

0. Classification in Tani<sup>1</sup>

1. Outline

2. Genetic and areal context

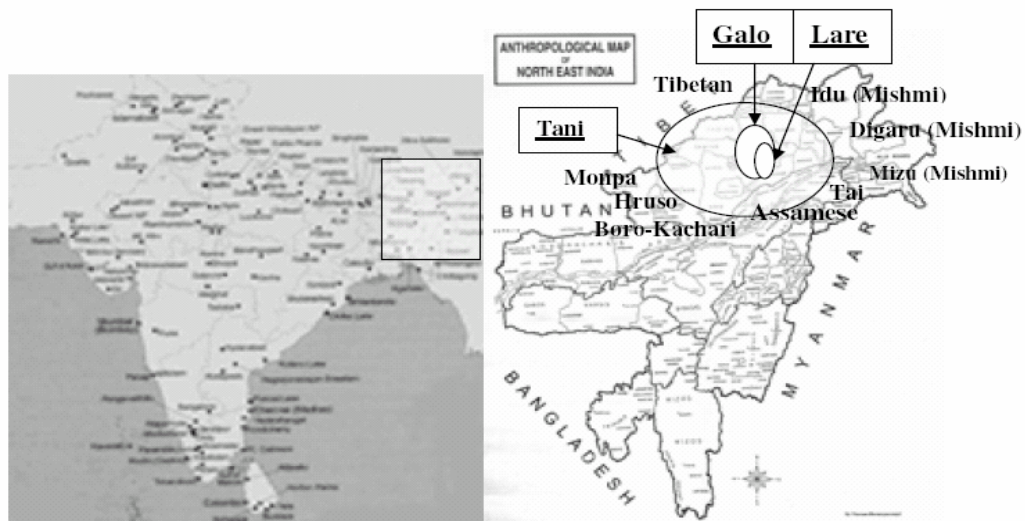


Figure 1 – Geographical and linguistic context of Lare Galo

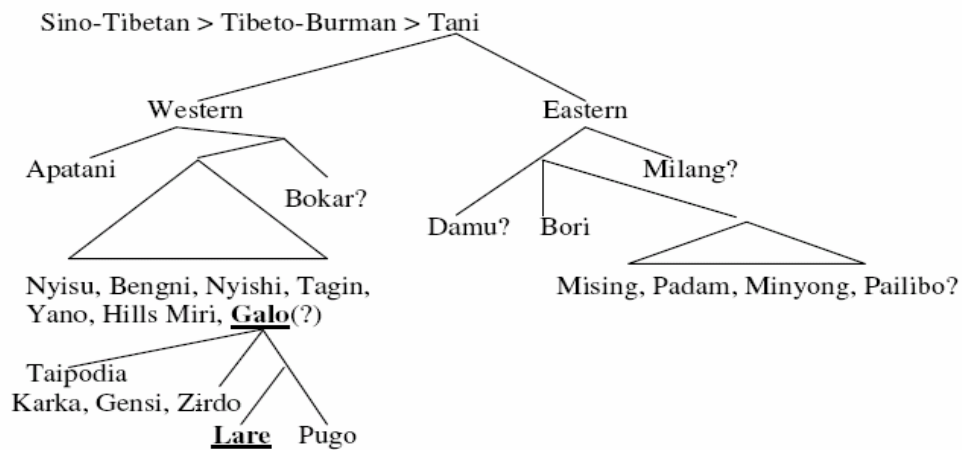


Figure 2 – Provisional Tani subgroupings (based on Sun (1993))

<sup>1</sup> Data are from field texts and elicitations or published sources where noted. Tani language transcriptions have been regularized to follow IPA except where  $z = [dz]$  and  $c = [tʃ]$ . Most Tani languages appear to be tonal, although most published data has not been marked for tone. In Galo, the domain of surface tonal specification is the (usually polysyllabic) phonological word; tones are High [<sup>43</sup>] Low [<sup>31</sup>] or Rising-Falling [<sup>452</sup>], marked by convention with a single diacritic over the penultimate vowel [ˊ], [ˋ] and [ˊˋ]. It is possible that some Tani languages have lost tone – notably at least some dialects of Mising – however such languages cannot at present be differentiated from tonal Tani languages for which data are incomplete.

**Population:** ~ 1,000,000 speakers of all Tani languages in Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, and Tibet. Mising ~ 400,000, Galo 40,000, Apatani ~ 60,000. **Economy:** *jhum* cultivation, wet rice cultivation (mainly Apatani), animal husbandry, landowning, hunting/gathering, government. **Religion:** indigenous religious tradition *Donyi Polo* (“sun-moon”) declining, Christianity rising rapidly. **Language contact/bilingualism:** Assamese, Hindi high, English, Nepali, Boro present. Current Mishmi/Hrusish/Tibetic contact conditions unknown. Language of education, government officially English, actually Hindi, throughout Tani area except Assamese in Assam and Chinese in Tibet. Much lexical, some structural borrowing from Indic languages (or English via Indic) in contact areas. **Endangerment:** dialects innumerable, many presumably endangered. No modern survey. Most Tani languages in Arunachal Pradesh and Assam have large numbers of child learners and are probably secure for the foreseeable future. **Literacy:** Assamese, Hindi, English literacy high in areas with access to schools. Roman-based script designed by Mising linguist Tabu Taid gaining currency among Mising (books, periodicals); not used by other Tani tribes. Several attempts to introduce pan-Tani scripts have failed.

### 3. Grammatical sketch (applies most directly to Galo)

**Morphological typology:** Synthetic, agglutinating. Extensive verb morphology (suffixes); nominal morphology mainly phrasal enclitics. **Constituent order:** AOV/SV (variable), varied modification (REL-N, N-NUM, DEM-N-DEM, postpositions). **Grammatical relations:** Subject/object are identifiable relations. Basically Nominative/Accusative case marking, with pragmatic (referentiality) and semantic (agency/affectedness) sensitivity. Case markers are demonstrative/pronoun-derived NP-enclitics. Pronouns, proper names, and ordinary noun-headed NPs marked differently. Contextually-recoverable arguments freely omitted. **Lexical classes:** Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs basic/non-derived, Adverbs derived from all three classes (most frequently, adjectives). Adjectives structurally closer to nouns, behaviourally closer to verbs. Intransitive, Transitive, Ambitransitive (S=A and S=O) and Ditransitive verb roots attested. **Closed classes:** pronouns, demonstratives, postpositions, phrase/clause linkers, constituent-final particles. **Verbal morphology:** vast array of derivational suffixes (> 300!), numerous markers of aspect and modality. Epistemological/evidential/pragmatic status marked by verbal enclitics (particles); some also mark NPs. No verbal cross-referencing. Marginal S.A.P.-sensitive marking (≅ conjunct-disjunct marking) in imperatives and ‘iterative’ perfective only. **Finiteness and subordination:** Finite/nonfinite distinction robust. No synchronic verb-serialization. Clause nominalization (several types), clause chaining and adverbial subordination all rampant. **Prosody:** Root-driven word tone, strong-weak metrical foot, robust difference between phonological and grammatical “words”.

