\text{\text{-}t}\text{e} \, \text{ka} \text{-} \text{ma}? \text{-} t\text{-}a \)
    I-ERG think-PRES-1SG he come[down]-NEG-DIR[towards the Sp]-3SG
    ‘I am thinking he will not come’

c. *\( \eta a \text{-} \text{ma} \, t^\text{o} \text{phun-m\text{-}k} \text{\text{-}t}\text{e} \text{ka-t} \text{-} a \)


Similarly, Hindi and Havyaka also have same type of construction like Nokte. According to Bhatt (2000), in many of the Indian languages ‘thought-verb’ cannot be negated. Consider the following two examples in (24) and (25).

In Hindi:

(24)  

\[
\text{mera k\textsuperscript{b}\textordmasculine yal he ki vo n\textordmasculine h\textordmasculine (Neg.) ayega}
\]

‘I think he will not come’  

(Abbi, 1997:186)

In Havyaka:

(25)  

\[
\text{av\textordmasculine a\textordmasculine baynda\textordmasculine:y-llle he:Li enage ka:Nuttu}
\]

he came-not that me appears

‘I think he has not come’  

(Bhatt, 2000:156)

4.2.6 Negative interrogatives

In negative interrogative sentence, the negative markers such as /maʔ/ and /m/ are used along with the question marker /ne/ as shown in (27a & b).

Negative indicative:

(26)  

\[
\text{\textordmasculine er\textordmasculine titap-pa n\textordmasculine h-\textordmasculine ray d\textordmasculine c\textordmasculine m\textordmasculine a?}
\]

this book-DEF you-POSS be-NEG

‘This book is not yours’

Negative interrogative:

(27) a.  

\[
\text{\textordmasculine er\textordmasculine titap-pa n\textordmasculine h-\textordmasculine ray d\textordmasculine c\textordmasculine m\textordmasculine a?-ne}
\]

this book-DEF you-POSS be-NEG-QP

‘Isn’t this your book?’

b.  

\[
\text{n\textordmasculine h-\textordmasculine l\textordmasculine f\textordmasculine\textordmasculine om f\textordmasculine a\textordmasculine p-m-o?-ne}
\]

you food eat-NEG-2SG-QP

‘Are you not eating food?’
The negative polarity questions are generated by reproducing the verb form with question marker. In such construction, the first verb slot is positive and second is negated as shown in (28). The sentence also has single tense marking.

(28) a. *nəŋ bien-t-o?-a-le ma-boen-a*
   
you tire-PST-2SG-SFP-QP NEG-tire-QP
   ‘Are you tired or not (yet)?’

b. *nəŋ ma-boen-a-le boen-t-o?-a*
   
you NEG-tire-SFP-QP tire-PST-2SG-QP
   ‘Are you tired or not (yet)?’

4.2.7 Negative indefinite

In Hawa Nokte, the indefinite functions are achieved through the use of an interrogative question form in the focal argument slot, followed by an additive particle /ʤo/ and a predicate negated form as in (29).

(29) a. *ŋa dʧet-m-ɵk*
   
I know-NEG-1SG
   ‘I don’t know’

b. *ŋa tʧen-ʧo dʧet-m-ɵk*
   
I QF-ADD know-NEG-1SG
   ‘I don’t know anything’

c. *ŋa hen-ʧo dʧet-m-ɵk*
   
I QF-ADD know-NEG-1SG
   ‘I don’t know anybody’

The negative polarity item (NPI) such as ‘nowhere’ is formed with the combination of three morphemes, viz /ʧen/ ‘Q-form’, /nəŋ/ ‘locative case marker’ and
/dʒo/ ‘additive particle’. An additive particle is obligatorily required to form negative polarity items or else the sentence makes no sense as shown in (30c).

