CHAPTER 5
VERBS AND THE VERB PHRASE

5.1 Introduction
Verb is a complex topic in many Kuki-Chin languages due to its stem alternation. This phenomenon cannot be explained with one linguistics level alone. It requires the involvement of various linguistic rules and principles. So, this chapter is a morpho-syntactic description of verb in Tedim Chin.

Givon (1984 cf. Payne 1997) defined verbs in any language as “the grammatical category that includes lexemes which express the least time-stable concepts, e.g., events such as die, run, break etc”. Payne (ibid) suggested that in order to determine a verb, the morphosyntactic properties, that is, distributional (or configurational) and structural properties should be closely observed. Verb phrase constitutes of a verb as the head, accompanied by pre-verbal and post-verbal elements.

The present chapter is structured in the following way: §5.2 discusses verb stems; §5.2.1 deals with patterns of verb inflection; semantic classes of verbs has various subsections in §5.3; transitivity is discussed in §5.4; §5.5 shows the environment for the occurrences of Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs; aspect system is investigated in §5.6; §5.7 concentrates on mood and modality. Verbal elements (§5.8) has two parts: Pre-verbal and Post-verbal elements. Pre-verbal elements (§5.8.1) has sub-sections on pronominal proclitics in §5.8.1.1, reflexives/reciprocals in §5.8.1.2 and pre-verbal directional in §5.8.1.3. Post-verbal elements (§5.8.2) discusses negation (§5.8.2.1), causatives (§5.8.2.2), directional marking (§5.8.2.3), existential (§5.8.2.4), person agreement markers (§5.8.2.5) verb reduplication (§5.8.2.6), comitative (§5.8.2.7), other verbal suffixes (§5.2.8) and adverbial particles as verb modifiers (5.8.2.9), emphatic particle (§5.8.2.10) and serial verbs (§5.8.2.11).
5.2 Verb Stems

Most of the verbs in Tedim Chin are monosyllabic. Verbs can be divided into two main types depending on whether the stem alternates or not. The two types are: alternating verb stem and non-alternating verb stem. The alternating verb stems have either segmentally or tonally inflected verb forms like most of the Kuki-Chin languages. Button (2011: 31) undoubtedly stated that “Most Northern Chin verbs have a basic form FORM-I; and an inflected form FORM-II; specific syntactic functions vary between languages.” Tedim Chin, a northern Kuki-Chin language, exhibits the two forms of verbs which are labelled as Stem 1 and Stem 2 in the present study.

Verb stems differ in form and function at the phonological, morphological, syntactic and pragmatic levels (Hyman and Van Bik 2002; King 2009). The Stem 1 is regarded as the base form and Stem 2 as the derived form. The examples of Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs in Tedim Chin are listed in Table 31.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem 1</th>
<th>Stem 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mù</td>
<td>mùʔ ‘see’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kàp</td>
<td>kàʔ ‘cry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŋèn</td>
<td>ŋèt ‘ask’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mua̯n̄</td>
<td>muàn ‘trust’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sám</td>
<td>sàp ‘call’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pāi̯</td>
<td>pāi ‘go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tēl</td>
<td>tēl ‘choose’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cing (2012) discussed three main processes which triggers verb stem alternation at the segmental level in Tedim Chin. These are addition, substitution and tonal change. A preliminary investigation of tones and segmental changes of verb stems in Tedim Chin can also be seen in Cing and Temsunungsang (2012).

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26 Henderson (1965) used the terms Form I and Form II to represent both Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs.
5.2.1 Patterns of Verb Inflection

Inflection in verb is seen as variation in the final segment/segments of the verb stem. The pattern of verb inflection is not predictable in Tedim Chin. The verbs which end with open syllables become closed with final consonants such as /p/, /t/, /k/ and /ʔ/ in coda position. The verbs with closed syllables in Stem 1 are substituted by other consonants in Stem 2. The Stem 1 and Stem 2 final codas show variation in closed syllables as: /n/ > /t/, /k/ > /ʔ/, /η/ > /n/, /η/ > /t/, /p/ > /ʔ/, /m/ > /p/. This implies that Stem 1 verbs that end in nasals are replaced by nasal or stop sounds in Stem 2. Also, a verb which ends with a stop in Stem 1 is replaced only by a stop in Stem 2. Table 32 gives the phonological shapes of verb stems.

