CHAPTER 3

MODIFIERS:
ADJECTIVALS AND ADVERBIALS
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3.0. Introduction

A 'modifier' is any category which serves to add semantic information to that provided by the head of the category within which it is contained, such as an adjectival within an NP or an adverbial within a VP. That is, there are two broad types of modifiers -- (1) Adjectivals and (2) Adverbials.

In the following discussion, separate sections are not clearly divided to distinguish between noun modifiers (adjectivals) and verb modifiers (adverbials). This has been done mainly, to avoid repetition and, partly, due to lack of adequate morphological theory. Thus, there will be some 'mixing up' or 'messing up' among the lexical items found in what I have arbitrarily subdivided as 'adjectivals' and 'adverbials'.

3.1. ADJECTIVALS

It is an undisputed fact that there are several languages like English in which adjectives, as a word class, are quite different from nouns and verbs. What is being disputed, in the case of these languages, is the exact nature of this distinction, and the criteria that can be used for defining or describing it. The exact relationship between adjectives on the one hand, and other categories like nouns, verbs and
adverbs on the other, has thus been one of the highly disputed issues in linguistics and other related studies. While Plato and Aristotle treated adjectives as a subclass of verbs, Alexandrians regarded them as a subclass of nouns (see Lyons 1966). Logicians have generally retained the former view, but a dispute still persists among them, namely as to whether adjectives are to be regarded as predicates proper or only as truncated noun phrases which function as predicates. On the other hand, "Indian grammarians like Pāṇini and Patañjali... found it unnecessary (or rather impossible) to differentiate between modifiers (viśeṣānas) and the modified (viśeṣyās) in the noun phrases.... in Sanskrit".10

In Tangkhul-Naga there is no distinction between verbs and adjectives in the sense that they are derived from roots, and function as adjectives or verbs with (a) appropriate affixation and (b) appropriate occurrence in a sentence.

3.1.1. Morphological characteristics

Since Tangkhul-Naga adjectives can fall semantically somewhere between verbs and nouns (as discussed in 4.1.1. below), it is not surprising that morphologically they also tend to display intermediate characteristics. In other words, Tangkhul-Naga adjectives display a hybrid morphology, some nominal, some verbal. The bulk of the morphological feature of adjectives in

the language pertains to both their derivational and grammatical morphology.

3.1.1.1. Degree modifiers/intensifiers

There are a good number of intensifiers or degree modifiers in the language. They are suffixed to roots to derive forms expressing meanings ranging from 'more-than-moderate' to 'extremity' or more complex and modified meanings related to the roots. The intensifiers may be productive/common or non-productive/individual.

3.1.1.1.1. Non-productive degree modifiers

Individual intensifiers are non-productive in sense that each of them can be affixed to only one root or a very few number of roots. The following are some of the forms formed with non-productive intensifier in the language.

(1) \( n\hat{\alpha}nai-sui \)
    slippery-INTSF 'very (wet and) slippery (as cooked lady’s finger, etc.)'

(2) hin\(\eta\)-pit
    shine-INTSF 'very shining (as well-polished shoes, etc.)'

(3) \( n\hat{o}va-t^b\)er
    thin-INTSF 'very thin (as paper, cloths, etc.)'

(4) hor-trarik
    bright-INTSF 'very clear and bright'

(5) sim-rip
    sweet-INTSF 'very (tasty and) sweet'

(6) \( k^b\)a-zek
    bitter-INTSF 'obnoxiously bitter'
There are some intensifiers which can be suffixed to more than one root.

(14) /t\i\/ occurs in the following forms:
(a) 
pui-ti\  
full-INTSF 'fully filled, well build (as body, etc.)'
(b) 
to\mn-\i\  
dark-INTSF 'completely dark'
(c) 
\bo-ti\  
fill-INTSF 'well fed; having stomach completely filled'
(d) 
wor-ti\  
swell-INTSF 'fully swollen or bulgy'

(15) /rik/ derives the following forms:
(a) 
mot\i\n-rik  
clear-INTSF 'very clear, or transparent'
(b) 
\\um-rik  
round-INTSF ' (Lit:) very round'
(c) ηeřu-rik
pass though-INTSF 'see-through, transparent'

(16) /rut/ occurs in the following formations:
(a) ηđми-rut
dim-INTSF 'cloudily dark, very dim'
(b) mòkʰui-rut
muddy-INTSF 'opaquely muddy'
(c) ηđcí-rut
tight-INTSF 'overcrowded (especially hindering free movement'
(d) tōrao-rut
prickly-INTSF 'full of prickles, spreading out unevenly (as uncombed hair, etc.)'

(17) /sor/ occurs in the following forms:
(a) laŋso-sor
proud-INTSF 'very proud'
(b) hik-sor
proud-INTSF 'excessively proud'
(c) leiya-sor
leisurely-INTSF 'free, very leisurely'
(d) nim-sor
cool/calm-INTSF 'comfortably cool or calm, lovely'

(18) /tot/ is suffixed to form:
(a) mòkʰao-tot
dirty-INTSF 'very dirty (especially characterized by staining or littering)'
(b) mòhmu-tot
foolish-INTSF 'very foolish, stupid or innocent'

3.1.1.1.2. Color degree modifiers

Tangkhul-Naga has a number of color intensifiers or modifiers which derive new color terms. The meanings of the derived
words are related to the potential meaning of the bare roots in varying degrees. Some of the modifiers come in partially reduplicated forms.

