

CHAPTER 3

WORD CLASSES AND MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter different word classes in Geba are described. Words are a unit of expression which is universally intuitively recognized by native-speakers in both spoken and written language (Crystal 2003:500).

Schachter (1985:3) states:

The grammatical properties of a word that are relevant to its part of speech classification include the word's distribution, its range of syntactic functions, and the morphological or syntactic categories for which it is specifiable.

Dixon (2006:2) states:

The main function of a language is to communicate meaning from speaker to addressee. Basic concepts are encoded as words, which are related together within the grammar. Three word classes are, I maintain, implicit in the structure of each human language: nouns, verbs and adjectives. Each has (a) a prototypical conceptual basis; and (b) prototypical grammatical function(s). The recognition of word classes in a language must be on the basis of internal grammatical criteria for that language.

The grammatical properties of each word which are relevant to its part of speech classification are described based on "language internal grammatical criteria". Word classes are divided into two broad categories: major word classes, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, and minor word classes, such as pronouns, demonstratives, classifiers, numerals and quantifiers, prepositions, locator nouns, conjunctions and particles. Morphological processes which include elaborate expressions, compounding, and affixations are also discussed.

3.1 Major word classes

In this section four different types of major word classes are presented. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs function as near universal parts of speech and are considered the major word classes; they are categorized as open word classes. Nouns will be discussed in sub-section 3.1.1 which includes the discussion of common nouns, proper nouns, mass nouns and abstract nouns. Section 3.1.2 will discuss main verbs, auxiliary verbs, preverbal and postverbal auxiliary verbs, copulas, and directionals. The third section, 3.1.3, will present adjectives, and the last sub-section, 3.1.4, will discuss the adverbs.

3.1.1 Nouns

Nouns are initially delimited semantically as a class of words which typically denote the name of most persons, places, and things. Their common syntactic function is as arguments or heads of arguments (Schachter 1985:7).

Syntactically, nouns are words that occur in the following constructions in Geba:

(i) Nouns can occur in a simple noun phrase structure with a classifier³ as shown in example (1).

(1) (Elicitation)

āpísāp ^h ò	dā	bwè
child	one	CLF
N	NUM	CLF

'one child'

(ii) Nouns can be found as heads of noun phrases and can function as arguments of verbs in clauses, as in example (2).

³ Classifiers do not function as pronouns like Thai language and they do not head noun-phrases.

(2) (Elicitation)

əpísəp^hò əm̀ìk^hó dā bwè swè
child man one CLF run
N N NUM CLF V

The boy runs.

In the above example, *əpí səp^hò əm̀ìk^hó*, 'the boy' is a preceding noun which functions as the subject argument of the verb *swè* 'run'.

Nouns in Geba also allow modification by quantifiers, modification by relative clauses and replacement by pronouns. These are explained in related sections.

3.1.1.1 Common nouns

Common nouns in Geba can be distinguished from other types of nouns because this type of noun can be followed by numerals and classifiers. Common nouns in Geba typically denote objects, places, and times. Objects, such as human and non-human things, places, and times occur with related classifiers (i.e. common nouns occur with sortal classifiers). The following examples show different types of common nouns with classifiers. Example (3) shows a common noun denoting a human classified by the human sortal classifier *bwè*.

(3) (Elicitation)

mō θó bwè
mother three CLF
N NUM CLF

'three mothers'

In example (4), large, four-legged animals and rodents are classified by the sortal classifier *dó*. In (5), small, four-legged animals, birds, amphibians, and insects are classified by the sortal classifier *bè*.

(4) (Elicitation)

t^hwì θó dó
dog three CLF
N NUM CLF

'three dogs'

(5) (Elicitation)

đĩ? lwì bè
frog four CLF
N NUM CLF

'four frogs'

More classifiers are presented in section 3.2.3.

3.1.1.2 Proper nouns

Proper nouns in Geba identify a specific entity, such as a person, place, thing, or specific period of time by its formal name. This type of noun does not occur with a classifier unless there are two or more entities that the proper noun could refer to. The following are examples of some proper nouns in Geba.

Name of the person: ʔúsaj̥t^hoŋ 'U San Tun'

Name of the village: d̥māḍḍ 'Dor Mar Der'

Example (6a) shows that it would be unnatural to modify a proper noun with a number phrase d̥ʒì 'two'.

(6a) (Elicitation)

*maòŋ d̥ʒì bwè
Maung two CLF
PROP NUM CLF

'Two Maungs'

In example (6b), ʔə 'have' is required for denoting two instances of a proper name. The verb ʔə predicatively joins the proper noun and the classifier phrase.

(6b) (Elicitation)

maùŋ ʔɔ̌ dʒì bwè dó tʃaún bú nò
Maung have two CLF at school in FP
PROP V NUM CLF PREP N LOCN FP

There are two Maungs at school.

Nouns which express time can be found without classifiers as shown in example (7).

(7) (Elicitation)

kʰúðēnì jā lè dó tʃaún
today 1S go to school
N PRN V PREP N

Today, I go to school.

Example (8) shows an ungrammatical use of a time expression with a number and classifiers, *dā θé*.

(8) (Elicitation)

*kʰúðēnì dā θé jā lè dó tʃaún
today one day 1S go to school
N NUM CLF PRN V PREP N

Today, one day I go to school.

However, *θé* 'day' and *wɔ́* 'morning' can also function alone as time classifiers, and they can be counted with a number. For instance, *dā θé* 'one day', *dʒì θé* 'two days' and *dā wɔ́* 'one morning', *dʒì wɔ́* 'two mornings'. Examples (9) and (10), show 'day' and 'morning' as countable nouns with numbers and related classifiers.

(9) (Elicitation)

jā lé dēmēlɔ̌ dʒì θé
1S go training two day
PRN V N NUM CLF

I am (going) training for two days.

(10) (Elicitation)

jə lé dɛmɛlɔ dʒì wɔ
1S go training two morning
PRN V N NUM CLF

I go training for two mornings.

3.1.1.3 Mass nouns

Mass nouns are also found in Geba. Mass nouns can only be counted if a measure classifier is used. Examples (11), (12), and (13) show mass nouns with a specific container to measure them.

For the mass noun *tʰi* 'water' the specific container *sɔlɔ?* 'cup' is used to classify the noun.

(11) (Elicitation)

tʰi lwì sɔlɔ?
water four cup
N NUM CLF

'four cups of water'

For the mass noun *hú* 'rice' the specific container *tù?* 'cup' is used to classify the noun as in example (12).

(12) (Elicitation)

hú lwì tù?
rice four cup
N NUM CLF

'four cups of rice'

For the mass noun *lòθími?* 'sand' the specific container *tʰə* 'bag' is used to classify the noun as in (13).

(13) (Elicitation)

lòθími? t̥ t̥ʰə

sand one bag

N NUM CLF

'one bag of sand'

According to the above findings, there are various mass nouns which are uncountable but do occur with related measure classifiers.

3.1.1.4 Abstract nouns

Abstract nouns are also found in Geba. Examples (14), (15), and (16) show some abstract nouns in Geba.

(14) (Elicitation)

dèṁḍḅè?

mercy

N

'mercy'

(15) (Elicitation)

dèḅélḅ?

love

N

'love'

(16) (Elicitation)

dèθèt^hè?

anger

N

'anger'

Abstract nouns in Geba are formed by adding the prefix *dè* to verbs or adjectives and thereby changing their word class into nouns. Abstract nouns cannot be used with a count classifier or any container. They are uncountable nouns.

The evidence that the abstract nouns cannot be used with classifiers or any measurable container is shown in example (17).

(17) (Elicitation)

*dèbélò? lwì dèbélò?

love four love

N NUM N

'four kinds of love'

There are some abstract concepts which do not have a native Geba word. To express such concepts, a word with a similar meaning or a negated antonym is used. For example, the word 'hate' does not exist in Geba. therefore, native speakers use a word with a similar meaning, *θet^hè?* 'angry', or they might use the negative usage, *tā wè nō?* 'not good'.

Another example is the concept 'smart'. As there is no specific term for 'smart' in Geba, native speakers sometimes borrow *ā p^hjā? là?* 'smart' or *āp^hjì?* 'well-become' from Burmese or use native words which have the most similar meaning. Borrowed words function as single words as in *ā?mòswè* 'brain run', or *ā plā?* 'polite or well-behaved', or *sāp^hrē? t^hāsāp^hrē? là?* 'active'.

3.1.2 Verbs

Different kinds of verbs are widely used in Geba to express activity, state, accomplishment, or achievement. Verbs appear in Geba as main verbs, auxiliary verbs, postverbal auxiliaries, copulas, and directional particles. The following section will discuss the syntactic structure and the functions of verbs in Geba.

3.1.2.1 Main verbs

Main verbs in Geba may be the only verb in a verb phrase. Examples (18), (19), (20), and (21) show main verbs in Geba.

In example (18), the verb *ʔə* 'stay' is a monosyllabic full verb occurring as the predicate.

(18) (Elicitation)

maùŋ ʔə ʃi

Maung stay house

PROP V N

Maung stays home/ Maung stayed home/ Maung is staying home.

Examples (19), (20), and (21) also show that the monosyllabic full verbs *dè* 'hit', *swè* 'run', and *ʔà* 'eat' optionally function as predicates in Geba without additional verbal particles.

(19) (Elicitation)

maùŋ dè zə

Maung hit Zaw

PROP V PROP

Maung hits Zaw.

(20) (Elicitation)

maùŋ swè dó tʃaún

Maung run to school

PROP V PREP N

Maung runs to school.

(21) (Elicitation)

maùŋ ʔà dé dó s̄à pàʔ

Maung eat thing with 3S father

PROP V N CONJ PRN N

Maung eats with his father.

