7.1 Introduction
This chapter describes the structure of phrases, clauses and sentences. It also
discusses the order of grammatical elements. In the later part, various syntactic
processes occurring in the language such as nominalisation, relativisation, verb
serialisation etc. are explored.

7.2 Constituent Order
Tedim Chin being an ergative language follows APV/SV as its constituent order. The
constituent order types found in world’s languages are APV/SV, AVP/SV and
VAP/VS where A is the most agent-like argument of a transitive clause; S is the only
argument of an intransitive clause and P is the other argument of a transitive clause
(Payne 1997). These distinctions are based on the semantic-syntactic roles. The first
type is represented by Japanese which is similar to Tedim Chin. English allows both
AVP/SV and PAV/VS. The third type is common among Austronesian languages
and in many Nilo-Saharan and Semitic languages of Eastern and northern Africa and
also in the Americas.

7.3 Word Order
According to Crystal (2003), word order is the sequential arrangement of the
elements in a clause or words in a sentence. The order of these elements varies
according to the clause types (Dryer 2008) depending on whether it is transitive or
intransitive. Dryer (2013) claims that there are six logically possible orders of
Subject (S), Object (O) and Verb (V) which are similar to Greenberg’s universal.
These are: SOV (Japanese), SVO (Mandarin), VSO (Irish), VOS (Nias), OVS
(Hixkaryana) and OSV (Nadeb). Among the word orders listed above, OVS and
OSV are uncommon. SOV is the dominant word order found in many of the world’s
languages. Most of the Tibeto-Burman languages exhibit SOV word order except
Karen and Bai which are VO languages (Dryer ibid; LaPolla ).
This section discusses the word order typology of Tedim Chin and includes the order of subject, object and verb, subject and verb, object and verb, indirect object, direct object and verb, adposition and noun, adjective and noun, intensifier and adjective, relative clause and noun, demonstrative and noun, numeral and noun, degree word and adjective, genitive and possessed noun, negative particles and verb, manner adverbs and verb and question particles.

7.3.1 Subject, Object and Verb

The dominant order of subject, object and verb in Tedim Chin is SOV which is the basic word order in many Tibeto-Burman languages. The transitive clause in (460) illustrates the object preceded by the subject and is followed by the verb.

(460) kà pū-ín niāŋ d５n
1POSS grandfather-ERG tea drink.1
‘My grandfather drinks tea’

The alternative order of subject, object and verb is OSV. Contrary to SOV, the order of the subject and object interchanged whereas the occurrence of the verb remains unchanged as shown in (462).

(461) niāŋ kà pū-ín d５n
tea 1POSS grandfather-ERG drink.1
‘My grandfather drinks tea’
(Lit.: Tea my grandfather drinks)

(462) án ké-n né
food 1SG-ERG eat.1
‘I eat food’
(Lit.: Food I eat)
7.3.2 Subject and Verb
The order of the subject and verb are the same in both transitive and intransitive sentences. The subject *dām-łoú-nú* ‘patient (female)’ in the transitive sentence in (463) and intransitive sentence in (464) follows the verb *íʔmū* ‘sleep’.

(463) dām-łoú-nú  lup-nā  túŋ-äʔ  íʔmū
    well-NEG.1-FEM  sleep.2-NMLZ  above-LOC  sleep.1
    ‘The patient (female) sleeps/is sleeping on the bed’

(464) dām-łoú-nú  íʔmū
    well-NEG.1-FEM  sleep.1
    ‘The patient (female) sleeps/is sleeping’

7.3.3 Object and Verb
The object precedes the verb and follows OV order as shown in (465).

(465) nèmnɔú-ín  puán sɔ́
      Nemno-ERG  cloth wash.1
      ‘Nemno wash(es/ed) clothes’

7.3.4 Indirect Object (IO), Direct Object (DO) and Verb
The direct object (DO) is preceded by the indirect object (IO) but followed by the verb in a ditransitive clause. This is illustrated in examples (466) and (467).