(30) a. \( \eta a-ma \, øte \, ṭʃen-nəŋ-dʒo \, kʰe-maʔ-t-ək \)

I-ERG he QF-LOC-ADD see-NEG-PST-1SG

(i) ‘I have seen him nowhere’

(ii) ‘I didn’t see him anywhere’

b. \( \eta a-ma \, hen-dʒo \, kʰe-maʔ-t-ək \)

I-ERG QF-ADD see-NEG-PST-1SG

‘I didn’t see anybody’

c. *\( \eta a-ma \, hen \, kʰe-maʔ-t-ək \)

In (31a), the question-form /ʧen/ is attached with morpheme /li/ ‘thing’ and then an additive particle /-dʒo/ to indicate the meaning of ‘anything’. The finite verb /kʰe/ ‘to see’ is suffixed by a negative marker /maʔ/ then the past tense marker /t/, and the verb agrees in person-number with the subject. If the form ʧʧen-li-dʒo is removed from the sentence, then the resultant sentence would yield direct negative sentence as in (31b).

(31) a. \( \eta a-ma \, ʧʧen-li-dʒo \, kʰe-maʔ-t-ək \)

I-ERG QF-thing-ADD see-NEG-PST-1SG

‘I didn’t see anything’

b. \( \eta a-ma \, kʰe-maʔ-t-ək \)

I-ERG see-NEG-PST-1SG

‘I didn’t see’

Since the indefinite constructions are formed with interrogative particles, it is also worth to mention how interrogative clauses are formed and, how negation in
interrogative clauses operates. In (32), the additive particle /də/ is dropped which indicate the interrogative clause.

(32) \textit{hen ka-maʔ-t-h-a-a}

QF come[down]-NEG-PST-DIR[towards the \textit{Sp}]-3SG-QP

‘Who didn’t come?’

4.2.8 Double negation

The double negation is a kind of negative constructions in which two negatives occur at the clause level. Like in many other world languages, in Hawa Nokte also, the occurrence of double negation is possible. When two negative markers are in same sentence, then the overall meaning of the sentence becomes positive in Hawa Nokte. In other words, the two negative markers canceled each other, which thereby provide affirmative meaning. The two types of negative marking may be observed in this context. In the first case, the same negative marker is used twice to indicate the affirmation, and in the second case the different negative markers are used to indicate the same (affirmation). For instance, in (33), the main verb /koʔ/ ‘give’ and verb /dəŋ/ ‘be’ are marked by the same negative marker /le/ as prefix to indicate the affirmation.

(33) \textit{ətə-ŋəŋ le-koʔ le-dəŋ-min}

he-DAT NEG-give NEG-be-min

‘We must certainly give him’

However, in (34), the two different negative markers are used to indicate the affirmation of the sentence. The verb /ka/ ‘come’ is marked by negative marker /le/ and the verb ‘be’ is marked by negative marker /nək/ (imperative negative marker). The ergative marker can also be used to indicate the meaning of ‘not being something or somebody’ as shown in (34c).
(34) a. ָטָה הָמְנֹה לֶ-קָה נָהְ-דֵה-ו
    you house-LOC NEG-come[down] NEG-be-2SG
    ‘You must come to the house’

b. ֵט-מֶה ֵשָׁה גַשָּה לֶ-צֵָט דֵה-מ-א?
    he-ERG this matter-DEF NEG-know be-NEG-3SG
    ‘He knows the matter’

c. ֵט נָהְ בַּה מָה-דֵה-א
    he NEG or NEG-be-SFP
    ‘He might not be the one (somebody else)’

In above examples in (34), the second negative marker is introduced by verb ‘be’. In such constructions, verb ‘be’ function as subordinate verb. It is obligatory. However, in (35), there are two independent verbs that are marked differently by the different negative markers. The verb ‘know’ in matrix clause is marked by negative marker /m/ and the second verb ‘come’ is marked by negative marker /maʔ/. In other words, the two different verbs received the different negative markers. In (34a), verbs in each clause also receives PNAgr marker separately.