Table 32: Phonological shapes of Verb Stems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllables</th>
<th>Processes</th>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Segments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CV/CVV</td>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>Coda</td>
<td>/ʔ/, /k/, /t/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| CVC/CVVC    | Substitution | Coda    | /n/ > /t/, /k/ > /ʔ/, /η/ > /n/,
|             |           |           | /η/ > /t/, /p/ > /ʔ/, /m/ > /p/ |

5.3 Semantic Classes of Verbs

The different types of verbs based on various semantic classes/domains are discussed in the following sections. Verb stem 1 is used in all the examples as the discussion of verbs are at the lexical level. This stem form is the basic form of the verb in Tedim Chin.

5.3.1 Verbs of Perception

These verbs are mostly related to senses. Some of them are listed below:

(286) mù 'see'
én 'look'
zá 'hear'
ŋaī 'listen'
nām 'smell'
liák 'lick'
ciām 'taste'
5.3.2 Verb of Cognition

These verbs involve the mental ability or state of a person.

(287) tʰeĩ ‘know’
ŋaiʔsùn ‘think’
sìn ‘learn’
pʰök ‘remember’
māŋŋiʔ ‘forget’
tʰeisíam ‘understand’
lūnxám ‘worry’

5.3.3 Verbs of Searching

(288) zōŋ ‘search’
kān ‘enquire’

5.3.4 Verbs of Ingesting

(289) né ‘eat’
haí ‘chew’
dōn ‘drink’
vālʔ ‘swallow’
liák ‘lick’
tōp ‘suck’

5.3.5 Aspectual Verbs

(290) pān ‘start’
zɔú ‘complete’
zām ‘continue’
xāl ‘stop’
pʰùt ‘establish’
5.3.6 Verbs of Change of Possession

(291) piá  ‘give’
    tʰɔ̀ʔ   ‘contribute’
    ŋàʔ    ‘get’
    xèktuàʔ ‘exchange’
    tʰɔʔ    ‘donate’
    âp      ‘submit’

5.3.7 Weather Verbs

Weather verbs make more sense when it occurs with nouns. Some of the weather verbs are listed below:

(292) guàʔzù  ‘rain (lit. rain fall)’
    nīsā    ‘sunshine (lit. sun hot)’
    huĩʔnúŋ ‘wind (lit. wind blow)’
    xuāpʰiá ‘lightning (lit. village restless)’
    giālkià ‘hailstorm (lit. hail fall)’
    guàʔpʰin ‘drizzle (lit. rain small droplets)’
    vângĩŋ ‘thunder (lit. sky noise)’

5.3.8 Motion Verbs

(293) paĩ  ‘go’
    tũŋ    ‘arrive/reach’
    lámpaĩ ‘walk’
    taĩ    ‘run’
    bɔ̀kvàk ‘crawl’
    lēŋ    ‘fly’
    diâŋ    ‘hop’
    tóm    ‘jump’
    tuán    ‘bounce’
5.4 Transitive-Intransitive Dichotomy

In a transitive verb, the verb clause has two parts, argument and predicate. A verb itself is the predicate and the argument has two participants which are subject and object. So, the number of arguments a verb takes affected the transitivity of the verb. A verb is transitive if it takes two arguments. It is intransitive if it takes only one argument in the verb clause. If it takes three arguments, it is ditransitive. An intransitive verb becomes transitive by adding the causative suffix -sàk to the verb.

5.4.1 Transitive Verbs

Payne (1997) defined a transitive verb as one that describes a relation between two participants such that one of the participants acts toward or upon the other. It is also called mono-transitive verb. The examples in (294) and (295) take two arguments such as subject and object. The subject is case marked by an ergative case in both the examples. This shows that the verb is transitive.

(294) mūŋtá-ìn muàmxūm hūm
    Mungta-ERG sweets distribute.1
    ‘Mungta distributes sweets’

(295) naũŋék-ìn à nú kàʔ
    baby-ERG 3POSS mother cry.2
    ‘The baby cried for his/her mother’

5.4.2 Ditransitive Verbs

A ditransitive verb takes a subject, a direct object (DO) and an indirect object (IO). The subject is case marked by an ergative case. The verb is in Stem 1 in a ditransitive sentence given in examples (296) and (297).

(296) kà pá-ń keí laǐbú xàt ɔ́ŋ piá
    1POSS father-ERG1SG book one toward give.1
    ‘My father gave a book to me’

(297) naũŋék-ìn à nú kàʔ
    baby-ERG 3POSS mother cry.2
    ‘The baby cried for his/her mother’
(297) kîmnû-in vɔ̀ k-té án piá
Kimnu-ERG pig-PL food give.1
‘Kimnu gave food to the pigs’
(Kimnu feed the pigs)

5.4.3 Intransitive Verbs
An intransitive verb describes a property, state or situation involving only one participant (Payne 1997). The participant involves a subject and a predicate, that is, a verb. Stem 1 verbs occur in intransitive verbs.