(466) liànpí-ín  à  pá  á-díŋ   puán-lūm
      Lianpi-ERG  3POSS  father  GEN-PURP  cloth-warm.2
      lei-sàk
      buy.2-BENF
      ‘Lianpi bought a sweater for his father’

(467) gìnpu-ín  tēm tɔ́  sá  át
      Ginpu-ERG  knife COM  meat cut.1
      ‘Ginpu cuts meat with a knife’
7.3.5 Adposition and Noun
Tedim Chin is a post-positional language. The adposition -àʔ follows the noun lui ‘river’ as in (468).

(468) kímboí-ín lui-àʔ puán sōp
   Kimbawi-ERG river-LOC cloth wash.1
   ‘Kimbawi washes clothes in the river’

7.3.6 Adjective and Noun
The adjective follows the noun (NAdj) in Tedim Chin like other Tibeto-Burman languages. In an attributive construction, the adjective follows the noun whereas in a predicative and relative clause construction, the adjective precedes the noun.

(469) ín hɔìʔ  [Attributive]
   house good
   ‘good house’

(470) á hɔìʔ ín  [Relative Clause]
   3SG good house
   ‘The good house’

7.3.7 Intensifier and Adjective
The intensifier occurs after the adjective as in the example (471).

(471) muāl sāŋ-māʔmāʔ
   hill tall.1-INTSF
   ‘very high mountain’

   However, an intensifier nāk can precede the adjective as in (472). It can co-occurs with another intensifier in an adjectival phrase.

(472) ín nāk-sāŋ māʔ~māʔ
   houseI NTSF-tall.2 INTSF
   ‘extremely tall building’
7.3.8 Relative Clause and Noun

The relative clause is formed by the presence of the topic marker pēn. It occurs after the noun (NRel). Dryer (2008: 39) states that a language with NRel may have internally headed relative clauses. Relative clauses do not have an overt relational marking. They are placed after the noun (LaPolla 1994).

(473) puán ká  sìlɁ  pēn  
cloth 1POSS  wear.1  TOP  
‘The cloth that I wear...’

(474) kà  puán sìlɁ  pēn  
1POSS  cloth wear.1  TOP  
‘My cloth that I wear...’

7.3.9 Demonstrative and Noun

The order of demonstrative and noun is DemN, that is, demonstrative precedes the noun. Since there is no plural demonstrative, the plural suffix is attached to the noun to give plurality in meaning. If the plural suffix occurs after the demonstrative, it changes the word order thus changing the meaning as well.

(475) híɁ xèdàp  
this  shoe  
‘This shoe’

(476) híɁ xèdàp-té  
this  shoe-PL  
‘These shoes’

(477) híɁ-té  xèdàp  
this-PL  shoe  
‘These are shoes’
7.3.10 Numeral and Noun
The numerals, both cardinal and ordinal, occur after the noun (N-NUM) in (478) and (479). Tedim is a noun classifier language. So numeral occurs after N-CLF construction as given in example (480).

(478) mí nìʔ
   person two
   ‘Two people/person’

(479) în xàtnā
   house first
   ‘The first house’

(480) sám-zāŋ xàt
   hair-CLF.strand one
   ‘one strand of hair’

7.3.11 Degree Word and Adjective
Degree word always follow adjectives (AdjDeg):

(481) liàn pēn
   big TOP
   ‘biggest’

(482) hɔìʔ luā
   good very
   ‘very good’

7.3.12 Genitive and Possessed Noun
The genitive precedes the possessed noun in Tedim Chin. This is a common characteristic of OV languages.

(483) niāŋpí nú
   Niangpi.GEN mother
   ‘Niangpi’s mother’
7.3.13 Negative Particles and Verb
The order of negative marker and verb is VNeg. Dryer (2008: 72) stated that “negative morphemes in Tibeto-Burman languages are either affixes or particles”. This holds true for Tedim Chin. The negative suffix -lɔù follows the verb as illustrated in example (484):

(484) túnī  guàʔ  zù-lɔù
today  rain  pour.1-NEG.1
‘Today, it didn’t rain’

7.3.14 Manner Adverbs and Verbs
Manner adverb can precede or follow the main verb. Dryer (2008: 18) mentioned that in Tedim Chin the preferred position for manner adverbs is after the verb. He did not discuss about the alternative position for the occurrence of manner adverbs. The examples (485) and (486) show manner adverb appearing before and after the verb in Tedim Chin.