(35) a. ָטָה צֵָט מָה ֵט קָה-מֶה-ר-א בַּה-א
    I know-NEG-1SG he come[down]-DIR[towards the Sp]-3SG or QP
    ‘I didn’t know that he didn’t come’

b. ָטָה לֶ-קָה-ר-וֹק לֶ-נָהְק-מָן
    you NEG-come[down]-DIR[towards the Sp] NEG-please-FUT
    ‘If you don’t come we won’t be pleased’

4.2.9 Scope of negation

In simplest term, scope refers to the variable portions of a clause that can be negated. In general, when a sentence is negated, it affects the whole sentence.
However, in some contexts this is not always the case. In such cases, only the focused constituent is affected (Bhat, 2000). Consider two examples in (36), where in the first example in (36a), the whole predicate in the sentence is fully negated that *Sachin didn’t play football* (which means Sachin’s playing football didn’t take place), but in second example, *Sachin did play*, only that he didn’t play well enough. In this case, the focus is on the Sachin’s inability to play well and not on the predicate as whole. Thus, the scope of negation goes over verbal modifier *sen* ‘well’ (adverb) as shown in (36b).

(36) a. *saffin puutbol loam-maʔ-t-a?*

   Sachin football play-NEG-PST-3SG
   ‘Sachin didn’t play football’

b. *saffin puutbol sen loam-maʔ-t-a?*

   Sachin football well play-NEG-PST-3SG
   ‘Sachin didn’t play football well’

Consider another two examples in (37) which have the same construction, but both differ in scope of negation. In (37a), the negation has scope over the verbal modifier ‘well’ (adverbial), whereas in (37b), the scope of negation shifts over the nominal modifier ‘good’ (adjectival). Usually, the difference is marked by slight pause or comma to avoid ambiguity. The negative suffix cannot be moved but it consistently attached with the verb root.

(37) a. *meri-ma se, sen se-maʔ-t-a?*

   mary-ERG song good sing-NEG-PST-3SG
   ‘Mary didn’t sing the song well’

b. *meri-ma se sen, se-maʔ-t-a?*

   mary-ERG song good sing-NEG-PST-3SG
   ‘Mary didn’t sing good song’
4.3 Interrogatives in Hawa Nokte

Broadly, the interrogative system in Hawa Nokte may be divided into two types such as (i) the content questions or information questions and (ii) the polar questions such as yes-no questions, alternative questions, confirmatory questions, etc. The content questions are usually formed with the help of two question forms /hen/ and /ʧen/ along with other morphological elements. Of the two question forms, the first one is used to form question words such as who, whose, whom, etc., whereas the second one is associated with the question words such as what, which, where, when, how, why, and so on. However, unlike English, where wh-questions such as what, who, where, whom, which, etc., can stand on their own, in Hawa Nokte such equivalent question words require some other morphological elements to get the complete meaning of question words. For instance, in (38), both question forms minimally require question particle /a/ to complete the question words; otherwise it is not possible to have complete meaning of question word.

(38) a. ʰen-ə

QF-QP
‘who’

b. ʧen-ə

QF-QP
‘what’

The morphological elements generally associated with the two question forms and help in forming different types of questions are shown in Table 4.1 and 4.2.

Figure 4.1: Sample of /hen/ question words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question form</th>
<th>Morphological elements</th>
<th>Question words or content questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/a/ ‘question particle’</td>
<td>‘who’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/li/ ‘kind’</td>
<td>‘whose kind/blood relation’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Figure 4.2: Sample of /ʧen/ question words