3.1.2.2 Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs occur with the main verb to form a complex verb phrase. Auxiliary verbs cannot be the head which provides the main semantic content of the verb phrase and they cannot occur alone without the main verb. Two kinds of auxiliaries, pre-verb auxiliaries and post-verb auxiliaries, occur in Geba. Auxiliaries are a closed minor class but discussed here with verbs since some of them are also verbs. In this thesis, the term auxiliary is used for any verbal particles that are not full verbs.

3.1.2.2.1 Preverbal auxiliaries

In Geba, preverbal auxiliaries occur before the main verb. *k̄ə* 'will', and negation '*t̄ə...n̄ɔʔ*' are preverbal auxiliaries occurring in Geba.

Preverbal auxiliary *k̄ə*

The auxiliary *k̄ə* 'will' always precedes the main verb. In example (22), the verb *θábò* 'sing' occurs with the auxiliary verb *k̄ə* 'will' to form a verb phrase.

(22) (Elicitation)

maùŋ k̄ə θábò d̄ə

Maung will sing thing

PROP AUX V N

Maung will sing.

The auxiliary verb *k̄ə* 'will' functions as a future marking to express an incomplete action that will be done in the future. Example (23) shows the incomplete action (irrealis) construction in Geba.

(23) (Elicitation)

màbé tã l̥é nò jã kã lé tʰà dɔ́ máŋdɛ́lé
next one month that 1S will go ascend to Mandalay
ADV NUM N DEM PRN AUX V V PREP PROP

Next month, I will go to Mandalay.

Preverbal negative auxiliary 'tã....nɔʔ'

In Geba, negative particles can be found as the discontinuous morphemes 'tã....nɔʔ'. In this type of discontinuous morpheme structure, the first negative particle can be found as preverbal auxiliary before the main verb and the other always in final position. Example (24) shows the discontinuous negative structure of the preverbal auxiliary 'tã....nɔʔ'.

(24) (Elicitation)

əp̥isəp̥ʰòʔ tã l̥é dɔ́ tʃaúŋ nɔʔ
child not go to school not
N NEG V PREP N NEG

The child does not go to school.

The negation of the copula in Geba is the same as negation of a main verb. It is a discontinuous morpheme, the first part of which precedes the copula and the second part of which follows the predicate in final clause position. Example (25) shows a copula verb in Geba.

(25) (Elicitation)

sè mī sērà
3S be teacher
PRN COP N

He is a teacher.

Examples (26) and (27) show the syntactic structure of the negation of a copula and possession in Geba.

(26) (Elicitation)

sè t̃ mī s̃rà ñ?
3S not be teacher not
PRN NEG COP N NEG

He is not a teacher.

(27) (Elicitation)

j̃ t̃wì t̃ ʔò d̃ s̃ ʔò ñ?
1S dog not have to 3S have not
PRN N NEG V PREP PRN V NEG

He doesn't have my dog.

Example (28) is an ungrammatical structure of negative copula in Geba.

(28) (Elicitation)

*sè t̃ mī ñ? s̃rà
3S not be not teacher
PRN NEG COP NEG N

He is not a teacher.

In summary, two kinds of auxiliaries *k̃*, and negative '*t̃...ñ?*' appear before the verb and are called preverbal auxiliaries.

3.1.2.2.2 Postverbal auxiliaries

Geba has several post verbal auxiliaries. *m̃*, in otherwise unmarked sentences, expresses that, the action has already happened. The aspect marker *w̃* 'still' shows the action in progress. They occur as postverbal auxiliaries. The directional verbs are also treated as postverbal auxiliaries.

Postverbal auxiliary *mó*

The postverbal auxiliary *mó* appears after the main verb and is denoted as a postverbal auxiliary. Example (29) shows the postverbal auxiliaries *mó* indicating a completed action.

(29) (Elicitation)

maùŋ lè **mó** bálè
Maung go AUX where
PROP V AUX QW

Where did Maung go?

Postverbal auxiliary *wè*

Another postverbal auxiliary marking in Geba is expressed by adding *wè* 'still' to the main verb. Example (30) shows the imperfective structure in Geba with a stative verb.

(30) GB 9.5(1)

sā ʔò **wè** dó máŋdǎlé
3S stay still at Mandalay
PRN V ASP PREP PROP

He is still in Mandalay.

The same postverbal auxiliary *wè* is used with active verbs to form the progressive structure in Geba. Example (31) shows the progressive aspect construction in Geba.

(31) (Elicitation)

sā swè **wè**
3S run still
PRN V ASP

He is still running.

Example (32) shows another example of aspect marking with an active verb.

(32) (Elicitation)

wè zú wè
rain fall still
N V ASP

It is still raining.

Another kind of collocation is the emphatic marker *p^háθà?* with *wè*. In this case, the aspect marker is intensified and indicates that the agent is doing something indeed.

Example (33) shows the collocation *p^háθà?* and *wè* in a transitive clause.

(33) (Elicitation)

maùŋ ʔà dí p^háθà? wè
Maung eat rice PRT still
PROP V N PRT ASP

Maung is still eating rice.

Postverbal auxiliary *zà*

Geba has several mood and mode markers that occur in the verb phrase. One such modality verb is *zà* 'can/ able to'. It follows after the main verb to form a postverbal auxiliary in Geba. Example (34) shows that the modality verb 'able or can' following the verb.

(34) (Elicitation)

jē sàt^hi zà wè sé
1S see can still 3S
PRN V AUX ASP PRN

I still can see him.

Postverbal auxiliaries as directional verbs

Directional verbs in Geba can be seen as postverbal auxiliary verbs. The following examples (35) and (36) show directional verbs in Geba.

A directional verb can also function as a main verb. In example (38), the directional verb occurs as a main verb.

(35) (Elicitation)

ḃètǎḃènǎ? sǎ tʰà dó jàngòn
 probably 3S ascend to Yangon
 ADV PRN V PREP PROP

Probably, he will go to Yangon.

In example (36), the directional verb *tʰà* 'ascend' follows the main verb to show the direction and the movement of the agent is ascending.

(36) (Elicitation)

ḃètǎḃènǎ sǎ lè tʰà dó jàngòn
 probably 3S go ascend to Yangon
 ADV PRN V V PREP PROP

Probably, he will go to Yangon.

In example (37), the directional verb *gè* follows the main verb to show the direction is reversed and redone by the agent.

(37) GA 24(1)

maòn dè là gè ǎnè
 Maung hit descend back himself
 PROP V V V REFLX

Maung hit himself.

As seen in the above examples, the directional verbs in Geba show the movement and the direction of the agent. Syntactically, the directional verbs can follow the main verb and they function as postverbal auxiliary to deepen the meaning of the main verb.

Postverbal auxiliary as adverbs

Adverbs are words which modify the meaning of a verb. Typically, adverbs follow the main verb and function as postverbal auxiliary in Geba. Example (38) shows the adverb *əplá* 'quickly' modifying a verb.

(38) (Elicitation)

jā hē? **əplá** lɔ
1S walk quickly FP
PRN V ADV FP

I walk quickly.

3.1.2.2.3 Preverbal and Postverbal auxiliary *ɛ̀*

Another kind of auxiliary in Geba is *ɛ̀*. *ɛ̀* 'have to', occur as both preverbal and post verbal auxiliaries. The preauxiliary verb *ɛ̀* in Geba functions as the auxiliary verb 'have to' or 'should' which has a hortative sense. The word order for the modal sense 'have to' would be 'V AUX' while 'should' has the word order 'AUX V'. Example (39) shows *ɛ̀* as the modal verb 'have to' in Geba.

(39) WL 005

jā mē **ɛ̀** pòmū gārē kʰò tā plà
1S work have to woman organization leader one time
PRN V AUX N N N NUM CLF

I had to work as a woman group leader one time.

Example (40) shows *ɛ̀* as the modal auxiliary verb 'should' in Geba.

(40) DB 029

tā plà nò kā **ɛ̀** ʔà sàdē sàdē
one time that will have to eat how much how much
NUM CLF DEM AUX AUX V ADV ADV

How much we should eat for one time.

In example (41), the modal auxiliary verb *ǝè* 'must' is used for giving command or strong advice.

(41) (Elicitation)

k^húdǝnì nǝ ǝè lé t^hà tǝáúŋ
 today 2S have to go ascend school
 N PRN AUX V V N

You must go to school today.

Summary of preverbal and postverbal auxiliaries

The following table shows the summary of preverbal and postverbal auxiliaries which precede and follow the main verb in Geba.

preverbal auxiliary	main verb	postverbal auxiliary
future marker <i>kǝ</i> 'will'		
auxiliary <i>ǝè</i> 'have to'		auxiliary <i>ǝè</i> 'have to'
negation <i>tǝ...nǝ?</i> 'not'		
		past particle <i>mó</i> 'did'
		aspect marker <i>wè</i> 'still'
		modal verb <i>zà</i> 'able/can'
		directional verb <i>t^hà</i> 'ascend', <i>là</i> 'descend'
		adverbs <i>plà</i> 'quickly', <i>ǝàdǝ</i> 'slowly', <i>ǝǝrò</i> 'quietly'

Table 12 Preverbal and postverbal auxiliaries in Geba

3.1.2.3 Copula

Copula verbs are defined as those verbs which link a noun phrase and a non-verb predicate. In example (42), the Geba copula *mǝ* is shown linking two noun phrases. *mǝ* never takes an adverb or aspect marker in an equative construction.

(42) (Elicitation)

jǎ hì mī nǎ hì
1S house be 2S house
PRN N COP PRN N

My house is your house.

The following example (43) shows the ungrammatical structure *mī* with aspect marker.

(43) (Elicitation)

*jǎ hì mī nǎ hì wè
1S house be 2S house still
PRN N COP PRN N ASP

My house is your house.

In example (44), the copula *mī* joins a pronoun and a common noun.

(44) (Elicitation)

sè mī sǎrà
3S be teacher
PRN COP N

He is a teacher.

In example (45), another kind of copula *ʔǎ*, related to the verb 'live' and 'stay', joins a noun phrase and a prepositional phrase in a locative construction. This kind of construction can take adverb or aspect markers.