(485) dəmtákīn  paī  ɔú
slowly  go.1  IMP
‘go slowly’

(486) nāk  dál~dàl
breathe.1  noisy
‘breathe/snore loudly’

Another type of construction in example (488) involves the verb in its Stem 2 form in Tedim Chin. The manner adverb precedes the verb. This is also seen in Mikir (Grüssner 1978: 136 cf. Dryer 2008: 20). Mikir (Karbi) does not seem to have Stem 2 verb.

Mikir:
(487) loséy  ingplòng  serák-ló
horse run  fast-TA
‘A horse runs fast’
Tedim:

(488) mštǝ hǝ́t-tǝ́
vehicle fast-run.2
‘A vehicle runs fast’

7.3.15 Question Particles

The question particle in Tedim Chin occurs at the end of the sentence. It can also occur with wh-question which occurs at the beginning of the sentence.

(489) nǝ́ paî-út hí-á
2SG go.1-want.1 COP-Q
‘Do you want to go?’

(490) kɔí-ǝ́? téŋ ná hí-á
where-LOC live.1 2SG COP-Q
‘Where do you live?’

7.4 Non-declarative Speech Acts

This section describes the types of speech acts in Tedim Chin. Interrogatives, imperatives and hortative are discussed in this section. It is important to briefly look into declarative clause in order to get background information for better understanding about the non-declarative clause type. A declarative clause type is a clause which simply asserts information (Payne 1997: 294). It is an unmarked clause type in many languages with Tibetan as an exception which has marker for declarative clause. In Tedim Chin, the declarative clause is marked in informal speech with ‘e’ or ‘ei’ which both occurs at the final position. ‘e’ is the more polite form of marking declarative and ‘ei’ gives a strong assertion as compared to ‘e’.

(491) dǝ́m kım úŋ čè
heal.1 complete 1PL.RLS DECL
‘We are all fine’

(492) dǝ́m kım úŋ ēí
heal.1 complete 1PL.RLS DECL
‘We are all fine’
7.4.1 Interrogatives
Interrogative clause is of two types: yes-no questions and question word questions. It is used to seek information from the addressee (Aikhenvald 2015: 236).

7.4.1.1 Yes-No Questions
In yes-no question, the answer is expected to be given with “yes” or “no”. It is also called polar interrogatives (Hartmann 2009: 310). However, if a person is polite, he/she repeats part of the yes-no question after replying it with either yes or no.

(493) nà pá tʰɔ́u-tà mɔ̀
    2POSS father get up-PFV Q
    ‘Has your father got up already?’

(494) hè kà pá tʰɔ́u-tà
    yes 2POSS father get up-PFV
    ‘Yes, my father has got up already’

7.4.1.2 Intonation
Intonation is used to mark various moods of the sentence. The function of intonation is to raise a question. The intention of the speaker depends on the nature of intonation; if a sentence ends with an abrupt short high pitch, the speaker gives a message that either he/she is not happy with the person or he/she knows the answer beforehand and is confirming from the other person. In Mizo, mɔ̀ or àà is used to clarify or question a statement (Chhangte 1993: 155). In example (496), the speaker confirmed from the other person what he/she had already heard previously with a level pitch.

(495) pà mɔ̀
    go.1 Q
    ‘Did you go/You go?’

(496) pà mɔ̀
    go.1 Q
    ‘You go?’
7.4.1.3 Interrogative Particle

Interrogative particles such as ‘hia’ and ‘dia’ can alternate with ‘hiam’ and ‘diam’. ‘hia’ and ‘dia’ are more casual and used in informal occasion whereas ‘hiam’ and ‘diam’ are more formal. The question particle ‘diam’ is a combination of ‘diŋ’ which is an irrealis marker and ‘hiam’ the question particle itself. When ‘diam’ is used, it also functions as a request to the other person to whom the question is targeted.

