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ABSTRACT

This paper attempts to discuss word formation in Thadou, a Tibeto-Burman language of the Kuki-Chin subgroup spoken by around 231, 200 (Lewis 2009) speakers of northeast India and Myanmar. This paper discusses three processes that are relevant for word formation in Thadou: affixation, compounding and reduplication. Thadou like the other Kuki-Chin languages of the region is an agglutinative language in which almost all the syllable boundary corresponds to morpheme boundary. Most words in Thadou tend to be largely monosyllabic, but even with bisyllabic words, it is not difficult to segment the various morphemes which composed a bisyllabic word.

KEYWORDS

word formation, Thadou, Kuki-Chin, Tibeto-Burman language

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Word formation in Thadou¹

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1 Introduction

Thadou (ISO 639-3: TCZ) is a Tibeto-Burman language of the Kuki-Chin group spoken in Northeast India (Manipur, Nagaland and Assam) and Myanmar. Thadou is mutually intelligible with Paite, Simte, Gantge, Vaiphei and Zou (Haokip 2011) and closely related to Hmar and Mizo. Hence, much of what is discussed here equally applies to the other Kuki-Chin languages spoken in the neighbourhood. There is a robust body of literature on the phonology of Thadou, but its morphology and syntax have not received much attention. Previous studies by Thirumalai (1972), Hyman (2004) and Haokip (2008) have discussed at length the phonology of Thadou, but more work needs to be done on the morphology, syntax and on the current sociolinguistic situation. A grammar by Shree Krishan (1980) devotes a considerable amount of discussion on the inflectional morphology of Thadou but, made little or no mention on the derivational morphology. The following sections discuss the different types of word formation processes, namely derivation, compounding and reduplication.

2 Derivation

Generally, word formation refers to the creation of a new word and falls under the rubric of derivational morphology, although, it is sometimes loosely used to refer to the whole process of morphological variation in the constitution of words including inflection and derivation. Word formation discussed in this study largely falls under the latter process (although in limited instances, particularly in the area of 'reduplicative adverbs', it could be argued whether it is the case) where derivational affixes normally change the grammatical class of morphemes to which they are attached. Inflectional affixes on the other hand, do not result in, change of grammatical class of morphemes to which they are attached. In other words, inflectional affixes result in the creation of different forms of the same word.

¹ This is a revised version of the paper presented at the 8th International Conference of NEILS held on 31st January–2nd February, 2014 at Guwahati, India. I would like to thank the participants of the Conference for attentively listening to my paper and offering their valuable comments and suggestions. My real debt goes to Sobhana Chelliah, George Bedell and Amos Teo for their insightful comments during different stages of the preparation of this paper. I am also indebted to the two unknown unanimous reviewers for their wonderful comments which in many ways have shaped the paper from its earlier version. My sincere thanks also go to Subbarao with whom I had many hours of fruitful discussions on Thadou morphosyntax in particular and Kuki-Chin in general. Of course, the author is solely responsible for any errors and faulty interpretation of data if any.

2.1 Derivation by prefixation

Thadou has a derivational prefix *-â*, which functions as a relative marker. Relative clauses are often nominalised in Tibeto-Burman languages, for instance, Lahu (Matisoff 1972), Bodic (DeLancey 2002) and Rawang (LaPolla 2008). In Thadou, clauses can be nominalized and then with the addition *â-*, they can be made relative. The examples in (1a-b)² below show the use of *â-* as a relative marker. Since all the examples from (1)-(2) below are in Stem1 form, it is not mentioned under each form that it is Stem 1.

(1)

- a. nûŋa? â-hòy-nûu-tsúu gôolhlaŋ-hôo-n â-dêy û-vêe
 girl REL-beautiful-FEM-DEF boy-PL-ERG 3-like-PL-DECL
 ‘The girl who is beautiful is liked by the boys’
- b. pûsâl â-hâat-pâa-tsúu â-thí-tâ-êe
 man REL-strong-MAS-DEF 3-die-PERF-DECL
 ‘The man who is strong had died’

It must be noted here that *â* functions as a relative marker when it is added to a nominalized clause. Otherwise, it remains as a third person maker in non-nominalized clause as shown in (c) below,

- c. â-hôoy-êe
 3-beautiful-DECL
 ‘He/she/it is beautiful’

The following examples from (2a-j) below exemplify the use *-â* as a relative marker³ in the formation of relative clauses modifying the subject.

² Throughout this paper aspirated stops [p^h], [t^h] and [k^h] are written as *ph*, *th* and *kh*; the voiceless lateral [l̥] is written as *hl*. Doubled vowels indicate length. The short vowel *a* is phonetically pronounced as [ə]. Tones are marked over the vowels where *á* = high tone; *â* = falling tone and *à* = low tone. The hyphen (-) is used to indicate morpheme boundary. The following abbreviations are used in this article: <1> 1st person, <2> 2nd person, <3> 3rd person, <CONJ> conjunction, <DECL> declarative, <DEF> definitive, <DEM> demonstrative, <DET> determiner, <DIST> distal, <ERG> ergative, <EXCL> exclusive, <FEM> feminine, <FUT> future, <IMP> imperative, <INCL> inclusive, <INTENSF> intensifier, <LOC> locative, <MAS> masculine, <NEG> negative, <NOM> nominalizer, <OBL> oblique, <PROX> proximate, <RED> reduplicative, <PERF> perfect, <PL> plural, <POSS> possessive pronoun, <PURP> purposive, <REFL> reflexive, <REL> relative marker, <TB> Tibeto-Burman, <Q> question.

³ Another argument which favours *-a* clause as a relative clause comes from an unpublished paper by Cover. According to Cover, the example in (a) below which contains *-a*+stem1 form and also with less controversial example in (b) which is marked by the presence of determiner *tsüu* are syntactically verbal, but the relative clause as a whole is syntactically nominal.

- (a) á-kâp tsápâŋg (b). á-kâp tsüu
 3-cry.1 child 3-cry.1 DET
 ‘a child who cries’ ‘the one who cries’

(2)

a.	â-hôoy-nûu	‘a woman who is beautiful’	â-hôoy-pâa	‘a man who is handsome’
b.	â-vôm-nûu	‘a woman who is black’	â-vôm-pâa	‘a man who is black’
c.	â-zôʔ-nûu	‘a female who sells’	â-zôʔ-pâa	‘a man who sells’
d.	â-góŋ-nûu	‘a woman who is thin’	â-góŋ-pâa	‘a man who is thin’
e.	â-lâam-nûu	‘a girl who dances’	â-lâam-pâa	‘a boy who dances’
f.	â-nêo-nûu	‘a girl who is small’	â-nêo-pâa	‘a boy who is small’
g.	â-hâat-nûu	‘a woman who is strong’	â-hâat-pâa	‘a man who is strong’

2.2 Derivation by suffixation

There are two derivational suffixes *-náa* and *-tâʔ-in* that change the grammatical class after they are suffixed to verbs. Unlike, the derivational suffixes *-náa* and *-tâʔ-in*, the plural suffix *-hòo* and the dual suffix *-nii* do not result in, change of grammatical class after they are suffixed to the base pronominal subject. In other words, the plural formation of Thadou pronominal subject is part of the class maintaining derivational morphology.