(298) kei ʔmu
1SG sleep.1
‘I sleep/am sleeping’

(299) naũŋék kàp
baby cry.1
The baby cry/is crying’

5.4.3.1 Intransitivizing/detransitivizing prefix kî-
This prefix is sometimes called middle voice, reflexive or reciprocal in many Tibeto-Burman languages (LaPolla 1996). It acts as an intransitivizer or detransitivizer. It gives the semantics of things being done by self.

(300) kî-huán ‘cooked’
kî-tán ‘cut’
kî-sám ‘called’

(301) án kî-huán
food REFL-cook.2
‘He/she cooked by him/herself’
5.5 Occurrences of Stem 1 and Stem 2 Verbs
Verb stems can occur in different syntactic environments depending on the nature of the sentence. Stem 1 functions as simple nominal predicate whereas Stem 2 verbs occur in nominalised clauses. Verb stems alternates in imperative, declarative and interrogative, conditional and adverbial constructions. This section briefly highlights the function and occurrences of verb stems. A more detailed discussion is given in Chapter 7.

5.5.1 Imperative
In imperative sentences, both Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs can be used. The same sentence construction cannot take the same imperative marker when the verb is Stem 2.

(303) híʔ án né ɔú
this food eat.1 IMP
‘Eat this food’

(304) *híʔ án nék ɔú
this food eat.2 IMP
‘Eat this food’

(305) mízōŋ-te hùʔ-nā piá ʔin
poor-PL help.2-NMLZ give.1 IMP
Give help/alms to the poor’

5.5.2 Declarative
A declarative sentence usually occurs with verb in Stem 1 form.

(306) kà ŭ-té ʒŋ túŋ-nāf-lǒu
1POSS elder-PL toward reach.1-near-NEG.1
My brothers haven’t reached yet’ [VKC, LS 040]
5.5.3 Interrogative

Interrogatives have two parts in this section- polar and content question.

(307) ín-àʔ nà ñm hiá
house-LOC 2SG EXIST Q
Are you at home?’

(308) kà ū-té ŋ tún ciáŋ hi
1POSS elder-PL toward reach.2 TEMP COP
hèn cì in
HORT say.1 CONJ
‘Let it be when my brothers reach, she says’ [VKC, LS 041]

The interrogative pronouns kuà, bàŋ, kɔí and others occur with Stem 1 verbs.

(309) kuá sám hi mòk hi-ám cì in à sám
who hair COP INTJ COP-Q say.1 CONJ 3POSS hair
neí zŋŋ diŋ á kuán pŋŋ úʔ aívé
have.1 search.1 PURP ADV go simply PL 3SG.COP.DECL
‘To find out the owner of the hair, they simply set off for their journey anyhow’ [VKC, LS 023]

5.5.4 Negative Clause

Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs can occur with negative particle. It differs in meaning.

(310) naŋŋék kàp-lɔù
baby cry.1-NEG.1
‘The baby is not crying’
(311) naʊŋék kàʔ-loù
baby cry.2-NEG.1
‘Didn’t cry for the baby’

5.5.5 Conditional Clause
A conditional clause can occur with Stem 2 verbs:
(312) án nēk dìŋ nà piák lêʔ àmaú lűndám dìŋ
food eat.2 PURP 2SG give.2 COND 3PL happy PURP
‘If you give them food to eat, they will be happy’

5.6 Aspect
Payne (1997) defined tense as “the grammatical expression of the relation of the time of an event to some reference point in time, usually the moment the clause is uttered”. Tense and aspect are the two ways of determining time in a language which occur externally and internally. Tense operates in between various events in time and aspect is about the internal temporal structure of events (Singh 1999). Singh (ibid) also stated that in Kuki-Chin languages, aspect not tense is the dominant category for determining time. Chhangte (1993) mentioned that tense is unmarked in Mizo. Dahl and Velupillai (2013) viewed tense and aspect as two close concepts that both deal with time. However, the operation of tense and aspect differs relative to its location in time or the events or processes constituting a given time. Comrie (1976) classified perfective and imperfective to be the two main constituents of aspect. Tense and aspect are not morphologically/grammatically marked in Tedim Chin. Since both are time concepts, it is expressed through various adverbial/verbal particles.
5.6.1 Perfective

The perfective -tà marks for the action that has taken place. Dahl and Velupillai (2013) described perfective verb to refer to past events.