(45) (Elicitation)

jǎ t^hwì ʔǎ dǎ sè ʔǎ nù
1S dog stay at 3S have FP
PRN N V PREP PRN V FP

My dog is with him.

3.1.3 Adjectives

Adjectives in Geba modify nouns and, typically, the adjective follows the noun. However, in some cases, adjectives behave similarly to verbs. Thus, it is not clear if adjectives form their own class or are subclass of verbs. While adjectives have some characteristics of verbs, there is still good evidence that adjectives form a distinct word class in Geba.

Jones (1961:16) describes adjectives as verbs which attributive to nouns or adjectival verbs which follows verbs.

"Verbs in Karen languages are syntactically free form. When they occur in an attributive construction with a headnoun, they follow after the noun. Adjectival verbs immediately follow primary verbs and it is attributed to the verb. The secondary verb is situated in final position in verb constructions and they are attributed to the entire construction."

The following section will discuss how adjectives are similar and dissimilar to verbs.

3.1.3.1 Features adjectives have in common with verbs

The functions of adjectives which are similar to verbs are discussed below. In Geba, adjectives are negated in the same way as verbs. The two examples (46a) and (46b) show the affirmative and negative construction with adjectives.

(46a) (Elicitation)

p ^h ò	ājò	nù	ālé
flower	this	this	red
N	DEM	DEM	ADJ

This flower is red.

(46b) (Elicitation)

p^hò əjò nù tǎ lé nǒ?
flower this this not red not
N DEM DEM NEG ADJ NEG

This flower is not red.

Examples (47a) and (47b) show the intransitive verb *swè* 'run' and its negated form. In both cases negation is structurally the same.

(47a) (Elicitation)

písəp^hò əmìk^hó dǎ bwè swè
child man one CLF run
N N NUM CLF V

The boy runs.

(47b) (Elicitation)

písəp^hò əmìk^hó dǎ bwè ətǎ swè nǒ?
child man one CLF not run not
N N NUM CLF NEG V NEG

The boy does not run.

Another similarity is that adjectives can be modified by the aspect marker *wè* 'still' that normally modifies verbs as in example (48).

(48) (Elicitation)

hì əjò θé wè
house this new still
N DEM ADJ ASP

This house is still new.

Example (49) is the aspect marker *wè* 'still' that modifies verbs.

(49) (Elicitation)

sā swè wè

3S run still

PRN V ASP

He is still running.

Thirdly, both main verbs and adjectives in Geba also occur alone as the predicate of a clause, describing the subject of the clause; there is no auxiliary or copula verb. Example (50) shows the subject and the predicate, which is an adjective in a stative clause, and the noun phrase is followed by the adjective.

(50) (Elicitation)

jā θèt^hè?

1S angry

PRN ADJ

I am angry.

Example (51) shows the subject and a predicate, which is a motion verb *swè* 'run', where the subject is followed by the main verb.

(51) (Elicitation)

maŋ swè

Maung run

PROP V

Maung runs.

3.1.3.2 Features that separate adjectives from verbs

There is also evidence that adjectives are distinct from verbs. Inside the noun phrase, both adjectives and verbs can modify a noun. Examples (52) and (53) show how adjectives and verbs function attributively inside a noun phrase. The fact that the classifier follows *əθípà* 'black' shows that this modification is inside noun phrase. In a noun phrase, adjectives and verbs typically follow the noun.

(52) (Elicitation)

t^hwì ǝθípã tǝ dó ǝnò nù
 dog black one CLF that this
 N ADJ NUM CLF DEM DEM

'that one black dog'

Usually, verbs directly modify the noun. In example (53), the verb modifies the preceding noun but requires the prefix ǝ. Without adding ǝ the result is ungrammatical and the same is true of adjectives as seen in (52).

(53) (Elicitation)

t^hwì ǝswè tǝ dó ǝnò nù sàt^hì t^hòp^hò? tǝ ǝè
 dog run one CLF that TOP see bird one CLF
 N V NUM CLF DEM TOP V N NUM CLF

That one dog (which) runs sees the bird.

Example (54) shows that it is ungrammatical if a relativizer is included between the noun and verb and the same is true of adjectives.

(54) (Elicitation)

*t^hwì dǝ ǝswè tǝ dó ǝnò nù sàt^hì t^hòp^hò? tǝ ǝè
 dog which run one CLF that TOP see bird one CLF
 N REL V NUM CLF DEM TOP V N NUM CLF

That dog which runs see the bird.

However, more than one adjective can occur in a noun phrase, while verbs are limited to one. Example (55) shows the positions of multiple adjectives in a noun phrase in Geba. Also, the prefix ǝ is required to attach adjectives.

(55) (Elicitation)

t^hwì ǝlé ǝdǝ θó dó
 dog red big three CLF
 N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF

'the three red big dogs'

Example (56) shows that it is ungrammatical for two consecutive verbs to appear followed by a number and classifier.

(56) (Elicitation)

*t^hwì swè ʔà θó dǒ
 dog run eat three CLF
 N V V NUM CLF

'dog runs eats three'

If a verb and adjective occur together, it would be ungrammatical to omit the relativizer which normally occurs before the verb and also the position of adjective appear after verb as in example (57).

(57) (Elicitation)

*t^hwì əswè ələ θó dǒ
 dog run red three CLF
 N V ADJ NUM CLF

'the three run red dogs'

If an adjective and verb appear consecutively, the relativizer *dǒ* should appear before the verb to be more natural in the sentence. Example (58) shows that the relativizer is needed in this kind of construction in Geba

(58) (Elicitation)

t^hwì əθípà dǒ əswè θó dǒ nù sàt^hì t^hòp^hòʔ tǎ ʔè
 dog black which run three CLF TOP see bird one CLF
 N ADJ REL V NUM CLF TOP V N NUM CLF

The three running black dogs see the bird.

The next evidence is from comparative and superlative constructions. The comparative degree suffix marker *-dǎ/í* directly follows the adjective in comparative constructions.

Example (59) shows the comparative constructions with an adjective.

(59) GB 12.4(1)

maùŋ tʰó-dǎlí zò

Maung tall-er Zaw

PROP ADJ-SUF PROP

Maung is taller than Zaw.

For verbs, to form the comparative structure, another adverb *ʔəʔéʔ* optionally can precede the comparative morpheme *dǎlí* as in example (60).

(60) (Elicitation)

maùŋ ʈəhɛ ʔəʔéʔ-dǎlí zò

Maung know **much-er** Zaw

PROP V ADV-SUF PROP

Maung knows more than Zaw.

It is also natural to construct the sentence without *ʔəʔéʔ* as in example (61).

(61) (Elicitation)

maùŋ ʈəhɛ-dǎlí zò

Maung know-er Zaw

PROP V-SUF PROP

Maung knows more than Zaw.

Adjectives can also occur only with suffix *-gǎdú* in the superlative construction but verbs need an adverb *ʔəʔéʔ* to function in the superlative suffix *-gǎdú* construction. Example (62) shows the superlative structure of adjectives in Geba without adverb *ʔəʔéʔ*.

(62) GB 12.5(1)

dó dó bú nò maùŋ tʰó-gǎdù lǎ

at village in this Maung tall-est FP

PREP N LOCN DEM PROP ADJ-SUF FP

Maung is the tallest in the village.

But verbs need the adverb /ʔəʔə/ to come before the superlative marker -*gə́dú* in a superlative construction as in example (63).

(63) (Elicitation)

dó dó bú nò maùŋ ʈə́hɛ /ʔəʔə-gə́dú/ lɔ̃
 at village in that Maung know **much-est** FP
 PREP N LOCN DEM PROP V **ADV-SUF** FP

In the village, Maung knows much.

3.1.3.3 Summary

As can be seen above, adjectives seem to share some characteristics of verbs especially with regards to negation and aspect markers. Also, both main verbs and adjectives occur as the predicate of a clause without auxiliaries. But adjectives also have distinct characteristics not shared with verbs. The position and structure of adjectives and verbs in a noun phrase, the prefix *ə́*, the position of a relativizer, the serial construction of attributive adjectives and verbs, and the comparative and superlative construction show strong evidence that adjectives exist in Geba as a distinct word class. Table (13) shows the comparison of adjectives and verbs.

	adjective	verb
negation	+	+
aspect marking	+	+
as predicates without copula	+	+
attribute to noun phrase	+	+
<i>ə́</i> -prefix	+	+
Can precede another adjective modifier	+	-
Follow another adjective without /dó/	+	odd
comparative construction with /ʔəʔə/	never	optional
superlative construction with /ʔəʔə/	never	always

Table 13 The comparison of adjectives and verbs
in Geba

According to the above findings, there is evidence that adjectives belong to a definable class which is separate from verbs.

3.1.4 Adverbs

Adverbs are words which modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Typically, adverbs follow verbs.

Henderson 1967:171 states:

There are three tones in Bwe; high level, mid level and low level. Tonal alternation, which can occur together with vowel alternation, alternation of the initial consonant, or final consonant alternation, is found in reduplicative or repetitive expressions. Some similarities between Bwe phonology and syntax structures and Geba are found.

Jones (1961:21) states that adverbials occur in a special initial position in extended constructions.

Example (64) shows the adverb *əplá* 'quickly' modifying a verb.

(64) (Elicitation)

jā	hē?	əplá	lō
1S	walk	quickly	FP
PRN	V	ADV	FP

Maung walks quickly.

Sometimes adverbs of movement modify by using a reduplicated form. In example (65), the reduplication expresses the feeling that the speaker is emphasizing the action he is doing or he was doing. It is noted that the first adverb has low tone and the second adverb has high tone.

(65) (Elicitation)

jā hē? plà plá
1S walk quickly quickly
PRN V ADV ADV

Maung walks more quickly.

ʃò? 'very' is used to intensify the manner of action expressed in the phrase as in example (66).