There are five types of reddish color derived from the root /huŋ/ 'red':

\[(19) \text{huŋ-ðhaŋ-saŋ}\]
red-MODF-REDU 'light brown'

\[(20) \text{huŋ-pao-saŋ}\]
red-MODF-REDU 'light brown (as the color of tobacco juice)'

\[(21) \text{huŋ-piŋ}\]
red-INTSF 'very red, scarlet, vermilion'

\[(22) \text{huŋ-ʃi}\]
red-INTSF 'flaming red, scarlet'

\[(23) \text{huŋ-zir}\]
red-MODF 'pink (as the flesh color of a young rat or a fledging)'

Two commonly used yellowish color terms are derived from the root moŋir 'yellow':

\[(24) \text{moŋir-cir}\]
yellow-MODF 'whitish/yellowish (as an egg shell)'

\[(25) \text{moŋir-hur}\]
yellow-MODF 'pale color (as bloodless face)'

Two greenish color terms are derived from the root mọtek 'green':

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(26) mōtek-cim
  green-MODF '(very) green as plants' leaves;
      pleasantly very green'

(27) mōtek-rek/sek
  green-MODF 'deep green'

There are a number of color terms derived from the root cōr or ɳui both meaning 'white':

(28) cōr-ši
  white-INTSF 'very white'

(29) cōr-tōre-te
  white-MODF-REDU 'white (as teeth)'

(30) ɳui-hao-sao
  white-MODF-REDU 'wheatish white'

(31) ɳui-hor-tor
  white-MODF-REDU 'pinkish white (as the color of
      light-colored buffaloes)'

(32) ɳui-hok
  white-INTSF 'snow white'

(33) ɳui-ha?-ta?
  white-MODF-REDU 'bright white'

(34) ɳui-pet-set
  white-MODF-REDU 'grayish white'

Dark color terms are derived from the root zik or mōnaŋ, both
meaning 'black':

(35) zik-rik
  black-INTSF 'dense/deep black'
(36) zik-hâm-sâm
black-MODF-REDU 'deep dark brown'

(37) zik-ŋei-sei
black-MODF-REDU 'brownish color of the natives
(Tangkhul-Nagas)'

(38) mēnaŋ-caŋ
black-INTSF 'very black (as the color of soots)'

There is one derived form of mōyĩn 'blue':

mōyĩn-rik
blue-INTSF 'blue (as the clear evening sky)'

There is one derived color term of unknown origin and which is
not segmentable into 'root' and 'derivative':

(39) chi-hor-cop 'light green'

This word is considered to be a derived one because, like
other derived forms and unlike non-derived roots, it cannot
take any formative affix.

Apart from the above-discussed derivatives, there is a rather
productive intensifier/modifier /ri/. Often this suffix tends
to carry the meaning 'comfortable' or 'pleasing'. It is
suffixable to some ten roots:

(40) (a) ciŋ-ri
calm-INTSF '(very) peaceful/calm, silent'

(b) mōyo-ri
lovely-INTSF 'very lovely, cool, serene, tranquil
(as one's behavior or manner)'
(c) leiši-ri
love-INTSF 'very lovely, comfortably lovely'

(d) yūkū-ri
shady-INTSF 'pleasingly damp, cool and green (as in thick green forest)'

(e) mōšit-ri
befriend-INTSF 'very friendly, intimate or close'

(f) ŋōni-ri
spherical-INTSF 'very (or evenly) spherical'

(g) ŋōhui-ri
feeble-INTSF 'very soft or lovely (especially looks, manner or utterance)'

3.1.1.1.3. Common/productive intensifiers

There are three very productive intensifiers in the language—/lak/ and /šun/ and /na/. They can be suffixed to any root. The difference between them is that /na/ expresses the meaning 'too' or 'too much', /lak/ carries the meaning 'very', /šun/ (often) carries a more complex meaning 'unexpectedly very'. Thus, consider the following examples:

a pēŋ-ŋ
3SG strong-NFUT 'He/she is strong'

(1) a pēŋ-na-yə
3SG strong-INTSF-NFUT 'He/she is too strong'

(2) a pēŋ-lak-ŋ
3SG strong-INTSF-NFUT 'He/she is very strong'
The intensifiers /na/, /lak/ and /sun/ affixed to verbal roots show gradations in their loss of adjectival characteristics and gain of adverbial properties. For example consider the following constructions:

(1) \( \text{a} \ 3SG \text{ go-NFUT} \) 'He/she goes'

(2) \( \text{a} \ 3SG \text{ go-INTSF-NFUT} \) 'He/she goes too much/too often/too far/for too long'

(3) \( \text{a} \ 3SG \text{ go-INTSF-NFUT} \) 'He/she goes unexpectedly very much/very often/very far/for a long time'

3.1.1.1.4. Reduplication as intensification/modification.

Some bisyllabic roots can be reduplicated to derive intensified forms. In the process of reduplication the last syllable of the root is partially reduplicated by replacing the initial consonant. Examples are:

(1) \( \text{ηναι-cai} \)

equal-REDU (Lit.) 'very equal'
(2) ηωρι-τʰι
equal(size)-REDU (Lit:) 'very equal in size'

(3) ηωρόν-τʰόν
equal(height)-REDU (Lit:) 'very equal in height and length'

(4) ηοπετ-τετ
pasty-REDU 'very pasty/creamy'

(5) ƙάŋser-ter
lewd-REDU 'very lewd, wanton'

(6) mόreo-ceo
jolly-REDU 'very jolly, amiable'

(7) mόŋek-tɵk
powdery-REDU 'very smooth, polished, powdery'

(8) luira-sa
stupid-REDU 'very stupidly unskilled (in movement or action)'

(9) ηοτʰem-rem
thin/slant-REDU 'very thin, slant or skinny'

(10) mόŋũ-tũ
narrow-REDU 'very narrow (as hole or path)'

(11) mόŋa-ta
wide-REDU 'very wide (as hole or road)'

(12) ηοũm-tüm
round-REDU (Lit:) 'very round'
3.1.1.1.5. Moderation

Tangkhul-Naga has one very productive moderation suffix /risi/ which is somewhat similar to the English -ish (as in 'reddish'). It can be suffixed to many roots (especially of color and taste). Examples are:

(1) (a) ŝim-risi  
    sweet-MODF 'sweetish'
(b) zik-risi  
    black-MODF 'blackish'
(c) ŋum-risi  
    round-MODF 'roundish'
(d) ša-risi  
    hot-MODF 'hottish'

Again, there are a few non-productive derivatives of this type, each of which is affixable to only one root. For Examples are:

(2) saŋ-reisei  
    long-MODF 'longish, semi-ovally longish'
(3) rum-rūsū  
    warm-MODF 'lukewarm'

3.1.1.2. Quantifiers and determiners

As perhaps in most languages, numerals, quantifiers and determiners belong morphologically (and less syntactically) to noun, verb, adjective and adverb classes. Thus, their
semantic description forms part and parcel of the characterization of various sub-classes of the language's lexicon. In sentential construction, they precede the head verbs and follow the head nouns. The following examples illustrates how quantifiers and determiners are constructed in the language:

(1) \( k\theta-\text{ton}\theta \_	heta \)
    NOMZ-full-ATTRI 'all'