(497) vɔ̀k-té án nà piá hi-àm
pig-PL food 2SG give.1 COP-Q
‘Did you feed the pigs?’

(498) vɔ̀k-té án nà piá diàm
pig-PL food 2SG give.1 PURP-Q
‘Will you feed the pigs?’

7.4.1.4 Tag Questions

Tag question is a form of yes/no question. It is a common phenomena that there is another way of forming question in languages employing tag questions. The expected response from the other person is an affirmative answer. In (499), the subject agreement and its counterpart nàŋ and nà occurs in the same clause. In (500), the subject can be dropped while the meaning still remains the same.

(499) nàŋ ciàʔ diŋ hi-màʔ lù ná
2SG return home PURP COP.EMPH NEG.1 2SG
hf-á
COP-Q
‘You are going home, aren’t you?’

(500) mú hì-màʔ lù ná hf-á
see.1 COP-EMPH NEG.1 2SG COP-Q
‘You had seen, hadn’t you?’
7.4.1.5 Question Word Questions

Question words are formed from other question words in Tedim Chin. There are three basic question words. These are: bàŋ ‘what’, kuà ‘who’ and kɔí ‘which’. The other question words originated from these three words.

(501) bàŋ ‘what’  bàŋháŋ ‘why’
    kuà ‘who’  kuāá ‘whose’
    kuàn ‘whom’
    kɔí ‘which’  kɔíàɁ ‘where’
    cıkciáŋ ‘when’

With regard to the position, the question word occurs in situ or it can move to the front like most OV languages in the world. When the question word is in situ, the verb is in Stem1 and when the question word is in sentence initial position, the verb is in Stem 2.

(502) náŋ  tú zĩsāŋ  bàŋ  né
    2SG now morning what eat.1
    ‘What did you eat this morning?’

(503) tú zĩsāŋ  bàŋ nä  né
    now morning what 2SG eat.1
    ‘What did you eat this morning?’
    (Lit.: This morning what did you eat?)

(504) tú zĩsāŋ  bàŋ-à  nä  nèk
    now morning what-Q 2SG eat.2
    ‘What did you eat this morning?’
    (Lit.: What is it that you eat this morning?)

The question word can occur with the interrogative particle in an interrogative clause and it always precedes the interrogative particle.
7.4.2 Imperatives

Payne (1997: 303) describes imperatives as verb forms or construction types that are used to directly command the addressee to perform some action. It is usually understood to refer to second person subjects. In imperative clauses, both Stem 1 and Stem 2 verbs are used. Stem 1 verb is used in a simple imperative construction. Stem 2 verbs are used when the verb is followed by verbal suffixes such as comitative, causative etc. The presence of the imperative markers in (506) and (507) makes the sentence sound more polite to the second person or to the one referred to as compared to bare imperative.

(506) paī ɔú
   go.1 IMP
   ‘Go’

(507) tú vē
   sit.1 IMP
   ‘Sit’

The purposive marker dīŋ can be dropped in the imperative clause. It does not affect the semantics of the whole clause.

(508) māŋnú (á-dīŋ) xèdāp tʰák leì-sàk ɔú
   Mangnu (GEN-PURP) shoe new buy.2-BENF IMP
   ‘Buy new shoes for Mangnu’

An imperative clause can also take an ergative case marker with the subject as illustrated in (509).

(509) māŋnú-ìn liànpú á-dīŋ xèdāp tʰák xàt
   Mangnu-ERG Lianpu (GEN-PURP) shoe new one
lei-sàk ɔú
buy.2-BENF IMP
‘Mangnu, (you) buy a new pair of shoes for Lianpu’

7.4.2.1 Bare Stem Imperative
This imperative is not overtly marked by separate morpheme but it is harshly used with abrupt pitch so that the other person is commanded to carry out an action. It is commonly used when a person is charged with his/her misbehaviour or given authoritative command.

