CHAPTER VI

CASE SYSTEM IN HINDI AND MISHING SYNTAXES

6.1 Case (कारक) and its definition:

Case (कारक) word signifies authority or capability. The literal meaning of the word **कारक** is 'the one who performs an act'. Hence, the objective of Case is to perform an action. In other words, the relation of the Case is with the act. In one or the other form, the Case is related to the verb. Hence, 'the form of Noun and Pronoun by which their (Noun and Pronoun's) relation with Verb is signified, that form is called Case'. Or, 'that form of Noun and Pronoun by which their (Noun and Pronoun's) relation to the other words in a sentence is defined is called Case'. The inference from these two definitions is that when postpositions (विभक्ति) like 'ने', 'को', 'से' are added to a noun or a pronoun, then that form is called Case (कारक). Only then they become Terms (पद) capable of maintaining relation to other words in a sentence and only in this form they can have a relation with other words or verbs. Different postpositions (विभक्ति) like 'ने', 'को', 'से' etc are of different Cases. Only when these are added to a word, the word becomes a 'Case-Term' (कारकपद) and they can participate in a sentence For example:

'राम ने रावण को बाण से मारा।'

In this sentence, terms like 'राम ने', 'रावण को', 'बाण से' are forms of Nouns that defines their relation to the verb 'मारा'. We can see the significance of Case in the sentence formation in this example. This helps us achieve the intended meaning. Hence, Case is a very important participant in sentence formation.

Some famous definitions of Case are mentioned below-

Famous grammarian Patanjali has defined Case in this manner:

'क्रियाजनकत्वंहिकारकत्वम्' This means that the term executing the verb is called the Case. But, the definition given by him does not cover some words that exist in a sentence; and although they are related to the verb but are not the initiator (जनक) of the verb. That is why Patanjali came up with the second definition — 'क्रियान्वियत्वंकारकत्वम्' — which means that the relation (अन्वय) that the verb in a sentence has with the Noun and Pronoun words of the sentence is called Case. Even though in both the definitions the Case element has relation to the verb, the second definition is where the Case element is more prominent.

Modern day western scholars have accepted the relation between Case and Verb and has elucidated on it. In reference to this, some definitions related to Case given by various scholars can be mentioned-

- -'Cases are inflected forms for nouns which fit them for participation in key constructions relative to verbs.' C. Hockett⁵
- 'Case is the most important inflectional category of the noun. It has same position as tense with verb.' John Iyons⁶

- 'Case relations are viewed as forming a finite set which have universal validity.'

- C. Fillmore⁷

In the above definitions, all three scholars have accepted the inevitable relation of Case and Verb. The Indian grammarians have also accepted the Verb-Case relation as per the Panini traditions. Hence –

-'कारक का अर्थ है, ऐसी वस्तु जिसका क्रिया के सम्पादन में प्रयोग हो।' – बाबुराम सक्सेना⁸

-'क्रिया से सीधा सम्बन्ध रखने वाले पदार्थ या प्राणी कारक है।' – किशोरीदास बाजपेयी

-'संज्ञा या सर्वनाम के जिस रूप का सीधा सम्बन्ध क्रिया से होता है, उसे कारक कहते

हैं।' - डॉ॰भारतीखुबालकर 10

In the above definitions, all scholars have accepted the relation of Case and Verb. Hence, it can be concluded that Case is that grammatical entity that represents the relation of noun or pronoun to the verb.

6.2 Types of Case:

There are millions of instances of Case in the languages of the world; however, based on the number of Case and their expression, no two languages show similar characteristics. For example, in some languages one can find number of Case ranging from two to thirty. The 'Masai' language of East Africa has only two variants of Case¹¹

Nominative Case – He sees the girl.

Accusative Case – The girl sees him.

There are eight types of Case in Hindi. There are eight types of Case in languages like Sanskrit, Greek and Latin; however, most of the scholars have recognized only six types of Case in these languages. From the point of view of the number of types of Case, the Finnish language has fifteen types of Case¹².

There are ten different types of Case in the Mishing language.

6.2.1 Types of Case in Hindi and Mishing languages:

There are eight types of Case in the Hindi language. In order to form a Case in Hindi, the characters added after a Noun or Pronoun are called **Postpositions or Case-Endings**(विभक्ति). Some people refer to them as परसर्ग . The Case and the respective postpositions used in Hindi are as follows:

| Case (कारक) | Postpositions (विभक्तियाँ) | |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| कर्ता (Nominative) | ॰, ने | |
| कर्म (Objective) | ॰, को | |
| करण (Instrumental) | सें, के द्वारा | |
| सम्प्रदान (Dative) | को, के लिए | |
| अपादान (Ablative) | सें | |
| सम्बन्ध (Genitive) | का, के, की, रा, रे, री, ना, ने, नी | |
| अधिकरण (Locative) | में, पर | |
| सम्बोधन (Addressive) | ॰, हें!, अजी, अहो, अरें etc. | |

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There are ten types of Case in the Mishing language:

| Case | Suffixes | |
|------------------|--|--|
| The Nominative | é, dé, elé, sé, nyi, ko | |
| The Accusative | -m, mé, -ém, dém, sém, elém, nyim, lum, nonyim, tém, bém, | |
| | edém, sém, édembulum, sémbulum, -ko | |
| The Dative | -Ko | |
| The Instrumental | -lokki, -kokki, -ki, -dokki, -sokki, -olokki, bikki, -kki | |
| The ablative | -lokké, -dokké, sokké, -kolokké/kelokké, -bulu-k-kelokké, - | |
| | Kélokkém, -Ké, -sokké, -dokké, -olokké, tolokké, bolokké, | |
| | tolokké, bikké-dokké/dokké | |
| The Genitive | -lokké, -dokké, bulukké, olo, tolo, bolo, odo | |
| The Locative | -lo, ém, odo, olo, bolo, -sé, -dé, élé, -telé (-té), -belé (-be-), - | |
| | Késo, -kédo, -kélo, kéto, -kébo | |
| The Benefactive | -lokkepé, -dokkepé, -ké, -pé | |
| The Allative | -pé, -lo+pé=lo:pé, so, odo, olo, lolo, bolo, -pé, -so:pé, -do:pé, | |
| | olo:pé, tolopé, to:pé, bo:pé | |
| The Vocative | -a, -é:i | |

