CHAPTER-VII
CONCLUSION

Verbs play an important role in a language. Not a single idea can be expressed without a verb. It is the soul of a sentence. It may, sometimes, not be seen in the surface structure but in the underlying structure there is always a verb. For example, when someone is asked what he wanted, the answer may be “the book on the table”. This means that the man wants the book on the table. As such, verb occupies an interesting and analytical area of study.

In Manipuri, verb is one of the most important word classes of the language (the other being noun). Other word classes noun, adjective and adverb, can be derived from this verbal root. Manipuri verbs are naturally bound and they take another bound form i.e. verbal affixes to derive a free form. The verbal affixes are functionally divided into two as derivative and inflectional. The number of prefixes is very few while suffixes are found in abundance.

The scope of a verb in a language is very large and the thesis has studied only a particular area of verbs with the verbal suffixes. The reason why the present study has taken up the verbal affixes may be given as follows. The study of Manipuri verbs on root level analysis done so far by some scholars serves the purpose to some extent only. The role of a verb in this language may successfully be carried out only when it is put in sentences which allows analysing it from every angle. For instance, the semantic component of a stative verb can be understood only when it is put in sentences and the compatibility and incompatibility of occurring with different verbal affixes are thus, examined. It is, in fact, universal for stative verbs not to occur with progressive aspect (see 4.2.2). But in Manipuri, it is found that certain stative verbs can go with progressive aspect which implies the state of being fat, thin, ugly, beautiful, etc. (which are capable of changing) are still there i.e. a change which is usually expected to occur do not take place. Moreover, one cannot easily assign the semantic class of the verb nik- ‘shake’ without analysing it in sentences, for it may be both process and action. If the verb
permits an agent to carry out the act of shaking, then the verb in the particular sentence becomes an action verb and if this agent is absent *i.e.* the act of shaking occurs due to some cause like being cold or frightened, then the verb becomes a process verb. Such type of overlapping can be solved when they are analysed in sentences.

It is worth to be mentioned that Manipuri, being an agglutinating language, a string of suffixes may be attached to a verbal root. The occurrence of the suffixes is bound/controlled by the semantic structure of the verbs and verbal suffixes. The arrangement of the suffixes (which is not included in the scope of the present study) also occupies an important and analytical area of further study.

The second chapter has studied the identification of Manipuri verbs. Apart from the various definitions given by different linguists, a Manipuri verb can be identified by the negative particles as suggested Matisoff (1973) that words that can go with negative particles are verbs in Lahu. It has studied the negative particles -te, -loi, -ta-ri, -ta-re, -kanu and other negative modifiers. It has been analysed that the suffixes -te and -loi are the combinations of -ta+i > -te and -loi+i > -loi where -i is the simple aspect marker.

The combination of -loi with some derivative suffixes has also been studied in this chapter and it is found that the preceding or the neighbouring suffixes give a different reading e.g. ca-khî-roi ‘will not eat now’ gives the meaning of temporal negative in the sense that the action will be performed after some time. The verb form ca-ka-roi ‘will not go’ gives a sense of promise or in some cases stoppage of something. Another form jen-khî-ra-roi ‘will never see again’ enhances the sense of promise (see 2.1.2.2)

Another interesting fact discovered in the analysis of this chapter is the use of progressive -li in negative construction *i.e.* -ta-ri ‘not yet done’ in ca-da-ri > ca-dri ‘not yet eaten’. The implication of the suffix is that the situation of not doing the action of eating still remains or continues and a sense of prospect of doing the action is also incorporated.
The chapter has also studied the words used only in negative environments which are termed as negative polarity or negative adverbs like ṭḥat ‘slightly’, suk- ‘never’, ṭaŋna/pakna ‘seldom’, ṭhak ‘never’, kaja ‘rarely/hardly’, kaídaununja/kaidunaidasu ‘never’, kadaidasu ‘nowhere’, amukta ṭhau ‘not ever once’.

The second part of the chapter has discussed Manipuri verbs as distinct from other word classes as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc. It has studied the formation of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. The position of adjective and adverb in a sentence has also been discussed.