(510) gén
say.1
‘say’

(511) tū
sit.1
‘sit’

7.4.2.2 Jussive
Jussive is a type of imperative which involves a third person. It involves participants where one of them is in a position to grant permission to the other as in giving blessing, allow action to be carried out etc. It also expresses the wish of the speaker which may or may not have happened earlier. It is commonly used in church and other formal settings.

(512) xuávāk ɔ́ m hèn
light EXIST JUS
‘Let there be light’

(513) tū úʔ hèn
sit.1 PL JUS
‘Let them sit (be seated)’
7.4.2.3 Negative Imperative
In negative imperative or prohibitive, the negative particle keí is used to negate the imperative clause.

(514) paí keí ū
go.1 NEG IMP
‘Don’t go’

(515) taí keí ū
run.1 NEG IMP
‘Don’t run’

7.4.3 Hortative
A hortative is marked by nì which indicates first person plural pronoun. The action always involves two people. It is inclusive of the speaker and the second person.

(516) lá sà nì
song sing.1 HORT
‘Let us sing (a song)’

(517) án huán īn né-baiʔ nì
food cook.1 CONJ eat.1-early HORT
‘Let us cook and eat food early’

7.5 Clause Combination
Clause combination is discussed under four sub-sections: adverbial clauses, complement clauses, relative clauses and co-ordinate clauses.

7.5.1 Adverbial Clauses
An adverbial clause functions as a verb phrase or whole clause modifier (Payne 1997: 316, 317). As the name adverbial suggests, it has an adverbial function in the clause and are also termed as adjuncts. It adds information such as purpose, reason etc. to the verb. The examples below show various functions of adverbial clause. The first example has an adverbial particle diŋ which marks for purpose. It is preceded by the Stem 1 verb. The particle in usually follows the main verb and the adverbial
particles. Payne had listed various adverbials for different types of clauses which are also examined here. Adverbial clauses are discussed under various heading namely temporal clauses, manner clauses, purpose clauses, reason clauses and conditional clauses.

7.5.1.1 Time

A temporal clause has three types of temporal adverbial function which follows the verb and locates the time as before, after and between.

(518) kà án nèk-má ín ki-síl másà
1POSS food eat.2-before CONJ REFLE-wash.1 first

níŋ
1SG.IRR

‘Before I eat food, I will take bath first’

(519) ká nà sèp-xìt ciāŋ tɔ̀ ldām út
1POSS thing work.2-after TEMP rest want.1

ìŋ
1SG.RLS

‘After I work, I want to rest’

(520) ká ɔ́ m-lɔùɁ-kál ín ná
1POSS EXIST-NEG.2-between CONJ 2SG

kàp-keí cù
cry.1-NEG IMP

‘While I was away, please don’t cry’


7.5.1.2 Manner

A manner clause talks about a manner which can be literally translated as ‘the way an action is undertaken’ (Payne 1997: 318).

(521) á ṅèt bàŋ īn ǹà? lè? út ǹj
3SG ask.2 like CONJ receive COND want.1 1SG.RLS
‘I want him/her to get it like the way he/she asks’

7.5.1.3 Purpose

The irrealis marker \textit{diŋ} can function as a purposive marker. It states the purpose of the action which is performed by the subject.

(522) kà pà mé? leí dìŋ īn
1POSS father curry buy.1 PURP CONJ
vák-xià
roam.1-away
‘My father came out to buy (for buying) vegetables’

7.5.1.4 Reason

A reason clause states that an action is a reason for another action to occur. It has a cause and effect relationship. It is observed in a language like Yoruba (Payne 1997: 318) that purpose and reason clause are treated alike; the only difference being the use of irrealis marker in purpose clause. The example illustrates reason clause in Tedim Chin with \textit{háŋ} followed by \textit{ǹ} as the marker for this type of clause.

(523) dàmlɔù unná háŋ īn sáŋnaūpáŋ támpí sáŋ kà?
sickness reason CONJ student many school attend.1
tʰeì-lɔù ùʔ
able.1-NEG.1 PL
‘Due to sickness, many students could not attend classes’

In the example given below, the adverbial particle is \textit{mánîn} which functions for result. It modifies the Stem 2 verb.