(2) \( k\text{ai}-k^b\theta \)
    piece-UNIT 'some'

(3) \( t\theta\text{ra}-k^b\theta \)
    many-UNIT 'many'

(4) \( k\theta-\text{cu}\eta-k^b\theta \)
    NOMZ-much-UNIT 'many/much'

(5) \( \eta\theta\text{yax}-t\theta \)
    divide-ADV 'some'

(6) \( k\theta-\text{cun} \quad k\theta-ca \)
    NOMZ-much E 'most (of the people/things)'

(7) \( \text{ci} \)
    'that'

(8) \( k\theta-\text{ci} \)
    WH-that 'which'

(9) \( k\theta-\text{ci-vu} \)
    NOMZ-that-UNIT 'every (person/thing)'

\( k\theta= \text{Nominalizer/Non-finite marker} \)
\( \theta = \text{Agentive/Attributive suffix} \)
3.1.1.3. Numeral sub-system

3.1.1.3.1. Ordinals

An ordinal is a number defining position in a series. Tangkhul-Naga ordinals are formed by affixing the nominalizer or non-finite marker /kə/-/kʰə/ and suffixing the agentive or attributive adjective marker /ə/ to the numerals.

There are three ways of forming ordinals:

1. Ordinals for the first ten numbers are formed by prefixing /kə/ or /kʰə/ and suffixing /ə/-/yə/-/wə/ to the numerals except the first one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a-kʰə</td>
<td>kʰə-ri-yə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kʰə-ni</td>
<td>kə-kʰə-ni-yə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kə-tʰum</td>
<td>kə-kə-tʰum-ə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰəruk</td>
<td>kə-tʰəruk-ə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰəra</td>
<td>kə-tʰəra-ə</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. The above rules of forming ordinals is not applicable in the formation of ordinals for the 11th, 20th, 30th, 31st, 41st, 51st, 61st, 71st, 81st, 91st, 100th. For these numbers, there is no affixation of /kə/ or /ə/, but, instead, kə-ci-pə 'the ...one', is added. From the following construction, we can argue that numerals in the language tend to denote pragmatic forces.
Numerals | Ordinals
---|---
tʰhra-tə a-kʰə | tʰhra-tə a-kʰə kʰ-ci-pa
mökū | mökū kʰ-ci-pa
hōn-mōti-tə a-kʰə | hōn-mōti-tə a-kʰə kʰ-ci-pa
hōn-tʰrūk-tə a-kʰə | hōn-tʰrūk-tə a-kʰə kʰ-ci-pa
hōn-cišōt-tə a-kʰə | hōn-cišōt-tə a-kʰə kʰ-ci-pa
ša-kʰə | ša-kʰə kʰ-ci-pa

The suffixation of /pa/ to other ordinals derives kʰ-th-ri-yə-pa ‘first one’, kʰ-kʰ-ni-yə-pa ‘second one’ and so on. The above formations are exceptions or idiosyncratic.

3. Ordinals above 12th are formed by prefixing /kʰ/-/kʰ/ and suffixing /ə/-/ya/ to the second constituent of the numeral. Examples are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
tʰhra-tə kʰ-ni | tʰhra-tə kʰ-kʰ-ni-ya |
mökū-tə tʰrūk | mökū-tə kʰ-tʰrūk-ə |
hōn-mōti | hōn-kʰ-mōti-ya |
hōn-cišōt | hōn-kʰ-cišōt-ə |
hōn-ciko | hōn-kʰ-ciko-ə |
hōn-ciko-tə ciko | hōn-ciko-tə kʰ-ciko-ə |
Though the above analysis seems to be exhaustive and troublesome, the use of ordinals is very limited in Tangkhul-Naga. Ordinals higher than 10th or 20th are rarely used or needed by a few educated person (and especially in writing). The speakers of the language in general tend to avoid the above forms of higher ordinals, and prefer to use longer but simpler expressions.

Lastly, Tangkhul-Naga has two words corresponding to the English 'last' and 'last of all'. They are:

(1) $k^b\partial$-nə-wo
   NOMZ-late-ATTRI 'last/final'
(2) nao-mei-κόp-το
   late-CMPRT-SUP-ADV 'last of all'

3.1.1.3.2. Distributive numerals.

Distributive numerals are formed by reduplicating the last syllable of the numeral. In the following examples $k^b\partial$-nī-nī 'two two' also means 'both'. This is an exception.

\begin{verbatim}
a-vū
FX-ONE 'one' = variant of a-$k^b\partial$ 'one'
\end{verbatim}

a-vū-vū 'one by one/one at a time/one each'
$k^b\partial$-nī-nī 'both/two by two/two at a time/two each'
t$^h\partial$ra-ra 'ten by ten/ten at a time/ten each'
hōṇ-ciko-ko 'ninety by ninety/ninety at a time/ninety each'
hōṇ-ciko-το ciko-ko 'ninety nine by ninety nine/ninety nine at a time/ninety nine each'

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ša-ša 'one hundred by one hundred/one hundred at a time/one hundred each'

Non-numeral distributiveness is expressed in terms of kə-ci-vu 'each', 'every' as in the following:

\[
kəci = \text{rt. of 'count/enumerate'}
\]
\[
vu = \text{rt. of 'one'}
\]

(1) mi kəci-vu
man count-ONE 'each and every man/everybody'

(2) a-pəṃ kəci-vu
FX-place count-ONE 'each and every place/everywhere'

(3) a-təm kəci-tə
FX-time count-ADV 'each and every time/always'

3.1.1.3.3. Multiplicative/ frequency numerals

Multiplicatives are formed by suffixing /ši/ to the cardinal numerals:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ši} & = \text{MULT(implicative)} \\
\text{a-k}^b\text{ŋ-ši} & \quad \text{'once'} \\
\text{kə-t}^b\text{um-ši} & \quad \text{'thrice'} \\
\text{k}^b\text{ŋ-ni-ši} & \quad \text{'twice'} \\
\text{ša-k}^b\text{ŋ-ši} & \quad \text{'one hundred times'}
\end{align*}
\]

These multiplicative forms are used with reference to time only. With reference to quantity, quality or degree, the above forms are collocated with the word mətai-tə 'exceeding/more'. Examples:

(1) kəŋ-ni-ši mətai-tə hək-mei-yə
FX-two-MULT exceed-ADV big-CMPRT-NFUT

'Is bigger two times'
3.1.1.3.4. **Approximative numerals**

Approximative in the language is expressed by using the numeral followed by the term ʂʊ-ᵦ³ 'about' or ₃₀⁻₃₀ 'be like/be so'. The latter one is not used with ₃₀⁻₃₀ 'one'. Elsewhere, both ʂʊ⁻₃₀ and ₃₀⁻₃₀ can be used interchangeably.