The inflections for Case may be listed in a tabular form as follows ¹³:

| Case | Common | Common | Proper Nouns | | Pronouns | Common |
|--------------|--------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|---|
| | Nouns (Generic) | Nouns (Specific) | Persons | Places | | Nouns (with quatity) |
| Nominative | é | -dé, -sé, elé etc. | -no, -nolu etc | -sé, -dé, -elé etc. | Zero | -ko, -sé, -dé etc. |
| Accusative | -é+ -m | -dé, -sé, etc +–m | -no, -nolu, etc. +-m | nominative suffix + -m | -m | -Ко |
| Dative | -do- | | | | | |
| Instrumental | -lokki, - kokki, -ki | -dokki, - sokki, - olokki etc | -kokki, -nokki, -nolukki etc | х | -k+ -ki/ -kokki | -kokki, -lokki, -dokki, etc |
| Ablative | -lokké | -dokké, -sokké, -olokké etc | ké, -lokké, -ke, -lokkém | -sokké, - dokké | -k, -ké, - sokké, -k, - ké, -sokké etc | ? |
| Genetive | -lokké (-lok) | -dokké (-dok) -sokké (-sok) etc | -kè- | -sokké, -dokké, etc -dokkè c | k-ké | ? |
| Locativ | -lo | -do,dé,-so, -sé etc | -ké-so -ké-do etc | -so, -olo, -to, -télo etc | -k-ké-so -k-ké-do etc | -lo, -so, -do etc |
| Benefactive | -lok-képé, (-lok- ké:pé) | -dok-képé (-dok- ké:pé) etc | -képé (-ké:pé) | ? | k-képé (-k-ké:pé) | -lok-képé -dok-képé (-lok-ké:pé)etc |
| Allative | -lo- pé(>lo:pe) etc | do- pé(>do:pé) | ké-lo:pé -ké-so:pé etc | so:pé -do:pé etc | -kké-so:pé -kké-do:pé etc | х |
| Vocative | x | X | a, é:i | Х | X | X |

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6.2.2 An introduction to the Hindi Case:

6.2.2.1 Nominative Case (कर्ता कारक):

The word in a sentence that refers to the one doing an act is called the 'doer' (कर्ता). For example: 'मोहन खाता है।'—In this sentence, the act of eating is done by Mohan. Hence, the doer (कर्ता) is Mohan. It has two postpositions — ने and •.

The doer in Sanskrit is the Nominative Case in Hindi. The nominative case is used in two ways in a sentence. In the first type, the ने postposition is not added; this means that here the gender, number and person of the verb is determined according to the Case. This is also called the 'Suffix-less Nominative case (अप्रत्यय कर्ताकारक)'. Also, it is known as the 'Principal Nominative Case (प्रधान कर्ताकारक)'. For example: 'मोहन खाता है।'. Here, 'खाता है' is the verb which is in accordance with the gender and the number of the doer 'मोहन'. Contrary to this, where the gender, the number and the person is determined by the predicate and not the doer, the postpositionने is used. In grammar; it is called the 'Suffixed Nominative case (सप्रत्यय कर्ताकारक)'. It is also known as the Secondary Nominative Case (अप्रधान कर्ताकारक). For example: 'श्याम ने मिठाई खाई।'— in this sentence, the verb खाई is determined by the predicate मिठाई.

The application of the ने character in Nominative case:

a. The postposition of the nominative case is ने. Nominative case is also used without a postposition. Since ने is not used in Suffix-less Nominative case, the sentence formation in this case is not complicated. In nominative case, the ने is used with the subject only when the verb is a transitive verb (सकर्मक क्रिया) and is in active voice (कर्तृवाच्य) in the past tense forms – सामान्यभूत, आसन्नभूत, पूर्णभूत, हेत्हेत्मदभूत and सन्दिग्धभूत.

सामान्यभूत – राम ने रोटी खाई।

आसन्नभूत – राम ने रोटी भाई है।

पूर्णभूत – राम ने रोटी भाई थी।

सन्दिग्धभूत – राम ने रोटी खाई होगी।

हेतुहेतुमद्भूत राम ने पुस्तक पढ़ी होती, तो उत्तर ठीक होता।

The important point is that apart from अपूर्णभूत, in all other five forms of past tense, नेpostposition is used.

b. When both parts of a Phrasal verb (संयुक्त क्रिया) is transitive (सकर्मक); except for अपूर्णभूत, in all other past tense forms, the ने postposition is added to the subject. For example: श्याम ने उत्तर कह दिया। किशोर ने खा लिया।

- c. In general, the नेpostposition is not used with Intransitive verb (अकर्मक क्रिया).

 But there are some intransitive verbs like नहान, छींकना, थुकना, खाँसना etc

 where the नेpostposition is used as an exception. These verbs are not followed

 by a predicate. For example: उसने थूका। राम ने खाँसा। उसने नहाया। उसने छींका।
- d. When an intransitive verb becomes a transitive verb, the नेpostposition is used, otherwise not. For example: उसने देढ़ी चाल चली। उसने लड़ाई लड़ी।
- e. With the Causative verbs (प्रेरणार्थक क्रिया), except for अपूर्णभूत, in all other past tense forms, the ने postposition is used. For example: मैंने उसे पढ़ाया। उसने एक रुपया दिलवाया।

Instances where ने is not used:

- 1. The नेpostposition is never used with the subjects of transitive verbs in future tense.
- 2. बकना, बोलना, भुलना even though these are transitive verbs, by exception, the नेpostposition is not used with the subject in the past tense forms सामान्यभुत, आसन्नभुत, पूर्णभुतवात सन्दिग्धभुत. For example: वह बका। मैं बोला। वह भुला। मैं भुला।

- 3. If the last part of a Phrasal verb (संयुक्त क्रिया) is intransitive, then the नेpostposition is not used in such cases. For example: मैं खा चुका हूँगा। वह पुस्तक ले आया।
- 4. The sentence where the helping verbs लगना, जाना, सकना and चुकना are used, the ने postposition is not used. For example: वह खा चुका। मैं पानी पीने लगा। उसे पटना जाना है।

6.2.2.2 The Objective Case (कर्मकारक):

The word(s) where the act of the verb is applied upon in a sentence is called the object (कर्म). The postposition here is 'को'.

The postposition of the Objective Case is को. The usage of objective case without a postposition or Suffix-less Objective Case can also be seen. The rules for this are:

- 1. The कोpostposition is used with the objects of the verbs like बुलाना, सुलाना, कोसना, पुकारना, जगाना, भगाना etc. 'मैंने हिर को बुलाया।', 'माँ ने बच्चे को सुलाया।', 'शीला ने सावित्री को जी भर कोसा।', 'पिता ने पुत्र को पुकारा।'
- 2. When the **मारना** verb is used to mean 'to beat', the **को**postposition is used with it.

 But when this verb is used to mean 'to kill', no postpositions are used, i.e. the

object is postposition-less. For example: लोगो ने चोर को मारा। शिकारी ने बाघ मारा। हरि ने बैल को मारा। कछुए ने मछली मारी।

- 3. Generally, to represent special capability, the object is usually kept suffixed. For example: मैंने यह तालाब खुदवाया है। मैंने यह तालाब को खुदवाया है।

 The difference in meanings of both the sentences is noticeable. The object in the first sentence gives an idea of general capability of the subject, whereas the object in the second sentence gives an impression of special capability. In most cases, the कोpostposition is used with living beings, not with non-living things.

 But this difference will depend on the sentence.
- 4. If the object is suffixed, the verb will always be of masculine gender. But if the object is suffix-less, the gender of the verb will be in accordance with the object.

 For example: राम ने रोटी को खाया। (सप्रत्यय) / राम ने रोटी खाई। (अप्रत्यय)
- 5. If an adjective is used as a noun, then the को postposition will surely be added to the object. For example: बड़ों को पहले आदर करो। छोटों को प्यार करो।

6.2.2.3 The Instrumental Case (करण कारक):

The term in a sentence that refers to the relation of the verb is called the Instrumental Case (करण कारक). The instrumental case has the most number of postpositions. In Hindi, the postpositions used by the instrumental case are: से, द्वारा, के दवारा, के जिरए, के साथ, के बिना etc. The meaning of the word 'करण' is resources.