#### 4. Structure of the Tani lexicon

##### 4.1. Roots versus words

*A rough characterization:*

<u>Roots</u>	<u>Words</u>
Bound	Free
Usually monosyllabic	Usually disyllabic
Always simple	Usually complex
Lexically precategorical	Lexically assigned

*Tani languages all represent this dichotomy, but to quite different degrees*

Apatani, Bokar have numerous simplex, monosyllabic lexemes and grammatical words which may occur as free words in various constructions. In Galo, only two simplex, monosyllabic native lexemes have been attested - *jĩi* ‘human’ and *zèe* ‘green/blue’ – and there is extensive grammatical and phonological dependency among terms. In Mising, no simplex native lexemes have been attested, and an extremely small number of monosyllables is found; grammatical and phonological dependency among terms is extremely high.

- 1) A *soo mju ako du*  
PRX human one exist:sitting  
‘here is a man (in sitting position)’ (Abraham 1985: 70)
- 2) G *hogò jĩi akengò duunà*  
hogò jĩi akèn=go dùu=na  
PRX.LOC human one=IDEF COP.LOC.SITTING=DECL  
‘here is a man (in sitting position)’
- 3) M *kironbí oŋo sogaptiladuŋai*  
Kiron=bí oŋo so-gap-ti-la=duŋ-ai  
NAME=3 fish pull-STUCK-PERS-NF=COP-PST  
‘Kiron had been catching fish.’ (cf. also Prasad et. al. (1991:59))

##### 4.2. Parts of speech

*A rough characterization:*

Nouns --- Adjectives ----- Verbs

*Tani languages vary in the extent to which the Nominal/Adjectival vs. Verbal dichotomy is represented in terms of structure and distribution. It is possible that for at least some Tani languages, not all classes are represented, i.e. the Adjectives of one language may be represented by another language as a subclass of Nouns and/or Verbs.*

#### 4.2.1. Structure

Type	PS	Term	Gloss	PFX/Root	Gloss	Root	Gloss
PFX-√	N	<i>akĩĩ</i>	‘belly/guts’	<i>a-</i>	‘PFX’	<i>kĩĩ-</i>	‘guts’
PFX-√	ADJ	<i>ahòò</i>	‘long/tall’	<i>a-</i>	‘PFX’	<i>hòò-</i>	‘long/tall’
√-√	N	<i>lǎcǎǎ</i>	‘toe’	<i>lǎ-</i>	‘leg/foot’	<i>cǎǎ-</i>	‘digit’
√-√	ADJ	<i>lǎzìn</i>	‘outstretched, of legs’	<i>lǎ-</i>	‘leg/foot’	<i>zìn-</i>	‘stretch’

Table 1 – Structure of basic nouns and adjectives (Lare Galo)

Root	Gloss	Derivation(s)	Gloss	Inflection	Gloss
<i>dó-</i>	‘eat’	<i>-mèn</i>	‘Playful Manner’	<i>-dùu</i>	Imperfective
<i>ĩn-</i>	‘go/walk’	<i>-làa</i>	‘Abilitative’	<i>-tó</i>	Perfective
<i>mèn-</i>	‘say’	<i>-lèn</i>	‘Outward Directed’	<i>-káa</i>	Perfect
<i>mǎǎ-</i>	‘think’	<i>-tà</i>	‘Incipient’	<i>-dóo</i>	Stative
<i>jùp-</i>	‘sleep’	<i>-hĩ</i>	‘Reflexive’	<i>-dák</i>	Immediate
<i>hĩ-</i>	‘die’	<i>-jàa</i>	‘Comparative/Superlative’	<i>-làa</i>	Non-finite

Table 2 – Structure of verbs (Lare Galo)

#### 4.2.2. Distribution

##### 4.2.2.1. Lare Galo (Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs distinct)

	<u>Copular Predication</u>	<u>Aspect-marking</u>	
4) G	<i>ǎgǎ ikiǎ</i> ǎgǎ      ikiĩ=ǎǎ DST.IND dog=COP.IPFV ‘it’s a dog’	* <i>ǎgǎ ikiidù</i>	←N
5) G	* <i>ǎgǎ jubǎ(ǎ)</i>	<i>ǎgǎ jubdù</i> <i>ǎgǎ jùp-dùu</i> DST.IND sleep-IPFV ‘it’s sleeping’	←V
6) G	<i>ǎgǎ adǎkǎ</i> ǎgǎ      adǎk=ǎǎ DST.IND different=COP.IPFV ‘it’s different (appraising a present state-of-affairs)’	<i>ǎgǎ adǎkdù</i> ǎgǎ      adǎk-dùu DST.IND different-IPFV ‘it’s different (now, and in general)’	←ADJ

Citing data such as in (2-3) in which adjectives predicate like verbs (although in languages lacking a copula such as Galo *ǎǎ*), Sun (2003) claimed Adjectives were a subclass of verbs throughout Tani. However, consider the Mising data in 4.2.2.2; similar structures are also found in Apatani.

**4.2.2.2. Paglo Mising (Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs less distinct)**

7) M *guwahatise gasumko tani duŋ*  
 Guwahati=se gasum-ko tani duŋ  
 Guwahati=PRX many-IDEF human COP  
 ‘There are many people here in Guwahati.’ (HP, 1:15)

8) M *ŋo guwahatitokkə gi-duŋ*  
 ŋo guwahati=to-kə=əə gi-duŋ  
 1 Guwahati=LOC.E-ABL=NOM go-IPFV  
 ‘I come from Guwahati (which is to the East of here).’ (HP, 1:13)

**4.3. Diachronic perspective on the Tani lexicon**

A working model:

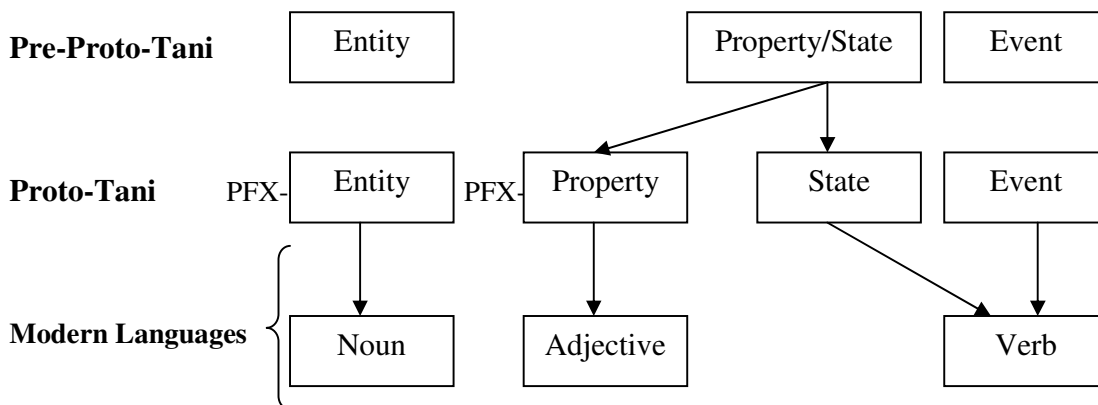


Figure 3 – Diachronic perspective on the Tani lexicon

**5. Classification**

“Each language has, within the semantic structure of its lexicon, a number of generic-specific relationships.” (Dixon 2002: 449)

Classification is an inherently *semantic* operation, which may be employed in the service of additional semantic operations, as well as in grammatical or pragmatic functions (Aikhenvald 2001). Fundamentally, classification consists in the establishment of *relations* between entities in a semantic space. The content of the relation is roughly *type-exemplar*, but could also be expressed as class-member, superordinate-subordinate, generic-specific, etc.