- ₃₀⁻₃₀ ₃₀⁻₃₀ 'about one'
- ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ ʂʊ⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ ₃₀⁻₃₀ 'about two/two or the like'
- ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ ʂʊ⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ 'about ten/ten or the like'

The approximative phrase is also formed by using a set of two numerals in a consecutive order with or without the terms ʂʊ⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ or ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀. In such constructions the order of numerals, invariably, is an ascending one.

1. ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀  mɘkʊ⁻₃₀ ₃₀⁻₃₀ 'Give about 10-20 (some in between 10 and 20)'
2. ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀  mɘkʊ⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ ₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀⁻₃₀ 'Give about 10-20 (some about 10 or 20)'

3.1.1.3.5. **Fractional numerals.**

The most commonly used fractional numerals in the language are ¼, ½, ¾, out of which the first and the last are used,
formally, in money measurement. The second one has two terms -- one for money and the other for the rest.

šiki 'quarter of a rupee/one fourth
mő-kʰai
FX-divide 'half of a rupee'
šiki ƙo-tʰum 'three fourth of a rupee'

These fractionals can, thus, be added to any numerals as in:

\[
\begin{align*}
t\eta = & \text{ rt. of 'lump/solid/cake'} \\
kʰ\text{ai} = & \text{ rt. of 'divide/break'}
\end{align*}
\]

(1) ƙʰ-d-ni t\eta-kʰai 'two and a half (2½)'

(2) šini t\eta-kʰai 'seven and a half (7½)'

Other fractionals like 'one third', 'two third', etc. are expressed by suffixing the locative marker /li/ to the larger number and followed by the smaller number. Examples:

(1) ƙo-tʰum-li ƙʰ-d a-kʰd
three-LOC FX-one 'one third'(Lit:one in three)

(2) ƙo-tʰum-li ƙʰ-d-ni
three-LOC FX-two 'two third'(Lit:two in three)

3.1.1.4. Comparative and superlative forms

Tangkhul-Naga adjectives tend to display several noun-like, verb-like morphological characteristics. As modifiers and predicates, adjectives in the language are inflected for gender, number and tense-aspect, except personal numbers (i.e.
dual and plural). Again, all adjectives and verbs can be characterized by the comparative and superlative markers. Thus, adjectives in the language can be inflected in various ways as in the following.

(1) /mei/. This comparative marker is suffixable to any root to form complex root (which are then further inflected for attributive and predicative functions). (For detail see discussion on syntactic characteristics below).

za-mei
eat-CMPRT 'eat more/more often,

sū-mei
short-CPMRT 'shorter'

(2) /tʰui/, /kɔp/. These are superlative markers which are suffixed after the comparative affix. These markers can be used in free variation though /kɔp/ often carries the additional meaning 'of all'. The markers are suffixed to the complex comparative forms to form complex superlative forms (which are then inflected for attributive or predicative function).

Root+CMPRT+SUP

ša-mei-tʰui 'hottest'
ša-mei-kɔp 'hottest, hottest of all'
zik-mei-tʰui 'blackest'
zik-mei-kɔp 'blackest, blackest of all'
(3) /kʰar/. This is an intensifier forming comparatives expressing the meaning 'much more', as in:

\[ P^h \text{a-mei-} kʰ\text{ar} \]
\[ \text{good-CMPRT-INTSF} \quad \text{‘much better’} \]
\[ zôt-mei-kʰ\text{ar} \]
\[ \text{go-CMPRT-INTSF} \quad \text{‘go much farther/much more often/for a much longer time’} \]

3.1.1.5. Compounding of roots and expressives

Expressives (which are aplenty in the language and which most often have adverbial and adjectival functions) can be compounded with a number of roots to form compound adjectivals. In the process of compounding expressives tend to behave like intensifiers or modifiers. The following are some of the most commonly used adjectives formed by compounding roots and expressives.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Root+Expressive} & \text{Input expressive} \\
(1) \quad \eta\text{ñhai-}pôt & pôt pôt = \text{slippery} \\
\quad \text{slip-EXP.} & \text{feeling in touching or holding some smooth solid objects} \\
\quad \text{‘very slippery, smooth or well-polished’} & t^{h}u\eta t^{h}u\eta = \text{producing a lot of dust, as when dusty cloths are shaken} \\
(2) \quad mor-t^{h}u\eta & \\
\quad \text{fungous-EXP} & \\
\quad \text{‘very dusty/dirty, dry and bad-complexioned’} & \\
\end{array}
\]
(3) mənuisap
sticky-EXP
'very sticky, as hard-
to-jerk-off sticky rice'
sap sap = sticky
feeling, as in
contacting dirty and
sweating bodies

(4) nəpet-tok
soft-EXP
'unyieldingly soft, as
overripe fruits'
tok = the soft state of
overcooked rice,
overripe fruit, etc.

(5) kao-tʰek
thin-EXP
'very skinny or thin'
tʰek = sound of, or
feeling in, breaking dry
and hard twig, etc.

(6) tʰao-tur
fat-EXP
'very fat and/or
healthy'
tur tur = soft feeling
in touching the body,
especially of babies

(7) min-hok
ripe-EXP
'fully ripe/overripe'
hok = unyieldingly soft
and slippery, as skin of
overripe fruit

(8) mətʰan-tʰup
cheerful-EXP
'very cheerful'
tʰup tʰup = working here
and there keenly or
tirelessly

(9) nəm-tʰunə
proud-EXP
'very proud, heedless
or fearless'
tʰunə = move abruptly and
heedlessly

(10) vəri-həp
quite-EXP
'very quite, noiseless,
or lonely'
həp = having no
effervescence, still,
quite, calm, soothing
There are some compound modifiers in the language which are further reduplicated to denote modified or completely changed meaning. In the process of reduplication, the last syllable of the compound root is partially reduplicated by replacing its initial consonant. The following are some of the most commonly used reduplicated compound adjectives:

\[
\text{Root+Root+Reduplicator}
\]

(1) \(\text{t'em-rek-sek}\)

skill-pretend-REDU 'pretentious to be very skillful or learned'

(2) \(\text{sü-p'\text{dr}uk-tuk}\)

short-oval-REDU 'stout, plumby, oval'

(3) \(\text{k'on-zar-tar}\)

sound-dense-REDU 'very noisy'

(4) \(\text{na-ten\-sen}\)

ear-tame-REDU 'unheedful, unyielding'
3.1.2. Syntactic characteristics

Adjectivals may appear in sentences as either noun modifiers or as predicators. In the language, a root, as noun modifier, may even become affixed to a noun itself.