The third part of the chapter has dealt with the nature of Manipuri verbs. It is found that they are not reflected for tense, number, person and gender. It is found that Manipuri verbs do not have morphologically marked tense as found in English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Bengali, etc. Tense in Manipuri is indicated by other time adverbials like ḏasi ‘today’, ḏaran ‘yesterday’, ḏajen ‘tomorrow’ etc.

The third chapter has studied the structural classification of Manipuri verbs and has explored many verbal types which have not yet been discovered by any linguist so far. Based on the syllabic pattern and the morphemes they constitute, Manipuri verbs have been divided into five groups as simple or monosyllabic, complex, compound, N+ V and reduplicated verbs.

Verbal roots that have a single morpheme have been termed as monomorphemic or simple verbs which are again divided into monosyllabic and polysyllabic groups. The first kind is very common in Manipuri that linguists like Bhat and Ningomba and many others claim that Manipuri verbs are monosyllabic in nature. Now it is found that there are many polysyllabic verbs constitute the structure of Manipuri verbs. One possible reason for this claim is that they overlooked other verb forms which have been in existence. It has been discovered and analysed in this chapter.

There are enough data on the basis of which the statement can be opposed that most of the Manipuri verbs are disyllabic or polysyllabic and even larger constructions
which have nouns and reduplicated forms constitute a large area in the study of Manipuri verbs, especially in the structural classification. In the data collection, nearly 650 monosyllabic verbs are found including tonal variation and homophonous forms whereas the larger constructions constitute more than 1400 verb types. The reason for the larger number in the latter type may be that the monosyllabic verb type has a restricted number of use, not more than six e.g. in ta- ‘fall, obligatory, time, (of road) lead, reduce, cost’ etc. But in the larger constructions, there are approximately 19 in the N+V alone where the noun may or may not be independent, e.g. mijad ta- ‘get convicted’, mi ta- ‘inhabit’, miron ta- ‘become normal’, men ta- ‘be certain’, majeq ta- ‘decrease’, pbom ta- ‘degrade’, mæcu ta- ‘be proper, orderly’, mənam ta- ‘be smooth (of hair)’, mamut ta- ‘be precise’, kʰonγun ta- ‘be obedient’, maka ta- ‘grow more leaves (of spinach, mustard plants)’ ne ta- ‘to get peace of mind’, pbərək ta- ‘be odd’, təŋan ta- ‘separate’, makʰə ta- ‘be younger’ etc. Similarly, the verb ca- ‘eat, be fit’ has more than fifteen verb forms all of which are semantically related with one of the verbal meanings. Other constructions like compound and reduplicated forms have contributed an important part in the analysis. Thus, the finding of the analysis has compelled to claim that Manipuri verbs are disyllabic or polysyllabic in nature.

In the analysis, it has been observed that simple polysyllabic verbal roots refer to verbal roots that display more than one syllable but have only one morpheme in the sense that they cannot be cut further. This area has also been ignored by many linguists in the study of Manipuri verbs. Verbs like aurai- ‘read, rehearse’, oinam- ‘have a good taste or flavour’, curuŋ- ‘get the evil which one decried’, kəllək- ‘be envious or jealous’, olaŋ- ‘be hot and sultry’, tʰəmai- ‘hypnotize’, etc. are some examples of simple polysyllabic verbal roots.