Hence, the सेpostposition is used in those instrumental cases where it is used as a resource. For example: मुझसे यह काम न सधेगा।

Here, the meaning of 'मुझसे' is 'by me' or 'by a resource like me'. Hence, since it represents the 'मुझसे' resource, the से is the postposition of the instrumental case.

The range of the instrumental case is wider than any other case. Any postposition or terms not used in the other Cases are considered under this type of case. Hence there are some general identity and rules to this case-

1. 'से' is used as a postposition for both Instrumental (करण) and Ablative (अपादान) case. But when it is used as an instrumental (साधनभुत) postposition, it is considered as Instrumental case and when it is used as an Isolating (अलगाव) postposition, it is considered to be Ablative case. For example:

Instrumental Case: वह कुल्हाड़ी से वृक्ष काटता है। मुझे अपनी कमाई से खाना मिलता है।

Ablative Case: पेड़ से फ़ल गिरा। घर से लौटा हुआ लड़का।

2. 'ने' is the postposition used in Suffixed Nominative Case. But, 'से', 'के द्वारा' and 'के जरिये' are mainly considered as postpositions of instrumental case in Hindi, due to the fact that all these postpositions tend to refer to the instrument or the resource. For example: मुझसे यह काम न सधेगा। / तीर से बाघ

मार दिया गया। / उसके द्वारा यह कथा सुनी थी। / मेरे द्वारा मकान ढ़हाया गया था। / आपके जरिये ही घर का पता चला।

3. If words like भुख, प्यास, जाड़ा, आख, कान, पाँव etc are suffixed in singular instrumental case, they are considered to be singular; and if it is suffix-less, then they are considered to be plural. For example: वह भुख से बेचैन है। / वह भुखों बेचैन है। / लड़का प्यास से मर रहा है। / लड़का प्यासों मर रहा है।

6.2.2.4 The Dative Case (समप्रदान कारक):

The words or terms that carry the meaning of something being done by someone or something being given to someone are called the Dative Case.

1. 'को' is the postposition used by both objective and dative case, but both differ in their meanings. The 'को', 'के लिए' in dative case is used either in place of an indeclinable (अव्यय) or in the meaning of an indeclinable. Whereas, the 'को', 'के लिए' in objective case has no relation to the meaning. For example:

Objective Case: हिर मोहन को मारता है। Dative Case: हिर मोहन को रुपये देता है।

Objective Case: उसने लड़के को बुलाया। Dative Case: उसने लड़के को मिठाइयाँ दी।

Objective Case: माँ ने बच्चे को खेलते देखा। Dative Case: माँ ने बच्चे को खिलौने खरीदे।

- 2. In general, the terms that refer to someone who is being given something or someone for whom something is being done are considered as Dative Case. For example: भुखों को अन्न देना चाहिये और प्यासों को जल। गुरू ही शिष्य को ज्ञान देता है।
- 3. Suffixed indeclinable (अव्यय) like 'के हित', 'के वास्ते', 'के निमित्त' etc are considered as Dative Case postpositions. For example: राम के हित लक्ष्मण वन गये थे। तुलसी के वास्ते ही जैसे राम ने अवतार लिया। मेरे निमित्त ही भगवान की कोई कृपा नहीं। 6.2.2.5 The Ablative Case (अपादान कारक):

The form of a noun that means the separation of something is called the Ablative Case. The word where the ablative postposition is added usually carries the meaning of something getting separated from it. For example: हिमालय से गंगा निकलती है। वह घर से बाहर आया। मोहन ने घड़े से पानी ढ़ाला। बिल्ली छत से कुद पड़ी। लड़का पेड़ से गिरा। चुहा बिल से बाहर निकला।

2.2.2.6 The Genitive Case (सम्बन्ध कारक):

The form of noun or pronoun that represents its relation or affinity to other words is called the Genitive Case.

1. The postposition of genitive case is 'का'. It takes the forms of 'के' and 'की' as per the number and gender. This case usually portrays ownership (अधिकार), authority (कर्तृत्व), Act-reason (कार्य कारण), value (मोल-भाव), volume (परिमाण) etc.

For example:

Ownership (अधिकार): राम की किताब, श्याम का घर।

Authority (कर्तृत्व): प्रेमचन्द के उपन्यास, भारतेन्दु का नाटक।

Act-Reason (कार्य-कारण): चाँदी की थाली, सोने का गहना।

Value (मोल-भाव): एक रूपए का चावल, पाँच रूपए का घी।

Volume (परिमाण):चार भार का हार, सौ मील की दूरी, पाँच हाथ की लाठी।

Here, it is worth mentioning that often in place of genitive case, the 'वाला' postposition is also used. For example: रामवाली किताब, श्यामवाला घर, प्रेमचन्दवाले उपन्यास, चाँदीवाली थाली etc.

- 2. The genitive case has some phrasal usage as well. For example:
 a. दिन के दिन, महीने के महीने, होली की होली, दीवाली की दीवाली, रात की रात, दोपहर के दोपहर etc.
- b. कान का कच्चा, बात का पक्का, आँख का अन्धा, गाँठ का पूरा, बात का धनी, दिल का सच्चा etc.
- c. वह अब आने का नहीं, मैं अब जाने का नहीं, वह टिकने का नहीं etc.
- 3. Genitive postpositions are also used in place of other cases. For example: जन्म का भिखारी जन्म से भिखारी (करण), हिमालय का चढ़ना हिमालय पर चढ़ना (अधिकरण) etc.

- 4. Often, genitive case is also used to represent relation, ownership and to give. For example: हरि को बाल बच्चा नहीं है। / राम के बहन हुई है। / ब्राह्मण को दक्षिणा दो।
- 5. The usage of genitive case in place of a pronoun becomes रा-रे-री and ना-ने-नी. For example: मेरा लड़का, मेरी लड़की, तुम्हारा घर, तुम्हारी पगड़ी, अपना भरोसा, अपनी रोजी etc.

6.2.2.7 The Locative Case (अधिकरण कारक):

The form of noun and pronoun that represents verb or base (आधार) is known as the Locative Case.

1. Sometimes, 'में' is used in place of 'पर' and 'पर' in place of 'में'. For example:

तुम्हारे घर पर चार आदमी है। = घर में

दुकान पर कोई नहीं था। = दुकान में

नाव जल में तैरती है। = जल पर

2. Sometimes the postpositions disappear in case of locative case. For example:

इन <u>दिनों</u> वह <u>पटने</u> है।

वह सन्ध्या समय गंगा-किनारे जाता है।

वह द्वार-द्वार भीख माँगते चलता है।

3. Terms like 'किनारे', 'आसरे' and 'दिनों' are in themselves suffixed locative case and terms like 'यहाँ', 'वहाँ' and 'समय' etc are suffixed locative case in their meaning. Hence, in case of these terms, the postpositions of the locative case are not used. Examples to these have already been given.

6.2.2.8 The Addressive Case (सम्बोधन कारक):

The form of noun that indicates addressing or calling someone is called the addressive case.

For example: **हे भगवान! मेरी रक्षा किजेए।** - In this sentence '**हे भगवान!**' is used in the sense of addressing.