3.1.2.1. Attributive adjectives

There are two suffixes and one complementizer marking the attributive function of adjectivals:

(1) /\d/ is suffixed to full-fledged adjectivals, that is, root plus formative affix. /\d/ is the agentive as well as the attributive maker.

\[ a \ k\d-zik-\d \ mi-n\d \]

3SG NOMZ-black-ATTRI man-COP 'He/she is a black person'

(2) /hai/. This verb meaning 'keep', 'place', 'leave' is suffixed to intensified adjectival stem. The combined form occurs in nominalized or non-finite forms, as in:

\[ zik-rik-k\d-hai \ mi \]

black-INTSF-NOMZ-leave man

'very black/deep black person'

(Lit: To be/being very black person)

(3) /ci/. This complementizer 'be that' introduces modified adjectivals in attributive position, as in:
zik-risi kə-ci mi
black-MOD NOMZ-COMP man

'(a) blackish/darkish person / (a) person who is blackish'

3.1.2.2. Predicative adjective

Predicative adjectives many or may not take any marker before tense-aspect suffixation. Roots or modified adjectival stems do not take any suffix for indicating predicative function; they take only tense-aspect markers. Thus, consider the following constructions:

(a) a zik-ə
3SG black-NFUT 'He/she is black'

(b) a zik-risi-ya
3SG black-MOD-NFUT 'He/she is blackish'

Intensified form of adjectivals take the grammaticalized verb hai 'leave' followed by tense-aspect markers. Thus, consider:

a zik-rik-hai-ya
3SG black-INTSF-leave-NFUT 'He/she is very back'

3.1.2.3. Bound modifier

Modifying roots can be affixed to the nouns themselves. Thus, consider the following:

(a) sei-ŋui-la ci tʰi-hai-ra
    cattle-white-F that die-keep-PERF
'The white-cow has died' (Habitual name of the cow)
In this section, I have introduced and investigated some aspects of adjectivalis in a very simplified way. No one is more aware than I of the many over-simplifications which have been introduced, and the gratuitous theoretical assumptions that have been made. Often, it was necessary to cut corners in order to make any progress at all in an exploratory venture of this kind. Needless to say, more work needs to be done on the adjectivals in Tangkhul-Naga.

3.2 ADVERBIALS

Of all the word categories adverbs constitute the least homogenous class and the hardest to define. As rightly pointed out by Nilsen, 'there seems to be a general consensus of opinion among grammarians (no matter what model they represent) that the most heterogeneous, and the least understood of the traditional part-of-speech categories is, without question, the category of adverb" 11.

Traditionally, an adverb is a lexical category whose members are usually grammatical adjuncts of a verb. Most typically adverbs express such semantic notions as time, place, manner, degree, cause, result, condition, concession, purpose, means,

instrumental, or circumstances In Tangkhul-Naga, all these notions are expressed by affixes which are added to the roots and occurring in appropriate sentential constructions.

The heterogeneity of adverbials is evident in their semantics, syntax and morphology. Many semantic sub-classes of adverbials in Tangkhul-Naga are coded either by derived 'one-word' stems, particles affixed to roots, or by more complex syntactic (or sentential) constructions. In the following discussion I have broadly (and rather arbitrarily) presented adverbials in the language under two heads -- morphological and semantic.

3.2.1 Morphological characteristics

Adverbials in the language are formed by suffixation of adverbial particles to roots, derivation with /a/ prefixation, reduplication of the roots or suffixes (particles) or by compounding the suffixes.

3.2.1.1. Adverbial particles

There are several adverbial particles which are suffixable to particular types of roots. The following are the most productive particles in the language:

1. /tʊ/. This is the most productive adverbializer which can be suffixed to any root, as in:

(1)  
\[ t^{h} ak-tʊ \]  
\[ za-lu \]  
\textit{quick-ADV eat-IMP} 'Eat quickly/fast'

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(2) $pi-t \theta$ za-lu
sleep-ADV eat-IMP

'Eat sleeping' (Lit: Eat by sleeping)

(3) $John-t \theta$ lei-r \theta
J.-ADV be-FUT '(That) might be John'

2. /ein \theta/. This associative or instrumental marker is suffixed to modified stems or nominal roots/stems:

(1) $t^b ak-lak-ein \theta$ za-lu
quick-INTSF-ASS eat-IMP 'Eat very quickly'

(2) $pa \eta-ein \theta$ za-lu
hand-INSTR eat-IMP 'Eat with hand'

3. /l \delta k \theta/. This conjunctive particle meaning 'and' or 'and then' can be suffixed to any root, as in:

(1) $pi-l \delta k \theta$ za-lu
sleep-CP eat-IMP 'Sleep and (then) eat'

(2) $n \theta$ $t^b ei-t^b ei-l \delta k \theta$ $k \delta-sa-n \theta$
you know-know-CP NOMZ-do-COP

'You did (it) knowingly'

(Lit: You know, know and (then) do)

4. /l \delta k^b \theta/. This conjunctive particle meaning 'while' can be added to any root:

(!) $s a-l \delta k^b \theta$ za-lu
hot-WHILE eat-IMP 'Eat while (it is) hot'
(2) \(i\ pi-l\partial k^b\partial\) John ra-i
I sleep-WHILE J. come-NFUT
'John came while I was sleeping'

5. /vak/. This direction (spatial) marker indicates oppositeness of direction, as in:

(1) hi-vak ra-lu
this-DIR come-IMP
'Come this side (and not that side)'.

