This chapter comprises the findings and conclusions of the dissertation.

This research is based on the descriptive study of Verb Phrase in Thadou. It is divided into four chapters. The first chapter is the Introduction. It contains the origin of the Thadou, religion, custom and culture, political life, economic life, the social life and changes that have taken place in the Thadou society and the linguistic classification of Thadou. Thadou belongs to the Northern Kuki-Chin of the Tibeto-Burman language family. The genetic classification of the language proposed by Lewis (2009) is given in this chapter. The linguistic typology of Thadou is also discussed in this chapter. The syntactic descriptions of Thadou are as follows: Thadou is a verb final language and exhibit SOV word order. Thadou is a postpositional language. Genitive precedes the governing noun and Adjectives follows the head noun. The Negative particle follows the verb and the Question particle occurs at the final position. Thadou is a pro-drop language.

The second chapter is the Review of literature. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part discusses the conceptualization of verbs and verb phrase in general and the second part is the review of works done on the verbs and verb phrase in Thadou and some Kuki-Chin languages of the Tibeto-Burman language family. The works of different linguists have been summarized and a brief discussion has been made.

Chapter three is the study of Verb Phrase in Thadou. This chapter is divided into two parts.
Part I describes the nature and types of verbs and verb modifiers in Thadou. Thadou verbs have two forms referred to as stem I and stem II. The two forms generally differ in their tone and final segment. Stem II form of the verb is derived from stem I form of verb. Earlier works on stem I and stem II fails to show the occurrence and selection of verb stem however, this study explains in detail the occurrence and selection of verb stem with examples from Thadou. The phonological process which differentiates Stem I and stem II form of the verbs are as follows:

i) Stem I verb form changes to Stem II if verbs in the base form with vowels in the final segment changes to stop. Examples are repeated for convenience,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem I</th>
<th>Stem II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>neʔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gu</td>
<td>guʔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘eat’

‘steal’

ii) The final nasal sounds in Stem I is denasalized and changes to stop.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem I</th>
<th>Stem II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ʤem</td>
<td>ʤep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lum</td>
<td>lup</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘decorate’

‘lay down’

iii) Some verbs with nasal sounds can attain the nasality of the final consonant even in Stem II (ŋ > n or velar nasal > alveolar nasal).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Xəŋ</th>
<th>Xən</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kəŋ</td>
<td>kən</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘grow’

‘fry’

iv) Verbs which have the same Stem I and Stem II form can be differentiated with tone. Stem I form of the verb exhibits a high tone and Stem II a low tone.
The relevant occurrence of stem I and stem II form of verbs is given with example in this chapter. Stem I form of verb occurs in declarative and imperative sentences (both command and negative imperative).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem I</th>
<th>Stem II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sɔ́p</td>
<td>sɔ́p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hɔ́n</td>
<td>hɔ́n</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘wash’

‘cook’

bu k -a ne e food 1sg 3sg Eat DECL

‘I eat food’.

ne hiʔ in eat NEG IMP

‘Don’t eat/it’.

ne in eat IMP

‘Eat it’.

Stem II form of verb occurs in Interrogative sentences.

ipi n-a neʔ həm what 2sg-3sg Eat Q

‘What did you eat?’

Intransitive, transitive and di-transitive verbs are discussed here with examples from Thadou. Intransitive verbs take only one argument i.e. the subject and the subject of the Intransitive verb is not assigned ergative case. Stem I form of the verb is used as the head of the VP.

vɔca a- leŋ e Bird 3sg fly DECL

‘The Bird flies’.
Transitive verbs take two arguments. In Transitive verb construction the VP consist of two NPs. Both NPs precede the VP in Thadou since Thadou is a verb final language. The first NP is a subject of the transitive verb which is assigned an ergative case or requires an ergative case marking. The second NP which follows the first NP is a direct object.

\[\text{john} \quad \text{-in} \quad \text{bol} \quad \text{a-} \quad \text{pe}^-? \quad \text{e}\]

John EGR Ball 3sg Kick DECL

‘John kicks the ball’.

Ditransitive verbs take three arguments: two complements and one subject. VP which contains ditransitive verbs consist of the subject which is assigned an ergative case and the direct and indirect object which precede the verb. In Thadou, the indirect object (IO) precedes the direct object (DO) and the position of the IO and DO cannot be interchanged.

\[\text{luci} \quad \text{-in} \quad \text{boipu} \quad \text{lek}^h\text{a} \quad \text{a-} \quad \text{t}^h\text{t} \quad \text{e}\]

Lucy ERG Boipu letter 3sg Send DECL

‘Lucy sends a letter to Boipu’.

Adverbs in Thadou act as verb modifier. The different type of adverbs which act as verb modifier is presented in this study. Adverb of manner occurs in onomatopoeic form. They can precede as well as follow the head verb.

\[\text{nausen} \quad \text{a-} \quad \text{kap} \quad \text{ja}^-? \quad \text{ja}^-? \quad \text{e}\]

baby 3sg cry ONO ONO DECL

‘The baby cried loudly’.