The addressive case does not use any postposition. Its usage is done via terms like 'है', 'अरे' and 'रे'.

6.2.3 Use of Postpositions in Hindi Case system:

The use of postpositions in Hindi is well-defined and definite. There are two types of postpositions in Hindi:

- 1. Separated (विश्लिष्ट), and
- 2. Combined (संश्लिष्ट)

6.2.3.1 SeparatedPostpositions (विश्लिष्ट): In Hindi, in case of almost all nouns, the postposition is added after as a separate term. For example: गोपाल का, मोहन ने, लड़कों में, पेड़ से etc.

6.2.3.2 Combined Postposition (संश्लिष्ट): In Hindi, in case of all pronouns, the postposition is added to a term in a combined form. For example: मुझे, मेरा, तुम्हारा, तुम्हें etc.

6.3. An Introduction to the Mishing Case:

6.3.1 The Nominative:

The Nominative case is marked as follows:

Common Nouns (with generic reference): -é

```
e.g. péttang (bird)

péttang+ -é = péttangé (birds)

situm (bear)

situm + é =[bears (subject)]
```

Common nouns (with specific references): -dé

Here, -d- being the specifying element.

```
e.g. péttang (bird)

péttang + -dé = pétta: dé (the bird)

situm (bear)

situm + -dé = situmdé [the bear(subject)] etc.
```

'-sé' 'this', is used post-positionally, when the object is in the hands is in the hands of the speaker or very close to him/her and

'-élé' 'that', when the object is at distance from him/her,

```
e.g. péttang (bird)

péttang + -sé = pétta:sé [this bird (subject)]

péttang (bird)

péttang + -élé = péttangélé [that bird (subject)] etc.
```

Here, it may be mention that $-\mathbf{d}\acute{\mathbf{e}}$ is used for purposes of general anaphoric references or to point an object, which is not in the hands of the speaker nor is it in very close proximity, but it is not very far from him/her either.

Proper nouns (Names of persons): ngo, no, ngonyi, nonyi, nolu, bí, bínyi etc

All the personal pronouns in singular, dual and plural numbers, barring the singular first person 'ngo' 'I', are used postpositionally with the name of a person, e.g.

```
Tamen-ngonyi

(Tamen-we-two)

i.e. Tamen and I...

Tamen-ngolu

(Tamen-we)

i.e. Tamen and we the others...

Tamen-no

(Tamen-you)

i.e. 'Tamen! You (nominative) ...',

Tamen-nonyi
```

(Tamen - you-two)

```
i.e. 'Tamen, the two of you (nominative) ...',
Tamen-nolu
[Tamen-you (plural, nominative) ...],
i.e. 'Tamen! You and the others with you (nominative) ...',
Tamen-bí
(Tamen-he)
i.e.' Tamen (nominative) ...,
Tamen-bínyi
(Tamen - they-two)
i.e. 'Tamen (and the other person with him) -- the two of them ...',
Tamen-bulu
(Tamen-they)
i.e. 'Tamen and the others with him (nominative) ...', etc.
Kinship terms of address behave like names of persons in their inflections for
e.g. ta:to-ngonyi
(grandfather - we-two)
i.e. grandfather and I ...
ta:to-ngolu
(grandfather-we)
i.e. 'grandfather and we the others ...
```

case,

ta:to-no [Grandfat

[Grandfather! You (nominative) ...]

ta:to-nonyi

```
(grandfather - you-two)
```

i.e. Grandfather! The two of you (nominative) ...

ta:to-nolu

Grandfather! You (plural) and the others with you (nominative) ...

ta:to-bi

```
(grandfather-he)
```

i.e grandfather (nominative) ...

ta:to-binyi

(grandfather - they-two)

i.e. 'grand-father (and the other person with him) -- the two of them ...',

ta:to-bulu

(grand-father-they)

i.e. 'grandfather and the others with him', etc.

Proper nouns (Names of places): sé, édé, élé, télé (té), bélé (bé)

The demonstrative pronouns/adjectives are used postpositionally to mark the nominative case of the names of places,

e.g. London-sé

(London-this)

i.e. This place London is....,

London-dé

(London-the)

The place London...,

London-élé (a little far away from the speaker to the east)

(London-that or there)

There in place London.....

London-té (a little far away from the speaker to the north or higher

region)

(London- that or there)

There in London

London-bé (a little far away from the speaker to the south, west or lower

region)

(London- that or there)

There in London)etc.

Pronouns: Pronouns have a zero suffix for the nominative case.

Also, when a numeral or a numeral classifier is used with a common noun, the

postpositional -ko (the clipped form of ako 'one') is added to the numeral or the

numeral classifier to mark the nominative case (and the accusative case also) of a

common noun,

e.g. tani: aumko gido

(man three come-ing)

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> 'Three men are coming' – aum `three' -ko;

Péttang adorko dé:dung

```
(bird-one fly-ing)

> 'One/A bird is flying' —
```

ador a classifier, used when denoting one, only the second syllable -dor being used with the other relevant numerals' -ko

sorog dorpi:ko sikang

(rhinoceros four die -past tense')

> `Four rhinoc-eroses died' -- dorpi:ko (ador 'classifier' appi: 'four' -ko > dorpi:ko), etc.

6.3.2 The accusative:

The accusative case is marked by adding the accusative element **-m** to the nominative forms of common nouns and to the suffix zero in pronouns and by **-me** to the name of a person and kinship terms of address, used in the singular third person, **-em** with generic common nouns, etc.), as exemplified below. The marker for numerals and numeral classifiers remains the same as in the nominative.

Common nouns (with generic reference): $-\acute{e} + -m > -\acute{e}m$,

```
e.g. péttang (bird)

péttang + -ém =péttangém

i.e. birds (accusative)

situm (bear)

situm + -ém = situmém
```

```
i.e. bears (accusative)', etc.
```

Common nouns (with specific reference): $-d\acute{e} + -m > -d\acute{e}m$,

```
e.g. péttang (bird)

péttang + -dém =pétta:dém

i.e. the bird (accusative)

situm (bear)

situm + -dém = situmdém

i.e. the bear (accusative)', etc.
```

(sé and élé, mentioned as post-positional markers of the nominative, are used similarly in the accusative as -sém and élém,

```
e.g. péttang (bird)

pétta + -sém = pétta:sém

i.e. this bird (accusative)',

péttang (bird)

péttang + -dém =péttangélém

i.e. that bird (accusative)', etc.
```

Proper nouns (Names of persons): As in the nominative, all the personal pronouns in singular, dual and plural numbers, barring the singular first person ngo 'I ', are used post-positionally with the name of a person in an inflected form, marking the accusative,

e.g. Tamen-ngonyim

(Tamen - us-two)

```
i.e. `Tamen and me ...'
Tamen-ngolum
(Tamen-us)
i.e. Tamen and us the others'
Tamen-nom
(Tamen-you)
i.e. you, Tamen, (accusative)',
Tamen-nonyim
(Tamen - you-two)
i.e. ...you, Tamen, and the other one with you (accusative)
 Tamen-nolum
[Tamen-you (plural, accusative) ..]
i.e. ...you, Tamen, and the others with you (accusative)'
Tamen-mé
Tamen (accusative)
Tamen-bínyim
[Tamen - they-two (accusative')]
i.e. the two of them -- Tamen (and the other person with him)',
Tamen-bulum
(Tamen-them)
i.e. Tamen and the others with him him (accusative) ...'.
```

Kinship terms of address are marked similarly, e.g.

ta:to-ngonyim (grand-father - us-two) i.e.'... grandfather and me', ta:to-ngolum (grandfather-us) i.e. 'grandfather and us, the others ...' ta:to-nom [grandfather-you (singular)] i.e. 'you, grandfather (accusative) ta:to-nonyim [grandfather - you-two (accusative) i.e. you, grandfather, and the other person (accusative) ta:to-nolum [grandfather-you (plural, accusative)] i.e. you, grandfather, and and the others with you (accusative) ta:to-me (grandfather-accusative), i.e grand-father (accusative) ...', ta:to-bínyim (grandfather - them-two),

i.e. 'grandfather and the other person with him -- the two of them ...',

ta:to-bulum

(grandfather-them)

i.e. grandfather and the others with him (accusative)', etc.