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<td>‘what’ (general)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/li/ ‘thing’</td>
<td>‘what’ (things)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘locative’</td>
<td>‘where’ (location)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘direction’</td>
<td>‘which direction’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/thᵘ/ ‘time’</td>
<td>‘when’ (time/duration)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʰoː/ ‘state’</td>
<td>‘what/how’ (state/condition/situation/name)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘instrumental’</td>
<td>‘by what/which’ (instrumental)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘quantifier’</td>
<td>‘how much’ (quantifier)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘purposive’</td>
<td>‘for what’ (purpose, reason, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘likeness’</td>
<td>‘what kind/type’ (similarity)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/pa/ ‘definite’</td>
<td>‘which one’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/内科/ ‘ablative’</td>
<td>‘from where or what’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dʒa/ ‘day’</td>
<td>‘which day’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.3.1 Content questions or question words

The question forms and the morphological elements are mutually dependent upon one another i.e., one without the other, the complete meaning of question words cannot be achieved. Broadly, the content or information questions may be divided into two types such as; (i) *hen*-question and (ii) *ʧen*-question based on their morphosemantic properties.
4.3.1.1 *hen*-questions (hen + morphological element)

(i) [hen + a]

The question form along with question particle /a/ formed the question word ‘who’. The question particle is obligatory. The question form /hen/ can also be repeated to indicate ‘each one’ as in (39c). Examples are given in (39);

(39) a. *nəŋ* **hen-a**
   
you QF-QP
   ‘Who are you?’

b. **ste** **hen-a**
   
(s)he QF-QP
   ‘Who is she?’

c. **hen-hen** **ka-r-en-a**
   
QF-QF come[down]-PRES.DIR[towards the Sp]-QP
   ‘who who are coming?’

(ii) [hen + *nəŋ*]

The morpheme /nəŋ/ is added to question-form to denote ‘to whom something has been given or done to’ as shown in (40).

(40) a. *nəŋ-ma hen-* **nəŋ** **koʔ-t-oʔ-a**
   
you-ERG QF-DAT give-PST-2SG-QP
   ‘To whom did you give?’

b. **ste-ma hen-* **nəŋ** vat-min-a
   
he-ERG QF-DAT beat-FUT-QP
   ‘To whom he will beat?’

c. *nəŋ-ma hen koʔ-t-oʔ-a
(iii) \textbf{[hen + ma]}

The morpheme /ma/ is added to the question-form to form content question such as ‘by whom’. It questions the actor or doer of the action. Consider the following examples in (41);

(41) a. \textit{nəŋ-nəŋ} \textit{hen-ма} ԡ-т-h-o-a

\hspace{1cm} \text{you-OBJ QF-ERG scold-PST-INV-2SG-QP}

\hspace{1cm} ‘Who has scolded you?’

b. ԡ-ңəŋ ңun \textit{hen-ма} koʔ-мин-a

\hspace{1cm} \text{I-DAT money QF-ERG give-FUT-QP}

\hspace{1cm} ‘Who will give me the money?’

c. *\textit{nəŋ-nəŋ} \textit{hen} ԡ-т-h-o-a

(iv) \textbf{[hen + raŋ]}

The morpheme /raŋ/ is attached to question-form to form question word ‘for whom’. It denotes the beneficiary. Consider the following examples in (42);

(42) a. \textit{əɾe ңun-па} \textit{hen-raŋ-a}

\hspace{1cm} \text{this money-DEF QF-for-QP}

\hspace{1cm} ‘This money is for whom?’

b. ԡ-ңa \textit{əɾe ңun-па} \textit{hen-raŋ} атегор-k-o-a

\hspace{1cm} \text{you-ERG this money-DEF QF-for carry-PRES-2SG-QP}

\hspace{1cm} ‘For whom this money you are carrying?’

c. *\textit{əɾe ңun-па} \textit{hen-a}
(v) [hen + ōiək]

The morpheme /ōiək/ is added to the question form to denote ‘whose’. It denotes ‘belonging’ or ‘possession’. Consider the following examples in (43):

(43) a. ēre ɲun-pa hen-ōiək-a

this money-DEF QF-belong-QP

(i) ‘Whose money is this?’