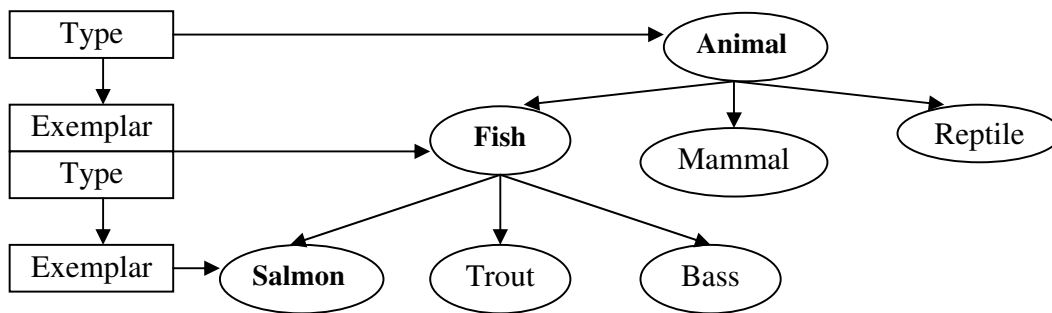


Figure 4 – Classificatory relations among concepts

### 5.1. Classification and denotation

Classification is always related to *denotation*. It may increase the *precision* of a denotation by restricting its range, for example when disambiguating multiple possible referents, or when denoting a less-familiar concept (*mynah bird*). It may also *modify* a denotation by profiling different semantic features of an entity (*a hand of bananas* versus *a bunch of bananas*). Classification also tends to bias, and may force, denotation of an *individual* as opposed to a mass or an abstract concept (*the crowd of people* versus *the people*).

### 5.2. Classification and reference

In many languages (possibly all languages), ordinary nouns (as opposed to pronouns, names, and NPs) have no inherent reference (Givón 2001 [1990]: 58). However, the nouns of some languages may have a greater or lesser capacity to be used referentially than the nouns of some other languages, for example as the sole constituent of a referring NP (as in Chinese *shuǐ kāi le* ‘the water (which is on the stove) is boiling’ (Chao 1968: 76) or with the aid of some small set of grammatical tools, such as articles (*the water is tasteless* versus *water is tasteless*). It has been argued that numeral classifiers in at least some languages (in particular, Standard Thai) are necessary to nominal referentiality (Hundius and Kölver 1983).

#### 5.2.1. Individuation and reference in Thai

*The received view:*

- |     |   |                  |
|-----|---|------------------|
| 9)  | <i>mǎa sǎŋ tua</i><br>dog two CLF<br>‘two dogs’ | * <i>mǎa sǎŋ</i> |
| 10) | <i>mǎa tua nǐ</i><br>dog CLF PRX<br>‘this dog’  | * <i>mǎa nǐ</i>  |

- 11) *mǎa tua (thîi) jàj*                      \* *mǎa (thîi) jàj*  
 dog CLF REL big  
 ‘the dog (that’s) big’

**Repeater constructions:**

- 12) *prathêet sǎam prathêet*                      *sǎam prathêet*  
 country three CLF                      three CLF  
 ‘three countries’                      ‘three of those (things classifiable as countries)’

(Haas 1964; Hundius and Kölver 1983; Craig 2002)

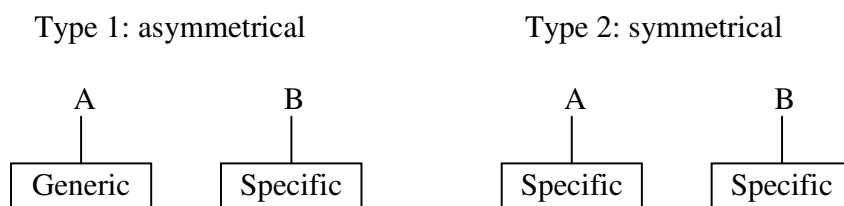
In fact, all of the structures on the right are possible and have been attested on numerous occasions by different analysts. However, such structures tend to occur in casual speech and/or in later mentions, i.e. in speech situations in which precision is not highly valued and referential continuity is high. So, it seems the general thrust of the received view is correct (and can probably be applied to less prototypically “classifying” languages than Standard Thai). However, the notion that classification is essentially grammatical(ized), rather than semantically and pragmatically controlled, is probably less correct.

**5.3. Interim summary**

Classification *per se* is basically a semantic *type-exemplar* or *set-member* relation among terms. Insofar as “member” status tends to confer additional qualities such as “specificity” and “individuality” on a term, classification is potentially *useful* in the context of denotation and, ultimately, reference. Depending on what else is going on in the grammar of a given language, classificatory structures may develop in the service of these functions to a greater or lesser degree.

**6. Classification in Tani**

**6.1. Structural patterns**



**6.2. Numerals and classifiers**

Numerals and classifiers are alike in having *roots* which, unlike most of the nominal/adjectival lexicon, are productively compounded to form *enumerative classifier expressions* and *adjectival classifier expressions*. Both numerals and classifiers, as well as classifier expressions, *follow* any related nouns, when these are overtly given.

### 6.2.1. Numerals

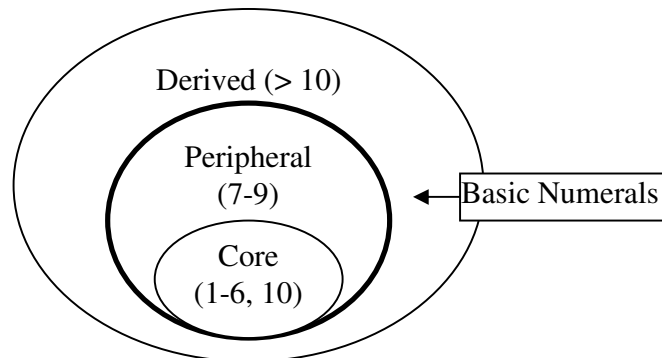


Figure 5 – Schematization of numeral subclasses

#### 6.2.1.1. Core numerals

Gloss	Apatani	Galo	Mising	Etymology (PTS)
‘one’	<i>koŋ</i>	<i>a-kèn</i>	<i>a-ko</i>	* <i>kon</i> ‘one’
‘two’	<i>á-ŋì</i>	<i>a-ŋì</i>	<i>a-ŋì</i>	* <i>ŋì</i> ‘two’
‘three’	<i>híŋ</i>	<i>a-úm</i>	<i>a-um</i>	* <i>fum</i> ‘three’
‘four’	<i>pí-ljǐ</i>	<i>ap-pí</i>	<i>ap-pi</i>	* <i>pri</i> ‘four’
‘five’	<i>já-ŋó</i>	<i>aŋ-ŋó</i>	<i>aŋ-ŋo</i>	* <i>ŋo</i> ‘five’
‘six’	<i>xrjǐ</i>	<i>ak-kǎ</i>	<i>ak-kəŋ</i>	* <i>krə</i> ‘six’
‘ten’	<i>à-ljáŋ</i>	<i>i-rǐ</i>	<i>i-jǐŋ</i>	* <i>rjǐ</i> ‘ten’ <sup>2</sup>

Table 3 – Core numerals<sup>3</sup> (Apatani data from Weidert (1987))

#### 6.2.1.2. Peripheral numerals

Gloss	Apatani	Galo	Mising	Etymology (PTS)
‘seven’	<i>kánú</i>	<i>kanə</i>	<i>kínǐ</i>	* <i>kV-nǐ</i>
‘eight’	<i>prjǐŋì</i>	<i>piinə</i>	<i>pǐŋì</i>	* <i>pri</i> ‘four’ + * <i>ŋì</i> ‘two’ ?
‘nine’	<i>koa</i>	<i>keŋŋàa</i>	<i>konaŋ</i>	* <i>kV-(n)aŋ</i>

Table 4 – Peripheral numerals

<sup>2</sup> The \**a-* prefix in ‘ten’ has undergone root nuclear vowel harmony, a sporadic sound change in the nominal/adjectival lexicon which has been played out differently in different Tani languages.