The derived verbal roots which are termed as complex verbs in the analysis are also found in abundance in the language yet unexplored and analysed by any linguist earlier. The chapter has analysed these complex verbs which are formed by suffixation of
reciprocal -na, directional suffixes -sin, -tʰok, -kʰat, -tʰa, etc. Verbs like sanna- ‘play’, kanna- ‘be useful’, kʰatna- ‘quarrel’, oisin- ‘healing up, be properly cooked’, ceksin- ‘be careful’, paŋtʰok- ‘perform’, haudok- ‘introduce’, tʰagat- ‘praise’, pakʰat- ‘get nervous’, puttʰa- ‘lag behind’, kinṭʰa- ‘crumble, collapse’ etc. are some examples of complex verbs. They have been grouped into three classes from the semantic point of view as verbal roots that cannot occur singly like sanna- ‘play’ where san- alone cannot give the meaning of ‘play’; verbal roots that have a derived meaning, e.g. lak- ‘bind’ > laksin- ‘guess’, ciŋ- ‘pull’ > ciŋna- ‘hesitate, doubt’ and finally, verbal roots that have a slightly different meaning after derivation such as verbs like kai- ‘break’ > kaina- ‘separate’, tʰa- ‘take into account’ > tʰana- ‘praise’ etc. Polysyllabic complex verbs that have been studied in this chapter are found to be formed by prefixing ca- and the suffixation of -ta and -na. Verbs like caraijna- ‘be restless’, karemna ‘mock, jest’, laŋtʰakna- ‘be anxious’ etc. come under polysyllabic complex verbs.

This chapter has also discussed the traditional concept of compound verbs as found in the works of some scholars like Bhat and Ningomba (1986) and Loken (1997) in the combination of verbal roots and niŋ- ‘wish’ and tʰok- ‘out’ which they considered to be vector verbs. In the analysis, it is found that they are not vector verbs since the meaning of these two verbs is retained in the verb forms like ca-niŋ- ‘wish to eat’, laŋ-tʰok- ‘throw out’ while vector or minor verbs do not have an autonomous meaning when compounded. After examining such type of verbs, it is concluded that they are not to be treated as compounds. Instead, they have been discussed under grammaticalized suffixes since they are found freely with many verbs and they do not follow the rule of compounding.

The compound verbs studied in this chapter show two types as: noun + verb compound termed as noun incorporation, in which the compounding of a noun stem and a verb to yield a complex form, serves as the predicate of a clause or sentence. For
instance, kʰunda- ‘settle’, warepna- ‘resolve’, ləmjiŋ- ‘lead’ etc. and another type is verb + verb compound which has been termed as coordinate verbal compound, e.g. pomsatna- '(of flower) which is not yet in (full) bloom but going to be bloomed in a short time’ is the combination of two verbs: poms- ‘(of a flower) which is still in bud’ and sat- ‘bloom’, səŋmunna- ‘the condition of fruit which is going to be ripe in a short time’ is the compounding of two verbs: səŋ- ‘(of fruit) green i.e. not ripe’ and mun- ‘ripe’. Both the types of compounding have not yet been discussed in the earlier works.

This chapter has studied the N+V construction also and classified them into two as noun dependent and noun independent. In the analysis, single verbs have been examined, for instance, tʰi- ‘be ugly’ with kʰudi tʰi- ‘stumble’ where the noun kʰudi is a dependent noun which cannot be separated from tʰi- as the combination has constituted a new verb in Manipuri. Analysis on independent noun like urum ‘shade’ with verb like laŋ- ‘be of multicolour’ has been made and the result of their combination manifest another verb like urum laŋ- ‘be shady’. It is found that the noun and verb can be interrupted by verbal modifier like jamna- ‘very’ and reduplicative prefixes without disturbing the semantic structure, enabled by the verb form that can take a modifier and can undergo the process of reduplication.

Reduplication has contributed a large part in the structural classification of Manipuri verbs. It has been studied under two heads as group 1 and 2. Group 1 has further been divided into two: morphological reduplication and lexical reduplication. Morphological reduplication has again been classified into two: reduplication constructed with lau- which refers to the minimally meaningful and semantically indivisible morphemes constituted of iterated syllables, e.g. tʰuk tʰuk lau- ‘have a vomiting tendency’, hop hop lau- ‘be loose’, swai swai lau- ‘be crispy’, etc. The other form is the combination of a reduplicated form and its collocation with a certain verb like tagat tagat tek- ‘be very fresh’, tʰɔk tʰɔk nik- ‘shake with fear or cold’. In the analysis, it is found that the reduplicated forms function as adverbial to the adjacent verbs.
In this chapter, lexical reduplication has also been studied which come under two heads viz., echo formation, e.g. ihig naihig sa- ‘wound seriously’, kit’i kirum tau-‘be timid’, turoi งาโมลี่ ตัต- ‘toddle’, etc. It has also discussed word reduplication under two heads as: partial and complete. Verbs like micaŋ mikʰai nai- ‘be partial’, mijok mican pʰa- ‘be cordial’, misak mimai jeŋ- ‘do the act of favouritism or be partial’ are some examples of partial word reduplication while məroŋ məroŋ loŋ- ‘have many branches’, məroŋ məroŋ cat- ‘be restless, eager to do something’ come under complete word reduplication.