(ii) ‘This money belongs to whom?’

b. ēre hup-pa hen-ōiək-a

this umbrella-DEF QF-belong-QP

‘Whose umbrella is this?’

However, if things in question need to be specified, then morpheme /ōiək/ may be directly replaced with the noun as shown in (44).

(44) nəŋ-ma hen-titap səm-k-o-a

you-ERG QF-book carry-PRES-2SG-QP

‘Whose book are you carrying?’

(vi) [hen + ōŋəŋ]

The morpheme /ōŋəŋ/ denotes ‘likenesses’ or ‘similarity’. It is added to question-form to form content questions as shown in (45a). It may be also dropped as shown in (53b). Reply to question (45a) would be as shown in (46).

Question:

(45) a. nəŋ hen-ōŋəŋ dəŋ-min-a

you QF-like be-FUT-QP

‘Like whom will you be?’
b. nəŋ hen dəŋ-min-a
   
   you QF be-FUT-QP
   ‘Who will you be?’

Reply:

(46) ŋə nəŋ-əŋəŋ dəŋ-min
   I you-like be-FUT
   ‘I will be like you’

(vii) [hen + to]

The morpheme /to/ denotes the degree of an entity. It quantifies the person in terms of size. This question usually relates to the size or age of the person in question as shown in (47).

Question:

(47) nəŋ tə́-a-pa hen-to dəŋ-a
   you son/daughter-DEF QF-DEG big-QP
   ‘How big is your son/daughter?’

Reply:

(48) ŋə tə́-a-pa don-əŋ moaŋ la-dəŋ-t-a?
   I son/daughter-DEF big-DEG PERF-become-PST-3SG
   ‘My son/daughter has become very big’

(viii) [hen + vaʔ]

To form the content question such as ‘from whom’, a morpheme /vaʔ/ is added to the question-form as shown in (49). The morphological element cannot be dropped as it may yield ungrammatical sentence as shown in (49c).
(49) a. ɨn-ма ỳn-па ēn-ваʔ ɳəm-t-оʔ-а

you-ERG money DEF QF-ABL borrow-PST-2SG-QP
‘From whom you borrowed the money?’

b. ɛr-i-mа тиtаʔ-па ēn-ваʔ ɨʔa-t-аʔ-а

mary-ERG book-DEF QF-ABL take-PST-3SG-QP
‘From whom Mary took the book?’

c. *ɛr-i-mа тиtаʔ-па ʔɛn ɨʔa-t-аʔ-а

4.3.1.2 ʧен-questions (ʧен + morphological element)

(i) [ʧен + li]

The morpheme /li/ denotes ‘thing’ which may be suffixed to the question-form to form the content question ‘what’ (relating to thing). It can be replaced with the noun in question to get the more specific meaning as in (50b). The question-form /ʧен/ can also be repeated to indicate the ‘plurality’ of the things in question, as shown in (50c).

(50) a. ər-e-pа ʧен-li-а

his-DEF QF-thing-QP
‘What is this?’

b. ər-e-pа ʧен-кʰət-а

this-DEF QF-cloth-QP
‘What (kind) of cloth is it?’

c. ɨn-ма ʧен ʧен-li ʔa-t-h-o-а

you-ERG QF QF-thing bring[down]-PST-DIR[towards the Sp]-3SG-QP
‘What what are the things you brought?’
(ii) [ʧen + nəŋ]

The morpheme marker /nəŋ/ is added to form the content question ‘where’. It is used to denote the location of the noun or the subject as in (51a & b). If morpheme or locative marker /nəŋ/ is dropped then it may yield another meaning of the question as shown in (51c).

(51) a. ram ʧen-nəŋ-a
   ram QF-LOC-2SG-QP
   ‘Where is Ram?’

   b. nəŋ ʧen-nəŋ dəŋ-vaʔ-a
   you QF-LOC be-PST-QP
   ‘Where have you been?’

   c. nəŋ ʧen dəŋ-vaʔ-a
   you QF be-PST-QP
   ‘What had happened to you?’