2.2.1 Derivation in plural formation

Pronouns in Thadou exhibit three numbers and four persons as shown in Table 1, below. Like other Kuki-Chin languages, Thadou exhibits a system of agreement marking between verbs and their arguments. It may be noted here that, person agreement with subjects is indicated by prefixes on the verb. These prefixes which mark person agreement with the subject of the verb are: *kâ-* ‘first person exclusive’, *i-* ‘first person inclusive’, *nâ-* ‘second person’, *â-* ‘third person’. It may be further stated here that, the agreement prefixes are the same for singular and plural subjects.

	first (exclusive)	first (inclusive)	second	third
singular	kêy		nâŋ	âmâa
dual	kêy-nii	êy-nii	nâŋ-nii	âmâ-nii
plural	kêy-hòo	êy-hòo	nâŋ-hòo	âmâ-hòo

Table 1.

As seen above, Thadou pronouns exhibit a difference in participant-marking prefix morphology for inclusive and exclusive with first person, dual and plural but the plural is the same for all the forms. The following sentence examples illustrate the plural formation of Thadou pronouns.

(3)	First person dual	First person plural
a.	kêy-nii kâ-tsii hlôn-nee	kêy-hòo kâ-tsii û-vêe
	1.INCL-DUAL 1-go DUAL-DECL	1.INCL-PL 1-go PL-DECL
	‘We (I+him/her) go/went’ (exclusive)	‘We (I+they) go/went’ (exclusive)

- | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|--------|-----------|-------------------------------------|--------|---------|
| b. | êy-nii | î-tsii | hlôn-nêe | êy-hò | î-tsiì | û-vêe |
| | 1.EXCL-DUAL | 1-go | DUAL-DECL | 1.EXCL-PL | 1-go | PL-DECL |
| | ‘We (I+you) go/went’ (inclusive) | | | ‘We (I+you.PL) go/went’ (inclusive) | | |

2.2.2 *náa* in derivation of noun from verbs

The primary function of *-náa* is to nominalize verbs into nouns. Besides, it also functions as a perfective marker as shown in example (5a) below. It is to be noted here that Thadou like the other Kuki-Chin languages is characterized by verbal stem alternation in which every verb has two stems known as stem 1 and stem 2 in the literature on Kuki-Chin languages. It is beyond the scope of this paper to explain all the contexts in which stem 1 and stem 2 forms are used. For the purpose of the present paper the stem which occurs in the main clause or in the declarative sentence is considered as stem 1 form and the stem which occurs in subordinate clause or interrogative sentence is considered as stem 2 form. Phonetically, the stem 1 and stem 2 forms differ in their final segment, tone and vowel. Thus, when a noun is derived from the corresponding verbs by suffixing *-náa*, the verb should be in stem 2 forms only. The following examples in (4) below are illustrative. It may be mentioned here that nothing happens to the root tone even after the high tone *-náa* is suffixed to it.

		stem 1	stem 2		
(4)	a.	kàp	kàa	‘cry’	kàa-náa ‘grief’
	b.	vàaytsâa	vèytsâat	‘to be poor’	vèytsâat-náa ‘poverty’
	c.	lùm	lùp	‘sleep’	lùp-náa ‘bed’
	d.	bôoy	bùy	‘busy’	bùy-náa ‘trouble’
	e.	hâat	hâat	‘strong’	hâat-náa ‘strength’
	f.	hîŋ	hìn	‘to be alive’	hìn-náa ‘live’
	g.	phàa	phàt	‘good’	phàt-náa ‘goodness’
	h.	háʔsáa	hàʔsàt	‘difficult’	hàʔsàt-náa ‘difficulty’
	i.	hòwsàa	hòwsàt	‘rich’	hòwsàt-náa ‘prosperity’
	j.	hòoy	hòoy	‘beautiful’	hòoy-náa ‘beauty’
	k.	tsôol	tsôol	‘tire’	tsôol-náa ‘weariness’
	l.	thiɛŋ	thiɛn	‘clean’	thiɛn-náa ‘cleanliness’
	m.	kípàʔ	kípâa	‘happy’	kípâa-náa ‘happiness’
	n.	tsàm	tsàm	‘peace’	tsàm-náa ‘peace time’

The sentence examples (5a-e) show the use of *-náa* in the derivation of nouns from verbs.

- (5)
- | | | | | | | |
|----|--|---------|------------------|-------------|---------|------|
| a. | kâ | kàa-náa | díj-bèp-mâa | nêy-náa | lùŋsiet | h-âm |
| | 1 | cry-NOM | for-INTENSF-CONJ | 2.1OBJ-PERF | love | be-Q |
| | ‘Did you love me just to intensify my grief?’ | | | | | |
| | (Felicitous context: When a boy is ditched/disserted by his lover) | | | | | |

- b. thâasiet-hîi vèytsâat-náa â-hîi
 laziness-DET poor-NOM 3-be
 ‘Laziness leads to poverty’
- c. dólthîŋ-ŋâa kî-sîem lùp-náa â-hòy-êe
 teak-INST REFL-make sleep-NOM 3-good-DECL
 ‘Bed made of teak is good’
- d. Pâthîen thúu-hîi hìn-náa â-hîi
 god word-DET live-NOM 3-be
 ‘God’s word is a living word’
- e. nàatò?-hîi tsòol-náa â-hîi
 work-DET tire-NOM 3-be
 ‘Work is tiresome’
 (Literally: Doing work is tiresome’)

2.2.2.1 The use of *-náa* in applicative construction

In addition to its normal function of deriving nouns from their corresponding verbs, Thadou, suffix *-náa* is also used as instrumental applicative marker. Applicatives are used to refer to object-adding categories (Haspelmath to appear, cited in Hartmann (2009)). The function of ‘applicative’ is to make intransitive verbs to take direct object or transitive verbs, that already have direct object, to become ditransitive verbs and the result is a three-argument construction (Hartmann 2009). Peterson (1998) somewhat differs from that of Hartmann in his treatment of applicatives in Lai. According to Peterson an ‘applicative construction’ is one “which indicates that what would normally be expected to appear as an oblique argument is treated like a direct object in morphosyntactic terms”. Thadou also has an instrumental applicative construction similar to that of Lai, where the oblique argument is treated as a direct object. In example (6a) the indirect object *tsêm* ‘knife’ is case-marked by the instrumental postposition *-in*. But, in (6b), the NP *théy* ‘fruit’ does not carry any case marker and the instrumental applicative *-náa* occurs to the right of the verb *vàl* ‘cut’ as an incorporated postposition.