(66) (Elicitation)

jā hē? plá ʃò?
1S walk quickly very
PRN V ADV ADJ

I walk very quickly.

Sometimes adverbs do not directly follow the adjective, verb, or adverb they modify. In this case they are associated with the word they modify by another preposition in order to emphasize the action. Example (67) shows the adverb *əplá* which modifies *hē?* 'walk'. Its association is marked by the preposition *dó*. The adverb follows after the verb but if it is connected by the preposition *dó*⁴ it emphasizes the manner.

(67) (Elicitation)

jā hē? dó əplá lā
1S walk with quickly FP
PRN V CONJ ADV FP

I walk quickly/ I am walking quickly.

tə́k^hátə́k^hà is another adverb that occurs as a reduplicated form. Example (68) shows it as a negative reduplicated adverbial. It is noted that tone changes occur in reduplicated form.

⁴ *dó* not only denotes 'to' but also as 'with' when it is used to indicate the manner.

(68) BH 004

sā dā dē sā θārē tā dō tāk^hātāk^hà nō?
 3S one hit 3S horse not CLF never not
 PRN NUM V PRN N NEG CLF ADV NEG

He never beats his horse.

Adverbial elaborate expressions also appear as reduplicated forms where the first two syllables and the last two syllables are the same (i.e.AABB). Examples (69) and (70) show an adverb of elaboration in Geba.

(69) GB 15.7(4)

maùŋ swè bābās^hēs^hē tā plà nò ālādās^hó? sē
 Maung run difficulty one time this tired 3S
 PROP V ADV NUM CLF DEM V PRN

The harder Maung ran, the more tired he got.

(70) GB 16.2(3)

maùŋ ʔò fī bù jòjòjàjà lō
 Maung stay house in always FP
 PROP V N PREP ADV FP

Maung always stays home.

Adverb intensifiers occur after the adjective. In example (71), the adverb *pì?* intensifies the preceding adjective *āθípà* 'black'.

(71) (Elicitation)

t^hwì dō ākāmī āθípà pì?
 dog which tail black really
 N REL N ADJ INTS

'The dog with the jet-black tail'

Several varieties of adverb constructions are found in Geba. As can be seen above, adverbs in Geba occur as reduplication, intensifier, elaboration, and are sometimes linked by *dō*.

3.2 Minor word classes

Minor word classes in Geba form closed classes. The closed classes, pronouns, demonstratives, prepositions and locator nouns, numerals, classifiers, and conjunctions, are discussed in this section.

3.2.1 Pronouns

Pronouns are a small closed class of words which may function as the subject or the object in a clause. Pronouns can also function as arguments in prepositional phrases, and some pronoun forms occur as possessors in noun phrases. In Geba, pronouns play an important role by providing continuity and brevity. No gender or class distinctions are relevant for pronouns. The inclusive and exclusive distinction is only for emphasis and occurs only in first person plural pronouns. There are also reflexive pronouns and reciprocal pronouns. Pronouns are marked for person (1st, 2nd, and 3rd). Number is also marked in 1st and 2nd person pronouns. Table (14) shows the different pronouns for different functions in the clause or phrase in Geba.

	Number		Function			
			Subject/free pronoun	Object	Possessor	reflexives
1 st Person	Singular		jā/jè	jé	jā	jānè
	Plural	Exclusive	wà	wà	wà	
		Inclusive	kā	ké	kā	
2 nd Person	singular		nā	né	nā	nānè
	plural		θí			
3 rd Person			sā/ā/sè	sé	sā/ā	sā/ā nè

Tabel 14 pronoun systems in Geba

According to the above table, the 1st person singular pronouns *jā* and *jè* appear in the subject position. However, they are distinguished in that they appear

before different verbs. The 1st person pronoun *jā* appears in the subject position preceding a main verb, but *jè* only occurs the subject position before the copula particle *mī* 'be.' The consistent changes in tone and the vowel quality from subject to object occur as a change from mid or low tone to high tone except the 1st person plural exclusive and the 2nd person plural form.

Example (72) exemplifies the first person singular pronoun in the subject positions.

(72) WL 005

jā 6é1ò dè0ā6ù0ā6é

1S love religion

PRN V N

I love religion.

Example (73) shows the appearance of *jè* before *mī*.

(73) (Elicitation)

jè mī sārà

1S be teacher

PRN COP N

I am a teacher.

For the object position, the first person singular pronoun appears as the pronoun *jé*. Example (74) shows the first person singular pronoun in object position.

(74) WL 011

sā ʔì jé dēk^hòdēʔá

3S give 1S strength

PRN V PRN N

He gives me strength.

The 1st person singular possessive pronoun appears in the subject position as *jə̃* in (75).

(75) WL 001

jə̃ pàʔ əmí mī ʔúsaŋtʰoŋ
 1S father name be U San Tun
 PRN N N COP PROP

My father's name is U San Tun.

Sometimes both of the first person singular pronouns appear together in emphatic or topic sentence initial position. In this case, the first person singular pronoun has a tone change from low to high, and the possessive pronoun follows it.

Example (76) shows the two first person singular pronouns appearing consecutively in subject position to focus the speaker's emphatics.

(76) WL 001

jé jə̃ mō əmí mī də̃ʔéθaŋ
 1S 1S mother name be Daw Aye Than
 PRN PRN N N COP PROP

My mother's name is Daw Aye Than.

First person plural pronouns in Geba can show inclusion or exclusion. The discussion of inclusive and exclusive pronouns will be presented in section 3.2.1.1.

For the second person singular pronoun, *nə̃* occurs in the subject position and possessor position.

Example (77) shows the second person singular pronoun in Geba.

(77) GB 18.10(1)

maùŋ nā mè dānē

Maung 2S work INTER

PROP PRN V ILL.F

Maung, what are you doing?

The second person possessive pronoun is followed by the noun in example (78).

(78) (Elicitation)

maùŋ lè dó nā lè bú

Maung go to 2S field in

PROP V PREP PRN N LOCN

Maung, go to your field.

For third person, *sā*, *sē* and *ā* are distinguished by how they function as arguments of verbs. There is no masculine, feminine, singular or plural form for this pronoun class. Like first person singular pronouns, *sā* appears before the main verb and as a possessive pronoun while *sē* precedes the copula particle *mī* 'be'. But this distinction is not as consistent as in the first person singular pronoun; both *sē* and *sā* can be found before *mī* 'be'.

Example (79) shows the third person singular pronoun in the subject position.

(79) GB 10.3(5)

sā dō jē bjā dā wē lē

3S tell 1S person one CLF go

PRN V PRN N NUM CLF V

He told me that the man went.

In example (80), *sē*, the third person pronoun appears before copula.

(80) (Elicitation)

sè mī sārà
3S be teacher
PRN COP N

He is a teacher.

In example (81), *sā* appears as a co-referential of the third person singular pronoun.

(81) BH 004

sā pīkó dā wè nò sā bélò sā θārè? tō dó sā
3S young brother one CLF that 3S love 3S horse one CLF 3S
PRN N NUM CLF DEM PRN V PRN N NUM CLF PRN

Error!Error!

His younger brother loves his horse so he feeds well.

In Geba, *ā* often appears as co-referential with proper nouns and *sā* often appears as a third person singular pronoun. Example (82) shows the appearance of *ā* as a possessive noun and as a coreferential of a proper noun.

(82) (Elicitation)

zò lè dó ā-lè bù
Zaw go to his-field in
PROP V PREP POS-N PREP

Zaw goes to his field.

It is impossible for *ā* to appear in the subject position. Example (83) shows the ungrammatical structure of *ā* appearing as a subject sentence initial position.

(83) (Elicitation)

*ə mī dɔp^háǎk^hò ənè lɔ̃
3S be village-chief himself FP
PRN COP N REFLX FP

He is the village chief.

It is ungrammatical for a proper noun to appear in the sentence initial position in Geba and followed by ə. Example (84) shows the ungrammatical structure of a proper noun appearing in sentence initial position followed by ə.

(84) (Elicitation)

*zò ə mī dɔp^háǎk^hò ənè lɔ̃
Zaw 3S be village-chief himself FP
PROP PRN COP N REFLX FP

Zaw is the village chief.

Therefore, ə can only be used as a possessive pronoun.

The 3rd person pronoun form can be singular or plural depending on its antecedent noun. Examples (85) and (86) show the use of the third person pronoun in both plural and singular contexts. The quantifier *də̀là* 'plural' is attached to the antecedent nouns.

(85) (Elicitation)

əpísəp^hò də̀là nò tǎ ʔò dɔ̃ hì nɔ̃? sè lé dɔ̃ tʃaúŋ nò
child many that not stay at house not 3S go to school FP
N QNT DEM NEG V PREP N NEG PRN V PREP N FP

The children are not at home. They went to school.

(86) (Elicitation)

əpísəp^hò nò tǎ ʔò dɔ̃ hì nɔ̃? sè lè dɔ̃ tʃaúŋ nò
child that not stay at house not 3S go to school FP
N DEM NEG V PREP N NEG PRN V PREP N FP

The child is not at home. He went to school.

The above sentences show that both 3rd person plural and singular are referred to by the same pronoun but the antecedant determines the meaning of pronoun.

Resumptive pronoun constructions also occur in Geba. In these constructions, pronouns replace noun phrases and follow the noun phrase with which they are co-referential. The noun phrase introduces the participant in an emphatic way as a topic, and, then, the pronoun resumes the reference and, together with the verb, shows what the participant does. Example (87) shows a resumptive pronoun occurring before *bélò* 'love'. This is also an appositive noun phrase structure.

(87) BH 004

sā	pīkó	dā	wè	nò	sā	bélò	sā	θārè?	tā	dó
3S	young brother	one	CLF	that	3S	love	3S	horse	one	CLF
PRN	N	NUM	CLF	DEM	PRN	V	PRN	N	NUM	CLF

His younger brother, he loves his horse.