(2) \(k^b\partial-va-vak\)
NOMZ-go-DIR 'towards the direction which one goes (and not which one comes)

6. /son/. This direction/location (spatial and temporal) marker can be added to many nominal stems. It does not indicate any oppositeness. Examples:

(1) hi-son
this -DIR 'this side'

(2) šim-son
home-DIR 'homewards'

(3) \(\eta\partial-ya-son\)
FX-night-DIR 'in the night'

(4) i-wui-son
I-GEN-DIR 'towards me/my side'
7. /rôm/. This is a temporal direction/location marker. It occurs in varied types of constructions. Examples:

(1) ƞơ-ya-rôm  
FX-night-DIR 'by night/in the night'

(2) a-tʰit-rôm bʰap ta-nao-rơ  
FX-die+NOMZ-DIR sense down-late-FUT  
'(You) will understand towards the end of (your) life'/ '(You) will understand when (you are) about to die'

8. /son/, /tʰai/. These particles indicate 'complete' day-time and night-time respectively, as in:

(1) (a) i pi-son-rơ  
I sleep-WHOLE DAY-FUT  
'I will sleep the whole day'

(b) i pi-tʰai-rơ  
I sleep-WHOLE NIGHT-FUT  
'I will sleep all night/ the whole night'

/son/ and /tʰai/ are combined to express the meaning 'always', 'all the time', as in:

(2) Aton pi-son pi-tʰai-yơ  
A. sleep-WHOLE DAY sleep-WHOLE NIGHT-NFUT  
'Aton always sleeps/sleeps all the time'

9. /ciƞ/. This suffix indicates habitual or unchanging action or state, as in:

(1) a hui-tơ ra-ciƞ-ơ  
3SG late-ADV. come-ALWAYS-NFUT  
'He/she always comes late'
(2) \textit{i-sa-vu rin-ciη-tə lei-ya} \\
1-CL-mother live-STILL-ADV be-NFUT \\
'My mother is still alive'

(3) \textit{routine ci ci-ciη-rod} \\
R. that that-HAB-FUT \\
'The routine will be the same as before' (there will be no change)

10. \textit{/lui/} indicates repetition, as in: \\
\textit{sa-lui-lu} \\
do-AGAIN-IMP 'Do (it) again'

11. \textit{/kər/} indicates the meaning 'all over again', as in: \\
\textit{sa-kər-lu} \\
do-AGAIN-IMP 'Do (it) all over again (from the beginning)'

12. \textit{/sit/} indicate the meaning 'all over again in the same way/manner', as in: \\
\textit{sa-sit-lu} \\
do-AGAIN-IMP 'Do (it) afresh/all over again from the beginning in the same way/manner'

13. \textit{/ser/} indicate the meaning 'all', as in: \\
(1) \textit{ra-sər-lu} \\
come-ALL-IMP 'Come all (of you)'

(2) \textit{i-tʰum tʰi-ser-rod} \\
1-PL die-ALL-FUT 'We all will die'

14. \textit{/pʰut/} is an emphatic particle which occurs in negative construction. With the negative marker it denotes the meaning 'not at all', as in:
I NEG-go-AT ALL-IND-FUT 'I'll not go at all'

15. /mə/ means 'just.... as expected', as in:

Aton ra-mə-rə

A. come-mə-FUT 'Aton will come as expected (so don't worry)'

16. /cəm/ indicates the meaning 'just', as in:

(1) Aton a-rui-cəm va-hai-rə

A. FX-now-JUST go-leave-PERF

' Aton has gone just now'

(2) Aton va-cəm-hai-rə-sa-i

A. go-JUST-leave-PERF-hear-NFUT

'Aton was just gone' (when I went to see her)

17. /lə/ indicates the meaning 'also', 'too', etc., as in:

(1) i-lə va-rə

I-TOO go-FUT 'I too/also will go'

(2) a kə-pəŋ-lə pəŋ-ə kə-tʰək-lə tʰak-ə

3SG NOMZ-strong-TOO strong-NFUT NOMZ-fast-TOO fast-NFUT

'Aton is strong as well as fast'

(Lit: Aton strong also is strong, fast also is fast)

18. /lə/. This particle is used in forming negative adverbials, as in:

mə-tʰei-lə kə-sa-nə

NEG-know-ADV NOMZ-do-COP '(I) did (it) unknowingly'
19. /lolo/. This particle indicates the meanings 'even if', 'though', etc., as in:

\[ a \text{ teo-lolo} \ pəŋ-lak-\vartheta \]

3SG small-THOUGH strong-INTSF-NFUT

'Though small, he/she is very strong'

20. /rəŋ/ indicates the meaning 'yet', and occurs only in negative construction to convey the copulative meaning 'not yet', as in:

Aton mə-ra-rəŋ-\vartheta

A. NEG-come-YET-NFUT 'Aton hasn't come yet'

21. /ək\textsuperscript{h}\vartheta/. This is the conditional marker which is affixable to any root/stem. Example:

\[ nə \text{ va-ək\textsuperscript{h}\vartheta} \ p^h-a-r\vartheta \]

you go-COND good-FUT '(It) will be good if you go'

22. /cao/ is an emphatic particle often used in vouching, as in:

\[ i \text{ ma\textsuperscript{a}-cao-wθ} \]

I agree-EMP-NFUT

'I agree definitely/surely/totally (there is no doubt)'

23. /nəp/ indicates the meaning 'exactly fitting/suitable', as in:

\[ mərao \text{ hi} \ nə \ səŋ-nəp-r\vartheta \]

pant this you put-FIT-FUT

'This pant will exactly fit/suit you'
24. /cək/ indicates the meaning 'right in time', as in:

\[ nə ra-cək-hai-rə \]
you come-RIGHT-leave-PERF

'You have come right in time' (we were just about to leave as we couldn't wait any longer)

25. /tei/. This particle indicates the meaning "hit and miss", as in:

\[ Asan Aton-li hui-tei-hao-wə \]
\[ A. A.-DAT woo-tei-PUNC-NFUT \]

'Asan courted Aton and failed miserably in the very beginning'

26. /sum/ denotes continuation, as in:

(1) \[ va-sum-lu \]
go-CONT-IMP 'Go on and on (without pausing)'

(2) \[ mətui-va-sum-hao-wə \]
talk-go-CONT-PUNC-NFUT

'(Somebody) went on talking (without stopping)'

27. /fū/ indicates continuation or preference, as in:

\[ i pi-fū-rə \]
I sleep-fū-FUT

'I'll continue sleeping for a longer time' /
'First, I'll sleep (and then.....)'
3.2.1.2. Derivation with /a/ prefixation

There are a handful of words which are derived with the formative prefix /a/, and which function as either nominals or adverbials. They are:

(1) **Temporal adverbs**

- a-cū 'today'
- a-ya 'yesterday'
- a-kʰəmə 'tomorrow'
- a-rui 'now'
- a-tʰənə 'a temporal point: 'just a while ago''
- a-rəmə 'a temporal point: 'after some time''

(2) **Spatial adverbs**

- a-tuŋ 'up, above'
- a-zin 'down, below'
- a-yar 'outside'
- a-lun 'inside'

3.2.1.3. Complex adverbials

Complex adverbials refer to those structures which are formed with two or more stems, roots, and/or affixes. Most of such adverbials are historically complex in the sense that their 'logic' of combination is hard to comprehend. The following examples demonstrate how a number of adverbials are constructed in a complex way.