This chapter has also analysed the difference between echo formation and partial reduplication not to make any confusion in the division of the sub-sections. Finally, difference between morphological reduplication and complete word reduplication has been studied.

Out of the two divisions of reduplicated verbs, the latter is found to be completely different from the other constructions so far discussed. It displays a unique feature by taking the verbal inflectional suffix -i directly after the reduplicated form. Verbs like noŋkōk niŋkōk-i ‘feel hesitation, be anxious’, musi musi-Ø ‘is dim, dull, darkish, indistinct’, tuson mansol-li ‘is timid’, etc. are examples of reduplicated verb Group 2.

The fourth chapter has discussed the semantic classification of verbs. An attempt has been made to give a detailed classification of verbs on semantic level. All the scholars hitherto mainly focus on root level classification only. But a thorough study of Manipuri verbs has revealed a fact that classification of verbs on root level alone serves the purpose to some extent, but it fails to give a clear picture of Manipuri verbs since a major part of semantic classification lies in the combination of verbal roots with suffixes. Verbs, in general, may thoroughly be exposed and examined only when it is put in sentences. The root level analysis represents simply the surface level while study of verbs
in sentence level enables one to analyse them from every angle. The present study has mainly aimed at studying verbs in a deeper stage. First, it has tried to define Manipuri verbs on semantic level by discussing the semantic structure of verbs based on the suffixes whether the semantic component of a particular suffix allows it to go with certain types of verbs or not and also give reason why it happens so.

This chapter has divided the analysis into five parts, out of which the first part has described the contrastive features where three features have been postulated to define the semantic classification of Manipuri verbs into action, stative and process respectively. Two of the three classes of verbs share one or another feature. In the first feature: stative versus non-stative, stative verbs have been contrasted with action and process verbs as they belong to non-stative. In the second feature: changing versus non-changing, both action and process verbs come under changing verbs while stative verbs are found to be non-changing. In the third feature, agentive versus non-agentive, process and stative verbs share a common feature i.e. non-agentive since they do not take an agent as its subject in a sentence while action verbs are inclined to have an agent. It is found that the feature of agentivity is one of the most important features of distinguishing dynamic verbs into actions and processes. It is also found that action verbs are controllable while stative and process verbs are uncontrollable.

The second part of this chapter has studied the semantic classes of verbs as action, stative and process. Action verbs have been divided into four sections as: directional versus non-directional, durative, punctual and destructive. Four directional suffixes (-sin ‘inward’, -tʰok ‘outward’, -kʰət ‘upward’ and -tʰə ‘downward’) have been discussed under directional action verbs and it is found that they often show contrast when they are attached to action verbs. Those verbs which can occur with -tʰok and -tʰə (see....). Verbs which take place over a (normally limited) period of time have been termed as durative, e.g. tʰop- ‘cook’, ca- ‘eat’ etc. These verbs have a beginning and ending point. Durative verbs have been contrasted with momentary verbs like kau-
‘kick’, th-a- ‘hit’, cog- ‘jump’ etc. It is found that durative verbs characteristically combine with progressive suffix -li. On the other hand punctual verbs are theoretically incompatible to take progressive aspect since they do not entail duration. Progressive aspect of these verbs means repetition of the action. Lastly, verbs which have the destructive nature have been termed as destructive verbs and it is found that they easily combine with the three destructive suffixes: -k^{h}ai, -t^{h}ot and -t^{h}ek. One interesting fact found in the analysis of destructive verbs is: they have become so prominent that they almost replace the verbal roots without destructive suffixes, e.g. caik^{h}ai- ‘scatter’ is commonly used instead of cai- ‘scatter’ and both words are found to be headwords in the lexicon also. The analysis of action verbs has revealed their versatility of occurring with all the verbal suffixes except the modifier.