Note: In some local dialects, -bím is also used in place of **-mé,**Tamenmé>Tamen-bím, ta:tomé>ta:to-bím, etc.

Proper nouns (Names of places): -m is added to the nominative markers -sé, -dé, -élé, etc.,

e.g. London-sém, London-dém, London-élém, London-tém, London-bém etc.

Pronouns: Pronouns in the accusative case are marked by adding -m to the word,

e.g. ngom 'mé', ngolum 'us', nom 'you (singular)', nolum 'you (plural)', bím 'him/her', bulum edem 'that (accusative)', sem 'this (accusative)', etc.

When pluralized, the demonstrative pronouns have double marking, sémbulum 'these (accusative)', edémbulum 'those (accusative)', etc.

As in respect of the nominative case, common nouns, modified by numerals or numeral classifiers, are marked for the accusative case by adding the post-positional -ko (the clipped form of ako 'one') to the numeral or the numeral classifier concerned,

e.g. Tani: aumko gokto 'man three call (imperative)'

> 'Call three men!' -- aum 'three' -ko;

Ko:de pettang adorko sogapto.

'boy-the bird-one catch-did'

> 'The boy caught a bird' -- adorko

(<ador 'a classifier, used when denoting one, only the second syllable -dor being used with the other relevant numerals' -ko);

Ngo go:ru dornyiko repa:ye '

I cow two buy-have-to-shall'

> 'I'll have to buy two cows' -- dornyiko

(ador 'classifier! annyi 'two' -ko > dornyiko), etc.

When used with ditransitive verbs, -ko generally marks a direct object,

e.g. Nom ngo go:ru adorko rebiye.

'you (accusative - indirect object) I cow one (accusative - direct object) buy-forshall

'> 'I'll buy a cow for you' adorko (ador 'classifier' -ko) rebiye (< re- `to buy' -bi 'the verb bi- `to give', used as the second element in a compound verb stem to denote doing something for someone' -ye 'suffix, marking the simple future'), etc.

6.3.3 The dative

The dative (or the recipient) case is generally used for marking an indirect object in a sentence with a ditransitive verb, the markers being the same as the ones used for the accusative case. Nouns with numerals, with or without classifiers, marked by the postpositional -ko, are generally used in direct objects, as already mentioned.

6.3.4. The instrumental

Nouns or pronouns in the instrumental case are used, when a sentence speaks of using someone or something as an instrument for performing some action, the markers being as follows:

```
Common nouns (with generic reference): -lokki/-kokki/-ki,
```

```
e.g. ígíng (an axe)

ígíng-kokkit-lokkil-ki

> igingkokki/igi:lokki/igingki 'with an axe',
```

Common nouns (with specific reference): -dokki,

```
e.g. iging (an axe)
-dokki > igi:dokki 'with the axe'.
```

(se and ele, mentioned as post-positional markers of the nomina-tive, are used post-positionally in the instrumental case in the forms **-sokki** and **-olokki**, e.g.

```
igi:sokki (with this axe)
```

iging -olokki > igingolokki 'with that axe there (at some distance)', etc.

Proper nouns: Names of persons: -kokki 'he/she', e.g.

Tamen-kokki 'by (i.e. using the services, labour, etc. of) Tamen or (get something done) by Tamen', etc.

Kinship terms of address also inflect like names of persons for the instrumentaal case.

Pronouns:

nokki 'by (using) you',

Pronouns in the instrumental case are marked by adding **-kki** to the word, e.g. ngokki 'by (using) me',
i.e. 'by using my services, labour, etc.',

i.e. 'by using your services, labour, etc.',

bikki 'by (using) him/her',

i.e. by using his/her services, labour, etc.'.

In the plural number, one can use either ngolu/nolu/bulu + kki > ngolukki /nolukki/bulukki 'by (using) us/you(plural)/them',

i.e. 'by using our/your(plural)/their services, labour, etc.'.

Alternatively, the pronouns may be marked for the instrumental case by adding to them the two morphemes, **-k** and **-kokki**,

e.g. ngok-kokki, nok-kokki, bik-kokki, ngoluk-kokki, noluk-kokki, and buluk-kokki, the mean-ings remaining the same.

For nouns with numerals, with or without classifiers, the instrumental case is marked by adding **-kki** to the numeral or numeral classifier marker **-ko**, e.g.

tani: (man) aum (three) -ko -kki > tani: aumkokki 'by (using) three men', sité (elephant) dorngo (five) (classifyinng element -dor)' -ko -kki > site dorngokokki 'by (using) five elephants', etc. The numeral element -ko may be replaced with -lo, retaining the same generic meaning -- tani: aumlokki, sité dorngolokki, etc. For specification, the deictic elements (demonstrative pro-nouns/adjectives) sé `this', édé 'that (not far)', élé 'that' (at a distance)' are used postpositionally in the forms -sokki, -dokki, and -olokki, e.g.

tani: 'man' aum 'three' -sokki > tani: aumsokki 'by (using) these three men',
tani: 'man' aum 'three' -dokki > tani: aumdokki 'by (using) these three men',
tani: 'man' aum 'three' -olokki > tani: aumolokki 'by (using) those three men',

etc.

6.3.5 The ablative

The ablative case is marked as follows:

Common nouns (with generic reference): -lokké, e.g.

ísíng (tree) -lokke > ísílokke 'from a tree'

Common nouns (with specific reference): -dokké, e.g.

ísíng (tree) –dokké > isi:dokké 'from the tree', etc.

(**sé** and **élé**, mentioned as postpositional markers of the nominative, are used postpositionally in the ablative case in the forms **-sokké** and **-olokké**, e.g

ising -sokke > isi:sokke 'from this tree',

ising -olokke > isingolokke 'from that tree', etc

Proper nouns (Names of persons): In the case of names of persons, -lokké, the ablative marker for common nouns (generic) is combined with the possessive genitive
-ké i.e. -kélokké (-ké being made to harmonize with -lo of -lokke in some dialects, changing -kélokké to -kolokké, e.g.

Tamen-kélokké/Tamen-kolokké 'from Tamen's place', etc.