1. /eino tən-tə/. This structure express the meaning 'even', 'until', etc., as in:

   (1) Delhi-eino tən-tə

   D.-ASS end-ADV 'upto Delhi (<Not beyond)
2. /tʰa-ran/. Combining of these two roots occur in some temporal adverbials, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tʰa</td>
<td>= rt. of 'like/seem/appear/so'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ran</td>
<td>= rt. of 'time to....'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) kʰ-tʰa-ran
   WH-LIKE-TIME 'When?' (Lit: Time like what?)

(2) hi-tʰa-ran
    this-LIKE-TIME 'time like this'

(3) i kʰ-va-tha-ran
    I NOMZ-go-LIKE-TIME 'When I go went....'

3. /-tʰa-tə/ is added to nominal stems to express the meaning 'like', as in:

(1) kʰ-tʰa-tə
   WH-LIKE-ADV 'How?' (Lit: Like what?)
(2) *hi-tʰa-tʰ* *sa-lu*
   this-LIKE-ADV do-IMP 'Do like this'

4. */-rən-kʰθ/. These roots are combined in forming words of spatial and temporal extension, as in:

   (1) *kə-ρən-kʰθ*
       WH-EQUAL-UNIT
       'How long?' (temporal/spatial)
       (Lit: One equal what length?)

   (2) *hi-ρən-kʰθ*
       this-EQUAL-UNIT 'This much long (temporal/spatial)'

   (3) *Aton-ρən-kʰθ*
       A.-EQUAL-UNIT 'As tall as Aton'

5. */-ya-kʰθ/. These roots are combined in forming words of quantity, as in:

   (1) *kə-ya-kʰθ*
       WH-EQUAL-UNIT 'How many/much?'

   (2) *situi-ya-kʰθ*
       sand-EQUAL-UNIT 'As many as the sands'
       (<Countless)
6. /-ri-kʰə/. These combined roots occur in forming words of size-measurements, as in: 

\[ \text{\textit{ri} = rt. of 'equal in size'} \]

\begin{enumerate}
  \item \(kə-ri-kʰə\)
    
    WH-EQUAL-UNIT 'How big?'
  
  \item \(\text{Asaŋ-ri-kʰə}\)
    
    A.-EQUAL-UNIT 'As big as Asaŋ'
\end{enumerate}

3.2.1.4. Historically complex adverbials

Historically complex adverbials are formed by combining two or more grammatical morphemes and/or roots. Adverbials of this type are formed in such a way that, often, some of the morphemes/elements are hard to identify or the logic of their internal structure is hard to comprehend. Thus, consider the following structures:

\begin{enumerate}
  \item \(kə-ci\)
    
    WH-that 'which'
  
  \item \(kə-ci-li\ lei-kʰə\ lə\)
    
    WH-that-LOC be-Q(WH) which
    
    where 'Where is (it),'
  
  \item \(kə-ci-li-kʰə\ va-ki-la\)
    
    WH-that-LOC-UNIT go-SBJNC-Q(YN) somewhere
    
    '(Are you) going somewhere?'
\end{enumerate}
(4)  \(k\delta-ci-li-k^b\delta-l\delta\)  \(m\delta-va-m\delta-r\delta\)  \\
\textit{WH-that-LOC-UNIT-ALSO} \textit{NEG-go-IND-FUT}  \\
\textit{s}omewhere  \\
\downarrow  \\
\textit{anywhere/ever}  \\
'(I) won't go anywhere/(I) will never go'

(5)  \(k\delta-ci-li-k^b\delta-t\delta\)  \(Aton\)  \(ra-\partial k^b\delta\)  \\
\textit{WH-that-LOC-UNIT-ADV} \textit{A. come-COND}  \\
\textit{s}omewhere  \\
\downarrow  \\
\textit{in case}  \\
'In case Aton comes .....'

(6)  \(ci-wui-v\eta\)  \\
\textit{that-GEN-BEN}  'for that'

(7)  \(ci-wui-v\eta-e\text{-}{\eta}\)  \\
\textit{that-GEN-BEN-ASS}  'therefore/because of that'

(8)  \(k^b-i-wui-v\eta-e\text{-}{\eta}\)  \\
\textit{what-GEN-BEN-ASS}  'why/because of what?'

(9)  \(hon-t\delta\)  \\
\textit{relieve-ADV}  'rather' (Lit: relievingly)

(10)  \(k^b\theta-l\delta\)  \\
\textit{UNIT-ALSO}  'and' (Lit: one also)

(11)  \(ci-t^b-a-m\eta-m\delta-t\delta\)  \\
\textit{that-like-EXPECT-IND-ADV}  'nevertheless'

\textit{\textit{man} = modal: 'expect but not desired'}
(12)  (a) a-pדn kוכי-tד
    FX-place count-ADV 'everywhere'

(b) a-tדm kוכי-tד
    FX-time count-ADV 'everytime/always'

(13) kוכי-ו
    count-UNIT 'everybody/everyone/every being'
    (+ animate)

(14) ci-tגa-tד sa-tד
    that-like-ADV do-ADV 'thus' (Lit: doing like that)

(15) ciג-טורה-tד ra-mi-lu
    hate-untie-ADV come-give-IMP 'Please/kindly come!'