The oblique argument into an object argument

- (6)
- a. tsêm-in they kâ-vál-lêe
 knife-INST fruit 1-cut-DECL
 ‘I cut the fruit with a knife’
- b. tsêm-tsúu they kâ-vàl-náa â-hîi
 knife-DET fruit 1-cut-INST 3-be
 ‘I cut the fruit with a knife’

The difference between the examples above is that in (6a) the oblique object is case marked by the case particle *-in*. On the contrary, the example in (6b) has a post-verbal transitivizer suffix *-náa* and, the instrument object received no oblique case marking. Note here that, when the subject or agent *kâ-* is moved to the main clause as shown in (7a) and (7b), *-náa* is no longer an instrumental applicative marker, but rather it functions as an oblique nominalizer. The oblique argument is made to become direct object by the presence of purposive marker *-âa*.

- (7)
- a. tsêm-tsóu [Ø thêy vâl-náa-âa] kâ-màn â-hîi
 knife-DET PRO fruit cut-OBL.NOM-PURP 1-use 3-be
 'I used the knife to cut the fruit'
- b. môl-tsóu [Ø bôŋ zêep-náa-âa] kâ-màn â-hîi
 stick-DET PRO cow beat-OBL.NOM-PURP 1-use 3-be
 'I used the stick to beat the cow'

As the example from Peterson (1998:101-102) shows, Lai instrumental applicative *-naak* behaves like the Thadou instrumental applicative *-náa*, where the instrument object acquires the status of the direct object by virtue of the incorporation of the post-verbal transitivizer *-naak*.

Lai (TB)

- (8)
- a. tiiloong=?in tivaa (khaa) kan-tan
 boat=INST river DEIC 1P.SUBJ-cross
 'We used the boat to cross the river'
- b. tiiloŋ khaa tivaa kan-tan-naak
 boat DEIC river 1P.SUBJ-cross-INST
 'We used boat to cross the river'

As shown in (9) below, nouns are derived from either the stem 1 or stem 2 forms through the process of conversion. Although, Hyman (2004) did not use the term 'conversion', he has shown such nouns to be derived from either stem 1 or stem 2 forms. Note that the meaning of verbal stems and the noun forms from (9a-e) are close in meaning, but the ones that are given in (9f-k) are not related in meaning.

Verbs		Nouns	
stem 1	stem 2		
(9) a. zîŋ	ziin	'be dark'	ziin 'darkness'
b. náa	nàt	'pain'	nàt 'disease'
c. sáa	sàt	'hot'	sàt 'heat'
d. báa	bàt	'owe'	bàt 'debt'
e. thíi	thii	'die'	thii 'death'
f. bù?	bùu	'wear'	bùu 'food'

g.	gùu	gù?	‘steal’	gùu	‘bone’
h.	làa	lá?	‘take’	làa	‘lung’
i.	lâay	lèy	‘dig’	lèy	‘bridge’
j.	kha?	khàa	‘close’	xàa	‘body lice’
k.	póot	pòot	‘emerge’	pòot	‘load’

The sentence examples (10a) and (10b) below show *ziin* ‘darkness’ as nominal and as verb.

(10)

- a. tsâpâŋ-hò-n khôo ziin â-kî-tsàa û-vêe
 children-PL-ERG village darkness 3-REFL-afraid PL-DECL
 ‘Children are afraid of darkness’
- b. khôo â-ziin lè? sîal-hòo â-hám-mêe
 village 3-dark then fox-PL 3-yell-DECL
 ‘Foxes yell when it is dark’

The sentence examples in (11a) and (11b) also show *bât* ‘debt’ as nominal and as verb.

(11)

- a. kâ-bât kâ-kî-sât tsâay-tâ-êe
 1.POSS-debt 1-REFL-repay finish-PERF-DECL
 ‘I have paid back my debt’
- b. sùm nâ-bât nêy sàa lôoy-în
 money 2-owe 2.1OBJ repay soon-IMP
 ‘Repay the money you owe me’

2.2.3 *-tâ?-în*⁴ in derivation of manner adverbials

Adverbs in Thadou are mostly derived from the corresponding stative verbs by suffixing *tâ?in* as shown below in (12a-g). Few dynamic verbs such as *lùŋsiet* ‘love’ and *dèy* ‘like’ can also be suffixed with *tâ?in* to derived adverbs as shown in (12h-i) below.

⁴ One of the reviewers suggested that Thadou adverbial *tâ?in* could perhaps be the same as that of Lai relinquitive applicative marker *-taak* and recommends the author to compare it with Lai. Relinquitive construction is one in which the agent or subject argument is performing an activity and either leaving the patient or object literally behind or performs the activity without the patient (Hartmann 2009). Thadou like Daai-Chin and Lai exhibits relinquitive construction where the subject does the work leaving behind the object or patient. But, it must be noted here that Thadou relinquitive construction is marked by *dâhlàa* which has no resemblance with that of Lai relinquitive *-taak* that the second reviewer seems to suspect. Thadou example in (a) is compared with that of Lai example in (b) to prove that the two are not phonologically the same.

a. î-dâhlàa û-vîn â-lôw â-kî hlòo-êe
 1 OBJ.EXCL-leave PL-REL 3 POSS-field 3-REFL hoe-DECL
 ‘He left us and hoed his field’

(12)

a.	høy	'be beautiful'	høy-tà?-în	'beautifully'
b.	gâŋ	'be quick'	gâŋ-tà?-în	'quickly'
c.	bèy	'be easy'	bèy-tà?-în	'easily'
d.	ôol	'be slow'	ôol-tà?-în	'slowly'
e.	tsiŋ	'be wise'	tsiŋ-tà?-în	'wisely'
f.	nâay	'be near'	nâay-tà?-în	'very near'
g.	gànthèy	'be poor'	gànthèy-tà?-în	'with lots of suffering'
h.	lûŋsiet	'love'	lûŋsiet-tà?-în	'lovingly'
i.	dèy	'like'	dèy-tà?-în	'with lots of attraction'

The sentence examples in (13a-e) below show the use of *-tà?-în* in the derivation of adverbs from their corresponding verbs.