3.2.1.1 Inclusive and exclusive pronouns

Inclusive and exclusive pronouns are used in Geba for first person plural form only. If a person wants to include the person spoken to (addressee) *kā* is used while *wā* is used to exclude the addressee.

Examples (88) and (89) show the inclusive pronouns structure where two siblings are talking to each other.

(88) (Elicitation)

āmò	bwè	nì	kè?	tākò?	dā	dé	jó
his-mother	buy	for	1Pin	bread	one	thing	this
POS-N	V	CONJ	PRN	N	NUM	N	DEM

Mother bought us this bread.

(89) (Elicitation)

kā ʔà fè tākòʔ dā dé nò
1Pex eat have to bread one thing that
PRN V AUX N NUM N DEM

We have to eat that bread.

Example (90) shows two students asking their teacher to give them a story book using the first person plural exclusive pronoun.

(90) (Elicitation)

nā ʔì zà wè wà dèlèplòsésè hà
2S give can still 1Pex story book INTER
PRN V AUX AUX PRN N ILL.F

Can you give us (and not you) a story book?

kā can also be a generic plural pronoun and *wà* can be used to specify the speakers. In example (91), the narrator is explaining how she puts things in a jar. In this case, *kā* appears instead of *wà*.

(91) RW 005

kā bēni gè m̩wè bú tã plà
1Pex put back earthen jar in one time
PRN V V N LOCN NUM CLF

'After we put back in the jar'

In example (92), *wà* is used to emphasize the speaker.

(92) WW 003

wà ʈoŋ pís^hà? mī gā jó
1P spend money be like this
PRN V N COP PREP DEM

We use money like this.

3.2.2.2 Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns

Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are also found in Geba. The reflexive pronoun is formed by adding the suffix *nè* to any of the 1st, 2nd or 3rd person pronouns. *l̥wá* functions as the reciprocal pronoun. There is no reflexive marker on the verb. For reflexive verbs, the subject and the object are co-referential as indicated by the presence of *nè*.

Examples (93) and (94) show how the reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are used in Geba. In this case there is no reflexive marker on the verb. The subject and the object are co-referential as indicated by the presence of *nè*.

(93) GB 14.4(1)

jā dè gè jānè
1S hit back myself
PRN V V REFLX

I hit myself.

(94) (Elicitation)

sā dè gè sānè
3S hit back himself
PRN V V REFLX

He hits himself.

As there is no specific third person reflexive pronoun, Geba speakers often use the noun *bjà* 'people' to form the third person plural reflexive pronouns as in example (95).

(95) (Elicitation)

bjà dè gè bjànè
person hit back themselves
N V V REFLX

They hit themselves.

For the reciprocal, the form *lɔ́wá* 'each other' is used. More than one participant is found in this kind of construction. Example (96) shows the reciprocal construction in Geba.

(96) GB 14.5(1)

jè kī maùŋ làdè lɔ́wá
 1S and Maung hit each other
 PRN CONJ PROP V RECP

Maung and I hit each other.

3.2.2 Demonstratives

Demonstratives in Geba are used to point out a particular thing or individual which is near or far from the speaker. The first set is the proximate *jò* 'this' and distal *nò* 'that'. Sometimes, for plural demonstratives 'these' or 'those' the suffix morpheme *dɔ́lɔ́* is optionally used. Demonstratives normally modify a noun in a noun phrase, and typically, they follow the noun.

In example (97), the demonstrative *nò* 'that' follows the noun phrase.

(97) (Elicitation)

tʰwì tɔ́ dɔ́ nò ɔ́kámí θípà?
 dog one CLF this tail black
 N NUM CLF DEM N ADJ

That dog with a black tail.

Sometimes two demonstratives occur in a noun phrase to specify or emphasize the head noun as in example (98). The first demonstrative has the prefix *ɔ́* which follows the head noun and the second without *ɔ́* which follows the noun phrase.

(98) (Elicitation)

t^hwì ãnò tã dó nò ?ò kīdǝ? ãkámī θípà?
dog that one CLF this have with tail black
N DEM NUM CLF DEM V CONJ N ADJ

That dog is with a black tail.

In some cases the demonstrative occurs without a head noun and comes before the copular verb *mī* to function as a subject. In this case, it takes the nominalizing prefix *ã* and is known as deictic pronoun. Example (99) shows the demonstrative which occurs before the copula verb in a clause.

(99) (Elicitation)

ãjò mī hì dã wà
this be house one CLF
DEM COP N NUM CLF

This is my house.

3.2.3 Classifiers

Classifiers in Geba occur as bound morphemes preceded by a number. The classifier used depends on the noun that is the head of the noun phrase. There are two kinds of classifiers: sortal and measure. Sortal classifiers are the typical classifiers and are semantically based. Measure classifiers measure the nouns using a container, weight, height, group, or amount.

In table (15), a partial list of the sortal classifiers is presented.

Geba	semantic (sortal)	example
<i>bwē(wē)</i>	human	king, woman, man
<i>dō</i>	mammals, rodents, large objects	elephant, dog, horse
<i>bó</i>	long	tree, pole, snake, river
<i>dō</i>	village	village, water melon
<i>k^ho</i>	clump	grass
<i>mù</i>	tree	tree
<i>wà</i>	house	house
<i>bè</i>	generic	grate
<i>kl̥</i>	cylindrical	corn
<i>sòlò</i>	kind	curry (dish)
<i>mò</i>	kind	curry (kind)
<i>k^hō</i>	vehicle	bus
<i>bú</i>	hole	snake hole
<i>dé</i>	generic	unspecify

Table 15 Sortal classifiers in Geba

Table (16) lists measure classifiers with examples.

Geba	semantic (measure)	example
<i>kwéʔ/səlɔʔ</i>	cup	water
<i>tùʔ</i>	sepecific term for measuring rice and beans etc.	rice, beans etc.
<i>k^hò</i>	non-human object things	sandals, bamboo, bunch of grass
<i>gəbò</i>	pot	alcohol
<i>klē</i>	small-long	log
<i>dǒ</i>	bag-like	bag
<i>bɔ́</i>	big-long	pole
<i>klè</i>	roll	short section of string
<i>bɔ̀</i>	roll	long piece of string
<i>k^hwè</i>	roll	ball of string

Table 16 Measure classifiers in Geba

Sometimes more than one classifier appears in order to express an extended meaning such as 'each' or 'never'. Example (100) shows more than one classifier in the clause. The classifiers *wè* for 'person' and *dǒ* for 'animal' appear in order to express the meaning that there is more than one participant and to form a distributed quantifier phrase.

(100) BH 003

sā ʔò kīdɔʔ sǎ θǎrèʔ dǎ b(wè) tǎ dǒ lǎ
 3S have with 3S horse one CLF one CLF FP
 PRN V CONJ PRN N NUM CLF NUM CLF FP

They have one horse each.

The negative adverb form 'never' also occurs by using the number and classifier. Example (101) shows more than one classifier being used to express the meaning 'never'. *tǎ* can also be a negative form. The gloss is ambiguous in this elaborate expression.

(101) BH 004

sā dā dè sā θārè tā dó [tā kʰá tā kʰà]
3S one hit 3S horse one CLF one/not time one/not time
PRN NUM V PRN N NUM CLF NUM/NEG CLF NUM/NEG CLF
nò?
not
NEG

He never beats his horse.

Example (102) shows the number and the generic classifier used to form a demonstrative.

(102) (Elicitation)

dā dé mī dànè
one thing be INTER
NUM N COP ILL.F

What is this?

Another type of idiomatic classifier is the time adverb form *tā plà*. Example (103) shows this classifier used in an adverb expression meaning 'after'.

(103) RW 005

kā pʰjú ʔó tā plà wákʰàlè
1Pex spread it one time after
PRN V PRN NUM CLF ADV

'After we spread that yeast'

3.2.4 Numerals and Quantifiers

The number system and quantifiers of Geba are discussed in this section. Table (17) shows the numbering system with examples.

number	Geba	example
1	<i>d̥ɔ̃/t̥ɔ̃</i> one NUM	<i>bjà d̥ɔ̃ bwè</i> person one CLF N NUM CLF one person
2	<i>dʒì</i> two NUM	<i>bjà dʒì bwè</i> person two CLF N NUM CLF two person
3	<i>θō</i> three NUM	<i>bjà θó bwè</i> person three CLF N NUM CLF three person
4	<i>lwi</i> four NUM	<i>bjà lwi bwè</i> person four CLF N NUM CLF four person
5	<i>jè</i> five NUM	<i>bjà jè bwè</i> person five CLF N NUM CLF five person
6	<i>θá θòʔ</i> three pair NUM CLF six	<i>bjà əbwè θá θòʔ</i> person CLF three pair N CLF NUM CLF six person
7	<i>θá θòʔ d̥ɔ̃/t̥ɔ̃</i> three pair one NUM CLF NUM seven	<i>bjà θá θòʔ d̥ɔ̃ bwè</i> person three pair one CLF N NUM CLF NUM CLF seven person
8	<i>lwi θòʔ</i> four pair NUM CLF eight	<i>bjà əbwè lwi θòʔ</i> person CLF four pair N CLF NUM CLF eight person

number	Geba	example
9	<i>lwi</i> <i>θòʔ</i> <i>d̥ə/t̥ə</i> eight pair one NUM CLF NUM nine	<i>bjà</i> <i>lwi</i> <i>θòʔ</i> <i>d̥ə</i> <i>bwè</i> person four pair one CLF N NUM CLF NUM CLF nine person
10	<i>ʃiʔ</i> ten NUM ten	<i>bjà</i> <i>əbwè</i> <i>ʃiʔ</i> person CLF ten N CLF NUM ten person
100	<i>d̥ə</i> <i>gəjè</i> one hundred NUM NUM one hundred	<i>bjà</i> <i>əbwè</i> <i>d̥ə</i> <i>gəjè</i> person CLF one hundred N CLF NUM NUM one hundred person
1000	<i>t̥ə</i> <i>tʰɔʔ</i> one thousand NUM NUM One thousand	<i>bjà</i> <i>əbwè</i> <i>t̥ə</i> <i>tʰɔʔ</i> person CLF one thousand N CLF NUM NUM one thousand person

Table 17 Number system in Geba

The number system in Geba is different from other languages. Normally, languages have a specific name for each number from one to ten, but, in Geba, the number six is equivalent to three + Classifier (pairs), where the vowel for 'three' *θò* changes to *θá*, and the number eight is four + Classifier (pairs). The number seven and nine are different still, with seven having the combination of six plus one and nine having the combination of eight plus one.