(iii) [ʧen + ŋe]

The morpheme /ŋe/ denotes ‘direction/side’ in Hawa Nokte. It is added to the question form to form question-word question such as ‘from which direction’. The morpheme is usually followed by either ablative marker /vaʔ/ or locative marker /nəŋ/ as in shown (52a & b).

(52) a. nəŋ ʧen-ŋe-vaʔ-a
   you QF-direction-ABL-QP
   ‘From which direction you are?’

   b. nəŋ ʧen-ŋe-nəŋ-a
   you QF-direction-LOC-QP
   ‘In which direction you are?’
(iv) **[ʧen + ma]**

The instrumental case marker /ma/ (which is equivalent to English ‘by’ or ‘with’) is added to the question form to denote the instrument ‘by which’ or ‘with which’ something is done as shown in (53).

(53) a. ʧen ma ?a-min-a  
  you QF-INST eat-FUT-QP  
  ‘By what will you eat?’

b. ʧen ma ?e-min-a  
  he QF-INST come[up]-FUT-QP  
  ‘By what will he come?’

(v) **[ʧen + pa]**

The definite marker /pa/ is added to question-form to denote ‘which one or a particular thing’ in question as in (54). In between the question-form and definite marker, the morpheme such as /li/ or even independent lexical /ʤat/ ‘kind or type’ may also be inserted as shown in (54b) to denote kind or type of thing. Dropping of morpheme /pa/ would yield another question as shown in (54c).

(54) a. ʧen pa-a  
  QF-DEF-QP  
  ‘Which one?’

b. ʧen li-ʤat pa hun-k-o-a  
  you QF-kind-DEF like-PRES-2SG-QP  
  ‘Which kind of thing do you take?’

c. ʧen hun-k-o-a  
  you QF like-PRES-2SG-QP  
  ‘What do you want?’
(vi) \[\text{ʧen} + \text{tʰu}\]

The morpheme /tʰu/ denotes the ‘time of action or the event’ in Nokte. It is added to question-form to question the ‘time’ of the action or event. Thus, it is use to form time related questions as in (55).

(55) a. \text{ʧen-tʰu-a}

\begin{tabular}{l}
\text{QF-DUR-QP} \\
\end{tabular}

‘When’

b. \text{nəŋ ʧen-tʰu ɲəŋ-min-a}

\begin{tabular}{l}
you QF-DUR come[up]-FUT-QP \\
\end{tabular}

‘When will you come?’

(vii) \[\text{ʧen} + \text{roʔ}\]

The morpheme /roʔ/ is added to question-form to form the question words relating to the manner or state or situation or condition or name of the person, etc., as shown in (56).

(56) a. \text{nəŋ ʧen-roʔ-a}

\begin{tabular}{l}
you QF-state-QP \\
\end{tabular}

‘How are you?’

b. \text{nəŋ min ʧen-roʔ-a}

\begin{tabular}{l}
you name QF-state-QP \\
\end{tabular}

‘What is your name?’

c. \text{ŋa-ma ɲe-nəŋ ʧen-roʔ ɲat-min-a}

\begin{tabular}{l}
I-ERG he-DAT QF-state say-FUT-QP \\
\end{tabular}

‘What will I say to him?’
(viii) [ʧen + raŋ]

The morpheme /raŋ/ is attached to question-form to question the intention, reason, and the purpose of the action or event.

(57) a. ʧen-raŋ-a

QF-purpose-QP
‘For what?’

b. əte ʧen-raŋ ləm-k-o-a

he QF-purpose want-PRES-2SG-QP
(i) ‘For what do you want him?’
(ii) ‘Why do you want him?’

c. ʧen-pa ʧen-raŋ hun-k-o-a

money-DEF QF-purpose want-PRES-2SG-QP
‘For what you want money?’