<sup>3</sup> ‘Four’, ‘five’ and ‘six’ unpredictably exhibit gemination of the word-medial consonant. This is a relatively rare but persistent change in various Tani languages, attested in both \**V-CV* and \**V-CVX* collocation types, the motivation for which remains unclear.

### 6.2.1.3. Derived numerals

Term	Gloss	Composition
<i>camjì</i>	‘twenty’	<i>cám-</i> ‘CLF:TENS’ + <i>jì-</i> ‘two’
<i>camúm</i>	‘thirty’	<i>cám-</i> ‘CLF:TENS’ + <i>úm-</i> ‘three’
<i>campí</i>	‘forty’	<i>cám-</i> ‘CLF:TENS’ + <i>pí-</i> ‘four’
<i>camḡó</i>	‘fifty’	<i>cám-</i> ‘CLF:TENS’ + <i>ḡó-</i> ‘five’
<i>camkḡ</i>	‘sixty’	<i>cám-</i> ‘CLF:TENS’ + <i>kḡ-</i> ‘six’
<i>camrḡ</i>	‘hundred’	<i>cám-</i> ‘CLF:TENS’ + <i>rḡ-</i> ‘ten’

Table 5 – Multiples of ten ‘twenty’ through ‘sixty’ and ‘hundred’ (Galo)

Term	Gloss	Composition
<i>acám kanḡ</i>	‘seventy’	<i>acám</i> ‘tens’ + <i>kanḡ</i> ‘seven’
<i>acám piinḡ</i>	‘eighty’	<i>acám</i> ‘tens’ + <i>piinḡ</i> ‘eight’
<i>acám keḡḡà</i>	‘ninety’	<i>acám</i> ‘tens’ + <i>keḡḡà</i> ‘nine’

Table 6 – Multiples of ten ‘seventy’ through ‘ninety’ (Galo)

GEN	SPEC	
<i>cám-</i>	<i>jì-</i>	‘twenty’
<i>acám</i>	<i>kanḡ</i>	‘seventy’

### 6.2.2. Classifiers and classifier roots

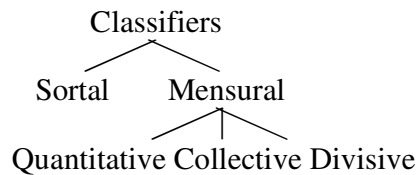


Figure 6 – Types of classifiers

#### 6.2.2.1. Sortal classifiers

Sortal classifiers are in essence nouns which denote a semantic type *in terms of an individual* which exemplifies the type. Like any noun, they refer in construction with a case-marker/article/demonstrative.

- |                               |                     |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| 13) G <i>abór=go</i>          | 14) G <i>anḡ=go</i> |
| individual.sheet=IDEF         | leaf=IDEF           |
| ‘a sheet; a sheetlike object’ | ‘a leaf’            |

When following a(nother) noun, sortal classifiers have the effect of *profiling* the referent’s *individuality* (x).

15) G *anə abór=go*  
 leaf CLF:SHEET=IDEF  
 ‘a(n individual) leaf’ (lit. ~ ‘a sheet of leaf’)

16) G \**abór anə=go*

It may seem paradoxical to view this as an underlyingly *Generic-Specific* or *Type-Exemplar* pattern, since we might think of ‘leaf’ as semantically more particular than ‘sheet’ (i.e., a ‘leaf’ is a kind of ‘sheet’ and not vice versa). However, *abór* here has the *referential value* of an individual – i.e. an exemplar of the type ‘leaf’.

As in Burmese (Becker 1975) and Thai (*contra* statements made by Hundius and Kölver (1983)), it’s possible to modify a denotation in Galo by changing the classifier. This may amount to a difference in *feeling* which is not easily translated (17-18), or it may result in a different referential value altogether (19-20).

17) *hĩnə adáa=go*  
 tree stick=IDEF  
 ‘a tree (generic focus)’ (TR, 6:133)

18) *hĩnə apóo=go*  
 tree rotund.thing=IDEF  
 ‘a tree (trunk focus)’ (TR, 6:133)

19) *kopák apáa=go*  
 banana long.thing=IDEF  
 ‘a banana’

20) *kopák arɦ=go*  
 banana staff=IDEF  
 ‘a banana tree’ (MN, 19:136)

Field	Lex.	Gloss	Root	Classifies
Phys. Prop.	<i>ahóo</i>	‘one stick’	<i>hóo-</i>	long things (cigarettes, lengths of rope)
	<i>apóo</i>	‘one pole; broad’	<i>póo-</i>	things with rotundity (fat stomachs, fat fingers)
	<i>adáa</i>	‘one stick’	<i>dáa-</i>	rigidly sticklike things (branches, twigs)
	<i>arɦ</i>	‘one staff’	<i>rɦ-</i>	staves; upright things (trees, stands of trees)
	<i>apáa</i>	‘one long thing’	<i>páa-</i>	things with length (bananas)
	<i>abúu</i>	‘one pipe; river’	<i>búu-</i>	pipes (any hollow pole, especially bamboo)
	<i>abór</i>	‘one sheet’	<i>bór-</i>	sheets; spread-out things (papers, pillows)
	<i>atám</i>	‘flat side’	<i>tám-</i>	flat-sided objects (walls, doors, floors)
	<i>acɦ</i>	‘seed’	<i>cɦ-</i>	grainlike things (pebbles, grains of rice, peas)
	<i>apə (?)</i>	‘glob(ular)’	<i>pƒ</i>	round or egglike things (eggs, apples, balls)
	<i>adúu</i>	‘one sec. bamboo’	<i>dúu-</i>	sections of bamboo
Anim.	<i>adór</i>	‘one animal’	<i>dór-</i>	four-legged animals (cows, dogs, goats, rats)
	<i>anə</i>	‘leaf’	<i>nə-</i>	plants, fish <sup>4</sup>
	-- <sup>5</sup>	--	<i>cəə-</i>	fingers
Abst. Dim.	<i>adáp</i>	‘one volume’	<i>dáp-</i>	volumes (books, grades/classes, levels in a course)
	<i>abàa</i>	‘one song’	<i>bàa-</i>	songs <sup>6</sup>
	<i>abâr</i>	‘one rupee’	<i>bâr-</i>	treasures (money, brass platters, ornaments)
Time	<i>apɦ</i>	‘year’	<i>pɦ-</i>	years
	<i>alóo</i>	‘day’	<i>lóo-</i>	days
	<i>arúum</i>	‘evening’	<i>rúum-</i>	nights (non-day periods of time)
	<i>ajùp</i>	‘one night cycle’	<i>jùp-</i>	night cycles (full dusk-dawn cycles)

Table 7 – Sortal classifiers attested to date (Galo)

<sup>4</sup> Rather than expression any underlying semantic relation, this may be the result of a merger of two distinct etyma, i.e. *nə* ‘leaf, plant’ and *nə* ‘fish’. Cf. Lare *anə* ‘living leaf’ and Pugo *mənə* ‘fish’.