The pluralized form of Tamen-kélokké/ Tamen-kolokké is Tamen-bulu-k-kélokké > Tamen-bulukkélokké/ Tamen-bulukkolokké 'from where Tamen and the others live'.

Kinship terms of address are also inflected similarly. Another suffix -kélok is used for the ablative form of the name of a person to signify obtaining something from the person concerned. Some speakers of Mising also use -kélokkém in the same sense. In the Sa:yang and the Mo:ying dialects, -ké-of-kélok or -kelokke is lengthened to -ké:,

Proper nouns (Names of places): The pronouns/adverbs so, odo (>-do), olo ,
tolo and bolo are used post-positionally,

e.g. London-sokké 'from London, here',

London-dokké 'from London there (not far)',

London-olokké 'from London there (a little far to the east)',

London-tolokké `from London there (to the north or the upper regions)',

London-bolokké 'from London there (to the south or the lower regions)', etc.

London-tolokké and London-bolokke would often be shortened to Londontokké and London-bokké.

Apart from the use of the ablative case with reference to spatial location, exemplified above, this case is also used with reference to 'temporal location', as it were, in the sense of 'from/since a particular point or segment of time (a particular year, a particular month, a particular day, last year, yesterday, etc.)', e.g.

ménnying 'last year'

-kelokke/kokke > ménnyingkelokké/ ménnyingkokké `from/since last year'

mélo 'yesterday'

–kélokké/-kokké > melokelokke/melokokke 'from/since yesterday',

1960 so:n-dokke 'from/ since the year 1960',

Julai po:lo-dokke 'from/since the month of July', etc.

Pronouns: The marking of pronouns for the ablative case is somewhat simi-lar to that of proper nouns, the possessive genitive marker -ké being combined with sokké,

odokké (>-dokké), olokké, tolokké/tokké and bolokké/bokké, used postpositionally, e.g.

ngo-kké-sokké> ngokké-sokké/ngokkosokké `from my place here',

no-kké-sokké 'from your place here',

no-kké-dokké `from your place there',

no-kké-olokké > nokké-lokké/nokkolokké 'from your place there (to the east)',

no-kké-tolokké/tokké> nokké-tolokké/ nokké-tokké/nokkotokké 'from your place there (to the north or the upper regions',

bí-kké-dokké > bíkké-dokke/bikkodokke 'from his/her place there', etc.

The ablative forms of the plural number **ngolu**, **nolu**, and **bulu** are **ngolu-kké-sokké** /**ngolu-kkosokké**, **nolu-kké-dokké/ngolu-kko-dokké**, **bulu-kké-tokké/bulu-kkotokké**, etc. In this case also, **-kkesokké**, **-kkedokké**, are realized as **-ke:sokké**, **-ke: dokké**, in the Sa:yang and the Mo:ying dialects. Note: **-dokké** has a dialectal variant **-delokké**, used in the Sa:yang dialect.

6.3.6 The genitive

In Mising, a distinction is made between proper nouns (names of persons) and personal pronouns on the one hand and common nouns and proper nouns (names of places) on the other in marking the genitive, as can be seen below. Common nouns inflect for the genitive as follows:

Common nouns (generic): -lokké (clipped to -lok more often than not), e.g. ísíng 'tree' -lokké > ísí:lokké,.

Common nouns (specific): -dokké (often contracted to -dok), e.g. Ísíng `tree' -dokké > ísí:dokké, e.g. ísí:dokké (ísí:dok) anne 'leaves of the (a particular) tree',)etc. .

(sé and élé, mentioned as post-positional markers of the nomina-tive, are used post-positionally in the genitive case in the forms -sokké (often contracted to -sok) and -olokké (often contracted to -olok), e.g.

isi:sokké (isi:sok) anne 'leaves of this tree', isingolokké (isingolok) anne 'leaves of that tree (at a distance)', etc.

Proper nouns (names of persons) are marked for the genitive by suffixing -ké to a name

(e.g. Tamen-ké galug `Tamen's shirt', Panoi-ké okum Panoi's house', etc.) and by suffixing -kké (a combination of -k and -ke, the latter being often left out in speech) to personal pronouns (ngo-kke >ngokke >ngok potin 'my book',

no-kke >nokke >nok agom 'your words',

bi-kke >bikke >bik dungko 'his/her place (of residence)'.

Kinship terms of address also inflect like names of persons for the genitive, e.g. ta:to-ke dumid 'grandfather's hair', ba:boi-ke okum (paternal) uncle's home', etc'

Proper nouns (Names of places): The pronouns/adverbs so, odo (>-do), olo,
tolo and bolo are used post-positionally in the forms-sokké (contractedform: -sok), odokké' (contracted form: -dok), -olokké' (con-tracted form -olok), -tolokké'
(contracted form: -tok), -bolokké' (contractedform: -bok), e. g.

London-sok tani: 'people of London, here',

London-doktani: 'people of London there (not far)',

London-lok tani: 'people of Londonthere (a little far to the east)',

London-'tok tani: 'people of London there (to the north or the upper regions)',

London-bok tani: 'people of London there (to the south or the lower regions)', etc.

The distinction made in marking names of persons and personal pronouns on the one hand and common nouns and names of places on the other has already been mentioned above. However, we may differentiate between possessive and nonpossessive meanings of the genitive in Mishing also, e. g.

The possessive genitive:

Tamenké okum 'Tamen's house' (Tamen possesses a house),

tani:lok mittub 'men's head or the head of a man' (men possess heads),

ngokké alé 'my legs' (I possess legs), etc.

The non-possessive genitive:

Tamenké agom 'Tamen's words' (Tamen does not possess the words),

do:lungolok tani: 'people of that village over there' (the village does not possess the people),

ko:né:lok iskul 'a girls' school'(the girls do not possess the school), etc.

6.3. 7 The locative

The locative case is marked as follows:

Common nouns (generic): -lo, e.g.

do:lung 'Village' -lo > do:lu:lo 'in villages',

si:lung/si:lung 'forest' -lo > silu:lo/sílu:lo 'in forests',

asi/así 'wa-ter' -lo > asilo/asílo 'in water', etc.

-ém may be added, in lieu of -lo, to certain nouns relating to time such as

```
longé 'day', yumé 'night', ro: 'morning', e. g.
longélo or longngém 'at daytime',
yumélo or yummém/yumém 'at night',
ro:lo or rouwém 'in the morning hours', etc.
```

Common nouns (specific): The pronouns/adverbs of place so 'here',
odo(contracted form: do) 'there (near by)', olo 'there (at some distance)',
tolo(contracted form: to) 'there (at a distance to the north)', and bolo (contracted form:
bo) 'there (at a distance to the west or the south)' are used post-position ally, like
suffixes

```
e.g. okumso 'here in the/this house',
okumdo 'there in that house (close by)',
okumolo 'there in the house over there',
okumto 'there in that house to the north',
okumbo 'there in that house to the south or the west', etc.
(In certain constructions, -sé, -dé, -élé, -te'lé (>té), -bélé (-be') are used for the locative, e. g.
```

okumsé/okumdé/kumélé/okumté/okumbé tani: kama 'house- this/that man benot'> 'There is no one in this/that house'.)