(313) ü á nǐʔ īn ki-kǐm-tà
        elder 3SG two CONJ REFL-equal-PFV
Elder brother, the two are of equal size…’ [VKC, SSCS 024]

(314) tuā nītūm dék-tā īn tūŋ-tʰei
        DEM dusk almost-PFV CONJ reach.1-possible.1
hēt-louched
never-NEG.1
‘The sun was about to set and (she) never reach...’

5.6.2 Completive

Completed action in Tedim Chin is marked with -xín. It can be followed by the perfective marker.

(315) kéí pāi-xín
        1SG go.1-COMPL
‘I had already gone/I went’

(316) kéí pāi-xín-tà
        1SG go.1-COMPL-PFV
‘I had already gone’
5.6.3 Progressive
The progressive in Tedim Chin indicate that the action is in progress. It is expressed by -laī. Progressive aspect refers to an ongoing, dynamic process (Payne 2007).

(317) vân-ā āksínélkāi dēi?-laī īŋ cī mōk
sky-LOC comet want-PROG 1SG.RLS say.1 INTJ
‘She said she still wanted comet from the sky’ [VKC, LS 006]

5.6.4 Habitual Aspect
Habitual aspect shows habituation of the action, that is, the action which gets repeated. So-Hartmann (2009: 268) rightly pointed out a common feature for all habitual that “a certain event or situation occurs repeatedly over a prolonged period of time”. She classified habituals of Daai Chin into four types: habitual past, habitual, iterative and fortuitous iterative. Though related languages from the same Kuki-Chin subgroup, Tedim Chin habituals slightly differ from that of Daai Chin. These are habitual past, habitual, repetitive and iterative.

5.6.4.1 Habitual Past
Habitual past is marked by ṇeí ‘before but not now’.

(318) nà sém ṇeí īŋ
thing do ASP: HAB.PST 1SG.RLS
‘I used to work but not now (not anymore)’

5.6.4.2 Habitual
Habitual is marked by gīgè ‘always’.

(319) nà sém gīgè īŋ
thing do ASP: HAB 1SG.RLS
‘I always work’
5.6.4.3 Repetitive
Repetitive is marked by zél ‘continuing previous action’.

(320) nà sèm zél íŋ
thing do ASP: HAB 1SG.RLS
‘I continue/repeat to work’

5.6.4.4 Iterative
Iterative is marked by kík ‘again’. Iterative indicates repetition of an action that has already occurred before. The literal meaning of kík is ‘to return’.

(321) nà sèm kík íŋ
thing do ASP: ITER 1SG.RLS
‘I work again’

(322) naū táŋmaį và én vē cì kík ín
younger cucumber away look.1 IMP say.1 ITER CONJ
“Younger brother, go and see the cucumber”, he said again’ [VKC, SSCS 007]

5.6.5 Durative
Durative aspect emphasised about the duration of the action or event.

(323) nuĩ-dén
laugh.1-DUR
‘Laugh for a long period/time’

(324) zuĩ-dén
follow.1-DUR
‘Follow for a long period/time’
5.7 Mood and Modality

Mood is a verbal category like tense and aspect. It is often understood as a syntactic category and is not found in all languages. Modality is expressed by modal verbs or particles. Thus, the distinction between mood and modality can be compared to that between tense and time or gender and sex (Palmer 1986). Mood is discussed under different sections such as imperatives, hortatives, necessity, potential, optatives, desiderative and probability.

5.7.1 Imperative

An imperative mood occurs with Stem 1 verb. It is marked by ṭu, ḏɨʔ and ṣē. Chhangte (1993) classified the imperatives in Mizo as standard imperative, familiar imperative and weak imperative. Tedim also has similar type of imperative like Mizo. These are illustrated with examples below.

(325) dîŋ ṭu
stand.1 IMP
‘Stand up’

(326) dîŋ ḏɨʔ
stand.1 IMP
‘Stand’

The imperative markers ṭu and ṣē cannot take plural marker. However, ḏɨʔ can become plural when the plural marker follows the imperative.

(327) dîŋ ḏɨʔ ṭuʔ
stand.1 IMP PL
‘Stand up all’
5.7.2 Hortative

Hortative and imperative are related terms which have slight distinction in meaning. If the speaker is in control of the mood, it is imperative, otherwise it is hortative.

(328) ciàʔ nì
go.home HORT
‘Let us go home’

(329) tʰúŋèn nì
pray HORT
‘Let us pray’

5.7.3 Necessity

Necessity mood is marked by -kúl.