(13)

- a. kâ-lôoy-nû hây-tà?-în â-kî-tsêy-êe
 my-friend-FEM beauty ADV 3-REFL-dress-DECL
 'My wife dressed herself beautifully'
- b. kâ-nû gâŋ-tà?-în â-hûng kî-lèe-êe
 my-mother quick-ADV 3-come REFL-return-DECL
 'My mother came back quickly'
- c. nâa-tsúu bèy-tà?-în a-tsâay-tâ-û-vêe
 work-DET easy-ADV 3-finish-PERF-PL-DECL
 'They have done the work easily'
- d. sùmkôŋ ôol-tà?-în â-hlêy-êe
 tortoise slow-ADV 3-run-DECL
 'The tortoise runs slowly'
- e. mûi tsiŋ-hòo-în thúu ôol-tà?-în â-séy û-vêe
 men wise-PL-ERG word wise-ADV 3-speak PL-DECL
 'Wise men speak slowly'

3 Compounding

Compounding refers to the joining together of existing words without the aid of any affixes. Compounding is a productive process in Thadou, as seen in the following sub-sections. Like many of the languages of main land Asia, Thadou compound words are composed of basically two-

-
- b. ?a-law ?a-kan-thlok-taak
 3s POSS-field 3S SUBJ-1POBJ-hoe₂-RELINQ
 'He left us and hoed his field'

elements. The component parts of the newly-formed word usually occur as independent words in the language, but the compositional meanings of compound gradually become lexicalized. Compound words in Thadou are mostly endocentric in nature and are generally made up of two constituent roots. These compound words fall into two distinct groups, namely right-headed and left-headed depending upon the nature of the constituent elements. The following subsections are organized on semantic and formal grounds.

3.1 *Endocentric compound*

Compounds which have a head are called ‘endocentric compounds’. The head of the compound is that root which determines the category of, or is the main referent of, the compound. As stated above, compound words of Thadou are mostly endocentric in nature where one of the constituent elements functions as the head of that compound.

3.1.1 Right-headed endocentric compounds

Nominal compounds such as *noun+noun* compounds may be either right-headed or left-headed. In the case of right-headed *noun+noun* compound the first root modifies the second root as shown in (14a-v) below. As seen below the resulting meaning of *noun+noun* compounds is always a noun.

(14)					
a.	lêŋ+they	(king+fruit)	=	lêŋ-thèy	‘pineapple’
b.	tûy+puôn	(water+cloth)	=	tûy-puôn	‘tarpaulin’
c.	gám+sâa	(forest+animal)	=	gám-sâa	‘wild animal’
d.	bôŋ+nôoy	(cow+milk)	=	bôŋ-nôoy	‘milk’
e.	mêe ⁵ +khêe	(curry+spoon)	=	mê-khêe	‘curry spoon’
f.	sôŋ+kûl	(stone+cave)	=	sôŋ-kûl	‘prison’
g.	în+khôm	(house+pillar)	=	în-khôm	‘pillar’
h.	bil+lâm	(ear+wax)	=	bil-lâm	‘earwax’
i.	mît+mûl	(eye+feather)	=	mît-mûl	‘eyebrow’
j.	mûi+lîm	(man+image)	=	mî-lîm	‘picture of a man’
k.	sâa+ŋôŋ	(animal+neck)	=	sâ-ŋôŋ	‘animal neck’
l.	vâa+bùu	(bird+nest)	=	vâ-bùu	‘nest’
m.	dâay+tûy	(dew+water)	=	dâay-tûy	‘dew’
n.	zâan+pôn	(night+cloth)	=	zâan-pôn	‘blanket’
o.	thêy+tûy	(fruit+water)	=	thêy-tûy	‘juice’
p.	bôŋ+sâa	(cow+meat)	=	bôŋ-sâa	‘beef’
q.	sâa+mûl	(animal+fur)	=	sâ-mûl	‘animal fur’
r.	zâan+mâŋ	(night+dream)	=	zâan-mâŋ	‘dream’
s.	sôŋ+kûl	(stone+cave)	=	sôŋ-kûl	‘prison’
t.	sâa+vûn	(animal+skin)	=	sâ-vûn	‘leather’

⁵ Except with the low tone, all vowels are pronounced long in open syllable. However, they become short when followed by another noun. The above examples in (14e, j, k, l, q & t) and elsewhere all undergo vowel shortening.

u.	nâo+bù?	(baby+hut)	=	nâo-bù?	'womb'
v.	tûy+làm	(water+path)	=	tûy-làm	'canal'

Note here that, the tone of the constituent roots remains unchanged even after they are compounded together. But, more studies will be required to look into the tonal sandhi rules beyond two syllables.

Right-headed nominal compounds such as *noun+verb* compounds below are deverbal synthetic compounds (Hoe-ksema 1985:142 cited in Chelliah, 1997) where the first root is the patient of the second. But, unlike in Meithei where the second root modifies the first root, in Thadou as shown in (15a-l) below it is rather the first root that modifies the second root. Note that the resulting new words are always nouns.

(15)

a.	ôy+hlêy	(stomach+running)	=	ôy-hlêy	'dysentery'
b.	kòt+kil	(door+lock)	=	kòt-kil	'key'
c.	lûŋ+dôŋ	(heart+wander)	=	lûŋ-dôŋ	'amazement'
d.	lûŋ+gim	(heart+tired)	=	lûŋ-gim	'worries'
e.	khùt+zìem	(hand+decorate)	=	khùt-zìem	'finger ring'
f.	è?+khòo	(dung+pierce)	=	è?-khòo	'dysentery'
g.	thúu+hil	(word+teach)	=	thù-hil	'preacher'
h.	lêkhâa+thòt	(book+send)	=	lê-khâ-thòt	'letter'
i.	bùu+kàa	(food+burn)	=	bù-kàa	'burnt food'
j.	pâo+lèe	(language+interpret)	=	pâo-lèe	'interpreter'
k.	dìel+kòp	(cloth+wear)	=	dìel-kòp	'veil'
l.	nâa+tò?	(work+do)	=	nâa+tò?	'work'(n)

3.1.2 Left-headed endocentric compounds

Nominal compounds such as *noun+noun* compounds given in (16a-d) below are left headed. In this case the second root modifies the first root. The examples from (16a-b) below involve *noun+stative* verb and *noun+gender*. This is something which distinguishes them from the *N + N* compounds in (14).