Proper nouns (Names of persons): In the case of names of persons, the locative case is marked by combining -ke with the pronouns/adverbs of place so, odo
(contracted form: do), olo, tolo (contracted form: to), and bolo (contracted form: bo),

i.e. -késo, -kédo, -kéto, and -kébo (in some dialects -koso, -kodo, -kolo, -koto, and -kobo), e.g.

Tamen-keso/Tamen-koso 'at Tamen's place here',

Tamen-kelo/Tamen-kolo 'at Tamen's place (at some distance)', etc.

Kinship terms of address are also marked like names of persons, ta:tokélopé/ta:tokolo:pé, ta:tokeso/ta:tokoso, ta:tokédo/ta:tokodo, ta:tokéto/ta:tokoto, ta:tokébo/ta:tokobo, etc.

Proper nouns (Names of places): The marking of the locative case for names of places is the same as that of common nouns (specific), e.g.

Dilli:to, Dilli:to, etc

Pronouns: The locative case for pronouns is marked by combining their genitive marker -kké and the place pronouns/adverbs so 'here', odo (contracted form: do), olo, tolo (contracted form: to), and bolo (contracted form bo) e.g. ngokkéso (also ngokkoso) 'at my place here', nokkédo (also nokkodo) 'at your place there', bulukkélo (also bulukkolo) 'at their place there', etc.

The locative suffix **-lo** and **-do** are used with some time words and expres-sions like **'édílo'** 'when', **mélo** 'yesterday', **silo** 'today', **konlo** (assimilated form: **konno**) 'the day before yesterday', **odo** 'at that (point of) time', **'1960 so:n-do** `in the year 1960', **Julai po:lo-do** 'in the month of July', **Julai po:lo-lok longé aum-do** (`July month's day three-on') 'on the third day of July', **kinid boja-do** ('seven o'clock-at) 'at seven o'clock', etc. for indicating a 'temporal location'.

Nouns with numerals or numeral classifiers also can be marked for the locative case, e.g.

okum akkolo/ako:lo atta:rkídí:dém méla:ma:yé 'house one-only things-the keep-can-not-simple future tense' > '(We) won't be able to keep/ store the things in only one house'. **-lo**, which has a generic meaning, can be replaced with **-so**, **-do**, etc., which specify a noun.

6.3.8 The benefactive

The benefactive is marked as follows:

Common nouns (generic): -lokképé, e.g.

okum 'home/house' -lokképé >okumlokképé 'for a house',

midang 'wedding' -lokképé>mida:lokképe `for a wedding', etc.

Common nouns (specific): -dokképé, e.g.

okum 'home/house' -dokképé >okumdokkepe 'for the house',

midang 'wedding' **-dokképé** >mida:dokképé `for the wedding', etc.

Proper nouns (Names of persons): In the case of names of persons, -ke, the genitive marker for names of persons is combined with -pé, i.e. -képé, to mark the benefactive, e.g.

Tamen-ké-pé >Tamen-képé 'for Tamen'

Panoi-ké-pé >Panoi-képé 'for Panoi', etc.

Kinship terms of address are also marked like names of persons, e.g.

ta:to-ké-pé >ta:toképé 'for grandfather',

ba:boi-ké-pé >ba:boiképé 'for (paternal) uncle', etc

Pronouns: As in respect of names of persons, pronouns are marked for the benefactive by combining their genitive marker -kké with -pé, i.e. -kképé, ngokképé

'for me', ngolukképé 'for us', nokképé 'for you (singular)', nolukképé' for you (plural)', bikképé 'for him/her ', bulukképé 'for them', etc. (-képé has the variant - ké:pé, used in the Sa:yang dialect. Also, bulukképé is realized in this dialect as buluké:pé) Nouns with numerals or numeral classifiers are marked like common nouns for the benefactive case.

6.3.9 The allative

The allative case is marked as follows by combining the markers for the locative case with -**pé**, the final vowel of the locative suffixes being lengthened in the process:

Common nouns (generic): -lo + pi >lo:pe, e.g.

do:lung (village) + -lo:pe

> do:lu:lo:pe 'to a village', etc.

Common nouns (specific):

The pronouns/adverbs of place **so** 'here', **odo** (contracted form: do) 'there (nearby)', **olo** 'there (at some distance)', **tolo** (con-tracted form: to) 'there (at a distance to the north)', and **bolo** (contracted form: bo) 'there (at a distance to the west or the south)' are combined with **-pé**, the resultant forms being **-so:pé,-do:pé,olo:pé,-tolo:pé/to:pé** and **-bolo:pé/bo:pé**, which are used post-positionally,

e.g. okumso:pé 'to the/this house here',

okumdo:pe 'to that house (close by) there',

okumolo:pe 'to the/that house over there', okumto:pe 'to that house to the north', okumbo:pe 'to that house to the south or the west', etc.

Proper nouns (names of persons): The markers of names of persons for the locative case, i.e. -késo,-kído,-kélo,-kéto, and -kébo (in some dialects -koso, -kodo, -

kolo, -koto, and -kobo), are combined with -pé, the resultant form being -késo:pé/-koso:pé,-kédo:pé/-kodo:pé,-kélo:pé/-kolo:pé,-kéto:pé/ -koto:pé , and -kébo:pé/kobo:pé, to mark the allative, e.g.

Tamen-késo:pé/ Tamen-koso:pé 'to Tamen's place here',

Tamen-kélo:pé/Tamen-kolo:pé 'to Tamen's place (at some distance) there', etc.

Kinship terms of address are also marked like names of persons, ta:tokélo:pé/ta:tokolo:pé, ta:tokéso:pé/ta:tokoso:pé, ta:tokédo:pé/ta:tokodo:pé, ta:tokéto:pé/ta:tokoto:pé, ta:tokébo:pé/ta:tokobo:pé, etc.

Note: The speakers, who use **-kolo:pé, koso:pé,** etc. often omit the final **-é**

. *Proper nouns (names of places*): Names of places are marked for the allative case by adding -pé to the markers of the locative case, the resultant forms being -so:pé, -do:pé, -olo:pé/lo:pé , -tolo:pé /-to:pé and -bolo:pé-bo:pé, which are used post-positionally, like suffixes,

e.g. Dilli:so:pé 'to Delhi here', Dilli:do:pe 'to Delhi over there', Dilli:to:pe 'to Delhi (up there to the north), etc.

Pronouns: The allative case for pronouns is marked by combining their genitive marker **-kke** with **-so:pe,-do:pe,-olo:pel-lo:pe, -tolo:pel-to:pe** and **-bolo:pel-bo:pe,** as done for the allative form of the name of a person, e.g. **ngokkéso:pé** (also **ngokkoso:pé**) 'to my place here',

nokkédo:pé (also nokkodo:pé) 'to your place there',

bulukkélo:pé/bulukkolo:pé (bulukélo:pé in Sa:yang and Mo:ying) 'to their place there', etc.

Like the use of the ablative case with reference to 'temporal location', the allative case is also used in the temporal sense of 'to, till, up to, etc. a particular point or segment of time (a particular year, a particular month, a particular day, last year, yesterday, etc.)', e.g. supag 'now' -pé >supakpé 'till now', silo 'to-day' -lope/-pe > silolo:pe/silope 'till today', 1960 so:n-do:pe 'to or up to the year 1960', Julai po:lo-do:pe `to or up to the month of July', etc.