(330) nà paí-kúl-keí
2SG go.2-need-NEG
‘You don’t need/have to go’

(331) sáŋ kàʔ-té-n lai á sím ùʔ kúl
school attend-PL-ERG paper 3SG read.2 PL need
‘Those who go to school need/have to read their lessons’

5.7.4 Potential

Potential mood is marked by -tʰeî. It changes its shape to -tʰeîʔ depending on the verb form. It has a lexical verb counterpart -tʰeî which means ‘know’.

(332) naūŋék tú-tʰeî-tà
baby sit.1-can.1-PFV
‘The baby can sit’
(333) án nék-tʰeʔ-tà
  food  eat.2-can.2-PFV
  ‘Food is ready for eating’

5.7.5 Optative
Optative expresses a wish or desire to happen to somebody or an entity. It can co-occur with other modal verbs. In the examples below, imperative marker is preceded by optative and perfective is followed by optative.

(334) dām  hén  ɔù
    heal.1  OPT  IMP
    ‘Let him heal’

(335) dām-tá  hèn
    heal.1-PFV  OPT
    ‘May he/she be healed’

5.7.6 Desiderative
This mood is used to express the wish of a person. It is marked by -út.

(336) án  né-út  ḳη
    food  eat.1-DSD  1SG.RLS
    ‘I want to eat food’

5.7.7 Probability
Probability is expressed by the particle -xátʰeʔí.

(337) kà  sám  tán  xá-tʰeʔí  ḳη
    1POSS  hair  cut.1  MIR-PROB  1SG.RLS
    ‘I might cut my hair’
5.8 Verbal Elements

Verbs can be accompanied by various elements before or after the main verb. It is broadly classified into two: pre-verbal (§5.8.1) and post-verbal elements (§5.8.2).

5.8.1 Pre-Verbal Elements

This section discusses the pre-verbal elements such as Pronominal proclitics (§5.8.1.1), reflexives/reciprocals (§5.8.1.2) and pre-verbal directional (§5.8.1.3). As the term ‘pre-verbal’ suggests, it occurs before a verb in a verb phrase.

5.8.1.1 Pronominal Proclitics

The pronominal proclitics in Tedim Chin are given in Table 33. It is also referred to as verb agreement prefixes. These proclitics occur before the verb. They are basically possessive pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First person</th>
<th>Second person</th>
<th>Third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The occurrence of proclitics can be seen in “Mau Zuang’s story”. The example shows third person singular proclitic a in pre-verbal position.
They made Mau Zuang carry (that) and they let her cook when she reached home’

5.8.1.2 Reflexive and Reciprocal

\( k\hbox{-} \) is reflexive marker attached to verb stems. When a verb takes two arguments without which the action cannot be completed, it becomes reflexive. Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs can be both reflexive. Table 34 shows reflexives in Stem 1 verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Non-reflexive</th>
<th>Reflexive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>téŋ ‘live’</td>
<td>kí-téŋ ‘marry’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēk ‘bargain’</td>
<td>kí-dēk ‘control’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kùm ‘interfere’</td>
<td>kí-kùm ‘discuss’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reflexive and non-reflexive verb forms differ in that the bare verb stem is non-reflexive, the other being reflexive with the addition of a prefix. Reflexive can also be distinguished from reciprocal verb by the affixation of the plural marker.

(340) lámká-àʔ  téŋ íŋ
Lamka-LOC live.1 1SG.RLS
‘I live in Lamka’

(341) dálpí lèʔ  mànboi  tédim-àʔ  kí-téŋ  dîŋ  ùʔ
dalpi and Manbawi Tedim-LOC REFL-live.1 PURP PL
‘Dalpi and Manbawi are going to get married in Tedim’
5.8.1.3 Pre-Verbal Directionals

The pre-verb slot can be occupied by the directional markers ɔ́ŋ/hɔ́ŋ and và which both refer to ‘away’ and ‘towards’ from the reference point or deictic center. và is used when the goal is away from the subject. ɔ́ŋ/hɔ́ŋ is used when the goal is directed towards the speaker. It adds two opposite actions from a location ‘come’ and ‘go’ depending on what the main verb takes.

(342) kōlmāŋ-pá-ŋ à zi díŋ ā ɔ́ŋ
Burmese officer-MAS-ERG 3POSS wife PURP ADV toward
lá-xá díŋ ā hì
take.1-MIR PURP 3SG COP
‘The Burmese officer might take you unexpectedly as/for his wife’ [VKC, LS 009]

The examples in (339) show the occurrence of the two directional markers in the sentence. The first marker và indicates that the subject moves away from the speaker to a particular destination. The second marker ɔ́ŋ shows that the subject moves towards the speaker.