In this chapter, stative verbs have also been examined on the basis of suffixes whether they can go with the suffixes and if not, what is the semantic constraint that does not allow it to occur with certain suffixes. It is found that they cannot take command markers i.e. they cannot occur in imperative sentences. Theoretically, all stative verbs are uncontrollable as they are not agent-oriented like action verbs. But it is found that some stative verbs like mental properties verbs are controllable in the sense that they can occur with certain suffixes indicating command and prohibitive. A unique feature of stative verbs that has been explored in the analysis is that they can occur with progressive -li while in Hindi and English, it is the opposite. It has also given arguments in support of the possibility of stative verbs occurring in progressive aspect.

This chapter has also studied some selectional restrictions of stative verbs and it is found that it cannot occur with benefactive -pi ~ bi, honorific -pi ~ bi (both suffixes are homophonous), reflexive -ca ~ ja, suggestive -si, deictic suffix -la, etc. It has been observed that under certain circumstances they can take deictic suffixes -lu and -lak. Stative verbs which have a temporal meaning like noi- ‘be fat’, k^{h}oi- ‘(of hair) be curly’, kom- ‘be loose’ can go with -lu and in case of -lak it denotes a continuation of a state or situation, for instance, m_{a}sa p^{h}_{ar}ak-i ‘has been healthy since childhood’.
In the analysis of process verbs, they have been divided into two: Group-1 and Group-2. Verbs that come under Group-1 are found to have two readings: action and process. For example, the verb *haŋ* ‘open’ may take an animate agent like ‘I/You/He/She’ etc. and the agent may also be inanimate like natural forces such as rain, storm, etc. Verbs of Group-2 express one reading only, i.e., process. They generally take the perfective *-e* to denote realized aspect instead of *-i*, e.g., *sat-le* ‘has bloomed’ instead of *sat-li* ‘blooms’. The findings in the analysis are that when process verbs of Group-2 take *-i* (SAM) the meaning of the verb changes to stative (i.e., the change is from process to stative). When one says *laikon-si-da loj jamsa sat-li* ‘Many flowers bloom in this garden’ describes a situation thus giving a stative meaning.

This chapter has also discussed the overlapping of verb classes. In this process, the verbs are put in sentences and the syntactic as well as the semantic structure of the verb allows to assign semantic class of verbs. Overlapping between action and process, action and stative have been analysed. Another interesting fact that has been explored in the analysis of overlapping of verb classes is about state verbs of a different kind. The verbs are originally action verbs and when the action of doing something is finished, the result may last long up to the present situation. Verb like *kup-* ‘cover’ is an action verb which is performed by an agent and thus, the root of a house may be covered by an agent and after seeing the result of the action, one may say like this *jum-du jingbọ aŋaŋba-na kup-pi* ‘The roof of the house is covered with red corrugated iron sheet’ which describes the state or condition of the house and gives a stative meaning.

It has also discussed the notion of agentivity in detail to examine the agents (both animate and inanimate) closely and it is found that in linguistics, the term agent entails volitionality and control over the act. Inanimate agents like natural force such as wind, rain, storm, etc. are termed as linguistic agent by linguists. To reach at a conclusion, various tests have been gone through (as suggested by linguists) as “What X did” context and the addition of adverbs like deliberately, carefully, consciously, etc.
The meanings of verbs, in this chapter, have been analysed minutely before and after suffixation of certain suffixes and it is found that the verbs shift in meaning from one category to another when certain suffixes like -sin, -kōk, -kāt, -tōa, etc. are attached to them. The change in meaning may be from stative to process and action, and very rarely from process to action. When stative verbs go with the four directional suffixes, they refer to a change of state (i.e. stative > process) and the process involved in this change gives the verbs a process meaning, sometimes, an action meaning (i.e. stative > action). Verbs like tuŋ- 'be stagnant' is different from tuŋ-sin- 'save money', noi- 'be fat' is different from noi-tōk- 'become fat' etc.