(16) /pai-sי-nד/. This form is suffixed to verbal roots to convey the meaning 'lest', as in:

    pa-lui-lu, mוכלai-pai-sי-nד
    read-AGAIN-IMP forget-POSB-SBJNC-COP
    'Read again lest (you) will forget'

3.2.1.5. Reduplicated adverbials

Reduplication is a very productive process for forming adverbials in the language. In the process of reduplication the root or affix is reduplicated completely or partially. The following examples illustrate how reduplication works in forming adverbials. (See also reduplicated expressives in chapter V).
3.2.1.6. Comparative and superlative adverbials

Comparative and superlative adverbials are formed by suffixing the adverbializer /tɔ/ to the respective adjectival forms, as in:

(1) \( t^hak - tɔ \) = quickly

quick-CMPRT-ADV ‘more quickly’
3.2.2. Semantic characteristics

Adverbials belong to a number of semantic classes. The following discussion illustrates the range of morpho-syntactic diversity that adverbials tolerate in the language.

3.2.2.1. Manner adverbials

Manner adverbials constitute the most heterogeneous subcategory of adverbials. Various types of affixation occurs in forming manner adverbials in the language (as in other languages). Examples:

(1) \( tāp-tə \quad sa-\text{lu} \)
slow-ADV do-IMP 'Do slowly'

(2) \( tāp-lək-\text{e}ιnθ \quad sa-\text{lu} \)
slow-INTSF-ASS do-IMP 'Do very slowly'

(3) \( mə-p^h\text{hni}θ-lək-\text{ld} \quad kθ-\text{sa}-\text{nθ} \)
NEG-think-INTSF-ADV NOMZ-do-COP 'I do/did thoughtlessly/without thinking'

3.2.2.2. Time-frequency-aspectuality adverbials

Adverbials of this sub-group supply information about the time, frequency or other temporal aspects of an event/state. Thus, their semantic scope is not the verb alone, but rather
the entire event-clause, that is, the whole proposition. Examples of time-frequency-aspectuality in the language are:

(1) $k^b\partial$ lei-$l\partial k\partial$ va-$r\partial$
little be-CP go-FUT
'I’ll go after some time' (<later)

(2) ra-ra-t$\partial$ $k^b\partial$-lei Sunday-li va-$r\partial$
come-come-ADV NOMZ-be S.-LOC go-FUT
'(I) will go next/(this) coming Sunday'

(3) Aton ra-$k\partial$-ci-ein$\partial$ va-nao-$r\partial$
A. come-COMP-ASS go-late-FUT
'(I) will go as/after Aton comes'

(4) Aton toi-t$\partial$ ra-$i$
A. oft-ADV come-NFUT
'Aton comes often'

(5) Aton p$\partial$-$\eta$-t$\partial$ m$\partial$-ra-m$\partial$-n$\partial$
A. oft-ADV NEG-come-IND-COP
'Aton seldom comes'

(6) m$\partial$r$\partial$k-$k^b\partial$-li-v$\partial$
c$\partial$p-$\eta$ai-y$\partial$
between-UNIT-LOC-TOP cry-WANT-NFUT
'Sometimes (I) feel like crying'

(7) Aton m$\partial$r$\partial$k m$\partial$r$\partial$k-li c$\partial$p-$\partial$
A. between-LOC cry-NFUT
'Aton cried occasionally'
(8) va-lui-rə
   go-AGAIN-FUT '(I) will go again'

(9) lət-lui lət-lui-tə va-rə
   turn-AGAIN turn-AGAIN-ADV go-FUT
   '(I) will go repeatedly'

3.2.2.3. Epistemic adverbials

Most typically, epistemic adverbs convey the speaker's attitude towards the truth, certainty or probability of a proposition. Examples are:

(1) Aton ra-lə-pai-yə
   A. come-POSB-NFUT 'Perhaps/maybe Aton will come'

(2) Aton ra-mərao-wə
   A. come-DUBI-NFUT 'Probably Aton will come'

(3) a-ra-ci-pa  ci Aton-hai-tei
   FX-ELV-that-SPEC that A.-leave-SFE
   the one over there
   'Maybe the one over there is Aton (don't you think so?)

(4) i-wui t^h_{ei}-kə-k^h_{ui}-cəη-li-və  nə yon-ə
   I-GEN know-NOMZ-take-EMP-LOC-TOP you wrong-NFUT
   knowledge
   'As far as my knowledge is concerned, you are wrong'
3.2.2.4. Evaluative Adverbials

Evaluative adverbials convey attitude towards the desirability of the state or event. Examples in Tangkhul-Naga are:

(1) Aton ra-ki-rūno
   A. come-SBJNC-OPT 'Hopefully Aton will come'

(2) no va-ki-kə-ci-nə
   you go-SBJNC-NOMZ-that-COP
   'You should have gone/You are to go'

(3) no-para-li mi-tʰu-rə
   you-SPEC-DAT give-INSTEAD-FUT
   'I'd rather give you (than to anybody else)'

(4) a-vū-ŋəra-li ŋəmũ-sar-ə
   FX-mother-CL-DAT fight-FORBID-NFUT
   'God forbids fighting with one's mother'

3.2.2.5. Emphatic adverbials

There are many grammatical operators (affixes and words) in the language which are used in emphatic, contrastive capacity. Their function is not easy to classify in a precise way, and for lack of a better slot, we may consider them a sub-class of adverbials. Some examples of emphatic adverbials are exemplified below:
To sum up, we have seen a brief descriptive account of Tangkhul-Naga adverbials that have been isolated on the basis of morpho-semantic features. Apart from the above discussed types and structures, there are a number of heterogeneous adverbial expressions in the language (whose description is beyond the scope of this exploratory work). Further study is needed to fully account the various types of adverbial expressions -- from adverbial usage of particles to participial adverbial clauses to the usage of adverbial particles as 'pragmatic fillers'. For instances, historical and comparative study may shed light on comprehending usage of temporal points as pragmatic particle, as in:
a-ca-və  nə-li  mi-rə  kə-rə  nə  hui-na-hai-rə
FX-TIME-TOP you-DAT give-FUT but you late-INTSF-leave-PERF

'You would have been given but you're too late'/

'As a rule/according to earlier presumption/ it was opined that, you were to be given (since you are the best) but you are too late'

(Lit: As for a while ago, to you will give but ......)

In short, the concept of 'adverbial', with all of its heterogeneity, is a well-known concept to the extent that grammarians are generally in argument as to which expressions are adverbials and which are not.