Example (104), (105), and (106) show the structure of the numbers three, six, and eight in the Geba number system. It is noted that for the number six and eight, the classifier which is attached to ə- is moved before the number. The language seems to not allow the two classifiers to appear side by side.

(104) (Elicitation)

bjà *θó* *bwè*

person three CLF

N NUM CLF

'three people'

(105) (Elicitation)

bjà əbwè θá θò?
 person CLF three pairs
 N CLF NUM N

'six people'

(106) (Elicitation)

bjà əbwè lwì θò?
 person CLF four pairs
 N CLF NUM N

'eight people'

Usually, the classifiers follow the nouns but for the numbers six and eight, and all multi-digit numbers, the classifier precedes the number. Phonological assimilation with the number 'one' regularly occurs.⁵

Examples (107) and (108) show the syntactic environment of numbers and quantifiers with classifiers. In example (107), the prefix *ə-* is added to the sortal human classifier and it precedes the number six.

(107) (Elicitation)

bjà əbwè θá θò? lè dó zé nò
 person CLF three pairs go to market FP
 N CLF NUM N V PREP N FP

Six persons go to the market.

⁵ In Geba, phonologic assimilation with the number 'one' regularly occurs. If the following noun is voiced, the preceding number would be voiced, and if the following noun is voiceless, the preceding number would be voiceless. For example, in *tʰwì tɛ́ dɔ́* 'dog one CLF', as the following classifier is voiceless the number 'one' assimilates as voiceless. In *bjà dɛ́ bwè* 'person one CLF', the following classifier is voiced so the number 'one' changes voicing.

In example (108), the number nine, which is the combination of four + pair and one, occurs with 'boys'. This is the 'normal' classifier numbering order in Geba.

(108) (Elicitation)

əpísəp^hò əmìk^hó lwì θò? dā bwè swè
 child man four pairs one CLF run
 N N NUM N NUM CLF V

Nine boys run.

In examples (109) and (110), the multiples of ten are preceded by the classifier prefixed with *ə*.

(109) (Elicitation)

θó? əmù dā gājè ?ò dó lè bú nò
 tree CLF one hundred have to field in FP
 N CLF NUM NUM V PREP N LOCN FP

There are one hundred trees in the field.

(110) (Elicitation)

dó dó bú nò bjà ?ò əbwè tē t^hò?
 at village in that person have CLF one thousand
 PREP N LOCN DEM N V CLF NUM NUM

There are one thousand people in the village.

Above the number 1000, Geba uses Sgaw or Burmese to count.

Two kinds of quantifiers, *dālā* and *təsò?*, occur in Geba. There is no compositional meaning for *dālā* and *təsò?*, but *dālā* is the quantifier meaning 'many' and *təsò?* is used for the meaning 'some'. Example (111) shows *dālā* coming after the noun in a noun phrase.

(111) BH 010

mègǎnòǎk^hòsé bjà dǒ ǎbélǎ dé k^hǎwèk^hǎk^hǎ dé dǎlà nò
 because of that person who love thing mercy thing many that
 CONJ N REL V N V N QNT DEM

'because of that those who have love and mercy'

In example (112), *tǎsǎ?* comes after the noun to function as an indefinite quantifier in Geba.

(112) DB 004

sǎ sà wá ǎmèdèp^hǎ? **tǎsǎ?** ǎàwǎ?ǎǎǎ? dǐ háθù
 3S look ASP workers some eat delicious rice curry
 PRN V AUX N QNT ADJ N N

She watched some workers eating the delicious rice.

3.2.5 Prepositions

Geba has one preposition, *dǒ*, which functions as a general location marker and also encodes non-core participants. Examples (113) and (114) show the preposition *dǒ* occurring before the nouns without a locator noun. In this case, the preposition *dǒ* codes the indirect object/recipient.

(113) (Elicitation)

sǎ ǎì blè tǎ bǎ dǒ bjà dǎ bwè
 3S give arrow one when to person one CLF
 PRN V N NUM ADV PREP N NUM CLF

He gave the man an arrow.

Example (114) shows the occurrence of preposition *dǒ* semantically marked as the beneficiary with *ǎnik^hǎ?* following the noun phrase.

(114) GB 14.3(1)

jə ɲi maðŋ səʔ dɔ sɔ paʔ ənik^hi
 1S give Maung book to 3S father for
 PRO V PROP N PREP PRN N BENF

I give Maung a book for his father.

According to the above findings, the preposition *dɔ* precedes the noun to form a prepositional phrase. More discussion about the word *dɔ* is presented in section 5.3.

3.2.6 Locator nouns

Geba also has locator nouns which co-occur with the preposition *dɔ*. Locator nouns point out the specific location of the prepositional phrase. In example (115), the locator noun comes after the noun and shows the specific place *bú* 'in'.

(115) GB 12.5(1)

dɔ dɔ bú nò maðŋ t^hó-gə́dú lɔ
 at village in that Maung tall-est FP
 PREP N LOCN DEM PROP ADJ-SUF FP

Maung is the tallest in the village.

In example (116), the locator noun comes after the noun and it shows the specific place *lɛʔ* 'under'.

(116) GB 3.2 (1)

t^hwi dɔ ʃi lɛʔ
 dog from house under
 N PREP N LOCN

'the dog under the house'

3.2.7 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words which join or link two words, phrases or clauses. Conjunctions in Geba sometimes have alternating forms with the same meaning. In this section conjunctions such as *kī/kīdɔʔ* 'and', and *bàràs^há /mòθómiʔ* 'but', will be discussed. Subordinate conjunctions are also presented in this section.

Example (117) shows the conjunctions *kī/kīdɔʔ* 'and' joining two noun phrases.

(117) RW 001

jó	dɔʔ	t ^h ɔp ^h é	kī/kīdɔʔ	pəʔí	k ^h únù	də	dé	nò
mix	with	paddy husk	and	sticky rice	that	one	thing	FP
V	CONJ	N	CONJ	N	DEM	NUM	N	FP

Mix with paddy husk and that sticky rice.

Example (118) shows the linking of two quantifiers in Geba. In this case, the classifier appears between the two numbers together with the conjunction.

(118) GB 1.11(4)

t ^h í	tí	k ^h wèʔ	kīdɔʔ	təkléʔ
water	two	cup	with	half
N	NUM	CLF	CONJ	NUM

'two and a half cups of water'

Other conjunctions are *mòθómiʔ/mòθó* and *bàràs^há* which are alternations for the word 'but'. Examples (119) and (120) show the conjoining of two clauses by these conjunctions.

(119) GB 16.1(2)

maŋ	lè	dèk ^h ló	bàràs ^h á	zò	ʔàdà	dó	hì	bú
Maung	go	outside	but	Zaw	stay	at	house	in
PROP	V	N	CONJ	PROP	V	PREP	N	LOCN

Maung went out but Zaw stayed home.

(120) GB 16.1(1)

mauŋ lè dèk^hló mətə́mì? zò ?dà dó ʃi
 Maung go outside but Zaw stay at house
 PROP V N CONJ PROP V PREP N

Maung went out but Zaw stayed at home.

Subordinating Conjunction

Another kind of conjunction is the subordinating conjunction *gənòə́k^hòsé* 'because'. This kind of subordinating conjunction links two clauses where the second clause is the result or the consequence of the first clause as in example (121).

(121) BH 007

tʃ^hé tǎ dó ə́k^hòə́?a86 ?ò **gənòə́k^hòsé** bjaθə́bùwè k^húnù tʃ^hi wè sè
 tiger one CLF strength have that's why siblings that two CLF 3S
 N NUM CLF N V ADV N DEM NUM CLF PRN

lák^hù
 fall down
 V

Because tiger has strength, the two brothers fell down.

mī is another kind of subordinating conjunction that appears in the first clause but follows the subject noun phrase. Example (122) shows the conjunction *mī* 'if'.

(122) DB 018

kə mī ?à dó ə́kə kət^hà? dɛ́ʃwìdɛ́s^hé dé tǎ ?è nó? kə
 1P if eat which will become illness thing not good not 1P
 PRN CONJ V REL AUX V N N NEG ADJ NEG PRN

nìtʃ^hí
 for
 BENF

If we eat which will cause us illness, it is not good for us.

Therefore, conjunctions in Geba sometimes occur as variant forms linking two words or phrases or clauses.

3.2.8 Question words

Two parts are required to make a question in Geba. The first part is the interrogative proform and the second part is the final particle. Table (18) shows the interrogative forms in Geba.

	Interrogative proform	Final particle
Who	<i>bābwè (bāwè)</i>	<i>wè</i>
Where	<i>bé?lè</i>	
What	<i>dà</i>	<i>nè</i>
When	<i>dà ətʃʰi nè</i>	
How		<i>sàdè</i>
Why	<i>bèdànè</i>	<i>nè/nò</i>

Table 18 Interrogative forms in Geba

According to the above table, the interrogative form 'who' has two parts. The interrogative proform *bābwè* appears in the subject position while the final particle *wè* occurs at the end of the sentence. Example (123) shows the structure of 'who' in Geba.

(123) GB 18.4(1)

bāwè lè dó sā lè bú **wè**
 who go to 3S field in INTER
 QP V PREP PRN N LOCN ILL.F

Who went to his field?