<sup>5</sup> The root *cəə-* ‘finger’ occurs in numerous compounds such as *lakcəə* ‘finger’ and *ləcəə* ‘toe’. However, \**acəə* is rejected by most speakers.

<sup>6</sup> May actually classify ‘group performances’.

### 6.2.2.1.1. Lack of a generic classifier

Tani is unusual – as far as I know, unique in Southeast Asia – in lacking a “generic” classifier, as well as a classifier for human beings, such as Chinese *ge*, Thai *ʔan* or Burmese *khu*. Instead, humans and novel/unclassifiable terms simply take numerals directly.

- 21) G *ɲĩ=go*                      22) G *ɲĩ akèn=go*  
 human=IDEF                      human one=IDEF  
 ‘a human’                          ‘one human’

### 6.2.2.2. Mensural classifiers

Mensural classifiers may be used as lexical nouns to denote an *entity* which is employed in, which is an abstract standard of, or which is the result of, the grouping or division of some other entity or entities.

- 23) *əbár=go*                      24) *opòo əbár=go*  
 large.loose.conical.basket=IDEF      liquor l.l.c.basket=IDEF  
 ‘an ebar basket’                      ‘a basket of (unfiltered) opo’

Type	Lex.	Gloss	Root	Quantifies
Quan..	<i>acám</i>	‘one group of ten’	<i>cám-</i>	any set of individuals in groups of ten
	<i>ahú</i>	‘one group of four’	<i>hú-</i>	any set of individuals in groups of four
	<i>atík</i>	‘bushel’	<i>tík-</i>	bushels of large-sized leaves (40 by standard)
	<i>arò</i>	‘bundle’	<i>rò-</i>	bundles of sticks or poles (40 by standard)
Coll.	<i>ajùm</i>	‘handful’	<i>jùm-</i>	handfuls of any substance
	<i>aók</i>	‘heaping handful’	<i>ók-</i>	heaping handfuls of any substance
	<i>apùm</i>	‘heap’	<i>pùm-</i>	heaps of any substance or individual
	<i>alùm</i>	‘cluster’	<i>lùm-</i>	clusters of individuals
	<i>igìn</i>	‘tight conical basket’	<i>gìn-</i>	tight conical basketfuls of any substance
	<i>əbár</i>	‘loose conical basket’	<i>bár-</i>	loose conical basketfuls of any substance
	<i>uzùk</i>	‘gourd ladle’	<i>hùk-</i>	ladlefuls of any substance
	<i>apée</i>	‘one bunch’	<i>pée-</i>	bunches of any substance or individual
Div.	<i>akór</i>	‘one pace’	<i>kór-</i>	any length/distance as measured by paces
	<i>agóp</i>	‘one handspan’	<i>góp-</i>	any length/distance as measured by handspans
	<i>adú</i>	‘one forearm length’	<i>dú-</i>	any length/distance as measured by forearm spans
	<i>azék</i>	‘one slice’	<i>zék-</i>	slices of any substance or individual
	<i>aták</i>	‘one fragment’	<i>ták-</i>	fragments of any substance or individual
	<i>atək</i>	‘one piece’	<i>tək-</i>	pieces of any substance or individual

Table 8 – Mensural classifiers attested to date (Galo)

### 6.2.3. Monosyllabic adjectival roots

The overwhelming majority of Galo adjectives are like nouns: disyllabic; etymologically complex, but not actively/productively-formed or analysable. However, a small set of “core” adjectives have root forms which are productively compounded to form Adjectival Classifier Expressions (§6.2.4.).

Gloss	Lex.	Root	PTS
‘big’	<i>attə</i>	<i>tə-</i>	* <i>tə</i>
‘small’	<i>ajáa</i>	<i>jáa-</i>	* <i>jaŋ</i>
	<i>aŋŋí</i>	<i>ŋí-</i>	--
‘old’	<i>akò</i>	<i>kòo-</i>	* <i>k(j)u?</i>
‘new’	<i>alii</i>	<i>lii-</i>	--

Table 9 – Core adjectives – lexical and root forms

### 6.2.4. Classifier expressions

Classifier expressions fall under two types: *Enumerative* and *Adjectival*. Both types are realized as disyllabic compounds which are productively formed via the combination of initial Classifier roots with final Core numeral roots or Monosyllabic Adjective roots respectively, i.e. [CLF-NUM] or [CLF-ADJ] (25-26).

25) G *ikì **dorum**gó*  
 ikii dór-úm=go  
 dog CLF-three=IDEF  
 ‘**three** dogs’

26) G *ikì **dortə** nago*  
 ikii dór-tə na=go  
 dog CLF-big ASSC=IDEF  
 ‘a **big** dog’

Peripheral numerals cannot be used to form a classifier expression, since they lack qualifying root forms. Enumerative classifications based on peripheral numerals are formed periphrastically (27):

27) G *ikì **adór** kanəgò*  
 ikii adór kanə=go  
 dog CLF seven=IDEF  
 ‘**seven** dogs’

### 6.2.5. Syntactic functions of classifiers

Galo classifiers/classifier expressions are functionally limited to enumeration and (core) adjectival modification. In these functions, they may be analysed as syntactic NP heads, and may be employed anaphorically in referential maintenance.

28) G *aló gollo...kobú dorùmgo...*

aló go=lo kobùu dór-úm=go  
day IDEF=LOC rodent CLF:4.LEG.ANIM-three=IDEF

*imméntabə, oodôobə imméntabə ín/... inlênto. <8 lines>*

ín-mèn-tà-bó oodòo-bó ín-mèn-tà-bó ín-lèn-tó  
walk-AS.PLAY-INCP-SBRD far-AVZR walk-IN.PLAY-INCP-SBRD go-OUT-PFV  
'One day, **three** mice went out to go for a walk...far away out to go for a walk.'  
(TR, FA 002)

29) *əə, naməló aalɛ̃k doolà...dorumɛ̃..*

əə namə=lo áa-lɛ̃k-dóo-làa dór-úm=əə  
AFF house=LOC come-APPL:INTO-STAT-NF CLF:4.LEG.ANIM-three-NOM

*ərabné cɛ̃n cɛ̃b əlà...*

əráp=ne cɛ̃n-nə cɛ̃b-bó-làa  
door=OBL slap-MOVE.1 slap-MOVE.2-NF  
'They came up to the house and **the three of them** knocked on the door and...'  
(TR, FA 009)

However, unlike Thai, Galo classifiers are not directly modified by demonstratives or relativized-from (29-30).

30) G *əgə ikì əgə* \* (əgə) (ikì) (a)dor əgə  
əgə ikì əgə  
DST.IND dog DST.IND  
'that there dog'

31) G *kopák hɛ̃n donə ərək* \* *kopák hɛ̃n donə (a)dor*  
kopák hɛ̃nə dó-nà ərək  
banana tree eat-ASSC pig  
'the pig that ate the banana tree'

### 6.3. Structure of nouns/adjectives

#### 6.3.1. Root-root compounds

Root-root compounds follow a Generic-Specific pattern, whether they function primarily as nouns, as adjectives, or both.