6.3.10 The vocative

The vocative is marked as follows: When someone is addressed by name (generally applicable in case of persons younger in age than the speaker or of friends) or by the *kinship term* (used for addressing someone) from close by, the vocative suffix -a is used, e.g.

Tamena, tatpo:to!

[Hey, Tamen, listen (tome first)!']

Tamena (< Tamen `a male name' -a) tatpo:to (< tad- 'to hear' -po: 'suffix, denoting doing some-thing on a priority basis' -to 'suffix, marking the imperative'!

Ka:kia, kape? (dialectal variant: Ka:ka, kape?) 'How's everything, (ma-ternal) uncle?'

-- ka:ki/ka:ka (< ka:ki 'maternal uncle' -a) kape 'how'), etc.

When someone has to be called from a distance, -a is replaced with é:i, e.g.

Tamen -e:i > Tamene:i!

'Hey, Tamen!',

ka:ki (maternal) uncle' > ka:kie:i! (dialectal variant: ka:ké:í ?) 'Hey, uncle!', etc.

One has to raise the pitch of his voice and has also got to be louder, when using – é:í.

If the final sound of the word used in addressing someone is a consonant, it remains unchanged in the process of suffixation in all the dialects, but if the word-final sound is a vowel, as we saw in the example **ka:kí** above, it changes in different ways, the process affecting even the consonant preceding the final vowel. Such changes are dependent on the rules of morphophonemic change in the language. To cite only a few examples (using first names of persons or surnames):

Podu (a frst name) + a/\acute{e} : \acute{i} = Podda!, Podd \acute{e} : \acute{i} !

Pe:gu (a Mishing Surname) + a/éí = Pe:ga!, Pe:gé:í!

6.4 Analysis between the Hindi and Mishing cases:

The contrast between the two languages i.e.Hindi and Mishing Case system could be traced out with the following points:-

The Case system in the Mishing language is different than the case systems of other languages. In this language, suffixes (प्रत्यय) are used to represent Case. Ten types of Case are found in the Mishing language and these are formed with the use of suffixes.

The contrasts with respect to the Case system in both the languages could be seen on two levels – at the word level and at the sentence level.

At the word level:

From the form point of view, the forms of noun and pronoun used to express

Case can be broadly categorized to two types – Simple (सरल) and Oblique (तिर्यंक).

These forms express the number along with the Case. There is a third form of noun that can be seen in Hindi sometimes, this form is called the Addressive form (सम्बोधन).

The following table contains the Case-form related contrasts of both the languages based on these three forms. Here, the Simple form is the form that establishes its relations in a sentence by having a case-sign-less stand with the Case and Number postpositions. The oblique form is also known as 'विकारी', 'সংস্কু' or 'परिवर्तित रूप'.

The Case form at the word level:

| Hindi- लड़का | Simple Form सरल | Oblique Form तिर्यक रूप | Addressive Form सम्बोधन रूप |
|--------------|-----------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | रूप | | |
| एकवचन | लड़का | लड़के (ने, को, से, के | लड़के (!) |
| | | लिए आदि | |
| बहुवचन | लड़के | लड़को (ने, को, से, के | लड़को (!) |
| | | लिए आदि | |
| Mishing- ko: | | | |
| (Boy) | | | |
| एकवचन | КО: | KO (é,dé, ém, etc) | KO: a (!) |
| बहुवचन | KO:kidar | Ko:kidar (é,dé, ém, etc.) | Ko:kidar a (!) |

In Hindi, the Demonstrative Adjectives (सर्वनामिक विशेषण) change their form in Oblique form. But in Mishing, the Oblique form does not change in case of Demonstrative adjectives.

For example:

| | Simple Form (सरल) | Oblique Form (तिर्यक) |
|---------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Hindi | वह लड़की | उस लड़की (ने, को आदि) |
| Mishing | Edé koneng | Edé koneng (dé, dém) |

At the Sentence level:

In Hindi, the 'को' postposition is used in case of Objective (कर्म) and Dative (सम्प्रदान) case. Similarly, the 'से' postposition is used in case of Instrumental (करण) and Ablative (अपादान) cases. In Mishing language, the Case-sign (कारक द्योतक) for each case comes as different suffixes.

Some information worth mentioning with respect to the above example are:

- 1. In the simple forms of nouns in Hindi, the case and number is expressed in accordance with the postposition. In Mishing plural form, the suffixes like 'kididé/kidisé/kidardé/kidarsé/kidaré' etc are independently expressed.
- 2. In their Oblique forms, the Hindi nouns accept postpositions like 'ने', 'को' etc along with case-number postpositions. In Hindi, the noun form changes after addition of postpositions, but not in Mishing.
- 3. Due to the differences in the simple and oblique forms in Hindi, the Gender, Number and Person-concordance (अन्वित) of the verb forms and the components ending with the 'आ' sign (आकारान्त) are affected. In Mishing, the

difference of Simple and Oblique forms does not affect the sentence formation in any way.

4. In Hindi, the component ending with the 'आ' sign (आकारन्त) in a noun phrase changes to a component ending with the 'ए' sign (एकारान्त) in its Singular Oblique form (एकवचन तिर्थक रूप). In Mishing, such change does not happen. For example:

| | Simple Form | Oblique Form | Addressive Form |
|---------|---------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| | (सरल) | (तिर्यक) | (सम्बोधन) |
| Hindi | मेरा काला घोड़ा (०) | मेरे काले घोड़े (ने, | मेरे काले घोड़े (!) |
| | | को आदि) | |
| Mishing | NGOKKE | NGOKKE | NGOKKE |
| | YAKANE GORE | YAKANE GORE | YAKANE GORE |
| | | (E, ÈM, DE, SE | A (!) |
| | | etc) | |

6.5 Conclusion:

- 1. There are differences in Hindi and Mishing from the point of view of numbers of case. In Hindi, there are eight types of Case; whereas in Mishing, there are ten types of Case. In Hindi, the case-signs are called postpositions. In Mishing, case is called 'Lukan' (लुकान).
- 2. There are two types of usage of postpositions visible while forming Case in

 Hindi Combined (संश्लिष्ट) and Separated (विश्लिष्ट). But in Mishing
 language, such forms are not visible. In Mishing, all case forming suffixes come

attached to the words. This means, in Mishing, we can only see the combined form. Hence, there are clear differences in the composition of case-terms in both the languages.

- 3. In Hindi, to form a case term, postpositions (विभक्ति अथवा परसर्ग) are used.

 But in Mishing, suffixes (प्रत्यय) are used. Hence, in both languages difference can be seen in case of structure.
- 4. In Hindi, there are less number of postpositions, while in Mishing, there are more number of suffixes. This is also a difference in both the languages.
- 5. In Hindi, only one postposition is usually used. Or some indeclinable (अव्यय) terms are used along with them. But in Mishing, more suffixes are used.
- 6. In the simple forms of nouns in Hindi, postpositions signifying case and number are expressed together. In Mishing plural form, the suffixes are expressed independently (kídídé/kídísé/kídardé/kídarsé).

Hence, in Hindi and Mishing, we can see the above differences with respect to construction, meaning-structure etc. The speakers of both the languages should keep these points in mind while learning both the languages.

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