The interrogative form 'why' also has two parts. The interrogative proform *bèdànè* appears in the sentence initial position while the final particle *nè* or *nò* occurs in the sentence final position. Examples (124) and (125) show the structure of 'why' in Geba.

(124) (Elicitation)

ḃèdàṇè s̄ lè dó s̄ lè bú nè
why 3S go to 3S field in INTER
QP PRN V PREP PRN N LOCN ILL.F

Why did he go to his field?

(125) GB 18.5(3)

ḃèdàṇè maṇṇ lè s̄ lè bú nò
why Maung go 3S field in FP
QP PROP V PRN N LOCN FP

Why did Maung go to his field?

In this above sentences, two different question particles *nè/nò* are used with the same question word. The reason for selecting one form or another is not yet known but they do not vary freely. The difference between the above two examples is that example (124) has a pronoun and example (125) has a proper noun.

The interrogative form 'when', has only one part. The interrogative proform *dà* together with 'time' and the final particle *nè* appear together at the end of the sentence to form the question *dà ɛtʰi nè* which means 'what time'. Example (126) shows the structure of 'when or what time' in Geba.

(126) GB 18.6(3)

s̄ lè dó s̄ lè bú nò dà ɛtʰi nè
3S go to 3S field in that what time INTER
PRN V PREP PRN N LOCN DEM QP N ILL.F

When did he go to his field?

The interrogative form 'how' has the same structure as 'when'. The interrogative proform and the final particle appear together at the end of the sentence to form the question *sàdè* 'how'. Example (127) shows the structure of 'how' in Geba.

(127) GB 18.8 (2)

maùŋ lé lè bú sàdè

Maung go field in how

PROP V N LOCN QP

How did Maung go to his field?

For 'yes-no' questions, the final question word particle *hà?* is used in Geba. Example (128) shows the form of a 'yes-no' question. The answer for this type of question would be 'yes or no' or the verb phrase.

(128) GB 18.7 (1)

maùŋ kã lè dó sã lè bú hà

Maung will go to 3S field in INTER

PROP AUX V PREP PRN N LOCN ILL.F

Will Maung go to his field?

3.2.9 Particles

In this section, some particles which are commonly found in Geba are presented. The first two particles to be discussed are *wá t^hó* and *wá gé* which semantically function as aspect markers. Also discussed is the particle *nù* which functions as a demonstrative and clause final marker. Finally, the different types of question particles, negative particles, and illocutionary force particle are discussed.

3.2.9.1 Particles *wá t^hó* and *wá gé*

The two particles *wá t^hó* and *wá gé* give completive aspect meaning in Geba. This type of aspect marker occurs at the end of the verb phrase. Examples (129) and (130) show the usage of completive aspect markings at the end of verb phrase.

(129) (Elicitation)

jā sàt^hi bjà dā bwè wát^hó

1S see person one CLF ASP

PRO V N NUM CLF PRT

I have seen one man.

(130) (Elicitation)

jā sàt^hi bjà dā bwè wágé

1S see person one buy ASP

PRO V N NUM V PRT

I have seen one man.

Example (131) shows a simple sentence without aspect marker in Geba language.

(131) GB 6.1 (1)

jā sàt^hi bjà dā bwè

1S see person one CLF

PRO V N NUM CLF

I see one man/ I am seeing one man.

According to the above examples sentences, to express the completive aspect marking with specific meaning *wát^hó* or *wágé* is attached at the end of verb phrase.

3.2.9.2 Particle 'nù'

The particle *nù* can be found as the variant *nò* or, sometimes, if the speaker is influenced by Sgaw Karen, he or she might use *nè*. The *nù* in Geba has two different yet related functions. The first is as a demonstrative or specifier.

Solnit 1997:248 states that

"A nominalized clause in Kayah Li is any clause followed by nu or a Classifier preceded by nu. If the nominalized clause is autonomous and not followed by Classifiers, the nu functions as an illocutionary force-marker or sentence final particle "

In example (132), *nò* functions as a demonstrative identifying the noun phrase *ʃi dā wà* "one house".

(132) (Elicitation)

ʃi	dā	wà	nò	ʔò	kīdʒʔ	āk ^h òʔt ^h isòʔ	āwèlɔ	dālà	lɔ
house	one	CLF	DEM	V	CONJ	N	N	QNT	FP

'the house with a roof and a wall'

In a second use, *nù* sometimes appears clause final. Examples (133) and (134) show the demonstrative *nù* in sentence final position. In the first sentence *nù* is followed by the final particle *lɔ*; the second sentence is without the final particle *lɔ*.⁶

(133) (Elicitation)

jè	ʔò	kī	jā	θébùwè	āwè	θá	θòʔ	nù	lɔ
1S	have	and	1S	sibling	CLF	three	pairs	this	FP
PRN	V	CONJ	PRO	N	CLF	NUM	N	DEM	FP

I have five siblings.

(134) GA 3(3)

maùŋ	lè	jò	ʔi	āpísāp ^h ò	đó	tʃaúŋ	nò
Maung	go	take	give	child	to	school	FP
PROP	V	V	V	N	PREP	N	FP

Maung took the child to school.

⁶ There are some limitations in using *nù*

- 1) It cannot introduce a new participant and it must be an active discourse referent.
- 2) It cannot be used on a bare noun phrase that answers a 'what' questions.
- 3) In [SVO], *nù* cannot be on the object, but it works on objects in [OSV] order.
- 4) It can occur [SVO BEN *nù*] on the benefactive argument.

nù can be considered a focus marker that appears only on "given/known" information. As such (1), (2) and (3) are true because "fronting" focuses on "given/known" information, but, by default, objects in SVO sentences are not focused. Its clause final function is not well understood

3.2.9.3 Illocutionary Force particles

In Geba, the *mə* shows the actor is giving a softened or polite suggestion or opinion. The meaning is close to 'you see/as you know' in English. Example (135) shows this polite usage of *mə*.

(135) (Elicitation)

sə là dɔ yàŋgòŋ mə
 3S descend to Yangon POL
 PRN V PREP PROP ILL.F

He goes to Yangon.

Example (136) shows another type of negation in Geba. In this type of imperative negation, the speaker is commanding the hearer. This kind of illocutionary force directly negates the verb. Example (136) shows the direct negation of a verb which expresses the feeling of command (prohibition).

(136) (Elicitation)

ʔà mə?
 eat PRHB
 V ILL.F

Don't eat.

Another type of imperative negation occurs when the object is included. In this case, the negative particles appear twice. One follows the verb, and precedes the object, and another comes after the object. Example (137) shows the double negation structure in Geba.

(137) (Elicitation)

ʔɔ mə? θɔwɪθɔkó mə?
 drink PRHB cigarette PROHB
 V ILL.F N ILL.F

Don't smoke cigarette.

3.3 Morphological Processes

In this section, the morphological processes of affixation, compounding, elaborate expression and reduplication are analyzed.

3.3.1 Affixation

Affixation in Geba occurs with the $\bar{\epsilon}$ and $d\bar{\epsilon}$ -prefixes appearing on nouns, the comparative suffix appearing on verbs, and the superlative suffix appearing on verbs. These are discussed in the next section.

3.3.1.1 $\bar{\epsilon}$ -prefix

The prefix $\bar{\epsilon}$ can be referred to as a "generic" possessor, but it has a variety of other usages such as, nominalizer and classifier also. The following examples show the different usages of this prefix particle. The prefix $d\bar{\epsilon}$ - is also addressed where it is similar to $\bar{\epsilon}$.

$\bar{\epsilon}$ - before nouns

In Geba, $\bar{\epsilon}$ with a noun is usually optional, but sometimes it is obligatory. The following list shows the optional and obligatory usage of nouns with $\bar{\epsilon}$ or without $\bar{\epsilon}$. There is no meaning difference in the following variation.

$\bar{\epsilon}p\acute{\epsilon}s\bar{\epsilon}p^{h_o}$	or	$p\acute{\epsilon}s\bar{\epsilon}p^{h_o}$
'child'		'child'

However, the following example shows the prefix $\bar{\epsilon}$ is sometimes obligatory.

$\bar{\epsilon}k^{h_o}$	'roof'
* k^{h_o}	

$\bar{\epsilon}$ and $d\bar{\epsilon}$ - as nominalizers

In Geba, a verb form can be changed into a noun by adding $\bar{\epsilon}$ -. The example below shows $\bar{\epsilon}$ - as a nominalizer.

$bw\acute{\epsilon}$	'buy'
$\bar{\epsilon}bw\acute{\epsilon}$	'price'

Another type of prefix nominalizer is *dè-*. This type of nominalizer often appears before verbs to form common or abstract nouns. Table (19) shows nouns transformed by adding prefix *dè-* to the verbs.

noun nominalizer	verb		noun	
	Geba	English	Geba	English
dè	θābùθābē	worship	dèθābùθābē	religion
dè	ʔòplò	meet	dèʔòplò	church
dè	lò ɓà	need	dèlò ɓà	need
dè	mèzò	help	dèmèzò	help
dè	ɓélò	love	dèɓélò	love
dè	mè	work	dèmè	work/job

Table 19 Transforming verbs to nouns in Geba

ə- with classifiers

Prefix *ə-* can occur before classifiers that move in front of the noun. This kind of classifier occurs before the number six, eight or one digit, two digits and so on.

Example (138) shows the prefix *ə-* attached to the classifier.

(138) WL 002

θéɓùwè əwè θá θòʔ
sibling CLF three pairs
N CLF NUM N

'six brothers and sisters'

ə- as possessive prefix

The following noun phrase, example (139), shows the possessive morpheme *ə-* attached to the noun *θáʔ* 'will'.

(139) (Elicitation)

kə́bísɛ̃ʔ ə-θáʔ

Lord his-will

N POS-N

'Lord's will'

3.3.1.2 Comparative suffix

dəlí is a suffix that attaches to adjectives and forms the comparative of degree adjective structure. Example (140) shows *dəlí* suffixation in Geba.