Compound		Root 1 (Generic)		Root 2 (Specific)	
Term	Gloss	Term	Gloss	Term	Gloss
<i>dumpìn</i>	'barking deer skin'	<i>dùm-</i>	'barking deer'	<i>pìn-</i>	'skin'
<i>beehòr</i>	'langur'	<i>bée-</i>	'monkey'	<i>hòr-</i>	'length/long'
<i>dumpúu</i>	'white hair(ed)'	<i>dúm-</i>	'head (hair)'	<i>púu-</i>	'white'
<i>hibùu</i>	'river'	<i>hì-</i>	'water'	<i>búu-</i>	'pipe'
<i>luuráp</i>	'fence gate'	<i>lúu-</i>	'fence'	<i>ráp-</i>	'door'
<i>tələe</i>	'wild elephant'	<i>tə-</i>	'elephant; big'	<i>lèe-</i>	'wild (animal)'

Table 10 – Representative selection of root-root compounds (Galo)

### 6.3.2. Emergence of class terms

Frequently-occurring root-root compound initials may take on a status not unlike the *class terms* found in Mainland Southeast Asian languages such as Thai. Class terms were identified by DeLancey (1986, following Haas (1964)) as a type of semi-productive, classificatory compound formative.

CT	Occurs on	Ex.	Gloss	RL	Gloss
<i>ɲɛk-</i>	terms relating to eyes	<i>ɲiɣlɛ́a</i>	‘tears’	<i>aɲɛk</i>	‘eye’
<i>ɲɛ́</i>	terms relating to human beings	<i>ɲipàk</i>	‘non-hill-tribal’	<i>ɲi</i>	‘human’
<i>lák-</i>	terms relating to arms/hands	<i>lagbɛ́</i>	‘elbow’	<i>alák</i>	‘arm including hand’
<i>lə̀</i>	terms relating to feet/legs	<i>ləgàp</i>	‘underknee’	<i>alə̀</i>	‘leg including foot’
<i>mə̀</i>	terms relating to fire	<i>mərə̀e</i>	‘ember’	<i>əmə̀</i>	‘fire’
<i>pɛ́ ~ pə̀</i>	terms relating to globes, spheres, or eggs	<i>pɛ́ɛ́</i>	‘cooking pot’	<i>apə̀</i>	‘globe/sphere/egg’

Table 11 – Representative set of class terms (CT) given with related lexemes (RL) (Galo)

Term	Gloss	Term	Gloss	Term	Gloss
<i>liɛ́k</i>	‘cooking tripod’ <sup>7</sup>	<i>liɲ̀p̀</i>	‘marble’	<i>liɛ́kə̀r</i>	‘turquoise’
<i>liɲ̀m̀k</i>	‘gravel’	<i>liɲ̀nə̀</i>	‘boulder’	<i>liɛ́kùm</i>	‘jade’
<i>liɲ̀m̀ik</i>	‘algae’	<i>liɲ̀p̀ùm</i>	‘stone pile’	<i>liɲ̀p̀ə̀</i>	‘sharpening stone’
<i>liɲ̀àk</i>	‘giant boulder’	<i>liɲ̀òr</i>	‘hard stone’	<i>liɛ́kə̀</i>	‘ebony’
<i>liɛ́kà</i>	‘igneous rock’	<i>liɲ̀à</i>	‘soft stone’	<i>liɛ́kək</i>	‘pebble’

Table 12 – Lare Galo Lexical set based on the class term ‘stone’ (Galo)

Class terms have also been identified as a possible historical feeder for the classifier system via a “semi-repeater” construction (31-32).

- 32) T *raán-ɹaahǎan sǎam ráan*  
shop-food three CLF:SHOP  
‘three restaurants’ (lit. ‘three shops of restaurant’)

- 33) G *pɛ́p̀ə̀ pɛ́úmgo*  
pɛ́p̀ə̀ pɛ́-úm=go  
egg CLF-three=IDEF  
‘three eggs’

<sup>7</sup> Semantic shift has occurred here, and owes to the fact that while traditionally, Galo cooks balanced pots on a configuration of any number of large stones, in modern times iron tripods are invariably used. As to the *cɛ́k-* element, it could relate either to PG \**cɛ́k-* ‘wall; barrier’ or to PG \**cɛ́k-* ‘scatter(ed)’, and relates undoubtedly to the configuration of stones.

### 6.3.3. From class term to prefix

Frequently-occurring (and probably long-lasting) class terms can further develop into *prefixes*. Most Tani prefixes have an identifiable semantic core which relates to their earlier occurrence as class terms; however, they lack a lexical (root) form which may itself be prefixed to form a word, generally lack a tone, and may exhibit further (often unpredictable) phonological discontinuities with their lexical sources.

PFX	Semantics	Example	Gloss	PTS	PTB
<i>ho-</i>	animals	<i>hodùm</i>	'barking deer'	* <i>sa-</i>	* <i>s(j)a</i> 'meat'
<i>pV-</i>	birds	<i>pəgúá</i>	'great pied hornbill'	* <i>pa-</i>	* <i>b(j)a</i> 'bird'
<i>doo-</i>	weather	<i>doojí</i>	'sun'	* <i>doŋ-</i>	???
<i>ja-</i>	colour, feminine, pejorative, diminutive	<i>jalíí</i>	'red'	* <i>ja(ŋ) ?</i>	???
<i>ta-</i>	insects/low animals, masculine, diminutive	<i>tabǝ</i>	'snake'	* <i>ta-</i>	???
<i>a/V-</i>	basic noun/adjective	<i>alák</i>	'hand/arm'	* <i>a-</i>	* <i>a-</i> 'NZR?'

Table 13 – Tani Prefixes (Data from Galo; attested in all Tani languages)

### 6.3.4. Kinship: relatives by marriage

Order	Wives-in-law	Daughters-in-law	Maternal Uncles	Maternal Aunts
1	<i>nətǝ</i>	<i>ɲamtǝ</i>	<i>kítǝ</i>	<i>motǝ</i>
2	<i>nəroǝ</i>	<i>ɲamróo</i>	--	<i>moróo</i>
3	<i>nəkòo</i>	<i>ɲamkoo</i>	--	--
4	<i>nədǝǝ</i>	<i>ɲamdǝǝ</i>	--	--
5	<i>nəi</i>	<i>ɲamí</i>	<i>kū</i>	<i>moí</i>

Table 16 – Relatives by marriage (-- means unattested)

### 6.3.5. Naming

Tani naming follows a patrilineal system which is apparently common in T-B, in which a child is given a disyllabic name. The second syllable (the *autosyllable*) relates to the child itself, and frequently relates to birth order (particularly *tǝ* 'big; first' and *í-* 'small; last'). The first syllable (the *patrisyllable*) represents the filiosyllable of the child's father. The same procedure is followed for male and female children, however only a male child's autosyllable is incorporated into the lineage as the patrisyllable of his own children's names (assuming he has any!).

tanii → niitoo → toopo → panə → naur → urti → sikar → karkoo → koori → rinaa, ribaa

Figure 7 – Lineage of the Riba clan ancestor

This may be thought of as a classificatory naming system. The patrisyllable essentially denotes a type, or set of related items; namely, the set of children pertaining to a man. The autosyllable denotes an individual or exemplar of that type.