(16)

a.	khùt+tsál	(hand+male)	=	khùt-tsál	'index finger'
b.	khùt+pîi	(hand+big)	=	khùt-pîi	'thumb'
c.	khùt+mêtsâa	(hand+small)	=	khùt-mêtsâa	'little finger'
d.	méy+zûn	(cloud+urine)	=	méy-zûn	'mist'

Nominal compounds such as *verb+verb* compounds given in (17a-e) below are also left-headed. In these cases the second root modifies the first root. The new word that is derived from *verb+verb* can be a noun as in (17a-b) or a verb as in (17c-e) with specific meaning that creates a new verb of more generic meaning.

(17)

a.	bòol+khîel	(do+miss)	=	sîem-khîel	'blunder'
b.	sîin+khùp	(close+cover)	=	sîin-khùp	'closely knitted basket'
c.	sîem+hôy	(make+beautiful)	=	sîem-hôy	'beautify'
d.	hàan+sîe	(curse+bad)	=	hàan-sîe ⁶	'be in cursing mood'
e.	kàa+nêe	(cry+weak)	=	kàa-nêe	'be weak-hearted'

3.2 *Exocentric compounds*

Compounds without a head are known as 'exocentric compounds'. Nominal compounds such as *noun+noun* compounds given in (18a-d) below are headless compound in the sense that neither of the two elements can function as the head.

(18)

a.	màt+nám	(bed-bug+smell)	=	màt-nám	'coriander'
b.	súm+kùoŋ	(money+boat)	=	súm-kùoŋ	'tortoise'
c.	nìʔ+sôop	(skirt+wash)	=	nìʔ-sôop	'menstruation'
d.	tsûŋ+gìʔ	(up+heavy)	=	tsûŋ-gìʔ	'pregnancy'

3.3 *Conjunctive compounds*

Some nominal compounds are formed when two nouns are conjoined by the conjunctive particle *-lêe*.

(19)

a.	în+lêe+lòw	=	în-lê-lòw	'house and field'
b.	nêy+lêe+gòw	=	nêy-lê-gòw	'properties'
c.	sâa+lêe+ŋâa	=	sâ-lê-ŋâa	'meat and fish'
d.	khùt+lêe+kêŋ	=	khùt-lê-kêŋ	'hand and foot'
e.	mìt+lêe+mâay	=	mìt-lê-mâay	'eye and face'
f.	sûun+lêe+zâan	=	sûun-lê-zâan	'day and night'

4 Reduplication

What is frequently termed as reduplication is the 'repetition of all or part of a lexical item carrying a semantic modification' (Abbi, 1992: 12). The following section, discusses the reduplicated structure of nouns, verbs and adverbs in Thadou.

⁶ One of the criteria for ascertaining verbhood in Thadou is negation. *hàan-sîe* and *kàa-nêe* are treated as verbs because they can be negated. Examples: *hàan-sîe hìʔ-in* 'Don't be angry', *kàa-nêe hìʔ-in* 'Don't be weak-hearted'

4.1 Reduplicative nominals

Nominal and pronominal reduplication are infrequent in Thadou. Reduplication of nominals involves the repetition of the entire noun phrase instead of the bare nominal roots. The following examples provide instances where the entire noun phrase rather than the bare nominal root gets reduplicated.

(20)

- a. nà-khóo nà khóo ù-và? tsii ù-vîn
 2.POSS-village 2.POSS-village PL-LOC go PL-IMP
 ‘Go to your respective villages’
- b. nâ ín nâ ín ù-và? bùu nêe ù-vîn
 2.POSS-house your house PL-LOC food eat PL-IMP
 ‘Eat food in your respective houses’
- c. â-tsêmpôn â-tsêmpôn-û â-kî-nòol ù-vêe
 3.POSS-knife 3.POSS-knife-PL 3-REFL-sharpen PL-DECL
 ‘They sharpen each of their knives’

4.2 Reduplicative reflexives/reciprocals

Reflexives in Thadou are formed by combining a verbal reflexive *-kî* and the reduplicated bound pronouns. The reduplicated bound pronouns are formed by joining the pronominal subject pronouns with the conjunctive particle *-lè?*.

(21)

- a. kêy-màa *lè?* kêy-màa kâ-kî-nàa-yêe
 I-self and I-self 1-REFL-fight-DECL
 ‘I fought with myself’
- b. nân-màa *lè?* nân-màa nâ-kî-lûnsêet-nêe
 you-self and you-self 2-REFL-love-DECL
 ‘You love yourself’
- c. â-màa *le?* â-màa â-kî-mùu dâa-yêe
 3-self and 3-self 3-REFL-see hate-DECL
 ‘He/she hates himself/herself’

4.3 Reduplicative verbs

Reduplication in the verb root imparts a sense of repetitiveness, continuity or iterativeness.

(22)

- a. bùu ì-nè? ì-nè? lè? â-kî-vàa-êe
food 1.PL.INCL-eat 1.PL.INCL-eat CONJ 3-REFL-satiate-DECL
'Eating food continually appeased one's hunger'

Unlike (22a), where the pronominal agreement marker and the verb together are reduplicated, in (22b) only the verbal root is reduplicated in imperative construction.

- b. kàp kàp hi?-ìn
cry cry NEG-IMP
'Don't cry'
(Lit: stop crying and crying)

There is an alternative strategy where the aspect rather than the verb root gets reduplicated to convey a sense of continuity of an action.

- c. bùu nè? póm póm-mìn â-mâo-vêe
food eat while-while-CONJ 3-sing-DECL
'He sings while eating'

4.4 Reduplicative adverbs

Thadou like other Kuki-Chin languages has a system of reduplicating its adverbs⁷. The phenomenon of reduplicating adverbs is known in a variety of terms in the literature on Kuki-Chin languages. In this study, I will simply refer to it as 'reduplicative adverbs'. Some of the names which appear in Kuki-Chin literature are *chiming* Henderson (1965) and Bhaskararao (1989) for Tiddim-Chin, *ideophones* Patent (1998) for Lai and *expressives* Hartmann (2009) for Daai-Chin. Henderson (1965), Bhaskararao (1989) and Hartmann (2009) attribute reduplicative adverbs to be one of the characteristics of colloquial style. Patent (1998) on the hand, subscribes it to be an unusual type of lexeme which provides flavor to an utterance. While, Henderson, Bhaskararao and Hartmann treat this phenomenon as adverbs or as a sub-category of adverbs, Patent treats ideophones as a separate syntactic class of their own on the basis that they can also occur post-nominally which is adjective-like and may behave nominally occurring between circumfixed demonstratives and before adjectives. Thadou reduplicative adverbs behave more like Tiddim and Daai Chin in that it can only occur post-verbally. There are a number striking phonological similarities between Lai, Tiddim and Thadou reduplicative adverbs, but they also differ in the phonological shapes in certain respects. But for the purpose of this study, I will try to compare it only with Lai when it is deemed necessary.