(140) GB 12.4 (1)

maùŋ tʰó-dəlí zə̀

Maung tall-er Zaw

PROP ADJ-SUF PROP

Maung is taller than Zaw.

3.3.1.3 Superlative suffix

gədù also attaches to the adjective to form the superlative structure. Example (141) shows *gədù* suffixation in Geba.

(141) GB 12.5 (1)

dó dó bú nò maùŋ tʰó-gədú l̩

at village in that Maung tall-est FP

PREP N LOCN DEM PROP ADJ-SUF FP

In the village, Maung is the tallest.

3.3.2 Compound words

Based on the data collected, Geba has noun compounds and repetitive adverb compounds. Noun compounds consist of two or more nouns. For noun

compounds, the primary head noun may appear as the first member of compound or the second.

Many compound nouns in Geba occur as the combination of noun-noun pairs. However, sometimes nominalizers, particles, and pronouns are found in the combination of compound nouns. Examples (142) and (143) show some noun-noun compounds. In example (142), the first noun *t^hi* 'water' is followed by the second noun *nè* 'bottle' with the head noun as the second member of the compound noun.

(142) RW 010

kā	ḡénì	gè	t ^h i-nè	bù
1P	put	back	water-bottle	in
PRN	V	V	N-N	LOCN

We put back in water bottle.

In example (143), the noun *lèmusāk^hé* 'afternoon' is followed by the noun *dè?à* 'meal' with the primary head noun in the second noun position.

(143) WW 005

há	lèmusāk ^h é	dè?à	nò
And then	afternoon	meal	that
ADV	N	N	DEM

'and then lunch meal'

In example (144), the noun compound occurs with the nominalizers *dè* and *ā* included in a noun compound. The first part of the compound noun *dèlèdègè* 'travel' is followed by the second noun *ās^hòā/é* 'allowance' with the primary head noun is in the second part of compound noun.

(144) WW 008

bjà dèlèdègèṣ^hòṣlḗ mī tṣθaúŋ jèt^hṣ
 person travel-allowance be fifteen thousand
 N N COP NUM

Traveling allowance is fifteen thousand.

The following shows the complex structure of compound noun 'travel-allowance' formed from two elaborate expression.

{[(dè)_N(lè)_V]_N [(dè)_N(gè)_V]_N -[ṣ (s^hò)_V]_N [ṣ (lḗ)_V]_N}

thing go thing back it cost it cost
 NOM V NOM V 3S V 3S V
 'travel allowance'

In example (145), the first member of the compound noun is *bjà* 'person' and the second member of the noun consists of the particle *θḗ* which is used for family relationships followed by *bùwè* 'young brother-old brother'. In this case, the head noun appears in the second part of the compound noun.

(145) BH 002

ḃè tṣ plà bjà θḗbùwè ?ṣ tʃ^hl wè
 at one time person sibling have two CLF
 PREP NUM CLF N N V NUM CLF

Once upon a time, there were two brothers.

Repetitive adverb compounds are also found in Geba. The adverb is repeated to intensify the action. Example (146) shows the repetitive adverb compound.

(146) GA 7 (1)

maùŋ hɛʔ θàdʒ θàdʒ lɔ
Maung walk slowly slowly FP
PROP V ADV ADV FP

Maung walks slowly.

If verbs are repeated they are not compounds. The conjunction *kī/kīdʒʔ* 'and' is used to join the two verbs. Example (147) shows the repeated verbs compound with conjunction in Geba.

(147) (Elicitation)

maùŋ hɛʔ kī/kīdʒʔ hɛʔ
Maung walk and walk
PROP V CONJ V

Maung walks and walks.

3.3.3 Elaborate expressions

Elaborate expressions which use a four-syllable structure are often found in Geba as in most Southeast Asian languages. Phonetic parallelism and semantic parallelism occur in these expressions. In this section, different kinds of elaborate expressions, such as elaborate nouns, elaborate verb, and elaborate adjectives, are discussed.

For noun elaborate expressions, different kinds of phonetic parallel forms, such as *dɛ*, *dɔ*, *θɛ*, *ɛ*, are combined with different kinds of verbs or nouns which are semantically parallel to form noun elaborate expressions. The following examples show noun elaborate expressions where the first syllable and the third syllable are phonetically identical and the second and the fourth are semantically similar.

(148) (Elicitation)

θ̩	ḃ̀	θ̩	ḃ́
θ̩	V	θ̩	V
NOM	worship	NOM	worship
'religion'			

(149) (Elicitation)

d̩	pà	d̩	ʃ́
d̩	V	d̩	V
NOM	difficult	NOM	ache
'difficulty'			

(150) (Elicitation)

d̩	p ^h ì	d̩	mè
d̩	V	d̩	V
NOM	work	NOM	work
'work'			

(151) (Elicitation)

ə	θɪ?	ə	zà
ə	V	ə	V
NOM	able	NOM	able
'ability'			

(152) (Elicitation)

d̩	d̥ʒ	d̩	l̥è
d̩	N	d̩	N
NOM	vegetable	NOM	leaf
'vegetables'			

(153) (Elicitation)

ə	k ^h ɔ́	ə	k ^h é
ə	N	ə	N
NOM	friend	NOM	friend

'friend'

Sometimes pronouns are used to form elaborate expressions as in example (154).

(154) (Elicitation)

sə	k ^h ɔ́	sə	θɔ́ʔ
sə	N	sə	N
PRN	friend	PRN	friend

'his friends'

In a second type of noun elaboration, the phonetic parallelism can occur in the 2nd and 4th syllable position and the semantic parallelism occurs in the 1st and 2nd position as in examples (155) and (156).

(155) (Elicitation)

dɔ́	k ^h ò	p ^h á	k ^h ò
N	k ^h ò	N	k ^h ò
village head	village head		

'village chief'

(156) (Elicitation)

ə	k ^h ò	t ^h í	k ^h ò
N	k ^h ò	N	k ^h ò
it	head	tip	head

'tip of an arrow'

For verb elaborate expressions, different kinds of particles such as *k^hɔ́* and *bé* are repeated with different kinds of semantically parallel verbs to form verb elaborate expression. Moreover, semantically opposite verbs or repeated verb constructions are also found in some verb elaborate expressions.

Example (157) shows a verb elaborate expression where the first syllable and the third syllable are phonetically similar and the second and the fourth are semantically similar.

(157) (Elicitation)

k ^h ɔ̃	wɛ̃	k ^h ɔ̃	k ^h à
k ^h ɔ̃	V	k ^h ɔ̃	V
ELAB	pity	ELAB	pity

'pity'

Example (158) shows the semantic opposite construction of the verb elaborate expression. The first part *səp^hrɛʔt^hà* is followed by *səp^hrɛʔlǎ* which have opposite meanings in the verbs 'up' and 'down'. This is a six syllable word and the opposite verbs are really directional particles.

(158) (Elicitation)

sə-	p ^h rɛʔ-	t ^h à-	sə-	p ^h rɛʔ-	lǎ
3S-	clever-	ascend-	3S-	clever-	down
PRN-	ADJ-	V-	PRN-	ADJ-	V

'smart'

Examples (159) and (160) show the repeated verbs in verbal elaborate expression. In this case, the phonetically similar elements are contributing also semantically contributing to the overall meaning.

(159) (Elicitation)

swɛ̃	ɓà	swɛ̃	sé
swɛ̃	V	swɛ̃	V
run	difficult	run	difficult

'run (with) difficulty'

(160) (Elicitation)

ɓɛ̃	ɓà	ɓɛ̃	sé
ɓɛ̃	V	ɓɛ̃	V
suffer	difficult	suffer	difficult

'troublesome'

For adjective elaborate expressions, different kinds of phonetic parallel forms, such as *sā*, *ʔā*, *θāʔ*, are combined with different kinds of adjectives that are semantically parallel to form adjective elaborate expressions. Example (161) and (162) show the adjective elaborate expressions where the first syllable and the third syllable are phonetically similar and the second and the fourth are semantically similar.

(161) (Elicitation)

ʔā	ké	ʔā	kàʔ
ʔā	ADJ	ʔā	ADJ
COP	many	COP	many

'many'

(162) (Elicitation)

θáʔ	lò	θáʔ	là
θáʔ	ADJ	θáʔ	ADJ
heart	happy	heart	happy

'happily'

3.3.4 Reduplication

Geba has several reduplication forms. Sometimes adjectives reduplicate and sometimes adverbs reduplicate. The reduplication expresses a strong feeling by the speaker and deepens the meaning of the context. In example (163), the adjective *dò* reduplicates to create the meaning 'great'. It is also noted that a reduplicated clause also occurs as in example (163).

(163) (Elicitation)

jā	nìbè	dēk ^h òdēʔá	jā	nìbè	dēhówè	dò	dò
1S	recieve	strength	1S	recieve	blessing	big	big
PRN	V	N	PRN	V	N	ADJ	ADJ

I receive great strength.

In example (164), the adverb reduplicates to form an adverb reduplication structure.

(164) (Elicitation)

jā hē? plà plá

1S walk quickly quickly

PRN V ADV ADV

I walk quickly/ I am walking quickly.

3.4 Conclusion

In this section, the major word classes, minor word classes and morphological processes were described. In the major word classes, nouns were divided into common nouns, proper nouns, mass nouns, and abstract nouns. Verbs were divided into main verbs, auxiliary verbs, postverbal auxiliaries, copula, and directional. For the adjective word class, features that adjectives have common with verbs, features that separate adjectives from verbs and a summary of adjectives was presented. Adverbs were also analyzed as one of the major word classes.

In the minor word classes, inclusive and exclusive pronouns, reflexive and reciprocal pronouns, demonstratives, classifiers, numerals and quantifiers, prepositions, locator nouns, conjunctions, and question word were discussed. Different types of particles were also included for discussion.

For morphological process, some prefixes, suffixes, compound words, elaborate expressions, and reduplication were presented.