Time adverbial in Thadou can be categorized into (i) specific time adverbials and (ii) adverbials expressing relative time. Specific time adverbials are used to relate
with day, time of the day and year. Relative time expressions relate to the time of speaking-now and not to the concept of days or years.

```
tim jiŋ le? lam diŋ a- hi
tim tomorrow CONJ dance ASP 3sg be
```
‘Tim will dance tomorrow’.

```
tun huŋ o
now come IMP
```
‘Come now’

Place adverbial follows the noun and precedes the verb. Since Thadou is a verb final language the verb follows the noun and the locative marker.

```
kei phai aʔ k -a ceŋ e
1sg imphal LOC 1sg 3sg live DECL
```
‘I live in Imphal’.

Adverb of frequency in Thadou is marked with jeŋ. Verbs are usually reduplicated and the reduplicated verb form is followed by jeŋ immediately. It is to be noted that jeŋ is also used to mark the iterative habitual marker.

```
hui a nuŋ nuŋ jeŋ e
wind 3sg blow blow always DECL
```
‘The wind always blows’.

An interesting fact about Thadou that can be drawn from the present analyses is that this variety does not show any tense distinction. Present and Past time references have no overt morphological markers. Thadou shows the absence of any kind of tense distinction, whereas, distinction of the different forms of aspect is found to be more predominant. The concept of time distinction in
Thadou is understood through the use of Aspectual markers. Thadou aspectual categories can be classified as follows:

1. **Perfective**: Thadou has two types of perfectives – perfective indicated by *tai* and perfective of remoteness indicated by –*na*. The presence of *tai* expresses completeness and definiteness.

   - *tʰiŋ* k-a tɔn cai tai
     - Wood 1sg-3sg cut finish ASP
     - ‘I have cut the wood/I finish cutting the wood’.
   - *tʰiŋ* k-a -na tɔn cai tai
     - Wood 1sg-3sg REM Cut finish ASP
     - ‘I have cut the wood’. (REM)

2. **Imperfective**: The Progressive aspects, Habitual aspects and future Imperfective.

   **Progressive aspect**: The Progressive aspects is marked with *pet* which indicates that some someone is in the middle of doing something or indicate middle of an event and requires Stem II form of the verb.

   - ke -n bu k -a houn pet a-hi
     - 1sg ERG food 1sg 3sg cook ASP 3sg-be
     - ‘I am cooking food’.

   **Habitual aspect** is divided into Habitual past and Iterative.

   **Habitual past**: the habitual past is used to indicate some event which used to occur habitually in the past but that does no longer take place in the present. In Thadou *ji* is a habitual past marker used to indicate the habitual past. It occurs with the remote perfective aspect marker –*na* to indicate such events. Examples are given below,

   - masŋ -lai cun Thado -ho -n dɔi a-
Longtime period DET Thado PL ERG magic 3sg

na nei -ji u- ve
REM have HAB PL DECL
‘Longtime ago Thadou used to have/possess magical power’.

**Iterative:** in Thadou *jeŋ* is used when an event is repeated for more than once. To indicate habitual action, verbs are usually reduplicated and then the reduplicated verb structure is followed by the habitual marker *jeŋ* immediately. In such constructions Stem I form of verbs occur as shown in the example given below,

ram -in ju a- dɔ́n dɔ́n jeŋ e
ram ERG wine 3sg drink drink HAB DECL
‘Ram keeps drinking wine’.

**Future imperfective** is marked with *diŋ* or *di* and used to indicate the action that will take in the future or certain event will be carried out. In such construction the Stem II form of the verb is required which can be seen in the following examples,

dʒĩŋ leʔ hai k -a neʔ diŋ a-hi
Tomorrow CONJ mango 1sg 3sg eat ASP 3sg-be
‘I will eat mango tomorrow’.

In Thadou, *mɔtʰei* is used to mark any uncertainty or possibilities.

gɔ ju mɔi- tʰei a-hi
rain fall PRE Possible 3sg-be
‘It may/might rain’.

tʰei is used for asking and granting permission. For asking permission the question particle occur at the final position. For both asking and granting permission it always occurs after the verb.

bu k-a neʔ tʰei diŋ həm
food 1sg-3sg eat MOD ASP Q
‘Can I eat food?’

n -a neʔ tʰei lu diŋ a-hi
2s 3sg eat MOD NEG ASP 3sg-be
‘You are not allowed to/cannot eat food’.

In Thadou, verb shows agreement with the subject and object. Subject and object agreement marker are fused together and placed before the head verb.

This can be accounted by the following phonological rule of fusion:

(i) The underlying subject agreement marker that marks the subject kei is ka ‘1sg’

(ii) The underlying object agreement marker that marks the object is a ‘3sg’

Both these are fused together in pronunciation, that the fused morpheme carrying the agreement features of both subject and object becomes ka

**Rule: ka + a = ka**

kei Lamka aʔ k-a tʃeŋ e
I Lamka LOC 1sg-3sg live DECL
‘I live in Lamka’.