The fifth chapter has dealt with verbal derivative affixes under two heads: verbal derivative prefixes which are very few in number and verbal derivative suffixes which have a large number and it is found that they also contribute a major part in the analysis of Manipuri verbs and in the functioning of the language. Both prefixes and suffixes have been analysed through a process called grammaticalization. In this chapter, sixteen grammaticalized affixes that are derived from verbal roots have been discussed and out of which prefixes have four in number and twelve are grammaticalized suffixes.

The chapter has studied the grammaticalized suffixes as restricted and non-restricted. Suffixes like -tāt, -tēk, -kāi, -hāt come under the restricted grammaticalized suffixes as their occurrence is restricted with destructive action verbs only. It has also analysed the destructive suffixes from three points of view by the binary feature as: ± agentive, ± force, and ± separation and it is found that nigkāi- ‘crumble’, satkai ‘bloom’, sekāi- ‘crack’ etc. are -agentive while tūgai- ‘break, capkāi- ‘crush’ are +agentive. Further, the force applied while performing the act varies accordingly, for instance, siktat- ‘pinch’ has much less force than noītāt- ‘squeeze’. An important fact that is implied by the destructive suffixes is the result after action which may be of separation or if not separation, the shape is broken.

It has analysed eight suffixes under non-restricted grammaticalized suffixes and it is found that they can occur with any kind of verbs. The habitual suffix -kōn is
derived from the verbal root कञ ‘be strong, be good in doing something’, -लक ‘deictic’ from लक- ‘come’ indicates to come and perform an action (see 5.2.1.3), -तोक from तोक- ‘go out’, benefactive -पी from दी ‘give’, -मन ‘excessive’ from मन- ‘be excessive’, -निग ‘wish’ from निग- ‘wish’. This chapter has discussed the other uses of the benefactive -पी (see 5.2.1.2.4) and observed the possible reason of -निग and -तोक as verbal suffixes. It has also dealt with the other grammaticalized suffixes.

In this chapter, the semantic structure of the deictic suffixes -ला, -लु and -लक have also been discussed and it is found that -ला cannot occur with stative and process verbs. On the other hand, -लु, a purely deictic suffix indicating physical displacement can occur with all the three semantic classes of verbs. It has studied the extensive use of the deictic suffixes and one surprising fact found in the analysis is the vastly use of -लक. The occurrence of this suffix is fond to have three situations as (1) purely deictic sense with the dimension of both space and time, (2) narrating an event or about somebody or something and (3) towards a goal (somebody or something). Necessary data have been collected from books of literature.

In the study of verbal derivative suffixes, some suffixes are found to be multifunctional. Suffixes like -क्ही, -हाउ, -लाम, the four directional suffixes -सिन, -तोक, -क्हात, -ताए, and -लागा contribute more than two readings. The suffix -क्ही is found to contribute various functions: as a deictic manner, as a definitive marker which implies different senses when combined with other suffixes, e.g. क-क्ही-गा-दा-रा may give five different meanings (see 5.2.2.2). -हाउ is also found to have three different functions as a deictic, opportunity and separation. In the situation of deictic occurrence, the speaker is the eyewitness of the event which has happened in the past or around the time of reporting and somewhere else, not at the place of the speaker. The speaker reports the event or action he had encountered with somebody else, e.g. ओजा-दु होटल-दा का तोक-हाउ-री ‘I saw the teacher having tea in the hotel’ (see 5.2.2.2.2). It has also examined the semantic structure of -लाम and it is found that it gives various implications which mean or related
to the concept ‘not now and not here’ in the underlying structure. All the possible combinations of -łam with other suffixes come under either one of the semantic scope (see 5.2.2.2.3).

The four directional meanings also contribute four different situations as directionals, class-changing derivative which causes the verbs to change from one category to another, comparative meaning and other functions (see 5.2.2.2.4). The suffix -łaga is also fond to have three implications as: after doing something, manner of doing something where two actions occur simultaneously and as a conjunction which joins two verbs (see 5.2.2.2.5).