First, in both Lai and Thadou reduplicative adverbs are composed of two syllables. While Lai has mostly C₁VC₂ shape, Thadou has both C₁VC₂ and C₁V shape as well. Lai differs from Thadou in that the C₁ slot of the first and second syllable may be filled by different or same consonant which

⁷ Adverbs are usually referred to as a heterogeneous word class in that it covers a wide range of semantic concepts and are typically the most unrestricted word class in terms of syntactic distribution. In this study adverbs are viewed as ones that modify an event or state.

Patent (1998) calls *m*-type ideophones and *same*-type ideophones respectively. But in Thadou C₁ slot of the first and second syllable is almost always identical.

Second, if both the reduplicated syllables have identical consonant in C₁ and C₂ slots, the second syllable is a copy of the first syllable (partial reduplication) with vowel change in both Lai and Thadou.

Second, if both the reduplicated syllables have identical consonant in C₁ and C₂ slots, the second syllable is a copy of the first syllable (partial reduplication) with vowel change in both Lai and Thadou.

Fourth, when V is long (diphthongal) in Lai, C₂ is a glottal stop. But, when V is long (diphthongal) in Thadou, C₂ can be a liquid (n, l), or stop (t) and never a glottal stop. On the other hand, if V is short, C₂ is (k) in Lai. But, when V is short, C₂ can be any member of (p, t, ʔ, ŋ, w, y)

Fifth, each V slot can be long or short, but both vowels must be of the same length in both Lai and Thadou.

Lastly, in Thadou the tone of first syllable is always identical with the tone of the second syllable. Since, Patent (1998) fails to mark tone for Lai, a comparison of the tonal behaviour of the two languages is avoided here.

Before going into the function and use of each of the Thadou reduplicative adverbs with sentence examples, let us have a closure look into some of the common reduplicative adverbs along with their general description. It may be noted here that, each of these forms can have multiple and divergent meanings. In such cases, the context in which it appears will decide the meaning. The actually number may run into hundreds. But it is beyond the scope of this study to list them all.

zìt-zìt: describes a sharp and pointed objects like a pin or a spear.

tsìt-tsìt: describes the cleanliness or neatness of a person.

láp-láp: describes the flashing of light like a star in the sky or colourful display of light.

dòt-dòt: describes the flickering of light; when a candle or a lamp is about to go off.

piél-piél: describes a continuous glow of light or steady movement of an object.

dàʔ-dàʔ: describes a sound as in the pattering of rainfall, etc.

kêŋ-kêŋ: describes the popping sound of popcorn or the thinness of a person.

dûŋ-dûŋ: describes a loud and vibrating sound of a beating drum or a flying airplane.

diêŋ-diêŋ: describes a harmonious sound as in choir or slogan.

tsàa-tsàa: describes a slow movement of a person or animal.

zèen-zèun: describes a person or thing which appears to be unduly long.

zìet-zùut: similar to zìt-zìt but used with a negative meaning.

hêen-hùun: describes a bad taste or ugly feature of a person, animal or object.

pêŋ-pûŋ: describes a brightness of a light or hollowness of an object.

péʔ-púʔ: similar to pêŋ-pûŋ but it is used with a negative meaning.

dèʔ-dùʔ: similar to tsìt-tsìt but it is used in a negative sense.

zâŋ-zûŋ: describes a powdery substance like rice-flour or sand on the river bed.

lêw-lùŋ: describes a glow of light as in a well-polished furniture or shoe.

dêŋ-dûŋ: describes a thinness of a person or an animal.

thèe-thùu: describes a rough and harsh surface of an object or a bad odour.

pàt-pùt: used in the same way as zìt-zìt, but with a negative meaning attached to it.

tsèet-tsùut: describes a physical discomfort of a person caused by bodily pain.

sìl-siél: describes a bright and beautiful things such as a blooming of flower.

sîel-sîel: describes a fragrance smell of a flower or any other fragrant smell.

lêet-lùut: opposite of sîel-sîel. It is used to describe a bad odour.

sèe-sùu: describes a taste that is sour, e.g. lemon or any other citrus fruits.

4.4.1 Antonymous pairs of size

Thadou reduplicative adverbs often come in pairs in the form of antonym, where the first of the pair is a big version and the latter a small version. Provided below are pairs of reduplicative adverbs whose meanings differ in size and scale.

(23) lôoy-lôoy : liit-liit

a. hùmpîi â-pêŋ lôoy-lôoy-êe
tiger 3-roar RED.ADV-DECL
'The tiger roars very loudly'

b. vâtsâa-khúu â-hâam liit-liit-nêe
bird-DET.DIST 3-speak RED.ADV-DECL
'The bird (over there) speaks expressively' (unexpected of a bird)

What is common between the two alternant pair is sound of speaking/roaring; the difference lies in size: big in example (23a) and small in example (23b).

(24) pûol-pûol : pîel-pîel

a. sùoŋ-pîi â-kî-lí? pûol-pûol-lêe
stone-big 3-REFL-roll RED.ADV-DECL
'The big stone is rolling continuously'

b. sâaytsân â-kî-lí? pîel-pîel-lêe
bullet 3-REFL-roll RED.ADV-DECL
'The bullet (of catapult) is rolling continuously'

In both the examples above, the pair conveys motion. In example (24a) the stone is big; in example (24b) the size of catapult's bullet is small. Nothing about the speed is conveyed by either of these.

(25) dèl-dùl : kêŋ-kûŋ

a. sâay khúu â-tháo dèl-dùl-lêe
elephant DET.DIST 3-fat RED.ADV-DECL
'The elephant (over there) is big and fat'

b. mî-pâa khúu â-gôŋ kêŋ-kûŋ-êe
man-MAS DET.DIST 3-thin RED.ADV-DECL
'The man (over there) is thin and lean'

In both the examples, the alternant pair describes the negative aspect of a fat elephant and a thin man. The difference lies solely on the size. Example (25a) describes a fat, big elephant, while example (25b) describes a thin man.

(26) zèen-zùun: thàn-thùn

- a. hìtsii gó-hii à-sáo zèen-zùun-nêe
 DET.PROX bamboo-DET 3-long RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘This bamboo is very long’
- b. hìtsii gó-hii â-tsàm thàn-thùn-nêe
 DET.PROX bamboo-DET 3-short RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘This bamboo is very short’

In both the above examples, the pair describes the length of an object. Example (26a) describes the beautiful side of a long bamboo, while example (26b) describes the negative side of a short bamboo.