(343) và paī ún lá ná múʔ üʔ lèʔ
away go.1 IMP.PL CONJ 2SG see.2 PL COND
kà zi díŋ īn ɔ́ŋ lá ṭùn cì
1POSS wife PURP ADV toward take.1 IMP.PL say.1
ìn á nàsèm-té sōl
ADV 3POSS servant-PL send
‘Go and if you find her bring her to be my wife, he says and he sends his servants’ [VKC, LS 020]
5.8.1.3.1 Co-occurrence of Verbal Directionals

The directional markers can occur together in Tedim Chin. When both the directional markers ʋà and ɔŋ occur adjacent to each other, it is always ɔŋ which precedes the other marker but not the other way.

(344) vān-ā ăksínélkā ɔŋ ʋà lák-sàk núŋ
sky-LOC comet toward away take.2-BENF IMP.PL

cī
say.1
‘They said, “We will go and get comet from the sky”’[VKC, LS 009]

5.8.1.3.2 Other Directionals

In Tedim Chin, a directional marker denoting ‘forward or advance’ is identified with ipmapa-. It means front or ahead. This feature is also present in Daai Chin which has both spatial and temporal directions (So-Hartmann 2009).

ipmapa literally means ‘front’.

(345) mānɔ̀ Ɂ ‘approach front’
mālēp ‘action done before the actual time’

Compare the two sets in (342) and (343). It gives two different meanings depending on the arrangement and presentation of words.

(346) mápaī ‘going smoothly’
mā pai ‘go in advance’

(347) mákaì ‘leader’
mā kāi ‘lead the front’
5.8.2 Post-Verbal Elements

The post-verbal elements occupy the post-verbal slot in a verb phrase. This position can be filled by various particles such as negatives particles, causative, directional marker and adverbial particles.

5.8.2.1 Negation

There are two types of negative markers in Tedim Chin: -keí and -lɔù. These negative morphemes are marked on the verb. It is hard to distinguish the more basic negative morpheme among the two markers. -lɔù has an alternant -lɔùʔ whereas -keí has no other form. Stem 1 verb takes -lɔù marker and Stem 2 verb takes -lɔùʔ. These two can never interchange their position. The other marker -keí can occur with both Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs.

(348) náŋ íʔmú-lɔù díŋ
   2SG sleep.1-NEG.1 PURP
   ‘You will not sleep’

(349) *náŋ íʔmú-keí díŋ
   2SG sleep.1-NEG PURP
   ‘You will not sleep’

(350) íʔmú-keí ɔú
   sleep.1-NEG IMP
   ‘You don’t sleep’

The first person agreement markers occur with the negative marker -keí as shown in (351) whereas it is ungrammatical to use -lɔù in similar construction as given in (352).

(351) keí paï-kéŋ
   1SG go.1-NEG.1SG.RLS
   ‘I didn’t go’
Another negative morpheme -đàʔ is not commonly used in written form but it is usually used in informal speech. In other sense, đàʔ means ‘sad’ when it is used as a stative verb which is given in (353).

(353) né-đàʔ  níŋ
    eat.1-NEG  1SG.IRR
    ‘I will rather not eat’

(354) đàʔ  lua  iŋ
    sad  very  1SG.RLS
    ‘I am very sad’

5.8.2.2 Causatives
A causative construction involves ‘two events’ (Dixon 2012). Frawley (1992: 159 cited in Dixon 2012) talks of ‘a precipitating event’ and ‘a result’, and Shibatani (1976b: 1 cited in Dixon 2012) of ‘a causing event’ and ‘a caused event’ A causative is a transitivizer which increases the valency of a verb. Two types of causatives occur in Tedim Chin: lexical and morphological causatives.

5.8.2.1 Lexical Causatives
Lexical causatives are caused by certain verbs which show onset distinction in aspiration and the aspirated segment function as causative marker. Lexical causatives are also the same with causal verbs. It can be seen in pairs such as velar stop versus velar fricative, aspirated alveolar stop versus unaspirated alveolar stop and aspirated labial stop versus unaspirated labial stop. This has made an intransitive verb to become a transitive verb. Some West Himalayan languages like Kinnauri, Patni, Tinani, Chaudangsi, Byangsi shows voicing alternation between transitive and intransitive verbs (Takahashi 2009).
The pairs of aspirated distinctions are:

/k/ versus /x/  
(355) kià ‘fall’  
   xià ‘drop’

(356) keùʔ ‘hatch/open up’  
   xeùʔ ‘manually remove or clean up cover of something’

/t/ versus /tʰ/  
(357) tún ‘wrap’  
   tʰūn ‘put inside a bag etc.’