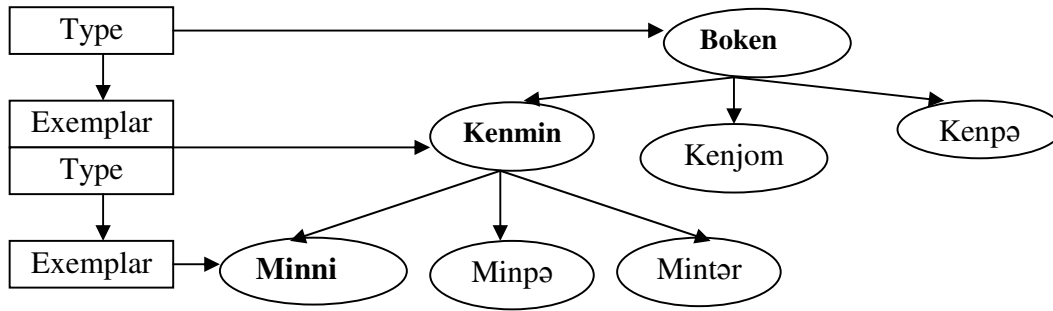


Figure 8 – Classificatory structure of the Tani naming system

### 6.3.6. Two-term compounds

#### 6.3.6.1. Asymmetrical

Asymmetrical two-term compounds are, like root-root compounds, formed according to a Generic-Specific pattern. All asymmetrical compounds are inherently classificatory in this sense; however, a subset is formed according to an A-B=B-C pattern, in which the B term is the Specific member of the initial term and the Generic member of the final term.

Type	Term	Gloss	1 (Gen)	Gloss	2 (Spec)	Gloss
Clas.	<i>hotê-təpìn</i>	‘elephant skin’	<i>hotê</i>	‘elephant’	<i>təpìn</i>	‘elephant skin’
	<i>orí-riiták</i>	‘wild coriander’	<i>orí</i>	‘coriander’	<i>riiták</i>	‘wild coriander’
	<i>îs-hilê</i>	‘lake’	<i>isî</i>	‘water’	<i>hilê</i>	‘deep section of river’
	<i>kodé-deerí</i>	‘plains’	<i>kodée</i>	‘soil; earth’	<i>deerí</i>	‘flatland’
	<i>ikî-kiibò</i>	‘male dog’	<i>ikî</i>	‘dog’	<i>kiibò</i>	‘male dog’
Other	<i>hodùm-talî</i>	‘round tick’	<i>hodùm</i>	‘deer’	<i>talî</i>	‘flea’
	<i>ɲim-koodá</i>	‘women’s balcony’	<i>ɲimê</i>	‘wife’	<i>koodá</i>	‘balcony’
	<i>óo-takáa</i>	‘edible fern’	<i>óo</i>	‘vegetable’	<i>takáa</i>	‘fern’
	<i>acá-kajàa</i>	‘blackmouth variety’	<i>acàa</i>	‘?’	<i>kajáa</i>	‘black’
	<i>kán-zèe</i>	‘dark green/blue’	<i>kanê</i>	‘dark’	<i>zèe</i>	‘green/blue’

Table 14 – Asymmetrical two-term compounds (Galo)

#### 33) G *ikî kiibò*

<i>ikî</i>	<i>kiibò</i>
dog	male.dog
GEN	SPEC
i- kîi-	kîi- bó-
PFX dog	dog male; father
GEN SPEC	GEN SPEC
‘male dog’	

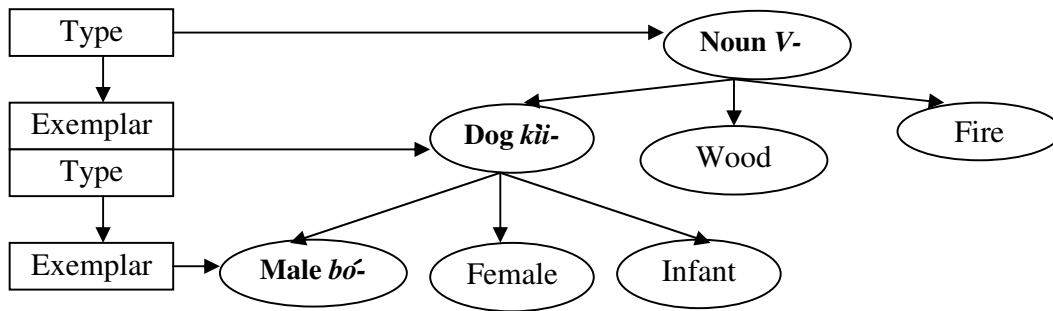


Figure 9 – Classificatory composition of asymmetrical two-term compounds

### 6.3.6.2. Symmetrical

Symmetrical two-term compounds are also classificatory, but in a different sense. Each term individually denotes an exemplar of a higher-order type, which is the denotation of the whole.

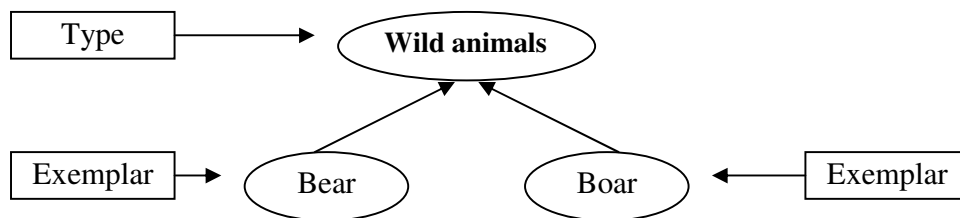


Figure 10 – Classificatory composition of symmetrical two-term compounds

Term	Gloss	Term 1	Gloss	Term 2	Gloss
<i>hottúm-horɔ́</i>	‘wild animals’	<i>hottúm</i>	‘bear’	<i>horɔ́</i>	‘boar’
<i>ác-abó</i>	‘(mature) men’	<i>ací</i>	‘elder brother’	<i>abó</i>	‘father’
<i>ân-ɲamɔ́ɔ</i>	‘married women’	<i>anɔ́</i>	‘mother’	<i>ɲamɔ́ɔ</i>	‘daughter-in-law’
<i>cɛrɔ́-cɛkòò</i>	‘every nook and cranny’	<i>cɛrɔ́</i>	‘corner’	<i>cɛkòò</i>	‘notch’
<i>donám-tíínám</i>	‘upkeep; sustenance’	<i>dó-nam</i>	‘eat-NZR’	<i>tíí-nam</i>	‘imbibe-NZR’
<i>innám-kennám</i>	‘comings and goings’	<i>ín-nam</i>	‘go-NZR’	<i>kén-nam</i>	‘?-NZR’
<i>cinám-ramnám</i>	‘disease’	<i>cì-nam</i>	‘be in pain-NZR’	<i>rám-nam</i>	‘have fever-NZR’
<i>rɔ̀rò-duurò</i>	‘artifacts of youth’	<i>rɔ̀-rò</i>	‘exist-NZR:ORG’	<i>dùu-rò</i>	‘stay-NZR:ORG’

Table 15 – Symmetrical two-term compounds

## 6.4. The root-class term-classifier network

### Galo

Terms				Pattern				Gloss			
ə-	rók-	rók-	cùu-	A	B	B	C	PFX	pig	pig	infant
i-	lìi-	lìi-	pùm-	A	B	B	C	PFX	stone	stone	pile
i-	gǐn-	gǐn-	ci-	A	B	B	C	PFX	basket	basket	-let
i-	gǐn-	gǐn-	ǰǐ-	A	B	B	C	PFX	basket	basket/CLF	two
i-	gǐn-	gǐn-	ǰí-	A	B <sub>i</sub>	B <sub>ii</sub>	C	PFX	basket	CLF	small
i-	kǐi-	dór-	ǰǐ-	A	B <sub>i</sub>	B <sub>ii</sub>	C	PFX	dog	CLF	two
i-	kǐi-	dór-	ǰí-	A	B <sub>i</sub>	B <sub>ii</sub>	C	PFX	dog	CLF	small

Figure 11 – Roots to class terms to classifiers in Galo

In Galo, most of the system appears fairly fixed, although the mensural classifier system seems productively expandable in this way. However, in Apatani, it seems common to “auto-classify” nouns, leading to a potentially open sortal classifier set as has also been claimed to exist in Thai and Lao (Enfield 2004). Note especially the occurrence of auto-classifying roots with peripheral numerals.