This chapter has also discussed modifier suffixes meaning ‘slightly’ and modifiers expressing superlative degree which always go with stative verbs. It has also studied other derivative suffixes as -na ‘reciprocal’, -han ‘causative’, -la ‘prospective’, -nai ‘duration’, -ca ‘reflexive’ etc. In the last part of the chapter phonological rules which deal with contraction or deletion have also been analysed and it is found that it helps the analysis easier and simpler. For instance, -kani ~ gani in ca-gani ‘will eat’ may take the form ca- ni ‘will eat’ by dropping -ka ~ ga. such type of deletion rule causes confusion to linguists sometimes. Shobhana (1997: 232) explained this situation as “the copula -ni alone indicates that the action will certainly take place in the future” where she did not mention the deletion of -ka at all.

The sixth chapter has dealt with verbal inflectional suffixes where the inflectional suffixes like -i ‘realized or simple aspect marker’, -li ‘progressive’, -le ‘perfective’, -loi ‘non-potential’, -u ‘command’, -kanu ‘prohibitive’, -te ‘negative’ etc. have been studied under two heads as realized and non-realized.

Under the realized group, -i ‘realized’ comes on the one side where it functions as a realization marker which is represented by simple aspect marker (SAM) in the thesis, e.g. tak-i ‘teaches’, lak-i ‘comes’, jef-ji ‘looks’ etc. The implications of the suffix -i to a verbal root has also been observed.
An important finding in the aspectual analysis of the suffixes is that the progressive marker -i and perfective marker -e which are always seen as -li (variations as -li ~ ri ~ pi ~ mi ~ ājī ~ i) and -le (variations as -le ~ re ~ pe ~ me ~ ējē ~ e) on the surface level is found to have another inflectional suffix -i which is a simple aspect marker in the underlying structure. When the suffix comes at the end of a sentence as ai pʰi su-ri-∅ 'I am washing clothes' may be analysed as (-li + i) where -i is deleted by the application of identical vowel deletion rule. In case of perfective -le, it may be analysed as the combination of -la+i where -i is merged into -la and finally results in -le. The same analysis operates on -te (-ta + i) as in cat-te-∅ ‘does not go’, -loi (-loï+i) in tat-loi-∅ ‘will not break’, -kʰi in cat-kʰi-∅ ‘went away’. In other words, it may be claimed that these suffixes serve as derivative suffixes where they may be followed by other derivative suffixes. The progressive and perfective suffix which is followed by nominalizer -pa ~ ba as ca-ri-ba pearance ‘child who is eating’ is found in a relative clause construction of a complex sentence. Thus, pa-ɾa-ba lairik ‘book that has been read’, pu-kʰi-ba ce ‘paper that has been taken’, lak-ɾa-ba satra ‘student who is absent’ etc. are some examples where the suffixes function as derivative suffixes.

The perfective aspect -le has also been discussed as the combination of -la+i and it is found that it has the following extended uses as (1) realization of the process verbs, (2) implication of an activity that is going on and (3) activity not yet performed but ready to be performed. It has also analysed the combination of -lam+le and is found that it indicates an action that had occurred behind the speaker i.e. in his/her absence (see 6.1.2.4).

The chapter has analysed the copulative function of -ni and is found that it serves as affirmative, progressive, perfective, negative and interrogative. It has been observed that the non-realized aspect is conveyed by -kani, command marker -u, prohibitive -kαnu, intensive -ke, suggestive -si, suffixes -tau-ri and -tau-re and ‘let’ imperative -saŋu (see 6.2).

The study has discussed Manipuri verbs and verbal affixes (generally suffixes) as a whole. It has mainly focused on the structural and semantic classification of
Manipuri verbs. It has also studied the semantic structure of verbal derivative and inflectional suffixes. The study has revealed that the semantic components of the verbs decide the combination of verbal affixes and sometimes, verbs of the same group happen to imply different readings although they occur with the same suffix. At the same time, the verbal affixes, because of their semantic component approve or disapprove of their occurrence with the three classes of verbs: action, stative and process. The study is a humble attempt to give a clear picture of Manipuri verbs along with the semantic structure and function of verbal affixes as the study of verbs on root level is always incomplete.