/p/ versus /pʰ/  
(358) púk ‘fall’  
   pʰúk ‘fell (tree)’

5.8.2.2 Morphological Causatives
Another type of causatives that occur in Tedim Chin is morphological causative. It is expressed by the suffix -sàk. This causative is more common and productive in Tedim Chin as compared to lexical causatives. When Stem1 verb is suffixed with -sàk, the sentence becomes causative. Stem 2 verb gives the meaning ‘for the benefit of somebody’ when it is suffixed by -sàk. Thus, it is observed that -sàk can give both causative and benefactive meaning.

(359) kà pū tuí dūn-sàk ní  
   1POSS grandfather water drink.1-CAUS HORT  
   ‘Let’s make/let my grandfather drink water’

(360) híʔ pá-n ŋ hèʔ-sàk  
   this MAS-ERG toward angry.1-CAUS  
   ‘This man makes me angry’
(361) sínxuàʔ kɔ́ puák-sàk
firewood 1POSS.toward carry.2-BENF
‘I carried firewood for you’

5.8.2.3 Directional Marking
Verbal suffixes are used to denote three types of directions- upward, downward and horizontal (level). The upward and downward direction are opposite of each other. Upward direction is similar with north and downward is comparable with south. Depending on the elevation, there are two types of directional marking. These are sàk ‘of higher elevation’ and xāŋ ‘of lower elevation’ which are suffixed with -lám ‘towards’ and the locative marker -àʔ.

(362) kàʔ-tɔù
climb-upward
‘ascend upward’

(363) kúm-sùk
step.1-downward
‘descend downward’

(364) paī-pʰeī
go.1-horizontal
‘go level (straight)’

(365) sàk-lám-àʔ
higher elevation-towards-LOC
‘towards the higher side’

(366) xāŋ-lám-àʔ
lower elevation-towards-LOC
‘towards the lower side’
5.8.2.4 Existential
Tedim Chin has an existential marker which means ‘present or stay’ and is used with animate or inanimate objects. It is marked by ɔ́m. It occurs after the locative marker.

(367) ín-àʔ ɔ́m ɨŋ
house-LOC EXIST 1SG.RLS
‘I am/stay at home’

(368) kuà tēŋ ɔ́m á hí-á
who all EXIST 3SG COP-Q
‘Who all are present there?’

5.8.2.5 Person Agreement Markers
Person agreement can occur in sentence final position. It varies according to person and number. Table 35 show person agreement markers. These are: ɨŋ (first person, realis), niŋ (first person, irrealis), teʔ (second person). teʔ (second person) has two variants depending on the preceding number. ‘inteʔ (singular number)’ and unteʔ (plural number) gives proposition or supposed meaning for the respective numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>ɨŋ</td>
<td>un (excl.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>haŋ (incl.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>teʔ</td>
<td>uʔteʔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The example is taken from the narrative “Lengtonghoih’s story”. It illustrates the occurrence of first person agreement marker.

(369) vân-ā ăksínélkā deʔ-łaʔ ɨŋ ći mŏk
sky-LOC comet want-PROG 1SG.RLS say.1 INTJ
‘She said she still wanted comet from the sky’ [VKC, LS 006]
5.8.2.6 Verb Reduplication

When verbs are reduplicated, it gives a sense of continuity of the action. Verbs can undergo total reduplication. Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs can be reduplicated. In a verb phrase, a verb is modified by various particles. The modifiers can be either used with or without reduplication.

Change in Segments and Tone in Stem 2

(370) tū ‘sit’
    tūtū ‘keep sitting’

(371) nuī ‘laugh’
    nuīnuī ‘keep laughing’

Change in Tone but no Segmental Change in Stem 2

(372) lām ‘dance’
    lāmlām ‘keep dancing’

When Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs are reduplicated, it gives different form and meaning in Tedim Chin. This is exemplified in the following sentences below.

(373) maū zuāŋ kàp~kàp  ké-n    lā  nà   naū
    Mau Zuang cry.1  NEG.1-ERG CONJ 2POSS younger

    ɔ́ŋ  paì-pìɁ-sùk    ìn
    toward go.2-COM-downward  IMP

‘Mau Zuang, don’t keep crying, bring down your younger sister’
While she keeps crying, her mother had turned into a mermaid.'
5.8.2.8 Other Verbal Suffixes

There are some suffixes which are attached to verb and act as a verb modifier. The verb takes Stem 2 form. It conveys message about the intention of the speaker.