### Apatani

a-	lji-	lji-	ne-	PFX	pig	pig/CLF	two
pa-	cu-	cu-	pe-	PFX	chick	chick/CLF	four
a-	ki-	ki-	ǰo-	PFX	dog	dog/CLF	small
a-	ki-	ki-	pije	PFX	dog	dog/CLF	eight

Figure 12 – Roots to class terms to classifiers in Apatani (data from Abraham (1985: 65-66))

## 7. Linearity and ordered relations: the semantics and pragmatics of “modification”

When two terms in a linear sequence bear some relation – particularly when they together form a single constituent – the relationship is usually described as one of ‘dependency’ or ‘modification’ – i.e., one term is ‘dependent’ or ‘modifier’ and the other term is ‘head’ or ‘modified.’ Does this kind of description always work? In particular, does it work for compounds, i.e. at the word, as opposed to phrase, level?

“Auditory signifiers...are presented in succession; they form a chain [Principle II of the Study of the Sign, p.70]...words acquire relations based on the linear nature of language [Definition of the Syntagm, p.123].” (Saussure 1959)

“As soon as two or more [terms] are put before the human mind in immediate sequence it strives to bind them together with connecting values of some sort....It

depends entirely on the genius of the particular language what function is inherently involved in a given sequence of words.” (Sapir 1949 [1921]: 62-63)

### 7.1. What is modification?

An inherently pragmatic – *not semantic* – notion:

“The act of modification (of referents) functions to enrich a referent’s identity by an additional feature of the referent, denoted by the modifier.” (Croft 2001: 66, citing Searle (1969:23-4))

“[The] major function of noun modifiers [is] to...narrow down the domain of reference of their head nouns [,which,] unlike pronouns and names, do not of themselves refer to unique [individuals]...They thus require further modification in order to become uniquely referring expressions.” (Givón 2001 [1990]: 1)

### 7.2. Is there “modification” in compounds?

Are compounds analysable using the same concepts as we use for syntax?

“The head of the phrase determines its principle meaning. The expression ‘brick red’ has...red as its head, *so* the entire expression is a kind of red. In noun compounds the final noun is *generally* the head.” (Fromkin, Blair et al. 1999 [1988]: 166 (my emphasis))

Insofar as *compounds often represent frozen syntax*, syntax-like analyses of compound-internal structure often work reasonably well. However, just because we often can doesn’t mean we always should. A particular pattern of compound-formation may or may not reflect a syntactic pattern which exists in a given language at a given point in time. Furthermore, compounds are frequently subject to categorical or other semantic changes which are lexicalized, rendering their analysis problematic.

The default assumption should probably be that compounds must be analysed on their own terms, i.e. independently of syntax. However, to the extent that productive patterns of compounding resemble or appear to be derived from productive syntactic patterns, these facts should of course be included in the description.

### 7.3. “Modification” in Chinese and Tani

Chao (1968) analyses Chinese as having a Modifier-Modified order in syntax and compounds alike. The only exceptions are 1) exocentric compounds (i.e. compounds which have semantically/categorically shifted, either in whole or in parts) 2) coordinate compounds (i.e. compounds whose formatives are in apposition) 3) V-O compounds 4) resultative complements.

Chinese				
Order	√1	√2	Comp.	Whole
MOD-H	<i>bái</i>	<i>cài</i>	white-vegetable	‘wombok’
MOD-H	<i>mǔ</i>	<i>gǒu</i>	mother-dog	‘female dog’
MOD-H	<i>rè</i>	<i>shuǐ</i>	hot-water	‘hot water’
MOD-H	<i>shù</i>	<i>cóng</i>	tree-thicket	‘grove’
MOD-H	<i>lù</i>	<i>pí</i>	deer-skin	‘deerskin’
MOD-H	<i>gāo</i>	<i>shēng</i>	tall-sound	‘loud’
MOD-H	<i>ā</i>	<i>yí</i>	PFX-maternal aunt	‘maternal aunt; elder sister figure’
MOD-H	<i>lǎo</i>	<i>hàn</i>	old (PFX)-(Chinese) man	‘old feller’

Galo					
Order	√1	√2	Comp.	Whole	Order
H-MOD	<i>ó-</i>	<i>kú-</i>	vegetable-sour	‘variety of sour vegetable’	GEN-SPEC
H-MOD	<i>kìi-</i>	<i>nḁ-</i>	dog-mother	‘female dog’	GEN-SPEC
H-MOD	<i>hì-</i>	<i>gò-</i>	water-hot	‘hot water’	GEN-SPEC
MOD-H	<i>hḁ-</i>	<i>lùu-</i>	wood-thicket	‘grove’	GEN-SPEC
MOD-H	<i>dùm-</i>	<i>pìn-</i>	barking deer-skin	‘barking deer skin’	GEN-SPEC
H-MOD	<i>dù-</i>	<i>tḁ-</i>	sound-big	‘loud’	GEN-SPEC
MOD-H	<i>a-</i>	<i>ḁí-</i>	PFX-elder sister	‘elder sister (figure)’	GEN-SPEC
MOD-H	<i>ta-</i>	<i>púu-</i>	PFX-white	‘whitey’	GEN-SPEC

#### 7.4. “Classification” as the semantic contents of “modification” in Tani

To the extent that we can define “modification” along pragmatic lines – as the augmentation of reference – then we could describe modification in Tani as an essentially Modifier-Modified language (like Chinese). REL-N order is also exhibited, and the N-DEM order can perhaps be explained on historical grounds by suggesting that they derive from resumptive pronouns, since DEM-N order is also attested. In all cases, the *most referential term is rightmost*.

However, semantic relations also obtain between the terms in an ordered string, and “modification” may not tell us the whole story about these. That is, it might in the case of Chinese – all leftward elements appear to be simply “adding some more information”, whether this information is expressed by an adjectival (verbal), nominal or prefixal formative.

In Tani, the semantic relation obtaining between ordered terms in the nominal/adjectival lexicon appears most often to be one of Generic-Specific, Type-Exemplar, Set-definer-Set-member, or some such configuration.

## Abbreviations

ABL	Ablative	NZR	Nominalizer
APPL	Applicative	PERS	Persistent
ASSC	Associative	PFX	Prefix
CLF	Classifier	PFV	Perfective
COP	Copula	PRX	Proximate
DECL	Declarative	PST	Past
DST	Distal	PTB	Proto-Tibeto-Burman, Matisoff's (2003) reconstruction
E	East	PTS	Proto-Tani, Sun's (1993) reconstruction
IDEF	Indefinite	OBL	Oblique
INCP	Incipient	REL	Relativizer/Relative Clause
IND	Individuative	SBRD	Subordinate
IPFV	Imperfective	STAT	Stative
LOC	Locative		
NF	Nonfinite		
NOM	Nominative		

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