(27) dà?-dà? : tsâa-tsâa

- a. gòo pó? dà?-dà? ín â-zûu-êe
 rain noisy RED.ADV CONJ 3-fall-DECL
 ‘It is raining heavily’
- b. gòo kâaŋ tsâa-tsâa n â-zûu-êe
 rain slow RED.ADV CONJ 3-fall-DECL
 ‘It is raining slowly’

What is common between the two pair is rainfall. The difference lies in the amount of rainfall. In example (27a) the rainfall is heavy, while in example (27b) rainfall is light.

(28) là?-là? : kên-kên

- a. à-pó? là?-là?-êe
 3-blast RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘[The cracker] went pop-pop-pop!’
- b. à-pó? kên-kên-êe
 3-blast RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘[The popcorn] went pop-pop-pop!’

Example (28a) describes relatively big thing popping, while example (27b), the things popping are small. In (28b), there is an additional sense of bustling activity among the things that are popping.

(29) tà?-tà? : tsâa-tsâa

- a. gâŋ tà?-tà?-in tsii-n
 quick RED.ADV-IMP go-IMP
 ‘Walk fast’

- b. ôl tsàa-tsàa-n tsii-n
 slow RED.ADV-IMP walk-IMP
 ‘Walk slowly’

What is common between the two is manner of walking. The difference lies in speed. Example (29a) dictates a person to walk fast on the contrary example (29b) dictates a person to walk slowly.

(30) pêŋ-pûŋ : tsàt-tsùt

- a. ín â-hôom pêŋ-pûŋ-ŋêe
 house 3SG-hollow RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The house is all empty’. (Lit: the house spacious)
- b. bus â-tiek tsàt-tsùt-nêe
 3-conjest RED.ADV
 ‘The bus is congested.’

What is common to both is space. The sole difference lies in size of the space. Example (30a) describes a spacious house; while example (30b) describes a packed bus with many passengers.

Size in the following pairs refer to the volume of sound.

(31) dûŋ-dûŋ : hlêŋ-hlêŋ

- a. khôŋ â-gîŋ dûŋ-dûŋ-ŋêe
 drum 3-sound RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The sound of a drum is loud’
- b. hlêŋ â-gîŋ hlêŋ-hlêŋ-ŋêe
 bawl 3-sound RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The sound of a bawl is loud’

What is common between the two is noise. The difference lies in size. Example (31a) describes the sound of a big drum, while, example (31b) describes the sound of a small object. There are two additional pairs: *zêe-zùu* and *dîeŋ-dîeŋ* which are very similar to (31a). The difference between the two is: *zêe-zùu* describes the distance the sound is able to spread, while *dîeŋ-dîeŋ* describes the rhythm of a sound.

(32) zêe-zùu : dîeŋ-dîeŋ

- a. a-ki-thôŋ zêe-zùu-êe
 3-REFL-echo RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘[The blast] echoed loudly’
- b. láa â-gîŋ dîeŋ-dîeŋ-ŋêe
 song 3-sound RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The song sounds good (has a rhythm)’

4.4.2 Antonymous pairs of quality

Thadou has a large number of antonymous pairs, whose meanings have nothing to do with the size and scale of the thing expressed by the verb. Instead, Thadou has one set of pair that describes a positive quality and the other set of pair that describes a negative quality. Put it differently, for any given pair that describes a positive quality, there is a corresponding pair that describes a negative quality. Generally, there can be one pair that describes a positive quality and two or more pairs that negate it. Similarly, there can be one pair that negates a positive quality of the thing expressed by the verb and two or more pairs in the affirmative form. It is beyond the scope of this study to look into all the possible pairs. So, only those pairs which are important are discussed here. It may be noted here that the contrast between the positive and negative pair has not been discussed by Patent (1998) for Lai.

- (36) zìt-zìt : thèe-thùu
- a. tîŋtsàa mú? â-hièm zìt-zìt-nêe
 spear tip 3-sharp RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The spear is extremely sharp’
- b. tîŋtsàa mú? â-mòl thèe-thùu-nêe
 spear tip 3-blunt RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The spear is extremely blunt’

In example (36a) *zìt-zìt* describes the sharpness, pointedness or smoothness of an object irrespective of its size; it could be a big knife, spear or a small pin or blade, etc. In example (36b) whatever has been described by *zìt-zìt* is negated by the alternant pair *thèe-thùu*. There is another example *pîit-pîit* which is similar to (36a) above. But, unlike, *zìt-zìt* which is both pointed and sharp, *pîit-pîit* describes only pointed object as shown in (37) below.

- (37) pîit-pîit: zîet-zûut
- pencil mú? â-zûm pîit-pîit-nêe
 pencil tip 3-pointed RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The pencil is sharp [but may not be useful]’
- (38) tsìt-tsìt : dè?-dù?
- a. tsâpâŋ-pâa khûu à-thièn tsìt-tsìt-nêe
 child-MAS DET.DIST 3-clean RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The boy (over there) is neat and clean’
- b. tsâpâŋ-pâa khûu à-nièn dè?-dù?-êe
 child-MAS DET.DIST 3-dirty RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The boy (over there) is dirty’

Example (38a) *tsìt-tsìt* describes the neatness of a person, while example (38b) describes the opposite quality of a boy who is shabby and untidy.

- (39) lâp-lâp : dòt-dòt
 a. mèy à-vá? lâp-lâp-mêe
 start 3-shine RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The light is sparkling’
 b. mèy à-phée dòt-dòt nêe
 light 3-fickle RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The light is flickering’

In example (39a) *lâp-lâp* describes the sparkling of a light. On the other hand, in example (39b), *dòt-dòt* describes a light that is dim and indistinct. Here too, the size of the light has no role to play. Another example which is very similar to *lâp-lâp* as in example (39a) is *piel-piel*. It differs from *lâp-lâp* in that the latter describes only blinking objects like stars.

- (40) lêw-lùy: khèp-khùp
 a. â-dúl lêw-lùy-êe
 3-glow RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘[The well-polished shoe] is glowing’
 b. â-àp khèp-khùp-mêe
 3-rust RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘[The shoe] is rusted’

The difference between the two is the condition of the shoe. In example (40a) the shoe is glowing; while in example (40b) the shoe is rusted.

- (41) sîel-sîel : lêet-lùut
 a. pà?tsàa â-nâm tûy sîel-sîel-lêe
 flower 3-smell good RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The flower smells good’
 b. ê? â-ûy lêet-lùut-nêe
 dung 3-stink RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘Dung stinks horribly bad’

What is common to both is odour. The difference lies in the nature of the smell. Example (41a) describes the fragrance smell of a flower; while example (41b) describes a bad smell emanating from dung.