-huaī ‘wise to do’

(379) nēk-huaī
   eat.2-must
   ‘must eat’

(380) ùp-huaī
   believe.2-must
   ‘must believe’

-ták ‘worthy of’

(381) èt-ták
   look.2-worth
   ‘worth seeing’

(382) lei-ták
   buy.2-worth
   ‘worth buying’

-suák ‘born’

(383) iʔmūt-suák
   sleep.2-become
   ‘sleepy’

(384) hēʔ-suák
   angry-become
   ‘feel like getting angry’
-sîm ‘secretly’
(385) kâp-sîm
   cry.1-secretly
   ‘cry secretly’

(386) nuî-sîm
   laugh.1-secretly
   ‘laugh secretly’

5.8.2.9 Adverbial Particles as Verb modifiers
Henderson (1965) had briefly discussed about the occurrences of adverbials in Tedim Chin which she termed as ‘chiming of adverb’. It consisted of reduplicated adverb which shows variation in the vowel. Bhaskararao (1989) expanded Henderson’s work and looked into it from phonological perspective and distinguished them according to the vowels. Cing (2015) had placed this feature as a kind of reduplication and further classified it into total and partial reduplication of adverbs. This type of adverbs gives additional meaning to the verb it modifies. It also forms a class of onomatopoeia. The adverbial particles have a wide range of meaning. There is a modifier for almost all the manners in which the action is executed. It gives a clear picture on the mind of the listeners who does not observe the scene in person.

Chhangte (1989) observed a similar function of adverbial particles in Mizo. She listed two characteristics of adverbial particles which occur as double adverbs which is also true in Tedim Chin:
(i) They function as adverbs (modifier of a verb)
(ii) They are usually reduplicated

In the examples illustrated below, the adverbial particles diándiány and zaizái modify the verbs. These particles clearly give information about the manner in which the action is carried out by the verb.
Some examples of adverbial particles are shown in verb phrase from elicited data. These reduplicated words modify the verbs and add more information about the action done. The adverbials can be totally or partially reduplicated.

(387) à sá̞m-zāŋ xát tuí-in tai-sūk
3POSS hair-CLF.strand one water-ERG carried away-downward

diáŋ~diáŋ
gradually
‘......one of her hairstrand was gradually carried away by water’ [VKC, LS 015]

(388) á tai zaí~zaí ū? lè?
3SG run.2 massively PL COND
‘When they all run in big group….’

(389) paī lán~làn
walk.1 proudly
‘walk proudly’

(390) nāk dám~dám
snore.1 loudly
‘snore loudly’

(391) ηaiʔsùn ηeū~ŋaū
think.1 deeply
‘think deeply’
5.8.2.9.1 Time Adverbials

Time adverbs classify time depending on remoteness and proximity. If the time is towards the future, the adverbial is followed by *ćiàŋ* whereas any past events is accompanied by *ṁn*. Some of these are:

*ṁn*

(392) túnī ‘today’

zānnī ‘yesterday’

zānhāl ‘day before yesterday’

*ćiàŋ*

(393) ziŋ ‘tomorrow’

tʰaí ‘day after tomorrow’

kālkī ‘next week’

5.8.2.9.2 Manner Adverbials

Tedim Chin has a particle -*tàkīn* which function like manner adverb. These adverbs are usually derived from adjectives.

(394) hɔìɁ-*tàkīn*

good-ADV.M

‘nicely’

(395) pīlvāŋ-*tàkīn*

careful-ADV.M

‘carefully’

(396) hiām-*tàkīn*

sharp-ADV.M

‘sharply’

(397) dām-*tàkīn*

slow-ADV.M

‘slowly’
5.8.2.10 Emphatic Particle

The emphatic particle is used with a verb to give emphasis on the action or affirmation about the action. It usually follows the verb when a question is being raised to a person to confirm if the action was accomplished. The reply comes back with an emphatic marker.

(398) biákín-ā? paĩ-máʔ iŋ
  church-LOC go.1-EMPH 1SG.RLS
  ‘I did go to the church’

(399) lai sīm-máʔ iŋ
  paper read.1-EMPH 1SG.RLS
  ‘I did study’

5.8.2.11 Serial Verbs

As the name suggested, serial verb is a series of at least two verbs occurring together. Payne (1997) discussed serial verbs as “construction that contains two or more verb roots that are neither compounded nor members of separate clauses”. It typically expresses various facets of complex events. Some serial verbs in Tedim are shown below.

(400) tʰàt-lùm
  kill.1-sleep/die.1
  ‘murder’

(401) káp-púk
  shoot.1-fall.1
  ‘shot down’

(402) sát-liām
  hit.1-injure,1
  ‘hit and injure’
(403) vuà-kàp
    beat.1-cry.1
    ‘beat and cry’