---

203
204

(524) ní tʰūm-sūŋ  guàɁ zùk  máŋ  įn
day three-within rain pour.2 result CONJ
tuí-lét
water-overflow
‘There is flood because of three days rain’

7.5.1.5 Simultaneous
Simultaneous clause talks about what is happening while one action takes place.
(525) ká tut-sūŋ  įn  xuā  ɔ́  ŋ  miál  pà?
1SG sit.2-within CONJ village toward dark soon
‘While I was sitting, it soon became/gets dark’

(526) sā̞ŋ ká kāʔ-sūŋ  įn  mí-kāŋ  paú
school 1SG attend-within CONJ person-white language

sín įŋ
learn.1 1SG.RLS
‘While I was studying, I learn English’

7.5.1.6 Conditional
A conditional clause conditioned an action and highlights the result. Conditional clauses in Tedim Chin are analysed based on Payne (1997). These are of four types given as below:

7.5.1.6.1 Simple
A simple conditional clause is marked by lèʔ.
(527) guāʔ á zúk lèʔ kà puán pʰɔú-té
rain 3SG drizzle COND 1POSS cloth spread-PL

kót įŋ
wet PURP
‘If it rains, my clothes will get wet’
7.5.1.6.2 Hypothetical

In a hypothetical conditional clause, the affirmative marker precedes the conditional marker lèŋ.

(528) naūpáŋ xát hì lèŋ ü-té tʰú màn-sɔm
child one COP COND elder-PL word obey.2-plan

níŋ
1SG.IRR
‘If I were a child, I’ll try to obey my elders’

7.5.1.6.3 Counterfactual

A counterfactual clause is marked by lècìn.

(529) ín-àʔ ɔ́ m hì-lècìn ɔ́ ng mù díŋ
house-LOC EXIST COP-COND toward see.1 PURP

naivè
2SG.COP.IMP
‘If you had been at home, you would have seen me’

7.5.1.6.4 Concessive Conditional

A concessive conditional is marked by tálèʔ.

(530) nī sá tálèʔ zɔ̀ paí vèvè ni
sun hot PFV-COND also go.1 still 1PL.INCL
‘Even if it’s sunny also, we’ll still go’

7.5.1.6.5 Negative Conditional

A negative conditional occurs only when the condition is fulfilled, if not, it does not occur at all.

(531) guāʔ á zùk-keǐ buāŋ lèʔ puán sɔ́ p díŋ
rain 3SG rain.2-NEG unless COND cloth wash.1 PURP
‘Unless it rains, we’ll wash cloths’
7.5.1.6.6 Concessive Clause
A concessive clause states that the action is not stopped even if there is some restriction.

(532) á xè á nàt hàŋ ìn ámá-n
   3POSS leg 3SG pain.2 reason CONJ 3SG-ERG

bɔ̀lùŋ suũ vè~vè
ball kick.1 still

‘Although his leg is paining, he still kicks ball’

7.5.1.6.7 Substitutive
In substitutive, there is a replacement or alternative means of doing things instead of carrying out the regular way. It is marked by sáŋ.

(533) kɔú ín-àɁ mèɁ huàn sáŋ cì ín
   1PL.INCL house-LOC curry cook.2 instead say.1 CONJ

sá mĩn-sá leifié-
meat cook.1-already buy.1-simply

‘We simply bought cooked meat instead of cooking/preparing curry at home, we say’

7.5.1.6.8 Additive
In an additive adverbial clause, there is an additional action to be undertaken apart from what was expected.