(ix) [ʧen + raŋɾəŋ]

The morpheme /raŋɾəŋ/ is added to question-form to form question-word question which indicate types or kinds of the things in question.

(58) a. ʧen-raŋɾəŋ-a

QF-type-QP
‘What type/kind?’

b. you-ERG ʧen-raŋɾəŋ kət ləm-k-o-a

you-QF-type cloth look-PRES-2SG-QP
‘What type/kind of cloth you are looking for?’
(x) [ʧen + to]

The quantifier /to/ is added to question-form to quantify the object in question. It is used as quantifying questions, pertaining to countable numbers, quantity or extent. It can be used to quantify the adjectival qualities, object quantity, quantifying questions of stative/adjectival verbs, adverbial manner, etc., as shown in (59).

(59) a. \text{ʧen-to-a}  
\begin{align*}
\text{QF-DEG-QP} \\
\text{‘How much?’}
\end{align*}

b. əɾe kʰət-pa ʧen-to tʰa-a  
\begin{align*}
\text{this cloth-DEF QF-DEG price-QP} \\
\text{‘How much is the price of this cloth?’}
\end{align*}

c. ne vôk ʧen-to dɒŋ tɔŋ-a  
\begin{align*}
\text{you(pl) pig QF-DEG big have-QP} \\
\text{‘How big pig you have?’}
\end{align*}

(xi) [ʧen + vaʔ]

The morpheme /vaʔ/ is added to question-form to form the question-word question such as ‘from where’ or ‘from what’ as shown in (60).

(60) a. ʧen-vaʔ-a  
\begin{align*}
\text{QF-ABL-QP} \\
\text{‘From where?’}
\end{align*}

b. əɾe ṭun-pa ʧen-vaʔ-a  
\begin{align*}
\text{this money-DEF QF-ABL-QP} \\
\text{‘From where is this money?’}
\end{align*}
c. *are siniken-pa tfen-val hoen-k-a*

this sweet-DEF QF-ABL made-PRES-QP

‘This sweet is made from what?’

The question-form */tfen/* can also be added to noun such as */dʒa/* ‘day’ to question the day of the event of action as shown in example (61).

(61) *ninəp tfen-dʒa-a*

tomorrow QF-day-QP

‘Tomorrow is what day?’

4.3.2 Polar questions

4.3.2.1 Yes-no questions

The ‘yes-no’ question is achieved by suffixing question particle */le/* at the sentence-final position. It usually occurs after all the other verbal inflections are finally attached to the verb root. Consider the following examples for the purpose of illustration in (62).

(62) a. *nəŋ tfəm tfʰaʔ-o-le*

you food eat-2SG-QP

‘Will you eat food?’

b. *nəŋ tfəm tfʰaʔ-t-oʔ-le*

you food eat-PST-2SG-QP

‘Did you eat food?’

To respond to the ‘yes-no’ questions in Hawa Nokte, at least the main part of the sentence should be repeated as shown in (63) or just by simply expressing ‘o’ to mean ‘yes’ or */ʧəŋŋa/* meaning ‘no’ (these two forms are used either as positive or negative response to the questions). The responses may be also indicated through
gesture such as by nodding the head side-wise (agree) or up-down (disagree). Consider the following examples (63) and (64) as affirmative and negative replies to the ‘yes-no’ question.

Affirmative reply:

(63) \( \eta a tf^h a?-\omega \eta \)

I eat-1SG

‘I eat’

Negative reply:

(64) \( \eta a tf^h a?-m-\omega k \)

I eat-NEG-1SG

‘I will not eat’

4.3.2.2 Alternative questions

This question, in particular, is used to ask the interlocutor which of two alternatives holds, in which case an answer consists in indicating one of the alternative. In Nokte, usually the first part of the sentence is marked by a question particle \(/\text{le}/\) and the second part is introduced by another question particle \(/\text{a/} at the end of the sentence. Thus, the two question particles are required to form alternative questions in Nokte. It is different from English, because in English the two parts of the sentence are separated by ‘or’ at the beginning of the second part, whereas in Nokte one part of the sentence is marked by one question particle at the beginning of the second part. Examples are given below in (65);