The phonological rule of fusion for second person:
(i) Underlying subject agreement marker that marks the second person $\text{nag}$ is $\text{na}$ ‘2sg’

(ii) The underlying object agreement marker that marks the object food is $\text{a}$ ‘3sg’

Both these are fused together in pronunciation, that the fused morpheme carrying the agreement features of both subject and object becomes $\text{na}$

**Rule: na + a = na**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{na} & \quad \text{-in} & \quad \text{bu} & \quad n- & \quad a & \quad \text{ne} & \quad e \\
\text{2sg} & \quad \text{ERG} & \quad \text{food} & \quad \text{2sg} & \quad \text{3sg} & \quad \text{eat} & \quad \text{DECL}
\end{align*}
\]

‘You eat food’.

The phonological rule of fusion is for third person:

(i) Underlying subject agreement marker that marks the third person $\text{ama}$ is $\text{a}$ ‘3sg’

(ii) The underlying object agreement marker that marks the object twi is $\text{a}$ ‘3sg’

Both these are fused together in pronunciation, that the fused morpheme carrying the agreement features of both subject and object becomes $\text{a}$

**Rule: a + a = a**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ama} & \quad \text{-in} & \quad \text{twi} & \quad a- & \quad \text{don} & \quad e \\
\text{3sg} & \quad \text{ERG} & \quad \text{water} & \quad \text{3sg} & \quad \text{drink} & \quad \text{DECL}
\end{align*}
\]

‘S/he drinks water’.

In Thadou, Number is marked for dual subject as $l^{b}\text{n}$ and $u$ for plural subject. Explanation is given with the example given below

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kei} & \quad \text{-ni} & \quad p^{hai} & \quad a? & \quad k-a & \quad f\text{fe} & \quad l^{b}\text{n} & \quad e \\
\text{1sg} & \quad \text{two} & \quad \text{Imphal} & \quad \text{LOC} & \quad \text{1sg-3sg} & \quad \text{live} & \quad \text{DL} & \quad \text{DECL}
\end{align*}
\]

‘We both live in Imphal’. (Exclusive)
‘We live in Imphal’. (Exclusive)

Thadou has two Causative markers *saʔ* and *su-. saʔ* is a periphrastic causative marker which occur after the verb. It is the most common causative marker.

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{kim} & -\text{in} & \text{tom} & \text{gu:l} & a & \text{tʰa} & \text{saʔ} & e \\
\text{Kim} & \text{ERG} & \text{tom} & \text{snake} & 3\text{sg} & \text{kill} & \text{CAUS} & \text{DECL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘Kim let/make tom kill the snake’.

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{k} & -\text{a} & \text{su-} & \text{tʰeːŋ} & e \\
1\text{sg} & 3\text{sg} & \text{CAUS} & \text{clean} & \text{DECL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘I clean it’.

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{k} & -\text{a} & \text{suʔ} & \text{tʰeŋ} & \text{saʔ} & e \\
1\text{sg} & 3\text{sg} & \text{CAUS} & \text{clean} & \text{CAUS} & \text{DECL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘I let it clean/ let someone cleans up’.

The valence increasing category in Thadou is found in the causative construction. In valence increasing construction, the causative adds a new agent, the causer, and the old subject becomes the causee, the agent of the caused event.

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{kim} & -\text{in} & \text{nausɛn} & -\text{imut} & \text{saʔ} & e \\
\text{kim} & \text{ERG} & \text{baby} & 3\text{sg} & \text{sleep} & \text{CAUS} & \text{DECL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘Kim caused the baby to sleep’.

In the above example a new participant is added, and thus two participants are involve i.e the causer that take the subject position and the old subject becomes
the causee and become the object or the theme and thus become divalent. Examining the above example there is a change/increment in valency i.e univalent to divalent. Stem II form of verb occurs in the divalent construction.

Valence increment can also be shown in the examples below where are univalent changes to divalent.

```
boipu a- diŋ e
boipu 3sg stand DECL
‘Boipu stands’.
```

```
boipu k -a din saʔ e
boipu 1sg- 3sg stand CAUS DECL
‘I caused/let boipu to stand’.
```

In passive verb construction in Thadou, the subject of the active sentence is demoted and the object of the active sentence is promoted to the subject position. However the subject of the passive sentence is not assigned ergative case.

```
kim cu oja -pu voʔ a- hi
kim DET teacher MAS beat 3sg be
‘kim was beaten by the teacher’.
```

This work is a descriptive study of Verb phrase in Thadou and does not follow any framework. This work however does not claim to be a complete analysis of Thadou. Though much work has been done much more research work has to be done especially the Syntax of Thadou. It is hope that this work will provide some help and offer a base for future research.
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