(534) á vɔ̀t bàn-àɁ puánlūm gînã 5m-1sú
   3SG cold next-LOC sweater proper EXIST-NEG.1

‘In addition to being cold, there is no proper sweater’

7.5.2 Relative Clauses
A relative clause as defined in Subbarao (2012 cf. Riemsdijk 2006: 338) is “a clause that modifies a phrasal constituent, generally a noun phrase. We call the noun phrase that is so modified the head of the relative clause”. The examples show relative clauses construction in Tedim Chin. A relative clause is formed by a definite marker, an agentive/instrumental nominalizer or locative nominalizer.
(535) tuā tēʔ á nāsēm-tē zāŋ lēŋtōŋhɔíʔ
DEM TEMP 3POSS servant-PL also Lengtonghoih

tuā sām-zāŋ neí pēn zāŋ dīŋ
DEM hair-CLF.strand have.1 TOP search.1 PURP

ā kuán Ạ̀ʔ
ADV go.1 PL

‘Then, the servants also went to search for e owner of that hairstrand’ [VKC, LS 021]

(536) kà ín-tūŋ Ạ̀ʔ pēn ā sān
1POSS house-above PL TOP 3SG red

‘The red roof is our house’

7.5.3 Complement Clauses
A complement clause is a clause that functions as an argument (subject or object) of some other clause (Noonan 1985 as cited in Payne 1997: 313). It can also be said that a complement clause is an embedded clause within another clause (Foley and Van Valin 1984 as cited in Payne 1997: 313). A complement can be either subject or object of the matrix clause.

Tedim Chin has two types of complement clauses, namely, finite and non-finite complements.

7.5.3.1 Finite Complements
A prototypical complements are like independent clauses which is characterised by the following features (Payne 1997: 314):

(i) They carry their own tense and aspect
(ii) They express their subjects directly; subject reference is not restricted to that of the matrix clause

In Tedim Chin, finite complement is formed by Stem 1 verb. It occurs at clause final position. In example (525), the complementizer is marked with cì.
‘My friend said, “I will visit you”’

7.5.3.2 Non-finite Complements
Unlike finite complements, non-finite complements are more tightly knit, less independent, less like a separate clause from the matrix clause than are finite complements (Payne 1997: 315). A non-finite complements usually occurs with Stem 2 verbs. This verb has by itself nominal characteristics.

‘I know that it is raining’

7.5.4 Co-ordinate Clauses
When two clauses of equal grammatical status are linked together by various means, it is termed as co-ordination (Payne 1997: 336). Phrases and clauses use two different particles to co-ordinate. Noun phrase co-ordination is already discussed in §3.3.6.6. Co-ordination is discussed under conjunction and disjunction following Payne (1997).

7.5.4.1 Conjunction
Conjunction as described in Payne (1997: 339) is a logical relationship between propositions. It joined together two propositions where each of the propositions is true. At the phrasal level, two nouns are joined by the conjunction \textit{lèʔ} ‘and’.

‘Thangho and Liando’

Zero strategy is used when two phrases or clauses are simply juxtaposed (Payne 1985 as cited in Payne 1997). Here, \textit{bè ânk automát lèʔ mèʔnàł} form a clause which is juxtaposed to one another. The only interfering element in the clause is the conjunction.
(540) bè ánkâm lèʔ mèʔnál huàn-āʔ cīŋ
    bean mustard and ladiesfinger garden-LOC grow.1

ìŋ
    1SG.RLS
    ‘I grow bean, mustard and ladiesfinger in the garden’

Clauses are joined together by a conjunctive particle in.
(541) tʰāŋhɔù tū ín liàndɔū dīŋ
    Thangho sit.1 CONJ Liando stand.1
    ‘Thangho sits while/whereas Liando stands’

7.5.4.2 Disjunction
Disjunction, like conjunction, is also a logical relationship between propositions
(Payne 1997: 339). This type of relationship is marked by áhìʔkèʔ which literally
means ‘if not then’. It states that one of the propositions is true but not both.
(542) náŋ hi-ám áhìʔkèʔ keí hi-ám
    2SG COP-Q 3SG.COP.NEG.COND 1SG COP-Q

    xàt zɔ~zɔ í paì-kúl vé
    one either 1PL.POSS go.2-need IMP
    ‘You or I, either one of us have/need to go’
      (Lit.:’If not you, then I, either one of us have to go’)

209