- (42) sèl-sèl : thèc-thùu
 a. nâ-tíi à-zól sèl-sèl-lêe
 2.POSS 3-smooth RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘Your body is smooth’

- b. nâ-tîi à-hâat thèe-thèu-êe
2.POSS 3-rough RED.ADV-DECL
'Your body is rough'

What is common to both is the state of the body. In example (42a) the body is smooth, while in example (42b) the body is rough.

- (43) kêa-kêa : sèe-sùu
a. kóltsúu â-hlúm kêa-kêa-êe
sugarcane 3-sweet RED.ADV-DECL
'Sugarcanes taste sweet'

b. lów à-kháa sèe-sùu-êe
medicine 3-bitter RED.ADV-DECL
'Medicine tastes bitter'

The difference between the two is taste. Example (43a) describes a taste that is sweet and example (43b) describes a taste that is bitter.

The following pairs are different from reduplicative adverbs discussed so far. Like, the antonymous pairs of quality, one of the pairs carry a positive meaning and the other a negative meaning. But, unlike the antonymous pairs of quality, there is no opposition of verbs involved here. But, rather, the difference lies only in terms of which of the two pairs has a more positive meaning than the other. Usually, the second pair is associated with a negative meaning.

- (44)
a. kê-pâa ôo â-pîi diep-dùop-mêe
1.POSS voice 3-loud RED.ADV-DECL
'My father's voice is very loud' (positive)

b. kê-pâa ôo â-pîi làn-lùn-nee
1.POSS voice 3-loud RED.ADV-DECL
'My father voice is loud' (negative)
- (45)
a. mée â-ál zèen-zùun-nèe
curry 3-taste RED.ADV-DECL
'The curry tastes good' (positive)

b. mée â-ál hèn-hùun-nèe
curry 3-taste RED.ADV-DECL
'The curry tastes bad' (negative)

(46)

- a. â-sâaŋ gâŋ-gâŋ-ŋêe
 3-tall RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘He is tall’ (positive)
- b. â-sâaŋ gâŋ-gûŋ-ŋêe
 3-tall RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘He is tall’ (negative)

(47)

- a. â-ŋów li?-li?-êe
 3-white RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘He is white’ (positive)
- b. â-ŋów lêet-lúut-nêe
 3-white RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘He is white, but not beautiful’ (negative)

The pair *pàt-pùt* and *hèen-hiun* can be used exactly like *lêet-lúut* as in example (47b) above with negative meaning attach to it.

(48)

- a. ín â-hôom pêŋ-pûŋ-ŋêe
 house 3-empty RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The house is empty’ (positive)
 (Lit: The house is spacious’)
- b. ín â-hôom pé?-pú?-êe
 house 3-empty RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The house is empty’ (negative)

(49)

- a. mîthây â-lùm sêl-sêl-lêe
 chocolate 3-sweet RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘Chocolate tastes sweet’ (positive)
- b. mîthây â-lùm pàt-pùt-nêe
 chocolate 3-sweet RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘Chocolate tastes sweet’ (negative)

(50)

- a. pencil mù? â-zùm zìt-zìt-nêe
 pencil tip 3-pointed RED.ADV-DECL
 ‘The pencil is sharp’ (positive)

- b. pencil mù? â-zûm zîet-zûut-nêe
pencil tip 3-pointed RED.ADV-DECL
'The pencil is sharp' (negative)

The following reduplicative adverbs can be seen as examples that lack pair. This is because, there can be thing or object by virtue of its properties, the speakers think of it as either good or bad. For example, Thadou speakers would attach sourness or bitterness of taste with negative meaning simply because they don't like it. Similarly, Thadou speakers will view blooming flower with positive meaning.

(51)

- â-pá? siel-siel-lêe
3-bloom RED.ADV-DECL
'It [flower] blooms gorgeously'

Native speakers will find it difficult if not impossible to contrast the meaning blooming flower in example (51) with any other object.

(52)

- tsâmpira à-thû? sèe-sùu-êe
lemon 3-sour RED.ADV-DECL
'Lemon tastes sour' (negative)

Similarly, native speakers simply do not have another pair to contrast the sourness of acid like taste as in example (52), although one may contrast it with things that are sweet in taste. Even then, the argument holds true as sweet is usually contrasted with things that are bitter in taste.

5 Conclusion

This paper discusses three types of word formation processes commonly employed in the formation of words in Thadou, viz. affixation, compounding and reduplication. Thadou has a derivational prefix *â-* which functions as a relative marker. In Thadou, clauses can be nominalized and then with the addition *â-*, they can be made relative. In addition to the derivational prefix *a-*, Thadou exhibits two derivational suffixes, viz. *-náa* and *-tàʔ-in* that change the grammatical class after they are suffixed to verbs. Unlike the derivational suffixes *-náa* and *-tàʔ-in*, the plural suffix *-hòo* and the dual suffix *-nii* do not result in, change of grammatical class after they are suffixed to the base pronominal subject. The former falls under the class maintaining derivational suffix and the latter into the class maintaining derivational suffix. The function of the derivational suffix *-náa* is to derive nouns from their corresponding verbs. The paper further argues that when a noun is derived from the corresponding verbs, the verb should be in the stem 2 form only. Thadou has an applicative construction in which a post-verbal transitivizer *-náa* (same as the nominalizing morpheme that converts verbs into nouns) that causes the indirect object to lose its oblique case marking and in the process appears to look like a direct object. Adverbs, on the hand are mostly derived from the corresponding verbs by suffixing the derivational suffix *-tàʔ-in*. Compound words in Thadou are

mostly endocentric in nature and are generally made up of two constituent roots although, few examples of exocentric compounds are also found. Endocentric compounds fall into two distinct groups, viz. right-headed and left-headed compounds depending upon the nature of the constituent elements. In the case of right-headed compounds, the first root modifies the second root while, in the case of left-headed compounds, the second root modifies the first root. Thadou also exhibits few examples of exocentric compound where neither of the constituent units functions as the head. In addition to endocentric and exocentric compounds, Thadou also exhibits conjunctive compounds where two nouns are conjoined by the conjunctive particle *-lêe*. Thadou allows all the major grammatical categories, viz. nouns, verbs, and adverbs to be reduplicated. Of them, the most interesting is adverbs. Thadou like other the Kuki-Chin languages has a system of reduplicating its adverbs that are composed of two syllables in which the second syllable is a copy of the first syllable. Thadou reduplicative adverbs share a lot similarity with Lai not only in term of its phonology but, also in terms of its distribution and usage.

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