(65) a. \( n\epsilon \eta n\epsilon m p^h \omega k-o-\text{le} \eta a? tf^h a?-o-\text{a} \)

you meat eat-2SG-QP fish eat-2SG-QP

‘You eat meat or fish?’
b. ːnəŋ tfəm tfʰəʔ-o-le tfʰəʔ-m-oʔ-a
   you food eat-2SG-QP eat-NEG-2SG-QP
   ‘You eat food or not?’

c. ːdəla tfʰ-a-le dhiəktfʰ-a-a
   boy-AFP-QP, girl-QP
   ‘Is it a boy or a girl?’

4.3.2.3 Confirmatory questions

Basically, the confirmatory question is used to seek confirmation of a state of affairs already presumed by the speaker rather than asking for fully new information. In Hawa Nokte, the confirmatory question is formed by suffixing the question marker either /ni/ or /o/ to the verb root as shown in (66). Usually, the question marker occurs at the sentence-final position just immediately after PNAgr or tense marker.

(66) a. ːnəŋ tfəm tfʰəʔ-o-ni       or       ːnəŋ tfəm tfʰəʔ-o-o
   you food eat-2SG-QP
   ‘You eat food, are you?’

   b. ːnəŋ-maŋa-ːnəŋ vat-min-ni       or       ːnəŋ-maŋa-ːnəŋ vat-min-o
   you-ERG I-DAT beat-FUT-QP
   ‘You are going to beat me, are you?’

4.3.3 Position of question words

The position of question words in Hawa Nokte may either remain in its normal position as in (67) or may be moved to the front as shown in (68a). In Hawa Nokte, the question particle /a/ usually closes the interrogative (content or information questions) sentences. The question words cannot be moved in the sentence-final position as shown in (68b).
Normal:

(67) nəŋ tʃen-li pʰək-min-a

you QF-thing eat-FUT-QP

‘What will you eat?’

Sentence initial position:

(68) a. tʃen-li pʰək-min-a nəŋ-a

QF-thing eat-FUT-QMK you-QP

‘What will you eat?’

b. *nəŋ pʰək-min-a tʃen-li

The multiple question words such as in (69a) are usually attracted to pre-verbal position in the order SUBJECT-OBJECT-VERB. The change of subject and object position may be possible but not natural.

(69) a. hen-ma tʃen-li ri-k-a-a

QF-ERG QF-thing buy-PRES-3SG-QP

‘Who is buying what?’

b. *hen-ma ri-k-a-a tʃen-li

However, in (70), when the question form is followed by other morphological elements (such as dative marker), the question particle usually shifts its position at the sentence-final position.

(70) nəŋ-ma ʔun-pa hen-nəŋ koʔ-t-oʔ-a

you-ERG money-DEF QF-DAT give-PST-2SG-QP

‘To whom did you give the money?’
4.4 Summary

The negation and interrogative are two grammatical categories which usually clustered around the verb in Hawa Nokte. The negation is usually achieved by employing different negative markers which occur as either prefixes or suffixes. They occur as part of the verb phrase. Like most of the world languages, Hawa Nokte also employs a separate negative imperative marker. The interrogative system includes two parts; the content questions and polar questions. The content questions are usually formed with the help of two question-forms such as /hen/ and /ʧen/ along with morphological elements. The question-forms and morphological elements are mutually interdependent. No complete interrogative meaning can be achieved one without the other. On the other hand, the polar questions such as yes-no questions, alternative questions, echo questions, and tag-questions are formed by employing different interrogative markers which usually occur at the sentence-final position. The question words can either occur in sentence initial-position or in *situ*, whereas the interrogative markers always occur at the sentence-final position in interrogative sentence.